

Editorial

Carbonyl Stress as a Therapeutic Target for Cardiac Remodeling in Obesity/Diabetes

Lalage A Katunga^{1,2} and Ethan J Anderson^{1,2*}

¹Department of Pharmacology and Toxicology, East Carolina University, USA

²East Carolina Diabetes and Obesity Institute, East Carolina Heart Institute, USA

***Corresponding author:** Ethan J Anderson,
Department of Pharmacology & Toxicology, Brody School
of Medicine, East Carolina University, BSOM 6S-11, 600
Moye Boulevard, Greenville, NC 27834, USA

Received: September 15, 2014; **Accepted:** September
25, 2014; **Published:** September 25, 2014

Editorial

As cardiometabolic diseases associated with obesity (i.e. hyperglycemia/ insulin resistance, hypertension and dyslipidemia) become increasingly pervasive in the modern world [1], it is evident that the demand for novel therapeutic agents will increase in the coming years. One avenue that continues to show promise is targeted disruption of reactive oxygen species (ROS) production and its consequent deleterious effects. Numerous studies have reported increased oxidative damage in muscle [2-4], adipose [5-7] and livers [8] with obesity, the collective implication being that there is likely to be a causal link between ROS and cardiometabolic diseases associated with obesity. Lipid peroxidation of polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFAs) is a well-documented consequence of oxidative stress, particularly in the cardiovascular system [9-14]. Formation of α , β unsaturated aldehydes occurs as PUFA-derived lipid peroxides accumulate during periods of persistent oxidative stress. The biochemistry of this reaction is well described in the literature and lipid peroxidation end products such as Thiobarbituric acid reactive substances (TBARS), 4-hydroxy-2-nonenal (HNE) and Malondialdehyde (MDA) are common biomarkers of cellular stress and toxicity [15,16].

However, the biological significance of these species as physiological signaling molecules, or their role in etiology of cardiomyopathy is unclear [17-20]. Here, we shall discuss the potential pathways that link carbonyl stress to the cardiac remodeling known to occur with obesity and its associated pathologies (i.e., Type II diabetes). A brief outline of prototypical and novel therapeutic compounds that mitigate carbonyl stress is also included.

Carbonyl stress, chronic inflammation and profibrotic signaling in the obese/diabetic heart

The most prominent histopathologic finding in the hearts of obese/diabetic patients is fibrosis, as damaged myocardium is infiltrated by fibroblasts [21-23]. Myocyte death, collagen deposition and development of fibrotic lesions are visible even before decreased cardiac performance is observed [24,25]. Upon initial onset, fibrosis is a compensatory response that adds increased tensile strength to counteract pressure overload in the heart. The transition to

maladaptation occurs gradually as muscle fibers are encased in extracellular matrix, leading to ventricular wall stiffening and ultimately decompensation which manifests as diastolic dysfunction [26]. Over-production of extracellular matrix has physical effects on the microstructure as well as changes in physiological environment through the release of factors such as transforming growth factor- β (TGF- β) [27]. The most notable change in cellular physiology is the transformation of fibroblasts to myofibroblasts. Myofibroblasts are crucial in the normal response to injury and there is evidence to suggest the processes that trigger this transformation are tissue dependent [28,29]. Myofibroblasts are highly specialized for the secretion of extracellular matrix. Furthermore, they are more responsive to stimulation by factors such as cytokines [30]. In certain patients this transition in phenotype to a myofibroblast- predominant population of cells may increase risk of adverse cardiac events [31-33]. For example, since fibrotic tissue lacks electrical conductivity it has been proposed that this change in phenotype may directly account for increased risk of ventricular arrhythmias. Studies show that hyperglycemia/ insulin resistance promotes fibroblast - myofibroblasts transformation [29]. Furthermore in the context of lipid peroxidation it is intriguing that *in vitro* treatment of human fibroblasts with carbonyl modified proteins produces a similar phenotype transition [24]. This effect may be mitigated by carbonyl scavengers such as carnosine (Box 1) and it is postulated that inhibition of the TGF- β pathway may serve as a potential mechanism [34]. These observations are not confined to patients with metabolic syndrome, in fact in a subset of 'healthy' obese patients with a relatively normal cardiometabolic profile (normotensive, euglycemic), the early stages of irreversible fibrotic cardiac remodeling have been observed [35].

