

Drinking of *Salvia officinalis* tea increases CCl₄-induced hepatotoxicity in mice

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Abbreviations: CCl₄ – carbon tetrachloride; CYP – cytochrome P450; CYPR – NADPH-cytochrome P450 reductase; EROD – ethoxyresorufin-*O*-dealkylation; GSH – glutathione (reduced form); GST – glutathione-s-transferase; GPox – glutathione peroxidase; GR – glutathione reductase; H&E – hematoxylin and eosin; PNP-H – paranitrophenol hydroxylation ; PROD – pentoxyresorufin-*O*-dealkylation; *t*-BHP – *tert*-butyl hydroperoxide

1 **Abstract**

2 In a previous study, the drinking of a *Salvia officinalis* tea (prepared as an
3 infusion) for 14 days improved liver antioxidant status in mice and rats where, among
4 other factors, an enhancement of glutathione-S-transferase (GST) activity was observed.
5 Taking in consideration these effects, in the present study the potential protective effects
6 of sage tea drinking against a situation of hepatotoxicity due to free radical formation,
7 such as that caused by carbon tetrachloride (CCl₄), were evaluated in mice of both
8 genders. Contrary to what was expected, sage tea drinking significantly increased the
9 CCl₄-induced liver injury, as seen by increased plasma transaminase levels and
10 histology liver damage. In accordance with the previous study, sage tea drinking
11 enhanced significantly GST activity. Additionally, glutathione peroxidase was also
12 significantly increased by sage tea drinking. Since CCl₄ toxicity results from its
13 bioactivation mainly by cytochrome P450 (CYP) 2E1, the expression level of this
14 protein was measured by Western Blot. An increase in CYP 2E1 protein was observed
15 which may explain, at least in part, the potentiation of CCl₄-induced hepatotoxicity
16 conferred by sage tea drinking. The CCl₄-induced hepatotoxicity was higher in females
17 than males. In conclusion, our results indicate that, although sage tea did not have toxic
18 effects of its own, herb-drug interactions are possible and may affect the efficacy and
19 safety of concurrent medical therapy with drugs that are metabolized by phase I
20 enzymes.

21 **1. Introduction**

22 Chronic liver diseases are common worldwide and are characterized by a
23 progressive evolution from steatosis to chronic hepatitis, fibrosis, cirrhosis, and
24 hepatocellular carcinoma (Loguercio and Federico, 2003; Vitaglione et al., 2004). There
25 are increasing evidences that free radicals and reactive oxygen species play a crucial
26 role in the various steps that initiate and regulate the progression of liver diseases
27 independently of the agent in its origin (Loguercio and Federico, 2003; Vitaglione et al.,
28 2004). By virtue of its unique vascular and metabolic features, the liver is exposed to
29 absorbed drugs and xenobiotics in concentrated form. Detoxification reactions (phase I
30 and phase II) metabolize xenobiotics aiming to increase substrate hydrophilicity for
31 excretion. Drug-metabolizing enzymes detoxify many xenobiotics but bioactivate or
32 increase the toxicity of others (Jaeschke et al., 2002). In case of bioactivation, the liver
33 is the first organ exposed to the damaging effects of the newly formed toxic substance.
34 Therefore, protective mechanisms relevant to the liver are of particular interest.

35 Because free radicals and reactive oxygen species play a central role in liver
36 diseases pathology and progression, dietary antioxidants have been proposed as
37 therapeutic agents to counteract liver damage (Vitaglione et al., 2004). Additionally,
38 recent studies have suggested that natural antioxidants in complex mixtures ingested
39 with the diet are more efficacious than pure compounds in preventing oxidative stress-
40 related pathologies due to particular interactions and synergisms (Vitaglione et al.,
41 2004). Natural antioxidants may act as protectors of several pathologies not only as
42 conventional hydrogen-donating compounds (antiradical activity) but, more
43 importantly, may exert modulatory effects in cells through actions in antioxidant, drug-
44 metabolizing and repairing enzymes as well as working as signaling molecules in
45 important cascades for cell survival (Ferguson et al., 2004; Williams et al., 2004).

46 *Salvia officinalis* L. (common sage) is a medicinal plant well known for its
47 reputation of being a panacea and for its strong antioxidant properties attributed to its
48 constitution in phenolic compounds (rosmarinic acid being the most representative)
49 (Cuvelier et al., 1994; Baricevic and Bartol, 2000). In an *in vivo* study using rats,
50 treatment with a sage water extract for 5 weeks protected against the hepatotoxicity of
51 azathioprine, a drug that acts by reducing GSH levels, revealing the antioxidant
52 properties of this extract (Amin and Hamza, 2005). Drinking of sage tea (prepared as an
53 infusion) for 14 days also improved liver antioxidant status in mice and rats. It
54 significantly increased the activity of a phase II detoxifying enzyme, glutathione-S-
55 transferase (GST), and protected against lipid peroxidation and GSH depletion induced
56 by an oxidant insult (*tert*-butyl hydroperoxide) in rat hepatocytes in primary culture
57 (Lima et al., 2005). In view of these observations we hypothesised that sage tea would
58 have protective effects in an *in vivo* situation of free radical-mediated hepatotoxicity,
59 such as that caused by the well known hepatotoxin carbon tetrachloride (CCl₄).
60 Therefore, in the present study, we evaluate the potential hepatoprotective effects of
61 sage tea drinking for 14 days against a subsequent acute toxic dose of CCl₄ in mice.

