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Review

Medicinal uses, phytochemistry and pharmacology of the genus *Uncaria*

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ABSTRACT

Ethnopharmacological relevance: The genus *Uncaria* belongs to the family Rubiaceae, which mainly distributed in tropical regions, such as Southeast Asia, Africa and Southeast America. Their leaves and hooks have long been thought to have healing powers and are already being tested as a treatment for asthma, cancer, cirrhosis, diabetes, hypertension, stroke and rheumatism. The present review aims to provide systematically reorganized information on the ethnopharmacology, phytochemistry and pharmacology of the genus *Uncaria* to support for further therapeutic potential of this genus. To better understanding this genus, information on the stereo-chemistry and structure-activity relationships in indole alkaloids is also represented.

Material and methods: The literature study of this review is based on various databases search (SCIFinder, Science Direct, CNKI, Wiley online library, Spring Link, Web of Science, PubMed, Wanfang Data, Medlink, Google scholar, ACS, Tropicos, Council of Heads of Australasian Herbaria, The New York Botanical Garden, African Plants Database at Genera Botanical Garden, The Plant List and SEINet) and library search for Biological Abstract and some local books on ethnopharmacology.

Results: 19 species of the genus *Uncaria* are found to be important folk medicines in China, Malaysia, Philippines, Africa and Southeast America, etc, and have been served for the treatment of asthma, rheumatism, hyperpyrexia, hypertension and headaches, etc. More than 200 compounds have been isolated from *Uncaria*, including indole alkaloids, triterpenes, flavonoids, phenols, phenylpropanoids, etc. As characteristic constituents, indole alkaloids have been considered as main efficacy component for hypertension, epilepsy, depressant, Parkinson's disease and Alzheimer's disease. In addition, pharmacokinetic and metabolism investigation reveal that the indole alkaloids are likely to be absorbed, metabolized and excreted at early time points. Moreover, the specific inhibition of CYP isozymes can regulate their hydroxylation metabolites at C-10 and C-11.

Conclusion: Preliminary investigations on pharmacological properties of the *Uncaria* species have enlightened their efficacious remedy for hypertension, asthma, cancer, diabetes, rheumatism and neurodegenerative diseases. To ensure the safety and effectiveness in clinical application, research on bioactive compounds, pharmacological mechanisms and toxicity of the genus *Uncaria* as well as the stereo-chemistry and structure-activity relationships of indole alkaloids seem very important.

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Abbreviations: U1, *Uncaria acida* (Hunter) Roxb; U2, *Uncaria africana* G. Don; U3, *Uncaria attenuate* Korth; U4, *Uncaria barbata* Merr; U5, *Uncaria bernaysii* F. Muell; U6, *Uncaria borneensis* Havil; U7, *Uncaria callophylla* Blume ex Korth; U8, *Uncaria canescens* Korth; U9, *Uncaria cordata* (Lour.) Merr; U10, *Uncaria donisii* E. M. A. Petit; U11, *Uncaria elliptica* R. Br. ex G. Don; U12, *Uncaria florida* Vidal; U13, *Uncaria gambier* (Hunt). Roxb; U14, *Uncaria glabrata* DC~*Uncaria lanosa* var. *glabrata* (Blume.) Ridsb; U15, *Uncaria guianensis* (Aubl.) J. F. Gmel; U16, *Uncaria hirsute* Havil; U17, *Uncaria homomalla* Miq; U18, *Uncaria kunstleri* King; U19, *Uncaria laevigata* Wall. ex G. Don; U20, *Uncaria lanosa* Wallich var. *appendiculata* Ridsd; U21, *Uncaria longiflora* var. *pteropoda*; U22, *Uncaria macrophylla* Wall; U23, *Uncaria nervosa* Elmer; U24, *Uncaria orientalis* Guillaumin; U25, *Uncaria perrottetii* (A. Rich.) Merr; U26, *Uncaria rhynchophylla* (Miq.) Jacks; U27, *Uncaria roxburghiana* Korth; U28, *Uncaria scandens* (Smith) Hutch; U29, *Uncaria sessilifrutctus* Roxb; U30, *Uncaria sinensis* (Oliv.) Havil; U31, *Uncaria sterrophylla* Merr. & L. M. Perry; U32, *Uncaria thwaitesii* (Hook. f.) Alston; U33, *Uncaria tomentosa* (Willd. ex Schult.) DC; U34, *Uncaria villosa*; U35, *Uncaria yunnanensis* Hsia. C. C.; A β , beta-amyloid; ABTS, 2, 2'-azinobis (3-ethyl-benzthiazoline-6-sulfonic acid); AChE, acetylcholinesterase; AD, Alzheimer's disease; APPH, 2, 2-azo-bis (2-amidinopropane) dihydrochloride; AST, aspartate aminotransferase; Cy, cyclophosphamide; DPPH, 1, 1-diphenyl-2-picrylhydrazyl; DXR, doxorubicin; CD, circular dichroism; CE, Cotton effects; ET-1, endothelin-1; ERK, extracellular regulated protein kinases; γ -GABA, γ -aminobutyric acid; GSK-3 β , glycogen synthase kinase-3 β ; HASMC, human aortic smooth muscle cells; 5-HT, 5-hydroxytryptamine; IFN- γ , interferon- γ ; IL, interleukin; iNOS, inducible nitric oxide synthase; KA, kainic acid; LPS, lipopolysaccharide; MAO, monoamine oxidase; MAPKs, mitogen-activated protein kinases; MDA, malondialdehyde; MMP, matrix metalloproteinase; NE, norepinephrine; NF- κ B, nuclear factor- κ B; NO, nitric oxide; NMR, nuclear magnetic resonance; 6-OHDA, 6-hydroxydopamine; PD, Parkinson's disease; PDGF, platelet-derived growth factor; PLC γ 1, phospholipase γ 1; PRTC, peroxyl radical-trapping capacity; RBC, red blood cell; SOD, superoxide scavenging activity; TEAC, trolox equivalent antioxidant capacity; TLR, toll-like receptor; TNF- α , tumor necrosis factor- α ; VSMCs, vascular smooth muscle cells

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1. Introduction

The genus *Uncaria*, belonging to the family Rubiaceae, contains approximately 34 species, which mainly distributed in tropical regions, such as Southeast Asia, Africa and Southeast America (Ridsdale, 1978). It is documented that about 14 species of *Uncaria* occur in Peninsular Malaysia and about 11 species found in China (Burkill, 1935; Ridsdale, 1978; Flora of China, 1999a). Mostly, the hooks of *Uncaria* species are applied to treat wounds and ulcers, fever, asthma, rheumatism, hyperpyrexia, hypertension, headaches, gastrointestinal illness, and bacterial/fungal infections, etc. (Ahmed et al., 1978; Burkill, 1935; Heitzman et al., 2005; Keplinger et al., 1999; Phillipson et al., 1978; Tanahashi et al., 1997; Xu and Wu, 1981). The hooks of *Uncaria* are often prepared as a decoction and its leaves, roots and bark are also sometimes used (Phillipson et al., 1978; Ridsdale, 1978; Bridson and Verdcourt, 1988; Laus and Keplinger, 2003). Usually monotherapy treatments are administered but polyherbal treatments have also been described in some traditional herbal prescriptions. It is well known that Chinese traditional medicinal formulation, Diao-teng-san (Cho-Deung-San in Korean and Choto-san in Japanese), which is composed of 11 herbal ingredients, is effective in the treatment of vascular diseases, such as hypertension (Yang et al., 2002; Shimada et al., 2003), stroke (Shimada et al., 2003; Goto et al., 2001; Watanabe et al., 2003), vascular dementia (Itoh et al., 1999; Sanae et al., 2000) and atherosclerosis (Ha et al., 2004). In TCM, *U. rhyzophylla* is major component of Diao-teng-san for these bioactivities. In addition, yokukansan is one of the traditional Japanese medicines called “kampo” medicines in Japan (Yi-Gan san in Chinese). It is composed of seven kinds of dried medicinal herbs. This medicine has been approved by the Ministry of Health, Labor, and Welfare of Japan as a remedy for neurosis, insomnia, and irritability in children. Recently, yokukansan is reported to improve behavioral and psychological symptoms of dementia such as hallucinations, agitation, and aggressiveness in patients with Alzheimer's disease, dementia with Lewy bodies, and other

forms of senile dementia (Iwasaki et al., 2005a,2005b; Mizukami et al., 2009). Among the 7 ingredient herbs of yokukansan, *Uncaria* thorn is found to the highest potency in the treatment of neural degeneration diseases (Kawakami, et al., 2011).

As the medicinal uses of *Uncaria* species, a great deal of studies concerning the phytochemistry and pharmacology of *Uncaria* have been carried out. More than 200 chemical constituents, including indole alkaloids, triterpenes, flavonoids and phenylpropanoids, etc, have been isolated from the genus of *Uncaria*. Of these, indole alkaloids are regarded as the main bioactive constituents and are responsible for the broad spectrum of biological properties reported for *Uncaria* species (Heitzman et al., 2005; Zhou and Zhou, 2010). Furthermore, reports indicate that the tetracyclic oxindole alkaloids present in *Uncaria* mainly act on the central nervous system, whereas pentacyclic oxindole alkaloids affect the cellular immune system (Reinhard, 1999). Tetracyclic oxindole alkaloids, likely rhyzophylline (**32**) and isorhyzophylline (**40**) containing chiral carbon at C-7 position, are often characterized by rapid isomerization in aqueous solutions, which is dependent on temperature and pH (Guo and Gu, 1959; Liu et al., 2011a; 2011b; Laus et al., 1996; Sakakibara et al., 1999; Sutter and Wang, 1993). Protonation and decreasing polarity of the solvent have been suggested to slow the process of their isomerization (Keplinger et al., 1999).

Several reviews on the genus *Uncaria* have been reported. Phillipson et al. (1978) describes the collection of botanical, ethnobotanical and alkaloids information from the *Uncaria* species. Laus (2004) and Heitzman et al. (2005) highlight the structures and pharmacological activities of *Uncaria* since the year 1978. Due to the widely investigations on *Uncaria* have been demonstrated in the past ten years, this review, using various databases search and library search to provide constructive information on the ethnopharmacology, phytochemistry and pharmacology of the genus *Uncaria* as well as the stereo-chemistry and structure-activity relationships of the indole alkaloids, aims to

coherently unite these aspects and to encourage further research on *Uncaria*.

2. Medicinal uses

Many general traditional medicinal uses of *Uncaria* include treatments for wounds and ulcers, fevers, headaches, gastrointestinal illnesses, and bacterial/fungal infections (Chang et al., 1989). To provide detail ethnobotanical information of *Uncaria*, this review lists Table 1, which involves the used parts, medicinal uses and distribution. As *Uncaria* species are widely distributed in Southeast Asia, Africa and Southeast America (Ridsdale, 1978), this paper describes the ethnobotany of *Uncaria* in the light of their regions.

In China, *U. homomalla*, *U. lanciflora* and *U. sinensis* serve for the treatment of headaches (Xu and Wu, 1981; Yu et al., 1999; Flora of China, 1999b). *U. macrophylla*, *U. scandens* and *U. sessilifructus* are used to treat arthritis (Xu and Wu, 1981; Yu et al., 1999; Guan et al., 2012). *U. hirsute*, *U. laevigata* and *U. rhynchophylla* are used as

remedies for hypertension and epilepsy (Xu and Wu, 1981; Yang et al., 1995). In TCM, *U. rhynchophylla*, as one of resource of "Gouteng", has been recorded in the Chinese medical document "Pu Ji Ben Shi Fang" (普济本事方) since the Song Dynasty. Some prescriptions created by the ancient famous doctors are also adopted its stems and hooks for the treatment of hypertension and epilepsy, such as "Tianma gouteng yin", "Gouteng san", "Gouteng tang" and "Gouteng yin" (Guo and Gu, 1959). Usually the stems and hooks of *U. rhynchophylla* are prepared as a decoction and this plant is added after the addition of other components i.e. other herbs to minimize the conversion of active components (Wu, 1958; Liu et al., 2011a, 2011b). Recently, the aqueous extract of *U. rhynchophylla* have been reported in the treatment of hypertension, cancer and neurological disorders (epilepsy, Alzheimer's disease, etc) (Fujiwara et al., 2006; Kim et al., 2008; Lee, 2000; Lee et al., 2003; Suk et al., 2002).

In the Malayan archipelago, *U. gambier* and closely related species provide a polymer tanning mixture, the Gambir catechu, which is extracted from the leaves for the production of the

Table 1
Medicinal plants of the genus *Uncaria*.

Name	Medicinal parts	Medicinal uses	Distribution	Reference
<i>Uncaria africana</i> G. Don	Bark Leaves Root	Relieving pain Treating diarrhoea, dysentery Treating depression	Cameroon, Central African Republic, Ethiopia, Gabon, Guinea-Bissau, Kenya, Madagascar and Tanzania	Walker and Sillans, (1961); Bouquet, (1969); Oliver-Bever, (1968); Bridson and Verdcourt, (1988)
<i>Uncaria cordata</i> (Lour.) Merr	Hook	Treating diabetic, antioxidant,	Gordonvale, Innisfail, Burma, Australia, Thailand, Malaysia	Ford and Hasenpusch (2009); Ghollasimood et al. (2012); Ahamd et al. (2011)
<i>Uncaria elliptica</i> R. Br. ex G. Don	Leaves	Treating inflammation	Sri Lanka, India, Burma, Thailand, Cambodia, Malaysia, Sumatra, Java	Phillipson et al. (1978); Phillipson and Supavita, (1981)
<i>Uncaria gambier</i> (Hunt.) Roxb	Leaves and young twigs	Treating diarrheal disease, sore throat, spongy gums, dysentery, arteriosclerosis and obesity	Malaysia, Singapore, Borneo Sumatra, Indonesia	Kassim et al. (2011); Ahmed et al. (1978); Das et al. (1967); Phillipson et al. (1978); Yamanobe et al. (2000)
<i>Uncaria guianensis</i> (Aubl.) J. F. Gmel ("garabato", "unganangi")	Inner bark and root bark leaves	Treating inflammation, diabetes, cancer, intestinal affections Treating wounds, abscesses	Central and South America Amazon area, Bangladesh, Upper Burma	Anderson and Taylor, (1994); Sandoval et al. (2002); Piscocya et al. (2001); Vilches, (1997); Laus and Keplinger, 2003 Jones, (1995)
<i>Uncaria hirsute</i> Havil ("Gou-teng")	Stem and hook	Treating hypertension, epilepsy, arthritis	Guangdong, Guangxi, Yunnan, Sichuan, Guizhou, Fujian, Taiwan	Chinese Pharmacopoeia Commission, (2010); Xu and Wu, (1981)
<i>Uncaria homomalla</i> Miq	Stem and hook	Treating migraine, infantile convulsion	Guangxi, Yunnan, India, Bangladesh, Burma, Thailand, Malaysia, Vietnam, Laos, Cambodia, Indonesia	Xu and Wu, (1981); Flora of China, (1999b)
<i>Uncaria laevigata</i> Wall. ex G. Don	Stem and hook	Treating hypertension, lightheadedness, numbness, convulsion	Guangxi, Yunnan, India, Bangladesh, Thailand, Burma, Laos, Indonesia	Xu and Wu, (1981); Yang et al. (1995)
<i>Uncaria lanosa</i> Wallich var. <i>appendiculata</i> Ridsd	Stem and hook	Treating hyperpyrexia, analgesia, spasmolysis	Malacca, Philippines, Taiwan	Xu and Wu, (1981); Tanahashi et al. (1997)
<i>Uncaria lanciflora</i> Hutch	Stem and hook	Treating hyperpyrexia, headaches	Yunnan	Xu and Wu, (1981); Xiong, (1995)
<i>Uncaria longiflora</i> var. <i>pteropoda</i>	Leave	Treating rheumatism, rhrush, framboesia	Malaysia	Burkill, (1935); Ridsdale, (1978)
<i>Uncaria macrophylla</i> Wall ("Gou-teng")	Stem and hook	Treating lumbocrural pain, arthritis, osteomyelitis	Guangxi, Yunnan, Guangdong, Hainan, Sichuan, Indo-China, India	Xu and Wu, (1981); Yu et al. 1999
<i>Uncaria perrottetii</i> (A. Rich.) Merr	Hook	Treating hematuria, puerperal fever, puerperal sepsis	Kanawan, Morong, Bataan and Philippines	Duke and Beckstrom-Sternberg, (2002)
<i>Uncaria rhynchophylla</i> (Miq.) Jacks ("Gou-teng")	Stem and hook	Treating hyperpyrexia, epilepsy, preeclampsia, hypertension	Guangdong, Yunnan, Sichuan, Hubei, Hunan, Guizhou, Fujian, Jiangxi, Shanxi, Gansu, Japan	Chinese Pharmacopoeia Commission, (2010); Xu and Wu, (1981)
<i>Uncaria scandens</i> (Smith) Hutch	Stem and hook	Treating arthritis, lumbocrural pain	Guangdong, Guangxi, Yunnan, Hunan, Guizhou, Xizang, Indo-China, India	Xu and Wu, (1981)
<i>Uncaria sessilifructus</i> Roxb ("Gou-teng")	Stem and hook	Treating arthritis, lumbocrural pain, headaches	Guangdong, Guangxi, Yunnan, Indo-China, India	Xu and Wu, (1981); Guan et al. (2012)
<i>Uncaria sinensis</i> (Oliv.) Havil ("Gou-teng")	Stem and hook	Treating arthritis, headaches	Sichuan, Yunnan, Guizhou, Hubei, Hunan, Guangxi Shanxi, Gansu	Xu and Wu, (1981); Yu et al. (1999)
<i>Uncaria tomentosa</i> (Willd. ex Schult.) DC ("Uña de Gato", "cat's claw")	Bark	Treating diabetes, cancer, intestinal affections inflammation	South and Central America liana, Peru	Vilches, (1997); Laus and Keplinger, (2003) Jones, (1995); Reinhard, (1999); De Jong et al. (1999)
<i>Uncaria yunnanensis</i> Hsia. C. C	Stem and hook	Treating lumbocrural pain	Yunnan	Xu and Wu, (1981); Guan et al. (2012)

technically important catechins (Das, 1967; Desmarchelier et al., 1997). In folk medicine, the leaves and young shoots of this plant are adopted for the treatment of diarrheal disease, sore throat, spongy gums, dysentery, athero-sclerosis, obesity and deafness (Burkill, 1966; Ahmed et al., 1978; Das, 1967; Phillipson et al., 1978; Yamanobe et al., 2000; Kassim et al., 2011). Malay also rubbed the leaves of *U. longiflora* var. *pteropoda* on the body to relieve pain from rheumatism and use its juice for thrush and framboesia (Ridsdale, 1978). Regarding the plants used for the therapy in Phillippines, it is concluded that the hooks of *U. lanosa* var. *appendiculata* and *U. perrottetii* are used for the treatment of hyperpyrexia (Xu and Wu, 1981; Tanahashi et al., 1997; Duke and Beckstrom-Sternberg, 2002). Traditionally, the extract of *U. perrottetii* is used to treat hematuria as well as a remedy to prevent puerperal fever and puerperal sepsis (Duke and Beckstrom-Sternberg, 2002). Recently, studies have demonstrated the antibacterial, antifungal and antiprotozoal effects of this specific plant species (Vital, 2008; Vital and Rivera, 2009). Furthermore, Nudo and Catap (2011) assesses the immunomodulatory potential of *U. perrottetii* that will provide baseline information regarding the potential use of this plant species as an immunonutritional supplement.

