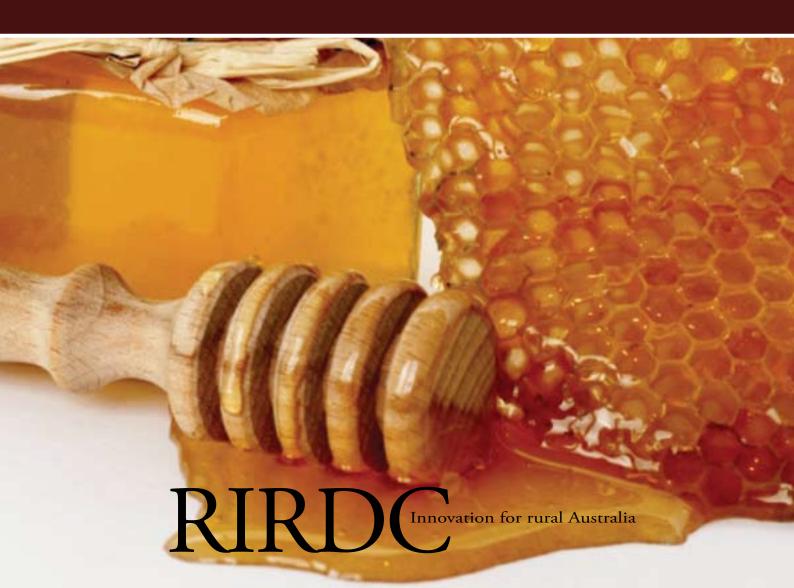


Rural Industries Research and Development Corporation

The Use of Australian Honey in Moist Wound Management

RIRDC Pub. No. 05/159





The Use of Australian Honey in Moist Wound Management

A report for the Rural Industries Research and Development Corporation

by Craig Davis

Report prepared June 2002

October 2005

RIRDC Web Publication No W05/159 RIRDC Project No DAQ-232A © 2005 Rural Industries Research and Development Corporation. All rights reserved.

ISBN 1 74151 222 0 ISSN 1440-6845

The Use of Australian Honey in Moist Wound Management Publication No. W05/159 Project No. DAQ-232A

The information contained in this publication is intended for general use to assist public knowledge and discussion and to help improve the development of sustainable industries. The information should not be relied upon for the purpose of a particular matter. Specialist and/or appropriate legal advice should be obtained before any action or decision is taken on the basis of any material in this document. The Commonwealth of Australia, Rural Industries Research and Development Corporation, the authors or contributors do not assume liability of any kind whatsoever resulting from any person's use or reliance upon the content of this document.

This publication is copyright. However, RIRDC encourages wide dissemination of its research, providing the Corporation is clearly acknowledged. For any other enquiries concerning reproduction, contact the Publications Manager on phone 02 6272 3186.

Researcher Contact Details

Craig Davis 19 Hercules Street Hamilton QLD 4007

Phone: (07) 3406 8555 Fax: (07) 3406 8677

Email: craig.davis@dpi.qld.gov.au

In submitting this report, the researcher has agreed to RIRDC publishing this material in its edited form.

RIRDC Contact Details

Rural Industries Research and Development Corporation Level 2, Pharmacy Guild House 15 National Circuit BARTON ACT 2600 PO Box 4776 KINGSTON ACT 2604

Phone: 02 6272 4819
Fax: 02 6272 5877
Email: rirdc@rirdc.gov.au.
Web: http://www.rirdc.gov.au

Published on the web in October 2005

Foreword

The use of honey as a therapeutic agent dates to ancient times. More recently, there has been growing interest in this 'natural' remedy, which has lead to legitimate scientific investigations. Research in New Zealand has shown that Manuka honey has very special healing properties. This honey has been described to contain "the best natural antibiotic in the World". There is much evidence to suggest that the antibacterial activity of honey is due to more than the sugars present therein. Two major sources have been shown to be responsible for the anti-microbial activity - hydrogen peroxide (from the bee) and uncharacterised chemical substances (from the floral source). Using honeys sourced from around Australia and screened against several reference microorganisms, the anti-microbial potency of one particular Australian honey was shown to be comparable to NZ Manuka honey. Initial chemical comparison also confirmed that the NZ Manuka and the "active" Australian honey are very similar. This is not unexpected since both of these remarkable honeys are derived from *Leptospermum* trees.

This project was undertaken to add value to the existing honey resource by developing products with therapeutic benefit (*i.e.* for the treatment and management of moist wounds such as burns and ulcers). The production of such valuable honeys requires the honey to be collected and processed under prescribed conditions. This involves the identification of the appropriate floral sources, the development of procedures for harvesting and handling, the evaluation of the "active" agent(s), and the registration of honey as a therapeutic agent.

In an Australia-wide context, the honey and pollen industries are estimated to be worth in the order of \$A32 M (which does noes not include the value of incidental pollination of many agricultural crops). This project has significant potential to add value to the Australian Honey Industry. The value of honey sales to the New Zealand Honey Industry has increased significantly with the research and associated promotion of their native Manuka honey. The research undertaken in this project and extension of these results has promoted the use of honey for the treatment of bacterial infections associated with such injuries as burns and ulcers.

This project was funded from industry revenue which is matched by funds provided by the Australian Government.

This report is an addition to RIRDC's diverse range of over 1500 research publications. It forms part of our Honeybee R&D sub-program which aims to improve the productivity and profitability of the Australian beekeeping industry.

Most of our publications are available for viewing, downloading or purchasing online through our website:

- downloads at www.rirdc.gov.au/fullreports/index.html
- purchases at <u>www.rirdc.gov.au/eshop</u>

Peter O'Brien

Managing Director Rural Industries Research and Development Corporation

Acknowledgments

The Rural Industries Research and Development Corporation (RIRDC), through the honeybee sub-program, generously supported this research project.

Beekeepers all must be acknowledged for their interest and support of the project and for the provision of honey samples.

Capilano Honey Limited (particularly to Bill Winner, but also Nick Justo, Anthony Moloney, and more recently Bill Holmes) organised and provided samples for testing.

Sue Poole and Wendy Cox for their contributions, particularly in the area of microbiological testing.

Peter Molan and Kerry Allen of the Waikato Honey Research Unit of Waikato University in New Zealand for their support and direction during the project.

Brenda Mossel (University of Queensland) and Shona Blair (University of Sydney) and their respective University PhD supervisors.

Abbreviations

ATCC American Type Culture Collection

cfu Colony Forming Unit

GMP Good Manufacturing Practice

HPLC High Performance Liquid Chromatography

kGy kiloGray mL millilitre

NCTC National Type Culture Collection

nm nanometres pH acid scale

TGA Therapeutic Good Administration

w/v weight to volume

Contents

| Foreword | iii |
|--|------------|
| Acknowledgments | iv |
| Abbreviations | |
| Executive Summary | v i |
| Introduction | |
| Beekeeper Guidelines | 6 |
| Characterisation of the "active" factor | 7 |
| Screening of honeys for antimicrobial activity | |
| Materials and Methods | |
| Honeys | |
| Artificial honey | |
| The test bacterial strain. | |
| The test bacterial strain. | |
| Other bacterial strains | |
| Agar plate preparation | |
| Assay procedure | |
| Results and Discussion | |
| Agar well diffusion assay | |
| Antibacterial activity of honeys | |
| Non-hydrogen peroxide activity | |
| Relative activities between honeys | |
| Stability of the activity | |
| Microorganism spectrum of the antibacterial activity | |
| Chemical screening of the honey | |
| Conclusion | |
| References | 16 |

Executive Summary

The use of honey as a therapeutic agent dates to ancient times. More recently, there has been growing interest in this 'natural' remedy, which has lead to legitimate scientific investigations. Research has shown that particular honeys have very special healing properties. One group of honeys (*Leptospermum* honeys) have been described as "the best natural antibiotic in the World".

Honeys have been shown to be active against a diverse range of microorganisms and reports of the inhibitory effect of honey on specific microorganisms are numerous. Honey has been shown to be effective against both Gram positive and Gram negative organisms, aerobic and anaerobic bacteria, as well as inhibiting spore germination of *Bacillus cereus*. The sensitivity of different bacterial species and strains to honey is extremely variable. Honey has also recently been shown to have an inhibitory effect against antibiotic resistant strains (*e.g.* golden *Staph*), which are frequently responsible for post-operative wound infection in immunologically compromised patients.

Much research effort has centred on establishing the properties of honey to which its antibacterial activity may be attributed. Such factors as osmolarity, acidity, hydrogen peroxide content and chemical components of honey have all been considered to contribute to the inhibition of bacterial growth. Honey is a highly saturated sugar solution which could suggest that this characteristic of honey would convey an antimicrobial effect. The high concentration of sugars leaves very little available water for the growth of microorganisms. However, the osmolarity of honey does not appear to be a major factor. The acidity of honey has also been suggested to explain the antibacterial activity of honey. Honey contains many organic acids, predominantly gluconic acid produced from glucose by glucose oxidase, and is characteristically acidic with pH 3.2 to 4.5. Although such an acidity level would be inhibitory to the growth of most bacterial species, there appears to be no correlation between antibacterial activity and the acidity of the honey. There is much evidence to suggest that the antibacterial activity of honey is due to more than the sugars present therein. Two major sources have been shown to be responsible for the anti-microbial activity - hydrogen peroxide (from the bee) and uncharacterised chemical substances (from the floral source). Hydrogen peroxide is known to have antimicrobial properties and can be removed efficiently by the addition of catalase to the honey prior to testing for antibacterial activity.

This project has investigated the correlation between antimicrobial activity and the non-peroxide activity of particular *Leptospermum*-derived honeys. Initial investigations tested the efficacy of these honeys against one particular bacteria (*Staphylococcus aureus*), while later studies assessed the effect of this honey on a range of food pathogens, animal pathogens (*e.g.* in mastitis) and human pathogens (*e.g.* golden *Staph*). Using honeys sourced from around Australia and screened against several reference microorganisms, the anti-microbial potency of one particular Australian honey (from *Leptospermum polygalifolium*) was shown to be comparable to NZ Manuka honey (from *L.scoparium*). The results of this screening of active honeys against pathogenic bacteria has supported the registration of honey by Capilano Honey Limited as a "Drug" with the Therapeutic Good Administration based on its antimicrobial activity.

This project was undertaken to add value to the existing honey resource by developing products with therapeutic benefit (*i.e.* for the treatment and management of moist wounds such as leg ulcers). Specific geographic region(s) in Australia which produce "active" honey have been identified, the potency of the *Leptospermum*-derived honeys against a range of bacteria has been defined, the particular chemical characteristics of these honeys have been examined, and the honey has been registered as a "Drug" with the Therapeutic Good Administration. Work is continuing to better define the specific agents responsible for the antimicrobial activity (which have been elusive to date) and to evaluate the opportunity for therapeutic benefit from honey beyond its antimicrobial activity (*i.e.* its direct wound healing benefit).

