

Coleus spp.: Micropropagation and *In Vitro* Production of Secondary Metabolites

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ABSTRACT

Coleus spp. have long been prized for their colorful foliage, which may combine shades of green, yellow, pink, red and maroon. They are plants for all locations. Besides their ornamental nature, *Coleus* spp. are also valued in folk medicine. *C. blumei* Benth., a natural hybrid of several *Coleus* spp. is an ornamental plant growing all over the world in an enormous number of different cultivars that vary in color and shape of the leaves, and is also known for its medicinal properties, in particular rosmarinic acid, one of its most important secondary compounds. Rosmarinic acid has been shown to exhibit antioxidative, anti-inflammatory and antiallergic activities in mammalian systems. *C. forskohlii* Briq. is a medicinally important plant valued for the production of forskolin, a diterpenoid, present in root tubers of the plant and known to lower blood pressure and intraocular pressure. *C. parviflorus* Benth. (country potato) has the potential of developing into a crop similar to potato. An ample amount of work has been reported on micropropagation of different *Coleus* spp. from different explants like shoot tips, leaf segments, nodal and internodal segments, etc. Furthermore, large-scale production of rosmarinic acid and forskolin from cell cultures of *C. blumei* and *C. forskohlii*, respectively, has also been reported. Genetic transformation using *Agrobacterium* has been reported to enhance rosmarinic acid and forskolin production in transformed cultures of *C. blumei* and *C. forskohlii*.

Keywords: *C. blumei*, *C. forskohlii*, forskolin, RA, rosmarinic acid, tissue culture

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INTRODUCTION

The word ‘*Coleus*’ brings to mind mental images of colorful foliage and is derived from the Greek word “Keleos” meaning sheath referring to a typical characteristic of *coleus* plants where the filaments fuse at the bottom to form a sheath around the style (de Loureiro 1790; Petersen 1994). The Genus *Coleus* belongs to the family, *Lamiaceae* (mint family) and is a close relative of peppermint, spearmint, salvia, basil, thyme, oregano and Swedish ivy. *Coleus* species are native to tropical and subtropical regions of Asia, Africa, Australia, East Indies, Malay-Archipelago and the Philippines (Lebowitz 1985; Petersen 1994; Vasishta 1994). Some species, especially those with colorful foliage (Fig. 1), are grown as ornamentals all over the world. Most *Coleus* spe-

cies grow as herbaceous perennials while others may be subshrubs or lowshrubs. Plants of the genus *Coleus* vary in size from smaller types that will reach only 30 cm height to tall bushy types reaching 90 cm. The stems of all these plants are square in cross section. The leaves are opposite and 1-4 inches long, toothed, stalked or stalkless and variegated. The flowers are asymmetrical, bracteate, complete, zygomorphic, mostly blue or lilac-blue and are borne on terminal spiked stalks. Calyx – five, gamosepalous and corolla – five, gamopetalous, tubular and two-lipped. The upper lip is often two-lobed while the lower one is three-lobed and is longer. The lower lip also contains two pairs of deflexed stamens and a style while the upper lip forms a more or less attracting mechanism for insects. Stamens – four with filaments fused at their bottom to form a tube en-

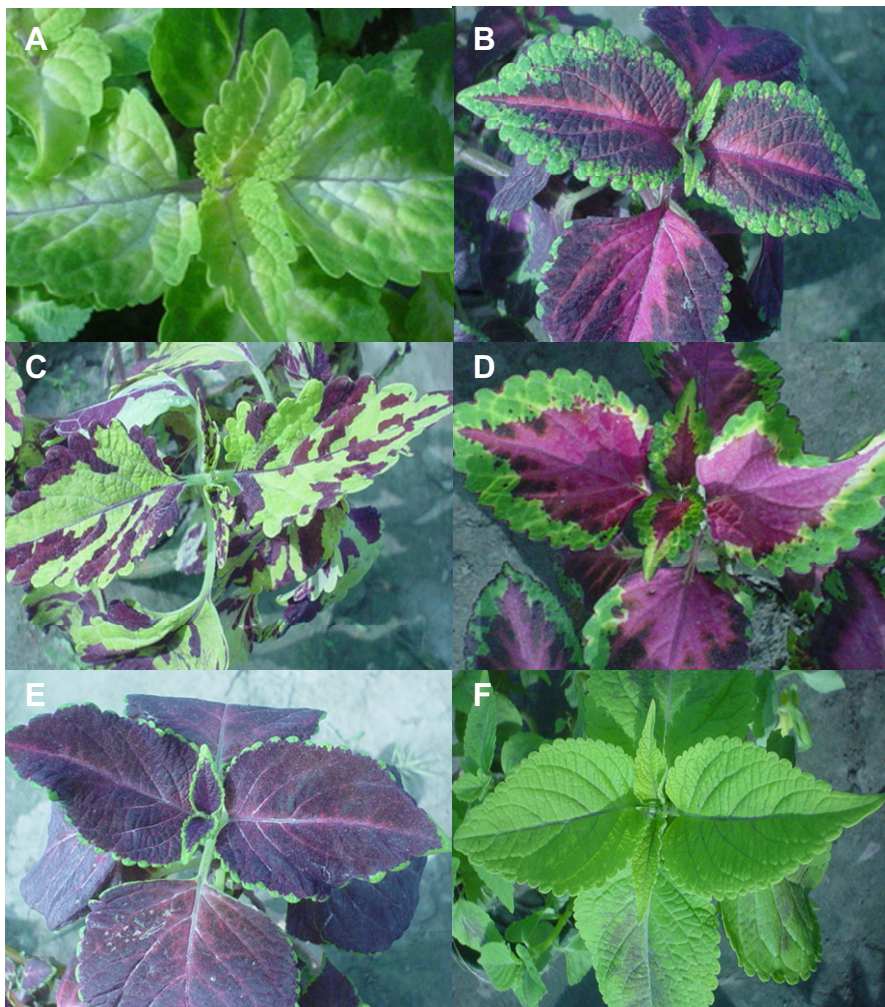


Fig. 1 *Coleus* species with colorful foliage. (A-E) Different cultivars of *C. blumei* – An erect branched undershrub with quadrangular stems, leaves variegated, flowering May–August. (F) *C. forskohlii* – An upright branched perennial herb with fleshy fibrous roots, quadrangular stem, leaves narrowed into petioles, flowers in terminal, spike-like racemes.

circling the style. The anthers – monothealous and joined. Gynoecium – bicarpellary syncarpous, the only style has two stigmas and the fruits are four seedlike nutlets (Everett 1981; Petersen 1994; Vasishta 1994).

Economic importance of *Coleus* species

Economically, the members of the genus *Coleus* are of great importance acting as source of medicines, providing food and as ornamentals (Schultze 1986; Engprasert *et al.* 2004). As recorded in ancient Sanskrit texts, different species of *Coleus* have been used for the treatment of a variety of diseases including heart diseases, abdominal colic, respiratory disorders, painful micturitions, insomnia, convulsions, skin problems, worms, etc. (Dube *et al.* 1981; Ammon and Muller 1985; de Souza and Shah 1988). **Tables 1** and **2** enlist medicinal properties and various bioactivities of different species of *Coleus* respectively. Some species e.g. *C. tuberosus* and *C. forskohlii* produce tubers that are eaten in the same way as potatoes (<http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Coleus>). The leaves of *C. forskohlii* and *C. ambonicus* have been used as condiment for a long time (Schultze 1986). The use of *Coleus* as an ornamental herbaceous plant dates back to well before the Victorian era. *Coleus* species are prized, both for indoors and outdoors, for their colorful foliage which may combine shades of green, yellow, pink, red and maroon. The plants are more commonly grown as pot plants but are also a great favourite for the window base garden and a few dwarf types are suitable for carpet bedding. A few less known species are grown for their handsome flowers.

In this review, work on micropropagation of different *Coleus* species and *in vitro* culture of *C. forskohlii* for production of forskolin and *C. blumei* for production of rosmarinic acid is reviewed.

MICROPROPAGATION OF *COLEUS* SPECIES

Micropropagation is one of the key tools of plant biotechnology that explains the totipotent nature of plant cells. The concept of totipotency was proposed by Haberlandt (1902) and was unequivocally demonstrated for the first time by Steward (1958). Micropropagation generally involves four distinct stages, each with a specific set of requirements. These include (i) initiation of aseptic cultures, (ii) shoot multiplication, (iii) rooting of *in vitro* raised shoots, and (iv) hardening and field transfer of *in vitro* raised plants. Significant features of this technology are its enormous multiplication capacity in a relatively short time-span (useful for conservation strategies); production of healthy and disease-free plants and its ability to generate propagules all-year round (Martin 1985; Dhawan and Bhojwani 1986). Only a few publications that deal with micropropagation of different *Coleus* species can be found in the literature (Sharma *et al.* 1991; Anbazhagan *et al.* 2005; Rajasekharan *et al.* 2005; Rani *et al.* 2006; Srinivasan *et al.* 2006). **Table 3** summarizes the literature on the micropropagation of different *Coleus* species.

Hervey and Robbins (1978) reported the development of plants from leaf discs of variegated *C. blumei* and its relation to patterns of leaf chlorosis. Comer and Leonardo (1981) used a simple tissue culture protocol to examine phloem differentiation in pith explants of *C. blumei*. They observed the differentiation of sieve tube elements in pith parenchyma when pith blocks of *C. blumei* were used as explants and placed onto agar medium containing sucrose and indole-3-acetic acid (IAA). The concentration of growth regulator had little influence on the differentiation process, while increasing the availability of sucrose resulted in an enhancement of phloem differentiation. The authors observed that phloem and xylem differentiation began at the

Table 1 Medicinal properties of different *Coleus* species.