In Africa, *U. africana* is the dominant species, which is widely distributed in Cameroon, Central African Republic, Ethiopia, Gabon, Guinea-Bissau, Kenya, Madagascar, Tanzania, Uganda and Zaire (Bridson and Verdcourt, 1988). The commonly applications of *U. africana* have been reported as sedatives. Its bark is used to treat naso-pharyngeal affections, pain-killers and venereal diseases. The leaves are used for antidotes (venomous stings, bites, etc.), diarrhoea, dysentery, heart, malnutrition and debility. The root is used as emetics and depressants (Prota. <http://www.Prota4u.org/protav8.asp?p=Uncaria+africana>)

U. guianensis and *U. tomentosa* are closely related species of the Rubiaceae family, popularly known as Cat's claw (Unha-de-gato or Uña de gato in South America). Both species are large woody vines occurring at the Amazon rain forest and other tropical areas of South and Central America (Anderson and Taylor, 1994) and have been important in traditional healing. Cat's Claw is prepared traditionally as a hot tea to be drunk either hot or cold as a supplement in the treatment of many human disorders including diabetes, cancer, intestinal affections (Jones, 1995; Gupta, 1995; Obregon, 1995; Obregon Vilches, 1997; Reinhard, 1999; Vilches, 1997; Laus and Keplinger, 2003; De Jong et al., 1999) and inflammatory conditions such as arthritis (Heitzman et al., 2005). Because of its historical medicinal use, Cat's Claw products have been offered commercially in the USA and abroad for hundreds of years in preparations of pulverized plant parts, water and ethanol extractions (Keplinger et al., 1999). During the past twenty years, Cat's Claw (*U. tomentosa*) in different forms has been introduced in Europe to treat patients suffering from cancer and some viral diseases (Sandoval-Chacon et al., 1998). C-Med 100[®] is a proprietary aqueous extract from Cat's Claw (*U. tomentosa*). This product is derived through water extraction and exclusion of higher molecular weight components (> 10 kD) such as tannins (Sheng et al., 2000a), which has been used as an "immune modulator" (Akeson et al., 2003; Sheng et al., 2000b; Lamm et al., 2001).

3. Phytochemistry

The chemical constituents of genus *Uncaria* have been extensively studied since the early 1900s. One of the earliest phytochemical reports on *U. rhynchophylla* published in 1928 reveal the isolation of rhynchophylline (32) (Kondo et al., 1928). Up to date, more than 200 compounds have been isolated from *Uncaria*, including alkaloids, triterpenes, flavonoids, phenylpropanoids,

etc. Tables 2–5 and Fig. 1 show the names, the corresponding plants sources and structures of the isolated compounds. Based on these results, we conclude that indole alkaloids, especially the monoterpene oxindole indole alkaloids, are abundant and bioactive constituents in this genus.

3.1. Alkaloids

Alkaloids are most prominent secondary metabolism in genus *Uncaria*. One hundred and twenty-three (1–123) (Table 2) indole alkaloids have been identified, which are classified to be monoterpene indole, monoterpene oxindole and N-oxindole monoterpene indole alkaloids. Of these, oxindole alkaloids are regarded to be major components, especially rhynchophylline (32) and isorhynchophylline (40) as well as the corresponding unsaturated oxindole alkaloids corynoxine (34) and isocorynoxine (78) (Laus and Teppner, 1996). These kinds of oxindole alkaloids commonly contain chiral carbon atoms, which shows stereochemistry properties at the C-3, C-7, C-15 and C-20 positions. Based on the detailed information on indole alkaloids given by nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) spectroscopy, we can confirm their stereo-chemistry. For instance, the configuration of H-15 is most likely to be α -orientation (Aimi et al., 1997). On the basis of the correlations of H-15 with H-3 and H-20 in the NOESY spectrum ascertain the configuration of C-3 and C-20. Using the chemical shift of C-3 and C-19 in ¹³C-NMR spectrum (in CDCl₃) further identifies the absolute configuration of C-7 and C-20, respectively. The C-3 chemical shift (δ 74–75) prompts C-7R configuration, while δ 70–72 indicates C-7S configuration (Wang et al., 2011). The C-19 chemical shift (δ ~24) is corresponding to C-20R configuration and δ ~19 is attributed to C-20S configuration (Sakakibara et al., 1998). Presence of chiral carbon atom at C-7 position further causes the pH-dependent isomer mixtures of oxindole alkaloids in aqueous solutions by a retro-type Mannich reaction (Laus et al., 1994, 1996). According to Laus et al. (1996), these alkaloids could convert to their isomers in acidic decoction. At the condition of pH 4, isorhynchophylline (40) and isocorynoxine (78) partially translate to rhynchophylline (32) and corynoxine (34) (Sakakibara et al., 1999; Sutter and Wang, 1993). Protonation and decreasing polarity of the solvent have been suggested to slow the process of their isomerization (Keplinger et al., 1999). Moreover, cell pH at transition of heteroyohimbines to oxindoles (Phillipson and Supavita, 1983) is proved to affect the configuration of H-18 of indole alkaloids. Usually the configuration of H-18 in *Uncaria* is α -configuration but in rauniticine-allo-oxindole B (67) and rauniticine-allo acid B (68) display the β -configuration (Salim et al., 2011).

Besides, alkaloids isolated from the genus *Uncaria* are also divided into tetracyclic and pentacyclic indole alkaloids. The discrimination of tetracyclic and pentacyclic indole alkaloids is described as follows. Firstly, we find that tetracyclic indole alkaloids predominantly contain the β -methoxyacrylic ester, while pentacyclic indole alkaloids has almost no the structural fragment. The presence of β -methoxyacrylic ester can be identified by characteristic nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) signals, such as the ¹H-NMR signals at -CO₂CH₃ (δ ~3.62, 3H, s), OCH₃ (δ ~3.78, 3H, s) and H-17 (δ ~8.20, 1H, s) (Aimi, 1997) and the ¹³C-NMR signals at C-16 (δ ~111.8), C-17 (δ ~160.7), OCH₃ (δ ~61.2) and COOCH₃ (δ ~169.6 and 51.2 each) (Ernest. et al., 1974). Secondly, the tetracyclic types shows a pseudomolecular ion [M+H]⁺ at *m/z* 385, while pentacyclic indole alkaloids presents a pseudomolecular ion at *m/z* 369 in electrospray ionization LC-MS/MS method (Montoro et al., 2004). Using these findings, we can quickly identify the structure-skeleton of indole alkaloids.

Table 2
Alkaloids isolated from the genus *Uncaria*.

No.	Compound	Resource	Parts of plant	Reference
1	hirsutine	U26 U18;U23;U29 U30 U33;U3;U15	stem and hook leaves root leaves	Namera et al. (1996) Phillipson et al. (1978) Laus et al. (1996) Hemingway and Phillipson (1974); Laus et al. (1997); Phillipson and Hemingway, (1975)
2	hirsuteine	U26 U23;U33;U3 U30 U15	stem and hook leaves root leaves	Namera et al. (1996) Phillipson et al. (1978); Laus et al.(1997); Phillipson and Hemingway, (1975) Laus et al. (1996) Hemingway and Phillipson (1974)
3	epi-allo-corynantheine	U3 U26	leaves stem and hook	Phillipson and Hemingway, (1975) Zhu et al. (1997)
4	corynantheidine	U22	the aerial part	Wang et al. (2011)
5	drocorynantheine	U26;U33 U22	leaves the aerial part	Phillipson et al. (1978); Laus et al.(1997) Wang et al. (2011)
6	dihydrocorynantheine	U22 U33;U2;U26 U2;U3;U7	the aerial part leaves	Wang et al. (2011) Laus et al. (1997); Kam et al. (1992); Ma et al. (2009b)
7	gambireine	U9;U11 U23	leaves stem	Phillipson et al. (1978) Goh et al. (1985)
8	gambirine	U21;U7 U7;U13	leaves leaves	Kam et al. (1992) Kam et al. (1992); Chan (1968)
9	isogambirine	U7;U13	leaves	Kam et al. (1992); Chan (1968)
10	villocarines A	U34	leaves	Matsuo et al. (2011)
11	geissoschizine methyl ether	U30	stem and hook	Sakakibara et al. (1999)
12	vallesiachotamine	U26	leaves	Aimi et al. (1982)
13	3-iso-19-epi-ajmalicine	U11;U3 U16	leaves stem and hook	Phillipson and Supavita, (1981) Phillipson and Hemingway, (1975) Xin et al. (2008a)
14	isorauniticine	U11	leaves	Phillipson et al. (1983)
15	14 β -hydroxy-3-isoraunitine	U11	leaves	Phillipson et al. (1983)
16	akuammigine	U11;U3 U26;U29 U20;U33;U24	leaves leaves	Phillipson et al. (1978) Phillipson and Hemingway, (1973b); Laus et al. (1997); Phillipson and Hemingway, (1975)
17	3-iso-ajmallicine	U11;U1;U2; U3;U16;U17 U29;U31 U33;U24	leaves leaves	Phillipson et al. (1978) Laus et al. (1997); Phillipson and Hemingway, (1975)
18	tetrahydroalstonine	U35;U33 U5;U3	leaves	Tao et al. (2000); Laus et al. (1997) Phillipson and Hemingway (1973a); Ponglux et al. (1980)
19	ajmallicine	U35 U2	leaves bark	Tao et al. (2000) Thushara et al. (1997)
20	19-epi-ajmallicine	U11;U14 U35	leaves stem and hook	Phillipson and Supavita, (1981); Arbain et al. (1993) Feng and Fu (1981)
21	rauniticine	U11;U3;U7 U14	leaves the aerial part	Kam et al. (1992); Phillipson and Supavita, (1983); Ponglux et al. (1980), Arbain et al. (1998)
22	14 α -hydroxyraunitine	U3 U14	leaves the aerial part	Ponglux et al. (1980) Arbain et al. (1998)
23	α -yohimbine	U7;U3	leaves	Kam et al. (1992); Phillipson and Hemingway, (1975)
24	β -yohimbine	U7;U3 U35	leaves root	Kam et al. (1992); Phillipson and Hemingway, (1975), Tao et al. (2001)

Table 2 (continued)

No.	Compound	Resource	Parts of plant	Reference
25	alloyohimbine	U7;U6	leaves	Kam et al. (1992)
26	yohimbine	U7;U26 U30;U33	leaves	Kam et al. (1992)
27	pseudoyohimbine	U7;U6;U34	leaves	Kam et al. (1992)
28	3-epi- β -yohimbine	U7;U6	leaves	Kam et al. (1992)
29	angustine	U26;U5 U11;U15 U17	leaves leaves	Phillipson et al. (1978) Tantivatana et al. (1979)
30	angustoline	U26;U15;U17	leaves	Phillipson et al. (1978)
31	angustidine	U26;U17	leaves	Phillipson et al. (1978)
32	rhynchophylline	U22 U1;U2;U3 U5;U9;U11 U18;U15;U26U29; U31;U21 U33;U30	the aerial part leaves root	Wang et al. (2011) Phillipson et al. (1978) Phillipson et al. (1978) Wagner et al. (1985); Laus et al. (1996)
33	corynoxine B	U22 U3;U9;U18 U29;U31	the aerial part leaves	Wang et al. (2011) Phillipson et al. (1978)
34	corynoxine	U22 U1;U3;U6 U26 U30 U15	stem and hook leaves root leaves	Zheng and Wang (2009) Phillipson et al. (1978) Laus et al. (1996) Laus et al. (2003)
35	9-hydroxy corynoxine	U26	leaves	Xie et al. (2013)
36	rhynchohyllic acid	U30	stem and hook	Liu and Feng (1993a)
37	18,19-dehydrocorynoxinic acid	U26	leaves	Xie et al. (2013)
38	rotundifoline	U11;U7;U33 U3	leaves leaves	Phillipson et al. (1978) Laus et al. (1997)
39	villocarines D	U34	leaves	Matsuo et al. (2011)
40	isorhynchophylline	U22 U1;U2;U3;U5U9;U11; U18 U15;U26;U29 U31;U21 U33;U30	the aerial part leaves root	Wang et al. (2011) Phillipson et al. (1978) Wagner et al. (1985); Laus et al.(1996)
41	corynoxine	U22 U6;U3;U18 U29;U31	the aerial part leaves	Wang et al. (2011) Phillipson et al. (1978)
42	isocorynoxine	U22 U3;U6;U26 U15	stem and hook leaves leaves and root	Zheng and Wang (2009) Kam et al. (1992); Phillipson and Hemingway, (1975); Yamanaka et al. (1983) Laus et al. (2003)
43	9-hydroxy isocorynoxine	U26	stem and hook	Xie et al. (2013)
44	isorhynchophyllic acid	U30	stem and hook	Liu et al. (1993a)
45	18,19-dehydrocorynoxinic acid B	U26	leaves	Xie et al. (2013)
46	isorotundifoline	U11;U7 U33;U3	leaves	Phillipson et al. (1978)
47	villocarines B	U34	leaves	Matsuo et al. (2011)
48	macrophyllianium	U22	the aerial part	Wang et al. (2011)
49	macrophyllines A	U22	the aerial part	Wang et al. (2011)
50	macrophyllines B	U22	the aerial part	Wang et al. (2011)
51	Us-7	U3	stem and hook	Aimi et al. (1997)
52	Us-8	U3	hook	Aimi et al. (1997)

Table 2 (continued)

No.	Compound	Resource	Parts of plant	Reference
53	3-oxo-7-hydroxy-3,7-seco-rhynchohylline	U3	stem and hook	Ponglux et al. (1990)
54	diangoutengjian	U35	leaves	Tao et al. (2001)
55	uncarine D	U21	root	Yeoh et al. (1966)
		U3;U5;U15	leaves	Phillipson et al. (1978)
		U17;U20;U30	leaves	Thushara et al. (1997)
		U10;U19;U24	leaves	Arbain et al. (1993)
		U27U28;U31		
		U33		
56	uncarine F	U21	leaves	Yeoh et al. (1966)
		U5;U17;U20	leaves	Phillipson et al. (1978)
		U29;U3;U10	leaves	Thushara et al. (1997)
		U24;U25;U27		
		U28;U31		
57	uncarine A	U16	leaves	Wu and Chan (1994)
		U3;U9;U14	leaves	Phillipson et al. (1978)
		U19;U24;U29		
58	uncarine B	U16;U3;U32	leaves	Wu and Chan (1994); Tantivatana et al. (1980); Herath et al. (1978)
		U9;U13	leaves	Phillipson et al. (1978)
		U24;U29		
59	uncarine C	U30	stem and hook	Liu et al. (2011a, 2011b)
		U5;U17	leaves	Phillipson et al. (1978)
		U20;U8	leaves	Thushara et al. (1997)
		U10;U25	leaves	Lee et al. (1999)
		U27;U28	bark	Phillipson and Hemingway, (1975); Tanahashi et al. (1997)
		U15	leaves	Wagner et al. (1985)
		U24;U31	root	
		U33		
60	uncarine E	U5;U17	leaves	Phillipson et al. (1978)
		U20;U21	leaves	Phillipson and Hemingway, (1975);
		U24;U31	leaves	Tanahashi et al. (1997)
		U10;U19;U25U27;	bark	Thushara et al. (1997)
		U28;U34	root	Lee et al. (1999)
		U15		Wagner et al. (1985)
		U33		
61	pteropodic acid	U30	stem and hook	Liu and Feng (1993a)
		U21	leaves	Chan et al. (1966)
62	isopteropodic acid	U30	stem and hook	Liu and Feng (1993a)
		U21	leaves	Chan et al. (1966)
63	mitraphylline	U16;U2;U17	leaves	Xin et al. (2008b); Phillipson and Hemingway, (1973); Tantivatana et al. (1979)
		U11	bark	Thushara et al. (1997)
		U3;U24	leaves	Phillipson and Hemingway, (1975)
		U33	root	Wagner et al. (1985)
		U15	leaves	Laus et al. (2003)
		U30	and root	Liu and Feng (1993a)
			stem and hook	
64	isomitraphylline	U16;U17;U24	leaves	Xin et al. (2008b);
		U11	bark	Tantivatana et al. (1979);
		U33	root	Phillipson and Hemingway, (1975)
		U15	leaves	Thushara et al. (1997)
			and root	Wagner et al. (1985)
				Laus et al. (2003)
65	mitraphyllic acid	U30	leaves	Liu and Feng (1993a)
66	isomitraphyllic acid	U30	leaves	Liu and Feng (1993a)
67	rauniticine-allo-oxindole B	U21	stem	Salim et al. (2011)
68	rauniticine-allo-acid B	U21	stem	Salim et al. (2011)
69	rumberine	U31	leaves	Tanahashi et al. (1997)
70	uncaric acid A	U16	root	Tao et al. (2001)

Table 2 (continued)

