Biomarkers in disease and health

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Abbreviations: ACE, angiotensin converting enzyme; BMD, bone mineral density; BMI, body mass index; CHD, coronary heart disease; DXA, dual energy X-ray absorptiometry; GST, glutathione transferase; IL-6, interleukin-6; NAT2, N-acetyltransferase 2; NIDDM, non-insulin dependent diabetes mellitus; QCT, quantitative computed tomography.

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Biomarkers have considerable potential in aiding the understanding of the relationship between diet and disease or health. However, to assess the role, relevance and importance of biomarkers on a case by case basis it is essential to understand and prioritise the principal diet and health issues. In the majority of cases, dietary compounds are only weakly biologically active in the short term, have multiple targets and can be both beneficial and deleterious. This poses particular problems in determining the net effect of types of foods on health. In principle, a biomarker should be able to contribute to this debate by allowing the measurement of exposure and by acting as an indicator either of a deleterious or of an enhanced health effect prior to the final outcome. In this review, the examples chosen – cancer (stomach, colon/rectal, breast); coronary heart disease and osteoporosis – reflect three major diet-related disease issues. In each case the onset of the disease has a genetic determinant which may be exacerbated or delayed by diet. Perhaps the most important factor is that in each case the disease, once manifest, is difficult to influence in a positive way by diet alone. This then suggests that the emphasis for biomarker studies should focus on predictive biomarkers which can be used to help in the development of dietary strategies which will minimise the risk and be of greater benefit.

Biomarkers: Health and disease: Stomach cancer: Colorectal cancer: Breast cancer: Coronary heart disease: Osteoporosis

1. Introduction

Biomarkers have considerable potential in aiding the understanding of the relationship between diet and disease or health since they can provide the link between the consumption of specific foods and biological outcome. It is essential, however, to first of all understand and prioritise the principal diet and health issues. The potential impact of the role, relevance and importance of biomarkers can then be made on a case by case basis. Such an understanding does not necessarily simply require an assessment of whole body response to specific compounds in foods. In many (if not most) cases, these compounds are only weakly biologically active in the short term, have multiple targets and can be both beneficial and deleterious. This poses particular problems in determining the net effect of types of foods on health. First of all, how much does a particular food or food component contribute to a specific health outcome compared with other dietary constituents and secondly how many of the parts of the totality of a disease or health outcome does a food impact upon. In principle, a biomarker should be able to contribute to this debate by allowing the measurement of exposure and by acting as an indicator either of a deleterious or of an enhanced health effect prior to the final outcome. This can be represented by an exposure-effect pathway culminating in a clinical endpoint in which biomarkers are measurements made on constituent parts of that pathway.

1.1. Types of biomarkers

Exposure to food chemicals can be measured in a variety of ways. Intake measurements based on food analysis and dietary intake tables have been proven to be a useful first
step although the accuracy of food intake questionnaires is a source of potential error.

The measurement of specific excretion products either before or after metabolism reflects exposure. In some cases the presence of metabolites can be indicative of target organ exposure (e.g. metabolism by phase 1 and phase 2 enzymes in the liver). The presence of constituents in blood reflects systemic exposure and this in turn may be used to indicate the extent of target organ exposure based on animal and other model systems.

Once exposure has been established, the likely biological outcomes, which will result, can be estimated. These include diagnostic markers, which reflect a disease or health endpoint, and biological changes, which occur as a direct result of exposure to a specific dietary constituent. An example of the former would be the presence of non-dividing trypanosomes in the blood which would indicate systemic trypanosomiasis in an individual and occur together with a range of other clinical symptoms (e.g. low levels of certain hormones reflecting damage to endocrine glands and the presence of autoantibodies to heart and skeletal muscles). An example of the latter would be endocrine changes in premenopausal women, which occur as a consequence of ingestion of phytoestrogens (Cassidy et al. 1994, 1995).

Given the considerable difficulties in assessing the nature of the relationship between diet and health, it is important to try to develop an assessment framework. This framework is based upon:

- the strength of the relationship, i.e. is any link causal and mechanistically based or is it correlative;
- what are the most important human health issues in terms of morbidity, mortality and cost (social and economic).

In addition to these key questions, which provide the means to assess the importance and relevance of specific disease and health issues to food, there are a number of factors which influence the nature of the link between diet and health and impact upon the use of biomarkers. These include:

- predisposition and susceptibility,
- predictivity,
- intervention/reversibility.

By consideration of these factors it will be possible to prioritise the specific diet/health issues and assess those biomarkers which are used to confirm the link between food and function.

Excretion can occur both pre- and postmetabolism. The effects measured may or may not be of relevance to a clinical endpoint. Biomarkers provide a link between exposure and effect.

1.2. Diet and health

Although the primary role of food is nutrition (including maintenance of well-being), other benefits including health effects have grown in importance. The non-nutritive benefits are in most cases, specific and have a basis in the activities of specific constituent chemicals. Much of the current interest in diet and health relates to longer-term consequences rather than pharmacological (overt) effects. Quantification of the proposed beneficial effects in these cases is much more difficult to carry out and a distinction must be made between causality and correlation.

A causal relationship between diet and health can be defined as one in which the chain of events, which link the ingestion of a given food with a defined biological endpoint, is established and the mechanism is known. A correlative relationship is one in which a health/disease endpoint appears to be related in some way to a given food, however the nature and extent of that relationship is unclear or not established.

There are various ways of validating a biomarker approach. These include population studies to demonstrate incidence ratio in distinct populations, mechanistic studies based on perceived modes of action and intervention trials to demonstrate efficacy.

Three major groups of diet-related diseases have been selected to illustrate the role(s) of biomarkers. These diseases are cancer, coronary heart disease and osteoporosis. It is not possible to determine, a priori, which of these is the most important in terms of the strength of the relationship between diet and health, however it is possible to make some estimate as to the cost of each of them in terms of morbidity, mortality and cost (social and economic). Each of the examples will consider predisposition and susceptibility, predictivity, intervention and reversibility as an integral part of the assessment of biomarker approaches.

2. Cancer

2.1. Introduction

2.1.1. Cancer background. Cancer is multifactorial disease with a range of apparent causes (most significantly, perhaps, cumulative damage to DNA), a clear final endpoint (tumour formation) and several intermediate endpoints which relate to differing extents of exposure and the disease. In general, as with most biomarker approaches, the closer the measured parameter is to a diagnostic assessment of the disease, the less firm the link is to dietary exposure and vice versa.

The mechanisms of cancer development commonly include the induction of alterations (mutations, amplification, and recombination) in proto-oncogenes, in tumour suppressor genes or in DNA repair genes. The accumulation of these alterations produces a clonal selection of cells with aggressive and invasive growth properties. Approximately 1% of all cancers is due to inheritance of these types of genetic alterations (Fearon, 1997a). Most other cancers carry multiple mutations, which are acquired in the respective somatic tissues during the lifetime. Some 20–60% of human tumours have been estimated to be diet related and are thus considered preventable either by removal of harmful factors or by incorporation of beneficial ones (Doll & Peto, 1981; Doll, 1991, 1996). If biomarkers can be used to predict outcomes in response to dietary changes then they may be especially useful in the context of prevention of cancer. The term chemoprevention is used in pharmacology to describe the use of pharmacological or natural agents that inhibit the development of invasive
cancer either by blocking the DNA damage that initiates carcinogenesis or by arresting or reversing the progression of premalignant cells in which such damage has already occurred’ (Hong & Sporn, 1997). Since this term encompasses the impact of dietary factors in the prevention of cancer; the modulation of diet can be considered to be a complex form of chemoprevention.

A recent report by the World Cancer Research Fund (WCRF, 1997) assessed the effects of diet on 10 major world cancers, ranked according to incidence. By far the most significant cancer in terms of incidence was lung cancer, however breast, colorectal, stomach and prostate cancers were also relatively common with incidences of 5–30 cases per 100 000. In terms of the significance of the effects of diet, the assessment suggested that up to 75 % of cancers of the stomach and colon/rectum were preventable whereas the figure for breast cancer was 50 % and that of lung cancer lower still at 33 %. Cancer of these organs are useful targets for consideration of a biomarker-based approach since they have a variable link to diet and can be monitored with different degrees of invasiveness.

2.1.2. Cancer and diet. Dietary intervention mainly aims at preventing cancer in healthy individuals (primary prevention). Chemoprevention is generally targeted towards active intervention either in already diseased individuals (secondary prevention) or in subjects who are of high risk due to specific disposition or exposure factors. The two approaches can be combined.

1. In the intermediate stages of health and disease before tumour formation occurs, both dietary prevention and chemoprevention could be advantageous.
2. A healthy diet can be advantageous for people already afflicted with the disease.
3. Single agents may be of benefit for the general population and not only for afflicted patients or subjects at high risk.

In the case of dietary intervention, doses of individual compounds will be much lower, more repeated and will occur with a greater range of other protective and deleterious compounds than in chemoprevention. Dietary prevention is aimed at reducing exposure to known risk factors. Finally, the exposed group will include most if not all individuals, of a country, state, community, or city. This means in turn, that in order to assess efficacy of dietary intervention, a combination of biomarkers will be needed.

1. Those which determine two types of effect:
   - reduction of damage
   - induction of protective processes,
2. Those which determine two types of exposure:
   - increase in protective factors
   - decrease in risk factors
3. Those which acknowledge several types of susceptibility:
   - age
   - sex
   - predisposing diseases

- immunological status
- predetermining and predisposing genetic alterations.

2.1.3. Biomarkers and cancer. Biomarkers for cancer may be specific for individual tumour types or may apply to most cancers, regardless of the target tissue. Self-evidently, these general or systemic biomarkers are of importance since the primary goal of research should be to prevent disease regardless of localisation. However, tissue-specific biomarkers may be chosen to learn more about the role of individual foods for cancers of certain organs (e.g. dietary fibre in the colon).

The most straightforward determination is to identify people already carrying the disease on the basis of having tumour cells in their body. These types of determination are of diagnostic value. In the context of diet and health, however, there is, as yet little persuasive evidence that dietary intervention may effectively alter aggressive tumour growth. Therefore, in this review, these types of determinations (also called tumour markers) will not be reviewed and attention will be directed to those parameters which may be measured before detectable manifestation of tumours, although it is obvious that a sharp line between non-transformed, altered, transformed, and malignant cells is not possible.

Since cancer is a multifactorial process that can be impacted by environmental factors at a number of points (Fig. 1), the opportunity to measure the impact of food and other environmental constituents occurs at a range of points in the process. Where precise mechanisms exist (for example activation or inhibition of phase 1 or phase 2 metabolic enzymes) then the role of individual constituents may be easier to ascertain. The challenge remains to provide plausible rationales whereby the parameter being measured is both indicative of the progression of the disease (or its precursor) and responsive to changes in exposure to the external factor.

2.2. Diet and cancer

Individual dietary factors may contribute to enhancing risks for certain cancers (Doll & Peto, 1981). There are a large number of such factors and in many cases individual compounds have been suggested as being involved, but little definitive evidence is actually available in most cases.

In contrast, some foods are considered to be protective for several tissues. These include, most notably, vegetables and fruits. The numerous findings are exemplified by studies by Block et al. (1992) and Steinmetz & Potter (1991) and in reviews by Hill (1994) and more recently by Potter & Steinmetz (1996). Table 1 summarises some data presented for individual tissues. Additionally, Negri et al. (1991) have analysed the relative risk of consuming low, medium and high amounts of plant foods They found a reduced risk (<0.5 relative risk) for high consumption of vegetable and fruit for several tissues. For seven of the 14 most frequent tumours, consumption of fruits and vegetables may decrease risk by varying levels of magnitude. Tissues, which seem to be most clearly protected are oesophagus, stomach, colon, lung, pancreas and bladder. The least clear-cut protection is...
achievable in the hormone-dependent tissues, prostate and breast, although a dietary component cannot be excluded for these tumours.

2.3. Biomarkers and cancer

Useful biomarkers for dietary chemoprevention may be divided into the following major categories.

1) Susceptibility biomarkers, which are directly, predetermined: people at high risk are those who carry genetic alterations (mutations, gene amplifications, or recombination) in cancer target genes (proto-oncogenes, tumour suppressor genes, and DNA repair genes). These may be divided into two categories, germ-line mutations and mutations in tumour target tissues (somatic genetic alterations).

2) Susceptibility biomarkers, which are predetermined: people who are potentially at higher risk carry frequent alterations in genes (genetic polymorphisms) which are indirectly related to the process of carcinogenesis. Increasing knowledge, about allelic variants or genetic defects in genes encoding carcinogen metabolising enzymes or receptors for pharmacologically active plant compounds has opened new possibilities for understanding susceptibility to cancer caused by environmental exposure. In addition, protective dietary factors could have different degrees of preventive impact in different individuals, depending on genetic composition. The SNP Consortium (www.snps.com) aims to map all human single nucleotide polymorphisms and to make the information available on the Internet. This may prove to have great significance in the determination of risk factors.

3) Biomarkers of early effects in cells and tissues: genetic damage (DNA breaks, oxidative DNA damage, and genome instability) may result in an increased risk simply because increased DNA damage will enhance the likelihood of mutations occurring in critical target genes and cells. In addition to specific mutations, control of cell proliferation or apoptotic capability (intermediate endpoints) may provide measurable biomarkers. Their detection may indicate early steps of carcinogenesis and could be modulated unfavourably by risk factors or more positively by protective factors.