Name of species	Medicinal properties	Reference
<i>Coleus aromaticus</i>	Seasoning meat dishes, in food products	Uphof 1959
<i>C. amboinicus</i>	Skin problems and against worms	de Souza and Shah 1988
<i>C. aromaticus</i>	Chronic cough, asthma	CSIR 1992
<i>C. amboinicus</i>	Treatment of burns and as a poultice for centipedes and scorpion bites	Morton 1992
<i>C. amboinicus</i>	Skin allergies	Harsha <i>et al.</i> 2003
<i>C. aromaticus</i>	Antispasmodic, stimulant, stomachic, headache, fever, epilepsy, dyspepsia	Khory and Katrak 1999; Morton 1992
<i>C. aromaticus</i>	Reproductive problems	Lans 2007
<i>C. barbatus</i>	Decreases gastric secretion in rats	Fischman <i>et al.</i> 1991
<i>C. esculentus</i>	Anthelmintic	Kokwaro 1993; Burkill 1995; Allemann <i>et al.</i> 2004
<i>C. forskohlii</i>	Pneumonia	Bouquet 1969
<i>C. forskohlii</i>	Heart diseases, abdominal, colic and respiratory disorders, insomnia, convulsions	Sharma 1956; Chunecker 1960
<i>C. forskohlii</i>	Hypotensive agent with spasmolytic, cardiotonic and platelet aggregation inhibitory activity	Bhat <i>et al.</i> 1977
<i>C. forskohlii</i>	To treat malaria and break fevers	Holdsworth 1977; Kokwaro 1993; Rwangabo 1993; Rajendran <i>et al.</i> 1999
<i>C. forskohlii</i>	Alzheimer's disease	Baslas and Kumar 1981; Adachi and Hayashi 1996
<i>C. forskohlii</i>	Heart diseases, spasmodic pain and convulsions	Dubey <i>et al.</i> 1981
<i>C. forskohlii</i>	Treats thromboembolic platelet disorders	Agarwal and Parks 1982
<i>C. forskohlii</i>	Asthma (Bronchodilator)	Bruka 1983; Lichey <i>et al.</i> 1984
<i>C. forskohlii</i>	Therapeutic potential for glaucoma	Caprioli and Sears 1983; Burstein <i>et al.</i> 1984; Caprioli <i>et al.</i> 1984
<i>C. forskohlii</i>	Treatment of congestive heart failure	Bristow <i>et al.</i> 1984
<i>C. forskohlii</i>	Therapeutic potential for bronchial asthma, bronchospasmodic activity	Lichey <i>et al.</i> 1984
<i>C. forskohlii</i>	Bronchitis	Boily and van Puyvelde 1986; Cos <i>et al.</i> 2002
<i>C. forskohlii</i>	Antiinflammatory	Dohadwalla 1986; Rupp <i>et al.</i> 1986
<i>C. forskohlii</i>	Cardiovascular diseases, hypertension	Kansal <i>et al.</i> 1978; Dubey <i>et al.</i> 1997
<i>C. forskohlii</i>	Inhibits thrombocyte aggregations, decreases intraocular pressure	Mersinger <i>et al.</i> 1988
<i>C. forskohlii</i>	Gastro-intestinal infections	Baerts and Lehmann 1989; Gupta <i>et al.</i> 1993
<i>C. forskohlii</i>	To relieve cough	Baerts and Lehmann 1989; Yoganarasimhan 2000; Chifundera 2001; Neuwinger 2000
<i>C. forskohlii</i>	Ear and eye infections	Baerts and Lehmann 1989
<i>C. forskohlii</i>	Phytotherapeutic, antiglaucoma and cardiotonic	de Souza 1993
<i>C. forskohlii</i>	Treatment of wounds and ringworms	Githinji and Kokwaro 1993; Chifundera 2001
<i>C. forskohlii</i>	Antiallergic activities through passive cutaneous anaphylaxis inhibition	Gupta <i>et al.</i> 1993
<i>C. forskohlii</i>	Treatment of bathing babies suffering from measles	Kokwaro 1993
<i>C. forskohlii</i>	Teeth and gum disorders	Hulme 1954; Kokwaro 1993
<i>C. forskohlii</i>	Genitourinary infections	Rwangabo 1993; Neuwinger 2000
<i>C. forskohlii</i>	General respiratory ailments	van Puyvelde <i>et al.</i> 1994
<i>C. forskohlii</i>	Anti-ageing effects in combination with tocotrienol and antioxidants	Adachi <i>et al.</i> 1996
<i>C. forskohlii</i>	Promotes lean body mass and treating mood disorders	Majeed <i>et al.</i> 1998
<i>C. forskohlii</i>	Asthma, glaucoma, eczema	Suryanayanan and Pai 1998
<i>C. forskohlii</i>	To relieve cold	Rajendran <i>et al.</i> 1999
<i>C. forskohlii</i>	Tonsillitis	Neuwinger 2000
<i>C. forskohlii</i>	Nausea	Hamill <i>et al.</i> 2003
<i>C. forskohlii</i>	Stomachaches, dyspepsia, nausea and vomiting	Yoganarasimhan 2000
<i>C. forskohlii</i>	Relaxative effects on isolated guinea pig tracheal spiral <i>in vitro</i>	Shan <i>et al.</i> 2008
<i>C. xanthanthus</i>	Rheumatic arthritis, colds, coughs, neurasthenia, scabies, snakebites and tuberculosis	Mei <i>et al.</i> 2002

same time in the system and that the concentration of sucrose determined the relative production of phloem cells.

Smith (1984) examined the developmental potential of excised primordia (1-4) and expanding leaves (5-8) of *C. blumei* Benth. cultured on medium containing IAA or kinetin. Mandler-Henger (1988) established callus cultures of *C. forskohlii* on B₅ medium (Gamborg *et al.* 1968) supplemented with 2,4-D (2,4-dichlorophenoxyacetic acid; 2.3 μM) and kinetin (6-furfurylaminopurine or KN; 0.93 μM). After different periods of subculturing, shoots were induced on B₅ medium supplemented with 5 μM 6-benzylaminopurine (BAP) for 3 weeks. For rooting, the shoots were transferred to medium containing 5 μM indole-3-butyric acid (IBA) and plantlets so obtained were successfully transferred to soil. Reuff *et al.* (1988) reported the cryopreservation of *C. blumei* suspension and callus cultures. Scaramuzzi *et al.* (1990) also reported *in vitro* propagation of two *C. blumei* varieties from crops and subcrops of vegetative fragments. Similarly Bejoy *et al.* (1990) reported *in vitro* shoot regeneration in *C. parviflorus*. Marcotrigiano *et al.* (1990) studied nucleus-controlled leaf variegation among *C. blumei* culti-

vars propagated by seed as well as shoot cultures on MS medium (Murashige and Skoog 1962) supplemented with 1-3 mg/l 6-benzyladenine (BA). The study revealed that micropropagation might induce epigenetic and/or heritable changes in leaf variegation. Cultivars/variants with nonpattern anthocyanin variegation (NAV) were found to be less stable than cultivars with pattern anthocyanin variegation (PAV). Collins *et al.* (1990) reported that their method of "Direct selection" produced a cell line tolerant to 90 mM NaCl that continued to be resistant to NaCl even after 6 subcultures in the absence of NaCl.

Sen and Sharma (1991) reported shoot multiplication from shoot tip explants of aseptically germinated seedlings of *C. forskohlii* cultured on medium supplemented with 2 mg/l BA. Shoot multiplication was further enhanced with a gradual decrease in the level of BA and its final omission after 4 months. The addition of different auxins at 0.5 mg/l along with BA did not yield better results. The study demonstrated the potential of shoot culture *in vitro* and the use of micropropagated plants for the production of forskolin. Sharma *et al.* (1991) achieved *in vitro* clonal multiplication

Table 2 Bioactivities of different *Coleus* species.

Name of species	Type of bioactivity	Reference
<i>Coleus aromaticus</i>	Antioxidant, anticlastogenic and radioprotective effects	Rao <i>et al.</i> 2006
<i>C. aromaticus</i>	Antioxidant and free radical scavenging activity	Kumaran and Kurunakaran 2006
<i>C. aromaticus</i>	Antimicrobial	Deena <i>et al.</i> 2002
<i>C. blumei</i>	Antioxidative, anti-inflammatory, antimutagen, antibacterial and antiviral	Parnham and Kesselring 1985
<i>C. forskohlii</i>	Antispasmodic effect	Camara <i>et al.</i> 2003
<i>C. forskohlii</i>	Positive inotropic, lowers hypertension	Lindner <i>et al.</i> 1978; de Souza and Shah 1988
<i>C. forskohlii</i>	Lowers blood pressure and intra-ocular pressure and has anti-inflammatory properties	Shah <i>et al.</i> 1980
<i>C. forskohlii</i>	Adenylate cyclase activating properties	Metzger and Lindner 1981; Seamon <i>et al.</i> 1981; Seamon and Daly 1986
<i>C. forskohlii</i>	Antimetastatic	Agarwal and Parks 1983
<i>C. forskohlii</i>	Anticancer (tumour metastases)	Agarwal and Parks 1983; Asolkar <i>et al.</i> 1992
<i>C. forskohlii</i>	Antimicrobial activity	Bos <i>et al.</i> 1983; Alasbahi <i>et al.</i> 1999; Castillo and Gonzalez 1999
<i>C. forskohlii</i>	Anti-inflammatory, antiasthmatic, antiglaucoma	Rupp <i>et al.</i> 1986; Dohadwalla 1986
<i>C. forskohlii</i>	Positive inotropic, positive chronotropic and hypotensive	Mersinger <i>et al.</i> 1988; Sasaki <i>et al.</i> 1998
<i>C. forskohlii</i>	Antibacterial, antiviral and antifungal activity	Boily and van Puyvelde 1986; van Puyvelde <i>et al.</i> 1994; Vlietinck <i>et al.</i> 1995
<i>C. forskohlii</i>	Antithrombotic agent, antiplatelet aggregatory effect	de Souza 1993
<i>C. forskohlii</i>	Anti-HIV inhibition activity	Kusumoto <i>et al.</i> 1995
<i>C. forskohlii</i>	Antiaging and antioxidant	Adachi <i>et al.</i> 1996
<i>C. forskohlii</i>	Antisenescence	Udagawa <i>et al.</i> 1996
<i>C. kilimandcharis</i>	Antidrepanocytant	Mpiana <i>et al.</i> 2007
<i>C. xanthanthus</i>	Antitumour activity	Kupchan <i>et al.</i> 1969 Zelnik <i>et al.</i> 1977
<i>C. xanthanthus</i>	Cytotoxic activity	Mei <i>et al.</i> 2002
<i>C. zeylanicus</i>	Antimicrobial	Deena <i>et al.</i> 2002

Table 3 Summary of literature on micropropagation of different *Coleus* species.

Name of species	Explant	Medium	Response	Reference
<i>Coleus blumei</i>	Nodal segments	MS + BA / MS + BA + IAA	Shoot multiplication	Zagrajski <i>et al.</i> 1997
<i>C. blumei</i>	Leaf	MS + BA (2 mg l ⁻¹) + NAA (1 mg l ⁻¹)	Callus, plantlets	Ibrahim <i>et al.</i> 1992
<i>C. blumei</i>	Nodal segments	MS + BA (2 mg l ⁻¹) + NAA (1 mg l ⁻¹)	Shoot formation	Rani <i>et al.</i> 2006
	Shoots	MS + IBA (2 mg l ⁻¹)	Rooting	
<i>C. forskohlii</i>	Leaf	B5 + 2,4-D (2.3 µM) + KN (0.93 µM)	Callus formation	Mandler-Hanger 1988
		B5 + BA (5 µM)	Shoot induction	
<i>C. forskohlii</i>	Shoot tips of seedlings	MS + BA (2 mg l ⁻¹)	Shoot multiplication	Sen and Sharma 1991
<i>C. forskohlii</i>	Nodal segments	MS + KN (2 mg l ⁻¹) + IAA (1 mg l ⁻¹)	Shoot induction and multiplication	Sharma <i>et al.</i> 1991
	Shoots	MS + IAA (1 mg l ⁻¹)	Rooting	
<i>C. forskohlii</i>	Shoot tips	MS + IAA (1 mg l ⁻¹) + BA (1.5 mg l ⁻¹) MS + IAA (1 mg l ⁻¹) + KN (2 mg l ⁻¹)	Callus formation and adventitious shoots	Asamenew and Narayanaswamy 2000
<i>C. forskohlii</i>	Stem tips	MS + IAA (0.57 µM) + KN (0.46 µM)	Shoot multiplication	Bhattacharya and Bhattacharya 2001
<i>C. forskohlii</i>	Leaf	MS + KN (2.4 µM)	Callus formation	Reddy <i>et al.</i> 2001
	Callus	MS + KN (4.6 µM) + NAA (0.54 µM)	Shoot multiplication	
	Shoots	½ MS (No PGR)	Rooting	
<i>C. forskohlii</i>	Leaf	MS + BA (1 mg l ⁻¹) + NAA (2 mg l ⁻¹)	Callus formation	Anbazhagan <i>et al.</i> 2005
		MS + BA (1 mg l ⁻¹)	Shoot induction	
<i>C. forskohlii</i>	Shoot tips	MS + NAA (0.54 µM) + BA (8.87 µM)	Shoot multiplication	Rajasekharan <i>et al.</i> 2005
	Nodal segments			
<i>C. forskohlii</i>	Leaf	MS + monuron + diuron	Callus formation	Srinivasan <i>et al.</i> 2006
		MS + monuron (2 mg l ⁻¹)		
<i>Coleus × hybridus</i>	Seed	MS + BA (1-3 mg l ⁻¹)	Shoot induction	Marcotrigiano <i>et al.</i> 1990

