

Testing grapes and wines for naturally occurring mutagenic compounds: A Review

by

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Natürlich vorkommende mutagene Wirkstoffe in Trauben und Weinen: Übersichtsbericht

Zusammenfassung: Mutagene oder karzinogene Nitro- und Phenolverbindungen, Ester und mikrobielle Wirkstoffe wurden in Mosten und Weinen nachgewiesen. Ihre Konzentrationen waren jedoch niedrig und entsprachen den in Fruchtsäften und anderen Gärungsprodukten gefundenen Werten. Vorkommen, dosisabhängiges, physiologisches Verhalten sowie Methoden der Prüfung auf mutagene und karzinogene Eigenschaften werden besprochen.

Key words: berry, must, wine, microbiology, metabolism, phenol, mutation

Introduction

A correlation between the consumption of alcoholic beverages and oesophageal cancer has been established (MCGLASHAN *et al.* 1968; MCGLASHAN 1969; TUYNS 1970, 1979; WARWICK and HARRINGTON 1973; WALKER *et al.* 1979; HOEY *et al.* 1981). The risk of oesophageal cancer for drinkers of wine is less than that for spirits (MANDARD *et al.* 1981). A major cause of cancer, and a number of other diseases, is DNA damage (AMES 1979; HIATT *et al.* 1977) some of which is a result of naturally occurring mutagens in our environment. Because most carcinogens are mutagens (AMES and MCCANN 1976; SUGIMURA *et al.* 1976), a series of short term tests (PURCHASE *et al.* 1976; HOLLSTEIN *et al.* 1979; HEINZE and POULSEN 1983) have been devised that provide a rapid economical and sensitive screening procedure for environmental mutagens. The *Salmonella*/microsome mutagenicity assay has been sufficiently refined and standardized to be able to detect 90 % (MCCANN *et al.* 1975) of a list of 174 known carcinogens as mutagens. Using short term and other assays, mutagens have been detected in orange and grapefruit juice (MAZAKI *et al.* 1982), apple juice (SCOTT *et al.* 1977), tea and coffee (NAGAO *et al.* 1979), grape juice (STOLTZ *et al.* 1982), spirits (NAGAO *et al.* 1981; LOQUET *et al.* 1981; SUBDEN *et al.* 1985), tap water (HEARTLEIN *et al.* 1981) and other beverages. However, long term animal tests for carcinogenicity do not always confirm indications from mutagen assays.

When several different wines were screened with the *Salmonella*/microsome mutagen assay (TAMURA *et al.* 1980; STOLTZ *et al.* 1982; SUBDEN *et al.* 1983 a, b) some red (but no white) wines were found to contain a small but significant (DESERRES and SHELBY 1979) level of mutagen.

The present paper reviews the major short term assays and the occurrence, nature, and metabolism of the naturally occurring mutagens and putative carcinogens of grapes and wines.

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Tests for screening mutagens

As there are more than a dozen short term tests for assaying mutagens only those with publications relevant to grape and wine will be described. Readers are referred to a review by HOLLSTEIN *et al.* (1979) for further study.

1. Sister chromatid exchanges

Some mutagens act by breaking chromosomes (clastogens) and in so doing cause DNA damage affecting gene expression. The clastogen assays involve administration of a chromosome stain or radioactive tracer to cultured cells during one replication and removal at the succeeding replication. There is a low level of spontaneous breaking and reannealing between sister chromatids during cell divisions. The stain or radioactive tracer can be used to determine the frequency of spontaneous sister chromatid exchanges. Clastogens increase the frequency of sister chromatid exchanges.

The three most common flavonols in grapes are quercitrin, quercetin and kaempferol (NUZUBIDGE and GULBANI 1964; RIBÉREAU-GAYON 1964 a, b). Both quercetin and kaempferol have been shown to increase the frequency of sister chromatid exchanges in cultured hamster cells (SUGIMURA 1980; CARVER *et al.* 1983).

