Journal of Chemical Health Risks



www.jchr.org



REVIEW ARTICLE

An Overview of Angiogenesis and Chemical and Physiological Angiogenic Factors: Short Review

Mehrnoosh Sedighi¹, Mehrdad Namdari¹, Payam Mahmoudi², Afshin Khani², Aliasghar Manouchehri^{*3}, Milad Anvari⁴

¹Cardiovascular Research Center, Shahid Rahimi Hospital, Lorestan University of Medical Sciences, Khoramabad, Iran

²Cardiovascular Research Center, Mazandran Heart Center, Sari, Iran

³Assistant Professor, Department of Internal Medicine, Shahid Beheshti Hospital, Babol University of Medical

Sciences, Babol, Iran

⁴Cardiovascular Research Center, Shiraz University of Medical Sciences, Shiraz, IR Iran

(Received: 12 June 2021 Accepted: 4 January 2022)

WEWWORDS	ABSTRACT: Angiogenesis refers to the formation of new blood vessels from existing ones, which can occur in both
KEYWORDS	physiologic and pathologic conditions. Lack of tissue oxygen is the main stimulator of angiogenesis accompanied by
Heart;	increasing in HIF-1 α -(hypoxia-inducible factor-1 α) expression as a nuclear transcription factor. Other factors such as
Angiogenesis;	VEGF (vascular endothelial growth factor), FGF2 (fibroblast growth factor2), and TGF (transforming growth factor)
Angiogenic factors;	are involved in angiogenesis, too. To control diabetes and tumoral disease, abnormal angiogenesis inhibition can be
VEGF; TGF	useful besides stimulation that can be helpful in cardiovascular disease. In this study, we have reviewed the
	mechanisms and stimulators of angiogenesis and its influential factors. The most important angiogenic factors are
	MMP, Ang, FGF, and VEGF. Ang is not directly involved in the process of angiogenesis but sometimes destabilize
	the arteries. In contrast to angiostatin, endostatin TIMP and TSP1 act as the most important angiostatic factors. Many
	attempts have been made to identify the mechanisms and factors involved in this process but angiogenic inhibitors that
	inhibit the growth of cancerous masses or tumors in the body have not yet been adequately investigated

INTRODUCTION

Angiogenesis refers to the formation of new blood vessels from existing vessels. This phenomenon is seen in pathophysiological conditions such as retinopathy, diabetic nephropathy, and hypertension and tumor growth and occurs in physiological conditions, in wound healing, ovulation and menstrual cycles [1]. The most important stimulus for angiogenesis is tissue hypoxia, which is associated with increased expression of Hypoxia Inducible Factor-1 α , a nuclear transcription factor. Vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF), Fibroblast growth factor (FGF-2) and Transforming growth factor (TGF) are the most important angiogenic factors. Angiogenesis strategy entails inhibition of abnormal angiogenesis in diabetes and tumor and its stimulation in heart disease or vascular disease [2, 3]. Thus, the process of creating new blood vessels from the existing vascular system begins. In this process, the main cells become involved with the endothelial cells, which cover all the blood vessels and account for the true nature of the capillaries.

To form new blood vessels, endothelial cells must first be removed from their fixed location by decomposing the basement membrane. Endothelial cells then migrate to an angiogenic stimulus, such as that released from activated lymphocytes. Endothelial cells proliferate to provide the necessary number of cells to build a new vessel, and eventually the endothelial cells are placed in a threedimensional tubular structure [4]. To explain the mechanism of angiogenesis in detail, it should be noted that initially a large number of endothelial cells within the capillary are selected to initiate angiogenesis. These cells, which are called tip cells, act as guide cells reacting with the VEGF-A gradient, which specializes in migrating them to the growing capillaries. Angiogenic stimulus causes a major change in the tip cell phenotype. They acquire properties such as invasion and migration ability, as well as activate cell surface or secreted proteases for partial destruction of their adjacent basement membrane. During embryonic development, tip cell selection is monitored by Notch receptors and their trans-ligands (D114 Dll4 = Delta like ligand) [5]. When VEGF affects endothelial cells, it activates D114 expression and Notch receptors. In response to VEGF action, tip cells germinate toward the VEGF gradient and are regulated for capillary growth [6]. In this review, angiogenesis, angiogenic stimulators, angiogenic factors, and angiogenesis mechanism are discussed.

Angiogenic stimulators

One of the causes of increased angiogenic factors is angiogenic stimuli. These stimuli are a set of factors that stimulate and form new blood vessels. The most important of these factors are hypoxia, adenosine, lactate, hemodynamic forces, metabolites, vasodilators, muscle contraction, various strains and tumors [7]. Resistance training leads to an increase in hypoxia and a significant increase in the protein and mRNA of HIF hypoxia factor, which is expressed in a variety of mammalian tissues, especially skeletal muscle. HIF leads to transcription of the VEGF gene [8]. Exercise also results in higher mRNA and VEGF protein expression [9]. Vascular dilation activates growth factors, especially VEGF, by producing and increasing nitric oxide. It also causes the expression of basal fibroblast growth factor from vascular endothelial cells, which ultimately leads to increased FGF. Strength training is associated with cyclic and static stretching and leads to increased angiogenic factors [10].

One of the stimulators that are often addressed with respect to improving exercise capacity or performance as a result of exercise is increasing capillary density Muscle oxygen uptake increases several times during exercise, and it is necessary for the bed of local vessels to direct a large amount of blood to active tissues to meet this main need of active muscles. A wider capillary network usually increases the uptake of metabolism and delays muscle fatigue. Increasing capillary density by increasing the level of diffusion, increasing the time of exchange between blood and tissue and reducing the distance of diffusion causes more free fatty acids to be called from adipose tissue and more muscle fibers to have access to fatty acids [11].

