## Review article

F. VISIOLI, P. BOGANI, S. GRANDE, C. GALLI

# MEDITERRANEAN FOOD AND HEALTH: BUILDING HUMAN EVIDENCE 

Department of Pharmacological Sciences, University of Milan, Italy


#### Abstract

Adherence to a Mediterranean style diet affords protection from degenerative diseases such as cardiovascular disorders and cancer. Identification of the active constituents of the Mediterranean diet is crucial to the formulation of appropriate dietary guidelines. Also, research on the pharmacological properties of the "minor components" of this diet, eg vitamins and polyphenols, is very active and might lead to the formulation of functional foods and nutraceuticals. Even though in vitro data are plentiful, human studies are difficult to perform due to ethical and practical reasons. Yet, intervention trials represent the best approach to validate claims of healthful activities. This article reviews human evidence of the biological properties of olive oil and tomato constituents and illustrates a research approach by which the bioactive elements of a wild plant (Cynara cardunculus) are first studied in vitro to build biochemical evidence, then in vivo to obtain proof of their vasomodularoty activity.


Key words: Mediterranean diet; antioxidants; tomato; olive oil; polyphenols; endothelial dysfunction

The traditional dietary habits of the Mediterranean area have been consistently associated with lower incidence of cardiovascular disease (CHD) and cancer (1-3). Though the healthful properties of the Mediterranean diet as a whole have gained recognition, basic researchers are nowadays concentrating their efforts on individual food items, e.g. cereals, fruits, vegetable, olive oil, and their components, e.g. fibers, vitamins, polyphenols (4). By singling out the contribution of micronutrients to the protective activities, one can better focus dietary guidelines and, possibly, formulate appropriate functional foods or nutraceuticals (5).

As an example, olive oil and tomato consumption have been linked to CHDand chemoprotection, but biochemical studies of their components are still accumulating. In this respect, we pioneered research on the biological properties of olive oil polyphenols, whose wide range of pharmacological activities might provide a partial explanation for the high longevity and low incidence of degenerative diseases observed in the Mediterranean basin, where olive oil is the predominant source of fat (6). Moreover, in recent research we investigated the effects of tomato supplementation, by providing healthy volunteers with purified tomato extracts in an attempt to identify the contribution of individual tomato components, e.g. carotenoids such as lycopene $(7,8)$.

Another approach is based on in vitro observations of potentially healthful properties of plant extracts or their isolated components. There is indeed extensive literature that reports on the antioxidant and enzyme-modulating activities of numerous herbs and their extracts (9). However, the transposition of these basic observations into claims of human effects is, at present, unsubstantiated (10). Human studies are difficult to perform, because of ethical and practical reasons. Hence, even though in vitro studies abound, human (and even animal) intervention studies are scant. Thus, it is mandatory to confirm in vitro observations in in vitro studies before definitive claims can be made. This is why we recently followed an in vitro-to-in vivo approach to test the vasomodulatory properties of plant food extracts, selected within a EU-funded project on Local Food Nutraceuticals (www.biozentrum.uni-frankfurt.de/Pharmakologie/EU-Web/index.html).

This manuscript reports some examples of such approaches, aimed at building human evidence to sustain claims that the Mediterranean diet and its components do indeed exert healthful activities.

## OLIVE OIL

Olive oil is the principal (often exclusive) and most typical source of visible fat of the Mediterranean diet. The healthful properties of olive oil have been often attributed to its high monounsaturated fatty acid (MFA) content, namely in the form of oleic acid ( $18: 1 \mathrm{n}-9$ ). However, there is currently no consensus on the effects of MFA on circulating lipids and lipoproteins: the effects of high monounsaturated fatty acid intakes on serum cholesterol might be indirect and due to the associated replacement of saturated fatty acids (11). Yet, some studies (12) attributed a direct, although modest, cholesterol-lowering effect to MFA alone, when they equicalorically replace carbohydrates. It should also be underlined that oleic acid is one of the predominant fatty acid in worldwide largely-consumed animal foods, such as poultry and pork; thus, the percentage of oleic acid in the Mediterranean diet is only slightly higher than that of other kinds of Western diets, e.g. the North American one (13). Finally, several seed oils obtained through genetic selection, such as sunflower, soybean, and rapeseed oils are nowadays rich in monounsaturates, albeit devoid of phenolics (14), and are
commercially available. It is therefore unlikely that oleic acid is exclusively accountable for the healthful properties of olive oil. In turn, even though the salubrious effects of a high proportion of oleic acid intake - including reduced endothelial activation $(15,16)$ and lower susceptibility of LDL to oxidation $(17,18)$ should not be overlooked, what really sets extra virgin olive oil apart from other vegetable oils is its content in phenolic compounds.

