

# **Plants containing Pyrrolizidine Alkaloids - Toxicity and Problems**

Helmut Wiedenfeld

## **To cite this version:**

Helmut Wiedenfeld. Plants containing Pyrrolizidine Alkaloids - Toxicity and Problems. Food Additives and Contaminants, 2011, 28 (03), pp.282-292. 10.1080/19440049.2010.541288. hal-00673672

## **HAL Id: hal-00673672 <https://hal.science/hal-00673672v1>**

Submitted on 24 Feb 2012

**HAL** is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers.

L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.

#### **Food Additives and Contaminants**



## Plants containing Pyrrolizidine Alkaloids - Toxicity and Problems





## **Plants containing Pyrrolizidine Alkaloids - Toxicity and Problems**

#### Helmut Wiedenfeld

*Pharmaceutical Institute, University of Bonn, An der Immenburg 4, D- 53121 Bonn, Germany; phone: +492285225; fax: +49228737929; E-mail: wiedenfeld@uni-bonn.de* 

*Received 07 May 2010* 

#### Abstract:

May 2010<br> **Kaloids** (PA) are toxic for human and lifestock. The PA undersess in the liver which is the first target organ for PA poisonition<br>
of human PA intoxications are well reported. In many cases<br>
ons have been PA-con Pyrrolizidine alkaloids (PA) are toxic for human and lifestock. The PA undergo a metabolic toxication process in the liver which is the first target organ for PA poisoning. World-wide many episodes of human PA intoxications are well reported. In many cases the reason for these intoxications have been PA-contamination in food. The main tools for analyzing food and fodder on PA content are based on GC- and HPLC-separation, followed by MS(-MS) detection. Actual incidents with toxic PA are the "*Jacobaea vulgaris* (syn. *Senecio jacobaea*) problem" in Europe and the "*Ageratum conyzoides*-problem" in Ethiopia.

**Key Words:** Pyrrolizidine alkaloids; poisoning in humans; PA-analysis; PA in food

Pyrrolizidine alkaloids (PAs) possessing a 1,2 double-bond in their base moiety (necine) are hepatotoxic, carcinogenic, genotoxic, teratogenic and sometimes pneumotoxic. PAs have been estimated to be present in about 3% of all flowering plants [Smith, Culvenor, 1981]. PAs mainly occur in species of the plant families Asteraceae, Fabaceae and Boraginaceae.

Several reports in literature proof the fact that PA containing plants are hazardous for livestock [Gilruth, 1903, 1904; Bull, Dick, 1959]. Since a long time ago, it is also well established that humans can be affected by toxic PA, too [Willmott, Robertson, 1920; Steyn, 1933; Bourkser, 1947; Milenkhov, Kizhaikin, 1952; Tandon, Tandon, 1975; Mohabbat, Srivasta, et al., 1976; Chauvin, Dillon, et al., 1994; Mayer, Lüthy, 1993]. Here, the main source for the intoxication was found to be PA contaminated grain and bread.

The International Program on Chemical Safety (IPCS), a joint agency of WHO, FAO and ILO, stated that "consumption of contaminated grain or the use of PA-containing

plants as herbal medicine, beverages, or food by man, or grazing on contaminated pastures by animals, may cause acute or chronic disease" [IPCS, 1989].

Besides this, also different medicinal plants were found to show a hazardous potential for humans [Roeder, 1995, 2000]. Many investigations on herbal preparations or extracts from medicinal plants were done and prove the toxic risk by the consumption of phytomedicines which contain PA plants. It can be assumed that so-called "bush-teas" are the reason for several liver diseases reported in Jamaica and several developing countries from Africa and West Indies [Bras et al., 1954, 1957, 1961]. While PA poisoning is mainly a problem in developing countries because there the use of traditional medicine is common, within the last 25 years especially in industrialised countries the use of herbal medicine has become more and more common due to an increased interest of people in alternative medicine, hand in hand with a greater influence of the "green wave".

Heveloping countries from Africa and West Indies [Bras While PA poisoning is mainly a problem in develop at the use of traditional medicine is common, within the industrialised countries the use of herbal medicine has kmmo In addition, also several food products of animal origin can be a source for PA ingestion: Milk has been shown to contain PA when milk-producing animals consume PA-containing plant material [Schoental, 1959; Dickinson, Cooke, et al., 1976; Dickinson, 1980; Johnson, Robertson, et al., 1978; Goeger, Cheeke, et al., 1982; Lüthy, Heim, et al., 1983; Candrian, Lüthy, et al., 1984; Molyneux, James, 1990]. Human milk has also caused liver diseases in neonates and infants [Roulet, Laurini, et al., 1988].

Honey was shown to be another source of PA exposure; here it seems that the contamination may be due to the plant pollen, which is rich in PAs, being transferred by bees into the honey [Deinzer, Thomson, et al., 1977; Culvenor, Edgar, et al., 1981; Roeder, 1995, 2000; Edgar, Roeder, et al., 2002; Beales, Betteridge, et al., 2004; Boppré, Colgate, et al., 2005; Betteridge, Cao, et al., 2005]. Eggs from poultry exposed to PAs in PA-contaminated grain were also shown to be a possible source of PA exposure for humans [Edgar, Smith, 1999].

Recently it was shown in Germany that salads can sometimes be contaminated with PA-containing plants [BfR, 2007a]. It was found that, especially in supermarkets, ready-packed rocket salat and also salad mixtures have been contaminated by *Senecio vulgaris*, a typical weed of field-crops.

