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Peroxisome Proliferator Activated Receptor Agonists: Emerging Therapy for Cardiovascular Complications

Pitchai Balakumar, Madhankumar Rose and Manjeet Singh
Department of Pharmaceutical Sciences and Drug Research,
Punjabi University, Patiala, India

Abstract: Peroxisome Proliferator Activated Receptors (PPARs) are ligand-activated transcription factors of nuclear hormone receptor superfamily. The PPAR subfamily comprises of three members such as PPAR α , PPAR γ and PPAR δ . Activation of PPAR α induces gene expressions that promote fatty acid oxidation. Fibrates, which are currently used as hypolipidemic agents are PPAR α ligands. PPAR γ regulates gene expressions that promote insulin sensitization followed by glucose metabolism. Thiazolidinediones, which are presently employed as insulin-sensitizing anti-diabetic agents are PPAR γ agonists. On the other hand, PPAR δ also known as PPAR β is expressed ubiquitously and involved in fatty acid oxidation in tissues, which lack PPAR α . But no selective PPAR δ agonists are currently available for therapeutic use. Evidences from ongoing pre-clinical and clinical studies suggest that PPAR ligands exert broad spectrum of cardioprotective activities in addition to their above-mentioned properties. Agonists of PPARs are shown to inhibit the pathogenesis of atherosclerosis, endothelial dysfunction, heart failure and myocardial infarction. In this review, we discussed various recently developed PPAR ligands and their potential role in the prevention of pathogenesis of cardiovascular complications. Moreover, the novel class of currently developed PPAR dual agonists such as PPAR α/γ and PPAR α/δ agonists and pan agonists such as PPAR $\alpha/\gamma/\delta$ agonists have also been discussed, which may be novel emerging therapeutic agents for cardiovascular complications.

Key words: PPAR family, PPAR agonists, cardiovascular complications

INTRODUCTION

Peroxisome Proliferator Activated Receptors (PPARs) belong to the nuclear receptor superfamily (Huss and Kelly, 2004). Three isoforms of PPARs, encoded by different genes, have been identified such as PPAR α , PPAR γ and PPAR δ (Buse, 2003). PPAR α agonists regulate fatty acid uptake and oxidation and thus involved in maintaining energy homeostasis. Further, PPAR α agonists are reported to have additional benefits of inhibiting the pathogenesis of atherogenesis (Verma and Szmitko, 2006), endothelial dysfunction (Sood *et al.*, 2003), cardiac hypertrophy (Ichihara *et al.*, 2006) and myocardial injury (Wayman *et al.*, 2002). PPAR γ agonists promote adipogenesis and insulin sensitization. Moreover, these agents have been found to possess pleiotrophic effects by inhibiting the pathogenesis of cardiovascular complications such as atherosclerosis (Blaschke *et al.*, 2006), vascular remodeling (Wakino *et al.*, 2000), endothelial dysfunction (Martens *et al.*, 2006), hypertension (Wakino *et al.*, 2004), cardiac hypertrophy (Diep *et al.*, 2004) and myocardial infarction (Molavi *et al.*, 2006). Hence, PPAR α/γ dual agonists, which are under development as emerging therapeutic option for preventing diabetic cardiovascular complications. Recently, PPAR α/γ dual agonism has been shown to improve insulin sensitivity and prevent left ventricular dysfunction, which suggests that dual agonists

Corresponding Author: Dr. Pitchai Balakumar, Department of Pharmaceutical Sciences and Drug Research,
Cardiovascular Pharmacology Division, Punjabi University, Patiala-147002 India
Tel: +91-9815557265 Fax: +91-175-2283073

may provide synergistic benefit of alleviating diabetes associated cardiovascular complications (Verreth *et al.*, 2006). PPAR δ is involved in fatty acid oxidation in tissues, which lacks PPAR α . PPAR δ agonists have been noted to attenuate atherosclerosis (Graham *et al.*, 2005) and hypertrophy of heart (Planavila *et al.*, 2005a). Therefore, current research programs are actively involving in development of agents that act collectively on PPAR α , PPAR γ and PPAR δ . Few such compounds are under development, which may open a novel vista for the treatment of cardiovascular complications.

