

# Chemical constituents and bioactivities of *Panax ginseng* (C. A. Mey.)

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## Summary

Ginseng, *Panax ginseng* (C. A. Mey.), is a well-known Chinese traditional medicine in the Far East and has gained popularity in the West during the last decade. There is extensive literature on the chemical constituents and bioactivities of ginseng. In this paper we compiled the chemical constituents isolated and detected from ginseng including polysaccharides, ginsenosides, peptides, polyacetylenic alcohols, fatty acids, etc. Meanwhile we summarized the biological activities of ginseng, which have been reported over the past few decades, including: anti-aging activity, anti-diabetic activity, immunoregulatory activity, anti-cancer activity, neuroregulation activity, wound and ulcer healing activity, etc. Nevertheless, further studies to exploit other kinds of constituents and new biological activities of ginseng are still necessary to facilitate research and development in the future.

**Keywords:** *Panax ginseng* (C. A. Mey.), chemical constituents, biological activities

## 1. Introduction

Ginseng, the roots and rhizomes of *Panax ginseng* C. A. Mey. (Araliaceae), is widely distributed in northeast China, the Korean peninsula, and Russia. According to different processing technology, it is divided into three categories, including fresh ginseng, white ginseng, and red ginseng. Ginseng has always been a valuable and important folk medicine for more than 2000 years in the East Asian countries, such as China, Korea, and Japan. Recently, along with the popularization of traditional Chinese herbs as dietary supplement in Western countries, *Panax ginseng* has been used more and more in North America and Europe as well as other parts of the world. Until now, a large amount of literature has been reported on the chemical constituents and bioactivities of ginseng. As listed in the literature, active constituents found in ginseng mainly include polysaccharides, ginsenosides, peptides, polyacetylenic alcohols, fatty acids and so on. In addition, pharmacological effects

of ginseng have been demonstrated in cancer, diabetes mellitus, cardiovascular system, immune system, central nervous system, and so on (1-3).

In this review, we compile the major active components isolated from the three main kinds of ginseng over the past few decades. The biological activities of the crude extract and its constituents are also discussed.

## 2. Chemical constituents

Several classes of compounds have been isolated from Ginseng, including polysaccharides, ginsenoside, peptides, and ligans, etc. Some of their names, 1-85, are collected in Table 1, and some of their structures, 1-85, are shown in Figure 1. As can be seen, ginsenosides are the predominant active constituents of ginseng.

### 2.1. Polysaccharides

Polysaccharides are the most abundant components of ginseng. It has been reported that the polysaccharide content in ginseng is nearly 40% (by weight). This class of compounds was first isolated and documented in 1966 (4). The more biologically active carbohydrates in ginseng are acidic polysaccharides, known as ginsan,

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which have the typical structure of pectin (5,6). In 2012, several water-soluble ginseng oligosaccharides with a degree of polymerization ranging from 2 to 10 were obtained from a warm-water extract of ginseng roots, among them,  $\alpha$ -Glc-(1-6)- $\alpha$ -Glc,  $\alpha$ -Glc-(1-6)- $\alpha$ -Glc-(1-4)- $\alpha$ -Glc,  $\alpha$ -Glc-(1-6)- $\alpha$ -Glc-(1-6)- $\alpha$ -Glc-(1-4)- $\alpha$ -Glc, and another six malto-oligosaccharides (*i.e.*, maltopentaose, maltohexaose, maltoheptaose,

maltooctaose, maltononaose, maltodecaose) were detected (7).

## 2.2. Ginsenosides

Ginsenosides, known as saponins, are considered to be the major bioactive constituents of ginseng. The first saponin isolated from ginseng could be traced back to

