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DISCOVERING THOUGHTS AND INVENTING FUTURE

HIGHLIGHTS

Study of Cytological Pattern

Development of Animal Models

Polymorphism with breast cancer

Histopathological and Toxicological effects

The Blood Plasma

Volume 12

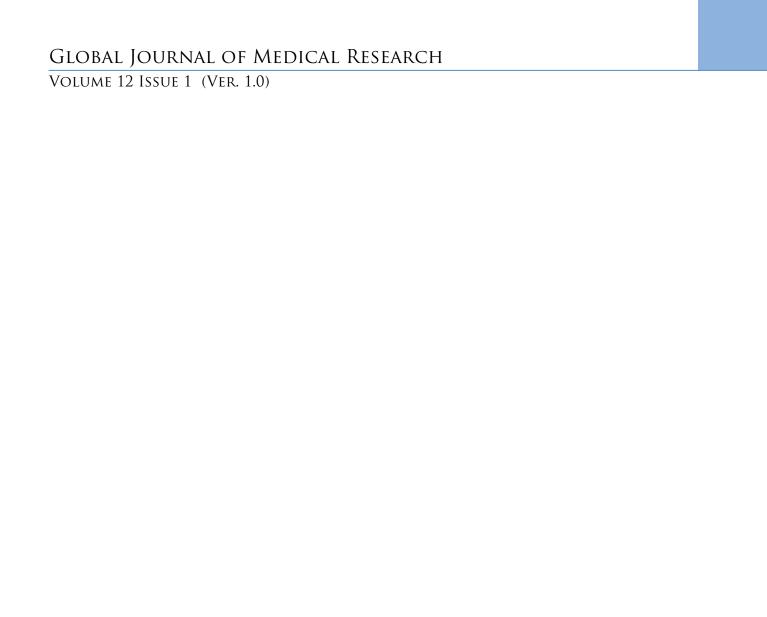
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Study of Cytological Pattern of Tubercular Lymphadenitis

By Dr. Narayanamurthy C, D r. Kodanda Swamy C R

Hawler Medical University

Abstract – Background: Fine needle aspiration cytology is a diagnostic tool in which cells are extracted from a palpable swelling using FNAC gun, syringe and fine needle. It is a simple, speedy, safe, cost effective and accurate technique being used worldwide. ^{1, 2} Lymphadenopathy is one of the common conditions encountered in clinical practice with varied etiological predispositions.³

Keywords: Cytological pattern, Lymphadenopathy, Tuberculosis and biopsy.

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Study of Cytological Pattern of Tubercular Lymphadenitis

Dr. Narayanamurthy C^α. Dr. Kodanda Swamy C R^σ

Abstract – Background: Fine needle aspiration cytology is a diagnostic tool in which cells are extracted from a palpable swelling using FNAC gun, syringe and fine needle. It is a simple, speedy, safe, cost effective and accurate technique being used worldwide. ^{1, 2} Lymphadenopathy is one of the common conditions encountered in clinical practice with varied etiological predispositions.³

Aim: To know the cytological pattern of tubercular lymphadenitis of this region and correlation with biopsy whenever possible. To evaluate the utility of fine needle aspiration cytology of lymph nodes.

Study Setting & Design: This proospective study was conducted at the department of Pathology, of a tertiary healthcare teaching center for a period of three years from October 2000 to January 2003.

Materials And Methods: 22 to 23 gauze needle with 10ml disposable syringes were used. Minimum of three stains Hematoxylin & Eosin (H & E) stain, MGG S stain and AFB stain were done. Wherever possible Gram stain was also done. The cytological diagnoses were correlated whenever possible with histopathological examination.

Statistical Analysis: The data entry was carried out using Microsoft Office Excel worksheet and was analyzed.

Results: Cytological diagnosis of tubercular lymphadenitis was made for 109 cases. The smears were divided into four groups.

- Epithelioid cell clusters with or without Langhan's giant cells with necrotic material.
- Epithelioid cell clusters with or without Langhan's giant cell, without necrosis.
- III. Occasional epithelioid cell collection without typical necrosis giant cells.
- IV. Only necrotic material, without epithelioid cell clusters or giant cells.

The positivity was 16.67%, 7.3%, 11.12% and 50 % for group I, II, III and IV respectively.

Conclusion: Fine needle aspiration cytology is an useful technique for evaluation of patients with lympahdneopathies, because of lack of complication and excellent results. The present study is relative sensitive and specific. Diagnostic accuracy can be further improved by studying the cytological pattern of the tuberculosis, immunocytochemical stains and analysis male number of cases along with histopathological correlation.

Keywords: Cytological pattern, Lymphadenopathy, Tuberculosis and biopsy.

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I. Introduction

ymphadenopathy is one of the common conditions encountered in clinical practice with varied etiological predispositions. It always poses dilemma for the clinician. Lymphadenopathy is one of the major causes of morbidity particularly in pediatric age group. Hence it is essential that a correct diagnosis is made as early as possible.

Fine needle aspiration cytology (FNAC) is a diagnostic tool in which cells are extracted from a palpable swelling using FNAC gun, syringe and fine needle. It is a simple, speedy, safe, cost effective and accurate technique being used worldwide. Fine needle aspiration studies is being increasingly used for evaluation of lymphadenopathy. Iymph node FNAC can be performed routinely as a first approach to lymohadenopathies. The clinical value of FNAC is not limited to neoplastic conditions, but also in diagnosis of inflammatory, infectious and degenerative conditions. In most cases architectural distortion is minimal or absent, if biopsy becomes necessary. With adequate cytological examination and fallow-up, a large number of biopsies can be avoided.

II. MATERIAL AND METHODS

Study Setting & Design: The present prospective study was carried out in the department of pathology, Sree Siddhartha Medical College, Tumkur from Oct 2000 to Jan 2003.

Sample Collection and Laboratory Testing: 22 to 23 gauze needle with 10ml disposable syringes were used. Minimum of three stains H&E stain, MGG S stain and AFB stain were done. Wherever possible Gram stain was also done. The cytological diagnoses were correlated whenever possible with histopathological examination.

Data Management and Statistical Analysis: The data entry was carried out using Microsoft Office Excel worksheet and analyzed.

Ethical considerations: The protocol for this study was approved from the Chairman, and the secretary, institutional ethical committee (IEC). The approval was on the agreement that patient anonymity must be maintained, good laboratory practice/ quality control ensured, and that every finding would be treated

with utmost confidentiality and for the purpose of this research only. All work was performed according to the international guidelines for human experimentation in biomedical research.

III. RESULTS

Cytological diagnosis of tubercular lymphadenitis was made 109 cases. The smears were divided into four groups.

- I. Epithelioid cell clusters with or without Langhan's giant cells with necrotic material.
- II. Epithelioid cell clusters with or without Langhan's giant cell, without necrosis.
- III. Occasional epithelioid cell collection without typical necrosis giant cells.
- IV. Only necrotic material, without epithelioid cell clusters or giant cells.

Groups I and II together amounting 65.13% of cases. The group-I consisted of 30 patients, group-II consisted of 41 patients. Group-III consisted of 18 patients while the remaining 20 patients belonged to group-IV.

AFB staining was done in all the cases. Group-I revealed AFB positively in 5 cases, group-II releaved AFB positively I 3 cases. Group-III releaved AFB positively in 2 cases, while the group-IV releaved AFB positively in 10 cases.

Biopsy correlation was possible in only 6 of group-1, 10 of the group-II, 4 of the group-III and 5 Of the group-1V.Amoung group-I, II, and IV all biopsies diagnosed as tubercular lymphadenitis on histopathological examination. In group-III, 2 cases were diagnosed as reactive lymphadenopathy and the remaining 2 cases as tubercular lymphadenitis.

IV. DISCUSSION

Tubercular lymphadenitis constituted commonest group of lymphadenipathies diagnosed by fine needle aspiration, numbering 109 patients (36.33%) out of 300 patients of lymphadenopathy.

The results of our study were in accordance with many studies (Table-XIV0i.e.,Raghuveer et al 39(35.26%),Bharadwaj K.et al17 (40.95%).Prasad 16(45.76%).But studied by Khan et al 48 and Das Gupta et al 17 conducted by Aligarh and Calcutta respectively showed high incidence of tuberculosis. This must be in accordance with incidence of tuberculosis in that area 17.

Cytological features of tubercular lymph node were divided in to 4 groups (table-1).ZN staining was done in all the cases.ZN staining done in group-1 consisted of 30 patients, revealed positive in 5 patients. Group-II (fig -1) consisted 0f 41 patients revealed AFB positivity in 3 patients. Group II consisted of 18 patients' revealed AFB positivity in 2 patients. Group-IV consisted

of 20 students revealed positivity in 10 patients.AFB positivity were maximum in the group with caseation only.(fig-2)

The result was in accordance with many studies 17, 35. For the bacilli to be demonstrated in the smears, their number should be between 10,000 to 1, 00,000 per ml of the material. If the number is less than this bacilli may be detected in the smears 19.the presence of AFB and its relation to immunological spectrum has been described by many authors. Lenzi and his colleagues (1977) proposed a point spectrum, at one pole were reactive cases showing a good cell mediated response, comparatively few bacteria and good response to treatment .At the other pole were unreactive cases, resembling leprematous leprosy in showing numerous organisms in the apparent absence of all cell mediated immune response49.study by meter et al and Das et al found that 64-66% and 77.4% AFB positivity rates respectively in smeares containing only necrotic material or pus. Biopsy correlation was possible in 25 patients. Which included 6 patients of group-I, 10 of Group-II.4 of Group-III and 5of Group-IV.Biopsy results of group I, II, and iv confirmed the cytological diagnosis. Whereas biopsy of group-iii turned out to be reactive lymphodenopathy in two patients and remained as tubercular lymphadenitis in other two patients. There were difficulties in arriving at a definitive diagnosis in certain cases of tubercular lymphadenitis, when the aspirate shows a polymorphous picture with occasional epithelioid cells and obsence of typical Langhan's giant cells or caseous necrosis, making it necessary to resort to excisional biopsy for definitive diagnosis. This is particularly true in children, in whom a similar picture may be seen in cases of reactive lymphadenopathy due to viral or toxoplasma infection. Since the mere presence of occasional epithelioid cells is not diagnostic of any specific condition 35.In the present study 18 cases faced such difficulty. AFB was positive in only 2 cases. On biopsy examination 2 cases turned out to be reactive lymphadenopathy.

v. Conclusion

Fine needle aspiration cytology is an useful patients technique for evaluation of with lympahdneopathies, because of lack of complication and excellent results. The present study is relative sensitive and specific. Diagnostic accuracy can be further improved by studying the cytological pattern of the tuberculosis, immunocytochemical stains and analysis male number of cases along with histopathological correlation.

Table 1: Incidence of various types of cytologic picture with acid fast bacillI (AFB) positivity in patients of tubercular lymphadenitis.

Group No.	Cytological features on aspirated smear	No. Of cases	%	No.of cases positive for AFB	% of positivity
I	Epi.Cell clusters+Langhan;s giant cells+necrosis	30	27.52	5	16.67
II	Epi.Cell clusters+Langhan;s giant cells-necrosis	41	37.61	3	7.3
III	Occasional epithelioid cells only	18	16.51	2	11.12
IV	Necrotic material pus only no epithelioid cells no giant cells	20	18.34	10	50

Table 2 : Cyto-histopathological correlation of tubercular lymphadenitis. Histopathological Diagnosis

Group. No.	No.of case in which biopsy done	Reactive lymphadenopathy	Tubercular lymphadenitis	Malignancy
[6	-	6	-
П	10	-	10	-
III	4	2	2	-
IV	5	-	5	-

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Evaluation of Immunosuppressive Regimens in Kidney Transplanted Patients in Iraq

By Dr. Hemen Faik Mohammad, Prof. Dr. Kassim Al-Shamma & Dr. Ansam Naji Al-Hassani

Hawler Medical University

Abstract – Immunosuppressive regimens with the fewest possible toxic effects are desirable for transplant recipients. This study evaluated the efficacy and relative toxic effects of three immunosuppressive regimens used after kidney transplantation in Kirkuk city. 52 kidney transplanted patients were enrolled in this study and categorized into three treatment groups. The group I patients received standard-dose of CsA, MMF in combinations with prednisolone, and the group II patients received low-dose CsA, Aza in combinations with prednisolone, while the group III patients received low-dose Tac, MMF in combinations with prednisolone. The primary efficacy end point was the renal function; secondary end points were incidence of serious adverse effects and the complication of immunosuppression therapy in transplanted recipient.

Abbreviations: CNI= Calcineurin inhibitor, CsA= Cyclosporine A, MMF= Mycophenolate mofetil, Aza= Azathioprine, Tac= Tacrolimus.

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Evaluation of Immunosuppressive Regimens in Kidney Transplanted Patients in Iraq

Dr. Hemen Faik Mohammad a, Prof. Dr. Kassim Al-Shamma & Dr. Ansam Naji Al-Hassani P

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Abbreviations: CNI= Calcineurin inhibitor, CsA= Cyclosporine A, MMF= Mycophenolate mofetil, Aza= Azathioprine, Tac= Tacrolimus.

I. INTRODUCTION

idney transplant is the treatment of choice in endstage renal disease (ESRD) patients, as it reduces morbidity and mortality rates and improves the quality of life (1). In the absence of the ideal immunosuppressive drug, maintenance immunosuppression is achieved with combinations of immunosuppressive agents at lower doses when the recipient requires less immunosuppression to prevent rejection (2). Standard protocols in use typically involve three immunosuppression drug groups each directed to a site in the T-cell activation or proliferation cascade which are the central to the rejection process: Calcineurin inhibitors (cyclosporine, tacrolimus), antiagents (azathioprine, mycophenolate proliferative mofetil) and steroids (prednisolone) (3). Calcineurin inhibitors (CNIs) are considered the mainstay of immunosuppression in renal transplantation. Cyclosporine A (CsA) and tacrolimus (Tac) are currently the most widely used baseline immunosuppressant for prevention of acute rejection following transplantation (4). Known adverse effects are similar for both calcineurin inhibitors, which are related to the concentration of the drug, the most prominent of which is nephrotoxicity (5, 6); much of this nephrotoxicity is mediated by impairment of renal hemodynamics (7). Tacrolimus has been associated with more diabetes and neurotoxic reactions, but with less hypertension, dyslipidaemia, hirsutism and gingival hyperplasia than cyclosporine (8, 9). Recent data suggest that calcineurin inhibitors may shorten graft half-life by their nephrotoxic effects (10). MMF is devoid of any diabetogenic, hyperlipidemic, or hypertensive effects (11). Leucopenia, anemia, and gastrointestinal side effects are common with MMF (12). Dose-limiting adverse effects of azathioprine are often hematologic. Leukopenia, anemia, and thrombocytopenia can occur within the first few weeks of therapy and can be managed by dose reduction or discontinuation of azathioprine (13). Corticosteroids have been an integral component of immunosuppressive regimens in renal transplantation for ≥ 50 vr. (14). Corticosteroids are associated with myriad complications. These include the development of obesity. hypertension. alucose intolerance.

