Contents lists available at ScienceDirect

Food Chemistry: X



journal homepage: www.sciencedirect.com/journal/food-chemistry-x

LC-MS/MS-based chemical profiling of water extracts of *Moringa oleifera* leaves and pharmacokinetics of their major constituents in rat plasma

Jiahong Wang^{b,1}, Yiyang Du^{a,1}, Li Jiang^c, Jiahe Li^c, Bing Yu^c, Chuang Ren^c, Tingxu Yan^a, Ying Jia^{a,*}, Bosai He^{a,*}

^a School of Functional Food and Wine, Shenyang Pharmaceutical University, Wenhua Road 103, Shenyang 110016, China

^b School of Life Science and Biopharmaceutics, Shenyang Pharmaceutical University, Shenyang 110016, China

^c School of Pharmacy, Shenyang Pharmaceutical University, Wenhua Road 103, Shenyang 110016, China

ARTICLE INFO

Keywords: Polyphenolic compounds Method validation Organic acids Bioavailability

ABSTRACT

Moringa oleifera leaves (MOL) are native to India and have high biological activities. To better understand the basic pharmacodynamic materials, the chemical components in MOL and their pharmacokinetic properties were studied and quantitated using UPLC-Q-Exactive Orbitrap-MS. Forty-two compounds were identified, including phenolic acids and their derivatives, flavonoids, isothiocyanates, nucleosides, alkaloids, and other compounds. Two phenolic acids and six flavonoids were studied for their pharmacokinetic properties using UHPLC-MS/MS. Precision, accuracy, stability, matrix effects, and extraction recovery were verified. All substances that were measured reached their maximum within 0.5 h. Vicenin-2 had a high peak concentration and bioavailability. Kaempferol-3-O-rutinoside had a longer biological half-life than other components. The results from this study provide the data basis for subsequent comprehensive qualitative evaluation and potential MOL use in clinical applications.

1. Introduction

The Moringa oleifera Lam, commonly known as "Drumstick" (Pari & Kumar, 2002), is a naturalized species of the monogenetic family of the Moringaceae(Anwar et al., 2007). This plant is native to India but has been introduced to many other tropical regions over the years, and is widely distributed in Indonesia, the Philippines, and the Caribbean. The height of the Moringa tree is typically 5 to 10 m, sometimes even 15 m. It is a tree with a strong vitality and softwood. It has the ability to thrive in poor soil and remains largely unaffected by drought, showing rapid growth (Sánchez-Machado et al., 2006; Seshadri & Nambiar, 2003). The plant contains a variety of natural active ingredients and nutrients, including proteins, amino acids, minerals, vitamins, alkaloids, terpenes, flavonoids, phenolic acids, and isothiocyanate compounds, and has extremely high medicinal value. It is well known by the locals. Studies have been conducted to confirm some widely used medicinal properties (Cáceres et al., 1992; Leone et al., 2015). MO is also called the Miracle Tree, Tree of Life, Mother's Best Friend, God's Gift to Man, and Savior of the Poor by the locals due to its favorable properties (Mbikay, 2012).

Like other plants, M. oleifera has seeds, roots, flowers, leaves, fruits, and other useful parts, with different uses for each part. The tree's leaves are easy to harvest and are rich in chemical resources. They are the most commonly used part. They can be eaten directly along with the dried leaves or after extraction into an aqueous solution. In Nigeria, the MOL are eaten as a vegetable and can be used for stir-fry or soup and porridge. There has been no report of any side effects. In southern India, the leaves are also a popular food for babies and children. In many countries, desiccated MOL are widely recognized as a valuable source of protein, calcium, vitamins A, C, and E, $\beta\text{-carotene},$ amino acids, and various polyphenols. MOL are also used as growth supplements (Luqman et al., 2012; Singh et al., 2014). In addition to human consumption, MOL are also used in animal food. Because MOL are rich in natural antioxidants, they can improve the quality of meat, such as texture, color, flavor, and nutritional value (Moyo et al., 2012), and may increase food shelf life (Siddhuraju & Becker, 2003).

In addition to their edible value, a large number of scientific reports showed that MOL have antibacterial (Eilert et al., 1981), anti-cancer (Sreelatha et al., 2011), anti-inflammatory (Ezeamuzie et al., 1996),

* Corresponding authors.

E-mail addresses: jiayingsyphu@126.com (Y. Jia), hbspharma@163.com (B. He).

https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fochx.2024.101585

Received 3 April 2024; Received in revised form 14 June 2024; Accepted 19 June 2024 Available online 20 June 2024

2590-1575/© 2024 Published by Elsevier Ltd. This is an open access article under the CC BY-NC-ND license (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/).



¹ These authors contributed equally to this work and are considered co-first authors.

anti-ulcer, anti-oxidant (Diallo et al., 2001), anti-spasmodic, diuretic, anti-hyperglycemia (Ghasi et al., 2000)[,] anti-hypertensive (Dangi et al., 2002), anti-hyperlipidemic, and other pharmacological effects. Almost all parts of this plant have been employed in the treatment of abdominal tumors, hysteria, scurvy, paralytic attacks, helminthic bladder issues, prostate complications, as well as sores, and addressing skin infections. MOL are used as an aphrodisiac and as a treatment for intestinal worms and asthma in Nigeria (Atawodi et al., 2010). They are used as an antipyretic and antidote in traditional Thai medicine (Sahakitpichan et al., 2011).

These extensive pharmacological effects of MOL are related to their abundant natural active substances (Hassan et al., 2021). Among them, flavonoids and phenolic acids are the most reported components, such as quercetin, kaempferol, and their glycoside derivatives, which have antioxidant and hypoglycemic properties, i.e., the lowering of blood lipid levels and anti-cancer effects. The various pretreatment procedures of MOL, such as extraction time and extraction temperature, may affect the effective content of these substances, which in turn affects their pharmacological activity.

In this study, the basic composition of MOL was examined, and the primary constituents were chosen for pharmacokinetic studies. We then developed a sensitive, efficient, and precise UHPLC-MS/MS method capable of simultaneously determining the analytes and internal standard (IS) in plasma samples of the MOL oral solutions, including chlorogenic and cryptochlorogenic acids, vicenin-2, vitexin, rutin, isoquercitrin, kaempferol-3-O-rutinoside and astragalin. After quantitation, the MOL extracts of interest were orally administered to lab test rats, as part of a pharmacokinetic study. The findings provide insight into evaluating MOL and exploring the underlying mechanisms of their pharmacological activities.

