

Metformin-like effects of *Salvia officinalis*: useful in diabetes prevention?

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1 **Abstract**

2 Common sage (*Salvia officinalis* L) is among the plants that are claimed to be beneficial
3 to diabetic patients, and previous studies have suggested that some of its extracts have
4 hypoglycaemic effects in normal and diabetic animals. In this study we purposed to
5 verify the antidiabetic effects of the most common form of consumption of this plant as
6 an infusion (tea). Replacing water with sage tea for 14 days lowered fasting plasma
7 glucose in normal mice but had no effect on glucose clearance in response to an
8 intraperitoneal glucose tolerance test. This indicated effects at level of the liver on
9 gluconeogenesis. Hepatocyte primary cultures of healthy sage tea drinking rats showed,
10 **after stimulation**, high glucose uptake capacity and a decreased gluconeogenesis in
11 response to glucagon. Sage essential oil further increased hepatocyte sensitivity to
12 insulin and inhibited gluconeogenesis. Overall these effects resemble those of the
13 pharmaceutical drug metformin, a known inhibitor of gluconeogenesis used in the
14 treatment and prevention of type 2 diabetes mellitus. In primary cultures of rat
15 hepatocytes isolated from streptozotocin-induced diabetic rats none of these activities
16 were observed. These results seem to indicate that sage tea does not possess antidiabetic
17 effects at this level. However, its effects on fasting glucose levels in normal animals and
18 the metformin-like effects on rat hepatocytes suggest that sage may be useful as food
19 supplement in the prevention of type 2 diabetes mellitus by lowering plasma glucose of
20 individuals at risk.

21 **Introduction**

22 **Diabetes mellitus** is a disease characterized by increased plasma glucose levels
23 which is the result of an insufficient production (**type 1 diabetes**) and/or decreased tissue
24 response to the pancreatic hormone insulin (**type 2 diabetes**). In **type 1 diabetes** there is
25 an autoimmune disease in which the insulin secreting beta cells of the pancreas are
26 destroyed by the individual's immune system. In **type 2 diabetes**, peripheral tissue
27 insulin resistance strains insulin secretion which leads to subsequent failure of beta cells
28 of the pancreas (Klover & Mooney, 2004). **Type 2 diabetes** accounts for the majority of
29 cases (85-90% of cases) and it is likely to become even more prevalent over the coming
30 decades because of the increasing rates of childhood and adult obesity and the
31 generalisation to developing countries of western lifestyles (Williams & Pickup, 2004).
32 Nowadays, **diabetes mellitus** is a major public health concern which has attained
33 epidemic proportions in many countries.

34 Glucose is an essential nutrient for the human body and glucose homeostatic
35 mechanisms aim at maintaining blood glucose within a narrow range, around 5-7
36 mmol/L (Williams & Pickup, 2004; Klover & Mooney, 2004). In healthy individuals
37 blood glucose concentrations are maintained by the balance between glucose entry into
38 circulation from intestinal absorption and glucose uptake into peripheral tissues such as
39 muscle and adipose tissue. Circulating levels of insulin increase after meals stimulating
40 GLUT-4 mediated glucose uptake by peripheral tissues, thereby preventing
41 hyperglycemia. During periods of no intestinal glucose absorption, blood levels do not
42 decrease drastically, because the liver releases glucose into circulation in response to the
43 counter-regulation pancreatic hormone glucagon which stimulates both glycogen
44 breakdown (glycogenolysis) and gluconeogenesis (i.e. the formation of new glucose
45 from substrates such as glycerol, lactate and amino acids such as alanine). The anti-

46 hyperglycaemia effects of insulin include the suppression of glucose output from the
47 liver, inhibiting both glycogenolysis and gluconeogenesis. In healthy individuals
48 relatively low concentrations of insulin are needed to suppress hepatic glucose output
49 (Roden & Bernroider, 2003; Williams & Pickup, 2004). However, in **type 2 diabetes**
50 hyperglycemia exists not only post-prandially, where it reveals insulin's inability to
51 increase peripheral glucose uptake, but elevated blood glucose levels persist even during
52 fasting due to increased liver gluconeogenesis (Roden & Bernroider, 2003; Klover &
53 Mooney, 2004).

54 Before the establishment of the disease, those individuals more at risk of
55 developing **type 2 diabetes** present the first signs of abnormal glucose metabolism such
56 as impaired glucose tolerance (IGT) and/or impaired fasting glucose (IFG) (Simpson et
57 al., 2003). This provides an asymptomatic period at the beginning of the progression of
58 **type 2 diabetes**, where preventive interventions can be applied. Previous studies have
59 shown that changes to dietary habits and to sedentary behaviour can reduce the
60 progression from impaired glucose tolerance to **type 2 diabetes** by 50-60% (Chiasson et
61 al., 2002; Simpson et al., 2003). However, the difficulty in maintaining lifestyle changes
62 over the long term justifies the need for pharmacotherapeutic support, and recent studies
63 have shown beneficial effects of metformin and acarbose in the progression from IGT to
64 **type 2 diabetes** (Simpson et al., 2003). Metformin mainly inhibits gluconeogenesis and
65 acarbose reduces intestinal glucose absorption. However, any pharmacological
66 intervention in an asymptomatic population raises ethical considerations in addition to
67 practical and economic issues. Dietary supplements with glucose lowering properties
68 could provide a culturally acceptable and economically viable alternative to
69 pharmaceutical interventions at this stage. However, in spite of growing interest on the

70 effects of herbs and food supplements on glucose control in diabetes, information
71 remains insufficient (Day, 1998; Yeh et al., 2003).

