

Available online at SciVerse ScienceDirect

Chinese Herbal Medicines (CHM)

ISSN 1674-6384

Journal homepage: www.tiprpress.com E-mail: chm@tiprpress.com

Review

Chemical Constituents of Plants from Tribe Chelidoneae and their Bioactivities

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ARTICLE INFO

Article history

Received: October 2, 2013

Revised: November 30, 2013

Accepted: December 16, 2013

Available online:

January 24, 2014

DOI:

10.1016/S1674-6384(14)60001-0

ABSTRACT

The tribe Chelidoneae comprises 23 species of eight genera with an extensive distribution and a long medicinal usage history both in China and Western countries. A large number of chemical constituents have been isolated and identified from the species in tribe Chelidoneae, such as alkaloids, organic acids, and their derivatives, aromatics, triterpenoids, sterols, essential oils, and proteins, most of which possess a variety of bioactivities, especially for the antibacterial, anti-inflammation, antitumor, analgesia, anti-oxidation, and antiparasitic activity. Meanwhile, potential toxicities have been discovered in some constituents. Therefore, the species in tribe Chelidoneae have become a rich source for new drug discovery, biologic study, and mechanism research. This paper presents comprehensive information of the chemical constituents, pharmacological and toxicological research on the plants in tribe Chelidoneae, which is a reference for the plants in this tribe for further development.

Key words

alkaloids; bioactivities; isoquinoline alkaloids; tribe Chelidoneae; triterpenoids

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1. Introduction

The tribe Chelidoneae (family Papaveraceae), consisted of eight genera 23 species, is mainly distributed in the North Temperate Zone. In China, there are six genera 11 species, and almost all of them have been used as folk medicines for centuries. Some genera include only one species, such as genera *Eomecon* Hance, *Hylomecon* Maxim., and *Chelidonium* L. Though plants from different genera of this tribe have different medicinal merits, the whole plant [*Eomecon chinantha* Hance, *Stylophorum lasiocarpum* (Oliv.) Fedde, *Dicranostigma leptopodum* (Maxim.) Fedde, *Chelidonium majus* L., *Macleaya cordata* (Willd.) R. Br., and *Macleaya*

microcarpa (Maxim.) Fedde] or the root and rhizome [*Hylomecon japonica* (Thunb.) Prantl] of these plants is effective in common for treating traumatic injuries and various types of carbuncle, stopping bleeding, relieving pain, and alleviating swelling (Feng et al, 1985). In addition, *C. majus* has been used as a traditional medicine for bile and liver disorders both in China and Europe for a long history and its fresh latex has also been used in the treatment of many skin complaints such as corns, eczema, tinea infections, and skin tumors (Gilca et al, 2010). Genera *Sanguinaria* L. and *Bocconia* L. could be found in North America or other warm areas except for China. The Native American used *Sanguinaria canadensis* L. to treat ulcers and sores, croup,

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Fund: Key Program in the Major Research Plan of the National Natural Science Foundation of China (81072995); PUMC Youth Fund (3332013079)

burns, tapeworms, fevers diarrhea, and irregular periods (O'Keefe and Beecher, 1994). The broad medicinal applications of the plants in tribe Chelidoneae had elicited publications in the chemistry and pharmacology of this tribe in the past decades. In this review, we compile various studies on this tribe and critically evaluate the issues related to the phytochemistry, ethnopharmacology, and toxicity of the species in tribe Chelidoneae. The outlines of this paper and some plants of tribe Chelidoneae are shown in Figure 1.

2. Chemical constituents in tribe Chelidoneae

So far, 162 compounds have been isolated and identified from the plants of tribe Chelidoneae, including alkaloids, amides, organic acids and their derivatives, aromatics, triterpenoids, sterols, nutrients, essential oils, proteins, and so on. Their names and the corresponding plant sources are collected in Table 1, and their structures are shown in Figures 2–6.

2.1 Alkaloids

Phytochemical studies revealed that alkaloids are the major components of this tribe, and so far almost 80 alkaloids have been reported including benzophenanthridines, protopines, protoberberines, aporphinoids, and a few other alkaloids (Figure 2). Benzophenanthridines, protopines, protoberberines and aporphinoids belong to isoquinoline alkaloids.

2.1.1 Benzophenanthridines

Five benzophenanthridine alkaloids subtypes were found in this tribe. Dihydrophenanthridine alkaloids **1–25** were mainly centered in *Macleaya* R. Br., *Dicranostigma* Hook., *Chelidonium* L., and *Bocconia* L. Hexahydrophenanthridine alkaloids **26–30** were found and considered as the characteristic components in *C. majus*. Isochelidonine was the first benzophenanthridine alkaloid from Papaveraceae with C-10, 11 substituents. Chenidionine (**27**) was also obtained from the root of *Stylophorum diphyllum* (Michx.) Nutt. and rhizoma of *H. japonica*. Four alkaloids **31–34** with no *N*-methyl were identified from the fruit of *Bocconia pearcei* L. and genus *Macleaya* R. Br. Eight quaternary ammonium bases **35–42** were also identified from almost all genera of this tribe, and could be recognized as the distinctive compounds differing from other tribe of Papaveraceae (Huang and Du, 2002). Sanguinarine (**40**) was the first alkaloid of this tribe discovered from *Sanguinria canadensis* in 1827. Six bisbenzophenanthridines **43–48** were obtained from the fruit of *M. cordata* or whole plant of *M. microcarpa* and so on.

2.1.2 Proberberines

Eleven proberberine alkaloids were isolated from almost all the plants of this tribe except *E. chionantha* and *S. canadensis*. Compounds **49–54** are tetrahydroberberine-type alkaloids and compounds **55–59** are dihydroberberine-type alkaloids.

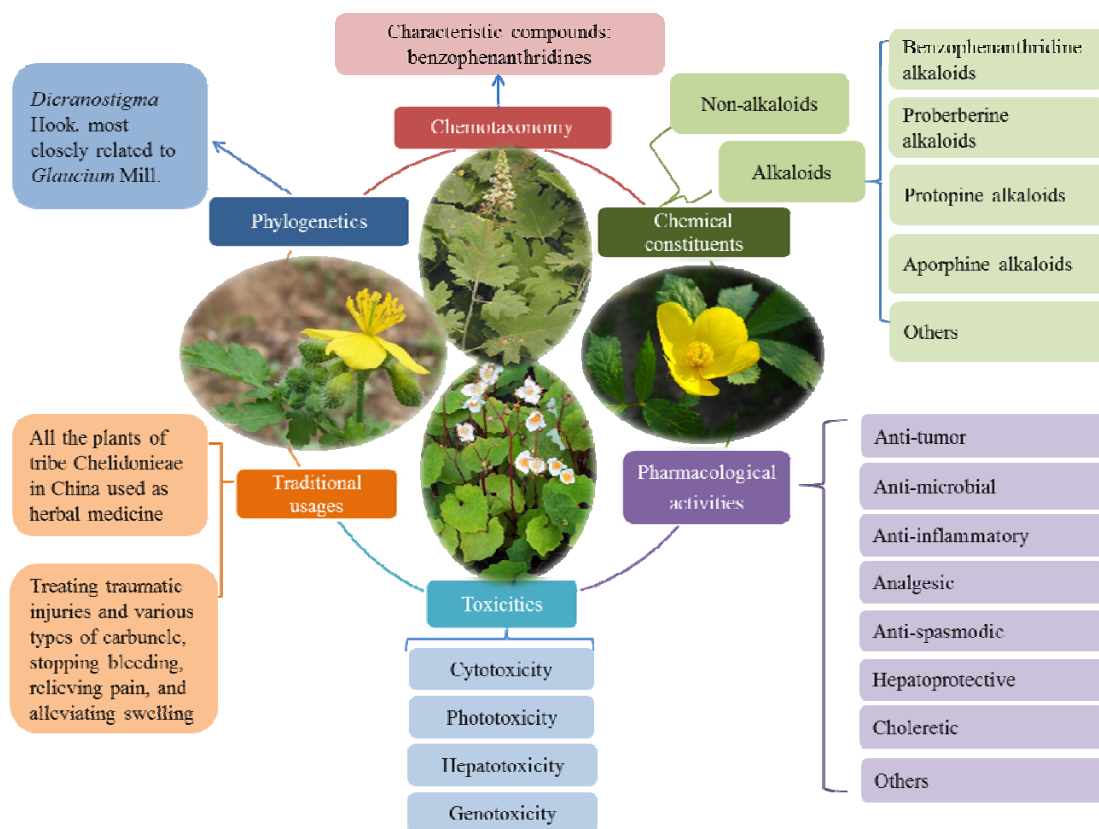


Figure 1 Outlines and representative plants of tribe Chelidoneae (Left: *C. majus*; Right: *H. japonica*; Up: *M. cordata*; Down: *E. chinantha*)

