Inhibition of cooked food-induced mutagenesis by dietary constituents: Comparison of two natural isothiocyanates

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ABSTRACT

Sulforaphane(1-isothiocyanato-(4R)-(methylsulphinyl)butane), a major constituent of broccoli (Brassica oleracea, var. italica) and a structurally related natural aliphatic isothiocyanate, sulforaphen (4-isothiocyanato-(1R)-(methylsulphinyl)-1-(E)-butene), found in radish (Raphanus sativus L., Cruciferae) were investigated for their antimutagenic potential against different classes of cooked food mutagens (heterocyclic amines) in the Ames assay using *Salmonella typhimurium* TA98 and TA100 strains in the presence of Aroclor 1254-induced rat liver S9. Results of the in vitro antimutagenicity studies in the TA100 strain strongly suggest that both isothiocyanates were potent inhibitors of the mutagenicity induced by all the tested mutagens. Sulforaphen, possessing unsaturation in the alkyl chain of its structure, was, however, found to be 1.3–1.5 times more active than sulforaphane. These studies strongly warrant further investigations of sulforaphen for its potential as a chemopreventive agent.

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1. Introduction

Heterocyclic amines (HCAs) represent a unique class of dietary mutagens and carcinogens to which humans are exposed. These dietary carcinogens are generated in muscle meats, such as beef, pork, fowl and fish, during cooking procedures, such as broiling, frying, barbequing, that employ high temperatures (Felton & Knize, 1991). Potent mutagenic and carcinogenic effects of HCAs are reported in rodents (Wakabayashi, Nagao, Esumi, & Sugimura, 1992), as well as in non-human primates (Adamson, Takayama, Sugimura, & Thorgeirsson, 1994). Studies also indicate the presence of heterocyclic amines in the urine of humans eating a normal non-vegetarian diet, thus illustrating that a certain population eating animal protein is continuously exposed to these carcinogens through diet (Reistad et al., 1997). Epidemiological studies also show that heterocyclic amines intake is associated with the etiology of human cancer (deMeester & Gerber, 1995; Steck et al., 2007).

However, the carcinogenic risk imposed by these probable human carcinogens can be reduced by other dietary factors that influence their uptake and biotransformation. There is sufficient scientific evidence indicating that populations consuming diets rich in fruits and vegetables have a reduced risk of developing several types of cancers (Steinmetz & Potter, 1996; Surh, 2003). Recently, several natural compounds with chemoprotective properties have been identified. Some of these compounds particularly, the isothiocyanates (ITCs) present in widely consumed cruciferous vegetables, such as radish, cabbage, cauliflower, watercress, horseradish, broccoli and mustard, have been shown to inhibit various human cancers (Choi et al., 2006; Hecht, 1999; Kohlmeier & Su, 1997). Among these, sulforaphane (SF), found in broccoli, sprouts and kale (Zhang & Tang, 2007) is one of the most characterised ITCs and is currently under active investigation for its chemopreventive properties against various cancers. It has been reported to induce cell cycle arrest and apoptosis in human colon (Gamet-Payrastre et al., 2000; Nair et al., 2008), prostate (Choi et al., 2006) and mammary cancer cells (Pledgie-Tracy, Sobolewski, & Davidson, 2007; Singletary & MacDonald, 2000). Mechanistic studies have shown that cancer chemopreventive activity of SF is due to a favourable modification of Phase-1 and Phase-2 carcinogen metabolism, resulting in an increased carcinogen excretion or detoxification and decreased carcinogen–DNA interaction (Clapper et al., 1997; Nestle, 1997). In vitro inhibitory studies on various human cytochrome P450 enzymes have shown SF to be an effective inhibitor of a range of cytochrome enzymes that are essential for metabolic activation of many proximate carcinogens (Langouet et al., 2000). Previously we have reported the inhibitory effect of SF against various cooked food mutagens (Shishu & Kaur, 2003). From the large number of reported investigations on this potential chemopreventive phytochemical, it has been observed that it possesses the ability to simultaneously modulate multiple cellular targets involved in cancer development. Taking into account this

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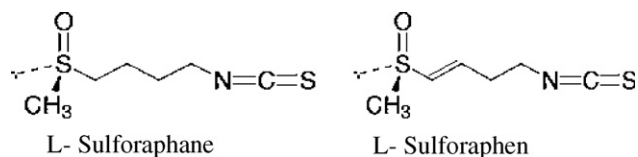 [1] Tel.: +91 172 2534113(O), +91 172 2701914(R); fax: +91 172 2541142.

