Anti-Inflammatory Diet in Clinical Practice: A Review

Mari Anoushka Ricker, MD¹; and William Christian Haas, MD, MBA¹

Abstract

Recently, there has been an increase in the research regarding the impact of acute and chronic inflammation on health and disease. Specific foods are now known to exert strong effects on inflammatory pathways within the body. Carefully selecting foods that are antiinflammatory in nature while avoiding foods that are proinflammatory is central to an anti-inflammatory diet plan. Ultimately, the plan models a pattern of eating that (1) focuses on eating whole, plant-based foods that are rich in healthy fats and phytonutrients and (2) maintains a stable glycemic response. (*Nutr Clin Pract.* 2017;32:318-325)

Keywords

anti-inflammatory diet; fatty acids; Mediterranean diet; glycemic index; nutrition therapy

Inflammation is one of the many responses of the immune system used to defend the body from injury. Classically, inflammation has been defined according to the effects of capillary dilatation and leukocyte infiltration, causing redness, heat, pain, and swelling.¹ From an evolutionary standpoint, the inflammatory response is inherently protective, eliminating destructive agents and healing damaged tissue in a temporary, self-limiting manner. However, when noxious stimuli persistently confront the body and/or the inflammatory response fails to resolve, chronic inflammation ensues.

Unlike acute inflammation, chronic inflammation is often indolent, causing silent damage systemically throughout the body. The clinically used markers of acute inflammation (erythrocyte sedimentation rate, C-reactive protein [CRP]) may not be elevated in the early stages of low-grade inflammation.

Over time, as organ damage increases, chronic diseases become apparent. Several disease states have now been associated with chronic inflammation: diabetes mellitus, coronary artery disease, and asthma.²⁻⁴ Although inflammation is not the sole factor driving these disorders, it is a process that is strongly influenced by nonpharmaceutical interventions, such as diet. The following review evaluates the effect of various foods on the inflammatory response, and it outlines key components of an anti-inflammatory diet plan.

Nutrient Effects on Inflammation

Carbohydrates

One of the primary dietary factors affecting inflammation is the consumption of refined, high glycemic–load carbohydrates. Glycemic load is defined as the quantity of carbohydrate ingested, multiplied by the rate at which that carbohydrate enters the bloodstream (ie, the glycemic index). Regular consumption of high glycemic–load carbohydrates results in chronic hyperglycemia, which, through varying mechanisms, increases the production of free radicals and proinflammatory cytokines.^{5,6} In attempt to reduce elevations of blood glucose, the pancreas secretes insulin. Aside from shuttling glucose out of the bloodstream, insulin exerts influence on the enzymes delta-6 and delta-5 desaturase, rate-limiting enzymes controlling the conversion of linoleic acid into arachidonic acid.^{7,8} Hence, the greater the insulin response to high glycemic–load carbohydrates, the more arachidonic acid produced. Of note, glucagon exerts an inhibitory effect on the desaturase enzymes, thereby reducing the production of arachidonic acid.⁸

Fats

Another important dietary contributor to inflammation is the level of ω -3 and ω -6 fatty acids (FAs) consumed. In general, ω -3 FAs are considered anti-inflammatory, while ω -6 FAs are proinflammatory. However, both FAs are essential nutrients within the body, and it is the ratio of these FAs that likely determines inflammation levels.⁹ Although the precise ratio promoting inflammation is unknown, a ratio of ω -6: ω -3 FAs >10:1 is believed to be proinflammatory, which is likely 10-fold higher than the ratio that humans evolved eating.^{10,11} Several studies, in fact, have demonstrated

From the ¹Center for Integrative Medicine, Department of Family and Community Medicine, University of Arizona, Tucson, Arizona, USA.

Financial disclosure: None declared.

Conflicts of interest: None declared.

This article originally appeared online on March 28, 2017.

Corresponding Author:

Mari Anoushka Ricker, MD, Center for Integrative Medicine, Department of Family and Community Medicine, University of Arizona, PO Box 245153, Tucson, AZ 85724-5153, USA. Email: rickerm@email.arizona.edu

Nutrition in Clinical Practice Volume 32 Number 3 June 2017 318–325 © 2017 American Society for Parenteral and Enteral Nutrition DOI: 10.1177/0884533617700353 journals.sagepub.com/home/ncp





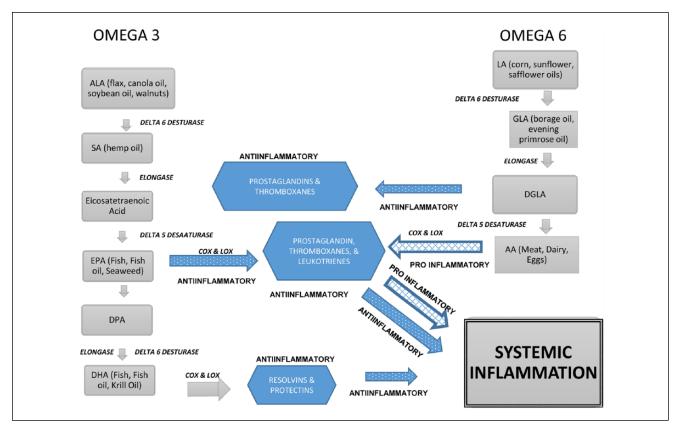


Figure 1. Fatty acid effects on systemic inflammation. AA, arachidonic acid; ALA, alpha-linolenic acid; COX, cyclooxygenase; DGLA, dihomo-gamma-linoleic acid; DHA, docosahexaenoic acid; DPA, docosapentaenoic acid; EPA, eicosapentaenoic acid; GLA, gamma-linoleic acid; LOX, lipoxygenase; SA, stearidonic acid.

