



*Research article*

**The influence of environmental variations on the phenolic compound profiles and antioxidant activity of two medicinal Patagonian valerians (*Valeriana carnos*a Sm. and *V. clarionifolia* Phil.)**

Nicolas Nagahama<sup>1,2,3,\*</sup>, Bruno Gastaldi<sup>2,3</sup>, Michael N. Clifford<sup>4</sup>, Mar ía M. Manifesto<sup>5</sup> and Ren é H. Fortunato<sup>2,5</sup>

<sup>1</sup> Estaci3n Experimental Agroforestal Esquel, Instituto Nacional de Tecnolog ía Agropecuaria (INTA), Esquel, Chubut, Argentina

<sup>2</sup> Consejo Nacional de Investigaciones Cient íficas y Tecnol3gicas (CONICET)

<sup>3</sup> Laboratorio de Investigaci3n de Plantas Arom áticas y Medicinales Nativas (LIPAM), FCNyCS, Universidad Nacional de la Patagonia San Juan Bosco, Esquel, Chubut, Argentina

<sup>4</sup> School of Bioscience and Medicine, University of Surrey, Guildford, United Kingdom and Department of Nutrition, Dietetics and Food, Monash University, Notting Hill, Victoria, Australia

<sup>5</sup> Instituto de Recursos Biol3gicos, CIRN- INTA, Hurlingham, Buenos Aires, Argentina

\* **Correspondence:** Email: [nagahama.nicolas@inta.gob.ar](mailto:nagahama.nicolas@inta.gob.ar); Tel: (+54) 2945451558.

**Abstract:** *Valeriana carnos*a and *V. clarionifolia* stand out as principal elements in the indigenous pharmacopeias of Patagonia; however, their phytochemical characterization is unknown. This study constitutes the starting point of a general project that aims to characterize secondary metabolites in these species. The variability of phenolic compounds in root ethanolic extracts was analyzed and compared for thirteen populations of *V. carnos*a and two of *V. clarionifolia* from the south of Argentinean Patagonia. Phenolic content was quantified by the Folin-Ciocalteu method and the putative phenolic compound profiles were investigated using HPLC-UV-MS. Antioxidant activity was evaluated through 2,2-diphenyl-1-picrylhydrazyl (DPPH) radical scavenging assays. Total phenolic content values ranged from 5.6 to 16.6 mg GAE/g in *V. carnos*a and 7.3 to 9.7 mg GAE/g in *V. clarionifolia*. Antioxidant evaluation results evidenced that the percentage of neutralized DPPH varied between 26% and 85% in *V. carnos*a and 39% and 58% in *V. clarionifolia*. A positive correlation between total phenolic content and antioxidant activity ( $r = 0.90$ ) was observed. In *V. carnos*a total phenolic content was not correlated with

altitude or latitude ( $p > 0.05$ ), and chemical variability seems to be associated with genetic variability and/or different growing habitats (microclimatic conditions). However, the presence of some specific phenolic compounds was associated with latitude. In *V. carnos*a and *V. clarionifolia* 15 and 10 phenolic compounds were tentatively identified, respectively, and several of these are reported to have beneficial attributes from a phytomedicinal viewpoint. This study contributes to the phytochemical characterization project of these two medicinal valerians from Patagonia.

**Keywords:** antioxidant activity; ethanolic extracts; HPLC-UV-MS analysis; inter-population variability; phenols

## 1. Introduction

Approximately 250 species of the genus *Valeriana* L. (Valerianoideae, Caprifoliaceae) are distributed widely throughout the world, except for Australia and New Zealand. In Argentinean Patagonia there are 20 *Valeriana* species [1–3], of which *V. carnos*a and *V. clarionifolia* are important medicinal plants in regional folk medicine [4]. These species are similar in geographical distribution but grow in different environments. *V. carnos*a grows from  $-35^{\circ}36'$  to  $-54^{\circ}17'$  latitude, mainly in the Patagonian-Andean forest-steppe ecotone (west Patagonia) and in the highest mountains of the steppe region, from 0 to 2500 m a.s.l. [1,2,5], while *V. clarionifolia* grows between  $-35^{\circ}03'$  and  $-50^{\circ}30'$  latitude, generally associated with steppe environments from 0 to 2000 m a.s.l [1,6].

Argentinean Patagonia is characterized by strong climatic gradients of latitude, longitude, and altitude, ranging from relatively colder and humid environments in the west (Andean Patagonia) to more arid and warmer environments in the east (Patagonian steppe) [7]. The climatic variation determined by the latitudinal amplitude in Patagonia and the large thermal variations detected across its longitude, which are mostly related to differences in annual and daily thermal ranges, radiation, and the influence of the winds from the Pacific Ocean, generate a great variety of environments in this region [8].

Plants synthesize different chemical compounds in response to different stress conditions, such as herbalism, pathogens, UV radiation, altitude, drought and frost [9,10]. Environmental factors are known to influence the quality and quantity of these metabolites [11,12]. In consequence, environmental factors influence phytochemical production in plants, generating variation in the regulation and accumulation of these compounds [13–15], which also vary among populations of the same species [16–19]. Extreme plant environments (i.e. high UV-B radiation related to high altitude) stimulate the synthesis of free radicals, which cause oxidative stress and simultaneously affect the general structural and functional properties of plants [20]. Oxidative stress causes damage in proteins, lipids and DNA, being able to stimulate mutagenic processes. A defense mechanism of plants to counteract oxidative stress is to synthesize antioxidative defense components such as polyphenolic compounds, terpenes, carotenoids and alkaloids [21].

Phenolic compounds are secondary metabolites characterized by an aromatic backbone with one or more hydroxyl groups, derivatives of the pentose phosphate, shikimate, and phenylpropanoid pathways in plants [22]. These compounds are of physiological and morphological significance in plants, with an important role in growth and reproduction, providing protection against adverse environmental

conditions, pathogens, and predators [20,23]. They have also become of interest to humans due to their implications for health, particularly (but not restricted to), their antioxidant properties [24,25], whereby free radicals are captured and dangerous reactive oxygen species and other potentially damaging species are neutralized either directly or indirectly [26]. Several medicinal properties are attributed to phenolic compounds, such as a protective effect against cardiovascular diseases, as some have moderate vasodilator activity [27], and a potential anticancer effect, particularly associated with the phenolic acids [28]. The total phenolic content and antioxidant potential of some species of the Valerianaceae family have been reported [19,29–31]; however, information on the Patagonian valerians is limited.

