



## Involvement of Oxidative Stress in Cardiovascular Diseases

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### ABSTRACT

Many research studies support the evidence that free radicals stress is involved in the pathogenesis of many diseases in human and animals. The current review aimed to throw the light on sources of free radicals in the cardiovascular system, involvement of oxidative stress in cardiovascular diseases and the role of the antioxidants in alleviating the damage produced by oxidative stress.

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### Introduction

Cardiovascular diseases (CVD) are considered the principle cause of death in most countries (Hennekens, 1998). Elevated levels of oxidative stress markers were detected in numerous cardiovascular disorders in human including hypertension, ventricular hypertrophy, atherosclerosis and congestive heart failure (Carlos *et al.*, 1998; Keith *et al.*, 1998; Miller *et al.*, 1998; Suzuki *et al.*, 1998; Gokce *et al.*, 1999; Harjai, 1999; Miwa *et al.*, 1999; Buffon *et al.*, 2000). In addition, many studies have shown increases in biomarkers of oxidant production and/or decreases in antioxidant potential in cardiovascular disorders in animals (Chintala *et al.*, 1992 and Sagols and Priymenko, 2011).

Normally, oxygen is used by the mitochondria in the oxidative phosphorylation process and for the production of adenosine triphosphate (Abd Ellah, 2010). Lack of oxygen supply as in cases of hypoxia or ischemia upsets the mitochondrial electron transport chain, which consequently result in the accumulation of toxic metabolites, followed by cell death (Lemasters *et al.*, 1997). Reactive oxygen species (ROS) formed during mitochondrial electron transport are removed by the antioxidant defense. The intracellular antioxidant defense chain can be overwhelmed by the generation of huge

amounts of ROS, causing lipid peroxidation and DNA breaks (Ambrosio and Tritto, 1999).

### Sources of free radicals

Under normal physiological conditions, ROS are produced in low concentrations, which are helpful in regulating vascular smooth muscle cell contact, relaxation and growth. On the other hand, excess production of ROS could result in cardiac and vascular dysfunction.

Mitochondria represent the main source for ROS intracellularly under normal physiological conditions. Other sources include induction of cytosolic oxidases such as xanthine oxidase (XO), NADH/NADPH oxidase and nitric oxide synthase (NOS). XO generates superoxide anion, this enzyme is present mainly in the intestinal mucosa and in the liver. The activity of XO is enhanced during chronic hypoxia and in the presence of cytokines. It has been reported that activity of XO together with superoxide increased in the mesenteric tissue in animal model of hypertension, which may be responsible for intensifying vascular tone (Suzuki *et al.*, 1998), this assumption was supported by the findings of Houston *et al.* (1999), who suggested that XO could be concentrated several fold in the vascular tissues and may play significant role in dysfunction of the endothelium in atherosclerotic humans and hypercholesterolemic rabbits.

Free radicals are produced by many immune cells, which used to kill ingested pathogen as a means of host defense. These immune cells act as a source for production of oxidants

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in an acute inflammatory response. Infiltration of tissues especially with neutrophils during post ischemic reperfusion is associated with cell death and tissue injury, which caused by the secretion of ROS and proteolytic enzymes. This assumption was supported by the findings of Buerke *et al.* (1994), who observed that reperfusion cardiac injury in feline is reduced after inhibition of neutrophils migration.

Phagocytic cells play an important role in defense against infection by the release of large amount of superoxide that is formed by the enzyme NADH/NADPH oxidase. This enzyme is established to be the source for superoxide production in the vascular tissues (Bayraktutan *et al.*, 1998; Di Wang *et al.*, 1999), under the effect of angiotensin II, higher production of superoxide has been involved in the pathogenesis of angiotensin II induced vascular hypertrophy and endothelial cell dysfunction (Griendling *et al.*, 1994; Rajagopalan *et al.*, 1996; Ushio-Fukai *et al.*, 1998; Watta-napitayakul *et al.*, 2000).

### Oxidative stress in cardiovascular diseases

Oxidative stress was reported to be involved in the pathogenesis of many cardiovascular diseases, including myocardial infarction (MI), coronary disease, congestive heart failure (Mak and Weglicki, 1990; Belch *et al.*, 1991; Kaul *et al.*, 1993; McMurray *et al.*, 1993; Nakamura *et al.*, 2001; Serdar *et al.*, 2001; Freeman *et al.*, 2005; Giordano, 2005; Wojciechowska *et al.*, 2014) and in the pathophysiology of atherosclerosis (Moreno and Fuster, 2004), diabetic cardiomyopathy (Bugger and Abel, 2010; Khullar *et al.*, 2010), congestive cardiomyopathy (Pankuweit *et al.*, 2004) and hypertensive heart disease (Shahbaz *et al.*, 2010).

