

Bioactivities of Sulfur Compounds in Cruciferous Vegetables

Mee Ree Kim

Department of Food Science and Nutrition, Chungnam National University,
Daejeon 305-764, Korea. E-mail: mrkim@cnu.ac.kr

ABSTRACT

Cruciferous vegetables are rich in organosulfur compounds such as isothiocyanates and sulfides. While the isothiocyanates, corresponding to pungent principle, are generated from myrosinase-catalyzed hydrolysis of glucosinolates, the sulfides can be generated non-enzymatically. Recent studies provide evidences that some sulfur compounds in these vegetables show a chemopreventive action against carcinogenesis; while isothiocyanates such as sulforaphane induce phase 2 enzymes (glutathione S-transferase/quinone reductase), disulfides tends to elevate the level of phase 1 and 2 enzymes. Especially, sulforaphane rich in Cruciferae vegetables has been reported to express anticarcinogenic effect in some organs such as liver, kidney or intestine. When the level of sulfur compounds in Cruciferous and Alliaceous vegetables was determined by GC/MS (SIM), the richest in sulforaphane is broccoli followed by turnip, cabbage, radish, kale, cauliflower and Chinese cabbage. Meanwhile, the sulfides are predominant in Alliaceous vegetables such as onion. In related study, the administration of vegetable extract elevated the GST level by 1.5 fold for broccoli, 1.4 fold for radish, and 1.3 for onion. Thus, the vegetables frequently used in Korean dish contain relatively high amount of anticarcinogenic sulfur compounds. Moreover, the combination of broccoli and radish extracts elevated the GST induction up to 1.84 folds of control. In addition, the Kakdugi, fermented radish Kimchi was observed to show a comparable GST induction despite the decomposition of methylthio-3-butenylisothiocyanate (MTBI). Therefore, the combination of vegetables including broccoli, and fermented radish Kimchi would be useful as a functional food for chemoprevention.

Key words: bioactivity, sulfur compounds, cruciferous vegetables

INTRODUCTION

Cruciferae vegetables, such as broccoli, cabbage, Brussels sprouts, cauliflower, bok choy, kale, mustard seed and radishes have characteristic flavor, which are derived from isothiocyanates, nitriles or sulfides. Most of these organo sulfur compounds are derived from glucosinolate (Fenwick et al., 1983).

Glucosinolates

Glucosinolate is named trivially sinigrin, consisting of β -D-thioglucose group, a sulfonated oxime group and a side chain derived from amino acid. Glucosinolates, sequestered within the intact vegetable tissue, are released by physical damage such as chopping or chewing, and then exposed to the enzyme myrosinase, and finally hydrolyzed to isothiocyanates ($R-N=C=S$), nitriles and thiocyanate ions. This reaction is responsible for the development of the sharp taste of horseradish, mustard and radish (MacLeod, 1976). The Cruciferous vegetables contain different kinds of R groups in glucosinolates (Fenwick et al., 1983; Fahey et al., 2001). The major glucosinolates in the cruciferae are as shown in Table 1. The amount of glucosinolates varies greatly within and between crucifer

Table 1. Major glucosinolates and their hydrolysis products in Cruciferous vegetables

Glucosinolate	Natural abundance	Isothiocyanate	Nitrile
Glucoraphanin	Broccoli	Sulforaphane	Sulforaphane nitrile
Gluconasturtiin	Chinese cabbage, radishes, watercress	Phenethyl isothiocyanate	
Sinigrin	Brussels sprouts, cabbage, cauliflower	Allyl isothiocyanate	
Glucobrassicin	All crucifers	Indole-3-carbinol (3-Indolymethylglucosinolate)	
Progoitrin	Cramble (oil seed)	Crambene	