While in several countries the use of PA containing plants or preparations from them are controlled by state regulations, nothing exists in case of regulating contaminated food and fodder. In the EU the EFSA recommended in its opinion [EFSA, 2007] that feed material which can be contaminated with PA should be monitored. More data are needed to assess human PA exposure from resulting from feed and carry-over into animal products. Meanwhile the so-called "zero-tolerance principle" can be applied; this principle is used in cases where no safe or tolerable level can be determined based on available, valid scientific data, or if insufficient toxicological data are available. Due to their genotoxic and carcinogenic potential this principle can be applied for PA in food and fodder [BfR, 2007b].

**For PA in food and fodder [BfR, 2007b].**<br> **For PA in food and fodder [BfR, 2007b].**<br> **Folder Europe common groundsel (Senecio vulgaris, labaea vulgaris, syn. Senecio jacobaea, L.) are of particandsel, a common field-weed,** Actually, in Middle Europe common groundsel (*Senecio vulgaris*, L.) and tansy ragwort (*Jacobaea vulgaris,* syn. *Senecio jacobaea*, L.) are of particular concern. Common groundsel, a common field-weed, has been found as a contaminant in salads and tansy ragwort has been discussed recently on account of its extensive expansion into pastures and meadows which has led to a great number of intoxications in livestock (mainly horses), especially in Germany [http://www.jacobskreuzkraut.de; http://www.izn.niedersachsen.de/servlets/ download ?C=39412784&L=20]. As well as the hazard for grazing animals (i.e. direct toxicity), the possibility of contaminated hay and silage and transfer of PAs into foods such as milk and milk products is under investigation and considered to become problematic.

#### **Toxification process of pyrrolizidine alkaloids**

PA produced by *Senecio*-species are ester alkaloids derived mainly from the necines retronecine and otonecine. They are carcinogenic, mutagenic, genotoxic, fetotoxic and teratogenic.

PAs themselves show a more or less low acute toxicity but *in vivo* they undergo a 3 step metabolic toxication process in the liver, which is, as a result, the first target organ for the toxicity.

This toxication process is well investigated [Mattocks, 1968; Culvenor, Downing, et al., 1969; Jago, Edgar, et al., 1970; Mattocks, White, 1971a, 1971b; Culvenor, Edgar, et al., 1971; Mattocks, 1972; IPCS, 1989].

After absorption an hydroxyl-group is introduced in the necine at position 3 or 8 by the cytochrome P-450 monoxogenase enzyme complex in the liver (Figure 1: IIa and IIb). These hydroxy-PAs (OHPAs) are unstable and undergo a rapid dehydration to the didehydropyrrolizidine alkaloids (DHPAlk; Figure 1: III). This dehydration results in a second double-bond in the necine followed by spontaneous rearrangement to an aromatic pyrrole-system III.

#### Figure 1: Enzymatic hydroxylation and didehydropyrrolizidine products

PAs occur mainly as their N-oxides in the plants and these cannot be directly converted to the OHPA, but on oral ingestion they are reduced by the gut enzymes or the liver microsomes and NADH or NADPH to the free bases and therefore they show equal toxicity to that of the free bases [Mattocks, White, 1971a, 1971b; Powis, Ames, et al., 1979; Chou, Wang, et al., 2003; Wang, Yan, et al., 2005a; Wan, Yan, et al., 2005b; Wang, Yan, et al., 2005c].

osomes and NADH or NADPH to the free bases and t<br>wicity to that of the free bases [Mattocks, White, 1971a, 1<br>979; Chou, Wang, et al., 2003; Wang, Yan, et al., 2005a;<br>ang, Yan, et al., 2005c].<br>PAs (Figure 1: lb) are metabol Otonecine-type PAs (Figure 1: Ib) are metabolised to the OHPAs [Culvenor, Edgar, et al., 1971; Lin, Cui, et al., 1998; Lin, Cui, et al., 2000]. These otonecine-PAs possess a methyl-function at the nitrogen and a quasi keto-function at the bridgecarbon 8. After hydroxylation of the N-methyl-group it is lost as formaldehyde leaving a NH-function which undergoes condensation with the C8 keto group to produce product IIb (Figure 1) which spontaneously dehydrates to the DHPAlk III.

The metabolites III are able to generate stabilized carbonium ions (Figure 2: IV and VI) by loss of hydroxy groups or ester functions as hydroxyl or acid anions. These carbonium ions can react rapidly with nucleophiles (Figure 2: VII).

Figure 2: DHPAlk and carbonium ion building

In *vivo* the metabolites IV and VI react rapidly with nucleophilic mercapto, hydroxyl and amino groups on proteins and the amino groups of purine and pyrimidine bases in nucleosides like DNA and RNA. These alkylated products show abnormal functions and in the case of DNA, mutations are possible. As this metabolic toxification takes place in the liver it is obvious that this organ is the first target for the intoxication and results in the liver damage leading to the veno-occlusive disease (VOD) in which the veins are narrowed.

#### **Detoxication of PA**

As well as the metabolic activation, detoxification of PA also occurs *in vivo*: hydrolysis of the ester bonds in PA from type Ia or Ib by esterases leads to necic acids and to the free necines. Both are non-toxic products and - on account of their higher watersolubility - can be renally excreted. The rate of hydrolysis is dependent on the level of steric hinderance of the ester linkages (see before); and it has been shown that the more highly branched the necic acids are the more resistance to hydrolysis [Culvenor, Edgar, et al., 1976; Mattocks, 1986]. This means, that macrocyclic diesters (Ia and Ib) with more complex acid moieties are more hazardous on account of their lower rate of hydrolytic detoxication.

nd Ib) with more complex acid moieties are more hazardou<br>
rate of hydrolytic detoxication.<br>
of PAs (the form occurring most commonly in plant source<br>
a and can therefore be excreted renally. Besides<br>
4-oxidation of PAs als The N-oxides of PAs (the form occurring most commonly in plant sources ) are highly water soluble and can therefore be excreted renally. Besides their natural occurrence, N-oxidation of PAs also takes place in the liver and can be seen as a detoxification process (Figure 2) [Mattocks, 1968; Jago, Edgar, et al., 1970; Mattocks, White 1971b; Williams, Reed, et al., 1989; Miranda, Chung, et al., 1991]. However it has been shown that the N-oxides - besides excretion - can be converted by dehydration or by acetylation followed by elimination of acetic acid to the DHPAlk (Figure 2: III) [Mattocks, 1986; Culvenor, Edgar, et al., 1970].

