



The Biological Role of Advanced Glycation End Products in the Development and Progression of Colorectal Cancer

Muthear Dawood*, Zaid Muwafaq Younus, Mohammed Alnori, Sameer Mahmood

College of Pharmacy, University of Mosul, Mosul, Iraq

Abstract

“Colorectal cancer” (CRC) is one of the most prevalent cancers, posing a scientific challenge and serving as a model for investigating the molecular pathways underlying its development. “Advanced glycation end products” (AGEs) have drawn interest in this context. The buildup of these diverse, chemically complex groups, which are formed by a “non-enzymatic interaction” between reducing sugar and a range of macromolecules, significantly increases “inflammation and oxidative stress” in the body, which has long been associated to cancer formation. The traditional pathways that promote AGE formation, as well as the significance of AGEs’ interaction with the receptor for “advanced glycation end products” (RAGE) and other means involved in CRC initiation and progression, are discussed in this review.

Edited by: Slavica Hristomanova-Mitkovska
Citation: Dawood M, Younus ZM, Alnori M, Mahmood S. The Biological Role of Advanced Glycation End Products in the Development and Progression of Colorectal Cancer. Open-Access Maced J Med Sci. 2022 May 11; 10(F):487-494. <https://doi.org/10.3889/oamjms.2022.9926>
Keywords: Glycation; Cancer; Colon; Oxidative stress
***Correspondence author:** Muthear N. Dawood, College of Pharmacy, University of Mosul, Mosul, Iraq. E-mail: muthear78@uomosul.edu.iq
Received: 01-Apr-2022
Revised: 22-Apr-2022
Accepted: 01-May-2022
Copyright: © 2022 Muthear Dawood, Zaid Muwafaq Younus, Mohammed Alnori, Sameer Mahmood
Funding: This research did not receive any financial support
Competing Interest: The authors have declared that no competing interest exists
Open Access: This is an open-access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution-NonCommercial 4.0 International License (CC BY-NC 4.0)

Introduction

Globally, cancer is one of the earnest well-being issues that threaten human life expectancy and quality [1], [2], [3]. According to the GLOBOCAN 2020 statistics (19.3 million), new cancer cases were identified in 2020, with almost 10 million deaths [4], “Colorectal cancer (CRC)” is considered one of the utmost frequent cancers, every year, about 1–2 million new cases are discovered; it represents the third most frequently interpreted cancer and the second driving reason of malignant tumor affined death [5]. However, CRC is more common and is on the rise in developed countries, as reported in Japan, Australia, Europe, and North America [6], [7].

CRC has a multifaceted and complicated etiology. Hereditary factors, inflammatory bowel diseases, modification of the bowel microbiota, and aging have been postulated as possible underlying contributors to the emergence of this cancer. Furthermore, numerous environmental factors have been strongly linked to CRC etiology, including sedentary lifestyle, Western diet style, central, and obesity. Hyperglycemia, hyperinsulinemia, oxidative stress, and inflammation are some of the significant metabolic repercussions of these exposures, all of which

have been hypothesized as key triggering pathways for CRC onset and progression [6], [8], [9], [10], [11], [12].

Several studies have been conducted to improve our understanding of the underlying colorectal carcinogenesis, all of which offer opportunities to identify selective biomarkers for the early diagnosis, personalization of treatment approaches, and the provision of prognostic markers [13]. Interestingly, it has been discovered that the accumulation of “advanced glycation end products” (AGEs) can promote, exacerbate different cancers, or both [14], [15]. Exogenous AGEs originating from various environmental factors as well as endogenously formed AGEs have been reported to further subsidize the pathogenesis of CRC through the induction of different intracellular changes and mutations resulting in malignant cell transformation [16], [17], [18], [19].

AGEs

AGEs are a uniquely complex group of compounds produced using a variety of precursors, through different mechanisms, with the ability of their production exogenously or endogenously [20], [21]. They are irreversibly formed products from the

covalent modification of macromolecules, including proteins. These modifications are brought about by oxidative/non-oxidative reactions “(such as glycation or carbonylation)” that use reducing sugars (such as glucose, fructose, and pentose) or their breakdown products [22].

These glycotoxins are produced endogenously by the slow non-enzymatic Maillard reaction between reducing sugars and proteins. The non-enzymatic glycation and oxidation of nucleotides or lipids also play a significant role in their formation [17]. Louis-Camille Maillard first characterized the Maillard reaction in the early 20th century. A nucleophilic addition reaction can occur between the protein's free amino groups and the reductive sugars' carbonyl groups. Within hours, this reaction produces a reversible Schiff base, which reverts to ketoamine or Amadori products within a few days. Within weeks to months, the Amadori products experience rearrangements and dehydration. The resulting dicarbonyl compounds then get involved by subsequent reactions to create irreversible AGEs. Pentosidine, glucosepane, and the *in vivo* “archetypal AGE N-carboxymethyl-lysine (CML)” are the most well-known AGEs generated from this glycoxidation pathway [23], [24].

Noteworthy, glycolysis and lipid peroxidation are significantly faster endogenous mechanisms that can contribute to the generation of AGEs. Intracellular glycolysis, resulting in the conversion of glucose to reactive carbonyl compounds, the most well-known of which is methylglyoxal (MG), which consecutively can result in AGEs. Lipid peroxidation handles formation of reactive carbonyl species from lipid biomolecules serving as a marker for oxidative stress profile. AGEs, or in this context also known as advanced lipid end products (ALEs), such as malondialdehyde, are formed as a result of this formation [22], [25].

Oxidative stress and hyperglycemia, for example, can enhance the formation of these deleterious compounds. High levels of AGEs in the plasma have been linked to aging, diabetes, and different immunological diseases, including “systemic lupus erythematosus, rheumatoid arthritis, and psoriasis” [26], [27].

