ResearchOnline@JCU



This file is part of the following work:

Hayashi, Shiyo (2009) Chemical investigation of aromatic and medicinal plants from the New Guinea highlands and North Queensland. Masters (Research) Thesis, James Cook University.

Access to this file is available from: https://doi.org/10.25903/pjcg%2Ds024

The author has certified to JCU that they have made a reasonable effort to gain permission and acknowledge the owners of any third party copyright material included in this document. If you believe that this is not the case, please email researchonline@jcu.edu.au

Chemical investigation of Aromatic and Medicinal plants from the New Guinea highlands and North Queensland

Thesis submitted by

Shiyo Hayashi B. Pharm (Meiji Pharmaceutical University)

in July 2009

for the degree of Master of Pharmacy

in the School of Pharmacy and Molecular Sciences

James Cook University of North Queensland

Statement of Access

I, the undersigned author of this thesis, understand that James Cook University of North Queensland will make this thesis available for use within the university library and by microfilm or other photographic means, allow access to users in other approved libraries.

I understand that, as an unpublished work, a thesis has significant protection under the Copyright act, and do not wish to place any restriction on access to this thesis.

Shiyo Hayashi

Statement regarding the electronic copy

I, the undersigned author of this thesis, declare that the electronic copy provided to the library of James Cook University of North Queensland is an accurate copy of the printed thesis submitted, within the limits of technology available.

Shiyo Hayashi

Statement of Sources

I, the undersigned, declare that this thesis is my own work and has not been submitted in any form for another degree or diploma at any university or other institution of tertiary education. Information derived from the published or unpublished work of others has been acknowledged in the text and a list of references is given.

Shiyo Hayashi

Statement of the contribution of others

I, the undersigned author of this thesis, acknowledge the contribution of others to this work. Substantial supervision was provided by A/Prof. Bruce Bowden (School of Pharmacy and Molecular Sciences, JCU; primary supervision) and Prof. Beverley Glass (School of Pharmacy and Molecular Sciences, JCU; co-supervision). Editorial assistance in the preparation of this thesis was provided by A/Prof. Bruce Bowden.

Plant essential oils from PNG were offered by Dr Stewart Wossa (Goroka University, PNG) and assistance in identifying the plant species collected on JCU Douglas campus was provided by A/Prof. Betsy Jackes (School of Marine and Tropical Biology, JCU). Assistance in the antimicrobial assays was provided by Dr Gabriel Padilla, Dr Jeffrey Warner and Ms Kerryn Price-Wilson (School of Veterinary and Biomedical Sciences, JCU). Dr Shane Askew (School of Pharmacy and Molecular Sciences, JCU) performed Gas Chromatography - Mass Spectrometry (GC-MS). Dr Catherine Liptrot at the Australian Institute of Marine Science, Townsville, and Dr Anna-Marie Babey (School of Veterinary and Biomedical Sciences, JCU) performed cytotoxic assays and Dr Cherrie Motti (Australian Institute of Marine Science, Townsville) performed Mass Spectrometry (MS) on samples.

Shiyo Hayashi

Acknowledgements

I would like to thank A/Prof. Bruce Bowden for his supervision, advice and support throughout the course of this work. I am also grateful to Prof. Beverley Glass for her supervision and support.

Thanks are extended to Dr Stewart Wossa (Goroka University, PNG) for offering the essential oils and A/Prof. Betsy Jackes (School of Marine and Tropical Biology, JCU) for identifying the plant species collected on JCU Douglas campus. I am also thankful to Dr Gabriel Padilla, Dr Jeffrey Warner and Ms Kerryn Price-Wilson (School of Veterinary and Biomedical Sciences, JCU) for their assistance in the antimicrobial assays and Dr Shane Askew (School of Pharmacy and Molecular Sciences, JCU) for performing Gas Chromatography - Mass Spectrometry (GC-MS). Dr Catherine Liptrot (Australian Institute of Marine Science, Townsville) and Dr Anna-Marie Babey (School of Veterinary and Biomedical Sciences, JCU) are acknowledged for performing cytotoxic assays and Dr Cherrie Motti (Australian Institute of Marine Science, Townsville) for performing Mass Spectrometry (MS).

Finally, I wish to thank my family for supporting me with love during the studies in Australia.

Abstract

Various aromatic and medicinal plant species from the New Guinea highlands and North Queensland were investigated to discover and characterise new molecular entities with useful pharmacological properties, which could potentially become lead compounds for the development of new drug products.

A new optically active diterpene ester was isolated from the plant species Stylosanthes hamata and its structure determined using spectroscopic technique (¹H, ¹³C, HSQC, HMBC and COSY). It is the 3-hydroxy-3-methyl glutarate ester of cativol, a diterpene previously reported from Halimium viscosum. Some components of crude essential oil samples were identified without the need for separation of their mixture by the use of gradient selective NMR techniques. A total of twenty-six known compounds were identified by either this method or by separating and analysing the essential oils of various species from the New Guinea highlands and North Queensland. They included; monoterpenes, sesquiterpenes, acetate-derived metabolites such the as acetogenins/polyketides methyl salicylate and gibbilimbols, and shikimic acid-derived metabolites such as dillapiole and trans-anethole. Some of the minor components detected in one species were the same as major components in other essential oil samples and it is suspected that cross contamination may have occurred during the essential oil distillation in PNG. This problem will make publications of results difficult unless uncontaminated samples are available for comparison.

Cytotoxic and antimicrobial assays were performed on all essential oils and extracts.

Although some essential oil samples displayed cytotoxicity, the levels were considered too low to warrant further investigation. The antimicrobial assays employed included the use of six gram positive and six gram negative bacteria as well as one yeast and five fungi. The major components of the distillates that produced a large zone of inhibition in the initial screening were selected and retested against the microbes. All of the metabolites tested showed lower activity than the crude extracts. This may be due the presence of minor components in the distillates that have much greater activity or synergistic effects from other oil components.

Table of Contents

Statement of Access
Statement regarding the electronic copy
Statement of Sources
Statement of the contribution of others
Acknowledgements
Abstract
Table of Contents
List of Tables
List of Figures
List of Abbreviations

CHAPTER 1. Introduction 1		
1.1 General Introduction	1	
1.2 Medicinal plants	1	
1.3 The aim of this study	3	
1.4 Literature review of the species	3	
1.4.1 Tithonia diversifolia (Hemsl.) A. Gray (Asteraceae)	3	
1.4.2 Tagetes spp. (Asteraceae)	6	
1.4.3 Polygala paniculata L. (Polygalaceae)	8	
1.4.4 <i>Euodia sp</i> . (Rutaceae)1	0	
1.4.5 Cymbopogon citratus Stapf. (Poaceae)1	2	
1.4.6 <i>Ricinus communis</i> L. (Euphorbiaceae)1	3	
1.4.7 <i>Piper aduncum</i> L. (Piperaceae)1	4	

1.4.8 Piper gibbilimbum C. DC (Piperaceae)	.17
1.4.9 unidentified species 'Gorgor' (Zingiberaceae)	.18
1.4.10 Dacrydium spp. (Podocarpaceae)	.19
1.4.11 Eucalyptus tereticornis Smith (Myrtaceae)	.21
1.4.12 Eucalyptus grandis W.Hill ex Maiden (Myrtaceae)	.23
1.4.13 Melaleuca leucadendron L. (Myrtaceae)	.24
1.4.14 Euroschinus falcatus Hook.f. (Anacardiaceae)	.26
1.4.15 Schinus terebinthifolius Raddi (Anacardiaceae)	.26
1.4.16 Stylosanthes hamata (L.) Taub. (Leguminosae)	.28

CHAPTER 2. Results and Discussion	29
2.1 General discussion	29
2.2 Compounds identified from the collected species	31
2.2.1 Tithonia diversifolia (leaves)	32
2.2.2 Tagetes spp. (leaves)	35
2.2.3 Polygala paniculata L. (roots)	
2.2.4 'Newton grass' (leaves)	
2.2.5 unidentified species (leaves)	40
2.2.6 Euodia sp. (leaves)	51
2.2.7 Cymbopogon citratus Stapf. (leaves)	56
2.2.8 Ricinus communis (leaves)	67
2.2.9 Piper aduncum (leaves)	69
2.2.10 Piper gibbilimbum (leaves)	70
2.2.11 Piper gibbilimbum (fruits)	72

	2.2.12 'Gorgor' (leaves)	72
	2.2.13 'Hane grass' (leaves)	78
	2.2.14 Dacrydium spp. (leaves)	80
	2.2.15 Eucalyptus sp. (leaves)	80
	2.2.16 Eucalyptus tereticornis (leaves)	80
	2.2.17 Eucalyptus grandis (leaves)	81
	2.2.18 Melaleuca leucadendron (leaves)	81
	2.2.19 Euroschinus falcatus (leaves)	83
	2.2.20 Schinus terebinthifolius (leaves)	92
	2.2.21 Stylosanthes hamata (leaves)	92
2	.3 Summary	102
2	.4 Antimicrobial assay	104
2	.5 Cytotoxicity assay	107

CHAPTER 3. Experimental		
3.1 General Experimental Procedures	109	
3.1.1 Solvents	109	
3.1.2 Instrumentation	109	
3.1.2.1 NMR Spectrometry	109	
3.1.2.2 Mass Spectrometry (MS)	109	
3.1.2.3 Infrared Spectroscopy (IR)	109	
$_3.1.2.4$ Optical Rotations ([α] _D)	110	
3.1.2.5 Circular Dichroism (CD)	110	
3.1.2.6 Column Chromatography	110	

3.1.2.7 Thin Layer Chromatography (TLC) 1	10
3.1.2.8 Gas Chromatography (GC)1	10
3.1.2.9 Gas Chromatography-Mass Spectrometry (GC-MS) 1	11
3.1.2.10 High Performance Liquid Chromatography (HPLC) 1	11
3.2 Bioassays 1	12
3.2.1 Antimicrobial Assay	12
3.2.2 Cytotoxicity Assay 1	12
3.3 Plant selection and extraction	13
3.3.1 Identification of components in essential oils	14
3.3.2 Isolation and identification of components from crude extracts	16

References	
Appendices	

List of Tables

- Table 1. ¹H NMR (600 MHz), ¹³C NMR (150 MHz) and HMBC data of spathulenol in CDCl₃
- Table 2. ¹H NMR (600 MHz), ¹³C NMR (150 MHz) and HMBC data of piperitone in CDCl₃
- Table 3. ¹H NMR (300 MHz), ¹³C NMR (75 MHz) and HMBC data of methyl salicylate in CDCl₃
- Table 4. ¹H NMR (300 MHz), ¹³C NMR (75 MHz) and HMBC data of carvacrol in CDCl₃
- Table 5. ¹H NMR (300 MHz), ¹³C NMR (75 MHz) and HMBC data of camphor in CDCl₃
- Table 6. ¹H NMR (300 MHz), ¹³C NMR (75 MHz) and HMBC data of α-pinene in CDCl₃
- Table 7. ¹H NMR (300 MHz), ¹³C NMR (75 MHz) and HMBC data of 3-carene in CDCl₃
- Table 8. ¹H NMR (300 MHz), ¹³C NMR (75 MHz) and HMBC data of *p*-cymene in CDCl₃
- Table 9. ¹H NMR (600 MHz), ¹³C NMR (150 MHz) and HMBC data of β-caryophyllene in CDCl₃
- Table 10. ¹H NMR (600 MHz), ¹³C NMR (150 MHz) and HMBC data of caryophyllene oxide in CDCl₃
- Table 11. ¹H NMR (300 MHz), ¹³C NMR (75 MHz) and HMBC data of geranial in CDCl₃
- Table 12. ¹H NMR (600 MHz), ¹³C NMR and HMBC data of neral in CDCl₃
- Table 13. ¹H NMR (600 MHz), ¹³C NMR (150 MHz) and HMBC data of viridiflorol in CDCl₃
- Table 14. ¹H NMR (600 MHz), ¹³C NMR (150 MHz) and HMBC data of ledol in CDCl₃
- Table 15. ¹H NMR (600 MHz), ¹³C NMR (150 MHz) and HMBC data of geraniol in CDCl₃
- Table 16. ¹H NMR (600 MHz), ¹³C NMR (150 MHz) and HMBC data of dillapiole in CDCl₃
- Table 17. ¹H NMR (300 MHz), ¹³C NMR (75 MHz) and HMBC data of gibbilimbol C in CDCl₃
- Table 18. ¹H NMR (300 MHz), ¹³C NMR (75 MHz) and HMBC data for gibbilimbol D in CDCl₃
- Table 19. ¹H NMR (600 MHz), ¹³C NMR (150 MHz) and HMBC data of β -pinene in CDCl₃

- Table 20. ^1H NMR (600 MHz), ^{13}C NMR (150 MHz) and HMBC data of $\beta\text{-farnesene}$ in CDCl3
- Table 21. ¹H NMR (600 MHz), ¹³C NMR (150 MHz) and HMBC data of *trans*-anethole in CDCl₃
- Table 22. ¹H NMR (600 MHz), ¹³C NMR (600 MHz) and HMBC data of 1,8-cineole in CDCl₃
- Table 23. ¹H NMR (300 MHz), ¹³C NMR (75 MHz) and HMBC data of γ-terpinene in CDCl₃
- Table 24. ¹H NMR (600 MHz), ¹³C NMR (150 MHz) and HMBC data of limonene in CDCl₃
- Table 25. ¹H NMR (600 MHz), ¹³C NMR (150 MHz) and HMBC data of terpinolene in CDCl₃
- Table 26. ¹H NMR (600 MHz), ¹³C NMR (150 MHz) and HMBC data of myrcene in CDCl₃
- Table 27. Comparison of ¹³C NMR data (MHz) of cativol and (66) (C-1 to C-20)
- Table 28. ¹H NMR (600 MHz), ¹³C NMR (75 MHz) and HMBC data of (66) in CDCl₃
- Table 29. Compounds identified from the collected species
- Table 30a. Diameter of zone of inhibition (mm); '-' indicates no observed inhibition
- Table 30b. Diameter of zone of inhibition (mm); '-' indicates no observed inhibition
- Table 31. Diameter of zone of inhibition (mm) for individual components; '-' indicates no observed inhibition
- Table 32a. GI₅₀ values for different cell lines
- Table 32b. GI₅₀ values for mouse lymphoma cell line (P388D1)
- Table 33. Species for which steam distillates/extracts were obtained

List of Figures

- Figure 1. Gradient selective TOCSY (600 MHz) from excitation centered on $\delta 0.47$ of spathulenol in CDCl₃
- Figure 2. Gradient selective TOCSY (600 MHz) from excitation centered on δ5.81 of piperitone in CDCl₃
- Figure 3. ¹H NMR spectrum (300 MHz) of the *Poligala paniculata* root oil in CDCl₃ (reference: residual solvent peak at δ7.26)
- Figure 4. ¹H NMR spectrum (600 MHz) of the unidentified species crude essential oil, showing the identified components labelled (reference: residual solvent peak at δ 7.26)
- Figure 5. ¹H NMR spectrum (300 MHz) of carvacrol (isolated by HPLC) in CDCl₃ (reference: residual solvent peak at δ 7.26)
- Figure 6. ¹H NMR spectrum (300 MHz) of camphor in CDCl₃
- Figure 7. ¹H NMR spectrum (300 MHz) of α-pinene in CDCl₃
- Figure 8. ¹H NMR spectrum (300 MHz) of 3-carene in CDCl₃
- Figure 9. ¹H NMR spectrum (300 MHz) of *p*-cymene in CDCl₃ (reference: residual solvent peak at δ 7.26)
- Figure 10. ¹H NMR spectrum (600 MHz) of β-caryophyllene (isolated by HPLC) in CDCl₃
- Figure 11. ¹H NMR spectrum (600 MHz) of caryophyllene oxide (isolated by HPLC) in CDCl₃
- Figure 12. ¹H NMR spectrum (300 MHz) of geranial and neral in CDCl₃ (reference: residual solvent peak at δ7.26)
- Figure 13. Gradient selective TOCSY (600 MHz) from excitation centered on δ0.11 of viridiflorol in CDCl₃
- Figure 14. Gradient selective TOCSY (600 MHz) from excitation centered on δ0.33 of ledol in CDCl₃
- Figure 15. Gradient selective TOCSY (600 MHz) from excitation centered on δ 4.16 of geraniol in CDCl₃
- Figure 16. ¹H NMR spectrum (600 MHz) of dillapiole (isolated by column chromatography) in CDCl₃ (reference: residual solvent peak at δ7.26)
- Figure 17. ¹H NMR spectrum (300 MHz) of the *Piper gibbilimbum* leaf oil in CDCl₃ (reference: residual solvent peak at δ 7.26)

- Figure 18. Gradient selective TOCSY (600 MHz) from excitation centered on δ 4.62 of β -pinene in CDCl₃
- Figure 19. ¹H NMR spectrum (600 MHz) of β -farnesene (isolated by column chromatography) in CDCl₃ (reference: residual solvent peak at δ 7.26)
- Figure 20. ¹H NMR spectrum (600 MHz) of the 'Hane grass' leaf oil in CDCl₃ (reference: residual solvent peak at δ7.26)
- Figure 21. ¹H NMR spectrum (600 MHz) of *Melaleuca leucadendron* leaf oil in CDCl₃
- Figure 22. ¹H NMR spectrum (600 MHz) of γ-terpinene in CDCl₃
- Figure 23. Gradient selective TOCSY (600 MHz) from excitation centered on δ 5.41 of limonene in CDCl₃
- Figure 24. Gradient selective TOCSY (600 MHz) from excitation centered on $\delta 5.38$ of terpinolene in CDCl₃
- Figure 25. Gradient selective TOCSY (600 MHz) from excitation centered on $\delta 5.02$ of myrcene in CDCl₃
- Figure 26. ¹H NMR spectrum (600 MHz) of (66) in CDCl₃
- Figure 27. ¹³C NMR spectrum (75 MHz) of (**66**) in CDCl₃ (reference: solvent peak at 77.2 ppm)
- Figure 28a. Selective HMBC correlations of the 3- hydroxyl-3-methyl glutarate monoester moiety of (66)
- Figure 28b. Selective HMBC correlations of the 6,6-bicyclic ring system of (66)
- Figure 28c. Selective HMBC correlations of the side chain of (66)
- Figure 29. The planar structure of (66)
- Figure 30. IR spectrum of (66)
- Figure 31. CD spectrum of (66) (0.01 M in CHCl₃)
- Figure 32. A zone of inhibition observed on C. neoformans

List of Abbreviations

1D	one dimensional	
2D	two dimensional	
ATCC	CC American Type Culture Collection	
br	broad	
CH ₃ CN	acetonitrile	
CD	Circular Dichroism	
CDCl ₃	deuterated chloroform	
COSY	¹ H ¹ J-Correlated Spectroscopy	
d	doublet	
dd	double doublet	
ddd	doublet of double doublets	
ddt	doublet of double triplets	
DEPT	Distortionless Enhancement by Polarisation Transfer	
dt	double triplet	
EtOAc	ethyl acetate	
ESI	Electrospray Ionisation Mass Spectrometry	
GC	Gas Chromatography	
GC-MS	Gas Chromatography - Mass Spectrometry	
hept	heptet	
НМВС	Heteronuclear Multiple Bond Coherence	
HSQC	Heteronuclear Single Quantum Correlation	
HPLC	High Performance Liquid Chromatography	

IR	Infrared
m	multiplet
МеОН	methanol
mult	multiplicity
MS	Mass Spectrometry
NMR	Nuclear Magnetic Resonance
PDA	photodiode-array
ppm	parts per million
S	singlet
sp.	species (singular)
spp.	species (plural)
t	triplet
td	triple doublet
TLC	Thin Layer Chromatography
TOCSY	Totally Correlated Spectroscopy
UV	ultraviolet
q	quartet

CHAPTER 1 Introduction

1.1 General introduction

Higher plants represent a rich source of new molecules with pharmacological properties that could cause them to be considered as lead compounds for the development of new drug products. During the last few decades, renewed interest in the investigation of natural substances has led to the introduction of several important drugs that are used as chemotherapeutic agents in the fight against cancer. These include some of the early natural anti-cancer substances such as vinblastine, vincristine, and camptothecine derivatives, which are still in use today.¹ In addition, taxol, which was discovered in the 1960's, was approved for clinical use in 2000.²

1.2 Medicinal plants

Plants have been an important part of medicinal practice for thousands of years and are still the mainstay of medical practice in many parts of the world including China, Africa, India, South America and other developing parts of our world. Over the centuries, medicinal herbs have become an important part of daily life in the western world despite significant progress in modern medical and pharmaceutical research. According to a report by the World Bank 1997, the use of plant-based medicines have been increasing all over the world. Nearly 50 percent of medicines on the market are made from natural basic materials.³ Interestingly, the market demand for medicinal herbs is likely to remain high because many of the active ingredients in medicinal plants cannot yet be prepared economically utilising synthetic processes.

Plants have formed the basis of sophisticated traditional medicine systems that extend back thousands of years.⁴ The first cuneiform records of medicinal plants are found on hundreds of clay tablets from Mesopotamia dated about 2600 B.C. These records include mention of approximately 1000 plant derived substances all of which are found today in preparations for the treatment of ailments ranging from coughs and colds to parasitic infections and inflammation.⁵ Egyptian medicine dates from about 1500 B.C. ('Ebers Papyrus') and documents over 700 drugs. The Chinese *Materia Medica* and documentation of the Indian Ayurvedic system both date from about 1000 B.C.^{6, 7} In later years, many other works were formally codified at least Europe in the 1618 publication of the London Pharmacopoeia.

The idea of 'pure' compounds as drugs may be traced back to the 1800s, when the active principles of commonly used plants and herbs such as strychnine, morphine, atropine and colchicine were first isolated. These isolations were then followed by what can be considered the first commercial pure natural product, morphine, by E. Merck in 1826 and the first semi-synthetic pure drug based on a natural product, aspirin, by Bayer in 1899.⁸

Even today, in many countries in Asia, Africa and South America rely on traditional medicines. In China about 40% of the total medicinal consumption is attributed to traditional tribal medicines. In the mid-90s, herbal medicine sales amounted to more than US\$2.5 billion and in Japan herbal medicinal preparations are in greater demand than mainstream pharmaceutical products.⁹

2

1.3 The aim of this study

This project, is part of the wider search for natural drug products, and aimed to investigate medicinal plants for their drug properties. In particular, it aimed to discover and characterise new compounds with pharmacological activity. It focused on cytotoxic activity that might have applications in the development of new anti-cancer agents, and antimicrobial activity that might have some applications in the treatment of those infections that have increasingly developed resistance to conventional antibiotics.

The project investigated aromatic and medicinal highland plants from the Goroka region of PNG through collaboration with Stewart Wossa at the University of Goroka in PNG. In addition, three species were collected on JCU Douglas campus and the essential oil from two, together with a methanol extract of the third, were characterised. Essential oils and plant extracts were screened using *in vitro* cell-based assays to observe cytotoxicity. Culture plates were utilised for antimicrobial activity assays. Many of the essential oils screened were from introduced species that are known to have commercial value, so the project also has potential commercial implications.

1.4 Literature review of the species for which steam distillates have been obtained 1.4.1 *Tithonia diversifolia* (Hemsl.) A. Gray (Asteraceae)

Tithonia diversifolia, commonly known as the Mexican Sunflower, is a 2-5 m tall perennial shrub, that is native to Mexico and also grows in parts of Africa, Australia, Asia, and parts of North America, where it may become locally abundant.¹⁰ Extracts of the aerial parts of *T. diversifolia* have traditionally formed the basis of a decoction for

the treatment of diarrhoea, fever, haematomas, hepatitis, hepatomas, malaria, and wounds.¹¹⁻¹³

Previous phytochemical investigations of T. diversifolia resulted in the isolation of sesquiterpene lactones, cadinanes, chromenes, eudesmanes, flavones, germacranes, and rearranged eudesmane derivatives.¹⁴⁻²¹ Sesquiterpene lactones constitute an important group of secondary metabolites which are common constituents of the family Asteraceae. Many secondary metabolites produced by different plants are harmful to other plant species and help to reduce competition in their natural habitats; this phenomenon is called allelopathy.²² Such plant-derived chemicals are of considerable agronomic interest because of their low level of hazard to nontarget plant species.^{23,24} Baruah et al., described the inhibitory effects of two sesquiterpene lactones tagitinin A (1), tagitinin C (2) and a flavonoid hispidulin (3) on the germination and seedling growth of onion, radish and cucumber seeds. The flavonoid hispidulin was more toxic to the crop seeds tested than tagitinin A that was in turn more toxic than tagitinin C.¹⁸ Other tagitinins [B (4), D (5), E (6) and F (7)] have been reported but without biological testing data. The main anti-plasmodial activity of this plant has been attributed to the sesquiterpene lactone, tagitinin C, that was originally found in *T. tagitiflora*,²⁵ and has subsequently been shown to exhibit significant activity against *Plasmodium falciparum* with IC₅₀ values of 0.95 μ M and 0.72 μ M against the chloroquine-sensitive strain FCA and chloroquine-resistant strain FCB1, respectively.²⁶

The presence of tagitinin C in *T. diversifolia* varies considerably according to the source of the plant material. Thus, whilst tagitinin C has been found in Indian plants,^{17,21} it has

not been described in plants growing in Brazil,¹⁰ Costa Rica¹⁹ or Taiwan.¹⁵





 $R = COCH(CH_3)_2$

1.4.2 Tagetes spp. (Asteraceae)

Tagetes is a genus of 52 species of annual and perennial herbaceous plants in the daisy family (Asteraceae or Compositae). They are native to the area stretching from the southwestern United States into Mexico and south throughout South America.