Olives are rich in phenolic components $(19,20)$. Approximately 10 years ago, we started our investigations on the antioxidant properties of olive oil phenolics (21) and, subsequently, our and others' groups $(6,22)$ followed up on this. In synthesis, hydroxytyrosol and oleuropein have been shown to be potent scavengers of superoxide anion and other reactive species (peroxynitrite, hypochlorous acid) possibly implicated in the onset of CHD and mutagenesis. Moreover, hydroxytyrosol and oleuropein are also capable to modulate enzymatic processes (22), some of which might be relevant to CHD. As an example, hydroxytyrosol has been shown to inhibit platelet aggregation, suggestive of an antithrombotic potential.

Even though human absorption and metabolism of olive oil phenolics have been well documented (23-29), in vivo studies of antioxidant potential and biological activity are still scarce and results are not univocal (30). However, research in this field is rapidly progressing and data proving in vivo activities of olive oil polyphenols do accumulate (31-33).

To further investigate the in vivo activities of olive oil phenolics, we undertook a series of human studies, the most recent of which (the VOLOS), was carried out in mildly dyslipidemic patients (34). In the VOLOS (virgin olive oil study) we evaluated the antioxidant capacity and the serum $\mathrm{TXB}_{2}$ levels of 22 mildly dyslipidemic patients who were given $40 \mathrm{ml} /$ day of either extra virgin phenolic rich oil or refined, phenol poor olive oil, with a cross over design. Each treatment was carried out for 7 weeks with 4 weeks of wash out in between. Seven weeks of EVOO supplementation resulted in a marked ( $-20 \%$ ) decrease in serum $\mathrm{TXB}_{2}$ production, both in the first and in the second arm of the study. This effect was reverted upon subsequent ROO administration. This is showed in Figure 1: the reduction in serum $\mathrm{TXB}_{2}$ concentrations ( $\mu \mathrm{g} / \mathrm{ml}$ ) in subjects administered EVOO is evident at 28 days. On the other hand, subjects administered ROO do not exhibit any reduction of serum $\mathrm{TXB}_{2}$ concentrations. The reduction in $\mathrm{TXB}_{2}$ serum production confirms the antithrombotic potential suggested for extra virgin olive oil polyphenols (see above).

Plasma antioxidant capacity (measured as $\mu \mathrm{M}$ of $\mathrm{Cu}^{++}$reduced) was also evaluated. Figure 2 shows how 7 weeks of EVOO consumption is associated with an improvement in antioxidant capacity, while no effect was noted with ROO administration.

One of the interesting aspects of the results obtained in the VOLOS is that they were obtained by providing doses of phenolic compounds comparable to those currently consumed by many population groups in the Mediterranean area.


Figure 1 Thromboxane $\mathrm{B}_{2}\left(\mathrm{TXB}_{2}\right)$ serum levels $(\mu \mathrm{g} / \mathrm{ml})$ at baseline, 28 days, and 49 days after administration of $40 \mathrm{ml} /$ day of extra virgin olive oil (EVOO) or refined olive oil (ROO) consumption by 22 mildly dyslipidemic patients. All subjects were randomly divided into two groups (A and B). The first one (A) was randomly assigned to the administration of EVOO (the second group was assigned ROO) in the first 49 days and after the washout period all subjects were switched treatment for an additional 7 weeks.
Data are means $\pm$ S.D., $n=22$. From Visioli et al. (34) with permission of the publisher.


Figure 2 Serum antioxidant capacity (as $\mu \mathrm{M} \mathrm{Cu}{ }^{++}$reduced) of patients that were administered EVOO or ROO ( $40 \mathrm{ml} /$ day) for 7 weeks. After that period, all subjects were switched treatments for an additional 7 weeks.
All subjects were divided into two groups (A and B). Each group consumed the two kinds of oil in a crossover fashion.
Data are means $\pm$ S.D., $n=22$. From Visioli et al. (34) with permission of the publisher.

Lipidic parameters, namely cholesterolemia ad triglyceridemia, were also evaluated in the VOLOS, but no significant improvement was noted, as in other previous studies (32).

## TOMATO

Tomato was imported in the Mediterranean area from South America at the beginning of the XVIII century and is now an important component of the Mediterranean diet. Among the minor components of tomato, carotenoids such as beta-carotene, lycopene, lutein, and zeaxanthin have been extensively investigated because of their relative abundance in human plasma (35) and their antioxidant properties $(36,37)$. Accordingly, both basic research and epidemiological studies concur to suggest the cardioprotective and chemopreventive activities of carotenoids, in particular of beta-carotene and lycopene. However, it should be noted that the results of the ATBC and CARET trials $(38,39)$ conducted among smokers (who are exposed to enhanced oxidative stress) supplemented with beta-carotene demonstrated excess risk for cancer and cardiovascular endpoints (40). In addition, other clinical trials did not demonstrate any effect of beta-carotene supplementation on cancer $(41,42)$. Finally, a recent meta-analysis even suggested harmful effects of carotenoids supplementation, which has been associated with increased total mortality (43). The major conundrum in carotenoid research now is: Why is it that consumption of tomato and tomato products is associated with lower cancer and cardiovascular risks whereas supplementation with beta-carotene is yet to be proven beneficial? Suggestions include the co-carcinogenic and pro-oxidant potential of betacarotene under certain conditions $(44,45)$, the presence of concomitant liver disease in ATBC and CARET patients (46), and the confounding interference by smoking habits and alcohol consumption on overall outcomes (47). As a final point, the healthful effects of tomato consumption might not be limited to its carotenoid content, as suggested by a recent study we performed (7).