No.	Compound	Resource	Parts of plant	Reference
			leaves	Xin et al. (2008c)
71	raunitine pseudoindoxyl	U11	leaves	Phillipson and Supavita, (1983)
72	3-isoraunitine pseudoindoxyl	U11	leaves	Phillipson and Supavita, (1983)
73	akuammigine pseudoindoxyl	U11	leaves	Phillipson and Supavita, (1983)
74	rhynchophylline N-oxide	U26;U15	leaves	Ma et al. (2009b); Hemingway and Phillipson (1974)
75	corynoxine N-oxide	U26	leaves	Ma et al. (2009b)
76	villocarines C	U34	leaves	Matsuo et al. (2011)
77	isorhynchophylline N-oxide	U26	leaves	Ma et al. (2009b)
		U1;U2;U3	leaves	Phillipson et al. (1978)
		U5;U15;U18U21;U22;		
		U33		
78	isocorynoxine N-oxide	U26	leaves	Ma et al. (2009b)
79	hirsutine N-oxide	U33	leaves	Phillipson et al. (1978)
80	hirsuteine N-oxide	U26	stem and hook	Jiao et al. (2013)
81	dihydrocorynanthein-N-oxide	U33	leaves	Hemingway and Phillipson (1974)
82	uncarine F N-oxide	U20;U5;U10	leaves	Phillipson et al. (1978)
		U20;U21	leaves	Tantivatana et al. (1979)
		U24;U27		
		U30;U33;U17		
83	uncarine D N-oxide	U24	leaves	Phillipson and Hemingway, (1975)
		U5;U10;U17		
		U21;U27;U28		
		U30;U31	leaves	Phillipson et al. (1978)
84	uncarine C N-oxide	U24	leaves	Phillipson and Hemingway, (1975)
		U5;U10;U17		
		U21;U27		
		U28;U30;U31	leaves	Phillipson et al. (1978)
85	uncarine E N-oxide	U24	leaves	Phillipson and Hemingway, (1975)
		U5;U10;U17		
		U21;U27		
		U28;U30;U31	leaves	Phillipson et al. (1978)
86	mitrahylline N-oxide	U2;U3;U15	leaves	Phillipson et al. (1978)
		U16;U17;U19		
		U20;U21;U24		
		U25;U28;U29		
		U33		
87	isomitrahylline N-oxide	U3;U15;U16		
		U17;U19;U20		
		U21;U24;U25		
		U28;U29	leaves	Phillipson et al. (1978)
88	tetrahydroalstonine N-oxide	U11	leaves	Phillipson and Supavita (1981)
89	roxburghine A	U13	leaves	Merline et al. (1970)
90	roxburghine B	U13	leaves	Merline et al. (1970)
91	roxburghine C	U13	leaves	Merline et al. (1970)
92	roxburghine D	U13	leaves	Merline et al. (1970)
93	roxburghine E	U13	leaves	Merline et al. (1970)
94	roxburghine X	U11	woody part	Herath et al. (1979)
95	challophylline	U7	leaves	Kam et al. (1991)
96	callophyllines A	U7	leaves	Kam et al. (1991)
97	callophyllines B	U7	leaves	Kam et al. (1991)
98	glabratine	U14	bark	Arbain et al. (1992)
99	deoxycordifoline	U14	bark	Arbain et al. (1993)
100	mitraphyllic acid (16→1)-β-D-glucopyranosyl ester	U30	leaves	Liu et al. (1993b)
101	isomitraphyllic acid(16→1)-β-D-glucopyranosyl ester	U30	leaves	Liu et al. (1993b)
102	cadambine	U26	leaves	Ma et al. (2009b)
		U30;U28	stem and hook	Endo et al. (1983); Ma et al. (2008)
103	3α-dihydrocadambine	U26;U30	stem and hook	Namera et al. (1996); Endo et al. (1983)
104	3β-isodihydrocadambine	U30	stem and hook	Endo et al. (1983)
105	vincoside lactam	U26	leaves	Aimi et al. (1982)
		U28	stem and hook	Ma et al. (2008)
106	rhynchophine	U26	leaves	Aimi et al. (1982)
107	2'-O-β-D-glucopyranosyl-11-hydroxyvincoside lactum	U26	leaves	Ma et al. (2009b)

Table 2 (continued)

No.	Compound	Resource	Parts of plant	Reference
108	22-O-demethyl-22-O-β-D-glucopynosylisocorynoxine	U26	leaves	Ma et al. (2009b)
109	strictosidine	U26	leaves	Ma et al. (2009b)
110	strictosamide	U26	leaves	Ma et al. (2009b)
111	lyaloside	U33	leaves and bark	Kitajima et al. (2000b)
112	5(S)-5-carboxystrictosidine	U33	stem	Kitajima et al. (2000a)
113	3,4-dehydro-5-(S)-carboxy-strictosidine	U33	stem	Kitajima et al. (2000a)
114	hirsutaside A	U16	leaves	Xin et al. (2008c)
115	hirsutaside D	U16	leaves	Xin et al. (2011)
116	bahienoside A	U16	leaves	Xin et al. (2011)
117	bahienoside B	U16	leaves	Xin et al. (2011)
118	neonaucleside B	U16	leaves	Xin et al. (2011)
119	harmane	U16 U1;U3;U4 U6;U7;U8 U11;U20;U23 U24	leaves	Phillipson et al. (1978)
120	salacin	U30;U3	leaves	Liu et al. (1992); Ponglux et al. (1990)
121	hirsutanines A	U16	the aerial part	Jia et al. (2014)
122	hirsutanines B	U16	the aerial part	Jia et al. (2014)
123	hirsutanines C	U16	the aerial part	Jia et al. (2014)

3.2. Triterpenes

Eighty-two triterpenoids (124–205) have been isolated from this genus (Table 3). Ursan-type pentacyclic triterpenes constitute the most common triterpenes in *Uncaria*. Among them, quinovic acid are commonly glycosylated at C-3, C-28, C-3,-28 or C-3,-27 positions with various sugar moieties, such as quinovose, rhamnose, glucose, fructose and galactose (Aquino et al., 1988). Characteristic pseudomolecular ion $[M+H]^+$ at m/z 469 and $[M+Na]^+$ at m/z 655, 817 and 979 in electrospray ionization LC-MS/MS method further indicate the presence of quinovic acid aglycine and mono-, di- and tri- glycosylated quinovic acid glycosides, respectively (Montoro et al., 2004; Pavei et al., 2012). Table 6

3.3. Flavonoids

Forty flavonoids (206–245) have been identified from the genus *Uncaria* (Table 4), which are classified to be flavan-3-ols (208–232) and flavonols (233–245). Flavan-3-ols and their dimers as well as flavonols and their 3-glycosides constitute the most common flavonoids in *Uncaria*. The sugar moieties of these flavonoid glycosides are commonly made up of glucose, galactose and rhamnose (Li et al., 2011). It has been reported that the coupling constant of H-2 and H-3 ($J_{2,3}$) in flavan-3-ols reveal the relative configuration of C-2/C-3. The 2,3-*trans* is characteristic by $J_{2,3} > 7.0$ Hz, while the 2,3-*cis* is identified by $J_{2,3} < 7.0$ Hz (Friedrich and Galensa, 2002). The presence of 2,3-*trans* or 2,3-*cis* units is also linked with the chemical shift of C-2. In ^{13}C -NMR spectrum (DMSO- d_6), δ_{C-2} 82.5 suggests 2,3-*trans*, while δ_{C-2} 78.3 prompts 2,3-*cis* configuration (Taniguchi et al., 2008). As for the absolute configurations of C-2 and C-3 in flavan-3-ols are determined by circular dichroism (CD) Cotton effects (CE), which is attributed to the phenyl chromophores in their structures. In a previous report of similar compounds, the arithmetically CD curves of C-3 shows a strong positive CE at 240 nm for the 3S configuration and a negative CE for 3R configuration while CD curves of C-2 exhibits positive CE at 280 nm for the 2S configuration and a negative CE for 3R configuration (Slade et al., 2005).

Information above are useful for the determination of flavan-3-ols' configuration at C-2 and C-3 position.

3.4. Others

Other constituents also have been isolated, such as coumarins, lignans, benzene derivatives, steroids and alkanes (246–263). For reasons of simplicity, these compounds are just listed in Table 5.

4. Pharmacological activity

4.1. Antioxidant activities

Aqueous extract of the *U. sinensis* hooks and stems was evaluated for its antioxidative effect *in vitro* against free radical-induced oxidative damage on rat red blood cell (RBC). The extract inhibited the hemolysis of RBC induced by 2,2-zao-bis(2-amidino-propane)dihydrochloride (APPH) in a dose-dependent manner from 50 to 1000 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ (Sekiya et al., 2002). Apea-Bah et al. (2009) have reported that the ethanol extract and ethyl acetate extract of the *U. gambir* dried leaves showed significantly higher ($p < 0.01$) DPPH inhibitory activity than the aqueous soluble. IC_{50} of the organic extracts ranged between 13.8 to 16.2 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ while that of the aqueous extract was 27.4 $\mu\text{g/mL}$. This suggested that compounds which are responsible for scavenging DPPH free radicals are earlier dissolved in organic solvent, such as quinovic acid and its glycosides, tannins and condensed tannins (Aquino et al., 1991; Wirth and Wagner, 1997). Sandoval et al. (2002) also reported that *U. tomentosa* and *U. guianensis* show DPPH scavenging capacity with IC_{50} values of 12.6 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ and 20.8 $\mu\text{g/mL}$, respectively. Since the decoction prepared from the bark of *U. tomentosa* have been widely used in traditional Peruvian medicine (Desmarchelier et al., 1997; Sandoval et al., 2000), Gonçalves et al. (2005) evaluated the interactions of the decoction with the superoxide, hydroxyl and peroxy radicals as well as hydrogen peroxide and hypochlorous acid generated in homogeneous model systems to better characterize its antioxidant potential. The results showed that decoction of *U. tomentosa* has high antioxidant activity. In

Table 3Terpenoids isolated from the genus *Uncaria*.

No.	Compound	Resource	Parts of plant	Reference
124	ursolic acid	U22 U33 U16 U19	stem and hook leaves stem bark	Zhang and Guo, (2012) Phillipson et al. (1978) Wu and Chan (1994) Wang et al. (2013)
125	ursolic aldehyde	U30	stem and hook	Liu et al. (2011a, 2011b)
126	α -amyrin acetate	U22	stem and hook	Wu et al. (2007)
127	6 β -hydroxyursolic acid	U26	leaves	Ma et al. (2009a)
128	3 β ,6 β ,19 α -trihydroxyurs-12-en-28-oic acid	U35 U11 U12 U19 U22 U26 U33	root woody part leaves stem and hook stem bark twing bark	Tao et al. (2001) Diyabalanage et al.(1995) Aimi et al. (1989) Wang et al. (2013) Sun et al. (2012a) Deng et al. (2009) Aquino et al.(1990)
129	3 β ,6 β ,24-trihydroxyurs-12-en-28-oic acid	U26	twing	Deng et al. (2009)
130	3 β ,6 β ,23-trihydroxyurs-12-en-28-oic acid	U22 U26	stem and hook twing	Wu et al. (2007) Denget al. (2009)
131	3 β ,6 β ,19 α ,24-tetrahydroxyurs-12-en-28-oic acid	U35	root	Tao et al. (2001)
132	6 β ,19 α -dihydroxy-3-oxo-urs-12-en-28-oic acid	U26 U33	twing leaves	Deng et al. (2009) Laus et al. (1997)
133	3 β ,19 α ,23-trihydroxy-6-oxo-urs-12-en-28-oic acid	U33	leaves and bark	Kitajima et al. (2000a)
134	6 β ,19 α -dihydroxy-3-oxo-24-norurs-12-en-28-oic acid	U19	Stem bark	Wang et al. (2013)
135	3 β ,6 β ,19 α -trihydroxy-23-oxo-urs-12-en-28-oic acid	U26 U22 U33	twing stem bark bark	Deng et al. (2009) Sun et al. (2012b) Aquino et al. (1990)
136	3 β ,6 β ,19 α -trihydroxy-6-oxo-urs-12-en-23-al-28-oic acid	U33	leaves and bark	Kitajima et al. (2000a)
137	3 β ,19 α -dihydroxy-6-oxo-urs-12-en-23-al-28-oic acid	U33 U19	leaves and bark stem bark	Kitajima et al. (2000a) Wang et al. (2013)
138	3 β ,19 α -dihydroxy-6-oxo-urs-12-en-23-ol-28-oic acid	U33	leaves and bark	Kitajima et al. (2000a)
139	19 α -hydroxy-3,6-dioxo-urs-12-en-28-oic acid	U11	woody part	Diyabalanage et al. (1995)
140	3 β ,19 α -dihydroxy-4,6-dioxo-urs-12-en-28-oic acid	U33	leaves and bark	Kitajima et al. (2000b)
141	19 α -hydroxy-3,6-diacetoxy-urs-12-en-28-oic acid	U11	woody part	Diyabalanage et al. (1995)
142	3 β ,6 β ,19 α -trihydroxy-urs-12-en-28-oic acid-24-carboxylic acid methyl ester	U22	stem bark	Sun et al. (2012a)
143	3 β ,6 β ,19 α -trihydroxyurs-12-en-23,28-dimethylate	U33	bark	Aquino et al. (1991)
144	3 β ,6 β ,19 α -trihydroxyurs-12-en-28-oic acid-23-nor-24-esomethylene	U35 U12	root leaves	Tao et al. (2001) Aimi et al. (1989)
145	3 β -hydroxy-30-methoxy-6-oxo-urs-12,19(20)-dien- 28-oic acid	U19	stem bark	Wang et al. (2013)
146	2 α ,19 α -dihydroxy-3-oxo-urs-12-en-28-oic acid	U19	stem bark	Wang et al. (2013)
147	3 β ,19 α -dihydroxy-6 β ,7 β -epoxyl-urs-12-en-28-oic acid	U19	stem bark	Wang et al. (2013)
148	3 β ,6 β -dihydroxy-urs-12,18 (19)-dien-28-oic acid	U19	stem bark	Wang et al. (2013)
149	uncarinic acid	U11 U12 U35	woody part woody part root	Herath et al. (1979) Aimi et al. (1989) Tao et al. (2001)
150	3 β -hydroxyurs-12-en-27,28-diolic acid	U26	twing	Deng et al. (2009)
151	3 β -hydroxy-7-oxo-urs-12-en-27,28-diolic acid	U33	bark	Aquino et al. (1997)
152	3 β -methoxy-16 α -hydroxyurs-12,19(29)-dien- 27,28-diolic acid	U33	bark	Aquino et al. (1997)
153	22 α -hydroxy-3-oxo-urs-12-en-27,28-diolic acid	U16	leaves	Xin et al. (2009)
154	uncarinic acid C	U26	hook	Lee et al. (2000)
155	uncarinic acid D	U26	hook	Lee et al. (2000)
156	uncarinic acid H	U26	stem and hook	Zhang et al. (2014b)
157	uncarinic acid I	U26	stem and hook	Zhang et al. (2014b)
158	oleanoic acid	U22 U33 U35	stem and hook bark root	Zhang and Guo, (2012) Aquino et al. (1991) Tao et al. (2001)
159	3-oxo-olean-12-en-28-oic acid	U26	hook	Shin et al. (2013)
160	3 β ,6 β ,19 α -trihydroxy-olean-12-en-28-oic acid	U19	stem bark	Wang et al. (2013)
161	6 β ,19 α -dihydroxy-3-oxo-olean-12-en-28-oic acid	U19	stem bark	Wang et al. (2013)
162	3 β ,19 α -dihydroxy-6-oxo-olean-12-en-28-oic acid	U19	stem bark	Wang et al. (2013)
163	19 α -hydroxy-3,6-dioxo-olean-12-en-28-oic acid	U19	stem bark	Wang et al. (2013)
164	3 β ,19 α ,23-trihydroxy-6-oxo-olean-12-en-28-oic acid	U33	bark	Montoro et al. (2004)
165	uncarinic acid F	U26	stem and hook	Zhang et al. (2014b)
166	uncarinic acid G	U26	stem and hook	Zhang et al. (2014b)
167	uncarinic acid J	U26	stem and hook	Zhang et al. (2014b)
168	6 β ,19 α -dihydroxy-3-oxo-24-norolean-12-en-28-oic acid	U19	stem bark	Wang et al. (2013)
169	19 α -hydroxy-3,6-dioxo-24-norolean-12-en-28-oic acid	U19	stem bark	Wang et al. (2013)
170	uncarinic acid A	U26	hook	Lee et al. (2000)
171	uncarinic acid B	U26	hook	Lee et al. (2000)
172	uncarinic acid E	U26	hook	Lee et al. (2000)
173	friedelin	U29	stem and hook	Zhang et al. (2014a)
174	obtusalin	U29	stem and hook	Zhang et al. (2014a)
175	betulin	U29	stem and hook	Zhang et al. (2014a)
176	laevigatone A	U19	stem bark	Wang et al. (2013)
177	quinovic acid	U16	leaves	Xin et al. (2009)
178	quinovic acid-3 β -O- β -D-quinovopyranoside	U15	bark	Yepez et al. (1991)

Table 3 (continued)

