

Chemical and Biological Activity of Triterpene Saponins from *Medicago* Species

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Dedicated to the memory of Professor Ivano Morelli.

Naturally occurring saponins are a large group of triterpene and steroid glycosides characterized by several biological and pharmacological properties. The *Medicago* genus represents a valuable source of saponins which have been extensively investigated. This review summarizes the chemical features of saponins from *Medicago* species and their biological activity, with particular attention to their antimicrobial, insecticidal, allelopathic and cytotoxic effects. Influence of saponins on animal metabolism is also reported.

Keywords: *Medicago*, *M. sativa*, saponins, chemical structure, biological activity.

Saponins are a large group of plant metabolites including triterpenoids, steroids and steroidal alkaloids glycosylated with one or more sugar chains [1, 2]. They are commonly distinguished by their surfactant and hemolytic activities. Naturally occurring saponins display a broad spectrum of biological and pharmacological properties such as fungicidal, molluscicidal, antibacterial, antiviral and antitumor activities [2-6]. Due to their chemical, physical and physiological characteristics, commercial products containing plant saponins are available and used in the pharmaceutical, cosmetic and food industries [7-8]. Some saponins are the starting material for the semisynthesis of drugs and some are used as emulsifiers and foaming agents in food. Plant extracts rich in saponins have been used as folk detergents and are ingredients of cosmetic preparations such as lipsticks, shampoos and toothpaste.

Saponins are produced by many plant species and their distribution in the plant kingdom seems to be correlated with the structural type. That is, steroidal saponins have been found almost exclusively in the Monocotyledons, while triterpenoid saponins mainly

occur in the Dicotyledons and are practically absent in the Gymnosperms [6, 9]. The *Leguminosae* have been extensively investigated for their saponin content and within this family of plants, the *Medicago* genus represents a particularly rich source of bioactive saponins [10-15].

The genus *Medicago* includes 83 different species, the most known represented by *M. sativa* L. (syn. *M. media* Pers.), or alfalfa, a highly valued forage crop [16, 17]. The chemical structure of saponins from several species within the genus has been determined [18-46]. Generally they are complex mixtures of high-molecular weight triterpene glycosides with medicagenic acid, hederagenin, zanhic acid, bayogenin and soyasapogenols A and B as the dominant aglycones. Recently the 2 β ,3 β -dihydroxy-23-oxo-olean-12-en-28-oic acid has been identified as a new aglycone moiety in the two species *M. arborea* [45] and *M. hybrida* [46]. A summary of the structural types of saponins isolated from the various species of *Medicago* is reported in Figure 1.

Sugars or sugar chains are generally linked at the C-3 position of the aglycone (monodesmosides) and

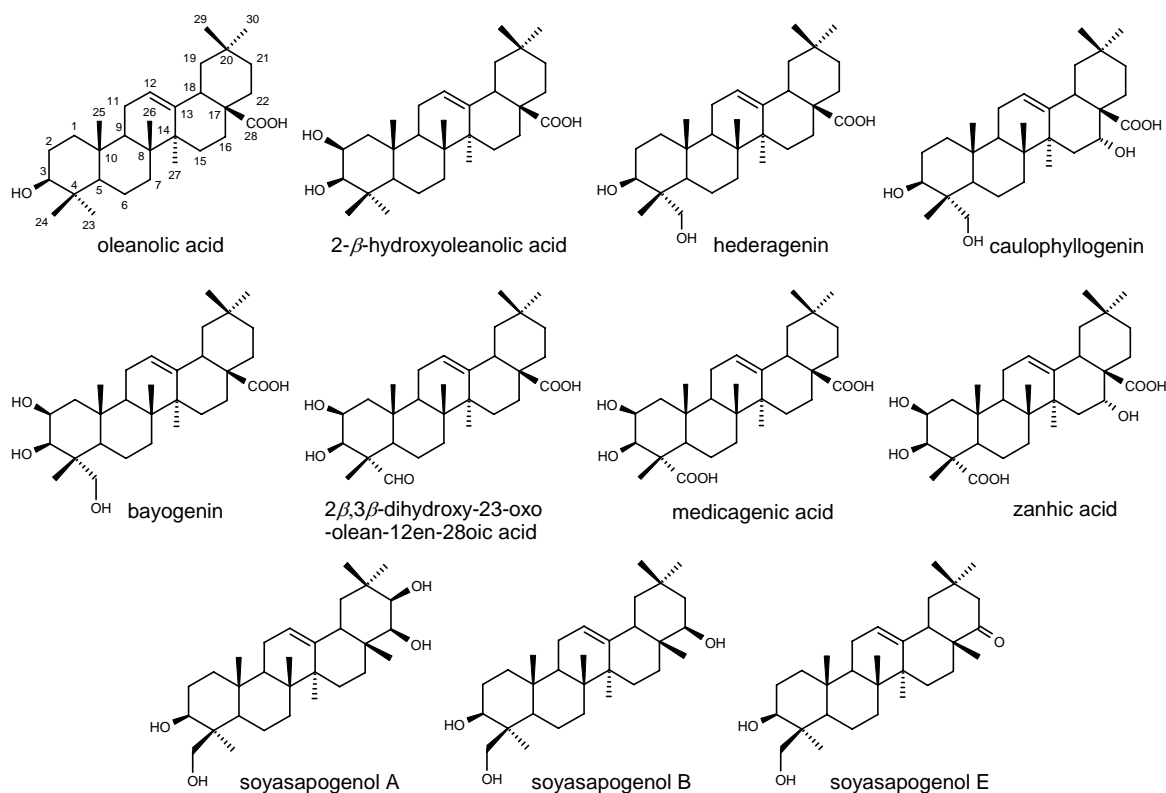


Figure 1: Chemical structure of saponins detected in *Medicago* species.

additionally at the C-28 position, giving the corresponding bidesmosides. A tridesmoside saponin (extra sugar at the C-23 position) has only been identified in *M. sativa* [36] and *M. truncatula* [42].

The most abundant monosaccharide units found in the *Medicago* saponins are: arabinose, rhamnose, xylose, glucose, and glucuronic acid. Saponins in the *Medicago* species are produced in all the plant organs: leaves, flowers, roots, seeds and sprouts [10-49]. Their content in the plant material changes as a function of several factors, such as plant organs, genotype, cutting, year and stage of growth, and environmental effects, as reported for *M. sativa*, the most studied species of the genus [50-55]. The chemotaxonomic significance of saponins has also been investigated as their composition can discriminate among *Medicago* species [56-59]. The occurrence of saponins in the *Medicago* genus is long known [60], and their composition has been studied in several species. Structure elucidation of complex saponin mixtures differentiates their aglycone composition [61, 62]. In particular, investigation of several annual and perennial wild and cultivated *Medicago* species, showed variability in the aglycone composition of the saponins from each species.

Medicagenic acid was detected in some of them and soyasapogenol B was often present in the form of soyasaponin I, a common saponin of the *Leguminosae* family [10, 63].

Chemical analysis of saponins is not simple due to their 'soapy' properties due to sugars in the molecules. Their presence can be evaluated by biological tests involving their toxic haemolytic [64], fungicidal [65] and insecticidal [66] properties. Chemical methods also have been used, such as TLC [10], HPLC [67], GC and GC/MS [52, 68, 69], the last technique being used to analyze and quantify only the aglycone moieties. Capillary electrophoresis [70] and LC/MS methods [40, 42, 43] have also been employed for the identification and quantification of saponins in the plant extracts.

Structure investigation of *Medicago* saponins is usually performed by preliminary identification of the saponins and sugars released after acid hydrolysis from pure saponins obtained by direct and reverse-phase chromatographic separation of the raw saponin mixtures. Detailed information on the saponin structure, however, could be obtained only by a combination of analytical methods, including

MS [71] and NMR analyses [72, 73], performed on pure compounds. The MS spectra allowed subsequent fragmentation of the sugar chains to give the corresponding aglycones, NMR analyses (^1H , ^{13}C and 2D experiments) allowed the determination of all the carbon atoms and the sugar linkage in the molecules, while the absolute configuration of monosaccharides was generally obtained by GC analyses with a chiral capillary column. Detailed investigations on saponin chemical structures have until now been reported for *M. arabica*, *M. arborea*, *M. hybrida*, *M. lupulina*, *M. polymorpha*, *M. sativa* and *M. truncatula* [19-46]. Characterized saponins from these species of *Medicago* are listed in Tables 1-7.

Table 1: Saponins identified in *M. arabica* leaves [41].

