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**Article:**

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<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.dyepig.2018.03.023>

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1 **Degradation of lucidin: new insights into the fate of this natural pigment present**  
2 **in Dyer's madder (*Rubia tinctorum* L.) during the extraction of textile artefacts**

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7

8 **Abstract**

9 The complex mixtures of colorants present in different madder species can provide significant information about which  
10 plant species or technique was used to dye the fibres of historical textile artefacts, hence, when extracting and analysing  
11 colorants from textile artefacts as much of this information as possible should be preserved. Historical textiles are most  
12 commonly extracted with 37% hydrochloric acid: methanol: water (2:1:1, v/v/v), but this solvent system hydrolyses dye  
13 glycosides and may also induce chemical reactions. One of the primary components in Dyers' madder (*Rubia tinctorum*  
14 L.) is lucidin primeveroside, but it is rarely seen in artefacts, nor is the corresponding aglycon lucidin. It has been  
15 demonstrated that the hydrochloric acid method causes hydrolysis of anthraquinone glycosides to their aglycon  
16 counterpart. Herein it is demonstrated that lucidin is not stable in such acidic conditions and degrades rapidly to  
17 xanthopurpurin. This is confirmed by HPLC, LC-MS and <sup>1</sup>H NMR, which also provide evidence of the mechanism of  
18 degradation being a retro-aldol process.

19

20 **Keywords**

21 Madder; *Rubia tinctorum*; lucidin; dyes; textiles; extraction; reactivity; HPLC analysis.

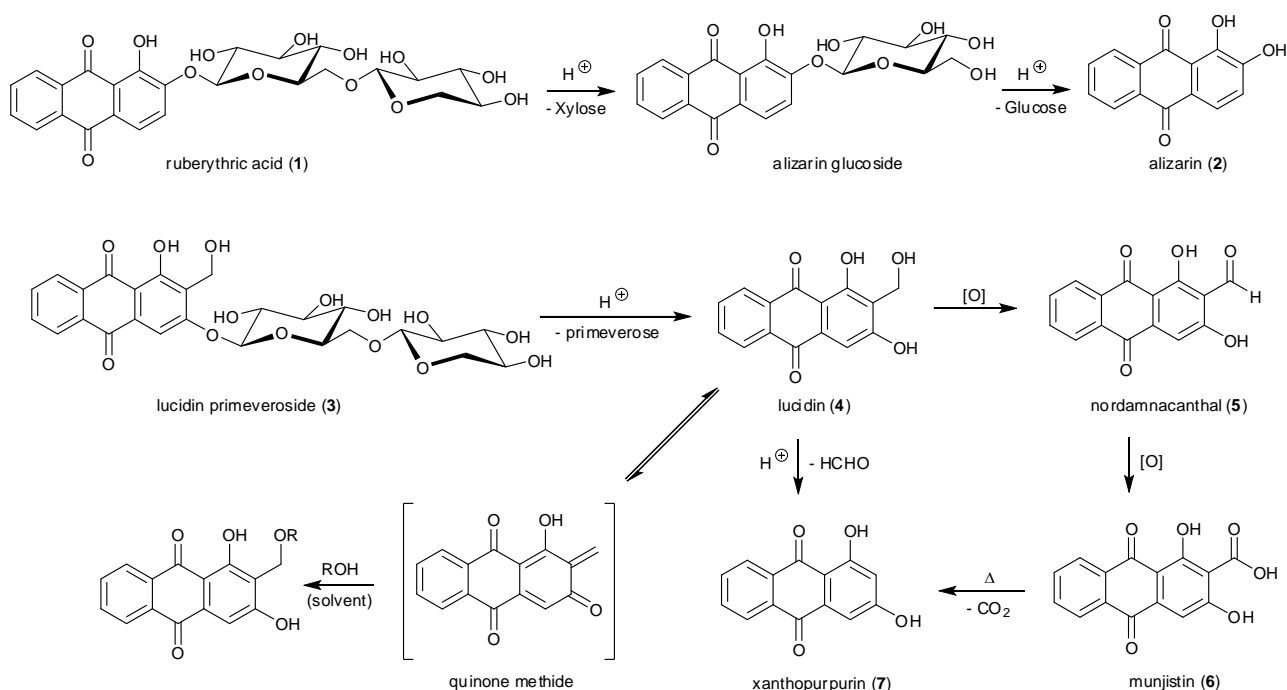
22

23 **1. Introduction**

24 Natural colorants are complex mixtures of many different molecules and plant dyes are often a mixture of aglycons of the  
 25 parent colorant moiety and their glycosidic counterparts. The ratio of the abundance of these molecules can provide  
 26 significant information about which plant species was used to dye the fibres or the technique used for the dye process. In  
 27 the context of historical textiles, this information is of paramount importance for conservation and restoration purposes,  
 28 as well as the generation of information on the ethnographic origins of the artefacts.

