TITLE: Evaluation of toxic/protective effects of the essential oil of *Salvia officinalis* on freshly isolated rat hepatocytes

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RUNNING TITLE: Hepatotoxicity of Sage Essential Oil

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KEYWORDS: *Salvia officinalis*; sage; essential oil; toxic effects; antioxidant effects; hepatoprotective effects; hepatocytes.

ABREVIATIONS: DMSO – dimethyl sulfoxide; EO – essential oil; GC – gas chromatography; GC-MS – GC coupled to mass spectrometry; GSH – reduced glutathione; GSSG – oxidised glutathione; GSx – total glutathione; LDH – Lactate dehydrogenase; TBARS – thiobarbituric acid reactive substances; *t*-BHP – *tert*-butyl hydroperoxide.

1	ABSTRACT: For this study the essential oil (EO) of sage (Salvia officinalis L.) was
2	isolated from air-dried vegetative aerial parts of the plants by hydrodistillation and
3	analysed by GC and GC-MS. A total yield of 12.07 mg of EO per g of plant dry mass
4	was obtained and more than 50 compounds identified. The major compounds were cis-
5	thujone (17.4 %), α-humulene (13.3 %), 1,8-cineole (12.7 %), E-caryophyllene (8.5 %)
6	and borneol (8.3 %). The EO fraction of sage tea was also isolated by partition with
7	pentane and the respective components identified. The toxic and antioxidant protective
8	effects of S. officinalis EO were evaluated on freshly isolated rat hepatocytes. Cell
9	viability (LDH leakage), lipid peroxidation and glutathione status were measured in
10	experiments undertaken with cells (suspensions of 1×10^6 cells per millilitre) exposed to
11	EO alone (toxicity of the EO; <i>t</i> -BHP as positive control); and with cells exposed to EO
12	and an oxidative compound (t-BHP) together (in EO protection evaluation; quercetin as
13	positive control) for 30 min. The results show that the EO is not toxic when present at
14	concentrations below 200 nl/ml; it was only at 2000 nl EO/ml that a significant LDH
15	leakage and GSH decrease were observed indicating cell damage. In the range of
16	concentrations tested, the EO did not show protective effects against t-BHP-induced
17	toxicity.
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26 INTRODUCTION

Sage (*Salvia officinalis* L.) enjoys the reputation of being a panacea because of
its wide range of medicinal effects: it has been used as an antihydrotic, spasmolytic,
antiseptic and anti-inflammatory and in the treatment of mental and nervous conditions
(Baricevic and Bartol, 2000). Sage is also used traditionally in food preparation.

31 Recently several authors reported the antioxidant properties of sage and some of 32 its constituents, mainly phenolic compounds such as carnosic, rosmarinic, caffeic and 33 salvianolic acids as well as other phenolic structure-based compounds (Cuvelier et al., 34 1994; Hohmann et al., 1999; Lu and Foo, 2001; Wang et al., 1998; Zupko et al., 2001). 35 Sage is, therefore, one of the favourite candidate species as a source of natural 36 antioxidants in health care products. The essentaial oils (EOs) of some other plants have 37 also been shown to have antioxidant and hepatoprotective activities (Cuppett and Hall, 38 1998; Teissedre and Waterhouse, 2000), although the potentially hepatoprotective 39 effects of sage EO have, to our knowledge, not been investigated. However, potentially 40 toxic effects of sage EO especially to the liver – the main detoxifying organ – may also 41 exist and place limitations on the use of sage.

42 Sage EO is a complex mixture of tens of volatile compounds including 43 monoterpenes, sesquiterpenes and diterpenes. Importantly, the EO contributes the 44 unique flavour of sage and justifies the use of sage as a food condiment. Although some 45 data already exist relating to the toxicity or antioxidant properties of some individual 46 compounds (such as thujone and eugenol, respectively) (Cuppett and Hall, 1998; Millet et al., 1981), to assess the effects of the complex mixture of EO as it reaches the 47 48 consumer remains the best way to predict and prevent possible deleterious effects of its 49 use.

