

REVIEW

Impact of dietary polyphenols on human platelet function – A critical review of controlled dietary intervention studies

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Cardiovascular disease is a chronic disease influenced by many factors, with activated blood platelets being one of them. Platelets play a central role in the formation of plaques within blood vessels, contributing to early inflammatory events. Consumption of diets rich in plant-based products protects against the development of cardiovascular disease. Polyphenols, which are secondary plant metabolites found in a wide range of foodstuffs and beverages, may be partially responsible for these effects. Their protective properties include inhibitory effects on platelet function *in vitro* and *in vivo*. However, the bioavailability of many polyphenols is poor and it is unclear whether sufficient quantities can be obtained by dietary means to exert protective effects. Consequently, this review summarizes 25 well-controlled human intervention studies examining the effect of polyphenol-rich diets on platelet function. These studies report a huge variety of research methods, study designs, and study subjects, resulting in controversial assertions. One consistent finding is that cocoa-related products, however, have platelet-inhibiting effects when consumed in moderate amounts. To assess whether other classes of dietary polyphenols, or their metabolites, also beneficially affect platelet function requires more well-controlled intervention studies as well as the adoption of more uniform methods to assess platelet aggregation and activation.

Received: April 14, 2009

Revised: June 5, 2009

Accepted: June 9, 2009



Keywords:

Cardiovascular disease / Critical review / Dietary polyphenols / Human intervention studies / Platelet function

1 Introduction

Cardiovascular disease (CVD) is a widespread human epidemic in industrialized countries [1]. In the US alone it accounts annually for 36% of all deaths, which is more than

the combined mortalities from cancer, chronic lower respiratory diseases, accidents, and diabetes mellitus. The estimated cost of CVD to the US economy in 2007 was 432 billion US dollars [2]. Similarly in Europe the annual 4.3 million deaths (equals 48% of all deaths) and associated health care ramifications from CVD cost the EU economy 192 billion Euros a year [3]. Moreover, the observed decline in CVD since the 1980s has slowed due to the increasing incidence of major risk factors like obesity and diabetes mellitus [2, 3].

CVD has a multi-factorial etiology and it has been recognized for a long time that platelet function is related to the risk of developing atherosclerosis [1], the principal cause of heart attack and stroke. Activated blood platelets play a central role as risk factors, comparable to hypertension or

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Abbreviations: ADP, adenosine diphosphate; CAD, coronary artery disease; CVD, cardiovascular disease; LTA, light transmission aggregometry; PFA-100, Platelet Function Analyzer-100; PRP, platelet-rich plasma; vWF, von Willebrand factor

diabetes [4], in this chronic inflammatory condition as they contribute to plaque formation within blood vessels in the early stages of atherogenesis. During this process, platelets become activated upon binding to collagen and von Willebrand factor (vWF) multimers, which are secreted in response to inflammatory stimuli from damaged endothelial cells [5]. Collagen and vWF bind to receptors (glycoprotein VI and integrin $\alpha_2\beta_1$, and the receptor complex glycoprotein Ib/IX/V, respectively) on the platelet surface [6]. The activated platelets then secrete a range of adhesion molecules, such as P-selectin and CD40 ligand, and bind fibrinogen from plasma. Additionally they synthesize and secrete agonists such as adenosine diphosphate (ADP) and thromboxane A_2 , which also induce platelet aggregation and thus amplify and maintain the initial platelet response [6]. Activated platelets further intensify atherogenesis by contributing to recruitment and binding of leukocytes [5].

Despite extensive research on the pathways involved in platelet activation, understanding their functional role in the development of atherosclerosis and CVD in humans remains problematic [1, 5, 7]. This is in part due to the lack of a specific clinical test to evaluate the complex network of signaling pathways involved in platelet function and atherosclerosis [8]. Furthermore, mechanistic studies using animal models are often difficult to interpret as non-human platelets not only differ in morphology and numbers from human ones, but also vary in their responses to agonists and in the expression of platelet surface receptors [9–12].

Consumption of diets rich in plant-based products protects against the development of CVD. Such effects have been ascribed in part to non-nutritive but potentially bioactive secondary metabolites in fruits, vegetables, herbs, spices, teas, and wines. For example, simple phenolic compounds (hydroxybenzoic acid and hydroxycinnamic acid derivatives) (Fig. 1A) and polyphenolic flavonoids (Fig. 1B) are ubiquitous in plant-based foods (Table 1). Many have numerous potential anti-atherogenic properties including the modification of lipid profiles, vasodilatory effects and the ability to prevent the oxidation of low-density lipoproteins [13]. Some dietary phenolic compounds also affect platelet aggregation and function *in vitro* and *in vivo* after consumption of supplements [14–17]. However, whether such effects can be achieved from diet alone will depend on the amount of the phenolic compounds in foods and their subsequent bioavailability. Consequently, the aim of this review is to critically evaluate controlled human intervention trials in order to assess whether intake of polyphenol-rich diets or extracts impacts on platelet function. The main food sources, sub-classes of polyphenols, and nutritional relevance of polyphenol-rich diets are discussed.

2 Materials and methods

We searched PubMed, Scopus and Ovid MEDLINE[®] for human intervention studies where polyphenol-rich diets or

supplements were provided and their influence on platelet activation and function was examined. The last search was performed on April 7, 2009. The used search term is included as Supporting Information.

2.1 Exclusion criteria

With the search term cited in Supporting Information a total of 2576 English-written references were obtained (Fig. 2). The search was then restricted to articles that had been published from 1980 onward, resulting in 2362 publications. As only original research articles were used for this review, all reviews, notes, and conference papers were excluded and the number of references was decreased further to 2091. We excluded all studies that were not performed within humans or human platelets and obtained 1153 articles that still matched our criteria. The next step was to exclude all trials examining compounds and supplements that were not derived from a diet or that did not have any dietary background, resulting in 136 remaining publications. Studies that did not discuss measurements related to platelet activation and function were also excluded. Of the remaining 115 references, 70 abstracts were excluded, as they did not describe an intervention trial. Finally, we excluded all studies that did not use valid controls, ending up with 25 controlled human intervention trials (Fig. 2).

2.2 Data evaluation

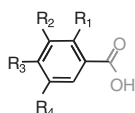
A meta-analytical approach was not possible due to a paucity of randomized controlled trials (rather than non-randomized trials) and a lack of uniformity in pre- and post-treatment outcome measures between studies. Consequently observational assessment was made of the 25 studies which survived the original systematically applied exclusion criteria (Table 2).