Aglycone	3 OH substituted	28 COOH substituted
2 β -Hydroxy oleanolic acid	α -L-Ara(1 \rightarrow 2)- β -D-Glc	β -D-Glc
Hederagenin	α -L-Ara	-
Hederagenin	α -L-Ara	β -D-Glc
Hederagenin	β -D-Glc(1 \rightarrow 2)- α -L-Ara	-
Hederagenin	β -D-Glc(1 \rightarrow 2)- α -L-Ara	β -D-Glc
Hederagenin	α -L-Ara(1 \rightarrow 2)- β -D-Glc(1 \rightarrow 2)- α -L-Ara	β -D-Glc
Bayogenin	α -L-Ara	-
Bayogenin	α -L-Ara	β -D-Glc

M. arabica leaves are characterized by the presence of short sugar chain saponins, including mono and bidesmosides of 2- β -hydroxyoleanolic acid, hederagenin and bayogenin (Table 1). *M. arborea* leaves produce saponins containing up to seven sugars, identified as mono and bidesmosides of medicagenic and zanhic acid (Table 2). Saponins from *M. hybrida* roots are characterized by the presence of short sugar chain bidesmosides of hederagenin and medicagenic acid (Table 3). *M. lupulina* leaves contain mono and disaccharide saponins of hederagenin and medicagenic acid (Table 4), while saponins from the leaves of *M. polymorpha* predominantly consist of short sugar chain bidesmosides of hederagenin and caulophyllogenin (Table 5). Saponins from the roots and the aerial parts of *M. sativa* are a complex mixture of both short and long sugar chains of mono and bidesmosidic compounds with hederagenin, medicagenic acid, zanhic acid and soyasapogenols as the most representative aglycones. In this species a tridesmoside saponin containing eight monosaccharide units and a β -maltoside derivative, 3-*O*-[α -D-glucopyranosyl(1 \rightarrow 4)- β -D-glucopyranosyl] medicagenic acid, were also identified in the aerial parts (Table 6). *M. truncatula* saponins from both roots and aerial parts (Table 7) are long sugar chain bidesmosides of medicagenic and zanhic acid.

Table 2: Saponins identified in *M. arborea* leaves [45].

Aglycone	3 OH substituted	28 COOH substituted
2 β -Hydroxy oleanolic acid	α -L-Rha(1 \rightarrow 2)- α -L-Ara(1 \rightarrow 2)- β -D-Glc	-
Bayogenin	β -D-GlcA	β -D-Xyl(1 \rightarrow 4)- α -L-Rha(1 \rightarrow 2)- α -L-Ara
2 β ,3 β -Dihydroxy-23-oxo-olean-28-oic acid	β -D-GlcA	β -D-Xyl(1 \rightarrow 4)- α -L-Rha(1 \rightarrow 2)- α -L-Ara
Medicagenic acid	β -D-Glc	α -L-Rha(1 \rightarrow 2)- α -L-Ara
Medicagenic acid	β -D-GlcA	α -L-Rha(1 \rightarrow 2)- α -L-Ara
Medicagenic acid	β -D-Glc	β -D-Xyl(1 \rightarrow 4)- α -L-Rha(1 \rightarrow 2)- α -L-Ara
Medicagenic acid	β -D-GlcA	β -D-Xyl(1 \rightarrow 4)- α -L-Rha(1 \rightarrow 2)- α -L-Ara
Medicagenic acid	β -D-Glc(1 \rightarrow 2)- β -D-Glc	β -D-Xyl(1 \rightarrow 4)- α -L-Rha(1 \rightarrow 2)- α -L-Ara
Medicagenic acid	β -D-GlcA	β -D-Api(1 \rightarrow 3)-[β -D-Xyl(1 \rightarrow 4)]- α -L-Rha(1 \rightarrow 2)- α -L-Ara
Zanhic acid	β -D-Glc	α -L-Ara(1 \rightarrow 3)- α -L-Rha(1 \rightarrow 2)- α -L-Ara
Zanhic acid	β -D-GlcA	β -D-Xyl(1 \rightarrow 4)- α -L-Rha(1 \rightarrow 2)- α -L-Ara
Zanhic acid	β -D-Glc	α -L-Ara(1 \rightarrow 3)-[β -D-Xyl(1 \rightarrow 4)]- α -L-Rha(1 \rightarrow 2)- α -L-Ara
Zanhic acid	β -D-GlcA	β -D-Api(1 \rightarrow 3)-[β -D-Xyl(1 \rightarrow 4)]- α -L-Rha(1 \rightarrow 2)- α -L-Ara
Zanhic acid	β -D-Glc(1 \rightarrow 2)- β -D-Glc	α -L-Ara(1 \rightarrow 3)-[β -D-Xyl(1 \rightarrow 4)]- α -L-Rha(1 \rightarrow 2)- α -L-Ara
Zanhic acid	α -L-Ara(1 \rightarrow 2)- β -D-Glc(1 \rightarrow 2)- β -D-Glc	β -D-Api(1 \rightarrow 3)-[β -D-Xyl(1 \rightarrow 4)]- α -L-Rha(1 \rightarrow 2)- α -L-Ara
Soyasapogenol A	α -L-Rha(1 \rightarrow 2)- β -D-Gal(1 \rightarrow 2)- β -D-GlcA	α -L-Rha
Soyasapogenol B	α -L-Rha(1 \rightarrow 2)- β -D-Gal(1 \rightarrow 2)- β -D-GlcA	-

Table 3: Saponins identified in *M. hybrida* roots [46].

Aglycone	3 OH substituted	28 COOH substituted
Oleanolic acid	β -D-Gal(1 \rightarrow 2)- β -D-GlcA	β -D-Glc
Oleanolic acid	β -D-Gal(1 \rightarrow 2)- β -D-GlcA	α -L-Rha(1 \rightarrow 4)- β -D-Glc
Hederagenin	β -D-Glc	-
Hederagenin	β -D-GlcAMe	-
Hederagenin	β -D-Glc(1 \rightarrow 2)- α -L-Ara	-
Hederagenin	β -D-GlcA	β -D-Glc
Hederagenin	β -D-GlcAMe	β -D-Glc
Hederagenin	α -L-Rha(1 \rightarrow 2)- β -D-Glc(1 \rightarrow 2)- β -D-Glc	β -D-Glc
Bayogenin	β -D-Glc	β -D-Glc
2 β ,3 β -Dihydroxy-23-oxo-olean-12-en-28-oic acid	β -D-GlcA	β -D-Glc
Medicagenic acid	β -D-Glc	-
Medicagenic acid	β -D-Glc	β -D-Glc
Medicagenic acid	β -D-GlcA	β -D-Glc
Medicagenic acid	β -D-Glc(1 \rightarrow 2)- β -D-Glc	β -D-Glc

Table 4: Saponins identified in *M. lupulina* [28].

Aglycone	3 OH substituted	28 COOH substituted
Hederagenin	β -D-Glc	-
Medicagenic acid	β -D-Glc	-
Medicagenic acid	β -D-Glc	β -D-Glc
Soyasapogenol B	α -L-Rha(1 \rightarrow 2)- β -D-Gal(1 \rightarrow 2)- β -D-GlcA	-

Table 5: Saponins identified in *M. polymorpha*.

Aglycone	3 OH substituted	28 COOH substituted	Ref.
Oleanolic acid	α -L-Rha(1 \rightarrow 2)- α -L-Ara	β -D-Glc-(1 \rightarrow 6)- β -D-Glc	[38]
Hederagenin	α -L-Rha(1 \rightarrow 2)- α -L-Ara	-	[38]
Hederagenin	α -L-Ara	β -D-Glc-(1 \rightarrow 6)- β -D-Glc	[38]
Hederagenin	α -L-Rha(1 \rightarrow 2)- α -L-Ara	β -D-Glc	[38]
Hederagenin	α -L-Rha(1 \rightarrow 2)- α -L-Ara	β -D-Glc-(1 \rightarrow 6)- β -D-Glc	[38]
Caulophyllogenin	α -L-Rha(1 \rightarrow 2)- α -L-Ara	β -D-Glc	[38]
Caulophyllogenin	α -L-Rha(1 \rightarrow 2)- α -L-Ara	β -D-Glc-(1 \rightarrow 6)- β -D-Glc	[38]
Soyasapogenol B	α -L-Rha(1 \rightarrow 2)- β -D-Glc(1 \rightarrow 2)- β -D-GlcA	-	[33]

Branched sugar chain saponins were identified in this species, as in *M. arborea* and *M. sativa*. Methyl ester derivative of saponins were also found in *M. hybrida* and *M. sativa*, but these were recognized as artifacts obtained during the extraction with methanol [74].

The nature of the saccharide units, their position on the molecule and the similarity of the sugar chains on saponins from the different species, have suggested high enzymatic selectivity for the sugar position. Hederagenin often contains an α -L-arabinopyranose unit as the first sugar in its 3-*O* position. Alternatively a β -D-glucopyranose or the corresponding uronic derivative are present as in *M. hybrida* root saponins. The second monosaccharide unit linked at the C-2 position of α -L-arabinopyranose can be α -L-rhamnopyranose, as in *M. polymorpha*, or β -D-glucopyranose as in *M. arabica* and *M. sativa*.

By contrast, in all the studied species of *Medicago*, saponins of medicagenic and zanhic acids are always characterized by the presence of β -D-glucopyranose or β -D-glucuronopyranose units as the first sugar in the 3-*O* position. The second monosaccharide β -D-glucopyranose, linked predominantly at the C-2 position, as in *M. arborea*, *M. hybrida* and *M. sativa*, or at the C-3 position, as in *M. truncatula* suggesting the presence of a specific glucosyltransferase in this species. Different sugar linkage positions were also detected in the 3-*O* disaccharide chain of *M. sativa*, in which the 1 \rightarrow 3 and 1 \rightarrow 4 linkage between the first and the second monosaccharide were found. Trisaccharides are predominantly 3-*O*- β -D-glucopyranosyl-(1 \rightarrow 2)- β -D-glucopyranosyl-(1 \rightarrow 2)- β -D-glucopyranosyl derivatives.