**Table 1. Chemical constituents of *Panax ginseng* C. A. Mey.**

No.	Name	R <sub>1</sub>	R <sub>2</sub>	Reference
<i>Protopanaxadiol ginsenosides</i>				
1	20S-ginsenoside Ra <sub>1</sub>	-glc(2-1)glc	-glc(6-1) ara(p) (4-1) xyl	11,12
2	20S-ginsenoside Ra <sub>2</sub>	-glc(2-1)glc	-glc(6-1) ara(f) (2-1) xyl	11,12
3	20S-ginsenoside Ra <sub>3</sub>	-glc(2-1)glc	-glc(6-1) glc(3-1) xyl	13
4	20S-ginsenoside Ra <sub>4</sub>	-glc(2-1)glc(6) Bu	-glc(6-1) ara(p) (4-1) xyl	14
5	20S-ginsenoside Ra <sub>5</sub>	-glc(2-1)glc(6) Ac	-glc(6-1) ara(p) (4-1) xyl	14
6	20S-ginsenoside Ra <sub>6</sub>	-glc(2-1)glc(6) Bu	-glc(6-1) glc	14
7	20S-ginsenoside Ra <sub>7</sub>	-glc(2-1)glc(6) Bu	-glc(6-1) ara(p)	14
8	20S-ginsenoside Ra <sub>8</sub>	-glc(2-1)glc(4) Bu	-glc(6-1) ara(f)	14
9	20S-ginsenoside Ra <sub>9</sub>	-glc(2-1)glc(6)Bu	-glc(6-1) ara(f)	14
10	20S-ginsenoside Rb <sub>1</sub>	-glc(2-1)glc	-glc(6-1) glc	12,15,16
11	20S-ginsenoside Rb <sub>2</sub>	-glc(2-1)glc	-glc(6-1) ara(p)	12,15,16
12	20S-ginsenoside Rb <sub>3</sub>	-glc(2-1)glc	-glc(6-1) xyl	12,17
13	20S-ginsenoside Rc	-glc(2-1)glc	-glc(6-1) ara(f)	12,15,16
14	20S-ginsenoside Rd	-glc(2-1)glc	-glc	12,15,16
15	20S-ginsenoside Rg <sub>3</sub>	-glc(2-1)glc	-H	12,16,18
16	20R-ginsenoside Rg <sub>3</sub>	-glc(2-1)glc	-H	16
17	20R-ginsenoside Rh <sub>2</sub>	-glc	-H	19
18	20S-ginsenoside Rh <sub>2</sub>	-glc	-H	16
19	20S-ginsenoside Rs <sub>1</sub>	-glc(2-1)glc(6) Ac	-glc(6-1) ara(p)	12,14
20	20S-ginsenoside Rs <sub>2</sub>	-glc(2-1)glc(6) Ac	-glc(6-1) ara(f)	12,14
21	20S-ginsenoside Rs <sub>3</sub>	-glc(2-1)glc(6) Ac	-glc(6-1) ara(f)	20
22	malonyl-20S-ginsenosideRa <sub>3</sub>	-glc(2-1)glc(6) mal	-glc(6-1) ara(3-1)xyl	21
23	malonyl-20S-ginsenosideRb <sub>1</sub>	-glc(2-1)glc(6) mal	-glc(6-1) glc	14,22
24	malonyl-20S-ginsenosideRb <sub>2</sub>	-glc(2-1)glc(6) mal	-glc(6-1) ara(p)	22
25	malonyl-20S-ginsenosideRc	-glc(2-1)glc(6) mal	-glc(6-1) ara(f)	22
26	malonyl-20S-ginsenosideRd	-glc(2-1)glc(6) mal	-glc	22
27	malonyl-20S-notoginsenosideR <sub>4</sub>	-glc(2-1)glc(6) mal	-glc(6-1) glc(6-1) xyl	23
28	20S-gyenosideXVII	-glc	-glc(6-1) glc	14
29	20S-notoginsenoside-Fe	-glc	-glc(6-1) ara(f)	24
30	20S-notoginsenoside R <sub>4</sub>	-glc(2-1)glc	-glc(6-1) glc(6-1) xyl	13,25
31	20S-pseudo-ginsenoside R <sub>C1</sub>	-glc(2-1)glc(6) Ac	-glc	14
32	20S-quinquenoside R <sub>1</sub>	-glc(2-1)glc(6) Ac	-glc(6-1) glc	12,14
33	20S-vinaginsenoside R <sub>16</sub>	-glc(2-1)xyl	-glc	14
<i>Protopanaxatriol ginsenosides</i>				
34	20S-ginsenoside Re	-glc(2-1) rha	-glc	12,16,26
35	20S-ginsenoside Re <sub>1</sub>	-glc	-glc(3-1) glc	27
36	20S-ginsenoside Re <sub>2</sub>	-glc(3-1) glc	-glc	27
37	20S-ginsenoside Re <sub>3</sub>	-glc	-glc(4-1) glc	27
38	20S-ginsenoside Re <sub>4</sub>	-glc	-glc(6-1) ara(f)	27
39	20S-ginsenoside Re <sub>6</sub>	-glc	-glc(6) Bu	27
40	20S-ginsenoside Rf	-glc(2-1) glc	-H	12,16,26
41	20S-ginsenoside Rg <sub>1</sub>	-glc	-glc	12,16,18,28
42	20S-ginsenoside Rg <sub>2</sub>	-glc(2-1) rha	-H	12,16,26
43	20R-ginsenoside Rg <sub>2</sub>	-glc(2-1) rha	-H	12,16,25
44	20-gluco-20S-ginsenoside Rf	-glc(2-1) glc	-glc	12,17
45	20S-ginsenoside Rh <sub>1</sub>	-glc	-H	16,18
46	20R-ginsenoside Rh <sub>1</sub>	-glc	-H	16
47	20S-koryoginsenoside R <sub>1</sub>	-glc(6-1) Bu	-glc	18,24,27
48	20S-notoginsenoside N	-glc(4-1) glc	-glc	27
49	20S-notoginsenoside R <sub>1</sub>	-glc(2-1) xyl	-glc	12,18,27
50	20S-notoginsenoside R <sub>2</sub>	-glc(2-1) xyl	-H	25,27
51	20S-yesanchinoside D	-glc(6)Ac	-glc	27

