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# Medicinal and aromatic plants of Cape Verde: characterization of volatile metabolites of endemic and native species

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#### **RESUMO**

As plantas têm sido usadas como remédios pelo homem desde há milhares de anos e várias culturas incluem um amplo conhecimento sobre suas virtudes medicinais. Práticas tradicionais, apoiadas por conhecimentos empíricos, crenças e procedimentos, desempenham um papel importante, primeiramente nos cuidados de saúde das populações e, secundariamente, como evidências etnofarmacológicas disponíveis para o desenvolvimento de fármacos.

As plantas aromáticas são associadas a muitas aplicações biológicas e médicas. Elas biossintetizam uma grande variedade de metabolitos secundários voláteis que desempenham importantes papéis eco-fisiológicos, tais como, proteção contra organismos prejudiciais, predadores, patogénicos microbianos, stresse abiótico, calor, desidratação, etc ..., desempenhando também um papel importante na interação com outras plantas e organismos. Os metabolitos voláteis, distintivos das plantas aromáticas, são agentes naturalmente seleccionados para interagir com alvos biológicos.

Este trabalho está focado em plantas medicinais e aromáticas de Cabo Verde. Teve por base informação etnofarmacológica recolhida por inquéritos diretos à população, e que conduziu ao estudo dos metabolitos voláteis das espécies aromáticas endémicas e nativas utilizadas na medicina tradicional de Cabo Verde.

Reportamos a composição dos isolados voláteis das quatro plantas medicinais aromáticas, Artemisia gorgonum, Satureja forbesii, Hytis pectinata e Cymbopogon citratus, colhidas na ilha de Santiago. Os óleos essenciais foram obtidos por hidrodestilação foram analisados por combinação de técnicas de cromatografia de fase gasosa e espectrometria de massa.

A informação sobre a composição química dos recursos naturais de Cabo Verde é especialmente relevante, considerando a validação das práticas da medicina tradicional, bem como, a valorização da biomassa vegetal como fonte de compostos úteis para pesquisas, incluindo desenvolvimento de fármacos e outros fins.

Este trabalho também é uma homenagem aos terapeutas tradicionais de Cabo Verde e uma contribuição para o conhecimento da cultura e do património vegetal deste arquipélago Verde.

#### **ABSTRACT**

Plants have been used as remedies by man for thousands of years and various cultures have an extensive knowledge about their medicinal properties. Traditional healing practices, supported by empirical knowledge, beliefs and procedures, play important roles, immediately, in health care of populations, secondarily, as ethnopharmacological starting evidence for Drug Discovery.

Aromatic plants are very often associated with many biological and medical applications. They produce a wide range of volatile secondary metabolites with important ecophysiological roles, such as, protection against harmful organisms, predators, microbial pathogens, abiotic stress, heat, dehydration, etc..., or playing important interaction with other plants and organisms. Thus, volatile metabolites, distinctive of aromatic plants, are naturally skilled to interact with biological targets.

This work is focused on medicinal and aromatic plants from Cape Verde. Ethnopharmacological information, collected by direct inquires to locals, was in the base of a prospective chemical study on volatile metabolites of endemic and native aromatic species from Cape Verde used in traditional medicine.

We report on the composition of the volatile isolates of four aromatic medicinal plants, Artemisia gorgonum, Satureja forbesii, Hytis pectinata and Cymbopogon citratus, collected at Santiago Island. The essential oils were prepared at laboratory by hydrodistillation and analyzed by combination of gas chromatography and mass spectroscopy techniques.

Chemical information on these natural resources of Cape Verde is useful data in regard to the validation of traditional medicinal practices, as well as, in regard to the valorization of plant biomass as sources of compounds useful for research, including the development of drugs, and other industrial purposes.

This work is also homage to the traditional therapists of Cape Verde and contribution for the knowledge of the culture and the vegetal patrimony of this archipelago Verde.

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# **EQUATIONS**

| Equation I. Linear interpolation, according Van den Dool and Kratz: IR $_{ m (a)}$ - peak               |
|---|
| "a" retention indice, n — number of carbons of the $n$ -alkane eluting before peak "a";                 |
| $Tr_{(a)}-Retention$ time of peak "a"; $Tr_{(n)}$ - Retention time of peak the <i>n</i> -alkane eluting |
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#### I. Introduction

It is a fact, that there is a symbiotic relationship between human and plants. Over the ages, human have relied on nature for their basic needs, such as, production of food-stuffs, shelters, clothing, means of transportation, fertilizers, flavours and fragrances, and not the least, medicines. Plants have proven to be the basis of sophisticated traditional medicine systems, which exists for thousands of years (Fakim, 2011).

Human beings have been using plants as drugs for thousands of years. Nowadays, all the world's cultures have an extensively knowledge on medicinal herbs. Traditional medicine systems are based on empirical findings, beliefs and practices that existed long before the development of the so called "modern medicine" or "scientific drug therapy" (Abad et al., 2012).

As previously said, plants are essential sources of important compounds in which human beings rely for their basic needs. This work will be focused on their medical use. These important compounds lead to drug discovery and, consequently, to health improvement. Hence, during the last decades, chemists and biologists have been intensively investigating tropical and subtropical plants species with potential medicinal properties in order to assess the feasibility of developing natural, sustainable, and affordable drugs and cosmetics (Koba et al., 2009). The importance of ethnobotanical inquiries as cost-effective means of locating new and useful plant compound cannot be underestimated (Fakim, 2011). Plant biomass is considered an important reservoir of potential drugs. Nowadays, at least 80 per cent of the world's population still relies on traditional medicine for their health care.

Medicinal plants usually contains mixture of various and different chemical compounds that might act individually, additively or in synergy to improve health. For example, a single plant can contain compounds that may stimulate digestion together with anti-inflammatory compounds, reducing swelling and pain, phenolic compounds with antioxidant or venotonics proprieties and others with anti-bacterial and anti-fungal, etc. activities.

Natural products and their derivatives have traditionally been the most common source of drugs and represents more than 30% of the active ingredients of the registered pharmaceutical products. Roughly, 40% of the 1355 of the New Chemical Entities (NCEs) registered between 1981 and 2010, are natural occurring compounds, semi-synthetic derivatives or synthetic compounds inspired on natural product pharmacophores, (Newman

et al., 2012). Natural products are the major sources of innovative therapeutic agents for infectious diseases (bacterial, parasitic and fungal), cancer, lipid disorder and immunomodulation. Many of them have a certain complexity that may affect the scope of making chemical modifications to enhance their therapeutic properties, and this can cause the increase of the cost (Basso et al., 2005).

The development of a new drug is a complex, expensive and time-consuming process, requiring about 12 years to produce practical results. The earliest phase of the discovery of a new drug involves the identification of active compounds holding the required characteristic (of drugability) to lead New Chemical Entities (NCEs) for drug development (Katiyar et al., 2012).

The search of such valuable compounds in plants (screening of plant extracts for activities), is one of the tools considered in that earliest phase (Early Drug Discovery). Rational methodologies, alternatively to the casuistic evaluation of a certain plant, can be adopted to maximize the success of the screening programs for active compounds (hits, leads and NCEs). In fact the selection of plants (plant extracts) to be included in the screening, considering their phylogeny, biochemical features and relationships, geographic distribution and ethnopharmacological data, etc., impacts positively in the success of the research efforts.

Aromatic plants are frequently used in traditional medicine, as well as their characteristic isolates, the essential oils, mixtures of volatile compounds prepared by steam distillation. They are known since antiquity and associated to many biological properties and medicinal applications (Ortet et al., 2011).

Aromatic plants produce a high diversity of secondary volatile metabolites with prominent functions: protecting them against harmful organisms, predators, microbial pathogens, abiotic stress, heat, dehydration, etc..., and accomplishing important functions in the interaction with other plants and organisms (Oraby et al., 2013), thus metabolites able to interact with biological targets.

In this context we undertook a study on native and endemic species from Cape Verde used in the traditional medicine, with a special focus on the aromatic species and on the chemical characterization of their volatile metabolites. It was our intention to provide useful information on the natural resources of Cape Verde in what concerns to their use for medicinal purposes, as well as, on the value of the aromatic species as sources of compounds valuable for research, including drug development, and industrial purposes.

# 2. Cape Verde's Traditional Medicine systems - Use of medicinal plants

The United Nation Conference on Environment and Development (Earth Summit), held in Rio de Janeiro in June, 1992 can be considered a milestone in the whole world, impacting on consciousness about the tendency of environment degradation, leading to a big change in man attitude towards the environment.

Cape Verde was one of the many countries committed to preserve the biological diversity and joined the Biological Diversity Convention in 1995, thus agreed to make use of their sustainable components and share the benefits of the use of genetic resources and their access.

Like other countries, Cape Verde joined the environment concerns to their development plans in order to make some substantial changes. Since independence in 1975, several efforts have been made towards greater understanding, awareness and protection of the environment. For this purpose, Cape Verde has relied on several international cooperation programs for assisting the design and execution of the important instruments for environmental management (IV Relatório sobre o estado da biodiversidade em Cabo Verde, 2009).

Cape Verde climate is characterized by great disparities concerning the precipitation, with long periods of scarcity, which affects the type, the exuberance, and the diversity of the local flora. Despite of the subtropical dry climate of this archipelago, which does not allow the development of abundant vegetation, Cape Verde flora comprises about 740 species, consisting in more than one hundred families. 42% of those species are allochthonous, 13% are endemic, and 30% are from unknown origin. Most of the archipelago's flora is presently composed of exotic naturalized species. The use of local flora in folk medicine is common in Cape Verde, and 101 exotic plants and twenty percent of this exotic species are reported as medicinal in this archipelago. As a consequence of the hot and dry climatic conditions most of plant species are to annual or biannual (Romeiras et al., 2011).

In what concern to the health systems, Cape Verde joins two different realities. Urban population, benefits from the availability and access of conventional modern health assistance and medicines. However, these conveniences are not easily accessible to rural population that preserves and depends of traditional therapeutic practices, as well as, of the knowledge of the preparation of natural remedies (*ramedi terra*) from local resources.

The few number plant species that grows in the archipelago play, thus, an important role for the health care of locals, attending their medicinal allegations.

Some of these species are aromatic, thus bearing volatile metabolites and allowing to isolate essential oils. Due to their intense scent they are easily recognized and remembered and, probably for those reasons, are the preferred and the most known species.

