

The Epidemiology, Aetiology, Pathophysiology, Complications and Pharmacological Study of Types of Diabetes and Their Treatment in Humanbeings

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ABSTRACT

Diabetes Mellitus is an ancient medical term which early physicians used to designate a mysterious disease characterized by profuse, sweet-tasting urine. As medicine progressed the meaning of the term changed considerably. Unfortunately, the concept that diabetes mellitus is a disease-a distinct pathological entity has persisted and has caused much confusion both among the general public and within the health care professions. In fact, diabetes is a highly complex phenomenon which defies any simple explanation. It increases the risk of multiple complications including retinopathy, nephropathy, and atherosclerotic disease. Management strategies include management of the associated metabolic risk factors such as hyperglycemia, dyslipidemia, and hypertension. Most experiments are carried out on rodents, even though other species with human-like biological characteristics are also used. Animal models develop diabetes either spontaneously or by using chemical, surgical, genetic or other techniques, and depict many clinical features or related phenotypes of the disease.

Keywords: Diabetes Mellitus, complications, nephropathy, retinopathy, Animal models

INTRODUCTION

It is a metabolic disorder characterized by hyperglycaemia, glycosuria, negative nitrogen balance and sometimes ketonemia. A wide-spread pathological change is thickening of capillary basement membrane, increase in vessel wall matrix and cellular proliferation resulting in vascular complications like lumen narrowing, early atherosclerosis, and sclerosis of glomerular capillaries, retinopathy, neuropathy and peripheral vascular insufficiency¹.

Diabetes Mellitus is a constitutional disease. It is also known as "Disease of Civilization" (Urbanization) seen more in cities than villages. But how ever it is now making inroads into Indian villages. Diabetes is an important human ailment afflicting many from various walks of life in different countries².

⁵. It is an outcome of sedentary lifestyle & incorrect food habits. No. of people afflicted by Diabetes Mellitus is increasing each day. 9-

12% population of world has either established Diabetes Mellitus (or) tendency of contracting it in near future. 18 Millions of Indians are suffering from Diabetes Mellitus. Though it is rampant today, it is not a new disease. It is well-

known from historic times. Well known ayurvedic physicians Maharshi Charaka (600 BC) & Sushruta (400 BC) correctly described almost all the symptoms of this disease and called it as "Madhu Meha" (a shower of honey) and explained in ayurvedic literature as 'Sushruta Samhitha'. After the discovery of insulin, people had started believing that Diabetes Mellitus will soon be banished from the earth. However this belief has turned out to be a dream & proved fallacious. With vigorous treatment, short-term complications of Diabetes Mellitus can be checked; but its long-term complications can be hardly being prevented^{6,7}.

History of diabetes mellitus:

Diabetes is one of the oldest known diseases. An Egyptian manuscript from c. 1550 BC mentions the phrase "the passing of too much urine." The great Indian physician Sushruta identified the disease and classified it as Medhu meha. The ancient Indians tested for diabetes by observing

ng whether ants were attracted to a person's urine, and called the ailment "sweet urine disease" (Madhumeha). Concerning the sweetness of urine, it is to be noted that the Chinese, Japanese and Korean words for diabetes are based on the same ideographs which mean "sugar urine disease". It was in 1776 that Matthew Dobson confirmed that the sweet taste comes from an excess of a kind of sugar in the urine and blood⁸⁻¹¹.

The first complete clinical description of diabetes was given by the Ancient Greek physician Aretaeus of Cappadocia (fl. 1st century CE), who noted the excessive amount of urine which passed through the kidneys and gave the disease the name "diabetes". Diabetes mellitus appears to have been a death sentence in the ancient era. Hippocrates makes no mention of it, which may indicate that he felt the disease was incurable. In medieval Persia, Avicenna (980–

1037) provided a detailed account on diabetes mellitus in *The Canon of Medicine*, "describing the abnormal appetite and the collapse of sexual functions," and he documented the sweet taste of diabetic urine¹²⁻¹⁵.

Avicenna recognized primary and secondary diabetes. He also described diabetic gangrene, and treated diabetes using a mixture of lupine, trigonella (fenugreek), and zedoary seed, which produces a considerable reduction in the excretion of sugar, a treatment which is still prescribed in modern times. Avicenna also "described diabetes insipidus very precisely for the first time", though it was later Johann Peter Frank (1745–1821) who first differentiated between diabetes mellitus and diabetes insipidus. Although diabetes has been recognized since antiquity, and treatments of various efficacies have been known in various regions since the Middle Ages, and in legend for much longer, pathogenesis of diabetes has only been understood experimentally since about 1900¹⁶.