In an attempt to discern the contribution of tomato components to human health, we undertook some intervention studies with carefully standardized diets, added with well-defined amounts of carotenoids. The intervention study of Riso et al. (8) was performed to verify if regular consumption of tomato products could protect lymphocytes and plasma from oxidative stress. As show in Table 1, after the first week of controlled diet $(t=0)$, carotenoids concentrations decrease significantly in plasma ( $\mathrm{P}<0.05$ ); after the three-week tomato diet there was a significant decrease in plasma lutein, zeaxanthin, and $\beta$-cryptoxanthin concentrations ( $\mathrm{P}<0.01$ ). This is probably due to the effects of the standard diet, low in carotenoids. Analysis of lymphocyte carotenoids concentrations showed a slight decrease (between $10 \%$ and $30 \%$ ), but that was significant only for zeaxanthin ( $\mathrm{P}<0.01$ ) and $\beta$-cryptoxanthin ( $\mathrm{P}<0.05$ ). Lycopene concentrations increased significantly after tomato intervention both in plasma ( $+53 \%$ ) and in lymphocytes $(+72 \%)$. This result confirms that of

Table 1 Plasma and lymphocyte carotenoids concentrations before and after tomato intervention

| Carotenoids |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Variable | $\mathrm{T}=0$ | $\mathrm{~T}=21$ |
|  | Plasma $(\mathrm{mol} / \mathrm{l})$ |  |
| Lutein | $0.56 \pm 0.06$ | $0.50 \pm 0.05^{\mathrm{a}}$ |
| Zeaxanthin | $0.04 \pm 0.01$ | $0.03 \pm 0.01^{\mathrm{a}}$ |
| $\beta$-Cryptoxanthin | $0.32 \pm 0.23$ | $0.23 \pm 005^{\mathrm{a}}$ |
| $\alpha$-Carotene | $0.07 \pm 0.01$ | $0.07 \pm 0.06^{\mathrm{a}}$ |
| $\beta$-Carotene | $0.44 \pm 0.06$ | $0.38 \pm 0.06$ |
| Lycopene | $0.34 \pm 0.03$ | $0.52 \pm 0.03^{\mathrm{b}}$ |
|  | Lymphocytes (nmol/mg prot) |  |
| Lutein | $0.028 \pm 0.011$ | $0.023 \pm 0.016$ |
| Zeaxanthin | $0.004 \pm 0.003$ | $0.003 \pm 0.001^{\mathrm{a}}$ |
| $\beta$-Cryptoxanthin | $0.018 \pm 0.015$ | $0.012 \pm 0.009^{\mathrm{a}}$ |
| $\alpha$-Carotene | traces | traces |
| $\beta$-Carotene | $0.011 \pm 0.008$ | $0.009 \pm 0.007$ |
| Lycopene | $0.010 \pm 0.004$ | $0.017 \pm 0.008^{\mathrm{a}}$ |

Twelve healthy, young women were instructed to follow a "basal diet" low in carotenoids and free from tomato products for one week $(t=-7)$. The basal diet was followed during the experimental period, which lasted for three weeks, but this time subjects were instructed to consume wellcharacterized tomato products daily. Fasting blood samples were drawn at $t=-7$ and 21 . Carotenoids plasma and lymphocytes concentrations were performed by HPLC. Data are mean $\pm$ s.d. ${ }^{\mathrm{a}} \mathrm{P}<0.01,{ }^{\mathrm{b}} \mathrm{P}<0.001$. From Riso et al. (8). Reprinted by permission from Eur J Clin Nutr: 58: 1350-1358, copyright (2004) Macmillan Publishers Ltd.
another study by Porrini et al. (48) and data in literature. In fact, many data have been published on carotenoids uptake by lymphocytes (48-50) and buccal mucosal cells $(51,52)$. Conversely, limited literature exists on the intracellular concentrations of lycopene, although this is very important for understanding the role of this antioxidant on tissue activity.