They are known almost universally in North America as Marigold, Mexican marigolds, African marigolds, or French marigolds. At least one species is a naturalized weed in Africa, Hawaii, and Australia. Neither African or French marigolds come from Africa or France but both are native to Mexico. The different species vary in size from 0.05-2.2 m tall.²⁷

Their foliage has a musky/pungent scent, though some later varieties have been bred to be scentless. This scent is said to deter some common insect pests as well as nematodes. *Tagetes* are hence often used in companion planting. *T. minuta* (Khakibush), originally from South America, has been used as a source of essential oil, known as tagette, for the perfume industry as well as a flavourant in the food and tobacco industries in South Africa, where the species is also a useful pioneer plant in the reclamation of disturbed

land. Some of the perennial species are deer, rabbit, rodent and javalina resistant.²⁸ The marigold is also widely cultivated in India and Thailand, particularly the species *T. erecta*, *T. patula*, and *T. tenuifolia*. Vast quantities of marigolds are used in garlands and decoration for weddings, festivals, and religious events.²⁸ In Chinese traditional medicine the flowers of *T. erecta* are used to cure colds, coughs and ailments and the distilled oils are used against warts.²⁷

Some species of *Tagetes* have been extensively studied for the composition of their essential oil,^{29,30} and for biological activities.³¹ Monoterpenes [eg. ocimene (8) and the ketones ocimenone (9) and *cis*-tagetone (10)], thienvl acetylenic compounds³² and thiophenes [eg. 3'-methoxy-2,2':5',2"-terthiophene, (11)]³³ have been found as major constituents in species such as T. terniflora, T. mandonii, T. minuta, T. filifolia, T. lucida, T. patula and T. erecta. In 2002 a new flavonol glycoside [quercetagenin 3,4'-dimethy] ether 7-O-B-D-glucopyranoside (12)] and two new phenolic acids [3-(2-O-B-Dglucopyranosyl-4-methoxyphenyl)propanoic acid (13) and its methyl ester (14)] were isolated from the leaves of T. lucida.³⁴ T. terniflora has been found to possess toxicity (in vitro) against the brine shrimp Artemia salina.²⁹ Larvicidal activity was also tested in the essential oil of T. patula which showed a potent activity against the mosquito species Aedes aegypti.³⁵ The essential oil of T. terniflora³⁶ and T. lucida have been reported to possess antibacterial activity against Staphylococcus aureus, Streptococcus pneumoniae, S. pvogenes,³⁷ Escherichia coli, Salmonella enteritidis, S. typhi, Shigella dysenteriae and S. flexneri.³⁸ The antibacterial and antifungal activity of the essential oil of *T. minuta* and *T. tilifolia* has also been reported.³⁹





 $Glc = \beta$ -D-glucopyranosyl

 $R = H: 3-(2-O-\beta-D-glucopyranosyl-4-methoxyphenyl)$ propanoic acid (13) $R = CH_3:$ methyl 3-(2-O- β -D-glucopyranosyl-4-methoxyphenyl)propanoate (14)

1.4.3 Polygala paniculata L. (Polygalaceae)

Polygala paniculata, also known by its English name of island snake-root, is an erect

much-branched annual herb, up to 60 cm tall, that belongs to the family Polygalaceae. This plant is native to tropical America from Mexico and the West Indies to Brazil. It was unintentionally introduced into Java in 1845 or 1846 and is now widespread in Malaysia, Micronesia, and eastward.⁴⁰

Previous studies on the apolar extracts of *P. paniculata*, possessing both molluscicidal and antifungal properties, led to the isolation of a pyranocoumarin diester⁴¹ 3'-O-acetyl-4'-O-benzoylkhellactone (**15**), and four prenylated coumarins⁴²; aurapten (**16**), phebalosin (**17**), murrangatin (**18**), and 7-methoxy-8-(1,4-dihydroxy-3-methyl -2-butenyl)coumarin (**19**). The flavonol rutin and the xanthones 1-hydroxy-5-methoxy-2,3-methylenedioxyxanthone (**20**) and 1,5-dihydroxy-2,3- dimethoxyxanthone (**21**) have also been reported.⁴³ Xanthones are biologically active natural compounds widely distributed in plants of the Polygalaceae family.⁴⁴⁻⁴⁷



3'-O-acetyl-4'-O-benzoylkhellactone (15)



aurapten (16)





7-methoxy-8-(1,4-dihydroxy-3-methyl-2-butenyl)coumarin (19)



1-hydroxy-5-methoxy-2,3-methylenedioxyxanthone (20)



1,5-dihydroxy-2,3-dimethoxyxanthone (21)

1.4.4 Euodia sp. (Rutaceae)

Euodia is a genus belonging to the citrus family Rutaceae with over 50 species originating in Asia, the north-east of Australia, New Guinea and the islands of the

south-west Pacific. Trees, shrubs or herbs grow up to 3-14 m tall and the wood is locally used in construction. The leaves release a translucent aromatic oil with a citrus smell.^{48,49}

Previous chemical studies of the genus *Euodia* were prompted by its application in folk medicines by indigenous people from Australia and Asia. Resin from *E. vitiflora* has been applied by Queensland aborigines as an adhesive and for filling cavities in teeth.⁵⁰ A decoction of the leaves of *E. latifolia* has been a treatment for fever and cramps.⁵¹ *Euodia borbonica* is a medicinal plant that is used for its aromatic properties and for rheumatism treatment.⁵² *E. daniellii* is also a folk medicine for treatment of gastric inflammation, headache and the extermination of noxious insects.⁵³ The oil from the fruits of this plant has also been applied in various diseases such as dermatitis and scabies.^{54,55}

Antifungal⁵⁶ and antibacterial⁵⁷ activities have been reported for *E. luna-ankenda* extracts. Compounds previously found in *Euodia spp.*, include terpenes,⁵⁸ coumarins [eg. bergapten (**22**)],^{53,59} and alkaloids [eg. buchapine (**23**)].^{50,52,56}



bergapten (22)



buchapine (23)

1.4.5 Cymbopogon citratus Stapf. (Poaceae)

Cymbopogon citratus commonly known as lemongrass is native to India and Sri Lanka.⁶⁰ It belongs to the Family Poaceae, which has about 660 genera and 9000 species.⁶¹ They are important sources of essential oils for the flavour and fragrance industries world wide⁶² and are also noted for their medicinal potential.⁶³ Lemongrass is used as flavouring for food, alcohol and soft drinks and the essential oils in cosmetics.⁶⁴ Other uses are to reduce headaches, indigestion, pain, rheumatism and nervousness.⁶⁵⁻⁶⁷

Cymbopogon is widely studied because its oil has widespread application in industry. Geranial (24), neral (25) and myrcene (26) have been identified previously as the major constituents.⁶⁸⁻⁷⁴ *C. citratus* plants produce up to 75 - 85% citral in their essential oils.⁷⁵ Citral is the name given to a natural mixture of two isomeric acyclic monoterpene aldehydes: geranial (*trans*-citral, citral A) and neral (*cis*-citral, citral B). Normally, one isomer does not occur without the other. In addition to citral, the essential oil of *Cymbopogon* species contain small quantities of geraniol, geranyl-acetate and monoterpene olefins, such as limonene (27) (in *C. exuosus*) and myrcene (in *C. citratus*).^{75,76} Because of its characteristic lemon aroma, citral is of considerable importance in the food and flavour industry. Citral is also an important raw material for the pharmaceutical, perfumery and cosmetics industries, especially for the synthesis of vitamin A and ionones; synthetic citral, derived from conifer turpentine is normally used for those purposes.⁷⁷ Citral possesses antifungal activity against plant and human pathogens,^{78,79} inhibits seed germination,⁸⁰ and has bactericidal^{81,82} and insecticidal properties.⁸³



1.4.6 Ricinus communis L. (Euphorbiaceae)

Ricinus communis, the castorbean plant, which is native to tropical Africa has been introduced to and is cultivated in many tropical and subtropical areas of the world. It is a perennial shrub growing to 5 m in height.⁸⁴

Castorbean is cultivated for the seeds which yield fast-drying, non-yellowing oil, that is used mainly in industry and medicines. The oil from the seed is a very well-known laxative that has been widely used for over 2,000 years.⁸⁵ It is so effective that it is regularly applied to clear the digestive tract in cases of poisoning.⁸⁶ It is beneficial in the treatment of non-inflammatory skin diseases, is a good protective in cases of occupational eczema and dermatitis,⁸⁷ and also has a remarkable antidandruff effect.⁸⁸ A decoction of the leaves and roots has antitussive, discutient and expectorant properties.⁸⁹ The leaves can be formed into a poultice to relieve headaches and treat boils.⁸⁷ Not only is castorbean found as a cooking oil, it is also an ingredient of soaps, polishes, flypapers and a transparent component of paints, varnishes, typewriter and printing inks.^{88,90-92} It makes an efficient lubricant, can provide lighting in the form of a lamp oil, and is an ingredient in fuels for precision engines.^{88,93,94}

The seeds (and to a much lesser extent the leaves) contain ricin, a protein (a toxalbumin)⁹⁵ which is highly toxic in small quantities. Ricin is soluble in water and is therefore not present in extracted oil. As a cytotoxic lectin, ricin readily gains access to exposed cells and subsequently inhibits protein synthesis which, in turn, leads cell death.⁹⁵ Humans, as well as numerous animal species, have been poisoned after ingesting the seeds. Most reported cases of animal poisoning have occurred overseas where the seed is eaten as food and, if improperly treated, has caused illness and death. The toxin has also been used for suicide and assasination.⁹⁶

1.4.7 Piper aduncum L. (Piperaceae)

Piper aduncum, an exotic species in Papua New Guinea (PNG), is a multi-stemmed evergreen shrub that can grow up to about 6 m tall. It has alternate leaves with short petioles and elliptic to lanceolate leaf blades that are about 12 - 20 cm long. All plant parts have a characteristic peppery odour.⁹⁷ It has also been pointed out that *P. aduncum* has the attributes of an invasive species⁹⁸ and is thus now considered a major plant pest in almost all areas of PNG. The dried wood and branches are widely used for firewood, fencing and in temporary constructions, but easily rot away when subjected to long-term exposure to moisture. *P. aduncum* has, however, also been appreciated in many areas

for its medicinal applications.⁹⁷ The people of Finschaffen in PNG use the extracts from fresh leaves of this plant as an antiseptic for wound healing,⁹⁹⁻¹⁰¹ while other reports in Peruvian ethnobotany¹⁰² also indicate that the extracts are applied to treat diarrhoea and in Colombian ethnobotany¹⁰³ as a treatment for haemostasis and dysentery. In southeast Brazilian folk medicine, *P. aduncum* has been recorded as a tratment for trachoma, vaginitis and stomach aches.¹⁰⁴

Piperaceae species have been extensively investigated as a source of new natural products with potential antitumoral, antimicrobial, antifungal, and insecticidal activities.¹⁰⁵⁻¹⁰⁸ Phenylpropanoids, such as myristicin (**28**) and dillapiole (**29**), benzoic acid derivatives, chromenes and flavonoids have been reported.¹⁰⁹⁻¹¹² Dillapiole is the major component in this species and has been described as an insecticide as well as a synergist of several natural insecticides.^{113,114} Chromene and benzoic acid derivatives are frequently isolated from *Piper* species and many of them exhibit diverse biological activity such as antimicrobial, molluscicidal,¹¹¹ germination inhibition, fungicidal¹¹⁵ and insecticidal activities.¹¹³

The crude hexane extract of the leaves from *P. aduncum* yielded aduncamide (**30**) showed significant antibacterial activity against *Bacillus subtilis*, *Micrococcus luteus* and *Escherichia coli* as well as antifungal activity against *Penicillium oxalicum* in *in vitro* biological screening. Molluscicidal potential against *Biomphalaria glabrata* was also detected.¹¹⁰ The crude petroleum ether extract of the leaves of *P. aduncum* which yielded the sesquiterpenes [viridiflorol (**31**), cubebol (**32**), spathulenol (**33**) and caryophyllenol-II (**34**)] showed strong molluscicidal activity against *Biomphalaria*

glabrata, known to be a vector of schistosomiasis.¹¹¹ The essential oil of *P. aduncum* was also tested against *Crinipellis perniciosa*, the fungus known as `witches' broom' which has been responsible for pathogenic attacks on Cacao. The essential oil at concentrations ranging from 50 to 100 ppm caused 100% inhibition on mycelial growth and germination of *C. perniciosa*.¹¹⁶⁻¹¹⁸



1.4.8 Piper gibbilimbum C. DC (Piperaceae)

In 1997 *Piper gibbilimbum* was described as a native species of the island of New Guinea.¹¹⁹ It is a widespread shrub, occasionally reaching a height of about 4 m. The leaves and fruits have an aromatic odour. In PNG, *P. gibbilimbum* is applied as an antiseptic to heal abscesses and skin ulcerations and used to treat fever.¹²⁰ The juices extracted from the heated barks are ingested to cure internal sores.¹²¹ The leaves provide wrappers for cooked food and animal protein in the Highlands societies of PNG.¹²²

Four new cytotoxic alkenylphenols, designated gibbilimbols A-D (**35-38**) were obtained from *P. gibbilimbum* leaves and their chemical structures were established from spectroscopic evidence. These compounds were found to be toxic to brine shrimps (*Artemia salina*) (LC₅₀ of approximately 5μ g/mL) and cytotoxic towards KB nasopharyngeal carcinoma cells (ED₅₀ 7.8-2.1 μ g/mL). All isolates also showed antibacterial activity toward *Staphylococcus epidermidis* and *Bacillus cereus*.¹²³ Strategies for their synthesis have been recently described.^{124,125}

The oil of *P. gibbilimbum* is dominated by the gibbilimbols A-D (74.2 %), positional isomers of *trans*-alkenylphenols where the chain length is either eight or ten carbon atoms. The remaining major constituents are the terpenes camphene (**39**) (13.6 %) and α -pinene (**40**) (6.5 %).¹²²



gibbilimbol A (35)


1.4.9 unidentified species 'Gorgor' (Zingiberaceae)

Zingiberaceae, or Ginger, is a family of flowering plants consisting of aromatic perennial herbs with creeping horizontal or tuberous rhizomes, comprising approximately 52 genera and more than 1300 species, distributed throughout tropical Africa, Asia and the Americas.¹²⁶ Many species are important ornamental plants, spices, or medicinal plants. Ornamental genera include the shell gingers (*Alpinia*), Siam or summer tulip (*Curcuma alismatifolia*), *Globba*, ginger lily (*Hedychium*), *Kaempferia*, torch-ginger *Nicolaia*, *Renealmia*, and ginger (*Zingiber*). Spices include ginger (*Zingiber*), galangal or Thai ginger (*Alpinia galanga* and others), melegueta pepper (*Aframomum melegueta*), myoga (*Zingiber mioga*), turmeric (*Curcuma*) and cardamom

(*Amomum*, *Elettaria*). Some genera (*Alpinia*, *Hedychium*) yield essential oils for the perfume industry.¹²⁷

Quite a few constituents have been identified from this family. Anthroquinones were detected in *Aframomum* and *Curcuma*, delphinidin (41), a flavylium salt and the flavonol myricetin (42) were present in *Brachychilum*. Also flavonols such as kaempferol (43) were identified from *Globba* and saponins/sapogenins were present in *Alpinia*.¹²⁸



1.4.10 Dacrydium spp. (Podocarpaceae)

Dacrydium is a genus of conifers belonging to the family Podocarpaceae, with 25 species native to Southeast Asia and New Zealand. They have scale-like leaves similar

to those of cypress trees. Many are valued for their timber. The huon pine *D. franklinii* of Tasmania resembles a weeping cypress; the mountain pine *D. bidwillii* is a shrub that grows to 3 m in areas of open mountainous scrub in New Zealand.¹²⁹ The silver pine *D. colensoi* is a very hardy tree with grey, flaking bark, which grows to 15 m in shady forests in New Zealand; the red pine *D. cupressinum* of New Zealand grows to 40 m and is common in low-lying forest areas. (+)-Phyllocladene (44), (+)-rimuene (45), (+)-isokaurene (46), (-)-sandaracopimaradiene (47) and (+)-manoyl oxide (48) were identified in addition a new diterpene alcohol, which was shown to be (-)-8β-hydroxysandaracopimar-15-ene (49) from the volatile oil of *D. colensoi*¹³⁰ and later, a new diterpene laurenene (50) was isolated from the latter species¹³¹ by Corbet *et al.* Other than those compounds, some of the major components of the volatile oils identified from the *Dacrydium* include α-pinene (40) (up to 58% dry weight), caryophyllene, aromadendrene, viridiflorene, camphene, bicyclogermacrene and β-farnesene.¹³²



(+)-phyllocladen (44)



(+)-rimuene **(45)**



(+)-isokaurene (46)







(+)-manoyl oxide (48)



(-)-8β-hydroxysandaracopimar-15-ene (49)



laurenene (50)

1.4.11 Eucalyptus tereticornis Smith (Myrtaceae)

Eucalyptus tereticornis, commonly known as Forest Red Gum, is a tree which grows up to 50 m tall. The bark is smooth, white or grey and sheds in large plates or flakes.¹³³ The genera *Eucalyptus*, native to Australia and some islands to the north of it, comprise over 750 tree species. More than 300 species of this genus have been shown to contain volatile oils in their leaves. Only about 20 of these species have ever been exploited commercially for oil production.¹³⁴⁻¹³⁶

The leaves and bark of *Eucalyptus* species have been widely used for the treatment of many serious diseases and, according to the folk medicine of many countries, it is effective for enhancing physical strength. In particular, the powder of the bark had been extracted for an insecticide in Africa, and the leaves of some species have been used to treat influenza, dysentery, articular pain and tonsillitis in China. Because *Eucalyptus* oil has such an authenticated record of success in treating minor ailments, it has been put in the Pharmacopeias of many countries, such as UK, France, Germany, Belgium, Netherlands, USA and Japan.¹³⁷

Essential oils from *Eucalyptus* species are widely used in modern cosmetics, food, and pharmaceutical industries.¹³⁸ In addition, the trees are used in forestry (timber, fuel and paper pulp), environmental planting (water and wind erosion control) and amenity planting.¹³⁴ The main uses of *Eucalyptus* oils are found in the pharmaceuticals (those that are rich in 1,8-cineole), perfumery (those that are rich in citronellal) and for industrial use (those that have piperitone and α -phellandrene as their main constituents).¹³⁹ About 90% of the oils purchased world-wide are pharmaceutical grade oils, which is a large proportion of industrial and perfumery oil production.¹⁴⁰

Monoterpenoid components of the aromatic constituents of the oils are commercially available for the treatment of the common cold and other symptoms associated with respiratory infections.¹⁴¹⁻¹⁴³ Phytochemical analysis has shown that the content profile of the monoterpenoids present varies among *Eucalyptus* species, with potential variations in medicinal properties. For example, *E. citriodora* has been shown to contain 60% citronellal (**51**), whereas *E. tereticornis* and *E. globulus* contain 60–90% of eucalyptol (1,8-cineole) (**52**).¹⁴³ While citronellal is effective against bacterial and fungal infections,¹⁴⁴ eucalyptol has been reported to inhibit the production/synthesis of tumor necrosis factor- α , interleukin-1 β , leukotriene B₄, and thromboxane B₂ in inflammatory cells.^{144,145}

Apart from 1,8-cineole, *E. tereticornis* oil from Mali contained α -pinene (**40**) and limonene (**27**) whereas myrcene (**26**), α -pinene and β -pinene (**53**) were reported from an Algerian sample. In addition, *p*-cymene (**54**) was identified from a Cuban sample.¹⁴⁶⁻¹⁴⁸ However, both *E. tereticornis* and *E. grandis* from Ethiopia and Nigeria contain α -pinene and β -pinene as dominant compounds and the absence of 1,8-cineole is noteworthy.^{149,150}



1.4.12 Eucalyptus grandis W.Hill ex Maiden (Myrtaceae)

Eucalyptus grandis, commonly known as the Flooded Gum or Rose Gum, is a 50 m high tree with smooth grey bark.¹⁵¹

It has been reported that *E. grandis* oil has 65 identified components with 1,8-cineole being the main one.¹⁵² Many kinds of phloroglucinol derivatives have also been isolated from *Eucalyptus* plants, and their pharmacological activities are studied.¹⁵³⁻¹⁵⁷ Euglobals G1 (**55**) - G5, from the leaves of *E. grandis*, are reported as inhibitors of Epstein Barr Virus (EBV) activation.¹⁵⁸ Furthermore, the phloroglucinol-monoterpene derivative, euglobal-G1 (EG-1), exhibited a remarkable inhibitory effect in the two-stage carcinogenesis test of mouse skin tumors induced by 7,12-dimethylbenz[a]anthracene (DMBA) as an initiator and fumonisin-B1, a mycotoxin produced by *Fusarium monifliforme*, as a tumor promoter. EG-1 also exhibited potent anti-tumor-promoting

activity in a two-stage carcinogenesis test of mouse pulmonary tumor using 4-nitroquinoline-N-oxide (4-NQO) as an initiator and glycerol as a promoter.¹⁵⁹



1.4.13 Melaleuca leucadendron L. (Myrtaceae)

Melaleuca leucadendron, also known as the Weeping Teatree or Cajeput, is a tall stately tree to 20 m found along natural creek banks. Some forms have weeping foliage but others are more erect in appearance. The most striking feature of *M. leucadendron* is its almost pure white papery bark, which is whiter than other species. Its white bottlebrush flowers bloom in autumn.¹⁶⁰ The genus *Melaleuca* currently contains 236 species, all of which occur in Australia. About 230 species are endemic to Australia and the few remaining species are found as far afield as Indonesia, New Guinea, New Caledonia and even Malaysia. Plants of the genus *Melaleuca* are rich in volatile oils. They are used mainly in the manufacture of cosmetics, germicides and as antiseptic agents. They are also used as caminatives and in the treatment of several ailments.¹⁶¹

A GC/MS investigation of *M. leucadendron* revealed that 44 constituents were identified from a Venezuelan sample with 1,8-cineole (**52**) (38.4%), nerolidol (**56**) (28.7%), alloaromadendrene (**57**) (14.4%) and α -terpineol (**58**) (12.6%) being the most abundant.¹⁶² In comparison, 26 constituents were obtained from leaves of a north Indian sample with the major constituents being 1,8-cineole (19.9%), α -eudesmol (**59**) (15.8%), β -eudesmol (**60**) (11.3%), viridiflorol (**31**) (8.9%) and guaiol (**61**) (9.0%).¹⁶³ Further investigation showed that this essential oil was active against *Bacillus cereus* and *Staphylococcus aureus*, but was inactive against *Escherichia coli* and *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*. It also showed toxicity in the brine shrimp (*Artemia salina*) lethality test (LC₅₀ (24 h) = 22.25 µg/mL).¹⁶² Farag *et al.*, described the antiviral activities of the essential oils against *Herpes simplex virus* type 1 (HSV-1) in African green monkey kidney cells (Vero) by a plaque reduction assay. The volatile oil of *M. leucadendron* was up to 92% effective as a virucidal.¹⁶⁴





1.4.14 Euroschinus falcatus Hook.f. (Anacardiaceae)

The family Anacardiaceae includes 82 genera and 650 species. Plants of their family are probably the most common single cause of contact dermatitis in man. The skin reaction occurs following sensitisation to various alkyl catechols, phenols and quinols. At high concentrations, these compounds are also primary irritants.¹⁶⁵

Euroschinus falcatus is known as the ribbon wood or maiden's blush and is distributed throughout Oceania and regions of Southeast Asia.¹⁶⁶ It is a small to medium-sized tree and commonly its timber is used to make bearings, bushings, boxes, crates, brush backs, handles, cabinets, coffins, flooring and furniture.¹⁶⁷

Antibacterial and antifungal activities of *E. papuanus* were reported by Kahn *et al.*¹⁶⁸ However, currently no chemical investigations of *E. falcatus* have been reported.

1.4.15 Schinus terebinthifolius Raddi (Anacardiaceae)

Schinus terebinthifolius, commonly known as the Brazilian pepper tree, belongs to the cashew family. It is a shrub or small tree to 7 m high. This species, which is native to

Central and South America, was introduced to Florida 50 years ago as a shade and ornamental tree and spread rapidly to thousands of acres.¹⁶⁹ In people who are susceptible, the pollen and volatiles, as well as the sap, may cause respiratory problems and dermatitis.¹⁷⁰

Previous studies of fruits, leaves and bark of this tree have revealed the presence of triterpene alcohols, ketones and acids.¹⁶⁹ Campello *et al.*, extracted a triterpene acid, masticadienonic acid (**62**), 3 α -hydroxymasticadienonic acid (**63**), triacontane and sitosterol from the leaves.¹⁷¹ They also isolated new terpenoid ketones, bauerenone (**64**) and terebenthifolic acid (**65**), from the bark.¹⁷² In 1977, Lloyd *et al.*, described the isolation of additional monoterpenes and sesquiterpenes from an extract of its fruit.¹⁷¹



masticadienonic acid (62)



3α-hydroxymasticadienonic acid (63)



R = CH₃ : bauerenone (64) R = COOH : terebenthifolic acid (65)

1.4.16 Stylosanthes hamata (L.) Taub. (Leguminosae)

S. hamata is a member of the pea family (Leguminosae) and is also known as Caribbean stylo. It is a perennial, broad-leaved, erect or decumbent shrub or herb, up to 0.7 m high. *S. hamata* occurs mainly in the West Indies, in the Caribbean area generally, and in coastal areas of Venezuela and Colombia bordering the Caribbean. It also occurs in coastal areas of southern Florida, the United States.¹⁷³

There have been many reports on chemical composition of this species assessed as forage or pasture, however the constituents of leaf extracts have not been given.

CHAPTER 2 Results and Discussions

2.1 General Discussion

The initial aims of this project were to investigate the components of essential oil and extracts from aromatic and medicinal plants from the highlands of New Guinea. It was thought this would be largely comprised of endemic New Guinea highland plant species, however, a large proportion of the samples were from introduced species, and it became clear that in New Guinea the choice of oil samples by Dr Stewart Wossa was being influenced by potential commercial application.

The methodology that was utilised consisted of initially quantifying individual components in volatile oil samples by gas chromatography (GC), and then trying to identify as many of the components as possible. Two strategies were proposed to that end: The first was to utilise NMR spectroscopy to identify the major components present in each oil sample. Utilising the excellent NMR facilities at the Australian Institute of Marine Sciences (AIMS), the decision was made to try to identify as many components as possible for each oil sample without any prior separation or fractionation. This strategy was possible because of access to a 600 MHz NMR spectrometer fitted with a cryoprobe, and the improvements that have been made in terms of 1D and 2D NMR techniques, particularly through utilisation of gradient selective techniques that might facilitate investigation of resonance signals for one component and avoid overlapping signals from other components: The second strategy was to tentatively identify other (minor) components using gas chromatography-mass spectrometery (GC-MS). GC-MS in some cases indicated the identity of components, because it was

possible to match molecular weights and retention times with potential essential oil components by utilisation of the compound library available on the GC-MS system employed for the analyses. In other cases GC-MS was merely used to match the molecular weight of peaks to components that had been structurally identified by NMR spectroscopy. When NMR spectroscopy was used to identify the structure of components, and assignments of ¹H and ¹³C signals had been obtained, the data was confirmed, when possible, by comparison with published literature values. Where possible, the identity of compounds was also confirmed by comparison with values obtained from a commercially-obtained authentic sample or by isolation of the pure component from the oil sample.

A total of twenty six known and one new compound were identified employing these methods, or by application of these methods to fractions obtained by chromatography of the oils or extracts.

Although it is common for essential oils to be comprised of many components, where some are present in small amounts, as the project progressed, it soon became evident that cross-contamination of some of the oil samples had occurred, as some major components of certain oils were repeatedly observed in small amounts in other oils that would not be expected to contain such components. While monoterpenes such as α and β -pinene, limonene, 1,8-cineole, γ -terpinene, etc., are expected to be components of many essential oils, the presence of the component *trans*-anethole as 74% of the 'Hane grass' oil, as well as 3.7% of the *Dacrydium* sp., oil suggested some contamination of the *Dacrydium* oil had occurred. Similarly, methyl salicylate, which was a major component of one oil sample, was found in smaller amounts in other oil samples. Some samples appear to have been cross-contaminated in PNG, probably through inadequate cleaning of distilled oil residues from the distillation apparatus between samples. The suspected contaminants are each discussed under the individual oil sample heading. This potential cross contamination only applies to some of the eighteen oil samples that were supplied from PNG, the last three samples investigated were collected from the James Cook University campus, and no cross-contamination occurred.

The twenty one oil samples and extracts were initially screened for antimicrobial activity against a total of eighteen bacteria, yeasts and fungi, as well as for cytotoxic activity. After identification of major oil components, where available, isolated or commercially-obtained samples of components were screened in the same assays to assess their contribution to the overall activity of the oil or extract. These results were compared with literature available on similar screening of essential oils and their components.

2.2 Compounds identified from the collected species

The structures of compounds discussed in the following sections were determined from their NMR spectral data and by comparison with literature spectral values. Proton chemical shifts and couplings in some compounds were determined from a gradient selective TOCSY experiment so that overlapping signals from other components in the oil sample were not observed.

31

2.2.1 Tithonia diversifolia (leaves)

The oil of *Tithonia diversifolia* was found to contain dillapiole (11%), β -caryophyllene (6.1%), carvacrol (5.9%), caryophyllene oxide (3.5%), spathulenol (2.9%), camphor (2.7%), viridiflorol (1.9%) and methyl salicylate (0.6%). It is suspected that methyl salicylate in this sample originated from cross contamination of the oil during steam distillation in PNG as it constituted 74% of the oil from the roots of *Poligala paniculata*. Structure characterisation of carvacrol and camphor have been discussed under 2.2.5 unidentified species (leaves), β -caryophyllene and caryophyllene oxide under 2.2.6 *Euodia sp.* (leaves), viridiflorol under 2.2.7 *Cymbopogon citratus* (leaves) and dillapiole under 2.2.8 *Ricinus communis* (leaves).

Spathulenol



Figure 1. Gradient selective TOCSY (600 MHz) from excitation centered on $\delta 0.47$ of spathulenol in CDCl₃

The ¹H NMR spectrum of spathulenol exhibited the presence of three methyl groups (δ 1.04, 1.05, 1.28), two proton signals for a cyclopropane (δ 0.47, 0.71), one terminal methylene (δ 4.64, 4.69) and resonances from ten other protons giving signals between δ 1.0 and 2.5. The ¹³C NMR spectrum of spathulenol contained resonances for fifteen carbons: three methyl groups (16.4, 26.1, 28.7 ppm), one alkene (106.4, 153.4 ppm) and one oxygenated carbon (81.1 ppm); the remaining nine carbon atoms were assigned as 4x CH₂ groups (24.8, 26.8, 38.8, 42.0 ppm), 4x CH groups (27.5, 29.9, 53.4, 54.4 ppm) and a quaternary carbon (20.4 ppm).

