

"IMMUNOMODULATORY AND ANTIOXIDANT ACTIONS OF DIETARY FLAVONOIDS"

DURGA.M, NATHIYA. S, DEVASENA.T*

Centre for Nanoscience and Technology, AC. tech campus, Anna University, Chennai 600025.

Email: tdevasenabio@sify.com, tdevasenabio@annauniv.edu

Received: 06 Feb 2014, Revised and Accepted: 09 Mar 2014

ABSTRACT

Flavonoids are natural substances that are present in vegetables and fruits. Nearly 4000 different flavonoids have been identified till date and they constitute a major part of our daily diet. Flavonoids are classified into different categories based on their chemical structure as flavanones, flavones, flavonols, catechin, isoflavone, chalcones and anthocyanin. It has been discovered that they have many beneficial actions on body cells by enhancing the activity of many enzyme systems. The aim of this present review is to summarize the significant and recent advancements in the field of immuno-modulation and anti-oxidant actions of dietary flavonoids.

Keywords: Flavonoids, Immunomodulatory, Quercetin, Inflammation, Anti-oxidants.

INTRODUCTION

Various fruits and vegetables contain substances known as "phytochemicals" that are beneficial for the human body to prevent acute and chronic diseases [1]. Phenolics are important group of phytochemicals belonging to the class polyphenols which are very important secondary metabolites in plants [2]. Based on the carbon skeleton, the classification of the polyphenols is as: phenolic acids and flavonoids.

Bioavailability of Flavonoids

Flavonoids are bioactive polyphenols of low molecular weight [3,4,5], that play an important role in photosynthetic plant cells [6]. Flavonoids are identified by their flavan nucleus [7] and carbon skeleton [8,9]. Until nearly 50 years ago, the mechanism of flavonoid action was not clear. The basis of research in flavonoids began in early 1930s; Albert Szent-Gyorgyi a Hungarian scientist, discovered a new substance from oranges. It was first termed as "Vitamin P". Later, it was clarified that this substance was "Rutin" (a Flavonoid), Hence large number of research on flavonoids started.

Structure of flavonoids

The flavonoids (Fig.1) contain two benzene rings linked by a pyran heterocyclic ring [6] [2 - phenyl benzo gamma pyrane nucleus]. The arrangement of flavonoids in their methoxy, hydroxyl, glycosidic groups and in the conjugation between A ring and B rings vary [4]. Many subclasses of flavonoids are found with the difference in the C ring (Table 1 and Fig.2).

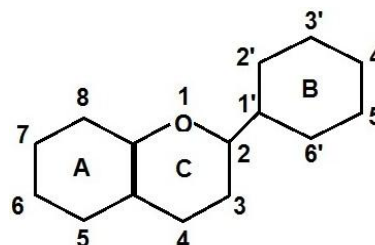


Fig. 1: General Structure of Flavonoids [6]

Table 1: Different subclasses of flavonoids and their sources [5, 10]

S. No.	Sub-classes of flavonoids	Important flavonoids present	Source
1.	Flavonones	Naringen, Herpesitin	Citrus peels
2.	Flavonol	Quercetin, Rutin	Tea, Onion
3.	Catechins	Catechins, Epicatechins	Red wine, Tea, Fruits
4.	Isoflavones	Daidzen, Glycindin	Beans
5.	Flavones	Apigenin, Luteolin, Quercetin	Citrus fruit, Parsley
6.	Anthocyanidins	Cyanidin, Delphinidin, Malvidin	Grapes, apple skin, celery, Berries, Olives, grapes, Tea.

Flavonoids are usually present in plants as aglycones (without attached sugars), glycosides (O-Glycosides or C-Glycosides) and methylated derivatives. O-Glycosides contain sugar attached to the hydroxyl (-OH) group of aglycone, whereas C-glycosides contain sugar moiety attached to the Carbon (C) of aglycone.

Flavonoids- distribution, conjugation, absorption and toxicity

Distribution of Flavonoids

Flavonoids are found widely in plants. They are an important part of the daily diet [11, 12,13]. Studies showed that the dietary intake of flavonoids on an average is 1-2g/day [3]. The average intake of quercetin was found to be 16mg/day and that of flavonols and flavones 23mg/day [14]. The distribution of various flavonoids in different medicinal plants in India is shown in Table 2.

Conjugation of Flavonoids

Flavonoids primarily conjugate with the glucuronide moiety of the intestinal cells, following this it binds with albumin for its

transportation to the liver [15, 16]. Further, conjugation is extended by the liver by adding a methyl group, sulphate group or both. These mechanisms decrease toxicity and increase the circulatory time of the flavonoids. There are many potential sites for the conjugation.

The different types of conjugations on the flavonoid skeleton influence the enzyme inhibiting potential and the anti-oxidant property of the flavonoid. Evidences showed that occasional intake of individual flavonoids and their conjugates may not increase the concentration in blood. However studies also suggested that the conjugated flavonoids have longer half lives (23-28h) and hence accumulation can occur at regular intakes which in turn may result in active flavonoid concentrations.

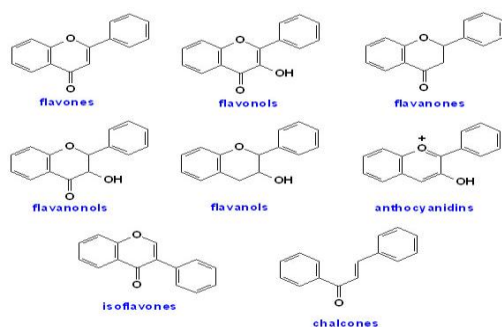


Fig. 2: Molecular structure of different types of flavonoids [5]

Absorption of Flavonoids

Available literature and data on the adsorption, conjugation, metabolism and toxicity of flavonoid in humans is scarce [17,18]. Few

studies showed that flavonoid quercetin is absorbed by the human body in sufficient amounts [17, 19]. Most of the natural flavonoids exist in the glycosylated form than the aglycone form. The "form" that the flavonoid exists in was found to influence the rate of adsorption. Studies by Hollman and Katan [20] suggested that quercetin in glycosylated state was quickly absorbed than the aglycone state [18]. However for catechin vice-versa was seen [21].