Introduction

Honey has a long and interesting history. In addition to food use, honey has been used in medicine as a dressing for wounds and inflammations, both internal and external. Recently, the medicinal use of honey has been rediscovered by the medical profession and is gaining acceptance as an antibacterial agent for treating ulcers, wounds and other surface infections. Honey is effective in rapidly clearing infection and promoting healing. The literature reports that honey has been successfully used on infections not responding to standard antiseptic and antibiotic therapy. Thus, as the number of antibiotic-resistant microbes continues to increase, the full potential of honey as a therapeutic agent will be realised.

Since Biblical times and before, honey has been known to have beneficial health effects. Honey has been used in medicine throughout recorded history and is still widely used in 'folk medicine' (Majno, 1975). The ancient Egyptians, Assyrians, Chinese, Greeks and Romans employed honey in the treatment of wounds and intestinal disorders (Zumla and Lulat, 1989). The 'Smith papyrus', an ancient Egyptian text (dating between 2600 and 2200 BC), prescribes a mixture of mrhy (grease), byt (honey) and ftt (vegetable fibre), as a standard wound salve (as translated from hieroglyphic symbols, Majno, 1975). The Roman scientist Pliny (23-79 AD) recommended honey for abscesses of the mouth and combined honey with the fat of fish to treat wounds (Yoirish, 1977).

An extensive review of the antibacterial properties of honey, as then understood, was published in 1966 (White, 1966) and knowledge has since been comprehensively updated in a more recent review by Molan (1992a,b). Over recent times, there has been a large amount of research into the antibacterial nature of honeys and the effectiveness of honey in assisting the healing process. Experimentally, Bergman *et al.* (1983) provided evidence suggesting that honey accelerates wound healing in mice. There have been many reports of the beneficial effects of honey used as a topical treatment for a wide range of wounds, ulcers and abscesses (Cavanagh *et al.*, 1970; Blomfield, 1973; Armon, 1980; Farouk *et al.*, 1988; Efem, 1992; Ndayisaba *et al.*, 1992; Phuapradit and Saropala, 1992).

Efem (1988) reported that infected wounds and ulcers became sterile within one week of topical application of honey. In a recent report, application of honey has successfully been used to manage Fourier's gangrene, a clinical condition which is traditionally treated by surgical excision of affected tissues. Honey was found to be superior to orthodox treatment methods because it obviates the need for anesthesia and expensive surgical operation (Efem, 1993; Hejases *et al.*, 1996). Honey has also been suggested to assist in the healing of leprous ulcers (Grange, 1990).

Honey has also been shown to be effective in treating a variety of ulcers (Keast-Butler, 1980; Mossel, 1980; Greenwood, 1993; Postmes *et al.*, 1993). Dramatic improvement of gastric ulcers and gastritis after a treatment with honey has been observed (Salem, 1981). Laboratory trials found *Helicobacter pylori* infection (the probable causative agent of gastritis and duodenal ulcers) to be sensitive to a 20% solution of manuka honey (Al Somal *et al.*, 1994).

Pure natural honey, applied every two-three days, promotes healing of decubitus ulcers (Blomfield, 1973) and ulcers in leprosy (Grange, 1990). Similarly, sickle-cell leg ulcers healed when treated with Eusol (a topical anti-microbial) combined with 12% honey (Ankra-Badu, 1992). From the many reports of clinical use, honey appears to successfully control septic wounds that commonly show a poor response to conventional therapy.

Honey has also been successfully used in the treatment of burns (Subrahmanyam, 1991; 1993). The beneficial effect of honey in the treatment wounds and burns is not restricted to its antibacterial action. It can also provide a viscous barrier preventing infection and fluid loss of the wound, can absorb oedema fluid and can act as an anti-inflammatory by relieving pain (Subrahmanyam, 1991). Some of these attributes of honey may help explain the evidence provided by Subrahmanyam (1993) for the successful skin grafts that were stored in honey for up to twelve weeks.

Abundant anecdotal evidence of the value of honey as a simple, convenient and effective topical remedy for infected, non-healing, skin wounds can be found in the literature (Armon, 1980; Bose, 1982; Green, 1988; Somerfield, 1991). During World War II, scarcities of medical supplies led to honey and lard being applied by soldiers to burns and wounds (Majno, 1975). In an animal model, honey applied topically to the open wounds of white mice healed significantly faster than the wounds of control animals (Bergman *et al.*, 1983). Another study found that in 40 patients with wounds of various origins honey provided healing in 88% of cases (Ndayisaba *et al.*, 1992).

When honey was applied to open wounds from radical vulvectomy less bacterial colonisation and faster wound healing were observed (Cavanagh *et al.*, 1970). A similar study found that honey can also be used to cure deeply infected abdominal wounds after Caesarean Section (Phuapradit, 1992). In a study of 59 patients with wounds that had failed to heal in response to conventional treatment, remarkable improvement was observed in 58 cases after topical application of honey. Wounds that were sterile at the outset remained sterile until healed, while infected wounds became sterile within one week of applying honey (Efem, 1988). Similarly, another study found that infected surgical wounds and bedsores became bacteriologically sterile within three days of honey application.

The usefulness of honey in treating wounds is not limited only to its antibacterial action. Honey promotes rapid growth of healthy granulation tissue (Armon, 1980; Efem, 1988; Hamdy *et al.*, 1988). Honey also acts as an anti-inflammatory to relieve pain (Mladenov and Mladenova, 1985) and has a deodorising effect (Efem, 1988).

Honey has also been shown to be effective in other medicinal applications. Honey has proved effective in the treatment of infantile gastroenteritis (Haffejee and Moosa, 1985), shortening the duration of diarrhoea in patients. Independent researchers, Ali *et al.* (1991) and Al Somal *et al.*(1994) demonstrated that honey effectively inhibited *Helicobacter pylori*, the causative organism of acute gastritis and relapse of duodenal ulcer. Honey, because of its antibacterial action, anti-tussive and expectorant properties, is also included in the formulation of cough remedies and gargles treating laryngitis (Mladenov and Mladenova, 1985; Ali, 1989). However, in most of the reports, the type of honey used is not specified. Zumla and Lulat (1989) briefly reviewed the use of honey for therapeutic purposes and from the widespread reports of the clinical use of honey, they concluded that it was time for honey to receive due recognition by the medical world. Additionally, there is a worldwide upsurge of interest in therapies and remedies that are of natural origin rather than chemically synthesised agents. This, combined with the rapidly growing occurrence of multi-antibiotic resistant strains of bacteria, creates a need for alternative remedies.

Honey intended for medicinal use should be sterile and free of residues. Spores of *Clostridium botulinum* types A and B have been isolated from honey and have been implicated in the development of infant botulism (Midura *et al.*, 1979). Although botulism contracted from infected wounds is not common (Merson and Dowell, 1973), there is a definite risk of introducing *Clostridium botulinum* into wounds if untreated honey is used as a dressing (Molan and Allen, 1996).

Honeys have been shown to be active against a diverse range of microorganisms, and reports of the inhibitory effect of honey on specific microorganisms are numerous. Molan (1992a) collated a comprehensive list in his review on the antibacterial activity of honey. Honey has been shown to be effective against Gram positive and Gram negative organisms, aerobic and anaerobic bacteria, as well as inhibiting spore germination of *Bacillus cereus* (El-Sukhon *et al.*, 1994). The sensitivity of different bacterial species and strains to honey is extremely variable.

Much research effort has centred on establishing the properties of honey to which its antibacterial activity may be attributed. Such factors as osmolarity, acidity, hydrogen peroxide content and chemical components of honey have all been considered to contribute to the inhibition of bacterial growth.

In the ancient use of honey as a medicine there was no knowledge of it having antibacterial properties, it was just known to work. Now it is known that festering wounds are the result of infection by microorganisms, and honey is used on the basis that it is an antimicrobial substance.

Honey is a highly saturated sugar solution which could suggest that this characteristic of honey would convey an antimicrobial effect. The high concentration of sugars leaves very little available water for the growth of microorganisms. However, the osmolarity of honey may not be the major factor. Dustmann (1978) has reported bacterial inhibition by very dilute solutions of honey (concentrations as low as 1.5%) and extremely low microbial inhibition has been observed using artificial honey with a sugar concentration similar to wild honey.

Honey is a supersaturated hyperosmotic solution of carbohydrates with a moisture content of 12-14% (Ruegg and Blanc, 1981). When microorganisms enter a hypertonic medium, the osmotic pressure differential is so great that organisms loose water (Burgett, 1990). Sustained dehydration will eventually kill any microorganism. Mean water activity values for honey have been reported as 0.562 (Ruegg and Blanc, 1981) and 0.5-0.6 (Troller and Christian, 1978). The growth of most bacteria and fungi is confined to the water activity range above 0.90 (Troller and Christian, 1978). Even osmotolerant microorganisms (halophilic bacteria and xerophilic fungi) require minimum water activities in the range 0.61-0.75 (Adams and Moss, 1995) for growth. Thus, the water activity of ripened honey is too low to support the growth of any microbial species (Molan, 1992b).

The antibacterial activity of honey involves more than the osmotic removal of water from micro-organisms and most of the antimicrobial tests used in different studies are carried out at honey concentrations where sugars are not osmotically active. In a study where honey samples were dialysed to remove sugar, *Staphylococcus aureus* was completely inhibited by 1.5 honey dilutions (Dustman, 1978). Similarly, greater microbial inhibition has been observed with natural honeys as compared with 'artificial honeys' (a solution of sugar of the same proportion typically in honey). In one study, 15 bacterial species were substantially (or completely) inhibited by 17% honey in agar, but were not inhibited by 'artificial honey' at the same concentration (Dold *et al.*, 1937). *Staphylococcus aureus*, an organism noted for its exceptionally high tolerance of low water activity, is one of the bacterial species most susceptible to the antibacterial activity of honey (Molan, 1992a). Clearly, the antibacterial activity of honey can be ascribed to more than just the high sugar content of honey.

The acidity of honey has also been said to explain the antibacterial activity of honey. Characteristically honey is an acidic medium. Full strength honey pH ranges from 3.2 to 4.5 and is generally considered to have an average of 3.9 (White, 1975). Such an acidity level would be inhibitory to the growth of most bacterial species. Most microorganisms grow optimally at neutral (6.5-7.5) pH (Banwart, 1989; Adams and Moss, 1995). In general, bacteria grow optimally in the pH range 6.0–8.0, yeasts 4.5–6.0 and filamentous fungi 3.5-4.0 (Banwart, 1989). Thus, the degree of acidity in full strength honey would inhibit growth of most microbial species. Honey acidity is due primarily to the content of organic acids, predominantly gluconic (White, 1975). Gluconic acid in honey is generally thought to be produced by the enzymic action of glucose oxidase on sugar dextrose (White, 1992). However, some of the gluconic acid present in honey may be produced by bacteria of the genus Gluconobacter, which are occasionally isolated from ripening nectar (Ruiz-Argueso and Rodriguez-Navarro, 1973). Evidence from studies undertaken with neutralised honey has shown that antibacterial activity was retained (Wooton et al., 1978; Radwan et al., 1984). Also, under experimental conditions, it is likely that diluted honey would be neutralised by the buffering capacity of the bacterial growth medium and yet antibacterial activity is still observed. There appears to be no correlation between antibacterial activity and the acidity of the honey.

