

Review Article

Antioxidant Foods and Diseases: Natural Antioxidants for Healthy Life

Z. Esra Durak

Ordu University, Central Research Laboratory, Ordu, Turkey

***Corresponding author**

Z. Esra Durak

Email: zaesrad@hotmail.com

Abstract: In this review first, general information on oxidants, antioxidants and molecular mechanisms of some diseases are given in order to understand importance of natural antioxidants in our health and then, scientific background for the safe use of the natural antioxidants is explained.

Keywords: Free radicals, Antioxidants, Foods, Diseases, Healthy life

INTRODUCTION

Free Radicals

Free radicals are potentially damaging molecules released in the body through normal metabolic processes and are capable of attacking the healthy cells of the body, causing them to lose their structure and function. Free radicals are electrically charged molecules and so react with other substances in order to neutralize themselves, a process called oxidation [1]. In free radical-mediated oxidation reaction, a reaction is first initiated as another free radical is formed, leading to thousands of free radical reactions within seconds of the initial reaction. Antioxidants act to stabilize or deactivate free radicals before they attack cells and so are essential for maintaining optimal cellular and systemic health and well-being. Free radicals are also called reactive oxygen species (ROS), a term that encompasses all highly reactive, oxygen-containing molecules. They can react with membrane lipids, nucleic acids, proteins and enzymes, and other small molecules, resulting in cellular damage [2].

These free radicals are formed via normal and natural body processes [3]. Our ancestors' diet was natural and fresh enough to supply plentiful antioxidants to counter the formation of free radicals. Free radicals are formed via [4]:

- Normal aerobic metabolic processes.
- White blood cell (phagocytes) defensive mechanisms, by which bacteria and viruses are killed, and by which foreign proteins (antigens) are denatured.
- The natural detoxification of toxic substances (such as nicotine in cigarette smoke).

Antioxidants

Antioxidants are compounds that neutralize the damaging effects of oxidation reactions. Researches indicate that antioxidants help prevent the development of some diseases [5]. Oxidative stress is a situation with oxidant potency, which can compromise the body's immune response, heighten the inflammatory response, increase the incidence of apoptosis (programmed cell death), and has been implicated in some devastating reactions in the body [6].

Antioxidants are found naturally in the body and a variety of foods – especially fruits and vegetables. Oxidation is cellular damage caused by free radicals. Our bodies have a built-in “defense system” of antioxidants that serve to prevent damage from free radicals. The main source of these antioxidants is fruits and vegetables that we recognize as food, the heritage of our pre-agricultural lifestyles. These foods provide antioxidant nutrients such as vitamins A, C, E and selenium [7].

There is accumulating evidence implicating free radicals in the formation of several diseases including coronary heart disease, cancer etc [8]. Therefore, antioxidants draw special attention in the therapy of some diseases. In particular, antioxidant foods seem to have great potential in this regard.

As to the subject, many studies have been conducted throughout the world. Beneficial effects were observed in the patients with coronary heart disease and cancer when antioxidant foods (vegetables, fruits, legumes, herbs and spices) were ingested regularly [9].

ANTIOXIDANT FOODS AND CORONARY HEART DISEASE

Atherosclerosis is a complex process involving the deposition of plasma lipoproteins and the proliferation of cellular elements in the artery wall [10]. This chronic condition advances through a series of stages beginning with fatty streak lesions composed largely of lipid-engorged macrophage foam cells and ultimately progressing to complex plaques consisting of a core of lipid and necrotic cell debris covered by a fibrous cap. These plaques provide a barrier to arterial blood flow and may precipitate clinical events, particularly under conditions that favor plaque rupture and thrombus formation [11].

Dietary recommendations to reduce the risk of coronary heart disease have focused largely on the intake of nutrients that affect established risk factors, including plasma lipid and lipoprotein levels, blood pressure, and body weight [12]. Recent developments in our understanding of the atherosclerotic process and factors that trigger ischemic events have led to the consideration of dietary constituents that may alter risk through other mechanisms. Prominent among these are natural antioxidants, which are proposed to inhibit multiple proatherogenic and prothrombotic oxidative events in the artery wall.

Over the past 2 decades, considerable evidence has been gathered in support of the hypothesis that free-radical-mediated oxidative processes and specific products arising as a result of these processes play a key role in atherogenesis [13]. Oxidation of low-density lipoproteins (LDLs), which undergo multiple changes on oxidation are thought to be proatherogenic since oxidation of LDL lipids leads to the production of a diverse array of biologically active compounds, including some that influence the functional integrity of vascular cells. Among the well-characterized effects are increases in the expression of endothelial cell surface adhesion molecules that facilitate the mobilization and uptake of circulating inflammatory cells and alterations in the chemotactic properties of monocytes and monocyte-derived macrophages in a manner expected to increase their residence within the artery wall [14, 15]. Oxidation of the apolipoprotein B component alters LDL receptor recognition properties, leading to internalization of LDLs by macrophages via scavenger receptors, a key step in the formation of macrophage-derived foam cells [16].

In addition to these effects, oxidative processes are proposed to play a role in lesion maturation and the precipitation of clinical events. This may involve effects on intimal proliferation, fibrosis, calcification, endothelial function and vasoreactivity, plaque rupture, and thrombosis [17]. Oxidants are products of normal aerobic metabolism and the inflammatory response. They constitute a chemically and compartmentally diverse group, and it is presently unknown which, if any, are critical to the disease process. In addition to the

different sources and types of oxidants, ambiguity in relating specific oxidants to the disease process arises from the multitude of pathophysiological events linked to oxidation, the paucity of methods for measuring these short-lived species within the sequestered environment of the artery wall, and the variable modulating effects of counteractive antioxidants. With regard to the latter, although oxidant formation is an inevitable feature of aerobic life, oxidant-mediated disease promotion is proposed to occur only under circumstances in which these agents overwhelm antioxidant defenses [18, 19].

