

A COMPREHENSIVE REVIEW ON *IN VITRO* AND *IN VIVO* MODELS USED FOR ANTIDIABETIC ACTIVITY

Abdul Rasheed Varikkappulakkal*, Surendra Kumar Muniyandi,
Afeefa Cheryachamveetil Malyekall, Rajesh Venugopalan and Babu Ganesan

Department of Pharmacology, Devaki Amma Memorial College of Pharmacy, Chelembra,
Kerala, India.

Article Received on
12 April 2016,

Revised on 01 May 2016,
Accepted on 22 May 2016

DOI: 10.20959/wjpr20166-6368

*Corresponding Author

Abdul Rasheed

Varikkappulakkal

Department of
Pharmacology, Devaki
Amma Memorial College
of Pharmacy, Chelembra,
Kerala, India.

ABSTRACT

Diabetes mellitus- commonly known as diabetes, is a disease characterized by high blood sugar level. This high blood sugar level is due to either the body does not produce insulin in normal level or cells do not respond to the insulin produced by the body. According to World Health Organization(WHO), diabetes is currently one of the biggest health concerns that the world is faced with. WHO defines diabetes as “a chronic disease that occurs either when the pancreas does not produce enough insulin or when the body cannot effectively use the insulin it produces”. According to statistics of IDF(International Diabetes Federation), India has more diabetics than any other countries of the world. As per the current statistics the number of diabetics in the country is ranging about more than 62

million and it is expected by the year of 2030, over 100 million people in India are likely to suffer from diabetes. The current review paper highlights about the various *in vivo* and *in vitro* models that are used to evaluate this alarming disease.

KEYWORDS: Diabetes mellitus, Insulin, *in vitro*, *in vivo* and models.

INTRODUCTION

Pancreas is a gastro intestinal, endocrine organ lied in the upper abdomen behind the stomach. It secretes digestive enzymes in to the intestine, hormones into the blood stream to control energy metabolism. Pancreas comprises of two parts-a. exocrine pancreas comprises more than 95% of the pancreas, it includes acinar, duct cells associated with connective tissues, vessels and nerves. This portion of pancreas produces and secretes enzymes that are

helpful for digestion. b. Endocrine pancreas - also known as “the islet”, comprises 1-2 % of the whole pancreatic mass. It produce and secrete insulin, glucagon, somatostatins and pancreatic polypeptide hormones into the blood.^[1] Insulin is a polypeptide hormone produced by the β cell of pancreatic islet of langerhans. It maintains glucose level in blood by cellular glucose uptake, carbohydrate regulation, lipid metabolism and protein metabolism. It also promote celldivision and growth through mitogenic effects.^[2]

Insulin deficiencies

- a. **Insulin resistance:** It is a condition of normal or increased insulin level resulting in different biological responses.^[2&3]
- b. **Compensatory hyperinsulinaemic:** It is a condition resulting from the increased beta cell secretion to maintain normal blood glucose level resulting from the peripheral insulin resistance in muscle and adipose tissue.^[2]
- c. **Diabetes mellitus:** Commonly known as diabetes, is a disease characterized by high blood sugar level and shows characteristic symptoms like polydipsia (increased thirst), polyuria (frequent urination) and polyphagia (increased hunger). The high blood sugar level is due to either the body does not produce insulin in normal level or cells do not respond to the insulin produced by the body. Diabetes can be divided to different types according to the cause of disease.^[4]

Type 1 diabetes: It is also named as insulin dependent diabetes mellitus. It is characterized by insulin deficiency resulting from beta cell necrosis due to invasion by virus, action of chemicals or action of autoimmune anti-bodies.^[5&6]

Type 2 diabetes: It is also named as non-insulin dependent diabetes mellitus and it is characterized by target organ insulin resistance, which resulting responsiveness to both endogenous and exogenous insulin.^[5&7]

Type 3 diabetes: Type 3 diabetes is a proposed form of Alzheimer’s disease, characterized by decreased utilization of glucose and resulting insulin resistance in brain. Patients with alzheimer’s shows less insulin and insulin receptors than the normal subjects and treatment with insulin has been associated with improved memory and cognition.^[8-10] This type of diabetes is also obtained by chronic pancreatitis or chronic treatment with glucocorticoids, thiazide diuretics and with some protease inhibitors.^[5]

Type 4 diabetes: This type of diabetes is normally seen in pregnancy duration due to placental hormones that promotes insulin resistance.^[5&11]

Pathogenesis of diabetes mellitus

The auto immune elimination of beta cell which is mediated by factors such as environmental and viral are responsible for IDDM. The beta cell destruction leads to decreased insulin release and obesity leads to insulin resistance which is responsible for NIDDM.^[12-14] The metabolic impairment of glucose in skeletal muscle and liver is mediated by insulin resistance. Due to this resistance glucose intolerance and hepatocyte destruction will take place which mediated to hyperinsulinaemia by the increased level of growth hormone, glucagon, free fatty acids and cytokines. All the above factors indirectly result in dysfunction of beta cell of pancreas which finally result in diabetes mellitus.^[12&16]

Diagnosis of diabetes

Measurement of blood glucose: If a person having plasma glucose greater than 7.0mmol/l (126 mg/dl) or 2 h plasma glucose greater than 11.1mmol/l (200mg/dl) then we can say that person is suffering from diabetes. Measurement of blood glucose level is the diagnostic criteria for diabetes, glucose can be measured by separating plasma from blood immediately or blood is collected into a tube containing glycolytic inhibitors and place on ice water until separated prior to analysis.^[17]

Oral glucose tolerance test (OGTT): The oral glucose tolerance test (OGTT) measures the time it takes for glucose to exit from your blood after absorbing a glucose drink. The test will take approximately 2.5 hours (Half an hour rest prior to test and two hours test time). Results of the OGTT not only diagnose diabetes but can decide if you have weakened fasting glucose (IFG) or weakened glucose tolerance (IGT). Having either of these conditions indicates a significantly increased risk of developing diabetes in future.^[18]

Glycated Haemoglobin (HbA1c): Now a day's HbA1c is not considered as a suitable conclusion test for diabetes due to its cut point as 6.5 % in blood. If the value is less than 6.5 % other glucose tests are performed to confirm diabetes.^[17&19]

Fasting blood glucose test: Blood glucose can be checked after fasting in the middle of 12 and 14 hours. Patients should strictly avoid any other beverage, allowed to take water during this

time and diabetic patients advised to detain their diabetes treatment or insulin dose until the test is completed.^[17&20]

Random blood glucose test: Blood glucose levels are measured randomly in a day, the test doesn't affect the time of eating. Constant test result indicate the person is free from diabetes.^[17&20]

MODELS TO EVALUATE ANTI DIABETIC PROPERTIES OF DRUGS

I. *IN VIVO* ANIMAL MODELS OF DIABETES MELLITUS

a) Chemically induced diabetic animals

i. Alloxan induced diabetes

Alloxan is a urea imitative used to induction of type 1 diabetes in animals like rabbits, rats, mice and dogs. Diabetes is generated by the selective destruction of beta cell of pancreatic islet.^[5&21]

Mechanism of action

Alloxan administration makes a sudden rise in insulin secretion in the existence or absence of glucose for a short duration followed by result in the complete suppression of the islet reaction to glucose even when large concentrations of glucose is used.^[5, 22&23]

Method

Diabetes is induced by intraperitoneal injection of 150mg/kg of freshly prepared alloxan monohydrate in normal saline to overnight fasted rats. After 72h of injection rats with blood glucose levels more than 200mg/kg were considered diabetic and selected for the study. The blood glucose levels and body weight were measured on day 1, 7 and 14 of the study.^[24]

ii. Streptozotocin (STZ)

STZ (2-deoxy-2-(3-(methyl-3-nitrosoureido)-D-glucopyranose) is cytotoxic especially to β -cells of the pancreas, it is utilized to produce IDDM in animal model and NIDDM with multiple low doses. It is also used in medicine for treating metastatic cancer of islets of Langerhans.^[5&25]

Mechanism of Action

In mammalian cells streptozotocin acts by the prevention of DNA (Deoxyribonucleic acid) synthesis, via entering to the pancreatic cell by the help of glucose transporter-GLUT2 (Glucose transporter 2) and generate alkylation of DNA. Further STZ induces activation of

poly adenosine diphosphate ribosylation and nitric oxide release, as a result of nitric oxide release pancreatic β -cells are destroyed by necrosis and finally induced insulin dependent diabetes.^[5,26 &27]