72 For centuries plants have been used in folk medicine and their beneficial effects
73 described. *Salvia officinalis* L. (common sage) is among those which are reputed to
74 possess antidiabetic properties (Baricevic & Bartol, 2000).

75 Recently, Alarcon-Aguilar and collaborators (2002) showed that a water-
76 ethanolic extract from *S. officinalis* injected intraperitoneally had hypoglycaemic effects
77 in fasted normoglycaemic mice and in fasted mildly alloxan-induced diabetic mice. In
78 addition, Eidi and co-workers (2005) showed that a sage methanolic extract given
79 intraperitoneally reduced significantly serum glucose in fasted streptozotocin-induced
80 diabetic rats without changes in insulin levels. Sage has a high essential oil (EO) content
81 (Giannouli & Kintzios, 2000). That has also been tested and proved to be
82 hypoglycaemically active in normal and in alloxan-induced diabetic rats (Baricevic &
83 Bartol, 2000 and references therein) but not in streptozotocin-induced diabetic rats (Eidi
84 et al., 2005).

85 With this study we aimed at evaluating the hypoglycaemic properties of a sage
86 infusion (hereafter referred to as a sage tea), the most common form of human sage
87 consumption, and to shed some light on possible mechanisms of action. In mice and rats
88 treated for 14 days with sage tea we evaluated: *in vivo* the response to an intraperitoneal
89 glucose tolerance test (ipGTT); and, in primary cultures of hepatocytes isolated from
90 normal and streptozotocin-induced diabetic rats the effects on responses to glucose,
91 insulin and glucagon were examined. The *in vitro* effects of sage EO were also
92 investigated.

93

94 **Materials and methods**

95 *Chemicals*

96 Collagenase (grade IV), William's Medium E (WME), Dulbecco's Modified Eagle's
97 Medium (DMEM), Dexamethasone, Insulin, Glucagon, 1,1-Dimethylbiguanide
98 **hydrochloride** (Metformin), streptozotocin (STZ) and Bradford reagent were purchased
99 from Sigma-Aldrich (St. Louis, MO, USA). Glucofix for glucose measurements was
100 acquired from A. Menarini Diagnostics (Firenze, Italy). All others reagents were of
101 analytical grade.

102

103 *Plant material, preparation of sage tea, isolation of the EO and analysis of its*

104 *constituents*

105 *Salvia officinalis* L. plants were grown in an experimental farm located in Arouca,
106 Portugal, and were collected in April, 2001. The aerial parts of plants were lyophilized
107 and kept at -20°C. The sage tea was routinely prepared as in a previous study by pouring
108 150 ml of boiling water onto 2 g of the dried plant material and allowing to steep for 5
109 min (Lima et al., 2005). This preparation produced a 3.5 ± 0.1 mg of extract dry weight
110 per ml of infusion, with rosmarinic acid (362 µg/ml of infusion) and luteolin 7-
111 glucoside (115.3 µg/ml of infusion) as major phenolic compounds and 1,8-cineole,
112 *cis*-thujone, *trans*-thujone, camphor and borneol as major volatile components (4.8
113 µg/ml of infusion) (Lima et al., 2005). The EO was obtained by hydrodistillation and
114 the compounds identified by GC and GC-MS in a previous work (Lima et al., 2004).
115 The EO includes around 60 compounds, the most abundant being *cis*-thujone (17.4%),
116 *alpha*-humulene (13.3%), 1,8-cineole (12.7%), *E*-caryophyllene (8.5%) and borneol
117 (8.3%) (Lima et al., 2004).

118

119 *Animals*

120 Female Balb/c mice (8-10 weeks) and male Wistar rats (150-200 g) were purchased
121 from Charles River Laboratories (Barcelona, Spain) and acclimated to our laboratory
122 animal facilities for at least one week before the start of the experiments. During this
123 period, the animals were maintained on a natural light/dark cycle at $20 \pm 2^\circ\text{C}$ and given
124 food and tap water *ad libitum*. The animals used in the experiments were kept and
125 handled in accordance to our University regulations that follow the “Principles of
126 laboratory animal care” (NIH publication no. 85-23, revised 1985). **To study the effects**
127 **of sage tea drinking, sage tea was given to mice and rats *ad libitum* for 14 days in**
128 **replacement of water as previously performed (Lima et al., 2005). The volumes**
129 **consumed were found not to be significantly different between water and sage tea in**
130 **both normal mice and rats (Lima et al., 2005).** Diabetes was induced in rats by
131 intraperitoneal injection of a freshly prepared streptozotocin solution (50 mg/kg in 0.1
132 M-citrate buffer, pH 4.5). Experiments with diabetic rats were carried out 1 week after
133 STZ injection. During this period diabetes was well established with polydipsia,
134 polyuria and non-fasting blood glucose levels >250 mg/dl. The animals were used in
135 four different experiments.

