

## Nutritional Influences on Estrogen Metabolism

**ABSTRACT:** *It is now well known that one of the most prominent causes of breast cancer, as well as many other hormone related health problems in both men and women, is excessive estrogen exposure from both endogenous and exogenous sources. Improving estrogen metabolism can be of benefit in women with various conditions and family histories, including a family history of breast, uterine, or ovarian cancer, and conditions such as endometriosis, premenstrual syndrome, uterine fibroid tumors, fibrocystic or painful breasts, cervical dysplasia, and systemic lupus erythematosus. Beneficial modulation of*

*estrogen metabolism can be accomplished through dietary and lifestyle modifications such as increasing fiber and reducing fat, increasing phytoestrogen intake, losing weight, and increasing exercise. In addition, many nutrients effectively reduce estrogen load by supporting preferred pathways of estrogen metabolism and detoxification. These include isoflavones, indole-3-carbinol, B vitamins, magnesium, limonene, calcium D-glucarate, and antioxidants. The influences of these nutrients on estrogen metabolism may have profound significance for diseases and conditions in which estrogen plays a role in clinical expression.*

### ESTROGEN PRODUCTION

The term “estrogen” is used to collectively describe the female hormones, the most potent of which is *estradiol*. The other important—but less powerful—estrogens are *estrone* and *estriol*. Estrogens affect the growth, differentiation, and function of diverse target tissues throughout the body—not just those involved in the reproductive process. Estrogens play an important role in bone formation and maintenance, exert cardioprotective effects, and influence behavior and mood. Estrogens also have important actions in male tissues, such as the prostate and testes.<sup>1,2</sup>

In women, estrogens are synthesized from cholesterol in the ovaries in response to pituitary hormones. In an adult woman with normal cycles, the ovarian follicle secretes 70 to 500 µg of estradiol per day, depending on the phase of the menstrual cycle. Estradiol can be converted to estrone and vice versa, and both can be converted to estriol, the major urinary metabolite. Estrogens are also produced by the aromatization of androgens in fat cells, skin, bone, and other tissues.

After menopause, most endogenous estrogen is produced in the peripheral tissues by the conversion of androstenedione, which is secreted by the adrenal cortex, to estrone. In addition, some estrogen continues to be manufactured by aromatase in body fat, and the ovaries continue to produce small amounts of the male hormone testosterone, which is converted to estradiol. The total estrogen produced after menopause, however, is far less than that produced during a woman’s reproductive years.<sup>1,2</sup>

Estrogens circulate in the body bound mainly to the sex hormone binding globulin (SHBG); however, only unbound estrogens can enter target-tissue cells and induce biological activity.<sup>1,2</sup> This is an

important point, because it means that any change in the concentration of SHBG will alter estrogen metabolism by inducing changes in the availability of estrogen to the target cell.

### ESTROGEN METABOLISM AND DETOXIFICATION

Metabolism of estrogen within the body is a complex subject (Figure 1). Estrone and estradiol are biochemically interconvertible and yield the same family of estrogen metabolites as shown for estrone in Figure 1. Because these metabolites vary greatly in biological activity, the ultimate biologic effect of estrogen depends on how it is metabolized. The metabolism of estrogen takes place primarily in the liver through Phase I (hydroxylation) and Phase II (methylation, glucuronidation, and sulfation) pathways, with final excretion in the urine and feces.<sup>1</sup>

#### • Hydroxylation

Cytochrome P-450 enzymes mediate the hydroxylation of estradiol and estrone, which is the major Phase I metabolic pathway for endogenous estrogens. This takes place at two primary sites on the estrogen molecule, either at the 2 carbon (C-2) position yielding 2-hydroxyestrone (2-OH) or at the 16α carbon (C-16α) position yielding 16α-OH. A minor contribution is made from hydroxylation at the 4 carbon (C-4) position yielding 4-OH.<sup>3</sup> The 2-OH metabolite confers very weak estrogenic activity, and is generally termed the “good” estrogen. In contrast, the 16α-OH and 4-OH metabolites show persistent estrogenic activity and promote tissue proliferation.<sup>3,6</sup> It is suggested that women who metabolize a larger proportion of their endogenous estrogen via the C-16α hydroxylation pathway may be at significantly elevated risk of breast cancer compared with women who metabolize proportionally more estrogen via the C-2 pathway.<sup>3,5,7-9</sup> Furthermore, it is theorized that shifting estrogen balance toward a less estrogenic state through promo-

tion of the C-2 pathway may prove beneficial for a variety of conditions related to estrogen dominance or imbalance.

- **Methylation**

The 2-OH and 4-OH metabolites (catechol estrogens) are readily oxidized to quinones, which are highly reactive and can damage DNA and promote carcinogenesis directly or indirectly through the generation of reactive oxygen species (ROS). This harmful pathway can be minimized through detoxification and excretion of the catechol estrogens via Phase II methylation by the catechol-*O*-methyltransferase (COMT) enzyme.<sup>5,10,11</sup> This methylation requires S-adenosylmethionine (SAM) and magnesium as cofactors.<sup>11</sup> COMT is present in most tissues and converts catechols into their corresponding methyl ester metabolites, which are more water soluble.<sup>5,7</sup> Recent data suggest that the methylation of 4-OH renders this harmful metabolite significantly less active, while 2-methoxyestrone may manifest beneficial properties by inhibiting breast cancer.<sup>10,12</sup> Therefore, supporting the methylation pathways promotes detoxification of estrogens and provides for more beneficial metabolites of estrogen.

- **Glucuronidation**

Glucuronidation is one of the key Phase II liver detoxification pathways for estrogens and other toxins. Glucuronic acid is conjugated with the estrogen to facilitate its elimination from the body.<sup>1</sup> Unfortunately, some intestinal bacteria (mostly pathogenic) possess an enzyme,  $\beta$ -glucuronidase, that uncouples the bond between excreted estrogen and glucuronic acid in the large intestine, allowing the estrogen to reenter circulation (enterohepatic recirculation).<sup>13</sup> Not surprising is the finding that excess  $\beta$ -glucuronidase activity is associated with an increased cancer risk, including breast cancer.<sup>14</sup> The activity of  $\beta$ -glucuronidase is increased when the diet is high in fat and low in fiber, and can be reduced by establishing a proper bacterial flora by eating a diet high in plant foods and supplementing the diet with the “friendly bacteria” *Lactobacillus acidophilus* and *Bifidobacterium infantis*.<sup>15</sup>

## ESTROGEN RECEPTORS

Estrogens, like all steroid hormones, have a wide range of actions and affect almost all systems in the body, yet act in a tissue-specific manner. Estrogens act by binding with high affinity to the estrogen receptor (ER) in target cells. Once bound by estrogens, the receptor activates the transcription of estrogen-responsive target genes.<sup>16,17</sup> Because the ER has a unique ability to bind with a wide variety of compounds with diverse structural features, many environmental toxins and plant compounds can bind to the ER with varying affinities and modulate estrogen activity.<sup>17</sup>

Two forms of the estrogen receptor,  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ , have been identified that differ in tissue distribution, binding affinity, and biological function.<sup>16,17</sup> Therefore, different target cells may respond differently to the same estrogenic stimulus depending on the ratio of expression of the two receptor subtypes in the cell.<sup>16,17</sup> This helps to explain how phytoestrogens and the new designer estrogen drugs such as tamoxifen and raloxifene—called selective estrogen receptor modulators (SERMs)—behave like estrogens in some tissues but block its action in others. Unraveling the detailed physiological role of each receptor

subtype is needed to further elucidate the complex nature of estrogen’s mechanisms of action.