Method

Diabetes was generated by single intraperitoneal injection of Streptozotocin (45 mg/kg b.w) dissolved in freshly prepared 0.1M of cold citrate buffer, administered to overnight fasted rats. Rats with fasting blood glucose concentration, >250 mg/dl considered as diabetic and selected for further experimentation. During the study period, blood glucose levels and body weight of all the rats were determined at regular meantime. At the end of the study, the rats were overnight fasted, anaesthetized, and sacrificed by cervical decapitation. The blood was collected with or without anticoagulant for plasma or serum separation respectively and analyzed for sugar levels.^[28]

iii. Dithizone

Dithizone administration shows increased level of serum zinc, iron and potassium than normal animals but copper and magnesium levels were unchanged. Most of these serum levels were normal after treatment with insulin, except for serum potassium and magnesium.^[5&29]

Mechanism of Action

Dithizone permeate the membranes and form a complex with zinc present inside the liposomes with the liberation of protons, which can enhance diabetogenicity. Such proton release occurs within the zinc-containing insulin storage granules of pancreatic β -cells; the solubilisation of insulin would be occur which mediate to osmotic stress and eventually the granule break and finally diabetes is induced.^[5&30]

Method

Diabetes induction was obtained by intraperitoneal administration of Dithizone (5mg/kg body weight) to the rats. They were allowed for 72h for development of diabetes. After 72 h, rats with blood glucose levels more than 200mg/kg were considered diabetic and selected for the study. Blood was drawn for biological estimations after 06, 12, 18 and 24hrs of oral administration test drug.^[31]

iv. Monosodium glutamate

Monosodium glutamate produce type -2 diabetes without polyphagia. It will increase plasma glutamate concentration and stimulates insulin secretion.^[5, 12 & 32]

Mechanism of Action

Monosodium glutamate causes glycosuria in mice without polyphagia. The glucose concentration in blood, total cholesterol and triglyceride were higher within 29 weeks.^[5 & 33]

b) Hormone Induced Diabetes

Some hormones also modify insulin release in response to glucose. The islet of Langerhans comprises four types of cells i.e β , α , δ and Polypeptide (pancreatic polypeptide) cells. The β -cell produces insulin, which is a potent anabolic hormone having a growth promoting effect and multiple synthetic effect. The α -cell secrete glucagon, which induce hyperglycemia by its glycogenolytic activity in liver. The δ -cell produce somatostatins, which suppress both insulin and glucagon release and polypeptide cells produce a unique pancreatic polypeptide that makes several effects like pancreatic enzyme secretion and inhibition of gall bladder contraction.^[12 & 34] The repeated dosing of growth hormone in rats do not show any sign of diabetes, but grow faster, the similar treatment in adult dogs and cats make intensive diabetes with all signs including severe ketonuria and ketonemia.^[17 & 35]

i. Role of growth hormone in diabetes mellitus

Growth hormone is one of glucose counter regulatory hormone. Rising in level of growth hormone lead to insulin resistance and hyperglycemia.^[12 & 36]

ii. Role of Corticosteroid in diabetes mellitus

Corticosteroid is utilized to reduce inflammation but it can lead to diabetes. Glucocorticoids dislike insulin action and invigorating gluconeogenesis, mainly in the liver, resulting in a net increase in hepatic glucose output and induce insulin resistance, hyperglycemia and hyperlipidemia which is called steroid diabetes. Prednisolone and dexamethasone are the most frequent glucocorticoids which generate steroid diabetes.^[5 & 37] In rat's steroid diabetes is generated with cortisone which is secreted from adrenal cortex by the stimulation of corticotrophin.^[17 & 38]

c) Viruses Induced Diabetes

Viruses can induce diabetes in two ways such as either direct (infection) destruction of beta cells or by initiation of an autoimmune response to beta cells.^[12,17&39]

i. D- Variant Encephalomyocarditis

“M variant” of EMC virus induce diabetes by initiation of diabetic like syndrome and it selectively infect pancreatic cells. In certain inbred strains of mice EMC- D virus can infect and demolish pancreatic beta cells and produce insulin dependent hyperglycemia. In ICR Swiss mice pre-treatment with a potent immunosuppressive drug, cyclosporine-A expand acuteness and occurrence of diabetes.^[5,40&41]

ii. Coxsackie Viruses

Coxsackie viruses can cause diabetes in mice by infection and demolition of pancreatic acinar cells while leaving the adjacent islets of Langerhans intact. In humans Coxsackie B4 virus is strongly related with the evolution of insulin-dependent diabetes mellitus. Diabetes generated by Coxsackie virus infection is a direct outcome of local infection resulting in inflammation, tissue damage and re-stimulation of resting auto reactive T cells resulting from the release of sequestered islet antigen, further indicating that the islet antigen sensitization is an indirect outcome of the viral infection.^[5, 42&43]

d) Genetically diabetic animals

Genetically or Spontaneously diabetic animals are generally inherited diabetes either by single or multi gene defects. Single gene defect (monogenic) may be obtained by dominant gene (*e.g.*, Yellow obese or KK/Ay mouse) or recessive gene (diabetic or db/db mouse, Zucker fatty rat) or it can be of polygenic origin [*e.g.*, Kuo Kondo (KK) mouse New Zealand obese (NZO) mouse]. Genetically diabetic animals of NIDDM may be obtained from the animals with one or several genetic mutations transmitted from generation to generation (*e.g.*, ob/ob, db/db mice) or by selected from non-diabetic outbred animals by repeated breeding over several generation [*e.g.*, (GK) rat, Tsumura Suzuki Obese Diabetes (TSOD) mouse].^[44&45]

I. Spontaneously diabetic rats**1. Bio Breeding (BB) Rat**

The BB rat is a spontaneous diabetes model, which is related with insulin deficiency and insulinitis due to autoimmune demolition of pancreatic beta cells by immune attack with T cells, B cells. The immunosuppressive agent mycophenolate mofetil can avert the evolution of diabetes in BB rats. The onset of clinical diabetes generally seen at 60-120 days of age and

severe hyperglycemia continue after several days related with hypoinsulinemia and ketosis.^[12, 17 &46]

2. Cohen diabetic rat(CDR)

Cohen reported that hyperglycemia, glucosuria and hyperinsulinemia are characteristics of Cohen rats. It's a derived model of diet induced type 2 diabetes. It shows genetic susceptibility (sensitivity and resistance) to a carbohydrate-rich diet.^[12,17,44,47&48] Cohen rats is noticed with a late evolution of β - cell dysfunctioning, hypoinsulinemia, insulin resistance and a lessen in the number and sensitivity of insulin receptors.^[12,17&48] The Cohen rat strain, metabolic phenotypes of the rebred colony of CDs (Cohen diabetic sensitive) and CDr (Cohendiabetic resistant) rats are useful experimental model that is mostly suitable for studying the interaction between nutritional-metabolic environmental factors and genetic susceptibility for the progress of type2 diabetes and also useful for investigating the effect of sex on the expression of diabetic phenotype.^[44&48]

3. WBN/KOB rat

The animals of Wistar strain also named as WBN/KOB rat are associated with impaired glucose tolerance and glucosuria at 21 weeks of age. The degeneration takes place mainly around islets and pancreatic ducts at 16 weeks old male rat, they also develop demyelination, predominantly motor neuropathy. After 12 weeks of age fibrinous exudation and deterioration of pancreatic tissue in the exocrine part and lessen in the number and size of islets is observed.^[47&49]

4. Goto-Kakizaki (GK) rat

GK (Goto-Kakizaki) rats are non-obese polygenic model of NIDDM with highly inherited strain of Wistar rats that spontaneously develop type II diabetes. It is established by Goto and his collaborators by selective inbreeding of Wistar rats with abnormal glucose tolerance repeated over several generations in Japan in 1973.^[17, 44 &50] GK rat is mainly used for studying the relation of changes in beta cell mass, occurrence of NIDDM and diabetic complications (particularly diabetic nephropathy).^[44] Diabetic complications are specified by non-obesity, average but stable hyperglycaemia in adult, hypoinsulinaemia, normolipidaemia, impaired glucose tolerance, glucose stimulated insulin secretion, peripheral insulin resistance along with impaired skeletal muscle glycogen synthase activation by insulin. It is also accompanied by chronic activation of diacylglycerol-sensitive protein kinase C. Which are all appears at 2-4 week of age.^[12, 17, 44, 50-52]

