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Polyphenol Antioxidants and Bone Health: A Review

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1. Introduction

Osteoporosis is a skeletal disease characterized by bone loss and structural deterioration of the bone tissue, leading to an increase in bone fragility and susceptibility to fractures, most frequently in the hip, wrist and spine (Sendur *et al.*, 2009). Bone loss is associated with such factors as age, menopause in women, smoking, alcohol excess, calcium and vitamin D deficiency, low weight and muscle mass, anticonvulsant and corticosteroid use as well as certain co-morbid conditions such as rheumatoid arthritis (Javaid *et al.*, 2008). Worldwide, it has been estimated that fractures caused by osteoporosis account for approximately one in three among women and approximately one in five among men over the age of 50. Although the mechanisms underlying osteoporosis are not fully understood, there is evidence suggesting that oxidative stress caused by reactive oxygen species (ROS) is associated with its pathogenesis (Sahnoun *et al.*, 1997; Basu *et al.*, 2001; Rao *et al.*, 2007).

Oxidative stress is a condition that can be characterized by an imbalance of pro-oxidants and antioxidants with the scale being tipped towards an excess of pro-oxidants, creating abnormally high concentrations of ROS. ROS are a family of highly reactive, oxygencontaining molecules and free radicals, including hydroxyl (OH -) and superoxide radicals (O2 -), hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂), singlet oxygen, and lipid peroxides (Juránek and Bezek, 2005). Several recent studies reported the impact of oxidative stress on osteoclast differentiation as well as on its function resulting to an increase in bone resorption (Garrett *et al.*, 1990; Bax *et al.*, 1992; Mody *et al.*, 2001; Lean, 2003). Furthermore, recent *in vitro* studies have shown the important detrimental role of ROS on osteoblast activity (Park *et al.*, 2005; Bai *et al.*, 2004; Bai *et al.*, 2005). In addition to *in vitro* and animal models, there is also increasing clinical evidence that oxidative stress might be involved in the pathogenesis of osteoporosis (Melhus *et al.*, 1999; Sontakke & Tare., 2002; Basu *et al.*, 2001; Maggio *et al.*, 2003).

Antioxidants are known to mitigate the damaging effects of oxidative stress on cells. Epidemiological evidence has indicated a link between dietary intake of antioxidants and bone health. Fruits and vegetables are important sources of antioxidant phytochemicals that have been shown to play an important role in bone metabolism. Higher consumption of fruits and vegetables has been correlated with a reduction in the risk for the development of osteoporosis. (Arikan *et al.*, 2011; Prentice *et al.*, 2006; Macdonald *et al.*, 2004; Macdonald *et al.*, 2008; Palacios *et al.*, 2006; Tucker *et al.*, 1999; Lister *et al.*, 2007; New, 2003; Trzeciakiewicz *et al.*, 2009).

