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Corresponding Author	Family Name	Ramawat
	Particle	
	Given Name	Kishan Gopal
	Suffix	
	Division	Laboratory of Bio-Molecular Technology, Department of Botany
	Organization	M.L. Sukhadia University
	Address	313001, Udaipur, India
	Email	kg_ramawat@yahoo.com
Author	Family Name	Arora
	Particle	
	Given Name	Jaya
	Suffix	
	Division	Laboratory of Bio-Molecular Technology, Department of Botany
	Organization	M.L. Sukhadia University
	Address	313001, Udaipur, India
	Email	
Author	Family Name	Goyal
	Particle	
	Given Name	Shaily
	Suffix	
	Division	Laboratory of Bio-Molecular Technology, Department of Botany
	Organization	M.L. Sukhadia University
	Address	313001, Udaipur, India
	Email	
Abstract	<p>The Great Indian Desert known as the Thar Desert occupies about 60% of the area of Rajasthan – the largest state of India. It is one of the most heavily populated (in terms of both people and cattle) deserts of the world. The animal and human populations exert tremendous pressure on the scant vegetation of the region, making several plants vulnerable to becoming endangered. Inherent biological problems associated with these plants make their survival difficult and have forced adaptation to the harsh environment. The biological activities of these plants range from analgesic, antifungal, antimicrobial, hypolipidemic to hepatoprotective and anticancerous. This chapter reviews the biological problems faced by the medicinal plants of this region, their bioactive molecules, as well as biotechnological approaches aimed at improving and conserving these plants.</p>	

Chapter 1 1

Biodiversity, Biology and Conservation 2

of Medicinal Plants of the Thar Desert 3

Jaya Arora, Shaily Goyal, and Kishan Gopal Ramawat 4

Abstract The Great Indian Desert known as the Thar Desert occupies about 60% 5
of the area of Rajasthan – the largest state of India. It is one of the most heavily 6
populated (in terms of both people and cattle) deserts of the world. The animal and 7
human populations exert tremendous pressure on the scant vegetation of the region, 8
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problems associated with these plants make their survival difficult and have forced 10
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from analgesic, antifungal, antimicrobial, hypolipidemic to hepatoprotective and 12
anticancerous. This chapter reviews the biological problems faced by the medi- 13
cinal plants of this region, their bioactive molecules, as well as biotechnological 14
approaches aimed at improving and conserving these plants. 15

1.1 Introduction 16

Deserts have played a special role in human evolution and adaptation. They appear 17
to be the major terrestrial habitat that channelled early human dispersal, represent- 18
ing barriers at some times, corridors at others (Gamble 1993). Studies of desert 19
societies have also provided some of the most fertile ground for debate regarding 20
human adaptability and how societies cope with marginal – often precarious – 21
environmental circumstances, and about the effects of these environmental condi- 22
tions on human land use, mobility, and dispersal (Kelly 1995). 23

J. Arora, S. Goyal, and K.G. Ramawat (✉)
Laboratory of Bio-Molecular Technology, Department of Botany, M.L. Sukhadia University,
Udaipur-313001, India
e-mail: kg_ramawat@yahoo.com

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24 1.2 Deserts of the World

25 Deserts are large bands of dry lands along the tropics in both the Northern and
 26 Southern hemispheres (Mares 1999; Middleton and Thomas 1997). The United
 27 Nations Environment Program (UNEP) has prepared a map of the extent of world
 28 deserts (Middleton and Thomas 1997). Deserts cover around 25,500,000 km², approx-
 29 imately 20% of the land area of the world. The boundaries of these deserts, which are
 30 constantly changing due to various climatic and human factors, are likely to drift over
 31 the next century as human-induced global warming takes effect. The defining charac-
 32 teristic of world deserts is aridity. The current UNEP definition of desert is a moisture
 33 deficit under normal climatic conditions where $P/PET < 0.20$, i.e. where rainfall is
 34 less than 20% of potential moisture loss through evaporation (Smith et al. 1995).

35 1.2.1 The Thar Desert

36 Rajasthan is the largest state in India, and is located in the northwestern part of the
 37 country. The state is rich in floral diversity, with 911 wild species belonging to 780
 38 genera and 154 families growing here (Shetty and Singh 1987–1993; Bhandari
 39 1999). Geographically, Rajasthan lies between 23°3' to 30°12' longitude and 69°30'
 40 to 78°17' latitude. It occupies 342,239 km² land area, which is 10.41% of the total
 41 land area of India. The desert in northwestern India is known as the Thar Desert,
 42 and is one of the most heavily populated deserts in the world. The Thar Desert lies
 43 between 24° to 28° N latitude and 68° to 71° E longitude, occupying an area of
 44 about 200,000 km². Physically the desert stretches as far as Delhi to the east, south
 45 to the Run of Kutch and the Arabian Sea, to the arid rocky mountains of Baluchistan
 46 in the west, and is bounded in the north by the irrigated plains of Punjab (Fig. 1.1).
 47 The Aravalli hills divide the state of Rajasthan into two parts: (1) north-western
 48 desert, and (2) south-eastern hilly semi-arid forest. The altitude of the Thar Desert

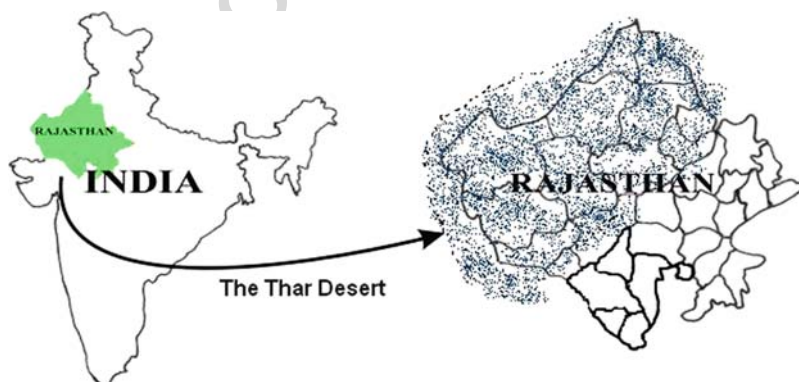


Fig. 1.1 Map of India showing location of the Thar Desert

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ranges from 61 m a.s.l. near Run of Kutch to 457 m in the lower reaches of Aravalli (where the highest peak Guru Shikhar in Mt. Abu is at 1,722 m a.s.l.). These geographical conditions provide extreme habitat for a wide range of flora, including bryophytes, pteridophytes, a lone gymnosperm – *Ephedra foliata* – and angiosperms including hydrophytes, halophytes and xerophytes.

