



REVIEW

# The Search for Putative Hits in Combating Leishmaniasis: The Contributions of Natural Products Over the Last Decade

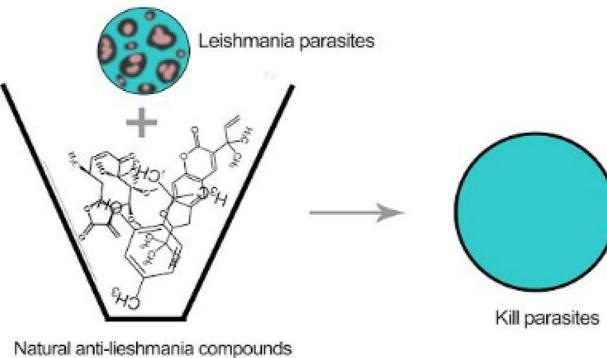
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## Abstract

Despite advancements in the areas of omics and chemoinformatics, potent novel biotherapeutic molecules with new modes of actions are needed for leishmaniasis. The socioeconomic burden of leishmaniasis remains alarming in endemic regions. Currently, reports from existing endemic areas such as Nepal, Iran, Brazil, India, Sudan and Afghanistan, as well as newly affected countries such as Peru, Bolivia and Somalia indicate concerns of chemoresistance to the classical antimonial treatment. As a result, effective antileishmanial agents which are safe and affordable are urgently needed. Natural products from both flora and fauna have contributed immensely to chemotherapy and serve as vital sources of new chemical agents. This review focuses on a systematic cross-sectional view of all characterized anti-leishmanial compounds from natural sources over the last decade. Furthermore, IC<sub>50</sub>/EC<sub>50</sub>, cytotoxicity and suggested mechanisms of action of some of these natural products are provided. The natural product classification includes alkaloids, terpenes, terpenoids, and phenolics. The plethora of reported mechanisms involve calcium channel inhibition, immunomodulation and apoptosis. Making available enriched data pertaining to bioactivity and mechanisms of natural products complement current efforts geared towards unraveling potent leishmanicides of therapeutic relevance.

## Graphic Abstract



**Keywords** Chemotherapeutics · Chemoinformatics · Natural products · Cytotoxicity · Leishmaniasis · Phenotypic screening

## 1 Introduction

The debilitating rate of parasitic infections in the tropical and subtropical regions of developing countries has become alarming [1]. Vector-borne neglected tropical diseases and related synergistic co-infections, particularly leishmaniasis are very challenging and sophisticated to treat [2]. This

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is partly due to the existence of diverse parasitic species with different bionomics and sophisticated overlap between virulent factors. Activated immune response during disease exacerbation coupled with emerging resistance by both parasites and vectors against various treatment regimens have also contributed to this challenge [2, 3].

*Leishmania*, the etiological agent of leishmaniasis, is transmitted globally by over 90 different female sand-fly species of the Phlebotomus family, spread across 98 countries and four continents, with annual estimates of 1 million new cases and 30,000 deaths as at 2017 [2, 4]. The exact disease burden is unknown, but statistics indicate that over 350 million people are at risk, signifying a prominent public health risk [2, 5, 6].

Leishmaniasis is curable if the disease is diagnosed early and the appropriate medication is administered. Typically, leishmaniasis is initially marked by dermotropic ulcers, which then progress into the visceral tissues, resulting in a late and more debilitating condition that can often lead to death if left untreated. In some cases, the destruction of the mucocutaneous membrane especially the nose, throat, and mouth have also been very common [2]. The degree of clinical outcome and its corresponding immunopathology depends primarily on the type of causative species, age of host, and the balance between the host immune response and how the parasites subvert these defense mechanisms. In cases where the victim's immune system is strong, *Leishmania* pathogens behave as opportunists by remaining dormant until the host's immunity is compromised. Additionally, when the host is immunosuppressed, relapses are usually prevalent resulting in treatment failures.

Some challenges associated with the management of leishmaniasis include systemic toxicity of administrated drugs, high cost of existing therapeutic options, lengthy treatment periods and drug resistance. Furthermore, confounding factors such as parasite diversity has hampered various intervention strategies and halted global efforts, necessitating an immediate search for new drug leads for development as the next generation of antileishmanial agents [7–9]. In lieu of this, the review seeks to bring to the fore the various classes of natural products recently discovered with antileishmanial potentials over the last decade. Even though, the review primarily reported compounds with potent bioactivity, few with low potency were reported since these could be optimized or their scaffolds may serve as skeletons for the development of future leishmanicides.

## 1.1 Trends in leishmanial chemotherapy and current panorama

Protection against leishmaniasis started with mimicking natural immunity through live inoculations [10] until modernized techniques including killed promastigotes and knocked

out parasites came into play. Unfortunately, the presence of persistent lesions and the difficulty in estimating their efficacy rendered these approaches less effective [10, 11]. Efforts to alleviate leishmaniasis via chemotherapy include the use of pentavalent antimonial, which was essentially a small tartrate complex of antimony first reported in 1925 by Brahmachari [12, 13]. Although, antimoniate ( $Sb^V$ ) is still active after reduction by arsenate reductase to  $Sb^{III}$ , *Leishmania* parasites are also susceptible to  $Sb^V$  via oxidative stress.

Gene amplification studies involving the Adenosine Triphosphate (ATP) binding cassette transporters including the multi-resistance proteins that act as efflux pumps have been shown to contribute to antimony resistance in clinical isolates [14, 15]. Likewise, deletions of aquaporin membrane carrier genes and phenotypic changes of the parasite with subsequent induced effects on the microbicide activity and the efflux rate of antimony reaching the macrophages also contribute to the resistance [16].

In the mid-1960's pentamidine became the second choice to antimony resistant strains [17]. However, its utility like the antimonial was hampered due to severe vasomotor side effects and complex interactions with the pancreas which leads to the destruction of  $\beta$ -cells causing diabetes mellitus [17].

In the quest to expedite the time it takes for drugs to reach the market, strategies such as deciphering the cellular similarities between disease causing pathogens from phenotypic screening were developed. In the early 1960s, the anti-fungal amphotericin B from *Streptomyces nodosus* was used for treating leishmaniasis [18, 19]. This choice was widely accepted in most endemic areas due to its efficacy but not so in other areas especially East Africa (*L. donovani*) and South America (*L. infantum*) [20].

The anticancer agent alkyl phosphocholine (miltefosine) was the first oral formulation with strong protection against visceral leishmaniasis. Miltefosine works by modulating an apoptosis process induced by mitochondria membrane depolarization and phospholipid biosynthesis inhibition [21]. The main drawback in administering miltefosine for leishmaniasis treatment includes longer elimination time, lengthy treatment course, and miscarriage in pregnant patients after use [22].

A new and simple formulation of an old antibiotic paromomycin which inhibited translation with different modes of application (enteral, parenteral and topical) was also repurposed for leishmaniasis in 1967 [23, 24]. Unlike the other treatment options, paromomycin's toxic effects are very minimal, but its efficacy is quite poor. New optimum carriers targeting pathogen macrophage using albumin has recently been reported to increase efficiency [25].

Following the failure of miltefosine, a collaboration between the Walter Reed Army Institute of Research

(WRAIR, USA) and GlaxoSmithKline (UK) identified sitamaquine as a promising alternative, but its apparent loss of efficacy in tegumentary leishmaniasis limited its use [26]. Subsequently, findings from amphotericin B use and its high curative rate in patients influenced another repurposing strategy using the oral anti-fungal azoles (fluconazole, itraconazole, and ketoconazole) as suitable control and cost-effective therapy [27, 28].

Due to the therapeutic challenges, new chemotypes with high potency in tandem with immunostimulatory activity targeting new proteins applicable to both visceral and cutaneous leishmaniasis cases are desperately needed.

## 1.2 Natural products as possible sources of new drugs against leishmaniasis

The lack of effective vaccines for control and concerted elimination campaign [2], and recent snail paced progress on leishmanial vaccine development does not guarantee any optimism. With the advancements in synthetic organic chemistry, combinatorial chemistry, and computational de novo drug discovery strategies, as well as high throughput screening techniques, only a few synthetically constructed drugs have been useful in combating leishmaniasis. Even with this, few natural product scaffolds represent major pharmacophores responsible for their curative effects. Between 2005 and 2010, about 19 natural products were registered for treatment of infectious diseases [29]. Similarly, over 69% of new small molecules used for the treatment of infectious diseases originated from natural products [30, 31].

Despite the large molecular weights of natural products which renders some of them less druglike, structural diversity, large chemical space and safety are characteristics that overrides synthetic alternatives. Treatments using extracts from plant families from endemic regions include *Fabaceae* [32], *Annonaceae*, *Euphorbiaceae* [31, 33, 34], *Rutaceae* [35–37], *Myrsinaceae* [31, 38], *Liliaceae* [39], *Araliaceae* [38], *Simaroubaceae* [40], as well as endophytes genera *Alternaria* [41], *Arthrinium*, *Penicillium*, *Cochloibus*, *Fusarium*, *Colletotrichum*, and *Gibberella* [42]. Additionally, the exploration of marine natural products has led to the identification of interesting natural products with diverse biomolecular functions [43, 44].

Since the mid-eighties when the search for anti-leishmanial natural products became prominent, numerous metabolites originating from plants to current antileishmanial therapies have been reported. Lately, credible chemical entities from marine sources and endophytic species have also been reviewed [45–51]. This review presents the various classes of natural products from both flora and fauna that have been isolated over the last decade with anti-leishmanial properties. Also, the IC<sub>50</sub>/EC<sub>50</sub> values and suggested mechanisms of action of these natural products are discussed.