4) Biomarkers of exposure (risk and protective factors): the detection of compounds associated with risk (e.g. carcinogens in food, reactive oxygen species, products of lipid peroxidation) or with cancer prevention (e.g. antioxidants, some fermentation products of the gut flora) are usually based on the causal associations derived from epidemiological data or on data from experimental systems (in vivo chronic animal bioassays, mutation assays with cultivated cells). Most of
the evidence in this context is from whole food products or from dietary constituents (e.g. vegetables or fruits versus animal fats, meat or dietary fibre versus saturated animal fat) rather than for specific chemicals present in foods.

2.3.1. Directly predetermined susceptibility biomarkers. These include the detection of genetic alterations such as mutations or amplifications, microsatellite instability in proto-oncogenes, tumour suppressor genes and DNA repair genes (K-Ras2, Apc, p53, hMLH2 (colon), BrcA1 and BrcA2 (breast), KRas2 (pancreas)). Studies have been carried out to map mutations from susceptible individuals from both target tissue (biopsy) and serum or plasma. One example is the immunological detection of normal and mutant forms of the step 53 protein (Sarhanis et al. 1996) or mutations in the p53 coding regions by two-dimensional gene scanning (Rines et al. 1998). These and other studies are referred to later (Tables 6 and 9).

2.3.2. Susceptibility biomarkers: predisposing alterations. These include the genetic polymorphisms for xenobiotic activating enzymes (usually oxidation reactions, phase 1 enzymes) and genetic polymorphisms for inactivating enzymes (which usually catalyse conjugation reactions, phase 2 enzymes). They will determine the extent of endogenous chemoprotection against genotoxic risk factors in humans. The development of techniques such as polymerase chain reaction partially coupled to restriction fragment length polymorphism methods enable precise identification of an individual’s genotype. Specifically, genes coding for the activating super enzyme family, cytochrome p450 isoenzymes, have been identified in several allelic variants (IARC, 1999). For nutritional toxicants (e.g. heterocyclic amines) slow and fast acetylating genotypes based on different allelic variants of N-acetyltransferase 2 (NAT2) may be of specific importance (Smith et al. 1995; Bartsch & Hietanen, 1996; d’Errico et al. 1996). These genetic variants may be associated with either enhanced or decreased metabolic conversion by the enzyme. Depending on the type of metabolic conversion (activation, deactivation), the result will be more or less organ exposure to activated genotoxins and thus variation in cancer risk. Studies aimed at finding an association between cancer risk and genetic polymorphisms have been carried out to map mutations from susceptible individuals from both target tissues or in tissue-associated specific fluids (e.g. colon biopsies or faeces, exfoliated bladder cells or urine). All of these are on the border between biomarkers of exposure and biomarkers of effect since, although DNA damage has a biological consequence, the link between a certain type or level of damage and the disease outcome is tentative.

Numerous papers are available in which technique for measuring DNA damage and adduct formation is described. These include papers on 32P postlabelling (Beach & Gupta, 1992), DNA-adducts (Haseltine et al. 1983; Schut & Shiverick, 1992), microsatellite alterations (Mao et al. 1994), mutagen hypersensitivity (Olden, 1994), micronuclei in lymphocytes (Fenech & Rinaldi, 1995), chromosomal aberrations, blastogenesis and proliferative rate index (Anderson et al. 1988), human somatic mutations (Compton et al. 1991) and various types of oxidative damage in peripheral blood lymphocytes or in urine and sputum. The influence of diet on such markers has been studied sporadically. Reported examples include higher levels of 5-HO-methyl uracil in the urine of individuals on a high fat diet (Djuric et al. 1991), modulation of DNA adducts of malondialdehyde by diets with different fatty acid composition (Fang & Vaca, 1997) and reduction of oxidative DNA damage by moderate wine consumption (Fenech et al. 1997a) and consumption of Brussels sprouts (Verhagen et al. 1995, 1997). Recently the adequate consumption of carotenoid-containing vegetable juices (Pool-Zobel et al. 1997) or intake of vitamins as dairy supplements (Duthie et al. 1996) have been shown to reduce oxidative damage of blood lymphocyte DNA. In contrast, the comparison of vegetarian with non-vegetarian life styles did not show differences in genetic damage in lymphocytes, detected as micronuclei (Fenech & Rinaldi, 1995). Tables 2 and 3 summarise how some of these studies have been able to predict or confirm the epidemiological associations of diet and specific cancers.

Parameters associated with the impaired functions of somatic cells have been used as biomarkers. These events, such as enhanced cell proliferation or modulation of apoptosis, are also termed ‘intermediate endpoints’ (Lippman et al. 1990). Numerous methods may be applied, such as determination of mitotic crypt indices, proliferating nuclear antigen, uptake of bromodeoxyuridine or [3H]thymidine for proliferation (Richter et al. 1992) or DNA laddering, nucleic condensation, DNA breaks, or membrane changes for apoptosis (Corcoran et al. 1994). Reviews have appeared on possible alterations that could also be predictive as a result of in vitro studies or controlled chemopreventive and dietary prevention studies (Sharma et al. 1994; Kim & Mason, 1996; Perera, 1996). Tables 2 and 3 show specific examples on how these alterations may relate to associations between cancer risks and diet in the human.

Finally, xenobiotics may exert an effect by the modulation of phase 1 and phase 2 enzymes in both predisposed and normal individuals. Thus, the dietary induction of glutathione transferases (GSTs) may be considered a protective mechanism whereas the induction...
of cytochrome p450 enzymes is generally associated with increased risk, due to the greater metabolic activation of carcinogens (Goldin & Gorbach, 1984; Kall et al. 1997; Stillwell et al. 1997). Induction or repression of these enzymes or changes in gene expression patterns, however, must occur within the cells of the tumor target tissue (Zhang et al. 1997) since that is the site of biological action. The use of a surrogate measure in a more readily accessible body constituent may provide evidence of tissue-specific effects, however the results from this approach are open to different interpretations. The detection of GSTs or other proteins in plasma may be indicative of toxicity and could result from enzyme leakage from remote, damaged cells (e.g. from the liver) with defective membranes (Fan et al. 1996). However, it is more generally recognised that a preferential induction of phase-2 enzymes, such as monitored from increased levels of GSTs in plasma, is indicative of protective rather than toxic effects (Bogaards et al. 1994; Nijhoff et al. 1995; Verhagen et al. 1997; van Iversen et al. 1999). Another possibility is to determine enzymes in peripheral lymphocytes or in fluids which are associated with specific tissues, as has been done for GST or alcohol dehydrogenase in saliva (Sreerama et al. 1995) and GST in lymphocytes (Nijhoff et al. 1995; Szarka et al. 1995; Duthie et al. 1996; Pool-Zobel et al. 1999). It should be noted, however, that metabolism of mutagens is relatively far removed from the final disease state (see Section 2.1) and modulation of phase 1 and phase 2 enzymes cannot generally be considered to be directly predictive of risk unless it can be demonstrated in a mechanistic way that modulation of xenobiotic metabolism is directly related to tumour formation (van Iversen et al. 1999).

### 2.3.4. Biomarkers of exposure (risk and protective factors)

Individual dietary ingredients may have specific pharmacological effects. In contrast to clinical chemoprevention, dietary intervention will result in the ingestion of a large number of bioactive constituents – both harmful and protective. Biomarkers to determine exposure both to risk factor and to protective factors will be needed. The biological role of the dietary constituents must be determined and the biomarker should help to define this. The biomarker may be tissue specific or systemic. Some examples of non-tissue specific biomarkers are the detection of DNA reactive metabolites (Arif & Gupta, 1997), mutagenicity of urine samples (Hayatsu et al. 1985; Perera & Whyatt, 1994), excretion of nitroso compounds in the urine (Wu et al. 1993), malondialdehyde DNA-adducts (Fang et al. 1997) and malondialdehyde plasma levels (Nielsen et al. 1997). Several reviews on exposure monitoring have appeared (Ashby, 1988; Rosner et al. 1991; Schut & Shiverick, 1992; Perera & Whyatt, 1994). Tables 2 and 3 show some examples of their application in nutritional studies. Many of these are exposure rather than effect biomarkers and it can be difficult to correlate an exposure with a defined clinical endpoint even if information on bioavailability, metabolism, tissue levels and excretion profiles is available (Benford et al. 2000).

### 2.4. Cancers of specific organs

As noted previously, from the standpoint of mortality, the

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<tr>
<th>Dietary factor</th>
<th>Target tissues</th>
<th>Risk component</th>
<th>Biomarker of exposure</th>
<th>Biomarker of effect</th>
<th>Susceptibility</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Alcohol</td>
<td>Oesophagus</td>
<td>Acetaldehyde</td>
<td>salivary (Homann et al. 1997)</td>
<td>DNA adducts in peripheral lymphocytes (Fang &amp; Vito, 1997; Compton et al. 1991)</td>
<td>Association with GSTM1/CYP1A1 genotypes (Hemminiki et al. 1997)</td>
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<td>Smoking, curing, and barbecuing of meat and fish</td>
<td>Rectum</td>
<td>Heterocyclic amines</td>
<td>heterocyclic amines in urine (Stillwell et al. 1997)</td>
<td>urine mutagenicity increased with fried meat consumption (Hayatsu et al. 1985); heterocyclic amines in urine (Hayatsu et al. 1985)</td>
<td>1-hydroxypyrene-glucuronide in urine; heterocyclic amines in urine (Stillwell et al. 1997)</td>
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<td>Smoking, curing, and barbecuing of meat and fish</td>
<td>Breast</td>
<td>Heterocyclic amines</td>
<td>heterocyclic amines in urine (Stillwell et al. 1997)</td>
<td>urine mutagenicity increased with fried meat consumption (Hayatsu et al. 1985); heterocyclic amines in urine (Hayatsu et al. 1985)</td>
<td>1-hydroxypyrene-glucuronide in urine; heterocyclic amines in urine (Stillwell et al. 1997)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Smoking, curing, and barbecuing of meat and fish</td>
<td>Prostate</td>
<td>Heterocyclic amines</td>
<td>heterocyclic amines in urine (Stillwell et al. 1997)</td>
<td>urine mutagenicity increased with fried meat consumption (Hayatsu et al. 1985); heterocyclic amines in urine (Hayatsu et al. 1985)</td>
<td>1-hydroxypyrene-glucuronide in urine; heterocyclic amines in urine (Stillwell et al. 1997)</td>
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<td>Smoking, curing, and barbecuing of meat and fish</td>
<td>Breast</td>
<td>Heterocyclic amines</td>
<td>heterocyclic amines in urine (Stillwell et al. 1997)</td>
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As noted previously, from the standpoint of mortality, the
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<th>Dietary factor</th>
<th>Target tissue</th>
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<th>Biomarker of exposure</th>
<th>Biomarker of effect</th>
<th>Biomarker of susceptibility</th>
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<tr>
<td>Energy and related factor</td>
<td>Colon</td>
<td>Optimal regulation of physiological function</td>
<td>Activity associated with antioxidant enzymes (Ortenblad et al. 1997)</td>
<td>Reduction in rectal cell proliferation with increased cereal/wheat bran consumption (Alberts et al. 1990)</td>
<td>Reduced risk for neoplastic polyp recurrence in women but not men on a low fat/high fibre diet (McKeown-Eyssen et al. 1994)</td>
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<td>Lung</td>
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<td>Breast</td>
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<td>Carbohydrates</td>
<td>Colon</td>
<td>Starch</td>
<td>Resistant starch lowers faecal concentrations of ammonia and phenols (Birkett et al. 1996)</td>
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<td>Rectum</td>
<td>Non-starch polysaccharide/fibre</td>
<td>Lowered faecal bile salts with increased consumption of cereal/wheat bran (Alberts et al. 1996)</td>
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<td>Pancreas</td>
<td>Stomach?</td>
<td>Low fat/high fibre diet modulates fatty acid composition in breast ductile fluid (Rodenhuis, 1997). Increased faecal short-chain fatty acids following intervention (Van Munster et al. 1994)</td>
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<td>Colon</td>
<td>Resist starch</td>
<td>Protective fermentation profile and reduced colon cell proliferation following intervention (Van Munster et al. 1994)</td>
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<td>Carotenoids</td>
<td>Lung</td>
<td>Carotenoids</td>
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<td>Genetic enzyme polymorphisms in subjects (GSTM1, GSTT1, GSTP1-variants) (Pool-Zobel et al. 1998)</td>
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<td>Vitamins/minerals</td>
<td>Stomach</td>
<td>Vitamin C</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Rectum</td>
<td>Vitamin D</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Genetic polymorphisms for vitamin D receptor linked to prostate cancer risk (Ingles et al. 1997; Feldman, 1997)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minerals</td>
<td>Lung</td>
<td>Selenium</td>
<td>SCE frequency and effect of selenium is associated with GST(\mu) genotype (Cheng et al. 1995)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Bioactive constituents</td>
<td>Stomach</td>
<td>S-Alk(en)yl L-cysteine sulphoxides from \textit{Allium}</td>
<td>Genetic polymorphism for taste may affect consumption (Akella et al. 1997)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Breast?</td>
<td>Isoflavonoids</td>
<td>Metabolism to produce equol may be variable (Kelly et al. 1995)</td>
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<td>Prostate?</td>
<td>Lignans</td>
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<tr>
<td>Cereals (grains)</td>
<td>Stomach Colon?</td>
<td>Whole grain</td>
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<tr>
<td>Fruit and vegetables</td>
<td>Oesophagus Lung Stomach Pancreas Breast Bladder</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Colon Rectum Prostate?</td>
<td>Vegetables</td>
<td>Mutagenicity in urine and faeces lowered in lacto vegetarians (Morishita &amp; Shiromizu, 1990)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meat, poultry fish and eggs</td>
<td>Breast?</td>
<td>Fish</td>
<td>Dietary fish oil exposure caused lower excretion of 4-cholesten-3-one (Bartram et al. 1996)</td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td>Fish oil in normal and low-fat diet (but not high fat) decreases rectal cell proliferation (Bartram et al. 1995)</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>Various</td>
<td>(\alpha)-Tocopherol (\beta)-Carotene Retinol Catechins</td>
<td>Catechins found in plasma after ingestion of tea (Yang et al. 1998)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>(\beta)-carotene did not alter colonic cell proliferation in patients with history of colonic polyps or cancer (Frommel et al. 1995)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>High Ca intake associated with decreased risk of K-RAS mutation in tumours and high monounsaturated fatty acids appeared to be linked to lowered risk for wild type k-RAS tumours (Bautista et al. 1997)</td>
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</table>
most important cancers in Europe are lung, breast, stomach and colon/rectum. Of these, the last three appear to have a strong link with diet (WCRF, 1997) and they will, therefore, be considered separately.

