

العلاقة بين انزيم الكرياتين كايبيز
ومضادات الاكسدة في مرضى السكري
نوع I ونوع II

رسالة تقدم بها
إلى مجلس كلية العلوم – جامعة بابل
و هي جزء من متطلبات نيل درجة الماجستير في
علوم الكيمياء الحياتية

محمود حسين هدوان
بكالوريوس علوم كيمياء – جامعة بابل
٢٠٠٢

***THE CORRELATION BETWEEN
CREATINE KINASE ACTIVITY AND
ANTIOXIDANTS IN DIABETES
MELLITUS TYPE I AND II***

A Thesis

*Submitted to the College of Science
University of Babylon*

*In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements
For the Degree of Master of Science in
Biochemistry (Clinical Biochemistry)*

By

Mahmoud Husein Hadwan

B. Sc. Babylon University - ٢٠٠٢

بِسْمِ اللَّهِ الرَّحْمَنِ الرَّحِيمِ

((اللَّهُ لَا إِلَهَ إِلَّا هُوَ الْحَيُّ الْقَيُّومُ لَا
تَأْخُذُهُ سِنَةٌ وَلَا نَوْمٌ لَّهُ مَا فِي
السَّمَاوَاتِ وَمَا فِي الْأَرْضِ مَنْ ذَا
الَّذِي يَشْفَعُ عِنْدَهُ إِلَّا بِإِذْنِهِ يَعْلَمُ مَا
بَيْنَ أَيْدِيهِمْ وَمَا خَلْفَهُمْ وَلَا يُحِيطُونَ
بِشَيْءٍ مِنْ عِلْمِهِ إِلَّا بِمَا شَاءَ وَسِعَ
كُرْسِيُّهُ السَّمَاوَاتِ وَالْأَرْضَ وَلَا يَئُودُهُ
حِفْظُهُمَا وَهُوَ الْعَلِيُّ الْعَظِيمُ))

صدق الله العلي العظيم

البقرة / ٢٥٥

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

In The Name of God Most Gracious Most Merciful

My sincere indebtedness goes to my advisors, Dr. Mufeed J. Ewadh and Dr. Odi M. Al- Zamely, for the invaluable guidance encouragement, and support.

My thanks also go to Dr. Rabab Omran for their helpful suggestions of chemicals; without their help, this study would not have been possible.

Special thanks go to Dr. Qasim Hassan and the staff of department of chemistry, College of Sciences, Babylon University, for their wonderful assistance and friendship.

CERTIFICATION

I certify that this thesis was prepared under my supervision at the Department of chemistry, College of science in Babylon University, in partial requirements for the Degree of Master of Science in Biochemistry and this work has never been published anywhere.

Signature:

Name: **Dr. Oda M. Yasser Al-Zamely**

Title: Assistant Professor

Address: Department of Chemistry -
College of Science-Babylon University

Date: / / ٢٠٠٤

Signature:

Name: **Dr. Mufeed J. Ewadh**

Title: Professor

Address: Department of Biochemistry
-College of Medicine-Babylon
University

Date: / / ٢٠٠٤

Signature:

Name: **Dr. Kasim Hassan Kadhim**

Title: Assistant Professor

Address: Head of Department of Chemistry-College of Science-Babylon
University

Date: / / ٢٠٠٤

Decision of discussion committee

We are the examining committee, certify that we have read this thesis and examined this student (**Mahmoud Husein Hadwan**) in its content, and that in our opinion it is adequate with “Excellent” standing as a thesis for the degree of master of science in Biochemistry (Clinical Biochemistry)

Signature:

Name: **Mr. Fadhil Jawad Al Toma**

Title: Professor

Address: Department of Biochemistry -
College of Medicine-Kerbala University

Date: / / ٢٠٠٥

Signature:

Name: **Tariq Hufdhi Abid**

Title: Asistant professor

Address: Department of Biochemistry –
Al-Kindi College of Medicine-Kerbala
University

Date: / / ٢٠٠٥

Signature:

Name: **Mohemed Abid Al-Riza Esmael**

Title: Lecture

Address: Technical Institute

Date: / / ٢٠٠٥

Signature:

Name: **Dr. Oda M. Yasser Al-Zamely**

Title: Assistant Professor

Address: Department of Biochemistry -
College of Sciences-Babylon
University

Date: / / ٢٠٠٥

Signature:

Name: **Dr. Mufeed J. Ewadh**

Title: Professor

Address: Department of Biochemistry -
College of Medical-Babylon University

Date: / / ٢٠٠٥

Signature:

Name: **Dr. Oda M. Yasser Al-Zamely**

Title: Assistant Professor

Address: Department of Chemistry -College of Sciences-Babylon University

Date: / / ٢٠٠٥

الخلاصة

جرى قياس فعالية انزيم الكرياتين كايبيز في امصال دم اشخاص اصحاء ظاهرياً (ذكور واناث) باستخدام طريقة طيفية. ثم قيست فعالية انزيم الكرياتين كايبيز في امصال دم اشخاص مصابين بمرض السكري نوع I (ذكور، اناث) ونوع II (ذكور، اناث)، لتحديد دور هذا الانزيم بصفته مؤشراً كيميائياً حياتياً لمرضى السكري.

جرى كذلك فصل متناظرات انزيم الكرياتين كايبيز باستخدام كروموتوغرافيا التبادل الايوني من عمود الفصل المتكون من DEAE- Cellulose ثم حسبت مستويات هذه المتناظرات باستخدام طريقة طيفية.

تم قياس مستويات بعض مضادات الاكسدة مثل الكلوتاثيون وحامض اليوريك كما تم قياس اشكال الدهون في المصل بالاضافة الى MDA كنتيجة الى اكسدة الدهون الحاصلة بفعل الاجهاد التاكسدي المرتبط بمرض السكري.

مقارنة بمجموعة الاصحاء، وجد بان فعالية انزيم الكرياتين كايبيز تتناقص في مرضى السكري نوع I ونوع II. يختلف تأثير السكري على مستويات المتناظرات الانزيمية لمرضى الكرياتين كايبيز (النوع العضلي MM-CK والقلبي MB-CK يتناقصان، بينما النوع الدماغى BB-CK لا يتأثر نسبياً).

وجد بان مستويات حامض اليوريك والكلوتاثيون تتناقص في أمصال مرضى السكري نوع I ونوع II مقارنة بقيمتها في أمصال الأصحاء. ربما يعود الانخفاض في مستوى مضادات الأكسدة الى حقيقة مقاومتها للإجهاد التاكسدي الحاصل بفعل مرضى السكري.

لدى مرضى السكري نوع I ونوع II يقل مستويات البروتين الدهني عالي الكثافة في أمصال دم مرضى السكري مقارنة بمستوياتها في أمصال دم الأشخاص

الأصحاء. كما وجد بان مرضى السكري يزيد مستويات البروتين الدهني واطئ الكثافة وكذلك البروتين الدهني ذو الكثافة الواطنة جداً. كما ان هناك زيادة معنوية في مستوى الكوليسترول الكلي وكذلك الكليسيريد الثلاثي.

وجد أيضا زيادة معنوية في مستوى المالونداي الديهايد الناتج بفعل أكسدة الدهون، وهذا قد يدل على زيادة الاجهاد التاكسدي الحاصل بفعل زيادة فصائل الأوكسجين الفعالة وكذلك فصائل النتروجين الفعالة.

ABSTRACT

The activity of creatine Kinase (CK) estimated, in sera of healthy controls (31 males, 19 females), in sera of patients with diabetes mellitus type I (21 male, 9 female) and type II (10 male, 9 female). Then, CK isoenzyme MM- CK, MB- CK and BB-CK separated by using a column of DEAE- Cellulose. Spectrophotometric method has been used to evaluate the levels of this isoenzyme.

The concentrations of antioxidant variables such as glutathione, uric acid and lipid profile with addition to MDA were also assayed to measure the oxidative stress associated with Diabetes.

Compared with healthy controls, CK activity was found to be significantly decreasing in patients with Diabetes Mellitus; CK isoenzyme levels fluctuated between decrease and relatively constant in patients with Diabetes mellitus ((Diabetes mellitus decrease MM-CK and MB-CK activity)).

Glutathione, uric acid was found to be reduced when compared with those of healthy controls. The depletion in antioxidant concentrations may be due to their protective role against oxidative stress.

It was found that, Diabetes has lower HDL-c levels when compared with healthy controls, but higher in LDL-c, vLDL-c, TC, and TG. MDA, also increases in diabetes mellitus as a result of lipid peroxidation; that may be belong to the increased oxidative stress as a result of the increase in reactive oxygen species (ROS) and/ or reactive nitrogen species (RNS).

CK activity could be considered a biochemical marker for Diabetes mellitus.

Contents

| ITEM | SUBJECT | PAG E NO. |
|--------|--|--------------|
| | ACKNOWLEDGMENT | |
| | CONTENTS | I |
| | LIST OF TABLES | V |
| | LIST OF FIGURES | VIII |
| | ABSTRACT | XI |
| | LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS | IX |
| 1 | CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION | 1 |
| 1-1 | General Introduction | 1 |
| 1-2 | Free Radicals in Medicine | 2 |
| 1-3 | The General Relation of Free Radicals | 3 |
| 1-4 | Free Radical Production | 4 |
| 1-5 | Antioxidant System | 5 |
| 1-6 | Hyperglycemia and Free Radicals | 6 |
| 1-7 | Diabetes Complication and Free Radicals | 10 |
| 1-7-1 | Free Radical Generated by Non Enzymatic Glycosylation | 11 |
| 1-7-2 | Free Radicals Generated by Autoxidation | 12 |
| 1-7-3 | Free Radicals Generated by Polyol Pathway | 13 |
| 1-8 | Free Radical in the Pathogenesis of IDDM | 14 |
| 1-9 | Free Radicals in Pathogenesis of NIDDM | 16 |
| 1-10 | Creatine Kinase (CK, EC 2.7.3.2) | 16 |
| 1-10-1 | Creatine kinase and Oxygen Stress | 21 |
| 1-11 | Glutathione | 22 |
| 1-11-1 | Basic Oxidation– Reduction Reaction | 25 |
| 1-12 | Uric Acid | 28 |

| Item | Subject | Page No. |
|-------------|---|-----------------|
| 1-12-1 | Antioxidant Properties of Uric Acid | 29 |
| 1-13 | Lipid Profiles and Oxidation Hypothesis | 32 |
| 1-13-1 | Cholesterol | 32 |
| 1-13-1 | Cholesterol Hydroperoxides Generation | 32 |
| 1-13-2 | Triglycerdes | 33 |
| 1-13-3 | Phospholipids | 33 |
| 1-13-4 | Lipoproteins | 34 |
| 1-14 | Lipid Peroxidation | 35 |
| 1-14-1 | Formation of $LO\dot{O}$ | 37 |
| 1-14-2 | Removal of Lipid Peroxyl Radicals | 39 |
| 1-14-3 | Measurement of Lipid Peroxidation | 40 |
| 1-15 | Aim of the Study | 41 |
| 2 | CHAPTER TWO | 42 |
| 2-1 | Materials | 42 |
| 2-1-1 | Chemicals | 42 |
| 2-1-2 | Instrument Analysis and Equipment | 43 |
| 2-2 | Methodologies | 43 |
| 2-2-1 | Collection of Blood and Serum Preparation | 43 |
| 2-2-2 | Patients and Controls | 44 |
| 2-2-3 | Determination Serum Creatine kinase Activity | 44 |
| 2-2-3-1 | Principle | 44 |
| 2-2-3-2 | Reagents | 45 |
| 2-2-3-3 | preparation of Solutions | 46 |
| 2-2-3-4 | Procedure | 46 |
| 2-2-3-5 | Calculation | 47 |
| 2-2-4 | Separation of Serum Creatine kinase Iso Enzyme | 48 |

| Item | Subject | Page No. |
|-------------|---|-----------------|
| γ-γ-ε-1 | Preparation of DEAE- Cellulose | ελ |
| γ-γ-ε-2 | Preparation the Buffers | ελ |
| γ-γ-ε-3 | Procedure | οο |
| γ-γ-ο | Determination of Serum Reduced Glutathione(GSH) | οο |
| γ-γ-ο-1 | Principle | ο1 |
| γ-γ-ο-2 | Preparation of Reagent | ο1 |
| γ-γ-ο-3 | Procedure | ο2 |
| γ-γ-ο-ε | Calculation of Serum GSH | ο3 |
| γ-γ-6 | Determination of Serum Uric Acid | οε |
| γ-γ-6-1 | Principle | οε |
| γ-γ-6-2 | Reagents | οε |
| γ-γ-6-3 | Procedure | οο |
| γ-γ-7 | Determination of Serum Total Cholesterol | οο |
| γ-γ-7-1 | Principle | οο |
| γ-γ-7-2 | Reagents | ο6 |
| γ-γ-7-3 | Procedure | ο6 |
| γ-γ-8 | Determination of Serum Triglyceride | ο7 |
| γ-γ-8-1 | Principle | ο7 |
| γ-γ-8-2 | Reagents | ο8 |
| γ-γ-8-3 | Procedure | ο8 |
| γ-γ-9 | Determination of Serum High Density Lipoprotein- Cholesterol | ο9 |

| Item | Subject | Page No. |
|-------------|---|-----------------|
| ۲-۲-۹-۱ | Principle | ۵۹ |
| ۲-۲-۹-۲ | Reagents | ۵۹ |
| ۲-۲-۹-۳ | Procedure | ۶۰ |
| ۲-۲-۱۰ | Determination of Serum Low Density Lipoprotein-Cholesterol | ۶۰ |
| ۲-۲-۱۱ | Determination of Serum Lipid Peroxidation | ۶۱ |
| ۲-۳ | Statistical Analysis | ۶۲ |
| ۳ | CHAPTER THREE- Results and Discussion | ۶۳ |
| ۳-۱ | The Effect of Diabetes on Creatinine kinase | ۶۴ |
| ۳-۲ | The Effect of Diabetes on Glutathione | ۶۸ |
| ۳-۳ | The Effect of Diabetes on Uric Acid | ۷۲ |
| ۳-۴ | The Effect of Diabetes on Total Cholesterol | ۷۷ |
| ۳-۵ | The Effect of Diabetes on Triglyceride | ۸۰ |
| ۳-۶ | The Effect of DM on Lipoproteins | ۸۳ |
| ۳-۷ | Lipid Peroxidation | ۸۷ |
| ۳-۸ | Conclusions | ۹۱ |
| ۳-۹ | Recommendations | ۹۱ |
| | References | ۹۲ |

Chapter One

(1-1) General Introduction

Diabetes mellitus can be defined as a group of metabolic disorders of carbohydrate metabolism due to glucose under utilized, producing hyperglycemia⁽¹⁾. There are three types of diabetes mellitus, type I and type II, Type I (Juvenile or insulin-dependent diabetes mellitus) is characterized by the autoimmune destruction of the pancreatic beta Cells⁽²⁾. Type II diabetes (non-insulin dependent diabetes mellitus) which represents over 80% of clinical cases⁽³⁾ Generally developed at later time from patient, the case of type II is insulin resistance⁽⁴⁾. The reasons behind this resistance to insulin involve environmental causes and genetic causes⁽⁵⁾. The diagnosis of diabetes mellitus depends only on proof of hyperglycemia (Table 1-1). The diagnosis of type I is easy because hyperglycemia appears severe and accompanied with serious metabolic disorders. In type II the diagnosis is difficult because glucose levels in serum may be mild; its importance to identify this type because the development of the complications accompanying it⁽⁶⁾. The third type called Gestational Diabetes Mellitus (GDM). GDM is carbohydrate intolerance of variable severity with onset or first recognition during the present pregnancy (i.e., diabetic women who become pregnant are not induced in this category). The occurrence of GDM is between 1% and 5% (3% is the most-often-quoted figure) In the United State, about 90,000 women with GDM give birth each year, and as many as 50% may remained unidentified. About 30% of women with GDM develop diabetes mellitus within 5 years after delivery, but carbohydrate tolerance may revert to and stay normal after delivery⁽⁷⁾. GDM is also associated with a higher incidence of complication in the pregnancy (e.g., toxemia), a higher risk of recurrence of

diabetes with following pregnancies , and an increased risk of diabetes in the mother ^o to 1, years after parturition ^y.

Table (1.1) Criteria for the diagnosis of diabetes mellitus (with apology from ^(o,y))

| Diabetes mellitus in non pregnant adults Any one of the following is diagnostic:- | |
|---|---|
| 1- | Classical symptoms of diabetes and unequivocal elevation of plasma glucose |
| 2- | Elevated fasting glucose on more than one occasion venous plasma ≥ 140 mg/dl |
| 3- | Sustained elevated glucose concentration during the OGTT on more than one occasion venous plasma ≥ 200 mg/dl |
| Impaired Glucose tolerance in non pregnant adults three criteria must be met:- | |
| 1- | Fasting plasma glucose ≥ 140 mg/dl |
| 2- | 1/2-hr, 1-hr or 1.5-hr OGTT plasma glucose ≥ 200 mg/dl |
| 3- | 2-hr OGTT plasma glucose concentrations between 140 and 200 mg/dl |
| Diabetes mellitus in children Either 1 or 2 is considered diagnostic of diabetes:- | |
| 1- | Classical symptoms and a random plasma glucose > 200 mg/dl |
| 2- | In asymptomatic individuals:- A A fasting glucose value of ≥ 140 mg/dl and B Sustained elevated glucose concentration (≥ 200 mg/dl) during the OGTT on more than one occasion. |
| Impaired glucose tolerance in children Two criteria should be met:- | |
| 1- | Fasting plasma glucose concentration of < 140 mg/dl |

| | |
|----|---|
| 2- | Plasma glucose value 2 hr after receiving oral glucose of > 140 mg/dl |
|----|---|

(1-2) Free Radicals in Medicine: -

It is difficult nowadays to open a medical journal without seeing some papers on the role of free radicals in humane diseases. These species concern with over 100-conditions (13). Reactive Oxygen Species (ROS) are the most famous of this species which due to oxidative stress. Sies described the oxidative stresses as a change in pro-oxidant antioxidant balance in favor of the pro-oxidant state (14) see Fig (1-1).

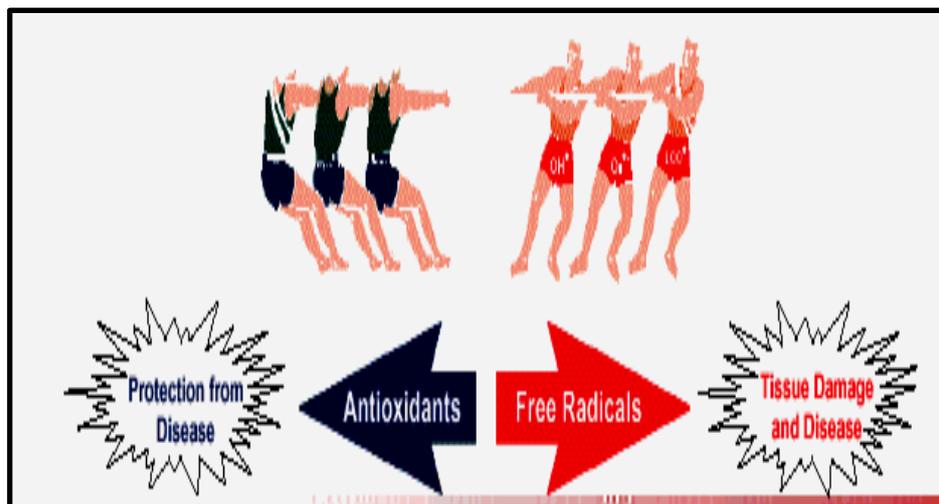


Fig (1-1) The relation between free radicals and antioxidants (15)

Antioxidant is defined as any substance that, when presented at low concentration compared with an oxidizable substrate, prevents or inhibits oxidation of the oxidizable substrate (15).

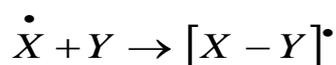
Free radicals are not always harmful. They also serve useful substances in the human body⁽¹³⁾. Several researches indicate that the oxygen radicals in living system are very necessary species in the maturation process of cellular structures. In addition, white blood cells destroy invading pathogenic microbes by the release of free radicals as part of body's defense mechanism against disease. Thus, the complete elimination of these radicals would not only be unnecessary, but also harmful⁽¹⁴⁾.

(1-3) The General Reactions of Free Radicals

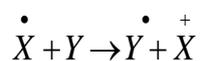
A free radical is simply defined as any atom or molecule capable of independent existence that contains one or more unpaired electron⁽¹⁵⁾. Examples of free radicals are methyl radical ($\dot{C}H_3$, carbon centered radical), Nitric Oxide $N=O\dot{}$ in which the unpaired electron is delocalized between atoms, and thiyl radical ($R\dot{S}$, a sulphur centered radical).

Radical can react with other molecules or atom in a number of ways: -

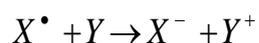
1- Addition



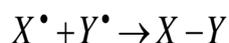
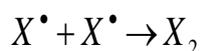
2-Electron donation



3-Electron removal



ε-When two radicals meet a chain reaction can be terminated



The term reactive oxygen species is included also with non-radical derivatives of oxygen such as hydrochlorous acid (HOCl) and hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2)⁽¹⁴⁾.

(1-4) Free Radical Production

There are more than one mechanism to produce free radicals; It is produced in living organism by two mechanisms; reaction of transition metals ion with hydrogen peroxide and heterolytic fission of water molecule by background exposure to ionizing radiation⁽¹⁵⁾. Hydroxyl radical is a very reactive species that attacks all biological molecules, usually setting off the chain of free radical reaction.

Superoxide radical ($O_2^{\cdot-}$) is much less reactive than OH, but has a high sensitivity for a number of biological targets. Thus ($O_2^{\cdot-}$) reacts with nitric oxide to give peroxynitrite.⁽¹⁶⁾ Nitric oxide and / or its derivative causes the relaxation of a smooth muscle cell in vessel wall. Thus ($O_2^{\cdot-}$) can act as a vasoconstrictor.

The considerable debate in the literature is the interaction between ($O_2^{\cdot-}$) and NO• due to its damaging effect on cells⁽¹⁷⁾. For example, peroxynitrite decomposes to form •OH in reaction independent of transition metal ion⁽¹⁸⁾. ($O_2^{\cdot-}$) When converted to protonated form (HO_2^{\cdot}) will be more reactive *in vitro* but has not yet been shown to mediate damaging effect *in vivo*⁽¹⁹⁾.

(1-5) Antioxidant System- :

Antioxidants are substances (molecule or atom) found in food or in the body at low concentration. An antioxidant has more than one function to prevent the oxidative sequence. They may act by preventing the generation of radical or inhibiting any free radicals that are generated^(20,21). Tissue's defense against free

radical include primary antioxidant (catalase, superoxide dismutase, glutathion peroxidase) secondary antioxidant (glutathion, albumin, uric acid... etc) and essential radical scavengers such as vitamin C (in aqueous phase) and vitamin E (in the lipo-soluble phase)⁽¹¹⁾.

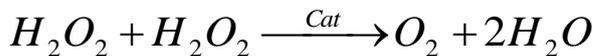
Enzymatic Defense: -

- 1- Super oxide dismutase (SOD)(EC 1.15.1.1)
This enzyme acts on the spontaneous dismutation of the super oxide ion to hydrogen peroxide⁽¹²⁾.



There are three isoenzyme of SOD (An enzyme contains copper and zinc in the cytoplasm and manganese in mitochondria).

- 2- catalase (EC(1.11.1.6)
This enzyme dissociates hydrogen peroxide as follows⁽¹³⁾: -



3-Glutathione and glutathione enzymes (GSH-PX EC 1.11.1.9)

For the survival of animals, must be a high concentration from reduced glutathion (GSH) and low levels from oxidized form (GSSG)⁽¹⁴⁾

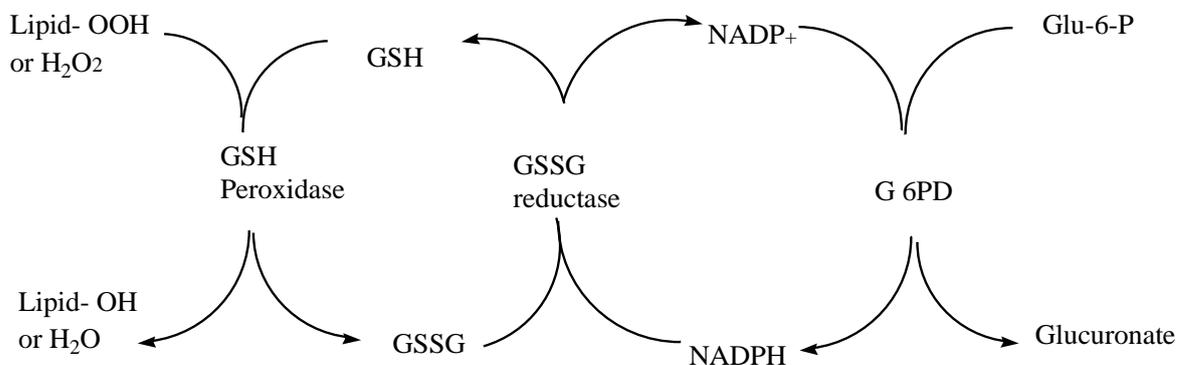
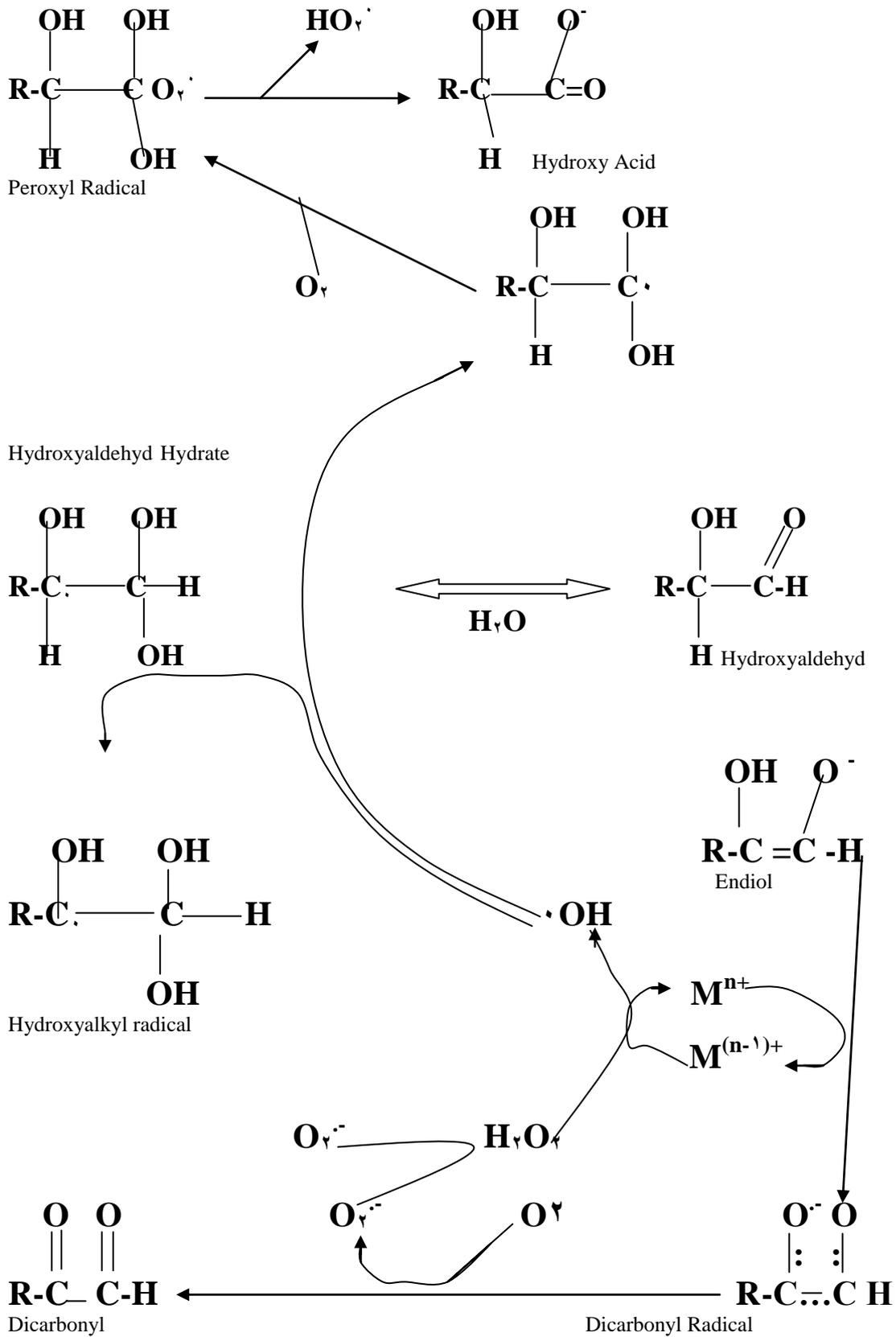


Fig (1-2) Glutathione and glutathione enzymes (with apology from 23)
(1-7) Hyperglycemia and Free Radicals

Although the diabetes control and complications trial describe hyperglycemia as a risk factor for the development of diabetes complication⁽²⁴⁾. There is no consensus about the pathogenic link between hyperglycemia and complication⁽²⁵⁾. There are number of hypotheses on the origin of complications, including advanced glycation end product (AGE) hypothesis^(26,27), oxidative stress^(28,29,30), reductive stress⁽³¹⁾, carbonyl stress⁽³²⁾ and increased protein kinase activity⁽³³⁾. These hypotheses overlap and interact with others, AGE formation and altered polyol pathway activity may be due to oxidative stress, which may be due to the acceleration of AGE formation⁽²⁵⁾.