| Flavonoids Flavonols Flavones Flavone | Category | Subclass | Structure | Common Flavonoid | Food Examples |
|--|----------------|-----------------|----------------------------------|---------------------|---|
| Flavonoids Flavonos Flavones | Phenolic acids | acids | s | | coffee beans |
| Anthocyanidins $\prod_{u=1}^{n} \prod_{i=1}^{n} \prod$ | | Hydroxybenzoic | но Сн ₂ ОН | Gallic acid | gallnuts, sumac, witch hazel, tea leaves, oak bark, |
| Flavanois I_{0} <td></td> <td>Anthocyanidins</td> <td>HO OH OH</td> <td>Cyanidin</td> <td>extract, and red</td> | | Anthocyanidins | HO OH OH | Cyanidin | extract, and red |
| Flavanols $\mu_0 + \mu_0 + $ | | | | Catechins | white, green and black teas |
| Interpretation of the second | | | R ₁ | Theaflavins | black teas |
| FlavonoidsFlavonolsFlavonols $I = 0$ | | Flavanols | R ₂ | | chocolate, fruits |
| FlavonoidsFlavonolsFlavonolsFlavonolsProanthocyanidins Flavonoidsapple skin citrus fruitsFlavonoidsFlavonols μ_{0} μ_{0} μ_{0} μ_{0} μ_{0} μ_{0} FlavonoidsFlavonols μ_{0} μ_{0} μ_{0} μ_{0} μ_{0} μ_{0} FlavonoidsFlavones μ_{0} μ_{0} μ_{0} μ_{0} μ_{0} μ_{0} Flavones μ_{0} μ_{0} μ_{0} μ_{0} μ_{0} μ_{0} μ_{0} Flavones μ_{0} μ_{0} μ_{0} μ_{0} μ_{0} μ_{0} Flavones <td< td=""><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td>and vegetables,</td></td<> | | | | | and vegetables, |
| Flavanones $I_{in} \rightarrow f_{in} \rightarrow f_$ | | | ОН | | red wine, onion, |
| FlavanonesFlavanonesNarigenincitrus fruitsFlavonoidsFlavonolsred and yello onions, tea, wine, apples, onred and yello onions, tea, wine, apples, cranberries, buckwheat, beansFlavonoidsFlavonols $a \rightarrow a \rightarrow$ | | | он | Proanthocyanidins | apple skin |
| Flavanones Flavanones blessed milk Flavonoids Flavonols red and yello onions, tea, wine, apples, cranberries, buckwheat, beans Flavonoids Flavonols flavonols cranberries, buckwheat, beans Flavones flavonoids flavonols flavonoids cranberries, buckwheat, beans Flavones flavones flavonoids flavonoids flavonoids flavonoids Flavonoids Flavonoids flavonoids flavonoids flavonoids flavonoids Flavonoids flavonoids flavonoids flavonoids flavonoids flavonoids Flavonoids flavonoids flavonoids flavonoids flavonoids flavonoids flavonoids Flavones flavonoids flavonoids flavonoids flavonoids flavonoids flavonoids Flavones flavonoids flavonoids flavonoids flavonoids flavonoids flavonoids Flavones flavonoids flavonoids flavonoids flavonoids flavonoids Flavonoids flavonoids flavonoids flavonoids flavonoids flavonoids <t< td=""><td></td><td rowspan="2">Flavanones</td><td>R1</td><td>Hesperidin</td><td></td></t<> | | Flavanones | R1 | Hesperidin | |
| Flavonoids Flavonols Flavonols Flavonols Flavonols red and yello onions, tea, wine, apples, cranberries, buckwheat, beans Flavones Flavones Flavones Flavones Flavones Flavones | | | HO | Narigenin | citrus fruits |
| Flavonoids Flavonols red and yello onions, tea, wine, apples, cranberries, buckwheat, beans Image: state of the state | | i la variorites | | | |
| Flavonoids Flavonols onions, tea, wine, apples, cranberries, buckwheat, beans Image: state of the state o | | | он В | Silybin | |
| Apigenin celery, parsle Flavones Image: R1 Flavones Image: R2 | Flavonoids | Flavonols | HO OH OH | Quercetin | wine, apples, cranberries, buckwheat, beans |
| Flavones Flavones tangerine and other citrus | | 5700 | | | |
| Flavones difference other citrus | | | | Apigenin | celery, parsley |
| | | | R ₁ | | tangerine and |
| I I I I I I I I I I I I I I I I I I I | | Flavones | R2 | Teneritin | |
| HO CONTRACTOR TANGERITIAN Peels | | | HO O R ₃ | Tangeritin | 1 |
| | | | | Lutalin | celery, thyme, |
| | | | on o | | green pepers, |
| soy, alfalfa sprouts, red | | | | | - |
| | | | R ₁ | | |
| Isoflavones Genistein Clover, chickpeas, | | Isoflavones | он | Genistein | |
| | | | HO O ⁺ R ₂ | | peanuts, other |
| он legumes. | | | он | | |

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| Stilbenes | но-соон | Resveratrol | gapes skins, red wine |
|-----------|----------------|---------------------|--------------------------|
| Lignans | HO HO HO | Secoisolaiciresinol | flaxseeds |

Table 1. The different categories of polyphenols, their chemical structures and sources

Of particular interest among the antioxidant phytochemicals present in fruits and vegetables are the polyphenols. Polyphenols can be sub classified as non-flavonoids and flavonoids. Ellagic acid and stilbenes are among the major non-flavonoid polyphenols. Included in the flavonoid polyphenols are the anthocyanins, catechins, flavones, flavonols and isoflavones. The different categories of polyphenols, their chemical structures and sources are shown in Table 1.