Peroxisome Proliferator Activated Receptor α (PPAR α)

PPAR α plays an important role in the oxidation of fatty acids. PPAR α is highly expressed in tissues with high rates of fatty acid catabolism such as hepatocytes, cardiomyocytes, cortex of kidney, skeletal muscles, brown adiposites and enterocytes (Braissant *et al.*, 1996; Ricote *et al.*, 1998). It is also present in Vascular Smooth Muscle Cells (VSMCs) (Staels *et al.*, 1998), endothelial cells (Marx *et al.*, 1999) and inflammatory cells (Marx *et al.*, 2001). Fibrates, the well-known hypolipidemic agents, such as bezafibrate, fenofibrate, clofibrate and gemfibrozil are ligands for PPAR α . Further newly developed compounds such as GW 7647, GW 9578, LY518674 and WY 14643 (Yeh *et al.*, 2006) are shown to have excellent selectivity for PPAR α receptors (Singh *et al.*, 2005; Javiya and Patel, 2006). PPAR α receptor regulates synthesis of enzymes that are necessary for peroxisomal and mitochondrial β -oxidation (Ferre, 2004). PPAR α agonists are reported to have additional benefits such as inhibition of atherogenesis (Verma and Szmilko, 2006), cardiac hypertrophy (Wakino *et al.*, 2004), endothelial dysfunction (Sood *et al.*, 2003) and myocardial injury (Yeh *et al.*, 2006) (Fig. 1). These pleiotropic effects of PPAR α agonists provide an effective therapeutic option in management of cardiovascular complications.

Atherosclerosis is a chronic inflammatory process within the arterial wall (Li and Glass, 2004) and it is associated with increased expressions of inflammatory markers such as C-reactive Protein (CRP), Tumor Necrosis Factor-alpha (TNF- α) and interleukin-6 (IL-6) (Zambon *et al.*, 2006). PPAR α ligands are beneficial in preventing atherosclerosis mainly through their anti-inflammatory property.

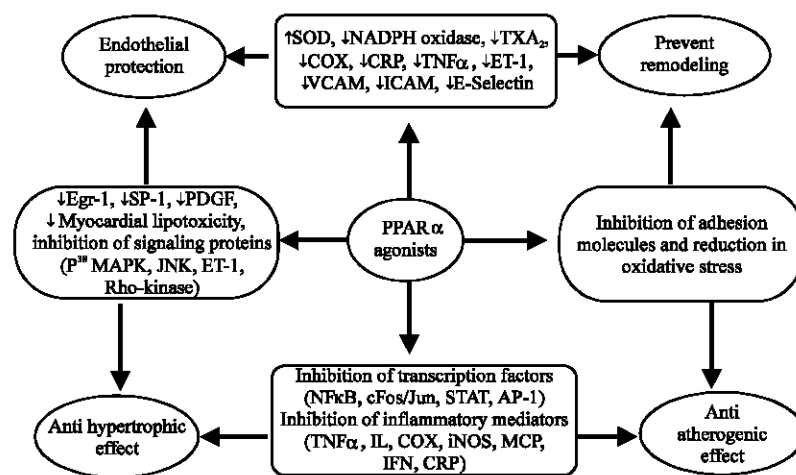


Fig. 1: The complex molecular mechanisms involving in the cardioprotective effect of PPAR α agonists. PPAR α agonists inhibit various transcription factors, inflammatory mediators, adhesion molecules and oxidative stress to prevent vascular remodeling, endothelial dysfunction, atherosclerosis and cardiac hypertrophy

PPAR α agonists have been noted to possess potent anti-inflammatory activity by directly inhibiting nuclear factor kappa B (NF- κ B), activator protein-1 (AP-1) and signal transducer and activators of transcription 1/3 (STAT1/3) signaling pathways (Staels and Fruchart, 2005). Further, the expression of pro-inflammatory mediators such as inducible nitric oxide synthase (iNOS), CRP, monocyte chemotactic protein-1 (MCP-1), matrix metalloproteinase-9 (MMP-9), IL-1 β , IL-6, IFN-inducible protein 10 (IP-10) and TNF α were suppressed by PPAR α ligands (Staels *et al.*, 1998; Cabrero *et al.*, 2002; Kleemann *et al.*, 2004; Staels and Fruchart, 2005; Blaschke *et al.*, 2006). Moreover, PPAR α ligands have been demonstrated to directly inhibit the expression of T-lymphocyte derived interferon gamma (IFN γ), which plays an integral role in transplantation associated atherosclerosis (Marx *et al.*, 2002; Schiffrin *et al.*, 2003). In endothelial cells, PPAR α agonists reduce cytokine-induced expression of vascular cell adhesion molecule-1 (VCAM-1), thus interfering with inflammatory cascade (Marx *et al.*, 1999). Furthermore, it has been shown that the PPAR α ligand reduced angiotensin II-induced oxidative stress and inflammation (Schiffrin *et al.*, 2003). PPAR α ligands also enhance cholesterol efflux by upregulating HDL receptor (Blaschke *et al.*, 2006).

