CHAPTER II

HISTORICAL

The Family Periplocaceae

-1. Introduction to Periplocaceae

Periplocaceae is a family of about 40-50 genera and almost 200 species in the tropics and the warm temperate regions of the old world, especially tropical Africa (Shaw, 1988). Plants in this family are incorporated in Asclepiadaceae by most authors. This, however, is considered unjustified by some as these two families although are closely related to each other, they still have some distinguished differences. According to Hutchinson's classification, Periplocaceae was separated as a family in order Apocynales, other families of which include Plocospermaceae, Apocynaceae, and Asclepiadaceae (Hutchinson, 1960).

The description of plants in the Periplocaceae is as below (Shaw, 1988; Dassanayake, 1983; Hutchinson, 1960):-

Perennial laticiferous herbs or shrubs with wiry of softly woody stems, erect, scrambling or twining; rootstock sometimes tuber-like, fleshly or woody. Leaves opposite, simple, entire, linear to obovate, pinnately nerved; stipule absent, but sometimes a nodal stipular annulus, which may become enlarged, indurated and variously dissected. Flowers bisexual, but sometimes functionally unisexual and then dioecious, actinomorphic, 5-merous, usually small, rarely

large and showy. Inflorescences terminal or lateral cymes; bracts and bracteoles minute. Calyx 5, tube short or obsolescent, valvate or imbricate, but opening very early. Corolla sympetalous, 5-lobed or-fid, tube short or sometimes long as or longer than lobes; lobes usually contorted, rarely .valvate or imbricate, overlapping in bud to right. Corona of five free lobes of various form arising from base of stamen filaments, sometimes of linear or filiform scales, rarely absent or reduced to minute tubercles. Stamens 5, alternating with the corolla lobes and inserted at or near the base of the tube, filaments free at the apex or from the base; anthers 2-locular, introse, basifixed, connivent at the apex above the expanded style-head, longitudinally dehiscent along their inner side; pollen granular, the grains united in tetrads, discharged on the five spoonshaped pollen-carriers alternating with the anthers, derived from and attached to the style-head; disk absent. Carpels 2, free from each other but united through the style-head; stigmatic surfaces concealed by the pollencarriers; ovules numerous, multiseriate on a single adaxial placenta. Fruits of two follicles, these parallel or divergent, sometimes only one by abortion, sessile, elongated to ovoid or ellipsoidal, smooth, warted or winged, dehiscing lengthwise on the adaxial side; seeds compressed and often margined, mostly crowned with a coma or long silky hairs; endosperm present; embryo straight, nearly as long as seed; cotyledons flat.

Periplocaceae is distinguished from Asclepiadaceae characters of the stamen and pollen. The former stamens of free filaments and granular pollen whereas latter have those of connate ones and waxy pollen-masses called pollinia. The pollination mechanism of the two is unique. This deals with a device to ensure crosspollination by insects, which although highly specialised in both, still fundamentally differs in structure. Periplocaceae, the pollen is discharged on to the shaped carriers and removed by visiting insects to whose heads the glandular base of the carrier adheres 1988). As for the Asclepiadaceae, the pollen-masses are attached by caudicles of varied form to sutured corpuscles derived from style-apex. The proboscis or legs of an are grasped by these pollen-translators and the pollenmasses are then removed (Henderson, 1974).

According to "The Families of Flowering Plants" (Hutchinson, 1960), 50 names of genera in the Periplocaceae had been mentioned. They are listed as the following together with their distribution (Shaw, 1988).

Aechmolepis Decne. (Tropical and South Africa)

Atherandra Decne. (South East Asia , Malay Peninsula , Sumatra, Java)

Atherolepis Hook. f. (Burma, Siam)

Atherostemon Blume. (Burma, Malaya)

Baroniella Constantin & Gallaud. (Madagascar)

Baseonema Schlechter & Rendle (Tropical East Africa)

Batesanthus N.E.Br. (West Africa)

Brachylepis Hook. & Arn. (South America)

Camptocarpus Decne. (Madagascar, Mauritius)

Chlorocodon Hook.f. (Tropical Africa)

Chlorocyathus Oliv. (Tropical East Africa)

Cochlanthus Balf.f. (Socotra)

Cryptolepis R.Br. (Paleotropics)

Cryptostegia R.Br. (Madagascar)

Decalepis Wight & Arn. (Peninsula of India)

Ectadiopsis Benth. (Tropical and South Africa)

Ectadium E.Mey. (South Africa)

Finlaysonia Wall. (Indomalaya)

Gongylosperma King & Gamble. (Malay Peninsula)

Gonocrypta Baillon. (Madagascar)

Gymnanthera R.Br. (Malaysia)

Gymnolaema Benth. (Tropical East Africa)

Harpanema Decne. (Madagascar)

Hemidesmus R.Br. (South India, South East Asia,

Malaysia)

Ischnolepis Jumelle & Perrier. (Madagascar)

Macropelma

Mafekingia Bail. (Tropical and South Africa)

Menabaea Bail. (Madagascar)

Mitolepis Balf.f. (Socotra)

Myriopteron Griff. (Assam to Malay Peninsula)

Omphalogonus Bail. (West Equatorial Africa)

Parquetina Bail. (West Equatorial Africa)

Pentanura Blume. (Burma, Sumatra)

Pentopetiopsis Constantin & Gallaud. (Madagascar)

Pentopetia Decne (Madagascar)

Periploca L. (North and Tropical Africa, Orient, East Asia)

Phyllanthera Blume. (Malay Peninsula, Java)

Raphionacme Harv. (Tropical and South Africa)

Schlechterella K.Schum. (East Africa)

Stelmatocrypton

Stomatostemma N.E.Br. (South East Tropical Africa, South Africa)

Streptocaulon Wight. & Arn. (Indomalaya)

Streptomanes K.Schum. (New Guinea)

Symphytonema Schlechter. (Madagascar)

Tacazzea Decne. (Tropical and South Africa)

Tanulepis Balf.f. (Madagascar)

Telectadium Bail. (Indochina)

Utleria Bedd.ex Benth. (South India)

Zaczatea

Zygostelma Benth. (Siam)

2. Periplocaceous Plants in Thailand

The occurence of Periplocaceous plants in Thailand had been reported by A.Kerr (he incorperated them in Asclepiadaceae) in the Florae Siamensis Enumeratio (1951) and by Tem Smitinand in the Thai Plant Names (1980). Those plants

include various species as shown below :-

Atherandra Decne.

A. acutifolia Decne.

Atherolepis Hook.f.

- A. pierrei Cost.
- A. pierrei Cost.var. glabra Kerr

Local names: Op choei thao อบเชยเถา (Central); Op choei paa อบเชยป่า (Bangkok); Chueak thao เชือกเถา (Nakhon Sawan); Kam yaan กำหยาน , Kuu din ภู้คิน , Khrueo khao mai เครือเขาใหม่ (Northern).

