



# The Crucial Antioxidant Action of Schisandrin B in Protecting Against Carbon Tetrachloride Hepatotoxicity in Mice: A Comparative Study with Butylated Hydroxytoluene

Siu-Po Ip and Kam-Ming Ko\*

DEPARTMENT OF BIOCHEMISTRY, THE HONG KONG  
UNIVERSITY OF SCIENCE & TECHNOLOGY, CLEAR WATER BAY, KOWLOON, HONG KONG

**ABSTRACT.** A comparison between the effects of schisandrin B (Sch B) and butylated hydroxytoluene (BHT) treatments on hepatic antioxidant status was made to identify the critical antioxidant action of Sch B involved in hepatoprotection in mice. Whereas Sch B treatment (3 mmol/kg/day  $\times$  3, p.o.) increased the hepatic mitochondrial-reduced glutathione (GSH) level, BHT treatment at the same dosage regimen decreased it. However, both Sch B and BHT increased, albeit to a different extent, the activity of mitochondrial glutathione reductase. The differential effect of Sch B and BHT treatment on hepatic mitochondrial glutathione status became more apparent after carbon tetrachloride ( $\text{CCl}_4$ ) challenge. Pretreatment with Sch B could sustain the hepatic mitochondrial GSH level in  $\text{CCl}_4$ -intoxicated mice and protect against  $\text{CCl}_4$  hepatotoxicity. BHT pretreatment did not produce any protective effect on  $\text{CCl}_4$ -induced GSH depletion in mitochondrion and hepatocellular damage. Although both Sch B and BHT treatments increased hepatic ascorbic acid (VC) level in control animals, only Sch B pretreatment sustained a high hepatic VC level in  $\text{CCl}_4$ -intoxicated mice. Moreover, Sch B pretreatment prevented the  $\text{CCl}_4$ -induced decrease in the hepatic  $\alpha$ -tocopherol (VE) level. However, Sch B inhibited NADPH oxidation in mouse liver microsomes incubated with  $\text{CCl}_4$  *in vitro*, whereas BHT stimulated this oxidation. The ensemble of results suggests that the ability to sustain the hepatic mitochondrial GSH level and the hepatic VC and VE levels may represent the crucial antioxidant action of Sch B in protection against  $\text{CCl}_4$  hepatotoxicity. The possible inhibition of  $\text{CCl}_4$  metabolism by Sch B may also contribute to its hepatoprotective action. Copyright © 1996 Elsevier Science Inc. BIOCHEM PHARMACOL 52;11:1687–1693, 1996.

**KEY WORDS.** *Schisandra chinensis*; schisandrin B; butylated hydroxytoluene; glutathione; ascorbic acid;  $\alpha$ -tocopherol

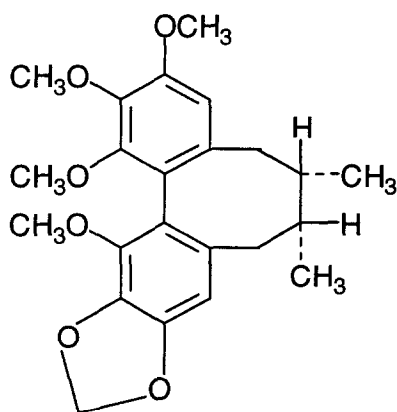
FS,† the fruit of *Schisandra chinensis*, has been used in traditional Chinese medicine as a tonic and sedative for centuries. In recent years, it has been clinically used in the treatment of viral and chemical hepatitis [1]. Previous studies in our laboratory have shown that pretreatment with a lignan-enriched extract of FS protected against  $\text{CCl}_4$  hepatotoxicity in rats [2]. Hepatoprotection was associated with an enhanced hepatic glutathione status, as reflected by an increase in the GSH level and a decrease in susceptibility of GSH to *in vitro* peroxide-induced depletion [3]. Sch B, a lignoid compound isolated from FS (see Fig. 1a), also protected against  $\text{CCl}_4$  hepatotoxicity in mice, presumably

by enhancing the hepatic glutathione antioxidant system through increasing the activities of GRD (EC 1.6.4.2), glutathione S-transferases (EC 2.5.1.18) and the hepatic GSH level [3].  $\text{CCl}_4$  is mainly metabolized in the liver by the cytochrome P450 system. The metabolism of  $\text{CCl}_4$  produces trichloromethyl radicals and other oxidant species that can inactivate cellular macromolecules and initiate lipid peroxidation reactions [4, 5]. In this regard, the hepatoprotective effect of Sch B on  $\text{CCl}_4$ -induced toxicity has been attributed to the inhibition of binding of  $\text{CCl}_4$  metabolites to liver microsomal lipids and  $\text{CCl}_4$ -induced lipid peroxidation [6]. Whereas BHT, a synthetic phenolic antioxidant (see Fig. 1b), produced a similar effect on the activity of hepatic glutathione antioxidant enzymes such as Sch B [3, 7], pretreatment with BHT did not protect against  $\text{CCl}_4$ -induced hepatocellular damage in mice (unpublished data). Given the differential action of Sch B and BHT toward  $\text{CCl}_4$  hepatotoxicity, a comparison between their effect on hepatic antioxidant status may help to identify the critical factor(s) involved in the hepatoprotective action of Sch B. In the present study, we examined the effect of Sch