species. Glucobrassicin and glucoraphanin, generally found in high concentrations in broccoli, constitute as much as 30~65% of the total amount of glucosinolates (Kushhad et al., 1999). In contrast, Brussels sprouts, cabbage, and cauliflower contain little or no glucoraphanin. Crucifers, other than broccoli, generally contain high concentrations of sinigrin. Gluconasturtiin is abundant in Chinese cabbage, radishes, and watercress (Fenwick et al., 1983). Within the same species, plant tissue and environmental condition also affect glucosinolate concentration. Seeds often contain greater glucosinolate concentrations than the edible portion of the plant. Skin of radish contains higher amount glucosinolate than the inner part (Kim, 1988). Glucosinolate content is influenced by environmental factors such as cultivation, climate, and soil conditions (Josefsson, 1967). Indolyl glucosinolate, such as glucobrassicin, are affected primarily by environmental condition, whereas aliphatic glucosinolate, such as glucoraphanin, are primarily under genetic control (Brown et al., 2001). Non-enzymatic degradation may be caused by treatments such as cooking of cruciferous vegetables, which reduces the levels of glucosinolates remarkably.

Generation of isothiocyanates from glucosinolates

Isothiocyanates are one of hydrolysis product of glucosinolates, and some of isothiocyanates are known to be bioactive; sulforaphane (SF), allyl isothiocyanate (AI), phenylether isothiocyanate (PEI), indole-3-carbinol (I3C) and 4-methylthio-3-butenyl isothiocyanate (MTBI).

Myrosinase Myrosinase (thioglucoside glucohydrolase, E.C. 3.2.3.1.) is a group of enzymes which utilize various kinds of glucosinolates as substrates. The enzyme requires optimum condition for maximal activity. Myrosinase purified from radish harvested in Korea, showed an optimum pH of 6.5 and was stable at pH 6 to 7 at room temperature, but unstable below pH 4. The enzyme possessed an optimum temperature of 37°C, and gave a Vmax value of 40moles/mg min and a Km value of 0.12 mM for sinigrin. The purified myrosinase was activated at low conc. (<1 mM) of ascorbic acid with maximum activation at 0.6 mM, but somewhat inhibited by more than 2 mM ascorbic acid (Kim et al., 1989). The specific activity of myrosinase differs between plant tissues or species (Josefsson, 1967; Fenwick et al., 1983). Radish skin shows higher specific activities than inner part. Broccoli converts 80% to 90% of glucoraphanin to sulforaphane and 20% to SF (Matusheski et al., 2001) but daikon radish myrosinase converts almost all of glucoraphanin to sulforaphane (Zhang et al., 1992).

Factors affecting enzymatic hydrolysis of glucosinolates The hydrolysis of glucosinolate depends on many factors including the plant species and cultivar, the site of hydrolysis (inside the plant or in the gut), the tissue (skin vs. central part) of plant, ascorbate level and the environmental conditions (temperature, pH, moisture). Total glucosinolate in radish was estimated to range from 200~450 µmoles/100 g by coupled enzymes assay (Kim and Rhee, 1992). Quantitative determination of MTB-glucosinolate by RP-HPLC assay combined with myrosinase pretreatment showed that the peeled radishes contained about 200 µmoles/100 g and skin around 275 µmoles/100 g (Kim, 1988).

Isothiocyanates

Physiological and flavor properties Pungent or biting taste and flavor of cruciferous vegetables are derived from isothiocyanates (MacLeod, 1976). The pungent flavor of mustard seeds is largely due to allyl isothiocyanate. Aromatic isothiocyanates may provide much of the taste of horseradish. Broccoli flavor is from suforaphane. Phenylethyliothiocyanate (PEI) is the main isothiocyanate of Chinese cabbage. Pungent and biting taste of radish is mainly due to 4-methylthio-3-butenyl isothiocyanate (MTBI), constituting about 85% of the total isothiocyanates (Kim and Rhee, 1985)