#### **PA toxicity in humans**

PA poisoning of humans can progress from an acute to a sub-acute and finally to a chronic state [McLean, 1970; Peterson, Culvenor, 1983; IPCS, 1989; Huxtable, 1989; Prakash, Pereira, et al., 1999; Fu, Xia, et al., 2004; Stegelmeier, Edgar, et al., 1999]. Acute poisoning is characterised by haemorrhagic necrosis, hepatomegaly and ascites; death is caused by liver failure due to necrosis and liver dysfunctions [Peterson, Culvenor, 1983; IPCS, 1989; Huxtable, 1989; Prakash, Pereira, et al., 1999].

Sub-acute levels are characterised by hepatomegaly and recurrent ascites; endothelial proliferation and medial hypertrophy leading to an occlusion of hepatic veins, resulting in the VOD which can be seen as a characteristic histological sign for PA poisoning [Peterson, Culvenor, 1983; IPCS, 1989; Huxtable, 1989; Prakash, Pereira, et al., 1999; Fu, Xia, et al., 2004]. The VOD causes centrilobular congestion, necrosis, fibrosis and liver cirrhosis, the end-stage of chronic PA intoxication.

A very important fact is that PA toxicity not only correlates with the amount and duration of uptake. It is shown that the susceptibility for PA intoxication is also dependent on gender (males seem to be more sensitive than females) and on age: children and especially neonates and foetuses show a much higher sensitivity than adults: In 2003 it was shown that the daily uptake of  $\sim$  7  $\mu$ g PA (from a herbal tea containing comfrey) during pregnancy did not show a toxic effect in the mother´s liver but damaged the foetal liver in such a way that the newborn child died after 2 days [Rasenack, Müller, et al., 2003].

iller, et al., 2003].<br>
een observed that cofactors can exacerbate the PA po<br>
een observed that cofactors can exacerbate the PA po<br>
eents, bacterial or viral infections as well as medicare<br>
in a likelihood of PA liver damag It has also been observed that cofactors can exacerbate the PA poisoning: liver damaging agents, bacterial or viral infections as well as medical drugs like barbiturates or metals like copper or mycotoxins like aflatoxins can increase the severity and likelihood of PA liver damage [Yee, Kinser, et al.,2000; Newberne, Rogers, 1973; White, Mattocks, et al., 1973; Tuchweber, Kovacs, et al., 1974; Lin, Liu, et al., 1974: Bull, Culvenor, et al., 1968].

There is a large number of reports in the literature about different liver diseases (mainly VOD) possibly connected with PA poisoning. But, on account of the fact that those reports mainly describe sub-chronic or chronic intoxications, in most cases the connection cannot be proven because there is often a long time period between the outbreak of the liver disease and a possible ingestion of PA-containing material.

The following table therefore lists only those cases where the source of PAs was identified and the liver disease was therefore undoubtedly caused by PA intoxication:



Table 1: human intoxications :



Rasenack, Müller, et al., 2003

Kakar, et al., 2010



### **PA determination**

Several methods can be used for the qualitative and quantitative determination of PAs in plant material or its preparations:

ods can be used for the qualitative and quantitative det<br>naterial or its preparations:<br>For chromatography (using the detection method of Dar<br>Mattocks, 1967]) is a quick, sure and easy method for<br>As. Using TLC in a densitom TLC: Thin-layer chromatography (using the detection method of Dann / Mattocks [Dann, 1960; Mattocks, 1967]) is a quick, sure and easy method for a qualitative detection of PAs. Using TLC in a densitometric way [Bartkowski, Wiedenfeld, et al., 1997], it is also possible to have quantitative results; the detection limit is about 1 - 10 µg.

LC-MS: Different HPLC methods are described. Obviously, this is the mostly used analytical method for the determination of PAs. A great benefit is the fact that PA-Noxides can be analyzed as well as the free bases. Depending on the equipment, the detection limit is less than 0.1 µg per injection.

GC-MS: also in the case of GC a lot of methods are described. A GC problem is that N-oxides have to be reduced to the free bases before being analyzed. This reduction procedure is described intensively and doesn´t seem to be a limiting factor. The detection limit is similar to that in LC.

All three methods can only be used accurately in case reference material is available. The reason is that the single PAs show different detector responses in the respective analyzing methods.

A further interesting - but unfortunately very specific - quantification method is the enzyme linked imuno sorbent assay (ELISA). Via a PA hemisuccinate and bovine serum albumine, enzyme linked antigenes (AG-E) can be synthesized and used for the production of antibodies (polyclonal as well as monoclonal) in rats [Röder, Pflüger, 1986, 1995]. This method is very sensitive and needs no complicated cleanup procedure. Unfortunately, it is sensitive only for a concrete PA structure; that means, antibodies produced by a retrorsine-AG-E can only be used for the analysis

of retrorsine and senecionine, but are inactive for seneciphylline, jacobine or monocrotaline and, of course, also for all otonecine-type PAs.

