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Volume 12

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CONTENTS OF THE VOLUME

- i. Copyright Notice
- ii. Editorial Board Members
- iii. Chief Author and Dean
- iv. Table of Contents
- v. From the Chief Editor's Desk
- vi. Research and Review Papers
 1. Electrochemical Behaviour of a Copper Electrode in Ammonium Sulfide Solution. **1-7**
 2. Application of Icp-Oes in the Comparative Analysis of a Used and Fresh Gasoline Motor Oil. **9-14**
 3. Interaction Between Cryptand 222 And Tetracyanoethylene In Di And Trichlorom Ethane Solutions. **15-21**
 4. Synthesis Of Biologically Important Pyrrole Derivatives In Any ¹³C And ¹⁵N Isotope Enriched Form. **23-36**
 5. Effect Of Blanching, Ripening And Other Treatments On The Production Characteristics Of Pectinolytic Enzymes From Banana Peels By *Aspergillus Niger*. **37-46**
 6. Protective role of *sphaeranthus amaranthoides* on hepatic marker enzymes. **47-50**
- vii. Auxiliary Memberships
- viii. Process of Submission of Research Paper
- ix. Preferred Author Guidelines
- x. Index



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Electrochemical Behaviour of a Copper Electrode in Ammonium Sulfide Solution

By I. Zaafarany & Herbert Boller

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Abstract - The electrochemical behaviour of a copper electrode in ammonium sulphide solutions was studied using cyclic voltammogrammetry and potentiostatic and galvanostatic polarization techniques. The morphology and composition of the layers formed on the copper electrode were studied by scanning electron microscopy (SEM) and energy dispersive X-ray analysis (EDAX) and X-ray powder diffractometry. Besides different binary copper sulphide phases the ternary phases $\text{NH}_4\text{Cu}_{7-x}\text{S}_4$ and NH_4CuS_4 were observed, $\text{NH}_4\text{Cu}_{7-x}\text{S}_4$ crystallizing as needles perpendicular to the electrode surface.

Keywords : *Electrochemistry, copper, ammonium sulphide, copper sulphides, ammonium thiocuprates.*

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Electrochemical Behaviour of a Copper Electrode in Ammonium Sulfide Solution

I. Zaafarany^α & Herbert Boller^σ

Abstract - The electrochemical behaviour of a copper electrode in ammonium sulphide solutions was studied using cyclic voltammogrammetry and potentiostatic and galvanostatic polarization techniques. The morphology and composition of the layers formed on the copper electrode were studied by scanning electron microscopy (SEM) and energy dispersive X-ray analysis (EDAX) and X-ray powder diffractometry. Besides different binary copper sulphide phases the ternary phases $\text{NH}_4\text{Cu}_{7-x}\text{S}_4$ and NH_4CuS_4 were observed, $\text{NH}_4\text{Cu}_{7-x}\text{S}_4$ crystallizing as needles perpendicular to the electrode surface.

Keywords : Electrochemistry, copper, ammonium sulphide, copper sulphides, ammonium thiocuprates.

I. INTRODUCTION

Copper combines corrosion resistance with high electrical and heat conductivity, formability, machinability and strength. It has good resistance to urban, marine and industrial atmosphere and water. Being a noble metal it is not corroded by acids unless oxygen or another oxidizing agent is present. Copper and its alloys are also resistant to slightly alkaline solutions. Several authors studied the electrochemical behaviour of copper in alkaline solutions [1-5]. The presence of sulphide ions, however, enhances its corrosion. When soluble sulphides are present in potable water or sea water, a thick black, poorly adherent scale forms on a copper or brass surface [6]. This scale is composed mainly of Cu_2S although copper deficient Cu_{1-x}S , CuS and Cu_2O have also been reported [7]. There is a lack of studies of the electrochemical behaviour of copper in ammonium sulphide solutions.

There are several binary copper sulphides also occurring as minerals: Cu_2S (Chalcocite), $\text{Cu}_{1.97}\text{S}$ (Djurleite), $\text{Cu}_{1.8}\text{S}$ (Digenite), $\text{Cu}_{1.74-1.82}\text{S}$ (Roxbyite), $\text{Cu}_{1.4}\text{S}$ (Anilite) and CuS (Covellite) [8].

Two ammonium thiocuprates $\text{NH}_4\text{Cu}_7\text{S}_4$ [9] and $\text{NH}_4\text{Cu}_4\text{S}_3$ [10] and one polysulphide NH_4CuS_4 [11] have been reported and the formation of $\text{NH}_4\text{Cu}_{7-x}\text{S}_4$ and of the new compound $\text{NH}_4\text{Cu}_4\text{S}_3$ by reaction of copper with yellow ammonium sulphide solutions has been studied [10].

The present work aims to study the electrochemical behaviour of a copper electrode in

ammonium sulphide solutions using cyclic voltammograms, potentiostatic and galvanostatic polarization techniques with special emphasis on the morphology, chemical and phase composition of the layers and scales formed.

II. EXPERIMENTAL

Cyclic voltammograms (CVs), potentiostatic and galvanostatic polarization techniques were performed with the computer-controlled electrochemical measurement system Autolab (ECO Chemie) combined with the software package GPES (General Purpose Electrochemical System). A standard electrochemical cell with five holes - three holes for the electrodes and two for nitrogen inlet and outlet - was used. A commercial Ag/AgCl electrode was used as reference electrode. The counter electrode was a platinum wire. The working copper electrode was prepared from a high purity (99.98%) copper rod. A small piece of copper rod - diameter 6 mm, length 6 mm - was placed in a "Kel-F" shield, secured by epoxy resin. The bottom electrode was screwed onto a polyethylene holder with a contact wire in order to obtain good electrical contact. The electrodes were successively abraded with finest grade emery paper and degreased with acetone. Complete wetting of the surface was taken as indication of its cleanliness when rinsed with bi-distilled water. All chemicals used were of A.R. quality. The solutions were prepared using bi-distilled water; no attempts were made to de-aerate them. Most experiments were done in relatively concentrated 2.9M ($\text{pH} \approx 9$) ammonium sulphide solutions.

Cyclovoltammetric sweeping was generally between -2.0V (hydrogen evolution) to +1.0 V (oxygen evolution). All measurements were taken at 25 ± 1 °C.

The surface of the electrode and the scales formed at the electrode were investigated by scanning electron microscopy (SEM) and energy dispersive X-ray elemental analysis (EDAX). Guinier powder photographs were used for the crystallographic phase analysis of the products.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

a) Cyclic Voltammogram Curves

Figure 1 represents the cyclic voltammogram of a Cu electrode in 2.9M ammonium sulphide solutions between -2.0V and 1.0V at a voltage scan rate 50mV sec^{-1} . Inspection of this figure reveals that there are three

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anodic peaks (A, B, C). A corresponds to the formation of the copper sulphide layer Cu_{2-x}S while the peaks B and C are related to the formation of CuS and some Cu_2O [12]. The reverse scanning shows three cathodic peaks namely, D, E and F. The cathodic peak D corresponds to the partial reduction of CuS , while the cathodic peak E is associated with the reduction of the sulphide layer formed in region A - B. The study was then restricted to the potential range where the processes associated with A, B, and E take place, since the aim of this work was to elucidate the formation of the sulphide layer. Such a voltammogram is shown in Figure 2. The layer does not passivate the surface, and the fact that the ratio of Q_a/Q_c was found to be close to 1 (where Q_a and Q_c are the anodic and cathodic charges) indicates that no appreciable dissolution of the electrode or of the layer takes places in this potential region.

b) Potentiostatic Polarization Measurements

Figure 3 (a, b and c) shows the potentiostatic polarization (*i* - *t*) curves for the copper electrode in 2.9M ammonium sulphide solution at different potentials. The general shape of the transients is characteristic of a nucleation and growth process. At very short times double layer charging takes place, followed by an increase of current due to the formation and growth of nuclei. The current reaches a maximum and starts to decrease rapidly because of the layer growth controlled by mass transport till a steady state is reached. Although the initial current increases are usually too fast to be seen in the potentiostatic current-time curves, it is clearly shown in Figure 3b.

c) Galvanostatic Polarization Measurements

Figure 4a represents the galvanostatic polarization curves of the copper electrode in 2.9M ammonium sulphide solution at zero current. The shape of the transient is characteristic of a nucleation process. Sand's equation seems to be obeyed in the region between the minimum (1sec) till the end of the experiment

The main contribution of the peak observed during the galvanostatic polarization experiment is that of the nucleation process. The potential decreases rapidly to less negative potentials arriving at a steady state at -0.975V probably corresponding to chalcocite formation.

Figure 4b represents the galvanostatic polarization curves of a copper electrode in 2.9M of ammonium sulphide at current = 1A. No steady state is reached within the measuring time. The discontinuities in the transient indicate mechanical ruptures during layer formation.

d) The Composition And Nature Of Anodically Formed Layers

The layers formed on the copper electrode in 2.9M ammonium sulphide solution under potentiostatic

conditions at different potentials were investigated by scanning electron microscopy (SEM), energy dispersive X-ray analysis (EDAX) and X-ray powder diffraction.

Dependent on the experimental conditions layers with different morphologies and compositions are observed (Table 1). EDAX analyses indicate that oxygen contents are generally very low. Besides binary copper sulphide phases two ternary compounds, $\text{NH}_4\text{Cu}_{7-x}\text{S}_4$ and NH_4CuS_4 , are formed. The morphology of $\text{NH}_4\text{Cu}_{7-x}\text{S}_4$ is drastically different from that of Chalcocite. The layer is felt-like with thin packages of needles growing perpendicularly to the electrode surface (Figure 5a). By increasing time the needles become a little thicker and longer without changing their orientation.

Two reaction paths are feasible:

- in situ reaction of anodically formed Cu^+ with S^{2-} and NH_4^+
- consecutive reaction of anodically formed Cu_2S with S^{2-} and NH_4^+

Reaction path a) appears to be more probable in view of the oriented crystal growth. Cu^+ ions are supposed to travel through the channels existing in the quasi-one-dimensional crystal structure of $\text{NH}_4\text{Cu}_{7-x}\text{S}_4$ along the needle axis (c-axis). Hollow needles were also observed (Figure 5b). In this case the Cu^+ ions can also travel along the macroscopic channels inside the needles.

Figure 5c shows a typical micrograph of apparently well crystallized NH_4CuS_4 .

Scales formed under cyclo-voltammetric conditions correspond to irreversible processes. Therefore they are different from those formed under potentiostatic conditions. Thus by cycling between -0.8 V- to positive potentials of +0.2 to 0.8 V dark grey layers of Djurelite ($\text{Cu}_{-1.96}\text{S}$) were obtained, while under potentiostatic conditions at comparable positive potentials dark blue layers of Covellite (CuS) are formed.

IV. CONCLUSIONS

The electrochemical processes in the studied system are complex. Scale formation is governed by nucleation and growth and is characterized by concurrent reversible and irreversible reactions. Scales formed at cyclo-voltammetric conditions are different from those formed under potentiostatic conditions, where also the ternary phases $\text{NH}_4\text{Cu}_{7-x}\text{S}_4$ and NH_4CuS_4 are formed. $\text{NH}_4\text{Cu}_{7-x}\text{S}_4$ is growing as fine needles perpendicular to the electrode surface suggesting an in situ reaction of anodically formed Cu^+ ions travelling from the electrode through the scale with $[\text{NH}_4]^+$ and S^{2-} ions in the solution.

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Table 1

Anodically formed layers under potentiostatic conditions
(electrolyte concentration 2.9M)

-0.73 to -0.53V	dark grey layer	chalcocite (Cu_2S)
-0.67 to -0.60V	needles + polycrystalline substrate	$\text{NH}_4\text{Cu}_7\text{S}_4$ + chalcocite(Cu_2S)
-0.4 to -0.3V	black layer	digenite (Cu_{1-x}S)
-0.3 to +0.2V	brown layer	NH_4CuS_4 + chalcocite
+0.4 to +0.6V	black blue layer	Covellite (CuS)

Figure Captions

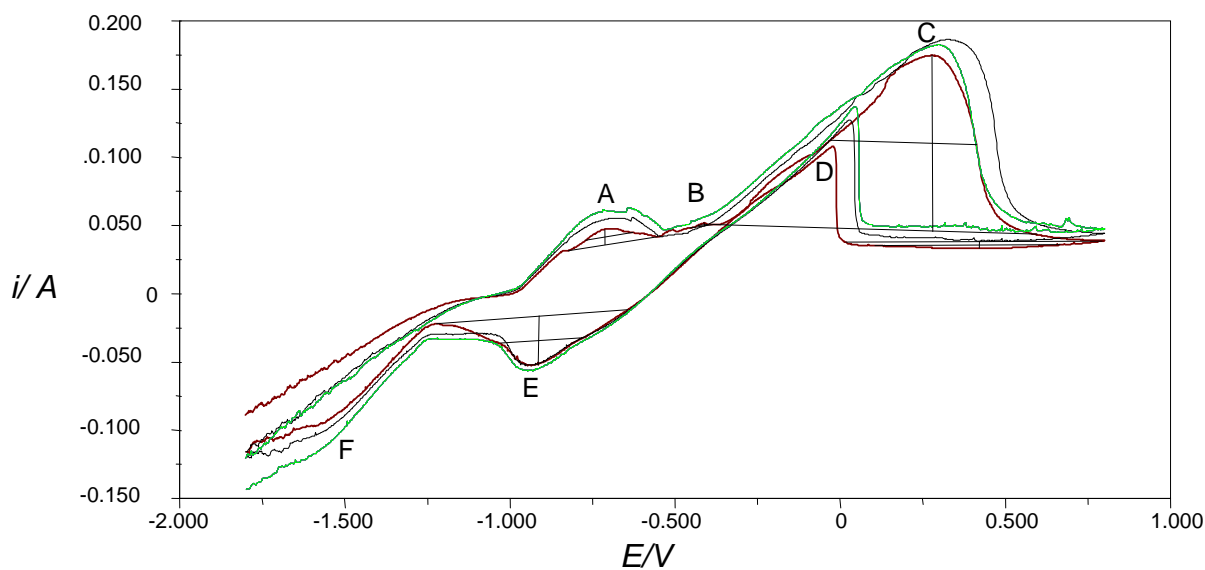


Figure 1 : Cyclic voltammogram of copper in 2.9 M ammonium sulphide solution at a sweep rate of 50mV/s.

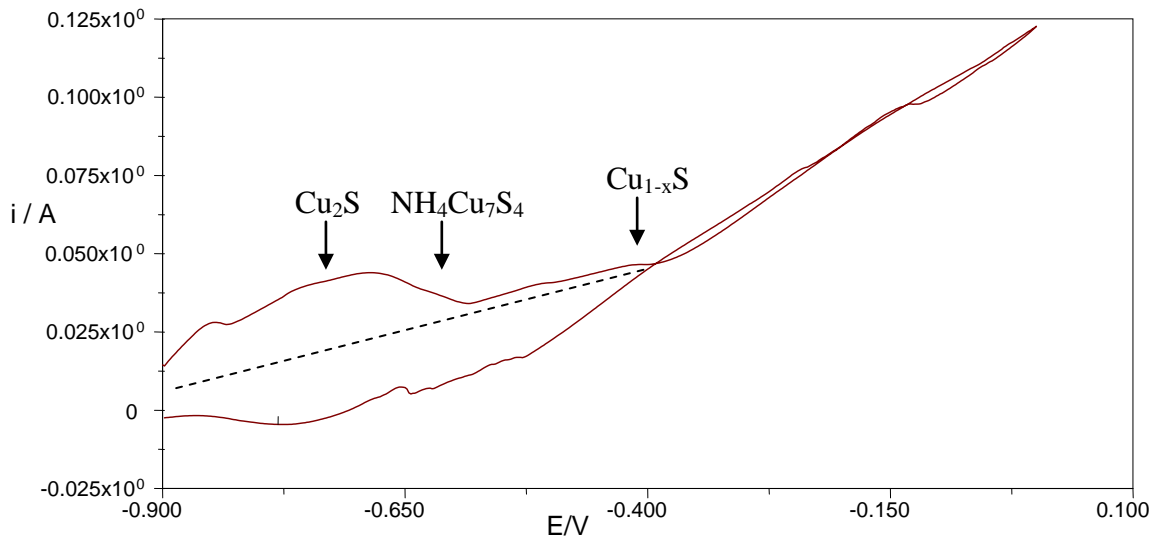
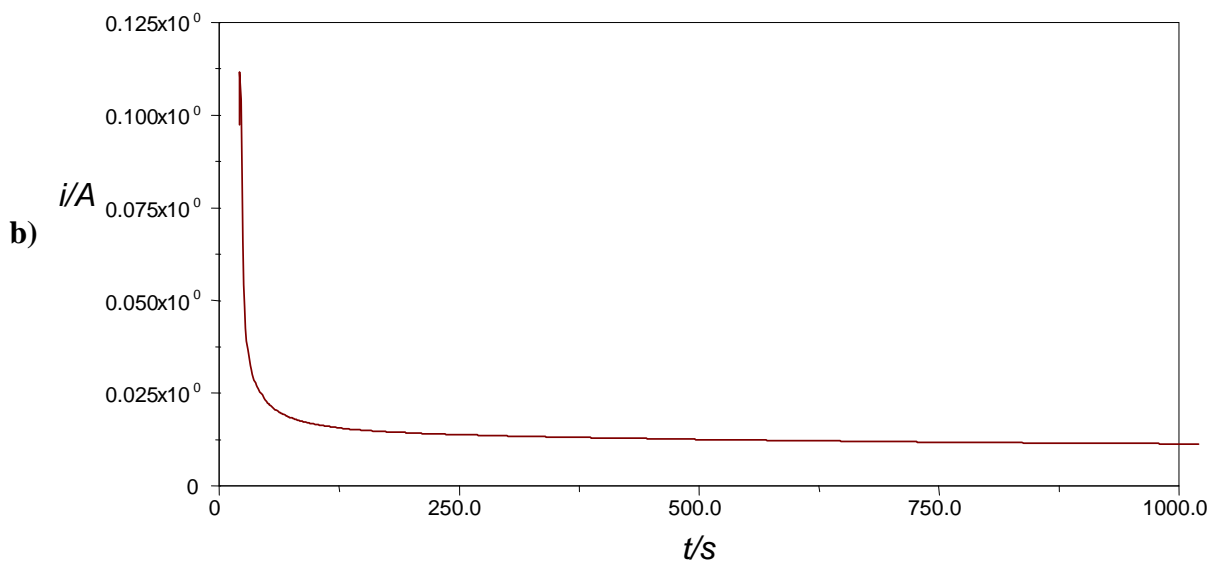
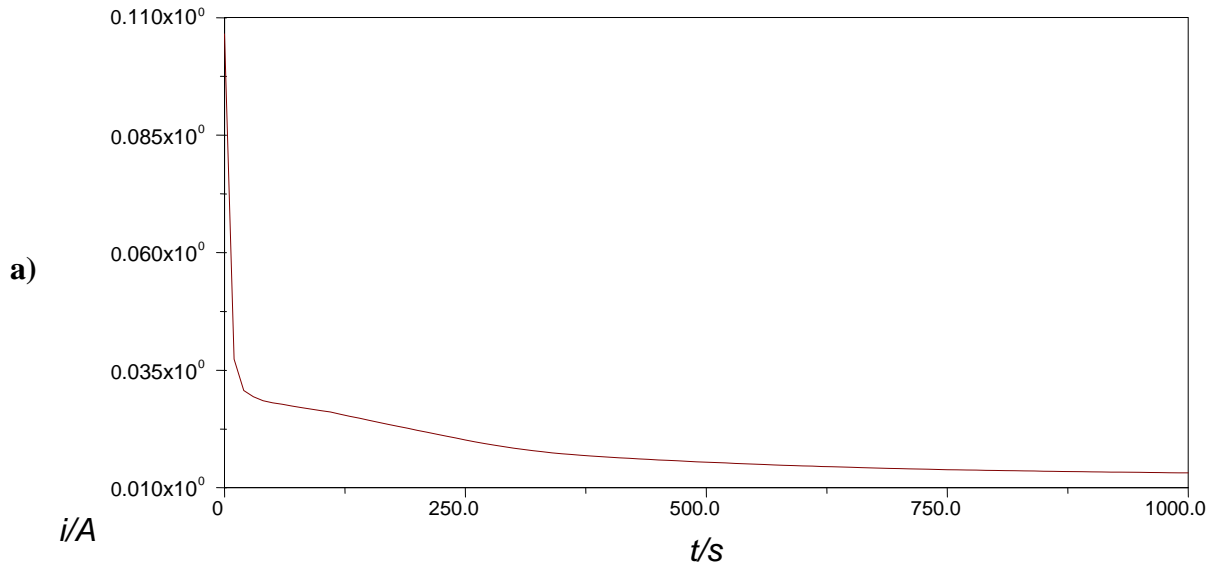


Figure 2 : Cyclic voltammogram of copper in 2.9 M ammonium sulfide solution in the range of Cu_{2-x}S layer formation at sweep rate 50mV/s.