Amount and stability of isothiocyanates in vegetable extracts The amount of isothiocyanate produced from inherent glucosinolates in vegetable homogenates depends on mainly the activity of myrosinase. Cooking process such as heating inactivates the enzyme myrosinase activity or decomposes glucosinolates. In an attempt to see the change of MTBI in radish, we developed RP-HPLC method to quantitate (Kim and Rhee, 1986). RP-HPLC assay (65% CH₃CN) was proved to be convenient, precise (<3% error) and reproducible, showing a good linearity between 10 nmoles/mL and 120 nmoles/mL. MTBI was stable in the organic solvent, but was hydrolyzed slowly in the basic medium and decomposed rapidly in the acidic aqueous medium. RP-HPLC analysis and the DTNB color reaction indicate that the decomposition of MTBI in the aqueous medium leads to the formation of methanethiol and a polar product ($\lambda_{\text{max}}=269$ nm). The amount of MTBI formed in the radish homogenate under optimum condition (pH 8.5, 1 min) corresponds to 210~420 $\mu\text{moles}/100$ g, which differs between cultivars and harvest season. MTBI in radish was higher in small cultivars than large ones (Kim et al., 1994). Meanwhile, in cooked radish, 4-methylthiobutyl isothiocyanate, the stable isothiocyanates is the most predominant. In Kimchi, the amount of MTBI decreased to 68%, 21%, 5% and zero after 1 day, 2 days, 3 days, and 4 days of fermentation at 20°C, in accordance with the gradual decrease of pungency during fermentation (Kim and Rhee, 1993). This was ascribed to the decomposition of glucosinolate and the reduction of myrosinase activity, which was caused by the lowered pH during fermentation (Kim and Rhee, 1993).

Nutrakinetics: Absorption and metabolism

In cruciferous plants, the content of glucosinolates is relatively high, approaching 1% or more of their dry weight (Rosa et al., 1997). Glucosinolate consumption is estimated to be as high as 300 mg/d (~660 $\mu\text{mol}/\text{d}$) (ILSI, 1999). The average daily consumption of allyl isothiocyanate from a typical diet is in the range 2~7 mg (Fenwick et al., 1983). Isothiocyanates are known to be absorbed through GI tract of humans. Consumption of 10 g and 20 g mustard led to the urinary excretion of 5.4 mg and 12.8 mg, respectively, of allyl isothiocyanate during the first 12 hours after consumption (Jiao et al., 1994). *In vivo*, isothiocyanates are conjugated with glutathione and then sequentially metabolized to mercapturic acids according to glutathione detoxification pathway (Fig. 1). These metabolites are collectively designated dithiocarbamates. In human urine after oral consumption, about 50 percent of benzyl isothiocyanate was excreted as a N-acetylcysteine conjugate. The N-acetylcysteine conjugate of phenethyl isothiocyanate in the urine is known to be a good marker (Chung, 1992). Thorough chewing of fresh vegetables exposes the glucosinolates to plant myrosinase and significantly increases dithiocarbamate excretion. Recent study indicates that humans can convert glucosinolates to isothiocyanates through the action of the microflora of the gastrointestinal tract (Shapiro et al., 2001; Getahun et al., 1999), suggesting that glucosinolates in cooked vegetables, lacking in myrosinase activity, can be converted to isothiocyanate in gut.

Bioactivities

Many studies report a strong inverse relationship between the intake of crucifers and the risk for many cancers.