Like oxidants, antioxidants constitute a diverse group of compounds with different properties. They operate by inhibiting oxidant formation, intercepting oxidants once they have formed, and repairing oxidant-induced injury. In terms of the coronary heart disease process, several points of antioxidant intervention have been proposed. Inhibition of LDL oxidation is the most-well characterized of these and includes effects on the concentration or reactivity of oxidants capable of modifying LDL and on the susceptibility or resistance of LDL to these oxidants [20, 21].

Although the antioxidant defense system includes both endogenously and exogenously (diet) derived compounds, dietary antioxidants including vitamin C, vitamin E, and carotenes have received the greatest attention with regard to coronary heart disease prevention [22, 23]. A number of other dietary factors are proposed to act as antioxidants and have been suggested to protect against coronary heart disease [24].

In addition to previous studies given above, our studies show that coronary plaques can be significantly regressed and/or completely eliminated in some cases by suitable antioxidant supplementation. Even in some volunteer patients, in whom no significant improvements have been observed in the angiography examination, it has been observed that hypo kinetic part of the heart due to a previous infarction gains normal function owing to revascularization after regular consumption of the antioxidant supplements. It has been reported that almost, all the subjects feel much better during the period of food supplementation. In addition to increased physical capability, their blood tensions and blood cholesterol levels have been reported to decrease significantly during this period [25-39].

ANTIOXIDANT FOODS AND CANCER

Cancer begins as a single abnormal cell that begins to multiply out of control. Groups of such cells form tumors and invade healthy tissue, often spreading to other parts of the body. Carcinogens are substances that promote the development of cancerous cells [40]. They may come from foods, from the air, or even from within the body. Most carcinogens are neutralized before damage can occur, but sometimes they attack the cell's

genetic material (DNA) and alter it. It takes years for a noticeable tumor to develop. During this time, compounds known as inhibitors can keep the cells from growing. Some vitamins in plant foods are known to be inhibitors. Dietary fat, on the other hand, is known to be a promoter that helps the abnormal cells grow quickly [41, 42].

Of the many diseases that affect people these days, cancer is among the most feared. But despite a wealth of scientific data, most people remain unaware of how they can reduce their risk of developing cancer. It has been known that, as much as 80 percent of all cancers are due to identified factors, and thus are potentially preventable. Thirty percent are due to tobacco use, and as much as 35 to 50 percent are due to foods. It is easy to control these and other risk factors [43, 44].

A high-fiber diet is known to reduce diseases of the digestive tract. It has been observed that in countries where diets are high in fiber (that is, plant-based diets), there were fewer cases of colon cancer. Around the world, this has proven true. The highest fiber intakes are found in non-industrialized nations where meat is scarce and plant foods fill the menu [45]. Animal products contain no fiber. In the countries that their diets are based upon animal products have the highest rates of colon cancer. While no one is certain exactly how fiber protects against digestive tract disorders, there are several possibilities. By definition, fiber cannot be digested by humans early in the digestive process. It moves food more quickly through the intestines, helping to eliminate carcinogens. It also draws water into the digestive tract. The water and fiber make fecal matter bulkier, so carcinogens are diluted. Fiber is also protective against other forms of cancer. Studies have shown that stomach cancer and breast cancer are less common on high-fiber diets. Fiber affects levels of estrogens in the body. Estrogens are normally secreted into the intestine, where the fiber binds with the hormone and moves it out of the body [46, 47]. Without adequate fiber, the estrogen can be reabsorbed from the intestine into the bloodstream. High levels of estrogen are linked to a higher risk of breast cancer. The best sources of fiber are whole grains, beans, peas, lentils, vegetables, and fruits. Unrefined and unpeeled natural foods are highest in fiber [48].

Cross-cultural studies have revealed that the populations with the highest levels of fat consumption are also the ones with the highest death rates from breast and colon cancer [49]. The lowest rates are in groups with the lowest consumption of fats [50]. Migration studies help to rule out the influence of genetics. Many studies indicate that fat in foods increases one's risk for cancer, and it may also adversely affect breast cancer survival rates for those who have cancer. Although the total amount of fat one

eats is of concern, there is evidence that animal fat is much more harmful than vegetable fat. One study noted a 200 percent increase in breast cancer among those who consume beef or pork five to six times per week. Researchers note that meat is more closely associated with colon cancer than any other factor [51-52]. Meat and milk are also linked to both prostate and ovarian cancers. Fat has many effects within the body. It increases hormone production and thus raises breast cancer risks. It also stimulates the production of bile acids which have been linked to colon cancer [53-55].

IMPORTANCE OF VEGETABLES AND FRUITS IN CANCER

Not only are vegetables low in fat and high in fiber, they also contain many cancer-fighting substances. Carotenoids, the pigment that gives fruits and vegetables their dark colors, have been shown to help prevent cancer. Beta-carotene, present in dark green and yellow vegetables, helps protect against lung cancer and may help prevent cancers of the bladder, mouth, larynx, esophagus, breast, and other sites [56]. Vegetables such as cabbage, broccoli, kale, turnips, cauliflower, and Brussels sprouts contain flavones and indoles which are thought to have anti-cancer activities [57]. Vitamin C, found in citrus fruits and many vegetables, may lower risks for cancers of the esophagus and stomach. Vitamin C acts as an antioxidant, neutralizing cancer-causing chemicals that form in the body. It also blocks the conversion of nitrates to cancer-causing nitrosamines in the stomach. Selenium is found in whole grains and has the same antioxidant effects as vitamin C and beta-carotene. Vitamin E also has this effect [58]. However, high dose of selenium is toxic. All the evidence shows that a low-fat, high-fiber diet that includes a variety of fruits, vegetables, whole grains, and beans, is the best for cancer prevention. Not surprisingly, vegetarians, whose diets easily meet these requirements, are at the lowest risk for cancer. Vegetarians have about half the cancer risk of meat-eaters. Vegetarians have higher blood levels of beta-carotene. They consume more vitamin C, beta-carotene, indoles, and fiber than meat-eaters. Vegetarians also have stronger immune systems [59]. It has recently been discovered that vegetarians have more than twice the natural killer cell activity of meat-eaters. Natural killer cells are specialized white blood cells that attack and neutralize cancer cells. Also, vegetarians tend to eat more soy products than meat-eaters. Soybeans contain many substances that are anticarcinogens, including lignans and phytoestrogens. A diet that is rich in soybeans may be one reason for the lower incidence of breast cancer in the world [60].