62 In the liver, CCl₄ metabolism begins with the formation of the trichloromethyl
63 radical (CCl₃·) through the action of cytochrome P450 (CYP) enzymes, phase I drug-
64 metabolizing or detoxifying enzymes. This radical can also react with oxygen to form
65 its highly reactive derivative trichloromethylperoxy radical (CCl₃OO·). Both radicals
66 initiate chain reactions of direct and indirect bond formation with cellular molecules
67 (nucleic acids, proteins, lipids and carbohydrates) impairing crucial cellular processes
68 that may ultimately culminate in extensive cell damage and death (Weber et al., 2003).
69 The bioactivation of CCl₄ is mainly executed by the CYP 2E1 isozyme, but at higher

70 concentrations CYP 2B1, CYP 2B2 and CYP 3A (only in humans) are capable of
71 attacking this haloalkane (Weber et al., 2003).

72 Because the bioactivation of the drug needs to occur in this model of
73 hepatotoxicity, effects on the activity of CYP enzymes and in particular the expression
74 of CYP 2E1 should be considered when studying effects on CCl₄ toxicity. It is well
75 known today that the inhibition of CYP 2E1 decreases CCl₄ hepatotoxicity. On the
76 other hand, the induction of this cytochrome increases the drug's hepatotoxicity (Weber
77 et al., 2003). Since pharmaceutical drugs may also be metabolized by CYP enzymes,
78 drug-drug interactions are possible and have been recognized between herbal medicines
79 and conventional drugs, which may affect the safety of phytomedicine users (Ioannides,
80 2002; Izzo, 2005; Hu et al., 2005).

81 Finally, gender is another factor that should be studied. Because CYP enzyme
82 activities are known to be gender dependent (Kato and Yamazoe, 1992; Clewell et al.,
83 2002; Meibohm et al., 2002), the extension of cell damage caused by toxicants that are
84 metabolized by phase I enzymes may be significantly different in males and females.
85 We therefore evaluated the gender effect on the potential protection against CCl₄-
86 induced hepatotoxicity conferred by sage tea drinking in mice.

87

88 **2. Materials and methods**

89 *2.1. Chemicals*

90 Glutathione reductase (EC 1.6.4.2.), glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase (EC
91 1.1.1.49.), aprotinine, *tert*-butyl hydroperoxide (*t*-BHP), 7-ethoxyresorufin, 7-
92 pentoxyresorufin and Bradford reagent were purchased from Sigma (St. Louis, MO,
93 USA). The rabbit polyclonal antibody against CYP 2E1 protein was purchased from
94 StressGen (Victoria, Canada). All other reagents were of analytical grade.

95

96 2.2. *Plant material, preparation of sage tea and composition in phenolic and volatile*
97 *compounds*

98 *Salvia officinalis* L. plants were cultivated in an experimental farm located in
99 Arouca, Portugal, and were collected in April, 2001. The aerial parts of plants were
100 lyophilized and kept at -20 °C. Considering that sage is traditionally used as a tea, an
101 infusion of sage was routinely prepared as in a previous study by pouring 150 ml of
102 boiling water onto 2 g of the dried plant material and allowing to steep for 5 min (Lima
103 et al., 2005). This preparation produced a 3.5 ± 0.1 mg of dry weight extract per ml of
104 infusion, with rosmarinic acid (362 µg/ml of infusion) and luteolin-7-glucoside (115.3
105 µg/ml of infusion) as a major phenolic compounds and 1,8-cineole, *cis*-thujone, *trans*-
106 thujone, camphor and borneol as major volatile compounds (4.8 µg/ml of infusion)
107 (Lima et al., 2005).

108

109 2.3. *Animals*

110 Twenty male and twenty female Balb/c mice, 6-8 weeks (male: 20.3 ± 2.4;
111 female: 17.6 ± 1.9), were purchased from Charles River Laboratories (Spain) and
112 acclimated to our laboratory animal facilities for at least one week before the start of the
113 experiments. During this period, the animals were maintained on a natural light/dark
114 cycle at 20 ± 2 °C and given food and tap water *ad libitum*. The animals used in this
115 experiment were kept and handled in accordance to our University regulations that
116 follows the *Guidelines for the Humane Use and Care of Laboratory Animals*.

117

118 2.4. *CCl₄-induced hepatotoxicity in mice*

119 Twenty male Balb/c mice were randomly divided into two groups (five per
120 cage), given food *ad libitum* and either drinking water (tap) or sage tea *ad libitum* for 14
121 days (beverage was renewed daily). Twenty four hours before the end of the
122 experiment, half the animals of each drinking group received an ip injection of CCl₄ in
123 order to observe the hepatic injury effects (Chung et al., 2005). CCl₄ was administered
124 ip at 20 μ l/kg in olive oil (8 ml/kg) to induce liver injury as previously described (Chen
125 et al., 2004), and controls received vehicle only. At the end of the experiment, animals
126 were sacrificed by cervical dislocation and plasma collected for measurement of
127 transaminase activities (ALT-alanine aminotransferase and AST-aspartate
128 aminotransferase). The livers were also collected, frozen in liquid nitrogen and kept at -
129 80 °C for later analysis and measurement of several liver parameters.

