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Original article Anti-glycative effect of vegetable and fruit extracts on multiple glycation models

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Abstract

Aim: Locomotive syndrome is one of the age-related symptoms based on weakness of the locomotive organs. As bone tissue is glycated by excess reducing sugar in the blood and synovial fluid, advanced glycation end products (AGEs) are formed. These AGEs mediate declining bone stiffness and elasticity, leading to bone fracture, osteoporosis and osteoarthritis. In the present study, we investigated the effect of 73 kinds of vegetable and fruit extracts on glycation using 3 different proteins, serum albumin: most abundant proteins in blood, type I and type II collagen: major structural protein in bone and soft tissue, respectively.

Methods: To investigate the effect of plant extracts, 1 mg/mL solid content of extracts were used for three different glycation models such as human serum albumin (HSA) with glucose (glc-HSA), type I and type II collagens with fructose (fru-collagen I and fru-collagen II). Fluorescent AGEs were measured by their typical fluorescence of 370/440 nm. Intermediates of AGEs: 3-deoxyglucosone (3-DG), glyoxal (GO) and methylglyoxal (MGO) were determined using HPLC-UV analyses.

Results: Among 73 kinds of plant extracts, 9 kinds of samples showed strongly inhibited fluorescent AGEs formation in all 3 different glycation models. Lady's thumb and the soft layer of chestnut were especially effective against not only fluorescent AGEs, but also the intermediates of AGEs such as 3-DG, GO and MGO.

Conclusions: Among the 73 kinds of plant extracts, we demonstrated that lady's thumb and the soft layer of chestnut have potent anti-glycation activity against HSA and collagens.

KEY WORDS: glycation, locomotive syndrome, collagen, plant extract, advanced glycation end products (AGEs)

Introduction

Locomotive organs such as muscular, joint and bone decline with age. In 2007, Japanese Orthopedic Association proposed the concept in which the comprehensive symptoms due to the failure of locomotive organs as locomotive syndrome^{1,2)}. Locomotive syndrome reduce people's mobility and increases the risk of falls. It may cause bone fracture, leading to further muscle weakness due to mobility limitation. Now a days, the percentage of people aged over 65 years old reached over 25% in the Japanese population. Thus, the prevention of age-related diseases, including locomotive syndrome, is beneficial for the protection of elderly people's health and quality of life (OOL).

Collagen is one of the most abundant proteins in the body and 28 types of collagen have been identified in

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vertebrates³⁾. Type I collagen is abundant in bone, cornea, dermis and tendon and type II collagen is component protein of hyaline cartilage in joint and vitreous body. The amount of collagens declines with age⁴). Thus, protecting the quality of collagens is one of the important methods to prevent bone and joint diseases.

Advanced glycation end products (AGEs) are formed by glycation, non-enzymatic reaction between proteins and reducing sugars and accumulated with age. Not only do AGEs bound proteins possibly lose their functions, but the AGEs themselves induce inflammation in organs. Several lines of evidence indicated that the accumulation of AGEs is associated with age-related diseases such as cancer⁵), diabetes mellitus⁶, Alzheimer's disease^{7,8} and cardiovascular disease⁹⁾. Moreover, the accumulation of AGEs, loss of bone

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stiffness and elasticity due to formation of unnecessary crosslink in bone collagens. It may cause of osteoporosis¹⁰ and osteoarthritis¹¹. To protect against the accumulation of AGEs in organs, several chemical inhibitors have been established, however, none were approved in Japan due to serious side effects.

Over a couple of years we evaluated over 500 kinds of food materials against fluorescent AGE formation in human serum albumin (HSA) with glucose reaction model and we listed their IC50 ¹²⁻¹⁶. However, we also demonstrated that the pattern of formed AGEs were different in each protein¹⁵), thus anti-glycative effect of food materials might be different in each protein. In this study, we evaluates food materials against the formation of AGEs and its intermediates in not only HSA but also both type I and type II collagens.

Materials and Methods

Materials

HSA was purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (St. Louis, MO), type I collagen was obtained from Nippi (Tokyo, Japan) and type II collagen was provided from Elastin Products Company (Owensville, MO). All other chemicals were obtained from Wako (Osaka, Japan) or Dojindo (Kumamoto, Japan) for analytical grade.