Its HMBC spectrum showed correlations between the resonances for the methyl groups H_3 -12 (δ 1.05) and H_3 -13 (δ 1.04) and the resonances for C-6 (29.9 ppm), C-7 (27.5 ppm), C-11 (20.4 ppm) and, CH₃-13 (16.4 ppm) and CH₃-12 (28.7 ppm), respectively; From the resonance of one of the cyclopropane protons H-6 (δ 0.47) to C-7, C-11 and CH₃-13 and from the other one H-7 (δ 0.71) to CH₃-13. These data indicated that the methyl groups CH₃-12 and CH₃-13 were both attached to C-11, and that C-6, C-7 and C-11 formed a cyclopropane ring. Another methyl group CH₃-15 (26.1 ppm) was suggested to be attached at the C-4 (81.1 ppm) position with C-3 (42.0 ppm) and C-5 (54.4 ppm) connected on either side, as HMBC correlations were seen between H₃-15 (δ 1.28) and C-3, C-4 and C-5. Further, correlations between the terminal methylene H-14a (δ 4.64) and C-1 (53.4 ppm), C-9 (38.8 ppm) and C-10 (153.4 ppm) and between δ 2.42 and C-1, C-7, C-8 and C-10 confirmed the carbon linkages from C-7 to C-10 and C-1, and showed that C-14 was attached to C-10. Additional HMBC correlations between one of the H-2 protons (δ 1.91) and C-3, between one of the H-3 protons (δ 1.78) and C-1

together with a COSY correlation between H-5 (δ 1.31) and H-6 indicated the presence of a cyclopentane ring (C-1 to C-6) and its attachment to C-6. Gradient selective TOCSY experiments centred on the two cyclopropane protons (δ 0.47 and 0.71) and two terminal methylene protons (δ 4.64 and 4.69) enabled identification of the chemical shifts for the protons of the CH and CH₂ groups. Comparison of the NMR data with literature values¹⁷⁴ confirmed the identity of the sesquiterpene as spathulenol.

Spathulenol				
C #	δ ¹³ C	δ ¹ H mult. <i>J</i> (Hz)	HMBC ¹ H to ¹³ C	
1	53.4	2.2 td 11.5, 6.5	H-3b, H-9b, H-14a	
2	26.8	1.63 dddd 11.5, 6.5, 6.2, 2.2		
		1.91 qd 11.5, 6.2		
3	42.0	1.57 dt 12.3, 6.2	H-2b, H ₃ -15	
		1.78 m		
4	81.1		H ₃ -15	
5	54.4	1.31 dd 11.7, 9.7	H ₃ -15	
6	29.9	0.47 dd 11.2, 9.5	H ₃ -12, H ₃ -13	
7	27.5	0.71 ddd 11.2, 9.4, 6.1	H-6, H-9b, H ₃ -12, H ₃ -13	
8	24.8	1.01 dddd 14.4, 12.7, 11.2, 1.4 H ₂ -9		
		1.98 dtd 14.4, 6.4, 1.6		
9	38.8	2.04 t 13.4, 12.7, 1.6	H-14a	
		2.42 ddd 13.4, 6.4, 1.4		
10	153.4		H ₂ -9, H-14a	
11	20.4		H-6, H ₃ -12, H ₃ -13	
12	28.7	1.05 s	H ₃ -13	
13	16.4	1.04 s	H-6, H-7, H ₃ -12	
14	106.4	4.64 brs H-9a		
		4.69 brs		
15	26.1	1.28 brs		

Table 1. ¹H NMR (600 MHz), ¹³C NMR (150 MHz) and HMBC data of spathulenol in CDCl₃

2.2.2 Tagetes spp. (leaves)

The oil of *Tagetes spp.* was found to contain piperitone (57%) and methyl salicylate (15%). Structure characterisation of methyl salicylate is discussed under 2.2.3 *Poligala paniculata* (roots).

Piperitone



Figure 2. Gradient selective TOCSY (600 MHz) from excitation centered on $\delta 5.81$ of piperitone in CDCl₃

The ¹H NMR spectrum of piperitone exhibited a free methyl singlet at $\delta 1.90$, two methyl doublets at $\delta 0.83$ and $\delta 0.92$, and one olefinic proton signal at $\delta 5.81$. It also contained signals for six protons at $\delta 1.78$, 1.98, 2.01, 2.24, 2.31 and 2.33. The ¹³C NMR

spectrum of piperitone revealed the presence of three methyl groups (18.4, 20.5, 24.1 ppm), a conjugated alkene (126.6, 161.1 ppm), a ketone (201.3 ppm) and a methine carbon (51.4 ppm) α to the carbonyl. Two methylene carbon signals were also observed at 22.8 ppm and 30.2 ppm as well as a methine carbon signal at 25.7 ppm.

Piperitone				
C #	δ ¹³ C	δ^1 H mult. J (Hz)	HMBC ¹ H to ¹³ C	
1	161.1		H ₃ -7, H ₂ -6	
2	126.6	5.81 d 1.8	H ₃ -7, H ₂ -6	
3	201.3		H ₂ -5	
4	51.4	2.01 m	H-2, H ₂ -5, H ₂ -6, H-8, H ₃ -9, H ₃ -10	
5	22.8	1.78 m	H ₂ -6, H-8	
		1.98 m		
6	30.2	2.24 m	H-2, H ₂ -5, H ₃ -7	
		2.31 m		
7	24.1	1.90 s	H ₂ -6	
8	25.7	2.33 m	H ₂ -5, H ₃ -9, H ₃ -10	
9	18.4	0.83 d 6.9	H-8, H ₃ -10	
10	20.5	0.92 d 6.9	H-8, H ₃ -9	

Table 2. ¹H NMR (600 MHz), ¹³C NMR (150 MHz) and HMBC data of piperitone in CDCl₃

HMBC correlations between the methyl group H₃-7 (δ 1.90) and C-1 (161.1 ppm), C-2 (126.6 ppm) and C-6 (30.2 ppm) and between H-2 (δ 5.81) and C-4 (51.4 ppm) and C-6 indicated that the methyl group was attached to the β -carbon of an α , β unsaturated ketone. Two proton signals at δ 2.24 and δ 2.31 in the ¹H NMR spectrum of piperitone were assigned to C-6 based on HSQC data. These protons (H₂-6) shared HMBC correlations with C-1, C-2, C-4, C-5 (22.8 ppm) and CH₃-7 (24.1 ppm). HMBC

correlations between the two methyl groups (H₃-9 and H₃-10) and C-8 (25.7 ppm), C-4 and, CH₃-10 (20.5 ppm) and CH₃-9 (18.4 ppm) respectively, clearly indicated that C-8, CH₃-9 and CH₃-10 formed an isopropyl group. Correlations from H-8 (δ 2.33) to C-4, CH₃-9 and CH₃-10 were also observed to confirm the assignments. Additional HMBC correlations were observed between H₂-5 (δ 1.78, 1.98) and C-3, C-4, C-6 and C-8, and COSY correlations were observed between H-4 (δ 2.01) and both H-5 protons (δ 1.78, 1.98), as well as between H_b-5 (δ 1.98) and both H-6 protons (δ 2.24, 2.31). These data confirmed that the isopropyl group was attached at C-4, which was next to the carbonyl group, and that C-5 and C-6 were adjacent to each other. The assignments showed that the carbons from C-1 to C-6 formed a six-membered ring, with a conjugated ketone function C-1 and C-3, a methyl group and an isopropyl group separated by two CH₂ groups. Comparison of the NMR data with literature values¹⁷⁵ confirmed the identity of piperitone.

2.2.3 Poligala paniculata (roots)

The oil of *Poligala paniculata* was found to contain methyl salicylate (74%) and dillapiole (3.6%). It is suspected that dillapiole in this sample originated from cross contamination during steam distillation.

Methyl salicylate

The ¹H NMR spectrum of methyl salicylate revealed one methyl singlet (δ 3.95), four protons (two double doublets at δ 6.98 and 7.83 and two doublets of double doublet at δ 6.88 and 7.45) in the aromatic region and one hydroxyl group (δ 10.8). The

arrangement of the four aromatic protons was determined by the *J* values. Vicinal couplings (ortho to each other) were 8.3, 8.1 and 7.2 Hz whereas long-range couplings (meta to each other) were 1.7 and 1.0 Hz and these data confirmed orthodisubstitution on the aromatic ring. The ¹³C NMR spectrum of methyl salicylate accounted for eight carbon atoms: one methyl group (52.3 ppm) and one carbonyl group (170.6 ppm) both next to an oxygen, and one benzene ring (112.3, 117.6, 119.2, 129.9, 135.7, 161.6 ppm).



Figure 3. ¹H NMR spectrum (300 MHz) of the *Poligala paniculata* root oil in $CDCl_3$ (reference: residual solvent peak at $\delta7.26$)

The methyl group H₃-8 at δ 3.95 attached to an oxygen showed a three bond HMBC correlation to the carbonyl group C-7 (170.6 ppm). An HMBC correlation between H-6 (δ 7.83) and C-7 together with the fact that C-1 (112.3 ppm) was a quaternary carbon from HSQC data indicated that the carbonyl group (C-7) was attached at the C-1 position on the benzene ring. The hydroxyl group proton showed HMBC correlations to

C-1, another quaternary carbon C-2 (161.6 ppm) and C-3 (117.6 ppm). This confirmed that C-2, bearing the hydroxyl group, was located next to the quaternary carbon C-1 and the protonated aromatic carbon C-3. Further correlations between H-3 (δ 6.98) and C-1 and C-5 (119.2 ppm), between H-4 (δ 7.45) and C-2 and C-6 (129.9 ppm), between H-5 (δ 6.88) and C-1, C-3 and C-6 and, between H-6 and C-2 and C-4 permitted the full ¹H and ¹³C assignments of the benzene ring. Comparison of the NMR data with literature values^{176,177} confirmed the identity of methyl salicylate.

Methyl salicylate				
C #	δ ¹³ C	δ ¹ H mult. <i>J</i> (Hz)	HMBC ¹ H to ¹³ C	
1	112.3		OH, H-3, H-5	
2	161.6	10.8 s (OH)	OH, H-4, H-6	
3	117.6	6.98 dd 8.3, 1.0	OH, H-5	
4	135.7	7.45 ddd 8.3, 7.2, 1.7	H-6	
5	119.2	6.88 ddd 8.1, 7.2, 1.0	H-3	
6	129.9	7.83 dd 8.1, 1.7	H-4, H-5	
7	170.6		H-6, H ₃ -8	
8	52.3	3.95 s		

Table 3. ¹H NMR (300 MHz), ¹³C NMR (75 MHz) and HMBC data of methyl salicylate in CDCl₃

2.2.4 'Newton grass' (leaves)

The oil of Newton grass was found to contain β -caryophyllene (17%), dillapiole (3.2%), *p*-cymene (2.3%) and caryophyllene oxide (1.6%). Structure characterisation of *p*-cymene has been discussed under 2.2.5 unidentified species (leaves), β -caryophyllene and caryophyllene oxide under 2.2.6 *Euodia sp.* (leaves) and dillapiole under 2.2.8 Ricinus communis (leaves).

2.2.5 Unidentified species (leaves)



Figure 4. ¹H NMR spectrum (600 MHz) of the unidentified species crude essential oil, showing the identified components labelled (reference: residual solvent peak at δ 7.26)

The oil was found to contain carvacrol (18%), camphor (15%), α -pinene (13%), 3-carene (11%) and *p*-cymene (8.2%).

Carvacrol

The ¹H NMR spectrum of carvacrol exhibited an aromatic methyl singlet at $\delta 2.21$, one

large methyl doublet at δ 1.24 equivalent for two methyl groups, three proton signals in the aromatic region at δ 7.03, 6.71 and 6.66 and a hydroxyl broad singlet at δ 5.95. It also contained a heptet at δ 2.82. The ¹³C NMR spectrum of carvacrol disclosed the presence of three methyl groups (15.3, 24.0 x 2 ppm) and resonances for a benzene ring (112.9, 118.6, 120.9, 130.8, 148.3, 153.7 ppm). A methine signal at 33.6 ppm was also observed.



Figure 5. ¹H NMR spectrum (300 MHz) of carvacrol (isolated by HPLC) in CDCl₃ (reference: residual solvent peak at δ 7.26)

HMBC correlations observed between the methyl group H_3 -7 (δ 2.21) and C-1 (153.7 ppm), C-2 (120.9 ppm) and C-3 (130.8 ppm) as well as between H-3 (δ 7.03) and C-1 and CH₃-7 (15.3 ppm) indicated that the methyl group CH₃-7 was attached to a quaternary carbon C-2 which was connected with two carbons, C-1 and C-3, on either

side. Correlations between the two methyl groups H_3 -9 and H_3 -10 both at δ 1.24 and C-8 (33.6 ppm), C-5 (148.3 ppm) and, CH₃-10 and CH₃-9 (24.0 ppm) respectively, clearly indicated that C-8, CH₃-9 and CH₃-10 formed an isopropyl group. It also suggested that the isopropyl group was bonded to C-5, with C-4 (118.6 ppm) and C-6 (112.9 ppm) located on either side. This assignment was confirmed by the HMBC correlation observed between H-4 (δ 6.71), H-6 (δ 6.66) and C-8 and between H-8 (δ 2.82) and C-4, C-5, C-6, CH₃-9 and CH₃-10. Further correlations between H-3 and C-5, between H-4 and C-2 and C-6 and between H-6 and C-1, C-2 and C-4 confirmed that C-4 and C-6 were linked to C-3 and C-1 respectively. As C-2 and C-5 were substituted by the methyl group and the isopropyl group respectively, and C-3, C-4 and C-6 were protonated aromatic carbons as shown in the HSQC spectrum, it was determined that the hydroxyl group was attached at the remaining carbon C-1 position. Comparison of the NMR data with literature values¹⁷⁸ confirmed the identity of carvacrol.

		Carvacrol	
C #	δ ¹³ C	δ^1 H mult. J (Hz)	HMBC ¹ H to ¹³ C
1	153.7	5.95 br s (OH)	H-3, H-6, H ₃ -7
2	120.9		H-4, H-6, H ₃ -7
3	130.8	7.03 d 8.1	H ₃ -7
4	118.6	6.71 dd 7.6, 1.7	H-6, H-8
5	148.3		H-3, H-8, H ₃ -9/H ₃ -10
6	112.9	6.66 s	H-4, H-8
7	15.3	2.21 s	H-3
8	33.6	2.82 hept 7.0	H-4, H-6, H ₃ -9/H ₃ -10
9,10	24.0	1.24 d 7.0	H-8, H ₃ -10/H ₃ -9 respectively

Table 4. ¹H NMR (300 MHz), ¹³C NMR (75 MHz) and HMBC data of carvacrol in $CDCl_3$

Camphor



Figure 6. ¹H NMR spectrum (300 MHz) of camphor in CDCl₃

The ¹H NMR spectrum of camphor showed three methyl singlets at $\delta 0.82$, 0.90 and 0.94 and signals for seven protons at $\delta 1.32$, 1.42, 1.75, 1.80, 1.90, 2.08 and 2.30. The ¹³C NMR spectrum accounted for ten carbon atoms: three methyl groups (9.2, 19.2, 19.9 ppm), one ketone carbonyl group (220.0 ppm), a quaternary carbon next to the carbonyl group (57.7 ppm) and the remaining five carbons were assigned as three CH₂ groups (27.0, 30.0, 43.1 ppm), one CH group (43.1 ppm) and a quaternary carbon at 47.1 ppm from HSQC data.

Camphor				
C #	δ ¹³ C	δ^1 H mult. J (Hz)	HMBC ¹ H to ¹³ C	
1	57.7		H-4, H ₃ -8, H ₃ -9, H ₃ -10	
2	220.0		H-3a, H-4, H ₂ -6, H ₃ -8	
3	43.1	1.80 d 18.3		
		2.30 ddd 18.3, 4.8, 3.0		
4	43.1	2.08 dd 4.8, 4.2	H-6a, H ₃ -9, H ₃ -10	
5	27.0	1.32 m	H-3a	
		1.90 m		
6	30.0	1.42 m	H ₃ -8	
		1.75 m		
7	46.9		H ₃ -9, H ₃ -10	
8	9.2	0.90 s		
9	19.2	0.94 s	H ₃ -10	
10	19.9	0.82 s	H ₃ -9	

Table 5. ¹H NMR (300 MHz), ¹³C NMR (75 MHz) and HMBC data of camphor in CDCl₃

HMBC correlations between the methyl group H₃-8 (δ 0.90) and C-1 (57.7 ppm), the carbonyl group C-2 (220.0 ppm) and the CH₂ group C-6 (30.0 ppm) and between H₂-6 (δ 1.42, 1.75) and C-2 indicated that CH₃-8 (9.2 ppm) was bonded to C-1 which was connected to C-2 and C-6 on either side. In addition, correlations between both methyl groups H₃-9 (δ 0.94) and H₃-10 (δ 0.82) and C-1, C-4 (43.1 ppm), C-7 (46.9 ppm) and, CH₃-10 at δ 19.9 and CH₃-9 at δ 19.2 respectively as well as correlations between H-4 (δ 2.08) and C-1 proved that CH₃-9 and CH₃-10 were both attached to C-7 which was linked to C-1 and C-4 on either side. Further correlations were observed between one of the H-3 protons (δ 1.80) and C-2 and C-5 (27.0 ppm), between H-4 and C-2 and between one of the H-6 protons (δ 1.42) and C-4. As C-4 was a CH group as shown by the HSQC data, the structure was determined to be that of camphor. Comparison of the NMR data with literature values¹⁷⁷ confirmed the identity of camphor.

α-Pinene



Figure 7. ¹H NMR spectrum (300 MHz) of α-pinene in CDCl₃

The ¹H NMR spectrum of α -pinene exhibited a methyl group signal at $\delta 1.65$, two methyl singlets ($\delta 0.83$, 1.26) and one olefinic proton at $\delta 5.18$. Signals for six protons were also observed at $\delta 1.14$, 1.16, 1.94, 2.08, 2.21 and 2.32. The ¹³C NMR and DEPT experiments confirmed the presence of three methyl groups (20.8, 23.0, 26.3 ppm), one alkene (116.0, 144.5 ppm), two CH₂ groups (31.3, 31.5 ppm), two CH groups (40.7, 47.0 ppm) and a quaternary carbon (38.0 ppm).

α-Pinene				
C #	δ ¹³ C	δ^{1} H mult. J (Hz)	HMBC ¹ H to ¹³ C	
1	47.0	1.94 td 5.5, 1.3	H-3, H-5, H ₂ -7, H ₃ -8, H ₃ -9, H ₃ -10	
2	144.5		H-1, H-3, H ₂ -4, H ₂ -7, H ₃ -8	
3	116.0	5.18 m	H-1, H ₃ -8	
4	31.3	2.21 m	H-3	
		2.32 dt 8.6, 5.5		
5	40.7	2.08 m	H-1,H-3, H ₂ -4, H ₂ -7, H ₃ -9, H ₃ -10	
6	38.0		H-1, H ₂ -7, H ₃ -9, H ₃ -10	
7	31.5	1.14 m	H ₂ -4	
		1.16 m		
8	23.0	1.65 m	H-1, H-3	
9	20.8	0.83 s	H-1, H ₃ -10	
10	26.3	1.26 s	H-1, H ₃ -9	

Table 6. ^1H NMR (300 MHz), ^{13}C NMR (75 MHz) and HMBC data of $\alpha\text{-pinene}$ in CDCl3

HMBC data showed correlations between the methyl group H₃-8 (δ 1.65) and C-1 (47.0 ppm), C-2 (144.5 ppm) and C-3 (116.0 ppm). Correlations were also observed between H-1 (δ 1.94) and C-2, C-3 and CH₃-8 (23.0 ppm), between the olefinic proton H-3 (δ 5.18) and C-1, C-2 and CH₃-8. Therefore it was confirmed that the methyl group C-8 was attached to one of the alkene carbons, C-2, which was connected with C-1 and C-3 on either side. Correlations between both methyl groups H₃-9 (δ 0.83) and H₃-10 (δ 1.26) and C-1, C-5 (40.7 ppm), C-6 (38.0 ppm), and CH₃-10 (26.3 ppm) and CH₃-9 (20.8 ppm) respectively together with correlations between H-1 (δ 1.94) and C-6 and CH₃-10 proved that CH₃-9 and CH₃-10 were both attached to C-6 which was linked to C-1 and C-5 on either side. Further correlations between H-3 and C-4 (31.3 ppm) and C-5, between H₂-4 (δ 2.21 and 2.32) and C-2, C-5 and C-7 (40.7 ppm) together with COSY

correlations between H₂-4 (δ 2.21, 2.32) and H-3 and H-5 indicated that C-4 was located in between C-3 and C-5. HMBC correlations between H₂-7 (δ 1.14 and 1.16) and C-1, C-2, C-5 and C-6 indicated that C-7 was located in between C-1 and C-5. Additional correlations between H-1 and C-5 and between H-5 (δ 2.08) and C-1 were observed, verifying the presence of a cyclobutane ring. The NMR data obtained were consistent with literature values^{179,180} for α -pinene except for the assignments for the three methyl signals.

3-Carene



Figure 8. ¹H NMR spectrum (300 MHz) of 3-carene in CDCl₃

The ¹H NMR spectrum of 3-carene exhibited the presence of three methyl group ($\delta 0.76$,

1.02, 1.62), an olefinic proton (δ 5.24) and two cyclopropane protons (δ 0.61, 0.71). Signals for four protons were also observed at δ 1.83, 1.94, 2.17 and 2.33. The ¹³C NMR spectrum of 3-carene accounted for ten carbons: three methyl groups (13.2, 23.5, 28.3 ppm), one trisubstituted alkene (δ 119.4, CH; 131.4, C) and a cyclopropane (16.3 ppm, C; 16.6, CH; 18.4, CH). The remaining two carbons at 20.8 ppm and 24.7 ppm were assigned as CH₂ groups by HSQC data.

3-Carene			
C #	δ ¹³ C	δ ¹ H mult. <i>J</i> (Hz)	HMBC ¹ H to ¹³ C
1	18.4	0.71 ddd 9.1, 7.6, 0.8	H-6, H ₃ -9, H ₃ -10
2	24.7	1.83 d 0.8	H ₃ -8
2.17 dd 18.7, 7.6			
3	131.4		H-1, H ₃ -8
4	119.4	5.24 m	H-6, H ₃ -8
5	20.8	1.94 dd 19.0, 0.6	
		2.33 dd 19.0, 7.6	
6	16.6	0.61 ddd 9.1, 7.6, 0.6	H-1, H ₂ -2, H ₃ -9, H ₃ -10
7	16.3		H ₂ -2, H-6, H ₃ -9, H ₃ -10
8	23.5	1.60 m	H ₂ -2
9	13.2	0.76 s	H ₃ -10
10	28.3	1.02 s	H-1, H ₃ -9

Table 7. ¹H NMR (300 MHz), ¹³C NMR (75 MHz) and HMBC data of 3-carene in CDCl₃

HMBC correlations were observed between the methyl group H₃-8 (δ 1.60) and C-2 (24.7 ppm) and the two alkene carbons, C-3 and C-4 (131.4 and 119.4 ppm respectively). Correlations between H₂-2 (δ 1.83, 2.17) and CH₃-8 (23.5 ppm) indicated that the methyl group was attached to C-3 which was connected with C-2 and C-4 on

either side. Further correlations between the two methyl groups H₃-9 at $\delta 0.76$ and H₃-10 at $\delta 1.02$ and C-1 (18.4 ppm), C-6 (16.6 ppm), C-7 (16.3 ppm), and CH₃-10 (28.3 ppm) and CH₃-9 (13.2 ppm) respectively, clearly indicated that C-1, C-6 and C-7 formed a cyclopropane with both CH₃-9 and CH₃-10 attached at the C-7 position. Correlations between H-1 ($\delta 0.71$) and C-6 and CH₃-10 and between H-6 ($\delta 0.61$) and C-1 and C-7 were also observed. The cyclopropane protons H-1 and H-6 were assigned to C-1 and C-6 respectively by HSQC data. Additional HMBC correlations observed between H-1 and C-3, between H₂-2 and C-6 and C-7 and between H-6 and C-4 enabled identification of the metabolite as 3-carene. Comparison of the NMR data with literature values^{177,181} confirmed the identity of 3-carene.

p-Cymene

The ¹H NMR spectrum of *p*-cymene exhibited one methyl singlet at $\delta 2.23$, two methyl doublets at $\delta 1.21$ and $\delta 1.23$, and four protons (two doublets, each 2H) in the aromatic region ($\delta 7.10$, 7.12). A multiplet proton signal was also observed at $\delta 2.87$. The ¹³C NMR spectrum of *p*-cymene revealed signals for ten carbon atoms, three of which were assigned to methyl groups (20.6, 23.6, 23.6 ppm) and six to a benezene ring, including two sets of equivalent protonated carbon atoms (126.0 x 2, 128.8 x 2, 134.6, 145.2 ppm). A methine was also observed at 33.4 ppm.



Figure 9. ¹H NMR spectrum (300 MHz) of *p*-cymene in CDCl₃ (reference: residual solvent peak at δ 7.26)

HMBC correlations observed between the methyl group H₃-7 (δ 2.23) and C-1 (134.6 ppm) and C-2/C-6 (128.8 ppm) as well as between H-2/H-6 (δ 7.10) and C-1 and CH₃-7 (20.6 ppm) indicated that the methyl group CH₃-7 was attached to a quaternary carbon C-1 which was connected with two equivalent carbons, C-2 and C-6, on either side. Further correlations between H-2 and C-3 (126.0 ppm) (and between H-6 and C-5), between H-3 and C-1, C-2 and C-5 (and between H-5 and C-1, C-3 and C-6) and between both H-2 and H-3 and C-4 (145.2 ppm) (and between both H-5 and H-6 and C-4) enabled complete assignments for the aromatic ring. In addition, HMBC correlations between the two methyl groups H₃-9 (δ 1.21) and H₃-10 (δ 1.23) and C-8 (33.4 ppm), C-4, and CH₃-10 (23.6 ppm) and CH₃-9 (23.6 ppm) respectively, clearly indicated that C-8, CH₃-9 and CH₃-10 formed an isopropyl group that was attached at

the C-4 position. These assignments were confirmed by the HMBC correlations observed between H-3/H-5 and C-8. In addition, COSY correlations between H-8 and H₃-10 and between H-2/H-6 and H₃-7 were observed. Comparison of the NMR data with literature values^{175,182} confirmed the identity of *p*-cymene.

<i>p</i> -Cymene			
C #	$\delta^{13}C$	δ^1 H mult. J (Hz)	HMBC ¹ H to ¹³ C
1	134.6		H-2/H-6, H-3/H-5, H ₃ -7
2,6	128.8	7.10 d 8.0	H-3/H-5, H ₃ -7
3,5	126.0	7.12 d 8.0	H-2/H-6, H-5/H-3
4	145.2		H-2/H-6, H-3/H-5, H ₃ -9, H ₃ -10
7	20.6	2.23 s	H-2/H-6
8	33.4	2.87 m	H-3/H-5, H ₃ -9, H ₃ -10
9	23.6	1.21 d 6.7	H-8, H ₃ -10
10	23.6	1.23 d 6.7	H-8, H ₃ -9

Table 8. ¹H NMR (300MHz), ¹³C NMR (75MHz) and HMBC data of *p*-cymene in CDCl₃

2.2.6 *Euodia sp.* (leaves)

The oil of *Euodia sp.* was found to contain β -caryophyllene (25%), dillapiole (8.0%) and caryophyllene oxide (3.4%). Structure characterisation of dillapiole has been discussed under 2.2.8 *Ricinus communis* (leaves).

β-Caryophyllene

The ¹H NMR spectrum of β -caryophyllene exhibited three methyl singlets at $\delta 0.98$, 1.00 and 1.61, two olefinic doublets at $\delta 4.82$ and 4.95, one olefinic proton at $\delta 5.31$ and

resonances from twelve other protons giving signals between $\delta 1.4$ and 2.4. The ¹³C NMR spectrum of β -caryophyllene accounted for fifteen carbon atoms: three methyl groups (16.1, 22.6, 30.1 ppm), a terminal alkene (111.5, 154.5 ppm), a trisubstituted alkene (124.3, 135.4 ppm) and the remaining eight carbons were assigned as five CH₂ groups (28.3, 29.0, 34.6, 39.8, 40.2 ppm), two CH groups (48.2 and 53.7 ppm) and a quaternary carbon (33.0 ppm) from HSQC data.



