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Chemical defenses of crucifers: elicitation and metabolism of phytoalexins and indole-3-acetonitrile in brown mustard and turnip

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Abstract

The metabolism of the cruciferous phytoalexins brassinin and cyclobrassinin, and the related compounds indole-3-carboxaldehyde, glucobrassicin, and indole-3-acetaldoxime was investigated in various plant tissues of *Brassica juncea* and *B. rapa*. Metabolic studies with brassinin showed that stems of *B. juncea* metabolized radiolabeled brassinin to indole-3-acetic acid, via indole-3-carboxaldehyde, a detoxification pathway similar to that followed by the "blackleg" fungus (*Phoma lingam/Leptosphaeria maculans*). In addition, it was established that tetradeuterated brassinin was incorporated into the phytoalexin brassilexin in *B. juncea* and *B. rapa*. On the other hand, the tetradeuterated indole glucosinolate glucobrassicin was not incorporated into brassinin, although the chemical structures of brassinins and indole glucosinolates suggest an interconnected biogenesis. Importantly, tetradeuterated indole-3-acetaldoxime was an efficient precursor of phytoalexins brassinin, brassilexin, and spirobrassinin. Elicitation experiments in tissues of *Brassica juncea* and *B. rapa* showed that indole-3-acetonitrile was an inducible metabolite produced in leaves and stems of *B. juncea* but not in *B. rapa*. Indole-3-acetonitrile displayed antifungal activity similar to that of brassilexin, was metabolized by the blackleg fungus at slower rates than brassinin, cyclobrassinin, or brassilexin, and appeared to be involved in defense responses of *B. juncea*. © 2002 Published by Elsevier Science Ltd.

Keywords: Brassica juncea; B. rapa; Cruciferae; Brassinin; Cyclobrassinin; Glucobrassicin; Indole-3-acetaldoxime; Indole-3-carboxaldehyde; Indole glucosinolate; Blackleg disease

1. Introduction

Pathogen attack affects plant development and may have a strong negative impact on the quality and production of crops. Plants fight pathogens with an enormous and complex arsenal of defense mechanisms. A significant aspect of these defense mechanisms involves biosynthesis of secondary metabolites, which may be either constitutive such as phytoanticipins (VanEtten et al., 1994) or biosynthesized de novo, i.e. phytoalexins (Smith, 1996; Brooks and Watson, 1985). The important role of phytoalexins and phytoanticipins in plant defense responses is becoming better understood with the development of new transgenic and mutant organisms. Perhaps one of the most convincing arguments in favor of phytoalexins is the genetic engineering of the

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phytoalexin stilbene in tobacco plants which became more resistant to fungal infection than the wild-type plants (Hain et al., 1993). On the other hand, a phytoalexin-deficient mutant of Arabidopsis thaliana showed significantly higher susceptibility to the fungus Alternaria brassicicola than the wild-type parental plants (Thomma et al., 1999). Consequently, a large number of biological and chemical studies are directed to secondary metabolism of plants of economic importance. For example, metabolites from the plant family Cruciferae, which comprises a large number of economically important oilseed crops and vegetables, are being widely investigated (Bennett and Wallsgrove, 1994). Besides their economic importance, crucifers are also interesting plant model-systems, containing the first and only example to date of a completely sequenced plant genome (The Arabidopsis Genome Initiative, 2000).

Chemical characterization of secondary metabolites from crucifers has unraveled a remarkable array of phytoalexins (e.g. 1–4) (Pedras et al., 2000), as well as a

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major group of secondary metabolites known as glucosinolates (e.g. 5), (Fahey et al., 2001) both of which contain sulfur and nitrogen. In fact, the unique structure of the phytoalexin brassinin (1) resembles brassicin (5, R = H), the aglycone portion of indole glucosinolate 5 (i.e. glucobrassicin). This structural connection becomes more transparent considering that methoxy derivatives of brassinin (e.g. 1, R = OMe, $R_{1} = H$ and 1, R = H and $R_1 = OMe$) and glucobrassicin (e.g. 5, R = OMe, $R_1 = H$, $R_2 = \beta$ -D-glucosyl and 5, R = H, R_1 OMe and R_2 β -D-glucosyl) are naturally occurring within the same plant species and that their concentration levels increase simultaneously in plants subjected to stress (Monde et al., 1991b). Furthermore, unambiguous biosynthetic studies have demonstrated that (S)-tryptophan is the precursor of both brassinin (1) and glucobrassicin (5). Most importantly, the C-2 of [2-13C]-tryptophan was incorporated into the thiocarbonyl carbon of brassinin (1), demonstrating that potential intermediates must contain a 2-carbon unit at position C-3 of the indole ring (Monde et al., 1994). In this connection a number of suggestions and attempts to establish a biogenetic relationship between indole glucosinolates such as glucobrassicin (5) and cruciferous phytoalexins have been reported (Hanley et al., 1990). Furthermore, a number of studies have demonstrated that (S)-tryptophan is converted to 5 via indole-3-acetaldoxime (6) (Halkier and Du, 1997). Paradoxically, because glucosinolates

are considered an undesirable group of metabolites in brassicas, a large number of oilseed breeding programs are directed at obtaining plants containing low amounts of glucosinolates. If, however, indole glucosinolates such as glucobrassicin (5) are precursors of cruciferous phytoalexins (brassinin is a precursor of 2–4), from a plant defense perspective lowering glucosinolate contents in cruciferous crops may pose a substantial ecological risk. Nonetheless, despite a number of biosynthetic studies in crucifers, it is not ascertained whether or not this biogenetic relationship exists (Pedras et al., 2000). Thus we became interested in establishing the possible biogenetic relationship between indole glucosinolate 5 and brassinin (Pedras et al., 2001).

Moreover, the resistance of brown mustard (Brassica juncea) to the devastating blackleg disease [fungal pathogen Leptosphaeria maculans (Desm.) Ces. et Not. asexual stage Phoma lingam (Tode ex Fr.) Desm] was reported to correlate with the accumulation of the phytoalexin brassilexin (3) (Rouxel et al., 1991). However, since P. lingam can rapidly metabolize and detoxify brassilexin (3) (Pedras and Okanga, 1999), it is suspected that additional antifungal metabolites are produced in brown mustard. We have now discovered that indole-3-acetonitrile (7) is an inducible metabolite likely involved in defense responses of brown mustard (B. juncea). Furthermore, we have also established the biosynthetic relationships among several secondary metabolites of Brassica species, namely indole-3-acetaldoxime (6) and phytoalexins 1-4, as well as the metabolic degradation of [2-14C]-brassinin in plant tissues. Here we report for the first time the syntheses of tetradeuterated aldoxime (6a), tetradeuterated glucobrassicin (5a), and radiolabeled brassinin (1), as well as results of the metabolic studies with these compounds and propose a new role for indole-3-acetonitrile (7).

2. Results and discussion

2.1. Phytoalexin elicitation in different plant tissues: cell suspension cultures, stems, leaves and roots

Previous experiments with leaves of *Brassica carinata* elicited with *P. lingam* demonstrated that both [4,5,6,7-D₄]-brassinin (1a) and [4,5,6,7-D₄]-cyclobrassinin (2a) were incorporated into brassilexin (3a) (Pedras et al., 1998). These results, however, indicated that experiments involving leaf uptake of solutions containing these phytoalexins were difficult to carry out due to the toxicity of the substrates to leaf petioles. Subsequently, we searched for a tissue to conduct biosynthetic studies in brassica oilseeds. Brown mustard (*B. juncea*) was chosen due to its resistance to blackleg disease and production of phytoalexins 1–4 and indole glucosinolate 5. Cell suspension cultures of *B. juncea* can be produced

Table 1 Elicitation of phytoalexins in various plant tissues of *Brassica juncea* and *B. rapa*

Tissue (species)	e (species) Elicitor Tot		
Cell suspension cultures (B. juncea)	Fungal spores	Not detected	
	Yeast extract	Not detected	
	Jasmonic acid	Not detected	
Stems (B. juncea)	Fungal spores	$8-10\times10^{-1}$ µmol of 2 and 3 after 3-day incubation	
	CuCl ₂ uptake	9–18 μmol of 1–4 after 5-day incubation	
	Destruxin B	$< 10^{-1} \mu mol of 4$ after 24-h incubation	
Leaves (B. juncea)	Fungal spores	$5-10\times10^{-1}$ µmol of 2–4 after 2-day incubation	
	CuCl ₂ uptake	$1-3\times10^{-1}$ µmol of 4 after 4-day incubation	
Leaves (B. rapa)	CuCl ₂ spray	1–2 μmol of 4 after 3-day incubation	
Roots (B. rapa)	UV radiation	$1-5\times10^{-1}$ µmol of 2–4 after 3-day incubation	

^a Phytoalexins were extracted as described in Experimental and quantities were calculated from calibration curves ($R^2 > 0.999$).

in large quantities and compounds can be added to the cultures under sterile conditions (Pedras and Biesenthal, 2000), and thus constitute useful systems to study the phytoalexin pathway. In addition, because leaves represent a very complex matrix, cell suspension cultures are simpler systems to analyze and isolate metabolites. Despite these advantages, to date there are no published examples of phytoalexin production in cell suspension cultures of *Brassica* species. Thus, cell suspension cultures prepared from mesophyll tissue (apical meristem) of *B. juncea* were elicited with a range of common elicitors (Table 1). The cell suspension culture density, temperature and lighting were also varied (Zook, 1998), however, no phytoalexins were ever detected in our cell cultures (HPLC analysis with photodiode array detection).