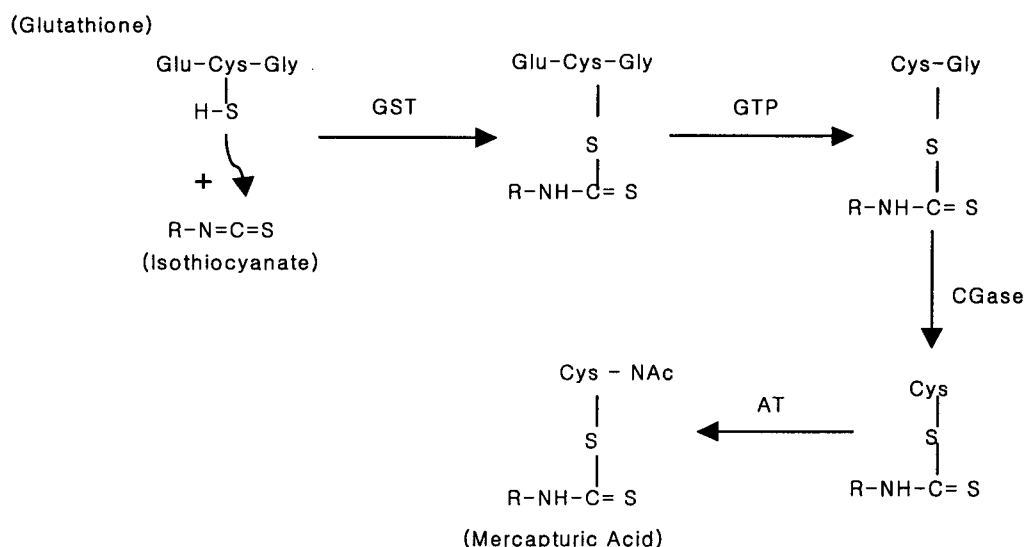


Fig. 1. Isothiocyanates are conjugated to glutathione by glutathione S-transferase (GST), then metabolized sequentially by γ -lutamyltranspeptidase (GTP), cysteinylglycinase (CGase), and acetyltransferase (AT) ultimately to form mercapturic acids (Shapiro et al., 2001).

Besides that, cruciferae vegetables show bioactivities as goitrogenic, antibacterial, antifungal, and antiprotozoal activities as well as insect repellants. Consumption of cruciferous vegetables has been associated with a reduction in the incidence of cancer at several sites in human body (Graham et al., 1978; Verhoeven et al., 1996). Feeding of crucifers is known to induce enzymes responsible for xenobiotic metabolism, and thereby accelerate the metabolic disposal of xenobiotics (Wattenberg, 1985; Beecher, 1994; Hecht, 1995). Especially, induction of phase 2 detoxification enzymes, such as glutathione S-transferase (EC 2.5.1.18) and quione reductase [NAD(P)H : (quionone : acceptor) oxidoreductase, EC 1.6.99.2] in rodent tissue affords protection against carcinogens and other toxic electrophiles (Wattenberg, 1985; Habig, 1974). It is well known that isothiocyanates are produced from myrosinase-catalyzed hydrolysis of glucosinolate in the extract (Fenwick et al., 1983). The induction of GST activity was attributed mainly to isothiocyanates which are mostly monofunctional inducers of phase 2 enzymes (Prochaska & Talalay, 1988; Talalay et al., 1995; Zhang et al., 1992) or in part to sulfides, inducers of phase 1 and 2 enzymes (Brady et al., 1988; Gudi and Singh, 1991).

Mechanism of anticarcinogenic action of isothiocyanates

There are two types of anticarcinogenic enzyme inducers: (a) bifunctional inducers that elevate both phase 2 enzymes (e.g., glutathione S-transferase, UDP-glucuronosyltransferases and quionone reductase) and phase 1 enzymes (e.g., cytochrome P450); and (b) monofunctional inducers that others selectively induce only phase 2 enzymes (monofunctional inducers) (Prochaska and Talalay, 1988). Phase 1 enzymes (cytochromes P450) convert procarcinogens to reactive electrophilic ultimate carcinogens that can damage susceptible centers of DNA bases and initiate carcinogenesis. However, Phase 2 enzymes prevent the damage of DNA and other macromolecules by reactive electrophiles by forming the conjugates with endogenous ligands (e.g., glutathione, glucuronic acid), and by inactivating electrophiles and by promoting their excretion. In addition, glutathione, the principal cellular antioxidant, which is similarly regulated by phase 2 enzymes, plays a major role in protection against electrophiles and reactive oxygen species. One possible mechanism for anticarcinogenic effects of isothiocyanates is to induce the activity of phase 2 enzymes and/or inhibit phase 1 enzymes (Prochaska and Talalay, 1988; Talalay et al., 1995;

