

## International Organization for Chemical Sciences in Development

**Working Group on Plant Chemistry** 

## CHEMISTRY, BIOLOGICAL AND PHARMACOLOGICAL PROPERTIES OF AFRICAN MEDICINAL PLANTS

Proceedings of the first International IOCD-Symposium Victoria Falls, Zimbabwe, February 25–28, 1996



Edited by

K. HOSTETTMANN, F. CHINYANGANYA, M. MAILLARD and J.-L. WOLFENDER



**UNIVERSITY OF ZIMBABWE PUBLICATIONS** 

### INTERNATIONAL ORGANIZATION FOR CHEMICAL SCIENCES IN DEVELOPMENT

#### WORKING GROUP ON PLANT CHEMISTRY

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Cover photos.

African traditional healer and *Harpagophytum procumbens* (Pedaliaceae)

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Printed by Mazongororo Paper Converters Pvt. Ltd., Harare

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#### 7. Overview of the chemistry of aloes of Africa

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#### Introduction

The genus *Aloe* consists of more than 360 species distributed mainly in Tropical Africa, Madagascar and Southern Arabia (Mabberley 1987) and includes herbs, shrubs and trees. The leaves are fleshy, strongly cuticularized and are usually prickly at the margins. The flowers are of various colours, white, yellow, pink, greenish and red.

The bitter leaf exudates of some Aloe species are commercially important sources of the laxative aloe drug and are also used in the cosmetics industry as additives in shampoos, shaving and skin care creams (Leung 1970) and in the treatment of skin disorder and in particular as topical medication for the treatment of burns (Rowe et al. 1941). The exudate has also been used as bittering agent in alcoholic beverages. The term aloe is derived from the Arabic word alloeh which means a shining bitter substance (Tyler et al. 1976). Medicinally, the gel and dried leaf exudates of Aloe species have been used since ancient civilizations of the Egyptians, and Mediterranean peoples (Trease and Evans 1976). Egyptian copts used aloe to treat eye diseases, swellings and digestive disorders. Aloe was known to the Greeks for Alexander the Great is said to have been advised to conquer the island of Socotra near the East African shores to get aloe drug to treat his wounded soldiers (Maniche 1989). Aloe species still enjoy a very wide folkloric usage in many parts of the world and are also used in modern medicine. In commercial circles "Cape aloe" means the dried latex of the leaves of Aloe ferox Miller while "Curação aloe" is the latex from Aloe vera Miller (U.S. Pharmacopeia 1979).

Except for a few species which have been made cosmopolitan most *Aloe* species are confined to Africa and Arabia. It is therefore important for Africa that these species which have proved to be a store of diverse and interesting natural products be studied from many aspects. This paper highlights the chemistry of *Aloe* species and supplements the review by Reynolds (1985a).

The two most important analytical methods in the study of leaves and roots of *Aloe* are TLC and HPLC. Reynolds and Herring (1991) recommended for TLC of leaf components a mixture of di-isopropyl ether/nPrOH and water (7:5:1) followed by use of the lower layer of CHCl<sub>3</sub>/EtOH/H<sub>2</sub>O (7:3:1) to develop the

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spots in a direction at right angle to the first. For root constituents we have found (Dagne *et al.* 1994) petrol/CHCl<sub>3</sub> (1:1), CHCl<sub>3</sub>-EtOAc (7:3) and for analysis of leaf components EtOAc-MeOH-H<sub>2</sub>O (77:13:10) to be quite suitable solvent systems. Developed TLC plates may be viewed under UV<sub>254</sub> and UV<sub>366</sub>, or sprayed with 0.5% aqueous solution of Fast Blue Salt B followed by spraying with caustic soda solution (Jork *et al.* 1990). 5-Hydroxyaloin gives characteristic violetbrown color when sprayed with 5% aqueous sodium metaperiodate (Rauwald and Beil 1993).

