

PHCOG REV. : Review Article

Some medicinal plants as natural anticancer agents

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ABSTRACT

India is the largest producer of medicinal plants and is rightly called the “Botanical garden of the World”. The medicinal plants, besides having natural therapeutic values against various diseases, also provide high quality of food and raw materials for livelihood. Considerable works have been done on these plants to treat cancer, and some plant products have been marketed as anticancer drugs, based on the traditional uses and scientific reports. These plants may promote host resistance against infection by re-stabilizing body equilibrium and conditioning the body tissues. Several reports describe that the anticancer activity of medicinal plants is due to the presence of antioxidants in them. In fact, the medicinal plants are easily available, cheaper and possess no toxicity as compared to the modern (allopathic) drugs. Hence, this review article contains 66 medicinal plants, which are the natural sources of anticancer agents.

KEY WORDS : Cancer, medicinal plants, natural anticancer agents, antioxidants.

INTRODUCTION

Cancer (malignant tumour) is an abnormal growth and proliferation of cells. It is a frightful disease because the patient suffers pain, disfigurement and loss of many physiological processes. Cancer may be uncontrollable and incurable, and may occur at any time at any age in any part of the body. It is caused by a complex, poorly understood interplay of genetic and environmental factors (1-2). It continues to represent the largest cause of mortality in the world and claims over 6 millions. Cancer kills annually about 3500 per million population around the world. A large number of chemopreventive agents are used to cure various cancers, but they produce side effects that prevent their extensive usage. Although more than 1500 anticancer drugs are in active development with over 500 of the drugs under clinical trials, there is an urgent need to develop much effective and less toxic drugs (3).

The plant kingdom plays an important role in the life of humans and animals. India is the largest producer of medicinal plants and is rightly called the “Botanical garden of the World”. Medicinal plants have been stated (4) to comprise about 8000 species and account for approximately 50% of all the higher flowering plant species of India. In other words, there are about 400 families of the flowering plants; at least 315 are represented by India. Medicinal properties of few such plants have been reported but a good number of plants still used by local folklore are yet to be explored. Ayurveda, Siddha and Unani systems of medicine provide good base for scientific exploration of medicinally important molecules from nature. The rediscovery of Ayurveda is a sense of redefining it is modern medicines. Emerging concept of combining Ayurveda with advanced drug discovery programme is globally acceptable. Traditional medicine has a long history of serving peoples all over the world. The ethnobotany provides a rich resource for natural drug research and development. In recent years, the use of traditional medicine information on plant research has again received considerable interest. The Western use of such

information has also come under increasing scrutiny and the national and indigenous rights on these resources have become acknowledged by most academic and industrial researchers (5).

According to the World Health Organization (WHO), about three quarters of the world’s population currently use herbs and other forms of traditional medicines to treat diseases. Traditional medicines are widely used in India. Even in USA, use of plants and phytomedicines has increased dramatically in the last two decades (6). It has been also reported (7) that more than 50% of all modern drugs in clinical use are of natural products, many of which have been recognized to have the ability to include apoptosis in various cancer cells of human origin.

SOME ANTICANCER MEDICINAL PLANTS

With the above background, this review article enumerates 66 medicinal plants (Tables 1 & 2) possessing anticancer properties^{3,8-44}, and are used against various types of cancer. The chemopreventive potential of an 80% hydroalcoholic extract (50 and 180 mg/kg/day for 14 days) of *Andrographis paniculata* has been reported (8) against chemotoxicity, including carcinogenicity. The authors observed the modulatory influence of *A. paniculata* on hepatic and extrahepatic carcinogen metabolizing enzymes (viz. cytochrome P450), antioxidant enzymes, glutathione (GST) content, lactate dehydrogenase (LDH) and lipid peroxidation in Swiss albino mice. Some other workers (9) also reported the anticancer and immunostimulatory activities of *A. paniculata*.