In 1910, Sir Edward Albert Sharpey-Schafer suggested that people with diabetes were deficient in a single chemical that was normally produced by the pancreas; he proposed calling this substance insulin, from the Latin *insula*, meaning island, in reference to the insulin-

producing islets of Langerhans in the pancreas¹⁷. Insulin production and therapy rapidly spread around the world, largely as a result of this decision. Banting is honored by World Diabetes Day which is held on his birthday, November 14. The distinction between what is now known as type 1 diabetes and type 2 diabetes was first clearly made by Sir Harold Percival (Harry) Hims worth, and published in January 1936. Despite the availability of treatment, diabetes has remained a major cause of death. For instance, statistics reveal that the cause-specific mortality rate during 1927 amounted to about 47.7 per 100,000 populations in Malta¹⁸.

Other landmark discoveries include¹⁹⁻²¹:

- ❖ Identification of the first of the sulfonylureas in 1942
- ❖ Reintroduction of the use of biguanides for Type 2 diabetes in the late 1950s. The initial phenformin was withdrawn worldwide (in the U.S. in 1977) due to its potential for sometimes fatal lactic acidosis and metformin was first marketed in France in 1979, but not until 1994 in the US.
- ❖ The determination of the amino acid sequence of insulin (by Sir Frederick Sanger, for which he received a Nobel Prize)
- ❖ The radioimmunoassay for insulin, as discovered by Rosalyn Yalow and Solomon Berson (gaining Yalow the 1977 Nobel Prize in Physiology or Medicine)
- ❖ The three-dimensional structure of insulin (PDB 2INS)
- ❖ Dr Gerald Reaven's identification of the constellation of symptoms now called metabolic syndrome in 1988
- ❖ Demonstration that intensive glycemic control in type 1 diabetes reduces chronic side effects more as glucose levels approach 'normal' in a large longitudinal study, and also in type 2 diabetics in other large studies
- ❖ Identification of the first thiazolidinedione as an effective insulin sensitizer during the 1990s

In 1980, U.S. biotech company Genentech developed biosynthetic human insulin. The insulin was isolated from genetically altered bacteria (the bacteria contain the human gene for synthesizing synthetic human insulin), which produce large quantities of insulin. The purified insulin is distributed to pharmacies for use by diabetes patients. Initially, this development was not regarded by the medical profession as a clinically meaningful development. In 1996, the advent of insulin analogues which had vastly improved absorption, distribution, metabolism, and excretion (ADME) characteristics which were clinically meaningful based on this early biotechnology development^{22,23}.

Epidemiology of diabetes mellitus: The prevalence of diabetes mellitus is increasing with the ageing of the population and lifestyle changes associated with rapid urbanization and westernization. The disease is found in all parts of the world and is rapidly increasing in its coverage²⁴.

Prevalence and incidence of diabetes mellitus: Globally, the prevalence of diabetes without type distinction was estimated to be 4% in 1995. According to WHO, it is estimated that 3% of the world's population have diabetes and the prevalence is expected to double by the year 2025 to 6.3%. There will be a 42% increase from 51 to 72 million in the developed countries and 170% increase from

84 to 228 million, in the developing countries^{25,26}. Thus, by the year 2025, over 75% of all people with diabetes will be in the developing countries, as compared to 62% in 1995.

The reasons behind this projected increase in prevalence are due to urbanization, westernization and their associated lifestyle changes, increase in life expectancy at birth, physical inactivity and obesity and possibly a genetic predisposition. Age, ethnic, regional and racial differences have also been found to play a role for the diabetic incidence in heterogeneous populations within the same area²⁷.

Aetiology of diabetes mellitus:

- Heredity: It is strongly believed that due to some genes which pass from one generation to another, a person can inherit diabetes. It depends upon closeness of blood relationship as mother is diabetic, the risk is 2 to 3%, father is diabetic, the risk is more than the previous case and if both the parents are diabetic, the child has much greater risk for diabetes. There is a genetic element in individual susceptibility to some of the set triggers which has been traced to particular HLA genotypes (i.e., the genetic "self" identifiers rely upon by the immune system)²⁸. However, even in those who have inherited the susceptibility, type 1 diabetes mellitus seem to require an environmental trigger.
- Obesity: Being overweight means increased insulin resistance that is if body fat is more than 30%, BMI 25+, waist girth 35 inches in women or 40 inches in males.
- Incorrect Dietary habits (Malnutrition Related Diabetes): Improper nutrition, low protein and fiber intake, high intake of refined products are the expected reasons for developing diabetes
- Inadequate Physical work: People with sedentary lifestyle are more prone to diabetes, when compared to those who exercise thrice a week, are at low risk of falling prey to diabetes.
- Infections: Some of the streptococci are supposed to be responsible factors for infection in pancreas. Some of the virus known as coxsackie B4 is responsible for type 1 diabetes.
- Sex: Diabetes is commonly seen in elderly special males but, strongly in women and those females with multiple pregnancies or suffering from (PCOS) Polycystic Ovarian Syndrome.
- Side-effects of certain drugs: Clozapine (Clozaril), olanzapine (Zyprexa), risperidone (Risperdal), quetiapine (Seroquel) and ziprasidone (Geodon) are known to induce this lethal disease
- Other Illness:

- ✓ Hypertension: It had been reported in many studies that there is direct relation between high systolic pressure and diabetes.
- ✓ Serum lipids and lipoproteins: High triglyceride and cholesterol level in the blood is related to high blood sugars, in some cases it has been studied that risk is involved even with low HDL levels in circulating blood.
- ✓ Psychological factors: Either physical injury or emotional disturbance is frequently blamed as the initial cause of the disease. Any disturbance in Corticosteroid or ACTH therapy may lead to clinical signs of the disease.