2. Cell culture assays

Test compounds can be administered to human or other mammalian cells cultured *in vitro* and one can measure the effect of these compounds on the mutation rate or the ability of the compound to transform normally growing cells into those with the growth parameters of cancer cells. Both quercetin and kaempferol have been shown to mutate (MARUTA *et al.* 1979) and transform (UMEZAWA *et al.* 1977; MELTZ and MACGREGOR 1981) human and mouse cells in culture.

3. *Drosophila* mutagen assay

By studying sex frequencies in dose/survivor populations one can calculate a frequency for the induction of sex-linked and other mutations in *Drosophila melanogaster*. Both quercetin and kaempferol have been shown to be mutagenic in *Drosophila* (WATSON 1982).

4. *Salmonella*/microsomal mutagen assay

By far the most widely accepted and standardized short term assay for mutagens is the AMES test which measures the potential of test compounds to reverse or 'back' mutate certain sites on the histidine operon of *Salmonella typhimurium*. Each mutant site was constructed to be sensitive to a specific class or family of mutagen. Strain TA97 has a CCCCC run (LEVIN *et al.* 1982 a) and TA98 has a GCGCGCGC run near the site of a frameshift mutation (AMES *et al.* 1975). Such nucleotide sequences are particularly sensitive to mutagenesis by test compounds that cause further frameshift mutations (restoring the reading frame) and so increase the reversion frequency. The strains sensitive to base pair substitution mutagens are TA100 which requires a C→T mutation (AMES *et al.* 1975) and TA102 which requires a T→C mutation (LEVIN *et al.* 1982 b) for reversion. Strain TA102 is selective for certain oxidative mutagens and the sensitivity is increased by having the hist G gene carrying the mutant site on a multi-copy plasmid (LEVIN *et al.* 1982 b).

To prevent the bacteria from excluding harmful agents or from correcting reverse mutations caused by test compounds, the *rfa* mutation was introduced, resulting in a

defective lipopolysaccharide protective outer coating, and the *uvr B* mutation resulting in a defective mutation repair enzyme. Plasmid pKM101 was also introduced as it increased bacterial sensitivity to mutagens by some unknown mechanism.

Activation systems

Promutagens are compounds that are not mutagenic in themselves but become mutagenic due to chemical and metabolic interactions with other foods, the gut microflora, human liver or other tissue enzymes. To simulate natural events, one step in the *Salmonella*/microsome mutagen assay is to combine the test compound with an enzyme extract (the microsomal or S9 fraction) of rats whose hepatic enzymes had been induced by an interperitoneal injection of polychlorinated biphenyls. *Salmonella* tester strains can then be exposed to the compound plus possible metabolites.

STOLTZ *et al.* (1982) compared the mutagenicity of red and white wine, with and without S9 activation. They found that red and white wines have very low mutagen content but the red wines (more than white) contain a promutagen that is S9 activated to form a mutagenic species affecting TA98 more than TA100 indicating a frameshift mutagen. The same study detected significant levels of mutagen in grape juice.

LIN and TAI (1980) found no mutagens in Chinese wines but found very high levels of mutagen if the wine had been treated with nitrate. Nitrates and nitrites have extensive use in Chinese food processing (LIN 1978) and the nitrate treatment was to simulate food combination activations. It was suggested that the mutagen produced was a nitrosamide as it was highly mutagenic with or without S9 activation.

Many naturally occurring promutagens are glycosides that are not readily activated to form aglycones by mammalian systems. Cycasin (from ferns) is not mutagenic nor is it activated by S9 type preparations. Activation occurs in the presence of β -glucosidases (SMITH 1966; MATSUSHIMA *et al.* 1979; MORGAN and HOFFMANN 1983) (Fig. 1).

