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## Ligand fishing as a tool to screen natural products with anticancer potential

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### 1 Ligand fishing as a tool to screen natural products with anticancer potential

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### 18 ABSTRACT

Cancer is the second leading cause of death in the world and its incidence is expected to increase with the aging of the world's population and globalization of risk factors. Natural products and their derivatives have provided a significant number of approved anticancer drugs and the development of robust and selective screening assays for the identification of lead anticancer natural products is essential in the challenge of developing personalized targeted therapies tailored to the genetic and molecular characteristics of tumors. To this end, the ligand fishing assay is a remarkable tool to rapidly and rigorously screen complex matrices, such as plant extracts, for the isolation and identification of specific ligands that bind to relevant pharmacological targets. In this paper, we review the application of ligand fishing with cancer-related targets to screen natural product extracts for the isolation and identification of selective ligands. We provide critical analysis of the system configurations, targets, and key phytochemical classes related to the field of anticancer research. Based on the data collected, ligand fishing emerges as a robust and powerful screening system for the rapid discovery of new anticancer drugs from natural resources. It is currently an underexplored strategy according to its considerable potential.

Keywords: Affinity chromatography, cancer, drug discovery, ligand fishing, natural
 products

List of abbreviations: 2-AG, 2-arachidonylglycerol; AA, arachidonic acid; ACS, American
Chemical Society BDNF, brain-derived neurotrophic factor; CM, cell membrane; COXs,
cyclooxygenases; cPLA<sub>2</sub>, cytosolic phospholipase 2; CTAC, hexadecyltrimethylammonium

chloride; CYP450, cytochrome P450; DAG, diacylglycerol; ECM, extracellular matrix; EGFR, epidermal growth factor receptor; FDA, Food and Drug Administration; FGF, fibroblast growth factor; FGFR4, fibroblast growth factor receptor 4; GO, graphene oxide; GSK-3β, glycogen synthase kinase 3β; GST, glutathione-S-transferase; HF, hollow fiber; HSPs, heat shock proteins; IOMN, iron oxide magnetic nanoparticle; IP<sub>3</sub>, inositol triphosphate; iPLA<sub>2</sub>, calcium-independent phospholipase A<sub>2</sub>; JAK2, Janus kinase 2; LDH, lactate dehydrogenase; LOXs, lipoxygenases; MAGL, monoacylglycerol lipase; MAPK, mitogen-activated protein kinase; MAPKAPK2, MAPK-activated protein kinase 2; MKK3, mitogen-activated protein kinase kinase 3; MMPs, matrix metalloproteinases; MPs, magnetic particles; NAD, nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide; NGF, nerve growth factor; OGO, oriented layered graphene oxide pad; PAF, platelet-activating factor; PAI-1, plasminogen activator inhibitor; PI3K, phosphatidylinositol 3 kinase; PGs, prostaglandins; PGE<sub>2</sub>, prostaglandin E<sub>2</sub>; PLA<sub>2</sub>s, phospholipases A<sub>2</sub>; PKC, protein kinase C; PLC, phospholipase C; QD, quantum dots; QR2, quinone reductase 2; SIRT, sirtuin; sPLA<sub>2</sub>, secreted phospholipase A<sub>2</sub>; STAT3, signal transducer and activator of transcription 3; TCMs, traditional Chinese medicines; TrkB receptor, tropomyosin-related kinase B receptor; UF, ultrafiltration; uPA, urokinase plasminogen activator; uPAR, urokinase plasminogen activator receptor; UHPLC-LTQ, ultra-high-performance liquid chromatography-linear trap quadrupole; UPLC-Q-TOF/MS, ultra-high performance liquid chromatography-quadrupoletime-of-flight mass spectrometry 

### 1. Introduction

With 10 million deaths by 2020, corresponding to nearly one in six, cancer is the second leading cause of death in the world [1]. The most common cancers are breast, lung, colon, and prostate. The incidence of cancer is rapidly increasing worldwide because of the aging population, spread of viral and bacterial infections, pollution, and globalization of behavioral and dietary risk factors, including obesity, lack of exercise, tobacco and alcohol use, as well as low fruit and vegetable consumption [2].

Although many cancers can be cured if detected early and treated effectively, many patients still die for a variety of reasons, including lack of accessible treatments in poor countries, inability to complete treatment in patients at risk of heart or kidney failure, late diagnosis of metastatic tumors, natural and acquired resistance to treatments, anticancer drugs toxicity, and insensitivity of cancer stem cells to treatment with surgery, chemotherapy, radiation or immunotherapy [2–7]. Cancer cells develop multiple adaptative mechanisms to survive, become persistent against metabolic, hypoxic, nutritional, and therapeutic pressure, and escape detection and destruction by the immune system. Understanding these characteristics has led to major advances in the development of targeted drugs acting on the deregulation of cell metabolism, proliferative signaling, epigenetic reprogramming, cell cycle deregulation, tumor angiogenesis, and resistance to apoptosis and antitumor immunity [8]. Thus, cancer treatments are currently moving from standardized and validated protocols for each type of cancer to personalized protocols based on the genetic and molecular characteristics of tumors. From this perspective, the discovery of molecules with new modes

of action and the identification of key cellular pharmacological targets for the survival ofcancer cells have opened the way to important therapeutic innovations [9].

Natural products have provided considerable value to the development of anticancer drugs because of their unique chemical scaffolds and original mechanisms of action. A variety of naturally derived agents are used in cancer chemotherapy, whether as active, preventive, or chemosensitizing drugs and the identification and evaluation of natural anticancer molecules is one of the most active areas of research in medicinal chemistry and biotechnology [10]. However, the screening and purification of natural products are often laborious, time-consuming, and expensive. In this sense, rapid and efficient methods need to be developed, especially for purifying bioactive compounds from complex matrices. In exploring these gaps, ligand fishing has emerged as an innovative, efficient, and specific high-throughput screening method designed to save research groups time and resources in the search for new chemical hits. This strategy consists in purifying a molecule with a selective affinity for a biological molecular target of therapeutic interest from a complex mixture of natural products obtained by extraction from biomass. To date, a large number of ligand fishing techniques have been developed with various protocols and efficiently optimized to identify ligands from plant, animal, or bacterial extracts. Combined with highly sensitive high-resolution analytical methods (e.g., LC-HRMS and NMR), ligand fishing allows for the rapid identification and purification of fished ligands, accelerating the pharmacological evaluation and characterization of bioactive natural products [11–13]. 

In this paper, we aimed to propose an exhaustive updated review and critical analysis of the ligand fishing technique as an effective screening strategy to identify natural products with anticancer potential. We reviewed the contribution of this technique to the identification of anticancer natural products in various biological extracts, discussed the different technical approaches developed and explored its gaps and possible improvements.

**2. Materials and Methods** 

109 2.1 Search strategy

The present systematic review was performed based on original reports published in the scientific literature from all years until the 1<sup>st</sup> of October 2022. The scientific databases chosen for this work were Science Direct, PubMed, Google Scholar, Scopus, and Web of Science, using the following descriptors: "ligand fishing", "natural products" and "cancer". The obtained results were filtered to remain with research articles only. Moreover, we did not contact authors to retrieve unpublished data or unavailable full texts.

 

### 2.2 Inclusion/exclusion criteria

Papers were included in this study if the authors used ligand fishing to screen natural products, if the authors developed a proof of concept with known ligands to rationalize the method, and if the target was directly related to cancer pathophysiology. Only articles published in English and that met the inclusion criteria described above were selected for further evaluation. Manuscripts that did not satisfy the inclusion criteria, reviews, metaanalysis, abstracts, conferences, editorials, letters, case reports, thesis, conferences, and
 manuscripts with full text not available were excluded from the present review.

Two independent investigators (L.A.M.S. Duarte-Filho and P.C.O. Oliveira) were in charge to select the articles evaluating the title, abstract and full text. All retrieved articles were thoroughly examined in an attempt to identify the ones that did not fit into the inclusion criteria properly. In case of divergence in the selection of manuscripts, two additional expert reviewers were consulted (L. Picot and M.C. Moraes). Manually added papers were also retrieved from the references of the articles selected through our systematic search.

*2.3 Data Collection* 

All data were submitted to standardized forms to comprehensively collect information about the country and year of publication, diversity of ligand fishing techniques and experimental conditions, cancer targets and their respective cancer types, natural products, identified ligands, and their chemical classes, as well as pre-clinical assessments (when applicable). Furthermore, the selected data here presented was verified based on the expertise of the authors and summarized into figures, tables, and diagrams for facilitated comprehension of the numerical results.

### **3. Results and Discussion**

### **3.1. Bibliometric data**

The initial systematic search produced 569 results, of which 175 were from Science Direct, 19 from PubMed, 242 from Google Scholar, 118 from Scopus, and 15 from Web of Science. One hundred and eleven articles were excluded because of duplicity. The remaining 458 articles were screened and 403 were excluded after reading of the title and abstract. Afterward, we remained with 55 articles for a full examination, of which 3 could not be retrieved and 17 were excluded due to divergencies with the inclusion criteria previously set. In addition, 32 studies from reference lists of selected articles were manually added, of which 1 could not be retrieved and 8 were excluded after full-text analysis. At last, the total number of articles selected for the present review was 58. The works included in the present review were sorted according to the country where the research was developed, year of publication, ligand fishing technique, anticancer targets, and respective cancer types. Additionally, details concerning the natural product (family, species, parts used, ligands fished, and chemical class) as well as the type of extraction, solvents, and buffers employed were also gathered (Tables S1 and S2 respectively). 

According to our data, approximately 83% of the selected works (n=48) were from China, 5.1% from the USA (n=3), 3.4% from a cooperation China-USA (n=2), 3.4% from China-South Korea (n=2), 1.7% from USA-Turkey (n=1), 1.7% from USA-Taiwan (n=1) and 1.7% from Brazil (n=1), as shown in **Figure 1**. Considering the year of publication, the first seven years (2011-2017) account for 36.2% (n=21) of the works published. On the other hand, publications from the last four years (2018-2022) account for 63.8% of the included articles (n=37) (**Figure 2**).







Additional assessments of the fished ligands were also part of the investigations. In this regard, more than two-thirds (n=40 – 69%) of the selected articles performed *in vitro* assays in order to investigate the enzymatic inhibition and/or *in vitro* anticancer potential of the fished-out ligands.



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Figure 2 – Evolution of the annual number of world publications dealing with the
identification of anticancer natural products using a ligand fishing strategy.

# 3.2. Diversity of ligand fishing techniques developed to isolate anticancer natural products

According to the numbers shown in Figure 2, ligand fishing is a technique that has 173 raised increasing interest in the last years and is gaining more attention from the scientific 174 community as a versatile and powerful purification assay. The possibility of using a complex 175 176 matrix with minimal sample preparation represents one of its major advantages, as it results in an economy of time and resources. Various techniques to bind ligands and separate bound 177 178 ligands interacting with the molecular target from unbound ligands have been developed. The macromolecular target may be free in solution or immobilized on solid supports, and bound 179 ligands may be finally dissociated from the complex matrix using a variety of techniques 180

such as ultrafiltration, centrifugation, or magnetic separation. Although immobilized targets usually demand more preparation time and reagents, they also provide better chemical and thermal stability and, especially, reusability for the system [14,15]. The use of solid support opens many possibilities and the diversity of immobilization chemistry and methodology results in a wide range of protocols and system configurations [16]. However, despite the benefits, immobilization is not mandatory for the ligand fishing assay.

### 188 <u>3.2.1. Free biological target</u>

Ligand fishing methodologies that use the free biological target in solution require a step to recover the ligand-target complex from the solution. The isolation of the complex is based on the difference in size or mass of the complex with the remaining elements of the complex matrix. In the literature, techniques such as ultrafiltration and centrifugation are often used to separate the components by differences in size and mass.

### 3.2.1.1. Ultrafiltration

Ultrafiltration (UF) membranes can selectively retain macromolecules and consequently any ligand-target complex with a molecular weight higher than the pore size, but not small substances (although non-specific interactions between the UF membrane and small compounds may occur through electrostatic or low energy non-covalent forces) as shown by Figure 3. In this sense, it is possible to use the target in its free form, eliminating all the steps required for biomolecules immobilization, but more importantly, the UF membranes usually present weak interaction with the components of a mixture, so the ligands with no affinity for the target will readily cross this physical barrier [13,17] The necessity to perform several washes to completely remove the unbound components is considered a drawback of this technique, as well as the need for high pressure to eliminate non-targeted molecules. Therefore, the washing steps are important to avoid retention by non-specific interactions.



Figure 3 – Schematic illustration of ligand fishing assay using ultrafiltration membrane. In this configuration, it is used a physical barrier (membrane) to retain the target. As a result, the ligand-target complex can be isolated, and the washing of weakly bound ligands and elution of ligands with strong affinity can be promptly executed.

In two different works, Glycyrrhiza uralensis Fisch. root and mango (Mangifera indica L.) leaves extracts were screened for tyrosinase inhibitors using the ligand fishing assay associated with the UF technique [18,19]. Liu et al. [18] compared the performance of UF and magnetic support to identify ligands in the G. uralensis Fisch. extract. Even though both techniques were able to recognize the same ligands, it was observed different responses for each assay. Comparing methodologies, the two presented easy operation, however, the UF process demanded more time (more than 1 hour) while the usage of magnetic particles resulted in a 20-min assay. UF is usually presented as a fast technique, however, this time can be shortened when considering other techniques. The authors argued that this method has easy operation and fast response with few parameters to adjust [18]. Ma and collaborators [12] applied UF to identify DNA-binding substances from several herbal extracts. After evaluating different membranes and conditions, they chose a modified poly (ether sulfone) membrane that was able to retain the target and operated under a variety of eluting solvents. Once established, this UF affinity assay was evaluated and it was able to fish out 10 ligands (berberine, coptisine, palmitine, daurisoline, dauricine, fangchinoline, tetrandrine, actinomycin D, actinomycin V, and actinomycin  $X0\beta$ ) proving to be a reliable method for the recognition of potential ligands in a complex matrix. 

### *3.2.1.2. Centrifugation*

Centrifugation is particularly useful for suspensions that contain components with large differences in density and sedimentation time, such as macromolecules (cells, DNA, etc.) versus low molecular weight molecules. This property is thus particularly tailored to the separation of ligands bound on target macromolecules from unbound molecules (Figure 4).

To explore Bufo melanostictus Schneider venom as a source of anti-cancer components, Ren et al. [11] used a simple procedure to perform the ligand fishing assay. In this work, the biological targets were HepG2 and MCF-7 cells, and the affinity assay was conducted in the cell culture flask, where the growth medium was replaced by a toad venom solution. After incubation, the cells were washed and centrifugated and the venom molecules bound to the cells were eluted using methanol as organic solvent. Comparison of the raw toad venom composition with the eluted compounds, using UPLC-MS analysis, allowed them to identify the toxins that interacted with the cellular targets [11]. Similarly, Wei and collaborators [20] performed this cell affinity-based assay to screen bioactive components in a Curcuma longa L. extract. Using centrifugation, PC3 cells incubated with the extract were decanted and separated from unbound molecules and washed to elute the ligands. After concentration and analysis by UHPLC-LTQ Orbitrap MS, three curcuminoids (curcumin, demethoxycurcumin, and bisdemethoxycurcumin) with significant anticancer activity were identified [20]. 



Figure 4 – Ligand fishing assay using centrifugation as a method to isolate the macromolecule and unbound ligands (low-mass fraction) through the action of centripetal force. Therefore, the supernatant can be easily retrieved, and the ligand-target complex can proceed to the next steps (washing and elution).

### 254 <u>3.2.2. Grafting of the biological target on a solid support</u>

Solid supports are usually used for enzyme immobilization, and a large panel of materials and strategies can be used. Amino acids present in the macromolecule can be used for the formation of covalent bonds between the support and the target. Electrostatic forces and weak interactions, such as Van der Waals, can also promote immobilization. The solid supports can be classified as inorganic, such as silica, metals, metallic oxides, and carbon, or organic like natural and synthetic polymers [15,21].

*3.2.2.1. Magnetic particles* 

The convenience of this technique resides in the superparamagnetic properties of the particles, which allow the practical and fast isolation of interesting ligands using an external electromagnetic field applied by a simple magnet. These characteristic conserves the colloidal stability of nano-sized magnetic particles since they do not present remaining magnetization after the removal of the external field, theoretically avoiding agglomeration [22]. Beyond superparamagnetic properties, the surface functionalization of magnetic particles confers versatile chemical features to this material that are responsible for its wide range of applications [23–26].

Iron oxide magnetic nanoparticles (IOMN) have multiple applications in biomedical sciences due to their unique physicochemical properties. However, their chemical reactivity and high surface energy also represent two important issues able to reduce the superparamagnetic properties of this material. In this sense, IOMN silica-coating is an interesting procedure to enhance the chemical stability and reduce agglomeration and eventual cytotoxicity of this material [27]. In a sophisticated experiment, Yi et al. [28] fabricated a polydopamine-functionalized silica-coated iron oxide mesoporous magnetic particle meant to immobilize glutathione-S-transferase (GST) on its surface. The authors used a hexadecyltrimethylammonium chloride (CTAC) template to create mesopores in the 

silica-coated IOMN, aiming to screen different plant extracts (*P. frutescens* (L.) Britt leaves, *A. orientale* (Sam.) Juz. roots, and *C. sinensis* (L.) Kuntze extracts). As a result, they successfully fished and identified six compounds, of which two ((–)-Epigallocatechin-3-Ogallate and (–)-Epicatechin-3-gallate) presented  $IC_{50}$  values for (GST) lower than 100µM [28]. It is important to note that mesoporous silica offers a larger surface area in comparison to ordinary silica coating, allowing the attachment of more functional groups to the nanocomposite, hence increasing fishing yields. [29].

