

Diabetes Mellitus, Hypertension, and Cardiovascular Disease: Which Role for Oxidative Stress?

Dario Giugliano, Antonio Ceriello, and Giuseppe Paolisso

Accelerated atherosclerotic vascular disease is the leading cause of mortality in patients with diabetes mellitus. Endothelium-derived nitric oxide (NO) is a potent endogenous nitrovasodilator and plays a major role in modulation of vascular tone. Selective impairment of endothelium-dependent relaxation has been demonstrated in aortas of both nondiabetic animals exposed to elevated concentrations of glucose in vitro and insulin-dependent diabetic animals. The impaired NO release in experimentally induced diabetes may be prevented by a number of antioxidants. It has been hypothesized that oxygen-derived free radicals (OFR) generated during both glucose autooxidation and formation of advanced glycosylation end products may interfere with NO action and attenuate its vasodilatory activity. The oxidative injury may also be increased in diabetes mellitus because of a weakened defense due to reduced endogenous antioxidants (vitamin E, reduced glutathione [GSH]). A defective endothelium-dependent vascular relaxation has been found in animal models of hypertension and in hypertensive patients. An imbalance due to reduced production of NO or increased production of free radicals, mainly superoxide anion, may facilitate the development of an arterial functional spasm. Treatment with different antioxidants increases blood flow in the forearm and decreases blood pressure and viscosity in normal humans; vitamin E inhibits nonenzymatic glycosylation, oxidative stress, and red blood cell microviscosity in diabetic patients. Long-term randomized clinical trials of adequate size in secondary and primary prevention could support the free-radical hypothesis for diabetic vascular complications and the use of antioxidants to reduce the risk of coronary heart disease.

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MUCH ATTENTION has recently been paid to the clustering of powerful cardiovascular risk factors such as hypertension, hyperlipidemia, and diabetes mellitus in the same individuals. A metabolic syndrome, also referred to as syndrome X, has been proposed.¹ In its original description, insulin resistance was believed to be a common causative mechanism that linked hypertension pathogenetically to disorders in both carbohydrate and lipid metabolism. This review will develop the hypothesis that oxidative stress may play a role in the poor cardiovascular outlook of the diabetic patient. The argumentations herein discussed represent an updated and extended version of similar exercises previously published that dealt with nonenzymatic glycation of proteins and the production of free radicals² and the role of oxidative injury in the pathogenesis of hypertension.³

INSULIN HYPOTHESIS

The role of insulin in macrovascular diabetic complications, which has been extensively studied over the last few years, will be mentioned only briefly. The insulin hypothesis proposes that the compensatory hyperinsulinism that occurs with insulin resistance increases blood pressure through an increase of sodium retention, stimulation of nervous sympathetic activity, or both.⁴ Epidemiologic data that link hyperinsulinemia and hypertension seem to be associative rather than causal, but this is inconsistent. As reviewed by Jarrett,⁵ the epidemiologic evidence of this association has been flawed by inconsistencies and discrepancies between studies. Moreover, no difference in blood pressure was found between 70 patients with a histologically confirmed diagnosis of insulinoma and matched control subjects.⁶

There is strong evidence that acute physiologic increments in plasma insulin concentrations (euglycemic clamp) stimulate sympathetic noradrenergic activity, which is offset by its vasodilator action on skeletal muscle blood flow. These opposing hemodynamic effects of insulin help explain why acute physiologic hyperinsulinemia does not

elevate blood pressure in normal humans.⁷ Based on findings that increases in blood flow and glucose uptake after insulin infusion are inversely related to basal blood pressure, Baron et al⁸ propose that insulin resistance and hyperinsulinemia are markers of the hypertensive process in the muscle and not contributors to elevated blood pressure. This intriguing hypothesis also seems consistent with the reduced insulin clearance found in hypertensive patients.^{9,10}