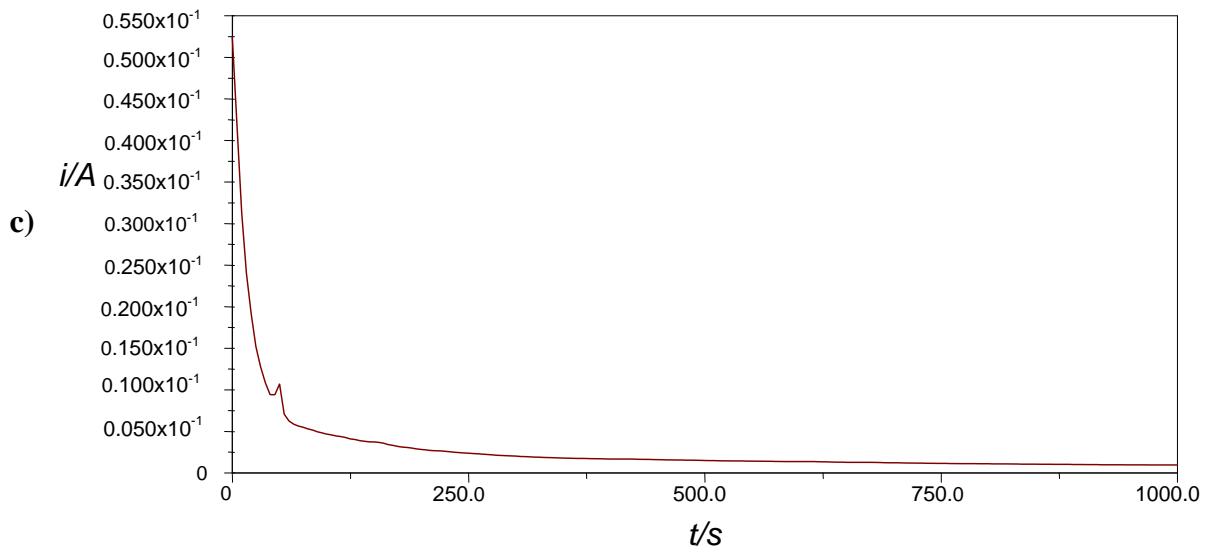
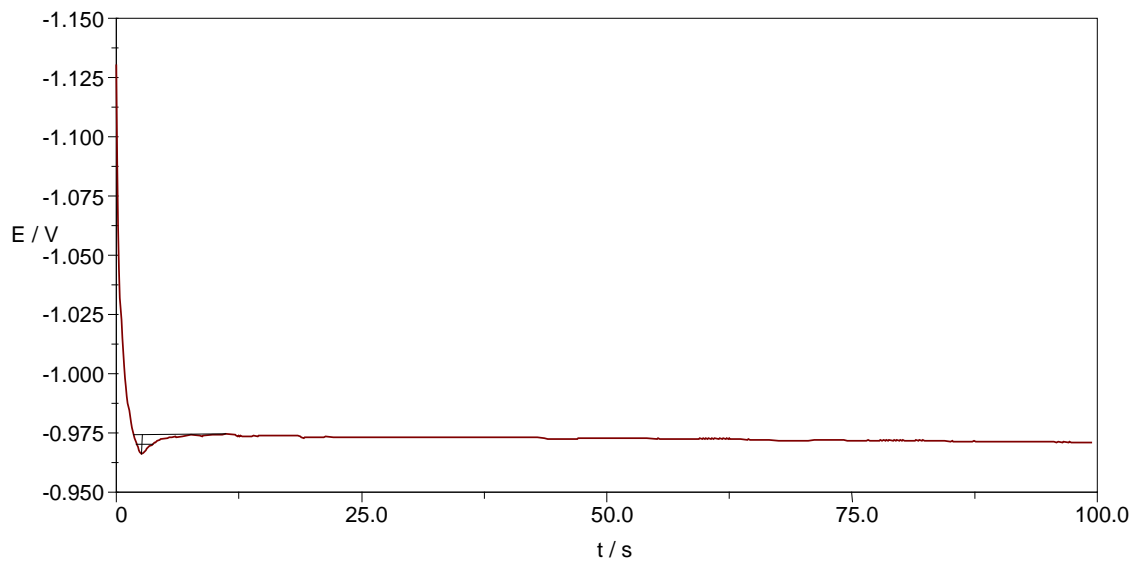


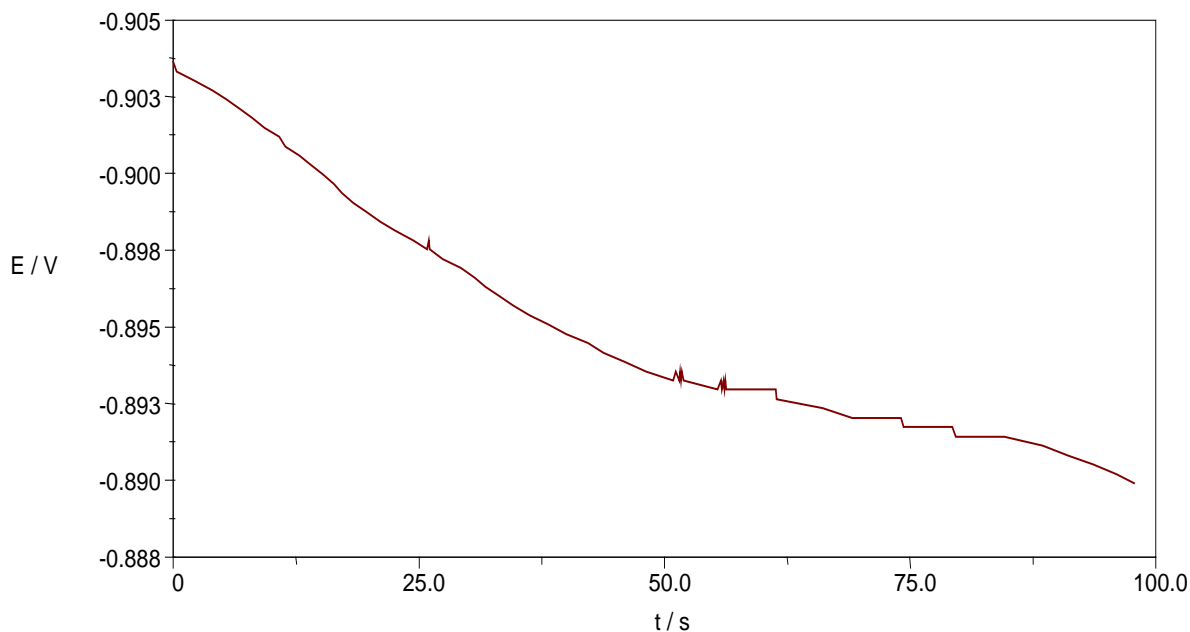
Figure 3 : Potentiostatic current-time curve of copper electrode in 2.9M ammonium sulfide solution at

- potential at -0.463V (formation of Cu_2S , Digenite).
- potential at -0.568V (formation of $\text{NH}_4\text{Cu}_{7-x}\text{S}_4$).
- potential at -0.704V (formation of Cu_2S , Chalcocite).



a

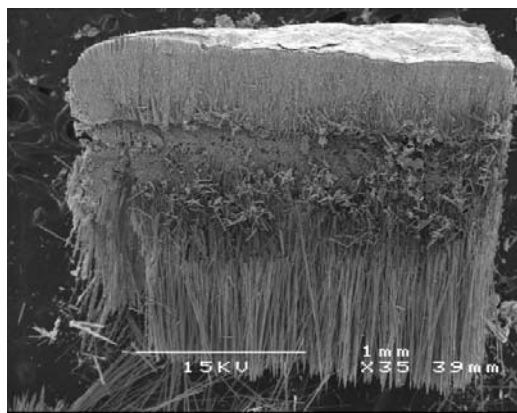
Galvanostatic curve recorded for copper electrode in 2.9M ammonium sulfide solution at current = 0



b
Galvanostatic curve recorded for copper electrode in 2.935M ammonium sulfide solution at current = 1A.

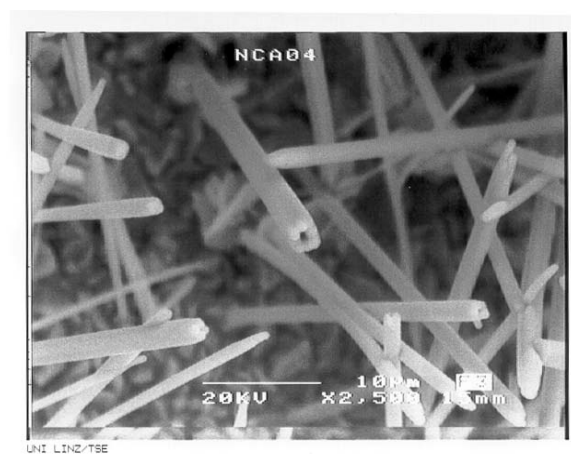
Figure 4 : Galvanostatic curve recorded for a copper electrode in 2.9M ammonium sulfide solution at

- a) current = 0
- b) current = 1A



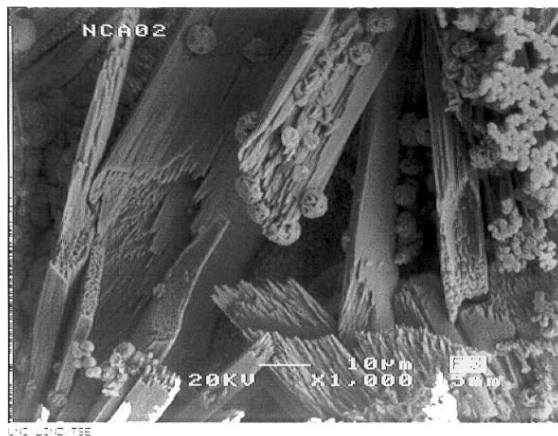
a

Scanning electron micrograph of a layer formed in 2.9M ammonium sulfide solution at potential -0.63V ($\text{NH}_4\text{Cu}_7\text{S}_4$).



b

Scanning electron micrograph of $\text{NH}_4\text{Cu}_7\text{S}_4$ needles formed at the same conditions.



c

Scanning electron micrograph of a layer formed in 2.935M ammonium sulfide solution at potential 0V (NH_4CuS_4).

Figure 5 : SEM micrographs of electro crystallized $NH_4Cu_7S_4$ and NH_4CuS_4

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Application of ICP-OES in the Comparative Analysis of a Used and Fresh Gasoline Motor Oil

Behnam Rahimi^α, Abolfazl Semnani^ο, Alireza Nezamzade Ejhieh^α, Hamid Shakoori Langeroodi, & Massoud Hakim Davood^ω

Abstract - In a fresh and 14500 km used oil, viscosity, viscosity index, flash point, pour point, specific gravity, color, total acid number, total base number, water content, as well as concentrations of twenty four elements, were determined. The mineral based, gasoline motor oil Speedy SL, from Sepahan Oil Company was chosen for study. The physical properties were characterized by ASTM protocols. The elemental analysis was performed by inductively coupled plasma- optical emission spectroscopy (ICP-OES). The results indicate that after the application of fresh oil, both of the physical properties and elemental concentrations have been changed significantly. Possible reasons for the observed variations have been discussed

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I. INTRODUCTION

Oil analysis (OA) is the sampling and laboratory analysis of a lubricant's properties, suspended contaminants, and wears debris. OA is performed during routine preventive maintenance to provide meaningful and accurate information on lubricant and machine condition. By tracking oil analysis sample results over the life of a particular machine, trends can be established which can help eliminate costly repairs [1-5].

OA was first used after World War II by the US railroad industry to monitor the health of locomotives. In 1946, the Denver and Rio Grande Railroad's research laboratory successfully detected diesel engine problems through wear metal analysis of used oils. A key factor in their success was the development of the spectrograph, an instrument that replaced several wet chemical methods for detecting and measuring individual chemical element such as iron or copper. This practice was soon accepted and used extensively throughout the railroad industry [5-9].

Used oil analysis is comparable to a medical

analysis with a blood test. Like blood, lubricating oil contains a good deal of information about the envelope in which it circulates. Wear of metallic parts, for example, produces many minute particles, which are carried by the lubricant. These small metal particles can give information about the machine elements that are wearing. In addition, variations of physical properties such as viscosity, viscosity index, flash point and etc, can give valuable information about engine and lubricant performance [5-9].

A number of techniques such as inductively coupled plasma [10], Fourier transformation infrared spectroscopy [11,12], atomic absorption spectroscopy [13], differential scanning calorimetry [14], x-ray fluorescence spectroscopy [15], laser induced breakdown spectroscopy [16], spectrography [17], ferrography [18], mass spectrometry [19], and chromatography [20] have been applied for the oil analysis.

We have been recently involved in the investigation of lubrication oils [21-23]. In this paper, we report the results of the comparative physical and chemical analysis of fresh and used gasoline engine oil with mineral base, by ICP-OES and some other techniques.

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Experimental

a) Materials

All of the materials were used directly without any further processing. The employed materials, as well as the name of the corresponding manufacturer are as follows:

Material	Manufacturer	Material	Manufacturer
Gasoline oil Speedy SL	Sepahan Oil Company	Potassium Hydroxide	Merck
Ethanol	Merck	Acetic acid	Merck
Hydrochloric acid	Merck	Acetic anhydride	Merck
Lithium chloride	Merck	Chlorobenzene	Merck
Methanol	Merck	Sodium perchlorate	Merck
Propane-2-ol	Merck	Sodium carbonate	Merck
Buffer	Merck	Xylene	Merck
Chloroform	Merck	Acetone	Merck
Perchloric acid	Merck	Solid carbon dioxide	Merck

b) Test Methods

The test methods were followed as: ASTM D-445 for viscosity @ 40^oc and 100^oc, ASTM D-2270 for viscosity index, ASTM D- 92 for flash point, ASTM D-97 for pour point, ASTM D-1298 for specific gravity, ASTM D-1500 for color, ASTM D-664 for total acid number, ASTM D-6304 for water content,

c) Instrumental

All of the viscosities, viscosity indices and specific gravities were determined by viscometer Anton Paar model SVM 3000. Flash points were evaluated by flash point tester Herzog model HC 852. Pour points were determined by pour point tester Herzog model HC 852. The colors were determined by Dr. Long instrument. TBNs were determined by robotic titro sampler Metrohm model Dosiono 800. TANs were determined by titrator Methrohm model Titrino MPT 789. FTIR spectrum was recorded on a FTIR spectrum Perkin Elmer model Spectrum 65 using KBr pellet. The elemental analysis were performed by ICP-OES Perkin Elmer model Optima 5300V

d) Sampling

The sampling was performed immediately after turning off the car. An adequate amount of oil sample was taken by 100 mL syringe.

II. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Typical properties such as vis@40^oc, vis@100^oc, viscosity index, flash point and etc of fresh and used oil are compared in Table 1. As it can be seen, all of the properties have been changed approximately. This means that upon the usage of motor oil and during the performance of the oil several changes has been occurred in the oil composition [24].

Consistency, flow properties, or viscosity in the case of oils, are key parameters to create lubrication efficiency and the application of lubricants [25]. The viscosity of used engine oil can drop for reasons of fuel dilution, or as a result of high water content and/or shearing of the VI improver [1]. Viscosity can increase because of heavy contamination of the oil by soot, polymerization, vaporization losses, and emulsions due to water contamination and/or oxidation of the oil [1].

Obviously, the final status of the oil viscosity depends on the combination effects of decreasing and increasing factors. If the falling factors overcome to the rising ones, the drop in viscosity will happen. An increase in the property will be observed, in the reverse conditions.

There is no signal of fuel dilution. Therefore, the appearance of water in the used oil and the drop of viscosity index (as a result of shearing of the VI improver) are the main viscosity reducing agents.

It is well known that heavy contamination of the oil by soot causes the appearance of a band at 2000 cm^{-1} in the IR spectrum of corresponding oil [1]. Because of the absence of such band in the spectrum of used oil (Fig. 1) viscosity increase by soot formation is discarded. On the other hand, considerable reduction in the volume of the oil was not observed. Which means that the evaporation losses through usage of the oil are minimal. Furthermore, there is no evident of polymerization. Thus, among the viscosity increasing factors the main role can be attributed to the oxidation. This is further confirmed by the increase of TAN, density and color, as some of the oxidation signals.

The data in Table 1 indicate that $\text{vis}@40^\circ\text{C}$ and $\text{vis}@100^\circ\text{C}$ have been increased. Based on the discussion on previous paragraph it can be claimed that viscosity-increasing factors have been overcome to the decreasing ones.

The flash point is the lowest temperature at which an ignition source causes the vapors of the specimen (lubricant) to ignite under specified conditions [2]. Like viscosity, the flash point test has always been a standard part of a lubricant's specification. Because of the low flash points of most fuels, a sudden drop in flash temperature in crankcase oil can usually be relied upon as an indication of dilution. Occasionally, very high, localized temperatures can lead to thermal cracking within the oil. As there is no evident of fuel dilution, the observed reduction (Table 1) can be attributed to thermal cracking. Because of lower flammability of lighter molecules, the flash point has been reduced. The production of lighter molecules is further confirmed by decreasing of pour point. As it can be seen, the pour point has been reduced for 4 degrees of Celsius.

The total acid number is a measure of the acidic constituents in petroleum products. The acidity of unused oils and fluids is normally derived from the type and concentration of specific additive material whereas the acidity of used oil is of interest to measure the degree of oxidation of the fluid. The total base number (TBN) characterizes the alkaline reserve in petroleum products [24, 25]. It is particularly used for engine oils where by acidic combustion products use up the alkaline reserve. Both TAN and TBN can be obtained by acid base titration. Sample titration curve is shown in Fig. 2. The resulting data indicate that TAN of used oil has been increased relative to fresh oil. In contrast, TBN has been decreased. The increasing of TAN can be attributed to production of acidic products due to oil

oxidation. In fact, in high temperature of motor conditions some of the oil constituents oxidize. The carboxylic acid is produced. The reduction of TBN can be assigned to depletion of additives, which mostly do have basic character. The appearance of carbonyl band in IR spectrum of used oil (Fig. 1) further confirms the production of acidic adducts.

The concentration of different elements was measured by ICP-OES. The final results are given in Table 2. According to the data, different elements can be categorized to three groups: (i) the elements, which have high concentration in fresh oil, (ii) elements, which have low concentration in fresh oil, and (iii) elements that do not exist in fresh oil. Based on this categorization sulfur, zinc, phosphorus, magnesium, silicon, calcium and barium can be located in first group. Bohr molybdenum, aluminum, silver, chromium, nickel and sodium in second group and manganese, iron, copper, tin, titanium, vanadium, lead, cadmium, antimony and potassium in third group.

Among the elements of the first group, the highest concentration belongs to sulfur. Keeping in mind that the examined motor oil do have mineral character and mineral base oils do have relatively high sulfur content [25], such an observation is not unexpected. On the other hand, the decrease in the concentration of this element in the used oil can be attributed to oxidation followed by evaporation of some of the sulfur containing constituents.

The high concentration of other elements such as Zinc, Phosphorous, magnesium, silicon and barium indicate that these elements are the constituents of employed additives. The existence of these elements can be attributed to ZDDP, barium sulfonate, and other additives. The decrease in the concentration of these elements indicates that during the performance of the oil the additives have been depleted.

The low concentration elements (group (ii)) origin from the additives which are used in very low concentration or the elements which in the process of oil production have been produced in the oil.

The encounter with the elements which initially are absent in the fresh oil but appear in the used oil (group (iii)) can be attributed to the wearing of motor parts during the oil performance, contamination or both of them. Equipment as it operates will deposit microscopic amounts of wear metals in the lubricant. For example iron originates from the wearing of cylinders, copper from bushings, bearings, cam bushings, oil coolers, valve train bushings, thrust washers, oil pumps, aluminum from pistons, bearings, blocks (some), bushings, housing, oil pumps, blowers, thrust bearings, cam bearings/bushings, chromium from rings, roller/taper bearings (some), liners, exhaust valves, wear treatment, lead from bearings, gasoline, octane improver. Molybdenum from plating or surface hardening agent in certain bearings, rings.

Under normal conditions, wear will be very low and under abnormal conditions, the wear will be high. Among these elements the concentration of iron and manganese show drastic change, which indicate drastic wear of iron alloy occurs such as. Because the concentration of wear elements is not very high, it can be concluded that considerable wearing has not occurred.

III. CONCLUSIONS

Based on obtained results it can be concluded that due to depletion of additives, oxidation, thermal cracking and wear, some of the physical and chemical properties of the selected oil have been changed. Minor wearing has been occurred. In general it can be claimed that the oil shows acceptable performance characteristics.

IV. ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

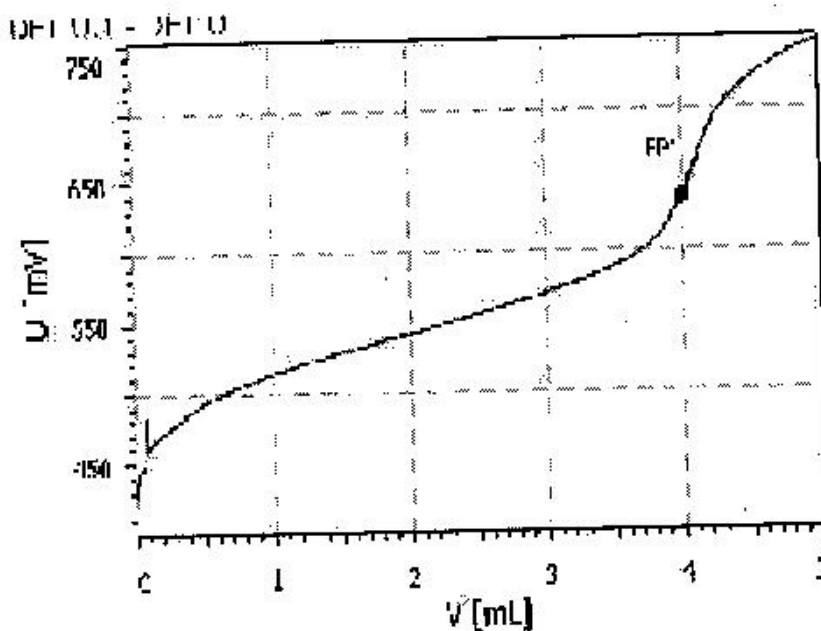
The financial support of this work by Azad University of Shahreza is highly appreciated. The authors also respect from Sepahan oil Company due to lab support of this work.

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Table 1 : Typical properties of fresh oil Speedy SL from Sepahan oil Company

Typical Properties	Test Method	Fresh oil	Used oil
Viscosity@40°C cSt	ASTM D-445	141.6	152.2
Viscosity@100°C cSt	ASTM D-445	16.51	18.4
Viscosity Index	ASTM D-2270	125	118.3
Flash Point	ASTM D-92	222	218
Pour Point	ASTM D-97	-26	-30
Specific Gravity	ASTM D-1298	0.8910	0.9037
Color	ASTM D-1500	2	8
TAN (mg KOH/g)	ASTM D-664	1.52	3.2
TBN (mg KOH/g)	ASTM D-664	12.37	9.75
Water content	ASTM D-6304	0	1%

*Figure 1* : Titration curve due to TBN determination of fresh oil.

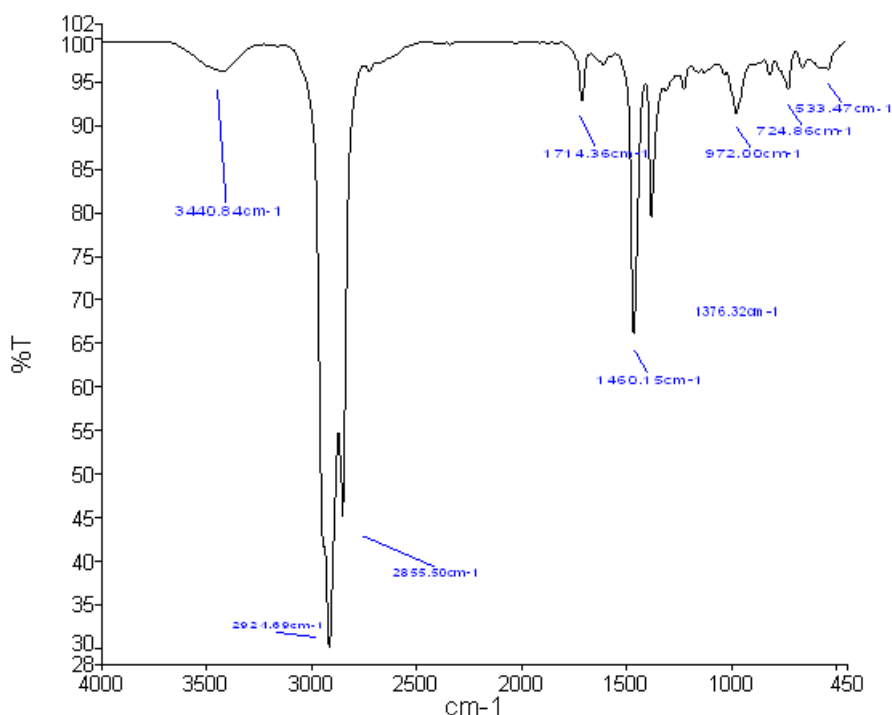


Fig. 2 : IR spectrum of used oil

Table 2 : Concentration of different elements in fresh and used oils

No.	Element	Fresh oil	Used oil	No.	Element	Fresh oil	Used oil
1	Sulfur	1108.0	938.0	13	Nickel	1.1	2.0
2	Zinc	784.0	160.0	14	Sodium	0.5	1.1
3	Phosphorous	811.2	318.8	15	Manganese	0.0	25.3
4	Magnesium	228.9	185.9	16	Iron	0.0	12.8
5	Silicon	61.4	45.5	17	Copper	0.0	2.8
6	Calcium	56.7	16.1	18	Tin	0.0	1.6
7	Barium	29.4	22.8	19	Titanium	0.0	1.6
8	Bohr	6.7	2.9	20	Vanadium	0.0	1.5
9	Molybdenum	6.5	8.9	21	Lead	0.0	0.6
10	Aluminum	5.0	10.6	22	Cadmium	0.0	0.5
11	Silver	1.7	2.3	23	Antimony	0.0	0.4
12	Chromium	1.1	2.2	24	Potassium	0.0	0.0



Interaction Between Cryptand 222 And Tetracyanoethylene In Di And Trichlorom Ethane Solutions

By Abolfazl Semnani, Ali Reza Firooz, Leila Kashefi Kheyraadi, Hamid
Shakoori Langeroodi & Safieh Heidarizadeh Rizi

University of Isfahan, Isfahan, I.R. Iran

Abstract - A spectrophotometric study concerning the interaction between cryptand 222 as n-donor and TCNE as π -acceptor has been performed in di and tri chloromethane solutions at temperatures 5, 10, 15, and 20°C. The results of continuous variation and mole ratio methods indicate the formation of 1:1 complexes in both solvents and at all temperatures. The stability constants and the molar absorption coefficients at different temperatures have been calculated from the computer fitting of absorbance- mole ratio data in MATLAB soft ware. The results indicate that K_f values in CHCl_3 are more than the corresponding amounts in CH_2Cl_2 . In the case of ϵ , the reverse trend is observed. The ΔH° and ΔS° values were obtained by Vant Hoff method. The obtained data show that the enthalpy of complex formation in two solvents is favorable. While entropy is favorable in the case of CHCl_3 and unfavorable in the case, of CH_2Cl_2 . The possible reasons for such observation are discussed. The kinetic results confirm an overall second order reaction which is first order with regard to each reactant. The formation of free ions is rejected by the conductometric measurements.

Keywords : Halomethanes, C222, TCNE, Spectro - photometry, Charge transfer, Thermo-dynamic, Kinetics.