## 1.3 Classification of natural products with anti-leishmania properties

### 1.3.1 Alkaloids

Among the characterized bioactive constituents from nature, alkaloids have provided a broad-spectrum activity against different ailments and demonstrated their suitability as potential drug leads. Phenotypic alterations in ultrastructure form of the infective cells and immunomodulatory investigation studies of isolated alkaloids within the last decade reveal 27 alkaloids (Table 1) with varying efficacies from strong to weak activity. The natural product **3** isolated from *Cissampelos sympodialis* acts as a calcium channel inhibitor with immunomodulatory effects through the enhancement of nitric oxide (NO) production in macrophages [52]. Studies of **4** from *Croton pullei* reported significant alterations in organelle membranes of the endoplasmic reticulum, kinoplast and golgi body, depicting an apoptosis-like process [53]. Treatment with spectaline alkaloids, **16** and **17** from dichloromethane fractions of the flower *Senna spectabilis* of *Leishmania* promastigotes also portray a similar molecular mechanism like its structurally related piperine amide alkaloid, which either modulates the sterol biosynthetic pathway or acts as an inhibitor of cell proliferation by mitochondrion organelle destruction [54]. Although, the exact mode of action has not been fully elucidated, **21** from *Berberine vulgaris* like the active alkaloid in *Berberine aristata* perpetuates a similar activity through respiration incapacitation and apoptosis [55]. However, **21** was identified as a potential cell membrane disruptor via sterol biosynthesis inhibition [56], while **22** induces reactive oxygen species (ROS) generation. Structural activity relation (SAR) studies of high affinity protein kinase inhibitors, staurosporine-based compounds (**24–27**) revealed the 4th C methyl amine and 7th C hydrogen acceptor as the cause for the reinforced activity observed in *L. donovani*, which had major morphological changes in the flagella pocket and plasma membrane because of signal blockage via phosphokinase (PK) inhibition.

### 1.3.2 Phenolics

As characterized by hydroxy-phenyl groups, polyphenolics are widely distributed in nature and have been isolated from different plants. In traditional medicine phenolics have received much interest in phyto-therapeutics for the treatment of ailments ranging from non-infectious to infectious diseases. These chemotypes include compounds like coumarins, flavonoids, quinones, lignans, flavone glycosides amongst others (Table 2). Flavonoids from *Selaginella sellowi* when tested against different forms of *Leishmania* revealed a pro-drug mechanism for **28** but an activated NO generation for **29** [70]. The difference in the mode of action

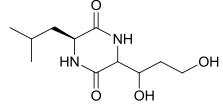
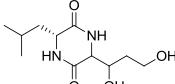
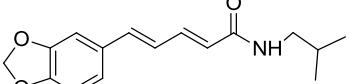
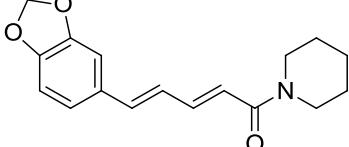
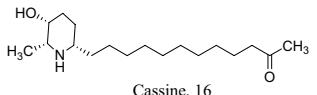
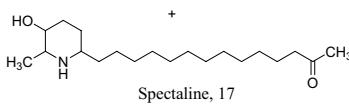
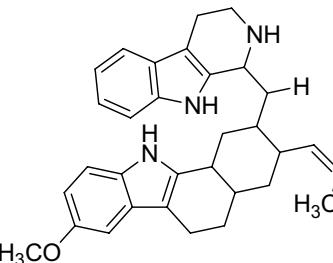
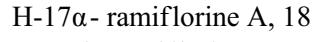
**Table 1** 23 alkaloids isolated from various flora and fauna together with their IC<sub>50</sub> and toxicity tested on some *Leishmania* species

Natural product source	Chemical structure	Class of natural product	IC <sub>50</sub> /μg/mL	Organism tested	Toxicology	References
<i>Paenibacillus</i> sp. (Marine)		Imidazole	28.1	<i>L. donovani</i> (Promastigote)	Low toxicity profiles to mouse macrophages RAW 264.7 cell lines. > 250 μM	[57]
<i>Paenibacillus</i> sp. (Marine)		Imidazole	0.203 1.90	<i>L. major</i> (Promastigote) <i>L. donovani</i> (Promastigote)	MIC = 25 μM	[58]
<i>Cissampelos sympodialis</i>		Isoquino-line	80.0	<i>L. chasi</i> (Promastigote)	IC <sub>50</sub> = 0.056 μM against human laryngeal cancer cells (HEP-2cells) and 0.067 μM against human mucoepide cells (NCIH-292)	[52]
<i>Croton pullei</i> var. <i>glabrior</i>		Piperidine	6.27	<i>L. amazonensis</i> (Amastigote)	Nontoxic as against murine macrophages after treatment with 79 μM of julocrotine	[53]

**Table 1** (continued)

Natural product source	Chemical structure	Class of natural product	IC <sub>50</sub> /μg/mL	Organism tested	Toxicology	References
<i>Aconitum spicatum</i>		Pyrrolidine		<i>L. major</i>	No toxicity against MCF7, HeLa, PC3 cancer cell lines and 3T3 normal fibroblast cell line at 30 μM	[59]
			56.0			
			36.1			
	Chasmacotine, R <sub>1</sub> =R <sub>2</sub> =OAc, 5 Ludaconitine, R <sub>1</sub> =OH, R <sub>2</sub> =OH, 6					
<i>Helietta apiculata</i>		Quinoline	17.3	<i>L. donovani</i>		[60]
	Fagarine, 7					
		Quinoline	25.5			
	Maculine, 8					
<i>Thalictrum alpinum</i>		Isoquinoline	0.175 0.639 6.60	<i>L. donovani</i>		[61]
	Northalrugosidine, R <sub>1</sub> =R <sub>2</sub> =H, 9 Thalrugosidine, R <sub>1</sub> =Me, R <sub>2</sub> =H, 10 Thalidasine, R <sub>1</sub> =R <sub>2</sub> =Me, 11					

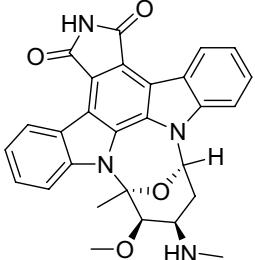
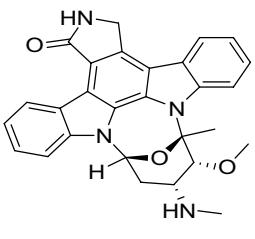
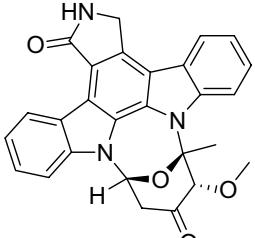
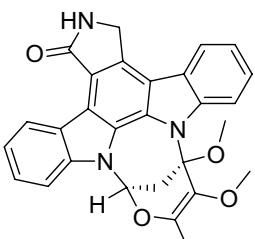
**Table 1** (continued)

Natural product source	Chemical structure	Class of natural product	$IC_{50}/\mu\text{g/mL}$	Organism tested	Toxicology	References
<i>Trichospermum</i> sp.		Piperazine	96.3	<i>L. donovani</i>		[62]
	(6S)-3-(1,3-dihydroxypropyl)-6-(2-methylpropyl)piperazine-2,5-dione, 12					
		Piperazine	82.5	<i>L. donovani</i>		
	(6R)-3-(1,3-dihydroxypropyl)-6-(2-methylpropyl)piperazine-2,5-dione, 13					
<i>Piper choba</i>		Amide	16.0	<i>L. donovani</i> (Promastigotes)	$CC_{50} = 0.76 \mu\text{M}$ and $0.83 \mu\text{M}$ against brine shrimp cells	[63]
	Piperlonguminine, 14					
		Amide	30.0			
	Piperine, 15					
<i>Senna spectabilis</i>		Piperidine	24.9	<i>L. major</i> (Promastigotes)	No observed lethality against J774 murine macrophage	[54]
	Cassine, 16					
						
	+ Spetaline, 17					
<i>Aspidosperma rami-florum</i>		Indole	18.5	<i>L. amazonensis</i> (Promastigotes)		[64]
	H-17 $\alpha$ - ramiflorine A, 18					
						
	H-17 $\beta$ - ramiflorine B, 19					
			12.6			

**Table 1** (continued)

Natural product source	Chemical structure	Class of natural product	IC <sub>50</sub> /μg/mL	Organism tested	Toxicology	References
<i>Beilschmiedia alloio-phylla</i>		quinoline	2.95			[65]
<i>Berberis vulgaris</i>		Isoquinoline	2.10 2.90	<i>L. major</i> <i>L. tropica</i> (Promastigotes)	Observed toxicity against murine macrophage was at 9.18 μM	[66]
<i>Piper longum</i>		Amide	9.12 2.81	<i>L. donovani</i> (promastigotes) <i>L. donovani</i> (amastigotes)	Test against J774A.1 cell line indicated a high cytotoxicity at 5.05 ± 0.64 μg/mL. 393	[67]
<i>Spongia</i> sp. and <i>Ircinia</i> sp. (Marine)		Indole	9.6		Toxicity profile against mammalian L6 cells was	[68]

