Journal of Ginseng Research 46 (2022) 33-38

Contents lists available at ScienceDirect

Journal of Ginseng Research

journal homepage: https://www.sciencedirect.com/journal/journal-of-ginsengresearch

Review Article

Effects of *Panax* ginseng and ginsenosides on oxidative stress and cardiovascular diseases: pharmacological and therapeutic roles

Sun Hee Hyun ^b, Kiran D. Bhilare ^a, Gyo In ^b, Chae-Kyu Park ^{b, *}, Jong-Hoon Kim ^{a, **}

^a College of Veterinary Medicine, Biosafety Research Institute, Jeonbuk National University, Jeollabuk-do, Republic of Korea ^b Laboratory of Efficacy Research, Korea Ginseng Corporation, Daejeon, Republic of Korea

A R T I C L E I N F O

Article history: Received 7 July 2021 Accepted 21 July 2021 Available online 26 July 2021

Keywords: Panax ginseng Ginsenosides Oxidative stress Cardiovascular diseases

ABSTRACT

Traditionally, Asian ginseng or Korean ginseng, *Panax* ginseng has long been used in Korea and China to treat various diseases. The main active components of *Panax* ginseng is ginsenoside, which is known to have various pharmacological treatment effects such as antioxidant, vascular easing, anti-allergic, anti-inflammatory, anti-diabetes, and anticancer. Most reactive oxygen species (ROS) cause chronic diseases such as myocardial symptoms and cause fatal oxidative damage to cell membrane lipids and proteins. Therefore, many studies that inhibit the production of oxidative stress have been conducted in various fields of physiology, pathophysiology, medicine and health, and disease. Recently, ginseng or ginseno-sides have been known to act as antioxidants in vitro and in vivo results, which have a beneficial effect on preventing cardiovascular disease. The current review aims to provide mechanisms and inform precious information on the effects of ginseng and ginsenosides on the prevention of oxidative stress and cardiovascular disease in animals and clinical trials.

© 2021 The Korean Society of Ginseng. Publishing services by Elsevier B.V. This is an open access article under the CC BY-NC-ND license (http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/).

1. Introduction

The body is constantly exposed to various forms of free oxygen, for example reactive oxygen species. Oxidative stress can be defined as a state in which oxidative mechanisms prevail against antioxidant defense mechanisms in living cells, causing oxidative damage to cell proteins, lipids, and nucleic acids. Oxidative stress is caused by free radicals, which are oxygen ions, free radicals, per-oxides, etc. Free radicals are produced and accumulated in the cell transport system and are also produced by ionizing radiation. In humans, oxidative stress is believed to be an important development mechanism in smoking [1,2], high blood pressure [3,4], atherosclerosis [5–8], hyperlipidemia [9], diabetes [10], ischemia-reperfusion, cancer [11], rheumatoid arthritis [12], aging [13–15]. Cardiovascular diseases (CVD) are a very serious problem worldwide and are closely related to blood flow disorders. CVD, in particular, includes a variety of diseases such as coronary artery

** Corresponding author. Laboratory of Efficacy Research, Korea Ginseng Corporation, 30, Gajeong-ro, Shinseong-dong, Yuseong-gu, Daejeon, 34128, Republic of Korea. blood pressure, causing serious health problems for many people worldwide and leading causes of disease and mortality. These cardiovascular diseases occur especially in adults exposed to westernized diets, which have a fatal effect on people of all races. In this regard, cardiac risk factors such as oxidative stress, diabetes, high blood pressure, increased low-density cholesterol, and reduced high-density cholesterol levels are known as major causes of CVD [16]. In many studies, damage to endothelial cells in blood vessels can be a factor associated with cardiovascular disease [17].

disease, heart failure, vascular disease, dyslipidemia, and high

Panax ginseng Meyer, with a history of thousands of years, is a medicinal herb that has traditionally been effective in preventing and treating many diseases. Especially in Korea, China, and Japan, ginseng has been known as the most effective natural product of all herbs, and has traditionally been widely used to replenish physical strength, and prevent aging [18]. It is also known that ginsenosides increase resistance to a variety of pathological factors, while helping to maintain body homeostasis. Of the ginseng ingredients, more than 100 ginsenosides have been identified so far, and various pharmacological validations are included. In addition, ginseng, and ginsenoside are known to be effective in improving blood flow and protecting cardiovascular dysfunction. In other words, numerous studies on blood flow and cardiovascular function have shown that ginseng and ginsenosides have a valid effect on cardiovascular







^{*} Corresponding author. College of Veterinary Medicine, Biosafety Research Institute, Chonbuk National University, Jeollabuk-do, Republic of Korea.

E-mail addresses: park@kgc.co.kr (C.-K. Park), jhkim1@jbnu.ac.kr (J.-H. Kim).