Preparation of plants extract

The samples used were 38 varieties of vegetables and 35 varieties of fruit which are previously described for their inhibitory effect against fluorescent AGE formation in HSA with glucose model^{13,14}. Samples were dried and ground, and then, 2 g of the powdered samples were mixed with 40 mL of distilled water. After incubation at 80 °C for 75 minutes, the extracted samples were centrifuged at 2,300 x g for 10 minutes and filtered using filter paper. Five mL of the plant extracts were used for measurement of solid content by evaporation, and then, leftover samples were adjusted at 10 mg/mL solid content using distilled water.

Preparation of glycated proteins

Three glycation models, i) HSA with glucose (glc-HSA), ii) type I collagen with fructose (fru-collagen I) and iii) type II collagen with fructose (fru-collagen II) were used. Briefly, i) 8 mg/mL HSA was mixed with 0.2 mol/L glucose in 50 mmol/L phosphate buffer (PB, pH 7.4) and incubated at 60 °C for 40 hours, ii) and iii) 0.6 mg/mL collagen with 0.4 mol/L fructose in 50 mmol/L PB (pH 7.4) were incubated at 60 °C for 24 hours (named "solution A"). To determine the effects of vegetables or fruit extract on glycation, 1 mg/mL solid content of the plant extracts were used instead of the same volume of distilled water (solution B). As a positive control, 0.1 mg/mL aminoguanidine (AG) was used.

Measurement of AGEs-derived fluorescence

AGEs-derived fluorescence was measured as previously described ¹⁷). Briefly, 200 μ L of the reaction mixture was used to measure fluorescence at an excitation wavelength of 370 nm and an emission wavelength of 440 nm by a Varioscan® Flash (Thermo Scientific, Waltham, MA) microplate reader. The value was calculated using the equation below.

Inhibition of AGEs-derived fluorescence [%] = [1 - {fluorescence of (solution B) /fluorescence of (solution A)}] x 100

Measurement of intermediates of AGEs

Three kinds of AGE intermediates, 3-deoxyglucosone (3-DG), glyoxal (GO) and methylglyoxal (MGO), were measured using a Shimadzu high-performance liquid chromatography ultraviolet(HPLC-UV) system (Shimadzu Corporation, Kyoto, Japan). Samples were prepared as previously described ¹⁷⁾. Briefly, reaction mixtures were deproteinized using 6% perchrolic acid. After centrifugation, the supernatant was immediately neutralized by excess amounts of sodium bicarbonate. Then, 3-DG, GO and MGO were labeled with 2,3-diaminonaphthalene for 24 hours at 4 °C. The HPLC conditions were as follows; Column, UnisonUK - Phenyl, 75 mm x 3 mm I.D. column (Imtakt Corp, Kyoto, Japan); eluent, 50 mmol/L phosphoric acid and acetonitrile = 89:11. The flow rate and detection wavelengths were 1.0 mL/minute and 268 nm.

Statistics

Data were expressed as mean \pm SD of at least three independent experiments. The statistical analyses were performed by an analysis of variance (ANOVA) using Dunnett's test for multiple comparisons between each of the samples and the control group. Differences were considered significant at p values less than 0.05.

Results

Effect of plant extract on fluorescent AGEs formation in HSA with glucose model.

First, we investigated that the effect of vegetable and fruit extracts on fluorescent AGEs formation in glc-HSA model at 1 mg/mL solid content of plant extracts. After 40 hours of incubation at 60 °C, fluorescent AGEs were measured at 370/440 nm, the characteristic wavelength of those. All 73 plant extracts significantly inhibited fluorescent AGE formation (*Table 1*). Eighteen kinds of plants inhibited fluorescent AGEs formation over 40 % and 64 kinds of those inhibited over 20 %

Effect of plant extract on fluorescent AGE formation in collagen with fructose models.