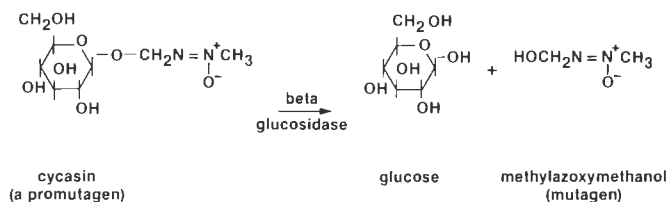
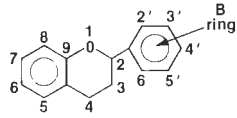


Fig. 1: Cycasin activation.

Cycasinaktivierung.

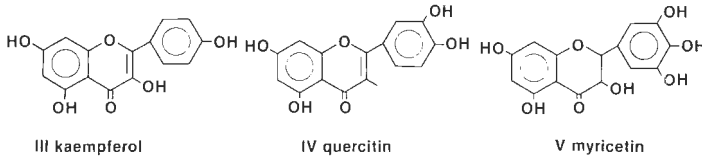
The gut microflora has an abundance of sugar cleaving enzymes so cycasin is carcinogenic in rats but not in germ-free rats (LAQUER 1964; MATSUMOTO 1980). Several sources of sugar cleaving enzymes have been reported; cecalase from rat feces (BROWN and DIETRICH 1979 a b), hesperidinase from molds (NAGAO *et al.* 1978, 1979) and fecalase from human feces (TAMURA *et al.* 1980).

a) Numbering

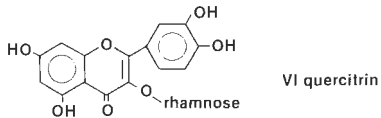


Aglycone Flavonols

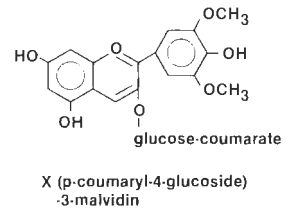
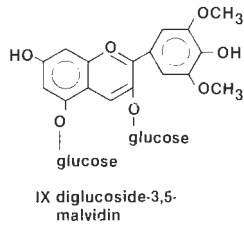
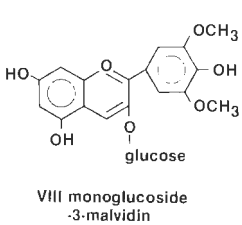
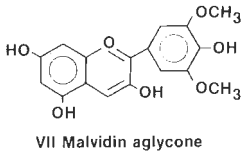
b)



c) Glycosylated Flavonol



d) Anthocyanins: Malvidin and Glucosides



e) Tannins

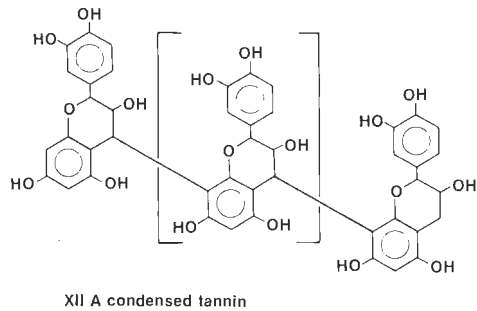
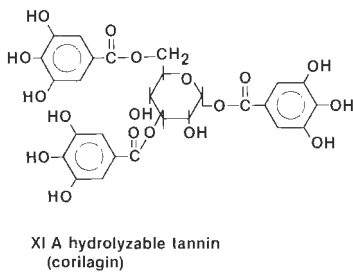


Fig. 2: Some grape polyphenolics.

Polyphenole aus Trauben verschiedener Rebsorten.

TAMURA *et al.* (1980) found that fecalase and S9 activated promutagens in grape juice and red wines but not white. Other reports using fecalase had similar results but the response was also related to grape variety (SUBDEN *et al.* 1983 b) and must processing.

In most countries, grapevine pesticide sprays must demonstrate lack of mutagenicity before they are recommended for use. RASQUINHA *et al.* (1982) produced a grapevine microsomal extract (S14) that activates promutagens including several commonly used grape fungicides and pesticides. It is unlikely, however, that vine activation of spray promutagens is a factor in wine and must mutagenesis.