5. Zucker-fatty rat

Zucker-fatty rat is a classic model of hyperinsulinemic obesity. It is specified by hyperphagia and early onset of obesity (which appear at 4 week of age) due to a simple autosomal recessive (fa) gene, along with increased growth of subcutaneous fat deposition. It also shows mild hyperglycaemia, peripheral insulin resistance similar to human NIDDM, mild glucose intolerance, hyperlipidaemia, hyperinsulinaemia and moderate hypertension.^[17,44,53-56] Different insulin sensitizing and anti-obesity agents are screened by using Zucker fatty rat.^[12&57]

6. Zucker diabetic fatty rat (ZDF/DRT-FA)

It is a substrain of ZFR, selectively inbred for hyperglycaemia and useful for the investigation of mechanism related with insulin resistance and β - cell dysfunction in type 2 diabetes.^[12&44] It is less obese but more insulin resistant than ZFR, extreme hyperphagia due to the loss of calories by glucosuria are the characteristics of these animals. In these diabetes is produced by lipotoxicity to the beta-cell.^[17, 44, 58&59]

7. WDF/TA-FA

Wistar Kyoto rats are developed by shifting of the fatty (fa) gene from the Zucker rat, which exhibits genetically obese, hyperinsulinemia, hyperlipidemia, hyperphagia and more insulin resistant. In normal female rats hyperglycemia is not seen but it can be generated by addition of sucrose to the diet.^[17&60]

8. OLETF rat

OLETF (Otsuka Long Evans Tokushima Fatty) rats with polyuria, polydipsia and mild obesity was obtained from the selective breeding of spontaneous diabetic rats from the outbred colony of Long Evans rats maintained in Otsuka pharmaceuticals, Tokushima, Japan in 1984. This model is widely used in pharmacological research like antidiabetic and antihypertensive drugs.^[17, 44,61-63] In 1995 Aizawa et al., found that OLETF rats completely avert the evolution of obesity and insulin resistance from the age of 4 to 12 weeks. But, Insulin resistance preceded impaired insulin secretion in OLETF rats when diazoxide (0.2% in diet), an inhibitor of insulin secretion was administered. The common specific properties of OLETF rats are a chronic course of disease, renal complications (nodular lesions), mild obesity, hyperglycemia onset is late (after 18 weeks of age), hyperplastic foci of pancreatic islets, males inheritance, resembling of clinical and pathological properties with human

NIDDM features.^[17&64] In OLETF rat's, diabetes is developed by defects in the beta cell proliferation.^[44&65]

9. ESS-rat

ESS-rat is a colony of rats with the occurrence of spontaneous diabetes. Six months old rats shows the disarrangement of the islet anatomy and fibrosis of the stroma. From the age of 2 months onwards the animals show unusual glucose tolerance tests with a syndrome of a mild type of diabetes that does not affect the longevity of the animal.^[17, 66&67]

10. OBESE SHR rat

Koletsky made the strain of obese SHR rats by mating a spontaneous hypertensive female rat of the Kyoto-Wistar strain with a normotensive Sprague- Dawley male. Russell et al., described that JCRLA-corpulent rat substrains of obese SHR rat's exhibits a syndrome characterized by obesity, hypertriglyceridemia and hyperinsulinemia.^[17,68&69] Friedman et al., found that the obese spontaneously hypertensive Koletsky rat have a reduced insulin receptor signaling effect.^[17&70]

11. JCR: LA (James C Russel-LA) -Corpulent rat

JCR: LA (James C Russel-LA) -Corpulent rat used as research model for development of atherosclerotic and myocardial lesions in association with syndrome- X. The major disadvantage of this rat is it become normoglycaemic when fasted.^[44&71] The ultimate metabolic profile including insulin resistance, hyperinsulinaemia, pancreatic beta cell hyperplasia, obesity, glucose intolerance and severe hyperlipidaemia are exhibited because of the presence of recessive gene (*cp* / *cp*). The *cp* gene encodes a stop codon in the leptin receptor producing nonfunctional receptor protein. Incorpulent rats the leptin receptor deficient states along with hypothalamic dysregulation of peptides contribute to hyperphagia and other metabolic abnormalities.^[44]

12. SHR/N-CP rat

Adamo et al., developed the congenic SHR/N-*cp* rat (spontaneously hypertensive rat/NIH-corpulent) by inbreeding of SHR/N strains, by mating a male Koletsky rat heterozygous for the corpulent gene (*cp*/+) to a female rat of the Okamoto strain at the National Institute of Health (NIH), Bethesda, Maryland, USA. It is a genetic model for investigating obesity, NIDDM with hypertension.^[17,44&72] SHR/N-CP rat shows obesity, mild hypertension, hyperinsulinemia and glucose intolerance. It is also used for studying the influence of dietary

carbohydrate on the development of diabetes in certain genetically predisposed carbohydrate sensitive individuals.^[17&44]

13. BHE rat

The BHE rat's shows the diabetic state only at maturity. This rat colony was originally obtained by breeding black and white hooded rats of the Pennsylvania State College strain and albino rats of the Yale (Osborne Mendell) strain. These rats exhibit hyperinsulinemia at 50 days of age. Glucose intolerance and tissue resistance to insulin resulting in hyperglycemia.^[17&73]

II. Spontaneously diabetic mice

1. KK mouse

KK (Kuo Kondo) mouse also known as Japanese KK mouse, is a polygenic model of obesity and NIDDM developed by selective inbreeding in Japan.^[44,73&74] These animals are characteristic with hyperphagic, hyperinsulinaemic, insulin resistant and show average obesity by insulin resistance at 2 months old, which remains maximum at 4-5 months. There is an elevation of pancreatic insulin content is seen along with increase in number and size of pancreatic islets but histologically degranulation of beta cells and hypertrophy of islets of pancreas are found, also there is a depletion of glycogen and an elevation in lipid content shown in sections of the livers.^[12, 17, 44, 75- 77]

2. KK-AY mouse

KK-AY mouse of 5 weeks old shows increased levels of blood glucose and circulating insulin as well as hemoglobin A1c (HbA1c).^[12,17&78] Histo and immunochemical studies show that islets of pancreas are hypertrophied, degranulated and glycogen infiltration of beta-cells, lipogenesis by liver and adipose tissue were increased.^[17, 44, 76 &78] Diani et al., reported that the early onset and fast growth of glomerular basement membrane thickening is an indication of the renal involvement.^[17&78] All These findings concluding that the principal reason for diabetes in KK-AY mice which carrying a yellow obese gene (AY) is insulin resistance which maybe because of defects in both insulin receptor and post receptor signaling systems, inclusive of glucose uptake, pentose pathways and impaired insulin sensitive phosphodiesterase in fat cells. These mice are utilized for investigation of the extra pancreatic action of antihyperglycemic drugs, such as glimepiride, a novel sulfonylurea.^[17&44]

3. NOD mouse

The NOD mouse is a model of IDDM and develops insulinitis at age 4-5 week old, followed by subclinical autoimmune destruction of β -cell. These strain was obtained by inbreeding diabetics. These mice derived originally from the JCLICR strain.^[12, 17, 79 & 80] The pancreatic β -cells destruction is proceeded by dependent auto-immune process of CD4+ and CD8+ T-cell resulting in insulin-dependent diabetes mellitus and the use of a soluble interleukin-1 receptor or an immuno modulating drug can prevent the onset of diabetes in NOD mice.^[17, 80-82] They usually die due to ketosis. If insulin treatment is not given the NOD mouse does not survive for more than one month.^[17 & 80]

4. OBESE hyperglycemic mice

The hypertrophy and hyperplasia of pancreatic islets result in obesity (pear shaped body), that will form by diabetes like syndrome of hyperglycemia, slightly altered glucose tolerance, severe hyperinsulinaemia, sub fertility and impaired wound healing.^[44 & 83] Bleisch et al., observed that there is a hereditary diabetes in genetically obese mice with characteristic features as glycosuric, insulin resistance, the non-fasting blood sugar levels are about 300mg%, but neither ketonuria nor coma is observed. Insulin resistance is the highlighting feature. The obese hyperglycemic mice is different from the diabetic condition of the human diabetic patient.^[17, 84 & 85]