Based on the efficacy of plant extracts in the glc-HSA glycation model, we selected the top 20 plant extracts and further evaluated the effects of those on fru-collagen I and fru-collagen II glycation models. All 20 plant extracts significantly inhibited fluorescent AGEs for both fru-collagen I and fru-collagen II glycation models (*Table 2, 3*). Notably, 9 kinds of plant extracts, Chinese quince, chestnut (soft layer), chrysanthemum (petal), raspberry, reddish black rice, lady's thumb and peel of 3 kinds of apples (sanjyonagold, kogyoku and toki), decreased the glycation-derived fluorescent AGEs by over 80 % in both types of collagens at 1 mg/mL of solid content.

anking	English name	Part	Japanese name	Scientific name	Inhibition of fluorescent AGEs [9
	Aminoguanigine 0.1 mg/ml				53.10 ± 1.46
1	Chestnut	soft layer	Kuri	Castanea crenata	79.73 ± 0.05
2	Chestnut	outer skin	Kuri	Castanea crenata	75.20 ± 0.15
3	Lady's thumb		Tade	Polygonum hydropiper	73.61 ± 0.29
4	Pomegranate	peel	Zakuro	Punica granatum	62.87 ± 0.16
5	Chrysanthemum (yellow)	petal	Shokuyo-kiku	Chrysanthemum morifolium	62.14 ± 0.09
6	Water chestnut	outer skin	To-Bishi	Trapa bicornis	50.69 ± 0.29
7	Chinese quince		Karin	Pseudocydonia sinensis	49.87 ± 0.26
8	Belvedere fruit		Tonburi	Bassia scoparia	49.32 ± 0.10
9	Malabar spinach		Tsurumurasaki	Basella alba	48.97 ± 0.06
10	Apple : toki	peel	Ringo: Toki	Malus domestica	46.44 ± 0.30
11	Rosemary		Rosemary	Rosmarinus officinalis	45.20 ± 0.36
12	Citrus sudachi	peel	Sudachi	Citrus sudachi	44.69 ± 0.41
13	Apple : san-jyonagold	peel	Ringo: San-jyonagold	Malus domestica	44.34 ± 0.20
14	Citrus sudachi	pulp	Sudachi	Citrus sudachi	43.89 ± 0.39
15	Nalta jute		Moroheiya	Corchorus olitorius	42.86 ± 0.49
16	Apple : kogyoku	peel	Ringo: Kogyoku	Malus domestica	41.59 ± 0.37
17	Lemon		Lemon	Citrus x limonium	41.56 ± 0.41
18	Reddish black rice		Kuro-mai	Oryza sativa	40.14 ± 0.36
19	Raspberry		Raspberry	Rubus idaeus	39.99 ± 0.71
20	Red-kernelled rice		Aka-mai	Oryza sativa	39.66 ± 0.13
21	Ostrich fern		Kogomi	Matteuccia struthiopteris	37.81 ± 0.34
22	Rucola		Rukkora	Eruca vesicaria	37.06 ± 0.52
23	Apple : hokuto	peel	Ringo: Hokuto	Malus domestica	37.03 ± 0.50
24	Red rhubarb		Aka-rubabu	Rheum rhabarbatum	36.81 ± 0.41
25	Lime		Lime	Citrus aurantifolia	35.72 ± 1.94
26	Shirona Chinese cabbage		Shiro-na	Brassica rapa	35.62 ± 0.37
27	Apple : jyonagold	peel	Ringo: Jyonagold	Malus domestica	35.55 ± 0.60
28	Butterbur scape	peel	Fukinotou	Patasites Japonicus	35.49 ± 0.23
29	Pea	pod	Endou-mame	Pisum sativum	35.47 ± 1.09
30	Red giant elephant ear		Beni-zuiki	Colocasia gigantean	34.84 ± 0.36
31	Apple : yoko	peel	Ringo: Youkou	Malus domestica	34.56 ± 0.59
32	Japanese staunton-vine		Mube	Stauntonia hexaphylla	34.55 ± 0.30
33	Apple : san-fuji	peel	Ringo: San-fuji	Malus domestica	34.02 ± 0.26
34	Variety of wild mustard		Mibu-na	Brassica rapa	34.01 ± 0.16
35	Black-eyed pea		Sasage	Vigna unguiculata	33.91 ± 0.55
36	Black soybean		Kuro-mame	Glycine max	33.46 ± 0.79

Table 1. Inhibitory effect of plant compounds on HSA-derived fluorescent AGE formation