50	The present study aims to evaluate the toxic versus antioxidant protective
51	activities of the essential oil from S. officinalis on freshly isolated rat hepatocytes. As
52	specific objectives the experiments had in view (a) to test whether the use of the S .
53	officinalis EO of known composition has any adverse effects on the liver, and (b) test
54	for any antioxidant effects of sage EO on liver cells_challenged with an oxidizing agent
55	(<i>tert</i> -butyl hydroperoxide – <i>t</i> -BHP) and compare it to the effects of the reference
56	antioxidant quercetin.
57	
58	MATERIALS AND METHODOS
59	Chemicals. All reagents were of analytical grade. The following reagents were
60	obtained from Sigma (St. Louis, MO, USA): collagenase (grade IV), tert-butyl
61	hydroperoxide (t-BHP), bovine serum albumin, HEPES (N-[2-
62	Hydroxyethyl]piperazine-N'-[2-ethane-sulfonic acid]), reduced glutathione (GSH),
63	oxidised glutathione (GSSG), glutathione reductase (EC 1.6.4.2.), 5,5'-dithio-bis-(2-
64	nitrobenzoic acid) (DTNB), β -nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide phosphate reduced
65	form (β -NADPH), β -nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide reduced form (β -NADH),
66	quercetin and 2-thiobarbituric acid (TBA).
67	Plant material and isolation of the essential oil. The essential oil used in this
68	study was obtained by hydrodistillation of 226 g of air-dried vegetative aerial parts of S.
69	officinalis plants cultivated in an experimental farm located in Arouca, Portugal, and
70	collected on April, 2001. The absolute quantification of each compound was tentatively
71	achieved by GC using 5α -cholestane as an internal standard. For this purpose,
72	subsamples of 10 g from the same plant material were submitted to hydrodistillation in
73	a Clevenger type apparatus over 1 h, using volumes of 1.0 mL of n-hexane, containing
74	5α -cholestane (1mg/mL), for retention of the hydrodistillate components.

75	Preparation of sage tea and isolation of the essential oil constituents.
76	Considering that sage is traditionally used as a tea, an infusion of sage was prepared by
77	pouring 150 ml of boiling water onto 2 g of the same dried plant material and allowing
78	to steep for 5 min. The essential oil constituents of the tea were extracted, at room
79	temperature, with 5 mL of n-pentane containing 5 α -cholestane (1mg/mL).
80	Analysis conditions of essential oils and procedures. The samples of the
81	essential oils and essential oil constituents from tea containing the internal standard 5α -
82	cholestane were analyzed by GC and GC-MS. GC analyses were performed using a
83	Perkin-Elmer Autosystem gas chromatograph equipped with a fused silica DB5 column
84	(30 m long × 0.25 mm i.d., 0.25 μ m film thickness composed by 5 % phenyl
85	methylpolysiloxane, J & W Scientific). Injections were performed in a split/spliless
86	injector with the splitter opened at the 1:13 split ratio under a column head pressure of
87	12.5 psi and H_2 as carrier gas at a flow rate of 1.49 ml/min. Oven temperature was
88	programmed from 60 to 285 °C at 3 °C min ⁻¹ . Injector and detector temperatures were
89	300 and 320 °C, respectively. The same column and conditions were used in the
90	analysis performed with the GC-MS with the exception of the carrier gas which was
91	helium instead of H ₂ . The GC-MS consisted of a Perkin-Elmer 8500 gas chromatograph
92	equipped with a fused silica DB5 column, the same as that for GC, connected to a
93	Finnigan MAT ion trap detector (ITD; software version 4.1) operating in EI mode at 70
94	eV. Identification of the chromatogram peaks as well as quantification of the
95	compounds was performed following the methodology previously described (Santos-
96	Gomes and Fernandes-Ferreira, 2001).
97	Animals. Adult male Wistar rats, weighing 200-250 g, were used as hepatocyte

Animals. Adult male Wistar rats, weighing 200-250 g, were used as hepatocyte donors. The rats were kept in polyethylene cages lined with wood shavings, with wire mesh top and acclimated to ambient temperature $(20 \pm 2 \text{ °C})$ and humidity and natural

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light/dark cycle. The animals had free access to standard rat chow and tap drinking
water, and were kept in our facilities for at least 2 weeks prior to use.

