

Changes in plasma antioxidant capacity and oxidized low-density lipoprotein levels in men after short-term cranberry juice consumption

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Abstract

Low-density lipoprotein (LDL) oxidation is closely implicated in the development of atherosclerotic cardiovascular disease (CVD), and thus, reducing LDL susceptibility to oxidation with antioxidants could be of importance in CVD prevention. Flavonoids, polyphenolic compounds found in a large selection of fruits and vegetables, have been characterized as having a strong antioxidant potential, and intake of flavonoid-rich foods has been related to decreased morbidity and mortality from heart disease. The present study was therefore undertaken to investigate the effect of flavonoid-rich cranberry juice supplementation on plasma lipoprotein levels and LDL oxidation. For that purpose, 21 men (age \pm SD, 38 ± 8 years) were enrolled in a 14-day intervention and instructed to drink cranberry juice 7 mL/kg body weight per day. Physical and metabolic measures including plasma lipid and oxidized LDL (OxLDL) concentrations as well as antioxidant capacity were performed before and after the intervention. At baseline, we found that plasma OxLDL levels were significantly associated with waist circumference ($r = 0.47$, $P = .0296$) as well as plasma triglyceride ($r = 0.68$, $P = .0007$) and apolipoprotein B ($r = 0.91$, $P < .0001$) concentrations. The intervention led to a reduction in plasma OxLDL levels ($-9.9\% \pm 17.8\%$, $P = .0131$) and increase in antioxidant capacity ($+6.5\% \pm 10.3\%$, $P = .0140$). However, no relationship was found between both of these changes ($r = -.01$, not significant). The intervention did not result in any improvement of plasma lipoprotein-lipid or inflammatory marker concentrations. Our results show that short-term cranberry juice supplementation is associated with significant increase in plasma antioxidant capacity and reduction in circulating OxLDL concentrations. Although the physiological relevance of our observations needs to be further examined, our study supports the potential role of antioxidant-rich foods in maintaining health and preventing CVD.

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1. Introduction

Cardiovascular disease (CVD) is the leading cause of death in North America [1]. Although an elevated plasma low-density lipoprotein (LDL) cholesterol concentration is an important CVD risk factor [2], a large proportion of CVD events remain unexplained by traditional risk factors such as hypercholesterolemia [3]. This observation led to the suggestion that oxidative modifications of LDL

particles should be considered in the assessment of CVD risk [4]. Indeed, through a series of events, oxidized LDL (OxLDL) particles can induce foam cell formation within the artery wall and lead to the development of atherosclerotic lesions [2,5–10].

Reactive oxygen (ROS) and nitrogen species, the so-called free radicals, are highly reactive molecules that are constantly produced through numerous cellular reactions (eg, mitochondrial respiratory chain and inflammation) which can modify other molecules such as DNA, proteins, and lipids [11–13]. Nature has provided human beings with antioxidant defenses including enzymes [14] and vitamins [15,16] which have the capacity to neutralize free radicals. Depleted antioxidant defenses can lead to oxidative stress, that is, imbalance between the rates of production and

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elimination of free radicals, increasing the likelihood of damage to other molecules. Intervention studies aimed at replenishing antioxidant reserves and their impacts on health have mostly focused on the consumption of vitamins A, C, and E, but these studies have yielded conflicting results [17], raising the questions as to whether vitamins are the most potent antioxidants available and even suggesting a pro-oxidative potential of vitamins under certain circumstances [18]. On the other hand, polyphenolic compounds such as flavonoids possess an important antioxidant capacity [19,20], and a diet rich in flavonoids has been associated with the reduction of CVD risk [15]. Flavonoids are present in a large selection of fruits and vegetables [21,22] and thus must be considered an essential component of a healthy diet. Cranberries (*Vaccinium macrocarpon*) are one of the most important sources of flavonoids, including quercetin and myricetin, which are known to be potent antioxidants [23]. Whereas consuming cranberry-related products has been shown to prevent urinary tract infections [24], not much is known of the cardioprotective potential of cranberries. The present study was therefore undertaken to explore the potential beneficial impact of short-term cranberry juice consumption on plasma antioxidant capacity and OxLDL concentrations.