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hyperlipidemia, osteoporosis, glaucoma, cataracts, myopathy, Cushingoid habitus, and neuropsychiatric complications after transplantation (15). These distinct adverse effect profiles may impact on individual patient compliance and quality of life differently (16). Therefore when using immunosuppressant agents in renal transplantation, achieving low rejection rates while minimizing long term toxicities (eg. nephrotoxicity and cardiovascular disease) associated with these agents is the primary goal (17).

II. SUBJECT AND METHODS

This retrospective study was carried out in Kirkuk governorate between the first of November 2010 to the end of May 2011. Patients were taken from the artificial Kidney Unit in Kirkuk General Hospital in Kirkuk. The study included 52 kidney transplanted patients (41 male and 11 female) with an age range from (17 to 60) year old 38.68 \pm 1.6 (mean \pm SE) were divided into three groups according to immunosuppression medication they received.

a) Group I (Standard-Dose Cyclosporine)

This group included thirty patients (26 male and 4 female) with an age range from 17 to 45 years (37.04 ± 2.1) who underwent kidney transplantation range from 2 months to 24 months (median 8 months) and were received: standard-dose of cyclosporine (microemulsion formulation), oral dose of 3 to 5 mg/kg, mean dose (214.42 ± 7.8) mg twice daily, mycophenolate mofetil at fixed doses (2g) per day and prednisolone in a mean dose (9.03 ± 0.66) mg per day in a single morning dose.

b) Group II (Low-Dose Cyclosporine)

This group included fifteen patients (10 male and 5 female) with an age range from 24 to 60 years (43.46 ± 3.2) who underwent kidney transplantation range from 2 years to 5 years (median 3 years) and were received: low-dose of cyclosporine (microemulsion formulation), oral dose of 1 to 2 mg /kg, mean dose (88.46 ± 6.08) mg twice daily, azathioprine at fixed doses (50mg) per day and prednisolone in a mean dose (5.7 ± 0.52) mg per day in a single morning dose.

Group III (Low-Dose Tacrolimus)

This group included seven patients (5 male and 2 female) with an age range from 28 to 46 years (32.6 \pm 2.1) who underwent kidney transplantation range from 12 months to 24 months (median 14 months) and were received: low- dose of tacrolimus, oral dose of 0.1 mg /kg, mean dose (6.25 \pm 0.69) mg twice daily, mycophenolate mofetil at fixed doses (2g) per day and prednisolone at fixed doses (10 mg) per day in a single morning dose.

d) Control Group

The control groups consist of 30 subjects. They were collected from medical staff and relatives who were free from signs and symptoms of renal disease, lipid disorders, diabetes mellitus and hypertension. 22 were males and 8 were females, and their ages ranged from 16 to 60 years (34.5 \pm 2.1).

Exclusive Criteria

The exclusion criteria included patients with:

- Nephrotic syndrome.
- Primary hyperlipidemia.
- Liver dysfunction resulting from hepatitis, biliary obstruction or cirrhosis.
- Severe hypertension
- Diabetic patients
- Gastrointestinal disorder
- Overdose of cyclosporine dosages.

f) Collection Of Samples

Five milliliters of venous blood were drawn from each fasting patient (8-12 hours fasting). Slow aspiration of the venous blood sample via the needle of syringe to prevent hemolysis with tourniquet applies 15cm above the cubital fossa. The samples were dropped into clean disposable tubes, left at room temperature for 30 minutes for clot formation and then centrifuged for 3 minutes at 3000 run per minute. The serum was separated and used for estimating renal function (urea, creatinine), lipid profile (total cholesterol, triglyceride, HDL-c, LDL-c), liver function (ALP, ALT, AST, total bilirubin and bilirubin direct), fasting blood glucose and electrolyte (Na and K) by Auto analyzer (Flexor- E). Similarly the blood samples were taken from the control group.

g) Statistical Analysis

All data are expressed as mean ± standard error means (M ± SEM) and statistical analysis was carried out using statistically available software (SPSS Version 18). Statistical analyses were carried out using independent sample t-test to compare between mean values of parameters. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used for comparing the mean of different parameters used for evaluation of treatments between the treated groups. P value < 0.05 was considered statistically significant.

RESULTS III.

a) Efficacy Measurements

i. Kidney function parameters

Significant elevations in the serum urea and serum creatinine were observed, whereas creatinine clearance (Ccl) had decreased significantly compared to the healthy controls in kidney transplanted patients treated with group I treatment regimen (standard-dose CsA/ MMF/ Pred.) measured for three consecutive months as shown in table 3-1.

Table 3-1 :

Parameter	at first month	at 2 nd month	at 3 rd month	Healthy control
Urea (mmol/L)	6.24 ± 0.39 *	6.37 ± 0.36 *	$6.24 \pm 0.34*$	3.96 ± 0.18
Creatinine (µmol/L)	130.50 ± 7.48*	134.67 ± 7.99*	135.54 ± 7.60 *	109.52 ± 3.40
Ccl (ml/min)	74.53 ± 4.47 *	$73.58 \pm 3.03*$	$71.69 \pm 2.63*$	91.53 ± 5.76

*P < 0.05 significant difference from the control

Table 3.2 shows the effect of group II treatment regimen (low – dose CsA/ Aza/ Pred.) on renal function parameters in kidney transplanted patients measured for three consecutive months. Significant elevation was

observed only in the serum urea value. Serum creatinine and creatinine clearance level showed no significant differences compared to the healthy controls.

Table 3-2 :

Parameter	at first month	at 2 nd month	at 3 rd month	Healthy control
Urea (mmol/L)	6.34 ± 0.36 *	6.38 ± 0.35 *	$6.56 \pm 0.39*$	3.96 ± 0.18
Creatinine $(\mu mol/L)$	119.62 ± 7.06	123.65 ± 9.97	125.32 ± 9.72	109.52 ± 3.40
Ccl (ml/min)	83.81 ± 3.54	83.04 ± 3.96	81.64 ± 3.30	91.53 ± 5.76

^{*} P < 0.05 significant difference from the control

Table 3.3 shows the effect of group III treatment regimen (low – dose Tac/ MMF/ Pred.) on renal function parameters in kidney transplanted patients measured for

three consecutive months. No significant changes were observed in the parameters measured.

Parameter	at first month	at 2 nd month	at 3 rd month	Healthy control
Urea (mmol/L)	4.30 ± 0.35	4.28 ± 0.19	4.22 ± 0.19	3.96 ± 0.18
Creatinine (µmol/L)	111.08 ± 2.92	112.43 ± 2.94	112.52 ± 2.99	109.52 ± 3.40
Ccl (ml/min)	88.92 ± 4.97	88.37 ± 4.24	88.23 ± 4.29	91.53 ± 5.76

Table 3-4 shows comparison between the effects of the three group's treatment regimen on renal function. There were significant differences between group I (standard-dose CsA) received patients and those on group III (low-dose Tac) at three months follow-up. The estimated serum urea and serum creatinine were significantly lower in the group III (low-dose Tac) than in group I (standard-dose CsA) and the estimated creatinine clearance was significantly higher in the group III (low-dose Tac) than in group I (standard-dose CsA). Whereas the changes where only significant in serum urea and not significant in serum creatinine and creatinine clearance between group II (low-dose CsA) received patients and those on group III (low-dose Tac).

Table 3-4:

Serum urea								
at first	month	P value	at 2 nd	month	P value	at 3 rd month		P value
Casua I	Group II	0.842 NS	Group I	Group 2	0.483 NS	Crown I	Group II	0.822 NS
Group I	Group III	0.040 S	-	Group III	0.004 S	Group I	Group III	0.005 S
Group II	Group III	0.037 S	Group II	Group III	0.002 S	Group II	Group III	0.003 S
Serum creatinine								
C I	Group II	0.255 NS	C I	Group II	0.252 NS	C I	Group II	0.260 NS
Group I	Group III	0.037 S	Group I	Group III	0.046 S	Group I	Group III	0.046 S
Group II	Group III	0.413 NS	Group II	Group III	0.586 NS	Group II	Group III	0.599 NS
			Crea	tinine clear	ance			
C I	Group II	0.147 NS	C I	Group II	0.108 NS	C I	Group II	0.142 NS
Group I	Group III	0.027 S	Group I	Group III	0.015 S	Group I	Group III	0.019 S
Group II	Group III	0.525 NS	Group II	Group III	0.499 NS	Group II	Group III	0.502 NS

S: significant NS: no significant (P<0.05 for the comparisons between groups)

b) Safety Results

i. Effect of treatment groups on lipid profile

Table 3.5 shows the effect of group I treatment regimen (standard-dose CsA/ MMF/ Pred.) on lipid profile in kidney transplanted patients measured for three consecutive months. Both total cholesterol and

triglyceride showed significant elevations compare to healthy control. However there were no significant changes in both serums HDL-c and LDL-c values in patients compared to the healthy control.

Table 3-5 :

Serum lipid	at first month	at 2 nd month	at 3 rd month	Healthy control
T. Cholesterol	5.15 ± 0.25*	5.47 ± 0.27*	$5.52 ~\pm~ 0.28*$	4.34 ± 0.13
Triglyceride (mmol/L)	2.17 ± 0.21*	2.29 ± 0.24*	2.31 ± 0.23*	1.33 ± 0.13
HDL-c (mmol/L)	1.13 ± 0.08	1.12 ± 0.07	$1.14 \hspace{1mm} \pm \hspace{1mm} 0.08$	0.97 ± 0.03
LDL-c (mmol/L)	3.46 ± 0.25	3.22 ± 0.27	$3.46 ~\pm~ 0.26$	2.87 ± 0.16

*P < 0.05 significant difference from the control

Table 3-6 shows the effect of group II treatment regimen (low – dose CsA/ Aza/ Pred.) on lipid profile in kidney transplanted patients measured for three consecutive months. Both cholesterol and triglyceride showed significant elevations compare to healthy control. However there were no significant changes in both serums HDL-c and LDL-c value in patients compared to the control.

Table 3-6:

Serum lipid	at first month	at 2 nd month	at 3 rd month	Healthy control
T. Cholesterol	5.31 ± 0.32*	5.20 ± 0.31*	5.17 ± 0.26*	4.34 ± 0.13
Triglyceride (mmol/L)	2.55 ± 0.36 *	2.50 ± 0.35 *	2.57 ± 0.35 *	1.33 ± 0.13
HDL-c (mmol/L)	1.16 ± 0.11	1.10 ± 0.08	1.10 ± 0.08	0.97 ± 0.03
LDL-c (mmol/L)	3.08 ± 0.24	3.37 ± 0.39	3.37 ± 0.39	2.87 ± 0.16

^{*} P < 0.05 significant difference from the control

Table 3.7 shows the effect of group III treatment regimen (low – dose Tac/ MMF/ Pred.) on lipid profile in kidney transplanted patients measured for three consecutive months. No significant differences were

observed in all values of total cholesterol, triglyceride, HDL-c, and LDL-c of the patients at all intervals compared to healthy controls.

Table 3-7 :

Serum lipid	at first month	at 2 nd month	at 3 rd month	Healthy control
T. Cholesterol	4.48 ± 0.31	4.51 ± 0.27	4.46 ± 0.27	4.34 ± 0.13
Triglyceride	1.51 ± 0.22	1.58 ± 0.27	1.53 ± 0.28	1.33 ± 0.13
HDL-c (mmol/L)	0.84 ± 0.13	0.90 ± 0.11	0.90 ± 0.11	0.97 ± 0.03
LDL-c (mmol/L)	2.71 ± 0.23	2.97 ± 0.21	2.97 ± 0.21	2.87 ± 0.16

Table 3-8 shows comparison between the effects of the three group's treatment regimen on lipid profile. There were significant differences in serum total cholesterol and triglyceride between groups I (standard-dose CsA) and group II (low-dose CsA) received patients and those on group III (low-dose Tac) at three months follow- up. The estimated serum total cholesterol and serum triglyceride were significantly lower in the group III (low-dose Tac) than in other two groups. Whereas no significant changes in serum total cholesterol and triglyceride were observed between group I (standard-dose CsA) received patients and those on group II (low-dose CsA). Also no significant changes were observed in serum HDL-c and serum LDL-c among all groups treatment regimen.

Table 3-8:

	Total Cholesterol								
at first	month	P value	at 2 nd	month	P	at 3 rd month		P value	
Group I	Group II	0.533 NS	Group I	Group II	0.483 NS	Group I	Group II	0.822 NS	
•	Group III	0.005 S	•	Group III	0.004 S	•	Group III	0.005 S	
Group II	Group III	0.046 S	Group II	Group III	0.02 S	Group II	Group III	0.03 S	
Triglyceride									
Group I	Group II	0.556 NS	Group I	Group II	0.552 NS	Group I	Group II	0.550 NS	
•	Group III	0.030 S	•	Group III	0.047 S	•	Group III	0.034 S	
Group II	Group III	0.014 S	Group II	Group III	0.022 S	Group II	Group III	0.016 S	
				HDL-c					
Group I	Group II	0.796 NS	Group I	Group II	0.668 NS	Group I	Group II	0.642 NS	
•	Group III	0.111 NS	•	Group III	0.142 NS	•	Group III	0.122 NS	
Group II	Group III	0.218 NS	Group II	Group III	0.284 NS	Group II	Group III	0.240 NS	
				LDL-c					
G . I	Group II	0.817 NS	Group I	Group II	0.782 NS	Group I	Group II	0.689 NS	
Group I	Group III	0.295 NS	F 1	Group III	0.215 NS		Group III	0.245 NS	
Group II	Group III	0.445 NS	Group II	Group III	0.435 NS	Group II	Group III	0.489 NS	

S: significant NS: no significant (P<0.05 for the comparisons between groups)

ii. Effect Of Treatment Groups On Liver Function
Table 3.9 shows serum liver function
parameters in kidney transplanted patients treated with
group I treatment regimen (standard-dose CsA/ MMF/
Pred.) for three consecutive months. No significant
differences were observed in the serum values of ALP,
ALT and AST of the patients at all intervals compared to

the healthy controls. Total bilirubin values were significantly increased compare to the healthy control, this increases in the total bilirubin value properly came from the indirect bilirubin values which were also increases compare to the healthy control. However the direct bilirubin values were not significantly changed.