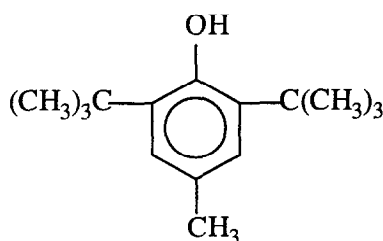
\* Corresponding author. FAX: (852) 2358 1552; TEL: (852) 2358 7298.

† Abbreviations: ALT, alanine aminotransferase; BHT, butylated hydroxytoluene;  $\text{CCl}_4$ , carbon tetrachloride; FS, fructus *Schisandrae*; GRD, glutathione reductase; GSH, reduced glutathione; GSSG, oxidized glutathione; MDA, malondialdehyde; Sch B, schisandrin B; Tris, Tris(hydroxymethyl) aminomethane; VC, ascorbic acid; VE,  $\alpha$ -tocopherol.

Received 4 January 1996; accepted 3 July 1996.



(a)



(b)

FIG. 1. Structures of (a) Sch B and (b) BHT.

B and BHT treatment on hepatic antioxidant status in control and  $\text{CCl}_4$ -intoxicated mice. The experimental results suggest that the ability to sustain the hepatic mitochondrial GSH level and hepatic VC and VE levels may be a critical factor in the hepatoprotective action of Sch B against  $\text{CCl}_4$  toxicity.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

### Chemicals

GSH, GSSG, VC and VE were purchased from Sigma Chemical Co. (St. Louis, MO, USA). All other chemicals were of analytical grade. Solvents used for high-performance liquid chromatography were of HPLC grade; they were filtered and degassed prior to use. Dried fruits of *Schisandra chinensis* were imported from China. Sch B was purified from the petroleum ether extract of *Schisandra chinensis* as described in [3].

### Animal Treatment

Female Balb/c mice (24–26 g) were maintained on a 12-hr light/dark cycle at 22°C and allowed food and water *ad*

*libitum*. Animals were randomly assigned to groups of 10 individuals. In the pretreatment groups, animals were treated intragastrically with Sch B or BHT at a daily dose of 3 mmol/kg for 3 days. Twenty-four hours after the last dosing, animals were administered an oral dose of  $\text{CCl}_4$  (1%, v/v, in olive oil) at 1.0 mmol/kg. Control animals were given the vehicle (i.e. olive oil, 1 mL/kg). Twenty-four hours after intoxication, heparinized blood samples were drawn from ether-anesthetized mice by cardiac puncture, and the animals were killed by cardiac excision thereafter.

### Sample Preparation

Plasma samples were obtained by centrifuging the whole blood at 2000g at 4°C. Hepatic tissue samples were excised and rinsed with ice-cold homogenizing buffer (50 mM Tris, 0.1 mM EDTA, pH 7.6). Tissue homogenate was prepared by homogenizing 1 g of hepatic tissue sample in 10 mL ice-cold homogenizing buffer with two 10-sec bursts of a tissue disintegrator (Ika Ultra Turax T25) at 135,000 rpm. Hepatic mitochondrial fraction was prepared by differential centrifugation in isotonic buffer (0.25 mM sucrose, 0.1 mM EDTA, 5 mM Tris, pH 7.4) as described [8].

### Biochemical Analysis

Plasma ALT (EC 2.6.1.2) activity was measured by using an assay kit from Sigma Chemical Co. GRD activity was determined as described by Godin and Garnett [9].

GSH and GSSG levels were measured by an HPLC method modified from Reed *et al.* [10]. Samples of hepatic homogenate or mitochondrial fraction were derivatized with iodoacetic acid and 1-fluoro-2,4-dinitrobenzene. A commercially available  $\mu$ -Bondapak  $\text{NH}_2$  C-18 column (200 mm  $\times$  3.9 mm I.D., Waters) was used. Solvent A consisted of methanol-water (4:1, v/v) and solvent B was obtained by mixing 109 g anhydrous sodium acetate with 210 mL Milli-Q water, 150 mL acetic acid and 640 mL methanol. An aliquot (20  $\mu\text{L}$ ) of the samples was injected through a Waters 717 Autosampler maintained at 4°C. The gradient for HPLC analysis started with a 10-min isocratic period of 20% solvent B at a flow rate of 1 mL/min. Solvent B was then increased linearly to 60% over the next 10 min. After another 5-min isocratic period, the proportion of solvent B was reduced to 20% in 1 min. The separation was monitored by a Waters 996 Photodiode Array Detector and the eluted peaks were extracted at 355 nm. The detection limit for GSH and GSSG was 1  $\mu\text{M}$ .