179	quinovic acid-3 β -O- β -D-fucopyranoside	U15	bark	Yepez et al. (1991)
180	quinovic acid-3 β -O- α -L-rhamnopyranoside	U33	bark	Aquino et al. (1997)
181	quinovic acid-(27 \rightarrow 1)- β -D-glucopyranosyl ester	U15	bark	Yepez et al. (1991)
182	quinovic acid -(28 \rightarrow 1)- β -D-glucopyranosyl ester	U15	bark	Yepez et al. (1991)
183	quinovic acid-3 β -O- β -D-quinovopyranosyl-(3 \rightarrow 1)- β -D-glucopyranoside	U33	bark	Aquino et al. (1997)
184	quinovic acid-3 β -O- β -D-quinovopyranosyl-(3 \rightarrow 1)- β -D-galactopyranoside	U33	bark	Aquino et al. (1997)
185	quinovic acid-3 β -O- α -L-rhamnopyranosyl-(3 \rightarrow 1)- β -D-glucopyranoside	U33	bark	Aquino et al. (1997)
186	quinovic acid-3 β -O- α -L-rhamnopyranosyl-(27 \rightarrow 1)- β -D-glucopyranosyl ester	U33	bark	Aquino et al. (1997)
187	quinovic acid-3 β -O- β -D-glucopyranoside-(27 \rightarrow 1)- β -D-glucopyranosyl ester	U33	bark	Aquino et al. (1997)
188	quinovic acid-3 β -O- β -D-fucopyranoside-(3 \rightarrow 1)- β -D-glucopyranoside	U33	bark	Aquino et al. (1997)
189	quinovic acid-3 β -O- β -D-fucopyranoside-(27 \rightarrow 1)- β -D-glucopyranosyl ester	U33	bark	Aquino et al. (1991)
190	quinovic acid-3 β -O- β -D-quinovopyranoside-(28 \rightarrow 1)- β -D-glucopyranosyl ester	U11	bark	Diyabalanage et al.(1997)
191	quinovic acid-3 β -O- β -D-fucopyranoside-(28 \rightarrow 1)- β -D-glucopyranosyl ester	U33	bark	Aquino et al. (1991)
192	quinovic acid-3 β -O- β -D-quinovopyranoside-(28 \rightarrow 1)- β -D-glucopyranosyl ester	U33	bark	Aquino et al. (1991)
193	quinovic acid-3 β -O- β -D-fucopyranosyl-(3 \rightarrow 1)- β -D-glucopyranosyl-(27 \rightarrow 1)- β -D-glucopyranosyl ester	U33	bark	Aquino et al. (1991)
194	quinovic acid-3 β -O- α -L-rhamnopyranosyl-(3 \rightarrow 1)- β -D-glucopyranosyl-(27 \rightarrow 1)- β -D-glucopyranosyl ester	U33	bark	Aquino et al. (1997)
195	quinovic acid-3 β -O- β -D-fucopyranosyl-(3 \rightarrow 1)- β -D-glucopyranosyl-(28 \rightarrow 1)- β -D-glucopyranosyl ester	U33	bark	Aquino et al. (1991)
196	uncarisaside A	U16	leaves	Xin et al. (2009)
197	tomentoside A	U33	leaves	Kitajima et al. (2003)
198	tomentoside B	U33	leaves	Kitajima et al. (2003)
199	cincholic acid-3 β -O- β -D-fucopyranosyl-(4 \rightarrow 1)- β -D-glucopyranoside	U33	leaves	Kitajima et al. (2004)
200	cincholic acid-3 β -O- β -D-fucopyranoside-28-O- β -D-glucopyranosyl ester	U33	leaves	Kitajima et al. (2004)
201	cincholic acid-3 β -O- β -D-fucopyranosyl-(4 \rightarrow 1)- β -D-glucopyranosyl -(28 \rightarrow 1)- β -D-glucopyranosyl ester	U33	leaves	Kitajima et al. (2004)
202	pyrocincholic acid	U16	leaves	Xin et al. (2009)
203	pyrocincholic acid ethyl ester	U16	leaves	Xin et al. (2009)
204	pyrocincholic acid-3 β -O- β -D-quinovopyranosyl-(28 \rightarrow 1)- β -D-glucopyranosyl ester	U16	leaves	Xin et al. (2009)
205	3 β -hydroxy-27-norolean-13 (28)-lactone	U16	leaves	Xin et al. (2009)

addition, the ethanol and hydroethanol extract of *U. tomentosa* also presented antioxidant activity (Amaral et al., 2009; Pilarski et al., 2006; Dreifuss et al., 2010). The studies further indicated that phenoloid and triterpenoid in *U. tomentosa* are predominantly important constituents for its antioxidant activity, especially proanthocyanidins, quercetin (207), ursolic acid (124) and oleanolic acid (158) (Gonçalves et al., 2005; Falkiewicz and Lukasiak, 2001; Amaral et al., 2009; Bors et al., 1990).

4.2. Antidiabetic activities

Diabetes is a chronic disease caused by metabolic disorders. High blood glucose level of diabetes patients mainly resulted from low production of insulin or low response to insulin. According to the World Health Organization, there are 347 million people with diabetes world wide (World Health Organization, 2013). Inhibitors of carbohydrate-hydrolyzing enzymes were commonly used as therapeutic approaches to retard glucose absorption, such as α -amylase and α -glucosidase (Holman et al., 1999; Satio et al., 1998; Toeller, 1994). Based on these reports, dried leaves of *U. gambier* extracts were investigated to evaluate their potential as an inhibitor of α -glucosidase. The results showed that the ethanol and ethyl acetate extracts as well as the aqueous residue after ethyl acetate extraction and the residue from ethanol extraction all show moderate activity for inhibiting α -glucosidase *in vitro* at IC₅₀ rang of 15.2 and 49.5 μ g/mL (Apea-Bah et al., 2009). Among eighteen triterpenoid compounds isolated from ethanol extract of *U. laevigata* stem barks, ursolic acid (124) and 3 β -hydroxy-30-methoxy-6-oxo-urs-12,19(20)-dien-28-oic acid (145) inhibited the activities of α -glucosidase with the IC₅₀ value of 16 \pm 2.2 and 49 \pm 3.7 μ M, respectively (Wang et al., 2013). In addition, Domingues et al. (2011) reported that hydroethanol extract of *U. tomentosa* stem bark reduce the glycemic level and delay the diabetes incidence in a dose-dependent manner in immune-mediated diabetes induced by multiple low-doses of streptozotocin (MLDS). The extract at the concentration of 400 mg/kg exhibited high inhibition of diabetes incidence by 15%. The immunological assays further indicated that this protection against immune-mediated diabetes could be determined by a Th2 polarization, an expansion of Foxp3⁺ regulatory T-cells, or the both.

Taken together, *U. gambier*, *U. laevigata* and *U. tomentosa* are worthwhile to be considered in human diabetes treatment and, therefore, should be extensively studied.

4.3. Antimicrobial activities

Micropulverized *U. tomentosa* was evaluated for its antimicrobial activities *in vitro* against oral human pathogens, including *Streptococcus* mutants, *Staphylococcus* spp, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, *Candida albicans* and *Enterobacteriaceae*. Micropulverized *U. tomentosa* inhibited 8% of *Enterobacteriaceae* isolates, 52% of *Streptococcus* mutants and 96% of *Staphylococcus* spp at the concentration of 30 mg/mL. However, this concentration did not present inhibitory effect on *P. aeruginosa* and *C. albicans* (Ccahuana-Vasquez et al., 2007), which differed from that presented by Silva et al. (1998) and Herrera et al. (2010). According to Herrera et al. (2010), the freeze-dried extract of *U. tomentosa* exhibited inhibition against *C. albicans* with the zones of inhibition up to 26.5 mm at the concentration of 20 mg/mL. And increasing the concentration to 500 mg/mL, the extract inhibited *C. albicans* isolates by 66% (Silva et al., 1998). These results revealed that the concentration and type of *U. tomentosa* employed in the experiments may affect its antibacterial activity and this activity was associated with the oxindole alkaloids, triterpene, vegetal steroids, phenolic compound, glycoside, tannin and flavonoids in *U. tomentosa* (Aquino et al., 1997; Obregon, 1996; Otake et al., 1991). Besides, pheophoride a ethyl ester, uncarine E (60), rhynchophylline (32) and isorhynchophylline (40) isolated from *Uncaria*, also showed antibacterial activity (Prieto Rodríguez et al., 2011; Garcia et al., 2005; Chen et al., 2010).

4.4. Anti-inflammatory

Sandoval et al. (2002) investigated the anti-inflammatory activities of aqueous extract of Cat's claw bark (*U. tomentosa* and *U. guianensis*). *U. guianensis* and *U. tomentosa* showed significantly inhibitory effect on TNF- α productions in LPS-induced RAW 264.7 cells with IC₅₀ of 9.5 ng/mL and 14.1 ng/mL, respectively. Aqueous extract of *U. rhynchophylla* stem with hook at the concentration of 2 mg/mL has been reported to decrease the levels of NO, IL-1 β to

Table 4
Flavonoids isolated from the genus *Uncaria*.

No.	Compound	Resource	Parts of plant	Reference
206	kaempferol	U30	hook	Sun et al. (2012)
207	quercetin	U30	hook	Sun et al. (2012)
208	(+)-catechin	U14	leaves	Arbian et al. (1998)
		U13	leaves	Hatano et al. (2009)
		U26	hook	Hou et al. (2005)
209	(+)-epicatechin	U13	leaves and twing	Taniguchi et al. (2008a)
210	(-)-epicatechin	U16	stem and hook	Xin et al. (2008a)
		U30	stem and hook	Sekiya et al. (2002)
		U21	leaves	Salim et al. (2013)
		U26	hook	Hatano et al. (2009)
				Hou et al. (2005)
211	(-)-epiafzelechin	U21	leaves	Salim et al. (2013)
212	uncariechin	U21	leaves	Salim et al. (2013)
213	procyanidin B ₁	U13	leaves and twing	Taniguchi et al. (2008a)
214	procyanidin B ₃	U13	leaves and twing	Taniguchi et al. (2008a)
215	gambirini A ₁	U13	leaves and twing	Taniguchi et al. (2008a)
216	gambirini A ₂	U13	leaves and twing	Taniguchi et al. (2008a)
217	gambirini A ₃	U13	stem and hook	Taniguchi et al. (2008b)
218	gambirini B ₁	U13	leaves and twing	Taniguchi et al. (2008a)
219	gambirini B ₂	U13	leaves and twing	Taniguchi et al. (2008a)
220	gambirini C	U13	leaves and twing	Taniguchi et al. (2008a)
221	gambirini D ₁	U13	leaves and twing	Taniguchi et al. (2008a)
222	gambirini D ₂	U13	leaves and twing	Taniguchi et al. (2008a)
223	gambirini D ₃	U13	stem and hook	Taniguchi et al. (2008b)
224	gambirini D ₄	U13	stem and hook	Taniguchi et al. (2008b)
225	catechin-(4 α →8)-ent-epicatechin	U13	leaves and twing	Taniguchi et al. (2008a)
226	cinchonain Ia	U33	bark	Wirth and Wagner (1997)
227	cinchonain Ib	U33	bark	Wirth and Wagner (1997)
228	dehydrodiccatechin A	U13	leaves	Hatano et al. (2009)
229	catechin- (8→6')-catechin	U13	leaves	Hatano et al. (2009)
230	catechin- (6→6')-catechin	U13	leaves	Hatano et al. (2009)
231	uncariagambirine	U13	leaves	Hatano et al. (2009)
232	gambircatechol	U13	leaves	Hatano et al. (2009)
233	trifolin	U26	leaves	Aimi et al. (1982)
234	buddleoside	U30	hook	Sun et al. (2012)
235	afzelin	U16	leaves	Xin et al. (2008a)
236	kaemferol-3-O- β -D-galactopyranoside	U26	leaves	Ma et al. (2009a)
237	kaemferol-3-O- β -D-galactopyranosyl-(6→1)- α -L-rhamnopyranoside	U26	leaves	Ma et al. (2009a)
238	hyperin	U26	leaves	Aimi et al. (1982)
239	quercetin-3-O- β -D-galactopyranoside	U30	hook	Sun et al. (2012)
240	quercitrin	U16	leaves	Xin et al. (2008a)
241	isoquercitrin	U16	leaves	Xin et al. (2008a)
242	rutin	U16	leaves	Xin et al. (2008a)
		U11	leaves	Phillipson et al. (1978)
		U26	twing	Deng et al. (2009)
243	quercetin-3-O- β -D-galactopyranosyl-(6→1)- α -L-rhamnopyranoside	U30	hook	Sun et al. (2012)
		U26	twing	Deng et al. (2009)
244	neohesperidin	U16	leaves	Wu and Chan (1994)
245	manghaslin	U16	leaves	Xin et al. (2008a)
246	C-(8)-S-7-deoxyloganic acid	U33	inner bark	Muhammad et al. (2001)
247	umbelliferone	U16	leaves	Wu and Chan (1994)
		U29	stem and hook	Zhang et al. (2014a)
248	scopoletin	U30	stem and hook	Liu and Feng (1993a)
		U29	stem and hook	Zhang et al. (2014a)
		U21	leaves	Salim et al. (2013)
249	3,4-dihydroxy-7-methoxycoumarin	U21	leaves	Salim et al. (2013)
250	cleomiscosin B	U26	twing	Deng et al. (2009)
251	cleomiscosin D	U26	twing	Deng et al. (2009)
252	(2 R,3 R,4 S)-lyoniresinol-3 α -O- β -D-gluco-pyranoside	U30	hook	Sun et al. (2011)
253	(2 R,3 S,4 R)-lyoniresinol-3 α -O- β -D-gluco-pyranoside	U30	hook	Sun et al. (2011)
254	(2 S,3 S,4 R)-lyoniresinol-3 α -O- β -D-gluco-pyranoside	U30	hook	Sun et al. (2011)
255	(2 S,3 R,4 S)-lyoniresinol-3 α -O- β -D-gluco-pyranoside	U30	hook	Sun et al. (2011)

the basal level in LPS-induced RAW 264.7 cells. Its anti-inflammatory effect was associated with blocking NF- κ B, Akt, and mitogen-activated protein kinase activation in macrophages (Kim et al., 2010). Alkaloids, quinovic acid glycosides and β -sitosterol (**260**) interacted synergistically has been though for their anti-inflammatory activities (Yuan et al., 2008; Rojas-Duran et al., 2012; Aquino et al., 1991; Senatore et al., 1989). More details were described as follows: rhynchophylline (**32**), isorhynchophylline (**40**), corynoxine (**34**), isocorynoxine (**78**) and vincoside

lactam (**105**) inhibited NO release in LPS-activated primary rat cortical microglial cells with IC₅₀ ranging from 13.7 to 19.0 μ M (Yuan et al., 2008) and mitraphylline (**63**) suppressed the release of IL-1 α , IL-1 β , IL-4, IL-17 and TNF- α in LPS-induced Balb/c female mice (Rojas-Duran et al., 2012). Montserrat-de la Paz et al. (2015) also found that at the concentration of 25 μ M mitraphylline (**63**) reduce the chemotactic capacity of human primary monocytes, promote the polarization of M0 macrophages toward an anti-inflammatory M2 phenotype and reduce the number of classical

Table 5
Other compounds isolated from the genus *Uncaria*.

No.	Compound	Resource	Parts of plant	Reference
256	4-hydroxybenzaldehyde	U21	leaves	Salim et al. (2013)
257	methyl-4-hydroxybenzoate	U21	leaves	Salim et al. (2013)
258	stigmast-4-en-3-one	U29	stem and hook	Zhang et al. (2014a)
259	24-en-cycloartenone	U29	stem and hook	Zhang et al. (2014a)
260	β -sitosterol	U29 U33	stem and hook bark and root	Zhang et al. (2014a) Senatore et al. (1989)
261	β -daucosterol	U29	stem and hook	Zhang et al. (2014a)
262	squalene	U29	stem and hook	Zhang et al. (2014a)
263	1-methoxyoctadecan-1-ol	U30	stem and hook	Ahn et al. (2014)

(CD14⁺⁺ CD16⁻) and intermediate (CD14⁺⁺ CD16⁺) subsets in LPS-treated cells. The classical and intermediate monocyte subsets have been identified as a pro-inflammatory phenotype that actively produced TNF- α (in response to LPS), IL-1 β , IL-6, and led to the progression of numerous inflammatory disorders such as atherosclerosis (Rogacev et al., 2014). These results represented that oxindole alkaloids isolated from *Uncaria* may be dominating components for the anti-inflammatory activity of *Uncaria*'s extracts.

4.5. Immunostimulation

C-Med-100[®], a 90–100 °C hot water extract of *U. tomentosa* containing only molecules < 10,000 molecular weight, recovered the white blood cells significantly in leucopenia rats model induced by doxorubicin (DXR). Compared with the positive control (neupogen), the recovery of C-Med-100[®] treatment was a more natural process, in which all fractions of white blood cells were proportionally increased at doses of 40 and 80 mg/kg (Sheng et al., 2000b). Its mechanism was most likely prolonged lymphocyte survival in peripheral lymphoid organs instead of increasing their proliferation rate (Akeson et al., 2003). Lamm et al. (2001) have characterized C-Med-100[®] as immune enhancer in human useful in protecting against *Pneumococcal* infections. After oral administration with C-Med-100[®] at daily dose of 350 mg \times 2 for 2 months, the lymphocyte to neutrophil ratios in peripheral blood from volunteers were enhanced without affecting other hematological parameters, which suggested C-Med-100[®] has selective influence on immune modulating parameter. The esters of quinovic acid and their glycosides containing at least one carboxy ester in their structure (Aquino et al., 1989; Cerri et al., 1988) and condensed tannins (Keplinger et al., 1999; Holderness et al., 2007) have been considered as its active constituents. In addition, induction of dendritic cells was critical for the induction of Ag-specific T lymphocyte responses and essential for the development of human vaccines relying on T cell immunity (Banchereau and Steinman, 1998; Mellman and Steinman, 2001). Uncarinic acid C (154) plus IFN- γ -primed dendritic cell have been regarded as potential vaccine for cancer immunotherapy with modulation of dendritic cells favored Th1 cell polarization by activation of IL-12p70 dependent on TLR4 signaling (Bae et al., 2010; Takei, 2010). Besides, the C-2' configuration have been proved to affect the immune modulatory effect of uncarinic acids C (154) and D (155). The E configuration in uncarinic acid C (154) showed approximately 20 times more potent than that of Z configuration in uncarinic acid D (155) (Umeyama et al., 2010).

Recently, Nudo and Catap (2011) evaluated the immunomodulating activity of aqueous extract of *U. perrottetii* vinebark *in vitro* and *in vivo* experiments. *In vitro* immune response assays determined the optimum concentration to be 50 μ g/mL. At this concentration, *U. perrottetii* extract stimulated peritoneal phagocyte activation, produced a significant increase in the activity of

phagocytic cells from the spleen and promoted splenic cellular proliferation with or without LPS when compared with the PBS-treated cells (negative control). *In vivo* experiment further proved that the optimum concentration significantly enhanced respiratory burst and plasma lysozyme activity compared with the cyclophosphamide-injected mice. Based on these results, *U. perrottetii* extract has immunopotentiating activities on the innate immunity of Balb/C mice and the extract could potentially reverse the immunosuppressive effects of cyclophosphamide.

