

Potential Roles of Magnesium Deficiency in Inflammation and Atherogenesis: Importance and Cross-talk of Platelet-Activating Factor and Ceramide

Altura BM^{1,2,3,4,5*}, Gebrewold A¹, Shah NC^{1,5}, Shah GJ^{1,5} and Altura BT^{1,3,4,5}

¹Department of Physiology and Pharmacology, State University of New York Downstate Medical Center, Brooklyn, New York, USA

²Department of Medicine, State University of New York Downstate Medical Center, Brooklyn, New York, USA

³Center for Cardiovascular and Muscle Research, State University of New York Downstate Medical Center, Brooklyn, New York, USA

⁴The School of Graduate Studies in Molecular and Cellular Science, State University of New York Downstate Medical Center, Brooklyn, New York, USA

⁵Bio-Defense Systems, Inc, Rockville Centre, New York, USA

*Corresponding author: Altura BM, Department of Physiology and Pharmacology, SUNY Downstate Medical Center, USA, Tel: 718-270-2194; E-mail: baltura@downstate.edu

Received date: February 10, 2016; Accepted date: March 30, 2016; Published date: March 31, 2016

Copyright: © 2016 Altura BM, et al. This is an open-access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original author and source are credited.

Abstract

Epidemiologic studies in North America and Europe have shown that people consuming Western-type diets are low in magnesium (Mg) content (i.e., < 30 - 65% of the RDA for Mg); most such diets in the USA show that 60 - 80% of Americans are consuming only 185 - 235 mg/day of Mg. Low Mg content in areas of soft-water, and Mg-poor soil, is associated with high incidences of ischemic heart disease (IHD), coronary artery disease, hypertension, and sudden cardiac death (SCD). It is clear that the leading underlying cause of death worldwide is atherosclerosis. Importantly, both animal and human studies have shown an inverse relationship between dietary intake of Mg and atherosclerosis. The myocardial level of Mg has consistently been observed to be lower in subjects dying from IHD and SCD in soft-water areas than those in hard-water areas. Over the past 20 years, our laboratories, using several types of primary cultured vascular smooth muscle (VSM) cells, and myocardial cells, demonstrated that declining levels of extracellular Mg ($[Mg^{2+}]_0$) activated several enzymatic pathways to produce increases in cellular sphingolipids, particularly ceramides which are known to exert numerous types of cardiovascular manifestations including inflammatory effects; the latter play important roles in atherogenesis and cardiovascular diseases. Approximately 20 years ago, we reported that low $[Mg^{2+}]_0$ caused formation of platelet-activating factor (PAF) as well as other types of PAF-like molecules and suggested that these molecules might be causative agents in low Mg^{2+} -induced IHD and SCD. Herein, we review results and data from our labs which strongly support roles for ceramides, PAF and PAF-like lipids in low $[Mg^{2+}]_0$ -induced IHD and SCD.

Keywords: Sphingolipids; Ceramides; Ischemic heart disease; Sudden cardiac death; PAF; Vascular smooth muscle

Introduction

Several epidemiologic studies in North America and Europe have shown that people consuming Western-type diets are low in magnesium (Mg) content (i.e., < 30 - 60% of the RDA for Mg [1-3]. Most such diets in the U.S.A. show that 60 - 80% of Americans are consuming only 185-235 mg Mg/day [4-6]. Low Mg content in drinking water found in areas of soft water and Mg-poor soil, is associated with high incidences of ischemic heart disease, severe atherosclerosis, coronary vasospasm, hypertension, hyperlipidemia, diabetes, and sudden cardiac death [4,7-14]. Both animal and human studies have shown an inverse relationship between dietary intake of Mg and atherosclerosis [4,13,15-19]. The myocardial level of Mg has consistently been observed to be lower in subjects dying from ischemic heart disease and sudden cardiac death in soft water areas [4,7,9,11,20,21]. Mg plays an essential role in more than 500 enzymatic reactions and is required for all energy-generating reactions and oxidative phosphorylation. Mg is a natural calcium (Ca) channel blocker on myocardial and vascular smooth muscle cells [4,16,17,22,23], which was first demonstrated by The Alturas [22,23],

and is a natural statin in that it lowers blood cholesterol, LDL, and triglycerides, and lowers arterial blood pressure [4-6,15-18,24,25].

