

1 *Review*

2 **The Glucosinolates: A Sulphur Glucoside Family of Mustard** 3 **Anti-Tumour and Anti-Microbial Phytochemicals of Potential** 4 **Therapeutic Application**

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13
14 **Abstract:** This study reviewed aspects of the biology of two members of the glucosinolate family,
15 namely sinigrin and glucoraphanin and their anti-tumour and anti-microbial properties. Sinigrin
16 and glucoraphanin are converted by the β -sulphoglucosidase myrosinase or the gut microbiota into
17 their bioactive forms, allyl isothiocyanate (AITC) and sulphoraphanin (SFN) which constitute part of
18 a sophisticated defence system plants developed over several hundred million years of evolution to
19 protect them from parasitic attack from aphids, ticks, bacteria or nematodes. Delivery of these
20 components from consumption of cruciferous vegetables rich in the glucosinolates also delivers
21 many other members of the glucosinolate family so the dietary AITCs and SFN do not act in
22 isolation. In-vitro experiments with purified AITC and SFN have demonstrated their therapeutic
23 utility as antimicrobials against a range of clinically important bacteria and fungi. AITC and SFN
24 are as potent as Vancomycin in the treatment of bacteria listed by the World Health Organisation as
25 antibiotic-resistant "priority pathogens" and also act as anti-cancer agents through the induction of
26 phase II antioxidant enzymes which inactivate potential carcinogens. Glucosinolates may be useful
27 in the treatment of biofilms formed on medical implants and catheters by problematic pathogenic
28 bacteria such as *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* and *Staphylococcus aureus* and are potent antimicrobials
29 against a range of clinically important bacteria and fungi. The glucosinolates have also been applied
30 in the prevention of bacterial and fungal spoilage of food products in advanced atmospheric
31 packaging technology which improves the shelf-life of these products.

32
33 **Keywords:** glucosinolate; sulphopharane; allyl isothiocyanate; phase II detoxification enzymes;
34 anti-tumour agents; anti-bacterials.

35 36 **1. Introduction**

37 Plants produce a myriad of phytochemicals and many of these have valuable nutritive,
38 medicinal and health promoting properties [1-3] (Table 1-3). Anecdotal evidence often points to
39 these beneficial properties however in this report we will concentrate on two members of the
40 glucosinolates (Fig 1), Glucoraphanin and Sinigrin with a very extensive scientific and nutritional
41 literature illustrating their potential therapeutic applications [3-12] (Table 2).

42 Cruciferous plants such as those listed in Table 1 represent important components of a healthy diet
 43 and have characteristic spicy flavor profiles which are appealing to many and have important effects
 44 in a number of physiological processes.

45

46

Table 1.

47

Examples of Glucosinolate rich Cruciferous plants of the *Brassicaceae* family order Capparales

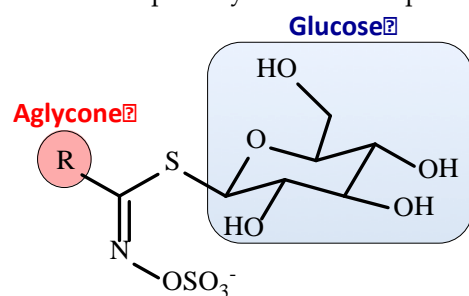
48	Broccoli, Broccoli Sprouts	57	White Mustard (<i>Sinapis alba</i>)
49	Cabbage	58	Yellow Mustard (<i>Brassica juncea</i>)
50	Brussels Sprouts	59	Bok Choi
51	Cauliflower	60	Arugula, Rocket (<i>Eruca sativa</i>)
52	Daikon (Japanese radish), Daikon sprouts	61	Collard Greens
53	Garden Cress (<i>Lepidium sativum</i>)	62	Horseradish
54	Kale	63	Kohlrabi
55	Rapeseed (<i>Brassica napus</i>)	64	Radish
56	Wasabi (<i>Wasabia japonica</i>)	65	Rutabaga/turnip
		66	Watercress
		67	Mustard Greens

68

69 2. The natural anti-microbial activity of glucosinolate rich foods.

70 When plant tissues are damaged, myrosinase, a β -thioglucosidase converts the glucosinolates (Fig 1)
 71 to nitriles, thiocyanates and isothiocyanates (Fig 2) which have potent anti-microbial activity with
 72 the isothiocyanates in particular displaying potent antibacterial and anti-fungal activity profiles (Fig
 73 3). The inclusion of dietary cruciferous vegetables rich in the glucosinolates may counter antibiotic
 74 resistant bacteria in the food chain arising from the overuse of antibiotics in animal rearing practices.
 75 The traditional use of mustard derived flavoring condiments while contributing desirable flavor
 76 profiles to cooked food items also provide food preservative properties which traditional societies
 77 have relied upon in the prevention of microbial spoilage of foods [13, 14]. This is particularly
 78 important in climatic conditions and ambient temperatures conducive to microbial growth leading
 79 to food spoilage[15]. Until relatively recently, these societies did not have access to refrigerated
 80 storage facilities thus mustard seed products played an important role in food preservation.
 81 Mustard seed oil is a potent source of bioactive glucosinolates[15] and represents approximately
 82 30% of the edible oil market in SE Asia, the widespread use of this oil has positively contributed to
 83 food storage properties and protection from microbial infection [13, 14]. The glucosinolates and
 84 their derivatives are volatile compounds and this property has been applied in modern gaseous food
 85 packaging technology to extend the shelf-life of food products[14, 16]. All cereals have fungal
 86 spores associated with the grain surface and the husk thus whole milled cereal flours used for bread
 87 production contain fungal spores. These are inactivated during the baking process however fungal
 88 spoilage of bread and bakery products can still occur in the post baking storage and or processing of
 89 bakery products. Rape seed oil or mustard flour have been evaluated in bread production to
 90 minimize fungal spoilage [17], the major active glucosinolates in rape seed Brown mustard (*Brassica*
 91 *juncea*) oil are AITC (85%) and butenyl isothiocyanate (10%) [13] and these have broad fungicidal
 92 activity (Fig 3). In the bakery environment, 2 ppm AITC inhibited the growth of *Penicillium roqueforti*,

93 *P. corylophilum*, *Eurotium repens*, *A. flavus* and *Endomyces fibuliger* on rye bread stored in an airtight
 94 environment [18]. Modified atmospheric packaging formats (85% CO₂, 1% O₂) combined with
 95 mustard oil vapour packaging has been used to extend the storage properties of bread and bakery
 96 products [19] and enhances the potency of AITC as a preservative [19, 20].