102 Hepatocyte isolation and incubation. Hepatocyte isolation was performed 103 between 10.00 am and 11.00 am by collagenase perfusion of the liver as previously 104 described (Moldeus et al., 1978) with some modifications. In brief, the liver was 105 perfused in situ via the portal vein with a calcium-free Hank's solution with 0.67 % 106 albumin and 12.5 mM HEPES (pH 7.4) at 37 °C at a flow rate of 10 ml/min, then with a 107 Hank's solution with 12.5 mM HEPES containing 0.025 % collagenase and 0.44 % 108 (w/v) CaCl₂ at the same flow rate and temperature for 10 min. The cells were dispersed in Ca²⁺-free Hank's solution with 0.67% albumin and 12.5 mM HEPES and washed by 109 110 low speed centrifugation $(50 \times g)$ for 2 min. The cells were then ressuspended in Krebs-111 Henseleit solution with 12.5 mM HEPES and washed two more times. The hepatocytes 112 viability was > 80% as estimated by trypan blue exclusion. Incubations were performed at 37°C in suspensions of 10⁶ viable cells per 113 114 milliliter in Krebs-Henseleit solution with 12.5 mM HEPES (pH 7.4) gassed with 115 carbogen (95 % O₂ and 5 % CO₂). The hepatocytes were always preincubated for 60 116 min at 37°C before the beginning of the experiments. Both toxic and protective effects 117 of S. officinalis EO were tested on hepatocyte suspensions. In toxicity experiments the 118 cells were incubated with 10 µl/ml of EO dissolved in DMSO at final concentrations of 119 0, 2, 20, 200 and 2000 nl/ml cell suspension for 30 min. tert-Butyl hydroperoxide (t-

120 BHP) 0.75 mM was used as a positive control for cell damage. In hepatoprotective

121 experiments 10 µl/ml of EO dissolved in DMSO at final concentrations of 0, 2, 20, 200

- and 2000 nl/ml were added to the cell suspensions 5 min before the addition of *t*-BHP
- 123 0.75 mM and allowed to incubate simultaneously for 30 minutes. The reference
- 124 antioxidant quercetin was used as positive control in the protective experiments. The

125 cells were incubated with 10 µl/ml of quercetin dissolved in DMSO at final 126 concentrations of 0, 1.6, 12.5, 50 and 200 µM for 5 min before addition of t-BHP 0.75 127 mM for 30 min. At the end of experiments, aliquots of cell suspensions were taken for 128 measurement of lactate dehydrogenase (LDH) leakage, malondialdehyde, GSH and 129 GSSG contents. 130 Analytical procedures. Cell death was estimated by quantification of LDH 131 activity in the incubation medium versus total LDH activity in the samples (the results 132 are shown as percentages of control cell viability). The enzyme activity was measured at 133 room temperature by quantification of NADH by continuous spectrophotometry (at 340 134 nm) on a plate reader (Spectra Max 340pc, Molecular Devices). 135 The extent of lipid peroxidation was determined indirectly by the 136 malondialdehyde formation after the breakdown of polyunsaturated fatty acids, 137 measured by the thiobarbituric acid reactive substances (TBARS) assay at 535 nm as 138 described previously (Fernandes et al., 1995). 139 The glutathione content of cell suspensions was determined by the DTNB-GSSG 140 reductase recycling assay as described in Anderson (1985), with some modifications. 141 Briefly, 200 µl of cell suspension was added to 200 µl of 10 % (w/v) 5-sulfosalicylic 142 acid for protein precipitation and centrifuged 2 min at 12000 rpm. Supernatant aliquots 143 were taken out for measurement of total glutathione (GSx) following the DTNB 144 oxidation at 415 nm and compared with a standard curve. The final concentrations of 145 the assay reagents were 0.6 mM DTNB, 0.21 mM NADPH and 2 U/ml glutathione 146 reductase. For the GSSG determination, 100 μ l of supernatant was derivatized with 2 μ l 147 of 2- vinylpyridine and 10 μ l of 50 % (v/v) ethanolamide and mixed continuously for 60 148 min. GSSG was then measured as described above for total glutathione. The GSH 149 content was calculated by subtracting GSSG content from the total glutathione content.