Using sensitive, specific Mg^{2+} -ion-selective electrodes, it has been shown that patients with hypertension, ischemic heart disease, cardiac failure, strokes, diabetes (types 1 and 2), gestational diabetes, renal disease-induced vascular changes (i.e., atherosclerosis and inflammation) exhibit significant depletion of serum/plasma and tissue levels of ionized, but not total, Mg [4,16,17,26-35]. Moreover, dietary deficiency of Mg, under very-controlled laboratory conditions, in rats and rabbits has been shown to cause vascular remodeling concomitant with hypertension and atherogenesis (i.e., arteriolar wall hypertrophy and alterations in arterial wall matrices) of unknown origin [4,6,15-17,36-39].

Approximately 40 years ago, Russell Ross and colleagues advanced the hypothesis that atherosclerosis is an inflammatory disease brought about by injury to the endothelial surfaces of blood vessels in the macro- and microcirculations [40]. Briefly, the hypothesis stated that different forms of injury will result in numerous dysfunctions in the homeostatic properties of the endothelium, e.g., increase in adhesiveness of leukocytes and/or platelets, alteration in the pro coagulant properties, formation/release of cytokines/ chemokines and growth factors.

Usually, inflammation is defined as a response of microcirculatory blood vessels, and the tissues they perfuse, to infections and damaged tissues which bring cells and host-defense molecules to all the diverse sites where they are required, in order to eliminate/degrade the offending agents [41,42]. The mediators of the defense mechanisms include white blood cells, phagocytic leukocytes, antibodies, chemokines, adhesion molecules and complement proteins [40-42]. Most of these cells and molecules are recruited, when needed, from the blood itself. The inflammatory process brings these cells and molecules to the damaged or necrotic tissues. The absence of the normal inflammatory process would allow infections to continue unchecked, prevent wounds from healing, and result in festering sores/wounds. A typical inflammatory response develops in a sequential manner: recognition of the offending agent (s) by host cells and molecules; recruitment of leukocytes and plasma proteins; activation of leukocytes and certain plasma proteins to destroy and eliminate all offending substances; control and termination of the reaction (s); and finally repair of the damaged tissue (s).

During the normal inflammatory process, leukocytes migrate across the venous postcapillary walls through the endothelium due to increases in vascular permeability, low shear -rates, and move to the site (s) of injury via adhesion molecules and chemotaxis. The normal mediators for these processes to take place are: adhesion molecules; cytokines; and chemokines. Interestingly, all of these same mediators are needed for atherogenesis [40-42], and have been demonstrated recently to be formed, rapidly, in magnesium-deficient states [43-45].

What happens if the inflammatory process is not curtailed or neutralized?-It starts the atherogenic process

If, however, the inflammatory response is not curtailed, or effectively neutralized, the inflammatory response will go-on and stimulate migration and proliferation of VSM cells which will become intermixed with the inflammatory cells and protein components to initiate and form an intermediate lesion (i.e., beginning of an atherosclerotic process). If these processes go-on unabated, the arterial walls will thicken and initially dilate to compensate, to a point. It is important to keep in mind, here, that release of various dilators, locally, including free Mg^{2+} ions are powerful, direct dilators of all types of microcirculatory blood vessels [4,17,31,36,46-50]. After these events the arterial and arteriolar vessels undergo a remodeling process in which the normal contractile VSM cells are transformed into a new non-contractile phenotype (s) [40-42]. At every stage of this process, macrophages, monocytes, and T-lymphocytes are attracted to the endothelium lining the blood vessel walls [41,42]. Activation of these cells then would be expected to result in release of hydrolytic enzymes, cytokines, and growth factors, which have been shown to be released in states of magnesium deficiency [43-45]. These factors will sustain and perpetuate the atherogenic process forming, eventually, fibrous tissue and further enlargement of the lesion, which will overlie a core of lipid resulting in plaques and necrotic tissue. Using rabbits and rats, we have demonstrated that feeding the animals diets low in Mg (similar to the levels found in American diets) results in all of the hallmarks of atherosclerosis, i.e., inflammation followed by release of hydrolytic enzymes, release of cytokines, release of chemokines and growth factors involved in the early stages of the atherogenic process demonstrating lesions and plaques on the inner surfaces of the endothelial walls followed by invasion of VSM cells which become transformed phenotypes [4,16,17,43,45].