## ESTROGEN AND CANCER RISK

Epidemiological and animal studies have identified estrogen exposure as a risk factor for several cancers, namely breast, endometrium, ovary, prostate, testis, and thyroid. Much of the evidence comes from the observation that cancer risk increases with increased exposure to endogenous or exogenous estrogens, and the positive relationship observed between blood levels of estrogens and cancer risk.<sup>7,18-22</sup> Prolonged estrogen exposure can cause direct genotoxic effects by inducing cell proliferation in estrogen-dependent target cells (increasing the opportunity for the accumulation of random genetic errors), affecting cellular differentiation, and altering gene expression. Additionally, there is increasing evidence for indirect genotoxic effects of estrogens as well. The relative importance of each mechanism is likely a function of the specific estrogen, as well as the exposed tissue or cell type and its metabolic state.<sup>5,7</sup>

### Direct Genotoxic Effects

Evidence is accumulating that some estrogen metabolites may be directly responsible for the initial genetic damage leading to tumors.  $16\alpha$ -OH and 4-OH are the primary estrogen metabolites that have been associated with direct genotoxic effects and carcinogenicity.<sup>5,7</sup> Some researchers believe increased levels of  $16\alpha$ -OH may increase the risk of breast cancer by increasing both cell proliferation and direct DNA damage; however, scientific consensus has not yet been reached.<sup>5,7-9,23</sup> Conversely, 2-OH may induce apoptosis and thereby inhibit cell proliferation, an important mechanism in the prevention of cancer.<sup>12</sup>

A recent 5-year prospective study of 10,786 women was conducted to investigate the role of estrogen metabolism as a predictor of breast cancer, specifically the ratio of 2-OH to  $16\alpha$ -OH.<sup>4</sup> The researchers found that premenopausal women who developed breast cancer had a decreased 2-OH: $16\alpha$ -OH ratio and a higher percentage of  $16\alpha$ -OH than 2-OH. Women with predominately 2-OH were 40% less likely to have developed breast cancer during the 5 years. Another recent case-control study that began in 1977 found that postmenopausal women who developed breast cancer had a 15% lower 2-OH: $16\alpha$ -OH ratio than control subjects.<sup>8</sup> Furthermore, those with the highest 2-OH: $16\alpha$ -OH ratios had about a 30% lower risk to breast cancer than women with lower ratios.

Diverse factors can add to the hormonal risk by decreasing the 2-OH: $16\alpha$ -OH ratio, including numerous pesticides and carcinogens, certain drugs such as cyclosporin and cimetidine (Tagamet), obesity, and genetic predisposition.<sup>24-27</sup> Dietary interventions such as increased consumption of cruciferous vegetables (e.g., broccoli and cabbage) and phytoestrogen-rich foods such as soy and flaxseeds can significantly promote C-2 hydroxylation and increase the 2-OH: $16\alpha$ -OH ratio.

### Indirect Genotoxic Effects

Excessive production of ROS has been reported in breast cancer tissue, and free-radical toxicity, which manifests as DNA single-strand breaks, lipid peroxidation, and chromosomal abnormalities, has been reported in hamsters treated with estradiol.<sup>7</sup> The oxidation of catechol estrogens (2-OH and 4-OH) yields reactive

molecules called quinones. Quinones are thought to play a role in carcinogenesis by inducing DNA damage directly or as a result of redox cycling between the quinones and their semi-quinone radicals, which generates ROS.<sup>5,7,10</sup> Supplementation with antioxidant nutrients can reduce the oxidation of the catechols and promote greater excretion of these metabolites through the methylation pathway.

### RISK FACTORS FOR INCREASED ESTROGEN EXPOSURE

There are many lifestyle factors that can influence the body's production of estrogen. Obesity increases endogenous estrogen production by fat tissue, where the enzyme aromatase converts androgens into estrogen.<sup>18,28</sup> Excess insulin in the bloodstream prompts the ovaries to secrete excess testosterone and reduces SHBG levels, thus increasing levels of free estrogen.<sup>28</sup> Alcohol consumption increases estrogen levels, and epidemiological studies suggest that moderate alcohol consumption increases the risk of breast cancer, an effect that may be synergistically enhanced when combined with estrogen replacement therapy.<sup>29,30</sup>

Two major sources of exogenous estrogens are oral contraceptives and hormone replacement therapy. Another major source is environmental toxins found in pesticides, herbicides, plastics, refrigerants, and industrial solvents that are structurally similar to estrogen and have the ability to mimic harmful estrogens in the body.<sup>17,31</sup> Furthermore, the hormones used to fatten livestock and promote milk production are found in meat and milk products, thereby increasing one's exposure to environmental estrogens.<sup>31</sup>

While these lifestyle and environmental factors do influence the lifetime hormone burden of an individual, endogenous hormone levels also have a genetic basis that can be an important risk factor for hormone-dependent cancers and other conditions. Thus, family history can be a valuable indicator of potential problems in this area. All sources of estrogens—whether environmental, dietary, or endogenously produced—can affect ER function (Table 1). These substances can bind to estrogen  $\alpha$  or  $\beta$  receptors with varying affinities and for varying lengths of time, producing a wide range of estrogen-related effects.<sup>17</sup>

**Table 1. Sources of Estrogens**

Environmental Estrogens <sup>31</sup>	Dietary Estrogens <sup>32-35</sup> (“Phytoestrogens”)	Endogenous Estrogens
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Organochlorine chemicals such as vinyl chlorides, dioxins, PCBs, and perchloroethylene (~half of “endocrine disruptors” are in this class)</li> <li>Aromatic hydrocarbons, phthalates and phenols, and some surfactants</li> <li>Medications such as hormone replacement, oral contraceptives, tamoxifen, and cimetidine</li> <li>Hormones in animal products consumed by humans</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Isoflavones (e.g., genistein, daidzein, equol, puerarin, coumestrol, glycitein, biochanins) from soy, beans, peas, clover, alfalfa, and kudzu</li> <li>Lignans (e.g., matairesinol, pinoresinol, secoisolariciresinol) especially from flaxseed, rye, wheat, and sea vegetables</li> <li>Certain flavonoids (e.g., rutin, naringenin, luteolin, resveratrol, quercetin) especially from citrus fruits and grapes</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Estradiol</li> <li>Estrone</li> <li>Estriol</li> <li>Hydroxylated estrogen metabolites</li> <li>Methoxylated estrogen metabolites</li> <li>Other estrogen metabolites</li> </ul>

### MANIFESTATIONS OF EXCESSIVE ESTROGEN EXPOSURE AND ESTROGEN DOMINANCE

An abundance of evidence makes it clear that excessive estrogen exposure from both endogenous and exogenous sources is a causal factor in the development of cancer in hormone-dependent tissues, such as the breast, endometrium, ovary, uterus, and prostate. Furthermore, hormonal imbalances between progesterone, testosterone, and estrogen can lead to symptoms and conditions of estrogen dominance. These include premenstrual syndrome (PMS), endometriosis, uterine fibroid tumors, fibrocystic or painful breasts, cervical dysplasia, and systemic lupus erythematosus.