About 720,000 ha desert area is saline and is used for production of table salt through open pits (subsoil) or wells (underground). Due to the high salt conditions, plants in this region have adapted to withstand high salt concentrations. The mechanism of salt tolerance differs in different species (Ramani et al. 2006). Some of the plants commonly found in saline habitats include *Cressa cretica*, *Haloxylon recurvum*, *Haloxylon salicornicum*, *Portulaca oleracea*, *Salsola baryosma*, *Sesuvium sesuvioides*, *Suaeda fruticosa*, *Tamarix aphylla*, *Trianthema triquetra*, *Zaleya redimita*, and *Zygophyllum simplex*.

1.2.2 Climate

Dry hot summers and pleasant dry winters are prominent features of the Thar Desert. The mean daily maximum temperature in summer ranges from 41°C to 46°C, and temperatures can reach up to 53°C in the shade during the hot summer noon. Rainfall is sparse, ranging from 127 mm to 254 mm annually, and is confined mainly to the rainy season (July–September).

1.2.3 Topographical Features

The topography of the Thar Desert is distinctly marked with sand, scattered rocky ridges and steep slopes. Topography and climatic factors play a significant role in determining the type of vegetation. Most regions consist of dry undulating plains of hardened sand, with the rest consisting largely of a rolling plain of loose sand that form shifting sand dunes 2–10 km long and 20–30 m in height.

1.2.4 Phytogeography

Phytogeographically, most of the Thar Desert area lies within the Saharo-Sindhian region. The desert area west of the Aravalli Hills is floristically very poor, comprising 682 species belonging to 351 genera and 87 families of flowering plants (Bhandari 1999), representing only 5% of the flora of India, which has ~17,500 flowering plants (Rao 2006). The flora east of Aravalli harbours about 8% of the flora of India, with 1,378 species belonging to 126 families (Tiagi and Aery 2007). Permanent features of the vegetation of the Thar Desert include trees and shrubs like *Acacia jacquemontii*, *Acacia nilotica*, *Calligonum polygonoides*, *Capparis decidua*, *Commiphora wightii*, *Leptadenia phytotechnica*, *Lycium barbarum*,

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84 *Prosopis cineraria*, *Salvadora oleoides*, *Salvadora persica*, *Tamarix aphylla*, and
85 *Zizyphus nummularia*. Herbs and shrubs like *Aerva persica*, *Blepharis scindica*,
86 *Calotropis procera*, *Crotalaria burhia*, *Cymbopogon javarancusa*, *Euphorbia*
87 *caducifolia*, *Grewia tenax* and *Tephrosia purpurea*, can generally be observed on
88 the rocks and sandy ridges.

89 1.3 Ethnobotanical Studies

90 In India, traditional folklore medicine has a long history and is very deep rooted in
91 rural and tribal populations. It was practiced long before the beginning of the
92 Christian era and perhaps even in the "Pre-vedic" periods of the Mohanjodaro and
93 Harrapan civilisations. Indeed, knowledge of plant species producing medicines,
94 essential oils and insecticides dates back to the beginning of civilisation. The tradi-
95 tional health care practices of indigenous people pertaining to human health is termed
96 ethnomedicine (Ramawat et al. 2009). Several tribes lead a nomadic life in Rajasthan,
97 and movement of such tribes and their cattle causes destruction of vegetation. In
98 addition, several tribes living in East Rajasthan obtain their livelihood from plants,
99 with these minor forest products being purchased by cooperatives. Such produce
100 includes various types of gums (gum arabic from *Acacia senegal*, gum karaya from
101 *Sterculia urens*, dhawda gum from *Anogeissus latifolia*, salai gum from *Boswellia*
102 *serrata*, oleogum resin of *Commiphora wightii*), catha from *Acacia catechu*, dyes (red
103 colour from *Bixa orellana* and *Mallotus philippensis*), several types of fruits, roots or
104 root tubers from plants like *Chlorophytum borivilianum*, *Curculigo orchoides*,
105 several *Dioscorea* species, leaves for making bidi (a local cigarette containing
106 tobacco) from *Diospyros melanoxylon*, seeds and leaves of *Datura* species, flowers
107 of *Madhuca indica* for making country liquor, and fibre for various usages from
108 plants like *Calotropis procera* and *Crotalaria burhia*, etc. Several works have
109 described the usage of plants by the tribes and local people of Rajasthan in detail
110 (Bhandari 1974; Sebastian and Bhandari 1984a, 1984b; Jain 1991; Joshi 1995;
111 Katewa and Sharma 1998; Katewa et al. 2003; Jain et al. 2005, 2008; Katewa 2009).

112 1.4 Biology of Desert Plants

113 The Indian desert is one of the most heavily populated (human and cattle) deserts
114 of the world. The resulting biotic interference exerts tremendous pressure on
115 economically important species, due to which 31 species have become either vulner-
116 able or endangered (Singh 2004). Of these, 17 species and 8 botanical varieties are
117 endemic to The Great Indian Desert. Biological irregularities like poor seed set and
118 production can be caused by reproductive problems, e.g. *Commiphora wightii*
119 (Kumar et al. 2003) and *Anogeissus pendula* (Joshi et al. 1991); low seed viability,
120 e.g. *Anogeissus pendula* (Joshi et al. 1991), *Tecomella undulata* (Arya et al. 1992),
121 and *Azadirachta indica* (Anonymous 1980), or due to flower, fruit and seed

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infestation by insects, e.g. *Acacia senegal* and *Prosopis cineraria* (Sharma and Ramawat 2005). Xerophytic habit is an adaptation of plants to survive in harsh conditions (high temperature and low water availability) by modifying their requirements. However, several of these plants are affected by insect and termite infestation of stems, and by various fungal pathogens, which affects the growth and wood quality of these species (Anonymous 1980). Infestation of flower, fruit, and seed by insects causes flower abnormalities, poor flower and seed set, and abnormal physiological changes in the plants themselves (Purohit et al. 1979; Ramawat et al. 1979). For example, *Withania coagulans* and *Ephedra foliata* are unable to produce a sufficient quantity of seed because of an imbalance in the ratio of male to female plants / flowers and the predomination of androecious plants/flowers (Singh 2004). *Anogeis-* *sus pendula* produces predominantly sterile seeds (Joshi et al. 1991), and *Salvadora* exhibits very poor seed germination. Therefore, efforts to study the reproductive biology and seed physiology of these plants are required in order to be able to select and propagate resistant plants. Since it would be difficult to exploit all the available germplasm immediately, conventional (seed, plantations, pollen) and non-conventional (embryo, callus, shoot tips by cryo-preservation) methods should be used to conserve and preserve the germplasm for future use.

