

Federico Cacciapuoti*

Department of Internal Medicine and Geriatric Cardiology, Second University of Naples-Italy

Dates: Received: 13 January, 2016; Accepted: 23 January, 2016; Published: 25 January, 2016

*Corresponding author: Federico Cacciapuoti, MD, PhD, Dept. Internal Medicine and Geriatrics, Second University of Naples, Piazza L. Miraglia, 280138. Naples-Italy, E-mail: federico.cacciapuoti@unina2.it

www.peertechz.com

Keywords: Aerobic respiration; Oxidative stress; Reactive oxygen species; Antioxidants; Human pathologies

ISSN: 2455-2976

Review Article

Oxidative Stress as “Mother” of Many Human Diseases at Strong Clinical Impact

Abstract

Oxidative stress, characterized by the production in excess of free radicals, is the main aspect of all living systems which use oxygen to convert biochemical energy coming from nutrients into adenosine triphosphate. In turn free radicals, also called reactive oxygen species, induce oxidative damage to some cellular macromolecules, as lipids, proteins, and DNA. Increased reactive oxygen species serum concentration has been implicated in the pathogenesis of some, common human diseases, included both healthy and diseased ageing. The most frequent pathologies involved are: atherosclerosis, cancer, Alzheimer's and Parkinson's Diseases and chronic obstructive pulmonary disease. Together with these, other, less frequent diseases can be interested, as chronic fatigue syndrome, lateral amyotrophic sclerosis and skin diseases. Therefore oxidative stress, that is an imbalance of an essential biochemical reaction physiologically happening in the human body, can be considered as one of the sources of the most common human pathologies and of the aging process.

Abbreviations

AD: Alzheimer's disease; ALS: Amyotrophic Lateral Sclerosis; CFS: Chronic Fatigue Syndrome; COPD: Chronic Obstructive Pulmonary Disease; EGFR: Epidermal Growth Factor Receptor; LDL: Low Density Lipoprotein; OS: Oxidative Stress; NAD: Nicotinamide Dinucleotide; NO: Nitric Oxide; PD: Parkinson's Disease; ROS: Reactive Oxygen Species; SOD-1: Super Oxide Dismutase-1; T2DM: Type 2 Diabetes Mellitus; VEGFR: Vascular Endothelial Factor Receptor; VSMC: Vascular Smooth Muscle Cell;

Introduction

Likewise the 1991 Gulf War, known as a “mother of all battles”, oxidative stress (OS) can be considered as a “mother” of many human diseases life threatening. OS is a condition in which oxidation exceeds the anti-oxidant reactions, causing an imbalance between oxidative and anti-oxidant systems, with prevalence of reactive oxygen species ROS [1-5]. These include: peroxide, superoxide, hydroxyl radical, singlet oxygen and others. Under normal conditions ROS are maintained at physiological levels by several endogenous antioxidant systems, as superoxide dismutase, catalase, glutathione peroxidases, lacto-peptidases, glutathione reductase and others [6]. However, if active ROS are excessively generated, the balance between the formation and the removal of these species is lost. Generating oxidative damage (disruption between antioxidant defenses and ROS production) [7]. ROS can be generated from both endogenous and exogenous sources. Endogenous ROS are produced in normal metabolic reactions. Exogenous ROS derive by exposure to cigarette smoke, environmental pollutants, consumption of alcohol in excess, exposure to ionizing radiations, viral and bacterial infections, and others [8]. Individual, hereditary factors, and lifestyle are the main determinants of OS. Useful methods to evaluate OS include [9,10]. A) Measurement of ROS; B) Detection of oxidized DNA and lipids;

C) Quantification of anti-oxidants. These ROS can attack some molecules in biological membranes and tissues, thus inducing various diseases [7,11]. Afterwards, we refer on some pathologies favored by detrimental effects of ROS, responsible for morbidity and death of total population [12-19]. We also refer on healthy ageing connected to OS in different ways [20,21] (Figure 1).

Atherosclerosis

Atherosclerosis is the result of the oxidation of the low density lipoproteins (LDL) present in the arterial wall and produced by ROS. The LDL-oxidation induces, in turn, the expression of adhesion-molecules, the proliferation and migration of smooth muscle cells, the oxidation of lipids, the endothelial dysfunction (apoptosis) and