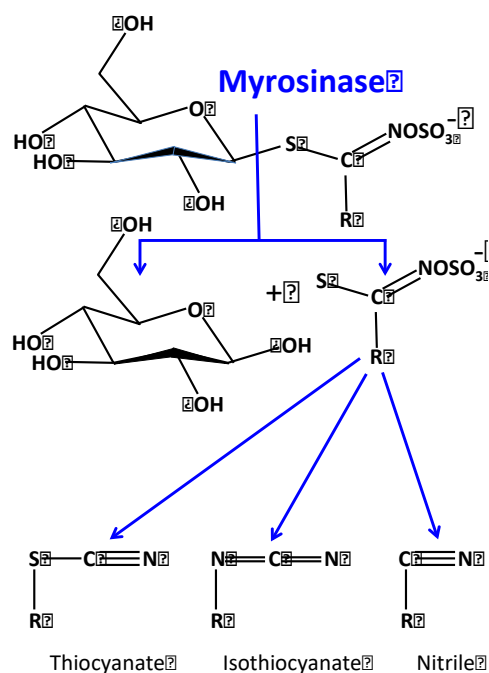


97
 98 **Figure 1.** Generic structure of the Glucosinolates showing glucose, sulphation and the aglycone side chain (R)
 99 used to categorize the aliphatic, indolic or aromatic glucosinolates.

100

101 3. The Brassicaceae family of plants

102 As already indicated, the Brassicaceae are a rich source of sulphur glucoside glucosinolates, these
 103 impart a characteristic spicy flavor profile to these vegetables. Glucosinolates have been classified
 104 into three categories on the basis of their amino acid precursors (i) aliphatic (e.g., glucoraphanin;
 105 Ala, Leu, Ileu, Val, Met), (ii) indole (e.g., glucobrassicin; Trp), and (iii) aromatic (e.g., gluconasturtiin;
 106 Phe, Tyr). While ~130 glucosinolates have been identified to date, in a survey of 2,121 German
 107 participants in the European Prospective Investigation into Cancer and Nutrition (EPIC study), only
 108 five of these glucosinolates were commonly found in the human diet, glucobrassicin, sinigrin,
 109 glucoraphasatin (dehydroerucin), glucoraphanin, and glucoiberin [21].



110

111 **Figure 2.** Enzymatic processing of the glucosinolates by myrosinase into bioactive components.

112

113 Glucosinolates have only been found in dicotyledonous plants occurring mainly in the
 114 Capparales order (Fig 1, 2) including cruciferous vegetables and the mustards *Brassica juncea* (brown

115 mustard) [22], *Brassica napus*. (rape seed) and the popular Japanese condiment horseradish Wasabi
 116 (*Eutrema japonicum* or *Wasabia japonica*) [23, 24](Table 1). The glucosinolates are stored in a
 117 concentrated form in the seed heads and are extracted in cold pressed oils but are also components
 118 of the stem and leaves of these plants (Fig 4).

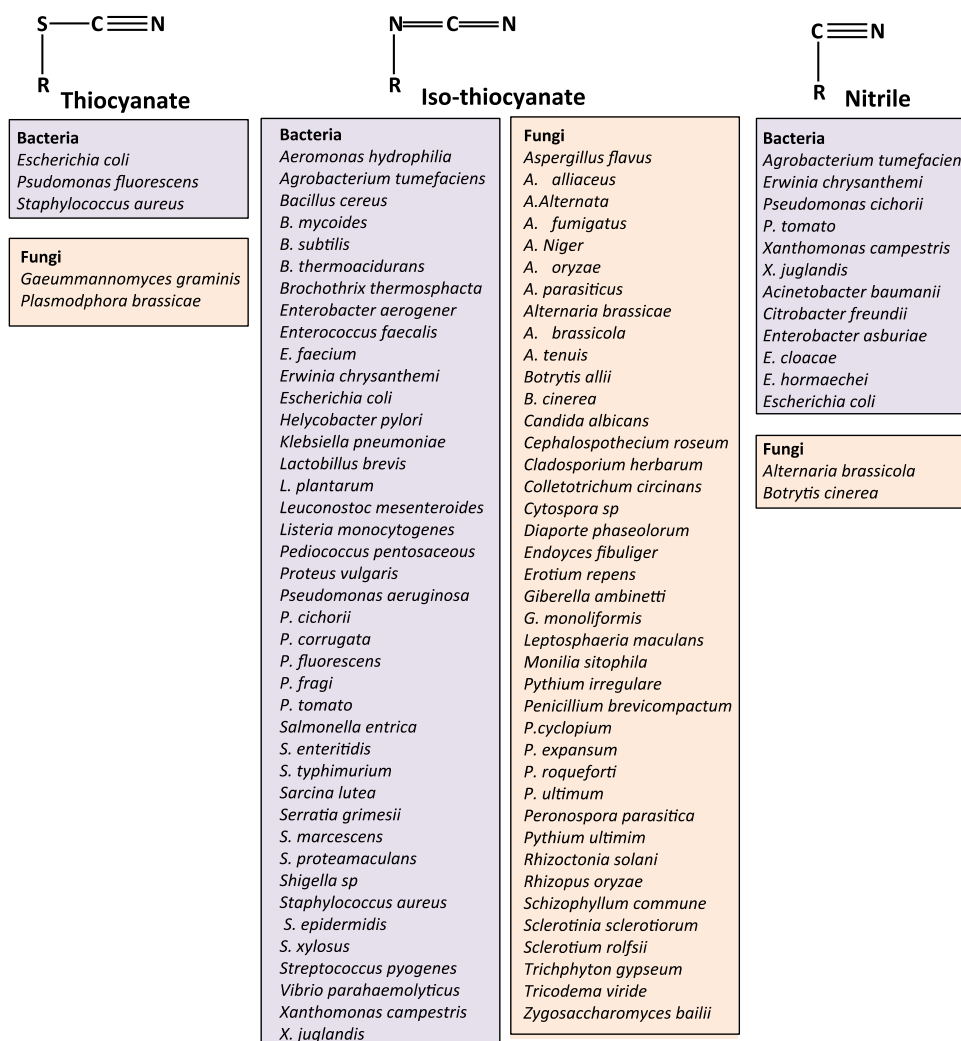
Table 2. Examples of The Aliphatic, Indolic and Aromatic Glucosinolate Forms.*
 Trivial and Chemical names, structures of the glucosinolates and their contents
 in *Brassica* vegetables of the Capparales order (mmol/100g wet weight tissue).