GJSFR-B Classification: FOR Code: 030503



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Abolfazl Semnani^α, Ali Reza Firooz^σ, Leila Kashefi Kheyraabadi^σ, Hamid Shakoori Langeroodi^ρ
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Abstract - A spectrophotometric study concerning the interaction between cryptand 222 as n-donor and TCNE as π -acceptor has been performed in di and tri chloromethane solutions at temperatures 5, 10, 15, and 20°C. The results of continuous variation and mole ratio methods indicate the formation of 1:1 complexes in both solvents and at all temperatures. The stability constants and the molar absorption coefficients at different temperatures have been calculated from the computer fitting of absorbance- mole ratio data in MATLAB soft ware. The results indicate that Kf values in CHCl_3 are more than the corresponding amounts in CH_2Cl_2 . In the case of ϵ , the reverse trend is observed. The ΔH° and ΔS° values were obtained by Vant Hoff method. The obtained data show that the enthalpy of complex formation in two solvents is favorable. While entropy is favorable in the case of CHCl_3 and unfavorable in the case, of CH_2Cl_2 . The possible reasons for such observation are discussed. The kinetic results confirm an overall second order reaction which is first order with regard to each reactant. The formation of free ions is rejected by the conductometric measurements

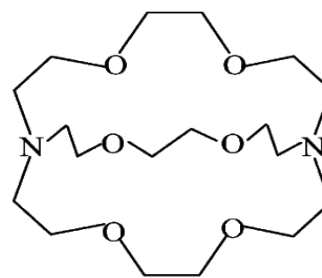
Keywords : Halomethanes, C222, TCNE, Spectro - photometry, Charge transfer, Thermodynamic, Kinetics.

I. INTRODUCTION

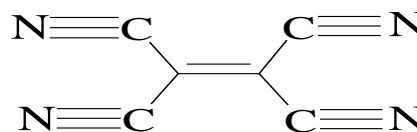
Since the first synthesis of crown ethers [1] and cryptands [2], there has been an intensive amount of research work on the thermodynamic and kinetics of complexation of these ligands with various cations in a wide variety of solvent systems [3]. Moreover, the molecular complexes of crowns and cryptands have been followed [4]. Interest in molecular complexes is strongly stimulated by their possible applications in different areas such as separation processes, biomimetic receptors, catalytic reactions and conversion of chemical energy to optical or electronic signals. In continue of our interest to molecular complexes of crowns and cryptands [5-10], here we report the results of complexation of cryptand 222 with TCNE in di and trichloromethane solutions.

Experimental : The macrocycle C222 and TCNE (both from Merck) were recrystallized from reagent grade n-

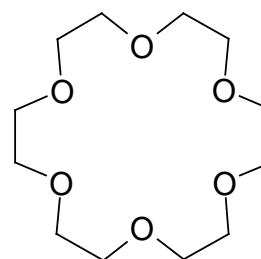
hexane and dried over P2O5. Reagent grades of di and trichloromethane (both from Merck) were used without any further purification.



Cryptand 222 (C222)



Tetracyanoethylene (TCNE)



18-Crown-6

All UV-Vis spectra and absorbance measurements were made with a UV-Vis-NIR spectrophotometer Cary 500 at different temperatures. Conductance measurements were carried out with a conductivity meter 180 from Orion research Company.

II. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Absorption spectra of 1.0×10^{-4} M solution of C222 in trichloromethane in the presence of varying concentrations of TCNE are shown in Fig. 1. Because of similarity, the corresponding spectra due to dichloromethane are not shown. Each spectrum was recorded 20 minutes after preparing the fresh solution. As it can be seen upon addition of C222 to the solution

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of TCNE, a new band is appeared in 350-450 nm region. As, none of the reactants, do not have any absorption in this spectral region. The new band can be attributed to the formation of charge transfer complex between C222 as n-donor and TCNE as π - acceptor [11].

In order to determine the effective site of complexation, the spectrum of 1:1 mixture of 18C6 (i.e. a compound without nitrogen atom) and TCNE was recorded. As, new band was not observed, it can be concluded that the oxygen atoms of C222 do not play an important role and the complexation mainly occur through nitrogen atoms.

The needed time for reaction completeness was determined by monitoring the absorbance of 1:1 mixture of 1.0×10^{-4} M solution of C222 and TCNE at 400 nm and at different temperatures (Fig. 2). As it can be seen, after 15 minutes, reaction will be terminated. Therefore, in the next experiments, absorbances were measures 20 minutes after mixing of reagents.

The stoichiometry of the complexes at different temperatures was obtained by the absorbance vs. mole ratio [12] and Job methods [13]. Sample plots are shown in Figs. 3 and 4, respectively. Both series of plots clearly confirm 1:1 stoichiometry. Moreover, in both cases upon temperature rising, the curvature of plots is decreased.

Based on spectral, mole ratio and Job evidences it can be concluded that through the reaction between C222 and TCNE, 1:1 charge transfer complex is formed.



For the evaluation of the formation constants from absorbance-mole ratio data, a none-linear least squares curve fitting program (curve fitting toolbox in MATLAB) was used [14,15]. The program is based on the iteration adjustment of calculated absorbances to the observed values.

The observed absorbance of complex at its λ_{max} is given by equation (2). The mass balance equations can be written as (3) and (4), and the formation constant of the complex as in (5). Substitution of (3) and (4) in (5) and rearrangement yield (6).

$$\text{Abs.} = \epsilon b[\text{DA}] \quad (2)$$

$$C_D = [\text{D}] + [\text{DA}] \quad (3)$$

$$C_A = [\text{A}] + [\text{DA}] \quad (4)$$

$$K_f = [\text{DA}]/[\text{D}][\text{A}] \quad (5)$$

$$K_f [\text{DA}]^2 - (C_A K_f + C_D K_f + 1) [\text{DA}] + K_f C_D C_A = 0 \quad (6)$$

With use an approximation value for K_f , the free DA concentration, $[\text{DA}]$, were calculated by solution of second order equation. Then, with using from data of DA concentration as x data and data of observed absorbance as y data, the least squares fit technique is used for fitting the data. The output of this fitting is the coefficient of line fit. The coefficient of x values is ϵ (molar absorption coefficient). The obtained coefficient were used for calculation of data of absorbance with using of parabolic fit. To find the least squares error, the sum of squares of differences between the parabolic fit and the actually data must be evaluated. Refinement of parameters (K_f value) was continued until the sum of squares of the residuals between calculated and observed values of the absorbance for all experimental points was minimized.

Sample curve fittings are shown in Fig. 5. The good agreement between the experimental and calculated data confirm the accuracy of the results. The final $\log K_f$ and ϵ values obtained by MATLAB are given in Table 1. The data indicate that at all temperatures $\log K_f$ values due to trichloromethane are higher than the corresponding values in dichloromethane. In the case of ϵ , the reverse trend is observed. Greater $\log K_f$ in trichloromethane means that in this media, the contribution of solvent in entropy, enthalpy or both of them is more favorable than dichloromethane. On the other hand, despite both TCNE and C222 are nonpolar. Their resulting complex is polar and will show dipole-dipole interactions with polar species. Clearly, such interactions will be higher with more polar species. So, it is anticipated that dichloromethane with dipole moment of 1.5 [16], do have more solute-solvent interactions (with polar charge transfer complex) than that of trichloromethane with dipole moment of 1.15 [16]. Greater dipole-dipole interactions cause that in CH_2Cl_2 orientation of complex particles to be more than of CHCl_3 . This results in higher absorption cross section [17]. The net effect is the enhancement of ϵ . Therefore, the observation of higher ϵ in CH_2Cl_2 is not unexpected.

The thermodynamic parameters were obtained by the plot of $\log K_f$ vs. $1/T$ (sample plot is shown in Fig. 6) [18]. The obtained values for ΔH° are -26.3 kJ/mol and -25.4 kJ/mol in di and trichloromethane, respectively. Also, the ΔS° values were obtained as -16.3 J/mol. $^\circ\text{K}$ in dichloromethane and +25.13 J/mol. $^\circ\text{K}$ in trichloromethane.

It is well known that the final stability of complex depends on the sum of entropy and enthalpy changes through the complexation process [18]. On the other hand, the solvation, affects both ΔS° and ΔH° values. The effect on ΔS° , relates to positive entropy changes due to desolvation of reactants and negative entropy changes due to solvation of complex. The effect on

ΔH° , relates to enthalpy changes during desolvation of reactants and solvation of complex.

The enhanced enthalpy changes in both solvents indicate that the amount of realized energy through complex formation and complex solvation is higher than consumed energy for desolvation of reactants. In addition, positive ΔS° in dichloromethane indicates that absolute entropy increase through desolvation of reactants is more than absolute entropy decrease through complex formation and complex solvation. Negative ΔS° in trichloromethane proves that entropy changes through desolvation of reactants or solvation of complex in recent solvent differs from corresponding values of dichloromethane.

The existence of nitrogen atoms on C222 and TCNE beside the location of three electron-withdrawing groups on carbon atom of trichloromethane, enhances the hydrogen bond formation between solvent and reactants. These bonds are broken through complex formation and some solvent molecules are realized in solvent. The net result is the positive ΔS° . In the case of dichloromethane, the hydrogen bonds are considerably weaker. So, positive effect (through solvent realization) on overall ΔS° is considerably less than trichloromethane, which causes the observation of overall negative ΔS° in this solvent.

With the aim of determination of reaction order relative to each of reactants, the absorbance of the various solutions with different TCNE/C222 mole ratios were measured. The measurements were made two minutes after mixing the reactants. Sample data due to trichloromethane are given in Tables 2 and 3, respectively. As it can be seen, at all temperatures and in both cases, the variation of absorbance is proportional to the variation of TCNE/C222 mole ratio or vice versa. Similar trend was observed in dichloromethane. Based on the recent data it can be concluded that in both solvents a second order reaction in which the order of TCNE and C222 are 1 is followed.

The conductances as a function of C222/TCNE or TCNE/C222 in both solvents were measured. Considerable change was not observed. So it can be concluded that the adducts of TCNE and C222 in both solvents are nonionic.

III. CONCLUSIONS

Based on the obtained results it can be concluded that:

1. In both solvents 1:1 complexes are formed.
2. The stability of complexes in CHCl_3 are higher than CH_2Cl_2 .
3. The ϵ of complexes in CH_2Cl_2 are greater than CHCl_3 .
4. In both solvents, the ΔH° of complex formation are negative.

5. Because of hydrogen bonding between the solvent and reactants, the ΔS° CHCl_3 is positive.
6. At all temperatures, the reaction order relative to both of reactants is 1:1
7. The resulting adducts are nonionic.

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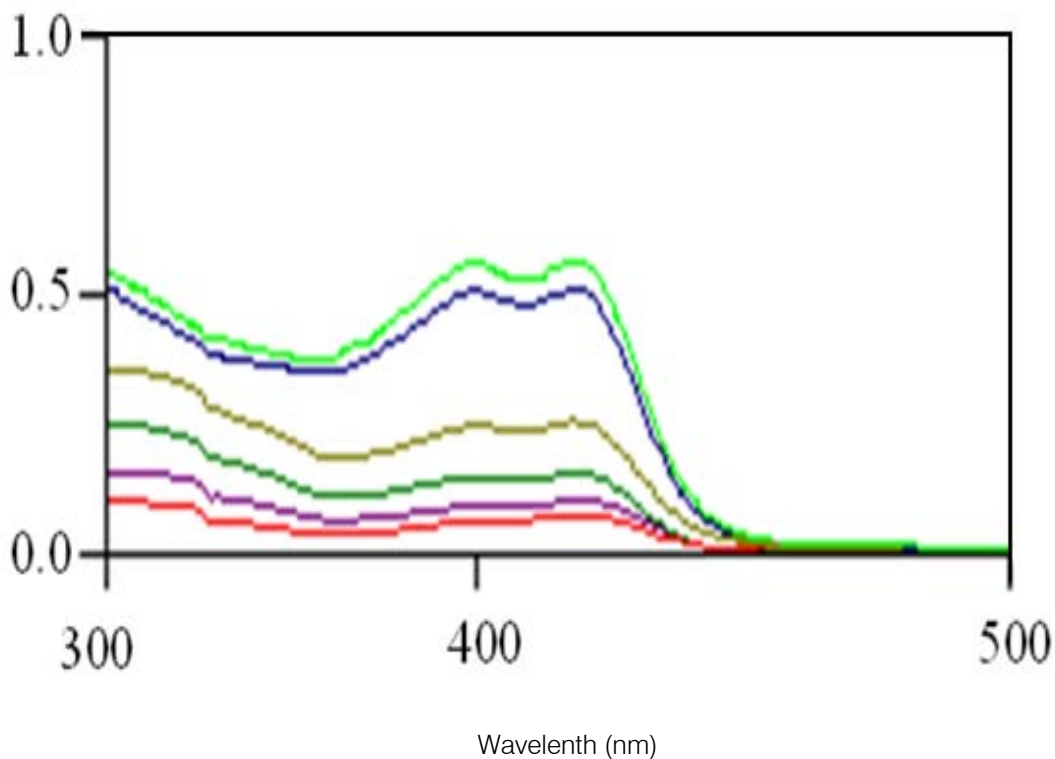


Fig. 1 : Absorption spectra of 1.0×10^{-4} M C222 in the presence of varying concentration of TCNE at 20 OC. The ratio of TCNE to C222 from bottom to top are: 0.15, 0.25, 0.50, 1.00, 1.50, 2.5.

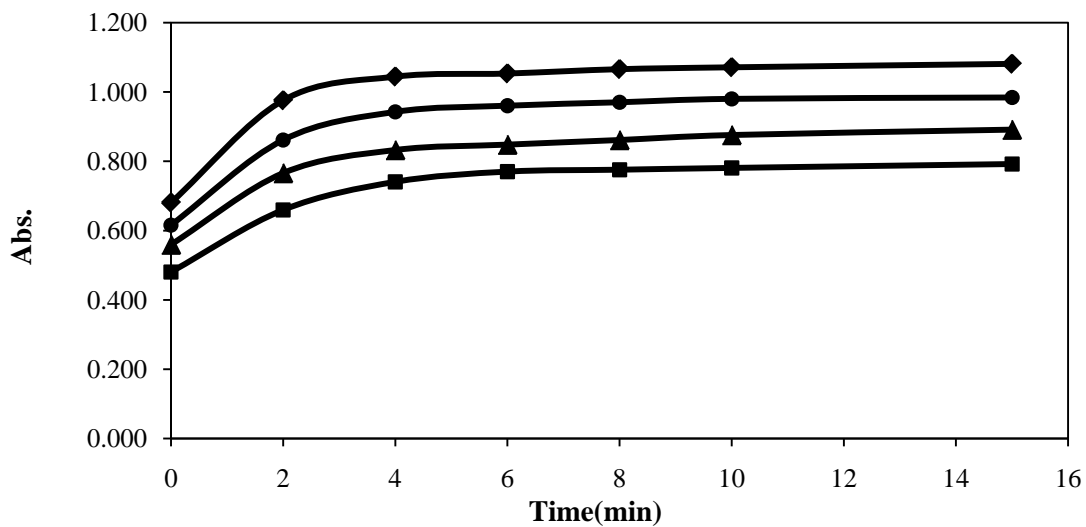


Fig. 2 : Plots of absorbance vs. time for 1.0×10^{-4} M C222 in trichloromethane in different temperatures. From bottom to top: 5, 10, 15, and 20°C.

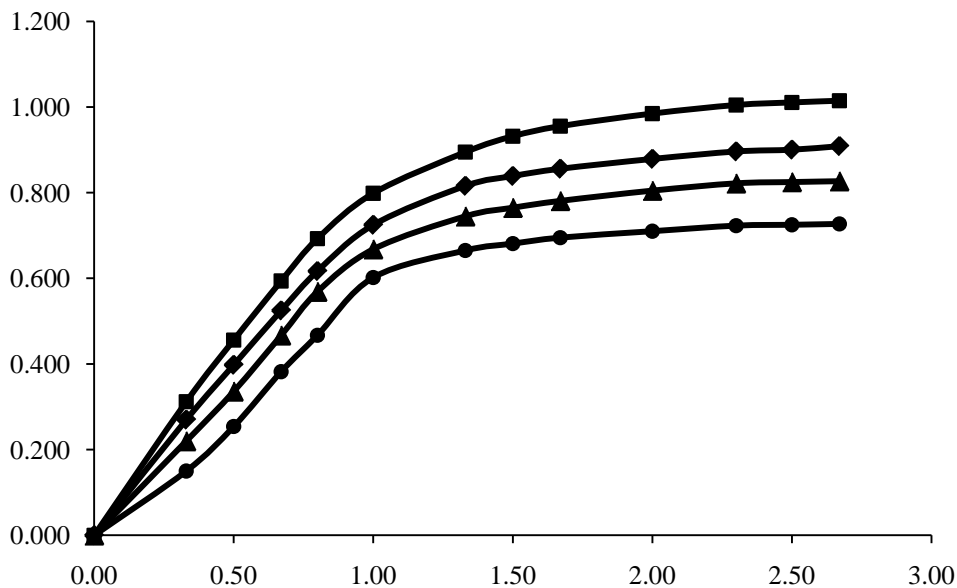


Fig.3 : Absorbance vs. mole ratio plots for 2.0×10^{-4} M C222 in dichloromethane solution at different temperatures. (■) 5 0C, (▲) 10 0C, (●) 150C and (◆) 20 0C.

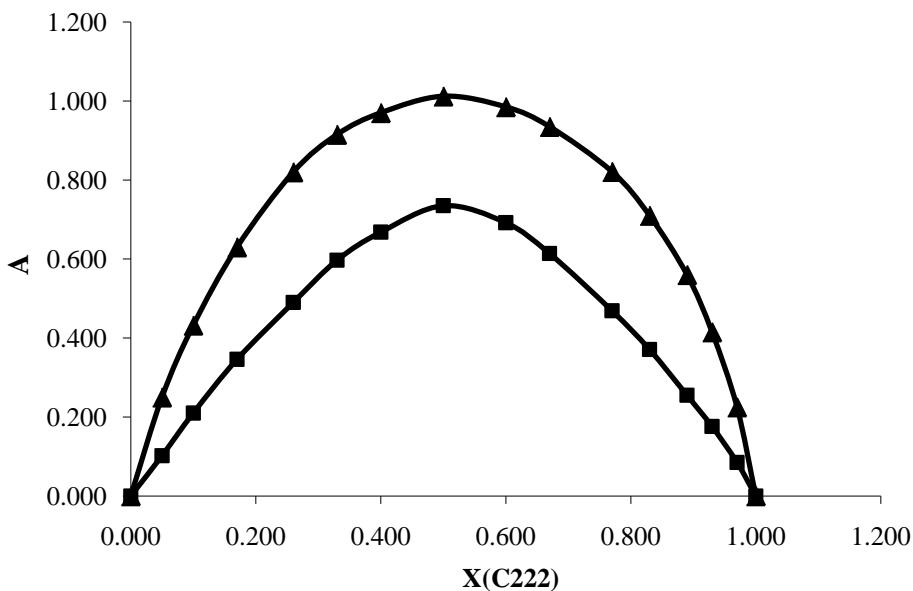


Fig.4 : Job plots at different temperatures in dichloromethane. The concentration of stock solutions and the final volume of each solution are 2.5×10^{-4} M and 3ml, respectively. (■) 5 0C, and (●) 20 0C.

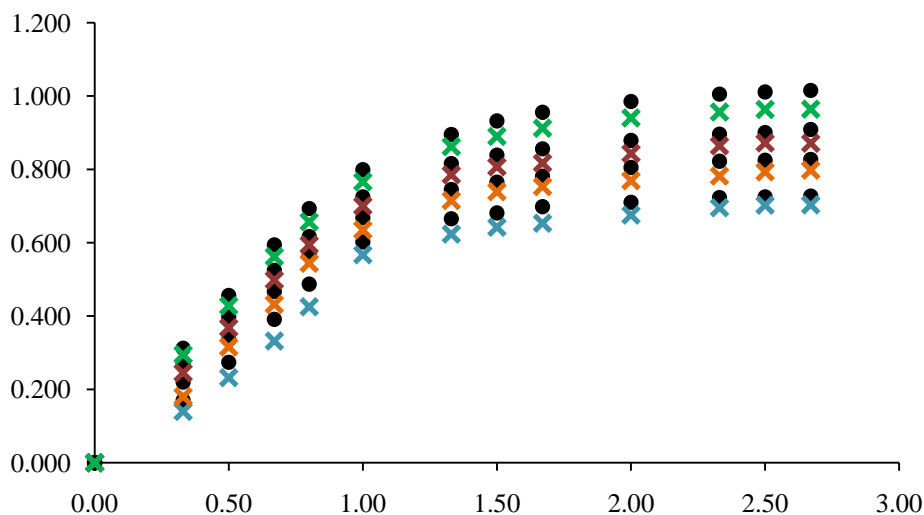


Fig.5 : Computer fitting of absorbance vs. mole ratio data in dichloromethane at different temperatures; (●) experimental points and (×) calculated points.

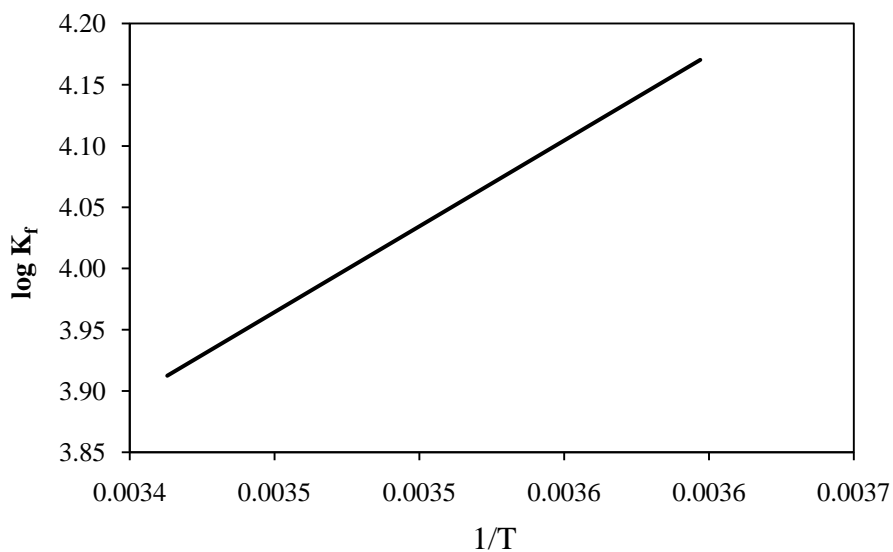


Fig.6 : The plot of $\log K_f$ vs. $1/T$ in dichloromethane solution.

Table 1 : Final $\log K_f$ and ϵ values at different temperatures in CH_2Cl_2 and CHCl_3

T	278	283	288	293
Log K_f in CH_2Cl_2	4.17±0.02	4.08±0.02	4.01±0.01	3.91±0.01
Log K_f in CHCl_3	6.08±0.04	5.99±0.01	5.91±0.02	5.84±0.01
ϵ in CH_2Cl_2	7947±238	8549±256	9088±273	1186±336
ϵ in CHCl_3	3552±107	3927±117	4576±138	4912±147

Table 2 : Data due to determination of reaction order relative to TCNE in trichloromethane solution

TCNE/C222	Absorbance at 5 °c	Absorbance at 10 °c	Absorbance at 15 °c	Absorbance at 20 °c
0.33	0.095	0.143	0.211	0.287
0.67	0.191	0.228	0.422	0.577
1.00	0.290	0.432	0.639	0.867
1.33	0.383	0.575	0.850	1.142

Table 3 : Data due to determination of reaction order relative to C222 in trichloromethane solution

C222/TCNE	Absorbance at 5 °c	Absorbance at 10 °c	Absorbance at 15 °c	Absorbance at 20 °c
0.33	0.098	0.151	0.211	0.295
0.67	0.195	0.302	0.442	0.640
1.00	0.293	0.461	0.668	0.878
1.33	0.391	0.611	0.892	1.181

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Synthesis of Biologically Important Pyrrole Derivatives in Any ^{13}C and ^{15}N Isotope Enriched Form

By Prativa B. S. Dawadi & Johan Lugtenburg

Leiden University, Leiden

Abstract - Recently the synthesis of [$3\text{-}^{13}\text{C}$]-, [$4\text{-}^{13}\text{C}$]-, and [$11\text{-}^{13}\text{C}$]- porphobilinogen, [$^{15}\text{N},^{13}\text{C4}$]-1H - pyrrole-2,3,5 - tricar - boxylic acid, [$1\text{-}^{15}\text{N}$]-3-cyano-4-methyl-1H-pyrrole and [$2\text{-}^{13}\text{C}$]- and [$3\text{-}^{13}\text{C}$]-cyano-4-methyl-3-pyrrolin-2-one have been published. Incorporation of ^{13}C and ^{15}N in these systems at any position and combination of positions has become accessible. Also mild alkylations of active methylene compounds with α -halo carbonyl compounds open up many 3-pyrrolin-2- ones and pyrrole systems based on stable isotope building blocks that have been published. This gives the access to a whole new library of stable isotope enriched pyrroles in any stable isotope enriched form. This is also the case for biliverdin **IX α** which after enzymatic treatment has been converted into (**2R**)-phytychromobilin that reacts with its apoprotein to form intact active phytyochrome.