136

137 *Experiment 1*

138 This experiment aims to evaluate the hypoglycaemic potential of the sage tea in normal
139 mice where animals from two different groups (water and sage tea drinking) were used
140 to perform an ipGTT. Twenty female Balb/c mice were randomly divided into two
141 groups, given food *ad libitum* and either tap water or sage tea *ad libitum* for 14 days
142 (beverage was renewed daily). On day 15 an ipGTT (ip injection of 300 g/l-glucose in
143 physiologic saline in a dose of 5.83 ml/kg of mouse) was performed in 3 hours fasted
144 mice (half of the animals of each group used as a vehicle group – ip injection of saline

145 alone). Blood samples were collected 45 min after the ip injection and plasma used for
146 glucose measurements.

147

148 *Experiment 2*

149 In this experiment, primary cultures of rat hepatocytes, from overnight fasted normal
150 animals, in a medium with low concentrations of glucose and a gluconeogenic substrate
151 (lactate) were used to evaluate the modulation by sage tea of hepatocyte glucose
152 production. Eight male Wistar rats were randomly divided into two groups and given
153 food *ad libitum* with either tap water or sage tea *ad libitum* for 14 days (beverage was
154 renewed daily). Hepatocyte isolation was performed between 10.00 and 11.00 o'clock
155 by collagenase perfusion as previously described by Moldeus (Moldeus et al., 1978)
156 with some modifications (Lima et al., 2004) from overnight fasted normal animals. Cell
157 viability was > 85% as estimated by the trypan blue exclusion test. Cells were
158 suspended in DMEM (containing 5.6 mM-glucose) supplemented with 10 mM-lactate,
159 100 ml/l-FBS, 10^{-9} M-insulin and 10^{-9} M-dexamethasone and seeded onto 6-well culture
160 plates at a density of 1×10^6 cells/well. Cells were incubated at 37°C in a humidified
161 incubator gassed with 50 ml/l-CO₂/air. **After plating (to allow for cell attachment),**
162 culture medium was replaced with DMEM supplemented with 10 mM-lactate, 100 ml/l-
163 fetal bovine serum (FBS) and none, one or more of the following compounds: 10^{-7} M-
164 glucagon, 10^{-3} M-metformin and/or 4 ml/ml-sage EO. After 24 hours of incubation the
165 medium was recovered for glucose quantification. Metformin was used as positive
166 control.

167

168 *Experiment 3*

169 In this experiment, primary cultures of normal rat hepatocytes in media with high (11
170 and 22 mM) concentrations of glucose (to mimic post prandial and diabetic conditions)
171 were used to evaluate the modulation of the sage tea in the glucose consumption
172 capacity of the cells. Eight male Wistar rats were randomly divided into two groups and
173 given food *ad libitum* with either tap water or sage tea *ad libitum* for 14 days (beverage
174 was renewed daily). Hepatocyte isolation from normal animals were performed as
175 above and cells suspended in WME (containing 11 mM-glucose) supplemented with
176 100 ml/l-FBS, 10^{-9} M-insulin and 10^{-9} M-dexamethasone and seeded onto 6-well culture
177 plates at a density of 1×10^6 cells/well. Cells were incubated at 37°C in a humidified
178 incubator gassed with 50 ml/l-CO₂/air. **After plating**, culture medium was replaced with
179 WME supplemented with 100 ml/l-FBS and none, one or more of the following
180 compounds: glucose (to a final concentration of 22 mM), 10^{-7} M-insulin and/or 4 nl/ml-
181 sage EO. After 24 hours of incubation the media were recovered for glucose
182 quantification.

183

184 *Experiment 4*

185 In this experiment, primary cultures of hepatocytes from STZ-induced diabetic rats were
186 used in media with low and high concentrations of glucose (both containing a
187 gluconeogenic substrate - lactate) to evaluate effects of sage tea drinking on cell glucose
188 production. Eight STZ-induced diabetic rats (male Wistar) were randomly divided into
189 two groups and given food *ad libitum* with either tap water or sage tea *ad libitum* for 14
190 days (beverage was renewed daily). Due to polydipsia of diabetic rats, sage tea drinking
191 animals were pair-fed with the non diabetic animals given diluted sage tea, in order to
192 ensure a similar intake of tea dry weight as rats of experiments 2 and 3. Hepatocyte
193 isolation from diabetic animals were performed as above and cells suspended in DMEM