29 Colorants obtained from the roots of Dyers' madder (*Rubia tinctorum* L.), are grouped collectively in the Colour  
 30 Index as C. I. Natural Red 8, and have been used as a red dyestuff for centuries. Over 35 anthraquinonoid compounds  
 31 have been reported to be extractable from madder roots [1], however, many of these compounds are artefacts of inherent  
 32 reactivity during analytical extraction methods and are suspected as not being present in planta; for example,  
 33 anthraquinones that contain a 2-methoxymethyl- or a 2-ethoxyethyl group are formed during extraction with hot methanol  
 34 or ethanol, respectively [1,2]. When extracting and analysing colorants from textile artefacts as much information should  
 35 be preserved as possible in order to gain better insight on how they were dyed and the plant species from which the dye  
 36 originated, hence, it is important to limit the damage to the colorant molecule in the extraction process. However,  
 37 extraction of artefacts is not straightforward as the dyes are strongly bound to the substrate via a mordant metal (typically  
 38  $Al^{3+}$ ); the most common literature extraction procedure uses a 37% hydrochloric acid: methanol: water (2:1:1, v/v/v)  
 39 mixture [3-8], as the strong acid enables displacement of the dye molecules from their mordant metal complex [9].  
 40 However, such conditions may also induce a chemical reaction, hence, it is vital that fundamental understanding of the  
 41 reactivity of such natural dyes is developed alongside the analysis of the components within the mixture. If the conditions  
 42 of extraction and analysis of these dyed textiles changes the ratios of the compounds present, or modifies their structure,  
 43 then valuable information on that artefact will be lost or potentially misinterpreted.

44



45

46 **Figure 1.** Possible inter-relationships between anthraquinone compounds found in *Rubia tinctorum* based on chemical or  
 47 biochemical interconversion.

48

49 Only relatively recently has there been significant evidence confirming the primary anthraquinone components  
50 in *Rubia tinctorum* roots as the glycosides ruberythric acid (1) and lucidin primeveroside (3) [10-14]; the majority of  
51 literature has pointed to alizarin (2) as the major anthraquinone present, and whilst it does occur in the plant, it is in much  
52 lower concentrations than its glycoside [11,12,14]. We have previously suggested [15] that acidic conditions used in  
53 extraction and analysis of dyes in previous studies may have led to observations that alizarin was the primary component,  
54 it being the product of ruberythric acid hydrolysis (1→2). However, despite high concentrations of lucidin primeveroside  
55 (3) in *Rubia tinctorum* roots [11,12,14], the aglycon lucidin (4) is rarely detected (and then only in low and trace  
56 concentrations in planta and in textile artefacts [10-12,16]) even when acidic conditions are used that would promote  
57 hydrolysis (3→4); it is suspected that the reactive nature of lucidin means that it is readily converted to other compounds.  
58 As Figure 1 shows, lucidin (4) can be oxidised to nordamnacanthal (5), and studies have suggested this is catalysed by  
59 endogenous oxidase enzymes in the plant [17,18]. It is possible that nordamnacanthal (5) can form munjistin by the action  
60 of endogenous oxidase; subsequently xanthopurpurin (7) may be formed through decarboxylation of munjistin (6). It has  
61 also been proposed [19] that another enzymatic reaction can occur that converts lucidin into the quinone methide (Figure  
62 1). It is thought this intermediate may be able to be formed by acidic conditions, but the actual intermediate is too difficult  
63 to isolate due to it being a very strong electrophile and addition at the double bond by any nucleophile is highly likely  
64 [12].

65 However, these enzymes are probably denatured in the dyeing process and hence this mode of degradation  
66 probably is not responsible for these compounds in historic artefacts. Mouri & Laursen [12] recently confirmed that,  
67 unless *R. tinctorum* roots were “warmed in water” for prolonged periods (hence, providing enzymatic incubation  
68 conditions), significant concentrations of anthraquinone glycosides were present in the dyebath and on dyed wool fibre.  
69 They demonstrated that steaming madder roots or boiling them in water for 30 seconds was sufficient to deactivate the  
70 hydrolytic enzymes. An initial extraction process by boiling the madder root was typically performed in the Japanese  
71 Kusaki-zome dyeing method and typical European madder dyeing processes historically involved heating the dyebath to  
72 75-80 °C, which would most probably also denature the endogenous enzymes present [20].

73 We have previously suggested [15] that xanthopurpurin may also be formed directly from lucidin (4) through an  
74 acid (or base)-catalysed loss of formaldehyde through a retro-aldol type process (Figure 1), but there is no literature to  
75 support this proposal. The absence of lucidin in the analysis of artefacts dyed with madder is rarely acknowledged, or it  
76 is stated that lucidin is degraded into unknown products [9]. Lucidin is the only commonly reported anthraquinone  
77 detected in the roots of *Rubia tinctorum* to contain a primary alcohol, which could make its degradation unique. As  
78 described in our previous research [15], use of the 37% hydrochloric acid: methanol: water (2:1:1, v/v/v) solvent system  
79 causes hydrolysis of anthraquinone glycosides present in madder root, with the result that only aglycons are detected in  
80 back extraction experiments.

81 Herein it is suggested that when such acidic methods of extraction are used to solvate the dye compounds,  
82 degradation of the aglycon lucidin may also occur. The purpose of the research described is to study the degradation of  
83 lucidin under the conditions of extraction involved with the common 37% hydrochloric acid: methanol: water (2:1:1,  
84 v/v/v) solvent method.

85

## 86 **2. Materials and methods**

### 87 **2.1. Materials and solvents**

88 All chemicals were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich. All solvents used were of HPLC grade and also purchased from  
89 Sigma-Aldrich. HPLC grade water was obtained by distillation on site.