**Table 1** (continued)

Natural product source	Chemical structure	Class of natural product	IC <sub>50</sub> /μg/mL	Organism tested	Toxicology	References
Streptomyces sanyensis (Marine)	 <p>7-oxostaurosporine, 24</p>	Indolocarbazole	0.0075	<i>L. amazonensis</i> (promastigotes)	The series showed low selectivity against murine macrophage J774A.1 with CC <sub>50</sub> of 5.20	[69]
			0.0012	<i>L. donovani</i> (promastigotes)		
			0.0002	<i>L. amazonensis</i> (amastigotes)		
Staurosporine, 25	 <p>Staurosporine, 25</p>	Indolocarbazole	0.00017	<i>L. amazonensis</i> (promastigotes)	8.74	
			0.0045	<i>L. donovani</i> (promastigotes)		
			0.0224	<i>L. amazonensis</i> (amastigotes)		
40-demethyl-40-oxostaurosporine, 26	 <p>40-demethyl-40-oxostaurosporine, 26</p>	Indolocarbazole	0.037	<i>L. amazonensis</i> (promastigotes)	> 40	
			> 0.089	<i>L. donovani</i> (promastigotes)		
			0.005	<i>L. amazonensis</i> (amastigotes)		
Streptocarbazole B, 27	 <p>Streptocarbazole B, 27</p>	Indolocarbazole	0.0224	<i>L. amazonensis</i> (promastigotes)	> 40	
			> 0.089	<i>L. donovani</i> (promastigotes)		

of these two flavonoids may be due to their conformational orientations. Similar investigations to understand the possible cause of apoptosis induced by **30** and **31** suggested a mitochondrial dysfunction with no influence on ROS [71]. However, evidence from suicidal action of some quercetin analogues have also indicated iron chelation, arginase inhibition, and topoisomerase II intercalation as possible mechanisms [72]. From the same *Nectandra* genus, inhibitory activity of **34** and **43** have been fully elucidated. Results indicated an inactivation of exacerbatory immunogens with reduced calcium levels and depolarized mitochondria potential [73]. Studies with similar compounds against melanoma cells indicated an apoptosis process confirming the depolarization activity [74]. Deciphering the exact mechanism underpinning the leishmanicidal action of isolated compounds from *Connarus seberosus*, it was revealed that defects in the mitochondria and plasma membrane structure with the evidence of lipid accumulation were caused by **55** and **56** [75]. Comparing **58** and its 3-*O*-methyl analog, **59**, to rosmarinic acid (based on the shared catechol nucleus), their potential mode of action is suggested as inhibition of reactive oxygen species [76, 77]. **75** as a chemo-preventive agent acts by reducing inflammatory symptoms by suppressing NF-κB expression and other pro-inflammatory factors including iNOS, COX-2, TNF-α, IL-1β, and IL-6 [78]. Compound **74** emulates an apoptosis induced suicidal mechanism which involves DNA fragmentation, inhibition of inflammation cytokines and the activation of caspases with downstream effects on gene transcriptional process [79]. Structural similarities of anti-inflammatory coumarins with **74** precludes a similar mechanism of action [80]. From the isolates of *Arrabidaea brachypoda* only **67** altered organelle structure and function by attenuating cytoplasm puncturing and golgi apparatus swellings [81].

### 1.3.3 Terpenes and terpenoids

Another group of secondary metabolites with interesting anti-parasitic activities are terpenes. Ultrastructural changes of **79** in phenotypic screenings indicated mitochondrial blebs and lipid deformities [100, 101]. **80** isolated from essential oils of *Tetradenia riparia* were found to distort promastigote structure especially the fate of its chromatin followed by an apoptosis process which is suspected to be caused by caspase activation [102, 103] (Tables 3 and 4).

Halogenated terpenes **72** and **83** from *Laurencia dendroidea* which only differ primarily in a double bond character also targets the same organelle via redox perturbation [104, 105]. The natural product **87** from *Vanillosmopsis arborea* show promising activity through apoptosis induction characterized by mitochondrial dysfunction and oxidative stress [106]. Similar mode of action was reported for **87** isolated from *Tunisia chamomile* essential oil against *L.*

*amazonensis* and *L. infantum* [107]. Effects of clerodone terpenes, **88**, **89** and **90** from the stem bark of *Croton cajucara* have been shown to obstruct ROS protection via trypanothione reductase inhibition [108].

Interest in marine natural products which led to the evaluation of marine terpenes like pentacyclic triterpene **92**, which exhibited an anti-inflammatory action with enhanced levels of T cells and Th1 cytokines when compared to its control [109].

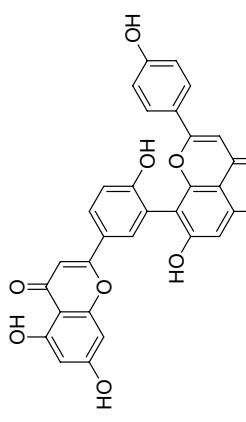
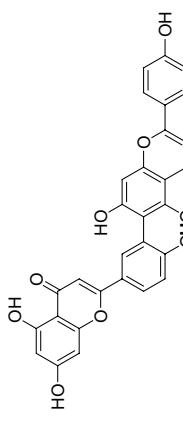
Elucidation of the exact mechanism of action of four triterpenes from the roots of *Salvia deserta* showed that despite the strong antioxidant capacity of **93**, it also kill parasites by inhibiting isopentenyl diphosphate condensation with the major target being farnesyl diphosphate synthase [110]. Studies to also understand the molecular basics of **94** shows a similar action like **80**, but fragmentation of DNA strands has been described for diterpene **95** and **96** [111, 112]. Inhibition of oxidative pathways particularly IFN-γ-related signaling by similar diterpenoid quinones isolated from the roots of *Salvia officinalis* has also been shown to prevent disease proliferation and further protecting the host specie [113]. Recent studies in estimating the role of the energy production in the form of ATP in *Leishmania* with acyl phloroglucinol derivatives has revealed **97** as a mitochondria complex II/III inhibitor [114].

Like terpenes which are formed by the head to tail condensation of isoprene units, terpenoids (terpenes with oxygen-containing functional group) also represent a unique group of natural products with high functionalization and promising pharmacological activity. Isolation of six germacranolides from the leaves and stems of the *Calea species* have shown promising activities against *L. donovani* and *L. amazonensis* [115, 116]. Among them morphological assessment studies with **100** and **111** indicated alterations in the nucleus and mitochondria describing an apoptosis like process through the mitosis motor downregulation pathway [115]. Due to the similar core structure shared with germacra-1(10),11(13)-dien-12,6-olide a similar mechanism is envisaged for its counterpart **104** by aiding in generating ROS complementing the elucidated apoptosis process. The natural product **106** shares same structural core therefore may possess similar mode of action in addition to the inhibition of thiol-antioxidant enzymes [117]. Interestingly, **106** and its iso-conformer have also been disclosed to induce a pro-inflammatory inhibition via the NF-KB pathway [118]. On the other hand, **110** and **125** have also exerted multi-spectral activities including suppression of cell proliferation modulators and upregulation of microbicidal NO species [119].

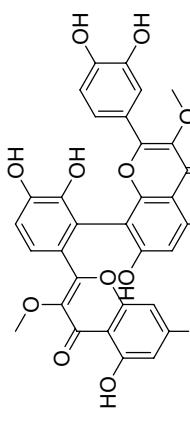
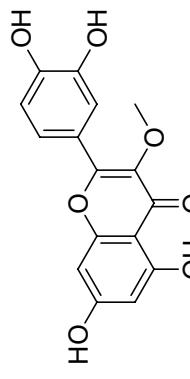
### 1.3.4 Steroids

Steroids are a class of natural or synthetic organic compounds with three six membered rings fused with a five

**Table 2** Various classes of phenolic compounds with their IC<sub>50</sub> exhibiting antileishmanial properties

Natural product source	Chemical structure	Class of phenolic	IC <sub>50</sub> /μg/mL	Organism tested	Toxicology	References
<i>Selaginella sellowii</i>		Flavonoid	0.10	<i>L. amazonensis</i>	IC <sub>50</sub> = 5.57 and 4.09 μM against Murine macrophages (J774, A1) and fibroblast cells (NH/ST3)	[70]
	Amentoflavone, 28				CC <sub>50</sub> = 5.75 and 47.4 μM against murine macrophage (J774, A1) and fibroblast cells (NH/ST3).	
		Flavonoid	2.80			
	Robustaflavone, 29					

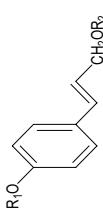
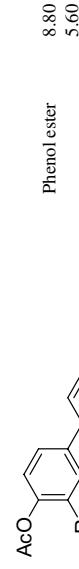
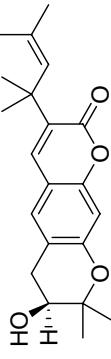
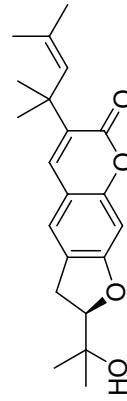
**Table 2** (continued)

Natural product source	Chemical structure	Class of phenolic	IC <sub>50</sub> /μg/mL	Organism tested	Toxicology	References
<i>Strychnos pseudoquina</i>		Flavonoid	11.9 2.02	<i>L. infantum</i> <i>L. amazonensis</i>	Low-toxicity to infected murine macrophage up to 125 μM and low hemolytic activity in red blood cells	[71]
	Strychnobiflavone, 30					
		Flavonoid	2.56	<i>L. amazonensis</i>	No significant toxicity > 199 μM	
	Quercetin 3-methyl ether, 31					