Table 1 Chemical constituents of tribe Chelidoneae

No.	Compounds	Sources	Parts of plants	References
<i>Alkaloids</i>				
<i>Benzophenanthridines</i>				
1	(2',6'-epoxy-1'2' α ,3' β ,4' α ,5' α -pentahydroxy) hexane-(1' \rightarrow 6)-dihydrochelerythrin	<i>M. microcarpa</i>	root	(Deng, 2008)
2	(5'R)-3'-methyl-2'(5'H)furanone-(5' \rightarrow 6)-(6S)-dihydrochelerythrin	<i>M. microcarpa</i>	root	(Deng, 2008)
3	(5'R)-3'-methyl-2'(5'H)furanone-(5' \rightarrow 6)-(6S)-dihydrosanguinarine	<i>M. microcarpa</i>	root	(Deng, 2008)
4	(5'R)-3'-methyl-2'(5'H)furanone-(5' \rightarrow 6)-(6R)-dihydrosanguinarine	<i>M. microcarpa</i>	root	(Deng, 2008)
5	6-(1'-hydroxyethyl)dihydrochelerythrine	<i>M. microcarpa</i>	root	(Deng and Qin, 2010)
6	(1'E)-5'-Methoxy-6'-hydroxy-cinnameryl-(1' \rightarrow 6)-dihydrosanguinarine	<i>M. microcarpa</i>	root	(Deng and Qin, 2010)
7	11-acetyl-dihydrochelerythrine	<i>B. arborea</i>	bark	(Perez et al, 2002)
8	6-acetyl-dihydrosanguinarine	<i>D. leptopodium</i> <i>M. cordata</i> <i>M. microcarpa</i>	whole plant fruit and stem whole plant	(Liu et al, 2011) (Ye et al, 2009; Pang, 2005) (Yang et al, 2010)
9	6-acetyl-dihydrochelerythrine	<i>M. cordata</i>	fruit	(Ye et al, 2009)
10	6-butoxy-dihydrochelerythrine	<i>D. lactuoides</i> <i>M. microcarpa</i>	root root	(Gregorová et al, 2010) (Deng and Qin, 2010)
11	6-butoxy-dihydrosanguinarine	<i>D. lactuoides</i>	root	(Gregorová et al, 2010)
12	6-ethoxydihydrosanguinarine	<i>M. microcarpa</i>	whole plant	(Yang et al, 2010)
13	6-methoxydihydrochelerythrine	<i>M. microcarpa</i> <i>M. cordata</i> <i>C. majus</i>	root and stem stem whole plant	(Deng and Qin, 2010; Qin et al, 2004) (Pang, 2005) (Zhou and Chen, 1989)
14	6-methoxydihydrosanguinarine	<i>M. microcarpa</i> <i>M. cordata</i> <i>C. majus</i>	root and stem fruit whole plant	(Deng and Qin, 2010) (Ye et al, 2009) (Zhou and Chen, 1989)
15	8-hydroxy-dihydrochelerythrine	<i>C. majus</i>	whole plant	(Meng et al, 2009)
16	8-hydroxy-dihydrosanguinarine	<i>C. majus</i>	whole plant	(Park et al, 2011)
17	angoline	<i>B. arborea</i>	bark	(Perez et al, 2002)
18	bocconoline	<i>M. cordata</i>	fruit	(Onda et al, 1970)
19	dihydrochelerythrine	<i>M. microcarpa</i> <i>M. cordata</i> <i>B. arborea</i> <i>B. pearcei</i>	whole plant, root, and stem fruit aerial part and bark fruit	(Yang et al, 2010; Deng and Qin, 2010; Qin et al, 2004) (Ye et al, 2009) (Navarro and Delgado, 1999; Perez et al, 2002) (Fuchino et al, 2010)
20	dihydrochelirubine	<i>B. pearcei</i>	fruit	(Fuchino et al, 2010)
21	dihydrosanguinarine	<i>B. arborea</i> <i>B. pearcei</i> <i>D. leptopodium</i> <i>M. microcarpa</i> <i>M. cordata</i> <i>C. majus</i>	aerial part and bark fruit whole plant whole plant, root and stem stem whole plant	(Navarro and Delgado, 1999; Perez et al, 2002) (Fuchino et al, 2010) (Liu et al, 2011) (Yang et al, 2010; Deng and Qin, 2010; Qin et al, 2004) (Pang, 2005) (Zhou and Chen, 1989)
22	methyl 2'-(7,8-dihydrosanguinarine-8-yl)acetate	<i>C. majus</i>	whole plant	(Park et al, 2011)
23	oxychelerythrine	<i>M. cordata</i> <i>B. pearcei</i>	fruit fruit	(Kosina et al, 2010) (Fuchino et al, 2010)
24	oxysanguinarine	<i>M. cordata</i> <i>B. arborea</i> <i>S. canadensis</i> <i>E. chionantha</i>	fruit and stem bark rhizome rhizome	(Kosina et al, 2010; Pang, 2005) (Perez et al, 2002) (Dostál et al, 1996) (Du et al, 1993)
25	spallidamine	<i>M. microcarpa</i>	root	(Deng and Qin, 2010)
26	(+)-chelamine	<i>C. majus</i>	root	(Nečas et al, 2005)

(To be continued)

(Continued Table 1)

No.	Compounds	Sources	Parts of plants	References
27	chelidonine	<i>C. majus</i> <i>S. diphyllum</i> <i>H. japonica</i>	whole plant root rhizome	(Zhou and Chen, 1989) (Schlotterbeck and Watkins, 1902) (Cheng et al, 2011)
28	(±)-homochelidonine	<i>C. majus</i>	root	(Nečas et al, 2005)
29	(±)-norchelidonine	<i>C. majus</i>	root and whole plant	(Nečas et al, 2005; Park et al, 2011)
30	isochelidonine	<i>C. majus</i>	whole plant	(De et al, 1992)
31	12-methoxynorchelerythrine	<i>B. pearcei</i>	fruit	(Fuchino et al, 2010)
32	norchelerythrine	<i>B. pearcei</i>	fruit	(Fuchino et al, 2010)
33	norsanguinarine	<i>M. cordata</i>	fruit and stem	(Kosina et al, 2010; Pang, 2005)
34	pancorine	<i>M. microcarpa</i>	root	(Deng and Qin, 2010)
35	6-ethoxychelerythrine	<i>E. chionantha</i>	rhizome	(Feng et al, 1985)
36	chelerythrine	<i>B. arborea</i> <i>M. cordata</i> <i>H. japonica</i> <i>D. lactuoides</i> <i>D. leptopodum</i> <i>S. canadensis</i> <i>E. chionantha</i>	bark fruit rhizome root root rhizome rhizome	(Perez et al, 2002) (Hu et al, 1979) (Cheng et al, 2011) (Gregorová et al, 2010) (Zhou, 1988) (Greathouse, 1939) (Zhou and Zhou, 1981)
37	chelilutine	<i>C. majus</i> <i>H. japonica</i>	whole plant rhizome	(Slavik, 1977) (Cheng et al, 2011)
38	chelirubine	<i>M. cordata</i> <i>H. japonica</i>	fruit rhizome	(Hu et al, 1979) (Cheng et al, 2011)
39	macarpine	<i>C. majus</i>	whole plant	(Slavik, 1977)
40	sanguinarine	<i>S. diphyllum</i> <i>M. cordata</i> <i>H. japonica</i> <i>D. lactuoides</i> <i>D. leptopodum</i> <i>S. canadensis</i> <i>E. chionantha</i>	root fruit and stem rhizome root root and whole plant rhizome rhizome	(Schlotterbeck and Watkins, 1902) (Hu et al, 1979; Pang, 2005) (Cheng et al, 2011) (Gregorová et al, 2010) (Zhou, 1988; Zhao et al, 2010) (Greathouse, 1939) (Zhou and Zhou, 1981)
41	sanguilutine	<i>M. cordata</i>	fruit	(Kosina et al, 2010)
42	sanguirubine	<i>M. microcarpa</i>	whole plant	(Pěnčíková et al, 2011)
43	bis[6-(5,6-dihydrochelerythriny)]ether	<i>M. microcarpa</i>	root	(Deng and Qin, 2010)
44	bocconarborine A	<i>M. cordata</i> <i>M. microcarpa</i>	fruit whole plant	(Ye et al, 2009) (Yang et al, 2010)
45	bocconarborine B	<i>M. cordata</i>	fruit	(Ye et al, 2009)
46	chelerythridimerine	<i>B. arborea</i>	bark	(Perez et al, 2002)
47	chelidimerine	<i>C. majus</i> <i>M. cordata</i> <i>E. chionantha</i>	whole plant fruit rhizome	(Tin-Wa et al, 1972) (Ye et al, 2009) (Du et al, 1993)
48	sanguidimerine	<i>M. cordata</i>	fruit	(Ye et al, 2009)
	<i>Proberberine alkaloids</i>			
49	1-canadine	<i>C. majus</i>	whole plant	(Zhou and Chen, 1989)
50	chelanthifoline	<i>M. cordata</i>	fruit	(Wu et al, 2009)
51	dehydrocicanthifoline	<i>M. cordata</i>	fruit	(Hu et al, 1979)
52	stylopine	<i>C. majus</i> <i>S. diphyllum</i> <i>H. japonica</i>	leave and whole plant root rhizome	(Jang et al, 2004; Park et al, 2011) (Schlotterbeck and Watkins, 1902) (Cheng et al, 2011)
53	tetrahydroberberine	<i>H. japonica</i>	rhizome	(Cheng et al, 2011)
54	tetrahydrocoptisine	<i>C. majus</i>	whole plant	(Zhou and Chen, 1989)
55	berberine	<i>C. majus</i> <i>M. cordata</i> <i>H. japonica</i> <i>D. lactuoides</i>	whole plant fruit rhizome root	(Park et al, 2011) (Hu et al, 1979) (Cheng et al, 2011) (Gregorová et al, 2010)
56	berberrabine	<i>M. microcarpa</i>	whole plant	(Yang et al, 2010)
57	dehydrocheilanthifoline	<i>M. cordata</i>	fruit	(Wu et al, 2009)
58	8-oxycoptisine	<i>C. majus</i>	whole plant	(Zhou and Chen, 1989)

(To be continued)

(Continued Table 1)