(to continue)

**Table 1 (continued). Chemical constituents of *Panax ginseng* C. A. Mey.**

No.	Name	R <sub>1</sub>	R <sub>2</sub>	Reference
<i>Protopanaxadiol and Protopanaxatriol ginsenosides with modified side chain</i>				
52	Ginsengjilinol	I-2-1	-glc(2-1) glc	24
53	ginsenoside F <sub>4</sub>	I-2-2	-glc(2-1) rha	29,30
54	ginsenoside Re <sub>5</sub>	I-2-3	-glc(2-1) glc	27
55	ginsenoside Rf <sub>2</sub>	I-2-4	-glc(2-1) rha	31
56	ginsenoside Rg <sub>5</sub>	I-1-1	-glc(2-1) glc	30,32,33
57	ginsenoside Rg <sub>6</sub>	I-2-5	-glc(2-1) rha	30,34
58	ginsenoside Rh <sub>4</sub>	I-2-6	-glc	30,35,36
59	ginsenoside Rk <sub>1</sub>	I-1-2	-glc(2-1) glc	30,36
60	ginsenoside Rk <sub>2</sub>	I-1-3	-glc	36
61	ginsenoside Rk <sub>3</sub>	I-2-7	-H	30,36
62	ginsenoside Rs <sub>4</sub>	I-1-4	-glc(2-1) glc(6)Ac	30,37
63	ginsenoside Rs <sub>5</sub>	I-1-5	-glc(2-1) glc(6)Ac	30,37
64	ginsenoside Rs <sub>6</sub>	I-2-8	-glc(6)Ac	37
65	ginsenoside Rs <sub>7</sub>	I-2-9	-H	38
66	koryoginsenosideR <sub>2</sub>	I-1-6	-glc(2-1) glc	18
<i>Oleanane ginsenosides</i>				
67	ginsenoside Ro	II-1	-glcUA(2-1)glc	12,15
68	ginsenoside Ri	II-1	-H	38
69	ginsenoside Romethyl ester	II-1	-(6'-Me)glcUA(2-1)glc	39
70	polyacetyleneginsenoside-Ro	II-1	-(6'-PAE)glcUA(2-1)glc	39
<i>Alkaloids</i>				
71	N <sub>9</sub> -formylharman			40,41
72	ethyl β-carboline			40,41
73	perlolyrine			40, 41
74	1-carbobutoxy-β-carboline			42, 43
75	1-carbomethoxy-β-carboline			42, 43
<i>Glucosides</i>				
76	isomaltol-α-D-glucopyranoside			44, 45
77	ketopropyl-α-D-glucopyranoside			44, 45
78	adenosine			44, 45
<i>Phenolic acids</i>				
79	maltol (3-hydroxy-2-methyl-4-pyrone)			46
80	salicylic acid			47
81	vanillic acid			47
82	p-hydroxycinnamic acid			47
<i>Others</i>				
83	thiazole			43
84	gomisin N			48
85	gomisin A			48

