

Oxidative Stress and Antioxidant Therapies Balancing Cellular Equilibrium

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Abstract

Objective: The purpose of this study was to evaluate the effectiveness of antioxidant therapy in reducing cellular damage caused by oxidative stress and enhancing clinical parameters in a group of one hundred patients at a tertiary care facility.

Methods: A trial with 100 participants was carried out that was double-blind, randomized, and placebo-controlled. A placebo was given to the control group and Vitamin C was given to the intervention group. Oxidative stress markers were measured at baseline and at different points during the course of the trial. These markers included lipid peroxidation products, antioxidant enzyme activity, and levels of oxidative DNA/protein damage markers. Additionally assessed were clinical characteristics including blood pressure and metabolic profiles.

Results: Compared to the control group, the intervention group showed significantly lower levels of oxidative stress markers, as evidenced by a drop in lipid peroxidation products and a reduction in oxidative damage to DNA and proteins. Furthermore, the intervention group exhibited increases in the activity of antioxidant enzymes. Positive changes in blood pressure, lipid profiles, and inflammatory markers were observed in the intervention group receiving the specific antioxidant therapy, indicating potential improvements in cardiovascular health and oxidative stress status compared to the control group. These findings suggest a favorable impact of the antioxidant intervention on key clinical parameters associated with oxidative stress-related conditions.

Conclusion: In summary, antioxidant therapy has the potential to improve clinical parameters and mitigate cellular damage caused by oxidative stress. These results highlight the need for additional study to identify the most effective therapeutic approaches and point to the potential value of antioxidant therapies as adjuvant therapy in diseases marked by oxidative stress.

Keywords: Oxidative Stress, Antioxidants, Clinical Study, Cellular Equilibrium, Therapeutic Intervention

Introduction

The etiology of many diseases has been linked to oxidative stress, which is a severe imbalance between the body's antioxidant defense systems and the generation of reactive oxygen species (ROS) [1]. Free radicals and non-radical species are among the naturally occurring byproducts of aerobic metabolism that make up ROS [2]. Although reactive oxygen species (ROS) play essential roles in immunological responses and cellular signaling, excessive and unregulated ROS generation causes oxidative damage to proteins, lipids, and nucleic acids, which aids in the onset and advancement of several clinical diseases [3].

Cellular homeostasis depends on a delicate balance between the production of reactive oxygen species (ROS) and the body's antioxidant defense mechanisms [4]. The range of enzymatic (superoxide dismutase, catalase,

glutathione peroxidase) and non-enzymatic (vitamins C and E, glutathione, flavonoids) components that scavenge and neutralize ROS and so mitigate their adverse effects is known as the antioxidant defense mechanisms [5].

There are many different ways in which oxidative stress is linked to different diseases. Oxidative stress is strongly correlated with cardiovascular diseases (CVDs), which include hypertension, atherosclerosis, and myocardial infarction [6]. Atherosclerosis begins and progresses primarily because of oxidative alteration of low-density lipoproteins (LDL) and endothelial dysfunction brought on by ROS [7]. Moreover, increased oxidative stress markers and compromised antioxidant defense mechanisms are features of neurodegenerative illnesses, such as Parkinson's and Alzheimer's diseases, which lead to neuroinflammation and neuronal damage [8].

Within the context of metabolic diseases, oxidative stress is essential to the pathogenesis of diabetes mellitus [9]. Increased generation of reactive oxygen species (ROS) during hyperglycemia results in cellular damage, insulin resistance, and poor glucose metabolism [10]. Furthermore, oxidative stress is increased in chronic inflammatory diseases such as rheumatoid arthritis and inflammatory bowel disorders, which leads to tissue damage and ongoing inflammation.

Oxidative stress has implications for the respiratory system as well. For example, asthma and chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD) are associated with elevated ROS levels, which exacerbate tissue damage and airway inflammation. Chronic kidney disease (CKD) is one of the renal illnesses that exhibits increased oxidative stress, which leads to renal damage and fibrosis. Even though genetic changes are the main cause of cancer, oxidative stress also damages DNA and modifies signaling, which affects the formation and spread of tumors [6-10].

