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Effect of growth stages on phenolics content and antioxidant activities of shoots in sweet marjoram (*Origanum majorana* L.) varieties under salt stress

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We investigated the contributions of salinity and development stage on total polyphenols, flavonoids, condensed tannins contents, phenolic content, 1,1-diphenyl-2-picrylhydrazyl (DPPH) and superoxide scavenging activities at three phenolic stages: early vegetative stage (EVS), late or prefloral vegetative (LVS) stage and flowering stage (FS). The total phenolic, flavonoids and condensed tannins contents were more important in the presence and absence of salt at prefloral or building stage than at EVS and FS. In addition, salt stress increased total polyphenol and individual phenolic contents in shoots of *Origanum majorana*. This increase was more important in LVS than in EVS and FS. Moreover, the antiradical activity of the shoots (DPPH) decreased with the addition of NaCl. In fact, LVS extracts showed the highest antioxidant properties. Furthermore, at LVS, marjoram grown at 75 mM showed a higher antiradical ability against DPPH radical and antioxidant activity, compared to EVS and LVS. Data reported here revealed the variation of phenolic compound contents at different stages of growth of *O. majorana*, and the possible role of these changes in the response of the plant to salt was also discussed.

**Key words:** Antiradical activity, *Origanum majorana*, early vegetative stage (EVS), late or prefloral vegetative (LVS) stage and flowering stage (FS), phenolic content.

INTRODUCTION

Plants constitute a valuable source of natural antioxidants including phenolic compounds and flavonoids (El-Ghorab et al., 2007). Because of their potential carcinogenicity, the utilization of synthetic antioxidants is progressively restricted. This trend is concomitant with an increasing interest for the identification and valorization of natural antioxidants of plant's origin. Consumers give more attention to healthy and balanced diets, which greatly rely on the utilization of natural preservatives for a healthier lifestyle and natural ways of preserving nutrients (Raghavan, 2007).

In plants, polyphenol biosynthesis and accumulation are generally stimulated in response to biotic/abiotic constraints (Naczk and Shahidi, 2004). Thus, salt-stressed plants might represent potential sources of polyphenols, by increasing polyphenol concentration in the tissues and restricting biomass production. Consequently, one may hypothesize that optimal polyphenol yield would be obtained using stress-tolerant species (De Abreu and Mazzafera, 2005).

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**Abbreviations:** EVS, Early vegetative stage; LVS, late vegetative stage; FS, flowering stage.
Nowadays, phenolic compounds play an important role in human health because of their anti-inflammatory, antiallergic, antimicrobial, anticarcinogenic and antiviral activities (Medina et al., 2007). They prevent lipid peroxidation and oxidative modification of low density lipoprotein by means of their antioxidant activities (Servili et al., 2004). Phenolic composition of food materials has been the scope of many studies lately due to their antioxidant effects.

Additionally, it has been determined that the antioxidant effect of plant’s products is mainly attributed to phenolic compounds, such as flavonoids, phenolic acids, tannins, and phenolic diterpenes (Pietta, 2000).

Lamiaceae plants are widely studied as natural antioxidant sources because of their high phenolic concentrations (Trouillas et al., 2003; Miura et al., 2002). Lamiaceae family includes a large number of volatile oil plants and the most important member is marjoram (Origanum majorana) (Paterson et al., 2006), a herb commonly found in Cyprus and the Eastern Mediterranean (Novak and Bitsch, 2002). This species has strong antioxidant activity, mainly because of its high phenolic acid and flavonoid contents, which are useful in health supplements and food preservation (Heo et al., 2002).

In a current data, it has been demonstrated that at prefloral stage, the richness of O. majorana in volatile and phenolic active compounds (known for their antioxidant, antimicrobial and insecticidal activities) could support the utilization of this plant in a large field of application including cosmetic, pharmaceutical, agro alimentary and biological defense.