^{1226-8453/© 2021} The Korean Society of Ginseng. Publishing services by Elsevier B.V. This is an open access article under the CC BY-NC-ND license (http://creativecommons. org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/).

S.H. Hyun, K.D. Bhilare, G. In et al.

protection. The main active ingredient of *Panax* ginseng is ginsenoside, a triterpen saponin. Among them, many studies have been mainly conducted on the pharmacological and clinical properties for ginsenosides [19]. Here, the present review aims to provide an overview of the efficacy of ginseng and ginsenosides against oxidative stress and cardiovascular risk factors such as vascular inflammation, endothelial dysfunctions hypertension, atherosclerosis and myocardial infarction in clinical studies as well as *in vivo* in order to induce the pharmacological and clinical applications.

1.1. Ginsenosides are the pharmacologically active components

Ginseng contains many active ingredients that represent function in vivo, of which ginsenosides are very important. About 200 ginsenosides are known, including major ginsenosides (Rc, Rd, Rb1, Rb2, Re, Rg1, etc.) and minor ginsenosides (Rh1, Rh2, Rg3, etc.) [20]. Ginsenosides are classified into two major groups, protopanaxadiol (PD) and protopanaxatriol (PT), which share a four-ring hydrophobic steroid-like structure with sugar moieties but differ in the carbohydrate moieties at C3, C6, and C20 (Fig. 1) [21,22]. So far, ginsenosides are largely divided into two types: (1) 20(S)-Protopanaxadiol (PD) (ginsenoside-Rb1, Rb2, Rb3, Rg3, Rh2, Rc, Rd, Rs1) and (2) 20(S)-Protopanaxatriol (PT). These ginsenosides are known to have more than 30 species. (Fig. 1)

According to the manufacturing processing method of ginseng, *Panax* ginseng is divided into three types: fresh ginseng, Korean Red Ginseng (KRG), and white ginseng. Until now, red ginseng is manufactured in Korea, so it has been named KRG. KRG generally was cooked by steaming and drying. White ginseng is dried without cooking by sunlight or hot air; white ginseng's color ranges from white to light yellow [23,24]. In particular, KRG undergoes component conversion during the heat process, producing novel components (e.g. ginsenosides-Rg2, -Rg3, and -Rh1) that are not contained in fresh ginseng and white ginseng [25–30].

1.2. Oxidative stress and cardiovascular disease

It was well known that oxidative stress is a state of unbalance between oxidants and antioxidants, leading to damaging normal condition [31]. Oxidants, called the reactive oxygen species (ROS), contains free radicals such as OH[•] (hydroxyl), $O^{2\bullet-}$ (superoxide), ONOO^{•-} (peroxynitrite), and non-radicals such as hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂). ROS are the output of aerobic metabolism by reduction of oxygen [32,33]. Physiologically, in human, antioxidant systems are capable of controlling the levels of oxidants in order to keep the oxidant-antioxidant equilibrium [31,34]. This antioxidant system includes enzymes such as catalase, superoxide dismutase, and glutathione peroxidase, [35]. Recent studies have suggested that the increases of reactive oxygen species (ROS) and oxygen utilization contribute to CVD outbreak. A representative listing for oxidative mechanisms is shown in Table 1.

1.3. The effect of ginseng or ginsenosides on oxidative stress

It was well known that ginseng and ginsenosides have a function of the antioxidant activities. Namely, when ginsenoside-Rb1 was administered to animals, lipid peroxidation in the brain was reduced, oxygen free radicals were removed, and the catalase, and glutathione peroxidase activities increased [47]. Also, taking a different approach, treatment of ginsenoside for three days prevented the lipid peroxidation of liver and brain in rat. Moreover, ginsenoside-Rb1 was found to remove free radicals, inhibit the formation of malondialdehyde (MDA), and increase CAT and GPx activity in the liver [48]. In addition, intraperitoneal injection of ginseng total saponin (TS) into mice for five days resulted in a significant reduction in free radical and MDA [49]. In addition, GPX activity increased when oral administration of water extracts, fatsoluble extracts, alcohol extracts, total saponin extracts, protopanaxadiol (PD) extracts, and protopanaxatriol (PT) extracts to mice aged 4 weeks, respectively, showing significant antioxidant effects [50]. These results presented that ginsenosides have an antioxidant role, inhibiting oxidative damage, and that these protective action of ginsenosides can be chiefly attributed to scavenging of ROS.