Another stimulant to increase VEGF is adenosine. Adenosine is a product of ATP metabolism. Significant amounts of adenosine are produced in the absence of oxygen or muscle contraction. Various researches have shown that increased adenosine dilates muscle blood vessels, promotes energy balance, increases the expression of growth factors, increases the proliferation and migration of endothelial cells, and ultimately the formation of blood vessels in various tissues. The angiogenic response in hypoxia is mediated by adenosine. In this regard, in the study of Emami et al., which examined the effects of endurance training on tissue VEGF levels in mice with tumors, after 8 weeks of training, VEGF levels increased in mice with breast cancer and the tumor volume in these mice increased, significantly. After 8 weeks of aerobic exercise caused a significant increase in the rate of angiogenic factors in women with breast cancer. Yang et al. also studied the effect of 3 weeks of endurance training on

mice with breast cancer and the results showed that aerobic exercise increases VEGF in mice with breast cancer [11, 12].

Mechanisms and chemical and physiological factors of angiogenesis

Angiogenic factors are also the factors that are directly or indirectly involved in the formation of new capillaries and contribute to the formation and development of blood vessels, so that the lack of any of these factors disrupts the process of capillary formation and development. Vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF), Fibroblast growth factor (FGF-2), and Transforming growth factor (TGF) are the most important angiogenic factors involved in the proliferation and migration of endothelial cells and smooth muscle cells, and recruitment of the Pre sits play a major role in the process of angiogenesis and arterio-laryngitis [2, 3] (Table 1).

Table 1. The	e most important	chemical and	ph	vsiologica	1 factors o	f human	affecting	angiogene	sis

Factor	Action					
Resistance training	Leads to an increase in hypoxia and a significant increase in the protein and mRNA of HIF hypoxia factor, which is expressed in a variety of mammalian tissues, especially skeletal muscle. HIF leads to transcription of the VEGF gene [14-20].					
Increasing capillary density	Increasing capillary density by increasing the level of diffusion, increasing the time of exchange between blood and tissue ar reducing the distance of diffusion causes more free fatty acids to be called from adipose tissue and more muscle fibers to hav access to fatty acids [7-12].					
Adenosine	Increased adenosine dilates muscle blood vessels, promotes energy balance, increases the expression of growth factors, and increases the proliferation and migration of endothelial cells, and ultimately the formation of blood vessels in various tissues [7, 15].					
Lactate	Lactate facilitated NF-KB translocation to induce increased transcription of VEGF and bFGF [31-34].					
Angiovitine 1	Angiovitine 1 stabilizes the arteries by affecting the binding molecules and increasing the interaction between endothelial a mural cells and mobilizing pericytes [32-34].					
Angiovitine 2	Angiovitine 2 stimulates vascular growth by reducing the interactions of endothelial cells and pre-endothelial cells, and degrading extracellular matrix [5, 6 and 9].					
Vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF)	VEGF enhances the survival, survival, and survival of all early stages by increasing the regulation of anti-apoptotic components, DNA synthesis, basement membrane degradation, and phosphorylation of intercellular endothelial components and tight attachments, respectively [5-12].					
Transforming growth factor (TGF)	Unlike VEGF, which performs its angiogenic functions independently, beta-transforming growth factor (TGF-β) indirectly shapes its angiogenic effects [22-30].					
Matrix metalloproteinases (MMPs)	MMPs play a vital role in capillary network development and angiogenesis, as well as migration, proliferation, and degradation of the endothelial cell matrix More production and stimulation of anti-angiogenic factors than angiogenic factors leads to a decrease in the process of angiogenesis and thus stops growth [35-41].					

VEGF

Vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF) is the most important angiogenic factor of vascular endothelial growth. It is a secretory protein with a molecular volume of 35 to 45 kDa that is mainly secreted by endothelial cells, smooth muscle, tendons, platelets, thymus and skeletal muscle. Angiogenic factor has five isoforms, PDGF, A, B, C, and D Isoforms A and B are mostly used to make blood vessels and isoforms C and D are used to make lymphatic vessels. The strongest and most active isoform is VEGF-A (13). VEGF enhances the survival, survival, and survival of all early stages by increasing the regulation of anti-apoptotic components, DNA synthesis, basement membrane degradation, and phosphorylation of intercellular endothelial components and tight attachments, respectively [14, 15].

VEGF is secreted from endothelial cells, smooth muscle cells, platelets, thymus and tumor cells in response to ischemia/hypoxia stimulators, stress milk (frictional force due to blood colliding with endothelial cells), metabolites such as adenosine and lactate, vasodilators such as nitric oxide, adipokines such as visfatin and leptin, and reactive oxygen species [15].

Hypoxia, which is a hallmark of the tumor, is the main cause of VEGF secretion. This stimulation promotes the growth, migration and survival of endothelial cells, resulting in further expansion of the vascular network and growth. VEGF causes endothelial cells to germinate from the anterior vessel. Evidence is available that points to the role of MMPs in separating smooth muscle cells from the extracellular matrix, which allows cells to migrate. The activity of MMPs is temporary and transient and is essential for the processes of angiogenesis and wound healing. MMPs also play an important role in the growth and development of axons in the central nervous system [16]. The results show pathological processes, control of MMPs and VEGF has been removed and the production increases, resulting in the exacerbation of inflammatory diseases such as cancer of different types [17]. MMP-9, MMP-2 have the highest R&D in the MMPs. MMPs-2 in fibroblasts are present, endothelial and monocyte cells, and MMP-9 ocular, hepatocytes, O, T, and ocular and peripheral ocular [18, 19]. Thus, MMPs and VEGFs play a vital role in capillary network development and angiogenesis, as well as migration, proliferation, and degradation of the endothelial cell matrix more production and stimulation of anti-angiogenic factors than angiogenic factors leads to a decrease in the process of angiogenesis and thus stops growth [20].