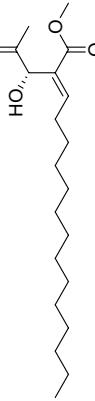
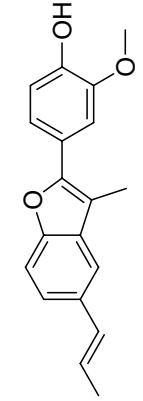
**Table 2** (continued)

Natural product source	Chemical structure	Class of phenolic	IC <sub>50</sub> /μg/mL	Organism tested	Toxicology	References
<i>Lendenfeldia dendyi</i> and <i>Simularia dura</i> (Marine)		Phenyl ether	18.0	<i>L. donovani</i> (Promastigotes)	Low toxicity profile to VERO cells, pig kidney epithelia, human dermal carcinoma oral	[82]
2,3,5-tribromo-6-(3,5-dibromo-2-methoxyphenoxy)phenol, 32		Phenyl ether	13.6	<i>L. donovani</i>	Ductile carcinoma breast, human malignant meta- noma up to 1.3 μM	[83]
<i>Nectandra leucantha</i>		Phenyl ether	8.70 6.00 34.9	<i>L. donovani</i> (Intra Amastigotes)	Nontoxic to mammalian peritoneal macrophages up to >293.8 μM 112.1 μM >292.1 μM	[83]

**Table 2** (continued)

Natural product source	Chemical structure	Class of phenolic	IC <sub>50</sub> /μg/mL	Organism tested	Toxicology	References
<i>Alpinia galanga</i>		Monolignols	10.5 16.6	<i>L. donovani</i> (Promastigotes)		[84]
	p-coumaryl diacetate R <sub>1</sub> = R <sub>2</sub> = OAc, 37 trans-p-acetoxy cinnamyl alcohol R <sub>1</sub> = OAc = R <sub>2</sub> = H, 38					
		Phenol ester	8.80 5.60			
	1'-acetoxychavicol acetate R = H, 39 1'-acetoxyeugenol acetate R = OMe, 40					
<i>Heiliella apiculata</i>		Coumarin	35.8 27.5 32.1	<i>L. amazonensis</i> <i>L. infantum</i> <i>L. braziliensis</i>		[60]
	3-(1'-dimethylallyl)-decurcisinol, 41					
		Coumarin	18.5 27.4 21.5	<i>L. amazonensis</i> <i>L. infantum</i> <i>L. braziliensis</i>		
	Heliettin, 42					

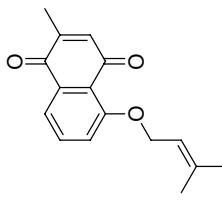
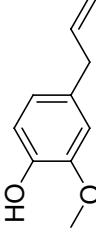
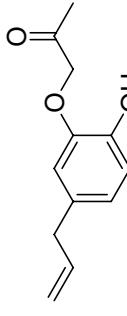
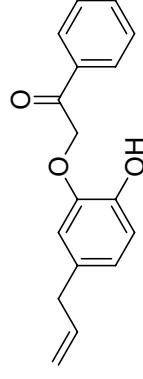
**Table 2** (continued)

Natural product source	Chemical structure	Class of phenolic	IC <sub>50</sub> /μg/mL	Organism tested	Toxicology	References
<i>Nectandra oppositifolia</i>		Butanolide	3.58		Non-toxic against NCTC cell up to 42.3 μM	[85]
<i>Piper regnellii var. pallescens</i>		Lignan	5.00	<i>L. amazonensis</i>		[86]

**Table 2** (continued)

Natural product source	Chemical structure	Class of phenolic	IC <sub>50</sub> /μg/mL	Organism tested	Toxicology	References
<i>Nectandra cuspidata</i>		Flavonoid	38.5	<i>L. amazonensis</i> (Amastigotes)	Low cytotoxicity in J774. AI macrophages	[87]
	<b>Flavan-3-epicatechin, 45</b>					
		Flavanoid	71.3			
	<b>Vitexin, 46</b>					
		Flavanoid	34.0			
	<b>Isovitetxin, 47</b>					

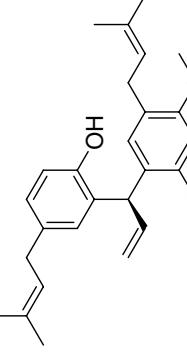
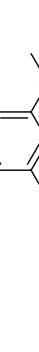
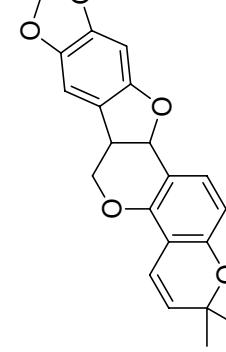
**Table 2** (continued)

Natural product source	Chemical structure	Class of phenolic	IC <sub>50</sub> /μg/mL	Organism tested	Toxicology	References
<i>Plumbago zeylanica</i>		Quinone	1.05 (EC <sub>50</sub> )	<i>L. donovani</i> (Amastigotes)	Very toxic to on RAW 264.7 macrophage cell lines	[88]
<i>Ocimum gratissimum</i>		Monolignol	0.81	<i>L. infantum</i>	Nontoxic in murine mac- rophages RAW 264.7 cells lines 29.0 μM	[89–91]
		Monolignol	18.5		>100 μM	
		Monolignol	14.9		97.7 μM	

**Table 2** (continued)

Natural product source	Chemical structure	Class of phenolic	IC <sub>50</sub> /μg/mL	Organism tested	Toxicology	References
<i>Vernonia polyanthes</i>		Quinone	50.5	<i>L. amazonensis</i> (Promastigotes)	At conc. > 52.4 μM in infected murine macrophages	[92]
	Anhydrocochlioquinone A, 52					
		Quinone	10.2			

**Table 2** (continued)

Natural product source	Chemical structure	Class of phenolic	$IC_{50}$ /μg/mL	Organism tested	Toxicology	References
<i>Communis Suberosus</i>		Chromanone	1.13	<i>L. amazonensis</i> (amastigotes)	Toxic at 18.3 μM against murine macrophages.	[75]
		4.5	<i>L. infantum</i> (promastigotes)			
		5.2	<i>L. amazonensis</i> (promastigotes)	Reduction cell viability was at 11.6 μM.		



**Table 2** (continued)

Natural product source	Chemical structure	Class of phenolic	IC <sub>50</sub> /μg/mL	Organism tested	Toxicology	References
<i>Piper aduncum</i>		Lignan	0.31	<i>L. amazonensis</i> (promastigote)	Critical changes in the morphology of 3T3 fibroblast cell lines and its viability was observed at 25 μM and above.	[93]
Dillapiole, 57			0.28	) <i>L. braziliensis</i> (promastigotes)		
<i>Hypsis pectinata</i>		Flavonoid	2.5	<i>L. braziliensis</i> (promastigotes)	N.T	[76]
Sambacaitaric acid, 58						
		Flavonoid	>36.0			
<i>Geosmithia langdonii</i>		Phenyl propene	0.05	<i>L. donovani</i> (promastigotes)	N.T	[94]
4-(2,4-dihydroxy-6(hydroxymethyl)benzyl)benzene-1,2-diol, 60						

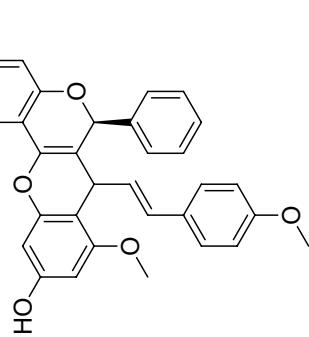
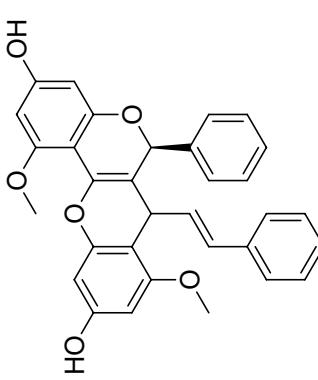
**Table 2** (continued)

Natural product source	Chemical structure	Class of phenolic	IC <sub>50</sub> /μg/mL	Organism tested	Toxicology	References
<i>Geosmithia langdonii</i>	 $(1S,2R,3R,4R,5R)-2,3,4\text{-trihydroxy-}5\text{-methylcyclohexyl-}2,5\text{-dihydroxybenzoate, 61}$	Carbasugar Carbasugar	0.34 0.20	<i>L. donovani</i> (promastigotes)	N.T	[95]

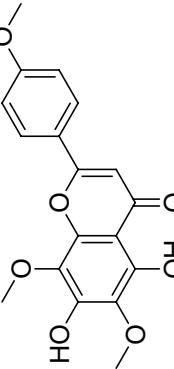
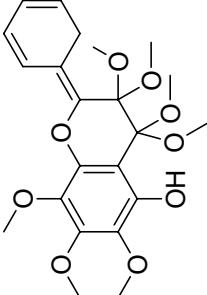
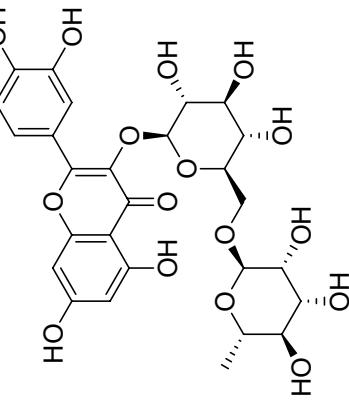
**Table 2** (continued)

Natural product source	Chemical structure	Class of phenolic	$IC_{50}/\mu\text{g/mL}$	Organism tested	Toxicology	References
<i>Ferula narthex</i>		Coumarin	43.77	<i>L. amazelonensis</i> (promastigotes)	N.T	[96]

