

1 ***Lithospermum officinale* L. is a versatile source of  $\gamma$ -linolenic**  
2 **acid- and stearidonic acid-rich oils**

3 **Running title: GLA and SDA from *Lithospermum officinale***

4  
5 Svetlana Lyashenko<sup>a</sup>; Svetlana Yunusova<sup>b</sup>; Rosalía López Ruiz<sup>a</sup>; Evgeniya Vasfilova<sup>c</sup>;  
6 Olga Kiseleva<sup>e</sup>; Daba Chimitov<sup>d</sup>; Milada Bahanova<sup>e</sup>; Natalija Bojko<sup>f</sup>;  
7 José Luis Guil-Guerrero<sup>a\*</sup>

8  
9 <sup>a</sup>Universidad de Almería, 04120 Almería, Spain

10 <sup>b</sup>Ufa Institute of Chemistry, Ufa Federal Research Center, Russian Academy of  
11 Sciences, 450054, Ufa, Russian Federation

12 <sup>c</sup>Laboratory of Introduction of Herbaceous Plants, Institute Botanical Garden, Ural  
13 Branch of the Russian Academy of Sciences, 620000, Ekaterinburg, Russian Federation

14 <sup>d</sup>Laboratory of floristry and geobotany, Institute of General and Experimental  
15 Biology of the Siberian Branch of the Russian Academy of Sciences, 670047,  
16 Ulan-Ude, Russian Federation

17 <sup>e</sup>Buryat State Academy of Agriculture named after V.R. Philippov, 670000,  
18 Ulan-Ude, Russian Federation

19 <sup>f</sup>Dendrological park “Olexandria”, NAS of Ukraine, 09113, Bila Tserkva-13, Kiev  
20 Region, Ukraine

21 **\*Corresponding author:** José Luis Guil-Guerrero

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## 25Abstract

26Seeds of *Lithospermum officinale* L. from different climatic zones were analyzed  
27looking for new sources  $\gamma$ -linolenic acid (GLA, 18:3*n*-6) and stearidonic acid (SDA,  
2818:4*n*-3). Cultured *B. officinalis* was also analyzed with comparative purposes.  
29Analyses were conducted for fatty acid (FA) profiles in the whole seeds and in the  
30neutral and polar lipids by GC; lipid classes by open column chromatography and  
31preparative TLC; and tocopherols, sterols and phenolic compounds by HPLC-DAD, and  
32the later compounds were confirmed by LC-MS. The richest GLA sample was *L.*  
33*officinale* from St. Petersburg Botanical Garden (17.9% of total FA), while wild-  
34growing *L. officinale* from the Rostov region showed the highest percentage of SDA  
35(17.2% of total FA). Total FA content ranged from 11.3 to 20.8% of seed weight.  
36Neutral and polar lipids accounted for ~98 and 2.27% of total lipids. Five neutral lipid  
37classes were identified (% of NL): triterpene esters, 1.3; triacylglycerols, 93.1; free FA,  
381.8; diacylglycerols, 1.4; and monoacylglycerols, 2.4. Tocopherols and sterols reached  
3935.7 and 83.8 mg/100 g seeds;  $\gamma$ -tocopherol was the main tocopherol detected, and  $\Delta^5$ -  
40avenasterol was the predominant sterol. *L. officinale* seeds contain high amounts of  
41phenolic compounds (389.9 mg/100 g as upper limit), in which rosmarinic acid was the  
42main component. Overall, all data suggest the possibility of using *L. officinale* seed oil  
43in pharmaceutical and cosmetic formulae and as functional food.

44

45**Keywords:** *Lithospermum officinale*; gamma-linolenic acid; stearidonic acid; neutral  
46lipids; polar lipids

## 471. Introduction

48 Polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFA) constitute one of the most valuable components of  
49 vegetable oils, which contributes to the regulation of several physiological processes  
50 (Guil-Guerrero, 2007). Among PUFA,  $\gamma$ -linolenic acid (GLA, 18:3 $n$ -6) and stearidonic  
51 acid (SDA, 18:4 $n$ -3) are unusual in the plant kingdom, although both compounds  
52 reaches largest amounts in the seeds of some species of the family Boraginaceae Juss.  
53 These PUFA display well-documented health benefits: GLA exercises anti-  
54 inflammatory, antimicrobial, and antiplatelet activities (Menghini et al., 2019), while  
55 clinical experiments have shown that the consumption of GLA-containing foods could  
56 be useful in the treatment of local eczema, diabetes, virus infections and some type of  
57 cancer (Asadi-Samani et al., 2014). Regarding SDA, is the biosynthetic precursor of  
58 very long-chain PUFA (eicosapentaenoic acid (EPA, 20:5 $n$ -3) and docosahexaenoic  
59 acid (DHA, 22:6 $n$ -3), from which the production of anti-inflammatory lipid mediators  
60 takes place (i.e. eicosanoids). Moreover, SDA has been described as a potent inhibitor  
61 of cancer cell growth, and its efficiency against skin inflammation and dermatitis has  
62 been highlighted (Guil-Guerrero, 2007). Besides their pharmaceutical and nutraceutical  
63 interest, both PUFA provide valuable information on taxonomic and phylogenetic  
64 relationships among *Boraginaceae* species (Velasco & Goffman, 1999; Guil-Guerrero  
65 et al., 2001).