5. Diabetes mouse (DB/DB)

Diabetes mouse (DB/DB) is now relabeled as *leprdb* because of the autosomal recessive mutation of leptin receptor gene derived diabetes in db/db mouse. These mouse shows a severe diabetic symptom indicated by early onset of hyperinsulinaemia and hyperglycemia.^[17, 44, 86 & 87] The leptin receptor (Ob-R) gene encodes 5 different spliced forms.^[17 & 88] These mice is not a completely type 2 diabetic model because mice shows pancreatic islet volume and it is dramatically greater but some abnormalities in insulin secretion is seen, although islet maintains insulin secretion and lack of complete β -cell failure.^[12]

6. Diabetes obesity syndrome in CBA/CA mice

Male CBA/CA mice have a spontaneous maturity of onset diabetes obesity syndrome that occurs at 12-16 weeks old with a small proportion (10-20%), it can increase up to 80% after inbreeding. Diabetic obesity syndrome is indicated by hyperphagia, obesity, hyperglycemia,

hypertriglyceridemia and hyperinsulinemia. Female mice remains normal except with a slight elevation in serum insulin. Exogenous insulin is resistant to these mice.^[17&89]

7. Chinese hamster

Chinese hamsters have high blood sugar levels as a normal of 110 mg% up to 600 mg%., which shows diabetic symptoms as severe polyuria, glucosuria, ketonuria and proteinuria. The treatment with insulin and oral antihyperglycemic drugs will improved the diabetic symptoms. The numbers of islets langerhans are reduced and the cells of the existing islets are abnormal.^[17]

III. Other species with inherited diabetic symptoms

i. Sand rat

The sand rat (*Psammomys obesus*) lives in the desert regions of North Africa and near East, which is used as model of latent type 1 diabetes mellitus it develops obesity, diabetic symptoms within 2-3 months when fed chow(high energy diet) instead of an all-vegetable diet. Symptoms as hyperphagia, hyperinsulinaemia, glucose intolerance were seen. The pancreatic islet cells remain intact followed by beta cell deterioration and necrosis resulting in acute insulin insufficiency and over diabetes and ketosis ultimately leading to death of animal.^[12, 17, 44, 90- 94]

ii. Spiny mouse

Spiny mouse (*Acomys cahirinus*) is a nocturnal that weight 30 -50g and having fur brister on their backs, large light brown mice which is seen in the semi-desert areas of the Eastern Mediterranean.^[17,12&95] They are low insulin secretors but accumulate the insulin in beta cells, the disintegration of this insulin may produce insulin-deficiency. When they fed with on high energy rodent lab chow, they attain weight and shows marked pancreatic beta cell hyperplasia, hypertrophy and increased pancreatic insulin content. In comparison to other animal models, the impairment of the plasma insulin reaction to glucose as well as to other secretogogues is suggesting an impairment in hormone release mechanisms.^[44, 73, 76&92]

iii. African hamster (*Mystromys albicaudatus*)

African hamster is a type for spontaneous diabetes mellitus, characterized by polyuria, polyphagia, polydipsia and pancreatic lesions which include β cell vacuolization, glycogen infiltration, nuclear pycnosis and margination of organelles, pancreatic lesion and β -cell death.^[12, 17 &96]

iv. TUCO-TUCO

Tucotucos (*Ctenomys talarum*) shows a similar diabetic syndrome to *Psammomys obesus* rats and *Acomys cahirinus* mice. It is characterized by degranulation of β -cells, normal bruise in pancreas, but amyloid hyalinization of islets has been observed.^[12,17 &97]

v. MACACA NIGRA (Celebes black apes)

Macaca nigra show an elevated occurrence of spontaneous diabetes mellitus with characteristic signs as hyperglycemia, decreased clearance of glucose, atherosclerosis with stiffened basement membranes of muscle capillaries. These shows less insulin secretion and elevated serum lipids.^[17, 98&99]

e. Transgenic Animals

i. Transgenic Mice

Transgenic mouse is a prototype for chronic hyperglycemia. It is used to examine the role of genes and their effects on peripheral insulin action such as insulin receptor, IRS-1, IRS-2, glucose transporter (GLUT 4), peroxisome proliferator activated receptor- γ (PPAR- γ).^[17,44 &100]

ii. Surgically induced diabetic model

a. Pancreatectomy in dogs

70 or 90 per cent of partial pancreatectomy dissection reported in various animal species mostly in dogs, pigs, rabbit and rats results in polyuria, polydipsia, polyphagia and severe glucosuria. The injection of concentrate of the pancreatic glands shows depletion of the high blood sugar levels in pancreatectomized dogs.^[17,44,83,101-103] Pancreatectomized dogs marked by average hyperglycaemia with neither reduction in body weight nor reduction in plasma insulin levels, insulin resistance. Improvement in insulin resistance is observed by administration of insulin or phlorizin which is an inhibitor of renal glucose reabsorption.^[44, 104 &105]

f. Miscellaneous Models

i. Invertebrate animal model

In this model silk worm *Bombyx mori* is utilized for the assessment of anti-diabetic drugs. When the silk worm is fed with a high-glucose diet (10% glucose-containing diet) for 3 days which elevates 4 fold hemolymph sugar level compared to silk worms fed on a normal diet.

The hemolymph sugar level elevates following intake of up to a 33% glucose diet, body size and weight was also used as other parameters for this model.^[17]

ii. Diet Induced metabolic dysregulation

In this model male albino Wistar rats and non-human primates Baboon (*Papio hamadryas* sp.) are commonly used. The diabetes was generated in male albino wistar rats by a high fructose diet (66 % fructose and 1.1% coconut oil) resulting in increased glucose and glycosylated haemoglobin level.^[12&106] In non-human primates Baboon (*Papio hamadryas* sp.) diabetes was produced with high sugar, high fat diet after 12h fasting. The composition of diet includes 73% Purina Monkey Chow 5038 (a grain-based meal), 7% lard, 4% Crisco, 4% coconut oil, 10.5% flavored more fructose corn syrup, and 1.5% water. After 8 weeks of dietary exposure non-human primates Baboon shows an expansion in body fat and triglyceride concentration is observed along with change in percentage glycosylated hemoglobin (HbA1c) and adipokines. The baboons and humans are similar in genetically, anatomically and physiologically, metabolic disorders.^[17&107]

II. INVITRO MODELS FOR ANTIDIABETIC ACTIVITY ASSESSMENT

In vitro studies are utilized to determine specific mechanisms and toxicities, which are performed by biological materials such as perfused whole organs, isolated tissues, cell culture systems or tissue slice preparations. Antihyperglycemic effects can be examined by *in vivo* animal models or *in vitro* using a variety test methods such as inhibition of carbohydrate digesting enzyme model, inhibition of intestinal glucose uptake model etc.,^[108]

a) Models to study inhibition of Carbohydrate digesting enzymes

i. Assay of α -amylase inhibitory activity

To 500 μ l of various concentrations of prepared test samples and standard drug (Acarbose) add 500 μ l of 0.20mM phosphate buffer (pH 6.9) holding α -amylase (0.5mg/ml) solution. The contents were then incubated at 25°C for 10min. To this 500 μ l of a 1% starch solution in 0.02M sodium phosphate buffer (pH 6.9) was add on to each tube. The solution mixtures was then incubated at 25°C for 10min. The reaction was stopped with 1.0ml of 3, 5 dinitrosalicylic acid color reagent ((1 g 3,5-dinitrosalicylic acid in a solution containing 20mL of 2mol/L NaOH, 50mL distilled water and 30g Rochelle salt). The test tubes were then incubated in a boiling water bath for 5min, allow to cool at room temperature. The reaction content was then diluted after adding 10ml distilled water and absorbance was read at 540nm. 50% Inhibitory Concentration (IC₅₀) is calculated by the following formula

$$I \% = (Ac-As)/Ac \times 100$$

Where Ac is the absorbance of the control and As is the absorbance of the sample.^[109-111]

ii. Assay of α -glucosidase inhibitory activity

Dahlqvist method is used to prepare crude enzyme solution of rat intestinal α -glucosidase and sucrose. The test was performed according to the method of Honda and Hara.^[108,112 &113]