TGF-β

TGF- β mRNA is increased in adult adipocytes and vascular stromal cells of adipose tissue in obese mice [21]. Unlike VEGF, which performs its angiogenic functions independently, beta-transforming growth factor (TGF- β) indirectly shapes its angiogenic effects [22, 23]. The TGF- β gene has a special element for stress milk in its promoter region. Therefore, it can be expected that in response to the increase in milk, the stress resulting from the binding of blood flow to endothelial cells increases with TGF- β after one hour of passive hyperperfusion has been reported [24]. The amount of TGF- β is present and is proportional to the increase in the number of coronary arteries [25]. FGF: So far, 20 fibroblast growth factors (FGF) and four different tyrosine kinase receptors have been identified. Acidic FGF-1 and alkaline FGF-2 are among the first growth factors known to stimulate angiogenesis [26]. FGF2 and FGF1 contain endothelial cells, fibroblasts, and many other cells [27]. In the process of angiogenesis, FGF2 stimulates the synthesis of proteases such as collagenase and urokinase-type plasminogen activator (uPA) and integrin to form new capillaries [21]. FGF is involved in angiogenesis, wound healing and embryonic development. FGFS plays a key role in the processes of proliferation and differentiation of a wide range of cells and tissues. Decreased FGF reduces muscle mass, resulting in muscle weakness and ultimately physical disability [28]. Since angiogenesis and increased blood flow within the tumor are essential for tumor growth, regular exercise can cause competition among the skeletal muscles of the tumor to receive blood [29]. The inherent hypothesis states that during exercise of active muscles, the distribution of blood, oxygen, and nutrients is disputed [30].

Angiopoietin

Angiopoietin (Ang): 1, 2, 3, and 4 are paracrine growth factors that act specifically on endothelial cells. Angiopoietin 1 is secreted by vascular smooth muscle cells and increases the germination of endothelial cells. Angiopoietin 1 stabilizes the arteries by affecting the binding molecules and increasing the interaction between endothelial and mural cells and mobilizing pericytes. Angiopoietin 2 stimulates vascular growth by reducing the interactions of endothelial cells and pre-endothelial cells, and degrading extracellular matrix [31]. The site where angiopoietin 1 binds to its receptor, namely, Tie2, stabilizes endothelial cells by recruiting pericytes. In contrast, Ang2 in the presence of VEGF causes the separation of binding between endothelial cells and smooth muscle cells and therefore provides the context for migration of endothelial cells [32, 33]. Angiopoietins, as with VEGFs, have endothelial cell-specific mitogens, ie, they have Tie2 on the endothelial cells [34].

Matrix metalloproteinases

Germination and capillary division require extracellular matrix degradation and capillary basement membrane proteins. This mechanism is accomplished by matrix metalloproteinases (MMPs) [35]. MMPs are endopeptidases from the large family of proteases that play a vital role in regulating adhesion, proliferation, and differentiation of endothelial cells, resulting in the formation of new capillaries [36, 37]. In this regard, MMP inhibition reduces new capillary growth and destruction of the basement membrane. MMPs that enter the bloodstream also secrete growth factors and cytokines involved in the process of angiogenesis from their own process and activate them [38].

Endostatin: Endostatin is one of the most important angiostatic factors, which is a fragment isolated from collagen XVIII [39, 40]. This inhibitory factor is produced by various tissues in the body. The inhibitory mechanisms of endostatin are such that this factor binds to the angiogenic factor VEGF and inhibits its function, thus preventing endothelial cell proliferation. Endostatin also prevents the destruction of the capillary basement membrane, which ultimately prevents the migration of endothelial cells. In fact, endostatin inhibits the growth of the capillary network by inhibiting the proliferation and migration of endothelial cells [41].

Angiostatic factors

Angiostatic factors: Angiostatic factors prevent the occurrence of angiogenesis. The importance of these factors is more apparent in pathophysiological conditions such as cancer. Now, if activity or exercise is considered as a stimulus to increase these factors, it can be hoped that regular activity or exercise will prevent the growth of cancerous mass or tumor in the body. In this regard, it was first shown in 2007 that under normal conditions, there is a shift between the factors involved in angiogenesis and angiostatic factors [40].

Angiostatin is a component of the plasminogen protein

[41]. Angiostatin is produced following the action of tissue plasminogen activator on plasminogen and its conversion to plasmin with the participation of serine proteinases and metalloproteinases. Angiostatin inhibits angiogenesis by preventing the destruction of the basement membrane and preventing the proliferation and migration of endothelial cells. Angiostatins only prevent angiogenesis of pathological conditions but have no effect on physiological angiogenesis [42].

Relationship between angiogenesis and some diseases

Angiogenesis and hypertension

Structurally, hypertension increases the wall thickness of the arterioles and increases the ratio of wall thickness to the lumen of the artery and changes their components. The number of capillaries and Arteries also decreases [43, 44]. There is growing evidence that hypertension is associated with an inadequate, incomplete, and ectopic response to angiogenic growth factors. It is also possible that angiogenesis and arteriogenesis are suppressed during the progression of hypertension so that capillary density decreases in these patients [43]. Conversely, long-term and effective antihypertensive treatment increased capillary density. In a study using a tyrosine kinase receptor inhibitor, VEGF was reported as a side effect of hypertension [45]. A contradictory finding that has been proven in recent studies on hypertension is that there are high levels of angiogenic growth factors in this disease [46, 47]. Possible mechanisms involved in increasing angiogenic factors in this disease include tissue ischemia, increased vascular traction, endothelial damage by hypertension, decreased clearance of these factors and compensatory responseIt is also possible that endothelium in hypertensive patients at the cellular or post-receptor level is resistant to angiogenic factors and does not respond adequately to these factors. Defects in the VEGF-related signal cascade have also been reported [48]. Antihypertensive therapies appear to normalize unregulated

angiogenic markers and restore normal ability for angiogenesis.

