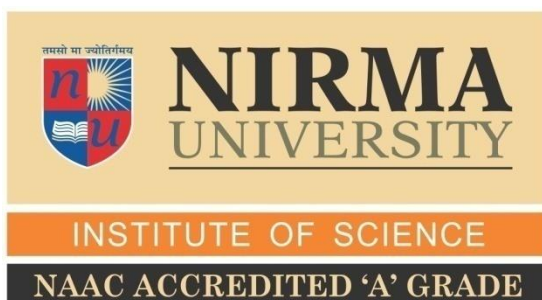


Effect of Recurrent Hypoglycemia on SOD Activity and Neurexin-1 Gene Expression in Streptozotocin Induced Diabetic Rats

A dissertation project
Submitted to
Nirma University
In the partial fulfillment of
Requirement for the Degree of

Masters of Science
In
Biochemistry



Submitted by:

SAJNI NAIK (15MBC015)
DRASHTI SHETH (15MBC017)

Under the guidance of:

Dr. Ameer Nair

Institute of Science, Nirma University
Ahmedabad-382481, Gujarat, India

May 2017

Acknowledgement

“Gratitude is the greatest blossom which springs from the soul.”

Words put on paper are mere ink marks, but when they have a purpose there exist a thought behind them. We would like to take this opportunity to express our gratitude towards those individuals who made this project work possible. First and foremost we would like to thank god for always leading us on right path.

*We wish to express our sincere gratitude to **Prof. Sarat Dalai**, Director, Institute of Science, Nirma University, for providing us all the facilities to carry out our research work in the institute. We thank him for all his guidance throughout our work.*

*Next, we would like to express our deep gratitude to our guide **Dr. Ameer K. Nair** for her support, guidance and encouragement throughout this project. We are thankful for all her motivation and suggestions that made this project work possible.*

*We would like to express our gratitude and respect to all our faculties - **Dr. Shalini Rajkumar, Dr. Sonal Bakshi, Dr. Sriram Seshadri, Dr. Vijay Kothari, Dr. Nasreen Munshi, Dr. Rajeev Tyagi, Dr. Heena Dave and Dr. Pranati Sar.***

*We would also like to thank our Ph.D. Scholars **Madhavi Joshi and Dhriti Shah** for their support and help throughout our dissertation work.*

*We are thankful to **Sachin Sir, Sweta Mam, Svetal Mam, Hasit Sir, Rajendra Sir** and other non-teaching staff of the institute for their great help throughout our work.*

*We would like to thank our colleagues **Khushbu, Shruthi, Shraddha, Sakshi and Shivani.** We would also like to thank our friends for their great support and for making this journey memorable.*

*Finally, we would like to dedicate this work to our **parents.** Without their support and care this work was not possible.*

Sajni Naik (15MBC015)

Drashti Sheth (15MBC017)

INDEX

| Contents | Page No. |
|--|-----------|
| 1. Introduction | 1 |
| 1.1 Diabetes | 1 |
| 1.2 Hypoglycemia | 1 |
| 1.3 Oxidative Stress, ROS, Diabetes and Hypoglycemia | 2 |
| 1.4 Oxidative Stress and Diabetic Nephropathy | 4 |
| 1.5 Oxidative Stress and its effect on Spleen | 5 |
| 1.6 Anti-oxidant system and ROS | 5 |
| 1.7 Cell Adhesion Molecules in Kidney | 6 |
| 1.8 Neurexin-1 | 6 |
| 2. Objectives | 7 |
| 3. Materials and Methods | 8 |
| 3.1 Chemicals | 8 |
| 3.2 Animals | 8 |
| 3.3 Model Induction | 9 |
| 3.4 Glucose Estimation | 9 |
| 3.5 Food and Water Consumption | 9 |
| 3.6 Body Weight Measurement | 9 |
| 3.7 Tissue Preparation | 10 |
| 3.8 Assessment of SOD Activity from Kidney and Spleen | 10 |
| 3.9 Histological Study | 11 |
| 3.10 Gene Expression | 11 |
| 3.11 Statistical Analysis | 12 |
| 4. Result and Discussion | 13 |
| 4.1 Blood Glucose Levels | 13 |
| 4.2 Water Consumption | 14 |
| 4.3 Food Consumption | 16 |
| 4.4 Change in Body Weight | 19 |
| 4.5 Enzyme Assay | 20 |
| 4.6 Histological study | 21 |
| 4.7 Neurexin-1 gene expression | 25 |
| 4.8 SOD Assay in Spleen | 28 |
| Summary | 29 |
| References | 30 |

ABBREVIATION

| | |
|--------|---|
| C | Control |
| D | Diabetes |
| CIH | Control + insulin induced hypoglycemia |
| DIH | Diabetic + insulin induced hypoglycemia |
| i.v. | Intra-Venous |
| s.c. | Sub-Cutaneous |
| ROS | Reactive Oxygen Species |
| AGEs | Advanced Glycated End products |
| RNS | Reactive Nitrogen Species |
| RNA | Ribonucleic Acid |
| RCS | Reactive Chloride Species |
| DNA | Deoxyribonucleic Acid |
| PKC | Protein Kinase C |
| RBCs | Red Blood Cells |
| SOD | Superoxide dismutase |
| CAMs | Cell Adhesion Molecules |
| NRXN-1 | Neurexin-1 |
| LNS | Laminin, Neurexin Sex Hormone Binding Protein |
| EGF | Epidermal Growth Factor |
| PCT | Proximal Convoluted Tubule |
| PDGF | Platelet Derived Growth Factor |
| VEGF | Vascular Epidermal Growth Factors |
| IGF-1 | Insulin Growth Factor-1 |
| O-Glyc | O-Glycosylation |
| CD2AP | CD-2 Associated Protein |
| PCR | Polymerase Chain Reaction |
| ANOVA | Analysis of Variance |

LIST OF FIGURES

| Title of Figure | Page No. |
|---|----------|
| 1. Causes of Hypoglycemia | 2 |
| 2. Oxidative Stress, ROS and Diabetes | 3 |
| 3. Oxidative Stress and Diabetic Nephropathy | 4 |
| 4. Tissues | 10 |
| 5. Blood Glucose Level in Experimental group of rats | 13 |
| 6. Water Consumption during Active phase | 14 |
| 7. Water Consumption during Active phase | 14 |
| 8. Water Consumption during Inactive phase | 15 |
| 9. Water Consumption during Inactive phase | 15 |
| 10. Food Consumption during Active phase | 16 |
| 11. Food Consumption during Active phase | 17 |
| 12. Food Consumption during Inactive phase | 17 |
| 13. Food Consumption during Inactive phase | 18 |
| 14. Change in Body-Weight | 19 |
| 15. % Change in Body-Weight | 19 |
| 16. SOD assay in Kidney | 20 |
| 17. Alteration in RBC levels and Change in thickness of Glomerular membrane | 21 |
| 18. Mesengial cell expansion in glomerulus | 22 |
| 19. Thickening of Renal Arteries | 23 |
| 20. PCT Proliferation | 24 |
| 21. Total RNA Isolation from Kidney | 25 |
| 22. β -Actin expression in Kidney | 26 |
| 23. Neurexin-1 expression in Kidney | 27 |
| 24. SOD assay in Spleen | 28 |

LIST OF TABLES

| Title of Tables | Page No. |
|---------------------|----------|
| 1. Model induction | 9 |
| 2. Primer designing | 12 |

ABSTRACT

Administration of insulin beyond the recommended dose in diabetes causes hypoglycemia. During diabetes, generation of oxidative stress increases reactive oxygen species and is known to damage the normal cellular assembly of kidney thereby causing diabetic nephropathy. Diabetes was induced in adult male Wistar rats by using Streptozotocin (50 mg/kg body weight – i.v.) and Hypoglycemia in Control and Diabetic rats by injecting Human Insulin (1.5 IU and 10 IU/kg body weight respectively – s.c.). Generation of ROS causes an alteration in anti-oxidant enzyme levels, of which superoxide dismutase enzyme serves as the first-line of defense against oxidative stress. SOD levels in kidney and spleen of control and experimental group of rats were assessed. Generation of ROS might act as a causative agent to induce morphological alterations in kidneys. These alterations in kidneys of diabetic and experimental group of rats were observed by staining kidney sections by H&E staining procedure. Podocytes, present in kidney are reported to be damaged in diabetic nephropathy. These podocytes have CAMs which are important for cell-cell cross talk. Neurexin-1, a CAM present on podocytes cells is important for maintaining intracellular trafficking within podocytes. To scrutinize this cross-talk, gene expression studies of Neurexin-1 gene was carried out following total RNA isolation and c-DNA synthesis from kidneys of control and experimental group of rats. Further, in spleen due to presence of glycated RBCs in diabetes, recycling of ROS is reported to be altered. To study the status of ROS in diabetic and hypoglycemic conditions, SOD enzyme activity was assessed from spleen also.

1. Introduction

1.1 Diabetes

Diabetes is an endocrine disorder, characterized by inability of the pancreas to secrete enough insulin in order to maintain the blood glucose levels. It is a complex disorder resulting from defects in insulin secretion, insensitivity to insulin receptor and defects in insulin action (Butler et al., 2003). It is a lifelong condition associated with serious complications (Kahn, 1994).

Major areas contributing to diabetic complications includes (1) Hemodynamic changes in Blood pressure and salt/fluid balance (2) Change in glucose metabolism and (3) Genetic factors. These changes further leads to various cellular changes like gene modulation, Protein expression and its modification. This results in cellular dysfunction and death (Ceriello, 2005).

Diabetic symptoms can be divided into two categories: (1) Acute and (2) Chronic. Acute symptoms include Ketoacidosis, Hyperglycemia. Chronic symptoms of diabetes are further divided into two groups: (1) Microvascular and (2) Macrovascular. Microvascular symptoms include retinopathy, neuropathy and nephropathy (Caballero et al, 1999), while macrovascular symptoms include the myocardial infarction, accelerated arteriosclerosis, impaired growth and development (Baynest, 2015).

β -cells, present in the islets of langerhans of pancreas are responsible for secretion of insulin to maintain glucose homeostasis (Jonas et al, 2005). Autoimmune destruction of pancreatic β -cells leads to abnormalities that result in deprivation of insulin secretion (Porte, 1991). Such a destruction, leads to an absolute requirement of insulin therapy. However, administration of insulin beyond the recommended levels leads to various complications. **Hypoglycemia** is one of the majorly feared complications resulting from such a condition during diabetes (Rother, 2007).

1.2 Hypoglycemia

Hypoglycemia occurs when blood glucose levels drop below normal range. It occurs due to the relative insulin excess and compromised glucose counter regulation in diabetes (Shamoon et al., 2002). During hypoglycemia, plasma glucose concentration abnormally falls below 60 mg/dl, which leads to potential harm (McCrimmon and Sherwin, 2010).

Hypoglycemia during diabetes occurs due to incorporation of hyperinsulinemia and compromised defense against falling plasma glucose concentrations (Cryer, 2008).

In diabetes, factors that can trigger hypoglycemia are as follows: (1) Excessive insulin doses (2) Decreased exogenous glucose delivery (3) Increased glucose utilization (4) Decreased endogenous glucose production (5) Decreased insulin clearance (Roth et al., 1963).

Blood glucose levels during hypoglycemia causes an array of symptoms by signaling autonomic nervous system. These symptoms can be divided into two categories: (1) Neurogenic symptoms: anxiety, dry mouth, nervousness, pupil dilation, shakiness, sweating (2) Neuroglycopenic symptoms: ataxia, confusion, coma, difficulty in thinking and speaking, headache, irritability and seizures (Briscoe and Davis, 2006).

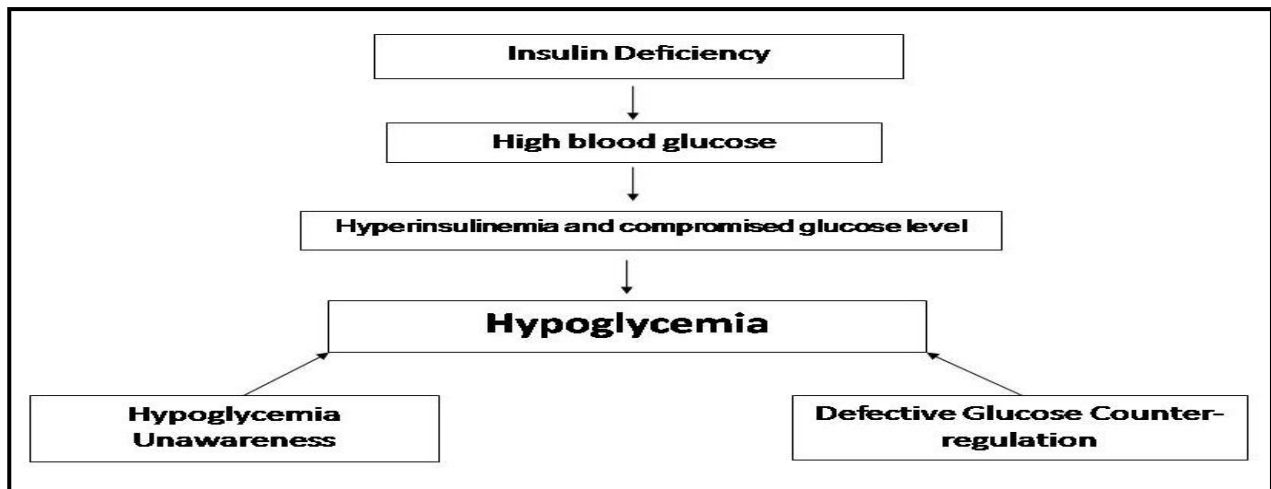


Figure 1: Causes of Hypoglycemia (Cryer and Childs, 2002)

(In diabetes, administration of insulin beyond normal range leads to the hypoglycemia.)