Plasma and hepatic VC levels were determined by HPLC according to the method of Liao *et al.* [11], with minor modifications. Briefly, 100  $\mu\text{L}$  of plasma or hepatic homogenate were deproteinized by incubating with 100  $\mu\text{L}$  mobile phase (20 mM ammonium dihydrogenphosphate, 0.15%, w/v meta-phosphoric acid, pH 2.95), and the mixture was centrifuged at 3000g for 10 min. An aliquot (20  $\mu\text{L}$ ) of the supernatants was injected as described above. The sample was analyzed by a  $\mu$ -Bondapak C-18 column (200 mm  $\times$  3.9

**TABLE 1. Effect of Sch B and BHT pretreatment on CCl<sub>4</sub>-induced hepatotoxicity in mice**

	Plasma ALT (U/L)	
	Non-CCl <sub>4</sub>	CCl <sub>4</sub>
CON	13.5 ± 1.0	11200 ± 300†
Sch B	14.4 ± 1.6	26.3 ± 3.5‡
BHT	40.5 ± 5.9†	21300 ± 690†‡

Values given are the mean ± SEM, n = 10. †Significantly different from the non-CCl<sub>4</sub> CON, control; ‡significantly different from the CCl<sub>4</sub>-treated CON.

mm I.D., Waters) using the mobile phase maintained at a flow rate of 1 mL/min at room temperature. The separation was monitored by a Waters 996 Photodiode Array Detector and the eluted peaks were extracted at 245 nm.

Plasma and hepatic VE levels were determined by HPLC as described by Sadrzadeh *et al.* [23], with minor modifications. Briefly, VE from plasma or hepatic homogenate was extracted into hexane and dried under a stream of nitrogen. The dried sample was resuspended in methanol and then injected as described above. The sample was analyzed by a  $\mu$ -Bondapak C-18 column (200 mm × 3.9 mm I.D., Waters) using methanol as the mobile phase maintained at a flow rate of 1 mL/min at room temperature. The eluant was monitored by a Waters 474 Scanning Fluorescence Detector set at excitation and emission wavelengths of 292 nm and 330 nm, respectively. All chromatographic data were recorded and analyzed by computer software (Millennium 2010 Chromatography Manager, Waters).

#### ***In Vitro* Metabolism of CCl<sub>4</sub> in Mouse Liver Microsomes**

Balb/c mice (24–26 g) were pretreated with phenobarbital at a daily dose of 100 mg/kg (i.p.) for 3 consecutive days before the preparation of hepatic microsomes. Measurement of *in vitro* CCl<sub>4</sub> metabolism was performed according to the method modified from Wolf *et al.* [4]. Microsomal incubations used in the determination of lipid peroxidation contained 2 mg/mL microsomal protein, 1 mM NADPH, 10 mM CCl<sub>4</sub> and 0.1  $\mu$ M Sch B or BHT in 0.1 M Tris-HCl

buffer, pH 7.6. The reaction mixtures were incubated at 37°C for 10 min, and MDA formation, an indirect index of lipid peroxidation, was determined using the HPLC method as described in Young and Trimble [13]. NADPH oxidation of the reaction mixture, containing 1 mg/mL microsomal protein, 0.5 mM NADPH, 10 mM CCl<sub>4</sub> and 0.2  $\mu$ M Sch B or BHT, was monitored at 340 nm under the same incubation conditions for 5 min.

#### **Statistical Analysis**

Data were analyzed by one-way analysis of variance followed by Duncan's multiple range test to detect intergroup differences. Significant difference was determined when  $P < 0.05$ .

#### **RESULTS**

BHT treatment (3 mmol/kg/day ×3, p.o.) caused a slight but significant increase in plasma ALT activity, an indication of hepatocellular damage (Table 1). Sch B treatment (3 mmol/kg/day ×3, p.o.) did not produce any detectable change. CCl<sub>4</sub> treatment (1.0 mmol/kg, p.o.) caused hepatocellular damage in mice, as shown by a drastic increase in plasma ALT activity. Pretreating mice with Sch B at the same dosage regimen completely prevented CCl<sub>4</sub>-induced hepatotoxicity, as indicated by a precipitous drop in plasma ALT activity compared with that of the untreated and CCl<sub>4</sub>-intoxicated control. The hepatocellular damaging effect of BHT was aggravated after CCl<sub>4</sub> challenge, as indicated by a onefold increase in plasma ALT activity compared with the untreated and CCl<sub>4</sub>-intoxicated control.