### NUTRITIONAL MODULATION OF ESTROGEN METABOLISM

Multiple dietary and nutritional factors have the ability to influence estrogen synthesis and receptor activity, as well as the detoxification pathways through which estrogens are metabolized (Table 2; Figure 1). Incorporating dietary changes with the use of select nutritional supplements can have profound effects in beneficially influencing estrogen balance and thus preventing estrogen-related

diseases and conditions. A weight management program may also be very helpful in both reducing adipose aromatase activity and facilitating more desirable estrogen metabolism and excretion.

#### Dietary Fiber and Lignin

Insoluble dietary fibers such as lignin (found in flaxseeds and the bran layer of grains, beans, and seeds) can interrupt the enterohepatic circulation of estrogens in two ways, thus promoting their excretion and making them less available for reabsorption and further metabolism.<sup>36</sup> First, dietary fiber, especially lignin, can bind unconjugated estrogens in the digestive tract, which are then excreted in the feces. Second, dietary fiber can beneficially affect the composition of intestinal bacteria and reduce intestinal  $\beta$ -glucuronidase activity, resulting in a lowered deconjugation of estrogen and reduced reabsorption.<sup>37</sup> Dietary fiber intake also increases serum concentrations of SHBG, thus reducing levels of free estradiol.<sup>38</sup>

#### Carbohydrates/Fats/Protein

Complex carbohydrates, such as those found in vegetables and whole grains, are preferred over simple carbohydrates for

optimizing estrogen metabolism. Excess consumption of simple carbohydrates raises blood glucose and insulin levels, resulting in adverse influences on sex hormone balance. Conversely, complex carbohydrates attenuate glycemic and insulinemic responses.<sup>28</sup>

The types and amounts of dietary fats may play a role in determining balance among estrogens in the body. For instance, high-fat diets may promote C-16 $\alpha$  hydroxylation over C-2 hydroxylation.<sup>39</sup> Furthermore, omega-3 fatty acids such as eicosapentaenoic acid (EPA) have been shown to increase C-2 hydroxylation and decrease C-16 $\alpha$  hydroxylation of estradiol in breast cancer cells.<sup>24</sup>

Inadequate dietary protein may lead to decreases in overall cytochrome P450 activity, including cytochrome P450-1A2, which detoxifies estradiol.<sup>40</sup> Rice fortified with lysine and threonine is a source of protein frequently used to nutritionally support hepatic detoxification function, because of its low allergy potential.<sup>41</sup> Soy is also an excellent source of protein that is low in fat and provides the health benefits of isoflavones.

### Phytoestrogens

Phytoestrogens are plant compounds that have the capacity to bind to ERs and appear to have both estrogenic and anti-estrogenic effects, depending on the expression of ER subtypes in target cells and on the level of endogenous estrogen present.<sup>16,17,42</sup> They are currently being extensively investigated as a potential alternative therapy for a range of conditions associated with estrogen imbalance including menopausal symptoms, PMS, and endometriosis, as well as prevention of breast and prostate cancer and protection against cardiovascular disease and osteoporosis.<sup>17,42-44</sup> The two main classes of phytoestrogens are the isoflavones and lignans.

Phytoestrogens beneficially influence estrogen synthesis and metabolism through a variety of mechanisms: 1.) they have a similar structure to estradiol and can bind to the ER,<sup>16,17,43</sup> 2.) they increase plasma SHBG levels,<sup>45</sup> 3.) they decrease aromatase activity,<sup>46</sup> and 4.) they shift estrogen metabolism away from the C-16 $\alpha$  pathway to the C-2 pathway.<sup>47,48</sup>

Therefore, it may be possible to demonstrate significant hormonal effects through dietary modification. For example, two recent studies found that increased isoflavone consumption decreased urinary excretion of the genotoxic estrogen metabolites 16 $\alpha$ -OH and 4-OH, indicative of their decreased formation, and significantly increased the 2-OH:16 $\alpha$ -OH ratio in both pre- and postmenopausal women.<sup>47,48</sup>

**Isoflavones**—Soy is perhaps the most common food source of isoflavones, but others include legumes, alfalfa, clover, licorice root, and kudzu root. There are several biologically active isoflavones, such as genistein, daidzein, and puerarin, with each plant source delivering a different profile. Higher intakes of soy products and isoflavones, such as consumed in traditional Japanese diets, are associated with low rates of hormone-dependent cancers.<sup>49</sup> The average daily isoflavone intake of Japanese women is 20 to 80 mg, while that of American women is 1 to 3 mg.<sup>50</sup>

In two human studies, women given isoflavone supplements and soymilk for one month experienced longer menstrual cycles and lower serum estradiol levels.<sup>51,52</sup> Longer menstrual cycles are beneficial because they result in decreased lifetime exposure to estrogen and lower the risk for breast cancer. Furthermore, in women with low levels of SHBG, consumption of a soymilk powder providing about 69 mg of isoflavones daily substantially increased their SHBG concentrations, an effect not observed in women with higher initial SHBG levels.<sup>45</sup>

**Lignans**—These compounds are found in fiber-rich foods such as flaxseed and other oil seeds, whole grains, legumes, and vegetables.<sup>53,54</sup> Lignans stimulate the production of SHBG in the liver, and therefore reduce the levels of free estrogen in circulation. They also inhibit aromatase activity, thus decreasing the conversion of testosterone and androstenedione into estrogens in fat and breast cells.<sup>38,46,55</sup> Lignans also have been shown to inhibit estrogen-sensitive breast cancer cell proliferation.<sup>56</sup> Women consuming 10g of flaxseed per day experienced longer menstrual cycle length, increased progesterone-to-estrogen ratios, and fewer anovulatory cycles, all of which were considered to reflect improved ovarian function.<sup>57</sup>