Angiogenesis and diabetes

Diabetes and other chronic diseases are largely the result of reduced physical activity due to lifestyle changes. Diabetes mellitus is a chronic metabolic disease characterized by high blood glucose levels and insufficient secretion or insulin dysfunction. One of the hallmarks of type 2 diabetes is insulin resistance, which in addition to impairing glucose metabolism, appears to cause endothelial dysfunction through increasing fat and insulin and oxidative stress, which is why the prevalence of cardiovascular disease is comparatively higher in diabetics than in the general population [49]. Diabetes has chronic effects on the structure and function of blood vessels in various tissues, which are observed in small vessels (including retinopathy, neuropathy and nephropathy) and large vessels (including peripheral vascular disease and cardiovascular disease) [50]. In general, diabetes is a contradictory disease in terms of vascular system and angiogenesis, because in organs such as the kidneys and eyes, it increases angiogenesis and inhibits it in the heart and peripheral arteries. Therefore, the term paradox of angiogenesis in diabetes refers to the simultaneous presence of pro- and anti-angiogenic conditions in this disease [51]. Numerous factors are involved in stimulating angiogenesis, including nitric oxide and vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF), which reduce their production and biological activity in diabetes [52]. Based on empirical evidence, the ability to repair tissue through angiogenesis, which requires the presence of VEGF, is impaired in conditions such as aging and diabetes [53].

Angiogenesis and tumor

A tumor is able to grow and survive if adequate nutrients and oxygen as well as blood flow reach that area of the tumor, which is facilitated by the angiogenesis of the tumor cells [54]. Malignant tumors increase disproportionately in blood vessels that help them grow, and eventually, with the expansion of the vascular system, the tumors become aggressive and enter other tissues, which are called metastasis [55]. Therefore, the angiogenic power of malignant tumors are directly related to the strength of tumor metastasis [56, 57]. Angiogenic factors are released by tumor cells into the environment and stimulate different types of cells, especially endothelial cells in the capillaries adjacent to the tumor. Eventually, these cells break down the basement membrane and enter the extracellular matrix, and migrate to the tumor cells [58]. Some vascular factors, such as VEGF1, which is an angiogenic factor, as well as hypoxic conditions, may facilitate metastatic conditions [59].

Angiogenesis and ovulation

In the ovary, angiogenic factors increase the permeability of blood vessels and support the process of cavity formation and the antral follicle itself to reach the stage of ovulation. Important factors in angiogenesis, which are present in the ovarian tissue or reach it through the bloodstream, include the growth factor of FGF-2 (Fibroblast Growth Factor-2), VEGF and ANPT: Angiopoietin and Endothelin-1. Among these three factors, ANGII, FGF-2 and VEGF are the most important [60]. Therefore, the establishment of blood flow in the tissues as soon as possible leads to the stimulation and activation of angiogenic factors and are important in maintaining the follicular reserves of the ovaries. In angiogenesis-deficient mice, the number of primary follicles and ovary was severely reduced [61]. While its overexpression caused the growth of ovary and reduced apoptosis of granulosa cells of antral follicles. This improves the folliculogenesis pathway [62].

Angiogenesis and embryo formation

Fetal blood vessels are formed through both vasculogenesis and angiogenesis. In the fetus, endothelial cells that make up blood vessels and hematopoietic tissues develop simultaneously. In the early stages of embryonic development, angioblasts are derived from the lateral plate of the mesoderm and the cardiac crescent, and a number of them migrate into the brain. A number of cells also accumulate inside the endocardium of the primitive heart tube. Other angioblasts form a network of endothelial cells at the base of the heart tube that fuse with the vitelline duct, allowing blood cells to flow from the yolk sac into the fetus. In addition, endothelial cells that directly surround the mesenchyme form visceral arteries by angiogenic invasion to tissues. Finally, angiogenesis is stimulated by both endoderm and ectoderm and eventually causes the development of various embryonic organs [63, 64].

Angiogenesis and ulcers

At the site of the wound, the damaged cells secrete substances that lead to narrowing of the arteries and thus prevent bleeding at the site, which continues with the activation of the coagulation response and the formation of fibrin filaments. In fact, coagulation is an active repair signal that leads to the recruitment of monocytes to the wound site one day after the onset of injury Platelets begin to secrete TGFs-converting growth factor, fibroblast growth factor (FGFs), and platelet-derived growth factor (PDGFs), which stimulate cells to grow and proliferate. Moreover, the role of macrophages is to clean the injury site through micropores and secretion of cytokines and growth factors. At the end of the third day and the inflammatory response, the leukocytes migrate from the wound site and, if infected, return to the wound site. The proliferation phase begins on the fourth day of the injury, and the skin reproduction and collagen repair begin on the fourth day of the injury. Fibroblasts migrate and proliferate into the wound after macrophages pass through the site of injury Fibroblasts proliferate through a variety of mechanisms that begin with the secretion of insulin-like growth factor TGFB and PDGF from platelets and continue with cytokines secreted by macrophages. Fibroblasts are also argued to secrete IGF-1. Epidermal growth factor EGF migrates through the bloodstream to the affected area. First, type 2 collagen is made and replaced by type 1 collagen. In the final stage of repair, the evolution of collagen fibers continues [65].