3 Results

Controlled intervention studies were categorized based on class of polyphenol (phenolic acids or flavonoids) and their relevant food sources: chocolate and cocoa products, grape seed extract, quercetin-rich diets/supplements, a soy protein supplement, black tea, wine and Armagnac, berries, purple grape juice, and sea buckthorn juice. Table 2 summarizes an overview of all studies including design, intervention compounds and food matrices, doses, parameters of the study populations, duration of intervention, platelet function tests, and outcomes. This summary of 25 intervention studies reveals a wide range between studies in polyphenol intake (18.6 mg to 2.20 g/day), study population (healthy, increased risk factors, and/or clinical disease), study size

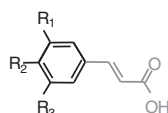
A Phenolic acids

1 Hydroxybenzoic acids



Hydroxybenzoic acid derivatives	R ₁	R ₂	R ₃	R ₄
Salicylic acid	OH	H	H	H
<i>p</i> -Hydroxybenzoic acid	H	H	OH	H
Protocatechuic acid	H	OH	OH	H
Gentisic acid	OH	H	H	OH
Gallic acid	H	OH	OH	OH
Vanillic acid	H	MeO	OH	H
Syringic acid	H	MeO	OH	MeO

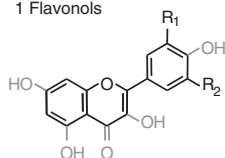
2 Hydroxycinnamic acids



Hydroxycinnamic acid derivatives	R ₁	R ₂	R ₃
<i>p</i> -Coumaric acid	H	OH	H
Caffeic acid	OH	OH	H
Ferulic acid	MeO	OH	H
Sinapic acid	MeO	OH	MeO

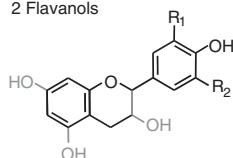
B Flavonoids

1 Flavonols



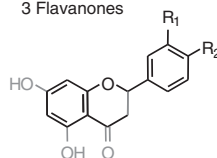
Flavonols	R ₁	R ₂
Kaempferol	H	H
Quercetin	OH	H
Myricetin	OH	OH

2 Flavonols



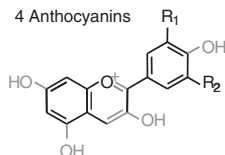
Flavanols	R ₁	R ₂
(+)-Catechin/ (-)-Epicatechin	OH	H
Gallocatechin/ Epigallocatechin	OH	OH

3 Flavones



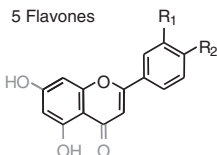
Flavones	R ₁	R ₂
Naringenin	H	OH
Hesperetin	OH	MeO
Eriodictyol	OH	OH

4 Anthocyanins



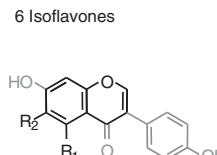
Anthocyanins	R ₁	R ₂
Pelargonidin	H	H
Peonidin	MeO	H
Malvidin	MeO	MeO
Cyanidin	OH	H
Petunidin	MeO	OH
Delphinidin	OH	OH

5 Flavones



Flavones	R ₁	R ₂
Chrysin	H	H
Apigenin	H	OH
Luteolin	OH	OH

6 Isoflavones



Isoflavones	R ₁	R ₂
Daidzein	H	H
Genistein	OH	H
Glycitein	H	MeO

Figure 1. Chemical structures of the two classes of phenolic acids (A), and of the various classes of flavonoids (B), and their respective compounds.

(between 6 and 1535 subjects), and length of supplementation (acute intake for 1 day to chronic intake for over 90 days).

3.1 Cocoa studies and flavanols

Dietary flavanols, mainly found in cocoa and grape seed extract, are the compounds most frequently tested in the studies included in this review. Ten studies [18–27] focused on the *in vivo* effects of food sources containing (–)-epicatechin and (+)-catechin, as well as procyanidin oligomers and polymers. Of these studies, five measured platelet function using the platelet function analyzer (PFA-100) [18,

24–27], allowing a straightforward comparison of the results obtained. This device tests shear stress-induced platelet aggregation by measuring the time taken by aggregating platelets to occlude a collagen-epinephrine or a collagen-ADP coated membrane (closure time). Data from these five studies show evidence of a dose-response relationship up to 900 mg flavanol intake (maximum daily dose tested), although linearity is not evident from the data available. We calculated that acute intake of flavanols led to approximately 3–11% inhibition of collagen-epinephrine-induced closure time *per* 100 mg flavanols consumed, 2–6 h after ingestion, and also to approximately 11% inhibition of collagen-ADP-induced closure time (Table 2). Conversely, chronic intake of flavanols led to inhibition of collagen-ADP-induced

Table 1. Main dietary sources of phenolic acids and flavonoids

Class of polyphenols	Main dietary sources	References
Phenolic acids		
Hydroxybenzoic acid derivatives	Berries (blackberries, blackcurrants, raspberries, redcurrants, strawberries, white currants), black and green tea, condiments/herbs	[52, 56]
Hydroxycinnamic acid derivatives	Blueberries, coffee, kiwi fruits, cherries, plums, aubergines, apples, pears, chicory, cider, spinach, cereal brans, broccoli, kale	[52, 57]
Flavonoids		
Flavonols	Broccoli, curly kale, yellow onions, leek, capers, parsley, lovage, beans, cherry tomatoes, blueberries, blackcurrants, black and green tea, apples, apricots	[29, 52, 58]
Flavanols and proanthocyanidins	Black and green tea, cocoa, dark chocolate, cinnamon, red wine, cider, sorghum, beans, nuts, chokeberries, apricots, plums, peaches, cherries, grapes, cranberries, blueberries, blackberries, blackcurrants, apples	[28, 29, 31, 52, 59, 60]
Flavones	Parsley, celery, sweet pepper	[29, 52, 58]
Isoflavones	Soy (soy flour, soy milk, soy bean, tofu, miso, tempeh), black beans, red clover	[52, 61–63]
Flavanones	Citrus fruits and their juices (orange, grapefruit, lemon, lime, mandarin)	[29, 52, 64]

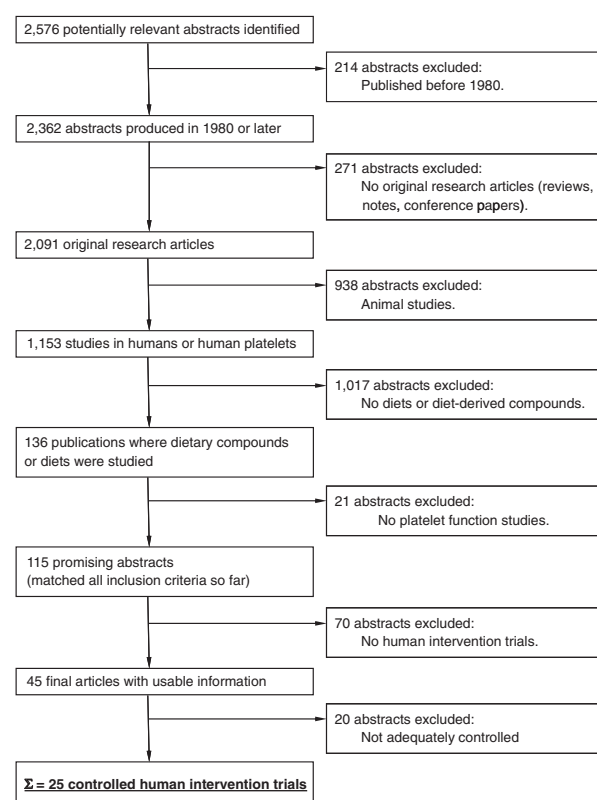
closure time of 3–11% *per* 100 mg flavanols consumed daily, but did not affect the collagen-epinephrine-induced closure time (Fig. 3). Such effects may be nutritionally relevant as 100 mg flavanols can be obtained from 11 g dark chocolate with a cocoa content 70% w/w [28, 29], from 52 g milk chocolate [28–31], or from 50 to 100 mL cocoa drink containing 8% w/v pure cocoa [27–29]. Five other studies also found a significant inhibition of platelet aggregation and activation upon acute or chronic intake of dietary flavanols from cocoa [19–23] using alternative methodologies, namely the Impact Cone and Plate(let) Analyzer, light transmission aggregometry (LTA) in platelet-rich plasma (PRP), or whole blood platelet aggregation by impedance or platelet counting.