Other causes of diabetes^{29,30}:

- ❖ Abnormality in glucocorticoid receptor of beta-cells so that they respond at high glucose concentration.
- ❖ Reduced sensitivity of peripheral tissues to insulin: reduction in number of insulin receptors, 'downregulation' of insulin receptors. Many hypertensive severe hyperinsulinemic but normoglycaemic; exhibit insulin resistance. Hyperinsulinemic per se has been implicated in causing angiopathy.
- ❖ Excess of hyperglycemic hormones (glucagon's set c.) / obesity: cause relative insulin deficiency—the beta-cells lag behind.

Symptoms of diabetes mellitus:

Mostly 30% Diabetes Mellitus cases are diagnosed symptomatically by following symptoms. In earlier stages of disease, while in rest of cases are asymptomatic and diagnosed accidentally. Diabetes Mellitus usually affects various organs (or) systems of body gives rise to such symptoms as moulds sometimes mild even a physician³¹.

- ❖ Polyuria (Excessive & frequent urination): Sugar escapes in urine drags a large quantity of water along with it.
- ❖ Polydipsia (Dryness of mouth & excessive thirst): To restore fluid loss by excessive urination.
- ❖ Polyphagia (Excessive hunger): In Diabetes Mellitus glucose can't enter the various body cells. Thus cells starve in spite of being bathed by glucose stream. To overcome this cellular starvation, the body gives rise to abnormal & excessive hunger.
- ❖ Loss of weight: Because of starvation of glucose. Body disintegrates stored fats for cellular nourishment.
- ❖ Weakness, Fatigue & Body aches: Body also disintegrates stored muscle protein to nourish starving cells.
- ❖ Mental fatigue & lack of concentration: As brain cells have to depend chiefly on glucose for their nourishment. However they cannot utilize the available

ucose, due to which person experiences undue mental fatigue, cannot concentrate and becomes forgetful.

- ❖ Wound-infection and delayed healing: Glucose-rich blood is a good breeding medium for forming microorganisms and also effects small blood vessels, (microangiopathy) nerve (neuropathy) leading to decrease in blood supply of skin and derangement of skin striation. Therefore wound on a diabetic patient's body gets easily infected and fails to heal.
- ❖ Easy susceptibility to infections of skin, gum & respiratory tract: glucose rich blood is a good breeding medium for microorganisms and hormonal imbalance causes decrease in immunity power and easily contracts infections of skin, gum and respiratory tract infections. It may also cause boils, carbuncles, cough, cold and pyorrhea.
- ❖ Intense itching all over the body: irritation of nerve endings of skin and genital organs due to excessive glucose in the blood.
- ❖ Frequent changes in the sharpness of vision and spectacle numbers: changes in the glucose concentration of internal aqueous fluid of eyes lead to variation in the focusing power. Hence patient has to change spectacle lens number. The crystalline lens of eye depends for their nourishment and transparency on the glucose dissolved in the aqueous. In the diabetes mellitus the nourishment of crystalline lens jeopardized, leads to an untimely cataract.
- ❖ Aching or numbness of limbs and an abnormal increase or decrease in skin-sensations: diabetes untowardly affects those nervous system to give rise to these symptoms.
- ❖ Sexual debility or impotence: General weakness, disintegration of muscle protein, mental depression and undesirable changes in blood circulatory and nervous system give rise to these symptoms.
- ❖ Diabetic unconsciousness (hyperglycemic coma): fat disintegration leads to production of ketone bodies in blood and increase in their levels causes blood acid and gradually leads to unconsciousness. However maturity on onset diabetes creeps into body silently that the victim usually remains unaware and symptomless³².

Types of diabetes mellitus

WHO classification of diabetes introduced in 1980 and revised in 1985 was based on clinical characteristics. The two most common types of diabetes were insulin-dependent diabetes mellitus (IDDM) or (type I) and non-insulin-dependent diabetes mellitus (NIDDM) or (type II). WHO

classification also recognized malnutrition-related diabetes mellitus and gestational diabetes. Malnutrition-related diabetes was omitted from the new classification because its etiology is uncertain, and it is unclear whether it is a separate type of diabetes³³.

Type I diabetes mellitus: It is a result of cellular immune mediated destruction of the insulin secreting β -cells of the pancreas, which results in an absolute deficiency of insulin for the body. Patients are more prone to ketoacidosis. It occurs in children and young, usually before 40 years of age, although disease onset can occur at any age. The patient with type I diabetes must rely on insulin medication for survival. It may account for 5-10% of all diagnosed cases of diabetes. Autoimmune, genetic and environmental factors are the major risk factors for type I diabetes.

