Food Chemistry 116 (2009) 542–554

Contents lists available at [ScienceDirect](http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/journal/03088146)

Food Chemistry

journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/foodchem

Analytical Methods

Phytoestrogen content of fruits and vegetables commonly consumed in the UK based on LC–MS and 13C-labelled standards

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article info

Article history: Received 15 August 2008 Received in revised form 21 February 2009 Accepted 1 March 2009

Keywords: Phytoestrogens Fruits Vegetables Lignans Isoflavones Coumestrol LC/MS

ABSTRACT

Phytoestrogens are a group of non-steroidal secondary plant metabolites with structural and functional similarity to 17 β -oestradiol. Urinary and plasma phytoestrogens have been used as biomarkers for dietary intake, however, this is often not possible in large epidemiological studies or to assess general exposure in free-living individuals. Accurate information about dietary phytoestrogens is therefore important but there is very limited data concerning food contents. In this study, we analysed the phytoestrogen (isoflavone, lignan and coumestrol) content in more than 240 different foods based on fresh and processed fruits and vegetables using a newly developed sensitive method based on LC–MS incorporating $13C₃$ -labelled standards. Phytoestrogens were detected in all foods analysed with a median content of 20 μ g/100 g wet weight (isoflavones: 2 μ g/100 g; lignans 12 μ g/100 g). Most foods contained less than 100 µg/100 g, however, 5% of foods analysed contained more than 400 µg/100 g, in particular soya-based foods and other legumes. The results published here will contribute to databases of dietary phytoestrogen content and allow the more accurate determination of phytoestrogen exposure in free-living individuals.

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1. Introduction

Phytoestrogens are a group of non-steroidal polyphenolic plant metabolites that induce biological responses and can mimic or modulate the action of endogenous oestrogens, often by binding to oestrogen receptors [\(Committee on Toxicity of Chemicals in](#page-11-0) [Food, 2003](#page-11-0)). The bioactivity of these compounds is based on their structural similarity with 17b-oestradiol ([Branham et al., 2002;](#page-11-0) [Martin, Horwitz, Ryan, & McGuire, 1978; Setchell & Adlercreutz,](#page-11-0) [1988; Verdeal, Brown, Richardson, & Ryan, 1980\)](#page-11-0) and their ability to bind to oestrogen receptors ([Shutt & Cox, 1972](#page-12-0)). Apart from their effect on oestrogen receptors, phytoestrogens can also act as antioxidants ([Wei, Bowen, Cai, Barnes, & Wang, 1995](#page-12-0)) and inhibitors of enzymes such as tyrosine kinase [\(Akiyama et al., 1987\)](#page-11-0) and DNA topoisomerase [\(Markovits et al., 1989\)](#page-12-0). As a result of their bioactivity, these compounds have received increasing attention for potentially beneficial effects for a wide range of human conditions such as cancer [\(Adlercreutz, 2002; Duffy, Perez, & Partridge,](#page-11-0) [2007; Peeters, Keinan-Boker, van der Schouw, & Grobbee, 2003;](#page-11-0) [Stark & Madar, 2002\)](#page-11-0), cardiovascular disease [\(Anthony, 2002; Stark](#page-11-0) [& Madar, 2002\)](#page-11-0), osteoporosis ([Dang & Lowik, 2005; Stark & Madar,](#page-11-0) [2002\)](#page-11-0) menopausal symptoms ([Krebs, Ensrud, MacDonald, & Wilt,](#page-11-0) [2004; Stark & Madar, 2002\)](#page-11-0), male infertility ([Phillips & Tanphai](#page-12-0)[chitr, 2008](#page-12-0)), obesity and type 2 diabetes [\(Bhathena & Velasquez,](#page-11-0) [2002\)](#page-11-0). However, elevated endogenous sex hormone levels are generally associated with an increased risk of breast cancer in women ([The Endogenous Hormones and Breast Cancer Collaborative,](#page-12-0) [2002\)](#page-12-0) and not all studies have shown a beneficial effect on breast cancer risk associated with increased exposure to phytoestrogens in Western societies ([Grace et al., 2004; Ward et al., 2008\)](#page-11-0). There are also strong gene–nutrient interactions between phytoestrogens and oestrogen receptor polymorphisms (ESR1 and NR1I2) ([Low et al., 2005b, 2007\)](#page-11-0), polymorphisms in the gene for the sexhormone binding globulin (SHBG) ([Low et al., 2006\)](#page-11-0) and probably polymorphisms in the gene encoding aromatase (CYP19) [\(Low](#page-11-0) [et al., 2005a](#page-11-0)) which influence their bioactivity. Despite the large number of studies conducted, there is still no clear evidence whether phytoestrogen intake has a beneficial or detrimental effect on human health and the UK Committee on Toxicity (COT) has recommended further research ([Committee on Toxicity of](#page-11-0) [Chemicals in Food, 2003](#page-11-0)).