Table 3-9:

Parameter	at first month	at 2 nd month	at 3 rd month	Healthy control
ALP (U/L)	240.03 ± 11.96	239.23 ± 11.30	240.19 ± 12.42	206.52 ± 12.97
ALT (U/L)	24.83 ± 2.64	23.71 ± 1.83	24.71 ± 1.83	19.90 ± 1.52
AST (U/L)	20.85 ± 1.25	20.76 ± 1.51	21.41 ± 1.51	19.76 ± 0.69
T. Bilirubin (umol/L)	16.39 ± 1.25*	16.31 ± 1.15*	16.06 ± 1.11*	12.57 ± 1.10
Bilirubin(direct) (umol/L)	10.29 ± 0.87	10.08 ± 0.70	9.91 ± 0.69	8.50 ± 0.72
Bilirubin(indirect) (umol/L)	$6.10 \pm 0.82^*$	6.23 ± 0.62 *	6.15 ± 0.58 *	4.07 ± 0.53

^{*}P < 0.05 significant difference from the control

Table 3.10 shows the effect of group II treatment regimen (low – dose CsA/ Aza/ Pred.) on serum liver function parameter in kidney transplanted patients measured for three consecutive months. No significant differences were observed in the values of serum ALP, ALT and AST of the patients at all intervals compare to the healthy controls. Total bilirubin values

were significantly increased compare to the healthy control, this increases in the total bilirubin value properly came from the indirect bilirubin values which were also increases significantly compare to the healthy control. However the direct bilirubin values were not significantly changed.

Table 3-10 :

Parameter	at first month	at 2 nd month	at 3 rd month	Healthy control
ALP (U/L)	221.53 ± 15.49	218.86 ± 15.09	229.91 ± 15.60	206.52 ± 12.97
ALT (U/L)	21.66 ± 1.10	20.53 ± 1.15	21.40 ± 1.19	19.90 ± 1.52
\mathbf{AST} (U/L)	20.45 ± 1.23	21.10 ± 1.33	20.65 ± 1.46	19.76 ± 0.69
T. Bilirubin (μmol/L)	16.40 ± 1.76 *	16.94 ± 1.81*	16.77 ± 1.79*	12.57 ± 1.10
Bilirubin (direct) (μmol/L)	8.98 ± 0.71	9.15 ± 0.71	9.15 ± 0.69	8.50 ± 0.72
Bilirubin(indirect) (umol/L)	7.42 ± 0.54 *	7.79 ± 0.49*	7.62 ± 0.58 *	4.07 ± 0.53

^{*} P < 0.05 significant difference from the control

Table3.11 shows the effect of group III treatment regimen (low – dose Tac/ MMF/ Pred.) on serum ALP, serum ALT, serum AST and total bilirubin (direct & indirect) in kidney transplanted patients measured for three consecutive months. No significant differences were observed in the values of serum ALP,

serum ALT and serum AST of the patients at all intervals compare to the healthy controls. And no significant differences were observed in the values of total bilirubin, bilirubin direct and bilirubin indirect of the patients at all intervals compare to the healthy controls.

Table 3-11:

Parameter	at first month	at 2 nd month	at 3 rd month	Healthy control
ALP (U/L)	224.62 ± 13.76	226.87 ± 14.03	228.81 ± 14.03	206.52 ± 12.97
ALT (U/L)	20.09 ± 3.56	23.50 ± 2.32	22.50 ± 3.12	19.90 ± 1.52
AST (U/L)	19.79 ± 2.24	20.23 ± 4.15	20.75 ± 4.15	19.76 ± 0.69
T. Bilirubin (µmol/L)	15.44 ± 1.94	15.95 ± 2.31	15.66 ± 1.99	12.57 ± 1.10
Bilirubin (direct) (µmol/L)	9.58 ± 1.81	10.72 ± 1.63	10.40 ± 1.53	8.50 ± 0.72
Bilirubin(indirect) (umol/L)	5.86 ± 0.78	5.23 ± 1.46	5.26 ± 0.84	4.07 ± 0.53

Table 3-12 shows comparison between the effects of the three group's treatment regimen on liver function. There were no significant differences in serum ALP, ALT, AST and total bilirubin among all groups treatment regimen at the three months follow- up.

Table 3-12:

Serum alkaline phosphatase									
at first				, and		P value at 3 rd month			
Group I	Group II	0.264 NS	Group I	Group II	0.283 NS	Group I	Group II	0.222 NS	
Group 1	Group III	0.405 NS	•	Group III	0.414 NS	Group I	Group III	0.425 NS	
Group II	Group III	0.929 NS	Group II	Group III	0.922 NS	Group II	Group III	0.931 NS	
	Serum alanine aminotransferase								
C I	Group II	0.203 NS	C I	Group II	0.252 NS	C I	Group II	0.250 NS	
Group I	Group III	0.708 NS	Group I	Group III	0.747 NS	Group I	Group III	0.734 NS	
Group II	Group III	0.652 NS	Group II	Group III	0.622 NS	Group II	Group III	0.616 NS	
		Se	erum aspar	tate aminot	transfera	se			
C I	Group II	0.829 NS	C I	Group II	0.848 NS	C I	Group II	0.842 NS	
Group I	Group III	0.969 NS	Group I	Group III	0.942 NS	Group I	Group III	0.922 NS	
Group II	Group III	0.920 NS	Group II	Group III	0.984 NS	Group II	Group III	0.940 NS	
	Serum total bilirubin								
	Group II	0.804 NS	Group I	Group II	0.812 NS	Group I	Group II	0.789 NS	
Group I	Group III	0.783 NS	Gloup 1	Group III	0.715 NS	Group 1	Group III	0.745 NS	
Group II	Group III	0.604 NS	Group II	Group III	0.635 NS	Group II	Group III	0.689 NS	

S: significant NS: no significant (P<0.05 for the comparison between groups)

iii. Effect Of Treatment Groups On Fasting Blood Glucose

Table 3.13 shows fasting blood glucose in kidney transplanted patients treated with different groups treatment regimen measured for three consecutive months. No significant differences were observed in the serum fasting glucose of the patients at

all intervals compared to the healthy control. And when comparing among the three treatment groups there were no significant differences in serum fasting glucose among the groups treatment at three months follow- up (Table 3-14).

Table 3-13:

Glucose	at first month	at 2 nd month	at 3 rd month	Healthy control	
Group I $n = 30$	5.32 ± 0.23	5.31 ± 0.27	$5.30~\pm~0.27$		
Group II n = 15	5.66 ± 0.49	5.77 ± 0.70	$5.92 ~\pm~ 0.68$	4.80 ± 0.19	
Group III n = 7	4.86 ± 0.27	5.02 ± 0.51	$5.10~\pm~0.50$		

Table 3-14:

Serum fasting glucose									
at first	month	P value	at 2 nd	month	P value	at 3 rd	month	P value	
Correct	Group II	0.400 NS	Group I	Group II	0.388 NS	Group I	Group II	0.398 NS	
Group I	Group III	0.567 NS	1	Group III	0.514 NS		Group III	0.522 NS	
Group II	Group III	0.182 NS	Group II	Group III	0.122 NS	Group II	Group III	0.131 NS	

S: significant NS: no significant (P<0.05 for the comparisons between groups)

iv. Effect Of Treatment Groups On Serum Electrolyte (Na, K)

Table 3.15 shows serum electrolyte (Na, K) in kidney transplanted patients treated with different groups treatment regimen measured for three consecutive months. No significant differences were

observed in the serum electrolyte (Na, K), of the patients at all intervals compared to the healthy controls in all groups. Also when comparing among the three treatment groups there were no significant differences in serum electrolyte (Na, K) among the groups treatment at three months follow-up (Table 3-16) .

Table 3-15:

Ir.	_	_	_		
Na (mmol/L)	at first month	at 2 nd month	at 3 rd month	Healthy control	
Group I n = 30	139.84 ± 0.52	139.74 ± 0.59	139.85 ± 0.61		
Group II n = 15	· 140.00 ± 0.00 1		140.90 ± 0.61	139.36 ± 0.43	
Group III n = 7	139.75 ± 1.65	139.60 ± 1.55	139.70 ± 1.65		
K (mmol/L)					
Group I n = 30	4.37 ± 0.10	4.36 ± 0.07	4.40 ± 0.07		
Group II n = 15	4.37 ± 0.12	4.48 ± 0.09	4.44 ± 0.09	4.32 ± 0.11	
Group III n = 7	4.33 ± 0.23	4.36 ± 0.17	4.36 ± 0.22		

Table 3-16:

Serum Na								
at first	month	h P value at 2 nd month		P value	at 3 rd month		P value	
Group I	Group II	0.139 NS	Group I	Group II	0.183 NS	Group I	Group II	0.122 NS
спостр т	Group III	0.997 NS		Group	0.914 NS	Group 1	Group	0.925 NS
Group II	Group III	0.389 NS	Group II	Group III	0.322 NS	Group	Group III	0.331 NS
			S	Serum K				
Croup I	Group II	0.410 NS	Croup I	Group II	0.452 NS	Croup	Group II	0.450 NS
Group I	Group III	0.968 NS	Group I	Group	0.947 NS	Group I	Group	0.934 NS
Group II	Group III	0.600 NS	Group II	Group III	0.622 NS	Group II	Group III	0.616 NS

S: significant NS: no significant (P<0.05 for the comparisons between groups)

v. Adverse Effects Of Treatment Groups Observed In Kidney Transplanted Patients

It is obvious from the below table that the group I treatment regimen (standard-dose CsA/ MMF/ Pred.) had the greatest incidence adverse effects including: (83%) of patients had hypertension, (26%) had tremors, (23%) had gastrointestinal upset, (43%) had hirsutism, and (16 %) had gum hyperplasia. While the group II treatment regimen (low – dose CsA/ Aza/ Pred.) had a

similar percent of adverse effect regarding hypertension and tremor (80% and 20%) respectively and lower percent of adverse effects regarding hirsutism (33%), Gl upset(13%) and gum hyperplasia (13%). However group III treatment regimen (low – dose Tac/ MMF/ Pred.) had the lowest adverse effects with hypertension (71%), tremor (42%) and Gl upset (28%) with no other adverse effects.

Table 3-17: Adverse effects associated with different group's treatment in kidney transplanted patients.

Adverse Effects	Group I (n =30)		Group II(n =5)		Group III (n =7)	
Adverse Ellects	No.	(%)	No.	(%)	No.	(%)
Hypertension	25	83%	12	80%	5	71%
Tremor	8	26%	3	20%	3	42%
Gl upset	7	23%	2	13%	2	28 %
Hirsutism	13	43%	5	33%	0	
Gum hyperplasia	5	16 %	2	13%	0	

IV. DISCUSSION

The primary efficacy end point in this study was renal function. Therefore standard analysis such as serum urea, serum creatinine and creatinine clearance measurement are used to monitor the renal function that changes only after significant kidney injury (18). The glomerular filtration rate (GFR), the underlying indicator of renal function, is inversely proportional to the concentration of creatinine in plasma (19). Creatinine clearance gives an acceptable estimate of the glomerular filtration rate. The most widely used equations for calculation creatinine clearance are the Cockcroft-Gault equations (20).

On the basis of our results and literature review it was shown that nephrotoxicity (functional changes) induced by calcineurin inhibitor drug (CsA) is characterized by dose-dependent functional changes of the kidney function, which are reversible with a decrease in the dose or drug withdrawal (21, 22, 23, 24, 25).

In this study, table 3.1 showed the effects of group I treatment regimen (standard-dose CsA/ MMF/ Pred.) on renal function in thirty kidney transplanted patients. There were significant increases in serum urea, serum creatinine and significant decreased in creatinine clearance level when compared to the healthy control for three month consecutively. These results are in agreement with results of other studies conducted by Van Buren et al., 1994 (26); Lassila, 2000 (27); puigmule et al., 2009 (18) who found that there were a significant increases in serum urea and serum creatinine, and a significant decreases in creatinine clearance after standard doses of cyclosporine administered in kidney transplanted patients. Since MMF has favorable safety profile and not adversely affect kidney function (28, 29). Therefore we suggested that the standard doses of cyclosporine causes significant changes in renal function (30).

Table 3.2 showed the effects of group II treatment regimen (low-dose CsA/ Aza/ Pred.) on renal function in fifteen kidney transplanted patients. Serum urea was only significantly increased, and serum creatinine and creatinine clearance level were slightly increased and decreased respectively compared to the healthy control for three consecutive months (not significant). These results are in agreement with the results of other studies conducted by Wissmann et al., 1996 (22); Moroni, et al, 2006 (31); Bobadilla and Gamba, 2007 (32) who found that the cyclosporine nephrotoxicity is dose -dependent and the low doses of cyclosporine did not significantly changes renal function. Therefore we suggest that to find a significant association between CsA and changes in renal function may depend on the dosage used in the regimen. The explanation for the only significant increase in serum urea in this group is probably that, serum urea concentration may increase out of proportion with a change in serum creatinine (33), and the rate of urea production is not constant, urea can be grossly modified by a high protein intake, critical illness (i.e. sepsis, burns, and trauma), or drug therapy such as use of corticosteroids or tetracycline, and the rate of renal clearance of urea is also not constant, an estimated 40-50% of filtered urea is passively reabsorbed by proximal renal tubular cells (33).

Table 3.3 showed the effects of group III treatment regimen (low dose Tac/ MMF/ Pred.) on renal function in seven kidney transplanted patients. No significant increases in serum urea & serum creatinine, and no significant decreased in creatinine clearance level were observed when compared to healthy control for three consecutive months. These results are in agreement with the results of other studies conducted by Artz et al., 2003 (34); Kramer et al., 2005 (4); Naesens et al., 2009 (35) who found less calcineurin-

inhibitor nephrotoxicity with the use tacrolimus in kidney transplanted patients. This may reflect a lower nephrotoxicity of tacrolimus-based immunosuppressive regimens and also may reflect a lower immunologic damage of the graft (36).

