CHEMISTRY OF NATURAL PRODUCTS

J. M. E. Quirke

Department of Chemistry and Biochemistry and Center for Ethnobiology and Natural Products, Florida International University, Miami, FL 33199 USA

B. C. Bennett

Department of Biological Sciences and Center for Ethnobiology and Natural Products, Florida International University, Miami, FL 33199 USA

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Summary

Four secondary metabolic pathways (polyketide, isoprenoidal, shikimic acid, and alkaloid) produce an amazing diversity of natural products in living organisms, especially in plants. These natural products are essential for human existence. Here, we discuss examples of important compounds produced by each of the four pathways, as well as compounds that derive from mixed pathways. Our aim is not to provide an exhaustive survey of each pathway and its derived products. Rather, our goal is to outline these pathways and to show how slight modifications in pathways generate the astounding diversity of natural products. For many of these compounds, the complexity of syntheses in a single cell cannot be duplicated in the most sophisticated laboratory. For each of the natural products discussed, we provide examples of plants, fungi, or bacteria that produce them. We also provide a complete set of common names, binomials with author citations, relevant synonyms, and families for all organisms discussed in the text. The abundant figures are color coded to help show which part of each compound is derived from which pathway.

1. Introduction

Plants provide a plethora of natural products that are essential for human survival. For much of the world's population, the botanical kingdom supplies most medicines, resins, latex, gums, dyes, poisons, and fragrances (Figure 1). Even the most highly industrialized cultures rely on chemical compounds manufactured by plants. In this chapter, we provide a broad overview of plant natural products and their biosynthetic pathways. We describe the four principle secondary metabolic pathways – polyketide, isoprenoidal (including mevalonic acid), shikimic acid, and alkaloid. Examples of secondary metabolites that are formed by a combination of pathways also are examined.

Our objective is to show how the four principle biosynthetic pathways produce an astonishing diversity of botanical and fungal compounds.



Figure 1. Chinese medicinal plant shop in San Franciso, CA (USA).

2. Secondary Metabolism and Natural Products

Before starting these discussions, it is necessary to define primary and secondary metabolites. Primary metabolites are compounds that are essential for life and found across broad taxonomic categories. They include DNA, protein amino acids, and chlorophyll. The so-called "secondary" metabolites were originally defined as natural products that had no known function. They now are considered to be compounds that have a limited taxonomic distribution. Secondary metabolites may not be necessary for every species, but that does not diminish their importance. Flower petals would be ineffective pollinator attractors without anthocyanins and other floral pigments. Herbivores would overwhelm plants that lacked defensive compounds such as tannins and alkaloids. The term secondary is misleading because it implies that the importance of these compounds is less than that of primary compounds. Moreover, the biosynthesis of many plant constituents is complex, employing both primary and secondary metabolic pathways. Many, as do we, prefer the term "plant natural products" instead of secondary metabolites.

The source of carbon for both primary and secondary metabolites is carbon dioxide and the process that links all these compounds directly or indirectly is photosynthesis (Figure 2). Each of the four secondary metabolic pathways uses the acetate ion (CH_3CO_2) as a direct or indirect starting material. Acetate plays a central role in both the photosynthetic pathway where carbon dioxide is transformed into glucose (three acetate molecules are converted into one glucose molecule) and in the glycolytic and citric acid cycles where glucose is degraded to three molecules of acetate. These three molecules are then decomposed to six CO_2 molecules.