Different concentrations of the sample is mixed with ten milliliters of enzyme solution and incubated for 10min at 37°C and the volume was made up to 210 μ l with maleate buffer pH 6. Addition of 200 μ l of 2mM p-nitrophenyl- α -D-glucopyranoside solution starts the enzymatic reaction and incubated at 37°C for 30min. The reaction is stopped by keeping the mixture in a boiling water bath for five minutes. Add 1ml of 0.1M disodium hydrogenphosphate solution, the absorption of liberated p-nitrophenol is measured at 400nm.^[108]

iii. Assay of sucrase inhibitory activity

Different concentrations of the sample is mixed with ten milliliters of enzyme solution and incubated for 10min at 37°C and the volume was made up to 210 μ L with maleate buffer pH 6. Addition of 100 μ l sucrose solution (60mM) starts the enzyme reaction, keep it as such for 30 minutes and add 200 μ L of 3, 5- dinitrosalicylic acid reagent, keep it in a boiling water bath for terminating the reaction. Measure the absorbance of solution at 540nm

$$I \% = (Ac-As)/Ac \times 100$$

Where Ac is the absorbance of the control and As is the absorbance of the sample.^[108]

b) Models to study inhibition of intestinal glucose uptake

The response of insulin and insulin-mimetic substances on muscle tissue are studied using stimulation of glucose uptake by the isolated diaphragm of mice and rats. The washed rat diaphragms are incubated (30 min, 37 °C) in HEPES-buffered saline (25mM HEPES, 120mM NaCl, 5mM KCl, 1.5mM CaCl₂, 1mM MgCl₂, 5mM glucose, 0.5 mM sodium pyruvate, 1.5mM KH₂PO₄, pH 7.4) with a constant bubbling of 95% O₂/5% CO₂. Then the diaphragms are washed to two times with the same buffer lacking glucose solution and further incubated (30min) in 5ml of glucose-free buffer in the existence of test compounds or insulin. The addition of 50ml of 10mM 2-[1- ³H] deoxyglucose (10 mCi/ml) in the lack or existence of 25mM cytochalasin B (control) will initiate the glucose transport. The diaphragms are rinsed four times with ice cold buffer comprising 10mM glucose, 25mM cytochalasin B after 15min of glucose transport, blotted with filter paper and homogenized the rinsed diaphragm portions of the suspension are utilize for protein determination. 1ml

portions of the supernatant (centrifuged at 10000 *g* for 15min), mixed with 10ml scintillation cocktail and counted for radioactivity. One Specific glucose transport (dpm/mg of protein) is measured as the dissimilarity between diaphragm-related radioactivity measured in the lack (total uptake) and existence of cytochalasin B (non-specific uptake). Transport is linear for 30min under these studying conditions.^[108&114]

c) Models to study insulin secretion from β cells of the pancreas

Cultured cell lines is used to facilitate studies of mechanisms of both insulin secretion and beta-cell dysfunction. The largest widely used insulin-secreting cell lines are RIN, HIT, beta-TC, MIN6 and INS-1 cells. Which release mainly insulin and small amounts of glucagon and somatostatins. Although the behavior of none of these cell lines perfectly mimics primary beta-cell physiology, also utilize for the investigation of molecular events underlying beta-cell function.^[115&116] The **HIT cell line** is an insulin secreting cell line developed by Santerre et al., 1981 from the hamster. The isolated pancreatic islets, dispersing into single cells, transforming the cell isolates with the simian virus 40 (SV40) and the insulin secreting cell lines are obtained by cloning method.^[108&117] Masuda et al., and Asfari et al., (1995) performed an experiments for assessment of glucose transport activity in HIT cells and Western blot analysis for GLUT2 in these cells after incubation with glibenclamide and troglitazone.^[108&118] INS-1 cells and INS-2 cells are derived from parental RINm5f cells. The betacyte, also named as HEP G2ins/g cell, is a genetically engineered insulin-secreting human hepatic cell line with a property as glucose responsive.^[108,119-121]

d) Models based on muscle as an insulin target tissue

Obesity and type 2 diabetes are promoted by the development of lipotoxicity, here the key link between these two are adipose tissue i.e. cell damage as a consequence of elevated intracellular lipid concentrations and insulin resistance. Hyperglycemia is a result of insulin resistance either at the adipocyte or skeletal muscle.^[108&122]

i. Total uptake of glucose

Adipocytes are incubated with D-[U-14C] glucose (0.2 mM final concentration) for 20min. Centrifugation on silicon oil separate the cells are from the medium, counted for radioactivity. The total insulin-stimulated glucose uptake (signal cascade, glucose transport and glucose metabolism) was measured by this assay, irrespective of whether the glucose is used via the oxidative or non-oxidative pathway. It also detects the transformation into lipids, glycogen or membrane-impermeable midway products (glucose-6-phosphate). The following

assay quantifies the whole glucose uptake into cells with inactivated insulin receptor. So the substance that bypass the first step in the insulin signal transduction cascade (binding of insulin to its receptor) will show positive results. Adipocytes are incubated with trypsin (4 mg/ml) for 15 min at 4 °C. The cells are washed three times by flotation after inclusion of soy bean trypsin inhibitor (8 mg/ml) and used for examination of total uptake of glucose.^[108]

ii. Transport of 2-deoxy-glucose

The transport of 2-deoxy-D-[1-3H] glucose (Amersham, specific activity 20–30 Ci/mmol, aqueous solution) was measured by isolated rat adipocytes or murine 3T3-L1 cells and rat L6 muscle engineered to over-express GLUT4 described by Gliemann *et al.*, (1972).^[108,123 &124]

e) Models based on adipocytes as an insulin target tissue

In vitro techniques show there is an increased glucose uptake in muscle tissue and in adipocytes.^[108, 125&126] HepG2 cells activate insulin receptors, which gives different variety of metabolic responses to insulin and insulin-like growth factor-1 via the substrate as cytoplasmatic protein insulin-receptor substrate-1 (IRS-1). In HepG2 and BC3H-1 muscle cells troglitazone (CS-045) have an elevated glycogen synthase I activity. IRS-1 undergoes multisite tyrosine phosphorylation and moderated downstream signals by ‘docking’. Insulin derivatives can be indicated by phosphorylation and dephosphorylation kinetics of the insulin receptor, insulin receptor substrate-1 and which is incriminated in mitogenic signal transduction.^[108&127]

CONCLUSIONS

The current updated review tries to cover the various *in vitro* and *in vivo* models that are used for screening the antidiabetic activity of a test drug. This updated review paper can be much useful for the researchers who are presently involved in the research and development of a new antidiabetic drug.

REFERENCES

1. Daniel Longnecker MD. Anatomy and Histology of the Pancreas. J APA, 2014; 43(1): 1143–1162.
2. Gisela Wilcox. Insulin and Insulin Resistance. Clin Biochem Rev, 2005; 26; 19.
3. Cefalu WT. Insulin resistance: cellular and clinical concepts. Exp Biol Med (Maywood), 2001; 226: 13-26.

4. Bahaa K.A, Abel-Salam. Immunomodulatory effects of black seeds and garlic on alloxan-induced Diabetes in albino rat. *Allergol Immunopathol.* 2012; 40(6): 336-340.
5. Vineeta Tripathi, Janeshwer Verma. Different Models Used to Induce Diabetes: A Comprehensive Review. *Int J Pharm Pharm Sci*, 2014; 6(6).
6. Wang TJ, Larson MG, Vasan RS, Cheng S, Rhee EP, McCabe E. Metabolite profiles and the risk of developing diabetes. *Nat. Med.*, 2011; 17(4): 448-53.
7. Bacha F, Lee S, Gungor N, Arslanian SA. From pre-diabetes to type 2 diabetes in obese youth: pathophysiological characteristics along the spectrum of glucose dysregulation. *Diabetes care*, 2010; 33(10): 2225-31.
8. AJ Agutter. Type 3 Diabetes. *diabetes.co.uk*, 2014; 08: 22.
9. Owen Dyer. Is Alzheimer's really just type III diabetes. *National Review of Medicine*, 2005; 2(21).
10. Zina Kroner DO. The Relationship between Alzheimer's disease and Diabetes: Type 3 Diabetes. *Altern Med Rev*, 2009; 14.
11. Tripathi V, Verma JJ. Current updates of Indian antidiabetic medicinal plants. *Int Pharm Chem*, 2014; 4: 114-8.
12. Sangeeta Saini, Savita Kumari, Santosh Kumar Verma, Anil Kumar Sharma. A Review on Different Types of Animal Models for Pharmacological Evaluation of Antidiabetic Drugs. *Int. J. Pharm. Phytopharmacol. Res*, 2013; 3(1): 2-12.
13. Joshi SK, Shrestha S. Diabetes mellitus: A review of its associations with different environmental factors. *Kathmandu Univ Med J*, 2010; 8(29): 109- 115.
14. Larsen CM, Faulenbach M, Interleukin-1-receptor antagonist in type 2 diabetes mellitus. *N Engl J Med*, 2007, 356(15): 1517–1526.
15. Levinthal Gavin N, Tavill Anthony S. Liver Disease and Diabetes Mellitus. *Clin Diabetes*, 1999; 17(2): 85.
16. Wiesenthal Stephanie R, Sandhu Harmanjit. Free fatty acids impair hepatic insulin extraction in vivo. *Diabetes Res*, 1999; 48: 766-774.
17. Suresh Kumar, Rajeshwar Singh, Neeru Vasudeva and Sunil Sharma. Acute and chronic animal models for the evaluation of anti-diabetic agents. *Cardiovascular Diabetology*, 2012; 11(9): 1-13.
18. Specialist Diagnostic Services Pty Ltd (ABN 84 007 190 043) t/a Laverty Pathology
19. Nathan DM, Turgeon H, Regans S. Relationship between Glycated haemoglobin levels and mean glucose levels over time. *Diabetologia*, 2007; 50: 2239-2244.