A. Aliphatic		Aglycone	Vegetable Source	Glucosinolate Content (mmol/100g)
Trivial Name	Chemical Name	Structure (R)		
Glucobervirin	3-Methylthiopropyl		Green Cauliflower White Cauliflower	0-11.8 1.5-7.1
Glucoerucin	4-Methylthiobutyl		Rocket	52-109
Gluciberin	3-Methylsulfinylbutyl		Broccoli sprouts Savoy Cabbage	59-181 24-50
Glucoraphanin	4-Methylsulfinylbutyl		Broccoli	233-676 24-285
Sinigrin	Prop-2-enyl		Brussels sprouts White Cauliflower	46-91 57-121
Gluconapin	But-3-enyl		Pak Choi	24-157
Glucobrassicin	Pent-4-enyl		Chinese Cabbage Pak Choi	2.3-25 27-69
Progoitrin	(2R)-2-Hydroxybut-3-enyl		Turnip Chinese Broccoli	18-41 49
B. Indolic				
Glucobrassicin	Indol-3-ylmethyl		Many Vegetables eg Broccoli White Cauliflower	 13-29 11-33
Glucobrassicin	4-Hydroxy-indol-3-ylmethyl		Many Vegetables eg Broccoli White Cauliflower	 0.1-3.3 0.2-2.8
Glucobrassicin	3-Methoxy-indol-3-ylmethyl		Many Vegetables eg Broccoli White Cauliflower	 0.9-2.8 0.7-3.2
Glucobrassicin	4-Methoxyindol-3-ylmethyl		Many Vegetables eg Broccoli White Cauliflower	 1.8-13 0.9-3.0
C. Aromatic				
Glucotropaeolin	Benzyl		Garden Cress	
Gluconasturtiin	Phenylethyl		Water Cress	

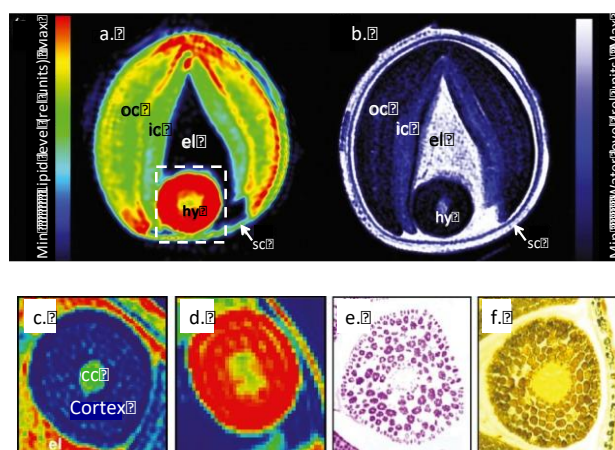
119

120 * data modified from [25-27].

The Antibacterial and Antifungal Profiles of the Activated Glucosinolates



121

122 **Figure 3.** The anti-microbial activities of glucosinolate thiocyanate, iso-thiocyanate and nitrile derivatives.

123

124 **Figure 4.** Lipid and moisture storage in *Brassica napus* seeds (a, b) and hypocotyl (c, d) visualized by
 125 non-invasive MRI. The concentration of water and oil are colour coded red (high); blue, (low). Crucifer
 126 immunolocalisation (e) and iodine stained starch (f) modified from [28] under Creative Commons Deed
 127 Attribution licence 2.5. oc/ic outer/inner cotyledon; el, endosperm; hy, hypocotyl; sc, seed coat; cc, central cylinder.

128 The mustard plant, Rape seed, yellow, white and brown mustards are widely distributed and have a
129 characteristic yellow flower head (Fig 5). Rapeseed (*Brassica napus*), also known as rape, oilseed rape
130 [29] is a member of the *Brassicaceae*, mustard or cabbage family named from the Latin word for
131 turnip, *rapum* [30]. This is an ancient plant known of since Biblical times and has even been identified
132 in the fossil record of the Mesozoic era/mid-Devonian period in Western China. Identification of
133 fossil remains in food cooking implements suggest that mustard seeds may have been the first ever
134 condiment used to flavor food by Prehistoric man [31]. Plant evolutionary studies show that the
135 mustard seed plant was of fundamental importance to the subsequent evolution of most other
136 modern day cultivated plants. The leaves, seeds, and roots of wild mustard *Cleome viscosa* have all
137 been widely used in traditional and folkloric medicine for generations. In Ayurvedic medicine
138 mustard was reported to have many beneficial properties, subsequent scientific and
139 pharmacological studies verified it's antimicrobial, analgesic, anti-inflammatory, antipyretic,
140 anti-diabetic and hepatoprotective qualities [32-35]. Subsequent studies have identified the
141 phytochemicals responsible for these activities as shown in the present study, glucosinolates are
142 prominently represented on this list of bio-active compounds.
143 *Brassica napus* was botanically described and published in *Species Plantarum* by Carl Linnaeus who
144 introduced the binomial name *Brassica napus* for the first time in 1887 [29] (Fig 5).



145
146 **Figure 5.** Anatomical description of a mustard (*Brassica napus*) plant showing its characteristic four petal
147 flower head, stamen, seed pods, leaf arrangements and seeds. Image from Franz Eugen Koehler archive,
148 Kohlers Medicinal Plants, Germany 1887. Image reproduced from Wikimedia Commons Repository through
149 Open Access. [File:Brassica napus - Köhler-s Medizinal-Pflanzen-169.jpg|Brassica napus - Köhlers
150 Medizinal-Pflanzen-169].