With the exception of a few members of Fabaceae, most of these species, being outbreeders, produce heterozygous progeny, which results in variation in the natural population of these plants, e.g. *Agele marmelos*, *Prosopis* species and *T. undulata*. This variation is expressed in both morphological (fruit size, absence or presence of thorns, crown size, etc) and physiological (sugar, protein and chlorophyll content, isozymes patterns, etc.) characters within the species, e.g. in *Ziziphus mauritiana* (Muchuweti et al. 2005; Pareek 2001). Most of these tree species are grown from seed from a wild population with intraspecific variation. So far, except for a few species like *Z. mauritiana*, no detailed procedures have been adopted to select superior material with the aim of cloning and propagating such species.

1.5 Medicinal and Biological Activities

Traditional medicine is the mainstay of primary health care in virtually all developing countries. The use of herbal medicine in developed countries is also expanding rapidly, with many people turning towards alternative treatments that they hope will be less harmful and have fewer side effects than western medicine. The World Health Organisation (WHO) estimated that ~ 80% of the developing world relies on traditional medicine, and that 85% of this usage relies on plants or their extracts as the active substances. Desert areas harbour a high diversity of medicinal plants. Modern scientific validation methods have confirmed the strong analgesic, anti-arthritic, antifungal, antimicrobial, antiparasitic, hepatoprotective, hypolipidemic, insecticidal and anticancerous activities of several of these species (Table 1.1). Out of 700 species known to occur in extreme desert conditions (Bhandari 1999) about three dozen have potential biological activity. Some of these, such as *Achyranthes*

Table 1.1 Medicinal plants of arid regions, plant parts used, their bioactive molecules and biological activities

	Plant species (Family)	Bioactive compounds	Plant part used	Biological activities	References
t1.1					
t1.2					
t1.3	<i>Abutilon indicum</i> (Malvaceae)	Abutilin A, (R)-N-(1'-methoxycarbonyl)-2' phenylethyl)-4-hydroxybenzamide, β -sitosterol, eugenol	Whole plant	Mosquito larvicidal Hepatoprotective Hypoglycemic Analgesic	Abdul Rahuman et al. 2008 Porchezhian and Ansari 2005 Seetharam et al. 2002 Ahmed et al. 2000
t1.4					
t1.5					
t1.6					
t1.7	<i>Acacia nilotica</i> (Mimosaceae)	Kaempferol (AN-5), D-pinitol, a sex hormone, viz 3 β -acetoxy-17-hydroxy-androst-5-ene	Stem bark, gum, flower, leaves	Antioxidant Immunosuppressive Anticancer and antimutagenic Antiinflammatory Antifungal Antiplasmodial Larvicidal Anti-leishmanial Antidiarrheal Moderate antimicrobial activity against multi-drug resistant <i>Salmonella typhi</i>	Singh et al. 2008 Aderbauer et al. 2008 Meena et al. 2006; Arora et al. 2003 Chaubal et al. 2003, 2006 Hamza et al. 2006 Kirira et al. 2006 Chaubal et al. 2005 Fatima et al. 2005 Agunu et al. 2005 Rani and Khullar 2004
t1.8					
t1.9					
t1.10					
t1.11					
t1.12					
t1.13					
t1.14					
t1.15					
t1.16					
t1.17				Inhibitory effect on hepatitis C virus (HCV) protease	Hussein et al. 2000
t1.18				Antihypertensive and antispasmodic activities	Gilani et al. 1999
t1.19	<i>Achyranthes aspera</i> (Amaranthaceae)	Ecdysterone, betaine	Root, leaves	Treatment of leprosy, fistula-in-ano, bronchial asthma	Goyal et al. 2007
t1.20				Post coital antifertility activity	Vasudeva and Sharma 2006
t1.21				Immunity enhancement	Chakrabarti and Vasudeva 2006
t1.22				Anti-inflammatory	Vetrichelvan and Jegadeesan 2003
t1.23				Antiarthritic	Gokhale et al. 2002
t1.24				Cancer chemopreventive	Chakraborty et al. 2002
t1.25				Prothroidic, antiperoxidative	Tahiliani and Kar 2000
t1.26	<i>Aerva persica</i> (Amaranthaceae)	Persinol, persinosides A and B	Whole plant	Antioxidative	Ahmed et al. 2006a

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t1.27	<i>Aristolochia</i>	Aristolochic acid	Leaves	Wound healing activity	Shirwaikar et al. 2003
t1.28	<i>bracteolata</i> (Asclepiadaceae)			Antiplasmodial activity	El-Tahir et al. 1999
t1.29	<i>Balanites aegyptiaca</i>	Balanitin-6 and-7: diosgenyl saponins	Kernel, fruit	Antitumor activity	Gnoula et al. 2008
t1.30	(Simarubaceae)		mesocarp,	Larvicidal	Chapagain et al. 2008
t1.31			root, bark	Antiinflammatory, antinociceptive, antioxidant	Speroni et al. 2005
t1.32	<i>Barleria prionitis</i>	Iridoid glycoside, barlerin, verbascoside	Whole plant	Fasciolicidal	Koko et al. 2000
t1.33	(Asclepiadaceae)			Hepatoprotective	Singh et al. 2005
t1.34				Significant reduction in spermatogenesis	Verma et al. 2005; Gupta et al. 2000
t1.35				Antiinflammatory and antiarthritic	Singh et al. 2003
t1.36				Potent activity against respiratory syncytial virus	Chen et al. 1998
t1.37	<i>Boerhaavia diffusa</i>	Nonprenylated rotenoids viz	Whole plant	Cell-mediated immune response	Manu and Kuttan 2008
t1.38	(Nyctaginaceae)	boeravinones G(1), H(2), I(10), J(11), punarnavoside, liriiodendrin		Breast cancer resistance protein inhibiting activity	Ahmed-Belkacem et al. 2007
t1.39				Radioprotective	Manu et al. 2007
t1.40				Spasmolytic effects	Borrelli et al. 2005, 2006
t1.41				Immunosuppressive	Pandey et al. 2005
t1.42				Antifungal activity	Agrawal et al. 2004
t1.43				Antidiabetic activity with improvement in antioxidant status	Satheesh and Pari 2004
t1.44				Cancer chemopreventive	Bharali et al. 2003
t1.45	<i>Capparis decidua</i>	Triacntanol (C1), 2-carboxy-1,1dimethylpyrrolidine (C2)	Stem, flower, fruit	Insecticidal and oviposition inhibitory activity	Upadhyay et al. 2006
t1.46	(Capparidaceae)			Hypolipidemic	Purohit and Vyas 2005; Goyal and Grewal 2003
t1.47				Antidiabetic, antioxidative	Yadav et al. 1997
t1.48	<i>Calotropis procera</i>	Laticifer proteins, calotropagenin, calotropin, rutin	Dried latex, leaves,	Hepatoprotective by acting as antioxidants	Olaleye and Rocha 2008; Padhy et al. 2007
	(Asclepiadaceae)				