Cryptolepis R.Br.

C. buchanani Roem. & Schult.

Local names: Thao en on เถาเอ็นอ่อน , Muei เมื่อย (Central); Mon teenpet หมอนดีนเป็ด (Surat thani); Yaa lilen หญ้า ลิเลน (Pattani); Khruea thao en เครือเถาเอ็น (Chiang Mai); Kuan กวน (Shan-Mae Hong Son); No-o-mee นอออหมี่ (Karen-Mae Hong Son); Teenpet khruea ตีนเป็ดเครือ (Northern).

C. elegans Wall. ex G.Don

Local names: Yaan kheephueng ย่านขี้ผึ้ง (Satun); Seekoh ซีโคะ (Nakhon Ratchasima).

Cryptostegia R.Br.

C. glandiflora R.Br.

Local names: Daao pradup ดาวประดับ , Baanburee muang บานบุรีม่วง (Bangkok); Rubber vine. Finlaysonia Wall.

F. maritima (Blume.) Back. = F. obovata Wall.

Local names: Kra phoh plaa กระเพาะปลา (Chanthaburi).

Gongylosperma King & Gamble.

- G. curtisii King & Gamble.
 - G. lanuginosum Rindl.

Gymnanthera R.Br.

G. nitida R.Br.

Myriopteron Griff.

M. extensum (Wight) K. Schum. = M. paniculatum Griff.
Local names: Cha em ชะเอม , Khruea khao khom luang
เครือเขาขมหลวง; Khaao saan ข้าวสาร (Central); Khom lueang
ขมเหลือง (Chiang Mai); Paang mai ข้างไม้ (Lumpang); Oi saam
รนลก อ้อยสามสวน ,Oi saen suan อ้อยแสนสวน (Northern), Kon
กอน (Shan-Mae Hong Son).

Periploca Linn.

P. purpurea Kerr

Streptocaulon Wight & Arn.

S. juventas (Lour.) Merr.

Local names: Thao prasong เถาประสงค์ (Prachin Buri);
Chukkarohinee จุกไรหินี , Nuai nang นวยนั่ง , Noi nang
นอยนั่ง (Chumphon); Tamyaah haak hom ตำยานฮากหอม (Nakhon
Sawan); Yang samut noi หยั่งสมุทรน้อย (Chiang Mai).

S. kleinii Wight & Arn.

Local names: Chukkarohinee จุกโรทีนี (Chai Nat); Khee

duean ขึ้เคือน (Surat Thani); Chai song ไซสง (Chaiyaphum).

S. wallichii Wight

Local names: Duei dip เดือยดิบ (Phatthalung).

S. tomentosum Wight var. latifolium Cost.

Telectadium Bail.

T. edule Bail.

Zygostelma Benth.

Z. benthamii Bail.

Local names: Op choei thao อบเชยเถา (Chai Nat) ;
Khruea khao luak เครือเขาลวก , Tamyaan tua phuu ตำยานตัวผู้ (Nakhon Sawan).

3. Medicinal Plants in Periplocaceae

Some plants in the family Periplocaceae have been used as folk medicines by the natives in various countries.

Those are listed here as follows:-

Chlorocodon sp.

In Uganda, the plant is known by the native name of "Murundo". The root of the plant has a pleasant adour intermediate between those of vanillin and piperonal, and is said to be chewed by the natives for sweentening the breath (Goulding and Pelly, 1970).

Cryptolepis buchanani Roem. & Schult.

In India , the santals make a preparation from the plant which they give to children to cure them of rickets. They also combined it with *Euphorbia microphylla* (Euphorbia-

ceae) in the formation of a medicine to be given to women when the supply of milk is deficient or fails (Kirtikar and Basu, 1981). Decoction of its stems are used by some rural people as a cure for paralysis (Dutta et al, 1978).

Decalepsis hamiltonii Wight & Arn.

The root of this plant has a strong aromatic adour and a sweet sarsaparilla-like taste accompanied by a tingling sensation on the tongue. In India, it is considered to be an appetiser and blood purifier (Council of Scientific & Industrial Research, 1969).

Hemidesmus indicus R.Br.

This plant is known in the common name of "Indian Sarsaparilla". The roots of the plant are medicinal constitute the Hemidesmus or Anatomul which is official Pharmacopoeia; they were one time official also The drug has a characteristic fragrance and aromatic sweetish taste. It has long enjoyed a reputation as alternative, demulcent, diaphoretic, diuretic and purifier. It is employed in nutritional disorders, syphilis, chronic rheumatism, gravel and other urinary diseases skin infections. It is administered in the form of powder, infusion or decoction as syrup. It is used as a substitute for Sarsaparilla (from Smilax spp.) and employed as a vehicle for potassium iodide and for purposes for which Sarsaparilla is used. A syrup made from the root is used flavouring agent and the preparation of a sherbet which

reported to have cooling property (Council of Scientific & Industrial Research, 1969). The root in combination with other drugs is prescribed in snake-bite and scorpion-sting but it is not an antidote to either snake-venom or scorpion-venom (Kirtikar and Basu, 1981).

In addition to the root other parts of the plant are also useful. The leaves are good for vomiting, colds, wounds, and leucoderma. The stems are diaphoretic, diuretic, laxative; good for disease of the brain, the liver, the kidney; useful in syphilis, uterine complaints, leucoderma, paralysis, cough, asthma; gargle, good for toothache. The milky juice is used for relieving inflammation in the eye (Kirtikar and Basu, 1981).

Myriopteron extensum (Wight) K.Schum.

In Thailand, the root of the plant is used as an expectorant, an antitussive and for treatments of a throat disease. The powdered root mixed with water is also claimed to be taken internally for eye-sore (Sangium Pongboonrod, 1950).

Periploca aphylla Decne.

In India, the milky juice is used as an external application to tumours and swelling. The flowers are eaten, and a decoction of the bark serves as a purgative medicine. The plant is considered as a fodder for camels and a cure for pains in the stomach (Kirtikar and Basu, 1981).

4. Chemical constituents of Periplocaceae

Plants in the Periplocaceae are found to contain a wide range of chemical constituents: triterpenoids, steroids, flavonoids, alkaloids and miscellaneous compounds. The interesting group is a member of steroids, the cardenolide which is characteristic to the closely-related Asclepiadaceae.

Listes of compounds found in various species of the family Periplocaceae are shown in Table 2.1.

(Compounds with the asterisk are obtained as hydrolysed products.)