Promutagen activation in humans is not limited to gut or hepatic metabolism. Activation of several polycyclic hydrocarbons (GUTHRIE *et al.* 1982) and amines (JOSEPHY *et al.* 1981; JOSEPHY and SUBDEN 1984; ROBERTSON *et al.* 1983) is performed by prostaglandin endoperoxide synthetase and other peroxidases. Given the polycyclic nature of some putative grape promutagens it would be of interest to determine their response to peroxidase activation.

Non specific or unknown activations can be estimated from mutagen assays on the urine of subjects which have ingested test compounds (RUSSEL and KRAHN 1981). When the urine of wine and grape juice drinkers was screened in the *Salmonella*/microsome assay, no mutagens were detected (SOUSA *et al.* 1985).

Grape and wine mutagens

Although there have been several reports of naturally occurring toxic substances in wines, only those related to mutagens shall be reviewed. Patulin (4-hydroxy-4H-furo[3,2-C]-pyran-2(6H)-one) is a metabolite of certain *Aspergillus*, *Penicillium* and *Byssoschlamys* mold species (SCOTT 1974; ESCOULA 1975). It is a carcinogen (DICKENS and JONES 1961) and has been found on moldy grapes (SOMMER *et al.* 1974). Patulin has been found in grape juice but not in wine (SCOTT *et al.* 1977). Apparently, patulin is unstable in the presence of SO₂ (POHLAND and ALLEN 1970) approximately 47 mg/l of which is produced by yeasts during fermentation (WURDIG and SCHLOTTER 1967). Patulin has been reported in apple juice (SCOTT *et al.* 1972) but not in apple cider (HARWIG *et al.* 1973).

The flavonols quercetin and kaempferol are believed to be the principle mutagens in wines primarily through studies with other fruit juices (WOLLENWEBER and DIETZ 1981; MAZAKI *et al.* 1982). Red wines are fermented on the grape skins, from which they extract pigments VII, VIII, IX, X, condensed tannins XII, and flavonols III, IV, V, VI (Fig. 2). White wines are not fermented on the skins and have a lower flavonol content and lower mutagen content (Figs. 3 and 4). Structural biosynthetic relationships and importance of flavonols and other polyphenolics (Fig. 1) have been extensively reviewed elsewhere (SINGLETON and ESSAN 1969; RIBÉREAU-GAYON 1972, 1974; SINGLETON and NOBLE 1976). Condensed tannins XII bind and inactivate proteins such as pectin methylesterases and other hydrolases of fungal pathogens (BACHMANN and BLAICH 1979); flavonoids contribute to oxidative browning (SINGLETON and NOBLE 1976) and tannic acid XI (a contribution from oak cooperage (RIBÉREAU-GAYON 1974)) adds complexity to wine flavors. Activation systems produce mutagenic aglycones (SUGIMURA *et al.* 1977; NAGAO *et al.* 1981) like quercetin IV from promutagens like the rhamnoside quercitrin VI (AMBROSE and ROBBINS 1954). Though structurally similar, few polyphenolics are mutagenic. MACGREGOR and JURD (1978) concluded that the aglycone must have four structural features for mutagenicity viz (1) a free hydroxyl at the 3 position, (2) a double bond at the 2,3 position (3), a keto group at the 4 position, and (4) a struc-