Diabetic ketoacidosis is caused by reduced insulin levels, decreased glucose use, and increased gluconeogenesis from elevated counterregulatory hormones, including catecholamines, glucagon, and cortisol. Primarily affects patients with type I diabetes, but also may occur in patients with type 2 diabetes. Patients with diabetic ketoacidosis usually present with polyuria, polydipsia, polyphagia, and weakness³⁴.

Type II diabetes mellitus: Two key features in the pathogenesis of type II diabetes mellitus are a decreased ability of insulin to stimulate glucose uptake in peripheral tissues, insulin resistance, and the inability of the pancreatic β -cell to secrete insulin adequately, β -cell failure. The major sites of insulin resistance in type 2 diabetes are the liver, skeletal muscle and adipose tissue. Both defects, insulin resistance and β -cell failure, are caused by a combination of genetic and environmental factors. Environmental factors such as lifestyle habits (i.e., physical inactivity and poor dietary intake), obesity and toxins may act as initiating factors or progression factors for type II diabetes. The genetic factors are still poorly understood.

Type II diabetes is increasingly being diagnosed at any age nowadays and it accounts for 90-95% of all diagnosed cases of diabetes. It is associated with old age, obesity, family history of diabetes, impaired glucose metabolism, physical inactivity, and race/ethnicity³⁵.

Gestational diabetes mellitus: Gestational diabetes, blood glucose elevation during pregnancy, is a significant disorder of carbohydrate metabolism due to hormonal changes during pregnancy, which can lead to elevated blood glucose in genetically predisposed individuals. It is more common among obese women and women with a

medical history of diabetes. It usually resolves once the baby is born, however, after pregnancy, 5-10% of women with gestational diabetes are found to have type II diabetes and 20-50% of women have a chance of developing diabetes in the next 5-10 years³⁶.

Other forms of diabetes mellitus include:

Congenital diabetes:- which is due to genetic defects of insulin secretion.

Cystic fibrosis:- related diabetes, steroid diabetes induced by high doses of glucocorticoids.

Pre-diabetes is a common condition related to diabetes. In people with pre-diabetes, the blood sugar level is higher than normal but not high enough to be considered diabetic. Pre-diabetes increases your risk of developing type 2 diabetes and of heart disease or stroke. Pre-diabetes can typically be reversed without insulin or medication by losing a modest amount of weight and increasing your physical activity. This weight loss can prevent, or at least delay, the onset of type 2 diabetes.

An international expert committee of the American Diabetes Association redefined the criteria for pre-diabetes, lowering the blood sugar level cut-off point for pre-diabetes. Approximately 20% more adults are now believed to have this condition and may develop diabetes within 10 years if they do not exercise or maintain a healthy weight.

About 17 million Americans (6.2% of adults in North America) are believed to have diabetes. About one third of diabetic adults do not know they have diabetes. About 1 million new cases occur each year, and diabetes is the direct or indirect cause of at least 200,000 deaths each year³⁷.

The incidence of diabetes is increasing rapidly. This increase is due to many factors, but the most significant are the increasing incidence of obesity and the prevalence of sedentary lifestyles.

"Diabetes is one of the most costly of chronic diseases, accounting for \$174 billion in medical care each year in the United States, with the cost of care for patients with diabetes averaging 2.3 times higher than similar patients without diabetes," said Robert Gabbay, who led the investigation. He added that the model of care could help control costs.

Diagnosis of diabetes mellitus:

Diabetes mellitus is characterized by recurrent or persistent hyperglycemia, and is diagnosed by demonstrating any one of the following:

• Fasting plasma glucose level ≥ 7.0 mmol/L (126 mg/dL).

• Plasma glucose ≥ 11.1 mmol/L (200 mg/dL) two hours after a 75 g oral glucose load as in a glucose tolerance test.

• Symptoms of hyperglycemia and casual plasma glucose ≥ 11.1 mmol/L (200 mg/dL).

• Glycated hemoglobin (HbA1C) $\geq 6.5\%$.

A positive result, in the absence of unequivocal hyperglycemia, should be confirmed by a repeat of any of the above-

listed methods on a different day. It is preferable to measure a fasting glucose level because of the ease of measurement and the considerable time commitment of formal glucose tolerance testing, which takes two hours to complete and offers no prognostic advantage over the fasting test.

According to the current definition, two fasting glucose measurements above 126 mg/dL (7.0 mmol/L) is considered diagnostic for diabetes mellitus. People with fasting glucose levels from 100 to 125 mg/dL (5.6 to 6.9 mmol/L) are considered to have impaired fasting glucose.

Patients with plasma glucose at or above 140 mg/dL (7.8 mmol/L), but not over 200 mg/dL (11.1 mmol/L), two hours after a 75 g oral glucose load are considered to have impaired glucose tolerance. Of these two pre-

diabetic states, the latter in particular is a major risk factor for progression to full-

blown diabetes mellitus as well as cardiovascular disease³⁸.