## 90 2.2. General Procedures and Instrumentation

91 Nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) spectra recorded for  $^1\text{H}$  NMR at 300.13 MHz and 500.21 MHz and  $^{13}\text{C}$  at 75.45 MHz  
92 on a Bruker DPX300 and DRX500 spectrometer. Chemical shifts are given in parts per million (ppm) downfield of  
93 tetramethylsilane (singlet at 0 ppm) for proton resonances. The proton coupling constants are corrected and given in Hz  
94 and expressed, e.g. as multiplicities, singlet (s), broad singlet (bs), doublet (d), double doublet (dd), triplet (t) and quartet  
95 (q). High resolution electrospray (ESI+) mass spectrometry was performed on a Bruker MaXis Impact spectrometer,  $m/z$   
96 values are reported in Daltons to four decimal places. Liquid Chromatography with Mass Spectrometry (LC-MS) was  
97 carried out for analysis synthetic references. LC analyses were carried out at room temperature on a Phenomenex  
98 Hyperclone C<sub>18</sub> column, 5  $\mu\text{m}$  particle size, 250 x 4.6 mm I.D. column equipped with a pre-column. Chromatography  
99 was carried out using two solvents: (A) water and 0.1% formic acid solution and (B) acetonitrile and 0.1% formic acid  
100 solution. A linear gradient programme was applied: of 0-3 minutes 0-100% increase of solvent B. The flow rate during  
101 the experiment was 1.0 ml min<sup>-1</sup>. Injections were made by a Basic Marathon autosampler equipped with a 20  $\mu\text{l}$  loop. The  
102 method was carried out on an Agilent 1200 LC using a Bruker HCT Ultra Ion Trap for the MS detection and a Diode  
103 Array Detector. The ESI (electrospray ionisation) parameters in the negative ion mode were as follows: spray voltage  
104 4000 V (applied to the spray tip needle), dry gas 10 dm<sup>3</sup> min<sup>-1</sup>, dry temperature 365 °C, capillary 60 nA, nebulizer 65 psi,  
105 nebulising gas N<sub>2</sub>. UV/visible spectrophotometry was carried out using a Jasco V-530 UV/visible/NIR spectrophotometer  
106 at 2 nm intervals. Spectral properties and wavelength of maximum absorbance ( $\lambda_{\text{max}}$ ) were evaluated. Infrared spectra  
107 were recorded on a Bruker Alpha Platinum ATR. Samples were analysed in the solid phase and absorption maxima ( $\nu_{\text{max}}$ )  
108 are given in wave numbers (cm<sup>-1</sup>) to the nearest whole wavenumber.

## 109 2.3. Synthesis of references for chemical components of madder root

### 110 2.3.1 Xanthopurpurin

111 This method was based on that of Murti et al. [21]. Anhydrous aluminium chloride (4.8 g, 40 mmol) and sodium chloride  
112 (1.2 g, 20 mmol) were heated to 150 °C until molten. To this, a mixture of phthalic anhydride (1.84 g, 8 mmol) and  
113 resorcinol (0.80 g, 8 mmol) was added slowly. The temperature was then slowly increased to 165 °C and maintained for  
114 4 hours. The reaction mixture was then cooled to 0 °C and 2 M aqueous hydrochloric acid solution was added and stirred  
115 for 15 minutes. The reaction mixture was then heated to reflux for 30 minutes, after which it was cooled to room  
116 temperature and extracted with ethyl acetate (3 x 30 ml). The ethyl acetate extracts were then washed successively with  
117 saturated sodium bicarbonate solution (30 ml), dried with magnesium sulphate and evaporated to dryness.

118 Xanthopurpurin (**7**) was collected as a yellow/orange amorphous solid, 28 mg, 1.2% yield, m.p. 261-264 °C. IR (ATR),  
119  $\nu$  (cm<sup>-1</sup>): 3360, 1633, 1598, 1451, 1258.  $\lambda_{\text{max}}$  (log  $\epsilon$ ) in MeOH: 412 nm (4.15).  $^1\text{H}$  NMR (500 MHz, DMSO):  $\delta$  12.76 (s,  
120 1H, OH), 11.32 (s, 1H, OH), 8.23 (dd,  $J$ = 7.5, 1.7 Hz, 1H), 8.18 (dd,  $J$ = 7.5, 1.7 Hz, 1H), 7.95 (app td,  $J$ = 1.7, 7.6 Hz,  
121 1H), 7.92 (app td,  $J$ = 1.7, 7.6 Hz, 1H), 7.15 (d,  $J$ = 2.3 Hz, 1H), 6.62 (d,  $J$ = 2.3 Hz, 1H).  $^{13}\text{C}$  NMR (101 MHz, MeOD)  $\delta$   
122 158.2, 157.8, 157.4, 157.0, 134.0, 133.8, 126.6, 126.2, 118.9, 116.0, 113.2, 110.4, 108.1, 107.5. HRMS:  $m/z$  (ESI-)  
123 calculated for C<sub>14</sub>H<sub>8</sub>O<sub>4</sub> [M-H]<sup>-</sup>: 239.0423; found [M-H]<sup>-</sup>: 239.0354. HPLC retention time and mass data of negative ion  
124 can be found in Table 1.