Ranking	English name	Part	Japanese name	Scientific name	Inhibition of fluorescent AGEs [%]
37	Apple : fuji	peel	Ringo: Fuji	Malus domestica	33.36 ± 0.53
38	Pak choy		Chingen-sai	Brassica rapa	33.30 ± 0.45
39	Apple : akibae	peel	Ringo: Akibae	Malus domestica	33.26 ± 0.27
40	Apple : alps-otome	peel	Ringo: Alpus-otome	Malus domestica	32.74 ± 0.52
41	Apple : mutsu	peel	Ringo: Mutsu	Malus domestica	32.60 ± 0.49
42	Saltwort		Wakame-okahijiki	Salsola komarovii	32.24 ± 0.32
43	blueberry		blueberry	Vaccinium corybosum	31.56 ± 0.37
44	Chinese yam		Yamato-imo	Dioscorea batatas	31.41 ± 0.65
45	Azuki bean		Azuki	Vigna angularis	30.19 ± 0.39
46	Apple : orin	peel	Ringo: Ourin	Malus domestica	30.18 ± 0.44
47	Red cabbage		Aka-kyabetu	Brassica oleracea	29.95 ± 1.02
48	Apple : sekaiichi	peel	Ringo: Sekaiichi	Malus domestica	28.75 ± 0.63
49	Passion fruit		Passion fruit	Passiflora edulis	28.62 ± 1.14
50	Strawberries		Ichigo	Fragaria x ananassa	28.11 ± 0.82
51	Scallion		Wakegi	Allium fistulosum	27.57 ± 0.72
52	Citrus hassaku	peel	Hassaku	Citrus haisaku	27.17 ± 0.25
53	Zabon (pomelo)	peel	Zabon	Citrus maxima	26.72 ± 0.96
54	Peach		Momo	Prunus persica	26.49 ± 0.81
55	Wasabi leaves		Wasabi-na	Brassica juncea	26.44 ± 0.50
56	Water chestnut	nut	To-Bishi	Trapa bicornis	25.75 ± 1.30
57	Plum		Sumomo	Prunus domestica	25.30 ± 1.39
58	Red kidney beans		Kintoki-mame	Phaseolus vulgaris	25.24 ± 1.80
59	Mizuna (potherb mustard)		Mizu-na	Brassica rapa	24.97 ± 0.46
60	Chestnut	nut	Kuri	Castanea crenata	23.48 ± 0.58
61	Pecan nuts		Pecan	Carya illinoinensis	22.91 ± 0.68
62	Pomegranate	pulp	Zakuro	Punica granatum	22.83 ± 1.39
63	White mushroom		White mushroom	Agaricus bisporus	22.61 ± 2.03
64	Citrus buntan	peel	Buntan	Citrus grandis	21.11 ± 0.82
65	Yuzu	peel	Yuzu	Citrus junos	19.60 ± 0.84
66	Mangosteen	pulp	Mangosteen	Garcinia mangostana	19.16 ± 1.29
67	Pineapple		Pineapple	Ananas comosus	18.70 ± 1.65
68	King oyster		Eringi	Pleurotus eryngii	14.15 ± 1.33
69	Grapefruit (red)		Red grapefruit	Citrus x paradisi	13.69 ± 0.56
70	Spinach		Horenso	Spinacia oleracea	13.00 ± 0.59
71	Mango		Mango	Mangifera indica	12.16 ± 1.57
72	Horseradish		Seiyou-wasabi	Armoracia rusticana	11.28 ± 0.98
73	Soybean		Daizu	Glycine max	9.23 ± 1.67

Table 1. Inhibitory effect of plant compounds on HSA-derived fluorescent AGE formation (continued)

The results are expressed as mean ± SD of 3 experiments. HSA, human serum albumin; AGEs, advanced glycation end products; SD, standard deviation.