A cancer prevention diet is one that is high in fiber, low in fat (especially animal fat), and includes generous portions of fruits and vegetables. It also minimizes or excludes alcohol. The best diets are pure vegetarian diets.

In our studies, we have observed that immune system is strengthened in cancer patients due to use of antioxidant food supplements. In particular, we obtained significant improvements in the patients with prostate cancer. We also observed that white blood cell count is maintained at the normal level in the cancer patients consuming these supplements during the chemotherapy [61-66].

ANTIOXIDANT FOODS AND OTHER DISEASES

Ageing

It has been argued that the “damage to cells caused by free radicals is believed to play a major role in the ageing process and in disease progression [67]. Antioxidants are our first line of defense against free radical damage, and are critical for maintaining optimum health and well-being. The need for antioxidants becomes even more critical with increased exposure to free radicals. Pollution, cigarette smoke, drugs, illness, stress, and even exercise can increase free radical exposure.” Because many environmental factors contribute to what the terms, “oxidative stress”, the assessment of individual susceptibility becomes important [68]. As part of a healthy lifestyle and a well-balanced, wholesome diet, antioxidant supplementation is now being recognized as an important mean of improving free radical protection.

This view is supported by many scientists who observe that “Metabolism, like other aspects of life, involves trade-offs. Oxidant by-products of normal metabolism cause extensive damage to DNA, protein, and lipid. This damage is a major contributor to ageing and to degenerative diseases of ageing such as cancer, cardiovascular disease, immune-system decline, brain dysfunction, and cataracts. Antioxidant defenses against this damage include ascorbate, tocopherol, and carotenoids. Dietary fruits and vegetables are the principal sources of ascorbate, carotenoids are tocopherol. Low dietary intake of fruits and vegetables doubles the risk of most types of cancer as compared to high intake and also markedly increases the risk of heart disease and cataracts [69-73].

Other diseases related to oxidant stress

Free radical damage to cells is now believed to contribute significantly to ageing and to degenerative ageing diseases such as cancer, cardiovascular disease, cataracts, immune system decline, and brain dysfunction. Free radicals activity has been implicated in at least 50 diseases. Antioxidants reduce free radical formation. Our modern lifestyles may limit the availability of antioxidants, allowing free radicals to cause cumulative and debilitating damage to our cells [74-78].

Some of the diseases attributed to oxidative stress include: Urinary problems including prostate

hypertrophy and kidney stone formation, Migraine, Asthma, Sinusitis, Alzheimer's Disease, Macular Degeneration, Autoimmune Disease Multiple Sclerosis, Cancer Muscular Dystrophy, Cardiovascular Disease, Cataract formation, Parkinson's Disease, Diabetes, Rheumatoid Arthritis, Menstrual problems and Ischemic-Reperfusion Injury, etc.

Different antioxidants are effective against different diseases, so the science of antioxidant treatment will become quite complex. It has been stated that epidemiological studies show an inverse correlation between blood serum levels of carotenoids, tocopherols and retinol and the incidence of various cancers and other human diseases [79-81].

Lifestyles

Our 21st century technological and industrial way of life contributes significantly to an increase in the body's oxidant load. Following is the list given a number of things that increase our oxidant load [82-88]:

- Vigorous exercise, accelerating cellular metabolism,
- Chronic inflammation, infections, and other illnesses,
- Exposure to allergens, radiation, pollution,
- Exposure to drugs or toxins such as cigarette smoke, pollution, pesticides, and insecticides.

ANTIOXIDANT COMPOUNDS

Here are some antioxidants [89-93]:

- Vitamin C, vitamin A, vitamin E,
- Low molecular weight compounds such as glutathione and lipoic acid. Glutathione is an important water-soluble antioxidant, synthesized from the amino acids glycine, glutamate, and cysteine.
- Antioxidant enzymes such as superoxide dismutase (SOD), glutathione peroxidase, and glutathione reductase that catalyse free radical quenching reactions.
- Antioxidant enzymes that metabolize oxidative toxic intermediates require micronutrient or trace element cofactors such as selenium iron, copper, zinc, and manganese for optimum catalytic activity,
- Metal binding proteins, such as ferritin, lactoferrin, albumin, and ceruloplasmin that sequester free iron and copper ions, capable of catalyzing oxidative reactions,
- Numerous other antioxidant phytonutrients present in a wide variety of plant foods,
- Polyphenols include bioflavonoids, organic acids and phenolic acids, and most of the antioxidant activity in foods is attributed to its polyphenol content. Another group of dietary antioxidant substances are plant-derived substances collectively termed

“phytonutrients” or “phytochemicals”. About 3,000 plant-derived flavonoid substances have been described. In humans, flavonoids have antioxidant effects serving as anti-inflammatory, antiallergenic, anti-viral, anti-aging, and anti-carcinogenic activity compounds. In addition to an antioxidant effect, it has been reported that “flavonoid compounds may exert protection against heart disease through the inhibition of cyclooxygenase and lipoxygenase activities in platelets and macrophages”.

