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Metabolism and Bioavailability of Olive Oil Polyphenols

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1. Introduction

The significance of virgin olive oil (VOO), hinged to its many virtues in both gastronomy and health, is nowadays undeniable. Their protective effects are attributed to its high content of monounsaturated fatty acids and to the presence of some minor components, which add up to 2% of the weight. Among its several minor constituents, polar phenolic compounds, usually characterized as polyphenols, have become the subject of intensive research because of their biological activities, their influence on the organoleptic properties of VOO and their contribution to its oxidative stability (Bendini et al., 2007).

The phenolic fraction of VOO consists of a heterogeneous mixture of compounds belonging to several families with varying chemical structures. A brief description of the main classes of phenolic compounds contained in VOO is given below:

- *Phenolic acids*. There are two main series of these acids, depending on the carbon skeleton: benzoic acids (C6-C1: 3-hydroxybenzoic, *p*-hydroxybenzoic, protocatechuic, gentisic, vanillic, syringic and gallic acids) and cinnamic acids (C6-C3: *o*-coumaric, *p*-coumaric, caffeic, ferulic and sinapic acids).
- *Phenolic alcohols*. The two most important in VOO are hydroxytyrosol (Hyty) and tyrosol (Ty), although two Hyty derivatives, its acetate and its glucoside, can be also found. Hyty and Ty only differ in a hydroxyl group in the *meta* position.
- *Secoiridoids*. They are present exclusively in plants of the Oleaceae family. The olives mainly contain the polar oleuropein (Ol) and ligstroside (Lig) glycosides. Ol is the ester of elenolic acid (EA) with Hyty, and Lig is the ester of EA with Ty. Ol and Lig aglycones (Ol Agl and Lig Agl, respectively) are formed by removal of the glucose moiety from glycosides by endogenous β -glucosidases during ripening, oil extraction and storage.
- *Lignans*. (+)-1-Pinoresinol, (+)-1-hydroxypinoresinol and (+)-1-acetoxypinoresinol are the most reported compounds in olive oil.
- *Flavonoids*. The main flavonoids present in VOO are apigenin and luteolin, which are originated from their corresponding glucosides present in the drupe.

The qualitative and quantitative composition of VOO hydrophilic phenols is strongly affected by the agronomic and technological conditions of production (Servili et al., 2004). Among agronomic parameters, the cultivar, the fruit ripening degree, the agronomic

techniques used and the pedoclimatic conditions are the aspects more extensively studied (Tovar et al., 2001; Uceda et al., 1999). Moreover, by modulating technology, it is possible to some extent to optimize the transfer of some polar minor constituents into the oil or reduce their level (Boskou, 2009). The influence of variety, extraction system, ripening degree and storage in the polyphenolic content of a VOO has been extensively discussed in the literature (Boskou, 2009; Uceda et al., 1999).

Wide ranges of total polar phenols concentration have been reported in olive oils (50-1000 mg/kg), although the most usual value is found between 100-350 mg/kg (Boskou et al., 2006). In general, the most abundant phenolic compounds in VOO are aglycones deriving from secoiridoids. Trying to establish levels of individual phenols, Servili & Montedoro (2002) calculated average values of 7 phenolic compounds from a considerable number of samples of industrial olive oils. They concluded that Hyty and Ty were found only in trace amounts (less than 10 mg/kg oil) and the most abundant phenols were decarboxylated Ol Agl (63-840 mg/kg), Ol Agl (85-310 mg/kg), and decarboxylated Lig Agl (15-33 mg/kg). Brenes et al. (2002) published values ranging from 3-67 mg/kg for 1-acetoxypinoresinol, and from 19-41 mg/kg for pinoresinol in 5 Spanish olive oils, data that can be completed with the researches carried out by Romero et al. (2002) and Tovar et al. (2001). Levels of luteolin have been found to be around 10 mg/kg in some Spanish olive oils (Brenes et al., 1999) or ranging between 0.2-7 mg/kg for Greek oils (Murkovic et al., 2004). Carrasco-Pancorbo et al. (2006) developed a method to quantify 14 individual phenols belonging to different families in 7 Spanish extra-virgin olive oils (EVOOs). They also quantified them, finding the following contents (mg/kg): simple phenols: 6.8-11.5; complex phenols: 70.5-799.5; lignans: 0.81-20.6; and flavonoids: 1.4-8.6.