The major acid present in honey is gluconic acid (Stinson *et al.*, 1960) produced by glucose oxidase. Another compound produced by this reaction is hydrogen peroxide. Hydrogen peroxide is known to have antimicrobial properties and much evidence exists to suggest that it is this compound which confers antimicrobial activity to honey (Adcock, 1962; White *et al.*, 1963; Molan, 1992a). Hydrogen peroxide can be removed efficiently by the addition of catalase to the honey prior to testing for antibacterial activity (White *et al.*, 1963). There are, however, many reports of honeys retaining

partial or complete antibacterial potency following the addition of catalase (Molan and Russell, 1988; Molan, 1992a).

The presence in honey of non-osmotic antibacterial activity, termed "inhibine", was first reported by Dold *et al.* in 1937. Inhibine was later identified as hydrogen peroxide produced enzymatically in honey (White *et al.*, 1962; White, 1966). The enzyme glucose oxidase, secreted from the hypopharyngeal gland of the bee into nectar, assists in the formation of honey from nectar (Molan, 1996).

Gluconic acid serves to preserve ripening honey (Molan, 1996). Hydrogen peroxide has been recognised as an effective antibiotic for more than a century (Turner, 1983). Indeed, peroxide was a major antibacterial component of some early penicillin drugs, such as Notatin (Burgett, 1990). Hydrogen peroxide concentrations in excess of 0.0002% have been shown to prevent bacterial growth (White, 1966).

Researchers have found a direct correlation between anti-microbial activity and the non-peroxide activity of honey. Several researchers have proposed that the antibacterial activity exhibited by some honeys is due to a specific compound or group of compounds in the particular honey. In a study with honey that had been analytically shown to have no hydrogen peroxide and which took into account the osmolarity and acidity of the honey, Radwan *et al.* (1984) found honeys to retain antimicrobial activity against some bacterial and fungal species. They concluded that the inhibitory activity in honey was due to specific compounds. Roth *et al.* (1986) tested both catalase-treated honey and untreated honey, finding honeys retained the same antibacterial activity and so concluded that activity was not due to hydrogen peroxide.

The term 'non-peroxide activity' is used to describe any antimicrobial activity which does not arise from osmolarity, acidity or accumulation of hydrogen peroxide. The existence of non-peroxide antibacterial substances in honey is a controversial topic. Some authors argue that they account for an insignificant proportion (if any) of activity (Dustman, 1978; Morse, 1986) while others argue that they account for all of the activity beyond that due to acidity and high osmolarity (Mohrig and Messner, 1968; Radwan *et al.*, 1984). Generally, it is accepted that both types of activity occur, to different degrees, in different honeys (Molan, 1992a). While evidence for the existence of non-peroxide antibacterial factors is primarily that the peroxide generating system does not account for all observed non-osmotic antibacterial activity, there have been some studies reporting the isolation of antibacterial substances from honey that are not hydrogen peroxide (Molan, 1992a).

The existence of non-peroxide antibacterial factors in honey is indicated by findings that the antibacterial activity does not correlate completely with the rate of accumulation of hydrogen peroxide in honey samples (Adcock, 1962; White and Subers, 1963; Dustman, 1978; Bogdanov, 1984). In one study, honeys producing significant quantities of hydrogen peroxide (when diluted) were not found to be antibacterial, while others that did not produce significant quantities of hydrogen peroxide were found to be antibacterial (Roth *et al.*, 1986).

The most conclusive evidence for the existence of non-peroxide antibacterial factors in honey is that antibacterial activity persists in honeys treated with either catalase or peroxidase to remove hydrogen peroxide (Adcock, 1962; Bogdanov, 1984; Molan and Russell, 1988; Allen *et al.*, 1991). New Zealand Manuka honey has a particularly high level of this type of activity (Molan, 1992a). The exact nature of honey's non-peroxide antibacterial activity and the compounds responsible are not known.

In a large survey of New Zealand honeys, Molan and Russell (1988) found a correlation between high levels of antibacterial activity and non-peroxide content. Allen *et al.* (1991) suggested that the variation in activity of New Zealand honeys might be attributable to the floral source. Honey from Manuka (*Leptospermum scoparium*) demonstrated high antibacterial activity and this was shown to be due to a non-peroxide component.

There are reports of identification of some of the components of honey which are antibacterially active (Bogdanov, 1984; Toth *et al.*, 1987; Russell *et al.*, 1990). The identified compounds are different between the studies suggesting a possible floral derivation according to the honey type investigated. However, more research into this aspect is required.

In all the medical reports on the antibacterial and healing properties of honey, there has been little information given about the specific type or selection of honey used. The large survey conducted on honeys from different floral sources in NZ addressed this aspect and revealed some marked variation in the potency of antibacterial activity between honeys (Allen *et al.*, 1991). From this finding, these workers stressed the importance of any particular honey being assayed for its antibacterial activity before consideration for therapeutic use.

To date, the only research on the antibacterial activity of Australian honeys is a small study by Wootton *et al.* (1978), which found that five of seven different floral sourced honeys did possess antibacterial activity. This activity was heat labile which suggests that the antibacterial activity present was due to hydrogen peroxide.

Considering the findings reviewed above there is sufficient evidence to suggest that honey may be the treatment of choice in wounds of all kinds. However, proof of efficiency in randomised scientific trials is lacking. More work in this area is clearly justified. However, few institutions are willing to conduct and finance such trials.

The current investigation was undertaken to establish the antimicrobial activity of a large number of Australian honeys from a wide range of floral sources and diverse geographical locations.

Beekeeper Guidelines

The development of guidelines for honey producers and processors is based on specifying the required handling parameters and conditions. Capilano Honey Limited, as the major honey processor in Australia, have been instrumental in sourcing "active" honeys for this project and in developing a medicinal honey product. For these reasons, it was decided that the guidelines would be best incorporated into the Capilano "Honey Manual". This manual meets Good Manufacturing Practice (GMP) requirements for the entire honey processing system (including the individual beekeeper) as well as Therapeutic Good Administration (TGA) requirements for those honeys which are antimicrobially active.

The specifications for antimicrobially active honeys have been largely based on knowledge obtained from research into the factors which may affect the activity of honeys. The considerations and procedures for apiarists collecting "active" or "medicinal" honey are very similar to those for apiarists collecting honey for food. Factors discussed and specified include the floral source of the honey flow, the importance of healthy beekeeping practices (especially the non-use of antibiotics within the hive), the extraction of honey without unnecessary heat treatment and the conditions for honey storage. Laboratory testing of any honey produced from "active" areas is essential to establish that the honey is antimicrobially "active". There is no prescribed method for the removal of this jelly-like (thixotropic) honey from the combs. The use of heat is to be avoided, as this may compromise the antimicrobial activity of the honey.

These guidelines outline recommended handling and processing procedures. Treatments which may compromise the antimicrobial activity of these honeys have been described. Any heat treatment of active honey should be avoided, if possible.

Characterisation of the "active" factor

Screening of honeys for antimicrobial activity

The antibacterial activity of honey was first reported in 1892 (Dustman, 1978). Research was reported next in 1919, however, extensive study did not begin until the work of Dold *et al.* in 1937. Intensive research has continued until the present day and involves the use of numerous microbiological techniques.

The most common technique used to study the potency of antibacterial activity in honey is the agar diffusion assay. A small quantity of honey is applied to holes bored into a nutrient agar plate preinoculated with the test culture. During incubation, the honey diffuses into the agar from its point of application. Where the concentration of honey in the agar is sufficient to inhibit growth of the culture, no colonies develop and a clear zone is observed around the point of application of the honey. The size of the clear zone is a measure of the potency of the honey. The major advantage of this method is that it allows comparisons of different honey types for the potency of their action against one or more species of bacteria. However, the method is limited because honey is diluted as it diffuses into the agar.

Turbidity tests and streak plates represent another technique to evaluate antibacterial activity. These systems involve incorporating honey, at different concentrations, into the nutrient agar or nutrient broth in which the culture is grown. Increased turbidity (as compared to an uninoculated control) is regarded as evidence of bacterial growth, and static turbidity as evidence of non-multiplication of the original inocula.

Several researchers (Roth, 1986; Smith, 1969; James, 1972) have also utilised the sensitivity disc method to assay the antibacterial activity of honey. This method involves saturating sterile filter paper discs with honey (undiluted or diluted) and applying them to the surface of agar plates seeded with the test organism. One suggested limitation of this method is that inhibitory compounds may absorb to the filter paper and thus inadequate concentrations diffuse into the agar, giving inaccurate results (James, 1972).

All the above methods are useful in investigating the activity spectrum of honey (*i.e.* determining which species of microorganisms are sensitive to the action of honey) but none of the methods can show whether the action of honey is bactericidal or bacteriostatic only. If no colony development occurs during incubation this can be regarded as a bacteriostatic action only (demonstration of bactericidal activity requires subsequent culturing in fresh nutrient medium to see if test microbes survived exposure to the honey).

Materials and Methods

Honeys

Honey samples were collected from commercial apiarists and processors throughout Australia. The floral source of each honey was identified by the beekeeper supplying it and most samples were considered to be monofloral specimens. Identification was based on colour, aroma and flavour, as well as location and season of production. Honeys were not submitted for pollen analysis to validate their identity due to the high cost involved. A preliminary investigation (Davis, 1997) tested a total of 340 honeys, and suggested that only one region, season and floral source was responsible for the floral-active honeys found throughout Australia. In this study, honey samples supplied by apiarists and by Capilano Honey Limited were largely derived from *Leptospermum* trees (or honeys which had a character similar to *Leptospermum* honey). Honey samples were held in airtight glass or plastic containers in the absence of light to minimise any changes in honey composition. All samples were frozen and stored at $^-20^{\circ}$ C. For assaying, the honeys were allowed to come to room temperature prior to sampling. Care was taken to avoid any obvious pieces of comb wax and the surface portion of the honey which may have had greater exposure to oxygen and light.

Artificial honey

An artificial honey mixture was prepared by adding gluconic acid lactone to sterile deionised water until pH 3.8 was achieved following lactone hydrolysis. To 17.5mL of the gluconic acid solution, 40g fructose, 36.2g glucose and 2.8g sucrose were added and heated to 50°C to dissolve the sugars. This typical honey solution was used in the standard assay procedure to determine the effect of sugar concentration or acidity on antimicrobial activity.

The test bacterial strain

Staphylococcus aureus (ATCC 25923) was used for screening all honeys for antimicrobial activity. This bacterial strain was chosen as it is the one most commonly used by other researchers for assessing the antimicrobial activity of honeys (Molan *et al.*, 1988). Additionally, this microorganism is known to be tolerant of the high concentration of sugars and the acidity of honey while being sensitive to hydrogen peroxide (Dustmann, 1979) and the chemical inhibitory action of honey (Molan and Russell, 1988).