Exposure to phytoestrogens can be determined either directly by measuring diet or indirectly by using biomarkers in plasma or urine ([Grace et al., 2004](#page-11-0)). Although biomarkers are often more reliable due to the limitations in dietary assessment [\(Day, McKeown,](#page-11-0)

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^{0308-8146/\$ -} see front matter © 2009 Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved. doi:10.1016/j.foodchem.2009.03.002

Table 1

Phytoestrogen content of fruits and vegetables analysed. The data is the average of three samples analysed in duplicate and given in µg/100 g wet weight. Isoflavones are the sum of daidzein, genistein, glycitein, biochanin formononetin, lignans the sum of secoisolariciresinol and matairesinol. Unless stated otherwise, food analysed was unprepared.

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[Wong, Welch, & Bingham, 2001; Kipnis et al., 2003\)](#page-11-0), their use is often not feasible, particularly in larger studies, and intake has to be either calculated from dietary information provided by participants or determined by a combination of biomarkers and dietary information. Accurate information on the phytoestrogen content in foods is therefore crucial for the investigation of effects on health; and to determine population levels for surveillance purposes.

The main dietary sources of phytoestrogens are plant-based foods such as fruits and vegetables. In plants, where these compounds occur predominantly as glycosides, they act as antioxidants, screen against light and most importantly act as defensive agents against predators ([Mazur & Adlercreutz, 1998a](#page-12-0)). The principal phytoestrogen-classes are isoflavones (found mainly in legumes, e.g. chickpeas and soybean), lignans (e.g. in cereals, linseed and other fruits and vegetables) and coumestans (e.g. in young sprouting legumes like clover or alfalfa sprouts) ([Committee](#page-11-0) [on Toxicity of Chemicals in Food, 2003](#page-11-0)).

Several detailed studies have been conducted to determine the phytoestrogen content of food previously, amongst others in the UK [\(Liggins, Bluck, Coward, & Bingham, 1998a, 1998b; Liggins](#page-11-0) [et al., 2000; Liggins, Grimwood, & Bingham, 2000; Liggins, Mulli](#page-11-0)[gan, Runswick, & Bingham, 2002\)](#page-11-0), Finland [\(Dwyer et al., 1994; Ma](#page-11-0)[zur, 1998; Mazur et al., 1996, 1998b; Valsta et al., 2003\)](#page-11-0), and the US ([US Department of Agriculture, 2002\)](#page-12-0); however, these studies provide only data for approximately 12% of the UK diet [\(Mulligan,](#page-12-0) [Welch, McTaggart, Bhaniani, & Bingham, 2007\)](#page-12-0) and had methodological limitations [\(Adlercreutz et al., 1993; Wähälä, Hase, & Adl](#page-11-0)[ercreutz, 1995; Wähälä & Rasku, 1997](#page-11-0)). Previously, we have developed a sensitive LC/MS/MS method using ${}^{13}C_3$ -labelled standards to analyse phytoestrogens in plasma and urine [\(Grace](#page-11-0) [et al., 2003](#page-11-0)). We have adapted this method to be used for food samples and have measured the phytoestrogen content (isoflavones: biochanin A, daidzein, formononetin, genistein, glycitein; lignans: matairesinol, secoisolariciresinol; coumestrol) in more than 240 foods based on fruits and vegetables commonly consumed in the UK. This is one of the most comprehensive analysis of plant-based phytoestrogens in the UK and elsewhere.

2. Experimental

2.1. Chemicals

Biochanin A, daidzein, genistein, glycitein, formononetin, secoisolariciresinol, matairesinol and coumestrol were purchased from Plantech (Reading, Berkshire, UK). ¹³C₃-biochanin A ¹³C₃-daidzein, ¹³C₃-genistein, ¹³C₃-glycitein, ¹³C₃-formononetin, ¹³C₃-matairesinol, ${}^{13}C_3$ -secosiolariciresinol and ${}^{13}C_3$ -enterolactone were obtained from Dr. Nigel botting (University of St. Andrews, Fife, UK) [\(Fryatt](#page-11-0) [& Botting, 2005; Haajanen & Botting, 2006; Whalley, Bond, & Bot](#page-11-0)[ting, 1998; Whalley, Oldfield, & Botting, 2000\)](#page-11-0). β-Glucuronidase (from Helix pomatia), β -glucosidase (from almonds) and cellulase (from Trichoderma reesi) were purchased from Sigma (Poole, Dorset, UK). Water, methanol, acetic acid and ammonia were purchased from Sigma (Poole, Dorset, UK) and Fisher Scientific (Loughborough, Leicestershire, UK). To inhibit losses of target compounds by adsorption to glassware, only silanised glassware was used.

