



## Antioxidants in the Prevention of Renal Disease

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## REVIEW

# Antioxidants in the Prevention of Renal Disease

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### ABSTRACT

*In view of the role of oxidative processes in inflicting damage that leads to glomerulosclerosis and renal medullary interstitial fibrosis, more attention could be paid to the use of antioxidant food constituents and the usage of drugs with recognized antioxidant potential. In any case atherosclerosis is an important component of chronic renal diseases. There is a wide choice of foods and drugs that could confer benefit. Supplementation with vitamins E and C, use of soy protein diets and drinking green tea could be sufficient to confer remarkable improvements.*

**Key words:** Antioxidants; Inflammation; Glomerulonephritis; Pyelonephritis; Chronic renal failure; Atheroma cytokines; Nutrition.

### OXIDATIVE PROCESSES AND RENAL DAMAGE

In the course of an inflammatory process reactive oxygen species (ROS) arise from the activities of various enzymes (1), such as the NADPH oxidases, cyclooxygenases and lipoxygenases, the nitric oxide synthetases, xanthine oxidase and the mitochondrial respiratory chain. Various articles attest to the importance of damage by oxidative processes in glomerular inflammation (2-5), in ischemia-reperfusion of the renal tubules (6), and in induction of fibrosis of the renal interstitium (7,8).

Oxidative processes cause the liberation from glomerular cells of eicosnoids, cytokines and growth factors and they promote the activities of proteases (5). Thus once they are released, they magnify the extent of inflammation and the ensuing tendency to fibrosis (9). It is recognized that oxidation activates transcription factor NF-kappa B that determines release of cytokines, release of proteolytic enzymes and expression of tissue factor

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thromboplastin (1,10). Hydrogen peroxide and other oxidants also activate Ras GTPase (1,11) and the mitogen activated protein kinases (1) (MAPK). The transcription factor AP-1, composed of jun and fos gene products, is redox regulated (1), and is implicated in growth factor stimulated cell growth.

General mechanisms of oxidant damage to tissues and the need for tissue antioxidants have been reviewed by Halliwell (12). During glomerular inflammation ROS arise from the activities of phagocytes (13–14), and as a result of complement inflicted injury (15). It has been suggested that when there is glomerular hyperperfusion that means that fluid shear in the capillaries will cause ROS formation that will alter the structure of the vascular endothelium so that there is ensuing proteinuria. At that stage there is vasoconstriction, and on the endothelium there is display of procoagulant molecules and adhesion molecules for leucocytes. With time this is followed by a state of hypoperfusion during which glomerulosclerosis and renal interstitial fibrosis become (16) established. Certainly ROS alter the heparan sulfate proteoglycans of glomerular endothelial cells so that proteinuria ensues (17). Also ROS activate enzymes released by neutrophils, such as collagenase and gelatinase, so that proteinuria results from GBM digestion (5). Furthermore priming of neutrophils by peroxynitrite, created by interaction of ROS and nitric oxide, leads an enhanced local inflammatory response (18). In studies of passive Heymann nephritis, Kerjaschki (19) has detailed how onset of proteinuria is caused by the generation of ROS following insertion of C5b-9 into membranes of glomerular podocytes.

There is now much information concerning the oxidation of lipoproteins and how it explains atherogenesis and the genesis of glomerulosclerosis (20). Lipoproteins are oxidised by means of ROS, by free and metal bound ions, by 15-lipoxygenase in endothelium, and by the action of myeloperoxidase (21) that is liberated in arterial walls or in glomeruli. Peroxynitrite that is formed in plasma or in tissues contributes. Minimally modified LDL is enough to activate NF-Kappa B within cells. This reminds us that the effects of oxidation products on cellular responses can be as important in the progression of glomerular diseases as the initiating process (22).