3.2 Flavonols and isoflavones

Four studies examined the effects of quercetin-rich foods and supplements on platelet function in healthy subjects [32–35]. Only one of these [34] observed a significant inhibition (21–65%) of platelet aggregation upon acute intake of 150 mg of quercetin-4'-O- β -D-glucoside, which is equivalent to the consumption of 400–700 g of raw yellow onions [29, 30]. Only one study examined the effects of isoflavones on platelet aggregation [36]. In this study consumption of a soy protein isolate beverage powder rich in genistein, daidzein, and glycitein did not affect LTA in PRP of healthy volunteers.

3.3 Polyphenol-rich beverages – studies using black tea, coffee, and alcoholic beverages

We found seven controlled studies testing black tea [37–39], coffee [40], Armagnac [41], or wines [42, 43] for their potential effects on platelet aggregation. Consumption of one liter of black tea rich in gallic acid, flavanols, tannins, theaflavins,

**Figure 2.** Organization of the literature search.

and thearubigins *per* day inhibited platelet activation by 4–10% [39]. In this study platelet activation was measured by the very sensitive technique of flow cytometry scanning for circulating leukocyte–platelet aggregates [44]. Two other studies on tea consumption did not find significant effects on platelet function [37, 38]. Acute intake of a strong cup of coffee, mainly containing chlorogenic acid as a phenolic compound, also had significant anti-aggregatory effects [40].

Table 2. Overview of controlled human intervention studies examining the effect of polyphenol-rich diets or supplementations on platelet aggregation and function, categorized according to the groups of dietary polyphenols

Study design	Compound and Food matrix	Dose per day (compound)	Study population	Duration of study	Tests	% Change compared with baseline ^{a)}		Reference		
						Control	Intervention			
Controlled, randomized, double blind	Flavanols Cocoa beverage	446.4 mg 240 mL	32 mildly hypercholesterolemic postmenopausal women 57.7 ± 2.2 years	8-wk chronic intake	PFA-100 – closure time^{b)} Collagen-ADP induced Collagen-epinephrine induced Soluble P-selectin^{b)} Soluble E-selectin^{b)} Soluble intercellular adhesion molecule 1 (ICAM-1)^{b)} Soluble vascular cell adhesion molecule 1 (VCAM-1)^{b)}	–	NS	13	[27]	
							NS	–	NS	
							NS	14	NS	
							NS	–7	NS	
Controlled, randomized, no baseline values	Flavonoids Chocolate/cocoa	~82 mg ^{c)} 5.9 g cocoa	1535 healthy males and females with increased risk for CVD 43 ± 13 years	1-day casual intake	PFA-100 – closure time Collagen-epinephrine induced Urinary 11-dehydro thromboxane B₂ Plasma fibrinogen	–	NS	–	[18]	
						–	NS	–	0.03	
						–	NS	–	NS	
Controlled	Flavanols (total epicatechin and procyanidins)	897.0 mg	30 healthy females and males and 24–50 years	1-day acute intake	PFA-100 – closure time^{b)} Collagen-ADP induced After 2 h After 6 h	1	0.00	16	[25]	
						6	0.00	13	NS	
Controlled, randomized, double blind, no baseline values	Cocoa beverage	300 mL	23 healthy male smokers 23 ± 2 years	1-day acute intake	Collagen-epinephrine induced After 2 h After 6 h Platelet surface P-selectin^{b)} Without stimulation Agonist 1: 20 µmol/L ADP 100 µmol/L ADP Agonist 2: 20 µmol/L epinephrine Activated glycoprotein IIb-IIIa^{b)} Without stimulation Agonist 1: 20 µmol/L ADP 100 µmol/L ADP Agonist 2: 20 µmol/L epinephrine Platelet microparticles^{b)} PFA-100 – closure time Collagen-ADP induced After 1 h After 2 h After 6 h Collagen-epinephrine induced After 1 h After 2 h After 6 h	9	NS	8	0.00	
						10	NS	31	0.00	
						10	NS	–56	0.05	
						–3	NS	–19	0.01	
						7	NS	–25	0.03	
						37	NS	–11	NS	
						–10	NS	–67	0.04	
						–3	NS	–34	0.00	
						0	NS	–25	NS	
						42	NS	–66	0.01	
Controlled, randomized, double blind, no baseline values	Flavanols: Monomers Dimers and trimers Total flavanols Flavanol-rich grape seed extract	70.0 mg 60.0 mg 130.0 mg 400 mg	23 healthy male smokers 23 ± 2 years	1-day acute intake	PFA-100 – closure time Collagen-ADP induced After 1 h After 2 h After 6 h Collagen-epinephrine induced After 1 h After 2 h After 6 h	50	0.01	–68	0.00	[24]
						4	NS	14	0.01	
						6	NS	13	0.03	
						0	NS	16	0.00	
9	NS	8	NS	NS						
9	NS	15	NS	0.03						
6	NS	10	NS	NS						

Table 2. Continued

Study design	Compound and Food matrix	Dose per day (compound)	Study population	Duration of study	Tests	% Change compared with baseline ^{a)}		Reference
						Control	Intervention	
Controlled, randomized, double blind, no baseline values	Flavanols: Monomers Dimmers and trimers Total flavanols	70.0 mg	17 healthy, postmenopausal women 56 ± 1.5 years	8-wk chronic intake	PFA-100 – closure time Collagen-ADP induced 1 h after intake on 1st day 2 h after intake on 1st day 6 h after intake on 1st day on 56th day of trial	3	8	[26]
		60.0 mg 130.0 mg Data taken from (23)				1	24	
Controlled, randomized, double blind	Grape seed extract Catechin Epicatechin Total polyphenols	400 mg	22 male and female heart transplant recipients 52 ± 15 years	1-day acute intake	Collagen-epinephrine induced Shear stress-dependent platelet function by Impact Cone and Platelet Analyzer^{b)} (% of surface covered by platelets) Shear stress-dependent platelet function by Impact Cone and Platelet Analyzer^{b)} (% of surface covered by platelets)	–	–	[19]
		10.8 mg 36.0 mg 624.0 mg				–7	–22	
Controlled, randomized	Dark chocolate Catechin Epicatechin Total polyphenols	40 g	20 healthy male smokers Age range not given	1-day acute intake	Shear stress-dependent platelet function by Impact Cone and Platelet Analyzer^{b)} (size of platelet aggregates in arbitrary units) Shear stress-dependent platelet function^{b)} (% of surface covered by platelets)	1	–3	[21]
		10.8 mg 36.0 mg 624.0 mg				–	–36	
Controlled, randomized, single blind, few data	Dark chocolate Flavonoids Milk chocolate (20% cocoa)	40 g ~192–279 mg ^{c)}	30 healthy males and females 20–58 years	1-day acute intake	LTA in PRP^{b)} Agonist 1: 2.0 µmol/L ADP 1.0 µmol/L ADP 0.5 µmol/L ADP Agonist 2: 2.0 mg/L collagen → aggregation → slope 1.0 mg/L collagen → aggregation → slope 0.5 mg/L collagen → aggregation → slope	–	–	[22]
		100 g				–	–	
Controlled, randomized, double blind	Flavonoids Dark chocolate (75% cocoa)	~379–1045 mg	32 healthy males and females 44 ± 7 years	4-wk chronic intake	LTA in PRP^{b)} Agonist 1: 2.0 µmol/L ADP 1.0 µmol/L ADP 0.5 µmol/L ADP Agonist 2: 2.0 mg/L collagen → aggregation → slope 1.0 mg/L collagen → aggregation → slope 0.5 mg/L collagen → aggregation → slope Platelet aggregation in whole blood^{b)} Agonist 1: 1.0 mmol/L arachidonic acid Agonist 2: 8.0 µmol/L ADP Agonist 3: 2.0 mg/L collagen	–	–	[23]
		100 g				–	–	
Controlled, randomized, double blind	Flavanols and procyanidins Cocoa tablets	234 mg	32 healthy males and females 44 ± 7 years	4-wk chronic intake	Platelet aggregation in whole blood^{b)} Agonist 1: 1.0 mmol/L arachidonic acid Agonist 2: 8.0 µmol/L ADP Agonist 3: 2.0 mg/L collagen	–	–	[23]
		6 tablets				0	–29	
						–8	–17	0.05