Reactive oxygen species have been implicated as a contributor to endothelial dysfunction, and reported to be a major cause of endothelial dysfunction in atherosclerosis (Cai and Harrison, 2000). Oxidative stress plays an important role in the pathogenesis of atherosclerosis through the production of ROS in the wall of the blood vessels, which could result in endothelial dysfunction (Channon and Guzik, 2002; Lee *et al.*, 2012) and may produce damage to the cellular components of the vascular wall. An experimental study done by Liao *et al.* (1994) revealed that ROS involved in the development of atherosclerosis through the production of lipid peroxidation products and in another study by activation of matrix metalloproteinases (Rajagopalan *et al.*, 1996).

Studies reported that increase the production of superoxide from the mitochondria in pathological conditions results in modification of mitochondrial DNA, which can lead to functional changes in the cell. Several studies have reported the presence of a correlation between DNA damage and atherosclerosis (Martinet *et al.*, 2001). Reportedly, ROS can inhibit the sarcoplasmic reticulum Ca<sup>2+</sup> pump in the cardiac contraction-relaxation cycle, which have direct impact on myocardial function (Matsubara and Dhalla, 1996; Temsah *et al.*, 1999).

Myocardial infarction was reduced in dogs infused with SOD and catalase after coronary occlusion and reperfusion, which suggested the involvement of free radicals such as superoxide anion and hydroxyl radicals (Jolly *et al.*, 1984), in ischemia-reperfusion injury (Bolli, 1988; Ferrari *et al.*, 1998).

Ischemic reperfusion was reported to cause functional and structural alterations in the myocardium (Bolli *et al.*, 1988). Moreover, Yasmin *et al.* (1997) demonstrated that reperfusion is associated with increased production of nitric oxide that interacts with superoxide anion to form peroxynitrite, which may play a role in the development of cardiac dysfunction. In addition, Randhawa and Singal (1992) documented the role of oxidative stress in myocardial stunning using spin-trap technique, where the production of free radicals was suppressed and myocardial stunning was attenuated after antioxidants

therapy (Bolli, 1988).

Several studies proved that cytokines like interleukin, tumor necrosis factor and growth factors are pro-oxidants were elevated in plasma in patients with heart disease (Torre-Amione *et al.*, 1996; Djurovic *et al.*, 1999; Ueda *et al.*, 1999; Ruotolo *et al.*, 2000), and mediate cardiac dysfunction through the production of nitric oxide (NO) (Schulz *et al.*, 1995; Wildhirt *et al.*, 1995; Sawyer and Colucci, 1998).

Oxidative stress has been reported to contribute in the development of cardiac dysfunction in experimental animals (Chen *et al.*, 2009; Ahmed *et al.*, 2010). The pathogenesis of heart failure subsequent to myocardial infarction (MI) in rats was attributed to the involvement of free radicals, which resulted in changes in myocardial antioxidants with a state of oxidative stress, and lipid peroxidation in the early stage. In late stages of MI, the activities of glutathione peroxidase (GSH-Px), catalase, superoxide dismutase (SOD) and the vitamin E level in the myocardial tissues were decreased as reported by Hill and Singal (1996).

In an experimental study on animals, the levels of antioxidants were measured in the two ventricles during the sequelae of heart failure, oxidative stress was developed firstly in the left ventricle, followed by decrease antioxidants levels in the right ventricle in chronic stage of the disease (Hill and Singal, 1996, 1997). In vitro studies by Cheng *et al.* (1995) and Pimentel *et al.* (2001), ROS production was increased during overstretching of cardiomyocytes, which may be involved in mediating contractile dysfunction. Furthermore, in an experimental induction of heart failure in guinea pigs, done by Dhalla *et al.* (1996), the authors observed that increased oxidative stress was occurred in the transition phase from myocardial hypertrophy to heart failure. In another study in a guinea pig model of heart failure subsequent to banding of the ascending aorta, myocardial antioxidant reserve in the form of SOD and GSHPx was decreased, which associated with increased oxidative stress (Randhawa and Singal, 1992), the authors added that, hypertrophy of the myocardial muscles was developed at ten weeks and heart failure at 20 weeks post surgery.

In vitro studies revealed that exposure of isolated perfused hearts to free radicals resulted in decreased high energy phosphates, structural abnormalities and difficulty in myocardial contraction (Burton *et al.*, 1984; Ytrehus *et al.*, 1986; Gupta and Singal, 1989). Auto-oxidation of catecholamines was found to initiate the production of free radicals and the development of cardiac dysfunction (Meerson, 1980; Singal *et al.*, 1982, 1983). Furthermore, the depression of calcium transport in the sarcoplasmic reticulum mediates the increased ROS in ischemia-reperfusion injury, as documented by Hess *et al.* (1983).