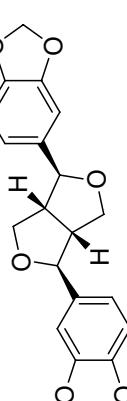
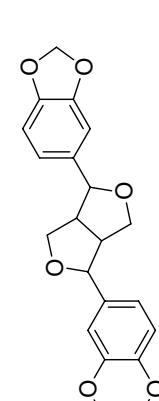
**Table 2** (continued)

Natural product source	Chemical structure	Class of phenolic	IC <sub>50</sub> /μg/mL	Organism tested	Toxicology	References
<i>Arrabidaea brachypoda</i>						
		Flavonoid	0.004	<i>L. amazonensis</i> (amastigotes)	High lethality against macrophages at concentration above 20 μM	[81]
			0.017	<i>L. amazonensis</i> (promastigotes)		
			0.013	<i>L. braziliensis</i> (promastigotes)		
			0.024	<i>L. infantum</i> (promastigotes)		
	<b>Brachydin B, 67</b>					
<i>Arrabidaea brachypoda</i>						
		Flavonoid	0.02	<i>L. amazonensis</i> (amastigotes)		
			0.017	<i>L. amazonensis</i> (promastigotes)		
			0.037	<i>L. braziliensis</i> (promastigotes)		
			0.012	<i>L. infantum</i> (promastigotes)		
	<b>Brachydin C, 68</b>					

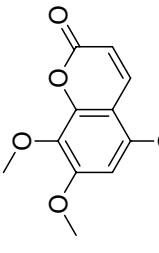
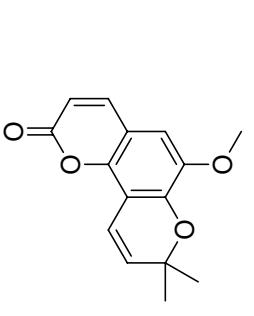
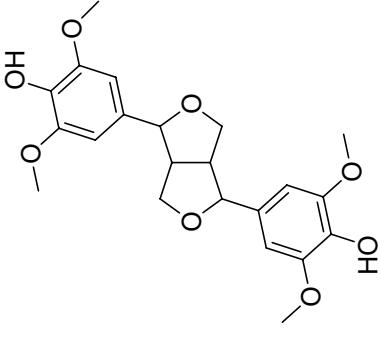
**Table 2** (continued)

Natural product source	Chemical structure	Class of phenolic	IC <sub>50</sub> /μg/ml	Organism tested	Toxicology	References
<i>Trixis antinomioea</i>		Flavonoid	78	<i>L. amazonensis</i> (promastigote)	N.T	[97]
		Flavonoid	96	<i>L. braziliensis</i> (promastigote)		
	<b>Nevadesin, 69</b>					
			19			
			5.8			
<i>Anogeissus leiocarpus</i>		Flavonoid	0.003	<i>L. donovani</i> (promastigotes)	CC <sub>50</sub> >100 μg/ml	[98]
	<b>Rutin, 71</b>					

**Table 2** (continued)

Natural product source	Chemical structure	Class of phenolic	IC <sub>50</sub> /μg/mL	Organism tested	Toxicology	References
<i>Sassafras albidum</i>		Lignan	15.8	<i>L. amazonensis</i> (Promastigote)	Non-toxic against BALB/c mouse macrophages up to 282	[36]
		Lignan	45.4		190	

**Table 2** (continued)

Natural product source	Chemical structure	Class of phenolic	IC <sub>50</sub> /μg/mL	Organism tested	Toxicology	References
<i>Zanthoxylum tingueassuba</i>		Coumarin	57.7	<i>L. amazonensis</i> (Promastigote)	N.T	[99]
		Coumarin	70.0			
		Lignan	12.0			

**Table 3** Various classes of terpenes and terpenoids with their IC<sub>50</sub> exhibiting antileishmanial properties

Natural product source	Chemical structure	Class of natural product	IC <sub>50</sub> /μg/mL	Organism tested	Toxicology	References
<i>Parinari excelsa</i>		Triterpenoid	0.05	<i>L. donovani</i> (amastigotes)	Cell viability assay with L6 cell lines revealed the lethal concentration at 73.5 μg/mL	[120]
	16-hydroxylupane-1,20(29)-dien-3-one, 77					
<i>Morinda lucida</i>		Monoterpenoid	1.17	<i>L. donovani</i> (promastigotes)		[121]
	Molucidin, 78					
<i>Canistrocarpus cervicornis</i> (Marine)		Diterpene	4.00	<i>L. amazonensis</i> (Intra Amastigotes)	Non-toxic up to 515 μM in human macrophage strains J774G8	[100]
	(4R,9S,14S)-4a-acetoxy-9b,14a-dihydroxydolast-1(15),7-diene, 79					
<i>Tetradenia riparia</i>		Sesquiterpene	2.45	<i>L. amazonensis</i> (Promastigotes)	high toxicity against mouse peritoneal macrophages = 1.69 μM	[122]
	6,7-Dehydroroyleanone, 80					

**Table 3** (continued)

Natural product source	Chemical structure	Class of natural product	$IC_{50}/\mu\text{g/mL}$	Organism tested	Toxicology	References
<i>Laurencia den-droidea</i> (Marine)		Sesquiterpene	10.8	<i>L. amazon-ensis</i> (Intra Amastigotes)	CC <sub>50</sub> in macrophages and lymph nodes in amastigotes cervical BALB/c mice 160.2 and 172.8 μM	[123]
Triquinane, 81						
		Sesquiterpene	1.50		112.9 and 120.2 μM	
Elatol, 82						
		Sesquiterpen	1.62		133.5 and 139.3 μM	
Obtusol, 83						

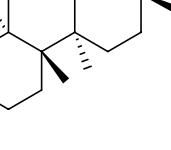
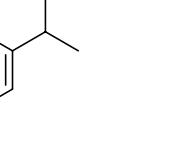
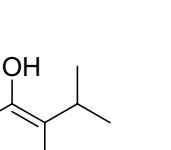
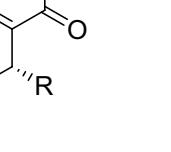
**Table 3** (continued)

Natural product source	Chemical structure	Class of natural product	$IC_{50}/\mu\text{g/mL}$	Organism tested	Toxicology	References
<i>Combretum leprotum</i>		Triterpene	3.30	<i>L. amazonensis</i> (Promastigotes)	Non-toxic against mouse peritoneal macrophages	[124]†
		Triterpene	3.48			
		Triterpene	5.80			
<i>Vanillosmopsis arborea</i>		Sesquiterpene	10.7	<i>L. amazonensis</i> (Amastigotes)	Low cytotoxicity to macrophage J774.G8 cell lines 451 μM	[106]

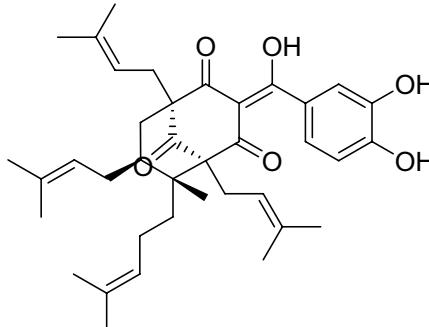
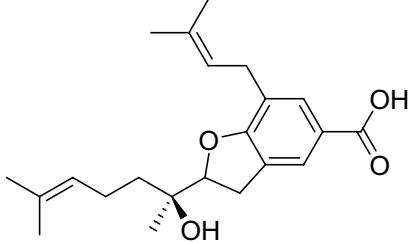
**Table 3** (continued)

Natural product source	Chemical structure	Class of natural product	$IC_{50}/\mu\text{g/mL}$	Organism tested	Toxicology	References
<i>Croton cajucara</i>		Diterpene	20.0	<i>L. amazonensis</i> (Axenic Amastigotes)		[108]
		Diterpene	41.4			
		Triterpene	58.3			
<i>Croton sylvaticus</i>		Diterpenoid	10.0	<i>L. major</i> (Promastigotes)	Observed toxicity was low at 247.83 μM	[125]
			10.0	<i>L. donovani</i> (Promastigotes)		

**Table 3** (continued)

Natural product source	Chemical structure	Class of natural product	IC <sub>50</sub> /μg/mL	Organism tested	Toxicology	References
<i>Sterculia villosa</i>		Triterpenoid	15.0	<i>L. donovani</i> (Intracellular Amastigotes)	N.T	[126]
<i>Salvia deserti</i>		Diterpenoid	0.46	<i>L. donovani</i>	N.T	[35]
		Diterpenoid	3.30			
		Diterpenoid	7.40			
		Diterpenoid	29.4			
	<b>7-O-Acetyl Horminone, R= OAc, 95</b>					
	<b>Horminone, R= H, 96</b>					

**Table 3** (continued)

Natural product source	Chemical structure	Class of natural product	IC <sub>50</sub> /μg/mL	Organism tested	Toxicology	References
<i>Garcinia acha-chairu</i>		Monoterpenoid	10.4 18.4	<i>L. amazonensis</i> <i>L. braziliensis</i>	N. T	[127]
<i>Rapanea ferruginea</i>			24.1 6.10	<i>L. amazonensis</i> <i>L. braziliensis</i>	N. T	[127]