2,4-D = 2,4-dichlorophenoxyacetic acid; BA = 6-benzyladenine; IAA = indole-3-acetic acid; IBA = indole-3-butyric acid; KN = kinetin; NAA = α-naphthaleneacetic acid; MS = Murashige and Skoog medium (1962); PGR = plant growth regulator.

of *C. forskohlii* by culture of nodal segments on MS medium supplemented with 2.0 mg/l KN and 1.0 mg/l IAA. Shoots multiplied at a rate of 12 fold every six weeks. The shoots were rooted by transfer to MS medium containing 1.0 mg/l IAA. Ibrahim *et al.* (1990) compared the level of salt tolerance in *C. blumei* cv. 'Xenia Field' plants produced either from an *in vitro* or an *in vivo* selection method. A rooting test based on the ability of cuttings derived from *in vitro* as well as *in vivo* raised plants to form roots in NaCl concentrations up to 50 mM revealed that *in vitro* derived cuttings performed better than seedling (*in vivo*) derived cuttings. Bajrovic *et al.* (1993) reported the stimulation of growth of callus cultures of *C. blumei* with 1(6-puriny)-2,5-dimethylpyrrole. Zagrajski *et al.* (1997) studied shoot induction from nodal, internodal and leaf explants of *C. blumei* with the use of BA alone or in combination with

IAA. They reported that nodal explants were best for shoot induction and multiplication while internodal and leaf explants did not give consistent results. Asamenew and Narayanaswamy (2000) reported a rapid initiation and proliferation of callus from shoot tip explants of aseptically grown *C. forskohlii* cultured on MS medium containing IAA (1.0 mg/l) and BA (1.5 mg/l). Adventitious shoots (17.33) were obtained from compact greenish callus on passage to MS basal medium containing various concentrations and combinations of IAA and KN. But, the best response was observed in medium containing IAA (1.0 mg/l) and KN (2.0 mg/l). The shoots rooted by their transfer to hormone-free MS medium and developed into normal plantlets.

Bhattacharya and Bhattacharya (2001) developed a protocol that led to the formation of complete plantlets of *C. forskohlii* within 35-40 days by culturing shoot tip explants

on MS medium supplemented with 0.5 μM IAA and 0.46 μM KN through direct multiplication at a rate of 12.5 shoots/explant. The shoots were rooted and micropropagated plantlets were successfully established in soil after hardening with a high survival rate.

Reddy *et al.* (2001) established a protocol for shoot organogenesis and mass propagation of *C. forskohlii* from leaf-derived callus. Optimal callus was developed from mature leaves on MS medium supplemented with 2-4 μM KN alone. For regeneration of shoots, callus was transferred to MS medium containing 4.6 μM KN and 0.5 μM NAA. Bauer *et al.* (2002) developed a rapid and efficient protocol for the genetic transformation of *C. blumei* using co-cultivation of leaf explants with *Agrobacterium tumefaciens* and *A. rhizogenes*. Successful transformation depended on specific bacterial strain-plant genotype combination and co-cultivation treatment. The wild type B6S3 bacterial strains employed gave the maximum efficiency. Strains C58C1 (pArA4abc), GV3101(pGV2215), 8196 and A281 were also effective. Among several co-cultivation conditions tested, the most efficient treatment was as follows: excised leaf explants were incubated immediately in bacterial suspension for 5 min and were co-cultured with *Nicotiana tabacum* crown gall callus for two days. Plant hormone autotrophy, PCR analyses and hybridization analysis confirmed genetic transformation of the cultures. Sixteen different transgenic callus and cell cultures were maintained for more than four years in the absence of exogenous growth regulators and antibiotics without deterioration in the growth rate.

Asamenew and Narayanaswamy (2004) presented a method for rapid *in vitro* propagation of *C. forskohlii* by culture of shoot tips and nodal segments on MS medium supplemented with various concentrations of KN. Best response for shoot formation was obtained with 1.0 mg/l KN. Rooting was best with 1.0 mg/l IAA. Microtubers were also produced on *in vitro* rooting medium. Anbazhagan *et al.* (2005) developed a protocol for indirect regeneration of *C. forskohlii* from leaf explants. Maximum callus induction was obtained on MS medium supplemented with BA (1 mg/l) along with NAA (2 mg/l). Regeneration of shoots was observed after 7 weeks of initial culture. Maximum number of shoots was obtained on medium supplemented with 1.0 mg/l BA alone with the mean number of shoots as 23.80 ± 1.47 . Rajasekharan *et al.* (2005) developed a protocol for *in vitro* propagation of *C. forskohlii* from shoot tips and single node cuttings using MS medium supplemented with NAA (0.54 μM) and BA (8.87 μM). Shoot multiplication was amplified with a gradual decrease of BA concentration, leading to its final omission after 4 months. Srinivasan *et al.* (2006) used various urea-derived herbicides and different cytokinin analogues to determine their effects on callusing response and shoot regeneration capacity of *C. forskohlii*. The herbicides, monuron and diuron evoked profuse callusing response from coleus leaf segments on MS medium. Shoot regeneration by monuron (2.0 mg/l) showed a maximum of 3 multiple shoots/explant with a frequency of 75% whereas diuron (0.5 mg/l) showed a higher frequency of shoot regeneration (90%) with a mean number of 6 shoots/explant. A rapid and highly effective method for micropropagation from nodal segments and shoot tip explants of *C. blumei* was established in our own laboratory (Rani *et al.* 2006) using MS medium containing BA (2 mg/l) and NAA (1 mg/l). Shoot tips proved to be better explants than nodal segments by having a high rate of shoot induction and more shoots. Shoot multiplication was achieved on the same medium as used for shoot initiation. Multiplied shoots rooted best on MS medium supplemented with indole-3-butyric acid (IBA) (2 mg/l). Micropropagated plantlets were successfully established in soil after hardening, with a 100% survival rate.

COLEUS FORSKOHLII AND FORSKOLIN

Coleus forskohlii

C. forskohlii (Willd.) Briq. [syn. *Plectranthus barbatus* Andr., *Plectranthus forskohlii* Briq., *Plectranthus forskalaei* Willd., *Plectranthus kilimandschari* (Gürke) H.L. Maass., *Plectranthus grandis* (Cramer) R.H. Willemse, *Coleus forskohlii* Briq., *Coleus kilimandschari* Gürke ex Engl., *Coleus coerulescens* Gürke and *Coleus barbatus* (Andr.) Benth. (Lukhoba *et al.* 2006)], commonly known as 'Gandeeer', is an upright, herbaceous, branched aromatic, perennial herb reaching a height of 30-60 cm (de Souza and Shah 1988). The roots reach up to 20 cm in length and are 0.5-2.5 cm thick. They are tuberous, fasciculated, conical, fusiform, straight and strongly aromatic. Leaves, usually pubescent, narrow into petioles. Racemes are perfect, flowers, very showy bluish to pale lavender colored. Calyx, fine-toothed and deflexed in the fruit; corolla, pale blue, bilabiate, the lower lobes elongated and concave; stamens, monadelphous; ovary, four-parted; pollination, cross-pollination by means of wind and insects. The plant grows wild in the mountain slopes of Nepal, India and Thailand. According to Valdes *et al.* (1987), the plant originated from the Indian subcontinent and has been distributed in Egypt, Arabia, Ethiopia, East Africa and Brazil. In India, it is mostly cultivated in Tamil Nadu, Gujarat and Karnataka. *C. forskohlii* thrives best in red, sandy loam soils, which are porous and well drained with a pH ranging from 5.5 to 7. It does not require very fertile soils and can be economically grown on soils with marginal fertility. Humid climate with relative humidity ranging from 83-95% and a temperature range of 10-25°C is ideal for the crop in locations such as in Belgam (Karnataka) and Gujarat. The required annual rainfall is 100-160 cm, mainly between June and September. The crop also performs well in less humid and warmer regions of South India like Salem or Coimbatore, where it is grown as an irrigated crop (<http://www.tnsmpb.tn.gov.in>).

C. forskohlii has been used in indigenous systems of medicine as a remedy for heart diseases, abdominal, colic and respiratory disorders, painful micturition and certain CNS disorders such as insomnia and convulsions (Sharma 1956; Chunekar 1960; Bhat *et al.* 1977; Dubey *et al.* 1981, 1997). Its root extract has been found to possess antisenesescence agent (Udagawa *et al.* 1996). Thus it finds great usage in antiaging cosmetics with the antioxidant tocotrienol (Adachi *et al.* 1996). Its further use in promoting lean body mass, treating mood disorders (Majeed *et al.* 1998) and its anticancer activities (Agarwal and Parks 1982; Asolkar *et al.* 1992) have drawn our attention towards this drug. The roots are a good source of various diterpenes i.e. coleonol, forskolin and barbatusin (Shah *et al.* 1980; Trivedi *et al.* 1982; Singh *et al.* 1984; Mukherjee *et al.* 1996; Yanagihara *et al.* 1996). These diterpenes are useful for curing different ailments including cardiovascular diseases, hypertension (Kansal *et al.* 1978, Dubey *et al.* 1997) asthma, glaucoma (Suryanayanan and Pai 1998) and Alzheimer's disease (Baslas and Kumar 1981; Adachi and Hayashi 1996).

Srivastava *et al.* (2002) carried out a detailed pharmacognostical study of roots of this plant procured from different geographical zones of India. The study included macro- and microscopical characters, fluorescence analysis of powder, physico-chemical values, preliminary phytochemical screening of different extracts and finally the establishment of a fingerprint profile of the crude drug through thin layer chromatography for the detection of chemical marker components. The authors found an almost four-fold increase in the percentage of sugar and starch in southern samples while the protein percentage was almost twice as high as in northern samples. Heavy metal (Co, Mn, Cd and Cu) accumulation was higher in samples from the southern part of the country, which may be due to high industrial activity or edaphic factors in Andhra Pradesh and Tamil Nadu. The percentage Pb was quite high in the Uttar Pradesh sample which may be due to some edaphic factor or

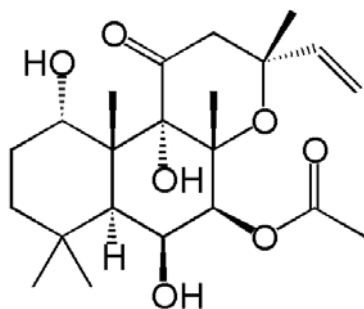


Fig. 2 Chemical structure of forskolin.

vehicular pollution in that particular region. Thus it was concluded that geographical variations play a crucial role in the quantitative alteration of parameters affecting the quality of the drug.

