Review:

A Deep Overview of Anticoagulant Drugs: Recent Synthesis and Their Activity Assay

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Abstract: During the unprecedented COVID-19 pandemic, anticoagulant drugs have emerged as a crucial component of treatment alongside antivirus medications. Patients with severe COVID-19 frequently have critical conditions marked by blood clot development, necessitating the administration of anticoagulants. This review aims to provide a comprehensive overview of various anticoagulant drugs, their synthesis methods, and assays employed to predict their anticoagulant activity. Notable anticoagulant categories frequently utilized include oral anticoagulants heparin, nonvitamin K antagonists, and vitamin K antagonists. In recent years, the development of new anticoagulants has seen a shift towards a multifaceted approach that combines in silico prediction with in vitro and in vivo assays. In silico prediction techniques play a pivotal role in the initial screening process. This integrated approach has yielded promising results, paving the way for the synthesis of novel anticoagulant candidates, as substantiated by a battery of in vitro, in vivo, and ex-vivo tests.

Keywords: anticoagulant; prediction; synthesis; anticoagulant activity

INTRODUCTION

Anticoagulants are drugs that are used to prevent some factors in the coagulation cascade. This drug is used in clinics to prevent and treat ischemic stroke, venous thromboembolism (VTE), pulmonary embolism (PE), and deep vein thrombosis (DVT), where these three conditions together account for the majority of cardiovascular deaths [1-2]. Recently, it has been widely used for COVID-19 patients with blood clot incidents. Several oral anticoagulants are often used for VTE by inhibiting thrombin, inhibiting factor Xa and other mechanisms [3].

Anticoagulant therapy needs continuous monitoring to avoid side effects of bleeding and allergies. Heparin has several disadvantages, including the danger of pathogens contamination, bleeding, thrombocytopenia, bruise, contact dermatitis, hives, and epithelium necrosis [4]. Anticoagulant drug usage is increasing due to cardiovascular problems in the community and an increasingly elderly population has the highest yearly growth rate among the top ten care areas. Therefore, prompted researchers are seeking and developing new and improved anticoagulants [5].

Several researchers discovered new anticoagulant

drugs using synthesis by modifying with certain grup added or from natural materials [6]. The new drugs were tested for anticoagulant activity through in vivo, in vitro, or in silico assays [7-14]. In silico is known to be able to reduce failures in laboratory experiments by screening potential candidates using computational design for further synthesis. Another advantage of in silico is that it can fill data gaps in chemical risk assessments [15]. Some in silico models today are molecular docking and molecular dynamics simulations [16-17]. Some of the software used for molecular docking will be shown in this review, along with the PDB code for the anticoagulant protein used. This review will display the synthesis method and all anticoagulant assays through in vitro, in vivo, and ex vivo. This review aims to provide a comprehensive overview of the various types of anticoagulant drugs, their synthesis methods, and the tests used to predict anticoagulant activity so that it can help researchers who will develop new anticoagulant drugs.

METHOD

We used renowned Scopus databases (http://www.scopus.com/). The keywords used were "synthesis of anticoagulant" and "activity assay of anticoagulant" within 2018–2022, document-type articles and source-type English journals. VOSviewer was used for the analysis keyword after sorting manually (Fig. 1).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Anticoagulants

Anticoagulants are drugs proposed for critically ill conditions with the exact pathophysiology of hypercoagulability and inflammatory diseases such as acute respiratory distress syndrome (ARDS) and sepsis. An observational study conducted by Ceccato et al. [18] showed that anticoagulants or high prophylactic doses of heparin have been linked to enhance patient outcomes with non-critical diseases. Anticoagulation is not related to improved outcomes in critically sick patients, and alternative treatments such as antiplatelet therapy, fibrinolytic therapy, or nebulized anticoagulants are necessary [18]. The traditional use of anticoagulation has



Fig 1. Method step

been carried out by doctors in collaboration with laboratories inside or outside the hospital. On selfadministered anticoagulants, the patient performs his international normalized ratio (INR) test with a treatment device and only consults a physician for interpretation and dose adjustment [19]. Anticoagulant medication is a critical component that has a significant influence on the thromboembolic possibility of patients with nonvalvular atrial fibrillation (NVAF).

The Global Anticoagulant Registry in the Field-Atrial Fibrillation (GARFIELD-AF) did a profile analysis of subjects with NVAF taking antithrombotic medication orally. Observations resulted in adherence strategies correlated with stroke. Patient noncompliance with oral anticoagulants is the main side effect of ineffective therapy. Toma et al. [20] researched mobile phone applications focused on patient needs and telemedicine applications that track patient progress and identify adverse responses or events that significantly influence treatment adherence.

Oral anticoagulants are effective and safe for antithrombotic prophylaxis following major orthopedic surgery. Somehow, there is little data on their use in cancer surgery. Randomized trials and many metaanalyses in cancer patients receiving open abdominal or pelvic surgery have shown that antithrombotic therapy should be continued for four weeks following surgery to lower the risk of venographic DVT and pulmonary embolism after one week of administration. According to this information, international guidelines suggest four weeks of low molecular weight heparin (LMWH) prophylaxis following open surgery for abdominal or pelvic cancer surgery [21].

The coagulation system is divided into two routes: extrinsic and intrinsic. Tissue factor (TF) stimulates the extrinsic pathway in the vascular. Coagulation factor XII (FXII) is activated through the intrinsic route. The extrinsic or intrinsic pathway will then initiate downstream coagulation factors until prothrombin is converted to thrombin, resulting in fibrin [22]. Some anticoagulant treatment alternatives. such as unfractionated heparin (UFH) and LMWH, impede coagulation by increasing antithrombin's neutralizing effect on thrombin and FXa. Vitamin K antagonists with a mechanism of action inhibiting the liver's synthesis of coagulation factors II, VII, IX, and X and oral anticoagulants are non-vitamin K antagonists (NVKA) that inhibit thrombin or FXa directly [23].

Types of Anticoagulants

Oral anticoagulant non-vitamin K antagonist

Dabigatran, rivaroxaban, apixaban, betrixaban, and edoxaban are oral anticoagulant non-vitamin K that act as thrombin inhibitors. The cytochrome-P450 (CYP) enzyme, namely CYP3A4, which interacts with Pglycoprotein (P-gp) and breast cancer resistance protein (BCRP), is responsible for drug metabolism. Coadministration of medications with these three proteins' substrates, inducers, activators, or inhibitors can influence plasma concentrations, efficacy, and safety [24].