Azadirachta indica (Neem) has been used in buccal carcinogenesis, skin carcinogenesis, prostate cancer, mammary carcinogenesis, gastric carcinogenesis, Ehrlich carcinoma and B16 melanoma. Dietary neem flowers caused a marked increase in glutathione S-transferase (GST) activity in the liver, while resulting in a significant reduction in the activities of some hepatic P450-dependent monooxygenases. These results strongly indicate that neem flowers may have chemopreventive potential. Young animals were fed with

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AIN-76 purified diets containing either 10-12.5% ground freeze-dried neem flowers for 1 week prior to, during, and for 1 week after the administration of each carcinogen. Interestingly, it was found that neem flowers resulted in a marked reduction of the incidence of mammary gland (about 35.2%) and liver tumours (61.7% and 80.1% for benign and malignant tumours, respectively). Furthermore, the multiplicity of tumours per rat was also lower in the neem flower groups, i.e. those for mammary gland tumours and benign and malignant liver tumours were reduced to 44.0%, 87.9% and 88.9%, respectively. These results clearly demonstrated that neem flowers contain some chemopreventive agents capable of inhibiting liver and mammary gland carcinogenesis in rats (10). Administration of ethanolic neem leaf extract (ENLE) inhibited DMBA-induced hamster buccal pouch carcinogenesis, as revealed by the absence of neoplasm. These results suggest that the chemopreventive effect of ENLE may be mediated by induction of apoptosis (11). The modulatory effect of neem leaf with garlic on hepatic and blood oxidant-antioxidant status may play a key role in preventing cancer development at extrahepatic sites (12). The ethanolic extract of neem has been shown to cause cell death of prostate cancer cells (PC-3) by inducing apoptosis, as evidenced by a dose-dependent increase in DNA fragmentation and a decrease in cell viability (13).

Camellia sinensis (Tea) is one of the most popular beverages in the world. The consumption of tea has been associated with a decreased risk of developing cancers of the ovary (14), oral cavity (15), colon (16), stomach (17) and prostate (18). This beneficial health effect has been attributed to the catechins (flavonoids) in tea. Their biological benefits are due to their strong antioxidant and antiangiogenic activity as well as their

potential to inhibit cell proliferation and modulate carcinogen metabolism (19-20). *Citrus limon* (Nibu) fruit contains flavonoid, flavone, limonoid, limonene, nobiletin and tangeretin. The flavonoid, tangeretin and nobiletin are potent inhibitors of tumor cell growth and can activate the detoxifying P450 enzyme system. Limonoids inhibit tumour formation by stimulating the GST enzyme. The limonene (a terpenoid) also possesses anticancer activity. Nibu fruit is used for inhibition of human breast cancer cell proliferation and delaying of mammary tumorigenesis. It is also used in metastasis and leukemia (21-22).

The derivatives (viz. chlorogenic, dicaffeoylquinic and tricaffeoylquinic acids) of caffeoylquinic acid contained in *Ipomoea batatas* tubers (Shakarkand) have potential cancer chemoprotective effect (23-26). 4-Ipomeanol (a furanoterpenoid) isolated from *I. batatas* has been found to exhibit anticancer activity against non-small cell lung cancer lines (27). Further, leaves of *Martynia annua* (28), bark of *Prunus* spp. (28), and stem of *Rhaphidophora pertusa* (29) have been used against neck, lung and abdominal cancers, respectively.

It has been reported that medicinal plants may promote host resistance against infection by re-stabilizing body equilibrium and conditioning the body tissues (1). Several reports (2-3, 41) describe that the anticancer activity of these plants is due to antioxidants such as vitamins (A, C, E), carotene, enzymes (e.g., superoxide dismutase, catalase and glutathion peroxidase), minerals (e.g., Cu, Mn, Se and Zn), polysaccharides, polyphenols (e.g., ellagic acid, gallic acid and tannins), flavonoids (e.g., quercetin, anthocyanins, catechins, flavones, flavonones and isoflavones), lignins, xanthenes, etc. Many medicinal plants mentioned in Tables 1 and 2 contain several of these antioxidants.