1854 (3). Later, the chemical structures of several ginseng saponins were characterized in the 1960s (8). Saponin components are a type of triterpenoidal dammarane glycosides, named ginsenosides Rx according to their mobility on TLC plates, with polarity decreasing from "a" to "h" (9). According to the positioning of sugar moieties at carbon -3 and -6, ginsenosides can be divided into protopanaxadiol type (protopanaxadiol type, I-1 type) and protopanaxatriol type (protopanaxatriol type, I-2 type); since the I-1 and I-2-type chiral carbon C-20 position substituted poor isobutyl, and is further divided into 20 (S) and 20 (R). To date, more than 70 ginsenosides, **1-70**, have been isolated from the three main kinds of ginseng, among them, ginsenosides Rb<sub>1</sub>, Rb<sub>2</sub>, Rc, Rd, Rgl, Rg<sub>2</sub>, and Re are major constituents of white and red ginsengs, while ginsenosides Rg<sub>3</sub>, Rg<sub>5</sub>, and

Rg<sub>6</sub> are known to be unique constituents of red ginseng (10). Names of the compounds and their corresponding reference are compiled in Table 1, and structures of **1-70** are shown in Figure 1.

### 2.3. Alkaloids

In 1986, three β-carboline alkaloids were isolated from the root of ginseng by Han *et al.* for the first time (40,41). In the following year, two other β-carboline alkaloids were reported by Jong *et al.* (42,43). Their structures, **71-75**, are shown in Figure 1.