Dabigatran is an anticoagulant that inhibits thrombin orally, thereby blocking fibrin formation. Like drugs of this class, dabigatran also causes platelet aggregation inhibition and reduces the activity of factors V, VIII, and XI. They were usually used for NVAT patients to lower the risk of stroke. It is also utilized in therapy and secondary VTE and prophylaxis of VTE after total hip arthroplasty [25]. The use of dabigatran carries a high risk with little benefit in individuals with mechanical prosthetic valves. In an observational study from Cho et al. [26] on patients with mitral stenosis (MS) and atrial fibrillation (AF), it is recommended to use dabigatran, although no prospective data are available. Dabigatran has the chemical name of N-[[2-[[[4-(aminoiminomethyl) phenyl] amino] methyl]-1-methly-1*H*-benzymidazole-5-yl] carbonyl]-N-2-pyridinyl β -alanine. Dabigatran has poor oral bioavailability (6–7%) due to its high polarity, so its prodrug is widely used, namely dabigatran etexilate, which is easily absorbed in the digestive system [27]. The log P of dabigatran is 2.17, while dabigatran etexilate has a log P of 5.17. Dabigatran is very soluble in water.

Rivaroxaban is an anticoagulant that inhibits the small molecule FXa, a protease required in the cascade of coagulation and activator of protease-activated receptor 2 (PAR2). One study showed that rivaroxaban prevents atherosclerosis by inhibiting FXa-PAR2-dependent autophagy. Coagulation proteases may promote atherosclerosis by activating PAR2 [28]. Rivaroxaban is the only substance authorized to reduce the number of cardiovascular incidents in subjects with peripheral arterial and coronary artery disease [25]. Rivaroxaban is widely used in several countries because of its advantages as an oral treatment that does not require active surveillance. Rivaroxaban has no adequate and widespread reversal medication if significant bleeding occurs. The efficacy of medicines to prevent VTE must be balanced against possible consequences such as substantial bleeding. Rivaroxaban was more effective than enoxaparin in avoiding DVT and significant VTE in patient undergoing complete joint arthroplasty without worsening bleeding or all-cause mortality in patients undergoing total joint arthroplasty. Rivaroxaban has bioavailability good oral and predictable pharmacokinetics, making it a safe drug for general usage [29]. Rivaroxaban does not cause more bleeding during comprehensive prevention of venous thromboembolism in colorectal cancer patients after laparoscopic surgery [21].

Apixaban is an anticoagulant drug with a low threat of major bleeding, such as edoxaban and dabigatran. Edoxaban carries a decreased risk of systemic embolism and ischemic stroke in atrial fibrillation subjects than oral NVKA and vitamin K antagonists (VKA). Edoxaban also has a reduced chance of major gastrointestinal bleeding compared to rivaroxaban and VKA [30]. Apixaban should be administered with caution in the presence of potent inducers of CYP3A4 and P-gp, such as phenytoin, carbamazepine, phenobarbital, rifampicin, or St. John's wort [31]. Edoxaban has a higher molecular weight than rivaroxaban, apixaban, and betrixaban, so it has a lower bioavailability than the three drugs. Edoxaban is slightly protonated, determining its moderate bioavailability *in vivo* (62%) at physiological pH. CYP enzymes metabolize apixaban and edoxaban but have a limited capacity to inhibit and induce CYP enzymes, so they are not as susceptible to drug interactions as rivaroxaban [32].

Betrixaban has two nearly planar amide groups, so the water solvent has no effect on the overall form of betrixaban. Betrixaban has an ionizable group. Therefore, food can influence its administration, and its identification by HPLC requires adjustment of the mobile phase PH [32]. Betrixaban is the only one authorized by the FDA to prevent venous thromboembolism over the long term in patients with acute medical conditions. However, it has not been approved by the FDA for any additional indications. Betrixaban is administered once daily with renal elimination reduced, reducing venous thromboembolism risk without increasing serious hemorrhage risk. Betrixaban absorbs quickly, with peak plasma concentrations taking place within three to 4 h, but taking betrixaban with food can reduce peak concentrations by 70% [33].

Vitamin K antagonists

Warfarin is an anticoagulant drug with a VKA mechanism of action. Anticoagulants have severe bleeding complications, so vitamin K, fresh frozen plasma or prothrombin complex concentrate can be utilized to treat bleeding [34]. Warfarin has substantial doseresponse variability between people and a restricted therapeutic range of 2.0–3.0 for most indications, according to the international normalized ratio (PT-INR). However, warfarin is the world's most widely prescribed anticoagulant drug [31].

Heparin

Heparin is a polydisperse polysaccharide derived from the intestinal mucosa of pigs. Heparin requires the

3-O-sulfation structure to generate a particular pentasaccharide domain that binds antithrombin with high affinity, thereby providing anticoagulant activity. The heparin chain consists of 1,4-linked disaccharide repeat units consisting of uronic acid and glucosamine residues that span a wide range of chain lengths [35-39]. The mechanism action of heparin is to bind to antithrombin III (AT), serine protease inhibitors, thrombin and FXa, which changes conformation to strengthen AT's inhibitory activity. The main forms of heparin are intravenous drugs, UFH, MWavg 16,000 Da; several kinds of subcutaneous LMWH, MWavg 3,500– 6,000 Da and subcutaneous ultra-LMWH, MWavg < 2,000 Da [40].

Fondaparinux is a synthetic pentasaccharide that inhibits FXa, preventing thrombin production. Fondaparinux has enhanced pharmacokinetic and pharmacodynamic properties, including FXa selectivity and specificity, full subcutaneous absorption, and a long half-life for once-daily treatment. Subcutaneously given LMWH is a functional fragmented heparin made by chemical or enzymatic depolymerization of UFH. However, there are various benefits related to improved bioavailability, consistent anticoagulant action, the convenience of administration, longer half-life, no need for monitoring, fewer heparin-induced thrombocytopenia, and reduced risk of osteoporosis. Dalteparin is one of the LMWH products produced by fragmentation of HONO heparin followed by borohydride reduction, forming a 2,5-anhydromannitol ring at the reducing end [35,41]. Shorter chains exhibited a reduced affinity for plasma proteins (except antithrombin), macrophages, platelets, endothelial cells, platelet factor 4 and osteoblasts compared to UFH [42]. Enoxaparin is an LMWH that must be given twice a day and requires an adjustment of the dose for each patient's weight [43]. LMWH during COVID-19 cases is widely used to lessen the occurrence of cytokine storms in COVID-19 patients hospitalized with severe symptoms. LMWH is also used with mechanisms other than anticoagulants, such as antiinflammatory/immunomodulatory, antiviral, growth factor modulation, and anticancer effects [44-46]. UltraLMWH controls anticoagulant action better than UFH and LWMH and has the lowest bleeding rate. Ultra-LMWH offers several benefits, but its high cost and inability to be eliminated by means other than renal clearance limit its usage in renal failure with impaired or considerably reduced renal clearance [42].