Table 2.1 Chemical constituents of Periplocaceae

Botanical origin	Plant part	Chemical substance	Category	References
1. Chlorocodon				
C. sp.	roots	p-methoxysalicylaldehyde	Miscellaneous	Mascre & Paris, 1947
1)1	roots & seeds	unidentified alkaloids	Alkaloid	Mascre & Paris, 1947
C. whiteii	roots	p-methoxysalicylaldehyde	Miscellaneous	Gailly, 1947
2. Cryptolepis				
C. buchanani	leaves	cryptosin cryptanoside A cryptanoside B	Cardenolide "	Venkateswara et al, 1989 Purushothaman et al, 1988
	roots	cryptanoside C cryptanoside D germanicol docosonate buchanin sarmentogenin sarmentocymarin	" " Hiscellaneous Cardenolide "	Khare & Shah, 1983 Shah & Khare, 1981
	stems	buchananine 1,3,6-0-trinicotinoyl-a-D- glucopyranose	Alkaloid Alkaloid (glycoside)	Dutta et al, 1978 " 1980
C. sanguinolenta	roots	cryptolepine quinoline	Alkaloid "	Gellert et al, 1951 Dwuma-Badu et al, 1978
	unclassified part	cryptosine	Alkaloid	Raymond-Hanet, 1937
3.Cryptostegia				
C. grandiflora	leaves & stems	cryptograndoside A	Cardenolide	Aebi & Reichstein, 1950
		cryptograndoside B	n	π
	leaves	cryptograndoside C 16-desacetylanhydro cryp-	n	п
		tograndoside A 16-desacetylanhydro cryp- tograndoside B	п	п

			1	
	leaves & stems	oleandrigenin	Cardenolide	Doskotch et al, 1972
		propionylgitoxigenin	u	а
		16-anhydrogitoxigenin	n	п
		gitoxigenin	Ħ	7
		oleandrigenin 3-rhamnoside	π	n n
		-		
C. madagascariensis	leaves & stems	oleandrigenin	Cardenolide "	Sanduja et al, 1984
•		16-anhydrogitoxigenin	п	я
		digitoxigenin	t	п
		16-anhydrogitoxigenin-3- rhamnoside	4	п
		16-propionylgitoxigenin-3	п	п
		-rhamnoside 14,16-dianhydrogitoxigenin	ħ	п
		-3-rhamnoside		
		ß-sitosterol	Sterol	Douis et al, 1985
		lup-20(29)-en-3B-ol	Triterpenoid	π
		lup-20(29)-en-3-one	Я	π
-		3B-hydroxyurs-12-en-28-oic	π	· ·
		acid)
				6
4.Decalepis			,	3.
D. hamiltonii	roots	4-methoxyresorcylaldehyde	Miscellaneous	Rao and Iyengar, 1923
		a-amyrin	Triterpenoid	Murti & Seshadri, 1941c
		ß-amyrin	n	a
		ß-amyrin acetate	Ħ	n n
		lupeol	n	et
1		inositol	n	Murti & Seshadri, 1941a
		2,4-НО (MeO) С _б Н ₃ СНО	rt	Murti & Seshadri, 1941b
5.Finlaysonia				
F. obovata	leaves	a-amyrin acetate	Triterpenoid	Pradhan & Mukhopadhyay,1985
		B-amyrin acetate	i i i i i i i i i i i i i i i i i i i	n unrediction in unredictive in the state of
		stigmasterol	Sterol	п
	bark	lupeol acetate	Triterpenoid	π
	leaves & bark	ß-sitosterol	Sterol	я
	TOUTES & DOLL	ursolic acid	Triterpenoid	π
			TITOCIPEROIU	
6.Hemidesmus				
H. indicus	twigs	desinine	Steroid	Oberai et al, 1985
			(glycoside)	
	roots	2-hydroxy-4-methoxy-	Miscellaneous	Dutta et al, 1938
		benzaldehyde hemidesmol	Char-1	n
ı İ	: 1	neutrasmot	Sterol	,
		hemidosterol	Sterol	4

		1 1 1	<i>a</i> . 1	g.
		hemidosterol	Sterol	
		a-amyrin B-amyrin	Triterpenoid	Padhy et al, 1973
		B-amyrin acetate	я	et
		lupeol	Ħ	п
		lupeol acetate	π	Padhy et al, 1973
		lupeol octaconsanoate	n	n n
		hexatriacontane		n
	1 1	ß-sitosterol	Sterol	Chatterjee & Bhattacharyya,
400				1955
	roots,leaves,	cholesterol	Sterol	Heble & Chadha, 1978
	stems			•
		campesterol	n	n n
		16-dehydropregnenolone	Steroid	e .
	leaves	rutin	Plavonoid	Subramanian & Nair, 1968
			(glycoside)	
2 (1]			
7.Menabea				
M. venenata	roots	menabein	و المعامية	Daymand Harab 1020
m. venenata	roots	menabein menabegenin	Cardenolide "	Raymond-Hamet, 1936 Prerejacque, 1959
		Henabegenin		Frerejacque, 1909
8.Pentopetia				
o i i e no o pe o i a				
P. androsaemifolia	bark	periplocymarin	Cardenolide	Golab et al, 1959
		digitoxigenin	n n	n
		cymarin	п	(t
		periplogenin	*	п
			_ 10	
	[
9.Periploca				
P. aphylla		$C_{25}H_{42}O_3$	Resin alcohol	Chopra et al, 1937
1	l	, ,		
Į.	above ground		Triterpenoid	Mitsuhashi & Tomimoto,1971
	part	oleanoic acid maslinic acid		a a
]	Basiinic acid B-sitosterol B-O-glucopy-	Sterol	π
		-ranoside	(glycosides)	
	[Tanagrac	(81)costaes/	
P. calophylla	twigs	calocin	Steroid	Srivastava et al, 1982
	}		(glycoside)	
		calocinin	, ,	Sethi et al, 1988
		plocin	q	Deepak et al. 1985a
		plocigenin	Steroid	4
		plocinine	Steroid	Deepak et al, 1985b
			(glycoside)	
		locin	*	Deepak et al, 1986
		nonohydroxyolean-12-ene-28	Triterpenoid	Srivastava et al. 1983
		-carboxylic acid	a	п
		dihydroxyolean-12-ene-28-	•	"
		-carboxylic acid		n.
		2.3.23-trihydroxyolean-12- ene-28-carboxylic acid		
		ene-40-carboxyric acid		
			1	

