

© 2016 Boletín Latinoamericano y del Caribe de Plantas Medicinales y Aromáticas 15 (1): 1 - 17 ISSN 0717 7917 www.blacpma.usach.cl

Artículo Original | Original Article

Metabolism and antifungal activity of safrole, dillapiole, and derivatives against *Botryodiplodia theobromae* and *Colletotrichum acutatum*

[Metabolismo y actividad antifúngica de safrol, dilapiol, y derivados contra Botryodiplodia theobromae y Colletotrichum acutatum]

Samuel Vizcaíno-Páez¹, Rodrigo Pineda¹, Carlos García¹, Jesús Gil^{1,2} & Diego Durango¹

Universidad Nacional de Colombia-Sede Medellín ¹Facultad de Ciencias, Escuela de Química ²Facultad de Ciencias Agrarias, Departamento de Ingeniería Agrícola y Alimentos. Calle 59^a 63-020 Autopista Norte, Medellín, Colombia. Contactos / Contacts: Diego DURANGO - E-mail address: dldurango@unal.edu.co

Abstract: The direct in vitro fungitoxicity and metabolism of safrole and dillapiole (isolated from *Piper auritum* and *Piper holtonii*, respectively) by *Botryodiplodia theobromae* and *Colletotrichum acutatum* were investigated. Higher values of mycelial growth inhibition for both fungi were obtained for dillapiole, as compared with safrole. *B. theobromae* was able to metabolize both compounds to their respective vicinal diols, reaching 65% relative abundance during the biotransformation of dillapiole; while *C. acutatum* only transformed safrole to various metabolites with relative abundances under 5%. According to the low antifungal activity of the major metabolic products (< 5% for vicinal diols), a detoxification process was implied. Studies on the influence of some substituents in the aromatic ring of safrole and dillapiole on the antifungal activity against *B. theobromae* were also carried out. As result, the safrole nitrated derivative, 6-nitrosafrole, showed a fungitoxicity level similar to that displayed by the commercial fungicide Carbendazim® under the conditions used. In light of this, safrole and dillapiole could be suggested as feasible structural templates for developing new antifungal agents.

Keywords: Biotransformation, plant pathogenic fungi, safrole, Botryodiplodia theobromae, Colletotrichum acutatum

Resumen: Se investigó la fungitoxicidad directa in vitro y el metabolismo de safrol y dilapiol (obtenidos desde *Piper auritum* and *Piper holtonii*, respectivamente) por *Botryodiplodia theobromae* y *Colletotrichum acutatum*. Los valores mayores de inhibición del crecimiento micelial de ambos hongos se obtuvieron para dilapiol, en comparación con safrol. *B. theobromae* metabolizó ambos compuestos a sus respectivos dioles vecinales, alcanzando abundancias relativas del 65% durante la biotransformación del dilapiol; mientras que *C. acutatum* solo transformó safrol en varios metabolitos con abundancias relativas menores al 5%. De acuerdo con la baja actividad antifúngica de los productos metabólicos mayoritarios (< 5% para los dioles vecinales), se sugiere un proceso de desintoxicación. Adicionalmente, se evaluó la influencia de algunos sustituyentes en el anillo aromático de safrol y dilapiol sobre la actividad antifúngica contra B. theobromae. Como resultado, el derivado nitrado del safrol, el 6–nitro safrol, presentó un nivel de fungitoxicidad similar al exhibido por el fungicida comercial Carbendazim® bajo las condiciones usadas. A la luz de lo anterior, safrol y dilapiol podrían ser sugeridos como plantillas estructurales adecuadas para el desarrollo de nuevos agentes antifúngicos.

Palabras clave: Biotransformación, hongos fitopatogénicos, safrol, Botryodiplodia theobromae, Colletotrichum acutatum.

Publicado en línea | Published online: January 31, 2016

Recibido | Received: November 13, 2014

Aceptado | Accepted: March 15, 2015

Aceptado en versión corregida | Accepted in revised form: October 21, 2015

Declaración de intereses | Declaration of interests: This work was supported by a grant (Vicerrectoría de Investigación, N° 20101007957, Universidad Nacional de Colombia). Este artículo puede ser citado como / This article must be cited as: S Vizcaíno-Páez, R Pineda, C García, J Gil, D Durango. 2016. Metabolism and antifungal activity of safrole, dillapiole, and derivatives against *Botryodiplodia theobromae* and *Collectorichum acutatum*. Bol Latinoam Caribe Plant Med Aromat 15 (1): 1 – 17.

INTRODUCTION

Anthracnose and stem-end rot (caused by fungi *Botryodiplodia* Colletotrichum acutatum and theobromae, respectively) are two severe diseases that contribute considerably to the pre- and postharvest losses of economically important fruits and vegetables around the world (Damm et al., 2012; Twumasi et al., 2014). Conventionally, both diseases have been successfully controlled through the application of non-selective fungicides (Gaviria-Hernández et al., 2013; Syed et al., 2014). Nonetheless, phytopathogenic microorganisms have been progressively developing resistance against commonly used fungicides, which has reduced the effectiveness of chemical treatments during recent years (Gutiérrez et al., 2003; Hahn, 2014). Furthermore, the use of non-selective fungicides to control deterioration of fruits and vegetables has been restricted as a result of negative public perception of their possible undesirable side effects on human beings. Therefore, researchers are actively working on alternative methods to combat fungal diseases. In this way, the spraying of essential oils, plant extracts, and their main constituents may be an attractive method for controlling pre- and postharvest fruit

diseases. Particularly, the discovery of novel antifungal agents representing new chemical classes with different toxicities and modes of action is highly desirable (Lopéz-García et al., 2012). Hence, evaluating antifungal activity of natural products offers an interesting approach to identify potential new fungicides and discover valuable structural templates that may be transformed on antifungal agents. In addition, the study of the microbial metabolism of potential antifungal agents using phytopathogenic fungi could provide information on the detoxification mechanism used by these microorganisms and give an indication of the structural modifications that may be necessary if certain substrates are to be further developed as selective fungal control agents (Daoubi et al., 2005a; Daoubi et al., 2005b). Safrole (S) and dillapiole (dA) (Figure 1) are the main components of the essential oils of Sassafras albidum, and Piper spp. (Guerrini et al., 2009). This kind of compounds can reduce the mycelial growth of some plant pathogens, acting as phytoanticipins (Iriti & Faoro, 2009). Nevertheless, knowledge on the direct antifungal effect and microbial metabolism of these compounds by phytopathogenic fungi is still limited.

Figure 1 Chemical structures of safrole (S) and dillapiole (dA)



The aim of the current work was to evaluate the metabolism and antifungal activity of S, dA, and some amine and nitro derivatives against *C. acutatum* and *B. theobromae*.

MATERIALS AND METHODS Biological and chemical materials

C. acutatum and *B. theobromae* were isolated from infected tamarillo (*Solanum betaceum* Cav. Sendt) and avocado (*Persea americana* Mill.) fruits, respectively. The fungi were characterized and kindly provided by the Laboratory of Phytopathology (Universidad Nacional de Colombia-Medellín). The fungi were maintained in a Potato Dextrose Agar (PDA) medium at $24 \pm 2^{\circ}$ C, and subcultured monthly in Petri dishes. In order to evaluate the antifungal activity, 15 cm-diameter, sterile Petri dishes were inoculated with 1 mL of a mycelial suspension of the fungi. The suspension was uniformly spread over the medium using a bent glass rod. Then, the inoculated medium was incubated at 25° C for 48 h. A 8 mm-diameter mycelial disc was used for the fungitoxicity test.