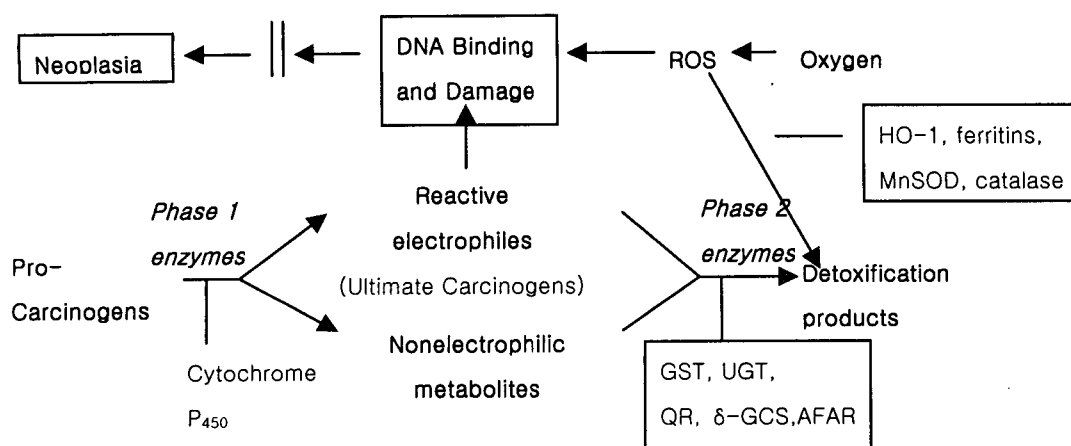


Fig. 2. Role of metabolism in chemical carcinogenesis. Susceptibility to carcinogen damage is controlled by the balance between phase 1 activation and phase 2 detoxication enzymes. GST, glutathione *S*-transferases; γ -GCS, γ -glutamylcysteine synthase; HO-1, heme oxygenase 1; MnSOD, manganese superoxide dismutase; QR, quinone reductase (NQO1); ROS, reactive oxygen species; UGT, UDP-glucuronosyl transferases; AFAR, aflatoxin B1 aldehyde reductase (Talalay and Fahey, 2001).

Talalay and Fahey, 2001). Recent studies in humans also revealed that a high consumption of Cruciferous led to an increase in glutathione *S*-transferase activity, supporting the potential role of isothiocyanates in the prevention of human cancer (Verhoeven et al., 1996). The second putative mechanism involves the suppression of tumor development by deleting the initiated cells from damaged tissue by apoptosis (Adesida et al., 1996).

Anticarcinogenic activity

The isothiocyanates are the most potent anticarcinogenic agents known (Wattenberg, 1977; Wattenberg, 1985). Consumption of broccoli, Brussels sprouts and cauliflower enhanced the activity of biotransforming enzymes and exhibited anticarcinogenic activity in both animals and humans (Aspry and Bjeldanes, 1983; McDanell et al., 1988; Stoner et al., 1991). Cabbage and broccoli enhanced colon mucosal glutathione levels (Chen et al., 1995). Consumption of 300 g of cooked Brussels sprouts per day by healthy human volunteers significantly elevated glutathione-*S*-transferase levels in blood plasma (Bogaards et al., 1994).

Sulforaphane Sulforaphane is one of the representative monofunctional inducers, which induces phase 2 enzymes selectively without the induction of aryl hydrocarbon receptor-dependent cytochromes P-450 phase 1 enzymes. Among synthetic sulforaphane analogues ($\text{CH}_3\text{-SO}_m\text{-(CH}_2\text{)}_n\text{-NCS}$), sulforaphane ($n=1, m=4$) is the most potent inducer, and the presence of oxygen on sulfur enhances potency (Zhang et al., 1992).

Phenethylisothiocyanate Another effective isothiocyanate may be phenethylisothiocyanate, which inhibited isoenzyme P4502E1 in stimulated rat liver microsome, and increased tissue level of glutathione. Synthetic analogs of phenethyl isothiocyanate with a longer alkyl chain length possessed greater inhibitory activity against NNK-induced lung tumors in mice (Morse et al., 1990). Phenhexyl isothiocyanate inhibited chemically induced lung tumors in strain A mice by >80 percent when administered at a dose that was 50-fold lower than the dose of NNK (Morse et al., 1992). Phenhexyl isothiocyanate, the most potent anticarcinogen tested, was 50~100 times more potent than phenethyl isothiocyanate (Chung, 1992), due possibly to the increased lipophilicity and stability of the phenhexyl derivative (Chung, 1992).