2.2. Sampling

Samples of each food were purchased from at least five different food outlets (where possible) in Cambridgeshire, UK. If possible, the foods bought at each outlet were from different manufacturers, varieties, country of origin and/or batch numbers. Each sample was weighed, prepared and a representative portion (approximately 35 g dry weight) was taken from each of the five samples. Cooked food was boiled in water until tender and the water discarded; more details on preparation are given in [Table 1.](#page-1-0) Tinned foods were drained unless indicated otherwise; outer leaves were removed from cabbages; lettuce was analysed as purchased. The samples were frozen $(-20 \degree C)$, freeze-dried if necessary (BOC Edwards, Crawley, Sussex, UK) and stored at -20 °C until analysis. For analysis, samples of each food were pooled (equal amounts), weighed and processed as described below.

2.3. Analysis

Samples were analysed as described previously [\(Kuhnle, Dell'A](#page-11-0)[quila, Low, Kussmaul & Bingham, 2007\)](#page-11-0). Briefly, approximately 100 mg freeze-dried food was extracted three times with 2.0 ml 10% methanol in sodium acetate (0.1%, pH 5) and deconjugated with a hydrolysis reagent consisting of purified Helix pomatia juice (β -glucuronidase), cellulase and β -glucosidase. Deconjugated samples were then extracted using Strata C-18E SPE cartridges (50 mg/ ml; Phenomenex, Macclesfield, Cheshire, UK), dried, reconstituted in 40% aqueous methanol and analysed using LC/MS/MS. Analysis was performed on an LC/MS/MS system consisting of a Jasco HPLC system (Jasco, Great Dunmow, UK) using a diphenyl column (Varian Pursuit, 3 μ m, 150 \times 2 mm, Varian, Oxford, Oxfordshire, UK) and a Waters Quattro Ultima triple quadrupole MS instrument (Waters, Manchester, UK) fitted with an electrospray ion source in negative ion mode and a LC/MS/MS system consisting of an Agilent 1100 CapHPLC System (Agilent, Wokingham, Berkshire, UK) and an ABI 4000 QTRAP mass spectrometer (Applied Biosystems, Warrington, Cheshire, UK) fitted with an electrospray ion source in negative ion mode. Compounds were quantified using ${}^{13}C_3$ -labelled internal standards; Compounds were quantified using $13C_3$ -labelled internal standards; coumestrol was quantified using ¹³C₃-enterolactone.

The method was validated on both LC/MS/MS systems. The intra-batch CV of this method is between 3% and 14% and the inter-batch between 1% and 6%. As quality control, a sample consisting of equal amounts of red cabbage, orange and celery was analysed with each batch. The limit of detection of this method is $1.5 \mu g/100 g$ dry weight.

2.4. Data analysis

Each sample was prepared in triplicate and analysed twice. Data are presented as the average of two analyses and is in μ g/100 g wet weight. Data was analysed using SPSS 16 (SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL) for Mac OS X. The data was not normally distributed and therefore non-parametric tests were used. Differences between plant-families were analysed using the Kruskal–Wallis test, the effect of preparation was investigated using Wilcoxon signed rank test. $p < 0.05$ was considered to be statistically significant.

3. Results

In all foods analysed, with the exception of microwaved mushrooms and unheated tinned sweet-corn, phytoestrogens were detected ([Table 1\)](#page-1-0). In most foods, the phytoestrogen content was below 100 μ g/100 g wet weight (median: 20 g/100 g; IQR (interquartile range): $7-66 \mu g/100 g$ with less isoflavones (median: 2μ g/100 g; IQR: 1–8 μ g/100 g) than lignans (median: 12 μ g/ 100 g; IQR 3-47 μ g/100 g) and a low amount of coumestrol (median: $\langle 1 \mu g/100 g \rangle$. However, 5% of foods analysed contained more than 400 μ g/100 g phytoestrogens (>134 μ g/100 g isoflavones in top 5% of foods; $>218 \mu g/100 g$ lignans in top 5% of foods), with the highest content in soya flour $(125,000 \mu g/100 \ g)$ and cooked soya beans $(18,000 \mu g/100 g)$.