a positive impact on various disease states (cardiovascular disease, rheumatoid arthritis, asthma) when the ω -6: ω -3 FAs ratio drops <5:1.¹²

A closer look at the metabolism of ω -6 and ω -3 FAs clarifies their effect on the inflammatory process (Figure 1). Linoleic acid, an ω -6 FA, serves as the precursor for a number of proinflammatory eicosanoids produced from arachidonic acid. As a result, the more ω -6 FAs consumed in the diet, the greater the propensity for increased levels of inflammation. ω-3 FAs, however, exert a number of anti-inflammatory effects. Opposite to the effect of insulin, ω -3 FAs inhibit the delta-6 desaturase enzyme, reducing the production of arachidonic acid in the first place.⁸ Once arachidonic acid is produced, though, ω -3 FAs can indirectly limit the generation of proinflammatory eicosanoids by competing with arachidonic acid for space in the phospholipid bilayer of cell membranes.¹³ Finally, ω -3 FAs can defuse existing inflammation by contributing to the production of a class of anti-inflammatory eicosanoids known as resolvins, which are believed to regulate activation and trafficking of polymorphonuclear leukocytes.^{14,15}

In addition to the level of polyunsaturated fats consumed, trans FAs (TFAs) in the diet have a strong impact on inflammation.

Present in small amounts of meat and dairy products from ruminant animals, TFAs are primarily consumed in foods prepared with partially hydrogenated vegetable oils (eg, bakery goods). The process of hydrogenation converts naturally occurring *cis* double bonds of unsaturated fats to trans double bonds, thereby producing a long-lasting solid fat with a high melting temperature. TFA consumption has well-established adverse effects on serum lipids, primarily due to the modulation of liver function and the metabolism of liporprotein.^{16,17} However, evidence also suggests TFAs to be inherently proinflammatory. In clinical trials and observational studies, TFA consumption has been associated with increased markers of systemic inflammation, including tumor necrosis factor (TNF), CRP, and interleukin 6.^{16,18,19} Moreover, TFAs may impair the metabolism of essential FAs involved in inflammatory pathways.²⁰

Polyphenols

The shift away from freshly prepared foods to processed foods has reduced the consumption of plant-based phytochemicals, such as polyphenols. Although polyphenols are not considered an essential nutrient, mounting evidence suggests that they are an important contributor to optimal health, partly through a reduction of inflammation.²¹⁻²³ The anti-inflammatory effect of polyphenols was initially attributed to their ability to neutralize free radicals, resulting from their structure of conjugated double bonds with a free hydroxyl group. Polyphenolic compounds may also increase endogenous antioxidant defense through the regulation of Nrf2, an important cellular redox transcription factor involved in phase 2 detoxification.²⁴ Beyond their anti-oxidant effects, polyphenols dampen the inflammatory response. Polyphenols activate gene transcription factors that

inhibit the activation of NF-kB, an important transcription factor responsible for activating inflammation pathways.²⁵

Caloric Intake

Beyond the impact of specific nutrient groups, chronic inflammation is affected by caloric intake. Excess caloric intake, particularly in sedentary individuals, results in increased adiposity. Adipose tissue is a metabolic active tissue that directly contributes to chronic inflammation through the release of proinflammatory cytokines, including TNF- α and interleukin 6.²⁶ As adipocytes enlarge, further inflammation ensues as a result of infiltration and activation of macrophages that release additional inflammatory cytokines.²⁷ A number of other proinflammatory alterations occur as a result of excess adipose tissue, including increased insulin resistance and sympathetic nervous system activation.^{28,29}

In contrast to excess caloric consumption, calorie restriction with adequate nutrition intake has been shown to exhibit important anti-inflammatory effects. Reducing the number of adipocytes in the body through calorie restriction lowers the level of proinflammatory adipokines and cytokines.³⁰ The same reduction of fat cells also improves insulin sensitivity and reduces plasma glucose levels, thereby lowering the production of advanced glycation end products. The reduction of advanced glycation end products dampens the activation of pathways that would otherwise promote expression of adhesion molecules and chemokines, induce oxidative stress, and release inflammatory cytokines and growth factors.³¹ Separate from its effects on adipose tissue, calorie restriction enhances endogenous corticosteroid production, promoting anti-inflammatory effects in the body.³² Finally, calorie restriction may increase parasympathetic tone, contributing to the suppression of cytokine-mediated inflammation.33

Anti-Inflammatory Diet

Despite a growing awareness for the health benefits of an antiinflammatory diet, a single universal definition does not exist. One of the first versions of an anti-inflammatory diet was published in 1995 in *The Zone Diet*, by Barry Sears, PhD.³⁴ The concept of designated macronutrient ratios and their impact on cortisol and insulin levels were key to his definition. In recent research, the Mediterranean and Okinawan diets have been identified as dietary patterns with anti-inflammatory properties.³⁵⁻³⁷ As a result, the most commonly used definition of an anti-inflammatory diet currently incorporates aspects of both the Mediterranean diet and the Okinawan diet, in addition to recommendations for balancing macronutrient ratios. Beyond outlining a general dietary pattern, an anti-inflammatory diet incorporates the use of herbs, spices, and supplements that complement the overall dietary approach.³⁸⁻⁴⁰