151 Rapeseed oil is one of the oldest known vegetable oils, but historically has been used in limited
152 quantities as a food item due to its high levels of erucic acid, natural rapeseed oil can contain up to
153 54% w/v erucic acid [36]. Rapeseed cultivated for food production typically contains ~0.5-5% w/v

154 erucic acid. Erucic acid ($C_{22}H_{42}O_2$) is a C22 chain mono-unsaturated omega-9-fatty acid. A strain
155 of mustard subsequently developed with low erucic acid and glucosinolate levels, Canola, a
156 contraction of the terms “Canada” and “ola”, is a low erucic acid, low glucosinolate rapeseed [37].
157 Canola oil is limited by government regulation to a maximum of 2% w/v erucic acid in the USA and
158 5% w/v in the EU. In 1992, the health promoting properties of Rapeseed oil gained publicity in the
159 George Miller feature film “Lorenzo’s Oil” starring Nick Nolte and Susan Sarandon which
160 documented the work of a British chemist, Don Suddaby, and Augusto Odone in 1985 who
161 developed a blend of rapeseed and olive oils which halted the progression of
162 Adrenoleukodystrophy, a genetic disorder characterized by an enzyme abnormality resulting in the
163 build up of toxic fatty acid levels in the brain damaging the myelin sheaths impairing neuronal
164 function and resulting in convulsions, seizures and hyperactivity. The anti-oxidant properties of
165 activated glucosinolate compounds are also conducive to the maintenance of brain health [38-48].
166 The brain is a fatty acid rich tissue and particularly prone to redox ROS mediated mitochondrial
167 damage during neuroinflammation [49, 50].
168

169

169 **4. Public health concern over the impact of antibiotic resistant bacteria.**

170 There is considerable current day public concern about the over-use of antibiotics in husbandry
171 practice in order to maintain animal health and commercial output levels. The emergence of
172 antibiotic resistant organisms in humans is related to this agricultural practice. This has been
173 acknowledged by the WHO and by the publication of government guidelines on the use and abuse
174 of antibiotics in agricultural practice. The publication of a list of antibiotic resistant pathogenic
175 bacteria of particular concern by the WHO (Table 3) and the allocation of major research funds to
176 national agencies in the USA, Canada and Australia to address the problem of antibiotic resistant
177 bacteria testifies to the significant threat these organisms represent to human health.
178

179

179 *4.1 Treatment of antibiotic resistant bacterial infections*

180 Antibiotics and antimicrobial agents, have been used for the last 70 years to treat human
181 infectious diseases. Since the 1940s, these drugs greatly reduced illness and death from infectious
182 diseases. However, these drugs have been used so widely and for so long that the infectious
183 organisms the antibiotics are designed to kill have adapted to them, making these drugs far less
184 effective. Each year in the USA, at least 2 million people become infected with bacteria that are
185 resistant to antibiotics with at least 23,000 deaths recorded as a direct result of these infections.
186 Multi drug resistant bacterial infections were also responsible for an estimated 25,000 deaths per
187 year in the EEC in 2015-2017 and these cost €1.5 billion per year in healthcare treatment costs and
188 lost productivity. If these current infection rates are not reversed then 10 million deaths globally per
189 year are predicted by 2050, (317,000 in USA; 392,000 in S.America; 392,000 in EEC; 4.1 million in
190 Africa; 4.7 million in Asia and 22,000 in Australia). Moreover it is estimated that additional hospital
191 costs per patient will be in the order of 10-40,000 \$US in OECD countries. Furthermore, the
192 associated impact of lost economic output due to increased mortality, prolonged sickness and
193 reduced labour efficiency may effectively double this figure. In-vitro studies on the activated
194 thiocyanates, isothiocyanates and nitrile compounds generated from the glucosinolates by
195 myrosinase demonstrate these are suitable compounds for anti-bacterial and anti-fungal evaluations

196 in the treatment of such infections (Fig 3). Furthermore, some of these plant compounds synergise
197 with existing antibiotic treatment protocols (gentamycin, vancomycin) and may represent a useful
198 adjunct to these treatments [51]. *Listeria monocytogenes* and *Staphylococcus aureus* in particular were
199 significantly inhibited by benzylisothiocyanate and 2-phenylethylisothiocyanate in isolation or in
200 phytochemical-antibiotic combinations.

201

202 Despite the fact that bacterial infections are already one of the leading causes of death globally
203 and that mortality rates are escalating at alarming rates, no new antibiotics have been produced by
204 the pharmaceutical industry in more than a decade. The WHO has warned of the possibility that we
205 may be entering a "post-antibiotic era" within this century. Bacteria resistant to all known
206 antibiotics are becoming increasingly common and already producing untreatable infections.

207 The repurposing of anticancer drugs for the treatment of bacterial infections has been suggested
208 since some of these have proven to be effective in-vitro for the elimination of recalcitrant, multidrug
209 tolerant bacteria while other antibiotics are useful as anti-cancer compounds [52-55]. Among the
210 most harmful human pathogenic bacteria, *Staphylococcus aureus* (*Golden Staph*) stands out as one of
211 the most virulent and troublesome due to its ability to cause life-threatening infections and to readily
212 adapt to changing environmental conditions [56, 57]. The ability of *S.aureus* to establish itself in
213 various community home and hospital environments, and its resistance to antibiotic treatment make
214 this an important healthcare threat [58]. The emergence of methicillin resistant *S.aureus* (MRSA)
215 almost 5 decades ago demonstrates the serious nature of such infections. Hospital environments
216 are conducive to *S.aureus* colonisation and its virulence is a major threat particularly to patients with
217 reduced immune function. Particularly virulent strains of *Enterococcus*, resistant to conventional
218 antibiotic treatment, have also emerged in hospitalized patients [59]. Of particular concern are the
219 vancomycin-resistant enterococci (VRE), that lead to infections of the urinary tract associated with
220 prolonged catheter use or to catheter mediated bloodstream infections [60]. There is therefore an
221 increasing global interest in the identification of bioactive compounds from plant sources, which
222 display antibacterial and antifungal properties that are pharmacologically effective but which
223 display limited or no side effects. The glucosinolates produced by the *Brassicaceae* family, order
224 Capparales contain compounds with potent anti-bacterial, anti-fungal, anti-nematocidal,
225 anti-viral and insecticidal properties making them obvious candidates in the search for compounds
226 to counter bacterial infections [4, 10, 11, 61-67]. Moreover, many of the glucosinolates act
227 synergistically with existing antibiotic regimens improving their effectiveness [51, 64]. A list of
228 antibiotic-resistant "priority pathogens" published by WHO in 2017 covers 12 bacterial families
229 posing the greatest threat to human health [68] and highlights gram-negative bacteria resistant to
230 multiple antibiotics which threaten global public health, these have been referred to as
231 Super-bugs [69-71].