In addition to the endogenous formation, exogenous AGE absorption, such as through cigarette smoke inhalation or the consumption of high AGE food products, considerably contributes to the AGE pool inside the body. Approximately 10–30% of the dietary AGEs (dAGEs) are absorbed into the bloodstream through the gastrointestinal system [28], [29].

According to several studies, the highest amount of dAGEs was found in foods of the Western style, which are high in protein and fat, while the lowest amount of dAGEs was found in cereals. However, this could vary depending on the processing. The rate at which dAGEs form can be influenced by many factors,

for instance, their formation is enhanced by “alkaline pH” and cooking at a “high temperature” for long periods. Low pH and meals prepared with water, on the other hand, hinder the development of dAGEs. Fried, roasted, or grilled food thus contain more dAGEs than those that are boiled or steamed [29], [30], [31].

Kidney's clearance and the liver's metabolism both can affect the accumulation of these heterogeneous molecules. Patients with renal or hepatic failure have elevated AGE levels. In the perspective of improved kidney and liver function, the accumulation of AGEs in the blood is potentially reversible [22], [32], [33], [34].

Endogenous AGEs and dAGEs synergistically can boost the systematic load of AGEs. At the very least, AGEs could affect the health by two means: Accumulation in tissues, resulting in the disruption of proteins structure (crosslinking intra- and extra-cellular matrix proteins) and thus modifying their functions, and interaction with the AGE receptor (RAGE), ensuing in the enhancement of inflammatory and oxidant status [35], [36].

The Biological Role of AGEs in CRC

CRCs are a diverse group of illnesses caused by a variety of mutagens and mutations. A worthier understanding of the pathogenesis and pattern of this cancer, including its molecular evolution, progression, genetic, and environmental risk factors, will potentially contribute to preventing and curing this lethal neoplasm [11].

AGEs have been linked to the development of many chronic ailments, including different cancers. By triggering numerous signal transduction pathways, AGEs and their receptors have been demonstrated to play critical roles in “cell invasion, proliferation, and epithelial-mesenchymal transition.” [23], [37], [38], [39], [40].

RAGE is a “transmembrane receptor” that belongs to the multiligand “immunoglobulin superfamily.” Except for the lung, where expression is often high, these cell surface protein receptors are expressed at low levels in other tissue types. RAGE overactivity and expression have been seen in numerous malignancies, including the prostate, breast, colon, brain, and ovaries. When AGEs bind to their receptors, an array of signaling cascades is triggered. An intracellular inflammatory condition will result starting with the “activation of NF- κ B (nuclear factor-kappa B),” a transcription factor that promotes the release of growth factors, adhesive molecules, and pro-inflammatory cytokines. In addition, AGEs binding to RAGE will result in increased “generation of reactive oxygen and nitrogen species” by NADPH oxidase activation, which also can boost NF- κ B stimulation [41], [42], [43], [44], [45], [46], [47].

Since it has been found that inflammation is associated with about a quarter of all cancers, chronic inflammation stimulates oncogenes activation and tumorigenic signaling pathways. In addition, the reactive species can break down proteins, lipids, nucleic acids, and altering their biological characteristics, thus initiating the tumor growth process [38], [48]. Therefore, it is not surprising that sustained AGE-mediated RAGE activation is involved in the pathogenesis of different cancers, including colorectal carcinoma [38].

Several studies have addressed RAGE as one of the key factors in CRC's progression and metastasis. According to Sasahira *et al.*, RAGE expression can be substantially linked to atypia and the size of colorectal adenomas. Furthermore, high RAGE positivity was found in adenomas with severe atypia and large-sized adenomas. In other words, RAGE expression is strongly connected to the malignant potential of colorectal adenomas [49]. Bedoui *et al.* conducted case-control research in Tunisians to look at unique RAGE gene (AGE) variants and associated link with CRC. The presence of CRC has been linked to the RAGE rs77170610 and rs2853807 variants, implying that these RAGE polymorphisms interpose to the systemic pro-inflammatory state associated with CRC and other malignancies [50].

Sakellariou *et al.* studied the clinical importance of the AGE-RAGE axis in CRC by comparing the expression levels of the mentioned molecules in CRC to surrounding normal tissues. They found that CRC tissue had greater levels of AGE and RAGE expression than the surrounding normal tissue. In addition, this investigation highlighted the overexpression of GLO-I in the investigated tumoral tissue. In short, the endogenous glyoxalase scavenging system can reduce the cytotoxicity of AGEs. Glyoxalase (GLO)-I is a ubiquitously expressed system enzyme that protects "proteins, nucleotides, and phospholipids" against advanced glycation processes by lowering AGEs precursors' levels. This glyoxalase detoxifying system is especially beneficial to tumor cells with a high glycolytic rate, such as colon cancer cells [51].

These findings are similar to those of Kuniyasu *et al.* who examined the diversities in activity between amphoterin and AGE as RAGE ligands in four different CRC cell lines. Both amphoterin and AGE have been shown to activate ERK1/2, p38, and JNK. However, their ERK1/2 activation ability is inconsistent. While AGE was found to have a superior impact on amphoterin in terms of increasing the production of inducible nitric oxide synthase and nuclear factor-Bp65, amphoterin had a higher effect on ERK1/2 phosphorylation, Rac1, and AKT, as well as the MMP9 generation. These two compounds were found to promote cancer, and their distinct activities were considered to be caused by intracellular signaling pathway selectivity [52].