The test bacterial strain

Staphylococcus aureus ATCC 25923 is used experimentally for testing all honey samples and honey fractions for antimicrobial activity. This bacterial strain is the most commonly chosen by researchers assaying antimicrobial activity in honey (Molan *et al.*, 1988) and allows for greater comparison with previous research. Additionally, *Staphylococcus aureus* ATCC 25923 is tolerant of the high sugar concentration and acidity of honey while being sensitive to the antimicrobial action of hydrogen peroxide (Dustman, 1978) and the non-peroxide inhibitory action of honey (Molan and Russell, 1988). Variation of antibacterial activity between Australian honeys from different floral sources and within a single floral source is large (Davis, 1997). This phenomenon has also been observed in the antibacterial activity of New Zealand honeys (Allen *et al.*, 1991). Indeed such variation in activity between and within different honey samples is common to almost all studies in which more than one honey type has been investigated (Molan, 1992b).

Other bacterial strains

Other bacterial strains used in the diffusion assay were: *Staphylococcus aureus*, *Staphylococcus epidermidis*, *Escherichia coli*, *Streptococcus*, *Bacillus circulans*, *Bacillus cereus*, *Yersinia enterocolitica* (ATCC 9610), *Listeria monocytogenes* (NCTC 11994) and *Micrococcus luteus* (ATCC 4698). These bacterial strains were selected to give an indication of the antimicrobial activity of honeys against both pathogenic and non-pathogenic bacteria. Bacterial isolates were also collected from the DPI Mastitis Collection (Animal Research Institute) to assess the efficacy of *Leptospermum* honey against these bacteria. A range of antibiotic-resistant organisms (*S.aureus* and *Pseudomonas spp.*) were also assessed in the Department of Microbiology at the Royal Brisbane Hospital.

Agar plate preparation

An overnight culture of *Staphylococcus aureus* was grown at 37°C for 18 h in 10mL nutrient broth (Oxoid No. 2). One mL of the overnight culture was inoculated into 100mL nutrient broth and incubated with shaking (4000 rev/min) at 30°C for 3 h to attain a fully logarithmic phase culture. A 1.8mL aliquot of log phase culture was added to 46mL of nutrient agar (Oxoid No. 2) nutrient broth plus 1.5% agar, Bacteriological grade, BBL), maintained to 45°C. The final bacteriological concentration was 10³-10⁴ cfu/mL. The seeded agar was immediately poured into large plastic petri dishes (150 x 19 mm, Nunc). Once solidified, wells were cut in the agar with an 8 mm cork borer according to a standard template. Agar plugs were removed under sterile conditions.

Assay procedure

For assaying, honeys were diluted to 25% (w/v) in either sterile deionised water or catalase solution (Sigma, EC 1.11.1.6, bovine liver: 2800 units/mg) at a concentration of 8000 units/mL. At this dilution, the antibacterial activity of honey is linearly proportional to the diameter of the zone of inhibition (Cooper, 1963; Allen *et al.*, 1991). A test sample of 80µL of diluted honey was used to completely fill the well in the agar plate. Honeys were always tested in triplicate, dispensed randomly into wells with each plate including a negative control (sterile deionised water) and a positive control

(6% phenol). The positive control gave a zone of inhibition which was used to correlate for day-to-day variations. The plates were incubated overnight at 37°C. Antibacterial activity was indicated by a zone of no growth surrounding the well and was determined by measuring the diameter of the clear zone (mm). All measurements were recorded without reference to the sample identity.

Results and Discussion

Agar well diffusion assay

Of all the methods available for determining antimicrobial activity, the agar well diffusion method was selected for its convenience, low cost and rapidity. It allows reliable and reproducible comparison between large numbers of samples. Additionally, this assay is the most appropriate for testing topical antimicrobial agents as it takes into account the diffusibility of the agent into infected areas with little or no blood supply (Heggers *et al.*, 1987). The assay is an end-point test and therefore results obtained are qualitative or, at best, semi-quantitative when a high degree of standardisation is employed. It is not a highly sensitive assay (James *et al.*, 1972) as the honey sample is further diluted by diffusion into the agar. Diffusion is slow and hence the colonies on the outer limit can grow prior to the inhibitory substance reaching them. The size of the inhibitory zone achieved is dependent upon rates of diffusion and cell growth (Barry, 1986). This infers that the extent of the zone of inhibition may not necessarily be directly proportional to the activity of the honey sample. In an agar diffusion assay, Cooper (1963) established that the logarithm of the concentration of an antibacterial substance is proportional to the square of the extent of the zone of inhibition. For the research work in this study, the agar well diffusion method was used for the qualitative comparison of the antimicrobial activities of different honeys.

Antibacterial activity of honeys

In this three-year study, the honey samples supplied were predominantly obtained from Capilano, and they were largely selected for their typical *Leptospermum* characteristics. Consequently, a far greater proportion of samples returned a positive result for antimicrobial activity than in the previous study (Davis, 1997). Invariably, the honey samples which tested positive for antimicrobial activity were *Leptospermum*-derived. This study has also confirmed that one particular area in Northern New South Wales (in the Broadwater National Park) has repeatedly (for at least 4 seasons) produced honey with floral-derived antimicrobial activity. At least two further distinct regions (in Queensland) have recently been identified as producing active *Leptospermum* honey for at least one season.

In this three-year study, the vast majority of "active" honeys were floral-active honeys (*i.e. Leptospermum*-derived). In the 1998 year, a total of 1006 honey samples were screened. Of these, 76 were floral active and 26 were peroxide active (7.5% and 2.6%, respectively). In the 1999 season, 238 of the 929 samples (26%) were floral active while only one sample was peroxide active. In the third year (2000), 359 of the 708 samples (51%) were floral active with no peroxide active honeys tested. This suggests that the honey supply (mainly from Capilano) was being more accurately targeted to the *Leptospermum* honeys as the project progressed. The number of active honeys tested as the project progressed may not be entirely accurate, as samples may have been submitted for reanalysis without being accounted for. This may have included testing of samples after mixing and processing.

In a previous study (Davis, 1997) where 340 honeys were screened, 31.5% demonstrated antibacterial activity against *Staphylococcus aureus* (ATCC 25923). Where reasonable numbers of samples were obtained from the same monofloral source, several specific floral varietals occasionally produced honeys with antibacterial activity. These floral sources include Bimble box, Yapunyah, Grey Ironbark, Jelly bush, Salvation Jane and Crow ash. The former three species are from the Eucalyptus genus. In a study of seven Australian honeys by Wootton *et al.* (1978), Stringy Bark and Yapunyah were also shown to have high antibacterial activity. Jelly bush and Salvation Jane come from the genus *Leptospermum* and *Echium* respectively and in a study of New Zealand honeys (Allen *et al.*, 1991), it was also found that species from these two genera were more likely to produce honeys with floral-derived antibacterial activity.

The variation of antibacterial activity between honeys from different floral sources and within a single source is large. This phenomenon was also observed in a similar survey of antibacterial activity of New Zealand honeys (Allen *et al.*, 1991) and in other research (Molan *et al.*, 1988). In a recent review of antibacterial activity of honey, Molan (1992a) reports that such variation in activity between different honeys is common to almost all studies in which more than one type of honey has been investigated.

Of the many factors discussed in attempts to explain the large activity variations seen, some can be ruled out. Age of the honey (storage time) and processing/handling factors were shown to have no effect on the antibacterial activity present in a large number of New Zealand honeys (Allen *et al.*, 1991). Sensitivity of the assay system may influence the antimicrobial activity. For the results presented in the current work, the agar well diffusion assay may not have been able to detect very low levels of antibacterial activity which may have been present in some of the honey samples.

It is suggested that honeys from certain floral sources are more likely than others to have antibacterial activity. However, Molan (1992a) concluded that there is not enough evidence for such definite conclusions to be justified. Not all honeys derived from a particular floral source have antibacterial activity. Many honey samples demonstrated no activity. In this three-year study, large sample populations were screened and the jelly bush honey was shown to repeatedly produce positive results.

The honeys screened in a previous study (Davis, 1997) were sampled from a very wide range of apiarists making it difficult to draw any conclusions concerning a relationship between the geographical location of the floral source of the honey or the season of production and antimicrobial activity. This investigation has been largely focussed on honeys with the particular *Leptospermum* characteristics observed in the earlier study (Davis, 1997).

The antimicrobial activity of honey can be attributed in part to the presence of hydrogen peroxide in the honey (White *et al.*, 1963). Hydrogen peroxide can be destroyed by catalase and it is known that different plant species contain different catalase activities (Schepartz, 1966; Schepartz and Subers, 1966). This would have an influence on the level of hydrogen peroxide present in the honey and hence the antimicrobial activity. Therefore, it is reasonable to expect a correlation between floral source and antibacterial activity and to believe this to account for the variation seen between honeys from different floral sources. However, such a correlation does not explain the variation observed within a floral source. This variability is not unique to the current work, but was also commented on by Allen *et al.* (1991) who observed a very marked variation in the level of hydrogen peroxide activity within a single floral source. Interestingly, the active honeys sampled for this three-year study were predominantly active due to floral-derived factors. This may be because the collection was focussed on *Leptospermum* type honeys.

Molan *et al.* (1988) decided there was a relationship between antibacterial activity and the floral source of the honey, with Manuka honey showing significantly higher activity than other floral sources. Allen *et al.* (1991) concluded that not all samples of Manuka honey can be relied on to have activity. This again indicates the wide variation within a specific floral source.

A likely rationalisation for the variation in activity, both between and within floral sources, arises from the nature of honey production. Bees are able to take nectar from whatever source is available to them at the time and hence it is improbable that straight line or strictly monofloral honeys would ever be obtained. The validity of identification of the honey as occurred within this research and that of others, is open to question. It is often based on experience and "best guess" according to season and location of the hives. Pollen analysis would provide definitive identification of the honeys but the analysis is expensive and rarely done.

The agar well diffusion assay as used in this work, allows relative comparisons of activity between honeys. For the honeys tested, a sample from Jelly Bush had an activity equivalent to that reported by other researchers (Molan and Russell, 1988; Molan *et al.*, 1988; Allen *et al.*, 1991). Direct comparison of results from different workers is often difficult due to differences in assay procedures

involving different honey concentrations and test microorganisms used. Discussions are currently underway to standardise the agar well assay system between New Zealand and Australian researchers so that more reliable comparisons can be made.

Non-hydrogen peroxide activity

Catalase is able to degrade hydrogen peroxide and therefore can be used to remove any antimicrobial activity which is attributable to hydrogen peroxide from honey. Molan and Russell (1988) demonstrated the efficacy of a weaker enzyme solution than the one used for this research. All honeys that exhibited antimicrobial activity were tested following the addition of catalase solution. As the reference bacterial strain used for screening is resistant to osmotic and acidic effects of honey, it is likely that any retained activity is due to a compound of floral derivation. To show that non-peroxide antimicrobial activity was not due to the presence of traditional chemical antibiotics, samples of honeys exhibiting non-peroxide activity were submitted for mass spectrophotometric analysis. No sample returned a positive result for the range of antibiotics tested.