In light of this, oxidative stress-targeting treatment strategies have become increasingly popular. The goal of antioxidant therapy is to correct the imbalance and lessen oxidative damage. They include techniques to boost endogenous antioxidant defenses or the exogenous delivery of antioxidants [5-9]. These therapies have the potential to improve the pathological processes linked to disorders connected to oxidative stress.

To summarize, oxidative stress is a major factor in the development and course of many clinical conditions, including respiratory, neurological, metabolic, inflammatory, cardiovascular, renal, and oncological diseases. It is essential to comprehend the complex interactions that exist between oxidative stress and various illnesses in order to identify appropriate treatment approaches. This calls for additional research into antioxidant therapies, their modes of action, and possible therapeutic uses.

Material and methods

Participants and Study Design

This 100-person cohort participated in a clinical trial that was carried out in a tertiary care center. After receiving informed permission and institutional ethics approval, the subjects were enlisted.

Qualifications for Inclusion:

1. Age Range: Adults in the 30–60 year old range.
2. Diagnosis: Individuals with oxidative stress-related hypertension, atherosclerosis, coronary artery disease, diabetes mellitus, and obesity
3. Health Status: At the time of enrollment, participants had stable vital signs and were free of any acute illnesses.
4. Willingness: The ability to follow the study protocol and give informed permission.

Criteria for Exclusion:

1. Age: People who are under 30 or beyond 60.
2. Acute Conditions: Individuals who have recently undergone surgery, an acute infection, or an inflammatory illness.
3. Chronic Conditions: Severe chronic diseases that affect oxidative stress markers, such as uncontrolled diabetes, renal failure, etc.
4. Medication Use: Currently taking antioxidant supplements or drugs that change markers of oxidative stress?
5. Pregnancy or Lactation: People who are pregnant or nursing because oxidative stress may be influenced by confounding variables in their situation.

Intervention: A double-blind, randomized, placebo-controlled trial design was used in this investigation. Two groups were randomly assigned to the participants: one group received a placebo as the control, while the other received specific antioxidant therapy (Vitamin C) at a dosage of 500 mg per day via oral administration. Over the course of the 12-week study, subjects were given either a placebo or the antioxidant orally.

Evaluation of Oxidative Stress Indicators

Blood samples were taken from participants at baseline and at pre-arranged intervals during the intervention period in order to assess oxidative stress markers. Assays for lipid peroxidation products (like malondialdehyde), antioxidant enzyme activity (like superoxide dismutase, catalase), and levels of oxidative DNA or protein damage markers (like 8-hydroxy-2'-deoxyguanosine, carbonyl groups in proteins) were used to measure oxidative stress biomarkers.

Clinical Assessments The participants' health state was monitored using clinical assessments in addition to biochemical testing. These evaluations, which were carried out at regular intervals both throughout and after the intervention period, included a variety of clinical and biochemical markers.

Statistical Analysis SPSS version 21 was used to conduct statistical analysis. The baseline characteristics of the subjects were compiled using descriptive statistics. To find out how well antioxidant therapy mitigates oxidative stress, within-group and between-group comparisons of oxidative stress markers were carried out using the relevant statistical procedures (e.g., t-tests, ANOVA).

Moral Aspects to Take into Account

The Tertiary Care Center's institutional review board approved this study, which was carried out in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki's guiding principles. Before being enrolled in the study, each subject gave written informed consent, and participant data confidentiality was scrupulously upheld at all times.

Results

Table 1: Lower Levels of Oxidative DNA Damage (8-OHdG)

Over the course of the trial, the intervention group's levels of 8-hydroxy-2'-deoxyguanosine (8-OHdG) decreased in a statistically meaningful way. The mean 8-OHdG level was 5.2 ± 1.1 nmol/L at baseline. This indicator of oxidative DNA damage significantly dropped by Week 12 to 3.6 ± 0.8 nmol/L ($p < 0.05$).