Numerous studies have shown the health-promoting properties of polyphenols, providing additional mechanisms through which they promote skeletal health by reducing resorption caused by high oxidative stress (Trzeciakiewicz *et al.*, 2009; Tucker, 2009; Hunter *et al.*, 2008). The antioxidant properties of polyphenols have been widely studied and reported in the literature (Liu *et al.*, 2005; Miyamoto *et al.*,1998; Rassi *et al.*, 2002; Viereck *et al.*, 2002; Ward *et al.*, 2001; Shen *et al.*, 2011; Rao *et al.*, 2007). They strongly support the role of polyphenols in the delayed onset or reduction in the progression of osteoporosis. The protective effects of polyphenols against diseases, including osteoporosis, have generated new expectations for improvements in health. This review will focus mainly on the role of polyphenols in osteoporosis and present results of studies undertaken in our laboratory.

2. Oxidative stress, antioxidants and osteoporosis

Oxidative stress occurs when the production of free radicals through a number of cellular events exceeds the ability of the cell's antioxidant defense to eliminate these oxidants (Baek *et al.,* 2010). These free radicals have the ability to change the integrity of, and thus, damage several biomolecules, such as DNA, proteins and lipids (Baek et al., 2010). There is increasing evidence that oxidative stress is responsible for the pathophysiology of the aging process and may also be involved in the pathogenesis of atherosclerosis, neurodegenerative diseases, cancer, and diabetes. Recently, ROS were shown to be responsible for the development of osteoporosis (Sahnoun et al., 1997; Basu et al., 2001; Rao et al., 2007; Altindag et al., 2008; Becker, 2006; Feng & McDonald, 2011). Several in vitro and animal studies have shown that oxidative stress diminishes the level of bone formation by reducing the differentiation and survival of osteoblasts (Baek et al., 2010). Furthermore, it has been reported that ROS activate osteoclasts and thus, enhance bone resorption (Baek *et al.*, 2010). The presence of ROS in osteoclasts was also demonstrated by Rao et al. in 2003 Recent evidences from a few clinical studies have also revealed that ROS and/or antioxidant systems might play a role in the pathogenesis of bone loss (Rao et al., 2007; Mackinnon et al., 2010; Abdollahi et al., 2005).

A number of studies have shown that antioxidants have a fundamental role in preventing postmenopausal osteoporosis. For instance, estrogens, whose antioxidant activity is essential in protecting women of reproductive age from cardiovascular disease, stimulate osteoblastic activity through specific receptors, thus favouring bone growth (Banfi *et al.*, 2008). Antioxidant deficiency has been shown to have adverse effect on bone mass (Maggio *et al.* 2003).

Antioxidant enzymes are regarded as the markers of antioxidant defense mechanism against bone resorption. Several studies have investigated the relationship between antioxidant enzymes such as glutathione peroxidase (GP_x) and catalase (CAT) and osteoporosis (MacKinnon *et al.*, 2011; Hahn *et al.*, 2008; Maggio *et al.*, 2003; Sontakke & Tare, 2002).

Recently, many dietary antioxidant nutrients have also been reported to decrease the oxidative stress that takes part in bone-resorptive processes (Rao *et al.*, 2007; Weber, 2001; Peters & Martini, 2010; Macdonald *et al.*, 2004). In addition to the antioxidant enzymes and nutrients, studies have also been directed towards the role of antioxidant phytochemicals such as the carotenoids in osteoporosis which will not be covered here, but has previously been reviewed (Rao & Rao, 2007; Sahni *et al.*, 2009; Tucker, 2009).

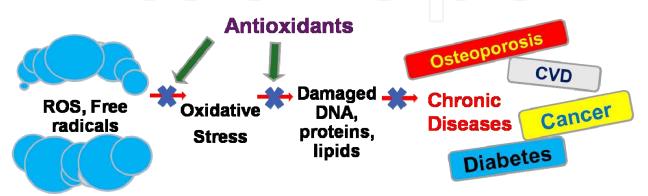


Fig. 1. The role of oxidative stress in osteoporosis and how/where antioxidants play a role in mitigating ROS

3. Natural phytochemical antioxidants

Within the last decade, there has been an increased interest on polyphenols as a result of the *in vitro* evidence demonstrating that they may have numerous benefits to human health, mainly due to their antioxidative and free radical quenching properties (Hendrich, 2006; Lotito & Frei 2006; Heinonen, 2007; Stevenson & Hurst 2007; Aron & Kennedy 2008; Lopez-Lazaro, 2009; Saura-Calixto *et al.* 2007). It is therefore hypothesized that polyphenols may aid in the prevention of aging-associated diseases, particularly cardiovascular diseases, cancers, and osteoporosis.

