

Red ginger (*Zingiber officinale* Roscoe var *rubrum*): a review

Suciyati, S. W.¹; Adnyana, I K.^{1*}

¹ School of Pharmacy, Bandung Institute of Technology (ITB), Jalan Ganeca 10, Bandung 40132, Indonesia

*ketut@fa.itb.ac.id

Abstract

Red ginger (*Zingiber officinale* Roscoe var *rubrum*) has been widely used as traditional medicine in many countries, especially in Indonesia, China, and Malaysia. The traditional use of red ginger is in accordance with its pharmacological activity and chemical content. Many studies have shown that red ginger exhibited pharmacological activities as an immunomodulator, antihypertensive, antihyperlipidemia, tonic, acetylcholine esterase inhibitor, antihyperuricemia, antimicrobial agent, and cytotoxic agent. Several studies have also indicated that some of the pharmacological activities of red ginger were superior to that of white ginger. This review aimed to examine the development of studies concerning red ginger from its ethnopharmacology to pharmacological activity.

Keywords: red ginger, *Zingiber officinale* Roscoe var *rubrum*, gingerol, shogaol.

Introduction

Ginger is a plant widely used in Indonesia as a food preservative, seasoning, and in traditional remedies [1]. Based on the size and color of the rhizome, ginger is divided into three varieties, namely elephant-sized or white ginger (*Z. officinale* var. *officinale*), *emprit* or small ginger (*Z. officinale* var. *amarum*), and red ginger (*Z. officinale* var. *rubrum*) [2][3][4].

According to the modern system of taxonomy, red ginger is biologically categorized into the Spermatophyta division, Angiospermae subdivision, Monocotyledoneae class, Zingiberales order, Zingiberaceae family, and *Zingiber officinale* Roscoe var. *rubrum* Theilade species [5]. It is synonymous with *Zingiber officinale* Roscoe var. *Sunti* Val., *Zingiber amomum* L., *Zingiber cholmondeleyi* (F.M.Bailey) K.Schum., *Zingiber missionis* Wall., *Zingiber officinale* var. *macrorrhizonum* Makino, *Zingiber officinale* var. *rubens* Makino, *Zingiber sichuanense* Z.Y.Zhu, S.L.Zhang & S.X.Chen [6]. An annual plant that can grow to up to 50-100 cm high, it has thick, reddish-brown rhizomes but is smaller than white ginger. The leaves are narrow and lancet-shaped with a length of 5-25 cm and a width of 8-20 mm. The plant has an ovoid-shaped composite that emerges from the rhizomes, with a stem length of 10-25 cm and small leaves at the base of the flower. The corollas are funnel-shaped, 2-2.5 cm long, and have a dark purple colour with creamy-yellow spots. The petals are small, tubular, and tridental [7].

Red ginger is known by many names in many countries and languages, such as Canton ginger, East Indian ginger, and stem ginger in England; zenzabil and zingibil in Arabic; chiang, ganjiang, and kanchiang in China; and jahe blasa or jahe merah in Indonesia [6].

Materials and Methods

The journals were searched through online search engine powered by Scopus, Science Direct, Google Scholar and Pubmed with pharmacological activities and scientific name as key words.

Results

Ethnopharmacological studies

Ginger is believed to have originated in Southeast Asia. It can only be grown from cultivation and is not found in the wild [8]. In India, ginger decoctions are widely used in the Ayurvedic medicine systems, Unani and Siddha. These decoctions have a wide variety of uses, including as stimulants, contraceptives, aphrodisiacs, abortion, hypoglycemic agents, hypolipidemic agents, tonics, carminatives, and stomach pain relievers. Fresh ginger is also used to treat flu, arthritis, pneumonia, infertility,

helminth infections, toothache, tuberculosis, vomiting, cough, asthma, bronchitis, sore throat, diarrhea, headache, wound infections, and malaria [6]. In China, ginger has been known since the 4th century BC and is used in traditional Chinese medicine as anti-worm and anti-malarial agents [9][10].

In its place of origin, Southeast Asia, red ginger has also had a long history of use in traditional medicine. For instance, red ginger has been extensively used by the indigenous peoples of Indonesia (such as the Tolitoli, Java, Banjar, Madura, Batak, Dayak, Bugis, and Sunda tribes [11][12], to treat nausea, vomiting, impotence, colds, flatulence, and coughs [13]. The pungent smell and spicy taste of red ginger was believed to have better efficacy than other subspecies of ginger, and its cultivation was encouraged [14].