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150 Statistical analysis. Data are expressed as means \pm SEM (n=5) (cells obtained 151 from 5 different rats). Significant differences between control and *t*-BHP treated cells 152 were determined by Student's *t*-test. Significant differences within EO series (EO toxic 153 and protective evaluation) were determined by one-way ANOVA followed by Dunnett's 154 test. Differences were considered significant when P≤0.05.

155

156 RESULTS

157 Essential oil and essential oil constituents of tea from S. officinalis leaves. The yield 158 of the essential oil obtained by hydrodistillation of air-dried sage aerial parts was 13.3 159 µl per gram of biomass dry weight, corresponding to 1.2% (w/w). The composition of 160 the S. officinalis EO used in the experiments here reported is shown in Table 1, where 161 compounds are listed according to their Kovats retention indexes. The EO includes 162 around 60 compounds most of which were identified (Santos-Gomes and Fernandes-163 Ferreira, 2001). Around 88% of the compounds can be distributed into three terpene 164 groups: oxygen-containing monoterpenes (47.7%), sesquiterpene hydrocarbons 165 (24.5%), and monoterpene hydrocarbons (15.9%). The major compounds were cisthujone (17.4 %), α-humulene (13.3 %), 1,8-cineole (12.7 %), E-caryophyllene (8.5 %) 166 167 and borneol (8.3 %). 168 In the preparation of the tea only 2.99 % of total essential oil content was

169 extracted from the biomass and found in the water giving a final concentration of 4.81 170 µg of EO per ml of tea (Table 1). However, the presence of the individual essential oil 171 constituents in tea was not proportional to their specific amount in the oil extracted by 172 hydrodistillation. From the approximate 60 compounds detected in the essential oil of *S*. 173 *officinalis* only 25 were found as essential oil constituents of the respective tea (Table 1). Oxygen-containing monoterpenes corresponded to 86% of the tea essential oil

constituents. The sum of *cis*-thujone and camphor concentrations (1.68 and 0.51 µg.ml⁻¹, respectively) corresponded to almost 45% of all the constituents (Table 1). With
respect to the composition of EO present in tea it is not surprising that oxygencontaining monoterpenes, such as *cis*-thujone and camphor, are proportionately more
abundant in tea than other EO constituents in view of the higher solubility in water of
this group of compounds relatively to the other ones.

181 Surprisingly, the values of the specific contents of the alkanes *n*-undecane, *n*-182 hexacosane and *n*-octacosane determined in the tea were higher than the corresponding 183 values determined in the essential oil (Table 1) obtained by hydrodistillation. The 184 respective loss during hydrodistillation is a possibility that can not be ruled out.

185 **EO toxicity experiments.** EO toxicity was tested in hepatocyte suspensions 186 exposed to the EO (0-2000 nl/ml) and compared to that of t-BHP (0.75 mM). Cell 187 viability measured by LDH leakage of rat hepatocytes (fig. 1) did not change 188 significantly after 30 min incubation with 0 - 200 nl of EO per ml of cell suspension. 189 However, 2000 nl/ml (0.2 % (v/v)) caused a significant decrease in cell viability. Lipid 190 peroxidation (Table 2) did not change after the incubations with different concentrations 191 of EO. Total glutathione (GSx) (Table 2) was significantly lowered by incubation with 192 the highest oil concentration tested (2000 nl/ml) but not by any of the other 193 concentrations. This decrease in GSx was accompanied by a decrease in GSH (fig. 2), 194 where incubations with 200 nl EO/ml also produced a significant decrease in GSH when 195 compared to the control. There were no significant changes in GSSG content (Table 2) 196 produced by incubation of the cells with the EO. 197 The incubations of hepatocyte suspensions with the positive control 0.75 mM t-

BHP for 30 min resulted in significant decreases in cell viability (fig. 1), GSH (fig. 2) as

well as GSx content and an increase in lipid peroxidation (Table 2). We also observed a perceptible increase of GSSG content (P = 0.0556) with this toxicant.

EO protection experiments. Hepatoprotection of the EO was tested in
hepatocyte suspensions exposed simultaneously to the EO (0-2000 nl/ml) and *t*-BHP
(0.75 mM) and the protective effects of the oil compared to those of quercetin.