Developing plaques in diets promoted by high cholesterol intakes or promoted by low Mg diets are virtually similar in experimental animals

In developing atherosclerosis, each plaque has a cap that retains cholesterol and exhibits inflammatory conditions inside the plaques which can dissolve the fibers, but, then, suddenly, the caps rupture, spilling cholesterol into the insides of the arteries which can promptly cause clots that could, eventually, completely block the flow of blood into the microcirculation of the surrounding tissues [40-42]. Using experimental rabbits, we have observed that these events clearly are similar in both the normal animal fed high cholesterol diets and those rabbits fed low Mg diets [15,17, unpublished findings]. Overall, we believe that such experimental findings lend considerable impetus to our hypothesis that diets low in Mg should be considered important risk factors in events resulting in inflammatory conditions leading to atherogenesis.

Causative events and pathways leading to inflammation-atherogenesis in MgD

What, however, are the cellular and molecular events leading to inflammatory events, release of hydrolytic enzymes, release of cytokines, chemokines and growth factors, and transformation of contractile VSM cells to non-contractile VSM cells which behave as machines to synthesize and release these pro-atherogenic molecules? It has been shown by our group [4,25,43,51] and others [52-54] that ceramides, in increased levels, found in the atherogenic process [mixed in plaques; unpublished findings], at least in rabbits, and stimulated in MgD states could be important causal and initiating agents [16,17].

Ceramides are sphingolipids known to be released as a consequence of sphingomyelinase (SMase) acting on sphingomyelin (SM), a component of all cell membranes, or as a consequence of the activation of serine palmitoyl transferase 1 and 2 (SPT 1 and SPT 2) (a de novo synthetic pathway) [55]. Ceramides are now thought to play important roles in fundamental processes such as inflammation, angiogenesis, membrane-receptor functions, cell proliferation, microcirculatory functions, cell adhesion, immunogenic responses, excitation-coupling events in smooth muscles, and cell death (i.e., apoptosis) [52-57]. SPT 1 and SPT 2 are the rate-limiting enzymes in the biosynthesis of sphingolipids [58]. More than 25 years ago, it was first demonstrated that SPT activity was increased in aortas of rabbits fed a high-cholesterol diet [59]. A short time after these latter studies were published, two of us showed that dietary deficiency of Mg, in levels found in Western diets, vastly increased atherosclerotic plaques in rabbits fed high-cholesterol diets, whereas high dietary levels of Mg inhibited plaque formations [15]. SPT is a heterodimer of 53-kDa SPT-1 and 63-kDa SPT 2 subunits [60,61], both of which are bound to the endoplasmic reticulum [62]. An upregulation of SPT activity has been hypothesized to play a role in apoptosis [63], cell death events taking place in atherogenesis [41,42,64].

Recently, we have reported that magnesium deficient diets given to rats for only 21 days results in an upregulation of SMase, SPT-1, and SPT-2 in a variety of cardiovascular tissues and cells as well as decreased levels of SM and phosphatidylcholine (PC) [65]. We also noted that MgD diets resulted in fragmentation of DNA [24], a release of cytochrome C [65], an increased expression of apoptotic protease factor-1 [65], and an activation of caspase-3 (needed for apoptosis) [24], hallmarks of atherogenesis [42]. When specific inhibitors of SMase and SPT (1 and 2) were utilized, in primary cell cultures of VSM

cells, exposed to low Mg^{2+} environments, we noted an inhibition of formation and release of ceramides, inhibition of DNA fragmentation, inhibition of release of mitochondrial cytochrome C, reduced expression of apoptotic protease factor-1, and inhibition of activation of caspase-3 [65]. We believe, collectively, these new studies lend support to our hypothesis that generation and release of ceramides are pivotal molecules in the initiation of cellular and molecular events leading to inflammatory events and atherogenesis, at least in MgD states. Whether this hypothesis is causative in overall atherogenic events remains to be tested rigorously. Is there any direct evidence to implicate any of these events in the living microcirculation?

Direct *in-vivo* evidence on the microcirculation to implicate ceramides

Using open - and closed- window chambers [66-69], implanted in the cerebral cortex of rats and mice, and in-situ studies on omental tissue of rabbits [69], given MgD diets for 21 days, as well direct microcirculatory studies in the skin and skeletal muscles of MgD rats and mice, we found increased numbers of white blood cells (including monocytes, phagocytic leukocytes and lymphocytes) on the endothelial surfaces of microcirculatory blood vessels using high-resolution TV microscopy [69]. This was followed by increased permeability's of venular post capillaries to where, in some animals, white blood cells traversed the walls into the surrounding tissues, true signs of inflammation [69]. Although we have demonstrated that low Mg diets increase cellular free Ca^{2+} in all types of cardiovascular muscle and endothelial cells, we believed some other fundamental molecule (s) in addition to changes in ceramides and Ca^{2+} must perforce be operative in the low MgD -induced atherogenesis. We felt some lipid-like fast-reacting molecule which could be generated, rapidly, and easily penetrate cell membranes is probably also involved in these inflammatory-atherogenic events.