Intake of olive oil in the Mediterranean countries is estimated to be 30-50 g/day, based on the per capita olive oil consumption of 10-20 kg/year in Greece, Italy and Spain (Boskou, 2000; Food and Agricultural Organization, 2000). A daily consumption of 50 g olive oil with a concentration of 180 mg/kg of phenols would result in an estimated intake of about 9 mg of olive oil phenols per day (de la Torre, 2008; Vissers et al., 2004), of which at least 1 mg is derived from free Hyty and Ty, and 8 mg are related to their elenolic esters and also to Ol Agl and Lig Agl (de la Torre, 2008). Some other estimations have been made. For the Greek population (Dilis & Trichopolou, 2009), the daily per-capita intake is about 17 mg. Vissers et al. (2004) estimated that about 1 mg of the phenol intake per day (6 mmol) is derived from Hyty and Ty, about 8 mg (23 mmol) from the aglycones, and so the total phenol intake would be about 29 mmol.

2. Bioavailability of olive oil polyphenols

Accumulating evidence suggests that VOO may have health benefits; it can be considered as an example of a functional food containing a variety of components that may contribute to its overall therapeutic characteristics (Stark & Madar, 2002; Visioli & Bernardini, 2011). To explore and determine the mechanisms of action of olive oil polyphenols and their role in disease prevention, understanding the factors that constrain their release from the olive oil, their extent of absorption, and their fate in the organism is crucial. These issues can be described under the term *bioavailability*, borrowed from the field of pharmacology, redefined as “that fraction of an oral dose, either parent compound or active metabolite, from a particular preparation that reaches the systemic circulation” (Stahl et al., 2002). To simplify this definition, D'Archivio et al. (2010) explained that it simply means how much of the

ingested amount of polyphenols is able to exert its beneficial effects in the target tissues. It is important to realize that the most abundant phenolic compounds in our diet are not necessarily those that have the best bioavailability profile, either because they have a lower intrinsic activity or because they are poorly absorbed from the intestine, highly metabolized, or rapidly eliminated. In addition, the metabolites that are found in blood and target organs, resulting from digestive or hepatic activity, may differ from the native compounds in terms of biological activity (Manach et al., 2004).

Although the information concerning the bioavailability of most olive oil polyphenols is limited, intensive research has been carried out in the past decade. This fact is reflected in the number of reviews published since 2002 (Corona et al., 2009; Covas et al., 2009; de la Torre, 2008; Fitó et al., 2007; Tuck & Hayball, 2002; Visioli et al., 2002; Vissers et al., 2004). To address the bioavailability of olive oil phenolic compounds, we have reviewed *in vitro* and *in vivo* (both animal and human) studies on the absorption, transport, metabolism and excretion of olive oil phenolic compounds.

2.1 Absorption and disposition

Direct evidence on bioavailability of olive oil phenolic compounds has been obtained by measuring the concentration of the polyphenols and their metabolites in biological fluids, mostly plasma and urine, after ingestion of pure compounds or of olive oil, either pure or enriched with the phenolics under study. The majority of research regarding the bioavailability of olive oil polyphenols has been focused on three major phenolics: Hyty, Ty and Ol, as can be seen in **Tables 1** and **2**.

After ingestion, olive oil polyphenols can be partially modified in the acidic environment of the stomach. The effect of such environment on aglycone secoiridoids has been examined *in vitro* by incubating the compounds at 37 °C in simulated gastric pH conditions and during normal physiological time frames (Corona et al., 2006; Pinto et al., 2011). Although hydrolysis takes place releasing free phenolic alcohols, a significant amount remains intact and thus, enters the small intestine unmodified. Ol Agl and its dialdehydic form, however, are likely not absorbed as such in the small intestine; the major metabolites detected using the perfused rat intestine model were the glucuronide conjugates of the reduced form of both compounds (Pinto et al., 2011).

Manna et al. (2000) carried out studies on the transport kinetics of radiolabeled Hyty using differentiated Caco-2 cells. The only metabolite found in the culture medium was the methylated derivative (i.e. homovanillic alcohol - HVAIc). They also demonstrated that Hyty was transported across the membrane of the human enterocytes by a bidirectional passive diffusion mechanism. Caco-2/TC7 cell monolayers have been used to study the metabolism of other olive oil polyphenols, such as Ty, *p*-coumaric acid, pinorelinol, luteolin (Soler et al., 2010) and Hyty acetate (Mateos et al., 2011). Results showed that the methylated conjugates are the main metabolites and that the acetylation of Hyty significantly increases its transport across the small intestinal epithelial cell barrier, enhancing the delivery of Hyty to the enterocytes.

