Leuco-Anthocyanins

2. SYSTEMATIC DISTRIBUTION OF LEUCO-ANTHOCYANINS IN LEAVES

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In Part 1 (preceding paper) a method of demonstrating the presence of leuco-anthocyanins in plant tissues has been described. A modified version of this method, in which paper chromatographic separation of the anthocyanidins is not carried out, has been applied to the leaves of several hundred species of plants. As a confirmatory test, in the great majority of instances the vanillin reaction has been applied to methanolic extracts of the leaves. In extracts of plant tissues, this reaction is given only, so far as is known, by leuco-anthocyanins and catechins, and the latter do not, of course, give anthocyanidins under the conditions of the primary test. In every instance described below, where a specimen giving a positive anthocyanidin test has been examined chromatographically, anthocyanidin has, in fact, been present on the chromatogram.

METHODS

Anthocyanidin test. This is carried out by heating the sample of leaf tissue in 2n-HCl, and extracting the digest with isoamyl alcohol, as described in Part 1, except that the extraction can be carried out in the digestion tube in presence of the solid residue, and that the amount of isoamyl alcohol need not be so restricted as when the solution is to be used for chromatography. The shade and depth of colour of the isoamyl alcoholic layer are noted. Any colour from deep crimson to faintly pinkish is regarded as positive for anthocyanidin (subject to confirmation by the vanillin test or by chromatography) and is scored according to depth (see Table 1).

Vanillin test. A similar sample of fresh leaf tissue is macerated with methanol (about 2 ml.) in a test tube for approx. I min. The (usually) bright green extract is decanted into another tube and shaken with light petroleum to remove chlorophyll. (If the tissue is left in contact too long with methanol the phytyl group of chlorophyll will be transesterified by chlorophyllase, when present, with methyl and the chlorophyll is not then so readily extracted from the methanolic layer.) The extraction with light petroleum is repeated until the methanolic layer is no more than faintly green. One-half of the methanolic solution is then transferred to a third tube, and 3-5 drops of conc. HCl are added to each tube; 3-5 drops of a saturated solution of vanillin in ethanol are added to one of them. A positive reaction variess from one in which a deep cherry-red coloration is produced immediately to one which becomes only perceptibly warmer in tint than the control. When the vanillin reaction is negative, both the control and the test samples usually become bluer in tint, because of the development of a reaction between carotenoid compounds and HCl (cf. Bate-Smith, 1953). This reaction is slower in development than the vanillin reaction, and, moreover, it appears to be inhibited in presence of leuco-anthocyanins. When the latter are present, in high concentration, anthocyanidin is slowly developed in the HCl control sample even in the cold; the blue carotenoid reaction is not only suppressed, but is replaced by a scarlet anthocyanidin reaction.

RESULTS

In Tables 1 and 2 are recorded the results of applying the anthocyanidin test to the leaves of over 500 species of plants. The vanillin test was carried out on 448 (86 %) of these plants and only in four instances was there any clear qualitative disagreement between the results of the two tests.

Discussion of Table 1

The results in this table support the earlier conclusion (Bate-Smith, 1953) that leuco-anthocyanins occur much more commonly in the tissues of woody plants than in those of herbaceous plants. This generalization is strikingly brought out by relating the results to the phylogenetic scheme of Hutchinson (1946, 1948), which is based essentially on a division of dicotyledonous plants into two groups, one, Lignosae, predominantly woody, the other, Herbaceae, predominantly herbaceous. In the Lignosae, the only families so far examined of which the members contain no leuco-anthocyanins are Oleaceae, Loganiaceae, Cornaceae, Araliaceae, Greyiaceae,* Myrsinaceae, Linaceae, Erythroxylaceae, Buxaceae and those in the group Thymeleales to Cucurbitales. Most of these are regarded as 'apical' families in their respective phyletic series. Several of the other 'apical' families such as Asclepiadaceae, Caprifoliaceae, Rubiaceae, Rutaceae, Verbenaceae, and Papilionaceae (Hutchinson) contain many members without leuco-anthocyanins. On the other hand, families recognized as relatively primitive-for example, Magnoliaceae, Theaceae,

* Willis (1948), following Engler and Prantl, places Greyia in Melianthaceae.

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Dilleniaceae, Anonaceae, Tiliaceae and Rosaceae regularly contain leuco-anthocyanins, often in great quantity. In the Herbaceae, the only families in which leuco-anthocyanins have been detected are Saxifragaceae (Hutchinson), Polygonaceae, Ficoidaceae (=Aizoaceae E.P.), Oxalidaceae, Limnanthaceae, Balsaminaceae, and Plumbaginaceae.* The first are 'extracted' by Hutchinson as a herbaceous group from the otherwise woody Saxifragaceae (E.P.). Of the remainder only Limnanthaceae and Balsaminaceae are 'wholly herbaceous' (Metcalfe & Chalk, 1950).