Is the mysterious intermediary molecule possibly related to platelet-activating factor?

Platelet-activating factor (PAF) is known to play major roles in both inflammatory responses and atherogenesis [70-72]. A variety of the circulating blood -formed elements (e.g., polymorph nuclear leukocytes, platelets, basophils, and macrophages) and endothelial cells can elaborate PAF [71,72]. We have recently demonstrated that cerebral, aortic and coronary VSM cells can also elaborate and release PAF [69]. There are some reports that both PAF and ceramides may result in transformation of VSM cells from one phenotype to another, as is typical in the atherosclerotic process [53,54,72,73]. In addition, like we see in MgD, PAF produces vasoconstriction of blood vessels and a variety of VSM types [for recent review, see 69], as do several of the ceramides [69,74,75]. A number of investigators employing intravital microscopy techniques, similar to those used by our laboratories [76-80], have demonstrated that PAF increased the number of white blood cells in the microvessels concomitant with intense vasoconstriction-spasms with increasing concentrations of the putative lipid mediator (i.e., PAF), less leukocyte rolling, and increased adherence of the leukocytes to the endothelial surfaces with increases in vascular-capillary permeability [78-80]. Using open and closed chambers implanted in rodent cerebral cortex and skeletal muscles, as mentioned above, we have observed similar phenomena [69]. Further, we have reported that a variety of ceramides produce similar microcirculatory actions in rodent cerebral, cutaneous and skeletal microvascular tissues, including increased permeability of the

postcapillary venular walls, the major sites of inflammatory reactions [75]. Collectively, these *in-vivo* microcirculatory findings strongly support the hypothesis that both PAF and ceramides induce similar, true inflammatory responses in diverse vascular beds in diverse mammalian species.

Using the above reports and experimental findings, in a large number of *in-vivo* studies, from our laboratories , and others mentioned above, we hypothesize that since MgD results in most of the attributes of early inflammatory responses- atherogenesis, including the synthesis/ release of PAF and ceramides, PAF and ceramides most likely are important , if not critical , contributing mediators released/ synthesized early in cardiovascular tissues , and blood formed elements, to initiate inflammation and the atherogenic process.

Future Considerations

Since we have demonstrated in both rats and rabbits fed low Mg diets that increased levels of both ceramides and PAF are found, in situ , in all chambers of the heart , aortae and coronary blood vessels, and these manifestations were associated with increased plaques, elevated serum cholesterol , elevated triglycerides , elevated ceramides, and increased generation of PAF [4,15-17,24,25,43,45,51,65,69,81], it is highly unlikely that these *in-vivo* manifestations are merely epiphenomena. However, in order to solidify our hypothesis, regarding inflammation and atherogenesis (induced by low dietary Mg), one could utilize PAF knock-out or knock-down rats and mice subjected to low dietary Mg. Such PAF knock-out animals should result in reductions in expression of many of the downstream molecules and their pathways, e.g., decreased levels of the ceramide -generating enzymes, decreased ceramide levels, reduction in DNA fragmentation, reduced expression of apoptotic protease factor-1, reduction in levels of caspase-3, reduction in elevated levels of cholesterol and triglycerides, and reduced levels of plaques on carotid and coronary arteries, etc. Only time will tell whether these suggested experiments will prove to validate our hypothesis.

Acknowledgements

Some of the original studies mentioned in this report were supported, in part, by research grants from The N.I.H. (National Heart, Lung and Blood Institute, National Institute on Drug Abuse, and National Institute on Alcoholism and Alcohol Abuse to B.M.A.).