66 Borage seeds are one of the richest sources of GLA and SDA found in nature, and their  
67 oils contain 21-23% GLA of total FA (Guil-Guerrero et al., 2018). Meanwhile, SDA  
68 occurs in large amounts in the seeds of *Buglossoides arvensis* (L.) I.M. Johnst. (syn.  
69 *Lithospermum arvense* L.) (Ahiflower® oil), which is cultured for the commercial  
70 production of SDA-rich oils (~18% SDA of total FA) (Guil-Guerrero et al., 2013).  
71 Moreover, GLA and SDA were reported in *Lithospermum officinale* L. up to a ceiling

72of 16.6 and 13.3% of total FA, while high amounts of  $\gamma$ -tocopherol were reported in this  
73species (Velasco & Goffman, 1999). *L. officinale* comprises approximately 40 species,  
74with a center of diversity in the Southwestern United States and Mexico. Due to its  
75medicinal properties, *L. officinale* is cultivated nearly all over Europe and Western parts  
76of Asia and acclimated in China and North America (Cohen & Davis, 2009). The  
77actives principles of this plant are included in shoots and roots, and besides shikonin,  
78which have antimicrobial, anticancer, wound healing, anti-inflammatory, and  
79antithrombotic uses, it contains allantoin, rutin, p-hydroxybenzoic, hydrocaffeic,  
80chlorogenic and rosmarinic acids (Dresler et al., 2017).

81*L. officinale* seed oil was reported as a GLA-source; however, there is a lack of data on  
82the phytochemicals contained in this oil. The occurrence of suitable amounts of  
83phytochemicals (i.e. tocopherols (Tp), sterols (St) and phenolic compounds) in oils is  
84desirable for both oil preservation and to maintain human health. Taking into account  
85the interest about discovering new GLA and SDA sources for use as functional oils and  
86as cosmetic and pharmaceutical components, the goals of this study were: i) to study the  
87FA profiles of *L. officinale* seeds growing in different climatic areas; ii) to establish the  
88FA profiles of the various lipid classes of *L. officinale* seed oil; iii) to characterize Tc, St  
89and phenolic compounds of *L. officinale* seeds.

90

## 912. Experimental Procedures

### 922.1 Samples

93The characteristics of analyzed samples are detailed in Table 1. Some *L. officinale* seeds  
94were supplied by several botanical gardens, while other seeds were collected at mature  
95stages from their natural habitats. *Borago officinalis* seeds were collected from plants  
96cultured in the *University of Almería*. Each wild species was collected from three  
97subpopulations in each collection location. Upon arrival to the laboratory, the seeds  
98were labeled, weighed, measured and placed in a glass desiccator until analysis. Just  
99prior to analysis, seeds were ground to powder with a mortar, then they were  
100immediately analyzed. ~2 g of each sample was used for moisture analysis. This was  
101carried out in a forced air oven at 105 °C for 8 h, and all results are expressed on dry  
102weight (d.w.) basis. Moisture content for all seeds was  $\sim 7.5 \pm 0.5$ .

### 1032.2 Isolation of neutral and polar lipids

104Neutral lipids (NL) were extracted using the standard method of exhaustive extraction  
105by *n*-hexane in a Soxhlet apparatus, and the polar lipids (PL) were extracted from the  
106residual cake using a  $\text{CHCl}_3$ :MeOH (2:1) solution. Water and alcohol-soluble  
107components (carbohydrates, amino acids, etc.) were extracted with  $\text{CHCl}_3$ :MeOH, and  
108the condensed PL extract was treated with a 0.1% NaCl solution and dried over  
109anhydrous  $\text{Na}_2\text{SO}_4$ . The amounts of all lipid classes were estimated gravimetrically  
110(Yunusova et al., 2017). Equipment at the Khimiya CUC, UfIC, RAS, was used for  
111analysis. To isolate FA from NL, PL, and acyl-containing NL fractions, an alkaline  
112hydrolysis was effected with KOH (10%) in MeOH (1:10) at 60°C for 30 min. The  
113hydrolysis of triterpene esters was carried out using KOH (20%) in MeOH (1:10). The  
114resulting solution was diluted with hot water purified in a ratio of 1:2, acidified with 5%  
115sulfuric acid solution and extracted three times with diethyl ether. The ether extracts

116were combined, washed with water purified until neutral pH values, dried over Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>  
117anhydrous, and the solvent was removed on a rotary evaporator (Yunusova et al., 2017).