Although ginger first originated and was mostly cultivated in Asia, it has also spread to other parts of the world, including Europe and America. The first European to discover this plant was the Venetian merchant, Marco Polo, in 1285. After that, ginger became an essential commodity in Europe, leading the Venetian merchants to build businesses in Constantinople and Sudak, situated on the shores of the Red Sea, to monopolize the ginger trade brought by caravans from the Silk Road. The Venetians' monopoly of the ginger trade continued until the 15th century but started to collapse when Portuguese sailors were able to sail directly to Calicut, India, to obtain ginger. Another prominent figure involved in the ginger trade was Francisco Mendoza who brought ginger to South America to be cultivated and then exported to Spain in early 1547 [15].

The popularity of red ginger in society, as well as its ethnopharmacological studies, is thought to have triggered the many further research into this subspecies of ginger.

Chemical constituents

Although the chemical constituents of red ginger vary depending on the cultivation site, a ginger rhizome typically contains 1-2% of volatile oils, 5-8% of resinous substances and also starch and gum [9][16]. The composition of volatile oils in ginger is characterized by a high percentage of sesquiterpene hydrocarbons such as α -zingiberene, α -curcumene, β -bisabolene, and β -sesquiphellandrene [10][17][18][19][20].

In 2011, Sivasothy et al. mapped the volatile oil composition in the leaves and fresh rhizomes of red ginger obtained from Negeri Sembilan, Malaysia [21]. Forty-six compounds were detected in the leaves and 54 compounds in the rhizomes, the main constituents of which were monoterpenoids (81.9%), with the highest

being camphene (14.7%), followed by geranial (14.3%), geranyl acetate (13.7%), neral (7.7%), geraniol (7.3%), and 1,8-cineole (5%). Neral and geranial are suspected to cause the scent of lemon found in red ginger rhizomes, similar to gingers from Australia, while borneol, bornyl acetate, and 1,8-cineole contribute to their camphor-like aroma [10][22].

Pharmacological activities

Studies have shown that red ginger exhibits several pharmacological activities, such as immunomodulators, antihypertensives, antihyperlipidemia, tonics, acetylcholine esterase inhibitors, antihyperuricemia, antimicrobial, and cytotoxic agents [23][24][25][26][27][28][29][30].

Immunomodulator in psoriasis

The immunomodulator properties of red ginger were studied by Nordin *et al.* [23]. The active fraction of red ginger rhizome chloroform extract containing 6-shogaol and 1-dehydro-6-gingerdione effectively inhibited the production of nitric oxide (NO) and prostaglandin E₂ (PGE₂) by activating macrophages. At a concentration of 20 µg/ml, this active fraction also reduced mRNA levels of iNOS, IL-12p40, and IL-23p19 in pre-treatment experiments of activated macrophages. Additionally, inhibition of polymorphonuclear neutrophil (PMN) migration through human vascular endothelial cells (HUVEC), presumably by influencing CD11b expression and CD62L shedding, and activation of the expression of CD8 + cytotoxic T-lymphocytes, CD25, and CD69, were observed. Inhibition of cytokines IL-20 and IL-8 expression, as well as inhibition of the proliferation of keratinocytes, were also observed through *in vitro* studies.

Antihypertensive

In vitro studies have shown that red ginger aqueous extracts (1:20 w/v) inhibit the action of Angiotensin-I converting enzyme (ACE), and Fe²⁺- and sodium nitroprusside (SNP)-induced lipid peroxidation in rats' hearts. The red ginger aqueous extracts were also compared to those of white ginger and were shown to have a higher inhibitory effect, with an EC₅₀ value of 0.027 mg/ml. In the incubation period, the reduction of malondialdehyde levels by red ginger aqueous extract followed a dose-dependent trend [24].

The ACE inhibitor activity of red ginger was also demonstrated in *in vivo* studies conducted using HDL cholesterol-induced rats. Rats given feed containing 4% red ginger showed a significant decrease in blood HDL-Cholesterol levels, as well as malondialdehyde levels in the liver and heart tissues. These results indicate that the

antihypertensive effect of red ginger is due to the inhibition of ACE and lipid peroxidation [31].

Antihyperlipidemia

A recent study conducted by Hapsari and Rahayuningsih (2014) showed the antihyperlipidemia effect of red ginger [25]. Thirty-four female subjects who suffered from hyperlipidemia were given red ginger drinks with a dose of 3.2 ml/kg bw for 21 days. The results showed that the low density lipoprotein cholesterol (LDL-C) levels of the subjects decreased by 12% at the end of the treatment period. The antihyperlipidemia activity of red ginger extract is believed to arise from 6-gingerol, 6-shogaol, and gingerdione, the concentration of which are higher in red ginger compared to other ginger varieties [32][33].