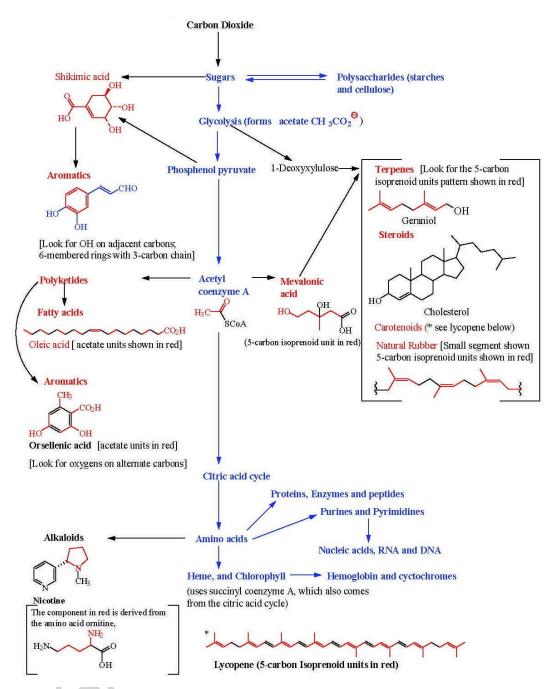


Figure 2. Summary of the pathways from carbon dioxide and photosynthesis to important classes of primary and secondary metabolites. Primary metabolites and pathways to primary metabolites are indicated by blue arrows and blue font. Secondary metabolic pathways are indicated by black arrows. Secondary metabolites are drawn in red or red and black, when it is possible to identify the units of the starting material (the

isoprenoid units for isoprenoidal secondary metabolites, the acetate carbons for polyketide metabolites, the aromatic ring for shikimic acid metabolites, and the amino acid components of alkaloids).

3. Polyketide Pathway

Polyketides are made by combining several (usually 10 or fewer) acetate units to form a chain that can undergo a variety of reactions. Acetyl CoA

(acetyl CoA = $CH_3COSCoA$), is nature's building block for introducing two carbon units into molecules. Polyketide biosynthesis starts with the acetate in its more reactive form, acetyl coenzyme A (Figure 3). This compound, a member of the thioester family (with general formula, $RCOSR^1$), is more reactive than ordinary esters.

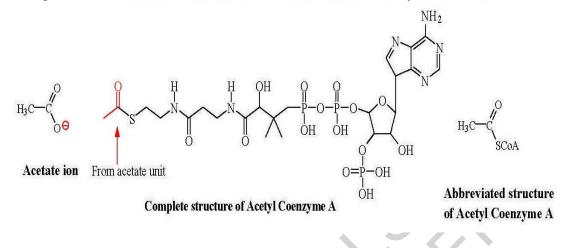


Figure 3. Structure of acetyl coenzyme A.

Acetyl CoA is further activated by the temporary incorporation of a carbon dioxide unit, a process accompanied by replacement of the SCoA group with sulfur-linked proteins. The product links with other molecules of acetyl CoA (or compounds of the form CH₃COSX, in which the SCoA unit is replaced by other sulfur linked groups). Polyketide biosyntheses typically lead to either fatty acids and related straight-chain compounds or aromatic compounds. The major difference between the pathways to the two compounds classes is that the oxygen of the carbonyl unit (C=O) is almost immediately removed during the linking of the acetyl coenzyme A units in fatty acid biosyntheses. It usually is retained when the acetate units link to form aromatic compounds. The formation of tetradecanoic acid or myristic acid (a common fatty acid named after Myristica, the genus of nutmeg) exemplifies the fatty acid pathway (common names, binomials with author citations, and family names for all plant and fungal species cited in the text can be found in Appendix 1). Seven acetic acid units link together to form this compound (Figure 4). Biosynthesis of 6-methyl salicylic acid, illustrates the route to aromatic compounds. Only one of the carbonyl units (C = O) is reduced to an alcohol and dehydrated, before the ring is formed. 6-Methyl salicylic acid occurs in the fungus Penicillium solitum var. solitum, which is a common contaminant of apples. The 6-methyl salicylic acid undergoes a complex set of reactions, including ring opening, rearrangements, oxidations, loss of the carboxylic acid, and introduction of another carboxylic acid group to form the carcinogen, patulin. Foodstuffs are routinely screened for patulin, which may not exceed a concentration of 50 µg/kg.

Common name	Binomial	Family
Aloe	<i>Aloe vera</i> (L.) Burm. f.	Asphodelaceae
American ginseng	Panax quinquefolius L	Araliaceae
Amirucu	Psychotria viridis Ruiz & Pav.	Rubiaceae
Angel's trumpet	Brugmansia suaveolens (Humb. &	Solanaceae