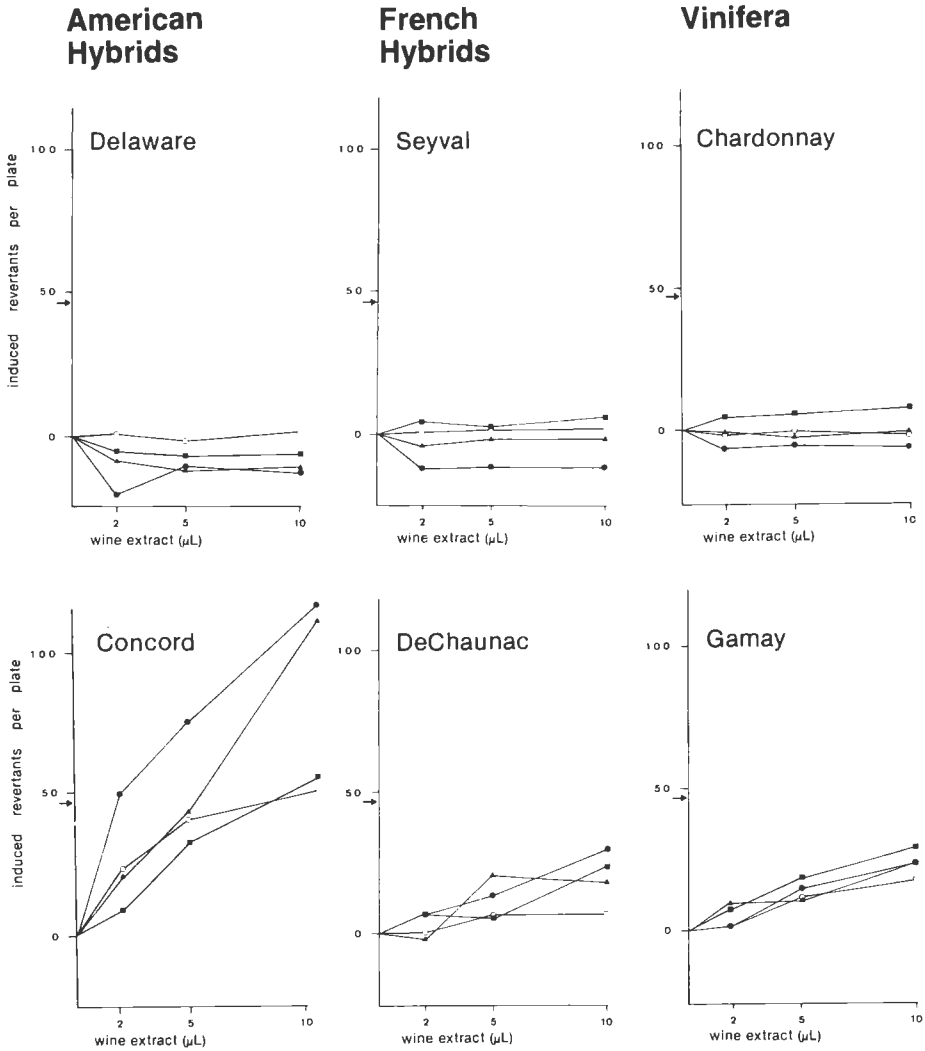


Fig. 3: Mutagen screening using reversion frequencies of *Salmonella typhimurium* strain TA98 exposed to several doses of an Amberlite XAD-2 (nonionic polymeric adsorbant) resin bound extract of wine for various grape species. Frequencies shown have been corrected for spontaneous, nutritional and other effects. The arrow on the ordinate indicates the reversion frequency of statistical significance. — ○ = extract (1 μL extract = 0.25 ml wine); ▲ = extract plus S9 activation; ■ = extract plus fecalase activation; ● = extract plus S9 and fecalase activation.

Bestimmung mutagener Wirkstoffe durch Messung der Rückbildungshäufigkeit von *Salmonella typhimurium* TA98 auf Weinextrakten verschiedener Rebsorten. Die Extrakte wurden mit unterschiedlichen Dosierungen von nicht ionisiertem Amberlite XAD-2-Polymer gewonnen. Zufallsfaktoren in Nährlösungen und Wachstumsbedingungen wurden bereinigt. Der Pfeil auf der Ordinate zeigt statistisch signifikante Häufigkeit. — ○ = Meßwert von 1 μL Extrakt (aus 0,25 ml Wein); ▲ = Extrakt mit S9-Aktivierung; ■ = Extrakt mit Fecalase-Aktivierung; ● = Extrakt mit S9- und Fecalase-Aktivierung.