Advanced Glycation End-products, a unique type of carbonyl stress with therapeutic potential

The receptor for advanced glycation end-products (RAGE) is a 35KDa receptor that belongs to the immunoglobulin G family of receptors [36,37]. RAGE does not recognize a primary amino acid sequence nor arrangement. It is essentially a pattern recognition receptor (PRR) that displays affinity to a wide variety of glycosylated proteins [38]. Since in many cases lipid peroxidation end-products (LPPs) and Advanced Glycation End Products (AGE) often share structural homology, proteins modified with LPPs (e.g., HNE, MDA) may serve as candidate ligands for RAGE. The importance of RAGE in diabetic pathologies (retinopathy, neuropathy) is an established and active area of study. In the context of carbonyl stress, RAGE may serve as a key mediator of carbonyl stress in cardiometabolic disease. Formation of AGE occurs through the Maillard reaction. PUFA-derived aldehydes contribute in the conversion of the unstable Schiff Base intermediate in an irreversible rearrangement reaction to a stable Amadori product [39-41]. Therefore in conditions of elevated carbonyl stress, it is plausible that increased cross-linking of Amadori products would shift the dynamic equilibrium even more in favor of

Box 1: Drugs Targeting Carbonyl Species.

Edaravone- Edaravone (Norphenazone) is a free radical scavenger developed by Mitsubishi Chemicals [53]. It was identified as a metabolite of Antipyrine biotransformation. Its mechanism of action is the inhibition of lipoperoxide 15-HPETE and it was shown to prevent membrane peroxidation [54,55]. It reacts non-selectively with carbonyls and is a particularly efficient scavenger of α , β -unsaturated aldehydes [56]. In a clinical pilot study of 80 patients, Edaravone reduced infarct size, improved ejection fraction and decreased rates of cardiovascular events in long term follow up studies [57,58].

Aminoguanidine- Aminoguanidine is highly nucleophilic and is thought to prevent protein carbonylation by reacting with Amadori intermediates thus preventing the formation of the final end product [59]. Furthermore, aminoguanidine inhibits enzymes such as nitric oxide synthases [60]. Aminoguanidine has been shown to reduce lipid peroxidation in animal models.

Hydralazine-As a prototype of thiazazine drugs, hydralazine has a strongly nucleophilic properties of the terminal nitrogen. Relatively low amounts of hydralazine inhibit carbonylation of proteins [61].

Alagebrium (ALT-711) - Alagebrium belongs to the class of Thiazolium compounds. These compounds break the covalent linkages formed between AGEs and proteins. In some experimental models it has been shown to reduce cardiac AGE deposition and stiffness [52,62,63].

Pyridoxamine and other vitamin B6 related compounds- the maintenance of the cellular glutathione pool is thought to be the main mechanism of action of the B6 related compounds in the prevention of lipid peroxidation [52].

Carnosine- Carnosine is an endogenous dipeptide present in high concentrations in muscle. It is a potent antioxidant and is often used as an over the counter supplement. It has no direct scavenging of peroxides or oxygen radicals, rather it reacts with carbonyl derivatives. However, *in vivo* it is rapidly hydrolyzed by serum carnosinase and this is a great hindrance to its therapeutic potential. D-carnosine (B-alanylhistidine) is the isomer of carnosine. In a pilot study in Zucker obese mice it reduced dyslipidaemia and improved renal function [64]. D-carnosine has low bio-availability and this has been a significant limitation to the progress with this compound. However, development of promising novel analogues is in advanced stages [56,61,65].

the formation AGE according to Le Chatelier's principle. This would, in theory, increase the concentration of RAGE ligand.

RAGE signaling activates two key pathways relevant to cardiac remodeling [42,43], and increased localized RAGE tissue expression and activation may be viewed as a form of localized 'metabolic memory' through which previous insults are sustained through lingering signals [36]. RAGE gene expression is regulated by the nuclear factor kappa-light-chain-enhancer of activated B cells (NF κ B) transcription factor [36]. Conversely, NF κ B is also activated by RAGE signaling. The RAGE/ NF κ B axis is unique in that it typically overwhelms endogenous auto-regulatory feedback inhibition loops. In other words, once RAGE switches NF κ B on, it is difficult to switch off. Carbonyl stress may contribute to chronic low grade inflammation through this mechanism [44]. Chronic low grade inflammation is a mechanism that underlies many diseases associated with metabolic syndrome [45]. The cyclic pattern of RAGE/ NF- κ B activation is consistent with these observations. This may explain, in part, why deterioration of cardiac function persists even after onset of anti-hyperglycemic therapy. Interestingly, treatment with the antioxidant selenium, which induces the expression of many glutathione-dependent antioxidant enzymes, has been shown to reduce both RAGE expression and NF- κ B activation in diabetic rats [46].