Toxicity of Flavonoids

Evidences suggest that flavonoids are non-toxic to normal cells and are toxic to immortalized or cancer cells. Studies by Dunnick *et al.*, reported that increased doses of quercetin over a long period results in tumour formation in mice [22]. However in other studies involving several years no cancer was evident [23].

Many recent literatures suggest many flavonoids like quercetin seem to act as anti-cancer agents *in vivo* [24, 25,26]. Studies by Knekt *et al.*, involving 9959 women and men for 24 years showed the relationship between consumption of flavonoids and cancer [27].

Table 2: Distribution of flavonoids in few Indian plants

S. No.	Plant	Flavonoid present	Reference
1.	<i>Acalypha indica</i>	Clitorin, Biorobin, Nicotiflorin and Kaempferol	[28]
2.	<i>Aloe vera</i>	Luteolin	[29]
3.	<i>Andragraphis paniculata</i>	Methoxy and tetramethoxy flavones	[30,31]
4.	<i>Azadirachta indica</i>	Kaempferol, myricetin and quercetin	[32,33]
5.	<i>Bacopa moneirra</i>	Luteolin	[28]
6.	<i>Bauhinia monandra</i>	Quercetin	[34]
7.	<i>Betula pendula</i>	Quercetin, Kaempferol, Myricetin	[35]
8.	<i>Brysonima crassa</i>	Amentoflavone, Quercetin-3-O-d-galactopyranoside	[36]
9.	<i>Butea monospermea</i>	Genistein, Prunetine	[37]
10.	<i>Calendula officinalis</i>	Quercetin	(35)
11.	<i>Citrus medica</i>	Hesperidin, Naringin, Eriocitrin	[38]
12.	<i>Glycyrrhiza glabra</i>	Liquiritin, Isoliquiritin	[35]
13.	<i>Limnophila indica</i>	Skullcapflavone	[36]
14.	<i>Mentha cogifolia</i>	Luteolin, kaempferol	[37,38]
15.	<i>Mimosa pudica</i>	Isoquercetin, Apigenin	[36]
16.	<i>Tephrosia purpurea</i>	Purpurin, Pongamol, Karanjin, Lanceolatin-B	[36]
17.	<i>Pongamia pinnata</i>	Pongaflavonol, Pongachin, Luteolin	[37, 38,39]

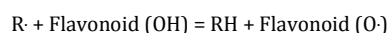
Anti-oxidant activity of flavonoids

Reactive Oxygen Species (ROS) and free radicals are continuously produced in the body (Table 3) during the normal metabolism of oxygen or induced by any toxin exogenously [40,41]. Studies revealed that there are many mechanisms by which free radicals interfere with normal cellular function. One of the most important mechanisms exerted by these free radicals upon cells is "lipid peroxidation", which leads to cellular damage of the cell membrane, followed by a change in osmotic pressure that results in cell swelling and cell death. The most remarkable property of flavonoids is their anti-oxidant activity. Previous studies have revealed that the catechins and flavones were found to be the most potential flavonoids for defending the body against free radicals and ROS. Living organisms have several remarkable mechanisms for protecting themselves from free radical or ROS damage [42]. These include the antioxidant cascade of enzymes such as catalase, glutathione peroxidase, superoxide dismutase, non-enzymes such as ascorbic acid, alpha-tocopherol and glutathione (Endogenous antioxidants). An increased formation of ROS / free radicals leads to depletion of endogenous antioxidants. Flavonoids effectively act as anti-oxidants by two methods. First, they can increase the ability of endogenous anti-oxidants. Secondly, they can interfere with three different ROS/Free radical producing systems in the human body.

(i) Direct Scavenging of free radicals

Flavonoids directly act upon free radicals to stabilize the free radicals by acting with the most reactive compound of the free

radical. The radicals are made inactive by the high reactivity of hydroxyl group present in the flavonoids.



Where, $\text{O}\cdot$ is the oxygen free radical and $\text{R}\cdot$ is the free radical. Example, flavonoids such as rutin and epicatechin are potential radical scavengers (43). Few specific flavonoids can directly act on superoxides and scavenge them, whereas others can scavenge the ROS derived radical termed as "peroxynitrite".

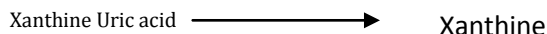
(ii) Nitric oxide (NO) radical scavenging

Cells such as macrophages and endothelial cells produce NO at high concentrations when under stress hence resulting in oxidative damage. Under such circumstances, macrophages also increase the production of superoxide anion along with NO. The produced NO and free radicals interfere with each other inside the cells and lead to the formation of highly toxic "peroxynitrite", which in turn damages the lipid cell membrane irreversibly.

In such cases, the presence of flavonoids scavenges the produced free radicals [44] resulting in less cellular damage and also it was reported that flavonoids can also directly act upon NO radical itself [45]. Studies by Dehmlow *et al.*, showed that silibinin, a flavonoid inhibited NO activity in a dose dependent manner [46].

(iii) Xanthine oxidase

The metabolism of xanthine takes place as follows,



This pathway was found to be an important route in the oxidative damage to tissues, especially after ischemic-reperfusion [47]. During reperfusion, xanthine oxidase acts with molecular oxygen hence releasing free radicals.