This work was conducted to elucidate the effects of salinity, development stage and their interaction on the antioxidant properties of O. majorana shoot extracts through a quantification of their phenolic contents and an evaluation of 1,1-diphenyl-2-picrylhydrazyl (DPPH) and superoxide radical-scavenging capacities. The aim of this paper was to separate and quantify the effects of salinity and growth phase on antioxidant properties of O. majorana, which will be useful for crop breeders and growers attempting to produce it with high levels of natural antioxidants.

**MATERIALS AND METHODS**

**Plant material**

Marjoram seeds were taken from local plant nursery existing at Soliman in North east of Tunisia. Seeds of O. majorana varieties were germinated for 10 days in culture chamber with a 16 h photoperiod (150 µmol.m⁻².s⁻¹). Temperature and average relative moisture were respectively 22°C and 40% for the day and 18°C and 86% for the night. Eighty of each variety seedlings, having ten centimetre length stems and six leaves, were transferred into eight-}

strength Hoagland and Arnon (1950) nutrient solution (1.25 mM KNO₃, 1.25 mM Ca(NO₃)₂·4H₂O, 0.50 mM MgSO₄·7H₂O, 0.25 mM KH₂PO₄, 0.01 mM H₂BO₃, 0.001 mM MnSO₄·4H₂O, 0.0005 mM CuSO₄·5H₂O, 0.0005 mM ZnSO₄·6H₂O, and 0.00005 mM (NH₄)₂MoO₄·2H₂O) in a culture chamber with a 16 h photoperiod (150 µmol.m⁻².s⁻¹). After 20 days of acclimation, NaCl (75mM) was added to nutritive solution. The plant’s aerial parts were harvested 17 days at the onset of stress symptoms.

**Chemicals and standards**

All solvents used in the experiments (methanol) were purchased from Merck (Darmstadt, Germany). Folin-Ciocalteu reagent sodium carbonate (Na₂CO₃), aluminium chloride (AlCl₃), sulphuric acid (H₂SO₄), sodium hydroxide (NaOH), sodium nitrite (NaNO₃), hydrochloric acid (HCl), and 1,1-diphenyl-2-picrylhydrazyl (DPPH) were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (Steinheim, Germany). Authentic standards of phenolic compounds were purchased from Sigma and Fluka. Stock solutions of these compounds were prepared in high performance liquid chromatography (HPLC)-grade methanol. These solutions were wrapped in aluminum foil and stored at 4°C. All other chemicals used were of analytical grade.

**Phenolic extraction**

Marjoram aerial parts were dried at room temperature for two weeks. Samples of dried aerial parts were finely ground with a blade-carbide grinding (IKA-WERK Type: A 10). Triplicate sub-samples of 1 g of each ground aerial parts were separately extracted by stirring with 10 ml of pure methanol for 30 min. The extracts were then kept for 24 h at 4°C, filtered through a Whatman No. 4 filter paper, evaporated under vacuum to dryness and stored at 4°C until analysis (De Abreu and Mazzaferrà, 2005).

**Total polyphenol quantification**

The total phenolic content was assayed using the Folin–Ciocalteu (F-C) reagent, according to the method described by Mau et al. (2001). An aliquot of 125 µL of diluted extract (20% (v/v)) was added to 500 µL of deionized water and 125 µL of F-C reagent. After shaking, the mixture was incubated for 3 min at room temperature. Then, 1250 µL of 7% Na₂CO₃ solution was added. The volume obtained was adjusted to 3 ml using distilled water, mixed vigorously, and held for 90 min at ambient temperature. The absorbance of the solution was then measured at 760 nm against a blank. The sample was analysed in triplicate and the total phenolic content was expressed as mg of gallic acid equivalents (GAE) per gram of dry weight through a calibration curve range of 50 to 400 µg ml⁻¹ (R² =0.99).