1.4. The effect of ginseng and ginsenosides on myocardial damage

Ginseng is widely used to address heart failure, cardiovascular risk diseases, high blood pressure, and hypercholesterolemia [51–54]. The administration of ginseng significantly increases the level of antioxidant enzymes such as peroxidase and glutathione peroxidase through Nrf2 regulatory mechanism [55]. The presence of heart ischemia increases free oxygen production, which is caused by myocardial damage, but administration of ginseng improves cardiac coronary blood flow, reducing free oxygen production, inhibiting myocardial damage [56]. Ginseng inhibits the production of free radicals by promoting nitrogen oxide production. The administration of ginsenoside-Rb1 blocked vascular endothelial dysfunction caused by homocysteine by inhibiting the production of free oxygen species [57]. In another study, ginsenoside-Re played a role in inhibiting the production of free oxygen species and protecting them from oxidative damage to myocardial cells. And ginsenoside-Re played an important role in the antioxidant effect of increasing the viability of myocardial cells in heart ischemia [58]. These results show that ginsenoside-Re has an antioxidant effect that protects the heart cells from oxidative damage, and most of them have significant effects on the removal of free radicals. These



Fig. 1. Molecular structures of protopanaxadiol (A) and protopanaxatriol (B) of ginsenosides.

Table 1

Condition	Evidence	Reference
Heart failure	Increased NO level induces cardiac dysfunction Cytokine-derived ROS induces cardiac apoptosis ROS-induced cardiac apoptosis or necrosis	[36] [37] [38]
Hypertension	Vascular smooth muscle cell proliferation Increases oxidant production via NADH/NADPH oxidase Superoxide-mediated endothelial dysfunction	[39,40] [41] [42]
Coronary artery disease	Superoxide-mediated endothelial dysfunction	[43]
MI	Increased oxLDL Ischemia and reperfusion injury by ROS production Oxidant-induced myocyte necrosis and apoptosis	[44] [45] [46]

Representative evidence of ROS production in CVD

studies strongly suggest that ginseng or ginsenosides protect myocardial damage by inhibiting ROS generation.

1.5. The effect of ginseng or ginsenosides on vascular function

The administration of KRG water extract (KRGE) protected human umbilical vein endothelial cells. In other words, KRGE significantly promoted angiogenesis through PI3K/Akt-dependent ERK1/ 2 and eNOS signaling pathway activation [59]. Specifically, administration of KRGE induced angiogenesis through activation of PI3K/Akt-dependent extracellular signaling regulatory kinase 1/2 and eNOS pathways [59]. In vitro, Panax ginseng and Panax notoginseng extracts increased vascular endothelial cell proliferation and migration [60]. Additionally, administration of ginsenoside Rg3 significantly increased NO production through phosphorylation and eNOS expression, thereby enhancing vascular function [61]. Ginsenoside increased the production of nitrogen oxides. In other words, ginsenoside-Rb1 in aortic endothelial cells increased nitrogen oxide production through various mechanisms [62]. Similarly, ginsenoside-Rg3 induced vasodilation to improve arterial elasticity, thereby improving vascular function [63]. These results prove that ginseng or ginsenosides protect endothelial cells through various types of cell signaling pathways.

1.6. The effect of ginseng and ginsenosides on blood pressure

Many studies have shown that administration of ginsenoside-Rb3 and KRG improves vascular dysfunction [64,65]. In addition, administration of KRGE inhibited arginase and showed vascular protection through increased NO production [66]. In addition, ginseng improved low blood pressure in previous studies, maintaining normal blood pressure through the production of nitrous oxide secreted from endothelial blood vessels [67]. In other studies, total ginsenosides significantly increased ventricular systolic pressure and ventricular hypertrophy. Total ginsenosides also significantly improved cardiac function by controlling the expression of extracellular signaling regulatory kinase 1 (ERK-1) and mitogen-activated proteins. Namely, total ginsenosides is effective in protecting against right ventricular hypertrophy and can lower pulmonary hypertension. Such effect has been shown to involve several molecular mechanisms, such as inhibition of ERK signaling pathways [68]. These results show that total ginsenosides can improve vascular motor function.

1.7. The effect of ginseng and ginsenosides on cardiac function

Ginsenoside-Rg1 protected against left ventricular hypertrophy by producing nitrogen oxides [69]. Ginsenoside-Rb1 also

significantly inhibited heart damage from ischemia-induced myocardial infarction in type 1 diabetic animal models induced by STZ [70]. Ginsenoside-Rg1 also reduced left ventricular hypertrophy, and inhibited the cell death of myocardial cells by inhibiting the expression of Bcl-2 and Caspase-3 during myocardial infarction caused by ischemia [71]. In another study, experiments were conducted on cultured neonatal ventricular muscle cells, as well as adult mice that bound the coronary arteries. The administration of ginseng significantly restored heart function in rats undergoing coronary artery ligation for four weeks. These results show strong heart protection effects of ginseng [72]. The administration of compound K significantly inhibited the magnitude of myocardial infarction resulting from ischemia compared to controls, significantly enhancing protein kinase B (Akt) and nitrogen oxide synthase (eNOS) activity. This indicates that compound K inhibits myocardial infarction following ischemia by mediating activation and phosphorylation of PI3K pathways in Akt and eNOS [73]. Previous studies have shown that ginsenoside-Rb1 inhibits cardiac dysfunction in diabetes caused by streptozotocin [70]. In other study, it was reported that ginseng inhibited heart failure and cardiac hypertrophy through Nhe-1 regulation and reduced the activation of calcium [74]. These results suggested that ginseng or ginsenosides maintain cardiac function.