Allen *et al.* (1991) tested honeys of New Zealand floral origin and found that only two floral varietals (*Leptospermum scoparium* and *Echium vulgare*) produced honey with non-peroxide activity in a significant proportion of the samples. Our initial research with Australian honeys indicates that a *Leptospermum*-derived honey (probably *Leptospermum polygalifolium*) had the most consistent and significant non-peroxide activity. No other reports have described the activity of Australian honeys following removal of hydrogen peroxide.

For the honeys having non-peroxide activity, the inhibitory effect on *Staphylococcus aureus* (ATCC 25923) remains similar to the total antibacterial activity present. This suggests that all the activity present in the honey is due to a non-peroxide component, presumably of floral derivation. This is similar to the findings of Molan and Russell (1988) in their study of New Zealand honeys where they concluded that in the honeys with high antibacterial activity, a large part of the activity was due to a factor other than hydrogen peroxide. In contrast, Dustman (1979) reported non-peroxide activity in honey but concluded that it was only a minor proportion of the total antimicrobial activity present.

The non-peroxide activity of some jelly bush honeys is equivalent to the "active" Manuka honeys described by Molan *et al.* (1988). Direct comparison of the activities of the honeys is appropriate since we were able test the "active" Manuka honey under our assay conditions (thanks to the kind sample donation and collaboration of Professor Peter Molan). The "active" Manuka honey and the Australian jelly bush honey both repeatedly exhibited an inhibition zone of about 14 mm when tested after the addition of catalase. Molan has stated that the activity of the Manuka honey is as high as the most "active" honey recorded elsewhere. Therefore, by direct implication, so is the activity of the jelly bush honey.

Relative activities between honeys

Jelly bush honey is a dark coloured, strong tasting honey and it is interesting to note that several studies have commented on similar characteristics for honeys found to have high antibacterial activity. Manuka is a dark coloured honey, as is that from the central European conifer forests and the sweet chestnut. Also, dark coloured Canadian honeys were associated with high activity (Molan, 1992). The addition of catalase to Australian floral sourced honeys with high antibacterial activity (zone of inhibition >11 mm) resulted in the total abolition of activity. The results in this work also demonstrated honeys with relatively low antibacterial activity that was all attributable to a non-peroxide component of the honey.

Stability of the activity

Exposure of the most active jelly bush honey to 60°C, 80°C and 100°C for 18 h resulted in no reduction of antibacterial activity when the honey was tested with or without catalase. Similarly, exposure of the honey to UV radiation for 18 h caused no loss of activity. These findings further indicate that the activity is due to a non-peroxide component in the honey, as hydrogen peroxide would be inactivated by such treatments (Molan and Russell, 1988).

Microorganism spectrum of the antibacterial activity

Honeys were assayed against a range of microorganisms to determine whether they are active against the specific bacteria. The activity of honeys against a much wider range of microorganisms, including clinically significant microbes and pathogens, as well as non-pathogenic organisms especially those sourced from food processing/hygiene environments, was undertaken. For screening purposes, the standard strain *Staphylococcus aureus* (ATCC 25923) was used at all times for reasons mentioned previously. However, if honey is considered to have potential for therapeutic use in a clinical situation it is important to know which, if any, other bacterial species are susceptible to the action of honey. The antibacterial activity of honeys against those microorganisms which exhibit resistance to conventional pharmaceutical drugs shows considerable promise.

An investigation of the anti-microbial efficacy of jelly bush honeys against a range of food spoilage organisms was undertaken by Brenda Mossel, a PhD candidate from the University of Queensland, Gatton, and these results will be presented in her dissertation. The efficacy of *Leptospermum* honeys against the reference strain S.aureus (ATCC 25923), food spoilage microorganisms and food pathogens was investigated. Food spoilage microorganisms included thermophilic spore-forming bacteria Bacillus stearothermophilus, yeast (*Zygosaccharomyces bailii* and *Z. rouxii*), *Pseudomonas* (*P.fluorescens*, *P.putida* and *P.cepacia*) and *Lactobaccillus* (*L.plantarum*). Food Pathogens included Bacillus cereus (ATCC 49664), *Staphylococcus aureus* (ATCC 13625), *Pseudomonas aureginosa* (ATCC 15022), *Pseudomonas aureginosa* (ATCC 12066), *Vibrio parahaemyliticus*, *Salmonella* spp. and *Listeria monocytogenes*. All of the food pathogens assayed in this study except *Pseudomonas aureginosa* strains were inhibited by *Leptospermum* honeys.

In a study undertaken at the Royal Brisbane Hospital, 100 clinical isolates of antibiotic-resistant strains of *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* and a similar number of antibiotic-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* strains were exposed to a range of concentrations of active jelly bush honey. The *Pseudomonas* cultures were all completely inhibited from growing by concentrations of honey greater than 4.5% while the *Staphylococcus aureus* cultures were all completely inhibited from growing by concentrations of honey greater than 7%. The efficacy of Australian jelly bush honeys against medical pathogens was also investigated by Shona Blair (a PhD candidate from the University of Sydney). Shona will present a range of work relating to the medical application of these honeys in her PhD dissertation. Much of Shona's research has focused on the mechanism of action of honey from a medical perspective, both through its antibacterial activity and its possible involvement in cytokine activation. She has investigated the stability and characteristics of the active agent and the mode of action of honey in wound healing. Both of these dissertations are currently in preparation, and the detailed outcomes of these studies will be available in the near future.

Chemical screening of the honey

A thorough chemical investigation of Australian honeys was largely undertaken by Brenda Mossel, a PhD candidate from the University of Queensland, Gatton. Her work has aimed to correlate antimicrobial activity with chemical components in unifloral honeys. This investigation initially involved fractionating 'active' Jelly bush (*Leptospermum polygalifolium*) honey. These honeys were identified in a previous study (Davis, 1997) as the only unifloral Australian honey to repeatedly display significant antimicrobial activity against the test reference strain of *Staphylococcus aureus* ATCC 25923. The aim of this work was to identify the chemical components responsible for the non-peroxide floral-derived antimicrobial activity. To date, the factors responsible for this floral-derived anti-bacterial activity have remained elusive. The methods developed and the results of these largely unsuccessful fractionations of "active" honeys are detailed in Brenda's PhD report.

The second part of Brenda's research involved the chemical screening of a number of unifloral Australian honeys (including samples of active and non-active Jelly bush honeys) and New Zealand Manuka honey (both active and non-active samples) to see if the active honeys are chemically distinct. Numerous studies have been conducted attempting to isolate the factor or factors responsible for the antimicrobial activity in honey. However, attempts to correlate antimicrobial activity with the physical and chemical parameters of honey are limited. This research has attempted to identify

components that may be therapeutically important, particularly in moist wound management. Colour, moisture, ash, electrical conductivity, specific rotation, proline, HMF, invertase, diastase, carbohydrates (fructose, glucose, sucrose, maltose and turanose), granulation indices, pH, free acidity, lactone acidity and total acidity were determined for 138 monofloral Australian honeys from 15 common honey types. The results of this work give a thorough overview of the chemical composition of Australian honey. The last such investigation was undertaken over 20 years ago.

Honey samples from a honey variety acknowledged to display antimicrobial activity, such as Australian jelly bush (Leptospermum polygalifolium) and New Zealand Manuka (Leptospermum scoparium), can not be relied upon to invariably have antimicrobial activity. Similarly, antimicrobial activity is recorded in jelly bush and Manuka honeys from quite specific geographical localities. The aim of this study was to determine if there was any correlation between antimicrobial activity and the rheological and chemical parameters of monofloral Australian honey samples. While most of the chemical analyses did not correlate the chemical characteristics of floral active honey with the presence of anti-bacterial activity, two components did show some promise. Anisic acid was shown to associate strongly with non-peroxide antimicrobial activity. The reaction of hydrogen peroxide with anisic acid may create a peroxycarboxlic acid, which are powerful antimicrobial agents. This peroxide, formed from hydrogen peroxide and anisic acid (from the nectar of chemovars providing active honeys), is not destroyed by the added catalase and may be responsible for the non-peroxide antimicrobial activity observed in this study. Alternately, hydroxymethyfurfural (a Maillard reaction product) and proline (the principle amino acid in honey) were significantly higher in active honeys and associated strongly with non-peroxide antimicrobial activity. This suggests that active honeys may have been stored under conditions favourable for Maillard reaction product formation. In addition, the honey darkening observed in floral active honeys is one of the consequences of Maillard reactions. Maillard reaction products are potent antimicrobials. The level of non-peroxide antimicrobial activity in active jelly bush honey samples (*Leptospermum polygalifolium*) increases during warehousing, suggesting that some form of reaction product is responsible. Thus, a Maillard reaction product between glucose and an amino acid or peptide unique to the nectar of the chemovar or sub-species of *Leptospermum* producing active honey, may be responsible for the nonperoxide antimicrobial activity in Leptospermum honey. The detailed outcomes of these studies will be available when Brenda's PhD dissertation is completed.

Conclusion

The use of honey as a therapeutic agent dates to ancient times. More recently, there has been growing interest in this 'natural' remedy, which has lead to legitimate scientific investigations. Research in New Zealand has shown that Manuka honey has very special healing properties. This honey has been described to contain "the best natural antibiotic in the World". There is much evidence to suggest that the antibacterial activity of honey is due to more than the sugars present therein. Two major sources have been shown to be responsible for the anti-microbial activity - hydrogen peroxide (from the bee) and uncharacterised chemical substances (from the floral source). Using honeys sourced from around Australia and screened against several reference microorganisms, the anti-microbial potency of one particular Australian honey was shown to be comparable to NZ Manuka honey. Initial chemical comparison has confirmed that the NZ Manuka and the "active" Australian jelly bush honey are very similar. This is not unexpected since both of these remarkable honeys are derived from *Leptospermum* trees.

Previous research at the Centre for Food Technology has identified Australian honeys with antimicrobial activity. This research project will endeavour to give credibility to the use of honey as a treatment for moist wound injuries. The mode of action of the various honeys, particularly those derived from *Leptospermum* species (ie bacteriostatic or bactericidal) and the susceptibility of various food and medical pathogens to "active" honey varieties was investigated. Standard microbiological techniques were employed and the honeys were tested against a variety of potential pathogens. While the initially studies used less virulent microorganisms, later tests were performed with the antibiotic-resistant microorganisms (*i.e.* Golden *Staph* (MRSA) and Vancomycin-Resistant Enterococcus (VRE)) which are major problems in hospitals throughout the World.

This project was undertaken to add value to the existing honey resource by developing products with therapeutic benefit (*i.e.* for the treatment and management of moist wounds such as burns and ulcers). The production of such valuable honeys requires the honey to be collected and processed under prescribed conditions. This involves the identification of the appropriate floral sources, the development of procedures for harvesting and handling, the evaluation of the "active" agent(s), and the registration of honey as a therapeutic agent.