Figure 10. ¹H NMR spectrum (600 MHz) of β -caryophyllene (isolated by HPLC) in CDCl₃

The two methyl groups at $\delta 1.00$ (H₃-14) and 0.98 (H₃-15) showed HMBC correlations to C-1 (53.7 ppm), C-10 (40.2 ppm), the quaternary carbon C-11 (33.0 ppm) and to the carbons CH₃-15 (22.6 ppm) and CH₃-14 (30.1 ppm) respectively. Additional

correlations between H-1 (δ 1.69) and C-11 indicated that both methyl groups were attached to C-11 which was further linked to C-1 and C-10 on either side. Further correlations between the terminal methylene H₂-13 (δ 4.82, 4.95) and C-7 (34.6 ppm), C-8 (154.5 ppm) and C-9 (48.4 ppm) suggested that the terminal methylene C-13 (111.5 ppm) was attached at the C-8 position which was connected with C-7 and C-9 on either side. This assignment was confirmed by the correlations observed between H₂-7 at δ2.01 and 2.21 and C-8, C-9 and C-13 and between H-9 at δ2.32 and C-7, C-8 and C-13. Next, the methyl group at $\delta 1.61$ (H₃-12) showed correlations to C-3 (39.8 ppm), the alkene carbons C-4 (135.4 ppm) and C-5 (124.3 ppm), while one of the H-3 protons $(\delta 1.92)$ exhibited correlations to C-4, C-5 and CH₃-12 (16.1 ppm) and those data confirmed that the methyl group CH₃-12 was attached at the C-4 position with C-3 and C-5 on either side. The ¹³C chemical shift for C-5 (124.3 ppm), while one of the H-3 protons (δ 1.92) exhibited correlations to C-4, C-5 and C-12 (16.1 ppm) and those data confirmed that the methyl group C-12 was attached at the C-4 position with C-3 and C-5 on either side. The ¹³C chemical shift for this methyl group (16.1 ppm) indicates trans geometry for the double bond (the methyl group is cis to the methylene on the adjacent alkene carbon and this causes steric compression that results in a ¹³C shift of < 20 ppm for the ethyl group, whereas *cis* geometry would produce a shift of > 20 ppm). Further correlations from H-1 to C-9, H-2b (δ 1.51) to C-3 and C-9, H-3a to C-1 and C-2 (29.0 ppm) indicated that C-2 was located in between C-1 and C-3 and also that C-1 and C-10 were both linked to C-9. Thus C-1, C-9, C-10 and C-11 were arranged in a cyclobutane ring. Meanwhile, correlations observed between H-7b (82.21) and C-6 (28.3 ppm) and C-5 confirmed that C-6 was located in between C-5 and C-7. 1D Gradient selective TOCSY experiments on the olefinic proton (H-5, δ 5.31) and H₂-3
(δ 2.09 and 1.92) allowed identification of the chemical shifts for the protons of the CH₂ groups C-2, C-6 and C-7. The NMR data obtained were consistent with literature values¹⁸³ for β-caryophyllene therefore the relative ring junction geometry must be *trans*.

	β-Caryophyllene			
C #	δ ¹³ C	δ ¹ H mult. <i>J</i> (Hz)	HMBC ¹ H to ¹³ C	
1	53.7	1.69 m	H-3a, H-9, H ₃ -14, H ₃ -15	
2	29.0	1.45 m	Н-За	
		1.51 m		
3	39.8	1.92 m	H-2b, H ₃ -12	
		2.09 m		
4	135.4		H-3b, H ₃ -12	
5	124.3	5.31 dd 10.3, 4.5	H-3b, H-7b, H ₃ -12	
6	28.3	2.00 m	H-7b	
		2.35 m		
7	34.6	2.01 m	H-9, H ₂ -13	
		2.21 m		
8	154.5		H ₂ -7, H-9, H ₂ -13	
9	48.4	2.32 m	H-1, H-2b, H ₂ -7, H ₂ -13	
10	40.2	1.63-1.68 m	H-9, H ₃ -14, H ₃ -15	
11	33.0		H-1, H ₃ -14, H ₃ -15	
12	16.1	1.61 s	H-3a	
13	111.5	4.82 d 1.7	H ₂ -7, H-9	
		4.95 d 1.7		
14	30.1	1.00 s	H ₃ -15	
15	22.6	0.98 s	H ₃ -14	

Table 9. ¹H NMR (600 MHz), ¹³C NMR (150 MHz) and HMBC data of β -caryophyllene in CDCl₃

Caryophyllene oxide

The ¹H NMR spectrum of caryophyllene oxide exhibited three methyl singlets at $\delta 0.98$, 1.00 and 1.20, two olefinic doublets at $\delta 4.86$ and 4.97 and resonances from thirteen other protons giving signals between $\delta 0.9$ and 3.0. The ¹³C NMR spectrum of caryophyllene oxide accounted for fifteen carbon atoms: three methyl groups (16.3, 22.3, 29.3 ppm), one alkene (112.1, 151.0 ppm) and together with the DEPT experiment, it confirmed the presence of five CH₂ groups (26.6, 29.2, 29.3, 38.5, 39.1 ppm) in addition to the terminal methylene carbon at $\delta 112.1$, three CH groups (48.1, 50.2, 63.1 ppm) and two quaternary carbons (33.3, 59.3 ppm) in addition to the one already discussed in the alkene group. The signals at 59.3 (a quaternary carbon) and 63.1 ppm (a CH group) suggested the presence of an epoxide between those two carbons.



Figure 11. ¹H NMR spectrum (600 MHz) of caryophyllene oxide (isolated by HPLC) in CDCl₃

The similarity of the spectrum to that of β -caryophyllene with the presence of an epoxide and the absence of the trisubstituted alkene, suggested the metabolite was caryophyllene oxide and HMBC correlations observed were consistent with that structure. The chemical shifts for H-1 and H-9 matched the literature¹⁸⁴ therefore, the relative stereochemistry is the same as that described in the literature.

Caryophyllene oxide			
C #	δ ¹³ C	δ ¹ H mult. <i>J</i> (Hz)	HMBC ¹ H to ¹³ C
1	50.2	1.76 t 9.8	H-9, H ₃ -14, H ₃ -15
2	26.6	1.45 m	H-9
		1.63 m	
3	38.5	0.96 m	H-1, H ₃ -12
		2.06 m	
4	59.3		H-3a, H ₃ -12
5	63.1	2.87 dd 10.6, 4.3	H-6b, H ₂ -7, H ₃ -12
6	29.6	1.33 m	H-5, H-7b
		2.23 m	
7	29.2	2.11 m	H-5, H-9, H ₂ -13
		2.32 m	
8	151.0		H-1, H ₂ -7, H-9, H-10a, H ₂ -13
9	48.1	2.62 ddd 10.6, 9.8, 8.3	H-1, H-2b, H-7a, H ₂ -13
10	39.1	1.62 m	H-9, H ₃ -14, H ₃ -15
		1.68 m	
11	33.3		H-1, H ₃ -14, H ₃ -15
12	16.3	1.20 s	
13	112.1	4.86 d 1.4	H ₂ -7, H-9
		4.97 d 1.4	
14	29.3	1.00 s	H-1, H-10a
15	22.0	0.98 s	H-1

Table 10. ¹H NMR (600 MHz), ¹³C NMR (150 MHz) and HMBC data of caryophyllene oxide in CDCl₃

2.2.7 Cymbopogon citratus (leaves)

The oil of *Cymbopogon citratus* was found to contain geranial (32%), neral (18%), viridiflorol (14%), ledol (6.0%) and geraniol (1.5%).

Geranial (trans-citral)



Figure 12. ¹H NMR spectrum (300 MHz) of geranial and neral in CDCl₃ (reference: residual solvent peak at δ 7.26)

The ¹H NMR spectrum of geranial revealed the presence of three methyl groups (δ 1.61, 1.68, 2.16), two olefinic protons (δ 5.07, 5.89) and one aldehyde proton (δ 9.99). It also afforded signals for four protons at δ 2.20 and 2.21. The ¹³C NMR spectrum of geranial

accounted for ten carbon atoms: three methyl groups (17.3, 17.4, 25.2 ppm), two alkenes (122.4, 127.2, 132.6, 163.7 ppm) and one aldehyde carbonyl group (191.0 ppm). The remaining two carbons at 25.2 and 40.3 ppm were assigned as CH₂ groups from HSQC data.

Geranial (<i>trans</i> -citral)			
C #	$\delta^{13}C$	δ^1 H mult. J (Hz)	HMBC ¹ H to ¹³ C
1	191.0	9.99 d 8.1	
2	127.2	5.89 d 8.1	H-1, H ₂ -4
3	163.7		H ₂ -4
4	40.3	2.21 m	H-2
5	25.2	2.20 m	H ₂ -4
6	122.4	5.07 m	H ₂ -4, H ₃ -8, H ₃ -9
7	132.6		H ₃ -8, H ₃ -9
8	17.4	1.61 s	H-6, H ₃ -9
9	25.2	1.68 s	H ₃ -8
10	17.3	2.16 d 1.1	H-2, H ₂ -4

Table 11. ¹H NMR (300 MHz), ¹³C NMR (75 MHz) and HMBC data of geranial in CDCl₃

HMBC correlations between the two methyl groups H₃-8 (δ 1.61) and H₃-9 (δ 1.68) and the alkene carbons C-7 (132.6 ppm) and C-6 (122.4 ppm), and the carbons CH₃-9 (25.2 ppm) and CH₃-8 (17.4 ppm) respectively, clearly indicated that CH₃-8 and CH₃-9 were both attached to C-7 which linked to C-6 bearing an olefinic proton at δ 5.07 (H-6) which showed a correlation to CH₃-8. Furthermore, the aldehyde proton H-1 (δ 9.99) showed a correlation to C-2 (127.2 ppm), an alkene methine with a proton at δ 5.89 (H-2). Coupling (8.1 Hz) between H-1 and H-2 was observed in the ¹H NMR spectrum. The H-2 proton showed three bond correlation to both C-4 (40.3 ppm) and the methyl group CH₃-10 (17.3 ppm). These data suggested that the carbons from C-1 (191.0 ppm)

to C-4 were linked consecutively with CH₃-10 attached at the C-3 position (163.7 ppm). This assignment was confirmed by the correlations observed from H₂-4 at δ 2.21 to C-2, C-3 and CH₃-10. Additional correlations between H₂-4 and C-5 (25.2 ppm) and C-6 indicated that C-5 was located in between C-4 and C-6. The downfield position of the proton signal for the H-10 methyl group, together with the upfield position of the ¹³C signal for CH₃-10 indicated that the H-10 methyl group was *cis* to the aldehyde function on the C-2/C-3 double bond. Comparison of the NMR data with literature values¹⁸⁴ confirmed the identity of geranial.

Neral (cis-citral)

The ¹H NMR spectrum in CDCl₃ and structure of neral are shown in the geranial section. The ¹H NMR spectrum revealed the presence of three methyl groups (δ 1.59, 1.68, 1.98), two olefinic protons (δ 5.09, 5.88) and one aldehyde proton (δ 9.89). It also afforded signals for four protons at δ 2.24 and 2.58. The ¹³C NMR spectrum of neral accounted for ten carbon atoms: three methyl groups (17.7, 24.8, 25.2 ppm), two alkenes (123.6, 128.3, 133.8, 163.6 ppm) and one aldehyde carbonyl group (190.4 ppm). The remaining two carbons at 26.7 and 32.1 ppm were assigned as CH₂ groups from HSQC data.

It would be tempting to simply say here that coupling (8.1 Hz) between the aldehyde proton and one alkene signal together with HMBC correlations, indicated the same linkage patterns as had been assigned for geranial, however the upfield positions of the signal for the H-10 methyl group in the ¹H NMR spectrum, and the downfield shift in the ¹³C spectrum for CH₃-10 (relative to that for geranial) indicated that the H-10 methyl and aldehyde groups were in a *trans* relationships on the C-2/C-3 double bond.

Neral (<i>cis</i> -citral)				
C #	$\delta^{13}C$	δ^1 H mult. J (Hz)	HMBC ¹ H to ¹³ C	
1	190.4	9.89 d 8.1		
2	128.3	5.88 d 8.1	H-1, H ₂ -4	
3	163.6		H ₂ -4	
4	32.1	2.58 t 7.3	H-2, H ₂ -5	
5	26.7	2.24 m	H ₂ -4, H-6	
6	123.6	5.09 m	H ₂ -4	
7	133.8		H ₃ -9	
8	17.7	1.59 s	H ₃ -9	
9	25.2	1.68 s		
10	24.8	1.98 d 1.1	H-2, H ₂ -4	

Comparison of the NMR data with literature values¹⁸⁴ confirmed the identity of neral.

Table 12. ¹H NMR (300 MHz), ¹³C NMR (75 MHz) and HMBC data of neral in CDCl₃

Viridiflorol

The ¹H NMR spectrum of viridiflorol exhibited the presence of four methyl groups ($\delta 0.93$, 1.00, 1.02, 1.15), two signals for cyclopropane protons ($\delta 0.11$, 0.61) and resonances from eleven other protons giving signals between $\delta 1.26$ and 2.0. The ¹³C NMR spectrum of viridiflorol accounted for fifteen carbon atoms: four methyl groups (15.9, 16.3, 28.2, 31.7 ppm), one oxygenated carbon (74.7 ppm) and a methine carbon at 58.0 ppm. The remaining nine carbons were assigned as four CH₂ groups (18.4, 25.6, 29.2, 37.5 ppm), three CH groups (21.8, 28.2, 39.6 ppm) and two quaternary carbons (18.5, 38.6 ppm) from the DEPT experiment.



Figure 13. Gradient selective TOCSY (600 MHz) from excitation centered on δ 0.11 of viridiflorol in CDCl₃

An HMBC spectrum showed correlations between the methyl group H₃-12 (δ 1.02) and C-7 (28.2 ppm), between the other methyl group H₃-13 (δ 1.00) and C-6 (21.8 ppm), C-7, C-11 (18.5 ppm) and CH₃-12 (28.2 ppm), from the cyclopropane proton H-6 (δ 0.11) and C-7 and C-11 and between the other cyclopropane proton H-7 (δ 0.61) and CH₃-12 and CH₃-13 (16.3 ppm). These data indicated that the methyl groups CH₃-12 and CH₃-13 were both attached to C-11 and that C-6, C-7 and C-11 formed a cyclopropane ring. COSY correlations between H-6 and H-7 and between H-7 and H₂-8 (δ 1.40 and 1.64) confirmed the carbon linkages from C-6 to C-8 (18.4 ppm). Further HMBC correlations between the methyl group H₃-14 (δ 1.15) and C-1 (58.0 ppm), C-9 (37.5 ppm) and C-10 (74.7 ppm) suggested that the methyl group (C-14, 31.7 ppm) was attached at the C-10

position bearing a hydroxyl group, with C-1 and C-9 connected on either side. Correlations were observed between the fourth methyl group H₃-15 (δ 0.93) and C-3 (29.2 ppm), C-4 (38.6 ppm) and C-5 (39.6 ppm) and between one of the H-3 protons (δ 1.80) and C-2 (25.6 ppm) and CH₃-15. These data together with a COSY correlation between H-4 (δ 1.99) and H₃-15 indicated that CH₃-15 (15.9 ppm) was attached at C-4 that linked to C-3 and C-5 on either side. With the correlation between H-6 and C-4, those data confirmed the carbon linkages from C-2 to C-6. COSY data was used to link C-8 to C-9, C-1 to C-2 and C-1 to C-5, completing the planar structure.

		V	iridiflorol
C #	$\delta^{13}C$	δ^{1} H mult. J (Hz)	HMBC ¹ H to ¹³ C
1	58.0	1.81 m	H ₃ -14
2	25.6	1.57 m	H-3b
		1.63 m	
3	29.2	1.26 m	H ₃ -15
		1.80 m	
4	38.6	1.99 m	H-6, H ₃ -15
5	39.6	1.86 m	H ₃ -15
6	21.8	0.11 m	H ₃ -13
7	28.2	0.61 m	H-6, H ₃ -12, H ₃ -13
8	18.4	1.40 m	
		1.64 m	
9	37.5	1.56 m	H ₃ -14
		1.66 m	
10	74.7		H ₃ -14
11	18.5		H-6, H ₃ -13
12	28.2	1.02 s	H-7, H ₃ -13
13	16.3	1.00 s	H-7
14	31.7	1.15 s	
15	15.9	0.93 d 6.9	H-3b
Table	12 ¹ 111	MD ((00 MIL)) ¹	³ C NIMD (150 MILE) and UMDC data of vin

Table 13. ¹H NMR (600 MHz), ¹³C NMR (150 MHz) and HMBC data of viridiflorol in CDCl₃

Two gradient selective TOCSY experiments which utilized the signals at $\delta 0.11$ and 0.61, together with HSQC and COSY data allowed identification of chemical shifts for all remaining protons, and the NMR data was consistent with literature values¹⁸⁵ for viridiflorol, thus providing relative stereochemical data.

Ledol



Figure 14. Gradient selective TOCSY (600 MHz) from excitation centered on δ 0.33 of ledol in CDCl₃

The ¹H NMR spectrum of ledol exhibited the presence of four methyl groups ($\delta 0.94$, 0.98, 1.03, 1.14), two signals for cyclopropane protons ($\delta 0.33$, 0.72) and resonances from eleven other protons giving signals between $\delta 1.18$ and 2.1. The ¹³C NMR

spectrum of ledol accounted for fifteen carbon atoms: four methyl groups (15.4, 15.9, 28.2, 30.2 ppm), one oxygenated carbon (74.7 ppm) and a methane carbon at 53.7 ppm. Nine other carbons (19.2, 20.3, 23.4, 24.6, 24.8, 30.6, 38.4, 39.2, 40.5 ppm) were present.

HMBC correlations were similar to those of viridiflorol and indicative of an isomer of viridiflorol. The NMR data obtained matched those published for ledol¹⁸⁵, which differs from viridiflorol by its relative stereochemistry at the C-10 centre.

		Ledol	
C #	$\delta^{13}C$	δ ¹ H, mult., <i>J</i> (Hz)	HMBC ¹ H to ¹³ C
1	53.7	2.09 ddd 11.0, 10.8, 9.2	H ₃ -14
2	24.6	1.67 m	
		1.88 m	
3	30.6	1.30 m	H ₃ -15
		1.70 m	
4	38.4	1.99 m	H ₃ -15
5	40.5	1.78 m	H-6, H ₃ -15
6	23.4	0.33 dd 10.4, 9.0	H-8a, H ₃ -12, H ₃ -13
7	24.8	0.72 ddd 11.3, 9.0, 6.0	H-6, H ₃ -12, H ₃ -13
8	20.3	1.85 m	
		1.18 m	
9	39.2	1.70 m	H ₃ -14
		1.89 m	
10	74.7		H ₃ -14
11	19.2		H-6, H ₃ -12, H ₃ -13
12	28.2	1.03 s	H ₃ -13
13	15.4	0.98 s	H-6, H-7, H ₃ -12
14	30.2	1.14 s	
15	15.9	0.94 d 6.9	

Table 14. ¹H NMR (600 MHz), ¹³C NMR (150 MHz) and HMBC data of ledol in CDCl₃

Geraniol



Figure 15. Gradient selective TOCSY (600 MHz) from excitation centered on δ 4.16 of geraniol in CDCl₃

The ¹H NMR spectrum of geraniol revealed the presence of three methyl groups (δ 1.61, 1.68, 1.69) and two olefinic protons (δ 5.10, 5.43). It also afforded signals for six protons (3 x 2H) at δ 2.04, 2.11 and 4.16. The ¹³C NMR spectrum of geraniol accounted for ten carbons: three methyl groups (16.0, 17.4, 25.3 ppm), two alkenes (122.9, 123.4, 131.9, 139.8 ppm) and one primary oxygenated carbon (58.9 ppm). The remaining two carbons at 26.1 and 39.3 ppm were assigned as CH₂ groups from HSQC data.

		Geraniol	
C #	$\delta^{13}C$	δ^1 H mult. J (Hz)	HMBC ¹ H to ¹³ C
1	58.9	4.16 d 7.7	
2	122.9	5.43 m	H ₂ -1, H ₂ -4
3	139.8		H ₂ -1, H ₂ -4, H ₃ -10
4	39.3	2.04 m	H-2, H ₂ -5, H ₃ -10
5	26.1	2.11 m	H ₂ -4
6	123.4	5.10 m	H ₂ -4, H ₂ -5, H ₃ -8, H ₃ -9
7	131.9		H ₂ -5, H ₃ -8, H ₃ -9
8	17.4	1.61 br s	H-6, H ₃ -9
9	25.3	1.69 br s	H-6, H ₃ -8
10	16.0	1.68 d 2.7	H-2, H ₂ -4

Table 15. 1 H NMR (600 MHz), 13 C NMR (150 MHz) and HMBC data of geraniol in CDCl₃

HMBC correlations between the two methyl groups H₃-8 (δ 1.61) and H₃-9 (δ 1.69) and the alkene carbons C-7 (131.9 ppm) and C-6 (123.4 ppm), and the carbons CH₃-9 (25.3 ppm) and CH₃-8 (17.4 ppm) respectively, clearly indicated that CH₃-8 and CH₃-9 were both attached to C-7 which linked to C-6 bearing an olefinic proton (δ 5.10, H-6) that showed correlations to CH₃-8 and CH₃-9. Furthermore, protons at δ 4.16 (H₂-1) on the oxygenated carbon C-1 (58.9 ppm) showed correlations to C-2 (122.9 ppm) and C-3 (139.8 ppm). The alkene methine proton H-2 (δ 5.43) showed HMBC correlations to C-4 (39.3 ppm) and the methyl group CH₃-10 (16.0 ppm). Correlations were also observed between H₃-10 (δ 1.68) to C-3 and C-4. These data suggested that the carbons from C-1 to C-4 were linked consecutively with CH₃-10 attached at the C-3 position. This assignment was confirmed by the correlations observed between H₂-4 at δ 2.04 and C-2, C-3 and CH₃-10. Additional correlations between H₂-4 and C-5 (25.2 ppm) and C-6 and between H₂-5 (δ 2.11) and C-4, C-6 and C-7 indicated that C-5 was located in between C-4 and C-6, and led to identification as geraniol/nerol. The ¹³C chemical shift for CH₃-10 was indicative of *cis* orientation with respect to the C-1 group, so the metabolite was identified as geraniol. Comparison of the NMR data with literature values¹⁸⁴ confirmed the identity of geraniol.

2.2.8 Ricinus communis (leaves)

The oil of *Ricinus communis* was found to contain dillapiole (38%), piperitone (13%) and β -caryophyllene (12%). Structure characterisation of piperitone has been discussed under 2.2.2 *Tagetes spp.* (leaves) and β -caryophyllene under 2.2.6 *Euodia sp.* (leaves).

Dillapiole

The ¹H NMR spectrum of dillapiole disclosed two methoxyl singlets (δ 3.75, 4.01), and a terminal double bond (δ 5.04, 5.05 and 5.91). It also afforded an upfield singlet in the aromatic region at δ 6.35, another two proton singlet at δ 5.88 and a double triplet (*J*=6.5, 1.4 Hz) at δ 3.30. The ¹³C NMR spectrum of dillapiole exhibited signals for twelve carbon atoms, two of which were assigned to methoxyl groups (59.8, 61.2 ppm), one to a methylenedioxy group (100.8 ppm), six to a pentasubstituted benzene ring (102.7, 125.9, 135.8, 137.3, 143.9, 144.1 ppm) and the remaining three to an allyl group (33.7, 115.5, 137.2 ppm).



Figure 16. ¹H NMR spectrum (600 MHz) of dillapiole (isolated by column chromatography) in CDCl₃ (reference: residual peak solvent at δ 7.26)

The two methoxyl signals at $\delta 3.75$ (H₃-11) and $\delta 4.01$ (H₃-12) in the ¹H NMR spectrum which corresponded to the ¹³C NMR signals at 61.2 ppm and 59.8 ppm showed HMBC correlations to the benzene ring carbons C-2 (143.9 ppm) and C-3 (137.3 ppm) respectively and confirmed the attachment positions for the two methoxy groups. Further, HMBC correlations between the methylenedioxy group H₂-10 ($\delta 5.88$) and C-4 (135.8 ppm) and C-5 (144.1 ppm) indicated that the two oxygens were attached at C-4 and C-5 positions. The remaining ¹³C NMR signal at 125.9 ppm (C-1) must have been substituted by the allyl group as the signal at 102.7 ppm (C-6) was a protonated carbon which corresponded to H-6 at $\delta 6.35$ by the HSQC data. Additional HMBC correlations between H-6 and C-4 and C-5, between H₂-7 ($\delta 3.30$) and C-1, C-2, C-6, C-8 (137.2 ppm) and C-9 (115.5 ppm) permitted unambiguous assignment of substituent positions

on the aromatic ring and confirmed the carbon linkages of the allyl group. The published ¹H NMR shifts¹⁸⁶ were inconsistent with our findings, however the ¹³C NMR data obtained were consistent with literature values for Dillapiole for C-1 to H-11, except for the fact that assignments for C-2 and C-4 were reversed in the literature. The HMBC correlations between H₂-7 and C-1, C-2, C-6 together with HMBC correlations from both H-6 and the methylenedioxy group to C-4 and C-5 unambiguously defined the isolated structure as dillapiole.

Dillapiole			
C #	δ ¹³ C	δ^1 H mult. J (Hz)	HMBC ¹ H to ¹³ C
1	125.9		H ₂ -7
2	143.9		H ₂ -7, H ₃ -11
3	137.3		H ₃ -12
4	135.8		H-6, H ₂ -10
5	144.1		H-6, H ₂ -10
6	102.7	6.35 s	H ₂ -7
7	33.7	3.30 dt 6.5, 1.4	
8	137.2	5.91 ddt 16.8, 10.3, 6.5	H ₂ -7
9	115.5	5.04 ddd 10.3, 1.8, 1.4	H ₂ -7
		5.05 ddd 16.8, 1.8, 1.4	
10	100.8	5.88 s	
11	61.2	3.75 s	
12	59.8	4.01 s	

Table 16. ¹H NMR (600 MHz), ¹³C NMR (150 MHz) and HMBC data of dillapiole in CDCl₃

2.2.9 Piper aduncum (leaves)

The oil of *Piper aduncum* was found to contain dillapiole (17%), piperitone (10%) and

 β -caryophyllene (9.8%). Structure characterisation of piperitone has been discussed under 2.2.2 *Tagetes spp.* (leaves), dillapiole under 2.2.8 *Ricinus communis* (leaves) and β -caryophyllene under 2.2.6 *Euodia sp.* (leaves).

2.2.10 Piper gibbilimbum (leaves)

The oil of *Piper gibbilimbum* leaves was found to contain gibbilimbol C, gibbilimbol D (11% in total), dillapiole (2.0%) and 1,8-cineole (0.1%). It is suspected that dillapiole and 1,8-cineole originated from cross contamination of the oil during steam distillation.



Gibbilimbol C and D

Figure 17. ¹H NMR spectrum (300 MHz) of the *Piper gibbilimbum* leaf oil in CDCl₃ (reference: residual peak solvent at δ 7.26)

		Gibbilimbol C	
C #	$\delta^{13}C$	δ^{1} H mult. J (Hz)	HMBC ¹ H to ¹³ C
1	153.5	4.50 br s (OH)	H-2/H-6, H-3/H-5
2,6	115.0	6.73 d 8.5	H-6/H-2
3,5	129.5	7.05 d 8.5	H-5/H-3
4	134.9		H ₂ -1'
1'	34.4	2.51 t 7.5	
2'	31.6	1.66 m	H ₂ -1', H ₂ -3'
3'	32.0	2.04 m	H ₂ -2', H-4', H-5'
4'	130.0	5.41 m	H ₂ -3', H ₂ -6'
5'	130.7	5.41 m	
6'	34.7	1.94 m	H ₂ -7', H ₃ -8'
7'	22.7	1.35 m	H ₃ -8'
8'	13.6	0.90 t 7.4	H ₂ -7'

Table 17. ¹H NMR (300 MHz), ¹³C NMR (75 MHz) and HMBC data of gibbilimbol C in CDCl₃

		Gibbilimbol D	
C #	δ ¹³ C	δ^1 H mult. J (Hz)	HMBC ¹ H to ¹³ C
1	153.5	4.72 br s (OH)	H-3/H-5
2,6	115.0	6.76 d 8.5	H-3/H-5
3,5	129.5	7.02 d 8.5	H-5/H-3
4	134.4		H-2/H-6, H ₂ -1'
1'	35.2	2.56 t 7.5	H-3/H-5
2'	34.7	2.22 m	H ₂ -1', H-3', H-4'
3'	129.3	5.42 m	H ₂ -2'
4'	131.1	5.42 m	H ₂ -2'
5'	32.2	1.98 m	H ₂ -6'
6'	31.7	1.29 m	H ₂ -5', H ₂ -7', H ₃ -8'
7'	22.1	1.30 m	H ₃ -8'
8'	13.9	0.88 t 7.1	

Table 18. ¹H NMR (300 MHz), ¹³C NMR (75 MHz) and HMBC data of gibbilimbol D in CDCl₃

These compounds have been previously found in *P. gibbilimbum* in PNG and reported.¹²² Our data (see Figure 16 and Tables 17 and 18) was in a total agreement with the literature values.