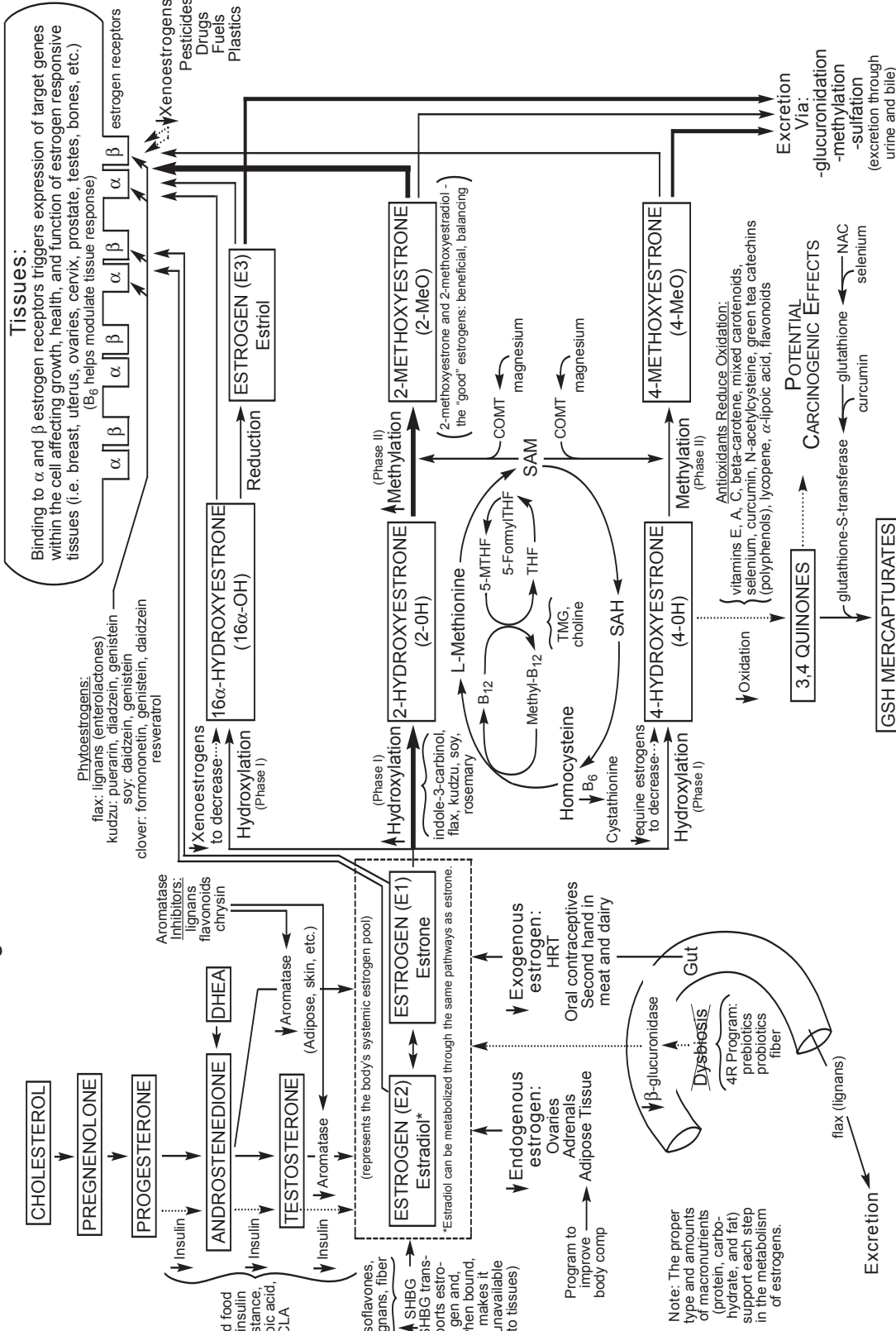
**Table 2. Mechanisms through which dietary and nutritional factors may influence estrogen metabolism**

Mechanism of Action	Nutrient
Promote C-2 hydroxylation over C-4 and/or C-16 $\alpha$ hydroxylation of estrogens	Cruciferous vegetables, indole-3-carbinol, rosemary, isoflavones (soy, kudzu, clover)
Reduce the oxidation of catechol estrogens (2-OH and 4-OH)	Vitamins A, E, & C, N-acetylcysteine, turmeric, green tea, lycopene, $\alpha$ -lipoic acid, flavonoids
Promote the methylation of catechol estrogens (2-OH and 4-OH)	Folate, vitamins B <sub>2</sub> , B <sub>6</sub> , & B <sub>12</sub> , trimethylglycine, magnesium
Increase circulating concentrations of SHBG, thus reducing levels of unbound, active estrogens	Fiber, lignans (flaxseed), isoflavones (soy, kudzu, clover)
Inhibit the activity of aromatase, which converts into estrogens	Lignans (flaxseed), flavonoids (chrysin)
Promote the detoxification of estrogens by upregulating Phase I and Phase II enzymes	Turmeric (curcumin), D-limonene, magnesium, vitamins B <sub>2</sub> , B <sub>6</sub> , & B <sub>12</sub> , flavonoids
Inhibit the activity of $\beta$ -glucuronidase, which deconjugates estrogens in the large intestine, allowing them to be reabsorbed and re-metabolized	Fiber, probiotics (acidophilus, bifidobacteria), calcium D-glucarate
Modify estrogen receptor activity	Isoflavones (soy, kudzu), lignans (flaxseed), indole-3-carbinol, resveratrol



Figure 1.

Nutritional Influences on Estrogen Metabolism



Note: The proper type and amounts of macronutrients (protein, carbohydrate, and fat) support each step in the metabolism of estrogens.

Acronym Key: CLA: conjugated linoleic acid, COMT: catechol-O-methyltransferase, DHEA: dehydroepiandrosterone, 5-FormylTHF: 5-formyltetrahydrofolate, HRT: hormone replacement therapy, 5-MTHF: 5-methyltetrahydrofolate, NAC: N-acetylcysteine, SAM: S-adenosylmethionine, SAH: S-adenosylhomocysteine, SHBG: sex hormone binding globulin, THF: tetrahydrofolate, TMG: trimethylglycine, GSH: glutathione

**Resveratrol**—This bioflavonoid occurs naturally in grapes and red wine and has been shown to inhibit breast cancer cell growth *in vitro*.<sup>58</sup> It has been classified as a phytoestrogen based on its ability to bind to and activate the ER,<sup>59</sup> with recent *in vitro* studies indicating that it exhibits estrogenic and anti-estrogenic activity and binds to ER $\alpha$  and ER $\beta$  with comparable affinity.<sup>60,61</sup> These estrogen modulatory effects may explain resveratrol's well-known anticancer and cardioprotective properties.<sup>60</sup>

### Vitamin E

Low serum vitamin E is associated with elevated estrogen levels, and supplementation may reduce symptoms of PMS.<sup>62</sup> Vitamin E inhibits growth of breast cancer cells, possibly by inhibiting the expression of vascular endothelial growth factor, which encourages angiogenesis.<sup>63</sup> Furthermore, vitamin E deficiency may negatively affect cytochrome P450 function, thus impacting estrogen detoxification.

### Magnesium

Magnesium is an essential cofactor for the COMT enzyme, and therefore optimizes the methylation and excretion of catechol estrogens.<sup>7</sup> Magnesium also promotes estrogen detoxification by directly increasing the activity of glucuronyl transferase, an enzyme involved in hepatic glucuronidation. Ovarian hormones influence magnesium levels, triggering decreases at certain times during the menstrual cycle as well as altering the calcium to magnesium ratio. These cyclical changes can produce many of the well-known symptoms of PMS in women who are deficient in magnesium and/or calcium.<sup>64</sup>

### Indole-3-Carbinol (I3C)

I3C is a naturally occurring compound derived from cruciferous vegetables such as broccoli, Brussels sprouts, and cabbage that actively promotes the breakdown of estrogen to the beneficial metabolite, 2-OH. Therefore, I3C is protective to estrogen-sensitive tissues and may be beneficial to those with health issues related to estrogen dominance.