Endothelial dysfunction is a hallmark in the pathogenesis of hypertension and atherosclerosis and is characterized by local lesions and deficiency of Nitric Oxide (NO) production. Clofibrate, a PPAR α agonist was shown to inhibit hyperhomocysteinemia-induced endothelial dysfunction by increasing the expression of endogenous anti-oxidant Superoxide Dismutase (SOD) and reducing the activity of NADPH oxidase. Further, clofibrate has been noted to inhibit the activation of MMP by reducing peroxynitrite formation (Sood *et al.*, 2003). Recently fenofibrate, an another PPAR α agonist has been noted to have protective effect towards age-associated endothelial dysfunction. The mechanism underlying this protective effect involves reduced release of thromboxane A₂ (TXA₂), decreased expressions of cyclooxygenase (COX) and increased expression of SOD (Alvarez de Sotomayor *et al.*, 2006).

Cardiac hypertrophy is an adaptive response of the heart, during which terminally differentiated cardiomyocytes increase in size without undergoing cell division. Initially, the hypertrophic response may be adaptive; however, prolonged hypertrophy can become detrimental resulting in cardiac dysfunction and heart failure (Balakumar and Singh, 2006b). Various signaling proteins such as Rho-kinase (Balakumar and Singh, 2006c), poly (ADP-ribose) polymerase (PARP) (Balakumar and Singh, 2006b, d), caspase-3 (Balakumar and Singh, 2006e), endothelin (Miyachi and Masaki, 1999), P³⁸-mitogen activated protein kinase (P³⁸ MAPK), cJun N-terminal kinase (JNK) and redox regulated transcription factors such as NF- κ B, AP-1, early growth response gene-1 (Egr 1), Surfactant Protein 1 (SP1), E26 transformation specific-1 (Ets-1), c-Fos and c-Jun are implicated in the pathogenesis of cardiac hypertrophy (Purcell *et al.*, 2001; Ritter and Neyses, 2003). Further, several inflammatory mediators such as TNF α , IL-1 β , IL-6, IL-18, vascular cell adhesion molecule-1 (VCAM-1), intracellular adhesion molecule-1 (ICAM-1), CRP, MCP-1 and growth factors such as transforming growth factor- β (TGF- β), PDGF-B and osteopontin play crucial role in the progression of cardiac hypertrophy and heart failure (Balakumar and Singh, 2005, 2006a; Ichihara *et al.*, 2006). Fenofibrate, has been shown to attenuate the development of cardiac hypertrophy by inhibiting the inflammatory response and activation of redox-regulated transcription factors (Liang *et al.*, 2003; Irukayama-Tomobe *et al.*, 2004; Ichihara *et al.*, 2006). Ligand-induced activation of PPAR α in the heart increases the expression of genes involved in the cellular fatty acid uptake, mitochondrial β -oxidation and peroxisomal β -oxidation. During cardiac hypertrophy, PPAR α is downregulated, which reduce fatty acid oxidation and increase glycolysis (Finck and Kelly, 2002; Tian and Barger, 2005). This reduction in PPAR α activity was considered as adaptive since the O₂ utilization efficiency and cardiac performance are maintained. This hypothesis was further supported by the study in which short-term administration of PPAR α ligands in pressure overload-induced cardiac hypertrophy resulted in severe depression of cardiac function (Young *et al.*, 2001). However, it has been argued that chronic reduction in Fatty Acid Oxidation (FAO) due to downregulation of PPAR α in prolonged cardiac hypertrophy

may further reduce cardiac function due to insufficient production of ATP. Additionally, depression of cardiac FAO leads to the non-physiologic storage of lipids and is accompanied by cardiac myocyte apoptosis, a phenomenon termed as cardiac lipotoxicity. Therefore, long-term treatment with PPAR α agonists may be beneficial. This contention is supported by the fact that long-term treatment with PPAR α agonist ameliorated the extent of cardiac hypertrophy by reducing lipotoxicity and inhibiting various inflammatory cytokines (Ogata *et al.*, 2002; 2004). Moreover, administration of PPAR α ligand reduces myocardial lipid accumulation and improves insulin sensitivity in diabetic subjects (Aasum *et al.*, 2002).