### 2.4. Glucosides

Based on spectral and chemical evidence, three

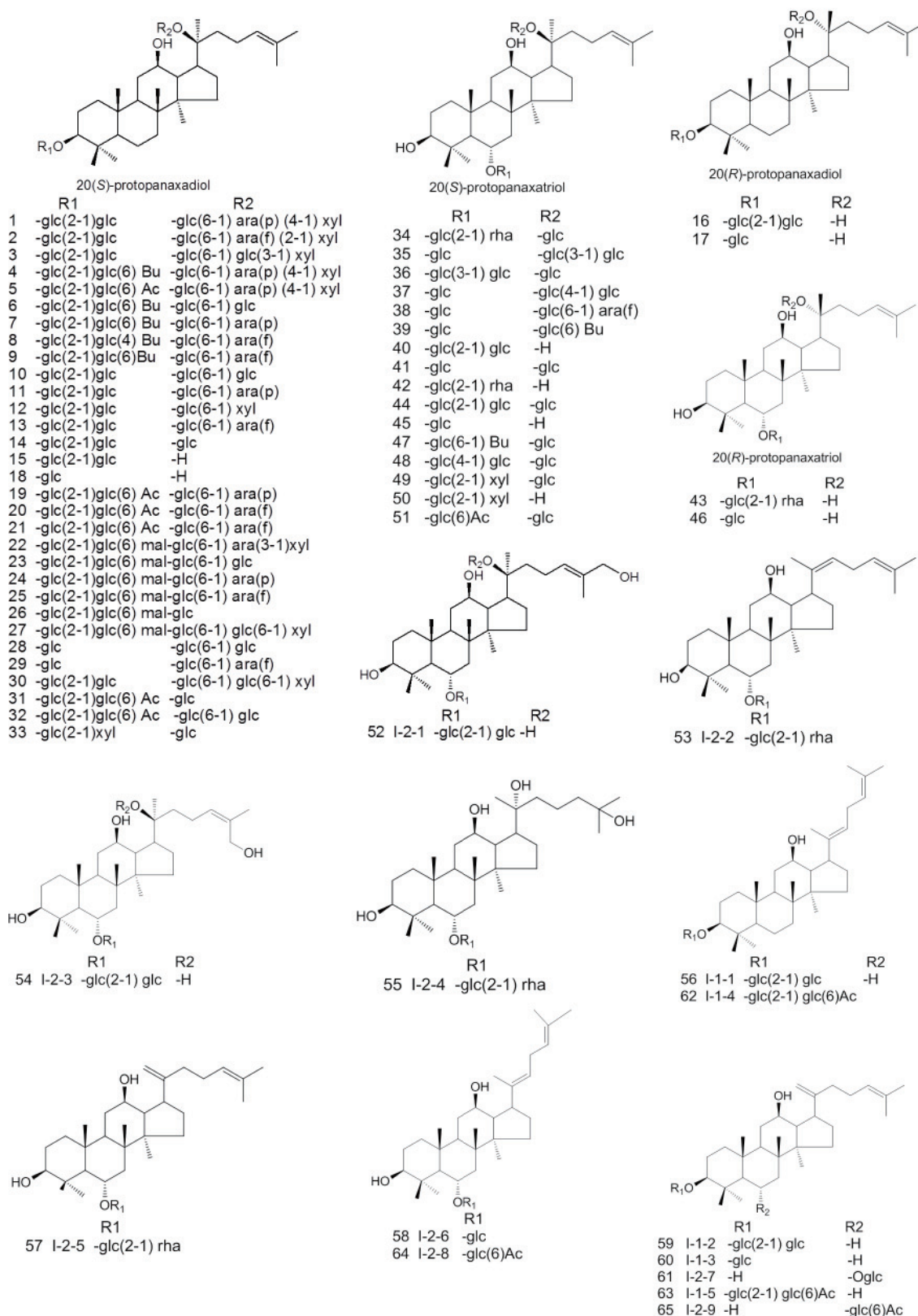


Figure 1. The structure of chemical constituents of *Panax ginseng* C. A. Mey. (to continue)

glycosides isolated from red ginseng were characterized as isomaltol- $\alpha$ -D-glucopyranoside (**76**), ketopropyl- $\alpha$ -D-glucopyranoside (**77**) and adenosine (**78**). However, these compounds are not found in white ginseng (44,45).

### 2.5. Phenolic acid

In 1979, maltol (3-hydroxy-2-methyl-4-pyrone) (**79**) was isolated from ginseng (46). In 1981, another three

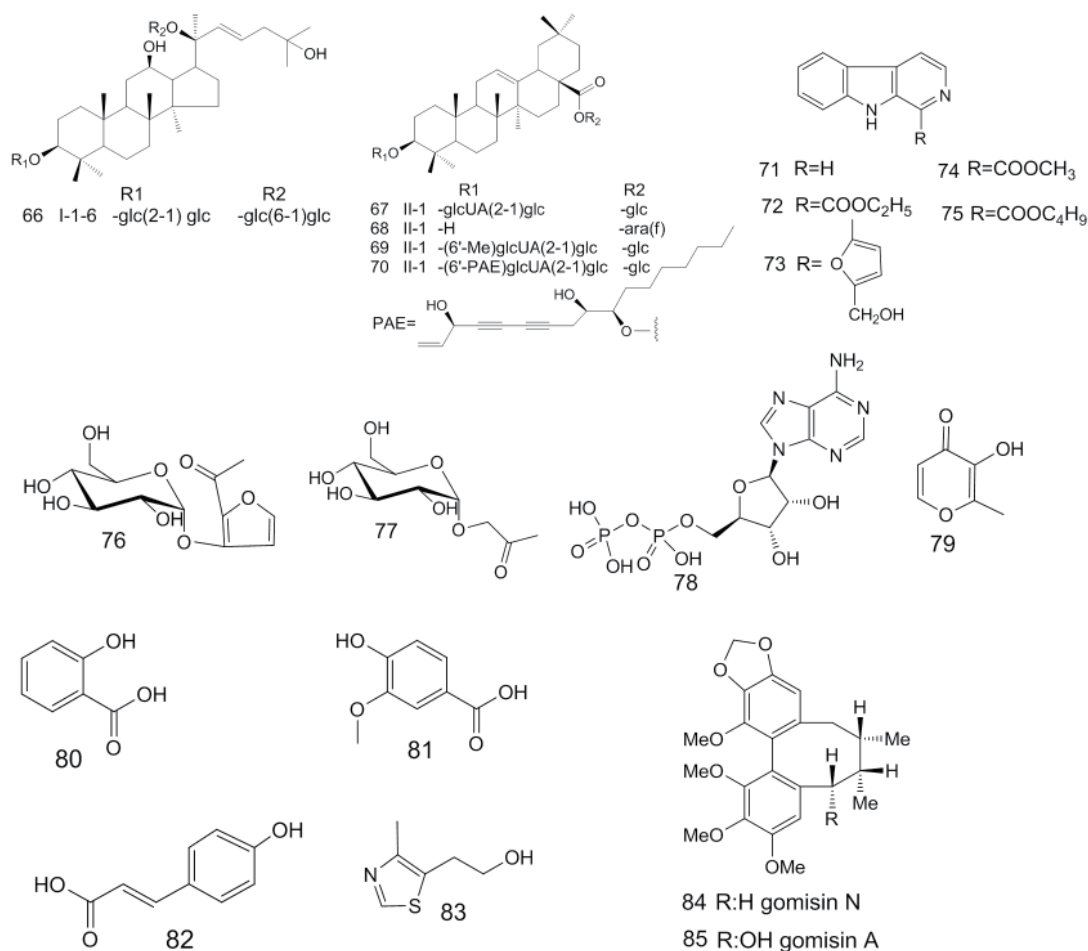


Figure 1 (continued). The structure of chemical constituents of *Panax ginseng* C. A. Mey.

phenolic acids were obtained from the ether-soluble acidic fraction of fresh ginseng, and they were identified by chemical and spectrometric methods to be salicylic acid (**80**), vanillic acid (**81**), and p-hydroxycinnamic acid (**82**) (47).