Pathophysiology of diabetes mellitus:

The pancreas plays a primary role in the metabolism of glucose by secreting the hormones insulin and glucagon. The islets of Langerhans secrete insulin and glucagon directly into the blood. Insulin is a protein that is essential for proper regulation of glucose and for maintenance of proper blood glucose levels.

Glucagon is a hormone that opposes the action of insulin. It is secreted when blood glucose level falls. It increases blood glucose concentration partly by breaking down stored glycogen in the liver by a pathway known as glycogenolysis. Gluconeogenesis is the production of glucose in the liver from non-carbohydrate precursors such as glycolytic amino acids.

Though pathophysiology of diabetes remains to be fully understood, experimental evidence suggests the involvement of free radicals in the pathogenesis of diabetes and more importantly in the development of diabetic complications. Free radicals are capable of damaging cellular molecules, DNA, proteins and lipids leading to altered cellular functions. Many recent studies reveal that antioxidants capable of neutralizing free radicals are effective in preventing experimentally induced diabetes in animal

models as well as reducing the severity of diabetic complications³⁹.

Insulin is the principal hormone that regulates uptake of glucose from the blood into most cells (primarily muscle and fat cells, but not central nervous system cells). There fore deficiency of insulin or the insensitivity of its receptors plays a central role in all forms of diabetes mellitus.

Humans are capable of digesting some carbohydrates, in particular those most common in food; starch, and some disaccharides such as sucrose, are converted within a few hours to simpler forms most notably the monosaccharide glucose, the principal carbohydrate energy source used by the body. These are passed on for processing by gut flora largely in the colon. Insulin is released into the blood by beta cells (β -cells), found in the Islets of Langerhans in the pancreas, in response to rising levels of blood glucose, typically after eating. Insulin is used by about two-thirds of the body's cells to absorb glucose from the blood for use as fuel, for conversion to other needed molecules, or for storage.

Insulin is also the principal control signal for conversion of glucose to glycogen for internal storage in liver and muscle cells. Lowered glucose levels result both in the reduced release of insulin from the beta cells and in the reverse conversion of glycogen to glucose when glucose levels fall. This is mainly controlled by the hormone glucagon which acts in the opposite manner to insulin. Glucose that is forcibly produced from internal liver cell stores (as glycogen) re-enters the bloodstream; muscle cells lack the necessary export mechanism. Normally liver cells do this when the level of insulin is low (which normally correlates with low levels of blood glucose).

Higher insulin levels increase some anabolic ("building up") processes such as cell growth and duplication, protein synthesis, and fat storage. Insulin (or its lack) is the principal signal in converting many of the bidirectional processes of metabolism from a catabolic to an anabolic direction, and vice versa. In particular, a low insulin level is the trigger for entering or leaving ketosis (the fat burning metabolic phase)⁴⁰.

If the amount of insulin available is insufficient, if cells respond poorly to the effects of insulin (insulin insensitivity or resistance), or if the insulin itself is defective, then glucose will not have its usual effects so that glucose will not be absorbed properly by those body cells that require it or will be stored appropriately in the liver and muscles. The net effect is persistent high levels of blood glucose, poor protein synthesis, and other metabolic derangements, such as acidosis.

When the glucose concentration in the blood is raised beyond its renal threshold (about 10 mmol/L, although this may be altered in certain conditions, such as pregnancy),

reabsorption of glucose in the proximal renal tubule is incomplete, and part of the glucose remains in the urine (glycosuria). This increases the osmotic pressure of the urine and inhibits reabsorption of water by the kidney, resulting in increased urine production (polyuria) and increased fluid loss. Lost blood volume will be replaced osmotically from water held in body cells and other body compartments, causing dehydration and increased thirst⁴¹.

Drug therapy for diabetes mellitus:

The aim of treatment is to keep the blood sugar levels within normal limits and prevent complications of diabetes.

1. For IDDM (Insulin dependent diabetes mellitus) insulin therapy was done.

2. For NIDDM (Non-insulin dependent diabetes mellitus) oral hypoglycemic agents are used for therapy.

1. For therapy of IDDM: Insulin is a hormone derived from human, beef, pork pancreas. Dose is about 100U/ml and is given through i.v (or) s.c

2. For therapy of NIDDM: Oral Hypoglycemics

- Metformin- 500mg (once or twice after meals, increasing at 2-4 week interval to a maximum of 3gms/day)
- Sulphonylureas for non-obese regimen; gliclazide- 80mg/day orally before the meal of the day.
- The dose is adjusted according to response, at 2-4 week intervals by increments of 40-80mg, to a maximum of 320mg/day.
- When therapy of oral hypoglycemic fails then insulin therapy was done.

3. For diabetic ketoacidosis: Soluble insulin 1 units/ml i.v route is used for therapy. Intravenous fluids & electrolytes are preferable⁴².