Reperfusion of the previously ischemic myocardium is often followed by detrimental changes in the coronary arteries and myocardial tissues, which ultimately results in tissue damage known as reperfusion injury. A brief myocardial ischemia leads to reversible contractile dysfunction associated with transient reduction in myocardial FAO due to reversible down regulation of PPAR α (Kim *et al.*, 2003). Studies have established that rate of FAO rapidly rise due to upregulation of PPAR α during reperfusion that has been proposed to be involved in the further reduction in the myocardial contractility (Stanley *et al.*, 1997; Belanger *et al.*, 2002). Further, chronic cardiac overexpression of PPAR α resulted in significant decrement in functional recovery of heart after ischemia (Sambandam *et al.*, 2006). The possible mechanism behind this detrimental effect may be high FAO-induced accumulation of lactate, proton (low pH) and reactive oxygen species. Based on the above evidences it may be suggested that downregulation of PPAR α during ischemia may be an adaptive response (Dewald *et al.*, 2005) and PPAR α antagonism may be a potential therapeutic target to treat ischemia-reperfusion injury. Controversially, it has been demonstrated that PPAR α agonists caused a substantial reduction of infarct size of ischemic myocardium followed by reperfusion and this cardioprotection may be due to overexpression of heme-oxygenase-1 (HO-1) and subsequent inhibition of NF- κ B activation (Wayman *et al.*, 2002). This report is further strongly supported by the fact that WY 14643, a selective PPAR α agonist has been shown to be involved in the attenuation of ischemia/reperfusion-induced myocardial injury that may be mediated via inhibition of caspase dependant and independent apoptotic cell death (Yeh *et al.*, 2006). However, further studies are mandatory to elucidate the protective role of PPAR α in the pathogenesis of ischemia/reperfusion-induced myocardial injury.

Peroxisome Proliferator Activated Receptor γ (PPAR γ)

PPAR γ is expressed mainly in white and brown adipose tissue, mucosa of colon, cecum and lesser extent in immune cells like monocytes and macrophages (Ferre, 2004). Recently, PPAR γ has been found to be expressed in endothelial cells and VSMCs (Verma and Szmitko, 2006). PPAR γ agonists promote adipocyte differentiation and fatty acid storage, thus reducing fatty acid-induced insulin resistance. Further, they increase glucose uptake by increasing the expression and translocation of glucose transporter-4 (GLUT-4) and decreasing the production of adipokines (Staels and Fruchart, 2005; Blaschke *et al.*, 2006). PPAR γ has received considerable attention since mid-1990s, when it was found to be the molecular target of insulin-sensitizing antidiabetic drugs known as thiazolidinediones. This class of drugs includes troglitazone, rosiglitazone and pioglitazone, which are currently employed. A series of newly synthesized PPAR γ agonists such as G1262570 (farglitazar), GW 1929 and GW 7845, JTT-501 and KRP-297 show promising anti-diabetic activity (Javiya and Patel, 2006).

Several basic studies have shown that PPAR γ ligands have pleiotrophic effects of preventing cardiovascular complications (Fig. 2). PPAR γ specific ligands inhibit the production of inflammatory mediators such as TNF α , IL-1, IL-6, iNOS, MMP, CRP, IP-10, endothelin-1 (ET-1) and osteopontin and thus reducing atherogenesis (Cabrero *et al.*, 2002; Wang *et al.*, 2002; Staels and Fruchart, 2005; Blaschke *et al.*, 2006). The anti-inflammatory property of PPAR γ has been attributed to its inhibitory activity on NF- κ B, Egr-1 and AP-1 (Staels and Fruchart, 2005; Blaschke *et al.*, 2006). PPAR γ agonists