### 2.6. Others

Besides all the constituents listed above, in 1988, a thiazole (**83**) was isolated by Jong *et al.* (43). In 1990, two lingans were isolated from Korean red ginseng and their chemical structures were elucidated as gomisin N (**84**) and gomisin A (**85**) by spectrometric analysis (48).

## 3. Biological activities

### 3.1. Anti-aging activity

Ginseng, as a well-known traditional medicine and tonic, has been used for a panacea or promoting longevity. Abundant evidence suggested that oxidative stress plays a central role in the process of biological aging (49). Excessive oxidative stress leads to cell

death and mitochondrial dysfunction (50). Some research indicated that ginseng extracts had been shown to improve learning and memory in normal, aged or brain-damaged animals (51,52). In 1981, Han *et al.* identified that salicylic acid (**80**) and vanillic acid (**81**) had potent antioxidant activity in the liver of ethanol-intoxicated mice, whereas p-hydroxycinnamic acid (**82**) did not have the effect (47). In 1991, Bernhard *et al.* reported that ginseng extract could enhance the age-dependency of learning ability in the passive avoidance test in female rats (53). In 1996, it was found that maltol (**79**) was an antioxidant with little prooxidant activity by comparing it with some antioxidant phenolic compounds (54). It has been reported that several ginsenosides have the function of ameliorating impaired memory function. For example, ginsenosides Rb<sub>1</sub> (**10**) and Rg<sub>1</sub> (**41**) have been shown to accelerate memory acquisition of rats on a Y-maze task and they also enhanced the cognitive function of mice in a Morris water maze (55). Yamaguchi *et al.* have also reported that Rg<sub>1</sub> (**41**) improved the scopolamine-induced impaired performance of rats in a radial-arm maze. Rb<sub>1</sub> (**10**) and its metabolite M<sub>1</sub> were reported to improve

memory disorders, axonal atrophy, and synaptic loss in a mouse model of Alzheimer's disease (AD) that was induced by an *i.c.v.* injection of A $_{\beta(25-35)}$  (56). In 2005, Bao *et al.* indicated that ginsenosides Rg<sub>3</sub>(S) (15) Rg<sub>5</sub> (56) and Rk<sub>1</sub> (59) significantly reversed the memory dysfunction induced by ethanol or scopolamine, and their neuroprotective actions against excitotoxicity may be attributed to their memory enhancing effects (57).

### 3.2. Anti-diabetic activity

In 1990, ginseng had been reported to improve glucose homeostasis and insulin sensitivity (58). In 2001, Chung *et al.* reported that oral administration of ginseng root to diabetic KKAY mice for 4 weeks reduced blood glucose levels similar to that of an insulin sensitizer (59). Rb<sub>2</sub> (11) was found to be the most effective component of ginsenosides for streptozotocin-diabetic rats (60). In 2004, it was reported that wild ginseng ethanol extract could prevent type 2 diabetes mellitus and possibly obesity in IRC mice through improving the insulin resistance index and decreasing white and brown adipocytes diameters (61). In 2011, Lee *et al.* reported that Rb<sub>2</sub> might inhibit palmitate-induced gluconeogenesis *via* AMP-activated protein kinase (AMPK)-induced small heterodimer partner (SHP) by relieving estrogen receptor (ER) stress (62,63).