The C-28 glycosylated saponins showed the presence of the β -D-glucopyranose unit esterified at the carboxylic group, the disaccharide chain 28-*O*- β -D-glucopyranosyl-(1 \rightarrow 6)- β -D-glucopyranoside (only found in *M. polymorpha*), and chains with more than two sugars, always characterized by α -L-arabinopyranose, directly linked at the C-28, and an α -L-rhamnopyranose in the central position, linked (1 \rightarrow 4) with a β -D-xylopyranose. Branching points are formed by α -L-arabinopyranose or β -D-apiofuranose linked (1 \rightarrow 3) at the β -D-xylopyranose unit. These features are typical of saponins extracted from *M. arborea*, *M. sativa* and *M. truncatula* and suggest high enzymatic selectivity for the sugar position independent of the involved genin.

Table 6. Saponins identified in *M. sativa* leaves and roots.

Aglycone	3 OH substituted	28 COOH substituted	Ref.
Hederagenin	β -D-Glc(1 \rightarrow 2)- α -L-Ara	-	[13]
Hederagenin	β -D-Glc(1 \rightarrow 2)- α -L-Ara	β -D-Glc	[37]
Hederagenin	β -D-Glc(1 \rightarrow 2)- α -L-Ara	β -D-Glc	[27]
Hederagenin	β -D-Glc(1 \rightarrow 3)- β -D-Xyl	β -D-Glc	[37]
Hederagenin	α -L-Ara(1 \rightarrow 2)- β -D-Glc(1 \rightarrow 2)- α -L-Ara	-	[23]
Hederagenin	α -L-Ara(1 \rightarrow 2)- β -D-Glc(1 \rightarrow 2)- α -L-Ara	β -D-Glc	[24]
Bayogenin	β -D-Gal(1 \rightarrow 2)- β -D-GlcA	β -D-Glc	[39]
Medicagenic acid	-	β -D-Xyl(1 \rightarrow 4)- α -L-Rha(1 \rightarrow 2)- α -L-Ara	[34]
Medicagenic acid	β -D-Glc	-	[19]
Medicagenic acid	β -D-GlcA	-	[31]
Medicagenic acid	β -D-Glc	β -D-Glc	[22]
Medicagenic acid	β -D-Glc	α -L-Rha(1 \rightarrow 2)- α -L-Ara	[30]
Medicagenic acid	β -D-GlcA	α -L-Rha(1 \rightarrow 2)- α -L-Ara	[36]
Medicagenic acid	β -D-Glc	β -D-Xyl(1 \rightarrow 4)- α -L-Rha(1 \rightarrow 2)- α -L-Ara	[25]
Medicagenic acid	β -D-GlcA	β -D-Xyl(1 \rightarrow 4)- α -L-Rha(1 \rightarrow 2)- α -L-Ara	[31]
Medicagenic acid	β -D-GlcA Me ester	β -D-Xyl(1 \rightarrow 4)- α -L-Rha(1 \rightarrow 2)- α -L-Ara	[39]
Medicagenic acid	α -D-Glc(1 \rightarrow 4)- β -D-Glc	-	[29]
Medicagenic acid	β -D-Glc(1 \rightarrow 3)- β -D-Glc	β -D-Glc	[39]
Medicagenic acid	β -D-Gal(1 \rightarrow 2)- β -D-Glc	β -D-Glc	[27]
Medicagenic acid	β -D-Glc(1 \rightarrow 2)- β -D-Glc	β -D-Xyl(1 \rightarrow 4)- α -L-Rha(1 \rightarrow 2)- α -L-Ara	[27]
Medicagenic acid	α -L-Rha(1 \rightarrow 6)- β -D-GlcA(1 \rightarrow 2)- β -D-Glc	-	[20]
Medicagenic acid	β -D-Glc(1 \rightarrow 6)- β -D-Glc(1 \rightarrow 3)- β -D-Glc	-	[21]
Medicagenic acid	α -L-Rha(1 \rightarrow 2)- β -D-Glc(1 \rightarrow 2)- β -D-Glc	-	[39]
Medicagenic acid	α -L-Rha(1 \rightarrow 2)- β -D-Glc(1 \rightarrow 2)- β -D-Glc	β -D-Glc	[27]
Medicagenic acid	β -D-Glc(1 \rightarrow 2)- β -D-Glc(1 \rightarrow 2)- β -D-Glc	β -D-Glc	[39]
Medicagenic acid	β -D-Glc(1 \rightarrow 2)- β -D-Glc(1 \rightarrow 2)- β -D-Glc	β -D-Xyl(1 \rightarrow 4)- α -L-Rha(1 \rightarrow 2)- α -L-Ara	[39]
Medicagenic acid	β -D-Glc(1 \rightarrow 2)- β -D-Glc(1 \rightarrow 2)- β -D-Glc	β -D-Api(1 \rightarrow 3)-[β -D-Xyl(1 \rightarrow 4)]- α -L-Rha(1 \rightarrow 2)- α -L-Ara	[39]
Medicagenic acid	β -D-Glc(1 \rightarrow 2)-[α -L-Rha(1 \rightarrow 3)]- β -D-Glc(1 \rightarrow 2)- β -D-Glc	β -D-Glc	[32]
Medicagenic acid	Glc-malonyl	-	[40]
Medicagenic acid	Glc-malonyl	Glc	[40]
Zanhic acid	β -D-Glc(1 \rightarrow 2)- β -D-Glc(1 \rightarrow 2)- β -D-Glc	β -D-Xyl(1 \rightarrow 4)- α -L-Rha(1 \rightarrow 2)- α -L-Ara	[39]
Zanhic acid	β -D-Glc(1 \rightarrow 2)- β -D-Glc(1 \rightarrow 2)- β -D-Glc	β -D-Api(1 \rightarrow 3)-[β -D-Xyl(1 \rightarrow 4)]- α -L-Rha(1 \rightarrow 2)- α -L-Ara	[39]
Zanhic acid	β -D-Glc(1 \rightarrow 2)- β -D-Glc(1 \rightarrow 2)- β -D-Glc	β -D-Api(1 \rightarrow 3)- β -D-Xyl(1 \rightarrow 4)- α -L-Rha	[36]
Zanhic acid	β -D-Glc(1 \rightarrow 2)- β -D-Glc(1 \rightarrow 2)- β -D-Glc	23 COOH substituted: α -L-Ara β -D-Api(1 \rightarrow 3)- β -D-Xyl(1 \rightarrow 4)- α -L-Rha(1 \rightarrow 2)- α -L-Ara	[36]
Soyasapogenol A	α -L-Rha(1 \rightarrow 2)- β -D-Gal(1 \rightarrow 2)- β -D-GlcA	α -L-Rha	[39]
Soyasapogenol B	β -D-Glc(1 \rightarrow 2)- β -D-GlcA	-	[26]
Soyasapogenol B	α -L-Rha(1 \rightarrow 2)- β -D-Glu(1 \rightarrow 2)- β -D-GlcA	-	[26]
Soyasapogenol B	α -L-Rha(1 \rightarrow 2)- β -D-Gal(1 \rightarrow 2)- β -D-GlcA	-	[26]
Soyasapogenol E	α -L-Rha(1 \rightarrow 2)- β -D-Gal(1 \rightarrow 2)- β -D-GlcA	-	[26]
Soyasapogenol E	α -L-Rha(1 \rightarrow 2)- β -D-Gal(1 \rightarrow 2)- β -D-GlcA	22- <i>O</i> -maltol	[35]

A very interesting structural feature of these substances, is the presence of an aldehyde group at the C-23 position in 2 β ,3 β -dihydroxy-23-oxo-olean-12-en-28-oic acid (Figure 1), a new aglycone of saponins from *M. arborea* and *M. hybrida*. This metabolite might in fact represent an interesting

biosynthetic intermediate in the oxidative steps that lead from a methyl group to the corresponding carboxylic acid [1, 75]. That is, if we consider the following genins found in the genus *Medicago*: 2 β -hydroxyoleanolic acid, bayogenin, 2 β ,3 β -dihydroxy-23-oxo-olean-12-en-28-oic acid and medicagenic

Table 7: Saponins identified in *M. truncatula* leaves and roots.