Most antioxidant combinations contain a standard ingredient, namely vitamin C, vitamin E, beta-carotene, and the mineral selenium. Some combinations include new antioxidants, such as proanthocyanidins (flavonoids found in grape seed extract, pine bark, and red wine), N-acetylcysteine (NAC), alpha-lipoic acid, coenzyme Q₁₀, and zinc [94-98]. Others feature potent herbal antioxidants such as ginkgo biloba, garlic, green tea etc [99-103].

The word nutraceutical refers to foods or parts of foods that provide medical or health benefits, including the prevention and/or treatment of disease. Some examples of relationships between nutraceuticals and health benefits include the importance of calcium in preventing osteoporosis, folate in the prevention of neural tube defects in infants and the role of decreasing dietary fat and increasing fibre in the prevention of colon cancer. Phytochemicals and antioxidants are two specific types of nutraceuticals [104].

NATURAL HERBAL BALANCE AGAINST OXIDATIVE STRESS

Modern living has increased the challenges to our antioxidant defense system. The term “oxidative stress” has been coined to represent a shift towards the pro-oxidants in the pro-oxidant/antioxidant balance. This is caused by an increase in oxidative metabolism. This oxidative stress at the cellular level is caused by many factors, including exposure to alcohol, medications, trauma, cold, infections, poor diet, toxins, radiation, or strenuous physical activity. This is why very fit athletes are more prone to get “flue” and “colds” - their training regime has increased their oxidative stress. Protection against these processes requires antioxidant substances derived directly or indirectly from the diet. An inadequate diet - modern fast foods - lacking antioxidant nutrients may not allow one’s full antioxidant potential, so increasing overall oxidative stress.

Diseases are proposed to be associated with oxidative stress [105-113]: Atherosclerosis, Anemia, Myocardial infarction, Multiple sclerosis, Cancer, Muscular dystrophy, Pulmonary dysfunction, Pancreatitis, Emphysema, Parkinson’s disease, Cataracts,

Alzheimer’s disease, Macular degeneration, Neonatal lipoprotein oxidation, Degenerative retinal damage, Drug reactions, Arthritis and inflammatory diseases, Skin lesions, Inflammatory & immune injury, Ageing, Inflammatory bowel disease and colitis, Stroke, Diabetes, Shock, trauma, and ischemia, Renal disease and hemodialysis, Halogenated hydrocarbon liver injury.

The human body utilizes an integrated antioxidant system where different natural antioxidants complement each other. The reducing potential of each antioxidant within the whole defense system is enhanced when a full complement of antioxidants is available. As such, the best source of antioxidants is a natural source with a balanced mix of available antioxidants.

FOOD SELECTION CRITERIA AND MAJOR CONTENTS OF ANTIOXIDANT FOODS

We recommend following criteria for the food selection in the preparation of antioxidant foods.

- They must be non-toxic and have no side effects or drug interactions.
- General active components of their contents must be known.
- Safe daily dosages must be known.
- Mostly, their antioxidant potentials should be higher than a base line value.

Under the lights of all these explanations, it has been concluded that natural antioxidant foods can significantly support the medicinal therapies of the patients without any toxicity.

REFERENCES

1. Cheeseman KH, Slater TF; An introduction of free radical biochemistry. Br Med Bull., 1993; 49(3): 481.
2. Halliwell B; Oxidative stress, nutrition and health. Experimental strategies for optimization of nutritional antioxidant intake in humans. Free Radical Res., 1996; 25(1): 57-74.
3. Barber DA, Harris SRX; Oxygen free radicals and antioxidants: a review. Am Pham NS., 1994; 34(9): 26.
4. Freeman BA, Crapo TD; Biology of diseases: free radicals and tissue injury. Laboratory Invest., 1982; 47: 412-425.
5. Maxwell SRJ; Prospect for use of antioxidant therapies. Drugs, 1995; 49(3): 345-361.
6. Cooksey RC, Jouihan HA, Ajioka RS, Hazel MW, Jones DL, Kushner JP *et al.*; Oxidative stress, {beta}-cell apoptosis, and decreased insulin secretory capacity in mouse models of hemochromatosis. Endocrinol., 2004; 145(11): 5305-5312.
7. Johnson LJ, Meacham SL, Kruskall LJ; The antioxidants--vitamin C, vitamin E, selenium,