The mechanism by which I3C promotes 2-OH formation involves the selective induction of Phase I metabolizing cytochrome P450 enzymes, which facilitate the 2-hydroxylation of estrogen.<sup>65,66</sup> Through this metabolic role, I3C promotes an increased ratio of 2-OH to 16 $\alpha$ -OH and may improve estrogen metabolism in women with poor diets or impaired detoxification.<sup>3,65,67</sup> I3C may also reduce the activity of the enzyme required for the 4-hydroxylation of estrogen, thereby decreasing carcinogenic 4-OH formation.<sup>68</sup>

According to a recent human study in both men and women, supplementation with 500 mg and 400 mg of I3C, respectively, resulted in significantly increased urinary excretion of 2-OH, while that of nearly all other metabolites including estradiol and 16 $\alpha$ -OH was lower—indicative of their decreased formation.<sup>65</sup> In another double-blind, placebo-controlled study of 57 women at increased risk for breast cancer, supplementation with I3C (300-400 mg/d for 4 weeks) proved to be a promising chemopreventive agent as measured by the increased 2-OH:16 $\alpha$ -OH ratio.<sup>69</sup>

Not only does I3C promote healthier estrogen metabolism, but it may also act as a “weak,” or anti-estrogen. Through competitive

inhibition, I3C has been shown to prevent the receptor binding of “stronger,” more stimulating estrogens.<sup>70</sup> Other mechanisms relating to I3C's influence on tissue health involve modulating ER activity, detoxifying xenoestrogens, modulating cell cycle regulation, and preventing the adhesion, migration, and invasion of cancer cell lines.<sup>68,71,72</sup>

### B Vitamins

The B vitamins, such as B<sub>6</sub>, B<sub>12</sub>, and folate, function as important cofactors for enzymes involved in estrogen conjugation and methylation. Therefore, decreased levels of B vitamins can disrupt estrogen detoxification and lead to increased levels of circulating estrogens. For instance, folate (as a precursor to SAM) is an essential cofactor for the methylation of catechol estrogens, 2-OH and 4-OH, which reduces their conversion to the carcinogenic quinones.<sup>11</sup> Unfortunately, many individuals have a genetic polymorphism that interferes with their ability to metabolize folic acid to the active form utilized by the body. Supplementing with a metabolically active form of folate that doesn't require enzymatic conversion, such as L-5-methyl tetrahydrofolate, will ensure that these patients maintain adequate folate nutriture.<sup>73</sup>

Another way in which certain B vitamins play a role in estrogen activity is through a potential to modulate the cell's response to activation of the ER. It has been demonstrated that elevated intracellular concentrations of the active form of vitamin B<sub>6</sub> can lead to significantly decreased gene transcription responses when estrogen binds to the ER.<sup>74</sup> By modulating estrogen-induced gene expression in this way, vitamin B<sub>6</sub> can attenuate the biological effects of estrogen. B vitamins also play a role in the prevention of cancer because they are crucial for DNA synthesis and repair as well as the process of DNA methylation, which is essential for DNA stability and integrity and is an important regulator of gene expression.

### Calcium D-Glucarate

Calcium D-glucarate is a natural compound that appears to have some influence on breast cancer by aiding in detoxification and the regulation of estrogen.<sup>75</sup> It not only inhibits  $\beta$ -glucuronidase, but also increases the activity of the glucuronidation Phase II pathway, with the net effect of increased estrogen and toxin elimination from the body.<sup>76</sup> Calcium D-glucarate has been found in animal models to lower estradiol levels and inhibit the initiation, promotion, and progression of cancer.<sup>75</sup>

### Other Beneficial Phytonutrients

There are many other naturally occurring compounds derived from a variety of plant sources that promote healthy estrogen metabolism. Curcumin is a polyphenol complex from the curry spice turmeric, a member of the ginger family. A combination of curcumin and the isoflavone genistein has shown synergy in reducing xenoestrogen-induced growth of breast cancer cells.<sup>77</sup> Curcumin also increases hepatic levels of glutathione and induces glutathione-S-transferase (GST) and glucuronyl transferase, important in the Phase II detoxification of quinones produced from the oxidation of catechol estrogens.<sup>78,79</sup> Chrysin is a bioflavonoid that has been shown to inhibit aromatase activity, thus reducing the conversion of androgens into estrogen.<sup>80</sup> Aromatase is found in breast tissue, and its inhibition may be useful in reducing the cell proliferative effects of estrogen. Preliminary research indicates that the herb rosemary promotes the 2-hydroxylation of estrogen in a similar fashion to I3C, and

may inhibit 16 $\alpha$  hydroxylation. Rosemary may also enhance estrogen detoxification.<sup>81</sup>

Furthermore, many antioxidants and phytonutrients can reduce the oxidation of catechol estrogen metabolites into quinones. Notable players in this group include vitamins E and C,  $\alpha$ -lipoic acid, N-acetylcysteine, the mineral selenium, curcumin, and green tea. D-Limonene, a naturally occurring monoterpene found in the oils of citrus fruits, promotes the detoxification of estrogen by inducing Phase I and Phase II enzymes in the liver, including GST.<sup>82</sup> This compound has also shown great promise in the prevention and treatment of breast and other cancers.<sup>83</sup>

There are also many hormone-modulating herbs that have a long history of traditional use in treating women's health conditions, including black cohosh, chasteberry, ginseng, dong quai, and licorice. While the mechanism of action of these herbs varies, many have been found to contain phytoestrogens. For a comprehensive discussion of the use of nutritional supplements and herbs in treating PMS, menopause, and other women's health conditions, please refer to the articles titled, *Premenstrual Syndrome: A Natural Approach to Management; A Healthy Menstrual Cycle; A Natural Approach to Menopause; and Black Cohosh and Chasteberry: Herbs Valued by Women for Centuries.*