Due to our inability to elicit phytoalexins in cell cultures, several elicitation experiments were conducted with stems, leaves and roots of *B. juncea* and *B. rapa* (turnip), as shown in Table 1. Stems were first investigated since phytoalexins were readily detected in their MeOH extracts, which were less complex than those of leaves. Stems of B. juncea were elicited (Table 1) as described in Experimental. Stem tissue was extracted after different incubation periods and the resulting extracts were analyzed by HPLC. In stems elicited with P. lingam, cyclobrassinin (2) was detected after 15 h of incubation whereas cyclobrassinin sulfoxide (2b) and brassilexin (3) were detected after 24 h. All three phytoalexins were detected in the stem extracts up to 3 days (duration of experiment). By contrast, phytoalexins were not detected in CuCl₂ elicited stems until after 3 days of incubation. In addition to cyclobrassinin (2), cyclobrassinin sulfoxide (2b), and brassilexin (3), the phytoalexins brassinin (1) and spirobrassinin (4) were also detected in CuCl₂ treated stems. In stems elicited with destruxin B only cyclobrassinin (2) was detected, but phytoalexins were not detected in stems treated with either salicylic acid, jasmonic acid or distilled H₂O (controls). Although slower, phytoalexin accumulation was relatively higher in stems elicited with

CuCl₂ (Table 1). In stems elicited with *P. lingam* the highest quantity of brassilexin (3) was detected after 48 h of incubation $(4-5\times10^{-1} \mu mol/100 g$ fresh stem tissue), whereas elicitation with CuCl₂ (6–11 $\mu mol/100 g$ fresh stem tissue) led to maximum phytoalexin production after 5 days.

Detached leaves from 3-week-old *B. juncea* were elicited by uptake of aq. $CuCl_2$ or with spore suspensions, as described in Experimental, and the extracts analyzed by HPLC (Table 1). Maximum phytoalexin production was observed 48 h after spore elicitation; brassilexin (3) was detected after 24 h of incubation and increased up to 48 h $(1-5\times10^{-1} \mu mol/100 \text{ g}$ fresh leaf tissue), whereas spirobrassinin (4) amounts appeared to be constant after 24 h of incubation $(1-5 \mu mol/100 \text{ g}$ fresh leaf tissue). Leaves elicited with a $CuCl_2$ solution $(1\times10^{-3} \text{ M})$ were completely wilted after 12 h of incubation but lower concentrations induced production of spirobrassinin (4), the only phytoalexin detected $(0.5-3\times10^{-1} \mu mol/100 \text{ g}$ fresh leaf tissue).

Root slices of *B. rapa* prepared as described in the Experimental were incubated, extracted and the resulting extracts were analyzed by HPLC (Table 1). Phytoalexins appeared to be present in larger amounts after

Scheme 1. Synthesis of [2-¹⁴C]-brassinin (1): (i) POCl₃, DMF; (ii) NH₂OH·HCl, NaOAc; (iii) NaCNBH₃/TiCl₃; (iv) pyridine/NEt₃, CS₂; MeI.

days of incubation: brassilexin (3, 0.5–1×10⁻¹ μmol)

root tissue), fresh root

spirobrassinin (4,

 $0.4-2\times10^{-1}$

2.2.

occasionally detected

acetonitrile $0.5-2\times10^{-1}$

(7) and indole-3-carboxaldehyde

μmol/100 g fresh

root tissue);

indole-3-(**9**) were

tissue)

and cyclobrassinin (2,

cyclobrassinin (2) and indole-3-carboxaldehyde

9

Administration of isotopically labeled brassinin (I),

Table 2 Metabolism of brassinin (1/1a), cyclobrassinin (2a), indole-3-carboxaldehyde (9), glucobrassicin (5a), and indole-3-acetaldoxime (6a), in Brassica juncea and B. rapa

Precursor	Tissue, incubation time (Brassica species/elicitor)	Labeled metabolites (total amount of ¹⁴ C or D ₄ incorporation ^a)
[2- ¹⁴ C]-Brassinin (1)	Stems, 4 days (<i>B. juncea</i> /fungal spores or	9 (1% of total ¹⁴ C-brassinin fed); 11 (1% of total ¹⁴ C-brassinin fed); 12 (1% of total ¹⁴ C-brassinin fed)
[4.5.(.7.D.] Donosinia (1-)	CuCl ₂ uptake)	
$[4,5,6,7-D_4]$ -Brassinin (1a)	Leaves, 2 days, (B. juncea/fungal spores)	3 (2.5% of D_4 incorporation); 4 (3.5% of D_4 incorporation)
[4,5,6,7-D ₄]-Brassinin (1a)	Roots, 3 days (B. rapa/UV radiation)	3 (9% of D ₄ incorporation); 4 (15% of D ₄ incorporation)
[4,5,6,7-D ₄]-Cyclobrassinin (2a)	Leaves, 2 days (B. juncea/fungal spores)	$3 (0.5\% \text{ of } D_4 \text{ incorporation})$
[2- ¹⁴ C]-Indole-3-carboxaldehyde (9)	Stems, 4 days (B. juncea/CuCl ₂ uptake)	11 (1% of total ¹⁴ C- carboxaldehyde fed)
[4,5,6,7-D ₄]-Glucobrassicin (5a)	Leaves, 2 days (B. juncea/fungal spores)	no incorporation into phytoalexins 2, 3, 4 ^b
$[4,5,6,7-D_4]$ -Glucobrassicin (5a)	Leaves, 3 days (B. juncea/UV radiation)	no incorporation into phytoalexins 2 and 4 ^b
[4,5,6,7-D ₄]-Glucobrassicin (5a) Roots, 4 days (<i>B. rapa</i> /UV radiation)		no incorporation into phytoalexins 1, 3 and 4 ^b ; 9 (34% of D ₄ incorporation); 12
		(26% of D ₄ incorporation)
$[4,5,6,7-D_4]$ -Indole-3-acetaldoxime (6a)	Leaves, 4 days (B. rapa/CuCl ₂ spray)	4 (2.5% of D ₄ incorporation); 7 (32% of D ₄ incorporation); 9 (16% of D ₄ incorporation)
$[4,5,6,7-D_4]$ -Indole-3-acetaldoxime (6a)	Roots, 3 days (B. rapa/UV radiation)	2 (10% of D ₄ incorporation); 3 (2% of D ₄ incorporation); 4 (14% of D ₄ incorporation);
£ / / /	, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,	13, 14, 15 (98% of D_4 incorporation)

^a The % of ¹⁴C incorporation was established by HPLC (calibration curve $R^2 > 0.999$) according to the following equation: area of peak converted to dpm/total amount of label×100; the% of D₄ incorporation was established by HRMS-EI according to the following equation: % of $D_A = [M+4]^+/([M]^+ + [M+4]^+) \times 100$ (HRMS data indicated that $[M+4]^+$ is not present in natural abundance samples).

according to previously reported route but utilizing [4,5,6,7-D₄]-indole-3-carboxaldehyde as starting material

(Pedras et al.,

scintillation counter).

[4,5,6,

,7-D₄]-Brassinin

and

(2a)

were

synthesized (1a)

 $[4,5,6,7-D_4]$ -cyclobrassinin

(photodiode array and radio detection) and LSC (liquid reaction mixture which was then analyzed by HPLC tographic separation was only performed on the fina brassinin (1) was performed on a mg scale and chroma-

and described in Experimental. The synthesis of $[2^{-14}C]$ cially available [2-14C]-indole as outlined in Scheme

[2-14C]-Brassinin (1) was synthesized from commer-

and further analyzed by HPLC (photodiode array active metabolite with t_R spectra (compared with an authentic sample) the radioradio detection). Based on the retention times and UVextracts were separated by multiple chromatography and at 7.1 and 12.8 min (HPLC analysis, radio detector). analysis indicated that [2-14C]-brassinin (1) was metaarray and radio detection). after incubation and analyzed by HPLC described in the Experimental. stems or to stems prior to elicitation with P. lingam, as compounds and tissues is shown in Table 2. To examine with P. bolized $[2^{-14}C]$ -brassinin (1) was administered to $CuCl_2$ elicited the metabolism of brassinin (1) in stems of B. A summary of the metabolism studies with different lingam or CuCl₂) with retention times below 5 to several more to identify the radioactive polar compounds (elicitation 7.1 min (6.7 The results from HPLC Stems were extracted metabolites, the min photodiode (photodiode juncea.

Metabolism of $[2-^{14}C]$ -brassinin (1) in stems of Brassica

^b Only these phytoalexins were isolated in sufficient amounts for HRMS-EI analysis.

array detection) was identified as $[2^{-14}C]$ -indole-3-carboxaldehyde (9) and the radioactive metabolite at t_R 12.8 min (12.3 min photodiode array detection) was identified as methyl $[2^{-14}C]$ -indole-3-carboxylate (12) (a number of radioactive metabolites with retention times below 5 min were not identified). Further experiments involving administration of $[2^{-14}C]$ -indole-3-carboxaldehyde (9) to stems of *B. juncea* elicited with CuCl₂ indicated that $[2^{-14}C]$ -indole-3-carboxaldehyde (9) was metabolized to $[2^{-14}C]$ -indole-3-carboxylic acid (11) and other polar metabolites with retention times below 5 min. $[2^{-14}C]$ -Indole-3-carboxylic acid (11; $t_R = 6.1$ min, 5.6 min photodiode array detection) was identified by methylation with diazomethane and comparison of t_R and UV-spectra with those of authentic samples (Scheme 2).