Keywords : [$1\text{-}^{15}\text{N}$]-3-Cyano-4-methyl-1H-pyrrole, [$3\text{-}^{13}\text{C}$], [$4\text{-}^{13}\text{C}$]-, and [$11\text{-}^{13}\text{C}$]-porphobilinogen, [$^{15}\text{N},^{13}\text{C4}$]-1H-pyrrole-2,3,5-tricarboxylic acid and biliverdin **IX α** .

GJSFR-B Classification: FOR Code: 030503, 040203,



Strictly as per the compliance and regulations of:



Synthesis of Biologically Important Pyrrole Derivatives in Any ^{13}C and ^{15}N Isotope Enriched Form

Prativa B. S. Dawadi^α & Johan Lugtenburg^σ

Abstract - Recently the synthesis of [3- ^{13}C]-, [4- ^{13}C]-, and [11- ^{13}C]-porphobilinogen, [^{15}N , $^{13}\text{C}_4$]-1H-pyrrole-2,3,5-tricarboxylic acid, [1- ^{15}N]-3-cyano-4-methyl-1H-pyrrole and [2- ^{13}C]- and [3- ^{13}C]-cyano-4-methyl-3-pyrrolin-2-one have been published. Incorporation of ^{13}C and ^{15}N in these systems at any position and combination of positions has become accessible.

Also mild alkylations of active methylene compounds with α -halo carbonyl compounds open up many 3-pyrrolin-2-ones and pyrrole systems based on stable isotope building blocks that have been published. This gives the access to a whole new library of stable isotope enriched pyrroles in any stable isotope enriched form. This is also the case for biliverdin IX α which after enzymatic treatment has been converted into (2R)-phytychromobilin that reacts with its apoprotein to form intact active phytyochrome.

Keywords : [1- ^{15}N]-3-Cyano-4-methyl-1H-pyrrole, [3- ^{13}C], [4- ^{13}C]-, and [11- ^{13}C]-porphobilinogen, [^{15}N , $^{13}\text{C}_4$]-1H-pyrrole-2,3,5-tricarboxylic acid and biliverdin IX α .

I. INTRODUCTION

Pyrroles and their derivatives are one of the most important classes of heterocyclic compounds.¹ They exhibit extensive biological and pharmacological properties.² Many pyrrole derivatives have shown interesting biological properties such as antibacterial³, antiinflammatory⁴, antioxidant⁵, antitumor, antifungal⁶ and immune suppressant activities.⁷ Highly functionalized pyrroles are subunits of heme, chlorophyll, bile pigments, vitamin B12 and pyrrole alkaloids isolated from marine source.⁸ Atrovastatin (Lipitor) is a drug for lowering cholesterol.⁹

Access to stable isotope enriched systems (^2H , ^{13}C and ^{15}N) allows the metabolic conversions of these systems to be followed with mass spectroscopic techniques when they have at least three stable isotopes.¹⁰ ^{13}C -NMR Techniques have been used to study the conversion of [5- ^{13}C]-aminolevulinic acid into porphobilinogen in vivo in living *Rhodobacter sphaeroides* cells.¹¹

Similarly, the conversion of [2- ^{13}C]- and [11- ^{13}C]-porphobilinogen in the body into uroporphyrinogen III and coproporphyrinogen III has been investigated.¹² Very recently the ^{13}C photo-CIDNAP MAS NMR spectra

of membrane fractions of *Heliobacillus mobilis* that was grown on media containing [4- ^{13}C]-aminolevulinic acid have been obtained.¹³

Besides NMR spectroscopy, vibrational techniques such as resonance raman spectroscopy have been applied in heme protein research.¹⁴ In this case some of the vibrations coupled to an electronic transition of the chromophore showed enhanced inelastic scattering up to 10^6 fold.

Access to pyrroles enriched on each position and any combination of positions with stable isotopes such as ^2H , ^{13}C and ^{15}N is essential to study the metabolism of important pyrrole derivatives using non-invasive isotope sensitive techniques. The chromophores of heme proteins and photosynthetic reaction centres have been prepared with stable isotope enriched pyrrole building blocks.

Recently, we have published a review paper about the stable isotope enriched systems in heme and (bacterio)chlorophyll protein systems that were known at that time.¹⁵ In the meantime a number of important stable isotope enriched pyrrole systems have been published together with a new method to prepare pyrroles and stable isotope enriched building blocks that allow access to a whole new range of stable isotope enriched pyrroles.

In this paper we focus on those new possibilities that allow access to biliverdin IX α which can be converted into (2R)-phytychromobilin, the chromophore of phytyochrome via one enzymatic conversion.¹⁶ We mainly focus on ^{13}C and ^{15}N enriched building blocks leading to the labels at all atoms in the molecular skeleton of the pyrroles and tetrapyrrole systems. We have not focused on ^2H systems because ^2H occupies the peripheral positions on the molecular system and is more prone to isotope loss and scrambling during the synthetic process. However, the schemes for ^{13}C incorporation can easily be adjusted to ^2H incorporation as well.

II. SYNTHESIS AND DISCUSSION

a) *Synthesis Of [3- ^{13}C]-, [4- ^{13}C]- And [11- ^{13}C]-Porphobilinogen 1.*

Enzymatic incorporation of [11- ^{13}C]- and [2,11- $^{13}\text{C}_2$]-porphobilinogen 1 (fig. 1) into uroporphyrinogen I and III has been reported.^{17,18}

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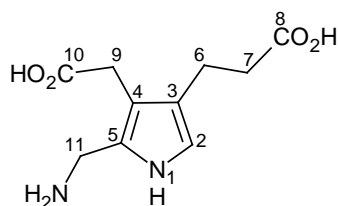
**1****1a: [4-¹³C]****1b: [3-¹³C]****1c: [11-¹³C]**

Figure 1: Structure and numbering of porphobilinogen 1 and its highly enriched isotopomers 1a, 1b and 1c.

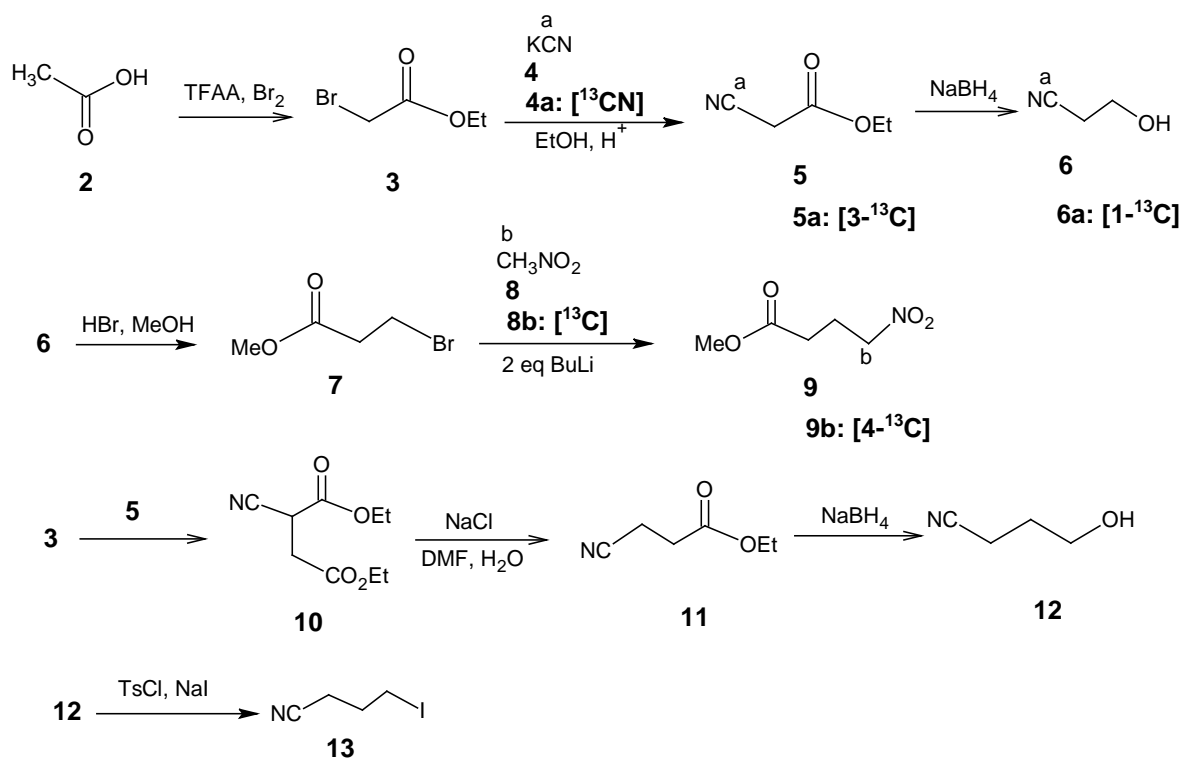
Porphobilinogen 1 is a biosynthetic precursor of tetrapyrrole chromophores in heme proteins, photosynthetic antennae proteins, photosynthetic reaction centres and phytochromes. The synthetic access to ¹³C and ¹⁵N enriched porphobilinogen will allow access to enrich stable isotopes in the above mentioned systems at any possible position. With ¹³C and ¹⁵N isotope incorporation in the chromophores of these biologically important proteins can be investigated with noninvasive isotope sensitive techniques.

In figure 1 the structure and numbering of porphobilinogen 1 is depicted. The synthesis of [3-¹³C]-, [4-¹³C]- and [11-¹³C]-porphobilinogen 1a, 1b and 1c via

a scheme that allows access to any stable isotopomer and isotopologue has been reported.¹⁹

Acetic acid 2 is treated with 1 eq of bromine in the presence of trifluoroacetic anhydride to afford a high yield of the 2-bromoacetic acid which is esterified with ethanol into ethyl bromoacetate 3. The bromine is easily substituted for the cyano group with KCN 4 to give ethyl cyanoacetate 5. The ester function is reduced with NaBH₄ to give an alcohol function in 3-hydroxypropionitrile 6. Treatment of 6 with aqueous HBr and subsequent esterification afforded methyl 3-bromopropionate 7 in high yield. The S_N2 reaction of reagent 7 with nitromethane 8 in the presence of 2 eq BuLi to obtain methyl 4-nitrobutanoate 9 is somewhat difficult.

An alternative method to obtain the product 9 is to treat reagents 3 and 5 in the presence of NaOEt to afford diethyl 2-cyanopentanedioate 10.²⁰ Selective removal of one of the ester functions in NaCl, DMSO, H₂O gave ethyl 3-cyanopropionate 11. Subsequent reduction of the ester function with NaBH₄ afforded 4-hydroxybutyronitrile 12 which is further converted into 4-iodobutyronitrile 13. S_N2 substitution of the iodo function with NaNO₂ and subsequent conversion of the nitrile function into ethyl carboxylate is expected to give ethyl 4-nitrobutanoate 9 without problem. In porphobilinogen 1 (fig. 1) the carbon atoms 3, 6, 7 and 8 are derived from the compound 9 and carbon atoms 4, 9 and 10 are derived from 3-hydroxypropionitrile 6.

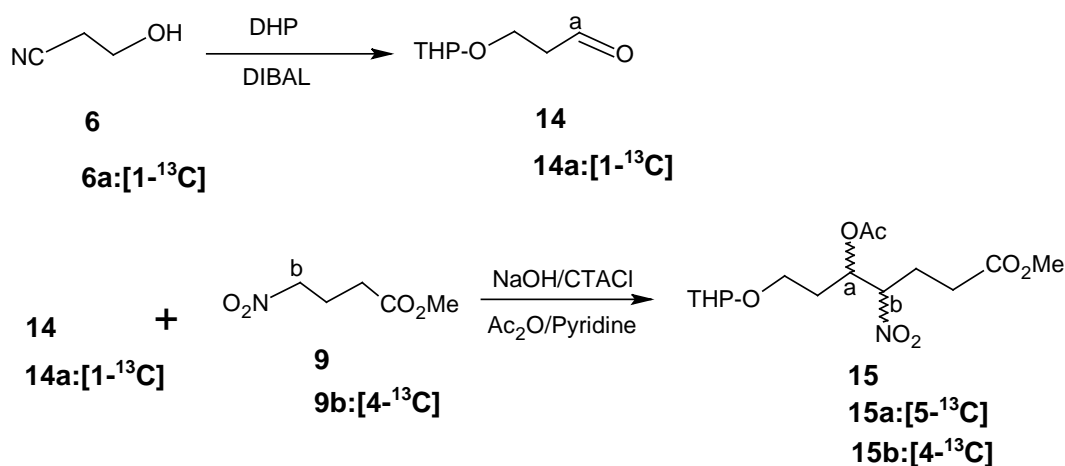


Scheme 1. The synthesis of ethyl [4-¹³C]-4-nitrobutyrate 9b. The starting compound acetic acid 2 is commercially available in the [1-¹³C]-, [2-¹³C]- and [1, 2-¹³C₂] isotopomeric forms.

3-Hydroxypropionitrile **6** is first protected with dihydropyran via acid catalyzed reaction to afford 3-(tetrahydropyran-2'-yloxy)-propionitrile (scheme 2).¹⁹ DIBAL-H reduction of the nitrile afforded the required 3-hydroxypropanal derivative **14**. Henry reaction between the nitro ester **9** and the aldehyde **14** in the presence of a phase transition catalyst and acetylation afforded the nitro derivative **15**.

Isocyanoacetone **20** is the building block that provides carbon atoms 2, 5 and 11 and two nitrogen atoms of porphobilinogen **1**. It is shown that in scheme 3 a Strecker reaction of KCN **4**, formaldehyde **16** and NH₄Cl **17** leads to 2-aminoacetone **18**. This molecule reacted with formic acid **19** in acetic anhydride to give the formyl derivative of 2-aminoacetone that upon treatment with POCl₃ and triethylamine afforded 2-

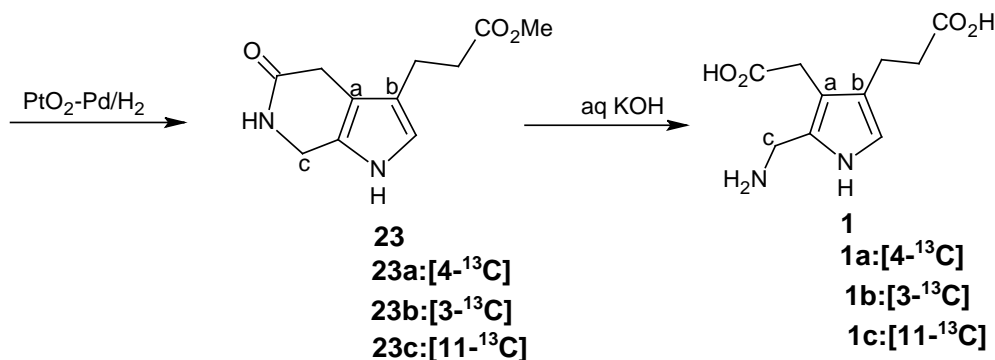
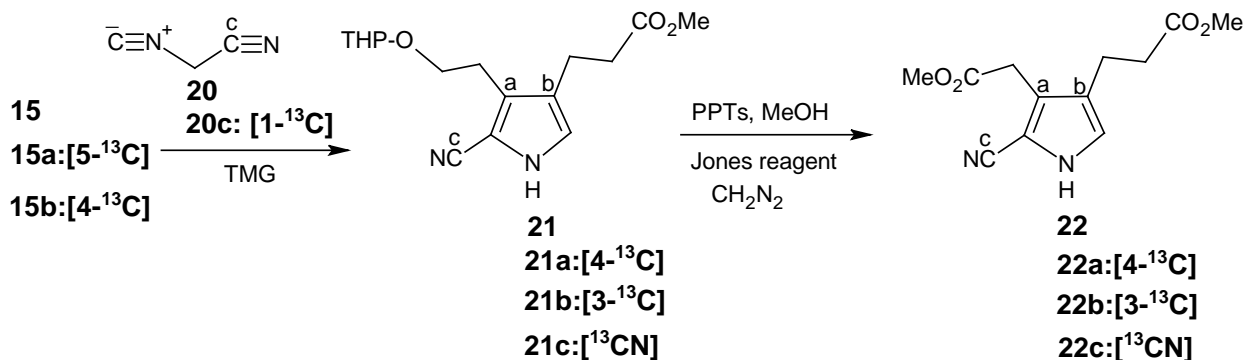
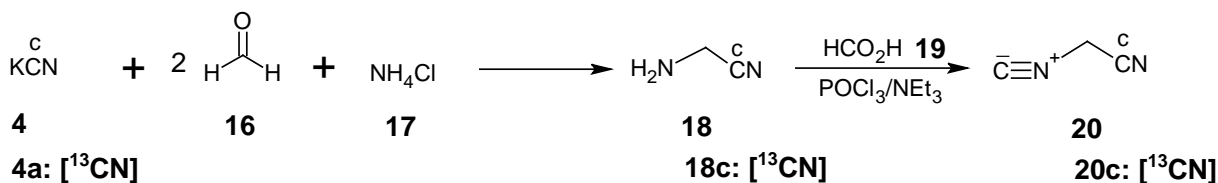
isocyanoacetone **20**. The base (tetramethylguanidine) induced the reaction between compounds **15** and **20** to give 5-cyano-3-(methoxycarbonyl-ethyl)-4-(tetrahydropyran-2'-yl-ethyl)-pyrrole **21**. The tetrahydropyran protective group is removed by acid to obtain the primary alcohol. The alcohol function is converted into the carboxylic acid by Jones oxidation and this acid is subsequently converted into the methyl ester **22**. The nitrile and methyl ester functions are catalytically reduced to give an amide function in product **23**. Base treatment converted the ester and amide functions into carboxylic acid and a methylene amine function in porphobilinogen **1**. The conversion of products **15** and **20** into the pyrrole **21** is a so-called Barton-Zard reaction.²¹



Scheme 2. 3-Hydroxypropionitrile **6** is converted into methyl 5-acetoxy-4-nitro-7-(tetrahydropyran-2'-yloxy)-heptanoate **15**, **15a** and **15b**.

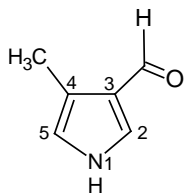
The synthetic routes shown in schemes 1-3 have been developed for the synthesis of [3-¹³C]-, [4-¹³C]- and [11-¹³C]-porphobilinogen **1**. It is clear that based on commercially available ¹³C and ¹⁵N isotope enriched starting materials any carbon and nitrogen with stable isotope enrichment are accessible in porphobilinogen **1**. Schemes 1 and 3 can be modified in such a way that a whole series of vicinal acetoxy and nitro derivatives can be made in the required stable isotope enriched form.

Tertiary butyl isocyanoacetate has been used to prepare pyrroles with methyl carboxylate groups on the 2-position.²² This building block is accessible in any stable isotope enriched form via reactions analogous to those described in scheme 3. Tosylmethyl isocyanide in all possible stable isotopically labelled forms has been used to prepare pyrroles and other heterocyclic systems via building blocks that can be easily prepared in stable isotope enriched form.²³



Scheme 3. Preparation of 2-aminoacetonitrile 18 and its conversion into isocyanoacetonitrile 20. Synthesis of [4-¹³C]-porphobilinogen 1a, [3-¹³C]-porphobilinogen 1b and [11-¹³C]-porphobilinogen 1c via base catalyzed condensation of methyl 5-acetoxy-4-nitro-7-(tetrahydropyran-2'-yloxy)-heptanoate 15 and isocyanoacetonitrile 20.

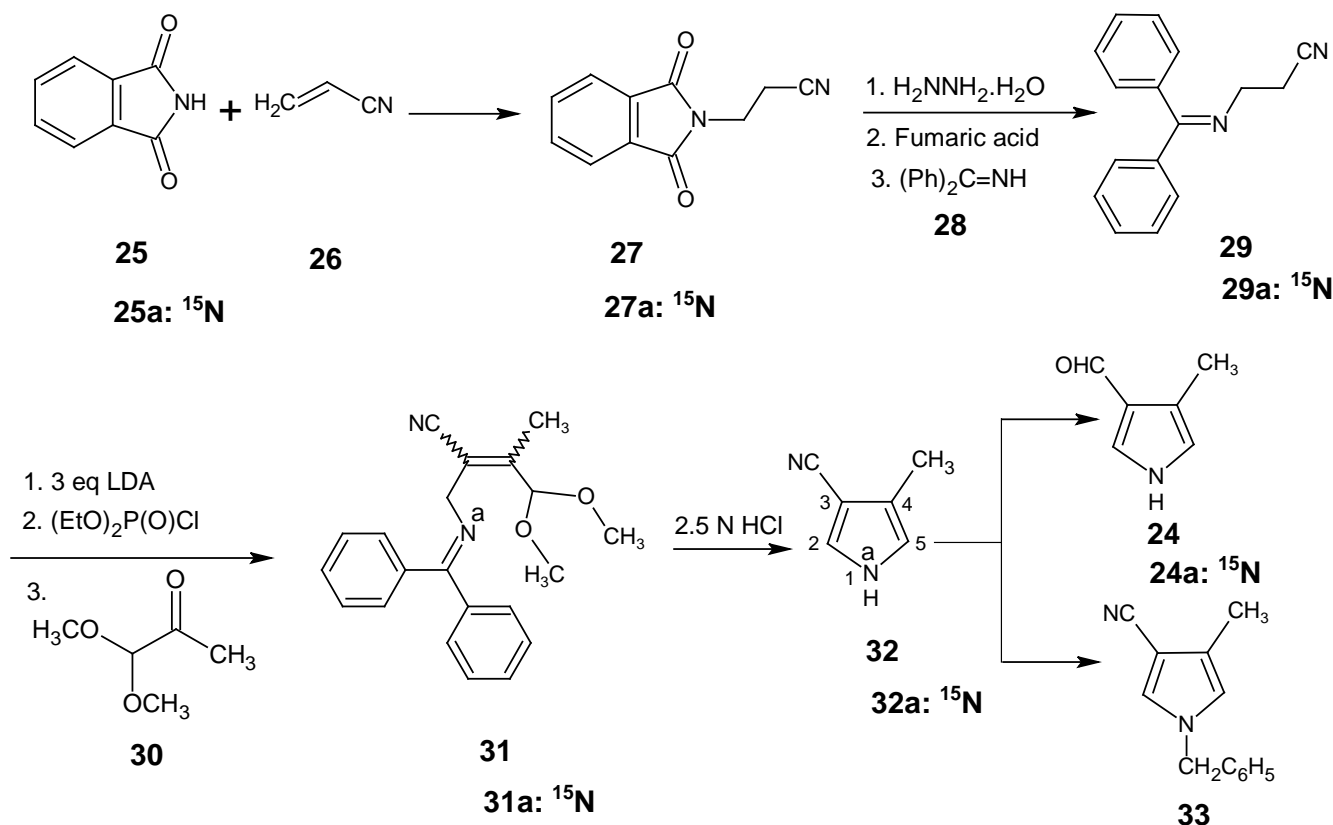
b) Synthesis Of [1-¹⁵N]-Formyl-4-Methyl-1H-Pyrrole 24a



24
24a: [1-¹⁵N]

Figure 2. Structure and numbering of [1-¹⁵N]-3-formyl-4-methyl-1H-pyrrole 24a.

This pyrrole is a building block for the biologically important tetrapyrrole systems. In Scheme 4 it is indicated that phthalimide 25 treated with acrylonitrile 26 to form β-phthalimidopropionitrile 27. ¹⁵N-Phthalimide 25a is commercially available. All possible isotopologues of acrylonitrile are accessible via isotopically enriched 3-hydroxypropionitrile 6 (scheme 1).²⁴



Scheme 4. Reactions to prepare [1-¹⁵N]-3-formyl-4-methyl-1H-pyrrole 24a starting from [1⁵N]-phthalimide 25a and acrylonitrile 26.