	Bonpl. ex Willd.) Bercht. & J. Presl	
Anise	Pimpinella anisum L.	Apiaceae
Anthrax bacterium	Bacillus anthracis Cohn	Bacillaceae
Arracacha	Arracacia xanthorrhiza Bancr.	Apiaceae
Aspergillus	Aspergillus flavus Link	Trichocomaceae
Aspergillus	Aspergillus parasiticus Speare	Trichocomaceae
Ayahusaca	Banisteriopsis caapi (Spruce ex Griseb.) C. V. Morton	Malpighiaceae
Bakanae fungus	<i>Gibberella fujikuroi</i> (Sawada) Wollenw.	Nectriaceae
Balsam fir	Abies balsamea (L.) Mill.	Pinaceae
Balsam poplar	Populus balsamifera L.	Salicaceae
Barley	Hordeum vulgare L.	Poaceae
Bishop's weed	Ammi majus L.	Apiaceae
Black birch	Betula lenta L.	Betulaceae
Black pepper	Piper nigrum L.	Piperaceae
Blue gum	Eucalyptus globulus Labill.	Myrtaceae
Bog bean	Menyanthes trifoliata L.	Menyanthaceae
Borneo camphor	Dryobalanops aromatica C. F. Gaertn.	Dipterocarpaceae
Brewers yeast	Saccharomyces cerevisiae Meyen ex E.C. Hansen	Saccharomycetaceae
Cacao	Theobroma cacao L.	Malvaceae
Camphor tree	Cinnamomum camphora (L.) J. Presl	Lauraceae
Canela	Ocotea quixos (Lam.) Kosterm.	Lauraceae
Cardamom	Elettaria cardamomum (L.) Maton	Zingiberaceae
Carrot	<i>Daucus carota</i> L. subsp. <i>sativus</i> (Hoffm.) Arcang.	Apiaceae
Celery	Apium graveolens L.	Apiaceae
Chinese ginseng	Panax ginseng C. A. Mey.	Araliaceae
Chinese red pine	Pinus massoniana Lamb.	Pinaceae
Cinnamon	Cinnamomum verum J. Presl	Lauraceae
Citronella	Cymbopogon nardus (L.) Rendle	Poaceae
Clove oil	<i>Syzygium aromaticum</i> (L.) Merr. & L. M. Perry	Myrtaceae
Coca	Erythroxylum coca Lam.	Erythroxylaceae
Coffee	Coffea arabica L.	Rubiaceae
Cola nut	<i>Cola acuminata</i> (P. Beauv.) Schott & Endl.	Malvaceae
Cola nut	Cola nitida (Vent.) Schott & Endl.	Malvaceae
Comfrey	Symphytum officinale L.	Boraginaceae
Common foxglove	Digitalis purpurea L.	Plantaginaceae

Common groundsel	Senecio vulgaris L.	Asteracae
Common liverwort	Marchantia polymorpha L.	Marchantiaceae
Corn	Zea mays L.	Poaceae
Crescent-cup liverwort	Lunularia cruciata (L.) Dumortier	Lunulariaceae
Cucumber	Cucumis sativus L.	Cucurbitaceae
Damask rose	Rosa imes damascena Mill.	Rosaceae
Deadly nightshade	Atropa belladonna L.	Solanaceae
Dog fennel	<i>Eupatorium capillifolium</i> (Lam.) Small	Asteraceae
Eastern hemlock	Tsuga canadensis (L.) Carrière	Pinaceae
English walnut	Juglans regia L.	Juglandaceae
Ephedra	Ephedra sinica Stapf	Ephedraceae
Ergot	Claviceps purpurea (Fr.) Tul.	Clavicipitaceae
European chestnut	Castanea sativa Mill.	Fagaceae
European pennyroyal	Mentha pulegium L.	Lamiaceae
European yew	Taxus baccata L.	Taxaceae
Feverfew	Tanacetum parthenium (L.) Sch. Bip.	Asteraceae
Field mint	Mentha arvensis L.	Lamiaceae
Flax	Linum usitatissimum L.	Linaceae
Fly agaric	Amanita muscaria (L.) Lam.	Amanitiaceae
Garden angelica	Angelica archangelica L.	Apiaceae
Garlic	Allium sativum L.	Alliaceae
Ginger	Zingiber officinale Roscoe	Zingiberaceae
Ginkgo	Ginkgo biloba L.	Ginkgoaceae
Golden ragwort	Packera glabella (Poir.) C. Jeffrey	Asteraceae
Grape	Vitis vinifera L.	Vitaceae
Grapefruit	Citrus x paradisi Macfad.	Rutaceae
Grecian foxglove	Digitalis lanata Ehrh.	Plantaginaceae
Henbane	Hyoscyamus niger L.	Solanaceae
Himalayan mayapple	Podophyllum hexandrum Royle	Berberidaceae
Hops	Humulus lupulus L.	Cannabaceae
House geranium	<i>Pelargonium</i> × <i>hortorum</i> L. H. Bailey	Geraniaceae
Hybrid rose	Rosa dilecta Rehder	Rosaceae
Indian snakeroot	<i>Rauvolfia serpentina</i> (L.) Benth. ex Kurz	Apocynaceae
Japanese knotweed	<i>Fallopia japonica</i> (Houtt.) Ronse Decr.	Polygonaceae
Japanese star anise	Illicium anisatum L.	Illiaceae
Jimsonweed	Datura stramonium L.	Solanaceae
Kale	Brassica oleracea L. var. viridis L.	Brassicaceae
Kudzu	Pueraria montana (Lour.) Merr. var.	Fabaceae