To study the potential hepatic metabolism of olive oil phenols, human hepatoma HepG2 cells were incubated for 2 and 18 h with Ty, Hyty and Hyty acetate (Mateos et al., 2005). Extensive uptake and metabolism of Hyty and Hyty acetate were observed, with scarce metabolism of Ty. Hyty acetate was converted into free Hyty and then metabolized;

Tested Phenol	Model system ^a	Methods	Metabolites Detected	Study Outcome	Ref.
[¹⁴ C] Hyty	Caco-2 cell monolayers	Transport kinetics: incubation with increasing concentrations (50-500 µM) at 37 and 4 °C for 2 min. Transepithelial transport: incubation with 100 µM Hyty, glucose and mannitol	HVAIc	Hyty transport occurs via a passive diffusion mechanism, bidirectionally and in a dose-dependent manner. Hyty is quantitatively absorbed in the intestine	Manna et al., 2000
Ol glycoside	Isolated rat intestine	In situ intestinal perfusion technique: infusion of aqueous solution (1 mM, 50 µl/min) at 37 °C during 40 min in both iso-osmotic and hypotonic luminal conditions		Ol in aqueous solution can be absorbed, albeit poorly, from isolated perfused rat intestine. The P _{app} of Ol in hypotonic conditions is significantly higher	Edgecombe et al., 2000
Hyty, Ty, Hyty-Ac	Hepatoma HepG2 cells	Cell uptake and metabolism of phenols: incubation with 100 µM at 37 °C for 2 and 18 h	Hyty mono-gluc and methyl-gluc, HVA, Ty gluc, Hyty-Ac mono-gluc	Extensive uptake and hepatic metabolism of Hyty and Hyty-Ac with scarce metabolism of Ty; main derivatives formed: glucuronidated and methylated conjugates	Mateos et al., 2005
Hyty, Ty, Ol	Caco-2 cell monolayers and rat segments of jejunum and ileum		Hyty and Ty gluc, HVAIc, Hyty glutathionylated	Hyty and Ty were transferred across the cell monolayers and rat segments of intestine and were subjected to classic phase I/II biotransformation. No absorption of Ol	Corona et al., 2006
Hyty, Ty, <i>p</i> -coumaric acid, pinoresinol, luteolin	Caco-2/TC7 cell monolayers	Phenols metabolism: incubation with 40, 50 and 100 µM at 37 °C for 1, 6 and 24 h. Transport experiments in the AP, cellular and BL compartments: AP loading of phenol at 100 µM	<i>Hyty</i> : methyl, sulfate, methyl-sulfate. <i>Ty</i> : methyl, sulfate. <i>p-Coumaric acid</i> : disulfate, methyl. <i>Pinoresinol</i> : gluc, sulfate. <i>Luteolin</i> : gluc, methyl, methyl-gluc,	Limited intestinal metabolism. Major metabolites: methylated conjugates. Time-dependent efflux of various free and conjugated forms, showing preferential AP to BL transport after 24 h of incubation	Soler et al., 2010
Hyty, Hyty-Ac	Caco-2/TC7 cell monolayers	Metabolism experiments and transport experiments in the AP and BL compartments: incubation with 50 µM at 37 °C for 1, 2 and 4 h	<i>Hyty</i> : HVAIc. <i>Hyty-Ac</i> : Hyty, HVAIc, mono-gluc.	Hyty-Ac is better absorbed than free Hyty and serves to enhance delivery of Hyty to the enterocytes for subsequent metabolism and BL efflux)	Mateos et al., 2011
Ol Agl, dialdehydic form of Ol Agl	Human Caco-2 cell monolayers and isolated lumen of rat intestine (jejunum and ileum)	Transport experiments using Caco-2 cells: incubation with 50, 100 and 200 µM at 37 °C for 2 h; AP loading. Transport experiments using rat intestine: perfusion of methanol solution (100 µM) at 37 °C during 80 min	Hyty, HVAIc, Hyty and HVAIc gluc, gluc conjugates of the reduced forms of tested compounds	Caco-2 cells expressed limited metabolic activity. Major metabolites using the perfused rat intestine model: gluc of the reduce forms. Secoiridoids in the parental form were little absorbed in the small intestine	Pinto et al., 2011

^a Caco-2 cells: model system of the human intestinal epithelium; HepG2 cells: model system of the human liver; TC7 cells: spontaneously differentiating clone derived from the original Caco-2 cell population.
Abbreviations: AP: apical; BL: basolateral; gluc: glucuronide; Hyty: hydroxytyrosol; Hyty-Ac: hydroxytyrosol acetate; HVA: homovanillic acid; HVAIc homovanillic alcohol; Ol: oleuropein; Ol Agl: oleuropein aglycone; P_{app}: apparent permeability coefficient; Ty: tyrosol.

Table 1. *In vitro* studies carried out with olive oil polyphenols.

of the data from humans presented in the literature on the bioavailability refer only to the release of the polyphenols from the food matrix and their consequent absorption (D'Archivio et al., 2010; Vissers et al., 2004).