No.	Compounds	Sources	Parts of plants	References
59	coptisine	<i>C. majus</i> <i>M. cordata</i> <i>H. japonica</i> <i>D. lactuoides</i>	whole plant fruit rhizome root	(Kuznetsova et al, 2005) (Hu et al, 1979) (Cheng et al, 2011) (Gregorová et al, 2010)
Protopine alkaloids				
60	α -alloecryptopine	<i>M. cordata</i> <i>M. microcarpa</i>	fruit whole plant	(Hu et al, 1979; Ye et al, 2009) (Yang et al, 2010)
61	β -alloecryptopine	<i>M. cordata</i> <i>M. microcarpa</i>	fruit whole plant	(Hu et al, 1979) (Yang et al, 2010)
62	cryptopine	<i>M. cordata</i> <i>D. leptopodum</i> <i>H. japonica</i>	fruit rhizome rhizome	(Ye et al, 2009) (Zhou, 1988) (Cheng et al, 2011)
63	protopine	<i>C. majus</i> <i>M. cordata</i> <i>M. microcarpa</i> <i>D. leptopodum</i> <i>D. lactuoides</i> <i>H. japonica</i> <i>S. canadensis</i> <i>E. chionantha</i>	whole plant fruit whole plant whole plant root rhizome rhizome rhizome	(Zhou and Chen, 1989) (Pang, 2005) (Yang et al, 2010) (Zhou, 1988) (Gregorová et al, 2010) (Cheng et al, 2011) (Dostál et al, 1996) (Du et al, 1993)
64	<i>cis</i> -protopinium	<i>D. leptopodum</i>	whole plant	(Liu et al, 2011)
65	<i>trans</i> -protopinium	<i>D. leptopodum</i>	whole plant	(Liu et al, 2011)
Aporphines				
66	corydine	<i>C. majus</i> <i>D. leptopodum</i>	root whole plant	(Shafiee and Jafarabadi, 1998) (Chang et al, 1981)
67	dicranostigmine	<i>D. leptopodum</i>	whole plant	(Liu et al, 2011; Yan et al, 2009)
68	magniflorine	<i>D. leptopodum</i>	whole plant	(Chang et al, 1982)
69	glaucine	<i>D. leptopodum</i>	whole plant	(Zhao et al, 2010)
70	isocorydine	<i>D. leptopodum</i>	whole plant	(Chang et al, 1981; Liu et al, 2011)
71	<i>N</i> -norcorydine	<i>C. majus</i>	root	(Shafiee and Jafarabadi, 1998)
72	<i>N</i> -methylhernovine	<i>D. leptopodum</i>	whole plant	(Liu et al, 2011)
Others				
73	(-)-turkiyenine	<i>C. majus</i>	whole plant	(Kadan et al, 1990)
74	corysamine	<i>M. cordata</i>	fruit	(Hu et al, 1979)
75	sinoacutine	<i>D. leptopodum</i>	whole plant	(Yan et al, 2009; Liu et al, 2011)
76	sparteine	<i>C. majus</i>	whole plant	(Preininger, 1986)
Amides				
77	adenosine	<i>M. microcarpa</i>	root	(Deng, 2008)
78	arnottianamide	<i>M. microcarpa</i>	root	(Deng, 2008; Deng and Qin, 2010)
79	<i>n-p</i> -coumaroyltyramine	<i>M. microcarpa</i>	root	(Deng and Qin, 2010)
80	<i>n</i> -methyl-4,5-methylene-di-ol-succinimide	<i>M. cordata</i>	stem	(Pang, 2005)
Aromatic acid and their derivatives				
81	<i>m</i> -hydroxybenzoic acid	<i>M. cordata</i>	aerial part and seed	(Kosina et al, 2010)
82	<i>p</i> -hydroxybenzoic acid	<i>M. cordata</i>	aerial part and seed	(Kosina et al, 2010)
83	gallic acid	<i>M. cordata</i>	aerial part and seed	(Kosina et al, 2010)
84	gentisic acid	<i>M. cordata</i>	aerial part and seed	(Kosina et al, 2010)
85	protocatechuic acid	<i>M. cordata</i>	aerial part and seed	(Kosina et al, 2010)
86	caffeic acid	<i>C. majus</i> <i>M. cordata</i>	whole plant aerial part and seed	(Hahn and Nahrstedt, 1993) (Kosina et al, 2010)
87	(+)-(<i>E</i>)-caffeoyl- <i>L</i> -malic acid	<i>C. majus</i>	aerial part	(Hahn and Nahrstedt, 1993)
88	(-)-4-(<i>E</i>)-caffeoyl- <i>L</i> -threonic acid	<i>C. majus</i>	aerial part	(Hahn and Nahrstedt, 1993)
89	(-)-2-(<i>E</i>)-caffeoyl- <i>L</i> -threonic acid lactone	<i>C. majus</i>	aerial part	(Hahn and Nahrstedt, 1993)
90	2-(<i>-</i>)-caffeoyl- <i>D</i> -glyceric acid	<i>C. majus</i>	aerial part	(Hahn and Nahrstedt, 1993)
91	ferulic acid	<i>C. majus</i> <i>M. cordata</i>	aerial part aerial part and seed	(Hahn and Nahrstedt, 1993) (Kosina et al, 2010)
92	4- <i>O</i> - β - <i>D</i> -glucoside of (<i>E</i>)-ferulic acid	<i>M. microcarpa</i>	root	(Deng, 2008)

(To be continued)

(Continued Table 1)

No.	Compounds	Sources	Parts of plants	References
93	coumaric acid	<i>C. majus</i> <i>M. cordata</i>	aerial part aerial part and seed	(Hahn and Nahrstedt, 1993) (Kosina et al, 2010)
94	sinapic acid	<i>M. cordata</i>	aerial part and seed	(Kosina et al, 2010)
95	3,4',6'-trihydroxy-5-methoxy-2'-methyl-biphenyl-2-carboxylic acid	<i>M. cordata</i>	stem	(Pang, 2005)
96	3- <i>O</i> -feruloylquinic acid	<i>M. microcarpa</i>	root	(Deng, 2008)
97	methyl 3- <i>O</i> -feruloylquininate	<i>M. microcarpa</i>	root	(Deng, 2008)
98	chelidonic acid	<i>C. majus</i> <i>S. diphyllum</i>	aerial part root	(Ashok and Sharma, 1988) (Schlotterbeck and Watkins, 1902)
<i>Aliphatic acids and their derivatives</i>				
99	15-nonacosanol	<i>E. chionantha</i>	aerial part	(Du et al, 2006)
100	citric acid	<i>C. majus</i>	whole plant	(Committee on herbal medicinal products, 2012)
101	malic acid	<i>C. majus</i>	whole plant	(Committee on herbal medicinal products, 2012)
102	succinic acid	<i>M. cordata</i>	aerial part and seed	(Kosina et al, 2010)
103	butyl stearate	<i>E. chionantha</i>	aerial part	(Du et al, 2006)
104	butyl palmitate	<i>E. chionantha</i>	aerial part	(Du et al, 2006)
105	monopalmitin	<i>M. microcarpa</i>	root	(Deng, 2008)
106	<i>n</i> -dotriacontanol	<i>E. chionantha</i>	aerial part	(Du et al, 2006)
107	<i>n</i> -nonanoic acid	<i>E. chionantha</i>	aerial part	(Du et al, 2006)
108	butyric acid	<i>M. cordata</i>	seed oil	(Kosina et al, 2010)
109	capronic acid	<i>M. cordata</i>	seed oil	(Kosina et al, 2010)
110	caprylic acid	<i>M. cordata</i>	seed oil	(Kosina et al, 2010)
111	capric acid	<i>M. cordata</i>	seed oil	(Kosina et al, 2010)
112	undecanoic acid	<i>M. cordata</i>	seed oil	(Kosina et al, 2010)
113	tridecanoic acid	<i>M. cordata</i>	seed oil	(Kosina et al, 2010)
114	myristic acid	<i>M. cordata</i>	seed oil	(Kosina et al, 2010)
115	<i>cis</i> -10-pentadecanoic acid	<i>M. cordata</i>	seed oil	(Kosina et al, 2010)
116	palmitoleic acid	<i>M. cordata</i>	seed oil	(Kosina et al, 2010)
117	<i>all-cis</i> -7,10,13-hexadecatrienoic acid	<i>M. cordata</i>	seed oil	(Kosina et al, 2010)
118	heptadecanoic acid	<i>M. cordata</i>	seed oil	(Kosina et al, 2010)
119	<i>cis</i> -10-heptadecanoic acid	<i>M. cordata</i>	seed oil	(Kosina et al, 2010)
120	stearic acid	<i>M. cordata</i>	seed oil	(Kosina et al, 2010)
121	elaidic acid	<i>M. cordata</i>	seed oil	(Kosina et al, 2010)
122	oleic acid	<i>M. cordata</i>	seed oil	(Kosina et al, 2010)
123	<i>cis</i> -11-octadecenoic acid	<i>M. cordata</i>	seed oil	(Kosina et al, 2010)
124	linolelaidic acid	<i>M. cordata</i>	seed oil	(Kosina et al, 2010)
125	linoleic acid	<i>M. cordata</i>	seed oil	(Kosina et al, 2010)
126	linolenic acid	<i>M. cordata</i>	seed oil	(Kosina et al, 2010)
127	arachidic acid	<i>M. cordata</i>	seed oil	(Kosina et al, 2010)
128	eicosenoic acid	<i>M. cordata</i>	seed oil	(Kosina et al, 2010)
129	palmitic acid	<i>E. chionantha</i> <i>M. cordata</i>	aerial part seed oil	(Du et al, 2006) (Kosina et al, 2010)
<i>Other aromatics</i>				
130	4-hydroxy-3-methoxy-cinnamaldehyde	<i>M. cordata</i>	stem	(Pang, 2005)
131	4-hydroxy-3-methoxybenzaldehyde	<i>M. cordata</i>	stem	(Pang, 2005)
132	3,4,5-trimethoxy-phenol	<i>M. cordata</i>	stem	(Pang, 2005)
133	diphylline	<i>S. diphyllum</i>	root	(Schlotterbeck and Watkins, 1902)
<i>Alkanes and alkenes</i>				
134	<i>n</i> -pentadecane	<i>E. chionantha</i>	aerial part	(Du et al, 2006)
135	<i>n</i> -hexadecane	<i>E. chionantha</i>	aerial part	(Du et al, 2006)
136	<i>n</i> -heptadecane	<i>E. chionantha</i>	aerial part	(Du et al, 2006)
137	<i>n</i> -octadecane	<i>E. chionantha</i>	aerial part	(Du et al, 2006)
138	<i>n</i> -nonadecane	<i>E. chionantha</i>	aerial part	(Du et al, 2006)
139	<i>n</i> -eicosane	<i>E. chionantha</i>	aerial part	(Du et al, 2006)
140	<i>n</i> -heneicosane	<i>E. chionantha</i>	aerial part	(Du et al, 2006)

(To be continued)

(Continued Table 1)

No.	Compounds	Sources	Parts of plants	References
141	<i>n</i> -docosane	<i>E. chionantha</i>	aerial part	(Du et al, 2006)
142	<i>n</i> -tricosane	<i>E. chionantha</i>	aerial part	(Du et al, 2006)
143	<i>n</i> -tetracosane	<i>E. chionantha</i>	aerial part	(Du et al, 2006)
144	<i>n</i> -pentacosane	<i>E. chionantha</i>	aerial part	(Du et al, 2006)
145	<i>n</i> -hexacosane	<i>E. chionantha</i>	aerial part	(Du et al, 2006)
146	<i>n</i> -heptacosane	<i>E. chionantha</i>	aerial part	(Du et al, 2006)
147	<i>n</i> -octacosane	<i>E. chionantha</i>	aerial part	(Du et al, 2006)
148	<i>n</i> -nonacosane	<i>E. chionantha</i>	aerial part	(Du et al, 2006)
149	<i>n</i> -triacontane	<i>E. chionantha</i>	aerial part	(Du et al, 2006)
150	Z-14-nonacosene	<i>E. chionantha</i>	aerial part	(Du et al, 2006)
Triterpenoids				
151	3 α ,22 α -dihydroxy-olean-12(13)-en-30-oic-acid	<i>E. chionantha</i>	aerial part	(Zhen et al, 2007)
152	3 α -hydroxy-oleanan-12(13)-ene-30-oic acid	<i>M. cordata</i>	stem	(Pang, 2005)
153	3 β -hydroxy-oleanan-12(13)-ene-30-oic acid	<i>M. microcarpa</i>	root	(Deng, 2008)
154	3-oxoolean-12(13)-en-30-oic acid	<i>M. microcarpa</i>	root	(Deng, 2008)
155	β -amyrin acetate	<i>E. chionantha</i>	aerial part	(Du et al, 2006)
156	oleanolic acid	<i>M. microcarpa</i>	stem	(Qin et al, 2004)
157	lupenyl acetate	<i>E. chionantha</i>	whole plant	(Du et al, 1993; Du et al, 2006)
158	1-oxohop-2,22(30)-dien-29-oic	<i>M. microcarpa</i>	root	(Deng, 2008)
159	dicranostigmone	<i>D. leptopodum</i>	whole plant	(Wang and Li, 2010)
Sterols				
160	β -sitosterol	<i>M. cordata</i> <i>E. chionantha</i>	stem aerial part	(Pang, 2005) (Du et al, 2006)
161	β -daucosterol	<i>M. microcarpa</i> <i>E. chionantha</i>	root aerial part	(Deng, 2008) (Zhen et al, 2007)
162	stigmasterol	<i>M. microcarpa</i>	root	(Deng, 2008)

2.1.3 Protopines

Six protopine alkaloids **60–65** were identified in *D. leptopodum*, *H. japonica*, and genus *Macleaya* R. Br.