Fig. 1. Structures of sulforaphane and sulforaphen.

evidence and its favourable toxicological profile, SF has been viewed as a conceptually promising agent in cancer prevention and/or therapy.

Although, literature indicates extensive reports on antineoplastic properties of SF (Zhang & Tang, 2007), its natural analogue, sulforaphen (SFN), isolated from radish, has yet not been scientifically explored for its potential in preventing cancer and other diseases. In Asian medicine, the juice of radish is used for treatment of a variety of ailments, including whooping cough, cancer, coughs, gastric discomfort, liver problems, constipation, dyspepsia, gallbladder problems, arthritis, gallstones, kidney stones and intestinal parasites, but its effectiveness in solving these problems has not been scientifically confirmed. Moreover, radish roots are generally relished as a raw vegetable and as a component of salads. Hence they may be more beneficial than other cruciferous vegetables which are consumed after cooking because heating inactivates the enzyme myrosinase essential for liberating active ITCs from their glucosinolate precursors (Conaway et al., 2000). Therefore, it would be of interest to evaluate this SF-related isothiocyanate for its chemoprotective effects against diet-induced cancers.

In the present study, we have investigated and compared the antigenotoxic potential of SF with its natural analogue SFN from radish, using the Ames Salmonella/reversion assay in two different strains of S. typhimurium, namely TA98 and TA100, against various classes of heterocyclic amines (cooked food mutagens) found in human diet. SFN is a structurally related alkyl isothiocyanate and differs from SF in having a double bond in the alkyl chain (Fig. 1).

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Bacterial strains

Histidine-requiring TA98 and TA100 strains of *Salmonella typhimurium* were obtained as free gifts from Dr Bruce N. Ames (University of California, Berkley, USA).

2.2. Chemicals

2-Amino-3-methylimidazo[4,5-f]quinoline (IQ), 2-amino-3, 4-dimethylimidazo[4,5-f]quinoline (MeIQ), 2-amino-3,8-dimethylimidazo[4,5-f]quinoxaline (MeIQx), 2-amino-1-methyl-6-phenylimidazo[4,5-b]pyridine (PhIP) and 3-amino-1-methyl-5H-pyrido[4,3-b]indole (Trp-P-2) acetate were purchased from Toronto Research Chemicals Inc., Canada. 2-Amino-6-methyldipyrido[1,2-a:3',2'-d]imidazole (Glu-P-1)hydrochloride monohydrate was purchased from Wako Pure Chemicals, Japan. 3-Amino-1,4-dimethyl-5H-pyrido[4,3-b]indole (Trp-P-1) acetate was kindly gifted by Dr T. Nohmi, National Institute of Hygenic Sciences, Tokyo, Japan. L-Sulforaphane and L-sulphoraphen were kindly gifted by LKT laboratories, USA. Albumin (bovine) and nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide phosphate (NADP) sodium salt, were purchased from Sisco Research Laboratories, Bombay, India. D-Glucose-6-phosphate monosodium salt and d-biotin were purchased from Sigma Chemical Company, USA. Oxoid, nutrient broth no.2 was purchased from Oxoid Ltd., Basingstoke, Hampshire, England. Nutrient agar was purchased from Hi media Lab. Pvt. Ltd., India. All other reagents used were of AR grade.

2.3. Preparation of liver homogenate S9 fraction

The S9 fraction was prepared from the pooled liver homogenate of 2 male Sprague–Dawley rats previously induced with Aroclor 1254, by the method of Garner, Miller, and Miller (1972).