1.3 Oxidative stress, ROS, Diabetes and Hypoglycemia

Oxidative stress occurs due to an alteration in the production of free radical species and antioxidant defense mechanisms, leading to tissue damage. Oxidative stress can cause toxic effects through the free radical species. These free radical species can be divided into different categories: (1) Reactive oxygen species (ROS) (2) Reactive nitrogen species (RNS) and (3) Reactive chloride species (RCS) (Stevens et al., 2005).

ROS are chemically reactive molecules containing oxygen, produced as a natural byproduct of the normal metabolism of oxygen. These molecules are formed due to partial reduction of molecular oxygen that is transient due to its high chemical reactivity (Mates, 2000). The production of mitochondrial superoxide occurs through oxidative phosphorylation via electron transport chain (Monory et al., 2013). ROS, which includes hydroxyl radicals, superoxide anions and hydrogen peroxide, have been associated in oxidative damage inflicted on fatty acids, DNA (Deoxyribo Nucleic Acid) and proteins as well as other cellular components (Chikezie et al., 2015).

Oxidative stress can generate due to development of resistance against insulin, dysfunction of pancreatic β -cells and impaired glucose tolerance. In diabetes, chronic hyperglycemia leads to the production of ROS by various processes like - Glucose oxidation, glucose toxicity and oxidative phosphorylation. Oxidative stress generated due to ROS is responsible for various diabetic complications including **diabetic nephropathy, diabetic neuropathy and diabetic retinopathy** (Silveiro et al, 2005).

During hypoglycemia, activation of insulin receptor also causes the release of hydrogen peroxide (Wiernsperger, 2003). Even though hydrogen peroxide is a non-free radical, it is membrane permeable and can diffuse to sites different from that of its production (Sies, 1991). Hypoglycemia along with impaired antioxidant defense system, leads to inefficient scavenging of hydrogen peroxide. Hydrogen peroxide undergoes reaction, which results in the initiation and propagation of lipid peroxidation. Thus, hypoglycemia via hydrogen peroxide formation increases ROS and contributes to oxidative stress.

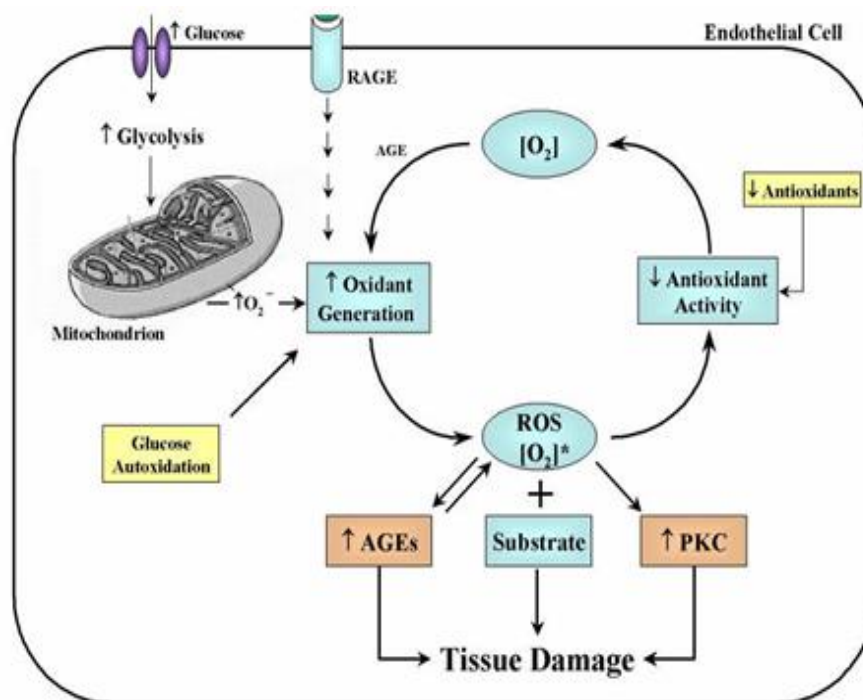


Figure 2: Oxidative stress, ROS and Diabetes (Kim and Loeken, 2004)

(In diabetes, high blood glucose leads to the production of ROS by various processes like - glucose oxidation, glucose toxicity and oxidative phosphorylation. ROS activates different pathways of AGEs, PKC, etc., which leads to the tissue damage)

1.4 Oxidative Stress and Diabetic Nephropathy

Diabetic nephropathy, which can occur due to diabetes, is considered as one of the critical complications of diabetes. In the development of diabetic nephropathy, oxidative stress acts as a major player, (Forbes et al., 2008). Overproduction of mitochondrial superoxide occurs in endothelial cells of large and small vessels in kidney (Cooper, 1998).

Hyperglycemia causes an elevation in plasma free radical concentrations through five major mechanisms: (1) Activation of Polyol pathway (2) Increased intracellular formation of AGEs (Advanced Glycation End products) (3) Increased expression of the receptors for AGEs and its activating ligands (4) Activation of protein kinase C pathway and (5) Activation of hexosamine pathway (Giacco and Brownlee, 2010).

Various cells, which get affected in diabetic nephropathy, include glomerular podocytes, mesangial cells, endothelial cells and tubular epithelia (Kanwar et al., 2008). Diabetic nephropathy related alterations in redox state are caused by persistent hyperglycemic state and increased AGEs. These events affect the renin-angiotensin system leading to chronic inflammation in glomerulus. Hyperglycemia is the driving force for progressive destruction of glomerulus that produces mechanical tension and frictional force caused mainly by hemodynamic changes. This leads to the liberation of numerous cytokines, pro-inflammatory markers and growth factors, which stimulates various pathways of oxidative stress (Dwivedi & Sarkar, 2010).

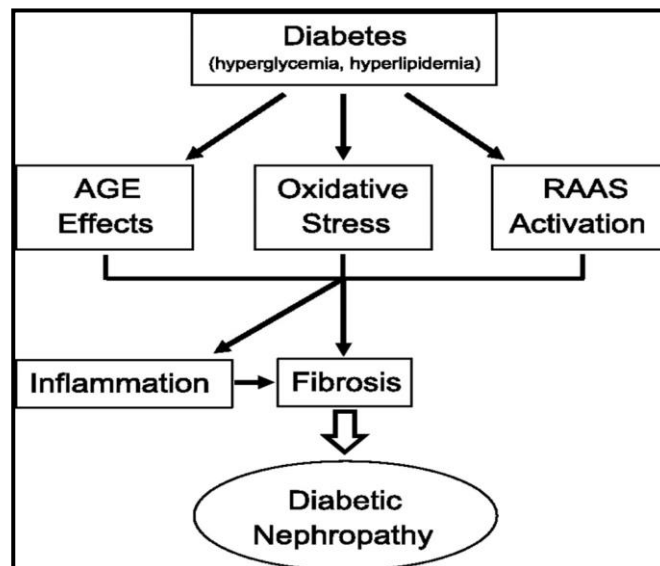


Figure 3: Oxidative stress and Diabetic Nephropathy

(Hyperglycemia is one of the reasons for the formation of AGEs, production of oxidative stress and RAAS activation, which further leads to development of diabetic nephropathy.)

1.5 Oxidative stress and its effect on spleen

Spleen is a secondary lymphoid organ, which acts as an important player in the activity of immune system. Spleen is involved in recycling of RBCs. Free radical species are generally recycled in RBCs. In diabetes, RBCs are glycated due to high blood glucose level. Thus, free radical species recycling is also altered. Due to this, increase in oxidative stress and thereby decrease in the activity of superoxide dismutase occur.

Recurrent hypoglycemia increases oxygen-glucose deprivation induced cell damage. Damaged cells of spleen causes an alteration in the normal recycling of RBCs (Red Blood Cells) and in antigen processing.

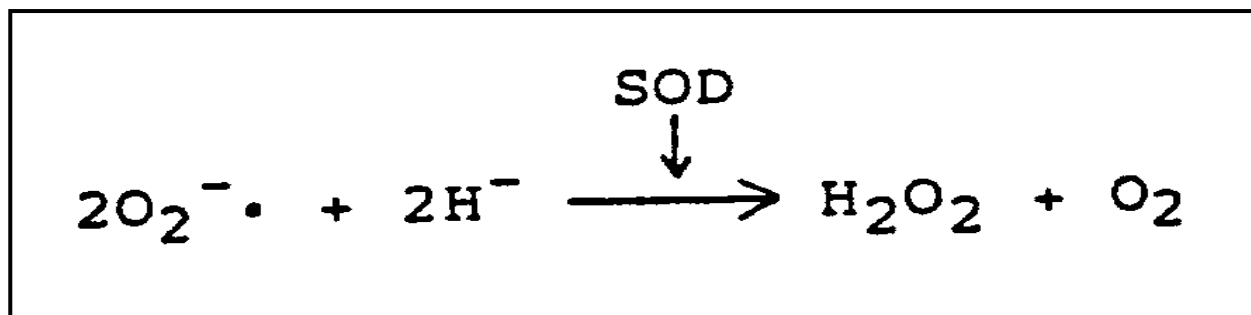
1.6 Antioxidant system and ROS

Antioxidant defense system contains several enzymatic and non-enzymatic antioxidants that are effective in blocking destructive effects of ROS. In antioxidant defense system, primarily three antioxidant enzymes are present, which includes superoxide dismutase (SOD), Catalase, and Glutathione peroxidase (Lee et al., 2013).

1.6.1 Superoxide dismutase

Superoxide dismutase (SOD) acts as a first line of defense against the oxidative stress. It is a major antioxidant defense system against superoxide radicals, which destroys the free radical superoxide by converting it into peroxide. Aerobic respiration produces low levels of superoxide constantly.

There are three isoforms of SOD: (1) Cytoplasmic Cu/Zn SOD (SOD1) (2) Mitochondrial SOD (SOD2) (3) Extracellular SOD (SOD3) (McCord and Fridovich, 1969).



1.7 Cell adhesion molecules in kidney

Podocytes or glomerular visceral epithelial cells are highly specialized epithelial cell which covers the glomerular basement membrane (Pavensta , 2000). Podocytes share some common features with neurons: 1) podocytes and neuron both possesses long and short cell processes, which is equipped with highly organized cytoskeletal system 2) Both the cells shows cytoskeletal segregation 3) In neurons and podocytes, process formation is dependent on various microtubule associated proteins 4) The process formation in both cells is positively regulated by PP2A which is Ser/Thr phosphatase and process is accelerated by laminin which is extracellular protein 5) The elongation of both neuronal dendrites and podocytes processes is supported by Rab8-regulated basolateral type membrane transport 6) Synaptodin is actin associated protein which is expressed in both podocytes processes and neuronal dendrites. It is localized in thin short projections from main shaft (Kobayashi, 2002; Saito et al., 2010).

1.8 Neurexin-1

Neurexins are categorized under the family of cell adhesion molecules. Neurexins were first identified in 1992 by affinity chromatography of brain extract from rat. Neurexin-1 is composed of an N-terminal extracellular sequence containing a signal peptide, 6 LNS domains separated by 3-EGF (Epidermal Growth Factor) like sequences followed by an O-glycosylation region (O-Glyc), a single trans-membrane domain and a short cytoplasmic region.

Neurexin is present in brain, kidney, lung, colon and pancreas. NRXN-1 is the only isoform of neurexin which is present in glomeruli and is restrictedly present at cytoplasmic area around slit diaphragm of glomerular podocytes of kidney. Slit diaphragm is situated between neighbouring foot process of glomerular podocytes. It act as a final barrier to retain plasma protein.

Neurexin-1 is involved in the formation of slit diaphragm and maintatinance of its function. Podocyte specific cell-cell interaction occurs via slit-diaphragm. NRXN is also involved in intracellular trafficking of slit diaphragm components. Neurexin located close to CD2AP (CD2 associated protein) and also interacts with nephrin which constitute extracellular site of the slit diaphragm.