Table 2. Continued

Study design	Compound and Food matrix	Dose per day (compound)	Study population	Duration of study	Tests	% Change compared with baseline ^{a)}		Reference	
						Control	Intervention		P
Controlled, randomized, double blind	Flavanols: (–)-epicatechin, (+)-catechin, procyanidin oligomers up to decamers Cocoa beverage	380.0 mg 300 mL	12 healthy males and females 23–50 years	1-day acute intake	ATP release of platelets^{b)}				
					Agonist 2: 8.0 μmol/L ADP	–14	NS	–4	NS
					Agonist 3: 2.0 mg/L collagen	–20	NS	–11	0.01
					Platelet surface P-selectin^{b)}				
					Agonist 2: 3.0 μmol/L ADP	–3	NS	–8	0.01
					10.0 μmol/LADP	–3	NS	–3	NS
					Mean platelet count^{b)}	5	NS	–3	NS
					Mean platelet volume^{b)}	1	NS	–1	NS
					Platelet aggregation in whole blood^{d)}				
					Agonist: 0.125 mg/L collagen	–14 to –23	NS	–12 to –20	NS
					0.250 mg/L collagen	2 to –15	NS	–15 to –17	NS
					0.500 mg/L collagen	–2 to –5	NS	–1 to –3	NS
					Platelet-monocyte conjugates^{d)}				
Agonist: 0.125 mg/L collagen	–4 to –8	NS	0 to –14	NS					
0.250 mg/L collagen	34 to 20	NS	36 to 14	0.02					
0.500 mg/L collagen	15 to 4	NS	24 to 16	NS					
Platelet-neutrophil conjugates^{d)}									
Agonist: 0.125 mg/L collagen	–6 to –20	NS	–7 to –12	NS					
0.250 mg/L collagen	17 to –13	NS	–6 to –12	NS					
0.500 mg/L collagen	25 to 2	NS	8 to –5	NS					
Platelet activation^{d)}									
P-selectin on monocytes^{d)}									
Agonist: 0.125 mg/L collagen	0 to –17	NS	–13 to –15	NS					
0.250 mg/L collagen	10 to –6	NS	–6 to –8	NS					
0.500 mg/L collagen	–10 to –19	0.02	–9 to –10	NS					
P-selectin on neutrophils^{d)}									
Agonist: 0.125 mg/L collagen	–8 to –22	NS	–9 to –16	0.04					
0.250 mg/L collagen	11 to –15	NS	–11 to –19	0.03					
0.500 mg/L collagen	–8 to –21	0.01	–5 to –15	0.04					
Platelet aggregation in whole blood^{d)}									
Agonist: 0.125 mg/L collagen	–14 to –23	NS	–25 to –30	0.03					
0.250 mg/L collagen	2 to –15	NS	–12 to –14	NS					
0.500 mg/L collagen	–2 to –5	NS	–3 to –7	NS					
Platelet-monocyte conjugates^{d)}									
Agonist: 0.125 mg/L collagen	–4 to –8	NS	–22 to –39	0.04					
0.250 mg/L collagen	34 to 20	NS	0 to –11	NS					
0.500 mg/L collagen	15 to 4	NS	36 to 17	0.05					

Table 2. Continued

Study design	Compound and Food matrix	Dose per day (compound)	Study population	Duration of study	Tests	% Change compared with baseline ^{a)}		Reference	
						Control	Intervention		
		Amount per day (food matrix)				P	P		
					Platelet-neutrophil conjugates^{d)}				
					Agonist:				
					0.125 mg/L collagen	-6 to -20	NS	-19 to -28	0.03
					0.250 mg/L collagen	17 to -13	NS	-11 to -24	0.03
					0.500 mg/L collagen	25 to 2	NS	2 to -6	NS
					Platelet activation^{e)}				
					P-selectin on monocytes^{d)}				
					Agonist:				
					0.125 mg/L collagen	0 to -17	NS	-33 to -37	0.01
					0.250 mg/L collagen	10 to -6	NS	-20 to -28	0.02
					0.500 mg/L collagen	-10 to -19	0.02	-7 to -15	0.01
					P-selectin on neutrophils^{d)}				
					Agonist:				
					0.125 mg/L collagen	-8 to -22	NS	-31 to -36	0.01
					0.250 mg/L collagen	11 to -15	NS	-22 to -31	0.02
					0.500 mg/L collagen	-8 to -21	0.01	-15 to -20	0.02
		980.0 mg			Platelet aggregation in whole blood^{d)}				
					Agonist:				
					0.125 mg/L collagen	-14 to -23	NS	-11 to -20	0.01
					0.250 mg/L collagen	2 to -15	NS	1 to -12	NS
					0.500 mg/L collagen	-2 to -5	NS	0 to -1	NS
		300 mL			Platelet-monocyte conjugates^{d)}				
					Agonist:				
					0.125 mg/L collagen	-4 to -8	NS	-16 to -41	0.00
					0.250 mg/L collagen	34 to 20	NS	34 to 14	0.05
					0.500 mg/L collagen	15 to 4	NS	26 to 6	0.02
					Platelet-neutrophil conjugates^{d)}				
					Agonist:				
					0.125 mg/L collagen	-6 to -20	NS	-19 to -21	0.01
					0.250 mg/L collagen	17 to -13	NS	4 to -4	NS
					0.500 mg/L collagen	25 to 2	NS	15 to -3	NS
					Platelet activation^{e)}				
					P-selectin on monocytes^{d)}				
					Agonist:				
					0.125 mg/L collagen	0 to -17	NS	-23 to -31	0.03
					0.250 mg/L collagen	10 to -6	NS	-1 to -7	NS
					0.500 mg/L collagen	-10 to -19	0.02	-3 to -15	NS
					P-selectin on neutrophils^{d)}				
					Agonist:				
					0.125 mg/L collagen	-8 to -22	NS	-16 to -23	0.01
					0.250 mg/L collagen	11 to -15	NS	-7 to -9	NS
					0.500 mg/L collagen	-8 to -21	0.01	-1 to -9	NS