RAGE is also a well-known activator of the TGF- β pathway [39,45,47-49]. The TGF- β proteins are pleiotropic and have been implicated in diverse mechanisms which include cell differentiation and proliferation. TGF- β receptors type I and II (TGF β RI and TGF β RII) are present in virtually all mammalian cells. TGF- β 1, the major isoform in heart, is expressed in cardiac fibroblasts and cardiac myocytes (CMs) and stimulates transformation to myofibroblasts and proliferation, as well as ECM production. Active TGF- β 1 binds membrane receptors that activate downstream signaling molecules Smad₂ and Smad₃, which are phosphorylated on the C-terminal serine residues. Phosphorylated Smad₂ and Smad₃ (pSmad₂ and pSmad₃) bind to Smad₄ and translocate to the nucleus. The Smad complex then binds to response elements in the promoter regions of the ECM genes and activates pro-fibrogenic factors by up-regulating gene transcription [50]. TGF- β increases the abundance of mRNA for collagen types I and III in the whole heart and enhances collagen type I. Models of TGF β 1 overexpression in mice suggest that Smad₂ is the isoform involved in cardiac remodeling involving hypertrophy and

fibrosis [45,47,48]. In human fibroblasts, HNE suppresses the TGF- β mediated production of elastin which compromises ventricular elasticity [51].

Current pharmacologic therapies and future directions

Relatively few studies have tested compounds that target lipid peroxidation and or neutralize LPPs. From a pharmco-chemical standpoint, viable drugs need to be sufficiently lipophilic in order to enter cellular compartments, as well as nucleophilic enough for carbonyl species to preferentially react with it, or alternatively break the covalent bond formed. It is imperative that the drug is only moderately reactive (which would be selectively beneficial in obese/diabetic patients) since many groups have demonstrated that 'over-scavenging' can potentially interrupt the normal redox cell signaling pathways and can be detrimental to health. A brief description of drugs that have been explored in this capacity is provided below in Box 1 with information pertinent to cardiometabolic disease included where available. In addition, other compounds relevant to this discussion but not included in this table include Angiotensin converting enzyme inhibitors, AT1 angiotensin receptor inhibitors, N-acetyl cysteine and antioxidants such as Tocopherol- α and resveratrol [52].

In conclusion, the available data on the role of carbonyl species in the type of cardiac remodeling known to occur with obesity/diabetes is limited but rapidly growing. An increase in knowledge of the underlying mechanisms of LPP formation and the consequences of increased protein carbonylation in the heart will be greatly beneficial to healthcare providers as this would lead to improvements in preventative and current treatment strategies for this condition, and accelerate the development of novel therapeutics.

References

1. Ng M, Fleming T, Robinson M, Thomson B, Graetz N, Margono C, et al. Global, regional, and national prevalence of overweight and obesity in children and adults during 1980-2013: a systematic analysis for the Global Burden of Disease Study 2013. *Lancet*. 2014; 384: 766-781.
2. Aoi W, Naito Y, Yoshikawa T. Role of oxidative stress in impaired insulin signaling associated with exercise-induced muscle damage. *Free Radic Biol Med*. 2013; 65: 1265-1272.
3. Powers SK, Talbert EE, Adhithetty PJ. Reactive oxygen and nitrogen species as intracellular signals in skeletal muscle. *J Physiol*. 2011; 589: 2129-2138.
4. Westerblad H, Allen DG. Emerging roles of ROS/RNS in muscle function and fatigue. *Antioxid Redox Signal*. 2011; 15: 2487-2499.