When comparing renal function as efficacy end point among the three groups treatment regimen. The mean calculated serum urea and serum creatinine during study were significantly lower in patients receiving low-dose tacrolimus (4.26mmol/L, 112.01µmol/L for urea and creatinine respectively) than in patients receiving standard-dose cyclosporine (6.28 133.57µmol/L for urea and creatinine respectively). The mean calculated creatinine clearance was significantly higher in patients receiving low-dose tacrolimus (88.50 ml/min) than in patients receiving standard-dose cyclosporine (73.26 ml/min). Whereas there were no significant differences in serum creatinine and creatinine clearance in patients receiving group III (low-dose tacrolimus) and those receiving group II (lowdose cyclosporine). Therefore the reduced doses of cyclosporine improve renal function, and low-dose tacrolimus based regimen provided better renal function when compared with standard-dose cyclosporine based regimens as shown in (Table 3-4). The results of this study is in agreement with other studies Jurewicz, 2003 (37); Ekberg et al., 2007 (30); Bobadilla and Gamba, 2007 (32) who found improvement in renal function with reducing cyclosporine dosage, and the uses of lowdose tacrolimus based regimens in kidney transplanted patients had advantageous for renal function than standard-dose of cyclosporine based regimen.

The causes of post transplant dyslipidemia include increased nutrient intake after transplantation (38), and adverse effects of steroids or cyclosporine used for immunosuppression (39, 40, 41).

In this study, Table 3.5 and Table 3-6, there were mild significant elevations of plasma total cholesterol and triglyceride concentrations compared to healthy control. This results is in agreement with other studies conducted by Ilgenli et al., 1999 (42); Vaziri et al., 2000 (43); Ichimaru et al., 2001 (39); Abramowicz et al.,2005 (28); Hami et al., 2010 (44) who revealed that long-term administrations of CsA and steroid were significantly raise plasma total cholesterol and triglyceride concentrations in renal transplanted patients. This reported changes in serum lipids has been found to be related with the mechanism of CsA adverse effects, since neither azathioprine (45) nor mycophenolate mofetil (28, 46) and corticosteroids (in daily dose of 12.5 mg or less) (42) are known to be associated with changes of serum lipid profile. Although the mechanism of calcineurin inhibitor induced hyperlipidemia is not well understood. Calcineurin inhibitors may decrease the activity of lipoprotein lipase (47). Hypercholesterolemia may be due to down_regulation of enzyme cholesterol 7α -hydroxylase. This enzyme is the rate-limiting step in cholesterol conversion to bile acid, which is the principal pathway of cholesterol catabolism (43).Hypertriglyceridemia may be due to lipoprotein lipase triglyceride hydrolase deficiency Corticosteroids causes decrease in lipoprotein lipase activity, as well as excessive triglyceride production. But a daily dose of 12.5 mg or less of corticosteroid as in patients in this study has only a minimal effect on cholesterol (42). Also both serum (HDL-c) and (LDL-c) in both groups I & II treatment regimens were slightly increases but not significantly compared to control healthy individual. This finding has been reported only in study of Vaziri et al., 2000 (43) who revealed that the hepatic LDL receptor (play an important role in LDL metabolism) and HDL receptor (which facilitates transport of cholesterol esters from HDL to hepatocytes) expressions were not altered by CsA therapy.

Table 3.7 showed the effects of group III treatment regimen on lipid profile. No significant changes were observed on lipid profile when compared to healthy control, since the tacrolimus have less potential to induce hyperlipidemia than cyclosporine (48). These results are in agreement with other studies conducted by Pirsch et al., 1997 (49); McCune et al., 1998 (50); Ligtenberg et al., 2001 (51); Artz et al., 2003 (34); Morales and Dominguez-Gil, 2006 (36) who revealed no significant effects of tacrolimus on lipid metabolism in renal transplanted recipient.

When comparing serum lipid profile among the three group treatment regimens, there were statistically significant differences among groups treatment at three months follow- up (table 3-8). The serum total cholesterol and serum triglyceride concentrations were significantly lower in the group III (low-dose tacrolimus) than in the other two groups. Therefore the use of low dose tacrolimus based immunosuppressive regimen is associated with a more favourable lipid profile than the different cvclosporine dosage immunosuppressive regimens. The results of this study are in agreement with other studies conducted by Scott et al., 2003 (48); Kramer, et al., 2005 (4); Becker-Cohen et al., 2006 (38) who found better lipid profile with the use of tacrolimus based regimen than cyclosporine based regimen. Whereas there were no significant differences between aroup (standard-dose cyclosporine) and group II (low-dose cyclosporine), thus the reduced doses of cyclosporine did not improve the changes in lipid profile. Therefore replacement of cyclosporine with tacrolimus reduced the high level of total cholesterol and triglyceride in patients taking cyclosporine (50, 52).

Calcineurin inhibitor (CsA & Tac) hepatotoxicity has been reported in few case reports after organ transplantation (53, 54). The exact mechanism of CsA induced hepatotoxicity is not completely understood, numerous current findings suggest that oxidative stress mechanism playing an important role in its pathology.

CsA therapy induces overproduction of reactive oxygen species (ROS) in hepatocytes and lowers their antioxidant capacity) 55).

In this study, Table 3.9 and Table 3-10, significant mild elevations were observed only in total bilirubin and bilirubin indirect levels compared to control healthy individual. These results (elevations of total bilirubin and bilirubin indirect) are in agreement with results of other studies conducted by Schade et al., 1983 (56); Kahan, 1987 (21); Cadranel, et al, 1992 (57); Hecking, et al, 2008 (58) who revealed that there is a significant elevations in total bilirubin after cyclosporine treatment. This elevation of total bilirubin seen after cyclosporine treatment is most probably related to a cholestasis (59). This could be due to the toxic metabolite of cyclosporine (AM19 and AM1A) (60), and since the bilirubin and cyclosporine metabolites are eliminated by the same transport system through the biliary membrane, therefore the elevated total bilirubin level suggested impaired cyclosporine elimination (61). Hepatocellular enzymes ALP, ALT and AST in this study in both group I and group II showed no significant differences compared to control healthy individual for three consecutive months. The explanation for that could be attributed to the doses of CsA used. Also many other articles and case reports conducted by Lorber et al, 1987 (62); Gulbis, et al, 1988 (63); Taniai et al, 2008 (54); Oto et al, 2010 (53) revealed that the reduction of the cyclosporine doses was sufficient to resolve the presumed hepatotoxicity (elevated hepatocellular enzymes).

Table 3.11 showed the effects of group III on liver function, no significant changes in hepatocellular enzymes ALP, ALT and AST and in total bilirubin and (bilirubin direct & bilirubin indirect) were observed in any of the patients in the group compared to control healthy individual. Such results were also reported in case reports conducted by Taniai, et al, 2008 (54); Oto, et al, 2010 (53) who found that the tacrolimus hepatotoxicity is seemed to be dose-dependent and low doses of tacrolimus did not significantly changes liver function as this study shows.

When comparing liver function among the three group treatment regimens, there were no statistically significant differences among groups treatment at three months follow- up (table 3-12). Also patients receiving group II (low-dose cyclosporine) had a mean serum total bilirubin and bilirubin indirect close to those of patients receiving group I (standard-dose cyclosporine). Therefore we suggest the reduced doses of cyclosporine did not resolved the mild elevated values of total bilirubin and bilirubin indirect, and group III (low-dose tacrolimus) regimen has favorable liver function.

New-onset diabetes after renal transplantation (NODAT) represents a serious metabolic complication with a negative impact on graft and patient survival, as well as on cardiovascular morbidity and mortality (64).

Among immunosuppressant, there are no alterations in glucose metabolism due to the use of MMF (65). The use of steroids causes in dosedependent an increase in peripheral insulin resistance and increasing hepatic glucose production (66, 67). However, daily prednisone doses (5 mg/day) may not influence insulin sensitivity at all (68). Calcineurin inhibitors contribute to the development of (NODAT) by directly inhibiting insulin secretion from the pancreatic β islet cell. This effect is dose-dependent, reversible and more pronounced for patients who are treated with tacrolimus than cyclosporine (69, 52). Consistent with this, a meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials of cyclosporine versus tacrolimus after transplantation found a higher incidence of diabetes among those treated with tacrolimus suggesting that the use of cyclosporine rather than tacrolimus may be an effective strategy to prevent NODAT (70). However, tacrolimus has been reported to be diabetogenic, this risk is predominantly present in the initial period after transplantation and in patients who already had an impaired glucose tolerance before treatment (34).

In this study, table 3.13 showed the effects of all groups' treatment regimen (I & II & III) on fasting blood glucose in kidney transplanted patients. No significant changes in blood glucose level in either group were observed compared to control healthy individual, and also there were no statistically significant differences among groups treatment at three months follow- up (table 3-14). This results is not in parallel with other studies results conducted by Filler et al., 2000 (71); Vincenti et al., 2007 (72); Johnston et al., 2008 (73); Hornum et al., 2010 (74) who revealed a highest incidence of new-onset post transplantation diabetes mellitus in patients treated with CsA in combination with MMF or Aza and steroid, and in patients treated with tacrolimus in combination with MMF/steroid. The probable explanation is that cyclosporine and tacrolimus influences glucose metabolism by reducing pancreatic insulin secretion in a dose-dependent manner (65, 75, and 69) and patients in this study predominantly received low doses of these drugs. Also other studies conducted by Ligtenberg et al., 2001 (51); Hooda et al., 2007 (76) suggested that low dose tacrolimus significantly reduces incidence of new-onset post transplantation diabetes mellitus and do not impair glycemic control.

In this study, table 3.15 showed the effects of all groups' treatment regimen (I & II & III) on serum electrolyte (Na & K) in kidney transplanted patients. No significant changes in either group compared to control healthy individual were observed, and also there were no statistically significant differences among groups treatment at three months follow- up (table 3-16). This could indicate no significant effects of the three group's treatment regimen on serum Na and serum K.

In this study, Table 3-17 showed the most common adverse effects for all groups treatment regimen (I & II & III) experienced in patients, and ranged from hypertension (83%) to gum hyperplasia (13%). Hypertension is usually reversible after discontinuation of short-term CsA therapy (77). The effect seems to be more dependent on vasoconstriction than salt retention as demonstrated by hypertension present in an anuric transplant on cyclosporine therapy (78).

In this study, among patients receiving calcineurin inhibitor, those receiving cyclosporine A based regimen were more prone to develop hypertension (83%) & (80%) in group I & II respectively than those receiving tacrolimus based regimen (71%) in group III. This adverse hypertension effects was also reported by others studies conducted by Lassila, 2000 (27); Castillo-Lugo and Vergne-Marini, 2005 (79); Catarsi et al., 2005 (80). Therefore the use of tacrolimus may lead to less risk for hypertension when compared with treatment with CsA and conversion from treatment with CsA to treatment with tacrolimus may leads to a slight decline in blood pressure (51). Although there were no significant difference in blood pressure between groups treatment regimen (4).

In this study the blood pressure remained unchanged in the CsA receiving groups; although the low doses of CsA in group II treatment regimens had been received during the study period. Similar results also reported by Schnuelle et al., 2002 (81); Jose, 2007 (52) who found continued treatment with CsA even at reduced doses frequently results in sustained hypertension.

The other adverse-effects (tremor, GI upset, hirsutism & gum hyperplasia) have been also recorded in other studies Kasiske et al. 2000 (16): Ciavarella et al., 2007 (82); Webster et al., 2009 (3). In this study apart from hypertension, these adverse-effects are considered mild. The incidences of these cosmetic conditions (hirsutism and gingival hyperplasia) were predominant in patients taking cyclosporine, hirsutism (43% in group I & 33% in group II) and gum hyperplasia (16% in group I & 13% in group II), than in patients taking tacrolimus (no case reported). Similar results are also reported in other studies Jose, 2007 (52); Chan et al., 2008 (9). CsA induced gingival hyperplasia is connected with increased collagen levels due to the CsA mediated inhibition of collagen phagocytosis (83). Neurological effects (tremor) and gastrointestinal effects (diarrhea, vomiting and dyspepsia) were more frequent in tacrolimus-treated recipients, tremor (42% in group III than 26% & 20% in group I & II respectively) and gastrointestinal effects (28% in group III than 23% & 13% in group I & II respectively). Similar results are also reported in other study Morales et al., 2001 (24). These reported gastrointestinal effects were being due to concurrent mycophenolate mofetil use more than to the calcineurin inhibitor associated gastrointestinal effects (84).

v. Conclusion

- Immunosuppressive regimen of low-dose tacrolimus with mycophenolate mofetil in combination with steroids and regimen of low-dose cyclosporine with azathioprine in combinations with steroids provided significantly higher efficacy by improvement in renal function, as compared with regimen containing standard-dose cyclosporine with mycophenolate mofetil in combinations with steroids.
- Immunosuppressive regimen of low-dose tacrolimus with mycophenolate mofetil in combination with steroids associated with a more favourable lipid profile and liver function, as compared with regimens containing either standarddose cyclosporine with mycophenolate mofetil or low-dose cyclosporine with azathioprine in combinations with steroids.
- low-dose tacrolimus/ Neither mycophenolate mofetil/ steroid. standard-dose cyclosporine/ mycophenolate mofetil/ steroid nor low-dose cyclosporine/ azathioprine/ steroid immunosuppressive regimens are associated with post transplant diabetes mellitus and disturbance in serum electrolyte (Na& K).
- Cyclosporine nephrotoxicity is dose-dependent and reduce the dose of cyclosporine lead to less nephrotoxicity and improvement in renal function.
- The use of cyclosporine based immunosuppressive regimen is associated with elevations in serums total cholesterol, triglyceride and total bilirubin in dose-independent manner, compared with the use of tacrolimus based immunosuppressive regimen which show no changes in post renal transplant.
- The most prominent adverse-effects associated with the all immunosuppressive regimens were hypertension. Whereas the use of cyclosporine is associated with a higher incidence of cosmetic adverse-effects (hirsutism & gum hyperplasia), and neurological (tremor) adverse-effects are more common in tacrolimus-treated recipients than in cyclosporine-treated recipients.

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Keywords: Leptin, LEPR, PCR RFLP, Breast cancer.

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Association of Leptin Receptor (LEPR) Q223R Polymorphism with Breast Cancer

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Abstract -The leptin receptor (LEPR) is a member of the cytokine receptor family with two cytokine domains and a single trans membrane domain, which plays an important role in body weight homeostasis through regulation of food intake and energy expenditure. It also influences other pathways like hematopoiesis, reproduction, angiogenesis, and immune processes upon interacting with ligand leptin. Leptin is an adipocytokine produced in adipose tissue. Since obesity is one of the known risk factor as well as the LEPR expression and leptin levels were shown to be associated with the development of mammary ductal carcinoma, an attempt has been made to evaluate the role of LEPR Q223R polymorphism with breast cancer susceptibility in south Indian population as well as with confounding epidemiological and clinical factors. The present study included 194 breast cancer cases and 186 age matched control samples for the analysis of LEPR Q223R polymorphism through PCR-RFLP method. The frequency of RR genotype was significantly elevated in breast cancer compared to control subjects (χ 2= 6.567; df=2, p= 0.037)). Similar trend was also observed with respect to high BMI and post menopausal status. No significant association was found with stage of the disease.