2.2.11 Piper gibbilimbum (fruits)

The oil of *Piper gibbilimbum* fruits was similar in composition to that from the leaves, but contained slightly higher yields of gibbilimbols. The oil was found to contain gibbilimbol C, gibbilimbol D (22% in total), dillapiole (0.8%) and 1,8-cineole (0.03%). It is suspected that dillapiole and 1,8-cineole originated from cross contamination of the oil during steam distillation.

2.2.12 'Gorgor' (leaves)

The oil of Gorgor was found to contain α -pinene (37%), β -pinene (22%), β -farnesene (8.8%), caryophyllene oxide (0.9%), dillapiole (1.2%) and methyl salicylate (0.9%). It is suspected that caryophyllene oxide, dillapiole and methyl salicylate originated from cross contamination of the oil during steam distillation. Structure characterisation of α -pinene has been discussed under 2.2.5 unidentified species (leaves) and caryophyllene oxide under 2.2.6 *Euodia sp.* (leaves).

β-Pinene

The ¹H NMR spectrum of β -pinene revealed the presence of two methyl groups ($\delta 0.71$, 1.23) and a terminal methylene group ($\delta 4.55$, 4.62). Signals for eight protons were also

observed at δ 1.42, 1.82, 1.83, 2.07, 2.24, 2.44, 2.45 and 2.53. The ¹³C NMR and DEPT experiments confirmed the presence of two methyl groups (21.8, 25.6 ppm), one terminal alkene (116.0, 144.5 ppm), three CH₂ groups (23.5, 23.5, 26.9 ppm), a saturated quaternary carbon (40.4 ppm) and two CH groups (40.6, 51.4 ppm).



Figure 18. Gradient selective TOCSY (600 MHz) from excitation centered on δ 4.62 of β -pinene in CDCl₃

HMBC data showed correlations between the terminal methylene group H₂-8 (δ 4.55 and 4.62) and C-1 (51.4 ppm), C-2 (152.1 ppm) and C-3 (23.5 ppm). Correlations were also observed between H-1 (δ 2.44) and C-2 and C-8 (23.5 ppm) and between H-3b (δ 2.53) and C-2. Therefore it was confirmed that the methylene group C-8 was attached to C-2 which was connected with C-1 and C-3 on either side. Correlations between both

methyl groups H₃-9 (δ 0.71) and H₃-10 (δ 1.23) and C-1, C-5 (40.6 ppm), C-6 (40.4 ppm), and CH₃-10 (25.6 ppm) and CH₃-9 (21.8 ppm) respectively proved that CH₃-9 and CH₃-10 were both attached to C-6 which was linked to C-1 and C-5 on either side. Further correlations between H-3b and C-4 (23.5 ppm), between H₂-4 (δ 1.82 and 1.83) and C-2 and C-6 respectively indicated that C-4 was located in between C-3 and C-5. Correlations between H₂-7 (δ 1.42 and 2.45) and C-2, C-5 and C-6 and between both H-1 and H-5 (δ 2.07) and C-7 indicated that C-7 was located in between C-1 and C-5. The NMR data obtained were consistent with literature values^{184,187} for β-pinene.

β-Pinene			
C #	$\delta^{13}C$	δ ¹ H mult. <i>J</i> (Hz)	HMBC ¹ H to ¹³ C
1	51.4	2.44 m	H ₂ -8, H ₃ -9, H ₃ -10
2	152.1		H-1, H-3b, H-4a, H ₂ -7, H ₂ -8
3	23.5	2.24 m	H ₂ -8
		2.53 m	
4	23.5	1.82 m	H-3b
		1.83 m	
5	40.6	2.07 m	H ₂ -7, H ₃ -9, H ₃ -10
6	40.4		H-4b, H ₂ -7, H ₃ -9, H ₃ -10
7	26.9	1.42 m	H-1, H-5
		2.45 m	
8	105.9	4.55 br s	H-1
		4.62 br s	
9	21.8	0.71 s	H ₃ -10
10	25.6	1.23 s	H ₃ -9

Table 19. ¹H NMR (600 MHz), ¹³C NMR (150 MHz) and HMBC data of β -pinene in CDCl₃

β-Farnesene



Figure 19. H NMR spectrum (600 MHz) of β -farnesene (isolated by column chromatography) in CDCl₃ (reference: residual peak solvent at δ 7.26)

The ¹H NMR spectrum of β -farnesene contained one large singlet at δ 1.61 which accounted for two methyl groups and another methyl singlet was observed at δ 1.69. A pair of methylene singlets were observed at δ 5.00 and 5.02. Two doublets at δ 5.06 (*J*=10.8 Hz) and 5.25 (*J*=17.6 Hz), together with the doublet of doublets at δ 6.37 (*J*=17.6, 10.8 Hz) accounted for a monosubstituted terminal alkene conjugated with the previously mentioned methylene group. In addition, two olefinic protons at δ 5.11 and 5.17 were observed. Resonances were also observed from eight other protons giving signals between δ 2.0 and 2.3. The ¹³C NMR spectrum of β -farnesene accounted for fifteen carbon atoms: three methyl groups (15.9, 17.6, 25.7 ppm), four alkenes (113.0, 115.7, 124.2, 124.3, 131.7, 135.8, 138.8, 146.4 ppm) and the remaining four carbons

(26.5, 26.9, 31.3, 39.6 ppm) were assigned as CH₂ groups by HSQC data.

The terminal alkene carbon signal at 113.8 ppm (C-1) assigned with protons at $\delta 5.06$ and 5.25 (H₂-1) were allocated as an alkene together with C-2 (138.8 ppm) through ${}^{1}\text{H}$ couplings. The proton H-2 at $\delta 6.37$ which was assigned on C-2 showed HMBC correlations to C-3 (146.4 ppm) and C-4 (31.3 ppm). In addition, the terminal methylene protons H₂-15 (δ 5.00 and 5.02) which were assigned on C-15 (115.7 ppm) showed correlations to C-2, C-3 and C-4. Correlations were also observed between the CH₂ group protons at δ2.24 (H₂-4) and C-2, C-3, C-5 (26.9 ppm), C-6 (124.2 ppm) and C-15, and between one of the H-5 protons (82.19) and C-4, C-6 and C-7 (135.8 ppm). Thus the data indicated that the carbons C-1 to C-7 were connected in a chain. Further correlations between the methyl group H₃-14 (δ 1.61) and C-6, C-7 and C-8 (39.6 ppm), between the olefinic proton H-6 (65.17) and C-4, C-8 and CH₃-14 and between one of the H-8 protons (δ 1.99) and C-6, C-7 and CH₃-14 indicated that the methyl group CH₃-14 was attached to the alkene carbon C-7 with C-8 linked next to it. In addition, correlations between the two methyl groups at $\delta 1.61$ (H₃-12) and 1.69 (H₃-13) and C-10 (124.3 ppm) and C-11 (131.7 ppm) suggested that those methyl groups were both attached at the C-11 position. This assignment was confirmed by the correlations observed between the olefinic proton H-10 at $\delta 5.11$ and CH₃-12 and CH₃-13 and between one of the H-9 protons at $\delta 2.08$ and C-10 and C-11. Additional correlations between H-8a (δ1.99) and C-9 (26.5 ppm) and between H-9a (δ2.08) and C-7 and C-8 indicated that C-9 was located in between C-8 and C-10.

The cis and trans positions of the protons on C-1 with respect to the proton H-2 were

determined by their coupling constants. The proton at $\delta 5.06$ has a coupling constant of 10.8 Hz and is in a *cis* position with respect to H-2 whereas the other proton at $\delta 5.25$ shows a coupling constant of 17.6 Hz and is in a *trans* position relative to H-2. Comparison of the NMR data with literature values¹⁸⁸ confirmed the identity of β -farnesene.

		β-Farnesene	
C #	$\delta^{13}C$	δ ¹ H mult. <i>J</i> (Hz)	HMBC ¹ H to ¹³ C
1	113.0	5.06 d 10.8	
		5.25 d 17.6	
2	138.8	6.37 dd 17.6, 10.8	H ₂ -4, H ₂ -15
3	146.4		H-2, H ₂ -4, H ₂ -15
4	31.3	2.24 m	H-2, H-5b, H-6, H ₂ -15
		2.24 m	
5	26.9	2.00 m	H ₂ -4
		2.19 m	
6	124.2	5.17 m	H ₂ -4, H-5b, H-8a, H ₃ -14
7	135.8		H-5b, H-8a, H-9a, H ₃ -14
8	39.6	1.99 m	H-6, H-9a, H-10, H ₃ -14
		2.08 m	
9	26.5	2.08 m	H-8a
		2.23 m	
10	124.3	5.11 m	H-9a, H ₃ -12, H ₃ -13
11	131.7		H-9a, H ₃ -12, H ₃ -13
12	25.7	1.69 s	H-10, H ₃ -13
13	17.6	1.61 s	H-10
14	15.9	1.61 s	H-6, H-8a
15	115.7	5.00 s	H ₂ -4
		5.02 s	

Table 20. ¹H NMR (600 MHz), ¹³C NMR (150 MHz) and HMBC data of β -farmesene in CDCl₃

2.2.13 'Hane grass' (leaves)

The main metabolite in 'Hane grass' oil was trans-anethole (74%).

trans-Anethole



Figure 20. ¹H NMR spectrum (600 MHz) of 'Hane grass' leaf oil in CDCl₃ (reference: residual peak solvent at δ 7.26)

The ¹H NMR spectrum of *trans*-anethole exhibited a methyl double doublet at $\delta 1.86$ (J = 6.7, 1.6 Hz) and a methoxy singlet at $\delta 3.80$, two *trans* coupled olefinic protons ($\delta 6.10$, dq, J=15.7, 6.7 Hz and $\delta 6.36$, dq, J=15.7, 1.6 Hz) and four protons (two doublets, each 2H) in the aromatic region ($\delta 6.84$ and 7.28, J = 8.6 Hz). The ¹³C NMR spectrum of *trans*-anethole revealed signals for ten carbons, one of which was assigned to a methyl

group (18.2 ppm), one to a methoxy group (55.1 ppm), two to an alkene (123.3, 130.1 ppm) and six to a benzene ring that displayed two sets of equivalent protonated carbons (113.7, 126.6, 130.2, 158.1 ppm), and hence was *para*-disubstituted.

trans-Anethole			
C #	δ ¹³ C	δ^1 H mult. J (Hz)	HMBC ¹ H to ¹³ C
1	158.5		H-3/H-5, H-2/H-6, H ₃ -7
2, 6	113.9	6.84 d 8.6	H-3/H-5, H-6/H-2
3, 5	126.9	7.28 d 8.6	H-5/H-3, H-8
4	130.8		H-2/H-6
7	55.0	3.80 s	
8	130.3	6.36 dq 15.7, 1.6	H-3/H-5, H-9, H ₃ -10
9	123.5	6.10 dq 15.7, 6.7	H ₃ -10
10	18.4	1.86 dd 6.7, 1.6	H-8, H-9

Table 21. ¹H NMR (600 MHz), ¹³C NMR (150 MHz) and HMBC data of *trans*-anethole in CDCl₃

An HMBC correlation between the methoxyl group H₃-7 at δ 3.80 and C-1 (158.1 ppm) on the benzene ring indicated that the methoxyl group was attached at the C-1 position. Correlations between the methyl group H₃-10 (δ 1.86) and the alkene carbons C-8 (130.1 ppm) and C-9 (123.3 ppm), between H-9 (δ 6.10) and C-8 and CH₃-10 (18.2 ppm), and between H-8 (δ 6.36) and CH₃-10 indicated that the methyl group was attached to one of the alkene carbon atoms while the aromatic ring was attached to the other in a *trans* arrangement. The olefinic side chain was attached at the C-4 position (130.2 ppm) with C-8 since the olefinic proton at δ 6.36 (H-8) correlated with C-3/C-5 (126.6 ppm) in the HMBC spectrum. A correlation between H-3/H-5 (δ 7.28) and C-8 was also observed. Further correlations between H-2 (δ 6.84) and C-1, C-6 (113.7 ppm) and C-4 (and

between H-6 and C-1, C-2 and C-4) and between H-3 (δ 7.28) and C-1, C-2 and C-5 (and between H-5 and C-1, C-6 and C-3) allowed full assignment of the benzene ring and also confirmed that the methoxy group and the olefinic side chain were substituted in the *para*-position. The NMR data obtained were consistent with literature values¹⁸⁹ for *trans*-anethole.

2.2.14 Dacrydium spp. (leaves)

The oil of *Dacrydium spp*. was found to contain α -pinene (32%) and *trans*-anethole (3.7%). It is suspected that *trans*-anethole originated from cross contamination of the oil during steam distillation. Structure characterisation of α -pinene has been discussed under 2.2.5 unidentified species (leaves).

2.2.15 Eucalyptus sp. (leaves)

The main metabolite in *Eucalyptus sp.* oil was α -pinene (45%). Structure characterisation of α -pinene has been discussed under 2.2.5 unidentified species (leaves).

2.2.16 Eucalyptus tereticornis (leaves)

The main metabolite in *Eucalyptus tereticornis* oil was α -pinene (53%). Structure characterisation of α -pinene has been discussed under 2.2.5 unidentified species (leaves).

2.2.17 Eucalyptus grandis (leaves)

The main metabolite in *Eucalyptus grandis* oil was α -pinene (66%). Structure characterisation of α -pinene has been discussed under 2.2.5 unidentified species (leaves).

2.2.18 Melaleuca leucadendron (leaves)

The main metabolite in Melaleuca leucadendron oil was 1,8-cineole (60%).

1,8-Cineole



Figure 21. ¹H NMR spectrum (600 MHz) of *Melaleuca leucadendron* leaf oil in CDCl₃

The ¹H NMR spectrum of 1,8-cineole revealed a methyl singlet at δ 1.05 and a large methyl singlet at δ 1.24 for two equivalent methyl groups. It also afforded proton signals at δ 1.40, 1.49, 1.50, 1.66 and 2.02. The ¹³C NMR spectrum of 1,8-cineole confirmed three methyl groups (27.4 ppm and two for 28.9 ppm) and indicated the presence of two oxygenated carbons (70.0, 73.5 ppm). The presence of four CH₂ groups (22.7 x 2 and 31.3 x 2 ppm) and one CH group (32.8 ppm) and the assignments of protons were confirmed by an HSQC experiment.

1,8-Cineole			
C #	$\delta^{13}C$	δ^1 H mult. J (Hz)	HMBC ¹ H to ¹³ C
1	70.0		H ₃ -7, H-2b/H-6b
2, 6	31.3	1.50 t 11.6	H ₃ -7, H ₂ -6/H ₂ -2, H-3a/H-5a
		1.66 m	
3, 5	22.7	1.49 t 11.6	H-5b/H-3b
		2.02 m	
4	32.8	1.40 m	H ₃ -9/H ₃ -10
7	27.4	1.05 s	
8	73.5		H-3a/H-5a, H ₃ -9/H ₃ -10
9, 10	28.9	1.24 s	H ₃ -10/H ₃ -9 respectively

Table 22. ¹H NMR(600 MHz), ¹³C NMR (150 MHz) and HMBC data of 1,8-cineole in CDCl₃

HMBC correlations between H₃-9/H₃-10 (δ 1.24) and C-4 (32.8 ppm), the oxygenated carbon C-8 (73.5 ppm), and CH₃-10 and CH₃-9 (28.9 ppm) respectively, confirmed that the two methyl groups CH₃-9 and CH₃-10 were both attached to the oxygenated carbon C-8 which was linked to C-4. Correlations between H-3a (δ 1.49) and C-2 (31.3 ppm) and C-8, and between H-3b (δ 2.02) and C-5 (22.7 ppm) suggested that C-3/C-5 was

linked to the CH group C-4 and the methylene group C-2/C-6. Correlations between H-2b (δ 1.66) and the other oxygenated carbon C-1 (70.0 ppm) and C-6, and between H-2a (δ 1.50) and C-6, together with correlations between the methyl group H₃-7 (δ 1.05) and C-1 and C-2/C-6 suggested that C-3/C-5 were linked to the oxygenated carbon C-1 which was next to C-2/C-6. Those data also confirmed that C-1 and C-8 were linked by an ether bridge. Those data also indicated that carbons from C-1 to C-6 formed a six-membered ring, and that the structure was that of 1,8-cineole. Comparison of the NMR data with literature values^{177,190} confirmed the identity of 1,8-cineole.

2.2.19 Euroschinus falcatus (leaves)

The oil of *Euroschinus falcatus* was found to contain α -pinene (33%), γ -terpinene (16%), limonene (11%), *p*-cymene (7.9%), terpinolene (4.3%), β -pinene (3.9%), myrcene (3.9%), viridiflorol (1.6%) and spathulenol (1.6%). Structure characterisation of spathulenol has been discussed under 2.2.1 *Tithonia diversifolia* (leaves), α -pinene and *p*-cymene under 2.2.5 unidentified species (leaves), viridiflorol under 2.2.7 *Cymbopogon citratus* (leaves), β -pinene under 2.2.12 'Gorgor' (leaves).

γ-Terpinene

The ¹H NMR spectrum of γ -terpinene exhibited one methyl singlet at $\delta 1.68$, two equivalent methyl doublets at $\delta 1.03$ and two olefinic protons both at $\delta 5.45$. The ¹³C NMR spectrum of γ -terpinene revealed the presence of three methyl groups (21.6 x 2, 23.2 ppm) and two alkenes (116.6, 119.0, 131.3 and 140.9 ppm). Signals for two methylene at 27.5 and 31.8 ppm and a methine at 33.4 ppm were also observed in the

DEPT spectrum.



Figure 22. ¹H NMR spectrum (300 MHz) of γ-terpinene in CDCl₃

HMBC correlations observed between the methyl group H₃-7 (δ 1.69) and C-1 (131.3 ppm), C-2 (119.0 ppm) and C-6 (31.8 ppm) as well as between H-2 (δ 5.45) and CH₃-7 (23.2 ppm) indicated that the methyl group CH₃-7 was attached to the alkene carbon C-1 which was connected to C-2 and C-6 on either side. In addition, correlations between the two methyl groups H₃-9 and H₃-10 both at δ 1.03 and C-8 (34.6 ppm), and CH₃-10 and CH₃-9 (24.0 ppm, ³*J* couplings H-9 to CH₃-10 and H-10 to CH₃-9) respectively, clearly indicated that C-8, CH₃-9 and CH₃-10 formed an isopropyl group. Correlations between H-8 (δ 2.21) and C-4 and C-5 (140.9 and 116.6 ppm respectively) and between H-5 (δ 5.45) and C-8 suggested that the isopropyl group was attached to

C-4, which was next to C-5. Further correlations between H₂-3 (δ 2.60) and C-1, C-2, C-4 and C-5, between H-2 (δ 5.45) and C-4 and between H-5 and C-1, C-3 and C-6 allowed full assignment of the ring formed by C-1 to C-6. COSY data revealed correlations between H-2 and H₂-3, between H₂-6 and H-5, H-8 and between H₃-7 and H-2, H₂-3. The ¹³C chemical shifts matched the literature¹⁷⁵ and the ¹H chemical shifts were consistent with those of authentic γ -terpinene.

γ-Terpinene			
C #	$\delta^{13}C$	δ^1 H mult. J (Hz)	HMBC ¹ H to ¹³ C
1	131.3		H ₂ -3, H-5, H ₃ -7
2	119.0	5.45 br s	H ₂ -3, H ₃ -7
3	27.5	2.60 m	H-5
4	140.9		H-2, H ₂ -3, H-8, H ₃ -9/H ₃ -10
5	116.6	5.45 br s	H ₂ -3, H-8
6	31.8	2.60 m	H-5, H ₃ -7
7	23.2	1.69 br s	H-2
8	34.6	2.21 m	H-5, H ₃ -9/H ₃ -10
9,10	21.6	1.03 d	H-8, H ₃ -10/H ₃ -9 respectively

Table 23. ¹H NMR (300 MHz), ¹³C NMR (75 MHz) and HMBC data of γ -terpinene in CDCl₃

Limonene

The ¹H NMR spectrum of limonene revealed the presence of two methyl groups on double bonds (δ 1.68, 1.75), one terminal methylene group (both protons at δ 4.72) and one olefinic proton (δ 5.41). The ¹³C NMR and DEPT experiments showed the presence of two methyl groups (20.8, 23.2 ppm), two alkenes (108.5, 120.6, 133.8, 150.4 ppm), three CH₂ groups (28.0, 30.8, 30.8 ppm) and a methine at 41.4 ppm.



Figure 23. Gradient selective TOCSY (600 MHz) from excitation centered on δ 5.41 of limonene in CDCl₃

HMBC correlations between H₃-7 (δ 1.68) and one of the alkene carbons C-2 (120.6 ppm) and C-6 (30.8 ppm) were observed. Correlations between the methyl group H₃-10 (δ 1.75) and the methylene group H₂-9 (δ 4.72) and C-8 (150.4 ppm), C-4 (41.4 ppm), and C-9 (108.5 ppm) and CH₃-10 (20.8 ppm) respectively, clearly indicated the presence of an isopropenyl group attached to C-4. The olefinic proton H-2 at δ 5.41 showed correlations to C-3 (30.8 ppm), C-4 and CH₃-7 (23.2 ppm). Further correlations were observed from H₂-3 (δ 2.07 and 1.95) and C-4 and between H₂-5 (δ 1.49 and 1.81) and C-4 and C-6. Together with COSY correlations between H-2 and H₃-7, between H-2 and H₂-3, these data indicated that C-1 to C-6 were cyclised, and that CH₃-7 was attached at C-1 position, and confirmed the structure as limonene. The NMR data

obtained were consistent with literature values^{184,191} for limonene.

Limonene			
C #	$\delta^{13}C$	δ^{1} H mult. J (Hz)	HMBC ¹ H to ¹³ C
1	133.8		
2	120.6	5.41 m	H ₃ -7
3	30.8	1.95 m	H-2
		2.07 m	
4	41.4	2.11 m	H-2, H ₂ -3, H ₂ -5, H ₂ -9, H ₃ -10
5	28.0	1.49 m	
		1.81 m	
6	30.8	1.95 m	H ₂ -5, H ₃ -7
		2.07 m	
7	23.2	1.68 s	H-2
8	150.4		H ₂ -9, H ₃ -10
9	108.5	4.72 m	H ₃ -10
10	20.8	1.75 s	H ₂ -9

Table 24. ¹H NMR (600 MHz), ¹³C NMR (150 MHz) and HMBC data of limonene in CDCl₃

Terpinolene

The ¹H NMR spectrum of terpinolene revealed the presence of three allylic methyl groups (δ 1.66, 1.67, 1.71) and an olefinic proton (δ 5.38). The ¹³C NMR spectrum of terpinolene accounted for ten carbon atoms: three methyl groups (19.7, 20.3, 23.2 ppm), two alkenes (120.9, 121.9, 127.7, 133.9 ppm) and the three remaining carbons were assigned as CH₂ groups (26.8, 29.5, 31.5 ppm) from DEPT data.



Figure 24. Gradient selective TOCSY (600 MHz) from excitation centered on $\delta 5.38$ of terpinolene in CDCl₃

An HMBC spectrum showed correlations between H₃-7 (δ 1.66) and C-1 (133.9 ppm), C-2 (120.9 ppm) and C-6 (31.5 ppm). As C-1 was a quaternary carbon shown in the DEPT spectrum, it indicated that the methyl group CH₃-7 (23.2 ppm) was attached to C-1 with C-2 and C-6 on either side. This was confirmed by the correlation between the olefinic proton H-2 (δ 5.38) and H₂-6 (δ 2.00) and CH₃-7. Further HMBC correlations between H-2 and C-4 (127.7 ppm) and C-6, between H₂-3 (δ 2.74) and C-2, C-4 and C-5 (26.8 ppm), between H₂-5 (δ 2.33) and C-1, C-3 (29.5 ppm), C-4 and C-6 and between H₂-6 and C-1, C-2, C-4 and C-5 confirmed the carbon linkages from C-1 to C-6. Additional correlations between the two methyl groups H₃-9 (δ 1.66) and H₃-10 (δ 1.71) and C-4, C-8 (121.9 ppm), and CH₃-10 (19.7 ppm) and CH₃-9 (20.3 ppm) respectively and between H_2 -5 and C-8 indicated that the methyl groups were attached to C-8 which was further connected with C-4. Thus, the NMR data established the structure as terpinolene. The NMR data obtained were consistent with literature values^{175,192} for terpinolene.

Terpinolene			
C #	δ ¹³ C	δ^1 H mult. J (Hz)	HMBC ¹ H to ¹³ C
1	133.9		H ₂ -5, H ₂ -6, H ₃ -7
2	120.9	5.38 tq 3.8, 1.4	H ₂ -3, H ₂ -6, H ₃ -7
3	29.5	2.74 m	H ₂ -5
4	127.7		H-2, H ₂ -3, H ₂ -5, H ₂ -6, H ₃ -9, H ₃ -10
5	26.8	2.33 t 6.3	H ₂ -3, H ₂ -6
6	31.5	2.00 t 6.3	H-2, H ₂ -5, H ₃ -7
7	23.2	1.66 s	H-2, H ₂ -6
8	121.9		H ₂ -5, H ₃ -9, H ₃ -10
9	20.3	1.67 s	H ₃ -10
10	19.7	1.71 s	H ₂ -9

Table 25. ¹H NMR (600 MHz), ¹³C NMR (150 MHz) and HMBC data of terpinolene in CDCl₃

Myrcene

The ¹H NMR spectrum of myrcene revealed the presence of two methyl groups on double bonds (δ 1.68, 1.71), two terminal methylene groups (δ 5.01, 5.02, 5.06, 5.25) and two olefinic protons (δ 5.32, 6.38). It also afforded signals for four protons (2 x 2H) at δ 2.23 and 2.33. The ¹³C NMR spectrum of myrcene accounted for ten carbon atoms: two methyl groups (17.7, 25.8 ppm), three alkenes (113.1, 115.6, 124.5, 132.0, 139.0, 146.3 ppm). The remaining two carbons at 27.2 and 31.7 ppm were assigned as CH₂ groups from DEPT data.


Figure 25. Gradient selective TOCSY (600 MHz) from excitation centered on $\delta 5.02$ of myrcene in CDCl₃

HMBC correlations between the two methyl groups H₃-8 (δ 1.63) and H₃-9 (δ 1.71) and the alkene carbons C-7 (132.0 ppm) and C-6 (124.5 ppm), and CH₃-9 (25.8 ppm) and CH₃-8 (17.7 ppm) respectively, clearly indicated that CH₃-8 and CH₃-9 were both attached to C-7 which linked to C-6, which carried an olefinic proton (H-6, δ 5.32). In addition, the terminal methylene group protons H₂-1 (δ 5.06 and 5.25) showed correlations to C-2 (139.0 ppm) bearing an olefinic proton (H-2, δ 6.38) and C-3 (146.3 ppm). The olefinic proton H-2 exhibited correlations to C-4 (31.7 ppm) and the alkene carbons C-3 and C-10 (115.6 ppm). These data suggested that the carbons from C-1 to C-4 were linked consecutively with C-10 attached at the C-3 position. Gradient selective TOCSY experiments on two terminal methylene protons (δ 5.02 and 5.06) allowed identification of the chemical shifts for the protons of the CH_2 groups. These assignments were confirmed by the correlations observed between the terminal methylene group protons H₂-10 at δ 5.01 and 5.02 and C-2 and C-4 together with COSY correlations between H-1 and H-2 and between H₂-4 and H₂-10. Further HMBC correlations from H-5 (δ 2.33) to C-3 and C-7 and a COSY correlation between H₂-5 and H-6 indicated that C-5 (27.2 ppm) was located in between C-4 and C-6, and confirmed the structure as myrcene. The NMR data obtained were consistent with literature values^{180,193} for myrcene.