Artemisia gorgonum (Asteraceae), Satureja forbesii (Lamiaceae), and Tornabenea annua and Tornabenea insularis (Apiaceae), are endemic aromatic plants. Together with the allochthonous species, Cymbopogon citrates (Poaceae), Hyptis pectinata (Lamiaceae), Tornabenea bischoffi and Tornabenea tenuissima (Apiaceae) they represent the aromatic biodiversity of Cape Verde archipelago.

**Table I-** Most important medicinal plants used in the traditional medicine of Cape Verde. A = Santo Antão; B = Boa Vista; F = Fogo; L = Santa Luzia; M = Maio; N = São Nicolau; R = Brava; S = Sal; T = Santiago; V = São Vicente.

| Family            | Scientific name          | Common name                                       | Habit                | Used<br>Parts   | Therapeutic   | Distribution             |
|-------------------|--------------------------|---|----------------------|-----------------|---|--------------------------|
| Asteraceae        | Artemisia gorgonum       | Losna, lasna                                      | Shrub                | All plant       | Deworming and digestive   | A;T;F                    |
|                   | Campylanthus glaber      | Alecrim bravo,                                    | Shrub                | All plant       | Muscle aches  |                          |
| Boraginaceae      | Echium hipernopicum      | Lingua de vaca                                    | Shrub                | Seed oil        | Dietetic  | A;T                      |
| Boraginaceae      | Echium stenosiphon       | Lingua de vaca                                    | Shrub                |                 | Cough syrup   | A;V;L;N;B                |
| Boraginaceae      | Echium vulcanorum        | Lingua de vaca                                    | Shrub                | Seed oil        | Dietetic  | F                        |
| Asteraceae        | Conyza feae              | Losna-bravo                                       | Shrub                | Leaf            | Menstruation Treatment. Bath done with infusion   | A;V;N;T;F;R              |
|                   | Forsaeolia pocridifolia  |   |                      |                 |   |                          |
| Fabaceae          | Lotus purpureus          | Piorno  | Shrub                | Leaf            | Fever, back and chest pain. tea leaves  | A;V; N; B; T; F          |
| Lamiaceae         | Satureja forbesii        | Erva cidreira                                     | Shrub,<br>herbaceous | Plant           | Constipation and labor stimulation. tonic for stomach and intestinal disorders  | T;F;R;A;                 |
|                   | Paranychia illecebroides |   |                      |                 |   |                          |
| Asclepiadaceae    | Sarcostema daltonii      | alvatão, alcatrão,<br>ervatão, gestiva<br>sistiba | candent herb         | Plant           | Decayed teeth by subtracting the pain and fragmenting the tooth   | A;V;N;T;F;R              |
|                   | Periploca chevalieria    |   |                      |                 |   |                          |
|                   | Verboscum cystolithicum  |   |                      |                 |   |                          |
| Euphorbiaceae     | Euphobia tuckeyana       | Tortolho, tortilho tortoinho, lentisco            | Shrub                | Plant           | The milky caustic and sicative sap is dangerous for the eyes. Used against gonorrhea and syphilis.                                  | V; L; N; S.; B; T;<br>F; |
| Apiaceae          | Tornabenea insularis     | Aipo, funcho                                      | perennial herb       | Leaf and fruits |   |                          |
| Asparagaceae      | Asparagus squarrosus     | Espargo   | Shrub                | Shoo            | Diuretic A;V;L;N;S;B  |                          |
| Asteraceae        | Nidorella varia          | Tabua, tabuinh                                    |                      | Leaf            | External inflammations  | A;V;N;T;F;R              |
| Asteraceae        | Sonchus daltonii         | Coroa-de-rei                                      | Shrub                |                 | A;V;N;T;F   |                          |
| Brassiaceae       | Erysimum caboverdeanum   | Cravo-bravo                                       | Subshrub             | Plant           | Infusion for emmenagogue F  |                          |
| Campanulaceae     | Campanula jacobaea       | Contra bruxas-azul, dedal                         | Subshrub             | Plant           | A;V;N;T   |                          |
| Caryophyllaceae , | Paronychia illecebroides | Agrião-de-rocha                                   | Herb                 | Plant           | Syrup mixed with agrião de água, for bones lesions  | A;V                      |
| Dracaenaceae      | Dracaena draco L.        | Dragoeiro   | Arboreal<br>plant    | Sap             | Sap (blood Draco) and the resin has healing applications. Topic of scams and trauma. Analgesic and anti-inflammatory and anti-viral |                          |
| Gentianaceae      | Centaurium tenuifloru    | Fel-da-terra                                      | Herb                 | Aerial part     | rt Increases the secretion of gastric juice, used in dyspepsia and to increase appetite   |                          |
| Globulariaceae    | Lytanthus amygdalifolius | Mato-botão,<br>argueiro                           | Shrub                | Leaf            | Tooth aches   | A; N; T; F; R            |

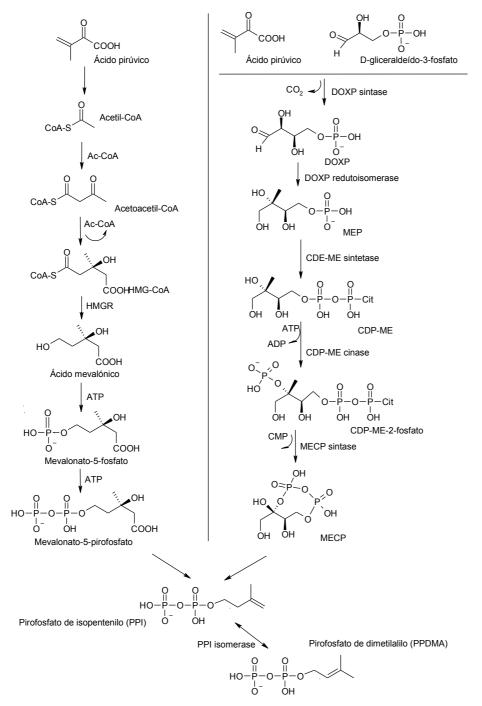
| Papaveraceae     | Papaver gorgoneum          | Papoila  | Perennial herb                 | Fruits and              | Antitussive   | N;F;A                       |
|------------------|----------------------------|--|--------------------------------|-------------------------|---|-----------------------------|
|                  |                            |  |                                | seeds                   |   |                             |
| Scrophulariaceae | Celsia cystolithica        | Erva-de-são-joão                                     | Herb                           | Plant                   | For colds, with tea egg yolk and a tablespoon of "grogue" | T;F                         |
| Scrophulariaceae | Celsia insularis           | sabão-de-lagartixa<br>sabugo,sabão-de-<br>feiticeira | Herb, and some shrub variation | Roots, fruits and leafs | Leaves and green fruit are used in liver diseases         | A; V; N; B; T               |
| Solanaceae       | Withania chevalieriA       | Malagueta-de-galinha,                                | Shrub                          | Roots and leafs         | Sedative, hypnotic, analgesic, laxative and diuretic      | A; V; N; B; F; R            |
| Urticaceae       | Forssakaolea procridifolia | Urtiga, língua-<br>de-vaca-branca                    | Shrub                          | Leafs                   | Tooth ache and Infusion against asthma.                   | A; V; L; N; S;<br>M;T; F; R |

#### 3. Aromatic plants, essential oils and health care

Therapeutic properties of medicinal plants are related to their secondary metabolites diversity that includes a huge number of compounds classified in numerous groups of natural organic compounds: phenolic acids, stylbenes flavonoids, tannins, coumarins, alkaloids, terpenoids, among others.

Aromatic plants characteristically biosynthesize and accumulate volatile compounds in specialized cells, in secretion ducts or cavities or in glandular trichomes. They are lipophilic and low molecular weight (<300 Da) compounds, the most of them monoterpenoids, sesquiterpenoids, phenylpropenoids or aliphatic compounds. Few volatile diterpenoids, as well as, some nitro and sulphur- containing compounds (Wink, 1999) can also be found in certain species.

Monoterpenoids and sesquiterpenoids (also diterpenoids) share the metabolic origin, resulting from the condensation of a 5 carbon precursors, the isopentenyl-pyrophosphate and the dimethylallyl-pyrophosphate, synthetized in the cytosol and in the plastids (Figure 2 and 3).



**Fig. 1 -** Synthesis of the isopentenyl pyrophosphate: acetate-mevalonate (in cytosol), and 2-methylerythritol-4-phosphate (MEP) (in plastids) pathways. (Adapted from Cavaleiro C, 2012)

Ac-CoA = Acetyl-CoA; HMG-CoA = 3-hdroxymethylglutaryl-coenzime-A; HMGR = 3-hidroxymethylglutaryl-coenzime-A-redutase; DOXP = Desoxixylose-5-phosphate; MEP = 2C-Methyl-D-erythritol-4-phosphate: CDP-ME = 4-diphosphocytidyl-2C-methyl-D-erythritol; MECP = Methyl-D-erythritol-2,4-diphosphate.

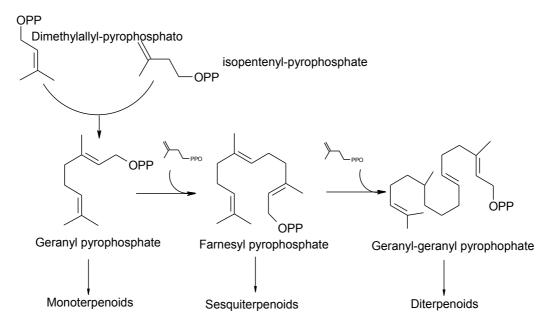


Fig.2- Biosynthesis of terpenoids from isopentenyl pyrophosphate. (Adapted from Cavaleiro C, 2012)

The diversity of terpenoids results from the carbon skeleton arrangements (linear, cyclic, polycyclic, etc.) and also from functionalization, (alcohols, aldehydes, ketones, acids, esters, oxides...).

Phenylpropenoids derived from the shikimic acid pathway (Figure 3). The diversity of volatile phenylpropenoids is lesser that those of terpenoids. However aromatic species from certain families, such as Apiaceae, are rich in volatile phenyl propenoids.

**Fig.3-** Biosynthesis of allyl- and propenilphenols. Shikimate pathway. (PAL) = phenylalanine ammonialyase. (Adapted from Cavaleiro C, 2012)

Essential oils are the typical isolates from aromatic plants, products obtained by steam or water distillation of plant parts (leaves, stems, bark, seeds, fruits, roots and plant exudates). Thus, an essential oil may contain up to several hundred chemical compounds, the mixture or each one of its constituents with potential usefulness for industrial purposes (Junior et al., 2012).