Tonicum

An *in vivo* study using male Swiss mice showed that the ethanol extract of red ginger had a higher tonic effect than other ginger varieties. The average tonic effect of red ginger ethanol extract was 5.6711 minutes compared to the 4.0300 minutes of white ginger ethanol extract. The compounds thought to be responsible for this tonic or stimulant effect in extracts of ginger is oleoresin [26].

Alzheimer's disease therapy

A study by Oboh *et al.* investigated the effect of red ginger rhizome aqueous extracts on sodium nitroprusside-induced mice, and the results showed that the extracts inhibited the activity of acetylcholine esterase (AChE) in the mice's brains. This anti-AChE activity was caused by the flavonoids, tannins, alkaloids and terpenoids present in the extract that prevented lipid peroxidation [27].

Antihyperuricemia

The antihyperuricemia activities of red ginger rhizome methanol extract were studied by Hariyanto *et al.* [28]. A reduction in uric acid levels by 78.76% was observed when administered orally in Wistar rats for 9 days at a dose of 0.0305 g/kg bw. This effect is associated with rutin, kaempferol, and quercetin as flavonoids that inhibit xanthine oxidase activity. Epicatechin and catechin in extracts were also reported to have antioxidant activity against free radicals.

Antimicrobial activity

Some of the volatile oils contained in red ginger, namely trimethyl-heptadien-ol, ar-curcumene, camphene, carbaldehyde, sesquiphellandrene, and nerol, were found to inhibit the growth of test bacteria with MIC values

ranging from 2.65 to 3.97 mg/ml and MBC values from 3.10 to 5.29 mg/ml. Based on the MIC and MBC values, *Bacillus cereus* was the most sensitive to red ginger volatile oils, followed by *Escherichia coli*, *Salmonella typhimurium*, and *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* [29].

Cytotoxic agent

In vitro studies of red ginger rhizome extract showed cytotoxicity against myeloma and WiDr cells with IC₅₀ values of 28 mg/ml and 74 mg/ml. Additionally, immunohistochemical results showed an increased expression of p53 in cell apoptosis, and inhibition of p53 expression in HeLa, T47D, and MCF-7 cell lines [30].

Pharmacokinetic activity

The pharmacokinetic profiles of the chemical constituents of red ginger have never been investigated. However, a pharmacokinetic study of similar compounds, namely 6-shogaol and 6-gingerol, has been conducted. The tests were carried out using both ¹⁴C-labeled 6-shogaol and unlabeled 6-shogaol. The study showed that the blood concentration of these compounds (AUC) is dose-dependent. When administered orally at a dose of 10mg/kg, 20% of 6-shogaol (labeled) is excreted via urine, 64% in feces, and 12.9% through the respiratory tract. Meanwhile, orally-administered 6-shogaol (unlabeled) had a low plasma concentration and excretion. This suggests that 6-shogaol is largely metabolized in the body and is excreted in the form of metabolites [34]. Furthermore, 6-gingerol has an elimination half-life of 7.23 minutes with CrCl 16.8 ml/min/kg and 92.4% protein binding. Also, gut flora and liver enzymes play a key role in the metabolism of 6-gingerol [35][36].

Red ginger is a superior ginger variety in terms of its shogaol and gingerol contents and pharmacological activities. For instance, its 6-gingerol and 6-shogaol contents were proven to have a superior antihyperlipidemic effect without any side effect due to inhibition of prostaglandin. Red ginger also shows promising results as immunomodulator, antihypertensive, tonicum, treatment of Alzheimer's disease, antihyperuricemia and cytotoxic agent. The immunomodulator activity showed red ginger extract affected the lymphocyte T activity and its secreted cytokine that contribute to psoriasis. The extracts also express inhibitory activity to ACE higher than white ginger. Oleoresin compound of red ginger, considered as the active compound, acts in a superior tonicum effect compared to white ginger. The flavonoids, tannins, alkaloids and terpenoids present in the red ginger ethanol extract contributed as inhibitor AchE by preventing lipid peroxidation. Rutin, kaempferol, and quercetin as flavonoids that express inhibitor xanthine

oxidase activity, also epicatechin and catechin as antioxidants were responsible in the antihyperuricemia activity of red ginger. The extract also acts as apoptosis promoter in some *in vitro* studies related to various cancer cells. Although the red ginger extract also indicates microbial activity, it is still inferior compared to other Zingiberaceae plants such as turmeric and zedoary. The pharmacokinetic study that has been conducted is 6-shogaol and 6-gingerol. It is similar to the red ginger compound found in oleoresin.