Table 2. Continued

Study design	Compound and Food matrix	Dose per day (compound)	Study population	Duration of study	Tests	% Change compared with baseline ^{a)}		Reference
						Control	Intervention	
		Amount per day (food matrix)				P	P	
					Syk tyrosine phosphorylation			
					After 30 min	NS	-27	0.05
					After 120 min	NS	-45	0.05
					PLCγ2 tyrosine phosphorylation			
					After 30 min	NS	4	NS
					After 120 min	NS	-42	0.05
					Whole platelet protein tyrosine phosphorylation			
					After 30 min	NS	-12	0.00
					After 120 min	NS	-60	0.00
		300.0 mg			LTA in washed platelets			
	Quercetin				Agonist:			
					0.5 mg/L collagen	NS	-44	0.00
		Data not given			After 30 min	NS	-53	0.00
					After 120 min	NS	-27	NS
					1.0 mg/L collagen, after 120 min	NS	-24	NS
					2.0 mg/L collagen, after 120 min	NS	-11	NS
					3.0 mg/L collagen, after 120 min	NS	-9	NS
					4.0 mg/L collagen, after 120 min	NS	-14	NS
					5.0 mg/L collagen, after 120 min	NS	-14	NS
					Syk tyrosine phosphorylation			
					After 30 min	NS	-24	0.05
					After 120 min	NS	-40	0.05
					PLCγ2 tyrosine phosphorylation			
					After 30 min	NS	3	NS
					After 120 min	NS	-37	0.05
					Whole platelet protein tyrosine phosphorylation			
					After 30 min	NS	-9	0.00
					After 120 min	NS	-62	0.00
					LTA in PRP			[36]
	Flavonoids: isoflavones				Agonist 1:			
	Controlled,	80.3 mg	20 healthy	4-wk	1.5 mg/L collagen	NS	-	NS
	randomized,	35.6 mg	males	chronic	3.0 mg/L collagen	NS	-	NS
	no baseline	15.1 mg	25 \pm 1 years	intake	10.0 mg/L collagen	NS	-	NS
	values	131.0 mg			Agonist 2:			
					0.6 μ mol/L 9,11-dideoxy-11 α -	NS	-	NS
					9 α -epoxy-methanoprostaglandin F $_{2\alpha}$ (U46619)			
		60 g			1.0 μ mol/L U46619	NS	-	NS
					Platelet activation^{b)}			[39]
	Polyphenols: gallic acid, flavonols, and ellagitannins				Monocyte-platelet aggregates	NS	1	0.03
	Controlled,	67.2 mg	75 healthy	6-wk	Neutrophil-platelet aggregates	NS	-4	0.02
	randomized,	11.3 mg	males	chronic	Leukocyte-platelet aggregates	NS	-4	0.03
	double blind	78.5 mg	18–55 years	intake	Soluble P-selectin^{b)}	NS	2	NS
		1000 mL			Platelet count^{b)}	NS	8	NS
		(4 \times 250 mL)						

Table 2. Continued

Study design	Compound and Food matrix	Dose per day (compound)	Study population	Duration of study	Tests	% Change compared with baseline ^{a)}			Reference
						Control	Intervention	P	
Controlled, randomized	Polyphenols Black tea	1.465–2.257 g	22 healthy males and females 59 ± 2 years	12-wk chronic intake	LTA in PRP^{b)} Agonist 1: 2.0 µmol/L ADP 4.0 µmol/L ADP 8.0 µmol/L ADP Agonist 2: 0.2 mg/L collagen 0.6 mg/L collagen 2.0 mg/L collagen	36	45	NS	[38]
		1250 mL			Fibrinogen^{b)} 3	5	5	NS	
					Soluble P-selectin^{b)} 10	2	2	NS	
					Soluble E-selectin^{b)} 4	–1	–1	NS	
					Soluble ICAM-1^{b)} –1	3	3	NS	
					Soluble VCAM-1^{b)} 3	5	5	NS	
					LTA in PRP Agonist 1: 1.0 µmol/L ADP 2.5 µmol/L ADP 5.0 µmol/L ADP 10.0 µmol/LADP	–	–	NS	
					Agonist 2: 5.0 µmol/L Thombin receptor-activating peptide (TRAP) 10.0 µmol/L TRAP 20.0 µmol/L TRAP 50.0 µmol/L TRAP	–	–	NS	
						–	–	NS	
						–	–	NS	
Controlled, randomized	Gallic acid Epigallocatechin Epigallocatechin gallate Epicatechin Epicatechin gallate Total catechins Total theoflavins Total polyphenols Total flavonoids Black tea (fresh tea leaves)	62.1 mg	49 male and female patients with CAD, taking 325 mg/d aspirin 55 ± 9 years	1-day acute intake	LTA in PRP Agonist 1: 1.0 µmol/L ADP 2.5 µmol/L ADP 5.0 µmol/LADP	–	–	NS	[37]
		20.7 mg			Agonist 2: 5.0 µmol/L Thombin receptor-activating peptide (TRAP)	–	–	NS	
		43.2 mg			10.0 µmol/L TRAP	–	–	NS	
		19.8 mg			20.0 µmol/L TRAP	–	–	NS	
					50.0 µmol/L TRAP	–	–	NS	
						–	–	NS	
						–	–	NS	
						–	–	NS	
						–	–	NS	
						–	–	NS	
Controlled ²	Black tea (freeze-dried tea leaves) Polyphenols Caffeine Coffee	900 mL	10 healthy males and females	1-day acute intake	LTA in PRP Agonist 1: 2.0 µmol/L ADP after 60 min Agonist 2: 3.0 mg/L collagen After 30 min After 60 min	29	–15	NS	[40]
		70.8–352.6 mg				1	–2	NS	
		180 mg				0	–1	NS	
		200 ml (6% w/v)						0.05	

Table 2. Continued

Study design	Compound and Food matrix	Dose per day (compound)	Study population	Duration of study	Tests	% Change compared with baseline ^{a)}		Reference		
						Control	Intervention			
Controlled	Polyphenols	2.0 mmol gallic acid equivalents	40 healthy males and females	1-day acute intake	Platelet surface P-selectin after 6 h^{b)} Without stimulation Agonist 1: 20 µmol/L ADP 100 µmol/LADP Agonist 2: 20 µmol/L epinephrine	36	NS	NS	[42]	
	Dealcoholized red wine	300 mL	21–49 years		Activated glycoprotein IIb-IIIa after 6 h^{b)} Without stimulation Agonist 1: 20 µmol/L ADP 100 µmol/LADP Agonist 2: 20 µmol/L epinephrine	-5 -2	NS NS	4 10	NS NS	
Controlled, randomized, (investigator)-blind	Polyphenols Different berries (bilberries, lingonberry nectar, or blackcurrant and strawberry purée, chokeberry and raspberry juice)	837.0 mg	71 healthy males and females with increased risk for CVD	8-wk chronic intake	Platelet function (PFA-100) – closure time^{b)} Collagen-ADP induced Collagen-epinephrine induced Fibrinogen^{b)} Prothrombin fragment 1 + 2^{b)} Glycoprotein V^{b)} Soluble ICAM-1^{b)} Soluble P-selectin^{b)} CD40 ligand^{b)}	-1	NS	11	0.02	[46]
						~160 g (100 or 50 g or 100 g and 70 mL)	58 ± 6 years		3 -4 20 -7 -1 4 -18	NS NS NS NS NS NS NS
Controlled, randomized, double blind, no baseline values	Polyphenols Purple grape juice	~3.84–4.04 mg/kg body weight ^{c)} 7 mL/kg body weight	20 male and female patients with stable CAD on standard medication	2-wk chronic intake	LTA in washed platelets Agonist: 5 µmol/L ADP Plasma Thromboxane B₂ Soluble P-selectin Soluble CD40 ligand Platelet derived nitric oxide (NO) release Platelet superoxide release Platelet aggregation in whole blood	-	NS	-	NS	[47]
						354.6 mg	63 ± 9 years		-	NS
Controlled, double blind, no baseline values	Flavonoids Sea buckthorn juice	300 mL	20 healthy males	8-wk chronic intake	Agonist 1: 10 µmol/L ADP Agonist 2: 1.5 mg/L collagen 5.0 mg/L collagen Agonist 3: 0.75 mol/L arachidonic acid Soluble ICAM-1	-1	NS	-16	NS	[48]
						36 ± 2 years		-18 -5	NS NS	-35 -13

ICAM-1, intercellular adhesion molecule 1; NS, not significant; PLC γ 2, phospholipase C gamma 2; TRAP, thrombin receptor-activating peptide; U46619, 9,11-dideoxy-11 α -9 α -epoxy-methanoprostaglandin F₂ (thromboxane analogue); VCAM-1, vascular cell adhesion molecule 1; – ‘number’, significant decrease versus baseline; –, data not given.

a) Results show percentage changes compared with baseline within treatment groups.

b) Percentage change was calculated based on baseline and post-treatment values provided in the manuscript.

c) Data were estimations based on the literature and databases [28–31, 52, 56, 65–70].

d) Percentage change was calculated based on baseline and post-treatment values obtained by personal communication with the authors.