4.6. Antihypertension

According to Chinese pharmacopoeia, the traditional Chinese medicine-“Gou-teng” was mainly used to treat cardiovascular ailments, especially for hypertension (Chinese Pharmacopoeia Commission, 2010; Ndagijimana et al., 2013). Several studies have demonstrated the relationships between indole alkaloids and antihypertensive activity of “Gou-teng”. These results suggested that rhynchophylline (32) and isorhynchophylline (40) exert antihypertensive activities by inhibiting of the vasomotor center, sympathetic nerves and ganglia and blocking of L-type decrease of calcium (Ca²⁺) channels (Song et al., 2000; Shi et al., 1989; Wang and Li, 1998; Zhang et al., 2004; Li et al., 2013); Villocarine A (10) and geissoschizine methyl ether (11) acted on rat aortic ring to show vasorelaxation activities. The underlying mechanisms of villocarine A (10) mainly described as follows: (i) inhibited calcium influx from extracellular space through voltage-dependent calcium channels and/or receptor-operated Ca²⁺-channels; (ii) promoted the release of NO from endothelial cells; (iii) stimulated the opening of voltage-gated K⁺-channels (Matsuo et al., 2011). Different from villocarine A (10), geissoschizine methyl ether (11) affected aortic ring through endothelial dependency with nitric oxide at low concentrations of 0.1–3 μ M and endothelial independency with Ca²⁺ channel blockade at higher concentrations of 10–100 μ M (Yuzurihara et al., 2002). The abnormal proliferation of vascular smooth muscle cells (VSMCs) has been regarded as an inducer of hypertension (Victor et al., 2002). Recently, corynox-eine (34) and isorhynchophylline (40) showed inhibitory of VSMCs proliferation. The blockage of extracellular signal regulated kinase 1/2 phosphorylation or regulation of G₀/G₁ phase cell cycle may be their potential mechanisms (Kim et al., 2008; Guo et al., 2014).

4.7. Anticancer activities

Among *Uncaria* species, *U. tomentosa* was considered as effective antitumor candidate to inhibit cancer cells growth, such as HL-60 (leukemia) (Cheng et al., 2007; Bacher et al., 2006), MCF7 and MT-3 (breast) (Riva et al., 2001; Sun et al., 2012a; Pilarski et al., 2010; García Giménez et al., 2010), Walker-256 (liver) (Dreifuss et al., 2013), T24 and RT4 (bladder) (Kaiser et al., 2013; Dietrich et al., 2014), MHH-ES-1 (sarcoma) (García Giménez et al., 2010), as well as SKN-BE (neuroblastoma) and GAMG (glioma). etc. (García Prado

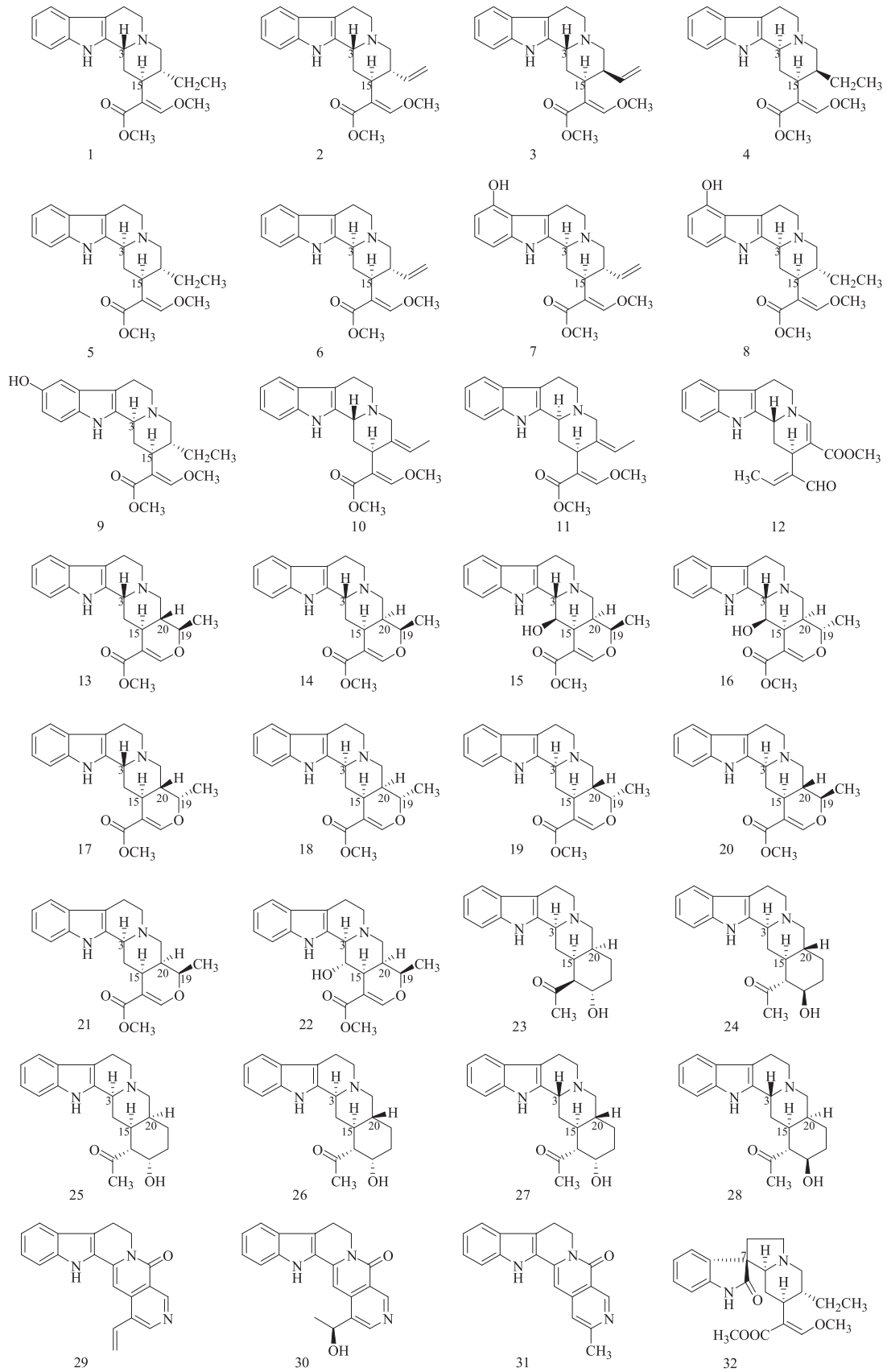


Fig. 1. Chemical structure from the genus *Uncaria*.

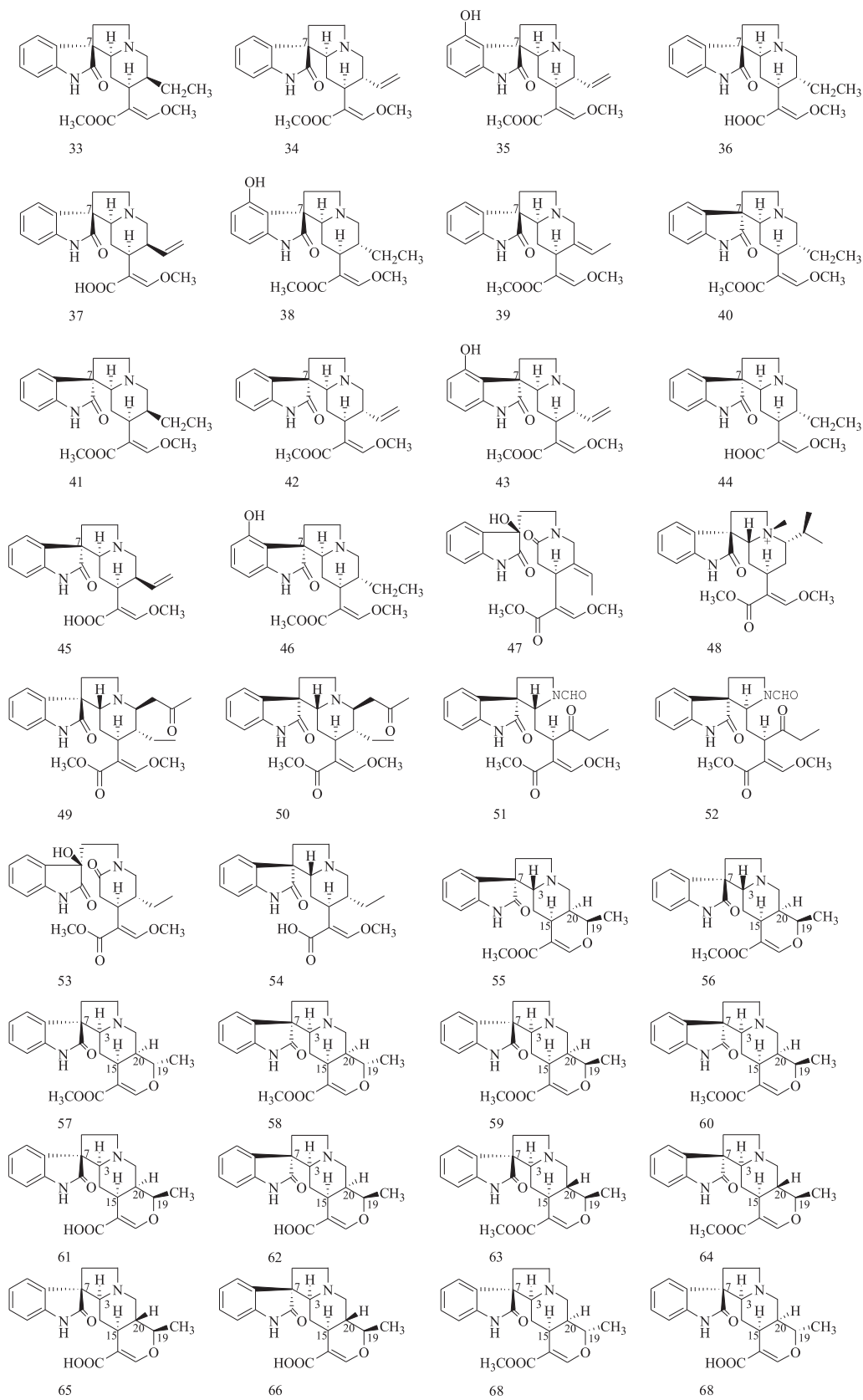


Fig. 1. (continued)

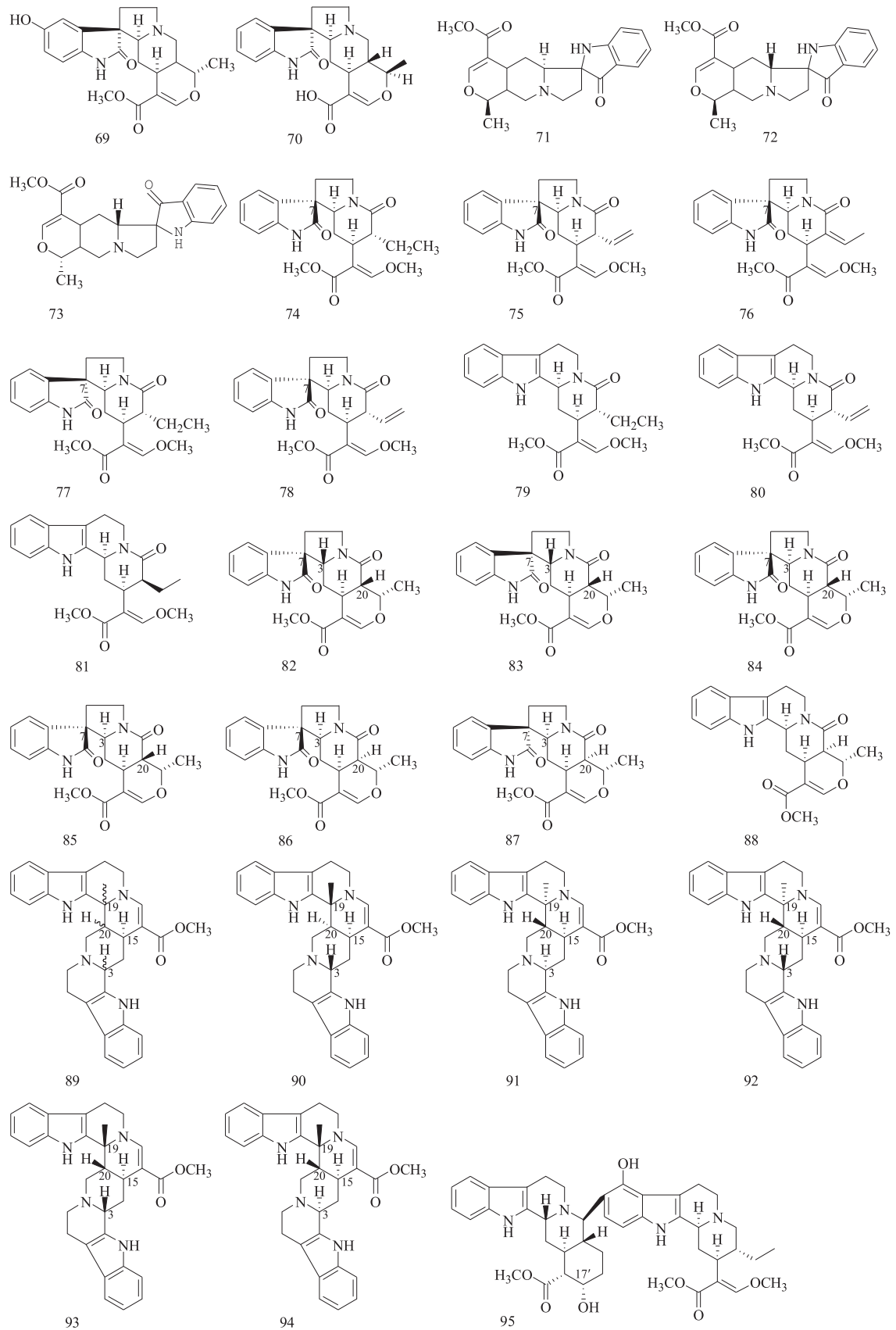


Fig. 1. (continued)

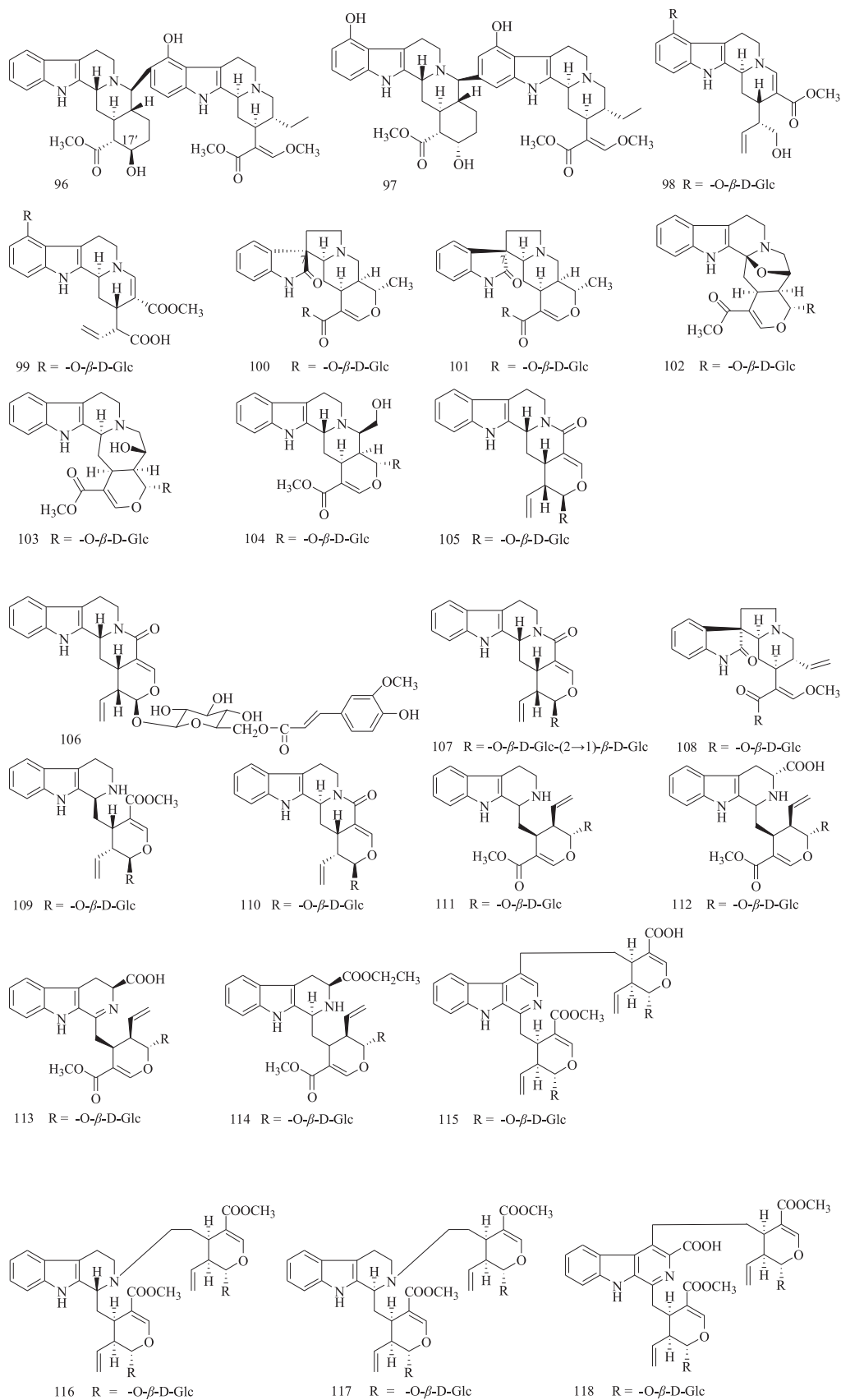


Fig. 1. (continued)