20. Sacks DB, Bruns DE, Goldstein DE, Maclaren NK, McDonald JM, Parrott M. Guidelines and recommendations for laboratory analysis in the diagnosis and management of diabetes mellitus. *Clin Chem*, 2002; 48: 436-472.
21. Official publication of the Physiological Society of Nigeria. *Niger J of physiol sci*. 2011; 26(1): 89-96.
22. Szkudelski T, Kandulska K, Okulicz M. Alloxan in vivo does not only exert deleterious effects on pancreatic B cells. *Physiological research Academia Scientiarum Bohemoslovaca*, 1998; 47(5): 343-6.
23. Lachin T, Reza H. Anti-diabetic effect of cherries in alloxan induced diabetic rats. *Recent Pat Endocr Metab Immune drug discovery*, 2012; 6(1): 67-72.
24. Akuodor GC, Udia PM, Bassey A, Chilaka KC, Okezie OA. Antihyperglycemic and antihyperlipidemic properties of aqueous root extract of *Icacina senegalensis* in alloxan induced diabetic rats. *J Acute Dis*, 2014; 99-103.
25. Brentjens R, Saltz L. Islet cell tumors of the pancreas: the medical oncologist's perspective. *The Surg clin North America*, 2001; 81(3): 527-42.
26. Mythili MD, Vyas R, Akila G, Gunasekaran S. Effect of streptozotocin on the ultrastructure of rat pancreatic islets. *Microsc. Res Tech*, 2004; 63(5): 274-81.
27. Patel R, Shervington A, Pariente JA, Martinez-Burgos MA, Salido GM, Adeghate E, Mechanism of exocrine pancreatic insufficiency in streptozotocin-induced type 1 diabetes mellitus. *Ann. N. Y. Acad. Sci*, 2006; 1084: 71-88.
28. Saranya S, Pradeepa S, Subramanian S. Biochemical Evaluation of Antidiabetic Activity of *Cocos nucifera* Flowers in STZ Induced Diabetic Rats. *Int. J. Pharm. Sci. Rev. Res*, 2014; 26(1): 67-75.
29. Halim D, Khalifa K, Awadallah R, El-Hawary Z, El-Dessouky EA. Serum mineral changes in dithizone-induced diabetes before and after insulin treatment. *Zeitschrift fur Ernährung swissenschaft*, 1977; 16(1): 22-6.
30. Epand RM, Stafford AR, Tyers M, Nieboer E. Mechanism of action of diabetogenic zinc-chelating agents. Model system studies. *J Mol pharmacol*, 1985; 27(3): 366-74.
31. Monago, CC, Gozie GC, and Joshua PE. Antidiabetic and Antilipidemic Effects of Alkaloidal Extract of *Emilia sonchifolia* in Rat. *Research J. Science and Tech*, 2010; 2(3): 51-56.
32. Graham TE, Sgro V. Glutamate ingestion: the plasma and muscle free amino acid pools of resting humans. *Am J Physiol Endocrinol Metab*, 2000, 278(1): E83-89.

33. Nagata M, Suzuki W, Iizuka S, Tabuchi M, Maruyama H, Takeda S. Type 2 diabetes mellitus in obese mouse model induced by monosodium glutamate, Experimental animals / Japanese Association for Laboratory Animal Science, 2006; 55(2): 109-15.
34. Kumar Vijay, Abbas Abul, Pathologic basic of disease. 7 th Edition, Saunders, Philadelphia, 2006; 1189.
35. Young FG. Growth and diabetes in normal animals treated with pituitary (anterior lobe) diabetogenic extract. *Biochem J*, 1941; 39: 515-536.
36. Holly JM, Amiel SA. The role role of growth hormone in diabetes mellitus. *J Endocrinol*, 1988; 118(3): 353-364.
37. Heather A, Ferris C, Kahn R. New mechanisms of glucocorticoids-induced insulin resistance: make no bones about it. *J Clin Invest*, 2012; 122: 3854-57.
38. Ingle DJ. The production of glycosuria in the normal rat by means of 17-hydroxy-11-dehydrocorticosterone. *J. Endocrinol*, 1941; 29: 649-652.
39. Jun HS, Yoon JW, A new look at viruses in type 1 diabetes. *Diabetes Metab Res Rev*, 2003; 19(1): 8–31.
40. Yoon JW, McClintock PR, Onodera T, Notkins AL. Virus-induced diabetes mellitus. XVIII. Inhibition by a non diabetogenic variant of Encephalomyocarditis virus. *J Exp Medi*, 1980; 152(4): 878-92.
41. Gould CL, Mc Mannama KG, Bigley NJ, Giron DJ. Virus-induced murine diabetes. Enhancement by immunosuppression. *Diabetes*, 1985; 34(12): 1217-21.
42. Lansdown AB, Brown JD. Immunization of mice against Coxsackie virus B3 and prevention of foetal growth retardation. *Br J Exp Patho*, 1976; 57(5): 521-4.
43. Horwitz MS, Bradley LM, Harbertson J, Krah T, Lee J, Sarvetnick N. Diabetes induced by Coxsackie virus: initiation by bystander damage and not molecular mimicry. *Nat Med*, 1998; 4(7): 781-5.
44. Srinivasan K, Ramarao P. Animal models in type 2 diabetes research: An overview. *Indian J Med Res*, 2007; 125: 451-472.
45. Ktorza A, Bernard C, Parent V, Penicaud L, Froguel P, Lathrop M. Are animal models of diabetes relevant to the study of the genetics of non-insulin-dependent diabetes in humans. *Diabetes Metab*, 1997; 23(2): 38-46.
46. Hao L, Chan SM, Lafferty KJ. Mycophenolate mofetil can prevent the development of diabetes in BB rats. *Ann NY Acad Sci*, 1993; 969: 328-332.
47. Cohen AM, Teitelbaum A, Saliternik R. Genetics and diet as factors in the development of diabetes mellitus. *J Metab*, 1972; 21: 235-240.