Incorporation of radioactivity was estimated by HPLC (radio chromatograms) using a calibration curve (constructed from stock solutions prepared in serial dilution from an authentic sample of [2-14C]-brassinin). After 60 h of incubation with P. lingam the radioactivity of each metabolite was ca. 1% of the total amount of brassinin fed (ca. 10⁷ dpm), with 10% of brassinin remaining intact; however, after 3 days of incubation [2-¹⁴C]-brassinin (1) was not detected. In whole stems elicited with CuCl2, after 4 days of incubation 10% of [2-14C]-brassinin (1) remained and the radioactivity of each metabolic metabolite was ca. 1% of the total amount of brassinin fed (10⁷ dpm). Brassilexin (3) was isolated, purified, and analyzed by HPLC (photodiode array and radio detection) and LSC, however, no incorporation of [2-14C]-brassinin (1) into brassilexin (3) was detected. The lack of incorporation suggests that brassinin was not transported through the plant tissue to the cell site where brassilexin (3) is produced and/or that [2-14C]-brassinin (1) was metabolized to other metabolites before reaching the cell site. Overall, the results of these administration experiments (Scheme 2) indicated that [2-14C]-brassinin (1) was metabolized to [2-14C]-indole-3-carboxaldehyde (9), which was further metabolized to [2-14C]-indole-3-carboxylic acid (11), and other polar metabolites ([2-14C]-indole-3-carboxylate (12) is likely due to esterification of acid 11 during MeOH extraction). Interestingly, albeit an apparently minor transformation pathway, the metabolism of $[2^{-14}C]$ -brassinin (1) in B. juncea is similar to the major brassinin detoxification pathway present in *P. lingam*.

[4,5,6,7-D₄]-Brassinin (1a) and [4,5,6,7-D₄]-cyclobrassinin (2a), synthesized as described in the Experimental, were separately administered to leaves of brown mustard; after solution uptake the leaves were elicited with a spore suspension of the fungus *P. lingam*, were incubated, and extracted as described in experimental. The extracts were fractionated and the percentage of incorporation of [4,5,6,7-D₄]-brassinin (1a) into brassilexin (3) and spirobrassinin (4) was determined (Table 2). As in previous work (Pedras et al, 1998), in uptake

experiments cyclobrassinin was more phytotoxic to petiole and leaf tissue of B. juncea than brassinin. We suspect that this tissue damage may affect and account for the low deuterium incorporation from the exogenous precursor pool. Next, [4,5,6,7-D₄]-brassinin (1a) was incubated with turnip root slices and extracted; HPLC analysis of the extracts, after chromatographic fractionation yielded phytoalexins 3 and 4. HRMS-EI analysis indicated substantial deuterium incorporation into both 3 and 4), thus demonstrating that brassinin (1) is also a precursor of brassilexin (3) in B. rapa (Table 2). These results revealed for the first time that brassilexin (3) was produced in turnip roots (Pedras et al., 2001). The incorporation level of deuterium into brassilexin (3) was substantially higher than in the experiments with leaves of B. juncea or in our earlier work utilizing B. carinata (Pedras et al., 1998). Turnip root tissue appears to be an adequate system for biosynthetic studies since precursors can diffuse into the tissue with no need to uptake the substrate solution via the plant vascular system.

2.3. Feeding isotopically labeled glucobrassicin (5) and indole-3-acetaldoxime (6)

To investigate the possible biogenetic relationship between phytoalexins and indole glucosinolates, [4,5,6,7-D₄]-glucobrassicin (5a) was synthesized according to previously reported route (Viaud and Rollin, 1990; Chevolleau et al., 1993) but utilizing [4,5,6,7-D₄]-indole-3-carboxaldehyde as starting material. [4,5,6,7-D₄]-Glucobrassicin (5a) was administered to detached petiolated leaves of B. juncea; after solution uptake, elicitation (P. lingam), and a 48-h incubation, the H₂O droplets from each leaf were collected, combined, and extracted. Fractionation of the extract yielded cyclobrassinin (2), brassilexin (3), and spirobrassinin (4); measurement of the percentage of deuterium by HRMS-EI indicated no incorporation of deuterium ($\sim 0.1\%$ relative to a natural abundance control sample). Similar results where obtained when leaves were elicited with UV light. This lack of deuterium incorporation was thought to be partly due to the substrate not reaching the appropriate cell site (Table 2).

Subsequently, similar to the experiment described above for $[4,5,6,7-D_4]$ -brassinin (1a), to obtain potentially higher deuterium incorporation, turnip roots were used. Thus, $[4,5,6,7-D_4]$ -glucobrassicin (5a) was administered to UV-irradiated turnip root slices (B. rapa) and tissues incubated for 4 days; similar experiments were conducted with non-irradiated turnip roots. Following incubation, extraction and fractionation yielded phytoalexins 2–4. Once again HRMS-EI analysis indicated that possible deuterium incorporation was too low to allow a reliable conclusion $(\sim 0.1\%)$. However, two additional compounds containing deuterium were separated and identified unambiguously as indole-3-

carboxaldehyde (9) and methyl indole-3-carboxylate (12) (Table 2). These results indicated that metabolism of [4,5,6,7-D₄]-glucobrassicin (5a) to 9a and 12a occurred in turnip roots and that the metabolism was unrelated with phytoalexin biosynthesis (Scheme 3).

Next, we investigated the potential biogenetic relationship between indole-3-acetaldoxime (6) and brassinin (1). Thus, $[4,5,6,7-D_4]$ -indole-3-acetaldoxime (**6a**) was administered to UV-irradiated roots of B. rapa; after incubation of the tissues, extraction, and fractionation of the extracts, phytoalexins 2-4 were obtained. As shown in Table 2, HRMS-EI analysis indicated significant deuterium incorporation into 2-4. Furthermore, three additional compounds, subsequently established to be tryptophol (13/13a) and oxindoles 14/14a and 15/15a, were isolated and analyzed by HRMS-EI. Deuterium incorporation levels suggested that metabolites 13-15 were fully derived from metabolism of acetaldoxime 6a (Scheme 4, incorporation of D₄ 98%). This conclusion was consistent with the absence of compounds 13–15 in elicited control tissues. Additional studies indicated that oxime 14 dehydrated upon standing to yield nitrile 15, suggesting that turnip tissue contained the enzyme system required to oxidize acetaldoxime 6 to oxoindole 14, and that 15 might be an artifact of the isolation process. It is worthy to note that oxoindole 15 was previously isolated from B. oleracea (Monde et al., 1991a), however, its precursor oxindole oxime 14 was not described.

[4,5,6,7-D₄]-Indole-3-acetaldoxime (**6a**) was administered to leaves of *B. rapa* to investigate the potential biogenetic relationship with brassinin (**1**), as described in Experimental; after incubation of the tissues, extraction, and fractionation of the extracts, spirobrassinin (**4**), indole-3-acetonitrile (**7**), and indole-3-carboxaldehyde (**9**) were obtained, whereas compounds **13–15** were not detected. HRMS–EI analysis indicated the deuterium

Scheme 3. Metabolism of [4,5,6,7-D₄]-glucobrassicin (5a) in roots of *Brassica rapa*.

Scheme 4. Metabolism of [4,5,6,7-D₄]-indole-3-acetaldoxime (**6a**) in roots of *Brassica rapa*.

incorporations shown in Table 2. These results confirmed that [4,5,6,7-D₄]-indole-3-acetaldoxime (**6a**) is also a precursor of spirobrassinin in leaves of *B. rapa*, although the incorporation level was substantially lower than that observed in root slices (Table 2). These results indicate that leaf uptake of putative phytoalexin precursors result in lower deuterium incorporation and suggest that biosynthetic studies using petiolated leaves are less advantageous.

A summary of our results and published results from other groups (Pedras et al., 2000; Halkier and Du, 1997 and references therein) is shown in Scheme 5. Since indole-3-acetaldoxime (6) is a precursor of spirobrassinin (4) in both roots and leaves of *B. rapa* and we were unable to demonstrate that glucobrassicin (5) is a precursor of brassinin (1) or related phytoalexins 2–4, it is likely that the pathway to phytoalexins 1/1a–4/4a follows the tryptophan-aldoxime route and will branch out from the indole glucosinolate pathway a step earlier

Scheme 5. Biogenetic relationship and metabolic pathway of tryptophan, phytoalexins **1–4** and related metabolites **5–7** from *Brassica* species; (i) in different crucifers (Halkier and Du, 1997); (ii) *B. rapa* (this work); (iii) *B. rapa* (Monde et al., 1994); (iv) *B. carinata* (Pedras et al., 1998); *B. rapa*, *B. juncea* (this work); (v) *B. rapa* (Monde et al., 1994); *B. carinata* (Pedras et al., 1998); (vi) *B. juncea* (this work); (vii) and (viii) in different crucifers (Halkier and Du, 1997).

than previously proposed (Scheme 5). Because the sulfur atoms in both 5 and 1 (only one of the sulfurs) are derived from cysteine (Monde et al., 1994; Halkier and Du, 1997 and references therein), thiohydroxymate 6 (R=SH) is a potential intermediate and branch point that could lead to 1 and 5 as previously proposed (i.e. derived from 6 R=S-cysteinyl, Halkier and Du, 1997 and references therein).