194 either containing 5.6 mM or 22 mM-glucose, supplemented with 10 mM-lactate, 100
195 ml/l-FBS, 10^{-9} M-insulin and 10^{-9} M-dexamethasone and seeded onto 6-well culture
196 plates at a density of 1×10^6 cells/well. The culture plates were incubated at 37°C in a
197 humidified incubator gassed with 50 ml/l-CO₂/air. **After plating**, culture medium was
198 replaced with DMEM supplemented with 10 mM-lactate, 100 ml/l-FBS and none, one
199 or more of the following compounds: glucose (to a final concentration of 22 mM), 10^{-7}
200 M-insulin, 10^{-7} M-glucagon, 10^{-3} M-metformin and/or 4 nl/ml-sage EO. After 24 hours
201 of incubation the medium was recovered for glucose quantification. Metformin was
202 used as positive control.

203 **Plating periods of 24 hours were used in cell cultures from normal fed animals**
204 **for cell attachment. In an attempt to preserve altered physiological conditions,**
205 **introduced both by fasting and STZ-induced of diabetes, cells were plated for 3 hours**
206 **before exposure to the different test conditions. In the fasted condition, results from**
207 **plating of 24 hours are also presented for comparison.**

208 In all experiments with rat hepatocytes LDH activity was measured in the media
209 to ensure no toxicity of the treatment to the cell layer.

210

211 *Biochemical analysis*

212 *Glucose measurement* - The content of glucose in mice plasma and culture media were
213 measured using a colorimetric enzymatic method – Glucofix – following the
214 manufacturer specifications.

215 *LDH activity* - The determination of lactate dehydrogenase activity in culture media was
216 used as an indicator of hepatocyte plasma membrane integrity. The activity of the
217 enzyme was measured at 30°C by quantification of NADH consumption by continuous

218 spectrophotometry on a plate reader (Spectra Max 340pc, Molecular Devices,
219 Sunnyvale, CA, USA) (Lima et al., 2005).

220 *Protein* - Protein content was measured with the Bradford Reagent purchased from
221 Sigma using bovine serum albumin as a standard.

222

223 *Statistical Analysis*

224 Data are expressed as means and standard errors of the means (SEM). Two-way
225 ANOVA followed by the Student-Newman-Keuls *post hoc* test (SigmaStat, version
226 2.03; SPSS Inc., San Rafael, CA, USA) was employed in experiment 1 to compare the
227 effects of *in vivo* beverage (water versus sage tea) and the ipGTT (saline ip versus
228 glucose ip). In the experiments 2, 3 and 4 (where 2 replicates were used for each
229 experimental condition), the same statistical test was employed to compare the effects
230 of *in vivo* beverage (water versus sage tea) and the *in vitro* treatments (in this case when
231 a significant effect was obtained, a paired *t*-test was employed to find differences
232 between each treatment). *P* values ≤ 0.05 were considered statistically significant.

233

234 **Results**

235 *Experiment 1*

236 Fourteen days of sage tea drinking significantly lowered fasting (3 h + 45 min) plasma
237 glucose concentration from 8.8 mM to 6.8 mM ($P \leq 0.01$) in normal mice (table 1). In
238 response to an ipGTT, a significant increase of plasma glucose was observed at 45 min
239 in both groups (table 1) although no differences were observed between water and sage
240 tea drinking groups.

241

242 *Experiment 2*

Table 1

243 When hepatocytes of overnight fasted rats were plated with 5·6 mM-glucose and 10
244 mM-lactate containing medium there was a release of glucose (mainly due to
245 gluconeogenesis) to the medium. Hepatocyte glucose production increased in response
246 to glucagon (fig. 1A) in cells from water drinking animals but not **statistically**
247 **significant** in cells from sage tea drinking animals (figs. 1A and 1B). In general
248 hepatocyte glucose production (fig. 1A) was **lower** in cells isolated from sage tea
249 drinking rats when compared with water drinking controls ($P \leq 0.05$), and the difference
250 became significant in the glucagon + EO **groups** (fig. 1A). When incubated with sage
251 EO, a significant decrease in hepatocyte glucose production was observed in both
252 drinking groups (fig. 1A). In co-incubations with glucagon, sage EO significantly
253 decreased the glucose production response to glucagon (fig. 1A).

Fig. 1

254 Metformin (a known inhibitor of gluconeogenesis) decreased significantly the
255 hepatocyte glucose production capacity, even when co-incubated with glucagon, both in
256 cells from water and tea drinking animals (fig. 1B).

257

258 *Experiment 3*

259 Hepatocyte glucose consumption, measured after 24 hours incubation was higher in 22
260 mM-glucose medium (fig. 2B) than in 11 mM-glucose medium (fig. 2A), and increased
261 in response to insulin. Glucose consumption was significantly higher ($P \leq 0.01$) in cells
262 isolated from tea dinking rats under all tested circumstances.