The product 3-[(diphenylmethylene) amino] propionitrile 29 is prepared by first treating β-phthalimidopropionitrile 27 with hydrazine hydrate, then treating the mixture with fumaric acid to obtain the fumaric acid salt of 3-aminopropionitrile followed by reaction with benzophenone imine 28. Product 29 is treated with 3 eq LDA at low temperature and subsequently diethyl chlorophosphate is added followed by 1,1-dimethoxyacetone 30. After the Wittig-Horner reaction compound 31 is isolated as a mixture of E- and Z-forms. In a solution of 2.5 N HCl the acetal and the nitrogen protection groups are removed and the free amino group and aldehyde group reacted to give a high yield of 3-cyano-4-methyl-1H-pyrrole 32. DIBAL-H reduction of the nitrile function in the product 32 afforded 3-formyl-4-methyl-1H-pyrrole 24. Repeating this reaction with commercially available [¹⁵N]-phthalimide 25a afforded [1-¹⁵N]-3-formyl-4-methyl-1H-pyrrole 24a.

As expected the NH group in the product 32 can be easily alkylated under basic condition. In this case benzyl bromide has been used to obtain N-benzyl-3-cyano-4-methylpyrrole 33 in high yield.

1,1-Dimethoxyacetone 30 or its homologous in any isotope enriched form is easily accessible via a Pummerer reaction of 1-phenyl sulfoxyl acetone.²⁵ Also many homologous of acrylonitrile are easily accessible. This means synthetic routes shown in scheme 4 will give access to many isotopically labelled pyrroles directly via subsequent functional group transformations.

c) *Synthesis Of [1-¹⁵N, 2, 2', 3, 3'-¹³C₄]-Pyrrole-2,3,5-Tricarboxylic Acid 34a.*

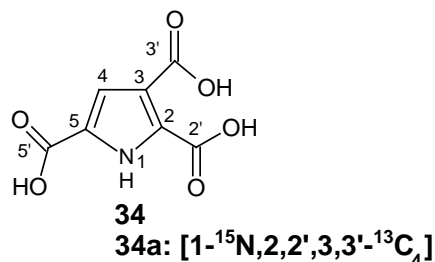
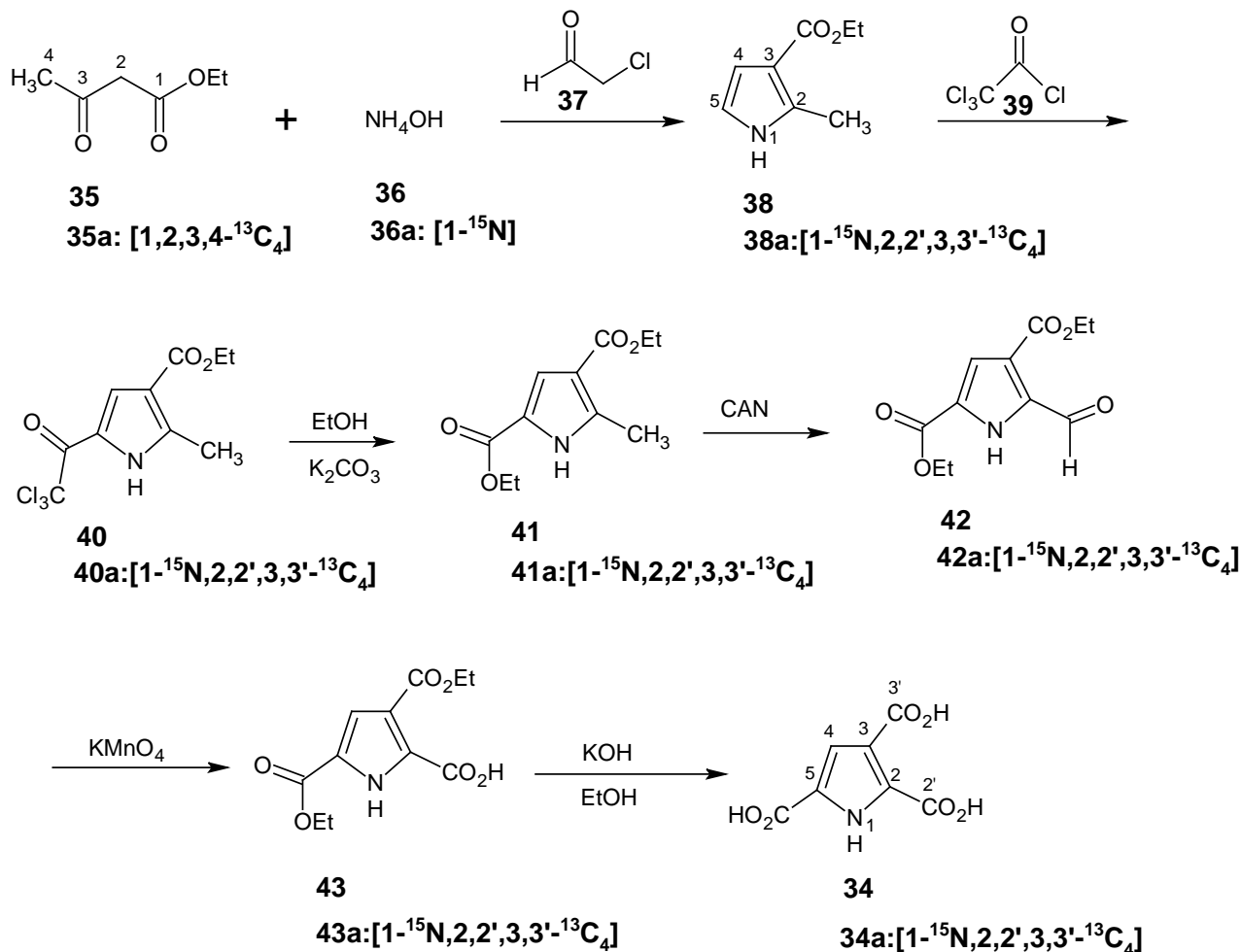


Figure 3. Structure and numbering of [1-¹⁵N, 2, 2', 3, 3'-¹³C₄]-pyrrole-2,3,5-tricarboxylic acid 34a.

The synthesis of the product 34a has been reported.¹⁰ Commercially available [¹³C₄]-ethyl acetoacetate 35a is treated with commercially available [¹⁵N]-ammonia in water in the presence of 2-chloroacetaldehyde 37. [1-¹⁵N, 2, 2', 3, 3'-¹³C₄]-2-Methyl-3-carbethoxypyrrole 38a is obtained via Hantzsch pyrrole synthesis in 35% yield which is in competition with a Feist-Benary reaction leading after HCl treatment to [2,2',3,3'-¹³C₄]-2-methyl-3-carbethoxyfuran. In the Hantzsch pyrrole synthesis the enamine of the 3-keto carboxylate attacks the aldehyde function of the 2-chloro keto molecule. After ring closure and dehydration the pyrrole system is obtained. In the Feist-Benary reaction the initial reaction is the attack of the anion of the active methylene derivative on the aldehyde function of chloroacetaldehyde and subsequent ring closure.²⁵

Product 38a is treated with trichloroacetyl chloride 39 to give a quantitative yield of trichloromethyl keto compound 2-methyl-3-carbomethoxy pyrrole 40a. Treatment with ethanol in the presence of potassium carbonate afforded the diester 41a, upon cerium ammonium nitrate oxidation the 2-methyl group is converted into an aldehyde function (compound 42a).

Treatment with potassium permanganate oxidized the aldehyde function into a carboxylic acid function 43a. A final base induced saponification afforded [1-¹⁵N, 2,2',3,3'-¹³C₄]-pyrrole-2,3,5-tricarboxylic acid 34a.



Scheme 5. Synthesis of [1-¹⁵N, 2,2',3,3'-¹³C₄]-pyrrole-2,3,5-tricarboxylic acid 34a.

Pyrrroles 38a, 40a, 41a, 42a and 43a in scheme 5 have isotope incorporation in ¹⁵N on position 1 and ¹³C₄ incorporation on positions 2, 2', 3 and 3'. Via scheme 5 many pyrrole systems can be enriched besides the positions 2, 2', 3 and 3'.

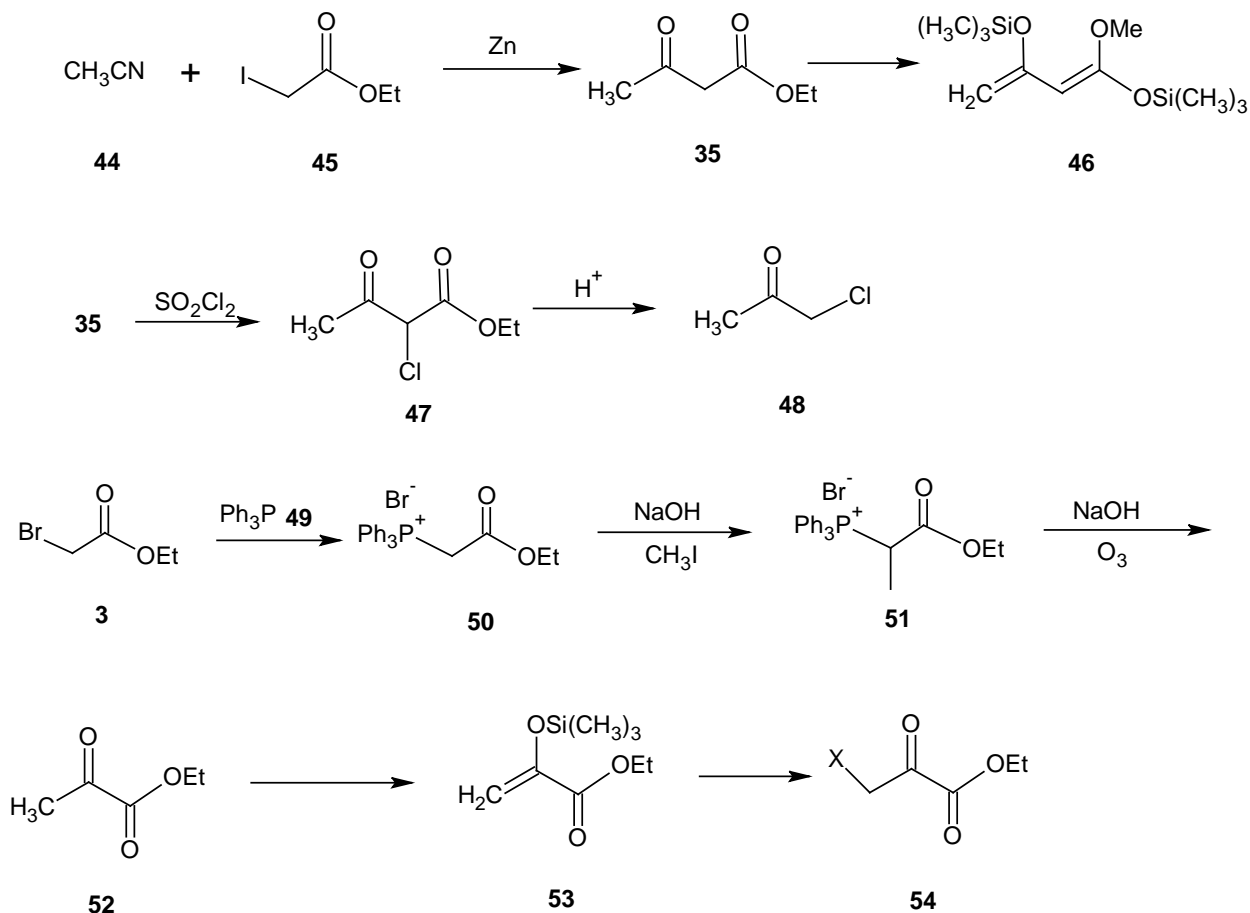
α -Halogenated aldehydes such as 2-chloroacetaldehydes are accessible. Aldehydes that can be easily obtained from stable isotope enriched nitrile esters and alcohol etc.²⁷

A general method to prepare the corresponding α -chloroderivatives has been reported.²⁸ Many α -amino acids are commercially available in stable isotope enriched form. Recently, an efficient method to convert them into 2-chloroaldehydes has been reported.²⁹

Trichloroacetic acid is commercially available in ¹³C-enriched form; it can be easily converted into the corresponding chloride.³⁰

The Blaise reaction of acetonitrile 44 with zinc enolate of ethyl iodoacetate 45 has been reported.³¹ Acetonitrile 44 is commercially available in all possible isotopomers. Zinc derivative of 45 is accessible via ethyl 2-bromoacetate 3 (scheme 1). Many other nitriles and α -bromoesters are accessible in all possible stable

isotope enriched forms. Trimethyl silylation of 35 gives the bis(trimethylsilyloxy)butadiene derivatives 46. Treatment with 1 mol of bromine afforded methyl 4-bromo-3-ketobutyrate.³² This means that besides ethyl acetoacetate 35 many 3-ketoesters are accessible.



Scheme 6. Preparation of ethyl acetoacetate 35 and ethyl 2-chloro-3-oxobutyrate 47 in any isotopomeric form using acetonitrile 44 and ethyl iodoacetate 45.

Ethyl acetoacetate 35 can be easily monochlorinated by treatment with sulphuryl chloride. Subsequent acid catalyzed hydrolysis and carbon dioxide elimination results in 1-chloroacetone 48. Similarly, many monochloroketones will be accessible in any stable isotope labelled form.

Ethyl bromoacetate 3 treated with triphenylphosphine 49 to form triphenyl phosphonium salt 50. After addition of 1eq NaOH and subsequent treatment with CH_3I , the propionate phosphonium salt 51 is formed. Further treatment with base and ozonolysis ethyl pyruvate 52 is formed.³³

Ethyl pyruvate 52 can be converted in the corresponding trimethyl silyl ether 53.³⁴ Halogenation of the product 53 afforded the 3-halogenopyruvate 54. Using the reactions discussed in scheme 5 together

with the building blocks given in scheme 6 it is clear that a very extended range of pyrroles in all possible stable isotopomeric forms are now accessible.

d) *Synthesis Of Ethyl (2Z)-(4-Cyano-5-Oxopyrrolidin-2-ylidene)Ethanoate 55.*

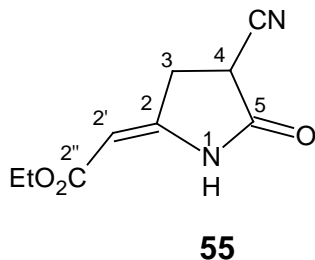


Figure 4. Structure and numbering of ethyl (2Z)-(4-cyano-5-oxopyrrolidin-2-ylidene)ethanoate 55.

Ethyl cyanoacetate 5 is treated with ethyl 4-chloro-3-oxobutyrate 56 (prepared by chlorination of 46 in scheme 6) in the presence of 1 eq of triethylamine in refluxing toluene (scheme 7).³⁵ Diethyl 2-cyano-4-oxohexanedioate 57 is the single product in high yield. This product is the result of an S_N2 reaction of the anion of the active methylene compound without competing Feist-Benary reaction in the Hantzsch pyrrole synthesis because the nonnucleophilic base triethylamine cannot give the Hantzsch pyrrole system.

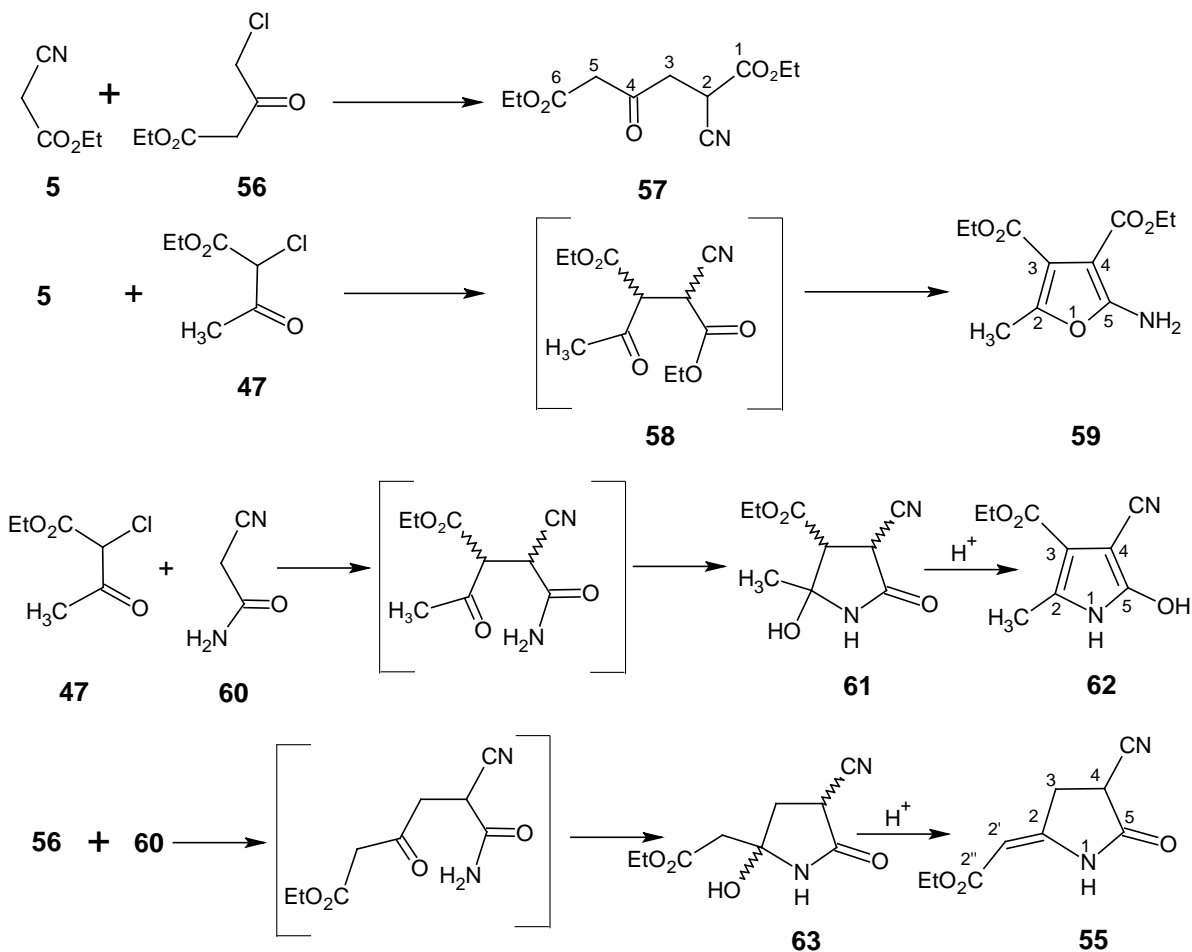
A similar reaction between ethyl cyanoacetate 5 and ethyl 2-chloro-3-oxobutyrate 47 afforded 2-amino-3,4-dicarbethoxy-5-methylfuran 59 in high yield (scheme

7). This molecule has been described in the literature.^{36,37} In this case the S_N2 reaction of the anion of ethyl cyanoacetate 5 must have been the first step followed by a base catalyzed cyclization to the furan derivative 59.

It is to be expected that triethylamine induced alkylations of active methylene derivatives with aldehyde or keto functions in both the chloride reagent and the active methylene compound will give 1,4-dicarbonyl systems in Paal-Knorr pyrrole, Paal-Knorr furan and Paal-Knorr thiophene syntheses in high yield.³⁸

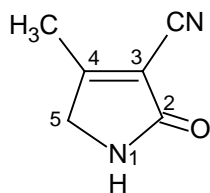
2-Cyanoacetamide 60 is expected to react with ethyl 2-chloro-3-oxobutyrate 47 using triethylamine as a base to give the initial S_N2 reaction on the active methylene carbon without reaction on the amide function due to its higher pK_a value.

The carbonyl group and the amide group cyclised to give compound 61. Acid catalyzed dehydration afforded 2-methyl-3-ethoxycarbonyl-4-cyano-5-hydroxypyrrole 62.³⁵ Similarly, ethyl 4-chloro-3-oxoacetate 56 and 2-cyanoacetamide 60 afforded a high yield of the cyclic derivative 63. Product 55 is obtained via acid catalyzed dehydration of product 63. These 2-oxypyrrole derivatives have important pharmaceutical and biological properties.



Scheme 7. Preparation of ethyl (2Z)-(4-cyano-5-oxopyrrolidin-2-ylidene)ethanoate 55.

e) Synthesis Of $[2-^{13}\text{C}]$ -3-Cyano-4-Methyl-3-Pyrrolin-2-One 64a And $[3-^{13}\text{C}]$ -3-Cyano-4-Methyl-3-Pyrrolin-2-One 64b.



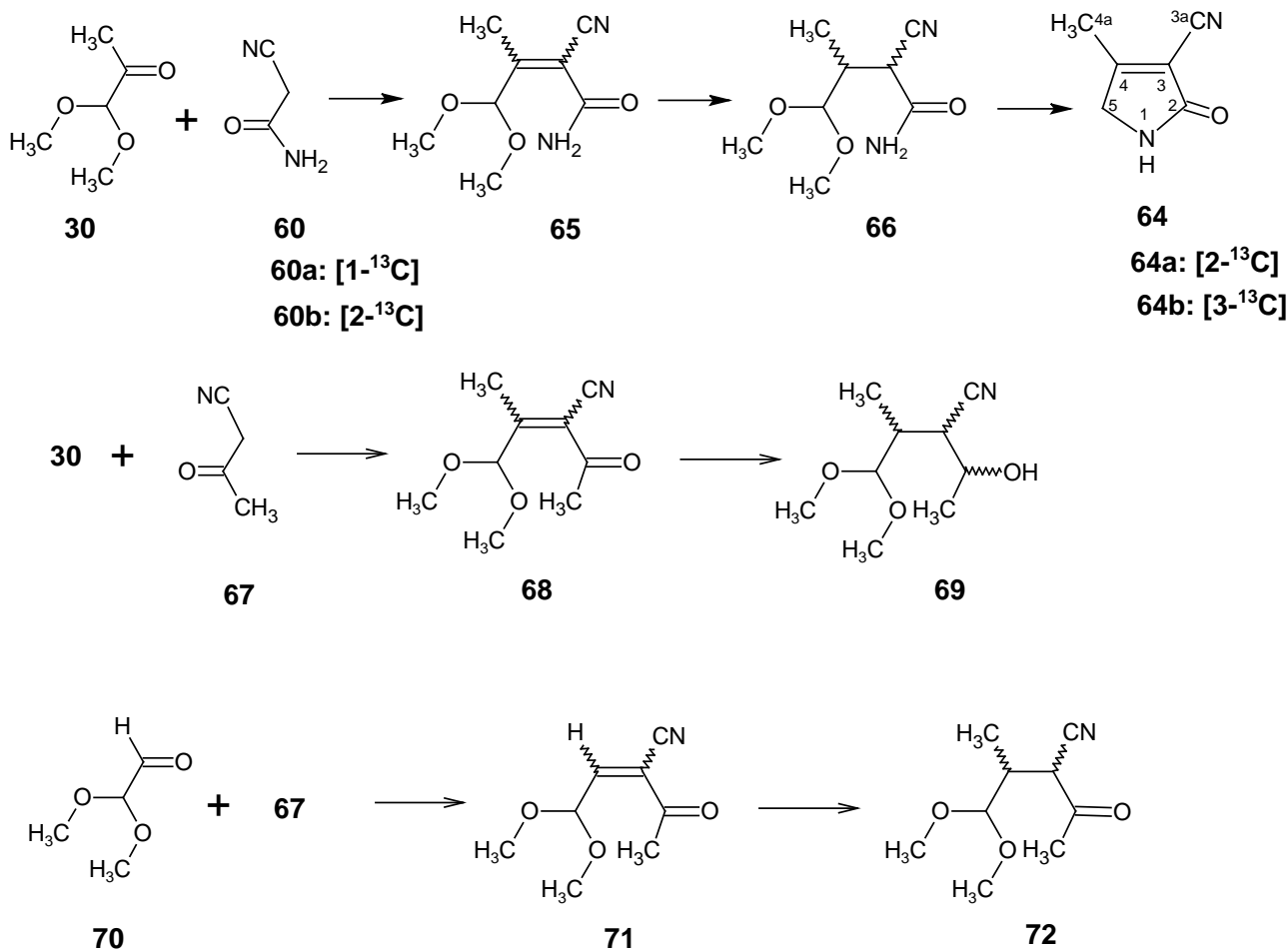
64

64a: $[2-^{13}\text{C}]$

64b: $[3-^{13}\text{C}]$

Even earlier than the above discussed alkylation of active methylene reagents, the Knoevenagel reaction between active methylene compounds, ketones and aldehydes to form $[2-^{13}\text{C}]$ - and $[3-^{13}\text{C}]$ -3-cyano-4-methyl-3-pyrrolin-3-one 64a and 64b, respectively (fig. 5) has been reported.³⁹ In scheme 8 it is depicted that 1,1-dimethoxyacetone 30 and 2-cyanoacetamide 60 in refluxing toluene in the presence of ammonium acetate and acetic acid afforded a high yield of a mixture of (E)- and (Z)-2-cyano-3-methyl-4,4-dimethoxybut-2-enamide 65. Due to the presence of two electron withdrawing groups in the molecule the acetal function is relatively acid stable. The double bond can easily be reduced by sodium borohydride in ethanol to form the enantiomeric mixtures of 2-cyano-3-methyl-4,4-dimethoxybutanamide 66.