130 The same experimental outline was used for the twenty female Balb/c mice.

131

132 2.5. Biochemical analysis

133 *Histological examinations*

134 A fresh piece of the liver from each mouse, previously trimmed to
135 approximately 2 mm thickness, was rapidly immersed in Bouin's solution and kept for
136 24 h at 4 °C. Fixed tissues were then processed routinely for embedding in paraffin,
137 sectioned (5 μ m), deparaffinized and rehydrated using standard techniques. The extent
138 of CCl₄-induced liver damage was evaluated based on morphological changes in liver
139 sections stained with hematoxylin and eosin (H&E) using standard techniques.

140 Histological damage was expressed using the following score system: 0 - absent; + -
141 few; ++ - mild; +++ - moderate; ++++ - severe; and, + + + + - extremely severe.

142 *Liver homogenates and microsome isolation*

143 For measurement of the activities of GST, glutathione peroxidase (GPox),
144 glutathione reductase (GR) and NADPH-cytochrome P450 reductase (CYPR) in mice
145 liver, a piece of tissue was homogenized individually in a phosphate/glycerol buffer pH
146 7.4 (Na₂HPO₄ 20 mM; β-mercaptoethanol 5 mM; EDTA 0.5 mM; BSA 0.2% (w/v);
147 aprotinine 10μg/ml and glycerol 50% (v/v)) and centrifuged at 10,000 × g at 4 °C for 10
148 min and the supernatant collected.

149 For measurement of the activities of cytochromes P450 and analysis of the
150 expression level of CYP 2E1 protein, liver microsomes were isolated by differential
151 centrifugation as described elsewhere (Barbier *et al.*, 2000). In brief, a piece of the liver
152 was homogenized in homogenization buffer (80 mM K₂HPO₄, 80 mM KH₂PO₄ (pH
153 7.4), 20% (v/v) glycerol, 1 mM EDTA, 1 mM dithiothreitol and 0.1 mM
154 phenylmethanesulfonyl fluoride) and centrifuged at 12,000 × g at 4 °C for 20 min. The
155 supernatant was collected and centrifuged at 105,000 × g at 4 °C for 1 h. Microsomal
156 pellets were resuspended in homogenization buffer, rapidly frozen in liquid nitrogen
157 and stored at -80 °C.

158 *Enzyme activities*

159 Alanine aminotransferase (ALT), aspartate aminotransferase (AST), GST and
160 GR activities were measured spectrophotometrically as previously described (Lima et
161 al., 2005). GPox activity was also measured as previously described by Lima et al.
162 (2006).

163 The CYPR activity was determined indirectly by measuring its NADPH-
164 cytochrome *c* reductase activity as previously described (Phillips and Langdon, 1962)
165 with the modifications introduced by Plaa and Hewitt (1982) and the results expressed
166 as nmol cytochrome *c* reduced per minute per mg of protein (mU/mg).

167 Microsomal ethoxyresorufin-*O*-dealkylation (EROD) and pentoxyresorufin-*O*-
168 dealkylation (PROD) were determined according to Burke *et al.* (1985) with some
169 modifications (Pearce *et al.*, 1996). Briefly, liver microsomes (0.2 mg) were incubated
170 at 37 °C in 1 ml (final volume) incubation mixture containing 100 mM KH₂PO₄ (pH
171 7.4), 7.5 mM MgCl₂, 1 mM EDTA, 0.5 mM NADP – 5 mM glucose-6-phosphate/0.5
172 U/ml glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase and either 7-ethoxyresorufin (5 µM) or 7-
173 pentoxyresorufin (10 µM) in the EROD or PROD activities, respectively. Reactions
174 were started by addition of the NADPH-generating system and were stopped after 5 min
175 by addition of 2 ml of ice-cold acetone. After centrifugation, the amount of resorufin
176 was determined fluorometrically with a Perkin Elmer LS50 spectrophotometer (Perkin-
177 Elmer Ltd., Buckinghamshire, UK). The activity was expressed as pmol resorufin
178 formed/min/mg microsomal proteins using a standard curve of resorufin.

179 Paranitrophenol hydroxylation (PNP-H) in liver microsomes was assessed
180 according to the methodology previously described by Allis and Robinson (1994),
181 following spectrophotometrically at 480 nm the formation 4-nitrocatechol. Briefly, 0.2
182 mg of microsomal proteins were pre-incubated for 5 min at 37 °C with 1 mM *p*-
183 nitrophenol and 100 mM Hepes (pH 6.8). Five minutes after adding the NADPH-
184 generating system, the formation of 4-nitrocatechol was followed at 480 nm at 37 °C on
185 a plate reader spectrophotometer and the results expressed as pmol 4-nitrocatechol
186 formed/min/mg microsomal proteins using the extinction coefficient of 3.567 mM⁻¹.cm⁻¹.
187 ¹.