Table 1: Some medicinal plants as anticancer agents^{3,8-41}

Botanical name (with Hindi/common name)	Family	Main active components	Parts used
<i>Acorus calamus</i> (Bach)	Araceae	Asarone, eugenol, methyl eugenol, palmitic acid and champhene	Rhizome
<i>Agrimonia pilosa</i> (Hairy agrimony)	Rosaceae	Agrimonolide, flavonoid, tannin, triterpene and coumarin	Whole plant
<i>Alphitonia zizphoides</i>	Rhamnaceae	Zizphosides (A, C, D, E triterpenoid saponins) Triterpene and latex	Whole plant
<i>Alstonia scholaris</i> (Devil tree)	Apocynaceae		Bark
<i>Amorphophallus campanulatus</i> (Suran)	Araceae	Leucine, isoleucine, lysine stigmasterol and β -sitosterol	Corn
<i>Andrographis paniculata</i> (Kalmegh)	Acanthaceae	Flavonoid, andrographin and andrographolide	Whole plant
<i>Avicennia alba</i>	Avicenniaceae	Napthoquinolines and their analogues (avicequinones A, B, C)	Whole plant
<i>Azadirachta indica</i> (Neem)	Meliaceae	Tannin, β -sitosterol, nimbin, quercetin and carotene Alkaloid and inositol	Bark, leaf, flower
<i>Bruguiera exaristata</i>	Rhizophoraceae	Tannin and phenolic compounds	Whole plant
<i>Bruguiera pariflora</i>	Rhizophoraceae	Caesalpins (α , β , γ , δ , ϵ) and homoisoflavone	Whole plant
<i>Caesalpinia bonduc</i> (Kantkarej)	Caesalpiniaceae	Many essential amino acids	Whole plant
<i>Cajanus cajan</i> (Arhar)	Fabaceae	Quercetin, xanthone, biflavonoid, neoflavonoid, benzophenone and β -sitosterol	Leaf, seed
<i>Calophyllum inophyllum</i> (Sultanachampa)	Clusiaceae		Whole plant
		Polyphenols, epigallo-catechin-3-gallate, carotene,	

<i>Camellia sinensis</i> (Green tea, black tea)	Theaceae	ascorbic acid, xanthine and inositol Chrysophanol, isochrysophanol, rhein and β -sitosterol	Leaf
<i>Cassia absus</i> (Chaksu)	Caesalpiniaceae	Hydrocyanic acid, delphinidin and cyaniding	Leaf
<i>Cayratia carnosa</i> (Amalbel)	Vitaceae	Sesquiterpene lactone and lignin	Whole plant
<i>Ceiba pentandra</i> (Saphed simal)	Bombacaceae	Tetracyclic triterpenoid and β -sitosterol	Root, bark
<i>Cissus quadrangularis</i> (Hadjod)	Vitaceae	Flavonoid, flavone, limonoid, limonene, nobiletin and tangeretin	Whole plant
<i>Citrus limon</i> (Nibu)	Rutaceae	Resin Plant contains essential oil, coumarins (ellagic acid derivatives)	Fruit Bud, flower
<i>Cycas rumphii</i> (Kama)	Cycadaceae		
<i>Decaspermum fructico-sum</i> (Christmas bush)	Myrtaceae	Volatile oils (eugenol, actyl eugenol, pinene) and tannin	Whole plant
<i>Eugenia caryophyllata</i> (Laung, clove)	Myrtaceae	Dimethylsulfone, kaempferol-diglucoside and caffeic acid Geranin, tannin and citric acid	Whole plant, flower bud Whole plant
<i>Equisetum hyemale</i> (Common horsetail)	Equisetaceae	Triterpenoid saponin (glycyrrhizin, glabranin), isoflavone, coumarin, triterpene sterol (β -amerin stigmasterol), eugenol and indole	Whole plant
<i>Geranium robertianum</i> (Herb Robert)	Geraniaceae		Rhizome
<i>Glycerrhiza glabra</i> (Mulathi)	Fabaceae	Monophenolase, catalase, cytochrome c-oxidase, anthocyanins and caffeic acid Kamlolenic, conjugated dienoic, oleic, lauric, plmitic and stearic acids	Stem (tuber)
<i>Ipomoea batatas</i> (Sakkarkand)	Convolvulaceae	Essential oils (menthol, menthone, limonene).	Whole plant
<i>Mallotus philippensis</i> (Sindur, kamala)	Euphorbiaceae	Vitamins (A, C)	Whole plant
<i>Mentha arvensis</i> (Podina)	Lamiaceae	Quercetin, β -sitosterol, saponin and glucoside Dipentene and d-linalool	Leaf, root
<i>Moringa oleifera</i> (Mungana)	Moringaceae		Bark
<i>Mussaenda raiateensis</i>	Rubiaceae	Plant contains essential oil and crystalline furocoumarin	Whole plant, leaf
<i>Pandanus odoratissimus</i> (Kevda)	Pandanaceae	Diketonepongamol, glabrin and karanjin	Whole plant
<i>Pastinaca sativa</i> (Parsnip)	Umbelliferae	Selenium, ayanin (flavonoid) and β -sitosterol	Root, fruit
<i>Pongamia pinnata</i> (Karani)	Fabaceae	Monocyclic sesquiterpene Alkaloids (premine, ganiarine, ganikarine)	Whole plant, leaf
<i>Physalis angulata</i> (Wild tomato)	Solanaceae		Whole plant
<i>Piper longum</i> (Pipli)	Piperaceae	Ca, Fe and vitamins (A, B, C)	Whole plant
<i>Premna obtusifolia</i> (Agetha)	Verbenaceae		
<i>Tetragonia tetragonioides</i>	Tetragoniaceae	Glycosides of quercetin, isoquercitrin, kaempferol 3-flucoside, lupenone and β -sitosterol	Whole plant
<i>Thespesia populnea</i> (Paras-papal)	Malvaceae	Taxol (diterpene) Lupeol, stigmasterol and β -sitosterol	Stem
<i>Taxodium distichum</i>	Taxaceae		Seed
<i>Vernonia cinerea</i> (Sahadeyi)	Asteraceae		Whole plant