The standard American diet provides a stark contrast to the beneficial components of an anti-inflammatory diet. Most Americans eat more red meat, less fish, more sugar and simple carbohydrates, and fewer fruits and vegetables than are included in the Mediterranean and Okinawa diets.⁴¹ The Mediterranean diet, eaten by those living near the Mediterranean Sea, is high in vegetables, fruits, fish, and olive oil and includes moderate red wine intake.^{36,37} The Okinawa diet, named after the southernmost Japanese prefecture, is also high in vegetable and fruit intake and lacking in dairy and red meat. In contrast to the Mediterranean diet, however, the Okinawa diet is much lower in overall fat intake³⁵ (see Table 1).

Vegetables and Fruits

An anti-inflammatory diet relies on vegetables and fruits to make up a large portion of the diet. Vegetables and fruits are lower in caloric density and abundant in beneficial nutrients, including vitamins, minerals, and phytonutrients. Generally, they should be eaten in large volumes, with every meal, and in a variety of colors and types. Vegetables and fruits contain large concentrations of polyphenols, giving them their characteristic colors yet, more important, providing their anti-inflammatory properties. Moreover, fruits and vegetables, especially the non-starchy varieties, are high in fiber, reducing their glycemic index relative to other carbohydrates.³⁹ An ideal anti-inflammatory diet should ultimately contain up to two-thirds of the total food volume in vegetables and fruits.³⁹ As discussed, many studies have shown that diets high in fruits and vegetables correlate with lower levels of inflammatory markers in the blood.^{42,43}

In practice, an anti-inflammatory diet emphasizes eating more vegetables than fruits, due to the lower glycemic index of the former. Whenever possible, vegetables should be organic in variety, as they are lower in pesticides and possess higher levels of antioxidants than the conventional variety.⁴⁴ Additionally, efforts should be made to eat vegetables and fruits in season, when they are fresh, yielding more available nutrients and, thus, antioxidant properties, often at a cheaper cost. Many fruits and vegetables, however, retain and even enhance their nutrients when frozen, providing a good alternative when eaten out of season, as they are picked at peak ripeness. Most fruits and vegetables are then blanched and frozen immediately.⁴⁵ Vegetables can be easily prepared with small amounts of olive oil and antiinflammatory spices (discussed later).

Protein Sources

Protein in an anti-inflammatory diet should be primarily plant based, with some sources of fish and small amounts of lean

Diet Standard American Diet		Mediterranean Diet	Okinawan Diet	Anti-Inflammatory Diet		
Vegetables and fruits	Fewer vegetables	High consumption of vegetables and fruits	High consumption of vegetables: orange- yellow root vegetables, leafy green vegetables	High consumption of vegetables: large diversity, including variety of colors to increase phytonutrients		
Protein source	Red meat	Fish	High consumption of legumes (soy)	Plant sources of protein: legumes soy, nuts, and seeds		
	Dairy	÷ .		More fatty fish and some lean animal protein		
		Nuts	Less meat			
Carbohydrates	Refined carbohydrates; high-fructose corn syrup and added sugar Fewer whole grains	Whole grains	Small amounts of rice and noodles Less sugar and fewer refined grains	Whole grains in small amounts, high fiber, reduced refined carbohydrates		
Dairy	High-fat dairy sources	Low-fat dairy, such as yogurt	Less dairy			
Fats	Solid added fats, such as butter and sour cream	Olive oil as source of added fat	Lower fat overall	Olive oil for added fat source		
Other features	Soda and added-sugar beverages	Moderate red wine intake	Moderate alcohol intake, green tea intake; broth- based soups	Spices: turmeric, garlic, ginger, and other anti-inflammatory herbs and spices		
Cultural	Eating on the run, overeating	Highly social and connected eating experiences	Low caloric diet; highly ritualistic culture	Mindful eating approach; quality over quantity		

Table 1. Comparison of Diet Components.

natural meats.⁴⁶ The type of fat contained within the protein source is a central determinate in whether it is anti-inflammatory versus proinflammatory. Animal protein contains higher levels of ω -6 FAs, and an anti-inflammatory diet should include protein sources containing higher levels of ω -3 FAs.⁴⁷ When consuming animal protein, one should eat fresh-water fatty fish containing high levels of ω -3 FAs, including salmon, mackerel, halibut, sardines, and herring. Careful attention should be given to sourcing wild-caught fish while avoiding farm-raised fish, as wild-caught fish have higher levels of ω -3 FAs.^{48,49} As with fish selection, beef produced from naturally grazing cattle have lower ω -6: ω -3 ratios as compared with conventional beef.⁵⁰ In addition to grass-feeding practices. organically produced dairy and meats have been shown to contain higher levels of anti-inflammatory ω-3 FAs versus their nonorganic counterparts.⁵¹ Another important aspect of meat consumption includes the cooking method. Meats cooked at high temperature or charred produce heterocyclic amines and polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons and create advanced glycation end products, 52,53 which are proinflammatory. Furthermore, the heterocyclic amines and polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons have been shown to be mutagenic and to cause cancer in animal models.⁵⁴ Although a direct link to cancer has not been established in humans, epidemiologic studies have found

strong associations with cancer among individuals consuming large amounts of meat cooked well-done or grilled.⁵⁵⁻⁵⁷