188 *Glutathione content*

189 The glutathione content of mice livers was determined by the DTNB-GSSG
190 reductase recycling assay as previously described (Lima *et al.*, 2004). The results are
191 expressed as nmol GSH/mg of liver.

192 *Protein*

193 Protein content of liver homogenates was determined with Bradford Reagent
194 using bovine serum albumin as a standard. Protein content of liver microsomes was
195 determined by the Lowry method (Lowry *et al.*, 1951).

196

197 2.6. *CYP 2E1 expression analysis*

198 The expression of CYP 2E1 protein was analyzed by Western Blot.
199 Electrophoretic separation of microsomal proteins (15 μ g) was performed in 12%
200 sodium dodecyl sulfate–polyacrylamide gels (SDS–PAGE) using the mini-PROTEAN 3
201 electrophoresis cell (Bio-Rad Laboratories, Inc., Hercules, California, USA) according
202 to the method of Laemmli (1970). The separated proteins were electrotransferred to
203 polyvinylidene difluoride (PVDF) membranes (Amersham Biosciences,
204 Buckinghamshire, UK) using the method of Towbin and collaborators (1979). The
205 PVDF membranes were blocked with 5% nonfat dry milk overnight at 4°C and the
206 immunoblots exposed to rabbit polyclonal antibody against CYP 2E1 protein.
207 Immunodetection was performed using horseradish peroxidase–labeled donkey anti-
208 rabbit IgG antibody (Amersham Biosciences, Buckinghamshire, UK) and developed
209 with ECL reagents (Amersham Biosciences) according to manufacturer’s instructions.
210 The amount of protein was quantified by densitometry analysis on the SigmaScan Pro 5
211 program (SPSS Inc., San Rafael, CA, USA) and expressed as percentage of the protein
212 level present in control situation.

213

214 2.7. *Statistical Analysis*

215 Data are expressed as means \pm SEM (n=5). Statistical significances (P values <
216 0.05) were evaluated by two-way ANOVA based on gender and treatment group (water

217 drinking + saline ip; water drinking + CCl₄ ip; sage tea drinking + saline ip; sage tea
218 drinking + CCl₄ ip) followed by the Student-Newman-Keuls post hoc test. ALT and
219 AST data were natural logarithm transformed prior to statistical analysis in order to
220 stabilize the variance.

221

222 **3. Results**

223 The effect of drinking of sage tea for 14 days (instead of water) on the
224 hepatotoxicity of CCl₄ was evaluated in mice of both genders challenged with a single
225 dose of CCl₄ (20 μl/kg, ip). Plasma transaminase activities were measured 24 h after
226 CCl₄ administration as markers of liver injury (Fig. 1). Elevated ALT and AST activities
227 were observed due to CCl₄ administration, which is always higher in females compared
228 with males. Both males and females that had been drinking sage tea were significantly
229 more sensitive to the hepatotoxic effects of CCl₄ than their control counterparts, as
230 indicated by increased plasma transaminase activities.

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231 CCl₄ is a hepatotoxicant known to produce a characteristic centrilobular pattern
232 of degeneration and necrosis (Weber et al., 2003). Histological examination of H&E-
233 stained liver sections was conducted 24 h after CCl₄ administration to confirm the
234 pattern of hepatotoxicity and compare the extent of liver injury between control and
235 sage tea drinking animals (Table 1). Morphological findings were consistent with
236 plasma transaminase observations. The CCl₄ induced histopathological changes in the
237 liver with significant degeneration and necrosis of hepatocytes in the centrilobular
238 region and with perivenular inflammatory infiltrates. These CCl₄-induced
239 histopathological changes were significantly potentiated in the sage tea drinking group
240 of mice with about 50-60% of total area presenting signs of degeneration, necrotic

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241 regions and higher leukocyte infiltration. Also histologically, the liver damage induced
242 by the CCl₄ in mice appear to be higher in females than in males.

243 CCl₄ is a hepatotoxic chemical that requires metabolic activation by phase I
244 drug-metabolizing enzymes and therefore it was important to monitor the effects of sage
245 tea drinking on the activity of some CYP enzymes. For that, EROD, PROD and PNP-H
246 were measured in liver microsomal fractions (Table 2). Comparing the groups where
247 CCl₄ was not administered, although not statistically significant, sage tea drinking
248 increased slightly, between 8% and 13%, the activity of CYP 1A and CYP 2E1 in both
249 genders. The activities of CYP 2B and CYP 2E1 in females was lower and higher,
250 respectively, when compared with males. Twenty four hours after administration, CCl₄
251 hepatotoxicity was also reflected in the decrease observed for the activities of the CYP's
252 measured as well as in the majority of the others enzyme activities (Table 3).
253 Comparing drinking groups, the decrease in these enzyme activities after CCl₄
254 administration was also consistent with the higher toxicity in sage tea groups, since it
255 was in general significantly higher in sage tea than water drinking mice.

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256 The CYPR is an essential enzyme for microsomal P450-mediated
257 monooxygenase activity, which by interaction with the different CYP's transfers the
258 essential electron from NADPH (Backes and Kelley, 2003; Henderson et al., 2003).
259 Therefore, its activity was measured (Table 2), and was found to be significantly higher
260 in female mice, which indirectly may contributed to higher toxicity of CCl₄ in females.
261 Sage tea drinking induced 21% the activity of this cytochrome, but only in female mice.