48. Weksler-Zangen S, Yagil C, Zangen DH, Ornoy A, Jacob HJ, Yagil Y. The newly inbred Cohen diabetic rat. A nonobese normolipidemic genetic model of diet induced type 2 diabetes expressing sex differences. *Diabetes*, 2001; 50: 2521-9.
49. Yagihashi S, Wada RI, Kamijo M, Nagai K. Peripheral neuropathy in the WBN/Kob rat with chronic pancreatitis and spontaneous diabetes. *Lab Invest*, 1993; 68: 296-307.
50. Begum N, Ragiola L. Altered regulation of insulin signaling components in adipocytes of insulin-resistant type II diabetic Goto-Kakizaki rats. *J Metab*, 1998; 47: 54-62.
51. Goto Y, Kakizaki M. The spontaneous diabetes rat: a model of noninsulin dependent diabetes mellitus. *Proc Japan Acad*, 1981; 57: 381-4.
52. Portha B, Giroix M.-H, Serradas P, Gangneaurau M.-N, Movassat J, Rajas F. beta-cell function and viability in the spontaneously diabetic GK rat: Information from the GK/Par colony. *Diabetes*, 2001; 50: S89-93.
53. Zucker LM. Hereditary obesity in the rat associated with hyperlipidemia. *Ann NY Acad Sci*, 1965; 131: 447-458.
54. Shafrir E. Diabetes in animals: Contribution to the understanding of diabetes by study of its etiopathology in animal models. In: Porte D, Sherwin RS, Baron A, editors. *Diabetes mellitus*. New York: McGraw-Hill; 2003; 231-55.
55. Durham HA, Truett GE. Development of insulin resistance and hyperphagia in Zucker fatty rats. *Am J Physiol Regul Integr Comp Physiol*, 2006; 210: R652-8.
56. Galante P, Maerker E, Scholz R, Rett K, Herberg L, Mosthaf L, Häring HU. Insulin-induced translocation of GLUT 4 in skeletal muscle of insulin resistant Zucker rats. *Diabetologia*, 1994; 37: 3-9.
57. Himms-Hagen J, Danforth E Jr, The potential role of β_3 adrenergic agonists in the treatment of obesity and diabetes. *Curr Opin Endocrinol. Diabetes*, 1996; 3: 59-65.
58. Shafrir E. Animal models of noninsulin dependent diabetes. *Diabetes Metab Rev*, 1992; 8: 179-208.
59. Lee Y, Hirose H, Ohneda M, Johnson JH, McGarry JD, Unger RH. β -cell lipotoxicity in the pathogenesis of non-insulin-dependent diabetes mellitus of obese rats: impairment in adipocytes- β -cell relationships. *Proc Natl Acad Sci*, 1994; 91: 10878-10882.
60. Nakajima H, Tochino Y. Decreased incidence of diabetes mellitus by monosodium glutamate in the nonobese diabetic (NOD) mouse. *Res Commun Chem Pathol Pharmacol*, 1985; 50(2): 251-257.

61. Kosegawa I, Chen S, Awata T, Negishi K, Katayama S. Troglitazone and metformin, but not glibenclamide, decrease blood pressure in Otsuka Long Evans Tokushima Fatty rats. *Clin Exp Hypertens*, 1999; 21: 199-211.
62. Harada N, Ohnaka M, Sakamoto S, Niwa Y, Nakaya Y. Cilnidipine improves insulin sensitivity in the Otsuka Long-Evans Tokushima Fatty rat, a model of spontaneous NIDDM. *Cardiovasc Drugs Ther*, 1999; 13: 519-23.
63. Choi KC, Ryu OH, Lee KW, Kim HY, Seo JA, Kim SG. Effect of PPAR-alpha and -gamma agonist on the expression of visfatin, adiponectin, and TNF-alpha in visceral fat of OLETF rats. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun*, 2005; 336: 747-53.
64. Ishida K, Mizuno A, Sano T, Shima K. Which is the primary etiologic event in Otsuka Long-Evans Tokushima fatty rats, a model of spontaneous non-insulin-dependent diabetes mellitus, insulin resistance, or impaired insulin secretion. *J Metabolism*, 1995; 44: 940-945.
65. Zhu M, Noma Y, Mizuno A, Sano T, Shima K. Poor capacity of pancreatic beta cells in Otsuka Long Evans Tokushima Fatty rat: A model of spontaneous NIDDM. *J Diabetes*, 1996; 45: 941-6.
66. Tarrés MC, Martínez SM, Liborio MM, Rabasa SL. Diabetes mellitus en una línea endocrinada de rata. *Mendeliana*, 1981; 5: 39-48.
67. Dumm CLAG, Semino MC, Gagliardino JJ: Sequential changes in pancreatic islets of spontaneously diabetic rats. *Pancreas*, 1990; 5: 533-539.
68. Koletsky S. Pathologic findings and laboratory data in a new strain of obese hypertensive rats. *Am J Pathol*, 1975; 80: 129-142.
69. Russell JC, Graham S, Hameed M. Abnormal insulin and glucose metabolism in the JCR: LA-corpulent rat. *J Metabolism*, 1994; 43: 538-543.
70. Friedman JE, Ishizuka T, Liu S, Farrell CJ, Bedol D, Koletsky RJ, Kaung HL, Ernsberger P. Reduced insulin receptor signaling in the obese spontaneously hypertensive Koletsky rat. *Am J Physiol Endocrinol Metab*, 1997; 273: E1014-1023.
71. Clark TA, Pierce GN. Cardiovascular complications of non-insulin-dependent diabetes; the JCR: LA-cp rat. *J Pharmacol Toxicol Methods*, 2000; 43(1): 1-10.
72. Adamo M, Shemer J, Aridor M, Dixon J, Carswell N, Bhathena SJ, Michaelis OE, LeRoith D. Liver insulin receptor tyrosine kinase activity in a model of type II diabetes mellitus and obesity. *J Nutr*, 1989; 119: 484-489.
73. Velasquez MT, Kimmel PL, Michaelis OE IV. Animal models of spontaneous diabetic kidney disease. *FASEB J*, 1990; 4: 2850-9.13.

74. McIntosh CHS, Pederson RA. Non-insulin dependent animal models of diabetes mellitus. In: McNeil JH, editor. Experimental models of diabetes. Florida, USA: CRC Press LLC; 1999; 337-98.7.
75. Reddi AS, Camerini-Davalos RA. Hereditary diabetes in the KK mouse: an overview. *Adv Exp Med Biol*, 1988; 246: 7-15.
76. Vogel HG, Vogel WH. Drug discovery and evaluation; Pharmacological assays. Heidelberg, Berlin: Springer-Verlag; 1997.
77. Iwatsuka H, Shino A, Suzouki Z. General survey of diabetic features of yellow KK mice. *Endocrinol Japon*, 1970; 17: 23-35.
78. Diani AR, Sawada GA, Zhang NY, Wyse BM, Connell CL, Vidmar TJ, Connell MA: The KKAy mouse: a model for the rapid development of glomerular capillary basement membrane thickening. *Blood Vessels*, 1987; 24: 297-303.
79. Yoon JW, Yoon CS. Control of autoimmune diabetes in NOD mice by GAD expression or suppression in β cells. *Science*, 1999; 284(5417): 1183–1187.
80. Baeder WL, Sredy J, Sehgal SN, Chang JY, Adams LM. Rapamycin prevents the onset of insulin dependent diabetes mellitus (IDDM) in NOD mice. *Clin Exp Immunol*, 1992; 89: 174-178.
81. Verdaguer J, Schmidt D, Amrani A, Anderson B, Averill N, Santamaria P. Spontaneous autoimmune diabetes in monoclonal T cell non obese diabetic mice. *J Exp Med*, 1997; 186: 1663-1676.
82. Nicoletti F, Di Marco R, Barcellini W, Magro G, Schorlemmer HU, Kurrle R, Lunetta M, Grasso S, Zacccone P, Meroni PL. Protection from experimental autoimmune diabetes in the non-obese diabetic mouse with soluble interleukin-1 receptor. *Eur J Immunol*, 1994; 24: 1843-1847.
83. McNeil JH. Experimental models of diabetes. Florida, USA: CRC Press LLC; 1999; 10.
84. Bleisch VR, Mayer J, Dickie MM. Familial diabetes mellitus in mice associated with insulin resistance, obesity and hyperplasia of the islands of Langerhans. *Am J Pathol*, 1952; 28: 369-385.
85. Halaas JL, Gajiwala KS, Maffei M, Cohen SL, Chait BT, Rabinowitz D, Lallone RL, Burley SK, Friedman JM. Weight reducing effects of the plasma protein encoded by the obese gene. *Science*, 1995; 269: 543-546.
86. Tartaglia LA, Dembski M, Wenig X, Deng N, Culpepper J, Devos R, Richards GJ, Campfield LA, Clark FT, Deeds J. Identification and expression cloning of a leptin receptor, OB-R. *Cell*, 1995; 83: 1263-1271.