An attenuation in the balance between the depressor and pressor effects of insulin could influence blood pressure regulation. A decreased insulin-mediated stimulation of skeletal muscle blood flow has been observed in obese subjects¹¹ and in patients with non-insulin-dependent diabetes mellitus (NIDDM).¹² Feldman and Bierbrier¹³ have recently reported that the potency of insulin as a venodilator was reduced by 79% in hypertensive patients and that vascular sensitivity to insulin decreased with increasing body weight and basal systolic blood pressure. Despite evidence that insulin resistance (present in obese subjects and in patients with NIDDM) and a predisposition to hypertension (supposed in hypertensive patients) attenuated the depressor action of insulin, at least four clinical studies failed to show any effect of acute physiologic hyperinsulinemia on blood pressure in obese insulin-resistant hypertensive patients.⁷ Many inconsistencies still remain, but insulin seems to be losing importance as a protagonist.

From the Department of Geriatrics and Metabolic Diseases, Second University of Naples, Naples; and Department of Experimental and Clinical Pathology, University of Udine, Udine, Italy.

Submitted February 16, 1994; accepted June 14, 1994.

Address reprint requests to Professor Dario Giugliano, Via Emilia, 1, 80021 Afragola (NA), Italy.

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GLUCOSE HYPOTHESIS

Hyperglycemia is the distinguishing feature of diabetes. Evidence that high glucose levels may play a role, via oxidative stress, in the cardiovascular complications of diabetic patients will be discussed.

The endothelium has been shown to release a substance that induces smooth muscle relaxation by increasing the production of cyclic guanosine monophosphate. This factor is called endothelium-derived relaxing factor, and nitric oxide (NO) is believed to be one such factor.¹⁴ The strongest evidence for a physiologic role of NO in humans lies in the results of intravenous injection of *N*^G-monomethyl-L-arginine, an inhibitor of NO formation from L-arginine, into the forearm. Such injections cause substantial vasoconstriction that lasts for 45 to 60 minutes unless it is reversed by L-arginine.¹⁵ Moreover, local forearm infusion of acetylcholine (ACh) causes vasodilation that is primarily due to stimulation of NO synthesis. Thus, vessels of healthy humans are continuously dilated by NO released from endothelial cells.

Exposure to elevated concentrations of glucose in vitro causes selective impairment of endothelium-dependent relaxation.¹⁶ Oxidative stress induced by hyperglycemia is implicated as a source of altered endothelium relaxation in diabetes. Tesfamariam and Cohen¹⁷ have shown, for example, that elevated glucose concentrations impair ACh-stimulated endothelium relaxation in vitro and that this impairment can be reversed by antioxidants, which include superoxide dismutase (SOD) and catalase. Similarly, in diabetic animals impairment of ACh relaxation in aortas was restored to normal by SOD. Others have recently reported that the transient endothelium-dependent relaxation in the aorta of streptozotocin-induced diabetic rats was due to accumulation of superoxide anion (O_2^-),¹⁸ which confirms previous reports that oxygen-derived free radicals (OFR) inactivate endothelium-derived releasing factors¹⁹ and selectively attenuate endothelium-dependent relaxation.^{20,21}

The inhibition of Na^+K^+ adenosine triphosphatase activity seen in endothelium-intact aortas from severely diabetic rabbits, as well as in aortic rings from normal rabbits incubated in high-glucose medium, may be due to a decrease in basal release of NO.²² High glucose concentrations have been reported to lengthen cell proliferation time and slightly increase cell death in cultured human endothelial cells derived from the umbilical vein.²³ Curcio and Ceriello²⁴ have shown that a hyperglycemia-induced delay in cell replication time that occurs in cultured human endothelial cells may be reversed by a number of antioxidants with different mechanisms of action, such as SOD, catalase, and reduced glutathione (GSH). A pathophysiologic link between hyperglycemia and development of endothelium dysfunctions through increased synthesis and/or release of OFR may be hypothesized.