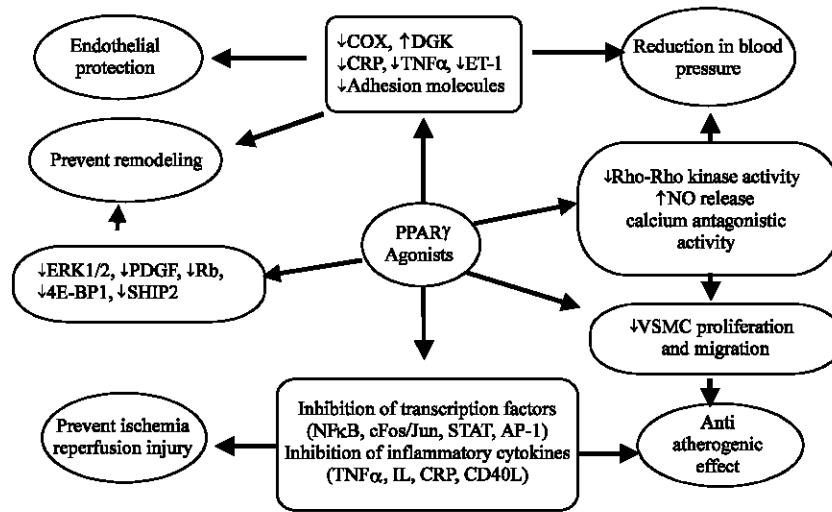


Fig. 2: The complex molecular mechanisms involving in the cardioprotective effect of PPAR γ agonists. PPAR γ agonists reduce blood pressure by inhibiting the action of Rho-kinase, endothelin-1 and antagonizing calcium activity. They inhibit various inflammatory cytokines, adhesion molecules and growth factors to prevent remodeling, endothelial dysfunction, atherosclerosis and cardiac hypertrophy

were found to downregulate angiotensin-II-AT $_1$ receptor in VSMCs and block AT $_1$ receptor mediated activation of extracellular signal-regulated kinase 1/2 (ERK1/2) of MAPK family and thus inhibit the proliferation and migration of VSMCs (Takeda *et al.*, 2000; Toba *et al.*, 2006). Further, treatment with rosiglitazone, a PPAR γ ligand has lowered plasma levels of CD40 ligand (CD40L), a pro-inflammatory cytokine in type 2 diabetic patients (Marx *et al.*, 2003). Recently, 15d-PGJ $_2$, a PPAR γ ligand was shown to downregulate CD40 receptor and reduce the expression of RANTES, an inflammatory cytokine that is involved in initiation and maintenance of inflammation, suggesting a novel anti-inflammatory mechanism of PPAR γ agonists for limiting atherosclerotic complications in diabetes (Zhang *et al.*, 2006).

Remodeling is a key contributory factor in cardiovascular disorders. Vascular cells undergo remodeling which is characterized by medial thickening due to smooth muscle cell hypertrophy and hyperplasia (Atkins *et al.*, 2005). Glitazones were shown to inhibit VSMC growth and proliferation by inhibiting Platelet Derived Growth Factor (PDGF), increasing the level of cyclin-dependent kinase inhibitor p27 and decreasing the phosphorylation of retinoblastoma protein (Rb) and thus leading to cell-cycle arrest (Wakino *et al.*, 2000; Takagi *et al.*, 2003). Angiotensin-II involves in the pathogenesis of vascular and cardiac remodeling. Recently it has been shown that PPAR γ activation reduced angiotensin-II-induced growth by inhibiting ERK 1/2 and phosphorylation of 4E-binding protein 1 (4E-BP1) and Src homology (SH) 2-containing inositol phosphatase 2 (SHIP2). Modulation of these pathways by PPAR γ activators may contribute to prevent of vascular remodeling in cardiovascular disorders (Benkirane *et al.*, 2006).

Recent studies have elucidated the role of PPAR γ agonists in endothelial dysfunction. Elevated levels of CRP and TNF α have been associated with endothelial dysfunction by decreasing the production of nitric oxide, increasing the endothelial cell apoptosis and stimulating the expression of NF κ B, ICAM-1, VCAM-1 and E-selectin (Ridker *et al.*, 2000; Sidhu *et al.*, 2003; Szmítko *et al.*, 2003). Further, endothelial dysfunction was found to be associated with increase in release of endothelin-1

(ET-1), an endogenous vasoconstrictor and MCP-1, a chemokine, which facilitates leukocyte transmigration (Verma *et al.*, 2002a, b; 2003; Verma and Szmítko, 2006). These consequences in endothelial dysfunction are attenuated by PPAR γ stimulation (Natali *et al.*, 2004; Sidhu *et al.*, 2004; Martens *et al.*, 2006). The diacylglycerol-protein kinase C (DAG-PKC) signaling pathway has been implicated in insulin-resistance and pathogenesis of diabetic vascular diseases. Recently it has been demonstrated that PPAR γ agonists have a novel molecular action of suppressing DAG-PKC signaling pathway by upregulating endogenous attenuator diacylglycerol kinase (DGK) (Verrier *et al.*, 2004).