It is realized too that production of oxidants in the course of inflammation will cause apoptosis of glomerular cells (23) and of infiltrating leucocytes (24). It has been demonstrated that Il-1 sensitizes glomerular cells to oxidant induced apoptosis by virtue of depression of hsp-70 (25). Any lowering of intracellular glutathione facilitates apoptosis (26). It is more easily demonstrable in non-renal tissue that lipid hydroperoxides can cause apoptosis (27).

### **General Usage of Anti-oxidants and Their Rationale**

One is familiar with the sale by health food stores of foods, vitamins and drugs for their antioxidant potential (28). Fruits, grains and vegetables will supply vitamins E and C, plant phenolics such as the flavanoids, and other putative anticancer agents (29). The antioxidant nutrients hold out the promise of a reduced incidence of cancer and improvements in survival (30). For example, eating 300 gms cooked brussel sprouts each day protects against oxidative damage to one's DNA (31). One might prefer selenium supplementation. Selenium is a component of the glutathione peroxidases that are involved in removal of both hydrogen peroxide and lipid peroxides in tissues (32).

There are campaigns to promote antioxidants and trials of their use in prevention of atherosclerosis (33), and specifically the use of vitamin E to reduce the chance of coronary artery plaque rupture. At 400 IU per day vitamin E increases the oxidative resistance of LDL. Allopurinol reduces lipoprotein oxidation as it is a free radical scavenger (34).

Vitamin C can improve endothelial cell function in smokers (35). By its ability to enhance formation of nitric oxide by endothelial cells, garlic inhibits platelet aggregation (36,37). Therefore one must recall that atherosclerosis is a significant component of diabetic kidney disease and can be a problem in any nephrotic syndrome.

Antioxidant enzymes like the superoxide dismutases (MnSOD or CuSOD) and catalase are important for the protection of the renal tubules (38), and indeed they help to assuage renal tubular necrosis (39). SODs are present at low concentration in extracellular fluids and they bind to heparan sulfate proteoglycans on capillary endothelial cells, so providing a protective coat (38). Both SOD and catalase can be used to ameliorate injury in puromycin aminonucleoside nephrosis in rats (40). Intracellular reduced glutathione has an important antioxidant action and supports these enzymes. Metal binding proteins like the metallothioneins are important too in the renal tubules for protection of the DNA (41).

### What Can Antioxidants Do?

In patients with chronic renal failure there is an increase of plasma lipid peroxides and enhanced red cell lipoperoxidation, as measured by malonyldialdehyde (MDA). Such changes are improved by a low protein diet of vegetable material with supplementary vitamins A,E and C (42).

In experimental situations one can control aspects of inflammation by the use of N-acetylcysteine, 2 mercaptoethanol, dithiocarbamates (43), butylated hydroxyanisole, vitamin E, 21 amino steroids, or chelators of iron and copper. Antioxidants inhibit formation of ROS by phagocytes (28) and inhibit inducible nitric oxide synthase (iNOS) production by infiltrating macrophages (44), they inhibit IL-1 induced cyclooxygenase together with iNOS in mesangial cells (45), and they can inhibit formation of chemokines (46) and cytokines (47,48).

In organ transplantation it has been demonstrated that antioxidant vitamins reduce reperfusion injury of the kidney and endothelial cell expression of ICAM-1 leukocyte adhesion molecule (49). Salahudeen et al. (50) have shown that use of the antioxidant lazaroid (21-amino-steroid) U 74006F not only helps cold preservation of the kidney but its use results in fewer rejection episodes in a syngeneic animal renal transplant model. These authors note how lazaroid reduces expression of cytokines, reduces expression of MHC Class II antigens and reduces iNOS activity. TNF $\alpha$  exerts its action via NF- $\kappa$ B activation. Both ROS and RNIs (reactive nitrogen intermediates) provoke release of cytokines via NF- $\kappa$ B activation (51), but that effect can be offset by antioxidants. In rat studies it has been demonstrated how cyclosporin induces glomerular formation of ROIs, and that can be offset by means of vitamin E (52).