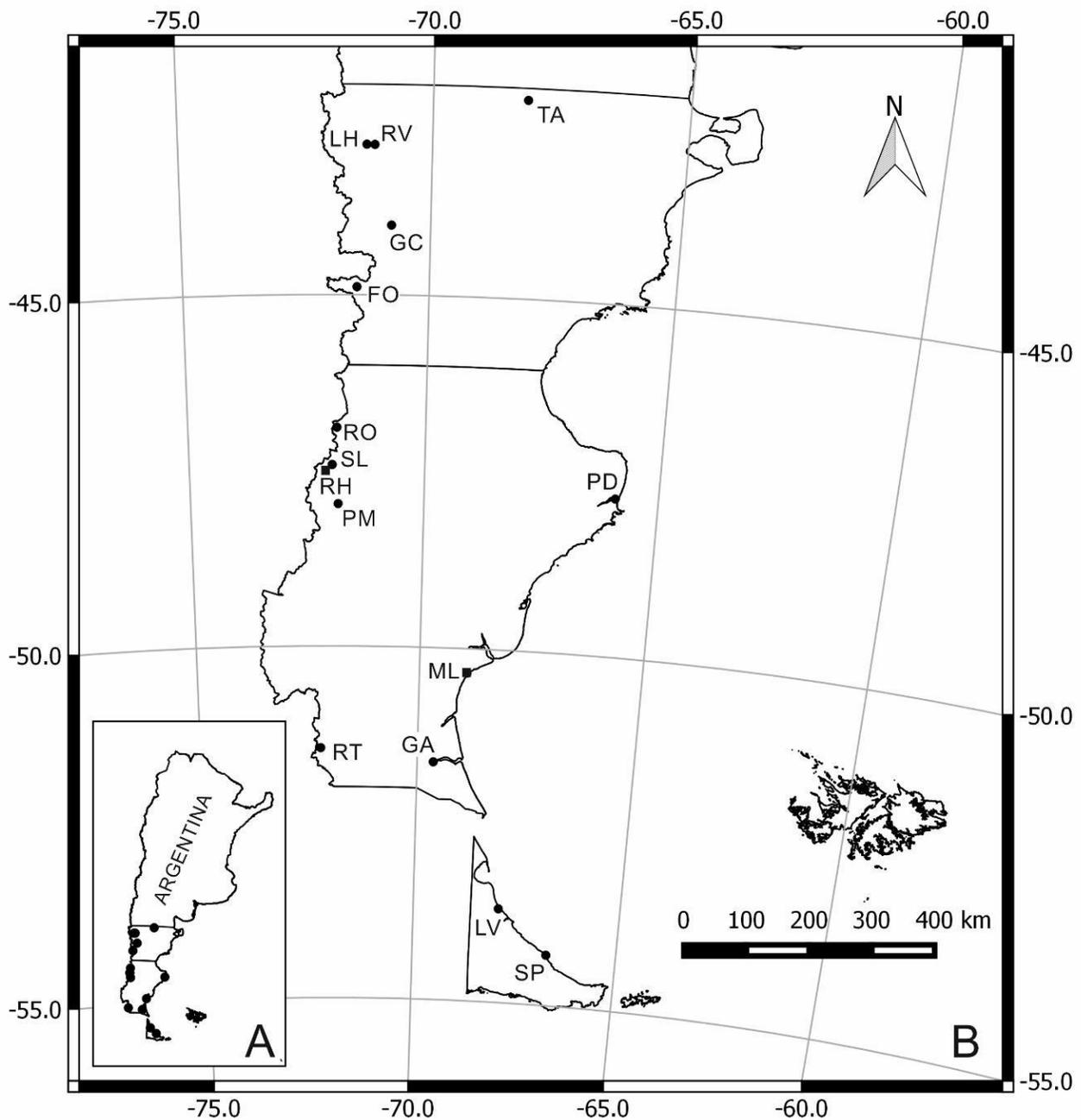
*V. carnos* is one of the plants most used by Patagonian ethnic groups (Mapuche-Tehuelche) to counteract different ailments, since anxiolytic, analgesic, antitumor, antitussive, circulatory, digestive and urinary-liver properties are attributed to it [4,32]. This species is one of the most prominent medicinal plants in the Mapuche pharmacopeia, and from an ethnopharmacological viewpoint, one of the most promising, versatile medicinal plants in Patagonia [4]. *V. clarionifolia* also has a record of medicinal use; it is used for its analgesic, antitussive, urinary and healing properties [33]. Both species are collected from natural populations, and due to the demand for *V. carnos*, *in situ* cultivation programs for this species are currently being initiated in Patagonia [5,34].

In this study we compared the phenolic compounds (qualitatively and quantitatively) and antioxidant activity of root ethanolic extracts from thirteen populations of *V. carnos* and two of *V. clarionifolia* from the south of Argentinean Patagonia. The objectives of this study were to (1) compare the total phenolic compound content and antioxidant activity among different populations of *V. carnos* and *V. clarionifolia*; (2) establish whether total phenolic content and phenolic profiles in *V. carnos* are related to latitudinal and altitudinal variation; and (3) report a preliminary characterization/identification of phenolic compounds of phytomedicinal interest in these two Patagonian valerians by HPLC-UV-MS. The certainty of these identifications are graded from 1 (most certain) to 4 (least certain) according to the criteria and recommendations of Sumner et al. [35].

## 2. Material and methods

### 2.1. Plant material

One hundred and twelve *V. carnos* plants were collected in January 2017 (fruiting stage) from thirteen populations in Southern Patagonia, Argentina (Figure 1; Table 1). Additionally, sixteen plants from two populations of *V. clarionifolia* were collected; one from the Andean region (west) and the other from the Atlantic coast region (east). Specimens of this species were collected for comparison with *V. carnos* (Figure 1; Table 1). The botanical identity of the plants was authenticated by Dr. Nagahama and herbarium voucher checks (BAB and CORD). Voucher specimens were deposited in the BAB herbarium. From each population of *V. carnos* and *V. clarionifolia* we selected eight adult plants located at least 20 m distant from each other. The roots of collected specimens were cut and stored in paper bags and protected from light and moisture for 45 days.



**Figure 1.** Distribution of analyzed populations of *Valeriana*. A. Location of the surveyed area. B. Detail of southern Patagonia. *V. carnosa* populations (circles): TA, Talagapa; RV, R ó Viejo; LH, La Hoya; GC, Gobernador Costa; FO, Fontana; RO, R ó Roballos; SL, San Lorenzo; PD, Puerto Deseado; PM, Perito Moreno; RT, R ó Turbio; GA, Güer Aike; LV, Las Violetas; SP, San Pablo. *V. clarionifolia* (squares): RH, R ó Hielo; ML, Monte León.

**Table 1.** Details of plant material collection sites. TA, Talagapa. RV, R ó Viejo. LH, La Hoya. GC, Gobernador Costa. FO, Fontana. RO, R ó Roballos. SL, San Lorenzo. PD, Puerto Deseado. PM, Perito Moreno. RT, R ó Turbio. GA, Güer Aike. LV, Las Violetas. SP, San Pablo. RH, R ó Hielo. ML, Monte León.

	Species	Population code	Province	Latitude	Longitude	Altitude (m a.sl)
1	<i>V. carnosa</i>	TA	Chubut	42 10 17 ''S	68 09 40 ''W	1863
2	<i>V. carnosa</i>	RV	Chubut	42 51 30 ''S	71 07 40 ''W	823
3	<i>V. carnosa</i>	LH	Chubut	42 51 22 ''S	71 17 10 ''W	848
4	<i>V. carnosa</i>	GC	Chubut	44 00 17 ''S	70 46 51 ''W	754
5	<i>V. carnosa</i>	FO	Chubut	44 53 12 ''S	71 27 51 ''W	1119
6	<i>V. carnosa</i>	RO	Santa Cruz	46 53 16 ''S	71 51 56 ''W	922
7	<i>V. carnosa</i>	SL	Santa Cruz	47 25 10 ''S	71 57 51 ''W	431
8	<i>V. carnosa</i>	PD	Santa Cruz	47 45 02 ''S	65 55 04 ''W	10
9	<i>V. carnosa</i>	PM	Santa Cruz	47 58 31 ''S	71 50 12 ''W	824
10	<i>V. carnosa</i>	RT	Santa Cruz	51 26 49 ''S	72 13 35 ''W	345
11	<i>V. carnosa</i>	GA	Santa Cruz	51 37 31 ''S	69 37 31 ''W	14
12	<i>V. carnosa</i>	LV	Tierra del Fuego	53 40 13 ''S	67 56 02 ''W	5
13	<i>V. carnosa</i>	SP	Tierra del Fuego	54 17 01 ''S	66 42 18 ''W	25
14	<i>V. clarionifolia</i>	RH	Santa Cruz	47 25 08 ''S	71 57 53 ''W	431
15	<i>V. clarionifolia</i>	ML	Santa Cruz	50 20 49 ''S	68 55 49 ''W	58

## 2.2. Preparation of ethanolic extracts

The roots of each specimen were milled to a fine texture in a grinding machine and 1 g of the powdered plant material was macerated with 10 mL of ethanol at room temperature for 7 days (root ethanolic extract). Each extract was filtered using Whatman's No. 1 filter paper to eliminate residues. Following this, composite samples from eight specimens of each population (population ethanolic extract) were prepared and stored at 4 °C for different analyses.

## 2.3. Determination of total phenols

Total phenolic content was determined by the Folin-Ciocalteu method (April 2017) according to Chaisri & Laoprom [36] as follows: 2 mL of distilled water was mixed with 20 µL of extract solution, followed by the addition of 0.2 mL of Folin-Ciocalteu reagent (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis USA) and 0.8 mL of Na<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub>. After 20 min of incubation at room temperature, absorbance was measured at 765 nm by spectrophotometer (Metrolab 324). All measurements were made in triplicate and the average value was used for quantification. A calibration curve was made with gallic acid to express the total phenolic content in mg of gallic acid equivalent per g (mg GAE/g) of dry weight (DW).