Polyphenolic compounds are the products of the secondary metabolism of plant and are an essential part of human diet (Goldberg, 2003; Stevenson & Hurst 2007; D'Archivio *et al.*, 2007; Saura-Calixto *et al.* 2007). To date, more than 8,000 polyphenols that have one common structural feature have been identified, a phenol, which is an aromatic ring possessing at least one hydroxyl substituent (Hendrich, 2006; Scalbert & Williamson, 2000; Harborne, 1993). The main classes of polyphenols include phenolic acids, flavonoids, stilbene, and lignans (Spencer *et al.*, 2008; D'Archivio *et al.*, 2007). Figure 1 illustrates the different groups of polyphenols, the chemical structures and food sources. Their total dietary intake can range up to 1 gram/day, which is considerably higher than that of all other classes of polyphenols improve the status of different oxidative stress biomarkers. However, there is uncertainty regarding both the relevance of these biomarkers as predictors of disease risk and the appropriateness of the different methods used.

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| Polyphenol Class | Reference | Principal polyphenol | Model | Main findings |
|---------------------|-----------------------------------|------------------------------------|--|---|
| Phenolic Acids | Papoutsi et al., (2008) | Ellagic acid (10- 100nM) | KS483 | ↑ nodule formation |
| | Ayoub et al., (2009) | 3-methoxyellagic acid (25ug/ml) | HOS58 & SaOS-2 | ↑ mineralization of bone cell |
| Flavonoids | Zhang et al. (2009) | Naringin | bone mesenchymal stem cells (BMSCs) | Dose-specific (1-100 µg/ml) of the naringin solution may enhance the proliferation and osteogenic differentiation of human BMSCs |
| | Choi (2007) | Apigenin | MC3T3-E1 cells | Apigenin (0.01 mM) increased the growth of MC3T3-E1 cells and caused a significant elevation of alkaline phosphatase (ALP) activity and collagen content in the cells |
| | Kim et al. (2011) | Luteolin | Bone marrow cells were prepared by removing from the femora and tibiae of ICR mice | luteolin decreased differentiation of both bone marrow mononuclear cells and Raw264.7 cells into osteoclasts, inhibited the bone resorptive activity of differentiated osteoclasts. |
| | Choi (2011) | Kaempferol | MC3T3-E1 cells | induced the activation of PI3K (phosphoinositide 3-kinase), Akt (protein kinase B), and CREB (cAMP- response element-binding protein). This may prevent or reduce degerneration of osteoblasts |
| | Wattel et al. (2004) | Quercetin | RAW 264.7 cells, peripheral blood monocytic cells (PBMC) | Quercetin (0.1–10 mM) decreased osteoclastogenesis in a dose dependent manner in both models with significant effects observed at low concentrations, from 1 to 5 mM |
| Isoflavones | Sugimoto & Yamaguchi (2000) | Daidzein | MC3T3-E1 cells | increase alkaline phosphatase activity |
| | Rassi et al. (2002) | Daidzein | osteoclasts from young female piglets | inhibits development of osteoclasts from cultures of porcine bone marrow and reduces bone resorption |
| | Viereck et al. (2002) | Genistein | mature human osteoblasts (hOB) | up-regulated OPG production 2–6-fold in a time- and dose-dependent manner, neutralizing RANKL |
| Lignans | Hasegawa et al. (2010) | Honokiol | bone marrow cells of 6wk old mice | Inhibits osteoclast differentiation by suppressing the activation of MAPKs (p38 MAPK, ERK and JNK) |
| Stilbenes | Chang et al. (2006) | Piceatannol | immortalized fetal osteoblasts (hFOB), and osteosarcoma cells (MG-63) | piceatannol increased BMP-2 synthesis, induced osteoblasts maturation and differentiation |
| | Kupisiewicz et al. (2010) | Modified resveratrol analogues | Myeloma cell lines U266 and OPM-2 | Resveratrol analogues showed an up to 5,000-fold increased potency to inhibit osteoclast differentiation and promoted osteoblast maturation compared to resveratrol. |