Reversed phase HPLC of the methanol extract of leaf exudate has proved to be one of the best methods for establishing chemical profile in *Aloe*. Whereas it is very difficult to distinguish between aloin A and B by TLC, these epimers can be easily distinguished by HPLC (Reynolds and Herring 1991). The roots of several species of *Aloe* and *Lomatophyllum* were analysed by Van Wyk *et al.* (1995b, 1995c) by TLC and HPLC for the presence of nine anthraquinones and preanthraquinones which are known to be characteristic constituents of roots of *Aloe*. The results support the inclusion of the genus *Lomatophyllum* in *Aloe*. Furthermore comparative studies of roots of 46 species belonging to the genera *Bulbine*, *Bulbinella* and *Kniphofia* (family Asphodelaceae) (Van Wyk *et al.* 1995a) revealed the relationships as well as differences of the two families Asphodelaceae and Aloaceae, which until recently were kept together in one family.

#### Constituents of Aloe species

The leaves and roots of *Aloe* species elaborate many interesting secondary metabolites belonging to different classes of compounds including alkaloids, anthraquinones, pre-anthraquinones, anthrones, bianthraquinoids, chromones, coumarins and pyrones. The three most important constituents of commercial aloe drug are the anthrones aloin A and B (42), and the chromones aloesin (63) and aloeresin A (64). We discuss below briefly each of the major classes of *Aloe* compounds.

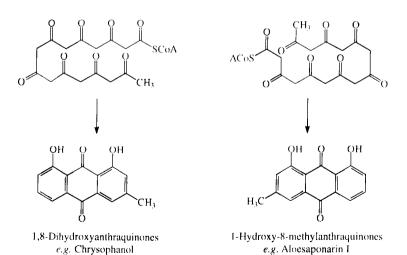
#### Alkaloids

The piperidine alkaloid  $\gamma$ -coniceine and other related hemlock alkaloids were reported to occur in seven *Aloe* species with very restricted distribution (Dring *et al.* 1984). By screening 224 *Aloe* species for alkaloids Nash *et al.* (1992) found 21% of the species positive and identified tyramine and its derivatives in 18 species. In view of the potential toxicity of many alkaloids, the authors pointed out the importance of screening for alkaloid prior to the use of *Aloe* plants as medicines.

#### Anthraquinones and pre-anthraquinones

Several free anthraquinones occur in roots and leaves of *Aloe* species. Aloeemodin (1) is a typical leaf constituent and is wide spread in the genus. Chrysophanol (10) occurs both in roots (Yagi *et al.* 1977a) and leaves (Dagne and Alemu 1991) while nataloe-emodin (6) has so far been reported only from leaves (Conner *et al.* 1987). The anthraquinones in leaves may be present as Oglycosides as is the case in compounds 2 and 7. The anthraquinones, physcion and emodin which are oxygenated at the 6 position are not found in *Aloe*. Aloesaponarin I (8), aloesaponarin II (9), desoxyerythrolaccin (12), helminthosporin (3), isoxanthorin (5) and laccaic acid D methyl ester (14) were isolated first from roots of *A. saponaria* (Yagi *et al.* 1974) but have recently been shown to occur in roots of many other *Aloe* species (Dagne *et al.* 1994).

Thus two main types of anthraquinones are present in the roots of *Aloe*, these are 1,8-dihydroxyanthraquinone (*e.g.* chrysophanol, aloe-emodin) and 1-hydroxy-8-methylanthra-quinone (*e.g.* aloesaponarin I). Whereas anthraquinones of the former type are known to occur both in leaves and roots, those that belong to the latter type are confined only to roots. In a recent study of the roots of 172 species of *Aloe*, Van Wyk *et al.* (1995a) detected 1.8-dihydroxy-anthraquinones in almost all and 1-hydroxy-8-methylanthraquinones in 129 *Aloe* species. As shown in Figure 7.1, these two types of anthraquinones appear to be derived through two parallel biogenetic routes of the polyketide pathway, differing by the way the octaketide chain folds (Leistner 1973).