Because of their multipurpose applications, the production and consumption of essential oils, is continuously increasing. They are used in perfumery, the food industry, households, condiments, making sweets, beverages as well as pharmaceutical and aroma therapeutic products. Nowadays, according to market data, essential oils are produced on a large scale and commercialized from 400 species from 67 families. The most important families from this point of view are Asteraceae, Lamiaceae and Apiaceae (Bernáth, 2000).

In other perspective an essential oil, as a complex mixture, can be considered as collection of organic compounds, available to investigate for their potential biological activities. Essential oils are long-term used, safely, by humans (for different purposes including ethnomedicine) allowing to infer that their constituents are likely to be safer than those derived from plant species with no history of human use. So essential oils can also be perceived for their value in the context of drug discovery, offering a huge diversity of organic compounds that can be screened for potential biological activities.

#### 4. Objectives

It was our purpose to study the native and endemic aromatic plant species from Cape Verde used in the traditional medicine, with a special focus on the characterization of their volatile metabolites. It was our intention to provide useful information on the natural resources of Cape Verde, in particular in what concerns to their use in the traditional medicine.

To define the object of study we have considered the two above criteria:

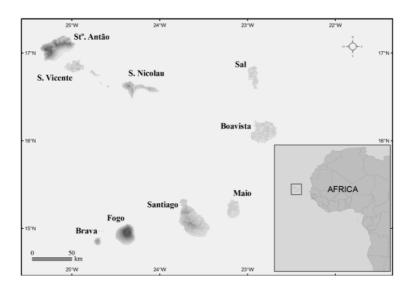
**A-** The geographic and ethnopharmacological criterion restrained the object of our study to plant species used in the traditional medicine of Cape Verde;

The Cape Verde islands are located in the mid-Atlantic ocean, about 454 km from the West African coast. It consists on a set of 10 islands and 5 islets, which occupy an area of 4033 km<sup>2</sup>. They are divided in two major groups, Barlavento islands formed by Santo Antão, São Vicente, Santa Luzia, São Nicolau, Sal and Boa Vista, and the Sotavento islands consisting in Santiago, Maio, Fogo and Brava.

The islands are volcanic with mountainous areas and valleys covered with vegetation. Climate is tropical dry, mild, characterized by a mean annual temperature of 25°C, low temperature ranges and relative humidity between 20 and 60%. The climate is strongly influenced by the following atmospheric currents: *tradewinds from NE*, which are responsible for the fresh and dry season between November and July; winds from the SW, *monsoon* from the South Atlantic, which depends on the Inter Tropical Convergence Zone, that affects the region between August and October, therefore the season is considered "wet"; *harmatão*, the hot, dry wind that blows in January and February. The landscape varies from dry plains to highest active volcanoes with cliffs rising steeply from the ocean (Gomes *et al.*, 2008).

The vegetation and reliefs are directly affected by the climate factors, thus the trade winds, by causing orographic precipitation in the higher areas are responsible for the characteristic vegetation of Santo Antao, São Vicente, Santa Luzia, São Nicolau, Santiago, Fogo and Brava. Sal, Boavista and Maio islands, are affected by the Harmatão, giving them their dry characteristics. The combination of climatic factors and relief leads to climate zones, responsible for different frames landscaped and distribution of plant species and plant community types.

This confined territory, isolated from the African mainland, is the habitat of several native or endemic plant species used by locals for healing.



**Fig.4-** Geographic location of Cape Verde archipelago in the North Atlantic Ocean (Romeiras et al., 2011).

**B-** A more limited set of plant species was defined, considering a biochemical criteria to select those that are able to biosynthesize and accumulate low molecular weight and lipophilic compounds that meet physical and chemical characteristics compatible with good pharmacokinetic features (drug-ability parameters). Coincidently, that compounds are the volatile metabolites responsible for the characteristic aroma of that plants (aromatic plants) (Bernáth, 2000).

#### 5. Methods

#### 5.1. Aromatic plants from Cape Verde

The knowledge on the aromatic plants from Cape Verde is scarce. Only four papers are indexed at ISI Web of Knowledge (accessed 18/6) dealing with aromatic plants from Cape Verde and their essential oils.

These papers report on the essential ois of *Tornabenea bischoffii*, *Tornabenea annua*, *T. insularis*, *T. tenuissima*, *Artemisia gorgonum* and *Satureja forbesii*.

We abridge below the available compositional data of the essential oils of *Tornabenea* species. Data on the essential oils of *Artemisia gorgonum* and *Satureja forbesii* will be discussed later, together with our results.

Grosso et al. (2009), studied the composition of the oils from *Tornabenea annua*, *T. insularis and T. tenuissima*. Myristicin was found to be the major component of *T. annua* oil, representing 95-98% of the whole composition of this oil; similarly, the oil of *T. tenuissima* is mainly composed of elemicin attaining 90.0%; the oil of *T. insularis* is mainly composed of myristicine (47.3-87.1%); elemicine is an important constituent of the oils from plants growing at S. Antão island (5.1%), as well as, from plants propagated in the Botanic Garden of Lisbon (11.8%) from seeds from plants of Santiago island. Surprisingly, in the oils from plants growing in Santiago island elemicine was not detected. This variability can due to the climatic and edaphic conditions, influencing the metabolic pathways of the plant and its volatile metabolites.

Ortet et al. (2011) studied the composition of *Tornabenea bischoffii* through gaschromatography and gas-chromatography / mass spectroscopy, and identified sixty volatile compounds of which myristicin was the major one (33,6 %). The aim of that study was the evaluation of the antioxidant activity, which was confirmed by *in vitro* essays.

None of these papers mentions any biological activity, nor relationships among compositions and the use of the plants in the traditional medicine of Cape Verde.

#### 5.2. Plant material

#### 5.2.1. Artemisia gorgonum Webb

Family: Asteraceae

**Genus:** Artemisia

**Species:** Artemisia gorgonum

Common name: Losna, lasna or lorna



Fig.5 - Artemisia gorgonum webb.

Artemisia sp. is a large and widespread genus, including some 390 species distributed in the Old and New world, predominantly in Northern Hemisphere. The small capitula are usually arranged in many capitula, and achenes lack pappus. The genus is represented by a single, endemic species in Cape Verde Islands (Brochman et al., 1997).

#### **Description**

Strongly branched, erect, aromatic shrub up to 2m high. Branches robust, whitish tomentose when young, glabrescent and brownish with age. Leaves bi- to tri-

pinnatisected, up to 8 cm long and 6 cm wide, whitish tomentose, with narrowly elliptixal to almost linear lobes. Involucre bracts more or less imbricate, broadly ovate; inner bracts brownish, scarious, herbaceous only along the midrib. Flowers yellowish, tubular, outer flowers female; central flowers hermaphrodite. Achens obovoid, without pappus.

#### **Variation**

No essential variation from each island.

#### **Chromossome number**

2n=18 - Sto Antão, Lombos da Pedras, 1300 m (Borgen, 1975).

#### Related taxa

Closely related to Canarias's species Artemisia thuscula cav. Differs in flowers and involucres characters.

#### Distribution and ecology

A. gorgonum is a westhern mesophyte recorded from mountain áreas in Sto. Antão, Santiago and Fogo. The localities are evenly distributed among the semiarid, and humid zone, mainly between 800 m and 2000 m. The lowermost record is about 400m (Sto. Antão), and the uppermost ones at 2200-2400 m on Pico Novo and the old crater rim on Fogo. The most species grows mainly in gravelly mountain slopes and plains. It is a characteristic component of the scrub vegetation in these áreas, which today are largely destroyed except from some rather poor fragments (Brochman et al., 1997).

#### **Abundance in Cape Verde**

Although many of the records of the species are dated after 1970, many populations are clearly diminishing, and some populations are probably already extinct

because of the habitat destruction and cutting. The species is vulnerable (VU) on Sto Antão and Fogo. It has only been recorded twice in Santiago, first by Chevalier in 1934 in the Serra do Pico da Antonia Mountains, and it was not rediscovered on this well-explored island. The rediscovered population consists only of 10-15 plants, some of them very old, and occurs on cultivated slopes near Rui Vaz in the Serra do Pico da Antonia mountains. A. gorgonum is considered Critically Endangered (CR) on Santiago, and it is generally considered to be Vunerable (VU) (Brochman et al., 1997).

#### 5.2.2. Satureja forbesii Benth

Family: Lamiaceae

**Genus:** Satureja

**Species:** Satureja forbesii

Common name: Erva-cidreira



Fig.6- Satureja forbesii Benth.

This genus comprise about 100, mostly subshrubby species distributed from the mid-Atlantic archipelagos and the Mediterranean, which constitutes one center of diversity, to the Himalayas and SW China and North America. *Satureja* is represented by a single, endemic species in the Cape Verde islands.

#### Description

Strongly branched, ascending dwarf shrub up to 0,3 m high; usually strongly aromatic, occasionally odourless. Leaves ovate to elliptical, up to 1,2 cm long and 0,8 wide, more or less pubescente, sessile to shortly petiolate, apex acute, margin sometimes slightly revolute. Inflorescent axillary, with 3-6 small flowers. Calyx purplish, tubular, slightly zygomorphyc. Corolla pinkish to white, hairy. Mericarps dark brown, 0,8 mm long.

#### **Variation**

It is very polymorphic; Perez de Paz (1978) distinguished three varieties (var. forbesii, inodora and altitudinum) bases on odour, leaf petiolation and leaf density. The variation appears to be ecoclinal and too complex for delimitation of any infraspecific taxa.

#### **Chromossome number**

Unknown.

#### Related taxa

Closely related to the Canarian Satureja tenerifae. Differs in several leafs and floral characters (Brochman et al., 1997).

#### Distribution and ecology

It is a mesophyte occurring on Sto Antão, S.Nicolau, Santiago, Fogo and Brava but absent from S.Vicente. Occurs in semiarid, sub humid zone mainly between 800 m and 1600 m. Being the lower most record about 500 m on Santiago, and the uppermost at 2830 m at the top of volcanic cone of Fogo (Gilli 1976). The plants grow in cliffs and mountain gravelly plains and slopes.

#### **Abundance in Cape Verde**

It is still common but probably declining on Sto Antão and Fogo, where it comprises some large population. It is vulnerable (VU) on Santiago and endangered

(EN) on S. Nicolau, where it is confined to the Monte Gordo area, and it is Indeterminate (I) on Brava. But it is generally considered indeterminate (I) in Cape Verde.