2. Subjects and methods

2.1. Subjects

Twenty-one healthy men (mean age \pm SD, 38 ± 8 years) were recruited and selected to cover a wide range of body fatness values. To be part of the study, subjects had to be weight-stable for at least 6 months before the study and free of CVD, diabetes, as well as renal, hepatic, or endocrine disorders. Exclusion criteria also included alcohol consumption (≥ 2 drinks per day), smoking, unusual dietary habits, and use of medication known to affect insulin or lipoprotein-lipid metabolism. Subjects using vitamin, mineral, antioxidant, or flavonoid supplements were also excluded from the study. Individuals gave their written consent to participate in the study which was approved by the Medical Ethics Committee of the Laval University Medical Research Center.

2.2. Intervention

Subjects enrolled in the study were instructed to consume cranberry juice (Ocean Spray's Light Cranberry Juice Cocktail, Ocean Spray Cranberries, Inc, Lakeville-Middleborough, Mass) at a daily dose of 7 ml/kg of body weight for a period of 14 consecutive days. A personally calibrated glass and cranberry juice supply for the entire intervention were provided to the participants on their first visit to the investigation unit. We used the light version of the juice, artificially sweetened with sucralose (Splenda, McNeil Nutritionals LLC, Fort Washington, Pa) to avoid the potential detrimental metabolic impact of the added sugar

consumption during the course of the intervention. Subjects visited the laboratory at the beginning and at the end of the study at which time anthropometric measures were made and blood sampling was performed.

2.3. Anthropometric measurements

Body weight, height, as well as waist and hip circumferences were measured following standardized procedures [25]. Body mass index (BMI) and the waist/hip ratio (WHR) were calculated.

2.4. Plasma lipid and lipoprotein concentrations

Blood samples were obtained from an antecubital vein in the morning after a 12-hour overnight fast. Cholesterol and triglyceride (TG) levels were determined in plasma by enzymatic methods using RA-1000 analyzer (Bayer Corporation Inc, Tarrytown, NY), as previously described [26]. High-density lipoprotein (HDL) levels were obtained after precipitation of apolipoprotein (apo) B containing lipoproteins in plasma with heparin and $MnCl_2$ [27]. The cholesterol and TG contents of the HDL fraction were measured as previously presented. LDL cholesterol levels were calculated using the Friedewald equation [28]. Apo B concentrations were measured in plasma by nephelometry (Dade Behring, Mississauga, Ontario, Canada). The lyophilized serum standards for apo B measurements were prepared in our laboratory and calibrated with reference standards obtained from the Centers for Disease Control (Atlanta, Ga). Distinct subpopulations of LDL particles were separated in whole plasma using nondenaturing 2% to 16% gradient gel electrophoresis as described previously [29]. LDL peak particle diameter was identified as the most prevalent subclass of LDL in each individual and was calculated from calibration curves using plasma standards of known diameter. Coefficient of variation of the technique is $<2\%$.

2.5. Plasma antioxidant capacity, OxLDL, and inflammatory marker levels

Plasma antioxidant capacity was measured with the metmyoglobin assay developed by Miller et al [30]. Briefly, the assay is based on the inhibition by antioxidants of the absorbance of the radical cation of 2,2'-azinobis(3-ethylbenzothiazoline 6-sulfonate) (ABTS). Plasma samples were mixed with ABTS, metmyoglobin, and hydrogen peroxide. Antioxidant capacity or percentage inhibition of the reaction is calculated as the change in coloration of the solution that is recorded by spectrophotometry (660 nm) at 0 and 3 minutes after mixing of the compounds. Plasma OxLDL levels were measured by enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay using a commercial kit (ALPCO Diagnostics, Windham, NH). The technique used for the measurement of OxLDL that was used in the study was developed by Holvoet et al [31]. The assay is a capture enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay in which the wells of the microtiter

Table 1
Baseline physical and metabolic characteristics of the subjects

Variables	Mean \pm SD	Range
No. of subjects	21	
BMI (kg/m ²)	26.9 \pm 3.8	22.3–35.9
Body weight (kg)	84.9 \pm 11.9	66.7–109.1
Waist circumference (cm)	92.7 \pm 12.4	73.5–117.5
Hip circumference (cm)	98 \pm 8	84–115
WHR	0.95 \pm 0.08	0.84–1.15
Systolic pressure (mm Hg)	110 \pm 10	91–127
Diastolic pressure (mm Hg)	72 \pm 7	58–82
Total cholesterol (mmol/L)	5.11 \pm 0.86	3.57–7.04
TGs (mmol/L)	1.24 \pm 0.42	0.61–2.12
HDL cholesterol (mmol/L)	1.24 \pm 0.28	0.70–1.83
LDL cholesterol (mmol/L)	3.29 \pm 0.75	2.14–4.98
Apolipoprotein B (g/L)	0.97 \pm 0.20	0.59–1.32
Total/HDL cholesterol	4.27 \pm 1.01	2.49–6.49
LDL particle size (nm)	25.47 \pm 0.14	25.16–25.73