GST induction by fresh cruciferae vegetables commonly consumed vegetables Because sulforaphane acts as a monofunctional inducer in chemoprevention, at first, the quantitative determination of sulforaphane in 20 cruciferous

vegetables of Korean origin was performed. Homogenate of vegetable was extracted with dichloromethane, and the extract, after drying, was subjected to GC/MS analysis, which was based on single ion monitoring (SIM) at m/z 72, 160, 55, 114 and 177. The content of sulforaphane was found to be the highest in broccoli followed by turnip, red cabbage, radish and kale. Also, the content of sulforaphane differed according to the cultivars and the portion of the vegetables: highest in the stem of '1243' and the floret of Pilgrim the amount of sulforaphane was the highest (>700 ppm). Processing or cooking conditions affect sulforaphane content. Sulforaphane was maximally produced from the homogenate in 0.1 M phosphate buffer containing 1 mM of vitamin C and storing for 1 hr at room temperature. In cooked broccoli, the amount of sulforaphane decreased according to the boiling time, and after 30 min to 10% of control (Kim et al., 1997).

The anticarcinogenic effect of commonly consumed cruciferous and lilaceae vegetables, which were harvested in Korea, was compared by assessing the induction of phase 2 enzymes. In addition, the combinational effects of two types of vegetables were assessed. The solvent extract of vegetable in propylene glycol (5 mL/kg body wt.) was administered to ICR mice 6 to 8 weeks old via gavage during 5 days. The induction of GST activity in liver cytosol of mice was greatest with broccoli, followed by radish, wild green onion, turnip and green onion. The induction of GST activity in liver cytosol increased up to 1.5 to 1.8-folds at a dose of 24 g fresh vegetable/mouse. The induction of combination between vegetables was the highest with the combination of broccoli and radish, 1.83-fold, followed by that of broccoli and green onion, 1.72-fold and that of broccoli and turnip, 1.50-fold (Kim et al., 1999). Crucifer vegetables containing higher sulforaphane amount showed higher GST induction, while onion family vegetables with higher sulfides induced higher GST activity, compared to control.

CONCLUSION

Cruciferae vegetables contain several kinds of bioactive sulfur compounds derived from myrosinase hydrolysis from glucosinolates such as isothiocyanates. This paper dealt with the sulfur compounds and their related compounds concerning chemical properties, nutraceutical, bioability, and anticarcinogenesis.

REFERENCES

- Adesida A, Edwards LG, Thornalley PJ. 1996. Inhibition of human leukaemia 60 cell growth by S-(N-phenylethylthiocarbonyl)cysteine. *Food Chem Toxicol* 34: 385-392.
- Aspry KE, Bjeldanes LF. 1983. Effects of dietary broccoli and butylated hydroxyanisole on liver-mediated metabolism of benzo[*a*]pyrene. *Food Chem Toxicol* 21: 133-142.
- Bailey GS, Hendricks JD, Shelton DW, Nixon JE, Pawlowsk NE. 1987. Enhancement of carcinogenesis by the natural anticarcinogen indole-3-carbinol. *J Natl Cancer Inst* 78: 931-934.
- Beecher CWW. 1994. Cancer preventive properties of varieties of Brassica oleracea, a review. *Am Clin Nutr (Suppl.)* 59: 1166S-1170S.
- Bogaards JJP, Verhagen H, Willems MI, van Poppel G, van Bladeren PJ. 1994. Consumption of Brussels sprouts results in elevated α -class glutathione S-transferase levels in human blood plasma. *Carcinogenesis* 15: 1073-1075.
- Bradfield CA, Chang Y, Bjeldanes LF. 1985. Effects of commonly consumed vegetables on hepatic xenobiotic-metabolizing enzymes in the mouse. *Food Chem Toxicol* 23: 899-904.
- Brady JF, Li D, Ishizaki H, Yang CS. 1988. Effect of diallyl sulfide on rat liver microsomal nitrosamine metabolism and other monooxygenase activities. *Cancer Research* 48: 5937-5940.
- Brown AF, Yousef GG, Jeffrey EH, et al. 2001. Glucosinolates profiles in broccoli (*Brassica oleracea*): stability over environments and implications for cancer chemoprotection [abstract]. *Hort Sci* 36: 453.
- Chen MF, Chen LT, Boyce HW. 1995. Cruciferous vegetables and glutathione: their effects on colon mucosal