The incidence of leuco-anthocyanins within some of those families which give partly positive and partly negative reactions appears at first sight to be quite irrational. On examination, however, factors can be discerned which seem to influence the presence or absence of leuco-anthocyanin in these cases. The best example for detailed consideration is that of Leguminosae. Although more than sixty species of Leguminosae have been examined, this number is still too small to cover this enormous family adequately. Of the three subfamilies, the Papilionatae have been studied most thoroughly, members of all ten of its tribes being represented in the forty-seven species examined.

The Leguminosae are included by Hutchinson in Lignosae, but the Papilionatae are mainly herbaceous. Of the trees (or near-trees) in this subfamily, Cladrastis, Robinia, Wistaria, Derris, Machaerium and Pterocarpus are positive for leucoanthocyanin, while Sophora and Laburnum are negative. Even among the herbaceous members, although the great majority are negative, there is one tribe, viz. the Hedysareae, persistently positive for leuco-anthocyanin. Clearly, woodiness is not the only factor determining presence or absence of leuco-anthocyanin. Some assistance in accounting for this unevenness in distribution is given by Dormer's (1946) division of the Papilionatae into 'pulvinate' and 'epulvinate' groups, depending on the presence or absence of a pulvinus at the base of the leaf. The former includes Sophoreae, Dalbergieae, Phaseoleae and parts of Galegeae and Hedysareae, the latter Podalyrieae, Trifolieae, Loteae, and Vicieae, with the remaining subtribes of Galegeae and Hedvsareae. The distribution of species positive and negative for leuco-anthocyanin follows this division remarkably closely. Sophora in Sophoreae, and four of the Hedysareae are the only examples which fall outside this generalization.

Much significance must be attached to Dormer's conclusion that the pulvinate condition is the primitive one, and his observation that 'there is a distinct correlation between the presence or absence of a foliar pulvinus and the general habit of the plant. Every tribe, subtribe, or genus mentioned in the epulvinate column of the table is predominantly herbaceous, whereas in the pulvinate series there are several groups which are predominantly or entirely woody. Furthermore, while the pulvinate series contains some dozens of genera of large forest trees, it is exceedingly rare for an epulvinate species to exceed the stature of a shrub....It is difficult to escape the conclusion that the whole metabolism is different in the two groups-in particular the pulvinate forms are characterized by much more pronounced secretory activity.' The important concept here is that a metabolic pattern associated with woody habit may be found in related species which are themselves of herbaceous habit.

We appear to have, therefore, as factors determining the presence or absence of leuco-anthocyanin in a species: (1) the general character and systematic position of the family to which it belongs, and (2) the stage of evolution of the species within the family, especially in relation to its habit, whether arboreal, climbing, shrubby, or herbaceous. Α further question which has to be faced is the reality of the grounds on which affinities, sufficient to warrant the circumscription of species within the bounds of a family, are claimed. Many familiesthe Euphorbiaceae for instance-are notoriously of doubtful homogeneity, and it is not surprising, therefore, to find their members differing markedly in chemical characters.

Bearing these considerations in mind, the situation in such families as Rosaceae, Saxifragaceae (E.P.), Caprifoliaceae, and Rutaceae appears more rational. In these families the incidence of leucoanthocyanins decreases as the habit approaches the herbaceous. Leuco-anthocyanins may be absent from shrubs and woody climbers of some tribes, but may nevertheless be present in herbaceous forms of other tribes of the family. As in Moraceae, they may be absent from trees in one division, yet present in herbs of another division of a family; especially if the divisions are so divergent in character as to be treated by some authors as separate families. Essentially, the association of leuco-anthocyanins with woody character underlies the pattern of their distribution in these families. At the same time, and perhaps not altogether independently, there is a tendency for leuco-anthocyanins to be present in the more primitive, and absent from the more advanced, members of a phyletic series. If this criterion were the only one which applied, the Herbaceae as a whole would qualify to be regarded as phylogenetically advanced beyond the Lignosae.

^{*} Note added 23 April 1954. Since this paper was submitted for publication, several species of Primula have been examined, with results as follows (cf. Table 1): Primula denticulata, ++; P. obconica, -; P. verticillata, +++; P. vulgaris, ++. Primulaceae have therefore to be added to the families of Herbaceae which are positive for leucoanthocyanin.

Table 1. Anthocyanidin reaction in leaves of dicotyledonous plants

The conventions used in recording the strength of the reaction are: + + + +, exceedingly strong; + +, very strong; + +, strong; +, moderate; (+), weak; \pm , uncertain; -, negative; \times , reaction obscured by development of interfering coloration. In each major subdivision the families are arranged in alphabetical order. Willis (1948) has been used as a guide to the further subdivision of families marked with an asterisk.