Studies revealed that flavonoids such as silibin and quercetin inhibit the activity of xanthine oxidase, thereby preventing oxidative damage [48, 49, 50].

(iv) Lipid peroxidation by free radicals

Iron in the presence of free radicals leads to lipid peroxidation [51]. Studies revealed that specific flavonoids such as quercetin were found to chelate iron and hence prevent lipid peroxidation [52, 53].

(v) Leucocyte Immobilization by free radicals

Under general environmental conditions leukocytes move around freely near the endothelial wall. In contrast to this during inflammation, the complements and other mediators of inflammation lead to the immobilization of leukocytes to the endothelial walls, hence leading to the formation of free radicals. This results in tissue damage and injury.

Studies by Friesenecker *et al* showed that administration of oral dose of pure micronized fraction of flavonoids was found to reduce the leukocyte immobilization during reperfusion [54].

This may be due to the action of flavonoids on the total serum complements and hence act as a protective mechanism against inflammation [55]. The remarkable antioxidant capacity of flavonoids were reported by various group of scientists [56, 57, 58, 59, 60, 61]. The summary of the action of flavonoids on different diseases is shown in Fig.3.

Table 3: Different mechanisms by which ROS are produced inside the body [15]

S. No.	Reactive species	Mechanism
1.	Superoxide anion (O ₂ ⁻).	Reduction product of O ₂ (One electron reduction), generated by heme proteins.
2.	Hydrogen peroxide (H ₂ O ₂).	Reduction product of O ₂ (Two electron reduction)
3.	HO ₂	Formed by the addition of proton to O ₂
4.	OH (Hydroxy radical)	Generated by "Fentons reaction". It is formed by the reduction of O ₂ (3 electron reduction of O ₂).
5.	¹ O ₂	Singlet oxygen production
6.	ROO (Peroxy/ Lipid Peroxy radical)	Produced by proton hydrogen abstraction
7.	RO (Alkoxy radical)	Produced by organic hydroperoxide

Flavonoids as immunomodulators and anti-inflammatory mediators

"Inflammation" is defined as the combined response of many protective systems of the body against the action of a "Foreign substance". "Inflammation" involves various mediators and processes such as tissue hormones, cytokines, complements in serum, blood coagulation, cellular and humoral immunity, repair processes and angiogenesis. It is a free radical generating process. The action of flavonoids as immunomodulators is tabulated in table 4.

(i) Inhibition of Cyclooxygenase/Lipoxygenase Pathway by Flavonoids

The production and release of the compound Arachidonic Acid (AA) is involved in the initial phase of inflammation. Lipoxygenase (LOX) and cyclooxygenase (COX) play a significant role in the inflammatory process. They are important for the release of "arachidonic acid". Studies revealed that chemotactic substances are formed from arachidonic acid by the lipoxygenase containing neutrophils. This cascade of events also leads to the release of cytokines (Fig 4) such as interleukins [62].

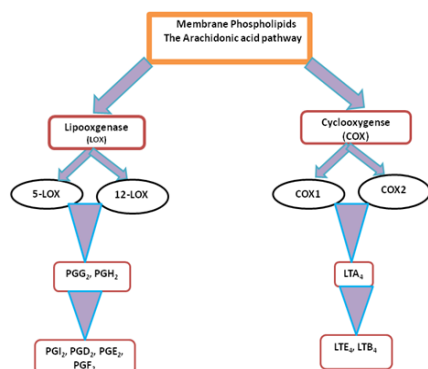


Fig. 3: The Arachidonic acid (AA) pathway [65]

Studies showed that selected phenols were found to inhibit the action of cyclooxygenase and lipoxygenase pathways [62, 63, 64]

and modulate their actions. The phenols act by inhibiting the release of arachidonic acid [65]. Studies involving quercetin showed that it inhibited both the lipoxygenase and cyclooxygenase pathways, thus inhibiting the formation of inflammatory mediators [66].

(ii) Inhibition of Eicosanoid Pathway

Prostaglandins (PGs) are eicosanoids that are mediators involved in inflammation [67]. It was investigated and found that flavonoids inhibited the eicosanoid biosynthesis pathway [68]

(iii) Immuno-modulation of cell functions related to inflammation

Various flavonoids show a significant pharmacological and biochemical activity that effect the normal functions of immune cells such as B- cells, T- cells, macrophages, neutrophils, basophils and mast cells [69].

Enzymes such as tyrosine and serine protein kinases are mainly involved in inflammatory processes such as T cell proliferation and cell activation [70, 71] or cytokine production [72]. Flavonoids such as genistein were found to modulate such enzymes. Genistein also prevented the enzyme activity of T-cell specific protein kinases, p56lck and hence decreased IL -2 and IL-2B production. Quercetin was found to prevent enzyme activity of elastase [73] and hence prevent neutrophil degranulation. Other flavonoids such as apigenin, Kaempferol, luteolin and quercetin have shown to inhibit the enzyme beta-glucuronidase and hence lysozyme release from the neutrophils. These flavonoids also prevented arachidonic acid release and hence inhibited degranulation [74].

(iv) Immunomodulation of pro-inflammatory enzyme activities

Various flavonoids were found to modulate the activity of metabolic enzymes involved in AA pathways. These enzymes include COX, LOX, Phospholipase A₂ (PLA₂) [75, 76], Nitric oxide (NO) and NO synthase (NOS). The prevention of these enzymes decreases the formation of AA, Leucotrienes, NO and prostaglandins that are all significant mediators of inflammation.

Thus the inhibitions of such enzymes are important contributors for the "anti-inflammatory" activity of flavonoids. The various immuno-modulatory studies of flavonoids are tabulated in table 5.