Table 2: Additional list of anticancer plants^{28-31,42-44}

Botanical Name	Family	Parts used
<i>Allium bakeri</i>	Liliaceae	Bulb
<i>Berberis aristata</i>	Berberidaceae	Whole plant
<i>Cedrus deodara</i>	Pinaceae	Seed

<i>Celitis africana</i>	Ulmaceae	Bark, root
<i>Curtisia dentata</i>	Cornaceae	Bark, leaf
<i>Eucomis autumnalis</i>	Hyacinthaceae	Bulb
<i>Euphorbia ingens</i>	Euphorbiaceae	Latex
<i>Ganoderma lucidum</i>	<i>Bacidiomycetes</i>	Whole plant
<i>Gentiana spp.</i>	<i>Gentianaceae</i>	Root
<i>Gynura pseudochina</i>	Compositae	Root
<i>Hypoxis hemerocallidea</i>	Hypoxidaceae	Corm
<i>Luisia tenuifolia</i>	Orchidaceae	Whole plant
<i>Lyngbya gracilis</i>	Ocillatoriaceae	Fruit
<i>Martynia annua</i>	Martyniaceae	Leaf
<i>Periploca aphylla</i>	Asclepiadaceae	Whole plant- milky juice
<i>Pittosporum viridiflorum</i>	Pittosporaceae	Bark, root
<i>Polygala senega</i>	Polygalaceae	Root
<i>Prunus spp.</i>	Rosaceae	Bark
<i>Psychotria insularum</i>	Rubiaceae	Whole plant
<i>Pterospermum acerifolium</i>	Sterculiaceae	Flower
<i>Rhaphidophora pertusa</i>	Araceae	Stem
<i>Seasamum indicum</i>	Padaliaceae	Seed
<i>Sonchus oleraceus</i>	Compositae	Whole plant
<i>Sutherlandia frutescens</i>	Fabaceae	Stem, leaf, flower, seed
<i>Tetrastigma serrulatum</i>	Vitaceae	Aerial parts
<i>Trapa natans</i>	Trapaceae	Stem
<i>Tricosanthes kirilowi</i>	Cucurbitaceae	Root

CONCLUSION

Considerable works have been done on the medicinal plants to treat cancer, and some plant products have been marketed as anticancer drugs. These plants may promote host resistance against infection by re-stabilizing body equilibrium and conditioning the body tissues. Several reports describe that the anticancer activity of these plants is due to presence of antioxidants (viz., vitamins, carotene, enzymes, minerals, polysaccharides, polyphenols, flavonoids, lignins, xanthenes, etc.). Many medicinal plants described in this article contain several of these antioxidants. Thus, the various combinations of the active components of these plants after isolation and identification can be made and have to be further assessed for their synergistic effects. Preparation of standardized dose and dosage regimen may play a critical role in the remedy of cancer. The rate with which cancer is progressing, it seems to have an urgent and effective effort for making good health of humans as well as animals. There is a broad scope to derive the potent anticancer agents from medicinal plants, which need thorough research.

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