Figure 5. Structure and numbering of $[2-^{13}\text{C}]$ -3-cyano-4-methyl-3-pyrrolin-2-one 64a and $[3-^{13}\text{C}]$ -3-cyano-4-methyl-3-pyrrolin-2-one 64b.

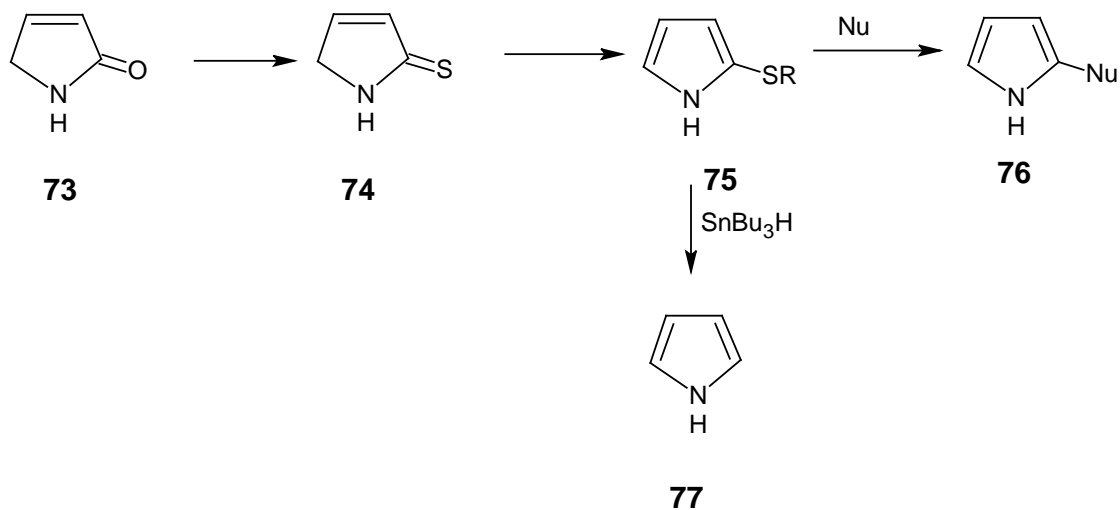


Scheme 8. The preparation of $[2-^{13}\text{C}]$ -3-cyano-4-methyl-3-pyrrolin-2-one 64a and $[3-^{13}\text{C}]$ -3-cyano-4-methyl-3-pyrrolin-2-one 64b from 1,1-dimethoxyacetone 30 and $[1-^{13}\text{C}]$ -2-cyanoacetamide 60a and $[2-^{13}\text{C}]$ -2-cyanoacetamide 60b, respectively.

Upon mild acid treatment of (E)- and (Z)- 2-cyano-3-methyl-4,4-dimethoxybutanamide 66 afforded 3-cyano-4-methyl-3-pyrrolin-2-one 64 in a high yield. Using [1-¹³C]-2-cyanoacetamide 60a and [2-¹³C]-2-cyanoacetamide 60b, [2-¹³C]-64a and [3-¹³C]-64b have been prepared, respectively. In order to get to 3-vinyl-4-methyl-3-pyrrolin-2-one 89 for the ring D of biliverdin IX α and phytochromobilin (vide infra), 1,1-dimethoxyacetone 30 is treated with 1-cyanoacetone 67 under Knoevenagel conditions to give an excellent yield of 5,5-dimethoxy-4-methyl-3-cyanopentan-2-one 68 (scheme 8). The reduction of the 3,4 double bond and keto function occurred simultaneously to give an enantiomeric mixture of 5,5-dimethoxy-4-methyl-3-cyanopentan-2-ol 69. Pinner reaction of 69 in aqueous media to convert the nitrile function into the amide function and subsequent ring closure to get 3-(1'-hydroxyethyl)-4-methyl-3-pyrrolin-2-one could not be realized.

As an alternative the Knoevenagel condensation between 1,1-dimethoxyacetaldehyde 70 and 1-cyanoacetone 67 afforded a high yield of 5,5-dimethoxy-3-cyanopent-3-ene-2-one 71. Treatment of 71 with methyl magnesium iodide and cuprous cyanide gave in a high yield of the 1,4-addition product 5,5-dimethoxy-4-methyl-3-cyanopentan-2-one 72. Conversion of product 72 to the required 3-pyrrolin-2-one was not successful. However, 3-pyrrolin-2-ones are now accessible via alkylation reactions of active methylene compounds with amide functions.

Compound 72 (a protected 1,4-dicarbonyl compound) can easily be converted in the corresponding pyrrole, thiophene and furan systems.²⁵ The scope of the Knoevenagel reaction has been extended.⁴⁰ At present various 3-pyrrolin-2-ones are easily available. This is a new approach to pyrrole synthesis. These systems react with Lawesson's reagent to give the corresponding thioamide system 74.²⁵



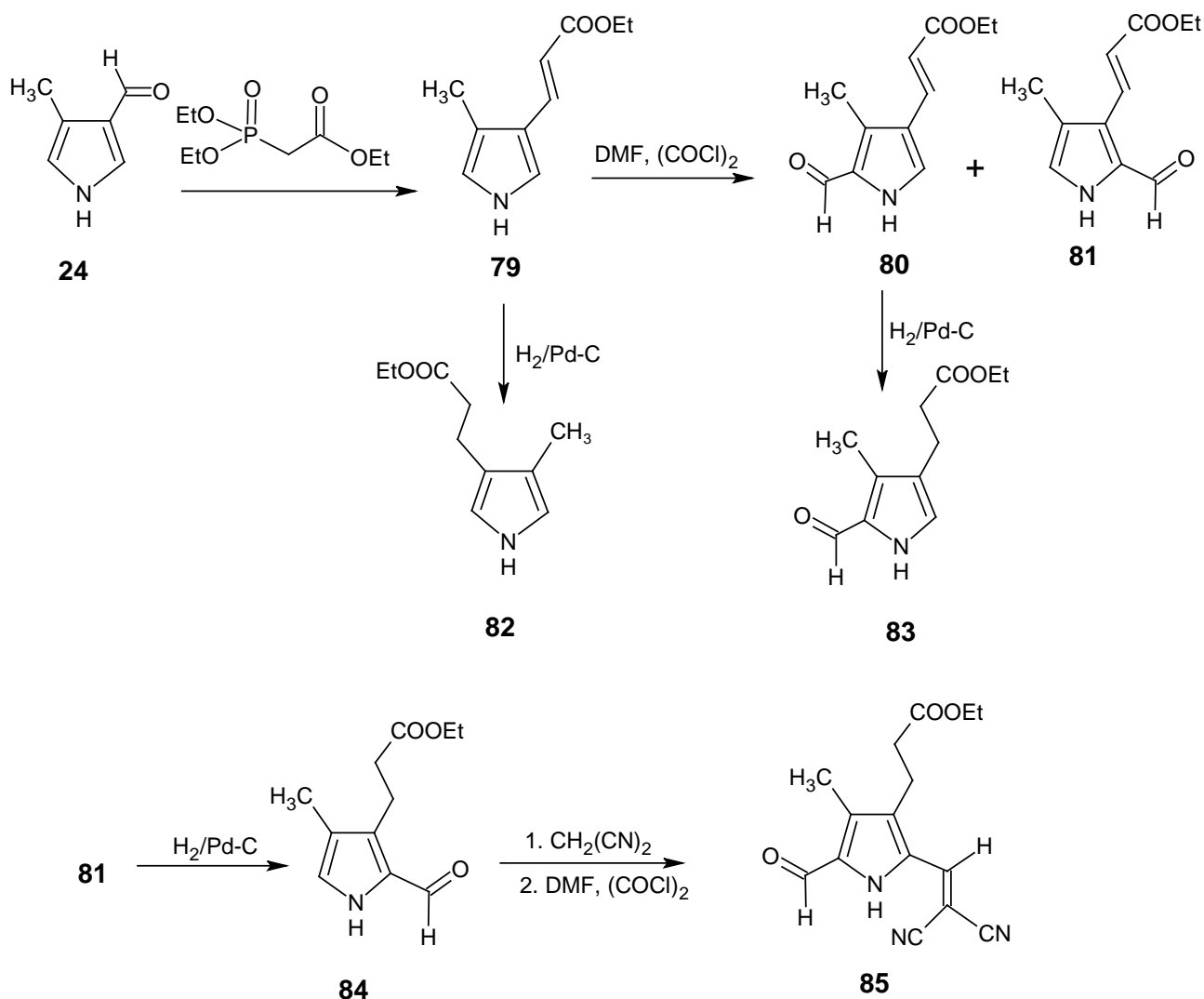
Scheme 9. Conversion of 3-pyrrolin-2-one 73 into 2-substituted pyrrole 76 and pyrrole 77.

The thioamide treated with various alkylhalo - genides to form the 2-thioalkyl substituted pyrroles. The 2-thioalkyl is easily substituted for many other 2-substituents via various nucleophiles.⁴¹ The thioalkyl group has been substituted for hydrogen via radical reaction with tributyltin hydride to give the pyrrole without a substituent on position 2.⁴²

f) *Chemoenzymatic Synthesis Of (2R)-Phytochromobilin 80, The Chromophore Of Phytochromes*

Biliverdin IX α 78 can be converted into (2R)-phytochromobilin¹⁶ 91 that spontaneously reacts with the apoprotein of phytochromes to form fully active phytochrome (fig. 6).^{43,44}

3-Formyl-4-methyl-1H-pyrrole 24 (scheme 4) which can be obtained in any stable isotope enriched form forms the primary building block of both rings B and C of biliverdin IX α 78.



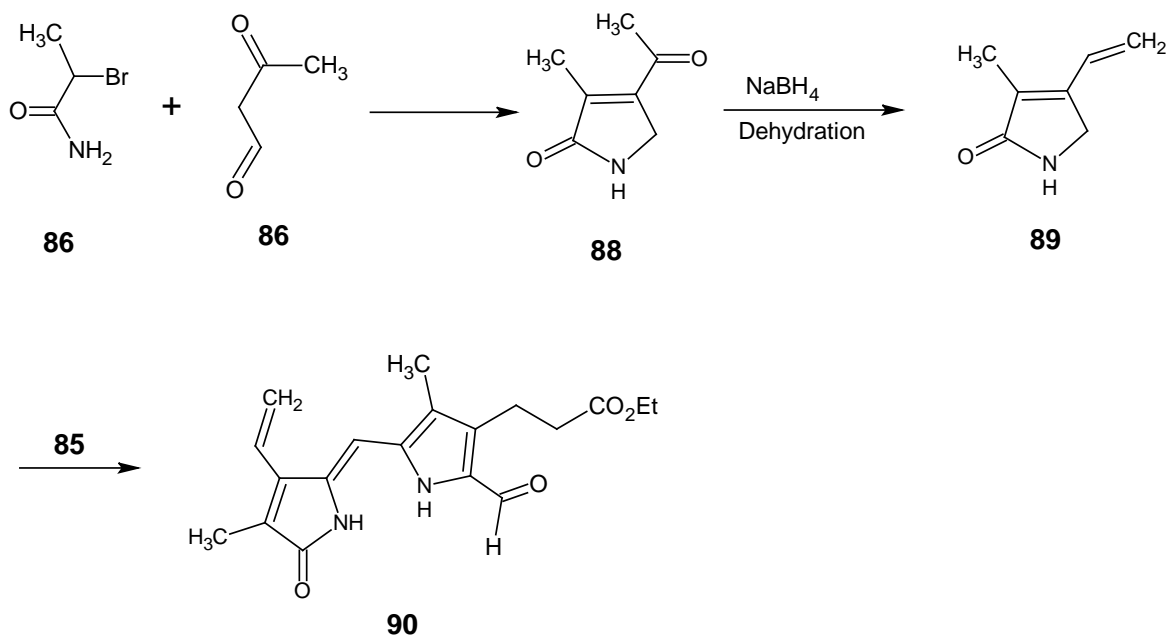
Scheme 10. Conversion of 3-formyl-4-methyl-1H-pyrrole 24 into the necessary building blocks of phytychromobilin 91.

In scheme 10 a synthetic scheme is shown that converts 3-formyl-4-methyl-1H-pyrrole 24 into the necessary building blocks of phytychromobilin 91.

Triethyl phosphonoacetate is obtained from the reaction of ethyl bromoacetate 3 and triethylphosphite. Triethyl phosphonoacetate is treated with 3-formyl-4-methyl-1H-pyrrole 24 (scheme 4) to obtain ethyl 3-(4-methyl-1H-pyrrol-3-yl)acrylate 79.¹⁵ Vilsmeier formylation of product 79 afforded a mixture of the two pyrrole aldehydes which can easily be separated into ethyl 3-(5-formyl-4-methyl-1H-pyrrol-3-yl)acrylate 80 and ethyl 3-(2-formyl-4-methyl-1H-pyrrol-3-yl)acrylate 81. Catalytic reductions of the double bond in pyrrole aldehydes 80 and 81 led to 3-[2'-(ethoxycarbonyl)ethyl]-4-methyl-1H-pyrrole-5-aldehyde 83 and 3-[2'-(ethoxycarbonyl)ethyl]-4-methyl-1H-pyrrole-2-aldehyde 84, respectively. Via the Knoevenagel reaction the 2-formyl group in the product 84 is protected as a dicyanovinyl group. A subsequent

Vilsmeier formylation afforded in ethyl 3-[2-(2,2-dicyanoethenyl)-5-formyl-4-methyl-1H-pyrrol-3-yl] propanoate 85.

In scheme 11 it is indicated that the pyrromethenone building block containing rings A and B is accessible in any stable isotope enriched form.



Scheme 11. Synthesis of pyrromethenone 90 (ring A and ring B) of the phytochrome 91.

2-Bromopropionamide 86 is condensed with 3-oxobutanal 87. Subsequent dehydration of the product gave product 88.³⁵ Reduction of the carbonyl function and subsequent dehydration results in 3-vinyl-4-methyl-

3-pyrrolin-2-one 89. The condensation of product 89 with product 85 and subsequent deprotection of the aldehyde function afforded the product 90.⁴⁵

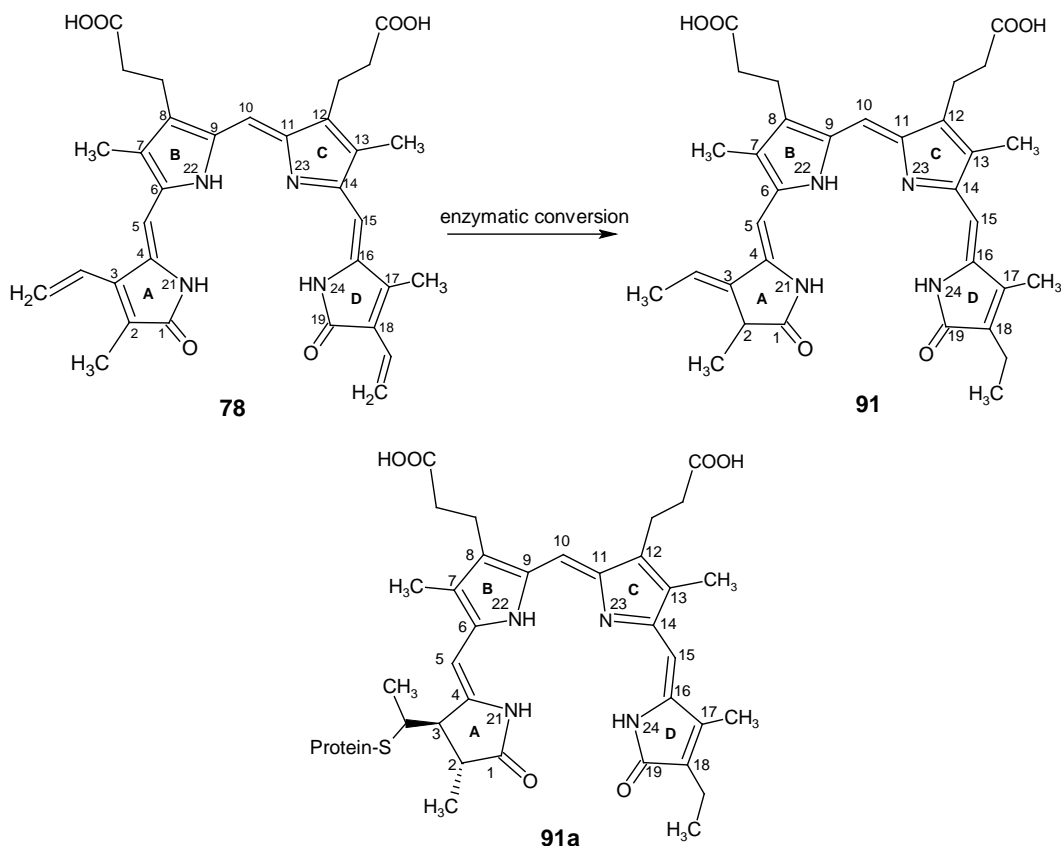
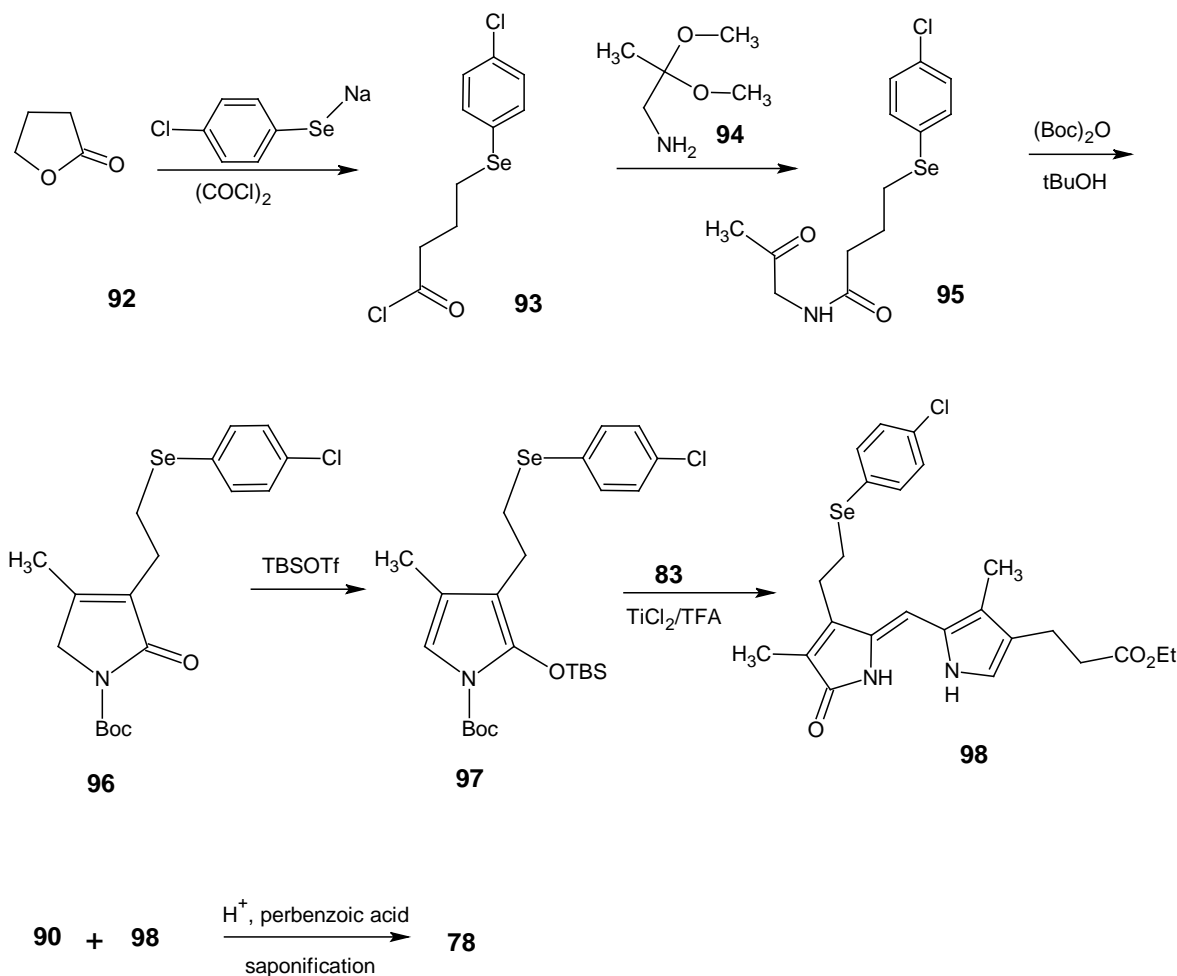


Figure 6. Structure and numbering of biliverdin IX α 78 and (2R)-phytochromobilin 91. Structure 91a represents the linkage of ring A to the protein of the phytochrome.

In scheme 12 it is indicated that the C and D building blocks are accessible in any stable isotope enriched form. Butyrolactone **92** treated with the sodium salt of parachlorobenzene selenol to give the 4-selenophenyl butyrate that treated with oxalyl chloride to form the chloride product **93**.⁴⁶

Butyrolactone **92** is accessible in any stable isotope labelled form via a Pinner reaction of 4-hydroxybutyronitrile **12** (scheme 1). Product **93** treated with 2,2-methoxypropylamine **94** to give product **95** after deacetalization. The protected 1-aminoacetone **94** is easily accessible via nitrosation of ethyl acetoacetate **35** (scheme 5).⁴⁷

After introduction of BOC protection of the amide base induced ring closure to the 3-pyrrolin-2-one with tert-butyl alcoholate is effected.⁴⁶ Treatment of product **96** with tributyl silyl triflate results in the double protected pyrrole **97**. This building block condensed with the pyrrole aldehyde **82** under formation of the pyrromethenone **98**.⁴⁶ A final acid condensation afforded in the tetrapyrrole system which after oxidative desaturation gives the vinyl group in the D ring giving the dimethyl ester of biliverdin IX α . A mild saponification afforded in biliverdin IX α **78**.



Scheme 12. Synthesis of biliverdin IX α **78**.

III. CONCLUSION

Nowadays there is a strong synthetic effort in the pyrrole field. Many new synthetic reactions and new pyrroles are worked out and reported. Many of the building blocks that are used in these processes can be made accessible in various stable isotope enriched form. In the near future whole new libraries of stable isotope enriched pyrroles will become available.

IV. ACKNOWLEDGMENT

This paper is written with great indebtedness to investigators who have been involved in pyrrole synthesis and the preparation of ¹³C and ¹⁵N enriched building blocks. We dedicate this paper to future investigators who will use the now accessible isotopomers to unravel the role of medically, pharmaceutically and biologically important pyrrole systems without perturbation at the atomic level.

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Effect of Blanching, Ripening and Other Treatments on the Production Characteristics of Pectinolytic Enzymes from Banana Peels By *Aspergillus Niger*

By Ogunlade & Ayodele Oluwayemisi

Ekiti State University, Ado Ekiti

Abstract - Three different strains of *Aspergillus niger* isolated from decayed banana peels in Ibadan metropolis, Nigeria depolymerized citrus pectin. The best strain having pectinolytic activity as indicated by the diameter of clear hydrolyzed zone on the medium plates containing commercial citrus pectin as the sole carbon source was selected among the three strains having the largest zone. This isolate was able to produce polygalacturonase and pectin lyase enzymes using banana peels (agrowastes) as the sole carbon source. When Solid state fermentation (SSF) and Submerged fermentation (SMF) were carried out with the banana peels as the substrate using the *Aspergillus niger* with the largest zone, SSF yielded higher level of pectinolytic activity than the SMF. Different treatments of the banana peels used as substrate were carried out by blanching the substrate with cold sodium chloride, treating the banana peels with wood ashes and also allowing the unripe banana to go through ripening stages. Higher yield of pectinases production was obtained when the banana peels were treated compared with when they were not treated at all. Therefore pretreatment of banana peels increases pectinases production.