bark periplocymarin Solaculu & Herman, 1934					
leaves, stems rutin Plavonoid Melin, 1963, 1964 twining parts quercetin glycoside twining parts quercetin glycoside stems cyanidin peonidin bark scopoletin unidentified counarin 4-methorysalicylaldehyde leaves isochlorogenic acid sicohlorogenic acid neochlorogenic acid stems ursolic acid Triterpenoid Zorina et al, 1966 P. laevigata stems, roots B-sitosterol lupeol a-mayrin stems B-amyrin acetate periplocadiol Stems strophanthidin glycoside cymarin P. nigrescens roots strophanthidin glycoside cymarin wood strophanthidol Wood Schenker et al, 1954 wood l68-hydroxystrophanthidin convallotoxin Berthold et al, 1965a convallotoxin Berthold et al, 1965a	P. graeca	1 1	periplocin	Cardenolide	Stoll & Renz, 1939 Komissarenko & Bagirov,1969
leaves isoquercitin astragalin esculentin glycoside twining parts quercetin glycoside typenidin bark scopoletin unidentified counarin 4-methoxysalicylaldebyde Hiscellaneous Solaculu et al. 1935 Helin. 1963, 1964 Helin. 1963, 1964 Helin. 1963, 1964 Helin. 1966 Triterpenoid Zorina et al. 1966 P. laevigata stems.roots B-sitosterol lupeol aragyrin stems G-amyrin roots B-amyrin acetate periplocadiol P. nigrescens roots strophanthidin strophanthidin strophanthidin glycoside cymarin wood strophanthidol vood l68-hydroxystrophanthidin* convallotoxin* Berthold et al. 1965a		bark	periplocymarin	A	Solaculu & Herrman, 1934
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esculentin glycoside twining parts quercetin glycoside twining parts cyanidin peonidin bark scopoletin unidentified coumarin 4-methoxysalicylaldehyde leaves.stems leaves chlorogenic acids isochlorogenic acid neochlorogenic acid neochlorogenic acid Stems P. laevigata stems, roots B-amyrin roots B-amyrin roots B-amyrin roots B-amyrin stems B-amyrin roots B-amyrin stems B-amyrin roots B-amyrin roots B-amyrin stems B-amyrin roots B-amyrin stems B-amyrin roots B-amyrin roots B-amyrin roots B-amyrin stems B-amyrin roots B-amyrin roots B-amyrin roots B-amyrin roots B-amyrin roots B-amyrin roots B-amyrin Sesquiterpene Askri et al, 1989 Marks et al, 1975 Marks et al, 1975 Schenker et al, 1954 Wood 168-hydroxystrophanthidin convallotoxin Berthold et al, 1965a	•	leaves	_	R ff	Komissarenko & Bagirov,1969
stems cyanidin peonidin bark scopoletin Coumarin dentified coumarin 4-methoxysalicylaldehyde leaves.stems leaves isochlorogenic acidd neochlorogenic acidd neochlorogenic acidd stems ursolic acid Se-sitosterol lupeol a-amyrin stems B-amyrin roots B-amyrin acetate periplocadiol periplocadiol strophanthidin strophanthidin strophanthidin strophanthidin strophanthidin strophanthidin strophanthidin strophanthidin wood strophanthidin wood li68-hydroxystrophanthidin convallotoxin " Schenker et al, 1985a			-	π	Melin, 1964
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unidentified coumarin 4-methoxysalicylaldehyde leaves.stems leaves leave		stems	·	R R	Melin. 1975
d-methoxysalicylaldehyde		bark		Coumarin	Komissarenko & Bagirov,1969
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roots B-amyrin acetate periplocadiol Sesquiterpene Askri et al. 1989 Cardenolide Warks et al, 1975 strophanthidin glycoside cymarin wood strophanthidol """ Schenker et al, 1954 Wood 16B-hydroxystrophanthidin "" Berthold et al, 1965a convallotoxin* """	P. laevigata	stems, roots	lupeol		Askri et al, 1982
P. nigrescens roots strophanthidin strophanthidin glycoside cymarin wood strophanthidol the strophanthidin strophanthidol strophanthidol n Schenker et al, 1989 Schenker et al, 1975 n Berthold et al, 1965a convallotoxin* n Berthold et al, 1965a		stems	3-amyrin	п	п
strophanthidin glycoside cymarin wood strophanthidol "Schenker et al, 1954 wood 16B-hydroxystrophanthidin* convallotoxin* "Berthold et al, 1965a		roots	1		" Askri et al, 1989
wood 16B-hydroxystrophanthidin* "Berthold et al, 1965a convallotoxin* "	P. nigrescens	roots	strophanthidin glycoside	Cardenolide "	Marks et al, 1975
convallotoxin* "		wood	strophanthidol	ū	Schenker et al, 1954
		wood		π	Berthold et al, 1965a
16-dehydrostrophanthidin "			16-acetoxystrophanthidin [‡]	n 11	Berthold et al, 1965b
3-0-digitoxosyl-16-dehydro " -strophanthidin*			3-0-digitoxosyl-16-dehydro	п	n
3-0-rhamnosyl-16-acetoxy- " strophanthidin*			3-0-rhamnosyl-16-acetoxy-	ď	п
B-sitosterol-B-D-glucoside Steroid Marks et al. 1975 a-anyrin Triterpenoid "			B-sitosterol-B-D-glucoside a-amyrin	1	Marks et al. 1975
B-amyrin "			S-amyrin	<u>-</u>	"

	leaves	isorhoifolin apigenin ursolic acid	Flavonoid " Triterpenoid	Ogundaini & Okafor, 1987
P.sepiu a	root bark	3-0-[2-0-acetyl-B-D-digit-alo-pyranosyl(1->4)-B-D-cynaropyranoside] 20-0-[B-D-glucopyranosyl(1->6)-B-D-digitalopyranoside] of preg-5-ene-3B, 20(S)-triol and preg-5-ene-3B, 20(S)-digitalopyranoside]	Steroid (glycoside)	Itokawa et al, 1988a
		preg-5-ene-3B,16B,20(R)- triol 20-0-B-D glucopyra- nosyl (1->6)-B-D-glucopyr- anosyl (1->2)-B-D-digital- opyranoside	п	н
		preg-5-ene-3B,20(S)-diol 3-0-[B-D-digitalopyranosyl (1->4)B-D-cymaropyrancside] 20-0-[B-D-glucopyranosyl (1->6)-B-D-glucopyranosyl (1->2)B-D-digitalopyranoside]	α	н
	cortex	preg-5-ene-3B-20a-diol 20-0-B-D-glucopyranosyl (1->6}-B-D-glucopyranosyl (1->2)-B-D-digitalopyrano- side	t	Sakuma et al, 1969
	antitumor fraction	periplocosides A,B and C periplocosides M,D,B,L,N periplocosides J,K,P,O	M M	Itokawa et al, 1988b "1988c "1988d
	cortex and young seedlings	periplocin scopoletin 4-methoxysalicylaldehyde B-sitosterol B-sitosterol B-D-glucoside	Cardenolide Coumarin Miscellaneous Sterol Steroid	Komissarenko et al, 1983 Shoji et al, 1967



The Flavonoids

1. Introduction to Flavonoids

Flavonoids represent one of the most numerous and widespread group of natural constituents. They are phenolic derivatives containing fifteen carbon atoms in their basic nucleus. Such carbons are arranged in a C_6 - C_3 - C_6 configuration that is two aromatic rings linked by a three carbon unit which may or may not form a third ring. For convenience the rings are labelled A,B and C and the individual carbon atoms are referred to by a numbering system which utilizes ordinary numerals for the A- and C-rings and "primed" numerals for the B-ring. The common structures of flavonoids are based on the nucleus of flavan or 2-phenyl benzopyran (1) which contains a pyran ring as the C-ring.