Myrcene							
C #	δ ¹³ C	δ^1 H mult. J (Hz)	HMBC ¹ H to ¹³ C				
1	113.1	5.06 d 10.8					
		5.25 d 17.6					
2	139.0	6.38 dd 17.6, 10.8	H ₂ -1, H ₂ -10				
3	146.3		H ₂ -1, H-2, H ₂ -5				
4	31.7	2.23 m	H-2, H ₂ -10				
5	27.2	2.33 m					
6	124.5	5.32 t 6.0	H ₃ -8, H ₃ -9				
7	132.0		H ₂ -5, H ₃ -8, H ₃ -9				
8	17.7	1.63 s	H ₃ -9				
9	25.8	1.71 s	H ₃ -8				
10	115.6	5.01 s	H-2				
		5.02 s					

Table 26. ¹H NMR (600 MHz), ¹³C NMR (150 MHz) and HMBC data of myrcene in CDCl₃

2.2.20 Schinus terebinthifolius (leaves)

The oil of *Schinus terebinthifolius* was found to contain α -pinene (32%), *p*-cymene (9.8%) and limonene (8.5%). Structure characterisation of α -pinene and *p*-cymene has been discussed under 2.2.5 unidentified species (leaves) and limonene under 2.2.19 *Euroschinus falcatus* (leaves).

2.2.21 Stylosanthes hamata (leaves)

The methanol extract *of Stylosanthes hamata* was found to contain a new diterpene ester, stylosanthenoic acid.

Stylosanthenoic acid (66)

Stylosanthenoic acid had a molecular formula $C_{26}H_{44}O_5$ at deduced by accurate ESI negative ion mass spectrometry and ¹³C NMR data. The ¹H NMR spectrum of (**66**) contained four methyl singlets ($\delta 0.74$, 0.84, 0.87 and 1.39), one methyl doublet ($\delta 0.92$), and a broad methyl singlet at $\delta 1.65$, one olefinic proton at $\delta 5.38$, four one proton doublets at $\delta 2.60$, 2.69 (J = 15.8 Hz), $\delta 2.64$ and 2.70 (J = 15.5 Hz) and multiplet resonances from nineteen other protons between $\delta 0.9$ and 4.2. The ¹³C NMR spectrum of (**66**) showed the presence of 26 carbons including; two carbonyl groups (172.4, 175.6 ppm), one alkene (122.4, 135.5 ppm) in addition to a primary and a tertiary oxygenated carbons at 63.8 and 69.9 ppm, respectively.



Figure 26. ¹H NMR spectrum (600 MHz) of (66) in CDCl₃

The HSQC spectrum of (**66**) confirmed the presence of six methyl groups (indicated by the ¹H NMR spectrum), and identified the presence of ten methylene groups, in addition to four CH groups. Therefore, there were six quaternary carbon atoms in the structure. HMBC correlations were observed between the methyl protons at $\delta 1.39$ (H₃-6') and carbons at 45.1 (C-2'), 69.9 (C-3') and 44.6 ppm (C-4'), between the methylene protons at $\delta 2.64$ and 2.70 (H₂-2') and C-3', C-4', the methyl group at 27.3 ppm (CH₃-6') and the carbonyl group at 172.4 ppm (C-1') and between the other methylene protons at $\delta 2.61$ and 2.69 (H₂-4') and C-2', C-3', CH₃-6' and the carbonyl group at 175.6 ppm (C-5'). These data indicated that C-1' to C-5' composed a 1,5-pentane dicarboxylate moiety with a methyl group and hydroxyl group attached to C-3' (see Figure 28a). HMBC correlations between the methylene protons at $\delta 4.14$ and 4.17 (H₂-15) and C-5' indicated that the 3-hydroxy-3-methyl glutaric acid moiety was mono-esterified and joined to C-15 via oxygen.

Given that the original formula contained twenty-six carbon atoms, and six of these were represented by the 3-hydroxy-3-methyl glutaric ester moiety, a diterpene based structure was most probable for the remaining twenty carbon atoms that included five methyl groups.



Figure 27. ¹³C NMR spectrum (75 MHz) of (66) in CDCl₃ (reference: solvent peak at 77.2 ppm)

The two methyl singlets at $\delta 0.84$ (H₃-18) and $\delta 0.87$ (H₃-19) showed HMBC correlations to a methylene carbon at 42.5 ppm (C-3), a quaternary carbon at 33.1 ppm (C-4), a methine carbon at 50.3 ppm (C-5) to CH₃-19 (22.0 ppm) and CH₃-18 (33.3 ppm).

Further correlations between H-5 and H₂-3 (δ1.14, 1.39) and C-4, CH₃-18 and CH₃-19 confirmed the two methyl groups CH₃-18 and CH₃-19 were attached to C-4 which was bonded to C-3 and C-5. The methyl singlet at $\delta 0.74$ (H₃-20) correlated with the methylene carbon at 39.3 (C-1), C-5, C-9 (55.5 ppm) and the guaternary carbon at 37.0 ppm (C-10), which indicated C-10 was connected with C-1, C-5, C-9 and the methyl group CH₃-20 (13.7 ppm). In addition, correlations between the methyl doublet at $\delta 1.65$ (H₃-17) and the alkene carbons at 122.4 (C-7), 135.5 ppm (C-8) and the methine carbon C-9, as well as between $\delta 1.55$ (H-9) to the methyl carbon CH₃-17 (22.3 ppm) indicated that the methyl group CH₃-17 was bonded to C-8. Further, HMBC correlations between methylene protons at $\delta 1.84$ and $\delta 1.94$ (H₂-6) and C-5, C-7, C-8 and C-10, and between the olefinic proton at $\delta 5.38$ (H-7) and C-6 (24.0 ppm) and CH₃-17 together with correlations between one of the H-1 protons (δ 1.84) and C-2 (18.9 ppm), and between one of the H-3 protons (δ 1.39) and C-1 allowed the full assignment of a 6,6-bicyclic ring system to be completed (see Figure 28b). These assignments were supported by COSY correlations observed between H-1a and H₂-2 (δ 1.45 and 1.51), H₂-2 and H₂-3, H-5 and H₂-6, H₂-6 and H-7, H-7 and H₃-17 and a long-range "W-coupling" between H-1b and H-9.

Additional HMBC correlations were observed between the methyl doublet at $\delta 0.92$ (H₃-16) and C-12 (39.8 ppm), C-13 (30.8 ppm) and C-14 (35.2 ppm) which indicated CH₃-16 (19.8 ppm) was bonded to C-13 where a proton at $\delta 1.51$ (H-13) had been assigned. COSY correlations between H-9 and H₂-11 ($\delta 1.11$ and 1.47), H₂-11 and H₂-12 ($\delta 1.10$ and 1.50), H₂-12 and H-13 ($\delta 1.51$), H-13 and H₂-14 ($\delta 1.44$ and 1.70) and H₃-16 as well as H₂-14 and H₂-15 were observed, positioning the secondary methyl group with

respect to the esterified primary alcohol. HMBC correlations between H-12a and C-9, between H₂-14 and C-12, C-13 and C-15 (63.8 ppm) and between H₂-15 and C-13 and C-14 confirmed the carbon chain from C-11 (24.5 ppm) to C-15, which was bonded via C-11 to C-9 (see Figure 28c). This led to the total planar structure of (**66**), shown in Figure 29.



Figure 28a. Selective HMBC correlations for the 3-hydroxy-3-methyl glutarate monoester moiety of (**66**)



Figure 28b. Selective HMBC correlations for the 6,6-bicyclic ring system of (66)



Figure 28c. Selective HMBC correlations for the side chain of (66)



Figure 29. The planar structure of (66)

The IR spectrum of (**66**) in CHCl₃ solution exhibited a peak at 3504 cm⁻¹ (OH group), a broad peak at approximately 3100 cm⁻¹ (an acid OH group), and peaks at 1712 and 1208 cm⁻¹ (both acid and ester carbonyl groups and C-O bond stretch respectively) confirming the assignments (Figure 30).

A search of the literature revealed this diterpene ester to be a new natural product. The NMR data for the diterpene portion of the ester corresponded well with the published data for cativol, a diterpene alcohol isolated from *Halimium viscosum* (see Table 27)¹⁹⁴.

Based on the similarity of the ¹³C NMR data, the structure of (**66**) is proposed to have the same configuration at equivalent centre of cativol. The absolute configuration at C-3' centre was not determined, as it is likely that the configuration results from a mono-esterification of an achiral dicarboxylic acid, so potentially may be racemic at the C-3' centre.

C #	Cativol ¹⁹⁴	Stylosanthenoic acid
1	39.8	39.3
2	18.9	18.9
3	42.3	42.5
4	33.0	33.1
5	50.4	50.3
6	23.9	24.0
7	122.2	122.4
8	135.9	135.5
9	55.6	55.5
10	37.0	37.0
11	25.0	24.5
12	39.4	39.8
13	30.6	30.8
14	40.0	35.2
15	61.4	63.8
16	19.8	19.8
17	22.1	22.3
18	33.2	33.3
19	21.9	22.0
20	13.7	13.7

Table 27. Comparison of ¹³C NMR data of cativol (50.3 MHz, CDCl₃) and (66) (75 MHz, CDCl₃) (C-1 to C-20)



Figure 30. IR spectrum of (66)

An $[\alpha]_D$ was measured on the stylosanthenoic acid sample in CHCl₃, and found to be -3.9° (c. 0.685 w/v%). Because of the small value of this rotation a Circular Dichroism (CD) spectrum was also run to ensure that the sample was optically active and not racemic (The CD spectrum would show no Cotton effect if the sample was racemic). It was found to have a CD_{max} at 245 nm, confirming its optical activity (Figure 31). An ORD could also be run however lack of access to a suitable instrument prevented us from running the experiment.



Figure 31. CD spectrum of (66) (0.01 M in CHCl₃)

stylosanthenoic acid							
C #	δ ¹³ C	δ^1 H, mult., J (Hz)	HMBC ¹ H to ¹³ C				
1	39.3	0.93 m	H-3b, H ₃ -20				
		1.84 m					
2	18.9	1.45 m	H-1b				
		1.51 m					
3	42.5	1.14 m	H ₃ -18, H ₃ -19				
		1.39 m					
4	33.1		H ₂ -3, H-5, H ₃ -18, H ₃ -19				
5	50.3	1.16 m	H ₂ -6,H ₃ -18, H ₃ -19, H ₃ -20				
6	24.0	1.84 m	H-5, H-7				
		1.94 m					
7	122.4	5.38 brs	H ₂ -6, H ₃ -17				
8	135.5		H ₂ -6, H ₃ -17				
9	55.5	1.55 m	H-5, H-12a, H ₃ -17, H ₃ -20				
10	37.0		H-5, H ₂ -6, H ₃ -20				
11	24.5	1.11 m	H-12				
		1.47 m					
12	39.8	1.10 m	H ₂ -14, H ₃ -16				
		1.50 m					
13	30.8	1.51 m	H ₂ -14, H ₂ -15, H ₃ -16				
14	35.2	1.44 m	H ₂ -15, H ₃ -16				
		1.70 m					
15	63.8	4.14 m	H ₂ -14				
		4.17 m					
16	19.8	0.92 d 6.4					
17	22.3	1.65 br s	H-7, H-9				
18	33.3	0.84 s	H ₂ -3, H-5, H ₃ -19				
19	22.0	0.87 s	H ₂ -3, H-5, H ₃ -18				
20	13.7	0.74 s	H-5				
1'	175.6		H ₂ -2'				
2'	45.1	2.64 d 20.2	H ₂ -4', H ₃ -6'				
		2.70 d 15.5					
3'	69.9		H ₂ -2', H ₂ -4', H ₃ -6'				
4'	44.6	2.60 d 20.5	H ₂ -2', H ₃ -6'				
		2.69 d 15.8					
5'	172.4		H ₂ -4', H ₂ -15				
6'	27.3	1.39 s	H ₂ -2', H ₂ -4'				

Table 28. ¹H NMR (600 MHz), ¹³C NMR (75 MHz) and HMBC data of (66) in CDCl₃

2.3 Summary

Monoterpenes such as carvacrol, camphor, piperitone, p-cymene, 3-carene, α - and β -pinene, geranial, neral, geraniol and 1,8-cineole have been found in the essential oils of species that include *Tithonia Diversifolia*, *Cymbopogon citratus*, *Ricinus communis*, *Piper aduncum*, the family Myrtaceae, the genus *Tagetes* and the family Zingiberaceae. Sesquiterpenes such as β -caryophyllene, caryophyllene oxide, viridiflorol and ledol were present in Tithonia Diversifolia, Cymbopogon citratus, Ricinus communis, the genus *Euodia* and the family Zingiberaceae. Methyl salicylate was detected as a major constituent in *Polygala paniculata* and the family Zingiberaceae. Dillapiole was also found in the family Zingiberaceae as well as *Tithonia Diversifolia*, *Ricinus communis*, Piper aduncum. Trans-anethole was present in the genus Dacrydium. Gibbilimbols C and D were found in the leaves and fruits of Piper gibbilimbum. The oil extracted from Euroschinus falcatus leaves contained the monoterpenes; p-cymene, α - and β -pinene, limonene, γ -terpinene, terpinolene and myrcene and the sesquiterpenes viridiflorol and spathulenol. The oil extracted from Schinus terebinthifolius leaves contained the monoterpenes; p-cymene, α -pinene and limonene. Stylosanthenoic acid, a new diterpene ester was isolated from the methanol extract of Stylosanthes hamata leaves and its structure was determined. Some of the compounds detected in oil samples from New Guinea were present in very small amounts and it is suspected that presence in many samples came from cross contamination during the oil distillation.

This research has demonstrated that it is possible to identify components by NMR that are present in moderate amounts without fractionation of essential oil samples. Even quite minor components (< 1%) can be characterised by NMR provided at least one

signal has a unique chemical shift to enable TOCSY correlations to be generated. Access to a high field NMR, equipped with a cryoprobe and improvements to NMR pulse programs (particularly 1D gradient techniques) have made this possible.

Oil/extract samples	Identified compounds
Tithonia Diversifolia (leaves)	Dillapiole, β-Caryophyllene, Carvacrol, Caryophyllene oxide
	Spathulenol, Camphor, Viridiflorol, Methyl salicylate*
Tagetes spp. (leaves)	Piperitone, Methyl salicylate
Polygala paniculata (roots)	Methyl salicylate, Dillapiole*
'Newton grass' (leaves)	β-Caryophyllene, Dillapiole, <i>p</i> -Cymene, Caryophyllene oxide
unidentified (leaves)	Carvacrol, Camphor, α-Pinene, 3-Carene, <i>p</i> -Cymene
Euodia sp. (leaves)	β-Caryophyllene, Dillapiole, Caryophyllene oxide
Cymbopogon citratus (leaves)	Geranial, Neral, Viridiflorol, Ledol, Geraniol
Ricinus communis (leaves)	Dillapiole, Piperitone, β-Caryophyllene
Piper aduncum (leaves)	Dillapiole, Piperitone, β-Caryophyllene
Piper gibbilimbum (leaves)	Gibbilimbol C, Gibbilimbol D, Dillapiole*, 1,8-Cineole*
Piper gibbilimbum (fruits)	Gibbilimbol C, Gibbilimbol D, Dillapiole*, 1,8-Cineole*
'Gorgor' (leaves)	α-Pinene, β-Pinene, β-Farnesene, Caryophyllene oxide*
	Dillapiole*, Methyl salicylate*
'Hane grass' (leaves)	trans-Anethole
Dacrydium spp. (leaves)	α-Pinene, <i>trans</i> -Anethole*
Eucalyptus sp. (leaves)	α-Pinene
Eucalyptus tereticornis (leaves)	α-Pinene
Eucalyptus grandis (leaves)	α-Pinene
Melaleuca leucadendron (leaves)	1,8-Cineole
Euroschinus falcatus (leaves)	α-Pinene, γ-Terpinene, Limonene, <i>p</i> -Cymene, β-Pinene
	Myrcene, Terpinolene, Viridiflorol, Spathulenol
Schinus terebinthifolius (leaves)	α-Pinene, <i>p</i> -Cymene, Limonene
Stylosanthes hamata (leaves)	Stylosanthenoic acid

Table 29. Compounds identified from the collected species

*Compounds that appear to be contaminants in essential oil samples due to inadequate cleaning of steam distillation apparatus, prior to use.

2.4 Antimicrobial assay

A large zone of inhibition (halo) is not necessarily indicative of good antibacterial/antifungal activity. It may mean the active component diffuses well through the water-based agar medium maintaining a high concentration over a large area. A very good antibacterial/antifungal agent which is relatively insoluble in water might diffuse through the water to a very limited extent, and only produce a very small zone of inhibition.



Figure 32. Zones of inhibition obseved on C. neoformans

Tables 30a and 30b show the diameter of zones of inhibition observed for various volatile oils/extracts against bacteria, fungi and yeast respectively. Zones of inhibition are expressed as the diameter of the zone in mm. Significant activity (halo size over 30 mm) was shown by distillates of *T. diversifolia*, the unidentified species and *Euodia spp.* against *B. cereus*, *E. grandis* against *S. epidermidis*, *S. aureus*, *B. cereus*, *Neurospora* and *C. neoformans*, 'Gorgor' against *C. neoformans*, 'Hane grass' against *P. aeruginosa*. The crude extract of *P. aduncum* which contained aduncamide has been reported to

exhibit a significant activity against *B. subtilis, E. coli* and *Penicillium*¹¹⁰ Rather surprisingly in our test, no activity against *B. cereus* was shown but some activity was observed against *E. coli* and *Penicillium*. It should be noted that the *Bacillus* species used in our test differed from that in the literature. The extract of *P. gibbilimbum* has been reported to show antibacterial activity toward *S. epidermidis* and *B. cereus*,¹²³ however, both the leaf and fruit extracts showed a negative result against *S. epidermidis* and only the leaf extract was negative toward *B. cereus*. In addition, the leaf extract showed a significant activity against *S. aureus* with a halo size of 49.5 mm. The essential oil of *M. leucadendron* was reported to be active against *B. cereus* and *S. aureus* but inactive against *E. coli* and *P. aeruginosa*¹⁶² however results showed positive activity against all those microbes in this test, with an especially large halo observed against *B. cereus* (36.5 mm). Citral in *C. citratus* extract was found to possess antifungal activity against plant and human pathogens^{78,79} and indicated positive activity against all of the fungi used in this test.

A further investigation was carried out to see whether the activities were due to specific metabolites. Results are indicated in Table 31. The major components of the distillates that produced a large halo were selected and tested against the microbes. The original crude oils were also tested for comparison. All of the metabolites tested showed reduced activities compared with the oil distillates. This could be indicative of the presence of other minor components in the distillates with much greater activity or of synergistic effects from other oil components.

	gram positive bacteria						gra	am negat	ive bacte	eria		
species	S. e	S. a	В. с	S. p	S. v	E.f	E.c	P. v	Sal.	P.a	E.c	К. р
T. d	-	17.0	32.0	16.5	20.0	11.0	10.0	12.0	-	-	8.0	7.5
T. spp.	-	16.5	19.5	15.0	18.0	11.5	-	19.0	11.5	8.0	-	9.0
Р. р	-	14.5	16.0	14.5	-	7.0	11.0	10.5	13.5	7.0	-	11.0
Newton	-	-	18.0	11.5	20.0	10.5	8.0	-	-	7.5	8.0	-
unidentified	-	-	36.5	19.5	-	13.5	18.5	-	11.5	9.0	10.0	9.0
E. sp.	-	-	41.0	17.5	15.0	-	9.0	-	-	7.0	7.0	-
С. с	-	18.0	12.0	21.0	20.0	13.5	10.0	9.5	10.0	9.0	9.5	8.0
R. c	10.5	10.5	9.0	7.5	-	10.0	9.0	7.5	-	-	7.5	7.0
P. a	11.0	10.0	-	8.5	14.5	8.5	7.0	-	8.0	-	7.5	7.0
P. g lea	-	49.5	-	23.0	12.0	20.5	-	-	-	-	-	7.0
P. g fru	-	23.0	8.5	16.0	-	11.5	9.5	8.5	8.0	-	7.0	7.0
Gorgor	-	20.0	15.0	17.0	18.0	11.0	10.0	9.0	9.0	-	9.0	7.0
Hane	17.5	14.0	18.0	11.0	11.0	10.5	9.5	10.0	9.5	48.5	7.0	7.5
D. spp.	14.0	8.5	12.5	9.0	13.0	10.0	7.5	-	-	12.5	7.0	-
E. sp.	-	18.0	29.5	18.5	28.0	20.5	8.0	9.0	8.5	7.0	7.5	7.0
E.t	-	21.0	27.5	19.0	14.0	14.5	15.0	11.5	-	7.5	9.0	8.5
E. g	32.0	43.0	36.5	22.0	28.0	12.0	23.5	25.0	22.0	8.5	8.0	16.0
M. I	-	10.5	36.5	15.0	18.0	14.0	11.5	10.0	9.0	21.5	7.0	7.0
E.f	-	10.0	-	-	-	-	-	8.0	-	-	-	-
S. t	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	8.0
S. h	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Table 30a. Diameter of zone of inhibition (mm); '-' indicates no observed inhibition

		yeast				
species	Fus.	Neu.	Rhi.	Pen.	Hum.	C. n
T.d	-	10.5	8.0	-	7.5	11.0
T. spp.	-	9.0	-	-	-	12.0
Р. р	-	7.0	-	7.0	-	11.0
Newton	-	8.5	7.0	-	-	-
unidentified	10.0	-	7.0	16.0	8.0	20.0
E. sp.	-	13.0	9.5	-	7.5	10.0
С. с	15.0	12.0	7.0	20.0	9.5	13.0
R. c	7.0	11.0	9.0	9.0	-	12.5
P. a	-	10.0	7.0	9.0	8.5	8.0
P. g lea	16.0	10.5	7.0	8.5	8.5	13.0
P. g fru	-	9.0	7.0	24.5	8.5	28.0
Gorgor	9.0	-	-	9.5	-	30.5
Hane	8.5	-	-	9.5	-	11.0
D. spp.	-	-	-	8.0	-	10.5
E. sp.	12.5	13.0	7.0	10.0	7.0	15.0
E.t	8.0	10.5	-	12.0	-	3.0
E. g	12.0	31.0	-	17.0	7.0	57.0
M. I	10.0	8.0	-	9.0	-	11.0
E.f	-	-	-	-	-	-
S. t	-	-	-	-	-	-
S. h	-	-	-	-	-	-

Table 30b. Diameter of zone of inhibition (mm); '-' indicates no observed inhibition

components	microbes							
species	S.epidermidis	S.aureus	B.cereus	P.aeruginosa	Neurospora	C.neoformans		
α-Pinene	11.0	-	13.0	N/A	-	-		
E. grandis	33.0	42.0	33.0	N/A	30.0	59.0		
1,8-Cineole	N/A	N/A	8.0	N/A	N/A	N/A		
M. leucadendron	N/A	N/A	18.0	N/A	N/A	N/A		
Dillapiole	N/A	N/A	11.0	N/A	N/A	N/A		
T. diversifolia	N/A	N/A	28.0	N/A	N/A	N/A		
Carvacrol	N/A	N/A	12.0	N/A	N/A	N/A		
unidentified sp.	N/A	N/A	22.0	N/A	N/A	N/A		
β-Caryophyllene	N/A	N/A	-	N/A	N/A	N/A		
Euodia sp.	N/A	N/A	39.0	N/A	N/A	N/A		
trans-Anethole	N/A	N/A	N/A	10.0	N/A	N/A		
Hane grass'	N/A	N/A	N/A	12.0	N/A	N/A		

Table 31. Diameter of zone of inhibition (mm) for individual components; '-' indicates no observed inhibition

2.5 Cytotoxicity assay

Results obtained are expressed as GI_{50} values in Table 32a and 32b. The GI_{50} value is the concentration of distillate that inhibits the growth of the cancer cells by 50%. Usually for pure compounds, a GI_{50} value of less than 10μ g/mL is considered significantly cytotoxic.

None of those steam distillates exhibit high levels of growth inhibition, but distillates of *Piper gibbilimbum*, *Eucalyptus tereticornis*, *Eucalyptus grandis* and *Schinus terebinthifolius* all showed significant activity. *Euodia* and "Gorgor" appear to show some selectivity for the H460 cell line. Although some of the samples displayed cytotoxicity, the levels were not sufficient to warrant further investigation.

	Cell lines and GI_{50} values (µg/mL					
Species	H460	MCF-7	SF268			
Tithonia Diversifolia	34	36	48			
Tagetes spp.	56	58	66			
Polygala paniculata	82	68	115			
"Newton grass"	50	48	52			
unidentified	54	48	52			
Euodia sp.	22.5	30	40			
Cymbopogon citratus	65	48	46			
Ricinus communis	170	165	165			
Piper aduncum	56	52	52			
Piper gibbilimbum	17.5	19	22			
Piper gibbilimbum	22	23	25			
"Gorgor"	22.5	40	39			
"Hane grass"	68	76	90			
Dacrydium spp.	58	58	45			
Eucalyptus sp.	50	50	45			
Eucalyptus tereticornis	19.5	21	21			
Eucalyptus grandis	20	20	22			
Melaleuca leucadendron	100	125	150			
Control	250	250	250			

Table 32a. GI_{50} values for different cell lines

Species/compounds	GI₅₀ values (µg/mL)
Euroschinus falcatus	32
Schinus terebinthifolius	8.1
Stylosanthes hamata	34
Stylosanthenoic acid	39

Table 32b. GI_{50} values for mouse lymphoma cell line (P388D1)

CHAPTER 3 Experimental

3.1 General Experimental Procedures

3.1.1 Solvents

All solvents (technical grade) were distilled prior to use.

3.1.2 Instrumentation

3.1.2.1 NMR Spectrometry

¹H and ¹³C NMR spectra were recorded on a 300 MHz Varian Mercury spectrometer and 600 MHz Bruker Avance spectrometer. Chemical shifts are given relative to tetramethylsilane (TMS) at 0.0 ppm as internal standard in CDCl₃. 2D NMR data were also obtained using the same system, and the spectra were measured and reported in ppm. The TOCSY mixing time used for 300 and 600 MHz 1D TOCSY experiments was 0.12 second.

3.1.2.2 Mass Spectrometry (MS)

Electrospray ionisation mass spectrometry (ESI-MS) was performed in HPLC grade methanol with a Bruker BioApex 47e Fourier Transform Ion Cyclotron Resonance Mass Spectrometer at the Australian Institute of Marine Science, Townsville.

3.1.2.3 Infrared Spectroscopy (IR)

Infrared spectra were taken in chloroform using a Nicolet Nexus Fourier Transform IR (FT-IR) spectrometer.

3.1.2.4 Optical Rotations ([α]_D)

Optical rotations were recorded in chloroform using a JASCO P-1020 Polarimeter.

3.1.2.5 Circular Dichroism (CD)

CD was observed in chloroform using a Jasco J-715 spectropolarimeter.

3.1.2.6 Column Chromatography

The oils/extracts were separated by column chromatography under reduced pressure. Silica gel 60 G (Merck) was used as the stationary phase, and the elution of the adsorbed mixtures was by step-wise gradient elution (i.e. using mixtures of solvents containing increasing amounts of the more polar solvent). All fractions obtained were examined by thin layer chromatography (TLC) and ¹H NMR spectroscopy.

3.1.2.7 Thin Layer Chromatography (TLC)

TLC was carried out on plastic plates precoated with silica gel 60 F (Merck) (0.2 mm, normal phase). After elution, plates were examined under UV light (254 nm) to detect UV absorbing compounds, and then sprayed with vanillin concentrated sulphuric acid in methanol before heating to visualise individual compounds.

3.1.2.8 Gas Chromatography (GC)

The oils were analysed by GC using a Hewlett Packard 5890 system. A Supelcowax 10 column (30m x 0.25 mm inner diameter) was used with helium as carrier gas (1mL/min). The oven temperature was kept at 30 °C for 4 min and programmed to 150 °C at a rate of 4 °C/min, then kept constant at 150 °C for 1.5 min and then programmed to 200 °C at

a rate of 5 °C/min. The injector temperature was set at 150 °C. The percentage compositions were obtained from electronic integration measurements using flame ionization detection (FID, 250 °C). Cyclohexane was used as solvent.