For this reason, we focused our research on lycopene and its biological effects (53). Our purpose was to verify that the daily intake of a beverage called Lyc-omato ${ }^{\text {® }}$, containing a natural tomato extract (Lyc-o-mato ${ }^{\text {® }}$ oleoresin 6\%), was able to modified plasma carotenoids concentration and that this intake could protect DNA in lymphocytes from oxidative stress. In Table 2 we report the carotenoids and vitamin E plasma concentrations ( $\mu \mathrm{mol} / \mathrm{l}$ ) before and after interventions. Lycopene, phytoene, phytofluene and beta-carotene concentrations increased significantly by
about $68 \%, 92 \%, 61 \%$, and $28 \%$, respectively, after 26 days of Lyc-o-mato ${ }^{\text {® }}$ drinking, but not after placebo intake. Conversely, the consumption of Lyc-o-mato ${ }^{\text {® }}$ did not affect the plasma concentrations of lutein, zeaxanthin, $\beta$-cryptoxanthin and $\beta$-carotene, which were not present in the drink; plasma concentrations of $\alpha$ tocopherol also did not change throughout the intervention, possibly due to the relatively low amount of this vitamin present in the Lyc-o-mato ${ }^{\text {® }}$ drink.

The second aim of this study was to verify if the increased of carotenoids concentration was able to increase cellular defences against the oxidative stress. Figure 3 shows the percentage of DNA in the tail of lymphocytes subjected to the comet assay decreased by about $42 \%(\mathrm{P}<0.0001)$, as calculated by considering the variation between the percentage of DNA in the tail registered before and after Lyc-o-mato ${ }^{\circledR}$ intake with respect to the value recorded before Lyc-o-mato ${ }^{\circledR}$. This is in agreement with studies that showed observed significant decreases of leukocyte $8-\mathrm{OHdG} / \mathrm{dG}(-21 \%)$ in patients with prostate adenocarcinoma who consumed tomato sauce for 3 weeks ( 30 mg lycopene daily) before prostatectomy (54). In addition, a decrease in $8-\mathrm{OHdG} / \mathrm{dG}$ was observed in the prostate tissue. Also, Rao et al. found that one week of supplementation with lycopene or tomato products let to a fall in leukocyte $8-\mathrm{OHdG} / \mathrm{dG}$ level (55).

Table 2. Plasma and lymphocyte carotenoids concentrations before and after Lyc-o-mato ${ }^{*}$ intervention.

|  | Before placebo |  | After placebo |  | BeforeLyc-o-mato ${ }^{\circledR}$ |  | AfterLyc-o-mato ${ }^{\circledR}$ |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Variable | Mean | s.d. | Mean | s.d. | Mean | s.d. | Mean | s.d. |
| Lycopene | 0.34 | 0.12 | 0.32 | 0.12 | 0.31 | 0.17 | $0.52^{\text {a }}$ | 0.17 |
| Phytofluene | 0.23 | 0.10 | 0.22 | 0.10 | 0.23 | 0.12 | $0.37^{\text {a }}$ | 0.17 |
| Phytoene | 0.13 | 0.08 | 0.14 | 0.08 | 0.12 | 0.09 | $0.23{ }^{\text {a }}$ | 0.16 |
| $\beta$-Carotene | 0.60 | $0.14{ }^{\text {b }}$ | 0.56 | 0.39 | 0.54 | 0.35 | $0.69^{\text {a }}$ | 0.43 |
| $\alpha$-Carotene | 0.11 | 0.09 | 0.12 | 0.18 | 0.11 | 0.11 | 0.12 | 0.11 |
| Lutein | 0.53 | 0.26 | 0.50 | 0.23 | 0.50 | 0.28 | 0.49 | 0.23 |
| Zeaxanthin | 0.04 | 0.04 | 0.05 | 0.04 | 0.04 | 0.04 | 0.04 | 0.04 |
| $\beta$-Criptoxanthin | 0.30 | 0.20 | 0.32 | 0.20 | 0.32 | 0.29 | 0.29 | 0.20 |
| $\alpha$-Tocopherol | 48.6 | 23.7 | 47.8 | 24.2 | 47.3 | 20.7 | 48.3 | 22.5 |

Twenty-six healthy men and women were recruited and divided into two groups: group 1 was assigned to the sequence placebo/wash-out/Lyc-o-mato ${ }^{\circledR}$; group 2 followed the sequence Lyc-omato ${ }^{\otimes} /$ wash-out/placebo. Each period lasted for 26 days. Blood samples were collected at the beginning and the end of each treatment period, before and after receiving placebo or Lyc-o-mato ${ }^{\circ}$. Carotenoids and vitamin E plasma concentration was performed by HPLC. ( ${ }^{\text {a }}$ significantly different from each other point of the same group, $\mathrm{P}<0.0001$; ${ }^{\text {b }}$ significantly different from other points, $\mathrm{P}<0.05$ ). From Porrini et al. (53) with permission.