262 The bioactivation of CCl₄ is mainly executed by CYP 2E1 (Weber et al., 2003).
263 It is also known that modulatory effects on the expression of CYP 2E1 affects the CCl₄-
264 induced hepatotoxicity (Weber et al., 2003). Therefore, in addition to the measurement
265 of some CYP enzyme activities which included the CYP 2E1, the expression of this

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266 cytochrome was evaluated by Western Blot (Fig. 2). Sage tea drinking for 14 days
267 increased significantly the amount of CYP 2E1 protein in females (24%) but it only
268 slightly increased in males (8%). In sage tea drinking mice, the decrease on CYP 2E1
269 protein induced by CCl₄ was most severe in females.

270 After bioactivation, CCl₄-induced hepatotoxicity is mediated by primary and
271 secondary bond formation of reactive species to critical cellular molecules such as
272 DNA, lipids, proteins or carbohydrates (Weber et al., 2003). Thus, detoxifying enzymes
273 (such as GST) and antioxidant enzymes (such as the pair GPox/GR) are important
274 against the cell stress situation caused by CCl₄. To monitor effects at this level, three
275 glutathione-related enzymes were measured (Table 3) and gender differences were
276 observed in all of them. The activity of GST in males was significantly increased by
277 sage tea drinking, as previously observed in other study (Lima et al., 2005). GPox
278 activity was also increased by sage tea drinking but significantly only in females.
279 Hepatic GSH is an important intracellular antioxidant that can scavenge free radicals
280 and could be important in the defense against radical-mediated hepatotoxicity.
281 Alterations in GSH and oxidized glutathione (GSSG) levels are therefore an important
282 indicator of oxidative stress. Comparing the groups where CCl₄ was not administered,
283 there was no effect of sage tea drinking on GSH and GSSG levels in male and female
284 mice (Table 3). Twenty four hours after CCl₄ administration, GSH levels decreased
285 significantly only in females from the sage tea drinking group. GSSG levels increased
286 significantly after CCl₄ administration in both genders but only in the sage tea drinking
287 groups (Table 3). This increase was significantly higher in females than males. As a
288 result, glutathione data also suggest higher cell damage induced by CCl₄ in the sage tea
289 drinking groups in females.

290 Finally, soluble protein measured after 10,000 × g centrifugation (Table 3)
291 corroborates the previous results. Comparing the groups where CCl₄ was not
292 administered, the higher soluble protein found in the sage tea drinking groups suggests
293 induction of protein expression. The decrease in soluble protein, with concomitant
294 precipitation of damaged proteins, found after the haloalkane administration suggests
295 higher toxicity of CCl₄ in the sage tea drinking groups and in females.

296

297 **4. Discussion**

298 In a previous study, sage tea drinking significantly increased (rat and mouse)
299 liver GST activity and protected against GSH depletion and lipid peroxidation induced
300 by an oxidant agent (Lima et al., 2005). Considering these beneficial effects on liver
301 antioxidant status the present study was carried out in order to evaluate whether sage tea
302 drinking would reduce the extent of hepatic injury induced by CCl₄ in male and female
303 mice. In a recently published work, GST was implicated as an important defence
304 mechanism during the early stages (1–6 h) of the CCl₄-induced liver injury (Dwivedi et
305 al., 2006). GST is a phase II enzyme that plays a key role in cellular detoxification of
306 xenobiotics, electrophiles and reactive oxygen species through their conjugation to GSH
307 (Mates, 2000). Besides an essential substrate to GST and GPox, GSH is also an
308 important intracellular antioxidant (hydrogen-donating compound) that spontaneously
309 neutralizes several electrophiles and reactive oxygen species (Lu, 1999). After
310 bioactivation of CCl₄, in addition to dangerous free radical formation and subsequent
311 reactive oxygen species formation, a sequence of chain reactions can be initiated that
312 leads to lipid peroxidation (Weber et al., 2003). Since sage tea drinking has also been
313 shown to decrease lipid peroxidation induced by *tert*-butyl hydroxide in rat hepatocyte
314 primary cultures (Lima et al, 2005), this also suggested here possible beneficial effects

315 against CCl₄. However, contrary to our hypothesis, sage tea drinking increased
316 significantly the CCl₄-induced hepatotoxicity in mice.