In this work, an attempt has been made to understand the relation between oxidative stress and diabetes complications. Hyperglycemia can increase the levels of free radicals through different pathways such as protein glycation, autoxidation glycation, protein kinase and increase in the polyol pathway. Glucose enolizes by the autoxidation process. This process entails the reduction of oxygen, to produce oxidizing intermediates, such as O_2^- , $O\cdot H$, H_2O_2 and α -keto aldehydes⁽³⁴⁾. See fig (1-3)⁽³⁵⁾.

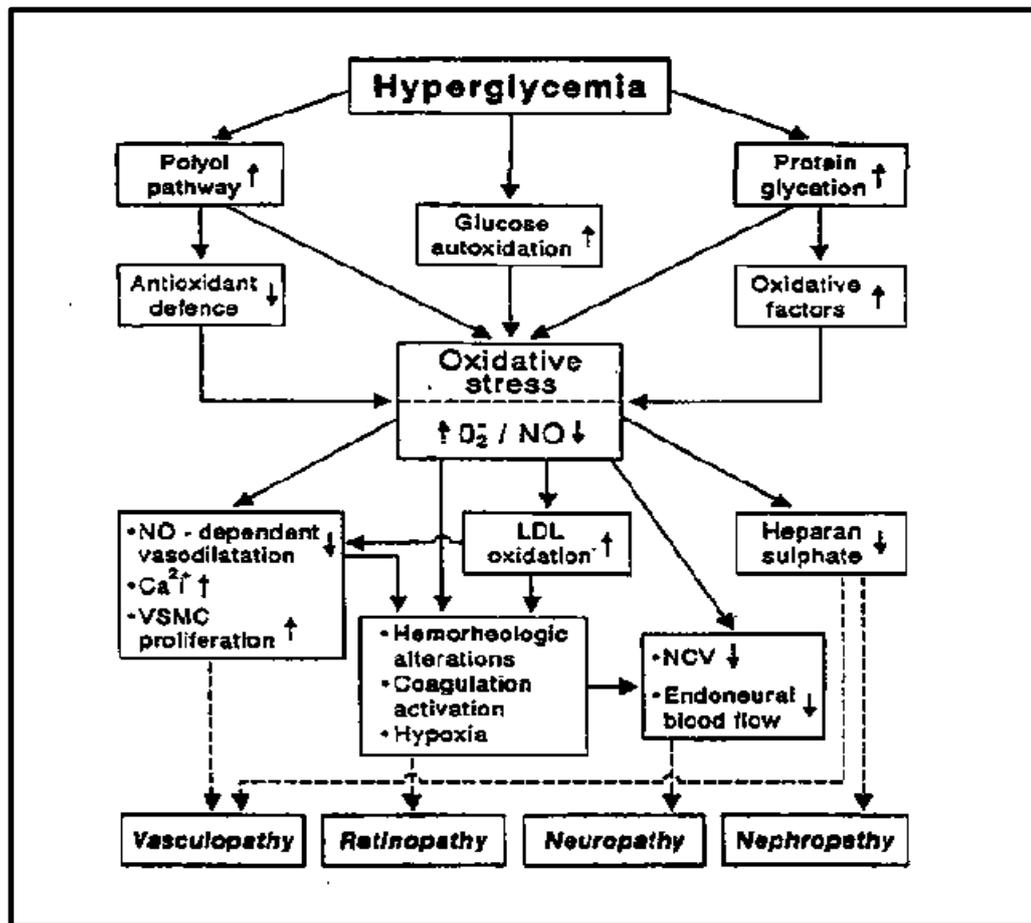


Fig(1-3) The process of autoxidation of monosaccharide, showing how free radicals are produced when excess glucose is present³¹.

These reactive ketoaldehyde may react with other proteins to form advanced glycation endproducts (AGE) or Maillard products⁽¹⁷⁾. An increase in the concentration of glucose contributes as an indicator to increase the activity of two enzymes used in the polyol pathway, aldose reductase and sorbitol dehydrogenase. The increasing activity of these two enzymes causes the increase of the concentration of both sorbitol and fructose. This increase activity is also due to the decrease of the ratio NADPH: NADP⁺ and can cause changes throughout various systems (pentose phosphate pathway) in the cell such as NADH: NAD⁺. The increase in the NADH: NAD⁺ ratio called hyperglycemic pseudohypoxia, may cause an increase in free radicals production which may be due to ischemia. It may also reduce glycolysis which results in reduced pyruvate levels⁽¹⁸⁾. The decrease of the amount of NADPH may cause inhibition to enzymes which are NADPH – dependent and lead to the storage of the NADPH available for the many pathways that concerned with it.

(1-7) Diabetes Complication and Free Radicals

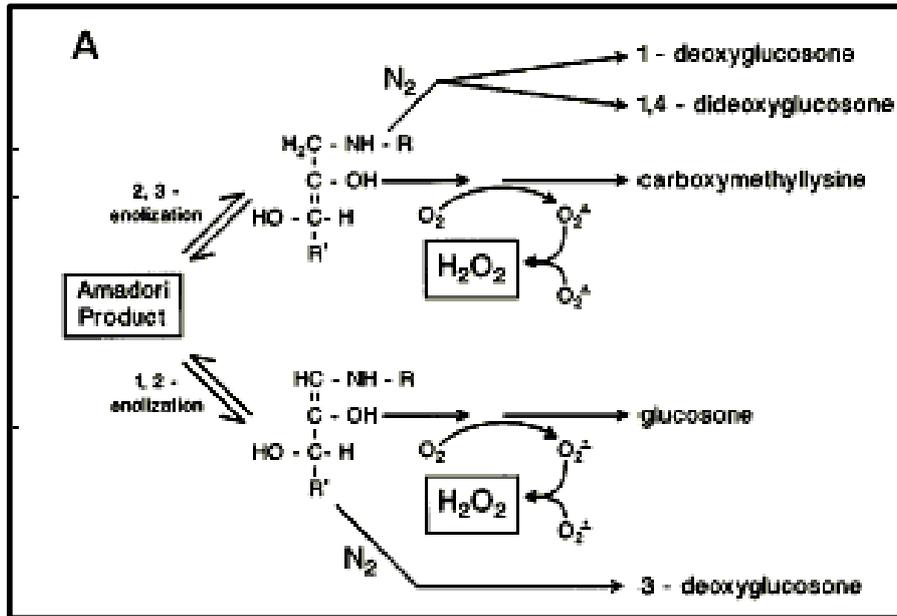
Many evidences have indicated that some biochemical pathway forcibly associated with hyperglycemia (non-enzymatic glycosylation, glucose autoxidation, polyol pathway) which may be due to increased free radicals production⁽¹⁹⁾ (fig 1-5).



Fig(1-6) Possible links between hyperglycemia induced oxidative stress and diabetic complications. Solid lines indicate experimentally established links. A genetic predisposition through reduced antioxidant status may be present (dashed lines). NCV nerve conduction velocity; VSMC vascular smooth muscle cell. ((with apology from ¹⁹))

(1-7-1) Free Radicals Generated by Non Enzymatic Glycosylation

Amadori products ensues exposure to non-enzymatic glycosylation of protein .These compounds implied in the formation of H₂O₂ *in vitro*⁽²¹⁾.In two pathways, amadori products could form H₂O₂ .Fig (1-7).



Fig(1-6) Degradation of Amadori Product and H_2O_2 Formation. (H_2O_2 Formation can be Generated via both 1,2 and 2,3 Enolization and Oxidation of the Enolate Anion). (with apology from '')

The first pathway is 1,2-enolization pathway, which leads to 3-deoxyglucosone formation under anaerobic conditions. When there are suitable electron acceptor, enolization would occur to form H_2O_2 and glucosone. The second pathway is 2,3-enolization pathway, which leads to 1-deoxyglucosone and putative 1,4-deoxyglucosone⁽¹¹⁾. Under oxidative conditions, The 2,3-enediol is thought to produce H_2O_2 and carboxy methyllysine. A major and highly reactive intermediate in the non-enzymatic glycosylation is 3-deoxyglucosone and has a potent cross-linker responsible for the polymerization of protein to AGEs⁽¹¹⁾.

called as glucose autoxidation^(٤٣). Although the importance of this process *in vivo* is only indirect, but there is some evidence *in vivo* that transition –metal chelating agents can prevent the oxidation process in animal diabetes^(٤٤).

(١-٧-٣) Free Radicals Generated by Polyol Pathway:-

Polyol pathway can also produce free radicals ,which occurs because elevated glucose levels and due to increment intra cellular sorbitol and fructose content ,that's, induce aldose reductase and sorbitol dehydrogenase activity fig(١-٨).

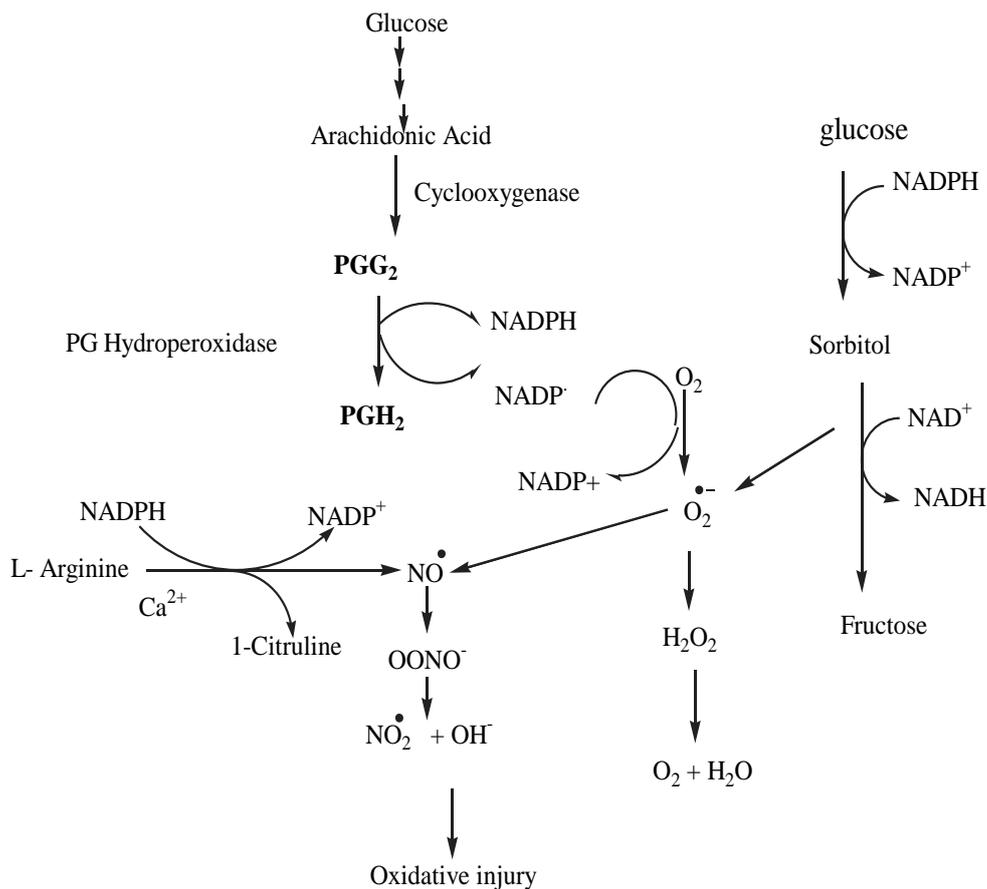


Fig (١-٨) The Polyol Pathway: aldose reductase catalyzes the reduction of glucose by NADPH to sorbitol which can, in turn, be oxidated to fructose by sorbitol dehydrogenase (SDH) leading to redox imbalance (NAD⁺ / NADH ratio). An increase in NAD⁺ / NADH ratio is linked to O₂^{•-} formation via the reduction of PGG₂ to prostoglandin H₂ (PGH₂) by prosto glandine hydroperoxidase that use NADH or NADPH as a reducing substrate. (with apology from^(٤٣)).

Oxidation of sorbitol to fructose is coupled with reduction of NADPH . \dot{O}_2 formation occurs via the reduction of prostaglandin G^γ (PGG^γ) to prostaglandin H^γ by prostaglandin hydroperoxidase that use NADH or NADPH as a reducing cosubstrate, that is linked with an increase $NAD^+/NADH$ ratio^(ε₃).

(1-Λ) Free Radical in the Pathogenesis of IDDM:-

IDDM appears as a result to the autoimmune beta cell destruction in pancreatic islets^(ε₄). At normal conditions, beta cells secrete insulin in response to the increase of serum glucose. The decrease and finally total loss of insulin secretion is linked to destruction of β cell. Increasing evidence suggests that free radicals play as important factors in the β cell destruction and loss insulin. These evidences include:-

- (1) It is true to say that ((hydrogen peroxide, nitric, nitric oxide and super oxide are toxic to the human and rat isletes *in vitro*))^(ε₅).
- (2) The two most commonly used drugs in developing the diabetic animal models are aloxan and streptozotocin. These compounds is used because their ability to selectively damage the insulin- secreting beta cells of glucose- inducing insulin secretion. Streptozotocin releases nitric oxide in isolated pancreatic islets^(ε₆), Aloxan stimulates superoxide production in beta cells^(ε₇).

(3) Vitamin E decreased the nitric oxide toxicity in the pancreatic islets *in vitro*⁽³⁴⁾. All these evidences refer to the potential role of free radicals in the β -cell destruction.

β -cells are prone to be destroyed by free radicals, that is related to the low antioxidant enzyme nature⁽³⁴⁾. Macrophages, T cells, natural killer cells and other immune-effect cell are believed to produce free radicals that cause damage to B-cells⁽³⁴⁾. Free radicals have two mechanism in Beta – cell destruction.

(1) Infiltration of macrophages produce superoxide as primary free radicals, which can convert to more active radical such as hydroxyl radical which attacks cellular membrane and causes DNA breaks^o. The consequence of DNA break causes cells death if cells fail to repair damage.

The activation of DNA repair enzyme is as the activation of poly (ADP-ribos) synthetase, deplete the NAD^+ leveles in cells, inhibiting proinsulin synthesis and causing cells to be more sensitive to free radicals^(o). To increase cellular NAD^+ level, it must be supplemented with NAD^+ and Na. This supplementation elevates the efficiency of proinsulin level^(o).

(3) Cytokines are released by T cell, Marcophages, and NK cells in the insulitis induce the formation of intracellular free radical causing selective damage to B-cell^(o). The major factor in the damage of Beta cells is interleukin 1 (IL-1) with other factors such as interferon γ (ITF) and tumor necrosis factor (TNF) release macrophages during the insulitis^(o). Two types of free radicals are induced from endo theliat cells and beta cells. One type is superoxide. The toxicity of superoxide with hydroxyl radicals could be the same as above. IL-1 can induce the production of nitric oxide synthtase (NOS), the enzyme which is responsible

for the synthesis of NO[•] (the second type). Many evidences suggested that NO results in directly inhibitory effect on beta cell mitochondrial function⁽⁶⁷⁾. That means NO[•] can directly destroy beta cell.

(1-9) Free Radicals in Pathogenesis of NIDDM

The etiology of NIDDM has far more diversity than IDDM⁽⁶⁷⁾. There are many factors, which may induce beta cells malfunction and / or insulin resistance such as genetic abnormalities, environmental factors or obesity. These factors can cause mild hyperglycemic and cause alternations in free radicals generation and antioxidant enzyme⁽⁶⁸⁾.

(1-10) Creatine Kinase (CK, EC 2.7.3.2)

Creatine Kinase is a key enzyme of cellular energy metabolism⁽⁶⁹⁾, catalyses the reversible transfer of the high energy N-phosphoryl group from creatine phosphate to ADP^(69,70,71). See equation (A) and Fig (1-9). Three cytosolic (*MM-CK*, *MB-CK*, *BB-CK*) and two mitochondrial isoenzyme (Ubiquitous *Mia-CK* and sarcomeric *Mio-CK*) of CK enzyme are known^{68,69}.

(1-10-1) Clinical Significance

1-Diseases skeletal muscle :-In all types of muscular dystrophy, and chiefly in Duchenn type (in which levels up to 10 times the higher limit of normal may be

encountered) serum CK activity is greatly elevated at some time during the course of the disease . About 90% to 95% of the asymptomatic female carriers of Duchenne dystrophy show three-to-six fold elevations of CK activity ,but values may be normal following a period of physical inactivity¹ .

2-Disease of the heart :- After a *myocardial infarction* CK activity in serum is always elevated. The use of total CK and MB-CK in the diagnosis of *myocardial infarction* is the most important single application of CK measurement in clinical chemistry and is discussed more fully later .Myocardial damage is usually excluded if an increased MB-CK activity is < 5% or 6% of the total CK activity¹ .

3-Disease of the central nervous system :- Serum CK activity may increase after cerebral ischemia , acute cerebrovascular disease ,neurosurgical interventions ,and head injury .In *Reye's syndrome* (a childhood disorder distinguished by acute brain swelling with fatty infiltration and nonicteric dysfunction of the liver) there may be up to a 10-fold increase in serum CK activity , representative the severity of the encephalopathy .

4- Disease of the thyroid :- Serum CK activity demonstrated an inverse relationship with thyroid hormone activity . About 60% of hypothyroid subjects show an average elevation of CK activity of five times the upper reference limit. The major isoenzyme present is MM-CK ,although up to 15% of CK activity may be present as MB-CK ,suggesting possible myocardial involvement. Hypothyroidism is known to predispose a patient to ischemic heart disease .By contrast ,in *hyperthyroid* subject ,the serum CK activity tends to be at the low end of the reference interval¹ .

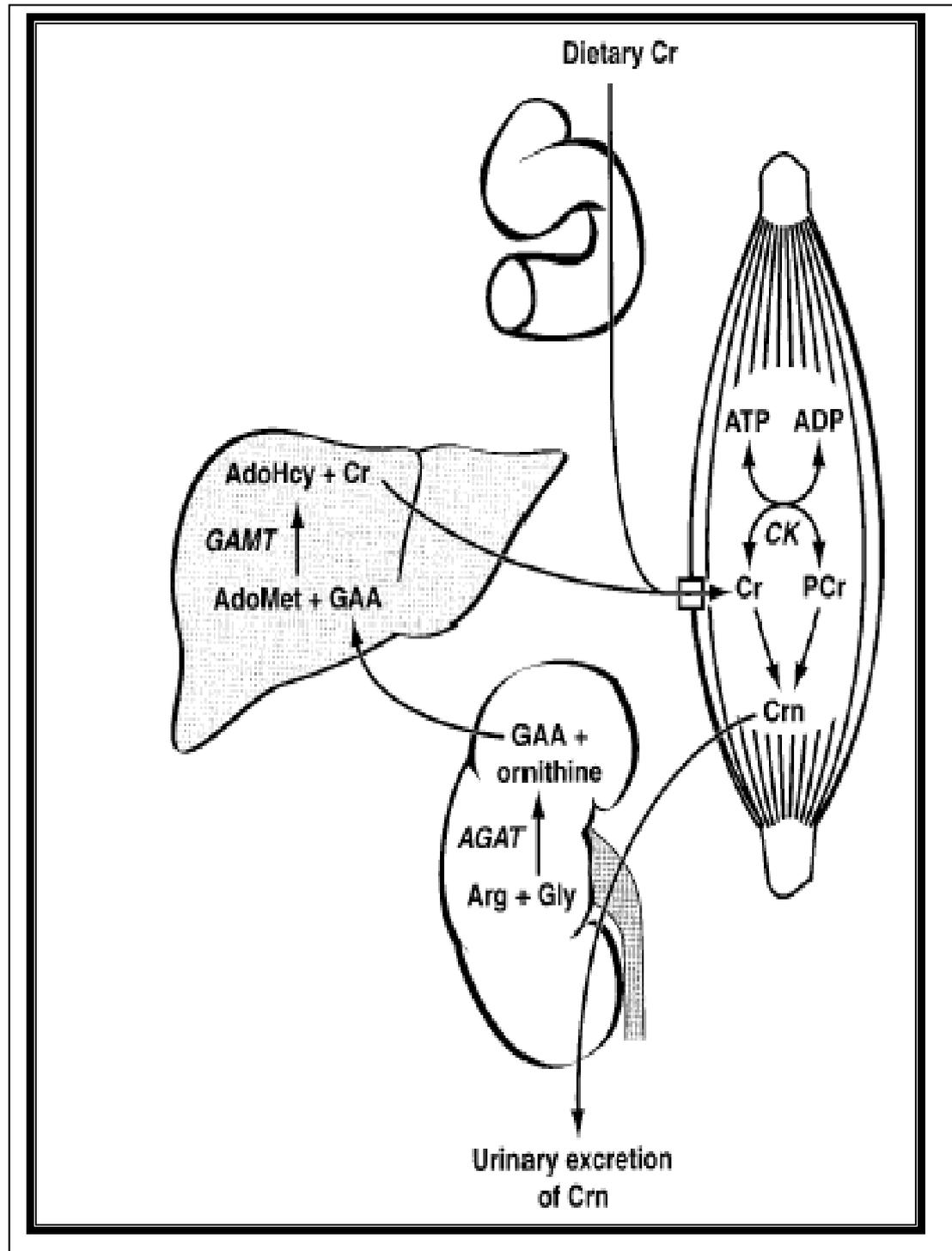
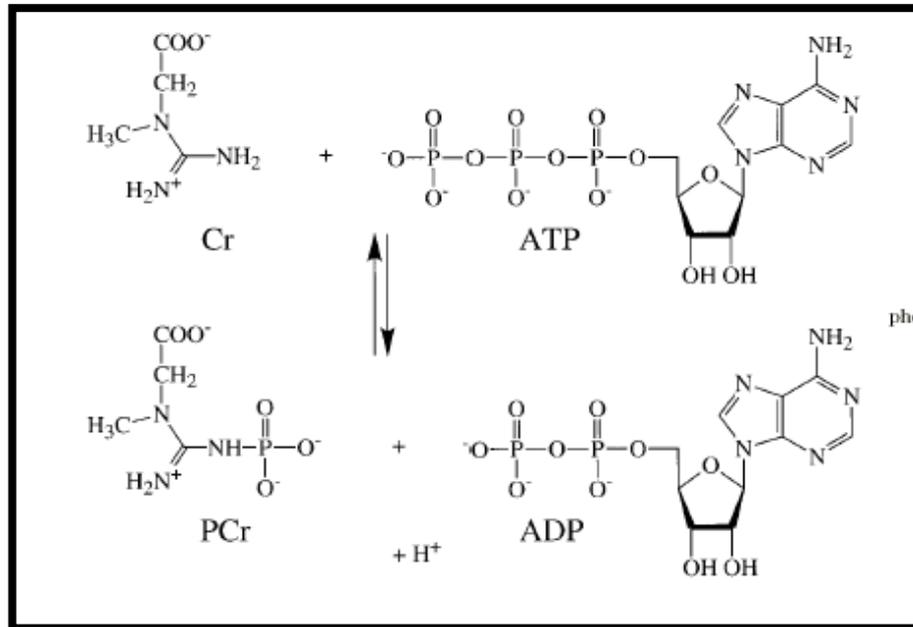


Fig (1-9): -Major routes of Cr metabolism in the mammals body .The most part(up to 90 %)(of Cr is found in muscular tissues(with apology from[^].



Equation (A): CK Function

The mitochondrial isoenzyme (*Mi-CK*) are located in the mitochondrial inter membrane space ⁽⁶⁷⁾ and are associated with the outer side of the inner membrane ⁽⁷¹⁾. *Mi-CK* differs from its cytosolic counterparts by the ability to form octamer from arrangement of four dimmers to produce stable building block ⁽⁷¹⁾. See fig (1-10). On the other hand, cytosolic enzymes have strictly dimeric structure. The *Mi-CK* enzyme gives a cube-like structure with identical top and bottom faces that appear suitable to interact with two-mitochondria member's ⁽⁷²⁾.

A series of experimental findings support this structural consideration. Rojo *et al* ⁽⁷³⁾ and Stachowaik *et al* ⁽⁷⁴⁾ explain *in vitro* that Octameric form of *Mi-CK* was able to connect two artificial membranes. Kottke *et al* ⁽⁷⁵⁾ observed that mainly octameric form of the enzyme was present in the isolated fractions brain of mitochondria.

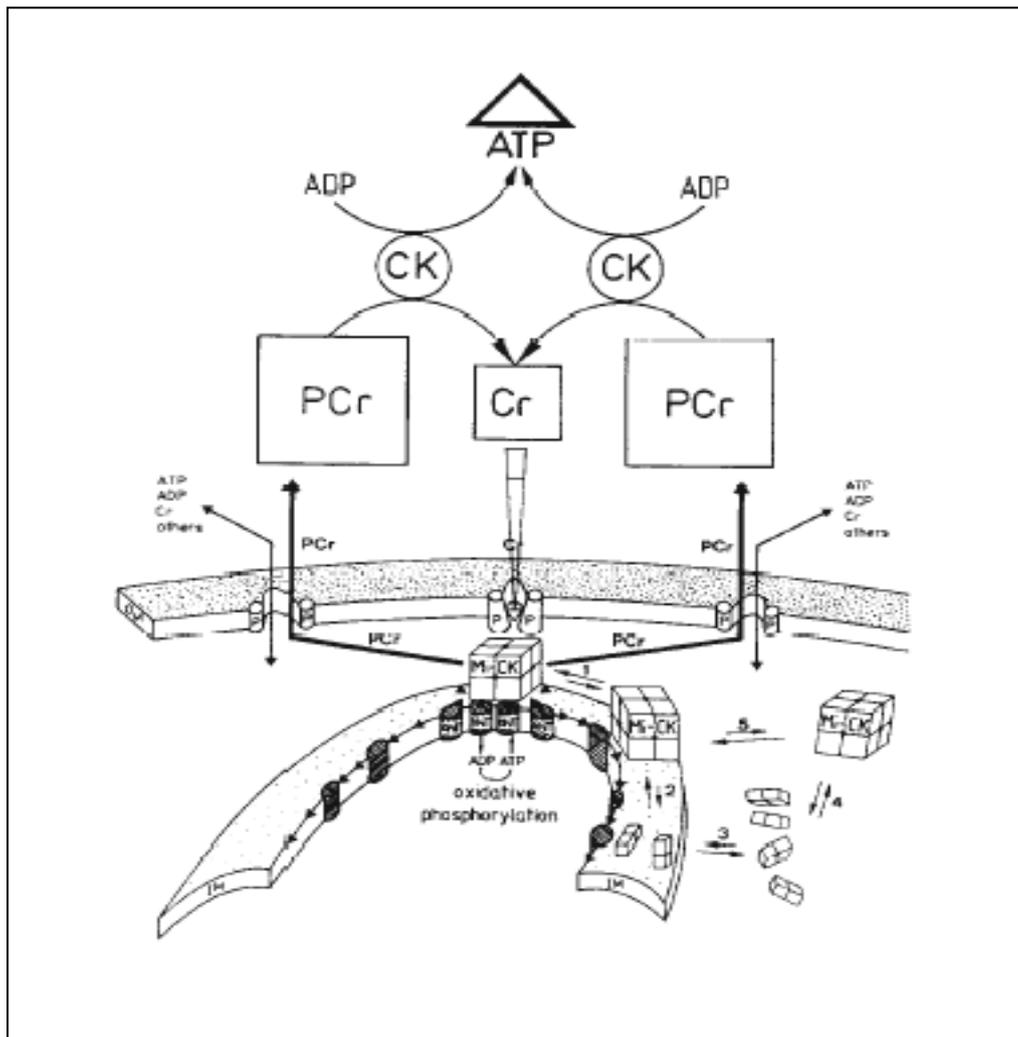


Fig (١-١٠) Model for the possible regulation of CK activity and transport of (high-energy) compounds through the mitochondrial membranes.

((with apology from ^{٦١}))

Ever since the discovery of the creatine kinase reaction in ١٩٣٤^(٦١,٦٧), research efforts focused mainly on biochemical and physiological properties of CK reaction itself and on “high-energy phosphate” metabolism of cells and tissues with high-energy demands. Fast-twitch skeletal muscle has a large pool of CrP for regeneration of ATP hydrolyzed during a short period of intense work. The high activity of CK in muscle causing CK-reaction remains in a near-

equilibrium state and keeps [ADP] and [ATP] at constant concentration (over several seconds) ^(۶۷).

CK isoenzymes are associated with site of ATP production (e.g. Mi-CK in the mitochondrial intermembrane space) and with ATP consumption (e.g. cytosolic CK bond to the myofibrillar M line or the plasma membrane) and fulfill the function of transport demand of high-energy phosphate ^(۶۸,۶۹).

Lately, the molecular structures of all (CK) isoenzymes have been solved ^(۷۰,۷۱). The catalytic mechanism of CK stunted by using different techniques that produce detailed information about kinetic and mechanistic aspects of the transphosphorylation reaction ^(۷۲).

γ - Phosphoryl group is transferred via an associative mechanism ^(۷۳,۷۴). At pH \wedge and above. CK reaction follows a rapid equilibrium random mechanism in both directions ^(۷۵), where as at pH \vee , the kinetic mechanism is random only in the reverse direction (ATP synthesis) and equilibrium ordered with ATP added before Cr, in the forward direction (CrP synthesis) ^(۷۶).

The information about specific amino acid residues involved in substrate binding and catalysis is scarce. Especially the guanidine substrate-binding site of CK has not yet characterized of the lack specific mutants or a CK crystal structure containing creatine.