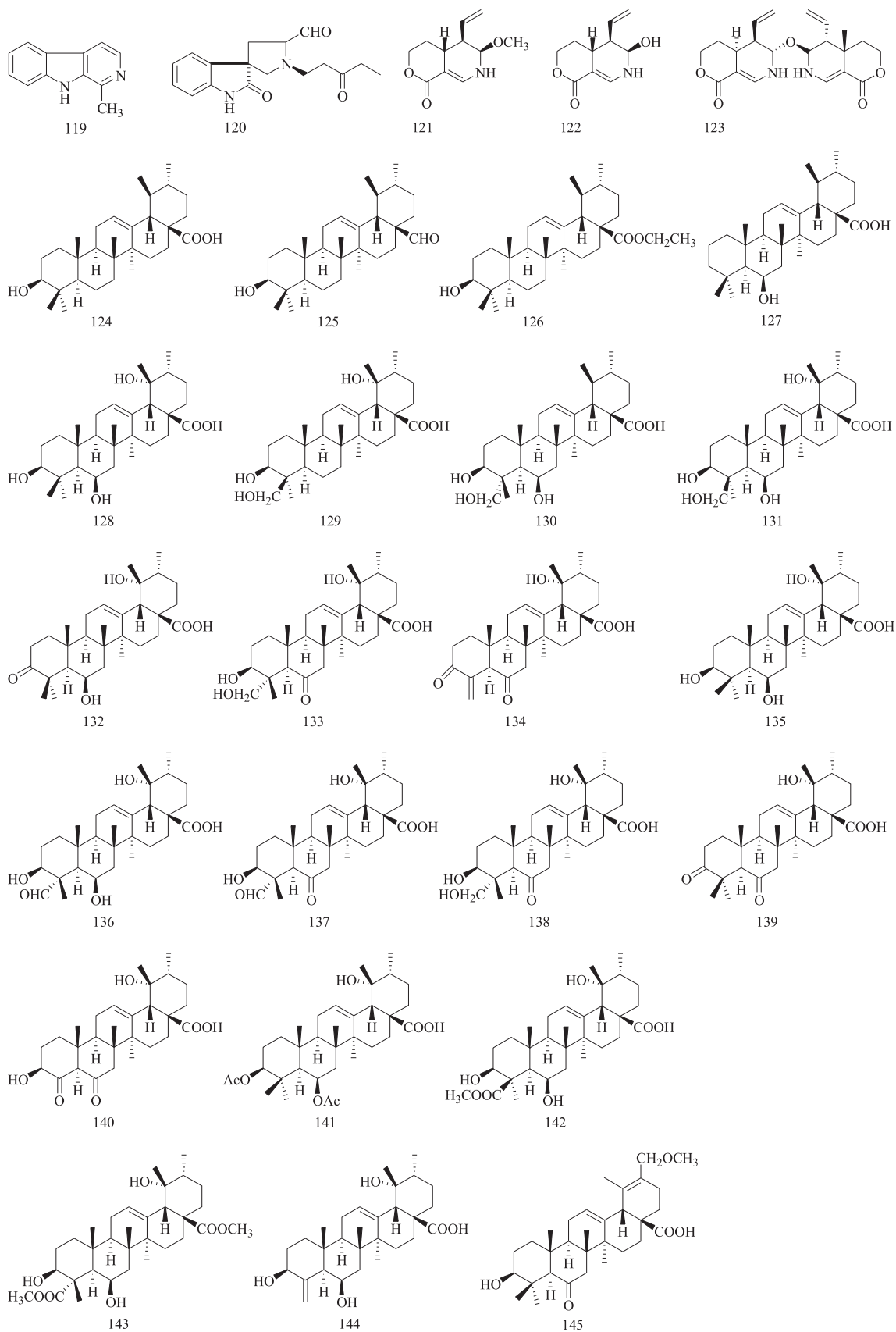


Fig. 1. (continued)

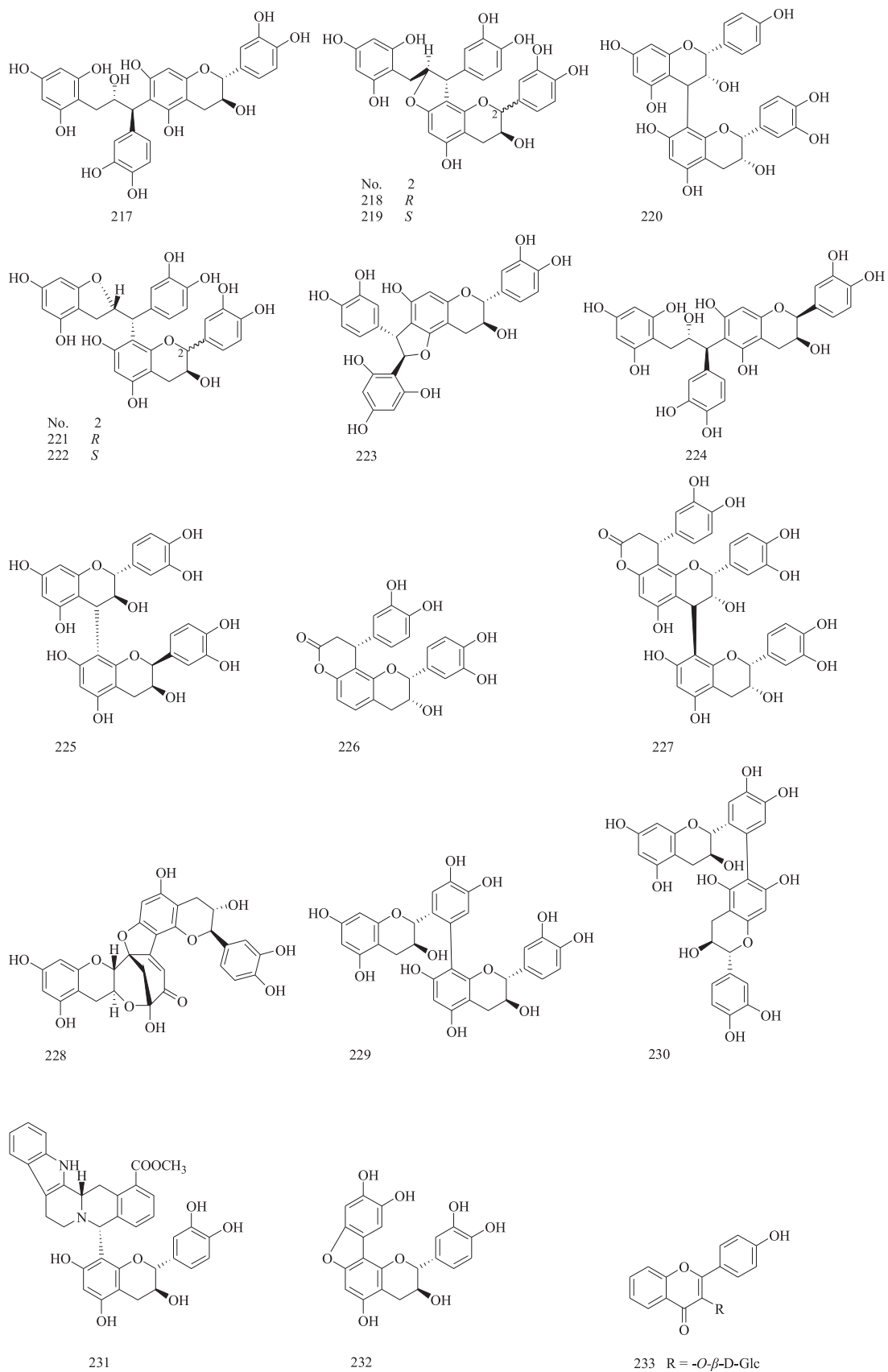


Fig. 1. (continued)

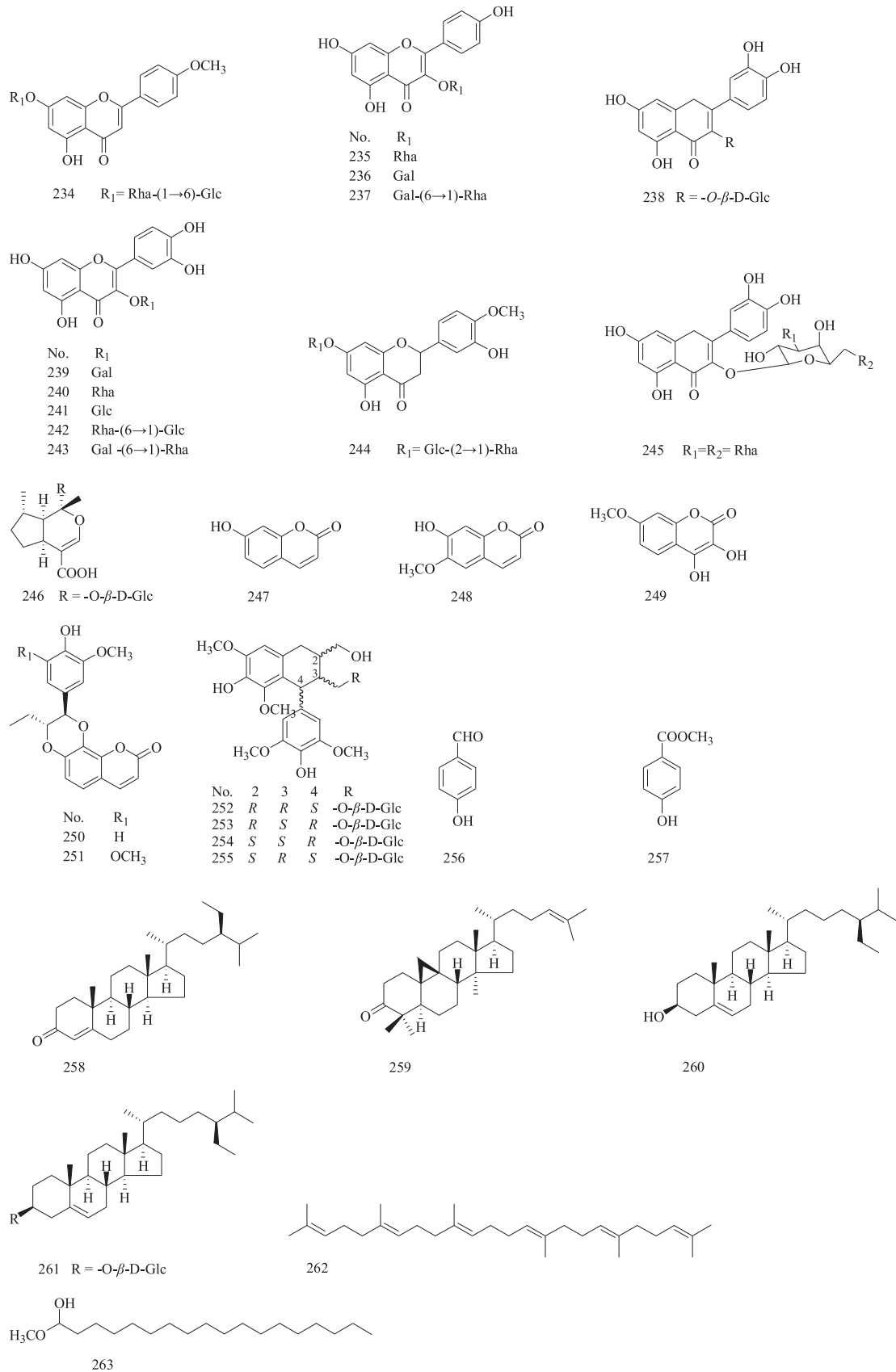


Fig. 1. (continued)

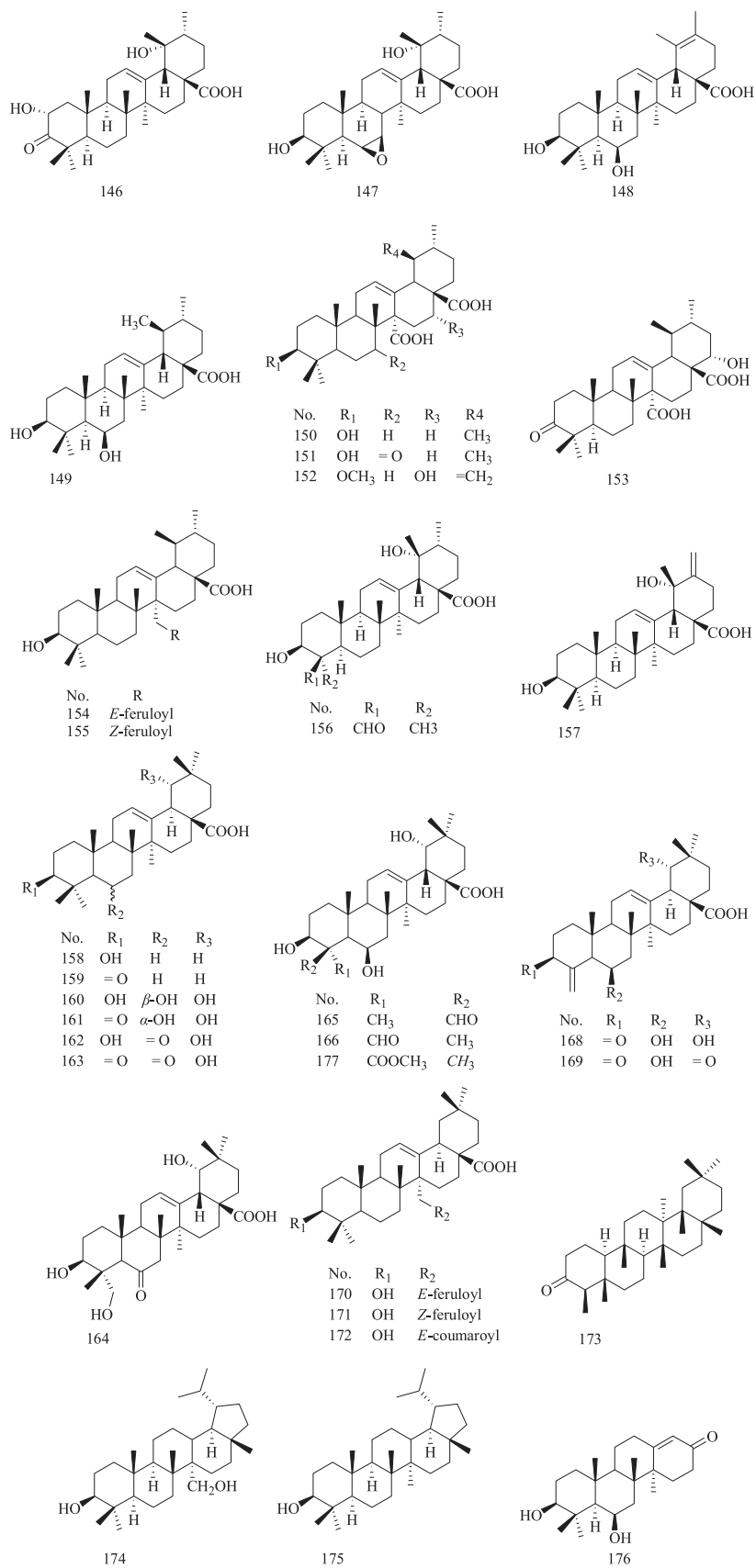


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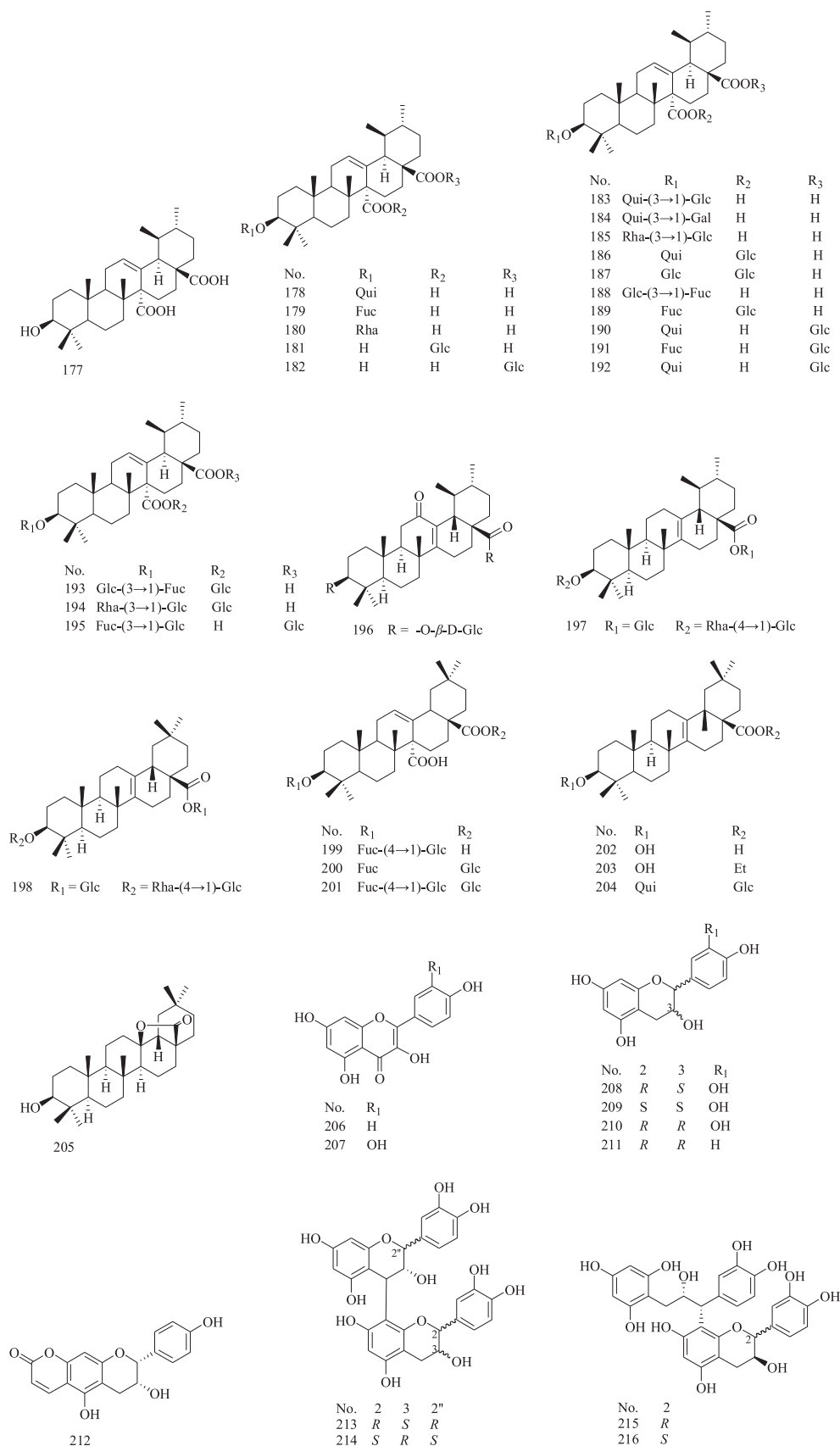


Fig. 1. (continued)

Table 6
The bioactivities of extracts and compounds from the genus *Uncaria*.