Ranking	English name	Part	Japanese name	Scientific name	Inhibition of fluorescent AGEs [%]
	Aminoguanigine 0.1 mg/ml				56.69 ± 0.58
1	Chinese quince		Karin	Pseudocydonia sinensis	92.71 ± 0.20
2	Apple : san-jyonagold	peel	Ringo: San-jyonagold	Malus domestica	91.65 ± 0.18
3	Apple : kogyoku	peel	Ringo: Kogyoku	Malus domestica	89.77 ± 0.29
4	Apple : toki	peel	Ringo: Toki	Malus domestica	89.48 ± 0.09
5	Chestnut	soft layer	Kuri	Castanea crenata	87.86 ± 0.12
6	Chrysanthemum (yellow)	petal	Shokuyo-kiku	Chrysanthemum morifolium	85.55 ± 0.23
7	Raspberry		Raspberry	Rubus idaeus	83.42 ± 0.29
8	Reddish black rice		Kuro-mai	Oryza sativa	82.45 ± 0.38
9	Lady's thumb		Tade	Polygonum hydropiper	81.40 ± 0.09
10	Chestnut	outer skin	Kuri	Castanea crenata	77.13 ± 0.80
11	Pomegranate	peel	Zakuro	Punica granatum	74.79 ± 0.28
12	Rosemary		Rosemary	Rosmarinus officinalis	70.79 ± 0.22
13	Nalta jute		Moroheiya	Corchorus olitorius	70.41 ± 0.24
14	Belvedere fruit		Tonburi	Bassia scoparia	69.32 ± 0.29
15	Water chestnut	outer skin	To-Bishi	Trapa bicornis	63.44 ± 0.54
16	Lemon		Lemon	Citrus x limonium	60.69 ± 0.95
17	Citrus sudachi	peel	Sudachi	Citrus sudachi	57.07 ± 0.83
18	Red-kernelled rice		Aka-mai	Oryza sativa	47.22 ± 0.82
19	Malabar spinach		Tsurumurasaki	Basella alba	25.96 ± 1.21
20	Citrus sudachi	pulp	Sudachi	Citrus sudachi	25.86 ± 0.72

Table 2. Inhibitory effect of plant compounds on type I collagen-derived fluorescent AGE formation

The results are expressed as mean ± SD of 3 experiments. AGEs, advanced glycation end products; SD, standard deviation.

Ranking	English name	Part	Japanese name	Scientific name	Inhibition of fluorescent AGEs [%]
	Aminoguanigine 0.1 mg/ml				60.33 ± 1.06
1	Chinese quince		Karin	Pseudocydonia sinensis	92.47 ± 0.10
2	Apple : toki	peel	Ringo: Toki	Malus domestica	92.26 ± 0.07
3	Apple : san-jyonagold	peel	Ringo: San-jyonagold	Malus domestica	92.21 ± 0.10
4	Apple : kogyoku	peel	Ringo: Kogyoku	Malus domestica	91.07 ± 0.14
5	Chrysanthemum (yellow)	petal	Shokuyo-kiku	Chrysanthemum morifolium	88.99 ± 0.13
6	Chestnut	soft layer	Kuri	Castanea crenata	87.84 ± 0.12
7	Raspberry		Raspberry	Rubus idaeus	87.19 ± 0.23
8	Lady's thumb		Tade	Polygonum hydropiper	86.09 ± 0.06
9	Reddish black rice		Kuro-mai	Oryza sativa	82.21 ± 0.44
10	Pomegranate	peel	Zakuro	Punica granatum	80.18 ± 0.44
11	Citrus sudachi	pulp	Sudachi	Citrus sudachi	79.50 ± 0.24
12	Lemon		Lemon	Citrus x limonium	78.29 ± 0.54
13	Chestnut	outer skin	Kuri	Castanea crenata	76.20 ± 0.29
14	Rosemary		Rosemary	Rosmarinus officinalis	74.81 ± 0.27
15	Belvedere fruit		Tonburi	Bassia scoparia	72.83 ± 0.42
16	Water chestnut	outer skin	To-Bishi	Trapa bicornis	72.14 ± 0.62
17	Nalta jute		Moroheiya	Corchorus olitorius	71.98 ± 0.28
18	Citrus sudachi	peel	Sudachi	Citrus sudachi	63.97 ± 0.74
19	Red-kernelled rice		Aka-mai	Oryza sativa	32.03 ± 1.47
20	Malabar spinach		Tsurumurasaki	Basella alba	30.48 ± 1.02

Table 3. Inhibitory effect of plant compounds on type II collagen-derived fluorescent AGEs formation

The results are expressed as mean ± SD of 3 experiments. AGEs, advanced glycation end products; SD, standard deviation.