A study was carried out to investigate the method by which advanced AGEs stimulate

"proliferation, invasion, and epithelial-mesenchymal transition (EMT)" of SW480 "human colon cancer cells" to improve current understanding of the concepts allegedly involved by AGEs in their intervention in the pathogenesis of CRC. AGEs elevated PI3K and AKT expression, which ensued in enhanced levels of "proliferation, invasion, and EMT," thus indicating the link between AGEs and colon cancer [53]. In another study, five CRC cell lines and 45 cases of CRC tissue specimens were tested for RAGE mRNA and protein. In addition to the overexpressed, it has been found that RAGE was linked to a higher microvessel density in CRC tissue. RAGE knockdown reduced the invasion ability of SW480 cells but had no significant effect on cell viability. Furthermore, these receptors knockdown decreased specificity protein 1 (Sp1) and VEGF production in CRC cells. Collectively, these findings imply that inhibiting CRC angiogenesis *in vitro* and *in vivo* can be accomplished by silencing RAGE expression [54].

AGE accumulation is enhanced in hyperglycemic circumstances, such as diabetes. According to intensive investigations, diabetic patients have a significantly higher risk of CRC [55], [56]. In 2017, Deng *et al.* discovered that glucose-derived AGEs, a key subtype of AGEs, triggered metastasis and invasion in CRC patients. This study revealed that patients with CRC had a higher concentration of glucose-derived AGEs in both serum and tumor tissue. RAGE, matrixmetalloproteinase2 (MMP2), and Sp1 expression were significantly higher in malignant tissues compared to non-tumor tissue in examined individuals with CRC. In addition, RAGE expression was strongly related to lymph node metastases and the TNM stage, according to a clinical data analysis. The AGE administration elevated RAGE, Sp1, and MMP2 expression dose dependently. Likewise, the AGE-persuaded influences were demoted using a RAGE blocking antibody and Sp1-specific siRNA. Moreover, the AGEs treatment enhanced ERK phosphorylation, whereas the MEK1/2 inhibitor reduced ERK phosphorylation, resulting in lower Sp1 expression [57].

Another study found that AGEs increased the expression and activation of the carbohydrate responsive element-binding protein (ChREBP), a vital transcription factor that has been linked to increased glycolytic and anabolic activity as well as the proliferation of "colorectal and liver cancer cells." AGE-induced ChREBP expression and cell proliferation in cancer cells were suppressed using siRNAs or an antagonistic antibody for the RAGEs. AGE-induced cancer cell growth was severely hampered when ChREBP expression was suppressed. Overall, these findings show that AGE-RAGE signaling promotes cancer cell proliferation, with AGE-mediated ChREBP activation playing a crucial role [36].

On a genetic level, AGEs-RAGE signaling can induce the "nucleus translocation of transcription factor Kruppel-like factor 5 (KLF5)," which was able to join

to the regulatory series of the oncogene MDM2 and promote its expression in the human colon cancer cell line. Through this pathway, overexpressed MDM2 joins and encourages immediately the degradation of cancer suppressors Rb and p53. These findings were verified in a diabetic mouse model, which showed high blood AGEs concentration, and both KLF5 and MDM2 protein levels were enhanced [58].

Aside from the basic mechanism of AGEs having caused biological function through binding to RAGE, AGEs are formed when nucleotides in DNA are directly glycated. The nucleotide AGEs include imidazopyrazinone derivatives “dG-G(3-(2-deoxyribose)-6,7-dihydro-6,7-dihydroxyimidazo[2,3-b]purin-9(8) one,” “gdC (5-glycolyldeoxycytidine), and CMdG (N2-carboxymethyldeoxyguanosine)” produced from glyoxal, while “dG-MG (6,7-d CE dG [N2-(1-carboxylethyl) deoxyguanosine]” is a derivative of MG, whereas “dG-3DG [N2-(1-oxo-2,4,5,6-tetrahydroxyhexyl)deoxyguanosine]” derived from 3-deoxyglucosone and other compounds. Glyoxal and MG can cause DNA unwinding, multibase deletions, DNA strand breakage, and base-pair substitutions, with transversions occurring more commonly at G: C sites. As a result, glycation-induced mutations in DNA may play a role in the development of colon cancer and also other malignancies including ovarian and breast cancers [59], [60], [61], [62].

Czech *et al.* inspected the genotoxic activities of new chemicals spawned in non-aqueous conditions known as MAGEs. Human melanoma as well as all other investigated cells, such as “colorectal cancer cells,” “lung cancer cells,” and bronchial epithelial cells, are found to be susceptible to the genotoxic effects of high-molecular-weight MAGEs. However, in this study, CRC cells revealed the most intensive genotoxic effect [63].

Redox imbalance and increased “oxidative damage” to “proteins, lipids, and DNA” are conjoined to CRC [64], [65]. The combination of AGEs and RAGE creates oxidative stress in the cell, which causes DNA damage on the one hand and activates signal molecules like NF- κ B on the other. In addition to its effect on the inflammatory state, “activation of NF- κ B results” in its translocation to the nucleus activates several genes, including Ang II, the gene for angiotensinogen. Ang II’s precursor, is one of these genes. NADPH oxidase is activated when Ang II is produced from the cell and interacts with its receptor AT1. NADPH oxidase then paves the way for the generation of reactive oxygen species, which enhance DNA damage even more [66]. The study of oxidative stress-induced DNA damage in Type 2 diabetic individuals was conducted in this context. The effectiveness of DNA repair plus the level of “DNA damage” induced by oxidative stress, mainly by H₂O₂, have been assessed. Although oxidative DNA damage materialized to be related to an increased risk of cancer in type 2 diabetes, poor DNA repair appears to play a crucial role in carcinogenesis [67]. These findings

collectively could explain why diabetic patients have a higher risk of CRC development and poor prognosis.