2.4. Indole-3-acetonitrile as a phytoalexin of B. juncea

2.4.1. Isolation, identification and antifungal activity

During the stem administration experiments with brown mustard (B. juncea), an unknown metabolite with $t_{\rm R}$ 11.7 min was detected by HPLC analysis of extracts from stems of B. juncea (elicited with either P. lingam or CuCl₂). This metabolite was not detected in stems treated with distilled H_2O , hence we were interested in its identification and in establishing its potential role in the plant's defense mechanisms. A scale-up experiment was conducted as described in the experi-

Table 3
Elicitation of indole-3-acetonitrile (7) in stems and leaves of *Brassica juncea*

Tissue	Elicitor	Total amount of indole-3-acetonitrile (7) ^a per 100 g fresh tissue
Stems	Control CuCl ₂ uptake	Not detected $3-62\times10^{-1}$ µmol after 2-day incubation $37-110\times10^{-1}$ µmol after 5-day incubation
	Salicylic acid Jasmonic acid Destruxin B Fungal spores	$\sim 1 \times 10^{-1}$ µmol after 5-day incubation $\sim 1 \times 10^{-1}$ µmol after 5-day incubation $\sim 1 \times 10^{-1}$ µmol after 5-day incubation $\sim 1 \times 10^{-1}$ µmol after 2-day incubation
Leaves	Control CuCl ₂ uptake	Not detected $1-6\times10^{-1}$ µmol after 5-day incubation $3-5\times10^{-1}$ µmol after 7-day incubation

^a Extracted as described in Experimental; quantities were calculated from a calibration curve ($R^2 > 0.999$).

Results of antifungal activity of indole-3-acetonitrile (7)^a

	Inhibition of fungal mycelial growth (%) ^b	
Fungal species (incubation time ^c)	1×10 ⁻⁴ M	5×10 ⁻⁴ M
Virulent Phoma lingam (100 h)	15±7	100±0
Rhizoctonia solani (30 h)	12 ± 4	86 ± 4
Sclerotinia sclerotiorum (24 h)	5 ± 5	38 ± 0
Alternaria brassicae (100 h)	No inhibition	No inhibition

^a Antifungal bioassays were conducted in PDB media as described in Experimental; results are the means of at least three independent experiments conducted in triplicate.

mental; after multiple chromatography and spectroscopic analysis (C₁₀H₈N₂ by HRMS–EI in combination with NMR spectral data) this metabolite was established to be indole-3-acetonitrile (7). The chemical structure was confirmed by comparison of the physical data (HPLC, ¹H and ¹³C NMR, HRMS) with those of an authentic commercial sample. Indole-3-acetonitrile was elicited in both stems and leaves of brown mustard, as shown in Table 3. The highest amounts of indole-3-acetonitrile (7) appeared to be produced in stems upon elicitation with CuCl₂ and a 5-day incubation.

Indole-3-acetonitrile was tested against four of the major fungal pathogens of rapeseed (Pedras, 1998); the results in Table 4 indicate that indole-3-acetonitrile (7) was a strong inhibitor of virulent *P. lingam* and *Rhizoctonia solani*, but affected much less the growth of *Sclerotinia sclerotiorum* and did not appear to inhibit the growth of *Alternaria brassicae*.

2.4.2. Fungal metabolism

Because fungal pathogens of crucifers can detoxify effectively cruciferous phytoalexins (Pedras et al., 2000), time-course studies were carried out to determine if indole-3-acetonitrile (7) was metabolized by P. lingam. Indole-3-acetonitrile (7) $(1 \times 10^{-4} \text{ M})$ was incubated with virulent P. lingam and the percentage of transformation was determined by comparing the initial quantity of indole-3-acetonitrile (7) with that present at each time point, as described in Experimental. HPLC analysis of extracts of each sample indicated that after a 3-day incubation the quantity of indole-3-acetonitrile present was 87% of the initial amount, while after seven days was 45%. Since previous studies showed that both brassinin (1) and brassilexin (3) were completely metabolized by P. lingam in two days (Pedras et al., 2000), the metabolism of indole-3-acetonitrile appeared to be substantially slower than the metabolism of these cruciferous phytoalexins.

2.4.3. Biosynthesis

Indole-3-acetonitrile (7) is known to be an intermediate in the biosynthesis of indole-3-acetic acid via indole-3-acetaldoxime (6) (Normanly and Bartel, 1999) and an enzymatic degradation product of glucobrassicin (5) catalyzed by myrosinase (Halkier and Du, 1997). Therefore, these two pathways are possible sources of indole-3-acetonitrile (7) in elicited B. juncea. In order to determine the most likely source of elicited indole-3acetonitrile (7), precursor studies using elicited leaves of B. juncea were conducted with synthetically prepared $[4,5,6,7-D_4]$ -indole-3-acetaldoxime (6a), $[4,5,6,7-D_4]$ indole (8a) and commercially available (S)-[2',4',5',6',7'-D₅]-tryptophan, as described in the experimental. After a 4-day incubation the leaves were extracted, indole-3acetonitrile (7) was isolated and was analyzed by HRMS–EI. The results indicated effective incorporation

^b % Of inhibition was calculated according to the following formula: % inhibition = 100-[(growth in treated plate/growth in control)×100].

 $^{^{\}rm c}$ Time required for control plates to be covered with mycelium to ca. 3/4 of plate diameter.

of the D-label into indole-3-acetonitrile (7): 24% of D incorporation from acetaldoxime 6a, whereas administration experiments with $[4,5,6,7-D_4]$ -indole (8a) and (S)- $[2',4',5',6',7'-D_5]$ -tryptophan led to incorporation of 7 and 25%, respectively. To avoid enzymatic degradation of glucobrassicin (5) the tissues of B. juncea were frozen in liquid N_2 prior to extraction with MeOH or extractions were immediately carried out in boiling MeOH. HPLC analysis of the extracts from the two groups of leaves showed that in both cases indole-3-acetonitrile (7) was present in the leaf extracts in similar amounts. These results indicate that in elicited B. juncea indole-3-acetonitrile (7) is likely produced directly from tryptophan via indole-3-acetaldoxime (6).

The antifungal activity of indole-3-acetonitrile (7), its production in elicited stems and leaves of B. juncea and its absence in controls suggest that it plays a role in the plant's defense mechanism. Our studies with B. juncea indicate that indole-3-acetonitrile is produced in response to stress, either biotic (fungal spores) or abiotic (CuCl₂) elicitation, is likely synthesized de novo from (S)-tryptophan, and possesses antifungal activity similar to those of other brassica phytoalexins (Pedras et al., 2000). Consequently, indole-3-acetonitrile (7) would be appropriately classified as a phytoalexin of B. juncea. Nonetheless, because indole-3-acetonitrile (7) can also result from degradation of glucobrassicin (5; Halkier and Du, 1997) this metabolite appears to have a dual role as phytoalexin and phytoanticipin of B. juncea. In Brassica species such as B. napus and B. rapa, where indole-3-acetonitrile (7) is partly constitutive, it would be more appropriately described as a phytoanticipin. Considering the stronger antifungal activity of indole-3acetonitrile (7) against P. lingam and its potential role as a plant defense in B. juncea, it would be of interest to analyze its distribution among cultivars of B. napus with different levels of susceptibility to blackleg.

Although indole-3-acetonitrile (7) was shown to have antifungal activity (Seifert and Unger, 1994), it is somewhat surprising to find that such a well-known compound is here shown for the first time to have a role in plant defense, whether a phytoalexin or a phytoanticipin. Additional biological properties and detection of both 7 and 13 in a number of cruciferous species were previously reported (Wall et al., 1988).

3. Conclusions

Recent examples of phytoalexin detoxification by crucifer fungal pathogens suggest that enzymes involved in such processes may result from an intergeneric-genetic exchange between brassicas and their pathogens (Pedras et al., 2000). We have now demonstrated that brown mustard converts the phytoalexin brassinin (1) into nontoxic products via a pathway similar to that

occurring in virulent P. lingam. Therefore, we suggest that this pathogen may have acquired a more effective mechanism for overcoming brassinin by adopting a phytoalexin degradation pathway operating in planta. Our results established an important biogenetic relationship, that is aldoxime 6/6a is a precursor of phytoalexins 1/1a-4/4a, whereas the postulated relationship between indole glucosinolate 5/5a and these phytoalexins was not demonstrated. Nonetheless, our results have strong implications on plant breeding to produce low glucosinolate content oilseed brassicas, i.e. it is essential not to delete the indole acetaldoxime formation steps, as aldoxime 6 is a close precursor of important cruciferous phytoalexins. This knowledge is essential for an effective genetic manipulation of the phytoalexin pathway in cruciferous crops. Otherwise, ecologically unfit plants with higher disease susceptibility may be produced. Further work is necessary to find additional intermediates between aldoxime 6 and brassinin (1) as well as the branch point between the tryptophan pathway to indole glucosinolates and to phytoalexins. Furthermore, the results described here suggest that de novo production of indole-3-acetonitrile is a desirable biochemical trait that could lead to higher blackleg tolerance/ resistance in crops where such a trait is essential (e.g. B. rapa and B. napus).

4. Experimental

4.1. General

All chemicals were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich Canada Ltd., Oakville, ON unless otherwise stated. All solvents were analytical grade with the exception that HPLC grade solvents were used for HPLC analysis. [2-14C]-Indole (sp. activity 50 mCi/mmol, 1.1×10¹¹ dpm/mmol) was purchased from Moravek Biochemicals, Inc., Brea, CA. Phytoalexins were identified by comparison of retention times and UV-spectra (photodiode array detector) with authentic samples.