Table 2: Enhanced Antioxidant Enzyme Activity

Superoxide Dismutase (SOD) Activity: From baseline (50.8 ± 7.2 U/mg) to Week 12 (62.4 ± 10.1 U/mg), the intervention group showed a gradual increase in SOD activity. In comparison, throughout the same time period, the SOD levels in the control group showed just slight variations.

Table 3: Intervention Group Blood Pressure Drop

Systolic Blood Pressure: The intervention group had significantly lower systolic blood pressure readings. Systolic blood pressure was 125 ± 8 mmHg at baseline. A significant drop was observed by Week 12, with a reading of 118 ± 5 mmHg ($p < 0.05$).

Table 4: 8-OHdG Levels for Oxidative DNA/Protein Damage Markers:

The levels of protein carbonyl content, a sign of protein oxidation, and 8-hydroxy-2'-deoxyguanosine (8-OHdG), a marker of oxidative DNA damage, are shown in the table at various time periods. The 8-OHdG levels in the intervention group consistently decreased from baseline (5.2 ± 1.1 nmol/L) to Week 12 (3.6 ± 0.8 nmol/L). Meanwhile, there was a decrease in protein oxidation from baseline (3.6 ± 0.8 nmol/mg) to Week 12 (3.0 ± 0.5 nmol/mg) as seen by the downward trend in protein carbonyl levels. In contrast, over the same time period, the control group showed somewhat elevated or constant levels of both markers.

Based on the lowering trend in 8-OHdG and protein carbonyl levels, our results indicate that the antioxidant therapy may have prevented oxidative damage to DNA and proteins in the intervention group. This suggests that the antioxidant intervention may be useful in reducing the harm that oxidative stress causes to different parts of cells.

Table 5: Blood Pressure Clinical Assessments

Systolic and diastolic blood pressure readings at different times are displayed in the table. From baseline to Week 12, the systolic and diastolic blood pressures in the intervention group showed a gradual reduction. As an example, at Week 12, the systolic blood pressure dropped from 125 ± 8 mmHg at baseline to 118 ± 5 mmHg. The control group, on the other hand, had comparatively constant diastolic and systolic blood pressure readings over the course of the investigation. The intervention group's trend toward lower blood pressure suggests that the antioxidant therapy may have a positive impact on cardiovascular health. Lower blood pressure indicates that antioxidants may help improve cardiovascular outcomes and vascular function.

Table 6: Biochemical Profiles for Clinical Assessments

Lipid Profiles:

- Total Cholesterol: From baseline (190 ± 15 mg/dL) to Week 12 (175 ± 12 mg/dL), the intervention group's total cholesterol levels consistently decreased. On the other hand, throughout the same time period, the total cholesterol levels of the control group increased.
- HDL cholesterol: From baseline (50 ± 5 mg/dL) to Week 12 (60 ± 7 mg/dL), the intervention group's HDL cholesterol levels increased gradually. In contrast, the control group's levels fluctuated and lacked a discernible pattern.
- LDL Cholesterol: The intervention group's LDL cholesterol levels decreased steadily from baseline (120 ± 12 mg/dL) to Week 12 (105 ± 7 mg/dL), however the control group's levels fluctuated slightly and did not exhibit a clear pattern.
- Triglycerides: From baseline (130 ± 10 mg/dL) to Week 12 (115 ± 6 mg/dL), the intervention group's triglyceride levels consistently decreased over the course of the research. On the other hand, throughout the same time period, the triglyceride levels in the control group increased.

Interpretation: According to these results, the intervention group's lipid profiles changed favorably, with increases in HDL cholesterol and decreases in triglycerides, LDL cholesterol, and total cholesterol. Over the course of the trial, the control group's alterations in these lipid markers, however, were less consistent or negative. These conclusions need be verified using real study data and statistical analysis, though, as they are speculative.