(continued)

Table 1.1 (continued)

	Plant species (Family)	Bioactive compounds	Plant part used	Biological activities	References
t1.50			flowers,	Anticancer and cytotoxic	Soares de Oliveira et al. 2007;
t1.51			root, bark		Choedon et al. 2006
t1.49				Larvicidal	Singh et al. 2005
t1.50				Anthelmintic activity	Iqbal et al. 2005
t1.51				Spasmolytic effect	Iwalewa et al. 2005
t1.52				Improvement of skin viscoelastic properties	Ahshawat et al. 2008
t1.53	Cassia tora (Caesalpiniaceae)	Emodin, chrysophanol, chryso-obtusin, obtusifolin, physcoin, cassiaside, aloe-emodin, emodin, torachryson, toralactone	Seeds, leaves	Inhibitory activity on protein glycation and aldose reductase	Jang et al. 2007, Lee et al. 2006
t1.54				Oestrogenic and anti-oestrogenic	El-Halawany 2007
t1.55				Hypolipidemic	Cho et al. 2007; Patil et al. 2004
t1.56				Improve serum lipid status in type II diabetic subjects	Cho et al. 2005
t1.57				Antifungal	Kim et al. 2004
t1.58				Used in treatment of plaque and caries	Hebbar et al. 2004
t1.59				Antinociceptive	Chidume et al. 2002
t1.60				Low glycemic index food	Robert et al. 2008
t1.61	Citrullus colocynthis (Cucurbitaceae)	Cucurbitacins	Fruit	Larvicidal	Rahuman and Venkatesan 2008
t1.62				Antimicrobial efficiency	Paul 2008
t1.63				Hypolipidemic	Daradka et al. 2007
t1.64				Hypolipidemic agent in clinical practice, potential anti-dementia drug	Saxena et al. 2007
t1.65	Commiphora wightii (Bursaceae)	E- and Z- guggalsterone	Gum resin	Inhibits tumour cell proliferation, used traditionally to treat obesity, diabetes, atherosclerosis and osteoarthritis	Shishodia et al. 2007
t1.66				Neuropharmacological	Caveney et al. 2001
t1.67	Ephedra foliata (Ephedraceae)	Ephedrine, pseudoephedrine	Stem	Used in anti-asthmatic compound	Rogers et al. 1997
t1.68					

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t1.69	<i>Haloxylon recurvum</i> (Chenopodiaceae)	Halosterols A and B, Haloxysterols A-D	Whole plant	Chymotrypsin enzyme inhibitory	Hussain et al. 2006
t1.70	<i>Haloxylon</i>	Haloxylines A and B	Whole plant	Cholinesterase inhibition	Ahmed et al. 2006b
t1.71	<i>Haloxylon salicornicum</i> (Chenopodiaceae)			Antifungal and cholinesterase enzymes inhibitory potentials	Ferheen et al. 2005
t1.72	<i>Lepidagathis cristata</i> (Acanthaceae)	Cristatin A, cycloartenol and stigmasta-5,11(12)-diene-3- β -ol CW1, CW2	Whole plant	Immunosuppressive	Ravikanth et al. 2001
t1.73	<i>Malva parvifolia</i> (Malvaceae)		Leaves, roots	Antimicrobial	Tadeg et al. 2005; Wang et al. 2001; Wang and Bunkers 2000
t1.74				Anti-inflammatory	Shale et al. 2005
t1.75				Active against multidrug resistant <i>Mycobacterium tuberculosis</i>	Jimenez-Arellanes et al. 2003
t1.76	<i>Maytenus emarginata</i> (Celastraceae)	Emarginatine F [1] and emarginatine G [2]	Entire plant	Strong cytotoxicity against several experimental cancer lines	Kuo et al. 1994, 1990
t1.77	<i>Phyllanthus amarus</i> (Euphorbeaceae)	Phyllanthin	Leaves, seeds	Hepatoprotective	Faremi et al. 2008; Khatoon et al. 2006
t1.78				Larvicidal	Rahuman et al. 2008
t1.79				Treatment of drug induced nephrotoxicity	Adeneye and Benebo 2008
t1.80				Hypotensive	Amaechina and Omogbai 2007
t1.81				Antimicrobial	Okigbo and Igwe 2007
t1.82				Radioprotective	Harikumar and Kuttan 2007
t1.83				Antinociceptive	Santos et al. 2000
t1.84	<i>Phyllanthus emblica</i> <i>syn Emblica officinalis</i> (Euphorbeaceae)	Emblicanin-A, B, gallic acid, ellagic acid, pyrogallol, apigenin 7-O-(6''butyryl- β -glucopyranoside), quercetin, putranjivain A	Fruit	Antimicrobial, virucidal action against HIV-INL4.3 and HPV infections	Talwar et al. 2008; Srikumar et al. 2007
t1.85				Hepatoprotective	Panchabhai et al. 2008
				Cancer chemopreventive	Pinnai et al. 2008; Arulkumaran et al. 2007; Sandhya and Mishra 2006; Deep et al. 2005
t1.86				Potent antioxi-dant in various conditions like prevention of	Saito et al. 2008; Yokozawa et al. 2007; Mythilypriya et al. 2007
t1.87					

(continued)