### 3.3. Immunoregulatory activity

Ginseng has been used for more than 2000 years in oriental countries to enhance stamina and immune function. In 1994, the antigenicity of the aqueous extract of red ginseng (ARG) was evaluated in guinea pigs, the results suggested that ARG has no antigenicity but it was confirmed not to suppress immune reactions (64). Ginsan, a polysaccharide isolated from ginseng, had been shown to be a potent immunomodulator, producing several cytokines (tumor necrosis factor- $\alpha$  (TNF- $\alpha$ ), interleukin-1 $\beta$  (IL-1 $\beta$ ), interleukin-2 (IL-2), interleukin-6 (IL-6), interleukin-12 (IL-12), interferon- $\gamma$  (IFN- $\gamma$ ), granulocyte-macrophage colony-stimulating factor (GM-CSF)) and stimulating lymphoid cells to proliferate (65). In 2004, the mechanism of the immunomodulator activity of ginsan was investigated, and the results showed that ginsan at a dose of 100 mg/kg could cause marked elevation (1.7-2 fold) of heme oxygenase (HO) activity, decrease total hepatic cytochrome P-450 (CYP450) levels (by 20-34%), and prolong zoxazolamine-induced paralysis time (by 65-70%), and did not seem to cause hepatic injury, since serum aspartate aminotransferase (AST), alanineaminotransferase (ALT), and alkaline phosphatase (ALP) activities and levels of total bilirubin and albumin were not changed (66). In 2005, ginsan was found to improve  $\gamma$  radiation-induced immunosuppression through inducing mRNA expression of Th1 and Th2 type cytokines, and restoring mRNA

expression of INF- $\gamma$  and Th1 cytokines (67). In 2008, it was reported that red ginseng acidic polysaccharide and pidotimod had synergistic immunostimulating activity against cyclophosphamide-induced immunosuppression through stimulating splenic T cell and B cell proliferation and increasing the nitric oxide from peritoneal macrophages and natural killer cell (NK cell) activity (68). In 2013, Wang *et al.* demonstrated that ginseng acidic polysaccharide had potential therapeutic effects for chronic fatigue syndrome by enhancing malondialdehyde and lactate dehydrogenase levels in serum and lowering superoxide dismutase and glutathione peroxidase in mice *in vivo* (69).

### 3.4. Anti-cancer activity

Ginseng has been shown to have powerful anticancer properties. Saponin and non-saponin compounds from ginseng roots were reported to show cytotoxic activities against various kinds of cancer cell lines in culture, such as L1210, L5187Y, HeLa cells, Sarcoma 180 cells, A549, SK-OV-3, SK-Mel-2, P388, and K562 *et al.* (70). In 1991, Kikuchi *et al.* reported that ginsenoside Rh<sub>2</sub> (17/18) inhibited human ovarian cancer growth in a nude mice model (71). In 2002, Lee *et al.* reported that ginsenoside Rb<sub>1</sub> (10), Rc (13) and Re (34) could act as a weak phytoestrogen in MCF-7 human breast cancer cells by binding and activating the estrogen receptors at both the mRNA and protein levels (72,73). In 2004, it was found that ginsenoside Rg<sub>3</sub> (15/16) and Rh<sub>2</sub> (17/18)-induced cell detachment and inhibition of the proliferation of prostate cancer cells and might be associated with modulation of three modules of MAP kinases (extracellular signal-regulated kinase, p38 mitogen-activated protein kinase, and c-Jun N-terminal kinase). Furthermore, the increase of LogP and decrease of C-6 steric hindrance, which were caused by deglycosylation by intestinal bacteria could increase anti-androgen-independent prostate cancer activity (74,75). In 2005, compound K, ginsenoside metabolite, was found to inhibit the growth of human monocytic leukemia cells U937 through up-regulating of p21 and activating Jun N-terminal kinase in the G1 phase (76). Rg<sub>3</sub> (15/16) was discovered to inhibit tumor cell proliferation and induce cell apoptosis in mice with induced liver cancer (77). In 2009, Fishbein *et al.* suggested a potential for red ginseng as an adjuvant therapy in the treatment of colorectal cancer, *via* a synergistic action (78). In 2011, Rk<sub>1</sub> (59) was found to induce apoptosis in SK-MEL-2 human melanoma *in vitro* through up-regulation of Fas, FasL, and Bax protein expression and down-regulation of procaspase-8, procaspase-3, mutant p53 and bcl-2 protein expression (79).