#### 2.4. DPPH radical scavenging activity

*In vitro* antioxidant activity was determined using the 2,2-diphenyl-1-picrylhydrazyl (DPPH) protocol, according to Gastaldi et al. [37]. We mixed 3.9 mL of DPPH ethanol solution (15 mg DPPH/500 mL ethanol), at a concentration of 30 mg/L, with 50  $\mu$ L of ethanolic extracts from the populations. A cuvette containing only DPPH ethanol solution was used as a control. Absorbance was measured at 517 nm using a spectrophotometer. All measurements were made in triplicate and the average values were used to estimate antioxidant activity. The reduced DPPH percentage of each cuvette was calculated according to the following equation:

$$\% \text{ inhibition of DPPH} = [(\text{Abs control} - \text{Abs samples}) \div \text{Abs control}] \times 100$$

where “Abs control” is the absorbance of DPPH solution without extract and “Abs samples” is the sample absorbance with DPPH solution. Thus, a higher percentage of inhibition of DPPH indicates greater antioxidant activity.

#### 2.5. Phenolic compound analysis by HPLC-UV-MS

Phenolic compound profile determination was performed by high-performance liquid chromatography coupled to diode array UV detection and tandem mass spectrometry (HPLC-UV-MS [38–40], as follows: 10  $\mu$ L of ethanolic extracts were filtered and injected. Reference standards of 5-caffeoylquinic acid (IUPAC 1976) which is commonly referred to as chlorogenic acid, caffeic acid, ferulic acid, and gallic acid (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, USA) were solubilized in methanol, filtered, and injected. The chromatographic equipment was an Ultimate 3000 RSLC Dionex model from Thermo Scientific, with a UV-Vis detector model VWD-3400 RS, and a triple quadrupole mass detector TSQ Quantum Access Max. The separation was performed on a C18 Hypersil-GOLD column (50  $\times$  2.1 mm; 1.9  $\mu$ m particle size) kept at 30  $^{\circ}$ C, at a flow rate of 0.20 mL/min for 50 minutes. Gradient elution: solvent (A) H<sub>2</sub>O (containing 2.0% AcOH), solvent (B) MeOH; 85%–60% from A to 30 minutes, 60%–25% to 40 minutes, 25%–15% to 45 minutes, ending isocratic to 50 minutes. The analysis was monitored at 254, 280, 330, and 365 nm by ESI in the positive mode at a probe temperature of 360  $^{\circ}$ C, and probe voltage of 4.5 kV. The tentative identifications proposed are based on retention time (RT), UV spectral maxima, and MS fragmentation ( $m/z$ ) in combination with the examination of commercial reference standards, database and bibliographic data [27,31,38–44], and these assignments are graded from 1 to 4 (see Table 3) according to the recommendations and criteria of Sumner et al. [35].

#### 2.6. Statistical analyses

Considering the number of populations of each species, statistical analyses were performed only with *V. carnosus* populations. Total phenolic content and antioxidant activity, total phenolic content and latitude, and total phenolic content and altitude were tested by Pearson correlation analysis. To determine whether there were significant differences in total phenolic content and antioxidant activity in relation to latitude and altitude, populations of *V. carnosus* were grouped in: 1- northern populations, including populations from Chubut province from  $-42^{\circ}10'$  to  $-44^{\circ}53'$  latitude (TA, RV, LH, GC, and FO), 2- southern populations, from Santa Cruz and Tierra del Fuego provinces from  $-46^{\circ}53'$  to  $-54^{\circ}17'$

latitude (RO, SL, PD, PM, RT, GA, LV, and SP), 3- a low altitude (0–800 m asl) population group (GC, SL, PD, RT, GA, LV, and SP), and 4- a high altitude (801–1900 m asl) population group (TA, RV, LH, FO, RO, and PM). The normality of distribution of the data was analyzed by Shapiro–Wilks test [45], as well as diagram boxes. A significant deviation from a normal distribution was observed for each of the studied variables. Therefore, for statistical evaluation of differences in the total phenolic content and antioxidant activity among population groups, multiple comparisons after a Kruskal–Wallis one-way analysis of variance test were employed at  $p \leq 0.05$  level [46]. Additionally, cluster analysis (CA) was performed to reveal the structure residing in a dataset. Sample similarities using the identified compound data matrix (HPLC-UV-MS) were calculated on the basis of the Sokal Sneath 1 distance (recommended for binary data) and the average linkage hierarchical agglomerative method was used to establish clusters.

All the statistical analyses were performed using the Infostat v. 2015 software [47].

### 3. Results

#### 3.1. Total phenol quantification and antioxidant activity

Quantitative variability in phenolic compounds was observed at both intraspecific and interspecific levels between different populations of *V. carnosa* and *V. clarionifolia*. Among species, the total phenolic content for *V. carnosa* was 5.6–16.2 mg GAE/g, with an average of 10.9 mg GAE/g, and for *V. clarionifolia* the values were 7.3–9.7 mg GAE/g, with an average of 8.5 mg GAE/g (Table 2; Figure 2). Regarding antioxidant activity, variability was observed at the intraspecific and interspecific levels in both species. In *V. carnosa* the percentage of neutralized DPPH varied between 26.3% and 84.7%, with an average of 62.2%, and in *V. clarionifolia* it was 39.2% and 58.4%, with an average of 48.8% (Table 2; Figure 2).

**Table 2.** Total phenolic content and antioxidant activity of *V. carnosa* and *V. clarionifolia* populations.

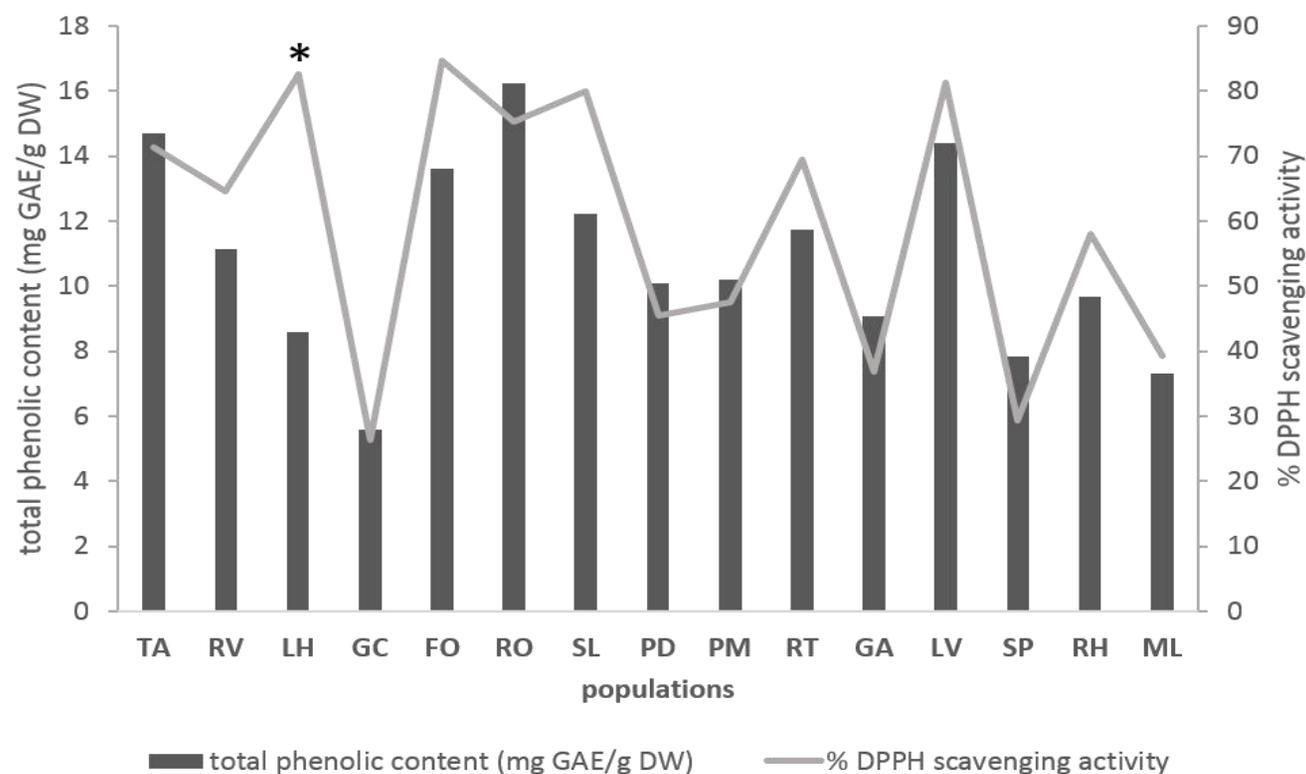
#	Species	Population	Total phenolic content (mg GAE/g DW)	% DPPH scavenging activity
1	<i>V. carnosa</i>	TA	14.68	71.37
2	<i>V. carnosa</i>	RV	11.12	64.58
3	<i>V. carnosa</i>	LH	8.57	82.57
4	<i>V. carnosa</i>	GC	5.59	26.27
5	<i>V. carnosa</i>	FO	13.61	84.71
6	<i>V. carnosa</i>	RO	16.22	75.29
7	<i>V. carnosa</i>	SL	12.23	80.00
8	<i>V. carnosa</i>	PD	10.09	45.49
9	<i>V. carnosa</i>	PM	10.19	47.45
10	<i>V. carnosa</i>	RT	11.72	69.41
11	<i>V. carnosa</i>	GA	9.07	36.86
12	<i>V. carnosa</i>	LV	14.38	81.18
13	<i>V. carnosa</i>	SP	7.84	29.41
14	<i>V. clarionifolia</i>	RH	9.68	58.04
15	<i>V. clarionifolia</i>	ML	7.33	39.22