Synthesis of Anticoagulant Drug

Searching for research articles using the keyword "synthesis anticoagulant" in the Scopus database with limitations in 2018–2022, document-type articles and source-type English journals obtained 253 articles and sorted manually, and obtained 84 articles. The article was

processed using VOSviewer software. For extracting data, mapping, and grouping collected papers, VOSviewer 18 software (van Eck and Waltman, Leiden University, Leiden, Netherlands) was utilized. Colored circles represent keywords. The circle size depends on the title and abstract keywords, as seen in Fig. 2. This study's keyword analysis is a solid beginning point for evaluating their evolution in this subject. Keywords characterize the author's focus and achievements and provide a general idea of research trends [47].

VOSviewer's co-occurrence network analysis tool assessed research literature keywords on synthesis anticoagulant action. This analysis required six keyword



Fig 2. The analysis of keyword co-occurrence on synthesis anticoagulant

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appearances in the title and abstract. The system found 67 keywords. The results identified 3 clusters containing the topics shown in Table 1. The most often used keywords in selected papers with the highest link strength were "article" (47 occurrences), "anticoagulant agent" (40), "controlled study" (39), "unclassified drug" (38), and "chemistry" (36).

Several syntheses were carried out to obtain new anticoagulant drugs by researchers such as Hussain et al. [1], where antisense oligonucleotides can prevent thrombotic events in orthopedic surgery patients who are better than enoxaparin in terms of bleeding after being designed to downregulate FXI. In this study, it was devised, synthesized, and evaluated for its ability to inhibit FXIa blood coagulation selectively. The 4,4-disubstituted proline analogs are substituted with 38 groups at various positions. Modeling and designing these structures resulted in a steady increase of FXIa potency by suppressing thrombin activity, and it also increases the selectivity of thrombin [1]. Under homogenous circumstances, Chen et al. [48] employed hemicellulose bagasse to dissolve in alkali disulfation utilizing chlorosulfonic acid and N,N-dimethylformamide/LiCl. The flow technique obtains a fast, light and efficient xylan sulfate synthesis method. The results revealed that Xylan chain degradation and reaction time were reduced under the flow system, and a high molecular weight product

(Mw = 148.217) with a decent degree of substitution (DS = 1.49) was produced at room temperature in 10 min. This study opens up new possibilities for producing alternative functional polysaccharide derivatives that work as anticoagulants under flow reaction circumstances [48].

Mao et al. [49] created one-pot bio-carbon nanowires from natural sodium alginate at low temperatures without a catalyst using in situ carbonization and sulfation/sulfonation with solid-state heating. A mixture of sodium alginate and ammonium sulfite with a mass ratio of 5 forms core-shell sulfated/sulfonated bio-carbon nanowires with much stronger anticoagulation activity than sodium alginate and natural sulfated polysaccharides like fucoidan after 3 h of heating at 165 °C [49]. Several synthesis methods, starting compounds and synthetic compounds used to produce new anticoagulant compounds can be seen in Table 2, along with their activities as anticoagulants. Recent research uses green biofunctional production of magnesium oxide (MgO) nanoparticles from Tarenna asiatica fruit aqueous extract synthesize to anticoagulants (TAFEMgONPS). **TAFEMgONPS** increases platelet-rich plasma clotting time, prolongs APTT and PT clot formation, and inhibits ADP-induced platelet aggregation [50]. Nanotechnology employs a wide range of particles that differ in size, shape, and content.

Table 1. Cluster of the research article "Synthesis Anticoagulant" by VOSviewer

Cluster	Total	Itoma
Cluster	Items	itenis
1	29	Activated partial thromboplastin time, anticoagulant, anticoagulant activities, anticoagulant activity,
		anticoagulant agent, anticoagulants, anticoagulation, antithrombin, article, blood clotting, blood coagulation,
		chemical structure, chemistry, controlled study, drug screening, drug structure, drug synthesis, heparin, in
		vitro study, molecular structure, nuclear magnetic resonance spectroscopy, polysaccharides, priority journal,
		protein expression, prothrombin time, proton nuclear magnetic resonance, synthesis, thrombin, unclassified
		drug
2	24	Animal cell, animal experiment, animal model, antiplatelet activity, antithrombotic agent, antithrombotic
		activity, bleeding, bleeding time, female, fibrinogen, human cell, in vivo study, male, mouse, non-human,
		platelet aggregation, platelet aggregation inhibitors, rat, rat Sprague-Dawley, signal transduction, Sprague-
		Dawley rat, thrombocyte activation, thrombocyte aggregation, thrombosis
3	14	Animal, animals, conformation, drug design, drug effect, human, humans, IC ₅₀ , metabolism, molecular
		docking, molecular docking simulation, molecular dynamic, structure-activity relation, structure-activity
		relationship