plates are coated with the monoclonal antibody 4E6 (mAb-4E6) that is directed against a conformational epitope in the apo B-100 moiety of LDL that is generated as a consequence of substitution of lysine residues of apo B-100 with aldehydes. All measurements were done on the same day, and the variation coefficients of both techniques is <3%.

2.6. Nutritional habits assessment

A 91-item validated food frequency questionnaire [32] was administered by a nutritionist during the first visit of the subjects to the hospital. The food frequency questionnaire was structured to reflect food habits of the Québec population. Food items were listed in food groups: (1) vegetables, (2) fruits, (3) legumes, nuts, and seeds, (4) cereals and grain products, (5) milk and dairy products, (6) meat/processed meat, (7) poultry, (8) fish, (9) eggs, (10) sweets, (11) oils and fats, as well as (12) fast foods and drinks. During the interview, the nutritionist used food

models for a better estimation of the real portion consumed by the subjects. Data were analyzed with the Nutrition Data System for Research software (version 4.03), developed by the Nutrition Coordination Center Food and Nutrient Database 31 (University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minn). This database includes more than 16000 food items for which the complete nutritional value of 112 nutrients is included.

2.7. Statistical analyses

Unless mentioned otherwise, data are presented as mean \pm SD. Paired student *t* tests were used to determine the significance of metabolic changes induced by the intervention. In all analyses, a *P* value of $\leq .05$ was considered significant. When required, variables were log₁₀-transformed for statistical comparisons, but for practical reasons, raw data are presented in tables and figures. All analyses were conducted using the SAS statistical package (version 8.2, SAS Institute, Cary, NC).

3. Results

Table 1 shows baseline physical and metabolic characteristics of the subjects. We found that waist circumference ($r = 0.47$, $P < 0.05$) was significantly associated with plasma OxLDL levels (Table 2). A dyslipidemic profile including high plasma total and LDL cholesterol, TG, and apo B concentrations and the presence of small dense particles was also associated to increased plasma OxLDL levels (Table 2). Association between plasma OxLDL and lipoprotein-lipid profile variables (total cholesterol, LDL cholesterol, TGs, and LDL particle size) were all maintained after adjustment for waist circumference (data not shown). No association was found between circulating OxLDL concentration and plasma HDL cholesterol.

Although no association was found between the intake of saturated ($r = -0.33$, not significant [ns]), monounsaturated

Table 2
Associations between baseline physical and metabolic characteristics and plasma OxLDL concentrations

Variables	OxLDL	
	<i>r</i>	<i>P</i> value
Weight	0.21	.3722
BMI	0.33	.1493
Waist circumference	0.47	.0296
Hip circumference	0.28	.2163
WHR	0.52	.0152
Total cholesterol	0.85	.0001
TGs	0.68	.0007
LDL cholesterol	0.86	.0001
HDL cholesterol	−0.01	.9599
Total/HDL cholesterol	0.71	.0003
Apolipoprotein B	0.91	.0001
LDL particle size	−0.61	.0031
Antioxidant capacity	−0.05	.8447

Table 3
Changes in physical and metabolic characteristics after the intervention

Variables	Change \pm SD	<i>P</i> value
BMI (kg/m ²)	−0.14 \pm 0.34	.0114
Body weight (kg)	−0.46 \pm 1.02	.0516
Waist circumference (cm)	−0.12 \pm 0.93	.7925
Hip circumference (cm)	−0.07 \pm 1.23	.5657
WHR	0.00 \pm 0.02	.7886
Systolic pressure (mm Hg)	−1.86 \pm 4.50	.0730
Diastolic pressure (mm Hg)	−1.23 \pm 4.00	.1713
Total cholesterol (mmol/L)	0.09 \pm 0.37	.2712
TGs (mmol/L)	0.02 \pm 0.26	.7728
HDL cholesterol (mmol/L)	0.01 \pm 0.12	.5696
LDL cholesterol (mmol/L)	0.07 \pm 0.29	.2939
Apolipoprotein B (g/L)	0.03 \pm 0.09	.2255
Total/HDL cholesterol	0.05 \pm 0.39	.5914
LDL particle size (nm)	0.00 \pm 0.17	.9682

($r = -0.15$, ns), or polyunsaturated ($r = -0.23$, ns) fats and plasma OxLDL concentrations, we found significant negative associations between circulating OxLDL levels at baseline and dietary glucose ($r = -0.51$, $P = .0267$), fructose ($r = -0.50$, $P = .0306$), and galactose ($r = -0.49$, $P = .0324$) intake.