### **Toxic PA in food and fodder**

meadows: horses, which show a high sensitivity for PP<br>in large numbers: To date more than 100 horses died<br>dion by *Jacobaea vulgaris* [http://www.jacobskreuzkraut.de<br>obskreuzkraut.de;http://www.izn.niedersachsen.de/servle During the last three years an extensive increase of the spreading of *Senecio* species (especially *Jacobaea vulgaris,* syn. *Senecio jacobaea* L., Asteraceae) could be observed in central Europe. This led to severe problems as this spreading includes pastures and meadows: horses, which show a high sensitivity for PA intoxication, were affected in large numbers: To date more than 100 horses died on account of acute intoxication by *Jacobaea vulgaris* [http://www.jacobskreuzkraut.de/wirkung.htm; http://www.jacobskreuzkraut.de;http://www.izn.niedersachsen.de/servlets/ download? C=39412784&L=20]. As for ruminants, an intoxication in grazing animals seems to be negligible because these animals show a very low susceptibility and the amount of *Senecio* species on meadows is too low for an intoxication; in this case fodder like hay or silage is responsible for the hazardous problems.

To evaluate a possible risk, plant material of *Jacobaea vulgaris* was analyzed for its PA content during the vegetation period. The PAs from the plant were isolated by column chromatography and their structures elucidated by spectroscopical methods. Figure 3 shows the structures of the isolated PAs. Figure 4 shows a GC from an alcoholic plant extract.

The plant parts were analyzed (Figure 5) and it could be shown that the PA content is ranging between 0.1 and 0.2%, except in flowers, where amounts up to 0.8% were found. These data show that the application of 2 - 4 kg of dried plant material reaches the lethal level in horses  $($   $\sim$  350 kg bw).

This is of great importance in case of hay or silage where a contamination with *J. vulgaris* of e.g. 1 - 5% is a possible scenario. In those cases the lethal dosage for horses will be reached in a few days of feeding such contaminated hay [http://www.

jacobskreuzkraut.de/toedliche\_dosis.htm]. In this context the question occurs whether there is a decrease during hay production and storage or during silaging.

In figures 6 and 7, PA contents are shown of hay and silage produced from *J. vulgaris.* The data show that in case of hay no reduction of the PA level (compared with dried plants) can be observed. Contrary to this, the results for silage show a decrease in the PA level down to 10%. It can be assumed that this is due to an

enzymatic decomposition. Therefore, it can be concluded that in case of hay the possible toxic risk is equal to original plant material, whereas feeding silage to animals seems to be without any toxic risk.

Feeding contaminated material is not only hazardous for the animals themselves but can produce human risks, too, in case PAs are excreted in animal products like milk and honey.

A direct human exposure to PA was found in 2009 when salads contaminated with *Senecio* plants (here, especially *Senecio vulgaris*, a common weed on field crops) occurred in stores and supermarkets. Especially in the case of rucola and salad mixtures containing rucola this problem became of high importance as it is not possible for non-experts to distinguish between the salad leaves and *Senecio* leaves (Figure: 8). Our own analysis of such a salad sample (45 g) resulted in an amount of 2606 µg PAs. Taking into consideration that for herbal medicinal preparations the daily uptake limit (different in several countries) ranges from PA-free (Austria) over 1  $\mu$ g/ kg or I (The Netherlands) to 1  $\mu$ g (Germany) it becomes obvious that such contaminated food is showing a severe health risk.

Is (here, especially *Senecio vulgaris*, a common weed of tores and supermarkets. Especially in the case of ruccialining rucola this problem became of high importance and Sur con-experts to distinguish between the salad le As already mentioned before, several human PA exposures have been observed due to contaminated grain and/or bread. A similar problem was found in the Tigray region of Ethiopia. In the last years many people (especially children) died there on account of a severe liver failure. After excluding of all other risk potentials (aflatoxins, etc.), a PA containing plant was suspected to be responsible for the problems: *Ageratum conyzoides*. Several years ago we described this plant to contain toxic PAs [Wiedenfeld, Röder, 1991]. The people in this region are mainly using millet for the production of food but also for beverages like beer. An inspection of the grainfields in this area resulted in the findings that indeed *A. conyzoides* is wide-spread there and that seeds of this weed can contaminate the millet. We analyzed 6 millet samples from different houses with respect to their PAs originated from *A. conyzoides.* Three of them showed a PA contamination. The sample with the highest amount came from a house where all family members already died ("Dagusha house 1"). We found 87.1  $\mu$ g PAs in 182 g millet. As the normal daily consumption amounts to ~100 g millet/ person it becomes obvious that, consumed over a more or less longer period, such a grain contamination can indeed produce the fatal problems observed in the Tigray region.

### **References**

Al-Hasany M. Mohamed A.S. 1970. Veno-occlusive of the Liver in Iraq. Arch. Dis. Childhood, 45: 722-24.

Bartkowski J.-P., Wiedenfeld H., Röder E. 1997. Quantitative Photometric Determination of Senkirkine in Farfarae Folium. Phytochem. Anal. 8: 1-4.

Beales K.A., Betteridge K., Colegate S.M., Edgar J.A. 2004. Solid phase extraction and LCMS analysis of pyrrolizidine alkaloids in honeys. J Agric Food Chem., 52: 6664-72.

Betteridge K., Cao Y., Colegate S.M. 2005. An improved method for extraction and LCMS analysis of pyrrolizidine alkaloids and their N-oxides in honey: Application to *Echium vulgare* honeys. J. Agric. Food Chem., 53: 1894 -1902.

Boppré M., Colegate S.M., Edgar J.A. 2005. Pyrrolizidine alkaloids of *Echium vulgare* honey found in pure pollen. J Agric. Food Chem., 53: 594-600.

Bourkser G.V. 1947. On the question of the aetiology and pathogenesis of toxic hepatitis with ascites (heliotrope toxicosis). Hyg. Sanit. 6: 24-26.

Bras G., Jelliffe D.B., Stuart K.L. 1954. Veno-Occlusive Disease in Liver with Nonportal Type of Cirrhosis, occurring in Jamaica. Arch. Path. 57: 285-300.