5. Grimsrud PA, Picklo MJ Sr, Griffin TJ, Bernlohr DA. Carbonylation of adipose proteins in obesity and insulin resistance: identification of adipocyte fatty acid-binding protein as a cellular target of 4-hydroxynonenal. *Mol Cell Proteomics*. 2007; 6: 624-637.
6. Frohnert BI, Sinaiko AR, Serrot FJ, Foncea RE, Moran A, Ikramuddin S, et al. Increased adipose protein carbonylation in human obesity. *Obesity (Silver Spring)*. 2011; 19: 1735-1741.
7. Frohnert BI, Bernlohr DA. Protein carbonylation, mitochondrial dysfunction, and insulin resistance. *Adv Nutr*. 2013; 4: 157-163.
8. Rolo AP, Teodoro JS, Palmeira CM. Role of oxidative stress in the pathogenesis of nonalcoholic steatohepatitis. *Free Radic Biol Med*. 2012; 52: 59-69.
9. Anderson EJ, Katunga LA, Willis MS. Mitochondria as a source and target of lipid peroxidation products in healthy and diseased heart. *Clin Exp Pharmacol Physiol*. 2012; 39: 179-193.
10. Fisher-Wellman KH, Mattox TA, Thayne K, Katunga LA, La Favor JD, Neuffer PD, et al. Novel role for thioredoxin reductase-2 in mitochondrial redox adaptations to obesogenic diet and exercise in heart and skeletal muscle. *J Physiol*. 2013; 591: 3471-3486.
11. Uchida K. Role of reactive aldehyde in cardiovascular diseases. *Free Radic Biol Med*. 2000; 28: 1685-1696.
12. Hill BG, Haberzettl P, Ahmed Y, Srivastava S, Bhatnagar A. Unsaturated lipid peroxidation-derived aldehydes activate autophagy in vascular smooth-muscle cells. *Biochem J*. 2008; 410: 525-534.
13. Sansbury BE, Jones SP, Riggs DW, Darley-Usmar VM, Hill BG. Bioenergetic function in cardiovascular cells: the importance of the reserve capacity and its biological regulation. *Chem Biol Interact*. 2011; 191: 288-295.
14. Hill BG, Dranka BP, Zou L, Chatham JC, Darley-Usmar VM. Importance of the bioenergetic reserve capacity in response to cardiomyocyte stress induced by 4-hydroxynonenal. *Biochem J*. 2009; 424: 99-107.
15. O'Brien PJ, Siraki AG, Shangari N. Aldehyde sources, metabolism, molecular toxicity mechanisms, and possible effects on human health. *Crit Rev Toxicol*. 2005; 35: 609-662.
16. Esterbauer H, Schaur RJ, Zollner H. Chemistry and biochemistry of 4-hydroxynonenal, malonaldehyde and related aldehydes. *Free Radic Biol Med*. 1991; 11: 81-128.
17. Shimozu Y, Hirano K, Shibata T, Shibata N, Uchida K. 4-Hydroperoxy-2-nonenal is not just an intermediate but a reactive molecule that covalently modifies proteins to generate unique intramolecular oxidation products. *J Biol Chem*. 2011; 286: 29313-29324.
18. Dianzani MU, Barrera G, Parola M. 4-Hydroxy-2,3-nonenal as a signal for cell function and differentiation. *Acta Biochim Pol*. 1999; 46: 61-75.
19. Negre-Salvayre A, Auge N, Ayala V, Basaga H, Boada J, Brenke R, et al. Pathological aspects of lipid peroxidation. *Free Radic Res*. 2010; 44: 1125-1171.
20. Dmitriev LF, Titov VN. Lipid peroxidation in relation to ageing and the role of endogenous aldehydes in diabetes and other age-related diseases. *Ageing Res Rev*. 2010; 9: 200-210.
21. Fang ZY, Prins JB, Marwick TH. Diabetic cardiomyopathy: evidence, mechanisms, and therapeutic implications. *Endocr Rev*. 2004; 25: 543-567.
22. Boudina S, Bugger H, Sena S, O'Neill BT, Zaha VG, Ilkun O, et al. Contribution of impaired myocardial insulin signaling to mitochondrial dysfunction and oxidative stress in the heart. *Circulation*. 2009; 119: 1272-1283.
23. van Heerebeek L, Somsen A, Paulus WJ. The failing diabetic heart: focus on diastolic left ventricular dysfunction. *Curr Diab Rep*. 2009; 9: 79-86.
24. Yuen HK. Factors associated with preventive care practice among adults with diabetes. *Prim Care Diabetes*. 2012; 6: 75-78.
25. Hutchinson KR, Lord CK, West TA, Stewart JA Jr. Cardiac fibroblast-dependent extracellular matrix accumulation is associated with diastolic stiffness in type 2 diabetes. *PLoS One*. 2013; 8: e72080.