As shown in Table 3, the 14-day intervention led to a small but significant ($P = .0114$) decrease in BMI as well as a 2% reduction in systolic blood pressure in response to the intervention, although the latter failed to reach statistical significance ($P = .0730$). No change was noted in the lipoprotein-lipid profile of the subjects including LDL peak particle sizing after 14-day cranberry juice supplementation. However, as shown in Fig. 1, we noted a significant increase in plasma total antioxidant capacity ($+0.11 \pm 0.19 \mu\text{mol/L}$, $P < .05$) and reduction in plasma OxLDL concentration ($-6.0 \pm 10.0 \text{ U/L}$, $P < .05$) after the inter-

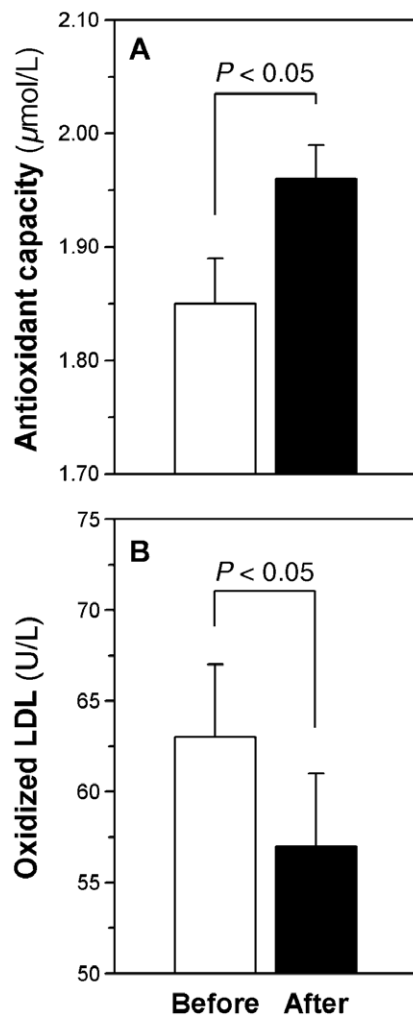


Fig. 1. Plasma (A) antioxidant capacity and (B) OxLDL levels before (white bars) and after (black bars) 14-day cranberry juice supplementation in men. Change in plasma antioxidant capacity $+0.11 \pm 0.04 \mu\text{mol/L}$ or $+6.5\% \pm 2.2\%$. Change in plasma OxLDL $-6.0 \pm 2.19 \text{ U/L}$ or $-9.9\% \pm 3.9\%$. Data are presented as mean \pm SEM.

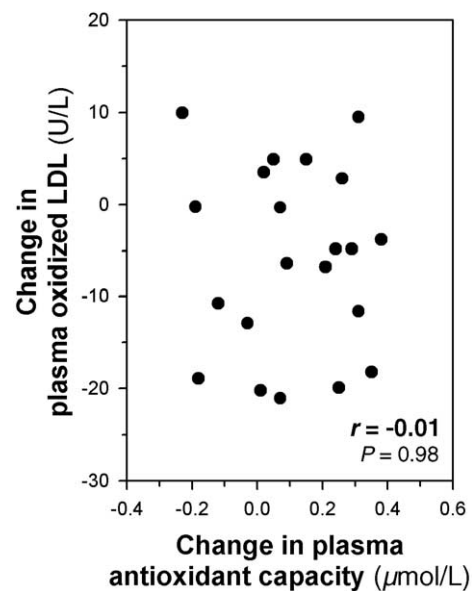


Fig. 2. Lack of association between changes in plasma antioxidant capacity and OxLDL concentrations after 14-day cranberry juice supplementation in men.

vention but noted that these changes were not related to each other ($r = -0.01$, ns; Fig. 2).