2.1.4 Aporphines

Seven aporphine alkaloids **66–72** were found from the root of *C. majus* and whole plant of *D. leptopodum*.

2.1.5 Others

There are other four alkaloids isolated from this tribe. (–)-Turkiyenine (**73**) is a turkitenine-type alkaloid, corysamine (**74**) is a benzoquinolizin-type alkaloid, sinoacutine (**75**) belongs to oxomorphine type, and sparteine (**76**) from *C. majus* is a nor-lupinane-type alkaloid.

2.2 Amides

Three amides **77–79** from the root of *M. microcarpa* were determined. As well, compound **80** from *M. cordata* was identified as an imine (Figure 3).

2.3 Organic acids and their derivatives

2.3.1 Aromatic acids and derivatives

Eighteen aromatic acids and their derivatives **81–98** were found in tribe Chelidoniaceae. Phenolic acids in *M. cordata* were determined in four fractions: free acids, constituents of soluble esters, glycosides, and insoluble esters. And the major acids were *p*-hydroxybenzoic, ferulic, and sinapic acids in all *M. cordata* samples (Kosina et al, 2010).

2.3.2 Aliphatic acids and derivatives

Thirty one aliphatic acids and their derivatives **99–129** were identified from *C. majus*, *M. cordata*, *M. microcarpa*, and *E. chionantha*.

2.3.3 Other aromatics

Another four aromatics **130–133** had been isolated from *M. cordata* and *S. diphyllum*. All the structures of organic acids and their derivatives from the tribe are shown in Figure 4.

2.4 Alkanes and alkenes

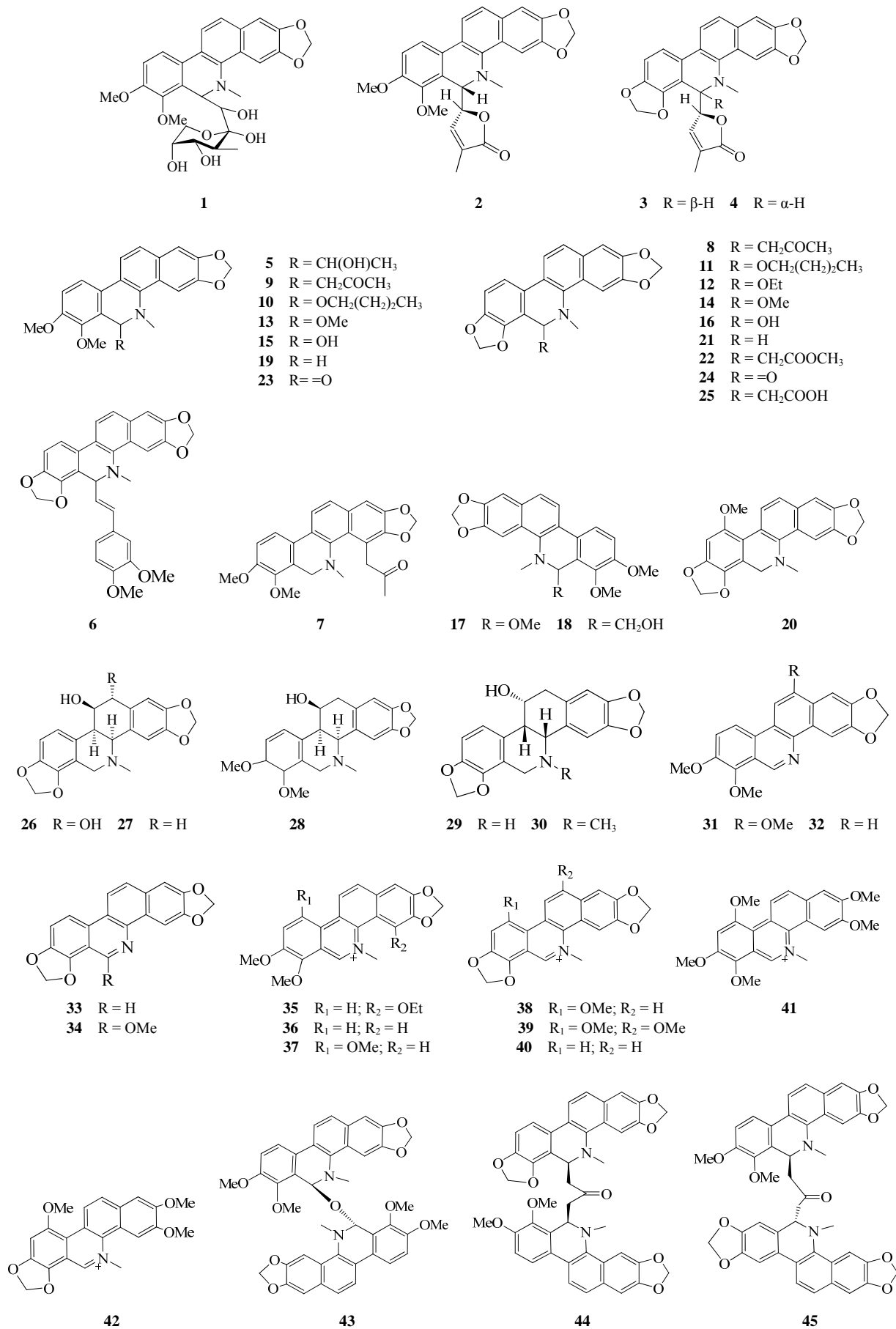
Du et al, (2006) identified sixteen alkanes **134–149** from *n*-pentadecane to *n*-triacontane, and one alkene **150** from the petroleum ether extract of *E. chionantha* by GC-MS.

2.5 Triterpenoids

Six oleanane-type triterpenoids **151–156** were isolated from genera *Macleaya* R. Br. and *Eomecon* Hance. Lupenyl acetate (**157**), a lupane-triterpenoid, was found in *E. chionantha*. 1-oxohop-2,22(30)-dien-29-oic (**158**) and dicranostigmone (**159**) were hopane-triterpenoid, and **159** was yet only found in *D. leptopodum* (Figure 5).

2.6 Sterols

β -Sitosterol (**160**) and β -daucosterol (**161**) were found both in *M. cordata* and *E. chionantha*. Stigmasterol (**162**) was obtained from *M. microcarpa* (Figure 6).