26. Weber KT, Pick R, Jalil JE, Janicki JS, Carroll EP. Patterns of myocardial fibrosis. *J Mol Cell Cardiol*. 1989; 21 Suppl 5: 121-131.
27. Dobaczewski M, Gonzalez-Quesada C, Frangogiannis NG. The extracellular matrix as a modulator of the inflammatory and reparative response following myocardial infarction. *J Mol Cell Cardiol*. 2010; 48: 504-511.
28. Hinz B, Phan SH, Thannickal VJ, Galli A, Bochaton-Piallat ML, Gabbiani G. The myofibroblast: one function, multiple origins. *Am J Pathol*. 2007; 170: 1807-1816.
29. Fowlkes V, Clark J, Fix C, Law BA, Morales MO, Qiao X, et al. Type II diabetes promotes a myofibroblast phenotype in cardiac fibroblasts. *Life Sci*. 2013; 92: 669-676.
30. Fan D, Takawale A, Lee J, Kassiri Z. Cardiac fibroblasts, fibrosis and extracellular matrix remodeling in heart disease. *Fibrogenesis Tissue Repair*. 2012; 5: 15.
31. Nguyen TP, Qu Z, Weiss JN. Cardiac fibrosis and arrhythmogenesis: the road to repair is paved with perils. *J Mol Cell Cardiol*. 2014; 70: 83-91.
32. McDowell KS, Vadakkumpadan F, Blake R, Blauer J, Plank G, Macleod RS, et al. Mechanistic inquiry into the role of tissue remodeling in fibrotic lesions in human atrial fibrillation. *Biophys J*. 2013; 104: 2764-2773.
33. Rosker C, Salvarani N, Schmutz S, Grand T, Rohr S. Abolishing myofibroblast arrhythmogenicity by pharmacological ablation of alpha-smooth muscle actin containing stress fibers. *Circ Res*. 2011; 109: 1120-1131.
34. Köppel H, Riedl E, Braunagel M, Sauerhoefer S, Ehnert S, Godoy P, et al. L-carnosine inhibits high-glucose-mediated matrix accumulation in human mesangial cells by interfering with TGF- β production and signalling. *Nephrol Dial Transplant*. 2011; 26: 3852-3858.
35. Ehalier R, Rossignol P, Kearney-Schwartz A, Adamopoulos C, Karatzidou K, Fay R, et al. Features of cardiac remodeling, associated with blood pressure and fibrosis biomarkers, are frequent in subjects with abdominal obesity. *Hypertension*. 2014; 63: 740-746.
36. Sparvero LJ, Asafu-Adjei D, Kang R, Tang D, Amin N, Im J, et al. RAGE (Receptor for Advanced Glycation Endproducts), RAGE ligands, and their role in cancer and inflammation. *J Transl Med*. 2009; 7: 17.
37. Bucciarelli LG, Wendt T, Rong L, Lalla E, Hofmann MA, Goova MT, et al. RAGE is a multiligand receptor of the immunoglobulin superfamily: implications for homeostasis and chronic disease. *Cell Mol Life Sci*. 2002; 59: 1117-1128.
38. Fritz G. RAGE: a single receptor fits multiple ligands. *Trends Biochem Sci*. 2011; 36: 625-632.
39. Kanwar YS, Sun L, Xie P, Liu FY, Chen S. A glimpse of various pathogenetic mechanisms of diabetic nephropathy. *Annu Rev Pathol*. 2011; 6: 395-423.
40. Tessier FJ, Birlouez-Aragon I. Health effects of dietary Maillard reaction products: the results of ICARE and other studies. *Amino Acids*. 2012; 42: 1119-1131.
41. Peyroux J, Sternberg M. Advanced glycation endproducts (AGEs): Pharmacological inhibition in diabetes. *Pathol Biol (Paris)*. 2006; 54: 405-419.
42. Ramasamy R, Schmidt AM. Receptor for advanced glycation end products (RAGE) and implications for the pathophysiology of heart failure. *Curr Heart Fail Rep*. 2012; 9: 107-116.
43. Creagh-Brown BC, Quinlan GJ, Evans TW, Burke-Gaffney A. The RAGE axis in systemic inflammation, acute lung injury and myocardial dysfunction: an important therapeutic target? *Intensive Care Med*. 2010; 36: 1644-1656.
44. Gregor MF, Hotamisligil GS. Inflammatory mechanisms in obesity. *Annu Rev Immunol*. 2011; 29: 415-445.
45. Frangogiannis NG. Regulation of the inflammatory response in cardiac repair. *Circ Res*. 2012; 110: 159-173.
46. Pillai SS, Sugathan JK, Indira M. Selenium downregulates RAGE and NF κ B expression in diabetic rats. *Biol Trace Elem Res*. 2012; 149: 71-77.
47. Biernacka A, Dobaczewski M, Frangogiannis NG. TGF- β signaling in fibrosis. *Growth Factors*. 2011; 29: 196-202.