(1) flavan

Naturally, flavonoids occur more commonly in the form of glycoside than of free aglycone and O-glycosides are found more frequently than C-glycosides. These compounds can be found in all parts of the higher plants: root, stem, leaf, flower, pollen, fruit, seed, wood and bark. According to their natural occurence, flavonoids can be

regarded into two groups as the major flavonoids and the minor ones. The former which occupied the majority of natural flavonoids include flavone, flavonols, and anthocyanidins together with their glycosides termed anthocyanins. The latter are the others such as flavanone, dihydroflavonols, chalcones, aurones, etc. The classification of these compounds into the individual groups was described in the later section.

2. Classification of Flavonoids

Flavonoids are classified according to the oxidation level of the ${\rm C}_3$ unit in their molecule as the following:-

2.1 Anthocyanidins

The constitution common to all anthocyanidins is the 2-phenylbenzopyrylium or flavylium structure ($\underline{2}$):

(2) flavylium cation

The hydroxylation patterns in natural anthocyanidins may be classified into the three basic pigment groups of pelargonidin (3), cyanidin (4) and delphinidin (5), all of which are hydroxylated in 3-, 5-, and 7-position in common, differ only in the number of B-ring hydroxyls. Because of their ionic character, both the intensity and shade of

colour of anthocyanidins vary with changes in pH. The number of hydroxyl groups in the B-ring is also correlated with colour properties. In acid solution (methanol-HCl), pelargonidin with one B-ring hydroxyls, is orange-red, cyanidin with two is magenta and delphinidin with three is mauve. These three anthocyanidins together with three methylated derivatives, peonidin ($\underline{6}$), petunidin ($\underline{7}$), and malvidin ($\underline{8}$), are very widespread in nature; of these, cyanidin is the most common (Ribereau-Gayon, 1972).

- HO OH OH OR'
- (3) pelargonidin; R = H
- (4) cyanidin; R = OH
- $(\underline{5})$ peonidin; $R = OCH_3$
- $(\underline{6})$ delphinidin; R = R'= H
- (7) petunidin; R=CH₃, R'=H
- (8) malvidin; R=R'=CH3

Glycosylation of anthocyanidins produces anthocyanins, the majority of which occur in the dissolved state in the cell sap of flowers, fruits, and other plant organs. The sugar components which have been frequently found in natural anthocyanins are glucose, rhamnose, galactose and gentiobiose. The attachment of sugars is found in a majority of cases to be at position 3 and less frequently at position 5. (Geissman, 1962).

2.2 Flavones and Flavonols

The flavone nucleus is 2-phenylbenzopyrone ($\underline{9}$) and that of the flavonol is 3-hydroxyflavone ($\underline{10}$).

$$(\underline{9})$$

$$(\underline{10})$$

The flavones widely distributed in the angiosperms, for examples, are apigenin (11) and luteolin (12). Tricin (13), on the contrary, is common only in grasses. Flavone itself, which has no substituent in either benzene rings and which occur in *Primula*, is one of the less common member of this class and so is chrysin (5,7-dihydroxyflavone), a constituent of the heartwood of species of *Pinus*.

As to the flavonols, the most widespread of all, also of all flavonoids, is quercetin (14), especially being one of the principal phenolic constituents of plants. Kaempferol (15) and myricetin (16) are also widely distributed. Methylation of the OH groups also occur; the best known Omethylated derivative is isorhamnetin (17), which is present in the pollen of some plants (Riberean-Gayon, 1972).

- (<u>11</u>) apigenin; R=R'=H
- (12) luteolin; R=OH, R'=H
- (13) tricin; R=R'=OCH₃
- (14) quercetin; R=OH, R'=H
- (<u>15</u>) kaempferol; R=R'=H
- (16) myricetin; R=R'= OH
 - (17) isorhamnetin; R=OCH₃, R'=H

Common flavones and flavonols, although widespread in flower petals, do not contribute to their colour. However, flavonols make some contribution if they are methylated or have unusual glycosidic patterns. It must be emphazised that although flavones do not contribute directly to flower colour, they can act as co-pigments intensifying the colour of yellow flavonols, chalcones and aurones. Colourless flavones and flavonols appear to provide "body" to white, cream and ivory-coloured flowers. The major contributors to this phenomenon are kaempferol and quercetin (Goodwin and Mercer, 1983). In general flavones and flavonols make no contribution to fruit colours although they are widely distributed in fruit. Flavonols also occur with great frequency in leaves.

Glycosylation of flavones and flavonols may occur through either O- or C-glycosidic linkages but O-glycosides is more frequently encountered. Six monosaccharides commonly

found in O-glycosidic combination are glucose, galactose, glucoronic acid, xylose, rhamnose, and arabinose; sophorose is the most common for disaccharides (Harborne et al, 1975). Usually the sugar residue in flavonol glycosides is attached at position 3, a second sugar residue if present, being frequently in position 7. Unlike what is so usual in the anthocyanins, glycosylation at position 5 is extremely rare. In case of flavones, which lack of OH group at position 3, the principal known glycosides have a sugar residue at position 7, but a number of 5-glucosides are known (Riberean-Gayon, 1972).

2.3 Flavanones and Dihydroflavonols

The flavanones are derived from the flavones by elimination of the double bond in the central heterocycle. Naringenin (18) and eriodictyol (19), related respectively to apigenin and luteolin, are the best known. The flavanones are fairly widely distributed, especially in higher plants such as Rosaseae, Rutaceae, Gluminosae, Compositae, Hydrophyllaceae and Pinaceae, and in the Fern family, Polypodiaceae (Geissman, 1962).

Dihydroflavonols, also known as flavanonols, are 3-hydroxyflavanones. Taxifolin (20) or dihydroquercetin, for example, is a well known heartwood constituent of many trees, particulary gymnosperms, and has more recently been found in flowers e.g. *Petunia* and leaves e.g. *Rhododendron*, in glycosidic form.