Complications of diabetes mellitus:

For the development of diabetic complications, the abnormalities produced in lipids and proteins are the major etiologic factors. In diabetic patients, extra-cellular and long lived proteins, such as elastin, laminin, collagen are the major targets of free radicals. These proteins are modified to form glycoproteins due to hyperglycemia. The modification of these proteins present in tissues such as lens, vascular wall and basement membranes are associated with the development of complications of diabetes such as cataracts, microangiopathy, atherosclerosis and nephropathy. During diabetes, lipoproteins are oxidized by free radicals. There are also multiple abnormalities of lipoprotein metabolism in very low density lipoprotein (VLDL), low density lipoprotein (LDL), and high density lipoprotein (HDL) in diabetes. Lipid per-

oxidation is enhanced due to increased oxidative stress in diabetic condition. Apart from this, advanced glycation end products (AGEs) are formed by non-enzymatic glycosylation of proteins. AGEs tend to accumulate on long-lived molecules in tissues and generate abnormalities in cell and tissue functions. In addition, AGEs also contribute to increased vascular permeability in both micro and macrovascular structures by binding to specific macrophage receptors. This results in formation of free radicals and endothelial dysfunction. AGEs are also formed on nucleic acids and histones and may cause mutations and altered gene expression⁴³.

Acute complications of Diabetes: Diabetic coma (unconsciousness):-

Most common in juvenile Diabetics. Before discovery of insulin more than half of juvenile Diabetes died of diabetic coma.

Unconsciousness ensues when the concentration of glucose in the blood rises (hyperglycemia) decreases (hypoglycemia). Disintegration of stored fats in the body is commonly measured with the amount of glucose in blood. End products of fat disintegration are ketone bodies which make blood acidic and our body tries to get rid of these ketone bodies by producing more urine hence resulting in reduction in fluid content of blood. Acidified blood affects brain to give rise to drowsiness and lethargy and gradually diabetic coma^{24,29}.

Chronic complications of Diabetes: The chronic complications of diabetes mellitus affect many organs systems and are responsible for the majority of morbidity and mortality (McInnes AD 2012). It can be divided as vascular and nonvascular complications (Chan CN et al; 2011). Vascular complications are subdivided into microvascular retinopathy, neuropathy, nephropathy and macrovascular complications are coronary artery disease, peripheral vascular disease and cerebrovascular disease. Nonvascular complications include problems such as gastroparesis, sexual dysfunction and skin changes.

Diabetic neuropathy: Most common complications of nervous system are derangements of touch sensations and at times the touch sensation becomes abnormally acute (hyperaesthesia) patient experiences sensation in his limbs and more trouble during night. At other times touch sensation is dulled so that patient experiences numbness in his limbs.

Undesirable effects of Autonomic nervous system: Bring about decrease in efficiencies of urinary bladder leading to incomplete emptying of bladder on uncontrollable dribbling of urine when bladder can't be emptied completely, the retained (or) residual urine harbors disease causing

ing bacteria, which leads to the inflammation of the urinary bladder (cystitis)⁴⁴.

Cardiomyopathy: The association of diabetes mellitus with cardiac dysfunction caused by cardiomyopathy in the absence of significant coronary artery disease has been recognized for many years although it is well-known that diabetic patients are susceptible to the effect of large vessel atherosclerosis with specific cardiac and cerebral complications.

Globally, cardiovascular diseases (CVD) constitute a leading cause of mortality. Developing countries like India are also struggling to manage the impact of CVD along with growing burden of obesity. By the year 2020, it will account for one third of the deaths. Current projections suggest that by the year 2020, India will have the largest CVD burden in the world. The prevalence of these diseases is more in urban than in rural areas. Low vitamin C and selenium in Indians as compared to other groups, particularly in combination, could play a part in their increased risk of CHD. The continuous increase in incidence of cardiovascular disease is a manifestation of chronic poor diet and lifestyle choices, which lead to diabetes and obesity⁴⁵.

Animal models of glycosuria

Animal models of Type 1 diabetes mellitus

Type 1 diabetes mellitus in humans is characterized by a specific destruction of the pancreatic β cells, commonly associated with immune-mediated damage. Although the damage may occur silently over many years, at clinical presentation there is little surviving β cell mass and the disorder progresses to absolute insulinopenia⁴⁶⁻⁴⁹.

Streptozotocin is a nitrosurea derivative isolated from *Streptomyces achromogenes* with broad-spectrum antibiotic and anti-neoplastic activity. It is a powerful alkylating agent that has been shown to interfere with glucose transport, glucokinase function and induce multiple DNA strand breaks. A single large dose of streptozotocin can produce diabetes in rodents, probably as a result of direct toxic effects⁵⁰.

Alternatively, multiple small doses of streptozotocin are used (e.g. 40 mg/kg on five consecutive days). In susceptible rodents this induces insulinopenic diabetes in which immune destruction plays a role, as in human Type 1 diabetes.