### 125 2.3.2 Lucidin

126 In order to gain a better understanding of the effect that 37% hydrochloric acid has on lucidin during extraction, a pure  
127 sample of lucidin was synthesised to observe any changes in its structure under the back extraction conditions. This

128 method was based on that of Murti et al. [21]. Xanthopurpurin (20 mg, 0.08 mmol) was dissolved in 5% aqueous sodium  
129 hydroxide solution (0.5 ml). Aqueous formaldehyde 37% (30  $\mu$ l, 0.4 mmol, 5 equivalents) was then added and stirred at  
130 room temperature for 3 hours and the reaction was monitored by LC-MS. Once completion was observed the solution  
131 was precipitated with 10% aqueous hydrochloric acid solution (~1 ml) until a yellow precipitate was observed. The yellow  
132 precipitate was then extracted with ethyl acetate (3  $\times$  1 ml), dried with magnesium sulphate and then evaporated to dryness.  
133 This was then separated on a short flash silica column with 70% ethyl acetate, 30% hexane.

134 Lucidin (**4**) was collected as a yellow amorphous solid, 21 mg, 87.5% yield, m.p. 301-305 °C. IR (ATR),  $\nu$  ( $\text{cm}^{-1}$ ): 3400,  
135 1634, 1558, 1365, 1338.  $\lambda_{\text{max}}$  (log  $\epsilon$ ) in MeOH: 410 nm (3.66).  $^1\text{H}$  NMR (500 MHz, DMSO):  $\delta$  11.33 (s, 1H, OH), 8.22  
136 (dd, J= 7.5, 1.5 Hz, 1H), 8.15 (dd, J= 7.0, 1.5 Hz, 1H), 7.77 (app td, J= 1.6, 7.2 Hz, 1H), 7.74 (app td, J= 1.6, 7.2 Hz, 1H),  
137 7.26 (s, 1H), 4.83 (broad s, 1H, OH), 4.55 (s, 2H,  $\text{CH}_2$ ).  $^{13}\text{C}$  NMR (126 MHz, MeOD)  $\delta$  159.9, 159.6, 159.4, 159.1, 158.7,  
138 158.4, 119.4, 117.1, 114.8, 112.6, 54.7, 54.5, 54.3, 54.2, 54.0. HRMS:  $m/z$  (ESI-) calculated for  $\text{C}_{15}\text{H}_{10}\text{O}_5$  [M-  
139 H] $^-$ : 269.0528; found [M-H] $^-$ : 269.0464. HPLC retention time and mass data of negative ion can be found in Table 1.

## 140 2.4. Chemical degradation of lucidin

### 141 2.4.1. With methanol

142 Pure lucidin (2 mg) synthesised and purified as described above was dissolved in 37% hydrochloric acid: methanol: water  
143 (2:1:1, v/v/v) (0.5 ml) and heated to 100 °C for 15 minutes. After this time an aliquot of the reaction mixture was taken  
144 for LC-MS and HPLC analysis. The remaining reaction mixture was evaporated to dryness and re-dissolved in deuterated  
145 acetone for NMR analysis. Deuterated DMSO was also evaluated as a solvent for NMR analysis, but deuterated acetone  
146 provided better solubility. Deuterated methanol could not be used as it would interfere with the results forming the methyl  
147 ether adduct.

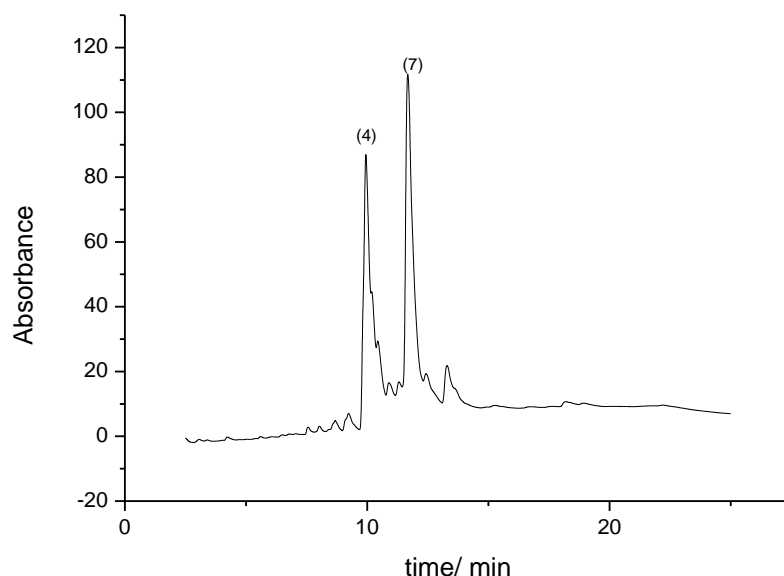
### 148 2.4.2. Without methanol

149 Pure lucidin (2 mg) synthesised and purified as described above was dissolved in 37% hydrochloric acid: water (1:1, v/v)  
150 (0.5 ml) and heated to 100 °C for 15 minutes. After this time an aliquot was taken for LC-MS and HPLC analysis. The  
151 remaining reaction mixture was evaporated to dryness and re-dissolved in deuterated acetone for NMR analysis.

152

## 153 3. Results and discussion

154 The HPLC chromatogram of lucidin after heating in 37% hydrochloric acid: water (1:1, v/v) (Figure 2) showed a decrease  
155 in the lucidin peak (**4**) and a peak appearance at retention time 11.57 min (**7**); this new peak has the same UV/vis data and  
156 retention time as that of the synthesised xanthopurpurin standard (Table 1). The LC-MS also shows two peaks with the  
157 same molecular weights as lucidin ( $m/z = 269$ ) and xanthopurpurin ( $m/z = 239$ ). These results suggest that under aqueous  
158 acidic conditions that mimic those used in textile back extractions [20], lucidin is partially degraded to xanthopurpurin.