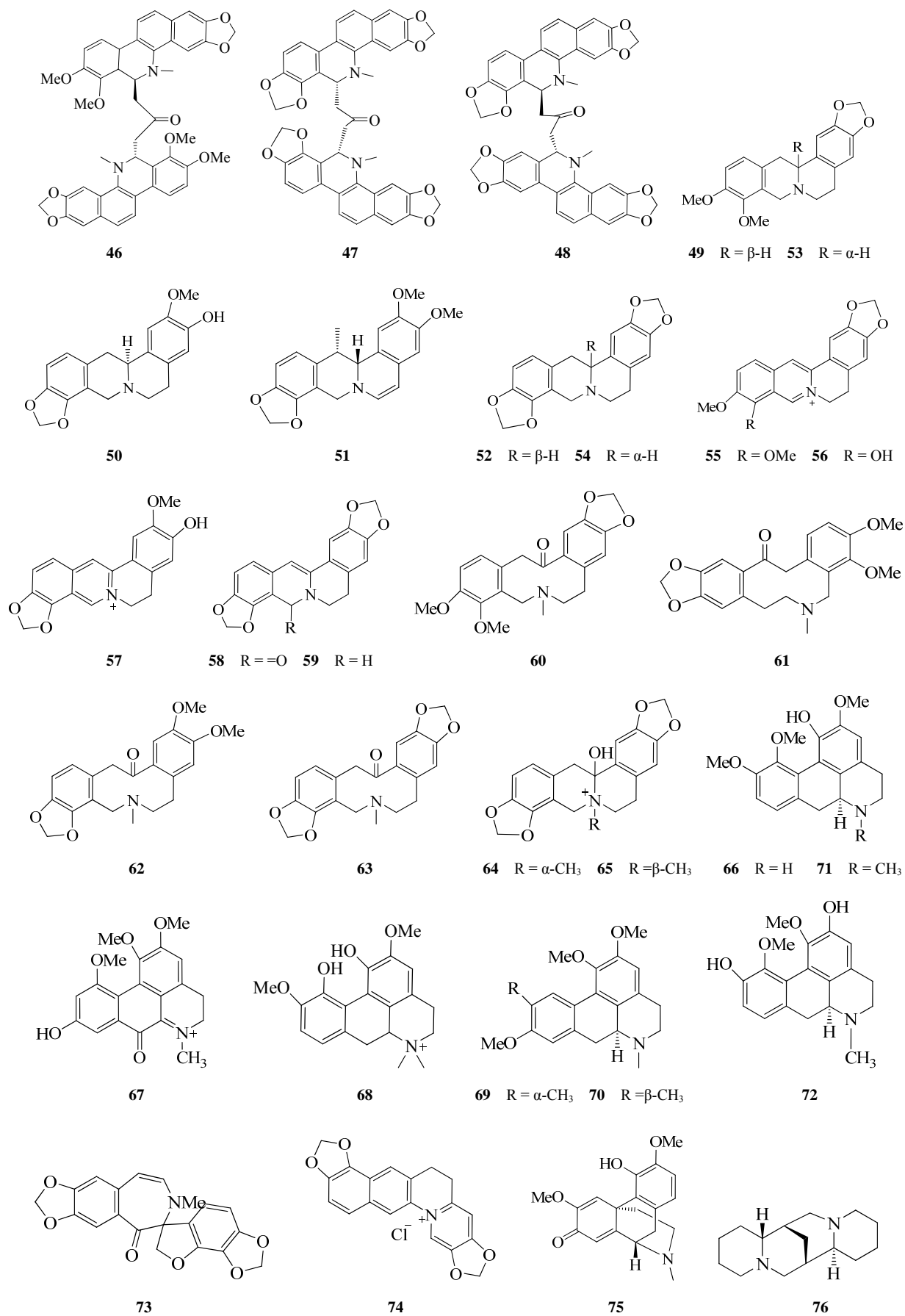


Figure 2 Chemical structures of alkaloids in tribe Chelidoniae

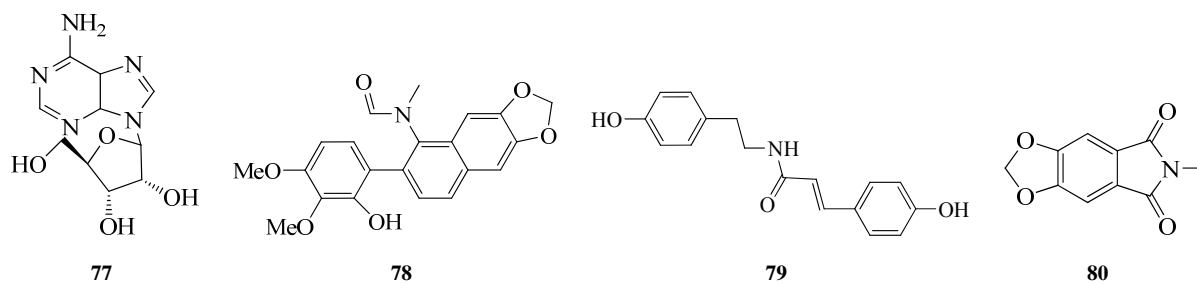
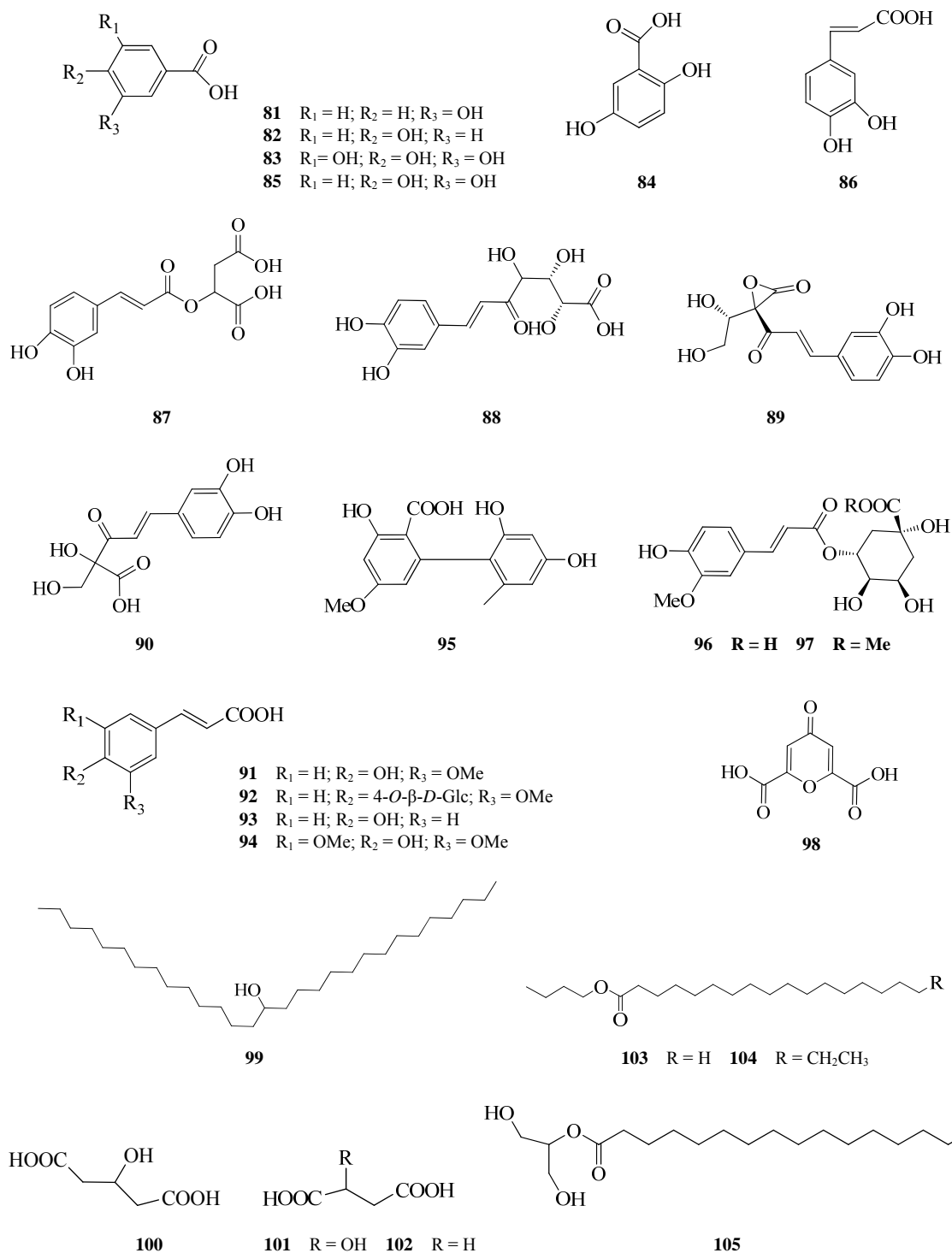


Figure 3 Chemical structures of amides in tribe Chelidoniaceae



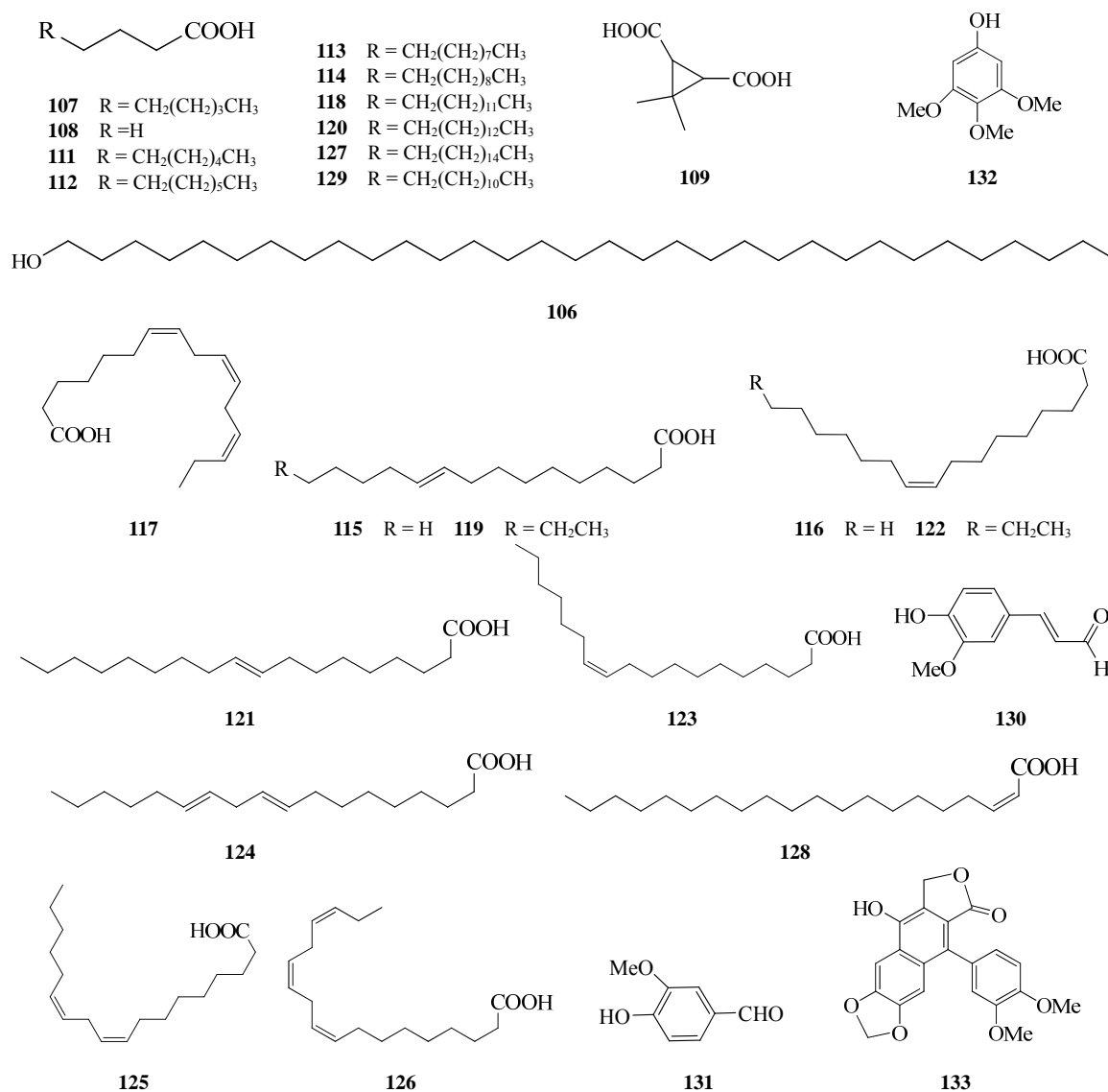


Figure 4 Chemical structures of organic acids and their derivatives in tribe Chelidoniaceae