**Table 3.** Summary of the assigned compounds in each of the samples analyzed by HPLC from different populations of *V. carnososa* and *V. clarionifolia*. The full circles represent the presence of the compound; empty circles the absence of the compound. TA. Talagapa. RV. R ó Viejo. LH. La Hoya. GC. Gobernador Costa. FO. Fontana. RO. R ó Roballos. SL. San Lorenzo. PD. Puerto Deseado. PM. Perito Moreno. RT. R ó Turbio. GA. Güer Aike. LV. Las Violetas. SP. San Pablo. RH. R ó Hielo. ML. Monte León. The standards used in the tests are shown in bold type. Level of certainty as defined by Sumner et al. [35].

Peak	Rt (min)	m/z	$\lambda_{\max}$ (nm)	Identification	Level of certainty	TA	RV	LH	GC	FO	RO	SL	PD	PM	RT	GA	LV	SP	RH	ML
1	2.22	355	330	<b>5-caffeoylquinic acid</b>	1	●	○	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
2	2.92	181	330	<b>Caffeic acid</b>	1	○	○	○	○	○	●	○	○	○	●	●	●	○	●	●
3	5.2	451	254	not identified	4	●	○	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	○
4	5.75	579	254	not identified	4	○	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	○	●	●	●	○	○
5	5.8/6.6	195	330	<b>Ferulic acid</b>	1	○	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	○	○
6	8.38	435	280	not identified	4	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	○
7	13.39	517	330	Dicafeoylquinic acid isomer	2	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
8	13.75	595	330	not identified	4	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	●	●	○	●	●	●	●	●
9	13.8	403	330	not identified	4	●	●	●	●	●	○	●	●	●	○	●	●	●	○	○
10	19.05	553	330/254	not identified	4	○	○	○	○	●	●	●	○	○	○	○	○	○	●	○
11	19.63	539	330	not identified	4	●	○	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	○
12	23.32	545	330	Diferuloylquinic acid isomer	2	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
13	25.47	199	330	Syringic acid	2	○	○	○	●	○	●	○	○	●	○	○	○	○	○	○
14	28.6	465	330	not identified	4	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	○	●
15	30.73	165	330	(o-/p-)Coumaric acid	2	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	○	●	●	●	○	○
16	31.1	369	330	Methyl caffeoylquinic acid	2	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
17	32.55	153	254	p-Hydroxy-phenylacetic acid	2	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	○	●	●	●	●	●
18	42.8	225	330	Sinapic acid	2	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	●
19	43.17	333	254	not identified	4	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	●
20	43.87	149	254	Cinnamic acid	2	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	○	●
21	44.18	167	254	Phloretic acid	2	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	●	●	●	●	●	○	○

Continued on next page

Peak	Rt (min)	m/z	$\lambda_{\max}$ (nm)	Identification	level of certainty	TA	RV	LH	GC	FO	RO	SL	PD	PM	RT	GA	LV	SP	RH	ML
22	45.42	361	254	Rosmarinic acid	2	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
23	45.91	169	280	3,4-Dihydroxy-phenylacetic acid	2	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	●	○	○	○	○
24	47.32	171	254	Gallic acid	1	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●	●
Total number of identified compounds						14	13	16	17	17	18	17	18	19	15	20	19	18	15	13



**Figure 2.** Total phenolic content and antioxidant activity among the populations of *V. carnosa* and *V. clarionifolia* studied. The asterisk indicates the population in which the antioxidant activity was high and the total phenolic content was relatively low.

### 3.2. Phenolic compounds putatively identified by HPLC-UV-MS

IUPAC recommendations (IUPAC 1976) have been followed in describing acyl-quinic acid (chlorogenic acid) regio-isomers. Twenty-three compounds were observed in *V. carnososa* and seventeen in *V. clarionifolia* population ethanolic extracts by HPLC-UV-MS, according to retention time, UV absorption, and mass of the pseudomolecular ion. Five of the phenolic compounds were present in all analyzed populations of both species (compounds 7, 12, 16, 22 and 24). We observed 16 compounds common to both species, 10 phenols (1, 2, 7, 12, 16, 17, 18, 20, 22 and 24) and six unknowns (3, 6, 8, 10, 11 and 14), as shown in Table 3.

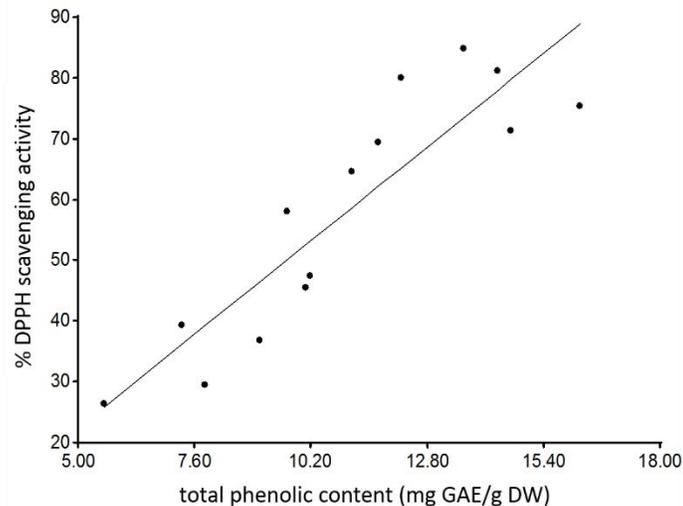
Seven compounds were exclusive to *V. carnososa*, five phenols (5, 13, 15, 21 and 23), and two unknowns (4 and 9), but the presence of these compounds varied between populations (Table 3). In this species, six phenolic compounds (7, 12, 16, 20, 22 and 24) and two unknowns (6 and 14), were observed in all populations. In addition, one phenol (1) and two unknowns (3 and 11) were present in twelve populations of *V. carnososa*, but not in RV. Ferulic acid (5) commonly present in *V. carnososa* and confirmed with a reference standard, was also observed in twelve populations, but not TA. In this species, two phenols (15 and 17) were absent only in the RT population. The compound 4 (unknown) was observed in eleven populations but was absent in TA and RT. The compound 9 (unknown) was present in eleven populations, but not in RO and RT. Syringic acid (13) was present only in three populations (GC, RO, and PM), as was unknown compound 10 (FO, RO, and SL). Phloretic acid (21) was observed only in the six populations of *V. carnososa* located in southernmost Patagonia (PD, PM, RT, GA, LV, and SP; Table 3). Sinapic acid (18) and 3,4-dihydroxyphenylacetic acid (23) were present in specific populations, RT and GA, respectively.