2. Experimental

2.1. Materials and reagents

The MOLs were obtained from the Yunnan Dayaoshan Trading Co., LTD (Yunnan, China). Chlorogenic acid (Purity >98%), cryptochlorogenic acid (Purity >98%), vicenin-2 (Purity >98%), vitexin (Purity >98%), rutin (Purity >98%), isoquercitrin (Purity >98%), kaempferol-3-O-rutinoside (Purity >98%), and astragalin (Purity >98%) were purchased from Dalian Meilun Biotechnology Co., LTD. LC/MS-grade acetonitrile was obtained from Merck (Darmstadt, Germany). HPLC-grade acetonitrile was obtained from Sigma-Aldrich (USA). HPLC-grade formic acid was obtained from the Damao Chemical Reagent Factory. Ultra-high-purity water was prepared with a water system purchased from Shenyang Jia he yi Technology Co., Ltd.

2.2. Plant material and extract preparation

Dried MOL were washed twice with ultra-pure water to remove mud and impurities and then thoroughly dried in the hood at room temperature for 3 days. The leaves were crushed and sieved (60 mesh sieve). 1 g of the crushed leaf powder was added to 10 mL ultrapure water, and reflux extracted twice at 100 °C. The water extract yield from *Moringa oleifera* leaves was 35.45%. The extracts were added to 100 mL of water for further quantification. The solutions were centrifuged at 12,000g for 10 min, then diluted tenfold, filtered through a 0.22 µm filter, and used for analytical quantitation.

The gastric lavage fluid for the pharmacokinetic study was prepared as follows:200.0 g of *Moringa oleifera* leaf powder was added to 10 times the weight of ultrapure water and reflux-extracted twice at 100 $^{\circ}$ C, each time for 1 h. The two filtrates were combined, evaporated, and concentrated at 45 $^{\circ}$ C to a crude drug amount of 3 g/mL.

2.3. Animals

Six male Sprague-Dawley rats (260-280 g) were procured from the Experimental Animal Center of Shenyang Pharmaceutical University. Prior to the study, these rats were accommodated in a controlled environment where the temperature was held at 20 \pm 2 °C, relative humidity was maintained at 50 \pm 20%, and a natural light-dark cycle was established for a week. Before the experiment, all rats underwent a 12-h fasting period during which they only had access to water for 12 h. The study was conducted conforming to the Guideline of Animal Experimentation of Shenyang Pharmaceutical University. The protocol was consented to by the Animal Ethics Committee of the university. The administered dose was 30 g kg⁻¹ (Raw medicinal weight⁻¹) Certificate number: 210726211101403054. After the experiments, the rats were euthanized under deep anesthesia (intraperitoneal injection of sodium pentobarbital) for cervical dislocation. The animals were used for the pharmacokinetic research, which included three parts: determination of the content of active ingredients in actual plasma samples, validation of the methods used for content determination, determination of the drug concentration over time curves, and calculation of the pharmacokinetic parameters T_{1/2}, C_{max}, T_{max}, AUC_{0-t}, AUC_{0-∞}.

2.4. Component identification by UPLC-Q-Exactive Orbitrap-MS

A Vanquish Flex UPLC, comprising a quaternary solvent delivery system, and a column temperature controller were used for chromatographic separation. All samples were separated using an ACQUITY UPLC HSS T3 column (100 mm \times 2.1 mm, 1.7 μ m) at a temperature of 50 °C. Before the experiment, the effects of four different systems of the mobile phase, including methanol-water, methanol-0.1% formic acid, acetonitrile-water, and acetonitrile - 0.1% formic acid on the test substance, was investigated. We observed that the acetonitrile - 0.1% acid water system resulted in better component separation, allowing for improved compound identification. The mobile phase comprised water with 0.1% formic acid (eluent A) and acetonitrile (eluent B) using a gradient elution mode starting with10% B from 0 to 0.8 min, increasing to 10-20% B from 0.8 to 2.8 min, 20-70% B from 2.8 to 5.6 min, 70-90% B from 5.6 to 6.4 min, 90-100% B from 6.4 to 9 min, 100-100% B from 9 to 9.1 min, 100–2% B from 9.1 to 10 min, and finally decreasing to 2-2% B. The flow rate was set to 0.3 mL/min, and the injection volume was configured as 5 μ L.

The Orbitrap ExplorisTM 120 (Thermo Scientific), a high-resolution tandem mass spectrometer, was utilized to detect the metabolites after chromatographic separation. The Q-Exactive spectrometer acquisition modes were set for positive and negative ion modes. The precursor ion spectra ranging from 70 to 1050m/z were obtained at a resolution of 70,000 to reach an AGC target of $3e^6$. The maximum injection time applied was 100 ms. The fragment spectra were acquired at a 17,500 resolution with an AGC target of $1e^5$ and a maximum injection time of 50 ms. A quality control standard (Pooled sample) was obtained after every 10 samples to examine the stability of UPLC-Q-Exactive Orbitrap-MS.

2.5. Pharmacokinetic study of MOL

2.5.1. Analysis system

Quantitative analysis of the samples was conducted using an Agilent 1290 Series UHPLC system, a quaternary solvent delivery system, and a column temperature controller. Chromatographic separation was performed using an Agilent Zorbax SB-C18 RRHD column ($2.1 \times 100 \text{ mm}$, $1.8 \mu\text{m}$). The mobile phase was composed of solvent A, aqueous phase containing 0.1% formic acid as buffer, and solvent B, acetonitrile, using a gradient elution process: 0–1 min, 5%–15% B; 1–2 min, 15–19% B; 2–6 min, 19–20% B, 6–6.5 min, 20–95% B; 6.5–7 min, 95–95% B; 7–8 min, constant at 95% B. The flow rate remained constant at 0.3 mL/min while the column temperature was set to 35 °C. The injection volume

was 2 µL.

Mass spectrometric detection and analysis were carried out in MS/ MS mode. The flow rate of the drying gas (N₂) was 0.3 L/min. The temperature of the drying gas was set to 350 °C. A multi-response detection model was used for analysis. The Agilent MassHunter Workstation Acquisition Software Version B.05.01 and Qualitative Analysis Software Version B.07.00 were used for system control, data acquisition, and processing. Parameters for MRM component detection are shown in the **Supplementary Information**, **Supplementary Table 1**.