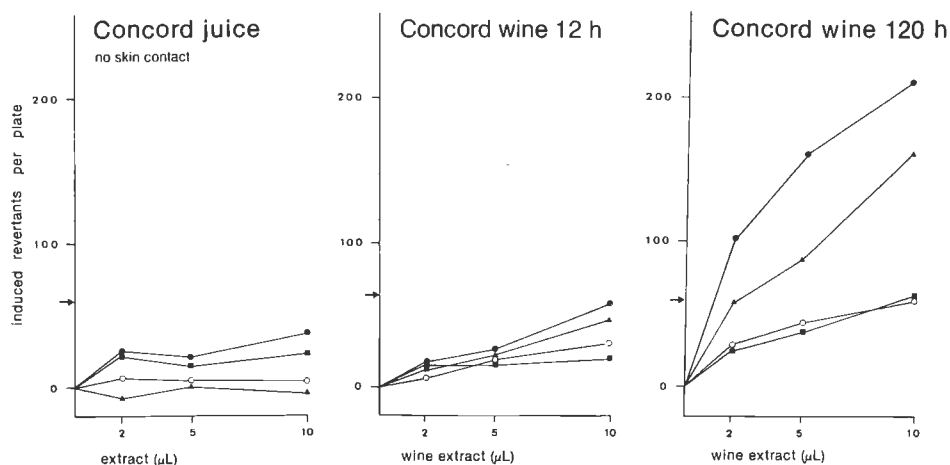


Fig. 4: Mutagen screening using reversion frequencies of *Salmonella typhimurium* strain TA98 exposed to several doses of an Amberlite XAD-2 (nonionic polymeric adsorbant) resin bound extract of Concord wine showing the effects of grape skin contact time during fermentation. Frequencies shown have been corrected for spontaneous, nutritional and other effects. The arrow on the ordinate indicates the reversion frequency of statistical significance. Times shown indicate skin contact time during fermentation. — For further explanation see Fig. 3.

Bestimmung mutagener Wirkstoffe durch Messung der Rückbildungshäufigkeit von *Salmonella typhimurium* TA98 auf Weinextrakten der Concord-Rebe nach Vergärung auf der Maische. Die Extrakte wurden mit dem nicht ionisierten XAD-Polymer gewonnen. Zufallsfaktoren in Nährlösung und Wachstumsbedingungen wurden bereinigt. Der Pfeil auf der Ordinate zeigt statistisch signifikante Häufigkeit. Die angegebenen Zeiten bedeuten die Dauer der Maischegärung. — Weitere Erläuterungen s. Fig. 3.

ture which permits the proton of the 3-hydroxyl group to tautomerize to a 3-keto compound.' Anthocyanins and tannins are not strong mutagens and would require extensive activation to become mutagens according to MACGREGOR and JURD's (1978) criteria.

American *Vitis* species have more widely distributed 3,5 diglucoside anthocyanin pigments IX than *V. vinifera* which has primarily 3-mono glucoside anthocyanins VIII (RIBÉREAU-GAYON 1974; AMERINE *et al.* 1980). Whether there are analogous 3-mono and 3,5 diglucoside flavonoids (which would be promutagens) is not completely resolved (LEA *et al.* 1979), so the chemical bases for species differences in mutagen content (SUBDEN *et al.* 1983 b) are not known.

It would be of some interest to determine if the lactic bacteria that perform malolactic fermentations have β -glucosidases and other flavonol activating or degrading enzymes. The effect of aging, which tends to polymerize polyphenolics, on the mutagen content of wine has not been reported.