Although several techniques are available for protein immobilization on the surface of magnetic particles, most of these approaches are not adequate to immobilize transmembrane receptors, which in turn are the targets of more than one-third of all approved drugs [30,31]. Indeed, to bind relevant bioactive ligands, these receptors must keep their physiological tridimensional structure to expose functional binding domains, and their purification and grafting on magnetic particles may lead to denaturation. Exploring this limitation, three works developed cell membrane-coated magnetic nanoparticles overexpressing certain types of receptors involved in cancer pathophysiology. Arituluk and colleagues [32] engineered SH-SY5Y neuroblastoma cells overexpressing tropomyosin-related kinase B (TrkB) receptors to encapsulate IOMN and screen Gotu kola (Centella asiatica (L.) Urban) plant extract seeking ligands. Since the TrkB receptor is a transmembrane integral protein and its functionality depends greatly on the integrity of the phospholipids in its vicinity, using TrkB-enriched membrane fragments instead of purified TrkB receptors represents a very interesting strategy to simulate more realistic conditions. However, some validated tyrosine kinase receptor inhibitors, such as sunitinib and nintedanib, act through the receptor's intracellular domains, which in turn are unlikely to be accessible in this fishing system since most of the intracellular space is occupied by the magnetic particles [33,34]. 



Figure 5 – Ligand fishing using magnetic particles (MPs). The MPs can be used to immobilize a variety of targets such as DNA, antibodies, and other proteins. After successful immobilization, MPs are incubated with the natural product. By affinity, the green compound is adsorbed by MPs whereas the red compound remains unbound. With the aid of an external magnetic field, the separation step occurs. In it, the complex MPs-green compound is retained inside the tube whereas the unbound red compound is washed out. The washout step is repeated multiple times to mitigate unspecific binding. Then, the complex MPs-green

compound is eluted using an organic solvent. Finally, a magnetic field is applied once againto recover MPs whereas the green compound-containing supernatant is brought to analysis.

In another study, Bu and collaborators [35] addressed this limitation. They functionalized carboxy-terminated iron oxide nanoparticles with streptavidin and biotinylated human lung adenocarcinoma epithelial (A549) cell fragments overexpressing the epidermal growth factor receptor (EGFR) to obtain inside-out-oriented cell membrane magnetic nanoparticles. With this system, the authors intended to fish out ligands from Strychnos nux-vomica L. extract that act in the intracellular domains of this receptor. As one of the negative controls, they used outside-out-oriented magnetic nanoparticles and observed that erlotinib and gefitinib, two known EGFR inhibitors, were more efficiently fished out by the inside-out-oriented magnetic nanoparticles in comparison to the outside-side-out one, highlighting the importance of transmembrane receptors binding site accessibility. Figure 6 shows the orientation of the cell membrane concerning the encapsulated magnetic nanoparticle. 

The fabrication and functionalization of magnetic particles can be diversified and adapted to confer desired physicochemical properties to this material. However, controlling parameters such as particle size, shape, stability, and dispersibility in specific solvents is often a challenging task [36] Furthermore, the characterization of nanomaterials involves expensive analytical techniques and equipment, which in turn represent a bottleneck to the study of such materials [37]. In this regard, commercially available functionalized magnetic beads represent a feasible alternative, as explored by Yasuda et al. and Singh et al. [38,39]



Figure 6 – Representation of the inside-out-oriented cell membrane-coated magnetic
nanoparticle. Reprinted (adapted) with permission from [35]. Copyright 2021 American
Chemical Society (ACS).

Based on the above-mentioned, magnetic particles represent versatile and very efficient supports for ligand fishing assays, able to be modified, adapted, and associated with different approaches in order to meet realistic physiological conditions depending on the target and its location inside the body.

### *3.2.2.2. Hollow Fiber*

The hollow fibers (HF) are organic polymeric membranes with pore diameter and inner cavities that operate as physical barriers capable to entrap the biological target, in a similar way to ultrafiltration membranes. Hollow fibers have been used as a carrier for proteins, cells, and liposomes [40,41]. The main characteristics of HF include its biocompatibility, large surface area, high preconcentration capacity, and good recovery. Additionally, this approach has an easy operation and fast response. The ligand fishing assay that uses HF (Figure 7) requires usual laboratory instrumentation, however, as in other techniques, false positives are problematic. For this reason, the washing solvent is a critical part of the assay. 

Zhao et al. [42] developed an efficient approach based on adsorbed hollow fiber to screen and identify potential tyrosinase inhibitors in Pueraria lobata (Willd.) Ohwi extract. Seven tyrosinase ligands were fished out in this study, and three compounds had their inhibitory effect confirmed by in vitro assays. In 2019, Li and collaborators [43] used hollow fiber to screen a series of coumarins and Angelicae dahurica Fisch. extract against human hepatoma and renal tubular cells. The same system was applied to different sample matrices. The first application was to screen the bioactive components directly from the plant extract, as an *in vitro* approach. In the second study, the same herbal extract was orally administered to rats. After five hours, abdominal aortal blood and rats' kidney and liver tissues were collected and submitted to the HF fishing assay. In this in vivo assay, the authors aimed to track which substances were able to reach these target organs. For all applications the hollow fiber affinity-based assay was successful in the recognition and isolation of binders, indicating the versatility of this method [43]. 



Figure 7 – Ligand fishing using hollow fiber (A: Incubation step - the biotarget is trapped inside de fiber allowing diffusion and interaction of ligands; B: Washing step: the hollow fiber was removed from extract solution and cleaned to remove unbound substances; C: Elution step: the ligand-target complex is disrupted, the bound ligands are eluted and proceeded to analysis)

### *3.2.2.3 Other immobilization techniques*

This topic presents distinct systems for screening bioactive components from natural products with anticancer potential, which from now on will be referred to as miscellaneous. The application of different approaches allows the study of new characteristics in the development of ligand fishing assays. In this regard, the majority of ligand fishing studies here discussed used innovative configurations, supports, or immobilization approaches. In three insightful studies, the Heat shock protein 90 (Hsp 90) was grafted in mesoporous silica beads associated with InP/ZnS [44,45] and CdTe [46] quantum dots (QD). The support used combines the feature of *in-situ* imaging through the fluorescence response of QD with the ligand fishing technique. The QD was used as fluorescent probes in an imaging assay, this way the ligand-target complex can be directly tested in a cell-based assay. Using this support the authors propose not only to screen and identify potential binders by ligand fishing assay but also to assess the biological activity of fished ligands on HeLa and MCF-7 cells. The application of these silica nanocomposites was successful in the screening of potential inhibitors of Hsp 90 on Alisma plantago-aquatica L., Tripterygium Wilfordii Hook. f., and 

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*Curcuma longa* L., in which, for the first time, four ligands (zingiberenol, (6R,7R)bisabolone, (*E*)-Atlantone and 6-(1-Hydro-xymethylvinyl)-4,8a-dimethyl-3,5,6,7,8,8ahexahydro-1H-naphthalen-2-one) were associated to this extract.

Another example includes the use of biotinylated triplex DNA on agarose beads. In this approach, Xu and collaborators [47] used affinity immobilization of the target. They proposed a screening of a known collection of small molecules to validate the methodology and applied it to search for ligands in the Phellodendron chinense Schneid cortexes. The developed screening assay was able to fish two components (berberine and palmatine) from the complex mixture. Even though carbon-based materials have numerous applications, Zhou et al. [48] state that this is the first time that graphene oxide (GO)/oriented layered graphene oxide pad (OGO) is used as solid support for the immobilization of cell membranes (CM) in ligand fishing assay. In the search for EGFR inhibitors, CM from H1819 and A549 cells were selected to coat GO/OGO. This system was used to screen potential ligands from the Comfrey rhizome extract (Lithospermum erythrorhizon Siebold & Zucc.). During the evaluation, OGO presented a better performance than GO with a higher target load and better stability. The H1819-CM@OGO proved to be a better target for fishing EGFR inhibitors. The developed platform successfully fished three components from the extract (salvianolic acid B, deoxyshikonin, and shikonin) that showed a strong biological response against H1819 cells [48].

In order to better understand the well-known anticancer activity of a Traditional Chinese Medicine (Tripterygium wilfordii Hook. f.), Tang and colleagues [51] used a singular approach to uncover more information regarding bioactive components and mechanism of action. In this work, the authors synthesized nanoparticles of CaCO<sub>3</sub> that were covered by MCF-7 cell membranes. The exposed receptors in the cell membrane were available for interaction with potential ligands in the plant extract. The differential of this solid support resides in its capacity to hydrolase in an acidic medium. This feature permits the support's removal preserving the target and the release of the bound ligands. This affinity assay fished out seven ligands from the T. wilfordii extract. The most potent fished ligand (celastrol) was used in the second application of the CaCO<sub>3</sub> nanoparticles - a target protein fishing assay. For this assay, the celastrol was fixed into the support surface and it was used to screen the protein collection from the MCF-7 cells digestion. The novelty in this bioanalytical method is the use of the same support for both ligand and protein fishing, which the authors named as a none-loss target release. Therefore, besides the screening of bioactive substances in complex mixtures this strategy could be used to fish potential protein targets [51] 

As a summary of the works here discussed, we observed that most of them (n=20 – 34.5%) used miscellaneous approaches to screen natural products. Additionally, magnetic particles (n=17 – 29.3%), ultrafiltration (n=12 – 20.7%), hollow fiber (n=8 – 13.8%), and dialysis (n=1 – 1.7%) were also performed in an attempt to find anticancer leads from natural products (**figure 8**).



Figure 8 – Number of articles sorted by ligand fishing technique. Each bar represents the
number of works included in each category.

As discussed in this section, the ligand fishing assays can be presented in different system configurations. Most of the works analyzed in this review fit the offline definition. This means that the isolation and identification of potential ligands are performed in two independent and physically disconnected steps [52]. Even though this configuration has proven to be useful, it is important to mention that there are different approaches to perform this affinity assay. Online assays are the ones that automatically insert the samples into the system, where the analyst has minimal interference. In more detail, this technique uses a bypass to transfer aliquots from one line to another [52,53]. Besides avoiding errors from preparation due to the automated transferring of samples and aliquots, this continuous flow can represent an economy of time and resources. These advantages are especially relevant in the screening of small biologically active compounds. To the best of our knowledge, no articles were found applying online ligand fishing using cancer-related targets to screen bioactive substances. Certainly, each assay has benefits and limitations but the fact that there is a gap in the literature for this type of system configuration indicates that there is still a lot to explore. 

### 444 3.3. Anticancer natural products identified by ligand fishing

Table S1 presents the list of natural products identified from various natural sources
as binders of specific molecular or cellular targets dysregulated in different cancers, using
the ligand fishing strategy. For each molecule identified, the chemical class is indicated.
Analysis of the selected works showed that flavonoids (n=23), alkaloids (n=17), and phenolic

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acids (n=13) were the most fished secondary metabolites, followed by terpenoids (n=11),
coumarins (n=5), anthraquinones (n=5), and steroids (n=4). Ligands from other chemical
classes (i.e., saponins, tannins, lignans, etc.) were fished in 16 works (figure 9A).
Unsurprisingly, these classes have been extensively studied for their anticancer potential,
which allowed the discovery of remarkable anticancer compounds such as vinca alkaloids,
camptothecin, and paclitaxel [54–61]

Flavonoids are one of the largest classes of secondary metabolites, corresponding to about 60% of all natural polyphenols, with approximatively 8000 molecules [62,63]. Their biological activity is usually attributed to a high antioxidant power [64], however, it is also well known that flavonoids can act on several pathways, including some involved with cancer pathophysiology. For example, in vitro studies have demonstrated that flavonoids can modulate several protein kinases, epidermal growth factor receptors, vascular endothelial growth factor receptors, and cytoskeleton dynamics, besides inhibiting some metabolizing enzymes that activate a large number of pro-carcinogens [61,65-67]. In total, 96 flavonoids from 23 works were identified as binders of molecular targets related to cancer, demonstrating the potency of this technique to rapidly screen and identify flavonoids with anticancer potential. Among them, polymethoxylated flavones are interesting molecules that have been intensively studied for their anticancer potential. These natural products are versatile pharmacological agents that can modulate different pathways involved with cell proliferation, apoptosis, and cytoskeleton dynamics [68-70]. Moreover, Cheng and collaborators [71] for instance have identified for the first time eight polymethoxylated flavones in the fruit peels of Citrus reticulata Blanco that act as inhibitors of the matrix metalloproteinase 2. It is important to note that although C. reticulata is a well-studied plant species, these ligands were only detected after the implementation of a ligand fishing approach, which unveils the power of the technique in identifying undiscovered compounds. 

The fact that flavonoids are abundant in nature and act by several mechanisms may explain why this class has been the most fished one among the selected articles. Quercetin and kaempferol, for example, are known to exhibit a pleiotropic enzymatic inhibition activity. It should also be noted that flavonoids can aggregate and form colloidal suspensions in *in* vitro assays, with a high potential to unspecifically bind and inhibit enzymes, which could produce false-positive results, misguiding drug discovery research [72-74]. In this sense, none of the studies dealing with ligand fishing and identifying flavonoids have addressed the possible formation of colloidal aggregates, although this process in physiological conditions is unconfirmed [75,76]. 

The most successful class of natural products being used to treat cancer is probably alkaloids. They represent a highly diverse group of compounds containing cyclic structures with at least one basic nitrogen atom incorporated within [77,78]. There are approximately 12,000 different alkaloids identified and classified according to their chemical structures, biosynthetic pathways, and biological activities. Since the 1960s, alkaloids have been recognized as an important class in the treatment of cancer, with the vinca alkaloids being the first plant-derived antimitotic agents to be introduced into the drug market [60]. Alkaloids are considered important sources of anticancer drugs, with several preclinical and clinical

studies being conducted [79]. They act through complex mechanisms, affecting multiple targets, and therefore can be useful to treat various forms of cancers [78]. Camptothecin, for instance, is a monoterpene pentacyclic quinoline alkaloid first extracted from the leaves of Camptotheca acuminata that originated irinotecan and topotecan, two FDA-approved topoisomerase-1 inhibitors able to treat metastatic ovarian, colorectal, and primary colon cancers. Another successful example is taxol, a β-tubulin-binding alkaloid extracted from the barks of Taxus brevifolia Nutt. that was approved in the 1980s for the treatment of Kaposi sarcoma, ovarian, breast, colon lung, bladder, prostate, melanoma, esophageal, and neck cancers [80].

Given the importance of alkaloids to the discovery of new anticancer agents, seventeen studies have successfully fished and characterized 37 alkaloids. However, some minor constituents like the ones that were reported for the first time in the complex venom of *Bufo melanostictus* Schneider, such as compound 18 ( $C_{14}H_{17}O_4N_2$ ), were referred to as unknown due to their novelty [11]. This highlights the importance of sensitive chemical screening methods, such as ligand fishing, in the discovery of new alkaloids with unexplored pharmacological potential.

## 3.4. Natural sources screened for anticancer compounds using the Ligand Fishing strategy

Among the taxonomic kingdoms of the species searched (n=74), the Plantae kingdom stands out as the most studied one, with 94,6% of all species in the selected articles (n=70) (figure 9B and Table S1). Different parts of plants were investigated in these studies (table S1), the roots/rhizomes being the most studied ones (n=24), followed by the leaves (n=8), fruits (n=5), seeds (n=5), cortex (n=3), flowers (n=2) and barks (n=2). Interestingly, there was a considerable number of studies (n=24) that did not specify the part used, being referred to as undefined (figure 9C and table S1).

It is also worth mentioning that most ligand fishing experiments performed to identify anticancer natural products were made with terrestrial plant extracts (Figure 9B). However, there is a huge and undiscovered potential in marine organisms [87][89], which were barely screened by ligand fishing studies for anticancer leads. The group of Choi and collaborators [82] was the only one that screened a marine-derived natural product. They fished out tetrangulol methyl ether, a potent quinone reductase-2 inhibitor ( $IC_{50} = 0.16 \mu M$ ), from an extract of Actinomyces sp. derived from marine sediment. Indeed, marine-derived natural products from seaweeds, microalgae, and plants have shown great potential, not only for cancerology but also for human health [83-85]. In this sense, they represent an immense reservoir of interesting natural molecules, and as such, should be better explored using the ligand fishing strategy. 





Figure 9 – Graphical summary of ligands fished (A), the taxonomic kingdom of the screened
natural product (B), and the parts used to make the extraction (C).

### 535 **3.5. Cancer-related targets**

Most newly approved anticancer drugs explore specific oncoproteins encoded by 536 mutated genes. However, the number of identified genes is extremely small compared to the 537 diversity of cancer targets described in the literature, which makes the oncogene 538 determination and search for new target inhibitors two complementary approaches in 539 anticancer drug discovery [86]. Hereupon, in this section, we focus on the latter aspect of 540 anticancer drug discovery, discussing closely related cancer targets, general pathways, and 541 542 other technologies involved in the ligand fishing works selected for this review. Among cancer molecular targets, tyrosinase stands out as the most studied one (n=11 - 18.3%), 543 followed by DNA (n=8 - 13.3%) the cell membrane of HepG2 cells (n=6 - 10.4%), 544 cyclooxygenase-2 (n=6-10.4%), cell membrane of MCF7 cells (n=4-6.6%) and heat shock 545 protein 90 (n=3-6.3%). Other targets were also employed, such as lactate dehydrogenase, 546 glutathione-S-transferase, fibroblast growth factor receptor 4 (FGFR4), and tropomyosin-547 related kinase B (TrkB) receptor among others (figure 10 and table S2). 548



**Figure 10** – Main anticancer targets exploited in natural products ligand fishing studies. Each bar represents the number of studies included

553 <u>3.5.1. Proteins</u>

Proteins are the most explored targets for disease treatment and their modulating agents represent the vast majority of all anticancer drugs approved by the FDA [87]. Not surprisingly, proteins were the most used targets to construct ligand fishing systems able to capture anticancer compounds from natural products.