2. Objectives

1. To induce diabetes and hypoglycemia in adult wistar rats
2. To check blood glucose levels, water and food intake and change in body weight of control and experimental group of rats
3. To assess specific activity of superoxide dismutase from kidney of control and experimental group of rats
4. To study histological alterations in kidney of control and experimental group of rats
5. To check the expression of neurexin-1 gene from kidney of control and experimental group of rats
6. To assess specific activity of superoxide dismutase from spleen of control and experimental group of rats

3. Materials and Method

3.1 Chemicals

Streptozotocin (MP Biomedicals, US), Citric acid Monohydrate (Merck Specialities Pvt. Ltd., Mumbai), Tri-sodium citrate dihydrate (S.D. Fine Chemicals Ltd., Mumbai), Human Actrapid insulin (Torrent Pharma, Ahmedabad), Sodium Dihydrogen Phosphate anhydrous (Sisco Research Laboratories Pvt. Ltd., Mumbai), Di-Sodium hydrogen phosphate anhydrous (Merck Specialities Pvt. Ltd., Mumbai), Sodium Chloride (Merck Specialities Pvt. Ltd., Mumbai), Potassium Chloride (Merck Specialities Pvt. Ltd., Mumbai), Potassium dihydrogen Phosphate anhydrous (Merck Specialities Pvt. Ltd., Mumbai), Chloroform (Merck Specialities Pvt. Ltd., Mumbai), Diethyl Ether (Merck Specialities Pvt. Ltd., Mumbai), Paraformaldehyde (Hi-Media, Mumbai), Sodium carbonate (Merck Specialities Pvt. Ltd., Mumbai), EDTA (Merck Specialists Pvt. Ltd., Mumbai), Hydroxylamine Hydrochloride (Central Drug House Pvt. Ltd., New Delhi), Criton-X 100 (Central Drug House Pvt. Ltd., New Delhi), Nitro blue tetrazolium (NBT) (MP Biomedicals, US), Hydrochloric acid (S.D. Fine Chemicals Ltd., Mumbai), Hematoxylin (Hi-Media, Mumbai), Eosin (S.D. Fine Chemicals Ltd., Mumbai), Xylene (S.D. Fine Chemicals Ltd., Mumbai), Absolute Alcohol (Shree Chalthan Vibhag Khand Udhog Sahkari Mandli Ltd., Surat), QIAzol (QIAGEN sciences, Germany), Isopropanol (Merck Specialities Pvt. Ltd., Mumbai), cDNA synthesis kit (Thermo-scientific, US), PCR Master mix (Thermo-scientific, US), Primer NRXN (Sigma Aldrich, US), DNA ladder (Thermo-scientific, US), Bromophenol blue (Thermo-scientific, US), Agarose (HI-Media, Mumbai), Ethidium bromide (Genetix Biotech, New Delhi).

3.2 Animals

Adult male Wistar rats of 200-250 g body weight were purchased from Bharat Serum Limited, Mumbai. Rats were kept in separate cages under 12-h light and 12-h dark periods. They were maintained on standard food pellets and water. According to the Institutional and National Institute of Health Guide lines, animal care and handling was done.

3.3 Model induction

3.3.1 Induction of diabetes and hypoglycemia:

For experiment, animals were divided into following groups:

| Group No. | Animal group | Treatment |
|-----------|--------------|--|
| 1 | Control | 0.9 % Normal Saline |
| 2 | Diabetic | Streptozotocin (50 mg/kg) body weight) i.v. |
| 3 | CIIH | 1.5 IU/kg body weight, two doses daily (s.c.) to control rats |
| 4 | DIIH | 10.0 IU/kg body weight, two doses daily (s.c.) to diabetic rats |

Table 1: Model Induction

Each experimental group contained 6 animals. Diabetes was induced by a single intravenous (femoral vein) dose (50 mg/kg body weight) of Streptozotocin. CIIH & DIIH group received daily 2 doses: 1.5 IU/Kg body weight in CIIH and 10.0 IU/Kg body weight in DIIH of human insulin (Actrapid) during active phase and inactive phase (Flanagan et al., 2003).

3.4 Glucose Estimation

Glucose estimation was carried out by using i-sense Glucometer and its corresponding care-sense gluco-strips.

3.5 Food and water consumption

Food and water consumption was recorded throughout the experiments. Food and water consumption of control and experimental group of rats was observed during the active and inactive phase throughout the experiment.

3.6 Body weight measurement

Body-weight was measured everyday throughout the experiment by using standard calibrated weighing balance.

3.7 Tissue Preparations

Rats were sacrificed after 42 days of model induction by cervical dislocation. The body parts like kidney, liver, pancreas, muscle, heart and brain-parts like cerebellum, cerebral cortex, brain stem & hypothalamus were dissected. They were frozen in ice according to the Iversen & Glowinski's procedure. The tissues were stored at -20°C until assay was carried out.

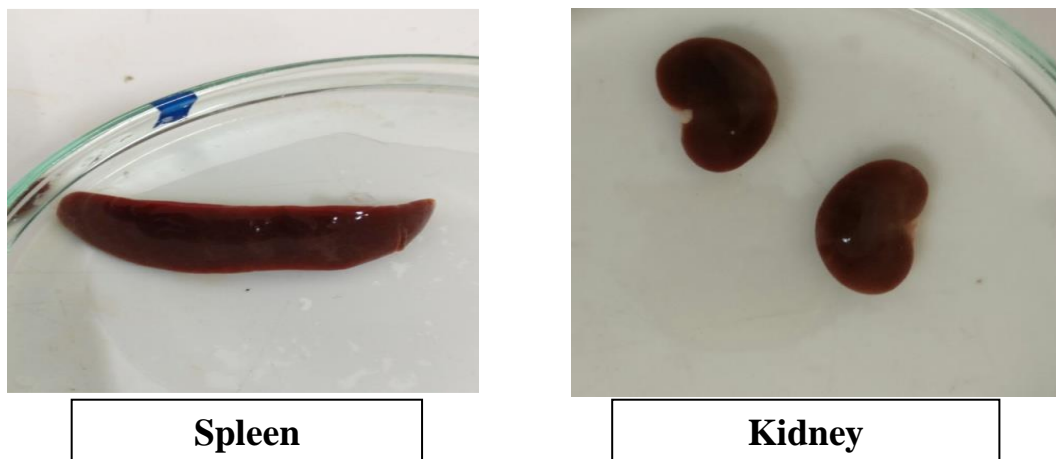


Figure 4: Tissues

3.8 Assessment of SOD activity from kidney and spleen

3.8.1 Superoxide dismutase

SOD enzyme assay was carried out from kidney and spleen by the method of Kono et al., 1997.

3.8.2 Superoxide dismutase isolation

By using the method of Kono et al., 1997, 10% homogenate was prepared in 0.1 M sodium phosphate buffer. The homogenate was centrifuged at 1000 rpm at 4°C for 10 minutes. Then supernatant was collected and collected supernatant was again centrifuged at 10,000 rpm for 30 minutes at 4°C. The remaining supernatant was used to conduct enzyme assay.

3.8.3 Superoxide dismutase Estimation

The reaction mixture contained 50 mM sodium carbonate buffer, 1 mM hydroxylamine Hydrochloride, 0.6% Criton-x 100, 0.1 mM EDTA, 400 μ M NBT. Change in absorbance was

measured at 560 nm for varying concentration of enzyme. Vmax of SOD was determined for varying concentrations of enzymes.

3.9 Histological study

Rats from each experimental group were anesthetized with chloroform and perfused transcardially with 0.9% saline and 4% paraformaldehyde in phosphate buffered saline (PBS). Kidney was dissected out from C, D, CIH and DIIH rats. Paraffin sections of 3 μm were used for Hematoxylin-eosin staining.

3.9.1 Deparaffinization and rehydration of sections

Sections were deparaffinized by using a microwave oven. They were rehydrated by dipping in Xylene, Absolute alcohol, 95% alcohol, 70% alcohol and Distilled water.

3.9.2 Hematoxylin-eosin staining

Rehydrated paraffinized sections were stained with hematoxylin for 4 minutes followed washing with distilled water. Nucleus of cells was stained with hematoxylin and excess stain was destained with acid-alcohol mixture. Then sections were counter stained with eosin for 2 minutes. Then sections were washed with distilled water, dehydrated with alcohol followed by xylene and mounted with DPX.

3.10 Gene expression

3.10.1 RNA isolation

Total RNA was isolated from the control & experimental group of rat's kidney by using phenol-guanidine thiocyanate method with slight variation. Agarose gel electrophoresis method was performed for observing isolated RNA. Purity of RNA is checked by using nanodrop instrument.

3.10.2 cDNA synthesis

Total cDNA synthesis was done from the isolated RNA by using cDNA synthesis kit.

3.10.3 PCR Analysis

PCR analyses were conducted with gene-specific primers which is designed by using Primer quest software and amplified product was observed by agarose gel electrophoresis

Primer designing:

Primer of the gene neurexin was designed by using the PrimerQuest software which is shown below:

| Primer | Forward primer | Reverse primer | Tm | GC content | Product length |
|---------------|----------------------------|----------------------------|-----------|-------------------|-----------------------|
| Neurexin-1 | 5'GCTTCACACAG GGAAATC3' | 5'CATTCACGGG CTCTACTA3' | 58 | 50 | 18 |

Table 2: Primer Designing

3.11 Statistical analysis

Statistical analysis was carried out by ANOVA using Graph-pad Prism.

4. Results and discussion

4.1 Blood glucose levels

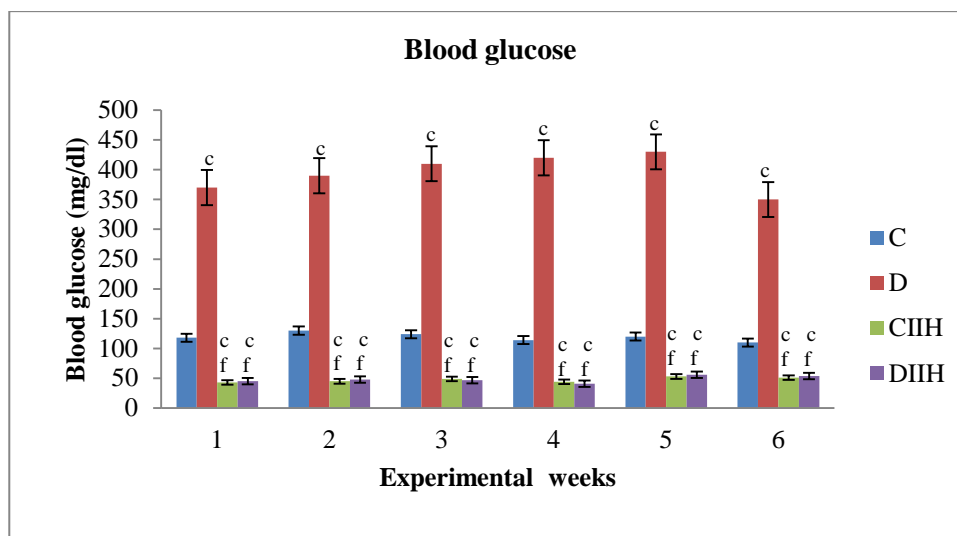


Figure 5: Blood glucose levels in experimental group of rats

C-Control rats, D-Diabetic rats, CIIH-Insulin induced hypoglycemia in control rats and DIIH-Insulin induced hypoglycemia in diabetic rats. Values are mean \pm SD for 3 separate experiments (n=6 rats/group).

ANOVA followed by Student's Newman-Keul's Test

***P<0.001 when compared to C=c

###P<0.001 when compared to D=f

Discussion:

Blood glucose level was high in diabetic group when compared with control. In CIIH and DIIH group blood glucose levels were low compared to control.

Insulin increases glucose transport from the extracellular tissue to the cells. Streptozotocin causes destruction of β -cells, hence insulin is not secreted. Impairment in insulin secretion leads to accumulation of glucose in the body, thereby raising the glucose level in diabetic group (Akbarzadeh et al., 2007).

But excess amount of insulin in the body as compared to glucose concentration causes metabolic imbalance. In case of hypoglycemia, there is no glucose within as well as outside the cells. Hence, there is an excess of insulin as compared to glucose thereby lowering the levels of blood glucose significantly after insulin administration in CIIH and DIIH group (Mahmoud et al., 2009).