It is noteworthy that because tumors have high levels of glucose metabolic rates, some molecules are formed as a byproduct of glycolysis, such as MG, a highly reactive carbonyl species involved in AGE production [68]. The buildup of MG adducts is a common characteristic of high-stage CRC tumors. MG production and detoxifying levels are a pivotal biochemical link between increased glycolytic activity and the advancement of CRC [69]. The various pathways by which AGEs can cause CRC development, progression or both, as explored in this article, are summarized in Figure 1.

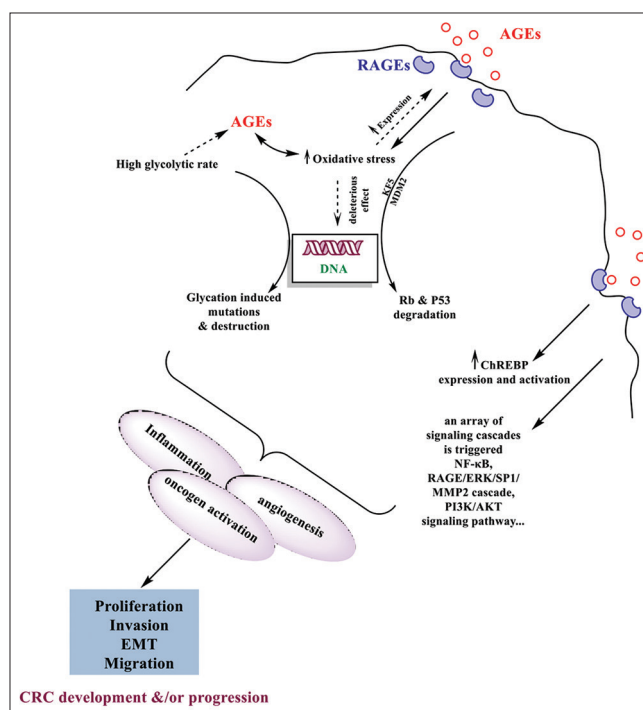


Figure 1: Illustration of the different pathways involves by advanced glycation end products in the colorectal cancer progression, induction, or both

Exogenous MG generated low-grade carbonyl stress can possess inflammatory and oxidant potential in the circulation and colon, all of which can worsen chemically produced colonic pre-neoplastic lesions. Carbonyl stress generated by MG can also stimulate tumor growth and increase the aggressiveness of tumor cells. Finally, carbonyl stress caused by MG generated either endogenously or from food may hasten the progression of colon cancer [70]. Contrarily, in a cohort study conducted by Aglago *et al.*, an inverse association between dAGEs and CRC risk has been found. Using a European Prospective Investigation into Cancer and Nutrition cohort study, they explored the risk of CRC connected with dAGE intake. In 450,111 people, dietary intakes of three main dAGEs were estimated: “N-(5-hydro-5-methyl-4-imidazolone-2-yl)-ornithine (MG-H1),” N-carboxymethyllysine (CEL), and N-carboxymethyllysine (CML), suggesting that more studies are needed to confirm these findings and

better distinguish the involvement of dAGEs in CRC development from that of endogenously generated AGEs and their precursors [71]. The interesting results of all of these studies prompted many researchers to consider this new vista and explore the main pillars of this pathway as prospective targets for various treatment strategies to prevent CRC formation and progression [72], [73]. Curiously, endogenous glycation can be avoided by keeping a healthy blood glucose level. As a result, it can be halted either by the natural defense system, which acts through enzymatic activities. “a-ketoglutaraldehyde dehydrogenase, glyoxalase, and aldose reductase,” for example, block glycation and AGE buildup, as do the natural inhibitors or the synthetically generated ones. Furthermore, it was shown that RAGE secreted isoforms called soluble RAGE (sRAGE) are released from cells and are capable of binding RAGE ligands and lowering the detrimental effects of RAGE signaling. AGE generation, on the other hand, is complicated and can occur through several steps and a variety of processes. Thus, it's challenging to be managed [14], [15], [74], [75].

Shortly, AGE inhibitors are medications that are either designed to prevent RAGE signaling or have the ability to intervene in the Maillard reaction and can exert their action at various stages of AGE generation or AGE-mediated injury. Natural compounds are more likely to be used as potent AGE inhibitors due to the adverse effects of synthetic ones which have been observed in clinical trials [23], [72], [73], [76].

This knowledge can be applied clinically by paying closer attention to blood glucose levels within normal ranges, especially in diabetic patients, to keep endogenous AGE formation to a minimum, as well as avoiding dietary sources of AGEs, which can play a role in the development and worsening of CRC, especially in high-risk individuals [15], [71]. On the other hand, ongoing attempts to employ AGES and sRAGE as promising biomarkers for the individual's risk of developing cancer linked with early recognition, assessment of the severity of illnesses, and the response to therapeutic intervention have the potential to be clinically beneficial [29], [14], [77]. In this regard, Zińczuk *et al.* conducted an AGE assessment in CRC patients' plasma. As a result, they found a statistically significant increase in AGE fluorescence in CRC patients' plasma compared to AGE fluorescence in the control group. This study emphasized the potential of using these compounds as non-invasive biomarkers for CRC diagnosis and monitoring [78].

Conclusion

The findings of various experimental studies reviewed in this study suggest that AGEs play a crucial

role in aging, cancer, and chronic disease morbidity. Endogenous AGEs appear to be connected with the development and progression of CRC through distinct pathways, according to several studies that have been covered, particularly those that focus on diabetic patients. dAGEs are also likely to play a role.

Even though several promising pharmacologic anti-AGE drugs have been developed, their efficacy and safety are still being studied. The field of AGE research is still in its early stages, and it may be some time before the FDA approves a drug that targets AGE development or modification. Commitment to exercise and reduce Western style meals that contain large amounts of proteins and fats, and thus a large proportion of Maillard products, demonstrated a decrease of circulating AGEs along with the lowering of oxidative stress and inflammatory indicators. More study is needed to back up these findings and to use them in the combat against CRC formation and progression.