In *V. clarionifolia* we identified seventeen phenolic compounds, one of which was observed in both analyzed populations but was not observed in *V. carnososa* (unknown 19). Eleven compounds were observed in both populations of *V. clarionifolia*: nine phenols (1, 2, 7, 12, 16, 17, 18, 22 and 24) and two unknowns (8 and 19; Table 3). In the RH population we observed fifteen compounds, among which, unknowns 3, 6, 10 and 11 were observed only in this population. In the ML population thirteen phenolic compounds were observed, among which unknown 14 and cinnamic acid (20) were absent in the RH population.

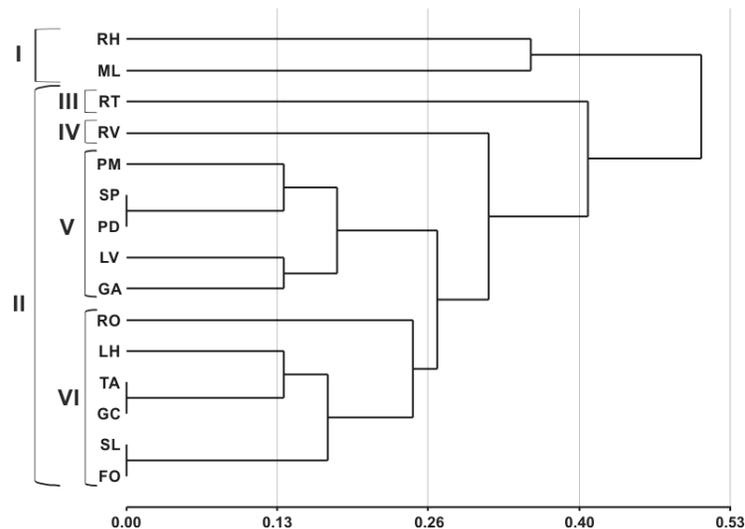
### 3.3. Statistical analyses

The Pearson correlation analysis between total phenolic content and antioxidant activity was found to be significant ( $p < 0.001$ ), with a correlation coefficient of 0.77. Since only the LH population showed a high percentage of neutralized DPPH and low phenolic content (see Figure 2), we also performed a Pearson correlation analysis excluding this population, and the correlation was found to be significant ( $p < 0.001$ ) with a higher correlation coefficient ( $r = 0.90$ ; Figure 3). The results of the correlation analyses between total phenolic content and population latitude ( $p = 0.73$ ,  $r = 0.1$ ) and altitude ( $p = 0.12$ ,  $r = 0.42$ ) were not significant. The Kruskal–Wallis one-way analysis of variance test showed non-significant differences between the northern and southern population groups with respect to total phenol content ( $p = 0.833$ ) and antioxidant activity ( $p = 0.524$ ). For the comparison of low altitude and high altitude population groups, non-significant differences were observed (total phenol content  $p = 0.051$ , antioxidant activity  $p = 0.071$ ).

Following the CA, the populations were grouped in clusters in terms of their nearness or similarity according to the presence or absence of phenolic and unknown compounds. We observed two main groups: cluster I (*V. clarionifolia* populations) and cluster II (*V. carnososa* populations; Figure 4). In cluster II we observed four subgroups: cluster III (RT population), cluster IV (RV population), cluster V (southern populations), and cluster VI (northern populations; Figure 4).



**Figure 3.** Correlation between total phenolic content and DPPH radical scavenging activity of the extracts, excluding LH population. Pearson's correlation coefficient  $r = 0.90$ ,  $p < 0.001$ .



**Figure 4.** Dendrogram resulting from CA obtained from the tentatively identified phenolic compound data of *V. carnososa* and *V. clarionifolia* populations, selecting the Sokal Sneath 1 as similarity measurement and the average linkage hierarchical agglomerative method. I, *V. clarionifolia*. II, *V. carnososa*. III, RT population. IV, RV population. V, southern populations. VI, northern populations.

#### 4. Discussion

In this study we found differences in total phenol content, antioxidant activity, and profiles of phenolic and unknown compounds in root ethanolic extracts from different populations of *V. carnososa* and *V. clarionifolia*. In *V. carnososa* populations we observed a higher number of phenolic compounds and unknown compounds, higher total phenolic content, and higher antioxidant activity values than in *V. clarionifolia*. However, since in this study we analyzed only two populations of *V. clarionifolia*, the values obtained for this species should be corroborated by analyzing a greater number of populations.

In both species we observed a high positive correlation in the content of total phenols and antioxidant activity, suggesting that the predominant source of antioxidant activity could be the phenolic compounds. However, the LH population (*V. carnososa*) shows high antioxidant activity and relatively low total phenolic content. This could be due to the presence of other non-phenolic compounds with high antioxidant activity in the ethanolic extract, the presence of a greater amount of particular phenolic compounds, or a sample/assay problem. It is important to highlight that some interference compounds could affect the Folin-Ciocalteu method, leading to overestimation or underestimation of the results [48–50], but the present study did not detect any unique component(s) in the LC–MS profile. A positive correlation between total phenol content and antioxidant activity has previously been reported in two populations of *V. carnososa* from north Patagonia [19]. Moreover, a linear correlation between these variables was also observed in edible plants [51,52] and other medicinal plants [53–55].

Environmental factors affect the production of secondary metabolites in plants in different habitat conditions [56–58], and in this study, we observed quantitative and qualitative variation in phenolic and unknown compounds among the studied populations. Some authors suggest that this variability can be attributed to latitudinal variation [59] and the altitude at which the plant grows [60]. However, in *V. carnososa* we did not observe a correlation between total phenolic content and the altitude or latitude at which populations grow. Moreover, non-significant differences in total phenol content and antioxidant activity were found among populations in relation to latitude and altitude. Other causes of such variation in plants are attributed either to the microclimatic condition of the area [61] and the genotypes of populations/plants [62], among other factors.

Based on the results obtained we observed that the values for the total phenolic content of *V. carnososa* (5.6–16.2 mg GAE/g) were higher than those reported for root ethanolic extracts in other *V. carnososa* populations (3.6–11.7 mg GAE/g) from north Patagonia [19]. It should be noted that the values for total phenols observed in three populations of *V. carnososa* (LV, TA, and RO) were higher than those recorded in root ethanolic extracts of *V. officinalis* L. (14.2 mg GAE/g), a Eurasian valerian used worldwide for treating anxiety and mild sleep disorders, and *Nardostachys jatamansi* (Jones) DC (3.4 mg GAE/g), another medicinal plant belonging to the Valerianaceae family from India [29].

The tentative identification of phenolic compounds by HPLC-UV-MS showed that seven compounds were exclusive to *V. carnososa* and only one to *V. clarionifolia*. Based on the number of populations analyzed for each species, we can suggest that unknown 19 (RT = 43.17 min) is probably exclusive to *V. clarionifolia*, but more populations of this species should be studied to confirm the seven compounds that were observed only in *V. carnososa* (unknowns 4 and 9, phenols compounds 5, 13, 15, 21 and 23). At least seventeen phenolic and unknown compounds (of the twenty-four detected) were common to *V. carnososa* and *V. clarionifolia*; this similarity in chemical profiles is not surprising because these two species are phylogenetically closely related [63].