1.8. The effect of ginseng and ginsenosides on vascular dysfunction

In the past few decades, a large amount of research studies have highlighted the significance of ginseng for preventing platelet aggregation. Korean Red Ginseng was found to improve arterial thrombosis in vivo, by causing inhibition of platelet aggregation rather than anticoagulation thus suggesting that red ginseng treatment can prove beneficial for cardiac dysfunction [75]. In another study, different ginsenosides-Rs3, -Rs4, -Rs5, -Rg6, -F4, -Rk3, -Rh4 extracted from processed ginseng were evaluated for platelet aggregation induced by stimulators viz-adenosine diphosphate, collagen, and arachidonic acid in which all ginsenosides except -Rs3, -Rs4, and -Rs5 had minor effect on aggregation. Also, co-administration of Korean Red Ginseng and warfarin was found to have synergistic benefits in patients with cardiac valve replacement [76]. In addition, administration of total ginsenosides in ischemic and reperfusion injury of isolated rat hearts resulted in coronary perfusion flow, thereby protecting the heart tissues by coronary artery dilation from I/R injury. Based on these results, it can be concluded that in vivo ginseng or ginsenosides possess antithrombotic effect inside the body that would be beneficial for individuals with thrombotic problems and CVD.



Fig. 2. Mechanisms of Ginseng in Protecting Heart. Notes: eNOS: endothelial nitric oxide synthase, GLUT-4: glucose transporter-4, GS: ginseng total saponins, HB-EGF: heparinbinding EGF-like growth factor, ICa,R: R-type calcium channel current, ICa,L: L-type calcium channel current, IKr: rapidly activating component of rectifier K+ current, MAPK: mitogen activated protein kinase, IKs: slowly activating component, PI3K/Akt: phosphoinositide 3-kinase/protein kinase B, RyRs: ryanodine receptors, ROS: reactive oxygen species, SR: sarcoplasmic reticulum, STAT3: signal transducer and activator of transcription 3, SN: S-nitrosylation of channel protein.

1.9. The effect of ginseng and ginsenosides on cardiac ischemia

It was well known that treatment with ginseng improved electrocardiogram, general symptoms, physical exercise capacity, and fluid metabolism in patients with coronary angina pectoris [77]. Cardio-protective effects of ginseng is attributed to its antioxidant properties in cardiomyocytes [78]. Amongst ginsenosides, panaxatriol has been found to most potent for providing protection against myocardial ischemia and reperfusion [72]. Total ginsenosides increased perfusion flow of the coronary artery dosedependently. The underlying mechanism of vasodilatory activity seemed to be mediated by the phosphoinositide 3-kinase/protein kinase B-endothelial nitric oxide pathway that ultimately increase nitric oxide levels [79]. Accordingly, vasodilatory effect of total ginsenosides was decreased by an inhibitor of NO synthase. Ginsenoside-Rb1 treatment established the vasodilating mechanism of porcine coronary arteries by accentuating the regulation of NO synthase and down-regulation of superoxidases [57]. Ginsenoside-Rb1, ginsenosides Rc and Re successfully prevented HIV protease inhibitor mediated vascular injury in porcine coronary arteries on account of its vasodilatory effect through regulation of NO and superoxidase levels [80]. Thus, ginseng and ginsenosides can be believed to have multitude of beneficial effect on oxidative stress and cardioprotection. (Fig. 2).

1.10. Summary

In conclusion, present review suggested the antioxidant effect and cardiovascular protection of ginseng and ginsenosides. Also, review explained the antioxidants of ginseng, cardiac strengthening, vascular function improvement, blood pressure maintenance, improvement of cardiac function, inhibition of vascular damage and myocardial infarction. Significant review on the efficacy of ginseng and ginsenosides on cardiovascular risk factors such as heart ischemia is summarized. Ginseng and ginsenosides are effective in preventing cardiovascular disease. As shown above, ginseng and ginsenosides have a significant effects on CVD through inhibition of ROS formation, stimulation of NO production, strengthening vascular motor tone, and improving blood circulation. However, the exact mechanism of action of ginseng and ginsenosides has not been confirmed, and further research should reveal the various effects of ginseng and ginsenosides. Therefore, more systematic mechanisms for cardiovascular disorders through antioxidant action of ginseng and ginsenosides should be identified in the future. In addition, in order to develop ginseng and ginsenoside as natural medicines and use them, it is necessary to verify their efficacy and safety.

Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

References

- Bridges AB, Scott NA, Parry GJ, Belch JJ. Age, sex, cigarette smoking and indices of free radical activity in healthy humans. Eur J Med 1993;2(4):205–8.
- [2] Sanderson KJ, van Rij AM, Wade CR, Sutherland WH. Lipid peroxidation of circulating low density lipoproteins with age, smoking and in peripheral vascular disease. Atherosclerosis 1995;118(1):45–51.
- [3] Higashi Y, Sasaki S, Nakagawa K, Matsuura H, Oshima T, Chayama K. Endothelial function and oxidative stress in renovascular hypertension. N Engl J Med 2002;346(25):1954–62.
- [4] Ghiadoni L, Magagna A, Versari D, Kardasz I, Huang Y, Taddei S, Salvettiet A. Different effect of antihypertensive drugs on conduit artery endothelial function. Hypertension 2003;41(6):1281–6.
- [5] Steinberg D. Low density lipoprotein oxidation and its pathobiological significance. J Biol Chem 1997;272(34):20963-6.
- [6] Witztum JL, Berliner JA. Oxidized phospholipids and isoprostanes in atherosclerosis. Curr Opin Lipidol 1998;9(5):441–8.
- [7] Chisolm GM, Steinberg D. The oxidative modification hypothesis of atherogenesis: an overview. Free Radic Biol Med 2000;28(15):1815–26.
- [8] Walter MF, Jacob RF, Jeffers B, Ghadanfar MM, Preston GM, Buch J, Mason RP. Serum levels of thiobarbituric acid reactive substances predict cardiovascular events in patients with stable coronary artery disease: a longitudinal analysis of the PREVENT study. J Am Coll Cardiol 2004;44(10):1996–2002.
- [9] Zahavi J, Betteridge JD, Jones NA, Galton DJ, Kakkar VV. Enhanced in vivo platelet release reaction and malondialdehyde formation in patients with hyperlipidemia. Am J Med 1981;70(1):59–64.