- (18) naringenin; R=R'=H
- (19) eriodictyol; R=H, R'=OH
- (20) taxifolin; R=R'=OH

2.4 Chalcones

Chalcones are characterized by their possesion of a three carbon, a, ß-unsaturated carbonyl system which joins the two aromatic rings together. The numbering of positions in chalcone is reversed from the system used for other flavonoids which possess heterocyclic ring. The positions in the A-ring are numbered by the primed numerals while the unprimed ones are for that in the B-ring.

(21) chalcone

Chalcones and flavanones are interconvertible by acid or alkali catalysed ring-chain tautomerism. Both of them are generally considered to be the immediate precursors of common flavonoids. Chalcones are of relatively infrequent occurence in the plant kingdom. They are yellow pigments, the presence of which can easily be demonstrated in petals by exposing them to ammonia vapour when the colour changes

dramatically from yellow to red. Naturally occurring chalcone are all hydroxylated to a greater or lesser extent; the parent compound chalcone (21) itself is not known as a natural product. The A-ring substitution pattern is usually based on the phloroglucinol system (2',4',6'-trihydroxy). The B-ring most commonly exhibits a 4-mono,3,4-di-,or 3,4,5-trihydroxylation pattern (Harborne et al, 1975). Examples of this class are butein (22) and okanin (23), both of them naturally occur in either free state or glycosides.

HO OH
$$(\underline{22})$$
 butein; R=H $(\underline{23})$ okanin; R=OH

2.5 <u>Dihydrochalcones</u>

Dihydrochalcones (24) relate directly to the chalcones and can be derived therefrom by reduction of the chalcone a, \(\beta \)-double bond. The A-ring of natural dihydrochalcone is commonly substituted in the phloroglucinol hydroxylation pattern and the B-ring usually shows the 4-mono or 3,4-dihydroxylation pattern. The numbering system of this class follows that used for chalcone (Harborne et al, 1975).

(24) dihydrochalcone

2.6 Aurones

Aurones (25), like chalcone, is different from the common flavonoids in the three carbon unit which links the two benzene rings. But instead of a linear chain in case of chalcone, such unit is in the form of a pentacyclic ring. The normal numbering system applies to this group of compound: positions on the A-ring are identified by unprimed numbers and those of the B-ring by primed numbers. Note that in aurones position 4 corresponds biosynthetically to position 5 of other heterocyclic flavonoids. Included in this class are "auronol" (26) derivatives distinguished by the presence of a methoxy group in place of the carbonyl group.

Aurones, the conspicuously coloured compounds, have been found in a variety of yellow flowered species; the presence of them can be detected by some method as used for chalcones. However, the aurones are not restricted to floral tissue but have been obtained from bark, wood and leaves as well (Harborne et al, 1975). Examples for this class are sulphuretin (27) which occur in yellow flower of Cosmos sulphureus Cav. and aureusin (28) in yellow Antirrhinum majalis Linn.

HO
$$C = CH$$
 $C = CH$ $C = CH$ $C = CH$ $C = CH$

(27) sulphuretin

(28) aureusin

2.7 Leucoanthocyanidins

Compounds which are converted into anthocyanidins by being boiled with aqueous or alcoholic hydrochloric acid are termed leucoanthocyanidins, the structure of which based on the flavan-3,4-diol (29). These compounds are monomer of proanthocyanidins, the colourless substances isolated from plants when heated with acid form anthocyanidins. Examples of this class are leucopelargonidin (30), leucocyanidin (31) and leucodelphinidin (32).

HO OH OH R'

(29) flavan 3,4-diol

(30) leucopelargonidin; R=R'=H

(31) leucocyanidin; R=OH, R'=H

(32) leucodelphinidin; R=R'=OH

2.8 Catechins

Under the designation "Catechin" are grouped the polyhydroxyflavan-3-ols. The best known member is catechin (33), the chief constituent of "gambir-catechin" from Uncaria gambir (Hunt.) Roxb.

(33) catechin

Besides these 8 classes of compounds which possess relatively uniform structure of C_6 - C_3 - C_6 configuration and are considered as normal flavonoids, there are some compounds having specialised structures which are closely related to those of the normal flavonoids and they are also included in the flavonoid grouping. These groups of such compounds are:-

Isoflavonoids

The structure of isoflavonoids differ from those of other flavonoid compounds in the attachment at aromatic B ring to the C_3 unit. The branched C_6 - C_3 - C_6 skeleton as a basic structural feature of these compounds is shown in (34) Isoflavonoids are included many classes of natural products. The well established members of this group are isoflavones (35), isoflavanones (36), rotenoids (37), pterocarpans (38),

and coumestans (39). The various classes of isoflavonoid are according to their oxidation level. The structural displayed in these compounds is, in fact, greater than existing in the normal flavonoid series (Harborne et al, 1975).

$$(34)$$

$$(35) \text{ isoflavone}$$

$$(36) \text{ isoflavanone}$$

$$(37) \text{ rotenoid}$$

$$(38) \text{ pterocarpan}$$

$$(39) \text{ coumestan}$$

Neoflavonoids

The term neoflavonoid was first used to describe the group of natural products with a 4-aryl chroman skeleton (40). However, the open-chain compounds, the dalbergiones (41) and the 3,3-diaryl propenes (42) have been included in the neoflavonoid class, in line with the assignment of 2'-

hydroxychalcone (43) and of angolensin (44) to the flavonoid and isoflavonoid classes respectively. According to their structural type, natural neoflavonoids are divided into five groups and they are: 4-arylcoumarins, neoflavenes, dalberiquinols, 4-arylchromones and coumaric acids (Harborne et al, 1975).

(40)4-aryl chroman skeleton

(43) 2'-hydroxyxhalcone

(42) 3,3 diaryl propenes

(44) angolensin

Biflavonoids

The compounds in this group contain two units of flavonoid molecule linked together through either a carbon-carbon bond or a carbon-oxygen bond. Types of flavonoid moieties may be biflavones, flavanonyl-flavones, biflavanones, and others. Most of known biflavonoids are dimer of apigenin and their derivatives, which can be divided into 7 groups according to types of interflavonyl linkage (Harborne et al, 1975).

Table 2.2 Types of major biflavonoids

Туре	Interflavonyl linkage
The agathisflavone group	C6-C8"
The cupressoflavone group	C8-C8"
The amentoflavone group	C3'-C8"
The robustaflavone group	C3'-C6"
The hinokiflavone group	C4'-O-C6"
The ochnaflavone group	C3'-O-C3""
The garcinia biflavonoids	C3-C8"

(45) agathisflavone

3. Biosynthesis of flavonoids

The establishment of flavonoid biosynthesis is based on earlier results from radioactive tracer studies *in vivo*, confirmed with more recent data obtained at the enzymic level *in vitro*. It becomes demonstrated that all classes of flavonoids are biosynthetically closely related, deriving their two component aromatic rings from different pathways. The phenylpropane residue, which includes the B-ring and C₃ unit, arises from p-coumaric acid, itself formed via the shikimate pathway. The A-ring, on the other hand, is basicaally derived from acetate unit through acetate-malonate pathway (Goodwin et al, 1983).