2.5.2. Preparation of standard solutions

The appropriate amounts of chlorogenic acid, cryptochlorogenic acid, vicenin-2, vitexin, rutin, isoquercitrin, kaemphenol-3-O-rutinosid, and astragalin were weighed. Stock solutions containing standard reference material were ultrasonicated in methanol to obtain solution concentrations at 83 μ g·mL⁻¹, 86 μ g·mL⁻¹, 56 μ g·mL⁻¹, 692 μ g·mL⁻¹, 104 μ g·mL⁻¹, 102 μ g·mL⁻¹, 90 μ g·mL⁻¹ and 67 μ g·mL⁻¹. A proper amount of the stock solution of each reference substance was accurately mixed. The mixture was diluted with methanol to obtain 8 various standard concentrations that are listed in the **Supplementary Information, Supplementary Table 2.** A concentration of 100 μ g·mL⁻¹ of puerarin, after ultrasonication in methanol, was used as a reference and added as an internal standard to the stock solutions. The specific amounts of internal standard solution were diluted using methanol to achieve a concentration of 400 ng·mL⁻¹. The solutions were then stored in the refrigerator at a temperature of 4 °C for future use.

2.5.3. Sample preparation

The plasma contains numerous endogenous components that could significantly interfere with the target molecules. When comparing the effects of methanol and acetonitrile solvents on protein precipitation, we found that after methanol treatment, the response value of the tested substance was higher, and the matrix effect was small. Methanol was chosen as the pre-treatment solvent, and the effects of using methanol 4 times and 10 times on protein precipitation were investigated.

10 μ L of methanol (volumes corresponding to the volumes of QC samples and the calibration curve) and 10 μ L IS (400 ng·mL⁻¹) were introduced to 100 μ L plasma samples. 400 μ L of acetonitrile was then added to each sample and mixed using a vortex mixer for 3 min. Then, the mixture underwent centrifugation for 10 min at 14,000 rpm. The resulting supernatant was carefully transferred into a clean Eppendorf tube. The supernatant was further processed by evaporating it to dryness using a mild nitrogen gas flow. The residue obtained was then dissolved in 100 μ L methanol, thoroughly mixed for 3 min using a vortex mixture, and centrifuged for an additional 10 min at 14,000 rpm. Then, 5 μ L of the resulting supernatant was employed for further analysis using UHPLC-MS/MS.

2.5.4. LC-MS/MS method validation for quantifying MOL compounds in rat plasma

2.5.4.1. Specificity. Half an hour after the oral administration of the MOL extracts, the rat plasma samples were assessed by comparing them to spiked plasma samples, which contain working solutions and IS, and blank plasma samples obtained from six distinct rats. The evaluation aimed to determine the method's specificity and the identification of potential interferences from endogenous substances.

2.5.4.2. Calibration curves and the lowest limit of quantification (LLOQ). Blank rat plasma, individually spiked with the mixture of the standard solutions with varied concentrations and IS, was quantitatively monitored for three consecutive days, in repeated tests, to verify the calibration curve linearity. The calibration curves were derived by fitting the peak area ratios (y) of the analyte in relation to the IS against varying concentrations (x). The weighting factor was $1/x^2$. The LLOQ was

estimated utilizing a signal-to-noise ratio of around 10 (S/N \geq 10).

2.5.4.3. Precision and accuracy. Intra-day and inter-day precision and accuracy were examined by duplicate analysis of QC samples at varied concentrations: The concentrations of chlorogenic acid and crypto-chlorogenic acid were 24, 600, and 4500 $\rm ng\cdot mL^{-1}$, respectively; The vicenin-2 concentrations were 22.4, 560, and 4200 $\rm ng\cdot mL^{-1}$. The vitexin concentrations were 19.2, 480, and 3600 $\rm ng\cdot mL^{-1}$. The rutin and iso-quercitrin concentrations were 12.8, 320, and 2400 $\rm ng\cdot mL^{-1}$. The kaempferol-3-O- rutinoside concentrations were 3.2, 80, and 600 $\rm ng\cdot mL^{-1}$. The astragalin concentrations were 12, 300, and 2250 $\rm ng\cdot mL^{-1}$.

2.5.4.4. Recovery and matrix effects. The extracted plasma samples were spiked with the working solutions containing the IS; the post-extraction blank samples, which contain IS, were also spiked with the working solutions with three QC concentrations and were quantitated under the same analytical conditions. Recovery was determined by peak area differences of the peak areas between the corresponding extracted and post-extraction spiked samples. The matrix effects were determined from the peak area differences between the corresponding extracted samples and working solution mixtures. A total of six sample sets were analyzed in parallel.

2.5.4.5. Stability. Low, medium, and high concentrations of the QC samples were examined to investigate compound stability in rat plasma given the following test conditions: Storage of the sample in an auto-sampler at 4 °C for 12 h, storage at room temperature for 8 h, samples subjected to 3 freeze/thaw cycles, and storage of the sample at -80 °C for 30 days. Each of the aforementioned conditions was tested with three distinct QC concentrations.

2.5.4.6. Pharmacokinetic studies. The rats were acclimated to the facility for a week. Prior to the experiments, rats were fasting for 12 h, with the exception of readily available drinking water. Different doses of aqueous moringa leaf extract were orally administered to the rats in the early stages to ensure that the components remained within the detectable concentration range. At low dosages, astragalin and vitexin could not be detected continuously. This problem was resolved by increasing the dosage concentration to the maximum safe dose range. Finally, a dose of 30 g/kg of the MOL (in dry matter) was administered to the animals. Blood samples (100 µL each) were obtained from the rats' orbital venous plexus at specific time points: 0, 0.03, 0.08, 0.17, 0.25, 0.5, 1, 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 12, and 24 h after administrating the extract. The samples underwent immediate centrifugation at 8000 rpm for 10 min, and then the supernatant was collected. The plasma samples were obtained and stored at -80 °C. "Phoenix Win Nonlin 6.0" software was utilized to determine the pharmacokinetic parameters.

3. Results

3.1. Identified compounds

A total of 43 compounds were identified by UPLC-Q-Exactive Orbitrap-MS, including 12 flavonoids, 18 phenolic acids, 8 alkaloids, 1 isothiocyanate, and 4 other types. (See Figure 1-3 and Table 1)

3.1.1. Flavonoids

The retention time of compound 29 was 3.78 min. In negative ion mode, the molecular ion $[M-H]^-$ of compound 29 was at m/z 609.1464. The molecular formula of compound 29 was predicted to be $C_{27}H_{30}O_{16}$ by the Xcalibur software. During collision-induced dissociation (CID), one molecule of rutin is dissociated to form secondary ion fragments [M-H-Rha-Glu]⁻ with m/z 300.0276. Glycones can undergo loss of neutral fragments and produce characteristic fragment ions [M-H-Rha-Glu-H-



Fig. 1. The total ion chromatograms of Moringa oleifera leaf extract in (A) positive ion mode and (B) negative ion mode.