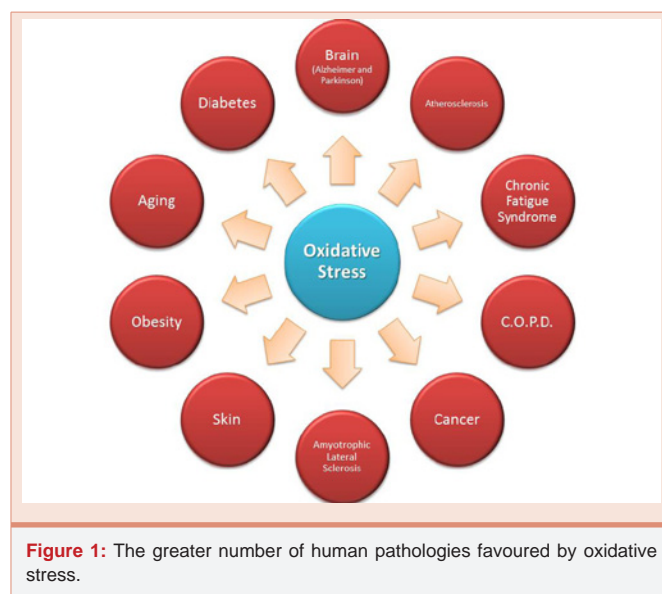


Figure 1: The greater number of human pathologies favoured by oxidative stress.

the alteration of vasomotor activity [22-24]. In confirmation of the role of ROS in the progressive endothelium dysfunction we underline the increased Nitrosodine (a cellular marker of OS) concentration in aged subjects in comparison with young healthy individuals [25]. Further, oxidized-LDL influences the release of some cytokines, such as IL-1 β , IL-6 and TNF- α , responsible for acute inflammatory processes of arterial wall. Another mechanism through which OS participates to atherogenesis consists in the production of transcription factors, as nuclear factor κ B (NF- κ B) and activator protein 1, which participate in the expression of adhesion molecules as vascular cellular adhesion molecules (VCAM-1), intracellular adhesion molecules (ICAM-1) and other cytokines acting in smooth muscle cells of atherosclerotic vessels [26,27]. In addition, ROS are able to modulate matrix metalloproteinases (MMPs) degradation and could contribute to the instability of atherosclerotic plaques [28,29]. The role played by OS in the atherosclerotic process was confirmed by the use of statins in atherosclerosis. As well as the cholesterol levels' reduction, these drugs also lead to an increase of NO production and inhibit LDL oxidation [30].

Cancer

The cancer-induction is a multifactorial process that involves several factors, as genetic, physical, chemical and environmental factors. Recent knowledge's in ROS biology and tumor genesis suggest that free radicals control various aspects of tumor development including inflammation, transformation, survival, proliferation of cancers' cells, invasion, angiogenesis, and metastasis [31-33]. Specifically, free radicals directly or indirectly act, via DNA damage, on gene expression and signaling at the cellular levels [9]. In succession, the main effects of ROS on tumor genesis and some clinical their complications are reported:

Proliferation. OS effects on several biochemical pathways, such as epidermal growth factor receptor (EGFR) or mTOR, that involve key signaling proteins favoring cells' reproduction [34]. **Metastases.** ROS contributes to increased cell's motility, migration and invasion of cancer-cells, resulting in tumor expansion and metastases [35]. **Neo-angiogenesis.** Tumors produce many pro-angiogenic factors, such as vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF), its receptor (VEGFR), angiopoietin, MMPs, fibroblasts growth factor and others. Of these, VEGF has emerged as the crucial role in the regulation of neo-angiogenesis. MMPs are a family of enzymes that proteolytically degrade some components of the extracellular matrix, favoring neo-angiogenesis. That happens by degradation of the vascular basement membrane of the extracellular matrix in order to allow endothelial cells to migrate and invade into the surrounding tissue. In this connection, a recent study pointed out that ROS increase VEGF levels and so favour angiogenesis [36-38]. **Effects on mRNA.** But, OS inducing ROS over-production are involved in cancer development through the changes produced in microRNA (mRNAs) [39,40]. Concerning this topic, Favaro et al. recently confirmed that several ROS-related mRNAs are involved in various modalities of cancer-growth [41]. **Physio/chemical therapy.** The majority of agents used to kill cancer cells (ionizing radiations, most chemotherapeutical agents and some targeted therapies) work (through either directly or indirectly) generating ROS that block key steps in the cell cycle [42]. In

this connection, current evidences support that antioxidants protect normal cells against the insults of chemotherapy and radiotherapy [42]. On the other hand, these same prevent tumorigenesis and increase lifespan [43].

Insulin resistance and diabetes

Previous investigations provide convincing evidence about the relationship between mitochondrial pro-oxidant agents production and insulin resistance [44]. The link between OS and insulin resistant conditions seems to be the inflammatory state [45]. In confirmation of the role of OS in metabolic disorders, Meigs et al., demonstrated that this is associated with insulin resistance in individuals at average or elevated risk of diabetes [46-49]. Initially, the condition of insulin resistance is compensated by hyperinsulinemia with normal glucose tolerance. Impaired glucose tolerance occurs when either insulin resistance increases or compensatory insulin secretory response decreases or both occur, accelerating the progression to overt type 2 diabetes mellitus (T2DM).