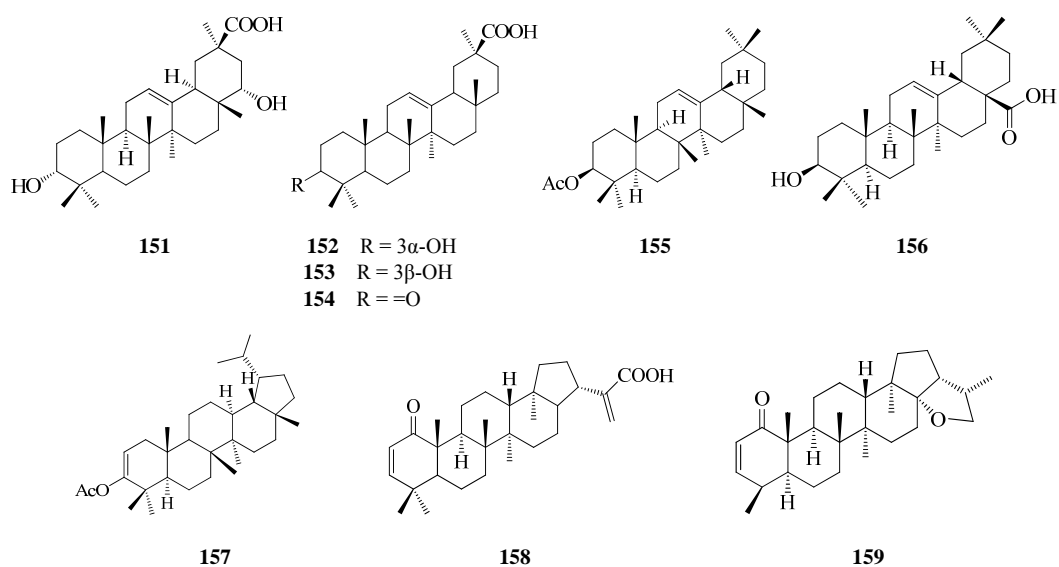


Figure 5 Chemical structures of triterpenoids in tribe Chelidoniaceae

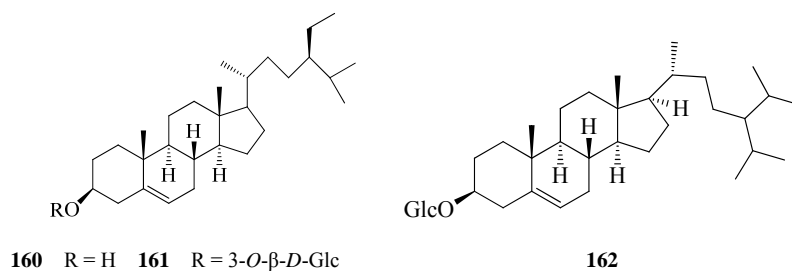


Figure 6 Chemical structures of sterols in tribe Chelidoneae

2.7 Essential oils

An analysis of the essential oils extracted from *M. cordata* by GC-MS showed that 48 ingredients had been found and 39 of them had been identified, accounting for 92.464% of the total essential oils. The main compounds were 2-methoxy-4-vinylphenol (11.270%), benzoic acid, 4-nitrosoethyl ester (11.178%), (*E*)-2-hexenal (10.415%), cedrol (7.371%), 2-undecanone, 6,10-dimethyl-phthalic acid (6.929%), isobutyl actyl ester (5.700%), and 2-phenylpropenal (4.509%), etc (Chen et al, 2009).

2.8 Minerals

To date, the concentration of 24 elements (Al, As, B, Ba, Ca, Cd, Co, Cr, Cu, Fe, Hg, K, Li, Mg, Mn, Mo, Na, Ni, P, Pb, S, Ti, V, and Zn) in crude drugs (herb and root), in their aqueous solutions (infusion and decoction) and alcoholic extracts were studied by ICP-OES. The difference among the concentration of the elements in extracts, except for Cu, Mg, and Na, was highly significant. It has been found that the root contains higher concentrations of mineral elements except for B, Cu, P, and S. The infusion contained most elements in the highest concentration and proved to be the best source for obtaining minerals. The same tendency was observed in the case of dissolutions. In aqueous extracts, the dissolution of mineral elements was between 10%–65% for most elements, especially for K (65%) and P (54%). The dissolution of mineral elements in the case of tinctures decreased with increasing alcohol concentration. It may be stated that the presence of macro- and microelements in extracts greatly contributed to their therapeutical value (Sárközi et al, 2005).

2.9 Proteins

A new extracellular peroxidase of about 40 000 from *C. majus* milky sap was isolated and characterized. This protein belonged to secretory class III plant peroxidases and its activity was also accompanied by DN-ase activities (Nawrot et al, 2007). Two nucleases, CMN1 of 20 000 and CMN2 of 36 000, were also isolated from *C. majus* milky sap (Nawrot et al, 2008). A cysteine proteinase inhibitor, named chelidocystain, was isolated from *C. majus* using papain sepharose affinity chromatography followed by gel filtration and ion-exchange chromatography (Rogelj et al, 1998). A polyphenoloxidase (PPO) of 65 000 was purified from *C.*

majus by means of affinity chromatography into electrophoretic homogeneity. It exerted two activities, the monophenolase and diphenolase ones (Bilka et al, 2007).

S-Adenosyl-*L*-methionine: a tetrahydroberberine-*cis*-*N*-methyltransferase was isolated and characterized from suspension cultures of *S. canadensis* (O'Keefe and Beecher, 1994). Sanguinarine reductase, a key enzyme in sanguinarine/dihydro-sanguinarine equilibrium, was found for the first time in the soluble proteins of leaves of *M. cordata* (Kosina et al, 2010).

3. Biological activities

Crude extracts and purified compounds derived from the plants of tribe Chelidoneae exhibited a broad spectrum of biological activities (anti-inflammatory, antimicrobial, antitumor, analgesic, hepatoprotective effects) that could support some of their traditional uses.

3.1 Anti-inflammatory effects

The crude extract, quaternary benzophenanthridine fraction, and individual alkaloid of *C. majus* were screened for their anti-inflammatory activities in assays involving collagen-induced arthritis in mice (Lee et al, 2007), carrageenan-induced rat paw oedema (Lenfeld et al, 1981), atopic dermatitis (AD) mouse model (Yang et al, 2011) and detecting the NO and PGE₂ production in macrophages (Park et al, 2011; Jang et al, 2004; Chung et al, 2004). Moreover, chelidonic acid (**98**) might serve as a potential component for use in treatment of mast cell-mediated inflammatory diseases, because it could inhibit the production of interleukin-6 (IL-6) and the expression of IL-6 mRNA through the regulation of nuclear factor-κB and suppress the activation and expression of caspase-1 (Shin et al, 2011). These results provided new insights into the pharmacological effects of *C. majus* in which many components may contribute to its anti-inflammatory activity.

3.2 Immunomodulatory effects

A clinical study showed that *C. majus* tincture improved cellular and humoral immunity, nonspecific resistance and promoted a reduction in the number of recurrences in children with chronic tonsillitis (Khmel'Nitskaia et al, 1998). *C. majus* extract (1.25 mL/kg in single dose) also suppressed immune responses locally by decreasing epidermal Langerhans cells

and contacting hypersensitivity by UVA irradiation in mice (Bark et al, 2010). And the total alkaloids of *C. majus* showed an obvious effect of eliminating phlegm, reliving cough, and antiasthma (Tong et al, 2004; Liu et al, 2006). Furthermore, a protein-bound polysaccharide extracted from *C. majus* showed the mitogenic activity on spleen cells, bone marrow cells, and increased the number of granulocyte macrophage-colony forming cells (GM-CFC) (Song et al, 2002).

The influences of *D. leptopodium* on the immune functions of peritoneal macrophage (PM Φ) were investigated both *in vitro* and *in vivo*. It was found that *D. leptopodium* could induce the activation of PM Φ and enhance their immune functions (Chen et al, 2001).

3.3 Antimicrobial activity

3.3.1 Antibacterial and antifungal activities

Crude extract and a *C. majus* lectin (CML), chelerythrine (**36**), sanguinarine (**40**), 8-hydroxydihydrosanguinarine (**16**), and 8-hydroxydihydrochelerythrine (**15**) showed the significant antibacterial activities on *Bacillus careus*, *Staphylococcus aureus* (Kokoska et al, 2002) and methicillin-resistant *S. aureus* (MRSA), *Streptococcus mutans* (Meng et al, 2009), *Actinobacillus*, multiresistant *Enterococci* (Bark et al, 2010), and antifungal activities on *Candida albicans* (Kokoska et al, 2002), *Fusarium* strains, *Botrytis cinerea*, some clinical drug-resistant yeast isolates (Meng et al, 2009; Dzink and Socransky, 1985), *Tricophyton* strains, *Epidermophyton floccosum*, *Microsporum canis*, *Aspergillus fumigates*, and some dermatophytes, especially the anthropophilic and zoophilic strains (Lenfeld et al, 1981).

Antimicrobial effects of the extracts from *M. cordata* aerial part, seeds, capsules and individual alkaloids were tested *in vitro* against standard reference bacterial strains *S. aureus* CCM 3953, *S. aureus* CCM 4223, *P. aeruginosa* CCM 3955, two strains of *E. coli* (CCM 4225 and CCM 3954), and *S. agalactiae*, representing selected human pathogens. And the most effective compounds were found to be **40** and **36** (Kosina et al, 2010; Zhao et al, 2005); The individual alkaloid hydrochlorides of *M. cordata* displayed the antifungal activities against *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*, *Aspergilla niger*, *Penicillium*, *Rhizopus*, *Mucor*, *Trichoderma*, *Aspergillus oryzae*, and *Aspergillus flavus* (Yu et al, 2006).

Ethanol extract and 6-methoxydihydrosanguinarine (**14**), 6-acetylhydrosanguinarine (**8**), and dihydrosanguinarine (**21**) of *H. hylomeconoides* were very active against MRSA and compound **13** appeared to be the most active with MICs in the range of 1.9–3.9 mg/mL (Choi et al, 2010).

Ethanol extract and total alkaloids of *E. chionantha* and *D. leptopodium* showed potent inhibitory activities on *E. coli*, *Staphylococcus aureus*, *Sarcina*, *Bacillus cereus*, *B. pumilus*, and *Candida albicans* (Sun et al, 2010; Wu et al, 1979).

Crude extracts from the barks and leaves of *B. frutescens* displayed anti-*Mycobacterium tuberculosis* ability (Cruz-Vega et al, 2008). The extracts of *B. integrifolia* could restrain Gram-positive, Gram-negative bacteria, and *C. albicans* (Gachet et al, 2010). MeOH extract, dihydrochelerythrine (**19**)

and dihydrosanguinarine (**21**) of *B. arborea* showed the potent antibacterial and antifungal activities on Gram-positive and Gram-negative bacteria, *S. aureus*, *E. coli*, *P. aeruginosa*, and *C. albicans* (Navarro and Delgado, 1999; Navarro et al, 1996).

3.3.2 Antiviral activity

Alkaloid extracts of *C. majus* showed the antiviral activity against several virus such as herpesvirus, poxvirus, grippevirus, influenza virus, adenoviruses, DNA herpes virus, and the RNA polio virus (Lozjuk et al, 1996; Kéry et al, 1987). A new substance isolated from *C. majus* could inhibit human immunodeficiency virus 1 (HIV-1) (Gerencer et al, 2006).

Preparation of *D. leptopodium* displayed the antiviral activity on contagious pustular dermatitis virus (CPDv) (Wang and Dong, 1998; Dang et al, 2008). Additionally, protoberberine and benzophenanthridine alkaloids were tested for the inhibition of reverse transcriptase (RT) activity of RNA tumor viruses. It was observed that the higher T/C % value resulted in a stronger inhibition of reverse transcriptase activity and the alkaloids with the benzophenanthridine ring system were found to display potent inhibition (Kéry et al, 1987; Sethi, 1981).