In an Australia-wide context, the honey and pollen industries are estimated to be worth in the order of \$A32 M (which does noes not include the value of incidental pollination of many agricultural crops). This project has significant potential to add value to the Australian Honey Industry. The value of honey sales to the New Zealand Honey Industry has increased significantly with the research and associated promotion of their native Manuka honey. The research undertaken in this project and extension of these results has promoted the use of honey for the treatment of bacterial infections associated with such injuries as burns and ulcers.

Honeys have been shown to be active against a diverse range of microorganisms and reports of the inhibitory effect of honey on specific microorganisms are numerous. Honey has been shown to be effective against both Gram positive and Gram negative organisms, aerobic and anaerobic bacteria, as well as inhibiting spore germination of *Bacillus cereus*. The sensitivity of different bacterial species and strains to honey is extremely variable. Honey has also recently been shown to have an inhibitory effect against antibiotic resistant strains (*e.g.* golden *Staph*), which are frequently responsible for post-operative wound infection in immunologically compromised patients.

Much research effort has centred on establishing the properties of honey to which its antibacterial activity may be attributed. Such factors as osmolarity, acidity, hydrogen peroxide content and chemical components of honey have all been considered to contribute to the inhibition of bacterial growth. Honey is a highly saturated sugar solution which could suggest that this characteristic of honey would convey an antimicrobial effect. The high concentration of sugars leaves very little available water for the growth of microorganisms. However, the osmolarity of honey does not appear to be a major factor. The acidity of honey has also been suggested to explain the antibacterial activity

of honey. Honey contains many organic acids, predominantly gluconic acid produced from glucose by glucose oxidase, and is characteristically acidic with pH 3.2 to 4.5. Although such an acidity level would be inhibitory to the growth of most bacterial species, there appears to be no correlation between antibacterial activity and the acidity of the honey. There is much evidence to suggest that the antibacterial activity of honey is due to more than the sugars present therein. Two major sources have been shown to be responsible for the anti-microbial activity - hydrogen peroxide (from the bee) and uncharacterised chemical substances (from the floral source). Hydrogen peroxide is known to have antimicrobial properties and can be removed efficiently by the addition of catalase to the honey prior to testing for antibacterial activity. The research undertaken in this project has been directed at understanding the correlation between antimicrobial activity and the non-peroxide activity of particular *Leptospermum*-derived honeys.

Research in the project has been focused on the specific antimicrobial potency of *Leptospermum* honey. Initial investigations tested the efficacy of these honeys against one particular bacteria (*Staphylococcus aureus*), while later studies assessed the effect of this honey on a range of food pathogens, animal pathogens (*e.g.* in mastitis) and human pathogens (*e.g.* golden *Staph*). Using honeys sourced from around Australia and screened against several reference microorganisms, the anti-microbial potency of one particular Australian honey (from *Leptospermum polygalifolium*) was shown to be comparable to NZ Manuka honey (from *L.scoparium*). The results of this screening of active honeys against pathogenic bacteria has supported the registration of honey by Capilano Honey Limited as a "Drug" with the Therapeutic Good Administration based on its antimicrobial activity.

This project was undertaken to add value to the existing honey resource by developing products with therapeutic benefit (*i.e.* for the treatment and management of moist wounds such as leg ulcers). Specific geographic region(s) in Australia which produce "active" honey have been identified, the potency of the *Leptospermum*-derived honeys against a range of bacteria has been defined, the particular chemical characteristics of these honeys have been examined, and the honey has been registered as a "Drug" with the Therapeutic Good Administration. Work is continuing to better define the specific agents responsible for the antimicrobial activity (which have been elusive to date) and to evaluate the opportunity for therapeutic benefit from honey beyond its antimicrobial activity (*i.e.* its direct wound healing benefit). Routine analysis of the antimicrobial activity of honey is now undertaken at the Centre for Food Technology using the agar well diffusion assay. This allows us to directly compare the results from different laboratories (*e.g.* New Zealand testing laboratories). Discussions are currently underway to better standardise the agar well assay system between New Zealand and Australian researchers so that more reliable comparisons can be made.

Findings from such further work would develop a far greater understanding of the nature of the antibacterial activity of our specific honeys and thereby illustrate the therapeutic potential. The improved understanding of honey as a natural antibacterial agent would increase the marketed value of the honey and hence improve revenue to Australian beekeepers.

References

Adams F. 1939 The Genuine Works of Hippocrates. Baltimore, The Williams & Wilkins Company.

Adams MR and Moss MO. 1995 Food Microbiology. Cambridge, The Royal Society of Chemists.

Adcock D. 1962 The effect of catalase on the inhibine and peroxide values of various honeys. Journal of Apicultural Research 1: 38-40.

Al Somal N, Coley KE, Molan PC and Hancock BM. 1994 Susceptibility of *Helicobacter pylori* to the antibacterial activity of manuka honey. Journal of the Royal Society of Medicine 87: 9-12.

Alcici NMF. 1996 Heavy metals in propolis: practical and simple procedures to reduce the lead level in the Brazilian propolis. Bee Products; properties, applications and apitherapy, Tel Aviv, Israel, Plenum Press.

Ali ATMM. 1989 The Pharmacological Characterisation and the Scientific Basis of the Hidden Miracle of Honey. Saudi Medical Journal 10(3): 177-179.

Ali A, Al-Humayyd MS, et al. 1990 Natural Honey Prevents Indomethacin- and Ethanol-induced Gastric Lesions in Rats. Saudi Medical Journal 11(4): 275-279.

Ali ATMM, Chowdhury MNH and Humayyd MSA. 1991 Inhibitory effect of natural honey on *Heliciobacter pylori*. Tropical Gastroenterology 12(3):139-143.

Allen KL, Molan PC and Reid GM. 1991 A survey of the antibacterial activity of some New Zealand honeys. Journal of Pharmacy and Pharmacology 43:817-822.

Allen KL, Molan PC, et al. 1991 The Variability of the Antibacterial Activity of Honey. Apiacta XXVI:114-121.

Andujar BP. 1974 Honey in baby's nutrition. Proceedings of the International Symposium on Apitherapy, Madrid.

Ankra-Badu GA. 1992 Sickle cell leg ulcers in Ghana. East African Medical Journal (July): 366-368.

Anon. 1975 Biological Properties of Honey. Honey, A Comprehensive Survey. E. Crane. London, William Heinemann Ltd: 258-266.

Armon PJ. 1980 The use of honey in the treatment of infected wounds. Tropical Doctor 10: 91.

Balayannis PG and Santas LA. 1992 Dissipation of malathion and fluvinate residues in honey. Journal of Apicultural Research 32(2):70-76.

Banwart GJ. 1989 Basic Food Microbiology. New York, Van Nostrand Reinhold.

Barbina MT, De Paoli M, et al. 1990 Determination of Tau-fluvinate Residues in Honey. Pesticide Science 28:197-202.

Barker SA, Foster AB, et al. 1959 Identification of 10-Hydroxy-2-decenoic Acid in Royal Jelly. Nature 183(4666):996-997.

Barry AL. 1986 Procedure for testing antimicrobial agents in agar media: Theoretical considerations. *In*: Antibiotics in Laboratory Medicine, 2nd ed. Ed. V. Lorian, Williams & Wilkins, Baltimore, USA.

Bergman A, Yanai J, Weiss J, Bell D and David MP. 1983 Acceleration of wound healing by topical application of honey: An animal model. The American Journal of Surgery 145:374-376.

Blair, S. E. (1996). An Investigation into the Antibacterial Activity of Australian Honey. Department of Microbiology. Sydney, University of Sydney: 85.

Blomfield R. 1973. Honey for decubitus ulcers. JAMA 224: 905.

Blum MS, Novak AF, et al. 1959 10-Hydroxy-trans-Deconoic Acid, an Antibiotic Found in Royal Jelly. Science 130: 452-453.

Bogdanov S. 1984 Characterisation of the Antibacterial Substances in Honey. Lebensmittel-Wissenchaft und-Technologie 17: 74-76.

Bogdanov S. 1989 Determination of Pinocembrin in Honey using HPLC. Journal of Apicultural Research 28(1): 55-59.

Bogdanov S. 1996 Non-Peroxide Antibacterial Activity of Honey. Bee Products- properties, applications and apitherapy. Tel-Aviv, Plenum Press.

Bonvehi JS and Jorda RE. 1991. Studie über die mikrobiologische Qualitat und bakteriostatische Aktivitat des Weiselfuttersaftes (Gelee Royale): Beeinflussung durch organische Sauren. Deutche Lebensmittel-Rundschau 87(8):256-259.

Bonvehi JS, Coll FC, et al. 1994. The Composition, Active Components and Bacteriostatic Activity of Propolis in Dietetics. Journal of the American Oil Chemists Society 71(5):529-532.

Bose B. 1982 Honey or sugar in the treatment of infected wounds? The Lancet (April 24):963.

Burgett DM. 1990 Antibiotic Systems in Honey, Nectar and Pollen. Honey Bee Pests, Predators, and Disease. R. A. Morse and R. Nowogrodzki. Ithaca, N.Y., Comstock Publishing Associates:329-340.

Cavanagh D., Beazley J and Ostapowicz F 1970. Radical operation for carcinoma of the vulva. A new approach to wound healing. The Journal of Obstetrics and Gynaecology 77 (11):1037-1040.

Chambonnaud JP. 1968 Contribution a la recherche des antibiotiques dans le miel. Bulletin apicole 11(2): 133-200.

Cheng PC and Wong G. 1996 Honey bee propolis: Prospects in medicine. Bee World 77(1):8-15.

Cooper KE. 1963 The theory of antibiotic inhibition zones. *In*: Analytical Microbiology. Ed. F. Kavanagh, Academic Press, New York, San Francisco and London.

Daghie V, Cirnu I, et al. 1973 Contribution to the bactericidal and bacteriostatic action of honey produced by Physokermes sp. in the area of coniferous trees. Proceedings of the XXIIIrd International Apicultural Congress, Moscow, Apimondia Publishing House.

Davis C. 1997 Antimicrobial properties of Australian honeys. Centre for Food Technology.

De Paoli M and Barbina MT. Replication. Microbiologica 13:207-213.

Dionysius DA, Grieve PA and Milne JM. 1993 Forms of lactoferrin: their antibacterial effect on enterotoxigenic *Escherichia coli*. Journal of Dairy Science 76:2597-2606.

Dobrowolski JW, Vohora SB, et al. 1991 Antibacterial, antifungal, anti-amoebic, anti-inflammatory and antipyretic studies on propolis bee products. Journal of Ethnopharmacology 35:77-82.

Dold H, Du DH, et al. 1937 Nachweis antibakterieller, hitz- und lichtempfindlicher Hemmungsstoffe (Inhibine) im Naturhonig (Blutenhonig). Zeitschrift für Hygiene und Infektionskrankheiten 120:155-167.