To address the bioavailability of olive oil phenols, we should exclude studies without a control diet and studies in which the amount of ingested phenols is not reported or could not be estimated (Miró-Casas et al., 2001a; Visioli et al., 2000a; Vissers et al., 2004). In other words, it is essential to characterize in depth the polyphenolic extract of the olive oil before starting bioavailability studies to assure their usefulness; since this fraction is quite complex and heterogeneous, it represents another requirement which difficult the whole process.

Advances in the understanding of olive oil polyphenols metabolism have been made possible by improvements in the analytical methodologies used, particularly high-resolution chromatographic systems with mass spectrometry as detector (Bai et al., 1998; Del Boccio et al., 2003; García-Villalba et al., 2010; Khymenets et al., 2011; Miró-Casas et al., 2003b). Performing metabolomic studies is challenging and requires measurements of a very high quality using powerful platforms. Even if the analyst uses proper tools, the fully structural assignment of the metabolites under study is sometimes very difficult due to the lack of the metabolite standards; fact which makes difficult the correct quantification too (D'Archivio et al., 2010; García-Villalba et al., 2010). The amount of information about the sample under study achieved in metabolomic studies is considerable, that is why for meaningful interpretation the appropriate statistical tools must be employed to manipulate the large raw data sets in order to provide understandable and workable information (Manach et al., 2009).

A very interesting review written by D'Archivio et al. (2010) gives a critical overview about the difficulties and the controversies surrounding the studies aimed at determining the bioavailability of polyphenols. Summarizing, there are some essential steps to be followed to establish conclusive evidences for the effectiveness of polyphenols in disease prevention and in human health improvement: 1) determination of the distribution of these compounds in our diet, estimating their content in each food; 2) identification of which of the existing polyphenols are likely to provide the greatest effects in the context of preventive nutrition, and 3) assesment of the bioavailability of polyphenols and their metabolites, to evaluate their biological activity in target issues.

Even though the bioavailability studies are properly designed, we have to be aware of how many different endogenous and exogenous variables are involved and the difficulties that have to be faced. The main factors recognized as affecting olive oil polyphenols bioavailability can be grouped in the following categories: factors related to the polyphenol characteristics, food/food processing related factors, external factors and factors related to the host, as it can be observed in **Figure 1**. An in-depth discussion of every factor influencing the bioavailability of olive oil polyphenols has been made by Manach et al. (2004) and Cicerale et al. (2009).

4. Conclusions

To explore and understand the mechanism of action of olive oil polyphenols and their role in disease prevention and human health improvement, extensive studies of absorption, metabolism, excretion, toxicity, and efficacy are needed. Although *in vitro* studies can be

very useful and provide valuable information, they have to be completed with extensive *in vivo* research. The first requirement for a beneficiary dietary compound is that it enters into the blood circulation; therefore to demonstrate *in vivo* effects of olive oil phenolics it is necessary to assess first their *bioavailability*.

Analysis of plasma and urine provide valuable information on the identity and pharmacokinetics of circulating metabolites after ingestion. Since the metabolites sequestered in body tissues are not usually taken into account, results from urine samples could be an underestimation. There have been several studies which have determined the metabolites of the various olive oil polyphenols (mainly Hyty, Ty, and Ol) in human plasma and urine after oral intake, although the information is still scarce. The conjugation mechanisms that occur in the small intestine and later in the liver are highly efficient. The resulting metabolites are mainly glucuronate and sulfate conjugates with or without methylation across the catechol group (many are multiply conjugated).

Bioavailability studies are gaining increasing interest as food industries are continually involved in developing new products, defined as “functional” by virtue of the presence of specific antioxidants or phytochemicals. The difference between functional foods and medicines calls for moderation when the “medicinal” properties of individual food items, be it olive oil, are indicated. The correct message should be to select foods whose components have proven, albeit limited in magnitude, biological activities and build a balanced diet round them, to reduce several chronic diseases.

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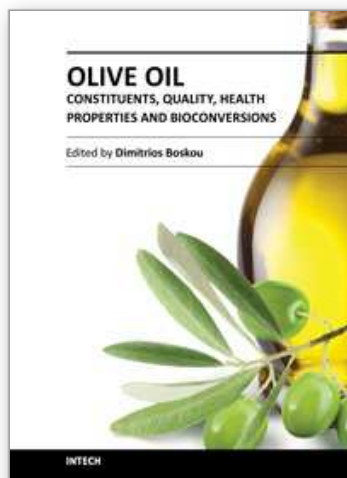
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The health-promoting effects attributed to olive oil, and the development of the olive oil industry have intensified the quest for new information, stimulating wide areas of research. This book is a source of recently accumulated information. It covers a broad range of topics from chemistry, technology, and quality assessment, to bioavailability and function of important molecules, recovery of bioactive compounds, preparation of olive oil-based functional products, and identification of novel pharmacological targets for the prevention and treatment of certain diseases.

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