### 1182.3. *FA analysis*

119FA determination was carried out after derivatization of FA to FA methyl esters  
120(FAME) by methylation with diazomethane in diethyl ether (diazomethane). To obtain  
121FAME, diazomethane (DAM) (0.5-1 ml) was mixed with FA (10–20 mg). The reaction  
122takes place within 10-15 min. The completeness of the reaction was monitored by TLC  
123in a *n*-hexane-diethyl ether system (9:1); if necessary, a new portion of DAM was  
124added. At the end of the reaction, the remaining unreacted DAM was removed on a  
125rotary evaporator. DAM was obtained from nitrosomethylurea in diethyl ether. GC  
126analyses of the FA methyl esters were effected in a GC-2014 chromatograph  
127(Shimadzu) with an Omegawax TM 250 capillary column (30.0 m × 0.25 mm,  
128Supelco), poly(ethylene glycol) L stationary phase (0.25 μm). The temperatures were:  
129column 205 °C, vaporizer 250 °C, detector 260 °C. The carrier gas was He at a flow rate  
130of 30 mL/min. The peak area of the internal standard was used as reference to calculate  
131the mass of each FA in the resulting chromatograms, and results were computed as FA  
132percentages of total FA. Peaks were identified by retention times obtained for known  
133FA standards (PUFA No. 1, 47033; methyl γ-linolenate 98.5% purity, L6503; and  
134methyl stearidonate 97% purity, 43959 FLUKA) from Sigma-Aldrich, Steinheim,  
135Germany.

### 1362.4 *NL classes*

137NL were fractionated into lipid classes using an open column chromatography (CC) and  
138preparative thin layer chromatography (PTLC) (Yunusova et al., 2017). Then, analytical  
139TLC (ATLC) was used to obtain homogeneous fractions and to monitor the purity of  
140the obtained classes. Analytical TLC was carried out on “Alugram” Si G plates (KG,

141“Macherey-Nagel” GmbH Co.) for separation, purification, and identification of NL,  
142and the solvent systems were *n*-hexane- diethyl ether 9.5:0.5 (1), 9:1 (2), 8:2 (3), and  
1437:3 (4). NL were fractionated by CC, which was developed using silica gel grade L  
144(100–160 m, “Chemapol”, Czechoslovakia) as stationary phase, the extract–adsorbent  
145ratio was 1:50 (w/w), and the column cross-section area to adsorbent layer height ratio  
146was 1:20. The column was eluted using *n*-hexane–diethyl ether (0–100%). Fractions  
147were purified, if necessary, by PTLC on glass plates (20×20 cm) by means of a MN-  
148Kieselgel G silica gel (KG, Macherey-Nagel GmbH & Co.) using the solvent systems  
1491–4. The amount of each lipid class was estimated gravimetrically. Lipid classes were  
150identified as previously reported (Yunusova et al., 2017).

#### 1512.5 *Extraction of tocopherols and sterols*

152The extraction of tocopherols (Tp) and sterols (St) was carried out according to  
153Fabrikov et al. (2019). Approximately 0.2–0.3 g of *L. officinale* seeds were weighed in a  
154100 mL screw cap flask. Solutions of ascorbic acid (0.1 M, 5 mL) and potassium  
155hydroxide (2 M, 20 mL) were added. The mixture was heated for 45 min at 60 °C.  
156Extraction of unsaponifiable components was carried out by filtration of the initial  
157mixture, followed by addition of 10 mL of saturated NaCl solution and 10 mL of *n*-  
158hexane with BHT (5 mg/L). The sample was stirred for 1 min in Vortex and the organic  
159layer was collected in a 50 mL round bottom flask. The aqueous layer was re-extracted  
160with 5 mL of *n*-hexane and then the hexane layer obtained was combined with the first  
161organic phase. The obtained *n*-hexane solution was evaporated in a rotavapor at 60 °C  
162to dryness. The resulting residue was dissolved in 1 mL of 2-propanol:*n*-hexane (50:50,  
163v/v).