4.2 Water consumption

4.2.1 Water consumption during active phase

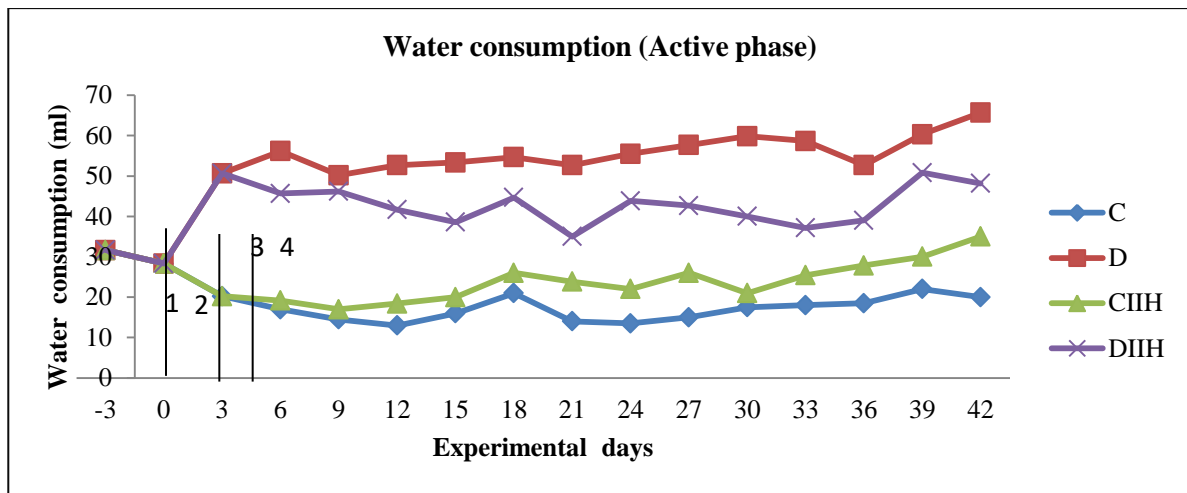


Figure 6: Water consumption during active phase

C-Control rats, D-Diabetic rats, CIIH-Insulin induced hypoglycemia in control rats and DIIH-Insulin induced hypoglycemia in diabetic rats. Values are mean \pm SD for 3 separate experiments (n=6 rats/group).

1-Pre diabetic phase

2-Diabetic manifestation phase

3-Post diabetic phase

4-Hypoglycemic phase

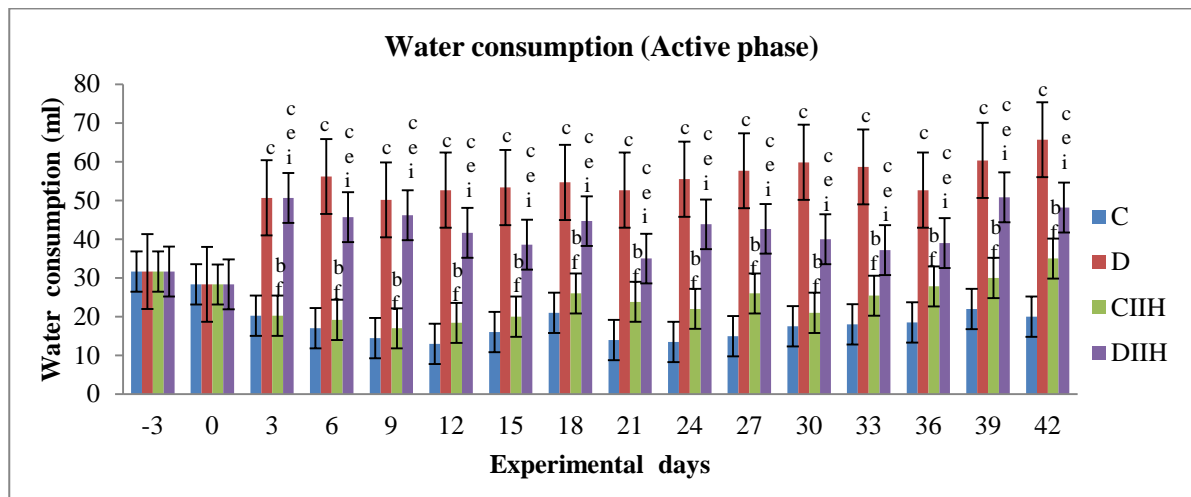


Figure 7: Water consumption during active phase

C-Control rats, D-Diabetic rats, CIIH-Insulin induced hypoglycemia in control rats and DIIH-Insulin induced hypoglycemia in diabetic rats. Values are mean \pm SD for 3 separate experiments (n=6 rats/group).

ANOVA followed by Student's Newman-Keul's test

**P<0.01 when compared to C=b

***P<0.001 when compared to C=c

##P<0.01 when compared to D=e

###P<0.001 when compared to D=f

@@P<0.001 when compared to CIIH=i

4.2.2 Water consumption during inactive phase

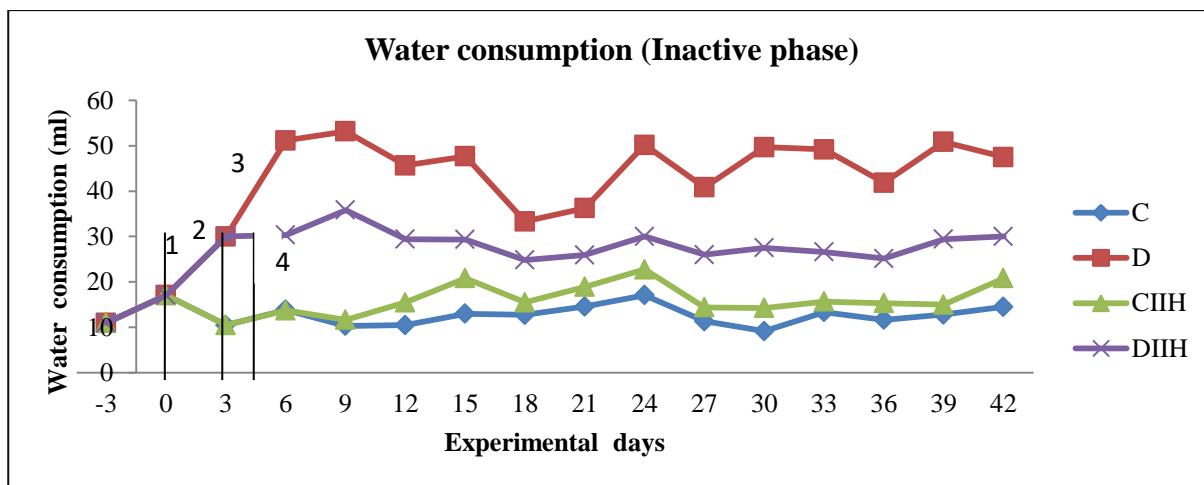


Figure 8: Water consumption during inactive phase

C-Control rats, D-Diabetic rats, CIIH-Insulin induced hypoglycemia in control rats and DIIH-Insulin induced hypoglycemia in diabetic rats. Values are mean \pm SD for 3 separate experiments (n=6 rats/group).

1-Pre diabetic phase

2-Diabetic manifestation phase

3-Post diabetic phase

4-Hypoglycemic phase

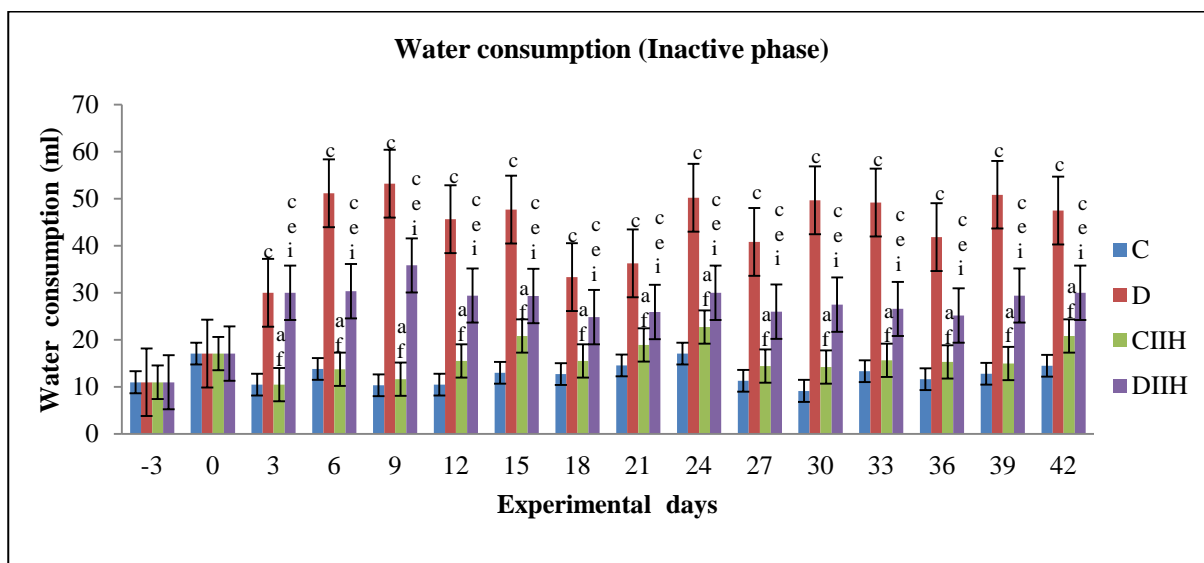


Figure 9: Water consumption during inactive phase

C-Control rats, D-Diabetic rats, CIIH-Insulin induced hypoglycemia in control rats and DIIH-Insulin induced hypoglycemia in diabetic rats. Values are mean \pm SD for 3 separate experiments (n=6 rats/group).

ANOVA followed by Student's Newman-Keul's

*P<0.05 when compared to C=a

***P<0.001 when compared to C=c

##P<0.01 when compared to D=e

###P<0.001 when compared to D=f

@@@P<0.001 when compared to CIIH=i

Discussion

During the pre-induction phase, no significant difference in the water consumption of rats was observed. After 3rd day of model induction, significant increase in amount of water consumption was observed in diabetic rats.

In diabetes, due to high blood glucose levels, electrolyte imbalance was observed and it exerts osmotic pressure by changing osmolarity. This leads to the release of ADH (Anti-Diuretic hormone) which activates thirst center in hypothalamus. Increase in blood glucose levels causes alteration in glomerular filtration rate of kidney, which leads to glycosuria. To dilute concentrated urine, more amount of water is needed. So, tubular secretion of water takes place. Thus, it activates thirst centers in brain to compensate water loss (Akbarzadeh et al., 2007). After the 3rd day of model induction, CIIH and DIIH shows significant increase in water consumption compared to control group. Hypoglycemia causes activation of sympathetic nervous system. It causes increased activity of HPA axis which results into increased secretion of epinephrine, which is responsible for activation of thirst center. (Dennis et al., 1982)

4.3 Food consumption

4.3.1 Food consumption during active phase

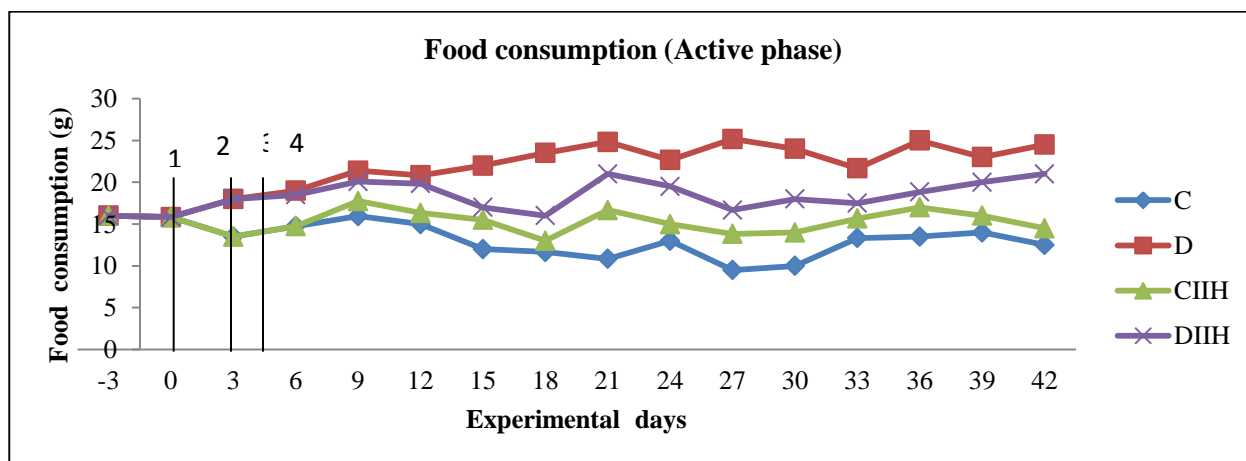


Figure 10: Food consumption during active phase

C-Control rats, D-Diabetic rats, CIIH-Insulin induced hypoglycemia in control rats and DIIH-Insulin induced hypoglycemia in diabetic rats. Values are mean \pm SD for 3 separate experiments (n=6 rats/group).