PPAR γ agonists through their receptor mediated and receptor independent actions have been shown to attenuate the pathogenesis of hypertension. Rho-kinase, a target protein of GTPase Rho contributes to hypertension, cardiac dysfunction and various cellular functions such as actin cytoskeleton organization, cell adhesion and cytokinesis (Balakumar and Singh, 2006c). Rho-kinase mediates vascular smooth muscle cell contraction by phosphorylating myosin light chain kinase (Fukata *et al.*, 2001). It has been noted that during sympathetic overactivation, the activity of Rho kinase is augmented and is involved in the pathogenesis of hypertension (Calnek *et al.*, 2003; Seko *et al.*, 2003). PPAR γ agonists upregulate Src homology region 2- containing protein tyrosine phosphatase-2 (SHP-2), a negative regulator of Rho activity and dephosphorylates Vav protein, a guanine nucleotide exchange factor (GEF) leading to decrease in GTP bound Rho and Rho kinase activity and thus reducing systemic blood pressure (Wakino *et al.*, 2004). Further, PPAR γ ligands stimulate nitric oxide release from endothelial cells (Calnek *et al.*, 2003), which upregulate SHP-2 protein (Chang *et al.*, 2002) resulting in amelioration of hypertension apart from their direct vasodilatory action. Moreover, rosiglitazone was noted to have calcium antagonistic action, which may directly inhibit voltage-dependent calcium channels (Patel *et al.*, 2005). Furthermore, PPAR γ agonists attenuated the increase in blood pressure in DOCA-salt hypertensive rat through inhibition of ET-1 (Iglarz *et al.*, 2003). These promising results have clearly demonstrated the protective role of PPAR γ ligands in hypertension.

PPAR γ ligands are also involved in inhibiting the pathogenic progression of cardiac hypertrophy and heart failure. Inflammation plays a critical role in the progression of cardiac remodeling and dysfunction (Purcell *et al.*, 2001). In macrophages, PPAR γ participates in the regulation of inflammatory responses by inhibiting NF- κ B and AP-1 (Ricote *et al.*, 1998). PPAR γ activators such as troglitazone and 15d-PGJ₂ were shown to prevent cardiac hypertrophy and inhibit the expression of brain natriuretic peptide (BNP) in cultured cardiomyocytes (Yamamoto *et al.*, 2001). Recently, pioglitazone was observed to have long-term beneficial effects on cardiac hypertrophy and cardiac inflammation (Diep *et al.*, 2004). Further, aortic banding has enhanced the cardiac hypertrophy in heterozygous PPAR γ -deficient mice suggesting the inhibitory effect of PPAR γ on cardiac growth (Asakawa *et al.*, 2002). Angiotensin-II-induced fetal gene expression and cardiomyocyte hypertrophy were markedly attenuated by thiazolidinediones (Frey and Olson, 2002). Moreover, pioglitazone was noted to improve left ventricular function and decrease collagen accumulation in diabetic rats (Tsuji *et al.*, 2001). These data suggest that PPAR γ ligands have potential role in preventing the development of cardiac hypertrophy. Studies are underway to determine the beneficial effects of thiazolidinediones in long-term cardiovascular complications.

Diabetes is associated with increased risk of mortality as a consequence of acute myocardial infarction. The cardioprotective potential of PPAR γ agonist is also being explored in ischemic myocardium. It has been demonstrated that chronic treatment with rosiglitazone, a PPAR γ agonist has protected the heart against ischemia/reperfusion injury (Yue *et al.*, 2001; 2005). Further PPAR γ agonists are reported to inhibit c-Jun (Khandoudi *et al.*, 2002), NF κ B, MCP-1, ICAM-1, iNOS and the nitration of proteins by peroxynitrite resulting in reduced myocardial injury (Wayman *et al.*, 2002). It has been shown that the zinc finger transcription factor Egr-1 acts as a master switch for the inflammatory response during ischemic injury. Activation of PPAR γ was shown to suppress

Egr-1 and its inflammatory gene targets and thus protect the myocardium against ischemic injury (Okada *et al.*, 2002). Recently the cardioprotective effects of rosiglitazone against myocardial ischemia-reperfusion injury has been shown to be associated with significant overexpression of AT₂ receptors along with inhibition of p42/44 MAPK (Molavi *et al.*, 2006). Further, pioglitazone has been noted to improve tolerance against ischemia reperfusion injury by enhancing cardiac insulin sensitivity through activation of PI3K-Akt signaling and expression of heat shock protein 72 (Taniguchi *et al.*, 2006). Furthermore, a recent study has shown that rosiglitazone provided beneficial effects in the ischemic reperfused myocardium by inhibiting lipid peroxidation and recovering normal level of SOD (Ha, 2006). These results suggest that PPAR γ agonists may provide an effective therapeutic option for patients of diabetes who are at great risk for myocardial injury.