204 The addition of 0.75 mM *t*-BHP to hepatocytes resulted in significant cell death 205 after 30 min was evident from LDH leakage (fig 3). EO in the concentrations of 2-2000 206 nl/ml did not reduce cell mortality. Quercetin, on the other hand, significantly reduced 207 LDH leakage at 200 µM. Lipid peroxidation induced by t-BHP (Table 4) was also 208 significantly reduced by co-incubation with quercetin whereas the EO had no protective 209 effects at any of the concentrations tested (Table 3). Addition of *t*-BHP significantly 210 reduced cell GSH content but no protective effects on the glutathione balance could be 211 detected for quercetin or the EO (fig 4). Co-incubation of t-BHP with 2000 nl/ml EO seems to further decrease the GSH levels in the cells. 212

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214 DISCUSSION

215 The liver is very active in metabolizing foreign compounds. The 216 biotransformation of xenobiotics by the liver involves chemical modifications that 217 globally increase their water solubility thereby facilitating their elimination from the 218 organism in bile and urine. These reactions may, however, result in the formation of 219 compounds of greater toxicity. Although the large biotransforming ability of the liver 220 allows efficient elimination of the most toxic compounds, it also makes hepatocytes a 221 vulnerable target for toxic effects. Damage to the cell's constituents such as lipid 222 peroxidation may occur. Reduced GSH plays an important role in hepatocytes defence 223 (Kedderis, 1996; Reed, 1990). The most common pathway of glutathione depletion in

xenobiotic toxicity is excessive consumption of GSH without recovery (Castell et al.,
1997). Severe GSH depletion leaves cells more vulnerable to oxidative damage which
causes progressive deterioration of macromolecules, cell structure and may lead to cell
death. GSH level could therefore determine the cytotoxicity of a xenobiotic and its
ultimate effects on cell survival.

229 Our data shows that sage EO was not toxic to rat hepatocyte suspensions when 230 present in concentrations below 200 nl/ml for 30 min; it was only at 2000 nl of EO per 231 ml of hepatocyte suspension that a significant LDH leakage and GSH decrease occurred 232 indicating cell damage. cis-Thujone, the major constituent of sage EO (17.4%, see 233 Table1), has been shown to be neurotoxic and implicated in the effects of absinth 234 consumption (Hold et al., 2000; Hold et al., 2001). Results by Bonkovsky and co-235 workers (Bonkovsky et al., 1992) and our own preliminary data (not shown) indicates 236 that cis-thujone in concentrations below 1 mM (960 nl EO/ml) does not decrease 237 hepatocyte viability and seem therefore not to be toxic to the liver. Judging by thujone 238 toxicity alone we would not expected toxicity to the liver of EO concentrations below 239 200 nl/ml. However, a decrease in hepatocyte GSH was apparent at this EO 240 concentration indicating some degree of toxicity. This emphasises the need for the 241 evaluation of the toxicity of the actual EO – a mixture of compounds – since the toxicity 242 of the mixture can not in all cases be inferred from the toxicity of its individual 243 compounds. 244 The toxicity induced by *t*-BHP is well-known and is well characterized 245 (Fernandes et al., 1995; Joyeux et al., 1990; Tseng et al., 1997) and our results are in 246 agreement with these published reports. Our data also show that when compared with t-

- 247 BHP-induced toxicity, which is the result of GSx and GSH depletion, GSSG increase
- and lipid peroxidation, cell death induced by the EO at 2000 nl/ml on liver cells does