Although an anti-inflammatory diet permits the intake of some animal protein, plant-based proteins should predominate. Soy legumes, such as edamame, tempeh, or tofu, are an excellent source of plant-based protein. The phytonutrients, protein, and healthy fats in soy all contribute to its anti-inflammatory properties. In fact, soy has been shown to decrease the inflammatory markers interleukin 6, TNF-α, and CRP.^{58,59} At the same time, intake of non-soy-based legumes has been shown to have an inverse relation to high-sensitivity CRP.⁶⁰ Phytoestrogens in soy, daidzein and genistein, contribute to soy's reduction in systemic inflammation.⁶¹ Finally, mushrooms are a good source protein, containing polyphenols and other anti-inflammatory phytonutrients.^{62,63} It is recommended that mushrooms are cooked, to reduce natural carcinogens, as well as to release more nutrients, as they have a very tough cellular structure that is softened with cooking.⁶⁴

Carbohydrates

Although vegetables and fruits constitute the major source of carbohydrates in an anti-inflammatory diet, other carbohydrate types are incorporated. As in the Mediterranean and Okinawan

	Serving Size	Calories	ω-6 Linoleic Acid, g	ω-3, g		
Food				ALA	EPA	DHA
Salmon, sockeye, cooked, dry heat	3 oz	133	0.16	0.05	0.25	0.48
Tuna in water, canned	3 oz	109	0.05	0.06	0.20	0.54
Egg, poached	1 large	72	0.78	0.02	0	0.03
Walnut, dry roasted	1 oz	180	9.93	2.38	0	0
Flax seed, ground	1 tbsp	37	0.41	1.6	0	0
Chia seed, dried	1 oz	138	1.7	5.1	0	0
Sesame oil	1 tbsp	120	5.6	0.04	0	0
Olive oil	1 tbsp	119	1.3	0.1	0	0
Canola oil	1 tbsp	124	2.6	1.3	0	0

Table 2. Comparison of Sources of ω -6 and ω -3 Fatty Acids.^a

ALA, alpha-linolenic acid; DHA, docosahexaenoic acid; EPA, eicosapentaenoic acid.

^aData based on https://www.ars.usda.gov/northeast-area/beltsville-md/beltsville-human-nutrition-research-center/nutrient-data-laboratory/.

diets, whole grain carbohydrates with a low glycemic index are the mainstay for an anti-inflammatory diet. Consumers should choose their whole grains carefully, selecting grains with all their original parts present (bran, germ, and endosperm) and not the "refined" counterpart that strips out much of the nutrients. Moreover, grains that have been processed via the cracking or crushing should be limited due to their high glycemic index. Examples of whole grains include buckwheat, barley, rye, and wild rice. Most of these whole grains are also high in fiber, which has been shown independently to reduce inflammatory markers.⁶⁵⁻⁶⁷

Healthy Fats

One of the significant differences between an anti-inflammatory diet and other diets is the emphasis on so-called antiinflammatory fats. These fats may be present within foods classically categorized as fruits, vegetables, or protein, but they may also be added to the diet through supplementation of ω -3 FAs. Cold-water fish is one of the protein sources with the highest levels of ω -3 FAs, particularly salmon, sardines, and anchovies. The ω -3 FAs in these fish are especially beneficial, as they come preformed in eicosapentaenoic acid and docosahexaenoic acid, negating the need for conversion within the body. As fish oil has been shown to be a potent inhibitor of inflammation at doses higher than what can typically be acquired in food, it can be added as a supplement to an antiinflammatory diet. A common recommendation is 1000 mg of fish oil, 3 times per day.⁶⁸

Some eggs are also fortified with docosahexaenoic acid, but controversy remains regarding the impact of eggs on chronic disease.^{69,70} With regard to plant sources of fats, flax seeds are rich in alpha-linolenic acid, which is less antiinflammatory than eicosapentaenoic acid and docosahexaenoic acid but is a good source of ω -3 FAs. Other plant sources of alpha-linolenic acid include chia seeds, walnuts, and hemp seeds (see Table 2). In addition to maximizing ω -3 fat intake, trans FAs, which are proinflammatory, should be avoided.^{9,71} When oils or fats are used to prepare foods, olive oil (mostly a monounsaturated fat) is the best choice when used at low temperatures.⁷² Other oils that should be avoided—as they are proinflammatory—include soybean, cottonseed, peanut, and corn oil.⁷³

Additional Components

Tea and Alcohol

In addition to the macronutrients that are included in an antiinflammatory diet, other beverages can enhance anti-inflammatory processes. Drinking tea instead of coffee or sugary beverages can add an anti-inflammatory benefit. Tea is made by infusing the dried leaves of the plant *Camellia sinensis* in near boiling water, which releases antioxidants and polyphenols that contribute to reducing systemic inflammation. Green, black, and white teas contain these beneficial phytonutrients, with green and white having the highest levels.^{74,75} As with other foods, sourcing tea that is organically produced will reduce any unintended proinflammatory impact from toxins or pesticides.