232

233 The effective antibiotics available for the treatment of bacterial infections are relatively small in
234 number and in many cases have become largely ineffective. The last time a new antibiotic was
235 released on to the world market was approximately 30 years ago, there is a strong need for
236 antibiotic development and a world market eagerly awaiting this product. The WHO has
237 established three treatment categories based on the urgency for new antibiotics: these are critical,

238 high and medium priority (Table 3). The most critical group of patients includes those infected with
 239 multidrug resistant bacteria that pose a particular threat in hospitals, nursing homes, and among
 240 patients whose care requires devices such as ventilators and blood catheters. These include
 241 *Acinetobacter*, *Pseudomonas* and various Enterobacteriaceae (*Klebsiella*, *E.coli*, *Serratia*, and *Proteus*).
 242 These can cause severe and often deadly bloodstream infections and pneumonia. Such bacteria
 243 have become resistant to a large number of antibiotics, including carbapenems and third generation
 244 cephalosporins, currently the best antibiotics for treating multi-drug resistant bacteria. The second
 245 and third tier bacteria in this list, the high and medium priority categories contain other
 246 increasingly drug-resistant bacteria that result in gonorrhoea and food poisoning caused
 247 by *Salmonella*. Gonorrhoea is rapidly becoming a condition which will soon become untreatable.

248 **Table 3.** World Health Organisation priority pathogen list*

Category	Bacterium
Critical	1. <i>Acinetobacter baumannii</i> , carbapenem resistant
	2. <i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i> , carbapenem resistant
	3. <i>Enterobacteriaceae</i> , ESBL** producing carbapenem resistant
High	1. <i>Enterococcus faecium</i> , - Vancomycin resistant
	2. <i>Staphylococcus aureus</i> , - Methicillin/Vancomycin resistant
	3. <i>Helicobacter pylori</i> , - Clarithromycin resistant
	4. <i>Campylobacter spp.</i> - Fluoroquinolone resistant
	5. <i>Salmonellae</i> - Fluoroquinolone resistant
	6. <i>Neisseria gonorrhoeae</i> , Cephalosporin/Fluoroquinolone resistant
Medium	1. <i>Streptococcus pneumoniae</i> , Penicillin resistant
	2. <i>Haemophilus influenzae</i> , Ampicillin resistant
	3. <i>Shigella sp</i> , Fluoroquinolone resistant

249 *<http://www.who.int/news-room/detail/27-02-2017-who-publishes-list-of-bacteria-for-which-new-antibiotics-are-urgently-needed>

250
 251 ** Certain strains of bacteria are resistant to treatments with commonly used antibiotics such as penicillin
 252 and cephalosporins. These bacteria produce enzymes known as Extended Spectrum Beta-Lactamases (ESBL).
 253 ESBL producing bacteria are resistant to most types of third generation antibiotics and include strains of
 254 *Klebsiella pneumoniae*, *Klebsiella oxytoca* and *Escherichia coli*, *Enterobacter spp.*, *Salmonella spp.*, *Morganella morganii*,
 255 *Proteus mirabilis*, *Serratia marcescens* and *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* produce ESBLs relatively infrequently.

257 5. WHO, United Nation and World Bank programmes and co-ordinated inter-agency 258 collaborations designed to combat antibiotic resistant bacteria.

259 The Global Antimicrobial Resistance Surveillance System (GLASS) is a WHO initiative supporting a
 260 standardized approach to the collection, analysis and sharing of data related to antimicrobial
 261 resistance at a global level to inform decision-making, and drive local, national and regional action.
 262 The Global Antibiotic Research and Development Partnership (GARDP) is a joint initiative of WHO
 263 and Drugs for Neglected Diseases initiative (DNDi), GARDP encourages research and development
 264 through public-private partnerships. Interagency Coordination Group on Antimicrobial Resistance
 265 (IACG), an initiative of the United Nations Secretary-General, was established to improve
 266 coordination between international organizations ensuring effective global action against this threat

267 to health security [72]. By 2023, this partnership aims to develop and deliver up to four new
268 treatments, through improvement of existing antibiotics and acceleration of the entry of new
269 antibiotic drugs. The IACG is co-chaired by the UN Deputy Secretary-General and the Director
270 General of WHO and comprises high level representatives of relevant UN agencies, other
271 international organizations, and individual experts across different sectors.
272 The Centre for Disease Control (CDC) and related US agencies are also actively involved in a
273 number of measures to combat antibiotic resistant bacterial infections through a collaborative global
274 approach across all government and private sector agencies. CDC has published “CDC. The Core
275 Elements of Human Antibiotic Stewardship Programs in Resource -Limited Settings: National and
276 Hospital Levels. Atlanta, GA: US Department of Health and Human Services, CDC; 2018. Available
277 at: <https://www.cdc.gov/antibiotic-use/healthcare/implementation.html>” to help improve guidelines
278 for antibiotic use in healthcare settings worldwide; The Food and Drug Administration (FDA) has
279 also announced plans to combat antibiotic resistance through innovative antibiotic developments
280 and the co-ordinated use of antibiotics in human medicine and in animal husbandry practice.
281 CARB-X, a global non-profit partnership, led by Boston University launched in 2016 is dedicated to
282 accelerating antibacterial research to tackle the global threat of drug-resistant bacteria and is now
283 funding 33 projects in 7 countries in N. America, Europe and Asia. CARB-X is funded by the US
284 Department of Health and Human Services Biomedical Advanced Research and Development
285 Authority (BARDA), part of the Office of the Assistant Secretary for Preparedness and Response
286 (ASPR), the Wellcome Trust, a global UK based charity working to improve global health,
287 Germany’s Federal Ministry of Education and Research (BMBF), the UK Government’s Global
288 Antimicrobial Resistance Innovation Fund (UK GAMRIF), the Bill & Melinda Gates Foundation, the
289 world’s largest foundation dedicated to improving the quality of life for individuals around the
290 world, and receives in-kind support from National Institute of Allergy and Infectious
291 Diseases (NIAID), part of the US National Institutes of Health (NIH) and will invest >\$500 US
292 million by 2021 into research and development into new classes of antibiotics to battle the deadliest
293 superbugs, vaccines, rapid diagnostics, and other life-saving products. This supports *The National
294 Action Plan for Combating Antibiotic-Resistant Bacteria*, a document released by the U.S. Government
295 AR: <https://www.cdc.gov/DrugResistance/us-activities.html>. Strategies being developed in
296 Australia to combat bacterial resistant infections involve a unified approach by all government and
297 private agencies to combat the threat of antibiotic overuse and development of antibiotic resistant
298 bacterial infections in Australia following recommendations outlined in “*Responding to the threat of
299 antimicrobial resistance, Australia’s First National Antimicrobial Resistance Strategy 2015–2019*” *Australian
300 Government*, Department of Health, Department of Agriculture (June 2015). ISBN: 978-1-76007-191-2
301 Online ISBN: 978-1-76007-192-9.