- and carotenoids. *J Agromedicine.*, 2003; 9(1): 65-82.
8. Esterbauer H; Aldehydic products of lipid peroxidation. In M Brien DCH, Slater TF editors; *Free radicals, lipid peroxidation and cancer.* Academic Press, London, 1982: 101-128.
 9. Rissanen T, Voutilainen S, Nyyssonen K, Salonen JT; Lycopene, atherosclerosis, and coronary heart disease. *Exp Biol Med.*, 2002; 227(10): 900-907.
 10. Ross R; The pathogenesis of atherosclerosis: a perspective for the 1990s. *Nature*, 1993; 362(6423): 801-809.
 11. Singh RB, Niaz MA, Rastogi SS, Rastogi S; Usefulness of antioxidant vitamins in suspected acute myocardial infarction (the Indian experiment of infarct survival-3). *Am J Cardiol.*, 1996; 77(4): 232-236.
 12. Hennekens CH, Gaziano JM, Manson JE, Buring JE; Antioxidant vitamin-cardiovascular disease hypothesis is still promising, but still unproven: the need for randomized trials. *Am J Clin Nutr.*, 1995; 62(suppl 6): 1377S-1380S.
 13. Gokce N, Frei B; Basic research in antioxidant inhibition of steps in atherogenesis. *J Cardiovasc Risk.*, 1996; 3(4): 352-357.
 14. Diaz MN, Frei B, Vita JA, Keaney JF Jr.; Antioxidants and atherosclerotic heart disease. *N Engl J Med.*, 1997; 337(6): 408-416.
 15. Hennekens CH, Buring JE, Manson JE, Stampfer M, Rosner B, Cook NR *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(18): 1145-1149.
 16. Kawai Y, Saito A, Shibata N, Kobayashi M, Yamada S, Osawa T *et al.*; Covalent binding of oxidized cholesteryl esters to protein: implications for oxidative modification of low density lipoprotein and atherosclerosis. *J Biol Chem.*, 2003; 278(23): 21040-21049.
 17. Navab M, Berliner JA, Watson AD, Hama SY, Territo MC, Lusis AJ *et al.*; The yin and yang of oxidation in the development of the fatty streak. *Arterioscler Thromb Vasc Biol.*, 1996; 16(7): 831-842.
 18. Stephens NG, Parsons A, Schofield PM, Kelly F, Cheeseman K, Mitchinson MJ; Randomised controlled trial of vitamin E in patients with coronary disease: Cambridge Heart Antioxidant Study. *Lancet*, 1996; 347(9004):781-786.
 19. Yokoi H, Daida H, Kuwabara Y, Nishikawa S, Takatsu F, Tomihara H *et al.*; Effectiveness of an antioxidant in preventing restenosis after percutaneous transluminal coronary angioplasty: the probucol angioplasty restenosis trial. *J Am Coll Cardiol.*, 1997; 30(4): 855-862.
 20. Steinberg D; Low density lipoprotein oxidation and its pathobiological significance. *J Biol Chem.*, 1997; 272(34): 20963-20966.
 21. Iuliano L, Micheletta F, Violi F; Low-density lipoprotein oxidation. *Ital Heart J.*, 2001; 2(12): 867-872.
 22. Tavani A, Negri E, D'Avanzo B, La Vecchia C; Beta-carotene intake and risk of nonfatal acute myocardial infarction in women. *Eur J Epidemiol.*, 1997; 13(6): 631-637.
 23. Jha P, Flather M, Lonn E, Farkouh M, Yusuf S; The antioxidant vitamins and cardiovascular disease: a critical review of epidemiologic and clinical trial data. *Ann Intern Med.*, 1995; 123(11): 860-872.
 24. Kritchevsky SB, Tell GS, Shimakawa T, Dennis B, Li R, Kohlmeier L *et al.*; Provitamin A carotenoid intake and carotid artery plaques: the Atherosclerosis Risk in Communities Study. *Am J Clin Nutr.*, 1998; 68(3): 726-733.
 25. Durak I, Aytac B, Atmaca Y, Devrim E, Avci A, Erol C *et al.*; Effects of garlic extract consumption on plasma and erythrocyte antioxidant parameters in atherosclerotic patients. *Life Sci.*, 2004; 75(16): 1959-1966.
 26. Durak I, Kavutcu M, Aytac B, Avci A, Devrim E, Özbek H *et al.*; Effects of garlic extract consumption on blood lipid and oxidant/antioxidant parameters in humans with high blood cholesterol. *J Nutr Biochem.*, 2004; 15(6): 373-377.
 27. Avci A, Atmaca Y, Aytac B, Devrim E, Durak I; Garlic extract consumption causes significant increases in plasma nitric oxide synthase activity and nitric oxide levels in atherosclerotic patients. *Clin Chem Lab Med.*, 2003; 41: A102.
 28. Durak İ, Karaca L, Çimen MYB, Kaçmaz M, Avci A, Öztürk HS; Dried white grapes enhance blood antioxidant potential. *Nutr Metab Cardiovasc Dis.*, 2002; 12(4): 204-205.
 29. Durak I, Öztürk HS, Olcay E, Can B, Kavutcu M; Effects of garlic extract supplementation on oxidant / antioxidant status and atherosclerotic plaque formation process in rabbit aorta. *Nutr Metab Cardiovasc Dis.*, 2002; 12: 141-147.
 30. Durak I, Öztürk HS, Olcay E, Güven C; Effects of an antioxidant extract on blood lipid and antioxidant parameters and atherosclerotic plaque formation process in rabbits. *Journal of Herbal Pharmacotherapy*, 2002, 2(2): 19-32.
 31. Durak İ, Kaçmaz M, Çimen MYB, Büyükköçak Ü, Öztürk HS; Blood oxidant/antioxidant status of atherosclerotic patients. *Int J Cardiol.*, 2001; 77(2-3): 293-297.