Figure 3 Lymphocytes DNA damage (as percentage of DNA in the tail), recorded before and after each experimental period and evaluated after the oxidative treatment of the cells (*significantly different from each of the other points, $\mathrm{P}<0.0001$ ). Twenty-six healthy man and women were recruited and divided into two groups: group 1 was assigned to the sequence placebo/wash-out/Lyc-o-mato ${ }^{\circledR}$; group 2 followed the sequence Lyc-o-mato ${ }^{\circledR} /$ wash-out/placebo. Each period lasted for 26 days. Blood samples were collected at the beginning and the end of each treatment period, before and after receiving placebo or Lyc-o-mato ${ }^{\circledR}$. The resistance of lymphocyte DNA to oxidative stress was evaluated by means of the Comet assay. From Porrini et al. (53) with permission.

One of the most interesting aspects of the potentially cardioprotective and chemopreventive properties of carotenoids is that lycopene is more bioavailable from tomato products, e.g. paste, puree, and sauce, than from raw tomatoes (56). Also, addition of olive oil and cooking further promotes absorption $(57,58)$. In addition to raw tomatoes, which are important constituents of salads, consumption of processed, cooked tomato products might provide additional benefits deriving from lycopene.

## WILD PLANTS AND ENDOTHELIAL FUNCTION

Endothelial dysfunction is a major complication of atherosclerosis $(59,60)$ and accumulating evidence suggests that oxidative stress plays a major role in its onset and maintenance $(61,62)$. Reduced production/availability of the vasorelaxant factor nitric oxide (NO) plays a major role in the oxidative stress-related development of endothelial dysfunction $(61,63)$. Indeed, administration of some antioxidants, e.g. vitamin C and flavonoids from tea and wine, has been shown to ameliorate endothelial function and vasomotion $(63,64)$ and increasing evidence over the past decade shows that several dietary factors may partly modulate nitric oxide synthase (NOS) activity (65). The project "Local Food Nutraceuticals" was undertaken to investigate the effects of extracts obtained from selected, phenolrich wild plants traditionally eaten in the Mediterranean area on the production of NO and prostacyclin by cultured aortic endothelial cells.

NO is an uncharged gaseous radical with a half-life between 3 and 6 seconds (66). It plays a quintessential role in regulation of systemic vascular tone (62) and
remodeling of the vascular wall (63). The vasodilatory action of NO stems from its rapid diffusion and direct activation of soluble guanylyl cyclase forming cGMP which lowers intracellular calcium in the VSM, leading to relaxation of the muscle. Endothelial NO is formed by endothelial nitric oxide synthase (eNOS) via a five electron reduction of the terminal guanidino group of L-arginine yielding L-citrulline as a secondary product (62). Thus, one of the most popular methods to indirectly detect NO production relies on the measurement of the conversion of L-arginine to L-citrulline, by using radioactive substrates.

As reported in Fig 4, supplementation of porcine aortic endothelial cells (PAEC) with Cynara cardunculus or Thymus pulegioides extracts increases NO production. Moreover, enhanced secretion into the medium of prostacyclin, another important vasorelaxant factor, further confirms the vasomodulatory potential of these wild plants. Recently, we further tested a Cynara cardunculus extract on isolated aortic rings and after supplementation to aged rats. The results (Rossoni et al, in preparation) confirm that the vasorelaxant properties of Cynara cardunculus are maintained in vivo, suggesting that part of the lower incidence of endothelial dysfunction and the higher vascular health observed in the Mediterranean area are to be attributed to the consumption of wild plants (67).

## CONCLUSIONS

Adherence to a Mediterranean-like diet affords protection from CHD and cancer (68). As the major proportion of caloric intake in that area derives from plant foods (1), pharmacologists are concentrating their efforts on the identification of novel biological activities of plant minor constituents, which are


Figure 4 Effect of wild plant extracts on eNOS activity in porcine aortic endothelial cells. Confluent PAECs were incubated with Cynara cardunculus or Thymus pulegioides extracts for 16 h . The medium was replaced with HEPES buffer and eNOS activity was triggered by the addition of the calcium ionophore A23187 ( $2 \mu \mathrm{~mol} / \mathrm{L}$ ) and determined by ion-exchange chromatography as the conversion of L-[ $\left.{ }^{[4} \mathrm{C}\right]$ arginine to $\mathrm{L}-\left[{ }^{14} \mathrm{C}\right]$ citrulline. From Grande et al. (72) with permission.
many (69). In vitro studies abund, but human trials (which would provide the most useful information) are still insufficient and do not always support the notion that supplementation with plant foods or their extracts does affect surrogate markers of CHD, also due to the current scarcity of appropriate biomarkers $(70,71)$. However, future availability of appropriate techniques to evaluate the in vivo activities of food items or of their isolated components will likely resolve this issue. For the time being, the advice to incorporate proper quantities of plant foods in the diet has strong epidemiological grounds, which for the most part derive from studies of the Mediterranean diet.

Acknowledgments: Work in our laboratory has been supported by EU grants FAIR CT 973039 and QLK-2001-00173, and by Carapelli s.p.a (Tavarnelle Val di Pesa, Italy). Lycored Natural Products Industries Ltd (Beer-Sheva, Israel) supplied the Lyc-o-mato ${ }^{\circledR}$.