One can expect phagocyte functions to be dampened. Indeed taurine (53) and N-acetylcysteine reduce the activity of NADPH oxidase (54). There is good reason to think that, once bacteria have been eliminated, pyelonephritic damage is perpetuated by phagocytes via oxidant and cytokine release, and this might be curtailed by antioxidants (55). Adjuvant enhancement of the immune response, a macrophage propensity, is suppressed (56) by some antioxidants, and so is the action of T lymphocytes since JNK the c-Jun NH<sub>2</sub> terminal kinase is subject to antioxidant control (57). Yet each antioxidant has to be assessed individually. The agent thioproline, an intracellular sulfhydryl antioxidant, will enhance immune responses and prolong the life of aging mice (58).

Many glomerulonephritides are initiated by leukocyte infiltration. Therefore it is of note that lung inflammation is suppressed by antioxidants (59). Leukocyte infiltration arises from the expression of adhesion molecules on vascular endothelium (60). So one

notes that Ferran et al. (61) showed that inhibition of NF- $\kappa$ B by antioxidant blocks TNF $\alpha$  induction of adhesion molecules. N-acetylcysteine (62) or flavanoids (63) prevent endothelial cell activation and expression of adhesion molecules for leukocytes. Yet a cocktail of antioxidant vitamins was not noted to influence the expression of adhesion molecules in man (64), even though reactions to oxidised LDL might be blocked *in vitro* (65). There are encouraging reports, both experimental and clinical, that acute renal impairment associated with cholestasis or hepatic disease can be ameliorated by the use of N-acetylcysteine (66), which is known to stop activation of NF- $\kappa$ B and thereby the acute cytokine response.

Antioxidants act in various ways to prevent lipid peroxidation, albeit this is not their only way of conferring benefit. Firstly they prevent first chain initiation by scavenging initial radicals, such as hydroxyl radicals OH $\cdot$ . Secondly, they bind metal ions, so preventing them from acting as peroxidation initiating species. Thirdly, they break radical chains so that intermediate peroxy or alkoxy radicals are scavenged, so preventing continuing hydrogen abstraction. Fourthly, they will decompose peroxides by converting them to non-radical products like alcohols.

### **The Choice of Antioxidant Diet or Drugs**

In order to help patients we need to look at the choice of food antioxidants (67), extracts of foodstuffs and antioxidant drugs.

### **Can Antioxidants Contribute to Amelioration of Renal Disease?**

When one considers the numerous damaging reactions in which oxidation is implicated (2-6), the short answer must be that dietary antioxidants could be very useful, but measuring benefit might be difficult. When nephrologists recommend low protein diets in order to ameliorate the course of progressive renal disease, they often do not specify exactly which protein foods should be consumed. The potential of soyprotein (71) has hitherto been overlooked. The isoflavones in that diet are akin to natural estrogens and are antioxidant (128,129), and there are plant phenolics like caffeic acid. Soyprotein has the added advantage that plasma cholesterol is lowered.

Table 1 lists a wide variety of foods with antioxidant potential. Individuals vary in what in what they will choose to add to what might be a boring low protein (42) diet. There are herbals (79,80), Asian and Indian choices. Many of these foodstuffs could be refined and presented in another form, like cacao polyphenols that are in chocolate (130). If the aim is to reduce inflammation, as in the glomerulonephritides, one will note that curcumin (91) has been shown to block the expression of adhesion molecules like ICAM-1, ELAM-1 and VCAM-1 on endothelial cells (131). Of ten one aims to suppress ROS that contribute to the genesis of interstitial fibrosis of the kidneys (7).

It is remarkable that ACE inhibitors inhibit NF- $\kappa$ B (132) and thereby reduce the release of cytokines and growth factors. A lot of patients do not tolerate ACEI drugs. In choosing other hypotensive agents, one might like to contemplate those with antioxidant potential. Some of the beta-blockers (127,133) and many calcium channel antagonists (123,124,134) have this potential, but one has to note that often the tissue that has been studied is myocardium and the data may not be exactly relevant. It is reported that nicardipine is a preventive antioxidant and verapamil is a chain-breaking antioxidant, but diltiazem has little effect (123). Yet the clinical facts are that diltiazem and verapamil are the best calcium channel blockers for the prevention of glomerulosclerosis (135).