#### 5.2.3. Hyptis pectinata L. Poit

Family: Lamiaceae

Genus: Hyptis

**Species:** Hyptis pectinata

Common name: Rosmaninho



**Fig.7** - Hyptis pectinata L. Poit.

#### **Description**

Slender erect herbaceous subshrub with 4-angled puberulent stems; foliage aromatic if rubbed and crushed; the leaves are ovate or ovate-elliptic, cuneate to rounded (even subcordate) at base, acute or blunt at tip, puberulent or glabrescent dorsally, crenate-serrate, 2-9 cm long, 1-6 cm wide; flowers subsessile, white to pale violet, in cymules axillary to reduced leaves, subtended by linear pubescent bracts 1-3 mm long; calyx about 2 mm, enlarging in fruit to 4 mm; corolla 2.5 mm, lower lip

darker; filaments somewhat pubescent; nutlets oblong, I mm long, black. Robust plants may reach up to 4 m tall.

#### **Distribuition and ecology**

Hyptis pectinata is a weedy plant native to tropical America, commonly distributed from Mexico, South Florida to Venezuela and also naturalized to Hawaii.

#### **Abundance in Cape Verde**

In Cape Verde it's a rather vulgar species, occurring in Santo Antão, São Nicolau, Santiago, Fogo and Brava (Monteiro and Benton, 2012).

#### 5.2.4. Cymbopogon citratus Stapf

Family: Poaceae

Genus: Cymbopogon

**Species:** Cymbopogon citratus

Common name: Xa-li





Fig.8 - Cymbopogon citratus Stapf.

#### Description

It is a tall, aromatic, perennial grass with culms (stems) up to 2 m tall. The leaves are linear, up to 1 m long and 2 cm wide, tapering towards the sheath. They are smooth and hairless, white on the upper surface and green beneath. The ligules (appendage between the leaf sheaf and blade) are less than 2 mm long, and are rounded or truncate (ending abruptly as if cut off).

As for the flowers, the inflorescence is a loose, nodding panicle, about 60 cm long and reddish to russet in colour. The pedicels are tinged with purple.

#### **Distribution and Ecology**

Cymbopogon citratus is native to Indonesia, and introduced and cultivated in most of the tropics, including Africa, South America and Indo-China.

Africa: north, Macaronesia, west tropical, west-central tropical, east tropical, southern tropical, middle Atlantic ocean, and western Indian ocean. Asia-temperate: China and eastern Asia. Asia-tropical: India, Indo-China, Malaysia and Papuasia. Australasia: Australia. Pacific: southwestern, south-central, northwestern, and north-central. North America: Mexico. South America: Caribbean, northern South America, western South America, Brazil, and southern South America.

### 5.3. Analysis of the chemical composition of volatile oils

After inquiries to the population regarding the use of aromatic plant species for medicinal purposes we undertook a botanic prospection of Artemisia gorgonum, Satureja forbesii, Hytis pectinata and Cymbopogon citratus viewing the collection of samples of plant material.

#### Plant material collection

**Table II-** Data about the sampling of the native and endemic species from Cape Verde.

| Species             | Harvested Part | Local                | Data                          |
|---------------------|----------------|----------------------|-------------------------------|
| Artemisia gorgonum  | Aerial         | Longueira (Santiago) | February 5 <sup>th</sup> 2013 |
| Satureja forbesii   | Aerial         | Rui Vaz ((Santiago)  | February 5 <sup>th</sup> 2013 |
| Hyptis pectinata    | Aerial         | Rui Vaz((Santiago)   | February 5 <sup>th</sup> 2013 |
| Cymbopogon citratus | Aerial         | Orgãos (Santiago)    | February 5th 2013             |

The vouchers samples were pressed, dried and assembled with on paper and then deposited at the herbarium of the Faculdade Farmácia de Universidade de Coimbra (FFUC).

#### 5.3.1. Isolation of the volatile components

In order to isolate selectively the volatile metabolites we proceed to the preparation of essential oils by water distillation, during three hours, using a Clevenger-type apparatus, following the procedure described in the European Pharmacopoeia (1999) (Figure 9).

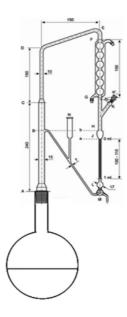


Fig.9- Clevenger circulatory distillation apparatus, as reported in the European Pharmacopoeia.

Essential oils were kept in the dark at  $4^{\circ}$ C until prior use. For analysis, essential oils solutions were prepared by dilution (1:8) in n-pentane.

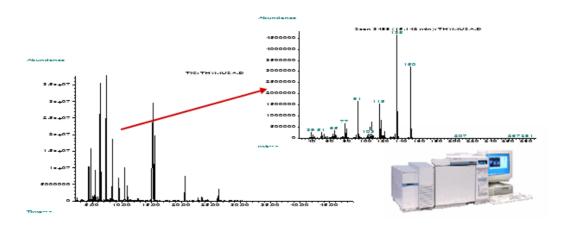
#### 5.4. Analysis of the composition of the volatile oils

The analysis of an essential oil involves identification and quantitative determination of its components. Volatility of the essential oils's components makes the gas chromatography an appropriate technical base for such purpose (Rubiolo *et al.*, 2010).

The analysis was achieved by combination of gas-chromatography retention data for columns with different stationary phases, and mass spectra acquired by gas-chromatography tandem mass spectroscopy (GC/MS).

Analytical GC was carried out in a Hewlett-Packard 6890 (Agilent Technologies, Palo Alto, CA, USA) chromatograph with a HP GC ChemStation Rev. A.05.04 data handling system, equipped with a single injector and two flame ionization detectors (FID). A graphpak divider (Agilent Technologies, part no. 5021-7148) was used for simultaneous sampling to two Supelco (Supelco, Bellefonte, PA, USA) fused silica capillary columns with different stationary phases: SPB-1 (polydimethylsiloxane 30m×0.20mm i.d., film thickness 0.20m), and SupelcoWax-10 (polyethyleneglycol 30m×0.20mmi.d., film thickness 0.20m). Oven temperature program: 70–220 °C (3°Cmin–1), 220 °C (15 min); injector temperature: 250 °C; carrier gas: helium, adjusted to a linear velocity of 30cms–1; splitting ratio 1:40; detectors temperature: 250 °C.

GC–MS was carried out in a Hewlett-Packard 6890 gas chromatograph fitted with a HPI fused silica column (polydimethylsiloxane) 30m×0.25mm i.d., film thickness 0.25m), interfaced with an Hewlett-Packard mass selective detector 5973 (Agilent Technologies) operated by HP Enhanced ChemStation software, version A.03.00. GC parameters as described above; interface temperature: 250 °C; MS source temperature: 230 °C; MS quadrupole temperature: 150 °C; ionization energy: 70 e V; ionization current: 60 A; scan range: 35–350 units; scans s–1: 4.51 (Fig.6).



**Fig. 10-** MS detectors coupled to CG, enables not only obtaining the elution profile of the compounds in the sample (total ion current chromatogram), but also the acquisition of mass spectra of each one of the resolved compounds.

Components of the volatile oils were identified by: (i) their retention indices on both SPB-I and SupelcoWax-I0 columns, calculated by linear interpolation, according Van den Dool and Kratz (1963) relative to retention times of C8–C24 of n-alkanes (equation I) and compared with those of reference compounds included in CEF laboratory database or literature data (Adams RP, 2007; WebBook; Pherobase; Flavournet) (ii) their mass spectra by matching with reference spectra from the CEF laboratory own spectral database, Wiley/NIST database or literature data (McLafferty, 2009).

$$IR(a) = (n * 100) \frac{Tr(a) - Tr(n)}{Tr(n+1) - Tr(n)} \times 100$$

**Equation 1.** Linear interpolation according Van den Dool and Kratz: IR (a)- peak "a" retention indice, n – number of carbons of the n-alkane eluting before peak "a";  $Tr_{(a)}$  – Retention time of peak "a";  $Tr_{(n)}$  - Retention time of peak the n-alkane eluting before peak "a";  $Tr_{(n+1)}$  - Retention time of peak the n-alkane eluting after peak "a".

For quantification, relative amounts of individual components were calculated based on GC raw data without further correction.

#### 6. Results and Discussion

#### 6.1. Etnhopharmacological data on Artemisia gorgonum

This endemic species, known among folks as "losna" or "lorna" is used by locals for treatment of many ailments. Prepared as infusion, is useful for fever, headache, dewormer, flu and digestive desorders. For constipation and digestive colic leaves are prepared as an infusion and added with salt. A. gorgonum is also used, prepared as a decoction to promote abortion. There is no data in literature to support these assumptions.

#### 6.2. Artemisia gorgonum essential oil

Distillation of A. gorgonum produced a yellowish essential oil, yield 0.4% (v/m), calculated considering plant material fresh weight. During the distillation color of the distillate changed from light yellow to yellow-brown and reddish yellow. Thirty-nine components were identified, accounting for 94,6% of the whole composition of the essential oil (table III). The oil is mainly composed of oxygen containing monoterpenes (76.4%) and monoterpenes hydrocarbons (14.4%). Sesquiterpenes hydrocarbons (3.1%) and oxygen containing sequiterpenes (0.7%) were also detected. The major components were chrysanthenone (44.2%), camphor (13.7%),  $\alpha$ -phellandrene (6.3%), iso-chrysanthenone (3.1%), bornyl acetate (3.0%), camphene (2.9%), geranyl propanoate (2.0%) and neryl isovalerate (2.0%) (Fig.11).