The essential cause to decrease the enzymatic activity to CK enzyme is the mutation of the highly reactive cysteine $\vee\vee\wedge$ and tryptophan $\vee\vee\vee$ located near the active site ^(۷۷,۷۸). (See fig ۱-۱۱) ^(۷۳)

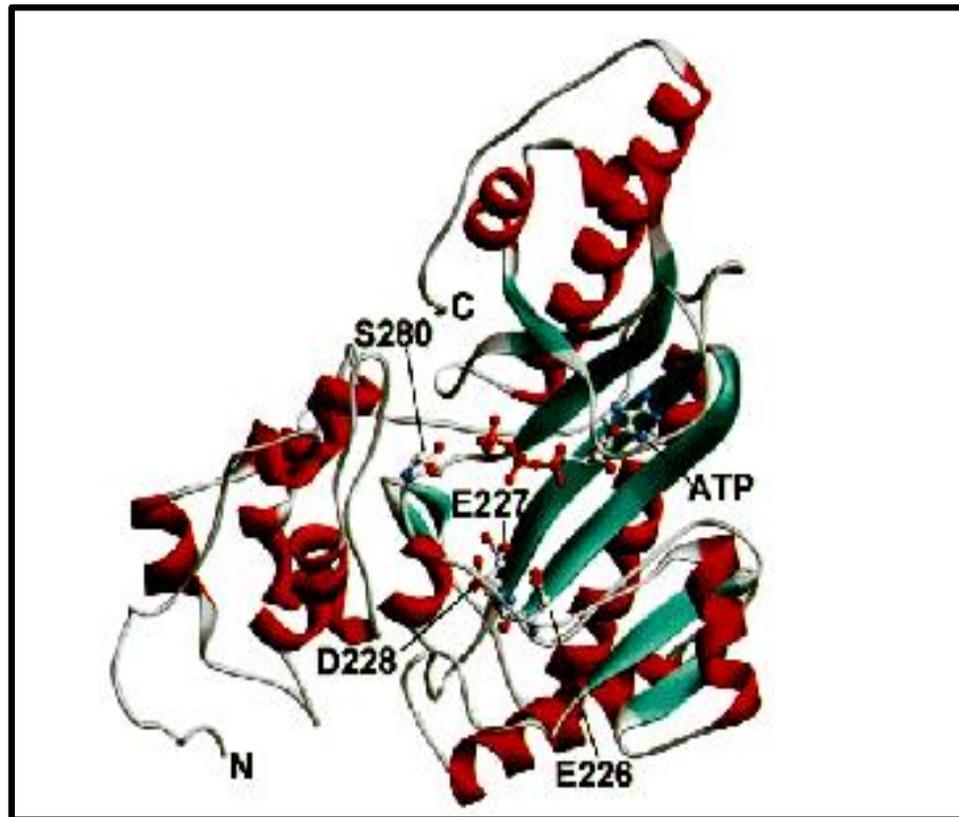


Fig (١-١١): -Location of mutated residues in CK structure. Ribbon representation of three-dimensional fold CK monomer, ATP that marks the Active site of CK, and amino acid mutated in (Glu^{٢٢٦}, Glu^{٢٢٧}, ASP^{٢٢٨} and Ser^{٢٨٠}) (with apology from ^{٧٩})

(١-١٠-١) Creatine Kinase and Oxygen Stress: -

There are several evidences, which suggest that CK inhibition occurs because reactive oxygen species is found ^(٧٥). This evidences include (١) MM-CK which beyond to bovine, rabbit and rat heart as well as Mi-CK were inactivated by incubation with either (hypo) xanthine plus xanthine oxidase or hydrogen peroxide with concomitant loss of free sulfhydryl group.

Superoxide dismutase, catalase, reduced glutathione and cysteine are protected against inactivation^(٨٠,٨١,٨٢).

(٢) Postischemic reperfusion in isolated rat hearts causes decrease in total CK activity, addition SOD to perfusion medium prevents this effect^(٨٣).

(٣) In permeabilized muscle fiber of the rat heart, myofibrillar MM-CK was identified as the primary target of both xanthine oxidase / xanthine and hydrogen peroxide. Inhibition of CK in this state is prevented by catalase or dithiothreitol^(٨٤).

Oxidative stress induces the release of iron from stored proteins, that makes availability of iron for catalysis of free radical reactions. In fact, ferrous iron catalyze the inactivation of rabbit MM-CK by H_2O_2 or xanthine oxidase / hypoxanthine^(٨٦,٨٥). The micromolar concentrations of iron and iron chelates that were reduced and recycled by superoxide radicals were effective catalyses of CK^(٨٧). Korge and Campbell obtained evidence that iron may directly inhibit CK^(٨٨,٨٥). Inactivation of CK depends on the modification of sulfhydryl group of CK and was prevented by dithiothreitol, desferrioxamine and EDTA.

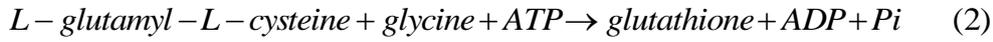
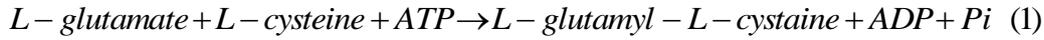
NO and peroxynitrite were found to inhibit CK reversibly and irreversibly, respectively, most probably by binding to the reactive sulfhydryl group of the enzyme^(٨٩,٩٠).

(١-١١) Glutathione

Glutathione is a major intracellular peptide sulfhydryl compound. Glutathione has many biological functions such as maintenance of membrane protein sulfhydryl groups in its reduced form and its functions in catalysis, metabolism, transport and in the protection of cells against foreign compounds, free radicals and ROS^(٩١). Glutathione is an active compound in reactions that

destroy H_2O_2 and other peroxides^(۹۱). Glutathione acts also as a cofactor for many enzymes such as glutathione peroxidase, which catalyzes detoxification of intracellular. Thus, it maintains of glutathione levels in its natural state for cellular defense against oxidative injury and for cellular integrity^(۹۱). The physiological role of glutathione as an antioxidant described and substantiated in studies of numerous disorders reflecting the increased oxidation result of abnormal glutathione^(۹۲).

Glutathione is synthesized intercellularly by consecutive action of γ -glutamylcysteine synthetase (equation-١-) and GSH synthetase (equation-٢-)



The synthesis of Glutathione depends on the viability of substrates, cysteine is the limiting substrate. γ -Glutamylcysteine synthetase is non-allostrically, feed back inhibited by GSH. That's mean under Physiological condition, γ -glutamylcysteine synthetase does probably not act at maximal rate. simple transport of GSH as shown in Fig (١-١٢)

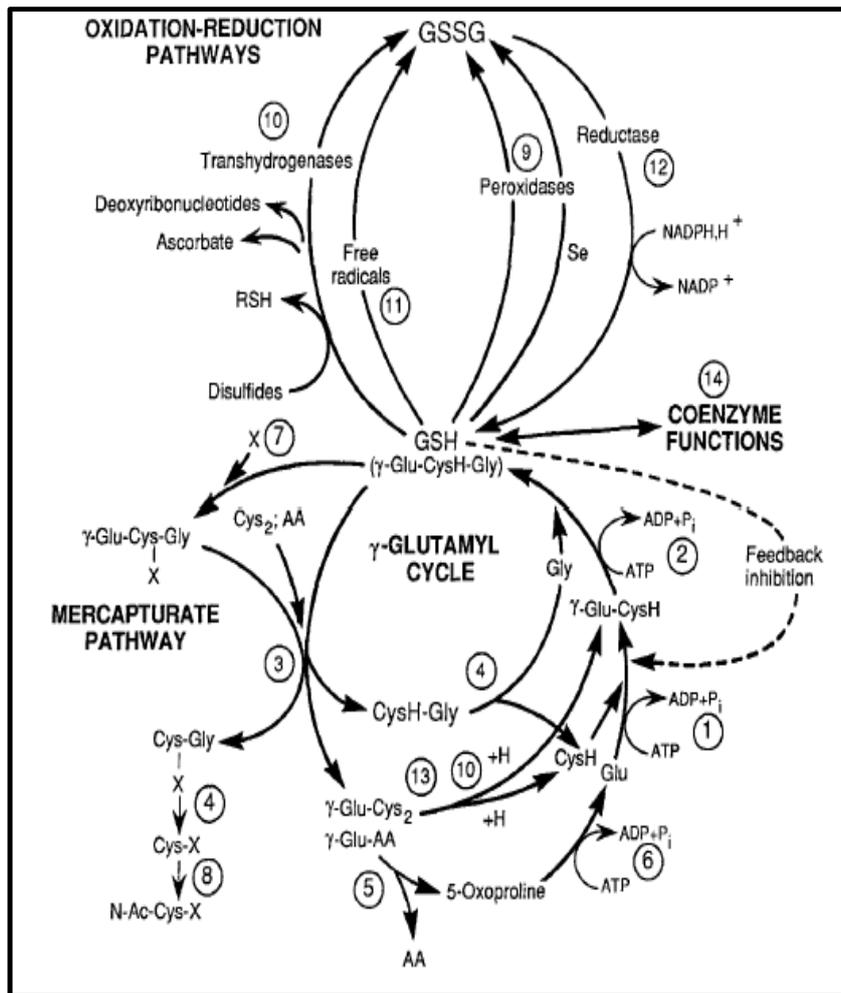


Fig (١-١٢) GSH transport and metabolism in cytoplasm(with apology from ^(١٤))

The depletion of GSH is a very important factor to some serious human diseases, such as chronic renal failure, diabetes, alcoholism and contract formation ^(١٧). These diseases associated with oxidative stress. Glutathione and thiol redox status regulates gene transcription, which participates in the pathogenesis of cancer, diabetes and atherosclerosis ^(١٥).

(١-١١- ١) Basic Oxidation– Reduction Reaction :

Thiol reacts as reducing agent, which make GSH easily donate a hydrogen atom. Thiol groups are very reactive towards free oxidizing radicals. The hydrogen atom abstraction is one of the most important property reactivity considering its function as antioxidant .

١) One– electron process: - In this process, GSH undergoes oxidation reaction with free radicals (\dot{R}) to produce a sulfur –centered glutathyl radical. ($G\dot{S}$)



Sulfur– centered glutathyl radicals can also be formed through photoionization of glutathione (Reaction ٢) or through electron transfer to metal ion (Reaction ٣).

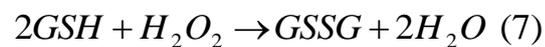
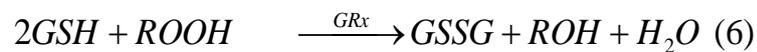


٢) Two-electron process: - Glutathione anion can be oxidized to produce glutathione cation ($G\bar{S}$) (reaction ٤) glutathione cation and glutathione anion converted to glutathione disulfide via oxidation–reduction reaction (reaction ٥)



٣) Glutathione as a substrate of glutathione peroxidase- :

Glutathione can decrease free radical production via reducing lipid hydroperoxides of GSH to GSSG, reduce ROOH to alcohol (ROH) (equation ٦) and reduce H_2O_2 to water (equation- ٧)



There are two types of GPx, the first selenium- dependent GPx, which can catalyze the decomposition of both lipid hydroperoxide and H_2O_2 . GPx is made of four protein subunits; each of this protein contains one atom of selenium at the active site. GSH reduces the selenium atom and the reduced form of enzyme.

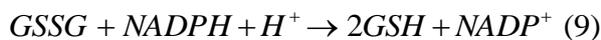
After reduction, enzyme (GPx) reacts with hydroperoxides or hydrogen peroxide^(۹۸). The other type is named phospholipide hydroperoxide (PhGPx), which also selenium dependent (phGPx). This type acts on membrane to bind ROOH and cholesterol-OOH^(۹۸).

۳) Glutathione as a cosubstrate of dehydroascorbate reductase: -

GSH participates in the reduction of dehydroascorbates, which is a well-known antioxidant.



To maintain the balance between GSH and GSSG, GSSG is reduced to GSH by glutathione reductase, which uses NADPH as a cofactor.

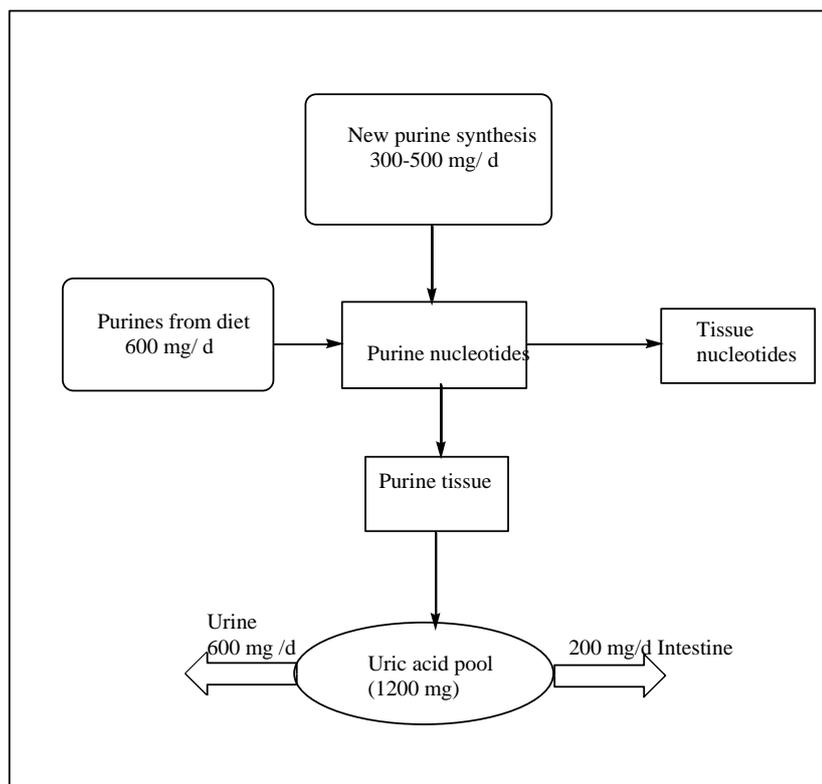


۴) Glutathione as a direct free radical scavenger - :

In ۱۹۹۳, Buettner summarized the reduction potentials of selected set of available antioxidants and free radicals. GSH one of these antioxidants can act as a direct scavenger of almost all of noxious free radical, such as HO^\bullet , $\text{O}_2^{\bullet-}$ and other carbon-, oxygen-, and nitrogen-centered free radicals, and it is converted into the relatively stable GS^\bullet .

(١-١٢) Uric Acid:

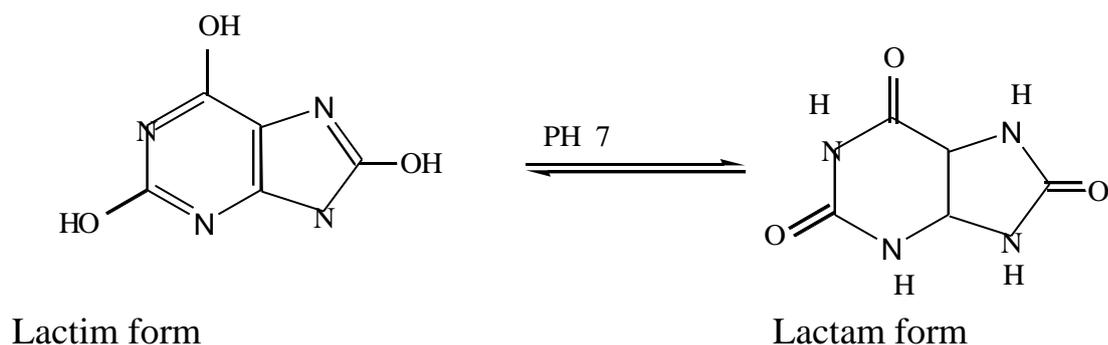
Uric acid (UA) has free radical scavenging properties and known to increase serum antioxidant capacity in its normal value^(١٩). This compound is present in plasma in relatively high concentrations in women (٣٣٠ μmol/l), in men (٣٨٠ μmol/l)^(١٠٠). Human's body excretes the excess of uric acid by kidney. The rate of synthesis of uric is equal to the rate of it is excretion and use in biological process. Fig (١-١٣)^(١٠٠).



Figure(١-١٣)Synthesis and consumption of uric acid (with apology from '')

The increase of the concentration of uric acid causes gout. Uric acid has a lot of beneficial functions in our body. It is shown to be a very important endogenous antioxidant.

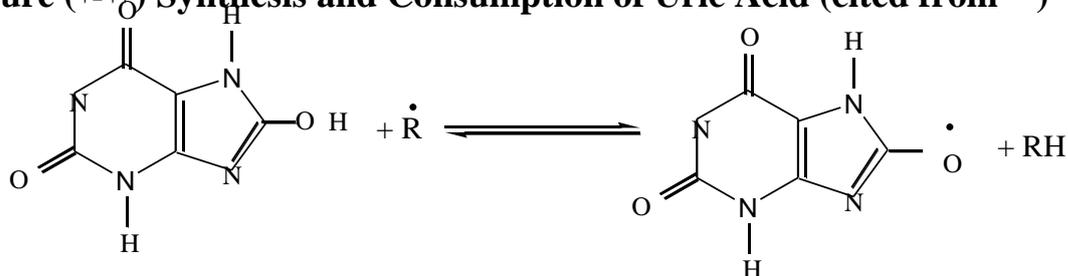
Uric acid found in two tautomeric forms ^(١١٠):



(١-١٢-١) Antioxidant Properties of Uric Acid:

١- The reactions of uric acid with alkyl radicals ^(١١١).

Figure (١-١٢) Synthesis and Consumption of Uric Acid (cited from ^(١١٢))

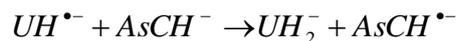


٢- The reaction of uric acid with peroxy radicals.



٣- Reaction with ascorbate: -

The redox potential of uric acid ($E = 0.05$, at pH 7) (more than that of ascorbic acid (0.08 at pH 7). U.A. was shown to donate electron to ascorbate and thus prevented it is deleterious on some enzyme ^(١١٣).



ε-peroxynitrite is one of the most important reactive species in human body (۱۰۳), as show in fig (۱-۱۵) (۱۰۳)

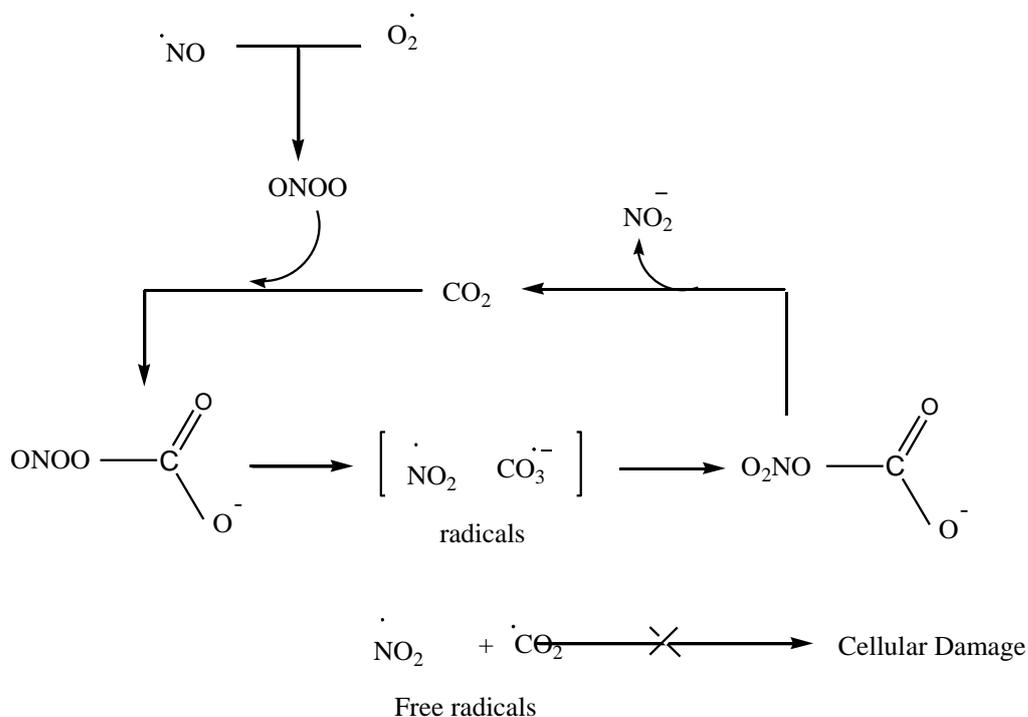
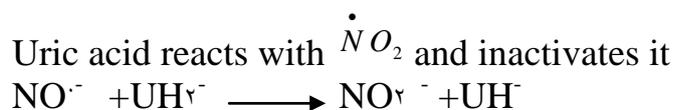


Fig (۱-۱۵) Peroxynitrate synthesis ((cited from (۱۰۳))

۵- Reaction with NO_2^{\bullet} :-



۶- Detection of uric acid

Uric acid can be detected by using the test which depends upon the formation of murexide (an ammonium salt), which is an intense reddish purple. Nitric oxide is added to the urine, which is then evaporated. If uric acid is present, murexide is formed after adding ammonia to the residue. Fig (۱-۱۵) (۱۰۳)

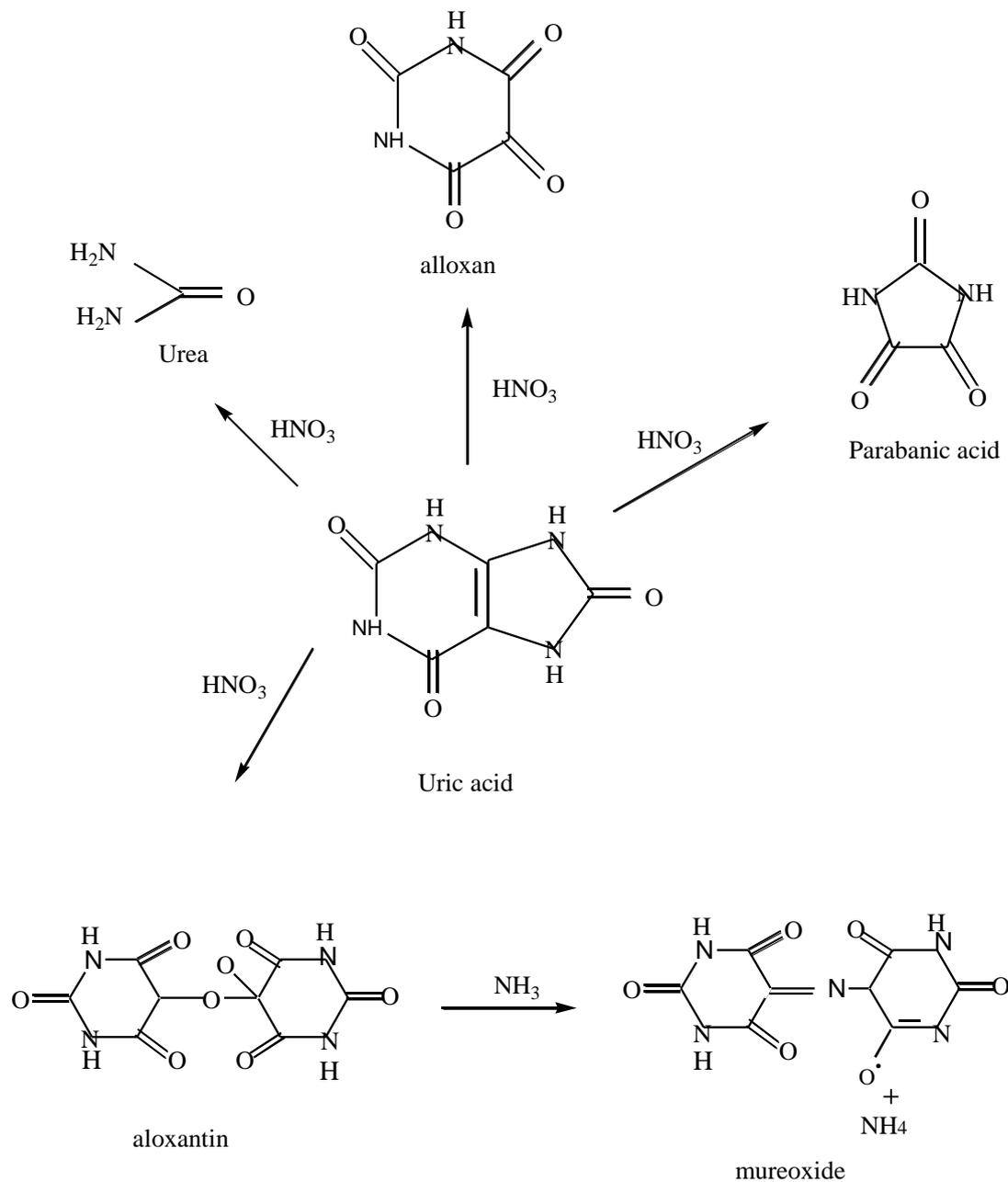


Fig (١-١٦) Detection of uric acid ((with apology from'))

(۱-۱۳) Lipid Profiles and Oxidation Hypothesis:

Fatty acids (R-COOH) are straight-chain compounds, which have varying length, may be saturated or unsaturated. In the blood, fatty acids are carried mainly in conjugated form (bound to albumin). There are four types of the lipids present in plasma, cholesterol, cholesterol ester, triglyceride and phospholipids. These lipids are relatively insoluble in water but are carried in the body fluids as soluble protein complexes known lipoproteins^(۱,۲,۳).

(۱-۱۳-۱) Cholesterol:

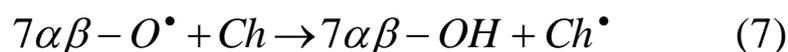
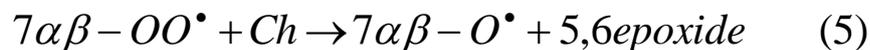
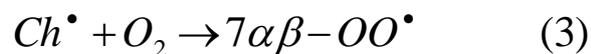
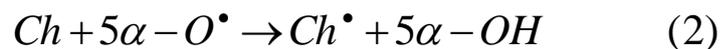
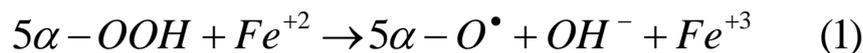
It has a steroid structure, and found in plasma either as esterified form with fatty acids forming cholesterol ester or as free cholesterol^(۱,۲,۳).

In patients with diabetes, cholesterol metabolism differs from non-diabetes patients because cholesterol synthesis is high^(۱,۲,۳,۴) and reduced by insulin^(۱,۴).

(۱-۱۳-۱-۱) Cholesterol hydroperoxides generation.

Lipid hydroperoxides (LOOHs) can be generated when cholesterol (Ch) and other unsaturated fatty acids in cell membranes are degraded under conditions associated with oxidative stress^(۱). LOOHs are more polar than parent lipids and much longer than free radical precursors and products^(۱,۲).

Propagative (chain) cholesterol hydroperoxidation can be triggered by a wide variety of chemical agents. Equation (۱-۷) explains this reaction^(۱), where α -OOH is depicted as triggering ChOOH.



(۱-۱۳-۲) Triglycerdes

Consists of glycerol, and each molecule of which is esterified with three fatty acids (۱,۲,۳).

۱-۱۳-۳ Phospholipids:

Compound are found as triglycerides but contain phosphate and nitrogenous base instead of the third fatty acid molecule at carbon three in glycerol. The phosphate and nitrogenous base are water-soluble which play a role in lipid transport (۱,۲,۳).

(۱-۱۳-۴) Lipoproteins:

There are four types of lipoprotein, which vary in their size, function and composition. The most important lipoproteins for cholesterol transport are: -

- a- High-density lipoprotein (HDL (which transports cholesterol from liver to cell).
- b- Low density lipoprotein (LDL) which transports cholesterol from cells to liver.

The most important lipoprotein for triglyceride transport is- :

- ୧- Very low density lipoproteins (vLDL), which transport endogenous triglycerides from liver to cell.
- ୨- Chylomicrons transport exogenous (dietary) triglycerides from the gut.

A transient intermediate in the metabolism of very low-density lipoprotein to low density lipoprotein is termed intermediate density lipoprotein (IDL). It contains both cholesterol and endogenous triglycerides and in normal persons is undetectable in plasma^(୧୨,୧୩). The constituents of these lipoproteins and their densities are shown in table (୧-୨).

Table (୧-୨): The constituent of lipoproteins in plasma of healthy human's^(୧୩).

| Lipoprotein | Protein | Total lipid | Cholesterol | Phospholipid | Triglyceride |
|-------------------------|---------|-------------|-------------|--------------|--------------|
| | % | % | % | % | % |
| Chylomicron | ୧ | ୧୧ | ୧ | ୨ | ୮୮ |
| (vLDL) | ୮ | ୧୨ | ୨୨ | ୧୬ | ୦୧ |
| (LDL) | ୨୧ | ୨୧ | ୧୬ | ୨୨ | ୧୧ |
| (Lpa) | ୩୬ | ୬୧ | ୩୨ | ୧୮ | ୧ |
| (HDL) | ୦୦ | ୦୦ | ୨୦ | ୨୬ | ୧ |
| Free fatty acid-albumin | ୧୧ | ୧ | ୦ | ୦ | ୦ |

Study the amount of lipoprotein helps to indicate other diseases that is associated with diabetes such as atherosclerosis^(۱۱۵), myotonic dystrophy^(۱۱۶) and cardiovascular disease (CVD)^(۱۱۷,۱۱۸,۱۱۹).