Fig. 2

263 When cells were incubated with sage EO, no significant differences were
264 obtained in hepatocyte glucose consumption, although consumption was higher in cells
265 isolated from the sage tea drinking animals. In co-incubations with insulin, sage EO
266 significantly potentiates the hormone's effects on glucose consumption (figs. 2A and
267 2B).

268

269 *Experiment 4*

270 In contrast with what was the case for cells from healthy animals, when hepatocytes Fig. 3
271 from STZ-induced diabetic rats were plated with 22 mM-glucose (and 10 mM-lactate)
272 containing medium, glucose production was observed (and not consumption). Insulin
273 stimulation of glucose consumption did not occur (fig. 3). Sage tea drinking did not
274 modify this situation. Also EO did not inhibit hepatocyte glucose production. Only
275 metformin was able of reducing glucose production of hepatocytes isolated from
276 diabetic water and sage tea drinking rats (fig. 3).

277 When hepatocytes from STZ-induced diabetic rats were plated with 5.6 mM- Fig. 4
278 glucose (and 10 mM-lactate) containing medium glucose production was similar in cells
279 isolated from both water and sage tea drinking rats (fig. 4). Glucagon was not able to
280 further stimulate glucose production (fig. 4). As above, no effect was observed for EO.
281 Once again, metformin significantly reduced hepatocyte glucose production in cells
282 from both water and sage tea drinking rats by about 60% (fig. 4).

283 All the treatments in the primary cultures did not induce LDH release to the
284 medium, an indicator that there was not cell toxicity in any of *in vitro* treatments.

285

286 **Discussion**

287 The present work shows that sage tea drinking significantly reduces fasting plasma
288 glucose level in mice. This suggested an inhibition of gluconeogenesis and/or
289 glycogenolysis in the liver. In agreement with this rat overall hepatocyte glucose
290 production was lower in cells isolated from sage tea drinking animals when compared to
291 controls. Furthermore, stimulation with glucagon did not increase gluconeogenesis
292 significantly in cells from sage tea drinking animals. Sage EO, although not as effective

293 as metformin, produced a significant decrease in hepatocyte gluconeogenesis. In
294 addition, hepatocyte reponse to insulin was significantly increased by sage EO. This
295 data suggests a metformin-like effect for sage tea and in particular for the EO fraction of
296 *Salvia officinalis*. These effects were, however, not observed in hepatocytes isolated
297 from STZ diabetic animals where only metformin, a drug used in the treatment and
298 prevention of **type 2 diabetes**, was effective in reducing glucose production. The effects
299 of metformin were not modified by sage tea drinking which seems to imply that sage tea,
300 although not effective in diabetics, would not interfere negatively with metformin
301 therapy.

302 Although using a different extract and experimental methodology,
303 hypoglycaemic effects of sage have previously been reported by **others (Alarcon-**
304 **Aguilar et al, 2002; Eidi et al., 2005). Alarcon-Aguilar and collaborators (2002)**
305 **showed that**, 4 hours after an ip injection of a sage water ethanolic extract, blood
306 glucose decreased significantly in fasted normal mice and in fasted mildly alloxan-
307 diabetic mice but not in fasted severely alloxan-diabetic **mice. Although** the authors
308 stated that insulin may have mediated the hypoglycaemic effect of the extract, once the
309 animals were tested in the fasted condition, it seems likely that an inhibition of
310 gluconeogenesis was the cause of the observed effects in their study as indeed suggested
311 by our results. **Additionally, Eidi and co-workers (2005) showed that, 3 hours after an ip**
312 **injection of a sage methanolic extract, blood glucose decreased significantly in fasted**
313 **STZ-diabetic rats but not in fasted normal rats. This effect was not accompanied by an**
314 **increased release of insulin (Eidi et al., 2005).**

315 In humans, the abnormal glucose metabolism observed both in pre-diabetic
316 states as well as in overt **type 2 diabetes** results in part from a deregulation of glucose
317 production by the liver, which is caused mainly by unrestrained glucagon stimulation of

318 gluconeogenesis. Therefore, in these individuals gluconeogenesis is active even when
319 plasma glucose concentrations already are elevated which further aggravates
320 hyperglycaemia (Roden & Bernroider, 2003). By analogy with the effects of the drug
321 metformin, used in the prevention and treatment of diabetes, the observed decrease in
322 hepatocyte glucose production of sage tea drinking animals could be favourable by
323 preventing the liver's contribution to hyperglycaemia in groups at risk. Metformin is a
324 derivative of guanidine, the active compound of goat's rue (*Galega officinalis*)
325 (Williams & Pickup, 2004). It acts by reducing liver glucose production and by
326 increasing insulin action (Chiasson et al., 2002). Also in ours experiments, metformin
327 showed these effects both in hepatocytes isolated from normal and STZ diabetic rats.