FREE RADICALS AND DIABETES

One possible source of OFR in diabetes is autooxidation of glucose.²⁵ Glucose can oxidize, which generates free radicals, hydrogen peroxide, and reactive ketoaldehydes.

These last compounds may largely participate in the formation of glycated proteins, which are themselves a source of OFR.^{26,27} The term "glycoxidation products" has been coined by Baynes²⁸ to indicate autooxidation products, such as carboxymethyllysine and pentosidine, to stress the obligatory role of oxygen in their formation from Amadori products. These markers of glycoxidative damage accumulate on collagen as a function of age and glycemia. Unlike the levels of Amadori products, which may be in part spontaneously reversible, levels of carboxymethyllysine and pentosidine in skin from insulin-dependent diabetes mellitus (IDDM) patients are unaffected by improved glycemic control.²⁹ Moreover, quenching and inactivation of NO by advanced glycation end products in experimental diabetes has been described.³⁰

Impaired generation of naturally occurring antioxidants (vitamin E, vitamin C, and GSH) will also result in increased oxidative injury by failure of protective mechanisms. Increased flux of glucose through the polyol pathway, which is hyperactive in hyperglycemia,³¹ may deplete NADPH, which is required for generation of NO from arginine.³² Furthermore, increased oxidation of sorbitol to fructose increases the ratio of cytosolic NADH/NAD⁺. This redox imbalance, also referred to as hyperglycemic pseudohypoxia, augments production of O_2^- via reduction of PGG₂ to PGH₂ by prostaglandin hydroperoxidases that use NADH as a reducing cosubstrate³³ (Fig 1).

The possibility that OFR play a role in the pathogenesis of vascular complications of diabetes is suggested by studies that have shown that antioxidants such as vitamin E, SOD, catalase, GSH, and ascorbic acid are all decreased in diabetic tissues and blood.³⁴⁻³⁶ Moreover, elevated levels of OFR products in diabetic patients have been reported.³⁷⁻³⁹ In one study, the plasma concentration of O_2^- was elevated

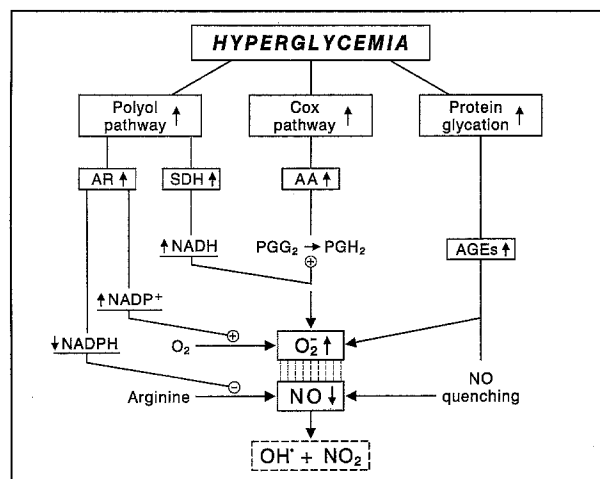


Fig 1. Possible mechanisms by which hyperactivity of some metabolic pathways strictly related to hyperglycemia may lead to upset of the balance between the two radicals O_2^- and NO. AR, aldose reductase; SDH, sorbitol dehydrogenase; Cox, cyclooxygenase; AA, arachidonic acid; PGG₂, prostaglandin G₂; PGH₂, prostaglandin H₂; OH•, hydroxyl radical; NO₂, nitrogen dioxide. Formation of OH• and NO₂ from decomposition of peroxynitrite has yet to be demonstrated in vivo.

in patients with IDDM, but showed a trend to normalization after strict metabolic control.³⁸ There was a strong correlation between plasma glucose concentrations and O_2^- concentrations in both normal subjects and diabetic patients over a wide range of glucose concentrations.