References

1. Ford ES, Mokdad AH (2003) Dietary magnesium intake in a national sample of US adults. *J Nutr* 133: 2879-2882.
2. Mosfegh A, Goldman J, Abuja J, Rhodes D, La Comb R (2009) What We eat in America > NHANES 2005-2006: Usual Intakes from Food and Water compared to 1997 Dietary reference Intakes for Vitamin D, Calcium, Phosphorus, and Magnesium. Washington, DC. US Department of Agricultural Research Service.
3. (2016) HANES, Dietary Reference Intakes for Vitamin D, Calcium, Phosphorus, and Magnesium. Washington, DC, USA.
4. Altura BM, Altura BT (2007) Magnesium: forgotten mineral in cardiovascular biology and angiogenesis. In: *New Perspectives in Magnesium Research*. Nishizawa N, Morii H, Durlach J, Eds. New York, Springer: 239-260.
5. Seelig MS, Rosanoff A (2003) *The Magnesium Factor*. New York, The Penguin Group.
6. Dean C (2014) *The Magnesium Miracle*, 3rd Ed. Ballantine Books, New York.

7. Crawford T, Crawford MD (1967) Prevalence and pathological changes of ischaemic heart-disease in a hard-water and in a soft-water area. *Lancet* 1: 229-232.
8. Anderson TW, Le Riche WH, MacKay JS (1969) Sudden death and ischemic heart disease. Correlation with hardness of local water supply. *N Engl J Med* 280: 805-807.
9. Chipperfield B, Chipperfield JR (1979) Relation of myocardial metal concentrations to water hardness and death-rates from ischaemic heart disease. *Lancet* 2: 709-712.
10. Altura BM (1979) Sudden-death ischemic heart disease and dietary magnesium intake: is the target site coronary vascular smooth muscle? *Med Hypotheses* 5: 843-848.
11. Turlapaty PDMV, Altura BM (1980) Magnesium deficiency produces spasms of coronary arteries: relationship to etiology of sudden death ischemic heart disease. *Science* 208: 198-200.
12. Marier JH, Neri LC (1985) Quantifying the role of magnesium in the interrelationship between human mortality/morbidity and water hardness. *Magnesium* 4: 53-59.
13. Leary WP (1986) Content of magnesium in drinking water and deaths from ischaemic heart disease in white South Africans. *Magnesium* 5: 150-153.
14. Rubenowitz E, Molin I, Axelsson G, Rylander R (2000) Magnesium in drinking water in relation to morbidity and mortality from acute myocardial infarction. *Epidemiology* 11: 416-421.
15. Altura BT, Brust M, Bloom S, Barbour RL, Stempak JG, et al. (1990) Magnesium dietary intake modulates blood lipid levels and atherogenesis. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 87: 1840-1844.
16. Altura BM, Altura BT (1995) Magnesium and cardiovascular biology: an important link between cardiovascular risk factors and atherogenesis. *Cell Mol Biol Res* 41: 347-359.
17. Altura BM, Altura BT (1995) Magnesium in cardiovascular biology. *Sci & Med* 2: 28-37.
18. Rayssiguier Y, Gueux E (1986) Magnesium and lipids in cardiovascular disease. *J Am Coll Nutr* 5: 507-519.
19. Singh RB, Niaz MA, Moshiri M, Zheng G, Zhu S (1997) Magnesium status and risk of coronary artery disease in rural and urban populations with variable magnesium consumption. *Magnes Res* 10: 205-213.
20. Eisenberg MJ (1992) Magnesium deficiency and sudden death. *Am Heart J* 124: 544-549.
21. Marx A, Neutra RR (1997) Magnesium in drinking water and ischemic heart disease. *Epidemiol Rev* 19: 258-272.
22. Altura BM, Altura BT (1971) Influence of magnesium on drug-induced contractions and ion content in rabbit aorta. *Am J Physiol* 220: 938-944.
23. Altura BM, Altura BT (1974) Magnesium and contraction of arterial smooth muscle. *Microvasc Res* 7: 145-155.
24. Altura BM, Shah NC, Jiang XC, Li Z, Perez-Albela JL, et al. (2009) Short-term magnesium deficiency results in decreased levels of serum sphingomyelin, lipid peroxidation, and apoptosis in cardiovascular tissues. *Am J Physiol Heart Circ Physiol* 297: 86-92.
25. Shah NC, Liu JP, Iqbal J, Hussain M, Jiang XC, et al. (2011) Mg deficiency results in modulation of serum lipids, glutathione, and NO synthase isozyme activation in cardiovascular tissues: relevance to de novo synthesis of ceramide, serum Mg and atherogenesis. *Int J Clin Exp Med* 4: 103-118.
26. Altura BT, Altura BM (1991) Measurement of ionized magnesium in whole blood, plasma and serum with a new ion-selective electrode in healthy and diseased human subjects. *Magnes Trace Elem* 10: 90-98.