Obesity

A recent editorial of Youn et al., hypothesized that ROS generated in vascular smooth muscle cells (VSMC) play an important causal role in the development of obesity, causing a condition of overweight due to leptin-resistance, glucose intolerance and inflammation [50]. On the other hand, the expansion of visceral adipose tissue caused by over-consumption of nutrients, generate an increase of visceral adipose tissue. As visceral fat stores expand, adipocytes generate increased ROS levels and metabolic syndrome [51]. Therefore, two conditions (OS and obesity) can be considered reciprocally as cause and effect one of another [52,53].

Neurodegenerative diseases

Neurodegenerative diseases indicates a loss of nerve structure and function, leading to a progressive brain damage and neurodegeneration. Apart from environmental or genetic factors, OS largely contributes to neurodegeneration. Particularly, ROS have been implicated in the progression of Alzheimer's disease (AD), Parkinson's disease (PD) and amyotrophic lateral sclerosis (ALS).

Alzheimer's disease

Several studies showed that OS plays a central role in the neuropathological lesions of AD. There are: beta-amyloid peptide deposits (also called as senile plaques), happening at early stage of AD and neurofibrillary tangles, typical of the late stage [54]. Recent evidences suggest that OS may also favour AD pathogenesis by disruption of homeostasis of some metals (such as iron, zinc and copper) and ROS accumulation in the mitochondria (mitochondrial dysfunction) [55,56]. Therapeutically, it is evidenced that some compounds, as Mitoquinone mesylate reduces beta-amyloid accumulation decreasing OS [57,58]. Other drugs acting against AD as OS antagonists are Sirtuin-1, and omega-3 fatty acids [59,60].

Parkinson's disease

Most of cases of PD are idiopathic. Exposure to some substances (as pesticides, organic solvents, toxins) viral and bacteric infections play also a role. Obviously, aging di per se is an important factor

that ROS stimulate physiological adaptation to physical exercise [79]. In accordance with these controversial effects of free radicals on healthy ageing, it must be also relate on the conflicting results obtained by the antioxidant supplementation. A recent meta-analysis show no evidence to support the use of vitamin and antioxidant supplements for prevention of age-related diseases [80]. But, a meta-analysis on the risk of Alzheimer's disease shown that dietary intakes of vitamin E, vitamin C, and beta carotene can lower the risk of this disease [81]. Therefore, the effectiveness of anti-oxidants' treatment to contrast age-related diseases is still uncertain and further studies are requested [82].

Other diseases

OS also intervenes in other pathologic conditions frequently occurring among human diseases, such as chronic fatigue syndrome, chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, and skin disease .

Chronic fatigue syndrome

Chronic fatigue syndrome (CFS) is an emerging disorder, particularly frequent in women. The syndrome is characterized by incapacitating fatigue of at least 6 months duration. It can affect every major system in the body, with neurological, immunological, hormonal, gastro-intestinal, musculoskeletal and pshycological problems [83]. The pathophysiology of the syndrome remains elusive. Initially, Holmes et al. proposed persisting infections as cause [84]. Smith et al. hypothesized a possible association between leukocyte antigen and CFS [85]. But, OS is certainly involved in CFS pathogenesis. In this area, Kennedy et al. recently reported high levels of OS in patients suffering of this pathology [86]. Particularly, OS produced in the muscle appears to be a primary target of CFS. In fact, the sarcolemmal and sarcoplasmic membranes of CFS patients clearly present signs of OS [87]. The mitochondrial respiratory chain is the major site of ROS production in muscle cells [88].

Chronic obstructive pulmonary disease

It is known that the pathogenesis of chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD) depends on the interaction between environmental and genetic factors. Among the firsts , the most important factor of COPD acting in the western world is the cigarette smoking and the inhalation of combustion products [89]. Concerning this, OS plays an important role through injury to the respiratory apparatus [90]. Lipid peroxidation is the leading expression of OS happening in patients with COPD. That results in the degradation of polyunsaturated fatty acids, and leads to the alterations in the structure and permeability of the membrane. In turn, the altered structure-permeability of membrane results in loss of ion-exchange selectivity, release in the contents of organelles, and formation of cytotoxic products, such as malondialdehyde and isoprostanes [91,92].