Keywords : *Aspergillus niger*, Pectinolytic Activity, Banana peel, Fermentation, Pectinase.

GJSFR-B Classification: FOR Code: 820214, 070602, 030406



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I. INTRODUCTION

Enzymes are proteins that catalyze (*i.e.*, increase or decrease the rates of) chemical reactions. (Smith *et al.*, (1997), (Grisham *et al.*, 1999). In enzymatic reactions, the molecules at the beginning of the process are called substrates, and they are converted into different molecules, called the products. Almost all processes in a biological cell need enzymes to occur at significant rates. Since enzymes are selective for their substrates and speed up only a few reactions from among many possibilities, the set of enzymes made in a cell determines which metabolic pathways occur in that cell.

In nature, microorganisms have been endowed with vast potentials. They produce an array of enzymes, which have been exploited commercially over the years. Pectinases are of great significance with tremendous potential to offer to industry (Dayanand *et al.*, 2003.). They are one of the upcoming enzymes of the

commercial sector, especially the juice and food industry (Kashyap *et al.*, 2001) and in the paper and pulp industry (Beg, Viikari *et al.*, 2001). Pectinolytic enzymes or pectinases are a heterogeneous group of related enzymes that hydrolyze the pectic substances, present mostly in plants. Pectinolytic enzymes are widely distributed in higher plants and microorganisms (Whitaker *et al.*, 1990). They are of prime importance for plants as they help in cell wall extension (Ward *et al.*, 1989) and softening of some plant tissues during maturation and storage (Sakai, 1992, Aguilar *et al.*, 1990).

Pectinases are group of enzymes that attack pectin and depolymerise it by hydrolysis and transesterification as well as by deesterification reactions, which hydrolyses the ester bond between carboxyl and methyl groups of pectin (Ceci and Loranzo, 1998). These enzymes act on pectin, a class of complex polysaccharides found in the cell wall of higher plants and cementing material for the cellulose network (Thakur *et al.*, 1997). Pectinases account for 10% of the global industrial enzymes produced (Stutzenberger, 1992).

These pectinases have wide applications in fruit juice industry and wine industry. In fruit juice industry, it is used for clarification, where reduction in viscosity is caused which ultimately leads to formation of clear juice. They increase the yield of juices by enzymatic liquefaction of pulps; these pectinases also helps in formation of pulpy products by macerating the organized tissue into suspension of intact cells. In wine industry pectinases are mainly used for decreasing astringency by solubilizing anthocyanins without leaching out procyanidin polyphenols, and pectinases also increase pigmentation by extracting more anthocyanins (Tucker and Woods, 1991).

A group of pectinolytic enzymes known as pectinases hydrolyses pectin. Pectinases are complex hydrolytic enzymes that function as esterases and depolymerases. They include pectinmethyl esterases which catalyse the hydrolysis of methylated carboxylic ester groups in pectin into pectic acid and methanol, pectin lyase which cleave $\alpha(1.4)$ -glycosidic linkages by

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transelimination resulting into galacturonide with a double bond between C-4 and C-5 at the non reducing end and polygalacturonase which hydrolyse the $\alpha(1,4)$ -glycosidic linkages in homo galacturonans (Call *et al.*, 1985; Delgado *et al.*, 1992; Soares *et al.*, 1999).

Solid state fermentation (SSF) and Submerged fermentation (SmF) are important fermentation methods employed for the production of microbial enzymes (Kavitha *et al.*, 2000; Martin *et al.*, 2000). Microbial growth and product formation usually occur at or near the surface of solid substrate particles with low moisture content; hence SSF appear to be advantageous for microbial enzyme production. The advantages of SSF over the SmF process include higher yield of products (Pandey, 1994), generation of less effluent and requirement of simpler equipment (Bennett, 1998). Reports are very few on the comparison of SmF and SSF for the production of pectinases. The present study involves screening of the *Aspergillus niger* isolated from decayed banana peels for pectinolytic activity using banana peels as fermentation substrate and determining the effect of different treatments of banana peels by blanching it in cold NaCl, treating it with wood ashes and allowing it to undergo ripening stages for pectinolytic enzymes production.

II. MATERIALS AND METHOD

a) Sample Collection

Banana peels were collected from Ibadan metropolis and were transported to the University of Ibadan Postgraduate Laboratory where they were used as analysis.

b) Isolation And Identification Of Fungal Isolate

Decaying banana peels were collected from fruit selling points within the University of Ibadan and then transported to the laboratory for isolation.

10g of the fungi infected region of the banana peels were weighed into 90ml of sterile distilled water and was shaken properly to obtain the stock solution. Dilutions of 10^{-4} was made and pour plating of 10^{-2} and 10^{-3} was done using sterile Potato Dextrose Agar (PDA) which was sterilized by autoclaving at 121°C for 15mins. Streptomycin was added to the PDA to prevent bacterial contamination. The above dilutions were then plated in duplicates. The inoculated plates were incubated at $25 \pm 2^{\circ}\text{C}$ (room temperature) for 5-7 days. Pure cultures were obtained by repeated subculturing on PDA plates and maintained on PDA slants. The isolates were examined and identified in the department of Botany and Microbiology University of Ibadan based on cultural and morphological characteristics of the organism. The microscopic structures of the isolates were studied using microscope. Compendium of soil fungi was also consulted.

c) Screening Of Fungal Isolates For Pectinolytic Activity

The isolates were screened for pectinases producing ability by inoculating them in a sterile medium containing 1% citrus pectin, 0.14% $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$, 0.20% K_2HPO_4 , 0.02% $\text{MgSO}_4 \cdot 7\text{H}_2\text{O}$, 0.1% Nutrient solution (5Mg/L $\text{FeSO}_4 \cdot 7\text{H}_2\text{O}$, 1.6Mg/L MnSO_4 , 1.4mg/L $\text{ZnSO}_4 \cdot 7\text{H}_2\text{O}$, 2.0mg/L CoCl_2), 3% agar PH 5.0 (Martin *et al.*, 2004).

The medium was sterilized and distributed aseptically on petri dishes. The plates were then inoculated with the organism and incubated for 3-5 days. After incubation plates were stained with iodine solution. Clear zones were formed around the pectinase producing isolates.

d) Quantitative Estimation Of Pectinolytic Activity Of Screened Isolates

Quantitative estimation of pectinolytic activity was done on submerged and solid state fermentation.

e) Submerged Fermentation

The liquid medium containing 0.6% $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$, 0.6% K_2HPO_4 , 0.6% KH_2PO_4 , and $\text{MgSO}_4 \cdot 7\text{H}_2\text{O}$ 0.01% with 1% pure pectin and 1% dry banana peels as the sole carbon sources and these were added separately to the basal medium. The PH value was adjusted to 5.5 before sterilization at 121°C for 15mins. The pectinolytic isolates identified was used for inoculation using a flamed and cooled cork borer two disc of fungal hyphae from leading edge of actively growing colonies was cut on petri plates with a flamed and cooled needle disc were then transferred to the fermentation medium in sterile flasks and the Erlenmeyer flasks were then plugged properly and incubated for 12 days at room temperature ($25 \pm 2^{\circ}\text{C}$). Aliquots were withdrawn every day 3, 6, 9, and 12 using whatman No.1 filter paper for carrying out polygalacturonase and pectin lyase assays.

f) Preparation Of Substrates For Solid State Fermentation

Fresh banana peels were dried, ground and sieve to obtain smaller substrate particle which provides larger surface area for microbial attack. (Pandey *et al.*, 2002).

g) Production Of Pectinolytic Enzyme By Solid State Fermentation

Solid state fermentation was carried out using a medium containing 15g of ground dried banana peels and 10ml of the mineral salt solution of 0.6% $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$, 0.6% K_2HPO_4 , 0.6% KH_2PO_4 , and $\text{MgSO}_4 \cdot 7\text{H}_2\text{O}$ 0.01%. The medium was sterilized at 121°C for 40mins (Martins *et al.*, 2004). One disc of respective fungal hyphae was introduced into 5ml of sterile distilled water, the suspension was shaking using shaker for 10mins for proper dispersion of the spores. From this suspension, 1ml was withdrawn and inoculated into each flask. The flasks were then

incubated at room temperature ($25 \pm 2^\circ\text{C}$). For 12 days 50ml of sterile distilled water was added on day 3, 6, 9, and 12 and then filtered. The obtained filtrates were used for conducting polygalacturonase and pectin lyase assays.

III. EFFECT OF DIFFERENT TREATMENTS ON PECTINASE PRODUCTION

a) Effect Of Blanching On Pectinase Production

Banana peels were dipped inside 5% NaCl and removed at different time intervals of 5mins, 10mins, 15mins, and 20mins. 15g of the substrate was weighed and 10ml of mineral solution containing 0.6%(NH₄)₂SO₄, 0.6%K₂HPO₄, 0.6%KH₂PO₄, and MgSO₄.7H₂O 0.01%. The medium was sterilized at 121°C for 40mins (Martins *et al.*, 2004). One disc of respective fungal hyphae was introduced into 5ml of sterile distilled water, the suspension was shaking using shaker for 10mins for proper dispersion of the spores. From this suspension, 1ml was withdrawn and inoculated into each flask. Part of this treated peels were also dried and allowed to be subjected to the fermentation also. The flasks were then incubated at room temperature ($25 \pm 2^\circ\text{C}$) for 12 days. 50ml of sterile distilled water was added on day 3, 6, 9, and 12 and then filtered. Filtrate was then used as crude enzyme for assay.

b) Effect Of Ripening On Pectinase Production

Banana fingers were monitored for ripening and peels were removed at different days intervals 0, 2, 4, and 6 and both fresh and dry peels were then subjected to SSF by weighing 15g of the substrate and 10ml of mineral solution containing 0.6%(NH₄)₂SO₄, 0.6%K₂HPO₄, 0.6%KH₂PO₄, and MgSO₄.7H₂O 0.01%. The medium was sterilized at 121°C for 40mins (Martins *et al.*, 2004). One disc of respective fungal hyphae was introduced into 5ml of sterile distilled water, the suspension was shaking using shaker for 10mins for proper dispersion of the spores. From this suspension, 1ml was withdrawn and inoculated into each flask. The flasks were then incubated at room temperature ($25 \pm 2^\circ\text{C}$). For 12 days 50ml of sterile distilled water was added on day 3, 6, 9, and 12 and then filtered. The filtrates were later used for assays.

c) Effect Of Ashes On Pectinase Production

Banana peels were dipped inside ashes and removed at different time intervals of 5mins, 10mins, 15mins, and 20mins. They were then subjected to SSF by weighing 15g of the substrate and 10ml of mineral solution containing 0.6%(NH₄)₂SO₄, 0.6%K₂HPO₄, 0.6%KH₂PO₄, and MgSO₄.7H₂O 0.01%. The medium was sterilized at 121°C for 40mins (Martins *et al.*, 2004). One disc of respective fungal hyphae was introduced into 5ml of sterile distilled water, the suspension was shaking using shaker for 10mins for proper dispersion of the spores. From this suspension, 1ml was withdrawn

and inoculated into each flask. The flasks were then incubated at room temperature ($25 \pm 2^\circ\text{C}$). For 12 days 50ml of sterile distilled water was added on day 3, 6, 9, and 12 and then filtered. The filtrates were later used for assays.

d) Polygalacturonase Assay

Polygalacturonase (PG) activity was determined by measuring the release of reducing groups from citrus pectin using the 3,5 dinitrosalicylic acid (DNS) reagent. (Miller, 1959).

The reaction mixture containing 2ml of 1% citrus pectin in 0.2M phosphate citrate buffer PH^H (5.5) and 0.5ml of crude enzyme solution was incubated at 40°C for 10mins. (Somogyi *et al.*, 1945), a modified method. After this 3ml of DNS reagent was added and boiled in water bath for 15mins. After cooling, colour absorbance was read at 540 nm using a spectrophotometer.

e) Pectin Lyase Assay

Pectin lyase activity was determined by measuring the increase in absorbance at 235nm of substrate solution (0.8ml of 1% citrus pectin in 0.2M tris HCl buffer PH 8.5 hydrolysed by 0.2ml enzyme solution at 40°C (Martin *et al.*, 2004).

IV. RESULTS

The present study was carried out in order to determine the effect of blanching, ripening, and other treatments on the production characteristics of pectinolytic enzymes from banana peels by *Aspergillus niger*. It is well reported that *Aspergillus niger* have pectinolytic activity, the isolates was screened for the production of the pectinolytic enzymes.

Figure 1 shows the production of polygalacturonase enzymes by *Aspergillus niger* in both solid state fermentation (SSF) and submerged fermentation (SMF). The fermentation was carried out for 12 days and assay of the aliquots was conducted on day 3, 6, 9, 12. For (SSF) the highest yield of polygalacturonase was produced on day 3 of the fermentation and the value ranged from 4.9676-7.5544U/ml. However in SMF the polygalacturonase produced ranged from 4.6265-5.3118U/ml and the highest yield of production was observed on day 9 with 5.3118U/ml. Generally from this study SSF was higher than SMF.

Figure 2 shows the production of pectin lyase enzymes by *Aspergillus niger* in both solid state fermentation (SSF) and submerged fermentation (SMF). For SSF the highest yield of production was observed on day 3 with 22.3214U/ml, while the lowest was seen on day 12 with 19.0178U/ml. For SMF the highest yield of pectin lyase production was observed on day 12 having 18.8393U/ml.

V. PRODUCTION OF POLYGALACTURONASE BY *ASPERGILLUS NIGER*

A) Effect Of Blanching On Banana Peels

The polygalacturonase production by *Aspergillus niger* using blanched banana peels (fresh) as substrate in solid state fermentation is shown in figure 3. The polygalacturonase produced ranged from 13.8235-18.5294U/ml in which banana peels blanched for 20mins at day 12 had the highest yield of production while the lowest yield of production was observed at the same 20mins on day 3. However the same quantity of enzyme was produced at 10mins day 12, 15mins day 9 and 20mins day 9 having 17.3529U/ml in all the three.

b) Effect Of Ashing On Banana Peels

The polygalacturonase production by *Aspergillus niger* using banana peels treated with ashes as substrate in solid state fermentation is shown in figure 4. The highest yield of production was 19.8529U/ml observed on day 3 at 15mins while the lowest yield was 13.6765U/ml observed on day 12 at 10mins. However the same quantity of enzyme was produced at 5mins day 3 and 15mins day 9 having 14.7059U/ml of polygalacturonase production.

c) Effect Of Ripening On Banana Peels.

Figure 5 shows the polygalacturonase production by *Aspergillus niger* using banana peels ripened at different days as substrate in solid state fermentation. During the ripening of these banana, the peels were removed at different days intervals as unripe, moderately ripe, ripe and extremely ripe and when SSF were carried out, changes in their polygalacturonase production ranged from 13.9706-29.8529U/ml. The highest yield of production was observed on day 9 when the banana was extremely ripe while the lowest was observed on day 12 when the banana was ripe.

VI. PRODUCTION OF PECTIN LYASE BY *ASPERGILLUS NIGER*

a) Effect Of Blanching On Banana Peels

The production of pectin lyase by *Aspergillus niger* using blanched banana peels (fresh) as substrate in solid state fermentation is shown in figure 6. The pectin lyase produced ranged from 13.3928-21.9643U/ml in which banana peels blanched for 15mins at day 6 had the highest yield of production while the lowest yield of production was observed at 10mins on day 12. However the same quantity of enzyme was produced at 15mins day 3 and 5mins day 6 having 17.8125U/ml.

b) Effect Of Ashing On Banana Peels

The pectin lyase production by *Aspergillus niger* using banana peels treated with ashes as substrate in

solid state fermentation is shown in figure 7. The highest yield of production were observed on day 3 at 5mins and the same day 3 at 15mins with 20.1339U/ml while the lowest yield was 17.0536U/ml observed on that same day 3 at 10mins. However the same quantity of enzyme was produced at 5mins day 9 and 10mins day 9 also having 18.75U/ml of pectin lyase production.

c) Effect Of Ripening On Banana Peels.

Figure 8 shows the pectin lyase production by *Aspergillus niger* using banana peels ripened at different days as substrate in solid state fermentation. During the ripening of these banana, the peels were removed at different days intervals as unripe, moderately ripe, ripe and extremely ripe and when SSF were carried out, changes in their pectin lyase production ranged from 17.7232-20.5804U/ml. The highest yield of production was observed on day 3 when the banana was ripe while the lowest was observed on the same day 3 when the banana was unripe. The same quantity of pectin lyase was produced on day 6 with unripe banana and day 3 with extremely ripe banana with both having 18.3929U/ml.

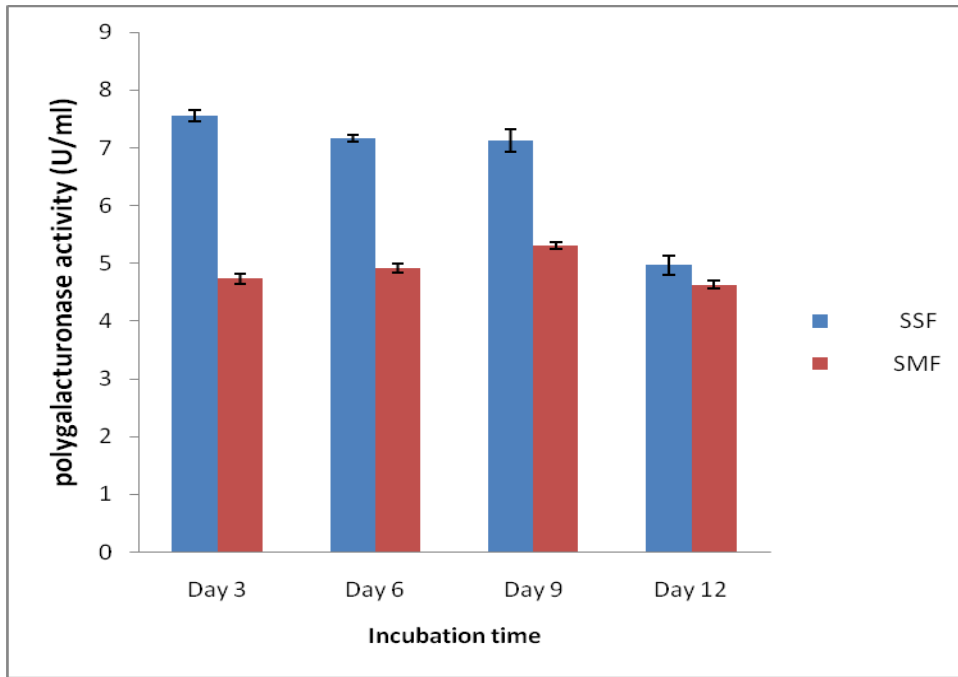


Fig 1 : Production of polygalacturonase by *Aspergillus niger* in solid state fermentation (SSF) and Submerged fermentation (SMF)

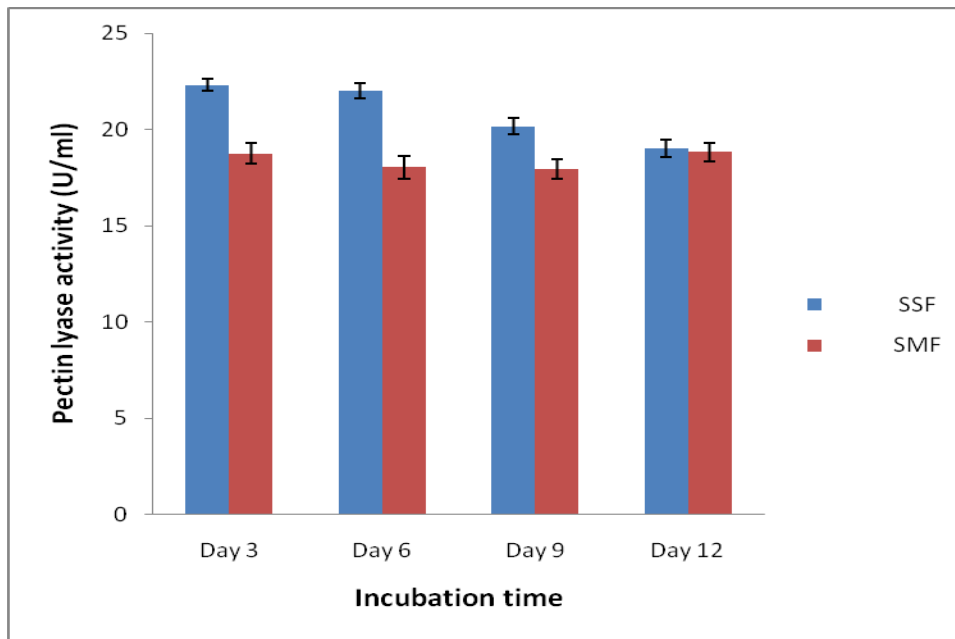


Fig 2 : Production of Pectin lyase by *Aspergillus niger* in solid state fermentation (SSF) and Submerged fermentation (SMF)

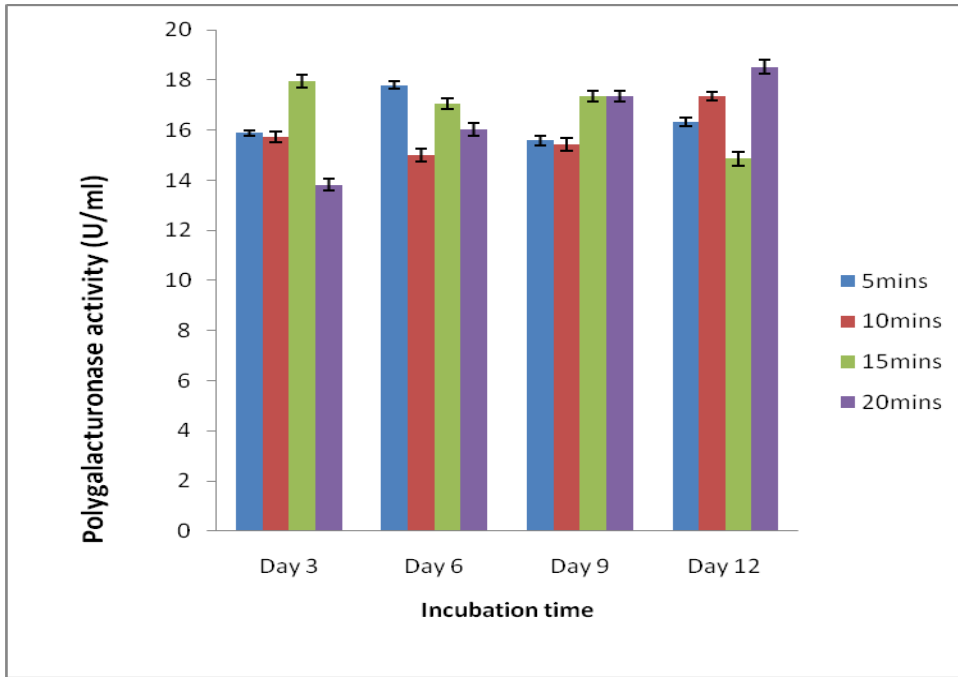


Fig 3 : Production of by polygalacturonase by *Aspergillus niger* using blanched banana peels as substrate in solid state fermentation (fresh).