(۱-۱۴) Lipid Peroxidation

Poly unsaturated fatty acid (PUFA) are very important components of cell membrane. They form a double layer structure of membrane. They are arranged to be the non-polar tail faces towards the inner side of the double layer structure^(۱۲۰). Oxidant can react with polyunsaturated fatty acid in cell membrane to form toxic metabolites. Lipids, which contain two or more unsaturated carbon-carbon double bond (C=C) can be attacked by reactive oxygen species (ROS) Fig (۱-۱۷)^(۱۲۱)

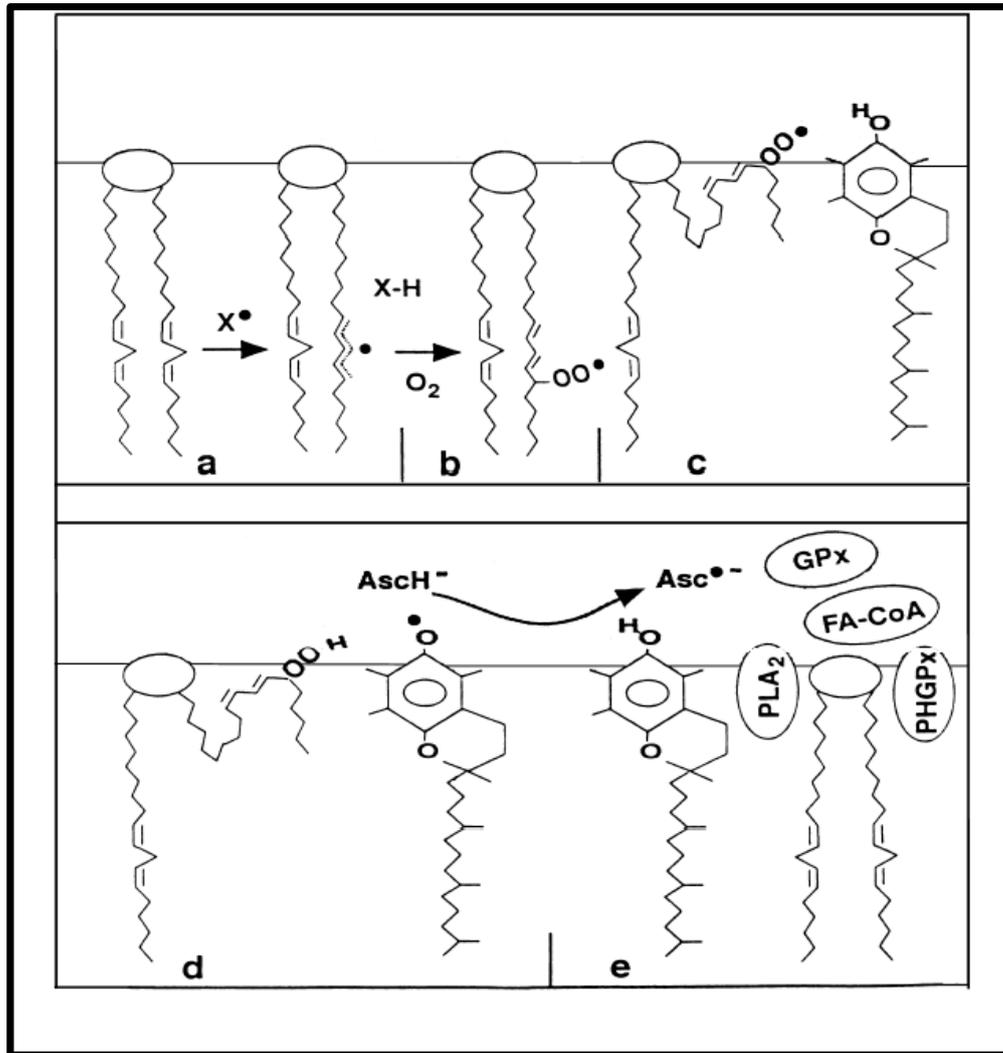
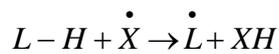


Figure (1-17) Membrane lipid peroxidation. (a) Initiation of the peroxidation process by an oxidizing radical X^\bullet , by abstraction of a hydrogen atom, thereby forming a pentadienyl radical. (b) Oxygenation to form a peroxy radical and conjugated diene. (c) Peroxy radical moiety partitions to the water-membrane interface where it is poised for repair by tocopherol. (d) Peroxy radical is covered to a lipid hydroperoxide, and the resulting tocopherol radical can be repaired by ascorbate. (e) Tocopherol has been recycled by ascorbate; the resulting ascorbate radical can be recycled by enzyme systems. The enzymes phospholipase A₂ (PLA₂), phospholipid hydroperoxide glutathione peroxidase (PH-GPx), glutathione peroxidase (GPx) and fatty acyl-coenzyme A (FA-CoA) cooperate to detoxify and repair the oxidized fatty acid chain of the phospholipid.

(۱-۱-۱) Formation of $LO\dot{O}$

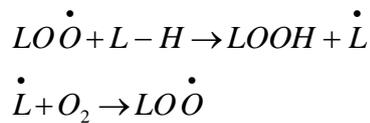
Initiation: - Initiation of lipid peroxidation occurs when there are radical species, such as the hydroxyl radical ($\dot{O}H$), removes an allylic hydrogen from PUFA producing a lipid radical (\dot{L}). Rearrangement process occurs to get more stable lipid radical, which is diene or conjugated (rr). This radical can react with oxygen ((in the presence of oxygen)) giving rise to a lipid peroxy radical ($LO\dot{O}$). Because of highly reactive properties, hydroxyl radical can react non selectively with unsaturated fatty acids to form a carbon centered radical, either by addition to double bonds or by abstraction of a hydrogen atom from the fatty acid (rr).



Propagation-:

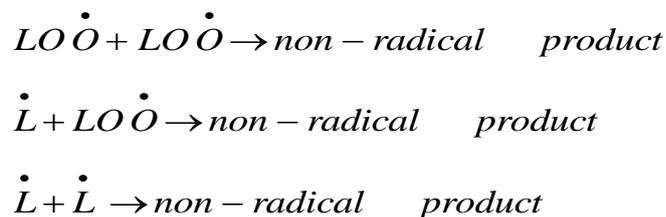
Molecular rearrangement process occurs after forming carbon-centered radicals. Lipid peroxy radical abstracts an allylic hydrogen atom from another molecule such as adjacent PUFA to form a lipid hydroperoxide (LOOH) and a second lipid radical (\dot{L}). This second lipid radical can behave with the same reactions as the first, generating lipid hydroperoxides. The ($LO\dot{O}$) radicals are able to subtract a hydrogen atom from another molecule. This causes the lipid peroxidation. The formed carbon radical can further undergo the oxygen addition reaction to form another peroxy radical and so the chain

reaction of lipid peroxidation continues. The peroxy radical combines with the hydrogen atom it abstracts giving a lipid hydroperoxide: -



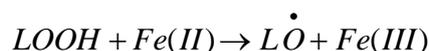
Termination- :

Termination occurs when any compound acts as free radical trap, forming a stable end product. The hydroperoxide produced may undergo different reactions to terminate the lipid peroxidation process such as that reduced to hydroxyl fatty acid or undergo cyclization to produce cyclic endo peroxides^(۱۷۴). Since PUFAs have a number of C-H bonds susceptible to free radical attack, several end products can be generated from PUFA during lipid peroxidation.



Iron in lipid peroxidation- :

LH composing biological membranes can be oxidized to LOOH. The concentration of preexisting LOOH strongly effects the formation of new LOOH^(۱۷۵). New LOOH produced by reactive species that have enough energy to break an allylic C-H bond of LH that occurs if the concentration of preexisting LOOH were low. Hydrogen abstraction and lipid alkyl radicals' (\dot{L}) formation are involved in this process. When the preexisting LOOH are abundant, new LOOH will produce highly reactive lipid alkoxy radicals ($L\dot{O}$) from the iron-catalyzed decomposition of (LH). After that (\dot{L}) radicals are formed by hydrogen abstraction from LH. In both cases, Fe (II) is required.



Ferritin, transferrin and lactoferrin are possible sources of Fe (II)^(۱۳۱), because these protein (called iron –binding protein) have higher affinity for Fe (III) than that for Fe (II). Upon suitable reductance, they release iron in a form of Fe (II)^(۱۳۲). This suitable reductance may be super oxide ^(۱۳۳) \dot{O}_2^- and ascorbat ^(۱۳۴).

(۱-۱۴-۲) Removal of Lipid Peroxyl Radicals:

There is a number of ways to protect the cell from the threat of radicals produced in lipid peroxidation.

۱- Enzymatic species act to minimize the detrimental effect of free radicals such as superoxide dismutase, glutathione peroxidase and catalase ^(۱۳۵).

۲-By numerous removal and repair enzymes such as phospholipase A_۲, which is available to repair the damaged molecule ^(۱۳۶).

۳-Non-enzymatic antioxidant compound such as vitamine E (alpha- tocopherol) and vitamine C (ascrobic acid)^(۱۳۷). Alpha –tocopherol, a fat-soluble vitamine, is major membrane –bound antioxidant used by the cell. On the other hand, ascorbic acid is regarded as the major aqueous-phase of anti oxidant. Alpha tocopherol and ascorbic acid act together in a cyclic reaction as in Fig (۱-۱۸) to protect the body from lipid peroxyradical ^(۱۳۸). The first step in process, alpha tocopherol converts to a peroxy radical by donating hydrogen to a lipid peroxy radical. Alpha tocopherol radical is energetically stable and has low reactivity with other molecules within the membrane. The second step, alpha tocopherol is re-reduced to be the original form by ascorbic acid ^(۱۳۹).

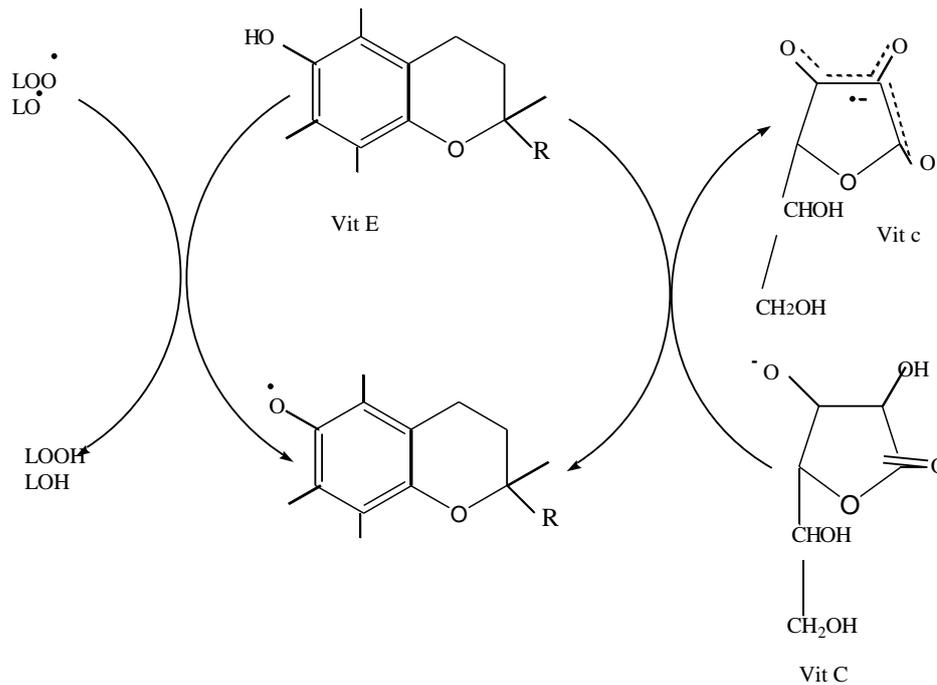


Fig (١-١٨) Chain reaction of vit E and vit C with peroxy radical ^(١٣٧)

(١-١٤-٣) Measurement of Lipid Peroxidation

There are many methods available to determine lipid peroxidation such as measuring lipid hydroperoxide or degradation products ^(١٣٤,١٣٥). Lipid hydroperoxide can be measured by HPLC following dissolving the hydroperoxide into a polar solvent, which can separate between less polar triacylglycerol and cholesterol hydroperoxide and more polar free fatty acid and phospholipid hydroperoxide ^(١٣٧). The most utilized assay for measuring lipid peroxidation is the thiobarbituric acid reactive substance (TBARS) test ^(١٣٧,١٣٨). The appearance of (TBAreactivity) varies with the exact concentration of acid, type of acid and period of heating used in the (TBA) assay ^(١٣٩). Lipid peroxidation must be indicated to study the effect of oxidative stress on the tissue ^(١٤٠,١٤١).

(1-1.4) Aim of the Study

- 1- Investigating the relationship between the CK activity and antioxidant in diabetes mellitus type I and II.
- 2- Separating the isoenzymes of CK to know which of these isoenzyme influence with oxidative stress in diabetes mellitus.
- 3- Determining the oxidative stress associated with diabetes mellitus by measuring the concentration of substances that act as antioxidant such as glutathione and uric acid.
- 4- Determining the concentration of lipid profile such as HDL, LDL, VLDL and triglyceride.
- 5- Determining the lipid peroxidation by measuring the concentration of MDA.

Chapter Two

٢- Materials

(٢-١-١) Chemicals

All chemicals were use as supplied without further purification.

| Chemicals | Purity % | Supplied company |
|--|----------|------------------|
| Ethylene diamine tetra acetic dihydrate (EDTA).٢ H٢O | ٩٩.٥ | Fluka |
| Methanol | ٩٩.٨ | Fluka |
| Ethanol | ٩٩.٩٨ | Fluka |
| Tris(hydroxy methylene) amino methane | ٩٩.٥ | Merck |
| Glutathione | ٩٩.٥ | Biochemical |
| 5,5-Dithiobis (٢-nitrobenzoic acid)(DTNB) | ٩٩.٥ | Sigma chemical |
| Tri chloroacetic | ٩٩.٠ | Hopkin williams |
| Thiobarbituricacid(٤,٦Dihydroxy٢-Mercaptopyridine | ٩٨.٠ | Fluka |
| Sodium hydroxide | ٩٩.٠ | Aldrich |
| Sodium chloride | ٩٨.٠ | BDH |
| Ethylen diamine tetra acetic acid di sodium salt | ٩٩.٠ | BDH |
| Creatine kinase kit | ---- | Randox |
| uric acid kit | ----- | Biomagerb kit |
| Total chloesterol kit | ----- | Bio merieux |
| Triglyceride kit | ----- | Bio merieux |
| High density lipo protein kit | ----- | Bio merieux |
| DEAE-cellulose | ٩٩.٥ | Sigma |
| Magnesium actate | ٩٩.٥ | BDH |
| Hydrochloric acid | ٩٩.٥ | Merck |

(٢-١-٢) Instrument Analysis and Equipment

| Instrument | Supplied company |
|------------------------|--------------------------|
| PH meter | Jenway(Germany) |
| Sensitive balance | Stanton ٤٦١ AN(Germany) |
| Vortex mixer | Karlkole (Germany) |
| Water bath | Karlkole (Germany) |
| Shaker water bath | Tecam(England) |
| Oven | Hearson (England) |
| Magnetic stirrer | Gallin kamp (England) |
| Spectro photo meter ٢١ | Molton roy (switzorland) |
| Centrifuge | Heraeus (Germany) |

(٢-٢) Methodologies

(٢-٢-١) Collection of Blood and Serum Preparation

The vein on the front of elbow or forearm is almost employed. The arm should be warm to improve the circulation and distend the vein. The arm is extended and a tourniquet is firmly applied (١٠-١٥) cm above the elbow. The skin over the vein will be sterilized with a small pad of cotton wool soaked with hapten. Disposable sterile needle fixed on to a disposable syringe is inserted into the vein. When the needle enters the vein the plunger of the syringe is slightly withdrawn. If blood appears, the tourniquet is released. When five ml of blood has been drawn into the needle; then, the needle is withdrawn. This pad is firmly pressed onto until the bleeding stops. The needle is removed from the syringe and the blood slowly transferred to plain tube without anticoagulant. The blood allowed to clot for ١٥ minutes, the clot shrinks and serum can be obtained by centrifuging for approximately ١٠ minutes at a relative centrifugal force (RCF) of ١٠٠٠ xg to ٢٠٠٠ xg^(٣٩,١٦٧,١٦٨).

(٢-٢-٢) Patients and Controls

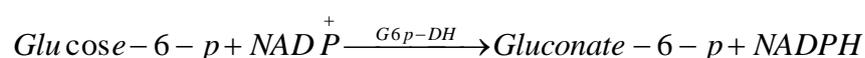
Thirty patients (٢١ males, ٩ female) with diabetes mellitus type I and twenty-four (١٥ males, ٩ females) with diabetes mellitus type II has been subjected to the present study, as well as fifty apparently healthy individuals as a control (٣١ males, ١٩ females) after having been asked about their health. (All the samples is collected from The laboratories of Margan hospital in Hilla city)

(٢-٢-٣) Determination Serum Creatine Kinase Activity

In the present study, the creatine kinse activity was measured by using commercially available kits (randox laboratories Ltd., UK)^(١٤٢,١٤٣,١٤٤).

(٢-٢-٣-١) Principle

Creatine kinase (CK) utilizes creatine phosphate as substrate to act as the initial catalyst for a series of reactions resulting in the formation of NADPH) as outlined in the coupled enzyme assay shown below. The product from this reaction (NADPH) is proportional to CK activity and used to reduce nitro blue tetrazolium (NBT) in the presence of diaphorase to produce the blue/violet color of diaformazan. This compound has an absorption maximum of around ٥٦٠ nm hydrochloricacid added to stop the reaction



CK activity is stable for ٧ days at +٢ to +٨ or ١٤ days at -20°C.

(٢-٢-٣-٢) Reagents

| Contents | Concentration in the test |
|--------------------|---------------------------|
| Buffer/Glucose | pH ٦.٤ |
| Imidozol buffer | mol/l |
| Glucose | ٢٠ mmol/l |
| Mg acetate | ١٠ mmol/l |
| EDTA | ٢.٠ mmol/l |
| NBT | ٠.٧٣ mmol/l |
| Color reagent | ١.١ mmol/l |
| ADP | ٤.٠ mmol/l |
| Diadenosine | ١٠.٦٣ μmol/l |
| NADP ⁺ | ٠.٨ mmol/l |
| Creatine phosphate | ٢٠ mmol/l |
| Glutathione | ١٢ mmol/l |
| HK | ≥ ٢٥٠٠ U/l |
| G٦P-DH | ≥ ١٥٠٠ U/l |
| Diaphorase | ≥ ٢٥٠٠ U/l |
| Hydrochloric acid | ١.٠ N |
| Standard | ١٨٠ IU/l |
| Creatine kinase | |

(٢-٢-٣-٣) Preparation of Solutions: -

١- buffer/Glucose

Contents ready for use.

٢- Color reagent.

Reconstitute the contents of one vial of the color reagent with exactly ٣ ml of buffer/Glucose solution. Stabilize for ٢٤ hours at +٢ to +٨°C or ٨ hours at +١٥ to +٢٥°C.

٣-hydrochloric acid(١ N)

Dilute exactly ten folds with distilled water to give ٠.١ N hydrochloric acid.

٤-standard

Reconstitute with exactly ٥ ml of distilled water.

Dissolve the contents by swirling gently and leave for ٣٠ minutes before use.

Once reconstituted, stabilize for ٨ hours at ٢٥°C or ٢ days at +٢ to +٨°C.

(٢-٢-٣-٤) Procedure

wavelength → 560nm

cuvette → 1cm path length

temperature → 37°C

measurement → Against reagent blank

| | Sample | Standard | Reagent blank | Sample blank |
|---------------|--------|----------|------------------|-----------------|
| Color reagent | ٠.٥ | ٠.٥ | ٠.٥ | ٠.٥ |

| | | | | |
|--------------------------------|-------------------|-------------------|---------------------|-------------------|
| solution | | | | |
| Incubate for 5 minute at 37°C | | | | |
| Sample | 0.1 ml (serum) | 0.1 (standard) | 0.1 ml distilled | ----- |
| Incubate for 10 minute at 37°C | | | | |
| 0.1N HCl | 0 ml | 0 ml | 0 ml | 0 ml |
| Sample | --- | ----- | --- | 0.1 ml (serum) |

The absorbency of the sample (A sample), standard (A stand) and sample blank (A sample blank) are measured against the reagent blank at 660 nm.

(2-2-3-5) Calculation: -

Normal serum: -

$$\text{CK activity in sample} = \frac{A_{\text{sample}}}{A_{\text{standard}}} \times \text{standard value}$$

Highly turbid or icteric serum: -

$$\text{CK activity in sample} = \frac{A_{\text{sample}} - A_{\text{sample blank}}}{A_{\text{standard}}} \times \text{standard value}$$

(2-2-4): -Separation of the serum creatine kinase isoenzyme by ion-exchange column chromatography.

To separate creatine kinase isoenzyme Mercer's method must be used. (140,146) This method modified to increase sensitivity by using DEAE-cellulose

rather than DEAE-sephadex-A-٥٠, and by changing the ionic strength of the eluting buffer (١٤٧,١٤٨,١٤٩,١٥٠).

(٢-٢-٤-١) Preparation of DEAE- cellulose

DEAE- cellulose, which has an exchange capacity ٠.٩ mmol/g of dry gel. Two gm from this gel cycled at room temperature through the following sequence of washes: - ٠.٥ mol/l NaOH, water, ٠.٥ mol/l NaOH, water, ٠.٥ mol/l and water. Water washing was continued until the elution was neutral. Excess liquid was removed by using (Buchner funnel). After the last washing the DEAE- cellulose was washed several times with buffer number-١- (pH ٧.٩), it was kept in this buffer while it was being used.

(٢-٢-٤-٢)Preparing the Buffers

Buffer number-١-

(pH. ٧,٩) ((Composition in mM: ٧٠ NaCl, ٥-magnesium acetate, ٠.٤ EDTA and ١٠٠ tris base))

A-NaCl (٢٠Mm)

٠.١١٦٨ gm of NaCl dissolved in a final volume of ٢٠ deionized water (AL-Furat company).

B-Magnisum acetate (٥ mM)

٠.١٠٧٢ gm dissolved in final volume ٢٠ ml de ionized water.

C-EDTA (٠.٤ mM)

٠.١١٦ gm dissolved in final volume ٢٠ ml deionized water.

D-tris (hydroxy methyl) amino methane ((tris) ١٠٠ mM)

١.٢١١٤ gm dissolved in final volume ٢٠ ml deionized water.

E- hydrochloric acid (HCl ١٠٠ Mm)

٠.٦٢٣١ ml of concentrated HCl (sp.gr.١.١٩, ٣٢%) is added to ١٠ ml of deionized water and brought to a final volume of ٢٠ ml.

A,B,C,D and E, mixed in a volumetric flask (١٠٠ ml), pH adjusted with ١M HCl.

Buffer number-٢-(pH ٦.٤)

Same procedure used to prepare buffer -١-, but differ in concentration of NaCl (٤٠mM, ٠.٢٣٣٧ gm))

Buffer number-٣- (pH٦.٤)

Same procedure used to prepare buffer -١-, but differs in concentration of NaCl ((٢٥٠ mM, ١.٤٦١ gm))

(٢-٢-٤-٣) Procedure

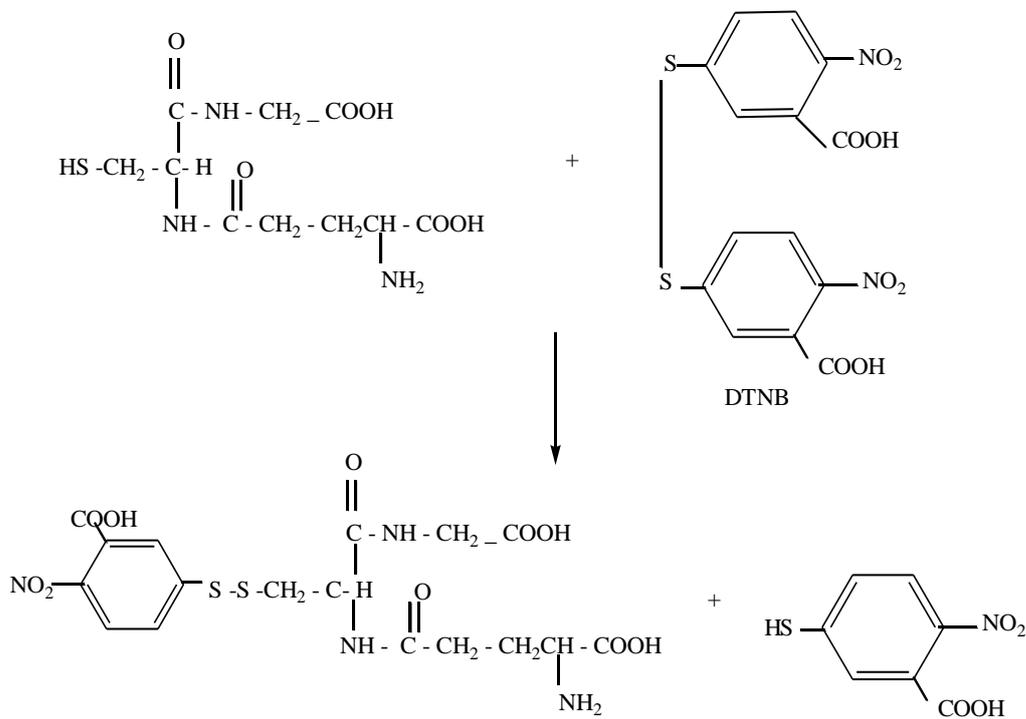
١. Two ml of buffer -١- was allowed to pass through the column.
٢. A ٢٥-mm disposable Pasteur pipette filled with the prepared DEAE-cellulose, after that, translate this gel to column which has an interned dimension (٥x٧٠mm).
٣. Two ml of buffer -١- was allowed to pass throw the column.
٤. One ml of serum was added to the column.
٥. Four ml_s of buffer-١-were added to elute MM-CK isoenzyme in order to calculate (CK) activity in each one of these four ml_s.
٦. Four ml_s of buffer-١-were added to elute MB-CK isoenzyme in order to calculate (CK) activity in each one of these four ml.
٧. Four ml_s of buffer-١-were added to elute BB-CK isoenzyme in order to calculate (CK) activity in each one of these four ml.

(٢-٢-٥) Determination of serum reduced glutathione (GSH)

More than one type of analytical methods are used to determine serum glutathione (GSH) depending on the action of sulfhydryl groups. Thus methods include photometric, enzymatic, flourometric and HPLC are used^(١٥١,١٥٢,١٥٣).

(2-2-0-1) Principle

5,5 - Dithiobis (γ-nitrobenzoic acid)(DTNB) is a dichromogen that is readily reduced by sulfhydryl group of GSH to produce an intensely yellow compound. Reduced chromogen has maximum absorbance at 412 nm and is directly proportional to GSH concentration. Fig (2-1)



(2-2-0-2) Preparation of Reagent

1- The precipitating solution: - Tri chloroacetic acid (TCA) 5% (5 gm of TCA are dissolved in a final volume of 100 ml of DDW).

2-Ethylene diamine tetra acetic acid-di sodium (EDTA-Na₂)(0.5M) (148.9 gm of EDTA are dissolved in a final volume of 1 liter of DDW).

٣- Tris-EDTA buffer (٠.٤) (pH = ٨.٩)

٤٨.٤٥٨ gm of tris is dissolved in ٨٠٠ ml of DDW. ١٠٠ ml of (٠.٤M) EDTA solution are added and brought to a final volume of ١ liter with DDW. The pH is adjusted to ٨.٩ by the addition a drops of ١M of HCl.

٤- DTNB reagent (٠.١M)

٠.٠٩٩ gm of DTNB is dissolved in absolute methanol and brought to a final volume of ٢٥ ml (this reagent stabilize for at least ١٣ week at ٤ °C).

٥- GSH standard

Stock standard solution (٠.٠١M) is prepared by dissolving ٠.٣٠٧ gm of a GSH in a final volume of ١٠٠ ml of (٠.٤M) EDTA **solution**. Dilution is made in EDTA solution to ٢,٥,١٠,٢٠,٣٠ and ٤٠ μM. (This working standard solution should be prepared daily).

(٢-٢-٥-٣) Procedure

Serum GSH was determined by using a modified procedure utilizing Ellman’s reagent (DTNB), which can be summarized as follows.

Duplicates of each standard and sample test tubes are prepared, then piped into test tubes.

| Reagents | Sample μl | Reagent black μ l | Standard μ l |
|----------|--------------|----------------------|--------------|
| Serum | ١٠٠ | ----- | ----- |
| Standard | ----- | ----- | ١٠٠ |
| DDW | ٨٠٠ | ٩٠٠ | ٨٠٠ |
| TCA | ١٠٠ | ١٠٠ | ١٠٠ |

Tubes are mixed in vortex mixture intermittently for ١٠-١٥ minutes, and

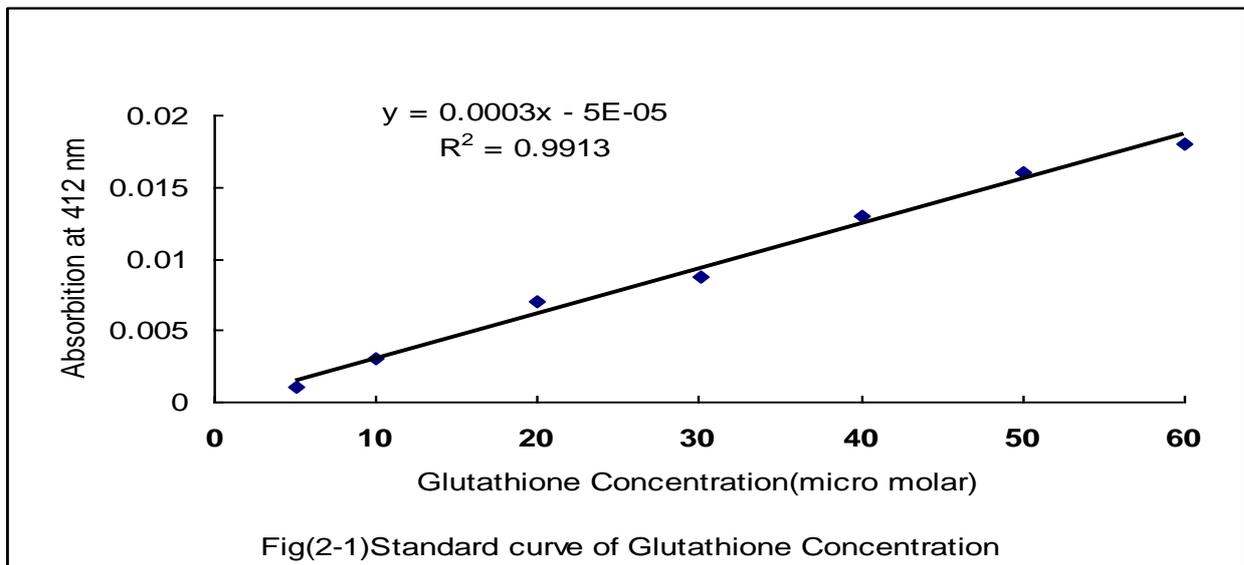
Centrifuge for ١٥ minutes at ٣٠٠ xg, then piped into test tubes.

| Reagents | Sample μ L | Reagent blank μL | Standard μL |
|------------------|---------------|---------------------|-------------|
| Supernatant | ٤٠٠ | ٤٠٠ | ٤٠٠ |
| Tris EDTA buffer | ٨٠٠ | ٨٠٠ | ٨٠٠ |
| DTNB reagent | ٢٠ | ٢٠ | ٢٠ |

Tubes are mixed in vortex mixture. The spectrophotometer adjusted with reagent blank to read zero absorbance at ٤١٢ nm, and the absorbance of standards and sample is read within five minutes of the addition of DTNB.