328 Generally, sage tea drinking increased rat hepatocyte glucose consumption,
329 decreased fasting gluconeogenesis and inhibited glucagon's stimulation of hepatic
330 glucose production. However, in spite of decreasing plasma glucose, after an *in vivo*
331 ipGTT in mice, sage tea did not improve glucose clearance which suggests sage tea did
332 not increase insulin response *in vivo*. Also *in vitro* insulin's stimulatory effects on
333 glucose consumption were observed only in co-incubations with EO. This suggests a
334 role for EO in the increase of insulin's sensitivity. Increased insulin sensitivity has been
335 suggested as a possible mechanism of action of other plant extracts with attributed
336 hypoglycaemic activities (Li et al., 2004; Saxena & Vikram, 2004; Qin et al., 2004;
337 Han et al., 2005). The presence of low amounts of EO in sage tea, about 4.8 µg/ml
338 (Lima et al., 2004), could explain the lack of an increase in insulin's sensitivity
339 observed after tea drinking both *in vivo* and *in vitro*. It cannot be excluded that higher
340 doses of the tested compounds administered either by gavage or ip injection could
341 produce similar effects as *in vitro*.

342 Also in STZ-induced diabetic rat hepatocytes, sage tea drinking and EO *in vitro*
343 showed no significant improvement on responses to insulin. Normally, the liver (and
344 hepatocytes) should suppress glucose release in response to insulin (Klover & Mooney,
345 2004). In STZ rat hepatocytes insulin administration failed to suppress glucose
346 production. Previous studies have also indicated that insulin was incapable of
347 stimulating glucose utilisation *in vitro* by hepatocytes from STZ-induced diabetic rats
348 (Salhanick et al., 1983; Amatruda et al., 1984; Hussin & Skett, 1988). The insulin
349 resistance imposed by STZ treatment was not reverted by sage tea and/or EO. The lack
350 of effect of sage tea/EO on STZ hepatocytes seems to indicate that sage requires an
351 intact insulin signalling pathway to produce its effects. In STZ diabetic rat hepatocytes
352 stimulation with glucagon did not enhance gluconeogenesis. Others have also failed to
353 significantly stimulate the gluconeogenesis *in vitro* in hepatocytes from STZ-induced
354 diabetic rats (Dunbar et al., 1989). A possibility for the lack of glucagon stimulation of
355 gluconeogenesis in diabetic hepatocyte is that gluconeogenesis, *in vivo*, had been
356 maximally stimulated. Cells are, however, metabolically competent and respond to
357 metformin with a decrease of glucose production. In STZ treated rats, insulin deficiency
358 increases gluconeogenesis through enhanced lactate and pyruvate uptake and flux
359 through the enzyme phosphoenolpyruvate carboxykinase (PEPCK) (Large & Beylot,
360 1999). Metformin has been shown to reduce substrate flux through PEPCK (Large &
361 Beylot, 1999) and to inhibit PEPCK gene expression (Cheng et al., 2001; Yuan et al.,
362 2002), thereby decreasing gluconeogenesis. This gene expression inhibition seems to be
363 mainly through an insulin-independent pathway (Yuan et al., 2002). This agrees with
364 the possibility that sage tea and/or sage EO requires an intact insulin signaling pathway
365 to produce its effects that were observed only in normal rats.

366 The reduction in fasting plasma glucose shown in healthy animals indicates a
367 possible **type 2 diabetes** preventive potential of sage extracts through a metformin-like
368 effect, mainly in people at risk of developing it as is the case of those who present IGT
369 and IFG. Taking into consideration the high worldwide and increasing prevalence of
370 **type 2 diabetes** and the high costs involved in its treatment, the primary prevention of
371 this disease arises as an important issue (Lai, 2002; Costacou & Mayer-Davis, 2003;
372 Jermendy, 2005). Considering that there is now substantial evidence that **type 2 diabetes**
373 could be considered as a preventable disease through changes in lifestyle that include,
374 among others, dietary factors (Costacou & Mayer-Davis, 2003; Schernthaner, 2003;
375 Simpson et al., 2003; Stoeckli & Keller, 2004; Jermendy, 2005), the search for
376 preventive strategies should be actively promoted. Sage products can easily be
377 considered functional foods or food supplements that could have a beneficial impact in
378 low cost prevention strategies of diabetes. In addition there are health benefits from the
379 use of plant extracts as sources of antioxidants. In particular on the liver, sage tea has
380 been shown **not to have toxic effects and** to improve liver glutathione levels (Lima et
381 al., 2005). Among other effects, this may indirectly improve the liver mediated insulin
382 response *in vivo* (Guarino et al., 2003). **Currently, we are undertaking a pilot study with**
383 **human volunteers to test the effects on the control of glycaemia in humans at risk of**
384 **developing diabetes. Experiments with animal models of type 2 diabetes, such as the**
385 **Zucker rat (Sreenan et al., 1996), could also provide additional information on the**
386 **therapeutical effects of sage tea.**

387

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Abbreviations:

DMEM - Dulbecco's Modified Eagle's medium

EGP - endogenous glucose production

EO - essential oil

FBS - fetal bovine serum

IFG – impaired fasting glucose

IGT – impaired glucose tolerance

ipGTT - intraperitoneal glucose tolerance test

PEPCK - phosphoenolpyruvate carboxykinase

STZ - streptozotocin

WME - William's medium E

Results (tables)

Table 1 – Plasma glucose concentration in mice in response to an ipGTT (45 minutes) performed on 3 hours fasted mice previously treated with or without sage tea for 14 days. Values are means \pm SEM, n=5. * $P \leq 0.05$ and ** $P \leq 0.01$ when compared with the water + ip vehicle group. ††† $P \leq 0.001$ when compared with the sage + ip vehicle group.