### 559 3.5.1.1 Tyrosinase

560 Tyrosinase is an enzyme involved in the production of melanin in different organisms 561 such as animals and plants. In humans, tyrosinase is closely related to melanogenesis and its 562 inhibitors may represent an important clinical strategy to treat melanoma [88]. In this sense, 563 tyrosinase inhibitors were sought by different ligand fishing approaches such as hollow fiber 564 [42], ultrafiltration [19,88–94], and magnetic particles [95,96], in an attempt to efficiently 565 capture ligands with affinity for this target.

Yang and colleagues [89], for example, successfully fished out two derivatives from quercetin and kaempferol (quercetin-3-O-(6-O-malonyl)-β-D-glucopyranoside and kaempferol-3-O-(6-O-malonyl)-β-D-glucopyranoside, respectively) from the Morus alba L. leaf extract as promising tyrosinase inhibitors. However, it is important to note that the oxidation of phenolic compounds by the active tyrosinase contributes to the formation of reactive species, stimulating apoptosis via the activation of p53. Therefore, the indirect cytotoxic effect of tyrosinase depends on its activations, instead of inhibition [96]. Indeed, the prodrug-activating feature of tyrosinase has been exploited to improve melanoma treatment since melanoma cells distinguish from normal cells, among other characteristics, by the overexpression of tyrosinase, which in turn favors cytotoxicity towards cancer over normal cells [97].

577 On the other hand, the exaggerated production of melanin in melanoma cells confers 578 radioprotection and resistance to photodynamic therapy. Additionally, melanin can chelate 579 chemotherapeutic agents like cyclophosphamide whereas cell whitening promotes

sensitization, indicating that tyrosinase inhibitors may represent a feasible alternative formelanoma chemosensitization [98].

*3.5.1.2. Cyclooxygenase-2 (COX-2)* 

Cyclooxygenase-2 (COX-2) is one of the most studied targets involved with inflammation. COX-2 inhibitors are widely used to contain inflammation since they present fewer side effects than COX-1 inhibitors. These enzymes catalyze the oxidation of fatty acids to produce eicosanoids such as prostaglandins (PG), which in turn are closely related to the transformation of normal hyperplasic into neoplastic cells. In this regard, several levels of evidence indicate that the inhibition of cyclooxygenases, particularly COX-2, is intimately linked to a significant risk reduction for cancer development. Furthermore, COX-2 is overexpressed in various cancer types such as breast [99], colon [100], cervical [101], and non-small cell lung cancer [102]. Additionally, COX-2 overexpression is associated with poor prognosis in the brain, ovarian, uterine, hepatocarcinoma, and melanoma, among other cancers, which makes this enzyme an important target for anticancer therapy research [103]. 

The prostaglandin  $E_2$  (PGE<sub>2</sub>) is one of the most important eicosanoids produced by COXs, having the ability to stimulate several intracellular pathways involved in cancer pathophysiology. For instance, PGE<sub>2</sub> can promote apoptosis resistance via upregulation of Bcl-2, stimulate angiogenesis via upregulation of vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF), metastasis through increase an in metalloproteinases types 2 and 9, tumor growth via upregulation of epidermal growth factor receptor (EGFR) and invasion via PI3K-AKT signaling pathway [104].

Based on the importance of COX-2 for cancerology, six works employed this target in the development of ligand fishing assays to screen natural products, aiming to find innovative inhibitors. Four of the articles focused on the role of COX-2 inhibitors in cancer therapy [105-108], whereas two works focused on the anti-inflammatory features of the fished inhibitors [109, 110]. In any case, COX-2 inhibitors can be extremely valuable in both scenarios. Celecoxib, for instance, is a widely used selective COX-2 inhibitor that promotes local anti-inflammatory response as well as acts as a chemopreventive agent, reducing recurrences of adenoma and breast cancer by more than 40% [111]. 

### 3.5.1.3 Phospholipases $A_2$ (PLA<sub>2</sub>s)

Phospholipases A<sub>2</sub> (PLA<sub>2</sub>s) are enzymes belonging to the esterase superfamily that catalyze the hydrolyzation of the acyl bond of glycerophospholipids to release lysophospholipids and free fatty acids, being subdivided in cytosolic (cPLA<sub>2</sub>), calcium-independent (iPLA<sub>2</sub>), secreted (sPLA<sub>2</sub>), lysosomal, adipose-specific PLA<sub>2</sub>s and platelet-activating factor (PAF) [112]. Among its different isoforms, cPLA<sub>2</sub>a, iPLA<sub>2</sub>β, sPLA<sub>2</sub>-IIA, and sPLA2-III have demonstrated involvement with human carcinogenesis, therefore being able to be considered for anticancer therapies. Arachidonic acid (AA) is, undoubtedly, one of the most important products of PLA<sub>2</sub>s' action. It is a glycerophospholipid derivative that is transformed into eicosanoids closely related to inflammation and tumorigenesis by the 

action of cyclooxygenases (COXs), lipoxygenases (LOXs), and cytochrome p450 (CYP450)
enzymes [113].

Based on this, numerous studies have demonstrated the dual role of  $PLA_2s$  isoforms in tumorigenesis. The  $sPLA_2$ , for instance, acts as a tumor suppressor in gastric and intestinal cancers and as a tumor promoter in breast, lung, prostate, ovarian, and esophageal cancers [113], whereas  $cPLA_2$  is mostly tumorigenic, except for colon cancer where it acts as a tumor suppressor [114]. This highlights the importance of targeting the appropriate isoforms of PLA<sub>2</sub>s depending on the type of cancer.

Given the above-mentioned, PLA<sub>2</sub> inhibitors may be promising pharmacological tools to treat cancer. In this regard, Wei and collaborators [115] elaborated a magnetic nanoparticle-based ligand fishing system with immobilized porcine PLA<sub>2</sub> in an attempt to find inhibitors from Pseudopithomyces sp. extract. In it, they fished six inhibitors and tested them against human lung carcinoma (A549), bone marrow neuroblastoma (SH-SY5Y), and cervical cancer (HeLa) cell lines. Interestingly, the authors found good potency of fusaristatin C (IC<sub>50</sub> = 10.10  $\mu$ M) against A549 cells, but not against SH-SY5Y and HeLa cells, which may correlate with the alleged role of PLA<sub>2</sub>s in specific types of cancers. 

### *3.5.1.4 Lactate dehydrogenase (LDH)*

Lactate dehydrogenase (LDH) is a tetrameric enzyme formed by two subunits (A and B) with different body distributions. While subunit A is more present in the liver and muscles, subunit B predominates in the heart, being both upregulated in different types of cancer [116]. Differently from normal cells, cancer cells obtain most of their energy from glycolysis and subsequent conversion of pyruvate into lactate by LDH, even under normal aerobic conditions [117]. This distinguished activity pattern turns LDH into an interesting target in the search for inhibitors with anticancer potential since diminished levels of LDH activity reduce tumorigenicity causing minor side effects [116,118]. Exploring this potentiality, Cheng and collaborators [119] fabricated a bovine LDH-grafted magnetic particle capable of rapidly screening natural inhibitors from two complex matrices. In it, the authors successfully fished out twelve different ligands of which at least six (emodin, rhein, aloe-emodin, chrysophanic acid, lunatin, and (-)-epicatechin-3-O-gallate) have demonstrated promising activity against cancer cells by other research groups [120-125]. However, in this work, the authors did not perform enzymatic assays to check inhibition in the presence of the fished-out ligands, not being possible to confirm their alleged LDH inhibiting potential.

### *3.5.1.5 Glutathione S-transferase (GST)*

657 Glutathione S-transferase (GST) is a family of enzymes that catalyze the conjugation 658 of glutathione into different types of electrophilic substances, being responsible for phase II 659 detoxification. Additionally, GST ( $\mu$  and  $\pi$  classes) participates in other cellular processes 660 including apoptosis, carcinogenesis, tumor formation, and multidrug resistance, in which it 661 undermines the chemotherapy drug efficacy by extrusion and inhibits the MAPK pathways

to avoid tumor cell apoptosis [126]. Indeed, the GST isozyme GSTP1 ( $\pi$ 1) is overexpressed in different types of cancer (glioma, gastric, prostate, and breast cancer) and its inhibition/knockdown increases the response to anticancer-approved drugs [127]. For these reasons, GST inhibitors have been considered for anticancer drug discovery and treatment, being used as an immobilized target in the ligand fishing system developed by Yi and colleagues [28]. In it, the authors engineered a mesoporous silica magnetic particle with GST immobilized on its surface intending to screen natural products with inhibitory potential against GST. With it, they could efficiently fish seven ligands, of which three presented high binding affinity for GST, being them rosmarinic acid, (-)-epigallocatechin-3-O-gallate, and (-)- epicatechin-3-gallate [28]. 

GST inhibitors are classified according to their activity in specific biding sites, namely G- and H-sites. G-site inhibitors are glutathione-based molecules since this specific site only accepts glutathione as a substrate. On the other hand, H-site inhibitors are more structurally diversified, making the development of inhibitors quite challenging [127]. One way or the other, natural products are interesting sources of GST inhibitors and when associated with ligand fishing approaches, this enables fast screening and discovery of new chemosensitizers to aid current cancer chemotherapy.

*3.5.1.6 Quinone reductase-2 (QR2)* 

Like GST, quinone reductase-2 (QR2) is a phase II enzyme that protects the body against toxic and reactive chemical species, although its role in cancer appears to be less evident. Yet, QR2 inhibitors have been hypothesized as cancer chemopreventive agents, resveratrol being one of the most studied natural products for this purpose [128,129]. Indeed, resveratrol has been associated with all three steps of carcinogenesis and as a QR2 inhibitor, it seems to regulate the degradation of cyclin D1 by the proteasome via the AKT-GSK-3β pathway, limiting cell growth. Moreover, QR2 knockdown results in slower proliferation and cell cycle arrest at the G1 phase, indicating that this enzyme plays a key role in cell division [130].

From this perspective, Choi and collaborators [82] screened different natural products seeking QR2 inhibitors by a ligand fishing assay. They incubated human recombinant QR2 with marine sediment bacteria (Actinomyces sp.) and hop (Humulus lupulus L.) extracts, being able to fish out and identify three different inhibitors, one from bacteria (tetrangulol methyl ether) and two from hops (xanthohumol and xanthohumol D). As compared to resveratrol (IC<sub>50</sub> = 5.1  $\mu$ M), xanthohumol and xanthohumol D showed lower activity (IC<sub>50</sub> >  $\mu$ M) whereas tetrangulol methyl ether was quite potent (IC<sub>50</sub> = 0.16  $\mu$ M) [131]. In fact, the latter compound has shown interesting cytotoxicity against different types of cancer cells (KB, MCF-7, and NCI-H187) [132], which may also correlate with its potent inhibitory activity against QR2. 

*3.5.1.7 Heat-shock proteins (HSPs)* 

The heat-shock proteins (HSP) are mammalian chaperones that regulate protein folding and refolding in the face of stressful conditions such as abrupt temperature changes and exposure to high concentrations of reactive oxygen species (ROS). In this sense, HSPs represent the primary line of defense against stress-related cellular events, therefore being related to various stress-originated diseases. For these reasons, HSP has been widely considered in the search for new drugs, especially in cancerology. In this regard, HSPs play a key role in carcinogenesis surveillance since cancer cells require distinct and often mutated biochemical machinery to favor proliferation, invasion, metastasis, evasion from apoptosis, and drug resistance [133].

Among the families of HSPs (HSP27, HSP40, HSP60, HSP70, and HSP90), HSP90 is the most studied one. This protein is overexpressed in several types of cancer and is related to a bad prognosis in cholangiocarcinoma, glioblastoma, gastric, lung, and breast cancers. The body of evidence correlating HSP90 to cancer is vast. The increased expression of HSP90, for example, is responsible for the activation and stabilization of oncogenic protein kinases, such as STAT3, JAK2, AKT, PI3K, and MAPK, which ultimately stimulate cancer cell growth and tumor progression [134].

In the field of ligand fishing, HSP90 has been explored as a target in the search for new anticancer agents. Three works from the same research group used quantum dots as a support to immobilize HSP90 and screen natural products for drug leads [44-46]. The group found multiple HSP90 inhibitors, some with characterized cytotoxicity *in vitro* and antitumor effect *in vivo* [135-137]. However, developing HSP90 inhibitors is quite challenging as they frequently fail in clinical trials either due to high toxicity or lack of beneficial effects [138,139].

726 3.5.1.8 Sirtuin 6 (SIRT6)

Sirtuins are nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide-dependent (NAD<sup>+</sup>) proteins belonging to the class III histone deacetylase family, being involved in DNA damage repair, stress response, ribosome biogenesis, cell proliferation, and cell death [140]. There are seven isoforms of sirtuins (SIRT1-7), classified according to their function and location. Sirtuin 6 (SIRT6), in particular, is a nuclear deacetylase involved in the modulation of various biological processes such as inflammation, metabolism, aging, tumor suppression, and carcinogenesis. The reduction of SIRT6 levels is associated with the human premature aging disorder and restoration of its activity reduces cell senescence. Additionally, SIRT6 possesses both tumor suppressor and oncogenic properties that will emerge depending on the type of cell. In colorectal, ovarian, and pancreatic cancers, for example, functional SIRT6 inhibits progression whereas its upregulation is related to hepatocarcinoma, skin, lung, breast, and prostate cancers [141]. 

In this context, two similar works used immobilized SIRT6 onto the surface of magnetic particles to screen *Trigonella foenum-graecum* seed extract in an attempt to find interesting ligands [38,39] In the first, the authors develop the fishing system using catalytic mutant SIRT6 and heat-inactivated SIRT6 as negative controls, being able to identify

quercetin and vitexin as inhibitors. In the second work, the authors used the same fishing
technique but with a different identification approach, being able to identify orientin and
fourteen other SIRT6 modulators for the first time.

### 747 3.5.1.9 $\alpha_{v}\beta$ 3 Integrin

Cancer invasion and metastasis strongly depend on the partial degradation of the extracellular matrix and the formation of new blood vessels [142]. Integrins are a protein family responsible for cell-cell and cell-extracellular matrix adhesion as well as angiogenesis, being the  $\alpha_{v}\beta_{3}$  integrin (also known as vitronectin receptor) the most important one [143]. In fact, this protein is highly expressed in newborn vessels whereas is lacking in resting endothelial cells [144]. In this sense,  $\alpha_v\beta_3$  integrin has been explored as an anticancer target since the inhibition of its activity has been associated with endothelial apoptosis and inhibition of angiogenesis, which is a crucial step in tumor formation and growth [145,146]. Cilengitide, for example, is one of the most studied  $\alpha_{v}\beta_{3}$  antagonists, being able to potentiate the radiotherapy outcomes in patients with glioma [147]. 

Having this challenge in mind, Uliana and colleagues [148] developed a ligand fishing system with immobilized  $\alpha_v\beta$ 3 integrin able to efficiently fish out [10]-gingerol from the ginger extract. The [10]-gingerol has been tested as an adjuvant to the treatment with doxorubicin using *in vitro* and *in vivo* models of triple-negative breast cancer where it was able to reduce metastasis, chemotherapy-related weight loss, and hepatotoxicity [149].

### 764 3.5.1.10 Tropomyosin-related kinase B (TrkB) receptor

The tropomyosin-related kinase is a family of tyrosine kinase receptors involved in neural development and cell functioning, survival, and proliferation. As tyrosine kinase receptors, after neurotrophin stimulus, they undergo a dynamic homodimerization with subsequent transactivation of the tyrosine kinase domains which in turn allows the recruitment of cytoplasmic proteins and activation of intracellular pathways [150]. Alterations in these receptors, either via mutations or rearrangements, have been related to oncogenesis, therefore making these proteins potential anticancer targets [151]. They are divided into three types depending on their activating neurotrophin: the TrkA, stimulated by the nerve growth factor (NGF), the TrkB, which is essentially activated by the brain-derived neurotrophic factor (BDNF) and the TrkC which in turn is stimulated in the presence of the neurotrophin-3 [152]. Preclinical studies have demonstrated that TrkA and TrkB inhibitors are capable of attenuating the proliferation and aggressiveness of pancreatic, neuroblastoma, and neuroendocrine tumors via apoptosis induction [153]. Additionally, the pan-Trk inhibitor (TrkA, B, and C inhibitor) entrectinib (Rozlytrek<sup>®</sup>), recently approved in Japan, the USA, and the European Union has demonstrated great results in the treatment of solid tumors in patients with specific genetic conditions [154].

Aware of the potential of Trk inhibitors, Arituluk and colleagues [32] developed a ligand fishing assay using magnetic nanoparticles coated with TrkB-overexpressing SH-SY5Y cell membranes to screen a Chinese natural product in the search for new inhibitors.

Despite some limitations, this model proved to be a fast-track in the screen of TrkB inhibitors from a very complex natural matrix, with a great degree of specificity as it was able to discriminate between TrkB binders and non-binders mixed in equimolar concentration [32].

### 3.5.1.11 Fibroblast growth factor receptor 4 (FGFR4)

Fibroblast growth factor receptor 4 (FGFR4) is a highly conserved tyrosine kinase receptor involved in various physiological processes such as tissue growth and repair, production of bile acids, metabolism, and muscle differentiation. Upon activation by the fibroblast growth factor (FGF) in the extracellular domains, the FGFR4 undergoes dimerization and transphosphorylation (intracellular domains), which in turn allows the direct activation of the PLC<sub>Y</sub>-IP<sub>3</sub>-DAG-PKC pathway and indirect (via FGFR substrate 2 – FRS2) activation of RAS-RAF-MAPK and PI3K-AKT pathways [155]. Moreover, FGFR4 overexpression and mutation as well as upregulation of its endogenous agonists are closely related to the development of cancer, especially breast cancer [156]. Despite that, the oncogenic functions of FGFR4 seem to vary greatly depending on the type of cancer as it is related to poor prognosis in colorectal, esophageal, liver, rhabdomyosarcoma, and lung cancers and with better survival in cervical, cholangiocarcinoma, pancreatic and head and neck cancers [157]. 