(٢-٢-٥-٤): -Calculation of Serum GSH

The concentration of GSH is obtained from the calibration curve in μM (fig-٢-٢).

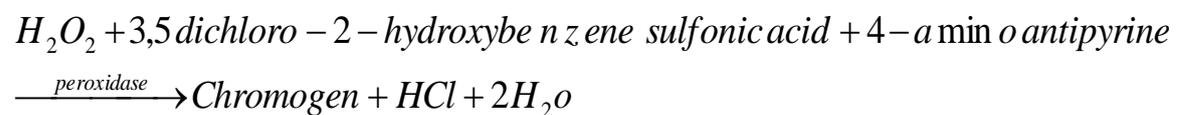


(٢-٢-٦) Determination of Serum Uric Acid ^(١٥٤,١٥٥)

The determination of uric acid in serum was measured enzymatically by the biomagreb kit.

(٢-٢-٦-١) Principle

Uric acid is oxidized to allantoin and hydrogen peroxide by the uricase, according to the following equation: -



(٢-٢-٦-٢) Reagents

The reagent used in this test is a mixture of: -

- ١- tris buffer pH ٨.٠ (٥٠ mmol/l)
- ٢- ٣.٥ dichloro-٢-hydroxybenzene sulfonic acid ٢ mmol/l.
- ٣- surface-active agent ٢ mmol/l.
- ٤- uricase ≥ ١٠٠ u/l.
- ٥- ascorbate oxidase ≥ ١٠٠٠ u/l.
- ٦- aminoantipyrine ٠.٢٥ mmol/l.

٢.٢.٦.٣ Procedure

| | Reagent blank | Standard | Sample |
|-------------------------------|------------------|------------|------------|
| Standard (\wedge mg/dl) | ----- | ٢٠ μ l | ----- |
| Sample | ----- | ----- | ٢٠ μ l |
| Working solution | ١ ml | ١ ml | ١ ml |

After addition, mix the content of every tube, allow to stay at room temperature for 10 min or incubate for 5 minute at $37^{\circ}C$ and read absorbance value spectrophotomerically at wave length 520 nm, beyond to the formation of the quinoneminewhich dye is proportional to the uric acid concentration in serum.

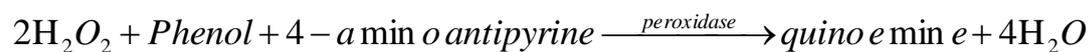
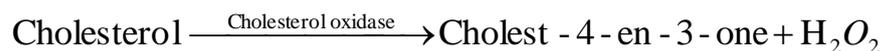
Uric acid ($\mu\text{Mol/l}$) = (A (absorbance of sample/A absorbance of standard) X 307

(2-2-7) Determination of Serum Total Cholesterol 107

Total cholesterol in the serum was measured by enzymatic method, with the biomerux kit, France.

(2-2-7-1) Principle

The principle of this method was lysis of the cholesterol ester to produce cholesterol and fatty acids, then oxidized to produce the quinoemine: -



(2-2-7-2) Reagents

The reagent used in test is a mixture of: -

- 1- phosphate buffer 0.1 mol/l.
- 2- phenol 10 mmol/l.
- 3- sodium cholate surfactante 3.75 mmol/l.
- 4- 4 amino antipyrine 0.5 mmol/l.
- 5- peroxidase ≥ 1000 U/l.
- 6- Cholesterol oxidase ≥ 200 U/l.
- 7- Cholesterol esterase ≥ 120 U/l.

(٢-٢-٧-٣) Procedure

The procedure for this method is as follows: -

| | Reagent blank | Standard | Sam ple |
|-----------------------|------------------|----------|------------|
| Standard ٢٠٠ mg/dl | ---- | ١٠ μL | |
| Sample | | | ١٠ μL |
| Working reagent | ١ ml | ١ ml | ١ ml |

After addition, mix the content of every tube.

Allow staying at room temperature for ١٠ minutes or incubating at 37°C for ٥ minutes and reading absorbance by spectrophotometer at ٥٠٠ nm. The intensity of the produced color is directly proportional to the total cholesterol concentration in the sample

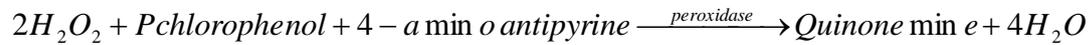
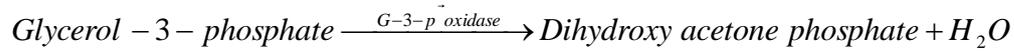
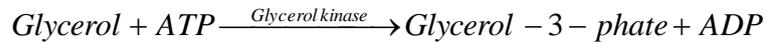
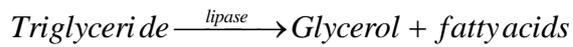
$$\text{Total cholesterol (mmol / l)} = \frac{A_{bs} \text{ of sample}}{A_{bs} \text{ of standard}} \times 5.17$$

(٢-٢-٨) Determination of Serum Triglyceride^(١١١):-

Total triglycerides in the serum were measured by enzymatic with the (biomerieux kit, France).

(٢-٢-٨-١) Principle

Total triglyceride determination depends on formation of quinonemine by using a group of enzymes as follows: -



(2-2-8-2) Reagents

The reagent used in this test is a mixture of: -

| | |
|---------------------------------|-------------|
| 1- tris buffer PH 7.6 | 100 mmol/l. |
| 2- p-chlorophenol | 2.5 mmol/l. |
| 3- Magnesium | ε mmol/l. |
| ε- ε aminoantipyrine | 0.ε mmol/l. |
| ο- lipase | ≥ 1000 U/l. |
| ϕ- Glycerol kinase | ≥ 200 U/l. |
| γ- Glycerol-3-phosphate oxidase | ≥ 2000 U/l. |
| λ- Peroxidase | ≥ 200 U/l. |
| 9- ATP | 0.8 mmol/l. |

(٢-٢-٨-٣) Procedure

| | Reagent blank | Standard | Sample |
|-----------------------|--------------------------|-----------------|---------------|
| Standard ٢٠٠ mg/dl | ---- | ١٠ μl | ----- |
| Sample | ----- | ----- | ١٠ μl |
| Working reagent | ١ ml | ١ ml | ١ ml |

Gently mix the content of every tube after addition, allow staying at room temperature for ١٠ minute or incubating at ٣٧° for ٥ minute and reading spectrophotometrically at ٥٠٥ nm. The intensity of the produced color is proportional to the total triglyceride in the sample.

$$\text{Total serum triglyceride (mmol/l)} = \frac{\text{Abs. of sample}}{\text{Abs. of standard}} \times 2.26$$

(٢-٢-٩) Determination of Serum High Density Lipoprotein-Cholesterol (HDL-C)^(١٢٢)

HDL-Cholesterol in the serum were measured by enzymatic method using biomeriex kit, France.

(٢-٢-٩-١) Principle

The addition of the phosphotungestic in the presence of magnesium ions is due to precipitate the chylomicrons and lipoproteins of very low density (VLDL) and low density (LDL) contained in the sample.

The supernatant obtained after centrifugation contains high-density lipoprotein fraction HDL measured by enzymatic method.

(٢-٢-٩-٢) Reagents

| | | |
|----------------------|------------------------------|----------------|
| Reagent(١) | Phosphotungestic acid | ٤٠ g/l |
| Precipitation | MgCl٢.٦HO | ١٠٠ g/l |
| Reagent | pH ٦.٢ | |
| Reagent (٢) | | |
| HDL ch. | Free esterified | ١.٢٠mmol/l |
| Calibrating | Cholesterol | ٠.٥ g/l |
| solution | | |

(٢-٢-٩-٣) Procedure

| | Reagent blank | Standard | Sample |
|--------------------|--------------------------|-----------------|---------------|
| Distilled water | ٥٠ µl | ----- | ----- |
| HDL- calibrator | ----- | ٥٠ µL | ----- |
| Supernatant | ----- | ----- | ٥٠ µL |
| Working reagent | ١ ml | ١ ml | ١ ml |

The working solution is the cholesterol enzymatic solution. Gently mix the content of every tube after addition, allow staying at room temperature

for 10 minutes or incubating for 60 minutes at 37°C and read spectrophotometrically at 500 nm.

The concentration of HDL- cholesterol

$$\text{HDL} - (\text{mmol} / \text{l}) = \frac{\text{Abs. of sample}}{\text{Abs. of standard}} \times 1.42$$

1.42 (the concentration of standard).

(2-2-10) Determination of Serum Low Density Lipoprotein-Cholesterol LDL: -

In lipoprotein fractionation the widely accepted method for determining the LDL-cholesterol is the beta quantification procedure. Very low-density lipoprotein (vLDL) is separated by ultra centrifugation and high-density lipoprotein (HDL), by precipitation. Because of ultra centrifugation is unavailable in most routine laboratories and the procedure is expensive, time consuming and technically demanding, the nearly universal approach in clinical laboratories has been to estimate LDL-cholesterol from the formula of (Friedewald *et al.*, 1972)^(173,174). After the measurement of total cholesterol, triglycerides and HDL-cholesterol, LDL-cholesterol is calculated from the equation:-

$$\text{LDL} = \text{TC} - \text{VLDL (estimated as triglyceride} \div 2.2) - \text{HDL} \quad (173,174)$$

(2-2-11) Determination of Serum Lipid Peroxidation: -

The concentration of lipid peroxides in the plasma was determined by the colorimetry thiobarbituric acid (TBA) method. Under the acid and heating conditions of the reaction the lipid peroxides break down to form malondialdehyde (MDA) which is complex with (TBA). The resulting MDA-TBA chromogen can be measured spectrophotometrically at $532^{(16,17)}$.

(2-2-1.1) Reagents

- 1- 0.6 (W/V)% TBA (0.6 gm of thiobarbituric acid in 100 ml D.W).
- 2- 17.5 (W/V)% (17.5 gm of trichloroacetic acid in 100 DW)
- 3- 70 (W/V)% (70 gm of trichloroacetic acid in 100 DW).

(2-2-1.2) Procedure

- 1- 200 μ l of serum was added to the test tube.
- 2- 1 ml of 17.5% TCA was added to the tube of sample.
- 3- Place the tube in ice then add 1 ml of 0.6% TBA.
- 4- Place in boiling water baths for 10 minutes and then allow it to cool.
- 5- Add 1 ml 70% TCA then to incubate for 20 minutes.
- 6- The sample was then centrifuged for 10 min at 2000 rpm then measure the absorbance spectrophotometrically of the supernatant at the wave length 532 nm against a reagent blank. The preparation of reagent blank was the same procedure above except changing the sample with DW.

$$\text{Serum MDA} = (\text{Absorbance}/d * \epsilon) / \text{D.F}^{16}$$

$$d = 1\text{cm}, \quad \epsilon = \text{extinction coefficient} = 1.56 \times 10^5 \text{ M}^{-1}\text{cm}^{-1}$$

$$\text{D.F} = \text{dilution factor} = \epsilon$$

(٢-٣) Statistical analysis

The results are expressed as number, range, confidence interval C.I ٩٥% and whenever possible as mean \bar{x} SD (SE) of number of observations. The data are analyzed by using student's "t" and correlation test taking $P \leq 0.05$ as the lowest limit of significance.

CHAPTER THREE

٣- Results and Discussion: -

In the present study, the control values of different variants were determined in sera of apparently healthy individuals, compared with different in-patients group. Then, the determination of different variants was done in sera of patients with the two types of DM.

The age of healthy controls and patients subjected to the present study are shown in Table (٣-١). Groups, sex, No., mean (years), SD (upper value, lower value).

Table (٣-١) The age of healthy controls and patients with diabetes mellitus.

| | No. | Sex | Mean | SD | Upper | Lower |
|----------------|------------|------------|-------------|-----------|--------------|--------------|
| Control | ٣١ | Male | ٣٥.٢ | ٩.٢٢ | ٦٠ | ٢٢ |
| Control | ١٩ | Female | ٣٢.٦ | ٨.٧ | ٥٧ | ٢٢ |
| Type ١ | ٢١ | Male | ٣٠.٨ | ١٠.٧ | ٥٥ | ٢٨ |
| Type ١ | ٩ | Female | ٣١.٠٧ | ٩.٣ | ٥٦ | ٢٧ |
| Type ٢ | ١٥ | Male | ٣٨.٧ | ١٠.٢ | ٦٢ | ٣٦ |
| Type ٢ | ٩ | Female | ٣٧.١١ | ١٠ | ٥٥ | ٣٨ |

٣-١ The Effect of Diabetes on Creatine Kinase: -

Compared with healthy controls, CK activity was found to be significantly decreased in sera of patients with diabetes mellitus types I and II as shown in Table (٣-٢) and Fig (٣-١).

Table (٣-٢) CK activity (U/L) in sera of patients and healthy controls.

M=males, F= females, S= significant (when $P < .005$), NS= not significant).

| | Sex | Mean | SD | CK | | SE | ٩٥% C.I. | | P | Sign |
|---------|-----|------------|-----------|-------|-------|-------|----------|--------|-------|------|
| | | | | Upper | Lower | | Upper | lower | | |
| Control | M | ١١٥.٥ ^ | ٢٥.٢ | ١٨٠ | ٧٦ | ٤.٢٥ | ١٢٢.٨ | ١٠٥.٦٣ | -- | -- |
| | F | ١١٢.٨ | ٣٨.٧ | ١٨٣ | ٧٠ | ٨.٨٧ | ١٣٥.٩٥ | ٩٥.٨٢ | -- | -- |
| Type ١ | M | ٨٦.٨ | ٣٦.٨ | ١٤٠ | ٥٦.٦ | ٧.١٤ | ١٠٦.٥٨ | ٧٠.١٨ | ٠.٠٠١ | Sign |
| | F | ٨١.٢٣ ^ | ٣٤.٩ ^ | ٩٨.٤ | ٥٢.٨ | ١١.٢٦ | ١٠٦.٧ | ٥٥.٧٦ | ٠.٠٠١ | Sign |
| Type ٢ | M | ٨٧.٣٣ | ٣٣٣١ | ١٦٨ | ٥٠ | ٨.٦ | ١٠٦.٧٨ | ١٠٠.٣٣ | ٠.٠٠١ | sign |
| | F | ٧٩.٥٥ | ٣٨.٣ ^ | ١٥٠ | ٥٠ | ١٢.٧٩ | ١٠٨.٤٨ | ٥٠.١٦ | ٠.٠٠١ | sign |

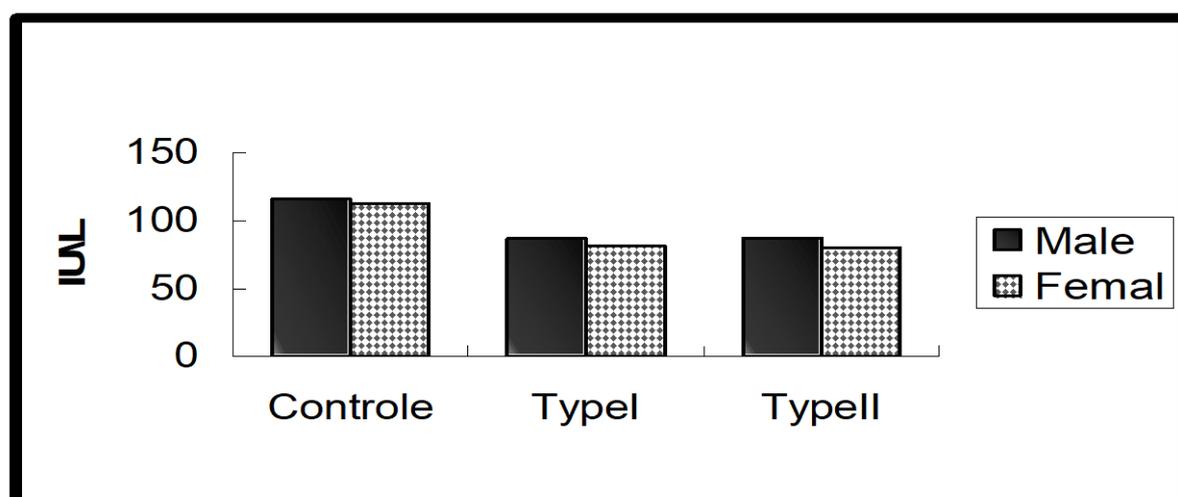


Fig (٣-١) The level CK activity in sera of patients and healthy controls.

There is much evidence, which suggests that, the decrease of CK activity in serum is beyond ROS: -

١- Oxygen free radicals are implicated in mediating various pathological processes such as diabetes ^(١٦٢,١٦٩). Free radicals are known to interact with enzyme and other biomolecules and affect their structure and function then leads pathophysiological conditions. The active sites of CK contain cysteine residues, which are very essential for enzyme activity and substrate binding ^(١٧٠). This cysteine could be the targets for oxygen free radicals due to the modification of this group could be the reason for the enzyme inactivation. The inactivation effect of super oxide radical and hydroxyl radical was reversible while the inactivation effect of peroxinitrite was reported to be irreversible ^(٨٩,٩٠,١٧١).

The addition of SOD or CAT almost completely reverses the effect of superoxide or H_2O_2 on the CK activity respectively ^(١٦٩). The depressed activities of CK due to oxygen free radicals were reversed to control values by DTT.

This protection can be due to two reasons; the first is that this compound reduces the oxidized sulfhydryl group of enzyme at the active site oxidized by oxygen free radicals or the sulfhydryl group of DTT may react directly with oxygen free radicals protecting the enzyme active sites from the attack by oxygen free radicals.

Free radicals of x-ray-induced water radiolysis via their reaction products reduce the activity of CK ^(٥٦).

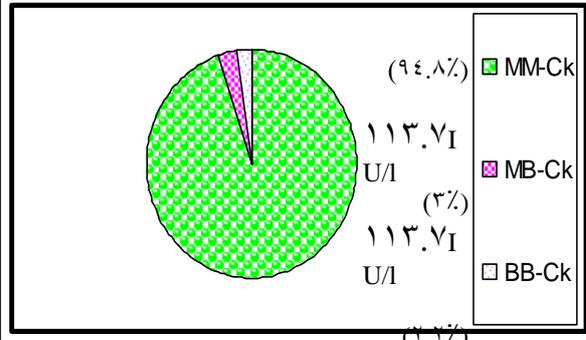
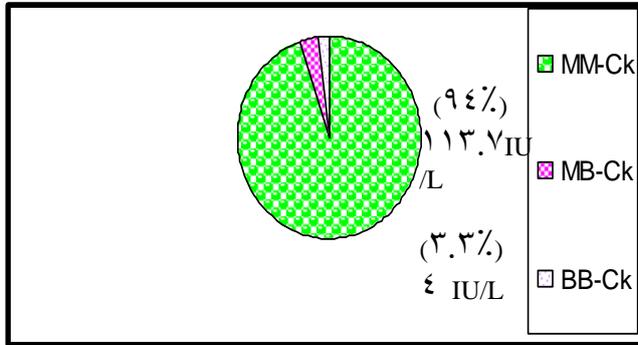
٢- Alloxan and streptozotocin are widely used to induce experimental diabetes in animals. The mechanism of their action in β -cells of the pancreas has been found to occur by the action of nitric oxide ^(١٧٢). Hoeldtke *et al* ^(١٧٣). And Chiarelli *et al* ^(١٧٤) demonstrated *in vivo* that the nitrosative stress increases in DM. Increasing Nitric oxide is due to inhibition creatine kinase ^(١٧٥). $\dot{N}D$ Reduces the activity of creatine kinase irreversibly via nitrosylation of the sulfur centers ^(١٧٦) (creatine kinase possesses eight sulphhydryl group) ^(١٧٧).

٣- MM-CK incubated with (hypo) xanthine plus xanthine oxidase inhibited to lower value of activity, adding DTT or GSH prevents this effect ^(١٧٨).

٤- Hassan Mekhfi *etal* demonstrated that creatine kinase is the main target of reactive oxygen species in cardiac myofibrils ^(١٧٩).

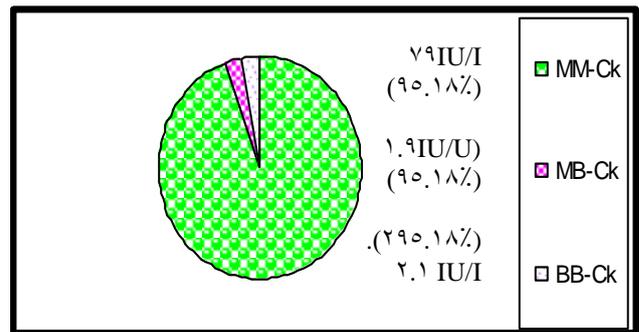
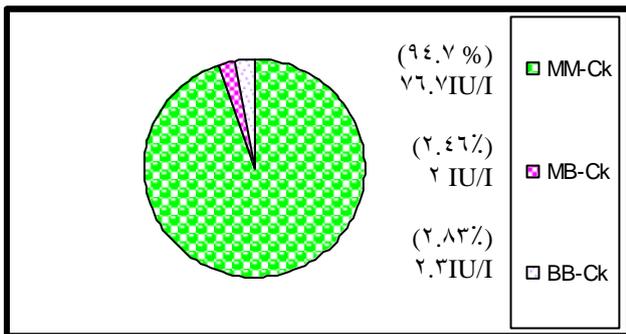
All these observation suggest that decreased creatine kinase activity occurs because of the effect of free radicals on the thiol group (a constant amount of protein but decrease the CK activity) .The decrease of creatine kinase may occur also because of diabetes decreased CK-Mm-RNA) to ٦١.١% ^(١٧٩) due to decreased CK-M sub unit. (decrease the amount of protein).

The result of this study is more agreement with the last suggestion because (BB-CK) stays constant relatively as shown in Fig (٣-٢).



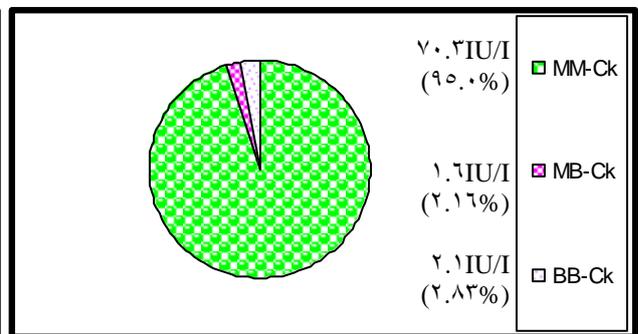
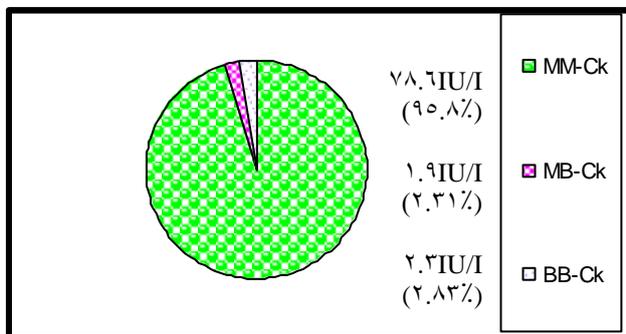
The levels of CK isoenzymes in control (male)

The levels of CK isoenzymes in control (female)



The levels of CK isoenzymes in Type I (male)

The Levels of CK isoenzymes in Type I (female)



The levels of Ck isoenzymes in Type II (male)

The levels of Ck isoenzymes in Type II (female)

Fig (٣-٢) The Levels of CK Isoenzymes(IU/L) in Controls and Patients with Diabetes Mellitus Type I and Type II

٣-٢ The Effect of Diabetes on Glutathione: -

Glutathione (GSH), cysteine and ergothionine are three compounds, which make up the non-protein thiol compounds (NPSH)^(١٨٧). Many investigators using methods, which measure NPSH, have interpreted the result as GSH because GSH makes at least ٩٠% of the NPSH^(١٨٨). GSH plays a central role in the defense against a variety of diseases. Its function includes the detoxification of carcinogens, free radicals and peroxides, regulation of immune function; and maintenance of protein structure, function and turnover^(١٨٩).

Compared with healthy controls, GSH concentrations were found to be significantly decreasing in sera of patients with different types of Diabetes mellitus. In the present study it was found that GSH is decreased statistically significantly as shown in table (٣-٣) and fig (٣-٣). Previous studies have shown low levels of GSH in patients with renal failure, liver failure^(١٨٣), and CHD^(١٨٤) vitamin B١٢ deficiency^(١٨٥) and multiple-organ failure^(١٨٦).

Table (٣-٣): -The levels of GSH in healthy controls and patients with diabetes mellitus.

| | Sex | Mean | SD | GSH($\mu\text{mol/l}$) | | SE | ٩٥% C.I | | P | Sign |
|---------|-----|-------|------|--------------------------|-------|-------|---------|-------|-------|------|
| | | | | Upper | Lower | | Upper | Lower | | |
| Control | M | ٣٠.٢٢ | ٥.٠٦ | ٣٢.٣ | ١٧.٣ | ٧.٠٥ | ٤٦.١٦ | ١٤.٢٧ | -- | -- |
| | F | ١٩.٣٩ | ٥.٠٤ | ٢٩.٣ | ١٤.٣ | ١.١٥ | ٢٢.٠ | ١٦.٧ | -- | -- |
| Type ١ | M | ١٧.٤٦ | ٥.٦٣ | ٢٧.٦ | ١١.٦ | ١.٠١ | ١٩.٩٥ | ١٥.١٧ | ٠.٠٠١ | Sign |
| | F | ١٦.٦٧ | ٥.٣٨ | ٢٤.٣ | ٧ | ١.٧٩ | ٢٠.٧١ | ١٢.٣٧ | ٠.٠٠١ | Sign |
| Type ٢ | M | ١٦.٦٥ | ٢.٤١ | ٢١.٠ | ١٣.٤ | ٠.٦٢ | ١٨.٠٦ | ١٥.٢٣ | ٠.٠٠١ | Sign |
| | F | ١٢.٦١ | ٤.٧٣ | ٢١.٠ | ٧ | ١.٥٧٧ | ١٧.١٧ | ١١.٣ | ٠.٠٠١ | Sign |

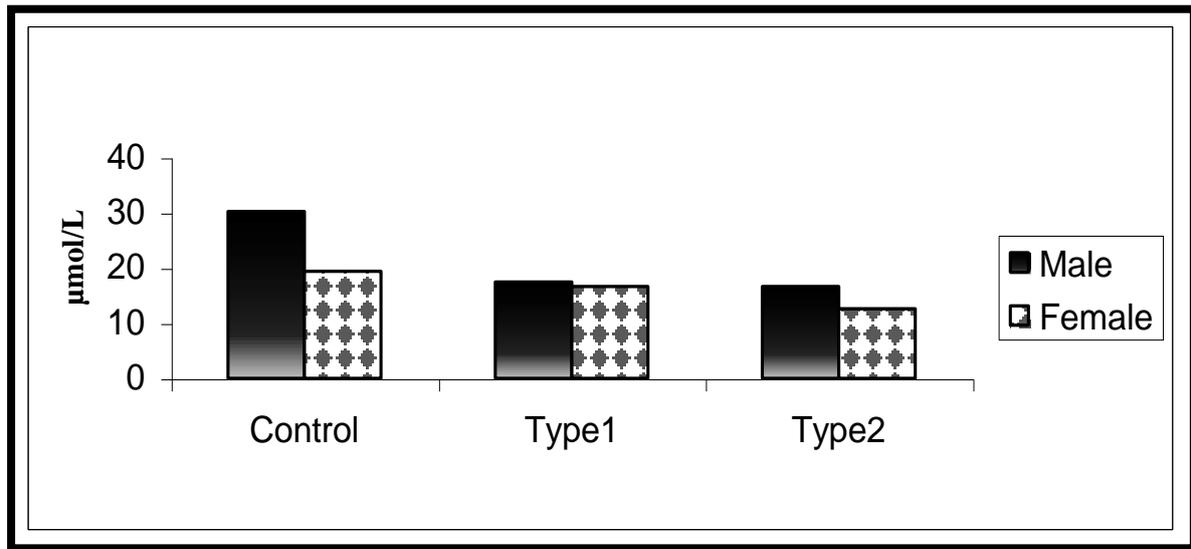
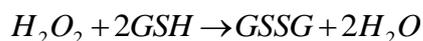


Fig (3-3) The levels of GSH in healthy controls and patients with diabetes mellitus.