Keywords: Leptin, LEPR, PCR RFLP, Breast cancer.

I. INTRODUCTION

he leptin receptor (LEPR) is a single transmembrane protein, belongs to class I cytokine receptor family. Due to alternative splicing during transcription of LEPR gene different isoforms of LEPR are formed with varied length of intracellular domain, but all the isoforms have identical extracellular and transmembrane domains [Lee et al., 1996; Tartagia, 1997]. Six isoforms derived from LEPR transcription have been identified so far, and a long isoform, LEPR-b, is reported to be responsible for signal transduction [Zabeau et al., 2003].

Leptin, a 16 kDa cytokine acts as a regulator of body weight and energy balance, a product of ob gene synthesized from white adipose tissue which influences food intake and energy expenditure [Campfield et al., 1995; Halaas et al., 1995]. Leptin exerts its physiological

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action through binding to leptin receptor (LEPR) and exerts negative feedback mechanism to control food intake and body weight [Malik et al., 1996]. However, its expression was identified in other tissues and cells, immune cells, placenta, endometrium, including stomach and lung [Caldefie-Chezet et al., 2001 Ebenbichler et al., 2002; Kitawaki et al., 2000; Breidert et al., 1999; Tsuchiya et al., 1999]. In addition, leptin receptor expression has been detected in pathological conditions such as acute myeloid leukemia, hepatocelluar carcinoma, gastric cancer cells and breast cancer [Konopleva et al., 1999; Wang et al., 2004; Mix et al., 2004; Ishikawa et al., 2004; Garofalo et al., 2006]. The binding of leptin to LEPR activates the JAK/STAT (Janus kinase signal transducer and activates of transcription), the Ras/ERK1/2 signaling cascade (a member of the MAPK family), and the PI-3K/Akt/GSK3 growth/anti-apoptotic pathways [Zabeau et al., 2003]. In addition, leptin binding to receptor has shown to transactivate HER2/neu, and also increase the expression of vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF) [Eisenberg et al., 2004; Garofalo et al., 2006].

humans. several sinale nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) have been described in the LEPR gene [Chung et al., 1997]. An A to G transition at nt 668 from the start codon that converts a glutamine to an arginine at codon 223 (Q223R) in the LEPR gene [Gotoda et al., 1997] alters amino acid charge from neutral to positive that could affect the functionality of the receptor and modifies its signaling capacity, which is associated with higher mean circulating levels of leptin [Quinton et al 2001., Yiannakouris et al., 2001]. This polymorphism is located within the region encoding the extracellular domain of the leptin receptor: the amino acid change affects all forms of the receptor. It has been demonstrated that individuals homozygous for the G (R223R) allele is associated with variation in ligand binding activity than the carriers of the A (Q223Q) [Quinton et al 2001]. Several studies had shown the relationship between LEPR Q223R gene polymorphism insulin resistance. Prostate Postmenopausal breast cancer

[Snoussi et al., 2006]. It can activate ER α and ER α -dependent transcription in a ligand-independent manner [Catalano et al., 2004]. Since BMI is known to be associated with breast cancer as well as with LEPR polymorphism, the present study has been planned to evaluate the role of LEPR polymorphism in the pathogenesis of breast cancer development.

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MATERIAL AND METHODS

a) Study population

II.

The study comprises of 194 breast cancer patients from Nizam's institute of medical sciences (NIMS) and 186 age matched women with out any familial history of malignancies to serve as controls. Clinical information such as stage of the breast cancer, menopausal status at the time of onset, hormonal receptor status (ER, PR), Her2 status and BMI was noted down from the hospital records with the help of medical oncologist Ethical committee approval from the institute is obtained before initiation of the study. All the participants were informed about the study and consent was taken. 5ml of blood sample was collected into 10 EDTA vacutainer tube from both patients and controls. All the samples were stored at -20° C. Genomic DNA was extracted from leukocyte nuclei by the salting-out method [Lahiri et al., 1991] and used for amplification of Q223R polymorphism in exon 6 of LEPR gene.

b) LEPR Q223R Polymorphism

PCR-RFLP was carried out for the identification of LEPR Q223R polymorphism using gene specific oligonucleotide primers previously described [Gotoda et al., 1997]. The amplified product was digested with 5 units of Msp1enzyme (New England Biolabs, USA) at 37°C for overnight and electrophoresed on 3% agorose gel. A–G substitution at nucleotide 668 in exon six of LEPR gene introduces a recognition site for Mspl. Digestion by Mspl produces one band of 80 bp in the normal LEPR sequence (QQ). Three separate bands of 80, 58 and 22 bp in the heterozygous individual (QR), and two separate bands of 58 and 22 bp in mutant homozygotes (RR) were observed.

c) Statistical Analysis

All the statistical analyses were performed using SPSS software15.0 (Statistical Package for the Social Science). Chi square test was done to test the significance of genotype association with the occurrence of disease. Odds ratio was estimated to calculate the relative risk for each genotype to develop disease. All the P values were two sided and the level of significance was taken as P < 0.05.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

LEPR a cytokine receptor involved in the homeostatic control of appetite, weight, metabolism and reproductive functions in women [Friedman et al., 1998], via activating signal transduction pathways through ligand binding with leptin [Banks et al., 2000]. LEPR spans over 70 kb and includes 20 exons which encode for 1,165 amino acid protein that belongs to the superfamily of cytokine receptors and requires all its extracellular subdomains functional for transmitting the signal. LEPR presents two basic isoforms, a short

intracellular domain variant, unable to transmit a signal, which is present in a variety of tissues; and a second one with a long intracellular functional domain, capable of activating JAK2 and STAT3, and perhaps other signaling pathways [Sweeney et al., 2002].

The LEPR Q223R polymorphism corresponding to A to G transition in exon 6 of the gene is known to result in several functional consequences due to altered charge distribution from neutral to positive charge. The Q223R polymorphism lies within the first of two putative leptin-binding regions in the extracellular domain of the receptor and therefore, the amino acid change affects all isoforms of the receptor and may be associated with impaired LEPR signaling capacity [Yiannakouris et al., 2001].

The genotype and allele frequencies of the LEPR Q223R SNP in 194 breast cancer patients and 186 healthy controls are shown in Table1. The frequency of LEPR 223 RR genotype was significantly elevated in breast cancer as compared to control group (x2= 6.567; df=2, p= 0.037) (Table 1) LEPR 223RR genotype with more efficient binding capacity to leptin might trigger cellular JAK2 /STAT3, the Ras/ERK1/2 signaling pathways there by initiating the tumorogenesis. Leptin when binds to receptor also acts synergistically with VEGF (vascular endothelial growth factor) and fibroblast growth factor 2 (FGF- 2) to promote angiogenesis [Sierra-Honigmann et al., 1998]. It has effect on the expression of several genes involved in the angiogenesis (MMP-2 and MMP-9) [Park et al., 2009; Zhang et al., 2007].

The homozygous RR genotype frequency was elevated considerably in post menopausal patients (11.34%) compared to pre-menopausal patients (6.19%) (Table2.1). There was no significant association of LEPR Q223R polymorphism with Estrogen and Progesterone receptor status among breast cancer patients (Table2.2, 2.3), however the RR genotype frequencies were elevated in both ER-ve (8.2%) and PR-ve cases (8.97%) compared to ER+ve(6.85%) and PR+ve cases(5.88%) (Table2.2, 2.3).

With reference to BMI of patients (Table.3), a considerable elevation in the RR genotype and R allele frequency in obese patients (10.66%, 36.07%) compared to patients with lower BMI (3.45%, 27.59%) was observed. Further when non-carriers of R allele (i.e. Q/Q) and carriers of R allele (i.e. Q/R+R/R) were compared, R allele carrier frequency was significantly higher (61.48%) in obese subjects when compared to less weight group (33.34%). Many reports had suggested that Q223R LEPR polymorphism was associated with BMI and overweight. Thompson et al, 1997 first reported this polymorphism was associated with obesity [Bruce Thompson et al., 1997].

When the data was stratified based on the stage of the disease and genotype frequency (Table. 5). A higher percentage of patients with stage II breast

cancer carried RR genotype (12.5%) than patients with advanced stage cancer (6.98%) (OR, 0.39; 955 CI, 0.14-1.08) although the OR was not statistically significant due to a small sample size.

The impact of Q223R polymorphic variants on human body composition had also been reported in two recent studies [Chagnon et al., 1999; Chagnon et al., 2000]. In the Que'bec Family Study, Chagnon et al., 1999 observed a significant sibling pair linkage between the Q223R polymorphism and fat mass (FM). Although no association between body composition variables and the Q223R polymorphism was observed, there was a weak, but significant, association between the Q223 allele and free fat mass (FFM) in lean males when the analysis was performed by BMI and gender groups (Chagon et al., 1999). In the Heritage Family Study cohort, stronger evidence of an association between the Q223R polymorphism and human adiposity was reported among Caucasians, although no reciprocal linkages were detected [Chagnon et al., 2000]. In particular, middle-aged Caucasian males who were carriers of the R223 allele had significantly higher BMI, %FM, and plasma leptin levels than noncarriers.

Nikos et al 2001 reported that, a higher percentage of homozygotes for R223 allele were found among the heavier subjects. R/R homozygotes had higher BMI (2±U; P=0.01) and higher fat mass values than the carriers of Q223 allele, the Q223R polymorphism was a significant predictor of 5% of the body composition variability [Yiannakouris et al., 2001]. Our study is in accordance with earlier studies, which infers that the presence of R 223 allele has a higher BMI than non carriers leading to obesity. Further obesity is a known epidemiological risk factor in the breast cancer development.

On the other hand, negative results also have been reported for the Q223R polymorphism with BMI in different Caucasian population including American [Silver et al., 1997], British [Gotoda et al., 1997] and Danish groups [Echwald et al., 1997].

However, the proximity and similarity of the Q223R polymorphism to the Q269P mutation, which causes obesity in the Zucker mouse model, raise the distinct possibility that the Q223R polymorphism may lead to subtle changes in signaling pathways that also predispose to a leptin-resistant state. Although the higher leptin levels in RR homozygotes provide supportive evidence for this hypothesis, future in vitro experiments involving expression of wild-type and mutant leptin receptors in cell lines are needed to evaluate the effect of the Q223R substitution on the functionality of the long isoform of the human LEPR [White et al., 1997; Chua et al., 1996].

Our study provides the support for the hypothesis that the Q223R polymorphism of LEPR gene is associated with obesity and BMI in accordance with earlier reports.

IV. CONCLUSION

In conclusion, our results suggest that the RR genotype of the LEPR Q223R polymorphism of the leptin receptor gene might be considered as a risk genotype for development of breast cancer. Thus, this study has demonstrated a modestly increased risk of breast cancer in obese women harboring the LEPR 223R allele of the LEPR Q223R polymorphism of the leptin receptor gene. To the best of our knowledge, ours is the first study to provide information on the role of LEPR Q223R polymorphism in breast cancer risk in Indian women, a population characterized by paucity of epidemiological literature on the determinants of breast cancer and other malignancies.

v. Declaration of Interest

No conflicts of Interest

VI. ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

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Table 1: Genotype distribution of LEPR Q223R polymorphism in Breast Cancer cases and Controls

P-value	Cases	Controls	OR(95% CI)	P-value	Z statistics	χ
r-value						
All Women	(n =194)	(n =186)				
Allele frequencies						
LEPR (Q)	262(67.52)	246(66.12)	1.0			
LEPR (R) df= 1 0.74	126(32.47)	126(33.87)	0.94(0.69-1.27)	0.68	0.41	0.110
Genotype frequencies						
LEPR (Q/Q)	85(43.8)	68(36.6)	1.0			
LEPR (Q/R)	92(47.4)	110(59.1)	0.7 (0.44-1.02)	0.0622	1.865	
LEPR(R/R) df=2 0.0375*	17(8.8)	8(4.3)	1.70(0.69-4.18)	0.2472	1.157	6.567*
LEPR (Q/Q)	85(43.8)	68(36.6)	1.0			
LEPR $(Q/R) + (R/R)$ df=1 0.18	109(56.2)	118(63.4)	0.74(0.49-1.12)	0.1498	1.440	1.788

^{*} χ2 value significant

Table 2: Association of LEPR Q223R polymorphism with respect to breast cancer and Menopausal status, Estrogen receptor and Progesterone receptor status at disease onset.