Table 4: Summary of immuno-modulatory mechanisms of flavonoids

S. No.	Action of flavonoids	Mechanism of action	Effect of flavonoids
1.	Immuno-modulation of inflammatory cells	Modulation of secretory mechanisms	Decrease in activity of inflammatory cells.
2.	Immuno-modulation of pro-inflammatory enzymes	Modulation of enzyme actions Inhibition of NO synthase activity Inhibition of arachidonic acid pathway	Decrease in the production of inflammatory mediators, NO, Prostaglandins (PGs) and leucotrienes (LTs)
3.	Immuno-modulation of pro-inflammatory mediators	Modulation of production of cytokines	Decrease in the production of inflammatory cytokines – TNF alpha, interleukins.
4.	Immuno-modulation of pro-inflammatory gene expression	Modulation of signal transduction	Decrease in pro-inflammatory gene transcription
5.	Anti-oxidant activity	Inhibition of ROS formation Inhibition of pro-oxidant enzymes Radical scavenging mechanisms	Decrease in lipid peroxidation and free radicals

(v) Immuno-modulation of proinflammatory molecules

Several cytokines in addition to Cyclooxygenase-2 (COX-2) are associated with inflammatory reactions. Cytokines such as Interleukin-6 (IL-6), Interleukin 1 beta (IL-1 β) and Tumour Necrosis Factor alpha (TNF α) are significant contributors to chronic inflammatory diseases. Flavonoid genistein was found to prevent IL-6, IL-1 β and TNF α formation in Liposaccharide (LPS) induced blood monocytes of human origin. [72]. Similar studies revealed the inhibitory action of genistein on IL-6 formation in osteoblast cells [77], gastric epithelial cells [78] and macrophages [79]. It was found that both quercetin and luteolin were capable of inhibiting TNF α production by nearly 80%. Reports on macrophage cell lines RAW 264.7 revealed that genistein, quercetin, luteolin and luteolin 7 glucoside prevented IL-6 and TNF- α production in LPS induced systems [80]. Flavonoids quercetin and wogonin decreased the invitro release of TNF- α and IL-1 β , IL-6 in LPS induced RAW cell lines [81, 82].

(vi) Immuno-modulation of proinflammatory genes

Recent research has shown that few flavonoids act as immune-modulators of pro-inflammatory genes leading to attenuation process of inflammatory reactions, thus affecting the messenger

RNA (mRNA) levels. The main mechanism by which flavonoids act as immune-modulators was found to be due to its effect on the suppression of transcriptional activity. Genistein, apigenin, kaempferol, catechin, myricetin were found to inhibit COX-2 in LPS induced macrophages [83]. Similarly luteolin lowered mRNA and protein levels of pro-inflammatory COX-2 and induced Nitric Oxide Synthase (iNOS) in LPS-induced macrophages [84]. Various flavonoids were found to inhibit NO production [85-89].

(v) Mechanisms leading to immune-suppression of gene expression

Flavonoids were found to modulate Protein Kinases (PKC) and MAPK (Mitogen Activated Protein Kinases), hence preventing DNA-binding capacity of transcription factors like Activating Protein – 1 (AP-1) and Nuclear Factor κ B (NF- κ B) [90]. The three main MAPKs are c-Jun-N-terminal kinase (JNK), signal regulated kinases 1 and 2 (Erk 1/2) AND p38 [91]. Studies revealed that p38 - MAPK pathway promote many cytokine genes *invitro* that include IL-6, iNOS, IL-10 [92, 93]. Inhibition of MAPKs is an important step in the anti-inflammatory process. Studies by Means *et al.*, showed that luteolin and quercetin inhibited LPS induced promotion of p38 and ERK 1/2 pathways hence preventing the release and production of TNF α [94].

Table 5: Summary of *invitro* studies showing immuno-modulation by flavonoids

S. No.	Activity	Flavonoid	Model	Reference
1.	Modulation of NF- κ B	Genistein Morin	Pancreatic cell line Tumour cell line	[95] [96-98]
2.	Modulation of Protein Kinase C	Apigenin Quercetin Luteolin	Prostate cancer cell line Skin tumour cell lines	[99] [100,101]
3.	Modulation of MAPK	Apigenin Genistein	Prostate cancer cell line Breast cancer cell line	[102] [103]
4.	COX-2 inhibition	Apigenin Tricin Genistein	Adenoma cell line Human breastcancer cell lines	[104] [105]

CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE IMPLICATIONS

The studies involving flavonoids is complex due to its heterogeneity of various molecular structures. They form a group of biologically active substances that are present in high amounts in plants and consumed in large parts in our daily diet. Flavonoids are gaining more and more importance because of their usefulness and significant roles that they play inside the human body. Future implications involve exploring more potential properties of flavonoids in the field of immunomodulation, anti-cataract and anti-toxic activities.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

The first author would like to acknowledge the financial support provided by DST, New Delhi under the INSPIRE FELLOWSHIP SCHEME Proc No. 8946/PD6/2010.

REFERENCES

1. Soumya Prakash Rout, K. A. Choudary, D. M. Kar, Lopamudra Das, Avijeet Jain. Plants in Traditional Medicinal System - Future Source Of New Drugs. International J of Pharmacy and Pharmaceutical Sciences 2009; 1(1): 1-23
2. Slade D, Ferreira D, Marais JP. Circular dichroism, a powerful tool for the assessment of absolute configuration of flavonoids. Phytochemistry 2005; 66: 2177-2215.
3. Fernandez SP, Wasowski C, Loscalzo LM, Granger RE, Johnston GAR, Paladini AC, Marder M. Central nervous system depressant action of flavonoid glycosides. European Journal of Pharmacology 2006; 539:168-176.
4. Heim KE, Tagliaferro AR, Bobliya DJ. Flavonoids antioxidants. Chemistry, metabolism and structure-activity relationships. The J of Nutritional Biochemistry 2002; 572-584.