**Table III-** Composition of the essential oil of Artemisia gorgonum.

| RI a | RI               | RI P | Compounds                          | %   |
|------|------------------|------|------------------------------------|-----|
| 021  | a <sub>Lit</sub> | 1000 | Tatanalan                          |     |
| 921  | 92 I             | 1020 | Tricyclene                         | t   |
| 923  | 923              | 1029 | $\alpha$ -Thujene                  | 0.4 |
| 930  | 930              | 1029 | α-Pinene                           | 3.0 |
| 943  | 942              | 1075 | Camphene                           | 2.9 |
| 959  | 965              | 1338 | 6-methyl-5-hepten-2-one            | t   |
| 965  | 964              | 1125 | Sabinene                           | 0.7 |
| 970  | 970              | 1118 | β-Pinene                           | 0.2 |
| 981  | 980              | 1161 | Myrcene                            | 0.6 |
| 987  | 988              | n.d. | Isobuthylisovalerate               | t   |
| 998  | 997              | 1168 | $\alpha$ -Phellandrene             | 6.3 |
| 1012 | 1012             | 1273 | p-Cymene                           | 1.5 |
| 1012 | 1009             | 1185 | lpha-Terpinene                     | 0.2 |
| 1020 | 1020             | 1204 | Limonene                           | 0.6 |
| 1020 | 1020             | 1213 | β-Phellandrene                     | 0.2 |
| 1037 | 1035             | 1250 | $E$ - $\beta$ -Ocimene             | t   |
| 1046 | 1047             | 1249 | γ-Terpinene                        | t   |
| 1080 | 1082             | 1437 | Filifolone                         | 3.  |
| 1083 | 1088             | 1483 | iso-Chrysanthenone                 | 3.  |
| 1100 | 1100             | 1506 | Chrysanthenone                     | 44. |
| 1117 | 1118             | 1514 | Camphor                            | 13. |
| 1144 | 1146             | 1695 | Borneol                            | t   |
| 1147 | 1146             | 1673 | Lavandulol                         | 0.1 |
| 1160 | 1159             | 1594 | Terpinene-4-ol                     | 0.1 |
| 1242 | 1244             | 1563 | cis-Chrysantenyl acetate           | 1.4 |
| 1265 | 1266             | 1573 | Bornyl acetate                     | 3.0 |
| 1273 | 1274             | 1599 | Lavandulyl acetate                 | 9.0 |
| 1362 | 1359             | 1751 | Geranyl acetate                    | 0.2 |
| 1369 | 1025             | 2000 | 3,7-Dimethyl-keto-1,3,6-octatriene | 1.9 |
| 1381 | 1382             | 1585 | β-Elemene                          | 0.2 |
| 1406 | 1208<br>1444     | 1590 | E-Caryophyllene                    | 0.4 |
| 1445 |                  | 1658 | E-β-Farnesene                      | 0.2 |
| 1466 | 1464             | 1763 | ar-Curcumene                       | 0.4 |
| 1466 | 1.470            | 1681 | γ-Curcumene                        | 1.4 |
| 1470 | 1470             | 1709 | β-Selinene                         | 0.4 |
| 1493 | 1485             | 1763 | Geranyl propanoate                 | 2.0 |
| 1563 | 1565             | n.d. | Neryl isovalerate                  | 2.0 |
| 1586 | 1590             | n.d. | Geranyl isovalerate                | 0.4 |
| 1661 |                  | 2206 | $\alpha$ -Bisabolol                | 0.7 |
| 1694 |                  | n.d. | Chamazulene                        | 0.1 |
|      |                  |      | Monoterpene hydrocarbons           | 14. |
|      |                  |      | Oxygen containing monoterpenes     | 76. |
|      |                  |      | Sesquiterpene hydrocarbons         | 3.1 |
|      |                  |      | Oxygen containing sesquiterpenes   | 0.7 |
|      |                  |      | Total identified                   | 94. |

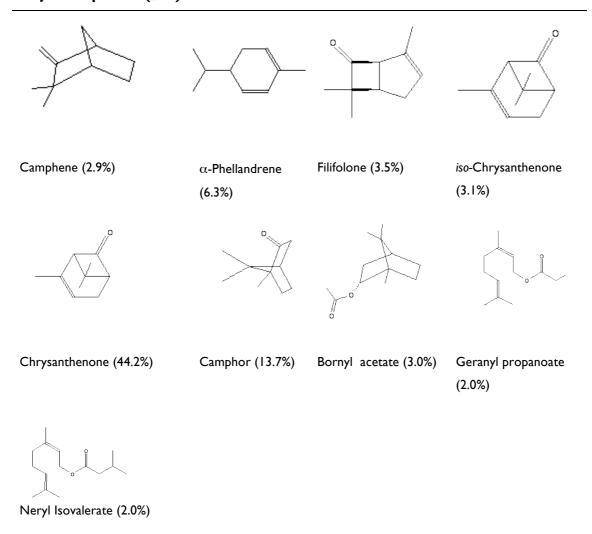
RI <sup>a</sup> - Retention indices from the SPB-I column

RI  $^{a}_{\ \ Lit}$  - Reference retention indices from literature RI  $^{p}$  - Retention indices from the SupelcoWax 10 column

t - traces (<0.05%)

n.d. – not determined

## Major compounds (≥2%)



**Fig.11-** Chemical structures of the major compounds (≥ 2%) of *Artimisia gorgonum* essential oil.

Only four papers indexed at ISI Web of Knowledge (accessed 01/08) deal with Artemisia gorgonum and only one of them (Ortet et al., 2010) describes the volatile compounds of the species.

Although some differences in the preparation of the plant samples for distillation - Ortet et al.. (2010) considered steam distillation of air-dried aerial parts, we adopted the hydrodistillation of fresh material – the essential oil yields were similar.

However, Ortet et al.. (2010) reported a composition noteworthy different from that we achieved. These authors mention camphor (28.7%), chrysanthenone (10.8%), lavandulyl 2-methylbutanoate (9.5%),  $\alpha$ -phellandrene (5.5%), lavandulyl propanoate (4.2%), camphene

(4.0%), and p-cymene (3.4%) as major constituents. In our sample, the relative amount of chrysanthenone is 44.2% and camphor only attains 13.7%. Additionally, iso-chrysanthenone was not detected by Ortet et al. while it is one of the major components in our sample (3.1%),

Artemisia genus has been a subject of various studies. Many species of Artemisia have shown to have medicinal properties, including antimalarial, antiviral, antitumor, spasmolytic, and others.

One of the four papers reports A. gorgonum as a subject of a phytochemical study, which revealed the presence of 13 sesquiterpene lactones that exhibited antiplasmodial activities. Many species of the genus Artemisia have proved to be rich in substances with several medicinal uses, including antimalarial, antiviral, antitumor, spasmolytic, and others. Among them, artemisinin is undoubtedly a lead compound as a potent antimalarial agent (Ortet et al., 2010). As said, the composition is very similar to our samples, even the percentage.

# 6.2.1. Identification of 3,7-dimethyl-keto-1,3,6-octadiene

Spectrum 1371 (and others immediately next) acquired over the a peak at 19.66 minutes of the total ion chromatogram (TIC), suggests an oxygenated monoterpene (MW=150 Da), probably with a carbonyl function. The query of the Wiley275 MS database pointing to safranal. The relative amount calculated from the TIC peak area was quantified with 21%. However, in the chromatogram produced in the SPB-1 column with a FID, the peak registered at the retention index 1369 has an area that corresponds to a relative amount of 1.95%. In addition in the chromatogram produced in the SupelcoWax column no peak was compatible with the retention of safranal. Considering this facts we hypothesize on the existence of thermal artifacts. According to Asfaw et al.. (2001) chrysanthenone can suffer thermal degradation producing filifolone, isochrysantenone and geranic acid. The process of involves rearrangements through an intermediary compound, a 150 Da ketone, 3,7-dimethyl-keto-1,3,6-octadiene. Its structure is consistent with that can be inferred from the mass spectrum acquired on the peak at retention index 1371.

Although the absence of reference retention indices to confirm the we are convicted of the robustness of the identification considering that is a known product from the thermal degradation of chrysanthenone. The polar retention index (SupelcoWax 10 column) was found at value 2000. Mass spectra was used to recognize the peak.

The difference among the areas of the peaks in the GC/MS and GC-FID produced chromatograms can be explained by the difference in experimental conditions, particularly the temperature of detection devices.

Proved the occurrence of this thermal artifact from degradation of chrysanthenone it was expected that other products could appear in the analysis. According Asfaw *et al.*. (2001), *iso*-chrysanthenone and filifolone can result also from chrysanthenone thermal rearrangement.

So, we looked for the presence of *iso*-chrysanthenone. According literature (El-Sayed, 2012) retention indices (polydimethylsiloxane and PEG) of *iso*-chrysanthenone are, respectively 1088 and 1434. In fact, mass spectra acquired on a peak revealed at retention 1083 lead to different identification proposals, depending on their position on time scans: filifolone is proposed by the later MS scans on the peak; the earliest MS scans on the peak proposed chrysanthenone, however with a poor matching quality. Facing this we hypothesized on the co-elution of filifolone and *iso*-chrysanthenone at retention index 1083. The hypothesis was confirmed by the apolar and polar reference retention indices (El-Sayed, 2012; Cozzani *el al.*, 2005).

## 6.3. Etnhopharmacological data on Satureja forbesii

To date, informations on *Satureja forbesii* properties are purely empirical. From our inquiries this endemic medicinal plant, known as "erva-cidreira" or "cidreirinha", is used in folk medicine to prepare an infusion for the treatment of insomnia. A blended drink is also used to treat couth, indigestion, diarrhea using the infusion of *Satureja forbesii* mixed with wine, sulfur and rhubarb.

## 6.4. Satureja forbesii essential oil

Distillation produced a golden yellowish essential oil, yield 0.03% (v/m) calculated considering plant material fresh weight.

Twenty-two volatile compounds were identified, accounting for 98.7% of essential oil. The oil was largely composed of sesquiterpenes hydrocarbons (65.2%), followed by of oxygen containing monoterpenes (25.0%), oxygen containing sequiterpenes (4.8%) and compounds from other classes (3.7%). Monoterpene hydrocarbons were not identified (table

IV). The major compounds were *E*-caryophyllene (32.2%), germacrene D (18.8%), geranial (14.1%), neral (10.6%),  $\alpha$ -humulene (6.8%), caryophyllene oxide (3.2%),  $\beta$ -bourbonene (2.3%), geranyl acetate (2.1%) and *E*- $\alpha$ -bergamotene (2.0%) (Fig.12).