With this in mind, one would expect disturbed endothelium-dependent vascular relaxation in diabetes mellitus. Many⁴⁰⁻⁴⁴ but not all⁴⁵ recent studies have shown that endothelium-dependent vasodilation is abnormal in diabetic patients (both IDDM and NIDDM) and that this abnormality is caused by decreased release or activity of NO. Moreover, several properties of NO (inhibition of platelet aggregation, monocyte adhesion to endothelial cells, and smooth muscle cell proliferation) suggest that if its biosynthesis were reduced, this could predispose to atheroma.⁴⁶

Studies on effects of antioxidants in human diabetes are scanty. Pharmacologic vitamin E supplementation (900 mg/d for 4 months) in patients with NIDDM improves insulin action (nonoxidative glucose metabolism, mainly synthesis of glycogen), reduces oxidative stress (oxidized glutathione [GSSG]/GSH ratio decreased by 47%), and ameliorates red blood cell microviscosity.³⁹ These results confirm and extend previous studies⁴⁷ that found that daily oral vitamin E supplementation (600 or 1,200 mg) to IDDM subjects for 2 months reduced oxidative stress and protein glycation. An indirect mechanism by which vitamin E may reduce the unfavorable effects of OFR on endothelial function is through an increased production of the vasodilating prostaglandin PGI_2 , as demonstrated in cultured bovine aortic endothelial cells, where specific binding sites for D- α -tocopherol have also been found.⁴⁸ Interestingly enough and perhaps relevant to the vascular toxicity of hyperglycemia in human diabetes is the finding that high concentrations of glucose (16.8 or 22.4 mmol/L) reduce D- α -tocopherol binding through oxidative stress.

FREE RADICALS AND HYPERTENSION

Endothelium-dependent relaxation has been found to be impaired in animal models of hypertension.⁴⁹ Moreover, the frequency of endothelial cell death and associated endothelial permeability is significantly increased in the aorta of spontaneously hypertensive rats.⁵⁰ The response of forearm blood flow to ACh but not to sodium nitroprusside, an agent that produces vasodilation by direct activation of guanylate cyclase in vascular smooth muscle cells,⁵¹ was significantly reduced in 18 middle-aged hypertensive patients.⁵² Since ACh only produces an endothelium-mediated vasodilator response, a defect in endothelium-dependent vascular relaxation has been hypothesized. An acute antihypertensive effect of three structurally unrelated antioxidant agents, such as vitamin C, thiopronine (a substrate for glutathione synthesis), and glutathione, has been reported in hypertensive subjects, regardless of whether they are diabetic.⁵³ An imbalance due to reduced production of NO, as demonstrated in spontaneously hypertensive rats,⁴⁹ or increased destruction by a relative or absolute increase in O_2^- may facilitate the development of an arterial functional spasm. A physiologic role for O_2^- is

suggested by results of intravenous infusions of the three different antioxidants that have a vasodilating action in the skeletal muscle of the forearm in normal humans.⁵⁴ Thus, it seems likely that a continuous production of O_2^- offsets the vasodilatory action of NO, which allows the maintenance of a proper vascular tone.

FREE RADICALS AND AGING

The prevalence of diabetes (up to 12% after 65 years) and hypertension (up to 30% after 70 years) increases with age. Therefore, age may be a common factor that amplifies the association between diabetes and hypertension.

Paolisso et al⁵⁵ found significant increments of serum O_2^- with age associated with increases in both membrane viscosity and the GSSG/GSH ratio, as well as a reduction of total-body glucose disposal evaluated during euglycemic glucose clamp (1 mU/kg/min) with simultaneous D-³H-glucose infusion and indirect calorimetry. In the multivariate analysis, only O_2^- displayed an independent relationship with total-body glucose disposal and nonoxidative glucose metabolism. Elderly NIDDM patients who took vitamin E (900 mg/d) for 3 months demonstrated significant benefits on many parameters of both glucose (glycemia and hemoglobin A_{1c}) and lipid (triglycerides, low-density lipoprotein [LDL] cholesterol, and apoprotein A) metabolism.⁵⁶ Moreover, plasma O_2^- production and the GSSG/GSH ratio significantly decreased after vitamin E therapy (~40%). In another study,⁵⁷ elderly atherosclerotic patients showed decreased blood viscosity and improved blood filterability in response to exogenous glutathione (600 mg/d as intravenous infusion per 7 days).