Sch B treatment caused a significant increase in the mitochondrial GSH level and a reciprocal decrease in the GSSG level, with a resultant elevation in the mitochondrial GSH:GSSG ratio, an index of glutathione redox status (Table 2). BHT treatment decreased both mitochondrial GSH and GSSG levels but did not cause significant alteration in the GSH:GSSG ratio. Following CCl<sub>4</sub> intoxication, hepatic mitochondrial glutathione redox status was greatly impaired, as indicated by a drastic decrease in the mitochondrial GSH level and a large increase in the GSSG level. Whereas the favorable mitochondrial GSH:GSSG

**TABLE 2. Effect of Sch B and BHT treatment on hepatic mitochondrial glutathione antioxidant status**

	GSH (nmol/mg protein)	GSSG (nmol/mg protein)	GSH/GSSG	GRD (mU/mg protein)
Non-CCl <sub>4</sub>				
CON	4.59 ± 0.47	0.425 ± 0.031	11.0 ± 1.44	12.5 ± 0.22
Sch B	6.25 ± 0.66†	0.188 ± 0.034†	35.7 ± 3.33†	26.5 ± 0.98†
BHT	3.27 ± 0.23	0.244 ± 0.026†	14.0 ± 1.80	18.4 ± 0.62†
CCl <sub>4</sub>				
CON	1.10 ± 0.51†	1.610 ± 0.230†	0.63 ± 0.23†	8.5 ± 0.52†
Sch B	6.69 ± 0.62†‡	0.313 ± 0.060‡	24.3 ± 4.34‡	22.6 ± 0.31†‡
BHT	ND	ND	ND	12.1 ± 0.49‡

Values given are the mean ± SEM, n = 10. †Significantly different from the non-CCl<sub>4</sub> CON; ‡significantly different from the CCl<sub>4</sub>-treated CON; ND, not detectable.

ratio was maintained in Sch B-treated mice after  $\text{CCl}_4$  challenge, mitochondrial GSH and GSSG levels became undetectable in BHT-pretreated and  $\text{CCl}_4$ -intoxicated mice. However, both Sch B and BHT treatments increased mitochondrial GRD activity in control and  $\text{CCl}_4$ -intoxicated mice, with the stimulatory action of Sch B being more potent (Table 2).

Although both Sch B and BHT treatments caused a significant increase in the hepatic VC level, the plasma VC level was significantly decreased in Sch B-treated animals compared with that of the control (Fig. 2).  $\text{CCl}_4$  intoxication decreased both hepatic and plasma VC levels to a large extent. Whereas both Sch B- and BHT-treated mice sustained a higher plasma VC level after  $\text{CCl}_4$  intoxication, Sch B treatment also prevented the  $\text{CCl}_4$ -induced decrease in the hepatic VC level. However, this hepatic VC level was drastically depleted in BHT-treated mice after  $\text{CCl}_4$  intoxication. Whereas both Sch B and BHT treatments decreased the hepatic VE level in control mice, the plasma VE level was increased in Sch B-treated mice (Fig. 3). There was no detectable change in plasma VE level in BHT-treated animals.  $\text{CCl}_4$  intoxication caused significant decreases in both hepatic and plasma VE levels compared

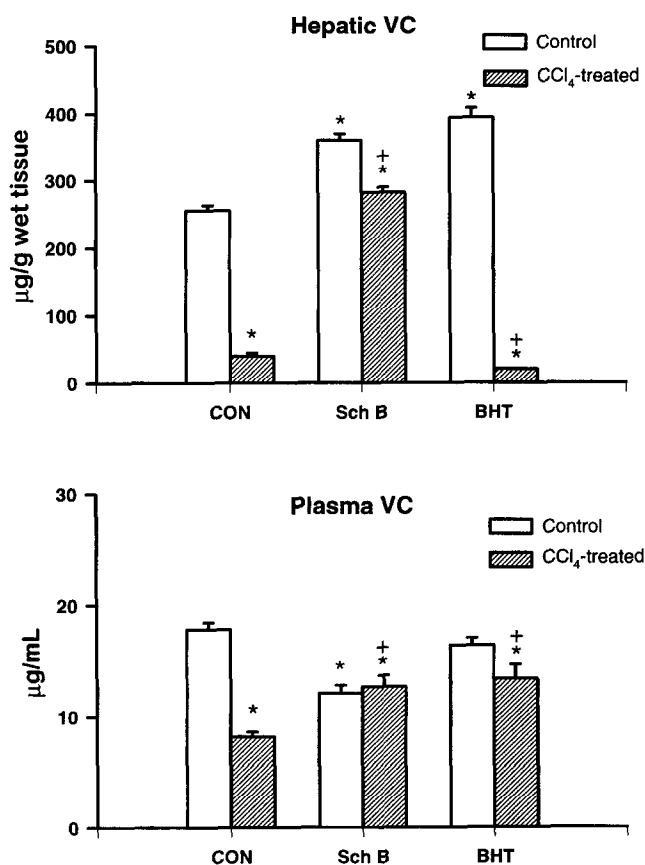


FIG. 2. Effect of Sch B and BHT treatment on hepatic and plasma ascorbic acid levels. Each bar represents the mean  $\pm$  SEM,  $n = 10$ . \*Significantly different from the non- $\text{CCl}_4$  CON group; †significantly different from the  $\text{CCl}_4$ -treated CON group.