Table 2. Polyphenols- In vitro studies

4. Polyphenols and osteoporosis

There has been an increase interest in the field of bone health and nutrients, and within the last decade, it has been well recognized that some polyphenols, whether ingested as supplements or with food, do in fact improve bone health status. Currently, most of the research on polyphenols and their effects has emerged from *in vitro* and *in vivo* studies with only a few clinical studies available. Compounds present in fruits and vegetables influence bone health as shown with *in vitro* osteoblast cell culture. On the other hand, epidemiologic studies tend to have mixed results with regards to the protective effects of polyphenol consumption against osteoporosis. Tables 2, 3, and 4 illustrate some of the recent *in vitro*, *in vivo* and clinical studies that have been reported in the literature, respectively.

| Polyphenol Class | Reference | Substance given | Principal polyphenol | Model | Dose per day | Main findings |
|---------------------|-----------------------------|---|--|-------------------------------|------------------|---|
| Phenolic Acids | Chen (2010) | Blueberries | Phenolic acid mixture | Sprague- Dawley rats | | Increase serum osteoblast progenitors, increased osteoblast differentiation, reduced osteoclastogenesis, increase bone mass |
| | Zych et al. (2010) | | Ferulic,caffeic, <i>p</i> - coumaric, chlorogenic, clohexanecarbox ylic acid | Wistar Cmd:(WI)W U rats | 10 mg/kg p.o. | caffeic acid worsened bone mechanical properties |
| | Folwarczna et al. (2010) | | Curcumin | Wistar Cmd:(WI)W U rats | 10 mg/kg, po | no sig. improvement of bone mineralizasation or mechanical properties |
| | Folwarczna et al. (2009) | | Caffeic, <i>p</i> - coumaric, chlorogenic acid | Wistar Cmd:(WI)W U rats | 10 mg/kg p.o. | caffeic acid↓ bone mass, p-coumaric acid↑ bone mass/body mass ratio and bone mineral mass/body mass ratio in long bones |
| Flavonoids | Devareddy et al. (2008) | Blueberries | Variety of phenolic acids and flavonols | OVX rat | 5% w/w | Ovx resulted in loss of whole-body, tibial, femoral, and 4th lumbar BMD by approximately 6%. Blueberry treatment was able to prevent the loss of whole-body BMD and had an intermediary effect on prevention of tibial and femoral BMD |
| | Arjmandi et al. (2010) | (1) 2% Fructooligosacchari des (FOS); 5% FOS+7.5% DP; 2% FOS+5% DP; 2% FOS+2% DP | Variety | OVX rat | | diet of 5% FOS + 7.5% dried plum was most effective in reversing both right femur and fourth lumbar BMD and fourth lumbar |

| | polyphenol (equivalent to 7.5% DP powder); (5) 2% FOS+7.5% DP juice; (6) 2% FOS+7.5% DP puree; (7) 2% FOS+7.5% DP pulp skins; (8) 2% FOS+7.5% raisin; (9) 2% FOS+7.5% fig; (10) 2% FOS+7.5% date; (11) 2% FOS+7.5% blueberry; (12) 2% FOS+0.25% HIMB; and (13) 0.25% HMB. | sh(| | | calcium loss while significantly decreasing trabecular separation. No significant effects of treatment on serum or urine measures of bone turnover. |
|-----------------------|--|--------------------------------|---------------------------|--|---|
| Shen et al. (2008) | Green tea polyphenols (GTP) | (-)Epigallocatechin gallate | OVX rat | concentratio | GTP supplementation increased urinary epigallocatechin and epicatechin concentrations, femur BMD, decreased urinary 8-hydroxy-2'- deoxyguanosine and urinary calcium levels; no effect on serum estradiol |
| Shen et al. (2010) | | (-)Epigallocatechin gallate | 40 female CD rats | 0.5% concentratio n of GTP in drinking water | GTP supplementation increased urinary epigallocatechin and epicatechin concentrations and showed higher values for femur BMC, BMD and serum OC, but lower values for serum TRAP, urinary 8-OHdG and spleen mRNA expression of TNF-a and COX-2 levels. |
| Shen et al. (2011) | | (-)Epigallocatechin gallate | 50 OVX | 0.5% concentratio n of GTP in drinking water | GTP supplementation resulted in increased serum osteocalcin concentrations, bone mineral density, and trabecular volume, number, and strength of femur; increased trabecular volume and thickness and bone formation in both the proximal tibia and periosteal tibial shaft |
| Das et al. (2005) | Black tea extract | Theaflavin | Bilaterally oophorecto | 2.5% aqueous | BTE increase serum estradiol level |