Analytical techniques were carried out as previously described (Pedras and Okanga, 1999); in addition HPLC system was equipped with a photodiode array detector (wavelength range 190–600 nm) and a Canberra Packard radiomatic flow scintillation analyzer. The radiodetector was equipped with a high performance flow cell (200 μl volume) and a Solar Scint[®] solid cartridge. HPLC: mobile phase A-linear gradient of H₂O–MeCN (75:25) to H₂O–MeCN (25:75), for 35 min, with a flow rate of 1 ml/min (Pedras and Khan, 1996); mobile phase B-linear gradient of H₂O–MeOH (both containing an ion-pairing reagent consisting of 0.15% triethylamine and 0.18% formic acid, 100:0 to 0:100) for 60 min with a flow rate of 1 ml/min (Zrybko et al., 1997). A Beckman LS 6500 multiple liquid scintillation

counter connected to a Wyse WY-370 data system was employed to analyze radioactive samples. Calibration curves were prepared from synthetic or commercially available products to quantify phytoalexins and related metabolites detected in the elicited tissue extracts.

4.2. Plant growth, and fungal cultures

Brassica rapa (turnip purple top, variety White Globe) and B. juncea cv. Cutlass (brown mustard) plants were grown in a growth chamber with a 16-h photoperiod (20 °C/18 °C) at 80% relative humidity. Seeds of B. juncea were obtained from Agriculture and Agri-Food Canada (Research Center, Saskatoon, SK). Cell suspension cultures of mesophyll tissue from B. juncea were obtained from Transgenic Plant Centre, PBI-NRC, Saskatoon SK. B. rapa seeds were purchased from Ferry Morse Seed Co., Fulton, KY USA 42041. Roots of B. rapa (turnip purple top) were purchased from a local store.

Phoma lingam virulent isolate BJ-125 and Alternaria brassicae isolate AB #11 were obtained from G. Séguin-Swartz, Agriculture and Agri-Food Canada Research Station, Saskatoon SK. Rhizoctonia solani isolate AG-2.1 was obtained from P. Verma, Agriculture and Agri-Food Canada Research Station, Saskatoon SK. Sclerotinia sclerotiorum isolate #33 was obtained from R. Morrall, Department of Biology, University of Saskatchewan, Saskatoon SK. Fungal culturing for the collection of mycelium or spores of *P. lingam* virulent isolate BJ-125 was performed following the procedure reported by Pedras and Khan (1996). Mycelium used in the antifungal bioassays was collected after 8 days growth. R. solani, S. sclerotiorum and A. brassicae were cultured on potato dextrose agar (PDA) media from older mycelia plugs.

4.3. Phytoalexin elicitation in different plant tissues: cell suspension cultures, stems, leaves and roots

4.3.1. Cell suspension cultures

Cell suspension cultures prepared from mesophyll tissue from *B. juncea* were maintained in MS basal salt mixture with 3% sucrose, 2 mg/ml 2,4-dichlorophenoxyacetic acid supplemented with Gamborg's B5 vitamins (Pedras and Biesenthal, 2000). Fresh maintenance media was added to cell suspension cultures 24 h prior to elicitation. The cell suspension cultures were then elicited and incubated. Parameters varied: cell suspension culture density (20, 40, 80, 120, 200 mg/ml), temperature (20, 22 and 25 °C) and lighting (constant light, constant dark or 16 h photoperiod). Elicitors tested: *P. lingam* virulent isolate BJ-125 (1×10^7 spores/ml) and avirulent isolate Unity (5×10^6 spores/ml) of *P. lingam*, yeast extract (1 mg/ml final concentration), jasmonic acid (1×10^{-3} M final concentration) and salicylic acid (1×10^{-3} M final

concentration). After 24 and 48 h, a 10-ml sample volume was collected, the cells were filtered from the broth and then extracted with MeOH, the media was extracted with EtOAc. The MeOH and EtOAc extracts were concentrated to dryness and the resulting residues were analyzed by HPLC.

4.3.2. Stems

Stem elicitation with fungal spores: stems (10-15 cm length) from three-week-old B. juncea, stripped of all leaves and upper bud, were cut into 2-cm pieces, each piece was cut in half longitudinally and then placed in a Petri plate with the cut surface up and inoculated with a spore suspension (50 μ l, 5×10^7 spores/ml). Control stems were treated with distilled H₂O. The stem pieces were incubated in the dark under constant temperature $(25\pm0.5 \,^{\circ}\text{C})$. After various incubation periods, the stem tissue (17 g) was frozen in liquid N₂ and homogenized using a Polytron® homogenizer. The homogenized tissue was extracted with MeOH, and the MeOH was decanted and evaporated to dryness. The resulting residue was dissolved in H₂O and extracted with EtOAc. The EtOAc extract was dried over Na₂SO₄, concentrated to dryness under reduced pressure and analyzed by HPLC.

Stem elicitation with CuCl₂: stems (10–15 cm in length) from three-week-old *B. juncea* were stripped of all leaves except for the uppermost leaf and bud and standing upright were partially immersed (2 cm) in a CuCl₂ solution (2×10^{-3} M). Stems were incubated with a 16-h photoperiod (20 ± 0.5 °C), and extracted at 24 h intervals for a total of 5 days. Stems were worked up and analyzed as described above.

Stem elicitation with destruxin B, jasmonic acid and salicylic acid: stems (10–15 cm length) from three-week-old *B. juncea* were prepared as described above. The base of each stem was placed in an aq. solution (1 ml) containing one of the following: destruxin B (final concentration 3×10^{-5} M) with MeCN (0.2%, v/v), jasmonic acid (final concentration 5×10^{-4} M) or salicylic acid (final concentration 1×10^{-3} M). After complete uptake of the elicitor solution, distilled H₂O was added and the stems incubated with a 16-h photoperiod (20±0.5 °C). Stems elicited with destruxin B were extracted at 24 h intervals for a total of 5 days. Stems elicited with jasmonic acid or salicylic acid were extracted at 24 h intervals for three days. Stems were worked up as described above and the extracts were analyzed by HPLC.

4.3.3. Leaves

Leaf elicitation with fungal spores: petiolated leaves from 3-week-old plants were cut and immediately placed in Falcon[®] tubes containing distilled H₂O or the control solution (10% MeOH and 0.1% Tween 80 in H₂O). After the H₂O was taken up through the petiole, the leaves were placed upper side down in a plastic washtub containing premoistened paper towels. The

petiole of each leaf was wrapped with premoistened cotton wool. A droplet suspension of spores of *P. lin-gam* (10 µl of 108 spores/ml) was applied to slightly bruised areas on the underside of each leaf (20–100 droplets per leaf). After allowing the H₂O droplets to evaporate, deionized H₂O was placed at the inoculation sites to replace the original spore inoculation droplets, the container was sealed, and the leaves were incubated at room temperature for 24 and 48 h. After incubation, the H₂O droplets were collected from each leaf, combined, and extracted with CH₂Cl₂. The leaf and petiole tissues were frozen in liquid N₂ and extracted with MeOH. The HPLC analysis of the CH₂Cl₂ extracts indicated the presence of phytoalexins and allowed quantification by comparison with a standard calibration curve.

Leaf elicitation with uptake of CuCl₂: leaves from 3-week-old *B. juncea* were elicited by uptake of an aq. CuCl₂ solution. The plants were at the 6–7-leaf stage and only the middle leaves were selected for elicitation. Leaves were cut from stems and immediately placed in one of the following CuCl₂ solutions: 1×10^{-3} M, 1×10^{-4} M, 8×10^{-5} M or 1×10^{-5} M. Control leaves were placed in distilled H₂O. Alternatively leaves were placed in distilled H₂O and sprayed with aq. CuCl₂ $(1 \times 10^{-3}$ M). All of the leaves were incubated with a 16-h photoperiod $(20 \pm 0.5 \,^{\circ}\text{C})$. After various incubation periods, leaves were worked up as described for stems and extracts were analyzed by HPLC.

4.3.4. Roots

Root elicitation with UV irradiation: similar to previous work by Monde et al. (1994), turnip roots (B. rapa) were cut horizontally in 10-15 mm thick discs and cylindrical holes (1.6 cm in diameter) were made on one surface with a cork-borer. After 6–24 h of incubation in moist covered plastic boxes (light or dark, room temperature or 20 °C), the roots were divided into two series: control and UV-irradiated slices. Root slices were irradiated on the surface with holes, with UV light in a laminar flow hood for 15 min. Each hole of irradiated and control discs was filled with distilled H2O or with a solution of 0.2% of dimethylsulfoxide (DMSO) in 0.1% Tween 80 aq. solution. After 2-4 days of incubation the aq. phase was harvested and extracted with EtOAc. The combined organic phases were dried over Na₂SO₄, filtered, concentrated, and analyzed by HPLC. The aq. fraction was concentrated, dissolved in MeOH and analyzed by HPLC.