Peroxisome Proliferator Activated Receptor δ (PPAR δ)

PPAR δ remained an enigma for almost a decade after its cloning in 1992. It is expressed ubiquitously in all tissues. PPAR δ activation has dual benefits of decreasing hypertriglyceridemia and insulin resistance, which highlight the broad potential of PPAR δ in the treatment of metabolic diseases (Pourcet *et al.*, 2006). PPAR δ enhances fatty acid catabolism and energy uncoupling in adipose tissue and muscle and it suppresses macrophage-derived inflammation. Its combined activities make it a multifaceted therapeutic target for the metabolic syndrome with the potential to control weight gain, enhance physical endurance, improve insulin sensitivity and ameliorate atherosclerosis. Newly synthesized compounds such as GW501516, GW610742, GW0742X and GW0742 are having selectivity to PPAR δ (Graham *et al.*, 2005; Barish *et al.*, 2006).

Ongoing basic studies have demonstrated the role of PPAR δ in amelioration of cardiovascular complications. PPAR δ ligand has been noted to suppress the expressions of inflammatory genes such as IFN γ , TNF α , iNOS, IL-1 β and COX (Rival *et al.*, 2002; Lee *et al.*, 2003; Welch *et al.*, 2003; Barish *et al.*, 2006). In addition, PPAR δ ligands were noted to inhibit cytokine-induced MCP-1 and VCAM-1 expressions in endothelial cells (Rival *et al.*, 2002). Recently GW0742X, a PPAR δ agonist has been demonstrated to have potent anti-atherogenic effect with marked reduction of atherosclerotic lesion area, suggesting a therapeutic role of PPAR δ agonists in the treatment of atherosclerosis (Graham *et al.*, 2005).

PPAR δ plays a critical role in regulation of myocardial fatty acid oxidation (Cheng *et al.*, 2004). Like PPAR α , the PPAR δ is also downregulated in cardiac hypertrophy (Planavila *et al.*, 2005b). Cardiac specific deletion of PPAR δ has resulted in increased left ventricular end diastolic pressure, cardiac hypertrophy and impairment of cardiac contractility (Cheng *et al.*, 2004). Further, PPAR δ ligand has been demonstrated to attenuate phenylephrine-induced cardiac hypertrophy via inhibition of NF κ B, MCP and atrial natriuretic factor (ANF) (Planavila *et al.*, 2005b). Recently, GW0742, a PPAR δ ligand has been reported to inhibit TNF α production by suppressing NF κ B mediated pathway (Ding *et al.*, 2006). Further studies with PPAR δ ligands may explore their use therapeutically.

PPAR Dual Agonists

Given the favorable cardioprotective effects of PPAR α and PPAR γ ligands, the PPAR α/γ dual agonists have been currently developed and they are glitazar class of drugs such as muraglitazar, ragaglitazar, tesaglitazar, naveglitazar, imiglitazar, LY 929 and LSN862 (Pourcet *et al.*, 2006). By activating both PPAR α and PPAR γ receptors, they simultaneously reduce atherogenic triglycerides, raise cardioprotective HDL levels, improve insulin sensitivity and reduce cardiovascular risk (Etgen *et al.*, 2002). Recently, the PPAR α/γ dual agonist namely (S)-3-(4-(2-carbazol-9-yl-ethoxy) phenyl)-2-ethoxy-propionic acid) has been shown to improve insulin sensitivity and prevent left ventricular dysfunction (Verreth *et al.*, 2006). A study evaluating possible role of dual PPAR α/γ in pressure overload-induced pathological cardiac hypertrophy is currently underway in our laboratory.