Acanthaceae, Asystasia bella, -; Aceraceae, Acer laxiflorum, ++; A. negundo v. auratum, (+); Dipteronia sinensis, ++ +; Aicanidiaceae, Actinidia chinensis, ++; Aicaaceae, Carpobrotus acinaciformis, +; Tetragonia expansa, -; Vanzifia angusipetala, -; Amaranthaceae, Amaranthus cordatus, -; Anacardiaceae, Colinus americanus, ++; Mangifera indica, +; Cotinus coggygria, ++; Rhus illinoensis, ++; K. typhina, ±; Anonaceae, Asimina triloba, ++; Aquifoliaceae, Ilex aquifolium, -; I. integra, -; I. latifolia, (+); I. paraguayensis, (+); Araliaceae, Hedera helix, -; Aristolochiaceae, Inex aquifolium, -; I. latifolia, (+); I. paraguayensis, (+); Araliaceae, Hedera helix, -; Aristolochiaceae, Inex aquifolium, -; I. latifolia, (+); I. paroguayensis, (+); Araliaceae, Hedera helix, -; Aristolochiaceae, Inex anoi: tangere, ++; I. parviflora, ++; Berberidaceae, Mahonia aquifolium, -; Betulaceae, Almus glutinosa, +; Corylus avellana, ++; Bignoniaceae, Bignonia capreolata, -; Catalpa bignonioides¹, x; Glaziova bauhinioides, -; Incarvillea olgaé⁸, x; Bixaceae, Bixa orellana, +; Bombacceae, Bombax malabarica, -; Celba pentandra, +; Borsginaceae, Nonnea lutea, ±; Burseraceae, Bursera sp., ++; Buxaceae, Chimonanthus praecox, -; Campanulaceae, Campanula muralis, -; Catatocao, gradiflorum, -; Specularia hybrida, -; Caprifoliaceae, Ablai grandiflora, +; Diervilla foribunda, ++; D. venosa, ++; Diptela foribunda, ++; Lonicera abjegna, -; L. glauceaeens, -; L. nitida, -; L. periclymenum, -; L. pileata, -; S. Latarica, -; Sambucus ebulus, -; Si nigra, -; Viburnum davidii, ++; V. lantana, +; V. tomentosum var. plicatum, +; Caryophyllaceaee, L, canthorphyllum spinosum, -; Arenaria graneif, -; Casusum aceae, Casuarina glauca, -; Eda aversis, -; Eordunei'', -; Casusurinaceae, Casuarina glauca, -; Sambucus ebulus, -; S. nigra, -; Viburnum davidii, ++; V. lantana, +; D. onentosum var. plicatum, +; Caryophyllaceae, J. Surga, -; Singra, -; Spergula arvensis, -; Stellaria media, -; Casusurinaceae, Casuarina glauca, -; Castatus ', Sin

Euphorbiaceae*:

 \mathbf{P} hyllantheae, Andrachne colchia, ++; Phyllanthus angustifolius, ++; Phyllanthus mimosoides, ++;

Daphniphylleae, Daphniphyllum macropodium \ddagger ; ×;

Acalypheae, Mercurialis perennis, -; Ricinus communis, -;

Adrianeae, Manihot utilissima, \pm ;

Cluytieae, Codiaeum angustifolium, +; Codiaeum variegatum var. aucubifolium, ++;

Euphorbieae, Euphorbia aphylla, -;

Fagaceae, Fagus sylvatica, + +; Quercus macrocarpa, + +; Quercus suber, +; Quercus warburgii, +; Flacourtiaceae*:

Pangieae, Hydnocarpus wightianus, ++; Kiggelaria africana, -;

Flacourtieae, Azara gilliesii, -; Azara microphylla, +; Idesia polycarpa, -; Poliothyrsis sinensis, (+); Casearieae, Arechavaletaia uruguayensis, ++;

Garryaceae, Garrya elliptica¶, ×; Gentianaceae, Menyanthes trifoliata, -; Geraniaceae, Erodium cicutarium, -; Geranium grandiforum††, ×; Guttiferae, Hypericum androsaemum, + +; Hamamelidaceae, Distylium racemosum, +; Liquidambar styraciflua, + +; Parrotia persica, +; Hydrophyllaceae, Hydrophyllum canadense, -; Phacelia grandiflora, -; P. tanacetifolia, -; Icacinaceae, Pennantia cunninghamii, + +; Juglandaceae, Juglans regia, + + +; Labiatae, Origanum vulgare, -; Prostanthera ovalifolia, -; Salvia verbenaca, -; Teucrium scorodonium, -; Lardizabalaceae, Akebia quinata, -; Lauraceae, Lindera benzoin, +; Umbellularia californica, +; Leguminosae*:

Mimosoideae: Acacieae, Acacie alata, ++; A. armata, +; A. catechu, (+); A. decurrens, -; A. retinodes§§, \times ; A. robusta, ++; Eumimoseae, Mimosa pudica, ++;

Caesalpinioideae: Bauhinieae, Bauhinia yunnanensis, +; Cercis siliquastrum, +; Cassieae, Cassia tomentosa, -; Ceratonia siliqua, ++; Eucaesalpinieae, Caesalpinia echinata, ++; C. gilliesii, -; C. japonica, ++; Gleditschia sinensis, -; G. triacanthos, +;

Papilionatae: Sophoreae, Cladrastis tinctoria, +; Sophora japonica, -; S. macrocarpa, -; Podalyrieae, Baptisia australis, -; Chorizema cordatum, -; C. ilicifolium, -; Piptanthus nepalensis, -; Thermopsis montana, -; Genisteae, Laburnocytisus adamii, -; L. vulgare, -; Petteria ramentaceae, -; Spartium junceum, -; Trifolieae, Medicago lupulina, -; M. sativa, -; Melilotus lutea, -; Ononis fruticosa, -; O. repens, ±; Trifolium dubium, (+); T. incarnatum, -; T. pratense, -; Loteae, Anthyllis vulneraria, -; Galegeae, Amorpha fruticosa, ++; Caragana frutescens, ±; Clianthus puniceus, -; Colutea arborescens, ±; C. orientalis, ±; Galega officinalis, -; Psoralea macrostachys, (+); Robinia pseudacacia, ++; Wistaria sinensis, ++; Hedysareae, Arachis hypogea, (+); Coronilla varia, +; Desmodium canadense, ++; Hedysarum multiflorum, ++; Hippocrepis comosa, -; Lespedeza thunbergii, +; Onobrychis sativa, +++; Scorpiurus muricatus, +; Dalbergieae, Derris elliptica, ++; Machaerium firmum, ++; Pterocarpus fraxinifolius, +; Vicieae, Lathyrus luteus, -; L. venatus, -; V. faba, -; Phaseoleae, Glycine soja, ±; Phaseolus vulgaris, -; Rhyncosia phaseoloides, ++;

Limnanthaceae, Limnanthes douglasii, ++; Linaceae, Linum grandiflorum, -; L. lewisii, -; L. perenne, -; Reinwardtia tetragyna, -; Loganiaceae Buddleia sp., -; Desfontainia spinosa, -; Lythraceae, Lagerstroemia indica, -; Lythrum salicaria, -; Nesaea salicifoia, -; Magnoliaceae, Liriodendron tulipifera, ++; Magnolia denudata (=M. conspicua), +: M. stellata, -; M. virginiana, (+); Malvaceae, Abutilon 'Boule de Neige', -; Abutilon 'Thompsonii',

Table 1 (cont.)

-; A. vitifolium var. album, +; Althaea rosea, -; Gaya lyallii, -; Gossypium herbaceum, ++; Hibiscus rosa-sinensis, -; H. syriacus, -; Pavonia spinifex, +; Melastomaceae, Schizocentron elegans, -; Tibouchina semidecandra, +++; Tococa sp., ++; Meliaceae, Cedrela odorata, -; Swietenia mahogoni, +++; Melianthaceae, Greyia sutherlandii, -; Moraceae*:

Moroideae, Dorstenia lujae, -; Maclura pomifera, -; Morus alba, -; M. nigra, -

Artocarpoideae, Artocarpus incisa, +; Cultania javanensis, -; C. tricuspidata, -; Ficus carica, -; F. elastica, ++; F. lancifolia, ++; F. religiosa, -; F. sycomorus, ++;

Cannaboideae, Cannabis sativa, \pm ; Humulus lupulus, +++;

Myoporaceae, Myoporum acuminatum, -; Oftia africana^{††}, ×; Myricaceae, Myrica gale, ++; Myrsinaceae, Myrsine $\begin{array}{l} \text{Algorith} (A, A, B, B) = 0 \quad \text{Minimutant}, a \ \text{Minimutant}, b \ \text{Minimutant}$ futokadruna, -; Pittosporaceae, Pittosporum crassifolium, -; Plantaginaceae, Plantago major, -; Platanaceae, Platanus acerifolius, ++; P. orientalis, ++; P. orientalis var. cuneatus, ++; Plumbaginaceae, Armeria maritima, +; Ceratostigma willmottianum, +; Limonium latifolium, ++; L. sinuatum (cultivar), ++; Plumbago capensis, ++; Polemoniaceae, Cobaea scandens, \pm ; Polygalaceae, Polygala chamaebuxus var. grandiflora, -; Polygonaceae, Atrapharis hispida, +; Fagopyrum esculentum, +; F. tataricum, ++; Polygonum alpinum, +; P. aubertin, +; P. aviculare, +; P. hydropiper, ++; P. persicaria, +; Rumex acetosa, ++; R. maximus, ++; R. patientia, +; Portu-lacaceae, Portulaca grandiflora, -; P. oleracea, -; Proteaceae, Banksia serrata, ++; Grevillea ornithopoda, ++; G. robusta, ++; G. sulphurea, +; Hakea multilineata, ++; H. teretifolia, ++; H. ulicina, ++; Macadamia ternifolia, ternifoli++; Ranunculaceae, Paeonia humilis, -; Zanthorhiza apiifolia, -; Rhamnaceae, Ceanothus arnoldii, ++; Colletia cruciata, +; Paliurus australis, +; Rhamnus cathartica, +; R. purshiana, +; Rhizophoraceae, Rhizophora sp., + + +; Rosaceae*:

Spiraeoideae: Spiraceae, Neillia longiracemosa, ++; Spiraea japonica, +; S. salicifolia, ++; Quillajeae, Exochorda racemosa, ++;

Pomoideae: Chaenomeles speciosa (=Cydonia japonica), +; Cotoneaster horizontalis, +; Crataegus crus-galli, +; Mespilus germanica, + + + ; Osteomeles schwerinae, + + + ; Sorbus aucuparia, + ; Rosoideae: Kerrieae, Kerria japonica, - ; Potentilleae, Fallugia paradoxa, - ; Fragaria (cultivated strawberry), + + ;

Potentilla alchemilloides, +; P. fruticosa, ++; P. montana, +; Rubus deliciosus, -; Ulmarieae, Filipendula ulmaria, ++; Sanguisorbeae, Agrimonia eupatoria, +++; Roseae, Rosa bracteata, (+); R. damascena, +; R. foetida var. persiana, +; R. multiflora, + +; R. rubiginosa, +; R. rugosa, +; R. spinosissima 'lutea', +; R. soulieana, (+); R. xanthina, +; Prunoideae: Prunus laurocerasus, ++; P. mahaleb, +;

Rubiaceae*:

Cinchonoideae: Cinchoneae, Cinchona succirubra, -; Mussaendeae, Mussaenda luteola, ++;

Caffeoideae: Ixoreae, Coffea arabica, +; C. robusta, +; Pavetta natalensis, +; Galieae, Galium aparine^{‡‡}, ×; G. verum \dagger , \times ;

Rutaceae*:

Rutoideae: Zanthoxyleae, Barosma lanceolata, ++; Choisya ternata, -; Zanthoxylum bungei, ++; Ruteae, Dictamnus fraxinella,

Toddalioideae: Ptelea trifoliata, -; Skimmia japonica, -;

Aurantioideae: Aegle spinosa (= Ponciras trifoliata), -;

Salicaceae, Populus canescens, ++; P. deltoides, +; Salix acutifolia, +; S. babylonica, ++; S. caprea, +; S. elaeagnos (=S. incana), + + ; Santalaceae, Santalum album, - ; Sapindaceae, Koelreuteria paniculata, + + ; Nephelium longana, ++; Sapindus saponaria, -; Xanthoceras sorbifolia, ++;

Saxifragaceae*:

Saxifragoideae, Astilbe rosea, ++; Bergenia crassifolia, ++; Boykinia aconitifolia, +++; Tellima grandiflora, ++; Francoideae, Francoa ramosa, -;

Hydrangeoideae, Hydrangea paniculata, ++; H. petiolaris, ++; Kirengeshoma palmata, -; Philadelphus laxus, ++;Escallonioideae, Ribes grossularia, ++; R. nigrum, ++; R. sanguineum, ++; R. speciosum, (+); Ribesioideae, Ribes grossularia, ++; R. nigrum, ++; R. sanguineum, ++; R. speciosum, (+);

Baueroideae, Bauera rubioides, +;

Scrophulariaceae, Paulownia tomentosa \dagger , \star ; Veronica acuminata, -; Simarubaceae, Ailanthus altissima, +; Cneorum tricoccum, -; Picrasma quassioides, -; Staphyleaceae, Staphylea trifolia, (+); Sterculiaceae, Fremontia californica, -; Hermannia candicans, ++; Tamaricaceae, Tamarix anglica, (+); T. tetrandra, -; Theaceae, Camellia japonica, ++; Stewarlia pseudocamellia, ++; Thea sinensis, +; Thymelaeaceae, Daphne gnidium, (+); D. laureala, -; D. odora, ' 'marginata', -; Pimelia ferruginea, (+); Tiliaceae, Tilia europaea, ++; Tropaeolaceae, Tropaeolum majus, -; 'Ulmaceae, Ulmus campestris, ++; Umbelliferae, Foeniculum capillaceum, -; Sium sisarum, -; Urticaceae, Boehmeria nivea, ±; Parietaria diffusa (=officinalis), ++; Urtica dioica, -; Valerianaceae, Centranthus rubra, -; Valeriana sambucifolia, -; Verbenaceae, Callicarpa japonica, -; Caryopteris tangutica††, ×; Clerodendron fargesii, -; Diostea juncea, -; Petraea volubilis, -; Tectona grandis¶¶, ×; Violaceae, Hymenanthera crassifolia, -; Viola rugulosa, -; Vitaceae, Parthenocissus quinquefolia, ++; Zygophyllaceae, Peganum harmala, -; Zygophyllum fabago, -.