Moderate intake of alcohol, up to 1 drink per day for women and 2 drinks per day for men, is a component of both the Mediterranean and Okinawan diets.⁷⁶ Large studies have shown the cardiovascular benefit of moderate intake of alcohol as well as a reduction in inflammatory markers.^{77,78} Heavy drinking, in comparison, showed higher levels of markers such as CRP.⁷⁹ Additionally, individual components of alcohol, such as resveratrol in red wine, have anti-inflammatory benefits.⁸⁰ However, the importance of moderation should be highlighted given the detrimental impact of heavy drinking on health and well-being, including increased cardiovascular disease and rates of certain cancers.^{81,82} Ultimately, the recommendation for moderate intake should be made on an individual basis.

Spices and Herbs

Many herbs and spices have an impact on inflammation similar to the other components of an anti-inflammatory diet and can enhance the overall anti-inflammatory effect when added. However, given that the doses of spices and herbs studied are quite high, including them as often as possible in an anti-inflammatory diet will increase the likelihood of impact on inflammation. Ginger and turmeric are the 2 herbs with the largest amount of data supporting their impact on inflammatory cytokines; they also inhibit leukotriene and prostaglandin synthesis.⁸³⁻⁸⁷ Additionally, garlic, cayenne, and oregano have anti-inflammatory properties and should be added to food while preparing meals.⁸⁸

Eating Patterns and Habits

Beyond the dietary pattern of food selection, the manner in which food is consumed influences inflammation and nutrient value. Reinforced by complex social behaviors of Western society, Americans eat too much, too quickly, and on the run. Eating slowly, mindfully, and in smaller amounts can decrease the impact of inflammation on the body. Portion control and smaller meals decrease hyperglycemia and, in the long run, obesity—both of which reduce systemic inflammation.⁸⁹ Cortisol is a marker of stress in the body, and eating slowly, with a mindful approach, has been shown to decrease morning cortisol levels.⁹⁰ Changing the manner in which food is consumed may be equally as important as the food itself.

Conclusion

Influenced by the Mediterranean and Okinawan dietary patterns, an anti-inflammatory diet has emerged from a growing knowledge about the proinflammatory and anti-inflammatory effects of food. Although the components of an anti-inflammatory diet have been evaluated individually, adherence to the overall dietary plan may yield the greatest benefit, as shown in studies of the Mediterranean diet.⁹¹ As such, an anti-inflammatory diet should not be prescribed according to its isolated components. Moreover, a truly integrative anti-inflammatory approach to nutrition will focus on eating mindfully and in caloric balance to help decrease obesity. The definition of an anti-inflammatory diet will likely continue to evolve with further advancements in nutrition research.

Statement of Authorship

Both authors contributed to the conception/design of the review; contributed to the acquisition, analysis, or interpretation of the data; drafted the manuscript; critically revised the manuscript; agree to be fully accountable for ensuring the integrity and accuracy of the work; and read and approved the final manuscript.

References

- Medzhitov R. Origin and physiological roles of inflammation. *Nature*. 2008;454:428-435.
- Hotamisligil GS. Inflammation and metabolic disorders. *Nature*. 2006;444:860-867.
- 3. Libby P. Inflammation in atherosclerosis. Nature. 2002;420:868-874.
- Murdoch J, Lloyd C. Chronic inflammation and asthma. *Mutat Res.* 2010;690(1-2):24-39.
- Giugliano D, Ceriello A, Esposito K. The effects of diet on inflammation: emphasis on the metabolic syndrome. *J Am Coll Cardiol*. 2006;48(4):677-685.
- Esposito K, Nappo F, Marfella R, et al. Inflammatory cytokine concentrations are acutely increased by hyperglycemia in humans: role of oxidative stress. *Circulation*. 2002;106(16):2067-2072.
- Brenner RR. Nutrition and hormonal factors influencing desaturation of essential fatty acids. *Prog Lipid Res.* 1982;20:41-48.
- Brenner RR. Hormonal modulation of delta6 and delta5 desaturases: case of diabetes. *Prostaglandins Leukot Essent Fatty Acids*. 2003;68(2):151-162.
- Simopoulos AP. An increase in the omega-6/omega-3 fatty acid ratio increases the risk of obesity. *Nutrients*. 2016;8(3):128.
- Simopoulos AP. Evolutionary aspects of the dietary omega-6:omega-3 fatty acid ratio: medical implications. World Rev Nutr Diet. 2009;100:1-21.
- Simopoulos AP. The importance of the ratio of omega-6/omega-3 essential fatty acids. *Biomed Pharmacother*. 2002;56(8):365-379.
- Simopoulos AP. Omega-6/omega-3 essential fatty acid ratio and chronic diseases. *Food Reviews International*. 2004;20(1):77-90.
- Ibarguren M, Lopez D, Escriba P. The effect of natural and synthetic fatty acids on membrane structure, microdomain organization, cellular functions and human health. *Biochemica et Biophysica Acta*. 2014;1838(6):1518-1528.
- Serhan CN. Resolution phase of inflammation: novel endogenous antiinflammatory and proresolving lipid mediators and pathways. *Annu Rev Immunol*. 2007;25:101-137.
- Levy B. Resolvins and protectins: natural pharmacophores for resolution biology. *Prostaglandins Leukot Essent Fatty Acids*. 2010;82(4-6):327-332.
- Mozaffarian D, Clarke R. Quantitative effects on cardiovascular risk factors and coronary heart disease risk of replacing partially hydrogenated vegetable oils with other fats and oils. *Eur J Clin Nutr.* 2009;63(suppl 2):S22-S33.
- Zapolska DD, Bryk D, Olejarz W. Trans fatty acids and atherosclerosis-effects on inflammation and endothelial function. *J Nutr Food Sci.* 2015;5(6):426-432.
- Lopez-Garcia E, Schulze MB, Meigs JB, et al. Consumption of trans fatty acids is related to plasma biomarkers of inflammation and endothelial dysfunction. J Nutr. 2005;135:562-566.
- Baer DJ, Judd JT, Clevidence BA, et al. Dietary fatty acids affect plasma markers of inflammation in healthy men fed controlled diets: a randomized crossover study. *Am J Clin Nutr.* 2004;79(6):969-973.
- Koletzko B, Rodiriquez-Palmero M. Polyunsaturated fatty acids in human milk and their role in early infant development. J Mammary Gland Biol Neoplasia. 1999;4(3):269-284.
- Gonzalez R, Ballester I, Lopez-Posadas R, et al. Effects of flavonoids and other polyphenols on inflammation. *Crit Rev Food Sci Nutr.* 2011;51(4):331-362.
- Santangelo C, Vari R, Scazzocchio B, et al. Polyphenols, intracellular signaling and inflammation. *Ann Ist Super Sanita*. 2007;43(4):394-405.
- Biesalski HK. Polyphenols and inflammation: basic interactions. Curr Opin Clin Nutr Metab Care. 2007;10(6):724-728.
- Reuland DJ, Khademi S, Castle CJ, et al. Upregulation of phase II enzymes through phytochemical activation of Nrf2 protects cardiomyocytes against stress. *Free Radic Biol Med.* 2013;56:102-111.