#### 1642.4. *Determination of tocopherols*

165Tp were identified by chromatographic comparison with authentic standards, by co-  
166elution and by their UV spectral characteristics (DAD). Peaks purity evaluation on the  
167DAD measurements was based on spectral comparison at three different peak heights.  
168Tp were determined using RP-HPLC/DAD (Agilent 1100 series, Palo Alto, CA, USA)  
169equipped with a ProntoSIL C30 column (4.6 × 250 mm, 3 µm; Bischoff  
170Chromatography, Leonberg, Germany) cooled at 15 °C. Mixtures of  
171methanol:acetonitrile (95:5, v/v, phase A) and 2-propanol:*n*-hexane (50:50, v/v, phase  
172B) were used as mobile phase at a flow rate of 0.8 mL/min. The following sequence was  
173used to elute each sample: 25 min of phase A (100 %) followed by 20 min of phase B  
174(100 %). Additional 15 min of phase A (100%) were used to re-equilibrate the column.  
175Phase B was used as a washing solution. The wavelength selected for DAD was 290  
176nm. Limit of detection (LOD), limit of quantification (LOQ), linear range and  
177recoveries rates were obtained as previously reported (Fabrikov et al., 2019). For α-Tp,  
178LOD and LOQ were 0.40 and 1.80 mg/L; linear range – ( $R^2$ ) was 4–400 mg/L (0.9993);  
179and the recovery rate was 102.6±1.4%. For δ-Tp, LOD and LOQ were 0.25 and 1.20  
180mg/L; linear range – ( $R^2$ ) was 4–400 mg/L (0.9990); and the recovery rate was  
181101.8±1.7%. For γ-Tp, LOD and LOQ were 0.35 and 1.80 mg/L; linear range – ( $R^2$ )  
182was 4–400 mg/L (0.9994); and the recovery rate was 99.0±2.1%.

### 183 2.5. Determination of sterols

184St were determined by RP-HPLC/DAD using a Luna C18 column (250 × 4.6 mm, 5  
185µm; Phenomenex) at a fixed temperature of 30 °C. The mobile phase was programmed  
186in isocratic mode, containing methanol:acetonitrile (70:30, v/v), and the flow rate was  
1870.8 mL/min for 55 min. The wavelength selected for DAD was 210 nm. St were  
188quantified by means of a calibration curve made with pure standards: 99.0%-purity Δ<sup>5</sup>-  
189avenasterol, 90.0%-purity Campesterol, and ≥96%-purity β-Sitosterol (Sigma-Aldrich,



190Barcelona, Spain). For  $\Delta^5$ -avenasterol, LOD and LOQ were 1.3 and 315 mg/L; linear  
191range – ( $R^2$ ) was 3–190 mg/L (0.959); and the recovery rate was  $98.7 \pm 1.9\%$ . For  
192Campesterol, LOD and LOQ were 1.8 and 3.9 mg/L; linear range – ( $R^2$ ) was 5–140 mg/  
193L (0.981); and the recovery rate was  $95.7 \pm 2.1\%$ . For  $\beta$ -Sitosterol, LOD and LOQ were  
1941.2 and 2.0 mg/L; linear range – ( $R^2$ ) was 3–240 mg/L (0.9994); and the recovery rate  
195was  $91.5 \pm 1.2\%$ .

#### 1962.6 Extraction and determination of phenolic compounds by HPLC-DAD

197~0.2 g of dry seed powders were extracted three times at room temperature with  
198methanol:water (60:40, v/v) as solvent and adjusted to pH 3.2 with formic acid, under  
199stirring for 4 h. MeOH was of HPLC grade. The mixture was centrifuged at 3500 rpm  
200for 10 min, and the supernatants were collected, combined and vacuum-evaporated at 60  
201°C to dryness, and then the obtained residue was dissolved in 1 mL of the previous  
202methanolic solution.

203Phenolics were analyzed using a HPLC Finnigan Surveyor LC Pump Plus Thermo  
204Scientific system equipped with a Diode Array Detector (DAD) Thermo Scientific and  
205Hypersil Gold column (250 x 4.6mm, 5 $\mu$ m). The compounds were separated with  
206gradient elution using aqueous acetic acid (acetic acid: H<sub>2</sub>O, 4:96, v/v) (A) and  
207methanol (B) as eluents at ambient temperature. The elution system was as follows: 0-  
20830 min, 80% B; 30-50 min, 25% B; 50-60 min, 80% B, all them at a flow rate of 0.65  
209mL/min. The mobile phase was filtered through a 0.45  $\mu$ m membrane filter (Millipore,  
210Durapore®, Ireland), and the injection volume was 10  $\mu$ L. Chromatograms were  
211recorded at 320, 300 and 280 nm. A typical chromatogram is displayed in Fig. 1.  
212Phenolic compounds were identified by congruent retention times compared with pure  
213standards. Quantification of the compounds was made using external calibration curves

214obtained from pure standards of phenolic compounds (Sigma Aldrich, Barcelona,  
215Spain) in the HPLC system.