Aglycone	3 OH substituted	28 COOH substituted	Ref.
Hederagenin	GlcA	-	[40]
Hederagenin	Glc-Ara	Glc	[40]
Medicagenic acid	Glc	-	[40]
Medicagenic acid	Glc-malonyl	-	[40]
Medicagenic acid	Glc-Glc	-	[40]
Medicagenic acid	Glc	Glc	[40]
Medicagenic acid	Glc-malonyl	Glc	[40]
Medicagenic acid	β -GlcA	β -Glc	[44]
Medicagenic acid	β -Glc	β -Xyl(1 \rightarrow 4)- α -Rha(1 \rightarrow 2)- α -Ara	[42, 44]
Medicagenic acid	β -GlcA	β -Xyl(1 \rightarrow 4)- α -Rha(1 \rightarrow 2)- α -Ara	[42, 44]
Medicagenic acid	β -Glc(1 \rightarrow 3)- β -Glc	α -Rha(1 \rightarrow 2)- α -Ara	[44]
Medicagenic acid	β -Glc(1 \rightarrow 3)- β -Glc	β -Xyl(1 \rightarrow 4)- α -Rha(1 \rightarrow 2)- α -Ara	[44]
Medicagenic acid	β -Glc(1 \rightarrow 3)- β -Glc	α -Ara(1 \rightarrow 3)-[β -Xyl(1 \rightarrow 4)]- α -Rha(1 \rightarrow 2)- α -Ara	[44]
Medicagenic acid	β -Glc(1 \rightarrow 3)- β -Glc	β -Api-(1 \rightarrow 3)-[β -Xyl(1 \rightarrow 4)]- α -Rha(1 \rightarrow 2)- α -Ara	[44]
Zanhic acid	β -Glc	β -Xyl(1 \rightarrow 4)- α -Rha(1 \rightarrow 2)- α -Ara	[44]
Zanhic acid	β -Glc(1 \rightarrow 3)- β -Glc	α -Rha(1 \rightarrow 2)- α -Ara	[44]
Zanhic acid	β -Glc(1 \rightarrow 3)- β -Glc	α -Rha[4-Ac](1 \rightarrow 2)- α -Ara	[44]
Zanhic acid	β -Glc(1 \rightarrow 3)- β -Glc	β -Xyl(1 \rightarrow 4)- α -Rha(1 \rightarrow 2)- α -Ara	[44]
Zanhic acid	β -Glc(1 \rightarrow 3)- β -Glc	α -Ara(1 \rightarrow 3)- α -Rha(1 \rightarrow 2)- α -Ara	[44]
Zanhic acid	β -Glc(1 \rightarrow 3)- β -Glc	β -Api(1 \rightarrow 3)- α -Rha(1 \rightarrow 2)- α -Ara	[44]
Zanhic acid	β -Glc(1 \rightarrow 3)- β -Glc	α -Ara(1 \rightarrow 3)-[β -Xyl(1 \rightarrow 4)]- α -Rha(1 \rightarrow 2)- α -Ara	[44]
Zanhic acid	β -Glc(1 \rightarrow 3)- β -Glc	β -Api-(1 \rightarrow 3)-[β -Xyl(1 \rightarrow 4)]- α -Rha(1 \rightarrow 2)- α -Ara	[44]
Zanhic acid	Glc-Glc-Glc	Xyl-Rha-Ara, 23 COOH substituted: Ara	[42]
Zanhic acid	Glc-Glc-Glc	Api-Xyl-Rha-Ara, 23 COOH substituted: Ara	[42]
Soyasapogenol B	α -Rha(1 \rightarrow 2)- β -Gal(1 \rightarrow 2)- β -GlcA	-	[40, 43]
Soyasapogenol B	α -Rha(1 \rightarrow 2)- β -Xyl(1 \rightarrow 2)- β -GlcA	-	[43]
Soyasapogenol E	α -Rha(1 \rightarrow 2)- β -Gal(1 \rightarrow 2)- β -GlcA	-	[40, 43]

acid, all the oxidative products at C-23 can be observed. The above genins all possess the same stereochemistry (2 β ,3 β) in the hydroxylated triterpene carbons with the different functional groups at the C-23 position. The presence of an aldehyde group in 2 β ,3 β -dihydroxy-23-oxo-olean-12-en-28-oic acid, identified for the first time in *Medicago* spp, indicates a possible biosynthetic pathway for the sapogenins of this genus. Accordingly, medicagenic acid may originate from bayogenin by subsequent oxidative enzymatic steps involving the formation of 2 β ,3 β -dihydroxy-23-oxo-olean-12-en-28-oic acid while bayogenin may originate by a selective oxidative demethylation at C-23 from 2 β -hydroxyoleanolic acid. In a similar way, the two 16 α -hydroxy triterpenes found in this genus, caulophyllogenin and zanhic acid (Figure 1) probably originate by enzymatic oxidation of hederagenin and medicagenic acid, respectively. The biosynthesis of these compounds in the genus *Medicago* has never been extensively investigated, and only a few papers have been published [76-78].

Saponin extracts as well as purified saponins from selected species of *Medicago* have different biological properties [10-14]. Their antimicrobial, insecticidal, allelopathic and cytotoxic effects are described below. The influence of saponins on animal metabolism is also reviewed.

Antimicrobial activity

Saponins are likely to be implicated in plant defense mechanisms against microbial or fungal infections. In some plants wounding of tissues in response to a pathogenic attack causes the hydrolysis of saponins to derivatives with strong antibiotic activity [79, 80]. On the other hand, resistance to infestation by certain fungi in plants such as oat is associated with the specific presence of saponins (e.g. avenacins). Nevertheless, antifungal efficacy of saponins has been demonstrated *in vitro* for a number of plant species [2, 7, 79, 81] but little data is available on their antibacterial activity [2].

A compilation of microorganisms used to assess antifungal and antibacterial activity of saponins from *Medicago* spp. is reported in Table 8. Data derive from incubation of *Medicago* dry meals, saponin extracts and purified saponins from different species and plant organs.

Antifungal efficacy of *Medicago* has been primarily studied with the model fungus *Trichoderma viride* [10, 29, 31, 63, 65, 82-85] which appeared particularly sensitive to the presence of saponins in the growth medium. A bioassay to determine the content of saponins in the plant was developed [58] based on saponin toxicity towards this fungus. Growth of *T. viride* was in fact found inversely correlated with the amount of *Medicago* saponins in the incubation medium thus representing a useful index to evaluate the total percentage of these metabolites.

As described (Table 8), saponins from *Medicago* have been assayed *in vitro* against phytopathogenic species and their activity well established not only against specific pathogens of *Medicago*, but also against some fungi generally pathogenic to cereals [10, 14, 28, 31, 65, 85-95]. A higher antifungal activity was found for the saponins from the roots than from the aerial parts of *M. sativa* [92, 93, 95]. Furthermore, assays with purified saponins from the same species [93] indicated that the growth of the two pathogens *Botrytis tulipae* and *Phloma narcissi* was mostly affected by the following compounds: medicagenic acid; 3-*O*- β -D-glucopyranosyl-medicagenic acid; 3-*O*- β -D-glucopyranosyl-28-*O*-[β -D-xylopyranosyl(1 \rightarrow 4)- α -L-rhamopyranosyl(1 \rightarrow 2)- α -L-arabinopyranoside] medicagenic acid and 3-*O*- β -D-glucuronopyranosyl-28-*O*-[β -D-xylopyranosyl(1 \rightarrow 4)- α -L-rhamopyranosyl(1 \rightarrow 2)- α -L-arabinopyranoside] medicagenic acid. The screening of saponin extracts from several *Medicago* spp. has shown that *M. arabica* possesses antifungal efficacy several times higher than that of *M. sativa* [95] and the most sensitive pathogens were *Rhizoctonia solani*, *B. tulipae*, *P. narcissi*, *Fusarium oxysporium* ssp. *tulipae* and *Pestalotia* ssp.

Besides their phytopathogenic potential the antimicrobial activity of saponins from *Medicago* against human pathogens has also been investigated [14, 96-104]. Preliminary studies have concerned the effect against some yeasts and dermatophytes of a gluco derivative of medicagenic acid named G2 and later identified as 3-*O*- β -D-glucopyranosyl-

medicagenic acid. The compound was found to be particularly effective against *Cryptococcus neoformans* with an MFC of 4 μ g/mL [2, 7, 79, 80]. More recent investigations [104] on dermatophytes have shown that *Trichophyton interdigitale* and *Microsporium gypseum* were susceptible to *Medicago* saponins especially to glycosides of medicagenic acid, such as 3-*O*- β -glucopyranoside (MIC < 62.5 μ g/mL) the most bioactive phytochemical.

The study of the antifungal activity of saponins from *M. sativa*, *M. arborea* and *M. arabica* against a selection of medically important yeasts (*Candida albicans*, *C. tropicalis*, *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*, *Cryptococcus laurentii* and *Blastomyces capitatus*) [103] has shown that *S. cerevisiae* was the most susceptible, being highly inhibited when treated with the sapogenin mixtures from the aerial parts of the three different species of *Medicago* (MICs of 125, 62.5 and 175 μ g/mL for *M. sativa*, *M. arabica* and *M. arborea*, respectively). A very low MIC value (42.5 μ g/mL) was observed when the same strain was treated with medicagenic acid, which represents the dominant aglycone found in *M. sativa* (50%) and *M. arborea* (30%) aerial organs. Medicagenic acid also inhibited the two mycetes *C. tropicalis* and *B. capitatus*, with an MIC of 125 μ g/mL.