The compounds **S** and **dA** were isolated from *Piper auritum* and *Piper holtonii*, respectively, and their structures confirmed with spectroscopic methods (FTIR, MS and 1D and 2D NMR), as described elsewhere (Pineda *et al.*, 2012). A yeast extract was obtained from Oxoid Ltd (Basingstoke, UK). Piperonal was purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (St. Louis, MO, USA). Piperonyl alcohol was obtained by reduction of piperonal using NaBH₄

(87% yield) (Smith, 2013). Nitro- and amine derivatives were prepared through nitration (HNO₃/H₂SO₄) and further reduction (Sn/HCl) of nitro-derivatives (Olah et al., 1989; Singh et al., 2006). The compounds 1-allyl - 5. 6 - dimethoxy -4 -methylenedioxybenzene 2 - nitro - 3, (2-nitro dillapiole, 43% yield) and 1-allyl-5,6-dimethoxy - 2amino -3,4 - methylenedioxy benzene (2-amino dillapiole, 80% yield) were obtained from the dillapiole, whereas, 1-allyl-6-nitro-3,4-methylenedioxy benzene (6-nitro safrole, 92% yield) and 1allyl-6-amino-3,4-methylenedioxy benzene (6-amino safrole, 83% yield) were synthesized from safrole.

Fungitoxicity bioassays of dA and S

In order to investigate the toxicity of **dA** and **S** against *C. acutatum* and *B. theobromae*, the poisoned food technique was used (Grover & Moore, 1962; Velasco *et al.*, 2010). Different concentrations of **dA** (50, 75, 100, 300 and 600 μ g mL⁻¹) and **S** (250, 500,

750, 1000, 1250, 1500 and 1750 µg mL⁻¹) dissolved in ethanol (0.2%, v/v) were diluted in Petri dishes with PDA. All of the concentrations were tested in triplicate, and the results are shown as mean values of three replications of colony diameters [± standard deviation (SD)]. Petri dishes without compounds were used as negative control, which only contained ethanol (0.2%, v/v) in the PDA medium. The common fungicide Carbendazim (methyl benzimidazol-2-yl carbamate) was used as positive control at 50 µg mL⁻¹. The Petri dishes were incubated at room temperature and the diameter of the mycelial growth was measured every 12 (for B. theobromae) and 24 hours (for C. acutatum). The incubation was stopped when the mycelial mass of control Petri dishes almost filled them (ca. 10 and 4 days for C. acutatum and *B. theobromae* respectively). The fungitoxicity of **S** and **dA** in terms of inhibition percentage of the radial growth was calculated by using the formula:

$$Inhibition (\%) = 1 - \frac{radial \ growth \ of \ treatment \ (mm)}{radial \ growth \ of \ control \ (mm)} x100$$

The statistical analysis of least significant difference between means was carried out employing the ANOVA and LSD test in Statgraphics (Statgraphics Centurion XV, Version 15.2.06).

Metabolism of dA and S

Preculture of C. acutatum and B. theobromae

Mycelia of *C. acutatum* or *B. theobromae* from a 2day-old culture were employed, following a methodology described in a previous work (Numpaque *et al.*, 2011).

Preparative-Scale Metabolism

The mycelia of *C. acutatum* and *B. theobromae* were transferred into six 1.0 L Erlenmeyer flasks containing 0.5 L of a sterilized broth and **dA** or **S** dissolved in 96% ethanol (final concentration of 0.2%, v/v). When *C. acutatum* was used as a biocatalyst, **dA** and **S** were incorporated into the culture medium at 50 and 400 μ g mL⁻¹, respectively. In the case of *B. theobromae*, 100 and 800 μ g mL⁻¹ concentrations of **dA** and **S**, respectively, were employed. The cultivation was developed at room temperature with stirring at 120 rpm for 360 h. After the incubation period, the culture medium and mycelia were separated by filtration. Controls (without substrate) were performed in order to verify

the presence of similar compounds in the fungi culture (Correa *et al.*, 2009).

Isolation and identification of metabolic products

Crude extract from culture medium was obtained as described by Velasco et al. (2012). Then, the extract was chromatographed on a silica gel column. Elution was performed with an *n*-hexane-EtOAc gradient system. Extracts from the metabolism of **dA** and **S** by *B. theobromae* were separately fractionated to afford ten fractions, grouped according to TLC profiles. The seventh (n-hexane:EtOAc, 4:6) fraction from S and the eighth (*n*-hexane:EtOAc, 3:7) fraction from **dA** were re-chromatographed over silica gel column using *n*-hexane-EtOAc as eluent to yield two metabolic compounds (1 and 2). The identification of these metabolites was based on the interpretation of their nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR), infrared, and mass spectra, and by contrast with the NIST 2002 Mass Spectral Library. In addition, the GC-MS analysis detected the metabolite (3) from the biotransformation of **S**.

Furthermore, six metabolites were detected in the transformation of S by *C. acutatum* (including 1and 3), which were identified according to the mass spectral data and comparison with authentic samples. Unfortunately, the very low abundance of some of the compounds in the biotransformation excluded isolation, enrichment and further direct spectroscopic characterization through NMR. Metabolic products were not detected by GC-MS in the metabolism of **dA** using *C. acutatum*.

Time-course experiments

Precultured B. theobromae and C. acutatum were separately transferred into fifteen 250 mL Erlenmeyer flasks containing 125 mL of the Czapek-Dox medium and the compounds dA and S. The flasks were stirred under the same conditions as the preculture. The concentrations of **dA** and **S** were the same as described for the preparative-scale metabolism. The plant pathogenic fungi were cultivated at 120 rpm for 216 and 360 h for B. theobromae and C. acutatum, respectively. The culture medium was taken from each flask daily for C. acutatum and every 12 h (during the first 5 days) and 48 h (during the last 4 days) for *B. theobromae*. Then, the crude extract was obtained as described by Velasco et al. (2012), redissolved in 5 mL of chloroform and analyzed by TLC and GC-MS. The ratios among the substrate and products were determined based on the GC peak area; the results were expressed as relative abundances. Additionally, control cultivations without dA or S were performed.

Antifungal activity of some metabolic products and derivatives of dA and S

Major metabolites resulting from the metabolism of **S** and **dA** by *C. acutatum* and *B. theobromae* were tested for antifungal activity against *C. acutatum* at a 200 μ g mL⁻¹ concentration in triplicate. Finally, in order to evaluate the effects of electron-releasing and electron-withdrawing groups on the antifungal activity, both nitro and amino derivatives of **S** and **dA** were also analyzed. These derivatives were prepared by conventional nitration and amination procedures (Smith, 2013). Structural elucidation was performed by NMR.

Analytical methods

Thin layer chromatography (TLC) was carried out on Merck Kiesegel 60 F_{254} (0.25 mm thick). Mixtures of *n*-hexane:EtOAc were used as the mobile phase. Column chromatography (CC) was performed using silica gel 60 (0.040-0.063 mm; Merck). GC–MS analysis was performed using a Hewlett-Packard 6890 (Agilent Technologies) gas chromatograph coupled with a HP 5973 MSD (Mass selective detector-Quadrupole type). A Zebron ZB 35 column

(30 m x 0.25 mm i.d.; coating thickness 0.25 µm) was employed. The chromatographic conditions were: column temperature, 50-250° C at 10° C min⁻¹ and maintained for five minutes; injector temperature, 150° C: detector temperature, 280° C: and carrier gas. helium at 1.0 mL min⁻¹. The relative composition of each constituent was established from the average peak area obtained in the GC. The nuclear magnetic resonance spectra were measured with a Bruker AMX 300 NMR spectrometer. The proton chemical shifts (δ) and coupling constants (*J*) are given in ppm and hertz, respectively. The attribution of ¹³C NMR signals for some compounds has been done using JMOD experiments. FTIR spectra were carried out using CHCl₃ on a Perkin-Elmer RXI. Optical rotations were measured in a CHCl₃ solution at 25° C with a JASCO P-2000 digital polarimeter.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Antifungal activity of safrole S and dillapiole dA

The inhibitory effects of **dA** and **S** against *C. acutatum* and *B. theobromae* are shown in Figures 2 and 3. For both fungi, the mycelial growth was only completely inhibited during the evaluation time by **S** at 1500 µg mL⁻¹ and above. After the first 24 h, **S** exhibited a total inhibition of radial growth in *C. acutatum* at all evaluated concentrations; at 1250 µg mL⁻¹ and above, however, this effect remained for 72 h. Then, the inhibitory effects strongly decreased at all the evaluated concentrations. Particularly at 250 µg mL⁻¹, **S** presented radial growth inhibitions for *C. acutatum* of from 100 to 25%, after 240 h. Only at 1250 µg mL⁻¹ and above did **S** exhibit inhibitions higher than 70% after 240 h.