Table 1.1 (continued)

t1.88	Plant species (Family)	Bioactive compounds	Plant part used	Biological activities	References
t1.89				age-related renal disease and in arthritis	
t1.88				Memory improvement and reversal of memory deficits	Vasudevan and Parle 2007a, 2007b
t1.89				Preventive role in prefibrogenesis of liver	Mir et al. 2007
t1.90				Healing activity on infected wound in form of TRIPHALA	Kumar et al. 2008
t1.91				Radioprotective effect	Singh et al. 2006
t1.92				Effective for hypercholesterolemia and prevention of atherosclerosis	Kim et al. 2005
				Hepatoprotective	Sailaja and Setty 2006; Khatoon et al. 2006; Ahmed et al. 2002
t1.93	<i>Phyllanthus fraternus</i> (Euphorbeaceae)	E,E-2,4-octadienamide, E,Z-2,4-decadienamide, niruriside, phyllanthin	Whole plant	Antinociceptive	Catapán et al. 2000; Santos et al. 2000
t1.94				Antiplasmodial	Sittie et al. 1998
t1.95				Caries prevention	Sofrata et al. 2007; Khalessi et al. 2004; Darmani et al. 2006
t1.96	<i>Salvadora persica</i> (Salvadoraceae)	Four benzylamides of which N-benzyl-2-phenylacetamide is pharmacologically important	Stem	Antiplasmodial	Ali et al. 2002
t1.97				Anticonvulsant and sedative effects	Monforte et al. 2002
t1.98				Antiulcer	Sanogo et al. 1999
t1.99				Hypolipidemic	Galati et al. 1999
t1.100				Antipyretic and antiulcerogenic	Philip et al. 2008
t1.101	<i>Sida cordifolia</i> (Malvaceae)	Indoloquinoline alkaloid-cryptolepine, 1,2,3,9-tetrahydro-pyrrolo [2,1-β] quinazolin-3-ylamine	Aerial parts, mainly leaves	Chemotherapeutic agent for treatment of osteosarcoma	Matsui et al. 2007
t1.102				Antiinflammatory and analgesic	Sutradhar et al. 2007; Franzotti et al. 2000
t1.103				Liver regeneration	Silva et al. 2006
t1.104				Cardiovascular activity, cause hypotension and bradycardia	Medeiros et al. 2006
t1.105				Depressive activity on CNS	Franco et al. 2005
t1.106					

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t1.107		Effects in neurodegenerative diseases such as Parkinson's, Alzheimer's, loss of memory	Auddy et al. 2003
t1.108		Hyperglycemic	Kanth and Diwan 1999
t1.109	<i>Solanum xanthocarpum</i>	Antifungal	Singh et al. 2007; Dabur et al. 2004
t1.110	(Solanaceae)	Antimalarial	Mohan et al. 2007
t1.111		Hyperglycemic	Kar et al. 2006
t1.112		Inhibits growth of Reo virus	Jabbar et al. 2004
t1.113		Potential larvicide	Mohan et al. 2005
t1.114		Used in bronchial asthma	Govindan et al. 2004
t1.115		Antinociceptive activity	Rahman et al. 2003
t1.116		Potential molluscicidal	Wei et al. 2002
t1.117	<i>Suaeda fruticosa</i>	Hyperglycemic effect	Benwahhoud et al. 2001
t1.118	(Chenopodeaceae)	Hypolipidemic activity	Bennani-Kabchi et al. 1999
t1.119	<i>Tephrosia purpurea</i>	Antihyperglycemic and antihyperlipidemic	Pavana et al. 2007
t1.120	(Fabaceae)	Wound healing potential, hepatoprotective, antiulcer, antibacterial	Lodhi et al. 2006
t1.121		Immunomodulatory	Damre et al. 2003
t1.122		Inhibits haemolysis of erythrocytes	Gokhale et al. 2000
t1.123		Cancer chemopreventive	Khan et al. 2001; Saleem et al. 2001; Chang et al. 2000
t1.124	<i>Tribulus terrestris</i>	Antimicrobial	Al-Bayati and Al-Mola 2008
t1.125	(Zygophyllaceae)	Male erectile dysfunction	Gauthaman and Ganesan 2008
t1.126		Attenuates apoptosis in cardiocyte	Sun et al. 2008
t1.127		Hyperglycemic and hypolipidemic	El-Tantaway and Hassanin 2007; Li et al. 2002
t1.128		Protective role in induced nephrotoxicity	Kavitha and Jagadeesan 2006
t1.129		Analgesic	Heidari et al. 2007

(continued)

t1.131 **Table 1.1** (continued)

t1.132	Plant species (Family)	Bioactive compounds	Plant part used	Biological activities	References
t1.130				Increase melanocyte stimulating hormone (MSH) expression	Yang et al. 2006; Deng et al. 2002
t1.131				Antifungal	Zhang et al. 2005
t1.132				75% inhibition of PPR and Reo virus	Jabbar et al. 2004
t1.133				Antihypertensive and vasodilator	Phillips et al. 2006; Sharifi et al. 2003
				Anticancerous	Neychev et al. 2007; Yang et al. 2005; Sun et al. 2004, 2003
t1.134				Anthelmintic	Deepak et al. 2002
t1.135			Leaves	Antiinflammatory	Margaret et al. 1998
t1.136	<i>Tridax procumbens</i>	Lupeol, sitosterol		Exerts a direct pro-healing effect	Diwan et al. 1983
t1.137	(Fabaceae)			through release of adrenal steroid	
t1.138	<i>Withania coagulans</i>	Withaferin, withanolide, withcoagin	Fruits	Hypolipidemic	Hemalata et al. 2006
	(Solanaceae)				
t1.139	<i>Withania somnifera</i>	Withaferin A, withanolide A, withanoside IV, withanoside VI, sominone, ashwagandhanolide, sterole glycosyltransferases	Root, leaves	Cancer chemopreventive	Stan et al. 2008; Malik et al. 2007; Widodo et al. 2007; Senthil et al. 2007; Subbaraju et al. 2006
t1.140	(Solanaceae)			Useful in several neurodegenerative diseases	Srinivasan et al. 2007; Senthilnathan et al. 2006; Ichikawa et al. 2006
t1.141				Cardioprotection	Tohda 2008; Kulkarni and Dhir 2008; Kuboyama et al. 2006
t1.142				Mood stabiliser	Mohanty et al. 2008
t1.143				Normalise hyperglycemia in diabetes mellitus type II	Gupta and Rana 2007
t1.144				Useful in anxiety and insomnia	Anwer et al. 2008
				Useful in arthritis treatment	Kumar and Kalonia 2007; Khan et al. 2006; Khanna et al. 2007; Rasool and Varalakshmi 2006a; 2007
t1.145				Antimalarial	Dikasso et al. 2006
t1.146				Prevention of glycation induced pathogenesis in diabetes mellitus and aging	Babu et al. 2007
t1.147					