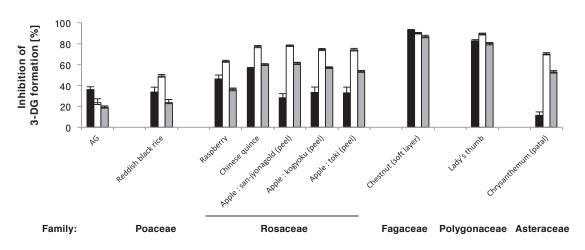
Effect of plant extract on formation of intermediate of AGEs in 3 different glycation models.

Through 3 types of proteins and sugar models, we demonstrated that 9 kinds of plant extracts were markedly effective against fluorescent AGE formation in HSA and collagens. Next, we further evaluated the efficacy of those 9 plant extracts against the formation of AGE intermediates. In the process of AGE formation, various kinds of intermediates are produced and accumulated in the body. Among a large number of AGE intermediates, we measured three different kinds of intermediates such as 3-DG, GO and MGO by HPLC-UV analyses. As shown in Fig. 1-A and 1-B, 3-DG and GO were significantly reduced by all 9 plant extracts across all 3 glycation models. In particular, GO was markedly abolished by plant extracts except for reddish black rice (Fig. 1-B). About MGO formation, plant extract was highly effective in the glc-HSA model, however, chrysanthemum (petal), raspberry and peel of toki apple did not affect MGO formation in fru-collagen I model (Fig. 1-C). Reddish black rice inhibited neither type I nor type II collagen-derived MGO formation, while it inhibited MGO formation in the glc-HSA model (*Fig. 1-C*). The overall results suggested that lady's thumb and the soft layer of chestnut were highly effective against the formation of AGE intermediates in all 3 glycation models.

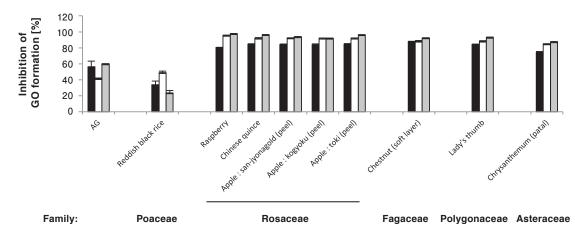
Discussion

The average life span has become prolonged in the world, especially in Japan with the longest life expectancy country in 2016 at 83.7 years old ¹⁸⁾. However, a gap between total life span and healthy life years is around 9 years for males and 12 years for females ¹⁹⁾. Osteoarthritis (OA) and osteoporosis (OP) are known to be major painful health problems in the joints and bones of the elderly, impairing their activity of





B. GO



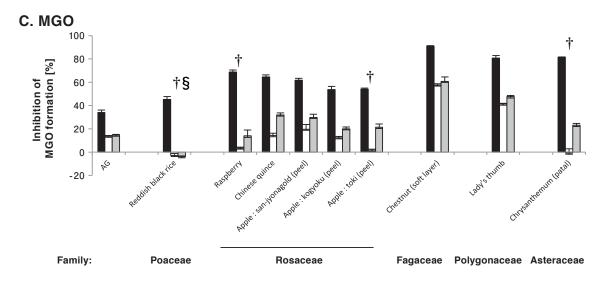


Fig. 1. Effect of plant extracts on the intermediates of AGE formation in various glycation models.

One mg/mL solid content of plant extracts were used to determine the inhibitory effect of plant extracts on the intermediates of AGE formation. HPLC-UV analyses were performed to detect (A) 3-DG (B) GO and (C) MGO. Aminoguanidine (0.1 mg/mL) was used as a positive control. Black bar; glc-HSA model, white bar; fru-collagen I model and grey bar; fru-collagen II model. All data were shown as the mean \pm SD (n = 3) of the inhibition ratios against water. \dagger no significance vs. water in fru-collagen I model, § no significance vs. water in fru-collagen II model and rest of those were p < 0.01 vs. water. AGE, advanced glycation end product; HPLC, high performance liquid chromatography; UV, ultraviolet; 3-DG, deoxyglucosone; GO, glyoxal; MGO, methylglyoxal; glc, glucose; HSA, human serum albumin; fru, fructose; SD, standard deviation.

daily life (ADL) and QOL. Based on the cohort study entitled research on osteoarthritis/osteoporosis against disability (ROAD) in 2005, Yoshimura *et al.* estimated that a total of 47 million people are affected by either OA or OP in Japan²⁰⁾. Thus, to protect people from the pain and disability coming from OA and OP, this is an important approach for the extension of a healthy life expectancy in an aging society.