Guttiferone A, 97

Myrsinoic acid B, 98

**Table 3** (continued)

Natural product source	Chemical structure	Class of natural product	$IC_{50}/\mu\text{g/mL}$	Organism tested	Toxicology	References
<i>Calea zacatechichi</i>		Sesquiterpene Lactone	1.89	<i>L. donovani</i>		[116]
		Sesquiterpene Lactone	0.771			
		Sesquiterpene Lactone	0.898			
		Sesquiterpene Lactone	1.74			
		Sesquiterpene Lactone	3.09			
		Sesquiterpene Lactone	1.60			

**Table 3** (continued)

Natural product source	Chemical structure	Class of natural product	$IC_{50}/\mu\text{g/mL}$	Organism tested	Toxicology	References
<i>Tanacetum parthenium</i>		Sesquiterpene Lactone	2.60	<i>L. amazonensis</i> (promastigotes)	Low toxicity towards J774G8 cells	[128]
<i>Plumeria bicolor</i>		Monoterpene lactone	0.409	<i>L. donovani</i> (Amastigotes)	$CC_{50}=20.6 \mu\text{M}$	[129]
		Monoterpene Lactone	1.19		$CC_{50}=24 \mu\text{M}$	

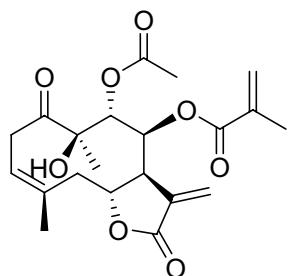
**Table 3** (continued)

Natural product source	Chemical structure	Class of natural product	$IC_{50}/\mu\text{g/mL}$	Organism tested	Toxicology	References
<i>Pseudelephantopus spicatus</i>		Sesquiterpene lactone	0.0794	<i>L. amazonensis</i>	High selectivity towards parasites as compared to mammalian cells with $>100, > 100 \mu\text{M}$ and $> 100 \mu\text{M} \mu\text{M}$ against Hela, L929 and B16F10 cell lines	[130]
	8,13-diacetyl-piptocarphol, 108				$58.5 \mu\text{M}, > 100 \mu\text{M}$ and $> 100 \mu\text{M}$ against Hela, L929 and B16F10 cell lines	
		Sesquiterpene lactone	0.142		Toxic towards RAW264.7, HONE-1, KB and HT 29 cell lines with $15.6 \mu\text{M}$ , $8.8 \mu\text{M}$ , $8.2 \mu\text{M}$ and $4.7 \mu\text{M}$ respectively	
	8-acetyl-13-O-ethyl-piptocarphol, 109					
		Triterpenoid	0.451			
	Ursolic acid, 110					

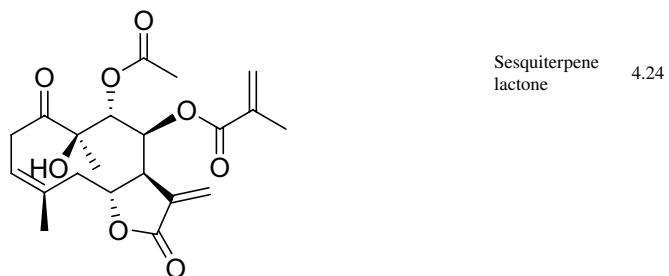
**Table 3** (continued)

Natural product source	Chemical structure	Class of natural product	$IC_{50}/\mu\text{g/mL}$	Organism tested	Toxicology	References
<i>Calea pinnatifida</i>		Sesquiterpene Lactone	1.73	<i>L. amazonensis</i> (Promastigotes)	At 4.11 $\mu\text{M}$ , toxic to J774 macrophages	[115]
		Sesquiterpene lactone	4.24	<i>L. amazonensis</i> (Amastigotes)	75.5 $\mu\text{M}$	

Calein C, 111



Calealactone C, 112



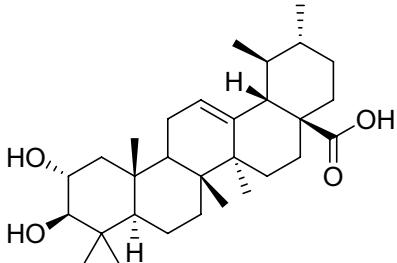
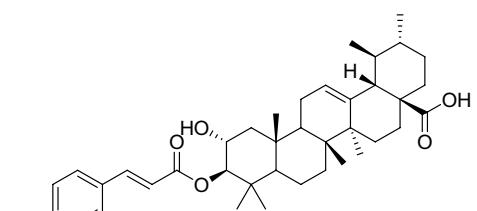
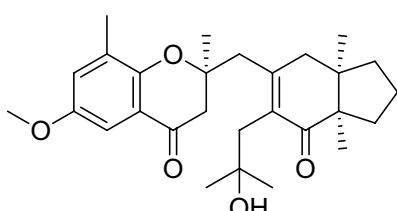
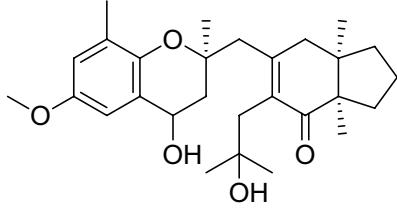
**Table 3** (continued)

Natural product source	Chemical structure	Class of natural product	$IC_{50}/\mu\text{g/mL}$	Organism tested	Toxicology	References
<i>Spongia</i> sp. and <i>Ircinia</i> sp. (Marine)		Diterpene	0.75	<i>L. donovani</i>	Toxicity profile against mammalian L6 cells was	[68]
	11 $\beta$ -acetoxy spongi-12-en-16-one, 113		9.64			
		Sesterterpene	5.60		127	
	4-hydroxy-3-octaprenylbenzoic acid, 114					
		Sesterterpene	4.80		83.1	
	Furospongin-1, 115					
		Sesterterpene	10.2		> 217	
	Demethylfurospongin-4, 116					
		Triterpene	15.9		>146	
	2-(hexaprenylmethyl)-2-methylchromenol, 117					
		Sesterterpene	14.2		>254	
	Furospinulosin-1, 118					
		Tetraterpene	18.9		4.36	
	Heptaprenyl-p-quinol, 119					

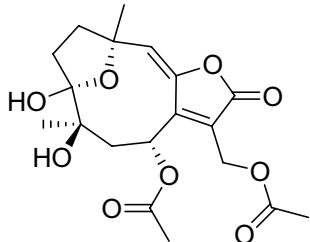
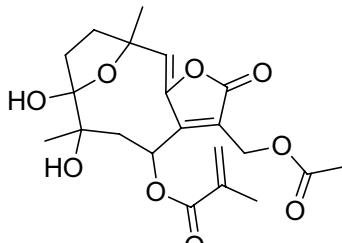
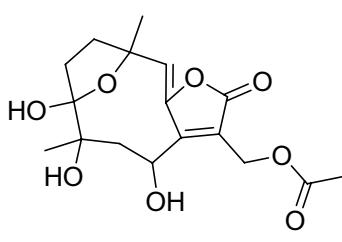
**Table 3** (continued)

Natural product source	Chemical structure	Class of natural product	IC <sub>50</sub> /μg/mL	Organism tested	Toxicology	References
<i>Baccharis tola</i>		Diterpenoid	4.60	<i>L. braziliensis</i>	All compounds showed high cytotoxicity in human U937 macro phages with values lower than 347 μM	[131]
	Ent-beyer-15-en-18-ol, 120					
		Diterpenoids	5.30			
	Ent-beyer-15-en-19-ol, 121					
<i>Jatropha multifida</i>		Diterpenoid	11.9	<i>L. donovani</i>	Low toxicity profile against VERO cells	[132]
	14-deoxy-1β-hydroxy-4(4E)-jatrogrossidentadione, 122					
		Diterpenoid	4.69			
	15-deoxy-1β-hydroxy-4(4E)-jatrogrossidentadione, 123					
		Diterpenoid	4.56			
	Unsaturated ring A of 15-deoxy-1β-hydroxy-4(4E)-jatrogrossidentadione, 124					

**Table 3** (continued)

Natural product source	Chemical structure	Class of natural product	$IC_{50}/\mu\text{g/mL}$	Organism tested	Toxicology	References
<i>Psidium Guajava</i>		Triterpene	1.01	<i>L. infantum</i> (Axenic Amastigotes)	At conc. = 12.2 $\mu\text{M}$ in mouse macrophage cell lines J774A.1	[133]
					At conc. = 20.8 $\mu\text{M}$ against same cell lines	
	Corosolic acid, 125					
		Triterpene	1.32			
	Jacoumaric acid, 126					
<i>Cystoseira baccata</i> (Marine)		Diterpenoids	20.4	<i>L. infantum</i> (promastigotes)	Non-toxic up to 126.6	[134]
	Tetraprenyltoluquinone, 127					
		Diterpenoids	44.5		84.5	
	Tetraprenyltoluquinol, 128					

**Table 3** (continued)

Natural product source	Chemical structure	Class of natural product	IC <sub>50</sub> /μg/mL	Organism tested	Toxicology	References
<i>Pseudelephantopus spiralis</i>		Sesquiterpene lactone	0.06	<i>L. infantum</i> (promastigotes) <i>L. infantum</i> (amastigotes) <i>L. infantum</i> (promastigotes) <i>L. infantum</i> (promastigotes) <i>L. infantum</i> (amastigotes)	1.47 ± 0.08 0.97 ± 0.07 5.57 ± 1.9	[135]
	<b>Diacetylpiptocarphol, 129</b>					
			0.012			
	<b>Piptocarphin A, 130</b>	Sesquiterpene lactone	0.02			
			0.005			
		Sesquiterpene lactone	0.244			
	<b>Piptocarphins D, 131</b>		0.048			