302

303 **6. Application of the myrosinase-glucosinolate system in Biomedicine**

304 The bioactivity of glucosinolate hydrolysis products and potential biomedical applications are well
305 documented (Table 3, 4, 5). SFN has roles in cancer prevention, high blood pressure, macular
306 degeneration and stomach ulcers and is a potent inducer of mammalian phase II detoxication
307 enzyme systems which deactivate and excrete many carcinogens. The induction of NAD(P)H
308 quinone reductase, heme oxygenase 1 (HO-1), glutamate-cysteine ligase catalytic subunit, and
309 glutathione S transferases occurs through the Keap1-Nrf2-ARE cell signaling pathway [73-75].

310 Under quiescent conditions, KEAP1 protein binds Nuclear factor erythroid 2-related factor-2 (Nrf2)
311 in the cytoplasm and represses its activation. Nrf2 is a master regulator of genes in many diseases
312 [74] and its activation leads to a co-ordinated anti-oxidant and anti-inflammatory response in many
313 disease states including many forms of cancer [6]. Sulphoraphane is a potent inducer of Nrf2 activity
314 [76] inducing cytoprotective genes with key roles in cellular defence mechanisms that regulate redox
315 status and detoxification processes [73] and protection from oxidative damage during traumatic
316 injury and inflammation. The Keap1-Nrf2 pathway is a major regulator of cytoprotective responses
317 to endogenous and exogenous stresses caused by reactive oxygen species (ROS) and electrophiles.
318 Keap1 (Kelch ECH associating protein 1) binds to Nrf2 promoting its degradation by the ubiquitin
319 proteasome pathway regulating cytoprotective responses to oxidative stress in cancer and
320 neurodegeneration [73, 75, 77-80]. Numerous studies in human colon, leukemia, pancreatic, lung,
321 and skin cancer cell lines have demonstrated SFN's inhibitory effects on cell cycle arrest [12, 81-83]
322 and elevated apoptosis in human bladder [84] and prostate [85] cell lines. Sulforaphane's ability to
323 disrupt tubulin and actin polymerization, inhibits mitotic spindle formation and tumour cell growth
324 in animal models of breast cancer [86, 87] and also inhibits histone deacetylase, increasing apoptosis
325 in human colon, prostate, and kidney cell lines [88-91].

326

327 6.1 The bioactivity of glucosinolates

328 The glucosinolates are benign molecules requiring conversion by myrosinase to bioactive
329 thiocyanate, isothiocyanate and nitrile derivatives (Fig 2). Thus glucoraphanin and sinigrin are
330 converted into bioactive SFN and AITCs with fungicidal, bactericidal, nematocidal, anti-oxidant
331 and anti cancer properties (Fig 6). Biofilm formation on medical devices and implants such as
332 catheters, mechanical heart valves, pacemakers, prosthetic joints, and contact lenses pose a critical
333 medical problem. The most common biofilm-forming bacteria include *Enterococcus faecalis*,
334 *Staphylococcus aureus*, *Staphylococcus epidermidis*, *Streptococcus viridans*, *Escherichia coli*, *Klebsiella*
335 *pneumoniae*, *Proteus mirabilis*, and *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* [92-97], *S.aureus* and *S.epidermidis* are most
336 commonly found on cardiovascular devices [98-100], it estimated that 40%–50% of prosthetic heart
337 valve infections, and 50%–70% of catheter biofilm infections are due to these bacteria [101, 102].
338 Despite the evaluation of a wide range of anti-fouling compounds [97, 103, 104] improvements are
339 still required in this area. Glucosinolates have proven useful in the prevention of bio-film
340 development by *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* [5, 105-107].

341 Cooking of cruciferous vegetables inactivates myrosinase activity however the gut microbiota in
342 humans may provide myrosinase activity and lead to absorption of SFN and AITCs in the intestine.
343 As already noted, when the glucosinolates are converted to their bioactive forms they induce phase
344 II enzymes like glutathione S-transferase (GST) through the KEAP1/Nrf2/ARE pathway, that are
345 critical in mutagen elimination [108]. Sulphoraphane also has chemopreventive properties
346 mediated through its ability to inhibit phase I enzymes responsible for the activation of
347 pro-carcinogens and by induction of phase II detoxification enzymes and also mediates activation of
348 apoptosis, induction of cell cycle arrest, disruption in tubulin assembly and tubular microdynamics
349 and inhibition of NFκB [109]. A diet rich in cruciferous vegetables is associated with a lower risk of
350 developing breast, lung, prostate, and colorectal cancer [110-114], consumption of three to five
351 servings per week is reported to decrease the risk of cancer development by 30%–40% [115]. It is

352 important to control the redox balance of oxidant and anti-oxidant species in the human brain since
 353 these control neuronal mitochondrial activity which under oxidant stress can diminish neuronal
 354 energetics and promote neurodegeneration in Parkinson's and Alzheimers's disease [116]. Brain
 355 tissue is very rich in fatty acids and is especially sensitive to the action of excess oxidant activity
 356 which can occur focally if GST activity is insufficient [117]. The GSTs are ROS scavengers and are
 357 neuroprotective [116, 118, 119], promote microglial activation and proinflammatory
 358 astrocyte-microglia communication [120]. GST polymorphisms lead to neuronal dysfunction and
 359 pathological changes in glioblastoma, Alzheimer's and Parkinson's disease, stroke, epilepsy [121,
 360 122], multiple sclerosis (MS) [123] and deleteriously impact repair mechanisms following ischemic
 361 stroke [124-126]. Induction of GSTs and other phase II detoxification enzymes by bioactive forms of
 362 the glucosinolates maintains normal functional properties in the brain. Histone acetylation plays a
 363 crucial role in chromatin remodeling and regulates its packing density around chromosomes and
 364 their constituent genes. Dense packing can deny transcription factor access to genes thus histone
 365 acetylation-deacetylation has an organisational role over chromatin structure and gene accessibility
 366 to transcription factors indirectly regulating gene expression [109, 127-129].