159

160 **Figure 2.** HPLC chromatogram of lucidin after heating in 37% hydrochloric acid: water (1:1, v/v).

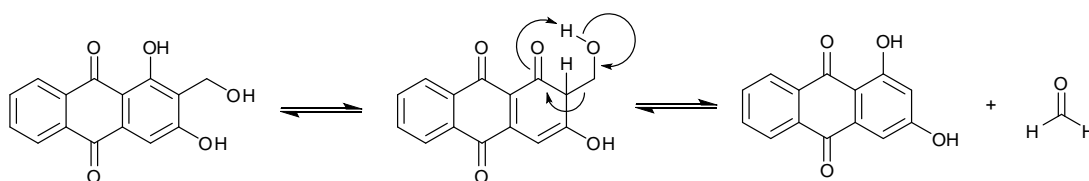
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162 **Table 1.** Compounds identified by HPLC-DAD and LC-MS in hydrochloric acid degradation of lucidin.

Solvent	Anthraquinone derivative assigned to HPLC peak	Retention time (min)	UV $\lambda_{\max}$ values for compound identification (nm)	Molecular ion, m/z, from LC-MS [M-H] <sup>-</sup>
37% hydrochloric acid: water (1:1, v/v)	lucidin (4)	9.9	244.6, 280.9	269.0
	xanthopurpurin (7)	11.6	243.5, 280.7	239.0
37% hydrochloric acid: methanol: water (2:1:1, v/v/v)	lucidin (4)	9.9	244.5, 280.2	269.4
	xanthopurpurin (7)	11.6	243.5, 280.7	239.4
	lucidin methyl ether (8)	12.3	244.5, 281.3	283.4

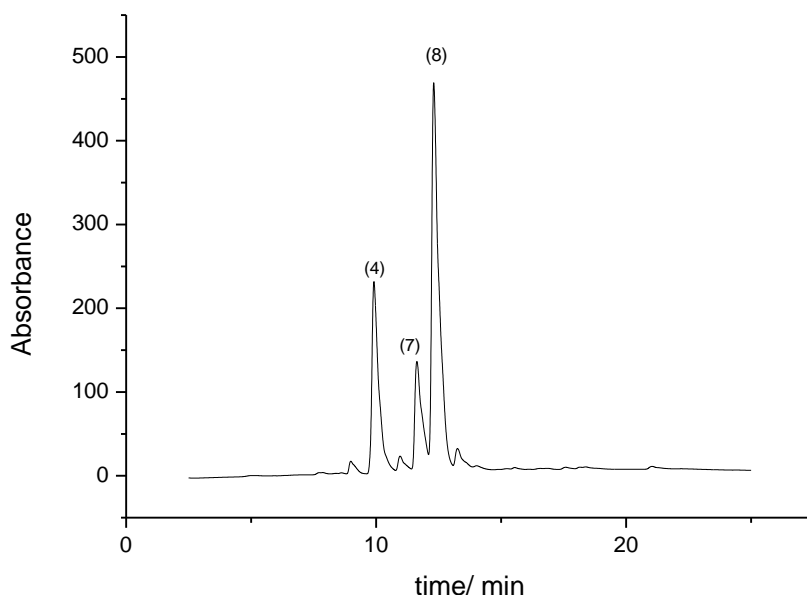
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164 It is hypothesised that in this case the reaction probably proceeds through a retro-aldol type mechanism (Scheme  
 165 1). The ability of this reaction to occur is unique to aromatic systems containing multiple hydroxyl groups as hydroxyl  
 166 groups on an aromatic ring are electron donating, and usually in equilibrium with a low concentration of the keto tautomer.  
 167 The keto tendency of the hydroxyl groups in positions one and three on the lucidin aromatic ring in acidic conditions  
 168 drive the reverse aldol condition. The electron donating ability of the other hydroxyl group in the ring also provides  
 169 stabilisation to the ketone tautomer. The loss of formaldehyde also provides an entropic driving force for this potentially  
 170 reversible reaction.



171

172 **Scheme 1.** Mechanism of the proposed retro-aldol type mechanism of lucidin in acidic aqueous conditions.

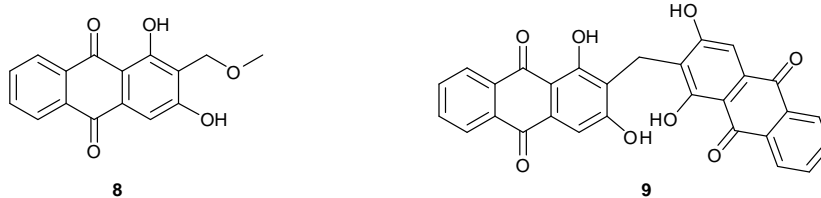


173

174 **Figure 3.** HPLC chromatogram of lucidin after heating in 37% hydrochloric acid: methanol: water (2:1:1, v/v/v).