- Rahman I, Biswas S, Kirkham P. Regulation of inflammation and redox signaling by dietary polyphenols. *Biochem Pharmacol*. 2006;72(11):1439-1452.
- Rajala MW, Scherer PE. Minireview: the adipocyte—at the crossroads of energy homeostasis, inflammation, and atherosclerosis. *Endocrinology*. 2003;144:3765-3773.
- Cancello R, Henegar C, Viguerie N, et al. Reduction of macrophage infiltration and chemoattractant gene expression changes in white adipose tissue of morbidly obese subjects after surgery induced weight loss. *Diabetes*. 2005;54:2277-2286.
- Xu HY, Barnes GT, Yang Q, et al. Chronic inflammation in fat plays a crucial role in the development of obesity-related insulin resistance. *J Clin Invest.* 2003;112:1821-1830.
- Engeli S, Negrel R, Sharma AM. Physiology and pathophysiology of the adipose tissue renin-angiotensin system. *Hypertension*. 2000;35:1270-1277.
- Xydakis AM, Case CC, Jones PH, et al. Adiponectin, inflammation, and the expression of the metabolic syndrome in obese individuals: the impact of rapid weight loss through caloric restriction. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab.* 2004;89:2697-2703.
- Hofmann MA, Drury S, Fu CF, et al. RAGE mediates a novel pro-inflammatory axis: a central cell surface receptor for S100/calgranulin polypeptides. *Cell*. 1999;97:889-901.
- Sabatino F, Masoro EJ, Mcmahan CA, Kuhn RW. Assessment of the role of the glucocorticoid system in aging processes and in the action of food restriction. J Gerontol. 1991;46:B171-B179.
- Mager DE, Wan RQ, Brown M, et al. Caloric restriction and intermittent fasting alter spectral measures of heart rate and blood pressure variability in rats. *FASEB J.* 2006;20:631-637.
- 34. Sears B. The Zone Diet. New York, NY: HarperCollins; 1995.
- Willcox DC, Willcox BJ, Todoriki H, Suzuki M. The Okinawan diet: health implications of a low-calorie, nutrient-dense, antioxidant-rich dietary pattern low in glycemic load. *J Am Coll Nutr.* 2009;28:5008-516S.
- de Lorgeril M, Salen P, Martin JL, Monjaud I, Delaye J, Mamelle N. Mediterranean diet, traditional risk factors, and the rate of cardiovascular complications after myocardial infarction. *Circulation*. 1999;99(6):779-785.
- Esposito K, Marfella R, Ciotola M, et al. Effect of a Mediterranean-style diet on endothelial dysfunction and markers of vascular inflammation in the metabolic syndrome: a randomized trial. *JAMA*. 2004;292(12):1440-1446.
- Kohastu W. Anti-inflammatory diet. In: Rakel D, ed. *Integrative Medicine*. 3rd ed. Philadelphia, PA: Saunders Elsevier: 2012:795-801.
- Sears B. Anti-inflammatory diets. J Am Coll of Nutr. 2015;34(suppl 1):14-21.
- 40. Galland L. Diet and inflammation. Nutr Clin Pract. 2010;25(6):634-640.
- 41. Grotto D, Zied E. The standard American diet and its relationship to the health status of Americans. *Nutr Clin Pract*. 2010;25(6):603-612.
- Nanri A, Moore MA, Kono S. Impact of C-reactive protein on disease risk and its relation to dietary factors. *Asian Pac J Cancer Prev.* 2007;8:167-177.
- Esmaillzadeh A, Kimiagar M, Mehrabi Y, et al. Fruit and vegetable intakes, C-reactive protein, and the metabolic syndrome. *Am J Clin Nutr*. 2006;84:1489-1497
- 44. Barański M, Srednicka-Tober D, Volakakis N, et al. Higher antioxidant and lower cadmium concentrations and lower incidence of pesticide residues in organically grown crops: a systematic literature review and metaanalyses. *Br J Nutr.* 2014;112(5):794-811.
- Robinson J. Eating on the Wild Side: The Missing Link to Optimum Health. New York, NY: Little Brown, Hachette; 2013.
- 46. Hu FB. Plant-based foods and prevention of cardiovascular disease: an overview. *Am J Clin Nutr*. 2003;78:544S-551S.
- Simopoulos AP. Essential fatty acids in health and chronic disease. *Am J Clin Nutr.* 1999;70:5608-569S.