Although strongly antifungal, saponins are reported to have only weak or no growth inhibitorial effects against bacteria [80]. To the best of our knowledge only one investigation has been carried out to evaluate the antibacterial activity of saponins from *Medicago* species and they were found not very active (MICs > 500 μ g/mL) against Gram negative bacteria [103]. Nevertheless, they displayed some efficacy against selected Gram positive bacteria [103]. In particular, sapogenins obtained on acid hydrolysis of saponins from *M. arabica* aerial parts and roots were the most effective, showing good growth inhibitorial activity towards three different strains of *S. aureus*, two strains of *E. faecalis*, and against *B. subtilis* and *B. cereus* (Table 8). *In vitro* antibacterial assays with purified aglycones from *Medicago* saponins showed that medicagenic acid had significant activity against *S. aureus* (MIC 52.5 μ g/mL) and two strains of *E. faecalis* (MICs 50 and 32.5 μ g/mL)

The *in vitro* effects of some saponins from *M. sativa* on rhizosphere bacteria suspension, showed that 3-*O*- β -D-glucopyranosylmedicagenic acid sodium salt

Table 8: Overview of antimicrobial studies with saponins from *Medicago* spp.

Saponin source	Microorganisms	Ref.
a) Phytopathogenic fungi		
<i>M. sativa</i> leaves Total saponins	<i>Fusarium oxysporum</i> , <i>F. solani</i> , <i>Phytophthora drechsleri</i> <i>Phoma</i> sp., <i>Rhizoctonia solani</i> , <i>Verticillium albo-atrum</i>	[65]
<i>M. sativa</i> tops <i>M. sativa</i> roots Total saponins	<i>Alternaria solani</i> <i>Pytium myriotylum</i> <i>P. butleri</i> , <i>P. sp. PRL2142</i> , <i>Sclerotium rolfsii</i>	[86, 87]
<i>M. sativa</i> roots Total extract Total saponins Saponin sugars Sapogenins	<i>Rhizoctonia solani</i>	[88]
<i>M. sativa</i> roots 3- <i>O</i> - β -D-Glc Medicagenic acid	<i>Aspergillus niger</i> , <i>Fusarium oxysporum</i> sp. <i>Lycopersici</i> , <i>Phytophthora cinnamommi</i> , <i>Rhizopus mucco</i> , <i>Sclerotium rolfsii</i>	[82]
<i>M. sativa</i> roots 3- <i>O</i> -[α -D-Glc(1 \rightarrow 4)- β -D-Glc] Medicagenic acid (Medicagenic acid β -maltoside)	<i>Aspergillus niger</i> <i>Fusarium oxysporum</i> sp. <i>Lycopersici</i> , <i>Phytium aphanidermatum</i> , <i>Rhizoctonia solani</i> , <i>Sclerotium rolfsii</i>	[29]
<i>M. sativa</i> roots Compound G2 (3- <i>O</i> - β -D-Glc Medicagenic acid)	<i>Aspergillus niger</i> <i>Fusarium oxysporum</i> , <i>Geotrichum candidum</i> <i>Phytium aphanidermatum</i> , <i>Phytophthora cinnamommi</i> <i>Rhizoctonia solani</i> , <i>Rhizopus mucco</i> , <i>Sclerotium rolfsii</i>	[14]
Meal from aerial parts of: <i>M. arabica</i> , <i>M. dolata</i> , <i>M. heyneana</i> , <i>M. murex</i> , <i>M. sativa</i>	<i>Cephalosporium gramineum</i>	[89, 91, 94]
Total saponins from aerial parts of: <i>M. arabica</i> , <i>M. heyneana</i> , <i>M. murex</i> , <i>M. polymorpha</i> , <i>M. sativa</i>		
<i>M. sativa</i> roots Total saponins Total prosapogenins 3- <i>O</i> - β -D-Glc Medicagenic acid Medicagenic acid		
Meal from aerial parts of: <i>M. arabica</i> , <i>M. dolata</i> , <i>M. heyneana</i> , <i>M. murex</i> , <i>M. sativa</i>	<i>Gaeumannomyces graminis</i> v. <i>tritici</i>	[90, 91]
<i>M. sativa</i> roots Total saponins Total prosapogenins 3- <i>O</i> - β -D-Glc Medicagenic acid Medicagenic acid		
<i>M. sativa</i> aerial parts <i>M. sativa</i> roots Total saponins	<i>Alternaria zinniae</i> , <i>Botrytis cinerea</i> , <i>B. tulipae</i> , <i>Phoma narcissi</i> , <i>P. poolensis</i> , <i>Rhizoctonia solani</i>	[92]
<i>M. sativa</i> leaves and roots 3- <i>O</i> -[α -L-Ara(1 \rightarrow 2)- β -D-Glc(1 \rightarrow 2)- α -L-Ara]-28- <i>O</i> - β -D-Glc Hederagenin 3- <i>O</i> - β -D-Glc Medicagenic acid 3- <i>O</i> - β -D-Glc-28- <i>O</i> - β -D-Glc Medicagenic acid 3- <i>O</i> - β -D-Glc-28- <i>O</i> -[β -D-Xyl(1 \rightarrow 4)- α -L-Rha(1 \rightarrow 2)- α -L-Ara] Medicagenic acid 3- <i>O</i> - β -D-GlcAc-28- <i>O</i> -[β -D-Xyl(1 \rightarrow 4)- α -L-Rha(1 \rightarrow 2)- α -L-Ara] Medicagenic acid 3- <i>O</i> -[β -D-Glc(1 \rightarrow 2)- β -D-Glc(1 \rightarrow 2)- β -D-Glc]-23- α -L-Ara-28- <i>O</i> - [β -D-Api(1 \rightarrow 3)- β -D-Xyl(1 \rightarrow 4)- α -L-Rha(1 \rightarrow 2)- α -L-Ara] Zanhic acid Soyasaponin I Hederagenin, Medicagenic acid, Soyasapogenol B	<i>Botrytis tulipae</i> <i>Phoma narcissi</i>	[93]

Table 8 (Contd.)

<i>M. arabica</i> shoots Total saponins	<i>Alternaria tenui</i> , <i>Botrytis cinerea</i> , <i>B. tulipae</i> , <i>Fusarium oxysporium</i> sp. <i>Callistephi</i> , <i>F. oxysporium</i> sp. <i>Narcissi</i> , <i>F. oxysporium</i> sp. <i>Tulipae</i> , <i>Pestalotia ssp.</i> , <i>Phoma narcissi</i> , <i>P. poolensis</i> , <i>Pythium ultimum</i> , <i>Rhizoctonia solani</i> , <i>Stangospora curtisii</i>	[95]
<i>M. sativa</i> Compound G2 (3- <i>O</i> - β -D-Glc Medicagenic acid)	b) Human pathogenic fungi <i>Candida albicans</i> , <i>C. guilliermondii</i> , <i>C. krusei</i> , <i>C. parapsilopsis</i> , <i>C. pseudotropicalis</i> , <i>C. tropicalis</i> , <i>Cryptococcus neoformans</i> , <i>Epidermophyton floccosum</i> , <i>Geotrichum candidum</i> , <i>Microsporium canis</i> , <i>Rhodotorula glutinis</i> , <i>Torulopsis candida</i> , <i>T. glabrata</i> , <i>Trycophyton mentagrophytes</i> , <i>T. mentagrophytes</i> var. <i>granulare</i> , <i>Trichopyton rubrum</i> , <i>T. tonsurans</i>	[14, 96-100]
3- <i>O</i> - β -D-Glc Medicagenic acid	<i>Scopulariopsis brevicaulis</i> , <i>Trycophyton mentagrophytes</i>	[101, 102]
<i>M. arabica</i> tops Total saponins, Sapogenins, Bayogenin	<i>Blastomyces capitatus</i> , <i>Candida albicans</i> , <i>C. tropicalis</i> , <i>Cryptococcus laurentii</i> , <i>Saccharomyces cerevisiae</i>	[103]
<i>M. arabica</i> roots Total saponins, Sapogenins		
<i>M. arborea</i> tops Total saponins, Prosapogenins, Sapogenins		
<i>M. sativa</i> tops Total saponins, Prosapogenins, Sapogenins Medicagenic acid, Hederagenin		
<i>M. sativa</i> roots Total saponins, Sapogenins		
<i>Medicago</i> sp. 3- <i>O</i> - α -L-Ara-Hederagenin 3- <i>O</i> -[α -L-Ara(1 \rightarrow 2)- β -D-Glc(1 \rightarrow 2)- α -L-Ara]-Hederagenin 3- <i>O</i> - β -D-Glc-Medicagenic acid 3- <i>O</i> - β -D-Glc-28- <i>O</i> - β -D-Glc-Medicagenic acid 3- <i>O</i> - β -D-GlcAc-28- <i>O</i> - β -D-Glc-Medicagenic acid 3- <i>O</i> -[β -D-Glc(1 \rightarrow 2)- β -D-Glc]-28- <i>O</i> - β -D-Glu-Medicagenic acid 3- <i>O</i> - β -D-Glc-28- <i>O</i> -[β -D-Xyl(1 \rightarrow 4)- α -L-Rha(1 \rightarrow 2)- α -L-Ara]-Medicagenic acid 3- <i>O</i> - β -D-GlcAc-28- <i>O</i> -[β -D-Xyl(1 \rightarrow 4)- α -L-Rha(1 \rightarrow 2)- α -L-Ara]-Medicagenic acid 3- <i>O</i> -[β -D-Glc(1 \rightarrow 2)- β -D-Glc]-28- <i>O</i> -[β -D-Xyl(1 \rightarrow 4)- α -L-Rha(1 \rightarrow 2)- α -L-Ara]-Medicagenic acid 3- <i>O</i> -[β -D-Glc(1 \rightarrow 2)- β -D-Glc(1 \rightarrow 2)- β -D-Glc]-28- <i>O</i> -[β -D-Xyl(1 \rightarrow 4)- α -L-Rha(1 \rightarrow 2)- α -L-Ara]-Zanhic acid Soyasaponin I Hederagenin, Medicagenic acid	<i>Microsporium gypseum</i> , <i>Trichophyton interdigitale</i>	[104]
<i>M. arabica</i> tops Total saponins, Sapogenins, Bayogenin	c) Bacteria <i>Acinebacter baumannii</i> , <i>Bacillus subtilis</i> , <i>B. cereus</i> , <i>Enterococcus faecalis</i> , <i>Escherichia coli</i> , <i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i> , <i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>	[103]
<i>M. arabica</i> roots Total saponins, Sapogenins, Hederagenin		
<i>M. sativa</i> roots Total saponins, Sapogenins		
<i>M. arborea</i> tops Total saponins, Prosapogenins, Sapogenins		
<i>M. sativa</i> tops Total saponins, Prosapogenins, Sapogenins, Medicagenic acid		
<i>M. sativa</i> 3- <i>O</i> - β -D-Glc-28- <i>O</i> - β -D-Glc Medicagenic acid Soyasaponin I 3- <i>O</i> - β -D-Glc Medicagenic acid Na ⁺ salt Medicagenic acid Na ⁺ salt	d) Soil Bacteria <i>Agrobacterium tumefaciens</i> , <i>Bacillus thuringiensis</i> , <i>Curtobacterium flacumafaciens</i> , <i>Pseudomonas fluorescens</i>	[105]