**Flavonoid quantification**

The flavonoid content was measured (Dewanto et al., 2002). 1 ml of appropriately diluted marjoram samples (5% (v/v)) was added to a 10 ml volumetric flask containing 4 ml of distilled water, followed by immediate addition of 0.3 ml of 5% (w/v) NaNO₃, 0.6 ml of 10% (w/v) AlCl₃ after 5 min and 2 ml of 1 M NaOH after 6 min; contents of each reaction flask were diluted with 2.4 ml of distilled water and mixed immediately. Absorbance of resulting pink-coloured solution was read at 510 nm against the blank (distilled water). Samples were analysed in triplicate. Flavonoid content was expressed as mg
catechin equivalents (CE) per g of dry herb. The calibration curve range was 50 to 500 mg/ml. Triplicate measurements were taken for all samples.

**Tannin quantification**

0.05 ml of *O. majorana* samples extracted in non diluted methanol was added to 3 ml of vanilline (4%), and 1.5 ml of concentrated H₂SO₄. Absorbance of resulting pink-coloured solution was read at 500 nm against extract solvent as a blank (Zhishen et al., 1999). The amount of total condensed tannins is expressed as mg (+)-catechin /g DW. The calibration curve range was 50 to 400 μg/ml (R²=0.99). All samples were analysed in three replications.

**1, 1-Diphenyl-2-picrylhydrazyl (DPPH) and superoxide anion radical-scavenging activity**

The electron donation ability of the obtained methanol extracts was measured by bleaching of the purple coloured solution of 1, 1-diphenyl-2-picrylhydrazyl radical (DPPH) according to the method of Sun et al. (1988). Methanolic extracts (2 ml, 10 to 1000 μg ml⁻¹) were added to 0.5 ml of 0.2 mM DPPH. After an incubation period of 30 min at room temperature, the absorbance was measured against a blank at 517 nm. The antiradical activity was expressed as IC₅₀ (μg/ml), the concentration required to cause 50% DPPH inhibition. The ability to scavenge the DPPH radical was calculated using the following equation:

\[
\text{DPPH scavenging effect} \% = \left( \frac{A_{blank} - A_{sample}}{A_{blank}} \right) \times 100 \quad (1)
\]

Where, A blank is the absorbance of the control reaction and A sample is the absorbance in the presence of plant extract. Samples were analyzed in triplicate.

**Superoxide anion scavenging activity**

Superoxide anion scavenging activity was assessed using the method described by Duh et al. (1999). The IC₅₀ index value was defined as the amount of antioxidant necessary to reduce the generation of superoxide radical anions by 50%. The IC₅₀ values (three replicates per treatment) were expressed as μg ml⁻¹. As for DPPH⁺, a lower IC₅₀ value corresponds to a higher antioxidant activity of plant’s extract (Patro et al., 2005). The inhibition percentage of superoxide anion generation was calculated using the following formula:

\[
\text{Superoxide quenching} \% = \left( \frac{A_{blank} - A_{sample}}{A_{blank}} \right) \times 100
\]

Where, A blank and A sample have the same meaning as in Equation (1)

**Extraction and RP–HPLC analysis of phenolic compounds**

**Polyphenol extraction**

Free polyphenols were extracted by maceration into methanol according to the method of Mau et al. (2001). 1 g of dried and powdered sample was immersed into 10ml of methanol and the suspension was stirred for 30 min; then the mixture was kept at rest and obscurity at 4°C for 24 h. The mixture was then filtered through a Whatman filter paper (No. 4), then 3, 4-dihydroxybenzoic acid was added as an internal standard and the methanol macerate was evaporated to dryness under vacuum and stored at 4°C for further analysis.