367
368 **Table 4.**

369 Combination Therapies of Sulphoraphane and Conventional Anti-Cancer and Anti-bacterial Drugs

Compound used in Combination Therapy	Ref
SFN-Selenium nanoparticles	[130]
Paclitaxel	[9]
Cisplatin	[131]
Luteolin	[132]
Clofarabine	[133]
Doxorubicin	[134]
5-fluorouracil	[135]
HistoneH3	[136]
Withaferin A	[137]
Hispidulin	[138]
Carboplatin	[139]
Docetaxel	[140]
Lapatinib	[141]
PR-104A	[142]

370

371

Table 5. The Diverse Therapeutic Applications of Sulphoraphane

Miscellaneous medical conditions treated with Sulphoraphane	
Spatial learning and memory dysfunction	[143]
Chemotherapy-induced neuropathic pain	[144]
SFN-decorated gold nanoparticle for anti-cancer treatment	[145]
Protection of granulosa cells against oxidative stress	[146]
Epigenetic Nrf2 signaling pathway	[147]
Cadmium-mediated carcinogenesis	[148]
Oxidative stress in cultured adult cardiomyocytes	[149]

Protective effects of glucosinolate hydrolysis products in neurodegenerative diseases	[150]
Clearance of Amyloid- β and Tau protein in a mouse model of AD	[151]
Experimental diabetic peripheral neuropathy	[152]
Joint inflammation in a murine adjuvant-induced mono-arthritis	[153]
Protection against cognitive impairment in AD-like lesions in diabetes	[154]
Anti-inflammatory effect of SFN on human THP-1 macrophages in a murine AD model	[155]
Inhibition of oxidative stress/inflammation improves cardiac function in a Rabbit Model of Chronic Heart Failure	[156]
Inhibition of class IIa histone deacetylase activity	[157]
Apoptosis via microtubule disruption in cancer	[158]
Inhibition of LPS-Induced Inflammation/cytotoxicity/oxidative microglial stress	[159]
Down-regulation of MAPK/NF- κ B signaling in LPS-activated BV-2 microglia	[160]
Epigenetic modification of Nrf2 signalling in a model of AD	[161]
Inhibition of oxidative stress in an In-vitro model of age-related macular degeneration	[162]
Prevention of angiotensin II-induced cardiomyopathy by activation of Nrf2 and Akt/GSK-3 β /Fyn pathway.	[163]
Suppression of NLRP3 inflammasome alleviating acute gouty inflammation	[164]
Modification of Histone H3, unpacking of chromatin, to prime defence	[136]
Nrf2-Inducers Counteract Neurodegeneration in Friedreich's Ataxia	[165]
Modulation of oxidative stress and inflammation in rats with toxic hepatitis	[166]
Modulation of oxidative damage in lead exposed rat hippocampus	[167]
Prevention of dexamethasone-induced myotube atrophy via Akt/Foxo1	[168]
Induction of p53 deficient SW480 cell apoptosis by ROS MAPK signaling	[169]
Role of microRNAs in the chemopreventive activity of SFN	[170]
Upregulation of Nrf2 protection in doxorubicin-induced chronic heart failure	[171]
Increased Nrf2 expression protects alveolar epithelial cells against oxidative injury	[172]
Novel phosphonate analogs of SFN with in vitro and in vivo anticancer activity	[173]
Inhibition of PDGF-induced vascular SMC proliferation by targeting mTOR/p70S6kinase signalling independently of Nrf2 activation	[174]
Gastrointestinal protection against <i>H. pylori</i> and NSAID-Induced Oxidative Stress	[175]
Protection from cerebral ischemic/reperfusion injury via inhibition of NLRP3 inflammasome activation in rats	[176]
Protection against sodium valproate-induced acute liver injury	[177]
Enhanced SFN cardioprotection against oxidative stress by 17 β -Estradiol	[177]
Photoprotective Effects of SFN and Hispidulin	[138]
Differential modulation of mitochondrial biogenesis/dynamics in normal & tumor cells	[178]
Nrf2 targeting by SFN: A potential therapy for cancer treatment	[179, 180]
Improvement of neuronal mitochondrial function in brain tissue	[181]
Protection of pancreatic Acinar cell injury by modulating Nrf2-mediated oxidative stress and the NLRP3 inflammatory pathway	[182]
Improvement in chemotherapy efficacy targeting cancer stem cell-like properties	[183]
Protection against rotenone-induced neurotoxicity via mTOR, Nrf2, and autophagy	[184]

Chemoprevention of oxidative stress-associated with oral carcinogenesis	[185]
Amelioration of bladder dysfunction via activation of Nrf2-ARE Pathway	[186]
Broccoli sprout homogenate treatment for Sickle Cell Disease	[187]
Treatment of Autism Spectrum Disorder	[188, 189]
Protection against aortic complications in diabetes	[190]
Anti-inflammatory effect against amyloid- β peptide via STAT-1 dephosphorylation and activation of Nrf2/HO-1	[191]
Inhibition of NLRP3 inflammasome signaling dose-dependently attenuating foot swelling and neutrophil recruitment decreasing foot IL-1 β levels and caspase-1 activity in animals with acute gouty arthritis	[164, 192]

372

373

Table 6. Therapeutic Application of Sulphoraphane in Cancer Models

Cancer type	Ref
Leukemia	[81, 193-198]
Prostate cancer	[85, 89, 199-201]
non-small cell lung cancer cells	[139, 202, 203]
Pancreatic cancer	[182, 204-206]
Breast cancer	[86, 87, 133-135, 137, 140, 141, 207-214]
Bladder cancer	[186, 215-220]
Ovarian cancer	[131]
HepG2 Carcinoma Cells	[221-225]
Gastric cancer	[226, 227]
Squamous cell carcinoma	[228, 229]
Nasopharyngeal cancer	[230]
Melanoma	[231]
Glioma	[190, 232-234]
Colon cancer	[142, 235, 236]
Lung cancer	[237, 238]
Schwannoma	[239]
Colorectal cancer	[240]
Cervical cancer	[241]
Oral cancer	[242, 243]