Daidzein, genistein and glycitein were the main isoflavones in legumes, in particular in soya-based foods such as soya flour, soya mince granules or tofu. A notable exception was passion fruit which was the only non-legume with a daidzein content of more than 40 μ g/100 g. Biochanin A was only found in some foods and in most foods the content was below $1 \mu g/100 g$. High contents of biochanin A were found mainly in chick peas and chick-pea based foods such as vegetarian pâte and houmous. Similarly, formononetin was found only in a few foods with the highest content in chick peas and – to a lesser extent – soya. Most types of food analysed contained lignans, in particular secoisolariciresinol, which was only absent or in very low concentration in just a few foods, notably peas and potatoes. The highest amount of secoisolariciresinol was found in dried dates and apricots, but high amounts were also found in figs, prunes, soya flour and pomegranate. In contrast to secoisolariciresinol, matairesinol was either absent or present in very low concentrations in most foods. Cooked sweet potatoes contained the highest amount of matairesinol ($132 \mu g/100 g$ in cooked sweet potatoes). High amounts were also found in dried grapes (currants, raisins and sultanas), parsnips and chestnuts. Most foods contained only small amounts of coumestrol with only 5% containing more than $2 \mu g/100 g$. Coumestrol was mainly found in legumes and citrus fruits (Rutaceae) with the highest content in beansprouts $(361 \mu g/100 \, g)$, raw runner $(11 \mu g/100 \ g)$ and kidney $(10 \mu g/100 \ g)$ beans.

The phytoestrogen content and composition (proportion of isoflavones on total phytoestrogens) varied significantly ($p < 0.05$, Kruskal–Wallis test) between foods from different plant families (Table 2). Legumes (Fabaceae) contained the highest amount of isoflavones whereas Alliaceae, such as garlic, leek and onion, and Apiaceae, such as carrots, fennel and parsnips, had the highest content of lignans. In most foods, lignans were the main class of phytoestrogens found, with the exception of legumes which contained mainly isoflavones.

Sixty-one types of food were analysed cooked and raw (Table 3). There was a significant difference in phytoestrogen, isoflavone and lignan content between raw and cooked foods (Wilcoxon signed rank test, $p < 0.05$) but no difference in phytoestrogen composition, suggesting that cooking affects isoflavones and lignans in a similar way. For most foods, the phytoestrogen content was higher in raw samples when compared with cooked samples, however, the phytoestrogen content increased in some foods, notably in red potatoes and celeriac. Peeling decreased the phytoestrogen content in most foods analysed (Wilcoxon signed rank test, $p < 0.05$); it also affected the phytoestrogen composition although not in a uniform manner. The effect of stewing and drying could only be investigated in a small number of foods but generally resulted in an increase in phytoestrogen content. Tinned food had a lower overall phytoestrogen content, but the difference was not statistically significant (Wilcoxon signed rank test, $p < 0.06$). Analysis of variance was conducted, but due to the small numbers of samples analysed,

Table 3

Comparison of 61 raw and cooked foods. Phytoestrogen content is given in μ g/100 g wet weight (median and inter-quartile range).

* Indicates a significant difference between raw and cooked food (Wilcoxon signed rank test, $p < 0.05$).

it was not to investigate the effect of plant family on phytoestrogen content and composition in more detail.

4. Discussion

Phytoestrogens are formed as secondary metabolites by most plants and are therefore ubiquitous in plant products [\(Mazur &](#page-12-0) [Adlercreutz, 1998a](#page-12-0)). In this study, we have analysed more than 240 foods based on fruit and vegetables for their phytoestrogen content to provide a comprehensive database for the assessment of dietary intake and exposure. The results are expressed per 100 g wet weight to facilitate the use in epidemiological studies and diet composition databases. Phytoestrogens were found in virtually all foods analysed although the content in most foods was well below 100 μ g/100 g wet weight with the exception of legumes like soya and some other foods such as dried fruits, figs, pomegranate, chestnuts and sweet potatoes. Staple foods such as potatoes contained on average less than $10 \mu g/100 g$ phytoestrogens. Other fruits and vegetables commonly consumed in a large study of free-living adults in the UK ([Day et al., 1999\)](#page-11-0), such as bananas (3 μ g/100 g), raw tomatoes (6 μ g/100 g), apples (12 μ g/ 100 g) and cucumbers $(12 \mu g/100 g)$, also contained only small amounts of phytoestrogens.