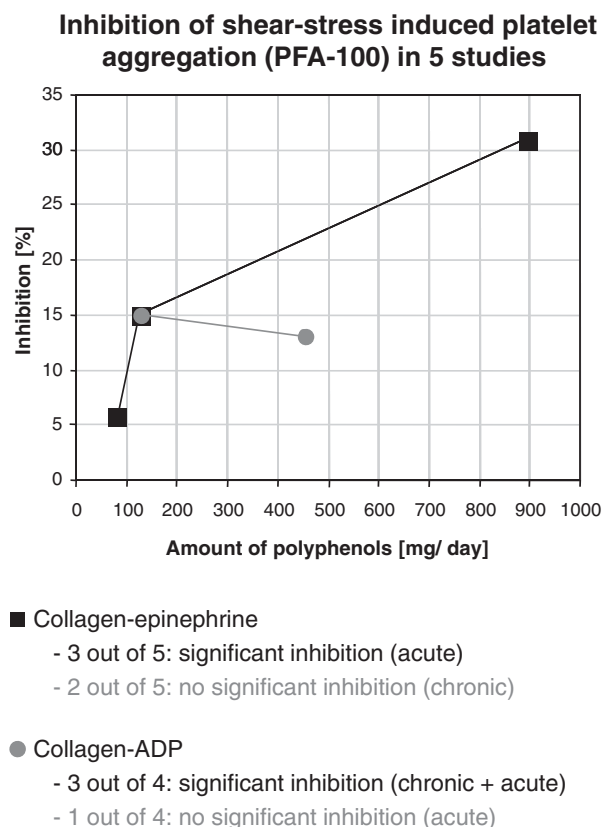


Figure 3. Overview of the inhibition of shear stress-induced platelet aggregation in healthy humans measured by the PFA-100 upon daily consumption of flavanols. The PFA-100 tests shear stress-induced platelet aggregation by measuring the time the aggregating platelets need to occlude a collagen-epinephrine-coated (black squares) or a collagen-ADP-coated (gray circles) membrane. The data were obtained from $n = 5$ studies where three were acute intake studies [18, 24, 25] and two were chronic intake studies [26, 27].

Furthermore, a daily intake of 30 mL of Armagnac, which is especially rich in ellagitannins, for 2 wk, inhibited platelet aggregation by 20–30% [41]. However, a study published by the same group 2 years later questions whether these effects are caused by the polyphenols present in Armagnac, as only polyphenol-free fractions of freeze-dried Armagnac extracts generated inhibition of platelet aggregation *ex vivo* [45]. Consumption of wine rich in proanthocyanidins, anthocyanins, and tannins has produced inconsistent effects on platelet function, showing inhibition of ADP-induced platelet aggregation [43], no effect on platelet aggregation [42], or even an increase in ADP-induced platelet aggregation by almost 10% [42].

3.4 Studies testing other phenolic-rich foods

Three studies assessed the effects of polyphenols from berries [46], purple grape juice [47], and sea buckthorn juice

[48] on platelet function. Only the daily consumption of an average amount of 160 g fresh berries and berry juices for 8 wk caused a significant inhibition of collagen-ADP-induced platelet aggregation in subjects with higher risk for CVD [46].

4 Discussion

This review of controlled human intervention studies assessing the impact of dietary polyphenols on human platelet function revealed a plethora of research methods and study designs. Findings were markedly inconsistent. Chronic intake of polyphenols from berries, or juices derived from berries, may result in only a relatively low inhibition of collagen-ADP-induced platelet aggregation under shear stress. Due to the inconsistency in data generated in well-controlled studies, it is currently not possible to conclude whether polyphenols from black tea, coffee and alcoholic beverages have beneficial effects on platelet function when consumed in nutritionally relevant quantities. However, cocoa-related products consistently showed inhibition of platelet activation and aggregation when consumed in moderate amounts, either on an acute basis, or on a chronic basis.

4.1 Heterogeneity of experimental approaches

4.1.1 Assessment of platelet function

The complexity of platelet interactions with their environment results in a wide variety of experimental approaches for measuring platelet function, as illustrated by the studies included in this review (Table 2). Various tests and agonists have been used to assess the effect of a dietary intervention on platelet activation and function (Table 3). All established methods for platelet function monitoring have been reviewed and their advantages and disadvantages discussed [8, 49, 50]. Many older methods are unreliable and not platelet-specific (*e.g.* bleeding time) or very labor-intensive and therefore expensive, like LTA. In addition, LTA is, albeit considered a gold standard method for testing platelet function, relatively non-physiological as platelets are taken out of their natural environment (*i.e.* blood) and are not undergoing high-shear conditions. Modern equipment that measures platelet function is expensive and therefore not widely used, although the use of the PFA-100 for human intervention trials appears to be increasing (Table 2). The PFA-100 method uses whole blood, and platelets will become activated under high shear force, thereby adhering to a membrane and occluding an aperture. Such processes mimic the conditions in small arteries within the human body. Although this test appears to simulate *in vivo* conditions more accurately, the outcome is dependent on vWF and hematocrit values.

Table 3. Methods, platelet agonists and antibodies used for platelet function assessment in controlled human intervention studies, including the involved pathways/receptors