Skin disease

Skin is a largest human body organ that provides an interface between the environment and the body. For its position, skin is a major target for toxic insults. Physical and chemical agents produce OS in skin. These include gaseous airborne environmental pollutants, UV, solar radiations, food contaminants, cosmetic products, drugs, and others. The consequent release of ROS is involved in the

favoring the onset of PD. But, in all PD variants, OS is the underlying mechanism that leads to cellular dysfunctions [61]. The major sources of ROS, in PD are: dopaminergic cells' metabolism, mitochondrial dysfunction and neuroinflammation [62]. Specifically, OS happening in dopaminergic neurotransmitters, results in modification of intracellular macromolecules whose functions are important for cell survival. In detail, Dopamine is able to modify a number of proteins linked to pathophysiology of PD, such as α -synuclein, parkin and others [63,64]. In addition, Dopamine metabolites have been shown to induce proteosomal inhibition, which can lead the cells to undergo apoptosis [65]. Finally in the disease's progression, Neuromelanin (the last product of Dopamine oxidation) can be accumulated in the nigral region (pars compacta) as expression of death's neurons in this region, favouring PD [66]. Another source of OS associated with the pathogenesis of PD is the mitochondrial dysfunction [62]. Neuronal loss happening in PD is also associated with chronic neuroinflammation controlled by microglia [67]. For these complicated connections between PD and ROS, it is difficult to determine whether OS leads to or is a consequence of neurodegeneration [68].

Amyotrophic lateral sclerosis

Amyotrophic Lateral Sclerosis (ALS) is characterized by progressive injury and death of lower motor neurons in the spinal cord on brainstem, and upper motor neurons in the motor cortex. The causes of ALS are unknown but, among the mechanisms inducing this, OS is certainly involved [69,70]. An increased Nitrosodine (a marker for oxidative damage) levels, was found to demonstrate the primary role of OS in the ALS beginning [71]. DNA damage induced by elevated levels of hydroxyl-deoxyguanosine was described too [72]. In addition, the hypothesis that OS is a cause of ALS was indirectly confirmed by the discovery that mutation of anti-oxidant enzyme superoxide dismutase-1 (SOD-1) was found in a significant ALS cases [73]. The mechanism by which mutant enzyme leads to motor neuron degeneration was recently identified in the neuronal mitochondrial damage induced by the SOD-1 mutation [74]. Excitotoxicity, mitochondrial dysfunction, protein aggregation, cytoskeletal dysfunction and others are other mechanisms implicated in motor neuron injury.

Ageing

Although the mechanisms inducing ageing are poorly understood, a growing body of evidence points ROS as one of the main determinants of this condition. The effect is attained by the OS acting on some macromolecules, such as DNA, proteins, carbohydrates, and lipids. The age-dependent accumulation of ROS induces a loss of human organs' function, with chronic changes of physiological conditions and acceleration of cells death. In this regard, Hartman firstly proposed the "free theory of aging" [20]. Particularly, oxidative damage in aged organisms happens in specific intracellular organelles, as the mitochondria [75]. But, several evidences does not support this statement [76]. In contrast with Hartman theory of ageing, recent evidences shown that increasing ROS generation can increase longevity even rather than reducing [77,78]. In favour of the positive effects of ROS on healthspan, Gomez-Cabrera et al. demonstrated

pathogenesis of a number of human skin diseases (SD), including cutaneous neoplasia [93,94].

Antioxidant treatment

Antioxidants are molecules which can safely interact with free radicals or terminate the chain reaction before vital molecules are damaged. The main antioxidants are vitamin E, beta carotene and vitamin C. Selenium, glutathione, flavonoids, lipoic acid and ubiquinol are also included. The body cannot manufacture the micronutrients, so they must be supplied in the diet. Antioxidants may exert their effect on biological systems by different mechanisms including electron donation, metal ion chelation, or indirectly by inhibiting the activity or expression of free radicals generating enzymes or enhancing the activity or expression of intracellular antioxidant enzymes [95].

Conclusive Remarks

Conclusively OS, as disturbance in the balance between the ROS production and antioxidant defense, is characterized by a prevalence of free radicals on antioxidant compounds. That induces an oxidative damage to some molecules, such as lipids, proteins and DNA, and represents a common denominator involved as pathogenetic mechanism responsible for most frequent human diseases. The process is also a main responsible for healthy and diseased ageing. Therefore, it represents the principal collateral cause of most diseases and death of people. Nevertheless, despite the beneficial effects of several anti-oxidants on ROS action, at present none effective defense against their detrimental effects there is and further experiences are needed to solve the question.