For *B. theobromae*, **S** reduced the radial growth of *B. theobromae* completely during the first 48 h at 1250 μ g mL⁻¹; then, the inhibitory effect decreased by almost 80% after 96 h. The antifungal activity of S found in the present study is in agreement with previous reports. Simic et al. (2004) reported that S is the major constituent of the essential oil (85%) of Sassafras albidum (Lauraceae), which has shown an antifungal activity similar to that of the commercial drug bifonazol. In addition, some authors (Kubo et al., 1993; Fujita & Kubo, 2004) have reported that S possesses moderate activity against S. cerevisiae and Candida utilis, with MICs (Minimum inhibitory concentration) of 200 µg mL⁻¹. They suggested that the allyl moiety in S is a minimum structural requirement necessary to display its antifungal activity.

Figure 2

Effect of safrole (S, up) and dillapiole (dA, down) on the radial mycelial growth of *C. acutatum*. Results are shown as mean values of three replicates of the mycelium diameter; bar = \pm SD. Columns that share at least one letter do not have statistical difference between them.



Boletin Latinoamericano y del Caribe de Plantas Medicinales y Aromáticas/5

Figure 3

Effect of safrole (S, up) and dillapiole (dA, down) on the radial mycelial growth of *B. theobromae*. Results are shown as mean values of three replicates of the mycelium diameter; bar = ±SD. Columns that share at least one letter do not have statistical difference between them.



Boletin Latinoamericano y del Caribe de Plantas Medicinales y Aromáticas/6

Meanwhile, **dA** exhibited a fungistatic effect against both pathogens, reaching inhibitions of 81 and 100% for C. acutatum and B. theobromae respectively. In the case of *B. theobromae*, its growth was completely inhibited during the entirety of the assay when a concentration of 75 to 500 µg mL⁻¹ of dA was used. Moreover, the fungal colony development only initiated after 24 h of inoculation when C. acutatum was treated with dA at 50 µg mL⁻¹. The growth inhibition percentages of C. acutatum and *B. theobromae* achieved by 75 μ g mL⁻¹ **dA** varied between 100-70% (after 96 h) and 100-50% (after 240 h), respectively. Our results for the good antifungal activity of dA are in accordance with previous studies (Singh et al., 2005; de Almeida et al., 2009; Maxia et al., 2012). In an earlier study on the essential oil from Apium nodiflorum, which contains a high proportion of dA, the fungi Aspergillus flavus, A. niger and A. fumigatus were highly inhibited with MIC values from 0.32 to 2.5 µg mL⁻¹, as tested by macrodilution assays (Maxia et al., 2012). In others assays, the mycelial growth inhibition for different fungi, such as Penicillium sp., Acrophialophora sp., and Aspergillus sp.; was obtained by the addition of the essential oil from Carum nigrum (seeds), which contains 29.9% dA (Singh et al., 2005). In addition, the basidiospores of Clinipellis perniciosa were completely inhibited by **dA** at 0.6 μ g mL⁻¹ (de Almeida *et al.*, 2009). However, information on the antifungal activity of dA against plant pathogenic fungi is still quite limited.

Similar to **S**, the compound **dA** has an allyl side chain bonded to the aromatic ring which confers a lipophilic characteristic to both phenylpropenes. Although not much is known about the mechanism of antifungal action of these phenylpropenes, it has been reported that their lipophilic characteristic enables them to enter between the fatty-acid-chain constituents of the membrane lipid bilayers and alter the fluidity and permeability of the cell membranes (de Almeida *et al.*, 2009). As can also be seen, the inhibitory effect of **dA** and **S** decreased with time, a fact which suggests that both fungi possess a detoxification mechanism. In order to study this mechanism, *B. theobromae* and *C. acutatum* were incubated with **S** and **dA** at different concentrations.

Metabolism of dA and S

Identification of metabolic products

The main metabolic products were isolated from a preparative-scale incubation of dA and S using

C. acutatum and B. theobromae. The S and dAconcentrations for the metabolism studies were based on the antifungal activity of each compound. A comparison between extracts obtained from the biotransformation and control showed that B. theobromae transformed S and dA into two compounds (1 and 2, respectively), which were identified by spectroscopic analysis (Table 1). Metabolite (1) had a molecular formula of $C_{10}H_{12}O_4$ based on its mass spectrum, $M^+ = 196$ amu. The molecular ion was 34 mass units (2OH) higher than that of the parent compound S, indicating a dihydroxylation of the double bond. Also, (1) showed a fragment ion at m/z 135 (base peak) signifying the formation of 3,4-methylenedioxybenzyl cation. The ¹H NMR spectrum of the product showed primary alcohol resonance at δ 3.65-3.77 ppm (*m*, 2H), and secondary alcohol resonance at 3.85-3.97 ppm (m, 1H), suggesting the introduction of two new hydroxyl groups at the double bond to yield a vicinal diol (glycol). From the spectral data, (1) was elucidated to be 2',3'-dihydroxydihydrosafrole (safrole glycol). Additionally, metabolic compound, (3) was tentatively identified as 3-(3,4-methylenedioxyphenyl)-propan-1-ol by EI-MS.

Meanwhile, the biotransformation of **dA** by B. theobromae allowed for the isolation and identification of (2). It presented a molecular formula of $C_{12}H_{16}O_6$, consistent with the molecular ion M^+ = 256 amu. Similarly, metabolic product (2) gave a molecular ion that was 34 mass units higher than that of parent compound **dA**, indicating a dihydroxylation of the double bond. This was further confirmed by the signals on ¹H NMR at δ 3.86 (*m*, 1H) and 3.59-3.63 ppm (m, 2H), corresponding to the protons attached to the carbinol carbon of secondary and primary alcohol, respectively. In addition, the mass spectrum showed a fragment ion at m/z 195, corresponding to a 2,5-dimethoxy-3,4methylenedioxybenzyl cation. Therefore, it metabolite was identified as 2',3'-dihydroxydihydro dillapiole (dillapiole glycol).

On incubation of **S** with *C. acutatum*, six metabolites (including **1** and **3**) were detected by the GC-MS analysis; the low concentration of these metabolites prevented their isolation. These metabolites were not found in the control (the culture of *C. acutatum* without **S**). In general, the structure of these metabolites was derived from their EI-MS and comparison with the NIST 2002 computerized mass spectral library and authentic standards (Table 1). The identified metabolic compounds included $2^{\circ}, 3^{\circ}$ -

dihydroxydih	ydrosaf	role (1), 3-(3,4-methylenedioxy-
phenyl)-propa	an-1-ol	(3), 3,4-methylenedioxy cinna-
mylalcohol	(4),	1-(3,4-methylenedioxyphenyl)-

propan-1-one (5), piperonyl alcohol (6), and piperonal (7).