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t1.148				Stress management	Madina et al. 2007
t1.149				Antifungal activity by inhibiting aflatoxin B production	Krishnamurthy and Shashikala 2006; Girish et al. 2006
t1.150				AchE inhibitory	Vinutha et al. 2007
t1.151				Immunomodulatory	Spelman et al. 2006; Rasool and Varalakshmi 2006b
t1.152				Hypocholesteremic and antioxidant	Visavadiya and Narasimhacharya 2007
t1.153				Treatment of osteoporosis	Nagareddy and Lakshmana 2006
t1.154				Antidote	Machiah et al. 2006
t1.155	<i>Zizyphus mauritiana</i> (Rhamnaceae)	Betulinic acid	Fruits	Hepatoprotective and immunomodulatory	Adhvaryu et al. 2007
t1.156				Anticancerous activity	Mukherjee et al. 2006

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Fig. 1.2 Fruits and leaves of *Phyllanthus emblica*

163 *aspera*, *Balanites aegyptiaca*, *Barleria prionitis*, *Boerhaavia diffusa*, *Commiphora*
164 *wightii*, *Phyllanthus emblica* syn. *Emblica officinalis*, *Phyllanthus amarus*, *Tribulus*
165 *terrestris* and *Withania somnifera* are used in the Indian system of traditional
166 medicine (Ramawat and Goyal 2008). Plants like *C. wightii* and *W. somnifera* are
167 used in hundreds of tons, while fruits of *P. emblica* (Fig. 1.2) are used in thousands
168 of tons and rank first in consumption in Indian traditional medicine (Ramawat and
169 Goyal 2008; Anonymous 2001).

170 The diverse biological activities are due to the presence of a wide array of bio-
171 active molecules (Fig. 1.3), including simple alkaloids, anthraquinones (physcion,
172 emodin, chrysophanol), naphthopyrone glucosides (cassiaside, rubrofusarin-6- β -
173 D-gentiobioside), phenolics, rotenoids [boeravinones G (1) and H (2)], saponins,
174 steroids (β -sitosterol, carpesterol, ecdysterone), and terpenes (Table 1.1). Explora-
175 tion of the chemical constituents of the plants and pharmacological screening may
176 provide the basis for lead compounds in the development of novel agents. Indeed,
177 herbs have already provided us with some of the most important life saving drugs
178 used in modern medicine (Goyal et al. 2008).

179 1.6 Methods of Propagation

180 Conventional vegetative propagation methods have been developed mostly in
181 woody plants like *Commiphora wightii*, *Ziziphus mauritiana*, *Prosopis cineraria*,
182 etc. Some of these plants, e.g. *P. cineraria* (Ramawat and Nandwani 1991), are very

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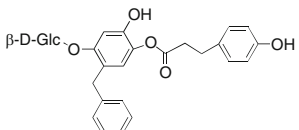
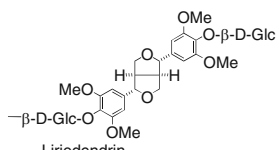
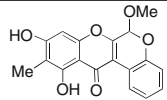
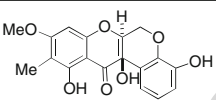
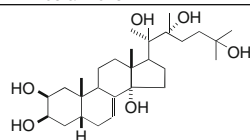
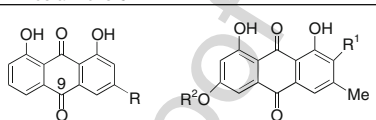
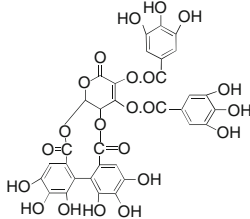
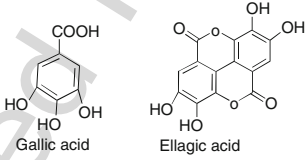
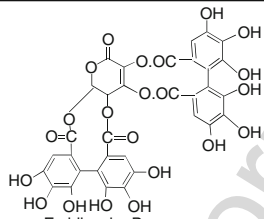
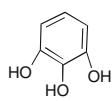
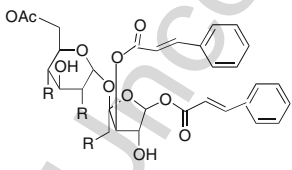
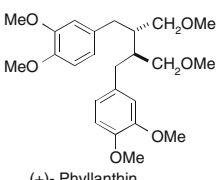
 <p>Punarnavoside</p>	 <p>Liriodendrin</p>
 <p>Boeravinone A</p>	 <p>Boeravinone C</p>
 <p>Ecdysterone</p> <p>Me₃N⁺CH₂COO⁻ Betaine</p>	 <p>Chrysophenole : R = Me Emodin: R¹ = R² = H Aloe-emodin: R = CH₂OH Physcion: R¹ = H, R² = Me Rhein: R = COOH Alternin: R¹ = OH, R² = H</p>
 <p>Emblicanin- A</p>	 <p>Gallic acid Ellagic acid</p>
 <p>Emblicanin- B</p>	 <p>Pyrogallol</p>
 <p>Niruside R = OAc</p>	 <p>(+)- Phyllanthin</p>

Fig. 1.3 Chemical structures of bioactive molecules of selected medicinal plants

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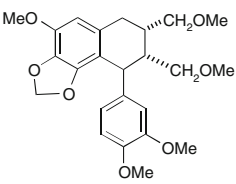
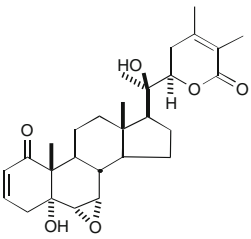
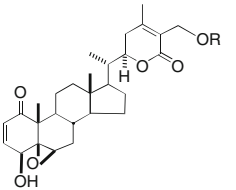
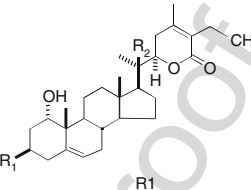
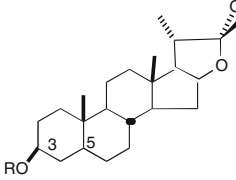
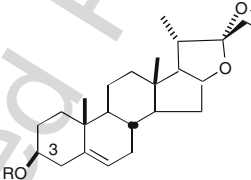
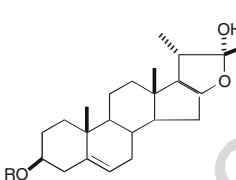
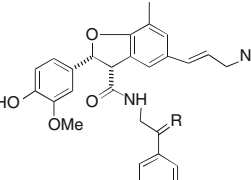
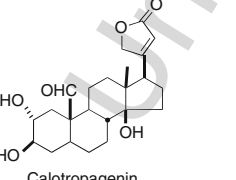
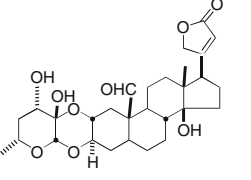
 <p>Hypophyllanthin</p>	 <p>Withanolide- A</p>
 <p>Withaferin-A: R = H Sitoindoside-IX: R = Glc Sitoindoside-X: R = Glc (6-o-palmitoyl)</p>	 <p>Withanoside-IV: R₁ = Glc(1→6)-Glc, R₂ = H, R₃ = OH Withanoside-VI: R₁ = Glc(1→6)-Glc, R₂ = OH, R₃ = H Coagulin: R₁ = Glc, R₂ = OH, R₃ = H</p>
 <p>Tribulosin: 5αH, R = Gal-[(2→1) Rha-]-(4→1) - Glc-(2→1) -Xyl-(3→1)-Xyl Isopterostrosin-B: 5βH, R = Rha-(1→2) -[Glc - (1→4)]- Gal</p>	 <p>Diosgenin: R = H Dioscin : R = Glc -(4 →1) -Man -(6- deoxy) -(2→1) - Man - (6- deoxy)</p>
 <p>Protodioscin: R = Glc- (1→4) -Man -(6- deoxy) - (2 →1) -Man-(6- deoxy)</p>	 <p>Tribulusamide- A: R = H₂ Tribulusamide- B: R = O</p>
 <p>Calotropagenin</p>	 <p>Calotropin</p>