CO][–] at m/z 271.0249, and undergo retro-Diels-Alder (RDA) cleavage to produce 151.0039 fragment ions. Compound 29 was identified as rutin through comparison with information available in the literature (Hui et al., 2023; Yi et al., 2016).

The retention time of compound 34 was 3.91 min. In negative ion mode, its molecular ion $[M-H]^-$ was at m/z 447.0931. Xcalibur software predicted that its molecular formula was $C_{21}H_{20}O_{11}$, with one glucose ring removed. The fragment ions $[M-H-Glu]^-$ m/z 284.0326, $[M-H-OCH_3]^-$ m/z 255.0299, and $[M-H-CO]^-$ m/z 227.0350 are obtained by loss of OCH₃ and CO fragments, respectively. A comparison with the literature confirms its identity as astragalin (Guo et al., 2019; Tatiane et al., 2019; Yi et al., 2016).

3.1.2. Phenolic acids

The retention time of compound 23 was 3.53 min. In negative ion mode, its molecular ion $[M-H]^-$ was at m/z 353.0880. Xcalibur software predicted that its molecular formula was $C_{16}H_{18}O_9$. The caffeic acid acyl group can be removed to form fragment ions $[M-H-C_9H_6O_3]^-$ at m/z 191.0562, and the molecular ions can also be fragmented to form a secondary ion $[M-H-C_7H_{10}O_5]^-$ with m/z 179.1350. The loss of one CO_2 fragment can produce fragment ions at m/z of 135.0452. By comparing the mass spectrum information reported in the literature, the compound was confirmed to be chlorogenic acid (Guo et al., 2019; Hui et al., 2023; Yi et al., 2016).

The retention time of compound 12 is 2.31 min. In negative ion mode, its molecular ion $[M-H]^-$ is at m/z 315.0724. Xcalibur software predicted that its molecular formula is $C_{13}H_{16}O_9$. After the loss of a glucose fragment $[M-H-Glu]^-$ with m/z 153.0194 is formed, and the molecular ion $[M-H-CHO_2]^-$ further fragments to give a m/z of 108.0217. By comparing the mass spectrum information reported in the literature, the compound was identified as protocatechuate-4-O-glucoside (Qiang et al., 2020).

3.1.3. Alkaloids

The retention time of compound 2 is 0.87 min. In positive ion mode, its molecular ion $[M + H]^+$ is at m/z 138.0551. Xcalibur software predicts that its molecular formula is $C_7H_7NO_2$. This compound generated a fragment ion $[M + H-COOH]^+$ at m/z 94.0652. By comparing the mass spectrum information reported in the literature, the compound was confirmed as trigonelline (Gilmar et al., 2022; Tatiane et al., 2019).

3.1.4. Isothiocyanate

The retention time of compound 18 was 3.34 min. In negative ion

mode, its molecular ion [M-H] $^-$ was at m /z 570.0956, The Xcalibur software predicted its molecular formula to be $C_{20}H_{29}NO_{14}S_2$. After collusion-induced dissociation, rhamnoside and HSO₄ fragments were removed to obtain [M-H-Rha-HSO₃] $^-$ at m/z 328.0856, and [M-H-C_{14}H_{17}NO_5S] $^-$ at m/z 259.0135. By comparing the mass spectrum with information found in the literature, the compound was identified as glucomoringin (Guo et al., 2019).

3.2. Pharmacokinetic results

3.2.1. Validation of the bioanalysis method

3.2.1.1. Specificity. Method specificity was evaluated by comparing the analyte retention times and the presence of interference peaks of the respective chromatograms. Fig. 4 illustrates the chromatograms of (a) blank plasma samples, (b) blank plasma samples spiked with analytes and IS, and (c) plasma samples obtained subsequent to the oral administration of the MOL extract to the rats. Consistent retention time and the absence of any interference peaks were observed for all analytes among the samples.

3.2.1.2. Linearity and LLOQ. The concentrations of chlorogenic acid and cryptochlorogenic acid were in the range of 12–6000 $ng \cdot mL^{-1}$. The concentrations of vicenin-2 were 11.2–5600 $ng \cdot mL^{-1}$. The concentrations of vitexin were 9.6–4800 $ng \cdot mL^{-1}$. The concentrations of rutin and isoquercitrin were 6.4–3200 $ng \cdot mL^{-1}$. The concentrations of kaempferol-3-O-rutinoside were 1.6–800 $ng \cdot mL^{-1}$. For the simulated plasma samples with a concentration of 6–3000 $ng \cdot mL^{-1}$, the chromatograms were obtained using a Plasma sample pretreatment method, and each concentration was determined in both samples. Calibration parameters and LLOQs of eight compounds are shown in **Supplementary Information, Supplementary Table 3**.

3.2.1.3. Precision and accuracy. The precision and accuracy for both intra- and inter-day assessments were examined using six replicates of QC samples, containing analytes at low, medium, and high concentrations, as previously outlined. The results are presented in **Supplementary Information**, **Supplementary Table 4**. The accuracy (expressed as Relative Error, RE) varied from -7.68% to 13.15%, while the precision (expressed as Relative Standard Deviation, RSD) ranged from 1.37% to 12.2%, demonstrating a reliable method that has been developed.

3.2.1.4. Recovery and matrix effect. Supplementary Table 5 in the



Fig. 2. The product ion spectrum and fragmentation pattern of rutin (A), chlorogenic acid (B), trigonelline (C), and glucomoringin (D).

Supplementary Information shows that the extraction recovery of all 8 analytes, across three varied concentrations, fell within the range of 73.52% to 98.75%. Moreover, the matrix effects on all analytes ranged between 81.66% and 113.68%. The results revealed that the matrix effect and extraction recovery are within satisfactory limits.

collection and processing was examined under varied storage conditions assessed with spiked plasma samples at three different QC concentrations. **Supplementary Table 6** in **the Supplementary Information** shows that the RSDs for all tested samples were consistently below 13.78%, indicating that all analytes remained stable at the four different test conditions.

3.2.1.5. Stability. The stability of the 13 analytes during sample



Fig. 3. Mass spectra of chlorogenic acid (A), cryptochlorogenic acid (B), vicenin-2 (C), rutin(D), vitexin (E), isoquercitrin (F), kaempferol-3-O-rutinoside (G), astragalin (H), puerain (I) in negative ion mode.

3.2.1.6. *Pharmacokinetic study.* Plasma samples obtained from rats that were fed the MOL extracts (30.0 g/kg) were analyzed using UHPLC-MS/MS. Fig. 5 (A) to (H) shows the average component concentration versus time plots for the plasma samples obtained from the rats following the oral administration of the MOL extract (n = 6). The components include chlorogenic acid, cryptochlorogenic acid, vicenin-2, vitexin, rutin, isoquercitrin, kaempferol-3-O-rutinoside, and astragalin. **Supplementary Table 7** in the **Supplementary Information** shows a summary of the main pharmacokinetic parameters of the 8 analytes.