317 CCl₄ becomes toxic upon activation mainly through CYP 2E1, and an induction
318 or an over-expression of this cytochrome correlates with higher CCl₄ toxicity (Weber et
319 al., 2003; Chan et al., 2005). Sage tea drinking for 14 days increased the expression
320 level of CYP 2E1. In agreement with this, the activity of this cytochrome was also
321 slightly increased by sage tea drinking. This could provide an explanation for the higher
322 CCl₄ toxicity in tea drinking mice. CYP 2E1 protein is localized predominantly in the
323 central zone of the liver lobule (Forkert et al., 1991), which explains the typical
324 centrilobular region of hepatocyte injury observed after CCl₄ administration. This
325 pattern of centrilobular toxicity was more extensive in sage tea versus water drinking
326 mice. After CCl₄ bioactivation, the resulting CCl₃[•] radical binds covalently to CYP 2E1,
327 either to the active site of the enzyme or to the heme group, thereby causing suicide
328 inactivation (Weber et al., 2003). After drug administration to sage tea drinking mice,
329 CYP 2E1 levels, originally higher, decreased to significant lower levels. A decrease in
330 CYP 2E1 expression and activity after CCl₄ exposure seem to reflect inactivation of the
331 protein, which is consistent with the increased CCl₄ hepatotoxicity in this drinking
332 group. However, to confirm increased CCl₄ bioactivation through CYP 2E1 in sage tea
333 drinking mice than the water drinking cohorts, measurement of covalent binding of
334 ¹⁴CCl₄-derived radiolabel to liver tissue would have to be done. The simultaneous
335 increases in GST and GPox activities by sage tea drinking, and possibly other
336 detoxifying and antioxidant enzymes, seem to have been incapable of neutralizing
337 increased CCl₄ toxicity. Also, the previously observed beneficial effect of sage tea
338 against lipid peroxidation (Lima et al., 2005) seemed to be insufficient to block CCl₄-
339 induced damage. The increased levels of CYP 2E1 protein and activity induced by sage

340 tea drinking may, thus, at least in part, provide an explanation for the obtained results –
341 an herb-toxicant interaction between sage tea and CCl₄ that potentiated the haloalkane’s
342 toxicity.

343 Herb-drug interactions have been described for a variety of plants used as
344 phytomedicines, many of them by case reports of interactions between herbs and
345 pharmaceutical drugs (Izzo, 2005; Hu et al., 2005). CYP isozymes are particularly
346 vulnerable to modulation by the diverse active constituents of herbs (Zhou et al., 2003).
347 This important phase I drug-metabolizing enzyme system is responsible for the
348 metabolism of a variety of xenobiotics and some important endogenous substances such
349 as steroids and prostaglandins (Anzenbacher and Anzenbacherova, 2001; Tamasi et al.,
350 2003). Although CYP-mediated reactions are primarily detoxification processes, certain
351 substrates are metabolically activated resulting in the generation of reactive
352 intermediates with increased toxicity and mutagenicity (Jaeschke et al., 2002; Tamasi et
353 al., 2003). Many pharmaceutical drugs are also metabolized by these phase I enzymes
354 and modulation of CYPs by herbs may either exacerbate the undesirable effects (by
355 increasing toxicity) or antagonize the actions (by increasing clearance) of concurrent
356 medical therapy (Stedman, 2002). In addition, severe hepatic injury may be caused by
357 chemicals or natural toxins metabolically activated by drug-metabolizing enzymes as a
358 result of occupational, household or environmental exposure, emphasizing the need for
359 understanding mechanisms of action of herbal extracts. Thus, although interspecies
360 differences in xenobiotic metabolism are well documented (Caldwell, 1992), the drug-
361 toxicant interaction between sage tea and CCl₄ reported here highlight possible herb-
362 drug interactions between this extract and drugs metabolized by the liver. However, as
363 far as we know, there were no reports of drug-drug interactions between sage tea and
364 pharmaceutical drugs or environmental contaminants. In this particular study, where a

365 herb-drug interaction was observed, sage tea replaced almost 100% the water that the
366 animal consumed, since food is provided as dry pellets. Therefore, by taking 1 or 2 cups
367 of sage tea, a person never reaches the dose of sage extract ingested by mice in this
368 study. So, it seems that the moderate, traditional drinking of sage tea by people most
369 likely does not result in adverse interactions with other drugs. It should, however, be
370 kept in mind that, if a phytomedicine with a higher dose of sage is taken over an
371 extended period of time, an opportunity for enzyme induction could occur and
372 undesirable interactions take place. Additionally, interindividual differences in drug
373 metabolism, for example due to genetic polymorphism of CYP genes (Tamasi et al.,
374 2003; Wu and Cederbaum, 2005), could increase the susceptibility of different
375 populations or individuals for herb-drug interactions.

376 Many of these drug-metabolizing enzymes and also antioxidant enzymes are
377 known to be gender dependent (Chaubey et al., 1994; Clewell et al., 2002; Sverko et al.,
378 2004), which may ultimately differentially affect the toxicity of drugs between male and
379 female individuals of the same specie (Kato and Yamazoe, 1992; Meibohm et al., 2002;
380 Chanas et al., 2003). The hepatotoxicity of CCl₄ to females was higher than to males in
381 both drinking groups. Looking to all measured parameters, several gender differences
382 were observed which can explain the higher toxicity to female mice. In terms of drug
383 bioactivation, although the activity of CYP 2E1 was lower in females, the expression of
384 CYP 2E1, the activity of CYP 2B family and the activity of CYPR were higher in
385 females which seems to indicate an increased ability to metabolise CCl₄ in females. In
386 terms of cell defences against drug-induced injury, although GPox activity was higher
387 in females, GST activity is significantly higher in males. At least during the initial stage
388 of CCl₄-induced hepatotoxicity, GST is more likely to confer protection, since CCl₄
389 toxicity is mediated by strong free radicals.