- [10] Collier A, Rumley A, Rumley AG, Paterson JR, Leach JP, Lowe GD, Small M. Free radical activity and hemostatic factors in NIDDM patients with and without microalbuminuria. Diabetes 1992;41(8):909–13.
- [11] Wang D, Kreutzer DA, Essigmann JM. Mutagenicity and repair of oxidative DNA damage: insights from studies using defined lesions. Mutat Res 1998;400(1–2):99–115.
- [12] Taysi S, Polat F, Gul M, Sari RA, Bakan E. Lipid peroxidation, some extracellular antioxidants, and antioxidant enzymes in serum of patients with rheumatoid arthritis. Rheumatol Int 2002;21(5):200–4.
- [13] Oliver CN, Ahn BW, Moerman EJ, Goldstein S, Stadtman ER. Age-related changes in oxidized proteins. J Biol Chem 1987;262(12):5488–91.
- [14] Beal MF. Oxidatively modified proteins in aging and disease. Free Radic Biol Med 2002;32(9):797-803.
- [15] Mutlu-Türkoğlu Ü, İlhan E, Öztezcan S, Kuru A, Aykaç-Toker G, Uysal M. Agerelated increases in plasma malondialdehyde and protein carbonyl levels and lymphocyte DNA damage in elderly subjects. Clin Biochem 2003;36(5): 397–400.
- [16] Toth PP. Making a case for quantitative assessment of cardiovascular risk. J Clin Lipidol 2007;1(4):234–41.
- [17] Davies MJ, Gordon JL, Gearing AJ, Pigott R, Woolf N, Katz D, Kyriakopoulos A. The expression of the adhesion molecules ICAM-1, VCAM-1, PECAM, and Eselectin in human atherosclerosis. J Pathol 1993;171(3):223–9.
- [18] Kim J-H. Pharmacological and medical applications of *Panax* ginseng and ginsenosides: a review for use in cardiovascular diseases. J Ginseng Res 2018;42(3):264–9.
- [19] Siti HN, Kamisaha Y, Kamsiaha JJ. The role of oxidative stress, antioxidants and vascular inflammation in cardiovascular disease (a review). Vascular Pharmacology 2015;71:40–56.
- [20] Qi LW, Wang CZ, Yuan CS. Isolation and analysis of ginseng: advances and challenges. Nat Prod Rep 2011;28(3):467–95.
- [21] Sengupta S, Toh SA, Sellers LA, Skepper JN, Koolwijk P, Leung HW, Yeung HW, Wong RN, Sasisekharan R, Fan TP. Modulating angiogenesis: the yin and the yang in ginseng. Circulation 2004;110(10):1219–25.
- [22] Nah SY, Kim DH, Rhim H. Ginsenosides: are any of them candidates for drugs acting on the central nervous system? CNS Drug Rev 2007;13(4):381–404.
- [23] Wang Y, Choi HK, Brinckmann JA, Jiang X, Huang L. Chemical analysis of *Panax* quinquefolius (North American ginseng): a review. J Chromatogr A 2015;1426:1–15.
- [24] Zhang YC, Li G, Jiang C, Yang B, Yang HJ, Xu HY, Huang LQ. Tissue-specific distribution of ginsenosides in different aged ginseng and antioxidant activity of ginseng leaf. Molecules 2014;19(11):17381–99.
- [25] Shin BK, Kwon SW, Park JH. Chemical diversity of ginseng saponins from Panax ginseng. J. Ginseng Res 2015;39(4):287–98.
- [26] Jiao L, Zhang X, Wang M, Li B, Liu Z, Liu S. Chemical and antihyperglycemic activity changes of ginseng pectin induced by heat processing. Carbohydr Polym 2014;114:567–73.
- [27] Lee SM, Bae BS, Park HW, Ahn NG, Cho BG, Cho YL, Kwak YS. Characterization of Korean red ginseng (*Panax* ginseng Meyer): history, preparation method, and chemical composition. J Ginseng Res 2015;39(4):384–91.
- [28] Chong-Zhi WA, Anderson S, Wei DU, Tong-Chuan HE, Chun-Su YU. Red ginseng and cancer treatment. Chin J Nat Med 2016;14(1):7–16.
- [29] Kim GN, Lee JS, Song JH, Oh CH, Kwon YI, Jang HD. Heat processing decreases Amadori products and increases total phenolic content and antioxidant activity of Korean Red ginseng. J Med Food 2010;13(6):1478–84.
- [30] Matsuura Y, Zheng Y, Takaku T, Kameda K, Okuda H. Isolation and physiological activities of new amino acid derivatives from Korean Red ginseng. Korean J Ginseng Sci 1994;18(3):204–11.
- [31] Sies H. Oxidative stress: oxidants and antioxidants. Exp Physiol 1997;82(2): 291-5.
- [32] Nickenig G, Harrison DG. The AT-1-type angiotensin receptor in oxidative stress and hypertension part I: oxidative stress and atherogenesis. Circulation 2002;105(3):393–6.
- [33] Ray R, Shah AM. NADPH oxidase and endothelial cell function. Clin Sci 2005;109(3):217-26.
- [34] Sies H. Total antioxidant capacity: appraisal of a concept. J Nutr 2007;137(6): 1493–5.
- [35] Wang Y, Chun OK, Song WO. Plasma and dietary antioxidant status as cardiovascular disease risk factors: a review of human studies. Nutrients 2013;5(8):2969–3004.
- [36] Sawyer DB, Colucci WS. Nitric oxide in the failing myocardium. Cardiol Clin 1998;16(4):657–64.
- [37] Ing DJ, Zang J, Dzau VJ, Webster KA, Bishopric NH. Modulation of cytokineinduced cardiac myocyte apoptosis by nitric oxide, Bak, and Bcl-x. Circ Res 1999;84(1):21-33.
- [38] von Harsdorf R, Li PF, Dietz R. Signaling pathways in reactive oxygen speciesinduced cardiomyocyte apoptosis. Circulation 1999;99(22):2934–41.
- [39] Griendling KK, Ushio-Fukai M. Redox control of vascular smooth muscle proliferation. J Lab Clin Med 1998;132(1):9–15.
- [40] Ushio-Fukai M, Alexander RW, Akers M, Griendling KK. p38 mitogenactivated protein kinase is a critical component of the redox-sensitive signaling pathways activated by angiotensin II. Role in vascular smooth muscle cell hypertrophy. J Biol Chem 1998;273(24):15022–9.
- [41] Fukai T, Siegfried MR, Ushio-Fukai M, Griendling KK, Harrison DG. Modulation of extracellular superoxide dismutase expression by angiotensin II and hypertension. Circ Res 1999;85(1):23–8.