Table 8 (Contd.)

		e) Others
Total saponins from aerial parts of:		<i>Trichoderma viride</i> [10, 29, 31, 51, 63, 65, 82-85]
<i>M. aculeata</i> , <i>M. arabica</i> , <i>M. blancheana</i> , <i>M. carstiensis</i>		
<i>M. ciliaris</i> , <i>M. coerulea</i> , <i>M. coronata</i> , <i>M. disciformis</i>		
<i>M. doliata</i> , <i>M. falcata</i> , <i>M. glutinosa</i> , <i>M. granadensis</i>		
<i>M. hemicycla</i> , <i>M. heyniana</i> , <i>M. hybrida</i> , <i>M. intertexta</i>		
<i>M. laciniata</i> , <i>M. lupulina</i> , <i>M. minima</i> , <i>M. murex</i>		
<i>M. muricoleptis</i> , <i>M. noeana</i> , <i>M. orbicularis</i> , <i>M. polyceratia</i>		
<i>M. polymorpha</i> , <i>M. praecox</i> , <i>M. radiata</i> , <i>M. rigidula</i>		
<i>M. rotata</i> , <i>M. rugosa</i> , <i>M. sativa</i> , <i>M. sauvagei</i> , <i>M. scutellata</i>		
<i>M. soleirolii</i> , <i>M. tornata</i> , <i>M. turbinata</i> , <i>M. truncatula</i>		
<i>M. sativa</i> roots		
Total saponins		
3- <i>O</i> -[α -L-Ara(1 \rightarrow 2)- β -D-Glc(1 \rightarrow 2)- α -L-Ara] Hederagenin		
3- <i>O</i> - β -D-Glc Medicagenic acid		
3- <i>O</i> - β -D-GlcAc Medicagenic acid		
3- <i>O</i> -[α -D-Glc-(1 \rightarrow 4)- β -D-Glc] Medicagenic acid (Medicagenic acid β -maltoside)		
3- <i>O</i> - β -D-Glc-28- <i>O</i> - β -D-Glc-Medicagenic acid		
3- <i>O</i> - β -D-Glc-28- <i>O</i> -[β -D-Xyl(1 \rightarrow 4)- α -L-Rha(1 \rightarrow 2)- α -L-Ara] Medicagenic acid		
3- <i>O</i> - β -D-GlcAc-28- <i>O</i> -[β -D-Xyl(1 \rightarrow 4)- α -L-Rha(1 \rightarrow 2)- α -L-Ara] Medicagenic acid		
3- <i>O</i> -[β -D-Glc(1 \rightarrow 2)- β -D-Glc]-28- <i>O</i> -[β -D-Xyl(1 \rightarrow 4)- α -L-Rha(1 \rightarrow 2)- α -L-Ara] Medicagenic acid		
<i>M. lupulina</i> roots		
3- <i>O</i> - β -D-Glc Medicagenic acid		
3- <i>O</i> - β -D-Glc-28- <i>O</i> - β -D-Glc Medicagenic acid		
Medicagenic acid		

could negatively affect them and, could negatively affect them and, in most cases, its activity corresponded to that of the corresponding aglycone, medicagenic acid disodium salt [105].

Investigations on the structure-activity relationships of *Medicago* saponins have led to contrasting results [11, 86, 106]. The number, kind and sequence of the sugar residues in the molecules have been differently correlated with their antimicrobial effects. A detailed study on the activity of different saponins from alfalfa roots against *T. viride* indicated that the monodesmoside derivatives of medicagenic acid were more active than the related bidesmosides, even though no straight correlation between the number of sugars in the molecule and its bioactivity could be established [31]. Moreover, the antifungal activity of medicagenic acid and its derivatives were reported as dependent on the presence of functional groups, such as carboxy and hydroxy in the molecule. In some studies, reduction of bioactivity was related to the presence of a sugar moiety at the 28-*O*-position of the saponin [11, 86, 106].

Bioassays with saponins from *Medicago* sp. against human pathogenic fungi and bacteria indicated that

the sugar moieties are not required for antimicrobial activity [103]. This study proved that saponin were more active than the related prosaponin and saponins.

Insecticidal activity

Toxicity of saponins to insects is known, and it has been suggested that they might also provide plant protection from insect predation [107]. To support this hypothesis, the herbivore-induced response of alfalfa was recently examined through assays with *Spodoptera littoralis* larvae, and it was observed that the levels of total saponins increases in the young foliage of damaged plants [108].

Several works on the insecticidal and antifedant properties of saponins against several classes of insects have been published [109, 110]. A list of saponin source and related insects and pests on which they have been tested, is reported in Table 9. Saponins from alfalfa roots and shoots were reported to be active against the peach aphid (*Myzus persicae*) [109], and found to be toxic to the larvae of the grass grub (*Costelytra zealandica*) [111]. Several species of locusts have shown increasing mortality when fed

on alfalfa; their larvae developed more slowly and the emerging adults were smaller than when they were fed saponin-free herbage [109]. Alfalfa root saponins, rich in medicagenic acid, are toxic to the flour beetle (*Tribolium castaneum*) and their toxicity increased when some of the sugars were removed by hydrolysis [109]. On the contrary, it has been described that several alfalfa pests, such as alfalfa weevil (*Hypera postica*), spotted aphid (*Tereopaphid maculata*), clover root curculio (*Stona hispidulus*), and seed chalcid (*Bruchophagus roddi*) are hardly affected by a saponin-rich diet, suggesting that they have evolved strategies to overcome the toxicity of the saponins of the plant on which they prey [109].

Crude mixtures and purified saponins from alfalfa leaves were tested against potato leafhopper (*Empoasca fabae* Harris) and pea aphid (*Acyrtosiphon pisum* Harris). Larvae were fed with a diet containing 0.01-5.0% saponins for a few days. An increase of mortality was observed for all the tested organisms, in particular for those fed on saponins containing medicagenic acid [112].

Saponins extracted from the leaves of 41 alfalfa varieties, with a different content of saponins and sapogenins, were assayed *in vitro* against larvae of the yellow mealworm (*Tenebrio molitor* L.). Results showed a good correlation between larvae mortality and saponin concentration so this biological assay was proposed to detect alfalfa saponins in plant material [66, 113].

Alfalfa saponin mixtures also have been tested against the summer fruit tortrix moth (*Adoxophyes orana* F.v.R.), the European grape moth (*Lobesia botrana* Den. & Schiff.) and the European corn borer (*Ostrinia nubilalis* Hb.). The increasing amount of saponins added to the diet (from 1 to 1000 ppm) increased larval mortality from 11.3% at 1 ppm to 46.1% at 1000 ppm. The contact effect accounted for a maximum of 22.7% mortality. No appreciable differences were detected in the insecticidal activity exerted by crude saponins derived from alfalfa leaves and roots [12].

Saponins isolated from the aerial parts of alfalfa were tested against the Colorado potato beetle (*Leptinotarsa decemlineata* Say). Larvae were fed on potato leaves sprayed with 0.5 and 1% saponin solutions; no repellent effects were observed for any of the tested compounds, but insect feeding proved to be less intense on saponin-treated leaves. The larvae

fed on saponin treated leaves had the lowest body weight gain, suggesting the antifeedant activity of the compounds. The insect mortality from eating saponin-treated leaves was 100% at both tested concentrations [114]. Other experiments showed that the larvae of Colorado potato beetles reared on potato leaves treated with a 0.5% solution of total saponins from *M. sativa* roots and tops, died after 4-6 days because of fasting. Lower saponin doses (from 0.1 to 0.001%) reduced the insect feeding less causing an inhibition in growth and an extension of the larval stage. Mortality was reached at a level of 76.7-100%. No evident differences have been found in saponin activity from the tops or the roots of alfalfa [115].