1-Pre diabetic phase

2-Diabetic manifestation phase

3-Post diabetic phase

4-Hypoglycemic phase

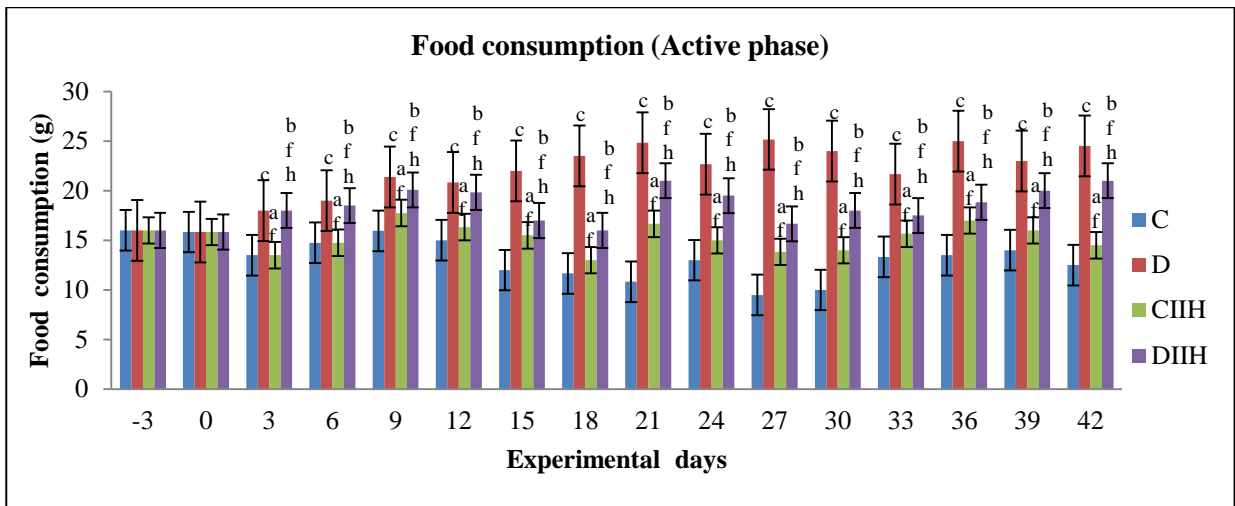


Figure 11: Food consumption during active phase

C-Control rats, D-Diabetic rats, CIIH-Insulin induced hypoglycemia in control rats and DIIH-Insulin induced hypoglycemia in diabetic rats. Values are mean \pm SD for 3 separate experiments (n=6 rats/group).

ANOVA followed by Student’s Newman-Keul’s Test

*P<0.05 when compared to C=a

**P<0.01 when compared to C=b

***P<0.001 when compared to C=c

###P<0.001 when compared to D=f

@@P<0.01 when compared to CIIH=h

4.3.2 Food consumption during inactive phase

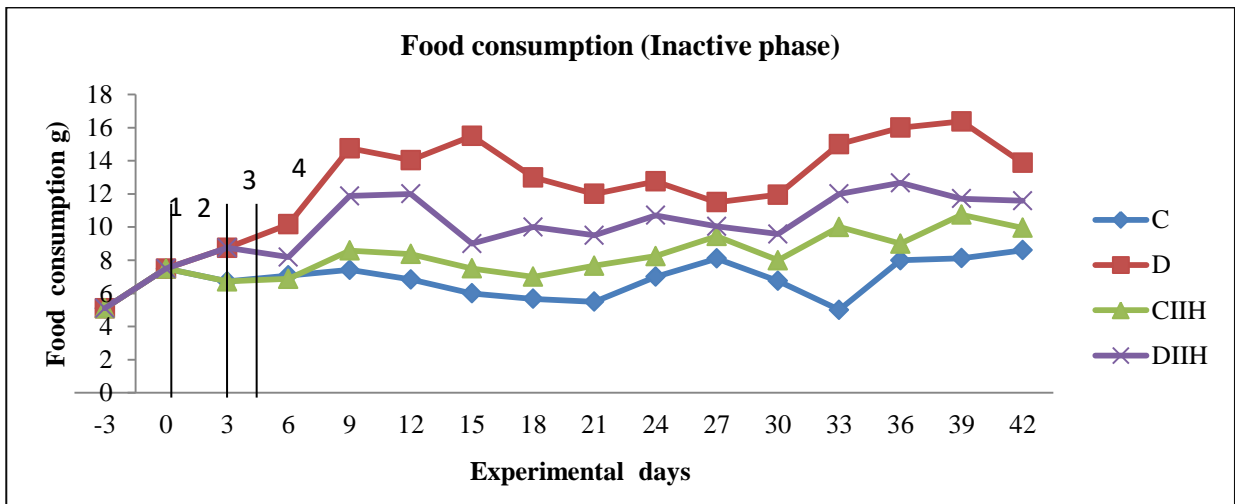


Figure 12: Food consumption during inactive phase

C-Control rats, D-Diabetic rats, CIIH-Insulin induced hypoglycemia in control rats and DIIH-Insulin induced hypoglycemia in diabetic rats. Values are mean \pm SD for 3 separate experiments (n=6 rats/group).

1-Pre diabetic phase

2-Diabetic manifestation phase

3-Post diabetic phase

4-Hypoglycemic phase

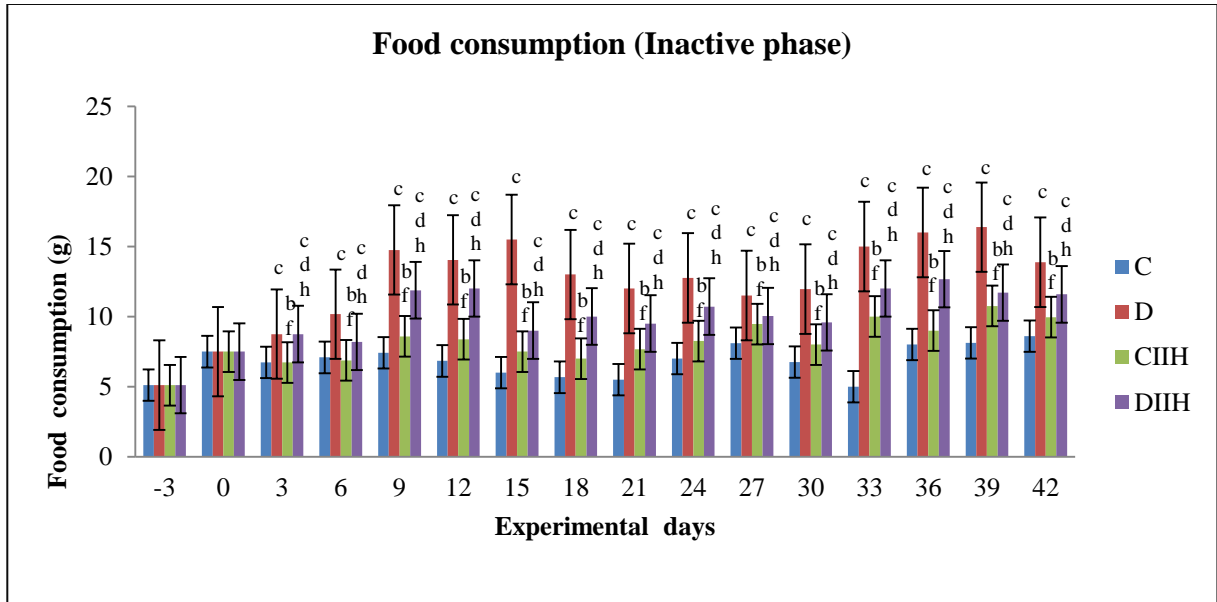


Figure 13: Food consumption during inactive phase

C-Control rats, D-Diabetic rats, CIIH-Insulin induced hypoglycemia in control rats and DIIH-Insulin induced hypoglycemia in diabetic rats. Values are mean \pm SD for 3 separate experiments (n=6 rats/group).

ANOVA followed by Student's Newman-Keul's Test

**P<0.01 when compared to C=b

#P<0.05 when compared to D=d

@P<0.05 when compared to CIIH=h

***P<0.001 when compared to C=c

###P<0.001 when compared to D=f

Discussion

During the pre-induction phase, there was no difference in the food consumption of rats. A significant variation was observed in the food intake pattern in diabetic and hypoglycemic rats as compared to that of the control rats from day 3 of model induction. In diabetic group of rats, significant increase in amount of food intake was observed compared to control group. Diabetic rats consume excess food due to Polyphagia. In diabetes, peripheral blood glucose level is very high but glucose levels inside the cell are low due to lack of insulin. This impairs insulin mediated glucose transport inside the cell and leads to activation of hunger center in hypothalamus (Roth et al., 2016). A significant increase in food intake was observed in hypoglycemic rats (CIIH and DIIH) compared to control group. Hypoglycemia shows low glucose inside and outside of the cells. Low blood glucose is able to initiate glycogenolysis and gluconeogenesis pathway via release of glucagon and adrenalin that increase leptin to some extent, resulting in activation of the feeding center in hypoglycemia (Jiang and Zhang, 2003).

4.4 Change in body weight

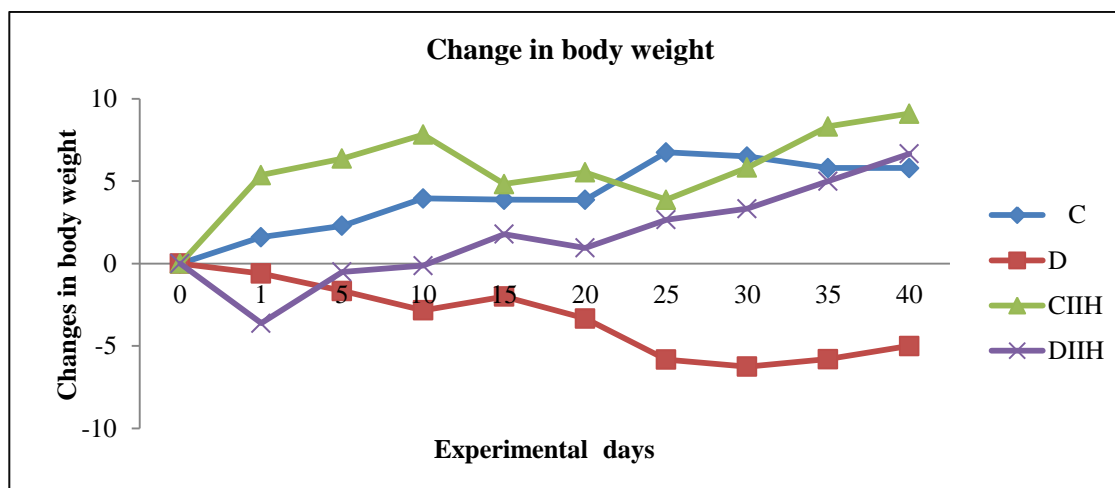


Figure 14: Change in body weight

C-Control rats, D-Diabetic rats, CIIH-Insulin induced hypoglycemia in control rats and DIIH-Insulin induced hypoglycemia in diabetic rats. Values are mean \pm SD for 3 separate experiments (n=6 rats/group).

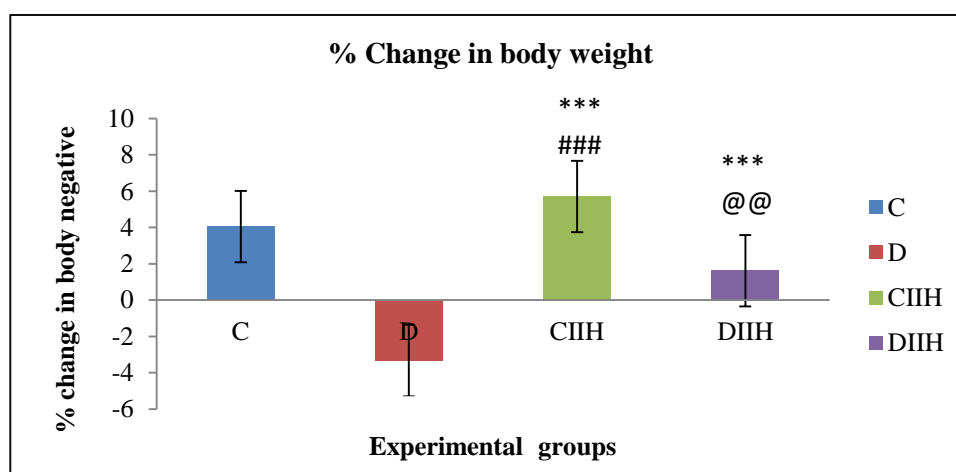


Figure 15: % change in body weight

C-Control rats, D-Diabetic rats, CIIH-Insulin induced hypoglycemia in control rats and DIIH-Insulin induced hypoglycemia in diabetic rats. Values are mean \pm SD for 3 separate experiments (n=6 rats/group).