5. Hollman PCH, Katan MB. Dietary Flavonoids- Intake, Health Effects and Bioavailability. Food and Chemical Toxicology 1999; 37: 937-942.
6. Cushnie TPT, Lamb AJ. Antimicrobial activity of flavonoids. International J of Antimicrobial Agents 2005; 26: 343-356.
7. Murray, MT, Quercetin: Nature's antihistamine. Better Nutrition 1998.
8. Peterson J, Dwyer MSJ, RD. Flavonoids: Dietary occurrence and biochemical activity. Nutrition Research, 18 (1998) 1995-2018.
9. Tsuchiya H. Structure-dependent membrane interaction of flavonoids associated with their bioactivity. Food Chemistry 2010; 120: 1089-1096.
10. Ren W, Qiao Z, Wang H, Zhu L, Zhang L. Flavonoids: Promising Anticancer agents. Medicinal Research Reviews, 2003; 23: 519-534.
11. Cook NC, Samman S. Flavonoids: Chemistry, metabolism, cardioprotective effects and dietary sources. Nutritional Biochemistry 1996; 7: 66-76.
12. Havsteen BH. The biochemistry and medical significance of the flavonoids. Pharmacology and Therapeutics. 2002; 96: 67-202.
13. Sahu SC, Gray GC. Pro-oxidant activity of flavonoids: effect on glutathione and glutathione-S-transferase in isolated rat liver nuclei. Cancer letters 1996; 104: 193-196.
14. Prey JO, Brown J, Fleming J, Harrison PR. Effect of dietary flavonoids on major signal transduction pathways in human epithelial cells. Biochemical Pharmacology 2003; 66:2075-2088.
15. Manach C, Morand C, Texier O, et al. Quercetin metabolites in plasma of rats fed diets containing rutin or quercetin. Journal of Nutritional research 1995; 125:1911-22.
16. Piskula MK, Terao J. Accumulation of epicatechin metabolites in rat plasma after oral administration and distribution of conjugation enzymes in rat tissues. Journal of Nutritional research, 1998; 128:1172-8.
17. Hollman PC, Van Trijp JM, Buysman MN, et al. Relative bioavailability of the antioxidant flavonoid quercetin from various foods in man. FEBS Lett. 1997;418:152-6.
18. Manach C, Morand C, Demigne C, Texier O, Regeat F, Remesy C, Bioavailability of rutin and quercetin in rats. FEBS Lett. 1997; 409: 12-6.
19. Young JF, Nielsen SE, Haraldsdottir J, et al. Effect of fruit juice intake on urinary quercetin excretion and biomarkers of antioxidative status. Am J Clin Nutr. 1999; 69: 87-94.
20. Okushio K, Matsumoto N, Kohri T, Suzuki M, Nanjo F, Hara Y. Absorption of tea catechins into rat portal vein. Biol Pharm Bull. 1996; 19:326-9.
21. Dunnick JK, Hailey JR. Toxicity and carcinogenicity studies of quercetin, a natural component of foods. Fundam Appl Toxicol, 1992; 19:423-31.
22. Zhu BT, Ezell ET, Liehr JG. Catechol-o-methyl transferase catalysis rapid O-methylation of mutagenic flavonoids. Metabolic inactivation as a possible reason for their lack of carcinogenicity in vivo. J Biol Chem. 2001; 269: 292-299.
23. Kato K, Mori H, Fujii M, et al. Lack of promotive effect of quercetin on methylazoxymethanol acetate carcinogenesis in rats. J Toxicol Sci 1984; 9: 319-325.
24. Plakas SM, Lee TC, Wolke RE. Absence of overt toxicity from feeding the flavonol, quercetin, to rainbow trout (*Salmo gairdneri*). Food Chem Toxicol 1985; 23: 1077-1080.
25. Knekt P, Jarvinen R, Seppanen R, et al. Dietary flavonoids and the risk of lung cancer and other malignant neoplasms. Am J Epidemiol 1997; 146: 223-30.
26. Lopez-Lazaro, Miguel. Distribution and Biological activities of flavonoids luteolin. Mini-Reviews in medicinal Chemistry, 2009; 9:31-59.
27. Aderogba MA, Ogundaini AO, Eloff JN. Isolation of two flavonoids from *Bauhinia monandra* leaves and their antioxidative effects. African J of Traditional Complementary and Alternative Medicines, 2006; 3: 59-65.
28. Babu VS, Narasimhan S, Nair GM. Short communication: Enhanced accumulation of triterpenoids and flavonoids in cell suspension cultures of *Azadirachta indica* with an extended stationary phase. Indian J of Biotechnology 2008; 7: 270-272.
29. Niranjana, A, Tewari, SK, Lehri, A. Biological activities of Kalmegh (*Andrographis paniculata*) and its active principles: A Review. Indian J of Natural Products and Resources 2010; 1: 125-135.
30. Nahrstedt, A, Hungeling, M, Petereit, F. Flavonoids from *Acalypha indica*. Fitoterapia 2006;77: 484-488.
31. Chakraborty T, Veroty L, Poddar G. Evaluation of *Azadirachta indica* leaf extract for hypoglycaemic activity in rats. Phytotherapy Research 1989; 3: 30-32.
32. Murlidhar A, Babu KS, Sankar TR, Redenna P, Reddy GV, Latha J. Antiinflammatory activity of flavonoids from stem bark of *Butea monosperma*: A mechanism based study. International J of Phytopharmacology 2010; 1: 124-132.
33. Gupta KK, Taneja SC, Ahar KL, Atal CK. Flavonoids of *Andrographis paniculata*. Phytochemistry 1983; 22: 314-315.
34. Sannomiya M, Fonseca VB, Silva MAD, Rocha LRM, Santos LCD, Hiruma-Lima, CA, Brito, ARMS, Vilegas W, Flavonoid and anti-hirerogenic activity from *Brysonima crassa* leaves extract. Journal of Ethnopharmacology 2005; 97: 1-6.
35. Kogawa K, Kazuma K, Kato N, Noda N, Suzuki M. Biosynthesis of malonylated flavonoids glycosides on basis of malonyl transferase activity in petals of *Clitoria ternatea*. J of Plant Physiology, 2007; 164 2007: 886-894.
36. Akorum, S, bendjeddou D, Satta D, Lalaoui K. Antibacterial activity and acute toxicity effect of flavonoids extracted from *Mentha longifolia*. American-Eurasian J of Scientific research 2009; 4: 93-99.
37. Agarwal M, Kamal R. Studies on flavonoids production using in-vitro cultures of *Momordica charantia*. Indian J of Biotechnology 2007; 6: 277-279.
38. Yin, H, Zhang, S, Wu, J, Nan, H, Long, L, Yang, J, Li, Q. Pongafavanol: a prenylated Flavonoid from *Pongamia pinnata* with a Modified Ring A. Molecules, 2006; 11: 786-791.
39. Li L, Li X, Shi C, Deng Z, Fu H, Proksch P, Lin W. Pongamone A-E, five flavonoids from the stems of mangrove plant, *Pongamia pinnata*. Phytochemistry, 2006; 67: 1347- 1352.
40. Ee Groot H, Reactive oxygen species in tissue injury. Hepatogastroenterology, 1994; 41: 328-32.
41. Grace PA, Ischaemia-reperfusion injury. Br J Surg 1994; 81: 637-47.
42. Halliwell B, How to characterize an antioxidant: an update. Biochem Soc Symp 1995; 61:73-101.
43. Hanasaki Y, Ogawa S, Fukui S. The correlation between active oxygens scavenging and antioxidative effects of flavonoids. Free Radic Biol Med 1994; 16: 845-50.
44. Shutenko Z, Henry Y, Pinard E, et al. Influence of the antioxidant quercetin in vivo on the level of nitric oxide determined by electron paramagnetic resonance in rat brain during global ischemia and reperfusion. Biochem Pharmacol 1999; 16: 199-208.
45. Van Acker SA, Tromp MN, Haenen GR, van der Vijgh WJ, Bast A. Flavonoids as scavengers of nitric oxide radical. Biochem Biophys Res Commun. 1995; 214:755-9.
46. Dehmow C, Erhard J, de Groot H, Inhibition of Kupffer cell functions as an explanation for the hepatoprotective properties of silibinin. Hepatology, 1996; 23: 749-54.
47. Sanhueza J, Valdes J, Campos R, Garrido A, Valenzuela A. Changes in the xanthine dehydrogenase/xanthine oxidase ratio in the rat kidney subjected to ischemia-reperfusion stress: preventive effect of some flavonoids. Res Commun Chem Pathol Pharmacol 1992; 78: 211-8.
48. Shoskes DA. Effect of bioflavonoids quercetin and curcumin on ischemic renal injury: a new class of renoprotective agents. Transplantation 1998; 66 147-52.
49. Chang WS, Lee YJ, Lu FJ, Chiang HC. Inhibitory effects of flavonoids on xanthine oxidase. Anticancer Res. 1993; 13: 2165-70.
50. Iio M, Ono Y, Kai S, Fukumoto M. Effects of flavonoids on xanthine oxidation as well as on cytochrome c reduction by milk xanthine oxidase. J Nutr Sci Vitaminol (Tokyo) 1986; 32: 635-642.
51. Nelson CW, Wei EP, Povlishock JT, Kontos HA, Moskowitz MA. Oxygen radicals in cerebral ischemia. Am J Physiol 1992; 263: H1356-62.