Angiogenesis and ischemic heart disease

Myocardial ischemia is one of the diseases that lead to, anxiety, heart attack, and cell damage [66, 67]. The most effective clinical treatment for these patients is treatment that restores normal blood flow to the heart [68]. Highspeed angiogenesis begins after each ischemic event [69] and several factors, including VEGF, play a role [70]. VEGF is the most important factor involved in the process of angiogenesis [71], which plays an important role in angiogenesis following myocardial infarction [72]. The expression of VEGF is increased in myocardial ischemia in patients with myocardial infarction [73]. Tissue hypoxia is one of the factors that stimulate the expression of VEGF. With increasing metabolism, oxygen decreases and tissue hypoxia develops. Hypoxia is involved in the pathology of heart disease and can also produce various signals to stimulate angiogenesis [74, 75]. There are a variety of chemical compounds in medicinal plants that can probably be used to treat diseases or physiological activation of the body due to their active ingredients and medicinal and antioxidant compounds [76-88].

CONCLUSIONS

Angiogenesis is an important process in physiological and pathophysiological conditions such as tumor growth, diabetes, endometriosis and ischemic heart disease. The most important angiogenic factors are MMP, Ang, FGF, and VEGF. Ang is not directly involved in the process of angiogenesis, but sometimes destabilize the arteries. In contrast to angiostatin, endostatin TIMP and TSP1 act as the most important angiostatic factors. Many attempts have been made to identify the mechanisms and factors involved in this process, but angiogenic inhibitors that inhibit the growth of cancerous masses or tumors in the body have not yet been adequately investigated.

Conflicts of interest

The authors declared no competing interests.

ETHICAL CONSIDERATION

Ethical issues (including plagiarism, data fabrication, double publication and etc.) have been completely observed by author.

Authors' contribution

All authors contributed equally to the manuscript.

Funding/Support

None.

REFERENCES

1. Carmeliet P., 2015. Angiogenesis in health and disease. Nature medicine. 9(6), 653-60.

2. Yadav L., Puri N., Rastogi V., Satpute P., Sharma V. 2015. Tumour angiogenesis and angiogenic inhibitors: a review. Journal of clinical and diagnostic research: J Clin Diagn Res. 9(6), E01–E05.

3. Huang D., Lan H., Liu F., Wang S., Chen X., Jin K., 2015., Anti-angiogenesis or pro-angiogenesis for cancer treatment: focus on drug distribution. International Journal of Clinical and Experimental Medicine. 8(6), 8369–8376

4. Auerbach R., Lewis R., Shinners B., Kubai L., Akhtar N., 2003, Angiogenesis assays: a critical overview. Clinical Chemistry. 49(1), 32-40.

5. Radtke F., Schweisguth F., Pear W., 2005., The Notch 'gospel' Workshop on Notch Signalling in Development and Cancer. EMBO Reports. 6(12), 1120-1125.

6. Liu Z.J., Shirakawa T., Li Y., Soma A., Oka M., Dotto G.P., 2003. Regulation of Notch1 and Dll4 by vascular endothelial growth factor in arterial endothelial cells: implications for modulating arteriogenesis and angiogenesis. Molecular and Cellular Biology. 23(1), 14-25.

7. Suhr F., Rosenwick C., Vassiliadis A., Bloch W., Brixius K., 2010., Regulation of extracellular matrix compounds involved in angiogenic processes in short-and long-track elite runners. Scandinavian Journal of Medicine & Science in Sports. 20(3), 441-8.

8. Jing S.W., Wang Y.D., Kuroda M., Su J.W., Sun G.G., Liu Q., 2012., HIF-1 α contributes to hypoxia-induced invasion and metastasis of esophageal carcinoma via inhibiting E-cadherin and promoting MMP-2 expression. Acta Medica Okayama. 66(5), 399-407.

9. Friedmann B., Frese F., Menold E., Bärtsch P., 2007. Effects of acute moderate hypoxia on anaerobic capacity in endurance-trained runners. European Journal of Applied Physiology. 101(1), 67-73.

10. Faramarzi M., Nuri R., 2017. The effects of ten weeks resistance training on resting levels of some angiogenesis factors among men with prostate cancer. Yafteh. 19(4), 129-139.

 Yang G., Nowsheen S., Aziz K., Georgakilas A.G.
2013., Toxicity and adverse effects of Tamoxifen and other anti-estrogen drugs. Pharmacology & Therapeutics. 139(3), 392-404.

12. Simon M.P., Tournaire R., Pouyssegur J., 2008. The angiopoietin-2 gene of endothelial cells is up-regulated in hypoxia by a HIF binding site located in its first intron and by the central factors GATA-2 and Ets-1. Journal of Cellular Physiology. 217(3), 809-18.

13. Liu D.H., Zhang X.Y., Fan D.M., Huang Y.X., Zhang J.S., Huang W.Q., 2001. Expression of vascular endothelial growth factor and its role in oncogenesis of human gastric carcinoma. World J Gastroenterol. 7(4), 500–505.

 Zachary I., Gliki G., 2001. Signaling transduction mechanisms mediating biological actions of the vascular endothelial growth factor family. Cardiovascular Research. 49(3), 568-581.

15. Mimori K., Fukagawa T., Kosaka Y., Kita Y., Ishikawa K., Etoh T., 2008 . Hematogenous metastasis in gastric cancer requires isolated tumor cells and expression of vascular endothelial growth factor receptor-1. Clin Cancer Res. 14(9), 2609–2616.

16. Hsu J.Y.C., McKeon R, Goussev S., Werb Z., Lee J.U., Trivedi A., 2006. Matrix metalloproteinase-2 facilitates wound healing events that promote functional recovery after spinal cord injury. Journal of Neuroscience. 26(39), 9841-9850. 17. Lee H.H, Son Y.J., Lee W.H., Park Y.W., Chae S.W., Cho W.J., 2010. Tristetraprolin regulates expression of VEGF and tumorigenesis in human colon cancer. Int J Cancer. 126(8),1817–1827.