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| | | | | mized rats | BTE at a single dose of 1 ml /100 g body weight | |
|-------------|--|---------------------------------------|---|-------------|--|---|
| | Chiba et al. (2003) | hesperidin & α- glucosylhesperidin | Hesperidin & a- glucosylhesperid in | OVX mice | 0.5 g/100 g hesperidin, 0.7 g/100 g α- glucosylhes peridin | hesperidin or α- glucosylhesperidin restored BMD caused by OVX, α- glucosylhesperidin significantly prevented loss of trabecular bone volume and trabecular thickness in the femoral distal metaphysis |
| | Park et al. (2008) | apigenin | Apigenin | OVX rats | 10 mg/kg | apigenin increased the mineral content and density of the trabecular bone at the neck of the left femur, decreased body weight and dietary consumption |
| | Kim et al. (2011) | luteolin | Luteolin | OVX mice | 5 and 20 mg/kg | luteolin increased bone mineral density and bone mineral content of trabecular and cortical bones in the femur as compared to those of OVX controls |
| | Do et al. (2008) | Rubus coreanus | Anthocyanin | OVX rats | 100 & 200 mg/kg | RCM increased femur trabecular bone area in a dose-dependent manner in ovariectomized rats, increased osteoblast differentiation and osteoclast apoptosis. |
| | Horcajada- Molteni et al. (2000) | Rutin | Rutin | OVX rats | 2.5 g/kg | Rutin prevented decrease in both total and distal metaphyseal femoral mineral density by slowing down resorption and increasing osteoblastic activity caused by OVX, |
| Isoflavones | Arjmandi et al. (1998) | Soy protein | Genistein | 72 OVX rats | 1462 mg/kg genistein, 25.1 mg/kg daidzin, 11.3 mg/kg daidzein | no effect on BMC |
| | Lee et al. (2004) | Soybean | Glycitein | 24 OVX rats | 6.25 g/kg | soybean isoflavone appear to prevent bone loss in femur and lumber vertebrae via a |

| | | | | | | different mechanism of estrogen |
|-----------|-----------------------------|---------------------------------------|--------------------------------------|--|---|--|
| | Miyamoto et al (1998) | 8- isopentenylnaringe nin | 8- isopentenylnarin genin | OVX rats | 30 mg/day | 8-isopentenyl naringenin prevented decrease in BMD and bone turnover markers |
| Lignans | Xiao et al. (2011) | Sambucus williamsii HANCE (SWH) | Lignans | 56 OVX/6J specific- pathogen- free (SPF) female mice | 17b- oestradiol (3 · 2 mg/kg), SWH (60% ethanol crude extract; 1 0 g/kg), SWA (water eluate; 0 570 g/kg), SWB (30% ethanol eluate; 0 128 g/kg) or SWC (50 and 95% ethanol eluates; 0 189 g/kg) | SWC significantly restored bone mineral density and improved bone size and bone content in femur and tibia |
| | El-Shitany et al. (2010) | Silymarin | Silymarin | OVX rats | 50 mg/kg | protected trabecula thickness, decreased serum levels of ALP and increased serum levels of both calcium and phosphorus |
| | Ward et al. (2001) | Flaxseed | Secoisolariciresin ol diglucoside | 20 Sprague- Dawley male rats | 293 μmol SDG/kg | exposure to a diet with flaxseed during lactation through to early adolescence can reduce bone strength, but lignan does is not the mediator, no sig. change in BMD and BMC those fed flaxseed |
| Stilbenes | Pearson et al. (2008) | Resveratrol | Resveratrol | Male C57BL/6NI A mice | 100 mg/kg or 400 mg/kg | Both diets improved distal trabecular tissue mineral density (TMD) and bone volume to total volume ratio over the entire femur compared to control |
| | Liu et al. (2005) | trans-Resveratrol | Resveratrol | OVX rat | 0.7 mg/kg | epiphysis BMD and bone calcium content was significantly greater with resveratrol treatment than that in the OVX group, no differences in femoral midpoint BMD |