Group	<i>In vivo</i> beverage	Plasma glucose (mM)	
		Mean	SEM
ip vehicle	Water	8.8	0.6
	Sage tea	6.8 **	0.4
ipGTT	Water	10.5 *	0.3
	Sage tea	10.4 †††	0.4

Results (figures)

Figure 1 – Hepatocyte glucose production (24 hours) by primary cultures of rat hepatocytes (isolated from overnight fasted animals). Effects of previous *in vivo* treatment with sage tea (for 14 days) on hepatocyte responses to glucagon (10^{-7} M), EO (4 nl/ml) and metformin (10^{-3} M). Initial medium glucose concentration was 5.6 mM and experiments performed on 24 hours (A) or 3 hours (B) after plating. Values are means \pm SEM, n=4, (A - water drinking rats: 100% = 6.4 ± 0.6 μ mol glucose/mg prot., sage tea drinking rats: 100% = 6.2 ± 0.6 μ mol glucose/mg prot.; B - water drinking rats: 100% = 8.2 ± 1.2 μ mol glucose/mg prot., sage tea drinking rats: 100% = 9.5 ± 0.8 μ mol glucose/mg prot.). * $P \leq 0.05$ and ** $P \leq 0.01$ when compared with the respective control group. † $P \leq 0.05$ and †† $P \leq 0.01$ when compared with the respective glucagon group. ‡ $P \leq 0.05$, ‡‡ $P \leq 0.01$ and ‡‡‡ $P \leq 0.001$ when compared with the respective EO group (A) or metformina group (B). § $P \leq 0.05$ between water and sage tea groups.

Figure 2 – Glucose consumption (24 hours) by rat hepatocytes in primary cultures. Effects of previous *in vivo* treatment with sage tea (for 14 days) on hepatocyte responses to insulin (10^{-7} M) and EO (4 nl/ml). Initial medium glucose concentrations were 11 mM (A) and 22 mM (B). Values are means \pm SEM, n=4. * $P \leq 0.05$ and ** $P \leq 0.01$ when compared with the respective control group. † $P \leq 0.05$ and †† $P \leq 0.01$ when compared with the respective insulin group. ‡ $P \leq 0.05$ and ‡‡ $P \leq 0.01$ when compared with the respective EO group. § $P \leq 0.05$ between water and sage tea groups. || Almost significant ($P = 0.0573$) when compared with the respective control group.

Figure 3 – Hepatocyte glucose production (24 hours) by primary cultures of rat hepatocytes (isolated from streptozotocin-induced diabetic animals). Effects of previous *in vivo* treatment with sage tea (for 14 days) on hepatocyte responses to insulin (10^{-7} M), EO (4 nl/ml) and metformin (10^{-3} M). Initial medium glucose concentrations were 22 mM and experiments performed on 3 hours after plating. Values are means \pm SEM, n=4, (water drinking rats: 100% = 8.4 ± 1.7 μ mol glucose/mg prot., sage tea drinking rats: 100% = 8.7 ± 0.9 μ mol glucose/mg prot). * $P \leq 0.05$ when compared with the respective control group. $\dagger P \leq 0.05$ when compared with the respective insulin group.

Figure 4 – Hepatocyte glucose production (24 hours) by primary cultures of rat hepatocytes (isolated from streptozotocin-induced diabetic animals). Effects of previous *in vivo* treatment with sage tea (for 14 days) on hepatocyte responses to glucagon (10^{-7} M), EO (4 nl/ml) and metformin (10^{-3} M). Initial medium glucose concentrations were 5.6 mM and experiments performed on 3 hours after plating. Values are means \pm SEM, n=4, (water drinking rats: 100% = 7.9 ± 1.0 μ mol glucose/mg prot., sage tea drinking rats: 100% = 7.6 ± 0.3 μ mol glucose/mg prot). ** $P \leq 0.01$ and *** $P \leq 0.001$ when compared with the respective control group. $\dagger P \leq 0.05$ and $\dagger\dagger P \leq 0.01$ when compared with the respective glucagon group.