48. Dobaczewski M, Chen W, Frangogiannis NG. Transforming growth factor (TGF)- β signaling in cardiac remodeling. *J Mol Cell Cardiol.* 2011; 51: 600-606.
49. Yamazaki KG, Gonzalez E, Zamboni AC. Crosstalk between the renin-angiotensin system and the advanced glycation end product axis in the heart: role of the cardiac fibroblast. *J Cardiovasc Transl Res.* 2012; 5: 805-813.
50. Massagué J. How cells read TGF-beta signals. *Nat Rev Mol Cell Biol.* 2000; 1: 169-178.
51. Larroque-Cardoso P, Mucher E, Grazide MH, Josse G, Schmitt AM, Nadal-Wolbold F, et al. 4-Hydroxynonenal impairs transforming growth factor- β 1-induced elastin synthesis via epidermal growth factor receptor activation in human and murine fibroblasts. *Free Radic Biol Med.* 2014; 71: 427-436.
52. Negre-Salvayre A, Coatrieux C, Ingueneau C, Salvayre R. Advanced lipid peroxidation end products in oxidative damage to proteins. Potential role in diseases and therapeutic prospects for the inhibitors. *Br J Pharmacol.* 2008; 153: 6-20.
53. Tabrizchi R. Edaravone Mitsubishi-Tokyo. *Curr Opin Investig Drugs.* 2000; 1: 347-354.
54. Watanabe T, Yuki S, Egawa M, Nishi H. Protective effects of MCI-186 on cerebral ischemia: possible involvement of free radical scavenging and antioxidant actions. *J Pharmacol Exp Ther.* 1994; 268: 1597-1604.
55. Kikuchi K, Tanchaen S, Takeshige N, Yoshitomi M, Morioka M, Murai Y, et al. The efficacy of edaravone (radicut), a free radical scavenger, for cardiovascular disease. *Int J Mol Sci.* 2013; 14: 13909-13930.
56. Aldini G, Dalle-Donne I, Facino R, Milzani A, Carini M. Intervention strategies to inhibit protein carbonylation by lipoxidation-derived reactive carbonyls. *Medicinal Research Reviews.* 2007; 27: 817-868.
57. Tsujita K, Shimomura H, Kawano H, Hokamaki J, Fukuda M, Yamashita T, Hida S. Effects of edaravone on reperfusion injury in patients with acute myocardial infarction. *Am J Cardiol.* 2004; 94: 481-484.
58. Tsujita K, Shimomura H, Kaikita K, Kawano H, Hokamaki J, Nagayoshi Y, et al. Long-term efficacy of edaravone in patients with acute myocardial infarction. *Circ J.* 2006; 70: 832-837.
59. Edelstein D, Brownlee M. Mechanistic studies of advanced glycosylation end product inhibition by aminoguanidine. *Diabetes.* 1992; 41: 26-29.
60. Thornalley PJ. Use of aminoguanidine (Pimagedine) to prevent the formation of advanced glycation endproducts. *Arch Biochem Biophys.* 2003; 419: 31-40.
61. Colzani M, Criscuolo A, De Maddis D, Garzon D, Yeum KJ, Vistoli G, et al. A novel high resolution MS approach for the screening of 4-hydroxy-trans-2-nonenal sequestering agents. *J Pharm Biomed Anal.* 2014; 91: 108-118.
62. Jandeleit-Dahm K, Cooper ME. The role of AGEs in cardiovascular disease. *Curr Pharm Des.* 2008; 14: 979-986.
63. Chang KC, Liang JT, Tsai PS, Wu MS, Hsu KL. Prevention of arterial stiffening by pyridoxamine in diabetes is associated with inhibition of the pathogenic glycation on aortic collagen. *Br J Pharmacol.* 2009; 157: 1419-1426.
64. Aldini G, Orioli M, Rossoni G, Savi F, Braidotti P, Vistoli G, et al. The carbonyl scavenger carnosine ameliorates dyslipidaemia and renal function in Zucker obese rats. *J Cell Mol Med.* 2011; 15: 1339-1354.
65. Vistoli G, Orioli M, Pedretti A, Regazzoni L, Canevotti R, Negrisoni G, et al. Design, synthesis, and evaluation of carnosine derivatives as selective and efficient sequestering agents of cytotoxic reactive carbonyl species. *ChemMedChem.* 2009; 4: 967-975.