C. forskohlii is an ancient root drug recorded in Ayurvedic medicine under the Sanskrit name 'Makandi' and Mayini (Shah 1998). Upon closer investigation into the plant's pharmacological properties, it was revealed that *C. forskohlii* roots contain forskolin (Fig. 2), a compound that belongs to the chemical class of diterpenes (Bhat *et al.* 1977).

Most of the pharmacological properties of this plant are associated with the presence of forskolin. Forslean, an extract prepared from roots of *C. forskohlii* is a registered trademark and patented product of Sabinsa Corp., USA. It constitutes a minimum of 10% forskolin and is meant to promote lean body mass, fat loss and weight loss. Maintaining lean body mass is expected to have a positive impact on long term cardiovascular risk and life span, and hence becomes essential to maintain good health (Narayanan *et al.* 2002). Shen and Xu (2005) isolated two new diterpenoids, forskolin I and J from *Coleus forskohlii* (Willd.) Briq. collected from the Yunnan Province. Spectral analysis, including 1D and 2D NMR techniques showed them to be 1 α ,6 β -diacetoxy-7 β ,9 α -dihydroxy-8,13-epoxylabd-14-en-11-one and 1 α ,9 α -dihydroxy-6 β ,7 β -diacetoxy-8,13-epoxylabd-14-en-11-one. Xu and Kong (2006) isolated labdane diterpenoid, 12 hydroxy-8, 13E-laddadien-15-oic acid from *C. forskohlii* using various chromatographic techniques and spectroscopic methods. Yang *et al.* (2006) reported three other diterpenoids from *C. forskohlii* viz. forskolin G (2), forskolin H (3), forskolin I (4). Their structures were elucidated as 1 α , 6 β -diacetoxy-8,13-epoxylabd-14-en-11-one, 1 α -hydro-

xy-6 β ,7 β -diacetoxy-8,13-epoxylabd-14-en-11-one and 1 α , 9 α -dihydroxy-6 β , 7 α -diacetoxy-8,13-epoxylabd-14-en-11-one on the basis of spectral data.

Forskolin

Forskolin is a polyhydroxy labdane diterpenoid (Bhat *et al.* 1977) with a number of promising biological and pharmacological activities. In the last 20 years, forskolin has been successfully evaluated in numerous clinical studies, including bronchial asthma, cardiovascular health, glaucoma, sexual dysfunction in men and dermatological diseases. Chemically, forskolin is 7 β -acetoxy-8, 13-epoxy 1 α , 6 β , 9 α -trihydroxy-labd-14-en-11-one (Paulus 1980a, 1980b). Despite the fact that successful total synthesis of forskolin has been reported, it is not available by chemical synthesis because of its complex nature. Recently it has been recommended for reducing body fat while maintaining lean body mass (Ding and Staudinger 2005). The existence of forskolin was first reported by two independent groups of scientists during their screening programs for useful medicinal plants of India. During their study on tuberous roots of *C. forskohlii* they reported the presence of a bioactive component, a labdane diterpene, which was called colenol by one group (Tandon *et al.* 1977; Dubey *et al.* 1981) and forskolin by the other (Bhat *et al.* 1977; Paulus 1980a). Later, both of these compounds, colenol and forskolin, were shown to be the same substance and the name forskolin was retained (Saksena *et al.* 1985). Forskolin content has been shown to vary substantially (0.01-0.44%) among different genotypes with an average content of 0.1% of dry wt. of root tubers (Vishwakarma *et al.* 1988).

Forskolin is the only plant-derived compound known to have unique adenylate cyclase activating properties (Metzger and Lindler 1981, Seamon *et al.* 1981, Seamon and Daly 1986) resulting in an increase in levels of cyclic AMP (cAMP) which affects heart action, blood flow and intraocular pressure (Ammon and Muller 1985; Christenson *et al.* 1995). cAMP is also nicknamed as the 'second messenger', referring to its broad range of activity in the body's life-sustaining reactions. Due to its cAMP-dependent effects, forskolin has been considered for its development as an agent for the treatment of congestive cardiomyopathy (Bristow *et al.* 1984; Rupp *et al.* 1986) and glaucoma by lowering intraocular pressure (Caprioli and Sears 1983;

Table 4 Summary of literature on *in vivo/in vitro* production of forskolin from *C. forskohlii*.

Source	Medium	Forskolin content	References
Suspension culture	B ₅ + 0.4 mg l ⁻¹ IBA	0.03%	Mersinger <i>et al.</i> 1988
	B ₅ + 0.2 mg l ⁻¹ KN + 0.4 mg l ⁻¹ IBA	0.025%	
Roots	-	0.04-0.44%	Vishwakarma <i>et al.</i> 1988
Shoot tips	MS + BA	0.009%	Sen and Sharma 1991
Micropropagated plantlets	-	0.01%	
Tubers of micropropagated plants	-	0.1%	Sharma <i>et al.</i> 1991
Root cultures	B ₅	0.1%	Kromholz <i>et al.</i> 1992
Shoot, shoot-forming callus mass	MS + BA	0.01%	Sen <i>et al.</i> 1992
Micropropagated plants	-	0.013%	
Root callus	MS + IAA (0.5 mg l ⁻¹) + IBA (0.5 mg l ⁻¹) + glycine (5 mg l ⁻¹) + CH (200 mg l ⁻¹)	0.075%	Tripathi <i>et al.</i> 1995
Tuberous roots	-	1.15-7.87 μ g/mg/dw	Yanagihara <i>et al.</i> 1995
Tumorous callus	B ₅ O	0.02%	Mukherjee <i>et al.</i> 1996
Rhizogenic callus	B ₅ + CH	0.011%	
Root culture	B ₅ + IBA	0.041%	
Hairy roots	WPM	1.6 mg/flask	Sasaki <i>et al.</i> 1998
Rhizogenic tumorous line	B ₅ O + CH 2.0 gl ⁻¹	2.3mg g ⁻¹	Mukherjee <i>et al.</i> 2000
Rooty teratoma line	B ₅ O + CH 2.5 gl ⁻¹	1.7 mg g ⁻¹	
Roots of <i>in vitro</i> raised plants	-	0.12%	Reddy <i>et al.</i> 2001
Transformed rhizogenic line (GCO-RCH-10)	B ₅ + GA ₃ (1mg l ⁻¹)	8.9- fold	Mukherjee <i>et al.</i> 2003
Cell suspension line GSO-5/7-K	B ₅ + BA (2 mg l ⁻¹)	6- fold	
Root line (RC-ST-2/16)	B ₅ + GA ₃ (0.5 mg l ⁻¹)	4.3-fold	
Stem powder	-	0.103%	Saleem <i>et al.</i> 2005
Roots	-	0.097%	Saleem <i>et al.</i> 2006

BA = 6-benzyladenine; CH = casein hydrolysate; GA₃ = gibberellic acid; IAA = indole-3-acetic acid; IBA = indole-3-butyric acid; KN = kinetin; WPM = woody plant medium

Burstein *et al.* 1984) and as a bronchodilator in asthmatics (Bruka 1983; Lichey *et al.* 1984; Kreutner *et al.* 1985). It has also been used to treat thromboembolic platelet disorders (Agarwal and Parks 1982; Christensen *et al.* 1995), and tumour metastasis of certain cancers (Agarwal and Parks 1983). Other bioactivities associated with forskolin include antiallergic (Kreutner *et al.* 1985), anti-inflammatory (Dohadwalla 1986), antiobesity (Han *et al.* 2005), platelet aggregation inhibition (Agarwal and Parks 1982) and hypotensive (Dubey *et al.* 1981). **Table 4** summarizes literature on *in vivo/in vitro* production of forskolin.

Biosynthesis and estimation of forskolin

The only source of forskolin is still the roots of wild or cultivated *C. forskohlii* plants (Asamenew and Narayanaswamy 2000; Mukherjee *et al.* 2000; Kukreja and Garg 2007; Reddy *et al.* 2007). Even though the complete synthesis of forskolin has been reported (Ziegler *et al.* 1987; Corey *et al.* 1988; Delpech *et al.* 1996; Asada *et al.* 2000) it is not yet a commercially viable venture because of its complicated structure. Production of monoclonal antibodies against forskolin has been reported by Sakata *et al.* (1994) and Shoyama (1993). Yanagihara *et al.* (1995) determined the relationship between forskolin content and growth temperature of clonally propagated plants of *C. forskohlii*. Quantitative determination of forskolin content in the plants cultivated in different temperatures was investigated by ELISA using monoclonal antibodies against forskolin. Temperature clearly affected the production of forskolin demonstrating that the content of forskolin was higher at 20°C than at 15 or 30°C. The highest forskolin content (7.87 µg/mg dwt) was found in the base of tuberous root at 20°C. This content was approximately twice compared to that of 30°C, and nearly three times higher than that of 15°C. They also investigated the distribution of forskolin in the whole plant. The highest forskolin content was found at the base of the tuberous root which decreased towards the tip. Yanagihara *et al.* (1996) further presented the production of monoclonal antibodies (MAB) against forskolin and a sensitive assay system using ELISA. They further investigated the correlation between forskolin accumulation and growth rate using clonally propagated shoots. Forskolin content was determined using antibodies in an ELISA test which could detect forskolin in the range of 5 µg to 5 mg. Among different plant parts (flowers, racemes, leaves, stem, tuberous roots and roots) of the plants analyzed, tuberous roots and the stem base contained higher amounts of forskolin than other organs. The forskolin content in the stem decreased gradually towards top of the shoots. Engprasert *et al.* (2004) reported molecular cloning and functional expression of geranyl-geranylpyrophosphate (GGPP) synthase from *C. forskohlii*. GGPP synthase is thought to be involved in the biosynthesis of forskolin, which is primarily synthesized in the leaves and subsequently accumulated in the stems and roots. Schaneberg and Khan (2003) developed a rapid method using reversed-phase liquid chromatography for quantitative analysis of forskolin in *C. forskohlii*. The limit of detection was 1.5 mg/ml. The method was successful in the quantitative and qualitative evaluation of the marker compound in *C. forskohlii* plant material and in market products claiming to contain *C. forskohlii*. Sailo and Bagyaraj (2005) studied the effectiveness of 11 different arbuscular mycorrhizal (AM) fungi on the growth, nutrition and forskolin content of *C. forskohlii*. *Coleus* plants raised in the presence of most of these fungi showed an increase in growth, and phosphorous and forskolin content over those grown in the absence of AM fungi. The increase in the root biomass because of inoculation with *G. bagyarajii* and *S. calospora* was 51.25 and 33.75% respectively compared to uninoculated controls. The increase in shoot biomass was 71.36 and 47.38% due to inoculation with *G. bagyarajii* and *S. calospora* respectively. The P content of the shoot differed significantly among the treatments, maximum P occurring in the shoot of plants inoculated with *G. bagyarajii*

and the least in uninoculated plants. The forskolin concentration in the root was highest in plants inoculated with *G. bagyarajii* (0.93%) and *S. calospora* (0.92%). Roots of uninoculated control plants had the least forskolin concentration (0.53%). Among different AM fungi tested, *Glomus bagyarajii* was found to be the best AM symbiont for inoculating *C. forskohlii* followed by *Scutellospora calospora*. Saleem *et al.* (2006) reported a simple and rapid process to produce a highly pure form of forskolin on a laboratory scale from *C. forskohlii* roots using common laboratory chemicals. This work made use of activated charcoal in the purification of forskolin in a reverted phase methodology.