## REFERENCES

- Murray RK, Granner DK, Mayes PA, et al. Harper's Biochemistry, 24th ed. Stamford (CT): Appleton & Lange; 1996.
- Guyton AC. Textbook of Medical Physiology, 8th ed. Philadelphia: WB Saunders; 1991.
- Bradlow HL, Telang NT, Sepkovic DW, et al. 2-Hydroxyestrogen: the 'good' estrogen. *J Endocrinol* 1996;150:S259-S65.
- Muti P, Bradlow HL, Micheli A, et al. Estrogen metabolism and risk of breast cancer: a prospective study of the 2:16 $\alpha$ -hydroxyestrogen ratio in premenopausal and postmenopausal women. *Epidemiology* 2000;11(6):635-40.
- Yager JD, Liehr JG. Molecular mechanisms of estrogen carcinogenesis. *Annu Rev Pharmacol Toxicol* 1996;36:203-32.
- Westerlind KC, Gibson KJ, Malone P, et al. Differential effects of estrogen metabolites on bone and reproductive tissues of ovariectomized rats. *J Bone Miner Res* 1998;13(6): 1023-31.
- Bolton JL, Pisha E, Zhang F, et al. Role of quinoids in estrogen carcinogenesis. *Chem Res Toxicol* 1998;11:1113-27.
- Melahn EN, De Stavola B, Allen DS, et al. Do urinary oestrogen metabolites predict breast cancer? Guernsey III cohort follow-up. *Br J Cancer* 1998;78:1250-55.
- Fishman J, Osborne MP, Telang NT. The role of estrogen in mammary carcinogenesis. *Ann NY Acad Sci* 1995;768:91-100.
- Zhu BT, Conney AH. Is 2-methoxyestradiol an endogenous estrogen metabolite that inhibits mammary carcinogenesis? *Cancer Res* 1998;58:2269-77.
- Butterworth M, Lau SS, Monks TJ. 17  $\beta$ -estradiol metabolism by hamster hepatic microsomes. Implications for the catechol-O-methyl transferase-mediated detoxification of catechol estrogens. *Drug Metab Dispos* 1996;24(5):588-94.
- Yue TL, Wang X, Loudon CS, et al. 2-Methoxyestradiol, an endogenous estrogen metabolite, induces apoptosis in endothelial cells and inhibits angiogenesis: possible role for stress-activated protein kinase signaling pathway and Fas expression. *Mol Pharmacol* 1997;51(6):951-62.
- Fujisawa T, Mori M. Influence of bile salts on  $\beta$ -glucuronidase activity of intestinal bacteria. *Leti Appl Microbiol* 1996;22(4):271-74.
- Severini G, Diana L, Di Giovannandrea R, et al. A study of serum glycosidases in cancer. *J Cancer Res Clin Oncol* 1995;121(1):61-63.
- Hambly RJ, Rumney CJ, Fletcher JM, et al. Effects of high- and low-risk diets on gut microflora-associated biomarkers of colon cancer in human flora-associated rats. *Nutr Cancer* 1997;27(3):250-53.
- Cassidy A. Potential tissue selectivity of dietary phytoestrogens and estrogens. *Curr Opin Lipidol* 1999;10:47-52.
- Kuiper GG, Lemmen JG, Carlsson B, et al. Interaction of estrogenic chemicals and phytoestrogens with estrogen receptor  $\beta$ . *Endocrinology* 1998;139(10):4252-63.
- Colditz GA. Relationship between estrogen levels, use of hormone replacement therapy, and breast cancer. *J Natl Cancer Inst* 1998;90(11):814-23.
- Thomas HV, Reeves GK, Key TJ. Endogenous estrogen and postmenopausal breast cancer: a quantitative review. *Cancer Causes Control* 1997;8(6):922-28.
- Rose PG. Endometrial carcinoma. *New Eng J Med* 1996;335(9):640-49.
- Hankinson SE, Willett WC, Manson JE, et al. Plasma sex steroid hormone levels and risk of breast cancer in postmenopausal women. *J Natl Cancer Inst* 1998;90(17):1292-99.
- Zanetta GM, Webb MJ, Li H, et al. Hyperestrogenism: A relevant risk factor for the development of cancer from endometriosis. *Gynecol Oncol* 2000 Oct;79(1):18-22.
- Ursin G, Londen S, Stanczyk FZ, et al. Urinary 2-hydroxyestrogen/16 $\alpha$ -hydroxyestrogen ratio and risk of breast cancer in postmenopausal women. *J Natl Cancer Inst* 1999;91:1067-72.
- Bradlow HL, Davis DL, Lin G, et al. Effects of pesticides on the ratio of 16 $\alpha$ /2-hydroxyestrogen: a biological marker of breast cancer risk. *Environ Health Perspect* 1995;103 (Suppl 7):147-50.
- Longcope C, Gorbach S, Goldin B, et al. The effect of a low fat diet on estrogen metabolism. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab* 1987;64(6):1246-50.
- Kerlan V, Dreano Y, Bercovici JP, et al. Nature of cytochromes P450 involved in the 2-/4-hydroxylations of estradiol in human liver microsomes. *Biochem Pharmacol* 1992;44(9):1745-56.
- Galbraith RA, Michnovicz JJ. The effects of cimetidine on the oxidative metabolism of estradiol. *New Engl J Med* 1989;321(5):269-74.
- Kaaks R. Nutrition, hormones, and breast cancer: Is insulin the missing link? *Cancer Causes Control* 1996;7:605-25.
- Snedeker SM, DiAugustine RP. Hormonal and environmental factors affecting cell proliferation and neoplasia in the mammary gland. *Prog Clin Biol Res* 1996;394:211-53.
- Fan S, Meng Q, Gao B, et al. Alcohol stimulates estrogen receptor signaling in human breast cancer cell lines. *Cancer Res* 2000;60(20):5635-39.
- Steingraber S. Living Downstream. Reading (MA): Addison-Wesley; 1997.
- Zand RS, Jenkins DJ, Diamandis EP. Steroid hormone activity of flavonoids and related compounds. *Breast Cancer Res Treat* 2000;62(1):35-49.
- Scambia G, Ranalletti FO, Benedetti Panici P, et al. Type-II estrogen binding sites in a lymphoblastoid cell line androwth-inhibitory effect of estrogen, anti-estrogen and bioflavonoids. *Int J Cancer* 1990;46(6):1112-16.
- Basly JP, Marre-Fournier F, Le Bail JC, et al. Estrogenic/antiestrogenic and scavenging properties of (E)- and (Z)-resveratrol. *Life Sci* 2000;66(9):769-77.
- www.ars-grin.duke.gov. Dr. Duke's Phytochemical and Ethnobotanical Databases. November 2000.
- Shultz TD, Howie BJ. In vitro binding of steroid hormones by natural and purified fibers. *Nutr Cancer* 1986;8(2):141-47.
- Adlercreutz H. Western diet and Western diseases: some hormonal and biochemical mechanisms and associations. *Scand J Clin Lab Invest* 1990;50(S201):3-23.
- Adlercreutz H, Hockerstedt K, Bannwart C, et al. Effect of dietary components, including lignans and phytoestrogens, on enterohepatic circulation and liver metabolites of estrogens and in sex hormone binding globulin (SHBG). *J Steroid Biochem* 1987;27(4-6):1135-44.
- Musey PI, Collins DC, Bradlow HL, et al. Effect of diet on oxidation of 17  $\beta$ -estradiol in vivo. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab* 1987;65(4):792-95.
- Ioannides C. Effect of diet and nutrition on the expression of cytochromes P450. *Xenobiotica* 1999;29(2):109-54.
- Watanabe M. Hypoallergenic rice as a physiologically functional food. *Trends Food Sci Tech* 1993;4:125-28.
- Brzezinski A, Debi A. Phytoestrogens: the "natural" selective estrogen receptor modulators? *Eur J Obstet Gynecol* 1999;85:47-51.
- Lissin LW, Cooke JP. Phytoestrogens and cardiovascular health. *J Am Coll Cardiol* 2000;35(6):1403-10.
- Knight DC, Eden JA. A review of the clinical effects of phytoestrogens. *Obstet Gynecol* 1996;87(5):897-904.