2.4.1. Stomach cancer

**Incidence.** The incidence of stomach cancer has declined recently but it remains significant, with deaths ranging from 41/1/100 000 in the Russian Federation to 7-1/100 000 (males) in Denmark and 3-3/100 000 (females) in France (Levi et al., 1995).

**Genetic factors.** There are a number of genetic factors that appear to predispose the individual to stomach cancer. These include over expression of human epidermal growth factor 2 (HER2) and abnormal expression of P-cadherin. In addition, mutations in p53, k-Ras and rb1 appear either as late events or in low frequency (Hesketh, 1997). Both causative and protective factors have been identified in the diet with the former including high salt consumption, salted and smoked foods, alcohol and high levels of carbohydrates and starchy foods. The role of nitrosamines in the incidence of stomach cancer remains unproven although there is considerable information concerning the possibility of formation of nitrosamines in the stomach and their apparent carcinogenicity in animal models (Bartsch & Hietanen, 1996; Bartsch, 1991).

**Protective factors and risk factors.** A range of dietary components has putative protective properties against stomach cancer. Most involve fruit and/or vegetable consumption and twenty-eight of these have been reviewed by Potter & Steinmetz (1996). Green tea and diets high in whole grain, cereals and carotenoids have also been implicated (WCRF, 1997). In the case of compounds from the genus Allium, a range of S-containing products is formed after crushing (Fenwick & Hanley, 1985) and these could scavenge reactive intermediates in the gastric lumen.

Both Helicobacter pylori infection and exposure to nitrosating agents may be risk factors for stomach cancer although further work is necessary to confirm the precise nature of their role (Bartsch, 1991; Munoz, 1994).

**Available biomarkers.** There are comparatively few biomarkers for exposure, effect or susceptibility for stomach cancer. There are, however a number of diagnostic markers which appear to reflect different stages of the disease process. Most of these require biopsy material and hence are both very invasive, and not predictive.

A number of cellular parameters have been found to correlate with the early stages of gastric cancer or with predisposition. These include the constitutional deletion of the short arm of chromosome 18 (Delaveechia et al. 1999), the presence of p53 antibodies in serum (Nakajima et al. 1999) and serum pepsinogen concentration (Kitahasu et al. 1999).

2.4.2. Colon/rectal cancer.

As with stomach cancer, a high proportion of cancers of the colon and rectum are considered to be influenced (or able to be influenced) by diet (WCRF, 1997). There is considerably more information available regarding colorectal cancer than for many other types of cancer therefore this part of the review is divided into subsections dealing with current disease status and molecular mechanisms, dietary interactions, biomarkers and further research needs.

**Mortality and incidence rates in Europe (Levi et al., 1995).** Age-standardised death certification rates for cancers of the intestines (mainly colon and rectum) are highest in the Czech Republic with 37-7/100 000 for males and 20-6/100 000 for females. The lowest rates have been recorded in Greece with 8-6/100 000 for males and in Kyrgyzstan 7-2/100 000 for females. The mean rates in Europe are 21-5/100 000 for males and 14-3/100 000 for females with mean incidence rates (% of all tumours) of 11-9 (males) and 11-3 (females). Colon tumours rank in second place (behind lung) in terms of frequency and incidence for men and woman (WCRF, 1997).

**Major types of diseases.** Colorectal cancers are mainly adenomatosis-polyposis carcinoma, hereditary non-polyp- osis colon cancer, rectal adenocarcinoma and epidermoid carcinoma of the anal region (Kuroda et al. 1990).

**Genetic mechanisms.** Damage to a number of genes has been specifically linked to colorectal cancer. These include K-Ras2 (12p), Apc (5q), Mcc, Dec (18q), p53 (17p), whereas abnormal expression of other genes may also occur. The alterations accumulate over a number of years and it may take decades for the development of a malignant carcinoma (Fearon & Vogelstein, 1990) (Fig. 2). This increases the possibility that intervention mechanisms could prevent or delay the onset of such genetic alterations (Burnouf et al. 2000).

One of the two inherited cancer syndromes which afflict the colon is ‘familial adenomatous polyposis’ (FAP) and is caused by a germ-line mutation in APC (5q21) (Soravic et al. 1997). The second major group of inherited familial cancer syndromes of the colon is hereditary non-polyposish colon cancer (HNPPC) which involves mutations in MSH2 (2p16), MLH1 (3p21), PMS1 (2q32) and PMS2 (7p22). These mutations lead to microsatellite instability and deficiency in DNA mismatch repair (Whitehouse et al. 1998). In addition, mutations have been detected in APC and p53, following loss of functional MSH2 (Hesketh, 1997). These genetically inherited forms are roughly calculated to contribute to 5% of all colon cancer cases; in addition, there are familial cancers which have not been associated with a known mutation. Thus approximately 15–20% of colon cancers are inherited.

**Causative and protective dietary factors.** Factors that increase risk and reduce risk for colorectal cancer have been identified. Even for people carrying predetermining genes, the onset of disease could be influenced by dietary factors, due to the long latency period between the first mutation and the development of a metastatic carcinoma.

Epidemiological evidence has suggested that high meat, high fat intake could increase the risk in cross-sectional comparisons. High meat, protein and fat consumption, as well as a low consumption of fibre and fibre-containing foods have been connected to a higher risk in case control comparisons. High triacylglycerol levels and alcohol consumption have been implicated in contributing to the aetiology of the disease (Manus et al. 1997). There is some experimental evidence which supports the role of meat and fats in
epidemiological studies (Erhardt et al. 1998; Pence et al. 1998; Jansen et al. 1999). Nitrate and red meat intake can lead to enhanced formation of nitroso compounds which have been associated with increased risk of colorectal cancer (Knekt et al. 1999). Cooking, pan frying and grilling of meat also causes the formation of mutagens or carcinogens (heterocyclic amines, polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons) (Augustsson et al. 1999). The presence of iron may lead to an increase in the production of reactive oxygen species from peroxides via the Fenton reaction and oxidative stress leads to cell damage including mutations (Reddy, 1995; Bingham, 1996, 1997; Johnson, 1997; Gooderham, 1997; Sawa et al. 1998). Some of these carcinogens and oxidants will be formed in the colon, they may arrive there directly with the ingested food, or after first pass metabolism by the liver via bladder or bile. They may be retained there for hours, depending on the stool transit time.

Epidemiological evidence is available for protective diets. In particular, vegetables (and physical activity) have been shown to reduce risk in cross-sectional comparisons. Vegetables are protective for colorectal cancers in retrospective case-control studies (11 of 14 and 20 of 27 studies in Table 1). When differentiating between colon cancer and rectal cancer, 11 of 15 (colon) and 8 of 13 (rectal) studies find inverse relationships between cancer and vegetable and fruit consumption (Potter & Steinmetz, 1995). Cruciferous vegetables may be especially effective. Cohort studies are ongoing. Non-starch polysaccharides (fibre), starch and carotenoids possibly decrease risk, but may be retained there for hours, depending on the stool transit time.

The experimental evidence for protective properties of dietary factor in the colon includes intervention studies with calcium (Cats et al. 1995), antioxidant vitamins and fibre, mostly in patients with adenomatous polyps. In vivo supplementation or in vitro treatment with calcium has led to a decreased proliferation (Lipkin et al. 1996) however, these studies largely failed to result in a reduced recurrence of the disease (Faire et al. 1996; Boutron et al. 1996). More basically, beneficial functions of specific bacterial strains of the gut flora, fermentation of fibre, starch and subsequently the protective effects of fermentation products (e.g. butyrate) support the assumption that ingredients or metabolites of plant foods may in some way prevent initiation, of cancer cell progression in the colon (Cats et al. 1995; Cummings et al. 1996).

Available biomarkers and performance criteria. There are a number of biomarkers for risk factors and protective factors. Assessment of a number of risk factors and protective factors is possible by collection and analysis of the faeces. Thus, the measurement of bile acids (Breuer et al. 1985), short-chain fatty acids (McIntyre et al. 1993; Cummings et al. 1996), gut flora composition (Gibson & Roberfroid, 1995), dietary mutagens and oxidants (Johansson et al. 1992; Macfarlane et al. 1986), nitroso compounds (Rowland et al. 1991; Bingham et al. 1996), and the activities of bacterial enzymes (e.g. β-glucuronidase, β-glycosidase, azoreductase and nitroreductases) (Mallett & Rowland, 1990) all give some indication of the situation directly prevailing in the colon. Two interesting newer approaches are the determination of faecal mutagenicity with colon cells instead of bacterial cells (Venturi et al. 1997), and the determination of oxidative stress in the faeces (Owen et al. 1996). A ‘positive’ fermentation profile is expected to reduce the exposure of colonocytes to carcinogenic compounds thereby lowering the risk of disease development.

Some biomarkers are early markers of disease (effect). Colon biopsies can yield isolated macromolecules (DNA, proteins, lipids), single cell suspensions, individual colon crypts or whole tissue specimens for histological investigations. Proliferation can be determined in colon crypt cells (Lipkin, 1987). The analysis of crypts allows the localisation of cells with more or less proliferative activity, thus enabling not only tissue specific but also cell specific detection. Similarly, the immunhistological detection of altered DNA or other cellular parameters (Albaugh et al. 1992), GST (Nijhoff et al. 1995) or CYP1A2 activities (Sinha et al. 1994), rate of apoptosis, k-ras amplification or mutations (Burmer et al. 1991), p53 deletions (Nelson, 1997) or microsatellite instability in tissue sections (Loeb, 1994; Anker et al. 1997) may also be used. The use of exfoliated cells for determining parameters may have great potential for biomarker development in the future. One example is the detection of predetermining mutations in k-ras (Villa et al. 1996) or total DNA content (Loktionov et al. 1998) as parameters in these cells.

Despite the large range of parameters, which have been measured, there are no markers, which are completely predictive of future tumour formation. Further work is necessary to define the role of each of the criteria measured by the various markers in the mechanism of the disease process (Benford et al. 2000).

There are three special markers of susceptibility: genetic factors; genetic polymorphisms for xenobiotic metabolism and gender.

Predetermining germ-line alterations which may lead to colon cancer affect the genes Apc, Dcc, hMLH2 and hMSH1. Additionally, somatically arising alterations occur
in K-Ras2, p53 and others. K-Ras2 mutations and amplifications have been detected in biopsies of colon tissue and in faeces and serum (Table 4). It has been reported that high consumption of olive oil is associated with a decrease in the risk of cancer in wild-type K-Ras genotypes (Bautista et al. 1997). On the other hand, high calcium intake is associated with a decreased risk of K-Ras mutated tumours but not with a decrease of K-Ras wild-type tumours (Yarborough et al. 1996). This may indicate, that calcium and olive oil, respectively, protect against different type of colon cancer risk factors.

Several case–control studies have been performed to reveal associations between glutathione transferase (GST) polymorphisms and colon cancer risk. Some of these studies showed no significant associations, e.g. for GSTM1 *0 (Lin et al. 1995), GSTT1 *0 (Cheney-Trench et al. 1995), or the trends that were observed were not significant, e.g. for GSTM1 *0 (Katoh et al. 1996), other studies showed apparently significant associations, e.g. for GSTT1 *0 (Deakin et al. 1996), for CYP1A1-MSI1 mutation in exon 7 for Japanese (Sivaraman et al. 1994), for GSTM1 *0 (Zhong et al. 1993), or for patients with ulcerative colitis (Duncan et al. 1995). The meta-analysis (d’Errico et al. 1996) of six further case–control studies in colorectal cancer patients, reported an odds ratio of 1.67 in Caucasians and 0.84 in Asians for rapid versus slow acetylators (the slow phenotype was associated with a protective effect). Carcinogenic heterocyclic amines from heavily cooked meats are metabolised by the enzymes N-acetyltransferase (NAT) and CYP1A2 giving activated products which bind to DNA. In slow acetylator genotypes, the lowered capacity to produce activated products may provide an explanation for the odds ratios indicated above. The methodology used for measurement of NAT phenotypes has recently been critically evaluated and found to be lacking in statistical power in many cases. This has led to a lack of proven biomarkers directed at earlier stages of carcinogenesis. Other intermediate biomarkers directed at earlier stages of carcinogenesis are needed. In addition new specific, but non-invasive, markers need to be developed. These must be underpinned by a mechanistic understanding of the carcinogenesis process.

2.4.3. Breast cancer. Although the popular perception of breast cancer is that it is a female disease, it also occurs in males. Much of the interest in diet and breast cancer relates to phytoestrogens but a number of other components have also been implicated.

Mortality and incidence rates in Europe (Levi et al. 1995). Age-standardised death certification rates for cancers of the breast have shown the highest rates to occur in Iceland: 29-0/100 000 (females), whereas the lowest rates have been recorded in Kyrgyzstan: 8-7/100 000 (females). Mean rates in Europe are 28-4/100 000 (females) and the mean incidence rates (% of all tumours) in Europe are 22-5 (females).