In contrast to bioanalytical methods for the determination of compounds in a single matrix such as plasma or urine, the analysis of food stuff is made difficult by the large variety of different matrices and moreover the lack of true quality controls [\(Kuhnle, Dell'A](#page-11-0)[quila, Low, Kussmaul, & Bingham, 2007\)](#page-11-0). Although most methods use ''standard foods" as quality control to monitor method performance and precision, it is very difficult to monitor accuracy, in particular since the true content of each compound is not known. Fortifying samples with neat standards does not provide sufficient information on recovery and accuracy because most compounds are present as glycosides and are embedded in the cellular matrix. To assess relative quality and accuracy of data, they can be compared with data published elsewhere. However, data for comparison is only available for a limited number of foods and most studies focus on different types of phytoestrogens; for example [Horn-Ross et al. \(2001\)](#page-11-0) do not include formononetin whereas

Table 2

Phytoestrogen content (in μ g/100 g wet weight; median and inter-quartile range) and composition (% of total phytoestrogen content) in foods from different plant families. For this table, only unprocessed foods from families with at least five samples were compared. Percentage of the phytoestrogen content in Solanaceae is too small to provide reliable information of phytoestrogen composition.

Family	n	Phytoestrogens	Isoflavones	Lignans	Percentage of isoflavones (%)
Alliaceae		$62(31-83)$	$2(0-26)$	$53(11-81)$	$2(2-47%)$
Apiaceae	6	$69(7-143)$	$3(0-18)$	$66(7-125)$	$6(2-16%)$
Asteraceae		$7(5-13)$	$<1(0-1)$	$7(4-13)$	$2(1-8%)$
Brassicaceae	17	$14(5-51)$	$<1(0-2)$	$12(4-45)$	$7(2-7%)$
Cucurbitaceae	9	$16(9-35)$	\leq 1	$16(8-34)$	$2(0-4%)$
Fabaceae	23	$51(3-201)$	$28(2-51)$	$13(0-89)$	70 (33–92%)
Rosaceae	28	$8(3-37)$	$2(0-2)$	$6(0-35)$	$14(5 - 46%)$
Rutaceae		$24(4-36)$	$2(0-12)$	$12(2-21)$	14 (8-34%)
Solanaceae	13	$9(3-11)$	$2(0-5)$	$4(1-8)$	$\qquad \qquad -$

[Thompson, Boucher, Liu, Cotterchio, and Kreiger \(2006\)](#page-12-0) do not include biochanin A. Furthermore, the phytoestrogen content in foods depends on a large number of genetic and environmental factors such as variety, harvest and processing (Eldridge & Kwolek, 1983; Wang & Murphy, 1994), making a comparison difficult. For soya-based food, fourfold differences between growth location and varieties have been observed. Previously, we compared the effect of different sources or countries of origin in nine different foods and found an average variability of threefold with a coefficient of variation of more than 30%; however, for some foods the observed variability was much higher (Kuhnle, Dell'Aquila, Runswick & Bingham, 2009). A comparison of our data with Horn-Ross et al. (2000), Milder, Arts, Van De Putte, Venema, and Hollman (2005) and [Thompson et al. \(2006\)](#page-12-0) using Wilcoxon's signed rank test showed no overall significant difference between the phytoestrogen and isoflavone content and phytoestrogen composition (as proportion of isoflavones on total phytoestrogens) found in this study and the average content found elsewhere. However, lignan contents were significantly different ($p < 0.01$) with most values found in this study being higher, suggesting a better extraction of these compounds from the sample matrix.

Only limited information is available about the effect of cooking on the phytoestrogen content of foods. [Milder et al. \(2005\)](#page-12-0) and [Thompson et al. \(2006\)](#page-12-0) investigated the effect for some types of food and found a decrease in phytoestrogen content. The protocol for this study was not designed to assess the effect of cooking on phytoestrogen levels and, although compared with previous studies, this study includes a larger variety of foods, it was not possible to control for the effect of family on the probability shown in [Table](#page-10-0) [3](#page-10-0) that there are losses during cooking. An explanation for this loss during cooking is the leaching of phytoestrogens into the water which is later discarded. Although prolonged heating could also result in the decomposition of phytoestrogen, this effect was not seen in stewed fruits and it is therefore likely that these compounds are stable during preparation, at least under acidic conditions.

In summary, this study provides so far the most comprehensive database of isoflavones, lignans and coumestrol in more than 240 foods based on fruits and vegetables commonly consumed in the UK. The selection of food was based on consumption data of the EPIC-Norfolk cohort (Day et al., 1999) and will allow the more accurate determination of phytoestrogen intake and exposure in this and other studies and free-living individuals.

Acknowledgements

This work was funded by the UK Food Standards Agency (FSA), Contract No. T05028 and the Medical Research Council (MRC).

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