- Pino AM, Valladares LE, Palma MA, et al. Dietary isoflavones affect sex hormone-binding globulin levels in postmenopausal women. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab* 2000;85(8): 2797-2800.
- Wang C, Makela T, Hase T, et al. Lignans and flavonoids inhibit aromatase enzyme in human preadipocytes. *J Steroid Biochem Molec Biol* 1994;50:205-12.
- Xu X, Duncan AM, Merz BE, et al. Effects of soy isoflavones on estrogen and phytoestrogen metabolism in premenopausal women. *Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev* 1998;7(12):1101-08.
- Xu X, Duncan AM, Wangen KE, et al. Soy consumption alters endogenous estrogen metabolism in postmenopausal women. *Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev* 2000;9(8):781-86.
- Messina MJ, Pinsky V, Setchell KD, et al. Soy intake and cancer risk: a review of the in vitro and in vivo data. *Nutr Cancer* 1994;21:113-31.
- Barnes S, Peterson TG, Coward L. Rationale for the use of genistein-containing soy matrices in chemoprevention trials for breast and prostate cancer. *J Cell Biochem Suppl* 1995;22:181-87.
- Cassidy A, Bingham S, Setchell KD. Biological effects of a diet of soy protein rich in isoflavones on the menstrual cycle of premenopausal women. *Am J Clin Nutr* 1994;60(3):333-40.
- Lu LJ, Anderson KE, Grady JJ, et al. Effects of soy consumption for one month on steroid hormones in premenopausal women: implications for breast cancer risk reduction. *Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev* 1996;5(1):63-70.
- Kirkman LM, Lampe JW, Campbell DR, et al. Urinary lignan and isoflavonoid excretion in men and women consuming vegetable and soy diets. *Nutr Cancer* 1995;24(1):1-12.
- Thompson LU, Robb P, Serraino M, et al. Mammalian lignan production from various foods. *Nutr Cancer* 1991;16(1): 43-52.
- Adlercreutz H, Bannwart C, Wahala K, et al. Inhibition of human aromatase by mammalian lignans and isoflavonoid phytoestrogens. *Steroid Biochem Molec Biol* 1993;44(2):147-53.
- Mousavi Y, Adlercreutz H. Enterolactone and estradiol inhibit each other's proliferative effect on MCF-7 breast cancer cells in culture. *J Steroid Biochem Mol Biol* 1992;41(3-8):615-19.
- Phipps WR, Martini MC, Lampe JW, et al. Effect of flax seed ingestion on the menstrual cycle. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab* 1993;77(5):1215-19.
- Lu R, Serrero G. Resveratrol, a natural product derived from grape, exhibits antiestrogenic activity and inhibits the growth of human breast cancer cells. *J Cell Physiol* 1999;179(3):297-304.
- Gehm BD, McAndrews JM, Chien PY, et al. Resveratrol, a polyphenolic compound found in grapes and wine, is an agonist for the estrogen receptor. *Proc Natl Acad Sci* 1997;94:14138-43.
- Bowers JL, Tyulmenkov V, Jernigan SC, et al. Resveratrol acts as a mixed agonist/antagonist for estrogen receptors  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ . *Endocrinology* 2000;141(10):3657-67.
- Bhat KP, Lantvit D, Christov K, et al. Estrogenic and antiestrogenic properties of resveratrol in mammary tumor models. *Cancer Res* 2001;61(20):7456-63.
- London RS, Murphy L, Kitowski KE, et al. Efficacy of alpha-tocopherol in the treatment of the premenstrual syndrome. *J Reprod Med* 1987;32:400-04.
- Malafa MP, Neitzel LT, Vitamin E succinate promotes breast cancer tumor dormancy. *J Surg Res* 2000;93(1):163-70.
- Muneyvirici-Delale O, Nacharaju VL, Altura BM, et al. Sex steroid hormones modulate serum ionized magnesium and calcium levels throughout the menstrual cycle in women. *Fertil Steril* 1998;69(5):958-62.
- Michnovicz JJ, Adlercreutz H, Bradlow HL. Changes in levels of urinary estrogen metabolites after oral indole-3-carbinol treatment in humans. *J Natl Cancer Inst* 1997;89(10):718-23.
- Tiwari RK, Guo L, Bradlow HL, et al. Selective responsiveness of human breast cancer cells to indole-3-carbinol, a chemopreventive agent. *J Natl Cancer Inst* 1994;86(2):126-31.
- Michnovicz JJ, Bradlow HL. Altered estrogen metabolism and excretion in humans following consumption of indole-3-carbinol. *Nutr Cancer* 1991;16(1):59-66.
- Bradlow HL, Sepkovic DW, Telang NT, et al. Multifunctional aspects of the action of indole-3-carbinol as an antitumor agent. *Ann NY Acad Sci* 1999;889:204-13.
- Wong GY, Bradlow L, Sepkovic D, et al. Dose-ranging study of indole-3-carbinol for breast cancer prevention. *J Cell Biochem Suppl* 1997;28-29:111-16.
- Yuan F, Chen DZ, Liu K, et al. Anti-estrogenic activities of indole-3-carbinol in cervical cells: implication for prevention of cervical cancer. *Anticancer Res* 1999;19(3A): 1673-80.
- Meng Q, Qi M, Chen DZ, et al. Suppression of breast cancer invasion and migration by indole-3-carbinol: associated with up-regulation of BRCA1 and E-cadherin/catenin complexes. *J Mol Med* 2000;78(3):155-65.
- Riby JE, Chang GH, Firestone GL, et al. Ligand-independent activation of estrogen receptor function by 3,3'-diindolylmethane in human breast cancer cells. *Biochem Pharmacol* 2000;60(2):167-77.
- Luceok M. Folic acid: nutritional biochemistry, molecular biology, and role in disease processes. *Molec Gen Metab* 2000;71:121-38.
- Tully DB, Allgood VE, Cidlowski JA. Modulation of steroid receptor-mediated gene expression by vitamin B<sub>9</sub>. *FASEB J* 1994;8(3):343-49.
- Minton JP, Walaszek Z, Schooley W, et al.  $\beta$ -Glucuronidase levels in patients with fibrocystic breast disease. *Breast Cancer Res Treat* 1986;8:217-22.
- Walaszek Z, Szemraj J, Narog M, et al. Metabolism, uptake, and excretion of a D-glucuronic acid salt and its potential use in cancer prevention. *Cancer Detect Prev* 1997;21(2):178-90.
- Verma SP, Goldin BR, Lin PS. The inhibition of the estrogenic effects of pesticides and environmental chemicals by curcumin and isoflavonoids. *Environ Health Perspect* 1998;106(12):807-12.
- Goud VK, Polasa K, Krishnaswamy K. Effect of turmeric on xenobiotic metabolizing enzymes. *Plant Foods Hum Nutr* 1993;44(1):87-92.
- Susan M, Rao MN. Induction of glutathione S-transferase activity by curcumin in mice. *Arzneimittelforschung* 1992;42(7):962-64.
- Jeong HJ, Shin YG, Kim IH, et al. Inhibition of aromatase activity by flavonoids. *Arch Pharm Res* 1999;22(3):309-12.
- Zhu BT, Loder DP, Cai MX, et al. Dietary administration of an extract from rosemary leaves enhances the liver microsomal metabolism of endogenous estrogens and decreases their uterotrophic action in CD-1 mice. *Carcinogenesis* 1998;19(10):1821-27.
- Maltzman TH, Christou M, Gould MN, et al. Effects of monoterpenoids on in vivo DMBA-DNA adduct formation and on phase I hepatic metabolizing enzymes. *Carcinogenesis* 1991;12:2081.
- Vigushin DM, Poon GK, Boddy A, et al. Phase I and pharmacokinetic study of D-limonene in patients with advanced cancer. *Cancer Chemother Pharmacol* 1998;42:111-17.