390 These CYP modulatory as well as antioxidant effects of plant extracts have often
391 been attributed to phenolic and monoterpenic compounds (Elegbede et al., 1993;
392 Banerjee et al., 1995; Birt et al., 2001; Ren et al., 2003; Ferguson et al., 2004).
393 Flavonoids are a diverse group of polyphenols that are produced by several plants
394 (Havsteen, 2002). In relation to phase I and phase II drug-metabolizing enzymes,
395 flavonoids have been reported to possess several modulatory effects, either inducing or
396 decreasing the expression of these enzymes and also either as potent inhibitors or
397 stimulators of enzyme activities, depending on structure, concentration, and assay
398 conditions (Zhou et al., 2003; Ferguson et al., 2004). Rosmarinic acid is the predominant
399 phenolic compound in sage tea (Lima et al., 2005). The oral administration of
400 rosmarinic acid in rats was previously shown not to induce phase I and phase II
401 enzymes (Debersac et al., 2001), and, therefore, was possibly not the responsible for the
402 effects observed in our study. Luteolin-7-glucoside, the major flavonoid present in sage
403 tea, and also monoterpenes present in the essential oil fraction, could, on the other hand,
404 be good candidates. However, pre-treatment of rats with luteolin-7-glucoside was
405 recently found to protect significantly against CCl₄-induced toxicity, and its effects
406 attributed to the compound's antioxidant properties acting as scavenger of reactive
407 oxygen species (Zheng et al., 2004). Most likely, the sage tea effects observed here were
408 a result of interactions and synergisms among the different compounds and metabolites
409 present, which makes it difficult to attribute them to any particular compound or family
410 of compounds.

411 In conclusion, the present work showed that sage tea drinking for 14 days
412 significantly potentiated CCl₄-induced hepatic injury in mice, to a higher degree in
413 females, as a result, at least in part, of an induction of CYP 2E1. In addition, although
414 sage tea did not have toxic effects of its own and in fact seemed to improve the

415 antioxidant status of the liver, the observed herb-toxicant interaction may affect the
416 efficacy and safety of concurrent medical therapy with drugs that are metabolized by
417 phase I enzymes.

418

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Results (tables)

Table 1 – Effect of sage tea drinking for 14 days on CCl₄-induced hepatotoxicity as observed by liver histological examinations.

Microscopic observation	Drinking group	Male		Female	
		without CCl ₄	with CCl ₄	without CCl ₄	with CCl ₄
Hepatocyte degeneration (ballooning)	water	0	++	0	++
	sage tea	0	++++	0	++++
Hepatocyte necrosis	water	0	+	0	++
	sage tea	0	+++	0	++++
Infiltration of leukocytes (inflammation)	water	+	+++	+	+++
	sage tea	+	++++	+	++++

0 - absent; + - few; ++ - mild; +++ - moderate; ++++ - severe; +++++ - extremely severe.

Table 2 – Effects of sage tea drinking (for 14 days) and CCl₄ on CYP activities in mice liver.

Enzyme	Drinking group	Male		Female	
		without CCl ₄	with CCl ₄	without CCl ₄	with CCl ₄
CYP 1A (pmol/min/mg)	water	52.8 ± 3.1 ^a	39.3 ± 3.4 ^b	46.9 ± 4.8 ^a	33.1 ± 2.2 ^b
	sage tea	58.8 ± 2.4 ^a	27.5 ± 1.4 ^c	53.0 ± 3.1 ^a	19.5 ± 3.2 ^c
CYP 2B (pmol/min/mg)	water	8.6 ± 0.7 ^a	7.7 ± 0.6 ^a	15.4 ± 2.9 ^a *	9.5 ± 0.9 ^b
	sage tea	9.3 ± 0.8 ^a	5.1 ± 0.5 ^a	14.3 ± 1.3 ^a *	6.7 ± 1.6 ^b
CYP 2E1 (pmol/min/mg)	water	0.63 ± 0.05 ^a	0.28 ± 0.04 ^b	0.51 ± 0.06 ^a *	0.26 ± 0.03 ^b
	sage tea	0.68 ± 0.02 ^a	0.16 ± 0.02 ^c	0.57 ± 0.04 ^a *	0.08 ± 0.03 ^c
CYPR (mU/mg)	water	15.2 ± 0.7 ^a	13.4 ± 0.3 ^b	19.1 ± 0.5 ^a *	17.8 ± 0.7 ^a *
	sage tea	15.8 ± 0.6 ^a	10.2 ± 0.5 ^c	23.2 ± 0.5 ^b *	12.2 ± 0.6 ^c *

Values are means ± SEM, n=5. Drinking groups of the same gender with the same letter notation are not significantly different from each other ($P > 0.05$). * $P < 0.05$, significantly different when compared with the same treatment group from males.

CYP 1A1/2, CYP 2B1/2, CYP 2E1, and CYPR represents EROD, PROD, PNP-H and CYP reductase activities, respectively.

Table 3 – Effects of sage tea drinking (for 14 days) and CCl₄ on glutathione-related enzymes, glutathione levels and soluble protein in mice livers.