ANOVA followed by Student's Newman-Keul's Test

***P<0.001 when compared to c

###P<0.001 when compared to D

@@P<0.01 when compared to CIIH

Discussion

From the 3rd day of model induction, a significant decrease in body-weight of diabetic rats was observed compared to the control rats. It occurs corresponding to high blood glucose level, resulting in Polyuria, which causes dehydration and loss of body fluids and electrolytes. During

diabetes, lack of insulin is prevalent in the body cells. So, insulin mediated transport of glucose is affected (Mahmoud et al., 2009). It leads to activation of alternative mechanism for glucose production such as glycogenolysis and gluconeogenesis. Glycogenolysis causes depletion of glycogen and lipids which leads to weight loss in diabetic group. In hypoglycemic group of rats (CIIH and DIIH), body weight increases in comparison to diabetic group of rats but less than control group of rats. In CIIH group, body weight increases during initial phase, but during treatment phase, it decreases in comparison to control group, which is mainly due to insulin, which prevents excessive fat metabolism (Chiarelli et al., 1999).

4.5 Enzyme assay

4.5.1 Superoxide dismutase assay in kidney

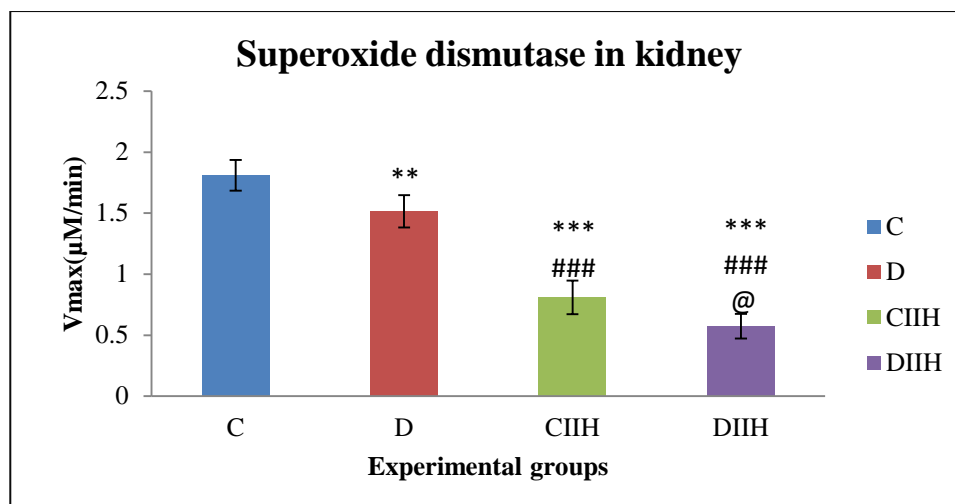


Figure 16: Superoxide dismutase assay in kidney

C-Control rats, D-Diabetic rats, CIIH-Insulin induced hypoglycemia in control rats and DIIH-Insulin induced hypoglycemia in diabetic rats. Values are mean \pm SD for 3 separate experiments (n=6 rats/group).

ANOVA followed by Student's Newman-Keul's Test

**P<0.01 when compared to C

***P<0.001 when compared to D

###P<0.001 when compared to D

@P<0.05 when compared to CIIH

Discussion

In diabetes, metabolic abnormalities causes mitochondrial superoxide overproduction and decreased levels of antioxidant enzymes. High blood glucose levels and the oxidative stress caused thereby, leads to renal damage which in turn causes diabetic nephropathy. Therefore, we assessed

superoxide dismutase activity from kidney (Sies, 1993). SOD activity in diabetic group of rats was significantly low ($P < 0.01$) than control group of rats. This is mainly because of high levels of oxidative stress, which causes metabolic and hemodynamic changes during diabetes. This further leads to the activation of various pathways of oxidative stress. Thus, oxidative stress and ROS production is high during diabetic nephropathy.

In hypoglycemic group of rats (CIIH and DIIH), SOD activity is low compared to diabetic group. During hypoglycemia, blood glucose level is decreased. This causes an impairment in glycogenolysis and gluconeogenesis. Thus, insufficient glucose causes an adverse effect on kidney which leads to the generation of oxidative stress (Fujita et al., 2009).

4.6 Histological study

4.6.1 Alterations in RBC levels in glomerulus and change in thickness of glomerular membrane

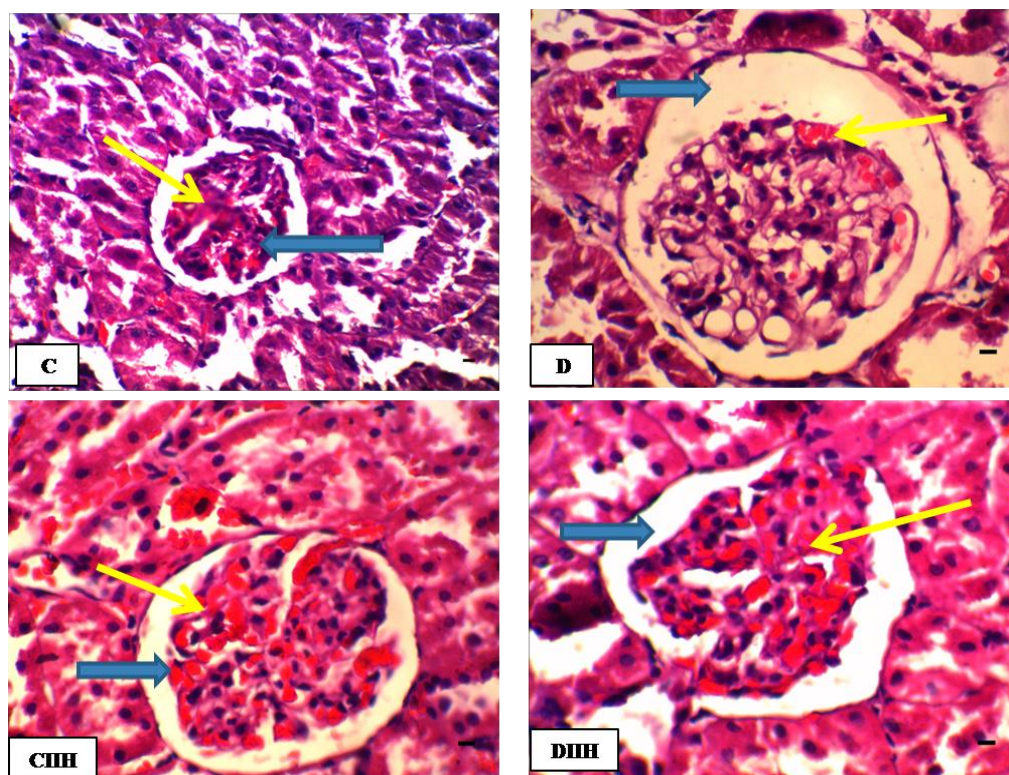


Figure 17: alterations in RBC level and Change in thickness of glomerular membrane
 C-Control rats, D-Diabetic rats, CIIH-Insulin induced hypoglycemia in control rats and DIIH-Insulin induced hypoglycemia in diabetic rats. → =alterations in RBC level. → =Change in thickness of glomerular membrane.

Discussion

During diabetes, RBC levels are decreased in glomerulus of kidney. Hormone erythropoietin is responsible for the production of RBCs. This erythropoietin is produced by the kidney. In diabetes, due to renal damage, erythropoietin production is affected. Thus, during diabetes RBC levels are decreased in glomerulus (McGill et al, 2006). In Hypoglycemia, that is CIIH and DIIH groups, RBC levels are increased. During hypoglycemia, hypoxia can occur. Hypoxia is a condition in which oxygen levels are decreased. To compensate oxygen levels hormone erythropoietin increases RBC production. Thus, during hypoglycemia RBC level is increased in glomerulus.

The thickening of glomerular membrane during diabetes takes place due to protein synthesis such as collagen, laminin and fibronectin. These proteins are glycosylated during diabetes, which leads to increases protease resistance and thereby, get accumulated on the membrane of the glomeruli. In hypoglycemic condition, these proteins are not glycosylated and protease resistance does not occur. Hence, membrane of glomeruli is normal because accumulation of these proteins does not occur (Kolset et al., 2012).

4.6.2 Mesangial cell expansion in glomerulus

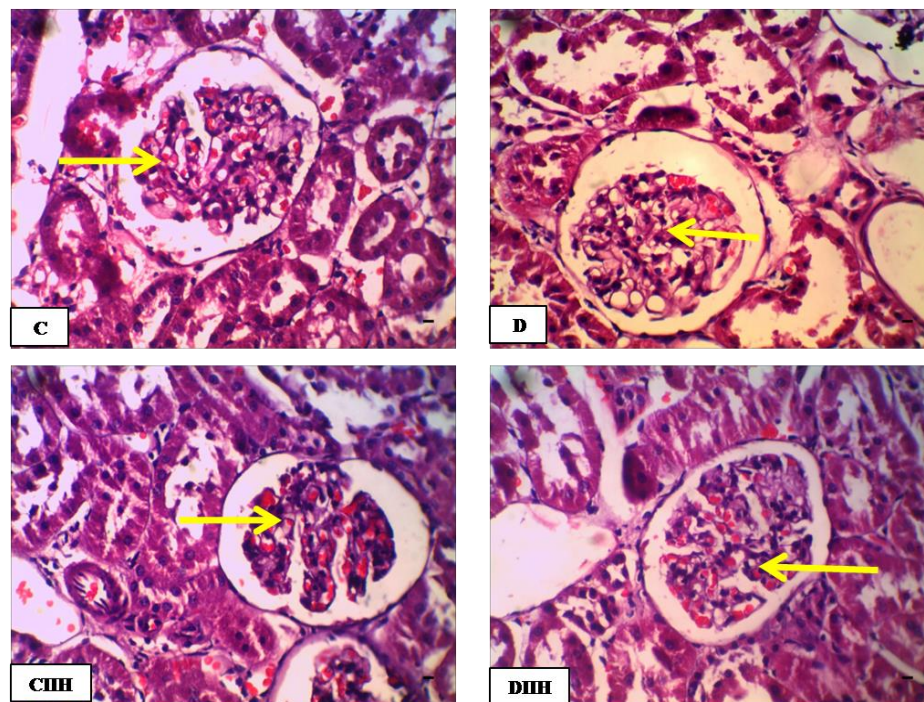


Figure 18: Mesangial cell expansion in glomerulus

C-Control rats, D-Diabetic rats, CIIH-Insulin induced hypoglycemia in control rats and DIIH-Insulin induced hypoglycemia in diabetic rats. \longrightarrow =Mesangial cell expansion in glomerulus.

Discussion

Mesangial cells are specialized pericytes located among the glomerular capillaries inside the glomerulus. The expansion of these cells is one of the characteristic of diabetic nephropathy.

These mesangial cells expand through cell proliferation via increased deposition of collagen, fibronectin and laminin. In diabetic nephropathy, renin-angiotensin system is activated in mesangial cells and angiotensin stimulates matrix growth through activation of Type-2 receptors, which secondarily up regulate growth factors (Abrass, 1995).

Glomerular hypertension causes mesangial cells to stretch which causes induced expression of GLUT1 leading to increased cellular glucose. The repetition of stretching of mesangial cells due to hypertension increases mesangial cell proliferation (Kawasaki et al, 2007).

During hypoglycemia, production of collagen, fibronectin and laminin is normal. Due to low blood glucose level hypertension does not occur in glomeruli. Hence, mesangial cell expansion does not occur.