- glutathione level and colon tumor development in rats induced by DMH. *Nutr Cancer* 23: 77-83.
- Chung FL. 1992. Chemoprevention of lung carcinogenesis by aromatic isothiocyanates. In *Cancer Chemoprevention*. Wattenberg L, Lipkin M, Boone CW, Kelloff GL, eds. CRC Press, Boca Raton, FL. p 227-245.
- Fahley JW, Zalemann AT, Talalay P. 2001. The chemical diversity and distribution of glucosinolates and isothiocyanates among plants. *Phytochemistry* 56: 5-51.
- Fenwick GR, Heaney RK, Mullin WJ. 1983. Glucosinolates and their breakdown products in food and food plants. *CRC Crit Rev Food Sci Nutr* 18: 123-201.
- Greer MA. 1957. Goitrogenic substances in food. *Amer J Clin Nutr* 5: 440-444.
- Gudi VA, Singh SV. 1991. Effect of diallyl sulfide, A naturally occurring anticarcinogen on glutathione-dependent detoxification enzymes of female CD-1 mouse tissues. *Biochemical Pharmacology* 42: 1261-1265.
- Habig WH, Pabst MJ, Jakoby WB. 1974. Glutathione S-transferase. *J Biol Chem* 249: 7130-7139.
- Hecht SS. 1999. Chemoprevention of cancer by isothiocyanates, modifiers of carcinogen metabolism. *J Nutr* 129: 768S-774S.
- Ilsi. 1999. Safety assessment and potential health benefits of food components based on selected scientific criteria. Isothiocyanates. *Crit Rev Food Sci Nutr* 39: 245-257.
- Jiao D, Ho CT, Foiles P, Chung FL. 1994. Identification and quantification of the N-acetylcysteine conjugate of allyl isothiocyanate in human urine after ingestion of mustard. *Cancer Epidemiology, Biomarkers & Prevention* 3: 487-492.
- Josefsson E. 1967. Distribution of thioglycosides in different parts of Brassica plants. *Phytochemistry* 6: 1617-1627.
- Keck AS, Finney JW. 2004. Cruciferous vegetables: Cancer Protective mechanisms of glucosinolates hydrolysis products and selenium. *Integrative Cancer Therapies* 3: 5-12.
- Kim MR, Rhee HS. 1985. Volatile Sulfur components from fresh radishes of Korean origin. *J Kor Soc Food Sci* 1: 33-39.
- Kim MR, Rhee HS. 1986. Quantitative determination of 4-methylthio-3-butenyl isothiocyanate in radish root by RP-HPLC. *Korean J Soc Food Sci Technol* 18: 16-20.
- Kim MR. 1988. The change of pungent principles and its related substances in Korean radish kimchi during fermentation. *PhD Thesis*. Seoul National University, Seoul.
- Kim MR, Rhee HS. 1992. Changes in the factors associated with decrease of pungency in "Kagdugi" during fermentation. *Korean J Food Sci Technol* 24: 361-366.
- Kim MR, Rhee HS. 1993. Decrease of pungency in radish kimchi during fermentation. *J Food Science* 58: 128-131.
- Kim MR, Jhee OK, Yoon HM, Yang CB. 1994. Major pungent component content and textural property of radish and radish Kimchi by cultivars in spring, Symposium on Kimchi. Association of Korean Food Sci Technol. p 301-328.
- Kim MR, Lee KJ, Kim HY. 1997. Effect of processing on the sulfuraphane content of broccoli. *Kor J Soc Food Sci* 13: 44-48.
- MacLeod AJ. 1976. Volatile flavour compounds of the Cruciferae. In *The Biology and Chemistry of the Cruciferae*. Vaughan JG, MacLeod AJ, Jonwa BMG, eds. Academic Press, London. p 307-330.
- Matusheki NV, Wallig MA, Juvik JA. 2001. Preparative HPLC method for the purification of sulforaphane and sulforaphane nitrile from *Brassica oleracea*. *J Agric Food Chem* 49: 1867-1872.
- McDanell R, LcLean AEM, Hanley AB, Heaney RK, Fenwick GR. 1988. Chemical and biological properties of indole glucosinolates (glucobrassicins): a review. *Food and Chemical Toxicology* 26: 59-70.
- Morse MA, Eklind KI, Hecht SS, Jordan KG, Choi CI, Desai DH, Amin SC, Chung FL. 1991. Structure-activity relationships for inhibition of 4-(methylnitrosamino)-1-(3-pyridyl)-1-butanone lung tumorigenesis by arylalkyl isothiocyanates in A/J mice. *Cancer Res* 51: 1846-1850.
- Morse MA, LaGreca SD, Amin SG, Chung FL. 1990. Effects of indole-3-carbinol on lung tumorigenesis and DNA methylation induced by 4-(methylnitrosoamino)-1-(3-pyridyl)-1-butanone (NNK), and on the metabolism and disposition of NNK in A/J mice. *Cancer Res* 50: 2613-2617.