52. Ferrali M, Signorini C, Caciotti B, et al. Protection against oxidative damage of erythrocyte membrane by the flavonoid quercetin and its relation to iron chelating activity. *FEBS Lett* 1997; 416: 123-9.
53. Sorata Y, Takahama U, Kimura M, Protective effect of quercetin and rutin on photosensitized lysis of human erythrocytes in the presence of hematoporphyrin. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 1984; 799: 313-7.
54. Friesenecker B, Tsai AG, Allegra C, Intaglietta M, Oral administration of purified micronized flavonoid fraction suppresses leukocyte adhesion in ischemia-reperfusion injury: in vivo observations in the hamster skin fold. *Int J Microcirc Clin Exp* 1994; 14: 50-5.
55. Friesenecker B, Tsai AG, Intaglietta M, Cellular basis of inflammation, edema and the activity of Daflon 500 mg. *Int J Microcirc Clin Exp* 1995; 5: 17-21.
56. Piskula MK, Terao J, Accumulation of epicatechin metabolites in rat plasma after oral administration and distribution of conjugation enzymes in rat tissues. *J Nutr* 1998; 128: 1172-8.
57. Nagao A, Seki M, Kobayashi H, Inhibition of xanthine oxidase by flavonoids. *Biosci Biotechnol Biochem*. 1999; 63: 1787-90.
58. Ertruk E, Hatcher JF, Pamukeu AM. Bracken fern carcinogenesis and quercetin. *Fed Proc*. 1984; 43: 2344.
59. Starvic B. Mutagenic food flavonoids. *Fed Proc* 1984; 43: 2344.
60. Dunnick JK, Hailey JR. Toxicity and carcinogenicity studies of quercetin, a natural component of foods. *Fundam Appl Toxicol*, 1992; 19: 423-31.
61. Zhu BT, Ezell ET, Liehr JG. Catechol-o-methyl transferase catalysis rapid O-methylation of mutagenic flavonoids. Metabolic inactivation as a possible reason for their lack of carcinogenicity in vivo. *J Biol Chem* : 2001; 269: 292-9.
62. Ferrandiz ML, Alcaraz MJ. Anti-inflammatory activity and inhibition of arachidonic acid metabolism by flavonoids. *Agents Actions* 1991; 32: 283-8.
63. Ferrandiz ML, Nair AG, Alcaraz MJ. Inhibition of sheep platelet arachidonate metabolism by flavonoids from Spanish and Indian medicinal herbs. *Pharmazie* 1990; 206-8.
64. Laughton MJ, Evans PJ, Moroney MA, Houlst JR, Halliwell B. Inhibition of mammalian 5-lipoxygenase and cyclo-oxygenase by flavonoids and phenolic dietary additives. Relationship to antioxidant activity and to iron ion-reducing ability. *Biochem Pharmacol* 1991; 42: 1673-81.
65. Yoshimoto T, Furukawa M, Yamamoto S, Horie T, Watanabe-Kohno S. Flavonoids: potent inhibitors of arachidonate 5-lipoxygenase. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun* 1983; 116: 612-8.
66. Kim HP, Mani I, Iversen L, Ziboh VA. Effects of naturally-occurring flavonoids and bioflavonoids on epidermal cyclooxygenase and lipoxygenase from guinea-pigs. *Prostaglandins Leukotrienes Essential Fatty Acids*, 1998; 58: 17-24.
67. Moroney MA, Alcaraz MJ, Forder RA, Carey F, Houlst JR. Selectivity of neutrophil 5-lipoxygenase and cyclo-oxygenase inhibition by an anti-inflammatory flavonoid glycoside and related aglycone flavonoids. *J Pharm Pharmacol* 1988; 40: 787-792.
68. Damas J, Bourdon V, Remacle-Volon G, Lecomte J. Pro-inflammatory flavonoids which are inhibitors of prostaglandin biosynthesis. *Prostaglandins Leukot Med* 1985; 19: 11-24.
69. Middleton E, Kandaswami C, Theoharides TC. The effects of plant flavonoids on mammalian cells: implications for inflammation, heart disease and cancer. *Pharmacol Rev* 2000; 52: 673- 751.
70. Rudd CE, CD4, CD8 and the TCR-CD3 complex: a novel class of protein-tyrosine kinase receptor. *Immunol Today* 1990; 11: 400-6.
71. Mustelin T, Abraham RT, Rudd CE, Alonso A, Merlo JJ. Protein tyrosine phosphorylation in T cell signaling. *Front Biosci* 2002; 1: 918-69.
72. Geng JY, Zhang B, Lotz M. Protein tyrosine kinase activation is required for lipopolysaccharide induction of cytokines in human blood monocytes. *J Immunol* 1993; 151: 6692-700.