Parameter	Drinking group	Male		Female	
		without CCl ₄	with CCl ₄	without CCl ₄	with CCl ₄
GST (mU/mg)	water	305 ± 15 ^a	307 ± 12 ^a	128 ± 5 ^{a*}	115 ± 6 ^{a*}
	sage tea	369 ± 30 ^b	237 ± 23 ^c	144 ± 4 ^{a*}	76 ± 8 ^{b*}
GPox (mU/mg)	water	432 ± 20 ^a	456 ± 14 ^a	779 ± 12 ^{a*}	772 ± 12 ^{a*}
	sage tea	493 ± 30 ^a	570 ± 25 ^b	888 ± 19 ^{b*}	694 ± 25 ^{c*}
GR (mU/mg)	water	24.1 ± 0.9 ^a	24.0 ± 0.3 ^a	20.1 ± 0.6 ^{a,b*}	21.1 ± 0.2 ^{a*}
	sage tea	25.2 ± 1.0 ^a	20.9 ± 1.1 ^b	22.4 ± 0.4 ^{a*}	18.3 ± 0.5 ^{b*}
GSH (nmol/mg liver)	water	7.61 ± 0.24 ^a	7.48 ± 0.22 ^a	7.46 ± 0.33 ^a	8.36 ± 0.16 ^a
	sage tea	6.53 ± 0.34 ^a	8.18 ± 0.56 ^a	6.71 ± 0.14 ^a	4.53 ± 1.09 ^{b*}
GSSG (nmol/mg liver)	water	0.26 ± 0.02 ^{a,b}	0.23 ± 0.02 ^{a,b}	0.19 ± 0.02 ^a	0.27 ± 0.06 ^a
	sage tea	0.19 ± 0.02 ^b	0.31 ± 0.03 ^a	0.22 ± 0.03 ^a	1.35 ± 0.20 ^{b*}
Protein (mg protein/g liver) ¹	water	195.7 ± 4.3 ^a	200.4 ± 2.8 ^a	194.1 ± 3.6 ^a	180.1 ± 1.2 ^{b*}
	sage tea	215.8 ± 4.3 ^b	171.7 ± 4.2 ^c	214.3 ± 2.9 ^c	154.8 ± 4.9 ^{d*}

¹ Liver soluble proteins measured in the supernatant after a centrifugation of 10,000 × g for 10 min at 4 °C by the Bradford reagent using bovine serum albumin as a standard.

Values are means ± SEM, n=5. Drinking groups of the same gender with the same letter notation are not significantly different from each other (P > 0.05). * P < 0.05, significantly different when compared with the same treatment group from males.

GST: glutathione-s-transferase; GPox: glutathione peroxidase; GR: glutathione reductase; GSH: glutathione (reduced form); GSSG: glutathione: oxidized form.

Results (figures)

Fig. 1 – Effects of sage tea drinking for 14 days on CCl₄-induced increase in plasma transaminase activities. (A) ALT: alanine aminotransferase; (B) AST: aspartate aminotransferase. Values are means \pm SEM, n=5. For statistical evaluation, these data were natural logarithm transformed in order to stabilize the variance. Drinking groups of the same gender with the same letter notation are not significantly different from each other ($P > 0.05$). * $P < 0.05$, significantly different when compared with the same treatment group from males.

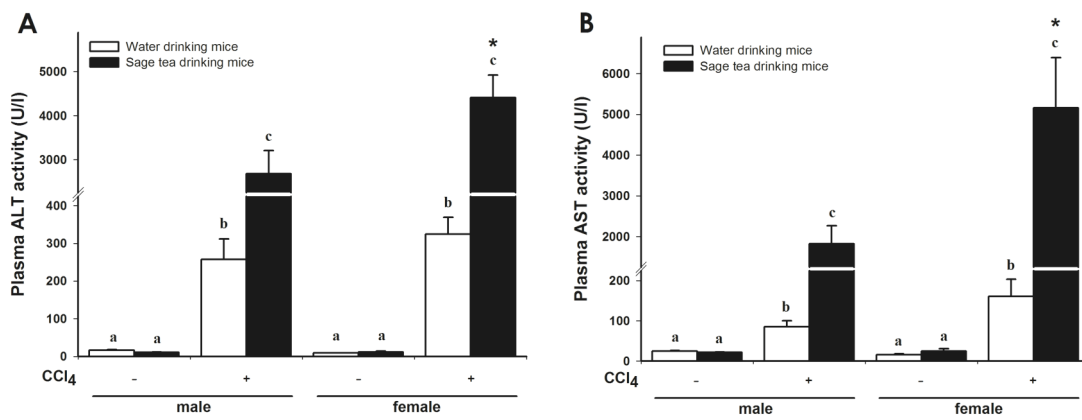


Fig. 2 – Effects of sage tea drinking (for 14 days) and CCl₄ on expression of CYP 2E1 in the liver of male and female mice. Each gel lane was loaded with fifteen µg of microsome proteins for the Western blotting analysis. (A) Results obtained from five mice of each group. Mean ± SEM. Groups of the same gender with the same letter notation are not significantly different from each other ($P > 0.05$). * $P < 0.05$, significantly different when compared with the same treatment group from males. (B) Representative images of the immunodetection of CYP 2E1 by Western Blot from 2 animals for each group.