- Interference due to formation of blue-purple coloration.
- Interference due to formation of dark brown coloration, with heavy ppt.
- Interference due to formation of deep blue-purple coloration.
- Young leaves of several species gave positive or indeterminate anthocyanidin reactions, not given by mature Ĥ specimens, and not confirmed by vanillin reaction.
- Interference due to formation of deep brown coloration (cf. Trim & Hill, 1952). ¶ **
- Contain considerable quantities of catechin-like compounds.
- Interference due to formation of purplish brown or brown coloration.
- Interference due to formation of deep steely blue coloration. Tissue becoming deep reddish brown; interference in vanillin reaction due to intense blue coloration. §§
- Interference due to formation of deep blue-black coloration.
- Interference due to formation of brown-scarlet coloration.
- Leaves permanently pigmented. Peduncles gave positive reaction with both tests.

See Table 1 for explanation of symbols.

Monocotyledons

Araceae, Philodendron racemosum, +; Zantedeschia elliottiana, (+); Commelinaceae, Tradescantia reflexa, -; Cyperaceae, Carex pendula, +; Dioscoreaceae, Dioscorea opposita, ++; Tamus communis, (+); Gramineae, Arundinaria japonica, -; Saccharum officinarum[†], -; Sorghum halapense, -; S. sachanense, -; Hydrocharitaceae, Limnobium stoloniferum, (+); Iridaceae, Iris foetidissima, -; I. germanica (cultivar), -; I. pseudacorus, ++; Lemnaceae, Lemna minor, (+); Liliaceae, Smilax rotundifolia, ++; Palmae, Washingtonia gracilis, ++; Typhaceae, Typha latifolia[‡], -; Zingiberaceae, Elettaria cardamonum, ++; Globba winitii, ±; Hedychium coccineum, +; H. spicatum, +.

Gymnosperms

Cycadaceae, Dioon edule, (+); Macrozamia riedleri, ++; Stangeria eriopus, -; Ginkgoaceae, Ginkgo biloba, ++; Gnetaceae, Ephedra americana, +; Gnetum gnemon, -; Pinaceae, Araucaria bidwillii, +++; Cedrus deodara, ++; Cunninghamia sinensis, ++; Metasequoia glyptostroboides, ++; Sequoiadendron giganteum, ++; Taxaceae, Podocarpus falcatus, +++; Taxus baccata, +++.

Pteridophyta

Equisetaceae, Equisetum arvense, -; E. telmateia, +; E. variegatum, -; Isoetaceae, Isoetes lacustris[§], ×; Lycopodiaceae, Lycopodium selago, -; Marattiaceae, Angiopteris evecta, +; Marattia fraxina, +; Polypodiaceae, Dryopteris elongata, ++; Pellaea rotundifolia, ++; Pteridium aquilinum, ++; Psilotaceae, Psilotum triquetrum, -; Salviniaceae, Azolla filiculoides, ++; Salvinia auriculata, ++; Schizaeaceae, Lygodium circinatum, +; Selaginellaceae, Selaginella apus, -; S. caulescens, -; S. kraussiana, -.

Bryophyta

Dicranum scoparium, -; Leucobryum glaucum, -; Mnium hornum, -.

- [†] Positive anthocyanidin and vanillin reactions given by roots.
- ‡ Strongly positive anthocyanidin and vanillin reactions given by roots.
- Interference due to formation of deep blue coloration.

Discussion of Table 2

Groups other than the dicotyledons have so far been only scantily covered.

In monocotyledons a distinction between woody and herbaceous species is no longer observed; positive and negative reactions are more or less equally divided among the herbaceous forms. In several instances (*Typha, Saccharum*) in which the leaves are negative for leuco-anthocyanin, the rootstock reacts positively. All parts of *Iris pseudacorus* except the petals give an intense reaction; neither leaves nor rhizomes of *I. germanica* and *foetidissima*, however, give any reaction. The strong reactions of the fleshy *Dioscorea*, and of the Zingiberaceae are especially remarkable. *Smilax rotundifolia*, although climbing in habit, is essentially woody.