References

1. Bai Y, Li D, Zhou T, Qin N, Li Z, Yu Z, *et al.* Coumarins from the roots of *Angelica dahurica* with antioxidant and antiproliferative activities. *J Funct Foods*. 2016;20:453-62. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jff.2015.11.018>
2. Khalil RR, Mustafa YF. Phytochemical, antioxidant and antitumor studies of coumarins extracted from Granny Smith apple seeds by different methods. *Syst Rev Pharm*. 2020;11(2):57-63.
3. Albarhawi A, Albarhawi A, Sahib M. Efficacy of urine cytology in the detection of bladder urothelial carcinoma: A retrospective study in medical city-Baghdad. *Ann Coll Med Mosul*. 2021;43(1):10-5. <https://doi.org/10.33899/mmed.2021.129565.1078>
4. Sung H, Ferlay J, Siegel RL, Laversanne M, Soerjomataram I, Jemal A, *et al.* Global cancer statistics 2020: Globocan estimates of incidence and mortality worldwide for 36 cancers in 185 countries. *CA Cancer J Clin*. 2021;71(3):209-49. <https://doi.org/10.3322/caac.21660>
PMid:33538338
5. Xie YH, Chen YX, Fang JY. Comprehensive review of targeted therapy for colorectal cancer. *Signal Transduct Target Ther*. 2020;5(1):22. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41392-020-0116-z>
PMid:32296018
6. Mármol I, Sánchez-de-Diego C, Dieste AP, Cerrada E, Yoldi MJ. Colorectal carcinoma: A general overview and future perspectives in colorectal cancer. *Int J Mol Sci*. 2017;18(1):197. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijms18010197>
PMid:28106826
7. Arvelo F, Sojo F, Cotte C. Biology of colorectal cancer. *Ecancermedicalscience*. 2015;9:520. <https://doi.org/10.3332/ecancer.2015.520>
PMid:25932044
8. Azizian-Farsani F, Abedpoor N, Sheikhha MH, Gure AO, Nasr-Esfahani MH, Ghaedi K. Receptor for advanced glycation end products acts as a fuel to colorectal cancer development. *Front Oncol*. 2020;10:552283. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fonc.2020.552283>
PMid:33117687
9. Kong SY, Takeuchi M, Hyogo H, McKeown-Eyssen G, Yamagishi SI, Chayama K, *et al.* The association between glycerolaldehyde-derived