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Initial Compound	Synthetic Compound	Synthesis method	Anticoagulant activity	Test	Type Test	Ref
2-acetyl pyrazine	$2 2'_{[4]}(N N' N''_{-})$	facile one-not procedure	all substances prolonged	Invitro	Platelet	[52]
2-acetyl pyfazine	trimethoxyphenyl)pyridine	lacite one-pot procedure	citrated human plasma	111 11110	aggregation direct	[32]
	2.6-divlldipyrazines		coagulation in PRP and PPP		haemolytic activity	
2-amino22123-	pyranopyrimidines 3a-f &	one-pot three-component	all produced chemicals work as	In vitro	APTT	[53]
cyanopyrane	pyranotriazolopyrimidines	reaction	anticoagulants			
	4a-d		-			
chitosan powder	succinyl- and glutaryl-	heterogeneous & homogeneous	exhibit antiplatelet and	In vitro	Platelet	[54]
	chitosan derivatives	reactions	anticoagulant activity		aggregation, APTT, PT, TT	
chitosan	mono- and disulfonic	reductive amination reaction	some sulfonated chitosan	In vitro	APTT, PT, anti-	[14]
	derivatives of chitosan		extended better than negative control		FXa	
ulvan	ulvan-kappa-carrabiose	ligation	does not increase anticoagulant	In vitro	APTT	[13]
	hybrid polysaccharides		properties			
fondaparinux	derivatives Rrt1.17	a convergent [3+2] coupling	active as an anticoagulant and	In vitro, in	Anti-FXa	[12]
		approach, orthogonal	more efficient than	vivo	Antithrombotic	
		protecting groups, and various glycosyl donors	fondaparinux		effect test in vivo	
Oyster (Crassostrea gigas)	food-derived anticoagulant	alkaline extraction (pH 12-13)	an alternative food-derived	In vitro, in	TT, Fib, APTT, PT	[55]
pepsin hydrolysate	heptapeptides	and acid precipitation (pH 4.8-	anticoagulant peptide for	vivo		
		5.1) were used to isolate it	thrombosis prevention			
Dabigatran	11 novels of dabigatran	heating, reflux, chlorination,	the ten compounds obtained	In silico,	IC ₅₀ inhibition of	[56]
	derivatives (12a–12k)	acylation, hydrolysis	showed comparable activity to dabigatran except 12i	in vitro	thrombin activity	
O-tert-butyl-L-Serine, L-	series of anionic poly(amino	the controlled ring opening	polypeptides offer a lot of	In vitro	APTT, PT, TT, Fib,	[2]
Glutamic acid 5-benzyl	acid) s poly (L-Serine-ran-L-	polymerization	potential for long-acting		PRT	
ester and L-Cysteine	glutamic acid-ran-L-cysteine-		anticoagulation			
other 1 (4	SU ₃)	hudualusia nadvatian	all assume the bad mandamate	Tu silisa	DT ADTT anti	[7]
methovurbenyl) 7 ovo 6	derivatives contain 1.3.4	chloringtion condensation and	to considerable potential	in vitro in	FI, AFII, allu-	[/]
(4-(2-oxopiperidin-1-	triazole triazolylmethyl and	cyclization reaction	anticoagulant action with	vivo	antithrombotic	
vl)phenvl)-4,5,6,7-	partially saturated	cyclifation reaction	compound 15c having a 98%	1110	effect and	
tetrahydro-1 <i>H</i> -	heterocyclic moieties as P2		inhibitory rate.		inhibition rate	
pyrazolo[3,4-c] pyridine-	binding element		<i>,</i>			
3-carboxylate	-					
Porphyra yezoensis	VITPOR AI, a 16-mer	isolated	the peptide inhibited FXIIa	In silico,	APTT, PT, TT	[57]
	peptide		amidolysis	in vitro		
Chitosan	chitosan derivatives	nucleophilic substitution	the quaternary sulfate/chitosan	In vivo	Bleeding time	[5]
		reaction, electrophilic	sulfated derivative is less			
		substitution	powerful as an anticoagulant			
<u>.</u>			than the <i>N</i> -alkyl derivative			[=0]
wartarin	trimethyltin(IV) and	interaction of sodium salt and	indicate higher DNA binding	In vitro	Towards DNA	[58]
	tributyltin(IV) derivatives	triorganotin chloride	and fragmentation potential		binding and	
Citau aiu au aia ana ana ana	ah anai aallar ardfata d maatim	ab ami as laulfation	offectively entire equilant	Tu silisa	Iragmentation	[4]
Citrus sinensis mesocarp	from Citrus sinancia	chemical sulfation	effectively anticoagulant	In silico,	Proteomic	[4]
Casain	Novel anticoagulant pentide	in vive direction	casain can be a source for	In vitro	DT ለ DTT TT	[50]
Caselli	AVPYPOR (B-CN fragment	in vivo algestion	preparing bioactive pentides	111 11110	r 1, Ar 1 1, 1 1	[39]
	177-183)		via the gastrointestinal (GI)			
	177 103)		tract's digestive tract.			
Whitmania picture	thermostable anticoagulant	boiling, purification	non-blood-sucking medicinal	In vitro. in	APTT, PT. TT. Fib.	[60]
Whitman	proteins from W. <i>bigra</i>		leeches' anticoagulant efficacy	vivo, ex-	PRT, cell viability.	[00]
	1		depends on WP-77	vivo	Carrageenan-	
			L		induced chronic	
					thromboembolism	

Table 2	Symthesis	ofnour	anticaca	lant con	mound
I able 2.	Synthesis	or new	anticoagu	iant con	pound