The Colorado potato beetle was also used to differentiate insecticidal activity of saponins from *M. arabica*, *M. hybrida* and *M. murex* roots and tops. Total saponins were included in the insect diet as a solution applied on potato leaves on which larvae were reared. All saponins reduced larval feeding, growth rate and mortality in a dose dependant manner. All the saponins showed a high insecticidal activity at the concentration of 0.5%. Saponins from *M. murex* roots and from *M. arabica* and *M. hybrida* aerial parts were found to be the most active, probably due to the differences in their saponin composition [116].

Crude alfalfa root saponins, their prosapogenins produced by alkaline hydrolysis, and medicagenic acid sodium salt, were tested in field trials against spider mite (*Tetranychus urticae* Koch.) and hop aphid (*Phoron humuli* Schrank). Plants were sprayed with a 0.1 and 0.2% solution of saponin products. Prosapogenins were the most active against both phytophages, while crude saponins and medicagenic acid sodium salt were less active [117].

Dried alfalfa leaf and root tissues incorporated in an artificial diet to give the final saponin concentration of 0.1, 0.5 or 1.6% mg/g fresh weight, a cholesterol-precipitable saponin fraction from the plant leaves and a total saponin mixture from the roots were used to evaluate their toxic potential against the polyphagous insect european corn borer. The growth and development of larvae were significantly inhibited after feeding. Root saponins were somewhat more harmful than saponins from the tops [118].

Total saponins from *M. sativa* roots and leaves and individual saponins and sapogenins were tested on a polyphagous pest, the army-worm *Spodoptera*

Table 9: List of pests and insects used to evaluate the insecticidal activity of saponins from the *Medicago* spp.

Saponin source	Insect	Ref.
<i>M. sativa</i> tops	Grass grub (<i>Costelytra zealandica</i>)	[111]
Total saponins	Pea aphid (<i>Acyrtosiphon pisum</i> Harris)	[112]
	Potato leafhopper (<i>Empoasca fabae</i> Harris)	
	Yellow mealworm (<i>Tenebrio molitor</i>)	[66, 113]
	Colorado potato beetle (<i>Leptinotarsa decemlineata</i> Say)	[114]
<i>M. sativa</i> tops	Alfalfa weevie (<i>Hypera postica</i>)	
<i>M. sativa</i> roots	Clover root curculio (<i>Stona hispidulus</i>)	[109]
Total saponins	Flour beetle (<i>Tribolium castaneum</i>)	
	Peach aphid (<i>Myrus persicae</i>)	
	Seed chalcid (<i>Bruchophagus rodoli</i>)	
	Spotted aphid (<i>Thereoaphid maculata</i>)	
	Several species of locusts	
	European corner borer (<i>Ostrinia nubilalis</i> Hb.)	[12]
	European grape moth (<i>Lobesia botrana</i> Den. & Schiff.)	
	Summer fruit tortrix moth (<i>Adoxophyes orana</i> F.v.R.)	
	Colorado potato beetle (<i>Leptinotarsa decemlineata</i> Say)	[115]
<i>M. arabica</i> tops	Colorado potato beetle (<i>Leptinotarsa decemlineata</i> Say)	[116]
<i>M. arabica</i> roots		
Total saponins		
<i>M. hybrida</i> tops		
<i>M. hybrida</i> roots		
Total saponins		
<i>M. murex</i> tops		
<i>M. murex</i> roots		
Total saponins		
<i>M. sativa</i> roots	Hop aphid (<i>Phoron humuli</i> Schrank)	[117]
Total saponins	Spider mite (<i>Tetranychus urticae</i> Koch.)	
Prosapogenins		
Medicagenic acid Na ⁺ salt		
<i>M. sativa</i> tops	European corner borer (<i>Ostrinia nubilalis</i> Hb.)	[118]
Total saponins		
Cholesterol-precipitable saponins		
<i>M. sativa</i> roots		
Total saponins		
<i>M. sativa</i>	Army-warm (<i>Spodoptera littoralis</i> Boisd.)	[119]
3- <i>O</i> - β -D-Glc-28- <i>O</i> -[α -L-Ara(1 \rightarrow 2)- β -D-Glc(1 \rightarrow 2)- α -L-Ara]		
Hederagenin		
3- <i>O</i> - β -D-Glc Medicagenic acid		
3- <i>O</i> - β -D-Glc-28- <i>O</i> - β -D-Glc Medicagenic acid		
3- <i>O</i> - β -D-Glc-28- <i>O</i> -[β -D-Xyl(1 \rightarrow 4)- α -L-Rha(1 \rightarrow 2)- α -L-Ara]		
Medicagenic acid		
3- <i>O</i> - β -D-GlcAc-28- <i>O</i> -[β -D-Xyl(1 \rightarrow 4)- α -L-Rha(1 \rightarrow 2)- α -L-Ara]		
Medicagenic acid		
Soyasaponin I,		
Hederagenin, Medicagenic acid, Soyasapogenol A,		
Soyasapogenol B, Soyasapogenol E,		
3- <i>O</i> - β -D-Glc Medicagenic acid Na ⁺ salt		
3- <i>O</i> - β -D-Glc-28- <i>O</i> - β -D-Glc Medicagenic acid Na ⁺ salt		
Soyasaponin I Na ⁺ salt, Medicagenic acid Na ⁺ salt		

littoralis. Total saponins (1, 10 and 100 ppm) and a series of pure saponins (10 ppm) and sapogenins (20 ppm) were given in the food and their effects examined during larval development as well as in the resulting pupae and adults. At 1 ppm, root saponins caused a nearly 70% mortality and the emerged

females exhibited about 60% fertility reduction. Total saponins from the aerial parts were less active, although the increase of mortality and the reduction of fecundity were significant. All the pure saponins lowered the food consumption and reduced the larval growth rate although to a different extent. Aglycones

influenced the larval development in a similar way, medicagenic acid was found to be the most active, hederagenin and soyasapogenols A and B exhibited only moderate activity, while soyasapogenol E was inactive. Medicagenic acid sodium salt and its 3-*O*- β -D-glucopyranosyl and medicagenic acid 3-*O*- β -D-glucopyranosyl-28-*O*- β -D-glucopyranoside derivatives were the most active substances. Additionally, all the tested α -L-arabinopyranosyl glycosides were inactive, while the corresponding aglycones or glycosides were active. Based on those results it has been suggested that glycosylated saponins are bioactive only when they are hydrolyzed by insect gut glycosidases and release an active aglycone; complex glycosides containing arabinopyranosyl units apparently resist the action of the enzymes [119].

The spraying of winter wheat with different saponin concentrations at various phenological phases had no negative effects on growth parameters, grain yield and quality of wheat flour. Results indicated that saponins (0.01-0.1%) can be applied on a wheat crop as fungicides or insecticides [120].

Allelopathic effects

Alfalfa, as other forage legumes, has the reputation as an important rotation crop to improve nitrogen availability in the soil. In some cases the increase of nitrogen by *Medicago* does not correspond to an increase of grain yield in the succeeding rotated crop, suggesting that some factors might interfere with the utilization of nitrogen. This effect has been experimentally correlated with the presence, in alfalfa plant material, of saponins which display allelopathic activity [11, 13, 121-124].

The role of alfalfa saponins as allelopathic agents was first reported in 1955 by Mishutin and Naumova [125] who observed that growth of cotton was influenced by the use of alfalfa as a rotation crop. Detrimental effects on cotton-seed germination was also shown in *in vitro* assays with alfalfa saponins. Later investigations have shown that saponins from various species of *Medicago* act as allelochemicals, some with a defined specificity towards different plants [126-130]. The allelopathic potential of medicagenic acid glycosides has been noted. Depending on their concentration they may function as plant growth inhibitors (high concentrations) or

stimulators (low concentrations) [121, 129, 130]. They also inhibit the growth of several weeds and cereals [11, 13, 121, 128-130]: elongation of roots and shoots of *Bromus secalimus* and *Echinochloa crus-galli* was inhibited by 10 ppm saponin (19-11 and 28-17%, respectively), while growth of wheat roots was 50% reduced at the concentration of 100 ppm compared to the control [129, 130]. Other saponins such as soyasapogenol B and hederagenin glycosides were in general found less active as growth inhibitors than medicagenic acid derivatives [121, 129].

The different allelopathic potential of *Medicago* species was related to their different content of saponins. Thus, for example, saponins (medicagenic and soyasapogenol glycosides) isolated from the seeds of *M. lupulina* were able to inhibit the growth of the cereals oat, barley, wheat and rye, whereas saponins from the seeds of *M. sativa* (containing only soyasapogenol glycosides) had no effects on wheat and rye development, but only on that of barley and oat [121, 129]. The use of plant material of various physiological ages indicated that alfalfa at immature stages is more phytotoxic since it likely contains higher amounts of allelochemicals [126].

Soil texture also was found to influence the inhibitory activity of alfalfa saponins [121, 127]. In a detailed study it has been in fact shown that finely powdered alfalfa roots in sandy soil causes a more pronounced detrimental effect on wheat growth than incorporation in heavy clay soils.