2.4. Determination of protein concentration of S9

Protein concentration of induced rat liver S9 was determined by the biuret method (Gornall, Bardwill, & David, 1949) and was found to be 54 mg/ml.

2.5. Antimutagenicity testing

The plate incorporation procedure reported by Maron and Ames (1983) was used for antimutagenicity testing with the inclusion of a pre-incubation step (Yahagi et al., 1977). Negative and positive controls were included in each assay (see footnote of Table 1 below). Both SF and SFN in the concentration range 100–500 nmol/plate were also checked for possible toxic or mutagenic effects in both TA98 and TA100 strains and no change in spontaneous revertant count indicated absence of any mutagenic/toxic effects in the tested dose range (see footnote of Table 1 for revertant counts).

Table 1
Inhibition of Aroclor-induced S9-mediated mutagenicity of heterocyclic amines by SF and SFN in TA100 strain of *Salmonella typhimurium*

Cooked food mutagen (nmol/plate)	No. of His$^+$ revertants/plate[a] (percent of control)						
	Control	SF (100)	SFN (100)	SF (250)	SFN (250)	SF (500)	SFN (500)
IQ (5)	1457 ± 41 (100)	887 ± 81 (60.88)	1264 ± 58 (86.75)	926 ± 36[c] (63.56)	609 ± 34 (41.80)	519 ± 19 (35.62)	230 ± 09 (15.78)
MeIQ (0.5)	955 ± 28 (100)	846 ± 32 (88.59)	713 ± 30 (74.66)	845 ± 33[c] (88.48)	430 ± 19 (45.03)	357 ± 24 (37.38)	249 ± 05 (26.07)
MeIQx (12)	1277 ± 31 (100)	964 ± 20 (75.49)	908 ± 25 (71.10)	870 ± 19 (68.13)	721 ± 20 (56.46)	572 ± 19 (44.79)	255 ± 08 (19.97)
Trp-P-1 (83)	858 ± 17 (100)	724 ± 24 (84.38)	765 ± 21 (89.16)	481 ± 11 (56.06)	610 ± 17 (71.10)	443 ± 10 (51.63)	209 ± 12 (24.36)
Trp-P-2 (8.3)	799 ± 35 (100)	590 ± 22 (73.84)	640 ± 18 (80.10)	591 ± 24[c] (73.97)	503 ± 33 (62.95)	543 ± 10[d] (67.96)	462 ± 21 (57.82)
PhIP (400)	1087 ± 28 (100)	981 ± 19 (90.25)	747 ± 22 (68.72)	829 ± 27 (76.26)	453 ± 21 (41.67)	572 ± 18 (52.62)	255 ± 15 (23.46)
Glu-P-1 (20)	1360 ± 34 (100)	1368 ± 29[b] (100.59)	1201 ± 28 (88.31)	1331 ± 35[b c] (97.87)	1020 ± 51 (75.00)	1248 ± 48 (91.76)	499 ± 11 (36.69)

With 2-aminofluorene (positive control) revertant count is 2758 ± 67 (n = 15).
The spontaneous revertant counts in the presence of various concentrations of SF and SFN alone are: 129 ± 6 (100 nmol/plate);132 ± 10 (250 nmol/plate); 126 ± 8 (500 nmol/plate) using three plates per point.
   [a] All values are expressed as means ± S.D.(n = 6); they include spontaneous revertant count (negative control) of 132 ± 10 (n = 15) and are statistically different from control as well as from each other at $P < 0.05$ (analyzed by Student- Newman–Keuls method).
   [b] Mean value is not statistically different from mean value at 0 nmol/plate of SF (control) at $P < 0.05$.
   [c] Mean value is not statistically different from mean value at 100 nmol/plate of SF at $P < 0.05$.
   [d] Mean value is not statistically different from mean value at 250 nmol/plate of SF at $P < 0.05$.