Doores S. 1985 Organic acids. Antimicrobials in Foods. A. L. Branen and P. M. Davidson. New York, Marcel Dekker. pp75-99.

Dustman JH. 1971 Ueber die Katalaseaktivitaet in Bienenhonig aus der Tracht der Heidekra utgewaechse. Zeitschrift-fuer-Lebensmitteluntersuchung-und-Forschung 145(5):294-295.

Dustman JH. 1978 Antibacterial effect of honey. Apiacta 14(1):7-11.

Efem SEE 1988 Clinical observations on the wound healing properties of honey. British Journal of Surgery 75:679-681.

Efem SEE. 1992 The antimicrobial spectrum of honey and its clinical significance. Infection 20(4):227-229.

Efem SEE. 1993 Recent advances in the management of Fournier's gangrene: Preliminary observations. Surgery 113(2):200-204.

El-Sukhon SN, Abu-Harfeil N and Sallal AK. 1994 Effect of honey on bacterial growth and spore germination. Journal of Food Protection 57(10):918-920.

Farouk A, Hassan T., Kashif H, Khalid SA, Mutawali I and Wadi M. 1988 Studies on Sudanese bee honey: Laboratory and clinical evaluation. International Journal of Crude Drug Research 26(3):161-168.

Fernandez-Muino MA, SanchoMT, et al. 1995 Nonacaricide pesticide residues in honey: Analytical methods and levels found. Journal of Food Protection 58(11):1271-1274.

Focht J, Hansen SH, et al. 1993 Bactericidal Effects of propolis in vitro against Agents Causing Upper Respiratory Tract Infections. Drug Research 43(11):921-923.

Fujiwara S, Imai J, et al. 1990 A Potent Antibacterial Protein in Royal Jelly, Purification and determination of the primary structure of royalisin. The Journal of Biological Chemistry 265(19):11333-11337.

Garcia F, Melgar R, et al. 1994 Evidence for the safety of coumphos, diazinin and malathion residues in honey. Veterinary and Human Toxicology 36(5):429-432.

Ghisalberti EL. 1979 Propolis: A review. Bee World 60:59-84.

Grange JM, 1990 Honey and propolis as possible promoters of the healing of ulcers in leprosy. Leprosy Review 61:195.

Grange JM and Davey RW. 1990 Antibacterial properties of propolis (bee glue). Journal of the Royal Society of Medicine 83:159-160.

Greceanu A and Enciu V. 1976 The observations on the antibiotic effects of propolis, pollen and honey. 2nd International Symposium on Apitherapy, Bucharest, Apimondia Publishing House.

Green AE. 1988 Wound healing properties of honey. British Journal of Surgery 75:1278.

Greenwood D. 1993 Honey for superficial wounds and ulcers. The Lancet 341:90-91.

Guthrie T. 1960 A History of Medicine. London, Thomas Nelson and Sons Ltd.

Haffejee IE and Moosa A. 1985 Honey in the treatment of infantile gastroenteritis. British Medical Journal 290:1866-1867.

Hamdy MH, El-Banby MA, et al. 1988 The antimicrobial effect of honey in the management of septic wounds. Proceedings of the 4th International Conference on Apiculture in Tropical Climates, Cairo, Egypt.

Havsteen B. 1983 Flavonoids, a class of natural products of high pharmacological potency. Biochemical Pharmacology 32(7):1141-1148.

Heggers JP, Velanovich V, Robson MC, Zoellner SM, Schileru R, Boertman J and Xing-Tao N. 1987. Control of burn wound sepsis: A comparison of *in vitro* topical antimicrobial assays. Journal of Trauma 27:176-179.

Hejases MJ, Simonin JE, et al. 1996 Genital Fournier's Gangrene: Experience Withh 38 Patients. Urology 47(5):734-739.

Houghton PJ, Woldemariam TZ, et al. 1995 Quantitation of the Pinocembrin Content of Propolis by Densiometry and High Performance Liquid Chromatography. Phytochemical Analysis 6:207-210.

Ialomiteanu M and Daghie V. 1973 Investigations of the antibiotic qualities of honey. Proceedings of the XXIVth International Apicultural Congress, Buenos Aires, Argentina, Apimondia Publishing House.

Ibrahim AS. 1981 Antibacterial action of honey. Bulletin of Islamic Medicine 1:363-365.

James OBO, Segree W and Ventura AK. 1972 Some antibacterial properties of Jamaican honey. West Indian Medical Journal 21:7-17.

Jan J and Cerne K. 1993 Distribution of some organochlorin compounds in Beeswax and Honey. Bulletin of Environmental Contamination and Toxicology 51:640-646.

Keast-Butler J. 1980 Honey for Necrotic Malignant Breast Ulcers. The Lancet(ii): unknown.

Khristov G and Mladenov S. 1961 Honey in surgical practice: the antibacterial properties of honey. Khirurgiya 14:937-946.

Kocher U. 1996 Nachweis von Streptomycin-Ruckstanden in Honig mittels Charm II-Test und Absicherung der Befunde durch HPLC mit Nachsaulenderivatisierung und Fluorescenzdetektion. Lebensmittelchemie 50:112-115.

Kosonocka L. 1990 Propolis - Snake Oil or Legitimate Medicine? American Bee Journal 130(7):451-452.

Kujumgiev A, Bankova V, et al. 1993 Antibacterial activity of propolis, some of it's components and their analogues. Pharmazie 48:785-786.

Lampe KF. 1988 Rhododendrons, mountain Laurel, and Mad Honey. JAMA 259(13):2000.

Lavie P. 1963 Sur l'identification des substances antibacteriennes presentes dans le miel. Comptes Rendus Academie des Sciences, Paris 256:1858-1860.

Lindenfelser LA. 1967 Antimicrobial Activity of Propolis. American Bee Journal 107(90):90-91, 130-131.

Majno G. 1975 The Healing Hand, Man and wound in the ancient world. Cambridge, Harvard University Press.

Mascher A, Lavagnoli S, et al. 1996 Determination of residual oxytetraccycline in honey with an immunoassay kit. Apidologie 27:229-233.

McCleskey CS and Melampy RM 1938 Bactericidal Activity of Royal Jelly of the Honey Bee. Journal of Bacteriology 36:324.

McGarry JP. 1961 The Effect of Aging on the Inhibitory Substances in Various Honeys for Bacteria. Bee World 42:226-229.

Merson MH and Dowell VR. 1973 Epidemiologic, clinical and laboratory aspects of wound botulism. The New England Journal of Medicine 289(19):1005-1009.

Midolo PD, Lambert JR, et al. 1995 In vitro inhibition of Helicobacter pylori NCTC 11637 by organic acids and lactic acid bacteria. Journal of Applied Bacteriology 79:457-479.

Midura TF, Snowden S, et al. 1979 Isolation of *Clostridium botulinum* from Honey. Journal of Clinical Microbiology 9(2):282-283.

Miller TE. 1969 Killing and Lysis of Gram-negative Bacteria Through the Synergistic Effect of Hydrogen Peroxide, Ascorbic Acid and Lysozyme. Journal of Bacteriology 98(3):949-955.

Mishref A, Magda SA, et al. 1989 The effect of feeding medicinal plant extracts to honey bee colonies on the antimicrobial activity of the honey produced. Proceedings of the 4th International Conference on Apiculture in Tropical Climates, Cairo, Egypt.

Mitro VS. 1996 Information zu Honig und anderen Bienenprodukten aus medizinischer und mikrobiologischer Sicht. Tierarztl. Umschau 51(4):232-240.

Mladenov ST and Mladenova D. 1985 New Apitherapeutic methods for the treatment of certain non-specific acute and chronic diseases of the respiratory organs. Proceedings of the XXXth International Apicultural Congress of Apimondia, Nagoya, Japan, Apimondia Publishing House.

Mohrig W and Messner B. 1968 Lysozym als antibakterielles Agens im Bienenhonig und Bienengift. Acta biol. med. germ. 21:85-95.

Molan PC and Russell KM. 1988 Non-peroxide antibacterial activity in some New Zealand honeys. Journal of Apicultural Research 27(1):62-67.

Molan PC, Smith IM and Reid GM. 1988. A comparison of the antibacterial activities of some New Zealand honeys. Journal of Apicultural Research 27(4):252-256.

Molan, P. (1992a) The antibacterial activity of honey 1. The nature of the antibacterial activity. Bee World 1:5-28.

Molan, P. (1992b) The antibacterial activity of honey 2. Variation in the potency of the antibacterial activity. Bee World 1:59-71.

Molan PC. 1996 Honey as an antimicrobial agent. Bee Products - properties, application and apitherapy, Tel-Avib, Plenum Press.

Molan PC and Allen KL. 1996 The Effect of Gamma-irradiation on the Antibacterial Activity of Honey. Journal of Pharmacy and Pharmacology 48(11):1206-1209.

Molzahn D and Assmann-Wethmuller U. 1993 Caesium radioactivity in several selected species of honey. The Science of the Total Environment 130:95-108.

Morse R. 1986 The antibiotic properties of Honey. Pan Pacific Entomologist 64(4):370-371.

Mossel DAA. 1980 Honey for Necrotic Breast Ulcers. The Lancet(ii):1091.

Ndayisaba G, Bazira L and Habonimana E. 1992 Traitement des plaies par le miel: 40 observations. La Presse Medicale 21(32):1516-1518.

Nye MJ, Shuel RW, et al. 1973 Gluconic acid in the food of larval honeybees. Journal of Apicultural Research 12(1):9-15.

Obaseiki-Ebor EE and Afonya TCA. 1983 Preliminary report on the antimicrobial activity of honey distillate. Journal of Pharmacy and Pharmacology 35(4):748-749.

Obaseiki-Ebor EE and Afonya TCA. 1984 In-vitro evaluation of the anticandidiasis activity of honey distillate (HY-1) compared with that of some antimycotic agents." Journal of Pharmacy and Pharmacology 36(8):283-284.

Oka H, Ikai Y, et al. 1994 Improvement of Chemical Analysis of Antibiotics. 22. Identification of Residual Tetracyclines in Honey by Frit FAB/LC/MS Using a Volatile Mobile Phase. Journal of Agriculture and Food Chemistry 42:2215-2219.

Patetta A and Manino A. 1991 Distribution of fallout radionuclides in soil, plants and honey. Health Physics 60(4):575-577.

Pepeljnjak S, Jalsenjak I, et al. 1982 Growth Inhibition of *Bacillus subtilis* and Composition of Various Propolis Extracts. Pharmazie 37:864-865.

Pepeljnjak S, Jalsenjak I, et al. 1985 Flavonoid Content in Propolis Extracts and Growth Inhibition of *Bacillus subtilis*. Pharmazie 40:122-123.

Perlman D. 1974 The Magic of Honey. New York, Avon.

Phuapradit W and Saropala N. 1992 Topical application of honey in treatment of abdominal wound disruption. Australian and New Zealand Journal of Obstetrics and Gynaecology 32(4):381-384.