The decrease of GSH in diabetes may be attributed to

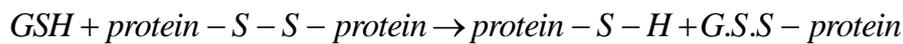
- (1) Decreasing the synthesis of GSH: by using C¹⁴-glycine, the synthesis of GSH by liver slices from the diabetic rat is found to be below the normal rate⁽¹⁸⁷⁾.
- (2) Increasing the rate of producing free radicals in diabetes mellitus; in this case GSH acts as scavenger and that is due to the decrease in GSH. (Alloxan destroys B-cell via producing free radicals; a single dose of GSH inhibited the function of alloxan)⁽¹⁸⁸⁾.

Intracellular GSH has a protective role against oxidative damage by neutralizing vitamin E or by the action of GSH peroxidase; it catalyzes the reaction: -



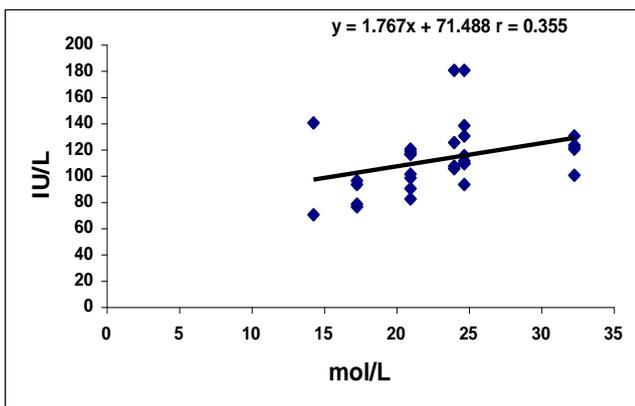
There is a family of GSH peroxidase rather than one enzyme all members of which contain subunits, which has one selenium atom at the active site⁽¹⁸⁸⁾.

Eldjarn *et al* demonstrated that SS/SH equilibria are more favored than finding different concentrations from one of their ^(١٨٩). This fact adds on a second possible reaction between GSH and protein disulphide group to produce a protein- non-protein disulphide compound: -

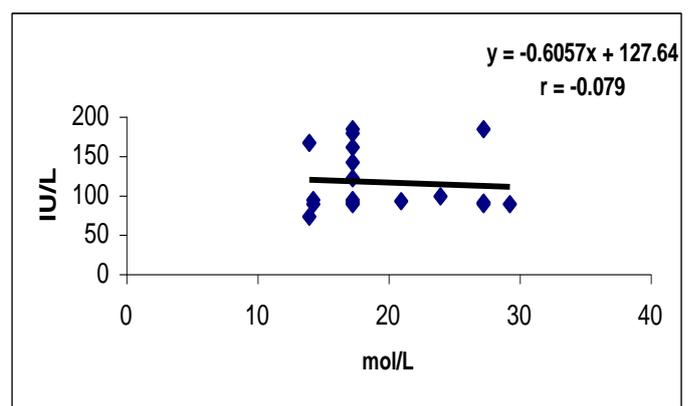


The depletion of GSH levels in the present study is compared with healthy controls supports the hypothesis that considers GSH as a protective factor against the development of different types of Diabetes mellitus.

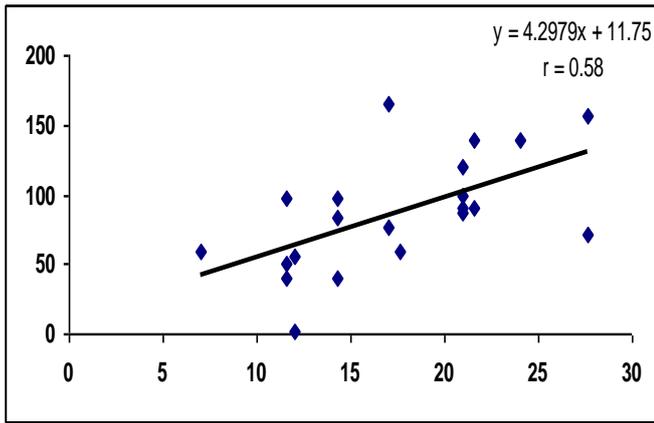
Fig (٣-٤): - shows the different correlations between CK activity and glutathione in control, type I and type II diabetes mellitus. A previous study has shown this correlation to indicate multiple-organ failure ^(١٧٩).



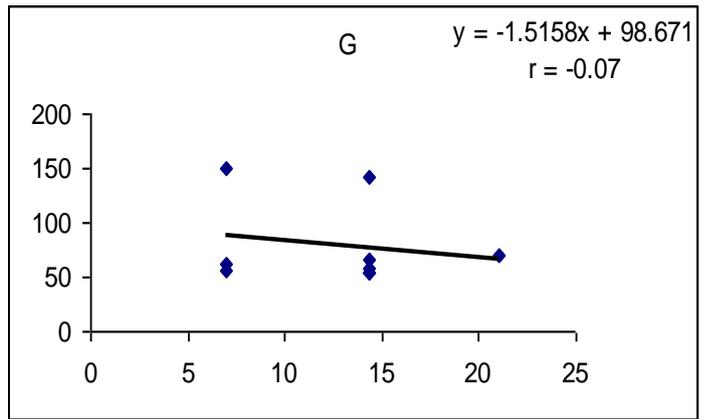
A



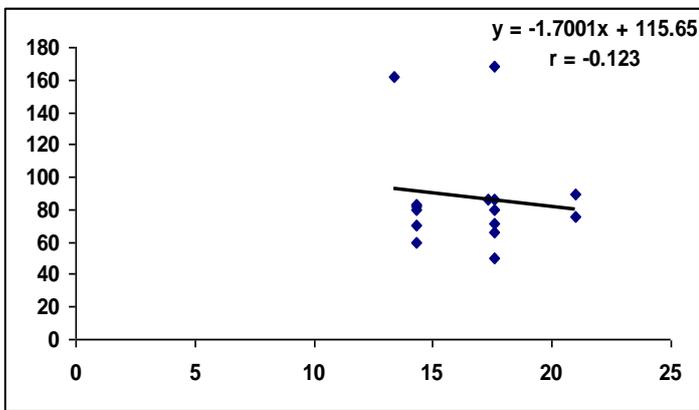
B



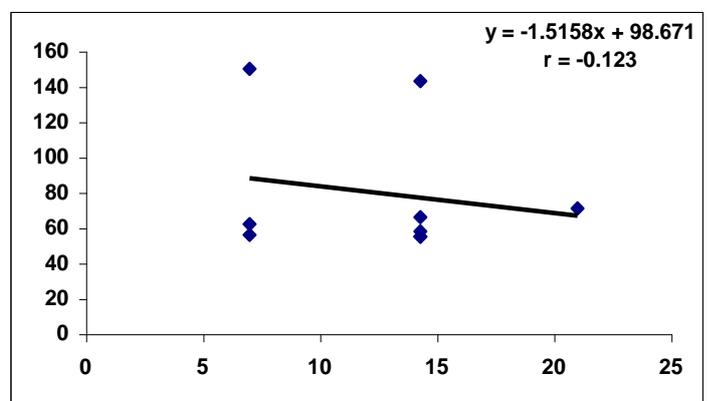
C



D



E



F

Fig (٣-٤) The different correlations between CK activity and glutathione.

A (Control male), B (Control female), C (Type I male), D (Type I female), E (Type II male), F (Type II female)

٣-٣ The Effect of Diabetes on Uric Acid: -

Uric acid is generated in the human body by the oxidation of purines. No enzymes are required to oxidize it further. It possesses free radical scavenging properties and systemic administration is known to increase serum antioxidant capacity^(١٩٢). A previous study^(١٩٠) found a

significant inverse relationship between serum UA concentration and oxidative stress during acute aerobic exercise. UA reacts with oxygen-derived free radicals and becomes oxidized in skeletal muscles^(١٩١).

Compared with healthy controls, UA concentrations were found to significantly decrease in sera of patients with different types of Diabetes Mellitus, In the present study its found that UA decreases statistically significantly as show in Table (٣-٤) and Fig (٣-٥).

Table (٣-٤): -The levels of UA in sera of healthy controls and patients with diabetes mellitus.

| | Sex | Mean | SD | UA(μmol/l) | | SE | ٩٥% C.I | | P | Sign |
|---------|-----|-------|-------|------------|-------|--------|---------|------------|------------|------|
| | | | | Upper | lower | | Upper | Lower | | |
| Control | M | ٢٢٥.٦ | ٢٧.٨ | ٢٨٠ | ١٩٢ | ٥.٥٦ | ٢٣٨.١٨ | ٢١٣.٠ ٣ | -- | -- |
| | F | ٢١٤.٦ | ١٩.٣ | ٢٨٠ | ١٩٣ | ٧.٢ | ٢٢١.٨٣ | ١٩٨.٣ ٣ | -- | -- |
| Type I | M | ١٩١.٩ | ١٣.٣ | ٢٤١ | ١٨٠ | ٢.٤ | ١٩٧.٥٨ | ١٨٦.٣ ٢ | ٠.٠٠٠ ١ | Sign |
| | F | ١٨١.١ | ١٧.١٦ | ٢١٠ | ١٨٠ | ٥.٧٢ | ١٧.٤٧ | ١٦٨.٨ | ٠.٠٠٠ ١ | Sign |
| Type II | M | ١٧٨ | ١٠.٤ | ٢٠٠ | ١٧٠ | ١٥.١٢٣ | ٢١٢.٢ | ١٤٣.٧ ٩ | ٠.٠٠٠ ١ | Sign |
| | F | ١٨٠.٧ | ١٤.٤٣ | ١٩٨ | ١٥٠ | ٤.٧٩ | ١٩١.٦ | ١٧٧.٩ ٣ | ٠.٠٠٠ ١ | sign |

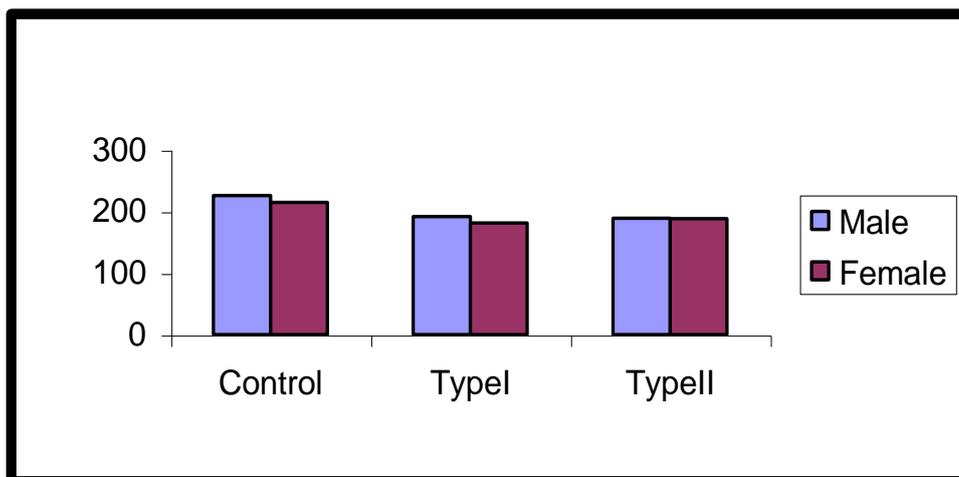
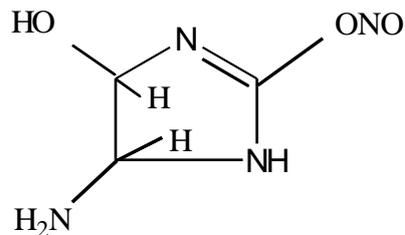


Fig (٣-٥) The levels of UA in healthy controls and patients with diabetes mellitus.

A previous study has shown low levels of UA in patients using the drug “pyrazinamide” because this drug induces increment urate excretion^(١٩١). Increased dietary protein elevates plasma uric acid and is associated with decreasing oxidative stress^(١٩٣). Increasing UA is associated with stroke^(١٩٤,١٩٥).

The decrease of UA in diabetes may be related to

١-UA acts as scavenger for peroxynitrate^(١٩٦) ((this radical increases in DM^(١٧٢,١٧٤))) to produce nitrated uric acid.

Fig (3-6)⁽¹⁹⁶⁾.**Fig (3-6) Proposed structure of nitrated uric acid product** ⁽¹⁹⁶⁾

3- Nitrogen dioxide depletes uric acid ⁽¹⁹⁷⁾, this compound increases in DM ^(198,199).

3- Chiarelli *et al* ⁽¹⁹⁸⁾ suggest a mechanism which occurs because of increasing nitric oxide and nitrogen peroxy nitrate. This mechanism produces hyper filtration, which may be due to the decrease in UA in serum and the increase in urine . Fig (3-7).

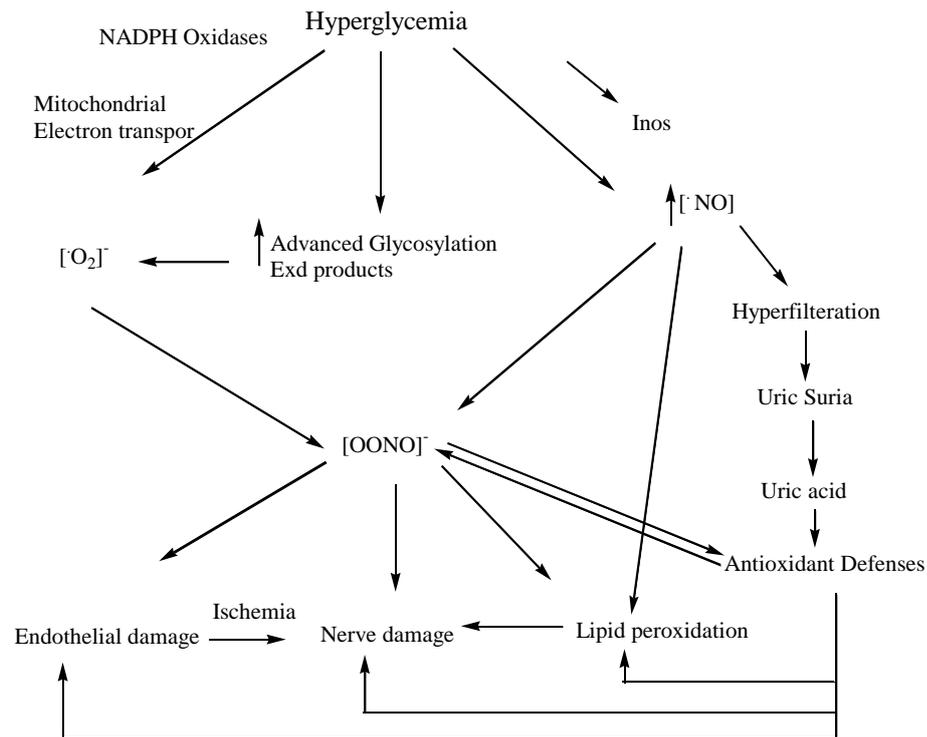
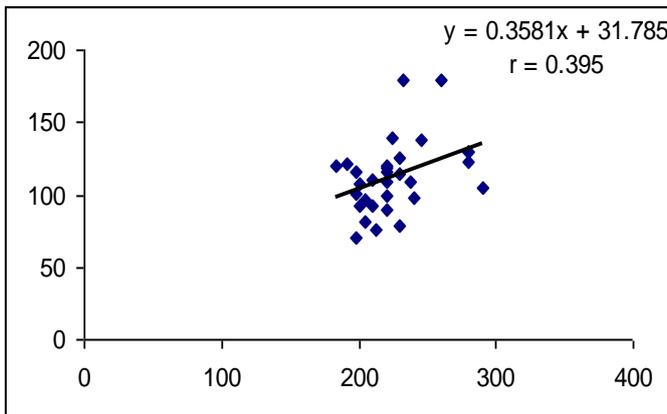
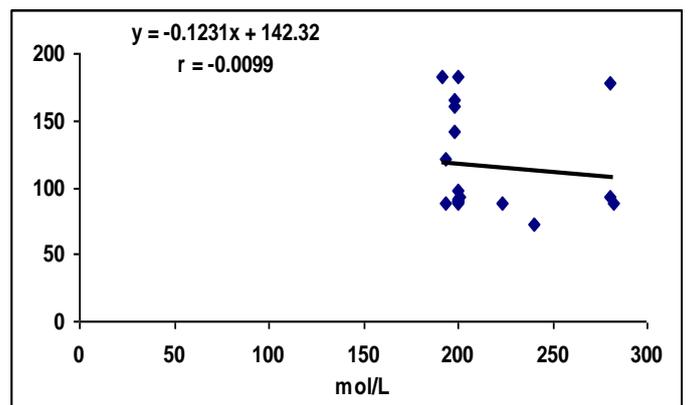


Fig (٣-٧) Nitrosative stress and hyperfiltration “cited from (١٧٣)”

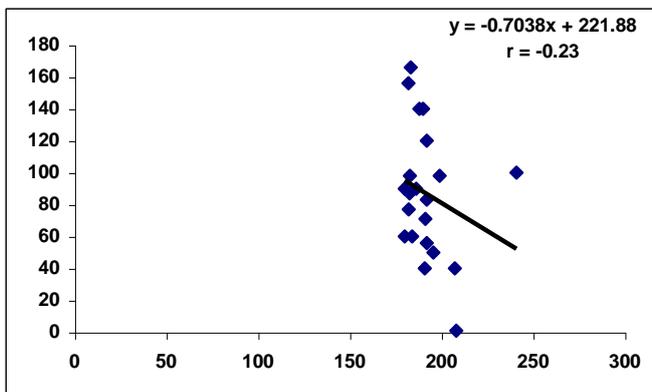
Fig (٣-٨) shows the different correlation between CK activity and UA in control, type one and type two. A previous study has shown this correlation to indicate multiple-organ failure^(١٧٩).



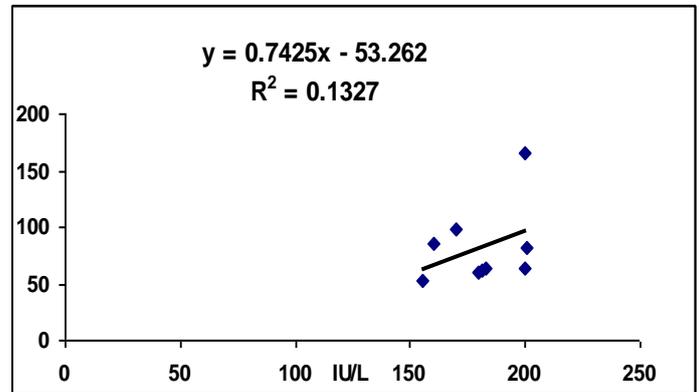
A



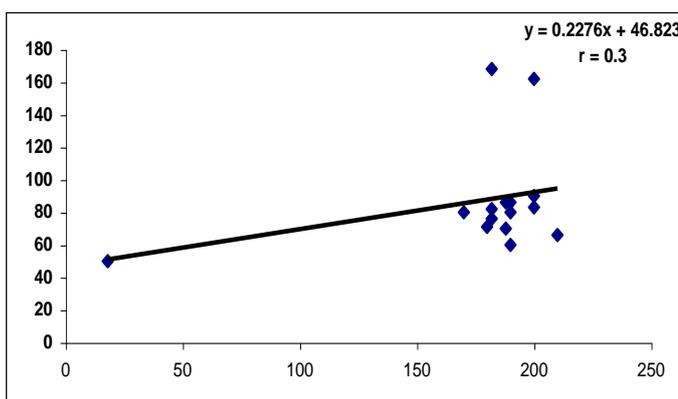
B



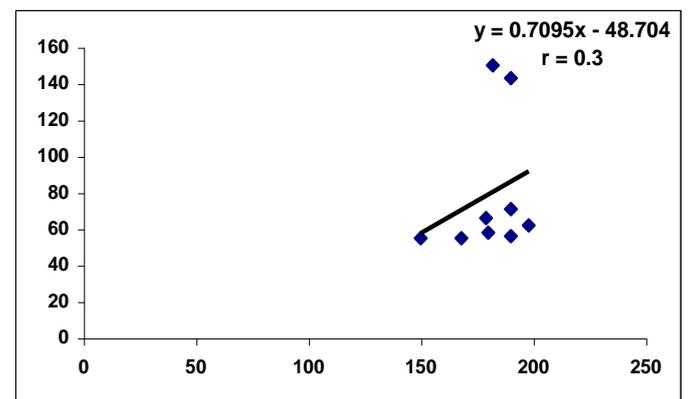
B



C



D



E

Fig (٧-٨) The Different correlations between CK activity and UA, A (control male), B (Control female), C (Type I male), D (Type I female), E (Type II male), F (Type II female)

(۳-۴) The Effect of Diabetes on Total Cholesterol

Unsaturated fatty acid in phospholipids and also cholesterol in cell membranes act as a susceptible to free radical and singlet oxygen (O_2^1)-mediated peroxidative modification, during which lipid hydroperoxide (LOOH) derivatives may accumulate^(۱۹۹,۱۹۸).

There are many causes which make the LOOHs noxious to a cell; these reasons include (۱) relatively high polarity, which can perturb membrane structure (۲) long life time compared with free radical precursors or products^(۲۰۰), (۳) involvement in oxidative stress signaling that could culminate in a peptic cell death^(۲۰۱). Compared with healthy controls. Total cholesterol concentrations were found to significantly increase in sera of patients with type I and type II Diabetes mellitus as shown in Table (۳-۵) and Fig (۳-۹).

Previous studies have shown that the role of diabetes on cholesterol synthesis is unclear^(۲۰۲,۲۰۳,۲۰۴). The effects on cholesterol metabolism of normalizing blood glucose levels with insulin have varied from decrease^(۲۰۵) to unchanged^(۲۰۶). The increment of total cholesterol in the present study, when compared with healthy control, supports the hypothesis that considers glucose increasing is due to increase in cholesterol synthesis.

Table (٣-٥) Total cholesterol levels in healthy controls and patients with diabetes mellitus.

| | Sex | Mean | SD | TC(mmol/l) | | SE | ٩٥% C.I | | P | Sign |
|---------|-----|-------|-------|------------|-------|--------|---------|-------|------|------|
| | | | | Upper | lower | | Upper | Lower | | |
| Control | M | ٤.٥٩٦ | ٠.٣٠٩ | ٤.٨ | ٣.٨ | ٠.٠٧٢ | ٦.٩٣ | ٣.٠٤ | -- | -- |
| | F | ٤.٣٠٧ | ٠.٥٩٦ | ٥.٠ | ٣.٩ | ٠.١٤٥ | ٤.٦٣٥ | ٣.٩٧ | -- | -- |
| Type I | M | ٤.٩ | ٠.٩٦ | ٥.٦٩ | ٣.٩٨ | ٠.١٧٣٨ | ٥.٣٤ | ٤.٥٥ | ٠.٠٥ | Sign |
| | F | ٤.٤٦ | ٠.٧٤ | ٤.٩٤ | ٣.٤ | ٠.٢٤ | ٥.٠٢٥ | ٣.٨٩ | ٠.٠٥ | Sign |
| Type T | M | ٤.٧٠٦ | ٠.٩٦ | ٦.٢ | ٣.٩٢ | ٠.٢٤٨ | ٥.٢٦ | ٤.١٤٥ | ٠.٠٥ | Sign |
| | F | ٤.٤٦ | ٠.٨٧ | ٦.٦ | ٣.٦ | ٠.٢٩ | ٥.١١ | ٤.٤٦ | ٠.٠٥ | sign |

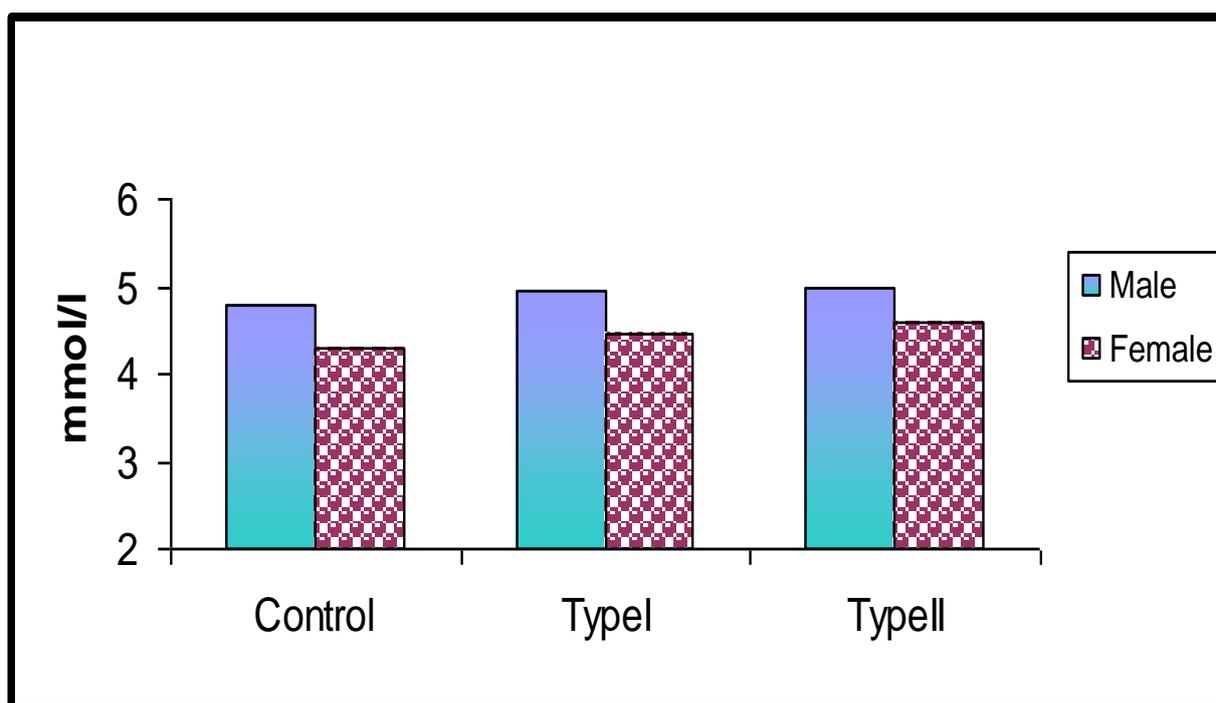
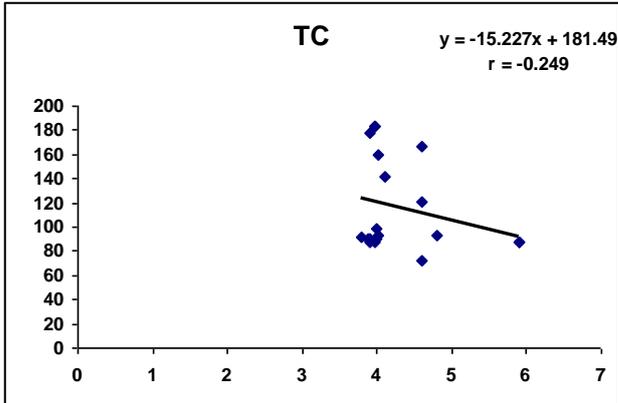
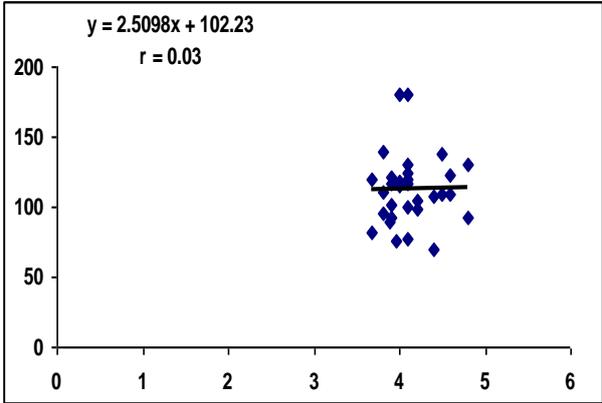


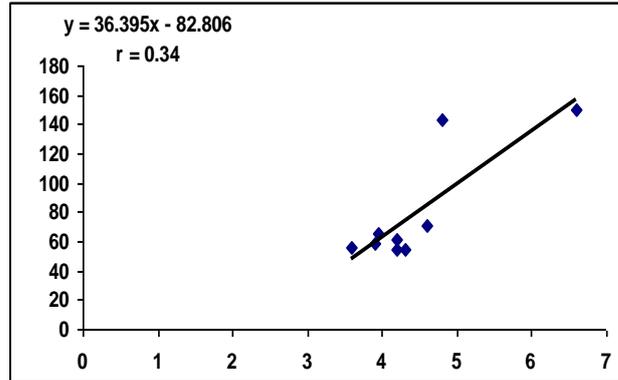
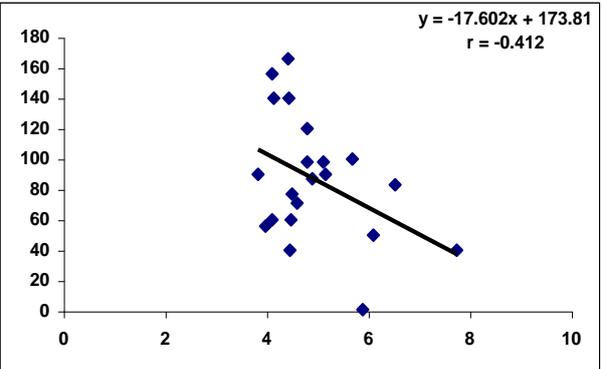
Fig (٣-٦) The levels of TC in sera of healthy controls and patients with diabetes mellitus

The different correlations between TC and CK activity in healthy controls and patients with diabetes mellitus are shown in Fig (٣-١٠)



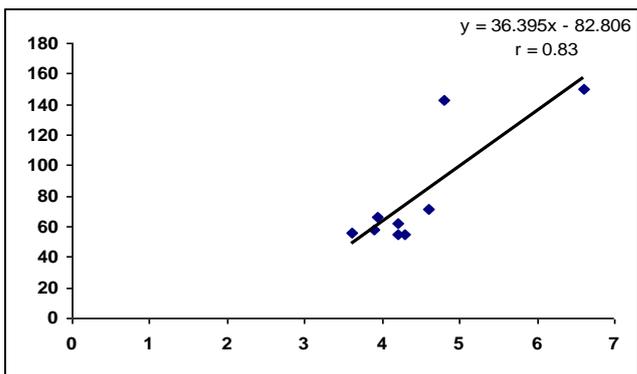
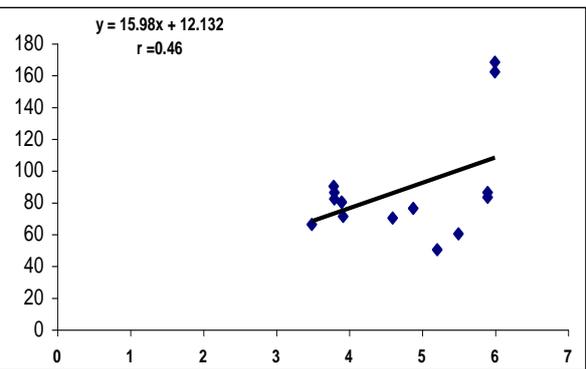
A

B



C

D



E

F

Fig (٣-١٠) The different correlations between TC and CK activity in healthy controls and patients with diabetes mellitus.