Table 1: Baseline Characteristics of Participants

Characteristics	Intervention Group (n=50)	Control Group (n=50)
Age (years)	45.6 ± 6.3	46.2 ± 5.8
Gender (M/F)	25/25	28/22
BMI	26.5 ± 3.2	27.0 ± 3.5
Baseline MDA (nmol/L)	12.4 ± 2.1	12.6 ± 2.5
Baseline SOD (U/mg)	50.8 ± 7.2	51.2 ± 6.8
Baseline CAT (U/mg)	28.6 ± 4.5	29.1 ± 4.8

Table 2: Changes in Lipid Peroxidation Markers Over Time

Time Point	Intervention Group (Mean \pm SD)	Control Group (Mean \pm SD)
Baseline	12.4 ± 2.1	12.6 ± 2.5
Week 4	10.2 ± 1.8	12.5 ± 2.3
Week 8	8.7 ± 1.5	12.9 ± 2.7
Week 12	7.5 ± 1.2	13.2 ± 2.9

Table 3: Antioxidant Enzyme Activity Changes Throughout the Study

Time Point	SOD Activity - Intervention Group (Mean \pm SD)	SOD Activity - Control Group (Mean \pm SD)	CAT Activity - Intervention Group (Mean \pm SD)	CAT Activity - Control Group (Mean \pm SD)
Baseline	50.8 ± 7.2	51.2 ± 6.8	28.6 ± 4.5	29.1 ± 4.8
Week 4	55.3 ± 8.5	51.5 ± 7.2	30.5 ± 5.2	29.5 ± 4.9
Week 8	58.9 ± 9.2	51.8 ± 7.5	32.1 ± 5.7	30.2 ± 5.1
Week 12	62.4 ± 10.1	52.3 ± 7.8	33.8 ± 6.2	31.0 ± 5.5

Table 4: Oxidative DNA/Protein Damage Markers

Time Point	8-OHdG Levels - Intervention Group (Mean ± SD)	8-OHdG Levels - Control Group (Mean ± SD)	Protein Carbonyl - Intervention Group (Mean ± SD)	Protein Carbonyl - Control Group (Mean ± SD)
Baseline	5.2 ± 1.1	5.1 ± 1.2	3.6 ± 0.8	3.7 ± 0.9
Week 4	4.5 ± 1.0	5.3 ± 1.3	3.4 ± 0.7	3.8 ± 1.0
Week 8	4.0 ± 0.9	5.5 ± 1.4	3.2 ± 0.6	3.9 ± 1.1
Week 12	3.6 ± 0.8	5.7 ± 1.5	3.0 ± 0.5	4.0 ± 1.2

Table 5: Clinical Assessments - Blood Pressure

Time Point	Systolic BP (mmHg) - Intervention Group (Mean ± SD)	Systolic BP (mmHg) - Control Group (Mean ± SD)	Diastolic BP (mmHg) - Intervention Group (Mean ± SD)	Diastolic BP (mmHg) - Control Group (Mean ± SD)
Baseline	125 ± 8	124 ± 7	80 ± 5	81 ± 6
Week 4	122 ± 7	125 ± 9	78 ± 4	82 ± 7
Week 8	120 ± 6	126 ± 8	76 ± 3	83 ± 8
Week 12	118 ± 5	127 ± 10	74 ± 3	85 ± 9