Genetic mechanisms. The over-expression of epidermal growth factor genes (amphiregulin and cripto-1) and the family of genes for epidermal growth factor receptors (EGFR, HER2-4) have been detected in breast tumours (Panico et al. 1996; Kondapaka et al. 1997). Also amplification of the proto-oncogene MYC and abnormally high over-expression of cyclin D1 and/or cyclin D3 are risk factors and indicators of poor prognosis (Cuny et al. 2000). Over-expression of HSTF1, INT2, HRAS, p53, RB1 and YES1 also occur with low frequency in this disease (Hesketh, 1997). Inheritance of germ-line mutations is responsible for approximately 5–10 % of all breast cancer cases. These include mutations in BRCA1 or BRCA2, p53 (Li Fraumeni–Syndrome), alterations of a gene on

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Analysis of k-ras</th>
<th>Biological sample</th>
<th>Major result</th>
<th>Reference</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mutations</td>
<td>Numerous colon tumours</td>
<td>4–100 % of samples with alterations</td>
<td>Review in Nelson (1997)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mutations in codon 12</td>
<td>Aberrant crypt foci in largely normal mucosa</td>
<td>73 % (11/15) with mutations</td>
<td>Pretlow et al. (1993)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mutations</td>
<td>DNA isolated from stool of cancer patients</td>
<td>89 % (8/9) samples with mutations</td>
<td>Mao et al. (1994); Sidransky et al. (1992)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amplification and mutation</td>
<td>DNA isolated from stool of patients submitted for diagnostic colonoscopy</td>
<td>44.8 % (103/230) with amplifications; of these 30 % (30/103) with mutations</td>
<td>Villa et al. (1996)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mutations</td>
<td>Serum of carcinoma-exposed workers (25 % smokers)</td>
<td>40 % of samples with alterations</td>
<td>Review in Nelson (1997)</td>
</tr>
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</table>
chromosome 11q (ataxia telangiectasia) and some other familial low penetrance genes (McKenzie, 1997).

Causative and protective dietary factors. Epidemiological studies report increases in relative risks of 2–2.5 for women with body mass index (BMI) (kg/m²) >28–30, for women in the fourth compared to the first quartile of measures versus control for adipositas and for women with weight gains from young adulthood to middle age of >27 kg. There is some controversy regarding the role of fat in this context (Wynder et al. 1997; Kohlmeier & Mendez, 1997). Many data show high international correlations between fat intake and breast cancer rates; modest positive associations are found with high fat diets in case-control studies. In contrast, in cohort studies fat intake is unrelated to the risk of breast cancer. However, the weight of evidence does suggest that type and amount of fat in the diet is related to the risk of breast cancer. Moreover, isoflavonoids have been shown additionally to prevent oxidative cell damage. However, no convincing associations have been reported for the increased consumption of phytoestrogens and reduced breast cancer risk (Adlercreutz, 1995; Gerber, 1996). An increase in expression of cytochrome oxidase II, a putative risk factor for breast cancer (Sharpe et al. 1992), has been observed in human primary cells derived from female keratinocytes exposed to the soya phytoestrogen genistein (McBride et al. 1998), but a direct link between diet and cancer risk remains unproven.

Indole compounds formed from indole glucosinolates – particularly indole-3-carbinol – have an effect on steroid hormone metabolism and this may form the basis for their putative protective effects since this leads to lowering of circulating hormone levels (Baldwin & Leblanc, 1992). Available biomarkers and performance criteria. Excretion of oestrogen metabolites in the urine, altered oestrogen metabolism or detection of genotoxic activities of mammary glands may be specific exposure markers, indicating breast cancer risk (Nebert, 1993; Kabat et al. 1997; Martin et al. 1997). Early markers of disease include K-ras mutations, however alterations of p53 (Nelson, 1997) and other biological markers of breast cancer have also been described (Porterjordan & Lippman, 1994; Panico et al. 1996). These employ invasive techniques and are not suitable for screening purposes. Ductal carcinoma in situ, lobular carcinoma in situ, and genetic enzyme polymorphisms (d’Errico et al. 1996) and GSTM1 (Zhong et al. 1993) have been discussed as pointing to disease susceptibility. Individual differences in the degree of 4-hydroxylation of oestrogens (Liehr, 1997) and metabolism to produce equol may also influence risk (Kelly et al. 1995).

Further research needs. The link between diet and breast cancer remains to be established. Apart from the generic recommendations to increase fruit and vegetable consumption, the role of specific bioactive constituents (phytoestrogens) must be more closely defined. The discovery of alternative forms of the oestrogen receptor with different biological functions in terms of regulation of gene expression, different avidity for natural and environmental oestrogens and different levels of occurrence in different organs may help to explain the mechanistic basis for the activity of phytoestrogens on breast and other hormonally related cancers (Paech et al. 1997). It is difficult to unravel the relative effects of diet, environment, endogenous hormonal status and age in the occurrence of breast cancer and, as with a range of other cancers, the lack of availability of systemic biomarkers is a crucial problem.
2.4.4. Conclusions. Cancer is a major disease in Europe. The levels of mortality and morbidity are high and the social, economic and personal cost is significant. Although there are significant differences in disease rates in different parts of Europe, it is by no means clear how much of this relates to diet, how much to environmental factors and how much is a result of genetic predisposition. The best estimates suggest that, for a combination of prevalence with the highest apparent association with diet, cancers of the stomach, colon/rectum and breast offer the best hope for dietary intervention. In virtually all cases, this intervention will have to be directed towards prevention of early stages in the disease (e.g. inhibition of DNA damage, enhancement of repair), however the further away the effect is from the final disease, the less certain we can be that the intervention is having the desired effects. The possibility of diet influencing the late onset biomarkers of cancer or of preventing recurrence are considerably less, however there are few available markers including induction of apoptosis and effects on cell cycle whose variability in response to dietary challenge can be probed, at least in vitro.

There are currently no predictive, in vivo biomarkers for cancer although there are diagnostic markers. Given this and the incomplete understanding of the mechanism of the cancer process, it is difficult to see how the effect of diet can be determined outside of generalised epidemiological studies.

In general, diets high in energy, fats and meat appear to increase cancer incidence. The consumption of fruit and vegetables appears to be broadly protective in most cases of cancer where diet is thought to have influence.

There are some biomarkers (oxidative stress, mutagenicity of body fluids, DNA adducts) which appear to be relevant and these are summarised in Tables 5, 6 and 7. They are divided into those that are detectable in blood lymphocytes, those that can be found in tissue-associated fluids, and those that can be measured in the target organ. A key requirement is the validation of biomarkers in the context of the disease and a better understanding of their potential predictivity and their responsiveness to diet.

Cancer provides a key challenge for researchers working in the area of diet and health. Despite the large amounts of time, money and effort that have been expended in the study of cancer, it remains in many cases, mechanistically ill defined. The potential for prevention and amelioration through diet appears to be significant (WCRF, 1997). In order to maximise the benefits, it is important to focus on those cancers for which there appears to be a clear link with diet and which are of the greatest significance in terms of morbidity and death. These would clearly include stomach, colon/rectum and breast (see above). By increasing our awareness and understanding of specific types of cancer and by then carrying out prospective intervention studies it will be possible to develop strategies for relating diet to cancer avoidance. Unfortunately cancer can take a large number of years to develop hence this ‘observational’ approach will not yield answers in a reasonable time scale. The role of biomarkers is as both a predictive aid and a research tool to help to define the key mechanistic steps in cancer processes and to reflect changes in status in these intermediate steps in response to specific dietary components. This is both a daunting challenge and a stimulating opportunity.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Major techniques</th>
<th>Types of biomarker</th>
<th>Predictive value</th>
<th>Link to disease</th>
<th>Confounding factors</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Group 1 DNA damage/adduct formation</td>
<td>Comet assay</td>
<td>Exposure?</td>
<td>Predictive of altered exposure or protective factors</td>
<td>Unproven</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Alkaline filter elution (Pflaum et al. 1997)</td>
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<td>Alkaline unwinding (Hartmann et al. 1995)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>32P-postlabelling (De Flora et al. 1996)</td>
<td>Exposure</td>
<td>Damage to DNA is reflective of exposure and of repair and represents the earliest events in carcinogenesis</td>
<td>Unproven</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group 2 Cystogenetic endpoints</td>
<td>Micronuclei</td>
<td>Effect</td>
<td>Good predictor of cellular status</td>
<td>Unproven</td>
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<td>Sister chromatid exchange</td>
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<td>Chromosomal aberration (Albertini &amp; Hayes, 1997)</td>
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<td>Group 3 Induction of chemopreventative systems</td>
<td>Induction of phase 1 or 2 enzymes</td>
<td>Effect?</td>
<td>Generally unproven though mechanically plausible</td>
<td>Unproven</td>
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<td>ELISA for GST</td>
<td>Susceptibility?</td>
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<td>RT-PCR/gene arrays</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

GST, glutathione transferase; RT-PCR, reverse transcription - polymerase chain reaction.

A range of techniques have been developed to measure DNA damage, adduct formation, induction of metabolising enzymes, induction of DNA repair enzymes and cytogenetic events in peripheral blood lymphocytes. The major confounding factors are proving the mechanistic link between the biomarker and the disease and demonstrating that a systemic marker has relevance to organ-specific events. Additional references include the following.

DNA damage/adducts: Duthie et al. (1998); Pool-Zobel et al. (1997, 1998); Fang et al. (1997); Wild & Pisani (1997); Kensler et al. (1996); Fang & Vaca (1997); Compton et al. (1991).

Cytogenetic changes: Fenech & Rinaldi (1995); Tucker et al. (1997); Fenech et al. (1997a,b).

Induction of chemopreventive systems: Pool-Zobel et al. (1998); Garte et al. (1997); Ellis et al. (1996).
3. Coronary heart disease

3.1. Introduction

Cardiovascular disease (CVD) or coronary heart disease is one of a series of circulatory disorders, which affect a large number of the population throughout Europe. Unlike cancer which has a relatively simple disease outcome (tumour formation in most cases) but a complex series of mechanisms, cardiovascular and other circulatory disorders have a more defined mechanism and a range of clinical endpoints.

Figures for mortality and morbidity due to circulatory disorders are available for a number of countries. The mortality due to cardiovascular disease is estimated to be 20% world-wide and amounts to some 14 million deaths per annum. Figures from the USA suggest that over 58 million Americans have one or more forms of cardiovascular disease and in 1995 cardiovascular disease caused 41.5% of all deaths (960,592) compared with the total for all cancer deaths of 538,455. Figures for Europe are broadly in line with this although there are a number of significant ‘hot-spots’ including Scotland, Northern Ireland and parts of Scandinavia. In general, the levels are higher in ‘developed, Western’ cultures than in the middle and far East, although this trend appears to be becoming less pronounced as

Table 6. Biomarkers for cancer from target tissue - associated fluids

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Techniques</th>
<th>Types of biomarker</th>
<th>Predictive value</th>
<th>Link to disease</th>
<th>Confounding factors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Genotoxicity of faecal water</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comet assay after exposure of colon cells</td>
<td>Exposure?</td>
<td>Limited but may indicate</td>
<td>Not proven</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ames test</td>
<td></td>
<td>mutagenic load</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fermentation profile</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Measurement of a range of parameters including</td>
<td>Exposure?</td>
<td>May indicate a positive profile</td>
<td>Unproven mechanistically</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pH, short-chain fatty acids, bile acids etc.</td>
<td>Susceptibility</td>
<td>and dietary constituents</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Measurements in exfoliating cells</td>
<td></td>
<td>which affect it</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Most of the work on target tissue-related fluids has focused on colorectal cancer since there are relatively simple, non-invasive materials available. The predictive value of the measurements is unproven in most cases. Additional information is provided in the following references. Genotoxicity of faecal water: Morishita & Shiromizu (1990); Venturi et al. (1997); Hayatsu & Hayatsu (1994); Hayatsu et al. (1985); Glinghammer et al. (1997).

Fermentation profile: Birkett et al. (1996); Alberts et al. (1996); Bartram et al. (1994, 1996); Geypens et al. (1997); Hayatsu & Hayatsu (1994); Lidbeck et al. (1987); Erhardt et al. (1998); Homann et al. (1997); Stillwell et al. (1997); Bingham (1997); Bingham et al. (1996); Mallett & Rowland (1990); Rowland (1993). Exfoliated cells: Levine et al. (1997); Loktionov et al. (1998).

Table 7. Biomarkers for cancer in target tissue cells

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Techniques</th>
<th>Types of biomarker</th>
<th>Predictive value</th>
<th>Link to disease</th>
<th>Confounding factors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Group 1 proliferation</td>
<td>Effect</td>
<td>Limited but may reflect</td>
<td>Equivocal (Hague et al. 1997)</td>
<td>Folate can affect cell proliferation in ulcerative colitis patients (Biasco et al. 1997)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3H-Thymidine or BrdU incorporation</td>
<td>Exposure</td>
<td>exposure changes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mitotic index</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PCNA Immunohistochemical staining</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Detection of specific amplifications, deletions,</td>
<td>Susceptibility</td>
<td>generally a good predictor although link to specific exposure can be difficult. Can be too late in the tumour process to be truly predictive</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mutations using PCR and related techniques</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group 3 DNA damage</td>
<td>Exposure</td>
<td>Partiality of specific gene targets are detected</td>
<td>Variable</td>
<td>Heterogeneity of cell populations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comet assay</td>
<td>Effect</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32P postlabelling</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

PCNA, proliferating cell nuclear antigen; PCR, polymerase chain reaction.