Based on the close relationship between FGFR4 receptors and cancer, Bu and colleagues [158] used a previously engineered HEK293 cell transfected with the Y367C mutation [159] to produce a mutant FGFR4-expressing cell membrane-coated silica particle to screen a TCM product. It is important to note that the FGFR4 Y367C mutation is a dominant oncogene in MDA-MB453 breast cancer cells [160] and as such, it is a good model for the screening of anticancer compounds through cell membrane ligand fishing assay. As a result, the authors fished out four alkaloids of which one (napellonine) had inhibitory action on FGFR4, with IC<sub>50</sub> of 133µg/mL. Yet according to the authors, in comparison to the standard FGFR4 inhibitor PD173074 ( $IC_{50} = 71.3 \mu g/mL$ ), napellonine would need structural modifications to increase its potency towards FGFR4 [158].

### *3.5.1.12 Urokinase plasminogen activator (uPA)*

The urokinase plasminogen activator (uPA) is an essential protease involved in the mechanism of conversion of plasminogen into plasmin. The extracellular matrix (ECM) is particularly affected by the activation of the uPA receptor (uPAR) by uPA as it is degraded by plasmin-activated metalloproteinases. The activation of this system is regulated by the plasminogen activator inhibitor 1 and 2 (PAI-1/2), which in turn signals for internalization of the complex uPA-uPAR. This phenomenon is crucial for various biological processes like embryogenesis and wound healing as well as in pathological states such as cancer invasion and metastasis [161]. Furthermore, the uPA system can facilitate cancer metastasis by different mechanisms other than ECM degradation. The binding of uPA to the uPAR can activate MAPK pathways (Ras-Raf-MEK-ERK and Rac1-MKK3-p38-MAPKAPK2) which are involved with cell growth, differentiation, survival, migration, and apoptosis [162]. The 

invasion of breast cancer cells, for example, is thought to be mediated by uPA via the p38-MAPK pathway with the aid of transmembrane integrins since the uPAR lacks transmembrane and cytosolic domains. Additionally, PAI-1 has a dual role in cancer since it stimulates the expression and internalization of the uPA-uPAR via low-density lipoproteins. Interestingly, this endogenous inhibitor has been associated with a poor cancer prognosis. Indeed, PAI-1's ability to limit excessive degradation of the ECM seems to help cancer cells to invade other tissues and spread through the bloodstream. Furthermore, PAI-1 also stimulates angiogenesis, apparently by exerting the same control over the ECM [163]. Previous reports showed that the uPA antagonist amiloride could modulate uPA gene expression at transcription and post-transcriptional levels, proving to be effective against cancer in preclinical models [164]. 

From this panorama, Li and collaborators [165] developed a fishing system designed to screen natural uPA ligands from traditional Chinese medicines (TCMs). With it, they screened forty-two TCMs to find seven uPA ligands, of which pentagalloylglucose and 28- $O-\beta$ -D-glucopyranosyl pomolic acid presented good inhibitory potential against uPA (IC<sub>50</sub> = 1.639 µM and 37.82 µM respectively). The high throughput nature of this approach allowed the authors to screen dozens of complex matrices, with thousands of chemical entities each, in a very short time as compared to classical natural product screenings, which makes this technique suitable for accelerated natural product screen and drug discovery.

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### 3.5.1.13 Matrix Metalloproteinase-2 (MMP-2)

Matrix metalloproteinases (MMPs) are a large family of zinc-dependent proteases that act by cleaving and rebuilding the extracellular matrix in connective tissues. These enzymes participate in physiological processes such as apoptosis, ovulation, inflammation, angiogenesis, neural growth, bone remodeling, embryonic development, and organ morphogenesis. On the other hand, pathological processes such as cancer invasion and metastasis occur with the aid of MMPs, highlighting the importance of these enzymes to cancerology [166]. There are more than 20 isoforms of MMPs, each having specific substrates, tissue distribution, molecular mass, and gene coding. Among them, gelatinases (MMP-2 and 9) are particularly involved in cancer invasion and metastasis as their increased expression has been related to the invasiveness of gliomas [167], malignant transformations after human papilloma virus infections [168], reduced survival in patients with primary breast carcinoma [169] and esophageal cancer [170]. 

In this context, Tao and colleagues [171] constructed a very interesting ligand fishing system that combines immobilization on magnetic particles with a microfluidic chip system. In it, the authors prepared and characterized a quantum dot magnetic particle with immobilized MMP-2 before submitting it to a microfluidic chip. Through two different channels (b and c), they injected the MMP-2-functionalized magnetic particles and the fruit extract of Rosa roxburghii Tratt. After incubation, a small ring magnet trapped the magnetic particles, and a wash solvent (phosphate buffer solution) was pumped through two other channels (d and f) to remove unspecifically bound ligands that were collected though two

additional channels (e and g). In the end, the dissociating solvent (30% acetonitrile in water) was pumped through another channel (h) to separate the ligands from the MMP-2-functionalized magnetic particles. Finally, the eluted ligands were pumped into a UPLC-Q-TOF/MS system to be analyzed. Among the twelve ligands fished and identified, ellagic acid stands out as it is a well-known MMP-2 inhibitor [171,172]. This polyphenolic compound possesses antiproliferative activity in various types of cancer cells, such as glioblastoma (U87 and U118), human osteogenic sarcoma (CRL1343), human colorectal adenocarcinoma (Caco-2), human prostate cancer (DU 145) and breast cancer (Hs 578T and MCF-7) [173-175]. Furthermore, the other eleven ligands fished (niga-ichigoside F<sub>1</sub>, rosamultin, kajiichigoside F<sub>1</sub>, zebirioside O, peduncloside, potentillanoside A, quadranoside VIII, corilagin, oreganol A, medicagenic acid, and valerenic acid) were described as MMP-2 inhibitors for the first time, evidencing the high throughput potential of this approach to isolate new molecules that could be useful for cancer treatment [171]. 

### 880 3.5.1.14 Monoacylglycerol lipase (MAGL)

The monoacylglycerol lipase (MAGL) is a soluble enzyme that catalyzes the hydrolyzation of monoacylglycerols to glycerol and fatty acids. Moreover, this enzyme is responsible for the hydrolysis of the endocannabinoid 2-arachidonoylglycerol (2-AG), releasing arachidonic acid, which in turn is a major precursor of pro-inflammatory agents that are involved in cancer progression, such as prostaglandins. In aggressive types of cancer, MAGL provides the free fatty acid supply that triggers downstream pro-tumorigenic pathways [176]. Nevertheless, MAGL in highly active in melanoma, ovarian, breast, prostate, and liver cancer cells [177]. 

In this context, Mei and collaborators [178] engineered yeast cells (KM71H Pichia pastoris) to expose MAGL on their surface. In a preliminary study, the authors screened twelve TCMs (Corydalis Rhizoma, Salvia Miltiorrhiza Radix et Rhizoma, Chuanxiong Rhizoma, Carthami Flos, Andrographis Herba, Eucommiae Cortex, Asari Radix et Rhizoma, Ginkgo Folium, Cinnamomum Ramulus, Rhei Radix et Rhizoma, Acorus Tatarinowii Rhizoma, and Paridis Rhizoma) to verify their inhibitory potential against MAGL. From it, three TCMs had inhibitory activity greater than 50%, Corydalis Rhizoma (Corydalis yanhusuo W. T. Wang) being the most active one (66.6% of inhibition). After the characterization of the ligand fishing system with fluorescent antibodies, the authors incubated the modified yeast with the extract of Corydalis yanhusuo to search for MAGL inhibitors. Among the seven ligands fished and characterized, the dehydrocorydaline (presented the highest relative binding rate in comparison with the control (JZL184) [178]. In another study, dehydrocorydaline demonstrated anticancer activity in vitro against MCF-7 cells, promoting apoptosis via the Bax-Bcl-2 signaling pathway [179]. On the other hand, it was not demonstrated yet if the anticancer effect of DHC is also mediated through the inhibition of MAGL, which can be an important research question for subsequent studies.

906 <u>3.5.2 DNA</u>

DNA structural characterization has advanced tremendously in the last decades. Various possible arrangements differ significantly from the B-form of DNA proposed by Watson and Crick in the 1950s. While the DNA B-form is relatively conserved in most cells, other forms such as slipped, cruciform, triplex, and quadruplex are much more susceptible to mutations, arousing great interest in the field of cancer-related drug discovery [180,181]. DNA G-quadruplexes, for instance, are guanine-rich DNA strands that can inhibit telomerase under physiological conditions, being this enzyme overexpressed in various types of cancer. Telomerase overexpression is associated with apoptosis suppression and the formation of spontaneous tumors in animal models [189][191]. In this sense, small molecules that act as G-quadruplex stabilizers represent an interesting alternative to limit telomerase activity and therefore its oncogenic effects. Telomestatin, for example, is a potent telomerase inhibitor derived from Streptomyces anulatus that has shown promising anticancer activity both in *vivo* and *in vitro* [183,184]. 

Based on our survey, eight works used DNA strands (double, triple, and quadruple) as smart baits to fish out ligands from natural products with anticancer potential. Different approaches were used to apply DNA strands into ligand fishing settings, including dialysis [185], ultrafiltration [12], magnetic particles [186], and microfluid chips [187,188] as well as other less trivial supports such as streptavidin-coated 96-well plates [49,50] and agarose beads [47]. The DNA-bound ligands were tested in preclinical settings in two specific reports. Ma and colleagues [12] found seven DNA binders from 62 plant samples, of which two (daurisoline and tetrandrine) were active against various triple-negative breast cancer and pediatric cancer cell lines ( $GI_{50} < 20\mu M$ ). In another report, Gao and colleagues [194][196] found four DNA-bound alkaloids (sanguinarine, chelerythrine, protopine, and allocryptopine). They found no cytotoxic activity for protopine and allocryptopine whereas chelerythrine and sanguinarine presented cytotoxicity against both normal (LO2 cell line) and liver cancer cells (HepG2 cell line) [187]. In fact, DNA binders are known for their undistinguishable toxicity against cancer and normal cells, which dramatically limits their utilization in clinical settings [189]. 

### 935 <u>3.5.3 Cancer cell membranes</u>

In the late 1990s, He and colleagues [190] developed a technique that used cell membranes for the fabrication of stationary phases applied in chromatographic studies. This innovative approach reproduces in vivo drug-receptor interactions and adsorbs ligands on the cell membrane. Coupled with it, high-performance liquid chromatography (HPLC) systems separated the retained ligands for further analysis, giving rise to cell membrane chromatography (CMC). From then on, various adaptations of the technique were performed to adequate to different research topics, including ligand fishing with a focus on anticancer drug discovery. 

In this review, several papers used a great variety of cancer cell lines to perform ligand fishing assays such as PC3 (human androgen-refractory prostate cancer) [20], MCF-7 (breast cancer) [11,51,191], HepG2 (hepatoma) [11,192], HCT116 (colorectal cancer) [193], A549 (lung carcinoma) [35], SKOV-3 (human ovarian cancer) [190,194], ACHN (renal

adenocarcinoma) [190,195,196], HEK293 cells (immortalized human embryonic kidney cells) [197] among others. The rationale of the techniques resides in the slight differences between normal and cancer cells as well as the preservation of membrane receptors' vicinity. In this sense, cancer cells are used as smart baits to fish out ligands according to their affinity for cell membrane surface structures, mainly receptors. Some cell membrane ligand fishing studies have induced the overexpression of membrane receptors to potentialize the adsorption of ligands. Hu et al. [197], for example, used HEK293 cells overexpressing the epidermal growth factor receptors (EGFR) to encapsulate graphene nanoparticles, which were capable of fishing out luteolin and caffeic acid from the extract of Taraxacum mongolicum Hand.-Mazz. Ligand fishing systems with membrane-anchored receptors are more realistic than free or immobilized receptors since the cell membrane play an important role in the conformation of these targets that may affect the affinity of ligands [197]. 

### 961 4. Concluding Remarks

 Natural products are an important source of bioactive compounds. Therefore, the potential for discovering new anticancer drug leads is undeniable. Despite that, classical screenings are poorly efficient and quite unspecific. To address these issues, ligand fishing approaches have emerged in the last two decades as a better option to accelerate the hit-to-lead discovery process. In this review, we gathered detailed information from the scientific literature aiming to provide a reasonable summary of findings, highlighting successful cases as well as some limitations of the techniques. This approach's versatility permits various suitable configurations depending on the target and its particularities. In this sense, a great number of different anticancer targets, such as proteins, DNA, and cancer cells themselves, were employed to fabricate robust ligand fishing systems capable of identifying new bioactive compounds. Nevertheless, we observed clear tendencies among the articles, in terms of natural products and the location where the research was developed. Another important piece of information is that a significant number of studies do not perform anticancer preclinical evaluations. Therefore, there is a need for follow-up studies designed to shed light on the ligands' alleged biological activities. 

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**Conflict of interest statement** 

982 The authors have no conflict of interest to declare

### 983 Data availability statement

- All data are already available in the current scientific literature. Therefore, data sharing doesnot apply as the authors have not performed new experimental assays.

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Species	Part	Extraction	Technique & Target	Ligands Fished	Chemical Class	Ref
Aconitum szechenyianum Gay (Ranunculaceae)	Roots	Reflux – EtOH 60%	Miscellaneous (FGFR4)	1) Napellonine, 2) 12-Epinapelline, 3) Benzoylaconitine and 4) 3- Deoxyaconitine	Alkaloids	[158]
<i>Acorus tatarinowii</i> Schott (Acoraceae)	Undefined	Ultrasonication – EtOH 70%	Miscellaneous (MAGL)	-	-	[178]
Actinomyces sp. (Actinomycetaceae)	Whole	Liquid-liquid extraction – acetone-EtOAc- H <sub>2</sub> 0	Ultrafiltration (QR-2)	1) Tetrangulol methyl ether	Anthraquinone	[82]
Alisma orientale (Sam.) Juz. (Alismataceae)	Roots	Ultrasonication – MeOH:H <sub>2</sub> O (7:3)	Magnetic particle (GST)	-	-	[28]
<i>Alisma plantago- aquatica</i> L. (Alismataceae)	Undefined	Reflux – EtOH 85%	Miscellaneous (Hsp 90α)	<ol> <li>Alisol F, 2) 16-oxo-11-deoxy-Alisol A, 3) Alisol F 24-acetate, 4) Alisol L 23-acetate, 5) 16-oxo-11-anhydro-Alisol A, 6) Alisol H, 7) Alisol B-23-acetate, 8) Alisol C, 9) 3-Methyl-5,6- dimethoxy-2,3- dihydro-1H-indene-1-one, 10) (1S,3aa,7aβ)-1- Acetyloctahydro- 4a- hydroxy-7β- isopropyl 4-methyl-1H-indene, 11) Corymbolone, 12) (-)-Spathulenol, 13) n-Hexadecanoic acid, 14) Hexadecanoic acid ethyl ester, 15) Linoleic acid ethyl ester, 16) 13,17-Seco-5a-pregn- 13(18)-en-20-one, 17) Lupeol, 18) Lupeol acetate, 19) Taraxasterol and 20) Betulinaldehyde</li> </ol>	Fatty acids, steroids and terpenoids	[45]
<i>Andrographis</i> <i>paniculata</i> (Burm. f.) Nees (Acanthaceae)	Undefined	Ultrasonication – EtOH 70%	Miscellaneous (MAGL)	_	-	[178]