175

176 The HPLC chromatogram of the madder extract prepared using 37% hydrochloric acid: methanol: water (2:1:1,  
 177 v/v/v) (Figure 3) showed a decrease in the lucidin peak (4) and formation of the xanthopurpurin peak (7). However, in  
 178 this reaction there was also the formation of a third peak (Table 1) which has the largest peak height and peak area in the  
 179 chromatogram. LC-MS also showed three peaks in the chromatogram; lucidin ( $m/z = 269$ ), xanthopurpurin ( $m/z = 239$ )  
 180 and the third peak which gives a mass of  $m/z = 283$ , which corresponds to the methyl ether of lucidin (**8**) [13]. It is well  
 181 documented that ether products can be formed when using alcohol in the solvent system when extracting dye compounds  
 182 and in extraction from textile artefacts [1,2,13]. The methyl ether product is expected to be much more stable than the  
 183 methyl hydroxyl present in lucidin; the primary alcohol in lucidin can potentially be displaced by nucleophilic attack of  
 184 alcoholic solvents such as ethanol or methanol. Under dry or acidic conditions this primary alcohol is most likely removed  
 185 as water and formation of the quinone methide can take place. The quinone methide is very susceptible to nucleophilic  
 186 addition [12] and this process is reversible – addition of water will reform lucidin whereas attack by methanol will form  
 187 the lucidin methyl ether. It is important to note that whilst lucidin can undergo the retro-aldol process, this is not feasible  
 188 for the methyl ether, and reformation of the quinone methide would be the main reaction pathway available. LC-MS also  
 189 showed evidence of the formation of a dimeric species (**9**) with the mass of  $m/z = 491$ .



190

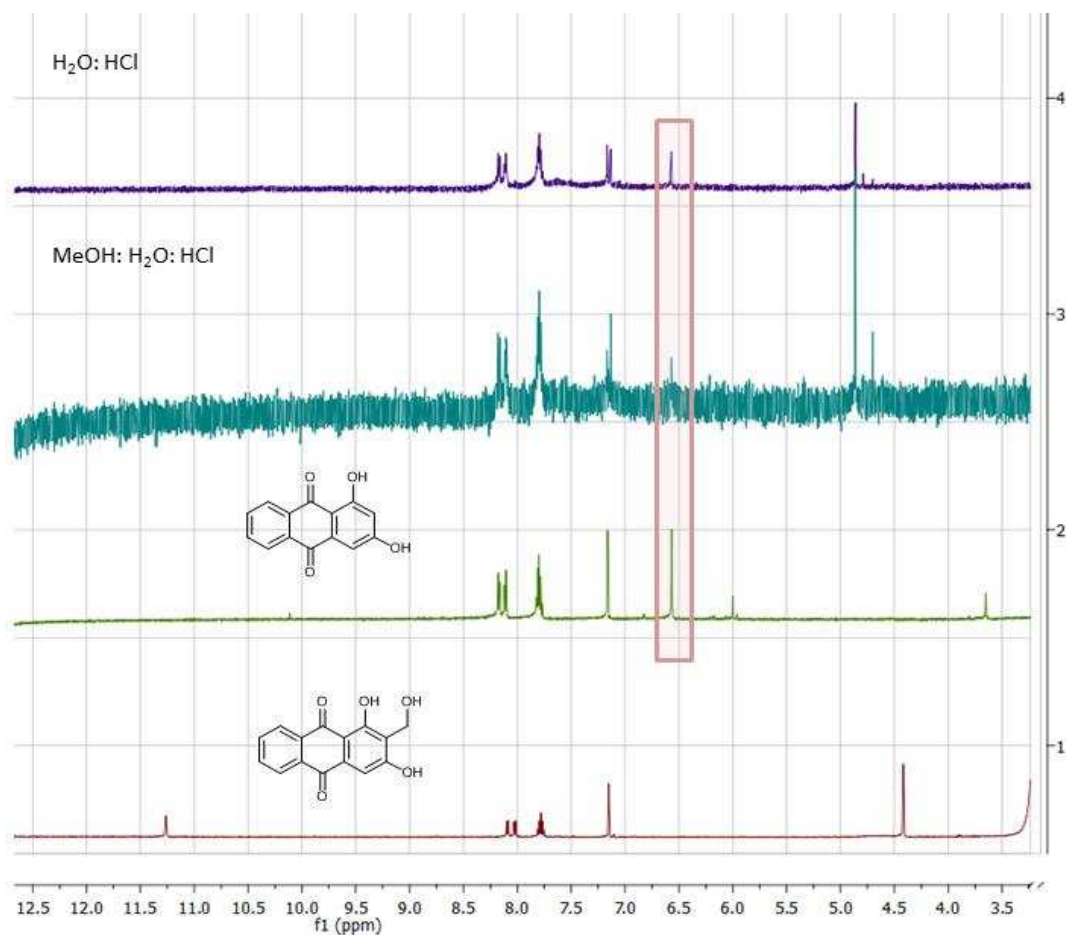
191 It is noted herein that the UV/vis spectra of each peak was very similar for these compounds. For this reason,  
 192 mass spectra data and  $^1\text{H}$  NMR were used to fully assign the peaks and observe the reaction as it proceeds. The NMR  
 193 experiments are not trivial to analyse as lucidin has limited solubility in most solvents or is only soluble at low  
 194 concentrations. In addition to this the NMR signal corresponding to xanthopurpurin can appear diminished due to the



195 proton between the two hydroxyl groups being labile for exchange with deuterium providing further evidence for the  
196 presence of the keto-equilibrium form.