Table 3. Polyphenols- In vivo Studies

| Polyphenol Class | Reference | Substance given | Principal polyphenol | Model | Dose per day | Main findings |
|---------------------|-----------------------------|--|---|---|---|---|
| Flavonoids | Hardcastle et al. (2011) | None | Catechin | perimenopausal Scottish women | pe | flavanones were negatively associated with bone-resorption markers, association between energy- adjusted total flavonoid intakes and BMD at the femoreal neck and lumbar spine, annual percent change in BMD was associated with intakes of procyanidins and catechins |
| Isoflavones | Chen et al. (2004) | Soy isoflavone | Daizein | 203 postmenopausal women | placebo: 0 mg isoflavones + 500 mg calcium, mid- dose:40 mg isoflavones+ 500 mg calcium, high-dose:80 mg isoflavones + 500 mg calcium | no effect on BMD in all groups, effect of soy isoflavones on BMC at the total hip and trochanter was less strong in women in early menopause or in those with higher body weight, nonsignificantin BMC in those with a high level of dietary calcium intake |
| | Arjmandi et al. (2005) | Soy protein | Daizein | 87 postmenopausal women | 25 g protein and 60 mg isoflavones | Whole body and lumbar BMD and BMC significantly decreased, and BSAP and osteocalcin increasedin control and soy groups |
| | Kenny et al. (2009) | Soy protein + isoflavone tablets | Isoflavones | 131 postmenopausal women >65 years old | 18 g soy protein and 105 mg isoflavone tablets | no differences in BMD |
| Lignans | Cornish et al. (2009) | Flaxseed | Secoisolaricir esinol diglucoside | 50 men, 50 postmenopausal women | | no effect on BMD |
| | Dodin et al. (2005) | Flaxseed | Secoisolaricir esinol diglucoside | 199 menopausal women | | no sig. change in BMD |

Table 4. Polyphenols - Clinical Studies

There have been several results suggesting that the combination of polyphenolic compounds found naturally in fruits and vegetables may reduce the risk of osteoporosis via increasing bone mineral density (Wu *et al.*, 2002; Morton *et al.*, 2001; Melhus *et al.*, 1999; Leveille *et al.*, 1997; Singh, 1992). In 1992, Singh was able to show that polyphenols afford protection against oxidative stress-induced bone damage during strenuous exercise. Similarly, Melhus was able to show its counteractive effect of polyphenols among smokers (Melhus *et al.*, 1999).

5. Research results on the role of polyphenols in osteoporosis from the author's laboratory

Previous *in vitro* results from our laboratory have shown that a supplement rich in a variety of polyphenols commercially known as greens+TM, is more effective in stimulating

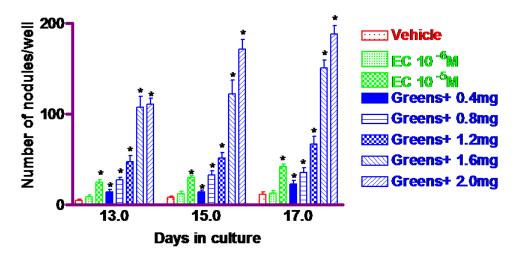
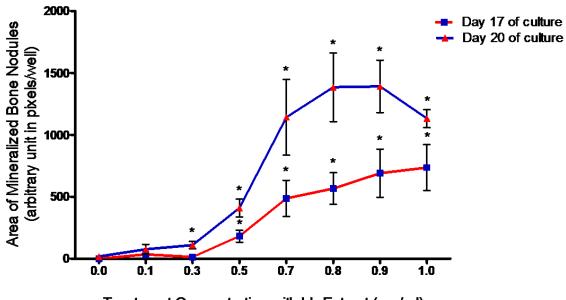


Fig. 2. Dose dependent effect of greens+TM (g+) and epicatechin (EC) compared to vehicle. (p<0.05)



Treatment Concentration with bb Extract (mg/ml)

Fig. 3. Time and dose-dependent effects of bone builderTM on mineralized bone nodule area in Sa0S-2 cells (p < 0.05).

osteoblasts to form more bone nhodules in a dose-dependant manner than epicatechin, the main polyphenol found in green tea (Fig. 2). Our laboratory also studied the effects of a second supplement, bone builderTM, which is rich in minerals, vitamins and nutrients. Similarly to the greens+TM, the water-soluble bone-builder extract had a significant dose-dependent stimulatory effect on bone nodules formation (Fig. 3). Figure 4 shows that when the two supplements, greens+TM and bone builderTM, were tested as combination, the effects were six times more effective than either one alone. This led us to believe that synergistic effects of greens+TM and bone builderTM may have a beneficial effect on osteoporosis. We then conducted a clinical evaluation of this nutritional supplement greens+ bone builderTM Results have shown that there was an increase in total antioxidant capacity after 8 weeks of treatment compared to placebo (Fig 4). as well as a decrease in both lipid and protein oxidation over a 4 and 8-weeks of intervention with greens+ bone builderTM compared to placebo (Fig. 6 & 7). This suggests that the nutritional supplement may have a beneficial effect on bone health by mitigating the effects of oxidative stress.