 Masson V., De La Ballina LR., Munaut C., Wielockx
B., Jost M., Maillard C., 2005.Contribution of host MMP-2 and MMP-9 to promote tumor vascularization and invasion of malignant keratinocytes. The FASEB Journal. 19(2), 1-17.

19. Lambert V., Wielockx B., Munaut C., Galopin C., Jost M., Itoh T., 2003. MMP-2 and MMP-9 synergize in promoting choroidal neovascularization. The FASEB Journal. 17(15), 2290-2292.

20. Bente P., 2011. Exercise includes myokines and their role in choronic disease. Brain Behav Immun. 25(2), 811-816.

21. Christiaens V., Lijnen H., 2010. Angiogenesis and development of adipose tissue. Molecular and Cellular Endocrinology. 318(1-2), 2-9.

22. Gustafsson T., Kraus WE., 2001. Exercise-induced angiogenesis-related growth and transcription factors in skeletal muscle, and their modification in muscle pathology. Front Biosci. 6, 75-89.

23. Smith P.J., Spurrell E.L., Coakley J., Hinds C.J., Ross R.J., Krainer A.R., Chew S.L., 2002. An exonic splicing enhancer in human IGF-I pre-mRNA mediates recognition of alternative exon 5 by the serine-arginine protein splicing factor-2/alternative splicing factor. Endocrinology. 143(13),146–154.

24. David C.J., Manley J.L., 2010. Alternative pre-mRNA splicing regulation in cancer: Pathways and programs unhinged. Genes Dev. 24(21), 2343–2364.

25. Ranjbar K., Rahmani-Nia F., Shahabpour E., 2016. Aerobic training and l-arginine supplementation promotes rat heart and hindleg muscles arteriogenesis after myocardial infarction. Journal of Physiology and Biochemistry, 72(3), 393-404.

26. Cao R., Brakenhielm E., Wahlestedt C., Thyberg J., Cao Y., 2001., Leptin induces vascular permeability and synergistically stimulates angiogenesis with FGF-2 and VEGF. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences. 98(11), 6390-6395.

27. Powers C., McLeskey S., Wellstein A., 2000. Fibroblast growth factors, their receptors and signaling. Endocrine-Related Cancer. 7(3), 165-197.

28. Langston W., Chidlow J.H., Booth B.A., Barlow SC., Lefer DJ., Patel RP., 2007. Regulation of endothelial glutathione by ICAM-1 governs VEGF-A-mediated eNOS activity and angiogenesis. Free Radical Biology and Medicine. 42(5), 720-729.

29. Sasser A.K., Sullivan N.J., Studebaker A.W., Hendey L.F., Axel A.E., Hall B.M., 2007., Interleukin-6 is a potent growth factor for ER- α -positive human breast cancer. The FASEB Journal. 21(13), 3763-37670.

Schneider B.P., 2005. Angiogenesis of breast cancer.
Journal of Clinical Oncology. 23(8), 1782-17890.

31. Lijnen R., Maquoi E., Demeulemeester D., Van Hoef B., Collen D., 2002. Modulation of fibrinolytic and gelatinolytic activity during adipose tissue development in a mouse model of nutritionally induced obesity. Thrombosis and Haemostasis. 88(2), 345-353.

32. Metheny-barlow L.J., Li L.Y., 2003. The enigmatic role of angiopoietin-1 in tumor angiogenesis. Cell Research. 13(5), 309-317.

33. Karkkainen M.J., Haiko P., Sainio K., Partanen J., Taipale J., Petrova T.V., 2004. Vascular endothelial growth factor C is required for sprouting of the first lymphatic vessels from embryonic veins. Nature Immunology. 5(1), 74-80.

34. Gavin T., Drew J., Kubik C., Pofahl W., Hickner R., 2007. Acute resistance exercise increases skeletal muscle angiogenic growth factor expression. ACTA Physiologica. 191(2), 139-146.

35. Van Hinsbergh V.W., Koolwijk P., 2008. Endothelial sprouting and angiogenesis: matrix metalloproteinases in the lead. Cardiovascular Research. 78(2), 203-12.

36. Mackey A.L., Donnelly A.E., Turpeenniemi-Hujanen T., Roper H.P., 2004. Skeletal muscle collagen content in humans after high-force eccentric contractions. Journal of Applied Physiology. 97(1), 197-203.

37. Rullman E., Norrbom J., Strömberg A., Wågsäter D., Rundqvist H., Haas T., 2009. Endurance exercise activates matrix metalloproteinases in human skeletal muscle. Journal of Applied Physiology. 106(3), 804-812.

38. Haas T., Milkiewicz M., Davis S., Zhou A., Egginton S., Brown M., 2000. Matrix metalloproteinase activity is required for activity-induced angiogenesis in rat skeletal muscle. American Journal of Physiology-Heart and Circulatory Physiology. 279(4), 1540-1547.

39. Ma L., Del Soldato P., Wallace J.L., 2002. Divergent effects of new cyclooxygenase inhibitors on gastric ulcer healing: shifting the angiogenic balance. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences. 99(20),13243-7.

40. Li H., Li S., Shao J., Lin X., Cao Y., Jiang W., 2008. Pharmacokinetic and pharmacodynamic study of intratumoral injection of an adenovirus encoding endostatin in patients with advanced tumors. Gene Therapy. 15(4), 247-256.

41. Egginton S., 2009. Invited review: activity-induced angiogenesis. Pflügers Archiv-European Journal of Physiology. 457(5), 963-977.

42. Rullman E., Rundqvist H., Wågsäter D., Fischer H., Eriksson P., Sundberg CJ., 2007. A single bout of exercise activates matrix metalloproteinase in human skeletal muscle. Journal of Applied Physiology. 102(6), 2346-23451.

43. Kiefer F., Neysari S., Humar R., Li W., Munk V., Battegay E., 2003. Hypertension and angiogenesis. Current Pharmaceutical Design. 9(21), 1733-1744.