73. Kanashiro A, Souza JG, Kabeya LM, Azzolini AE, Lucisano-Valim YM, Elastase release by stimulet neutrophils inhibited by flavonoids: importance of the catechol group. *Z Naturforsch* 2007; 62.
74. Tordera M, Ferrandiz ML, Alcaraz MJ, Influence of anti-inflammatory flavonoids on degranulation and arachidonic acid release in rat neutrophils. *Z Naturforsch [C]* 1994 ; 49: 235-40.
75. Kobuchi H, Virgili F, Packer L. Assay of inducible form of nitric oxide synthase activity: effect of flavonoids and plant extracts. *Methods Enzymol*. 1999; 301: 504-13.
76. Cheon BS, Kim YH, Son KS, Chang HW, Kang SS, Kim HP. Effects of prenilated flavonoids and biflavonoids on lipopolysaccharide- induced nitric oxide production from the mouse macrophage cell line RAW 264.7. *Planta Med* 2000; 66 : 596- 600.
77. Chen XW, FGraner SC, Anderson JJ. Isoflavones regulate interleukin-6 and osteoprotegerin synthesis during osteoblast cell differentiation via an estrogen-receptor-dependent pathway. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun*, 2002; 295: 417-22.
78. Ding SZ, Cho CH, Lam SK, Regulation of interleukin-6 production in a human gastric epithelial cell line MKN-28. *Cytokine* 2000; 12: 1129-1135.
79. Xagorari A, Papapetropoulos A, Mauromatis A, Economou M, Fostis T, Roussos C. Luteolin inhibits an endotoxin-stimulated phosphorylation cascade and proinflammatory cytokine production in macrophages. *J Pharmacol Exp Therap* 2001; 296 : 181-7.
80. Cho JY, Kim PS, Park JB, Yoo ES, Baik KU, Kim YK, et al. Inhibitor of tumor necrosis factor-alpha production in lipopolysaccharide - stimulated RAW264.7 cells from *Amorpha fruticosa*. *J Ethnopharmacol* 2000; 70 : 127-33.
81. Cho SY, Park SJ, Kwon MJ, Jeong TS, Bok SH, Choi WY, et al. Quercetin suppresses proinflammatory cytokines production through MAP kinases and NF-kappaB pathway in lipopolysaccharide- stimulated macrophage. *Mol Cell Biochem*, 2003; 243 : 153-60.
82. Van Dien M, Takahashi K, Mu MM, Koide N, Sugiyama T, Mori I, et al. Protective effect of wogonin on endotoxin-induced lethal shock in D-galactosamine-sensitized mice. *Microbiol Immunol* 2001; 45: 751-756.
83. Mutoh M, Takahashi M, Fukuda K, Komatsu H, Enya T, Matsushima-Hibiya Y, et al. Suppression by flavonoids of cyclooxygenase-2 promoter-dependent transcriptional activity in colon cancer cells: structure-activity relationship. *Jpn J Cancer Res* 2000; 91: 686-91.
84. Chen CY, Peng WH, Tsai KD, Hsu SL. Luteolin suppresses inflammation-associated gene expression by blocking NF-kappaB and AP-1 activation pathway in mouse alveolar macrophages. *Life Sci* 2007 81: 1602-14.
85. Liang YC, Huang YT, Tsai SH, Lin-Shiau SY, Chen CF, Lin JK. Suppression of inducible cyclooxygenase and inducible nitric oxide synthase by apigenin and related flavonoids in mouse macrophages. *Carcinogenesis* 1999; 20: 1945-52.
86. Autore G, Rastrelli L, Lauro MR, Marzocco S, Sorrentino R, Pinto A, et al. Inhibition of nitric oxide synthase expression by a methanolic extract of *Crescencia alata* and its derived flavonols. *Life Sci* 2001; 70: 523-534.
87. Kim HK, Cheon BS, Kim YH, Kim SY, Kim HP. Effects of naturally occurring flavonoids on nitric oxide production in the macrophage cell line RAW 264.7 and their structure-activity relationships. *Biochem Pharmacol* 1999; 58.
88. Raso GM, Meli R, Di Carlo G, Pacilio M, Di Carlo R. Inhibition of inducible nitric oxide synthase and cyclooxygenase-2 expression by flavonoids in macrophage J774A. *Life Sci* 2001; 68: 921-931.
89. Sheu F, Lai HH, Yen GC. Suppression of effect of soy isoflavones on nitric oxide production in RAW 264.7 macrophages. *J Agric Food Chem* 2001; 49 : 1767-72.
90. Kim HP, Kun HS, Chang HW, Kang SS. Anti-inflammatory plant flavonoids and cellular action mechanisms. *J Pharmacol Sci* 2004 ; 96 : 229-45.
91. Dong C, Davis RJ, Flavell RA. MAP kinases in the immune response. *Annu Rev Immunol* 2002; 20: 55-72.
92. Herlaar E, Brown Z. MAPK signaling cascades in inflammatory disease. *Mol Med Today* 1999; 5: 439-47.