- van Vliet T, Katan MB. Lower ratio of n-3 to n-6 fatty acids in cultured than wild fish. *Am J Clin Nutr.* 1990;51:1-2.
- Nettleton JA, Exler J. Nutrients in wild and farmed fish and shellfish. J Food Sci. 1992;57:257-260.
- Daley CA, Abbott A, Doyle PS, Nader GA, and Larson S. A review of fatty acid profiles and antioxidant content in grass-fed and grain-fed beef. *Nutr J.* 2010:9(1):1.
- 51. Średnicka-Tober D, Barański M, Seal CJ, et al. Higher PUFA and n-3 PUFA, conjugated linoleic acid, α-tocopherol and iron, but lower iodine and selenium concentrations in organic milk: a systematic literature review and meta-and redundancy analyses. *Br J Nutr.* 2016:115(6):1043-1060.
- Cross AJ, Sinha R. Meat-related mutagens/carcinogens in the etiology of colorectal cancer. *Environ Mol Mutagen*. 2004;44(1):44-55.
- Uribarri J, Woodruff S, Goodman S, et al. Advanced glycation end products in foods and a practical guide to their reduction in the diet. *J Am Diet Assoc.* 2010;110(6):911-16.e12.
- Sugimura T, Wakabayashi K, Nakagama H, Nagao M. Heterocyclic amines: mutagens/carcinogens produced during cooking of meat and fish. *Cancer Sci.* 2004;95(4):290-299.
- Anderson KE, Sinha R, Kulldorff M, et al. Meat intake and cooking techniques: associations with pancreatic cancer. *Mutat Res.* 2002;506-507:225-231.
- Sinha R, Park Y, Graubard BI, et al. Meat and meat-related compounds and risk of prostate cancer in a large prospective cohort study in the United States. *Am J Epidemiol*. 2009;170(9):1165-1177.
- Cross AJ, Ferrucci LM, Risch A, et al. A large prospective study of meat consumption and colorectal cancer risk: an investigation of potential mechanisms underlying this association. *Cancer Res.* 2010;70(6):2406-2414.
- Wu SH, Shu XO, Chow WH, et al. Soy food intake and circulating levels of inflammatory markers in Chinese women. J Acad Nutr Diet. 2012;112(7):996-1004, 1004.e1-4.
- Nicastro HL, Mondul AM, Rohrmann S, Platz EA. Associations between urinary soy isoflavonoids and two inflammatory markers in adults in the United States in 2005-2008. *Cancer Causes Control.* 2013;24(6):1185-1196.
- Salehi-Abargouei A, Saraf-Bank S, Bellissimo N, Azadbakht L. Effects of non-soy legume consumption on C-reactive protein: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Nutrition*. 2015;31(5):631-639.
- 61. Hämäläinen M, Nieminen R, Vuorela P, Heinonen M, Moilanen E. Antiinflammatory effects of flavonoids: genistein, kaempferol, quercetin, and daidzein inhibit STAT-1 and NF-κB activations, whereas flavone, isorhamnetin, naringenin, and pelargonidin inhibit only NF-κB activation along with their inhibitory effect on iNOS expression and NO production in activated macrophages. *Mediators Inflamm*. 2007;2007:45673.
- Kozarski M, Klaus A, Jakovljevic D, et al. Antioxidants of edible mushrooms. *Molecules*. 2015;20(10):19489-19525.
- Guillamon E, García-Lafuente A, Lozano M, et al. Edible mushrooms: role in the prevention of cardiovascular diseases. *Fitoterapia*. 2010;81(7):715-723.
- Schulzová V, Hajslová J, Peroutka R, Gry J, Andersson HC. Influence of storage and household processing on the agaritine content of the cultivated *Agaricus* mushroom. *Food Addit Contam.* 2002;19(9):853-862.
- Ajani UA, Ford ES, Mokdad AH. Dietary fiber and C-reactive protein: findings from national health and nutrition examination survey data. J Nutr. 2003;134.5:1181-1185.
- King DE, Egan BM, Geesey ME. Relation of dietary fat and fiber to elevation of C-reactive protein. Am J Card. 2003;92(11):1335-1339.
- Jenkins DJA, Kendall CW, Marchie A, et al. Type 2 diabetes and the vegetarian diet. *Am J Clin Nutr.* 2003;78(3):610S-616S.
- Kromhout D, de Goede J. Update on cardiometaboic health effects of omega-3 fatty acids. *Curr Opin Lipidol*. 2014;25(1):85-90.
- Miranda J, Anton X, Redonodo-Valbuena C, et al. Egg and egg-derived foods: effects on human health and use as functional foods. *Nutrients*. 2015;7(1):706-729.