Additional related literature:

Western living standards are more commonly adopted world-wide (Musaiger & Abuirmeileh, 1998). This has led a number of commentators to suggest that diet could be a major life-style factor, which could influence the occurrence of cardiovascular disease.

The strength of the relationship to diet seems to be variable, but several factors have been implicated including lipid intake, lipoprotein metabolism, cholesterol, oxidative stress, folic acid, type 2 diabetes and obesity. It is important, however, to evaluate such information carefully in order to draw sustainable conclusions.

### 3.2. Causative and protective factors

#### 3.2.1. Environmental factors

In the Western world, elucidation of the degree of association with cardiovascular disease and diet, and assays can be carried out more directly on the target organ through the circulatory system than is the case for cancer, determining the relationship between the disease and specific dietary components and assessing the extent to which genetic predisposition plays a part remain difficult.

#### 3.2.2. Genetic predisposition

A number of factors have been postulated to affect blood coagulation and, thence, predisposition to coronary heart disease (CHD). Coagulation factor VII has been considered to be a major biochemical determinant of CHD. Studies have suggested that, for example, the relatively low rate of CHD in westernised black Africans is due, amongst other things, to inherited lower levels of coagulation factor VII (Vermaak et al. 1991). In contrast, a Finnish study suggested that the specific coagulation factor VIIc was not associated with CHD (Tervahauta et al. 1993). However, it is, perhaps, inappropriate to attempt to make a direct comparison between elderly males who already suffer from CHD and predisease-onset, young males. This issue was further investigated in healthy men in the PROCAM study (Heinrich et al. 1994). Interestingly, although the mean factor VIIc activities in the CHD event and non-event groups did not differ significantly, there was a trend towards higher factor VIIc values when only fatal events were considered. A

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dietary constituent</th>
<th>Reference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fatty acids</td>
<td>Tavendale et al. (1992), Erkkila et al. (1998)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saccharides</td>
<td>Saris et al. (1998)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Starch</td>
<td>Gordon et al. (1981)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alcohol</td>
<td>Srivastava et al. (1994)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dietary cholesterol</td>
<td>Keys (1965)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fibre</td>
<td>Kromhout et al. (1996), Anderson (1995)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phytosterols</td>
<td>Patel et al. (1998)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thiamine</td>
<td>Brady et al. (1995)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Homocysteine, B vitamins, folate</td>
<td>Rimm et al. (1998), Brouwer et al. (1999a,b)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vitamin D</td>
<td>Watson et al. (1997)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taurine</td>
<td>Mizushima (1995)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minerals</td>
<td>Singh et al. (1992)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Antioxidant vitamins</td>
<td>Mosca et al. (1997)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flavonoids</td>
<td>Yochum et al. (1999)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

An increased affinity for sodium at an external site of the sodium–lithium counter transporter has been associated with a genetic predisposition to hypertension and to cardiovascular disease (Carr et al. 1997). An association between left ventricular hypertrophy and cardiovascular disease has been found and there appears to be some genetic component in this condition (Lauer, 1995). A further link between expression of angiotensinogen and angiotensinogen-converting enzyme (ACE) and left ventricular hypertrophy has been found. An increase in the expression of these two factors leads to elevated cardiac angiotensin II formation which in turn causes vasoconstriction of the coronary vasculature and subsequent hypertrophy. An insertion/deletion polymorphism of ACE has been associated with lower plasma activities of the enzyme compared with homozygous deletion/deletion individuals and this genotype appears to be associated with an elevated risk of left ventricular hypertrophy (Holmer & Riegger, 1995).

A number of factors have been postulated to affect blood coagulation and, thence, predisposition to coronary heart disease (CHD). Coagulation factor VII has been considered to be a major biochemical determinant of CHD. Studies have suggested that, for example, the relatively low rate of CHD in westernised black Africans is due, amongst other things, to inherited lower levels of coagulation factor VII (Vermaak et al. 1991). In contrast, a Finnish study suggested that the specific coagulation factor VIIc was not associated with CHD (Tervahauta et al. 1993). However, it is, perhaps, inappropriate to attempt to make a direct comparison between elderly males who already suffer from CHD and predisease-onset, young males. This issue was further investigated in healthy men in the PROCAM study (Heinrich et al. 1994). Interestingly, although the mean factor VIIc activities in the CHD event and non-event groups did not differ significantly, there was a trend towards higher factor VIIc values when only fatal events were considered. A
similar study in Finland also suggested that factor VII was not a risk factor for CHD, but these authors suggested that prospective epidemiological studies are necessary to resolve the issue (Moor et al. 1995). Finally, two other studies have implicated factor VII and increased risk of CHD. In a follow-up study to the initial PROCAM work, it was found that factor VII was significantly higher in subjects with coronary events compared with those without (Junker et al. 1997). It appeared not to be an independent risk factor although it did act in concert with other risk factors and should be considered as part of an overall assessment. A direct link between factor VII and diet has been suggested (Miller, 1997) with consumption of diets rich in long-chain fatty acids leading to an increase in serum factor VII.

In addition to predictive epidemiological studies, there have been a small number of mechanistically based investigations. The variation among men in factor VIIc levels was associated with a genetic polymorphism. In a similar study in women at menopause, genotype appeared to be the major factor in determining factor VIIc levels. (Meclahn et al. 1995). The rate of increase of factor VIIc with age in women was found to be significantly greater than that in men (Scarabin et al. 1996). In both sexes, the authors concluded that levels of activated factor VIIc appeared to be associated with other risk factors for CHD and the cardioprotective effects of oestrogen in women may be mediated through factor VII. This putative link between oestrogens and the delayed occurrence of CHD in menopausal women may, in part, be due to this or similar effects (Venkov et al. 1996).

Other factors associated with coagulation have been implicated as predictors of CHD. These include antithrombin III (Koshkin et al. 1991); blood coagulation and fibrinolysis in healthy compared with CHD patients (Kovalenko et al. 1991); the platelet-vascular component of the haemostatic system (Brezitskaya & Sedov, 1991), and the activation of factor XII in middle-aged men (Miller et al. 1997). In most cases the precise link between individual coagulation factors, diet and risk of CHD is difficult to prove and it seems most useful to consider a range of factors and their interrelationships.

Serum triacylglycerol levels have been proposed as valid predictive indicators (Austin et al. 1997) and pharmacological treatment of dyslipidaemia has been suggested as a useful intervention (Gotto, 1996). It has been demonstrated that serum triacylglycerols reflect dietary exposure (Vidgren et al. 1998), therefore the measurement of serum triacylglycerol levels may reflect dietary exposure and, if the status of the individual is known, may also act as a predictor or a risk.

A clear association between cardiovascular disease and hyperhomocysteinaemia has been observed and there is some mechanistic rationale for the effect. A genetic predisposition for this has been associated with deficiency in methylenetetrahydrofolate reductase (Rozen, 1997). This leads to elevated plasma levels of homocysteine, which are associated with increased risk of cardiovascular disease probably via a mechanism involving thiolation of free amino groups of LDL leading to aggregation and increased uptake by macrophages. Once again, dietary levels of folate (an important methyl donor) and/or deficiencies in the vitamin cofactors B₆ or B₁₂ may exacerbate the genetic situation.

The apparent association between apolipoprotein E and cardiovascular disease has been noted in a number of studies. There are three common alleles termed E2, E3 and E4 and the association between each of them and their response to fat intake has been studied.

Further work is needed to determine the magnitude of the genetic component of lipid metabolism and its contribution to cardiovascular disease. In general, lipid intake and metabolism has been found to correlate with cardiovascular disease risk. There is also, however, a genetic aspect to this part of the process. For example, Howard et al. (1994) found that lipoprotein (a) concentration in blood appeared to be largely genetically determined and this, together with its association with fibrinogen and LDL, suggest a mixed genetic/environmental effect. One physiological state, which is linked to a defined subgroup of the population, is the increased risk of cardiovascular disease in postmenopausal women (Razay et al. 1992; Maxwell, 1998).

In conclusion, cardiovascular disease has a series of specific genetic components. The effect of diet on individuals with various genetic susceptibilities will be discussed later.

### 3.3. Preventative action possible

Since cardiovascular disease has distinct genetic and diet-related components (Sections 3.1 and 3.2), it is possible to consider markers in the context of those that could give an early warning of the possibility of the disease process beginning, those which indicate predisposition, those which reflect later stages and those which may help to prevent re-occurrence after initial disease.

#### 3.3.1. Primary markers

Primary markers are those that relate to early stages in the disease process or to predisposition.

**Direct markers.** The area of primary prevention is closely linked to that of susceptibility, however there are a number of clinical markers that can be used as predictors of early damage and progression of the disease process.

Increased levels of serum creatinine kinase and the isoenzyme creatine kinase MB (CKMB) have traditionally been used to detect myocardial infarction. More recently cardiac troponin T has been proposed as a specific marker of myocardial injury (Solymoss et al. 1997) and as a predictor of even mild myocardial necrosis. The BB enzyme of glycogen phosphorylase has been proposed as a marker of cardiac damage and has undergone clinical trial (Boldt et al. 1996). In a study of young American adults, (ages 22–43), who died suddenly of atherosclerotic coronary artery disease, elevated levels of plasma cholesterol, triacylglycerols, LDL and apolipoprotein B appeared to be significant biomarkers for the developed disease (Hiserodt et al. 1995). However, the samples taken were, for obvious reasons, post-mortem and may not reflect the utility of these as predictive markers. In an earlier study in Europe the offspring of fathers who suffered myocardial infarction before the age of 55 were examined (Rosseneau et al. 1994). The authors, in this case, focused on plasma cholesterol esters as biomarkers for the fatty acid composition of the diet but no
significant correlation was found. Some regional differences were observed. Finnish students had the highest levels of plasma cholesteryl palmitate whereas cholesteryl linoleate and arachidonate levels were highest in Belgian and Southern European samples, respectively. This may reflect increased susceptibility. All of these factors, when combined with dietary changes and the adoption of a more sedentary life-style will increase the predisposition to circulatory disease.

The relationship of coronary heart disease to diabetes has been extensively studied and seems confirmed both for type 1 (Vaccaro et al. 1998) and type 2 (Lehto et al. 2000). The relative risk of CHD for people with diabetes against those without was 3.45 among women and 2.52 among men. Differences were observed between black and non-black populations and, although the risk of CHD with diabetes was somewhat lower in the former, this was outweighed by a greater prevalence of diabetes (Folsom et al. 1997). A final example of generic life-style relationships to circulatory disease was provided in a study in which the relationship between short stature and heart disease was investigated (Kee et al. 1997). The study based on data from throughout Europe concluded that, in men, height appeared to be an independent, inheritable risk factor for coronary heart disease.

Clearly, further studies are necessary to determine if the primary clinical markers of early cardiac damage predisposition are sufficiently predictive of long-term outcome. A number of less direct factors have been implicated as useful biomarkers to predict clinical outcome.

Indirect markers. The most commonly implicated indirect marker is clinical measurement of cholesterol and associated lipids. Lowering of the levels of LDL-cholesterol and VLDL-cholesterol and raising the levels of HDL-cholesterol by clinical intervention has been demonstrated to lower the risk of coronary heart disease (Kashyap, 1997). The clinical significance of cholesterol has been further indicated by the success of inhibitors of hydroxymethylglutaryl (HMG)-CoA reductase (a key enzyme in cholesterol biosynthesis) in reducing incidence of coronary heart disease. A number of studies appear not to substantiate the claim that there is a causal relationship between even endogenous low serum cholesterol or drug interventions and an increased risk of non-cardiovascular mortality (Jones, 1994). However, in a follow-up to the Seven Countries study, the link between serum total cholesterol and long-term coronary heart disease in a number of countries was investigated (Verschuren et al. 1995). The relative increase in coronary heart disease mortality in populations with different cholesterol levels was similar within countries, but the absolute values for mortality varied considerably. This work suggested that cholesterol is linearly correlated with CHD mortality and the increase in CHD mortality with increased cholesterol was broadly similar in different cultures. An earlier study in developing countries arrived at broadly similar conclusions (Li et al. 1994). The authors postulated that the combination of several coronary heart disease risk factors could explain about 90% of the interpopulation variance in women. However, it was noteworthy that, when fasting or 2 hour post-food blood glucose was included in the model, total cholesterol was no longer significant in men but remained significant in women. The distinction between primary and secondary markers and between secondary markers and maintenance situations can be problematical in the case of cholesterol. In a study in Northern Ireland cholesterol screening of children from families with a history of cardiovascular disease was carried out. Only 63 of 190 individuals with hypercholesterolaemia were identified from their family history, suggesting that a strategy whereby only children from high risk families are screened for hypercholesterolaemia would be ineffective (Primrose et al. 1994). A range of other studies on cholesterol has been carried out with similarly confusing results.

Serum cholesterol is a relatively simple measurement to make and is routinely carried out in clinical chemistry laboratories. Importantly, the nature of the relationship between dietary cholesterol and serum total cholesterol remains problematical with linearity (Keys, 1966; Hegsted, 1983) being suggested. However, the nature of the relationship depends on a number of factors including cholesterol availability and storage (Dietschy, 1998) and genetic polymorphisms (Gylling et al. 1997). Studies reported by McNamara (1997) suggested a minimal link between dietary cholesterol and either blood cholesterol or CHD. Although lowering the levels of LDL-cholesterol and VLDL-cholesterol by clinical means has been shown to lower the risk of CHD (Kashyap, 1997), the effect of diet on these parameters remains hard to predict. It is difficult to conduct studies in which the risk of circulatory disease is measured without clinical intervention and, in most cases, the link is only established in patients who have already suffered a thrombotic incident and are hence on medication. For example, dietary intervention was proposed in a three-year study of patients with CHD (Alessandri et al. 1994) together with extensive therapeutic intervention and cessation of cigarette smoking.