An autotoxic effect of alfalfa also has been reported [131]. Despite their allelopathic activity, however, saponins produced by the plant species seem not to be involved in the autotoxic effects which instead have been attributed to water-soluble phenolic components [132-135]. In particular the isoflavonoids medicarpin and its methoxy analogue, 4-methoxymedicarpin, and chlorogenic acid purified from alfalfa leaves were assayed in *in vitro* experiments and found to contribute to the plant autoallelopathy which results in a yield decrease, low seed germination and poor growth when alfalfa is sown in soils where the same species was previously cropped.

The physiological mechanism of action of saponins as allelopathic agents is not clear. Inhibition of seed germination has been correlated with a decrease in

oxygen diffusion through the seed coat [121], while seedling growth retardation has not been well studied. Comparison of the allelopathic effects of structurally different saponins from *Medicago* species revealed some structure-activity relationships. As found for antimicrobial activity, monodesmosides were in general more active than the related bi- and tridesmosides while medicagenic acid glycosides having glucose at the C-3 position were more active than similar compounds substituted with glucuronic acid, and zanhic acid glycosides were more effective than the 3-*O*-glucuronides of medicagenic acid [11, 121, 129].

Effects on animals

The significance of natural saponins in animal nutrition has been widely investigated [136, 137]. Studies of the effects of the saponins from *Medicago* species have been carried out only for *M. sativa*, due to the importance of this species as forage and as an industrial source of leaf protein concentrate used in animal diets. An excellent review on this topic is available [138]. Saponins may have significant effects on all the phases of animal metabolism from ingestion to excretion. Alfalfa saponins influence rumen fermentation and affect microbial protein synthesis in the rumen, the site of nutrient digestion. Moreover they suppress fermentation in rumen cultures [139], and *in vivo* investigations [140] have confirmed a general decrease of fermentation associated with a symptomatic decrease of volatile fatty acids and cellulose digestion. A significant reduction of protozoa in rumen of sheep receiving alfalfa saponins was also reported [140]. Moreover, endogenous bacteria appeared morphologically modified when treated with alfalfa saponins [139]. All these effects on animal nutrition have been related to the ability of saponins, or their aglycones, to interact with cell membrane sterols and other metabolites [138, 141]. Saponins are in fact able to complex cholesterol, and their anti-nutritional effects were lowered by addition of cholesterol to the diet. Retardation of growth by alfalfa dietary saponins has been observed in livestock and laboratory animals, probably due to the bitter and astringent sensory characteristics of the processed grain products. One mechanism that might account for the growth depressing effects of saponins is the lowering of feed intake because of unpalatability.

No clear information is available on the lethal dose or minimum inhibition concentration of alfalfa saponins towards livestock. Animal species differ in their susceptibility to saponins, however. Poultry are more sensitive than other farm animals. A variety of alfalfa with 1.47% of saponins caused an average reduction of 11% in weight gain of chicks compared to a low-saponin variety containing 0.59% of the active compounds [142, 143]. No effects were reported when calves were fed with alfalfa hay containing up to 2.62% saponin [144]. Though accurate estimates of detrimental saponin levels are lacking, high- and low-saponin germplasm has been defined in the literature (and set as a goal in breeding programs), mostly based on responses of monogastric animals, or biological assays (e.g. *Trichoderma viride* test and the hemolytic test). Conventionally an average concentration of about 2.0% and 0.8% were considered to be high and low, respectively [143, 145].

Determination of saponins by semi-quantitative methods based on biological assays may give erroneous results. For instance, glycosides of zanhic acid are weakly detectable by biological tests, although they are classified as toxic/moderately toxic compounds, with an LD₅₀ value of 562 mg/kg body weight calculated for hamsters [146]. Sensory test trials on human volunteers, using saponins isolated from alfalfa aerial parts, showed that zanhic acid tridesmoside is the most bitter, astringent and throat-irritating compound of all the tested saponins [36]. This compound is also reported to have the highest intestinal membrane depolarizing activities compared to other alfalfa saponins [147]. It also has been described as causing breathing problems and nervous system perturbations to hamsters, followed by death after 24h. Bloat syndromes were observed at necropsy [146].

Rats fed alfalfa saponins at levels of 1% in the diet for up to 26 weeks showed no toxic effects; a potentially beneficial reduction of serum cholesterol and triglycerides was observed instead [148]. No adverse reactions have been detected in the non-human primate, *Macaca fascicularis*, following consumption of a mixture of alfalfa top saponins for up to 78 weeks. The metabolites decreased cholesterolemia without changing the level of high density lipoprotein-cholesterol; hence, they reduced the total cholesterol/high density lipoprotein-

cholesterol ratio. Furthermore, saponins decreased intestinal adsorption of cholesterol, and increased excretion of neutral steroids and bile acids [149]. As these compounds interact with cholesterol and directly interfere with its absorption, a possible application in some human pathologies can be hypothesized, although toxicity of alfalfa saponins for human consumption needs detailed investigation.

Furthermore, *in vitro* studies indicated that saponins from *M. sativa* roots and aerial parts have some effects on pancreatic lipase activity. Results showed that they stimulated lipolytic activity and did not influence the proteolytic and amylolytic activities of Neopancreatum, a mixture of porcine pancreatic enzymes such as trypsin, chymotrypsin, lipase and amylase. An increase of the stimulatory effects of saponins was observed when sodium cholate was added to the medium [150].

Cytotoxic and tumor-promoter inhibitory activities

Although the cytotoxicity of triterpenoid saponins is known [151], saponins from *Medicago* species have never been extensively investigated, although saponins from *M. sativa* leaves showed dose-dependant growth inhibition *in vitro* of human leukemic cell line K562 [12]. No significant effects on clonogenic survival were observed when purified saponins from *M. sativa* roots, leaves and seeds were tested *in vitro* against MCF7 human breast carcinoma cells and HeLa human cervical carcinoma cells, although MCF7 was more sensitive to the treatment. Inhibition of tumoral cell growth was instead observed when saponins were used in association with cis-platin. The growth of MCF7 cells was 18-33% (saponin concentration 25 µg/mL; cis-platin 4 µg/mL), compared to 40% survival when only cis-platin was used. Root and seed saponins were found to be more active than saponins from leaves. All the tested saponins enhanced the cis-platin induced toxicity, although HeLa cells were significantly less affected [152]. As reported [153], saponins seem to act as promoters probably affecting cell membrane permeability cis-platin diffusion in the cells.

The lack of information on the cytotoxicity of saponins from *Medicago* spp. does not allow additional indications of their activity, but their antitumoral, chemopreventive and antimutagenic

properties can be extrapolated from those of bioactive saponins from other plants but found in *Medicago* spp. For example, saponins from soybean, including soyasaponin I (soyasapogenol B 3-*O*- α -L-rhamopyranosyl(1 \rightarrow 2)- β -D-glucopyranosyl(1 \rightarrow 2)- β -D-glucuronopyranosyl) found in almost all the studied *Medicago* species, are known for their chemopreventive properties [154-156]. Orally consumed soybean saponins are not adsorbed in the small intestine and appear to reach the colon [157] where they exert their beneficial effects. They are able to suppress the growth of human colon carcinoma cells *in vitro* [158, 159], and to inhibit the chemically induced colonic aberrant crypt formation in CF1 mice [160]. Soyasaponin I from *W. brachybotrys* has also been shown to strongly inhibit mouse skin tumor promotion [161].

Antimutagenic and antiproliferative [162-164] activity has also been observed for some hederagenin monodesmosides from *Hedera helix*, including 3-*O*- α -L-arabinopyranosyl hederagenin and 3-*O*- α -L-rhamopyranosyl(1 \rightarrow 2)- α -L-arabinopyranosyl hederagenin in *M. arabica* and *M. polymorpha*, respectively.

The saponin 3-*O*- α -L-rhamopyranosyl(1 \rightarrow 2)- β -D-glucopyranosyl (1 \rightarrow 2) - β -D- glucuronopyranosyl soyasapogenol E from *Wistaria brachybotrys* (Leguminosae), named wistaria saponin D, showed antitumor promoting activity [165]. The same sapogenin has also been found in *M. sativa* and *M. truncatula*.

In this context, the mutagenic activity of some saponins and sapogenins from *M. sativa* have been evaluated. Soyasaponin I, in a concentration up to 500 µg, medicagenic acid (up to 200 µg) and its 3-*O*-glucopyranosyl derivative (up to 200 µg), were tested according to the Ames assay against *Salmonella typhimorium* strains TA97, TA98, TA100 and TA102. Results showed that saponins did not increase the number of his⁺ revertants in any of the strains, neither in the absence nor in the presence of metabolic activation (S9 fraction from rat liver) [166].

Conclusion

Saponins from the *Medicago* genus are a complex group of pentacyclic triterpene glycosides which

display antimicrobial, insecticidal, allelopathic and cytotoxic properties, together with antinutritional effects. Particularly studied *M. sativa*, the most important species within the genus from an agronomic point of view.

The biological activities of *Medicago* saponins are related to their chemical structure in that monodesmosides are more active than the

corresponding bidesmosides, and the aglycone and the nature and position of the sugar in the molecule might be important factors in determining their efficacy.

Based on their bioactivity, plant saponins are already used commercially. Data summarized here might suggest further applications of saponins from *Medicago*.

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