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1 2 4 5 6 7 8	Anemarrhena asphodeloides Bunge (Asparagaceae)	Rhizomes	Percolation – EtOH 95%	Ultrafiltration (COX2)	<ol> <li>Neomangiferin, 2) Phellodendrine, 3) Mangiferin, 4) Magnoflorine,</li> <li>5) 3-O-feruloylquinnic acid, 6) (-)-Oblongine, 7) Menisperine, 8) Demethyleneberberine, 9) Oxoberberine, 10) Berberrubine, 11) Jatrorrhizine, 12) Timosaponin B, 13) Timosaponin B-II, 14)</li> <li>Timosaponin A-I, 15) Palmatine, 16) Berberine, 17) Sanleng acid, 18)</li> <li>Timosaponin A-III, 19) Anemarrhenasaponin I, 20) cis-Hinokiresinol</li> </ol>	Alkaloids, xanthones and saponins	[105]
9 10 11	Angelicae dahurica Fisch. (Apiaceae)	Roots	Ultrasonication – MeOH	Hollow fiber (HepG-2 cells)	<ol> <li>Xanthotoxol, 2) Xanthotoxin, 3) Psoralen, 4) Bergapten, 5) Oxypeucedanin, 6) Imperatorin, 7) Isoimperatorin.</li> </ol>	Coumarins	[43]
12 13 14	Artemisia capillaris Thunb (Asteraceae)	Undefined	Decoction – H <sub>2</sub> O	Hollow fiber (HepG-2 and ACHN cells)	1) Chlorogenic acid, 2) p-Hydroxyacetophenone	Phenolic acid and terpenoid	[196]
15 16 17 18 19	<i>Asarum</i> <i>heterotropoides</i> F. Schmidt. (Aristolochiaceae)	Undefined	Ultrasonication – EtOH 70%	Miscellaneous (MAGL)		-	[178]
20 21 22 23	Astragalus membranaceus (Fisch.) Bunge (Fabaceae)	Undefined	Ultrasonication – MeOH	Magnetic particle (EGFR/HEK293 cells)	Chi -	-	[197]
24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31 32 33 34 35 36 37 38 39 40 41	Atractylodes macrocephala Koidz (Asteraceae)	Roots	Infusion – H <sub>2</sub> O	Magnetic particle (Tyrosinase)	<ol> <li>Gallic acid, 2) Albiflorin, 3) Paeoniflorin, 4) Liquiritin apioside, 5) Liquiritin, 6) Galloylpaeoniflorin, 7) Ononin, 8) Isoliquiritigenin, 9) Glycyrrhizic acid, 10) Oxypaeoniflora, 11) Benzoylpaeoniflorin, 12) Benzoyloxypaeoniflorin, 13) Mudanpioside C, 14) Paeonolide and 15) Apiopaeonoside</li> </ol>	Phenolic acid, terpenoids saponins, and glycosides	[95]
	Bufo melanostictus Schneider (Bufonidae)	Secretion (venom)	Reflux – EtOH and $H_2O$	Miscellaneous (HepG2 and MCF-7 cells)	<ol> <li>Serotonin, 2) N-methyl serotonin, 3) Bufotenidine, 4) Suberoyl arginine, 5) Arenobufagin, 6) Telocinobufatoxin, 7) Bufotalin, 8) 3-(N-pimeloyl argininyl) bufalin, 9) Cinobufotalin, 10) Bufalitoxin, 11) 3-(N-pimeloyl argininyl) resibufogenin, 12) Bufalin, 13) Resibufotoxin, 14) Cinobufotoxin, 15) 3-(N-azelayl argininyl) resibufogenin, 16) Cinobufagin and 17) Resibufogenin</li> </ol>	Alkaloids, amino acid, bufogenins and bufotoxins	[11]
	Camellia sinensis (L.) Kuntze (Theaceae)	Leaves	Ultrasonication – MeOH:H <sub>2</sub> O (7:3)	Magnetic particle (GST)	1) Caffeic acid, 2) Rosmarinic acid, 3) Gallic acid, 4) (-)- Epigallocatechin-3- O-gallate, 5) (-)-Epicatechin-3-gallate and 6) Quercetin-3-O-glucoside	Phenolic acids and flavonoids	[28]
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<i>Camellia sinensis</i> (L.) Kuntze (Theaceae)	Leaves	-	Magnetic particle (COX2)	<ol> <li>(-)-gallocatechin, 2) (-)-epigallocatechin, 3) (-)-epicatechin, 4) (-)- epigallocatechin-3-gallate, 5) (-)-gallocatechin-3-gallate, 6) (-)- epigallocatechin-3-(3"-O-methyl)-gallate, 7) (-)-epicatechin-3-gallate, 8) (-)-epicatechin-3-(3"-O-methyl)-gallate</li> </ol>	Flavonoids	[106]
<i>Camellia sinensis</i> (L.) Kuntze (Theaceae)	Leaves	Ultrasonication – MeOH 70%	Magnetic particle (COX2)	<ol> <li>3-Galloylquinic acid, 2) 5-Galloylquinic acid, 3) 3-p- Coumaroylquinic acid, 4) 5-p-Coumaroylquinic acid, 5) 5- caffeoylquinic acid, 6) (-)-Epicatechin, 7) (-)-Epicatechin 3-O-gallate,</li> <li>Quercetin 3-O-rhamnosylgalactoside, 9) Quercetin 3-O-glucoside,</li> <li>10) Kaempferol 3-O-glucosylrutinoside, 11) Kaempferol-3-O- rutinoside, 12) Kaempferol 3-O-glucoside</li> </ol>	Phenolic acids and flavonoids	[107]
Carthamus tinctorius L. (Asteraceae)	Undefined	Ultrasonication – EtOH 70%	Miscellaneous (MAGL)	-	-	[178]
<i>Cassia obtusifolia</i> L. (Fabaceae)	Seeds	Decoction – EtOH 75%	Miscellaneous (HepG2 cells)	1) Aurantio-obtusin, 2) 1-desmethylaurantio-obtusin, 3) Chryso- obtusin, 4) Obtusin, and 5) Questin	Anthraquinones	[193]
<i>Cecropia obtusifolia</i> Bertol. (Urticaceae)	Undefined	Reflux – MeOH; Ultrasound – HCl 8%; Liquid- liquid – HCl- CHCl <sub>3</sub>	Hollow fiber (HCT116 cells)	1) Aloe-emodin and 2) Physcion	Anthraquinones	[194]
<i>Centella asiatica</i> (L.) Urban (Apiaceae)	Undefined	-	Magnetic particle (TrkB)	<ol> <li>Dicaffeoylquinic acid, 2) O-caffeoylquinic acid, 3) Madecassic acid, 4) Castillicetin, 5) Quercetin, 6) Stigmasterol, 7) Pomolic acid, 8) Naringin</li> </ol>	Phenolic acids, terpenoids, steroid and flavonoids	[32]
Cibotium barometz (L.) J.Sm. (Cibotiaceae)	Rhizomes	Ultrasonication – MeOH	Magnetic particle (EGFR/HEK293 cells)	-	-	[197]
Cinnamomum cassia (L.) J.Presl (Lauraceae)	Undefined	Ultrasonication – EtOH 70%	Miscellaneous (MAGL)		-	[178]

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	Cinnamomum cassia (L.) J.Presl (Lauraceae)	Cortex	Percolation – EtOH 95%	Ultrafiltration (COX2)	<ol> <li>Neomangiferin, 2) Phellodendrine, 3) Mangiferin, 4) Magnoflorine,</li> <li>5) 3-O-feruloylquinnic acid, 6) (-)-Oblongine, 7) Menisperine, 8) Demethyleneberberine, 9) Oxoberberine, 10) Berberrubine, 11) Jatrorrhizine, 12) Timosaponin B, 13) Timosaponin B-II, 14) Timosaponin A-I, 15) Palmatine, 16) Berberine, 17) Sanleng acid, 18) Timosaponin A-III, 19) Anemarrhenasaponin I, 20) cis-Hinokiresinol</li> </ol>	Alkaloids, xanthones and saponins	[105]
10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20	<i>Citrus reticulata</i> Blanco (Rutaceae)	Citrus reticulata lanco (Rutaceae)Fruits (peels)Percolation – EtOH 75%Miscellaneous (MCF-7 cells)1) 5,7,8,30,40-Pentamethoxylflavanone, 2) 3,5,6,7,8,40- Hexamethoxyflavanone, 3) 5,7,8,30,40,50-Hexamethoxyflavone, 4) 7- Hydroxy-5,6,7,8,40-pentamethoxyflavone, 5) Isosinensetin, 6) 30- Hydroxy-5,6,7,8,40-pentamethoxyflavone, 7) Sinensetin, 8) 5,6,7,8,40-Pentamethoxyflavanone, 9) 3-Hydroxy-5,6,7,8,40- pentamethoxyflavone, 10) Tetramethyl-O-isoscutellarein, 11) Tetramethyl-O-scutellarein, 12) Nobiletin, 13) 3,5,6,7,8,30,40- Heptamethoxyflavone, 14) 5,6,7,8,30,40-Hexamethoxyflavanone, 15) 5-Hydroxy-6 7,8,30,40-pentamethoxyflavone, 16) Tangeretin		Flavonoids	[71]		
21 22 23 24 25	Cnidium monnieri (L.) Cuss. (Apiaceae)	Fruits	Reflux – MeOH	Hollow fiber (SGC7901, RAW264.7 and SHSY5Y cells)	1) Psoralen, 2) Bergapten, 3) Imperatorin and 4) Osthole	Coumarins	[41]
25 26 27 28 29 30 31 32 33 34 35 36 37 38 39 40 41	Coptis chinensis Franch. (Ranunculaceae)	Roots	Solid-liquid extraction – MeOH; Liquid- liquid partition – EtOAc-H <sub>2</sub> O	Ultrafiltration (DNA)	1) Berberine, 2) Coptisine and 3) Palmitine	Alkaloids	[12]
	Coptis chinensis Franch. (Ranunculaceae)	Rhizomes	Ultrasonication – EtOH 75%	Miscellaneous (DNA)	1) Epiberberine, 2) Coptisine, 3) Jatrorrhizine, 4) Berberrubine and 5) Columbamine	Alkaloids	[49]
	Coptis chinensis Franch. (Ranunculaceae)	Rhizomes	-	Magnetic particle (DNA)	1) Columbamine, 2) Epiberberine, 3) Jatrorrhizine, 4) Palmatine and 5) Berberine	Alkaloids	[186]
	Coptis chinensis Franch. (Ranunculaceae)	Undefined	Decoction – MeOH 20%	Hollow fiber (MCF7, MADB106, and SGC7901 cells)	1) Jatrorrhizine, 2) Epiberine, 3) Coptisine, 4) Palmatine, 5) Berberine	Alkaloids	[40]

Corydalis yanhusuo W. T. Wang (Papaveraceae)	Rhizomes	Ultrasonication – EtOH 70%	Miscellaneous (MAGL)	1) Tetrahydropalmatin, 2) Tetrahydrocoptisine, 3) Coptisine, 4) Fumaricine, 5) Palmatine, 6) Berberine and 7) Dehydrocorydaline	Alkaloids	[178]
<i>Curcuma longa</i> L. (Zingiberaceae)	Rhizomes	Maceration and ultrasonication – MeOH	Miscellaneous (PC3-cells)	1) Curcumin, 2) Demethoxycurcumin and 3) Bisdemethoxycurcumin	Phenolic pigments	[20]
<i>Curcuma longa</i> L. (Zingiberaceae)	Rhizomes	Percolation – EtOH 95%	Miscellaneous (Hsp 90α)	<ol> <li>Zingiberenol, 2) Ar-turmerone, 3) Curlone, 4) (6R,7R)-bisabolone,</li> <li>(E)-Atlantone, 6) 6-(1-Hydroxymethylvinyl), 7) 4,8a-dimethyl- 3,5,6,7,8,8a-hexahydro-1H-naphthalen-2-one</li> </ol>	Terpenoids	[44]
<i>Curcuma longa</i> L. (Zingiberaceae)	Rhizomes	Ultrasonication - MeOH	Hollow fiber (HepG-2, SKOV-3, and ACHN cells)	1) Bisdemethoxycurcumin, 2) Demethoxycurcumin and 3) Curcumin	Phenolic pigments	[195]
Cynanchum otophyllum C.K.Schneid. (Apocynaceae)	Undefined	Ultrasonication – MeOH	Magnetic particle (EGFR/HEK293 cells)	<u>-</u>	-	[197]
<i>Eucommia ulmoides</i> Oliv. (Eucommiaceae)	Undefined	Ultrasonication – EtOH 70%	Miscellaneous (MAGL)		-	[178]
Gardenia jasminoides J. Ellis (Rubiaceae)	Undefined	Decoction – H <sub>2</sub> O	Hollow fiber (HepG-2 and ACHN cells)	1) Chlorogenic acid, 2) Geniposide, 3) Crocin	Phenolic acid, glycoside and carotenoid	[196]
<i>Gastrodia elata</i> Blume. (Orchidiaceae)	Undefined	-	Ultrafiltration (Tyrosinase)	<ol> <li>1) 12-15 Heneicosadienoic acid, Octadecanoic acid, 2- hydroxylpropyl esters, 2) Unknown, 3) 3-(4-tert-butylphenyl)-2-methylpropanal, 4) 4,4'-Dihydroxybenzylsulfid, 5) Octadecanoic acid, 2-hydroxy-1- (hydroxymethyl)ethyl ester 6) 9-Octadecenamide, (trans-), 7) Unknown, 8) Unknown, 9) 9-Octadecenamide, (cis-), 10) 4,4'- Dihydroxydiphenyl ether, 11) 4-(1-(4-hydroxyphenyl)phenyl)phenol, 12) Octadecanoic acid, 2,3-dihydroxypropyl ester, 13) 4,4'- Dimethoxydiphenylmethane, 14) 4,4'-Methylenediphenol, 15) 2,4- Bis(4-hydroxybenzyl) phenol, 16) 4-Hydroxybenzyl methyl ether</li> </ol>	Fatty acids, amides, polyphenols and purines	[90]
Ginkgo biloba L. (Ginkgoaceae)	Undefined	Ultrasonication – EtOH 70%	Miscellaneous (MAGL)	_	-	[178]

<i>Glycyrrhiza uralensis</i> Fisch. (Fabaceae)	Roots	Percolation – EtOH 95%; Liquid-liquid partition – H <sub>2</sub> O- Petroleum ether- EtOAc-n-BuOH	Magnetic particle (Tyrosinase)	<ol> <li>Liquiritin apioside, 2) Neolicuroside, 3) Liquiritigenin, 4) Licorice saponin, 5) Chrysoeriol, 6) Dihydrodaidzein, 7) Formononetin, 8) Glycyrrhisoflavanone, 9) Glycyrrhizic acid, 10) Glycycoumarin, 11) Pratensein</li> </ol>	Flavonoids, saponin and coumarin	[18]
<i>Glycyrrhiza uralensis</i> Fisch. (Fabaceae)	Roots	Infusion – H <sub>2</sub> O:Honey (85%)	Magnetic particle (Tyrosinase)	<ol> <li>Gallic acid, 2) Albiflorin, 3) Paeoniflorin, 4) Liquiritin apioside, 5) Liquiritin, 6) Galloylpaeoniflorin, 7) Ononin, 8) Isoliquiritigenin, 9) Glycyrrhizic acid, 10) Oxypaeoniflora, 11) Benzoylpaeoniflorin, 12) Benzoyloxypaeoniflorin, 13) Mudanpioside C, 14) Paeonolide and 15) Apiopaeonoside</li> </ol>	Phenolic acid, terpenoid saponins, and glycosides	[95]
Humulus lupulus L. (Cannabaceae)	Flowers	Liquid-liquid extraction - MeOH-CHCl <sub>3</sub>	Ultrafiltration (QR-2)	1) Xanthohumol and 2) Xanthohumol D	Flavonoids	[82]
Ligusticum chuanxiong Hort. (Apiaceae)	-	Ultrasonication – EtOH 70%	Miscellaneous (MAGL)	$e_{i}$	-	[178]
Ligustrum lucidum W.T.Aiton (Oleaceae)	Fruits	Ultrasonication – MeOH	Magnetic particle (EGFR/HEK293 cells)	eh Or	-	[197]
Lithospermum erythrorhizon Siebold & Zucc. (Boraginaceae)	Rhizomes	Reflux- Deionized H <sub>2</sub> O	Miscellaneous (A549 and H1819 cells)	1) Salvianolic acid B, 2) Deoxyshikonin and 3) Shikonin	Phenolic acid and quinones	[48]
Macleaya cordata (Willd.) R. Br. (Papaveraceae)	Seeds	Ultrasonication – EtOH (85%, pH 2)	Miscellaneous (DNA)	1) Sanguinarine, 2) Chelerythrine, 3) Protopine and 4) Allocryptopine	Alkaloids	[187]
Macleaya cordata (Willd.) R.Br. (Papaveraceae)	Seeds	Ultrasonication – MeOH (85%, pH 2)	Ultrafiltration (DNA)	1) Chelerythrine, 2) Sanguinarine, 3) Protopine and 4) Allocryptopine	Alkaloids	[188]
	Glycyrrhiza uralensis Fisch. (Fabaceae)Glycyrrhiza uralensis Fisch. (Fabaceae)Humulus lupulus L. (Cannabaceae)Ligusticum chuanxiong Hort. (Apiaceae)Ligustrum lucidum W.T.Aiton (Oleaceae)Lithospermum erythrorhizon Siebold & Zucc. (Boraginaceae)Macleaya cordata (Willd.) R. Br. (Papaveraceae)Macleaya cordata (Willd.) R.Br. (Papaveraceae)	Glycyrrhiza uralensis Fisch. (Fabaceae)RootsGlycyrrhiza uralensis Fisch. (Fabaceae)RootsGlycyrrhiza uralensis Fisch. (Fabaceae)RootsHumulus lupulus L. (Cannabaceae)FlowersLigusticum chuanxiong Hort. (Apiaceae)-Ligustrum lucidum W.T.Aiton (Oleaceae)FruitsLithospermum erythrorhizon Siebold & Zucc. (Boraginaceae)RhizomesMacleaya cordata (Willd.) R. Br. (Papaveraceae)Seeds	Glycyrrhiza uralensis Fisch. (Fabaceae)Percolation - EtOH 95%; Liquid-liquid partition - H2O- Petroleum ether- EtOAc-n-BuOHGlycyrrhiza uralensis Fisch. (Fabaceae)RootsInfusion - H2O:Honey (85%) <i>Glycyrrhiza uralensis</i> Fisch. (Fabaceae)RootsInfusion - H2O:Honey (85%) <i>Humulus lupulus</i> L. (Cannabaceae)FlowersLiquid-liquid extraction - MeOH-CHCl3 <i>Ligusticum</i> chuanxiong Hort. (Apiaceae)-Ultrasonication - EtOH 70% <i>Ligustrum lucidum</i> W.T.Aiton (Oleaceae)FruitsUltrasonication - MeOH <i>Lithospermum</i> erythrorhizon Siebold & Zucc. (Boraginaceae)RhizomesReflux- Deionized H2O <i>Macleaya cordata</i> (Willd.) R. Br. (Papaveraceae)SeedsUltrasonication - EtOH (85%, pH 2) <i>Macleaya cordata</i> (Willd.) R.Br. (Papaveraceae)SeedsUltrasonication - EtOH (85%, pH 2)	Glycyrrhiza uralensis Fisch. (Fabaceae)RootsPercolation - EtOH 95%; Liquid-liquid partition - H2O- Petroleum ether- EtOAc-n-BuOHMagnetic particle (Tyrosinase)Glycyrrhiza uralensis Fisch. (Fabaceae)RootsInfusion - H2O-Honey (85%)Magnetic particle (Tyrosinase)Humulus lupulus L. (Cannabaceae)FlowersLiquid-liquid extraction - MeOH-CHCl3Ultrafiltration (QR-2)Ligusticum chuanxiong Hort. (Apiaceae)-Ultrasonication - EtOH 70%Miscellaneous (MAGL)Ligustrum lucidum w.T.Aiton (Oleaceae)FruitsUltrasonication - MeOHMagnetic particle (EGFR/HEK293 cells)Lithospermum erythrorhizon Siebold & Zucc. (Boraginaceae)RhizomesReflux- Deionized H2OMiscellaneous (A549 and H1819 cells)Macleaya cordata (Willd.) R. Br. (Papaveraceae)SeedsUltrasonication - EtOH (85%, pH 2)Miscellaneous (DNA)	Glycyrrhiza uralensis Fisch. (Fabaceac)Percolation - EOH 95%; Liquicliquid partition - H,O Percolation - EOA -n-BuOHMagnetic particle (Tyrosinase)1) Liquiritin apioside, 2) Neolicuroside, 3) Liquiritigenin, 4) Licorice saponin, 5) Chrysoeriol, 6) Dhydrodaidzein, 7) Formonentin, 8) Glycyrrhiza acid, 10) Glycycoumarin, 11) PratenseinGlycyrrhiza uralensis Fisch. (Fabaceace)RootsInfusion - H_O-Honey (85%)1) Gallic acid, 2) Albiflorin, 3) Paconiflorin, 7) Ononit, 8) Isoliquiritigenin, 9) Glycyrrhizia acid, 100 Oxypaconiflorin, 100 Dace Machine Charae (Papaceace)Iliquistium (Viliaus Inclum W. T.Aiton (N Caceace)Iliquistin and S Magnetic particle (EGFR/HEX293 Deionized H_10Miscellaneous (NAS49 and H1819 2)I) Salvianolic acid B, 2) Deoxyshikonin and 3) Shikonin M	Glycyrrhiza uralensis Fisch (Fabaceae)Preoclation - Fichd Psych (Fabaceae)Magnetic particle (Tyrosinase)J Liquiritin apioside, 2) Neoleuroside, 3) Liquiritingenin, 4) Licoric (Saponin, 5) Chysoneriol, 6) Dibydrodiadzain, 7) Formonometin, 8) (Dibydrodiadzain, 7) Formonometin, 8) (Glycyrrhiza uralensis Fisch (Fabaceae)Platonoids, saponin and counarinGlycyrrhiza uralensis (Fabaceae)RootsInfusion - Ho, Hono- (S5%)Magnetic particle (Tyrosinase)J) Galic acid, 2) Albiforin, 3) Paeoniflorin, 7) Tormonometin, 8) (Siduritificani, 9) Galicypaeoniflorin, 7) Doronin, 8) Isoliquiritigenin, 9) (Equation (GR-2))Phenolic acid, 10 (Equation (GR-2))Humulus lupulus I. (Cannabaceae)FlowersLiquid-liquid extraction - (ROH-1CLIC)Ultrafiltration (GR-2)J) Callic acid, 2) Albiforin, 3) Paeoniflorin, 7) Doronin, 8) Isoliquiritigenin, 9) (Equacidin (D) Cypaeoniflorin, 7) Doronin, 8) Isoliquiritigenin, 9) (Equation (Cannabaceae)Phenolic acid, 10) (Equation (Cannabaceae)Phenolic acid (Equation (Cannabaceae))Phenolic acid (E