There is still high potential for further research on red ginger regarding its chemical contents, mainly gingerol, shogaol, and their derivatives, and mapping the chemical constituents such as oleoresin. Current studies on red ginger are still in the preclinical stage and need to be further developed in terms of pharmacological effects, toxicity, mechanism of actions and signaling, compound modification, and also clinical trials in order to establish red ginger as a therapeutic agent.

Acknowledgments

This work was supported by Ministry of Education under PMDSU Scholarship. The authors also expressed gratitude towards Postgraduate Program of ITB for the language editing.

References

1. de Padua, L.S., Bunyaprapatsara, N., Lemmens, R.H.M.J. (eds). Plant resources of South-East Asia No. 12 (1): Medicinal and poisonous plants 1. Bogor, Indonesia: PROSEA Foundation
2. Ochse, J.J. Vegetables of the Dutch East Indies. Buitenzorg, Indonesia: ArchipelDrukkerij
3. Heyne, K. De Nuttige Planten van Indonesie. Deel I. W. van Hoeve, 's-Gravenhage, Indonesia: Ruygrok
4. Setyawan, A.D., Wiryanto, Suranto, Bermawie, N., Variation in isozymic pattern of germplasm from three of ginger (*Zingiber officinale*) varieties. *Nus Bio*. 2014;6:86-93.
5. Backer, C.A., and van den Brink, R.C B. Flora of Java. Vol. III. Groningen, The Netherlands: Wolters Noordhoff
6. Quattrocchi, U. CRC World Dictionary of Medicinal and Poisonous Plants. New York, USA: CRC Press
7. Ross, I. Medicinal Plants of the World Chemical Constituents, Traditional & Modern Medicinal Uses. New Jersey, USA: Humana Press
8. Purseglove, J.W., Brown, E.G., Green, C.L., Robbins, S.R.J. Spices Vol. 2. London, England: Longman