The presence of some phenolic compounds seems to be associated with specific geographical areas and/or taxa. For example, compound 21 (RT = 44.18 min, probably phloretic acid) is only present in the southernmost *V. carnos*a populations (PD, PM, RT, GA, LV, and SP) and was not registered in *V. clarionifolia*. Phloretic acid (3-(4'-hydroxyphenyl)propanoic acid) has a role as a plant metabolite [64–66]. Unknown 8 (RT = 13.75 min), possibly kaempferol-3-rutinoside, was also present in five of these six southern populations (not observed in RT). Unknown 10 (RT = 19.05 min) was observed only in three neighboring populations of *V. carnos*a (FO, RO, and SL), located between  $-44^{\circ}$  and  $-47^{\circ}$  latitude in the Andean region (see Figure 1 and Table 1). Some phenolic compounds were only present in specific populations; for example, sinapic acid (18) in RH and ML (*V. clarionifolia*) and only in RT (*V. carnos*a), and 3,4-dihydroxyphenylacetic acid (23) only in the GA population (*V. carnos*a). Sinapic acid is one of the most common hydroxycinnamic acids in plants, showing potent antioxidant activity [67,68]. The antioxidant activity of sinapic acid is comparable to that of caffeic acid [69], another compound observed in only four southern populations of *V. carnos*a (RO, RT, GA, and LV) and in both populations of *V. clarionifolia*. In phytomedicine the attributes of sinapic acid are anti-inflammatory [70], antimicrobial [71,72], anticancer [73], and anti-anxiety [74]. Ferulic acid (5), another hydroxycinnamic acid identified only in *V. carnos*a, with the exception of TA population, is used as a natural antioxidant in foods, beverages, and cosmetics [75] and has lower antioxidant capacity than sinapic acid [76]. Other compounds in some populations of *V. carnos*a did not show a defined geographical pattern, for example: syringic acid (13) observed in GC, RO, and PM, and caffeic acid (20) observed in RO, RT, GA, and LV, a compound with high antioxidant activity [77]. In *V. carnos*a we observed two main groups of populations according to the HPLC-UV-MS results after CA analysis. Populations from the northern and the southern regions of southern Patagonia were separated according to their phenolic and unknown compound profiles (Figure 4). It is interesting to note that syringic acid (13) and sinapic acid (18) did not occur together despite both having the 4-hydroxy-3,5-dimethoxyphenyl substitution pattern.

One of the most interesting groups of phenolic compounds observed in this study are four acyl-quinic acids which are a family of esters formed between quinic acid and 1–4 residues of certain trans-cinnamic acids, most commonly caffeic, ferulic, p-coumaric and sinapic acids [78,79], but it is now recognized that *cis*-isomers form in tissues exposed to UV irradiation [80–83].

5-Caffeoylquinic acid (5-CQA) (1) was observed in all populations of both species except RV (*V. carnos*a). An incompletely characterized dicaffeoylquinic acid (diCQA) (7), incompletely characterized diferuloylquinic acid (diFQA) (12) and an incompletely characterized methyl caffeoylquinic acid (MeCQ) (16) were found in all samples, and it is almost certain that other regio-isomers would be found in at least some samples if more sensitive analyses were performed. The methyl caffeoylquinic acid can be distinguished from an isobaric feruloylquinic acid (FQA) by its comparatively late elution [84,85]. Such methyl esters can be produced easily as artefacts when methanol is used in extraction, but ethanol was used in this study thus eliminating this possibility.

There is a growing body of evidence that these acyl-quinic acids and their human metabolites at commonplace dietary levels may have modest health promoting properties which never the less could be important long term through effects on vascular health, and glucose and lipid metabolism, although detailed mechanisms have yet to be elucidated [86,87].

Acyl-quinic acids and other phenolic compounds have been found in other *Valeriana* species, i.e. 3-CQA, 4-CQA, 5-CQA, 3,4-diCQA, 3,5-diCQA, 4,5-diCQA in *V. officinalis* [41,42], 5-CQA in roots of

*V. prionophylla* Standl. from Guatemala [27], 5-CQA, gallic acid, caffeic acid and *p*-coumaric acid in roots and aerial parts of *V. jatamansi* Jones from India [31,41], 5-CQA, gallic acid and 3,4-dihydroxyphenylacetic in aerial parts of *V. dioscoridis* Sibth. et. Sm. from Turkey [44], and 5-CQA in roots of *V. alliarifolia* Adams from Turkey [43], and *V. procera* Kunth and *V. edulis* Nutt. Ex Torr. & A. Gray. from Mexico [41]. It is intended to more fully characterize and quantify the compounds tentatively identified in this study.

## 5. Conclusion

In heterogeneous macro-environments such as Patagonia it is possible to find plant ecotypes which have differentiated by natural selection. Phytochemical investigation into root ethanolic extracts of *V. carnososa* and *V. clarionifolia* from Patagonian populations have revealed variability in phenolic compound content (quantitatively and qualitatively) and antioxidant activity. In *V. carnososa* total phenolic content was not correlated with altitude and latitude and this variation could probably be associated with the influence of genetic variability and/or different growing habitats (microclimatic condition). In both species there is a positive correlation between antioxidant activity and total phenolic content, suggesting that the phenolic compounds are the predominant source of antioxidant activity. Despite the fact that the number and amount of total phenolic compounds is not correlated with latitude, the presence of some of these compounds (and unknown compounds) can be associated with latitude or a particular region/population. Among the species analyzed, *V. carnososa* showed a greater number of phenolic compounds and some of these populations (LV, TA, and RO) showed higher values for total phenolic content, these values being higher than reported in *V. officinalis*. Finally, in the roots of these two Patagonian valerians, we find 5-caffeoylquinic acid, caffeic acid, ferulic acid and gallic acid with a level 1 of certainty as described by Sumner *et al.* [35]; a dicaffeoylquinic acid, a diferuloylquinic acid, a methyl caffeoylquinic acid and eight other phenolic acids have been identified tentatively at level 2. Several of these are reported to have beneficial attributes from a phytomedicine viewpoint.

## Acknowledgements

This work was supported by ANPCYT (PICT 2014-3149), INTA (PNHFA 1106094 and PE I-140) and CONICET. We are grateful to Audrey Shaw for correcting the English version. We are grateful to Dirección de Fauna y Flora Silvestre of Chubut, Argentina. Many thanks to all members of the Natural Resources Group of EEA INTA Esquel.

## Conflict of interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

## References

1. Borsini OE (1999) Valerianaceae. In: Correa MN (Ed.) *Flora Patagónica*. Col Cient Inst Nac Tec Agropec 8: 448–471.

2. Kutschker A (2011) Revisión del género *Valeriana* (Valerianaceae) en Sudamérica austral. *Gayana Bot* 68: 244–296.
3. Nagahama N, Bach H, Manifesto MM, et al. (2016) *Valeriana gaimanensis* (Valerianaceae nom. conserv.) a new species from the Patagonian semi-arid desert, Argentina. *Syst Bot* 41: 245–251.
4. Molares S, Ladio AH, Nagahama N (2018) Recent reports on ethnopharmacological and ethnobotanical studies of *Valeriana carnos* Sm. (Valerianaceae). In: Martínez JL, Muñoz-Acevedo A, et al. (Eds.). *Ethnobotany: Local Knowledge and Traditions*. CRC Press, Boca Raton, Florida, US, 90–102.
5. Nagahama N, Bonino MF (2020) Modelling the potential distribution of *Valeriana carnos* in Argentinean Patagonia: a proposal for conservation and *in situ* cultivation considering climate change projections. *J Appl Res Med Aromat Plants* 16: 100240.
6. Kutschker A, Morrone JJ (2012) Distributional patterns of the species of *Valeriana* (Valerianaceae) in southern South America. *Plant Syst Evol* 298: 535–547.
7. Villalba R, Lara A, Boninsegna JA, et al. (2003) Large-scale temperature changes across the southern Andes: 20th-century variations in the context of the past 400 years. *Clim Change* 59: 177–232.
8. Bianchi E, Villalba R, Viale M, et al. (2016) New precipitation and temperature grids for northern Patagonia: Advances in relation to global climate grids. *J Meteorol Res* 30: 38–52.
9. Schultz J (2002) Biochemical ecology: how plants fight dirty. *Nature* 416: 267–267.
10. Ramakrishna A, Ravishankar GA (2011) Influence of abiotic stress signals on secondary metabolites in plants. *Plant Signal Behav* 6: 1720–1731.
11. Andola HC, Gaira KS, Rawal RS, et al. (2010) Habitat dependent variation in berberine content of *Berberis asiática* Roxb. Ex. DC. in Kumaon, western Himalaya. *Chem Biodivers* 7: 415–420.
12. Jugran AK, Bahukhandi A, Dhyani P, et al. (2016) Impact of altitudes and habitats on valerenic acid, total phenolics, flavonoids, tannins, and antioxidant activity of *Valeriana jatamansi*. *Appl Biochem Biotech* 179: 911–926.
13. Fonseca JM, Rushing JW, Rajapakse NC, et al. (2006) Potential implications of medicinal plant production in controlled environments: the case of feverfew (*Tanacetum parthenium*). *HortScience* 41: 531–535.
14. Pavarini DP, Pavarini SP, Niehues M, et al. (2012) Exogenous influences on plant secondary metabolite levels. *Anim Feed Sci Tech* 176: 5–16.
15. García D, Furlan MR, Diamante MS, et al. (2019) Promising phytochemical responses of *Achyrocline satureioides* (Lam.) DC. under various farming conditions. *Ind Crop Prod* 129: 440–447.
16. Binns SE, Arnason JT, Baum BR (2002) Phytochemical variation within populations of *Echinacea angustifolia* (Asteraceae). *Biochem Syst Ecol* 30: 837–854.
17. Figueiredo AC, Barroso JG, Pedro LG, et al. (2008) Factors affecting secondary metabolite production in plants: volatile components and essential oils. *Flavour Frag J* 23: 213–226.
18. Çırak C, Bertoli A, Pistelli L, et al. (2010) Essential oil composition and variability of *Hypericum perforatum* from wild populations of northern Turkey. *Pharm Biol* 48: 906–914.
19. Guajardo JJ, Gastaldi B, González SB, et al. (2018) Variability of phenolic compounds at different phenological stages in two populations of *Valeriana carnos* Sm. (Valerianoideae, Caprifoliaceae) in Patagonia. *Bol Latinoam Caribe* 17: 381–393.