# Nutritional Influences on Estrogen Metabolism: A Summary

Estrogen affects the growth, differentiation, and function of tissues throughout the body—not just those involved in reproduction. It plays an important role in bone health, protects the cardiovascular system, and influences behavior and mood. While appropriate levels of estrogens are essential for good health, several studies conclude that as exposure to estrogen increases, the risk of several cancers, including breast, ovary, prostate, and thyroid, also increases.<sup>7,18-22</sup> Furthermore, excessive estrogen exposure can lead to other health problems such as premenstrual syndrome (PMS), endometriosis, and fibrocystic or painful breasts.

Various lifestyle and environmental factors can influence estrogen production, metabolism, and balance. These include poor diet, obesity, excess alcohol consumption, high insulin levels, medications such as hormone replacement therapy and birth control pills, overexposure to chemicals found in pesticides and industrial chemicals, and agricultural hormones in animal products consumed by humans.<sup>17,18,28-31</sup> Genetics can also play an important role in determining estrogen levels.

## THE BASICS OF ESTROGEN METABOLISM

“Estrogen” is a term that is used to collectively describe the female hormones estradiol, estrone, and estriol. The most potent of these is estradiol. Estrogens circulate in the body mainly bound to the sex hormone binding globulin (SHBG) and only unbound estrogens can enter cells and cause biological effects.<sup>1,2</sup> Therefore, any change in the concentration of SHBG will alter estrogen activity by changing the availability of estrogen to the target cell.

The ultimate biologic effect of estrogen in the body depends on how it is metabolized. The metabolism of estrogen takes place primarily in the liver through Phase I (*hydroxylation*) and Phase II (*methylation* and *glucuronidation*) pathways, which allow the estrogen to be detoxified and excreted from the body. *Hydroxylation* yields 3 metabolites that vary greatly in biological activity: 2-hydroxyestrone (2-OH), 16 $\alpha$ -OH, or 4-OH.<sup>3</sup> The 2-OH metabolite is generally termed the “good” estrogen because it generates very weak (and therefore potentially less harmful) estrogenic activity in the body. In contrast, the 16 $\alpha$ -OH and 4-OH metabolites show persistent estrogenic activity and may promote dangerous tissue growth.<sup>3,6</sup> In fact, women who metabolize a larger proportion of their estrogen via the 16 $\alpha$ -OH metabolite may be at significantly higher risk of developing breast cancer.<sup>3,5,7,9</sup> Therefore, shifting estrogen balance toward a less estrogenic state through promotion of the 2-OH pathway may prove very beneficial in improving a variety of conditions related to elevated or imbalanced estrogen levels.

The 2-OH and 4-OH estrogen metabolites are further detoxified via a process called *methylation*. This is an important pathway, because it renders the harmful 4-OH metabolite significantly less active. Furthermore, if they are not methylated, the 2-OH and 4-OH estrogens can be converted to highly reactive molecules that can damage DNA.<sup>5,10,11</sup> *Glucuronidation* is one of the key Phase II liver detoxification pathways for estrogen, facilitating its elimination from the body.<sup>1</sup>

## NUTRITIONAL SUPPORT OF OPTIMUM ESTROGEN METABOLISM

Many elements of good nutrition and diet play an important part in influencing estrogen metabolism and detoxification. Incorporating dietary changes with the addition of beneficial nutrients and herbs can profoundly affect estrogen balance and potentially reduce the risk of estrogen-dependent cancers and other hormone-related conditions.

**Diet**—It has been found that dietary interventions such as increasing consumption of cruciferous vegetables like cabbage and broccoli, and foods such as soy can significantly increase the 2-hydroxylation of estrogen. Dietary fiber intake can promote the excretion of estrogen by binding estrogens in the digestive tract and also increases SHBG, thus reducing levels of free estradiol.<sup>36,38</sup> Complex carbohydrates, such as those found in vegetables and whole grains, are more effective in optimizing estrogen metabolism than simple carbohydrates, which can raise blood glucose and insulin levels, resulting in secondary adverse influences on sex hormone balance.<sup>28</sup>

**Phytoestrogens**—These plant compounds are similar in shape to the estrogen molecule and can bind to estrogen receptors (ERs). They are

much weaker than endogenous estrogens and, through competitive inhibition, have been shown to prevent the receptor binding of “stronger,” more stimulating estrogens.<sup>16,17,42</sup> Phytoestrogens are currently under extensive investigation as a potential alternative therapy for a range of conditions associated with estrogen imbalance, including menopausal symptoms, PMS, endometriosis, prevention of breast and prostate cancer, and protection against heart disease and osteoporosis.<sup>17,42-44</sup>

The two main classes of phytoestrogens are isoflavones and lignans. Soy is perhaps the most common food source of isoflavones, but other excellent sources include legumes, clover, and kudzu root. Higher intakes of soy products and isoflavones, such as consumed in traditional Japanese diets, are associated with low rates of hormone-dependent cancers.<sup>49</sup> Lignans are compounds found in fiber-rich foods such as flaxseeds, whole grains, legumes, and vegetables.<sup>53,54</sup> Lignans stimulate the production of SHBG in the liver, and therefore reduce the levels of free estrogen in circulation. They also inhibit aromatase, an enzyme that synthesizes estrogen.

**Vitamin E and Magnesium**—Low serum vitamin E is associated with elevated estrogen levels, and may negatively affect estrogen detoxification. Women with PMS have experienced improvements of their symptoms when given supplemental vitamin E.<sup>62</sup> Magnesium promotes estrogen detoxification by promoting methylation and glucuronidation, key estrogen detoxification pathways. Ovarian hormones influence magnesium levels, triggering decreases at certain times during the menstrual cycle as well as altering the calcium to magnesium ratio. These cyclical changes can produce many of the well-known symptoms of PMS in women who are deficient in magnesium and/or calcium.<sup>64</sup>

**Indole-3-Carbinol (I3C)**—I3C is a naturally occurring compound derived from cruciferous vegetables that actively promotes the breakdown of estrogen via the beneficial 2-OH pathway.<sup>3,65-67</sup> Therefore, I3C is protective to estrogen-sensitive tissues and may be beneficial to those with health issues related to excessive estrogen. Not only does I3C promote healthier estrogen metabolism, but it may also act as a “weak” or anti-estrogen in a similar fashion to isoflavones.<sup>70</sup>

**B Vitamins**—Folate, B<sub>6</sub>, and B<sub>12</sub> function as important cofactors for enzymes involved in estrogen detoxification; thus, decreased levels of B vitamins can lead to increased levels of circulating estrogens. Certain B vitamins also have the potential to modulate the biological effects of estrogen by decreasing the cell’s response when estrogen binds to the ER.<sup>74</sup> B vitamins also play a role in the prevention of cancer because they are important for DNA synthesis and repair.

**Calcium D-Glucarate**—Calcium D-glucarate is a natural compound found in foods that appears to have some influence on breast cancer by aiding in detoxification and the regulation of estrogen.<sup>75,76</sup> It has been found in animal models to lower estradiol levels and inhibit the initiation, promotion, and progression of cancer.<sup>75</sup>

## OTHER BENEFICIAL PHYTONUTRIENTS AND HERBS

Many other compounds derived from a variety of plant sources are available that promote healthy estrogen metabolism. These include curcumin, a compound found in the herb turmeric (*Curcuma longa*) that increases the phase II detoxification of estrogens;<sup>78,79</sup> chrysin, a bioflavonoid that inhibits aromatase activity, thus reducing the synthesis of estrogen;<sup>80</sup> the herb, rosemary, which promotes the formation of the 2-OH estrogen metabolite;<sup>81</sup> and D-limonene from citrus fruits, which promotes the detoxification of estrogen and shows promise in the prevention and treatment of breast and other cancers.<sup>82,83</sup> Furthermore, many antioxidant nutrients and phytonutrients can reduce the oxidation of the 2-OH and 4-OH estrogen metabolites. Notable nutrients in this group include vitamin C, N-acetylcysteine, the mineral selenium, and green tea.

In addition, traditional societies have long relied on a variety of hormone-modulating herbs in treating women’s health conditions. These include black cohosh, chasteberry, ginseng, dong quai, and licorice. The mechanism of action of these herbs varies; however, many have been found to contain beneficial phytoestrogens.