In vitro production of forskolin

Since *C. forskohlii* is the only known plant source for forskolin, indiscriminate collections have led to severe depletion of this plant from wild habitats (Shah *et al.* 1980; Vishwakarma *et al.* 1988) and it is listed as one of the endangered plant species vulnerable to extinction (Sharma *et al.* 1991; Asamenew and Narayanaswamy 2000). Attempts have been made to standardize and use plant tissue culture techniques to meet ever increasing demands of pharmaceutical industry for production of forskolin. Forskolin production in untransformed suspension cultures of *C. forskohlii* has been reported by Mersinger *et al.* (1988). They observed that forskolin production required the induction of certain stages of differentiation in the direction of root formation. High producing plants of *C. forskohlii* were used for initiation of callus cultures on B₅ medium supplemented with 0.5 mg/l 2,4-D and 0.2 mg/l KN under continuous light. These cultures were transferred to B₅ medium supplemented with different concentrations and combinations of 2,4-D, KN, casein hydrolysate, IBA or BAP to establish suspension cultures. Production of forskolin was observed in the cultures maintained on hormone-free medium or those supplemented with a combination of IBA and KN or BAP. Maximum forskolin production (0.03%) was observed in medium containing 0.4 mg/l BAP alone followed by 0.025% in medium containing combination of IBA (0.4 mg/l) and KN (0.2 mg/l). One limiting factor of this finding was that the suspension cultures lost their capacity to produce forskolin after 3-4 years and new cultures had to be established. The two cell strains cultivated in continuous light or darkness (light and dark strain respectively) were shown to behave differently with respect to forskolin production. Forskolin production was higher in the light strain than in the dark strain. For the light strain maximum forskolin production (0.15%) was observed in the second cultivation period (14 days) whereas the dark strain attained maximum production (0.05%) only in the fourth induction period. The production of forskolin was coupled to morphological changes of the cultures. The 'light strain' formed large hollow cell aggregates with hairy structures inside, whereas the 'dark strain' formed short roots. Mersinger *et al.* (1988) further tried to scale up the production of forskolin by liquid cultures of *C. forskohlii* in 20 L and 200 + airlift fermenters. The cultures were initiated in shake flasks for the first 14 days (induction period) and were then transferred to 20 L bioreactors containing the same medium. Forskolin production initiated at day 5 and reached a maximum value of 0.073% by the end of cultivation period. In a 200 L bioreactor, maximum forskolin (0.03%) content was observed at day 26. The lower forskolin content observed in a 200 L bioreactor as compared to a 20 L bioreactor might be the result of mechanical stress in the large bioreactor. In an attempt to obtain variation with respect to forskolin content in regenerated plants, Mandler-Henger (1988) treated the calli of *C. forskohlii* raised on B₅ medium with different doses of mutagenic UV. Forskolin content was estimated in regenerated agar-grown plants and plants transferred to and grown in soil. Some regenerants showed a 1.5- to 2-fold increase in forskolin content compared to the untreated control. An interesting finding of this study was that more variation was visible with respect to leaf morphology and ar-

rangement.

Sharma *et al.* (1991) achieved *in vitro* clonal multiplication of *C. forskolii* by culture of nodal segments on MS medium and found that the forskolin content (0.1%) in tubers of micropropagated plants was same as that found in wild plants. Investigators have also used more or less differentiated organ culture systems for production of forskolin (Krombholz *et al.* 1992; Sen *et al.* 1992). Krombholz *et al.* (1992) established root cultures of *C. forskolii* by inducing roots in internode primary callus cultures maintained on medium B₅ without phytohormones and then transferred to liquid medium supplemented with 1 mg/l IBA and 60 mg/l casein hydrolysate. The growth of root cultures, which consisted of long, highly branched, glaucous looking roots, was rather slow, triplicating their dry weight after every 3 weeks. The amount of forskolin produced ranged from 127 to 1200 mg/kg dry mass depending on culture strain used. The addition of IBA to the medium resulted in increased production of forskolin e.g. IBA at 4.2 mg/l resulted in a yield of forskolin at 4.9 mg/kg dry mass and a stable root morphology. Krombholz *et al.* (1992) also established transformed root cultures using *Agrobacterium rhizogenes* strain 15834. They observed typical hairy root morphology and opine production in such cultures in the first 6 months. These cultures grew faster than untransformed root cultures; the biomass multiplied 20 times in 3 weeks on B₅ medium. Though the forskolin yield was nearly the same as with untransformed cultures, yet due to better growth, overall production of forskolin was much higher (4.5 mg/l) for transformed root cultures. Cultivation of root cultures was also scaled up in 20 L glass jar bioreactors fitted with aeration, cutting and stirring devices. Growth of cultures (both untransformed and transformed) and forskolin production was generally better in large reaction vessels.

Sen *et al.* (1992) made a comparison of forskolin production in different *in vitro* culture systems of *C. forskolii*. Shoot tips, callus and root tip cultures were established on MS and White's basal medium (White 1963) with and without plant growth regulators (PGRs). Shoot differentiating cultures established in the presence or absence of BAP revealed more or less similar amounts of forskolin as that of micropropagated plants. Root organ suspension cultures showed traces of forskolin production. Multiple shooting and formation of unorganized tissue was observed in shoot tip explants obtained from aseptically germinated seedlings. Addition of BAP (0.5-2.5 mg/l) was shown to promote shooting but did not affect the production of forskolin. Callus cultures were initiated on MS medium and then transferred to White's medium with 1 mg/l BAP and 1 mg/l NAA where they became friable, whitish and rhizogenic after 2 months. The rhizogenic callus did not produce forskolin indicating that root differentiation and forskolin production are not necessarily coupled. Excised root tips from *in vitro* micropropagated multiple shoots when cultured on ¼ MS basal medium supplemented with 0.5 mg/l IBA, formed an entangled mass of roots with primary and secondary laterals. Root cultures also did not produce forskolin (or only traces were found). This observation of forskolin production in shoots and shoot-forming callus but not or only traces in rhizogenic callus and root cultures is interesting, because naturally forskolin is mainly found in root tubers. Hence, forskolin production seemed to not depend exclusively on the correct differentiation of plant material. Other factors, too, seemed to influence forskolin production. The PGR composition of the medium has also been shown to play an important role in the expression of secondary metabolites. Nevertheless, cell and organ culture systems may be suitable to produce forskolin independently from plants and therefore may serve as a source for this compound in the future. 1,9-dideoxyforskolin (DDF) is another component in the root tubers of *C. forskolii* but is pharmacologically inactive. This compound is also found in cell culture and can be transformed into active forskolin by introduction of the essential hydroxyl-groups 1 α and 9 α by the fungus *Scophlariopsis* and chemical acetylation (Ganguli 1986;

Nadkarni *et al.* 1986; Inamdar *et al.* 1989). In another study, Tripathi *et al.* (1995) reported the production of coleonol (forskolin) by root callus cells of *C. forskolii*.

In an attempt to determine the potential of tumorous cultures for production of forskolin in *C. forskolii*, Mukherjee *et al.* (1996) reported initiation of transformed cultures of *C. forskolii* using *A. tumefaciens*. The resulting tumour tissue and shooty teratomas were cultured *in vitro*. Forskolin was detected in tumorous callus (0.002%), rhizogenic callus (0.11%) and root cultures (0.14%) but not in shooty teratoma. This study provided another evidence of root tissue as the site of forskolin synthesis and accumulation. The authors opined that forskolin synthesis and accumulation in tumorous *C. forskolii* cultures may permit the elucidation of diterpene metabolism in this species. Later, Mukherjee *et al.* (2003) reported an increase in the yield of forskolin in transformed root, rhizogenic calli and cell suspension cultures of *C. forskolii* under the influence of various PGRs, viz. IAA, IBA, NAA, 2,4-D, KN, BAP, gibberellic acid (GA₃) and auxin conjugates IAA-ala, IAA-gly, IAA-phe and IAA-asp. Different cultivars responded differently to different plant growth regulators. GA₃ at 1.0 mg/l resulted in an 8.9-fold increase in forskolin content in transformed rhizogenic line GCO-RCH-10 while for root line RC-ST-2/16, GA₃ at 0.5 mg/l caused a 4.3-fold increase and for a cell suspension line GSO-5/7-K, BAP at 2 mg/l caused 6-fold increase in forskolin content. Growth and morphology were also found to be affected by the PGRs studied. A seven-fold increase in biomass was obtained in rhizogenic line GCO-RCH-10 with 0.5 mg/l GA₃. The shoot culture line ST-2/51/D showed prolific growth in the presence of all cytokinins but no forskolin was detected in the shoot cultures treated with any of these hormones. In another study, Li *et al.* (2005) reported *in vitro* production of forskolin by *C. forskolii* hairy root cultures.

Kukreja and Garg (2007) studied the potential of hairy root cultures developed from leaf explants of *C. forskolii* upon infection with *A. rhizogenes* strains A4 and LBA9402 for the production of forskolin. Among the two bacterial strains studied, strain A4 was more virulent and resulted in a transformation frequency of 97% within 7-8 days of inoculation whereas for strain LBA9402, hairy roots emerged after 10-12 days of inoculation with a transformation frequency of 75%. These roots were excised and grown on B₅ medium containing antibiotics cephalixin and ampicillin (1 mg/ml) in order to eliminate bacteria and for further growth. However this medium (B₅) was less responsive for root growth and biomass production. Hence all hairy root lines were transferred to hormone-free WP liquid medium which supported maximum hairy root biomass (6.33 g). Addition of IBA (1.0 mg/l) further increased the root biomass by 50% more reaching 9.33 g. Forskolin content was higher for root lines of A4 strain than for LBA 9402. It ranged from 0.011 to 0.11% for different lines of A4 strain and from 0.005% to 0.083% for LBA9402. Similarly the level of immediate precursor, 9-deoxyforskolin was also higher for lines of A4 strain.

COLEUS BLUMEI AND ROSMARINIC ACID

Coleus blumei

C. blumei is commonly grown in gardens throughout the world as an ornamental plant because of its colorful foliage. It occurs in an enormous number of different cultivars which vary in color and shape of the leaves. It is an erect branched undershrub, with quadrangular stems. Leaves, 5-12 x 4-8 cm, ovate-acuminate, crenate-serrate, rounded at the base, variegated; flowers, pale purple in close whorls on terminal solitary or paniculate racemes; calyx, 2-lipped with the upper lip large, commonly grown in gardens for its ornamental variegated foliage (Singh 1986). The flowers are borne in terminal spike-like racemes. The leaves are variegated and make them good ornamental plants (Vasishtha 1994).