**Table 1***Choice of Antioxidants*

Vitamins	Vitamins E, C or A (28–29), morin hydrate (68), vitamin K (69).
Foods	Soy protein meals (70,71), garlic (36,37), vegetable low protein (42) diet, soy isoflavones (72), other phytoestrogens (73,74), polyphenols in green tea (75), chocolate (76), olive oil (77,78), rooperal dicatichol (48), glabridin polyphenol in liquorice, brussel sprouts (31), purslane leaf (79), mustard, hawthorn drink (80), flavanoids (81,82), eg from apples (83), citrus fruit (84), silymarin (85), coumarins (83), Sandhika herbal drug (86), herbal mixtures, tocotrienols of palm oil, lycopene of tomato (88,89), spinach, stawberries (90), guava, papaya fruits, curcumin from turmeric (91), apocyanin (40H-methoxy-acetophenone) from Picrorhiza (92).
Experimental Agents	Glutathione, N-acetylcysteine (54,62), dithiocarbamates inhibit NF-kB, taurine (53,93), DMTU (1,3 dimethyl-2-thiourea) (94), urate (95), allopurinol (34), OPC 15161-a pyradzinone-4-oxide (96), nitroxides (97), NDGA, 5-lipoxygenase inhibitor (98), 21 aminosteroids (lazaroids) (99,100), ebselen radical scavenger and glutathione peroxidase mimic (101), L-arginine (102), prostaglandin E2, gabexate mesilate (103), hydroxyethylrutosides, pantothenic acid, neopterin (104), ellagic acid (103), desferrioxamine.
Drugs	
Specific antioxidants	Probucol (106–108) and thyronines like Leumedin (109).
Corticosteroid	via the induction of Mn superoxide dismutase
Hypolipidemic	troglitazone and analogues
HRT agents	estradiol and medroxyprogesterone acetate
Anticancer	tamoxifen
Antinflammatory	dapsone (110,111), pentoxifyllin (112–114), dipyridamole (115,116), heparins (117,118)
Cardiovascular	some beta-blockers (119), in particular carvedilol (120,121), amlodipine (122), other Ca <sup>2+</sup> blockers eg verapamil (125), indapamide (126), ACE inhibitors (127) eg captopril, enalapril, lisinopril, losartan, lovastatin.

The  $\beta$ - $\alpha$ 1 adrenoreceptor blocker carvedilol with antioxidant potential (121), is known to protect against cardiovascular disease (135,137). In the rat remnant kidney model, carvedilol was shown to protect against fibrosis, and yet in that situation no change in antioxidant status was shown (138)! So an antioxidant action is only part of the action of a drug and at the present time we do not know sufficient about the details. Indapamide, a diuretic related to chlorthalidone, is an effective alternative to ACEI in the control of microalbuminuria (139). Its antioxidant potential was thought to confer renal protection in hypertensive rats (140).

So when one looks at the antiinflammatory agents does one know whether antioxidant potential matters? The theoretical expectation that it can, will not satisfy all. There is dapsone that is used for Henoch-Schonlein purpura and other leukocytoclastic vasculitides (111,141), and dipyrindamole for nephritides (115,116) and pentoxifylline for vasculitides (114,141). Heparins are antiproliferative (142) for mesangial and smooth muscle cells. They are also antioxidant (117) but is that not a separate attribute? And might one consider L-arginine (102) to enhance formation of nitric oxide or nitroxides (97)? Well isosorbide dinitrate therapy is simpler (143). Local nitric oxide can certainly help suppress formation of new collagen (144).

You will expect me to make a precise recommendation, but I am not a food chemist. Prior and Cao (145) have just published data that show that drinking green tea is enough to satisfy the dietary antioxidant requirement. For the benefit of renal patients one can add a soy protein diet. Choice of drugs is then a refinement but clearly more experimental data are required.

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