The multiple low-dose streptozotocin models have been used extensively to study the immunological pathways that lead to insulinitis and β cell death. However, the agent will produce diabetes even in the absence of functional T and B cells and, in contrast to the spontaneous animal models

discussed below, diabetes cannot be reliably transferred to syngenic recipients by the transfer of splenocytes⁵¹.

The NOD mouse: The NOD mouse was developed by selectively breeding offspring from a laboratory strain that in fact was first used in the study of cataract development (the JcI-ICR mouse). Insulinitis is present when the mice are 4–5 weeks old, followed by subclinical β -cell destruction and decreasing circulating insulin concentrations. Frank diabetes typically presents between 12 and 30 weeks of age. Unlike human Type 1 diabetes, ketoacidosis is relatively mild and affected animals can survive for weeks without the administration of insulin. Inbred animals such as the NOD mouse also have benefits when studying other features of diabetes, as genetic heterogeneity need not be considered as a confounding factor. For example, studies have tried to piece together the immunological cascade that includes T-helper type 2 (Th2) cells, effector cells (CD4+, CD8+) and the contribution of cytokines⁵²⁻⁵⁵.

The BB rat: The BB rat was first recognized in the Bio Breeding Laboratories, a commercial breeding company based in Ottawa, in 1974. In diabetes prone strains, weight loss, polyuria, polydipsia, hyperglycaemia and insulinopenia develop at around 12 weeks of age, often at the time of puberty. In common with the human disease, ketoacidosis is severe and fatal unless exogenous insulin is administered. As with the NOD mouse, the pancreatic islets are subjected to an immune attack with T cells, B cells, macrophages and natural killer cells being recruited to the insulinitis. A variety of auto-antibodies, including GAD, have been reported in both BB rats and the NOD mouse, although it remains far from clear which, if any, of these are primary autoantigens. BB rat strains prone to diabetes typically have profound T cell lymphopenia in the circulating blood, specifically lacking T cells that express ART2. Transfusion of histocompatible T cells expressing ART2 will prevent the spontaneous development of hyperglycaemia in BB rats⁵⁶⁻⁵⁹.

Prevention of diabetes in NOD mouse and BB rat: Rodent models of Type 1 diabetes have been employed in research examining the role of diet (e.g. cow's milk proteins) and a variety of viruses as environmental triggers for the disease. For example, infection with the mouse hepatitis virus decreases the incidence of diabetes in NOD mice,

whilst infection with Kilham rat virus increases the risk in BB rats. Immunosuppression with cyclosporin in combination with other immuno-modulatory compounds such as vitamin D helps prevent diabetes in both BB rats and NOD mice. Non-specific immunization with Freund's adjuvant will also prevent diabetes in these rodent models⁶⁰. Insulin has been administered orally in the hope of inducing tolerance and reducing the immune attack on the pancreatic islets. Some, but not all, studies have shown this strategy can prevent diabetes in the NOD mouse and BB rat. Nicotinamide is known to protect β cells from toxins such as alloxan and also helps prevent the onset of diabetes in NOD mice. As a result of these observations, several trials in humans at high risk of diabetes have been undertaken, including the use of oral insulin and nicotinamide. Unfortunately the results are currently disappointing⁶¹.

Animal models of Type 2 diabetes

Animal models of Type 2 diabetes are likely to be as complex and heterogeneous as the human condition. Advances are most likely to come from interpreting data from several sources. Thus, in some animals, insulin resistance predominates, whilst in others β -cell failure is pre-eminent.

Models where glucose intolerance is part of a wider phenotype of obesity, dyslipidaemia and hypertension may also provide valuable insights into human Type 2 diabetes. As with the NOD mouse and BB rat in Type 1 diabetes, the selective inbreeding of animals that spontaneously develop a Type 2 diabetes-like phenotype has generated many of the strains used today. Much can also be learnt from animals with single gene mutations, as evidenced by the advances in knowledge generated from the study of the ob/ob, db/db, fa/fa and agouti strains⁶²⁻⁶⁴.

Rodent models of monogenic obesity and diabetes

The Goto-Kakizaki (GK) rat: The GK rat was developed by the selective breeding of Wistar rats with the highest blood glucose over many generations. The rats develop relatively stable hyperglycaemia in adult life. Typically, the fasting blood glucose is only mildly elevated but rises further on challenge with glucose. Both insulin resistance and impaired insulin secretion are present. At birth, the GK rat has a reduced number of islets. Inheritance is polygenic and several genome-wide scans have identified

putative susceptibility loci on a variety of chromosomes. In common with human Type 2 diabetes mellitus, an excess of maternal transmission has been reported in some but not all studies^{65,66}.

The KK mouse: The original strain of this mouse was bred for large body size. Characteristically, the mouse gradually becomes obese in adult life, associated with insulin resistance, compensatory hyperinsulinaemia and islet cell hyperplasia. Eventually, mild hyperglycaemia supervenes. Food intake is important in determining the severity of the diabetic phenotype and restriction of energy intake reduces both the obesity and hyperglycaemia seen in this strain of mice. Several different lines have been bred throughout the world and, because of selective breeding and founder effects, these vary both genetically and phenotypically from each other⁶⁷.