## REFERENCES

1. Willett WC, Sacks F, Trichopoulou A et al. Mediterranean diet pyramid: a cultural model for healthy eating. Am J Clin Nutr 1995; 61: 1402S-1406S.
2. Visioli F, Grande S, Bogani P, Galli C. The role of antioxidants in the mediterranean diets: focus on cancer. Eur J Cancer Prev 2004; 13: 337-343.
3. Trichopoulou A, Critselis E. Mediterranean diet and longevity. Eur J Cancer Prev 2004; 13: 453-456.
4. Visioli F, Borsani L, Galli C. Diet and prevention of coronary heart disease: the potential role of phytochemicals. Cardiovasc Res 2000; 47: 419-425.
5. Katan MB, de Roos NM. Promises and problems of functional foods. Crit Rev Food Sci Nutr 2004; 44: 369-377.
6. Visioli F, Galli C. Biological properties of olive oil phytochemicals. Crit Rev Food Sci Nutr 2002; 42: 209-221.
7. Visioli F, Riso P, Grande S, Galli C, Porrini M. Protective activity of tomato products on in vivo markers of lipid oxidation. Eur J Nutr 2003; 42: 201-206.
8. Riso P, Visioli F, Erba D, Testolin G, Porrini M. Lycopene and vitamin C concentrations increase in plasma and lymphocytes after tomato intake. Effects on cellular antioxidant protection. Eur J Clin Nutr 2004; 58: 1350-1358.
9. Kris-Etherton PM, Hecker KD, Bonanome A et al. Bioactive compounds in foods: their role in the prevention of cardiovascular disease and cancer. Am J Med 2002; 113 Suppl 9B: 71-88.
10. Visioli F. The roller coaster of antioxidant therapy. Curr Med Chem 2004; 11:3 p preceeding 1085.
11. Hegsted DM, Ausman LM, Johnson JA, Dallal GE. Dietary fat and serum lipids: an evaluation of the experimental data. Am J Clin Nutr 1993; 57: 875-883.
12. Mensink RP, Zock PL, Kester AD, Katan MB. Effects of dietary fatty acids and carbohydrates on the ratio of serum total to HDL cholesterol and on serum lipids and apolipoproteins: a metaanalysis of 60 controlled trials. Am J Clin Nutr 2003; 77: 1146-1155.
13. Dougherty RM, Galli C, Ferro-Luzzi A, Iacono JM. Lipid and phospholipid fatty acid composition of plasma, red blood cells, and platelets and how they are affected by dietary lipids: a study of normal subjects from Italy, Finland, and the USA. Am J Clin Nutr 1987; 45: 443-455.
14. Owen RW, Mier W, Giacosa A, Hull WE, Spiegelhalder B, Bartsch H. Identification of lignans as major components in the phenolic fraction of olive oil. Clin Chem 2000; 46: 976-988.
15. Massaro M, Basta G, Lazzerini G et al. Quenching of intracellular ROS generation as a mechanism for oleate-induced reduction of endothelial activation and early atherogenesis. Thromb Haemost 2002; 88: 335-344.
16. Massaro M, De Caterina R. Vasculoprotective effects of oleic acid: epidemiological background and direct vascular antiatherogenic properties. Nutr Metab Cardiovasc Dis 2002; 12: 42-51.
17. Berry EM, Eisenberg S, Friedlander Y et al. Effects of diets rich in monounsaturated fatty acids on plasma lipoproteins--the Jerusalem Nutrition Study. II. Monounsaturated fatty acids vs carbohydrates. Am J Clin Nutr 1992; 56: 394-403.
18. Bonanome A, Pagnan A, Biffanti $S$ et al. Effect of dietary monounsaturated and polyunsaturated fatty acids on the susceptibility of plasma low density lipoproteins to oxidative modification. Arterioscler Thromb 1992; 12: 529-533.
19. Blekas G, Vassilakis C, Harizanis C, Tsimidou M, Boskou DG. Biophenols in table olives. J Agric Food Chem 2002; 50: 3688-3692.
20. Visioli F, Galli C. Olives and their production waste products as sources of bioactive compounds. Curr Topics Nutr Research 2003; 1: 85-88.
21. Visioli F, Galli C. Oleuropein protects low density lipoprotein from oxidation. Life Sci 1994; 55: 1965-1971.
22. Visioli F, Poli A, Galli C. Antioxidant and other biological activities of phenols from olives and olive oil. Med Res Rev 2002; 22: 65-75.
23. Visioli F, Galli C, Bornet F et al. Olive oil phenolics are dose-dependently absorbed in humans. FEBS Lett 2000; 468: 159-160.
24. Bonanome A, Pagnan A, Caruso D et al. Evidence of postprandial absorption of olive oil phenols in humans. Nutr Metab Cardiovasc Dis 2000; 10: 111-120.