References

- Sies H. Oxidative stress: introductory remarks. In: Sies H (ed.)-Oxidative stress-Academic Press. 1985; 1-7.
- Yoshikawa T, Naito Y. What is oxidative stress? JMAJ 2002; 45: 271-276.
- Bannister J. B.H.P.O. Free radicals in Biology and Medicine 2007; 10: 250-266.
- Sosa V, Moliné T, Somoza R, Paciucci R, Kondoh H, et al. Oxidative stress and cancer: an overview. Ageing Res Rev. 2013; 12: 376-390.
- Ray PD, Huang BW, Tsuji Y. Reactive oxygen species (ROS) homeostasis and redox regulation in cellular signaling. Cell Signal. 2012; 24: 981-990.
- Dai DF, Chiao YA, Marcinek DJ, Szeto HH, Rabinovitch PS. Mitochondrial oxidative stress in aging and healthspan. Longev Healthspan. 2014; 3: 6.
- Aruoma OI. Free radicals, oxidative stress, and antioxidants in human health disease. J Amer Oil Chemical Soc 1998; 75: 199-212.
- Klaunig JE, Kamendulis LM, Hocevar BA. Oxidative stress and oxidative damage in carcinogenesis. Toxicol Pathol. 2010; 38: 96-109.
- Halliwell B. Can oxidative DNA damage be used as a biomarker of cancer risk in humans? Problems, resolutions and preliminary results from nutritional supplementation studies. Free Radic Res. 1998; 29: 469-486.
- Noda N, Wakasugi H. Cancer and oxidative stress. JMAJ. 2001; 44: 535-539.
- Cacciapuoti F. Oxidative stress such as basic reaction of many among human diseases and ageing. Trends in Med 2010; 10: 191-197.
- Vogiatzi G, Tousoulis D, Stefanadis C. The role of oxidative stress in atherosclerosis. Hellenic J Cardiol. 2009; 50: 402-409.
- Klaunig JE, Kamendulis LM. The role of oxidative stress in carcinogenesis. Annu Rev Pharmacol Toxicol. 2004; 44: 239-267.
- Henriksen EJ, Diamond-Stanic MK, Marchionne EM. Oxidative stress and the etiology of insulin resistance and type 2 diabetes. Free Radic Biol Med. 2011; 51: 993-999.
- Aroor AR, DeMarco VG. Oxidative stress and obesity: the chicken or the egg? Diabetes. 2014; 63: 2216-2218.
- Madeo J, Elsayad C. The role of oxidative stress in Alzheimer's disease. Alzheimer's and Parkinsonism. 1985; 3: 2.
- Hwang O. Role of oxidative stress in Parkinson's disease. Exp Neurobiol. 2013; 22: 11-17.
- Fulle S, Pietrangelo T, Mancinelli R, Saggini R, Fanò G. Specific correlations between muscle oxidative stress and chronic fatigue syndrome: a working hypothesis. J Muscle Res Cell Motil. 2007; 28: 355-362.
- Cavalcante AG, de Bruin PF. The role of oxidative stress in COPD: current concepts and perspectives. J Bras Pneumol. 2009; 35: 1227-1237.
- Herman D. Aging a theory based on free radical and radiation chemistry. J Gerontol. 1956; 11: 296-300.
- Abdollahi M, Moridani MY, Aruoma OI, Mostafalou S. Oxidative stress in aging. Oxid Med Cell Longev. 2014; 2014: 876834.
- Madamanchi NR, Vendrov A, Runge MS. Oxidative stress and vascular disease. Arterioscler Thromb Vasc Biol. 2005; 25: 29-38.
- Lum H, Roebuck KA. Oxidant stress and endothelial cell dysfunction. Am J Physiol Cell Physiol. 2001; 280: C719-741.
- Harrison D, Griendling KK, Landmesser U, Hornig B, Drexler H. Role of oxidative stress in atherosclerosis. Am J Cardiol. 2003; 91: 7A-11A.
- Donato AJ, Eskurza I, Silver AE, Levy AS, Pierce GL, et al. Direct evidence of endothelial oxidative stress with aging in humans. Relations to impaired dependent dilation and up-regulation of nuclear factor-kappaB. Circ Res. 2007; 106: 1659-1666.
- Bourcier T, Sukhova G, Libby P. The nuclear factor kappa-B signaling pathway participates in dysregulation of vascular smooth muscle cells in vitro and in human atherosclerosis. J Biol Chem. 1997; 272: 15817-15824.
- Singh U, Devaraj S, Jialal I. Vitamin E, oxidative stress, and inflammation. Annu Rev Nutr. 2005; 25: 151-174.
- Rajagopalan S, Meng XP, Ramasamy S, Harrison DG, Galis ZS. Reactive oxygen species produced by macrophage-derived foam cells regulate the activity of vascular matrix metalloproteinases in vitro. Implications for atherosclerotic plaque stability. J Clin Invest. 1996; 98: 2572-2579.
- Tousoulis D, Antoniades C, Stefanadis C. Assessing inflammatory status in cardiovascular disease. Heart. 2007; 93: 1001-1007.
- Tousoulis D, Antoniades C, Stefanadis C. Statins and antioxidant vitamins: should co-administration be avoided? J Am Coll Cardiol. 2006; 47: 1237.
- Marnett LJ. Oxyradicals and DNA damage. Carcinogenesis. 2000; 21: 361-370.
- Ishikawa K, Takenaga K, Akimoto M, Koshikawa N, Yamaguchi A, et al. ROS-generating mitochondrial DNA mutations can regulate tumor cell metastasis. Science. 2008; 320: 661-664.
- Waris G, Ahsan H. Reactive oxygen species: role in the development of cancer and various chronic conditions. J Carcinog. 2006; 5: 14.
- Wiemer EA. Stressed tumor cell, chemosensitized cancer. Nat Med. 2011; 17: 1552-1554.
- Lee DJ, Kang SW. Reactive oxygen species and tumor metastasis. Mol Cells. 2013; 35: 93-98.
- Folkman J. Angiogenesis in cancer, vascular, rheumatoid and other disease. Nat Med. 1995; 1: 27-31.