4.4. Synthesis of isotopically labeled compounds

4.4.1. $[2^{-14}C]$ -Brassinin (1)

[2-¹⁴C]-Brassinin (1) was prepared following conditions modified from Schallenberg and Meyer (1983) and Takasugi et al. (1988). Each reaction was monitored by

TLC and all solutions were analyzed by LSC. [2-14C]-Indole (8) $(1.2 \times 10^8 \text{ dpm}, 9.7 \times 10^{-4} \text{ mmol})$ in hexane-CH₂Cl₂ (3:2) was combined with indole (6.0 mg, 0.051 mmol), was concentrated to dryness and the homogenous mixture was dissolved in DMF (100 µl, 94 mg, 1.3 mmol). To this solution freshly distilled phosphorous oxychloride (30 µl, 49 mg, 0.32 mmol) was slowly added and the reaction was kept at room temperature. After 45 min the reaction mixture was slowly added to hot NaOH (5 M, 1 ml) (heated in a boiling H₂O bath) and kept at that temperature for 5 min. The reaction mixture was extracted with Et₂O (3×4 ml) and the combined Et₂O extracts were concentrated to dryness under reduced pressure. TLC (CH₂Cl₂-MeOH, 95:5, v/ v) was used to monitor the reaction and identify the product as $[2^{-14}C]$ -indole-3-carboxaldehyde (9; $R_{\rm f}=0.45$, quantitative yield, LSC), which was used without further purification to prepare [2-14C]-indole-3-carboxaldehyde oxime.

A solution of hydroxylamine hydrochloride (120 mg, 1.73 mmol) and sodium carbonate (85 mg, 0.80 mmol) in H₂O (1.0 ml) was added to [2-¹⁴C]-indole-3-carboxaldehyde (9) dissolved in EtOH (1.0 ml). The reaction mixture was heated at 55 °C; after 30 min the reaction mixture was cooled to room temperature and extracted with Et₂O (3×4 ml). The combined Et₂O extracts were concentrated to dryness under reduced pressure. TLC (CH₂Cl₂-MeOH, 95:5, v/v) was used to monitor the reaction and identify the product as a mixture of isomers of $[2^{-14}C]$ -indole-3-carboxaldehyde oxime $(R_{f=}0.38,$ 0.51, quantitative yield, LSC). The product was used without purification to prepare [2-14C]-indole-3-methanamine (10), by reduction either using Devarda's alloy or TiCl₃/NaBH₃CN. Thus, [2-¹⁴C]-indole-3-carboxaldehyde oxime was dissolved in a 1:1 solution (v/v) of MeOH and 5 M NaOH. Devarda's alloy (1.0 g; 50% Cu, 45% Al, 5% Zn) was added and the reaction monitored by TLC (CH₂Cl₂-MeOH-NH₄OH, 80:20:1, v/v). After 25 min, the aq. phase was filtered and the alloy rinsed with distilled H₂O. The aq. layers were combined and extracted with Et₂O (4×8 ml). The Et₂O extracts were combined and concentrated to dryness under reduced pressure. Alternatively, [2-14C]-indole-3-carboxaldehyde oxime and ammonium acetate (44 mg, 0.57 mmol) were dissolved in MeOH (0.5 ml). A neutralized aq. 20% TiCl₃ solution (320 μl, 63 mg, 0.41 mmol) and sodium cyanoborohydride (34 mg, 0.54 mmol) were then added. After 10 min the reaction was diluted with distilled H₂O (1 ml) and then extracted with Et₂O (3×10 ml). The Et₂O extracts were combined and concentrated to dryness under reduced pressure. Crude [2-14C]-indole-3-methanamine (10) identified by TLC (CH₂Cl₂-MeOH-NH₄OH 80:20:1, v/v, $R_f = 0.2$) was used to prepare [2-14C]-brassinin (1).

Carbon disulfide (15 μ l, 19 mg, 0.25 mmol) and triethylamine (25 μ l, 18 mg, 0.18 mmol) were added to a

solution of crude [2-¹⁴C]-indole-3-methanamine (**10**) in pyridine (0.5 ml) and the reaction was kept in an ice-H₂O bath. After 1 h methyl iodide (35 μl, 80 mg, 0.56 mmol) was added and the reaction kept at 4 °C. After 20 h H₂SO₄ (2 ml, 1.5 M) was added and the reaction mixture was extracted with Et₂O (10 ml). The Et₂O extract was concentrated to dryness. Purification by prep. TLC (CH₂Cl₂-hexane, 85:15, v/v) yielded [2-¹⁴C]-brassinin (**1**). The purified product was analyzed by HPLC and LSC. The overall yield of brassinin from indole was determined using a calibration curve relating the UV-absorbance to moles of brassinin (15–20%). The specific activity of [2-¹⁴C]-brassinin (**1**) was determined by relating the total moles to the radioactivity (dpm) of the sample.

4.4.2. $[4,5,6,7-D_4]$ -Indole-3-carboxaldehyde (9a)

[4,5,6,7- D_4]-Indole-3-carboxaldehyde (9a) was synthesized from [4,5,6,7- D_4]-indole (8a) as previously reported starting from D_8 -toluene (Pedras et al., 1998). The preparation of [4,5,6,7- D_4]-indole (8) is an adaptation taken from a synthesis of [1- 15 N]-indole reported by Van den Berg et al. (1988).

[4,5,6,7-D₄]-Indole-3-carboxaldehyde (**9a**): HRMS–EI m/z (% relative abundance): measured 149.0780 (80), calculated for [M]⁺ (C₉H₂D₄NO₂) 149.0779.

4.4.3. $[4,5,6,7-D_4]$ -Brassinin (1a) and $[4,5,6,7-D_4]$ -cyclobrassinin (2a)

[4,5,6,7-D₄]-Brassinin (1a) was synthesized from [4,5,6,7-D₄]-indole-3-carboxaldehyde (9a) as previously reported (Pedras et al., 1998) following an adaptation taken from a synthesis of brassinin (1) and cyclobrassinin (2) reported by Monde et al. (1994).

[4,5,6,7-D₄]-Brassinin (1a): HRMS–EI m/z (% relative abundance): measured 240.0693 (42), calculated for [M]⁺ (C₁₁H₈D₄N₂S₂) 240.0693.

[4,5,6,7-D₄]-Cyclobrassinin (**2a**): HRMS–EI m/z (% relative abundance): measured 238.0536 (12), calculated for [M]⁺ (C₁₁H₆D₄N₂S₂) 238.0536.

4.4.4. $[4,5,6,7-D_4]$ -Indole -3-acetaldoxime (**6a**)

[4,5,6,7-D₄]-Indole-3-acetaldoxime (**6a**) was synthesized from [4,5,6,7-D₄]-indole-3-carboxaldehyde (**9a**), as follows. BuLi (0.47 ml, 0.46 mmol) was added dropwise by syringe to a stirred suspension of (methoxymethyl)-triphenylphosphonium chloride (158 mg, 0.46 mmol) in dry THF (1.5 ml) (argon atmosphere, room temperature). After 30 min, a solution of **7** (35 mg, 0.23 mmol) in THF (2 ml) was added at a rate such that the reaction temperature remained below 30 °C (Kozikowski et al., 1980). The reaction mixture was stirred for 2 h at room temperature, then H_2O (2 ml) was added dropwise. The reaction mixture was extracted with Et_2O , and the combined extracts were washed with brine, dried (Na₂SO₄), and concentrated under reduced pressure. After chromato-

graphy (alumina, 80–200 mesh, eluted with CH₂Cl₂) the reaction product [4,5,6,7-D₄]-indole-3-methoxyethylene (67 mg) was hydrolyzed (Me₂CO, 3 ml, 2 M HCl, 1.5 ml, 90 min, room temperature) to give the crude product [4,5,6,7-D₄]-indole-3-acetaldehyde. Next NH₂OH·HCl (37 mg, 0.46 mmol) and NaOAc (44 mg, 0.46 mmol) was added to a solution of crude [4,5,6,7-D₄]-indole-3-acetaldehyde (65 mg, EtOH, 2 ml). After 18 h the reaction mixture was concentrated to dryness, the resulting residue was diluted with H₂O (3 ml), extracted (EtOAc), and the extract fractionated by chromatography (silica gel, EtOAc-hexane, 25:75) to afford [4,5,6,7-D₄]-indole-3-acetaldoxime (16 mg, 38% over three steps).

[4,5,6,7-D₄]-Indole-3-acetaldoxime (**6a**): HRMS-EI m/z (% relative abundance): measured 178.1040 (30), calculated for [M]⁺ ($C_{10}H_6D_4N_2O$) 178.1044.

4.4.5. $[4,5,6,7-D_4]$ -Glucobrassicin (5a)

[4,5,6,7-D₄]-Glucobrassicin (**5a**) was synthesized as previously reported (Viaud and Rollin, 1990; Chevolleau et al., 1993) for the non-labeled compound, but replacing indole-3-carboxaldehyde (**9**) with [4,5,6,7-D₄]-indole-3-carboxaldehyde (**9a**).

[4,5,6,7-D₄]-Glucobrassicin (**5a**): HPLC $t_{\rm R}$ 15.2 min (mobile phase B); [α]_D = -22 (c 0.25, H₂O; lit. [α]_D for **5**–9.5 c 2.0, H₂O, Viaud and Rollin, 1990). ¹³C NMR (125.7 MHz, D₂O): δ 163.6, 136.4, 126.3, 124.3, 122.1 (t, $J_{\rm C-D}$ = 24 Hz), 119.4 (t, $J_{\rm C-D}$ = 24 Hz), 118.3 (t, $J_{\rm C-D}$ = 19 Hz), 111.9 (t, $J_{\rm C-D}$ = 19 Hz), 108.2, 81.5, 80.4, 77.1, 71.9, 68.7, 60.3, 49.1. FAB–MS m/z (% relative abundance): 451 [M–K]⁺(65).