25. Caruso D, Visioli F, Patelli R, Galli C, Galli G. Urinary excretion of olive oil phenols and their metabolites in humans. Metabolism 2001; 50: 1426-1428.
26. Vissers MN, Zock PL, Roodenburg AJ, Leenen R, Katan MB. Olive oil phenols are absorbed in humans. J Nutr 2002; 132: 409-417.
27. Miro-Casas E, Farre AM, Covas MI et al. Capillary gas chromatography-mass spectrometry quantitative determination of hydroxytyrosol and tyrosol in human urine after olive oil intake. Anal Biochem 2001; 294: 63-72.
28. Miro-Casas E, Covas MI, Fito M, Farre-Albadalejo M, Marrugat J, de la Torre R. Tyrosol and hydroxytyrosol are absorbed from moderate and sustained doses of virgin olive oil in humans. Eur J Clin Nutr 2003; 57: 186-190.
29. Miro-Casas E, Covas MI, Farre M et al. Hydroxytyrosol Disposition in Humans. Clin Chem 2003; 49: 945-952.
30. Vissers MN, Zock PL, Katan MB. Bioavailability and antioxidant effects of olive oil phenols in humans: a review. Eur J Clin Nutr 2004; 58: 955-965.
31. Visioli F, Caruso D, Galli C, Viappiani S, Galli G, Sala A. Olive oils rich in natural catecholic phenols decrease isoprostane excretion in humans. Biochem Biophys Res Commun 2000; 278: 797-799.
32. Weinbrenner T, Fito M, De La TR et al. Olive oils high in phenolic compounds modulate oxidative/antioxidative status in men. J Nutr 2004; 134: 2314-2321.
33. Marrugat J, Covas MI, Fito M et al. Effects of differing phenolic content in dietary olive oils on lipids and LDL oxidation--a randomized controlled trial. Eur J Nutr 2004; 43: 140-147.
34. Visioli F, Caruso D, Grande S et al. Virgin Olive Oil Study (VOLOS): vasoprotective potential of extra virgin olive oil in mildly dyslipidemic patients. Eur J Nutr 2005: 44: 121-127.
35. Johnson EJ. The role of carotenoids in human health. Nutr Clin Care 2002; 5: 56-65.
36. Stahl W, Sies H. Lycopene: a biologically important carotenoid for humans? Arch Biochem Biophys 1996; 336: 1-9.
37. Rao AV, Rao LG. Lycopene and human health. Curr Topics Nutr Research 2004; 2: 127-136.
38. The Alpha-Tocopherol Beta Carotene Cancer Prevention Study Group. The effect of vitamin E and beta carotene on the incidence of lung cancer and other cancers in male smokers. NEngl J Med 1994; 330: 1029-1035.
39. Omenn GS, Goodman GE, Thornquist MD et al. Effects of a combination of beta carotene and vitamin A on lung cancer and cardiovascular disease. N Engl J Med 1996; 334: 1150-1155.
40. Christen WG, Buring JE, Manson JE, Hennekens CH. Beta-carotene supplementation: a good thing, a bad thing, or nothing? Curr Opin Lipidol 1999; 10: 29-33.
41. Greenberg ER, Baron JA, Stukel TA et al. A clinical trial of beta carotene to prevent basal-cell and squamous-cell cancers of the skin. The Skin Cancer Prevention Study Group. NEngl J Med 1990; 323: 789-795.
42. Hennekens CH, Buring JE, Manson JE et al. Lack of effect of long-term supplementation with beta carotene on the incidence of malignant neoplasms and cardiovascular disease. N Engl J Med 1996; 334: 1145-1149.
43. Vivekananthan DP, Penn MS, Sapp SK, Hsu A, Topol EJ. Use of antioxidant vitamins for the prevention of cardiovascular disease: meta-analysis of randomised trials. Lancet 2003; 361: 2017-2023.
44. Paolini M, Cantelli-Forti G, Perocco P, Pedulli GF, Abdel-Rahman SZ, Legator MS. Cocarcinogenic effect of beta-carotene. Nature 1999; 398: 760-761.
45. Paolini M, Sapone A, Canistro D, Chieco P, Valgimigli L. Antioxidant vitamins for prevention of cardiovascular disease. Lancet 2003; 362: 920.
46. Lachance PA, Nakat Z, Jeong WS. Antioxidants: an integrative approach. Nutrition 2001; 17: 835-838.
47. Baron JA, Cole BF, Mott L et al. Neoplastic and antineoplastic effects of beta-carotene on colorectal adenoma recurrence: results of a randomized trial. J Natl Cancer Inst 2003; 95: 717-722.
48. Porrini M, Riso P. Lymphocyte lycopene concentration and DNA protection from oxidative damage is increased in women after a short period of tomato consumption. $J$ Nutr 2000; 130: 189-192.
49. Fotouhi N, Meydani M, Santos MS, Meydani SN, Hennekens CH, Gaziano JM. Carotenoid and tocopherol concentrations in plasma, peripheral blood mononuclear cells, and red blood cells after long-term beta-carotene supplementation in men. Am J Clin Nutr 1996; 63: 553-558.