Bras G., Berry D.M., György P. 1957. Plants as Aetiological Factor in Veno-Occlusive Disease of the Liver. The Lancet 2: 960-962.

Bras G., Brooks S.E.H., Watler D.C. 1961. Cirrhosis ofLiver in Jamaica. J. Pathol. Bacteriol., 82: 503-11

Brooks S.E.H., Miller C.G., McKenzie K., Audretsch J.J, Bras G. 1970. Acute Venoocclusive Disease of the Liver . Arch. Path., 89: 507-520

Chem., 52: 6664-72.<br>
Cao Y., Colegate S.M. 2005. An improved method for extably and their N-oxides in honey Echium vulgare honeys. J. Agric. Food Chem., 53: 1894 -<br>
plegate S.M., Edgar J.A. 2005. Pyrrolizidine alkaloids of Bull L.B., Dick A.T. 1959. The chronic pathological effects on the liver of the rat of the pyrrolizidine alkaloids heliotrine, lasiocarpine, and their N-oxides. J. Pathol. Bacteriol., 78: 483-502.

Bull L.B., Culvenor C.C.J., Dick A.T. 1968. The pyrrolizidine alkaloids, Amsterdam, North Holland Publishing Co.

Bundesamt für Risiokobewertung 2007a. Salatmischung mit Pyrrolizidinalkaloidhaltigem Greiskraut verunreinigt; Stellungnahme Nr.028/2007 des BfR vom 10. Januar 2007.

Bundesamt für Risiokobewertung 2007b. Nulltoleranzen in Lebens- und Futtermitteln – Positionspapier des BFR vom 12.März 2007, Berlin, Germany

Candrian U., Lüthy J., Graf U., Schlatter C.H. 1984. Mutagenic activity of the pyrrolizidine alkaloids seneciphylline and senkirkine in Drosophila and their transfer into rat milk. Food Chem. Toxicol., 22: 223-225.

Cansado A.O., Valadés E.C., Blanco P.M., de Santamaria J.S., Gonzales J.M., Téllez T.R. 1995. Enfermedad venoocclusiva hepática por ingestión de infusiones de *Senecio vulgaris*. Gastroenterolog. Hepatol. 18: 413-416.

Chauvin P., Dillon J-C., Moren A. 1994. Épidémie d' intoxication alimentaire á l' héliotrope, Tadjikistan, Novembre 1992-Mars 1993. Cahiers Santé 4: 263- 268.

Chauvin P., Dillon J-C., Moreu A., Talbak S., Barakaev S. 1993. Heliotrope poisoning in Tadjikistan. Lancet, 341: 1633.

**Example 10.** Moreon A. 1994. Épidémie d'intexication aliment<br>dijkistan, Novembre 1992-Mars 1993. Cahiers Santé 4: 26<br>illon J-C., Moreu A., Talbak S., Barakaev S. 1993. Heliotro<br>adjikistan. Lancet, 341: 1633.<br>Mang Y.P., Ya Chou M.W., Wang Y.P., Yan J., Yang Y.C. Berger R.D., Williams L.D. Doerge D.R. , Fu P.P. 2003. Riddelliine N-oxide is a phytochemical and mammalian metabolite with genotoxic activity that is comparable to the parent pyrrolizidine alkaloid riddelliine. Toxicol. Lett. 145: 239-247.

Culvenor C.C.J., Downing D.T., Edgar J.A., Jago M.V. 1969. Pyrrolizidine alkaloids as alkylating and antimitotic agents. N.Y. Acad. Sci., 163: 837-847.

Culvenor C.C.J., Edgar J.A., Smith L.W., Tweeddale H.J. 1970. Dihydropyrrolizines. III. Preparation and reactions of derivatives related to pyrrolizidine alkaloids. Aust. J. Chem., 23: 1853-1867.

Culvenor C.C.J., Edgar J.A., Smith L.W., Jago M.V., Peterson J.E. 1971. Active metabolites in the chronic hepatotoxicity of pyrrolizidine alkaloids, including otonecine esters. Nature New Biol., 229: 255-256.

Culvenor C.C.J., Edgar J.A., Jago M.V., Outteridge A., Peterson J.E., Smith L.W. 1976. Hepato- and pneumotoxicity of pyrrolizidine alkaloids and derivatives in relation to molecular structure. Chem.-Biol. Interact., 12: 299-324.

Culvenor C.C.J., Edgar J.A., Smith L.W. 1981. Pyrrolizidine alkaloids in honey from *Echium plantagineum* L. J. Agric. Food Chem. 29: 958-960.

Culvenor C.C.J., Edgar J.A., Smith L.W., Kumana C.R., Lin H.J. 1986. Lancet, 26 April: 978.

Dann A.T. 1960. Detection of N-Oxides of the Pyrrolizidine Alkaloids. Nature 186: 1050-1051.

Datta D.V., Khuroo M.S., Mattocks A.R., Aikat B.K., Chuttani P.N. 1978. Herbal medicines and veno-occlusive disease in India. Postgraduate Medical Journal, 54: 511-15.

Deinzer M.L., Thomson P.A., Burgett D.M., Isaacson D.L. 1977. Pyrrolizidine alkaloids: their occurrence in honey from tansy ragwort (*Senecio jacobaea* L.). Science, 195: 497-499.

Dickinson J. O., Cooke M. P., King R. R., Mohamed P. A. 1976. Milk transfer of pyrrolizidine alkaloids in cattle. J. Am. Vet. Med. Assoc., 169: 1192-1196.