PATHOGENETIC IMPLICATIONS

Treatment with different antioxidants improves many metabolic abnormalities reported to occur in diabetic subjects. Vitamin E and glutathione⁵⁸ ameliorate insulin sensitivity mainly by stimulation of nonoxidative glucose metabolism; short-term administrations of vitamin C, thiopronine, and GSH all increase resting blood flow in the forearm of normal and diabetic patients irrespective of the presence of hypertension, which suggests that a continuous basal production of O_2^- offsets the vasodilatory action of NO by quenching it; GSH ameliorates hemorrhheologic parameters in diabetic patients, atherosclerotic subjects, and normal people. Moreover, increased blood viscosity and platelet aggregation are found in hypertensive patients.⁵⁹ Thus, an increased production of OFR may be a cause of the increased cardiovascular morbidity and mortality found in diabetes mellitus.

CONCLUSIONS

Abnormalities of the NO/ O_2^- pathway have been demonstrated in humans with diabetes mellitus,^{53,54} essential hypertension,⁵² and hyperlipidemia.⁶⁰ A dysfunction of the NO/ O_2^- system may be a common mechanism by which such apparently diverse conditions result in similar chronic vascular complications. A diminished basal production or effect of NO, as well as an increased concentration or effect of O_2^- would tip the balance in favor of vasoconstriction

and blood hyperviscosity and thus favor the development of vaso-occlusive disorders at the level of coronary, cerebral, and peripheral vessels. Completing this gloomy scenario, OFR are capable of activation of coagulation and oxidation of LDL, and both hemostatic alterations⁶¹ and increased levels of plasma and tissue oxidized lipids⁶² are found in diabetic patients. Hyperlipidemia may alter the redox state of vascular smooth muscle⁶³ and thereby reduce the responsiveness of the vessel wall to nitrovasodilators. In fact, there are sulfhydryl groups associated with guanylate cyclase, the oxidation of which inactivates the enzyme.⁶⁴ In humans, the susceptibility of LDL to oxidation correlated with the severity of coronary stenosis in 35 male survivors of myocardial infarction,⁶⁵ and LDL from volunteers treated with alpha-tocopherol supplements (200 mg for 6 months) showed increased resistance to oxidation.⁶⁶ Although the antioxidant hypothesis of atherosclerosis is supported by experimental and epidemiologic data, it has not yet attained the status of a clinically validated hypothesis.⁶⁷

More than one third of NIDDM patients and half of IDDM patients remain free of hypertension throughout their lives; the suggested chain of events that links high

blood glucose to hypertension may only occur in patients who also have other risk factors for hypertension, eg, a family history or increased Na^+ - Li^+ countertransport.⁶⁸ Moreover, diabetic patients with hypertension seem more susceptible than diabetic subjects without hypertension to the blood pressure-increasing effects of OFR generated by glucose.⁶⁹ On the other hand, alterations of blood rheology, blood-flow response to ACh, coagulative parameters, and lipidemic pattern may be present in the majority of diabetic patients.

Recent epidemiologic and clinical evidence supports a role for hyperglycemia in the increased cardiovascular morbidity and mortality found in human diabetes.⁷⁰⁻⁷³ Increased plasma and tissue glucose levels may be one important source of the increased oxidative stress seen in diabetic patients. Although more than one factor may be involved, as the beneficial effects of vitamin E on vasculature unrelated to its antioxidant capability seem to suggest,⁴⁸ the evidence that OFR are implicated in the endothelial dysfunction of diabetic patients is growing and may offer novel therapeutic approaches.

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