Test/measurement	Pathways/receptors involved	Description	References
Primary, platelet-specific measurements			
LTA in PRP			
→ Agonists: 0.5 µmol/L–2.0 mmol/L ADP 0.2–10.0 mg/L collagen 500 mg/L arachidonic acid 5.0–50.0 µmol/L TRAP 0.3 U/L thrombin 750 mg/L adrenalin 0.6–1.0 µmol/L 9,11-dideoxy-11 α -9 α -epoxy-methanoprostaglandin F $_{2\alpha}$ (U46619)	P2Y $_1$, P2Y $_{12}$ ^{a)} $\alpha_2\beta_1$, GPVI ^{b)} COX → TxA $_2$ ^{c)} PAR1 → thrombin ^{d)} PAR1 → thrombin ^{d)} α_{2A} -adrenergic receptor Thromboxane receptor	Standard method to examine agonist induced platelet aggregation by measuring decreasing turbidity of PRP and therefore increasing light transmission.	[71–73]
LTA in washed platelets			
→ Agonists: 5.0 µmol/L ADP 0.5–5 mg/L collagen	P2Y $_1$, P2Y $_{12}$ ^{a)} $\alpha_2\beta_1$, GPVI ^{b)}	Similar to aggregation in PRP but platelets are isolated, washed and resuspended in a modified Tyrodes-Hepes buffer	[72, 74, 75]
Platelet aggregation in whole blood			
– by impedance			
→ Agonists: 8.0–10.0 µmol/L ADP 1.5–5.0 mg/L collagen 1 mmol/L–0.75 mol/L arachidonic acid	P2Y $_1$, P2Y $_{12}$ ^{a)} $\alpha_2\beta_1$, GPVI ^{b)} COX → TxA $_2$ ^{c)}	Measurement of increasing electrical impedance between electrodes upon agonist-induced platelet activation and accumulation on electrodes.	[72, 73]
– by platelet counting			
→ Agonist: 0.125–0.5 mg/L collagen	$\alpha_2\beta_1$, GPVI ^{b)}	Via immunoplatelet counting via flow cytometry	[76]
PFA-100			
→ Agonists: Collagen-ADP Collagen-epinephrine	GPIIb-vWF ^{e)} $\alpha_2\beta_1$, GPVI ^{b)} -P2Y $_1$, P2Y $_{12}$ ^{a)} $\alpha_2\beta_1$, GPVI ^{b)} – α_{2A} -adrenergic receptor	Simulates the <i>in vivo</i> hemostatic conditions during plug formation after injury to a small vessel wall. Measurement of the time needed for an agonist-coated membrane to occlude under high shear stress.	[72, 77, 78]
Shear stress-dependent platelet function (Impact Cone and Plate(let) Analyser)			
→ Platelet surface P-selectin		Arterial shear flow is mimicked by a cone rotating within a polystyrene well containing whole blood. Afterward the blood gets washed, stained, and platelet aggregates are evaluated by an image analyzer.	[5, 79]
– Agonists: 3.0–100 µmol/L ADP 20.0 µmol/L epinephrine	GPIIb α ^{f)}	Flow cytometric measurement of: Exposure of α -granule membrane proteins, antibody: anti-CD62P	[80,81]

Table 3. Continued

Test/measurement	Pathways/receptors involved	Description	References
none			
→ Activated glycoprotein IIb/IIIa (PAC I) – Agonists: 20.0–100 µmol/L ADP 20.0 µmol/L epinephrine none	Binds multiple ligands leading to platelet aggregation: fibrinogen, fibronectin, vitronectin, thrombospondin-1 and vWF.	Activation-induced exposure of the fibrinogen binding site of the receptor glycoprotein IIb/IIIa, antibody: PAC1 or anti-fibrinogen.	[6, 82]
→ Leukocyte–platelet aggregates	Adhesion initially mediated by P-selectin	Antibodies: anti-CD45 (leukocytes), anti-CD42a (platelets)	[81]
→ Platelet-derived microparticles (PMP)	Agonist induced release ^{g)} .	Antibody: anti-CD42a	[83]
Secondary, not platelet-specific (additional) measurements			
Commercial immunoassays (mostly ELISA^{ah)}):			
→ Soluble P-selectin	GPIIb/α ^{f)}	Measured in platelet-poor plasma, quantified by ELISA	[8, 38, 40]
→ Soluble E-selectin	Expressed solely by endothelial cells.		
→ Soluble intercellular adhesion molecule 1 (ICAM-1)	Expressed by vascular endothelium, macrophages and lymphocytes		
→ Soluble vascular cell adhesion molecule 1 (VCAM-1)	Expressed by vascular endothelium		
→ Soluble CD40 ligand	Interacts with CD40 on endothelial cells ^{h)} .		[72]
→ Thromboxane A ₂ (TxA ₂) → Thromboxane B ₂ (= stable, biologically inactive metabolite of TxA ₂) – Agonist: collagen	Thromboxane receptor	Maximal platelet aggregation in PRP is induced by an agonist. Thromboxane B ₂ is isolated from the PRP and quantified by immunoassay.	[84]
→ Glycoprotein V (platelet-specific)	Expressed on platelet surface ^{b)}		[8, 85]
→ Prothrombin fragments 1 and 2	Measurement for thrombin ^{d)}		[72]
Fibrinogen:	Glycoprotein IIb/IIIa (integrin αIIbβ3)	Measured in platelet-poor plasma	[82]
→ immunoassay		As a standard, coagulation of a known fibrinogen concentration in different dilutions of plasma is induced by thrombin. The clotting times are measured and compared with the one of the sample. Thus fibrinogen content can be calculated.	[38]
→ in coagulation analyser			[35]
– Agonist: thrombin			
COX activity	COX → TxA ₂ ^{e)}	Measured by autoradiography (with radioactive labelled arachidonic acid)	[43, 72]
Platelet count (platelet-specific)		Via impedance analysis by a hematology analyser or via immunoplatelet counting via flow cytometry	[76]
Mean platelet volume (MPV, platelet specific)		By a hematology analyzer	[19]
Bleeding time	Time until bleeding from a small fresh wound stops ^{j)}	Ivy's method, very heterogeneous results	[86]
Nitric oxide (NO)	Antithrombotic, vasodilatory effects ^{k)}	With the help of a nitric oxide-selective microelectrode measured during platelet aggregation in washed platelets	[87, 88]
Superoxide (ROS)	Released by activated platelets to recruit more platelets and leukocytes	Measured by lucigenin amplified chemiluminescence.	[89, 90]

Table 3. Continued

Test/measurement	Pathways/receptors involved	Description	References
Adenosine triphosphate (ATP) release	Released by activated platelets – receptor: P2X ₁	The dense granule ATP secreted by activated platelets reacts with the firefly luciferin-luciferase. This results in luminescence, which is measured to quantify the ATP release.	[91]
Tyrosine phosphorylation: → Whole platelet protein → SYK (Spleen Tyrosine Kinase) → PLC γ 2	Collagen-induced signalling pathway downstream of glycoprotein Ib/IX/V involves tyrosine kinases (Src family kinases, phosphatidylinositol-3 kinase) and thus protein tyrosine phosphorylation.	Quantified by Western blotting.	[33, 34, 85]

ATP, adenosine triphosphate; GPVI, glycoprotein VI; ICAM-1, intercellular adhesion molecule 1; PAR1, protease activated receptor 1; PLC γ 2, phospholipase C gamma 2; PMP, platelet-derived microparticles; TRAP, thrombin receptor-activating peptide; U46619, 9,11-dideoxy-11 α -9 α -epoxy-methanoprostaglandin F₂ (thromboxane analogue); VCAM-1, vascular cell adhesion molecule 1.

a) P2Y₁ receptor, P2Y₁₂ receptor.
b) Integrin $\alpha_2\beta_1$, glycoprotein VI.
c) Cyclooxygenase (COX) → thromboxane A₂ generation.
d) Protease-activated receptor 1 after thrombin hydrolysis.
e) Glycoprotein Ib – vWF interaction causes initial adhesion to membrane within PFA-100 cartridge.
f) Glycoprotein Ibx (GPIbx), also called P-selectin, is rapidly expressed by activated platelets and activated endothelial cells.
g) Agonists (*e.g.* collagen, thrombin) induce changes in the levels of intracellular second messengers (*e.g.* Ca²⁺), which leads to the release of platelet-derived microparticles.
h) Rapidly expressed by activated platelets, interacts with CD40 on endothelial cells and thus causes an inflammatory response.
i) Expressed on platelet surface, subunit of the glycoprotein Ib/IX/V complex (receptor for vWF, collagen, P-selectin, thrombin, *etc.*).
j) Ivy's method measures the bleeding time under a standard pressure (blood pressure cuff).
k) Inhibition of platelet adhesion to endothelium, platelet activation, and platelet aggregation by upregulation of cyclic guanosine monophosphate production.