**Table IV-** Composition of Satureja forbesii essential oil.

| RI a | RI <sup>a</sup> Lit | RI P  | Compound                         | %    |
|------|---------------------|-------|----------------------------------|------|
| 968  | 965                 | 1338  | 6-Methyl-5-hepten-2-one          | 0.3  |
| 968  | 962                 | n.d   | 3-Octanone                       | 0.2  |
| 1801 | 1082                | 1539  | Linalool                         | 0.3  |
| 1215 | 1214                | 1676  | Neral                            | 10.6 |
| 1244 | 1249                | 1727  | Geranial                         | 14.1 |
| 1362 | 1359                | n.d   | Geranyl-acetate                  | 2.1  |
| 1375 | 1376                | 1513  | $\beta$ - Bourbunene             | 2.3  |
| 1382 | 1382                | 1583  | $\beta$ -Elemene                 | 8.0  |
| 1407 | 1208                | 1590  | E-caryophyllene                  | 32.2 |
| 1417 | 1418                | n.d   | β-Gurjunene (Calarene)           | 0.6  |
| 1426 | 1426                | 1577  | $E-\alpha$ -Bergamotene          | 2.0  |
| 1430 | 1428                | n.d   | Aromadendrene                    | 0.4  |
| 1439 | 1442                | 1661  | lpha-Humulene                    | 6.8  |
| 1465 | 1466                | 1700  | Germacrene D                     | 18.5 |
| 1495 | 1493                | 1749  | E,E- $\alpha$ -Farnesene         | 1.1  |
| 1507 | 1498                | 1749  | $\delta$ -Cadinene               | 0.4  |
| 1558 | 1558                | 1974  | Caryoplyllene oxide              | 3.2  |
| 1584 | 1582                | 203 I | Humulene epoxide                 | 0.7  |
| 1632 | 1628                | 2222  | lpha-Cadinol                     | 0.9  |
| 1645 | 1161                | 2365  | Caryophylla-2(12),6-5-beta-ol    | 0.1  |
| 1833 | 1828                | n.d   | Hexahydrofarnesyl acetone        | 0.1  |
| 2082 |                     | n.d   | 8-β-Hidroxysandaracopimaradiene  | 1.0  |
|      |                     |       | Monoterpene hydrocarbons         | -    |
|      |                     |       | Oxygen containing monoterpenes   | 25.0 |
|      |                     |       | Sesquiterpene hydrocarbons       | 65.2 |
|      |                     |       | Oxygen containing sesquiterpenes | 4.8  |
|      |                     |       | Others                           | 3.7  |
|      |                     |       | Total identified                 | 98.7 |

RI <sup>a</sup> - Retention indices from the SPB-I column

RI  $^{\text{a}}_{\text{ Lit}}$  - Reference retention indices from literature

RI P - Retention indices from the SupelcoWax 10 column

t - traces (<0.05%)

n.d. - not determined

## Major compounds (≥2%)

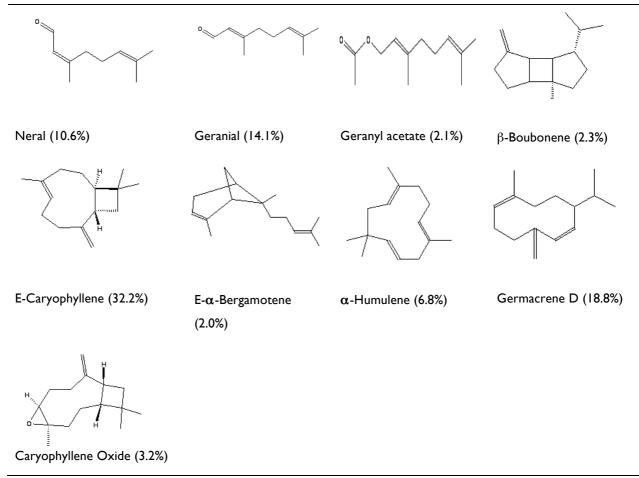


Fig. 12 - Major constituents of S. forbesii essential oil and their structure.

There is only a single paper (Ortet et al., 2010) indexed at ISI Web of Knowledge (accessed 01/08) dealing Satureja forbesii.

Ortet et al., 2010 identified a total of 39 volatile compounds, representing 90% of the total composition. Geranial (42.0%) and neral (31.2%) are the major constituents. This composition is rather different from that we determined, since geranial and neral are in lower concentrations in our sample (14.1% and 10.6% respectively). It is worthy to note that in the composition of our sample, sesquiterpenic compounds are dominant. This can be due to differences in sample preparation, not excluding the possibility of resulting from differences in the metabolism of plants, regarding the phase of the vegetative cycle or external influencing factors.

## 6.5. Etnhopharmacological data on Hyptis pectinata

Hyptis pectinata leaves, prepared as infusion, are useful to mitigate synthoms associated to strokes (cerebrovascular accidents - CVA). Additionally is used to relieve nasal congestion rhinopharyngitis, gastric disorders and fever.

# 6.6. Hyptis pectinata essential oil

The distillation of *Hyptis pectinata* produced an opaque yellow essential oil, yield of 0.1% (v/m), calculated considering plant material fresh weigh. There were a total of fifty-two volatile compounds, accounting for 95.2% of essential oil identified (table V).

The essential oil was mainly composed by sesquiterpene hydrocarbons (50.7%), followed by monoterpene hydrocarbons (39.2%), oxygen-containing sequiterpenes (3.8%), oxygen containing monoterpenes (1.1%) and other compounds (0.3%). The major compounds were  $\beta$ -pinene (17.1%), E-caryophyllene (14.1%),  $\beta$ -elemene (11.5%), sabinene (10.7%), germacrene D (7.7%), biclyclogermacrene (6.3%),  $\gamma$ -terpinene (2.8%) and  $\alpha$ -pinene (2.3%) (Fig.13).

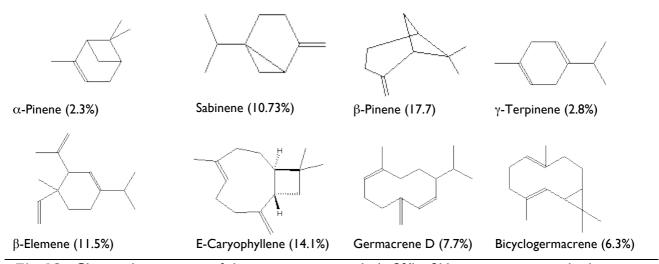
**Table V-** Composition of the essential oil of *Hyptis pectinata* .

| RI a | RI <sup>a</sup> <sub>Lit</sub> | RI P | Compounds              | %    |
|------|--------------------------------|------|------------------------|------|
| 924  | 923                            | 1031 | lpha-Thujene           | 0.6  |
| 931  | 930                            | 1031 | lpha - Pinene          | 2.3  |
| 944  | 942                            | 1076 | Camphene               | 0.1  |
| 965  | 964                            | 1127 | Sabinene               | 10.7 |
| 97 I | 970                            | 1117 | β-Pinene               | 17.7 |
| 982  | 980                            | 1160 | Myrcene                | 0.9  |
| 999  | 997                            | 1168 | lpha-Phellandrene      | 0.2  |
| 1012 | 1009                           | 1185 | lpha -Terpinene        | t    |
| 1013 | 1012                           | 1273 | <i>p</i> -Cymene       | 0.5  |
| 1020 | 1020                           | 1204 | Limonene               | 1.9  |
| 1026 | 1025                           | n.d. | $Z$ - $\beta$ -Ocimene | 0.1  |
| 1036 | 1035                           | 1246 | E-β-Ocimene            | 1.1  |
| 1047 | 1047                           | 1246 | γ-Terpinene            | 2.8  |
| 1051 | 1051                           | n.d. | Z-Sabinene hydrate     | t    |
| 1078 | 1077                           | n.d. | Terpinolene            | 0.1  |
| 1084 | 1082                           | 1436 | Filifolone             | 0.4  |
| 1100 | 1100                           | n.d. | Chrysanthenone         | 0.4  |
| 1118 | 1118                           | n.d. | Camphor                | 0.1  |
| 1122 | 1119                           | 1644 | E-Pinocarveol          | 0.1  |
| 1160 | 1159                           | 1598 | Terpinene-4-ol         | 0.1  |
| 1168 | 1165                           | 1621 | Myrtenal               | 0.1  |
| 1170 | 1169                           | n.d. | lpha-Terpineol         | t    |
| 1172 | 1176                           | 1783 | Myrtenol               | t    |
| 1242 | 1244                           | 1563 | Farnesyl acetone       | t    |
| 1266 | 1266                           | 1571 | Bornyl acetate         | 0.1  |
| 1330 | 1329                           | 1464 | $\delta$ -Elemene      | 1.6  |
| 1363 | 1364                           | 1485 | lpha-Ylangene          | t    |
| 1368 | 1368                           | 1485 | α-Copaene              | 1.2  |
| 1374 | 1376                           | n.d. | β-Bourbunene           | 1.6  |
| 1382 | 1382                           | 1585 | β-Elemene              | 11.5 |
| 1401 | 1405                           | 1565 | lpha-Cedrene           | 0.1  |
| 1408 | 1208                           | 1592 | E-Caryophyllene        | 14.1 |
| 1420 | 1428                           | 1848 | Geranyl acetone        | 0.3  |
| 1439 | 1442                           | 1659 | lpha-Humulene          | 1.2  |
| 1466 | 1466                           | 1699 | Germacrene D           | 7.7  |
| 1470 | 1470                           | n.d. | β-Selinene             | 0.5  |
| 1481 | 1482                           | 1724 | BicycloGermacrene      | 6.3  |
| 1485 | 1480                           | 1708 | lpha-Selinene          | 0.2  |
| 1489 | 1490                           | 1756 | Germacrene A           | 1.4  |
| 1496 | 1498                           | 1752 | γ-Cadinene             | 0.3  |
| 1506 | 1508                           | 1752 | $\delta$ -Cadinene     | 0.7  |
| 1519 |                                | n.d. | $\alpha$ -Cadinene     | 1.0  |
| 1526 | 1527                           | n.d. | Selina-3,7(11)-diene   | 0.5  |
| 1538 | 1539                           | 1818 | Germacrene B           | 0.9  |
| 1552 | 1551                           | 2111 | Spathulenol            | 1.1  |
| 1556 | 1558                           | 1972 | Caryophyllene oxide    | 1.8  |
| 1615 | 1615                           | 2167 | T-Muurolol             | 0.4  |
| 1628 | 1628                           | n.d. | $\alpha$ -Cadinol      | 0.4  |
| 1672 | 1675                           | n.d. | Juniper camphor        | 0.1  |
| 1904 | 1900                           | 1900 | Nonadecane             | t    |

| Monoterpene hydrocarbons   | 39.2 |
|----------------------------|------|
| Oxygen containing          |      |
| monoterpenes               | 1.1  |
| Sesquiterpene hydrocarbons | 50.7 |
| Oxygen containing          |      |
| sesquiterpenes             | 3.8  |
| Other Compounds            | 0.3  |
| Total Identified           | 95.2 |

RI <sup>a</sup> - Retention indices from the SPB-I column

### Major compounds (≥2%)



**Fig.13-** Chemical structures of the major compounds ( $\geq 2\%$ ) of H. pectinata essential oil.

Forty-three papers are indexed at ISI Science Direct (accessed 01/08) dealing with of *Hyptis pectinata*, however, not all of them under the subject *H. pectinata* essential oil.