Table 1

Metabolic compounds identified from the biotransformation of S and dA by C. acutatum and B. theobromae

Metabolite	Rt (min)	Isolated from	Spectroscopic data
(1)	20.2	Both fungi/ S	¹ H-NMR (CDCl ₃ , 300 MHz): δ 6.77-6.75 (d, 1H, H ₆), 6.73 (s, 1H, H ₂), 6.68-6.66 (d, 1H, H ₅), 5.94 (s, 2H, -OCH ₂ O-), 3.85-3.97 (m, 1H, H ₂ ·), 3.65-3.77 (m, 2H, H ₃ ·), 3.49-3.59 (m, 2H, H ₁ ·). MS-EI m/z, (fragment) [% rel. int.]: 196 (M ⁺) [18], 177 [6], 166 [12], 165 (M-H ₂ CO-H) [6], 136 [31], 135 (M-C ₂ H ₅ O ₂ ; C ₈ H ₇ O ₂ ⁺) [100], 122 [35], 107 [10], 79 [13], 77 [20], 51 [10], 43 [7]. [α] _D ²⁵ (CHCl ₃): +8.59°.
(3)	18.6		MS-EI m/z (fragment) [% rel. int.]: 180 (M ⁺) [40], 162 (M–H ₂ O) [7], 161 (M-H ₂ O-H) [7], 149 (M-H ₂ CO-H; α-cleavage of primary alcohol group) [7], 136 [71], 135 (base peak, formation of 3,4-methylenedioxybenzyl cation: $C_8H_7O_2^+$) [100], 106 [20], 105 [7], 91 ($C_7H_7^+$) [10], 78 [18], 77 ($C_6H_5^+$) [35], 65 ($C_5H_5^+$) [7], 51 [29], 45 [27]. Molecular formula: $C_{10}H_{12}O_3$. Tentatively identified as 3-(3,4-methylenedioxyphenyl)-propan-1-ol.
(2)	25.5	B. theobromae/ dA	¹ H-NMR (CDCl ₃ , 300 MHz): δ 6.33 (s, 1H, H ₆), 5.97 (s, 2H, – OCH ₂ O–), 3.92 (s, 3H, –OMe), 3.86 (s, 3H, –OMe), 3.82-3.89 (m, 1H, H ₂ ·), 3.60-3.64 (dd, 1H, <i>J</i> =11.4, 3.5, H ₃ · _a), 3.47-3.51 (dd, 1H, <i>J</i> =11.4, 6.0, H ₃ · _b), 2.76-2.81 (dd, 1H, <i>J</i> =13.6, 5.7, H ₁ · _a), 2.70-2.75 (dd, 1H, <i>J</i> =13.6, 7.3, H-1'b). MS-EI m/z, (fragment) [% rel. int.]: 256 (M ⁺) [39], 225 (M–H ₂ CO–H) [67], 195 (C ₁₀ H ₁₁ O ₄ ⁺) [100], 180 [17], 165 [7], 135 [7]. IR Ū (cm ⁻¹): 3289 (OH), 3206 (OH), 3015, 1611, 1503, 1435. [α] ^D _D (CHCl ₃): -7.13°.
(4)	17.9	C. acutatum/ S	MS-EI m/z, (fragment) [% rel. int.]: 178 (M ⁺) [21], 161 (M–OH) [6], 149 (M–CO–H; C ₉ H ₉ O ₂ ⁺) [38], 135 (base peak, formation of 3,4- methylendioxybenzyl cation, M–CO–CH ₃ ; C ₈ H ₇ O ₂ ⁺) [100], 123 [50], 121 (C ₇ H ₅ O ₂ ⁺) [28], 103 [25], 93 [75], 91 (C ₇ H ₇ ⁺) [25], 77 (C ₆ H ₅ ⁺) [16], 65 (C ₅ H ₅ ⁺) [27]. Metabolite (4) was elucidated to be 3,4- methylenedioxy cinnamyl alcohol.
(5)	19.8		MS-EI m/z, (fragment) [% rel. int.]: 178 (M ⁺) [21], 149 (base peak, formation of 3,4-methylenedioxybenzoyl cation -acylium ion-, due to α -cleavage of the benzyl bond: $C_8H_5O_3^+$) [100], 135 [50], 121 (formation of 3,4-methylenedioxyphenyl cation, $C_7H_5O_2^+$) [30], 91 ($C_7H_7^+$) [9], 77 ($C_6H_5^+$) [7], 65 ($C_5H_5^+$) [31], 63 [25], 62 [11], 29 [16], 27 [13]. Metabolite (5) was tentatively identified as 1-(3,4-methylenedioxyphenyl)-propan-1-one
(6)	15.3		MS-EI m/z, (fragment) [% rel. int.]: 152 (M ⁺) [100], 151 (M–H) [37], 135 (base peak, formation of 3,4-methylendioxybenzyl cation: $C_8H_7O_2^+$) [53], 123 [30], 122 [27], 93 [59], 91 ($C_7H_7^+$) [30], 77 ($C_6H_5^+$) [18], 65 ($C_5H_5^+$) [32]. Molecular formula: $C_8H_8O_3$. Metabolite (6) was elucidated as piperonyl alcohol.
(7)	14.2		MS-EI m/z, (fragment) [% rel. int.]: 150 (M ⁺) [86], 149 (M–H, base peak, formation of 3,4-methylenedioxybenzoyl cation -acylium ion-, due to α -cleavage of the benzyl bond) [100], 121 (M ⁺ –CO–H, formation of 3,4-methylenedioxyphenyl cation, C ₇ H ₅ O ₂ ⁺) [34], 91 (C ₇ H ₇ ⁺) [13], 65 (C ₅ H ₅ ⁺) [21], 63 [34], 61 [10]. Metabolite (7) was identified as piperonal.

To the best of our knowledge, the metabolism of S and dA by plant fungal pathogens was evaluated for the first time in this study. On the other hand, *C. acutatum* was not able to transform dA.

Thus, the high antifungal activity of **dA** and the low level of microbial transformation, makes **dA** a promising candidate to control *C. acutatum*. It is important to note that the biotransformation effected by *C. acutatum* and *B. theobromae* on **S** and **dA** did not affect the dioxole moiety. Earlier works have reported that microbial conversion of **S** by an *Arthrobacter* strain and its *t*-anethole blocked mutants yield a dihydroxybenzene derivative, i.e. hydroxichavicol (Shimoni *et al.*, 2003). Similarly, in mammalians, the P₄₅₀ type enzyme converts **S** to hydroxychavicol in the liver (Scheline, 1991). Unlike the *Arthrobacter* strain and its *t*-anethole blocked mutants, the transformation of S by *C. acutatum* and *B. theobromae* involves the oxidation of the allyl side chain.

Time-course experiments

Compounds S and dA were incubated with the microorganisms during 216 and 360 h for B. theobromae and C. acutatum, respectively. The time course of relative concentration changes of S and dA and metabolites were monitored by TLC and relatively quantified through a GC analysis (Figures 4 and 5). When **dA** was metabolized by *B. theobromae*, only metabolite (2) was produced. As shown in Figure 4, compound **dA** started transformation after 60 h of incubation, and about 50% was consumed in 120 h.





Metabolite (2) increased during entire assay, reaching the greatest abundance after 216 h (~65%). Additionally, *B. theobromae* mainly transformed **S** to metabolites (1) and (3), reaching the highest relative abundance after 72 h (~15%), and 48 h (~25%), respectively (*Data not shown*). As can be seen in Figure 5, the fungus *C. acutatum* only transformed about 10% of **S** after 360 h, principally converted to (4) and (1). However, the relative abundance of both metabolites was always lower than 5%. The other metabolites reached even lower levels. These results suggested that under the studied conditions, **S** and **dA** are slightly converted by the plant pathogenic fungus, *C. acutatum*. This could possibly be associated with the high toxicity of both compounds, which possess a methylenedioxyl group. Substances with that structural characteristic act as potent inhibitors of cytochrome-P₄₅₀ monoxygenases, dramatically diminishing the aerobic respiration (Santos *et al.*, 2004; Barreiro & Fraga, 2008). In addition, both compounds have an allyl side chain bonded to the aromatic ring that confers a high fungitoxicity (Fujita & Kubo, 2004).