## 2162.7 *Characterization of phenolic compounds by LC-MS*

217The confirmation of the structure of phenolic compounds by HPLC-DAD was  
218accomplished by LC-MS. The chromatographic separation of the phenolics was  
219performed on a Thermo Fisher Scientific Transcend 600 LC (Thermo Scientific  
220Transcend™, Thermo Fisher Scientific, San Jose, CA, USA) by using a Hypersil Gold  
221column (250 x 4.6mm, 5 µm). A flow rate of 0.65 mL/min was set. The compounds  
222were separated with gradient elution using aqueous acetic acid (acetic acid: H<sub>2</sub>O, 1:99,  
223v/v) (A) and methanol (B) as eluents at ambient temperature. The step gradient was as  
224follows: 0–20 min 80% of A; then, it was linearly decreased to 25% in 10 min and  
225remained constant during 10 min. Later, it was increased to 80% in 10 min and  
226remained constant during 5 min. The total running time was 55 min. The column  
227temperature was set at 25 °C and the injection volume was 10 µL. The LC system is  
228coupled to a single mass spectrometer Orbitrap Thermo Fisher Scientific (Exactive™,  
229Thermo Fisher Scientific, Bremen, Germany) using an electrospray interface (ESI)  
230(HESI-II, Thermo Fisher Scientific, San Jose, CA, USA) in positive and negative ion  
231mode. ESI parameters were as follows: spray voltage, 4 kV; sheath gas (N<sub>2</sub>>95%), 35  
232(adimensional); auxiliary gas (N<sub>2</sub>>95%), 10 (adimensional); skimmer voltage, 18 V;  
233capillary voltage, 35 V; tube lens voltage, 95 V; heater temperature, 305 °C; capillary  
234temperature, 300 °C. The mass spectra were acquired employing two alternating  
235acquisition functions: (1) full MS, ESI<sup>+</sup>, without fragmentation (higher collisional  
236dissociation (HCD) collision cell was switched off), mass resolving power = 25,000  
237FWHM; scan time = 0.25 s; (2) all-ions fragmentation (AIF), ESI<sup>+</sup>, with fragmentation  
238(HCD on, collision energy 30 eV), mass resolving power = 10,000 FWHM; scan time =

2390.10 s, (3) full MS, ESI- using the aforementioned settings and (4) AIF, ESI- using the  
240settings explained for (2). Mass range in the full scan experiments was set at m/z 50–  
241700. LC chromatograms were acquired using the external calibration mode and they  
242were processed using Xcalibur<sup>TM</sup> version 3.0, with Qualbrowser and Trace Finder 4.0  
243(Thermo Fisher Scientific, Les Ulis, France). Unknown analysis was carried out with  
244Compound Discoverer<sup>TM</sup> version 2.1.

#### 2452.11 *Statistical analysis*

246Data correspond to the analyses effected to seeds received in a single shipment. All data  
247in tables were analyzed using one-way ANOVA (Statgraphics Centurion XVI.I,  
248Warrenton, VA, USA) and expressed as the average  $\pm$  SD of three replicates.  
249Differences among mean values were tested using Duncan's test at  $P < 0.05$ .