4.6.3 Thickening of renal arteries

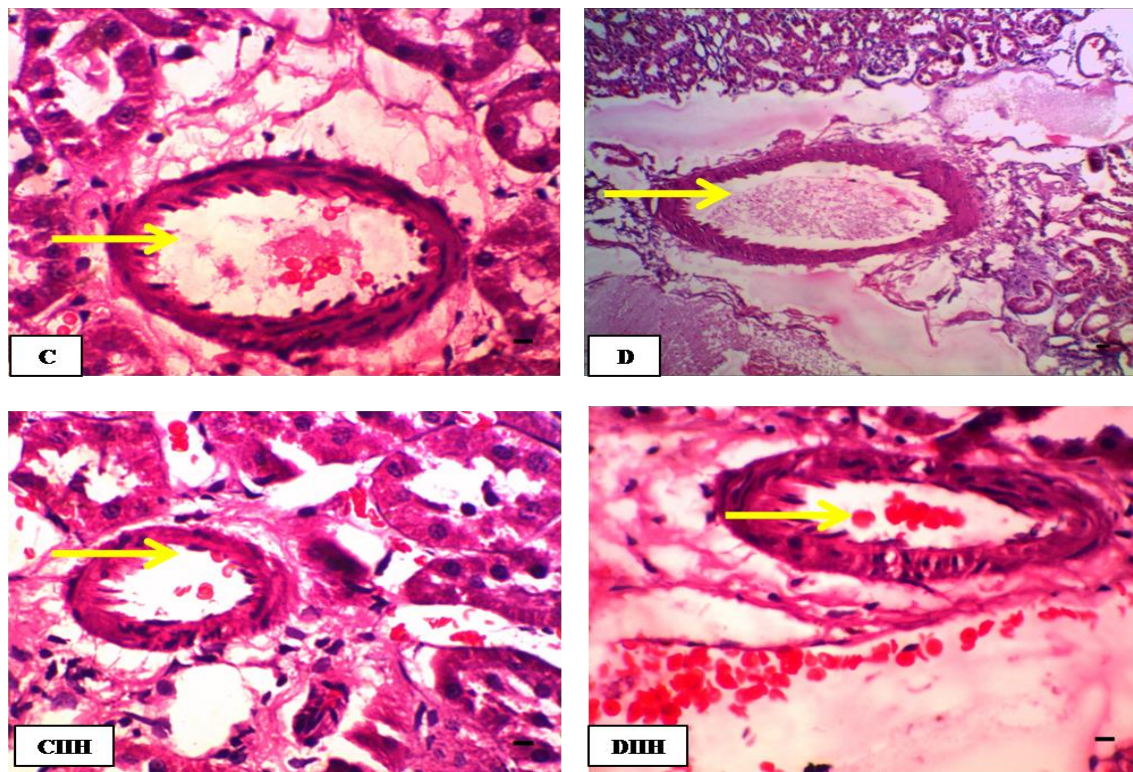
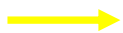


Figure 19: Thickening of renal arteries

C-Control rats, D-Diabetic rats, CIH-Insulin induced hypoglycemia in control rats and DIIH-Insulin induced hypoglycemia in diabetic rats.  =Thickening of renal arteries.

Discussion

Renal fibrosis is a characteristic of diabetic nephropathy. Eosinophilic deposition is an early sign of the renal fibrosis due to glycation of extra-cellular matrix and loosening of the balance of extracellular matrix protein synthesis and degradation. Various growth factors which are increased in diabetic nephropathy are responsible for the renal damage. Advanced glycation end products (AGEs) can induce renal damage by stimulation of growth factors through AGE receptors. In hypoglycemia (CIIH and DIIH), thickening of renal arteries does not occur (Abrass, 1995).

In hypoglycemia, due to low blood glucose levels AGEs formation does not takes place. So, renal damage cannot occur because AGEs are mainly responsible for the renal thickening. Thus, thickening of renal arteries does no takes place during hypoglycemia (Kawasaki et al, 2007).

4.6.4 PCT proliferation

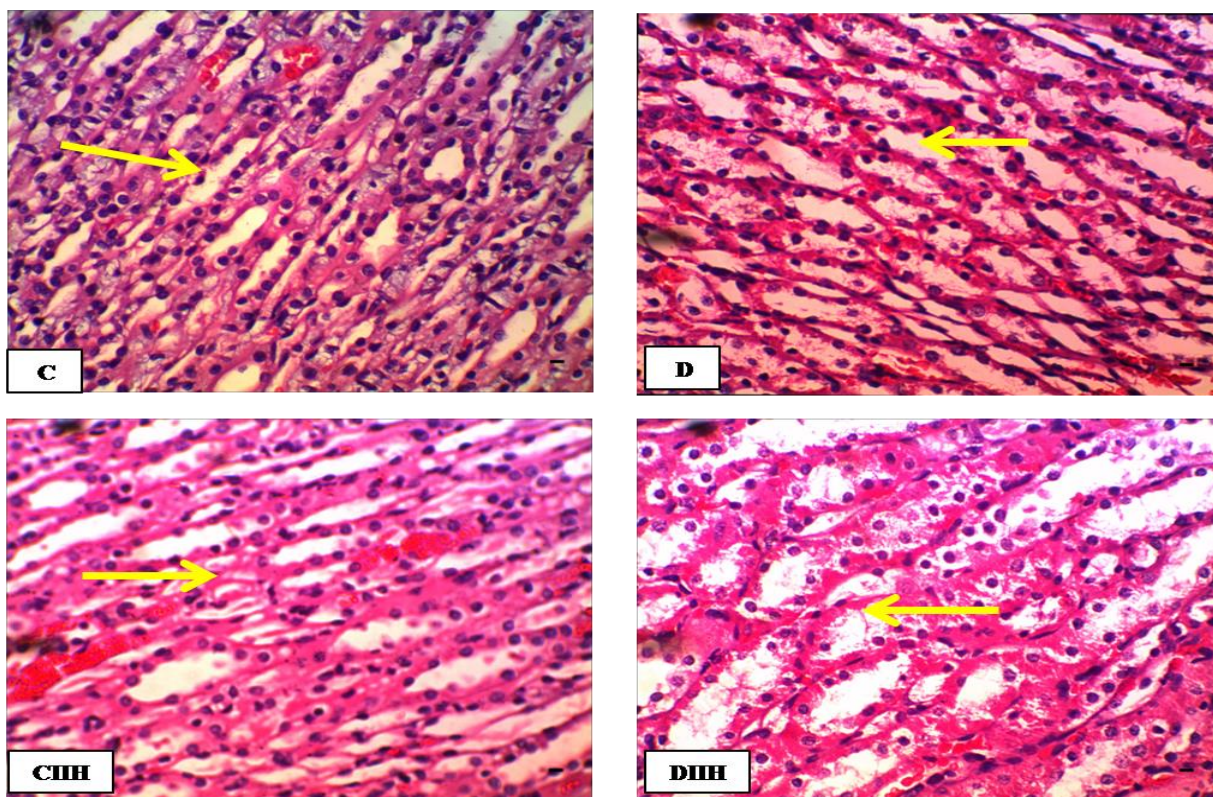



Figure 20: PCT proliferation

C-Control rats, D-Diabetic rats, CIIH-Insulin induced hypoglycemia in control rats and DIIH-Insulin induced hypoglycemia in diabetic rats.  =PCT proliferation

Discussion

Proximal convoluted tubule (PCT) is a portion of nephron, which is functional unit of kidney. It is the major site for reabsorption of glucose and ions. Glucose is co-transported with sodium ions into the proximal convoluted tubule walls via the SGL2 co-transporter. Numerous growth factors such as, insulin like growth factor-1 (IGF-1), platelet derived growth factor (PDGF), vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF) and epidermal growth factor (EGF) contribute to proliferation of cell (Abrass, 1995).

In hypoglycemia, blood glucose level is low. So, rate of glucose absorption in PCT is low compared to diabetic group. Therefore, proliferation of PCT is less than that in diabetes (Kawasaki et al, 2007).

4.7 Neurexin-1 gene expression

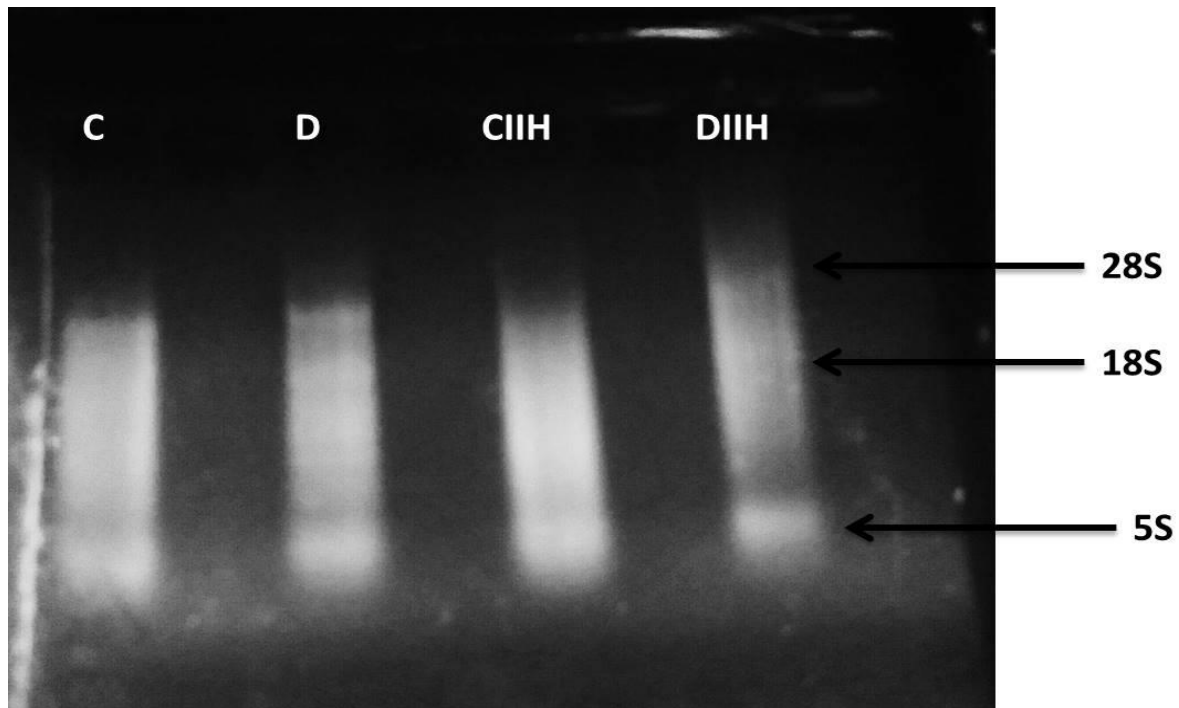


Figure 21: Total RNA Isolated from Kidney as expressed on an agarose gel

C-Control rats, D-Diabetic rats, CIH-Insulin induced hypoglycemic rats, DIH-Insulin induced diabetes hypoglycemic rats

Total RNA was isolated from the kidney of control and experimental group of rats using Tri reagent. Total RNA isolation from experimental rats was carried out and was checked on agarose gel to assess the integrity of RNA and then quantified using nanodrop.

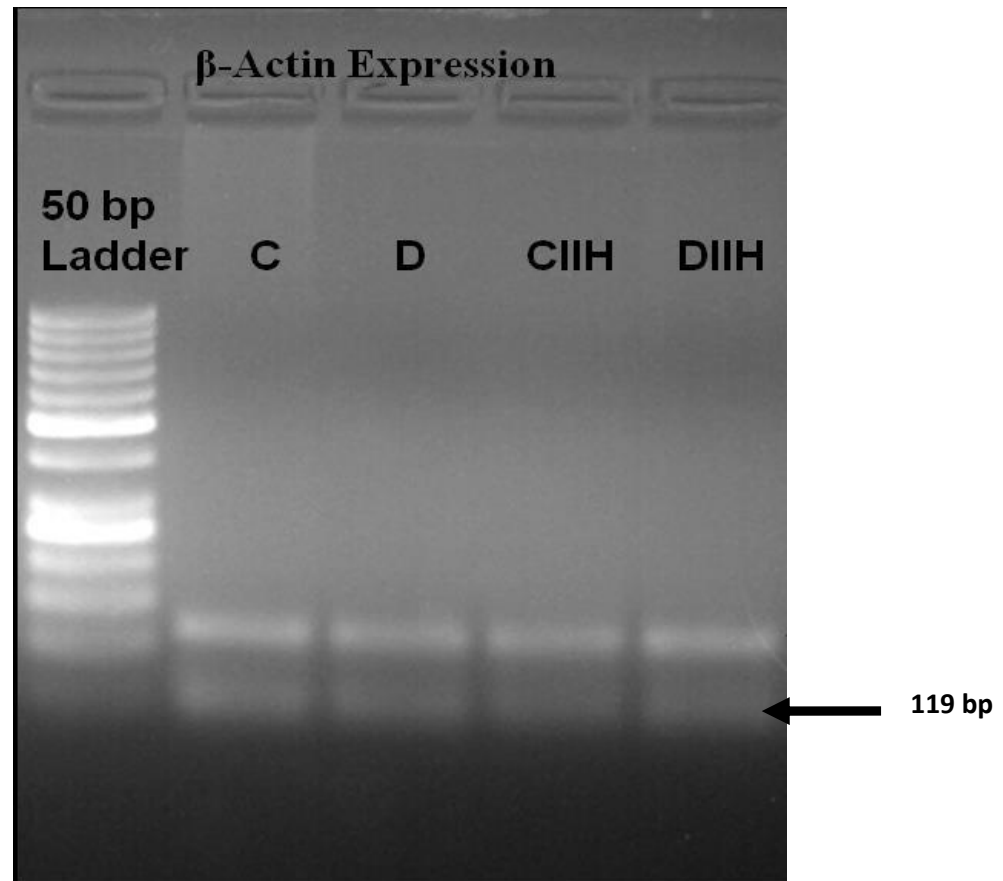


Figure 22: β-Actin expression in Kidney as expressed on an agarose gel
C-Control rats, D-Diabetic rats, CIH-Insulin induced hypoglycemia in control rats and DIIH-Insulin induced hypoglycemia in diabetic rats