374

375 6.2 Cancer and dietary SFN and AITC levels

376 Meta analyses of clinical trials on dietary glucosinolates have generally provided promising but not
 377 compelling evidence of the efficacy of these as anti-oxidants or anti-cancer agents despite positive
 378 in-vitro findings in cell culturing experiments and may reflect the inefficiencies of the dietary route
 379 for delivery of these compounds. Positive effects are generally achieved in-vitro with
 380 concentrations of the active glucosinolate components in the 1-40 μmol range. It is unlikely that this
 381 level of therapeutic agent would be delivered successfully to the target tumour cells in-vivo by the
 382 diet. Attempts have been made to increase the glucosinolate content of broccoli hybrids, broccoli
 383 sprouts are also richer sources of the glucosinolates particularly since these are consumed uncooked

384 thus endogenous myrosinase is not inactivated by the cooking process and it has time to convert
 385 the glucosinolates to bio-active forms during food mastication. The detection of SFN and AITCs
 386 excreted in urine and faecal matter following consumption of cooked cruciferous vegetables where
 387 the endogenous myrosinase is inactivated in the initial cooking stages, indicates that the gut
 388 microbiota are another source of myrosinase activity. Thus therapeutic doses of SFN and AITCs
 389 are likely achievable to target tumour cells in the colon [104, 210, 211], prostate [85, 89, 199-201] and
 390 bladder [186, 215-220]. Dietary glucosinolates are also effective in the treatment of gastric *H.Pylori*
 391 infections and gastric cancer. The delivery of therapeutic doses of dietary SFN and AITCs through
 392 the systemic circulation to pancreatic, ovarian, breast and liver cancer and melanoma however is
 393 less likely to be as effective and may explain the relatively poor findings of meta analyses of dietary
 394 clinical trials on the glucosinolates as anti-cancer agents. In many cases the statistical power
 395 achieved in these analyses has also been reduced by low sample sizes or no associations were
 396 established. More high quality cohort studies with larger sample sizes, and well controlled
 397 confounding factors is required to confirm the benefit of dietary cruciferous vegetable
 398 consumption, initial studies have delivered sufficient evidence to warrant such studies. The
 399 bioavailability of glucosinolates following different food processing methods has also been
 400 evaluated in order to improve the dietary content of bioactive forms of the glucosinolates [244]
 401 Supplementation of the diet with broccoli sprouts or myrosinase containing mustard products have
 402 also been examined as a means of increasing the dietary SFN and AITC content [245]. The effective
 403 delivery of SFN and AITCs to the target cells in solid tumours is a difficult proposition. Delivery
 404 systems based on hyaluronan as a carrier molecule have been developed for a number of steroids
 405 and cytotoxic compounds and successfully treated solid tumours however this methodology has
 406 yet to be applied to the delivery of SFN or AITCs in these problematic cancers (reviewed in [246]).

407

408 6.3 The beneficial bioactivities of sinigrin and their applications in biomedicine.

409 Although the scientific literature on sinigrin is not as extensive as that of SFN they share similar
 410 bioactivities and areas of application and if supplied as a dietary component will not be acting in
 411 isolation anyway [107].

412

Table 7 The Varied Applications of Sinigrin in Biomedicine

Application	Ref
Reduction of liver fibrosis	[247]
Suppression of NF- κ B/MAPK and NLRP3 inflammasome activation in macrophages	[248]
Promotion of wound healing	[107, 249]
Anti-cancer properties in methyl glyoxal modification	[250]
.Anti-proliferative activity on carcinogen-induced hepatotoxicity	[251]
Biofumigation of potato cyst nematode	[22]
Inhibition of <i>Listeria monocytogenes</i> on bologna sausages	[106]
inhibition of invasion, migration, MMP-2/-9 activities in SK-Hep 1 human hepatoma cells	[252]
Brussel sprout juice mediated effects on cell cycle and adhesion of human colorectal carcinoma cells (HT29) in vitro	[253]
AITC mediated mitotic block, loss of cell adhesion/disrupted cytoskeleton in HT29 cells	[254]
Cytotoxicity and genotoxicity of allyl and phenethyl isothiocyanates, glucosinolates, sinigrin and gluconasturtiin	[255]

Inhibition of microbial growth [51, 66, 256]

Effects of dietary sinigrin or indole-3-carbinol on O6-methylguanine-DNA-transmethylase [257]

activity and 4-(methylnitrosamino)-1-(3-pyridyl)-1-butanone-induced DNA methylation and tumorigenicity in F344 rats

413

414 7. Concluding remarks

415 The myrosinase-glucosinolate system in plants is a sophisticated protective system that developed
 416 over several hundred million years of evolution. With a greater understanding of its component
 417 parts it is now possible to apply some of these to physiological processes in man of potential benefit
 418 in biomedicine. Some of these compounds may be useful in the prevention of fouling of plant
 419 equipment, sterilisation of medical implants, wound healing and the prevention of some forms of
 420 cancer. An extensive literature documenting the biodiversity of glucosinolate applications in
 421 Biomedicine indicate considerable promise in future areas of investigation in:-

- 422 1. Antibiotics, anti-fungal and anti-viral agents
- 423 2. Biofilm prevention in medical implants, catheters and Industrial plant equipment
- 424 3. Nutritive additives with anti-cancer properties
- 425 4. Advanced food packaging technology to improve shelf-life of food products.

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 430 relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

431

432 Abbreviations

433 AD	Alzheimers disease
434 AKT	a serine/threonine-specific protein kinase
435 ARE	antioxidant response element
436 EPA	Environment Protection Agency
437 ESBL	Extended Spectrum Beta-Lactamases
438 Keap-1-Nrf2-ARE	Kelch-like ECH-Associating protein 1-nuclear factor erythroid 2 439 related factor 2-antioxidant response element
440 AITC	Allyl isothiocyanate
441 GARDP	Global Antibiotic Research and Development Partnership
442 GSK	Glycogen Synthase Kinase
443 GST	Glutathione-S-transferase
444 DNDI	Drugs for Neglected Diseases initiative
445 IACG	Interagency Coordination Group on Antimicrobial Resistance
446 LPS	Lipopolysaccharide
447 MAPK	A mitogen-activated protein kinase
448 NFκB	Nuclear factor kappa light chain enhancer of activated B cells
449 NLRPR3	nucleotide-binding domain and leucine-rich repeat-containing protein 3
450 NSAID	Non Steroidal anti-inflammatory

451	PDGF	Platelet derived growth factor
452	ROS	Reactive oxygen species
453	SMC	Smooth muscle cell
454	TNF α	tumour necrosis factor-alpha

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