The nomenclature of *C. blumei* is very confusing as different names have been in use for the same species. *C. blumei* is probably a natural hybrid of several *Coleus* species with its origin in South East Asia. This plant was described for the first time by Linnaeus (1763) who assigned the name *Ocimum scutellarioides*. Then Brown (1810), named it as *Plectranthus scutellarioides*, the name later on used by Blume (1826) for another species. Bentham (1832-1836) then considered these two plants as different species and placed them in the genus *Coleus* with the species names as *C. blumei* and *C. scutellarioides*. Siebert and Vosa (1896) placed *C. blumei*, *C. scutellarioides*, *C. atropurpureus*, *C. bicolor*, *C. verschaffelti* and *C. hybridus* as subspecies under the species *C. scutellarioides*. Therefore, the legitimate name for the plant is *Coleus scutellarioides* (L.) Bentham (Lebowitz 1985). Nevertheless, several publications on this species have used the name *C. blumei* and the same name is used in this communication.

According to Gardener (1985), this plant was brought to Europe from Java in 1851 for its ornamental value and since then is being used as an ornamental plant in Europe. Availability of a number of varieties with striking colorful foliage and easy method of propagation through cuttings have made it a very popular plant for ornamental purposes. In India, Indonesia and Mexico, *C. blumei* is used as a medicinal plant (Schultze 1986). The medicinal value of this plant is attributed to rosmarinic acid, one of the most important secondary compounds synthesized by this plant. It is present in all plant parts and is supposed to act as a preformed, constitutively accumulated defence compound by virtue of its antimicrobial properties (Szabo *et al.* 1999).

Rosmarinic acid

Rosmarinic acid (R-*O*-caffeoyl-3,4-dihydroxyphenyllactic acid; RA), is an ester of caffeic acid and 3,4,-dihydroxyphenyllactate, which, besides chlorogenic acid, is one of the most common caffeic acid esters in the plant kingdom. RA and similar compounds have been known as 'Labiatergerbstoffe' (a type of tannin) even before the chemical structure of RA was elucidated. Two Italian chemists Scarpati and Oriente (1958) isolated RA for the first time as a pure compound and named it according to the plant from which it was isolated, *Rosmarinus officinalis*. These scientists also elucidated the molecular structure of RA, showing it to be an ester of caffeic acid and 3,4-dihydroxyphenyllactic acid (Scarpati and Oriente 1958, 1960). They further showed that caffeic acid part of RA is derived from phenylalanine whereas 3,4-dihydroxyphenyllactic acid is derived from tyrosine. RA has been shown to exhibit antiallergic, antibacterial, antiviral, antioxidant and anti-inflammatory activities (Gracza *et al.* 1985; Parnham and Kesselring 1985; Engelberger *et al.* 1988; Peake *et al.* 1991; Kumaran and Karunakaran 2006). The anti-inflammatory properties of RA are thought to be based on the inhibition of lipoxygenases and cyclo-oxygenases and the interference of RA with the complement cascade (Parnham and Kesselring 1985). RA has been shown to be rapidly eliminated from the blood circulation after intravenous administration. It was also shown to possess very low toxicity in mice (Parnham and Kesselring 1985). It has been used in preparations against Herpes simplex infections (Wolbling and Leonhardt 1994), as a putative cancer-protective compound in food (Ho *et al.* 1994) or as a potential preservative in food and cosmetics (D'Amelio 1999). Inside the plants, RA is thought to be a part of the defense system against fungal and bacterial infections and predators. RA is also active against acute respiratory distress syndrome (ARDS) and other shock conditions (Bult *et al.* 1985; Parnham and Kesselring 1985). Further, the antioxidative activity and low toxicity make RA an interesting compound for food industry. It has applications as a food preservative and in medicine due to its functional properties as an antioxidant and antimicrobial (Deighton *et al.* 1993; Madsen and Bertelsen 1995; Frankel *et al.* 1996; Shetty *et al.* 1997). It was reported that in bulk corn oil

rosemary extract containing carnosic acid and RA, showed significantly more antioxidant activity than carnosol (Frankel *et al.* 1996).

RA is a well known constituent of members of the families *Boraginaceae* and *Lamiaceae* (Petersen and Simmonds 2003) mainly the subfamilies *Saturejoideae* and *Nepetoideae* (Litvinenko *et al.* 1975; Molgaard and Ravn 1988; Zinsmeister *et al.* 1991) and also in other families like *Blechnaceae* (Hausler *et al.* 1992), *Zosteraceae* (Ravn *et al.* 1994), *Potamogetonaceae* and *Cannaceae* (Petersen and Simmonds 2003). According to Lamaison *et al.* (1990) species of the genera *Sanicula* (Apiaceae), *Lycopus*, *Melissa*, *Mentha*, *Origanum* and *Salvia* (Lamiaceae) contain RA in large amounts (more than 3%) based on dry weight. RA has also been shown to occur in lower plants such as hornworts (Takeda *et al.* 1990). This distribution of RA confirms that its occurrence can not be used as a chemotaxonomical marker to differentiate among families. One question still remains open as to whether the ability to synthesize and/or accumulate RA has evolved rather early in phylogeny of land plants or whether it has been developed independently in several taxa.

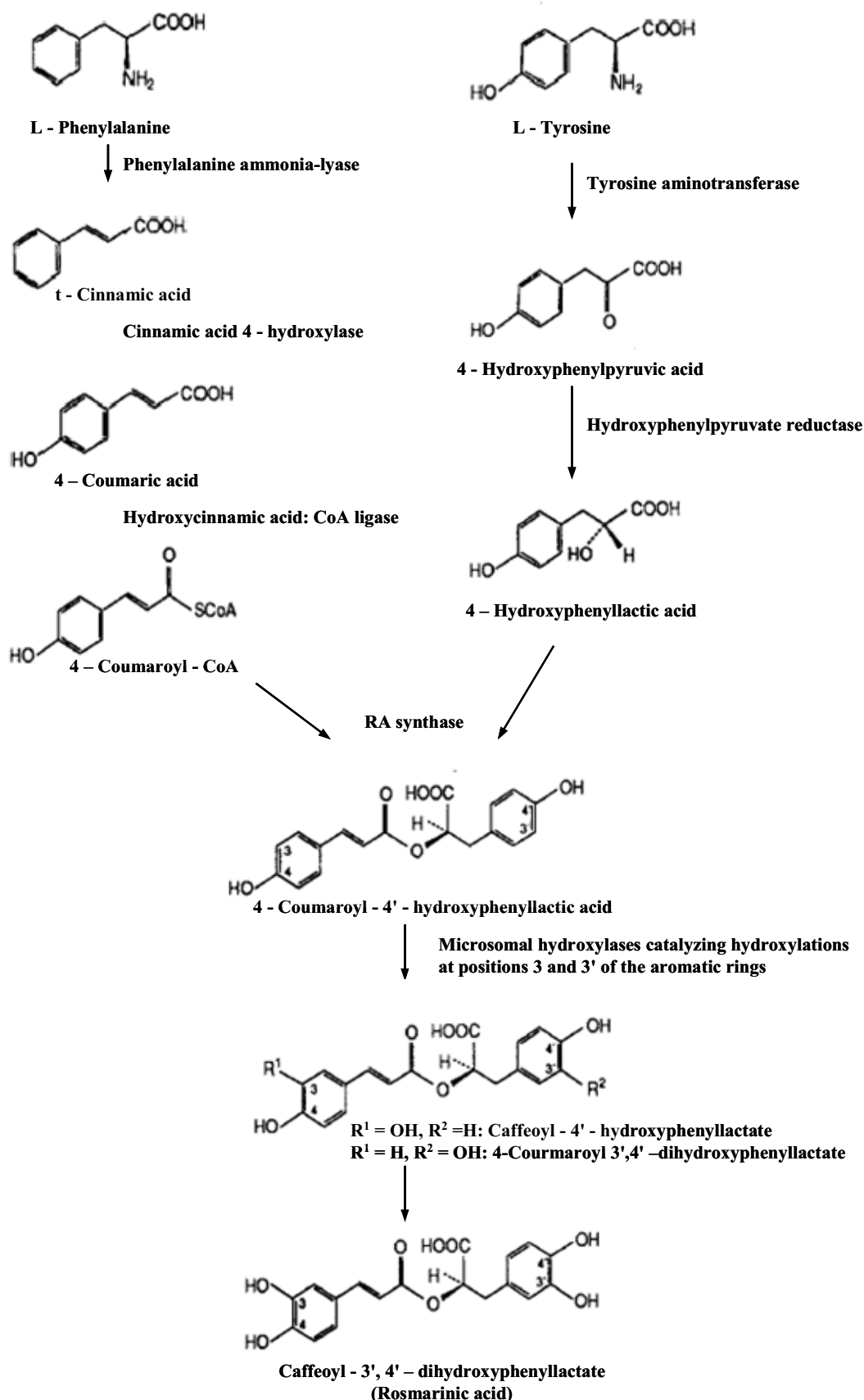
Biosynthesis and estimation of RA

Investigations on the biosynthesis of RA were started by Ellis and Towers (1970) who identified two aromatic amino acids, phenylalanine and tyrosine, as the precursors for RA in plants of *Mentha*. Their study showed that phenylalanine was incorporated into the caffeic acid part of RA whereas tyrosine gave rise to 3,4-dihydroxyphenyllactic acid. Since the precursors for the biosynthesis of RA are the amino acids phenylalanine and tyrosine (Ellis and Towers 1970), only one of the four hydroxyl groups is brought into the molecule by the precursors themselves; the other three hydroxyl groups are introduced during the biosynthesis of RA (Pabsch *et al.* 1991; Petersen *et al.* 1993). The enzymes involved in the biosynthesis of RA have been successively identified, isolated and characterized. Petersen *et al.* (1993) proposed a scheme for the biosynthetic pathway in cell cultures of *C. blumei* (Fig. 3).

Phenylalanine derived pathway: Phenylalanine is the precursor for the caffeic acid moiety of RA (Ellis and Towers 1970; Razzaque and Ellis 1977). It has been suggested that the general phenylpropanoid metabolism is involved in the biosynthesis of RA (Razzaque and Ellis 1977). The first enzyme involved in this pathway is phenylalanine ammonia-lyase (PAL), which catalyzes the oxidative deamination of phenylalanine to form *t*-cinnamic acid and ammonia. This is a soluble enzyme with high affinity towards its substrate phenylalanine. Razzaque and Ellis (1977) have shown that accumulation of RA in cell suspension cultures of *C. blumei* coincided with an increase in PAL activity. This study has demonstrated the rapid conversion of the phenyl propanoid amino acids into RA in the younger cultures. Histochemical examination of the *Coleus* cultures, however, has revealed that the bulk of the RA is accumulated in vesicles and extracellular deposits. The next step in this pathway is catalyzed by cinnamic acid 4-hydroxylase (CAH) which catalyzes hydroxylation of *t*-cinnamic acid in position 4 to form 4-coumaric acid. The enzyme activity essentially depended on molecular oxygen and NADPH. Cinnamic acid 4-hydroxylase, a cytochrome P450-dependent enzyme, is the first hydroxylase of the RA biosynthetic pathway introducing the 4-hydroxyl group into cinnamic acid. CAH is one of the three membrane-bound, cytochrome P450-dependent hydroxylases characterized in microsomal preparations from cell cultures of *C. blumei* (Petersen 1997). 4-coumaric acid is converted to the activated precursor 4-coumaroyl-CoA, the final intermediate of the phenylalanine derived pathway by the activity of hydroxy-cinnamoyl: CoA ligase (CHCL) (Karwatzki *et al.* 1989).