249 not seem to be mediated by lipid peroxidation and GSH oxidation with concomitant 250 GSSG increase. The EO toxicity may be due to the presence of reactive compounds 251 and/or reactive metabolites generated by metabolism of EO. The depleted glutathione 252 was possibly recruited to act as a nucleophilic scavenger of some compounds and/or 253 their metabolites with electrophilic properties. The cellular death indicated by LDH 254 leakage could also be due to a solvent effect of the essential oil, whereby the 255 hydrophobic compounds exert a direct effect on cellular membranes disturbing the 256 physico-chemical properties of the bilayer culminating in the disruption of cellular 257 volume and cell death (Berry et al., 1991; Kedderis, 1996). 258 The hepatoprotective effects of the EO were tested by co-incubation with the 259 toxicant *t*-BHP and compared with those of the reference antioxidant quercetin. 260 Quercetin shows concentration-dependent protective effects against *t*-BHP-induced 261 toxicity in almost all parameters measured. Quercetin was preferred to other known 262 antioxidants as a positive control because of its plant origin, DMSO solubility and for 263 having a well characterised protective effect against t-BHP-induced toxicity (Joyeux et 264 al., 1990). In contrast, the presence of sage EO did not reduce hepatocyte death due to t-265 BHP toxicity. The co-incubation with the EO resulted in a tendency for a further 266 decrease in GSH and increased lipid peroxidation. In spite of the reputation of some 267 plant EOs as antioxidants and hepatoprotectants in animal models (Teissedre and 268 Waterhouse, 2000 and references therein), our results do not show antioxidant 269 protective effects of S. officinalis EO against t-BHP-induced liver toxicity. 270 The EO obtained by hydrodistillation used in this study was somewhat lower 271 than that obtained from fresh leaves of the same sage cultivar (Santos-Gomes and 272 Fernandes-Ferreira, 2001). The composition of sage EO extracts varies and reflects 273 extraction conditions as well as time of harvest and the plant's growth conditions such

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274	as climate, soil composition and light intensity (Santos-Gomes and Fernandes-Ferreira,
275	2001). In April, the composition of the essential oil from S. officinalis plants grown in
276	Portugal (Santos-Gomes and Fernandes-Ferreira, 2001) and in Israel (Putievsky et al.,
277	1986) are characterised by the lowest levels of <i>cis</i> -thujone and camphor. The levels of
278	these two compounds in the EO used (Table 1), were slightly lower than the
279	corresponding minimum values from the profile defined by the standard ISO 9909
280	(1999) for the essential oil of S. officinalis - cis-thujone (18-43%), camphor (4.5-24.5%)
281	(Bruneton, 1999). It is therefore important that detailed information is available on the
282	material being tested or used in the food industry.
283	In summary, our results indicate that the hepatoprotective properties attributed to
284	S. officinalis seem not to be due to the essential oil fraction. At doses higher than 200
285	nl/ml acting directly on the liver the EO may cause toxicity. The neurotoxicity of
286	thujones and camphor, major compounds of S. officinalis EO, as well as hepatotoxicity
287	of sage EO reported herein, justify concerns with the consumption of high doses of sage
288	products.
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294	
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375	constituents. Planta Medica 67, 366-368.
376	