Figure 1 (Lima *et al.*)

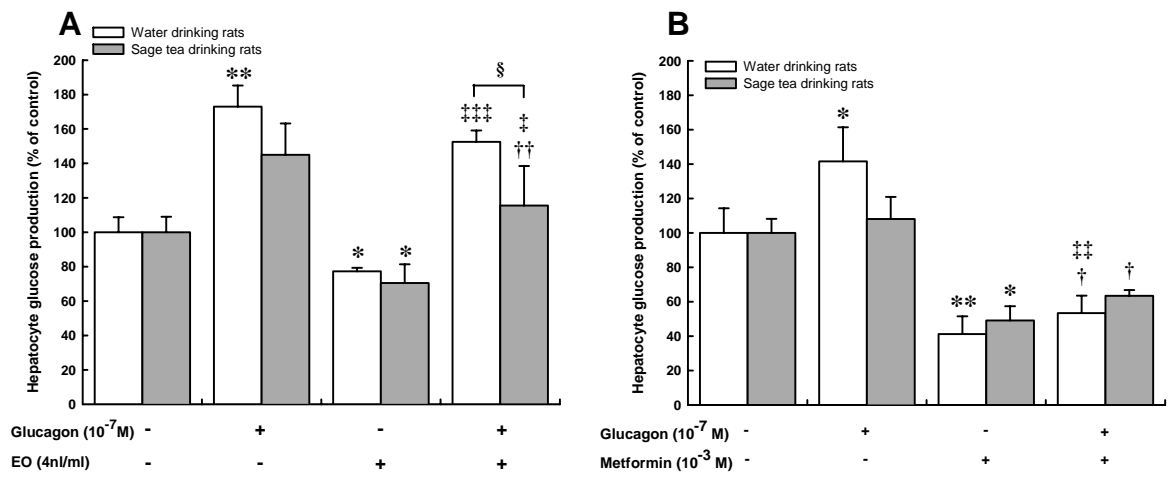


Figure 2 (Lima *et al.*)

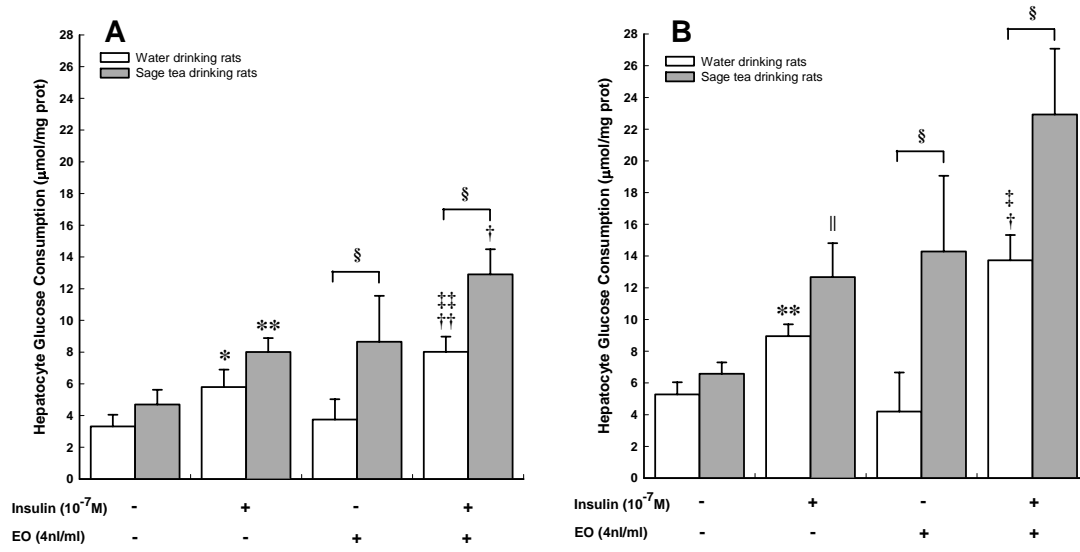


Figure 3 (Lima *et al.*)

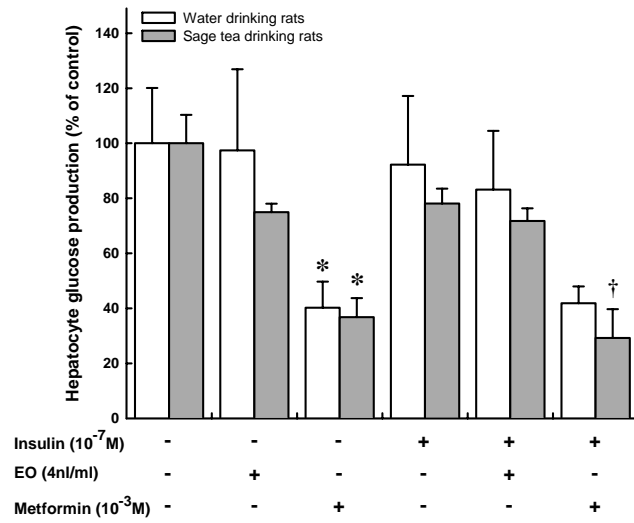


Figure 4 (Lima *et al.*)