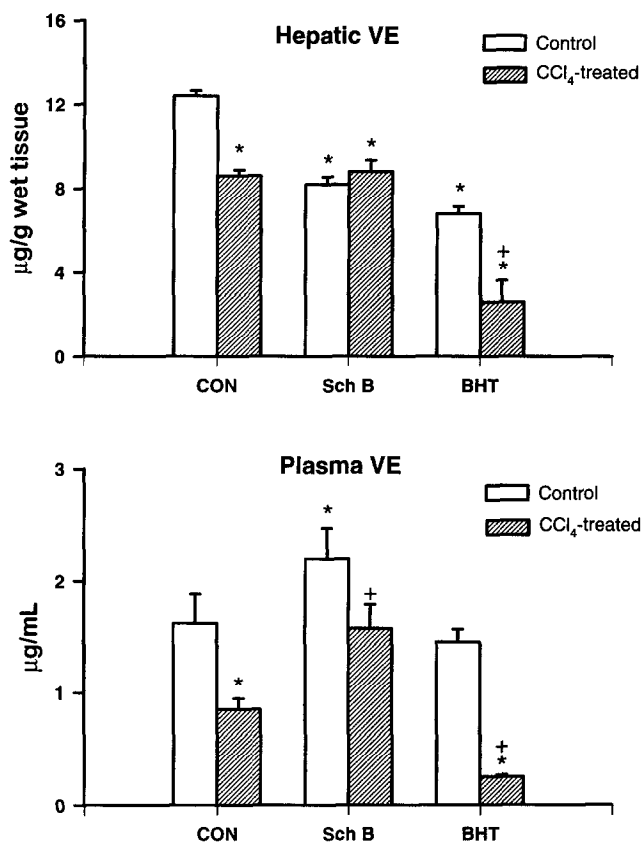


FIG. 3. Effect of Sch B and BHT treatment on hepatic and plasma VE levels. Each bar represents the mean  $\pm$  SEM,  $n = 10$ . \*Significantly different from the non- $\text{CCl}_4$  CON group; †significantly different from the  $\text{CCl}_4$ -treated CON group.

with those of the non- $\text{CCl}_4$  control. The hepatic VE level was not further decreased by  $\text{CCl}_4$  intoxication in Sch B-treated mice, but the plasma VE level was reduced back to the value of non- $\text{CCl}_4$  control animals. However, both hepatic and plasma VE levels were largely depleted in BHT-treated animals after  $\text{CCl}_4$  intoxication.

As shown in Table 3, the incubation of mouse microsomes with  $\text{CCl}_4$  caused a drastic increase in lipid peroxidation *in vitro*, as indicated by a 3.5-fold increase in MDA formation and a 17% increase in the rate of NADPH oxidation.  $\text{CCl}_4$ -induced lipid peroxidation in mouse liver

TABLE 3. Effect of Sch B and BHT on  $\text{CCl}_4$ -induced lipid peroxidation and NADPH oxidation in hepatic microsomes from phenobarbital-treated mice

	MDA (nmol/min/mg)	NADPH Oxidized (nmol/min/mg)
CON	0.087 $\pm$ 0.001	16.7 $\pm$ 0.41
$\text{CCl}_4$ -CON	0.394 $\pm$ 0.001	19.6 $\pm$ 0.44
$\text{CCl}_4$ -Sch B	0.129 $\pm$ 0.001†	11.8 $\pm$ 0.13†
$\text{CCl}_4$ -BHT	0.102 $\pm$ 0.002†	35.0 $\pm$ 1.1†

Values given are the mean  $\pm$  SEM,  $n = 5$ . †Significantly different from the  $\text{CCl}_4$ -CON. Sch B and BHT were added at a final concentration of 0.1  $\mu\text{M}$ .

microsomes was inhibited by both Sch B and BHT, as shown by the significant decrease in MDA formation. Under the same experimental conditions, Sch B inhibited NADPH oxidation by 40% (compared to CCl<sub>4</sub>-control) in microsomes incubated with CCl<sub>4</sub>; the resultant rate of NADPH oxidation was lower than that of control microsomal incubation without CCl<sub>4</sub>. However, the incubation of microsomes with BHT in the presence of CCl<sub>4</sub> increased the rate of NADPH oxidation by 78%.