87. Like AA, Lavine RL, Poffenbarger PL, Chick WI. Studies on the diabetic mutant mouse. VI Evolution of glomerular lesions and associated proteinuria. *Am J Pathol*, 1972; 66: 193-224.
88. Friedman JF, Halaas JL. Leptin and the regulation of body weight in mammals. *Nature*, 1998; 395: 763-770.
89. Connelly DM, Taberner PV. Characterization of spontaneous diabetes obesity syndrome in mature CBA/Ca mice. *Pharmacol Biochem Behav*, 1989; 34: 255-259.
90. Strasser H. A breeding program for spontaneously diabetic experimental animals: *Psammomys obesus* (sand rat) and *Acomyscahirinus* (spiny mouse). *Lab Anim Care*, 1968; 18: 328-338.
91. Dubault J, Boulanger M, Espinal J, Marquie G, Petkov P, du Boistesselin R. Latent autoimmune diabetes mellitus in adult humans with non-insulin dependent diabetes: Is *Psammomys obesus* a suitable animal model. *Acta Diabetol*, 1995; 32: 92-94.
92. Shafrir E, Ziv E, Mosthaf L. Nutritionally induced insulin resistance and receptor defect leading to beta cell failure in animal models. *Ann NY Acad Sci*, 1999; 892: 223-46.
93. Shafrir E, Ziv E. Cellular mechanism of nutritionally induced insulin resistance: the desert rodent *Psammomys obesus* and other animals in which insulin resistance leads to detrimental outcome. *J Basic Clin Physiol Pharmacol*, 1998; 9: 347-85.
94. Shafrir E. Albert Renold memorial lecture: molecular background of nutritionally induced insulin resistance leading to type 2 diabetes-from animal models to humans. *Int J Diabetes Res*, 2001; 2: 299-319.
95. Pictet R, Orci L, Gonet AE, Rouiller Ch, Renold AE. Ultrastructural studies of the hyperplastic islets of Langerhans of spiny mice (*Acomys cahirinus*) before and during the development of hyperglycemia. *Diabetologia*, 1967; 3: 188-211.
96. Jones E. Spontaneous hyperplasia of the pancreatic islets associated with glycosuria in hybrid mice. In *The structure and metabolism of pancreatic islets*. Edited by: Brolin SE, Hellman B, Knutson H. Pergamon Press, Oxford; 1964; 189-191.
97. Schmidt G, Martin AP, Stuhlman RA, Townsend JF, Lucas FV, Vorbeck ML. Evaluation of hepatic mitochondrial function in the spontaneously diabetic *Mystromys albicaudatus*. *Lab Invest*, 1974; 30: 451-457.
98. Wise PH, Weir BJ, Hime JM, Forrest E. The diabetic syndrome in the Tuco- Tuco (*Ctenomys talarum*). *Diabetologia*, 1972; 8: 165-172.
99. Howard CF. Basement membrane thickness in muscle capillaries of normal and spontaneously diabetic *Macaca nigra*. *Diabetes*, 1975; 24: 201-206.

100. Schaefer EM, Viard V, Morin J, Ferré P, Pénicaud L, Ramos P, Maika SD, Ellis L, Hammer RE. A new transgenic mouse model of chronic hyperglycemia. *Diabetes*, 1994; 43: 143-153.
101. Ibanez-Camacho R, Meckes-Lozaya M, Mellado-Campos V. The hypoglucemic effect of *Opuntia streptocantha* studied in different animal experimental models. *J Ethnopharmacol*, 1983; 7: 175-81.
102. Sasaki S, Nio Y, Hirahara N, Sato Y, Inoue Y, Iguchi C. Intraperitoneally implanted artificial pancreas with transkaryotic beta-cells on micro carrier beads in a diffusion chamber improves hyperglycemia after 90% pancreatectomy in rats. *In Vivo*, 2000; 14: 535-41.
103. Banting FG, Best CH: The internal secretion of the pancreas. *J Lab Clin Med*, 1922; 7: 251-266.
104. Bonner-Weir S, Trent DF, Weir GC. Partial pancreatectomy in the rat and subsequent defect in glucose- induced insulin release. *J Clin Invest*, 1983; 71: 1544-53.
105. Portha B, Giroix M-H, Serradas P, Morin L, Tormo M-A, Bailbe D. Cellular basis for glucose refractoriness of pancreatic B-cells in non-insulin dependent diabetes. In: Flatt PR, Lenzen S, editors. *Insulin secretion and pancreatic B cell research*. UK: Smith-Gordon, 1994; 461-72.
106. Jayanthi M, Jegatheesan K. Hypoglycemic effect of 2-hydroxychalcone on high fructose fed diabetic rat. *Intern Journ phar Sci Res*, 2012; 3(2): 600-604.
107. Higgins PB, Bastarrachea RA, Lopez-Alvarenga JC, Garcia-Forey M, Proffitt JM, Voruganti SV, Tejero ME, Mattern V, Haack K, Shade RE, Cole SA, Comuzzie AG. Eight week exposure to a high sugar high fat diet results in adiposity gain and alterations in metabolic biomarkers in baboons (*Papio hamadryas* sp.). *Cardiovasc Diabetol*, 2010; 9: 71.
108. Krutika Thorat, Leena Patil, Dnyanesh Limaye and Vilasrao Kadam. *In vitro* Models for Antidiabetic Activity Assessment. *International Journal of Research in Pharmaceutical and Biomedical Sciences*, 2012; 3(2).
109. Narkhede MB, Ajimire PV, Wagh AE, Manoj Mohan, Shivashanmugam AT. *In vitro* antidiabetic activity of *Caesalpinia digyna* (R.) methanol root extract. *Asian J Plant Sci Res*, 2011; 1(2): 101-106.
110. Thalapaneni NR, Chidambaram KA, Ellappan T, Sabapati ML, Mandal SC. *J Complement Integr Med*, 2008; 5(1): 1-10.
111. Heidari R, Zareae S, Heidarizadeh M. *Pak J Nutr*, 2005; 4(2): 101-105.

112. Dahlqvist A. Method for assay of intestinal disaccharides. *Anal Biochem*, 1964; 7: 18-25.
113. Honda, Hara Y. Inhibition of rat small intestinal sucrase and alpha-glucosidase activities by tea polyphenols. *Biosci Biotechnol Biochem*, 1993; 57: 123-4.
114. Adolfsson S, Arvill A and Ahren K. Stimulation by insulin of accumulation and incorporation of L-[3H]proline in the intact levator ani muscle from the rat. *Biochem Biophys Acta*, 1967; 135: 176–178.
115. Frode TS, Medeiros YS. Animal models to test drugs with potential antidiabetic activity. *J Ethnopharmacol*, 2008; 115: 173–183.
116. Poitout V, Olson LK and Robertson RP. Insulin-secreting cell lines: Classification, characteristics and potential applications. *Diabet Metabol*, 1996; 22: 7–14.
117. Santerre RF, Cook RA, Crisek RMD, Sharp JD, Schmidt RJ, William DC, Wilson CP. Insulin synthesis in a clonal cell line of simian virus 40-transformed hamster pancreatic beta cells. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA*, 1981; 78: 4339–4343.
118. Asfari M, Janjic D, Meda P, Li G, Halban PA and Wollheim CN. Establishment of 2-mercaptoethanol-dependent differentiated insulin-secreting cell lines. *Endocrinology*. 1992; 130: 167–178.
119. Simpson AM, Tuch BE, Swan MA, Tu J, Marshall GM. Functional expression of the human insulin gene in a human hepatoma cell line (HEP G2). *Gene Therapy*, 1995; 2: 223–231.
120. Tuch BE, Beynon S, Tabiin MT, Sassoon R, Goodman RJ and Simpson AM. Effect of -cell toxins on genetically engineered insulin-secreting cells. *J Autoimmun*, 1997; 10: 239–244.
121. Chaudry IH, Sayeed MM and Baue AE. The effect of insulin on glucose uptake in soleus muscle during hemorrhagic shock. *Can J Physiol Pharmacol*, 1975; 53: 67–73.
122. Lelliott, C, Vidal-Puig, A.J. Lipotoxicity, an imbalance between lipogenesis de novo and fatty acid oxidation. *Int J Obes Relat Metab Disord*, 2004; 28: 22–28.
123. Gliemann J, Østerlind K, Vinten J and Gammeltoft S. A procedure for measurement of distribution spaces in isolated fat cells. *Biochim Biophys Acta*, 1972; 286: 1–9.
124. Karalee JJ, Anderson RA, Graves DA. Hydroxychalcone derived from cinnamon functions as a mimetic for insulin in 3T3-L1 adipocytes. *J Am Coll Nutr*, 2001; 20: 327–336.
125. Colca JR. Insulin sensitiser drugs in development for the treatment in diabetes. *Expert Opin Invest Drugs*, 1995; 4: 27–29.

126. Kuehnle HF. New therapeutic agents for the treatment of NIDDM. *Exp Clin Endocrinol Diabetes*, 1996; 104: 93.
127. Fantin VR, Sparling JD, Slot JW, Keller SR, Lienhard GE, Lavan BE. Characterization of insulin receptor substrate 4 in human embryonic kidney 293 cells. *J Biol Chem*, 1988; 273: 10726– 10732.