Dickinson J.O. 1980. Release of pyrrolizidine alkaloids into milk. Proc. West. Pharmacol. Soc., 23: 377-379.

ed. Assoc., 169: 1192-1196.<br> **Formation** Assoc., 23: 377-379.<br> **Formation** Barmacol. Soc., 23: 377-379.<br> **Formation** L.W. 1999. Transfer of pyrrolizidine alkaloids into<br> **Formation** L.W. 1999. Transfer of pyrrolizidine alk Edgar J. A., Smith L. W. 1999. Transfer of pyrrolizidine alkaloids into eggs: food safety implications. In Natural and Selected Synthetic Toxins Biological Implications; Tu, A. T., Gaffield, W., Eds., ACS Symposium Series 745; American Chemical Society: Washington, DC, Chapter 8, pp 118-128.

Edgar J.A., Roeder E., Molyneux R.J. 2002. Honey from plants containing pyrrolizidine alkaloids: A potential threat to health. J Agric. Food Chem., 50: 2719-30.

Freiman I., Schmaman, A., Zamit R., Appleberg M. 1968. Veno-occlusive disease of the liver – some new aspects. S. Afr. Med. J., 42: 126-129

Fu P.P., Xia Q., Lin G. 2004. Pyrrolizidine alkaloids – genotoxicity, metabolism enzymes, metabolic activation, and mechanism. Drug Metabol. Revs., 36: 1-55.

Gilruth J.A. 1903. Hepatic cirrhosis affecting horses and cattle (so-called "Winton disease"). New Zealand Department of Agriculture,  $11<sup>th</sup>$  annual report.pp. 228-279.

Gilruth J.A. 1904. Hepatic cirrhosis due to ragwort (*Senecio jacobaea*). Div. Vet. Sci. New Zealand,Dept. Agric., Bull. No. 9. 252-254.

Goeger D.E., Cheeke P.R., Schmitz J.A., Buhler D.R. 1982. Toxicity of tansy ragwort (*Senecio jacobaea*) to goats. Am. J. Vet. Res., 43: 252-254.

Grases P.J., Beker S.G. 1972. Veno-Occlusive Disease of the Liver – A Case from Venezuela. Am. J. Med., 53: 511-16.

Hou J.G., Xia Y.T., Yu C.S., An Y., Tang Y.H. 1980. Veno-occlusive disease of the liver –with two fatal cases. Zhongua Neike Zazhi, 19: 187-191.

Huxtable R.J. 1989. Human health implications of pyrrolizidine alkaloids and herbs containing them. In: Cheeke PR, ed. Toxicants of Plant Origin, Vol 1. pp. 42-86 Boca Raton: CRC Press.

International Programme on Chemical Safety (IPCS) Pyrrolizidine Alkaloids Health and Safety Guide. Health and Safety Guide No. 26. Geneva: WHO, 1989.

Jago M.V., Edgar J.A., Smith L.W., Culvenor C.C.J. 1970. Metabolic conversion of heliotrine based pyrrolizidine alkaloids to dehydroheliotridine. Mol. Pharmacol., 6: 402-406.

Johnson W.D., Robertson K.A., Pounds J.G., Allen J.R. 1978. Dehydroretronecine-induced skin tumours in mice. J. Natl. Cancer Inst., 61: 85-89.

**Example 1202-406.**<br> **For Peer Review Common Science**, **Allen J.R. 1978.**<br> **Formal Extern K.A., Pounds J.G., Allen J.R. 1978.**<br> **Formal Z., Leslie, T., Mustafa M.L., Watson J., van Egmont Irparentic veno-occlusive disease** Kakar F., Akbarian Z., Leslie, T., Mustafa M.L., Watson J., van Egmont H.P. 2010. An outbreak of hepatic veno-occlusive disease in Western Afghanistan associated with exposure to wheat flour contaminated with pyrrolizidine alkaloids. J. Toxicol., in press.

Krishnamachari K.A.V.R., Bhat R.V., Krishnamurthi D., Krishnaswamy K., Nagarajan V. 1977. Aethiopathogenesis of endemic ascites in Surguja district of Madhya Pradesh. Indian J. Med. Res., 65: 672-78.

Lin J.J., Liu C., Svoboda D.J. 1974. Long-term effects of aflatoxin  $B_1$ and vocal hepatitis on marmoset liver: a preliminary report. Lab. Invest., 30: 267-278.

Lüthy J., Heim T.H., Schlatter C.H. 1983. Transfer of  $[{}^{3}H]$  pyrrolizidine alkaloids from *Senecio vulgaris* L. and metabolites into rat milk and tissues. Toxicol. Lett., 17: 283-288.

Lyford C.L., Vergara G.G., Moeller D.D. 1976. Hepativ Veno-Occlusive Disease Originating in Ecuador. Gastroenterology, 70: 105-8.

Macksad A., Schoental R., Coady A. 1970. The Hepatotoxic Action of a Traditionl Bedu Plant Remedy "Ramram". J. Kwt. Med. Assoc., 4: 297-299

Margalith D., Heraief C., Schindler A.M., Birchler R., Mosimann F., Aladjem D., Gonvers J.J. 1985. Veno-occlusive disease of the liver due to the se of tea made from Senecio plants. J. Hepatol., Suppl., 280.

Mattocks A.R. 1967. Detection of pyrrolizidine alkaloids on thin-layer chromatograms. J. Chromatogr. 27: 505-508.



Mattocks A.R. 1968. Toxicity of pyrrolizidine alkaloids. Nature (London), 217: 723- 728.

Mattocks A.R. 1972. Acute hepatotoxicity and pyrrolic metabolites in rats dosed with pyrrolizidine alkaloids. Chem. Biol. Interact., 5: 227-242.

Mattocks A.R. 1986. Chemistry and Toxicology of Pyrrolizidine Alkaloids, London, New Yorck , Academic Express.

Mattocks A.R., White I.N.H. 1971a. Pyrrolic metabolites from non-toxic pyrrolizidine alkaloids. Nat. New Biol., 231: 114-115.