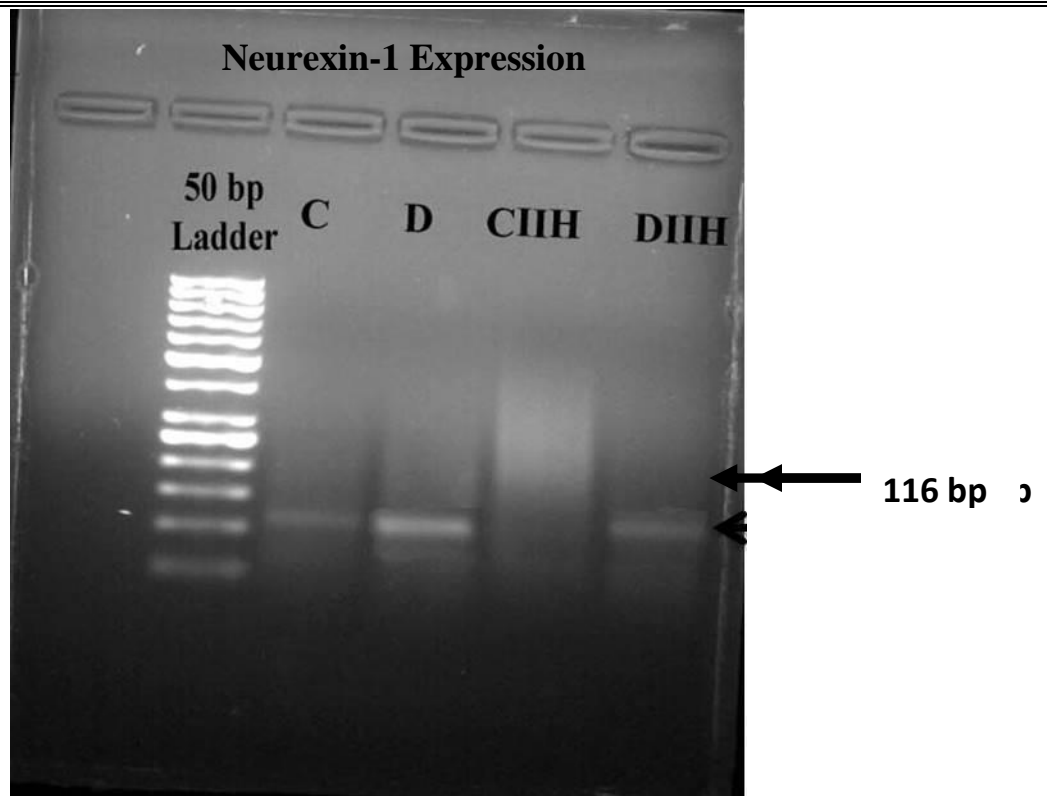


Figure 23: Neurexin-1 expression in Kidney as expressed on an agarose gel

The above results were obtained by performing PCR from RNA isolated from kidney of experimental rats. This experiment was performed only once hence, conclusion regarding Neurexin-1 expression cannot be drawn from the results obtained. For this, the experiment needs to be repeated.

4.8 Superoxide dismutase assay in spleen

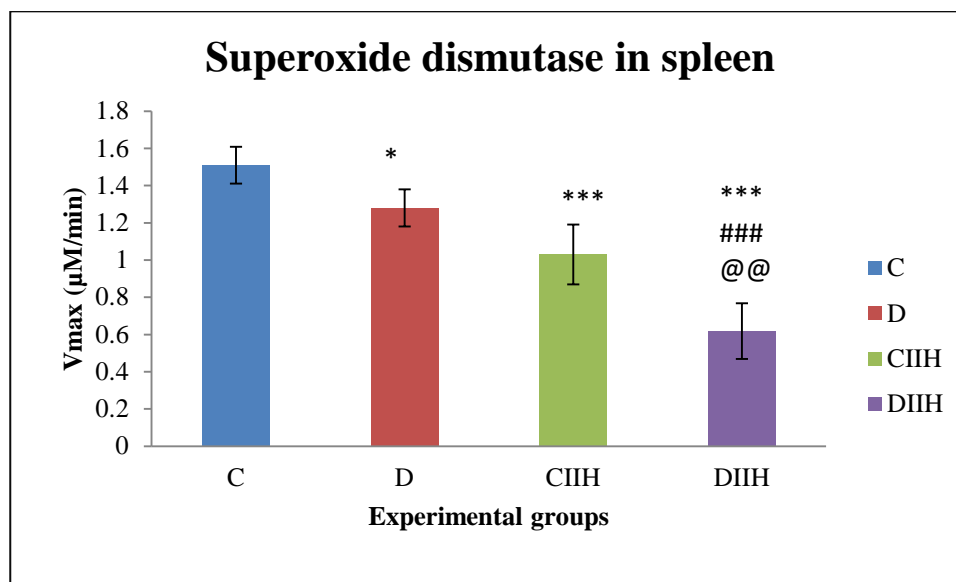


Figure 24: Superoxide dismutase assay in spleen

C-Control rats, D-Diabetic rats, CIIH-Insulin induced hypoglycemia in control rats and DIIH-Insulin induced hypoglycemia in diabetic rats. Values are mean \pm SD for 3 separate experiments (n=6 rats/group).

ANOVA followed by Student's Newman-Keul's Test

*P<0.05 when compared to C

###P<0.001 when compared to D

***P<0.001 when compared to C

@@P<0.01 when compared to CIIH

Discussion

During diabetes, high blood glucose levels affect the immune system of the body. Innate immune system, which is the first line of defense, gets affected during hyperglycemia. Spleen is the major component of the immune system. So we assessed the SOD activity from the spleen. During diabetes, glycated RBCs leads to alteration in free radical species alterations, which leads to the generation of oxidative stress. This leads to decrease in activity of superoxide dismutase activity.

SUMMARY

Diabetes is a complex disorder which results in various complications like, Nephropathy, Neuropathy and Retinopathy. During diabetes, high dose of insulin leads to progression of hypoglycemia. Single Intrafemoral dose of streptozotocin (50 mg/kg body weight) was administered to induce diabetes. Hypoglycemia was induced by giving daily two doses to rats subcutaneously in CIIH (1.5 IU/Kg) & DIIH (10 IU/Kg). Blood glucose, food-water & body weight measurement was done during the experimental days. Significant increase in blood glucose level of diabetic group compared to control group was observed ($P < 0.001$). Significant decrease in blood glucose level of CIIH and DIIH group in comparison to control was observed ($P < 0.001$). There was significant increase in food & water intake of diabetic group compared to control ($P < 0.001$). There was significant increase in food & water intake of CIIH & DIIH was observed compared to control. Significant decrease in body weight of diabetic group was observed compared to control ($P < 0.001$). Significant increase in body weight of CIIH & DIIH was observed compared to control group ($P < 0.01$). To study the effect of oxidative stress mediated damage in kidney, the activity of enzyme superoxide dismutase (SOD) was performed. Enzyme activity of SOD of diabetic group was low in comparison to control group ($P < 0.01$) Enzyme activity of SOD of CIIH & DIIH group was low in comparison to control ($P < 0.001$). To check the expression of NRXN-1 gene, total RNS was isolated from the kidney and converted to cDNA by reverse transcriptase assay and PCR was carried out to check the expression of Neurexin-1 gene expression.

References

- Akbarzadeh A, Norouzian D, Mehrabi MR, Jamshidi SH., Farhangi A. and Verdi A., "Induction of diabetes by streptozotocin in rats." *Indian Journal of Clinical Biochemistry*. (2003): 22, 60-64.
- Baynes, John W, and Suzanne R Thorpe. "Role of oxidative stress in diabetic complications." *Perspectives in Diabetes*. (2015):15; 1–10.
- Baynest, Habtamu Wondifraw. "Classification, Pathophysiologic, Diagnosis and Management of Diabetes." *Diabetes and Metabolism*. (2015): 6; 541-550.
- Beyer, Wayne F and Irwin Fridovich. "Assaying for Superoxide Dismutase Activity: Some Large Consequences of Minor Changes in Conditions." *Analytical Biochemistry*, (1987): 161;559-566.
- Briscoe, Vanessa J and Stephen N Davis. "Hypoglycemia in Type 1 and Type 2 Diabetes: Physiology, Pathophysiology, and Management." *Clinical diabetes* (2006): 24;115–121.
- Cryer, Philip E and P Belinda. "Negotiating the Barrier of Hypoglycemia in Diabetes. *Diabetes spectrum* (2008): 57;1-8.
- Cryer, Philip E. "Hypoglycemia in Type 1 Diabetes Mellitus." *Endocrinology and Metabolism Clinics of NA* (2010): 39; 641–654.
- Dean, Camin and Thomas Dresbach. "Neuroligins and Neurexins: Linking Cell Adhesion, Synapse Formation and Cognitive Function." *Trends in Neurosciences* (2006): 29; 21–29.
- Dronavalli, Suma, Irena Duka and George L Bakris. "The Pathogenesis of Diabetic Nephropathy." *Endocrinology and metabolism*4. (2008):4;444-452.
- Gerich, J E. "Review Article Role of the Kidney in Normal Glucose Homeostasis and in the Hyperglycemia of Diabetes Mellitus: Therapeutic Implications." *Endocrinology and metabolism* (2010): 27; 136–142.

Giannopolitis, Constantine N, and Stanley K Ries. "Superoxide Dismutases." *Perspective in toxicology* (1977): 59; 309–314.

Junod, Alain et al. "Diabetogenic Action of Streptozotocin: Relationship of Dose to Metabolic Response." *Journal of biochemistry* (1968): 48; 2129–2139.

Josephine M, Melinda T Coughlan and Mark E Cooper. "Oxidative Stress as a Major Culprit in Kidney Disease in Diabetes." *Perspective in diabetes*. (2008): 57;1446-1454.

King, George L and Mary R Loeken. "Hyperglycemia-Induced Oxidative Stress in Diabetic Complications." *Histochem cell biol* (2004):122,333–338.

Kobayashi, Naoto. "Mechanism of the Process Formation; Podocytes vs . Neurons." *Microscopic technique and research* (2002): 223;217–223.

Kanwar, Yashpal S et al. "Diabetic Nephropathy: Mechanisms of Renal Disease Progression." *Experimental Biology and Medicine* (2008):233;200-220.

Leung, Wilson K C et al. "Diabetic Nephropathy and Endothelial Dysfunction: Current and Future Therapies, and Emerging of Vascular Imaging for Preclinical Renal-Kinetic Study." *Life Sciences* (2016): 166,121–130.

Mahmoud A., Zuhair B.I., Khaled R.A, Sami A. and Mohamed K., "Induction of Diabetes Mellitus in Rats Using Intraperitoneal Streptozotocin: A Comparison between 2 Strains of Rats. *European Journal of Scientific Research*. (2009):32;398-402

Mate, J M. "Effects of Antioxidant Enzymes in the Molecular Control of Reactive Oxygen Species Toxicology." *Toxicology*. (2000): 153;83-104.

Munusamy, Shankar, and Lee Ann Macmillan-crow. "Free Radical Biology & Medicine Mitochondrial Superoxide Plays a Crucial Role in the Development of Mitochondrial Dysfunction during High Glucose Exposure in Rat Renal Proximal Tubular Cells." *Free Radical Biology and Medicine* (2009): 8; 1149–1157.

Mccrimmon, Rory J, and Robert S Sherwin. "Hypoglycemia in Type 1 Diabetes." *Perspective in diabetes* (2010): 59; 2333–2339.

Maritim, A C, R A Sanders, and J B Watkins Iii. "Diabetes, Oxidative Stress and Antioxidants : A Review." *Biochem, molecular biology and toxicology*. (2003): 17; 24-27.

Pamela K. Carmines "The Renal Vascular Response to Diabetes" -University of Nebraska College of Medicine, Omaha, Nebraska, USA Abstract." *Curr Opin Nephrol Hypertens*. (2010): 19;85–90.

Giacco, Ferdinando, and Michael Brownlee. "Oxidative Stress and Diabetic Complications," *Circulation research*, (2014): 107; 1058–1070.

Fujita, Hiroki et al. "Reduction of Renal Superoxide Dismutase in Progressive Diabetic Nephropathy." *Journal of the American Society of Nephrology* (2009): 20; 1303–1313.

Lee, Wen-chin, Chau-jong Wang and Huei-jane Lee. "Antioxidants in Decelerating Diabetic Nephropathy." *Type 1 diabetes*; (2013): 15; 387-399

Dwivedi and Sarkar- "Diabetic Nephropathy and Oxidative Stress" *Pharmacologyonline* (2010): 1; 812–815.