4.5. Precursor administration experiments and isolation of isotopically labeled metabolites

4.5.1. Administration of labeled compounds to stems

Administration of [2-14C]-brassinin to stems of B. juncea elicited with spores of P. lingam: stems (10, 10–15 cm in length) from three-week-old B. juncea were stripped of all leaves except for the uppermost leaf and bud. The base of each stem was placed, first, into an aq. solution (0.5 ml) containing [2- 14 C]-brassinin (1) (4×10 $^{-4}$ M, 1×10 6 dpm, 5×10^9 dpm/mmol) and phenosafranin dye (5% v/v of a 0.1% w/v solution) followed by complete uptake of distilled H₂O (0.5 ml). Stems were then treated as described above for stem elicitation experiment. After 68 h of incubation, the tissue was extracted as reported for the elicitation experiment and the EtOAc extract residue (330 mg) was analyzed by both HPLC and LSC. Fractionation of the EtOAc extract was performed using (C-18 reversed-phase silica gel 1.5×5 cm column, isocratic elution with H₂O-MeCN, (60:40, v/v, followed by MeCN 100%). The fraction containing brassilexin was further purified by prep. TLC (CH₂Cl₂).

Administration of $[2^{-14}C]$ -brassinin and $[2^{-14}C]$ -indole-3-carboxaldehyde to stems of B. juncea elicited

with CuCl₂: stems prepared as described above were placed in an aq. solution of $CuCl_2$ (2×10⁻³ M, continuous uptake for 48 h) and incubated at 20 ± 0.5 °C with a 16 h photoperiod. An aq. solution (1.0 ml) containing either $[2^{-14}C]$ -brassinin (1) $(2\times10^{-4} \text{ M}, 1\times10^6 \text{ dpm}, 5\times10^9 \text{ m})$ dpm/mmol) or [2-14C]-indole-3-carboxaldehyde (9) $(2\times10^{-4} \text{ M}, 1\times10^{6} \text{ dpm}, 5\times10^{9} \text{ dpm/mmol})$ was administered to each stem, followed by distilled H₂O (0.5 ml). After complete uptake, the stems were again elicited with an aq. CuCl₂ solution $(2 \times 10^{-3} \text{ M})$ and were incubated with a 16-h photoperiod (20±0.5 °C). After 2 and 4 days the stems were extracted as described above for stem elicitation experiment. Fractionation of the EtOAc extract (C-18 reversed-phase silica gel 1.5×5 cm column, isocratic elution both H₂O-MeCN, 80:20, v/v, followed by H₂O-MeCN, 60:40, v/v, and then MeCN 100%) yielded with brassilexin and spirobrassinin which were then further purified (prep. TLC,CH₂Cl₂-MeOH 98:2, v/v, developed twice).

4.5.2. Administration of labeled compounds to leaves

Petiolated leaves were placed in Falcon® tubes containing the phytoalexin solution or the control solution (10% MeOH and 0.1% Tween 80 in H₂O). Initial uptake experiments with nonlabeled brassinin (1) and cyclobrassinin (2) indicated that both compounds were phytotoxic to B. juncea (wilting and necrotic tissue). Interestingly, cyclobrassinin was more phytotoxic than brassinin; that is cyclobrassinin at concentrations 3×10^{-4} M damaged the petiole to an extent that no solution uptake occurred, whereas brassinin caused a similar effect at a concentration 5×10^{-4} M. Leaves (ca. 2×500 g) were placed in Falcon® tubes containing either 1 ml of [4,5,6,7-D₄]-brassinin (3×10⁻⁴ M in 10% MeOH and 0.1% Tween 80 in H₂O) or [4,5,6,7-D₄]cyclobrassinin (2×10⁻⁴ M in 10% MeOH and 0.1% Tween 80 in H₂O). Following uptake of the solution, 1 ml of deionized H₂O was added to each tube; after the H₂O was taken up through the petiole, the leaves were treated as described for the leaf elicitation experiment (ca. 150 leaves per compound). The CH₂Cl₂ extracts were fractionated by HPLC to give pure brassilexin (3/ 3a); 300 µg of brassilexin were isolated in the case of the administration with experiments with [4,5,6,7-D₄]cyclobrassinin (2a) and 500 µg with [4,5,6,7-D₄]-brassinin (1a). Administration of [4,5,6,7-D₄]-indole-3-acetaldoxime ($\mathbf{6a}$, 10^{-3} M in 5% MeOH and 0.1% Tween 80 in H₂O) to B. rapa leaves (ca. 60 g from 3-week-old turnip plants) was carried out as described above for [4,5,6,7-D₄]-brassinin but elicitation was carried out differently. After compound uptake, leaves were kept with the petiole immersed in H₂O, the top of each tube covered with aluminum foil, and the leaves sprayed with the solution of CuCl₂ 2×10^{-3} M (this is time = t_0). The leaves were incubated (cycle 16-h light/8-h dark at 20+0.5 °C for 24 h), then sprayed twice with CuCl₂ $(2\times10^{-3} \text{ M})$, at 24 h intervals, and finally incubated for a further 24 h. After the incubation period (total 72 h), the leaves were worked up as described above. The EtOAc (172 mg) extract was fractionated (C_{18} reversed-phase silica gel, MeOH–H₂O, gradient elution 0:100 to 100:0) and analyzed by HPLC (F3, 5 mg, containing compounds 7 and 9 was analyzed without further separation; F4, 7 mg was separated by prep. TLC with CH₂Cl₂–MeOH, 98:2, v/v, developed twice, to yield compound 4).

4.5.3. Administration of labeled compounds to roots

Administration of [2-14C]-brassinin (1) and [2-14C]indole-3-carboxaldehyde (9) to UV-irradiated turnip root: turnip roots (B. rapa) were prepared as described above for the root elicitation experiment. After incubation each hole was filled with an aq. solution (0.5 ml) containing either [2-14C]-brassinin (1) (1.02×10⁷ dpm, 4.67×10^9 dpm/mmol) or [2-14C]-indole-3-carboxaldehyde (9) $(1.26 \times 10^7 \text{ dpm}, 4.53 \times 10^9 \text{ dpm/mmol})$. After further incubation, the ag. broth from each hole was combined and extracted with EtOAc, with the extracts then combined and concentrated to dryness. The residue was dissolved in MeOH for LSC and HPLC analysis. The turnip tissue was frozen in liquid N₂, homogenized using the Polytron® homogenizer and extracted with MeOH for 24 h. The MeOH residue was dissolved in H₂O, further extracted with EtOAc, concentrated to dryness and dissolved in MeOH for HPLC and LSC analysis.

Administration of [4,5,6,7-D₄]-brassinin (1a) to UV-irradiated turnip root: slices were prepared as described above for elicitation experiments. The turnip slices were incubated with 1a (ca. 1×10⁻³ M in 0.2% of DMSO and 0.1% Tween-80 aq. solution) for 3 days at 20 °C. The aq. solution was harvested, extracted with EtOAc, dried over Na₂SO₄, concentrated, and analyzed by HPLC. This extract was separated by multiple prep. TLC (CH₂Cl₂–MeOH, 98:2 v/v) to yield compounds 3 and 4.

Administration of [4,5,6,7-D₄]-indole-3-acetaldoxime (6a) to UV-irradiated turnip root: slices were prepared as described above for elicitation experiments and each hole was filled with a solution of **6a** (ca. 1.2×10^{-3} M in 0.2% of DMSO and 0.1% Tween-80 aq. solution). The turnip slices were incubated for three days in the dark at 20 °C. The ag. solution was harvested, extracted with EtOAc, dried over Na₂SO₄, concentrated, and analyzed by HPLC. The aq. solution was also concentrated and analyzed by HPLC. The EtOAc extract (76 mg) was separated by FCC (gradient of CH₂Cl₂-MeOH, 95:5, 90:10, v/v, and MeOH 100%) to give eight fractions, which were concentrated and analyzed by HPLC. F1 (23 mg) and F2 (17 mg) were further fractionated by multiple prep. TLC (CH₂Cl₂-MeOH, 95:5 v/v) to yield cyclobrassinin (2), brassilexin (3), spirobrassinin (4), tryptophol (13), 2,3-dihydro-3-hydroxy-2-oxo-1H-indole-3-acetaldoxime (14), and 2,3-dihydro-3-hydroxy-2-oxo-1H-indole-3-acetonitrile (15).

To obtain sufficient amounts of compounds 13–15, additional precursor administration experiments with indole-3-acetaldoxime (6, 161 mg and 2.5 kg of turnip roots) were carried out; compounds 13 (0.5 mg), 14 (1 mg), and 15 (1 mg) were then isolated in sufficient amounts for chemical characterization. In the absence of turnip root tissues acetaldoxime 6/6a was stable in solution for the duration of the experiments.

2,3-Dihydro-3-hydroxy-2-oxo-1H-indole-3-acetaldoxime (14): HPLC t_R = 4.8 min (mobile phase A); 1H NMR (500 MHz; CD₂Cl₂): δ 7.37 (m, 3 H), 7.14 (dd, J= 7.5, 2 Hz, 1H), 6.95 (dd, J= 7.5, 2 Hz, 1H), 3.60 (d, J= 18 Hz, 1H), 3.37 (d, J= 18 Hz, 1H). UV $\lambda_{\rm max}$ (in MeCN): 210, 250 and 300 nm. HRMS-EI m/z (% relative abundance): measured 188.0586, calc. for [M]⁺ (C₁₀H₈N₂O₂) 188.0584 (24), 148.0402 (100), 120.0447 (13).