32. Karaca L, Durak İ; Round seedless white grape consumption enhances serum antioxidant defense potential. *Clin Chem.*, 2000; 46(6): A108.
33. Durak İ, Köksal İ, Kaçmaz M, Büyükkoçak S, Çimen MYB, Öztürk HS; Hazelnut supplementation enhances plasma antioxidant potential and lowers plasma cholesterol levels. *Clinica Chimica Acta*, 1999; 284(1):113-115.
34. Durak İ, Köseoğlu MH, Kaçmaz M, Büyükkoçak S, Çimen MYB, Öztürk HS; Black grape enhances plasma antioxidant potential. *Nutr Res.*, 1999; 19: 973-977.
35. Durak İ, Çimen MYB, Büyükkoçak S, Kaçmaz M, Öztürk HS; Red wine enhances antioxidant potential in plasma and erythrocytes. *Curr Med Res Opin.*, 1999; 15: 208-213.
36. Öztürk HS, Kaçmaz M, Çimen MYB, Durak İ; Red wine and black grape strengthen blood antioxidant potential. *Nutrition*, 1999; 15(11-12): 954-955.
37. Durak İ, Avcı A, Kaçmaz M, Büyükkoçak S, Çimen MYB, Öztürk HS; Red wine, white wine and grape juices have high antioxidant potential. *Curr Med Res Opin.*, 1999; 15: 316-320.
38. Durak I, Özbek H, Elgun S; Cyclosporin A reduces hepatic antioxidant capacity: Protective roles of antioxidants. *International Immunopharmacology*, 2004, 4(3); 469-473.
39. Durak I, Özbek H, Devrim E, Karagenç N, Ergüder İB; Effects of cholesterol supplementation on antioxidant enzyme activities in rat hepatic tissues: possible implications of hepatic paraoxonase in atherogenesis. *Nutr Metab Cardiovasc Dis.*, 2004; 14(4): 211-214.
40. Lockwood AH, Murphy SK, Borislow S, Lazarus A, Pendergast M; Cellular signal transduction and the reversal of malignancy. *J Cell Biochem.*, 1987; 33(4): 237-255.
41. Toporcov TN, Antunes JL, Tavares MR; Fat food habitual intake and risk of oral cancer. *Oral Oncol.*, 2004; 40(9): 925-931.
42. McCullough ML, Giovannucci EL; Diet and cancer prevention. *Oncogene*, 2004; 23(38): 6349-6364.
43. Weisburger JH; Antimutagens, anticarcinogens, and effective worldwide cancer prevention. *J Environ Pathol Toxicol Oncol.*, 1999; 18(2): 85-93.
44. Tadjalli-Mehr K, Becker N, Rahu M, Stengrevics A, Kurtinaitis J, Hakama M; Randomized trial with fruits and vegetables in prevention of cancer. *Acta Oncol.*, 2003; 42(4): 287-293.
45. Greenwald P, Lanza E, Eddy GA; Dietary fiber in the reduction of colon cancer risk. *J Am Diet Assoc.*, 1987; 87(9): 1178-1188.
46. Thompson LU; Antioxidants and hormone-mediated health benefits of whole grains. *Crit Rev Food Sci Nutr.*, 1994; 34(5-6): 473-497.
47. Lubin F, Wax Y, Modan B; Role of fat, animal protein and dietary fiber in breast cancer etiology: a case control study. *J Natl Cancer Inst.*, 1986; 77(3): 605-612.
48. Slavin JL, Jacobs D, Marquart L; Grain processing and nutrition. *Crit Rev Food Sci Nutr.*, 2000; 40(4): 309-326.
49. Wynder EL, Rose DP, Cohen LA; Diet and breast cancer in causation and therapy. *Cancer*, 1986; 58(8 Suppl): 1804-1813.
50. Neaogoe A, Molnar AM, Acalovschi M, Seicean A, Serban A; Risk factors for colorectal cancer: an epidemiologic descriptive study of a series of 333 patients. *Rom J Gastroenterol.*, 2004; 13(3):187-193.
51. Bingham SA; Meat, starch, and non-starch polysaccharides and bowel cancer. *Am J Clin Nutr.*, 1988; 48: 762-767.
52. English DR, MacInnis RJ, Hodge AM, Hopper JL, Haydon AM, Giles GG; Red meat, chicken, and fish consumption and risk of colorectal cancer. *Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev.*, 2004; 13(9):1509-1514.
53. Malter M; Natural killer cells, vitamins, and other blood components of vegetarian and omnivorous men. *Nutr Cancer*, 1989;12(3): 271-278.
54. Rose DP, Boyar AP, Wynder EL; International comparisons of mortality rates for cancer of the breast, ovary, prostate, and colon, and per capita food consumption. *Cancer*, 1986; 58(11): 2363-2371.
55. Owen RW, Henly PJ, Thompson MH, Hill MJ; Steroids and cancer: faecal bile acid screening for early detection of cancer risk. *J Steroid Biochem.*, 1986; 24(1): 391-394.
56. Shklar G, Schwartz J, Trickler D, Cheverie SR; The effectiveness of a mixture of beta-carotene, alpha-tocopherol, glutathione, and ascorbic acid for cancer prevention. *Nutr Cancer.*, 1993; 20(2):145-151.
57. Zhang J, Hsu B A JC, Kinseth B A MA, Bjeldanes LF, Firestone GL; Indole-3-carbinol induces a G1 cell cycle arrest and inhibits prostate-specific antigen production in human LNCaP prostate carcinoma cells. *Cancer*, 2003; 98(11): 2511-2520.
58. Shklar G, Schwartz J, Trickler D, Reid S; Regression of experimental cancer by oral administration of combined alpha-tocopherol and beta-carotene. *Nutr Cancer*, 1989; 12(4): 321-325.
59. Prabhala RH, Braune LM, Garewal HS, Watson RR; Influence of beta-carotene on immune functions. *Ann N Y Acad Sci.*, 1993; 691: 262-263.