4. Discussion

In this study, the pharmacokinetics of water extracts from Moringa oleifera leaves in rats were investigated, and the UHPLC-MS/MS method was developed to simultaneously obtain the concentrations of chlorogenic acid, cryptochlorogenic acid, vicenin-2, vitexin, rutin, isoquercitrin, kaempferol-3-O-rutinoside and astragalin in plasma. The method of analysis was confirmed to be sensitive, rapid, and reliable. The pharmacokinetic parameters showed that all components could be detected within 5 min; the peak concentrations of each substance after oral appeared within 0.5 h, indicating that all compounds were absorbed into the bloodstream quickly and distributed to other tissues, which agrees with previous reports (Abdou et al., 2019; Mumtaz et al., 2021). Flavonoid glycosides contain sugar groups and have good water solubility, showing high peak concentrations in vivo. The peak concentrations of vicenin-2 and cryptochlorogenic acid were 1367.34 $ng\cdot mL^{-1}$ and $1058.74 \text{ ng} \cdot \text{mL}^{-1}$, respectively, higher than the concentration levels of other components, indicating that their concentrations in plasma were larger. The differences in the number and location of hydroxyl

groups in the aglycones and the substitution and glycosylation sites may be critical factors affecting their absorption. The peak time of isoquercitrin was 0.24 h with a maximum blood concentration of 643.38 $ng \cdot mL^{-1}$, which could be detected within 12 h, consistent with the results of previous studies (Caicedo-Lopez et al., 2021; Cuellar-Núñez et al., 2021). The elimination half-life of each substance under investigation was short, indicating that it could be rapidly eliminated in vivo. The half-life of chlorogenic acid was 5.06 h, which is different from the values reported in previous studies. The components of traditional Chinese medicine are complex, and multiple components may interact, and result in interferences of pharmacokinetic characteristics among the components (Chen et al., 2020; Jaiswal et al., 2009; Sosa-Gutiérrez et al., 2018). After the oral administration of a typical traditional Chinese medicine extract, a variety of components enter the body. They may interact with each other, resulting in a so-called bi-peak phenomenon. The reasons are complex and may lead to delayed gastric emptying, hepatoenteric circulation, etc., and the transformations of the compounds found in the traditional Chinese medicine components. In the intestinal environment, components containing the same parent nucleus can easily be transformed (Balusamy et al., 2019; Nayak et al., 2016; Xie et al., 2018). Since vicenin-2 and vitexin have the same parent nucleus, the bi-peak may be an indicator of the mutual transformation of these two compounds. It may also be caused by hepatoenteric circulation, and the specific reasons need to be further studied in vivo.

5. Conclusions

This study developed a sensitive, efficient, and precise UHPLC-MS/MS method for the simultaneous determination of both the

Table 1

Compounds identified in Moringa oleifera leaves by UPLC-Q-Exactive Orbitrap-MS.