**Fig. 7.1.** Two folding mechanisms of octaketides leading to 1,-dihydroxy- and 1-hydroxy-8-methyl-anthraquinones.

	Aloe-emodin	Aloe-emodin-11-O-rhamnoside	Helminthosporin	7-Hydroxyaloe-emodin	Isoxanthorin	Nataloe-emodin	Nataloe-emodin-2-O-glucoside
R <sub>5</sub>	H	Ξ	H	ОН	Η	ЮН	O-Glc
R.	H	Ξ	CH,	Η	$CH_3$	H	H
R <sub>3</sub>	Н	Η	ЮН	Η	ОН	Н	н
R <sub>2</sub>	СН2ОН	CH <sub>2</sub> O-Rha	Н	$CH_2OH$	Н	$CH_3$	CH3
, R <sub>1</sub>	H	Ή			$OCH_3$	Ξ	Ξ
i	(1)	9	<u>©</u>	<b>₹</b>	<u>(S)</u>	9	6
	но о но	$\mathbb{R}^{R_{i,j}}$ $\longrightarrow$ $\mathbb{R}^{R_{i,j}}$	- }= }= }-	-< -< -<	\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\	-& =○	9

	Aloesaponarin I	Aloesaponarin II	Chrysophanol	O	Δ		_	Nataloe-emodin-8-methyl ether
R <sub>5</sub>	Н	Ξ	CH <sub>3</sub>	$CH_3$	ОН	$CH_2OH$	OH	CH <sub>3</sub>
Z	Н	Η	Ή	Η	H	ОН	H	Ή
R	НО	ЮН	Η	H	НО	Ξ	ЮН	I
$R_2$	$COOCH_3$	H	Н	Ή	Η	Н	COOCH <sub>3</sub>	НО
R	$CH_3$	$CH_3$	H	$CH_3$	$CH_3$	Η	$CH_3$	$OCH_3$
	(8)	<u>•</u>	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)
	OH Q R	a a	\		R, R,		<b>*</b>	

(19) R=COOCH<sub>3</sub> Aloesaponol II (20) R=R<sub>1</sub>=H Aloesaponol III (21) R=OCH<sub>3</sub>, R<sub>1</sub>=H Aloesaponol IV (22) R=H, R<sub>1</sub>=Glc Aloesaponol III-8-O-glc

(16) R=CH<sub>3</sub> Aloechrysone (17) R=H Prechrysophanol

ÓН

HÓ

(24) R=COOCH<sub>3</sub> Aloesaponol I-6-O-glucoside (25) R = H Aloesaponol II-6-O-glucoside

(23) R=OCH3, R1=Glc Aloesaponol IV-8-O-glucoside

Several pre-anthraquinones, which could be considered as progenitors of the above two types of anthraquinones, have been isolated and characterized mainly from subterranean parts of *Aloe*. However, the pre-anthraquinone aloechrysone (16) was detected both in roots and leaves of four *Aloe* species from Ethiopia (Dagne and Alemu 1991). It is interesting to note that the related genus *Gasteria* (Aloaceae), elaborates *Aloe* type pre-anthraquinones both in the leaves and roots (Dagne *et al.* 1996). The pre-anthraquinones could be readily converted to the corresponding anthraquinones by treatment with base (Yenesew *et al.* 1993).