60. Spector D, Anthony M, Alexander D, Arab L; Soy consumption and colorectal cancer. *Nutr Cancer*, 2003; 47(1): 1-12.
61. Durak İ, Özbek H, Karaayvaz M, Öztürk HS; Cisplatin induces acute renal failure by impairing antioxidant system in guinea pigs: effects of antioxidant supplementation on the cisplatin nephrotoxicity. *Drug Chem Toxicol.*, 2002; 25(1): 1-8.
62. Avcı A, Erdal D, Kaçmaz M, Durak İ; Effects of garlic and red clover extracts on adenosine deaminase activities of cancerous and non cancerous human liver tissues. *Natural Product Radiance*, 17(S3): 84
63. Kavutçu M, Aytaç B, Canbolat O, Durak İ; Effects of an antioxidant supplementation on activated thromboplastine time and platelet and leukocyte counts in volunteer human subjects. *Journal of Tumor Marker Oncology*, 2005; 4(2): 97-101.
64. Durak I, Yılmaz E, Devrim E, Perk H, Kaçmaz M; Consumption of aqueous garlic extract leads to significant improvement in patients with benign prostate hyperplasia and prostate cancer. *Nutr Res.*, 2003; 23: 199-204.
65. Durak I, Biri H, Avcı A, Sözen S, Devrim E; Tomato juice inhibits adenosine deaminase activity in human prostate tissue from patients with prostate cancer. *Nutr Res.*, 2003; 23: 1183-1188.
66. Durak I, Biri H, Devrim E, Sözen S, Avcı A; Aqueous extract of *Urtica dioica* makes significant inhibition on adenosine deaminase activity in prostate tissue from patients with prostate cancer. *Cancer Biol Ther.*, 2004; 3(9): 855-857.
67. Harman D; The ageing process. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA.*, 1981; 78: 7124-7129.
68. Sorensen M, Autrup H, Moller P, Hertel O, Jensen SS, Vinzents P *et al.*; Linking exposure to environmental pollutants with biological effects. *Mutat Res.*, 2003; 544(2-3): 255-271.
69. Bejma J, Ramires P, Ji LL; Free radical generation and oxidative stress with ageing and exercise: differential effects in the myocardium and liver. *Acta Physiol Scand.*, 2000; 169(4): 343-351.
70. Knoops KT, de Groot LC, Kromhout D, Perrin AE, Moreiras-Varela O, Menotti A *et al.*; Mediterranean diet, lifestyle factors, and 10-year mortality in elderly European men and women: the HALE project. *JAMA*, 2004; 292(12): 1433-1439.
71. Heber D; Vegetables, fruits and phytoestrogens in the prevention of diseases. *J Postgrad Med.*, 2004; 50(2):145-149.
72. Miquel J, Ramirez-Bosca A, Soler A; Increase with age of serum lipid peroxides: implications for the prevention of atherosclerosis. *Mech Ageing Dev.*, 1998; 100: 17-24.
73. De la Fuente M; Role of antioxidants in the nutrition of the elderly. *Rev Esp Geriatr Gerontol.*, 2000; 35(Suppl. 4): 63-71.
74. Krajcovicova-Kudlackova M, Ursinyova M, Blazicek P, Spustova V, Ginter E, Hladikova V *et al.*; Free radical disease prevention and nutrition. *Bratisl Lek Listy.*, 2003; 104(2): 64-68.
75. Krajcovicova-Kudlackova M, Spustova V, Paukova V; Lipid peroxidation and nutrition. *Physiol Res.*, 2004; 53(2): 219-224.
76. Willcox JK, Ash SL, Catignani GL; Antioxidants and prevention of chronic disease. *Crit Rev Food Sci Nutr.*, 2004; 44(4): 275-295.
77. Chiu DT, Liu TZ; Free Radical and Oxidative Damage in Human Blood Cells. *J Biomed Sci.*, 1997; 4(5): 256-259.
78. Traupe T, Ortmann J, Munter K, Barton M; Endothelial therapy of atherosclerosis and its risk factors. *Curr Vasc Pharmacol.*, 2003; 1(2):111-121.
79. Biri H, Öztürk HS, Büyükköçak S, Kaçmaz M, Çimen MYB, Ünal D *et al.*; Antioxidant defense potential of rabbit renal tissues after ESWL: protective effects of antioxidant vitamins. *Nephron*, 1998; 79: 181-185.
80. Choi SW, Benzie IF, Collins AR, Hannigan BM, Strain JJ; Vitamins C and E: acute interactive effects on biomarkers of antioxidant defence and oxidative stress. *Mutat Res.*, 2004; 551(1-2):109-117.
81. Ascherio A, Stampfer MJ, Colditz GA, Rimm EB, Litin L, Willett WC; Correlations of vitamin A and E intakes with the plasma concentrations of carotenoids and tocopherols among American men and women. *J Nutr.*, 1992; 122(9): 1792-1801.
82. Cuzzocrea S, Thiemermann C, Salvemini D; Potential therapeutic effect of antioxidant therapy in shock and inflammation. *Curr Med Chem.*, 2004; 11(9):1147-1162.
83. Becker S, Soukup JM; Decreased CD11b expression, phagocytosis, and oxidative burst in urban particulate pollution-exposed human monocytes and alveolar macrophages. *J Toxicol Environ Health A.*, 1998; 55(7): 455-477.
84. Suresh Y, Sailaja Devi MM, Manjari V, Das UN; Oxidant stress, antioxidants and nitric oxide in traffic police of Hyderabad, India. *Environ Pollut.*, 2000; 109(2): 321-325.
85. Ghio AJ, Stonehuerner J, Dailey LA, Carter JD; Metals associated with both the water-soluble and insoluble fractions of an ambient air pollution particle catalyze an oxidative stress. *Inhal Toxicol.*, 1999; 11(1): 37-49.