**RP-HPLC analysis of phenolic compounds**

Phenolic compound analysis was carried out using an Agilent Technologies 1100 series liquid chromatograph (RP–HPLC) coupled with a UV– vis multiwavelength detector. The separation was carried out on a 250 × 4.6 mm, 4-μm Hypersil ODS C18 reversed phase column at ambient temperature. The mobile phase consisted of acetonitrile (solvent A) and water with 0.2% sulphuric acid (solvent B). The flow rate was kept at 0.5 ml/min. The gradient programme was as follows: 15%A/85%B, 0–12 min; 40%A/60%B, 12 to 14 min; 60%A/40%B, 14 to 18 min; 80%A/20%B, 18 to 20 min; 90%A/10%B, 20 to 24 min; 100%A, 24 to 28 min (Nuutila et al., 2002). The injection volume was 20 μl, and peaks were monitored at 280 nm. Samples were filtered through a 0.45 μm membrane filter before injection. Phenolic compounds were identified according to their retention times and spectral characteristics of their peaks against those of standards. Analyses were performed in triplicate.

**Statistical analysis**

All extractions and determinations were conducted in triplicate. Data were expressed as mean ± S.D. Means were statistically compared using the STATISTICA (v 5.1) program with Student’s t-test at the p < 0.05 significance level.

**RESULTS**

**Total polyphenol contents**

Salinity influenced significantly the total phenol contents of *O. majorana* at different growth stages. In fact, the content increased in the shoots by 2.5, 1.3 and 1.5 folds at early vegetative stage (EVS), late vegetative stage (LVS) and flowering stage (FS), respectively (Figure 1). At LVS, phenolics of *O. majorana* showed higher content of 7.24 to 8.86 mg GAE/g DMW respectively at 0 mM and 75 mM NaCl, compared to flowering stage and EVS (Figure 1). These results indicated that salinity influences significantly the secondary metabolism of *O. majorana*, which could be a defense mechanism and a biochemical adaptation to environmental stress (Dixon and Paiva, 1995). Our findings suggest that the late vegetative stage could be characterized by the maximum phenolic content (Figure 1). After this stage, the plant must reduce its growth and prepare itself for the budding stage. In fact, it could be postulated that during the late vegetative stage, *O. majorana* plant accumulates phenolics to prepare itself for the lignification process in order to slow down its growth. Indeed, many studies reported
that lignin is a polymer synthesized from phenolic compounds of phenylpropane type and occurs under well-defined molecular associations (Boudet, 1998; Brunow, 1998). Variation of phenolic concentration during the growth of marjoram affirms the influence of both phenological stages and salt stress on production and release of these metabolites.

Flavonoid and condensed tannin contents

In the presence of salt addition, the evolution of flavonoid and tannin contents was similar to polyphenols at different growth stages. As shown in Figures 2 and 3, the flavonoid and tannin contents increased under saline addition. This change led to significant (p ≤ 0.05)
Individual phenolic acid contents

Our previous study demonstrated that phenolic composition of *O. majorana* shoots was characterized by the predominance of flavonoids at early vegetative stage, especially amentoflavone at 0 mM NaCl, and quercetin-3–galactoside at 75 mM NaCl (Baatour et al., 2012).

Thus, the influence of growth stages on flavonoids and phenolic acid production was examined (Table 1). These two classes were stimulated by salt at different growth stages. Results showed that during the early vegetative stage and in absence of salt, flavonoids were predominant (p < 0.05) with 169.3 mg/100 g of DW against 131.1 mg/g DW for phenolic acids. However, during the late vegetative stage, phenolic acids became dominant (p < 0.05). But, at flowering vegetative stage, flavonoids became dominant with 135 and 191 mg/g DW, respectively at 0 and 75 mM NaCl.

The lowest level of phenols was detected in the flowering stage, whereas the highest content was detected during the late vegetative stage.

Comparing the results of this study to bibliographic data, it seems that physiological stage could affect significantly the phenolics classes. In fact, Hamrouni et al. (2009) and Papageorgiou et al. (2008) indicated the predominance of phenolic acids during the early vegetative stage, whereas flavonoids predominated during the other stages of growth of *O. majorana*. In another study, Ayan et al. (2007) reported that total phenol content reached the highest level at floral budding in *Hypericum hyssopifolium* and *Hypericum scabrum* and at full-flowering in *Hypericum pruinatum*. In another study, Verma and Kasera (2007) indicated that peak concentration of phenols was observed in flowering stage in *Boerhavia diffusa* and *Sida cordifolia* except in *Asparagus racemosus* that showed maximal accumulation of phenols in the vegetative stage.