No.	Compound	Formula	Ion adduction	t _R / min	Measured m/z (Da)	Cal m/z (Da)	ppm	Fragment ions (m/z Da)
1	Malic acid	C ₄ H ₆ O ₅	[M-H] ⁻	0.80	133.0142	133.0131	8.3	115.0036, 89.0244, 71.0138, 43.0189
2	Trigonelline	C7H7NO2	$[M + H]^+$	0.87	138.0551	138.0550	0.7	110.0602, 94.0652
3	5-Hydroxymethylfurfural	C ₆ H ₆ O ₃	$[M + H]^{+}$	0.95	127.0392	127.0390	1.6	109.0286, 99.0442, 81.0336, 69.0336
4	<i>L</i> -Valine	C ₅ H ₁₁ NO ₂	$[M + H]^{+}$	1.06	118.0863	118.0863	0.0	72.0808, 55.0543
5	Cytosine	C ₄ H ₅ N ₃ O	$[M + H]^{+}$	1.26	112.0506	112.0505	0.9	95.0241, 69.0448
6	Benzaldehyde	C7H6O	$[M + H]^{+}$	1.43	107.0491	107.0491	0.0	95.0492, 79.0543
7	Cinnamic acid	C9H8O2	$[M + H]^{+}$	1.45	149.0598	149.0597	0.7	131.0491, 121.0648, 103.0543, 79.0543
8	p-Coumaric acid	C ₉ H ₈ O ₃	$[M + H]^{+}$	1.51	165.0545	165.0546	-0.6	147.0441, 123.0441, 119.0492, 95.0492
9	Citric Acid	C6H8O7	[M-H]	1.63	191.0197	191.0186	5.8	111.0088, 87.0088, 85.0295, 57.0346
10	Cinnamaldehyde	C ₉ H ₈ O	$[M + H]^{+}$	1.67	133.0649	133.0648	0.8	115.0545, 105.0700, 86.0965
11	L-Leucine	C ₆ H ₁₃ NO ₂	$[M + H]^{+}$	1.72	132.102	132.1019	0.8	86.0964, 44.0495
12	Protocatechuic acid-4-O- glucoside	C ₁₃ H ₁₆ O ₉	[M-H] ⁻	2.31	315.0724	315.0711	4.1	153.0194, 108.0217
13	Salicylic acid	C7H6O3	[M-H] ⁻	2.49	137.0244	137.0233	8.0	93.0346, 109.0295 ,
14	Nicotinamide	C ₆ H ₆ N ₂ O	$[M + H]^{+}$	2.57	123.0554	123.0553	0.8	96.0445, 80.0496
15	Guanosine	C10H13N5O5	$[M + H]^{+}$	2.96	284.0981	284.0989	-2.8	152.0569, 135.0303, 110.0349
16	L-Phenylalanine	C ₉ H ₁₁ NO ₂	$[M + H]^{+}$	3.31	166.0863	166.0863	0.0	149.0596, 131.0492, 120.0807, 103.0543
17	Gallic acid 4-O-glucoside	C13H16O10	[M-H] ⁻	3.34	331.0671	331.0660	3.3	313.0564, 168.0065, 149.9958, 125.0244
18	Glucomoringin	C20H29NO14S2	[M-H] ⁻	3.34	570.0956	570.0946	1.8	328.0865, 259.0135, 113.0249, 96.9601
19	Adenosine	C10H13N5O4	$[M + H]^{+}$	3.34	268.1042	268.1040	0.7	136.0618, 119.0356, 57.0335
20	Gallic acid	C7H6O5	[M-H] ⁻	3.36	169.0143	169.0131	7.1	125.0245, 107.0502, 81.0346, 69.0347
21	Neochlorogenic acid	$C_{16}H_{18}O_9$	[M-H]	3.38	353.0897	353.0867	8.5	191.0561, 179.0350, 173.0458, 135.0452, 109.0295, 93.0345
22	Protocatechuic acid	C ₇ H ₆ O ₄	[M-H] ⁻	3.40	153.0194	153.0182	7.8	109.0295, 111.0454, 137.0244
23	Chlorogenic acid	C16H18O9	[M-H] ⁻	3.53	353.0880	353.0867	3.7	191.0562, 179.0350, 135.0452, 111.0450
24	Vicenin-2	C27H30O15	[M-H] ⁻	3.61	593.1511	593.1501	1.7	353.0664, 473.1087, 297.0767
25	7-Hydroxycoumarin	C ₉ H ₆ O ₃	$[M + H]^{+}$	3.62	163.0392	163.0390	1.2	145.0286, 135.0442, 117.0337, 89.0387
26	p-Coumaroylquinic acid	C16H18O8	$[M-H]^{-}$	3.63	337.0934	337.0918	4.7	191.0560, 163.0401, 119.0502, 111.0452, 93.0345
27	Cryptochlorogenic acid	C16H18O9	[M-H] ⁻	3.64	353.0891	353.0867	6.8	191.0562, 173.0456, 135.0452, 111.0454, 93.0346
28	Rutin	C27H30O16	[M-H] ⁻	3.78	609.1464	609.1450	2.3	300.0276, 271.0249, 255.0301, 151.0399
29	Protocatechualdehyde	C ₇ H ₆ O ₃	[M-H] ⁻	3.79	137.0244	137.0233	8.0	93.0346, 119.0141, 108.0218
30	3-O-Feruloylquinic acid	C17H20O9	[M-H] ⁻	3.81	367.1024	367.1024	0.0	191.0562, 173.0456, 134.0373, 111.0453, 93.0345
31	Vitexin	C21H20O10	[M-H] ⁻	3.83	431.0982	431.0973	2.1	341.0668, 311.0562, 283.0613
32	Kaempferol-3-O-rutinoside	C27H30O15	$[M-H]^{-}$	3.83	593.1514	593.1501	2.2	285.0403, 255.0300, 227.0352
33	Isoquercitrin	C21H20O12	[M-H] ⁻	3.90	463.0883	463.0871	2.6	300.0274, 271.0247, 255.0301
34	Astragalin	C21H20O11	[M-H] ⁻	3.91	447.0931	447.0922	2.0	284.0326, 255.0299, 227.0350
35	Quercetin-acetyl-glycoside	C24H22O15	[M-H] ⁻	3.93	505.0989	505.0977	2.4	300.0276, 271.0249, 255.0299, 151.0036
36	Isorhamnetin-3-O-glucoside	C22H22O12	[M-H] ⁻	3.93	477.1040	477.1028	2.5	314.0433, 285.0405, 271.0248, 243.0300
37	Kaempferol	C15H10O6	$[M + H]^{+}$	3.93	287.0555	287.0550	1.7	258.0527, 241.0505, 213.0546, 165.0185
38	Quinic acid	C7H12O6	[M-H] ⁻	3.94	191.0553	191.0550	1.6	147.0450, 87.0088, 85.0295
39	Kaempferol-acetyl-glycoside	C23H22O12	[M-H] ⁻	3.95	489.1039	489.1028	2.2	284.0327, 255.0300, 227.0350
40	Quercetin	C15H10O7	$[M + H]^+$	3.99	303.0501	303.0499	0.7	285.0394, 257.0450, 247.0580, 165.0180
41	Ferulic acid	$C_{10}H_{10}O_4$	[M-H] ⁻	4.38	193.0506	193.0495	5.7	178.0272, 148.0763, 136.0167, 74.0248, 108.0217
42	Isorhamnetin	C16H12O7	[M-H] ⁻	4.51	315.0511	315.0499	3.8	300.0275, 283.0255, 164.0115, 151.0038, 107.0139
43	α-Linolenic acid	$C_{18}H_{30}O_2$	$[M + H]^+$	5.20	279.2317	279.2319	-0.7	261.2229, 243.2112, 95.0856, 81.0700

components and ISs of the MOL in plasma samples. The methodology used in this pharmacokinetic investigation of the analytes in rat plasma could successfully be used after oral administration. The evaluated and validated pharmacokinetic parameters serve as a foundational framework for potential clinical MOL applications.

Funding statement

This research was supported by National Natural Science Foundation of China (No.82374333, No.82173961), SPU Excellent Youth Program (YQ202310), SPU Youth Career Development plan (ZQN202211), LiaoNing Revitalization Talents Program (XLYC2203200), Key Laboratory of polysaccharide bioactivity evaluation of TCM of Liaoning Province-Liaoning Distinguished Professor Project for Ying Jia (2017), High-level innovation and entrepreneurship team of Liaoning Province (XLYC2008029), Liaoning Provincial Department of Education Fund (LJKZ0911, LJKZ0950).

CRediT authorship contribution statement

Jiahong Wang: Writing – original draft, Methodology, Investigation, Formal analysis, Conceptualization. Yiyang Du: Validation, Methodology, Investigation, Funding acquisition. Jiahe Li: Methodology, Investigation. **Bing Yu:** Visualization, Software, Methodology, Formal analysis, Data curation. **Chuang Ren:** Methodology, Investigation. **Tingxu Yan:** Validation, Funding acquisition, Formal analysis. **Ying Jia:** Software, Funding acquisition. **Bosai He:** Writing – review & editing, Supervision, Conceptualization.

Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare the following financial interests/personal relationships which may be considered as potential competing interests:

Yiyang Du reports financial support was provided by National Natural Science Foundation of China. Tingxu Yan reports financial support was provided by National Natural Science Foundation of China. Tingxu Yan reports financial support was provided by Scientific Research Fund of Liaoning Provincial Education Department. Ying Jia reports financial support was provided by Scientific Research Fund of Liaoning Provincial Education Department. Ying Jia reports financial support was provided by Key Laboratory of polysaccharide bioactivity evaluation of TCM of Liaoning Province-Liaoning Distinguished Professor Project. Ying Jia reports financial support was provided by High-level innovation and entrepreneurship team of Liaoning Province. If there are other authors, they declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work



Fig. 4. Multiple Reaction Monitoring (MRM) chromatograms obtained from blank rat plasma (A), blank rat plasma spiked with analytes (LLOQ) and the IS (B), plasma sample obtained from a male rat 0.5 h after drug administration (C).