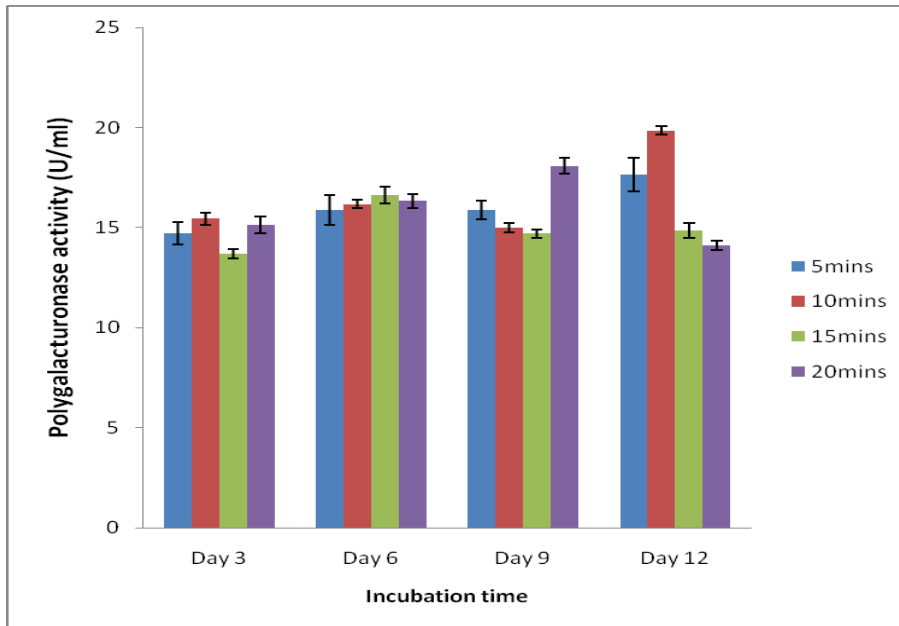


Fig. 4 : Production of polygalacturonase by *Aspergillus niger* using banana peels treated with ashes as substrate in solid state fermentation

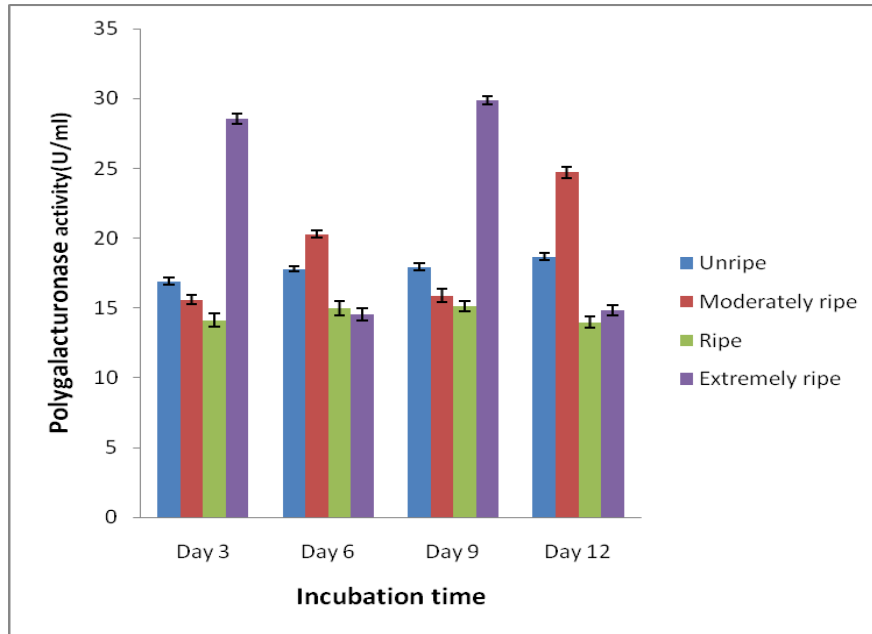


Fig. 5 : Production of polygalacturonase by *Aspergillus niger* using ripening banana peels as substrate in solid state fermentation (fresh)

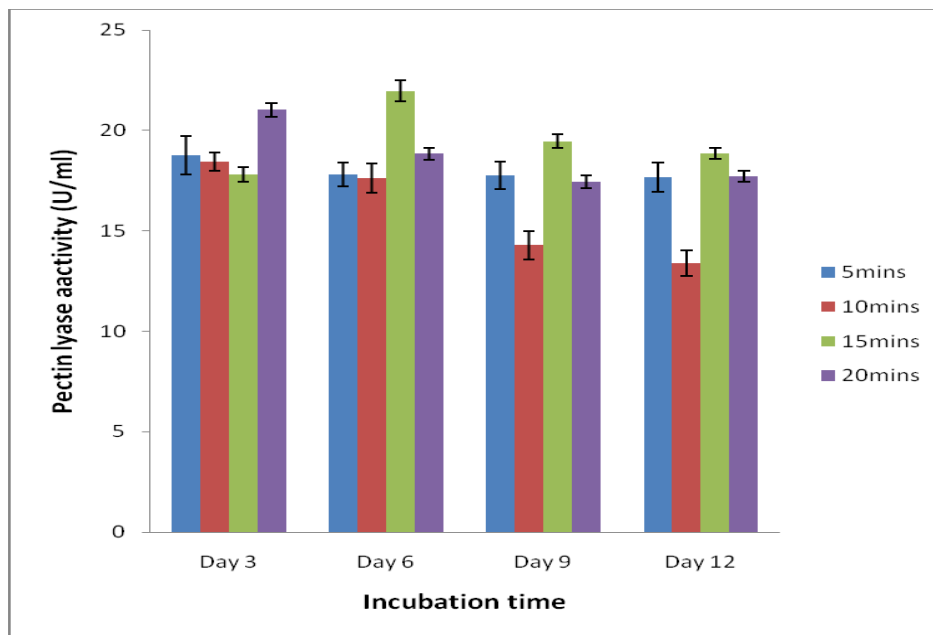


Fig. 6 : Production of Pectin lyase by *Aspergillus niger* using blanched banana peels as substrate in solid state fermentation (fresh)

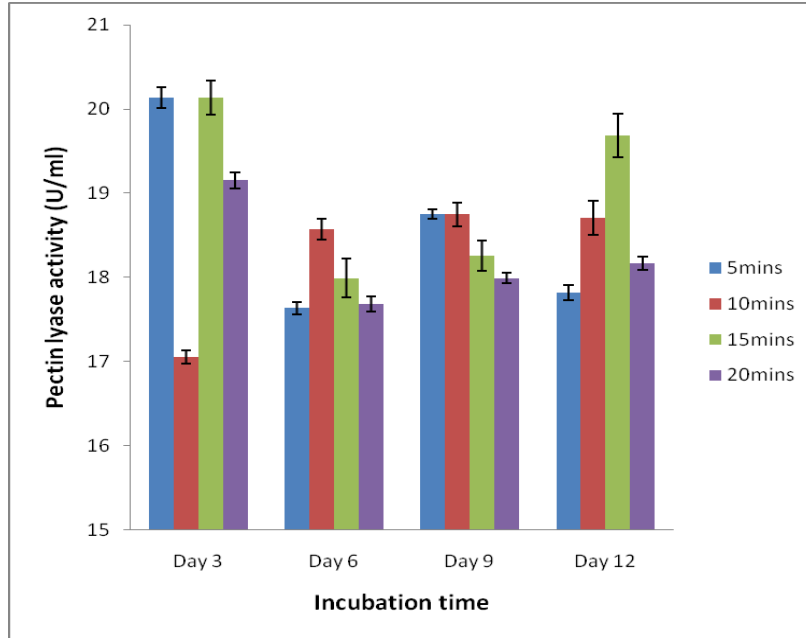


Fig.7 : Production of Pectin lyase by *Aspergillus niger* using banana peels treated with ashes as substrate in solid state fermentation

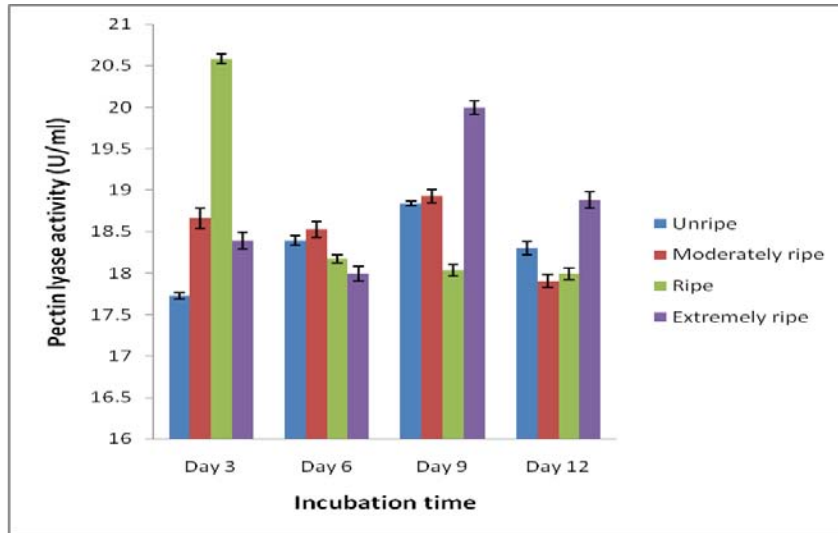


Fig.8 : Production of Pectin lyase by *Aspergillus niger* using ripening banana peels as substrate in solid state fermentation (fresh)

VII. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Three different *Aspergillus niger* were isolated from banana peels in Ibadan metropolis as strain A-C. The best pectinolytic activity based on screening method was given by strain B. The present study shows that the strain of *A. niger* produce pectinases which hydrolyze pectins. *Aspergillus niger* isolated was reported to produce cellulases (Chinedu *et al.*, 2008 a; Nwodo-Chinedu *et al.*, 2007a) and xylanases (Chinedu *et al.*, 2008b; Okafor *et al.*, 2007a, b). Thus, this fungus produce the full complement of enzymes required for the hydrolysis of pectinolytic biomass. This explains why the fungi thrive on waste plant matter and are capable of utilizing such waste materials as carbon sources in their culture media (Nwodo-Chinedu *et al.*, 2007 b). Pectinase production from Solid state fermentation (SSF) culture of this organism was significantly higher than that obtained by submerged fermentation (SmF). The higher level of pectinase activity by SSF is observed in polygalacturonase and pectin lyase. Several workers proposed the use of SSF for pectinase production, using different solid agricultural and agro-industrial residues as substrates such as wheat bran banana peels and soy bran (Castilho *et al.*, 1999, 2000; Singh *et al.*, 1999). The present result clearly supports the use of SSF over SmF for pectinases production by filamentous fungi.

Lignocellulosic waste of Banana plant left over otherwise for natural degradation in field was effectively used as component in the medium for the production of enzymes (Baig *et al.*, 2003). Subsequently these enzymes produced on the medium containing banana agro waste can be further implicated in the saccharification of the same agro waste. Many researchers have studied the effect of agrowaste pre-treatment by alkali or steam (Okeke and Obi, 1994; Kirk and Farrel, 1987; Durand *et al.*, 1984; Waldron and Eveleigh, 1986; Ekhlund *et al.*, 1990)

In conclusion, *Aspergillus niger* isolated from banana peels from Ibadan metropolis, Nigeria is a pectinolytic fungi. Banana peels had been identified as a suitable low-cost substrate for pectinase production by the strains of *A. niger*. Higher levels of pectinase activity were obtained by SSF compared to SmF. The use of banana peels for pectinase production will not only reduce the production costs of the enzyme but also help decrease pollution-load due to the agro-industrial waste. Banana peels offer a good medium for the production of pectinase and *Aspergillus niger* can be used for large scale production of pectinase using banana peels and when they were subjected to different treatments pectinase production was higher than when the peels were not treated at all.

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Protective role of *sphaeranthus amaranthoides* on hepatic marker enzymes

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Abstract - The ethanolic extract of *Sphaeranthus amaranthoides* at an oral dosage 500mg/kg body weight exhibited a significant protection against D-galactosamine induced liver damage. *Sphaeranthus amaranthoides* showed hepatoprotective activity by reducing a D-galactosamine induced alteration in biochemical changes, that was evident by examination of the levels of hepatic marker enzymes. The plant extract may interfere with free radical formation or it may exert antioxidant activity which may result in hepatoprotective action.

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PROTECTIVE ROLE OF SPHAERANTHUSAMARANTHOIDESONHEPATIC MARKER ENZYMES

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Protective role of *sphaeranthus amaranthoides* on hepatic marker enzymes

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Abstract - The ethanolic extract of *Sphaeranthus amaranthoides* at an oral dosage 500mg/kg body weight exhibited a significant protection against D-galactosamine induced liver damage. *Sphaeranthus amaranthoides* showed hepatoprotective activity by reducing a D-galactosamine induced alteration in biochemical changes, that was evident by examination of the levels of hepatic marker enzymes. The plant extract may interfere with free radical formation or it may exert antioxidant activity which may result in hepatoprotective action.

Keywords : hepatic marker enzymes; *sphaeranthus amaranthoides*; ethanol; D-galactosamine; hepatotoxicity; hepatoprotective activity; antioxidant activity.

I. INTRODUCTION

Liver, a vital organ of the body plays a pivotal role in regulating various physiological processes. It is also involved in several vital functions, such as metabolism, secretion and storage. The liver has a paramount importance in the maintenance and regulation of the homeostasis of the body. Liver can also detoxify the xenobiotics and antibiotics (Ahsan et al., 2009). Any hepatic damage leads to the distortion of these metabolic functions. Unfortunately, the conventional or synthetic drugs used in the treatment of liver diseases are inadequate and sometimes have serious side effects on the other organs. Herbal drugs or their extracts are prescribed for treatment of liver diseases widely, though their biological active compounds are unknown (Gupta et al., 2005). Herbal drugs speed up the natural healing process of liver. Thus growing interest on the herbal plants continues due to their effectiveness and safety in treatment of liver diseases.

The plant *sphaeranthus amaranthoides* (asteraceae) is called as sivakarantai in Tamil. It is weed in paddy field. This plant reported to possess a variety of medicinal properties (swarnalatha et al 2009). *Sphaeranthus amaranthoides* possesses the antimicrobial activity, anti diarrheal activity (swarnalatha et al 2009). *Sphaeranthus amaranthoides* also showed wound healing activity (swarnalatha et al 2009).

Anticancerous activity of *sphaeranthus amaranthoides* was reported from the whole plant (swarna latha et al 2011). The phytochemical analysis of ethanol extracts of the plant revealed the presence of flavonoids, phenolics, tannins, steroids and glycosides (swarna latha et al 2009). The current pharmacological study determines the efficacy of hepatoprotective activity of *Sphaeranthus amaranthoides* against D-galactosamine induced hepatotoxicity. Hepatitis induced by D-galactosamine (D-galn) have been reported to show many metabolic and morphological changes in the liver of experimental animals which is similar to the viral hepatitis. The mode of action of is attributed to peroxidation of endogenous lipid and loss of plasma lipid membrane integrity (Ananham et al 1998, Kucera et al/2006).

II. MATERIALS AND METHODS

a) Plant material

The plant *Sphaeranthus amaranthoides* was collected from the Sengottai, Tirunelveli, Tamil Nadu, India. The plant material was identified and authenticated by Mr. V.Chelladurai, Retired Research officer-botany, Central Council For Research In Ayurveda and Sidha (C.C.R.A.S). Govt. of India, Tirunelveli. The Collected plant material was free from diseases and also free from contamination of other plants.

b) Preparation of Plant extract

About 1 Kg of powdered material was taken in a clean, flat bottomed glass container and Soaked in petroleum ether to remove the pigments. Then the plant material is transferred into 2.75lt of 95% ethanol. The container with its contents was sealed and kept for a period of 7 days accompanying occasional shaking and stirring. The whole mixture then underwent a coarse filtration by a piece of clean, white cotton material. Then it was filtered through Whatman filter paper no.42. The filtrate (ethanol extract) obtained was evaporated using rotary evaporator under reduced pressure. It rendered a gummy concentrate of reddish black color. The gummy concentrate was designated as crude extract of ethanol. The extract was transferred to a closed container for further use and protection. The extract obtained was 14 % (w/w) of dry powder. This extract is given to the rats by mixing in a Tween 80.

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c) Experimental animals

The experimental animals were divided into four groups of six animals each. Group 1 served as control, group II animals were intraperitoneally injected with D-galN (500mg/kg, dissolved in saline for 1day) for induction of hepatitis as described by Deaciue *et. al.*, (1993). Group III animals were pretreated with plant extract alone for 21 days(500mg/kg). Group IV animals were orally pretreated with plant extract(500mg/kg per day, for 21 days, dissolved in Tween 80) and then intraperitoneally injected with D-galN (500mg/kg per day) for one day.

d) D-galactosamine induced hepatotoxicity

D-galactosamine was obtained from SRL laboratories. Animals of the test groups were given the plants extracts in Tween 80 prior to the administration of D-galactosmine for 21 days. The control group received normal diet alone The biochemical parameters were determined 24 h after the D-galactosamine challenge or administration

e) Assessment of liver function

Rats of all groups were anaesthetized by diethyl ether, 24h after the administration of hepatotoxin. The blood was obtained from all groups of rats by puncturing retro-orbital plexus. The blood samples were allowed to clot for 45 min at room temperature. Serum was separated by centrifugation at 2500 rpm at 30°C for 15 min and analyzed for various biochemical parameters:

Alanine aminotransferatse, aspartate aminotransferase and acidific transferase were assayed by the method of (king J 1965) he enzyme activity was expressed as μ moles of pyruvate liberated per min/mg protein. ALP was assayed by the method of (Reitman S and Frankel SA, 1957). The enzyme activity is expressed as IU/l for plasma and μ moles of phenol liberated per min/mg protein for tissue LDH was assayed according to method of Rosalki and Rau (32), and its activity is expressed as IU/l for plasma and μ moles of pyruvate liberated per min/mg protein for tissue. The assay of GGT was carried out by the method of (Malloy E and Evelyn K, 1987)

f) Statistical analysis

Results of the biochemical estimations are reported as mean S.E.M.Total variation, present in a setof data was estimated by one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA), Student's t-test was used for determining significance (Woolson,1987).

group ($p < 0.001$). The results for hepatoprotective marker enzymes are shown in the table. Pretreatment of the rats with ethnolic extract of *sphaeranthus amaranthoides* at 500mg/kg body weight induced significant decrease in the serum enzymes level($P < 0.001$),($P < 0.01$).when compared with D-GalN treated rats.

The liver marker enzymes (ALT, AST, ACP, ALP, GGT and LDH) are cytoplasmic in nature upon injury these enzymes enter in to the circulatory system due to the altered permeability of membrane (Zimmerman and Seeff, 1970). D-GalN is a well-established hepatotoxicant that induces a diffuse type of liver injury morphologically and functionally closely resembling human viral hepatitis (Decker and Keppler 1972). GalN causes the hepatic injury with spotty hepatocyte necrosis and marked elevation portal and parenchymal infiltration (Keppler and Decker, 1969). Galactosamine also causes depletion of uridine diphosphate (UDP) by increase the formation of UDP-sugar derivatives, which results in inhibition of RNA and protein synthesis leading to cell membrane deterioration(Decker et al 1973, Elmofty et al 1975). This results in the disruption of the plasma membrane causing leakage of the enzymes from cell, (Naik and Panda, 2007) which leads to elevation in serum levels of ALT, AST, ACP, ALP, GGT and LDH is consistent with a number of earlier reports (Muntae et al 2000, Wills and Asha 2006 and Zhou et al 2008). The increase in plasma LDH level indicates the necrosis of hepatocytes (Quintero et al 2002). Further intense galactosamination of membrane structure is thought to be responsible for loss of activity of ionic pumps. The impairment in the calcium pump with consequent increase in the intracellular calcium is considered to be responsible for cell death(Tsai et al., 1997).

The hepatocellular damage leads to the raise in the ALT which is followed by AST raise in the serum (Rao et al., 1989). It has been shown that pretreatment with plant extract exerts its protective action against D-GalN induced liver injury by impairment of D-GalN mediated lipid peroxidation, either through decreased production of free radical derivatives or due to the antioxidant activity of the protective agent itself (Naik and Panda, 2007). In the present study the structural integrity of the hepatocellular membrane was preserved by *sphaeranthus amaranthoides* as evidenced by the decrease in the marker enzyme levels when compared with the D-GalN treated rats.. This concludes that the crude ethanolic extracts of *sphaeranthus amaranthoides* showed a potent protective effect on D-galN induced acute liver toxicity.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Intraperitoneal administration of D-galactosamine led to significant increase the serum enzymes level by 2-3 fold as compared to the normal control

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Effect of *S.amarathoides* on the levels of hepatic marker enzymes

Parameters	Group I Control	Group II D-GalN intoxicated	Group II <i>S.amaranthoides</i> treated	Group IV D-GalN+ <i>S.amaranthoides</i> treated
ALT	114.2 ± 12.9	274.4 ± 26.9***	115.9 ± 12.31 ^{NS}	138.2 ± 12.9***
AST	86.9 ± 9.1	189.9 ± 19.3***	86.8 ± 9.10 ^{NS}	95.4 ± 9.23***
ACP	14.9 ± 2.3	36.5 ± 2.9***	15.1 ± 1.09 ^{NS}	16.6 ± 2.31***
ALP	110.5 ± 9.9	226.2 ± 22.7***	110.4 ± 9.17 ^{NS}	117.8 ± 9.91***
GGT	6.1 ± 0.29	11.20 ± 0.78***	6.21 ± 0.48 ^{NS}	7.27 ± 0.49***
LDH	220.0 ± 22.1	378.8 ± 36.7***	222.1 ± 18.9 ^{NS}	227.4 ± 24.9

Values are expressed as mean ± SD (six animals in each group).

As compared with respective controls (comparisons are made between Group II and Group I; Group III and Group I, Group IV and Group II) statistical analysis by *students t-test* ***P<0.001, ^{NS}–Non significant.

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- (d) An Introduction, giving necessary background excluding subheadings; objectives must be clearly declared.
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Topics	Grades		
	A-B	C-D	E-F
<i>Abstract</i>	Clear and concise with appropriate content, Correct format. 200 words or below	Unclear summary and no specific data, Incorrect form Above 200 words	No specific data with ambiguous information Above 250 words
<i>Introduction</i>	Containing all background details with clear goal and appropriate details, flow specification, no grammar and spelling mistake, well organized sentence and paragraph, reference cited	Unclear and confusing data, appropriate format, grammar and spelling errors with unorganized matter	Out of place depth and content, hazy format
<i>Methods and Procedures</i>	Clear and to the point with well arranged paragraph, precision and accuracy of facts and figures, well organized subheads	Difficult to comprehend with embarrassed text, too much explanation but completed	Incorrect and unorganized structure with hazy meaning
<i>Result</i>	Well organized, Clear and specific, Correct units with precision, correct data, well structuring of paragraph, no grammar and spelling mistake	Complete and embarrassed text, difficult to comprehend	Irregular format with wrong facts and figures
<i>Discussion</i>	Well organized, meaningful specification, sound conclusion, logical and concise explanation, highly structured paragraph reference cited	Wordy, unclear conclusion, spurious	Conclusion is not cited, unorganized, difficult to comprehend
<i>References</i>	Complete and correct format, well organized	Beside the point, Incomplete	Wrong format and structuring

INDEX

A

acetoacetate · 38, 41, 47
acetylation · 35
amaranthoides · 2, 69, 71, 72, 73
aminotransferase · 71
Ammonium · 2, 3, 5, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12
Aspergillus · 2, 49, 51, 53, 55, 56, 57, 59, 61, 63, 65, 66, 67
autoclaving · 51

B

benzophenone · 38
Biologically · 2, 31, 33, 35, 37, 38, 40, 41, 42, 43, 44, 45, 46, 47, 48

C

celicious · 15
Chemoenzymatic · 44
chromium · 15
Covellite · 3, 6, 7
cyanoacetamide · 42, 43, 44

D

depolymerases · 50
Derivatives · 2, 31, 33, 35, 37, 38, 40, 41, 42, 43, 44, 45, 46, 47, 48
dichloromethane · 21, 23, 25, 27, 28
dimethoxyacetaldehyde · 44

E

Electrochemical · 2, 3, 5, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12

G

galvanostatic · 3, 5
Gasoline · 2, 13, 14, 15, 17, 19, 20

H

Halomethanes · 21
hepatocellular · 71
hepatoprotective · 69, 71, 72
hydroxypropionitrile · 33, 37

I

Isocyanoacetonitrile · 35

L

Lignocellulosic · 65
lubricant · 13, 15

M

manganese · 15, 17
Methrohm · 14
morphology · 3, 6

P

parabolic · 23
pectinolytic · 49, 50, 51, 52, 53, 65, 68
Pectinolytic · 2, 49, 51, 52, 53, 55, 57, 59, 61, 63, 65, 67, 68
Penicillium · 66, 67
pharmaceutical · 42
phosphonoacetate · 45
phthalimidopropionitrile · 37, 38
phytochrome · 31, 32, 44, 46
polyethylene · 4
polygalacturonase · 49, 51, 52, 53, 55, 57, 59, 61, 65
Polygalacturonase · 53
porphobilinogen · 31, 32, 33, 35, 37

S

Spectrochimica · 17, 18
spectrometry · 13, 17, 18
sphaeranthus · 2, 69, 71, 72, 73
sulphides · 3

T

Tetracyanoethylene · 2, 21, 23, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29, 30
tetrapyrrole · 32, 33, 37, 47
thermodynamic · 21, 23
thermogravimetry · 18
thermostable · 67
thiocuprates · 3
Tosylmethyl · 35
Trichloroacetic · 40
trichloromethane · 21, 23, 25, 26, 29

V

voltammogram · 4, 5, 7, 8



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