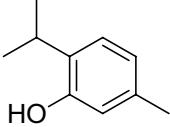
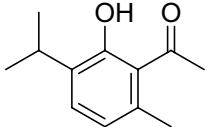
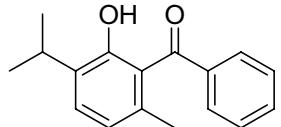
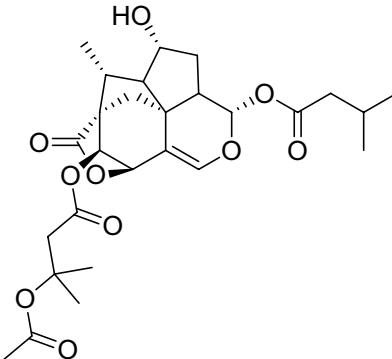
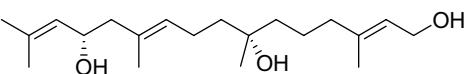
**Table 3** (continued)

Natural product source	Chemical structure	Class of natural product	IC <sub>50</sub> /μg/mL	Organism tested	Toxicology	References
<i>Nectria pseudotrichia</i>		Sesquiterpene Lactone	0.092 0.023	<i>L. infantum</i> (promastigotes) <i>L. infantum</i> (amastigotes)	3.17 ± 1.0	[136]
	[(2Z)-8,10,11-trihydroxy-1,10-dimethyl-5-oxo-4,14-dioxatricyclo[9.2.1.03,7]tetradeca-2,6-dien-6-yl]methyl acetate, 132					
		Sesquiterpenoid	0.063	<i>L. braziliensis</i> (amastigotes)	Highly selective to parasites compared to VERO cells and THP-1 (a human leukaemia monocytic cell line). All > 200 μM.	
	10-acetyl trichoderonic acid A, 133					
		Monoterpene	0.104			
	6'-acetoxy-piliformic acid, 134					
		Monoterpene	0.117			
	5',6'-dehydropiliformic acid, 135					
		Monoterpene	0.37			
	Piliformic acid, 136					

**Table 3** (continued)

Natural product source	Chemical structure	Class of natural product	$IC_{50}/\mu\text{g/mL}$	Organism tested	Toxicology	References
<i>Croton echiooides</i>		Diterpenoid	0.11	<i>L. amazonensis</i> (promastigotes)	N.T	[137]
	Methyl-15,16-Epoxy-3,13(16),14-Neo-Clerodatrien-17,18-Dicarboxylate, 137					
		Diterpenoid	0.027			
	Nasimalun B, 138					
		Diterpenoid	0.025			
	Hardwickiic acid methyl ester, 139					
<i>Taxodium distichum</i>		Diterpenoid	2.5	<i>L. donovani</i> (promastigotes)	High toxicity against HT-29 colorectal carcinoma cells	[138]
			0.52	<i>L. amazonensis</i>		
	Taxotriione, 140					

**Table 3** (continued)

Natural product source	Chemical structure	Class of natural product	IC <sub>50</sub> /μg/mL	Organism tested	Toxicology	References
<i>Lippia sidoides</i>		Monoterpene	23.9	<i>L. amazonensis</i> (Promastigotes)	36.5 μM ≥100 μM 63.6 μM	[139]
	<b>Thymol, 141</b>					
		Monoterpene	11.0			
	<b>Acetyl-Thymol, 142</b>					
		Monoterpene	15.1			
	<b>Benzoyl-Thymol, 143</b>					
<i>Trixis antimenorrhoea</i>		Sesquiterpene	0.3 0.96	<i>L. amazonensis</i> (promastigote) <i>L. brasiliensis</i> (promastigote)	N. T	[97]
	<b>Trixanolide, 144</b>					
<i>Bifurcaria bifurcata</i> (Marine)		Diterpene	18.8	<i>L. donovani</i>	Toxicity potential against L6 primary myoblast cell was observed at 56.6 μM	[140]
	<b>Bifurcatriol, 145</b>					

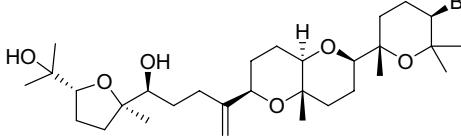
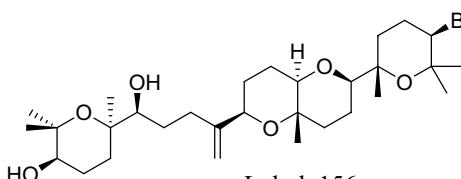
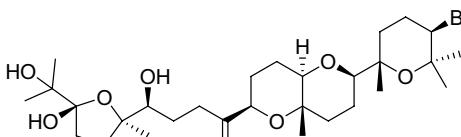
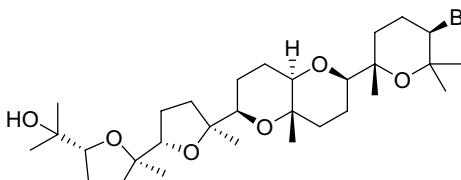
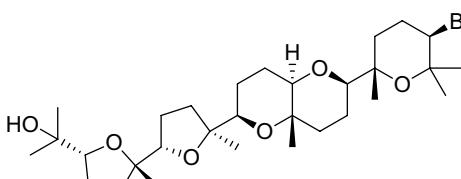
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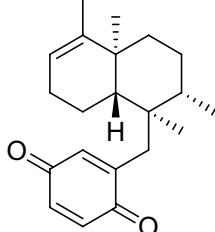
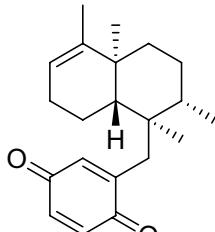
Natural product source	Chemical structure	Class of natural product	$IC_{50}/\mu\text{g/mL}$	Organism tested	Toxicology	References
<i>Dictyota spiralis</i> (Marine)		Diterpene	15.47	<i>L. amazonensis</i> (promastigote) <i>L. amazonensis</i> (promastigote)	23.4 69	[141]
	<b>spiralyde A, 146</b>					
		Diterpene	36.81			
	<b>3,4-epoxy-7,18-dolabelladiene, 147</b>					
<i>Stylopodium zonale</i> (Marine)		Diterpene	9	<i>L. amazonensis</i> (amastigotes)	8.4 $\mu\text{M}$	[142]
	<b>Atomaric acid, 148</b>					

**Table 3** (continued)

Natural product source	Chemical structure	Class of natural product	IC <sub>50</sub> /μg/mL	Organism tested	Toxicology	References
<i>Plumarella delicatissima</i> (Marine)		Diterpene	0.025	<i>L. donovani</i> (amastigotes)	Cytotoxicity potential against human lung carcinoma, cells exhibited low toxic potentials which were >50	
		Diterpene	0.026		>50	
		Diterpene	0.034		>50	
		Diterpene	0.022		>50	
		Diterpene	1.9		>50	
		Diterpene	4.4		>50	

**Table 3** (continued)

Natural product source	Chemical structure	Class of natural product	IC <sub>50</sub> /μg/mL	Organism tested	Toxicology	References
<i>Laurencia viridis</i> (Marine)		Diterpene	8.36 28.26	<i>L. amazonensis</i> (Promastigote) <i>L. donovani</i> (promastigotes)	0.22	[143]
	Dehydrothrysiferol, 155					
		Diterpene	7.00 18	<i>L. amazonensis</i> (Promastigote) <i>L. donovani</i> (promastigotes)	4.6	
	Lubol, 156					
		Diterpene	34.65		0.6	
	22-hydroxydehydrothrysiferol, 157					
		Diterpene	12.96		1.4	
	Saiyacenols A, 158					
		Diterpene	10.32		>100	
	Saiyacenols B, 159					

Natural product source	Chemical structure	Class of natural product	IC <sub>50</sub> /μg/mL	Organism tested	Toxicology	References
<i>Dysidea avara</i> (Marine)	 <p>Aavarone, 160</p>	Sesquiterpene	28.21	<i>L. infantum</i> (Promastigotes)	Low toxicity against human microvascular endothelial cells	[144]
			20.28	<i>L. tropica</i> (Promastigotes)	and (human acute monocytic leukemia cells with CC50 62.19 and > 100 respectively.	
			7.64	<i>L. infantum</i> (Amastigote)		
	 <p>Avarol, 161</p>	Sesquiterpene	7.42	<i>L. infantum</i> (Promastigotes)	36.8	[144]
			7.08	<i>L. tropica</i> (Promastigotes)	31.75	
			3.19	<i>L. infantum</i> (Amastigote)		