Fig. 1.3 (continued)

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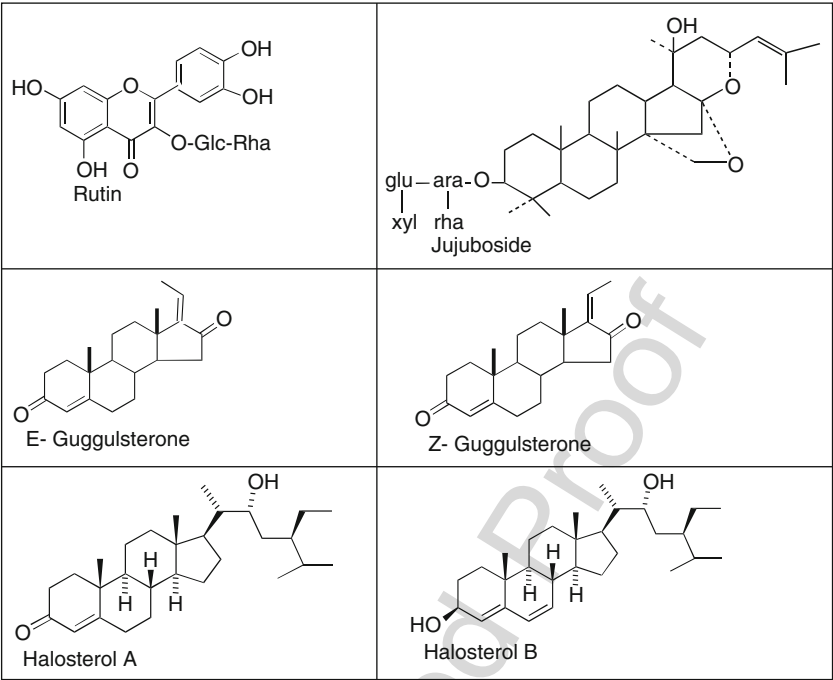


Fig. 1.3 (continued)

difficult to root. In medicinally important plants like *C. wighti*, rooting of up to 70% of stem cuttings can be obtained with the application of auxin and selection of suitable material (Singh et al. 1989). *Z. mauritiana* improved for fruit quality is propagated by grafting (Pareek 2001). Propagation of improved stock is a very difficult and challenging task in arid regions. In the case of *Z. mauritiana*, wild stock with in situ grafting was found to be more successful than nursery grafting and transplanting. The seed-produced plants are not true to the parent stock, and stem cutting of superior selections do not establish properly, leaving grafting on wild stock as the only means of propagating the selected material (Pareek 2001). Other methods, such as air-layering and grafting, are successful with only a few species, and then only on a limited scale. These techniques are adversely affected by variation between and within species, making biotechnological methods an attractive alternative.

1.7 Biotechnological Approaches

Medicinal plant biotechnology offers many novel opportunities and techniques to conserve, propagate, improve and utilise medicinal plants and herbs for the welfare of human beings. Since the emergence of the concept of cellular

Table 1.2 Plantspecies and their in vitro response on different media

	Plant species	Medium	Plant part used	Regeneration	Reference
t2.1			Leaf	Callus	Kayani et al. 2008
t2.2	<i>Achyranthes aspera</i>	MS + 2,4-D (1.0–2.0 mg/l) + NAA (0.5 mg/l)			
t2.3	<i>Aristolochia bracteolata</i>	MS + BA (4.4–35.5 µM) + kinetin (0.45–9.2 µM) + IAA (0.57–5.8 µM)	Nodes	Shoot regeneration	Rameshree et al. 1994
t2.4		MS + kinetin (0.45–23 µM) + NAA (0.46–9.2 µM) + IAA (0.5–5.7 µM)	Leaves, node	Callus	Rameshree et al. 1994
t2.5	<i>Boerhaavia diffusa</i>	MS + BAP (1.5 mg/l) + NAA (0.5 mg/l)	Shoot tip and nodal explants	Multiple shoot regeneration	Roy 2008
t2.6		MS + NAA (1.0 mg/l) + BAP (1.0 mg/l)	Callus	Shooting	Gupta et al. 2004
t2.7	<i>Balanites aegyptiaca</i>	MS + BAP (2.5 mg/l) + NAA (0.1 mg/l)	Axillary bud	Shooting	Ndoye et al. 2003
t2.8		MS + IBA (20 mg/l)		Rooting	Ndoye et al. 2003
t2.9		MS + BAP (0.45 µM)	In vitro shoots axillary meristems	Shooting	Rathore et al. 2004
t2.10					
t2.11	<i>Capparis decidua</i>	MS + NAA (0.1 mg/l) + BAP (5.0 mg/l) + additives	Node	Multiple shoots	Deora and Shekhawat 1995
t2.12	<i>Citullus colocynthis</i>	MS + BA (25 µM)	Cotyledon	organogenic calli	Dabauza et al. 1997
t2.13		MS + BA (0.5 µM)	Organogenic calli	Shooting	Dabauza et al. 1997
t2.14		MS + IBA (2.5/5.0 µM)	In vitro shoots	Rooting	Dabauza et al. 1997
t2.15	<i>Cocculus pendulus</i>	¹ / ₄ MS + IAA (0.1 mg/l) + kinetin (2.97 mg/l)	Callus	Shoots	Gaur et al. 1995
t2.16	<i>Conniphora wightii</i>	MS modified + 2,4,5-T (0.25 mg/l) + kinetin (0.1 mg/l)	Zygotic embryo	Somatic embryogenesis	Kumar et al. 2003
t2.17	<i>Haloxylon recurvum</i>	MS + BAP (4.0 µM) + additives	Nodal explant and leaves	Multiple shoots	Dagla and Shekhawat 2005
t2.18		¹ / ₂ MS + IBA (4.0 µM)+ activated charcoal (100 mg/l)	In vitro shoots	Rooting	Dagla and Shekhawat 2005
t2.19	<i>Maxtenus emarginata</i>	MS + IAA (0.1 mg/l) + BAP (2.5 mg/l)	Shoot segments	Multiple shoots	Rathore et al. 1992a