- Journal of Ginseng Research 46 (2022) 33-38
- [42] Kanani PM, Sinkey CA, Browning RL, Allaman M, Knapp HR, Haynes WG. Role of oxidant stress in endothelial dysfunction produced by experimental hyperhomocyst(e)inemia in humans. Circulation 1999;100(11):1161–8.
- [43] B Britten M, Zeiher A M, Schächinger V. Clinical importance of coronary endothelial vasodilator dysfunction and therapeutic options. J Intern Med 1999;245(4):315–27.
- [44] Jimi S, Saku K, Kusaba H, Itabe H, Koga N, Takebayashi S. Deposition of oxidized low-density lipoprotein and collagenosis occur coincidentally in human coronary stenosis: an immunohistochemical study of atherectomy. Coron Artery Dis 1998;9(9):551–7.
- [45] Ferrari R, Agnoletti L, Comini L, Gaia G, Bachetti T, Cargnoni A, Ceconi C, Curello S, Visioli O. Oxidative stress during myocardial ischaemia and heart failure. Eur Heart J 1998;19:B2–11.
- [46] Anversa P, Cheng W, Liu Y, Leri A, Redaelli G, Kajstura J. Apoptosis and myocardial infarction. Basic Res Cardiol 1998;93(3):8–12.
- [47] Zhang JT, Qu ZW, Liu Y, Deng HL. Preliminary study on antiamnestic mechanism of ginsenoside Rg1 and Rb1. Chin Med J (Engl) 1990;103(11):932–8.
- [48] Deng HL, Zhang JT. Anti-lipid peroxilative effect of ginsenoside Rb1 and Rg1. Chin Med J (Engl) 1991;104(5):395–8.
- [49] Kim JS, Nam K, Shim KH, Kim KW, Im KS, Chung HY. Antioxidative mechanism of total saponin of red ginseng. Korean J Life Sci 1996;6(1):48–55.
- [50] Jung J, Jang HJ, Eom SJ, Choi NS, Lee NK, Paik HD. Fermentation of red ginseng extract by the probiotic *Lactobacillus plantarum* KCCM 11613P: ginsenoside conversion and antioxidant effects. J Ginseng Res 2019;43(1):20–6.
- [51] Tsai CC, Chan P, Chen LJ, Chang CK, Liu Z, Lin JW. Merit of ginseng in the treatment of heart failure in type 1-like diabetic rats. BioMed Research International 2014. Article ID 484161.
- [52] Irfan M, Kwak YS, Han CK, Hyun SH, Rhee MH. Adaptogenic effects of *Panax* ginseng on modulation of cardiovascular functions. J Ginseng Res 2020;44(4): 538–43.
- [53] Komishon AM, Shishtar E, Ha V, Sievenpiper JL, de Souza RJ, Jovanovski E, Ho HV, Duvnjak LS, Vuksan V. The effect of ginseng (genus *Panax*) on blood pressure: a systematic review and meta-analysis of randomized controlled clinical trials. J Hum Hypertens 2016;30(10):619–26.
- [54] Kwon YJ, Jang SN, Liu KH, Jung DH. Effect of Korean red ginseng on cholesterol metabolites in postmenopausal women with hypercholesterolemia: a pilot randomized controlled trial. Nutrients 2020;12(11):3423.
- [55] Li J, Ichikawa T, Jin Y, Hofseth LJ, Nagarkatti P, Nagarkatti M, Windust A, Cui T. An essential role of Nrf2 in American ginseng-mediated anti-oxidative actions in cardiomyocytes. J Ethnopharmacol 2010;130(2):222–30.
- [56] Lim KH, Ko D, Kim JH. Cardioprotective potential of Korean Red Ginseng extract on isoproterenol-induced cardiac injury in rats. J Ginseng Res 2013;37(3):273–82.
- [57] Zhou W, Chai H, Lin PH, Lumsden AB, Yao Q, Chen C. Ginsenoside Rb1 blocks homocysteine-induced endothelial dysfunction in porcine coronary arteries. J Vasc Surg 2005;41(5):861–8.
- [58] Xie JT, Shao ZH, Hoek TL, Chang WT, Li J, Mehendale S, Wang CZ, Hsu CW, Becker LB, Yin JJ, et al. Antioxidant effects of ginsenoside Re in cardiomyocytes. Eur J Pharmacol 2006;532(3):201–7.
- [59] Kim YM, Namkoong S, Yun YG, Hong HD, Lee YC, Ha KS, Lee H, Kwon HJ, Kwon YG, Kim YM. Water extract of Korean red ginseng stimulates angiogenesis by activating the Pi3k/Akt-dependent Erk1/2 and eNOS pathways in human umbilical vein endothelial cells. Biol Pharm Bull 2007;30(9):1674–9.
- [60] Wan JB, Lee SM, Wang JD, Wang N, He CW, Wang YT, Kang JX. Panax notoginseng reduces atherosclerotic lesions in ApoE-deficient mice and inhibits TNF-alpha-induced endothelial adhesion molecule expression and monocyte adhesion. J Agric Food Chem 2009;57(15):6692–7.
- [61] Hien TT, Kim ND, Pokharel YR, Oh SJ, Lee MY, Kang KW. Ginsenoside Rg3 increases nitric oxide production via increases in phosphorylation and expression of endothelial nitric oxide synthase: essential roles of estrogen receptor-dependent Pi3-kinase and Amp-activated protein kinase. Toxicol Appl Pharmacol 2010;246(3):171–83.
- [62] Leung KW, Cheng YK, Mak NK, Chan KK, Fan TP, Wong RN. Signaling pathway of ginsenoside-Rg1 leading to nitric oxide production in endothelial cells. FEBS Lett 2006;580(13):3211–6.
- [63] Lee JY, Lim KM, Kim SY, Bae ON, Noh JY, Chung SM, Kim K, Shin YS, Lee MY, Chung JH. Vascular smooth muscle dysfunction and remodeling induced by ginsenoside Rg3, a bioactive component of ginseng. Toxicol Sci 2010;117(2): 505–14.
- [64] Wang T, Yu XF, Qu SC, Xu HL, Sui DY. Ginsenoside Rb3 inhibits angiotensin II induced vascular smooth muscle cells proliferation. Basic Clin Pharmacol Toxicol 2010;107(2):685–9.
- [65] Rhee MY, Kim YS, Bae JH, Nah DY, Kim YK, Lee MM, Kim HY. Effect of Korean red ginseng on arterial stiffness in subjects with hypertension. J Altern Complement Med 2011;17(1):45–9.
- [66] Shin W, Yoon J, Oh GT, Ryoo S. Korean red ginseng inhibits arginase and contributes to endothelium-dependent vasorelaxation through endothelial nitric oxide synthase coupling. J Ginseng Res 2013;37(1):64–73.
- [67] Jeon BH, Kim CS, Park KS, Lee JW, Park JB, Kim KJ, Kim SH, Chang SJ, Nam KY. Effect of Korea red ginseng on the blood pressure in conscious hypertensive rats. Gen Pharmacol 2000;35(3):135–41.
- [68] Qin N, Gong QH, Wei LW, Wu Q, Huang XN. Total ginsenosides inhibit the right ventricular hypertrophy induced by monocrotaline in rats. Biol Pharm Bull 2008;31(8):1530–5.