#### Anthrones

Anthrones are by far the most important of all the classes of compounds present in Aloe species. The most outstanding members of this class are aloin A and B (42a, 42b), which are collectively known as barbaloin because they were first isolated from Barbados aloe. Aloin A and B are two diastereomeric C-glucosides that differ in the configuration at C-10 of the aloe-emodin anthrone moiety. These compounds are believed to be mainly responsible for the bitter and purgative properties of the well known commercial aloe drug, which is principally made up of the leaf exudates of A. ferox and A. vera. The leaf exudate of A. ferox may contain up to 10% barbaloin (Groom and Reynolds 1987). However not all Aloe species are found to contain barbaloin. In a screening of 240 Aloe species, barbaloin was found to occur in exudates of 85 of the species examined (Reynolds 1985b) usually in 10-20% concentration. Although A. littoralis Baker is reported to be positive for presence of barbaloin by Reynolds(1985) and also reported to be present to the extent of 18.2 % by Groom and Reynolds (1987), our analysis by TLC and HPLC of the exudate of A. littoralis did not show the presence even of a trace of barbaloin (Dagne et al., Phytochemistry, in press). Instead we isolated

(31) R=OH Aloe-emodinanthrone (32) R=H Chrysophanolanthrone

(33) Aloe-emodinanthrone-10-C-Rhamnoside

(34) R=CH<sub>3</sub> Homonataloin (35) R=H Nataloin

(36) R=R<sub>1</sub>=H (7-Hydroxyaloin)

(37) R=H, R<sub>1</sub>= p-coumaroyl (7-Hydroxyaloin-6'-O-p-coumaroyl)

(38) R=CH<sub>3</sub>, R<sub>1</sub>=H (8-O-Methyl-7-hydroxyaloin) (39) R=CH<sub>3</sub>, R<sub>1</sub>= cinnamoyl (6'-O-Cinnamoyl-8-O-methyl-7-hydroxyaloin)

(40) R=H (7-Hydroxyaloin-6'-O-acetate)

(41) R=Ac (7-Hydroxyaloin-4',6'-diacetate)

(42a) R=α-H Aloin A

(42b) R=β-H Aloin B

(43a) R=α-OH Hydroxyaloin A

(43b)  $R=\beta$ -OH Hydroxyaloin B

(44) Aloinoside

(45) R=H Deacetyllitoraloin

(46) R=Ac Littoraloin

(47) R=H 5-Hydroxyaloin

(48) R=caffeoyl Microstigmin A

CH<sub>2</sub>OH OH

(49a) R=α-H Microdontin A

(49b) R=β-H Microdontin B

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10-hydroxyaloin B (43b) and its two novel nilate ester derivatives littoraloin (46) and deacetyllittoraloin (45). The chemotaxonomic significance of these compounds in *Aloe* has been recently published (Viljoen *et al.* 1996).

Interestingly barbaloin and homonataloin seem to be mutually exclusive, with the notable exception of *A. mutabilis* (Reynolds 1990). It should be pointed out that aloin should not be regarded to be confined only to *Aloe* species as it has also been found in the extracts of cascara bark (*Rhamnus purshiana D.C.*) (Manitto *et al.* 1990). Rauwald and Lohse (1992) have also reported occurrence of 10-hydroxy-aloin B (43b) in *Rhamnus* sp.

The determination of the absolute configuration of aloin A and B (42a, 42b) has engaged several workers (Rauwald *et al.* 1989; Manitto *et al.* 1990). In the true natural product, *i.e.*, aloin B, the glucose moiety attached to C-10 has the  $\alpha$  orientation (*i.e.*, 10R, 1'S) and the  $\beta$  orientation (*i.e.*, 10S, 1'S) follows for aloin A.

Biosynthetic study of Grün and Franz (1980) has shown that aloin B is the true natural product but is gradually converted to aloin A. That study also established that aloin B is formed by attachment of glucose to aloe-emodinanthrone (31), a compound detected so far in flowers but not in leaves of *Aloe* (Sigler and Rauwald 1994). In 10-hydroxyaloin B (43b) and its two novel nilate ester derivatives 45 and 46 obtained from A. littoralis, the glucose also has the  $\alpha$  configuration indicating that hydroxylation at C-10 occurs prior to epimerization of the natural aloin B (Dagne et al., Phytochemistry, in press). On the other hand, 5-hydroxyaloin A (47) is known only in the A form (Rauwald and Beil 1993) i.e. with the  $\beta$  orientation for the glucose moiety at C-10, an observation which is also the case for its natural derivative microstigmin A (48) a novel compound that we recently found in A. microstigma (Dagne et al., submitted to Phytochemistry).