## DISCUSSION

BHT is widely used as an antioxidant in processed foods, cosmetics and petroleum products. However, the use of BHT is limited by its toxicity. High doses of BHT have been reported to cause hemorrhagic death and liver damage in rats [14], and pulmonary injury in mice [15]. Our observation of the BHT-induced hepatocellular damage in mice is consistent with these findings. Sch B, when administered at the same dosage regimen as BHT, did not cause any detectable hepatic damage (Table 1). Our finding suggests that Sch B may be a more effective *in vivo* antioxidant than BHT. Consistent with this notion, BHT has been found to possess prooxidant activity [16].

The biochemical mechanism involved in the development of CCl<sub>4</sub> hepatotoxicity has long been investigated: it is now generally believed that the formation of reactive trichloromethyl radicals from CCl<sub>4</sub> metabolism is a crucial factor in the pathogenesis of CCl<sub>4</sub> hepatotoxicity [4]. The findings that CCl<sub>4</sub> toxicity could be ameliorated by pretreatment with inhibitors of CCl<sub>4</sub> metabolism [17] and antioxidants [18] support this notion. In this connection, Sch B has been shown to inhibit CCl<sub>4</sub> metabolism in mouse liver microsomes, as assessed by the measurement of carbon monoxide production and cofactor utilization [19]. This result is consistent with our finding that Sch B inhibited the CCl<sub>4</sub>-induced NADPH oxidation in mouse liver microsomes (Table 3). In contrast, BHT was found to increase the rate of NADPH oxidation under the same experimental conditions. Because BHT could also stimulate NADPH oxidation in liver microsomes without CCl<sub>4</sub> (data not shown), the increase in NADPH oxidation was likely due to the metabolism of BHT by NADPH-dependent microsomal enzymes [20]. Although both Sch B and BHT acted as free radical scavengers in the inhibition of lipid peroxidation *in vitro* (Table 3), the ability of Sch B to suppress the cytochrome P-450-mediated metabolism of CCl<sub>4</sub> may also contribute to its hepatoprotective action.

The expression of chemically induced cellular toxicity has been correlated with mitochondrial GSH depletion subsequent to the loss of cytosolic GSH [21]. Because the GSH-mediated reduction of protein thiols in the mitochondrion is critical for cell viability [22], the maintenance of mitochondrial glutathione redox status is therefore important to protect against xenobiotic-induced hepatic dam-

age. In this regard, CCl<sub>4</sub> hepatotoxicity has been shown to be strongly related to mitochondrial functional changes secondary to alterations in mitochondrial thiols and calcium ion concentration [23]. Our results indicate that Sch B treatment enhanced hepatic mitochondrial glutathione redox status by increasing the GSH level and decreasing the GSSG level in liver mitochondria prepared from control or CCl<sub>4</sub>-intoxicated mice (Table 2). It has been reported that CCl<sub>4</sub> can undergo reductive metabolism in the mitochondrion [24]. The resultant formation of toxic oxidant species can lead to the accumulation of mitochondrial GSSG arising from the GSH-mediated detoxification reactions. Although Sch B-treated mice maintained a favorable mitochondrial glutathione redox status after CCl<sub>4</sub> intoxication, mitochondrial GSH and GSSG levels were reduced to undetectable levels in BHT-pretreated mice (Table 2). The observation of increased mitochondrial GRD activity in BHT-pretreated and CCl<sub>4</sub>-challenged animals indicates that the extremely low levels of mitochondrial GSH and GSSG were not likely due to the nonspecific leakage caused by mechanical disruption of mitochondrial structural integrity during the preparative procedure. Owing to the absence of enzymes necessary for GSH synthesis in mitochondria [25], the compartmentalized pool of mitochondrial GSH has to be sequestered from cytosolic GSH through receptor-mediated transport [26]. The increase in mitochondrial GSH, as shown in Sch B-treated mice (Table 2), may be due to the facilitation of GSH import from the cytosolic compartment to the mitochondrion. Similarly, the BHT-induced depletion in mitochondrial GSH may be related to the decrease in cytosolic GSH caused by BHT metabolism [27], thereby reducing the GSH import to the mitochondrion. Because liver mitochondria cannot export GSSG [28], the decrease in the mitochondrial GSSG level is mainly mediated by the GRD-catalyzed reduction of GSSG back into GSH, which is consistent with our finding that the increase in mitochondrial GRD activity was associated with a corresponding decrease in the mitochondrial GSSG level in both Sch B- and BHT-treated animals (Table 2).