86. Goldsmith CA, Imrich A, Danaee H, Ning YY, Kobzik L; Analysis of air pollution particulate-mediated oxidant stress in alveolar macrophages. *J Toxicol Environ Health A*, 1998; 54(7): 529-545.
87. Sobczak A, Golka D, Szoltysek-Boldys I; The effects of tobacco smoke on plasma alpha- and gamma-tocopherol levels in passive and active cigarette smokers. *Toxicol Lett.*, 2004; 151(3): 429-437.
88. Iscan M, Coban T, Cok I, Bulbul D, Eke BC, Burgaz S; The organochlorine pesticide residues and antioxidant enzyme activities in human breast tumors: is there any association? *Breast Cancer Res Treat.*, 2002; 72(2): 173-182.
89. Hernandez I, Alegre L, Munne-Bosch S; Drought-induced changes in flavonoids and other low molecular weight antioxidants in *Cistus clusii* grown under Mediterranean field conditions. *Tree Physiol.*, 2004; 24(11): 1303-1311.
90. Michaud DS, Pietinen P, Taylor PR, Virtanen M, Virtamo J, Albanes D; Intakes of fruits and vegetables, carotenoids and vitamins A, E, C in relation to the risk of bladder cancer in the ATBC cohort study. *Br J Cancer*, 2002; 87(9): 960-965.
91. Zhan CD, Sindhu RK, Pang J, Ehdaie A, Vaziri ND; Superoxide dismutase, catalase and glutathione peroxidase in the spontaneously hypertensive rat kidney: effect of antioxidant-rich diet. *J Hypertens.*, 2004; 22(10): 2025-2033.
92. Rabbani GH, Saha SK, Akhtar M, Marni F, Mitra AK, Ahmed S *et al.*; Antioxidants in detoxification of arsenic-induced oxidative injury in rabbits: preliminary results. *J Environ Sci Health Part A Tox Hazard Subst Environ Eng.*, 2003; 38(1): 273-287.
93. Gariballa SE, Hutchin TP, Sinclair AJ; Antioxidant capacity after acute ischaemic stroke. *QJM*, 2002; 95(10): 685-690.
94. Shao ZH, Vanden Hoek TL, Xie J, Wojcik K, Chan KC, Li CQ *et al.*; Grape seed proanthocyanidins induce pro-oxidant toxicity in cardiomyocytes. *Cardiovasc Toxicol.*, 2003; 3(4): 331-339.
95. Leibovitz B, Hu ML, Tappel AL; Dietary supplements of vitamin E, beta-carotene, coenzyme Q10 and selenium protect tissues against lipid peroxidation in rat tissue slices. *J Nutr.*, 1990; 120(1): 97-104.
96. Mantovani G, Maccio A, Madeddu C, Mura L, Gramignano G, Lusso MR *et al.*; The impact of different antioxidant agents alone or in combination on reactive oxygen species, antioxidant enzymes and cytokines in a series of advanced cancer patients at different sites: correlation with disease progression. *Free Radic Res.*, 2003; 37(2): 213-223.
97. Galan P, Preziosi P, Monget AL, Richard MJ, Arnaud J, Lesourd B *et al.*; Effects of trace element and/or vitamin supplementation on vitamin and mineral status, free radical metabolism and immunological markers in elderly long term-hospitalized subjects. *Geriatric Network MIN. VIT. AOX. Int J Vitam Nutr Res.*, 1997; 67(6): 450-460.
98. Sandhya P, Varalakshmi P; Effect of lipoic acid administration on gentamicin-induced lipid peroxidation in rats. *J Appl Toxicol.*, 1997; 17(6): 405-408.
99. Rababah TM, Hettiarachchy NS, Horax R; Total phenolics and antioxidant activities of fenugreek, green tea, black tea, grape seed, ginger, rosemary, gotu kola, and ginkgo extracts, vitamin E, and tert-butylhydroquinone. *J Agric Food Chem.*, 2004; 52(16): 5183-5186.
100. Yin MC, Hwang SW, Chan KC; Nonenzymatic antioxidant activity of four organosulfur compounds derived from garlic. *J Agric Food Chem.*, 2002; 50(21): 6143-6147.
101. Ilieva I, Ohgami K, Shiratori K, Koyama Y, Yoshida K, Kase S *et al.*; The effects of Ginkgo biloba extract on lipopolysaccharide-induced inflammation in vitro and in vivo. *Exp Eye Res.*, 2004; 79(2):181-187.
102. Koo MW, Cho CH; Pharmacological effects of green tea on the gastrointestinal system. *Eur J Pharmacol.*, 2004; 500(1-3): 177-185.
103. Beliveau R, Gingras D; Green tea: prevention and treatment of cancer by nutraceuticals. *Lancet*, 2004; 364(9439):1021-1022.
104. Center SA; Metabolic, antioxidant, nutraceutical, probiotic, and herbal therapies relating to the management of hepatobiliary disorders. *Vet Clin North Am Small Anim Pract.*, 2004; 34(1): 67-172.
105. Mori TA, Beilin LJ; Omega-3 Fatty acids and inflammation. *Curr Atheroscler Rep.*, 2004; 6(6): 461-467.
106. Blasiak J, Arabski M, Krupa R, Wozniak K, Zdrozny M, Kasznicki J *et al.*; DNA damage and repair in type 2 diabetes mellitus. *Mutat Res.*, 2004; 554(1-2): 297-304.
107. Boscia F, Grattagliano I, Vendemiale G, Micelli-Ferrari T, Altomare E; Protein oxidation and lens opacity in humans. *Invest Ophthalmol Vis Sci.*, 2000; 41(9): 2461-2465.
108. Kim YT, Kim JW, Choi JS, Kim SH, Choi EK, Cho NH; Relation between deranged antioxidant system and cervical neoplasia. *Int J Gynecol Cancer.*, 2004; 14(5): 889-895.
109. Jaswal S, Mehta HC, Sood AK, Kaur J; Antioxidant status in rheumatoid arthritis and

- role of antioxidant therapy. *Clin Chim Acta.*, 2003; 338(1-2): 123-129.
110. Nakashidze I, Chikovani T, Sanikidze T, Bakhutashvili V; Manifestations of oxidative stress and its correction in traumatic shock. *Anesteziol Reanimatol.*, 2003; 5: 22-24.
111. Ragusa RJ, Chow CK, Porter JD; Oxidative stress as a potential pathogenic mechanism in an animal model of Duchenne muscular dystrophy. *Neuromuscul Disord.*, 1997; 7(6-7): 379-386.
112. Kirkham PA, Spooner G, Ffoulkes-Jones C, Calvez R; Cigarette smoke triggers macrophage adhesion and activation: role of lipid peroxidation products and scavenger receptor. *Free Radic Biol Med.*, 2003; 35 (7): 697-710.
113. Loguercio C, D'Argenio G, Delle Cave M, Cosenza V, Della Valle N, Mazzacca G *et al.*; Glutathione supplementation improves oxidative damage in experimental colitis. *Dig Liver Dis.*, 2003; 35(9): 635-641.