Raymundo et al. (2011) obtained a yield of 0.5% of essential oil, five times more than what we attained.

Nascimento et al. (2008) report the composition of the essential oil from leaves of H. pectinata cultivated in Sergipe (Brazil). The main constituents were  $\beta$ -caryophyllene, caryophyllene oxide, and  $\beta$ -pinene. Differently the essential oil from H. pectinata cultivated in western Africa revealed cymene and thymol as the major compounds, accounting more than 60% of the whole composition. Caryophyllene, caryophyllene oxide and  $\beta$ -pinene are trace constituents (Malan et al., 1988). Comparing these compositions with our results, the oil from Cape Verde is completely different from that reported by Malan et al. (1988). In fact

RI  $^{\rm a}_{\rm \ Lit}$  - Reference retention indices from literature

RI P - Retention indices from the SupelcoWax 10 column

t - traces (<0.05%)

n.d. - not determined

we did not detect cymene or thymol in our samples being  $\beta$ -pinene, E-caryophyllene,  $\beta$ -elemene, sabinene, germacrene D, biclyclogermacrene,  $\gamma$ -terpinene and  $\alpha$ -pinene, the major constituents.

Differences are so sharp that is difficult to believe that they are due to environmental conditions, climate or soil. It is acceptable to speculate on the existence of different chemotypes supporting the variability found in the oils of this species.

The essential oil from *H. pectinata* was found to be very effective again *Streptococcus* mutans. This bacterium rapidly metabolizes dietary carbohydrates, resulting in the formation of acid end products that can contribute to the demineralization of tooth enamel during caries development (Nascimento et al., 2008).

According to Raymundo et al. (2011), Hyptis pectinata essential oil exhibits antinociceptive effects, mediated by opioid and cholinergic receptors, and anti-inflammatory activity through the inhibition of nitric oxide and PGE2 production.

# 6.7. Etnhopharmacological data on Cymbopogon citratus

Cymbopogon citratus, commonly known by capeverdean folk as "xá-li", is used as soothing, as well as for digestive disorders. Together with Roccella tinctoria, locally known as urzela, is used to prepare a decoction useful for fertility treatments for dysmenorrhea and metrorrhagia.

# 6.8. Cymbopogon citratus essential oil

Hydrodistillation of *Cymbopogon citratus* produced a golden yellow essential oil, with 0.3% (v/m) yield. There were a total of thirty-nine volatile compounds accounting for 85.3% of the whole composition of the essential oil (table VI).

The essential oil extracted from *C. citratus* was essentially composed by oxygen containing monoterpenes (68.8%) followed by monoterpenes hydrocarbons (9.9%), oxygen-containing sequiterpenes (3.6%), sesquiterpenes hydrocarbons (1.8%) and at last, other compounds (1.2%). The major compounds were geranial (38.3%), neral (26.4%), myrcene (7.6%),  $\alpha$ -cadinol (2.3%) and geraniol (2.0%) (Fig.14).

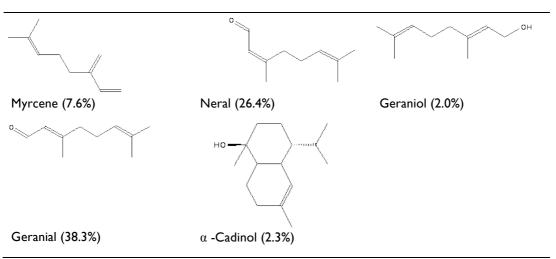
**Table VI-** Composition of the essential oil of *Cymbopogon citratus*.

| RI a | RI <sup>a</sup> Lit | RI P | Compound                         | %    |
|------|---------------------|------|----------------------------------|------|
| 923  | 921                 | 1020 | Tricyclene                       | 0.0  |
| 932  | 930                 | 1031 | lpha-Pinene                      | 0.1  |
| 944  | 942                 | 1078 | Camphene                         | 0.2  |
| 963  | 965                 | 1337 | Hept-5-ene-6-methyl-2-one        | 1.1  |
| 965  | 964                 | 1125 | Sabinene                         | t    |
| 97 I | 970                 | 1118 | $\beta$ -Pinene                  | 0.2  |
| 982  | 980                 | 1162 | Myrcene                          | 7.6  |
| 998  | 997                 | 1168 | lpha-Phellandrene                | t    |
| 1012 | 1012                | 1275 | <i>p</i> -Cymene                 | t    |
| 1021 | 1020                | 1214 | 1,8-Cineole                      | 0.2  |
| 1021 | 1020                | 1205 | Limonene                         | 0.1  |
| 1026 | 1025                | 1233 | Z-β-Ocimene                      | 1.1  |
| 1036 | 1035                | 1250 | <i>E</i> -β-Ocimene              | 0.6  |
| 1046 | 1047                | 1249 | γ-Terpinene                      | t    |
| 1080 | 1082                | 1539 | Linalool                         | 0.1  |
| 1118 | 1117                | n.d. | allo-Ocimene                     | 0.1  |
| 1132 | 1132                | 1476 | Citronellal                      | 0.2  |
| 1140 | 1145                | 1661 | iso-Borneol                      | 1.4  |
| 1172 | 1169                | 1687 | α-Terpineol                      | 0.2  |
| 1218 | 1214                | 1679 | Neral                            | 26.4 |
| 1240 | 1233                | 1839 | Geraniol                         | 2.0  |
| 1248 | 1249                | 1731 | Geranial                         | 38.3 |
| 1361 | 1359                | 1757 | Geranyl acetate                  | 0.1  |
| 1381 | 1382                | 1583 | β-Elemene                        | 0.2  |
| 1407 | 1208                | 1590 | E-Caryophyllene                  | 0.5  |
| 1430 | 1434                | 1577 | E-α-Bergamotene                  | 0.1  |
| 1444 | 1444                | 1661 | E-β-Farnesene                    | 0.1  |
| 1465 | 1466                | 1700 | Germacrene D                     | 0.2  |
| 1468 | 1469                | n.d. | γ-Selinene                       | 0.1  |
| 1475 | 1475                | 1717 | δ-Selinene                       | 0.1  |
| 1485 | 1485                | 1717 | $\alpha$ -Muurolene              | 0.1  |
|      | 1498                |      |                                  |      |
| 1497 |                     | 1749 | γ-Cadinene                       | 0.2  |
| 1506 | 1508                | 1749 | δ-Cadinene                       | 0.3  |
| 1526 | 1526                | 2069 | Elemol                           | 0.2  |
| 1628 | 1628                | 2221 | α-Cadinol                        | 2.3  |
| 1666 | 1675                | n.d. | Juniper camphor                  | 0.8  |
| 1691 | 1696                | 2351 | E,E-Farnesol                     | 0.1  |
| 1718 | 1715                | 2261 | E,E-Farnesal melange             | 0.2  |
| 1833 | 1828                | n.d. | Hexahydroxyfarnesyl acetone      | t    |
|      |                     |      | Monoterpene hydrocarbons         | 9.9  |
|      |                     |      | Oxygen containing monoterpenes   | 68.8 |
|      |                     |      | Sesquiterpene hydrocarbons       | 1.8  |
|      |                     |      | Oxygen containing sesquiterpenes | 3.6  |
|      |                     |      | Other Compounds                  | 1.2  |
|      |                     |      | Total identified                 | 85.3 |

RI <sup>a</sup> - Retention indices from the SPB-1 column
RI <sup>a</sup><sub>Lit</sub> - Reference retention indices from literature
RI <sup>p</sup> - Retention indices from the SupelcoWax 10 column

t - traces (<0.05%)

## Major Compounds (≥2%)



**Fig. 14-** Chemical structures of the major compounds (≥2%) of *Cymbopogon citratus* oil.

Schuck et al., 2001, reported a yield of 0,6% and Gbenou et al., 2013 0.9%. Other authors like Masamba et al., 2003, Matasyoh et al. 2011 and Gbenou et al. 2013 etc, found myrcene, neral and geranial to be the major components. With the exception of  $\alpha$ -cadinol, compositions do not seem different.

The volatile oil contains mostly geranial and neral (the mixture called citral), besides myrcene. The antimicrobial and antifungal activity of *C. citratus* is cited by Shuck *et al.*, 2001 and suggests that citral is the main responsible for this activity. The volatile oil has antioxidant properties and deodorant. Due to its strong odor, is used as a fragrance in soaps and detergents. Also, is employed as the insect repellent due mainly to the presence of citral.

Matasyoh et al., (2011) evaluated the antifungal activity of essential oil of *Cymbopogon* citratus against five mycotoxigenic species of the genus Aspergillus (Aspergillus flavus, Aspergillus parasiticus, Aspergillus ochraceus, Aspergillus niger and Aspergillus fumigatus). The antifungal activity tests showed that the oil was active against all the five Aspergillus species.

Gbenou et al., 2013 carried out a study with the purpose of characterizing the inflammatory and analgesic activity of *C. citratus* on Wistar rats under laboratory conditions. The anti-inflammatory effect of the essential oils was investigated on formol-induced edema in the animals. Treatments with *C. citratus* essential oil reduced the edema over time in a dose dependent manner. *C. citratus* essential oil was found to have a preventive effect. The

analgesic activity of the essential oils was tested by tail immersion test. The essential oil treated animal tails were immersed in hot water kept at 50 °C. Animals treated with essential oils were able to keep their tails longer in a hot water bath (50 °C) than the untreated animals demonstrating the analgesic activity of the essential oils and significantly reduced the hyperthermia. This paper can at least explain its use for dysmenorrhea treatment.

# 6.9. Biological relevance of the major compounds of the studied plant species

Some of the compounds identified in the essential oils have biological activities, and are responsible or contribute for the healing features of some medicinal plants. This knowledge is also useful considering these compounds as leads for drug discovery and development.