### 3.5. Neuroregulation activity

In 1985, Kim *et al.* elucidated that supplement of the

saponin fraction of ginseng could increase the amount of norepinephrine and dopamine (DA) in mouse brain. In 1997, it was reported that ginseng total saponin (GTS) could modulate the methamphetamine-induced striatal dopaminergic neuronal systems by inhibiting methamphetamine-induced DA increase (80). In 1998, Kim *et al.* reported GTS can modulate dopaminergic activity at both presynaptic and postsynaptic dopamine receptors (81). Furthermore, it was found that GTS might be useful in the prevention and therapy of the behavioral side effects induced by psychotropic agents by attenuating the morphine-induced cAMP signaling pathway (82). In 2004, ginsenoside Rh<sub>2</sub> (17/18) and compound K were found to improve ischemic brain injury (83). In 2008, ginsenosides Rb<sub>1</sub> (10), Rb<sub>2</sub> (11), Rc (13), Rd (14), Re (34), Rf (40) and Rg<sub>1</sub> (41) were found to regulate nociceptive processing induced by pro-inflammatory cytokines (TNF- $\alpha$ , IL-1 $\beta$ , and IFN- $\gamma$ ) (84). In 2009, it was reported that red ginseng extract could modulate nerve growth factors (NGF) expression in the steroid-induced polycystic ovary (POC) rat model by decreasing ovarian concentrations of NGF protein and NGF mRNA (85).

### 3.6. Lipid-regulating and antithrombotic activities

It was found that ginseng saponin, one of major component of *Panax ginseng* had influence on lipid metabolism. Saponin stimulated the absorption, metabolism and transport of lipids (86). It had been also reported that ginseng saponin decreased plasma cholesterol and triglyceride levels and inhibited aortic atheroma formation in animals with hypercholesterolemia caused by long administration of high cholesterol or feeding on a diet containing high cholesterol (86). In 1984, it was reported that red ginseng saponin showed no significant change of high-density lipoproteincholesterol-cholesterol (HDL-cholesterol) level but it lowered plasma levels of total cholesterol and highly elevated those of triglyceride in Wistar male rats fed on a diet high in cholesterol and triglyceride (86). In 2006, it was identified that Rg<sub>3</sub> (15/16) might be effective in metabolic syndrome (MetSyn) by comparing the anti-MetSyn effect of vinegar-processed ginseng radix and non-processed ginseng radix in a high fat diet induced MetSyn ICR mouse model (87). In the same year, it was reported that red ginseng had a potent antithrombotic effect *in vivo*, which may be due to antiplatelet rather than anticoagulation activity, and its intake may be beneficial to individuals with high risk of thrombotic and cardiovascular diseases (88).

### 3.7. Wound and ulcer healing activity

In 2002, it was reported that ginsenoside Rb<sub>2</sub> (11) could enhance epidermal cell proliferation by upregulating the expression of proliferation- related factors (89).

In 2006, Shin *et al.* reported that ginsenoside Rh<sub>3</sub> metabolized from ginsenoside R<sub>5</sub> (56) could improve chronic dermatitis or psoriasis by the regulation of IL-1 $\beta$ , TNF- $\alpha$  and IFN- $\gamma$  produced by macrophage cells and Th cells (90). In 2003, Rb<sub>1</sub> (10) was found to exhibit an anti-ulcer effect through increasing mucus secretion (91,92).

### 3.8. Other activities

In 1986, Lee *et al.* reported that ginseng saponin could interact directly with Na<sup>+</sup>-K<sup>+</sup>-ATPase before disruption of membrane barriers of sarcolemmal vesicles, however, it decreased the number of phosphorylation sites (93). In 1996, it was reported that GTS could modulate various cellular activities by inhibiting gap junction channel reconstitution (94). In 2001, Ginseng saponin had been reported to induce IP<sub>3</sub>-mediated Ca<sup>2+</sup> release from ERs for the activation of Ca<sup>2+</sup>-activated Cl<sup>-</sup> channel in *Xenopus* oocytes (95,96). Furthermore, it was found that CaM could modulate ginseng saponin-mediated Ca<sup>2+</sup>-activated Cl<sup>-</sup> channel activation (97). In 2003, Rc (13) was found to enhance I<sub>GABA</sub> in oocytes expressing human GABA<sub>A</sub> receptor in *Xenopus* oocytes (98). In 2006, it was reported that tissue culture root of wild *Panax ginseng* had feasibility as a therapeutic agent for spermatogenic disorders (99).

## 4. Conclusions

*Panax ginseng* (C. A. Mey.) has been used as traditional Chinese medicine for more than two thousand years. More than a hundred compounds were isolated from the root of ginseng, and a majority of them were ginsenosides, which showed a broad range of biological activities. Nevertheless, further studies to exploit other kinds of constituents and new biological activities of ginseng are still necessary to facilitate research and development in the future.

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