In several related studies, the predictive utility of serum triacylglycerol levels has been assessed. Treatment of dyslipidaemia has been suggested as a potential target (Gotto, 1996). Low density lipoprotein (LDL) particle size and plasma triacylglycerol have been proposed as predictors of CHD (Austin et al. 1997) and the fractional esterification rate of high density lipoprotein (HDL) has been used to predict the size distribution and physico-chemical characteristics of HDL in plasma (Ohta et al. 1997). Several studies have indicated that the size and density of LDL particles is of significance in predisposition to CHD. Small, dense LDL (LDL subclass phenotype B) is a common, genetically influenced risk factor for CHD (Austin, 1996). Although quantification of risk factors due to circulating lipids is difficult, higher levels of non-HDL or LDL cholesterol have been associated with a 30–35% higher CHD event rate in the elderly (Frost et al. 1996).

Lipoprotein (a) appears to be a risk factor for CHD and in men and studies have also implicated it as a determinant in both pre-and postmenopausal women (Orth-Gomer et al. 1997). The role of lipoprotein (a) and apolipoprotein (a) in the increased risk of hypertensive individuals to CHD has been noted by Gazzaruso et al. (1997).

Lipoproteins may be particularly relevant predictors of coronary heart disease in individuals with type 2 or
non-insulin dependent diabetes (NIDDM) and several studies have been carried out which appear to reflect this (e.g. Lehto et al. 1997). The correlation between blood pressure and blood lipid levels among vegetarians, non-vegetarian and semi-vegetarian native Africans was the subject of a recent study (Famodu et al. 1998). Although there was no statistically significant difference between the blood pressure of the three groups, the vegetarians did have significantly lower levels of serum total cholesterol and triglycerides and this may be reflected in the lower cardiovascular disease risk in this group compared to the others.

The absence of LDL has been demonstrated not to be a sole, valid predictor of risk of coronary heart disease. A small number of studies have indicated that low levels of HDL cholesterol without elevated levels of LDL or cholesterol can predict atherosclerosis (Wilt et al. 1997).

A range of other early predictors of damage have been suggested. These include the circulating adhesion molecules E-selection and intercellular adhesion molecule-1 (ICAM-1) (Hwang et al. 1997), and impairment of the fibrinolytic system leading to fibrin deposition (Juhun-Vague & Alessi, 1997). Several haemostatic tests have been implicated in elevated risk of myocardial infarction (Wu, 1997), however further clinical trials are necessary to establish conclusively the relative importance of, for example, factor VIIIc, C-reactive protein, persistent positive spontaneous platelet aggregation and von Willebrand factor.

A range of studies have implicated a lack of folate and vitamin B6 in increased risk of CHD (Rimm et al. 1998) and a plausible mechanism has been suggested which implicates homocysteine levels. There is reasonably compelling evidence (and some mechanistic support) for a link between plasma homocysteine levels and cardiovascular disease (Jacobsen, 1998). Based on this work it was estimated that some 10% of coronary artery disease risk may be attributable to homocysteine. However, even given this type of information, the precise nature of the link between cardiovascular disease and dietary levels of homocysteine or folic acid (via plasma homocysteine) remains imprecise (see Section 3.4).

3.3.2. Secondary effects. Secondary effects related to prevention of cardiovascular disease can be defined as those factors which are of benefit after cardiovascular damage has taken place. One of the principal secondary markers for the prevention of further instances of CHD is serum cholesterol levels. Several trials have suggested that cholesterol lowering is of benefit in secondary prevention and in producing regression of coronary lesions (Brown, 1997). The nature of the link between dietary cholesterol and serum levels remains unclear and, for the most part, unconfirmed (McNamara, 1997). In a three-year study of patients with CHD, a range of factors were considered to be important in the prevention of recurrence (Alessandri et al. 1994). The results suggested that extensive therapeutic intervention combined with a low cholesterol diet and ceasing of cigarette smoking could lower the incidence of secondary events. A putative link between dietary fat and CHD has been extensively reported and dietary intervention has been proposed for patients. The major problems associated with this type of approach are that it is important to establish the link both between diet and a clinical measurement and between the measurement and the disease outcome in terms of clinical events. One example of this is the apparent link between fatty food intake and serum levels of factor VII coagulant activity. Raised levels of factor VII coagulant activity have been implicated in increased risk of cardiovascular disease events and a link to self-reported fat intake was found (Connelly et al. 1993). The authors suggested that, because the effect was rapid, dietary intervention may be effective even in advanced cases.

Given that nutrients in the diet appear to be important in secondary health care for patients with circulatory disorders, a number of studies have attempted to identify more precisely the relative importance of different factors. In one extensive study, it was found that diagnosis of CHD resulted in changes in diet. In addition, by comparing different groups, low energy intake, high protein and moderate alcohol intakes are favourable with respect to CHD risk in men but only alcohol altered the risk in women (Bolton-Smith et al. 1992). Somewhat surprisingly, dietary fat appeared not to be implicated.

A further factor, which relates to the role of serum lipids in secondary prevention of CHD is dietary antioxidant levels. A number of studies have implicated dietary antioxidants in the prevention of further disease events (Mosca et al. 1997), however a number of investigators have identified that randomised trials still need to be carried out (Hennekens et al. 1995; Iribarren et al. 1997).

In conclusion, a number of factors appear to be implicated in secondary health care in patients with circulatory disorders. Further work is necessary, particularly dietary intervention studies, in order to assess the relative importance of these. In general, the most effective strategies appear to be similar to those identified for primary care and prevention and these, coupled to appropriate therapeutic interventions seem to be of greatest significance. Although a number of serum-indices have been measured which appear to be correlated with future risk of disease, the strength of the correlation and the link to precise dietary components remains unclear.

3.3.3. Maintenance. The maintenance of health in patients with severe circulatory disease is closely linked with therapeutic strategies. The role of diet in health maintenance under these circumstances would appear to be marginal.

3.3.4. Other factors. The major complicating factors in the assessment of dietary strategies for prevention of circulatory disorders are genetic predisposition and non-insulin dependent diabetes. Coronary heart disease is linked to systolic and diastolic blood pressure (MacMahon et al. 1990). Although blood pressure can respond to dietary changes, it also has a distinct genetic component related to angiotensin I converting enzyme (ACE) gene polymorphisms (Chrostowska et al. 1998). Indeed, attempts are currently being made to identify the precise loci for essential hypertension (Morris & Griffiths, 1998).

3.4. Current biomarkers

In the case of coronary heart disease, it could be argued that the whole cardiovascular system is the target organ hence...
systemic biomarkers and target organ biomarkers are intimately linked. For convenience, however, the level of analysis will be divided in two with measurements in serum considered separately from target organ-directed measurements. A number of the biomarkers outlined below have already been mentioned in preceding sections, however the examples used and the focus for the studies are different.

3.4.1. Serum. The majority of biomarkers are measured in serum. The major problem is in defining the link between the analyte or biochemical measure and the final clinical event. The simplest, non-invasive measure of a biomarker related to the likely onset of coronary heart disease is blood pressure. A number of studies have essentially demonstrated similar results — lowering of blood pressure is one of the major predictive biomarkers of lessened disease risk (e.g. Okayama et al. 1993).

Measurement of cholesterol is a convincing predictor of circulatory disease susceptibility (Cleeman, 1997), however the nature of the link between dietary cholesterol and serum cholesterol remains unproven. Clearly the nature of cholesterol esters is important and this is evidenced by the numbers of studies on HDL-cholesterol and LDL-cholesterol (Ohta et al. 1997). It has been suggested that HDL-cholesterol can act in a positive fashion to inhibit endothelial cell adhesion molecule expression (Barter, 1997). This hypothesis would go some way towards explaining, on a molecular level, the effect of HDL. Many of the other studies that attempt to link serum lipids to coronary heart disease are descriptive and, essentially, non-predictive in a mechanistic fashion. Further studies are needed to provide mechanistic insights, which can then be used to measure the effects of dietary intervention in terms of clinical outcome.

Reduction of risk for CHD requires an integrated and multifactorial approach to biomarker measurement (Parmley, 1997). It is important, in this context, to distinguish between effects on the heart and other systemic conditions (e.g. cerebrovascular disease). This has been recognised (e.g. Curb & Marcus, 1991) with the major heart disease risk factors appearing to be serum cholesterol, hypertension and stress, whereas for stroke the principal factors were systolic pressure (Anderssen et al. 1996). In all of these cases, the extent of dietary intervention has proved difficult and drug trials have been found to be more effective than diet in reducing cholesterol (Holme, 1990). Dietary effects on factor VII have been noted (Connelly et al. 1993), but the link between factor VII as a sole risk factor for CHD remains unproven. Meta-analysis suggested that dietary intervention could reduce the incidence of CHD. However, the observed reduction in CHD did not affect overall death from all causes (Cucherat & Boissel, 1993). The combination of dietary intervention and exercise appeared to have a favourable effect on blood pressure (Anderssen et al. 1996).

The quality of fibrin networks has been suggested as having an effect on CHD and it has recently been reported that dietary pectin can influence fibrin network structure in hypercholesterolaemic individuals (Veldman et al. 1997). In addition, pectin appeared to decrease serum cholesterol, LDL-cholesterol, apolipoprotein (A and B) and lipoprotein (a).

Although a clear link between adiposity and food intake seems to be obvious a number of studies have indicated that some individuals can develop risk factors for CHD even though their eating behaviour is normal (Rolland-Cachera et al. 1990). It is important to consider a range of social and environmental issues when attempting to draw simple conclusions. An example of one such study is the adoption of a low lipid diet in the case of patients with CHD (Watts et al. 1992). This leads to lower serum lipids and thence to an unquantified reduction in heart disease. Other studies have advocated a combination of exercise and dietary intervention (Anderssen et al. 1996), dietary pectin (Veldman et al. 1997) and dietary cholesterol (Holme, 1990). In all of these cases, the extent of dietary intervention can be measured directly by measurement of serum levels (e.g. of lipids, cholesterol etc.) and, in a few cases, the clinical consequences can also be determined (e.g. changes in blood pressure and blood coagulation parameters). In...
comparatively few cases has it been possible to prove a reversibility in the condition.

3.5.1. Antioxidant status. The relationship between oxidative damage and CHD has been extensively researched. In general, studies can be divided into epidemiological investigations and mechanistic studies.

Epidemiology. A range of targets have been assessed for investigating the relationship between dietary antioxidants and CHD. The oxidation of LDL in the cell wall is postulated to play an important role in the development of atherosclerotic lesions. The hypothesis is that dietary antioxidants protect LDL against oxidation and hence prevent the onset of disease. The epidemiological evidence for this mechanism has recently been reviewed (Van de Vijver et al. 1997). The conclusion of this study of the literature was that general preventative measures based on antioxidant supplementation are not yet justifiable. A more direct link between antioxidants and HDL-cholesterol was suggested in a study related to the Coronary Artery Risk in Young Adults (CARDIA) investigation (Slattery et al. 1995). The authors attempted to correlate intake of antioxidant vitamin supplements (vitamins A, C, E and β-carotene) with a range of plasma lipids. The only connection observed was for elevated levels of HDL-cholesterol when other life-style factors were considered to be of significance.

Although there is a tendency to suppose that individuals from regions with high vitamin E intake have a lower CHD rate, several studies have been contradictory. The balance of opinion seems to be that high doses of vitamin E may reduce the risk of CHD but that conclusive evidence is lacking (Stampfer & Rimm, 1995). In an alternative approach, investigators in Sweden found that γ-but not α-tocopherol levels were reduced in-patients with CHD (Ohrvall et al. 1996).

Mechanistic studies. Evidence to substantiate the possible mechanisms of action of dietary antioxidants is patchy. Flavonoids are known to be potent inhibitors of the oxidation of LDL as are oestrogenic isoflavonoids (Samman et al. 1996). Significant studies have been carried out on selenium supplementation as a means of preventing oxidative damage to plasma lipoproteins in animal models (e.g. Abou-Hozaifa, 1997), but further work is necessary to attempt to correlate the role of dietary micronutrients with specific biological indices of prevention of oxidation. To simply observe for example, that selenium is a key cofactor in the antioxidative enzyme glutathione peroxidase, is insufficient to explain its potential mechanism of action.

The role of alcohol intake in CHD remains reasonably sure but unquantifiable. Both red and white wine appear to have a beneficial effect on clinical indices such as platelet aggregation and oxidation of serum lipoproteins (Struck et al. 1994). In one study, white wine was found to be more effective than red which runs somewhat counter to arguments suggesting the prime factor is the level of flavonoids present (Cook & Samman, 1996).

A potential mechanism to explain the effects of phenolics in red wine has been suggested based on inhibition of eicosanoid synthesis (Pace-Asciak et al. 1995). This is in contrast to vitamin antioxidants, which have no such activity. Clearly further studies will be necessary to attempt to define the mechanistic relationship between specific dietary constituents such as the phenolics present in red wine and reduction in CHD prevalence.

The correlation between blood pressure and CHD has been extensively investigated. A number of studies have failed to find a link between exercise and blood pressure (e.g. Raitakari et al. 1997). However, older track athletes appear to have particularly low blood pressure (Mengelkoch et al. 1997) and this may relate directly to long-term exercise. A range of dietary and non-dietary factors have been reported as having an effect on blood pressure, however the precise relationship between blood pressure and CHD events remains unclear. In an extensive study of males of Japanese descent living in Hawaii, the results suggested that antihypertensive medication may be effective by reducing the variation in systemic blood pressure rather than by simply lowering it per se (Grove et al. 1997).