93. Ono K, Han J. The p38 signal transduction pathway: activation and function. *Cell Signal* 2000; 12: 1–13.
94. Means TK, Pavlovich RP, Roca D, Vermuelen MW, Fenton MJ. Activation of TNF-alpha transcription utilizes distinct MAP kinase pathways in different macrophage populations. *J Leuk Biol* 2000; 67: 885–93.
95. Manna SK, Aggarwal RS, Sethi G, Agarwall BB, Ramesh GT. Morin (3,5,7,20,40-pentahydroxyflavone) abolishes nuclear factor- kappa B activation induced by various carcinogens and inflammatory stimuli, leading to suppression of nuclear factor-kappa B- regulated gene expression and up-regulation of apoptosis. *Clin Cancer Res* 2007; 8: 2290–7.
96. Li Y, Sarkar FH. Inhibition of nuclear factor kappaB activation in PC3 cells by genistein is mediated via Akt signalling pathway. *Clin Cancer Res* 2002; 8: 2369–2377.
97. Davis JN, Kucuk O, Sarkar FH, Genistein inhibits NF-kappaB activation in prostate cancer cells. *Nutr Cancer* 1999; 35: 167–74.
98. Rahman KW, Li Y, Sarkar FH. Inactivation of Akt and NFkappa B play important roles during indole-3-carbinol-induced apoptosis in breast cancer cells. *Nutr Cancer* 2004; 48: 84–94.
99. Shukla S, Gupta S. Suppression of constitutive and tumor necrosis factor alpha-induced nuclear factor (NF) - kappaB activation and induction of apoptosis by apigenin in human prostate carcinoma PC-3 cells: correlation with down-regulation of NFkappaB- responsive genes. *Clin Cancer Res* 2004; 10 (3): 169–78.
100. Lin JK, Chen YC, Huang YT, Lin-Shiau SY. Suppression of protein kinase C and nuclear oncogene expression as possible molecular mechanisms of cancer chemoprevention by apigenin and curcumin. *J Cell Biochem* 1997; 28: 39–48.
101. Lee LT, Huang YT, Hwang JJ, Lee PP, Ke FC, Nair MP, et al. Blockade of the epidermal growth factor receptor tyrosine kinase activity by quercetin and luteolin leads to growth inhibition and apoptosis of pancreatic tumor cells. *Anticancer Res* 2002; 22: 1615–27.
102. Shukla S, Gupta S. Apigenin-induced cell cycle arrest is mediated by modulation of MAPK, PI3K-Akt, and loss of cyclin D1 associated retinoblastoma dephosphorylation in human prostate cancer cells. *Cell cycle* 2007; 6: 1102–14.
103. Yin F, Giuliano AE, Law RE, Van Herle AJ, Apigenin inhibits growth and induces G2/M arrest by modulating cyclin-CDK regulators and ERK MAP kinase activation in breast carcinoma cells. *Anticancer Res* 2001; 21: 413–20.
104. Cai H, Al-Fayez M, Tunstall RG, Platton S, Greaves P, Steward WP, et al. The rice bran constituent triclin potently inhibits cyclooxygenase enzymes and interferes with intestinal carcinogenesis in ApcMin mice. *Mol Cancer Ther* 2005; 4: 1287–92.
105. Horia E, Watkins BA. Complementary actions of docosahexanoic acid and genistein on COX-2, PGE2, and invasiveness in MDA-MB 231 breast cancer cells. *Carcinogenesis* 2007; 28: 09–15.