9. Claus, E.P., Tyler V.E., Brady, L.R. *Pharmacognosy* 6th ed. London, England: Henry Kimpton
10. Wohlmuth, H., Smith, M.K., Brooks, L.O., Myers, S.P., Leach, D. Essential oil composition of diploid and tetraploid clones of ginger (*Zingiber officinale* Roscoe) grown in Australia. *J Agr Food Chem.* 2006;54(4):1414-1419
11. Nulfitriani, Pitopang, R., Yuniati, E. Pemanfaatan tumbuhan sebagai obat tradisional pada Suku Toli toli di Desa Pinjan Sulawesi Tengah. *Biocelebes.* 2013;7:1-8
12. Kuntorini, E. M., Botani ekonomi suku zingiberaceae sebagai obat tradisional oleh masyarakat di Kota Madya Banjarbaru. *J Bioscience.* 2005;2: 25-36.
13. Hartanto, S., Fitmawati, Sofiyanti, N. An ethnobotanical study of zingiberaceae based on local wisdom in Pangean, District of Kuantan Singingi, Riau. *J Bios.* 2014;6:122-132
14. Mayani, L., Yuwono, S.S., and Ningtyas, D.W. The Effect of size reduction of ginger and water ratio on physical chemical and organoleptic of ginger (*Zingiberofficinale*) extract. *J Pangan dan Agroindustri.* 2014; 2:148-158
15. Wiart, C. *Ethnopharmacology of Medicinal Plants: Asia and the Pacific.* New Jersey, USA: Humana Press Inc
16. Evans, W.C. *Trease and Evans: Pharmacognosy* 16th ed. China: Elsevier Limited
17. Norajit, K., Laohakunjit, N., & Kerchoechuen, O. Antibacterial effect of five Zingiberaceae essential oils. *Molecules.* 2007;12(8):2047-2060
18. Onyenekwe, P.C., & Hashimoto, S. The composition of the essential oil of dried Nigerian ginger (*Zingiber officinale* Roscoe). *Eur Food Res Technol.* 1999;209:407-410
19. Pino, J.A., Marbot, R., Rosado, A., & Batista, A. Chemical composition of essential oil of *Zingiber officinale* Roscoe L. from Cuba. *J Essen Oil Res.* 2004;16:186-188
20. Singh, G., Maurya, S., Catalan, C., & deLampasona, M. P. Studies on essential oils, part 42: Chemical, antifungal, antioxidant and sprout suppressant studies on ginger essential oil and its oleoresin. *Flavour Frag J.* 2005;20:1-6
21. Sivasothy, Y., Chong, W.K., Hamid, A., Eldeen, A.H., Sulaiman, S.F., Awang, K., Essential oils of *Zingiber officinale* var. *Rubrum* Theilade and their antibacterial activities. *Food Chem,* 2011;124:514-517
22. Bauer, K., Garbe, D., & Surburg, H. *Common flavour and fragrance materials: Preparation, properties and uses.* Germany: Wiley-VCH Verlag GmbH Weinheim
23. Nordin, N.I., Gibbons, S., Perrett, D., Mageed, R.A. Immunomodulatory effects of *Zingiber officinale* Roscoe var. *Rubrum* (Halia Bara) on inflammatory responses relevant to psoriasis. *The Open Conference Proceedings Journal.* 2013;4
24. Akinyemi, A.J. Ginger varieties (*Zingiberofficinale*) inhibit key enzyme linked to hypertension (Angiotensin-I converting enzyme) and some pro-oxidants induced lipid peroxidation in rat heart: *In vitro,* *J Clin Exp Cardiol.* 2013; 4:167
25. Hapsari, H.P., Rahayuningsih, H.M. Pengaruh pemberian jahe merah (*Zingiber officinale* var *Rubrum*) terhadap kadar kolesterol LDL wanita dislipidemia, *J Nutr Coll,* 2014;3:871-879
26. Retnani, Y.D., Parmadi, A. Perbandingan efek tonikum ekstrak etanol jahe merah (*Zingiber officinale* var.*Rubrum*) dan jahe putih (*Zingiber officinale* var.*Album*) pada mencit jantan (*Mus Musculus* L.) ras Swiss. *Indo J Med Sci.* 2014;1:76-80
27. Oboh, G., Ademiluyi, A.O., and Akinyemi, A.J. Inhibition of acetylcholinesterase activities and some pro-oxidant induced lipid peroxidation in rat brain by two varieties of ginger (*Zingiber officinale*). *Exp Toxicol Path.* 2012;64: 315- 319
28. Hariyanto, I.H., Indri, K., Saragih, N. Antihyperuricemia activity from methanol extract of red ginger rhizomes (*Zingiber officinale* Rosc. var *rubrum*) towards white male rat wistar strain. *Int J Pharm Teach Pract.* 2013;4:540
29. Rialita, T., Rahayu, W.P., Nuraida, L., Nurtama, B. Aktivitas antimikroba minyak esensial jahe merah (*Zingiber officinale* var. *Rubrum*) dan lengkuas merah (*Alpinia purpurata* K.Schum) terhadap bakteri patogen dan perusak pangan. *Agritech.*2015;35:43-52
30. Ekowati, H., Achmad, A., Prasasti, E., Warsito, H., Sri, K., Hidayati, Z., Ekasari, T. *Zingiber officinale*, *Piper retrofractum* and combination induced apoptosis and p53 expression in myeloma and WiDr cell lines. *Hayati J Bios.* 2012; 19:137-140
31. Akinyemi, A.J., Ademiluyi, A.O and Oboh G. Inhibition of angiotensin-1-converting enzyme activity by two varieties of ginger (*Zingiber officinale*) in rats fed a high cholesterol diet. *J Med Food.* 2014;17: 317-323
32. Mageed, R., Nordin, N., and Abdulla, M.S. Anti-inflammatory effects of *zingiberofficinale roscoe* involve

suppression of nitric oxide and prostaglandin E₂ production. *Zanco J Med Sci.* 2013;17:349-356

33. Dugasani, S., Pichika, M.R., Nadarajah, V.D., Balijepalli, M.K., Tandra, S., Korlakunta, J.N. Comparative antioxidant and anti-inflammatory effects of [6]-gingerol, [8]-gingerol, [10]-gingerol and [6]-shogaol. *J Ethnopharmacol.* 2010;127:515-20.

34. Asami, A., Shimada, T., Mizuhara, Y., Asano, T., Takeda, S., Aburada, T., Miyamoto, K., Aburada, M. Pharmacokinetics of [6]-shogaol, a pungent ingredient of *Zingiber officinale* Roscoe (Part I). *J Nat Med.* 2010;64:281-287

35. Naora, K., Ding, G., Hayashibara, M., Katagiri, Y., Kano, Y., Iwamoto, K. Pharmacokinetics of [6]-gingerol after intravenous administration in rats with acute renal or hepatic failure. *Chem Pharm Bull.* 1992;40: 1295-1298

36. Nakazawa, T., Ohsawa, K. Metabolism of [6]-gingerol in rats. *Life Sci.* 2002;70: 2165-2175