197 The  $^1\text{H}$  NMR spectra shown in Figure 4 shows an increase in the proton signals highlighted in the coloured box;  
198 this proton corresponds to the aromatic signal between the two hydroxyl groups in xanthopurpurin [22]. The appearance  
199 of this signal shows that lucidin has degraded to xanthopurpurin most likely through the retro-aldol type reaction proposed.  
200 There is also evidence for the formation of formaldehyde (as indicated in Scheme 1). Under the reaction conditions, where  
201 water (or methanol) is present, formaldehyde would not be expected to be observed as it would exist primarily as the  
202 hydrate ( $\text{HOCH}_2\text{OH}$ ). This equilibrium, and resulting  $^1\text{H}$  NMR signals are quite sensitive to concentration, temperature  
203 and pH, but it is known that  $\text{HOCH}_2\text{OH}$  has a chemical shift of ca. 4.6 ppm and the oligomer  $\text{HOCH}_2\text{OCH}_2\text{OH}$  slightly  
204 higher around 4.7 ppm [23]. There are definitely appropriate (if small) signals in this region of the spectrum consistent  
205 with this explanation however unambiguous assignment has not been possible so far. It is feasible that liberated  
206 formaldehyde may re-add to xanthopurpurin at a different position (e.g. C4 rather than C2) to form an isomeric product,  
207 although the presence of the adjacent carbonyl makes this centre much less nucleophilic, and so is unlikely. Other  
208 reactions, such as O-alkylation on phenolic groups, are feasible, but there is no evidence to suggest this could occur at  
209 anything more than a small equilibrium concentration.

210



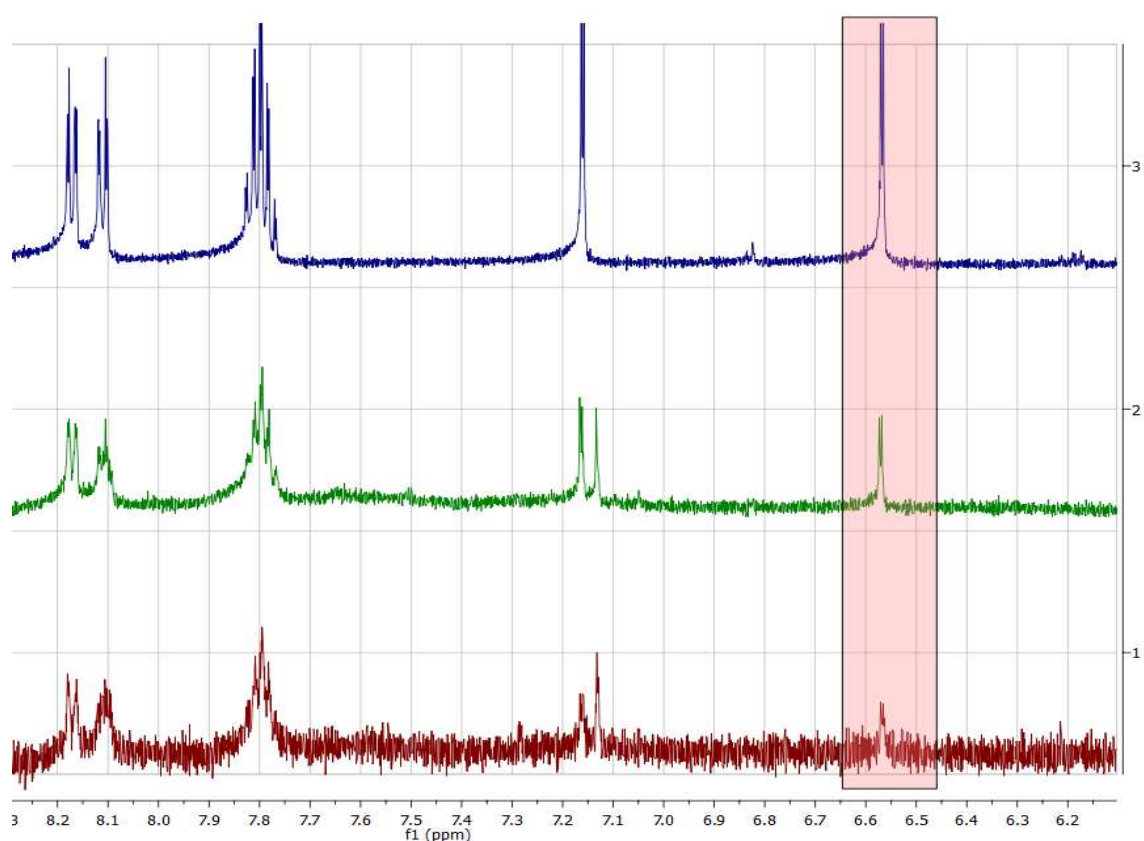
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212 **Figure 4.** Stacked  $^1\text{H}$  NMR of lucidin breakdown experiments. From top to bottom:  $\text{H}_2\text{O}:\text{HCl}$ ;  $\text{MeOH}:\text{H}_2\text{O}:\text{HCl}$ ;  
213 xanthopurpurin standard; lucidin standard.

214

215 Figure 5 shows the  $^1\text{H}$  NMR spectra expanded in the aromatic region which displays the appearance of meta  
216 coupling (2-3 Hz), which indicates that there is a hydrogen in the meta position of the ring, further confirming the  
217 degradation to xanthopurpurin (which displays this meta coupling). Figure A.1 shows the  $^1\text{H}$  NMR spectra of lucidin  
218 methyl ether and displays integration between the singlet (H4, 7.30 ppm) and the methyl group corresponding to the  
219 methyl ether ( $\text{OCH}_3$ , 3.27 ppm). Upon closer inspection, the meta-coupling constant between the two protons on the  
220 xanthopurpurin can be observed in the degradation studies, which further confirms the degradation of lucidin into  
221 xanthopurpurin. A singlet corresponding to lucidin present in the breakdown experiments is also observed, indicating that  
222 the breakdown of lucidin is not complete and some remains in the reaction medium. This result is confirmed in the HPLC  
223 chromatograms (Figure 2 and 3) where lucidin is still present in both of these experiments, but in lower concentrations.