S.H. Hyun, K.D. Bhilare, G. In et al.

- [69] Deng J, Wang YW, Chen WM, Wu Q, Huang XN. Role of nitric oxide in ginsenoside Rg(1)-induced protection against left ventricular hypertrophy produced by abdominal aorta coarctation in rats. Biol Pharm Bull 2010;33(4): 631–5.
- [70] Wu Y, Xia ZY, Dou J, Zhang L, Xu JJ, Zhao B, Lei S, Liu HM. Protective effect of ginsenoside Rb1 against myocardial ischemia/reperfusion injury in streptozotocin-induced diabetic rats. Mol Biol Rep 2011;38(7):4327–35.
- [71] Zhu D, Wu L, Li CR, Wang XW, Ma YJ, Zhong ZY, Zhao HB, Cui J, Xun SF, Huang XL, et al. Ginsenoside Rg1 protects rat cardiomyocyte from hypoxia/ reoxygenation oxidative injury via antioxidant and intracellular calcium homeostasis. J Cell Biochem 2009;108(1):117–24.
- [72] Kim TH, Lee SM. The effects of ginseng total saponin, panaxadiol and panaxatriol on ischemia/reperfusion injury in isolated rat heart. Food Chem Toxicol 2010;48(6):1516–20.
- [73] Tsutsumi YM, Tsutsumi R, Mawatari K, Nakaya Y, Kinoshita M, Tanaka K, Oshita S. Compound K. a metabolite of ginsenosides, induces cardiac protection mediated nitric oxide via Akt/Pi3k pathway. Life Sci 2011;88(15–16): 725–9.
- [74] Guo J, Gan XT, Haist JV, Rajapurohitam V, Zeidan A, Faruq NS, Karmazyn M. Ginseng inhibits cardiomyocyte hypertrophy and heart failure via NHE-1

Journal of Ginseng Research 46 (2022) 33-38

inhibition and attenuation of calcineurin activation. Circ Heart Fail 2011;4(1): 79–88.

- [75] Jin YR, Yu JY, Lee JJ, You SH, Chung JH, Noh JY, Im JH, Han XH, Kim TJ, Shin KS, et al. Antithrombotic and antiplatelet activities of Korean red ginseng extract. Basic Clin Pharmacol Toxicol 2007;100(3):170–5.
- [76] Lee YH, Lee BK, Choi YJ, Yoon IK, Chang BC, Gwak HS. Interaction between warfarin and Korean red ginseng in patients with cardiac valve replacement. Int | Cardiol 2010;145(2):275–6.
- [77] Ahn CM, Hong SJ, Choi SC, Park JH, Kim JS, Lim DS. Red ginseng extract improves coronary flow reserve and increases absolute numbers of various circulating angiogenic cells in patients with first ST-segment elevation acute myocardial infarction. Phytother Res 2011;25(2):239–49.
- [78] Toh HT. Improved isolated heart contractility and mitochondrial oxidation after chronic treatment with *Panax* ginseng in rats. Am J Chin Med 1994;22: 275–84.
- [79] Yi XQ, Li T, Wang JR, Wong VK, Luo P, Wong IY, Jiang ZH, Liu L, Zhou H. Total ginsenosides increase coronary perfusion flow in isolated rat hearts through activation of PI3K/Akt-eNOS signaling. Phytomedicine 2010;17(13):1006–15.
- [80] Wang X, Chai H, Yao Q, Chen C. Molecular mechanisms of HIV protease inhibitor-induced endothelial dysfunction. J Acquir Immune Defic Syndr 2007;44(5):493–9.