Initial Compound	Synthetic Compound	Synthesis method	Anticoagulant activity	Test	Type Test	Ref.
dabigatran	fluorinated dabigatran	substituted pyridine rings or	all analogs show effective	In silico,	IC ₅₀ inhibition of	[8]
	analogs	substituted phenyl rings	inhibitory activity against	in vitro, in vivo	thrombin	
Fucus vesiculosus	fucoidan by size and to de-	fractionated by size using	higher molecular weight	In vitro	APTT PT FC 50	[61]
Tucus vesiculosus	and over-sulfate	ultrafiltration	increases procoagulant activity	111 11110	thrombin	[01]
	and over-suitate		Below 15 kD activity is		$\frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}$	
			significantly reduced			
betrivaban	anthranilamide derivatives	replace the amidine mojety with	compounds by and 7f showed	In cilico In	EVa and thrombin	[0]
DetrixaDali	antinannannue derivatives	piperazingl and change the	the most EXa inhibitory	in suico in	inhibition ar vivo	[9]
		carbonyl amino group sequence	activity	viiro, ex-	DT ADTT	
		in the P1 and P4 motifs	activity	vivo, in	hleeding time	
Chitasan	aculated chitesen sulfate	sulfation	greater anticoogulant activity	VIVO In nitro		[42]
Chitosan	acylated chitosan sunate	sunation	greater anticoaguiant activity	In viiro	AFII, FI, II,	[02]
					prothrombinase	
					assay	
green serveed Codium	a highly sulfated 3 linked	isolated	the anticoagulant action of	In cilico	DT ADTT TT	[63]
yarmilara (Bryopsidales)	a mgmy sunateu 5-mikeu - arabinan (Abl)	Isolated	nyranosic sulfated arabinan	In silico, In vitro	r1, Ar11, 11	[05]
vermuuru (Diyopsidales)				111 11110		
hydroxy substituted	new bi-thiscoumarine	integrated cycloaddition and	shows anticoagulant activity	In silico	PRT	[64]
coumarin	derivatives	cycloreversion reactions	shows anticoagulant activity	In sinco, In vitro	IRI	[01]
dahigatran	ten new dabigatran	adding methyl and methovy	compounds 7a 7d 7i and 7k	In vilico	IC to inhibition of	[65]
aubigutiun	derivatives	groups at various points	provide activity as	In vitro in	thrombin an	[00]
	derivatives	groups at various points	anticoagulants	vivo	arteriovenous	
			unticougurunto	1110	thrombosis	
Bacillus cereus strain	bacifrinase (AN24)	error-prone PCR, cloned into	its anticoagulant potency is	In vitro. In	APTT, PT, Fib, the	[66]
AB01		pET19b vector, and expressed	comparable to that of	vivo	platelet modulating	[00]
		in E5 coli BL21 DE3 cells	Nattokinase and warfarin		activity, aggregation	
					of platelets, clot	
					solubilities, BCT	
coumarin derivative E	esculin pentasulfate	sulfation	provides effect as an	In silico.	APTT, PT, TT,	[67]
	I		anticoagulant	In vitro,	Activated clotting	[···]
			0	ex-vivo, in	time (ACT), clot	
				vivo	rate (CR), platelet	
					function (PF) and	
					BCT	
the brown algae Punctaria	highly sulfated linear fucan	isolation	in APTT and platelet	In silico,	APTT, anti-FXa,	[68]
plantaginea	derivatives		aggregation tests, prevent clot	in vitro	platelet	
			formation		aggregation	
dabigatran	fluorinated dabigatran	inserting a hydrophobic group	7c, 7k, 7m, and 7o exhibited	In silico,	IC ₅₀ inhibition of	[69]
	derivatives	into the terminal benzene or	comparable inhibitory	In vitro, in	thrombin	
		pyridine ring and adding a	thrombin activity to dabigatran	vivo		
		fluorine atom to the C-2				
		position				
pyridine	pyrazole dipyridine analogs	pyridine-coupled pyrazoles	compound 6d inhibits	In vitro	By tube coagulase	[70]
			coagulation		test	
(2R,4R,5S)- and	enantiopure N-((4-	FAM-catalytic methodology	thrombin inhibitor	in silico	-	[10]
(2S,4S,5R)-enantiomers of	chlorophenyl)thio)acetyl					
4-(tert-butyl) 2-methyl 5-	pyrrolidine derivatives					
(4-bromophenyl)-						
pyrrolidine-2,4-						
dicarboxylate						
Casein	casein hydrolysate	in vitro simulated GI digestion	strong anticoagulant activity	In vitro	TT, APTT	[71]
3-(dimethylamino)-1-	tetrahydroquinoline	condensation	12 of the 40 micromolar	In silico,	Anti-FXa	[72]
(1,2,3,4-tetrahydro-	derivatives		compounds blocking mild FXa	In vitro		
2,2,4,7-tetramethyl-6-			have selectivity against trypsin,			
quinolinyl)-2-propen-1-			thrombin, factor IXa, and			
one I			factor XIa			

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Initial Compound	Synthetic Compound	Synthesis method	Anticoagulant activity	Test	Type Test	Ref.
aptamer	2 'fluoro-RNA aptamers	sequence	powerful anticoagulant by blocking the blood coagulation	In silico	-	[11]
Radix Salviae miltiorrhiae total extracts	cryptotanshinone (Cry), dihydrotanshinone I (Dih-I) and tanshinone IIA (Dih-I)	screening using TAC-HPLC- MS/MS system	cascade in its early stages has anticoagulant effect	In silico, in vitro	APTT, TT, PT	[73]
rivaroxaban	pyrazolyl piperidine analogues 4(a–h)	create several amide compounds that target the piperidine ring	compound 4a demonstrated strong anticoagulant action	In vitro, in silico	APTT, PT, anti- FXa	[74]
<i>Tarenna asiatica</i> fruit extract	<i>Tarenna asiatica</i> fruit extract MgO nanoparticles (TAFEMgO NPs)	the green biofunctional synthesis	TAFEMgO NPs act as anticoagulants and antiplatelets without toxicity	In vitro, in vivo	APTT, PT, TT, inhibit the platelet aggregation, bleeding time, clooting time	[50]
2-hydroxybenzaldehyde and 2- hydroxyacetophenone	new Schiff bases functionalized with amide and phenolic groups	condensation	all the compounds showed procoagulant activity	In vitro	Clotting time, platelet	[75]
Inositol	sulfated chiro-inositol (SCI), a non-saccharide mimetic of heparin	esterification	SCI is a potential FXIa allosteric inhibitor	Ex vivo, in vivo	PT, APTT, TEG and hemostasis study (HAS), bleeding tail, arterial and venous thrombosis model studies	[76]
hydrazone	(<i>E</i>)- <i>N</i> '-(1-(3-oxo-3 <i>H</i> - benzo[f]chromen-2- yl)ethylidene)benzohydrazide	a Knoevenagel condensation and a ring closure	1c may be used as an anticoagulant to avoid thrombosis	In vitro, In vivo	Plasma fibrinogen	[77]
Bacterial cellulose	a microbial nano cellulose- ZnO-Ag (CNCs) composite	nanotechnology	bacterial cellulose gained new activity when it was nanosized and coupled with nanoparticles	In vivo	PT, APTT	[51]
CD47	TAX2 peptide	genecust at a purity of 98%	TAX2 as an innovative antithrombotic agent	in vitro, in vivo	Platelet aggregation, bleeding times	[78]
Fucoidans	synthetic sulfated a-L- fucoside-pendant glycopolymers	cyanoxyl-mediated free-radical polymerization	activate human platelets	In vivo	Platelet aggregation	[79]
chondroitin sulfate	sulfated chondroitin sulfates	synthetic modification of chondroitin sulfate	increasing sulfation levels produced an anticoagulant response	In vitro	Clotting time, APTT	[80]
Melaleuca bracteata 'Revolution Gold'	betulinic acid (BA) and 3β- acetoxybetulinic acid (BAA)	isolated, acetylation	BAA has stronger antithrombotic, antiplatelet, and anticoagulant properties than BA	Ex vivo	Bleeding tail time, platelet aggregation	[81]
1 <i>H</i> -indole-3-yl-acetic acid methyl ester	the nano-property of dimethyl 2,2'-[2,2'-(ethane- 1,1-diyl) bis(1 <i>H</i> -indole-3,2- diyl)]-diacetate (DEBIC)	one-pot reaction	inhibiting venous thrombosis and inducing no bleeding side effect	In vivo	DVT inhibition, bleeding-reaction	[82]
2-(5-bromo-2,4-dihydro- 3-oxo-1,2,4-triazolyl- 4)acetic acid	sulfone II	oxidation	the compounds' anticoagulant activity was much lower than that of heparin sodium	In vitro	APTT, PT	[83]
isatin	new isatin-3-acylhydrazones	molecular hybridization	anti aggregation activity and high anticoagulant	In vitro	APTT, PT, Fib	[84]
Acylated Aminotriazoles	N-acylated aminotriazoles	microscale parallel synthetic	<i>N</i> -acylated aminotriazoles exhibited anticoagulant properties	In vitro	APTT, PT, FXIIa and/or thrombin inhibitors	[85]
carrageenan	carrageenan derivatives containing β-D-GalAp units	oxidized	showed a better anticoagulant effect	In vitro	APTT	[86]