27. Handwerker SM, Altura BT, Royo B, Altura BM (1993) Ionized magnesium and calcium levels in umbilical cord serum of pregnant women with transient hypertension during labor. *Am J Hypertens* 6: 542-545.
28. Markell MS, Altura BT, Barbour RL, Altura BM (1993) Ionized and total magnesium levels in cyclosporin-treated renal transplant recipients: relationship with cholesterol and cyclosporin levels. *Clin Sci* 85: 315-318.
29. Resnick LM, Altura BT, Gupta RK, Laragh JH, Alderman MH, et al. (1993) Intracellular and extracellular magnesium depletion in type 2 (non-insulin-dependent) diabetes mellitus. *Diabetologia* 36: 767-770.
30. Altura BM, Lewenstam A (1994) Unique Magnesium Ion-selective Electrodes. *Scand J Clin Lab Invest* 54: 1-100.
31. Altura BM, Altura BT (1996) Role of magnesium in patho-physiological processes and the clinical utility of magnesium ion selective electrodes. *Scand J Clin Lab Invest Suppl* 224: 211-234.
32. Bardicef M, Bardicef O, Sorokin Y, Altura BM, Altura BT, et al. (1995) Extracellular and intracellular magnesium depletion in pregnancy and gestational diabetes. *Am J Obstet Gynecol* 172: 1009-1013.
33. Altura BT, Memon ZS, Zhang A, Cheng TP-O, Silverman R, et al. (1997) Low levels of serum ionized magnesium are found in stroke patients early after stroke which results in rapid elevation in cytosolic free calcium and spasm in cerebral vascular smooth muscle cells. *Neurosci Lett* 230: 37-40.
34. Resnick LM, Bardicef O, Altura BT, Alderman MH, Altura BM (1997) Serum ionized magnesium: relation to blood pressure and racial factors. *Am J Hypertens* 10: 1420-1424.
35. Altura BM, Altura BT (1999) Association of alcohol in brain injury, headaches, and stroke with brain-tissue and serum levels of ionized magnesium: a review of recent findings and mechanisms of action. *Alcohol* 19: 119-130.
36. Altura BM, Altura BT (1978) Magnesium and vascular tone and reactivity. *Blood Vessels* 15: 5-16.
37. Altura BM, Altura BT, Gebrewold A, Ising H, Gunther T (1984) Magnesium deficiency and hypertension: correlation between magnesium deficiency diets and microcirculatory changes in situ. *Science* 223: 1315-1317.
38. Altura BM, Altura BT, Gebrewold A, Ising H, Günther T (1992) Noise-induced hypertension and magnesium in rats: relationship to microcirculation and calcium. *J Appl Physiol* 72: 194-202.
39. Laurant P, Hayoz D, Brunner HR, Berthelot A (1999) Effect of magnesium deficiency on blood pressure and mechanical properties of rat carotid artery. *Hypertension* 33: 1105-1110.
40. Ross R (1999) Atherosclerosis--an inflammatory disease. *N Engl J Med* 340: 115-126.
41. Majno G, Joris I (2004) Cells, Tissues, and Disease: Principles of General Pathology. (2nd Edn). Oxford, Oxford Univ Press: 307-524.
42. Kumar V, Abbas AK, Aster JC (2015) Robbins and Cotran Pathologic Basis of Disease. (9th Edn). Philadelphia, Elsevier-Saunders: 496-501.
43. Altura BM, Shah NC, Shah GJ, Zhang A, Li W, et al. (2012) Short-term magnesium deficiency upregulates ceramide synthase in cardiovascular tissues and cells: cross-talk among cytokines, Mg²⁺, NF- κ B and de novo ceramide. *Am J Physiol Heart Circ Physiol* 302: 319-332.
44. Weglicki WB (2012) Hypomagnesemia and inflammation: clinical and basic aspects. *Annu Rev Nutr* 32: 55-71.
45. Altura BM, Shah NC, Shah GJ, Zhang A, Li W, et al. (2014) Short-term Mg-deficiency upregulates protein kinase C isoforms in cardiovascular tissues and cells; relation to NF- κ B, cytokines, ceramide salvage sphingolipid pathway and PKC-zeta: hypothesis and review. *Int J Clin Exp Med* 7:1-21.
46. Altura BM, Altura BT, Carella A, Gebrewold A, Murakawa T, et al. (1987) Mg²⁺-Ca²⁺ interaction in contractility of vascular smooth muscle: Mg²⁺ versus organic calcium channel blockers on myogenic tone and agonist-induced responsiveness of blood vessels. *Canad J Physiol Pharmacol* 65: 729-745.
47. Friedman HS, Nguyen TN, Mokraoui AM, Barbour RL, Murakawa T, et al. (1987) Effects of magnesium chloride on cardiovascular hemodynamics in the neurally intact dog. *J Pharmacol Exp Ther* 243: 126-130.
48. Nagai I, Gebrewold A, Altura BT, Altura BM (1988) Magnesium salts exert direct vasodilator effects on rat cremaster muscle microcirculation. *Arch Int Pharmacodyn Ther* 294: 194-214.
49. Nishio A, Gebrewold A, Altura BT, Altura BM (1988) Comparative effects of magnesium salts on reactivity of arterioles and venules to constrictor