		Essential oil from		Essential oil constituents from		
Compound	_	Salvie	a officinalis		Salvia officinalis tea	
	RI ^a	%	µg∕g dry wt	%	µg∕g dry wt	µg/ml of tea
1-Butyl acetate	813 847	tr^{o}	2.1	-	-	-
<i>trans</i> -2-Methyl-3-methylene-hep-5-ene	857	0.7	7.6	2.1	5.2	0.069
Tricyclene	920	0.1	11.3	-	-	-
α-Thujene	924	0.1	8.9	-	-	-
<i>α</i> -Pinene	930	4.1	399.1	tr	0.3	0.005
Camphene	946	3.1	298.4	tr	0.4	0.006
<i>B</i> . Pinene	970 974	0.1	0.3	- tr	0.5	-
Mvrcene	988	0.5	48.0	-	-	-
<i>n</i> -Decane	1000	tr	1.3	-		-
α-Phellandrene	1004	0.1	5.5	-	-	-
α-Terpinene	1016	0.2	18.9	-	-	-
<i>p</i> -Cymene	1022	0.1	13.7	-	-	-
1.8-Cineole	1024	12.7	1703.9	18.1	66.3	0.884
Z-β-Ocimene	1034	0.3	26.5	-	-	-
$E-\beta$ -Ocimene	1044	0.4	39.2	-	-	-
γ-Terpinene	1055	0.1	4.4	-	-	-
cis-Linalool oxide	1072	0.1	6.7	-	-	-
l erpinolene	1086	0.2	15.7	-	27	- 0.036
Linalool	1100	tr	$\frac{0.8}{tr}$	1.1	2.7	-
<i>cis</i> -Thujone [= (-)-thujone]	1103	17.4	2491.4	34.0	125.9	1.678
trans-Thujone [=(+)-thujone	1114	3.9	518.5	5.3	20.1	0.268
a-Campholenal	1125	0.1	13.5	-	-	-
Not identified	1129	0.2	29.9	tr	0.9	0.013
Campnor cis -Pinocamphone [= (cis_3) -Pinanone]	1143	3.3 0.7	445.4	10.6	38.4	0.512
Borneol	1165	8.3	1109.5	13.8	52.3	0.697
Pinocamphone isomer (T)	1172	0.2	30.3	1.1	2.0	0.027
4-Terpineol	1176	0.2	25.6	tr	1.2	0.016
α -Terpineol	1189	0.3	32.7	-	-	-
Not identified	1201	0.3	43.0	2.1	9.2	0.123
cis-Sabinyl acetate	1285	0.9	9.8	ir -	1.5	0.017
Not identified	1322	0.3	47.2	-	-	-
Not identified	1328	0.1	11.3	-	-	-
δ-Elemene	1334	0.1	8.8	-	-	-
trans-Carvyl acetate	1337	tr	0.5	-	-	-
<i>cis</i> -Carvyi acetate	1362	0.1	18.5	-	-	-
Bourbonene + Geranyl acetate	1383+1384	0.1	10.8	-	_	-
<i>E</i> -Caryophyllene	1416	8.5	836.9	tr	1.0	0.014
Aromadendrene or α -Guaiene (?)	1436	0.8	82.2	-	-	-
α-Humulene	1450	13.3	1305.7	1.1	1.6	0.022
allo-Aromadendrene	1458	0.1	13.2	-	-	-
Germacrene D	14/3	0.5	46.5	-	-	-
α-Selinene	1491	0.5	49.4	1.1	2.0	0.026
δ-Cadinene	1520	0.6	62.9	-	-	-
Caryophyllene oxide	1580	0.5	65.9	1.1	3.2	0.043
Viridiflorol	1595	6.2	834.0	tr	1.4	0.019
Widdrol (?)	1606	0.7	96.4	-	-	-
$Z-\alpha$ -trans-Bergamatol acetate	1801	0.1 tr	8.9	-	- 24	- 0.032
Manool	2063	2.4	248.7	1.1	1.8	0.032
n-Hexacosane	2600	tr	1.1	3.2	9.9	0.132
n-Octacosane	2800	tr	2.6	2.1	6.5	0.087
Grouped components						
Monoterpene hydrocarbons		15.9	1553.8	2.1	6.5	0.086
Oxygen-containing monoterpenes		4/./	6565.5	86.2	320.6	4.2/4
Sesquiternene hydrocarbons		1.0 24.5	243.7	2.0	1.5	0.017
Oxygen-containing sesquitemenes		7.4	996.4	1.1	4.6	0.062
Sesquiterpenyl esters		tr	8.9	-	-	-
Oxygen-containing diterpenes		2.4	248.7	1.1	1.8	0.024
Others		0.3	38.3	7.4	21.5	0.286
Total		100.0	12065.4	100.0	360.8	4.810

Table 1. Composition of the essential oil and essential oil constituents of tea prepared from vegetative aerial parts of *S. officinalis* L. plants collected in April, before anthesis.

^a Kovats retention index relatively to *n*-alkanes in a DB-5 column. ^b tr, trace amounts (< 0.05)

Table 2. Effect of 30 min exposure of hepatocyte suspensions to *S. officinalis* essential oil on GSSG and GSx content and on lipid peroxidation expressed as TBARS formation (means \pm SEM). n=5; [#] P \leq 0.05 between control and *t*-BHP treated cells; * P \leq 0.05 when compared with control cells.