Roots of *Aloe* spp. elaborate in the main anthraquinones and preanthraquinones. It has recently been shown that inflorescence of *Aloe* also produce anthrones (Sigler and Rauwald).

#### Benzene/naphthalene derivatives

Several naphthalene and benzene based secondary metabolites have been reported from *Aloe* species. One of the first such compounds to be reported is the naphthalene derivative of isoeleutherol-5-O-glucoside (58) isolated by Yagi *et al.* (Yagi *et al.* 1977b) from the subterranean stems of *Aloe saponaria*. It is interesting to note that such a glycoside is present in the subterranean part of *Aloe*. The aglycone isoeleutherol (57) was reported for the first time as a natural product by our group (Dagne *et al.* 1994) from roots of more than a dozen *Aloe* species belonging to the series Saponariae. Isoeleutherol was conspicuously absent from other series investigated, indicating its chemotaxonomic significance in delineating members of the Saponariae series from other series. The insecticidal compound pluridone (52) isolated from roots of the South African *A. pluridens* is the only example of a sulfur containing compound ever isolated from *Aloe*. The

recently reported 1,1-diphenylethane (50) from Cape aloe (Speranza et al. 1994) and plicataloside (62) from A. plicatilis (Wessels et al. 1996) have added more variety to benzene- and naphthalene-derived compounds found in Aloe species. Furthermore the discovery of the tetrahydronaphthalenes feroxidin (54), feroxin A (55) and B (56) in Cape aloe by Speranza et al. (1990, 1992) is a further testimony of the diversity of the constituents of this aloes of commerce.

(50) I,I-Diphenylethane (51) Methyl-
$$p$$
-coumarate (52) Pluridone (53) Protocatechuic acid (54) R=H Feroxidin (55) R=Glc Feroxin A (56) R=4.6-Dicoumaroyl-Glc = Feroxin B (57) R=H Isoeleutherol (58) R=Glc Isoelutherol-5-O-glucoside glucoside (59) R=H<sub>2</sub> (60) R=O (61) (62) Plicataloside

#### Chromones

Aloesin (63) formerly called alocresin B, is one of the three most significant constituents of aloe drug, the other two being barbaloin and aloeresin A. Random screening of *Aloe* species indicated its presence in leaves of at least 30% of the species examined (Reynolds 1985a). Its structure was established as 63 in by Haynes *et al.* (1970) and subsequently in 1972 its aglycone named as aloesone (77) was recognized as an *Aloe* leaf constituent by Holdsworth (1972). The structure of aloeresin A, first proposed incorrectly as a p-coumarate ester of aloesin esterified on  $C_6$  of the sugar moiety, was later on revised to structure 64 in

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which the ester was placed on  $C_2$  of the sugar (Gramatica *et al.*1982). Mebe (1987) reported the aloeresin derivative (**68**) from *A. excelsa* but incorrectly named it as 2'-p-methoxycoumaroylaloeresin when it should have been called either 2'-p-O-methylcoumaroylaloesin or 2'-p-methoxycinnamoylaloesin.

(70) R=p-coumaroyl Aloeresin D (71) R=caffeoyl Rabaichromone

(72) R=p-coumaroyl Aloeresin C (73) R=cinnamoyl Aloeresin E

(77) Aloesone

(78)

СООН

TLC and HPLC examination of Aloe rupestris Bak. leaf exudate showed the total absence of aloin and homonataloin as well as aloeresin A, C and D but instead revealed the presence of two major and several other minor constituents. Isolation of the major components resulted in their characterization as aloesin (63) and the new natural product 7-O-methylaloesin (Dagne et al., submitted to Biochemical Systematics and Ecology). The latter compound is of considerable chemotaxonomic value since it is present in most species of Aloe series Asperifoliae Berger.