- advanced glycation end-products and colorectal cancer risk. *Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev.* 2015;24(12):1855-63. [https://doi.org/10.1016/s0959-8049\(16\)30451-8](https://doi.org/10.1016/s0959-8049(16)30451-8)
PMid:26404963
10. Johnson CM, Wei C, Ensor JE, Smolenski DJ, Amos CI, Levin B, *et al.* Meta-analyses of colorectal cancer risk factors. *Cancer Causes Control.* 2013;24(6):1207-22. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10552-013-0201-5>
PMid:23563998
 11. Rawla P, Sunkara T, Barsouk A. Epidemiology of colorectal cancer: Incidence, mortality, survival, and risk factors. *Prz Gastroenterol.* 2019;14(2):89-103. <https://doi.org/10.5114/pg.2018.81072>
PMid:31616522
 12. Huxley RR, Ansary-Moghaddam A, Clifton P, Czernichow S, Parr CL, Woodward M. The impact of dietary and lifestyle risk factors on risk of colorectal cancer: A quantitative overview of the epidemiological evidence. *Int J Cancer.* 2009;125(1):171-80. <https://doi.org/10.1002/ijc.24343>
PMid:19350627
 13. Museum N. Biomarkers in Colorectal Cancer. *Anticancer Res.* 2016;36(3):1093-338.
 14. Schröter D, Höhn A. Role of advanced glycation end products in carcinogenesis and their therapeutic implications. *Curr Pharm Des.* 2019;24(44):5245-51. <https://doi.org/10.2174/1381612825666190130145549>
PMid:30706806
 15. Dariya B, Nagaraju GP. Advanced glycation end products in diabetes, cancer and phytochemical therapy. *Drug Discov Today.* 2020;25(9):1614-23. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.drudis.2020.07.003>
PMid:32652310
 16. Wang M, Yang Y, Liao Z. Diabetes and cancer: Epidemiological and biological links. *World J Diabetes.* 2020;11(6):227-38. <https://doi.org/10.4239/wjdv11.i6.227>
PMid:32547697
 17. Lin JA, Wu CH, Lu CC, Hsia SM, Yen GC. Glycative stress from advanced glycation end products (AGEs) and dicarbonyls: An emerging biological factor in cancer onset and progression. *Mol Nutr Food Res.* 2016;60(8):1850-64. <https://doi.org/10.1002/mnfr.201500759>
PMid:26774083
 18. Uribarri J, Del Castillo MD, De la Maza MP, Filip R, Gugliucci A, Luevano-Contreras C, *et al.* Dietary advanced glycation end products and their role in health and disease. *Adv Nutr.* 2015;6(4):461-73. <https://doi.org/10.3945/an.115.008433>
PMid:26178030
 19. Zhou X, Lin N, Zhang M, Wang X, An Y, Su Q, *et al.* Circulating soluble receptor for advanced glycation end products and other factors in type 2 diabetes patients with colorectal cancer. *BMC Endocr Disord.* 2020;20(1):170. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12902-020-00647-9>
PMid:33187505
 20. Gugliucci A. Formation of fructose-mediated advanced glycation end products and their roles in metabolic and inflammatory diseases. *Adv Nutr.* 2017;8(1):54-62. <https://doi.org/10.3945/an.116.013912>
PMid:28096127
 21. Vlassara H, Uribarri J. Advanced glycation end products (AGE) and diabetes: Cause, effect, or both? *Curr Diab Rep.* 2014;14(1):453. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11892-013-0453-1>
PMid:24292971
 22. De Vos LC, Lefrandt JD, Dullaart RP, Zeebregts CJ, Smit AJ. Advanced glycation end products: An emerging biomarker for adverse outcome in patients with peripheral artery disease. *Atherosclerosis.* 2016;254:291-9. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.atherosclerosis.2016.10.012>
 23. Peng X, Ma J, Chen F, Wang M. Naturally occurring inhibitors against the formation of advanced glycation end-products. *Food Funct.* 2011;2(6):289-301. <https://doi.org/10.1039/c1fo10034c>
PMid:21779567
 24. Klietz ML, Kaiser HW, Machens HG, Aitzetmüller MM. Advanced glycation end products: Building on the concept of the "Common soil" in metabolic disease. *Endocrinology.* 2020;161(1):bqz006.
 25. Vistoli G, De Maddis D, Cipak A, Zarkovic N, Carini M, Aldini G. Advanced glycoxidation and lipoxidation end products (AGEs and ALEs): An overview of their mechanisms of formation. *Free Radic Res.* 2013;47(1):3-27. <https://doi.org/10.3109/10715762.2013.815348>
PMid:23767955
 26. Shen CY, Lu CH, Wu CH, Li KJ, Kuo YM, Hsieh SC, *et al.* The development of maillard reaction, and advanced glycation end product (Age)-receptor for age (rage) signaling inhibitors as novel therapeutic strategies for patients with age-related diseases. *Molecules.* 2020;25(23):5591. <https://doi.org/10.3390/molecules25235591>
PMid:33261212
 27. Aragno M, Mastrocola R. Dietary sugars and endogenous formation of advanced glycation endproducts: Emerging mechanisms of disease. *Nutrients.* 2017;9(4):385. <https://doi.org/10.3390/nu9040385>
PMid:28420091
 28. Gill V, Kumar V, Singh K, Kumar A, Kim JJ. Advanced glycation end products (AGEs) may be a striking link between modern diet and health. *Biomolecules.* 2019;9(12):888. <https://doi.org/10.3390/biom9120888>
PMid:31861217
 29. Băbțan AM, Ilea A, Boșca BA, Crișan M, Petrescu NB, Collino M, *et al.* Advanced glycation end products as biomarkers in systemic diseases: Premises and perspectives of salivary advanced glycation end products. *Biomark Med.* 2019;13(6):479-95. <https://doi.org/10.2217/bmm-2018-0448>
PMid:30968701
 30. Luevano-Contreras C, Chapman-Novakofski K. Dietary advanced glycation end products and aging. *Nutrients.* 2010;2(12):1247-65. <https://doi.org/10.3390/nu2121247>
PMid:22254007
 31. Mendoza-Herrera K, Aradillas-García C, Mejía-Díaz M, Alegría-Torres J, Garay-Sevilla M, Luevano-Contreras C. Association of dietary advanced glycation end products with metabolic syndrome in young mexican adults. *Medicines (Basel).* 2018;5(4):128. <https://doi.org/10.3390/medicines5040128>
PMid:30513741
 32. Alnori MK, Dawood MN, Ajeel MA. The role of symmetrical and asymmetric dimethyl-L-arginine as biomarkers in dialysis-dependent AKI patients. *Mil Med Sci Lett.* 2021;90(4):165-71. <https://doi.org/10.31482/mmsl.2021.034>
 33. Mustafa Y, Mohammed E, Khalil R. Synthesis, characterization, and anticoagulant activity of new functionalized biscoumarins. *Egypt J Chem.* 2021;64(8):3641.
 34. Dawood MN, Mahmood AJ. Liver function tests in toxoplasmosis. *Ann Coll Med Mosul.* 2012;38(2):68-72. <https://doi.org/10.33899/mmed.2012.64600>
 35. Bettiga A, Fiorio F, Di Marco F, Trevisani F, Romani A, Porrini E, *et al.* The modern western diet rich in advanced glycation end-products (AGEs): An overview of its impact on obesity and early progression of renal pathology. *Nutrients.* 2019;11(8):1748. <https://doi.org/10.3390/nu11081748>
PMid:31366015
 36. Chen H, Wu L, Li Y, Meng J, Lin N, Yang D, *et al.* Advanced glycation end products increase carbohydrate responsive element binding protein expression and promote cancer cell