- agents: an in situ study on microcirculation. *J Pharmacol Exp Ther* 246: 859-865.
50. Nishio A, Gebrewold A, Altura BT, Altura BM (1989) Comparative vasodilator effects of magnesium salts on rat mesenteric arterioles and venules. *Arch Int Pharmacodyn Ther* 298: 139-163.
51. Altura BM, Shah NC, Shah GJ, Li W, Zhang A, et al. (2013) magnesium deficiency upregulates sphingomyelinases in cardiovascular tissues and cells: cross-talk among proto-oncogenes, Mg²⁺, NF- κ B and ceramide and their potential relationships to resistant hypertension, atherogenesis and cardiac failure. *Int J Clin Exp Med* 6: 861-879.
52. Hannun YA, Obeid LM (2002) The Ceramide-centric universe of lipid-mediated cell regulation: stress encounters of the lipid kind. *J Biol Chem* 277: 25847-25850.
53. Hage-Sleiman R, Esmerian MO, Kobeissy H, Dbaibo G (2013) p53 and Ceramide as Collaborators in the Stress Response. *Int J Mol Sci* 14: 4982-5012.
54. Aguilera-Romero A, Gehin C, Reizman H (2014) Sphingolipid homeostasis in the web of metabolic routes. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 1841: 647-656.
55. Merrill AH Jr (2002) De novo sphingolipid biosynthesis: a necessary, but dangerous, pathway. *J Biol Chem* 277: 25843-25846.
56. Hannun YA (1996) Functions of ceramide in coordinating cellular responses to stress. *Science* 274: 1855-1859.
57. Quintans J, Kilkus J, McShan CL, Gottschalk AR, Dawson G (1994) Ceramide mediates the apoptotic response of WEHI 231 cells to anti-immunoglobulin, corticosteroids and irradiation. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun* 202: 710-714.
58. Merrill AH Jr, Jones DD (1990) An update of the enzymology and regulation of sphingomyelin metabolism. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 1044: 1-12.
59. Williams RD, Sgoutas DS, Zaatari GS (1986) Enzymology of long-chain base synthesis by aorta: induction of serine palmitoyltransferase activity in rabbit aorta during atherogenesis. *J Lipid Res* 27: 763-770.
60. Hanada K, Hara T, Nishikijima M, Kuge O, Dickson RC (1997) A mammalian homolog of the yeast LCB1 encodes a component of serine palmitoyltransferase, the enzyme catalyzing the first step in sphingolipid biosynthesis. *J Biol Chem* 272: 32108-32114.
61. Weiss B, Stoffel W (1997) Human and murine serine-palmitoyl-CoA transferase--cloning, expression and characterization of the key enzyme in sphingolipid synthesis. *Eur J Biochem* 249: 239-247.
62. Yasuda S, Nishijima M, Hanada K (2003) Localization, topology, and function of the LCB1 subunit of serine palmitoyltransferase in mammalian cells. *J Biol Chem* 278: 4176-4183.
63. Hanada K (2003) Serine palmitoyltransferase, a key enzyme of sphingolipid metabolism. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 1632: 16-30.
64. Krysko DV, Kaczmarek A, Vandenbeeke P (2009) Molecular pathways of different types of cell death: Many roads to cell death. In: *Phagocytosis of Dying Cells: from Molecular Mechanisms to Human Disease*. Krysko DV, Vandenbeeke P, Eds. New York, Springer: 4-31.
65. Altura BM, Shah NC, Li Z, Jiang XC, Perez-Albela JL, et al. (2009) Magnesium deficiency upregulates serine palmitoyl transferase (SPT 1 and SPT 2) on cardiovascular tissues: relationship to serum ionized Mg and cytochrome c. *Am J Physiol Heart Circ Physiol* 299: 932-938.
66. Altura BM (1968) Antihistamine constriction in mouse skin microcirculation. *J Pharm Pharmacol* 20: 71-72.