#### **Pyrones**

Aloenin (81), a phenylpyrone derivative, is a relatively infrequently encountered bitter component of Aloe leaf exudate, whose revised structure was reported in 1974 (Suga et al. 1974). Aloenin aglycone (82) and the coumaroyl ester 85 were

(84) R=Glc Aloenin B

(85) R=H Aloenin-2'-p-coumaroyl ester

reported recently (Conner et al. 1987). Aloenin B (84) is one of the major (13.5%) constituents of commercial Kenya aloe (Speranza et al. 1986).

#### Contribution to the study of the chemistry of aloes of Ethiopia

There are nearly 36 species of Aloe in Ethiopia with 18 endemics. The ethanol extract of the leaves of the endemic Ethiopian species A. berhana now renamed as A. debrana (Demissew and Gilbert, in Flora of Ethiopia and Erythrea, Addis Ababa, in press), yielded the interesting pre-anthraquinone, aloechrysone (16) (Dagne and Alemu 1991) in addition to chrysophanol, aloe-emodin, barbaloin and B-sitosterol. Aloechrysone fluoresces strongly under 366 nm UV light, a property that helps to identify it during separation using silica gel columns and plates. Aloechrysone was first detected in the roots of A. berhana (Dagne et al. 1992) and was later found also in roots of other Aloe species (Dagne et al. 1994). It is the most likely precursor of chrysophanol-8-methyl ether (6), an anthraquinone that also occurs in roots of A. berhana and other Aloe species. The isolation of the simple, biologically important, aromatic acid, 3,4-dihydroxybenzoic acid, also known as protocatechuic acid, from A. berhana leaves is noteworthy (Dagne and Alemu 1991). Although this acid is known to occur in other plants such as in coffee pulp (Dagne and Alemu 1991), this was the first report of its occurrence in Aloe species. Other constituents of roots of A. berhana include: aloesaponol I, laccaic acid D methyl ester, aloesaponol III, aloesaponarin I, chrysophanol-8methyl ether and chrysophanol (Dagne et al. 1994).

Likewise study of the leaves of A. megalacantha yielded, barbaloin, chrysophanol, aloinoside and  $\beta$ -sitosterol (Dagne and Alemu 1991), while its roots (Dagne et al. 1994) afforded aloechrysone, aloesaponarin I, aloesaponol I, aloesaponol II, aloesaponol III, asphodelin, chrysophanol, chrysophanol-8-methyl ether, helminthosporin and laccaic acid D methyl ester.

A recent study (Yenesew et al. 1993) of the subterranean stem of this species, i.e., A. lateritia Engl. var. graminicola (formerly A. graminicola) resulted in the isolation and characterization of prechrysophanol (25), which can be considered as the direct progenitor of chrysophanol. This plant has also been shown (Dagne et al. 1994) to be among the few species of Aloe that elaborate in their roots the chemotaxonomically important 2-naphtoic acid derivative, isoeleutherol (57), which has been indicated as a chemotaxonomic marker for a group of Aloe lumped in the series Saponariae. The presence of isoeleutherol in the roots of A. kefaensis Gilbert & Sebsebe and A. macrocarpa Tod. also confirms their placement in the above mentioned series Saponariae.

A. pulcherrima is one of the most beautiful of the Aloe taxa found in Ethiopia. It is known as "Sete-Eret" and is mainly used to accelerate wound healing. Chemical analysis of its leaves revealed the conspicuous absence of barbaloin but showed instead nataloin and 7-hydroxy-barbaloin as its major constituents (Dagne and Alemu 1991).

The root chemistry of A. calidophila, A. camperi, A. gilbertii, A. pulcherrima, A. rivae, A. schelpei, A. sinana is similar to that of A. megalacantha. However, A. secundiflora differs because it does not contain aloechrysone, a compound also absent from all members of the Saponariae series (Dagne et al. 1994).

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