Based on the structure of the identified metabolites. metabolic pathway for а the biotransformation of S and dA by C. acutatum and B. theobromae was proposed (Figure 6). The transformation of S and dA may resemble that of eugenol due to the similarity in its 2-propenyl side chain. Many bacteria and fungi, such as Corvnebacterium, Pseudomonas, Streptomyces, Byssochlamys, Penicillium and Rhodococcus can transform eugenol (Plaggenborg et al., 2006; Jin et al., 2007). Studies have revealed that microorganisms follow different metabolic pathways for eugenol degradation. Recently, six possible biotransformation routes were presented (Mishra et al., 2013). Thus, the formation of eugenol epoxide, followed by hydrolysis to yield a diol (eugenol-diol), have been proposed as the initial reactions of degradation in Pseudomonas sp. (Tadasa & Kayahara, 1983). Epoxides and dihydrodioles were also found in urine and liver of rats pretreated with of eugenol (and analogs such as safrole, estragole, and eugenol methyl ether) (Delaforge et al., 1980). However, eugenol epoxide and eugenol-diol have not been identified from microbial metabolism (Xu et al., 2007). Additionally, it has been suggested that the microbial metabolic pathway of eugenol involves the intermediates coniferyl alcohol (4-hydroxy-3-methoxy cinnamyl alcohol), coniferyl aldehyde and ferulic acid (Mishra et al., 2013). Some of the genes that are essential to the degradation of eugenol by Pseudomonas sp. strain HR199 have already been identified (Overhage *et al.*, 1999; Priefert *et al.*, 1999).

According to our results, B. theobromae was able to dihydroxylate the double bond of S and dA, generating the major products: the glycols (1) and (2) respectively. Metabolite (1) was also detected in the biotransformation of S by C. acutatum (only 3% after 360 h). The identification of (1) and (2) implies that both are intermediates in the metabolic pathway from S and dA. These major metabolites are presumed to be formed via epoxidation at the double bond and subsequent hydrolysis of the epoxides. A similar epoxide intermediate was suggested in the degradation pathway of eugenol by a Corvnebacterium sp. strain, but its existence has not been confirmed (Tadasa, 1977; Xu et al., 2007). Safrole and dillapiole epoxide could be rapidly detoxicated by the formation of diols, possibly by an enzyme, since epoxide was not detected at any appreciable concentration (Guenthner & Luo, 2001). On the other hand, the opening of the epoxides could also be performed during the acidic extraction (Mohan et al., 2000). The epoxidation of C-C double bonds, and further hydrolysis to yield vicinal diols, have been widely reported for the Colletotrichum genus (García-Pajón et al., 2003). To the best of our knowledge, this is the first report on the degradation of 2-propenylbenzenes through an epoxide-diol route in both fungi.

Figure 5

Time-course study for microbial transformation of safrole (S) by *C. acutatum*. Metabolites (1), (3), (4), (5), (6) and (7) correspond to safrole glycol; 3-(3,4-methylenedioxyphenyl)-propan-1-ol; 3,4-methylenedioxy cinnamyl alcohol; 1-(3,4-methylenedioxyphenyl)-propan-1-one; piperonyl alcohol; and piperonal, respectively.



Boletin Latinoamericano y del Caribe de Plantas Medicinales y Aromáticas/10

Metabolite (3) might be formed via two pathways: possibly $S \rightarrow (1) \rightarrow (4) \rightarrow (3)$, or $S \rightarrow (4) \rightarrow (3)$. The former pathway involves the dihydroxylation of the propenyl side chain of S, followed by dehydration to afford (4), and finally reduction of the double bond to yield (3). A similar metabolic pathway from eugenol to coniferyl alcohol by *Corynebacterium* sp. and *Pseudomonas* sp. was proposed by Tadasa and Kayahara (1983) and Mishra *et al.* (2013), respectively. It was found that eugenol hydroxylase/vanillyl alcohol oxidase (*ehyA*, *ehyB*, and *vaoA*) catalyzes the formation of eugenol epoxide and further transformation into coniferyl alcohol (analog of **4**) (Overhage *et al.*, 1999; Priefert *et al.*, 1999).

Figure 6

Possible metabolic pathways of dillapiole (dA) and safrole (S) by *C. acutatum* and *B. theobromae*. The arrows indicate the transformations carried out by: (\rightarrow) *C. acutatum* and (\Rightarrow) *B. theobromae*. Structures within brackets indicate hypothetical intermediates.



Metabolite (4) may also be formed directly from **S** by a safrole hydroxylase. This analogous route, with a reaction mechanism including a quinone propenide intermediate, has been suggested for the catabolism of eugenol in *Pseudomonas* sp. strain HR199 (Overhage *et al.*, 1999). However, the exact side-chain oxidation mechanism of eugenol to coniferyl alcohol is still unknown. Finally, the reduction of (4) leads to (3). The ability of *C*. *acutatum* to reduce allylic alcohols was previously reported by Correa *et al.* (2009) and Velasco *et al.* (2012).

Furthermore, *C. acutatum* was able to transform **S** to (**5**); therefore, two pathways could be considered on the formation of (**5**). The substrate **S** could be reduced at the double bond, hydroxylated in the benzylic carbon and subsequently oxidized to produce the metabolite (**5**). Nevertheless, the reduction of the double bond may proceed before or after the hydroxylation. Thus, two different intermediates could be suggested: 1'-hydroxysafrole or 3,4-methylenedioxyphenylpropane. This oxidation of the propenyl side chain is unusual and has not been reported before in the microbial metabolism of 2propenylbenzene compounds.

Metabolic product (7) is hypothesized as possible being derived from (1) via dehydration of the secondary alcohol function to afford (4), which is 3,4-methylenedioxycinnamyl oxidized to then aldehyde and further oxidized to the corresponding carboxylic acid (3,4-methylenedioxy cinnamic acid). A similar route has been proposed to the metabolism of eugenol by bacteria and fungi (Xu et al., 2007; Mishra et al., 2013; Han et al., 2013). In this type of pathway, coniferyl alcohol is oxidized to coniferyl aldehyde by coniferyl alcohol dehydrogenase (CaIA) and further oxidized to ferulic acid by coniferyl aldehyde dehydrogenase (CaIB).

Then, the elimination of an acetate moiety the unsaturated side-chain of 3,4from methylenedioxy cinnamic acid directly yields (7). The intermediate carboxylic acid, however, was not detected in the medium. A similar deacetylation has been proposed in the conversion of ferulic acid to vanillin (employing 4-hydroxycinnamate CoA ligase and 4-hydroxycinnamate CoA hydratase/ligase) for different bacteria and some fungi, such as Aspergillus sp., Fomes fomentarius, Fusarium solani, Polyporus versicolor, and Rhodotorula rubra (Huang et al., 1993; Gasson et al., 1998; Overhage et al., 2003;). Moreover, a coenzyme-A-dependent mechanism has been proposed for the conversion of substituted

cinnamic acids in Pseudomonas putida, and ferulic acid in Rhodotorula rubra (Huang et al., 1993). the precise mechanism of However. such deacetylation has not been fully established. In a previous work. Santos et al. (2003) reported that metabolite (7) was formed on the biotransformation of isosafrole by Cladosporium sphaerospermum. Subsequently, the reduction of the carbonyl group from (7) affords (6). These results indicate that C. acutatum and B. theobromae were able to modify the allyl chain side of S and dA. Additionally, our results support the fact that Colletotrichum sp. species have considerable oxido-reductase activity (García-Pajón et al., 2003).