3.1.2.9 Gas Chromatography-Mass Spectrometry (GC-MS)

GC-MS analyses were conducted using a 1200 MSMS Gas Chromatograph attached on a Varian CP-3800. A Supelcowax 10 column (30m x 0.25mm inner diameter) was used with helium as carrier gas (1mL/min). Samples of 1 mL were injected into the GC, which was run in splitless mode with a flowrate of 1mL per minute. The GC oven temperature was kept at 30 °C for 4 min and programmed to 150 °C at a rate of 4 °C/min, then kept constant at 150 °C for 1.5 min and then programmed to 200 °C at a rate of 5 °C/min.. The injector temperature was 150 °C. MS were taken at 70 eV. Mass range was from *m/z* 50 to 350 and the column pressure was 11.0 psi.

3.1.2.10 High Performance Liquid Chromatography (HPLC)

Preparative HPLC was carried out using a GBC LC 1150 HPLC pump, a Rheodybe 7725i manual injector with a 200 μ l sample loop, and various C-18 columns. Samples were observed at multiple UV/Vis wavelengths simultaneously with a GBC LC 5100 Photodiode Array Detector (PDA) and WinChrom Chromatography Data System (Version 1.3.1) software. Flow rates ranged from 1-2 ml/min. Distilled water and LR grade Acetonitrile were filtered through a Millipore 0.45 μ m HA (water) or FH (methanol) membrane filter and degassed by sparging with helium for 15 minutes.

3.2 Bioassays

3.2.1 Antimicrobial Assay

Antimicrobial assays were carried out in School of Veterinary and Biomedical Sciences, JCU against a range of gram positive and gram negative bacteria. Yeast and fungi were also included in the assays. Agar plates and filter paper disks were used.

Staphylococcus epidermidis (ATCC 12228), Staphylococcus aureus (ATCC 25923), Bacillus cereus (ATCC 10870), Streptococcus pyogenes (wild*), Streptococcus viridans (wild), Enterococcus faecalis (wild), Escherichia coli (ATCC 25922), Proteus vulgaris (wild), Salmonella serotype (wild), Pseudomonas aeruginosa (ATCC 27853), Enterobacter cloacae (wild), Klebsiella (wild), Fusarium (wild), Neurospora (wild), Rhisopus (wild), Penicillium (wild), Humicola (wild) and Cryptococcus neoformans var gatii (wild) were used as test microorganisms. The bacteria, fungi and yeast were prepared in Nutrient Broth (Sigma-Aldrich) prior to use. The impregnated broth was poured onto the Nutrient Agar or Sabouraud Dextrose Agar (Sigma-Aldrich). 10µl of each distillates/extracts were added to filter paper disks, and the disk was placed on the surface of the agar. The plates were then incubated at 37 °C or 30 °C for 24-48 hours. A clear zone of inhibition around the disk indicated activity as opposed to the cloudy bacterial/fungal film growing over the rest of the plate. The disk diameter used in this assay was 6.5 mm and results are shown in the Tables in Chapter 2.4.

* wild strain collections from School of Veterinary and Biomedical Sciences, JCU

3.2.2 Cytotoxicity Assay

Cytotoxicity assessment of the eighteen essential oils was conducted at the Australian

Institute of Marine Science, Townsville. Incubated cultures of three different cancer cell lines were used to assess cell growth in the presence of each sample extract. These cell lines covered a range of cancer-types: lung cancer (H460), breast cancer (MCF-7), glioma (SF268). Assays on the three samples (*Euroschinus falcatus, Schinus terebinthifolius* and *Stylosanthes hamata*) which were collected on JCU campus and Stylosanthenoic acid, a purified compound from *Stylosanthes hamata*, were carried out at the School of Veterinary and Biomedical Sciences, JCU using the mouse lymphoma cell line (P388D1). Results obtained were indicated in the Tables in Chapter 2.5.

3.3 Plant selection and extraction

Plants were selected by Dr Stewart Wossa (University of Goroka, Papua New Guinea) in 2006 utilising knowledge of traditional herbal and medicinal use. Plant material was either steam distilled to afford essential oils, or extracted with methanol to afford crude extracts. Eighteen steam-distilled volatile oil fractions were forwarded (see Table 33). Leaf samples of three species (*Euroschinus falcatus, Schinus terebinthifolius* and *Stylosanthes hamata*) were collected on Douglas campus of JCU in 2008. Leaves of *Euroschinus falcatus* (359.28g) and *Schinus terebinthifolius* (431.02g) were each steam distilled and yielded 0.2ml and 0.1ml of oils respectively. Leaves of *Stylosanthes hamata* (258.44g) were extracted with methanol and filtered. The solvent was removed at 50°C under vacuum on a rotary evaporator (Büchi) to give 12.06g of crude extract.

Botanical Name	Family
Tithonia diversifolia (leaves)	Asteraceae
Tagetes spp. (leaves)	Asteraceae
Polygala paniculata (roots)	Polygalaceae
'Newton grass' (leaves)	unidentified
unidentified (leaves)	unidentified
Euodia sp. (leaves)	Rutaceae
Cymbopogon citratus (leaves)	Poaceae
Ricinus communis (leaves)	Euphorbiaceae
Piper aduncum (leaves)	Piperaceae
Piper gibbilimbum (leaves)	Piperaceae
Piper gibbilimbum (fruits)	Piperaceae
'Gorgor' (leaves)	Zingiberaceae
'Hane grass' (leaves)	unidentified
Dacrydium spp. (leaves)	Podocarpaceae
Eucalyptus sp. (leaves)	Myrtaceae
Eucalyptus tereticornis (leaves)	Myrtaceae
Eucalyptus grandis (leaves)	Myrtaceae
Melaleuca leucadendron (leaves)	Myrtaceae
Euroschinus falcatus (leaves)	Anacardiaceae
Schinus terebinthifolius (leaves)	Anacardiaceae
Stylosanthes hamata (leaves)	Leguminosae

Table 33. Species for which steam distillates/extracts were obtained

3.3.1 Identification of components in essential oils

Components in oils from the *Tagetes spp.*, *Polygala paniculata*, *Piper gibbilimbum*, 'Hane grass', *Dacrydium spp.*, *Eucalyptus sp.*, *E. tereticornis*, *E. grandis*, *Melaleuca leucadendron*, *Euroschinus falcatus* and *Schinus terebinthifolius* were identified without separation by the use of NMR spectroscopy.

The distilled oil (50 mg) from Tithonia diversifolia was fractionated by reverse phase

HPLC using a C_{18} column (250 x 4.6 mm) eluted with 100% CH₃CN at a flow rate of 1 ml/min (fractions 1-6). The CH₃CN layer was evaporated under reduced pressure. Fraction 1 (5.0-9.2 min) was a mixture of Dillapiole, Carvacrol, Camphor and Methyl salicylate. Fraction 3 (16.2-17.4 min) was a mixture of Caryophyllene oxide and Spathulenol. Fractions 5 (22.6 min) and 6 (36.2 min) contained Viridiflorol and β -Caryophyllene respectively.

For each of the distilled oils from 'Newton grass', *Cymbopogon citratus*, *Ricinus communis* and 'Gorgor', a sample (50 mg) was rapidly chromatographed on silica gel under vacuum eluted with 50 ml each of 33% DCM/Hexane, 50% DCM/Hexane, 66% DCM/Hexane, 100% DCM, 5% EtOAc/DCM and 10% EtOAc/DCM (fractions 1-6). The fractions obtained from these separations contained the components listed below.

'Newton grass'; Fraction 1 (33% DCM/Hexane) was a mixture of *p*-Cymene, β -Caryophyllene and Caryophyllene oxide. Fraction 2 and 3 (50% DCM/Hexane and 66% DCM/Hexane respectively) contained Dillapiole.

Cymbopogon citratus; Fraction 3 (66% DCM/Hexane) was a mixture of Geranial and Neral and fraction 5 (5% EtOAc/DCM) was a mixture of Geraniol, Viridiflorol and Ledol.

Ricinus communis; Fraction 1 (33% DCM/Hexane) was a mixture of Dillapiole and β-Caryophyllene. Fraction 2 (50% DCM/Hexane) contained Dillapiole and fraction 3 (66% DCM/Hexane) was a mixture of Dillapiole and Piperitone.

'Gorgor'; Fraction 1 (33% DCM/Hexane) contained β -Farnesene and fraction 2 (50% DCM/Hexane) was a mixture of Dillapiole and Methyl salicylate. Fraction 3 (66%

115

DCM/Hexane) was a mixture of Dillapiole and Caryophyllene oxide.

p-Cymene, 3-Carene and α -Pinene were identified without separation from oil of the unknown species by the use of NMR spectroscopy. The distilled oil (50 mg) was fractionated by reverse phase HPLC using a C₁₈ column (250 x 4.6 mm) eluted with 92% CH₃CN/H₂O at a flow rate of 0.7 ml/min (fractions 1-5). Fractions were each transferred to a separating funnel, diluted with water and extracted with DCM. The DCM layer was evaporated under reduced pressure. Fraction 2 (3.2 min) and 4 contained (6.8 min) Carvacrol and Camphor respectively.

The distilled oil from the *Euodia sp.* (50 mg) was fractionated by reverse phase HPLC using a C_{18} column (250 x 4.6 mm) eluted with 100% CH₃CN at a flow rate of 1 ml/min (fractions 1-6). The CH₃CN layer was evaporated under reduced pressure. Fraction 2 (6.2 min), 4 (15.0 min) and 6 (33.2min) contained Dillapiole, Caryophyllene oxide and β -Caryophyllene respectively.

The distilled oil from *Piper aduncum* (50 mg) was fractionated by reverse phase HPLC using a C₁₈ column (250 x 4.6 mm) eluted with 100% CH₃CN at a flow rate of 1 ml/min (fractions 1-5). The CH₃CN layer was evaporated under reduced pressure. Fractions 1 (6.0 min) and 5 (33.4 min) contained Dillapiole and β -Caryophyllene. Fraction 2 (6.8-7.6 min) was a mixture of Dillapiole and Piperitone.

3.3.2 Isolation and identification of components from crude extracts

The MeOH crude extract from Stylosanthes hamata (2g) was rapidly chromatographed

on silica gel under vacuum eluted with 100 ml each of 75% Hexane/DCM, 50% Hexane/DCM, 100% DCM, 75% DCM/EtOAc, 50% DCM/EtOAc/DCM, 100% EtOAc and 75% EtOAc/MeOH (fractions 1-7). Fractions 4 and 5 were combined and the solvent was removed using a rotary evaporator to afford an extract (0.2364g) which was then chromatographed on silica gel under vacuum eluted with 33% Hexane/EtOAc. The solvent of fraction 3 was removed and again was chromatographed on silica gel under vacuum eluted on silica gel under vacuum eluted with a step-wise gradient of 50-33% Hexane/EtOAc. The solvent of fraction 2 was removed to afford an extract of 0.0983g which was chromatographed on silica gel under vacuum eluted with 33% Hexane/EtOAc. The solvent of fraction 3 was removed to afford an extract of 0.0983g which was chromatographed on silica gel under vacuum eluted with 33% Hexane/EtOAc. The solvent of fraction 3 was removed to afford an extract of 0.0983g which was chromatographed on silica gel under vacuum eluted with 33% Hexane/EtOAc. The solvent of fraction 3 was removed to afford an extract of 0.0983g which was chromatographed on silica gel under vacuum eluted with 33% Hexane/EtOAc. The solvent of fraction 3 was removed to afford an extract of 0.0690g which was identified as Stylosanthenoic acid by the NMR spectroscopy.

Stylosanthenoic acid

Yellow optically active gum; $[\alpha]_D -3.9^\circ$ (c. 0.685 w/v% in CHCl₃); CDmax 245nm (c. 0.01 M in CHCl₃); Found: $[M-H]^-$, 435.3119; C₂₆H₄₃O₅ requires $[M-H]^-$, 435.3111; IR v_{max} (CHCl₃): 3504, 3100, 1712, 1363, 1208 cm⁻¹.

¹H NMR spectrum (CDCl₃): Refer to Table 28
¹³C NMR spectrum (CDCl₃): Refer to Table 28

References

- ¹ Queiroz, E.F., Ahua, K.M., Hostettmann, K., Investigation of medicinal plants for the treatment of neglected diseases. *Chimia* 2005, 59(6), 299-302.
- ² Wall, E.M., Camptothecin and taxol: discovery to clinic. *Medicinal Research Reviews* 1998, 18(5), 299-314.
- ³ Li, T.S.C., Medicinal plants; Culture, Utilization and Phytopharmacology. Technnomic Publishing Co. Inc., Lancaster, Pa. 2000
- ⁴ Anon, A pictorial history of herbs in medicine and Pharmacy. *Herbalgram* 1998, 42, 33-47.
- ⁵ Newman, D.J., Cragg, G.M., Snader, K.M., The influence of natural products upon drug discovery (Antiquity to late 1999). *Nat. Prod. Reports* 2000, 17(3), 215-234.
- ⁶ Dev, S., Environ. Health Perspectives 1999, 107(10), 783-789.
- ⁷ Fallarino, M., A pictorial history of herbs in Medicine and Pharmacy. *Herbalgram* 1998, 42, 33-47.
- ⁸ Grabley, S., Thiericke, R., The impact of natural products on drug discovery in S. Grabley, R. Thierricke eds, Drug discovery from Nature. Springer, Berlin, 1999, 3-37.
- ⁹ Hoareau, L., DaSilva, E.J., Medicinal plants: a re-emerging health aid. *EJB Electronic Journal of Biotechnology* 1999, 2(2)
- ¹⁰ Pereira, P.S., Dias, D.A., Vichnewski, W., Nasi, A.M.T.T., Herz, W., Sesquiterpene lactones from Brazilian *Tithonia diversifolia*. *Phytochemistry* 1997, 45(7), 1445-1448.
- ¹¹ Tona, L., Kambu, K., Ngimbi, N., Mesia, K., Penge, O., Lusakibanza, M., Cimanga, K., De Bruyne, T., Apers, S., Totte, J., Pieters, L., Vlietinck, A. J., *Phytomedicine* 2000, 7, 31-38.
- ¹² Rungeler, P., Lyss, G., Castro, V., Mora, G., Pahl, H.L., Merfort, I., *Planta Med.* 1998, 64, 588-593.
- ¹³ Lin, C.C., Lin, M.L., Lin, J.M., *Phytother. Res.* 1993, 7, 305-309.
- ¹⁴ Kuo, Y.H., Lin, B.Y., Chem. Pharm. Bull. 1999, 47, 428-429.
- ¹⁵ Kuo, Y.H., Chen, C.H., Sesquiterpenes from the leaves of *Tithonia diversifolia*. J. Nat. *Prod.* 1998, 61, 827-828.
- ¹⁶ Kuo, Y.H., Chen, C.H., Chem. Pharm. Bull. 1997, 45, 1223-1224.
- ¹⁷ Bordoloi, M., Barua, N. C., Ghosh, A.C., An artemisinic acid analogue from *Tithonia diversifolia*. *Phytochemistry* 1996, 41, 557-559.
- ¹⁸ Baruah, N.C., Sarma, J.C., Barua, N.C., Sarma, S., Sharma, R.P., Germination and growth inhibitory sesquiterpene lactones and a flavone from *Tithonia diversifolia*. *Phytochemistry* 1994, 36, 29-36.

- ¹⁹ Schuster, A., Stokes, S., Papastergiou, F., Castro, V., Poveda, L., Jakupovic, J., Sesquiterpene lactones from two *Tithonia* species. *Phytochemistry* 1992, 31, 3139-3141.
- ²⁰ Chowdury, P.K., Barua N.C., Sharma, R.P., Thyagarajan, G., Herz, W., Structure of deacetylviguestenin (tagitinin E). J. Org. Chem. 1980, 45, 535-536.
- ²¹ Baruah, N.C., Sharma, R.P., Madhusudanan, K.P., Thyagarajan, G., Herz, W., Murari, R., Sesquiterpene lactones of *Tithonia diversifolia*, stereochemistry of the tagitinins and related compounds. *J. Org. Chem.* 1979, 44(11), 1831-1835.
- ²² Rice, E. L., Allopathy. Academic Press, New York, 1974
- ²³ Wolf, R. B., Spencer, G. R., Kwolek, W. F., Weed Sci. 1984, 32, 612.
- ²⁴ Duke, S.O., Vaughn, K.C., Croom, E.M., Elsohly, N.H., Weed Sci. 1987, 35, 499.
- ²⁵ Pal R, Kulshreshta D.K., Rastogi R.P., Chemical constituents of *Tithonia tagitiflora* Desf.: part IV—tagitinins C, D and F. *Indian J. Chem.* 1977, 15B, 208-211.
- ²⁶ Goffin E, Ziemons E, De Mol P, de Céu de Madureira M, Martins AP, Proença da Cunha A, Philippe G, Tits M, Angenot L, Frederich M., In vitro anti-plasmodial activity of Tithonia diversifolia and identification of its main active constituent: tagitinin C. *Planta Med.* 2002, 68, 541–543.
- ²⁷ Brummitt, R.K., Vascular Plant Families and Genera. Royal Botanic Gardens, Kew, 1992
- ²⁸ Gupta, Y.C., Sharma Y.D., Pathania, N.S., Let the flower of gods bless you. India, 2002
- ²⁹ de Feo, V., Soria, E.U., Soria, R.U., Pizza, C., Composition and in vitro toxicity of the essential oil of Tagetes terniflora HBK (Asteraceae). *Flavour Fragr. J.* 2005, 20(1), 89-92.
- ³⁰ Zygadlo, J.A., Guzman, C.A., Grosso, N.R., Antifungal properties of the leaf oils of *Tagetes minuta* L. and *T. filifolia* Lag. *J. Essent. Oil Res.* 1994, 6(6), 617-621.
- ³¹ Green, M.M., Singer, J.M., Sutherland, D.J., Hibben, C.R., *J. Am. Mosq. Contr. Ass.* 1991, 7, 282.
- ³² Rodriguez, T.J., Cascone, O., Giulietti, A.M., *Planta Med.* 1994, 60, 260-262.
- ³³ Bohlmann, F., Zdero, C., *Phytochemistry* 1979, 18(2), 341–343.
- ³⁴ Aquino, R., Caceres, A., Morelli, S., Rastrelli, L., An extract of *Tagetes lucida* and its phenolic constituents as antioxidants. *J. Nat. Prod.* 2002, 65(12), 1773-1776.
- ³⁵ Dharmagadda, V., Naik, S., Mittal, P., Vasudevan, P. Larvicidal activity of *Tagetes patula* essential oil against three mosquito species. *Bioresource Technology* 2005, 96, 1235-1240.
- ³⁶ Tereschuk, M., Baigorí, M., Abdala, L. Antibacterial activity of *Tagetes terniflora*.

Fitoterapia 2003, 74, 404-406.

- ³⁷ Caceres, A., Alvarez, A., Ovando, A., Samayoa, B. Plants used in Guatemala for the treatment of respiratory diseases. 1. Screening of 68 plants against gram-positive bacteria. *Journal of Ethnopharmacology* 1991, 31, 193-208.
- ³⁸ Caceres, A., Cano, O., Samayoa, B., Aguilar, L. Plants used in Guatemala for the treatment of gastrointestinal disorders. 1. Screening of 84 plants against enterobacteria. *Journal of Ethnopharmacology* 1990, 30, 55-73.
- ³⁹ Zydalgo, J., Guzman, C., Grosso, N. Antifugal properties of the leaf oils of *Tagetes minuta* L and *T. filifolia* Lag. J. Essent. Oil Res. 1994, 6, 617-621.
- ⁴⁰ Smith, A.C., Flora Vitiensis nova: a new flora of Fiji. National Tropical Botanical Garden Hawaii, 1985, 3, 758.
- ⁴¹ Hamburger, M., Stoeckli-Evans, H., Hostettmann, K., A new pyranocoumarin diester from *Polygala paniculata* L. *Helv. Chim. Acta* 1984, 67, 1729-1733.
- ⁴² Hamburger, M., Gupta, M., Hostettmann, K., Coumarins from *Polygala paniculata*. *Planta Med.* 1985, 51, 215-217.
- ⁴³ Cristiano, R., Pizzolatti, M.G., Delle, M.F., Rezende, C.M., Branco, A., Two xanthones from Polygala paniculata and confirmation of the 1-hydroxy-2,3,5-trimethoxyxanthone at trace level by HRGC-MS. *Journal of Biosciences* 2003, 58(7/8), 490-494.
- ⁴⁴ Peres, V., Nagem, T.J., Trioxygenated naturally occurring xanthones. *Phytochemistry* 1997, 44, 191-214.
- ⁴⁵ Li, W., Chan, C., Leung, H., Yeung, H., Xiao, P., Xanthones from *Polygala caudata*. *Phytochemistry* 1999, 51, 953-958.
- ⁴⁶ Ikeya, Y., Sugama, K., Okada, M., Mitsuhashi, H., Two xanthones from *Polygala tenuifolia*. *Phytochemistry* 1991, 30, 2061-2065.
- ⁴⁷ Bashir, A., Hamburger, M., Msonthi, J.D., Hostettmann, K., Isoflavones and xanthones from *Polygala virgata*. *Phytochemistry* 1992, 31, 309-311.
- ⁴⁸ Discover nature at JCU, http://cms.jcu.edu.au/discovernature/plantfamily/rutaceae/ index.htm
- ⁴⁹ Western Australian Herbarium, Department of Environment and Conservation, FloraBase. http://florabase.dec.wa.gov.au/browse/profile/22445
- ⁵⁰ McCormick, J.L., McKee, T.C., Cardellina, J.H., Boyd, M.R., HIV inhibitory natural products. 26. Quinoline alkaloids from Euodia roxburghiana. *J. Nat. Prod.* 1996, 59(5), 469-471.
- ⁵¹ Perry, L.M., Metzger, J., Medicinal Plants of East and Southeast Asia: Attributed Properties and Uses; MIT Press: Cambridge, 1980, 335-369.

- ⁵² Valenciennes, E., Smadja, J., Conan, J.Y., Screening for biological activity and chemical composition of *Euodia borbonica* var. *borbonica* (Rutaceae), a medicinal plant in Reunion Island. *Journal of Ethnopharmacology* 1999, 64(3), 283-288.
- ⁵³ Yoo, S., Kim, J., Kang, S., Son, K., Chang, H., Kim, H., Bae, K., Lee, C., Constituents of the fruits and leaves of *Euodia daniellii*. Arch. Pharm. Res. 2002, 25(6), 824-830.
- ⁵⁴ Chung, B.S., Studies on the components of *Evodia daniellii* Hemsley in Korea. *Kor. J. Pharmacogn.* 1970, 1119-124.
- ⁵⁵ Lee, T. B., Illustrated Flora of Korea. HyangMun Press, Seoul, 1993, 503.
- ⁵⁶ Kumar, V.; Karunaratne, V.; Sanath, M. R.; Meegalle, K.; MacLeod, J. K., Two fungicidal phenylethanones from *Euodia lunu-ankenda rootbark*. *Phytochemistry* 1990, 29, 243-245.
- ⁵⁷ Manandhar, M.D., Hussaini, F.A., Kapil, R.S., Shoeb, A., Bacteriostatic heterocycles from Euodia lunu-ankenda. *Phytochemistry* 1985, 24, 199-200.
- ⁵⁸ Goh, S.H., Chung, V.C., Sha, C.K., Mak, T.C.W., Monoterpenoid phloroacetophenones from *Euodia latifolia*. *Phytochemistry* 1990, 29, 1704-1706.
- ⁵⁹ Lassak, E. V.; Southwell, I. A., The Coumarins from the Resin of *Euodia vitiflora*. *Aust. J. Chem.* 1972, 25, 2491- 2496.
- ⁶⁰ Chisowa, E.H., Hall, D.R., Farman, D.I., Volatile Constituents of the Essential Oil of Cymbopogon citratus Stapf grown in Zambia. *Flavour Fragr. J.* 1998, 13, 29-30.
- ⁶¹ Clayton, W.D., Gramineae, *Flora of West Africa: Tropical Africa* 1968, 3(2), 349–512.
- 62 Changonda, L.S., Makanda, C., Claude J-C., J. Essent. Oil Res. 2000, 12, 478–480.
- ⁶³ Pattnaik, S., Subramanyam, V.R., Kole, C.R., Sahoo, S., *Microbios* 1995, 84, 239–245.
- ⁶⁴ Essential oils of Lemongrass, http://www.naturedirect2u.com
- ⁶⁵ Anti-aging choice and youthful health, http://www.antiagingchoices.com
- ⁶⁶ Cymbopogon citratus, Essential oils, http://www.msinp.com/herbs/
- ⁶⁷ Aromatherapy Essential oils: Pure Distilled and Cold Pressed Essences, http://www. doctorphyto.com
- ⁶⁸ Ekundayo, O., *Fitoterapia* 1985, 56, 339–342.
- 69 Ayoub, S.M., Yankov, L.K., Fitoterapia 1984, 55, 368-369.
- ⁷⁰ Ansari, S.H., Bhatnagar, J.K., Qadry, J.S., Indian J. Nat. Prod. 1986, 2, 3-7.
- ⁷¹ Demissev, S., J. Essent. Oil Res. 1993, 5, 465–479.
- ⁷² Abegaz, B., Yohannes, P.G., Dieter, R.K., J. Nat. Prod. 1983, 46, 424–426.
- ⁷³ Idrissi, A.I., Bellakhdar, J., Canigueral, S., Iglesias, J., Vila, R., Plant. Med.

Phytother. 1993, 26, 274–277.