Fig. 4. (continued).



Fig. 5. The averaged concentration versus time plots for chlorogenic acid (A), cryptochlorogenic acid (B), vicenin-2 (C), vitexin (D), rutin (E), isoquercitrin (F), kaempferol-3-O-rutinoside (G), astragalin (H) in rat plasma following the oral administration of *Moringa oleifera* leaf extract (n = 6).



Fig. 5. (continued).

reported in this paper.

Data availability

The supporting data are available from the corresponding author(s) upon request.

Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fochx.2024.101585.

References

- Abdou, K. H., Moselhy, W. A., Mohamed, H. M., El-Nahass, E.-S., & Khalifa, A. G. (2019). Moringa oleifera leaves extract protects titanium dioxide nanoparticles-induced nephrotoxicity via Nrf2/HO-1 signaling and amelioration of oxidative stress. *Biological Trace Element Research*, 187(1), 181–191. https://doi.org/10.1007/ s12011-018-1366-2
- Anwar, F., Latif, S., Ashraf, M., & Gilani, A. H. (2007). Moringa oleifera : A food plant with multiple medicinal uses. *Phytotherapy Research*, 21(1), 17–25. https://doi.org/ 10.1002/ptr.2023
- Atawodi, S. E., Atawodi, J. C., Idakwo, G. A., Pfundstein, B., Haubner, R., Wurtele, G., ... Owen, R. W. (2010). Evaluation of the polyphenol content and antioxidant properties of methanol extracts of the leaves, stem, and root barks of *Moringa oleifera* lam. *Journal of Medicinal Food*, *13*(3), 710–716. https://doi.org/10.1089/ imf.2009.0057
- Balusamy, S. R., Perumalsamy, H., Ranjan, A., Park, S., & Ramani, S. (2019). A dietary vegetable, Moringa oleifera leaves (drumstick tree) induced fat cell apoptosis by inhibiting adipogenesis in 3T3-L1 adipocytes. *Journal of Functional Foods*, 59, 251–260. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jff.2019.05.029
- Cáceres, A., Saravia, A., Rizzo, S., Zabala, L., De Leon, E., & Nave, F. (1992). Pharmacologic properties of Moringa oleifera. 2: Screening for antispasmodic, antiinflammatory and diuretic activity. *Journal of Ethnopharmacology*, *36*(3), 233–237. https://doi.org/10.1016/0378-8741(92)90049-w
- Caicedo-Lopez, L. H., Cuellar-Nuñez, M. L., Luzardo-Ocampo, I., Campos-Vega, R., & Lóarca-Piña, G. (2021). Colonic metabolites from digested *Moringa oleifera* leaves

induced HT-29 cell death via apoptosis, necrosis, and autophagy. International Journal of Food Sciences and Nutrition, 72(4), 485–498. https://doi.org/10.1080/09637486.2020.1849039

- Chen, G.-L., Xu, Y.-B., Wu, J.-L., Li, N., & Guo, M.-Q. (2020). Hypoglycemic and hypolipidemic effects of Moringa oleifera leaves and their functional chemical constituents. *Food Chemistry*, 333, Article 127478. https://doi.org/10.1016/j. foodchem.2020.127478
- Cuellar-Núñez, M. L., Gonzalez de Mejia, E., & Loarca-Piña, G. (2021). Moringa oleifera leaves alleviated inflammation through downregulation of IL-2, IL-6, and TNF-α in a colitis-associated colorectal cancer model. *Food Research International*, 144, Article 110318. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodres.2021.110318
- Dangi, S. Y., Jolly, C. I., & Narayanan, S. (2002). Antihypertensive activity of the Total alkaloids from the leaves of Moringa oleifera. *Pharmaceutical Biology*, 40(2), 144–148. https://doi.org/10.1076/phbi.40.2.144.5847
- Diallo, D., Marston, A., Terreaux, C., Touré, Y., Smestad Paulsen, B., & Hostettmann, K. (2001). Screening of Malian medicinal plants for antifungal, larvicidal, molluscicidal, antioxidant and radical scavenging activities. *Phytotherapy Research*, 15(5), 401–406. https://doi.org/10.1002/ptr.738
- Eilert, U., Wolters, B., & Nahrstedt, A. (1981). The antibiotic principle of seeds of Moringa oleifera and Moringa stenopetala. *Planta Medica*, 42(05), 55–61. https:// doi.org/10.1055/s-2007-971546
- Ezeamuzie, I. C., Ambakederemo, A. W., Shode, F. O., & Ekwebelem, S. C. (1996). Antiinflammatory effects of Moringa oleifera root extract. *International Journal of Pharmacognosy*, 34(3), 207–212. https://doi.org/10.1076/phbi.34.3.207.13211
- Ghasi, S., Nwobodo, E., & Ofili, J. O. (2000). Hypocholesterolemic effects of crude extract of leaf of Moringa oleifera lam in high-fat diet fed wistar rats. *Journal of Ethnopharmacology*, 69(1), 21–25. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0378-8741(99)00106-3
- Gilmar, A. M. J., Ygor, F. G. C., Valéria, M., Fabiano, F. C., Mirian, P. R., Juliana, C. C., ... Fernanda, M. P. V. (2022). Chemical characterisation by UPLC-Q-ToF-MS/MS and antibacterial potential of Coffea arabica L. leaves: A coffee by-product. *Phytochemical Analysis*, 33, 1036–1044. https://doi.org/10.1002/pca.3157
- Guo, Y., Sun, L.-P., & Zhuang, Y.-L. (2019). UPLC-Q-Orbitrap-MS2 analysis of Moringa oleifera leaf extract and its antioxidant, antibacterial and anti-inflammatory activities. *Natural Product Research*, 34, 2090–2094. https://doi.org/10.1080/ 14786419.2019.1573237
- Hassan, M. A., Xu, T., Tian, Y., Zhong, Y., Ali, F. A. Z., Yang, X., & Lu, B. (2021). Health benefits and phenolic compounds of Moringa oleifera leaves: A comprehensive review. *Phytomedicine : international journal of phytotherapy and phytopharmacology*, 93, Article 153771. https://doi.org/10.1016/j
- Hui, X., Na, L., Yong, Z.-Y., Zi, L., Zhe, L., & Lan, Q.-Z. (2023). Comprehensive characterization and identification of chemical constituents of Xiangsha Pingwei

J. Wang et al.

pills by UPLC-Q-TOF-MS. Journal of AOAC International, 106(4), 1017–1036. https://doi.org/10.1093/jaoacint/qsad024