44. Zarei M., Khazaei M., Sharifi M.R., Pourshanazari AA., 2011. Coronary angiogenesis during experimental hypertension: is it reversible? Journal of Research in Medical Sciences. 16(3), 269-75.

45. Hosen S., Dash R., Khatun M., Akter R., Bhuiyan M.H.R., Rezaul M., 2017. In silico ADME/T and 3D QSAR analysis of KDR inhibitors. J Appl Pharm Sci. 7(1),120-128.

46. Sane D.C., Anton L., Brosnihan K.B., 2004. Angiogenic growth factors and hypertension. Angiogenesis. 7(3), 193-201.

47. Khazaei M., Nematbakhsh M., 2006. Serum level of vascular endothelial growth factor is increased by estrogen replacement therapy in normotensive and DOCA–Salt

hypertensive ovariectomized rats. Clinica Chimica Acta. 365(1-2), 206-210.

48. Yang R., Ogasawara A.K., Zioncheck T.F., Ren Z., He G.W., DeGuzman G.G., 2002. Exaggerated hypotensive effect of vascular endothelial growth factor in spontaneously hypertensive rats. Hypertension. 39(3), 815-820.

 Pakkir Maideen N.M., 2018. Balasubramaniam R.
Pharmacologically relevant drug interactions of sulfonylurea antidiabetics with common herbs. J Herbmed Pharmacol. 7(3):200-210. doi: 10.15171/jhp.2018.32.

50. Nazarian-Samani Z., Sewell R.D., Lorigooini Z., Rafieian-Kopaei M., 2018. Medicinal plants with multiple effects on diabetes mellitus and its complications: A Systematic review. Current diabetes reports. 18(10):72.

 Salehi E., Khazaei M., Rashidi B., Javanmard S.H.,
2011. Effect of Rosiglitazone on Coronary Angiogenesis in Diabetic and Control Rats. Journal of Isfahan Medical School. 29(134), 386-93

52. Vizvari E., Farzanegi P., Abbas Zade Sourati H., 2018. Effect of vigorous aerobic training on serum levels of some inhibitory and excitatory factors of angiogenesis in Women with type 2 diabetes. Pathobiology Research. 21(3), 125-131.

53. Ferrari G., Cook B.D., Terushkin V., Pintucci G., Mignatti P., 2009. Transforming growth factor-beta 1 (TGF- β 1) induces angiogenesis through vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF)-mediated apoptosis. Journal of Cellular Physiology. 219(2), 449-458.

54. Kuchnio A., Moens S., Bruning U., Kuchnio K., Cruys B., Thienpont B., 2015. The cancer cell oxygen sensor PHD2 promotes metastasis via activation of cancer-associated fibroblasts. Cell Reports. 12(6), 992-1005.

55. Rahamooz-Haghighi S., Asadi M.H., 2016. Antiproliferative effect of the extracts and essential oil of Pimpinella anisum on gastric cancer cells. J Herbmed Pharmacol. 5(4):157-161

56. Taghizadeh E., Taheri F, Abdolkarimi H, Renani P.G., Hayat S.M.G., 2017. Distribution of human papillomavirus genotypes among women in Mashhad, Iran. Intervirology. 60(1-2), 38-42. 57. Taghizadeh E., Jahangiri S., Rostami D., Taheri F., Renani P.G., Taghizadeh H., 2019. Roles of E6 and E7 human papillomavirus proteins in molecular pathogenesis of cervical cancer. Current Protein and Peptide Science. 20(9), 926-934.

58. Guzman A., Alemany V.S., Nguyen Y., Zhang C.R., Kaufman L.J., 2017. A novel 3D in vitro metastasis model elucidates differential invasive strategies during and after breaching basement membrane. Biomaterials. 115, 19-29.

59. Morfoisse F., Kuchnio A., Frainay C., Gomez-Brouchet A., Delisle M.B., Marzi S., 2014. Hypoxia induces VEGF-C expression in metastatic tumor cells via a HIF-1 α -independent translation-mediated mechanism. Cell Reports. 6(1), 155-167.

60. Redmer D.A., Doraiswamy V., Bortnem B.J., Fisher K., Jablonka-Shariff A., Grazul-Bilska A.T., 2001. Evidence for a role of capillary pericytes in vascular growth of the developing ovine corpus luteum. Biology of Reproduction. 65(3), 879-899.

61. Rasooly R.S.G., Gregg J.P., Xiao J.H., 2005. Retinoid X receptor agonists increase Bc12a1 expression and decrease apoptosis of naive T lymphocytes. J Immunol. 175(12), 7916-7929.

62. Hsu S.Y., Lai R., Finegold M., Hsueh A., 1996. Targeted overexpression of Bcl-2 in ovaries of transgenic mice leads to decreased follicle apoptosis, enhanced folliculogenesis, and increased germ cell tumorigenesis. Endocrinology. 137(11), 4837-4843.

63. Martínez A., 2006. A new family of angiogenic factors. Cancer letters. 236(2), 157-163.

64. Bailo M., Soncini M., Vertua E., Signoroni P.B., Sanzone S., Lombardi G., Arienti D., Calamani F., Zatti D., Paul P., 2004 . Engraftment Potential of Human Amnion and Chorion Cells Derived from Term Placenta. Transplantation. 78(10),1439–1448.

65. Cheng C.F., Fan J., Bandyopahdhay B., Mock D., Guan S., Chen M., 2008. Profiling motility signal-specific genes in primary human keratinocytes. Journal of Investigative Dermatology. 128(8), 1981-1990.

66. Takahashi M., 2010. Role of the SDF-1/CXCR4 system in myocardial infarction. Circulation Journal. 74(3), 418-

23.