		OR(95% CI)	P-value Z statis	stics χ2	P-va	lue
Menopausal Status	Pre	Post				
(N=194)	(n =97)	(n =97)				
Allele frequencies						
LEPR (Q)	135(69.59)	127(65.46)	1.0			
LEPR (R) df=1 0.45	59(30.41)	67(34.54)	0.83(0.54-1.27)	0.39	0.87	0.58
Genotype frequencies						
LEPR (Q/Q)	44(45.36)	41(42.27)	1.0			
LEPR (Q/R)	47(48.45)	45(46.39)	0.97(0.54-1.76)	0.93	0.09	
LEPR(R/R) df=2 0.45	6 (6.19)	11(11.34)	0.51(0.17-1.50)	0.22	1.23	1.620
LEPR (Q/Q)	44(45.36)	41(42.27)	1.0			
LEPR $(Q/R) + (R/R)$ df=1 0.77	53(54.63)	56(57.73)	0.88 (0.5-1.56)	0.66	0.43	0.08
2. Estrogen status	+ve	-ve				
(N=146)	(n = 73)	(n = 73)				
Allele frequencies						
LEPR (Q)	100(68.49)	100(68.49)	1.0			
LEPR (R) df=1 0.89	46(31.51)	46(31.51)	1.0(0.61-1.64)	1.00	0.00	0.02

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Genotype frequencies						
LEPR (Q/Q)	32(43.84)	33(45.2)	1.0			
LEPR (Q/R)	36(49.3)	34(46.6)	1.10(0.56-2.15)	0.80	0.26	
LEPR(R/R) df=2 0.92	5(6.85)	6(8.2)	0.86(0.24-3.10)	0.82	0.23	0.163
LEPR (Q/Q)	32(43.84)	33(45.2)	1.0			
LEPR $(Q/R) + (R/R)$ df=1 1.0	41(56.16)	40(54.79)	1.06(0.55-2.03)	0.87	0.17	0.00
3. Progesterone status	+ve	-ve				
(N=146)	(n =68)	(n = 78)				
Allele frequencies						
LEPR (Q)	91(66.91)	109(69.87)	1.0			
LEPR (R) df=1 0.677	45(33.09)	47(30.13)	1.15(0.7-1.9)	0.59	0.54	0.174
Genotype frequencies						
LEPR (Q/Q)	27(39.7)	38(48.72)	1.0			
LEPR (Q/R)	37(54.4)	33(42.31)	1.58(0.80-3.12)	0.19	1.31	
LEPR(R/R) df=2 0.327	4(5.88)	7(8.97)	0.80(0.21-3.0)	0.75	0.32	2.234
LEPR (Q/Q)	27(39.7)	38(48.72)	1.0			
LEPR (Q/R) + (R/R) df=1 0.354	41(60.2)	40(51.2)	1.44(0.75-2.79)	0.28	1.09	0.858

Table 3: Genotype distribution of LEPR Q223R polymorphism in Breast Cancer cases with BMI

value		OR(95	5% CI) P-value	Z statistics	χ2	P-
ВМІ	Less weight	Obese				
(N=151)	(n = 29)	(n = 122)				
Allele frequencies						
LEPR (Q)	42(72.41)	156(63.93)	1.0			
LEPR (R) df=1 0.29	16(27.59)	88(36.07)	0.68 (0.36-1.27)	0.224	1.22	1.140
Genotype frequencies						
LEPR (Q/Q)	14(48.28)	47(38.52)	1.0			
LEPR (Q/R)	14(48.28)	62(50.82)	0.76(0.33-1.74)	0.51	0.65	
LEPR(R/R) df=2 3.88	1(3.45)	13(10.66)	0.26(0.031-2.15)	0.21	1.25	1.894
LEPR (Q/Q)	14(48.28)	47(38.52)	1.0			
LEPR (Q/R) + (R/R) df=1 0.45	15(51.72)	75(61.48)	0.67 (0.3-1.52)	0.34	0.96	0.565

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Table 4: Genotype distribution of LEPR Q223R polymorphism in Breast Cancer cases with Stage of the disease

			χ2	P-value
Stage of the Disease	1	II	III &IV	
Allele frequencies				
LEPR (Q)	12(75)	103(64.38)	118(68.60)	
LEPR (R) df=1 0.56	4(25)	57(35.62)	54(31.40)	1.161
Genotype frequencies				
LEPR (Q/Q)	5(62.5)	33(41.25)	38(44.19)	
LEPR (Q/R) df=4 0.56	2(25.0)	37(46.25)	42(48.84)	3.016
LEPR(R/R)	1(12.5)	10(12.5)	6(6.98)	
LEPR (Q/Q)	5(62.5)	33(41.25)	38(44.19)	
LEPR $(Q/R) + (R/R)$ df=2 0.51	3(37.5)	47(58.75)	48(55.81)	1.353

Table 5: Association of LEPR Q223R polymorphism and breast cancer risk by breast cancer stage

Genotype	Controls(n)	Stage I	(n) OR(95% CI) P	Stage II(n)) OR(9	95% CI)	Р	StageIII& IV	(n) OR(95% CI)	Р
LEPR (Q/Q)	68(36.6)	5(62.5)	1.0		33(41.25)	1.0	38(44.19)	1.0			
LEPR (Q/R)	110(59.1)	2(25)	4.04(0.8-21.43)	0.10	37(46.25)	1.44 (0).83-2.52)	0.2	42(48.84)	1.46(0.92-2.49)	0.16
LEPR(R/R)	8(4.3)	1(12.5)	0.59(0.06-5.69)	0.65	10(12.5)	0.39(0.	14-1.08)	0.07	6(6.98)	0.75(0.24-2.31)	0.61
LEPR (Q/Q)	68(36.6)	5(62.5)	1.0			33(41.2	25)	1.0 1.0	38(44.19)		
LEPR (Q/R) + (R/R)	118(63.4)	3(37.5)	2.89(0.67-12.48)	0.15	47(58.75)	1.22(0.7	1-2.08)	0.47	48(55.81)	1.37(0.82-2.31)	0.23

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Histopathological and Toxicological effects of crude saponin extract from Phyllanthus niruri, L (Syn. P. franternus. Webster) on Organs in animal studies

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Abstract – The histopathological view of liver, intestines and kidney of bacterial infected rabbits, fed with 100mg/ml saponin extracted from Phyllanthus niruri over a period of seven days was carried out to determine the effect of the plant extract on these organs after treatment. Saponin was administered as strawberry suspension at a dose of 10mg per day (divided into four doses) to ten rabbits, nine of which were fed with food contaminated with 0.5mL bacterial suspension obtained by McFarland standardization (10% Barium sulfate) after starvation for 6hrs . Multiple foci of tubular necrosis and haemorrhages in the kidney, marked hyperplasia of the mucosal layer of the small intestine, and a mild periportal lymphocytic cellular infiltration of the liver of the treated rabbits were observed. Plasma urea, uric acid, creatinine and blood glucose levels increased significantly (p < 0.05) in the treated rabbits.

Keywords: Histopathological, Phyllanthus niruri, Saponin, Toxicological.

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Histopathological and Toxicological effects of crude saponin extract from *Phyllanthus niruri*, L (Syn. *P. franternus*. Webster) on Organs in animal studies

Ajibade V. A.^α, Famurewa, O^σ

Abstract - The histopathological view of liver, intestines and kidney of bacterial infected rabbits, fed with 100mg/ml saponin extracted from Phyllanthus niruri over a period of seven days was carried out to determine the effect of the plant extract on these organs after treatment. Saponin was administered as strawberry suspension at a dose of 10mg per day (divided into four doses) to ten rabbits, nine of which were fed with food contaminated with 0.5mL bacterial suspension obtained by McFarland standardization (10% Barium sulfate) after starvation for 6hrs . Multiple foci of tubular necrosis and haemorrhages in the kidney, marked hyperplasia of the mucosal layer of the small intestine, and a mild periportal lymphocytic cellular infiltration of the liver of the treated rabbits were observed. Plasma urea, uric acid, creatinine and blood glucose levels increased significantly (p < 0.05) in the treated rabbits. Plasma protein, hemoglobin, red blood cell and leukocyte counts were not altered adversely. No significant changes were observed in the enzymes' activity in all the groups of rabbits tested. The extract seems to show therapeutic actions on infections caused by E. coli and Salmonella typhi without any adverse effect on the organs.

Keywords : Histopathological, Phyllanthus niruri, Saponin, Toxicological

INTRODUCTION

efore the advent of modern medicine which witnessed synthetic production of many drugs including antimicrobial agents, extract of plants were known to elicit certain reactions in human body when applied in a prescribed manner. Among such plant is *Phyllanthus niruri* L., (Syn. *P. fraternus*.Webster). It belongs to the *Euphorbiaceae* family and has been claimed to be an excellent remedy for jaundice and hepatitis (Qudhia and Tripathi, 2002; Tabasum *et al.*, 2005). Based on its long documented history of uses in the Amazonian region, the plant is believed to be helpful in treating oedema, anorexia and diabetes (George and

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Roger, 2002; Khanna *et al.*, 2002.). The bark yields a bitter principle, phyllanthin, while the infusion of the root and leaves is a good tonic and diuretic when taken cold in repeated doses (Unander, 1990). Many of the active constituents found in the plant are biologically active lignands, glycosides, flavonoids, saponins, alkaloids, ellagitannins and phenylpropanoids (Dhir *et al.*, 2002; Tabasum *et al.*, 2005).), common lipids sterols and flavonoids also occur in the plant (Barros *et al.*, 2003).

Saponins are glycosides with a distinctive foaming characteristic. They are found in various parts of the plant leaves, stems, roots, bulbs, blossom, and fruit. The name originated from soapwort plant (saponaria), the root of which was used historically as a soap. Saponins are believed to be useful in the human diet for controlling cholesterol, but some including those produced by the soapberry are poisonous if swallowed and can cause urticaria (skin rash) in many people (Otsuka, 2005). Digistalis type of saponin strengthens heart muscle contractions, causing the heart pump to work more efficiently (Desert, 2007). They inhibit some kind of cancer cell tumor growth in animals particularly in the lungs and blood cancers, without killing normal cells (Unander, 1990; Ray, 2007). These effects point to the potentials of saponin, including those present in the diet, as a remedy against two of the major health hazards in many countries, namely obesity and cancer (Otsuka, 2005). Saponin from P. niruri has been observed, within the range of standard antibiotics like Chloramphenicol and Gentimycin used as control; showed high potency on E. coli and Salmonella typhi (Ajibade and Famurewa, 2010). Histopathological studies evaluate the conditions of organs of the body after the use of some therapeutic agents (Ambi et al., 2007). The study estimates the toxic stage and damages that could come from the use of these agents. This study is designed to determine the toxicological and histopthatological effect of crude saponin extract from *Phyllanthus niruri* on some organs excised from bacterial infected rabbits.

II. MATERIALS AND METHODS

a) Collection of Plant Material

Phyllanthus niruri was collected from shrubs around the Federal Polytechnic compound, Ado- Ekiti, Nigeria between the months of July and September, 2008 and identified at the Department of Plant Science, University of Ado-Ekiti, Ekiti- State, Nigeria. A voucher specimen (STD/MIC/PLT.0982) was deposited at the herbarium of the Department of Science Technology, Federal Polytechnic, and Department of Plant Science, University of Ado-Ekiti.

b) Extraction of crude saponin

The sample used for the analysis was air-dried at room temperature of ±28°C and pulverized. The saponin was extracted according to the method described by Otsuka et al. (2005). The milled plant (170g) was defatted using 700ml of Petroleum ether for 72h with the aid of Soxhlet. Seven hundred (700ml) milliliter of methanol was used to extract saponin from defatted sample and the residue was left overnight under reflux at 70°C. It was then filtered and the filtrate evaporated to dryness. The yield was dissolved in 300ml distilled water-butanol (1:1 v/v) in a separating funnel. The set up was left for three days after which two layers were formed. The upper layer was precipitated with diethyl ether to obtain 20mg of crude saponin; this was poured into an evaporating dish and dried by evaporation for 2 weeks at room temperature.

c) Experimental animals

Rabbits of both sexes were maintained under standard environmental conditions at room temperature of (±28 - ±1°C) in the animal house of the Department of Science Technology, Federal Polytechnic, Ado-Ekiti. The rabbits had free access to feed and water. Prior to the experiment, rabbits were fed with standard feed for 1 week in order to adapt to the laboratory conditions. Seven days after acclimatization, the rabbits were divided into five groups of six rabbits each (n ≥6/group): the groups of rabbits were treated as follows: one negative control group, (water; 5ml/kg body weight); one positive control group (200mg amoxicillin; 5ml/kg body weight,) and three saponin treated groups (25-400mg saponin; 5ml/kg body weight). Prior to test, on day 1, the rabbits were fasted for 6hr, but allowed free access to water.

d) Effect and toxicity of crude saponin on rabbits infected with Escherichia coli and Salmonella typhi.

The toxicity effect was studied using the methods of Anupama *et al.*, (2011). Saponin was administered as strawberry suspension at a dose of 10mg per day (divided into four doses) to ten rabbits, nine of which were fed with feed contaminated with 0.5mL bacterial suspension of *Salmonella typhi* and *Escherichia coli* obtained by McFarland standardization

(10% Barium sulfate) containing 10³ (forming units/ml) cfu/ml after starvation for 6hrs .Toxicity studies were done on white blood, diff count, urine and haemoglobin analysis, blood urea nitrogen (BUN), creatinine, serum alanine transaminase (ALT) and aspartate transaminase (AST). It was performed before administration of saponin, on the third day of therapy, and at 9th day of therapy. The levels of intact saponin were determined in specimen of urine and blood collected from the rabbits by spectrofluorometric analysis described by Schwartz *et al.* (1999).

e) Behavioural and toxic effects

The acute oral toxicity study was evaluated in the rabbits according to the standard methods of Litchfield and Wilcoxon (1949) described in Adesokan and Akanji (2004) and Aziza et al. (2008). Four groups of five rabbits were administered with 25, 50, 100, 200 and 400mg/kg of the saponin extract orally, while one group with the same number of rabbits served as control. The animals were observed continuously for 1hr for any gross behavioral changes, symptoms of toxicity and mortality if any, and intermittently for 6hr and 24hr after dosing with saponin extract. After 24hr, animals were sacrificed following chloroform anesthesia. Blood was collected by heart puncture. Blood samples were collected from each animal and allowed to clot for 45min at room temperature. Serum was separated by centrifugation at 600rpm for 15min and analyzed for various biochemical parameters including serum alanine transaminase (ALT) and serum aspartate transaminase (AST) (Ahmed et al., 2003).

f) Histopathological examination

Experimental rabbits were dissected on the 9th day after administration of saponin. The method describe by Patel *et al.* (2010) was employed for the dissecting. They were killed by chloroform anesthesia and dissected. The small and large intestine, liver and kidneys were removed separately and cut into sections, The sections were fixed directly on a slide, stained with haematoxylin and eosin, examined and photographed.

g) Statistical analysis

The data were expressed as mean \pm S.D., while biochemical and physiological parameters were analyzed statistically using one way ANOVA followed by Dunnet-+-test using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences for comparison with control group and saponin treated group. P< 0.05 was considered as significant while P < 0.01 and P < 0.001 were considered as insignificant.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The mean blood parameters of groups of six rabbits each treated with saponin is shown in Table 1. The table depicts the effect of saponin on blood parameters. Urea, uric acid, creatinine and blood

glucose levels were significantly (p < 0.05) increase in group V rabbits when compared with group 1. Plasma protein, haemoglobin, red blood cell (RBC) and leukocyte counts were not significantly different in all the groups.

The percentage of saponin in urine 72hr after oral administration is shown in Table 2. The mean percentage of the saponin in the urine of the rabbits is 52.36µg/ml

The urine analysis of rabbits treated with saponin for a period of 9days is shown in Table 3. The

urine area, uric acid and creatinine levels decreased significantly (p < 0.05) in group V animals. Urinary protein and alkaline phosphate activity were not significantly different.

The effect of saponin on the activity of serum, liver and kidney enzymes in controlled and experimental groups of rabbits is shown in Table 4 indicating the activity of marker enzymes (AST and ALT). Slight differences were observed in the activity of enzymes in all the groups of rabbits tested.