Synthesis of 2,3-dihydro-3-hydroxy-2-oxo-1*H*-indole-3-acetonitrile (15): this compound was prepared as previously reported in one step from isatin and bromoacetonitrile (Hallmann, 1962, Monde et al., 1991a). HPLC $t_{\rm R} = 3.7$ min (mobile phase A). ¹H NMR (300 MHz, Me_2CO-d_6): δ 9.57 (br s, 1H), 7.59 (d, J=7.5 Hz, 1H,), 7.32 (ddd, J=8, 8, 1 Hz, 1H), 7.09 (dd, J=7.5, 7.5 Hz, 1H), 6.97 (d, J=8 Hz, 1H), 5.64 $(br \ s, 1\text{H})$, 3.14 (d, I)J = 16.5 Hz, 1H), 2.94 (d, J = 16.5 Hz, 1H). ¹³C NMR (75.5 MHz, Me₂CO- d_6): δ 176.7, 141.9, 130.6, 129.7, 124.7, 122.7, 116.4, 110.5, 72.8, 26.6. HRMS-EI m/z (% relative abundance): measured 188.0587 (19), calc. for $[M]^+$ (C₁₀H₈N₂O₂) 188.0585, 148.0407 (100), 120.0447 (17). FTIR ν_{max} : 3258, 1720, 1665, 1623, 1469, 1393, 1348, 1221, 1175, 1114, 1094 cm⁻¹. UV (MeOH) λ_{max} $(\log \epsilon)$ 209 (4.42), 250 (3.78) and 290 (3.22).

Isolated 2,3-dihydro-3-hydroxy-2-oxo-1*H*-indole-3-acetonitrile (**15**): $[\alpha]_D$ –0.5 (c 0.21 MeOH; lit. –37 c 0.21 MeOH, Monde et al., 1991a). HRMS–EI m/z (% relative abundance): measured 192.0839 (20), calc. for $[M+4]^+$ 192.0836 ($C_{10}H_4D_4N_2O_2$), 188.0587 (2), calc. for $[M]^+$ ($C_{10}H_8N_2O_2$) 188.0585, 152.0654 (100), 124.0701 (16), 96.0753 (10).

Administration of [4,5,6,7-D₄]-glucobrassicin (**5a**) to UV-irradiated turnip root: slices were prepared as described above for elicitation experiments and each hole was filled with a solution of **5a** (ca. 0.4×10^{-3} M in H₂O). The turnip slices were incubated for 4 days at room temperature, the aq. solution was harvested, extracted with EtOAc, dried over Na₂SO₄, concentrated, and analyzed by HPLC. The aq. extract was concentrated, dissolved in distilled H₂O and analyzed by HPLC. Brassinin (**1**), brassilexin (**3**), spirobrassinin (**4**), indole-3-acetonitrile (**7**), indole-3-carboxaldehyde (**9**) and methyl indole-3-carboxylate (**12**) were isolated from the EtOAc extract (prep. TLC, CH₂Cl₂-MeOH, 98: 2, v/v). In the absence of turnip root tissues indole

glucosinolate 5/5a was stable in solution for the duration of the experiments.

Administration of [4,5,6,7-D₄]-glucobrassicin (5a) to UV-irradiated B. juncea leaves: leaves were cut and placed immediately in Falcon® tubes containing $[4,5,6,7-D_4]$ -glucobrassicin (5a) at 1×10^{-3} M in distilled H₂O. During uptake, the top of each tube was covered with aluminum foil, and the leaves were irradiated for 45 min. After uptake, the petioles were immersed in H₂O and incubated in a growth chamber under fluorescent lighting (cycle 16-h light/8-h dark at 20 ± 0.5 °C) for 24 h. After incubation, the leaves were again irradiated for 30 min and all the leaves were incubated for further 24 h. After this period, the leaves were immediately frozen in liquid N2, crushed and extracted with MeOH; the solvent was filtered, the leaf tissue rinsed with MeOH and the extracts combined. The MeOH extract was concentrated and extracted with hexane. The hexane extract was fractionated (C_{18} reversed-phase silica gel, MeOH-H₂O, gradient 0:100 to 100:0) and the resulting fraction F6 (7 mg) was further separated (prep. TLC, CH₂Cl₂-hexane, 9:1, v/v, developed twice) to yield compounds 2 and 4.

4.6. Indole-3-acetonitrile (7) as a phytoalexin of B. juncea

4.6.1. Isolation

Mustard stems (43; 10–15 cm in length), stripped of all leaves except for the uppermost leaf and bud, were elicited with continuous uptake of an aq. CuCl₂ solution $(2\times10^{-3} \text{ M})$. After a 4-day incubation (16-h photoperiod, 20 ± 0.5 °C), the stems were worked up as described above for elicitation experiments. The extract residue (340 mg) was fractionated (C-18 reversed-phase silica gel 1.5×5 cm column, isocratic elution with H₂O–MeCN 8:2, followed by H₂O–MeCN 6:4, then 100% MeCN), and the fraction (19.6 mg) containing the HPLC peak with t_R = 11.7 min was further fractionated by prep. TLC (CH₂Cl₂–MeOH, 98:2, v/v, developed 3×) to yield 1.2 mg of metabolite (7). Spectroscopic data collected was identical in all respects to those of an authentic sample (Aldrich-Sigma Canada).

Indole-3-acetonitrile (7): HPLC $t_R = 11.7$ min (mobile phase A). HRMS-EI m/z measured 156.0683 (70), calculated for [M]⁺ (C₁₀H₈N₂) 156.0687.

4.6.2. Bioassays of antifungal activity

The antifungal activity of indole-3-acetonitrile (7) was assayed against *P. lingam*, *R. solani*, *S. sclerotiorum* and *A. brassicae*. The bioassays were conducted using either potato dextrose broth (PDB) liquid media or minimal media as described by Pedras (1998). Indole-3-acetonitrile (7) dissolved in DMSO (final concentration 1%) was added to PDB and poured into 6-well Falcon® plates (2 ml per well); final concentration of indole-3-acetonitrile (7) was 5×10^{-4} M and 1.0×10^{-4} M. Con-

trol plates containing PDB and PDB with 1% DMSO were prepared. A plug (7 mm diameter) of mycelia was cut from the edge of an actively growing fungal culture using a cork borer and placed upside down at the centre of each well. The plates were incubated for at least one week under continuous light at 25 ± 2 °C (three independent experiments performed in triplicate were conducted for each fungal species). The diameter of the mycelia growth was measured and the percentage of inhibition was calculated relative to control plates.

4.6.3. Fungal metabolism

P. lingam virulent isolate BJ-125 was cultured on V-8 agar plates (Pedras and Okanga, 1999). Liquid shake cultures (100 ml minimal media containing 5 g glucose) in 250 ml Erlenmeyer flasks (triplicate) were inoculated with 6 plugs of mycelium cut from the edge of actively growing plates. The flasks were incubated for 30 h under continuous light (25±2 °C) while shaking at 130 rpm. A solution of indole-3-acetonitrile (7) (final concentration 1×10^{-4} M) in DMSO (final concentration 1%) was added and the flasks were incubated for different periods. Samples (5 ml) were withdrawn and extracted with Et₂O (3×10 ml). Ether extracts were combined, dried over Na₂SO₄ and concentrated to dryness under reduced pressure. The residues were dissolved in MeOH and analyzed by HPLC. A calibration curve was used to quantify the amount of indole-3-acetonitrile (7) in each sample based on the peak areas in the UV chromatograms.

4.6.4. Biosynthesis

The biosynthetic origin of indole-3-acetonitrile (7) in B. juncea was studied by determining the deuterium incorporation of several possible D₄-precursors. Synthetically prepared [4,5,6,7-D₄]-indole-3-acetaldoxime (6a), $[4,5,6,7-D_4]$ -indole (8a) and commercially available (S)- $[2',4',5',6',7'-D_5]$ -tryptophan were separately fed to CuCl₂ elicited B. juncea leaves. A typical experiment was conducted as follows: leaves (20, ca. 50 g leaf tissue fr. wt) from 3-week-old B. juncea were excised and immediately placed in an aq. CuCl₂ solution (8×10^{-5}) M). Leaves were incubated with a 16-h photoperiod $(20\pm0.5 \, ^{\circ}\text{C})$. Following 24 h of incubation, the leaves were fed one of the following solutions (1–2 ml per leaf) of $[4,5,6,7-D_4]$ -indole $(5.3\times10^{-4} \text{ M})$, $[4,5,6,7-D_4]$ -indole-3-acetaldoxime (6a) $(5.8 \times 10^{-4} \text{ M})$, or (S)-[2,4,5,6,7-D₅]tryptophan $(9.6 \times 10^{-4} \text{ M})$. After uptake of the solutions, petioles were immersed in distilled H2O; after an additional 3–4 days, leaf tissue was worked up as described above. The extract residue was dissolved in H₂O (25 ml) and extracted with EtOAc (3×50 ml). The combined EtOAc extracts were dried over Na₂SO₄ and concentrated to dryness, and analyzed by HPLC. The residue was fractionated (C-18 reversed-phase, isocratic elution with H₂O-MeCN 8:2 followed by H₂O-MeCN 6:4, then 100% MeCN) and the fraction containing indole-3-acetonitrile (7) was further separated by prep. TLC (CH₂Cl₂–MeOH 98:2, v/v, developed $3\times$).

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