67. Rafieirad M., Abbaszadeh H., 2017. Pomegranate seed extract reduces ischemia induced anxiety in male rats. J Herbmed Pharmacol. 6(2):85-89.

68. O'Neal W., Griffin W., Kent S., Virag J., 2012. Cellular pathways of death and survival in acute myocardial infarction. J Clin Exp Cardiolog S. 6, 003.

69. Cencioni C., Capogrossi M.C., Napolitano M., 2012. The SDF-1/CXCR4 axis in stem cell preconditioning. Cardiovascular Research. 94(3), 400-407.

70. Satchell S.C., Mathieson P.W., 2003. Angiopoietins: microvascular modulators with potential roles in glomerular pathophysiology. Journal of Nephrology. 16(2), 168-178.

71. Leosco D., Rengo G., Iaccarino G., Golino L., Marchese M., Fortunato F., 2008. Exercise promotes angiogenesis and improves β -adrenergic receptor signalling in the post-ischaemic failing rat heart. Cardiovascular Research. 78(2), 385-394.

72. Wu G., Rana J.S., Wykrzykowska J., Du Z., Ke Q., Kang P., 2009. Exercise-induced expression of VEGF and salvation of myocardium in the early stage of myocardial infarction. American Journal of Physiology-Heart and Circulatory Physiology. 296(2), 385-399.

73. Lee S.H., Wolf P.L., Escudero R., Deutsch R., Jamieson S.W., Thistlethwaite P.A., 2000. Early expression of angiogenesis factors in acute myocardial ischemia and infarction. New England Journal of Medicine. 342(9), 626-633.

74. Lundby C., Calbet J.A., Robach P., 2009. The response of human skeletal muscle tissue to hypoxia. Cellular and Molecular Life Sciences. 66(22), 3615-3623.

75. Zadhoush F., 2012. Physiological role of adenosine and its receptors in tissue hypoxia-induced. Physiology and Pharmacology. 16(3), 209-221.

76. Luo Q., Jin P., Li H., Cui K., Jiang T., 2021. Effects of Integrated Health Education Combined with Life Intervention on Patients with Coronary Atherosclerotic Heart Disease Complicated with Hyperlipidemia. American Journal of Health Behavior. 45(5), 843-848.

77. Leman M. A., Claramita M., Rahayu G.R., 2021.

Predicting Factors on Modeling Health Behavior: A Systematic Review. American Journal of Health Behavior, 45(2), 268-278.

78. Rao S., Anthony M.L., Chowdhury N., Kathrotia R., Mishra M., Naithani, M., Singh, N., 2021. Molecular characterization of lung carcinomas: A study on diagnostic, predictive, and prognostic markers using immunohistochemical analysis at a Tertiary Care Center in Uttarakhand, India. Journal of Carcinogenesis, 20.

79. Corches C.L., McBride A.C., Robles M.C., Rehman N., Bailey S., Oliver A., Skolarus, L.E., 2020. Development, adaptation and scale-up of a community-wide, health behavior theory-based stroke preparedness intervention. American Journal of Health Behavior, 44(6), 744-755.

80. Susanto A.D., Harahap R.A., Antariksa B, Basalamah M.A., Nurwidya F., 2020. The prevalence and related risk factors of obstructive sleep apnea in heart failure patients at the indonesian referral hospital for respiratory diseases. Journal of Natural Science, Biology and Medicine. 1, 11(2), 164.

81. Mahajan K., Kandoria A., Bhardwaj R., Negi P.C., Asotra S., Gupta G., 2019. Clinical and coronary angiographic profile in women presenting with anginal chest pain: Results from a single-center prospective observational study. Journal of Natural Science, Biology and Medicine, 10(1), 60.

82. Abid H., Abid Z., Abid, S., 2021. Atherogenic indices in clinical practice and biomedical research: A short review: Atherogenic indices and cardiovascular diseases. Baghdad Journal of Biochemistry and Applied Biological Sciences. 2(02), 59-69. 83. Othman Z., Khalep, H.R.H., Abidin A.Z., Hassan H., Fattepur, S., 2019. The Anti-Angiogenic Properties of Morinda citrifolia. L (Mengkudu) Leaves Using Chicken Chorioallantoic Membrane (CAM) Assay. Pharmacognosy Journal, 11(1), 6.

84. Wardani H.A., Rahmadi M., Ardianto C., Balan S.S., Kamaruddin N.S., Khotib J., 2019. Development of nonalcoholic fatty liver disease model by high-fat diet in rats. Journal of basic and clinical physiology and pharmacology, 30(6), 3.

85. Paul R., Mukkadan J.K., 2020. Modulation of blood glucose, oxidative stress, and anxiety level by controlled vestibular stimulation in prediabetes. Journal of Natural Science, Biology and Medicine, 11(2), 111.

86. Zhang Y., Mahdavi B., Mohammadhosseini M., Rezaei-Seresht E., Paydarfard S., Qorbani M., Karimian M., Abbasi N., Ghaneialvar H., Karimi E., 2021. Green synthesis of NiO nanoparticles using Calendula officinalis extract: Chemical charactrization, antioxidant, cytotoxicity, and anti-esophageal carcinoma properties. Arabian Journal of Chemistry. 14(5), 103105.

87. Ma D., Han T., Karimian M., Abbasi N., Ghaneialvar H., Zangeneh A., 2020. Immobilized Ag NPs on chitosanbiguanidine coated magnetic nanoparticles for synthesis of propargylamines and treatment of human lung cancer. International Journal of Biological Macromolecules. 165, 767-775.

88. Manouchehri A., Shakib P., Biglaryan F., Nazer M., Darvishi M., 2021. The most important medicinal plants affecting bee stings: A systematic review study. Uludag Aricilik Dergisi. 21(1), 91-103.