Initial Compound	Synthetic Compound	Synthesis method	Anticoagulant activity	Test	Type Test	Ref.
a marine pyran-	pyran-isoindolone	chemical alteration of the C-2	F1-F4 and F6 were shown to	In vitro	Anti-thrombotic	[87]
isoindolone derivative	derivatives F1–F7	and C-20 phenol group moieties, as well as the C-1" carboxyl group	have strong fibrinolytic activity		activity	
tannic acid (TA)	-	-	platelet activity and thrombus development are both inhibited by TA	In silico, in vitro, in vivo	APTT, PT, Tail- bleeding time	[88]
curcuminoids	dibenzylidene ketone derivatives	the reaction of cyclopentanone	AK-1a and AK-2a severely prolonged bleeding	In silico, in vitro, In silico	Plasma recalcification time, Bleeding time	[89] e
poly-amidosaccharide	sulfated poly-amido- saccharides (sulPASs)	anionic ring-opening polymerization (AROP)	increase clotting time by reducing intrinsic coagulation	In vitro, in vivo, ix vivo	APTT, PT, FXa inhibition, Bleeding time	[90]
isatin	isatin derivatives	alkylation	the strongest antiplatelet action was seen in adenine derivatives of 5-methyl- and 5-ethylisatins	In vitro	platelet aggregation	[91]

Nanoparticles have a high surface area-to-volume ratio due to their small size. Nanoparticles reflect their bulk material's different electrical, magnetic, and optical characteristics. The synthesis of organic nanoparticles is a popular nanotechnology topic [51]. The study investigated a microbial nano cellulose-ZnO-Ag (CNCs) composite's anticoagulant. When coupled with nanoparticles, bacterial cellulose became an anticoagulant.

Anticoagulant Activity Assay

In silico study

Molecular docking. Molecular docking predicts compound-target protein binding [92]. This method includes algorithms such as molecular simulation, molecular dynamics, and fragment-based methods. Screening and prediction of a drug can be seen from its protein interaction, and a good docking score, glide energy, and glide model can utilize its natural ligand similarities [93]. Some software, receptor proteins, and target compounds used for docking new compounds for coagulants are shown in Table 3. From the screening table, one of the most commonly used software for docking is Autodock 4.2. Additionally, molecular docking was used to better understand the inhibitory actions of newly produced drugs.

The following technique was used to perform crossdocking processes to analyze the appropriateness and representativity of protein structure for virtual screening. Additional receptor and ligan complexes were acquired from the PDB, and their structures were overlaid on the evaluated receptor structure. This yielded quasi-native coordinates of bound ligands compared to the previously examined structure. The RMSD of a docked posture from its quasi-native conformation was used to evaluate drug docking to the receptor structure. A RMSD score of 2 Å was considered satisfactory [72]. Online docking servers include HADDOCK, ClusPro, HDOCK, HEX, NPDock, and MPRDock. However, many web-based docking systems, mainly those using rigid-based docking algorithms, are unable to modify the spatial form and atom coordinates of proteins [11].

Alshehri et al. [93] predicted antithrombotic activity of ten compounds from nature and tested them for docking. The compounds tested using a PASS server, and those showing fibrinolytic properties were caesalpinine c, caesalpinia a, vanillylamine, terpinen-4ol, dihydrocapsaicin, and 3-carene based on computeraided molecular modeling and ligand strength validated using binding energies. Cesalpinine c has a high docking score and has more thrombolytic solid action than other drugs [93]. In the study of Ren et al. [94], molecular docking simulations were done with SYBYL 6.9, and Ginsenoside Rg3 targets were estimated with PharmMapper. Cytoscape 3.6.1 was used to develop coagulation disease-component target tissues. Ginseng, red ginseng, notoginseng, Panax japonicus, and Panacis majoris rhizomes were tested for anticoagulant activity using tissue pharmacology and molecular docking [94]. The binding capability of four compounds from Danshen