37. Fei J, Hong A, Dobbins TA, Jones D, Lee CS, et al. Prognostic significance of vascular endothelial growth factor in squamous cell carcinomas of the tonsil in relation to human papillomavirus status and epidermal growth factor receptor. *Ann Surg Oncol*. 2009; 16: 2908-2917.
38. Tojo T, Ushio-Fukai M, Yamaoka-Tojo M, Ikeda S, Patrushev N, et al. Role of gp91phox (Nox2)-containing NAD(P)H oxidase in angiogenesis in response to hindlimb ischemia. *Circulation*. 2005; 111: 2347-2355.
39. Mathe E, Nguyen CH, Funamizu N, He P, Moake M, et al. Inflammation regulates microRNA expression in cooperation with p53 and nitric oxide. *Journal of Cancer*. 2012; 131: 760-765.
40. Mateescu B, Batista L, Cardon M, Gruosso T, de Feraudy Y, et al. miR-141 and miR-200a act on ovarian tumorigenesis by controlling oxidative stress response. *Nat Med*. 2011; 17: 1627-1635.
41. Favaro E, Ramachandran A, Mc Cormik R, Gee H, Blancher C, et al. MicroRNA-210 regulates mitochondrial free radical response to hypoxia and Krebs cycle in cancer cells by targeting iron Sulphur cluster protein. *ISCU PLoS One* 2010; 5: e103345.
42. Watson J. Oxidants, antioxidants and the current incurability of metastatic cancers. *Open Biol*. 2013; 3: 120144.
43. Kovacic P, Jacintho JD. Mechanisms of carcinogenesis: focus on oxidative stress and electron transfer. *Curr Med Chem*. 2001; 8: 773-796.
44. Anderson EJ, Lustig ME, Boyle KE, Woodlief TL, Kane DA, Lin CT, Price JW 3rd. Mitochondrial H₂O₂ emission and cellular redox state link excess fat intake to insulin resistance in both rodents and humans. *J Clin Invest*. 2009; 119: 573-581.
45. Urakawa H, Katsuki A, Sumida Y, Gabazza EC, Murashima S, et al. Oxidative stress is associated with adiposity and insulin resistance in men. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab*. 2003; 88: 4673-4676.
46. Meigs JB, Larson MG, Fox CS, Keaney JF Jr, Vasani RS, et al. Association of oxidative stress, insulin resistance, and diabetes risk phenotypes: the Framingham Offspring Study. *Diabetes Care*. 2007; 30: 2529-2535.
47. Kim JS, Saengsirisuwan V, Sloniger JA, Teachey MK, Henriksen EJ. Oxidant stress and skeletal muscle glucose transport: roles of insulin signaling and p38 MAPK. *Free Radic Biol Med*. 2006; 41: 814-824.
48. Dokken BB, Saengsirisuwan V, Kim JS, Teakey MK, Henriksen EJ. Oxidative stress-induced insulin resistance in skeletal muscle: role of glycogen synthase kinase-3. *Am J Physiol. Endocrinol. Metabol*. 2008; 294: E615-E621.
49. Archuleta TL, Lemieux AM, Saengsirisuwan V, Teachey MK, et al. Oxidant stress-induced loss of IRS-1 and IRS-2 proteins in rat skeletal muscle: role of p38 MAPK. *Free Radic Biol Med*. 2009; 47: 1486-1493.
50. Youn JY, Siu KL, Lob HE, Itani H, Harrison DG, et al. Role of vascular oxidative stress in obesity and metabolic syndrome. *Diabetes*. 2014; 63: 2344-2355.
51. Furukawa S, Fujita T, Shimabukuro M, Iwaki M, Yamada Y, et al. Increased oxidative stress in obesity and its impact on metabolic syndrome. *J Clin Invest*. 2004; 114: 1752-1761.
52. Arora AR, DeMarco VG. Oxidative stress and obesity: the chicken or the egg? *Diabetes*. 2014; 63: 2216-2218.
53. Murri M, Garcia-Fuentes E, Garcia-Almeida JM, Garrido-Sanchez L, Mayas MD, et al. Changes in oxidative stress and insulin resistance in morbidity obese patients after bariatric surgery. *Obes Surg*. 2010; 20: 323-368.
54. Perry G, Cash AD, Smith MA. Alzheimer Disease and Oxidative Stress. *J Biomed Biotechnol*. 2002; 2: 120-123.
55. Greenough MA, Camakaris J, Bush AI. Metal dyshomeostasis and oxidative stress in Alzheimer's disease. *Neurochem Int*. 2013; 62: 540-555.