Reasons for using the KK mouse rather than the GK rat include the superiority of the KK mouse in mimicking human obesity (the GK rat being relatively slim) and the generally easier production of transgenic variants from mice rather than rats. It is important to realize that, in general, one animal model represents only one aspect or subtype of diabetes in humans and care must always be taken when extrapolating results to the clinical setting.

The Nagoya-Shibata-Yasuda (NSY) mouse: As with the KK mouse, this model was developed by selective inbreeding, but on this occasion using a laboratory strain of mouse termed Jc1:ICR (which is also the ancestral strain from which NOD mice were developed). NSY mice spontaneously develop diabetes in an age-dependent manner. The NSY mouse is particularly useful when considering age related phenotypes (e.g. decline in β -cell function). Of interest, a genome-wide linkage scan has identified a sequence variation in the hepatic nuclear factor 1 β gene, a gene also implicated in human MODY syndrome⁶⁸.

Psammomys obesus (the Israeli sand rat): In its natural habitat, the Israeli sand rat has an essentially vegetarian diet. However, when fed laboratory chow, the animals become obese, insulin resistant and hyperglycaemic. If a cholesterol-rich diet is used, hyperlipidaemia and atherosclerosis develop. In common with human Type 2 diabetes mellitus, the hyperglycaemic state is associated with an increase in circulating proinsulin and split products presumably because of the high demand for insulin secretion driven by

insulin resistance. Impaired insulin biosynthesis within the islets has also been reported⁶⁶.

The Otsuka Long-Evans Tokushima fatty (OLETF) rat: The OLETF rat originates from an outbred colony of Long-Evans rats selectively bred for glucose intolerance. The rats are mildly obese and, as with NSY mice, males are more likely to develop diabetes in adult life than females. Genomewide scans have reported susceptibility loci on chromosomes 1, 7, 14 and also the X chromosome. Interestingly, OLETF rats also carry a null allele for the cholecystokinin A receptor which may be involved in the regulation of food intake, however, whether this is causally related to the phenotype is still unclear⁶⁴.

Tissue-specific knockouts

Cre is a bacteriophage P1 recombinase enzyme that recognizes specific sequences of DNA 34-bp long (LoxP sites). When two of these sites occur close together, Cre will cut out the DNA between them. In the laboratory, it is possible to engineer a DNA construct in which Cre is placed next to a tissue-specific promoter. Using the techniques for creating transgenic animals outlined above, offspring can be produced that will have the Cre construct in all their tissues, but it will only be active in sites where the insulin gene promoter is active (i.e. pancreatic β -cells). A second set of transgenic animals can be produced that have, for example, the insulin receptor gene flanked by the target loxP sites⁶³.

By mating the two animals together, one can develop a line of animals where the insulin receptor gene is only knocked out in pancreatic β -cells. Similarly, animals can be produced that have a gene knocked out in other specific tissues such as liver, adipose tissue or brain⁶⁵.

Animal models of diabetes in pregnancy and the role of intrauterine environment

Another important field of diabetes research that has relied heavily on animal experimentation is the study of diabetes in pregnancy and the role of the intrauterine environment on the subsequent development of diabetes amongst offspring.

Firstly, it has been shown that diabetes in pregnancy predisposes to the later development of diabetes amongst offspring. Thus, pups born from rats rendered diabetic by streptozotocin treatment are more likely to become diabetic in adult life than litters born from the same mother before she received the streptozotocin. In embryo transfer experiments, Wistar rats (at low genetic risk of

diabetes) are more likely to develop hyperglycaemia as adults if they are reared in the uterus of a GotoKakizaki (diabetic) mother than a euglycaemic mother. However, transferring GotoKakizaki embryos into a normal (Wistar) uterus does not seem to reduce their risk of developing diabetes^{62,69}.

Secondly, it has been shown that intrauterine malnutrition may also increase the risk of diabetes amongst offspring in later life. This has been achieved by a variety of means, including uterine artery ligation and dietary restriction of pregnant dams. Endocrine pancreas development is altered in fetuses from rats previously showing intrauterine growth retardation in response to malnutrition.

CONCLUSION

Diabetes mellitus (chronic hyperglycemia) can be viewed as an outcome of the interplay among the underlying disease process, the environment, and the behavior of the affected individual. Most of the efforts of the health care team are directed at behaviors such as diet, exercise, and medication, because little can be done at present about the underlying problems and the environment. Thus, at the clinical level, diabetes is a nearly pure example of behavioral medicine. Ultimately, we must cure or prevent diabetes, but for now management of diabetes mellitus is a behavioral art and science. Investigators continue to rely on animal models due to the fact that they can be readily tested, biopsied and autopsied, their genetic and environmental background is already known and generally they serve studies that could not otherwise be accomplished in humans.

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