Among the gymnosperms the reaction is general. Its occurrence in *Ginkgo* is worthy of remark, as this is regarded as a form of great antiquity.

In Pteridophyta, the reaction is general among the ferns examined, is present in Equisetaceae, and although any anthocyanidin formed is obscured by a strong darkening of the tissues when heated with hydrochloric acid, judging from the positive vanillin reaction, is also positive in *Isoetes*.

DISCUSSION

That the presence of leuco-anthocyanins in vascular plants is a primitive character is strongly indicated by (1) the generality of their presence in the lower and more primitive forms of these plants—for example, the Equisetaceae, Polypodiaceae, Cycadaceae, *Ginkgo*, and *Metasequoia*—and (2) their absence from those families which, whether woody or herbaceous, are recognized as advanced in their various lines of development. It would seem that the production of leuco-anthocyanins is part of a primitive metabolic pattern associated with, but not essential to, a tree-like or woody habit of growth.

Relationship to lignin

Consideration of a possible role for leuco-anthocyanins in the process of lignification as such is hampered by our present limited knowledge of the chemistry of both leuco-anthocyanins and lignin. As regards the first, there is reason to suppose (cf. Part 1) that the molecule is of the flavonoid $C_6-C_3-C_6$ pattern substituted with OH in positions C-3 and C-4 or C-3, C-4 and C-5 of one benzene nucleus (see Formulae in Part 1); and as regards lignin, that it is largely composed of C₆-C₈ fragments substituted at C-4 with OH, either alone or with one or both of positions 3 and 5 substituted with OCH_a. It is, in fact, of some importance to have established, as has been done in Part 1, that the leuco-anthocyanins are narrowly restricted, in leaves at least, to unmethylated types. Methylation of the hydroxyl groups at C-3 and C-5 would seem to be an essential feature distinguishing the lignin nucleus from the leuco-anthocyanin (and also the catechin) molecule.

Creighton, Gibbs & Hibbert (1944) and Towers & Gibbs (1953) have made a start on a systematic

survey of the distribution of guaiacyl (4-OH, 3-OCH_a) and syringyl (4-OH, 3:5-di-OCH_a) residues in lignins from a wide range of plants. For the most part, syringyl residues are absent from coniferous lignins (present only in Podocarpus) but present, together with p-hydroxyphenyl residues, in monocotyledonous lignins and present also in dicotyledonous lignins. Reference to Table 3 of Part 1 will show immediately what little resemblance there is between the systematic distribution of 3:4- and 3:4:5-substituted types in the leuco-anthocyanins and that in the lignins. There is, in fact, as little sense to be made of the distribution of leucoanthocyanin types in leaves as there is of the different anthocyanin types in flowers (cf. Lawrence, Price, Robinson & Robinson, 1939). The only really outstanding feature of the distribution of leucoanthocyanin types is, in fact, the absence of leucodelphinidin from all species of Rosaceae. Otherwise cyanidin and delphinidin types appear to occur indiscriminately within a family, often occurring together in species. It may well be that all these plants possess the capacity, i.e. the enzymic equipment necessary to produce both types, but that in any particular instance one may be formed preponderantly, often to the complete exclusion of the other.

It is important, too, to note that neither type is conspicuously the more 'primitive'. Some Pteridophyta, including *Equisetum*, have leuco-cyanidin alone (or mainly) while others have both types; *Ginkgo* and *Sequoiadendron* have leuco-delphinidin, *Metasequoia*, leuco-cyanidin, other Coniferae both. There is in this context no support for the view (Lawrence et al. 1939) that cyanidin is, of the three main anthocyanidin types, the primary (and primitive) product of metabolism; but it must also be borne in mind that there is no evidence that any connexion exists between the metabolism of leucoanthocyanins and anthocyanins.

The presence of leuco-anthocyanins is evidently not essential to the process of lignification, nor is it essential to the development of a woody habit of growth, since lignification in some degree occurs in all vascular plants at and above the level of Pteridophyta, and many perfectly good trees do not possess leuco-anthocyanins either in the foliage or in the wood itself. Whatever therefore might be the function of leuco-anthocyanins with respect to the development of woody tissue, that function can be assumed by other molecules. It is possible for instance that, in some cases, the coumarins might assume this function. It is probably not merely a coincidence that the recorded occurrence of the coumarins (cf. Bergmann & Gierth, 1932) is virtually confined to those families of plants in the leaves of which leuco-anthocyanins do not occur. If this were so, it would indicate one way in which a primitive metabolic pattern, of which the leuco-anthocyanins form a feature, might be modified in advanced forms without loss of the ability to form wood, but with, perhaps, metabolic economy in such circumstances as the herbaceous condition where suppression of wood formation is a concomitant of their habit of growth.