56. Silva DF, Selfridge JE, Lu J, E L, Cardoso SM, et al. Mitochondrial abnormalities in Alzheimer's disease: possible targets for therapeutic intervention. *Adv Pharmacol*. 2012; 64: 83-126.
57. Reddy PH, Reddy TP. Mitochondria as a therapeutic target for aging and neurodegenerative diseases. *Curr Alzheimer Res*. 2011; 8: 393-409.
58. McManus MJ, Murphy MP, Franklin JL. The mitochondria-targeted antioxidant MitoQ prevents loss of spatial memory retention and early neuropathology in a transgenic mouse model of Alzheimer's disease. *J Neurosci*. 2011; 31: 15703-15715.
59. Yao H, Rahman I. Perspectives on translational and therapeutic aspects of SIRT1 in inflammaging and senescence. *Biochem Pharmacol*. 2012; 84: 1332-1339.
60. Cacciapuoti F. Multiple effects of omega-3 P.U.F.A. on some important life processes. *J Cardiol Ther*. 2014; 10: 46-51.
61. Schapira AH, Jenner P. Etiology and pathogenesis of Parkinson's disease. *Mov Disord*. 2011; 26: 1049-1055.
62. Hwang O. Role of oxidative stress in Parkinson's disease. *Exp Neurobiol*. 2013; 22: 11-17.
63. Conway KA, Rochet JC, Bieganski RM, Lansbury PT Jr. Kinetic stabilization of the alpha-synuclein protofibril by a dopamine-alpha-synuclein adduct. *Science*. 2001; 294: 1346-1349.
64. LaVoie MJ, Ostaszewski BL, Weihofen A, Schlossmacher MG, Selkoe DJ. Dopamine covalently modifies and functionally inactivates parkin. *Nat Med*. 2005; 11: 1214-1221.
65. Zafar KS, Inayat-Hussain SH, Ross D. A comparative study of proteasomal inhibition and apoptosis induced in N27 mesencephalic cells by dopamine and MG132. *J Neurochem*. 2007; 102: 913-921.
66. Zecca L, Zucca FA, Wilms H, Sulzer D. Neuromelanin of the substantia nigra: a neuronal black hole with protective and toxic characteristics. *Trends Neurosci*. 2003; 26: 578-580.
67. Qian L, Flood PM, Hong JS. Neuroinflammation is a key player in Parkinson's disease and a prime target for therapy. *J Neural Transm (Vienna)*. 2010; 117: 971-979.
68. Jenner P. Oxidative stress in Parkinson's disease. *Ann Neurol*. 2003; 53: S26-S38.
69. Shaw PJ, Ince PG, Falkous G, Mantle D. Oxidative damage to protein in sporadic motor neuron disease spinal cord. *Ann Neurol*. 1995; 38: 691-695.
70. Ferrante RJ, Browne SE, Shinobu LA, Bowling AC, Baik MJ, et al. Evidence of increased oxidative damage in both sporadic and familial amyotrophic lateral sclerosis. *J Neurochem*. 1997; 69: 2064-2074.
71. Beal MF, Ferrante RJ, Browne SE, Matthews RT, Kowall NW, et al. Increased 3-nitrotyrosine in both sporadic and familial amyotrophic lateral sclerosis. *Ann Neurol*. 1997; 42: 644-654.
72. Fitzmaurice PS, Shaw IC, Kleiner HE, Miller RT, Monks TJ, et al. Evidence for DNA damage in amyotrophic lateral sclerosis. *Muscle Nerve*. 1996; 19: 797-798.
73. Barber SC, Mead RJ, Shaw PJ. Oxidative stress in ALS: a mechanism of neurodegeneration and a therapeutic target. *Biochim Biophys Acta*. 2006; 1762: 1051-1067.
74. Carri MT, Valle C, Bozzo F, Cozzolino M. Oxidative stress and mitochondrial damage: importance in non-SOS 1-ALS. *Front Cell Neurosci*. 2015; 9:
75. Harman D. Origin and evolution of the free radical theory of aging: a brief personal history, 1954-2009. *Biogerontology*. 2009; 10: 773-781.
76. Pérez VI, Bokov A, Van Remmen H, Mele J, Ran Q, et al. Is the oxidative stress theory of aging dead? *Biochim Biophys Acta*. 2009; 1790: 1005-1014.
77. Ristow M, Zarse K. How increased oxidative stress promotes longevity and metabolic health: The concept of mitochondrial hormesis (mitohormesis). *Exp Gerontol*. 2010; 45: 410-418.
78. Dai DF, Chiao YA, Marcinek DJ, Szeto HH, Rabinovitch PS. Mitochondrial oxidative stress in aging and healthspan. *Longev Healthspan*. 2014; 3: 6.