Pharmacological activities	Extract/Compound	Types	Testing subjects	Dose	Effects	Reference
Antioxidant activities	aqueous extract of <i>U. sinensis</i>	<i>in vitro</i>	red blood cells from Wistar rats	50 to 1000 µg/mL	inhibited AAPH-induced hemolysis	Sekiya et al., 2002
	aqueous extract of <i>U. tomentosa</i>	<i>in vitro</i>	DPPH- radicals ABTS- radicals	1 to 100 µg/mL	inhibited DPPH, ABTS- radicals	Sandoval et al., 2002
	aqueous extract of <i>U. guianensis</i>	<i>in vitro</i>	DPPH- radicals ABTS- radicals	1 to 100 µg/mL	inhibited DPPH, ABTS- radicals	Sandoval et al., 2002
	<i>U. tomentosa</i> bark extracts: aqueous extract and 50% ethanol extract	<i>in vitro</i>	TEAC, PRTC, SOD	1 mg/mL	TEAC, PRTC and SOD of ethanol extract were 57 mol/g, 52 mmol/g and 0.39 U/mg, respectively. TEAC, PRTC and SOD of aqueous extract were 34 mol/g, 19 mmol/g and 0.10 U/mg, respectively.	Pilarski et al., 2006
	hydroethanol extract of <i>U. tomentosa</i>	<i>in vitro</i>	hypochlorous acid	1 to 100 µM	inhibited the hypochlorous acid-mediated thionitrobenzoic acid oxidation	Amaral et al., 2009
Antidiabetic activities	aqueous extract of <i>U. gambir</i>	<i>in vitro</i>	DPPH radicals	10 to 200 µg/mL	inhibited 92% DPPH at 30 g/mL	Apea-Bah et al., 2009
	ethanol extract of <i>U. gambir</i>	<i>in vivo</i>	male Wistar rats-inoculated with W-256 cells	10 to 100 µg/mL	normalized the activities of catalase, glutathione-S-transferase and superoxide diamutase	Dreifuss et al., 2010
	aqueous extract of <i>U. gambir</i>	<i>in vitro</i>	α-glucosidase	10 to 200 µg/mL	inhibit α-glucosidase	Apea-Bah et al., 2009
	hydroethanol extract of <i>U. tomentosa</i>	<i>in vivo</i>	C57BL/6 male mice-treated with MLDS (40 mg/kg)	oral 50 to 400 mg/kg for 21 days	reduced the glycemic levels and diabetes incidence; higher doses presented CD4 ⁺ and CD8 ⁺ T-cell values	Domingues et al., 2011
	ursolic acid	<i>in vivo</i>	α-glucosidase	10 µL	inhibited α-glucosidase	Wang et al., 2013
Antimicrobial activities	3β-hydroxy-30-methoxy-6-oxo-urs-12, 19 (20)-dien-28-oic acid	<i>in vivo</i>	α-glucosidase	10 µL	inhibited α-glucosidase	Wang et al., 2013
	micropulverized <i>U. tomentosa</i>	<i>in vitro</i>	<i>Streptococcus mutans</i> , <i>Staphylococcus spp</i> , <i>Candida albicans</i> , <i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i> strains	2.5 to 50 mg/mL	inhibited 8% of Enterobacteriaceae isolates, 52% of <i>S. mutans</i> and 96% of <i>Staphylococcus spp</i> growth at 30 mg/mL without affecting <i>P. aeruginosa</i> and <i>C. albicans</i> .	Ccahuana-Vasquez et al., 2007
	<i>U. tomentosa</i> gel	<i>in vitro</i>	<i>Staphylococcus spp</i> , <i>Candida albicans</i> , <i>Enterococcus faecalis</i>	20 mg/mL	inhibited <i>E. faecalis</i> and <i>C. albicans</i> growth	Herrera et al., 2010
	pheophoride a ethyl ester	<i>in vitro</i>	<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i> 6538, <i>Enterococcus faecalis</i> 29212, <i>Escherichia coli</i> 25922, <i>Salmonella typhimurium</i> 14028, <i>Salmonella yphimurium</i> Ms 7953	2 µg/µL	showed significant activities against <i>S. aureus</i> 6538, <i>E. faecalis</i> 29212, <i>E. coli</i> 25922, <i>S. yphimurium</i> Ms 7953	Prieto Rodríguez et al., 2011
	rhynchophylline isorhynchophylline	<i>in vitro</i>	rat intestinal microvascular endothelial cells- treated with <i>Listerionlysin O</i>	10 µg/mL	prevented the morphological changes; decreased cell death; prevented disordered NO and ET-1 production in rat intestinal microvascular endothelial cells induced by <i>Listerionlysin O</i>	Chen et al., 2010
Anti-inflamatoy	aqueous extract of <i>U. tomentosa</i>	<i>in vitro</i>	RAW 264.7 cells-treated with LPS	0.1 to 100 µg/mL	inhibited TNF-α production	Sandoval et al., 2002
	aqueous extract of <i>U. guianensis</i>	<i>in vitro</i>	RAW 264.7 cells-treated with LPS	0.1 to 100 µg/mL	inhibited TNF-α production	Sandoval et al., 2002
	ethanol extract of <i>U. tomentosa</i>	<i>in vitro</i>	THP-1 cells-treated with LPS	1 µL, 10 µL	inhibited LPS-dependent expression of IL-1 and TNF-α; blocked ERK1/2 and MEK1/2 phosphorylation	Allen-Hall et al., 2007
	aqueous extract of <i>U. rhynchophylla</i>	<i>in vitro</i>	RAW 264.7 cells-treated with LPS	0.5 to 2 mg/mL	inhibited LPS-induced NO and IL-1β secretion as well as iNOS expression; suppressed LPS-induced NF-κB activation, phosphorylation, and degradation of IκB-α, phosphorylation of Akt, ERK1/2, p38 and JNK kinase	Kim et al., 2010
	rhynchophylline isorhynchophylline corynoxine isocorynoxine vincoside lactam	<i>in vitro</i>	microglia cells-treated with LPS	3 to 15 µg/mL	inhibited NO release in LPS-activated primary rat cortical microglial cells	Yuan et al., 2008
	aqueous extract of <i>U. tomentosa</i>	<i>in vivo</i>	male SD rats-treated with indomethacin	oral 5 mg/mL for 3 days	elicited a protective effect and attenuated the degree of gastric mucosal injury	Sandoval et al., 2002
	mitraphylline	<i>in vivo</i>	macrophages-treated with LPS	25 µM	reduced the chemotactic capacity of human primary monocytes; promoted the polarization of M0 macrophages toward an anti-inflammatory M2 phenotype; reduced	Montserrat-de la Paz et al. (2015)

Table 6 (continued)

Pharmacological activities	Extract/Compound	Types	Testing subjects	Dose	Effects	Reference
Immunostimulation	mitraphylline	<i>in vivo</i>	Balb/c female mice-treated with LPS	oral 30 mg/kg/day for 3 days	the number of classical (CD14 ⁺⁺ CD16 ⁻) and intermediate (CD14 ⁺⁺ CD16 ⁺) subsets in LPS-treated cells. inhibited the release of IL-1 α , IL-1 β , IL-4, IL-17 and TNF- α	Rojas-Duran et al., 2012
	C-Med-100 [®] (aqueous extract of <i>U. tomentosa</i>)	<i>in vitro</i>	spleen cell	oral 125 to 500 mg/kg	increased number of lymphocytes	Akesson et al., 2003
	uncarinic acid C	<i>in vitro</i>	human dendritic cell	0.1 μ M	enhanced the T cell stimulatory capacity; promoted the production of IL-12p70 and Th1 polarization	Kim et al. 2011
	aqueous extract of <i>U. tomentosa</i>	<i>in vitro</i>	human γ T cells	44.0 μ g/mL	induced IL-2R α expression on γ T cells and some cell division	Holderness et al., 2007
	aqueous extract of <i>U. perrottetii</i>	<i>in vitro</i>	Balb/C mice	10 to 100 μ g/mL	stimulated peritoneal phagocyte activation; produced a significant increase in the activity of phagocytic cells from the spleen; promoted splenic cellular proliferation	Nudo et al. 2011
	C-Med-100 [®]	<i>in vivo</i>	W/Fu rats-treated with doxorubicin	oral 40 and 80 mg/kg 16 days	promoted the white blood cell recovery induced doxorubicin	Sheng et al., 2000b
Anti-hypertension	C-Med-100 [®]	<i>in vivo</i>	human	oral 350 mg \times 2 daily dose for two months	increased the lymphocyte/neutrophil ratios of peripheral blood; reduced decay in the 12 serotype antibody titer responses to pneumococcal vaccination at 5 months	Lamm et al., 2001
	aqueous extract of <i>U. perrottetii</i>	<i>in vivo</i>	Balb/C mice-treated with cyclophosphamide	50 μ g/mL	significantly enhanced respiratory burst and plasma lysozyme activity compared with the cyclophosphamide-injected mice	Nudo et al. 2011
	rhynchophylline	<i>in vitro</i>	thoracic aorta from male SD rats	3 to 300 μ M	mediated L-type Ca ²⁺ channels	Zhang et al., 2004
	isorhynchophylline	<i>in vitro</i>	thoracic aorta from male SD rats	3 to 300 μ M	mediated L-type Ca ²⁺ channels	Zhang et al., 2004
	villocarine A	<i>in vitro</i>	thoracic aortic rings	30 μ M	inhibited calcium influx from extracellular space through voltage-dependent calcium channels and/or receptor-operated Ca ²⁺ -channels; mediated the increased release of NO from endothelial cells and opening of voltage-gated K ⁺ -channels	Matsuo et al., 2011
	corynoxine	<i>in vitro</i>	PASMCs-treated with PDGF-BB	5 to 50 μ M	inhibited the PDGF-BB-induced DNA synthesis of VSMCs; inhibited PDGF-BB-induced ERK1/2 activation	Kim et al., 2008
Anticancer activities	isorhynchophylline	<i>in vitro</i>	PASMCs-treated with PDGF-BB	10 mg/mL	inhibited PDGF-BB-induced proliferation of PASMCs; caused G ₀ /G ₁ phase cell cycle arrest; downregulated of Cyclin D1 and CDK6; increased p27Kip1 level	Guo et al., 2014
	rhynchophylline	<i>in vitro</i>	human mesenteric artery	20 to 100 μ M	blocked L-type calcium channels	Li et al., 2013
	isorhynchophylline	<i>in vivo</i>	pulmonary arterial hypertension in rats induced by monocrotaline (MCT)	10 mg/mL	alleviated the MCT-induced increase of RV hypertrophy and fibrosis as well as pulmonary vascular remodeling and PASMCs proliferation	Guo et al., 2014
	aqueous extract of <i>U. tomentosa</i>	<i>in vitro</i>	HL-60 cells	100 μ g/mL	inhibited the growth of HL-60 cells	Cheng et al., 2007
	aqueous extract of <i>U. tomentosa</i> alkaloid-enriched extract of <i>U. tomentosa</i>	<i>in vitro</i>	HeLa cells HCT116 cells SW480 cells	10-200 μ g/mL	reduced expression of the Wnt-target gene: c-Myc	Gurrola-Díaz et al. 2011
	quinovic acid glycosides purified fraction of <i>U. tomentosa</i>	<i>in vitro</i>	T24 cells RT4 cells	5 to 150 μ g/mL	decreased the cell growth and viability of T24 and RT4 cells	Dietrich et al., 2014
Anticancer activities	mitraphylline	<i>in vitro</i>	GAMG cells SKN-BE cells	5 to 40 μ M	inhibited the growth of GAMG and SKN-BE cells	García Prado et al., 2007
	mitraphylline	<i>in vitro</i>	MHH-ES-1 cells MT-3 cells	5 to 40 μ M	inhibited the growth of MHH-ES-1 and MT-3 cells	García Giménez et al., 2010
	3 β ,6 β ,19 α -trihydroxy-12-oleanen-28-oic acid	<i>in vitro</i>	MCF-7 cells HepG2 cells	0.625 to 10 μ g/mL	inhibited the growth of MCF-7 and HepG2 cells	Sun et al., 2012
	hydroethanol extracts of <i>U. tomentosa</i>	<i>in vivo</i>	Walker-256 cancer model.	50 mg/ mL for 14 days	reduced tumour weight and volume; modulated anti-oxidant systems; increased	Dreifuss et al., 2013

Table 6 (continued)

Pharmacological activities	Extract/Compound	Types	Testing subjects	Dose	Effects	Reference
Anti-amnesic	<i>n</i> -butanol extracts of <i>U. tomentosa</i>	<i>in vivo</i>	Walker-256 cancer model.	10 to 100 μ M for 14 days	the survival time of the tumour-bearing animals	Dreifuss et al., 2010
	hydroethanol extract of <i>U. tomentosa</i>				reduced the tumor growth; showed no effect on the increase of LDH and GGT plasma levels	
Anti-depressant	70% methanol extract of <i>U. hook</i>	<i>in vivo</i>	male ICR mice-treated with ethanol	250 mg/kg	impaired memory acquisition and dopamine in the hippocampus and changed 5-hydroxytryptamine and glutamic acid neuronal activities in ethanol-treated mice	Lee et al., 2004
Anti-convulsion	ethanol extract of <i>U. lanosa</i>	<i>in vivo</i>	male ICR albino mice	0.125 to 0.5 g/kg for two for 14 days	decreased the immobility time in forced swimming test and tail suspension test; increased in monoamines levels in the hippocampus, cortex, striatum, and hypothalamus of mice	Hsu et al., 2012
	rhynchophylline	<i>in vitro</i>	hippocampal slices from male Wistar rats	10 to 100 μ M	inhibited NMDA and 5-HY2 receptor-mediated neurotoxicity during ischemia	Kang et al., 2004
	isorhynchophylline rhynchophylline	<i>in vivo</i>	Wistar rats	5 to 15 mg/kg	increased the levels of 5-hydroxyindoleacetic acid, 3,4-dihydroxyphenylacetic acid and homovanillic acid and decreased norepinephrine level in striatum and hippocampus of cerebral ischemic rats.	Lu et al., 2004
Anti-Parkinson's disease	geissoschizine methyl ether	<i>in vivo</i>	male ddY mice	5 to 30 mg/kg for 30 min	reduced 5-hydroxy-L-tryptophan plus clorgyline-induced head twitch response; decreased the rectal temperature of mice	Pengsuparp et al., 2001
	geissoschizine methyl ether	<i>in vitro</i>	Chinese hamster ovary cell membranes	0.01 to 100 μ M	strongly inhibited the binding of 8-hydroxy-2-(di- <i>n</i> -propylamino) tetralin to 5-HT _{1A} receptors	Nishi et al., 2012
	geissoschizine methyl ether	<i>in vitro</i>	human embryonic kidney 293 cells	50 μ M	strongly inhibited the binding of to 5-HT ₇ receptors	Ueki et al., 2013
	ethanol extract of <i>U. rhynchophylla</i>	<i>in vivo</i>	male SD rats-treated with kainic acid (KA)	1 g/kg/day	improved KA-induced epileptic seizures; downregulated the KA-induced IL-1 and BDNF gene expressions	Ho et al., 2014
Anti-Alzheimer's disease	rhynchophylline	<i>in vivo</i>	male SD rats-treated with kainic acid (KA)	0.25 mg/kg/day	improved KA-induced epileptic seizures; downregulated the KA-induced IL-1 and BDNF gene expressions	Ho et al., 2014
	methanol extract of <i>U. rhynchophylla</i>	<i>in vitro</i>	monoamine oxidase B (MAO-B)	100 μ g/mL	inhibited of MAO-B activity	Hou et al., 2005
	aqueous extract of <i>U. rhynchophylla</i>	<i>in vitro</i>	PC12 cells-treated with 6-OHDA	0.1 to 1 μ g/mL	reduced cell death and the generation of ROS; increased GSH levels; inhibited caspase-3 activity	Shim et al., 2009
	aqueous extract of <i>U. tomentosa</i>	<i>in vitro</i>	SH-SY5Y cells-treated with 6-OHDA	50 to 200 mg/L	had scavenging ability to free radicals; attenuated 6-OHDA-induced cell death; inhibited the activation of iNOS and NF- κ B	Shi et al. (2010)
	aqueous extract of <i>U. tomentosa</i> aqueous extract of <i>U. rhynchophylla</i>	<i>in vitro</i> <i>in vivo</i>	transgenic <i>Caenorhabditis elegans</i> model NL5901 male SD rats-treated with 6-OHDA	10 μ g/ml 5 mg/kg/day for 14 days	reduced the aggregation of α -synuclein by 40% in NL5901 <i>C. elegans</i> reduced apomorphine-induced rotation; dopaminergic neuronal loss in substantia nigra pars compacta	Shi et al., 2013 Shim et al., 2009
Anti-Alzheimer's disease	isorhynchophylline	<i>in vitro</i>	PC12 cells-treated with A β ₂₅₋₃₅	1 to 50 μ M	reduced the levels of intracellular reactive oxygen species and malondialdehyde; increased the level of glutathione; stabilized mitochondrial membrane; suppressed the formation of DNA fragmentation and the activity of caspase-3 and moderated the ratio of Bcl-2/Bax.	Xian et al., 2012b
	rhynchophylline	<i>in vitro</i>	PC12 cells-treated with A β ₂₅₋₃₅	100 μ M	decreased A β -induced cell death, intracellular calcium overloading, and tau protein hyperphosphorylation	Xian et al., 2012a
	isorhynchophylline	<i>in vitro</i>	PC12 cells-treated with A β ₂₅₋₃₅	100 μ M	decreased A β -induced cell death, intracellular calcium overloading, and tau protein hyperphosphorylation	Xian et al., 2012a
	hydroethanol extract of <i>U. rhynchophylla</i>	<i>in vivo</i>	male ICR mice-treated with D-galactose (D-gal)	200 or 400 mg/kg	increased the levels of acetylcholine and glutathione; decreased the activity of acetylcholinesterase and the level of malondialdehyde in the brains of D-gal-treated mice.	Xian et al., 2013
	isorhynchophylline	<i>in vivo</i>	male SD rats-treated with A β ₂₅₋₃₅	20 or 40 mg/kg for 21 days	ameliorated the cognitive deficits; attenuated neuronal apoptosis in hippocampus by down-regulating the protein and mRNA levels of the ratio of Bcl-2/Bax, cleaved caspase-3 and caspase-9, as well as suppressing the tau protein hyperphosphorylation at the Ser396, Ser404, and Thr205 sites.	Xian et al., 2014

et al., 2007). The correlations between pharmacological properties of *U. tomentosa* and active compounds revealed that oxindole alkaloids and triterpenes are major bioactive constituents. For instance, oxindole alkaloids and quinovic acid glycosides from *U. tomentosa* effectively induced apoptosis in T24 and RT4 cells via modulation of NF- κ B (Kaiser et al., 2013; Dietrich et al., 2014). Mitraphylline (**63**) inhibited the growth of MT-3, SKN-BE and GAMA cells with IC₅₀ value of 11.80 μ M, 12.3 μ M and 20 μ M, respectively (García Giménez et al., 2010; García Prado et al., 2007). Uncarines F, C, E (**56**, **59** and **60**, resp.) and isomitraphylline (**64**) showed antiproliferative effect on human lymphoblastic leukaemia T cells. Uncarines F and C (**56** and **59**) further induced apoptosis in both proliferating and G₀/G₁ arrested stage (Bacher et al., 2006). Ursolic acid (**124**) and 3 β ,6 β ,19 α -trihydroxy-olean-12-en-28-oic acid (**160**) induced apoptosis in A549, SK-OV-3, HCT-15 and MCF-7 cells (Kim et al., 1998; Sun et al., 2012a).