Tyrosine derived pathway: The first step of the tyrosine derived pathway is catalysed by tyrosine aminotransferase (TAT) and involves the transamination of tyrosine with the

Fig. 3 Biosynthetic pathway for rosmarinic acid.



help of 2-oxoglutarate giving rise to 4-hydroxyphenylpyruvate (pHPP) and glutamate. Tyrosine aminotransferase (TAT) has been purified from *Anchusa officinalis* cell cultures (de Eknankul and Ellis 1987). pHPP is further metabolized by hydroxyphenylpyruvate reductase (HPPR) to 4-hydroxyphenyllactate (pHPL) with help of NAD(P)H (Petersen and Alfermann 1988; Häusler *et al.* 1991; Meinhard 1991). HPPR has been characterized by Hausler *et al.* (1991)

from suspension cultures of *C. blumei*. Kim *et al.* (2004) reported a more advanced purification method of this enzyme which eventually led to the isolation of a full length cDNA clone coding for a protein with HPPR activity from *C. blumei*. Kim and Petersen (2002) cloned a full-length cDNA of hydroxyphenylpyruvate dioxygenase (HPPD) from cell suspension cultures of *C. blumei*. HPPD transforms 4-hydroxyphenylpyruvate to homogentisate and therefore, com-

petes for the same substrate as HPPR, an enzyme of RA biosynthesis from *C. blumei*.

Ester formation: The enzyme catalyzing the formation of the ester from two precursors synthesized from phenylalanine and tyrosine is rosmarinic acid synthase (RAS) which transfers the hydroxycinnamoyl moiety from hydroxycinnamoyl-CoA to the aliphatic hydroxyl group of hydroxyphenyllactate. RAS was first isolated and described from cell cultures of *C. blumei* (Petersen and Alfermann 1988). The natural substrates of this enzyme presumably are 4-coumaroyl-CoA and 4-hydroxyphenyllactate resulting in the first ester, 4-coumaroyl-4'-hydroxyphenyllactate (pC-pHPL). Therefore, the systematic name of RAS (hydroxycinnamoyl-CoA:hydroxyphenyl-acetate hydroxycinnamoyl-transferase) would be 4-coumaroyl-CoA:4-hydroxyphenyllactate 4-coumaroyl-transferase (Petersen 1991). Berger *et al.* (2006) reported a modified method to purify RAS from suspension cells of *Coleus blumei* Benth. (Lamiaceae) and then is the first report of the cDNA-cloning of RAS which eventually led to the identification of peptide sequences, cloning of a corresponding cDNA by a PCR-based approach and expression of active RAS. 4-coumaroyl-4'-hydroxyphenyllactate is afterwards hydroxylated in positions 3 and 3' of the aromatic rings by membrane bound cytochrome P450-dependent hydroxylases, i.e. hydroxycinnamoyl hydroxyphenyllactate 3- and 3'-hydroxylases.

RA is readily soluble in alcoholic solvents such as methanol and ethanol, but also to a limited extent in water. Small-scale isolation is usually performed by disrupting dried *Coleus* cells in mixture of methanol or ethanol and water by boiling or sonication (Razzaque and Ellis 1977; Ellis *et al.* 1979; Petersen and Alfermann 1988). According to Ulbrich *et al.* (1985), RA can easily be extracted with ether or ethyl acetate from acidic aqueous phases. For large-scale isolation of RA from bioreactor-grown cell cultures, hot water extraction (pH 3, 80°C) of the harvested cells is performed. The extract was then applied to an Amberlite XAD-2 column which was washed with water. RA was eluted from the column with 40% methanol in water, the eluate evaporated to dryness, and redissolved in water. RA crystals with a purity of about 95% could be harvested from this solution (Ulbrich *et al.* 1985).

Determination of RA can be performed by a variety of methods, e.g. TLC, HPLC, spectrophotometry, and gas chromatography. TLC is mainly used for the qualitative determination of RA, and several systems of stationary and mobile phases are described (Scarpato and Oriente 1958; Hiller 1965; Ellis and Towers 1970; Hanefeld and Herrmann 1976; Ellis *et al.* 1979; de Eknankul and Ellis 1984; Fukui *et al.* 1984; Gracza and Ruff 1984; Winterhoff *et al.* 1988; Banthorpe *et al.* 1989; Sumaryono *et al.* 1991b). RA can be detected by its blue fluorescence under UV or by several other detection reagents. However, TLC is not commonly used for the quantitation of RA. A very easy method for the quantitative determination of RA is spectrophotometry (Hiller 1965; Razzaque and Ellis 1977; de Eknankul and Ellis 1984; Ellis 1985; Lopez-Arnaldos *et al.* 1995), since RA in ethanolic solutions absorbs strongly at 333 nm. HPLC is a rapid, easy, and sensitive method for the quantitative determination of RA. Several systems of columns and isocratic or gradient elution have been described (Fukui *et al.* 1984; Gracza and Ruff, 1984; Whitaker *et al.* 1984; Gracza *et al.* 1985; Ulbrich *et al.* 1985; Verotta 1985; Adzet *et al.* 1988a, 1988b; Petersen and Alfermann 1988; Reuff *et al.* 1988; de Tommasi *et al.* 1991; Hippolyte *et al.* 1991; Sumaryono *et al.* 1991a, 1991b). Guedon and Pasquier (1994) developed a reversed phase HPLC method for qualitative and quantitative analysis of RA in leaves of *Mentha × pipertia*. Usually reversed-phase columns are used together with solvent systems containing acetonitrile or methanol and water. To elute RA in the fully protonated form, acids such as phosphoric acid or acetic acid are added in order to lower the pH of the solvents to about 3. Depending on the complexity of the mixtures in which RA has to be determined, isocratic or gradient elutions are used. GC determi-

nation (Reschke 1983) of RA needs derivatization and is therefore not commonly used.

Exarchou *et al.* (2001) described a combination of advanced nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) methodologies for the analysis of complex phenolic mixtures with particular emphasis on caffeic acid and its ester derivative, RA. The combination of variable-temperature two dimensional proton-proton double quantum filter correlation spectroscopy (¹H-¹H DQF COSY) and proton-carbon heteronuclear multiple quantum coherence (¹H-¹³C HMQC) gradient NMR spectroscopy allowed the identification and tentative quantification of caffeic acid and RA at 243 K in extracts from plants of the *Lamiaceae* family, without resorting to previous chromatographic separation of the components. Quantitative results obtained in this study were in reasonable agreement with reverse phase HPLC measurements.

***In vitro* production of RA**

C. blumei as such is not used for isolation of RA, but cell cultures of this plant have been extensively used for commercial production of RA (Ulbrich *et al.* 1985). **Table 5** summarizes literature on *in vitro* production of RA from *C. blumei*. Suspension cultures from this species were the first ones used for an attempted biotechnological production of RA (Razzaque and Ellis 1977; Zenk *et al.* 1977). These authors used B₅ medium (Gamborg and Eveleigh 1968; Gamborg *et al.* 1968) for the establishment of callus and suspension cultures. The basal medium was supplemented with 1 mg/l 2,4-D and 0.1 mg/l KN (Razzaque and Ellis 1977). Zenk *et al.* (1977) studied the effect of addition of 35 differently substituted phenoxyacetic acids (10⁻⁵ M) on RA production and found that 2,4-D had the highest effect by promoting the production of RA by 40%. The amount of RA accumulated by suspension cultures of *C. blumei* is highly dependent on the amount of carbohydrates added to the culture media (Zenk *et al.* 1977; Ulbrich *et al.* 1985; Petersen and Alfermann 1988; Gertlowski and Petersen 1993). According to Zenk *et al.* (1977) highest RA concentrations were found in medium with 7% sucrose. This positive effect of high sucrose concentrations on the accumulation of RA was exploited by Ulbrich *et al.* (1985) who established a two-phase culture system for the production of RA by cell cultures of *C. blumei* in bioreactors. In the growth phase, the suspension cultures produced biomass but nearly no RA in a modified B₅-medium with 2% sucrose. The cells when transferred to production medium consisting of a 5% sucrose solution, started to accumulate RA but grew only slowly. With this system, the authors were able to isolate about 100g of RA (purity 97%) from 32 L of production medium after 8 days in the growth medium followed by a production period of 11 days. The RA content of the *C. blumei* cells reached 21% of the dry weight. Petersen and Alfermann (1988) observed RA content of up to 19% of the cell dry weight were found in *C. blumei* suspension cultures grown in medium with 4% sucrose. Petersen and Alfermann (1988) also used similar system for the maintenance of *C. blumei* suspension cultures and RA synthesis. B₅-medium with 2% sucrose was used for routine subculturing. According to Yokoyama and Yanagi (1991) cell suspension cultures of *C. blumei* range among the highest producing plant cell cultures with respect to secondary product formation since they reported an accumulation of RA up to 21% of the cell dry weight in cell cultures of *C. blumei*. In contrast to these studies de Eknankul and Ellis (1988) have shown that RA synthesis by cultures of *Anchusa officinalis* and another strain of *C. blumei* do not depend on medium sugar content. In these cultures, highest accumulation of RA was reached with 3% sucrose in the medium. Glucose, fructose and equimolar mixtures of these two sugars had the same effect on RA accumulation in heterotrophic *A. officinalis* cultures as sucrose.

Petersen (1991) reported the accumulation of RA up to 19% of cell dry weight from cell cultures of *C. blumei* grown in medium with 4% sucrose. The effect of increased

Table 5 Summary of literature on *in vitro* production of rosmarinic acid from *C. blumei*.