In fact, it could be postulated that during the late vegetative stage, *O. majorana* plant accumulates phenolics to prepare itself for the lignification process in order to slow down its growth. The biosynthesis of the different phenolic acids in the shoots was stimulated by the salt treatments. Baatour et al. (2012) reported that during the early vegetative stage, rosmarinic acid also trans-2-hydroxycinnamic acid was known as the major compound, followed by amentoflavone in the control. In addition, we noted a significant stimulation of gallic and trans-2 hydroxycinnamic acids by 3 folds respectively and quercetin-3–galactoside by 10.5 folds. In addition, we showed an important modification in phenolic acids class in the presence of salt addition. Moreover, an appearance of chlorogenic, syringic, vanillic and ferulic acids was observed.

The appearance of ferulic acid under osmotic stress could be correlated to the reinforcement of the plant wall, the decrease of cell wall plasticity and to the overall cell elongation (Wakabayashi et al., 1997). However,
Sampietro et al. (2006) indicated that syringic acid was reported to promote cell division and has synergic effect with vanillic acid. Thus, in view of the accumulation of syringic acid, in the shoots at 75 mM NaCl (Table 1), we can suppose that it mitigates vanillic and ferulic acid effects in order to support O. majorana shoots growth under salt addition. Baatour et al. (2012) showed that at early vegetative stage, the stimulation of flavonoids content biosynthesis in the presence of salt could be related to the improvement of quercetin biosynthesis. We also noted an increase of quercetin-3-galactoside and the appearance of quercetin-3-rhamnoside. This result suggested that O. majorana may be responding as an adaptive mechanism by activating enzymes involved in the galactosylation of quercitin into quercetin-3-galactoside and quercetin-3-rhamnoside, which could lead to avoiding of salt damage.

As revealed in Table 1, in late vegetative stage, gallic and caffeic acids reached the highest content (56.03 mg/100 g of DW and 45.83 mg/100 g of DW, respectively), followed by amentoflavone (76.41 mg/100 g of DW) at 0 mM NaCl. Salt induced a stimulation of gallic, caffeic acids and amentoflavone to richness (71.85 mg/100 g of DW; 54.32 mg/100 g of DW and 125.85 mg/100 g of DW, respectively).

Independently of the applied treatment, amentoflavone was detected as the major phenolic compound, at the flowering vegetative stage, with a fraction of 60.65 mg/100 g of DW and 67.17 mg/100 g of DW, followed by gallic acid (33.47 mg/100 g of DW), respectively at 0 and 75 mM NaCl (Table 1).

NaCl provoked a stimulation of phenolic acids due to

Table 1. Phenolic contents (mg/100 g DW) of Origanum majorana shoots cultured under NaCl 75 mM at the early vegetative stage (E.V.S) and the late vegetative stage (L.V.S)
Table 2. Amounts of free radical scavenging activity and antiradical activity of *Origanum majorana* aerial part cultured under NaCl 75 mM.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Extract</th>
<th>DPPH scavenging activity (µg/ml)</th>
<th>IC$_{50}$ Antiradical activity (µg/ml)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EVS (0mM)</td>
<td>430±1.13$^a$</td>
<td>53±0.24$^a$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LVS (0mM)</td>
<td>203±0.68$^a$</td>
<td>50±0.01$^a$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FS (0mM)</td>
<td>207±0.97$^a$</td>
<td>51±0.07$^a$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EVS (75mM)</td>
<td>290±0.15$^b$</td>
<td>44±0.16$^b$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LVS (75mM)</td>
<td>199±0.09$^b$</td>
<td>40±0.25$^b$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FS (75mM)</td>
<td>208±0.04$^a$</td>
<td>41±0.05$^b$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Values (means of three replicates) with different superscripts (a–b) are significantly different at P < 0.05.

significant increase of caffeic, dihydroxyphenolic, chlorogenic, syringic, cinnamic and trans-2-hydrocinnamic acids by 1.96, 2.22, 1.7, 2.83, 3.22 and 2.93 folds, at flowering stage. The increase of flavonoids is the consequence of stimulation of epicatechin, rutin and quercetion by 2, 3.44 and 4.95 folds, at F.V.S (Table 1).