- proliferation. *Mol Cell Endocrinol.* 2014;395(1-2):69-78. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.mce.2014.07.021>
PMid:25111846
37. Hudson BI, Dong C, Gardener H, Elkind MS, Wright CB, Goldberg R, *et al.* Serum levels of soluble receptor for advanced glycation end-products and metabolic syndrome: The Northern Manhattan study. *Metabolism.* 2014;63(9):1125-30. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.metabol.2014.05.011>
PMid:25012910
 38. Nedić O, Rattan SI, Grune T, Trougakos IP. Molecular effects of advanced glycation end products on cell signalling pathways, ageing and pathophysiology. *Free Radic Res.* 2013;47(1):28-38. <https://doi.org/10.3109/10715762.2013.806798>
PMid:23692178
 39. Soldatos G, Cooper ME, Jandeleit-Dahm KA. Advanced-glycation end products in insulin-resistant states. *Curr Hypertens Rep.* 2005;7(2):96-102. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11906-005-0081-5>
PMid:15748532
 40. Sharaf H, Matou-Nasri S, Wang Q, Rabhan Z, Al-Eidi H, Al Abdulrahman A, *et al.* Advanced glycation endproducts increase proliferation, migration and invasion of the breast cancer cell line MDA-MB-231. *Biochim Biophys Acta.* 2015;1852(3):429-41. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.bbadis.2014.12.009>
PMid:25514746
 41. Rojas A, Morales MA, Araya P, González I. RAGE-the Receptor of Advanced Glycation End Products. New Jersey: ELS; 2017. p. 1-7. <https://doi.org/10.1002/9780470015902.a0027298>
 42. Malik P, Chaudhry N, Mittal R, Mukherjee TK. Role of receptor for advanced glycation end products in the complication and progression of various types of cancers. *Biochim Biophys Acta.* 2015;1850(9):1898-904.
PMid:26028296
 43. Prasad K. Low levels of serum soluble receptors for advanced glycation end products, biomarkers for disease state: Myth or reality. *Int J Angiol.* 2014;23(1):11-6. <https://doi.org/10.1055/s-0033-1363423>
PMid:24627612
 44. Bierhaus A, Humpert PM, Morcos M, Wendt T, Chavakis T, Arnold B, *et al.* Understanding RAGE, the receptor for advanced glycation end products. *J Mol Med (Berl).* 2005;83(11):876-86. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00109-005-0688-7>
PMid:16133426
 45. Jiao L, Chen L, Alsarraj A, Ramsey D, Duan Z, El-Serag HB. Plasma soluble receptor for advanced glycation end-products and risk of colorectal adenoma. *Int J Mol Epidemiol Genet.* 2012;3(4):294-304. <https://doi.org/10.1158/1538-7445.am2011-4638>
PMid:23205181
 46. Perrone A, Giovino A, Benny J, Martinelli F. Advanced glycation end products (ages): Biochemistry, signaling, analytical methods, and epigenetic effects. *Oxid Med Cell Longev.* 2020;2020:3818196. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2020/3818196>
PMid:32256950
 47. Guimarães EL, Empsen C, Geerts A, Van Grunsven LA. Advanced glycation end products induce production of reactive oxygen species via the activation of NADPH oxidase in murine hepatic stellate cells. *J Hepatol.* 2010;52(3):389-97. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jhep.2009.12.007>
PMid:20133001
 48. Mustafa Y, Khalil R, Mohammed E. Synthesis and antitumor potential of new 7-halocoumarin-4-acetic acid derivatives. *Egypt J Chem.* 2021;64(7):3711-6.
 49. Sasahira T, Akama Y, Fujii K, Kuniyasu H. Expression of receptor for advanced glycation end products and HMGB1/amphoterin in colorectal adenomas. *Virchows Arch.* 2005;446(4):411-5. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00428-005-1210-x>
PMid:15789216
 50. Bedoui SA, Barbirou M, Stayoussef M, Dallel M, Mokrani A, Makni L, *et al.* Identification of novel advanced glycation end products receptor gene variants associated with colorectal cancer in Tunisians: A case-control study. *Gene.* 2020;754:144893. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.gene.2020.144893>
PMid:32544495
 51. Sakellariou S, Fragkou P, Levidou G, Gargalionis AN, Piperi C, Dalagiorgou G, *et al.* Clinical significance of AGE-RAGE axis in colorectal cancer: Associations with glyoxalase-I, adiponectin receptor expression and prognosis. *BMC Cancer.* 2016;16(1):1-14. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1186/s12885-016-2213-5>
 52. Kuniyasu H, Chihara Y, Kondo H. Differential effects between amphoterin and advanced glycation end products on colon cancer cells. *Int J Cancer.* 2003;104(6):722-7. <https://doi.org/10.1002/ijc.11016>
PMid:12640679
 53. Liang H. Advanced glycation end products induce proliferation, invasion and epithelial-mesenchymal transition of human SW480 colon cancer cells through the PI3K/AKT signaling pathway. *Oncol Lett.* 2020;19(4):3215-22. <https://doi.org/10.3892/ol.2020.11413>
PMid:32218866
 54. Liang H, Zhong Y, Zhou S, Peng L. Knockdown of RAGE expression inhibits colorectal cancer cell invasion and suppresses angiogenesis *in vitro* and *in vivo*. *Cancer Lett.* 2011;313(1):91-8. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.canlet.2011.08.028>
PMid:21945853
 55. Yuhara H, Steinmaus C, Cohen SE, Corley DA, Tei Y, Boffler PA. Is diabetes mellitus an independent risk factor for colon cancer and rectal cancer. *Am J Gastroenterol.* 2011;106(11):1911-21. <https://doi.org/10.1038/ajg.2011.301>
PMid:21912438
 56. Larsson SC, Orsini N, Wolk A. Diabetes mellitus and risk of colorectal cancer: A meta-analysis. *J Natl Cancer Inst.* 2005;97(22):1679-87. <https://doi.org/10.1093/jnci/dji375>
PMid:16288121
 57. Deng R, Wu H, Ran H, Kong X, Hu L, Wang X, *et al.* Glucose-derived AGEs promote migration and invasion of colorectal cancer by up-regulating Sp1 expression. *Biochim Biophys Acta Gen Subj.* 2017;1861(5):1065-74. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bbagen.2017.02.024>
PMid:28237576
 58. Wang P, Lu YC, Li YF, Wang L, Lee SC. Advanced glycation end products increase MDM2 expression via transcription factor KLF₆. *J Diabetes Res.* 2018;2018:3274084. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2018/3274084>
PMid:30271790
 59. Thornalley PJ. Protecting the genome: Defence against nucleotide glycation and emerging role of glyoxalase I overexpression in multidrug resistance in cancer chemotherapy. *Biochem Soc Trans.* 2003;31(6):1372-7. <https://doi.org/10.1042/bst0311372>
PMid:14641066
 60. Ashraf JM, Shahab U, Tabrez S, Lee EJ, Choi I, Aslam Yusuf M, *et al.* DNA glycation from 3-deoxyglucosone leads to the formation of AGEs: Potential role in cancer auto-antibodies. *Cell Biochem Biophys.* 2016;74(1):67-77. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12013-015-0713-6>
PMid:26972303
 61. Tamae D, Lim P, Wuenschell GE, Termini J. Mutagenesis and repair induced by the DNA advanced glycation end product N 2-1-(carboxyethyl)-2'-deoxyguanosine in human cells. *Biochemistry.* 2011;50(12):2321-9. <https://doi.org/10.1021/bi101933p>