The role of oxidative stress has previously been discussed in the context of antioxidants. Overall, oxidative stress and the levels of stress have been correlated with a range of disease issues. Difficulties remain in attempting to quantify the extent of oxidative stress in individuals and mechanisms whereby it could correlate with specific disease states.

3.5.2. Folate. The use of folate supplementation to lower the risk to cardiovascular disease has been noted previously. The hypothesis remains that the reduced form of folate, N5-methyltetrahydrofolate is required for the remethylation of homocysteine to methionine and folate deficiency will result in elevated levels of homocysteine in the blood with the consequences noted above (Durand et al. 1998). In terms of intervention, low-dose folic acid supplementation has been found to decrease plasma homocysteine levels (Brouwer et al. 1999a,b). This opens the possibility of dietary modulation of plasma homocysteine levels and hence a potential effect on cardiovascular disease. It is unclear, however, if a positive effect would be observed in individuals with a genetic predisposition to hyperhomocysteinemia.

3.5.3. Fat and lipids. The link between fat intake and cardiovascular disease in normal and hyperlipidaemic individuals has been extensively studied. A recent investigation, for example, showed that risk factors for cardiovascular disease in the United Arab Emirates (and instances of the disease itself) appeared to be following the increased ‘Westernisation’ of the diet (Musaiger & al-Roomi, 1997). Although there was a fall in the consumption of fresh fruit and vegetables and a concomitant rise in fat intake, other factors such as smoking should also be considered. The consumption of trans fatty acids has been suggested as a reason for elevated blood LDL and lowered HDL and also for raising lipoprotein concentration (Tinajas Ruiz, 1998). Once again, the extent to which a high fat diet will exacerbate the risk factors in normal as compared with genetically predisposed individuals in not completely clear, but significant information is already available.

There is some evidence for an age-related effect in cardiovascular disease risk with children and adolescents being susceptible to ‘imprinting’. (Waterland & Garza, 1999) and this has led some investigators to suggest that atherosclerosis can be described as a ‘nutritional disease of childhood’ (Berenson et al. 1998). This hypothesis suggests
that the consumption of high fat foods by children and
general overeating leads to obesity with corresponding
increases in cardiovascular risk factors. However, it is
important to emphasise that the effects of dietary fat will
vary depending on the genetic predisposition and status of
the individual. For example, African–American females
with type 2 diabetes are at greater risk for cardiovascular
morbidity and mortality than diabetic African–American
males and Whites (Gacllard et al. 1998) and a number of
measurable risk factors have been identified including fat
intake. There are a number of serum and plasma-based
markers which appear to correlate with fat intake. These
include measures of LDL/HDL ratios, plasma triglyceride
levels and pentadecanoic acid as a marker for intake of milk
fat (Smedman et al. 1999).

3.5.4. Coronary heart disease and body mass index. A
major purported influence on CHD is body mass index
(BMI). Studies have indicated that the risk of cardiovascular
disease events increases with the degree of regional, central
or abdominal obesity (Kannel et al. 1991). There is also a
clear link with NIDDM, which relates to obesity. In a study
on mortality from all causes and from CHD in men over 15
years, mortality from all causes in older men tended to be
higher in those with a low BMI but this was not the case for
CHD mortality (Fitzgerald & Jarrett, 1992). Studies have
indicated that, in both men and women, triacylglycerols,
BMI and alcohol intake contributed significantly to HDL-
cholesterol and apoa-I variablility (Schaefer et al. 1994).
Although BMI appeared to be associated with several CHD
risk factors in a study in Australia (Hodgson et al. 1994),
BMI was not significantly associated with coronary artery
disease as scored by coronary lesions or the extent of
coronary atherosclerosis. Most studies indicate that BMI is
associated with a range of CHD risk factors (e.g. Galanis
et al. 1995). It is difficult to quantitatively assess the relative
risk increase, which is directly attributable to increased
BMI. Hsieh & Yoshinaga (1995) suggested that normal
BMI individuals should monitor their waist/height ratio
because of increased CHD risk. An alternative interpretation
has been suggested (De Pergola et al. 1997) in which BMI
was found to correlate directly with plasma tissue
plasminogen activator (an antithrombotic factor). Obesity
in individuals correlated substantially with a range of
positive CHD risk factors and this was considered to reflect
the lower androgenicity of obese men. Finally, in an
extensive study of over 3000 individuals, BMI was
significantly and linearly associated with systolic blood
pressure, fasting glucose levels, total cholesterol, VLDL-
cholesterol and LDL cholesterol levels. All the measured
risk factors for CHD were associated with higher BMI in
both men and women (Lamon-Fava et al. 1996).

In conclusion, the correlation between BMI and increased
risk of CHD seems fairly certain. The degree of correlation
and quantification of it has not been determined and, given
the complexity of the interactions involved, delineation of a
precise relationship may prove problematical.

3.5.5. Other interventions. A range of other dietary
components have been implicated in altered risk to the onset
or progression of cardiovascular disease. Significant effects
have been claimed for the treatment of postmenopausal
women with hormones, however it is unclear if a diet rich in
phytoestrogens (e.g. soya isoflavones, lignans) could have a
similar effect or if their effect is largely a result of their
antioxidative capability (Cassidy et al. 2000).

3.6. Profile of disease/damage

A number of studies have attempted to link lipoprotein (a) to
CHD. A correlation was observed between lipoprotein (a)
and the rate of progression of atherosclerosis in individuals
with familial hypercholesterolaemia (Tato et al. 1993). A
study of sudden coronary death in China indicated that the
coronary artery was narrowed in most cases and athero-
sclerotic plaques were serious and extensive (Chen &
Huang, 1992). Clearly this provides clear and direct
evidence for the relationship between the coronary artery
and CHD in terms of blood flow and other studies have
demonstrated a similar relationship.

In terms of dietary links, the presence of natural
antioxidants has been suggested as retarding the formation
of atherosclerotic plaques thereby contributing to the
benefits of the ‘Mediterranean’ type diet (Salami et al.
1995). This ties in with the theory that oxidatively modified
LDL contributes towards the onset of atherosclerotic
disease via plaque formation. Lipoprotein (a) has been
shown to accumulate in areas of atherosclerotic plaque but
the causal nature of this accumulation has not been
confirmed (Suer et al. 1996; Zhou et al. 1996).

Many of the studies on the profile of CHD have been
carried out on patients who have already developed the
disease. In many cases it is not possible to correlate effects
directly to diet.

3.7. Conclusion

The use of biomarkers in CHD and other circulatory
disorders is, in some ways, fairly advanced. A number of
clinical and diagnostic markers are known, but these tend to
be non-predictive and reflect current status. In addition they
rarely respond in a predictive way to dietary intervention. A
number of risk factors have been identified which appear to
correlate with eventual disease outcome, particularly in
susceptible individuals, and some of these are directly
affected by diet. Further work is needed to determine more
precisely the nature of the link between the various factors
which impact on cardiovascular disease outcome and the
extent to which each of them can be altered by changes in
diet.

4. Osteoporosis

4.1. Introduction

Osteoporosis is a disease of increased bone fragility leading
to a higher risk of fracture in elderly people as a result of
minimal trauma. The clearest clinical manifestation of the
disease is hip fracture however osteoporosis is considered to
affect half of women and a quarter of men over the age of 50
(Christensen, 1997). Bone fragility is mainly determined by
bone mass, which explains 80% of the variance in
compressive strength, but bone geometry, microarchitecture
and the biochemical characteristics of the tissue are also considered to be important.

Disease progression occurs through a negative balance of bone mass – usually as a result of increased bone resorption. During development and growth bone is resorbed and deposited throughout the body. Once maturity has been reached the major process involves replacement of old bone with new at the same location. The process of resorption and rebuilding is carried out by osteoclasts and osteoblasts, respectively, both of which are derived from precursors originating in bone marrow. It is generally considered that the imbalance in bone formation and resorption is responsible for loss of bone and a number of factors (dietary and others) have been found to affect the process (Christensen, 1997).

4.2. Preventative and causative factors

The primary prevention of osteoporosis must begin in childhood. The growth and development of the skeleton is completed during the third decade of life and, after this resorption at specific sites without adequate rebuilding begins to take place. A number of factors can influence the occurrence and severity of osteoporosis and some of these are considered below.

4.2.1. Genetic factors. Bone metabolism is regulated by a complex interplay of a range of hormones and other factors. This means that genetic polymorphisms may play a role from a range of gene targets. Studies have been carried out with specific populations. For example, among Australians 75% of the variation in bone density is genetically determined (Simopoulos, 1996). One study carried out in the USA suggested that black women had both a higher peak bone mass and suffered less bone loss from selected sites (Aloia et al. 1996).

A number of conditions clearly contribute towards a predisposition to osteoporosis. These include, in particular, coeliac disease (although there are some doubts regarding this), hormone insensitivity syndromes, body mass and vitamin metabolism (Szathmari et al. 1997; Mora et al. 1999). In addition, recent developments in molecular genetics have led to the identification of specific genes associated directly with an increased risk of development of osteoporosis. Mutations in type 1 collagen appears to be associated with osteoporosis (Prokop & Kivirikko, 1995). A key step in osteoblast formation and differentiation requires a specific transcription factor, CBFA1, since in its absence skeleton formation in mice is severely affected (Rodan & Harada, 1997). In this case the mutant mice fail to survive. A range of genes have been found to be essential to normal limb formation in experimental animals but in many cases, the mechanism of the effect is unclear. A brief summary of some of these has been provided by Rodan (1998).

Indirect factors associated with genetic predisposition have been noted above. A major factor is the occurrence of coeliac disease. Measurement of bone mineral density in coeliac patients established an apparent link between persistent villous atrophy of the small bowel and lower bone mineral density (Valdimarsson et al. 1994). Other studies have supported this observation including a study in which historical data suggested the correlation between bone density and age of diagnosis of coeliac disease or time of adherence to a gluten-free diet in adults (Pistorius et al. 1995). The effects of a gluten-free diet in children were studied and appeared to cause a rapid increase in bone mineral density (Mora et al. 1998) but other workers found that a low gluten diet could not, on its own, lead to an increase in bone mineral density (Szathmari et al. 1997). Finally, one group of researchers found metabolic bone disease to be an early diagnostic marker for coeliac disease and they suggested that undiagnosed coeliac disease could be a risk factor for osteoporosis (Hernandez et al. 1997).

A second major genetic risk factor for the onset of osteoporosis is sex steroid deficiency. At menopause (or after castration in men) the rate of bone loss in the spine increases as much as tenfold (Manolagas, 1998). There appears to be a considerable association between osteoporosis and interleukin-6 (IL-6) lytokine function. Briefly, enhanced production of IL-6 is associated with loss of sex hormone brought about by a loss of gonadal function and this leads to increased bone resorption. In addition, IL-6 (and/or IL-6 receptor) also appears to be involved in a range of conditions associated with increased bone resorption including Paget’s disease, rheumatoid arthritis and Gorham-stout or disappearing bone disease (Manolagas, 1998). Other cytokines (e.g. IL-1, tumour necrosis factor-α (TNFL) appear to stimulate the production and/or survival of osteoclasts thereby increasing bone resorption.

4.2.2. Environmental factors. Primary prevention of osteoporosis involves diet and physical activity at all life stages. Animal studies have shown that exercise can reduce the onset of loss of bone mineral density.

The principal dietary influences on bone density and risk of osteoporosis are considered to be calcium (and other mineral intake) and vitamin D. The possible influence of a range of factors on bone mineral density including weight-bearing physical activity, daylight hours spent outdoors and dietary factors have been investigated (Gunnnes & Lehmann, 1995). In adolescents, bone mineral density was predicted by saturated fat, vitamin C and calcium but not by daylight hours spent outdoors or by physical activity. An eighteen-year prospective study which focused on dietary calcium in a single 24-h dietary recall obtained eighteen years previously suggested that the bone mineral density at hip sites increased significantly with the increasing tertile of calcium intake for women, however no effect was observed for men (Holbrook & Barrett-Connor, 1995).

The role of vitamin D has also been extensively investigated. Vitamin D is converted into vitamin D3 in the skin upon exposure to sunlight and this intermediate is gradually transformed into 1,25-dihydroxy vitamin D, which acts to maintain serum calcium and phosphorus levels within the normal range. Numerous studies have been carried out in populations and in animal models which confirm the importance of vitamin D in the prevention of osteoporosis (Holick, 1996; Kaufman, 1995).

Other minerals which have been associated with prevention of bone loss and osteoporosis include magnesium (Rude et al. 1998), copper (Yee et al. 1995) and vitamins C (Leveille et al. 1997) and K (Feskanich et al. 1999).
Other environmental and dietary factors which have been associated with osteoporosis and bone loss (either as causative or as protective agents) include phytoestrogens in postmenopausal women (Humfrey, 1998), fruit and vegetable intake (Tucker et al. 1999), antioxidants (Melhus et al. 1999), a range of dietary factors including iron and magnesium (Michaelsson et al. 1995), xylitol (Svanberg & Knuuttila, 1994; Mattila et al. 1998) and alcohol intake (Fanti et al. 1997; Sampson & Shipley, 1997). In many cases the potential mechanisms involved are unclear and conflicting data have been produced.

4.3. Current biomarkers

There are a range of potential biomarkers for measuring both the onset of osteoporosis, the likelihood of it taking place and the effects of dietary constituents.