Compound	Protein	Docking software	Simulation Software	Ref.
Caesalpinine c, caesalpinine a, vanillylamine, terpinen-	tissue plasminogen	Schrödinger-Maestro	-	[93]
4-ol, dihydrocapsaicin and 3-carene	activator	12.5		
Ginsenoside Rg3	1A4W	SYBYL 6.9	-	[94]
Cryptotanshinone, tanshinone I, dihydrotanshinone I	1DWC	AutoDock 4.2	-	[92]
and tanshinone IIA with thrombin or FXa				
Eleven designed compounds from dabigatran	1KTS	Surfex-Dock	Amber 14	[56]
Tetrahydropyrazolopyridone derivatives	2P16	Accelrys DS	-	[7]
		Visualizer 3.0 system		
Peptide from <i>Porphyra yezoensis</i>	6B74	pepATTRACT,	GROMACS 5.1.4	[57]
Thirty five novel peptides from casein	2BVR	Discovery Studio 2017, CDOCKER	-	[95]
Chinese patent medicine	2GDE, 2W26	AutoDockTools 4.2.6	-	[96]
Sulfation of citrus pectin	1F9Q, 1JMJ, 4J1Y,	Autodock VINA	Amber	[4]
	3NXP, 2OK5, 2WXW,			
	1MD7			
Pharmacophore model derived from dabigatran	1KTS	SYBYL-X 2.0	-	[97]
		program		
Fluorinated dabigatran analogues	1KTS	SYBYL-X 2.0.	-	[8]
		package		
Anthranilamide derivatives	2W26	FRED	Amber 18	[9]
Epicatechin (EC), epigallocatechin (EGC), epicatechin	1DWC	AutoDock 4.2	-	[98]
gallate (ECG), and epigallocatechin gallate (EGCG)				
acylated chitosan sulfate	1SR5	SwissDock web	-	[62]
A highly sulfated 3-linked -arabinan (Ab1)	1PPB, 1TBQ	AutoDock version 4.2	GROMACS 4.0.5	[63]
Heparin tetrasaccharide	3F1S, 3H5C	CLUSPRO	-	[99]
New bi-thiacoumarins derivatives	3KP9	PyRex	-	[64]
Ten new dabigatran derivatives (7a-j)	1KTS	SYBYL-X 2.0	-	[65]
Esculin pentasulfate	1E05	Autodock 4.0	-	[67]
Highly sulfated linear fucan derivatives	1TB6	Autodock 4.0 software	-	[68]
Fluorinated dabigatran derivatives	1KTS	SYBYL 2.0	-	[69]
Calceolarioside B	1PPB	SYBYL8.1 software,	GROMACS	[100]
(2 <i>R</i> ,4 <i>R</i> ,5 <i>S</i>)- and (2 <i>S</i> ,4 <i>S</i> ,5 <i>R</i>)-enantiomers of 4-(<i>tert</i> -	2ZC9, 1K1L	AutoDock 4.2.3	-	[10]
butyl) 2-methyl 5-(4-bromophenyl)-pyrrolidine-2,4-				
dicarboxylate				
Aptamer	1PFX	MPRDock	GROMACS	[11]
Cryptotanshinone (Cry), dihydrotanshinone I (Dih-I)	1DWC	SYBYL X 2.0	-	[73]
and tanshinone IIA (Dih-I)				
Pyrazolyl piperidine analogs 4(a-h)	2W26	MOE version 2019	-	[74]
1,2,3,4-Tetrahydroquinoline derivatives	4CRC, 1C5P	SOL	-	[72]
Tannic acid	4EKZ	SystemDock	-	[88]

Table 3. Target compounds, proteins and software for molecular docking of anticoagulant

extract (*Saliva miltiorrhiza* Bunge)—cryptotanshinone, tanshinone I, dihydrotanshinone I, and tanshinone IIA— with thrombin or FXa was validated using AutoDock 4.2 [92].

Simulation molecular dynamics. The stability and dynamics of the predicted docked complex are explored using molecular dynamics simulations. The molecular dynamics simulation measures root mean square deviations (RMSD), a radius of gyration (Rg), solvent accessible surface area (SASA), H-bond, and binding free energy. Calculating the backbone RMSD of the free protein and docked complex assessed their dynamic stability from the starting structures across the full journey. The RMSD from the start of the drug-binding region is less fluctuating to the end of the simulation, indicating high stability throughout the simulation of drug binding to the receptor. The stability and cohesiveness of free and complex protein systems during analysis were analyzed in terms of Rg. The Rg is defined as the mass-weighted root of a collection of atoms' average squared distance from the same center of mass. SASA is used to see the surface area of proteins interacting with their molecular solvents. H-bond is a vital intermolecular force that contributes to the stability of complexes between proteins and their binders. After that, the complex's interacting residues' center of mass (COM) interaction distance was also computed. The MM/PBSA method calculated the drug's target-protein receptor binding free energy. Molecular mechanics potential energy (electrostatic and van der Waals interaction) and free energy of solvation (polar and nonpolar solvation energies) are used to estimate binding energy from dynamic trajectories [57].

We utilized RMSF to examine the influence of protein changes during the simulation and looked at fluctuations per residue. The RMSF at the active site is regarded as generally steady between 0 and 1.5 Å. A simulated molecular mechanics/generalized Born surface area (MM/GBSA) analysis examined the complexes' binding free energies. The MM/GBSA technique calculates the binding free energy (ΔG_{bind}) between the ligand (L) and the receptor (R) to produce the complex (R-L) [9]. Khadse et al. [9] did molecular dynamic simulations utilizing Amber18 software examined FXa (GDP: 2W26) in complexation with rivaroxaban and compounds. Submerging the FXa-rivaroxaban complex in a water-truncated TIP3P octahedron neutralized the systems with Na⁺ and Cl⁻ ions. The peptide was modeled using the ff14SB force field [9]. Fernández et al. [63] run all simulations with GROMACS 4.0.5 and the GROMOS96 43a1 force field. The conditions periodic boundaries and the SPC water model dissolve uncomplexed human and bovine thrombin in a triclinic box, complexed to non-sulfated arabinan in exosite 2, and complexed to desulfated arabinan in exosite 1. The system was gradually heated from 50 to 310 °K and maintained at 1.0 atm [63].

Biological evaluation

In vitro. The intrinsic route was evaluated using APTT, the extrinsic pathway was assessed using PT, and the degree of fibrin polymerization was evaluated using TT by measuring the duration of fibrin production from fibrinogen. Anti-FXa to evaluate the general pathway of the blood coagulation cascade [14,71,101]. Chen et al. [48] studied blood plasma from healthy adult male rats mixed with 3.8% (v/v, 9:1) sodium citrate solution was tested for anticoagulant action. The platelet-poor plasma (PPP) supernatant was kept at -20 °C. New drugs are dissolved in deionized water. Before the anticoagulant activity test, the drug solution was incubated for 3 min at 37 °C with PPP. The CaCl₂ solution was heated and added to the mixture to begin anticoagulant testing. An automatic coagulometer measured clotting time by sensing active APTT, TT, and PT readings [48]. In the presence of new anticoagulant drugs, APTT prolongs but not PT and TT. APTT is specific for the intrinsic blood coagulation pathway, and drugs may interfere with associated clotting factors.