79. Gomez-Cabrera MC, Borrás C, Pallardo FV, Sastre J, Li LL, et al. Decreasing xantine oxidase-mediated oxidative stress prevents useful cellular adaptation to exercise in rats. *J Physiol*. 2005; 567: 113-120.
80. Myung SK, Ju W, Cho B, Oh SW, Park SM, et al. Korean Meta-Analysis Study Group. Efficacy of vitamin and antioxidant supplements in prevention of cardiovascular disease: systematic review and meta-analysis of randomised controlled trials. *BMJ*. 2013; 346: f10.
81. Li FJ, Shen L, Ji HF. Dietary intakes of vitamin E, vitamin C, and β -carotene and risk of Alzheimer's disease: a meta-analysis. *J Alzheimers Dis*. 2012; 31: 253-258.
82. Manayi A, Saeidnia S, Gohari AR, Abdollahi M. Methods for the discovery of new anti-aging products--targeted approaches. *Expert Opin Drug Discov*. 2014; 9: 383-405.
83. Wyller VB. The chronic fatigue syndrome--an update. *Acta Neurol Scand Suppl*. 2007; 187: 7-14.
84. Holmes GP, Kaplan JE, Gantz NM, Komaroff AL, Schonberger LB, et al. Chronic fatigue syndrome: a working case definition. *Ann Intern Med*. 1988; 108: 387-389.
85. Smith J, Fritz EL, Kerr JR, Cleare AJ, Wessely S, et al. Association of chronic fatigue syndrome with human leucocyte antigen class II alleles. *J Clin Pathol*. 2005; 58: 860-863.
86. Kennedy G, Spence VA, McLaren M, Hill A, Underwood C, et al. Oxidative stress levels are raised in chronic fatigue syndrome and are associated with clinical symptoms. *Free Radic Biol Med*. 2005; 39: 584-589.
87. Fulle S, Belia S, Vecchiet J, Morabito C, Vecchiet L, et al. Modification of the functional capacity of sarcoplasmic reticulum membranes in patients suffering from chronic fatigue syndrome. *Neuromuscul Disord*. 2003; 13: 479-484.
88. Mecocci P, Fano' G, Fulle S, Mac Garvey U, Shinobu L, et al. Age-dependent increases in oxidative damage to DNA, lipids, and proteins in human skeletal muscle. *Free Radic Biol Med*. 1999; 26: 303-308.
89. Fletcher C, Peto R. The natural history of chronic airflow obstruction. *Br Med J*. 1977; 1: 1645-1648.
90. Lima ES, Abdalla DSP. Peroxidacao lipidica: mecanismos e avaliacao em amostras. *Rev Bras Cinc Fam* 2001; 37: 293-303.
91. Rolin S, Masereel B, Dogné JM. Prostanoids as pharmacological targets in COPD and asthma. *Eur J Pharmacol*. 2006; 533: 89-100.
92. Louhelainen N, Ryttilä P, Haahtela T, Kinnula VL, Djukanović R. Persistence of oxidant and protease burden in the airways after smoking cessation. *BMC Pulm Med*. 2009; 9: 25.
93. Briganti S, Picardo M. Antioxidant activity, lipid peroxidation and skin diseases. What's new. *J Eur Acad Dermatol Venereol*. 2003; 17: 663-669.
94. Black HS. ROS: a step closer to elucidating their role in the etiology of light-induced skin disorders. *J Invest Dermatol*. 2004; 122: xiii-xiv.
95. Lü JM, Lin PH, Yao Q, Chen C. Chemical and molecular mechanisms of antioxidants: experimental approaches and model systems. *J Cell Mol Med*. 2010; 14: 840-860.

Copyright: © 2016 Cacciapuoti F. This is an open-access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original author and source are credited.

Citation: Cacciapuoti F (2016) Oxidative Stress as "Mother" of Many Human Diseases at Strong Clinical Impact. *J Cardiovasc Med Cardiol* 3(1): 001-006. DOI: 10.17352/2455-2976.000020