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Grierson[syn.: <i>Chrysanthemum</i> Asteraceae <i>coccineum</i> Willd.]	Pyrethrum	Sch. Bip. [syn.: Chrysanthemum	Asteraceae
QuebrachoSchinopsis quebracho-coloradoAnacardiaceae	Pyrethrum	Grierson[syn.: Chrysanthemum	Asteraceae
	Quebracho	Schinopsis quebracho-colorado	Anacardiaceae

	(Schltdl.) F. A. Barkley & T. Mey.	
Red mangrove	Rhizophora mangle L.	Rhizophoraceae
Rose geranium	Pelargonium graveolens L'Hér.	Gernaiaceae
Rye	Secale cereale L.	Poaceae
San pedro	<i>Echinopsis pachanoi</i> (Britton & Rose) Friedrich & G. D. Rowley	Cactaceae
Sarsaparilla	Smilax regelii Killip & C. V. Morton	Smilacaceae
Saw palmetto	Serenoa repens (W. Bartram) Small	Arecaceae
Scarlet milkweed	Asclepias curassavica L.	Apocynaceae
Scurfy pea	Cullen corylifolium (L.) Medik. [syn.: Psoralea corylifolia L]	Fabaceae
Seaside heliotrope	Heliotropium curassavicum L. 🛛 👝	Boraginaceae
Sesame seed	Sesamum indicum L.	Pedaliaceae
Shikimi	Illicium anisatum L.	Illiaceae
Showy rattlebox	Crotalaria spectabilis Roth	Fabaceae
Siberian ginseng	<i>Eleutherococcus senticosus</i> (Rupr. & Maxim.) Maxim.	Araliaceae
Slash pine	Pinus elliottii Engelm.	Pinaceae
Snowberry	<i>Symphoricarpos albus</i> (L.) S. F. Blake	Caprifoliaceae
Sour orange	Citrus aurantium L.	Rutaceae
Soy bean	Glycine max (L.) Merr.	Fabaceae
Spinach	Spinacia oleracea L.	Amaranthaceae
Streptomycete	Streptomyces hygroscopicus (Jensen) Waksman & Henrici	Streptomycetaceae
Strychnine tree	Strychnos nux-vomica L.	Loganiaceae
Sugar maple	Acer saccharum Marshall	Sapindaceae
Sunflower seed	Helianthus annuus L.	Asteraceae
Sweet clover	Melilotus albus Medik.	Fabaceae
Sweet clover	Melilotus officinalis (L.) Lam.	Fabaceae
Sweet orange	Citrus sinensis (L.) Osbeck	Rutaceae
Syrian rue	Peganum harmala L.	Nitrariaceae
Tea tree	<i>Melaleuca alternifolia</i> (Maiden & Betche) Cheel	Myrtaceae
Tea	Camellia sinensis (L.) Kuntze	Theaceae
Thompson seedless grape	Vitis vinifera L.	Vitaceae
Tobacco	Nicotiana tabacum L.	Solanaceae
Tomato	Solanum lycopersicum L.	Solanaceae
Typhoid bacterium	Salmonella enterica Le Minor and Popoff serovar Typhi	Enterobacteriaceae
Vanilla	Vanilla planifolia Andrews	Orchidaceae
Velvet bean	Mucuna pruriens (L.) DC	Fabaceae