Table 1: Blood parameters of rabbits treated with saponin at dose of 100mg/day for a period of 30 days

Parameters		Groups			
	I	II	III	IV	V
Urea(mg/dl)	16.82 <u>+</u> 2.45	17.53 <u>+</u> 3.8 4	16.59 <u>+</u> 3.5 1	18.53 <u>+</u> 2.92	22.29 <u>+</u> 2.31*
Uric acid(mg/dl)	7.53 <u>+</u> 1.67	7.42 <u>+</u> 0.85	7.22 <u>+</u> 1.56	8.76 <u>+</u> 1.56	10.42 <u>+</u> 1.90*
Creatinine(m g/dl)	1.32 <u>+</u> 0.41	1.26 <u>+</u> 0.49	1.35 <u>+</u> 0.38	1.65 <u>+</u> 0.38	2.08 <u>+</u> 0.46**
Protein (g/dl)	8.62 <u>+</u> 2.25	9.48 <u>+</u> 1.92	9.52 <u>+</u> 2.01	8.34 <u>+</u> 2.68	9.06 <u>+</u> 2.87
Blood glucose (mg/dl)	40.12 <u>+</u> 5.59	40.86 <u>+</u> 5.2 5	41.60 <u>+</u> 5.2 1	47.57 <u>+</u> 4.00*	52.50 <u>+</u> 4.25*
Hb (g/dl)	12.27 <u>+</u> 3.36	11.58 <u>+</u> 2.9 6	12.87 <u>+</u> 3.5 5	11.91 <u>+</u> 1.81	11.08 <u>+</u> 1.91
RBC X 10 ⁶ mm ³	2.45 <u>+</u> 0.15	2.57 <u>+</u> 0.09	2.53 <u>+</u> 0.08	2.35 <u>+</u> 0.16	2.60 <u>+</u> 0.26
WBC	4410 <u>+</u> 182	4429 <u>+</u> 179	4317 <u>+</u> 191	4215 <u>+</u> 186	4388 <u>+</u> 183

Values are expressed as mean \pm SD for six rabbits Comparisons were between groups I(control) with II, III, IV and group V *X p< 0.05, **XX p< 0.01, ***XXX p< 0.001

Table 2: Percentage of saponin in urine (0-72hr) after oral administration (100mg/day)

Rabbit Groups	(% Mean (µg/ml) of the groups) No
1	63.8
2	63.5
3	59.7
4	29.0
5	57.9
6	40.3
TOTAL MEAN	52.36
Standard Error	(SE) 4.8

Parameters	3				
		Groups			
	I	II	III	IV	V
Urea	3.18 <u>+</u> 0.43	3.06 <u>+</u> 0.51	3.51 <u>+</u> 0.45	2.99 <u>+</u> 0.31	2.56 <u>+</u> 0.47**
Uric acid	0.73 <u>+</u> 0.12	0.78 <u>+</u> 0.24	0.69 <u>+</u> 0.17	0.61 <u>+</u> 0.13	0.46 <u>+</u> 0.04*
Creatinine	0.81 <u>+</u> 0.27	0.87 <u>+</u> 0.35	0.83 <u>+</u> 0.31	0.62 <u>+</u> 0.21	0.52 <u>+</u> 0.19**
Protein	5.02 <u>+</u> 1.85	5.56 <u>+</u> 1.4	6.06 <u>+</u> 1.22	6.18 <u>+</u> 1.55	5.47 <u>+</u> 0.97
Alkaline					
phosphate	0.45 <u>+</u> 0.08	0.43 <u>+</u> 0.07	0.45 <u>+</u> 0.07	0.52 <u>+</u> 0.06	0.54 <u>+</u> 0.12

Values are expressed as mean \pm SD for 6 rabbits Comparisons were made between groups I (control) with II, III, IV and group V * p< 0.05, ** p< 0.01, *** p< 0.001

Table 4: Effect of saponin on serum, liver and kidney enzymes activity in controlled and experimental groups

Parar	meters	Grou	ps			
		I	II	III	IV	V
Serur	m (units/	ml)				
AST	•	•	27.14 <u>+</u> 5.5	26.60 <u>+</u> 4.98	22.6 <u>+</u> 4.81	24.95 <u>+</u> 2.82* **
ALT	36.25	5 <u>+</u> 3.5	39.41 <u>+</u> 6.04	1 34.16 <u>+</u> 5.62	34.16 <u>+</u> 5.62	34.94 <u>+</u> 4.94* **
Liver	(units/m	g prot	ein)			
AST	173.3 <u>+</u>	18.01	174.6 <u>+</u> 12. 5		164.12 <u>+</u> 14. 1 6 *	69.12 <u>+</u> 16.3**
ALT	37.02 <u>+</u>	5.31	37.34 <u>+</u> 5.2 0	39.89 <u>+</u> 3.80	39.91 <u>+</u> 6.20 4	1.80 <u>+</u> 5.25**
Kidne	ey (units,	/mg p	rotein)			
AST	29.10 <u>-</u>	<u>+</u> 5.10	26.60 <u>+</u> 3.51	I 33.25 <u>+</u> 5.05	26.43 <u>+</u> 5.08	24.6 <u>+</u> 4.3***
ALT	26.82 <u>-</u>	<u>+</u> 3.27	25.32 <u>+</u> 2.61	1 29.44 <u>+</u> 3.50	24.71 <u>+</u> 2.96	24.33 <u>+</u> 4.6**

Values are expressed as mean \pm SD for six rats Comparisons were between groups I with II, III, IV and group V

*p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001

a) Results of histopathological examination

The result of the histopathological studies of the liver, kidney and small intestine of treated and untreated rabbits is shown in figs 1, 2 and 3 respectively. The liver, small intestine and kidney of the untreated rabbits showed no visible lesion, but there were sectioning artifacts (figs 1(a), 2(a) and 3 (a)). In the treated liver, there was a mild periportal lymphocytic and histiocytic

cellular infiltration (Fig 1b). In the kidney, there are multiple foci of haemorrhages into the intertitium. There were few loci of tubular necrosis and presence of hyaline casts with interstitial cellular infiltration by macrophages (fig 2b), and small intestine of the treated rabbits there were marked hyperplasias of the mucosal layer (Fig 3b).

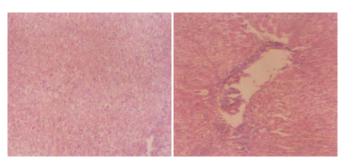


Fig. 1: Liver of untreated (a) and saponin treated (b) rabbits.

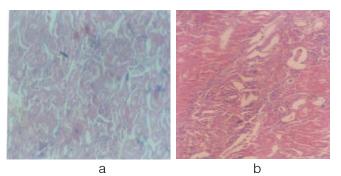


Fig. 2: Kidney of untreated (a) and saponin treated (b) rabbits

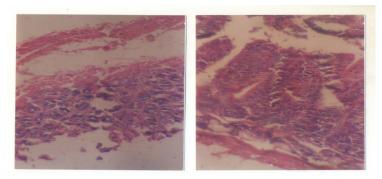


Fig. 3: Small intestine of untreated (a) and saponin treated (b) rabbit

IV. DISCUSSION

Tolerance and toxicity studies of the treated rabbits included analyzing levels of crude saponin in blood between 1 and 24hr, investigating blood parameters e.g., urea, uric acid, creatinine, protein, glucose, white blood differential, haemoglobin,

urinalysis, alanine transaminase (ALT), aspartate transaminase (AST) in serum, liver and kidney before and after administration of saponin. None of the experimental rabbits exhibited microbiologically active or chemically detectable saponin in the serum or urine

before therapy. The mean level of crude saponin in the blood after administration to the rabbits reduced between 1h and 24h. This observation substantiates the constancy of absorption, distribution, metabolism and excretion of the saponin. Ingested saponins are exposed to many potential lignands in the intestine such as bile salts, dietary cholesterol and membrane sterols of the mucosal cells, and nutrients or antinutrients in body of ruminants (Flaoyen *et al.* 2001; Meagher *et al.*, 2001) and human subjects (Lee *et al.*, 2000) has however been demonstrated. Absorption was further

substantiated in the mean percentage of detectable saponin in urine at 72h after administration. The percentage of saponin reduced significantly.

The analysis of the blood parameters of the experimental rabbits treated with saponin showed that there was a significant increase in the values of urea, uric acid, creatinine, plasma protein and blood glucose with significant decrease in urea, uric acid and creatinine levels in urine. This may explain the use of P. niruri saponin to remove uric acid from urine (Nishiura et al., 2005). Plasma protein, hemoglobin, red blood cell and leukocyte counts were not significantly different. This findings correlates with that of Lee et al. (2000) and Yoshikawa et al.(2001) where it was reported that the use of *P. niruri* do not affect the blood cells adversely.. The saponin was also found to significantly and dosedependently inhibit gastric emptying. This observation was earlier reported by Oda et al. (2000), Shim et al. (2000), and Zhongguo et al. (2005) who opined that the inhibitory activity of saponin on gastric emptying was dependent on the level of serum glucose and mediated at least in part by the capsaicin-sensitive sensory nerves and the central nervous system.

It has been reported that renal dysfunction may be the cause of raised plasma, urea, uric acid and creatinine level accompanied by lowered urine urea, uric acid and creatinine level in high dose of drug treated rabbits (Adesokan and Akanji, 2004). Raised urea and non-protein nitrogen level in blood have been observed with impaired renal function or in acute renal failure (Adebayo et al., 2003). In the present study, the observed differences in the urinary contents are not significant. This difference may be due to the concentration of saponin used in the treatment. Zhongguo et al. (2005) found that concentrationdependent response was noticed when Quallaja saponin was used to treat E. coli K-12- infected wistar rats and that saponin from various sources differ in their biological activity. The initial increase observed in the blood glucose level was suspected to be due to the high percentage of sugar moiety that makes the chemical structure of saponins (Francis et al., 2002). There was however a gradual reduction of the blood glucose to an insignificant level (p < 0.001) after 9 days. This could be due to constancy of distribution, metabolism and excretion of the saponin (Zhongguo et al., 2005). The presences of transaminase (AST and ALT) are good indices of liver and kidney damage (Nishiura et al., 2005). In this study, saponin did not induce any damage to any of the organs which could be inferred from the normal values of these enzymes. Reduction in the level of AST and ALT is an indication of the stabilization of plasma membranes as well as repair of hepatic tissue damage. This in effect conforms with the commonly accepted view reported earlier by Francis et al. (2002) that serum levels of transaminase return to normal with healing of hepatic parenchyma and the regeneration of hepatocytes. It thus, means that in this study, the saponin therapy did not lead to liver inflammation and/or kidney dysfunction.

The appearance of mild periportal lymphocytic and histiocytic cellular infiltration in the liver of the saponin-treated rabbits is an indication of a cellular immunological response brought about by infiltration of polymorphornuclear leucocytes to the site of infection induced by *Salmonella typhi* (Pooneh *et al.*, 2010).

The presence of hyaline cast in the kidney is normal and has been ascribed to the use of medicines (Medline Plus Medical Encyclopaedia). The appearance of a few loci tubular necrosis in the kidney has been observed to be a reflection of the initial pathogenesis of the infection; indicating damage to the renal tubular epithelial cells. This condition is normal and not caused by the saponin therapy but a clinical manifestation of the disease. The description of renal tubular necrosis as one of the pathogenesis of clinical manifestation of typhoid fever has been made (Nishiura et al., 2005) and this substantiates the observations made in this study. The binding of saponins to bile acids in the intestine could reduce the availability of bile acids to the microbial population, thus reducing the formation of carcinogenic substances in the colon (Nishiura et al., 2005) that may lead to necrosis.

v. Conclusion

With the information available and the observation recorded in this study, the extract seems not to show any adverse effect on the organs despite its positive therapeutic actions on infections caused by *E. coli* and *Salmonella typhi*.

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A Comprehensive Insight into the Development of Animal Models for Obesity Research

By Amit Goyal, Anamika Gupta Dureja, Devinder Kumar Sharma & Kunal Dhiman

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A Comprehensive Insight into the Development of Animal Models for Obesity Research.

Amit Goyal $^{\alpha}$, Anamika Gupta Dureja $^{\sigma}$, Devinder Kumar Sharma $^{\rho}$ and Kunal Dhiman $^{\omega}$

Abstract - Obesity, a multifactorial, metabolic disorder, involves complex interaction between genetic environmental factors. With an alarming increase in the prevalence of obesity worldwide, it has become a major health care burden not just in terms of the increased risk of type 2 diabetes, cardiovascular morbidity, cholelithiasis, arthiritis and certain malignancies, but also in the economic costs to healthcare providers. The great similarity and homology between the genomes of rodents and humans make these animal models an important tool in unraveling the mechanisms involved in the etiology, prevention and treatment of obesity. This review summarizes the various approaches for the induction of obesity in the rodent models via genetic manipulation, hypercaloric diets and neuroendocrine perturbations.

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I. INTRODUCTION

besity is a metabolic disorder characterized by an excessive accumulation of fat in the body to a sufficient magnitude which adversely affects the health of an individual. It is a direct consequence of perpetual imbalance between energy intake and expenditure with storage of extra calories in the form of triglycerides in the adipose tissue¹⁻². It is increasing probably, as a consequence of easily available hypercaloric diet and an increasingly sedentary lifestyle. Thus it can be appropriately termed as New World Syndrome or Disease of Civilization³. In obesity, there is an increase in intake of high fat and high energy food and a decrease in daily energy expenditure⁴. Diet and physical reduce appetite or to inhibit fat absorption⁵. However in exercise remain as main stay in obesity management; nonetheless antiobesity drugs may be required either to gastric balloon may be placed to reduce stomach volume and or bowel length, leading to earlier satiation and reduced ability to absorb nutrients from food $^{6-7}$.

Animal models of obesity not only allow us to investigate the basic mechanisms by which food intake is regulated but also act as tool for investigation of mechanism of antiobesity drugs. These models also provide significant insights into the etiology of human

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obesity consequently aiding in the development of pharmaceuticals for treatment of obesity. The animal models used for study of obesity either have a spontaneous origin or the result of experimental manipulation of the environmental or hypothalamic center that regulate food intake and energy balance or gene expression⁸. The rodent models are advantageous also in terms of their size, ease of handling, fast reproduction rate, shorter generation time availability of accurate and reliable metabolic tests^{2,5,9}. This review summarizes the various approaches for induction of obesity in the rodent models via dietary manipulations, genetic interventions neuroendocrinological or perturbations.