The glycation of bone collagen is one of the contributing factors for the loss of bone stiffness and resilience. One of the cross-linking AGEs, pentosidine, is accumulated in the bone of OP patients ^{21,22}. Furthermore, in canine anterior cruciate ligament transection (ACLT) by which the experimental OA model is conducted, intraarticular injections of one of the reducing sugar, ribose accelerated OA with enhanced cartilage AGE levels ²³. Therefore, protecting bone collagens against glycation may contribute to the prevention of OP and OA.

We have evaluated over 500 kinds of food materials against fluorescent AGE formation in HSA¹²⁻¹⁶. In the present study, we initially choose 73 kinds of plants from these studies to evaluate their anti-glycative effect against collagens. HSA is one of the most abundant proteins in blood, it is frequently exposed to blood glucose consecutively. Vaculík *et al.* demonstrated that blood pentosidine levels correlate with bone pentosidine levels and it is higher in OA patients²⁴. Also type 2 diabetes is considered as an additional risk factor for OA and bone fracture ^{25,26}. Thus, the aim of this study is to investigate plants which have an efficacy against glycation for not only bone collagens, but also HSA.

We evaluated the effect of 1 mg/mL plant extracts on fluorescent AGEs in HSA, type I collagen and type II collagen (Table 1-3). Chestnut, lady's thumb, pomegranate peel and chrysanthemum petal (yellow) strongly inhibited fluorescent AGE formation in all 3 glycation models. Chrysanthemum contains luteolin, which is the flavone already reported about its anti-glycative efficacy²⁷⁾. Polyphenols in pomegranate such as ellagitannin, punicalagin and urolithin are also known to have a potent anti-glycative effect ^{28,29}. On the other hand, Rosaceae family such as Chinese quince and apple peel (sanjyonagold, kogyoku and toki) showed a potent effect against fluorescent AGE formation in collagens, while weaker in HSA. Procyanidins are oligomeric flavonoids such as catechin and epi-cathechin in variety of plants including apple and Chinese quince. Procyanidin B2 is involved in AGE inhibition in soluble proteins from goat lens³⁰⁾ and procyanidin oligomer inhibited the formation of pentosidine in collagen³¹⁾. Although the reason why the Rosaceae family is more effective against collagen-glycation model is unclear, He *et al.* demonstrated that procyanidin stabilizes collagen structure and improve its thermal stability³²⁾. These findings indicate that procyanidine in the *Rosaceae* family may be partially involved in the anti-glycative effect due to the stabilization of collagen structure, but further study in necessary to clarify the exact mechanisms.

Intermediates of AGEs such as 3-DG, GO and MGO are highly reactive compounds and these intermediates contribute to form different AGEs through different pathways. We investigated that 9 kinds of plant extract inhibited fluorescent AGE formation in all three proteins (Fig. 1). Lady's thumb and soft layer of chestnut showed a notably potent efficacy against intermediate for mation. The soft layer of chestnut contains polyphenols as 71% of its carbohydrates and majority of polyphenols exist as tannin³³⁾. Lady's thumb belongs to the Polygonaceae family and, including carotenoid, lutein is known to be an antioxidant³⁴⁾. In the process of AGE formation, proteins and sugars first form a Schiff base, then rearrange Amadori products and the intermediates of AGEs³⁵. Once their structures are cleaved by oxidation, various kinds of AGEs are formed. Therefore, antioxidants like polyphenols and lutein may contribute to inhibit the glycation pathway. However, in this study we used water to extract compounds from plants, and lutein has a low solubility in water. Our data indicate that lutein may contribute less against glycation in this condition, but further studies will be needed to determine the essential compounds in lady's thumb.

In conclusion, our study shows that lady's thumb and the soft layer of chestnut are potentially effective plants against glycation not only in serum albumin, but also collagen.

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Conflict of Interest Statement

The authors claim no conflict of interest in this study.

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