A (Control male), B (Control female), C (Type I male), D (Type I female), E (Type II male), F (Type II female)

(٣-٥) The Effect of Diabetes on Triglyceride

Compared with healthy controls, triglycerides levels were found to significantly increased in sera of patients with different types of DM, as in Fig (٣-١١) and Table (٣-٦).

Fig (٣-٦) :-The levels of TG. in healthy controls and patients with diabetes mellitus.

| | Sex | Mean | SD | TG | | SE | ٩٥% C.I | | P | Sign |
|---------|-----|------|-------|-------|-------|-------|---------|-------|-------|------|
| | | | | Upper | lower | | Upper | Lower | | |
| Control | M | ١.٤٥ | ٠.٢٧ | ٢ | ١.٢ | ٠.٠٥ | ١.٥٦ | ١.٤٢ | ٠.٠٠١ | Sign |
| | F | ١.٤٩ | ٠.٢٥١ | ٢ | ١.١٣ | ٠.٠٥٧ | ١.٦٢ | ١.٣٦ | ٠.٠٠١ | Sign |
| Type ١ | M | ١.٨٢ | ٠.٦ | ٢.٩١ | ١.٣ | ٠.١١ | ٢.٨٧ | ١.٥٢٢ | ٠.٠٠١ | Sign |
| | F | ١.٥٣ | ٠.٤ | ٢.٣ | ١.٢ | ٠.١٣٧ | ١.٨ | ١.١٨ | ٠.٠٠١ | Sign |
| Type ٢ | M | ٢.٠٤ | ٠.٩ | ٣١ | ١.١١ | ٠.٢٣ | ٢.٥٧ | ١.٥٠٩ | ٠.٠٠١ | Sign |
| | F | ١.٧٨ | ٠.٧٣ | ٢.٨ | ١.١ | ٠.٢٤ | ٢.٣ | ١.٢ | ٠.٠٠١ | sign |

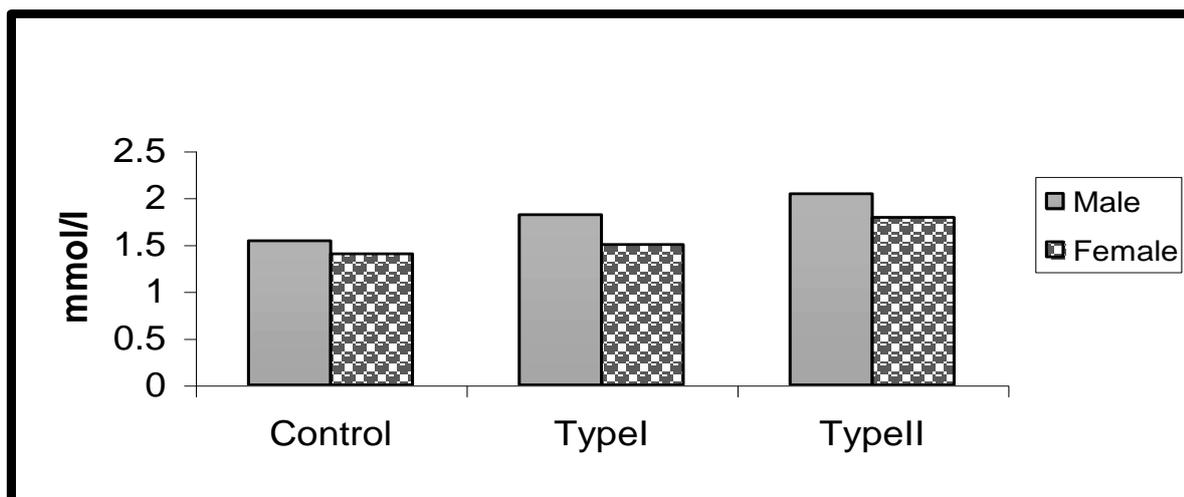
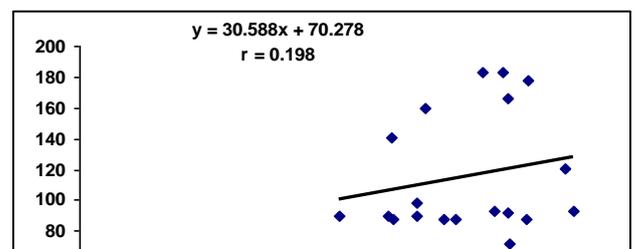
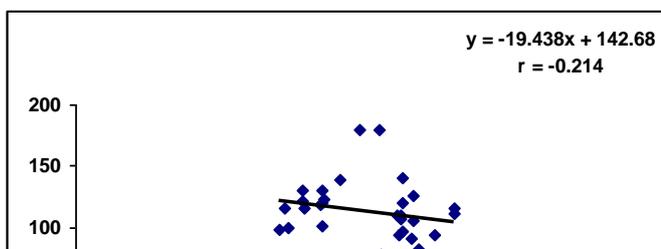


Fig (٣-١١) The levels of TG in sera of healthy controls and patients with diabetes mellitus

Hypertriglyceridemia is the most common lipid abnormality in DM. Insulin resistance and insulin deficiency may result because of change of lipoprotein lipase (LPL) activity. That may be due to increase hepatic production of triglycerides. Patients with well-controlled type II DM have normal TG levels. Hypertriglyceridemia in type II is usually associated with obesity. The mechanism for acute, transient hyperglycemia remains unclear^(٢٠٧). Miles *et al* Indicate that a radio-labeled lipid emulsion can be used effectively to investigate the systemic and regional trafficking of LPL-generated glycerol and fatty acid in humans'^(٢٠٩). The Different Correlations between CK Activity and Triglyceride in Healthy Controls and Patients with Diabetes Mellitus are shown in Fig (٣-١٢).



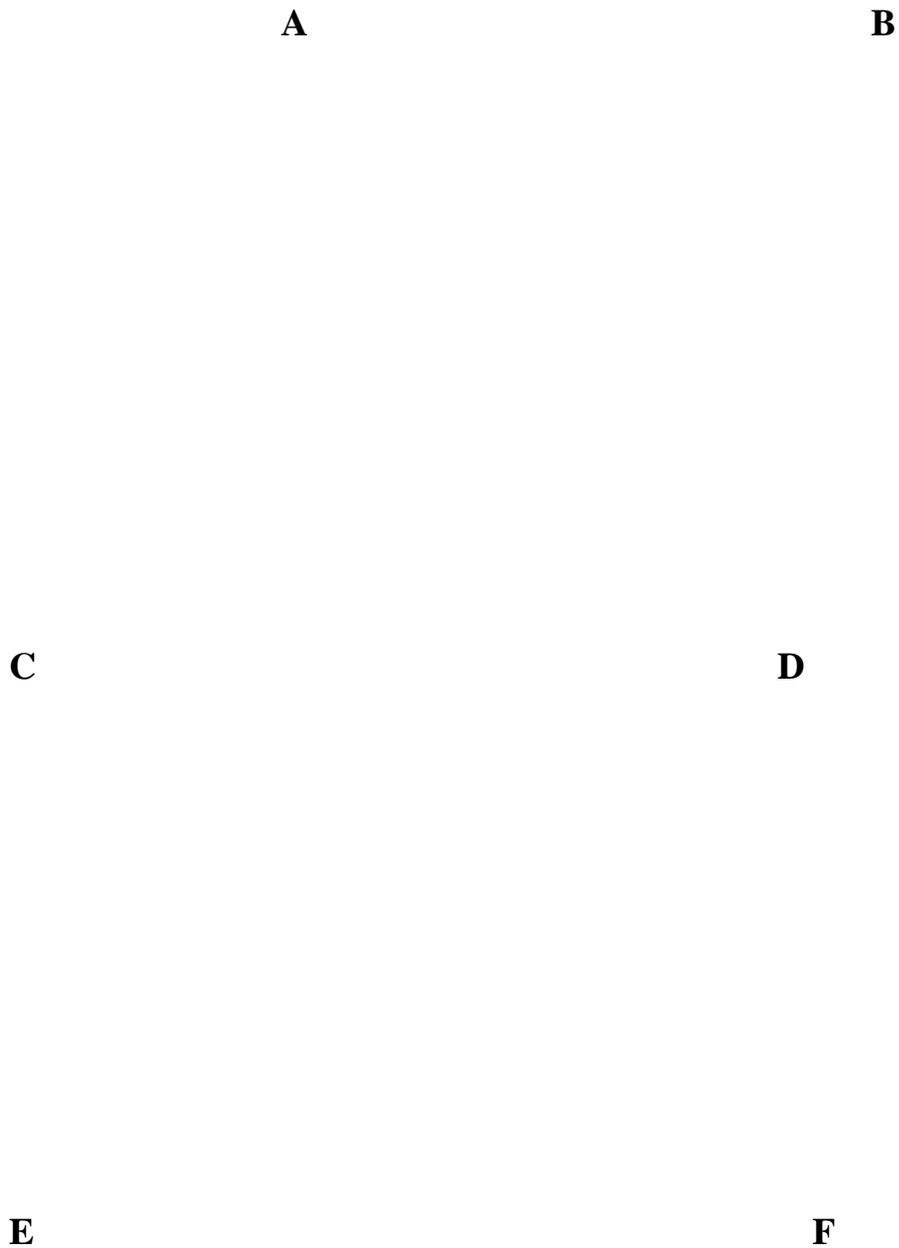
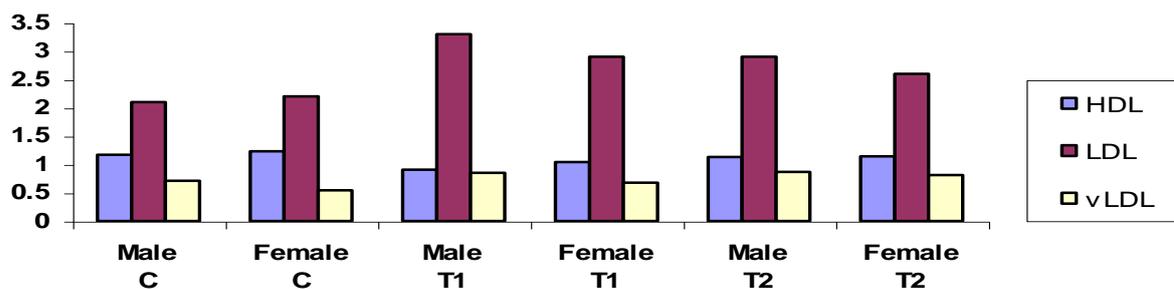


Fig (۳-۱۲) The different correlations between CK activity and triglyceride in healthy controls and patients with diabetes mellitus. A(Control male), B (Control female), C (Type I male), D (Type I female), E (Type II male), F (Type II female)

(۳-۶) The Effect of DM on Lipoproteins: -

The role of lipid abnormalities and the need for early detection of risk factors in insulin- resistance patients with or without diabetes is associated with cardiovascular disease^(۳۱). The typical dyslipoproteinemia of type ۲ diabetes is characterized by increased VLDL, small ((dense)) LDL particles^(۳۱). The most important factor in DM is the size of LDL particle. The percentage of patients having small LDL is increased by at least two folds in type II DM^(۳۱).

Compared with healthy controls, HDL levels were found to significantly decrease in sera of patients with different types of DM, where as LDL, and vLDL levels were found to significantly increase in sera of patients with different types of DM, as shown in Fig (۳-۱۳) and Table (۳-۷).



Fig(3-13) Lipo-protein Levels in Sera of Healthy Controls and Patients with Diabetes Mellitus

Table (٣-٧) Lipo-protein levels in sera of healthy controls and patients with diabetes mellitus.

| | | Sex | Mean mmol/l | SD | Upper | Lower | SE | ٩٥% I.C | | P | Sign |
|------|----------------|-----|-------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|---------|-------|-------|------|
| | | | | | | | | Upper | Lower | | |
| HDL | Control | M | ١.١٧ | ٠.٠٩٩ | ١.٣ | ٠.٩ | ٠.٠١٧ | ١.٢٠٨ | ١.١٣ | -- | -- |
| | | F | ١.٢٣٩ | ٠.١٥٩ | ١.٣٥ | ١.١١ | ٠.٠٩ | ١.٥٩ | ١.٣٩ | -- | -- |
| HDL | T _١ | M | ٠.٩٠٥ | ٠.١٩٧ | ١.٢ | ٠.٧ | ٠.٠٣٥ | ٠.٩٨ | ٠.٨٢ | ٠.٠٠١ | Sign |
| | | F | ١.٠٤ | ٠.١٢ | ١.٢ | ٠.٩٩٤ | ٠.٠٢١ | ١.٠٨٩ | ٠.٩٩٤ | ٠.٠٠١ | Sign |
| HDL | T _٢ | M | ١.١٣ | ٠.٢ | ١.٣٣ | ٠.٧٥ | ٠.٠٦ | ١.٢٨ | ٠.٩٥ | ٠.٠٠١ | Sign |
| | | F | ١.١٤٧ | ٠.٣٩ | ١.٤ | ٠.٨٩ | ٠.٠١٩ | ١.١٨٧ | ١.٠٤ | ٠.٠٠١ | Sign |
| LDL | C | M | ٢.١ | ٠.٣٦ | ٢.٦ | ١.٤ | ٠.٠٦ | ٢.٢٩ | ٢.٠٠ | -- | -- |
| | | F | ٢.٢ | ٠.٦ | ٢.٧ | ٢.٠ | ٠.١٤ | ٢.٧ | ٢.٠٠ | -- | -- |
| LDL | T _١ | M | ٣.٣ | ٠.٨ | ٣.٧ | ٢.٠٠ | ٠.١٥٣ | ٣.٩ | ٢.٩ | ٠.٠٠١ | Sign |
| | | F | ٢.٩ | ٠.٧ | ٣.٠ | ٢.٠ | ٠.٢٤ | ٣.٧ | ٢.٦ | ٠.٠٠١ | Sign |
| LDL | T _٢ | M | ٢.٩ | ٠.٨ | ٣.١ | ١.٩٧ | ٠.١٥ | ٣.٩ | ٣.٣ | ٠.٠٠١ | Sign |
| | | F | ٢.٦ | ١.٠ | ٢.٩ | ٢.٠٥ | ٠.٣ | ٣.٠٠ | ٢.١١ | ٠.٠٠١ | Sign |
| VLDL | C | M | ٠.٧٠٩ | ٠.٠٥ | ٠.٨ | ٠.٥٣ | ٠.٠١ | ٠.٧٦ | ٠.٦٣٦ | -- | -- |
| | | F | ٠.٥٤٥ | ٠.٠٤ | ٠.٦٥ | ٠.٣٨ | ٠.٠٧ | ٠.٦ | ٠.٤٩٧ | -- | -- |
| VLDL | T _١ | M | ٠.٨٥ | ٠.١٣ | ٠.٩٨ | ٠.٦٨ | ٠.٠٢ | ٠.٩٤ | ٠.٧٠٤ | ٠.٠٠١ | Sign |
| | | F | ٠.٦٨٨ | ٠.٠٧٦ | ٠.٩ | ٠.٥ | ٠.٠٢٥ | ٠.٨١٥ | ٠.٥٥٩ | ٠.٠٠١ | Sign |
| VLDL | T _٢ | M | ٠.٨٧٧ | ٠.١٥ | ١.١ | ٠.٥٥ | ٠.٠٣ | ٠.٩٨ | ٠.٦٨١ | ٠.٠٠١ | Sign |
| | | F | ٠.٨١ | ٠.١٤ | ١.٥١ | ٠.٥١ | ٠.٠٤٨ | ٠.٩٨ | ٠.٦٧ | ٠.٠٠١ | Sign |

Decreased HDL cholesterol levels are noticed in ٧٤.٦% of patients with type I diabetes and ٥٣% of patients with type II diabetes, especially in association with hypertriglyceridemia. Patients who used (Daonil) have (HDL) levels more than patients that used other drugs in NIDDM. Previous studies have shown that vLDL triglyceride is not an important source of plasma FFAs. Wolf *et al* administered biosynthetic labeled vLDL to dogs and found that >٩٥% of vLDL-triglyceride fatty acids were taken up directly into tissues without traversing the plasma FFA pool. On the other hand, glycerol produced from VLDL by the action of LPL was released into the circulation^(٢١٣),

determine lipoprotein subclass distribution by using nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) spectroscopy. They found that NIDDM increased the large VLDL particle concentration, decreased in LDL size and decreased HDL size as a result of depletion of HDL particles. Most studies have concluded that oxidized low-density lipoprotein is responsible for atherosclerosis^(٢١٤). The macrophage engulfed oxidized LDL form foam cell. The accumulation of foam cells in sub endothelial space is due to endothelial cell injury and thereby the atherosclerotic was initiated^(٢١٥,٢١٦). LDL can be oxidized either in presence of transition metals, or in metal independent system.

The different correlations between lipo-protein and CK activity in control, type I and type II is shown in Fig (٣-١٤).

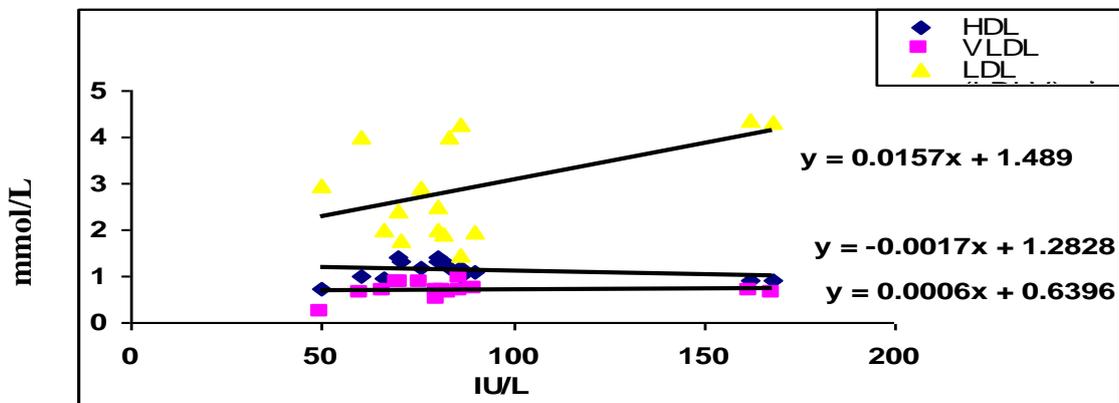
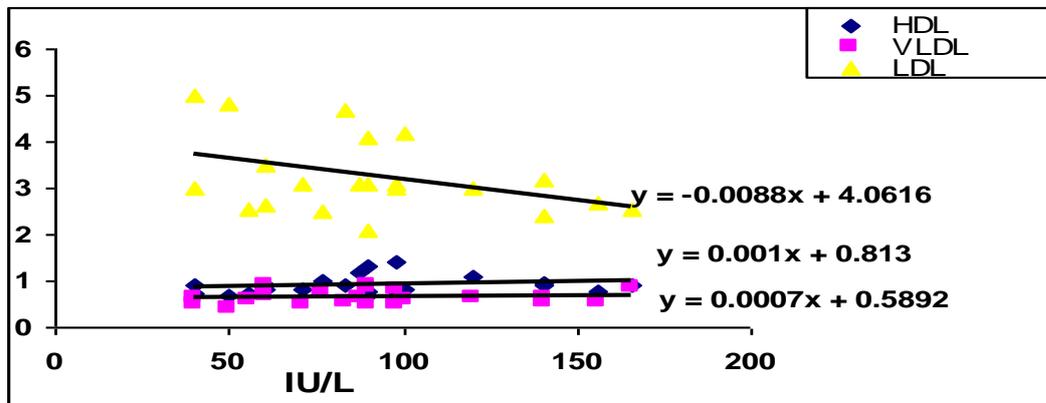
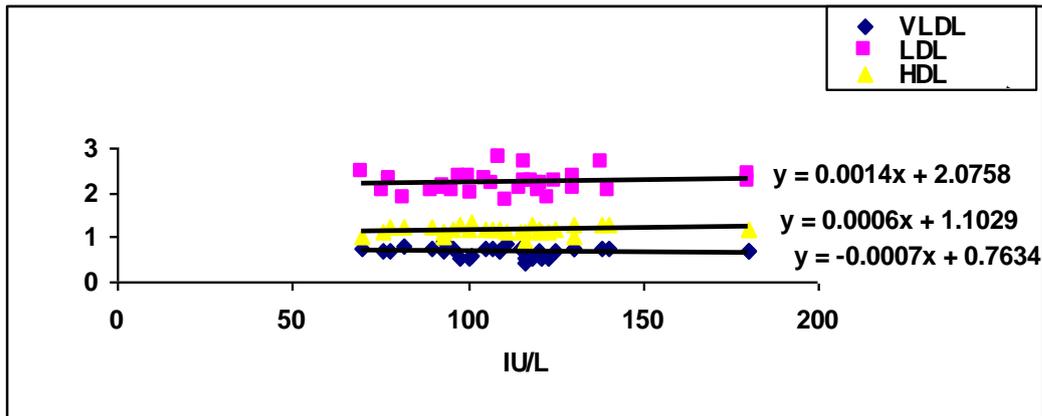


Fig (3-14) The different correlations between lipo-protein and CK activity in control, Type I and type II. A (Control), B (Type I), C (Type II).

(3-7) Lipid Peroxidation

To estimate lipid peroxidation process, must be determining the product “Malondialdehyde”⁽³¹⁷⁾ as in fig (3-13).

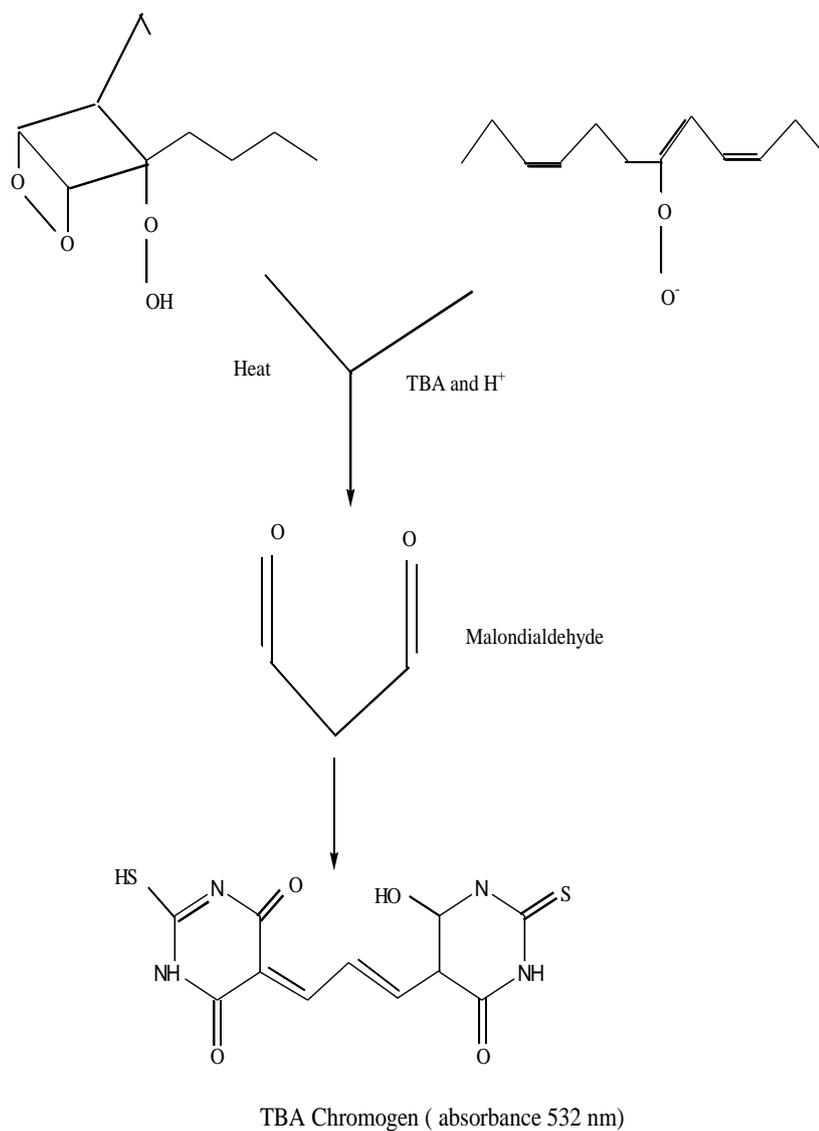


Fig (3-13) Schematic diagram showing the principle of reaction for estimate Lipid peroxidation .

Table (٣-٨) The levels of MDA in healthy controls and patients with diabetes mellitus.

| | Sex | Mean | SD | MDA($\mu\text{mol/l}$) | | SE | 95% I.C | | P | Sign |
|---------|-----|------|-------|--------------------------|-------|--------|---------|-------|-------|------|
| | | | | Upper | lower | | Upper | Lower | | |
| Control | M | ١.٠٨ | ٠.٣٢ | ١.٦ | ٠.٩ | ٠.٠٥ | ١.١٩ | ٠.٩٥ | -- | -- |
| | F | ٠.٩٣ | ٠.٢٦٦ | ١ | ٠.٦ | ٠.٠٦ | ١.٠٦ | ٠.٨٠١ | -- | -- |
| Type ١ | M | ١.٩٨ | ٠.٣٣ | ٢.٥ | ١.٦ | ٠.٥٩ | ٢.١١ | ١.٦٥ | ٠.٠٠١ | Sign |
| | F | ١.٩٤ | ٠.٣٤ | ٢.٣ | ١.٧ | ٠.١١٦٢ | ٢.٢ | ١.٦٨ | ٠.٠٠١ | Sign |
| Type ٢ | M | ١.٩٥ | ٠.١٦٨ | ٢.٢ | ١.٧ | ٠.٠٤ | ٢.٠٥ | ١.٨٥ | ٠.٠٠١ | Sign |
| | F | ١.٨٥ | ٠.٣٢ | ٢.٣ | ١.١ | ٠.١٠٧ | ٢.٠٩ | ١.٦٠٧ | ٠.٠٠١ | sign |

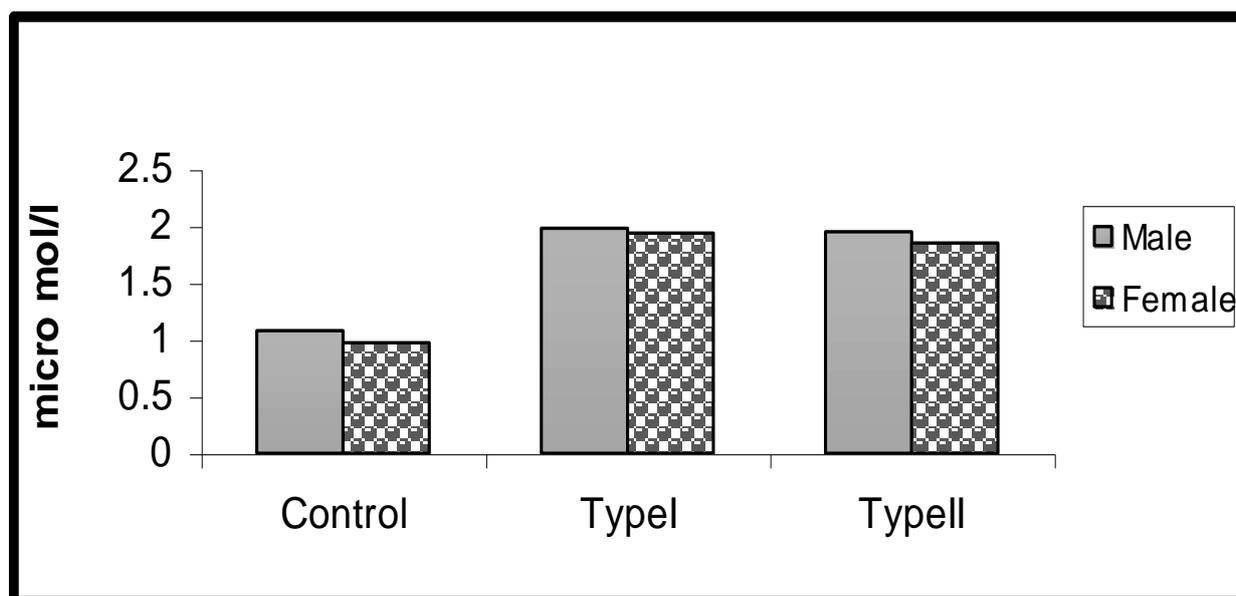


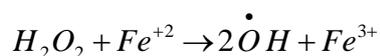
Fig (٣-١٦) The levels of MDA in sera of healthy controls and patients with diabetes mellitus

A higher level of malondialdehyde occurs because of the depletion of several forms of scavengers^(218,219).