II. DIET INDUCED MODELS

Diet induced obesity models are best suited and simplest obesity induction models and possibly the one that most closely resembles the reality of obesity in humans. Hypercaloric value diets varying between 3.7Kcal/g and 5.4Kcal/g have proved effective for induction of obesity¹⁰. The environmental conditions including temperature, duration of light and dark period, number of animals per cage or the feeding system used for the cages are important to develop these types of models¹¹. Hence, to minimize the data variability, it is important to control the environmental conditions. Another factor that has to be considered is the age of the animals at which study is conducted. It is most effective to start high fat diet feeding at a young age, but it is also important to take into consideration that the energy balance differs in young compared to older animals. For example rats in their pubertal age rapidly gain lean mass and show completely different metabolic features compared to aged rats, which may in turn be losing lean mass and gaining fat mass. Another important variable is the duration of an obesity producing diet, that is the longer the feeding period, the greater the increment of bodyweight gain and presumably body fat.

a) High Fat Diet (HFD) Induced Models

Diet-induced obesity (DIO) has a late onset and is developed after feeding mice with high-fat diet which includes (powdered normal chow, 365 g; lard, 310 g; casein, 250 g; cholesterol, 10 g; vitamin and mineral mix, 60 g; dl-methionine, 03 g; yeast powder, 01 g; and NaCl, 01 g for 1.0 kg of diet)¹² for 10 weeks. Prolonged

Exposure to HFD results in positive energy balance and obesity in certain rodent models that can be considered an adequate model of human obesity¹³⁻¹⁴. The male C57BL/6J mouse is the gold standard for a diet induce obese model. The C57BL/6J mouse develops obesity only when allowed ad libitum access to a high-fat diet whereas on a low-fat diet. C57BL/6J mice remain normal. In comparison to C57BL/6J, other strains such as the A/J mouse or the C57BL/KsJ are relatively resistant to these effects when fed a HFD¹⁵. The adipocyte hypertrophy and hyperplasia are responsible for obese phenotype in the C57BL/6J mouse. The outbred Sprague-Dawley rat is markedly more sensitive to HFD-induced obesity than other common rat strains. However, when outbred Sprague-Dawley rats are placed on a high-energy diet, only a subset of them overeat and develop diet induced obesity (DIO) whereas others remain lean (diet resistant, DR)¹⁶⁻¹⁷. The obesity prone subset of rats becomes obese, hyperphagic, hyperleptinemic, hyperinsulinemic, hyperglycemic, and hypertriglyceridemic¹⁷. The obese phenotype results from hyperphagia which is caused by an increase in meal size and increased energy efficiency¹⁸. The DIO rat displays a central resistance to circulating leptin indicating that reduced central leptin signaling may be involved in the etiology of hyperphagia in the obesity proneness. DIO rats exhibit a positive energy balance and a significantly higher respiratory quotient than DR rats, indicating a lower usage of fat as energy substrate. The physiological aspects of this model replicate many of the features observed with the human obesity syndrome: a polygenic mode of inheritance, a persistence of the phenotype once it is established, and dysregulated glucose homeostasis¹⁹.

b) High Fructose Fed Animal Models

Fructose has several adverse metabolic effects, including hypertriglyceridemia, hyperinsulinemia and hypertension in rodents and induces moderate obesity²⁰

The abnormalities and the disease progression in fructose fed rats resemble the human condition of metabolic syndrome, and are important risk factors for coronary heart disease. As to the metabolic mechanisms underlying the effects of dietary fructose the general notion is that hepatic intermediary metabolism is more affected by ingestion of fructose alucose. Fructose bypasses phosphofructokinase regulatory step and enters the pathway of glycolysis or gluconeogenesis at the triose phosphate level, resulting in increased hepatic trialyceride production²¹. Recent findings also provide a novel hypothesis: Fructose raises uric acid, which in turn inhibits nitric oxide availability. Since insulin requires nitric oxide to stimulate glucose uptake it can be speculated that fructose-induced hyperuricemia may have a pathogenic role in promoting insulin resistance and metabolic syndrome²².

c) Cafeteria Rats

The mixture of palatable commercially available supermarket food can act as a diet to stimulate energy intake in rodents. This diet is known as cafeteria diet, It is the combination of the high fat content with a high carbohydrate content²³. These diets can be implicated in the development of obesity, leading to significant body weight gain, fat deposition and also insulin resistance²⁴. It has been suggested that rats become more obese with cafeteria diets than with pure high fat diets, indicating a greater hyperphagia arising from the food variety, texture and palatability²⁵.

III. VENTEROMEDIAL HYPOTHALAMIC (VMH) NUCLEUS LESION

a) Monosodium Glutamate (MSG)

The ventromedial hypothalamic and arcuate nuclei is considered to be the area which controls the food intake and energy expenditure. The administration of monosodium glutamate to newborn rats is responsible for the destruction of the ventromedial hypothalamic and arcuate nuclei which leads to development of obesity. The subcutaneous or intraperitoneal route can be used for administration of MSG²⁶⁻²⁷. The dose that varies by 2-4 g/kg of body weight of the rat for 5 times every other day, during the neonatal period of rat causes obesity²⁸⁻³¹. Overeating is not responsible for the obesity in neonatal MSG treated rodents. MSG obesity is associated with high level of corticosteroids²⁸. The increase in the level of glucocorticoids is due to the chronic exposure of the adrenal gland to high serum levels of leptin, which occurs in rats treated with MSG³²⁻³³.

b) Electrical VMH Lesion

The Electrical VMH lesion can be used to induce obesity. A bilateral destruction of hypothalamic nuclei, which leads to obesity can be caused by passing a current of 1.2 mA for 4 seconds, repeated thrice at an interval of 30-second each after adjusting the position of electrodes³⁴. The stereotactic instruments can be used to cause injury with a single electrical current of 2.5 mA for 15 seconds by placing the tip of the rat nose 3.3 mm below the interaural line and positioning the tip of a stainless steel electrode 2.6 mm behind the bregma, 0.5-0.6 mm lateral to the midline and below the base of the brain and raised 0.5mm³⁵. The irritative theory suggests that the hypothalamic nuclei gets destroyed due to the deposition of iron ions in the hypothalamus with the introduction of electrodes, the ablative theory is of the view that the cause of injury is electric current only. Studies were performed comparing electric injury with radiofrequency (without ion deposition) using the conventional technique and the results obtained were a lower index of obesity using radio frequency. Therefore, both mechanisms are involved in the development of obesity³⁶⁻³⁹.

IV. OVARIECTOMY

The initial leptin level drops by the removal of gonads from female rats, which causes hyperphagia and marked weight gain. Seven weeks after ovariectomy, the leptin levels rise again reaching much higher levels that the preoperative ones. It is not known whether this increase is due to resistance to leptin, and could involve hypothalamic receptors⁴⁰⁻⁴¹. More recent studies have tried to find changes in the expression of genes related to energy expenditure in ovariectomized rats to account for weight gain⁴². It appears that leptin and estradiol do not regulate themselves directly, because administration of these in intact female rats did not show that it altered either of them, and the reciprocal is true⁴³⁻⁴⁴. Therefore it is believed that there is a factor responsible for alerting the hypothalamus to the fact that estrogen production has ceased. A few studies speculate on the participation of neuropeptide Y. It appears to serve as a signal to the hypothalamus when the estrogen levels have dropped, since it would be raised after ovariectomy and would remain at the same levels if hormone replacement occurred in the female rats41,45.

v. Genetic Models of Obesity

The genetic models of obesity are very useful and can be easily developed. The use of these models to study obesity increased in the 1990s because of cloning and identification of the product of five different genes causing obesity. Furthermore, it was discovered that by crossing quantitative trait loci (QTL) with known genes, i.e., obese phenotypes vs identified genotype, the influence of quantitative gene loci, and its penetrance in the quantity of body fat and its distribution⁴⁶⁻⁴⁷.

a) Monogenic Model Of Obesity

The diabetic (db/db), obese(ob/ob), Tubby (tub), "Agouti" yellow(Ay) and fat (fat) were first five monogenic models of obesity. Over a century ago The "Agouti" rat was described for the first time and it was the first obesity gene to be cloned and characterized at the molecular level in1992. Agouti is expressed in adipose tissue as well as in several other tissues in humans, suggesting that it could be involved in regulating the energy balance. The over expression of agouti in adipose tissue, by genetic modification in rats, results in increased body weight than the non genetically modified ones, without any change in the amount of intake. This suggest that the increase of fatty mass in these rats could be the result of changes in the energy expenditure 46-47. The gene of the obese rat (ob/ob) was cloned at the end of 1994, followed a year later by cloning the diabetic one (db/db). In experimental studies, it was found that a circulating factor of a normal rat or a db/db rat, when administered in an ob/ob rat, normalized its weight. But when this factor of a normal rat or an ob/ob was placed in a db/db rat, there was no weight change. These results strongly suggested that both genes were from the same metabolic pathway, and that db/db could be an ob/ob receptor, which was later proved. This factor was called leptin, i.e., a hormone produced by the ob/ob gene, that was responsible for communicating with the brain concerning the level of energy stored in adipose tissue in the form of fat⁴⁶⁻⁴⁷.

b) Polygenic Models of Obesity

The body weight, adiposity and related metabolic traits shows significant variability in rodents, as with human beings⁴⁸. The high fat diet causes obesity and insulin resistance in inbred C57BI/6J mice, but this strain remains non obese when fed on chow diet49 Susceptibility to diet-induced obesity in this strain is polygenic and has been associated with hyperphagia and leptin resistance. AKR/J mice are also prone to diet induced obesity, however, unlike C57BI/6J, AKR/J do not become hyperglycemic on a high-fat diet⁵⁰. The SWR/J strain prefers carbohydrates and remains thin on high calorie diets⁵¹. Similarly, A/J mice are less prone to obesity⁴⁹. As expected, these obesity-resistant mouse strains are less susceptible to hyperglycemia⁴⁹. Obesity prone and resistant rats have also been bred in Sprague–Dawley and Fischer 344 genetic background⁵² Together, these models facilitate the study of how diet and other environmental factors affect body weight, adiposity and metabolic disorders⁵³.

VI. Transgenic Models of Obesity

a) Pro-Opiomelanocortin and Melanocortin Receptor Knockouts

Adrenocorticotropin (ACTH), α , β - and γ melanocyte stimulating hormone (MSH), and the opioid β-endorphin are the Pro-opiomelanocortin (POMC) derived peptides. Leptin, a soluble hormone secreted from the adipocytes, acts on the POMC neurons of the hypothalamic arcuate nucleus⁵⁴⁻⁵⁵. The acute anorectic effects of leptin 4 appears due to the activation of POMC neurons and its activation might also be involved in the stimulation of metabolism by leptin⁵⁶. Five melanocortin receptors have been cloned (MC1-5R). Two of these receptors (MC3R and MC4R) are expressed in the CNS in regions involved in energy homeostasis. The development of MC3R and MC4R knockouts help us to know the roles of the neurons expressing these receptors as there is no specific melanocortin receptor agonists. Melanocortin-4 receptor knockout (MC4RKO) mice exhibit the same phenotype observed in Ay/a mice, notably obesity, hyperphagia, increased longitudinal growth and in some cases the development of type 2 diabetes⁵⁶⁻⁵⁷. Mice in which the Pomc1 gene has been inactivated, exhibit obesity and hyperphagia and mice lacking a functional Mc3r gene also exhibit increased adiposity⁵⁸⁻⁵⁹.

b) Neuropeptide Y Receptor Knockouts

Neuropeptide Y (NPY) is a 36-amino acid peptide neurotransmitter found in the brain. The genetic approaches to the study of the role of NPY in energy homeostasis have included knockouts of the NPY receptor genes Npy1r⁶⁰⁻⁶¹, Npy2r⁶², and Npy5r⁶³. It has been shown that there are at least six receptors for

. Surprisingly, for the receptors of an orexigenic all of the NPY receptor knockout mice developed so far exhibit a mild late-onset obesity. The Npy1r knockout mouse exhibited a 27% increase in mature bodyweight in females. The Npy2r knockout mouse exhibited mild late-onset obesity in response to a HFD,

th greater sensitivity in the females⁶³.The Npy5r knockout mouse exhibited mild obesity with increased adiposity and hyperphagia⁶⁴.

c) Peroxisome-Proliferator-Activated Receptors(PPAR)

The PPAR are members of the steroid/thyroid/retinoid receptor superfamily that transactivate a variety of genes involved in the control of lipid metabolism65. The PPAR α isoform is primarily expressed in liver, kidney, heart and skeletal muscle. The development of a mouse line with a disruption of the gene encoding PPAR α has made it possible to determine the role of this receptor in vivo66. PPAR $\alpha-/-$ mice develop late-onset obesity.

d) Steroid Receptor Knockouts

Estrogens are not just sex hormones, they play an important role in white adipose tissue regulation as estrogen replacement decreases white adipose tissue. ER knockouts exhibit an increase in white adipose tissue and reduced energy expenditure⁶⁷. The ER knockout mice have helped to unravel the role of estrogen receptors in obesity⁶⁸. Follicle stimulating hormone receptor is expressed on the granulose cells of the ovary⁶⁹. Follicle stimulating hormone developing knockouts (FORKO) retards ovarian development and causes chronic estrogen deficiency. Female FORKO develop obesity that is associated with an increased deposition of abdominal fat and that is reversed by estradiol treatment.

VII. **B3-ADRENORECEPTORS**

All three known subtypes of β -adrenergic receptors (β -ARs) are expressed in adipose tissue; however, the β 3-AR appears to predominate in brown fat in the rodent. Mice lacking expression of the β 3-AR (β 3-KO) have normal body weight compared to WT mice, although they do exhibit modest increases in total body fat. Fed insulin and glucose levels and food intake are unchanged in the β 3-KO mice; however, the increase in insulin and metabolic rate and decrease in glucose and food intake in response to a β 3-AR agonist is eliminated. Compensatory mechanisms might operate in the β 3-KO animals to maintain normal energy homeostasis and, in fact, the expression of β 1-AR

mRNA is upregulated in brown and white adipose tissue in these mice.

VIII. CONCLUSION

As the incidence of obesity is progressing at alarming rate worldwide, there is a great need for relevant experimental models to provide a better understanding of the pathophysiology of this epidemic to facilitate its therapy and prevention. The multifactorial etiology of obesity provides substantial alternatives for induction of obesity in the experimental models. The animal models may be grouped into genetic, dietary and neuroendocrine forms depending on the origin of the obesity. Although the ultimate model for this human malady is man himself; nevertheless these models provide in valuable insight into the physiological mechanisms that control the energy homeostasis. This information further catalysis the future prospective research for identification of potential therapeutic interventions for obesity. The key factor governing the choice of the model may be either environmental or genetic, depending on the characteristics to be targeted for research.

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Methods and Procedures	Clear and to the point with well arranged paragraph, precision and accuracy of facts and figures, well organized subheads	Difficult to comprehend with embarrassed text, too much explanation but completed	Incorrect and unorganized structure with hazy meaning
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References	Complete and correct format, well organized	Beside the point, Incomplete	Wrong format and structuring



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