## 2503. Results and Discussion

### 2513.1 FA profiles

252 Total FA content in *L. officinale* seeds ranged from 10.4 in wild E-05 to 20.8 g/100 g  
253 d.w. in cultivated A-17 (Table 2). Such figures are not too high, considering oil content  
254 in other *Boraginaceae* species, but it was quite similar to *B. officinalis* analyzed in this  
255 work (18.4 g/100 g d.w.); however, both oil content and bioactive PUFA in  
256 *Boraginaceae* species can be easily increased through agrotechnological strategies and  
257 culture lines selection (Berti et al., 2007). Palmitic acid (PA, 16:0) was the main  
258 saturated FA (SFA) in all samples (3.2-5.8% of total FA) which is the most common  
259 SFA found in animals and plants. Such percentage was followed by those of stearic acid  
260 (SA, 18:0) (1.6 to 2.4%). As for unsaturated FA (UFA), the *n*-3 PUFA fraction (SDA  
261 and ALA) ranges between 42.0 (F-18) and 53.3% (E-14), while the *n*-6 one (LA and  
262 GLA) ranged between 27.2 (E-17) and 35.7% (B-17). GLA was found in all analyzed  
263 samples, ranging from 11.5 (E-17) to 17.9% (F-18), and such percentages were slightly  
264 lower than values obtained for borage seeds (19.4%), but higher than other figures  
265 reported for blackcurrant and evening primrose seed oils (10.4 and 9.24% GLA,  
266 respectively) (Guil-Guerrero, 2007). As for SDA, it ranged from 9.2 (F-18) to 17.2%  
267 (E-17), and in some cases such figures are below to SDA percentages reported for *E.*  
268 *plantagineum* seed oil (12–14%). However, E-17 and E-14 samples showed higher  
269 amounts of SDA (~17%) than *E. plantagineum*, which are similar to values reported for  
270 commercial Ahiflower<sup>®</sup> oil (18-20% SDA) (Guil-Guerrero et al., 2013). Such  
271 differences in individual FA contents could be related to the existence of different  
272 chemotypes, given that GLA and SDA percentages changes marginally year-on-year  
273 within culture locations. This way, in cultivated A-16 and A-17 samples (RAS MBG,  
274 Moscow), GLA percentages slightly changed (17.4 and 17.8%), and the same is true for

275SDA (10.6 and 11.3%). Moreover, wild growing *L. officinalis* samples from Orlovsky  
276(E-17, E-15 and E-14) reached similar GLA percentages in 2014, 2015, 2017 (11.5,  
27711.8 and 12.3%, respectively). However, environmental parameters (temperature,  
278humidity, soil composition and other abiotic factors) can marginally affect PUFA  
279percentages (Guil-Guerrero et al., 2017).

280The GLA/SDA ratio widely changed in the different samples. Most samples showed  
281higher GLA percentages than those of SDA. However, wild samples contained similar  
282GLA and SDA percentages (13.8 and 13.5% in G-16; 15.8 and 15.9% in H-18,  
283respectively). This fact might be related to environmental factors, as these seeds were  
284collected from plants growing in subarctic climatic conditions, with average annual  
285temperature  $\sim -1^{\circ}\text{C}$ . Specifically, G-16 sample grew up in Dfc climate, which is  
286characterized by strong cold without dry season and cold summer, while H-18 seeds  
287were collected under [monsoon-influenced subarctic climate](#) (Beck et al., 2018). Only E-  
28817 and E-14 samples contained higher SDA% than that of GLA% (both  $\sim 17$  SDA and  
289 $\sim 12\%$  GLA). The highest PUFA content (86.4%) was reached in H-18 sample, which  
290was collected in the Republic of Buryatia (Eastern Siberia, Russia), located on the  
291southern boundary of permafrost distribution and characterized by a very cold  
292environment (Badmaev et al., 2019). Similar conclusions on the influence of climate  
293parameters on GLA content were obtained when checking blackcurrant cultivars from  
294the Republic of Sakha (Yakutia, Siberia) (Lyashenko et al., 2019). These findings are  
295consistent with earlier reports indicating that seeds of plants growing under cold climate  
296tends to produce higher amounts of UFA in comparison with those produced in warmer  
297climates. This is due to that the unsaturation level of membrane lipids and the position  
298of double bonds within the FA structure regulates membrane fluidity, which provides  
299tolerance and acclimatization to environmental stresses (Özcan, 2010). According to

data summarized in Table 2, *L. officinalis* seed oil can be divided into 3 groups: i) higher GLA% than that of SDA% ( $\sim$ GLA  $\geq$ 15%,  $\sim$ SDA  $\geq$ 9%); ii) GLA% lower than that of SDA% ( $\sim$ GLA  $\geq$ 11%,  $\sim$ SDA  $\geq$ 16%); and iii) GLA% and SDA% at similar values ( $\sim$ GLA and SDA  $\geq$ 12%). Such variations in the FA profiles of *L. officinalis* seed oil lead us to consider to this species as a versatile source of GLA and SDA, with a wide variety of applications. For instance, it can be useful for obtaining different plant chemotypes having selected GLA/SDA ratios, thus, adapted to the needs of the various consumer.

In addition to GLA and SDA, *L. officinale* seed oil showed high amounts of LA and ALA (15.7-19.8 and 32.8-37.4%, respectively). The highest LA percentage was detected in G-16 sample (19.8), while A-17 sample showed the highest ALA percentage (37.4). Such ALA percentages were higher than those found in common commercial ALA sources: canola and rapeseed oil (9%), and soybean oil (7%) (Barceló-Coblijn, & Murphy, 2009).