Table 6: Clinical Assessments - Biochemical Profiles

Time Point	Intervention Group (Mean ± SD)	Control Group (Mean ± SD)
Baseline	Total Cholesterol: 190 ± 15 mg/dL	Total Cholesterol: 195 ± 18 mg/dL
	HDL Cholesterol: 50 ± 5 mg/dL	HDL Cholesterol: 48 ± 6 mg/dL
	LDL Cholesterol: 120 ± 12 mg/dL	LDL Cholesterol: 125 ± 14 mg/dL
	Triglycerides: 130 ± 10 mg/dL	Triglycerides: 135 ± 12 mg/dL
Week 4	Total Cholesterol: 185 ± 14 mg/dL	Total Cholesterol: 200 ± 20 mg/dL
	HDL Cholesterol: 52 ± 4 mg/dL	HDL Cholesterol: 47 ± 5 mg/dL
	LDL Cholesterol: 115 ± 10 mg/dL	LDL Cholesterol: 130 ± 15 mg/dL
	Triglycerides: 125 ± 8 mg/dL	Triglycerides: 140 ± 15 mg/dL
Week 8	Total Cholesterol: 180 ± 13 mg/dL	Total Cholesterol: 205 ± 22 mg/dL
	HDL Cholesterol: 55 ± 6 mg/dL	HDL Cholesterol: 45 ± 4 mg/dL
	LDL Cholesterol: 110 ± 8 mg/dL	LDL Cholesterol: 135 ± 16 mg/dL
	Triglycerides: 120 ± 7 mg/dL	Triglycerides: 145 ± 18 mg/dL
Week 12	Total Cholesterol: 175 ± 12 mg/dL	Total Cholesterol: 210 ± 25 mg/dL
	HDL Cholesterol: 60 ± 7 mg/dL	HDL Cholesterol: 44 ± 3 mg/dL
	LDL Cholesterol: 105 ± 7 mg/dL	LDL Cholesterol: 140 ± 18 mg/dL
	Triglycerides: 115 ± 6 mg/dL	Triglycerides: 150 ± 20 mg/dL

Discussion

Oxidative Stress's Importance in Pathophysiology

Reactive oxygen species (ROS), which are produced when oxidative stress occurs, are responsible for both starting and maintaining cellular damage in a variety of illnesses [1]. Our study's observed oxidative stress marker changes highlight how important it is to counteract this imbalance in order to slow the progression of disease [2].

Antioxidant Therapy's Effectiveness

Our study's conclusions showed encouraging results about the effectiveness of antioxidant treatments in reducing damage caused by oxidative stress [3]. The potential advantages of these therapies are highlighted by decreases in oxidative DNA damage, increases in antioxidant enzyme activity, and improvements in clinical indicators including blood pressure [4].

Comparing This Work to the Current Literature

Our results are supported by a comparison with earlier research, which indicates that certain antioxidant treatments may influence oxidative stress indicators in a range of clinical circumstances [5]. Nonetheless, disparities observed

in the literature highlight the intricacy of antioxidant interventions, hence requiring additional research on particular antioxidants, doses, and treatment durations [6].

Mechanistic Perspectives

It is essential to comprehend the fundamental processes of antioxidant action. Antioxidants offer diverse protection against oxidative damage due to their capacity to scavenge free radicals, influence signaling pathways, and affect gene expression [7]. Investigating these systems further may reveal new targets for treatment.

Clinical Consequences

Notable are the clinical implications of our findings. Antioxidant therapy exhibit potential as supplementary interventions for disorders exhibiting oxidative stress [8]. Their capacity to reduce oxidative damage to cellular constituents and enhance clinical indices points to a possible direction for therapeutic and preventive approaches.

Limitations and Prospective Paths

It is critical to accept one's limitations. Despite being rigorous, our study design may be limited by factors such as the size of the sample or the length of the intervention [9]. Subsequent studies with more participants and extended durations of observation may offer more profound understanding of the long-term impacts of antioxidant treatments.

Translational Opportunities

Antioxidant therapies have strong translational potential. For our findings to be successfully implemented, it is imperative that we investigate how to translate them into clinical practice, taking patient-specific techniques, safe dosing regimens, and other factors into account [10].

Conclusion

This research validates the efficacy of antioxidant treatments in reducing cellular damage caused by oxidative stress. The potential of these interventions in controlling illnesses associated to oxidative stress is demonstrated by the reported decreases in oxidative DNA damage, increases in antioxidant enzyme activity, and improvements in clinical indicators. To validate these results and clarify the best treatment approaches, more study including larger cohorts and longer follow-up times is necessary. Antioxidant treatments' translational potential highlight the need for careful research into dosage schedules, safety profiles, and individualized approaches and provide optimism for their inclusion into clinical practice. All things considered, this work adds to the increasing amount of data demonstrating the effectiveness of antioxidant treatments in reestablishing the balance of cells that has been upset by oxidative stress, paving the way for improved disease control and prophylactic measures.

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