Yeast mutagens

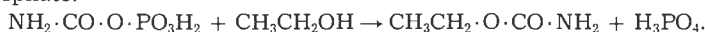
Wild yeasts that commonly contaminate wines and produce off odours, flavours and other spoilage effects were collected and identified (SUBDEN *et al.* 1985). The various spoilage yeast species were then used in a *Salmonella*/microsomal mutagen assay

to determine if any of the metabolites were mutagenic. No mutagens were detected in any of the wines made with the contaminating or control (*Saccharomyces cerevisiae* var. Montrachet and *S. beticus*) wine yeasts.

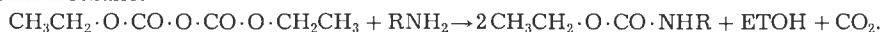
OBE *et al.* (1980) noted that alcoholics have a higher than normal number of lymphocytes with chromosomal aberrations. Further studies indicated that an increase in sister chromatid exchanges could be detected in cultured cells exposed to fusel oil congeners (HOEFT and OBE 1983), acetaldehyde (OBE 1981; OBE *et al.* 1977), and indirectly to ethanol (OBE and RISTOW 1979).

A common metabolite of both yeast and bacterial fermentations is ethyl carbamate or 'urethane'. Concern over the incidence of urethane in wines resulted in the removal of several wines from provincial retail wine stores in Canada in 1985. Urethane had been used as an anesthetic until it was noted (NETTLESHIP *et al.* 1943) that it rapidly induced lung adenomas in mice. Since that time, a number of studies have confirmed the tumorigenic and carcinogenic nature of urethane (MIRVISH 1968; INNES *et al.* 1969; TOTH and BOREISHA 1969; Int. Agency for Res. on Cancer, 1974; World Health Organization, 1972; SCHMAEL *et al.* 1977). Urethane exhibits limited mutagenic activity in the AMES test although it is a carcinogen (DAHL *et al.* 1978).

Rodent tests revealed that 90 % of ^{14}C -carboxy and ^{14}C -methylene-urethane ($\text{NH}_2 \cdot ^{14}\text{CO} \cdot \text{OCH}_2\text{CH}_3$ and $\text{NH}_2 \cdot \text{CO} \cdot \text{O}^{14}\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_3$) is degraded and expired as $^{14}\text{CO}_2$ within 24 h while the remainder is voided in the urine or (5 %) resident in body fluids (SKIPPER *et al.* 1951). Some of the urethane may be catabolized by a minor pathway to produce degradatory intermediates that are more carcinogenic than urethane (DAHL *et al.* 1978). One study on Californian wines found that less than 6 μg urethane per litre of wine is produced through natural fermentations (OOUGH 1976 a). The same study suggested that the source of natural urethane was esterification of ethanol and carbamyl phosphate:

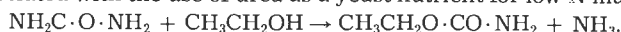


Diethyl dicarbonate (DEPC) is a potent antimicrobial agent and has been used extensively in the soft drink industry. In 1972, the World Health Organization (WHO) set 10 μg DEPC/l of soft drink as a permissible level (World Health Organization 1972). The WHO report was careful to specify that DEPC should only be used for beverages with a pH less than 4 and should not be used for high ammonia or amine, containing beverages such as milk. The reason for this is that DEPC can act with primary amines to form urethane:



There is a report that white wine containing 5 mg/l ammonia dosed with 500 mg/l DEPC produced 2600 μg urethane/l using isotope dilution analysis (LOEFROTH and GEJVAL 1971). Other groups using GLC/MS analysis have disputed these values (FISCHER 1972; OUGH 1976 b; U.S. Dept. of Health Educ. and Welfare 1972) and claimed that they produced levels 100–200 times less than the initial report. Notwithstanding the disputed analysis, the U.S. Federal Food Drug and Cosmetic Act was amended to rescind permission to use DEPC in wines (Fed. Regist., 1972).