- ⁷⁴ Faruq, M.O., Chowdhury, J., Yusuf, M., *et al. Bangladesh J. Sci. Ind. Res.* 1994, 29(2), 27–38.
- ⁷⁵ Formacek, V., Kubeczka, K., Essential oil analysis by capillary chromatography and carbon-13 NMR spectroscopy, J. Wiley, New York, 1982, 155-160.
- ⁷⁶ Weiss, E.A., Essential oil crops: Wallingford, UK: CAB International, 1997, 59-137.
- ⁷⁷ Dawson, F.A., The amazing terpenes. *Naval Stores Review* March/April 1994, 6-12.
- ⁷⁸ Yousef, R.T., Aggag, M.E., Tawil, G.G., Evaluation of the antifungal activity of some components of volatile oils against dermatophytes. *Mykosen* 1978, 21, 190-193.
- ⁷⁹ Rodov, V., Ben-Yehoshua, S., Fang, D.Q., Kim, J.J., Ashkenazi, R., Preformed antifungal compounds of lemon fruit: citral and its relation to disease resistance. *J. Agric. Food Chem*. 1995, 43, 1057-1061.
- ⁸⁰ Dudai, N., Poljakoff-Mayber, A., Lerner, H., Putievsky, E., Inhibition of germination and growth by essential oils. *Israel Agresearch* 1994, 7, 141-154.
- ⁸¹ Asthana, A., Larson, R.A., Marley, K.A., Tuveson, R.W., Mechanisms of citral phototoxicity. *Phytochemistry and Photobiology* 1992, 56, 211-222.
- ⁸² Kim, J.K., Marshall, M.R., Cornell, J.A., Preston, J.F., Wei, I.C., Antibacterial activity of carvacrol, citral and geraniol against *Salmonella typhimurium* in culture medium and on fish cubes. *Journal of Food Science* 1995, 60, 1364-1374.
- ⁸³ Rice, P.J., Coats, J.R., Insecticidal properties of several monoterpenoids to the house fly (Diptera: Muscidae), red flour beetle (Coleoptera: Tenebrionidae), and southern corn rootworm (Coleoptera: Chrysomelidae). *Journal of Economic Entomology*, 1994, 87, 1172-1179.
- ⁸⁴ http://www.ansci.cornell.edu/plants/alphalist.html
- ⁸⁵ Foster. S., Duke. J.A., A Field Guide to Medicinal Plants. Eastern and Central North America. Houghton Mifflin Co. 1990
- ⁸⁶ Chevallier. A., The Encyclopedia of Medicinal Plants. Dorling Kindersley, London, 1996
- ⁸⁷ Chopra. R.N., Nayar. S.L., Chopra. I.C., Glossary of Indian Medicinal Plants (Including the Supplement). Council of Scientific and Industrial Research, New Delhi, 1986
- ⁸⁸ Chiej. R., Encyclopaedia of Medicinal Plants. MacDonald, 1984
- ⁸⁹ Duke, J.A., Ayensu, E.S., Medicinal Plants of China. Reference Publications, Inc. 1985
- ⁹⁰ Hedrick, U.P., Sturtevant's Edible Plants of the World. Dover Publications, 1972
- ⁹¹ Grieve, A Modern Herbal. Penguin, 1984

- ⁹² Holtom, J., Hylton, W., Complete Guide to Herbs. Rodale Press, 1979
- ⁹³ Clapham, Tootin, Warburg, Flora of the British Isles. Cambridge University Press, 1962
- ⁹⁴ Polunin, O., Flowers of Europe A Field Guide. Oxford University Press, 1969
- ⁹⁵ Greenbaum, S.B., Anderson, J.B., Ricin. *Biodefense* 2006, 275-289.
- ⁹⁶ Cooper, M.R., Johnson, A.W., Poisonous plants in Britain and their effects on animals and man. Her Majesty's Stationery Office, London, England, 1984, 305.
- ⁹⁷ Rali, T., Wossa, S.W., Leach, D.N., Waterman, P.G., Volatile Chemical Constituents of *Piper aduncum* L and *Piper gibbilimbum* C. DC (Piperaceae) from Papua New Guinea. *Molecules* 2007, 12, 389-394.
- ⁹⁸ Leps, J., Novotny, V., Cizek, L., Molem, K., Isua, B., Boen, W., Kutil, R., Auga, J., Kasbal, M., Manumbor, M., Hiuk, S., Successful invasion of the neotropical species *Piper aduncum* in rainforests in Papua New Guinea. *Appl. Veg. Sci.* 2002, 5, 255-262.
- 99 Holdsworth, D., Damasc, F., Int. J. Crude Drug Res. 1986, 24, 217.
- ¹⁰⁰ Holdsworth, D., *Piper aduncum*. In Medicinal Plants of Papua New Guinea. Part 1; Woodley, E. Ed.; Verlag J. Margraf: Weikersheim, Germany, 1991
- ¹⁰¹ Orjala, J., Wright, A.D., Rali, T., Sticher, O., Aduncamide, A Cytotoxic and Antibacterial b-Phenylethylamine-Derived Amide from *Piper aduncum. Nat. Prod. Lett.* 1993, 2(3), 231-236.
- ¹⁰² Macedo, J.C.B., Oviedo, S.G., El aceite esencial de Piper aduncum L. Matico Hembra. Bol. Soc. Quim. Peru 1987, 53, 228-233.
- ¹⁰³ Dias, P., Maldonado, E., Ospina, E., El aceite esencial de Piper aduncum L. Rev. Latinoamer. Quim. 1984, 15, 136-138
- ¹⁰⁴ Duke, J.A., Handbook of Medicinal Herbs, CRC Press, New York, 1985
- ¹⁰⁵ Miyako, M.; Nakayama, I.; Ohno, N. In *ACS Symposium Series*; Annason, J. T., Philoge`ne, B. J. R., Morand, P., Eds.; American Chemical Society: Washington DC, 1982, 387-390.
- ¹⁰⁶ Costantin, M.B., Sartorelli, P., Limberger, R.P., Henriques, A.T., Steppe, M., Ferreira, M.J.P., Ohara, M.T., Emerenciano, V.P., Kato, M.J., *Planta Med.* 2001, 67, 771-773.
- ¹⁰⁷Boll, P.M., Parmar, V.S., Tyagi, O.D., Prasad, A., Wengel, J., Olsen, C.E., *Pure Appl. Chem.* 1994, 10/11, 2339-2342.
- ¹⁰⁸ Lago, J.H.G., Ramos, C.S., Casanova, D.C.C., Morandim, A.A., Bergamo, D.C.B., Cavalheiro, A.J., Bolzani, V.S., Furlan, M., Guimaraes, E.F., Young, M.C.M., Kato, M.J., Benzoic Acid Derivatives from *Piper* Species and their Fungitoxic Activity against *Cladosporium cladosporioides* and *C. sphaerospermum. J. Nat. Prod.* 2004, 67, 1783-1788.

- ¹⁰⁹ Burke, B., Nair, M., *Phytochemistry* 1986, 25, 1427.
- ¹¹⁰ Orjala, J., Eldelmeier, C.A.J., Wright, A.D., Rali, T., Sticher, O., Two chromenes and a prenylated benzoic acid derivative from *Piper aduncum*. *Phytochemistry* 1993, 34(3), 813-818
- ¹¹¹ Orjala, J., Eldelmeier, C.A.J., Wright, A.D., Rali, T., Sticher, O., Five new prenylated p-hydroxybenzoic acid derivatives with antimicrobial and molluscicidal activity from *Piper aduncum* leaves. *Planta Med.* 1993, 59, 546-551.
- ¹¹² Moreira, D.D., Guimaraes, E.F., Kaplan, M.A.C., *Phytochemistry* 1998, 48, 1075..
- ¹¹³ Bernard, C.B., Krishnamurty, H.G., Chaunet, D., Durst, T., Philogene, B.J.R., Sanchez- Vindas, P., Hasbun, C., Poveda, L., San Roman, L., Arnason, J.T., *J. Chem. Ecol.* 1995, 21, 801.
- ¹¹⁴ Mukerjee, S.K., Saxena, V.S., Tomar, S.S., J. Agric. Food Chem. 1979, 27, 1209.
- ¹¹⁵ Nair, M.G., Burke, B.A., J. Agric. Food Chem. 1990, 38, 1093.
- ¹¹⁶ Bastos, C.N., Summa Phytopathologica 1996, 22, 58.
- ¹¹⁷ Bastos, C.N., Proceedings of 12th Conferencia Internacional de Pesquisas em Cacau. p42, Salvador, Brazil, 1996
- ¹¹⁸ Maia, J.G.S., Zohhbi, M.G.B., Andrade, E.H.A., Santos, A.S., da Silva, M.H.L., Luz, A.I.R., Bastos, C.N., Constituents of the essential oil of *Piper aduncum* L. growing wild in the Amazon region. *Flavour Fragr. J.* 1998, 13, 269-272.
- ¹¹⁹ Gardner, R.O., Piper (Piperaceae) in New Guinea: The non-climbing species. *Blumea* 2003, 48, 47-68.
- ¹²⁰ Holdsworth, D., Medicinal plants of the Central Province of Papua New Guinea. Part IV: The Goilala Mountain People. *Int. J. Crude Drug Res.* 1987, 25, 231-235.
- ¹²¹ Holdsworth, D., Kerenga, K., A Survey of the medicinal plants in the Simbu Province, Papua New Guinea. *Int. J. Crude Drug Res.* 1987, 25, 183-187.
- ¹²² Rali, T., Wossa, S.W., Leach, D.N., Waterman, P.G., Volatile Chemical Constituents of *Piper aduncum* L and *Piper gibbilimbum* C. DC (Piperaceae) from Papua New Guinea. *Molecules* 2007, 12, 389-394.
- ¹²³ Orjala, J., Mian, P., Rali, T., Sticher, O., Gibbilimbols A D, Cytotoxic and Antibacterial Alkenylphenols from *Piper gibbilimbum*. J. Nat. Prod. 1998, 61, 939-941
- ¹²⁴ Abe, Y., Takikawa, H., Mori, K., Synthesis of gibbilimbols A-D, cytotoxic and antibacterial alkenylphenols isolated from *Piper gibbilimbum*. *Biosci. Biotechnol. Biochem.* 2001, 65, 732-735.
- ¹²⁵ Zhou, L., Li, Y., Xiao-Ping, C., Stereoselective synthesis of (Z)-5-(Trideca-4-enyl) resorcinol and gibbilimbol A-D. *Chin. J. Chem.* 2004, 22, 1344-1349.

- ¹²⁶ Kress, W.J., Prince L.M., Williams, K.J., The phylogeny and a new classification of the gingers (Zingiberaceae): evidence from molecular data. *American Journal of Botany* 2002, 89, 1682-1696.
- ¹²⁷ Zomlefer, W.B., *Flowering Plant Families*. The University of North Carolina Press, 1994
- ¹²⁸ Watson, L., Dallwitz, M.J., The families of flowering plants: descriptions, illustrations, identification, and information retrieval. 1992, http://delta-intkey.com/angio/www/zingiber.htm
- ¹²⁹ Quinn, C.J., Taxonomy of Dacrydium Sol. ex Lamb. emend. de Laub. (Podocarpaceae). *Australian Journal of Botany* 1982, 30, 311-320.
- ¹³⁰ Corbett, R.E., Smith, R.A.J., Diterpenes from the volatile oil of *Dacrydium colensoi*.
 J. Chem. Soc. [Section] C: Organic 1967, (4), 300-302.
- ¹³¹ Corbett, R.E., Couldwell, C.M., Lauren, D.R., Weavers, R.T., The structure of laurenene, a new diterpene from the essential oil of *Dacrydium cupressinum*. Part 2. Crystal structure. J. Chem. Soc., Perkin Trans. 1: Organic and Bio-Organic Chemistry (1972-1999) 1979, (7), 1791-1794.
- ¹³² Brophy, J.J., Jogia, M.K., Major constituents of the essential oils of the Fijian Dacrydiums. J. Nat. Prod. 1986, 49(4), 730-732.
- ¹³³ http://plantnet.rbg.syd.nsw.gov.au/
- ¹³⁴ Ghisalberti, E.L., Bioactive acylphloroglucinol derivatives from *Eucalyptus* species. *Phytochemistry* 1996, 41(1), 7-22.
- ¹³⁵ Boland, D.J., Brophy, J.J., House, A.D., Eucalyptus Oils Use: Chemistry, Distillation and Marketing. Inkata Melbourne, 1991
- ¹³⁶ International Trade Centre. Essential Oils and Oleoresins. A Study of Selected Producers and Major Markets. International Trade Centre UNCTAD/GATT: Geneva, 1986
- ¹³⁷ Takasaki, M., Konoshima, T., Etoh, H., Singh, I.P., Tokuda, H., Nishino, H., Cancer chemopreventive activity of euglobal-G1 from leaves of Eucalyptus grandis. *Cancer Letters* 2000, 155, 61-65.
- ¹³⁸ Gomes-Carneiro, M.R., Felzenszwalb, I., Paumgartten, F.J., 1998. Mutagenicity testing (+/–)-camphor, 1,8-cineole, citral, citronellal, (–)- menthol and terpineol with the Salmonella/microsome assay. *Mutation Research* 1998, 416, 129-136.
- ¹³⁹ Copper, J.J., Hone, G.A., Eucalyptus Oils. A Review of Production and Markets. Bulletin 56, Natural Resources Institute, Overseas Development Administration, UK, 1992
- ¹⁴⁰ Abbott, P.S., Commercial Eucalyptus oil production. In Eucalyptus Oil Production,
Proceedings of the Eucalyptus Oil Production Seminar, Gnowangerup, 1989

- ¹⁴¹ Trigg, J.K., Evaluation of a eucalyptus-based repellent against *Anopheles* spp. in Tanzania. *Journal of American Mosquito Control Association* 1996, 12, 243-246.
- ¹⁴² Cockcroft, A., Cosgrove, J.B., Wood, R.J., Comparative repellency of commercial formulations of deet, permethrin and citronellal against the mosquito *Aedes aegypti*, using a collagen membrane technique compared with human arm tests. *Medical Veterinary and Entomology* 1998, 12, 289-294.
- ¹⁴³ Juergens, U.R., Stober, M., Vetter, H., Inhibition of cytokine production and arachidonic acid metabolism by eucalyptol (1,8-cineole) in human blood monocytes in vitro. *European Journal of Medical Research* 1998, 3, 508-510.
- ¹⁴⁴ Pattnaik, S., Subramanyam, V.R., Kole, C., Antibacterial and antifungal activity of ten essential oils *in vitro*. *Microbios* 1996, 86, 237-246.
- ¹⁴⁵ Juergens, U.R., Stober, M., Schmidt-Schilling, L., Kleuver, T., Vetter, H., Antiinflammatory effects of eucalyptol (1,8-cineole) in bronchial asthma: inhibition of arachidonic acid metabolism in human blood monocytes ex vivo. *European Journal of Medical Research* 1998, 3, 407-412.
- ¹⁴⁶ Chalchat, J.C., Garry, R.P., Sidibe, L., Harama, M., Aromatic plants of Mali (V): Chemical composition of essential oils of four Eucalyptus species implanted in Mali: *Eucalyptus camaldulensis, E. citriodora, E. torelliana and E. tereticornis. J. Essent. Oil Res.* 2000, 12(6), 695-701.
- ¹⁴⁷ Benayache, S., Benayache, F., Benyahia, S., Chalchat, J.C., Garry, R.P., Leaf oils of some Eucalyptus species growing in Algeria. *J. Essent. Oil Res.* 2001, 13(3), 210-213.
- ¹⁴⁸ Pino, J.A., Marbot, R., Quert, R., Garcia, H., Study of essential oils of *Eucalyptus resinifera* Smith, *E. tereticornis* Smith and *Corymbia maculata* (Hook.) K. D. Hill & L. S. Johnson, grown in Cuba. *Flavour Fragr. J.* 2002, 17, 1–4.
- ¹⁴⁹ Ogunwande, I.A., Olawore, N.O., Adeleke, K.A., Konig, W.A., Chemical composition of the essential oils from the leaves of three Eucalyptus species growing in Nigeria. *J. Essent. Oil Res.* 2003, 15(5), 297-301
- ¹⁵⁰ Dagne, E., Bisrat, D., Alemayehu, M., Worku, T., Essential oils of twelve Eucalyptus species from Ethiopia. *J. Essent. Oil Res.* 2000, 12(4), 467-470.
- ¹⁵¹ http://plantnet.rbg.syd.nsw.gov.au/
- ¹⁵² Su, Y.C., Ho, C.L., Wang, E.I., Chang, S.T., Antifungal activities and chemical compositions of essential oils from leaves of four eucalyptus. *Taiwan Linye Kexue* 2006, 21(1), 49-61.
- ¹⁵³ Ghisalberti, E.L., Bioactive acylphloroglucinol derivatives from *Eucalyptus* species. *Phytochemistry* 1996, 41(1), 7-22.

- ¹⁵⁴ Nishizawa, M., Emura, M., Kan, Y.,Yamada, H., Ogawa, K., Hamanaka, N., Macrocarpals, HIV-RTase inhibitors of *Eucalyptus globulus*. *Tetrahedron Lett.* 1992, 33, 2983-2986.
- ¹⁵⁵ Murata, M., Yamakoshi, Y., Homma, S., Aida, K., Hori, K., Ohashi, Y., Macrocarpal A, a novel antibacterial compound from *Eucalyptus macrocarpa*. *Agric. Biol. Chem.* 1990, 54, 3226-3231.
- ¹⁵⁶ Osawa, K., Yasuda, H., Morita, H., Takeya, K., Itokawa, H., Macrocarpal I and J from leaves of *Eucalyptus globulus*. J. Nat. Prod. 1996, 59, 823-827.
- ¹⁵⁷ Singh, I.P., Hayakawa, R., Etoh, H., Takasaki, M., Konoshima, T., Grandinal new phloroglucinol dimer from *Eucalyptus grandis*. *Biosci. Biotechnol. Biochem.* 1997, 61, 921-923.
- ¹⁵⁸ Takasaki, M., Konoshima, T., Kozuka, M. and Tokuda, H., *Biological Pharmaceutical Bulletin*, 1995, 18, 435.
- ¹⁵⁹ Takasaki, M., Konoshima, T., Etoh, H., Singh, I.P., Tokuda, H., Nishino, H., Cancer chemopreventive activity of euglobal-G1 from leaves of *Eucalyptus grandis*. *Cancer Letters* 2000, 155, 61-65.
- ¹⁶⁰ http://members.ozemail.com.au/~peterrjones/plants.html
- ¹⁶¹ Willis, J.C., A Dictionary of the Flowering Plants and Ferns. Cambridge University Press: Cambridge, 1995
- ¹⁶² Nelida, G.C., Graciela, O.R., Avismelsi, P., Oscar, C., Lilibeth, C., Phytoconstituents and antimicrobial activity of *Melaleuca leucadendron* leaf essential oil from Venezuela. *Ciencia (Maracaibo)* 1998, 6(2), 123-128.
- ¹⁶³ Kumar, A., Tandon, S., Yadav, A., Chemical composition of the essential oil from fresh leaves of *Melaleuca leucadendron* L. from north India. *Journal of Essential Oil-Bearing Plants* 2005, 8(1), 19-22.
- ¹⁶⁴ Farag, R.S., Shalaby, A.S., El-Baroty, G.A., Ibrahim, N.A., Ali, M.A., Hassan, E.M., Chemical and Biological Evaluation of the Essential Oils of Different *Melaleuca* Species. *Phytother. Res.* 2004, 18, 30–35.
- ¹⁶⁵ Botanical Dermatology, http://bodd.cf.ac.uk/BotDermFolder/ANAC-1.html
- ¹⁶⁶ Discover nature at JCU, http://cms.jcu.edu.au/discovernature/planttownsville/JCU DEV_006224
- ¹⁶⁷ The Wood Explorer, http://www.thewoodexplorer.com/maindata/we532.html# Scientific_Name
- ¹⁶⁸ Khan, M.R., Omoloso, A.D., Kihara, M., Antibacterial and antifungal activities of *Euroschinus papuanus*. *Fitoterpia* 2004, 75, 412-416.
- ¹⁶⁹ Lloyd, H.A., Jaouni, T.M., Evans, S.L., Morton, J.F., Terpenes of Schinus

terebinthifolius. Phytochemistry 1977, 16, 1301-1302.

- ¹⁷⁰ Discover nature at JCU, http://cms.jcu.edu.au/discovernature/planttownsville/JCU DEV_006006
- ¹⁷¹ Campello, J.P., Marsaioli, A.J., Triterpens of *Schinus Terebinthifolius*. *Phytochemistry* 1974, 13, 659-660.
- ¹⁷² Campello, J.P., Marsaioli, A.J., terebinthifolic acid and bauerenone: new triterpenoid ketones from *Schinus terebinthifolius*. *Phytochemistry* 1975, 14, 2300-2302.
- ¹⁷³ Food and Agriculture Organization, http://www.tropicalforages.info/key/Forages/ Media/Html/Stylosanthes_hamata.htm
- ¹⁷⁴ Ragasa, Y., Ganzon, J., Hofilena, J., Tamboong, B., Rideout, J.A., A New Furanoid Diterpene from *Caesalpinia pulcherrima*. *Chem. Pharm. Bull.* 2003, 51(10), 1208-1210.
- ¹⁷⁵ F. Bohlmann, R. Zeisberg, ¹³C-NMR Spektren von Monoterpenen. Organic Magnetic Resonance 1975, 7(9), 426-432.
- ¹⁷⁶ http://chemlab.truman.edu/CHEM120Labs/WintergreenFiles/OilofWintergreenNMR. pdf
- ¹⁷⁷ Johnson, L.F., Jankowski, W.C., Carbon-13 NMR Spectra/ A Collection of Assigned, Coded, and Indexed Spectra, A Wiley-Interscience Publication/ John Wiley & Sons, Inc. 1972
- ¹⁷⁸ Kjonaas, R.A., Mattingly, S.P., Acid catalysed isomerisation of carvone to carvacrol, *Journal of Chemical Education* 2005, 82(12), 1813-1814.
- ¹⁷⁹ Botsi, A., Yannakopoulou, K., Hadjoudisa, E., Perlyb, B., NMR Differentiation of Enantiomeric (+)- and (-)-α-Pinene via Complexation with Cyclodextrins in Water. J. *Chem. Soc., Chem. Commun.* 1993, 1085.
- ¹⁸⁰ Skakovskii, E.D., Lamotkin, S. A., Shpak, S.I., Tychinskaya, L.A., Gaidukevich, O.A., Lamotkin, A.I., Application of NMR Spectroscopy for Analysis of the Composition of Pine Needle Essential Oil. *Journal of Applied Spectroscopy* 2006, 73(2), 275-279.
- ¹⁸¹ Johnson, C.R., Kadow, J.F., Diels-Alder Reactions of β-Stannyl Enones: Synthesis of Δ 3-Carene, Isosesquicarene, and Other Bicyclo[4.1.0]hept-3-enes. *J. Org. Chem.* 1987, 52, 1493-1500.
- ¹⁸² Bazhenov, Yu.P., Hydrogenation and Skeleton Rearrangements of α-Pinene on Heterogeneous Catalysts. *Russian Journal of Applied Chemistry* 2003, 76(2), 234-237.
- ¹⁸³ Kashman, Y., Groweiss, A., New Diterpenoids from the Soft Corals Xenia macrospiculata and Xenia obscuronata. Journal of Organic Chemistry, 1980, 45, 3814-3824.

- ¹⁸⁴ Silverstein, R.M., Webster, F.X., Kiemle, D.J., Spectrometric identification of organic compounds, seventh edition. John Wiley & Sons, Inc. 2005
- ¹⁸⁵ Bombarda, I., Raharivelomanana, P., Ramanoelina, P.A.R., Faure, R., Bianchini., J., Gaydou, E.M., Spectrometric identifications of sesquiterpene alcohols from niaouli (*Melaluca quinquenervia*) essential oil. *Analytica Chimica Acta*, 2001, 447(1-2), 113-123.
- ¹⁸⁶ Paulo, J.C., Benevides, Sartorelli, P., Kato, M.J., Phenylpropanoids and neolignans from *Piper regnellii*. *Phytochemistry* 1999, 52, 339-343.
- ¹⁸⁷ Araki, S., Shimizu, T., Johar, P.S., Jin, S., Butsugan, Y. Preparation and Some Reactions of Allylic Indium Reagents, *J. Org. Chem.* 1991, 56, 2538-2542.
- ¹⁸⁸ Repcak, M., Imrich, J., Garcar, J., Quantitative Evaluation of the Main Sesquiterpenes and Polyacetylenes of *Chamomilla recutita* Essential Oil by High-performance Liquid Chromatography. *Phytochemical Analysis* 1999, 10, 335-338.
- ¹⁸⁹ LeFevre, J.W., Isolating *trans*-Anethole from Anise Seeds and Elucidating Its Structure: A Project Utilizing One- and Two-Dimentional NMR Spectrometry. *Journal of Chemical Education* 2000, 77(3), 361-363.
- ¹⁹⁰ Abraham, R.J., Warne, M.A., Griffiths, L., Proton chemical shifts in NMR. Part 12. Steric, electric field and conformational effects in acyclic and cyclic ethers, *J. Chem. Soc., Perkin Trans.* 2. 1998, 1751-1757.
- ¹⁹¹ Guerrini, A., Sacchetti, G., Muzzoli, M., Rueda, G.M., Medici, A., Besco, E., Bruni, R., Composition of the Volatile Fraction of Ocotea bofo Kunth (Lauraceae) Calyces by GC-MS and NMR Fingerprinting and Its Antimicrobial and Antioxidant Activity. *J. Agric. Food Chem.* 2006, 54, 7778-7788.
- ¹⁹² Gurudutt, K.N., Pasha, M.A., Ravindranath, B., Srinivas, P., Reactions of oxiranes with alkali metals: intermediacy of radical-anions. *Tetrahedron* 1984, 40(9), 1629-1632.
- ¹⁹³ Goncalves, J.A., da Silva, M.J., Piló-Veloso, P., Howarth, O.W., Gusevskaya, E.V., Palladium catalyzed oxidation of monoterpenes: NMR study of palladium(II)–monoterpene interactions. *Journal of Organometallic Chemistry* 690 2005, 2996–3003.
- ¹⁹⁴ Urones, J.G., Marcos, I.S., Martin, D.D., Palma, F.M.S.B., Rodilla, J.M., Labdane diterpenoids from *Halimium viscosum* and *H. verticilatum*. *Phytochemistry* 1987, 26(11), 3037-3040.

Appendices

Appendices 1.1 to 1.3 show the GC and GC-MS retention time (minutes) data. The amount of compounds are expressed in percentage (%).

Appendix 1.1

Oil samples	Identified compounds	M.Wt.	Amount	GC	GC-MS
T. diversifolia	Camphor	152	2.7	20.9	22.5
	β-Caryophyllene	204	6.1	23.5	25.0
	Methyl Salicylate*	152	0.6	35.1	30.9
	Caryophyllene oxide	220	3.5	36.4	35.7
	Viridiflorol	222	1.9	38.7	38.6
	Spathulenol	220	2.9	41.1	39.6
	Carvacrol	150	5.9	40.8	41.9
	Dillapiole	222	11	46.9	44.6
Tagetes spp.	Piperitone	152	57	27.6	28.9
	Methyl Salicylate	152	15	34.1	30.5
P. paniculata	Methyl Salicylate	152	74	34.3	30.4
	Dillapiole*	222	3.6	46.8	44.6
Newton grass'	<i>p</i> -Cymene	134	2.3	13.6	14.6
	β-Caryophyllene	204	17	23.4	25.1
	Caryophyllene oxide	220	1.6	36.3	35.7
	Dillapiole	222	3.2	46.9	44.6
unidentified	α-Pinene	136	13	5.3	N/A
	3-Carene	136	11	9.5	N/A
	<i>p</i> -Cymene	134	8.2	14.1	N/A
	Camphor	152	15	21.1	N/A
	Carvacrol	150	18	41.0	N/A
Euodia sp.	β-Caryophyllene	204	25	23.4	24.9
	Caryophyllene oxide	220	3.4	36.3	35.7
	Dillapiole	222	8.0	46.8	44.6
C. citratus	Neral	152	18	29.2	27.8
	Geraniol	154	1.5	29.6	28.3
	Geranial	152	32	30.8	29.3
	Ledol	222	6.0	39.9	37.1
	Viridiflorol	222	14	41.6	38.6
R. communis	β-Caryophyllene	204	12	23.4	24.9
	Piperitone	152	13	27.6	28.9
	Dillapiole	222	38	46.9	44.7
P. aduncum	β-Caryophyllene	204	9.8	23.5	25.0
	Piperitone	152	10	27.6	28.9
	Dillapiole	222	17	46.9	44.7

Appendix 1.2

Oil samples	Identified compounds	M.Wt.	Amount	GC	GC-MS
P. gibbilimbum	1,8-Cineole*	154	0.1	12.3	11.7
	Gibbilimbol C/D	204	11	39.8	38.6
	Dillapiole*	222	2.0	46.9	44.6
P. gibbilimbum	1,8-Cineole*	154	0.03	12.3	11.7
	Gibbilimbol C/D	204	22	39.8	38.6
	Dillapiole*	222	0.8	46.9	44.6
Gorgor'	α-Pinene	136	37	5.5	5.1
	β-Pinene	136	22	8.1	7.3
	β-Farnesene	204	8.8	31.7	27.4
	Methyl salicylate*	152	1.0	35.0	30.9
	Caryophyllene oxide*	222	0.9	36.3	35.7
	Dillapiole*	222	1.2	46.8	44.6
Hane grass'	<i>trans</i> -Anethole	148	74	30.8	N/A
Dacrydium spp.	α-Pinene	136	32	5.7	5.4
	trans-Anethole*	148	3.7	30.7	32.4
Eucalyptus sp.	α-Pinene	136	45	5.4	5.4
E. tereticornis	α-Pinene	136	53	5.1	N/A
E. grandis	α-Pinene	136	66	4.9	N/A
M. leucadendron	1,8-Cineole	154	60	12.9	N/A
E. falcatus	α-Pinene	136	33	4.2	5.4
	β-Pinene	136	3.9	8.9	6.1
	Myrcene	136	3.9	9.0	8.1
	Limonene	136	11	10.0	9.1
	γ-Terpinene	136	16	12.5	11.0
	<i>p</i> -Cymene	134	7.9	13.7	11.9
	Terpinolene	136	4.3	14.2	12.3
	Viridiflorol	222	1.6	39.4	36.2
	Spathulenol	220	1.6	40.2	37.4
S. terebinthifolius	α-Pinene	136	32	4.3	5.4
	Limonene	136	8.5	10.3	9.3
	<i>p</i> -Cymene	134	9.8	13.7	11.9

Appendix 1.3

Standard compounds	M.Wt.	GC	GC-MS
α-Pinene	136	5.8	5.0
β-Pinene	136	8.3	7.1
3-Carene	136	9.9	N/A
γ-Terpinene	136	11.8	N/A
Eucalyptus oil (93% 1,8-Cineole)	154	12.7	N/A
p-Cymene	134	14.3	N/A
Camphor	152	21.3	N/A
Citral (Neral)	152	29.3	27.8
Citral (Geranial)	152	30.9	29.3
Aniseed oil (76% trans-Anrthole)	148	30.7	N/A
Methyl salicylate	152	35.3	30.5

Appendices 2.1 to 2.3 show examples of GC and GC-MS spectra from oil samples.



Appendix 2.1. GC spectrum of the essential oil from the unidentified species

Appendix 2.2. GC spectrum of the Poligala paniculata root oil





Appendix 2.3. GC-MS spectrum of the *Poligala paniculata* root oil



Appendix 3.1. MS spectrum of Stylosanthenoic acid