The first common intermediate in the pathway is a chalcone, the formation of which catalyzed by enzyme chalcone synthase. A chalcone convert to an isomeric flavanone by the function of enzyme chalcone isomerase. The chalcone/flavanone isomers display the significance role in the synthesis since they are central intermediates from which other flavonoids originate. The biosynthetic relationships of the flavonoids are illustrated in figure 2.1 (Harborne et al, 1982).

Further modification may occur at various stages resulting in : additional (or reduced) hydroxylation; methylation of hydroxyl groups or of the flavonoid nucleus; isoprenylation of hydroxyl groups or of the flavonoid nucleus; dimerization (to produce biflavonoids); bisulfate

formation; and most importantly glycosylation of hydroxyl groups (to produce flavonoid O-glycosides) or of the flavonoid nucleus (to produce flavonoid C-glycosides).

Figure 3.1 Biosynthetic interrelationship of flavonoids

The Flavanones

1. Introduction to Flavanones

Flavanones are regarded to be a member of minor flavonoids according to their natural occurence. These compounds are based upon the structure of 2-phenyl benzopyran-4-one (46), which is flavanone itself. The parent compound, a colourless substance, is not known to be naturally occuring; the simplest plant flavanone has a hydroxy group at position 7 (47). Flavanones are isomeric with chalcones from which they can be obtained synthetically and from which they arise biosynthetically. Since carbon-2 of the flavonoid molecule is a centre of asymmetry, two isomeric forms of each structure are possible. Most of natural occuring flavanones are laevorotatory and thus they belong to the same (2S) configurational series. (Harborne et al, 1975).

$$(46) R = H$$

$$(47)$$
 R = OH

2. Chemistry of Flavanones

Chemically flavanone differs from flavone in being saturated between carbon 2 and 3 and thus lacking the conjugation of a double bond between the carbonyl group, conjugated with the A ring, and the 2-phenyl group (B ring). Consequently, in case of UV absorption flavanones absorb at comparative short wavelengths and hydroxylation in the 2-phenyl group has very little influence on the positions of maximum absorption of flavanones.

The dihydropyrone ring of flavanones is far more unstable than the pyrone ring of flavones or flavanols and is apt to open between O (position 1) and CH (position 2), giving a chalcone compound. Flavanones in an alkaline solution are readily converted to chalcones by ring-fission. On the contrary chalcones in an acid medium are converted to flavanones.

There had been experiments pointed out that when the 5-hydroxyl group is present in the flavanone, the chalcone-flavanone tautomerism is strongly on the side of the flavanone (Geissman, 1962). This is owing to the resulting hydrogen bonding stabilization of the ring (48).

$$(\underline{48}) \qquad (\underline{49})$$

The 4-carbonyl group of the flavanone shows typical carbonyl reactions, giving an oxime, and the 3-methylene group is active.

The behaviour of flavanones toward alkali is different from that οf flavones, giving 0 hydroxyacetophenone and benzaldehyde derivatives (49a) when the concentration of alkali is relative low, and corresponding derivatives of phenol and cinnamic acid when stronger alkali is used for the decomposition (49b). Flavanones decompose, however, into benzaldehyde, acetic acid and phenol when a strongly alkaline reaction mixture is heated drastically (49a + 49b). The first step of the decomposition reaction can be regarded to be ring-opening chalcone derivative.

Among colour reactions used for the qualitative tests for flavonoids, the most useful reaction is that of Shinoda in which a compound or a suitably prepared plant extract is treated with magnesium and concentrated hydrochloric acid, usually in ethanolic solution. The positive test is indicat-

ed by the quick developing of characteristic colours, and the subsequent addition of more acid or magnesium often causes modification of the colour in a manner characteristic of the compound being examined. The test is generally strongly positive for flavonols, flavanones, and flavanonols, producing pink, cherry-red, crimson or occasionally ink-blue colours. Shinoda found that some xanthone derivatives also react positively. Flavones which lack the 3-hydroxy substituent respond with the production of much less striking colours. The characteristic yellow-orange to redorange shades given by this class of compounds make it possible to distinguish them from flavonol and flavanone derivatives, the colour of which are deeper and more intense (Geissman, 1962).

3. Structures of naturally occuring flavanones

The naturally occurring flavanones will be treated according to their B-ring hydroxylation pattern as follows (Harborne et al, 1975;1982):-

3.1 Flavanones lacking B-ring hydroxyls

The simplest member of the group, also of the natural flavanones, is 7-hydroxy flavanone (47) which was isolated from two species of Leguminosae and one of Compositae. Other members may be considered as the derivatives of this compound by hydroxylation, methoxylation, methylation, prenylation, combination with sugar molecule(s) and others. An interesting case is the

prenylation of the parent compound on the A-ring which is characteristic of the Leguminosae. Prenylation of position 8 affords flavanone (50) while prenylation at both positions 6 and 8 gives (51). Ovalichromene (52) and isolonchocarpin (53), the dimethyl chromenoflavanones, are the products of cyclization of the prenylated flavanone.

In addition to the prenylated ones the highly unusual alkylated flavanone was also found in a member of Leguminosae. This compound is purpurin(54) from Tephrosia purpurea.

(54)

The simplest flavanone that bears the phloroglucinol hydroxylation pattern on the A ring is pinocembrin (55) which has been reported from several plant families such as Pinaceac, Rosaceae, Leguminosae, and Compositae. Its natural

derivatives occur in various forms: the 7-rhamnoside, the 7-neohesperidoside, 5-and 7-methyl ethers of pinocembrin named alpinetin ($\underline{56}$) and pinostrobin ($\underline{57}$) respectively, and 5,7 dimethylpinocembrin ($\underline{58}$).

$$(55)$$
 $R_1 = R_2 = H$
 (56) $R_1 = CH_3$, $R_2 = H$
 (57) $R_1 = H$, $R_2 = CH_3$
 (58) $R_1 = R_2 = CH_3$

Several C-methyl derivatives of pinocembrin have been reported from nature. Examples of such compounds are strobopinin (59) from Filicinae and Pinaceae, cryptostrobin (60) from Pinaceae and Myrtaceae, and desmethoxymatteucinol (61) from Filicinae, Myrtaceae, Anonaceae, and Leguminosae.

$$(59)$$
 $R_1 = CH_3$, $R_2 = R_3 = H$
 (60) $R_1 = R_2 = H$, $R_3 = CH_3$
 (61) $R_1 = R_3 = CH_3$, $R_2 = H$

In case of prenylation, most of pinocembrin derivatives have been found in members of Leguminosae and Compositae. Examples are 6-prenylpinocembrin and glabranin (62). In addition to the prenylated pinocembrin its cyclization product, the dimethylchromenoflavanone (63), has also been reported from nature.