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1         2         3         4         5         6         7         8         9         10         11         12         13         14         15         16         17         18         19         20         21         22         23         24         25         26         27         28         29         30         31         32         33         34         35         36         37         38	<i>Mangifera indica</i> L. (Anacardiaceae)	Leaves	Ultrasonication – EtOH (75%)- EtOAc- <i>n</i> -BuOH	Ultrafiltration (Tyrosinase)	<ol> <li>Gallic acid, 2) Iriflophenone 3-C-glucoside, 3) Mangiferin, 4) Protocatechuic acid, 5) Iriflophenone 3-C-(2'-O-galloyl)-glucoside, 6) 6'-O-Galloyl-mangiferin, 7) Maclurin 3-C-(2'-O-p-hydroxybenzoyl)- glucoside, 8) Iriflophenone 3-C-(2',6'-di-O-galloyl)- glucoside, 9) Hyperoside, 10) Isoquercitrin, 11) Ethyl gallate, 12) Iriflophenone 3-C-(2'-O-p-hydroxybenzoyl)- glucoside, 13) Quercetin-3-O-xyloside, 14) 3-O-Galloyl shikimic acid, 15) 3-O-Galloyl quinic acid, 16) Maclurin 3-C-(2'-O-galloyl)- glucoside, 17) 3,5-Di-O-galloyl quinic acid, 18) 5-O-Digalloyl quinic acid, 19) Digallic acid, 20) Isomangiferin, 21) 1,4,6-Tri-O-galloyl glucoside, 22) Maclurin 3-C-(2',3'-di-O-galloyl)-glucoside, 23) 1,3- Digalleoyl acetone, 24) 1,3,4,6-Tetra-O-galloyl glucoside, 25) 6'-O- (p-Hydroxybenzoyl) mangiferin, 26) Epicatechin gallate, 27) 1,2,3,4,6-Penta-O-galloyl glucoside, 28) Iriflophenone 3-C-(2',3',6'- tri-O-galloyl- glucoside, 31) Quercetin-3-O-arafuranoside, 32) Kaempferol-3- O-glucoside, 33) Quercetin-3-O-rhamnoside, 34) Ethyl 2,4-dihydroxy- 3-galloyl oxybenzoate, 35) Ethyl digallate, 36) 7-O-Methyl quercetin- 3-O-rhamnoside</li> </ol>	Phenolic acids, xanthones, benzophenones, flavonoids, quinic and shikimic acid derivatives	[19]
	<i>Menispermum</i> <i>dauricum</i> DC. (Menispermaceae)	Undefined	Solid-liquid extraction – MeOH; Liquid- liquid partition – EtOAc-H <sub>2</sub> O	Ultrafiltration (DNA)	1) Daurisoline and 2) Dauricine	Alkaloids	[12]
	<i>Morus alba</i> L. (Moraceae)	Leaves	Solid-liquid extraction – EtOH 50%; Liquid-liquid partition – H <sub>2</sub> O- petroleum ether- EtOAc	Ultrafiltration (Tyrosinase)	<ol> <li>Neochlorogenic acid, 2) Chlorogenic acid, 3) Cryptochlorogenic acid, 4) Rutin, 5) Isoquercitrin, 6) Kaempferol-3-O-α-L- rhamnopyranosyl-(1–6)-β-d-glucopyranoside, 7) Quercetin-3-O-(6-O- malonyl)-β-D-glucopyranoside, 8) 3,4-Dicaffeoylquinic acid, 9) Astragalin,10) 3,5-Dicaffeoylquinic acid, 11) 4,5-Dicaffeoylquinic acid, 12) Kaempferol-3-O-(6-O-malonyl)-β-D-glucopyranoside</li> </ol>	Phenolic acids and flavonoids	[89]
39 40 41 42	<i>Morus alba</i> L. (Moraceae)	Fruits	Ultrasonication – MeOH	Magnetic particle (EGFR/HEK293 cells)	-	-	[197]

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1 2 3	Oroxylum indicum L. (Bignoniaceae)	Seeds	Ultrasonication – MeOH 50%	Miscellaneous (Tyrosinase)	1) Oroxin B, 2) Kaempferid-3-O-beta-D-gentiobioside, 3) Chrysin-7- O-beta-D-gentiobioside, 4) Oroxin A, 5) Baicalein and 6) Chrysin	Flavonoids	[94]
4 5 6 7	Otholobium pubescens (Poir.) J.W. Grimes (Fabaceae)	Leaves and flowers	Percolation – CH <sub>2</sub> Cl <sub>2</sub> -MeOH- MeOH: H <sub>2</sub> O (1:1)-H <sub>2</sub> O	Miscellaneous (Tyrosinase)	1) Daidzin, 2) Isoorientin, 3) Isovitexin, 4) Daidzein, 5) Genistein, 6) 3-(5-hydroxybenzofuran-6-yl) propanoic acid	Flavonoids	[17]
9 10 11 12 13 14	Paeonia lactiflora Pall (Paeoniaceae)	Roots	Infusion – H <sub>2</sub> O	Magnetic particle (Tyrosinase)	<ol> <li>Gallic acid, 2) Albiflorin, 3) Paeoniflorin, 4) Liquiritin apioside, 5) Liquiritin, 6) Galloylpaeoniflorin, 7) Ononin, 8) Isoliquiritigenin, 9) Glycyrrhizic acid, 10) Oxypaeoniflora, 11) Benzoylpaeoniflorin, 12) Benzoyloxypaeoniflorin, 13) Mudanpioside C, 14) Paeonolide and 15) Apiopaeonoside</li> </ol>	Phenolic acid, terpenoids saponins, and glycosides	[95]
15 16 17 18 19 20 21	<i>Paris polyphylla</i> Sm. (Melanthiaceae)	Undefined	Ultrasonication – EtOH 70%	Miscellaneous (MAGL)		-	[178]
22 23 24	Perilla frutescens (L.) Britt (Lamiaceae)	Leaves	Ultrasonication – MeOH:H <sub>2</sub> O (7:3)	Magnetic particle (GST)	1) Caffeic acid, 2) Rosmarinic acid, 3) Gallic acid, 4) (-)- Epigallocatechin-3- O-gallate, 5) (-)-Epicatechin-3-gallate and 6) Quercetin-3-O-glucoside	Phenolic acids and flavonoids	[28]
25 26 27 28 29	Phellodendron chinense C.K.Schneid. (Ranunculaceae)	Cortex	Ultrasonication – EtOH 75%	Miscellaneous (DNA)	1) Epiberberine, 2) Coptisine, 3) Jatrorrhizine, 4) Berberrubine and 5) Columbamine	Alkaloids	[49]
30 31 32 33	Phellodendron chinense C.K.Schneid. (Rutaceae)	Barks	Ultrasonication – EtOH 75%	Miscellaneous (DNA)	1) Berberine and 2) Palmatine	Alkaloids	[47]
34 35 36 37 38 39 40 41 42	Phellodendron chinense C.K.Schneid. (Rutaceae)	Cortex	Percolation – EtOH 95%	Ultrafiltration (COX2)	<ol> <li>Neomangiferin, 2) Phellodendrine, 3) Mangiferin, 4) Magnoflorine,</li> <li>5) 3-O-feruloylquinnic acid, 6) (-)-Oblongine, 7) Menisperine, 8) Demethyleneberberine, 9) Oxoberberine, 10) Berberrubine, 11) Jatrorrhizine, 12) Timosaponin B, 13) Timosaponin B-II, 14)</li> <li>Timosaponin A-I, 15) Palmatine, 16) Berberine, 17) Sanleng acid, 18)</li> <li>Timosaponin A-III, 19) Anemarrhenasaponin I, 20) cis-Hinokiresinol</li> </ol>	Alkaloids, xanthones and saponins	[105]

1 2 3	Phellodendron chinense Schneid. (Rutaceae)	Barks	Infusion – EtOH:H <sub>2</sub> O (1:3)	Dialysis (DNA)	1) Berberine	Alkaloid	[185]
4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26	Polygonum cuspidatum Siebold & Zucc. (Polygonaceae)	Undefined	Ultrasonication – EtOH 70%	Magnetic particle (LDH)	<ol> <li>(-)-Epicatechin-3-O-gallate, 2) Trihydroxystilbene-3-O-(6''-galloyl)-glucoside, 3) Emodin-1-O-glucoside, 4) Emodin-8-O-(6-malonyl)-glucoside, 5) Torachryson sulfate, 6) Emodin</li> </ol>	Flavonoid, stilbenoid, naphthol and anthraquinones	[119]
	Polygonum cuspidatum Siebold & Zucc. (Polygonaceae)	Rhizomes	$\begin{array}{c} \text{Reflux} - \\ \text{CHCl}_3:\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4 \\ (5:4) \end{array}$	Hollow fiber (HCT116 cells)	1) Aloe-emodin, 2) Emodin and 3) Physcion	Anthraquinones	[194]
	Polygonum multiflorum (Thunb.) Moldenke (Polygonaceae)	Rhizomes	Reflux – MeOH; Ultrasound – HCl 8%; Liquid- liquid – HCl- CHCl <sub>3</sub>	Hollow fiber (HCT116 cells)	1) Aloe-emodin, 2) Emodin, 3) Physcion, 4) Rhein and 5) Chrysophanol	Anthraquinones	[194]
	Pseudopithomyces sp. (Didymosphaeriaceae )	Whole	Solid-liquid extraction – MeOH-EtOAc	Magnetic particle (PLA2)	<ol> <li>Cyclo-(4-hydroxyl-Pro-Leu), 2) Cyclo-(Pro-Val), 3) Fusaristatin C,</li> <li>4) Ergosterol peroxide, 5) Ergosterol and 6) Cerevisterol</li> </ol>	Cyclic peptides and Steroids	[115]
	Psoralea corylifolia L. (Fabaceae)	Fruits	Reflux – MeOH	Hollow fiber (SGC7901, RAW264.7 and SHSY5Y cells)	1) Psoralen and 2) Isopsoralen	Coumarins	[41]
27 28 29 30	Pterocephalus hookeri (C.B. Clarke) Diels (Caprifoliaceae)	Undefined	Percolation – EtOH 95%	Miscellaneous (COX2)	1) Swertisin, 2) Scopoletin	Flavonoid and coumarin	[110]
31 32 33 34	Pterocephalus hookeri (C.B. Clarke) Diels (Caprifoliaceae)	Whole	Percolation – EtOH 95%	Miscellaneous (COX2)	1) Sylvestroside I	Terpenoid	[108]
35 36 37 38	Pueraria lobata (Willd.) Ohwi (Fabaceae)	Undefined	Reflux – EtOH 75%	Hollow fiber (Tyrosinase)	1) Daidzein, 2) 3'-Methoxy puerarin, 3) 3'-Hydroxy puerarin 4) Puerarin, 5) Puerarin 6"- <i>O</i> -xyloside 6) Puerarin-4'- <i>O</i> -glucoside, 7) Puerarin aposide	Flavonoids	[42]
39 40 41 42 43	Pueraria lobata (Willd.) Ohwi (Fabaceae)	Roots	Ultrasonication – MeOH 75%	Ultrafiltration (Tyrosinase)	1) Puerarin, 2) Mirificin, 3) Daidzin and 4) Genistin	Flavonoids	[91]
44					Wiley-VCH		

1 2 3 4 5 6 7	Pueraria lobata (Willd.) Ohwi (Fabaceae)	Roots	Reflux – EtOH:H <sub>2</sub> O (75%); Liquid- liquid extraction – petroleum ether-EtOAc	Ultrafiltration (Tyrosinase)	1) 3'-Hydroxypuerarin, 2) Puerarin, 3) Puerarin-6"-O-xyloside, 4) Daidzin, 5) Genistin, 6) 6"-O-acetyldaidzin and 7) Daidzein	Flavonoids	[93]
7 8 9	Radix et Rhizoma Rhei (Polygonaceae)	Roots	Decoction – H <sub>2</sub> O	Hollow fiber (HepG-2 and ACHN cells)	1) Rhein	Anthraquinone	[196]
10 11 12 13	Rheum palmatum L. (Polygonaceae)	Undefined	Ultrasonication – EtOH 70%	Miscellaneous (MAGL)	_	-	[178]
14 15 16 17 18	Rheum rhabarbarum L. (Polygonaceae)	Undefined	Ultrasonication – EtOH 70%	Magnetic particle (LDH)	<ol> <li>(-)-Epicatechin-3-O-gallate, 2) ω-Hydroxyemodin, 3) Emodin-1-O-glucoside, 4) Lunatin, 5) Chrysophanic acid, 6) Rhein-O-(acetyl)-glucoside, 7) Aloe emodin, 8) Rhein and 9) Emodin</li> </ol>	Flavonoids and anthraquinones	[119]
19 20 21 22	Rhus chinensis Mill. (Anacardiaceae)	Undefined	Ultrasonication – MeOH 75%	Miscellaneous (uPA)	<ol> <li>Gallic acid, 2) Methyl gallate, 3) Pentagalloylglucose, 4) Ellagic acid, 5) Ziyu-glycoside I, 6) 28-O-β-D-glucopyranosyl pomolic acid, and 7) 1β-Hydroxyeuscaphic acid</li> </ol>	Phenolic acid, tannins, saponins and terpenoid	[165]
23 24 25 26 27	<i>Rosa roxburghii</i> Tratt. (Rosaceae)	Fruits	Ultrasonication – EtOH 70%	Miscellaneous (MMP-2)	1) Oreganol A, 2) Corilagin, 3) Ellagic acid, 4) Zebirioside O, 5) Niga-ichigoside F1, 6) Peduncloside, 7) Rosamultin, 8) Kajiichigoside F1, 9) Potentillanoside A, 10) Quadranoside VIII, 11) Valerenic acid and 12) Medicagenic acid	Phenolic compound, tannin, phenolic acid, saponin and terpenoids	[171]
27 28 29 30 31 32	Salvia miltiorrhiza Bge. (Lamiaceae)	Undefined	Ultrasonication – EtOH 70%	Miscellaneous (MAGL)	_	-	[178]
33 34 35 36 37	Sanguisorba officinalis L. (Rosaceae)	Undefined	Ultrasonication – MeOH 75%	Miscellaneous (uPA)	<ol> <li>Gallic acid, 2) Methyl gallate, 3) Pentagalloylglucose, 4) Ellagic acid, 5) Ziyu-glycoside I, 6) 28-O-β-D-glucopyranosyl pomolic acid, and 7) 1β-Hydroxyeuscaphic acid</li> </ol>	Phenolic acid, tannins, saponins and terpenoid	[165]
38 39 40	Saussurea laniceps HandMazz. (Asteraceae)	Aerial parts	Reflux – H <sub>2</sub> O	Magnetic particle (COX2)	1) Skimmin, 2) Scopolin, 3) Umbelliferone, 4) Scopoletin	Coumarins	[109]
41 42 43	Schisandra chinensis (Turcz)	Undefined	Ultrasonication - MeOH	Hollow fiber	1) Schisandrol A, 2) Schizandrin A, 3) Schisantherin A and 4) Schizandrin C Wiley-VCH	Lignans and tannin	[41]