224



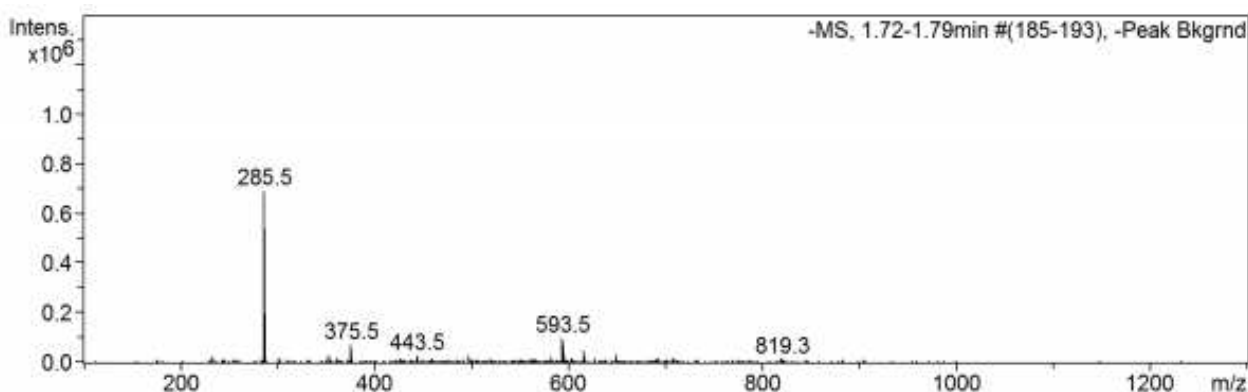
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226 **Figure 5.** Stacked  $^1\text{H}$  NMR spectra showing meta-coupling of the aromatic signals: xanthopurpurin standard (blue; top);  
227  $\text{H}_2\text{O}:\text{HCl}$  (green; middle);  $\text{MeOH}:\text{H}_2\text{O}:\text{HCl}$  (red; bottom).

228

229 This reaction was also examined in deuterium oxide and deuterated methanol, however, this resulted in the  
230 deuterated reaction product of the lucidin methyl ether ( $m/z = 286$ ), seen in Figure 6, which caused problems in analysis  
231 by NMR due to the methanol adduct being the deuterated product and, hence, not visible in the  $^1\text{H}$  NMR spectrum [24].  
232 However, the mass spectrum shows the lucidin methyl ether ion ( $m/z = 283 + 3$ ) for the deuterated methanol adduct,  
233 which confirms formation of the lucidin methyl ether product.

234



235

236 **Figure 6.** Mass spectrum of deuterated methyl ether product of lucidin.

237

238 Degradation of lucidin into xanthopurpurin is important for the field of conservation scientists and conservators.  
 239 Previously the presence of xanthopurpurin has been used as an indicator that the sample probably contained munjistin,  
 240 which is a carboxylic acid derivative of xanthopurpurin [12]. Munjistin can be easily decarboxylated to form  
 241 xanthopurpurin [18], this reactivity is again due to the keto tendency of the hydroxyl groups on the ring. Munjistin is a  
 242 marker pigment which can be used to prove the presence of *R. cordifolia* in dyed textiles [20], therefore, by employing  
 243 an acid extraction process information relevant to the analysis of the dyed materials is potentially lost as munjistin is  
 244 decarboxylated to xanthopurpurin and lucidin is degraded to xanthopurpurin, causing problems in determining whether  
 245 the original artefact was dyed with *R. tinctorum* or *R. cordifolia*. This is further complicated by the fact that  
 246 xanthopurpurin and alizarin elute very closely on a C18 column and hence could co-elute as one peak in many systems.  
 247 The two compounds also have the same mass, hence, if their UV/vis spectra are not analysed in detail they could be  
 248 mistaken for the same compound and hence alizarin could be wrongly assigned in the sample.

249

#### 250 **4. Conclusions**

251 It has been demonstrated herein that lucidin is not stable in acidic conditions and degrades rapidly to xanthopurpurin  
 252 when heated in aqueous acid conditions that are typically used for extraction of historical textiles dyed with madder. This  
 253 is confirmed by HPLC, LC-MS and <sup>1</sup>H NMR, which have also provided support for the proposed mechanism of  
 254 degradation being a retro-aldol process. Different madder varieties and species and different origins have different  
 255 chromatographic profiles in planta, hence, the most effective artefact extraction technique would be the one that preserves  
 256 the colorants in the dyeings in the form as applied. As most existing methods cause some form of acid-catalysed  
 257 degradation to colorant moieties, it is vital to future development of analytical techniques to examine historical textiles,  
 258 that milder and effective extraction techniques are developed to enable better-informed identification of the original  
 259 dyestuff and to provide more information about the botanic, geographic and ethnographic origins of the dyes.

260

261

262

263 **Acknowledgments**

264 Funding: The authors would like to thank The Clothworkers' Foundation for the provision of financial support to LF to  
265 allow her to conduct her PhD studies.

266

267 **Appendix A. Supplementary data**

268 Supplementary data related to this article can be found at XXXX.

269

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