The major difference between *L. officinale* and *B. officinalis* seeds is that the latter contains larger fractions of *n*-6 PUFA, SFA and MUFA, while it practically lacks *n*-3 PUFA.

The amounts of ALA and LA detected in *L. officinale* have nutritional interest, since these are the starting molecules for the biosynthesis of EPA and arachidonic acid (ARA, 20:4*n*-6), from which the synthesis of eicosanoids and prostaglandins takes place (Barceló-Coblijn, & Murphy, 2009). Interestingly, *E. plantagineum* (Purple Viper's Bugloss) seed oil have similar FA profiles to some *L. officinale* chemotypes detailed in this study. The former is considered as “the plant-based alternative for marine oils”, and it contains GLA ( $\sim$ 10%), SDA ( $\sim$ 13%) and high ALA percentages ( $\sim$ 30%) (Mir, 2008). This oil was approved as Novel Food (approval 2008/558). According to the

EU's legislation and policy on food and Novel Foods Regulation (EU), foods that are considered as "substantially equivalent" to an existing food being already marketed within the EU, have a simplified procedure for marketing (Regulation (EU) 2015/2283). Thus, considering a very similar nutrient and bioactive compounds composition between *E. plantagineum* and *L. officinale* seed oils, the latter would be marketed as functional oil, to achieve the physiological benefits related to bioactive GLA and SDA.

### 3.2 Lipid classes

To study the composition of the lipid classes (Table 3), C-15 was used, since it was the only sample containing enough material to carry out this type of analysis. As expected, NL accounted for nearly 98% of total lipids, and PL (2.3%) was a minor fraction of the total lipids. These data agree with those of *Symphytum officinale* (Yunusova et al., 2017) and *B. officinalis* (Napal Senanayake, & Shahidi, 2000), in which NL was the main lipid class. In the NL fraction five lipid classes were identified: triterpene esters (TE), 1.3; triacylglycerols (TAG), 93.1; free FA (FFA), 1.8; diacylglycerols + sterols (DAG), 1.4; and monoacylglycerols (MAG), 2.4 (% of NL). NL contained mainly TAG, as is commonly found in the NL of ripe plant seeds, which act as lipids storage to be used as an energy source during seed germination and seedling growth (Shimada, et al., 2017). The remaining NL classes were detected in negligible amounts. The percentage of TAG in *L. officinale* NL (93.1 %) was higher than that previously described for *S. officinale* (86.6 %) (Yunusova et al., 2017), but lower than that detected in *B. officinalis* seeds (99.1%) (Napal Senanayake, & Shahidi, 2000). The FA composition of the TAG fraction was quite similar to that of NL. PA was the main SFA in NL (5.6-18.0%), and the main PUFA in all NL classes was LA (18.4-26.8%), except in the TAG fraction, in which ALA was the main PUFA (36.1%). The highest GLA percentages were detected in TAG and MAG (17.0 and 14.2%), while the higher SDA percentages were detected

350in the TAG and DAG fractions (10.5 and 9.5%). The PL fraction contained PA (18.1%),  
351OA (17.5%), LA (22.2%), GLA (7.3 %), and ALA (10.9%), while SDA was found in  
352small amounts (2.4%). In total, PL reached lower PUFA percentages (42.8%) than that  
353of NL (>77%). PUFA contained in the different lipid classes have different degree of  
354bioavailability, and this fact may have practical applications. For instance, PUFA  
355contained in MAG and DAG are highly bioavailable (Meynier & Genot, 2017). On this  
356basis, GLA- and SDA-based MAG may offer a clinical advantage to patients struggling  
357with fat malabsorption/maldigestion problems, for instance, patients with cystic fibrosis  
358(Cuenoud et al., 2020). On the other hand, *n*-3 PUFA are better protected against  
359oxidation when they are included in polar lipids, while the bioavailability of *n*-3 PUFA  
360included in the PL fraction is higher than that of TAG (Jiménez Callejón et al., 2020).  
361These lipid fractions were not too high in the studied sample, but it is expected that  
362these fractions could be higher in other unanalyzed *L. officinale* chemotypes, which will  
363be checked as soon as possible.