- Prochaska HJ, Talalay P. 1988. Regulatory mechanism of monofunctional and bifunctional anticarcinogenic enzyme inducers in murine liver. *Cancer Res* 48: 4776-4782.
- Rosa EAS, Heaney RK, Fenwick GR, Portas CAM. 1997. Glucosinolates in crop plants. *Hortic Rev* 19: 99-215.
- Schone F, Jahreis G, Lange R, Seffner W, Groppe B, Hennig A, Ludke H. 1990. Effect of varying glucosinolate and iodine intake via rapeseed meal diets on serum thyroid hormone level and total iodine in the thyroid in growing pigs. *Endocrinol Exper* 24: 415-427.
- Shapiro TA, Fahey JW, Wade KL, Stephenson KK, Talalay P. 1998. Human metabolism and excretion of cancer chemopreventive glucosinolates and isothiocyanates of cruciferous vegetables. *Cancer Epidemiol Biomark Prev* 7: 1091-1100.
- Sidransky H, Ito N, Verney E. 1966. Influence of α -naphthyl-isothiocyanate on liver tumorigenesis in rats ingesting ethionine and N-2-fluorenylacetamide. *J Natl Cancer Inst* 37: 677-686.
- Sok DE, Kim JH, Kim MR. 2003. Isolation and identification of bioactive organosulfur phytochemicals from solvent extract of broccoli. *Kor J Food Sci Nutr* 32: 315-319.
- Sparnins VL, Chuan J, Wattenberg LW. 1982. Enhancement of glutathione S-transferase activity of the esophagus by phenols, lactones, and benzyl isothiocyanate. *Cancer Res* 42: 1205-1201.
- Stowansand GS. 1995. Bioactive organosulfur phytochemicals in *Brassica oleracea* vegetables-A review. *Food Chem Toxic* 33: 537-543.
- Stoner GD, Morrissey DT, Heur YH, Daniel EM, Galati AJ, Wagner SW. 1991. Inhibitory effects of phenethyl isothiocyanate on N-nitrosobenzylmethylamine carcinogenesis in the rat esophagus. *Cancer Res* 51: 2063-2068.
- Talalay P, Fahey JW, Holtzclaw WD, Prester T, Zhang Y. 1995. Chemoprotection against cancer by phase 2 enzyme induction. *Toxicol Lett* 82/83: 173-179.
- Talalay P, Fahey JW. 2001. Phytochemicals from cruciferous plants protect against cancer by modulating carcinogen metabolism. *J Nutr* 131: 3027S-3033S.
- Thornally PJ. 2002. Isothiocyanates: mechanism of cancer chemopreventive action. *Anti-Cancer Drugs* 13: 331-338.
- VanEtten CH, Daxenbichler ME, Wolff IA. 1969. Natural glucosinolates (Thoglucosides) in foods and feeds. *J Agric Food Chem* 17: 438-491.
- Wattenberg LW. 1977. Inhibition of carcinogenic effects of polycyclic hydrocarbons by benzyl isothiocyanate and related compounds. *J Natl Cancer Inst* 58: 395-398.
- Wattenberg LW. 1987. Inhibitory effects of benzyl isothiocyanate administered shortly before diethylnitrosamine on pulmonary and forestomach neoplasia in A/J mice. *Carcinogenesis (Lond.)* 12: 1971-1973
- Zhang Y, Talalay P, Cho CG, Posner GH. 1992. A major inducer of anticarcinogenic protective enzymes from broccoli: isolation and elucidation of structure. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 89: 2399-2401.
- Zhang Y, Talalay P. 1998. Mechanism of differential potencies of isothiocyanates as inducers of anticarcinogenic phase 2 enzymes. *Cancer Res* 58: 4632-4639.