(Schisandraceae)			(SGC7901, RAW264.7, SHSY5Y cells)			
<i>Scutellaria</i> <i>baicalensis</i> Georgi (Lamiaceae)	Undefined	Ultrasonication – EtOH 70%	Magnetic particle (Tyrosinase)	1) Baicalin, 2) Baicalein, 3) Wogonin and 4) Oroxylin A	Flavonoids	[26]
Scutellaria barbata D. Don (Lamiaceae)	Undefined	Ultrasonication – MeOH	Magnetic particle (EGFR/HEK293 cells)	_	-	[197]
<i>Selaginella</i> <i>doederleinii</i> Hieron. (Selaginellaceae)	Undefined	Reflux – EtOH 70% and EtAc	Magnetic particle (LDH)	1) Amentoflavone and 2) Robustaflavone	Flavonoids	[25]
<i>Smilax china</i> L. (Smilacaceae)	Rhizomes	Infusion – H <sub>2</sub> O	Magnetic particle (Tyrosinase)	<ol> <li>Gallic acid, 2) Albiflorin, 3) Paeoniflorin, 4) Liquiritin apioside, 5) Liquiritin, 6) Galloylpaeoniflorin, 7) Ononin, 8) Isoliquiritigenin, 9) Glycyrrhizic acid, 10) Oxypaeoniflora, 11) Benzoylpaeoniflorin, 12) Benzoyloxypaeoniflorin, 13) Mudanpioside C, 14) Paeonolide and 15) Apiopaeonoside</li> </ol>	Phenolic acid, terpenoids saponins, and glycosides	[95]
Sophora flavescens Aiton (Fabaceae)	Roots	Infusion – H <sub>2</sub> O	Hollow fiber (MCF-7, ACHN, SKOV-3, and HepG-2 cells)	1) Oxymatrine, 2) Matrine, 3) Sophoridine and 4) Oxysophocarpine	Alkaloids	[191]
Sophora flavescens Aiton (Fabaceae)	Undefined	Ultrasonication – EtOH 70%	Magnetic particle (Tyrosinase)	1) Kurarinone and 2) Sophoraflavanone G	Flavonoids	[26]
Stephania tetrandra S. Moore (Menispermaceae)	Undefined	Solid-liquid extraction – MeOH; Liquid- liquid partition – EtOAc-H <sub>2</sub> O	Ultrafiltration (DNA)	1) Fangchinoline and 2) Tetrandrine	Alkaloids	[12]
Stephania tetrandra S. Moore (Menispermaceae)	Undefined	Ultrasonication – EtOH 75%	Miscellaneus (DNA)	1) Fangchinoline and 2) Tetrandrine	Alkaloids	[50]
Streptomyces antibioticus (Streptomycetaceae)	Whole	Liquid-liquid extraction - Medium-EtOAc	Ultrafiltration (DNA)	1) Actinomycin D, 2) Actinomycin V and 3) Actinomycin X0β	Actinomycins	[12]
Strychnos nux-vomica L. (Loganiaceae)	Undefined	Reflux – EtOH (60%, v/v)	Magnetic particle (EGFR/A549 cells)	1) 10,11-dimethoxystrychnine and 2) Loganetin	Alkaloid and terpenoid	[35]
	Schisandraceae)ScutellariabaicalensisGeorgi(Lamiaceae)ScutellariabarbataD. Don(Lamiaceae)SelaginelladoederleiniiHieron.(Selaginellaceae)SmilaxSinilaxSophoraflavescensAiton(Fabaceae)SophoraSophoraflavescensAiton(Fabaceae)SophoraStephaniatetrandraS. Moore(Menispermaceae)StephaniaStreptomycesantibioticus(Streptomycetaceae)Strychnosstrychnosnux-vomicaL.(Loganiaceae)	(Schisandraceae)Scutellaria baicalensis Georgi (Lamiaceae)UndefinedScutellaria barbata D. Don (Lamiaceae)UndefinedSelaginella doederleinii Hieron. (Selaginellaceae)UndefinedSmilax china L. (Smilacaceae)RhizomesSmilax china L. (Smilacaceae)RhizomesSophora flavescens Aiton (Fabaceae)RootsSophora flavescens Aiton (Fabaceae)UndefinedStephania tetrandra S. Moore (Menispermaceae)UndefinedStephania tetrandra S. Moore (Menispermaceae)UndefinedStephania tetrandra S. Moore (Menispermaceae)UndefinedStreptomyces antibioticus (Streptomycetaceae)WholeStrychnos nux-vomica L. (Loganiaceae)Undefined	Schisandraceae)UndefinedUltrasonication – EtOH 70%Scutellaria baicalensis Georgi (Lamiaceae)UndefinedUltrasonication – EtOH 70%Scutellaria baraceae)UndefinedUltrasonication – MeOHSelaginella doederleinii Hieron. (Selaginellaceae)UndefinedReflux – EtOH 70% and EtAcSmilax china L. (Smilacaceae)RhizomesInfusion – H2OSophora flavescens Aiton (Fabaceae)RootsInfusion – H2OSophora flavescens Aiton (Fabaceae)UndefinedUltrasonication – EtOH 70%Stephania tetrandra S. Moore (Menispermaceae)UndefinedSolid-liquid extraction – EtOAc-H2OStephania tetrandra S. Moore (Menispermaceae)UndefinedUltrasonication – EtOAc-H2OStephania tetrandra S. Moore (Menispermaceae)UndefinedUltrasonication – EtOAc-H2OStreptomyces antibioticus (Streptomycetaceae)UndefinedUltrasonication – EtOH 75%Strychnos nux-vomica L. (Loganiaceae)UndefinedLiquid-liquid extraction - EtOH (60%, v/v)	$\begin{tabular}{ c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c$	(Schisandraceae)       (SGC7901, RAW264.7, Scutellaria         Scutellaria       Undefined       Ultrasonication – EtOH 70%       Magnetic particle (Tyrosinase)       1) Baicalin, 2) Baicalein, 3) Wogonin and 4) Oroxylin A         Scutellaria       Undefined       Ultrasonication – MeOH       Magnetic particle (EGFR/HEK293 cells)       1) Baicalin, 2) Baicalein, 3) Wogonin and 4) Oroxylin A         Scutellaria barbata       Undefined       Ultrasonication – MeOH       Magnetic particle (UDH)       1) Amentoflavone and 2) Robustaflavone         Selaginellaceac)       Undefined       Reflux – EtOH 70% and EtAc       Magnetic particle (LDH)       1) Gallic acid, 2) Albiflorin, 3) Paconiflorin, 4) Liquiritin apioside, 5) Liquiritin, 6) Galloydpaconiflori, 1, 0 Glycyrhizic acid, 10) Oxygaeoniflori, 1, 12 Benzoylpaconiflori, 1, 2) Benzoylpaconiflori, 1, 2) Benzoylpaconiflori, 1, 2) Benzoylpaconiflor, 1, 13 Mudampioside C, 14) Paconolide and 15 Apiopaeonoside         Sophora flavescens Aiton (Fabaceae)       Roots       Infusion – H <sub>2</sub> O       Hollow fiber (MCF-7, ACHN, SKOV-3, and HepGi-2 cells)       1) Oxymatrine, 2) Matrine, 3) Sophoriflora, 11 Benzoylpaconiflor, 11 Benzoylpaconiflor, 11 Benzoylpaconiflor, 10 (Pabaceae)         Sophora flavescens Aiton (Fabaceae)       Undefined       Ultrasonication – EtOH 75%       Magnetic particle (Tyrosinase)       1) Oxymatrine, 2) Sophoraflavanone G         Stephania tetrandra S. Moore (Menispermaceae)       Undefined       Ultrasonication – EtOH 75%       Miscellancus (DNA)       1) Fangchinoline and 2) Tetr	(Schisandraceae)         (SGC7901, RAW264.7, SHISYSY cells)           Scutellaria bacadensis Georgi (Lamiaceae)         Undefined         Ultrasonication E(OH 70%         Magnetic particle (Tyrosinase)         1) Baicalin, 2) Baicalein, 3) Wogonin and 4) Oroxylin A         Flavonoids           Scutellaria bacadensis Georgi (Lamiaceae)         Undefined         Ultrasonication Bagnetic particle (EGFR/HEX.93 cells)         1) Baicalin, 2) Baicalein, 3) Wogonin and 4) Oroxylin A         Flavonoids           Scutellaria bacadensis Georgi (Lamiaceae)         Undefined         Ultrasonication MeOII         Magnetic particle (EGFR/HEX.93 cells)         1) Amentoflavone and 2) Robustaflavone         Flavonoids           Selaginella dorderlenin Hieron, (Sclaginellaceae)         Undefined         Refux – EtOH 70% and ELAE         Magnetic particle (LDH)         1) Callic acid, 2) Albiflorin, 3) Paeoniflorin, 4) Liquiritin apioside, 5) Glocypraconiflorin, 13 Daeoniflorin, 4) Liquiritin apioside, 50 Glocypraconiflorin, 13 Mudanpioside C, 14) Paeonolide and 15)         Phenolic acid, terpenoids saponins, and glycosides           Sophora flavescens Aiton (Fabaceae)         Roots         Infusion – H <sub>2</sub> O         Magnetic particle (Iyrosinase)         1) Oxymatrine, 3) Sophoridine and 4) Oxysophocarpine         Alkaloids           Sophora flavescens Aiton (Fabaceae)         Undefined         Ultrasonication EUOH 70%         Magnetic particle (Iyrosinase)         1) Oxymatrine, 3) Sophoridine and 2) Sophoraflavanone G         Flavonoids           Sophora flaves

1 2 3 4 5	Taraxacum mongolicum Hand Mazz (Asteraceae)	Undefined	Ultrasonication – MeOH	Magnetic particle (EGFR/HEK293 cells)	1) Luteolin and 2) Caffeic acid	Flavonoid and phenolic acid	[197]
5 6 7	<i>Trigonella foenum- graecum</i> L. (Fabaceae)	Seeds	Maceration – EtOH 72%	Magnetic particle (SIRT6)	1) Orientin	Flavonoid	[39]
8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20	<i>Trigonella foenum- graecum</i> L. (Fabaceae)	Seeds	-	Magnetic particle (SIRT6)	1) Quercetin and 2) Vitexin	Flavonoids	[38]
	<i>Tripterygium wilfordii</i> Hook. f. (Celastraceae)	Undefined	Reflux – EtOH	Miscellaneous (MCF-7 cells)	1) Genistein, 2) Tripteryl E-3, 3) Wilforlide A, 4) Cangononine, 5) Wilforine, 6) Regeol C, 7) Celastrol	Flavonoid, terpenoids and alkaloid	[51]
	<i>Tripterygium wilfordii</i> Hook. f. (Celastraceae)	Rhizomes	Percolation and ultrasonication – EtOH 95%	Miscellaneous (Hsp 90)	<ol> <li>Demecolcine, 2) Wilforine, 3) Triptotriterpenic acid, 4) Celastrol,</li> <li>5) R1-Barrigenol, 6) 24R,25-dihydroxycholecalciferol, 7) Ursodeoxycholic acid, 8) 8,14-Seco-3,19-epoxyandrostane-8,14- dione, 17-acetoxy-3β-methoxy-4,4-dimethyl, 9) Spirost-8-en-11-one,</li> <li>10) Propanoic acid, 11) Demecolcine, 12) Bufa-20,22-dienolide, 13) Ergosta-5,22-dien-3-ol, 14) β-Sitosterol and 15) Betulinaldehyde</li> </ol>	Alkaloids, terpenoids and steroids	[46]
22 23 24	Vaccinium corymbosum L. (Ericaceae)	Leaves	Reflux – Petroleum ether- EtOH 70%	Miscellaneous (HepG2 cells)	1) Chlorogenic acid, 2) Rutin, 3) Isoquercitrin, 4) Cyanidin-3-O- glucose, 5) Iridin and 6) Quercetin	Phenolic acid and flavonoids	[192]
25 26 27 28 29 30 31 32	Xanthium strumarium L. (Asteraceae)	Fruits	Reflux – CH <sub>2</sub> Cl <sub>2</sub> -MeOH	Ultrafiltration (Tyrosinase)	1) Protocatechuic acid, 2) 3,5- Di-O-caffeoylquinic acid, 3) 1,5-Di-O- caffeoylquinic acid and 4) Chlorogenic acid	Phenolic acids	[92]
	Zingiber officinale Roscoe. (Zingiberaceae)	Rhizomes	Vortexing - EtOH	Magnetic particle (αVβ3 integrin)	<b>1</b> ) [10]-gingerol	Phenolic compound	[148]

Table S1 – Natural products screened through ligand fishing approaches sorted by species in alphabetical order. Complementary information regarding the family, the parts used, the type of extraction, the extraction solvent, the ligand fishing technique with the respective cancer-related target, the ligands fished with their chemical classification as well as the bibliographical reference is also provided. 

Ligand Fishing Technique	Ligand Fishing Medium	Target	Type of Cancer	Ligands Fished	Ref
Dialysis	Ultrapure water	DNA (G-quadruplex)	Various	1) Berberine	[185]
	Phosphate buffer	HCT116 cells	Colorectal cancer	1) Aloe-emodin, 2) Emodin, 3) Physcion, 4) Rhein and 5) Chrysophanol	[194]
	CMC-Na solution 5%	HepG-2 cells	Hepatoma	<ol> <li>Xanthotoxol, 2) Xanthotoxin, 3) Psoralen, 4) Bergapten, 5) Oxypeucedanin, 6) Imperatorin, 7) Isoimperatorin.</li> </ol>	[43]
	MeOH 5%	HepG-2, SKOV-3, and ACHN cells	Hepatoma, human ovarian cancer, and human renal carcinoma	1) Bisdemethoxycurcumin, 2) Demethoxycurcumin and 3) Curcumin	[195]
	Double-distilled water	MCF-7, ACHN, SKOV-3, and HepG-2 cells	Breast cancer, human renal carcinoma, human ovarian cancer, and hepatoma	1) Oxymatrine, 2) Matrine, 3) Sophoridine and 4) Oxysophocarpine	[191]
Hollow Fiber	Phosphate buffer	SGC7901, RAW264.7, SHSY5Y cells	Gastric cancer, neuroblastoma and leukemia	1) Psoralen, 2) Bergapten, 3) Imperatorin 4) Osthole 5) Isopsoralen 6) Schisandrol A, 7) Schizandrin A, 8) Schisantherin A and 9) Schizandrin C	[41]
	Phosphate buffer	Tyrosinase	Melanoma	<ol> <li>Daidzein, 2) 3'-Methoxy puerarin, 3) 3'-Hydroxy puerarin 4) Puerarin,</li> <li>5) Puerarin 6"-O-xyloside 6) Puerarin-4'-O-glucoside, 7) Puerarin aposide</li> </ol>	[42]
	Phosphate buffer	HepG-2 and ACHN cells	Hepatoma and human renal carcinoma	1) Chlorogenic acid, 2) p-Hydroxyacetophenone 3) Geniposide, 4) Crocin 5) Rhein	[196]
	Double-distilled water	MCF7, MADB106, and SGC7901 cells	Breast cancer and gastric cancer	1) Jatrorrhizine, 2) Epiberine, 3) Coptisine, 4) Palmatine, 5) Berberine	[40]

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	Phosphate buffer	EGFR/A549 cells	Lung carcinoma	1) 10,11-dimethoxystrychnine and 2) Loganetin	[35]
	Phosphate buffer	Cyclooxygenase-2 (COX2)	Various	1) (-)-gallocatechin, 2) (-)-epigallocatechin, 3) (-)-epicatechin, 4) (-)- epigallocatechin-3-gallate, 5) (-)-gallocatechin-3-gallate, 6) (-)- epigallocatechin-3-(3"-O-methyl)-gallate, 7) (-)-epicatechin-3-gallate, 8) (-)-epicatechin-3-(3"-O-methyl)-gallate	[106]
	Tris-HCl buffer	Cyclooxygenase-2 (COX2)	Various	1) Skimmin, 2) Scopolin, 3) Umbelliferone, 4) Scopoletin	[109]
Magnetic	Tris-HCl buffer	Cyclooxygenase-2 (COX2)	Various	<ol> <li>3-Galloylquinic acid, 2) 5-Galloylquinic acid, 3) 3-p-Coumaroylquinic acid, 4) 5-p-Coumaroylquinic acid, 5) 5-caffeoylquinic acid, 6) (-)- Epicatechin, 7) (-)-Epicatechin 3-O-gallate, 8) Quercetin 3-O- rhamnosylgalactoside, 9) Quercetin 3-O-glucoside, 10) Kaempferol 3-O- glucosylrutinoside, 11) Kaempferol-3-O-rutinoside, 12) Kaempferol 3-O- glucoside</li> </ol>	[107]
particles	Phosphate buffer	DNA (ds)	Various	1) Columbamine, 2) Epiberberine, 3) Jatrorrhizine, 4) Palmatine and 5) Berberine	[186]
	Distilled water	EGFR/HEK293 cells	Glioma	1) Luteolin and 2) Caffeic acid	[197]
	Phosphate buffer	Glutathione S- transferase (GST)	Various (multidrug resistance)	1) Caffeic acid, 2) Rosmarinic acid, 3) Gallic acid, 4) (–)- Epigallocatechin-3- O-gallate, 5) (–)-Epicatechin-3-gallate and 6) Quercetin-3-O-glucoside	[28]
	Acetate buffer	Lactate dehydrogenase (LDH)	Various	<ol> <li>(-)-Epicatechin-3-O-gallate, 2) Trihydroxystilbene-3-O-(6''-galloyl)- glucoside, 3) Emodin-1-O-glucoside, 4) Emodin-8-O-(6-malonyl)- glucoside, 5) Torachryson sulfate, 6) Emodin, 7) ω-Hydroxyemodin, 8) Lunatin, 9) Chrysophanic acid, 10) Rhein-O-(acetyl)-glucoside, 11) Aloe emodin, 12) Rhein</li> </ol>	[119]