Methods based on flow cytometry, like assessment of platelet activation markers, leukocyte–platelet aggregates or platelet-derived microparticles are also performed in whole blood. These methods appear very sensitive, especially the measurement of circulating monocyte–platelet aggregates as marker for *in vivo* platelet activation [44]. However, this method is performed under low shear conditions in solution, which is again not an accurate simulation of *in vivo* processes [8, 49, 50]. The use of different methods often results in outcomes, which are not comparable. For example, Lordkipanidze *et al.* measured platelet function in response to daily aspirin use in 201 patients with stable coronary artery disease (CAD) to examine aspirin resistance using six different methods: LTA in PRP induced by 1.6 mmol/L arachidonic acid or different concentrations (5, 10, and 20 $\mu\text{mol/L}$) of ADP, whole blood aggregometry induced by 1.6 mmol/L arachidonic acid, the PFA-100 with a collagen-epinephrine coated membrane, the VerifyNow Aspirin point-of-care system, and an enzyme immunoassay kit to measure urinary 11-dehydro-thromboxane B₂ (the stable metabolite of thromboxane A₂) concentrations. The authors reported variable responses between methods, and the correlation between the measurements was low [51]. In addition, different agonists activate different pathways of platelet function (Table 3), which introduces another layer of complexity when comparing outcomes of controlled human intervention trials. Ideally, a panel of agonists targeting different pathways of aggregation should be used, in order to obtain an all-round picture of nutritional or supplemental effects on platelet function. This may allow easy comparison between studies. However, this approach is rarely followed. As a result, the difficulty in comparing study outcomes obtained using different methods and agonists significantly decreases the impact of the overall body of research already carried out.

4.1.2 Chronic versus acute intake

Most of the studies discussed in this review (13 out of 25) examined the effects of chronic dietary intake of polyphenols on platelet function with interventions ranging between 2 and 13 wk. Nine studies examined acute effects of polyphenols on platelet function, *i.e.* within 30 min to 6 h after ingestion, whereas one study [37] examined the effects of both chronic and acute polyphenol intake. A large proportion of the chronic intake studies did not find a significant effect on platelet function [27, 32, 35–38, 47, 48]. This may reflect the use of blood samples obtained after an overnight fast. Most polyphenols (which can be considered xenobiotics) would have been rapidly metabolized and excreted soon after ingestion [52]. Intervention compounds and their metabolites may only circulate in the blood for a limited amount of time. Indeed, a review of 97 bioavailability studies of polyphenols revealed that catechins, gallic

acid, and flavanones have very short half-lives within the human body [53]. Therefore, perhaps only acute effects of polyphenols on platelet function may be measurable, with platelet function returning to baseline levels once the polyphenols or their metabolites have been removed from the circulation. Nevertheless, since some chronic-intake studies taking blood samples after an overnight fast did find an improvement of platelet function [23, 39, 41, 43, 46], the platelet-inhibiting effects of some of these compounds or metabolites may have persisted. Such persistence could arise in several ways. For example, the compounds responsible for inhibition of platelet aggregation and activation could have an irreversible effect, so that daily consumption results in a cumulative effect as increasing numbers of the whole platelet pool are affected, until a plateau is reached (approximately one-tenth of the platelet pool turns over each day). Alternatively, daily acute suppression of platelet activation and aggregation could improve the inflammatory status and reduce baseline platelet activation status as a secondary benefit. The studies reviewed here suggest that both acute and chronic effects may result from intake of dietary polyphenols. However, as the mechanisms by which these effects are achieved are likely to be different, it is not possible to directly compare outcomes of acute and chronic studies, and this limits the conclusions that can be drawn. Design of intervention studies to measure both acute (day 1) and chronic effects is necessary to enable the true effects of these dietary components to be assessed.

4.1.3 Health status of the study population

The underlying health status of the volunteers often influences the outcome of the study, with more significant anti-platelet effects observed in volunteers having single or multiple risk factors for or suffering from disease. Seventeen of the studies discussed in this review were performed in healthy subjects [20, 22, 23, 25, 26, 32–36, 38–43, 48], whereas six studies were performed in healthy subjects with risk factors for CVD [18, 19, 21, 24, 27, 46], and two studies were performed in CAD patients taking routine medication [37, 47]. Significant improvements in platelet function were observed after supplementation in healthy subjects as well as in high-risk subjects but not in CAD patients and therefore the health status of the volunteers did not appear to determine the outcome. The effects of health status may be linked to baseline platelet function, which cannot be fully assessed for the studies in this review. Study populations with very different baseline platelet function might be expected to respond very differently to supplementation with any compounds that inhibit platelet aggregation and activation. This may be a source of variability in the studies included in this review, which could contribute to the sometimes conflicting nature of the outcomes.

4.2 Active compounds or metabolites?

In the face of a large body of *in vitro* anti-platelet efficacy data for many polyphenolic compounds [16], it is somewhat surprising that only the flavanols clearly mirror their *in vitro* efficacy *in vivo*. While it appears clear that many sources of variability in the studies reviewed prevent us from drawing clear conclusions about the efficacy of dietary polyphenols, it is also possible that the lack of coherence between studies is not the only reason for the *in vitro* versus *in vivo* discrepancy. For example, the concentrations of phenolic compounds that inhibit platelet function *in vitro* on a detectable level are often not physiological [16]. Furthermore, bioavailability and metabolism may explain the divergent effects of *in vitro* and *in vivo* results. It is often not known whether the polyphenols or their metabolites influence platelet function. The bioavailability of most polyphenols is very low. Plasma concentrations of total metabolites after an oral intake of 50 mg aglycone equivalents range between 0 µmol/L for poorly absorbed polyphenols, such as proanthocyanidins and anthocyanins, and 4 µmol/L for well-absorbed polyphenols, e.g. quercetin glucosides [53]. Furthermore, it is questionable whether individual dietary polyphenols and their metabolites or the total amount of polyphenols in the diet cause changes in platelet function [15]. More information about the bioavailability of polyphenols and their metabolites obtained from different food matrices is required in order to better assess the effects of individual compounds and compound mixtures on pathways involved in platelet function *in vitro* [54].

In conclusion, it is currently difficult to deduce from a relatively small number of well designed and controlled human intervention studies if and how polyphenols improve platelet function. This is mainly due to heterogeneity in assessment methods. However, a relatively large body of evidence suggests that moderate consumption of especially dark chocolate significantly inhibits platelet activation and aggregation. The physiological relevance of the beneficial effects of flavanols acquired from cocoa consumption on platelets is even comparable to standard doses of aspirin: consumption of approximately 100 g dark chocolate with 70% cocoa solids could result in similar effects to 81 mg of aspirin in an acute setting [55]. The anti-platelet effect of flavanols can be obtained in both healthy subjects as well as people at risk for CVD, and appears to be largest upon acute consumption. To assess whether other classes of dietary polyphenols, or their metabolites, also beneficially affect platelet function, more well-controlled intervention studies as well as the adoption of more uniform methods to assess platelet aggregation and activation are needed.

The authors thank Dr. Alison Avenell for her advice regarding the statistical analysis of the data. The writing of this review was funded by the Scottish Government Rural and Environment Research and Analysis Directorate (RERAD) and the

Biotechnology & Biological Sciences Research Council (BBSRC), United Kingdom.

The authors have declared no conflict of interest.

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