Antifungal activity of some metabolic products and derivatives of dA and S

Antifungal activity of metabolic products

To determine if S and dA were metabolized by C. acutatum and *B. theobromae* through detoxification pathways, the inhibitory effects of metabolites (1) and (2) against B. theobromae, and (6) and (7) against C. acutatum were evaluated. Metabolites (1) and (2) were analyzed at 50 μ g mL⁻¹ whereas (6) and (7) were evaluated at 200 μ g mL⁻¹ concentration. All assays were carried out in triplicate. For C. acutatum, the mycelial growth inhibitions achieved by (7) were between 80.0 (after 24 h) and 30.8% (after 240 h). Meanwhile, metabolite (6) showed only about 36% growth inhibition after 24 h of incubation. Then, the antifungal activity steadily decreased, reaching only 25% inhibition after 240 h. Overall, the radial growth inhibition displayed by metabolites (6) and (7) decreased progressively in accordance with the incubation time. At a similar concentration, S only exhibited a mycelial growth inhibition of C. acutatum between 50 (at 24 h) and 19% (after 240 h). Therefore, the results of the antifungal bioassays showed that metabolic product (6) was less potent at inhibiting the fungal growth of C. acutatum than its precursor S. Since metabolite (6) was less fungistatic than S, it may suggest that the metabolism of S by C. acutatum was a detoxification process. Interestingly, metabolite (7) displayed a higher fungistatic effect against C. acutatum than S. So, it is possible to think that the low conversion of **S** to (7) by C. acutatum seeks to ensure no-inhibitory levels of (7) in the medium. In fact, the amount of (7)produced during the biotransformation of S by this plant pathogenic fungus (the minor metabolite) was almost negligible in comparison to that used in the bioassays.

Otherwise, the inhibitory effect of metabolites (1) and (2) against *B. theobromae* was weak. Mycelial growth inhibitions exhibited by both glycols were lesser than 5%. The higher fungistatic effect of **S** and **dA** against *B*. theobromae, as compared to metabolic products (1) and (2), suggests that its metabolism is a detoxification process. As mentioned above, the allyl side chain bonded to the aromatic ring confers a lipophilic characteristic and the ability to disrupt fungal membranes to S and dA. However, the dihydroxylation of the allyl chain to afford (1) and (2) reduced the lipophilic characteristic and abolished the antifungal activity, as compared to the parent compounds. Previously, it was reported that the relatively high antifungal activity of compounds that contain the methylendioxyl group is due to its capacity to act as a cytochrome P₄₅₀ inhibitor (Santos et al., 2004). However, our results indicated that the allyl substituent is even more important in displaying such an inhibitory effect. Thus, our results are in agreement with a previous report that 1-allyl moiety plays a positive role in the antifungal behavior (Carrasco et al., 2012). Indeed, these authors found that the replacement of the allyl radical resulted in the disappearance of the antifungal

activity. Glycols (1) and (2) were not further metabolized under the conditions studied by the fungus *B. theobromae*.

Antifungal activity of derivatives from S and dA

It is noteworthy that, although the structural difference between dA and S is only seen in the presence of two methoxyl groups on the aromatic ring, **dA** was significantly more active than **S** against both fungi. These results indicate that electronic and/or steric factors in phenylpropenes might be important for antifungal activity. In order to investigate the relationship between the ring substitution and the antifungal activity of these compounds, the nitro and amino derivatives were also tested against the fungus B. theobromae. The compounds nitro safrole (1-allyl-6-nitro-3,4methylenedioxybenzene) and (amino safrole) 1-allyl-6-amino-3,4-methylenedioxybenzene were prepared from S; whereas, nitro dillapiole (1-allyl-5,6dimethoxy - 2 - nitro - 3, 4 - methylenedioxy and dillapiole (1-allyl-5,6benzene) amino dimethoxy- 2 -amino - 3,4-methylenedioxy benzene) (Figure 7) synthesized were from dA.

Figure 7 Chemical structure amino and nitro derivatives of S and dA.



 $\begin{array}{l} R_1 = R_2 = R_3 = H; \ Safrole \ (S) \\ R_1 = R_2 = H; \ R_3 = NO_2; \ Nitro \ safrole \\ R_1 = R_2 = H; \ R_3 = NH_2; \ Amino \ safrole \\ R_1 = H; \ R_2 = R_3 = -OCH_3; \ Dillapiole \ (dA) \\ R_1 = NO_2; \ R_2 = R_3 = -OCH_3; \ Nitro \ dillapiole \\ R_1 = NH_2; \ R_2 = R_3 = -OCH_3; \ Amino \ dillapiole \end{array}$

Confirmation of the structures of the derivatives was carried out using spectroscopic data (Table 2).

Nitro- and amino derivatives of **S** and **dA** were screened for their antifungal activity against *B. theobromae*. The results showed that the inclusion of an electron-releasing group in the aromatic ring, such as the amino group, on **S** or **dA** produced no significant contribution to the antifungal activity (Figure 8). On the contrary, this group extinguished the previously observed high fungistatic effect for dA against *B. theobromae* at the same concentration (ca. 25 times less active than dA at 48 h of assay). On other hand, the insertion of an electron-withdrawing group, such as the nitro group, in both phenylpropenes produced different effects on the antifungal activity of the two derivatives. The inhibitory effect on the mycelial growth of *B. theobromae* from the nitro dillapiole was comparable to that of dA. Otherwise, nitro safrole

was found to be the most active compound against B. theobromae, being almost 49 times higher than **S**

at the same concentration and after 48 h of the assay.

Spectroscopic data of sarrole and dinapiole derivatives				
Compound	Spectroscopic data			
Nitro safrole	¹ H-NMR (CDCl ₃ , 300 MHz): δ 7.51 (s, 1H, H ₃), 6.78 (s, 1H, H ₆), 6.12 (s, 2H, -OCH ₂ O-), 6.06-5.92 (ddt, 1H, <i>J</i> = 16.8, 10.2, 6.6, H ₂ ·), 5.09-4.99 (dd, 2H, <i>J</i> = 13.6, 1.8, H ₃ · _{a,b}), 3.69-3.66 (d, 2H, <i>J</i> = 6.6, H ₁ · _{a,b}). ¹³ C-NMR (CDCl ₃ , 75 MHz): 151.7 (C ₁), 146.5 (C ₂), 110.4 (C ₃), 142.8 (C ₄), 132.2 (C ₅), 105.7 (C ₆), 37.62 (C ₁ ·), 135.2 (C ₂ ·), 117.0 (C ₃ ·), 102.8 (-OCH ₂ O-).			
Amino safrole	¹ H-NMR (CDCl ₃ , 300 MHz): δ 6.57 (s, 1H, H ₃), 6.29 (s, 1H, H ₆), 5.96- 5.85 (ddt, 1H, <i>J</i> = 16.8, 10.2, 6.3, H ₂ ·), 5.85 (s, 2H, -OCH ₂ O–), 5.13-5.09 (dd, 2H, <i>J</i> = 6.0, 1.8, H ₃ · _a), 5.06-5.05 (d, <i>J</i> = 1.5, H ₃ · _b), 3.23-3.21 (d, 2H, <i>J</i> = 6.0, H ₁ · _{a,b}). ¹³ C-(JMOD) NMR (CDCl ₃ , 75 MHz): 135.6 (CH, C ₂ ·), 115.5 (CH ₂ , C ₃ ·), 109.6 (CH, C ₅), 100.2 (-OCH ₂ O–), 97.9 (CH, C ₂), 35.8 (CH ₂ , C ₁ ·).			
Nitro dillapiole	¹ H-NMR (CDCl ₃ , 300 MHz): δ 6.03 (s, 2H, -OCH ₂ O–), 5.91-5.77 (ddt, 1H, <i>J</i> = 15.7, 9.6, 6.6, H ₂ ·), 5.05-5.01 (dd, 2H, <i>J</i> = 12.4, 1.1, H ₃ · _{a,b}), 3.98 (-OMe), 3.93 (-OMe), 3.28-3.26 (d, 2H, <i>J</i> = 6.6, H ₁ · _{a,b}). ¹³ C-(JMOD) NMR (CDCl ₃ , 75 MHz): 135.2 (CH, C ₂ ·), 116.7 (CH ₂ , C ₃ ·), 102.8 (-OCH ₂ O–), 61.5 (-OMe), 60.8 (-OMe), 30.2 (CH ₂ , C ₁ ·).			
Amino dillapiole	¹ H-NMR (CDCl ₃ , 300 MHz): δ 6.00 (s, 2H, -OCH ₂ O-), 5.99-5.86 (m, 1H, H ₂ [•]), 5.08-4.96 (m, 2H, H _{3'a,b}), 3.81 (-OMe), 3.70 (-OMe), 3.21-3.18 (m, 2H, H _{1'a,b}). The ¹³ C-NMR analysis was not possible due to insufficient quantity.			