			Samp	ole			
Parameter	t-BHP	EO (nl/ml)					
	(0.75 mM)	0 (contr)	2	20	200	2000	
TBARS (nmol/million cells)	1.99 ± 0.16 #	0.94 ± 0.12	0.89 ± 0.11	0.87 ± 0.09	0.79 ± 0.14	0.89 ± 0.12	
GSx content (nmol/million cells)	35.2 ± 1.7 [#]	45.1 ± 3.5	43.9 ± 4.2	43.4 ± 3.2	39.7 ± 4.1	28.4 ± 3.3 *	
GSSG content (nmol/million cells)	13.1 ± 1.6	9.2 ± 0.9	9.5 ± 0.8	9.8 ± 0.9	10.1 ± 1.7	10.2 ± 2.0	

Table 3. Anti-hepatotoxic effect of *S. officinalis* essential oil on hepatocyte suspensions damaged by *t*-BHP (0.75 mM) for 30 min, on GSSG and GSx content and on lipid peroxidation expressed as TBARS formation (means \pm SEM). n=5; [#] P \leq 0.05 between control and cells treated only with *t*-BHP.

			Sam	ple			
Parameter	() control	<i>t</i> -BHP (0.75 mM) + EO (nl/ml) series					
	(-) control	0	2	20	200	2000	
TBARS (nmol/million cells)	0.92 ± 0.09	2.08 ± 0.13 [#]	2.14 ± 0.23	2.20 ± 0.20	2.22 ± 0.30	2.88 ± 0.59	
GSx content (nmol/million cells)	44.6 ± 4.9	35.9 ± 2.2	31.1 ± 3.0	33.4 ± 2.6	29.4 ± 2.6	22.5 ± 3.3	
GSSG content (nmol/million cells)	10.5 ± 1.1	13.5 ± 1.9	12.7 ± 2.1	12.6 ± 1.8	11.7 ± 1.8	10.6 ± 1.8	

Table 4. Anti-hepatotoxic effect of quercetin (positive control) on hepatocyte suspensions damaged by *t*-BHP (0.75 mM) for 30 min, on GSSG and GSx content and on lipid peroxidation expressed as TBARS formation (means \pm SEM). n=5; [#] P \leq 0.05 between control and cells treated only with *t*-BHP; * P \leq 0.05 when compared with cells treated only with *t*-BHP.

			Sam	ıple			
Parameter	() control	<i>t</i> -BHP (0.75 mM) + quercetin (µM) series					
	(-) control	0	1.6	12.5	50	200	
TBARS (nmol/million cells)	0.92 ± 0.09	2.08 ± 0.13 [#]	2.09 ± 0.24	$1.35 \pm 0.15*$	$0.72 \pm 0.04*$	$0.79 \pm 0.10*$	
GSx content (nmol/million cells)	44.6 ± 4.9	35.9 ± 2.2	37.7 ± 1.9	37.0 ± 1.8	35.2 ± 1.0	31.9 ± 3.2	
GSSG content (nmol/million cells)	10.5 ± 1.1	13.5 ± 1.9	13.8 ± 1.9	12.7 ± 2.1	11.2 ± 1.8	8.7 ± 1.2	



Figure 1. Effect of essential oil of *S. officinalis* on cell viability (measured by % of LDH leakage) in hepatocyte suspensions after 30 min of exposure (means \pm SEM). n=5; [#] P \leq 0.05 between control and *t*-BHP treated cells; * P \leq 0.05 when compared with control cells.



Figure 2. Effect of essential oil of *S. officinalis* on hepatocyte suspensions GSH content after 30 min of exposure (means \pm SEM). n=5; [#] P \leq 0.05 between control and *t*-BHP treated cells; * P \leq 0.05 when compared with control cells.



Figure 3. Effect of essential oil of *S. officinalis* and quercetin (insert) on cell viability (measured by % of LDH leakage) of hepatocyte suspensions damaged by *t*-BHP (0.75 mM) for 30 min (means \pm SEM). n=5; [#] P \leq 0.05 between control and cells treated only with *t*-BHP; * P \leq 0.05 when compared with cells treated only with *t*-BHP.





Figure 4. Effect of essential oil of *S. officinalis* and quercetin (insert) on GSH content of hepatocyte suspensions damaged by *t*-BHP (0.75 mM) for 30 min (means \pm SEM). n=5; [#] P \leq 0.05 between control and cells treated only with *t*-BHP.