67. Altura BM, Altura BT, Gebrewold A (1980) Differential effects of the calcium antagonist, verapamil, on lumen sizes of terminal arterioles and muscular venules in the rat mesenteric, pial and skeletal muscle microvasculatures. *Brit J Pharmacol* 70: 351-353.
68. Altura BM, Altura BT, Gebrewold A (1983) Alcohol-induced spasms of cerebral blood vessels: relation to cerebrovascular accidents and sudden death. *Science* 220: 331-333.
69. Altura BM, Li W, Zhang A, Zheng T, Shah NC, et al. (2016) Expression of PAF is induced by low extracellular Mg²⁺ in aortic, cerebral and piglet coronary arterial vascular smooth muscle cells; cross-talk with ceramide production, DNA, nuclear factor- κ B and proto-oncogenes: possible links to inflammation, atherogenesis, hypertension, sudden cardiac death in children and infants, stroke, and aging: hypothesis and review. *Int J Cardiovasc and Res*.
70. Fruhwirth GO, Loidl A, Hermetter A (2007) Oxidized phospholipids: from molecular properties to disease. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 1772: 718-736.
71. Prescott SM, Zimmerman GA, Stafforini DM, McIntyre TM (2000) Platelet-activating factor and related lipid mediators. *Annu Rev Biochem* 69: 419-445.
72. Montrucchio G, Alloati G, Camussi G (2000) Role of platelet-activating factor in cardiovascular pathophysiology. *Physiol Rev* 80: 1669-1699.
73. Wang H, Patterson C (2015) *Atherosclerosis. Risks, Mechanisms, and Therapies*. Hoboken, John Wiley & Sons.
74. Bischoff A, Czyborra P, Fetscher C, Meyer Zu Heringdorf D, Jakobs KH, et al. (2000) Sphingosine-1-phosphate and sphingosylphosphorylcholine constrict renal and mesenteric microvessels in vitro. *Br J Pharmacol* 130: 1871-1877.
75. Altura BM, Gebrewold A, Zheng T, Altura BT (2002) Sphingomyelinase and ceramide analogs induce vasoconstriction and leukocyte-endothelial interactions in cerebral blood vessel venules in the intact rat brain: insight into mechanisms and possible relation to brain injury and stroke. *Brain Res Bull* 58: 271-278.
76. Dillon PK, Ritter AB, Durán WN (1988) Vasoconstrictor effects of platelet-activating factor in the hamster cheek pouch microcirculation: dose-related relations and pathways of action. *Circ Res* 62: 722-731.
77. Uhl E, Fitzpatrick MF, Ritter AB, Duran WN (1999) Influence of platelet-activating factor on cerebral microcirculation in rats. Part I. Systemic application. *Stroke* 30: 873-879.
78. Dillon PK, Fitzpatrick MF, Ritter AB, Duran WN (1988) Effect of platelet-activating factor on leukocyte adhesion to microvascular endothelium: time course and dose-response relationships. *Inflamm* 12: 563-573.
79. Bekker AY, Dillon PK, Paul J, Duran WN (1988) Dose-response relationships between platelet activating factor and permeability: surface area product of FITC-dextran 150 in the hamster cheek pouch. *Microcirc Endothel Lymphatics* 4: 433-446.
80. Kochanek PM, Nemoto EM, Melick JA, Evans RW, Burke DF (1988) Cerebrovascular and cerebrometabolic effects of intracarotid infused platelet-activating factor in rats. *J Cereb Blood Flow Metab* 8: 546-551.
81. Altura BM, Shah NC, Shah GJ, Perez-Albela JL, Altura BT, et al. (2016) Magnesium deficiency results in oxidation and fragmentation of DNA, down regulation of telomerase activity, and ceramide release in cardiovascular tissues and cells: potential relationship to atherogenesis, cardiovascular diseases and aging. *Int J Diabetol & Vasc Dis*.