Relationship to tannin

The relationship of leuco-anthocyanin to 'tannin' in plants is more easily discerned. Amongst naturally occurring substances, the vanillin reaction, one of the reactions used for the histochemical detection of tannins, is given, so far as is known, only by catechins and leuco-anthocyanins. These substances also react in a manner characteristic of tannins with other reagents used for the histochemical detection of tannins, such as ferric salts. It is not surprising, in view of the widespread distribution of the leuco-anthocyanins revealed by the present survey, to find a considerable degree of congruence between their distribution and that recorded for 'tannins' in the botanical literature. The extent of this congruence can be judged from the fact that, out of twenty-five of the families of dicotyledons noted by Metcalfe & Chalk (1950) as regularly tanniniferous, only two (Tamaricaceae and Crassulaceae) have not been found to contain leuco-anthocyanins, and of these, the Crassulaceae contain strongly vanillin-positive, catechin-like substances. The leuco-anthocyanins have, in fact, many properties of tannins besides those mentioned above. They are, for instance, precipitated by hide powder and are astringent in taste (Bate-Smith & Swain, 1953). It is difficult to avoid the conclusion that they are, in fact, the commonest and most typical representatives of the class of substances rather indefinitely described in the botanical literature as 'tannins'. The tannins of commerce are much more definitely characterized under their specific commercial designations, and by their specific property of tanning leather. It is not known to what extent, if any, they owe their tanning properties to leuco-anthocyanins.

Taxonomic implications

Although there would seem to be useful implications for the taxonomist in the results of this survey, it is not intended to attempt to press these to any firm conclusions because, although a wide area has been covered, the number of specimens studied is still so very small. In dicotyledons, confinement of leuco-anthocyanins to Hutchinson's Lignosae (with the exception of a small group of families in Herbaceae) appears to us to provide some validation of the system put forward by Hutchinson (1946) mainly on morphological grounds; and to encourage, perhaps, reconsideration of the placing of some of the few families containing leuco-anthocyanins which are at present included by him in the Herbaceae.

SUMMARY

1. The presence or absence of leuco-anthocyanins in the leaves of vascular plants is related to their systematic position. They are generally present in ferns, but have not been found in Selaginellaceae, Psilotaceae, or Lycopodiaceae, nor in mosses. They are also generally present in gymnosperms, but are absent from *Gnetum.** Their occurrence in monocotyledons is common but scattered.

2. In the leaves of dicotyledonous plants, the presence or absence of leuco-anthocyanins appears to be connected with a woody habit in the plant, or in the forms closely related to it. Hutchinson's classification of the families of dicotyledons into a predominantly woody group (Lignosae) and a predominantly herbaceous group (Herbaceae) provides a fairly accurate division into those containing members which have, and those whose members do not have, leuco-anthocyanins in their leaves. There are, however, many members of the Lignosae the leaves of which do not contain leucoanthocyanins; these are usually either herbaceous in habit, or belong to families containing herbaceous members. A few families of Herbaceae, viz. Saxifragaceae (Hutchinson), Polygonaceae, Oxalidaceae, Limnanthaceae, Balsaminaceae, Aizoaceae and Plumbaginaceae, contain leuco-anthocyanins. In Crassulaceae substances reacting with vanillin occur, but these are not leuco-anthocyanins.

3. The distribution of leuco-anthocyanins in the leaves of Papilionatae has been especially studied. They occur in plants of woody habit in Sophoreae, Dalbergieae, Phaseoleae and Galegeae, and in the herbaceous Hedysareae, but are absent from

* See also footnote p. 127.

Podalyrieae, Trifolieae, Loteae and Vicieae. This distribution follows closely the division of Papilionatae by Dormer (1946) on grounds of vegetative morphology.

4. The systematic distribution of leuco-anthocyanins closely follows the recorded incidence of tannins in the botanical literature. They have, in fact, the properties of tannins and are probably the substances most commonly responsible for the reactions in plant tissues attributed to tannins.

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On the Occurrence of Adrenaline and Noradrenaline in Blood

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Results obtained with a fluorimetric method of estimation (Weil-Malherbe & Bone, 1952, 1953) indicate a concentration of about $2-3 \mu g$. adrenaline and $5-7 \mu g$. noradrenaline/l. human venous plasma under basal conditions. Although these figures are lower than many proposed by previous investigators (see review by Pekkarinen, 1948), even lower levels are postulated by some physiologists. Evidence in support of the specificity of the method has been submitted in our earlier publications (Weil-Malherbe & Bone, 1952, 1953). This paper contains a more detailed report of experiments in which the occurrence and concentration of adrenaline and noradrenaline in blood were studied by paperchromatographic methods.

A comparison of the R_F values of the fluorogenic substances present in blood with those of adrenaline and noradrenaline provided qualitative evidence