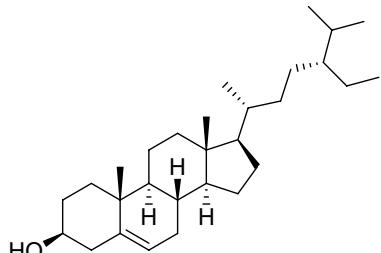
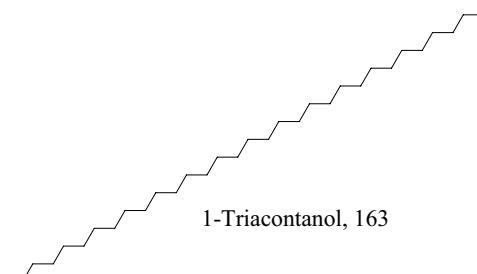
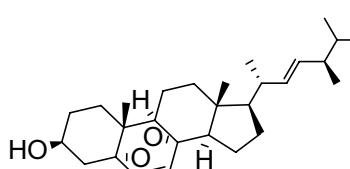
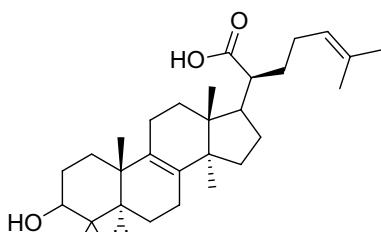
membered ring. Ergosterol, the main sterol in *Leishmania* parasite constitute a major component of the cell membrane and mitochondrion of the parasite which when inhibited leads to parasite death. **164** extracted from *Trametes versicolor* mimics *Leishmania* ergosterol due to similarities in core structure but a break in oxygen–oxygen bond in ergosterol peroxide unleashes oxidation on lipids, proteins and nucleic acids of the parasite by free radical reaction leading to serious toxicity to the *Leishmania* parasite [145]. Apart from the biological formation of bridge peroxides, the deleterious effects of other lanostane type steroids on membrane state and integrity causing parasite death has been reported [146, 147]. Also, anti-infective studies of *Sassafras albidum* and its bioactivity guided fractionation reported a sterol and fatty alcohol, **162** and **163** respectively [36] as promising antileishmanial compounds. **162** which differs from cholesterol at C24 position is believed to kill the parasite via an apoptosis mechanism involving DNA fragmentation, inhibition of inflammation cytokines and the activation of caspases [148, 149]. Evaluating the suicidal action of active isolates from *Pentalinon andrieuxii*, **181** induced changes in immune responses particularly via necrosis and apoptosis characterized by increase in IL2 and IFN-γ which insinuates

the control of pro-inflammatory cytokines by anti-inflammatory counterparts [150]. **182** halted the process of electron transport and ATP generation in the mitochondria [151]. In addition, plasma membrane alterations with the administration of the other isolates depicts a sterol metabolism inhibition as a contributing factor to parasite death [151].

## 2 Conclusion

Though humans and natural products did not co-evolve, chemical prototypes from natural origins have numerous targets in both human and animal diseases. Their structural diversity, large chemical space and safety are intriguing characteristics that makes them very attractive. Diverse biomolecular functions including anti-leishmanial potentials are possessed by various plant families including *Fabaceae*, *Annonaceae*, *Euphorbiaceae*, *Rutaceae*, *Myrsinaceae*, *Liliaceae*, *Araliaceae* and *Simaroubaceae*, as well as endophytes genera *Alternaria*, *Arthrinium*, *Penicillium*, *Cochliobolus*, *Fusarium*, *Colletotrichum*, and *Gibberella*, and marine natural product possess.

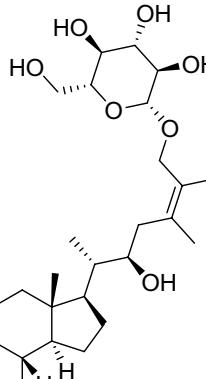
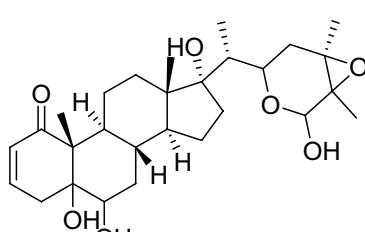
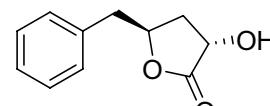
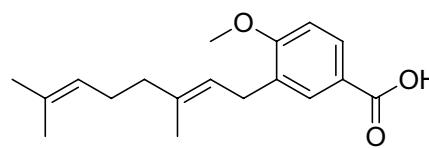
**Table 4** Various classes of steroids, fatty alcohol, lignan, and butanolide with their IC<sub>50</sub> exhibiting antileishmanial properties

Natural product source	Chemical structure		IC <sub>50</sub>	Organism tested	Toxicity	References
<i>Sassafras albidum</i>		Steroid	54.3	<i>L. amazonensis</i> (Promastigote)	Nontoxic against BALB/c mouse macrophages up to	[36]
	Beta-Sitosterol, 162		182			
<i>Trametes versicolor</i>		Fatty alcohol	19.9		157	
	1-Triacontanol, 163					
<i>Trametes versicolor</i>		Steroid	1.70	<i>L. amazonensis</i> (Amastigote)	Toxicity profile against peritoneal macrophages	[152]
	Ergosterol peroxide, 164		42.9 μM			
		Steroid	0.07		39.4 μM	
	Trametenolic acid B, 165					

**Table 4** (continued)

Natural product source	Chemical structure	$IC_{50}$	Organism tested	Toxicity	References
<i>Aspergillus terreus</i>		Steroid 11.2	<i>L. donovani</i>	N. T	[153]
	(22E,24R)-stigmasta-5,7,22-trien-3-ol, 166				
		Steroid 15.3			
	Stigmast-4-ene-3-one, 167				
		Steroid 54.3			
	Stigmasta-4,6,8(14),22-tetraen-3-one, 168				
		Bute-nolide 7.27			
	Terrenolide S, 169				

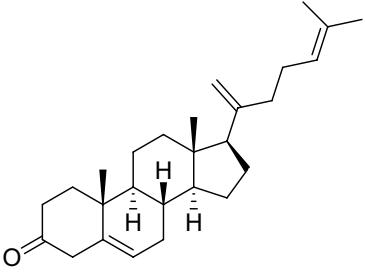
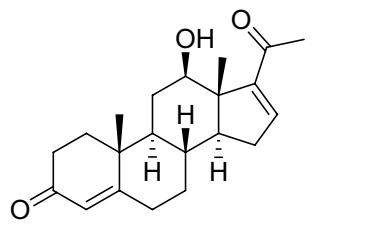
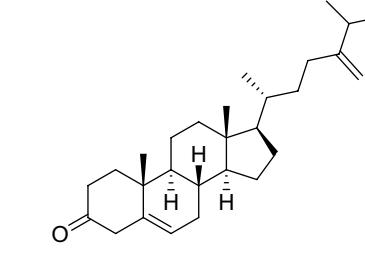
**Table 4** (continued)

Natural product source	Chemical structure	$IC_{50}$	Organism tested	Toxicity	References
<i>Solanum sisymbriifolium</i>		Steroid 6.60 3.10	<i>L. amazonensis</i> <i>L. braziliensis</i>	N.T	[127]
	Cilstol A, 170				
		Steroid > 100 59.8	<i>L. amazonensis</i> <i>L. braziliensis</i>	N. T	
	Cilstadiol, 171				
<i>Paecilomyces sp. (Marine)</i>		18.2	<i>L. amazonensis</i> (Intra-Amastigote) <i>L. amazonensis</i>	Non-toxic up to 183 $\mu$ M in mouse peritoneal macrophage.	[154]
	Harzialactone, 172				
		7.89			
	3-(3,7-dimethyl-2,6-octadienyl)-4-methoxybenzoic acid, 173				

**Table 4** (continued)

Natural product source	Chemical structure	$IC_{50}$	Organism tested	Toxicity	References
<i>Musa paradisiaca</i>		Steroid 201	<i>L. infantum</i> (Amastigote)	Low toxicity profiles against mammalian raw cell lines 462 μM	[155]
	31-Norcyclolaudenone, 174				
		Steroid 185		569 μM	
	Cycloecalenone, 175				
		Steroid 127		1147 μM	
	24-Methylene-cycloartanol, 176				
		Steroid 98.5		150 μM	
	Stigmasterol, 177				
		+ Sitosterol, 178			

**Table 4** (continued)

Natural product source	Chemical structure	$IC_{50}$	Organism tested	Toxicity	References
<i>Pentalinon andrieuxi</i>		0.08 Steroid 0.009	<i>L. mexicana</i> (promastigotes) <i>L. mexicana</i> (amastigotes)		[150]
	Cholestra-4,20,24-trien-3-one, 179				
		Steroid 0.03 0.004			
	6,7-Dihydroneridienone, 180				
		Steroid 0.06 0.009			
	24-Methylcholesta-4,24(28)-dien-3-one, 181				

**Table 4** (continued)

Natural product source	Chemical structure	$IC_{50}$	Organism tested	Toxicity	References
<i>Porophyllum ruderale</i>		Terthiophene 37	<i>L. amazonensis</i> (amastigotes)	$CC_{50}=370 \mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$	[151]
		51		$CC_{50}=335 \mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$	
Marine Cyanobacteria (Marine)		Macrolide 4.67 $\mu\text{M}$	<i>L. donovani</i> (amastigotes)	N.T	[156]

Management of leishmaniasis is plagued with systemic toxicity, high cost of existing drugs, lengthy treatment periods, drug resistance and parasite diversity. Different classes of natural products such as alkaloids, terpenes, terpenoids, and phenolics are examples of compounds evaluated towards the treatment of leishmaniasis. They exert their antileishmanial activities through calcium channel inhibitors, immunomodulatory through the enhancement of NO in macrophages, alterations in organelle membranes of the endoplasmic reticulum, respiration incapacitation and apoptosis. Other antileishmanial related mechanisms include cell membrane disruption via sterol biosynthesis inhibition, reactive oxygen species (ROS) generation, iron chelation,

arginase inhibition, topoisomerase II intercalation, suppressing NF- $\kappa$ B expression and other pro-inflammatory, and trypanothione reductase inhibition.

**Author contributions** POS, RKA and SKK initiated the work, POS wrote the first draft supervised by SKK and POS All the authors contributed to the writing of the review, read and accepted the final draft article.

## Declarations

**Conflict of interest** The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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