Mattocks A.R., White I.N.H. 1971b. The conversion of pyrrolizidine alkaloids to dihydropyrrolizine derivatives by rat-liver microsomes in vitro. Chem. Biol. Interact., 3: 383-396.

Mayer F., Lüthy J. 1993. Heliotrope poisoning in Tadjikistan. Lancet, 342: 246-247.

McGee J.O ´D., Patrick R.S., Wood C.B., Blumgart L.H. 1976. A case of venoocclusive disease of theliver in Britain associated with herbal tea consumption. J. clin. Path., 29: 788-794.

McLean E.K. 1970. The toxic actions of pyrrolizidine (Senecio) alkaloids. Pharmacol. Rev., 22: 429-483.

Milenkov S.M., Kizhaikin Y. 1952. Toxic hepatitis with ascites. Proc. Sympos. V. M. Molotov Med. Inst., Tashkent.

Ikaloids. Nat. New Biol., 231: 114-115.<br>
White I.N.H. 1971b. The conversion of pyrrolizidine<br>
hydropyrrolizine derivatives by rat-liver microsomes<br>
Folio. Interact., 3: 383-396.<br>
The microsomes<br>
Folio. Interact., 3: 383-39 Miranda C.L., Chung W., Reed R.E., Zhao X., Henderson M.C. Wang J.L., Williams D.E., Buhler D.R. 1991. Flavin-containing monooxygenase: a major detoxifying enzyme for the pyrrolizidine alkaloid senecionine in guinea pig tissues. Biochem. Biophys. Res. Commun., 178: 546-552.

Mohabbat O., Srivastava R.N., Younos M.S., Sediq G.G., Menzad A.A., Aram G.N. 1976. An outbreak of hepatic veno-occlusive disease in north-western Afghanistan. Lancet, 7 August: 269-271.

Molyneux R.J., James L.F. 1990. Pyrrolizidine alkaloids in milk: Thresholds of intoxication. Vet. Hum. Toxicol., 32: S94-103.

Newberne P.M., Rogers A.E. 1973. Nutrition, monocrotaline and aflatoxin  $B_1$  in liver carcinogenesis. Plant Food Man, 1: 23-31.

Peterson J.E., Culvenor C.C.J. 1983. Plant and fungal toxins. In: Keeler, R.F. & Tu, A.T., ed. Handbook of natural toxins, New York, Marcel Dekker, Vol. 1, pp. 637-681.

Powis G., Ames M.M., Kovach J.S. 1979. Metabolic conversion of indicine-N-oxide to indicine in rabbits and humans. Cancer Res., 39: 3564-3570.

Prakash A.R., Pereira T.N. Reilly P.E.B., Seawright A.A. 1999. Pyrrolizidine alkaloids in human diet. Mutation Res., 443: 53-67.

Rasenack R., Müller C., Kleinschmidt M., Rasenack J., Wiedenfeld H. 2003. Veno-occlusive disease in a foetus caused by pyrrolizidine alkaloids of food origin. Fetal Diagn. Ther., 18: 223-25.

Ridker P.M., Ohkuma S., McDermott W.V., Trey C., Huxtable R.J. 1985. Hepatic veno-occlusive disease associated with consumption of pyrrolizidine alkaloid containing dietary supplements. Gastroenterology, 88: 1050-1054.

Roeder E. 1995. Medicinal plants in Europe containing pyrrolizidine alkaloids. Pharmazie, 50: 83-98.

Roeder, E. 2000. Medicinal plants in China containing pyrrolizidine alkaloids. Pharmazie, 55: 711-726.

Röder E., Pflüger Th. 1986. Zur Entwicklung eines Enzym-Immuno-Assays zum Nachweis makrozyklischer Pyrrolizidin-Alkaloide. Scient. Pharm. 54: 254.

Ikaloid containing dietary supplements.<br>
9gy, 88: 1050-1054.<br>
95. Medicinal plants in Europe containing pyrrolizidine<br>
rmazie, 50: 83-98.<br>
00. Medicinal plants in China containing pyrrolizidine<br>
rmazie, 55: 711-726.<br>
9ger Röder E., Pflüger Th. 1995. Analysis of Pyrrolizidine Alkaloids: A Competitive Enzyme-Linked Immunoassay (ELISA) for the Quantitative Determination of some Toxic Pyrrolizidine Alkaloids. Nat. Toxins 3: 305-309.

Roulet M., Laurini R., Rivier L., Calarme A. 1988. Hepatic veno-occlusive disease in newborn infant of a woman drinking herbal tea. J. Pediatr., 112: 433-36.

Saint-Aimé MM., Ponsar C., Lacombe C., Lacombe W. 1977. Maladie Veino-Occlusive du Foie chez L´Enfant Martiniquais. Bordeaux Médical, 10: 665-670

Schoental R. 1959. The chemical aspects of seneciosis. Proc. Roy. Soc. Med. 53: 284-288.

Smith L.W., Culvenor C.C.J. 1981. Plant sources of hepatotoxic pyrrolizidine alkaloids. J. Nat. Prod., 44: 129-152.

Sperl W., Stuppner H., Gassner I., Judmaier W., Dietze O., Vogel W. 1995. Reversible hepatic veno-occlusive disease in an infant after consumption of pyrrolizidine-containing herbal tea. Eur. J. Pedriatr., 154: 112-116.

Stegelmeier B.L., Edgar J.A., Steven M., Colegate S.M., Gardner D.R., Schoch T.K.,Coulombe R.A. jr..Pyrrolizidine alkaloids plants, metabolism and toxicity 1999. J. Nat. Toxins , 8: 5-116.

  $\Omega$ 



Steyn D.G. 1933. Poisoning of human beings by weeds contained in cereals (bread poisoning). Onderstepoort J. Vet Sci Anim. Ind., 1: 219-266.