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t2.20	<i>Phyllanthus amarus</i>	MS + IBA (25 mg/l) MS + kinetin (0.1 mg/l) + IAA (0.1 mg/l) MS only	In vitro shoots Shoot tips Alginate-encapsulated shoot tips Leaves	Rooting Direct shoots regeneration Plant regeneration	Rathore et al. 1992a Bhattacharyya and Bhattacharyya 2001 Singh et al. 2006
t2.21					
t2.22					
t2.23	<i>Phyllanthus emblica</i> syn <i>Embllica officinalis</i>	¹ / ₄ liquid MS MS + BAP (4.44 µM/l) + IBA (2.46 µM/l)	Nodal explants	Hairy roots Shooting	Bhattacharyya and Bhattacharyya 2004 Goyal and Bhadauria 2008
t2.25		BMS + 2,4-D (1–4 mg/l) + kinetin (0.05 mg/l) and BMS + NAA (1–4 mg/l) + kinetin (0.05 mg/l) MS + BAP (4.0 mg/l) + IAA (0.5 mg/l) + adenine sulphate (40 mg/l) + glutamine (100 mg/l) + thiamine HCl (10 mg/l) ¹ / ₂ MS + IBA (3.0 mg/l) MS + BAP (2.0 mg/l) + NAA (0.5 mg/l) + adenine sulphate (1.0 mg/l) + 10% (v/v) coconut milk ¹ / ₂ MS + IBA (2.0 mg/l)	Mature embryo explants Cotyledonary nodes Shoots Nodal explants	Callus Shooting Rooting Multiple shoots	Tyagi and Govil 1999 Mathur et al. 2002 Mathur et al. 2002 Sivanesan and Jeong 2007
t2.26	<i>Salvadora persica</i>				
t2.27	<i>Sida cordifolia</i>				
t2.28					
t2.29	<i>Tephrosia purpurea</i>	MS + PGR MS + NAA (0.2 mg/l) + BAP (0.5 mg/l) + glutamine (0.5 mg/l)	In vitro regenerated shoots Root, leaves, stem Cotyledonary leaves along with epicotyl segment	Rooting Callus Shoots and roots	Sivanesan and Jeong 2007 Zafar and Mujeeb 2002 Ali et al. 1997
t2.30	<i>Tribulus terrestris</i>		Root, cotyledonary leaf segments Callus	Callus	Rania et al. 2003
t2.31	<i>Withania somnifera</i>	MS + 2,4-D (2 mg/l) + kinetin (0.2 mg/l) MS + 2,4-D (2 mg/l) + kinetin (0.2 mg/l)			
t2.32					
t2.33					

(continued)

Table 1.2 (continued)

Plant species	Medium	Plant part used	Regeneration	Reference
<i>Ziziphus mauritiana</i>	MS + IBA (2.0 mg/l) MS + BA (4.4 M) + 2,4-D (2.3 M) MS + BAP (2.5 mg/l) + IAA (0.1 mg/l) + KNO ₃ (3,800 mg/l) 1/2 MS + IBA (0.5 mg/l) + kinetin (0.05 mg/l) MS + kinetin (2.5 mg/l)	Shoots Shoot tips Hypocotyl	Rooting Shoot multiplication 15–20 shoots	Rania et al. 2003 Sen and Sharma 1991 Mathur et al. 1995
<i>Ziziphus nummularia</i>	MS + kinetin (10 mg/l) + IAA (0.1–0.5 mg/l) + KNO ₃ (3,800 mg/l) White's liquid + IBA (25 mg/l) + 48 h pulse then White's HF semi-solid	Shoot Cotyledonary hypocotyls Hypocotyl Regenerated shoots	Rooting 8–18 adventitious shoot induction 18 shoots Rooting	Goyal and Ayra 1985 Mathur et al. 1994 Mathur et al. 1993 Rathore et al. 1992b

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totipotency, contemporary developments in the area of plant tissue culture to devise methods allowing rapid and year-round multiplication of desired genotypes, production of pathogen-free stock, raising uniform clones from highly heterozygous plants, monitoring production of useful natural products in vitro, propagating plants (including genetically transformed plants) with changed/alterd genotypes have added new dimensions to this field, pushing this science towards the realm of technological application by providing a basis for modern biotechnology (Ramawat et al. 2004; Ramawat and Goyal 2008). Micropropagation methods have been reported for around 18 species (Table 1.2), while many more have been cultured for various purposes including production of secondary metabolites, e.g. *Commiphora wightii* cell cultures (Mathur and Ramawat 2007), *Pueraria tuberosa* (Goyal and Ramawat 2008a, 2008b) and *Cayratia trifolia* (Roat and Ramawat 2009). Of these, only six are woody trees and the rest are herbs. These methods still need improvement to make them commercially viable programmes.

1.8 Conclusions

It is evident from the account above that the flora of Rajasthan is rich in medicinal plants. The recent surge in publications describing the biological activities of these plants demonstrates the potential for their application in many different areas of human medicine. This is the first compilation of its kind to describe the biological activities of such a large number of desert plants together with biotechnological input. Some of these plants are already well established in the Indian system of medicine, therefore it is desirable to study their reproductive biology and biological activities, and to develop methods for their conservation. Although these plants can be very difficult to work with in terms of propagation and improvement, they possess a gene pool representing some very useful characteristics, such as drought resistance, salinity resistance and the ability to cope with high temperatures. Thus, there is much scope to explore the genetic and molecular biology of these plants to better understand the mechanisms underlying desert plant survival.

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