The comparison between salt constraints revealed an inhibition of phenolics acids contents attested by an important decrease of syringic, rosmarinic, trans-2 hydrocinnamic and ferulic acids contents by 8, 6, 3 and 7 folds (Table 1). Indeed, it is well known that an important function of flavonoids and phenolic acids is their action in plant’s defense mechanisms (Dixon and Paiva, 1995). Regarding these variations in the accumulation of secondary metabolites in marjoram plants, it could be concluded that the physiological stage of the plant affects the choice of best harvesting time. In fact, when phenolics and flavonoids are desired, the late vegetative stage and early vegetative stage could be favourable to harvesting than flowering stage.

### Antiradical and antioxidant activities

In the present study, the free radical scavenging activity of *O. majorana* extracts at different growth stages is as shown in Table 2. The stable DPPH radical was widely used to evaluate this activity in many plants’ extracts.

The assessment of antioxidant activity showed that *O. majorana* shoots were able to scavenge this radical at three growth stages (Table 2). However, LVS displayed a higher activity based on IC$_{50}$ = 50 and 40 µg ml$^{-1}$, respectively at 0 and 75 mM, than EVS and FS. Antioxidant activity increased under salt treatment at all growth stages. These findings showed that marjoram had a great antioxidant capacity at LVS as compared to FS and EVS with salt addition. *O majorana* shoots exhibited significant superoxide anion scavenging capacity (Table 2). As for DPPH, at NaCl 75 mM, shoot extracts were more effective O-2 scavengers than control ones with 44, 40 and 41 µg ml$^{-1}$ and 53, 50 and 51 µg ml$^{-1}$, respectively in EVS, L.S and FS. These results revealed that methanolic extracts of *O. majorana* varieties were free radical scavengers, acting as primary antioxidants.

These three extracts exhibited higher activities at 75 mM NaCl. In control, there were no differences between LVS and FS; meanwhile, LVS extracts showed the highest antioxidant properties. Furthermore, at LVS, marjoram grown at 75 mM showed a higher antiradical ability against both DPPH radical and antioxidant activity, as compared to E.V.S and L.V.S. In fact, the lowest IC$_{50}$ value corresponds to the highest antioxidant activity.

ROS are mostly generated in the chloroplasts during the electron transfer along the electron chain (Foyer et al., 1994) and an overproduction of ROS leading to an oxidative stress is known to be elicited by salinity (Hasegawa et al., 2000). So, to counteract NaCl-induced oxidative stress, plants are endowed with antioxidant defense system including enzymatic and non enzymatic ones, and it has been demonstrated recently that the improvement of DPPH radical scavenging property is involved in salt tolerance (Xie et al., 2008). The antioxidant capacity estimated by DPPH assay could be thus contributed by phenolic compounds.

### Conclusion

This study showed that salinity induced biochemical changes in the *O. majorana* tissues, which could reflect an adaptation response to the stress. Moreover, our results demonstrated that cultivation of medicinal plants like *O. majorana* under salt conditions could increase its secondary metabolism as shown by the enhancement antioxidant activities and phenolic content.

In fact, the differences in phenolic compound contents between growth stages could be attributed to phenolic composition. L.V.S had an important activity in real food systems relative to commercially used, antioxidant extracts and economic feasibility of practical applications.
due to high phenolic contents and antioxidant activities as compared to E.V.S and F.S.
Therefore, the favored harvest of marjoram could be in L.V.S and E.V.S than F.S., which supports the utilization of this plant in a large field of application including cosmetic, pharmaceutical, agro alimentary and biological defense.

REFERENCES