4. Discussion

Results of the present study show that short-term daily cranberry juice consumption reduces plasma OxLDL levels and increases plasma antioxidant capacity in men. Considering that cranberries are an important source of polyphenolic molecules with a potent antioxidant activity [33], our results are supportive of the health benefits that can be achieved through the consumption of antioxidant-rich foods [15]. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first study on the relationship between cranberry flavonoid supplementation and plasma OxLDL concentrations. In human beings, free radicals are produced continuously through a number of cellular events including energy production, detoxification of the body, or exhaustive exercise [34], and these free radicals have the capacity to alter the integrity of numerous molecules such as lipids, proteins, and DNA [16]. In this regard, adopting healthier dietary habits to improve body antioxidant defenses must be considered important in the global maintenance of health. Our intervention yielded a 6% increase in total plasma antioxidant capacity, a measure that has been suggested to reflect the capacity of an individual to neutralize free radicals [35,36].

This increase in plasma antioxidant capacity is concordant with a recent study showing an increase in plasma flavonoid as well as phenolic and benzoic acid concentrations after cranberry juice consumption [37]. Surprisingly, the increase in plasma antioxidant capacity noted in the present study was not associated with the decrease in circulating OxLDL concentrations. It is known [37] that

after cranberry juice consumption, there is a rapid degradation of dietary and possibly active flavonoids in plasma. Because antioxidant capacity is a fasting measurement, it may not represent the active antioxidant molecule and thus could explain the lack of association between change in plasma antioxidant capacity and OxLDL levels.

Obesity and especially a preferential accumulation of fat in the abdominal region have been suggested to be associated with a state of oxidative stress, depletion of antioxidant reserves, and oxidative modifications of plasma lipoproteins and lipids [38]. We found a positive association between waist circumference and plasma OxLDL concentrations. A reduction of abdominal fat accumulation cannot, however, be considered as an explanation for the lower OxLDL levels at the end of the intervention, as no change in waist circumference nor WHR was noted. Although subjects were instructed to maintain their usual dietary habits during the course of the intervention, spontaneous changes in the diet of the subjects could also explain our observations. Unfortunately, this issue could not be addressed in our study because nutritional information was only collected at baseline. Thus, our understanding of the present observations is that antioxidants present in cranberry juice are most likely responsible for the reduction in plasma OxLDL levels in men of our study. However, the exact physiological mechanisms by which such an effect takes place remain to be determined.

Although previous reports had suggested that cranberries could have LDL cholesterol lowering and HDL cholesterol raising effects [39], our intervention is not supportive of such an effect as no change in either plasma LDL cholesterol or HDL cholesterol concentrations was noted. The discrepancies between results from these previous studies and the present one could be explained by the short duration of the intervention. Indeed, the favorable impact of cranberry juice on LDL cholesterol and HDL cholesterol concentrations was noted after 4- and 12-week interventions. The lack of effect noted in our study is, however, concordant with a previous 2-week study investigating the effect of flavonoid-rich purple grape juice on plasma lipids [40].

The cross-sectional analysis of the baseline data also allowed us to investigate the metabolic alterations that could be associated with the presence of high plasma OxLDL levels. We found that abdominally obese–dyslipidemic individuals are most likely to show high circulating concentrations of OxLDL. As OxLDL plays an important role in atherogenesis [5,41–43] and has been associated with CVD risk [44], our observations could provide further insights into the increased CVD risk noted in the abdominally obese population [45]. Furthermore, monounsaturated fatty acids have been shown to reduce LDL oxidation compared with saturated and polyunsaturated fatty acids [46]. In the present study, we found no association between either the absolute or relative consumption of saturated fatty acids, monounsaturated fatty acids, or polyunsaturated fatty acids and plasma OxLDL concentrations at baseline.

However, we found that a greater consumption of glucose, fructose, and galactose was associated with low plasma OxLDL levels. Because these carbohydrates mostly come from fruits and dairy products, our observations are concordant with the health benefits than can be retrieved from consuming these foods [47].

In summary, the present study shows that regular cranberry juice consumption is associated with a reduction in plasma OxLDL concentrations and increase in plasma antioxidant reserves. Further studies are needed to confirm the physiological relevance of these observations. It must be pointed out that the absence of a placebo group is an important limitation of our study. However, the information obtained through our intervention warrants the conduction of further studies on the importance of consuming antioxidant-rich foods in maintaining health and preventing chronic diseases.

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