20. Zlatev ZS, Lidon FJ, Kaimakanova M (2012) Plant physiological responses to UV-B radiation. *Emir J Food Agr* 24: 481–501.
21. Apel K, Hirt H (2004) Reactive oxygen species: metabolism, oxidative stress, and signal transduction. *Annu Rev Plant Biol* 55: 373–399.
22. Laura A, Moreno-Escamilla JO, Rodrigo-García J, et al. (2019) Phenolic compounds, In: *Postharvest physiology and biochemistry of fruits and vegetables*, Woodhead Publishing, 253–271.
23. Bravo L (1998) Polyphenols: chemistry, dietary sources, metabolism, and nutritional significance. *Nut Rev* 56: 317e333.
24. Jackman RL, Smith JL (1996) Anthocyanins and betalains, In: Hendry GAF, Houghton JD, *Natural Food Colorants*, Eds, London, Blackie Academic & Professional, 249–250.
25. Crozier A, Clifford MN, Ashihara H (2006) Plant Secondary Metabolites: Occurrence. Structure and Role in the Human Diet, Oxford, Blackwells 26: 1001–1013.
26. Shahidi F, Janitha P, Wanasundara P (1992) Phenolic antioxidants. *Crit Rev Food Sci* 32: 67–103.
27. Piccinelli A, Arana S, Caceres A, et al. (2004) New lignans from the roots of *Valeriana prionophylla* with antioxidative and vasorelaxant activities. *J Nat Prod* 67: 1135–1140.
28. Russell W, Duthie G (2011) Plant secondary metabolites and gut health: the case for phenolic acids. *Proc Nutr Soc* 70: 389–396.
29. Surveswaran S, Cai Y, Corke H, et al. (2007) Systematic evaluation of natural phenolic antioxidants from Indian medicinal plants. *Food Chem* 102: 938–953.
30. Wojdylo A, Oszmiański J, Czemerys R (2007) Antioxidant activity and phenolic compounds in 32 selected herbs. *Food Chem* 105: 940–949.
31. Bhatt ID, Dauthal P, Rawat S, et al. (2012) Characterization of essential oil composition, phenolic content, and antioxidant properties in wild and planted individuals of *Valeriana jatamansi* Jones. *Sci Hortic* 136: 61–68.
32. Estomba D, Ladio A, Lozada M (2006) Medicinal wild plant knowledge and gathering patterns in a Mapuche community from North-western Patagonia. *J Ethnopharmacol* 103: 109–119.
33. Molares S, Ladio AH (2012) Plantas aromáticas con órganos subterráneos de importancia cultural en la Patagonia argentina: una aproximación a sus usos desde la etnobotánica, la percepción sensorial y la anatomía. *Darwiniana* 2012: 7–24.
34. Nagahama N, Manifesto MM, Fortunato RH (2019) Vegetative propagation and proposal for sustainable management of *Valeriana carnososa* Sm., a traditional medicinal plant from Patagonia. *J Appl Res Med Aromat Plants* 14: 100218.
35. Sumner LW, Amberg A, Barrett D, et al. (2007) Proposed minimum reporting standards for chemical analysis. *Metabolomics* 3: 211–221.
36. Chaisri P, Laoprom N (2017) Antioxidant properties and total phenolic content of selected traditional Thai medicinal plants. *Thai Pharm Health Sci J* 12: 10–18.
37. Gastaldi B, Assef Y, van Baren C, et al. (2016) Actividad antioxidante en infusiones, tinturas y aceites esenciales de especies nativas de la Patagonia Argentina. *Rev Cub Plant Med* 21: 51–62.
38. Simirgiotis MJ, Silva M, Becerra J, et al. (2012) Direct characterisation of phenolic antioxidants in infusions from four Mapuche medicinal plants by liquid chromatography with diode array detection (HPLC-DAD) and electrospray ionisation tandem mass spectrometry (HPLC-ESI-MS). *Food Chem* 131: 318–327.

39. Kaliora A, Kogiannou D, Kefalas P, et al. (2014) Phenolic profiles and antioxidant and anticarcinogenic activities of Greek herbal infusions; balancing delight and chemoprevention? *Food Chem* 142: 233–241.
40. Simirgiotis M, Benites J, Areche C, et al. (2015) Antioxidant capacities and analysis of phenolic compounds in three endemic *Nolana* species by HPLC-PDA-ESI-MS. *Molecules* 20: 11490–11507.
41. Navarrete A, Avula B, Choi YW, et al. (2006) Chemical fingerprinting of *Valeriana* species: simultaneous determination of valerenic acids, flavonoids, and phenylpropanoids using liquid chromatography with ultraviolet detection. *JAOAC Int* 89: 8–15.
42. Meinhart AD, Damin FM, Caldeirão L, et al. (2017) Chlorogenic acid isomer contents in 100 plants commercialized in Brazil. *Food Res Int* 99: 522–530.
43. Sen-Utsukarci B, Taskin T, Goger F, et al. (2019) Chemical composition and antioxidant, cytotoxic, and insecticidal potential of *Valeriana alliariifolia* in Turkey. *Arch Ind Hyg Toxicol* 70: 207–218.
44. Sarikurkcu C, Jeszka-Skowron M, Ozer MS (2020) *Valeriana dioscoridis* aerial parts' extracts - A new source of phytochemicals with antioxidant and enzyme inhibitory activities. *Ind Crop Prod* 148: 112273.
45. Mahibbur RM, Govindarajulu Z (1997) A modification of the test of Shapiro and Wilks for normality. *J Appl Stat* 24: 219–235.
46. Conover WJ (1999) Practical nonparametric statistics. New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc.
47. Di Rienzo JA, Casanoves F, Balzarini MG, et al. (2015) InfoStat, v. 2015. Grupo InfoStat, Córdoba, Universidad Nacional de Córdoba.
48. Lester G, Lewers K, Medina M, et al. (2012) Comparative analysis of strawberry total phenolics via Fast Blue BB vs. Folin-Ciocalteu: Assay interference by ascorbic acid. *J Food Compos Anal* 27: 102–107.
49. Ludwig I, Bravo J, De Peña M, et al. (2013) Effect of sugar addition (torrefacto) during roasting process on antioxidant capacity and phenolics of coffee. *LWT-Food Sci Technol* 51: 553–559.
50. Muñoz-Bernal O, Torres-Aguirre G, Núñez-Gastélum J, et al. (2017) Nuevo acercamiento a la interacción del reactivo de Folin-Ciocalteu con azúcares durante la cuantificación de polifenoles totales. *Revista TIP* 20: 23–28.
51. Katsube T, Tabata H, Ohta Y, et al. (2004) Screening for antioxidant activity in edible plant products: Comparison of low-density lipoprotein oxidation assay, DPPH radical scavenging assay, and Folin–Ciocalteu assay. *J Agric Food Chem* 52: 2391–2396.
52. de Sousa SHB, de Andrade Mattietto R, Chisté RC, et al. (2018) Phenolic compounds are highly correlated to the antioxidant capacity of genotypes of *Oenocarpus distichus* Mart. fruits. *Food Res Int* 108: 405–412.
53. Djeridane A, Yousfi M, Nadjemi B, et al. (2006) Antioxidant activity of some Algerian medicinal plants extracts containing phenolic compounds. *Food Chem* 97: 654–660.
54. Katalinic V, Milos M, Jukic M (2006) Screening of 70 medicinal plant extracts for antioxidant capacity and total phenols. *Food Chem* 94: 550–557.
55. Ziani BE, Heleno SA, Bachari K, et al. (2019) Phenolic compounds characterization by LC-DAD-ESI/MSn and bioactive properties of *Thymus algeriensis* Boiss. & Reut. and *Ephedra alata* Decne. *Food Res Int* 116: 312–319.
56. Akula R, Ravishankar GA (2011) Influence of abiotic stress signals on secondary metabolites in plants. *Plant Signal Behav* 6: 1720–1731.