The synergies of such a combination may enable lower dosing. Moreover, PPAR γ agonists increase adipogenesis and body weight. PPAR α agonists counteract these effects by decreasing food intake and fat deposits (Etgen *et al.*, 2002; Carmona *et al.*, 2005). Thus, increase in body weight that is seen with PPAR γ treatment may not be seen with dual PPAR α/γ agonists. With extended use, it is believed that these agents may reduce the risk of cardiovascular complications, but their long-term clinical effects are still unknown. Clinical studies evaluating the efficacy of PPAR dual agonists in reducing cardiovascular risks are currently underway.

Synthesis of PPAR α/δ dual agonists is currently under development (Pourcet *et al.*, 2006). It may be expected that these agents may display interesting properties such as decreasing hyperlipidemia, insulin resistance and reducing risk of atherogenesis. Recently, T-659, a PPAR α/δ dual agonist has been shown to increase HDL levels in primates (Wallace *et al.*, 2005). Synthesis of such agents, which have affinity towards both PPAR α and PPAR δ , will open new panorama in the management of atherosclerosis and inflammation.

In addition, the multimodal drug concept can also be extended to combinations between PPARs and other receptors. Sulphonylureas and glinides are currently in clinical use for treatment of type II diabetes by virtue of their insulin secretagogue properties. Recently it has been reported that these drugs also binds to PPAR γ and enhance PPAR γ mediated gene expression (Scarsi *et al.*, 2006). Therefore synthesis of compounds which targets both sulphonylurea receptor and PPAR γ may open a new pharmacological prospective in treatment of diabetes and diabetes associated cardiovascular complications by virtue of their insulin secreting and sensitizing properties.

PPAR Pan Agonists

Current research programs aim to combine the biological properties of PPAR α , γ and δ agonists. The bezafibrate, an old and well-known lipid-lowering fibric acid derivative, is first clinically tested pan PPAR (α , γ , δ) activator with more than a quarter of century of therapeutic experience with good safety profile (Javiya and Patel, 2006). It has produced beneficial effects in improving insulin sensitivity, inhibiting atherogenesis and preventing myocardial ischemic injury. Further, PPAR γ -induced weight gain may not be seen with PPAR pan agonists (Tenenbaum *et al.*, 2005). Furthermore, bezafibrate was shown to decrease the rate of progression of coronary atherosclerosis and coronary risk factors (Ericsson *et al.*, 1997; Elkeles *et al.*, 1998). Novel agents such as LY-465608, DRF-11605, CS-204, GW-625019, GW 677954, PLX 204 and DRL-11605 are under investigation as PPAR pan agonists, which may be potent therapeutic agents in future for treatment of diabetes associated cardiovascular complications (Javiya and Patel, 2006; Pourcet *et al.*, 2006).

Clinical Prospective

Evidences from several clinical trials confirm the protective role of PPAR ligands in alleviating cardiovascular complications. The clinical trial named Fenofibrate Intervention and Event Lowering in Diabetes (FIELD) demonstrated that fenofibrate, a PPAR α agonist has reduced cardiovascular risk associated with diabetes (Zambon, 2006; Zambon *et al.*, 2006). Further, the Veterans Affairs HDL Intervention Trial (VA-HIT) showed that gemfibrozil, which activates PPAR α , significantly reduced the risk of cardiovascular disorders of patients with low HDL cholesterol and established coronary heart disease (Tai *et al.*, 2006). Furthermore, Diabetes Atherosclerosis Intervention Study (DAIS) has demonstrated the beneficial effects of PPAR α agonists, specifically fibric acid derivatives, on cardiovascular disease outcome (Israeli-Konaraki *et al.*, 2005). Further, PROspective pioglitazone Clinical Trial In macroVascular Events (PROACTIVE) study has shown that pioglitazone, a PPAR γ agonist has reduced the incidence of non-fatal myocardial infarction and stroke in patients of type II diabetes who have a high risk of macrovascular events (Dormandy *et al.*, 2005). Moreover, Rosiglitazone Evaluated for Cardiac Outcomes and Regulation of Glycemia in Diabetes (RECORD) study is underway to evaluate the long-term impact of rosiglitazone on cardiovascular outcomes (Home *et al.*, 2005).

CONCLUSIONS

PPAR agonists have emerged as a promising group of agents for treating atherosclerosis, endothelial dysfunction, hypertension, heart failure and myocardial infarction. The dual and pan agonists provide reasonable promise in the prevention of pathogenesis of cardiovascular complications. Therefore, these novel PPAR agonists are indisputably an emerging therapeutic agents for diabetes associated and non-associated cardiovascular complications.

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