50. Porrini M, Riso P, Oriani G. Spinach and tomato consumption increases lymphocyte DNA resistance to oxidative stress but this is not related to cell carotenoid concentrations. Eur J Nutr 2002; 41: 95-100.
51. Borel P, Grolier P, Boirie Y et al. Oxidative stress status and antioxidant status are apparently not related to carotenoid status in healthy subjects. J Lab Clin Med 1998; 132: 61-66.
52. Paetau I, Rao D, Wiley ER, Brown ED, Clevidence BA. Carotenoids in human buccal mucosa cells after 4 wk of supplementation with tomato juice or lycopene supplements. Am J Clin Nutr 1999; 70: 490-494.
53. Porrini M, Riso P, Brusamolino A, Berti C, Guarnieri S, Visioli F. Daily intake of a formulated tomato drink affects carotenoid plasma lymphocyte concentrations and improves cellular antioxidant protection. Brit J Nutr 2005; in press.
54. Bowen P, Chen L, Stacewicz-Sapuntzakis M et al. Tomato sauce supplementation and prostate cancer: lycopene accumulation and modulation of biomarkers of carcinogenesis. Exp Biol Med (Maywood) 2002; 227: 886-893.
55. Rao AV, Agarwal S. Bioavailability and in vivo antioxidant properties of lycopene from tomato products and their possible role in the prevention of cancer. Nutr Cancer 1998; 31: 199-203.
56. Gartner C, Stahl W, Sies H. Lycopene is more bioavailable from tomato paste than from fresh tomatoes. Am J Clin Nutr 1997; 66: 116-122.
57. Lee A, Thurnham DI, Chopra M. Consumption of tomato products with olive oil but not sunflower oil increases the antioxidant activity of plasma. Free Radic Biol Med 2000; 29: 10511055.
58. Clark RM, Yao L, She L, Furr HC. A comparison of lycopene and astaxanthin absorption from corn oil and olive oil emulsions. Lipids 2000; 35: 803-806.
59. Vita JA, Keaney JFJ. Endothelial function: a barometer for cardiovascular risk? Circulation 2002; 106: 640-642.
60. Assanelli D, Bonanome A, Pezzini A et al. Folic acid and vitamin E supplementation effects on homocysteinemia, endothelial function and plasma antioxidant capacity in young myocardialinfarction patients. Pharmacol Res 2004; 49: 79-84.
61. Cai H, Harrison DG. Endothelial dysfunction in cardiovascular diseases. Circ Res 2000; 87: 840-844.
62. Thomas SR, Chen K, Keaney JF, Jr. Oxidative stress and endothelial nitric oxide bioactivity. Antioxid Redox Signal 2003; 5: 181-194.
63. Schulz E, Anter E, Keaney JF. Oxidative stress, antioxidants, and endothelial function. Curr Med Chem 2004; 11: 1093-1104.
64. Carr A, Frei B. The role of antioxidants in preserving the biological activity of endotheliumderived nitric oxide. Free Radic Biol Med 2000; 28: 1806-1814.
65. Wu G, Meininger CJ. Regulation of nitric oxide synthesis by dietary factors. Annu Rev Nutr 2002; 22: 61-86.
66. Moncada S, Palmer RM, Higgs EA. Nitric oxide: physiology, pathophysiology, and pharmacology. Pharmacol Rev 1991; 43: 109-142.
67. Schaffer S, Eckert GP, Müller WW et al. Hypochlorous acid scavenging properties of local mediterranean plant foods. Lipids 2005; in press.
68. Trichopoulou A, Costacou T, Bamia C, Trichopoulos D. Adherence to a Mediterranean diet and survival in a Greek population. $N$ Engl J Med 2003; 348: 2599-2608.
69. Iriti M, Faoro F. Plant defense \& human nutrition: phenylpropanoids on the menu. Curr Topics Nutr Research 2004; 2: 47-65.
70. Halliwell B, Whiteman M. Measuring reactive species and oxidative damage in vivo and in cell culture: how should you do it and what do the results mean? Br J Pharmacol 2004; 142: 231-255.
71. Riso P, Visioli F, Gardana C et al. Effects of blood orange juice intake on antioxidant bioavailability and on different markers related to oxidative stress. J Agric Food Chem 2005; in press.
72. Grande S, Bogani P, de Saizieu A, Schueler G, Galli C, Visioli F. Vasomodulating potential of Mediterranean wild plant extracts. J Agric Food Chem 2004; 52: 5021-5026.

Received: January 31, 2005
Accepted: February 15, 2005
Authors' address: Francesco Visioli, Department of Pharmacological Sciences, Via Balzaretti 9, 20133 Milano, Italy.
E-mail: francesco.visioli@unimi.it