Stillman A.E., Huxtable R.J., Fox D.W., Hart M.C., Bergeson P.S., Counts J.M. 1977. Poisoning associated with Herbal Teas –Arizona, Washington. Morbidity and Mortality Weekly Report, 26: 257-59.

Tandon H.D. Tandon B.N. 1975. Epidemic of liver disease – Gulran District, Herat Province, Afghanistan, Alexandria, World Health Organization, Regional Office for the Eastern Mediterranean (Assignment report No. EM/AFG/OCD/001/RB).

Tandon B.N., Tandon R.K., Tandon H.D., Narndranathan M., Joshi J.K. 1976. An Epidemic Veno-Occlusive Disease of Liver in Central India. Lancet 7 August: 271-72.

**Explanation, regional Christman Crick and The Lastern Mediterration, response to the Castern Mediterration R.K., Tandon H.D., Narndranathan M., Joshi J.K. o-Occlusive Disease of Liver in Central India. Lancet 7 Au<br>Zalvo F** Tomioka M., Calvo F., Siguas A., Sanchez L., Nava E., Garcia U., Valdivia M., Reategui E. 1995. Enfermedad hepatica veno-oclusiva asociada a l ingestion de humanrripa (*Senecio tephrosioides*). Rev. Gastroenterol. Peru, 15: 299-302.

Tuchweber B., Kovacs K., Jago M.V., Beaulieu T. 1974. Effect of steroidal and nonsteroidal microsomal enzyme inducers on the hepatotoxicity of pyrrolizidine alkaloids in rats. Res. Commun. Chem. Pathol. Pharmacol. 7: 459-480.

Vilar J.H., Garcia M., Cabrera P. 2000. Enfermedad venooclusiva hepática de causa Tóxica por Senecio vulgaris. Gastroenterol. Hepatol., 23: 285-6.

Wang., Yan J., Fu P. P., Chou M. W. 2005a. Metabolic activation of the tumorigenic pyrrolizidine alkaloid, retrorsine, leading to DNA adduct formation in vivo. Int. J. Environ. Res. Public Health, **2**: 74-79.

Wang Y-P., Yan J., Beger R.D., Fu P. P., Chou M. W. 2005b. Metabolic activation of the tumorigenic pyrrolizidine alkaloid, monocrotaline, leading to DNA adduct formation in vivo. Cancer Lett., **226**: 27-35.

Wang Y-P., Yan J., Fu P. P., Chou M. W. 2005c. Human liver microsomal reduction of pyrrolizidine alkaloid N-oxides to form the corresponding carcinogenic parent alkaloid. Toxicol. Lett. ,155: 411-420.

Weston C.F.M., Cooper B.T., Davies J.D., Levine D.F. 1987. Veno-occlusive disease of the liver secondary to ingestion of comfrey. Brit. Med. J., 295: 183

White I.N.H., Mattocks A.R., Butler W.H. 1973. The conversion of the pyrrolizidine alkaloid retrorsine to pyrrolic derivatives in vivo and in vitro and its acute toxicity to various animal species. Chem. Biol. Interact., 6: 207-218.

Wiedenfeld H., Röder E. 1991. Pyrrolizidine Alkaloids from *Ageratum conyzoides*. Planta Med. 57: 578-579.

Williams D.E., Reed R.L., Kedziersk B., Dannan G.A., Guengerich F.P., Buhler D.R. 1989. Bioactivation and detoxication of the pyrrolizidine alkaloid senecionine by cytochrome P-450 enzymes in rat liver. Drug Metab. Dispos. 17: 387-392.

Willmott F.C. Robertson G.W. 1920. Senecio disease or cirrhosis of the liver due to *Senecio* poisoning. Lancet, 23 October: 848-849.

Bartol.<br>
Synergis.<br>
actoxin and th.<br>
apl. Pharmacol.<br>
and the contract of the Yee S.B., Kinser S., Hill D.A., Barton C.C., Hotchkiss J.A. Harkema J.R., Ganey P.E., Roth R.A. 2000. Synergistic hepatotoxicity from coexposure to bacterial endotoxin and the pyrrolizidine alkaloid monocrotaline. Toxicol. Appl. Pharmacol., 166: 173-185.

Figure 3: Structures of isolated PA from *Jacobaea vulgaris*, syn. *Senecio jacobaea*

Figure 4: Gas chromatogram of the PA from *Jacobaea vulgaris*, syn. *Senecio jacobaea* 

Figure 5: PAs [µg / g plant material] in *Jacobaea vulgaris*, syn. *Senecio jacobaea*

Figure 6: PAs [µg / g] in hay from *Jacobaea vulgaris*, syn. *Senecio jacobaea* 

Figure 7: PAs [µg / g] in silage from *Jacobaea vulgaris*, syn. *Senecio jacobaea* 

Figure 8: Salad sample (left *Senecio vulgaris*; right rucola)



Figure 1: Enzymatic hydroxylation and didehydropyrrolizidine products 171x157mm (300 x 300 DPI)







Figure 3: Structures of isolated PA from Jacobaea vulgaris, syn. Senecio jacobaea 156x188mm (300 x 300 DPI)



Figure 4: Gas chromatogram of the PA from Jacobaea vulgaris, syn. Senecio jacobaea 254x190mm (96 x 96 DPI)





Figure 5: PAs [µg / g plant material] in Jacobaea vulgaris, syn. Senecio jacobaea 254x190mm (96 x 96 DPI)



Figure 6: PAs [µg / g] in hay from Jacobaea vulgaris, syn. Senecio jacobaea 254x190mm (96 x 96 DPI)







Figure 8: Salad sample (left Senecio vulgaris; right rucola) 254x142mm (96 x 96 DPI)