The Liquor Control Board of Ontario (Canada) laboratories used a capillary GLC equipped with a Hall N detector to analyze a wide variety of wines and found concentrations as high as 2500 μg urethane/l of wines, fruit wines, sake and distillates from a number of countries. The occurrence of high levels of urethane has been tentatively associated with the use of urea as a yeast nutrient for low N musts:



The Health Protection Branch of the Canadian Federal Government has set 30 μg urethane/l as the permissible limit. At present, the limit is under study as there is no

universally accepted reliable analytic procedure for measuring urethane concentrations at the $\mu\text{g/l}$ level.

Conclusions

It has been adequately demonstrated that (1) red wine has a constituent that is mutagenic in the *Salmonella*/microsome mutagen assay, (2) wine contains quercetin proportional to its mutagenic potential, and (3) quercetin is mutagenic. The etiology of cancer and red wine consumption is vastly different from that of smoking and lung cancer. One can accurately time plot the onset of smoking in the population, the 20 year latency period for cancer incubation and the onset of lung cancers 20 years later with a parallel incidence to that for smoking. Humans had not evolved the catabolic capacity in the respiratory tract to cope with smoke constituents. The average western diet includes about one gram of flavonoids per day (BROWN 1980) 50 mg of which can be classed as mutagen or promutagen. Quercetin has been found in grapefruit and orange juice (MAZAKI *et al.* 1982) tea (NAGAO *et al.* 1979), grape juice (STOLTZ *et al.* 1982) and various other foodstuffs and in each case it was found to be mutagenic in the *Salmonella*/microsome mutagen assay. How can one resolve the presence of a mutagen in significant quantities, widely distributed in human diets and the lack of etiological correlations with specific cancers?

Oral doses of quercetin are not absorbed into the bloodstream (GUGLER *et al.* 1975) and there is no evidence that alcohol potentiates uptake. The ability of the gut microflora to degrade flavones is quite considerable. Only half of a large (70 mg/kg body wt) orally administered dose of quercetin is recovered from the feces, and hesperetin, a related flavone, is completely degraded by the gut microflora (HONOHAN *et al.* 1976). One would expect therefore that the effects of quercetin would be greater in the upper parts of the gastrointestinal tract. Flavonoids are not found in spirits and were not the causative agents for oesophageal cancers described by TUYNS *et al.* 1980).

Mice (SUGIMURA 1980; SAITO *et al.* 1980) fed high quercetin diets over a long period of time had tumor and cancer frequencies not different from the control populations. Similar results were reported with rats (HIRONO *et al.* 1981) although there is one reported positive correlation (PAMACKU *et al.* 1980). These data would suggest that though quercetin is mutagenic in the *Salmonella*/microsome and other short term mutagen assays it is probably not a carcinogen in mammals, though certain caution must be exercised with experiments involving large doses given to a few inbred laboratory animals fed a restricted diet over many generations (STREISINGER 1983).

It would seem therefore that mammals have some physiological barrier or tolerance in the upper gastrointestinal tract preventing quercetin access to the DNA. As yet, the nature and conditions optimizing the activity of this barrier have not been elucidated.

Ethyl carbamate or urethane in animal tests is a proven carcinogen and tumorigen when administered at concentrations measured in grams or mg urethane per kilogram body weight. In order to assess risks from exposure to naturally occurring concentrations of urethane at the ng urethane per kilogram body weight, one must calculate the effect through regression analysis and extrapolation of dose/response curves derived from higher dose concentrations of urethane. When such calculations are made, it can be shown that the effect of naturally occurring urethane in wines is considerably less than the standard error (variation) in the spontaneous incidence of tumors and carcinomas.

Summary

Some phenolics, esters, nitro-compounds and mold metabolites that have been shown to be mutagenic or carcinogenic have been detected in musts and wines. The low concentrations of these compounds in musts and wines are similar to those found in other fruit juices and fermented products. The occurrence, physiology, dose-response significance and methods for mutagenicity and carcinogenicity screening of musts and wines are discussed.

Acknowledgements

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