Regarding the underlying mechanisms of *Uncaria* plants for the therapy of cancers, it was concluded that the inhibition of phospholipase C γ 1 (PLC γ 1) (Lee et al., 2000), induction of apoptosis in cancer cells (Cheng et al., 2007; Pilarski et al., 2010), regulation of Wnt-signaling pathway (Gurrola-Díaz et al., 2011) and scavenging of free radicals (Dreifuss et al., 2010) are contribute to the treatment of cancers. More details are given below.

Firstly, PLC γ 1 was reported to play a key role in proliferation and progression of human cancer (Arteaga et al., 1991; Noh et al., 1994; Hill et al., 1994). In the course of screening medicinal plants, the CHCl₃ extract of *U. rhynchophylla* hooks exhibited inhibition of PLC γ 1 to 35.4% at the concentration of 250 μ g/mL. By bioactivity-guided isolation, six triterpene esters were identified as PLC γ 1 inhibitors with the IC₅₀ of 9.5–44.6 μ M. The structure-activity relationships in these compounds revealed that ursan moiety, *trans* configuration and *p*-coumaroyloxy group of these triterpene esters are potent functional groups for inhibiting PLC γ 1 activity (Lee et al., 2000).

Secondly, Cheng et al. (2007) evaluated antiproliferative activities of various extracts of *U. tomentosa* bark on human promyelocytic leukemia HL-60 cell lines. The ethyl acetate extract induced apoptosis in HL-60 cells in a dose-dependent and time-dependent manner with IC₅₀ of 18.0 μ g/mL. Its mechanisms were related with mitochondrial pathway and receptor-mediated pathway, in which phosphatidylserine and cytochrome *c* were increased and Fas, Bid cleavage and caspase-8 were activated. 96% ethanol extract of *U. tomentosa* bark was further reported to decrease the G₂/M phase in MCF7 cells at a daily-dose of 0.5 mg and its water extract proved to demonstrate G₁/G₀ cell cycle arrest at a daily-dose of 0.05 mg (Pilarski et al., 2010).

Thirdly, alterations on Wnt-signaling pathway, a central regulator, played a crucial role on cancer pathophysiology (Logan and Nusse, 2004; Nusse, 2005). Aqueous extract of *U. tomentosa* decreased Wnt-signaling activities in a dose-dependent manner in HeLa, HCT116 and SW480 cancer cells with IC₅₀ of 278 μ g/mL, 150 μ g/mL and 190 μ g/mL, respectively. Its signaling inhibitory effect was operated by downstream of beta-Catenin, thereby reducing the expression of Wnt target genes (Gurrola-Díaz et al., 2011).

Last but not least, Dreifuss et al. (2010) have revealed that antitumoral properties of hydroethanol extract of *U. tomentosa* bark in Walker-256 cells is closely related to its antioxidant activities via ROS-regulating mechanisms and metabolism homeostasis. The sole substances responsible for its anti-neoplastic effect was a synergic combination of substances based on antioxidant activity rather than just oxindole alkaloids (Coussens and Werb, 2002; Mantovani et al., 2008; Dreifuss et al., 2013).

In brief, these findings displayed potential mechanisms of *U. tomentosa* as anticancer remedy.

4.8. Effects on the central nervous system

Therapeutic effects of *Uncaria* plants on central nervous system diseases have been widely studied *in vitro* and *in vivo* methods. *In vitro* investigations have shown that *Uncaria* plants ameliorate amyloid- β -induced neuronal death, methamphetamine-induced rat cortical neurons death, glutamate-induced PC12 cell death and LPS-induced hippocampal cell death, etc (Jung et al., 2013; Kawakami et al., 2011; Mo et al., 2006; Xian et al., 2012b). *In vivo* experiments have revealed that *Uncaria* plants improve learning and memory impairments and dementia-like behaviors in various animal models (Fujiwara et al., 2011; Xian et al., 2011; Xian et al., 2014a). To better understand pharmacological properties of the genus *Uncaria* on central nervous system, the content in this review was arranged as follows: anti-amnesic, anti-depressant, anti-convulsion, anti-Parkinson's disease and anti-Alzheimer's disease.

4.8.1. Anti-amnesic

Repeated orally administration of methanol extract of *Uncaria hooks* at dose of 250 mg/kg reduced the latency in rats induced by ethanol. Neurotransmitter analysis showed that the extract significantly suppressed the activities of dopamine, 5-HT and glutamic acid without affecting γ -GABA and cholinergic neuronal activities (Lee et al., 2004).

4.8.2. Anti-depressant

Depression, a widespread incapacitating psychiatric ailment, was characterized by a disturbance of mood associated with alteration in behavior, energy and appetite (Neal, 2009; Nemeroff, 2007). Ethanol extract of *U. lanosa* stem and hook was shown to decrease the immobility time in forced swimming test and tail suspension test. And the antidepressant-like mechanism of the extract may be related with the increase in monoamines levels in the hippocampus, cortex, striatum, and hypothalamus of mice (Hsu et al., 2012). Several studies have reported that rhynchophylline (**32**), isorhynchophylline (**40**) and geissoschizine methyl ether (**11**) have agonistic activities on the 5-HT receptors (Kang et al., 2004; Pengsuparp et al., 2001; Nishi et al., 2012; Ueki et al., 2013). Moreover, rhynchophylline (**32**) affected the levels of serotonin in cortex, striatum, hippocampus and hypothalamus (Lu et al., 2004; Shi et al., 1993).

4.8.3. Anti-convulsion

Hydroethanol extract of *U. rhynchophylla* and rhynchophylline (**32**) have been proved to have neuroprotective and anti-convulsive activities (Kang et al., 2004; Lin and Hsieh, 2011). Pretreatment of *U. rhynchophylla* (1 g/kg) and rhynchophylline (**32**) (0.25 mg/kg) significantly reduced paw tremors and facial myoclonia in kainic acid (KA)-induced rats. Their potential mechanisms might be associated with (i): inhibition of c-Jun N-terminal kinase phosphorylation and NF- κ B activation; (ii): regulation of Toll-like receptor (TLR) and neurotrophin signaling pathways; (iii): downregulation of IL-1 β and BDNF gene expressions (Hsieh et al., 2009; Ho et al., 2014).

4.8.4. Anti-Parkinson's disease

Parkinson's disease (PD) was nervous system degenerative disease with characteristic of decrease level of dopamine and occurrence of pathological changes in substantia nigra and striatum pathway (Schapira et al., 1998). Previous study have proved that oxidative stress is an intermediary risk factors which can initiate and promote degeneration of dopaminergic neurons (Beal, 1995). To better understand the neuroprotection of aqueous extract of *U. tomentosa* bark on dopaminergic neurons, Shi et al. (2010) used the 6-OHDA-induced SH-SY5Y cells model. The results

showed that the extract has scavenging ability to free radicals, attenuate 6-OHDA-induced cell death and inhibit the activation of iNOS and NF- κ B, which suggested that *U. tomentosa* is a potential neuroprotective antioxidant for the precaution candidate of Parkinson's disease. Shi et al. (2013) continued to work on the neuroprotective properties of a standardized aqueous extract of *U. tomentosa* and found that 10 μ g/mL of the extract could reduce the aggregation of α -synuclein by 40% in transgenic *Caenorhabditis elegans* model NL5901.

In addition, aqueous extract of *U. rhynchophylla* hook also showed neuroprotective activity *in vitro* and *in vivo* models of PD. In PC12 cells, the extract (0.01–1.0 μ g/mL) significantly reduced cells death and generation of ROS, increased glutathione levels and inhibited caspase-3 activity induced by 6-OHDA. At the concentration of 5 mg/kg/day for 14 days, the extract showed behavioral recovery and protection of dopaminergic neurons in the 6-OHDA animal model. All these results proposed that the neuroprotective effect of *rhynchophylla* was related to its antioxidative and anti-apoptotic activities (Shim et al., 2009). In addition, inhibition of monoamine oxidase B (MAO-B) activity provided protection against oxidative neurodegeneration and was used as part of the treatment of Parkinson's disease (Nagatsu, 2004). Hou et al. (2005) reported that methanol extract of *U. rhynchophylla* hook inhibit MAO-B activity by 85.2% at the concentration of 100 μ g/mL. Bioactive compounds, (+)-catechin (208) and (-)-epicatechin (210), suppressed activities of MAO-B with IC₅₀ of 88.6 μ M and 58.9 μ M, respectively (Hou et al., 2005). Besides, *U. rhynchophylla* showed inhibitory effect on activation of microglial, which suppressed the progression of neurodegenerative diseases, such as Alzheimer's disease and Parkinson's disease (Sugama et al., 2009; Tang et al., 2010; Stoll and Jander, 2008; Kaul et al., 2001). The structure-activity in bioactive compounds, corynoxine (34), isocorynoxine (78), rhynchophylline (32), isorhynchophylline (40) and vincoside lactam (105), indicated that the C-7 configuration seems not to affect their microglial activation activity, although it has been reported that the antagonistic activity of these compounds on 5-HT_{2A} receptors in the brain is closely related to the 7S configuration of the oxindole moiety (Matsumoto et al., 2005).

4.8.5. Anti-Alzheimer's disease

Alzheimer's disease (AD) was a multifaceted neurodegenerative disorder characterized by deterioration of cognitive, learning and memory and might be delayed by acetylcholinesterase (AChE) inhibitors (Houghton et al., 2006). Xian et al. (2011) reported that 70% hydroethanol extract of *U. rhynchophylla* hook-bearing stem and branch (200 or 400 mg/kg) significantly increased exploratory behavior and improved spatial learning and memory function in D-galactose-induced rat cognitive deficits model. This function on increasing acetylcholine and glutathione levels and decreasing acetylcholinesterase activity and malondialdehyde level in the rat brains might be related to the inhibition of acetylcholinesterase activity and enhancement of antioxidant status in brain tissues. The latter researchers found that isorhynchophylline (40) can ameliorate memory deficits through enhancing the antioxidant status and anti-inflammatory effect of brain tissues in D-galactose-induced mouse (Xian et al., 2014b).

Another critical cause in the pathogenesis of Alzheimer's disease (AD) was considered as beta-amyloid peptide (A β) (Hardy, 1997; Selkoe, 2000). Modulation of A β -induced neurotoxicity has emerged as a possible therapeutic approach to ameliorate the onset and progression of AD. Rhynchophylline (32) and isorhynchophylline (40) have a protective activity against beta-amyloid-(A β)-induced neuronal toxicity, resulting from the inhibiting intracellular calcium overloading and tau protein phosphorylation (Xian et al., 2012a). Furthermore, the remarkable effect was

observed for isorhynchophylline (40) in combination with inhibition of oxidative stress and mitochondrial pathway of cellular apoptosis, downregulation of GSK-3 β activity and suppression of PI3K/Akt signaling pathway activation (Xian et al., 2012b; 2014a).

5. Pharmacokinetic and metabolism

Metabolites of bioactive indole alkaloids of *Uncaria* species have been investigated over the past decade. It was thought that these alkaloids can metabolize to their 10- and 11- hydroxyl metabolites, such as rhynchophylline (32), isorhynchophylline (40), corynoxine (34) and isocorynoxine (78) (Wang et al., 2010a; 2010b; 2014; Qi et al., 2015). The specific inhibition of CYP isozymes can regulate their hydroxylation metabolites at C-10 and C-11 (Wang et al., 2010a, 2010b). Different from above compounds, hirsutine (1) and hirsuteine (2) only produced their 11-hydroxy metabolites in rats (Nakazawa et al., 2006). Recently, Chen et al. 2014 and Qi et al., 2015 reported that the possible oxidation and hydroxylation metabolites of isorhynchophylline (40) and isocorynoxine (78), which was important to further understand their metabolites (Chen et al., 2014; Qi et al., 2015).

Kushida et al. (2013) further investigated the pharmacokinetics of *Uncaria* hook alkaloids after oral administration of Yokukansan (0.25, 1 and 4 g/kg). The results showed that rhynchophylline (32), hirsutine (1), hirsuteine (2) and geissoschizine methyl ether (11) exist in rat plasma. The data of rhynchophylline (32) (t_{max} =0.42–1.0 h; $t_{1/2}$ =1.4 h), hirsutine (1) (t_{max} =0.50–0.83 h; $t_{1/2}$ =3.4 h), hirsuteine (2) (t_{max} =0.50 to 2.0 h; $t_{1/2}$ =1.9 to 3.6 h) and geissoschizine methyl ether (11) (t_{max} =0.42 to 0.67 h; $t_{1/2}$ =1.5 to 2.0 h) indicated that these alkaloids were likely to be absorbed, metabolized and excreted at early time points after administration. The fact that rhynchophylline (32) and geissoschizine methyl ether (11) are detected in rat brain further suggested that the two compounds can cross blood-brain barrier to produce a directly pharmacological effect in the central nervous system (Wang and Ma, 2010a; Imamura et al., 2011; Kushida et al., 2013; Lee et al.; 2014).

6. Toxicity

The aqueous extracts of *U. tomentosa* barks have been evaluated for their potential toxic effects using mammalian and bacterial cells by different research groups. Santa Maria et al., (1997) reported that the aqueous extracts of *U. tomentosa* barks do not show cytotoxicity at the concentrations tested (10–100 mg/ml) by Neutral red assay, total protein content and tetrazolium assay. Sheng et al. (2000a) continued to work on the toxic effects of aqueous extract of *U. tomentosa* bark in female W/Fu rats and found that this extract represent no acute or chronic toxicity signs with LD₅₀ > 8 g/kg and MTD > 8 g/kg after oral administration of the extract at the doses of 10–80 mg/kg/day for 8 week or 160 mg/kg/day for 4 weeks. And no body weight, food consumption, organ weight and kidney, liver, spleen, and heart pathological changes were found to be associated with the aqueous extract treatment in human clinical study (Lamm et al., 2001; Sheng et al., 2001). In addition, the aqueous extract of *U. tomentosa* bark showed a non-toxic effect in *Hyphessobrycon equi* (LD₅₀=1.816 mg/mL) (Yunis et al., 2014), *Photobacterium phosphotum* (Santa Maria et al., 1997) and *Salmonella typhimurium* (Rizzi et al., 1993) as well as non-genotoxicity in *Drosophila melanogaster* (Romero-Jimenez et al., 2005).

Despite the lack of establishment of the effective oral dosage for medical application of *U. tomentosa* extracts, Falkiewicz and Luckasiak, (2001) provided information on its appropriate choice. As general immunostimulant, daily doses ranging from 0.5 g to 1 g of the extract were recommended in form of tablets or capsules. Standardized extracts from *U. tomentosa* root, in form of a powder,

was used 2–3 times a day at doses from 20 to 60 mg/kg in western Europe. Since the toxicity of *Uncaria* plants were limited according to the reported data, comprehensive toxicological investigations of *Uncaria* plants should be carried out in the future.

7. Conclusions

Uncaria species are endemic to many parts of Southeast Asia, Africa and Southeast America and are widely used in traditional medicine for various applications. *Uncaria*, on its own or as part of a polyherbal preparation is a valuable remedy for vascular and neurosis diseases. The phytochemical results have indicated a significantly variety of structural types of chemical constituents. Pharmacological studies indicated that these plants and ingredients possessed various biological activities, especially in the areas of antioxidant, anti-inflammatory, immunostimulation, anti-hypertension, anticancer, anti-convulsive, anti-Parkinson's and anti-Alzheimer's disease, etc. To a certain extent, pharmacological results provided that (i) traditional uses of gastroenteritis and bacterial/fungal infections, diarrhea and thrush were related to antimicrobial activities; (ii) wounds and ulcers, fevers, arthritis and rheumatism illnesses were associated with anti-inflammatory activities; (iii) vascular dementia, epilepsy and cerebral ischemia were affected by regulation of central nervous system; (iv) diabetes and hypertension diseases have been investigated by *in vitro* and *in vivo* experiments. Regarding the constituents contributed to therapeutic values, the findings indicated that indole alkaloids are major components for the treatment of hypertension, epilepsy, depressant, Parkinson's disease and Alzheimer's disease. These kinds of oxindole alkaloids, likely rhynchophylline (**32**) and isorhynchophylline (**40**), usually contain chiral carbon atoms. It is imperative to discuss the stereo-chemistry and structure-activity relationships of oxindole alkaloids for evaluating pharmacological activities of *Uncaria* species. Although great progresses on the phytochemistry and pharmacology of the genus *Uncaria* have been made, there still need more conclusive studies on the safety, efficacy and *in vivo* toxicity of extracts and pure compounds to gain a better understanding of this genus.

Collectively, this present review provides systematically information on the ethnopharmacology, phytochemistry and pharmacology of the genus *Uncaria*, which supports the further clinical use of *Uncaria* species in modern medicine.

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