Table 2 Spectroscopic data of safrole and dillapiole derivatives

Figure 8

Effect of safrole (S), dillapiole (dA), and their nitro and amino derivatives on the radial mycelial growth of *B. theobromae*. Results are shown as mean values of three replicates of the mycelium diameter; bar = \pm SD.



Boletin Latinoamericano y del Caribe de Plantas Medicinales y Aromáticas/14

The data showed that the antifungal activity of nitro safrole was comparable to that exerted by the commercial synthetic fungicide Carbendazim at the same concentration. In contrast to a previous report (Carrasco *et al.*, 2012), our results indicated that the introduction of a NO₂ group led to an increase in the antifungal activity of **S**. Thus, it is possible to believe that the presence of the two methoxyl groups in **dA** or the nitro group in C6 in nitro safrole may lead to a correct balance of hydrophilicity-lipophilicity, which is an essential factor for the antifungal properties seen in these compounds.

CONCLUSIONS

The present paper reports on the ability of B. theobromae to convert S and dA to the corresponding vicinal diols (glycols), which could be used in a wide variety of applications. Time-course studies indicated that S is converted to safrole glycol at a rapid rate. Also, it was demonstrated that C. acutatum transformed S into various metabolites at a low proportion, including safrole glycol, piperonal, piperonyl alcohol, among others. However, C. acutatum was ineffective in transforming dA. Additionally, the fungitoxicity of S and dA, their metabolic products, and nitro- and amino-derivatives were evaluated against both fungi. S and dA may effectively inhibit the mycelial growth of the evaluated pathogenic fungi. However, dA was the most active. Also, the products from the metabolism of S and dA displayed lower antifungal activities than the parent compounds. So, it was concluded that the metabolism of S and dA is a detoxification process. It can also be concluded that allyl moiety plays a positive role in the inhibitory effect of S and dA against C. acutatum and B. theobromae. Finally, the most active derivative against the fungus B. theobromae was nitro safrole. 49 times more active than S at the same concentration and assay time. Nitro safrole displayed an activity against B. theobromae that was comparable to that of the commercial fungicide Carbendazim®. Therefore, it is possible to believe that S and dA offer interesting structural templates that may be transformed for developing new antifungal agents.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This work was supported by a grant (Vicerrectoría de Investigación, N° 20101007957, Universidad Nacional de Colombia). We thank to Dr. Afanador-Kafuri for providing cultures of the plant pathogen fungi. REFERENCES

- Barreiro EJ, Fraga MCA. 2008. Química Médica: As Bases Moleculares da Ação dos Fármacos. 2ª Ed. Artmed, Porto Alegre, Brasil.
- Correa Y, Durango D, García C. 2009. Transformación microbiana del arilpropanoide cinamaldehído con el hongo fitopatógeno *Colletotrichum acutatum*. **Vitae** 16: 83 - 91.
- Carrasco H, Raimondi M, Svetaz L, Liberto MD, Rodriguez MV, Espinoza L, Madrid A, Zacchino S. 2012. Antifungal activity of eugenol analogues. Influence of different substituents and studies on mechanism of action. **Molecules** 17: 1002 - 1024.
- Damm U, Cannon PF, Woudenberg JHC, Crous PW. 2012. The *Colletotrichum acutatum* species complex. **Stud Mycol** 73: 37 113.
- Daoubi M, Deligeorgopoulou A, Macías-Sánchez AJ, Hernández-Galán R, Hitchcock PB, Hanson JR, Collado IG. 2005a. Antifungal activity and biotransformation of diisophorone by *Botrytis cinerea*. J Agric Food Chem 53: 6035 - 6039.
- Daoubi M, Hernandez-Galan R, Benharref A, Collado IG. 2005b. Screening study of lead compounds for natural product-based fungicides: antifungal activity and biotransformation of 6α,7α-dihydroxy-βhimachalene by *Botrytis cinerea*. J Agric Food Chem 53: 6673 - 6677.
- de Almeida RRP, Souto RNP, Bastos CN, da Silva MHL, Maia JGS. 2009. Chemical variation in *Piper aduncum* and biological properties of its dillapiole-rich essential oil. **Chem Biodivers** 6: 1427 - 1434.
- Delaforge M, Janiaud P, Levi P, Morizot JP. 1980. Biotransformation of allylbenzene analogues *in vivo* and *in vitro* through the epoxide-diol pathway. **Xenobiotica** 10: 737 - 744.
- Fujita KI, Kubo I. 2004. Potentiation of fungicidal activities of *trans*-anethole against *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* under hypoxic conditions. **J Biosci Bioeng** 98: 490 - 492.
- García-Pajón CM, Henández-Galán R, Collado IG. 2003. Biotransformations by *Colletotrichum* species. **Tetrahedron: Asymmetry** 14: 1229 - 1239.
- Gasson MJ, Kitamura Y, McLauchlan WR, Narbad A, Parr AJ, Parsons EL, Payne J, Rhodes MJ, Walton NJ. 1998. Metabolism of ferulic acid

to vanillin. A bacterial gene of the enoyl-SCoA hydratase/isomerase superfamily encodes an enzyme for the hydration and cleavage of a hydroxycinnamic acid SCoA thioester. **J Biol Chem** 237: 4163 - 4170.

- Gaviria-Hernández V, Patiño-Hoyos LF, Saldarriaga-Cardona A. 2013. Evaluación *in vitro* de fungicidas comerciales para el control de *Colletotrichum* spp., en mora de castilla.
 Corpoica Cienc Tecnol Agropec 14: 67 -75.
- Grover RK, Moore JD. 1962. Toxicometric studies of fungicides against the browning organisms *Sclerotinia fructicola* and *S. lava.* **Phytopathology** 52: 876 - 880.
- Guenthner TM, Luo G. 2001. Investigation of the role of the 2',3'-epoxidation pathway in the bioactivation and genotoxicity of dietary allylbenzene analogs. **Toxicology** 160: 47 58.
- Guerrini A, Sacchetti G, Rossi D, Paganetto G, Muzzoli M, Andreotti E, Tognolini M, Maldonado ME, Bruni R. 2009. Bioactivities of *Piper aduncum* L. and *Piper obliquum* Ruiz & Pavon (Piperaceae) essential oils from eastern Ecuador. **Environ Toxicol Pharm** 27: 39 - 48.
- Gutiérrez O, Gutiérrez JG, Ángel DN, Ortiz DT, Mejía EZ, Sánchez FD, Huerta HV. 2003. Resistencia a benomil y tiabendazol en aislamientos de *Colletotrichum* gloeosporioides (Penz.) Penz. y Sacc. obtenidos de mango (*Mangifera indica* L.) en cinco regiones de méxico. **Rev Mex Fitopatol** 21: 260 - 266.
- Hahn M. 2014. The rising threat of fungicide resistance in plant pathogenic fungi: *Botrytis* as a case study. **J Chem Biol** 7: 133 141.
- Han D, Ryu JY, Lee H, Hur HG. 2013. Bacterial biotransformation of phenylpropanoid compounds fro producing flavor and fragance compounds. **J Korean Soc Appl Biol Chem** 56: 125 - 133.
- Huang Z, Dostal L, Rosazza JP. 1993. Mechanisms of ferulic acid conversions to vanillic acid and guaiacol by *Rhodotorula rubra*. **J Biol Chem** 268: 23954 - 23958.
- Iriti M, Faoro F. 2009. Chemical diversity and defence metabolism: How plants cope with pathogens and ozone pollution. **Int J Mol Sci** 10: 3371 3399.