Nonenzymatic antioxidants such as GSH, VC and VE may work synergistically in cellular antioxidant defense [29, 30]. GSH and VC are water-soluble antioxidants that serve as the first line of defense in combating free radicals [31]. In this regard, drastic decreases in hepatic and plasma VC levels were observed in mice after CCl<sub>4</sub> intoxication (Fig. 2). It has been reported that GSH can facilitate the regeneration of VC from its oxidized form [32]. The ability of Sch B treatment to enhance the hepatic VC level may therefore be related to the favorable glutathione redox status induced by Sch B [3]. In contrast, the failure of BHT to maintain hepatic VC level may reflect a shortage of GSH supply for the regenerative process in CCl<sub>4</sub>-intoxicated mice. The Sch B-induced depletion of plasma VC in control animals may be attributed to the redistribution of VC among tissues, as suggested by the concomitant increase in the hepatic VC

level. In contrast to the  $\text{CCl}_4$ -induced drastic depletion of hepatic VC, plasma VC was maintained at a higher level in BHT-pretreated mice than that of the  $\text{CCl}_4$  control. The complex interaction between BHT and VC metabolism remains to be elucidated. With regard to the lipid-soluble antioxidant VE,  $\text{CCl}_4$  intoxication caused a significant depletion in both hepatic and plasma VE levels in control mice (Fig. 3). GSH might maintain tissue VE level either by direct reduction of  $\alpha$ -tocopheroxyl radical to VE or via the reductive action of VC [33]. The ability of Sch B treatment to maintain the hepatic VE level under the oxidative stress condition may therefore be an event secondary to the enhanced hepatic glutathione and ascorbate redox status.

In conclusion, the ability of Sch B, in striking contrast to that of BHT, to sustain the hepatic mitochondrial GSH level and hepatic VC and VE levels may represent the crucial antioxidant action of Sch B in the protection against  $\text{CCl}_4$  hepatotoxicity. The possible inhibition of  $\text{CCl}_4$  metabolism by Sch B may also contribute to its hepatoprotective action.

*This work was supported in part by a grant from the Biotechnology Research Institute, Hong Kong. We are grateful to the technical assistance of Michel Poon.*