- Rong Y, Chen L, Zhu T, et al. Egg consumption and risk of coronary heart disease and stroke: dose-response meta-analysis of prospective cohort studies. *BMJ*. 2013;346:e8539.
- Mozaffarian D, Pischon T, Hankinson SE, et al. Dietary intake of trans fatty acids and systemic inflammation in women. *Am J Clin Nutr.* 2004;79.4:606-612.
- Bulotta S, Celano M, Lepore SM, Montalcini T, Pujia A, Russo D. Beneficial effects of the olive oil phenolic components oleuropein and hydroxytyrosol: focus on protection against cardiovascular and metabolic diseases. *J Transl Med.* 2014;12:219.
- Mozaffarian D, Clarke R. Quantitative effects on cardiovascular risk factors and coronary heart disease risk of replacing partially hydrogenated vegetable oils with other fats and oils. *Eur J Clin Nutr.* 2009;63: S22-S33.
- Rebello SA, Chen CH, Naidoo N, et al. Coffee and tea consumption in relation to inflammation and basal glucose metabolism in a multi-ethnic Asian population: a cross-sectional study. *Nutr J.* 2011;10:61.
- Almajano MP, Carbó R, López Jiménez JA, Gordon MD. Antioxidant and antimicrobial activities of tea infusions. *Food Chem.* 2008;108(1):55-63.
- US Health and Human Services, US Department of Agriculture. Appendix 9: alcohol. In: *Dietary Guidelines for Americans: 2015-2020.* 8th ed. https://health.gov/dietaryguidelines/2015/guidelines/appendix-9/. Published December 2015.
- Vasanthi HR, Parameswari RP, DeLeiris J, Das DK. Health benefits of wine and alcohol from neuroprotection to heart health. *Front Biosci (Elite Ed)*. 2012;4:1505-1512.
- Janssen I, Landay AL, Ruppert K, Powell LH. Moderate wine consumption is associated with lower hemostatic and inflammatory risk factors over 8 years: the Study of Women's Health Across the Nation (SWAN). *Nutr Aging (Amst).* 2014:2(2-3):91-99.
- Karvaj M. Overall alcohol intake, beer, wine and systemic markers of inflamation in Western Europe: results from three MONICA samples (Augsburg, Glasgow, Lille). *Neuro Endocrinol Lett.* 2007; 28(suppl 4):10.

- Heebøll S, Thomsen KL, Pedersen SB, Vilstrup H, George J, Grønbæk H. Effects of resveratrol in experimental and clinical non-alcoholic fatty liver disease. *World J Hepatol.* 2014;6(4):188-198.
- Matsumoto C, Miedema MD, Ofman P, Gaziano JM, Sesso HD. An expanding knowledge of the mechanisms and effects of alcohol consumption on cardiovascular disease. *J Cardiopulm Rehabil Prev.* 2014;34(3):159-171.
- Giacosa A, Barale R, Bavaresco L, et al. Cancer prevention in Europe: the Mediterranean diet as a protective choice. *Eur J Cancer Prev.* 2013;22(1):90-95.
- Mahluji S, Ostadrahimi A, Mobasseri M, Ebrahimzade Attari V, Payahoo L. Anti-inflammatory effects of zingiber officinale in type 2 diabetic patients. *Adv Pharm Bull*. 2013;3(2):273-276.
- Al-Suhaimi EA, Al-Riziza NA, Al-Essa RA. Physiological and therapeutic roles of ginger and turmeric on endocrine functions. *Am J Chin Med.* 2011;39(2):215-231.
- Yallapu MM, Nagesh PK, Jaggi M, Chauhan SC. Therapeutic applications of curcumin nanoformulations. AAPS J. 2015;17(6):1341-1356.
- Aggarwal BB, Gupta SC, Sung B. Curcumin: an orally bioavailable blocker of TNF and other pro-inflammatory biomarkers. *Br J Pharmacol.* 2013;169(8):1672-1692.
- Jurrenka JS. Anti-inflammatory properties of curcumin, a major constituent of *Curcuma longa*: a review of preclinical and clinical research. *Alt Med Rev.* 2009;14:141-153.
- Rakel DP, Rindfleisch A. Inflammation: nutritional, botanical, and mindbody influences. *South Med J.* 2005;98:302-310.
- Bulló M, Casas-Agustench P, Amigó-Correig P, et al. Inflammation, obesity and comorbidities: the role of diet. *Public Health Nutr*. 2007;10:1164-1172.
- Daubenmier J, Kristeller J, Hecht FM, et al. Mindfulness intervention for stress eating to reduce cortisol and abdominal fat among overweight and obese women: an exploratory randomized controlled study. J Obes. 2011;2011:651936.
- Sofi F, Cesari F, Abbate R, Gensini GF, Casini A. Adherence to Mediterranean diet and health status: meta-analysis. *BMJ*. 2008;337:a1344.