# **E-Caryophyllene**

Ghelardini et al., (2001) evaluated the anesthetic activity of  $\beta$ -caryophyllene using *in vivo* and *in vitro* models, rabbit conjuntival reflex test in a rat phrenic nerve-hemidiaphragm preparation. *E*-Caryophyllene was able to drastically reduce, in a dose dependent manner, the electrically evoked contractions of the rat phrenic nerve-hemidiaphragm. In the rabbits treated with a solution of *E*-caryophyllene, conjunctival reflex test treatment increased the number of stimuli necessary to provoke the reflex. The same essays were made with caryophyllene oxide, proving to be ineffective, either *in vivo* as *in vitro*. In conclusion, data evidence the local anaesthetic activity of *E*-caryophyllene, which appears to be strictly dependent on its chemical structure.

Soares et al., (2003) investigated leishmanicidal activity against Leishmania amazonensis in some essential oils, and pointed out that E-caryophyllene as an effective antileishmanial compound.

Cavaleiro et al. (2011) shown the inhibition of dermatophyte fungi by *E*-caryophyllene as well as by its oxygenated derivatives,  $\beta$ -betulenal (isocaryophyllen-14-al), 14-hydroxy- $\beta$ -caryophyllene and caryophyllene oxide.

The anti-inflammatory activity of E -caryophyllene was also reported by Fernandes et al. (2007). In fact, E-caryophyllene, was proved to be an agonist of CB2 (peripheral cannabinoid receptors) involved in the anti-inflammatory response (Gertsch et al.,2008). The same mechanism explains the antinociceptive effects of the compound (Katsuyama et al, 2013).

# **Camphene and Geranyl Acetate**

Junior et al., (2012), made in vivo and in vitro experiments to evaluate antinociceptive and redox properties of monoterpenes. Camphene and geranyl acetate presented high antinociceptive activity, although both had antioxidant effect.

Yamaguchi et al., (2009) reported that the antifungal properties of thiosemicarbazide are enhanced when it is associated with camphene.

Vallianou et al. (2011) reported camphene alternative lipid lowering agent, reduces Plasma Cholesterol and Triglycerides.

#### a-Phellandrene

Several biological properties, such as analgesic and anti-inflammatory, are assigned to  $\alpha$ -phellandrene. Besides, Jen-Jyh Lin (2012), showed that  $\alpha$ -phellandrene can induce apoptosis in leukemia cells which is very useful in cancer treatment.

Lima et al. (2012), showed that this component has antinociceptive effects and it possibly involves the glutamatergic, opioid, nitrergic, cholinergic and adrenergic systems.

According to Iscan et al. 2012, microbial biotransformation of  $\alpha$ -phellandrene is a important resource for natural pharmaceutical. Its metabolites proved to be very effective against Candida species.

# **Neral and Geranial**

According to Albuquerque et al. (2007), neral and geranial present nematicidal and larvicidal potencial against the nematode M. incognita and the A. acgypti larvae and anti-fungal activity.

Silva et al. (2008) displayed that lemongrass oil and citral have a potent in vitro activity against Candida spp. (Candida albicans, C. glabrata, C. krusei, C. parapsilosis and C. tropicalis).

Citral, the mixture of neral and geranial, was proved to be useful for giardiasis, inhibiting the grow of *Giardia lamblia* trophozoites (Machado et al (2010). Similarly it is active against other flagellate protozoa, such as, *Leishmania* species (Machado et al., 2012).

Citral is also known and used as insect repellent.

# **Camphor**

Camphor's alleged medicinal benefits currently include local anesthetic, antipruritic, antiseptic, skin permeability enhancer and mild expectorant activity. It has a characteristic odor and is used commercially as a moth repellent and as a preservative in pharmaceuticals and cosmetics.

The cytotoxicity of camphor, was evaluated by Cherneva et al., (2012), on rat thymocytes. The cells were incubated at different concentrations of the component and the results showed that camphor increases, significantly, at the highest concentration the thymocyte viability, enhancing the immune system.

#### Germacrene D

The sesquiterpene germacrene D seems to play a significant role in host plant location by females of the American tobacco budworm moth *Heliothis virescens*. Electrophysiological recordings from single olfactory receptor neurones have shown that a major type of the antennal receptor neurones responds with high sensitivity and selectivity to germacrene D. The behavioural significance of this sesquiterpene has been studied in a two-choice wind-tunnel where mated females could choose between a plant containing a low release rate of (–)-germacrene D dispensers and a plant with control dispensers. There were an increased attraction to and oviposition on plants with the germacrene D dispensers, which suggested that it has a positive effect on mated *H. virescens* females, by acting either as an attractant or as an attractant as well as a stimulant for oviposition (Stranden et al., 2003).

# $\alpha$ -Pinene and $\beta$ -Pinene

The antimicrobial activities of pinene isomers and enantiomers were evaluated against bacterial and fungal cells. The work of Silva et al. (2012) intended to evaluate the antimicrobial effects of the different isomers and enantiomers of these monoterpenes against Candida albicans, Cryptococcus neoformans, Rhizopus oryzae and methicillin-resistant Staphylococcus aureus.

The minimal inhibitory concentration values of  $\alpha$ -pinene and  $\beta$ -pinene enantiomers were determined. Only the positive enantiomers exhibited a microbicidal effect against all of the microorganisms tested. No antimicrobial activity was detected with the negative enantiomers. Fungi, especially *C. neoformans*, were more sensitive to (+)- $\alpha$ -pinene and (+)- $\beta$ -pinene than MRSA.

Him et al., (2008) investigated  $\alpha$ -pinene effects in mice, and it proved to have antinociceptive properties.

Neves et al. (2010) evidenced the dual inhibition of NO synthase and Nf-kB expression on chondrocytes stimulated by IL-1 $\beta$ , proving the anti-inflammatory and anti-arthritic potential of  $\alpha$ -pinene.

## γ-Terpinene

The mechanism of antimicrobial activity of essential oils components  $\alpha$ -terpineol,  $\gamma$ -terpinene and eugenol was studied to evaluate their effect on the bacterial membrane against four strains of bacteria: Listeria monocytogenes, Streptococcus pyogenes, Proteus vulgaris and Escherichia coli (Oyedemi et al., 2008). The study was conducted observing changes in membrane composition, assaying for the leakage of protein and lipid using Bradford and van Handel's method. The oils components were capable of inducing cell lyses by the leakage of protein and lipid contents. Eugenol was highly effective toward protein content leakage after 120 min of exposure.  $\alpha$ -Terpineol and  $\gamma$ -terpinene showed similar effect under the same condition.  $\gamma$ -Terpinene displayed the highest activity toward lipid content leakage, while  $\alpha$ -terpineol and eugenol showed similar effect after 120 min of exposure. The result revealed that both cell wall and membrane of the treated gram-negative and gram-positive bacteria were significantly damaged.

Thus, according to Rudbäck et al.  $(2012)\alpha$ -terpinene can as it easily autoxidizes to form allergens, and maybe used in products for topical applications like cosmetics and skin care products.

#### $\alpha$ -Humulene

Hadri et al., (2010) studied the essential oil of Salvia officinalis, with the purpose of evaluating its effect on "in vitro" tumor cells lines.  $\alpha$ -Humulene, the major constituent of the oil, exhibited high cytotoxic activity in murine macrophage cells, colorectal adenocarcinoma cells and breast melanoma cells, which means, it has potential to inhibit cancer cell growth.

Acheflan® is a pharmaceutical made with essential oil, standardized with 2.3 to 2.9% of  $\alpha$ -humulene. It is indicated for tendinitis, musculoskeletal disorders associated with pain and inflammation, such as myofascial pain, back pain, low back pain in painful inflammatory conditions associated with limb trauma, sprains and bruises.

## **Bornyl** acetate

Wang et al., (2010) investigated the anti-abortive effects of quercetin and bornvl acetate and their immunological modulation at maternal-fetal interface. It is recorded in the Chinese Veterinary Pharmacopoeia (the 2005 edition) that some of the species containing bornyl acetate as major contituent, has anti-abortive properties. The study provided evidence that alterations in both the CD4+/CD8+ and IFN- $\gamma$ /IL-4 ratios participate in LPS-induced fetal resorption, and that quercetin and bornyl acetate have an antiabortive effect via maintenance of the CD4+/CD8+ T lymphocytes and IFN- $\gamma$ /IL-4 balance in uterus.

# **β-Elemene**

Li et al. (2009) evaluated the therapeutic application of  $\beta$ -elemene in sensitizing lung cancer cells to cisplatin and it considerably enhanced the inhibitory effect of cisplatin on cell proliferation in a time- and dose-dependent manner in the human non-small cell lung cancer (NSCLC) cell lines.

Li et al. (2013) displayed that some synthetic analogs of  $\beta$ -elemene may inhibit brain cancer cell growth and proliferation, showing that synthetic analogs of  $\beta$ -elemene hold promise for patients with brain tumors

Yang et al. (1997) reported mechanisms of antitumor activity of  $\beta$ -elemene.

## **Geraniol**

Lorenzi et al., (2009), evidenced the efflux pump inhibition of essential oils containing geraniol. They were able to demonstrated that the essential oil from *Helichrysum italicum* modulate drug resistance in several gram-negative bacterial species by targeting efflux mechanisms. Geraniol appeared to be a potent inhibitor of efflux mechanisms

Kim et al. (1995) showed that citral and geraniol has a potent antibacterial activity against Salmonella typhimurium.

## 7. Conclusion

Natural products demand is increasing every day, from manufacture of food, cosmetics and pharmaceuticals. Hence, the magnitude of conducting studies on essential oils lies not only in the identification and biochemical characterization of the species but also find out their functions and maybe connect the structure of the chemical contents with their biological activities. As previously mentioned, very few papers concerning folk plant traditions have been published for Cape Verde Islands. It was made a series of interview, but only in Santiago Island. Further field studies must be organized for a better characterization of the medicinal Cape Verde flora. Althought various studies have been done with *C. citratus* and *H. pectinata* more investigation is necessary to confirm the use of these species in Cape Verde. Though is known and used worldwide, it is possible to say that their application, as any other species, varies with the location.

We were able to establish the composition of the essential oils from aromatic medicinal plants from Cape Verde. With the exception of *Satureja forbesii*, it was possible to compare the results with other author's results.

Clinical trials are required to confirm the effects of the endemic species. Whether it is the primary function, or whether it is a consequence. More analysis of the pharmacokinetic and pharmacodynamics parameters of active compounds are necessary before starting the clinical trials in order to determine the dosage, side effects and toxicity.

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