## References

- Li XY, Bioactivity of neolignans from fructus Schizandrae. *Mem Inst Oswaldo Cruz* **86**: 31–37, 1991.
- Ko KM, Ip SP, Poon MKT, Wu SS, Che CT, Ng KH and Kong YC, Effect of a lignan-enriched Fructus Schizandrae extract on hepatic glutathione status in rats: Protection against carbon tetrachloride toxicity. *Planta Med* **61**: 134–137, 1995.
- Ip SP, Poon MKT, Wu SS, Che CT, Ng KH, Kong YC and Ko KM, Effect of schisandrin B on hepatic glutathione antioxidant system in mice: protection against carbon tetrachloride toxicity. *Planta Med* **61**: 398–401, 1995.
- Wolf CR, Harrelson WG Jr, Nastainczyk WM, Philpot RM, Kalyanaraman B and Mason RP, Metabolism of carbon tetrachloride in hepatic microsomes and reconstituted monooxygenase systems and its relationship to lipid peroxidation. *Mol Pharmacol* **18**: 553–558, 1980.
- Yamamoto H, Nagano T and Hirobe M, Carbon tetrachloride toxicity on *Escherichia coli* exacerbated by superoxide. *J Biol Chem* **263**: 12224–12227, 1988.
- Liu KT, Cresteil T, Columelli S and Lesca P, Pharmacological properties of dibenzof[a,c]cyclooctene derivatives isolated from Fructus Schizandrae chinensis. II. Induction of phenobarbital-like hepatic monooxygenases. *Chem Biol Interact* **39**: 315–330, 1982.
- Awasthi YC, Partridge CA and Dao DD, Effect of butylated hydroxytoluene on glutathione S-transferase and glutathione peroxidase activities in rat liver. *Biochem Pharmacol* **32**: 1197–1200, 1983.
- Evans WH, Isolation and characterization of membranes and cell organelles. In: *Preparative Centrifugation: A Practical Approach* (Ed. Rickwood D), pp. 233–270. Oxford University Press, New York, 1992.
- Godin DV and Garnett ME, Species-related variations in tissue antioxidant status—I. Differences in antioxidant enzyme profiles. *Comp Biochem Physiol B* **103**: 737–742, 1992.
- Reed DJ, Babson JR, Beatty PW, Brodie AE, Ellis WW and Potter DW, High-performance liquid chromatography analysis of nanomole levels of glutathione, glutathione disulfide, and related thiols and disulfides. *Anal Biochem* **106**: 55–62, 1980.
- Liau LS, Lee BL, New AL and Ong CN, Determination of plasma ascorbic acid by high-performance liquid chromatography with ultraviolet and electrochemical detection. *J Chromatogr* **612**: 63–70, 1993.
- Sadrzadeh SMH, Nanji AA and Meydani M, Effect of chronic ethanol feeding on plasma and liver  $\alpha$ - and  $\gamma$ -tocopherol levels in normal and vitamin E-deficient rats: Relationship to lipid peroxidation. *Biochem Pharmacol* **47**: 2005–2010, 1994.
- Young IS and Trimble ER, Measurement of malondialdehyde in plasma by high performance liquid chromatography with fluorimetric detection. *Annu Clin Biochem* **28**: 504–508, 1991.
- Nakagawa Y, Hiraga K and Suga T, Biological fate of butylated hydroxytoluene (BHT): Binding of BHT metabolites to cysteine in vitro. *Biochem Pharmacol* **30**: 887–890, 1981.
- Nakagawa Y, Hiraga K and Suga T, On the mechanism of covalent binding of butylated hydroxytoluene to microsomal protein. *Biochem Pharmacol* **32**: 1417–1421, 1983.
- Kahl R, Weinke S and Kappus H, Comparison of antioxidant and prooxidant activity of various synthetic antioxidants. *Adv Exp Med Biol* **264**: 283–290, 1990.
- Brady JF, Xiao F, Wang MH, Li Y, Ning SM, Gapac JM and Yang CS, Effects of disulfiram on hepatic P450IIE1, other microsomal enzymes, and hepatotoxicity in rats. *Toxicol Appl Pharmacol* **108**: 366–373, 1991.
- Min KS, Terano Y, Onosaka S and Tanaka K, Induction of metallothionein synthesis by menadione or carbon tetrachloride is independent of free radical production. *Toxicol Appl Pharmacol* **113**: 74–79, 1992.
- Liu KT and Lesca, Pharmacological properties of dibenzof[a,c]cyclooctene derivatives isolated from Fructus Schizandrae chinensis III. Inhibitory effects on carbon tetrachloride-induced lipid peroxidation, metabolism and covalent binding of carbon tetrachloride to lipids. *Chem Biol Interact* **41**: 39–47, 1982.
- Tajima K, Yamamoto K and Mizutani T, Formation of a glutathione conjugation from butylated hydroxytoluene by rat liver microsomes. *Biochem Pharmacol* **34**: 2109–2114, 1985.
- Pascoe GA and Reed DJ, Cell calcium, vitamin E, and the thiol redox system in cytotoxicity. *Free Rad Biol Med* **6**: 209–224, 1989.
- Pascoe GA, Olafsdottir K and Reed DJ, Vitamin E protection against chemical-induced cell injury. I. Maintenance of cellular protein thiols as a cytoprotective mechanism. *Arch Biochem Biophys* **256**: 150–158, 1987.
- Brattin WJ and Waller RL, Effect of halomethanes on intracellular calcium distribution in hepatocytes. *Life Sci* **35**: 1231–1240, 1984.
- Tomasi A, Albano E, Banni S, Botti B, Corongiu F, Dessi MA, Iannone A, Vannini V and Dianzani MU, Free-radical metabolism of carbon tetrachloride in rat liver mitochondria. *Biochem J* **246**: 313–317, 1987.
- Griffith OW and Meister A, Origin and turnover of mitochondrial glutathione in the isolated hepatocyte. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* **82**: 4668–4672, 1985.
- Garcia Ruiz C, Morales A, Colell A, Rodes J, Yi JR, Kaplowitz N and Fernandez Checa JC, Evidence that the rat hepatic mitochondrial carrier is distinct from the sinusoidal and canalicular transporters for reduced glutathione. Expression studies in *Xenopus laevis* oocytes. *J Biol Chem* **270**: 15946–15949, 1995.
- Nakagawa Y, Tayama K, Nakao T and Hiraga K, On the mechanism of butylated hydroxytoluene-induced hepatic toxicity in rats. *Biochem Pharmacol* **33**: 2669–2674, 1984.
- Olafsdottir K and Reed DJ, Retention of oxidized glutathione

- by isolated rat liver mitochondria during hydroperoxide treatment. *Biochim Biophys Acta* **964**: 377–382, 1988.
29. Meister A, Glutathione-ascorbic acid antioxidant system in animals. *J Biol Chem* **269**: 9397–9400, 1994.
30. Casini AF, Maellaro E, Del Bello B and Comporti M, The role of vitamin E in the hepatotoxicity by glutathione depleting agents. *Adv Exp Med Biol* **264**: 105–110, 1990.
31. Martensson J and Meister A, Glutathione deficiency decreases tissue ascorbate levels in newborn rats: Ascorbate spares glutathione and protects. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* **88**: 4656–4669, 1991.
32. Wells WW, Xu DP, Yang Y and Rocque PA, Mammalian thioltransferase (glutaredoxin) and protein disulfide isomerase have dehydroascorbate reductase activity. *J Biol Chem* **265**: 15361–15364, 1990.
33. Chan AC, Tran K, Raynor T, Ganz PR and Chow CK, Regeneration of vitamin E in human platelets. *J Biol Chem* **266**: 17290–17295, 1991.