57. Selvam K, Rajinikanth R, Govarthanam M, et al. (2013) Antioxidant potential and secondary metabolites in *Ocimum sanctum* L. at various habitats. *J Med Plants Res* 7: 706–712.
58. Rodríguez-Calzada T, Qian M, Strid Å, et al. (2019) Effect of UV-B radiation on morphology, phenolic compound production, gene expression, and subsequent drought stress responses in chili pepper (*Capsicum annuum* L.). *Plant Physiol Biochem* 134: 94–102.
59. Devkota A, Dall Acqua S, Jha PK, et al. (2010) Variation in the active constituent contents in *Centella asiatica* grown in different habitats in Nepal. *Botanica Orientalis: J Plant Sci* 7: 43–47.
60. Alonso-Amelot ME, Oliveros-Bastidas A, Calcagno-Pisarelli M (2007) Phenolics and condensed tannins of high altitude *Pteridium arachnoideum* in relation to sunlight exposure, elevation, and rain regime. *Biochem Syst Ecol* 35: 1–7.
61. Oloumi H, Hassibi N (2011) Study the correlation between some climate parameters and the content of phenolic compounds in roots of *Glycyrrhiza glabra*. *J Med Plants Res* 5: 6011–6016.
62. Nicolle C, Simon G, Rock E, et al. (2004) Genetic variability influences carotenoid, vitamin, phenolic, and mineral content in white, yellow, purple, orange, and dark-orange carrot cultivars. *J Am Soc Hortic Sci* 129: 523–529.
63. Bell CD, Kutschker A, Arroyo MT (2012) Phylogeny and diversification of Valerianaceae (Dipsacales) in the southern Andes. *Mol Phylogenet Evol* 63: 724–737.
64. Owen RW, Haubner R, Mier W, et al. (2003) Isolation, structure elucidation and antioxidant potential of the major phenolic and flavonoid compounds in brined olive drupes. *Food Chem Toxicol* 41: 703–717.
65. Mendez J (2005) Dihydrocinnamic acids in *Pteridium aquilinum*. *Food Chem* 93: 251–252.
66. Trejo-Machin A, Verge P, Puchot L, et al. (2017) Phloretic acid as an alternative to the phenolation of aliphatic hydroxyls for the elaboration of polybenzoxazine. *Green Chem* 19: 5065–5073.
67. Kikuzaki H, Hisamoto M, Hirose K, et al. (2002) Antioxidant properties of ferulic acid and its related compounds. *J Agric Food Chem* 50: 2161–2168.
68. Nićiforović N, Abramović H (2014) Sinapic acid and its derivatives: natural sources and bioactivity. *Comp Rev Food Sci F* 13: 34–51.
69. Nenadis N, Lazaridou O, Tsimidou MZ (2007) Use of reference compounds in antioxidant activity assessment. *J Agric Food Chem* 55: 5452–5460.
70. Yun KJ, Koh DJ, Kim SH, et al. (2008) Anti-inflammatory effects of sinapic acid through the suppression of inducible nitric oxide synthase, cyclooxygenase-2, and proinflammatory cytokines expressions via nuclear factor- $\kappa$ B inactivation. *J Agric Food Chem* 56: 10265–10272.
71. Johnson ML, Dahiya JP, Olkowski AA, et al. (2008) The effect of dietary sinapic acid (4-hydroxy-3, 5-dimethoxy-cinnamic acid) on gastrointestinal tract microbial fermentation, nutrient utilization, and egg quality in laying hens. *Poultry Sci* 87: 958–963.
72. Engels C, Schieber A, Gänzle MG (2012) Sinapic acid derivatives in defatted oriental mustard (*Brassica juncea* L.) seed meal extracts using UHPLC-DADESI-MSn and identification of compounds with antibacterial activity. *Eur Food Res Technol* 234: 535–542.
73. Hudson EA, Dinh PA, Kokubun T, et al. (2000) Characterization of potentially chemopreventive phenols in extracts of brown rice that inhibit the growth of human breast and colon cancer cells. *Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev* 9: 1163–1170.
74. Yoon BH, Jung JW, Lee JJ, et al. (2007) Anxiolytic-like effects of sinapic acid in mice. *Life Sci* 81: 234–240.

75. Robbins RJ (2003) Phenolic acids in foods: An overview of analytical methodology. *J Agric Food Chem* 51: 2866–2887.
76. Cuvelier ME, Richard H, Berset C (1992) Comparison of the antioxidative activity of some acid-phenols: structure–activity relationship. *Biosci Biotech Bioch* 56: 324–325.
77. Kim DO, Lee CY (2004) Comprehensive study on vitamin C equivalent antioxidant capacity (VCEAC) of various polyphenolics in scavenging a free radical and its structural relationship. *Crit Rev Food Sci* 44: 253–273.
78. Clifford MN, Jaganath IB, Ludwig IA, et al. (2017) Chlorogenic acids and the acyl-quinic acids: discovery, biosynthesis, bioavailability and bioactivity. *Nat Prod Rep* 34: 1391–1421.
79. Clifford MN (2000) Chlorogenic acids and other cinnamates: nature, occurrence, dietary burden, absorption and metabolism. *J Sci Food Agric* 80: 1033–1042.
80. Clifford MN, Zheng W, Kuhnert N (2006) Profiling the chlorogenic acids of Aster by HPLC-MSn. *Phytochem Analysis* 17: 384–393.
81. Clifford MN, Kirkpatrick J, Kuhnert N, et al. (2008) LC-MSn analysis of the cis isomers of chlorogenic acids. *Food Chem* 106: 379–385.
82. Makita C, Chimuka L, Cukrowska E, et al. (2017) UPLC-qTOF-MS profiling of pharmacologically important chlorogenic acids and associated glycosides in *Moringa ovalifolia* leaf extracts. *S Afr J Bot* 108: 193–199.
83. Masike K, Khoza SB, Steenkamp AP, et al. (2017) A Metabolomics-guided exploration of the phytochemical constituents of *Vernonia fastigiata* with the aid of pressurized hot water extraction and liquid chromatography-mass spectrometry. *Molecules* 22: 1200.
84. Jaiswal R, Kuhnert N (2011) How to identify and discriminate between the methyl quinates of chlorogenic acids by liquid chromatography-tandem mass spectrometry. *J Mass Spectrom* 46: 269–281.
85. Clifford MN (2017) Some Notes on the Chlorogenic Acids. 3. LC and LC–MS. Available from: [https://www.researchgate.net/publication/312590947\\_Some\\_Notes\\_on\\_the\\_Chlorogenic\\_Acids\\_3\\_LC\\_and\\_LC-MS\\_Version\\_3\\_January\\_2017](https://www.researchgate.net/publication/312590947_Some_Notes_on_the_Chlorogenic_Acids_3_LC_and_LC-MS_Version_3_January_2017).
86. Naveed M, Hejazi V, Abbas M, et al. (2018) Chlorogenic acid (CGA): A pharmacological review and call for further research. *Biomed Pharmacother* 97: 67–74.
87. Clifford MN, Kerimi A, Williamson G (2020) Bioavailability and metabolism of chlorogenic acids (acyl-quinic acids) in humans. *Compr Rev Food Sci Food Saf* 19: 1299–1352.



AIMS Press

© 2021 the Author(s), licensee AIMS Press. This is an open access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0>)