Several research studies had reported that exposure of cardiac preparations to free radical stress resulted in depressed cardiac contraction, diminishing of energy production and a state of lipid peroxidation (Mickelson *et al.*, 1988; Gupta and Singal, 1989; Kaul *et al.*, 1993). In another study, reduction of contractile function was correlated with decrease in SOD, glutathione and alpha tocopherol in the myocardial tissues, and associated with increased hydrogen peroxide and lipid peroxidation products (Gupta and Singal, 1989; Vaage, 1997).

### Markers of oxidative stress in cardiovascular diseases

Malondialdehyde (MDA), is one of the final products of lipid peroxidation, and mostly measured as a biomarker of oxidative stress (Valko *et al.*, 2007; Abd Ellah *et al.*, 2013). The degree of oxidative stress is evaluated by measuring the concentration of circulating oxidative products such as MDA

and oxidized low-density lipoproteins (oxLDL) (Betteridge, 2000; Braunwald, 2008). MDA is a mediator that produce the damaging effect of ROS on the cells of the cardiovascular system (Giordano, 2005), that was reported to increase in blood in case of heart failure in humans and animals (Mak and Weglicki, 1990; McMurray et al., 1990; Diaz-Velez et al., 1996; Freeman et al., 1999; Nakamura et al., 2001; Serdar, et al., 2001; Polidori et al., 2002; Boswood et al., 2008; Wojciechowska et al., 2014). A significant relationship between blood MDA level and heart disease was observed in dogs (Dhalla et al., 1996). In addition, the severity of heart failure was directly correlated with the increase in lipid peroxidation (Sobotka et al., 1993; Diaz-Velez et al., 1996). Moreover, increased MDA, SOD and glutathione levels were reported in congestive heart failure patients (Belch et al., 1991; McMurray et al., 1990; 1993).

Oxidized LDL (oxLDL) is known as a part of the atherosclerosis in humans (Witztum and Steinberg, 2001), which reported to increase in human patients with coronary artery disease. Moreover, oxLDL mediate apoptosis in human coronary smooth muscle cells (de Nigris et al., 2000; Sugamura and Keane, 2011). Blood oxLDL level has been proposed as a useful predictor of coronary disease and of mortality in human patients (Tsutsui et al., 2002; Wu et al., 2006).

### Role of antioxidants in cardiovascular diseases

Antioxidant vitamins, such as ascorbic acid, beta carotene and alpha tocopherol counteract the excess free radicals and thus prevent lipid peroxidation and diminish atherogenesis and the risk of coronary heart disease. Alpha tocopherol acts to protect polyunsaturated fatty acids from oxidation by interfering with the chain reaction of lipid peroxidation in the membrane ((Singal et al., 1982; Packer, 1991). Furthermore, it has the ability to limite myocardial necrosis (Axford-Gatley and Wilson, 1991), and could protect the myocardium from infarction, when given in combination with vitamin C, as observed in an experimental study in pigs (Klein et al., 1989), and also, help to correct the depression of antioxidants that reported to occur during ischemia nad hypoxia (Dhaliwal et al., 1991; Kirshenbaum and Singal, 1992). Furthermore, Cardiac depression during ischemia/reperfusion was prevented by using vitamin E and superoxide dismutase (SOD) (Nagel et al., 1997; Carrasquedo et al., 1999).

Vitamin E levels has been decreased in patients with coronary artery bypass graft therapy, which was associated with increased blood free radical levels (Grech et al., 1993). Treatment of atherosclerotic patients with vitamin E reduced the role of myocardial infarction (Stephens et al., 1996). Also, the risk of coronary artery disease in men and women was reduced after supplementing patients with vitamin E. On the other hand, the production of free radicals by thr neurophils was lowered after combined treatment of MI patients with vitamin C and E (Herbaczynska-Cedro et al., 1995). Furthermore, the infarct size was decreased, when a combination of vitamin A, C, E and Bet carotene administered to patients with MI (Singh et al., 1996). The protecting effect of vitamin E in case of MI, may be attributed to its antioxidants properties or due to its effect on smooth muscle cell proliferation that preserves endothelial function (Chatelain et al., 1993 and Ozer et al., 1995).

### Conclusion

Oxidative stress may be involved in many cardiovascular diseases including hypertension, ventricular hypertrophy, atherosclerosis, congestive heart failure, myocardial infarction, ischemic reperfusion injury, coronary diseases and diabetic cardiomyopathy. Antioxidants play an important role in releav-

ing the damage produced by free radical stress in the cardiovascular tissues.

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