- Jin J, Mazon H, van den Heuvel RHH, Janssen DB. 2007. Discovery of a eugenol oxidase from *Rhodococcus* sp. strain RHA1. **FEBS J** 274: 2311 - 2321.
- Kubo I, Muroi H, Himejima M. 1993. Combination effects of antifungal nagilactones against *Candida albicans* and two other fungi with phenylpropanoids. **J Nat Prod** 56: 220 - 226.
- López-García B, Hernández M, Segundo BS. 2012. Bromelain, a cysteine protease from pineapple (*Ananas comosus*) stem, is an inhibitor of fungal plant pathogens. Lett Appl Microbiol 55: 62 - 67.
- Maxia A, Falconieri D, Piras A, Porcedda S, Marongiu B, Frau M, Gonçalves M, Cabral C, Cavaleiro C, Salgueiro L. 2012. Chemical composition and antifungal activity of essential oils and supercritical CO₂ extracts of *Apium nodiflorum* (L.) Lag. Mycopathologia 174: 61 67.
- Mishra S, Sachan A, Sachan SG. 2013. Production of natural value-added compounds: an insight into the eugenol biotransformation pathway. J Ind Microbiol Biotechnol 40: 545 - 550.
- Mohan RS, Gavardinas K, Kyere S, Whalen DL. 2000. Spontaneous hydrolysis reactions of *cis*- and *trans*-β-methyl-4-methoxystyrene oxides (anethole oxides): Buildup of *trans*anethole oxide as an intermediate in the spontaneous reaction of *cis*-anethole oxide. **J Org Chem** 65: 1407 - 1413.
- Numpaque MA, Oviedo LA, Gil JH, García CM, Durango DL. 2011. Thymol and carvacrol: biotransformation and antifungal activity against the plant pathogenic fungi *Colletotrichum acutatum* and *Botryodiplodia theobromae*. **Trop Plant Pathol** 36: 3 - 13.
- Olah GA, Malhotra R, Narang SC. 1989. Nitration. Methods and Mechanisms. VCH Publishers, New York, USA.
- Overhage J, Priefert H, Steinbüchel A. 1999. Biochemical and genetic analyses of ferulic acid catabolism in *Pseudomonas* sp. strain HR199. **Appl Environ Microb** 65: 4837 -4847.
- Overhage J, Steinbüchel A, Priefert H. 2003. Highly efficient biotransformation of eugenol to ferulic acid and further conversion to vanillin in recombinant strains of *Escherichia coli*. **Appl Environ Microbiol** 69: 6569 - 6576.

Pineda R, Vizcaíno S, García CM, Gil JH, Durango DL. 2012. Chemical composition and

antifungal activity of *Piper auritum* Kunth and *Piper holtonii* C. DC. against phytopathogenic fungi. **Chil J Agric Res** 72: 507 - 515.

- Plaggenborg R, Overhage O, Loos A, Archer JA, Lessard P, Sinskey AJ, Steinbüchel A, Priefert H. 2006. Potential of *Rhodococcus* strains fro biotechnological vanillin production from ferulic acid and eugenol. **Appl Microbiol Biotechnol** 56: 457 - 461.
- Priefert H, Overhage J, Steinbüchel A. 1999. Identification and molecular characterization of the eugenol hydroxylase genes (*ehyA/ehyB*) of *Pseudomonas* sp. strain HR199. **Arch Microbiol** 172: 354 - 363.
- Santos AS, Pereira Jr N, da Silva IM, Sarquis MIM, Antunes OAC. 2004. Peroxidase catalyzed microbiological oxidation of isosafrol into piperonal. **Process Biochem** 39: 2269 - 2275.
- Santos AS, Pereira NP, da Silva IM, Sarquis MIM, Antunes OA. 2003. Microbiologic oxidation of isosafrole into piperonal. **Appl Biochem Biotechnol** 105-108: 649 - 657.
- Scheline RR. 1991. **CRC Handbook of Mammalian Metabolism of Plant Compounds.** 1^a Ed. CRC Press LLC, Boca Raton, FL, USA.
- Shimoni E, Baasov T, Ravid U, Shoham Y. 2003. Biotransformations of propenylbenzenes by an *Arthrobacter* sp. and its *t*-anethole blocked mutants. **J Biotech** 105: 61 - 70.
- Singh G, Marimuthu P, de Heluani CS, Catalan CAN. 2005. Antioxidant and biocidal activities of *Carum nigrum* (Seed) essential oil, oleoresin, and their selected components. J Agric Food Chem 54: 174 - 181.
- Singh V, Kanojiyab S, Batra S. 2006. Studies on the reduction of the nitro group in 3-aryl-2methylene-4-nitro-alkanoates afforded by the Baylis–Hillman adducts: synthesis of 4-aryl-3-methylene-2-pyrrolidinones and 3-(1-

alkoxycarbonyl - vinyl) - 1H - indole-2-carboxylates. **Tetrahedron** 62: 10100 - 10110.

- Simic A, Sokovic MD, Ristic M, Grujic-Jovanovic S, Vukojevic J, Marin PD. 2004. The chemical composition of some Lauraceae essential oils and their antifungal activities. **Phytother Res** 18: 713 - 717.
- Smith MB. 2013. March's Advanced Organic Chemistry: Reactions, Mechanisms, and Structure. 7 ed. John Wiley & Sons. Hoboken, New Jersey, USA.
- Syed RN, Mansha N, Khaskheli MA, Khanzada MA, Lodhi AM. 2014. Chemical control of stem end rot of mango caused by *Lasiodiplodia theobromae*. **Pak J Phytopathol** 26: 201 -206.
- Tadasa K. 1977. Degradation of eugenol by a microorganism. Agric Biol Chem 41: 925 929.
- Tadasa K, Kayahara H. 1983. Initial steps of eugenol degradation pathway of a microorganism. **Agric Biol Chem** 47: 2639 2640.
- Twumasi P, Ohene-Mensah G, Moses E. 2014. The rot fungus *Botryodiplodia theobromae* strains cross infect cocoa, mango, banana and yam with significant tissue damage and economic losses. **Afr J Agric Res** 9: 613 - 619.
- Velasco R, Gil JH, García CM, Durango DL. 2010. Production of 2-phenylethanol in the biotransformation of cinnamyl alcohol by the plant pathogenic fungus *Colletotrichum acutatum*. **Vitae** 17: 272 - 280.
- Velasco R, Gil JH, García CM, Durango DL. 2012. Structural modification of trans-cinnamic acid using *Colletotrichum acutatum*. **Rev Fac Ing Univ Antioquia** 63: 20 - 29.
- Xu P, Hua D, Ma C. 2007. Microbial transformation of propenylbenzenes for natural flavour production. **Trends Biotechnol** 25: 571 -576.