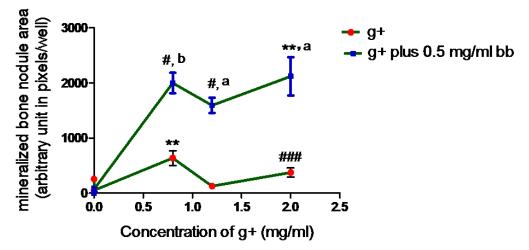


Fig. 4. Dose Dependent Effect of greens + (g+) with and without 0.5 mg/ml of bone builder (bb) on the area of mineralized bone nodules in osteoblasts Sa0S-2 Cells. * p<0.0005, **p<0.005; ***p<0.005; # p<0.0001; ## p<0.001; ### p<0.01; significance differences were found when treatment with g+ plus 0.5 mg/ml bb was compared to treatment with g+ alone as follows: $a \ge 0.0001$; $b \ge 0.005$

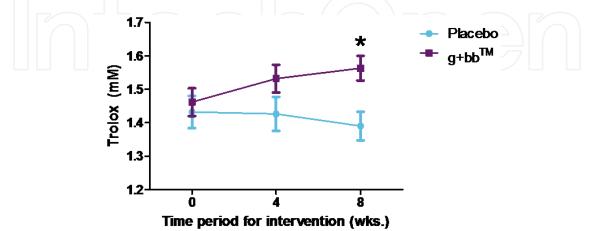


Fig. 5. The effect of nutritional intervention with $g+bb^{TM}$ compared to placebo on serum total antioxidant capacity (p<0.05).

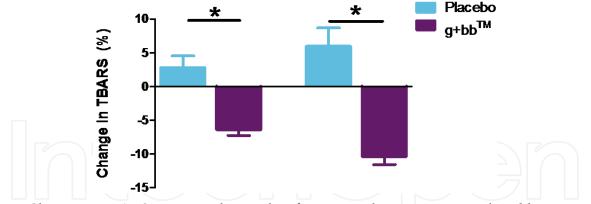


Fig. 6. Change in TBARS over 4 and 8-weeks of nutritional intervention with $g+bb^{TM}$ compared to placebo (p<0.001).

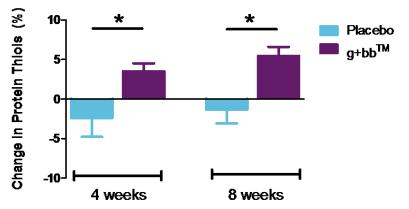


Fig. 7. Change in protein oxidation over 4 and 8-weeks of nutritional intervention with $g+bb^{TM}$ compared to placebo (p<0.05).

6. Conclusions

Although epidemiologic studies are practical for the evaluation of human health effects on the physiologic concentrations of polyphenols, reliable data on polyphenol contents of foods are limited. This review has shown that polyphenols or polyphenol-rich diets can provide significant protection or treatment for the development and progression of osteoporosis. Keeping in mind that many nutrients are co-dependent, and they may interact among themselves and others. The complexity of these interactions may possibly be the reason why many studies show controversial or inconsistent results regarding the effects of a single nutrient or groups of nutrients in bone health. Based on current knowledge, polyphenols offer a platform for the prevention of many human chronic diseases involved with oxidative stress, including osteoporosis.

To value the actual significance of food phenolics, it is necessary to investigate not only their bioavailability, but also their mechanisms of action and their possible synergism with other constituents either in the diet or within the human body, as well as the polyphenolic content and composition of foods. We have attained this goal by studying the nutritional supplement greens+TM, which is rich in polyphenols and their interactions with minerals, vitamins and nutrients that were present in the nutritional supplement bone builderTM.

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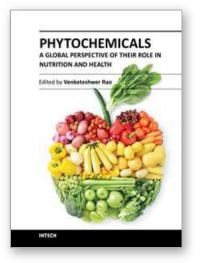
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