- Jaiswal, D., Kumar Rai, P., Kumar, A., Mehta, S., & Watal, G. (2009). Effect of Moringa oleifera lam. Leaves aqueous extract therapy on hyperglycemic rats. *Journal of Ethnopharmacology*, 123(3), 392–396. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jep.2009.03.036
- Leone, A., Spada, A., Battezzati, A., Schiraldi, A., Aristil, J., & Bertoli, S. (2015). Cultivation, genetic, Ethnopharmacology, Phytochemistry and pharmacology of Moringa oleifera leaves: An overview. *International Journal of Molecular Sciences*, 16 (12), 12791–12835. https://doi.org/10.3390/ijms160612791
- Luqman, S., Srivastava, S., Kumar, R., Maurya, A. K., & Chanda, D. (2012). Experimental assessment of Moringa oleifera leaf and fruit for its Antistress, antioxidant, and scavenging potential using in vitro and in vivo assays. Evidence-based Complementary and Alternative Medicine, 2012, 1–12. https://doi.org/10.1155/2012/519084
- Mbikay, M. (2012). Therapeutic potential of Moringa oleifera leaves in chronic hyperglycemia and dyslipidemia: A review. *Frontiers in Pharmacology*, 3. https://doi. org/10.3389/fphar.2012.00024
- Moyo, B., Oyedemi, S., Masika, P. J., & Muchenje, V. (2012). Polyphenolic content and antioxidant properties of Moringa oleifera leaf extracts and enzymatic activity of liver from goats supplemented with Moringa oleifera leaves/sunflower seed cake. *Meat Science*, 91(4), 441–447. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.meatsci.2012.02.029
- Mumtaz, M. Z., Kausar, F., Hassan, M., Javaid, S., & Malik, A. (2021). Anticancer activities of phenolic compounds from Moringa oleifera leaves: In vitro and in silico mechanistic study. Beni-Suef University Journal of Basic and Applied Sciences, 10(1), 12. https://doi.org/10.1186/s43088-021-00101-2
- Nayak, G., Honguntikar, S. D., Kalthur, S. G., D'Souza, A. S., Mutalik, S., Setty, M. M., ... Adiga, S. K. (2016). Ethanolic extract of Moringa oleifera lam. Leaves protect the pre-pubertal spermatogonial cells from cyclophosphamide-induced damage. *Journal* of Ethnopharmacology, 182, 101–109. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jep.2016.02.003
- Pari, L., & Kumar, N. A. (2002). Hepatoprotective activity of Moringa oleifera on Antitubercular drug-induced liver damage in rats. *Journal of Medicinal Food*, 5(3), 171–177. https://doi.org/10.1089/10966200260398206
- Qiang, Q. J., Shou, D. Z., Hong, Y. Z., Xi, J. Y., Xin, L. C., Zhan, H. S., & Ping, H. (2020). A comparative study on polyphenolic composition of berries from the Tibetan plateau by UPLC-Q-Orbitrap MS system. *Chemistry & Biodiversity*, 17(4). https://doi. org/10.1002/cbdv.202000033
- Sahakitpichan, P., Mahidol, C., Disadee, W., Ruchirawat, S., & Kanchanapoom, T. (2011). Unusual glycosides of pyrrole alkaloid and 4'-hydroxyphenylethanamide from leaves of Moringa oleifera. *Phytochemistry*, 72(8), 791–795. https://doi.org/10.1016/j. phytochem.2011.02.021

- Sánchez-Machado, D. I., López-Cervantes, J., & Ríos Vázquez, N. J. (2006). Highperformance liquid chromatography method to measure α- and γ-tocopherol in leaves, flowers and fresh beans from Moringa oleifera. *Journal of Chromatography A*, *1105*(1–2), 111–114. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chroma.2005.07.048
- Seshadri, S., & Nambiar, V. S. (2003). Kanjero (Digera arvensis) and Drumstick Leaves (Moringa oleifera) : Nutrient Profile and Potential for Human Consumption. In Plants in human health and nutrition policy (pp. 41–59). KARGER. https://doi.org/10.1159/ 0000669927
- Siddhuraju, P., & Becker, K. (2003). Antioxidant properties of various solvent extracts of total phenolic constituents from three different agroclimatic origins of drumstick tree (Moringa oleifera lam.) leaves. *Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry*, 51(8), 2144–2155. https://doi.org/10.1021/jf020444+
- Singh, D., Arya, P., Aggarwal, V., & Gupta, R. (2014). Evaluation of antioxidant and Hepatoprotective activities of Moringa oleifera lam. *Leaves in Carbon Tetrachloride-Intoxicated Rats. Antioxidants*, 3(3), 569–591. https://doi.org/10.3390/ antiox3030569
- Sosa-Gutiérrez, J., Valdéz-Solana, M., Forbes-Hernández, T., Avitia-Domínguez, C., Garcia-Vargas, G., Salas-Pacheco, J., Flores-Herrera, O., Téllez-Valencia, A., Battino, M., & Sierra-Campos, E. (2018). Effects of Moringa oleifera leaves extract on high glucose-induced metabolic changes in HepG2 cells. *Biology*, 7(3), 37. https:// doi.org/10.3390/biology7030037
- Sreelatha, S., Jeyachitra, A., & Padma, P. R. (2011). Antiproliferation and induction of apoptosis by Moringa oleifera leaf extract on human cancer cells. *Food and Chemical Toxicology*, 49(6), 1270–1275. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fct.2011.03.006
- Tatiane, L. C. O., Nathalie, M., Mariéli, K., Solange, T. C., Severino, M. A., Rafael, G. F. M., ... Eduardo, J. P. (2019). Bioguided extraction of phenolic compounds and UHPLC-ESI-Q-TOF-MS/MS characterization of extracts of Moringa oleifera leaves collected in Brazil. *Food Research International*, 125, Article 108647. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.foodres.2019.108647
- Xie, J., Wang, Y., Jiang, W.-W., Luo, X.-F., Dai, T.-Y., Peng, L., Song, S., Li, L.-F., Tao, L., Shi, C.-Y., Hao, R.-S., Xiao, R., Tian, Y., & Sheng, J. (2018). Moringa oleifera Leaf Petroleum ether extract inhibits lipogenesis by activating the AMPK signaling pathway. *Frontiers in Pharmacology*, 9. https://doi.org/10.3389/fphar.2018.01447
- Yi, T., Yan, H.-J., Wei, D.-L., & Bao, C.-C. (2016). Rapid characterization and determination of isoflavones and triterpenoid saponins in Fu-Zhu-Jiang-tang tablets using UHPLC-Q-TOF/MS and HPLC-UV. Analytical Methods, 8, 4211–4219. https:// doi.org/10.1039/C6AY00732E