3.2 Flavanones having one B-ring hydroxyl

The simplest member of this group is liquritigenin or 7,4'-dihydroxy flavanone which has been reported from several legumes (64). Its naturally occurring glycosides include the 4'-O-glucoside named liquiritin (65), the 7-O-glucoside and the 7-O-diglucoside.

HO
OR
$$(\underline{64}) R = H$$

$$(\underline{65}) R = Glc$$

Prenylated derivatives of liquiritigenin which are 5-deoxyflavanone have been reported to be found in nature; they are bavachinin (66), bavachin (67), isobavachin (68), sophoranone (69) and sophoranochromene (70). All of these compounds occur in members of Leguminosae.

C-Alkylation of the naringenin occurs in several plants to provide various derivatives such as 6-C-B-D-glucopyranosyl derivative from Liliaceae; farrerol (72) from Ericaceae, Myrtaceae and Filicinae; matteucinol (73) from Filicinae and Ericaceae; 8-C-prenylnaringenin from Compositae; and cajaflavanone (74) from Leguminosae.

$$(\underline{72}) R_1 = R_2 = CH_3, R_3 = H$$
 $(\underline{74})$

$$(73)$$
 R₁ = R₂ = R₃ = CH₃

In addition to the compounds mentioned above there is a flavanone which is a new member of the rare flavonoid group having only 2'-hydroxylation on the B ring. This member is known as haplanthin (75), isolated from a variety of *Haplanthus tentaculatus* (Acanthaceae).

The most widely occurring of all flavanones is naringenin (71). Its three mono-O-methyl and two di-O-methyl derivatives are known to occur naturally. The former are the 7-methyl ether named sakuranetin, the 4' methyl ether named isosakuranetin and 5-O methyl naringenin. The latter include naringenin -5,7-dimethyl ether and naringenin-7-4' dimethyl ether.

3.3 Flavanones having two B-ring hydroxyls

The simplest flavanone of this series is butin or 7,3',4'-trihydroxyflavanone (76) which has been reported from Leguminosae and Anacardiaceae. Its glycosidic forms include isocoreopsin (the 7-0-glucoside), isomonospermoside (the 3'-0-glucoside) and butrin (the 7,3'-di-0-glucoside). Other related 5-deoxyflavanones are plathymenin (77), 8-methoxybutrin, and isookanin (78).

HO
$$R'$$
 OH (76) R = R' = H (77) R = OH, R' = H (78) R = H, R' = OH

A complex series of C-alkylated flavanones, all possesing the 3',4'-methyl-enedioxy function, has been studied. The compounds are from *Milettia ovalifolia* and are ovalichromene-A (79), ovalichromene-B (80), ovaliflavanone-C (81) and ovaliflavanone-D (82).

$$(79)$$
 R = OCH₃

$$(80)$$
 R = H

$$(81)$$
 R = H

$$(82) R =$$

Eriodictyol (83), which occurs widely in flowering plants, is the parent compound of several natural flavanones. Among its known glycosides are eriodictin (the 7-0-rhamnoside) eriocitin (the 7-0-rutinoside) and neoeriocitrin (the 7-0-neohesperidoside) along with an unusual glycoside, the 5,3'-di-0-glucoside.

The monomethyl ethers of eriodictyol reported from nature are homoeriodictyol (84) and hesperitin (85). The latter is a well known constituent of *Citrus* where it occurs as the 7-0-rutinoside (hesperidin) and/or as the 7-0-neohesperidoside (neohesperidin).

HO OR
$$(83)$$
 R = R' = H (84) R = CH₃, R' = H (85) R = H, R' = CH₃

The known dimethyl ethers of eriodictyol include persicogenin, (the 7,4' dimethyl ether) with its 5-0-glucoside named persiconin, the 7,3'-dimethyl ether and the 7,3' dimethyl-4'-Y,Y-dimethyl ether.

Citromitin(86), one of the most highly methoxylated flavonoids known, is 5,6,7,8,3',4' - hexamethoxyflavanone and was found along with the 5-demethyl derivative(87) in the peel of Citrus.

$$H_3CO$$
 H_3CO
 H_3CO
 OCH_3
 $OCH_$

Two C-methyl derivatives of eriodictyol are known: cyrtominetin, the 6,8-di-C-methyl derivative which occur as a glucoside in ferns; and the 6-C-methyl derivative which was isolated as the 7-O-glucoside. The prenyl derivative of eriodictyol was also reported from nature, and it is 7-methoxy-8-prenyl eriodictyol.

The last group of flavanones having two B-ring hydroxyls exhibit either the 2',5'- or the 2',4'- pattern. Only one member of the former type has been found and it is 5,7,2',5' - tetrahydroxyflavanone which occurs in *Inula cappa*. As for the latter type the members include artocarpanone (88), steppogenin (89), stepposide (the 7-0-galactoside of steppogenin), 7-hydroxyl - 5,2',4' - trimethoxylflavanone (90) and arjunone (91).

$$(88) \ R_1 = CH_3, \ R_2 = R_3 = R_4 = H$$

$$(89) \ R_1 = R_2 = R_3 = R_4 = H$$

$$(90) \ R_1 = OH, \ R_2 = R_3 = R_4 = CH_3$$

$$(91) \ R_1 = R_2 = R_3 = R_4 = CH_3$$

Seven compounds are also known as the additional members of this type. All of them have been isolated from members of the Leguminosae; two from Sophora and five from Flemingia. The constituents of Sophora are kurarinone (92) and nor-kurarinone (93). Those of Flemingia include flemiflavanone-A (94), flemichin-D (95), flemichin-E (96), flemichin-A (97) and flemiflavanone-C which is concluded to be an enantiomer of flemichin-D on the basis of its optical rotation.

$$(92)$$
 R = H

$$(93)$$
 R = CH₃

(94)

 $(\underline{96}) \tag{\underline{97}}$

3.4 Flavanones having three B-ring hydroxyl

Only two such compounds are known. Compound $(\underline{98})$ occcurs in the fern while compound $(\underline{99})$ was found in a Legume.

$$\begin{array}{c|c} & & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & \\ & & \\ & & \\ & & \\ & & \\ & & \\ & & \\ & & \\ & & \\ & & \\ & & \\ & & \\ & & \\ & & \\ & &$$

$$(98) R_1 = R_2 = H$$

(99) R₁ = Rhamnose, R₂ = OCH₃