- PMid:21355561
62. Ahmad R, Kumar Sah A, Ahsan H. Biochemistry and pathophysiology of glycation of DNA: Implications in diabetes. *Arch Clin Biomed Res.* 2017;1(1):32-47. <https://doi.org/10.26502/acbr.5017004>
63. Maniakowski Z, Staniszewska M, Czech M, Konopacka M, Rogoli J. The genotoxic and pro-apoptotic activities of advanced glycation end-products (MAGE) Measured with micronuclei assay are inhibited by their low molecular mass counterparts. *Genes (Basel).* 2021;12(5):729. <https://doi.org/10.3390/genes12050729> PMid:34068126
64. Maciejczyk M, Zareba K, Koper-Lenkiewicz O, Matowicka-Karna J, Bogusław K. Pro-oxidant enzymes, redox balance and oxidative damage to proteins, lipids and DNA in colorectal cancer tissue. Is oxidative stress dependent on tumour budding and inflammatory infiltration? *Cancers (Basel).* 2020;12(6):1636. PMid:32575703
65. Stopper H, Schinzel R, Sebekova K, Heidland A. Genotoxicity of advanced glycation end products in mammalian cells. *Cancer Lett.* 2003;190(2):151-6. [https://doi.org/10.1016/s0304-3835\(02\)00626-2](https://doi.org/10.1016/s0304-3835(02)00626-2) PMid:12565169
66. Schupp N, Schinzel R, Heidland A, Stopper H. Genotoxicity of advanced glycation end products: Involvement of oxidative stress and of angiotensin II Type 1 receptors. *Ann N Y Acad Sci.* 2005;1043:685-95. <https://doi.org/10.1196/annals.1333.079> PMid:16037294
67. Szymczak I, Śliwińska A, Drzewoski J. DNA damage and efficacy of DNA repair in patients with type 2 diabetes and coexisting colorectal cancer. *Pol Arch Med Wewn.* 2014;124(7-8):352-8. <https://doi.org/10.20452/pamw.2337> PMid:24824443
68. Mir AR, Habib S, Khan F, Alam K, Ali A. Structural changes in histone H2A by methylglyoxal generate highly immunogenic amorphous aggregates with implications in auto-immune response in cancer. *Glycobiology.* 2015;26(2):129-41. <https://doi.org/10.1093/glycob/cwv082> PMid:26408820
69. Chiavarina B, Nokin MJ, Bellier J, Durieux F, Bletard N, Sherer F, *et al.* Methylglyoxal-mediated stress correlates with high metabolic activity and promotes tumor growth in colorectal cancer. *Int J Mol Sci.* 2017;18(1):1-18. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijms18010213> PMid:28117708
70. Lin JA, Wu CH, Yen GC. Methylglyoxal displays colorectal cancer-promoting properties in the murine models of azoxymethane and CT26 isografts. *Free Radic Biol Med.* 2018;115:436-46. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.freeradbiomed.2017.12.020> PMid:29269310
71. Aglago EK, Mayén AL, Knaze V, Freisling H, Fedirko V, Hughes DJ, *et al.* Dietary advanced glycation end-products and colorectal cancer risk in the European prospective investigation into cancer and nutrition (EPIC) study. *Nutrients.* 2021;13(9):3132. <https://doi.org/10.3390/nu13093132> PMid:34579010
72. Bongarzone S, Savickas V, Luzi F, Gee AD. Targeting the receptor for advanced glycation endproducts (RAGE): A medicinal chemistry Perspective. *J Med Chem.* 2017;60(17):7213-32. <https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.jmedchem.7b00058> PMid:28482155
73. Zheng J, Zhu W, He F, Li Z, Cai N, Wang HH. An aptamer-based antagonist against the receptor for advanced glycation end-products (RAGE) blocks development of colorectal cancer. *Mediators Inflamm.* 2021;2021:9958051. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2021/9958051> PMid:34035661
74. Mustafa YF, Khalil RR, Mohammed ET. Antimicrobial activity of aqueous extracts acquired from the seeds of two apples' cultivars. *Syst Rev Pharm.* 2020;11(2):382-7.
75. Khalil RR, Mohammed ET, Mustafa YF. Various promising biological effects of Cranberry extract: A review. *Clin Schizophr Relat Psychoses.* 2021;15(S6):1-9.
76. Peyroux J, Sternberg M. Advanced glycation endproducts (AGEs): Pharmacological inhibition in diabetes. *Pathol Biol.* 2006;54(7):405-19. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.patbio.2006.07.006> PMid:16978799
77. Turner DP. Advanced glycation end-products: A biological consequence of lifestyle contributing to cancer disparity. *Cancer Res.* 2015;75(10):1925-9. <https://doi.org/10.1158/0008-5472.can-15-0169> PMid:25920350
78. Zińczuk J, Maciejczyk M, Zaręba K, Romaniuk W, Markowski A, Kędra B, *et al.* Antioxidant barrier, redox status, and oxidative damage to biomolecules in patients with colorectal cancer. Can malondialdehyde and catalase be markers of colorectal cancer advancement? *Biomolecules.* 2019;9(10):637. <https://doi.org/10.3390/biom9100637> PMid:31652642