Poncici LF, Wimmer FL, et al. 1984 An Analytical and Bacteriological Investigation of a Rare green Fiji Honey. Fiji Agricultural Journal 46(1):27-33.

Postmes T, van den Bogaard AE, et al. 1993 Honey for wounds, ulcers and skin graft preservation. The Lancet 341(March 20):756-757.

Pourtallier J. 1975 Bee Toxicology Review. Chemical pollution of bee products. XXVth International Apicultural Congress, Grenoble, France, Apimondia Publishing House.

Radwan SS, El-Essawy AA and Sarhan MM. 1984 Experimental evidence for the occurrence in honey of specific substances active against micro-organisms. Zentralblatt fur Mikrobiologie 139:249-255.

Rahim FA, Al-Gyoshi F, et al. 1982 Use of honey in the treatment of chronic Bilharzial ulcer bladder. Bulletin of Islamic Medicine 2:415-421.

Revathy V and Banerji SA. 1980 A preliminary study of antibacterial properties of Indian honey. Indian Journal of Biochem. Biophys (supplement) 17:62.

Rodenberg HR. 1990 Impressions of the Japanese Honey Market. American Bee Journal 130(1):19-20.

Roth LA, Kwan S and Sporns P. 1986 Use of a disc assay system to detect oxytetracycline residues in honey. Journal of Food Protection 49(6):436-441.

Ruegg M and Blanc B. 1981 The Water Activity of Honey and Related Sugar Solutions. Lebensmittel-Wissenschaft und Technologie 14:1-6.

Ruiz-Argueso T and Rodriguez-Navarro A. 1973 Gluconic Acid-producing Bacteria from Honey Bees and Ripening Honey. Journal of General Microbiology 76:211-216.

Russell KM, Molan PC, Wilkins AL and Holland PT. 1990 Identification of some antibacterial constituents of New Zealand manuka honey. Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry 38:10-13.

Salem SN. 1981 Honey Regimen in Gastrointestinal Disorders. Bulletin of Islamic Medicine 1:358-362.

Scheller S, Szaflarski J, et al. 1977 Biological and Clinical Application of Propolis I. Some physicochemical properties of propolis. Drug Research 27(1):889-890.

Scheller S, Ilewicz L, et al. 1978 Biological Properties and Clinical Applications of Propolis IX. Experimental observations on the influence of ethanol extract of propolis (EEP) on dental pulp regeneration." Drug Research 28(I):289-291.

Schepartz AI and Subers MH. 1966 Catalase in honey. Journal of Apicultural Research 5:37-43.

Schepartz AI. 1966 Honey catalase: occurrence and some kinetic properties. Journal of Apicultural Research 5:167-176.

Sheikh D, Shams-Uz-Zaman, et al. 1995 Studies on the Antimicrobial Activity of Honey. Pakistan Journal of Medicine 8(1):51-62.

Simuth J, Trnovsky J, et al. 1986 Inhibition of Bacterial DNA-Dependent RNA Polymerases and Restriction Endonuclease b UV-Absorbing Components from Propolis. Pharmazie 41:131-132.

Smith LB and Johnson JA. 1951 The use of honey in bread products. Bakers Digest 25(6):103-106.

Smith LB and Johnson JA. 1952 The use of honey in cake and sweet dough. Bakers Digest 26(6):113-118.

Smith LB and Johnson JA. 1953 Honey- it's value and use in popular cookies. Bakers Digest 27(2):29-31.

Somerfield SD. 1991 Honey and Healing. Journal of the Royal Society of Medicine 84:179.

Steinberg D, Kaine G, et al. 1996 Antibacterial effect of propolis and honey on oral bacteria. American Journal of Dentistry 9(6):236-239.

Steyn DG. 1973 Honey. Molecular structure and function of food carbohydrates. London, Applied Sicence Publishers. pp81-106.

Stinson EE, Subers MH, Petty J and White JW. 1960 The composition of honey. V. Separation and identification of the organic acids. Archives of Biochemistry and Biophysics 89:6-12.

Stojko A, Scheller S, et al. 1978 Biological Properties and Clinical Applications of Propolis VIII. Experimental observation on the influence of ethanol extract of propolis (EEP) on the regeneration of bone tissue. Drug Research 28:35-37.

Stomfay-Stitz J and Kominos SD. (1960). "Uber bakteriostatische Wirkung des Honigs." Zeitschrift für Lebensmittel-Untersuchung und-Forschung 113:304-309.

Subrahmanyam M. 1991 Topical application of honey in treatment of burns. British Journal of Surgery 78:407-498.

Subrahmanyam M. 1993a Honey impregnated gauze versus polyurethane film (opSite^R) in the treatment of burns - a prospective randomised study. British Journal of Plastic Surgery 46:322-323.

Subrahmanyam M. 1993b Storage of skin grafts in honey. The Lancet 341:63-64.

Takaisi-Kikuni NB and Schilcher H. 1994 Electron Microscopic and Microcalorimetric Investigations of the Possible Mechanism of the Antibacterial Action of a Defined Propolis Provenance. Planta Med. 60:222-227.

Temnov VA. 1944 Bactericidal properties of honey and utilisation of honey and other bee keeping products for the healing of wounds. Bee World 25:86-87.

Thomas DE, Brotherhood JR, et al. 1991 Carbohydrate Feeding before Exercise: Effect of Glycemic Index. International Journal of Sports Medicine 12:180-186.

Tomlinson JT and Wiliams SC. 1985 Antibiotic Properties of Honey Produced by the Domestic Bee *Apis mellifera* (Hymenoptera: Apidae). Pan-Pacific Entomologist 61(4):346-347.

Toth G, Lemberkovics E and Kutasi-Szabo J. 1987 The volatile components of some Hungarian honeys ant their antimicrobial effects. American Bee Journal 127:496-497.

Troller JA and Christian JHB. 1978 Water Activity and Food. New York, Academic Press.

Tuley L. 1989 Don't Forget the Honey. Food Manufacture 64(9):23-24.

Turkot VA, Eskew RK, et al. 1960 A Continuous Process for Dehydrating Honey. Food Technology:387-390.

Turner FJ. 1983 Hydrogen Peroxide and Other Oxidant Disinfectants. Disinfection, Sterilization, and Preservation. S. S. Block. Philadelphia, Lea & Febiger.

Verge J. 1951 L'activite antibacterienne de la propolis du miel et la gelee royale. Apiculteur 95(6):13-20.

Warnecke B and Duisberg H. 1964 Erhaltung der Honiginhibine durch Ausschaltung des UV-Lichtes. Zeitschrift fur Lebensmitteeluntersuchung und-Forschung 124:265-270.

Wellford TET, Eadie T, et al. 1978 Evaluating the Inhibitory Action of Honey on Fungal Growth, Sporulation, and Aflotoxin Production. Zeitschrift fur Lebewnsmittel-Untersuschung und-Forschung 166:280-283.

White JW, Subers MH, et al. 1962 The identification of Inhibine. American Bee Journal 102(11):430-431.

White JW and Subers MH. 1963 Studies on Honey Inhibine. 2. A chemical assay. Journal of Apicultural Research 2:93.

White JW, Subers MH and Schepartz AI. 1963 The identification of inhibine, the antibacterial factor in honey, as hydrogen peroxide and its origin in a honey glucose oxidase system. Biochimica et Biophysica Acta 73:57-70.

White JW and Subers MH. 1964 Studies on Honey Inhibine. 3. Effect of Heat. Journal of Apicultural Research 3(1):45-50.

White JW and Subers MH. 1964 Studies on honey inhibine 4. Destruction of the peroxide accumulation system by light. Journal of Food Science 29(6):819-828.

White JW. 1966 Inhibine and glucose-oxidase in honey - A review. American Bee Journal 106(6):214-216.

White JW and Underwood JC. 1974 Maple syrup and honey. Symposium: Sweeteners. G. E. Inglett. Westport, The AVI Publishing Company. pp111-130.

White JW. 1975 Honey. The Hive and the Honey Bee. DA and Sons. Hamilton, Dadant & Sons.

White J WJ. 1975 Composition of Honey. Honey, A Comprehensive Survey. E. Crane. London, Heineman. pp157-206.

White JW. 1981 Natural honey toxicants. Bee World 62(1):23-28.

White JW. 1992 Honey. The Hive and the Honey Bee. JM Graham. Hamilton, Dadant & Sons. pp867-925.

Willix DJ, Molan PC and Harfoot CG. 1992 A comparison of the sensitivity of wound-infecting species of bacteria to the antibacterial activity of manuka honey and other honey. Journal of Applied Bacteriology 73:388-394.

Wilson RB and Crane E. 1976 Uses and Products of Honey. Honey a Comprehensive survey. E. Crane. London, Heinemann.

Wood B, Rademaker M., et al. 1997 Manuka honey, a low cost leg ulcer dressing. New Zealand Medical Journal 110(1040):107.

Wootton M, Edwards RA and Rowse A. 1978 Antibacterial properties of some Australian honeys. Food Technology in Australia:175-176.

Yakobson BA. 1996 The monitoring of possible biological and chemical contaminents in bee products. Bee Products; Properties, Applications and Apitherapy, Tel Aviv, Israel, Plenum Press.

Yoirish N. 1977 Curative Properties of Honey and Bee Venom. San Fransisco, New Glide Publication.

Zumla A and Lulat A. 1989 Honey: A remedy rediscovered. Journal of the Royal Society of Medicine 82:384-385.

The Use of Australian Honey in Moist Wound Management

RIRDC Pub. No. 05/159

This RIRDC report investigates the correlation between antimicrobial activity and the non-peroxide activity of particular *Leptospermum*-derived honeys.

Initial investigations tested the efficacy of these honeys against one particular bacteria (*Staphylococcus aureus*), while later studies assessed the effect of this honey on a range of food pathogens, animal pathogens (e.g. in mastitis) and human pathogens (e.g. golden Staph).

Using honeys sourced from around Australia and screened against several reference microorganisms, the anti-microbial potency of one particular Australian honey (from *Leptospermum polygalifolium*) was shown to be comparable to NZ Manuka honey (from *L.scoparium*). The results of this screening of active honeys against pathogenic bacteria has supported the registration of honey by Capilano Honey Limited as a "Drug" with the Therapeutic Good Administration based on its antimicrobial activity.

The Rural Industries Research and Development Corporation (RIRDC) manages and funds priority research and translates results into practical outcomes for industry.

Our business is about developing a more profitable, dynamic and sustainable rural sector. Most of the information we produce can be downloaded for free from our website: www.rirdc.gov.au.

RIRDC books can be purchased by phoning 1300 634 313 or online at: www.rirdc.gov.au.



Contact RIRDC: Level 2 15 National Circuit Barton ACT 2600

PO Box 4776 Kingston ACT 2604

Ph: 02 6271 4100 Fax: 02 6271 4199 Email: rirdc@rirdc.gov.au web: www.rirdc.gov.au Bookshop: 1300 634 313

This publication can be viewed, downloaded and purchased from our website:

www.rirdc.gov.au/eshop