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Tris-HCl buffer	Phospholipase A2 (PLA2)	Various	<ol> <li>Cyclo-(4-hydroxyl-Pro-Leu), 2) Cyclo-(Pro-Val), 3) Fusaristatin C, 4) Ergosterol peroxide, 5) Ergosterol and 6) Cerevisterol</li> </ol>	[115]
Ammonium acetate buffer	Sirtuin 6 (SIRT6)	Various	1) Orientin	[39]
Phosphate buffer	Sirtuin 6 (SIRT6)	Various	1) Quercetin and 2) Vitexin	[38]
Tris-HCl buffer	Tropomyosin receptor kinase B (TrkB)	Various	<ol> <li>Dicaffeoylquinic acid, 2) O-caffeoylquinic acid, 3) Madecassic acid,</li> <li>(4) Castillicetin, 5) Quercetin, (6) Stigmasterol, 7) Pomolic acid and 8) Naringin</li> </ol>	[32]
Phosphate buffer	Tyrosinase	Melanoma	<ol> <li>Liquiritin apioside, 2) Neolicuroside, 3) Liquiritigenin, 4) Licorice saponin, 5) Chrysoeriol, 6) Dihydrodiadzein, 7) Formononetin, 8) Glycyrrhisoflavanone, 9) Glycyrrhizic acid, 10) Glycycoumarin and 11) Pratensein</li> </ol>	[18]
Phosphate buffer	Tyrosinase	Melanoma	<ol> <li>Gallic acid, 2) Albiflorin, 3) Paeoniflorin, 4) Liquiritin apioside, 5) Liquiritin, 6) Galloylpaeoniflorin, 7) Ononin, 8) Isoliquiritigenin, 9) Glycyrrhizic acid, 10) Oxypaeoniflora, 11) Benzoylpaeoniflorin, 12) Benzoyloxypaeoniflorin, 13) Mudanpioside C, 14) Paeonolide and 15) Apiopaeonoside</li> </ol>	[95]
Phosphate buffer	αVβ3 integrin	Various	<b>1</b> ) [10]-gingerol	[148]

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1		Acetate buffer	Lactate dehydrogenase (LDH)	Various	1) Amentoflavone and 2) Robustaflavone	[25]
2 3 4		Tris-HCl buffer	Tyrosinase	Melanoma	1) Baicalin, 2) Baicalein, 3) Wogonin, 4) Oroxylin A, 5) Kurarinone, 6) Sophoraflavanone G	[26]
6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13		Phosphate buffer	Cyclooxygenase-2 (COX2)	Various	<ol> <li>Neomangiferin, 2) Phellodendrine, 3) Mangiferin, 4) Magnoflorine, 5) 3-O-feruloylquinnic acid, 6) (-)-Oblongine, 7) Menisperine, 8) Demethyleneberberine, 9) Oxoberberine, 10) Berberrubine, 11) Jatrorrhizine, 12) Timosaponin B, 13) Timosaponin B-II, 14) Timosaponin A-I, 15) Palmatine, 16) Berberine, 17) Sanleng acid, 18) Timosaponin A-III, 19) Anemarrhenasaponin I, 20) cis-Hinokiresinol</li> </ol>	[105]
14 15 16 17 18		Distilled water, MeOH or MeOH-distilled water	DNA	Various	<ol> <li>Berberine, 2) Coptisine, 3) Palmitine 4) Daurisoline, 5) Dauricine, 6) Fangchinoline, 7) Tetrandrine, 8) Actinomycin D, 9) Actinomycin V and 10) Actinomycin X0β</li> </ol>	uricine, <b>6)</b> vcin V and [12] yptopine [188]
19 20 21 22	Ultrafiltration	Buffer (50 mM KCl, 10 mM KH <sub>2</sub> PO <sub>4</sub> , and 1 mM K <sub>2</sub> EDTA, pH 7.4)	DNA (G-quadruplex)	Various	1) Chelerythrine, 2) Sanguinarine, 3) Protopine and 4) Allocryptopine	
24 25 26		Tris-HCl buffer	Quinone reductase-2 (QR-2)	Various (chemoprevention)	1) Tetrangulol methyl ether, 2) Xanthohumol and 3) Xanthohumol D	[82]
27 28 29 30 31 32 33 34 35 36 37		Phosphate buffer	Tyrosinase	Melanoma	<ol> <li>Neochlorogenic acid, 2) Chlorogenic acid, 3) Cryptochlorogenic acid,</li> <li>Rutin, 5) Isoquercitrin, 6) Kaempferol-3-O-α-L-rhamnopyranosyl-(1– 6)-β-d-glucopyranoside, 7) Quercetin-3-O-(6-O-malonyl)-β-D- glucopyranoside, 8) 3,4-Dicaffeoylquinic acid, 9) Astragalin,10) 3,5- Dicaffeoylquinic acid, 11) 4,5-Dicaffeoylquinic acid, 12) Kaempferol-3- O-(6-O-malonyl)-β-D-glucopyranoside</li> </ol>	[89]
39 40						

Potassium phosphate buffer	Tyrosinase	Melanoma	<ol> <li>1) 12-15 Heneicosadienoic acid, Octadecanoic acid, 2- hydroxylpropyl esters, 2) Unknown, 3) 3-(4-tert-butylphenyl)-2-methylpropanal, 4) 4,4'- Dihydroxybenzylsulfid, 5) Octadecanoic acid, 2-hydroxy-1- (hydroxymethyl)ethyl ester 6) 9-Octadecenamide, (trans-), 7) Unknown, 8) Unknown, 9) 9-Octadecenamide, (cis-), 10) 4,4'-Dihydroxydiphenyl ether, 11) 4-(1-(4-hydroxyphenyl)phenol, 12) Octadecanoic acid, 2,3-dihydroxypropyl ester, 13) 4,4'-Dimethoxydiphenylmethane, 14) 4,4'-Methylenediphenol, 15) 2,4-Bis(4-hydroxybenzyl) phenol, 16) 4- Hydroxybenzyl methyl ether</li> </ol>	[90]
Potassium phosphate buffer + Ethyl acetate (fraction)	Tyrosinase	Melanoma	<ol> <li>Gallic acid, 2) Iriflophenone 3-C-glucoside, 3) Mangiferin, 4) Protocatechuic acid, 5) Iriflophenone 3-C-(2'-O-galloyl)-glucoside, 6) 6'- O-Galloyl-mangiferin, 7) Maclurin 3-C-(2'-O-p-hydroxybenzoyl)- glucoside, 8) Iriflophenone 3-C-(2',6'-di-O-galloyl)- glucoside, 9) Hyperoside, 10) Isoquercitrin, 11) Ethyl gallate, 12) Iriflophenone 3-C-(2'-O-p-hydroxybenzoyl)- glucoside, 13) Quercetin-3-O-xyloside, 14) 3-O-Galloyl shikimic acid, 15) 3-O-Galloyl quinic acid, 16) Maclurin 3-C-(2'-O-galloyl)-glucoside, 17) 3,5-Di-O-galloyl quinic acid, 18) 5-O-Digalloyl quinic acid, 19) Digallic acid, 20) Isomangiferin, 21) 1,4,6-Tri-O-galloyl glucoside, 22) Maclurin 3-C-(2',3'-di-O-galloyl)-glucoside, 23) 1,3-Digalleoyl acetone, 24) 1,3,4,6-Tetra-O-galloyl glucoside, 25) 6'-O-(p-Hydroxybenzoyl) mangiferin, 26) Epicatechin gallate, 27) 1,2,3,4,6-Penta-O-galloyl glucoside, 28) Iriflophenone 3-C-(2',3',6'-tri-O-galloyl)- glucoside, 29) Luteolin-7-O-glucoside, 30) Quercetin-3-O-arapyranoside, 31) Quercetin-3-O-arafuranoside, 32) Kaempferol-3-O-glucoside, 33) Quercetin-3-O-rhamnoside, 34) Ethyl 2,4-dihydroxy-3-galloyl oxybenzoate, 35) Ethyl digallate, 36) 7-O-Methyl quercetin-3-O- rhamnoside</li> </ol>	[19]
Phosphate buffer	Tyrosinase	Melanoma	1) Daidzin, 2) Isoorientin, 3) Isovitexin, 4) Daidzein, 5) Genistein, 6) 3- (5-hydroxybenzofuran-6-yl) propanoic acid	[17]

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1 2		MeOH + Potassium phosphate buffer	Tyrosinase	Melanoma	<ol> <li>Protocatechuic acid, 2) 3,5- Di-O-caffeoylquinic acid, 3) 1,5-Di-O- caffeoylquinic acid and 4) Chlorogenic acid</li> </ol>	[92]
3 4 5 6		Phosphate buffer	Tyrosinase	Melanoma	<ol> <li>3'-Hydroxypuerarin, 2) Puerarin, 3) Puerarin-6"-O-xyloside, 4) Daidzin, 5) Genistin, 6) 6"-O-acetyldaidzin and 7) Daidzein</li> </ol>	[93]
7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16		Phosphate buffer	Tyrosinase	Melanoma	1) Oroxin B, 2) Kaempferid-3-O-beta-D-gentiobioside, 3) Chrysin-7-O- beta-D-gentiobioside, 4) Oroxin A, 5) Baicalein and 6) Chrysin	[94]
		Phosphate buffer	Tyrosinase	Melanoma	1) Puerarin, 2) Mirificin, 3) Daidzin and 4) Genistin	[91]
		Phosphate buffer	Urokinase-type plasminogen activator	Prognostic marker (breast, prostate, and bladder cancer)	<ol> <li>Gallic acid, 2) Methyl gallate, 3) Pentagalloylglucose, 4) Ellagic acid,</li> <li>5) Ziyu-glycoside I, 6) 28-O-β-D-glucopyranosyl pomolic acid, and 7) 1β-Hydroxyeuscaphic acid</li> </ol>	[165]
17 18 19		Gradient EtOH- Deionized water	Cyclooxygenase-2 (COX2)	Various	1) Sylvestroside I	[108]
20 21 22 23		Gradient MeOH- Deionized water	Cyclooxygenase-2 (COX2)	Various	1) Swertisin, 2) Scopoletin	<b>A</b> [93]         h-7-O-       [94]         [91]       [91]         c acid, and 7)       [165]         [108]       [110] <b>J</b> 3-       [158]         opine       [187]
24 25 26 27	Miscellaneous	Isopropyl alcohol- Ammonium acetate buffer	Fibroblast growth factor receptor 4 (FGFR4)	Various	1) Napellonine, 2) 12-Epinapelline, 3) Benzoylaconitine and 4) 3- Deoxyaconitine	
28 29 30 31 32 33 34 35 36		DMSO-Tris-HCl buffer	DNA - G-quadruplex (HT24 and HT22); Duplex sequence (DNA26); DNA (Calf thymus DNA)	Various	1) Sanguinarine, 2) Chelerythrine, 3) Protopine and 4) Allocryptopine	[187]

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Buffer (50 mM KCl, 10 mM KH <sub>2</sub> PO <sub>4</sub> , and 1 mM K <sub>2</sub> EDTA, pH 7.4)	DNA (G-quadruplex)	Various	1) Chelerythrine, 2) Sanguinarine, 3) Protopine and 4) Allocryptopine	[188]
Buffer II (20 mM NH <sub>4</sub> OAC, 5 mM Mg(AC) <sub>2</sub> , pH 5.5)	DNA (triplex)	Various	1) Fangchinoline and 2) Tetrandrine	[50]
Buffer II (20 mM NH <sub>4</sub> OAC, 5 mM MgCl <sub>2</sub> , pH 5.5)	DNA (triplex)	Various	1) Berberine and 2) Palmatine	[47]
Buffer II (20 mM NH <sub>4</sub> OAC, 5 mM Mg(AC) <sub>2</sub> , pH 5.5)	DNA (triplex)	Various	1) Epiberberine, 2) Coptisine, 3) Jatrorrhizine, 4) Berberrubine and 5) Columbamine	[49]
Serum-free DMEM	HepG2 and MCF-7 cells	Hepatoma and breast cancer	<ol> <li>Serotonin, 2) N-methyl serotonin, 3) Bufotenidine, 4) Suberoyl arginine, 5) Arenobufagin, 6) Telocinobufatoxin, 7) Bufotalin, 8) 3-(N- pimeloyl argininyl) bufalin, 9) Cinobufotalin, 10) Bufalitoxin, 11) 3-(N- pimeloyl argininyl) resibufogenin, 12) Bufalin, 13) Resibufotoxin, 14) Cinobufotoxin, 15) 3-(N-azelayl argininyl) resibufogenin, 16) Cinobufagin and 17) Resibufogenin</li> </ol>	[11]
Phosphate buffer	HepG2 cells	Hepatoma	1) Chlorogenic acid, 2) Rutin, 3) Isoquercitrin, 4) Cyanidin-3-O-glucose, 5) Iridin and 6) Quercetin	[192]
Undefined	Hsp 90	Various	<ol> <li>Demecolcine, 2) Wilforine, 3) Triptotriterpenic acid, 4) Celastrol, 5) R1-Barrigenol, 6) 24R,25-dihydroxycholecalciferol, 7) Ursodeoxycholic acid, 8) 8,14-Seco-3,19-epoxyandrostane-8,14-dione, 17-acetoxy-3β- methoxy-4,4-dimethyl, 9) Spirost-8-en-11-one, 10) Propanoic acid, 11) Demecolcine, 12) Bufa-20,22-dienolide, 13) Ergosta-5,22-dien-3-ol, 14) β-Sitosterol and 15) Betulinaldehyde</li> </ol>	[46]

	Undefined	Hsp 90α	Various	<ol> <li>Alisol F, 2) 16-oxo-11-deoxy-Alisol A, 3) Alisol F 24-acetate, 4) Alisol L 23-acetate, 5) 16-oxo-11-anhydro-Alisol A, 6) Alisol H, 7) Alisol B-23-acetate, 8) Alisol C, 9) 3-Methyl-5,6- dimethoxy-2,3- dihydro-1H-indene-1-one, 10) (1S,3aa,7aβ)-1- Acetyloctahydro- 4a- hydroxy-7β- isopropyl 4-methyl-1H-indene, 11) Corymbolone, 12) (-)- Spathulenol, 13) n-Hexadecanoic acid, 14) Hexadecanoic acid ethyl ester, 15) Linoleic acid ethyl ester, 16) 13,17-Seco-5α-pregn-13(18)-en-20-one, 17) Lupeol, 18) Lupeol acetate, 19) Taraxasterol and 20) Betulinaldehyde</li> </ol>	[45]					
	Undefined	Hsp 90α	Various	1) Zingiberenol, 2) Ar-turmerone, 3) Curlone, 4) (6R,7R)-bisabolone, 5) (E)-Atlantone, 6) 6-(1-Hydroxymethylvinyl), 7) 4,8a-dimethyl- 3,5,6,7,8,8a-hexahydro-1H-naphthalen-2-one	[44]					
	EtOH 50%	MCF-7 cells	Breast cancer	1) Genistein, 2) Tripteryl E-3, 3) Wilforlide A, 4) Cangononine, 5) Wilforine, 6) Regeol C, 7) Celastrol	[51]					
	DMSO-RPMI-1640 medium	PC3-cells	Human androgen- refractory prostate cancer	1) Curcumin, 2) Demethoxycurcumin and 3) Bisdemethoxycurcumin	[20]					
	Phosphate buffer	Matrix Metalloproteinase-2 (MMP-2)	Various	1) Oreganol A, 2) Corilagin, 3) Ellagic acid, 4) Zebirioside O, 5) Niga- ichigoside F1, 6) Peduncloside, 7) Rosamultin, 8) Kajiichigoside F1, 9) Potentillanoside A, 10) Quadranoside VIII, 11) Valerenic acid and 12) Medicagenic acid	[171]					
	Tris-HCl buffer	Monoacylglycerol lipase (MAGL)	Various	1) Tetrahydropalmatin, 2) Tetrahydrocoptisine, 3) Coptisine, 4) Fumaricine, 5) Palmatine, 6) Berberine and 7) Dehydrocorydaline	[178]					
	Serum-free Dulbecco's modified eagle medium (DMEM)	HepG2 cells	Hepatoma	<ol> <li>Aurantio-obtusin, 2) 1-desmethylaurantio-obtusin, 3) Chryso-obtusin,</li> <li>4) Obtusin, and 5) Questin</li> </ol>	[193]					
	Phosphate buffer	A549 and H1819 cells	Lung carcinoma	1) Salvianolic acid B, 2) Deoxyshikonin and 3) Shikonin	[48]					

Sim	Serum-free Dulbecco's nodified eagle medium (DMEM)	MCF-7 cells	Breast cancer	<ol> <li>5,7,8,30,40-Pentamethoxylflavanone, 2) 3,5,6,7,8,40- Hexamethoxyflavanone, 3) 5,7,8,30,40,50-Hexamethoxyflavone, 4) 7- Hydroxy-5,6,8,30,40-pentamethoxyflavone, 5) Isosinensetin, 6) 30- Hydroxy-5,6,7,8,40-pentamethoxyflavone or 40-Hydroxy-5,6,7,8,30-pentamethoxyflavone, 7) Sinensetin, 8) 5,6,7,8,40-Pentamethoxyflavanone, 9) 3-Hydroxy-5,6,7,8,40- pentamethoxyflavone, 10) Tetramethyl-O-isoscutellarein, 11) Tetramethyl-O-scutellarein, 12) Nobiletin, 13) 3,5,6,7,8,30,40- Heptamethoxyflavone, 14) 5,6,7,8,30,40-Hexamethoxyflavanone, 15) 5- Hydroxy-6,7,8,30,40-pentamethoxyflavone, 16) Tangeretin</li> </ol>	[71]
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Table S2 – Ligand fishing studies grouped by technique. Information concerning the ligand fishing medium, the cancer-related target with type of cancer involved, the ligands fished, and the respective bibliographical reference is also provided.