Wheat	Triticum aestivum L.	Poaceae
White spruce	Picea abies (L.) H. Karst.	Pinaceae
White willow	Salix alba L.	Salicaceae
Wormwood	Artemisia absinthium L.	Asteraceae
Yajé	<i>Diplopterys cabrerana</i> (Cuatrec.) B. Gates	Malpighiaceae
Yerba mate	Ilex paraguariensis A. StHil.	Aquifoliaceae

Appendix 1: Common names, binomial and author citation and family for plants and ferns cited in the text. Family designation follow the Angiosperm Phylogeny Group II. Syn. = synonym.

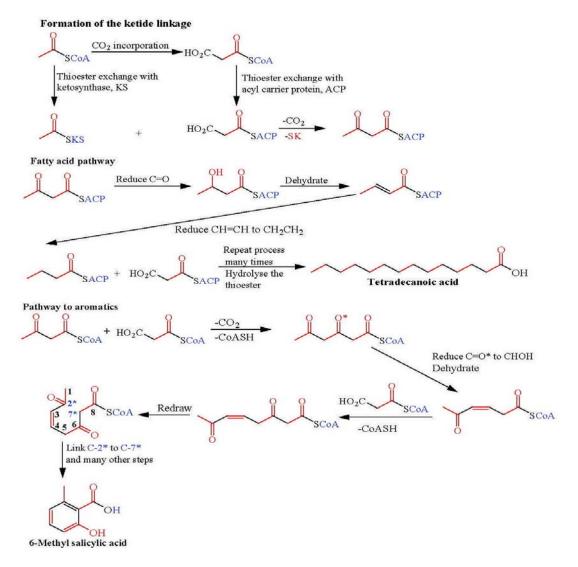


Figure 4. Biosyntheses of tetradecanoic acid and methyl salicylic acid. Individual acetic acid units are colored red throughout this figure. Bonds that link the acetic acid units to one another are black. For 6-methyl salicylic acid, the tetraketide is redrawn prior to the cyclization to make it easier to visualize the reaction.

The polyketide pathway generates a host of natural products. We discuss two important compounds formed by extensions of the pathway to provide a flavor of the subtlety of polyketide biosynthesis. The first is the pathway to arachidonic acid and the prostaglandins, which are important metabolites. The second is aflatoxin, which illustrates the challenge in recognizing the origin of a secondary metabolite because of the twists and turns in its biosynthetic pathway.

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Biographical Sketches

Dr. Quirke obtained his B.S. and Ph.D. (1976) degrees at the University of Liverpool, U.K. He then worked as a Postdoctoral fellow at the University of Bristol, U.K., where he obtained the first fully characterized structure of a fossil porphyrin. After working as a visiting lecturer at the University of Durham, he joined the faculty of the Department of Chemistry (now Department of Chemistry and Biochemistry) at Florida International University (1982). His current research interests include the study of bile pigments in plants and the development of photogenic reactions for chemical education.

Dr. Bennett is Director of the Center for Ethnobiology and Natural Products and a professor in the Department of Biological Sciences at Florida International University in Miami, Florida. He earned a B.A. in Biology and Geology from Bucknell University, and M.S. in Biology from Florida Atlantic University, and a Ph.D. in Botany from the University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill. He was the 2004-2005 president of the Society for Economic Botany and currently is an associate editor of the journal Economic Botany. He also is a member of the American Botanical Council's Advisory Board and the National Institutes of Health's National Center for Complementary and Alternative Medicine Special Emphasis Panel. His main research focus is Neotropical ethnobotany and ethnopharmacology. Dr. Bennett and his graduate students work in Bolivia, Brazil, Cameroon, Cuba, Costa Rica, Ecuador, Guyana, Japan, Mexico, Panama, Peru, and the U.S. Dr. Bennett's book Ethnobotany of the Shuar of Amazonian Ecuador won the 2006 Klinger Award from the Society for Economic Botany. His research has been published in Ambio, BioScience, Brittonia, Economic Botany, Selbyana, Journal of Tropical Ecology, and Journal of Ethnopharmacology.

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