Source	Medium	Rosmarinic acid content	Reference
Cell suspension culture	B ₅ + 2,4-D 1 mg l ⁻¹ + 0.1 mg l ⁻¹ KN	8-11%	Razzaque and Ellis 1977
Suspension culture	B ₅	3.6 g l ⁻¹	Zenk <i>et al.</i> 1977
Suspension cells	B ₅	100 mg	Ulbrich <i>et al.</i> 1985
Hairy root culture	B ₅ + MeJA (0.01 mM)	9.5 mg per flask	
Suspension culture	CB ₂ - medium with 2% sucrose	20 mg /l	Petersen and Alfermann 1988
Suspension culture	B ₅ + 2% sucrose; B ₅ + 5% sucrose	2 mg ml ⁻¹ ; 12%	Gertlowski and Petersen 1993
Suspension culture	B ₅ medium with 0.1% DMSO and 40 g l ⁻¹ sucrose	1.0 g l ⁻¹	Martinez and Park 1993
Suspension culture	CB ₂ - medium with 2% sucrose	20 mg l ⁻¹	Petersen <i>et al.</i> 1995
Suspension culture	CB ₂ - medium with 2% sucrose	-	Petersen 1997
Suspension culture	CB ₂ - medium with 2% sucrose	2.1%	Szabo <i>et al.</i> 1999
Transformed callus culture	MS medium	11%	Bauer <i>et al.</i> 2004

2,4-D = 2,4-dichlorophenoxyacetic acid; DMSO = dimethyl sulfoxide; MeJA = methyl jasmonate; KN = kinetin

sucrose concentrations on RA accumulation was also elucidated by Gertlowski and Petersen (1993) in a suspension culture of *C. blumei*. They observed that sucrose had highest stimulating effect on growth and RA accumulation, followed by glucose and fructose. An increase in concentration of sucrose from 1 to 5% resulted in an increasing positive effect on growth and RA synthesis in the cell cultures with a maximum RA content (12% of the dry weight) in medium with 5% sucrose. However, RA accumulation obviously did not reach its highest level at 6% sucrose. The start of RA synthesis by the cell cultures seemed to be regulated by the growth limitation when a nutrient, e.g. phosphate was depleted from the medium. The rate of RA accumulation was related to the amount of carbon left in the medium when growth ceased. The depletion of phosphate from the medium on day 4 to 5 of the culture period coincided with the start of RA synthesis and accumulation. This is in contrast to the results obtained for reproducing cell cultures of *A. officinalis* (de Eknankul and Ellis 1988), which showed that other nutrients may influence the onset of RA production as well. Gertlowski and Petersen (1993) further demonstrated that equimolar amounts of glucose and fructose, 1 or 2% of each, as well as 2 or 4% glucose or fructose separately did not have the same effect on the accumulation of RA as sucrose. The differences were more prominent in media with 4% total sugar concentration. Glucose alone sustained about the same RA accumulation in the cells as sucrose, but dry weight accumulation was lower. A mixture of glucose and fructose resulted in lower growth and RA content and the lowest yield was observed in medium with fructose alone. This is in contrast to results of Ulbrich *et al.* (1985) who also tested the effect of different sugars on growth and RA accumulation of suspension cultures of *C. blumei*. They reported higher RA yields in medium with fructose than with glucose. However, in this experiment also sucrose sustained the highest RA production. Petersen *et al.* (1994) also reported an accumulation of very high amounts of RA from suspension cultures of *C. blumei* cultured in medium with elevated sucrose concentrations.

C. blumei cultures preconditioned with 0.1% dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) can release secondary metabolites with viability maintenance when permeabilized by higher DMSO concentrations of 0.5-1.5% (Park and Martinez 1992). This finding opened a new possibility of continuous plant cell culture with simultaneous removal of secondary metabolites in an immobilized cell, trickle bed reactor, which had been used for alcohol production by microbial cells. Martinez and Park (1993) analyzed the effect of sucrose concentration on cell viability, cell growth, RA production, sugar consumption, product yield, and cell yield of preconditioned and non-preconditioned *C. blumei* in a suspension culture. They also suggested a possible strategy of sugar feeding in an immobilized cell, trickle bed reactor. The study revealed that batch suspension cultures of *C. blumei* cells preconditioned with 0.1% DMSO maintained viability at above 85% during a 14-day culturing period for initial sucrose concentrations of 30-70 g/l. At 60 g/l sucrose, cells grew rapidly with a doubling time of 10.7 h, and dry cell mass reached a

maximum of 15.6 g/l. Broad optima of cell yield and RA were observed at 40-60 g/l sucrose concentration. Sucrose in the medium was hydrolyzed to glucose and fructose by extracellular and/or cell-bound invertase, and glucose was taken up by the cells at a higher rate than fructose. Even at higher concentrations of sucrose (40-70 g/l) used, sucrose consumption over 14 days did not exceed 33 g/l.

Several authors showed that RA accumulation can furthermore be enhanced by the addition of fungal elicitors (e.g. yeast extract (YE), preparations from *Pythium aphanidermatum*) or methyl jasmonate (MeJA). This suggests that RA could have a role in plants as a defence compound against pathogens and herbivores. Szabo *et al.* (1999) observed an approximately three-fold enhanced accumulation of RA in suspension cultures of *C. blumei* treated with either an elicitor preparation from the culture medium of the phytopathogenic oomycete *P. aphanidermatum* or with MeJA. The specific activities of phenylalanine ammonia lyase and RAS were also enhanced after addition of the fungal elicitor. The addition of MeJA transiently increased activities of phenylalanine ammonia lyase and hydroxyphenylpyruvate reductase, whereas the activity of RAS was not stimulated and the activity of tyrosine aminotransferase was slightly and constantly enhanced. MeJA stimulated RA accumulation not only when added directly to the culture medium, but also when it could reach the cells only via the gas phase.

The production and biosynthetic regulation of RA had also been studied in suspension cells of *A. officinalis* (Mizukami and Ellis 1991), *Lithospermum erythrorhizon* (Mizukami *et al.* 1993), hornwort *Anthoceros agnensis* (Vogelsang *et al.* 2006), root cultures of *Salvia officinalis* (Hippolyte *et al.* 1992), *Ocimum basilicum* (Tada *et al.* 1996) and *Heliotropium peruvianum* (Motoyama *et al.* 1996). Morimoto *et al.* (1994) studied RA production in callus tissue and regenerated plants of *Salvia microrrhiza* and reported higher concentration of RA in 15-week-old micropropagated plants. It has been reported that RA biosynthesis was affected by various elicitors in a number of plant species e.g. RA production was induced by MeJA in *C. blumei* (Szabo *et al.* 1999) and *L. erythrorhizon* (Mizukami *et al.* 1993) cell suspension cultures, by acetylated salicylic acid (SA) in *Origanum vulgare* tissue cultures (Andarwulan and Shetty 1999), by YE in *Agastache rugosa* cell suspension cultures (Kim *et al.* 2001), *S. miltiorrhiza* hairy root cultures (Chen *et al.* 2001), *L. erythrorhizon* (Mizukami *et al.* 1992), *Lavandula vera* (Georgiev *et al.* 2006) cell suspension cultures and *Orthosiphon aristatus* (Sumaryono *et al.* 1991a) cell suspension cultures and by vanadyl sulphate in *Lavandula vera* cell suspension cultures (Georgiev *et al.* 2006). In contrast to these studies RA content has been shown to be reduced by YE in *Salvia miltiorrhiza* cell suspension cultures (Chen and Chen 2000a, 2000b).

Yang and Shetty (1998) reported the stimulation of RA biosynthesis in oregano (*O. vulgare*) clonal line O-1 in response to proline, proline precursors (ornithine and arginine), and proline analogue (azetidine-2-carboxylate, A2C). Exogenous treatment with proline and proline precursors in the

presence or absence of proline analogue A2C, significantly enhanced RA content. Concurrently higher levels of endogenous proline were observed compared to control. Analogue (A2C) treatment alone stimulated highest levels of RA without any increase in endogenous proline. The stimulation of RA synthesis in response to proline or proline precursors with or without A2C suggested that deregulation and enhancement of proline synthesis or proline oxidation may be important for RA biosynthesis in oregano. This stimulation of RA biosynthesis provided strong clues that proline synthesis may be linked to stimulation of the pentose phosphate pathway, driving key precursor metabolites toward shikimate and phenylpropanoid pathways. RA-stimulating compounds also enhanced total phenolics and hardened stem tissues, indicating possible lignification due to polymerization of phenolic metabolites. In the medium used for maintenance of the cell cultures with only 2% sucrose, RA content remained at a basic level of about 2% of cell dry weight. The effect of YE as a fungal elicitor or of MeJA on the accumulation of RA has been described for cell cultures of *Orthosiphon aristatus* (Sumaryono *et al.* 1991a; Sumaryono and Proksch 1993) and *Lithospermum erythrorhizon* (Mizukami *et al.* 1992, 1993). YE enhanced RA accumulation up to 10-fold in cell cultures of *O. aristatus* independent of the growth stage. Highest RA levels were reached 72–96 h after addition of YE to the cell cultures. In cell cultures of *L. erythrorhizon*, RA accumulation was stimulated two- to three-fold by YE, with maximum levels 24 h after addition. The addition of 100 mM MeJA led to a ten-fold stimulation of RA accumulation in *Lithospermum* cells after 48–72 h.

Kintzios *et al.* (2003) reported that leaf derived suspension cultures of sweet basil, *O. basilicum* L. accumulated RA up to 10 mg g⁻¹ dry wt, a value up to 11 times higher than in callus cultures or in leaves of donor plants. Mohagheghzadeh *et al.* (2004) obtained RA from *Zataria multiflora* tops extract. Various *in vitro* cultures were established on MS or Modified Tobacco (MT) medium containing growth hormones. The results indicated that cultures of *Z. multiflora* biosynthesize RA (55–355 mg/100 g dry wt.) and the highest accumulation were reached on MT media containing NAA 2 mg/l. Rady and Nazif (2005) determined RA content of the *in vitro* produced plants of *Ocimum americanum*. They observed that MS medium with BA at a concentration of 1 mg/l and 0.25 mg/l IAA supported maximum RA production in plants produced from cultures grown on that medium. Li *et al.* (2005) examined the growth and RA production by *C. forskohlii* hairy root cultures in various liquid media. The hairy root cultures showed good growth in hormone-free MS medium containing 3% (w/v) sucrose (MS medium), and Gamborg B5 medium containing 2% (w/v) sucrose (B5 medium). RA yield reached 4.0 mg (MS medium) and 4.4 mg (B5 medium) after 5 weeks of culture in a 100 ml flask containing 20 ml of each medium. Hairy root growth and RA were also investigated after treatment with various concentrations of YE, SA and MeJA. RA production in a 100 ml flask containing 20 ml B5 medium reached 5.4 mg (1.9 times more than control) with treatment of 0.01 or 1% (w/v) YE, and 5.5 mg (2.0 times more than control) with treatment of 0.1 mM SA. The maximum RA content of 9.5 mg per flask (3.4 times more than control) was obtained in the hairy roots treated with 0.1 mM MeJA. These results suggested that MeJA is an effective elicitor for production of RA in *C. forskohlii* hairy root cultures.

FUTURE PERSPECTIVES

Coleus species have long been exploited for their aesthetic and medicinal values. The ever increasing demands of different *Coleus* species, especially *C. blumei* and *C. forskohlii*, for different purposes has necessitated our immediate concern for production of disease free plants, rapid multiplication of elite clones and faster introduction of novel cultivars with desirable traits. In this regard, *in vitro* propagation procedures should be suitable for conservation and large-scale

commercial cultivation of *Coleus* species. At present, many reproducible protocols for *in vitro* propagation of *Coleus* species are available but the new challenges that should be addressed include cost efficiency, automation and control and optimization of microenvironment. It is, therefore, important to bring about further improvements in the existing tissue culture protocols. *Coleus* species are known to produce interesting secondary compounds e.g. *C. blumei* synthesizes rosmarinic acid (RA) and *C. forskohlii* produces forskolin. Attempts have been made to use plant tissue culture techniques for the production of forskolin and RA. Both these compounds are known for a number of promising biological and pharmacological activities. There is a need to undertake systematic studies on cell suspension cultures and transformed root cultures to enhance the production of therapeutically important forskolin and RA by employing a variety of elicitors, optimization of microenvironment and somaclonal variations coupled with *in vitro* induced mutagenesis. The study of secondary metabolism in plant cell cultures is a challenging field with many opportunities ahead. New tools of functional genomics combined with metabolomics and proteomics will revolutionize our knowledge on pathways and enzymes involved in the synthesis of natural products.

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