3.4 Antitumor activity

The extracts and different compounds from *C. majus* had the following activities that might be responsible for its anti-tumor effect: (a) reduced telomerase activity by chelidonine (**27**) (Noureini and Wink, 2009); (b) inducing tumor cell apoptosis and blister cell death by different alkaloids (Noureini and Wink, 2009; Hichenkov et al, 2008) and nucleases (Nawrot et al, 2008); (c) arrest of mitosis by inhibition (Noureini and Wink, 2009); (d) enhancing NO and tumour necrosis factor-alpha (TNF- α) production via nuclear factor- κ B (NF- κ B) activation (Chung et al, 2004); (e) suppressing the carcinogenesis induced by kinds of carcinogens (Kim et al, 1997; Biswas et al, 2008); and (f) reversing the multidrug resistance (MDR) in carcinoma cells by chelerythrine (**36**) (Cao et al, 2011; Gilca et al, 2010). Both *Chelidonium* extract and isolated alkaloids had cytotoxic effects towards the tumor cells as follows: sarcoma 180, Erlich carcinoma, BGC823, MDR in breast carcinoma cells, OCM-1 and HeLa tumour cell lines, murine NK/Ly lymphoma cells, HT29, MCF-7, MCF-7/ADR, DaOY, SQ20B, SCC61, JSQ3, SCC35, and LnCaP cell lines lymphoblastic leukaemia MT-4 cells (Hichenkov et al, 2008; Sokoloff, 1968).

The crude alkaloid of *M. cordata* significantly inhibited the proliferation of human Hep3B cells and murine H₂₂ cells in a dose-dependent manner *in vitro*. In the tumor-bearing mice, these alkaloids inhibited the development of H₂₂ tumor cells and prolonged the survival time of S₁₈₀ tumor-bearing mice (Pang et al, 2005). Sanguinarine (**40**) and chelerythrine (**36**) were tested to be the active antitumor components of *M. cordata* by determining the IC₅₀ values against A-549, HCT-8 and Bel-7402 cell lines (Yang et al, 2011).

6-Methoxy-dihydro-sanguinarine (**14**) from the plants of *Hylomecon* Maxim. suppressed the growth of HepG2 cells

and HT29 colon carcinoma cells in a concentration and time dependent manner by causing apoptotic cell death (Yin et al, 2005; Lee et al, 2004)

The benzophenanthridines from *M. microcarpa*, in particular those methoxylated at C-6, showed the cytotoxic activities against five human cancer cell lines: HCT-8, Bel-7402, BGC-823, A2780, and A549 (Deng and Qin, 2010). And these crude alkaloids could induce the degeneration necrosis of sarcoma cells in rats as well (Fan et al, 2000).

Several studies suggested that UkrainTM (an anticancer drug whose major components were thiophosphate derivative of total alkaloids from *C. majus*) (Habermehl et al, 2006) exerted multiple selective effects on cancer cells, such as cytotoxic effects on cancer cells without negative effects on normal cells (Hohenwarter et al, 1992) and radio-sensitising effects on cancer cells, but radio-protective effects on normal cells (Cordes et al, 2002).

3.5 Analgesic and antispasmodic effects

The aqueous extract from *C. majus* suppressed glycine, and gamma-aminobutyric acid (GABA) activated ion currents and elevated glutamate-activated ion currents in rat periaqueductal gray neurons which represented a key structure of the descending pain control system (Shin et al, 2003; Kim et al, 2001). *C. majus* alkaloids also had an analgesic effect, similar to that of morphine, which might last 4–48 h (Huang, 1999). In addition, the extracts of *C. majus*, as well as the isolated alkaloids, exhibited the antispasmodic and relaxant effects on the abdominal and gastrointestinal muscles of animals, being especially efficient in treating abdominal pain (Boegge et al, 1996; Hiller et al, 1998).

3.6 Hepatoprotective activity

The ethanol extract from *C. majus* exerted the marked hepatoprotective effect against CCl₄ toxicity of rats by a reduction of the necrotic cells a prevention of fibrotic changes, and decreased the activities of transaminases and bilirubin (Mittra et al, 1992; 1996). It was also efficient in combating *p*-dimethylaminoazobenzene-induced hepatocarcinogenesis in mice (Biswas et al, 2008).

The extracts from *M. cordata* could improve the liver functions of acute hepatic injuries in rats caused by CCl₄ or galactosamine according to its abilities of reducing the level of serum LDH and mortality, increasing the ratio of A/G, protecting cellular membrane and inhibiting fibrosis (Yang et al, 1999). It could also protect the alcohol-induced acute hepatic injuries by inhibiting hepatic lipid peroxidation and alleviating the inflammation (Xiao et al, 2011).

The extract from *D. leptopodum* had the protective effects on the experimental liver injuries induced by CCl₄ in mice. The mechanisms may contribute to its anti-oxidative activities and its effects of removing free radicals generated by CCl₄ metabolism, suppressing LPD of membrane, and decreasing the level of MDA (Mao et al, 2008; Zhang et al, 2004). It had a certain effect as well on the immune hepatic

injuries induced by BCG plus LPS in mice (Mao et al, 2004).

The single alkaloid chelerythrine (**36**) could improve the hepatic injuries in rats with tetrachloride-induced hepatic fibrosis in a dose-dependent manner (Li et al, 2009), it could reduce the level of serum HA but not serum ALT, while it could not protect the liver cells of hepatic fibrosis in rats (Wang et al, 2010).

3.7 Choloretic activity

A hydroethanolic extract containing 1.5% total alkaloids of *C. majus* calculated as chelidonine (**27**) ig administered could increase the bile flow in subjects with liver diseases and healthy volunteers (Baumann 1975; Baumann et al, 1971). Stimulatory effects of the total alkaloids and phenolic fraction from *C. majus* had been reported on bile acid-independent flow in isolated perfused rat liver. After 40 min, the amount of bile was more than twice of the initial value and the bile acid concentration was reduced. However, this effect could not just be assigned to one of the two isolated fractions (Vahlensieck et al, 1995).

3.8 Anti-oxidantive activity

Although the alcoholic extract from *C. majus* showed the strong anti-oxidative activity measured by different assays, such as 1, 1-diphenyl-2-picrylhydrazyl radical scavenging assay or FRAP assay, this did not depend on the alkaloid content of the drug or transition metal element content (Then et al, 2003; Nadova et al, 2008). There was also an animal study that reported a slight but significant reduction of glutathione level and SOD activity in the liver after ig administration of a massive dose of *C. majus* [1.5–3 g/(kg·d)] (Mazzanti et al, 2009). These results suggest that, in spite of its intrinsic antioxidant properties, *C. majus* might compromise the hepatic anti-oxidant protection in case of overdose (Gilca et al, 2010).

In murine macrophage RAW264.7 cells, *M. cordata* extract increased both mRNA and protein levels of 20 HO-1. And only sanguinarine (**40**) appeared to be responsible for these effects by increasing the capacity of the enzymatic anti-oxidant defence system via activation of the p38 MAPK/Nrf2 pathway (Vrba et al, 2012).

Major alkaloids from *C. majus*, *M. cordata*, and *M. microcarpa*, namely, berberine (**55**), sanguinarine (**40**), chelidonine (**27**), and drugs Ukrain and Sanguirythrine [a mixture of alkaloids sanguinarine (**40**) and chelerythrine (**36**), 3:7, isolated from *Macleaya*] were tested for their anti-oxidative activities. They were all irreversible inhibitors of oxidative deamination reaction of serotonin and tyramine as substrates, catalyzed by rat liver mitochondrial monoamine oxidase (MAO) (Iagodina et al, 2003; Kuznetsova et al, 2001).

Chelerythrine (**36**) chloride illustrated the neuroprotective activity by protecting SHSY5Y neuronal cells against oxygen-glucose deprivation through activating the superoxide dismutase, then reducing the intracellular concentration of superoxide anion and calcium, thereafter inhibiting protein

kinase C (Zou et al, 2009).

Anticholinesterase effect was related tightly to anti-oxidative activity. Ethanol extract from the aerial parts of *C. majus* inhibited acetylcholinesterase (AChE) activity without a significant inhibition of butyrylcholinesterase (BuChE). Using mass spectrometry and NMR studies, three active constituents were isolated and identified as 8-hydroxy-dihydrochelerythrine (**15**), 8-hydroxy-dihydrosanguinarine (**16**), and berberine (**55**). They showed potent inhibitory activity against AChE, with IC₅₀ values of 0.61–1.85 mmol/L. Compound **15** exhibited the competitive and selective inhibition for AChE (Cho et al, 2006). Then five isoquinoline alkaloids, along with two artifacts from the roots and aerial parts of *C. majus* were tested for the inhibitory activity against human blood acetylcholinesterase (HuAChE) and human plasma butyrylcholinesterase (HuBuChE). The most active one of the naturally-occurring alkaloids was chelidonine (**27**) which inhibited both HuAChE and HuBuChE in a dose-dependent manner with IC₅₀ values of (26.8 ± 1.2) and (31.9 ± 1.4) mmol/L, respectively (Cahlikova et al, 2010). Meanwhile, it showed that some benzophenanthridine and diisoquinoline alkaloids from *C. majus*, *M. cordata*, *M. microcarpa* (**55**, **40**, and **36**) and two drugs (Ukrain and Sanguirythrine) inhibited the enzyme activity of AChE from human erythrocyte. All agents under the study had been shown to be reversible inhibitors of the enzymatic hydrolysis of acetylthiocholine. It had been determined that compound **31** belonged to the reversible inhibitors of a competitive type and all other examined agents had been demonstrated to be the inhibitors of a mixed competitive-noncompetitive type (Kuznetsova et al, 2005).

3.9 Antiparasitic and antimolluscicidal effects

In vivo anthelmintic efficacy tests exhibited that chelidonine (**27**) and chelerythrine (**36**) from *C. majus* were 100% effective against *Dactylogyrus intermedius* at the concentration of 0.9 and 1.60 mg/L, with EC₅₀ values of 0.48 mg/L for compound **27** and 0.68 mg/L for compound **36** after 48 h exposure (Yao et al, 2011; Li et al, 2011).