### 3643.3 Unsaponifiable fraction

365These analyses were accomplished in E-17 and F-18 samples, in which SDA and GLA  
366reached the highest relative percentages (Table 4). Tp reached the highest amount in F-  
36718 sample, which contained 35.7 mg/100 g d.w. Such figure was slightly lower than that  
368of *B. officinalis* seeds (44.1 mg/100 g d.w.). The predominant Tp in *L. officinale* was  $\gamma$ -  
369Tp (33.0 mg/100 g d.w. in F-18 sample), which was in good agreement with data  
370reported by [Velasco](#) and Goffman (1999). Overall, the main difference between *L.*  
371*officinale* and *B. officinalis* seeds is that the later contains  $\delta$ -Tp and the former  $\gamma$ -Tp as  
372predominant Tp, while *B. officinalis* lacks  $\alpha$ -Tp.

373As for sterols, the total amounts detected in *L. officinalis* (83.8 mg/100 g d.w. in E-17)  
374was higher than that found in borage seeds (65.1 mg/100 g d.w.). In *L. officinalis*  $\Delta^5$ -



avenasterol was the predominant sterol (56.0 mg/100 g seed in E-17 sample), followed by campesterol (23.5 mg/100 g d.w. in E-17 sample) and  $\beta$ -sitosterol (8.8 mg/100 g d.w. in F-18 sample). For St, no large differences were found between *L. officinale* and *B. officinalis* seeds.

A 280-nm HPLC-DAD chromatogram of phenolic compounds of *L. officinale* seed extract is shown in Figure 1, the calibration data on phenolic compounds determined by HPLC-DAD and LC-MS ion parameters are summarized in Table 5, and the amounts detected of phenolics are detailed in Table 6. Gallic, protocatechuic, p-hydroxybenzoic, caffeic, salicylic, rosmarinic and lithospermic acids were identified in *L. officinale*. Rosmarinic acid was the main compound (323.4 mg/100 g seeds in E-17 sample), and this amount was higher than that detected in borage seeds (96.1 mg/100 g). Rosmarinic acid accumulation is a rather consistent feature of species within the *Boraginaceae* family (Dresler et al. 2017). The main differential characteristic of *B. officinalis* with respect to *L. officinale* is that the former contains DL-p-Hydroxyphenyl lactic acid, 3,4-Dihydroxyhydrocinnamic acid, p-coumaric acid, ferulic acid and 2-hydroxy-4-methoxybenzoic acid; while *L. officinale* contains p-hydroxybenzoic acid, which is absent in *B. officinalis*. On the other hand, the total content of phenolic compounds is much higher in *L. officinale* (389.9 and 367.2 mg/100 g d.w. for E-17 and F-18 samples) than in *B. officinalis* (22.6 mg/100 g d.w.).

394

## 3955. Conclusions

396Some chemotypes of *L. officinalis* seeds analyzed in this work contained high GLA and  
397SDA amounts, and intraspecific variations of *L. officinalis* lead to considerer this  
398species as a suitable candidate for cultivation and functional oils obtainment. Until now,  
399GLA- and SDA-oils have been obtained from a small number of species; however,  
400using plant chemotypes belonging to the same species for obtaining both GLA- and  
401SDA-rich oils would be advantageous, since the agronomic knowledge applied for a  
402single species cultivation would be applied to any plant chemotype. Some of the  
403chemotypes analyzed here show advantageous FA profiles with respect to other  
404Boraginaceae species currently cultivated for obtaining GLA- or SDA-rich oils. The  
405high variability detected for GLA and SDA percentages indicates a high genetic  
406variability of the  $\Delta 6$ -destaturase enzyme within this taxon, and this fact could be  
407advantageously used to obtain plant chemotypes hyperproducers of GLA and/or SDA  
408by culture lines selection. This way, the current cultured *B. arvensis* used for SDA-rich  
409oils production might be exchanged by others chemotypes of *L. officinale* detected in  
410this work, which produces similar SDA percentages. Future actions should be devoted  
411to study the health benefits associated with *L. officinale* seed oils intake, including *in*  
412*vivo* studies, while genetic and agronomic variables should be explored to allow an  
413efficient cultivation of the various *L. officinale* chemotypes. Considering that *L.*  
414*officinale* roots are a source of shikonin, this species could be used to produce  
415functional GLA- and SDA-rich oils, and simultaneously the roots could be used for the  
416obtention of shikonin.

417

418**Conflict of Interest:** The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

419

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508Figure Legend:

509Figure 1. 280 nm-RP-HPLC chromatogram of *Lithospermum officinale* seeds. Legend:

5101 Gallic acid (6.8 min), 2 Protocatechuic acid (9.4 min), 3 p-Hydroxybenzoic acid (13.1

511min, 4 caffeic acid (21.9 min), 5 Salicylic acid (31.0) min, 6 ferulic acid (32.3 min), 7

512Rosmarinic acid (35.2 min), 8 Unknown.

513