Panax herbs were tested for anticoagulant action *in vitro* using semi-automatic coagulation analysis using four detection devices to assess PT, TT, APTT, and Fib. Total saponin extraction from eight panax samples was diluted in five concentrations in sterile saline. The kit then was properly followed to measure PT, TT, APTT, and Fib. The anticoagulant effect was strongest when RTT, RPT, and RAPTT were greater than zero, and RFib was less than zero. More significant divergence from

zero a higher anticoagulant effect [94]. APTT and PT testing were also carried out by Sun et al. research from volunteer blood or rabbit blood to see the activity of tetrahydropyrazolopyridone derivatives [7].

New medications and standard drugs soluble in physiological buffer were combined with whole blood and incubated for 10 min in a thromboelastography container at 37 °C. The combination was then treated with a thrombin solution to begin whole-blood coagulation. A thromboelastography analyzer tracked clots until they stabilized or lasted an hour. The clot reaction time (R, min), clot kinetics (K, minutes), angle (α , degrees), and maximum amplitude (MA, measured at the widest point) were measured using a fixed plastic pin at 4.75° [49]. The target compound's anticoagulant activity was evaluated in vitro using argatroban as a control. Lyophilized human thrombin (national standard), isolated from human blood, was added and incubated for 10 min at 37 °C with the test drug dissolved in DMSO in various dilutions. The technology was then supplemented with a particular fluorogenic thrombin substrate. For 10 min at room temperature, a PerkinElmer Envision microplate reader measures relative fluorescence intensity dynamics. The starting rate of an enzyme reaction is the slope of the linear enzyme dynamics curve at the start. Excitation is 355 nm, and emission is 460 nm. Each well was measured 20 times per 20 s for 10 min. These conditions are used to monitor fluorescence over time. V_{max} slope indicates activity during a kinetic reaction. Calculate the 50% thrombin inhibition (IC₅₀) to determine concentration [8,56].

The thrombin/FXa inhibitory activity of naoxintong capsules extract was assessed using a modified chromogenic substrate and HPLC at 405 nm. Eclipse Plus C18 column (5 m, 2.1×150 mm) at 30 °C. For isocratic elution at 4 min, solvent A (water) and solvent B (acetonitrile) were mixed 55:45 (v/v). A 10 µL injection volume and 0.5 mL min⁻¹ flow rate were used [96]. FXase test to evaluate FX activation using amidolytic substrate assay due to the presence of exogenous anticoagulants via FIXa. Specific FX and anticoagulant concentrations were incubated with FIXa for 5 min at 25 °C in NaCl, Tris (pH 7.4) containing PL, CaCl₂, FVIII, and thrombin vesicles.

The reaction was then carried out using ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid (EDTA) while preserving the final concentration of the solution. ELISA plate readers measured FXa levels [62].

Pyrazole dipyridine was tested for anticoagulation against coagulase-positive MRSA using a tube coagulase assay. Sterile brine dissolved rabbit plasma. Plasma was mixed with different test substance doses, grown on MRSA overnight in Eppendorf tubes, and incubated at 37 °C for up to 4 h. Tip the tube to collect formation data and hourly anticoagulant activity. Rabbit plasma and rabbit plasma with MRSA were negative and positive controls, respectively, whereas dabigatran was the benchmark [70]. The plasma sample (100 L) and fractions were incubated in a 37 °C water bath for 1 min before adding calcium chloride and beginning the timer for the PRT test. Glass capillaries gently stirred plasma and fractions every 20 s to detect clots. PRT occurs between calcium chloride addition and the first clot [60]. In vivo. Sun et al. [7] did in vivo experimental venous thrombosis was performed using male mice administered orally. Pentobarbital sedated rats and exposed their stomachs. Delicately separated from the surrounding tissue, the inferior vena cava was wrapped in cotton thread under the left renal vein. Two layers of sutures seal the stomach. After 2 h, the stomach was reopened, the vena cava dissected longitudinally, and the thrombus removed. The dry weight of the generated thrombus was evaluated after 24 h at 37 °C [7]. Male Sprague-Dawley rats were studied in vivo utilizing a rat tail incision bleeding paradigm. Subcutaneous injections of zoletil were used to anesthetize male rats. The reference sample or novel medicines in physiological buffer were injected intravenously into the tail vein. The mice's tails were cut by 2 mm and submerged in a physiological buffer after 5 min. The student's t-test was used to analyze the bleeding time. A 0.05 P value was significant. Mouse survival probability was calculated using Kaplan-Meier [9,49]. Imran et al. [5] used the bleeding time to observe anticoagulant activity for the new chitosan derivative.

SD mice were injected with the test drug in 0.9% normal saline to block thrombin. After being injected

with anesthetic and fixed supine, the test mice gave freeflowing entire blood on the fourth day. Neck skin was sliced. The right external carotid vein and left carotid artery are separated by one bypass tube. This tube was threaded with a surgical thread, and several topics were injected into the tail vein. The bloodstream is instantly opened for 15 min. The thread is then lifted and examined. By deducting the weight of the surgical suture, the moist weight of the thrombus was estimated. The wet thrombus weight experimental groups' mean and standard deviation values were computed [8,65].

Ex-vivo. Male ICR mice were used for *ex vivo* coagulation testing. An empty group and four groups of mice received the novel drug intragastrically for seven days before blood collection. PPH was made by centrifuging retro-orbital plexus blood in sodium citrate. Anticoagulant activity of APTT, PT, TT, and Fib was tested with a coagulation analyzer [9,60]. Coagulation measurements are used to assess antithrombotic efficacy in experimental rats. Activated clotting time (ACT), clotting rate (CR), platelet function (PF), and clotting time (BCT) were assessed retro-orbitally after blood collection in 3.2% citrate. A coagulation sonoclot and a platelet function analyzer were used for ex vivo testing. Representative data exhibiting changes in clot signaling patterns, blood was taken in a cuvette that had already been incubated in the machine, CaCl₂ was injected to commence the coagulation cascade, and the data was recorded [67].

CONCLUSION

The review has highlighted the promising potential of numerous newly synthesized compounds, derived from both chemical sources and plants, to serve as effective anticoagulants. These findings underscore the importance of ongoing research in this area, as the development of novel anticoagulants holds significant implications for the management of various medical conditions. While the reviewed compounds show promise, it is crucial to emphasize the need for further investigation into their anticoagulant activity and potential toxicity. Future research should focus on conducting in-depth studies to validate their safety and efficacy.

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CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

Engrid Juni Astuti wrote the manuscript. Slamet Ibrahim and Muhammad Ali Zulfikar did supervision. Sophi Damayanti develops the concept, supervises, and reviews the manuscript.

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