In vitro antiparasitic efficacy tests indicated that sanguinarine (**40**) from *M. cordata* was 100% effective against *Ichthyophthirius multifiliis* in grass carp (*Ctenopharyngodon idella*) at a concentration of 0.7 mg/L, with LC₅₀ and LC₉₀ values of 0.437 and 0.853 mg/L after 4 h exposure, and the number of *I. multifiliis* on the gills in the treatment group (in 0.9 mg/L, **40**) was reduced by 96.8%, compared to the untreated group at 25 °C for 48 h. Mortality of fish did not occur in the treatment group during the trial, although 40% the untreated fish died (Yao et al, 2010). The chloroform extract from *M. microcarpa* also showed a promising antiparasitic activity against *I. multifiliis*. The *in vivo* tests revealed that dihydrosanguinarine (**21**) and dihydrochelerythrine (**19**) were effective against *I. multifiliis* with EC₅₀ values of 5.18 and 9.43 mg/L, respectively. The LC₅₀ values of compounds **21** and **19** for richadsin were 13.3 and 18.2 mg/L, respectively (Yao et al, 2011), and these two

active alkaloids at the same time were clarified to have insecticidal activities against *Mythimna separata* larvae (Feng et al, 2008). Other five bioactive alkaloids, sanguinarine (**40**), cryptopine (**67**), β-allocryptopine (**61**), protopine (**63**), and 6-methoxy-dihydrochelerythrine (**13**) from *M. microcarpa* were found to be 100% effective at the concentration of 0.7, 8.0, 8.0, 16.0, and 7.0 mg/L with the EC₅₀ values of 0.37, 3.31, 4.64, 8.13, and 3.63 mg/L, respectively, in *in vivo* anthelmintic assays (Wang et al, 2010). Additionally, the alkaloids from *E. chionantha* were testified to be against *Schistosoma japonicum* cercaria (Huang et al, 2003).

Crude methanolic extract from *B. frutescens* showed the moderate activity (IC₅₀ 30.9 μg/mL) against *Trichomonas vaginalis*, which was the etiological agent of trichomoniasis (Calzada et al, 2007). And *B. integrifolia* showed the *in vitro* activity against axenic amastigotes of *Leishmania donovani*, *Plasmodium falciparum*, *Trypanosoma brucei rhodesiense*, and *Trypanosoma cruzi* (Gachet et al, 2010). As well, the methanolic extract from *B. pearcei* fruit exhibited the most potent leishmanicidal activity *in vitro* with the minimum lethal concentration (MLC) of 3.1 mg/mL (Fuchino et al, 2010).

The molluscicidal effects of the alkaloids and derivatives from *Macleaya cordata* and *Eomecon chionantha* against *Oncomelania hupensis* snails, the intermediate host of schistosomiasis was revealed to be both time and concentration dependent (Huang et al, 2003; Zhong et al, 2011; Liu et al, 2001). The toxicity of these alkaloids to fish was lower than that to oncomelania, the total alkaloids thus represented a promising plant-derived molluscicide (Yang et al, 2003).

3.10 Anti-ulcerogenic activity

The extract from *C. majus* had demonstrated the anti-ulcerogenic activity against indomethacin-induced gastric ulcers in rats as well as antisecretory and cytoprotective activities. The anti-ulcerogenic activity was associated with an increase in prostaglandin E₂ release and a decrease in leukotrienes (Khayyal et al, 2001). The aqueous extract of *B. frutescens* showed the highest antisecretory activity on cholera toxin-induced intestinal secretion in rat jejunal loops model with inhibition values of 86.0% (Velázquez et al, 2006).

3.11 Other activities

3.11.1 Irradiation-protective activity

An extract from *C. majus* was found to increase the number of bone marrow cells, spleen cells, GM-CFC, platelets and to favour the survival at lethal doses in irradiated mice (Song et al, 2003). Also, Ukrain minimized the consequences of irradiation in the endocrine system of the trial animals (Luksa-Lichtenthaeler et al, 2000).

3.11.2 Anti-osteoporotic activity

UkrainTM, when ip administered to ovariectomized mature female rats, prevented the decrease of bone mineral density of the femur measured by energy X-ray absorptiometry densitometry (Jabłoński et al, 2000), and

increased the electron paramagnetic resonance (EPR) signal intensity of the femur (Jabłoński et al, 2000). These effects are most probably related to an increased production of estrogens (Gilca et al, 2010; Jabłoński, 2000).

3.1.1.3 Antihematolysis activity

The effect of *D. leptopodium* extract on oxidative hemolysis of mouse erythrocytes was tested *in vitro*. It had been found that *D. leptopodium* extract was effective in suppressing the hemolysis induced by H₂O₂ or acetyl phenyl hydrazine (APH), which might be due to the enhancement of activity of glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase (G-6-PD) (Zhao et al, 2006).

3.1.1.4 Antimicrotubule activity

Chelidonine (**27**), sanguinarine (**40**), and chelerythrine (**36**) were tested to inhibit taxol-mediated polymerization of rat brain tubulin in the micromolar range. Compound **27** was a weak and competitive inhibitor of colchicine binding to tubulin and did not inhibit podophyllotoxin binding. On the other hand, compound **40** inhibited both colchicine and podophyllotoxin binding to tubulin with ISO values of 32 and 46 pmol/L, respectively, and compound **36** inhibited with ISO values of 55 and 60 pmol/L, respectively. The inhibition by these two agents was of the mixed type. A number of previously described pharmacologic effects of these agents might be due to their inhibition of microtubule function (Wolff and Knipling, 1993).

3.1.1.5 Vasoactive activity

The extract from *B. frutescens* induced concentration-dependent contraction of rat aortic rings, suggesting that this plant had potential health benefits for the treatment of ailments such as venous insufficiency (Ibarra-Alvarado et al, 2010).

3.1.1.6 Receptors inhibiting effects

The 80% ethanol extract from the roots of *B. frutescens*, showed a dose-dependent inhibitory effect towards both [3H]-angiotensin II and [3H]-BQ-123 binding to the human angiotensin II At1 and endothelin 1 ETA receptors. Sanguinarine (**40**) and chelerythrine (**36**) were significant inhibitors of [3H]-angiotensin II binding (hAT1 receptor), with IC₅₀ values within the micromolar range (Caballero-George et al, 2002). Chelidocystatin of *C. majus* was a strong inhibitor of cathepsin L ($K_i = 5.6 \times 10^{11}$ mol/L), papain ($K_i = 1.1 \times 10^{10}$ mol/L) and cathepsin H ($K_i = 7.5 \times 10^9$ mol/L) (Rogelj et al, 1998).

3.12 Toxicities

3.12.1 Cytotoxicity

Pang (2005) had tested the cytotoxic activity of 14 components from *M. cordata* on MCF-7, NCI-H460, HeLa, and HepG2 cancer cell lines as well as human normal 293 cells by MTT method. Results showed that sanguinarine (**40**) and 6-methoxydihydrochelerythrine (**13**) strongly inhibited the growth of four kinds of tumor cells together with 293 cells

in vitro, and protopine (**63**) showed the selective cytotoxicity on HeLa and HepG2 cell lines while displayed relatively weak cytotoxicity on human normal 293 cells. The *M. cordata* decoction could induce and improve the apoptosis of myocardium cells in low dose, and these effects might be induced by stimulating the activity of Ca²⁺•Mg²⁺-ATPase and SDH in myocardium cells (Wu et al, 2008).

The individual alkaloids had been proved their cytotoxic activities too. Chelerythrine (**36**) rapidly induced cardiac myocyte apoptosis and the production of ROS, possibly H₂O₂, and subsequent cytochrome c released from mitochondria played an important role in mediating chelerythrine-induced apoptosis (Yamamoto et al, 2001). Sanguinarine (**40**) exhibited the greatest toxicity toward NK/Ly cells, and the toxicity of the other three alkaloids decreased in descending order: chelerythrine (**36**), coptisine (**59**), and chelidonine (**27**) (O Kaminsky et al, 2006).

3.12.2 Hepatotoxicity

Several isolated cases of hepatotoxicity (e.g. acute cholestatic hepatitis) of *C. majus* had been reported (Van, 2002; Hardeman et al, 2008; Moro et al, 2009). But there was also an animal study that found no hepatotoxicity at doses about 50–100 times higher than those generally used in humans (Mazzanti et al, 2009). Therefore, it needs further assessment on the hepatotoxicity of *C. majus*.

3.12.3 Phototoxicity

A test had been taken to determine the phototoxicity of 17 plants. The extract from *C. majus* had been revealed the ability to induce sunburn oedema and formation of sunburn cells in mice (Bark et al, 2010).

3.12.4 Genotoxicity

Chelerythrine (**36**) and sanguinarine (**40**) were indicated to cause DNA damage, which was illustrated by the formation of comets of the third class. Coptisine (**59**) was less toxic than compounds **36** and **40**, and affected the formation of comets in the same class at higher concentration, and the quantity of comets induced by chelidonine (**27**) was negligible (O Kaminsky et al, 2006). But it could not find the genotoxic effects of 120 mg/kg *M. cordata* extract (a mixture of compounds **40** and **36**) on pigs or rats in 90-d studies by ig administration (Stiborova et al, 2008).

4. Conclusion

Almost all species of tribe Chelidoneae have a long history to be used as folk medicine for the treatment of many diseases in northern hemisphere. *Chelidonium majus*, the most widely used as an important raw material, has been recorded in *Chinese Pharmacopoeia* (Pharmacopoeia Committee of P. R. China, 2010) as well as *European Pharmacopoeia* (Henning and Tsoka, 2003). Phytochemical researches of tribe Chelidoneae have shown that isoquinoline alkaloids are the main components, and the widespread benzophenanthridine alkaloids, especially chelerythrine and

sanguinarine, could be regarded as the characteristic compounds of this tribe. The mixtures of some benzophenanthridine alkaloids (sanguinarine, chelerythrine, chelidonine, etc) and their derivatives have now been developed as antitumor drugs (Ukrain and Sanguirythrine). In addition, other components from the plants of this tribe, such as chelidonic acid and some proteins have been manifested to have different bioactivities.

Modern pharmacological investigations of crude extracts and purified compounds from these plants elucidated a broad spectrum of biological activities, including anti-inflammatory, immunomodulatory, antimicrobial, antitumor effects and so on, which support a number of their traditional uses. Veterinary activities of some species of this tribe had also been verified. In addition, the studies on the toxicities of these plants were concentrated on cytotoxicity, hepatotoxicity, phototoxicity, and genotoxicity. However, the some results on the hepatotoxicity and genotoxicity were inconsistent to call out further investigations.

Therefore, further comparative research on the relatives of each species in tribe Chelidoniae is needed to explore the medicinal recourses. Based on four data sets of *atpB* and *rbcL* sequences, *trnK* restriction sites, and morphological characters, Hoot et al (1997) had obtained the phylogenetic topologies of Papaveraceae. It suggested that genus *Dicranostigma* Hook. was the most closely related to genus *Glaucium* Mill. in tribe Papavereae. This result is consistent with the fact that aporphine alkaloids, the characteristic components from the species of Papavereae, are rich in *D. leptopodum*. Consequently, according to the huge potential medicinal value of the plants in tribe Chelidoniae, in-depth scientific comparative analyses of the phytochemical constituents and genetic information are required, not only to investigate the evolutionary and pharma-phylogenetic relationship, but also to guide the medicinal exploitation and utilization of the medicinal plants in this tribe.

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