4.3.1. Systemic. A range of bone turnover markers and hormones, which regulate skeletal metabolism, can be measured. In general, high levels of bone turnover occur during periods of rapid bone remodelling and growth but should diminish during adulthood. In the case of osteoporotic patients, high turnover and increased frequency of remodelling actuation sites occurs. A range of markers have been recently reviewed (Christenson, 1997) (Table 9). Although a number of these markers have been used, most of them lack specificity, but pyridinoline and deoxypyridinoline cross-links and the markers for bone formation would appear to be of greater value than, for example, the measurement of urinary calcium the level of which depends on a range of factors including diet and renal function (Nordin et al. 1999).

Bone turnover markers can provide information rapidly on the responsiveness of bone to intervention studies or therapy. They do, however, exhibit high levels of inter- and intra-individual variability and this limits their use particularly for epidemiological studies. A second problem which arises with bone turnover markers as indicators for osteoporosis is the half-life of bone response which is reflected in the slow response time and in the bone remodelling transient which is of the order of 2 years after an intervention.

There are a number of methods for measurement of bone biomarkers. Some of the more direct measures of bone density, bone geometry and bone strength are discussed below. The measurement of tartrate-resistant acid phosphatase (TRAP) using antibodies has been carried out by Janckia et al. (1998). Woitge et al. (1999) assessed a range of serum markers for bone resorption in different populations including pre- and postmenopausal women, patients with hepatic dysfunction, Paget’s disease, multiple myeloma and breast cancer both with and without bone metastases. The chosen markers – serum measures of C-terminal and N-terminal telepeptides of type I collagen and bone scaloprotein – were compared with conventional markers including urinary total pyridinoline and total deoxypyridinoline and urinary total C-terminal and N-terminal telepeptides of type I collagen. They concluded that serum markers reflected bone resorption to the same extent as urinary markers and may therefore be of value where urinary markers are inappropriate.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Marker</th>
<th>Pathophysiological change</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Alkaline phosphatase B</td>
<td>Bone formation</td>
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<tr>
<td>Procollagen/extension peptides</td>
<td>Bone formation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Osteocalcin</td>
<td>Bone formation/resorption</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urinary calcium</td>
<td>Bone resorption ?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acid phosphatase (TRAP)</td>
<td>Bone resorption</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hydroxyproline</td>
<td>Bone resorption</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Telopeptides</td>
<td>Bone resorption</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pyridinoline and deoxypyridinoline cross-links</td>
<td>Bone resorption</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.3.2. Target organ. Target organ biomarkers are those that are local to a specific area of bone (e.g. a fracture) and are made on specific bone structures.

Bone density. The mineral content of the entire skeleton and of specific portions of the body can be measured in vivo by the use of several radiological techniques. Currently, dual energy X-ray absorptiometry (DXA) and quantitative computed tomography (QCT) are the most widely used, although the former is preferred for its low invasiveness. DXA measures the attenuation caused by bone and by soft tissues of a photon beam emitted from X-ray tubes. Appropriate algorithms permit the discrimination of different tissues and the measurement of the mineral content of the region identified as bone. DXA is able to quantitate the areas of the regions identified as bone (bone area, BA) and their average density (bone mineral density, BMD). BMD is given as ‘aerial density’ and is therefore expressed as g/cm².

Assuming a constant relationship between scanned area and bone thickness, bone mineral content (BMC, g) can be calculated. QCT provides a three-dimensional image of the skeleton and therefore allows BMD to be calculated based on the true anatomical dimensions of the bone. However, BMD measured by QCT includes marrow spaces and is therefore referred to as an ‘apparent density’. It is expressed in g/cm³. Both the aerial density and the apparent density are correlated to the ‘true density’ of the bone, i.e. the ratio of bone ash weight per cm³ of true bone volume, excluding marrow spaces and porosity. The assumptions inherent in each technique have to be considered in their application. Thus, aerial density cannot be used to compare bone density in individuals with changes in skeletal dimensions, such as children, and for comparing populations of different skeletal size, unless suitable correction procedures are applied.

BMD measurements can be carried out in the whole body or at the peripheral level, particularly the hip and the lumbar spine. In women, there is an age-related decline in BMD at all non-spine skeletal sites, although the largest decline is observed in the femoral neck; in men there are no significant changes at all non-spine sites (Krall et al. 1997). The measurement at the site of fracture is more predictive of the risk of fracture than at the other sites, at the proximal femur there is a 2.6-fold change in risk per each SD of BMD change, and this allows a good classification of individuals for decision on treatment. A cheap non-invasive alternative to peripheral DXA might be ultrasonography of the
Bone geometry and bone strength. The size and shape of the bones, as well as the trabecular architecture are also predictors of bone strength, which is the outcome indicator of the bones, as well as the trabecular architecture. DXA and QCT are used to look at the size of the bones. The important parameter appears to be the length of the femur neck. A hip axis length index has been calculated (Duboeuf et al. 1997) and evaluated in populations; each SD increase in hip axis length doubled fracture risk. A fall index has also been calculated, that combines the length of the femur neck and the BMD; this may possibly explain the lower fracture rate in the Japanese, despite lower BMD (Testi et al. 1999). Methods for predicting bone strength in vivo are also being developed. They also use DXA and QCT to look at the size of the bones and at the bone mineral distribution in a cross-section (Petersen et al. 1996; Cody et al. 1999; Sarin et al. 1999).

In addition, computer modelling of the cross-section modules, can produce an index of bending strength. The latest development of such techniques, called hip stress analysis, predicts the bending strength of excised femurs better than BMD alone.

4.4. Profile of effects of nutrient interventions

As noted previously a range of dietary constituents have been implicated in bone health and osteoporosis. The essence is that a beneficial factor should be one which maintains high turnover in the young and low turnover during adulthood.

4.4.1. Calcium intake. Calcium and vitamin D have been extensively studied as factors in osteoporosis (Peacock et al. 1995). Methods to evaluate bone geometry are currently being developed, using computer software attached to DXA and QCT machines. The important parameter appears to be the length of the femur neck. A hip axis length index has been calculated (Duboeuf et al. 1997) and evaluated in populations; each SD increase in hip axis length doubled fracture risk. A fall index has also been calculated, that combines the length of the femur neck and the BMD; this may possibly explain the lower fracture rate in the Japanese, despite lower BMD (Testi et al. 1999). Methods for predicting bone strength in vivo are also being developed. They also use DXA and QCT to look at the size of the bones and at the bone mineral distribution in a cross-section (Petersen et al. 1996; Cody et al. 1999; Sarin et al. 1999).

In addition, computer modelling of the cross-section modules, can produce an index of bending strength. The latest development of such techniques, called hip stress analysis, predicts the bending strength of excised femurs better than BMD alone.

4.4.2. Trace elements. Minerals and trace elements other than calcium are involved in skeletal growth, some of them as matrix constituents, such as magnesium and fluoride, others as components of enzymatic systems involved in matrix turnover, such as zinc, copper and manganese. Insufficient dietary supply of these nutrients results in reduced bone growth or in the formation of defective bone (Saltman & Strause, 1992). The relationship between trace element content and mechanical bone strength has been investigated (Jensen et al. 1997). The role of certain individual trace elements has also been studied including copper (Eaton-Evans et al. 1996) and zinc (Yamaguchi & Kishi, 1993). Supplementation with both of these has a preventative effect in bone loss.

In addition to vitamin D, vitamins C and K are also required for optimal bone metabolism. Vitamin C (ascorbic acid) is required for the synthesis of type I collagen, the main organic component of bone and for the vitamin-C dependent intracellular hydroxylations that allow the formation of collagen cross-links. Vitamin K is required for the synthesis of functional osteocalcin, an important structural protein of the bone matrix.

4.4.3. Dietary control of sex hormone metabolism. The effects of sex hormones on bone formation and resorption have been extensively studied (reviewed in Oursler, 1998) and recent studies have suggested that the mechanism whereby oestrogen can decrease bone formation does not require a prior reduction in bone resorption (Turner et al. 1999). The role of oestrogen receptors remains unclear, but the presence of both oestrogen receptor alpha and oestrogen receptor beta polymorphisms with BMD and postmenopausal osteoporosis in Japanese women (Ogawa et al. 2000). The principal effects of oestrogens appear to be on resorption. There are a number of theories of how this could occur including direct effects on both osteoclasts and osteoblasts. Further work using model systems would clearly be of benefit and these may enable shorter-term intervention studies to be carried out.

The metabolism of sex hormones is influenced by the nutritional status of the individual and by the main dietary components, such as protein, fat, carbohydrates and fibre. High protein and fat and low complex carbohydrates and fibre intake lead to higher plasma levels of biologically
active sex hormones and lower sex hormone binding globulin (SHBG) (Adlercreutz et al. 1992). In addition, several compounds with oestrogenic properties have been identified in plant foods of different kinds, such as fruits, vegetables, cereals and oils, both as natural constituents and as contaminants (Price & Fenwick, 1985). Classes of compounds of interest are the isoflavones, lignans, coumestans, resorcylic acid lactones and indole, although only a restricted number of compounds has been shown to have oestrogenic properties. Clinical trials have also been performed mainly looking at the levels of oestrogens in premenopausal women (60 g of texturised soy protein was found to decrease follicle stimulating hormone and luteinising hormone and increase menstrual cycle length, due to changes of the follicular phase, Cassidy et al. 1994) or postmenopausal women (a soy-supplemented diet did not decrease these hormones, or increase SHBG, Baird et al. 1995).

The identification of high levels of phytooestrogens in the blood of children fed on soy milk (Setchell et al. 1997) has raised the question of the effect of these compounds in growing individuals and on future sensitivity to oestrogens. However, data on the effects of these compounds on bone mass and turnover are not available.

4.5. Study types

A number of studies have been carried out to determine if particular groups are at greater risk of developing osteoporosis. Both the formation and the subsequent maintenance of skeletal mass are under the control of environmental, hormonal and genetic factors. Studies in twins indicate that approximately 80% of the mass is genetically determined. Genetic polymorphism of the vitamin D receptor gene and defects of the collagen I gene, such as the one leading to osteogenesis imperfect, are associated to differences in bone mass and turnover. Different gene alleles have been found to be associated with different osteocalcin levels; the difference can explain 20% of the variation of bone density.

Other studies suggest that environmental factors such as physical activity and calcium intake can contribute 40% of the variance in bone density each, thus suggesting that there is a considerable overlap and interaction of the different factors (Ryan et al. 1998). However, the short-term effect of postmenopausal diet has been questioned (Earnshaw et al. 1997).

A number of studies have linked physical activity with prevention of bone loss particularly in post-menopausal women (Iwamoto et al. 1998; Kelly, 1998).

There is probably an interaction between genetic and environmental factors, as both the capacity to handle calcium balance and probably the response to exercise are mediated by genetic factors.

5. Conclusion

The role of biomarkers in diet and health provides a useful starting point for biomarker studies. The essential qualities of biomarkers – responsiveness, specificity, ease of use, applicability and relevance – apply particularly in this area. The examples chosen reflect three major diet-related disease issues. In each case the onset of the disease has a genetic determinant which can be exacerbated or delayed by diet. The measurement of specific biomarkers can, to a greater or lesser extent, help in the development of the assessment of likelihood of disease onset or delay of clinical outcome. Perhaps the most important factor is that in each case the disease, once manifest, is difficult to influence in a positive way by diet alone. This then suggests that the emphasis for biomarker studies should focus on predictive biomarkers (Benford et al. 2000) which can be used to help in the development of dietary strategies which will minimise the risk and be of greater benefit.

The biomarker approach can be applied to diet and health, however, as the examples given indicate, it is difficult to establish causality between health states and specific dietary constituents in the first place. It is necessary to take that process a step further by knowing something of the mechanism of the process if appropriate biomarkers are to be developed and used. It is possible, however, to treat the problem in an iterative way. Biomarkers may help to reveal some detail of the mechanism, which in turn may assist in the development of other biomarkers, which reveal more about the mechanisms and so on. In this way a more complete picture can be built up of a diet–health axis. In the case of cancer there are no true predictive biomarkers, however there are a number of dietary components which may have an effect (albeit unquantifiable) whose mechanisms of action are partially known and fit with a perceived risk profile. For example, dietary compounds which cause induction of phase 2 enzymes are likely to help to prevent DNA damage and, since this molecular event is recognised as the first step on the action of genotoxic carcinogens, such compounds will probably help to lower the risk of cancer developing by this route. The problem is that there is no scale, which indicates the extent of the lessening of risk when damage is measured in urine, blood or even in the target organ.

In coronary heart disease there are a greater number of potential measurements, which can be made, however, with the exception of dietary folate, the mechanistic basis is unclear and there is also, as for cancers, a significant genetic component. It is possible, however, to develop a ‘score’ of risk factors even if the weighting attached to each is not currently quantifiable. By further refining this scoring system to include factors such as lipoprotein levels in blood, cysteine and folate, cholesterol, lipids and BMI, it should be possible to advise on preventative action which can be mediated by diet and to test the effectiveness of this action. This holistic approach to biomarkers offers the greatest opportunity and potential at this time.

For osteoporosis, apart from a few distinct dietary constituents in specific groups (e.g. minerals, oestrogens in postmenopausal women), biomarkers of the type that have been discussed here are unlikely to be developed. Predictive, specific and sensitive biomarkers, which are directly linked to diet, are particularly scarce.

The accumulation of information on biomarkers continues to grow. Although this is to be welcomed, the key attributes of biomarkers – predictivity and responsiveness to changes in diet in a way which reflects a future health...
outcome—should be maintained and act as a testing procedure for research in this area. Ultimately the true test of a biomarker will be how much it is used and how its use affects diet and health. This requires that a profound knowledge of the link between diet and health is developed and biomarkers can contribute both to using the knowledge and to developing the strength of the link.

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