Lipid peroxidation is formed via mechanism composed from three steps (1) The first, initiation step is triggered by a reactive species as initiator by abstracting hydrogen and forming lipid alkyl radical.(2) The second step is the propagation step by rapidly oxygen molecule and forming lipid peroxy radical(3) The third is the termination step which includes forming lipid hydroperoxide by abstracting hydrogen from a neighboring allylic bond.

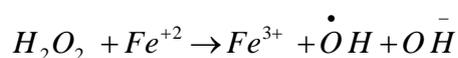
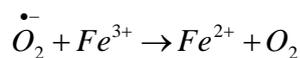
The significant increase of lipid peroxidation in DM is associated with the increase of free radicals and the decrease of antioxidants. Free radicals are attached with lipid due to tissue damage⁽¹³⁰⁾.

$\dot{O}H$ Radical is generated according to the fenton reaction in which hydrogen peroxide reacts with metal such as Fe^{2+} or Cu^{2+} (131).



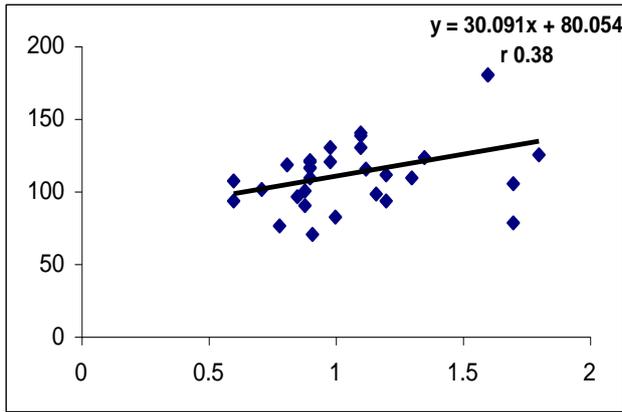
Fenton Reaction

$\dot{O}H$ radicals generated according to the Haber Weiss reaction. This reaction involved reduction of Fe^{3+} to Fe^{2+} by super oxide anion. The resultant Fe^{2+} contributes in the generation of $\dot{O}H$ as in fenton reaction.

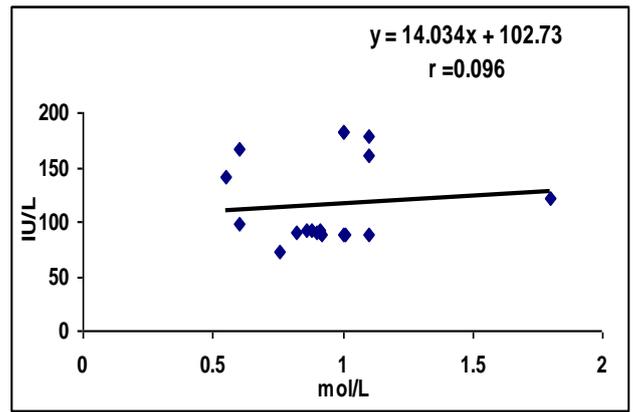


Haber Weiss reaction.

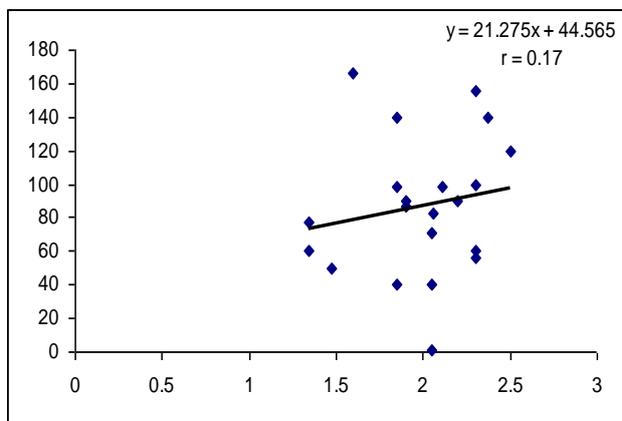
The Different Correlations between MDA Levels and CK Activity are shown in Fig (3-14)



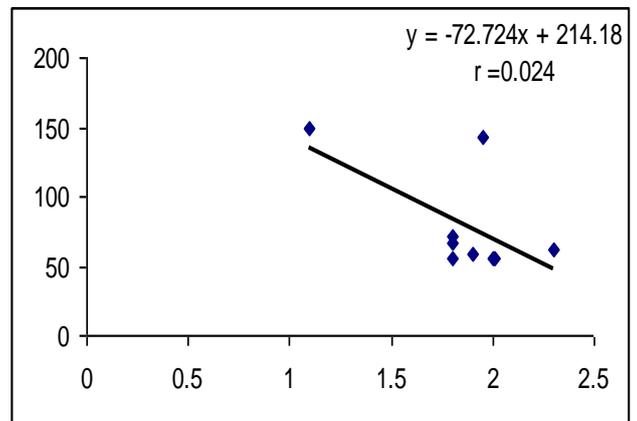
A



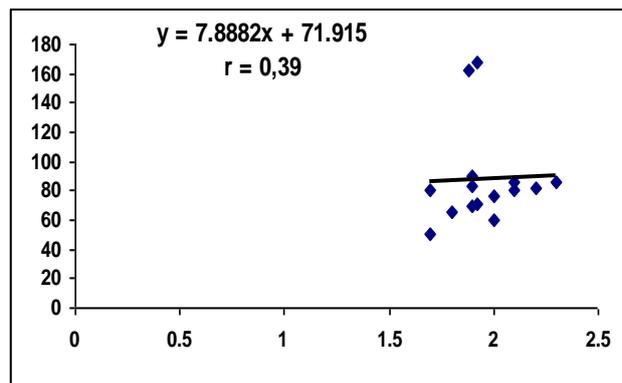
B



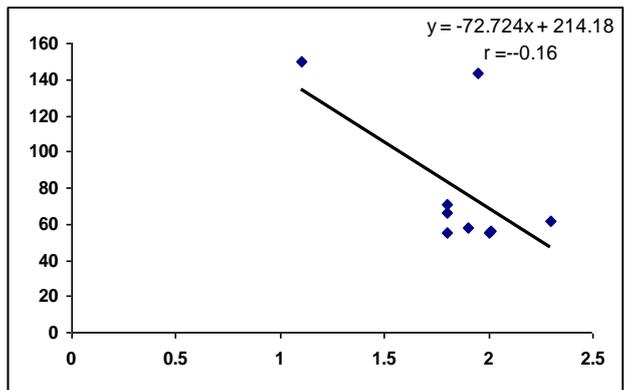
C



D



E



F

Fig (3-14) The different correlations between MDA levels and CK activity. **A)** Control male), **B)** Control female), **C)** (Type one male), **D)** (Type one female), **E)** (Type two male), **F)** (Type two female).

(3-14) Conclusions: -

- ၁- Diabetes mellitus decreases creatine kinase activity.
- ၂- Diabetes Mellitus is more effective on MM-CK and MB-CK than BB-CK.
- ၃- Glutathione and U.A levels are significantly decreased in sera of patients with different types of DM.
- ၄- A significant increase in serum total cholesterol and triglyceride levels was observed in-patients when compared with healthy controls.
- ၅- Diabetes decreases HDL levels and increases LDL and VLDL.
- ၆- Daonil increases HDL in-patients with type two-DM.
- ၇- Serum MDA concentrations show increase in patients with DM.

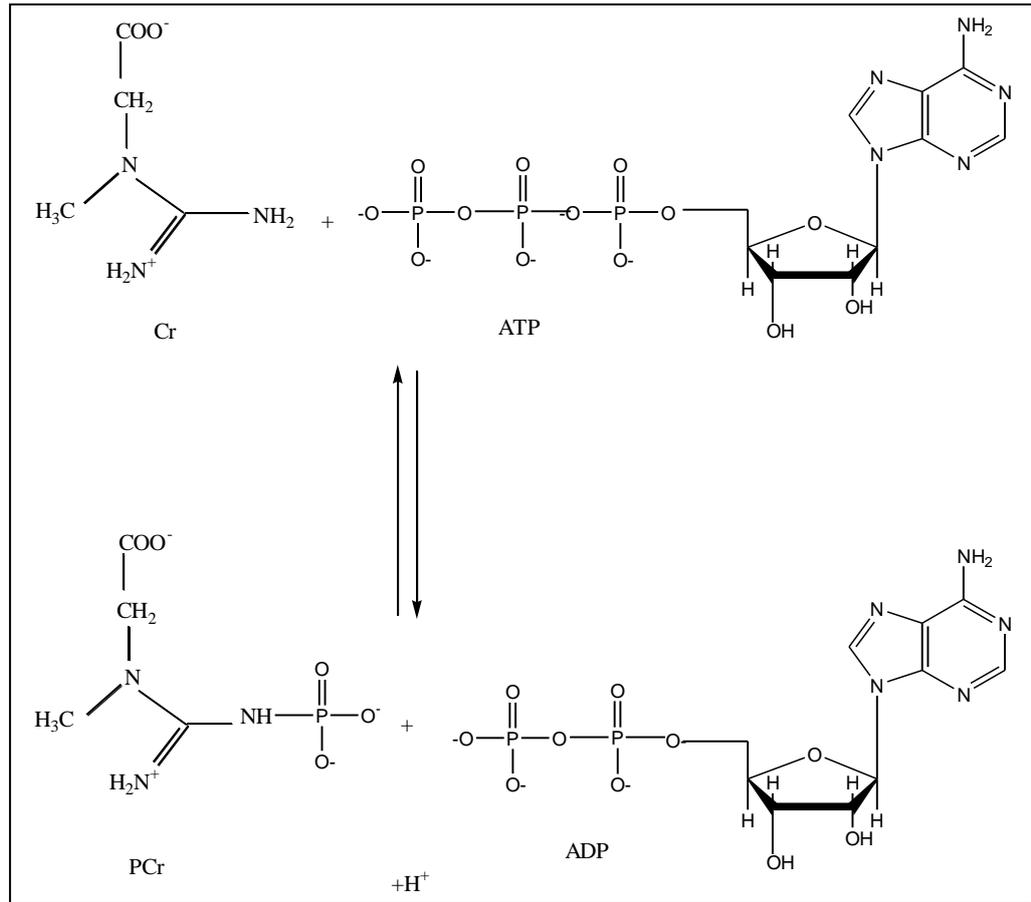
(၃-၄) Recommendations:

- ၁- Study of the activity of CK in other types of diseases such as cancer and cardiovascular disease.
- ၂- Study of the effect of drugs used with DM on the levels of different kinds of antioxidants and isoenzyme of CK.
- ၃- Study of the effect of drugs that used to increase CK on the different tissues of patients with DM.
- ၄- Study of the relations between CK activity and transition elements such as Zn and Fe in-patients with different types of DM.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

| | |
|-----------------------------------|--|
| AA | ASCORBIC ACID |
| AMP | Adenosine mono phosphate |
| AGEs | Advanced glycosylated end products |
| apo | Apo lipo-protein |
| ATP | Adenosine triphosphat |
| B-Ck | Cytosolic Brain-type Ck isoenzyme |
| CK | Creatine kinase |
| CAT | Catalase |
| Cr | Creatine |
| Crn | Creatinine |
| Cys | Cystein |
| DHA | Dehydroascorbic acid |
| DTNB | -',°Dithio Bis(γ-Nitrobenzoic acid |
| (GDM) | Gestational Diabetes Mellitus |
| DTT | Dithiothretol |
| GMP | Guanosine mono phosphate |
| GSH | Reduced glutathione |
| GSSG | Oxidized glutathione |
| GS· | Glutathyl radical |
| GS⁻ | Glutathione anion |
| HDL | High density lipoprotein |
| HO· | Hydroxyl radical |
| H^γO^γ | Hydrogen peroxide |
| IMP | Inosine mono phosphate |
| IDDM | Insulin-dependant diabetes mellitus |
| L· | Lipid alkyl radical |
| LDL | Low density lipoprotein |
| LO· | Lipid alkoxy radical |
| LOOH | Lipid hydroperoxid |
| M-Ck | Cytosolic muscle– type Ck isoenzyme |
| MDA | Malondialehyde |
| Mi-Ck | Mitochondrial Ck isoenzyme |
| NADPH | Nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide |
| NIDDM | NonInsulin-dependant diabetes mellitus |
| O₂^{-·} | Superoxide anion |

| | |
|------------------------|--|
| PI | Inorganic phosphate group |
| PGG_γ | Prostaglandin G _γ |
| PUFA | Ploy unsaturated fatty acid |
| RNA | Ribonucleic acid |
| RNS | Reactive Nitrogen Species |
| R. \.P | Ribose – \-phosphate |
| ROS | Reactive oxygen Species |
| SOD | Superoxide Dismutase |
| ROOH | Alkyl hydroperoxid |
| TBA | Thiobarbituric acid |
| TBARS | Thiobarbituric acid reactive substance |
| Tris | Tris (Hydroxymethylene)Aminomethane |
| UA | Uric acid |
| VLDL | Very Low density lipoprotein |
| XMP | Xanthosine mono phosphate |



LIST OF FIGURES

| Figure No. | Title of Figure | Page No. |
|-------------------|--|-----------------|
| ۱-۱ | The Relation Between Free Radicals and Antioxidants | ۳ |
| ۱-۲ | Glutathione and Glutathione Enzymes | ۶ |
| ۱-۳ | The Process of Autoxidation of Monosaccharide | ۸ |
| ۱-۴ | Glycation Process and Subsequent Degradation of Glycation Products | ۹ |
| ۱-۵ | Possible Links Between Hyperglycemia Induced Oxidative Stress and Diabetic Complications | ۱۰ |
| ۱-۶ | Degradation of Amadari Product and H₂O₂ Formation | ۱۱ |
| ۱-۷ | The Contribution of Glucose Autoxidation and Hydroxyl Radical Production to Glucose Induced Damage | ۱۲ |
| ۱-۸ | The Polyol Pathway | ۱۳ |
| ۱-۹ | Major Routes of Cr. Metabolism in Mammalians Body | ۱۷ |
| ۱-۱۰ | Model for the Possible Regulation of CK Activity and Transport of (high- energy) Compounds. | ۱۹ |
| ۱-۱۱ | Location of mutated Residues in CK Structure | ۲۱ |
| ۱-۱۲ | GSH Transport and Metabolism | ۲۴ |
| ۱-۱۳ | Synthesis and Consumption of Uric Acid | ۲۸ |
| ۱-۱۴ | Peroxinirate Synthesis | ۳۰ |
| ۱-۱۵ | Detection of Uric Acid | ۳۱ |
| ۱-۱۶ | Membrane Lipid Peroxidation | ۳۶ |
| ۱-۱۷ | Chain Reaction of Vit E and Vit C with peroxy Radical | ۴۰ |
| ۲-۱ | Reaction between GSH and DTNB | ۵۱ |
| ۲-۲ | Calibration Curve of GSH | ۵۳ |
| ۳-۱ | The Level of CK Activity in Sera of Patients and Healthy Controls | ۶۴ |
| ۳-۲ | The Levels of CK Isoenzyme in Sera of Controls and Patient with Diabetes Mellitus type I and type II. | ۶۷ |

| Figure No. | Title of Figure | Page No. |
|-------------------|--|-----------------|
| ۳-۳ | The levels of GSH in Sera of Patients with Diabetes Mellitus type I and type II. and Healthy Controls | ۶۹ |
| ۳-۴ | The Different Correlation between CK activity and Glutathione | ۷۱ |
| ۳-۵ | The Levels of U.A in Sera of Healthy Controls and Patients with Diabetes Mellitus type I and type II. | ۷۳ |
| ۳-۶ | Proposed Structure of Nitrated Uric Acid Product | ۷۴ |
| ۳-۷ | Nitrosative Stress and Hyperfiltration | ۷۵ |
| ۳-۸ | The Different Correlation between CK Activity and U.A | ۷۶ |
| ۳-۹ | The Levels of T.C in Sera of Healthy Controls and Patients with Diabetes Mellitus type I and type II. | ۷۸ |
| ۳-۱۰ | The Different Correlation between CK Activity and T.C. | ۷۹ |
| ۳-۱۱ | The levels of T.G in Sera of Healthy Controls and Patients with Diabetes Mellitus type I and type II. | ۸۰ |
| ۳-۱۲ | The Different Correlation between CK Activity and T.G in Sera of Healthy Controls and Patients with Diabetes Mellitus | ۸۲ |

| Figure No. | Title of Figure | Page No. |
|-------------------|---|-----------------|
| ٣-١٣ | The Levels of Lipoprotein in Sera of Healthy Controls and Patients with Diabetes Mellitus. | ٨٤ |
| ٣-١٤ | The Different Correlation between Lipo-protein and CK Activity in Healthy Control and Patients with Diabetes type I and type II. | ٨٦ |
| ٣-١٥ | Lipid Peroxidation | ٨٧ |
| ٣-١٦ | The Levels of MDA in Sera of Healthy Controls and Patients with Diabetes Mellitus | ٨٨ |
| ٣-١٧ | The Different Correlation between MDA Levels and CK Activity. | ٩٠ |

References

- 1- Reese S. J., **Thesis M Sc**, East Tennessee State University, USA, 2003.
- 2- Thompson K. H., Godin D. B., **Nutrition Research.**, 1990; 16: 1377.
- 3- Eisenbarth G. S., **N. Engl. J. Med.**, 1986; 314: 1360.
- 4- De Fronzo R. A., **Diabetes**, 1988; 37: 767.
- 5- National Diabetes Data group, **Diabetes**, 1979; 28: 1039.
- 6- Sullivan J. B., Mahan C. M., **Diabetes**, 1974; 13: 278.
- 7- Burtis C. A., Ashwood E. R., **Tietz Text book of clinical chemistry**, 3rd ed., Philadelphia, W. B. Saunders Co., 1999.
- 8- Bulky G. B., **Lancet**, 1994; 344: 934.
- 9- Sohal R. S., Weindruch, **Science**, 1996; 273, 09.
- 10- Wis men H., Halliwell B., **Biochem. J.**, 1996; 313: 181.
- 11- Dean R. T., Shanlin F. U., Davies M. J., **Biochem. J.**, 1997; 324: 1.
- 12- Bagchi K., S., **Eastern Mediterrancean Health J.**, 1998; 4(2): 303.
- 13- Halli well B., Gutteridge J. M., **Arch. Biochem. Biophys.**, 1990; 280: 1.
- 14- Wess S. G., **N. Engl. J. Med.**, 1989; 320: 360.
- 15- The Poster of total antioxidant Kit, Randox company.
- 16- Von Sontag C., **The chemical basis of radiation biology**, London, Tylov and Francis, 1987.
- 17- Beckman J. S., Beckman T. W., **Chem J., Proc. Nati. Acad. Sci. USA**; 1990; 87: 1620.
- 18- Radi R., Beckman J. S., Bush K. M., **J. Biol. Chem**, 1990; 266: 4244.
- 19- Hyslop P. A., Hinshaw D. B., Halsey W. A., **J. Biol. Chem.**, 1988; 263: 1660.
- 20- Aruma I., Halliwell B., Laughton M. J., **Biochem J.**, 1989; 258: 717.
- 21- Kaimal N. G., **Thesis**, Indian Medical Association, India, 2001.
- 22- Bolzan A. D., Bianchi M. S., Bianchi M. O., **Clinical Biochem.**, 1997; 30: 449.

-
- ٢٣- Erenel G., Erbas D., Aricoglu A., **Materia Medica Polona Faci**, ١٩٩٣; ٨٥: ٣٧.
- ٢٤- The DCCT Research group, **N. Engl. J. Med.**, ١٩٩٣; ٣٢٩: ٩٧٧.
- ٢٥- Baynes J. W., Thorp S. W., **Diabetes**, ١٩٩٩; ٤٨, ١.
- ٢٦- Brownlee M., **Ann. Rev. Med.**, ١٩٩٦; ٤٦: ٢٢٣.
- ٢٧- Vlassara H., **Diabetes**, ١٩٩٧; ٤٦(٢): S ١٩.
- ٢٨- Baynes J. W., **Diabetes**, ١٩٩١; ٤٠: ٤٠٥.
- ٢٩- Giugliano D., Ceriello A., Parolisso G., **Diabetes Care**, ١٩٩٦; ١٩: ٢٥٧.
- ٣٠- Vandam P. S., Van Asbeck B. S., Erkelens B. W., **Diabetes Metab. Rev.**, ١٩٩٥; ١١: ١٨١.
- ٣١- Williamson J. R., Chang K., Hasan K. S., **Diabetes**, ١٩٩٣; ٤٢: ٨٠١.
- ٣٢- Lyons T. J., Jenkins A. J., **Diabetes Rev.**, ١٩٩٧; ٥: ٣٦٥.
- ٣٣- Ishii H., Daisuke K., King G. L., **J. Mol. Med.**, ١٩٩٨; ٧٦: ٢١.
- ٣٤- Hunt J. U., Smith C. C., Wolf S. P., **Diabetes**, ١٩٩٠, ٣٩: ١٤٢٠.
- ٣٥- Hunt J. U., Dean R. T., Wolff S. P., **Biochem. J.**, ١٩٨٨; ٢٥٦: ٢٠٥.
- ٣٦- Wolff S. P., Jiang Z. Y., Hunt J. U., **Free Radical Biology and Medicine**, ١٩٩١; ١٠: ٣٣٩.
- ٣٧- Ceriello A., Morocutti A., Mereuri F., **Diabetes**, ٢٠٠٠, ٤٩: ٢١٧٠.
- ٣٨- Lee Y. W., Chung S. M., **FASEB J.**, ١٩٩٩, ١٣: ٢٣.
- ٣٩- Baker J., Metcalf J., **Clin. Chem.**, ١٩٨٦; ٣٢: ٢١٣٣.
- ٤٠- Elgawish A., Glomb M., Friendlander M., and Monnier V. M., **J. Biol. Chem.**, ٢٧١: ١٢٩٦٤.
- ٤١- Taniguchi N., Kanito H., Asahi M., Wenyi C., and Suzuki K., **Diabetes**, ١٩٩٦; ٤٥: S ٨١.
- ٤٢- Wolff S. P., Dean R. T., **Biochem. J.**, ١٩٨٧; ٢٤٥: ٢٤٣.
- ٤٣- Baynes J. W., **Diabetes**, ١٩٩١; ٤٠: ٤٠٥.
- ٤٤- Cameron N. E., Cotter M. A., **J. Clin. Invest.**, ١٩٩٥; ٩٦: ١١٥٩.
- ٤٥- Waker T., Jahr H., and Weinand S., **Exp. Clin. Endocrinol.**, ١٩٩٥; ١٠٣(٢): ١٣٣.

-
- ୧୬- Turk J., Corbett J. A., Ramanadham S., Bohrer A., and Mac Daeil M. L., **Biochem. Biophys. Res. Commun.**, 1993; 1408.
- ୧୭- Obberley L. W., **Free radic. Bio. Med.**, 1989; 0: 113.
- ୧୮- Burkart V., Gro- Eick A., Bellmann K., Radons J., and Kolb H., **FEBES Lett**, 1990; 364: 209.
- ୧9- Cooke A., **Curr. Top. Microbiol. Immunol**, 1990; 164: 120.
- ୨୦- Colman P. G., Wang L. I., Lafferty K. J., **Molecular and cellular Biology**, New York, Alan R. Liss Inc., 1989; PP: 120-137.
- ୨୧- Nomikos I. N., Prows S. J., Carotenuto P., and Lafferty K. J., **Diabetes Diabetes**; 36: 1302.
- ୨୨- Gerbitz K. D., **Diabetologia**, 1992; 35: 1181.
- ୨୩- Leahy J. L., Weir G. C., **Current Concepts of Pathogenesis**, New York, Alan R. Liss Inc., 1989, PP: 149- 108.
- ୨୪- Moham I. K., Das U. N., **Med. Sci, Res.**, 1997; 25: 00.
- ୨୫- Forstener M., Kriechbaum M., Laggner P., and Wllimann T., **Biophysical J.**, 1998; 75: 1016.
- ୨୬- Kufen P., Ruck A., Brdiczka D., Wendt S., Wallimann T., and Stark G., **Biochem. J.**, 1999; 344: 413.
- ୨୭- A. Fs and R. MA, **J. Appl Physiol**, 1986; 61: 482.
- ୨୮- Wallimann T., Wyss M., Brdiczka D., Nicolay K., and Eppenberger H., **Bio chem. J.**, 1992; 281: 21.
- ୨9- Wyss M., Seitink J., Werers R., and Wlliman T., **Biochem. Biophys. Acta.**, 1992; 1102: 119.
- ୩୦- Brooks P. J., Suelter C. H., **Arch. Biochem. Biophys.**, 1987; 257: 144.
- ୩୧- Schlegal J., Wyss M., Eppenberger H., and Wallimann T., **J. Biol. Chem.**, 1990; 265: 9221.
- ୩୨- Fritz- Wolf K., Schny der T., Wallimann T., and Kapsch W., **Nature**, 1996; 381: 341.

- ٦٣- Rojo M., Huvios R., Demel R. A., Nicoloy K., and Willmann T., **J. Biol. Chem.**, ١٩٩١; ٢٦٦: ٢٠٢٩٠.
- ٦٤- Stachowalk O., Dolder M., and Walliman T., **Biochemistry**, ١٩٩٦; ٣٥: ١٠٠٢٢.
- ٦٥- Kottke M., Adams V., Wallimann T., Nalam V. K., and Brdiczka D., **Biochem. Biophys. Acta.**, ١٩٩١; ١٠٦١: ٢١٥.
- ٦٦- Constantin-Teodosiu D, GreenhaffR PL, Gardiner SM, RadallMD, JE, AND Bennett T. . **Br J Pharmacol** ١٩٩٥.١١٦: ٣٢٨٨
- ٦٧- Saks VA.,**AmJ..Phys.**, ١٩٩١,٢٦١:٣٠.
- ٦٨- Kushmeric MJ. **Comp Biochem Physiol B Biochem** ١٢٠: ١٠٩. ١٩٩٨.
- ٦٩- Saks V.A., **Mol Cell Biochem.**, ١٩٩٨,٢٧٠:١٦٠.
- ٧٠- Rao J. K., Bujacz G.,and Wlodawer A., **FEBS Lett**, ١٩٩٨; ٤٣٩:١٣٣.
- ٧١- Eder M., Fritz- Wolf K., Kabsch W., Walliman T., and Schlattner U., **Proteins**, ١٩٩٩; ٣٩: ٢١٦.
- ٧٢- Kenyon G. L., Reed G/ H., **Adv. Enzymol.**, ١٩٨٣; ٥٤: ٣٦٧.
- ٧٣- Milner- White E., and Watts D. C., **Biochem. J.**, ١٩٧١; ١٢٢: ٧٢٧.
- ٧٤- Hansen D. E., Knowles J. R., **J. Biochem**, ١٩٨١; ٢٥٦: ٥٩٦٧.
- ٧٥- Morrison J. F., Cleland W. W., **J. Biol. Chem.**, ١٩٦٦; ٢٤١: ٦٧٣.
- ٧٦- Schimelik M., Cleland W. W., **J. Biol- Chem.**, ١٩٧٣; ٢٤٨: ٨٤١٨.
- ٧٧- Furter R., Furter- Gravis E. M., and Willmann T., **Biochemistry**, ١٩٩٣; ٣٢: ٧٠٢٢.
- ٧٨- Gross M., Furter- Graves E. M., Wallimann T., Eppenberger H. M., and furter R., **Prot. Sci**, ١٩٩٤; ٣: ١٠٥٨.
- ٧٩- Eder M., Stolz M., Wallimann T., and Schlattner U., **J. Biol. Chem**, ٢٠٠٠; ٢٧٥(٣٥): ٢٧٠٩٤.
- ٨٠- Banerjee A., Grosso M. A., Brown J. M., Rogers K. B., and Whitman G. J. R., **Am. J. Physiol.**, ١٩٩١,٢٦١,H ٥٩٠.
- ٨١- Dykens J. A., Wisemen R. W., and Hardin C. D., **J. Comp. Physiol. B. Biochem. Syst. Environ. Physiol.**, ١٩٩٦, ١٦٦: ٣٥٩.
- ٨٢- Hayashi H., Iimuro M., Matsumoto Y., and Kaneko M., **Eur. J. Pharmacol**, ١٩٩٨; ٣٤٩: ١٣٣.
- ٨٣- Mccord J. M., and turrens J. F., **Curr. Top. Bioenerg.**, ١٩٩٤; ١٧: ١٧٣.

-
- ٨٤- Wyss M., and Kaddurch- Daouk, **Physiol. Rev.**, ٢٠٠٠; ٨٠(٣): ١١٠٧.
- ٨٥- Ko- rege P., and Compbell K. B., **J. Moll. Cell. Cardiol.**, ١٩٩٤; ٢٦: ١٥١.
- ٨٦- Thomas C., Carr A. C., and Witerbourn C. C., **Free Radical Res.**, ١٩٩٤; ٢١: ٣٨٧.
- ٨٧- Miura T., Muraoka S., and Ogiso T., **Biol. Pharm. Bull.**, ١٧: ١٢٢٠.
- ٨٨- Korege P., and Campbell K. B., **Arch. Biochem. Biophys.**, ١٩٩٣; ٣٠٤: ٤٢٠.
- ٨٩- Arstall M. A., Bailey C., Gross W. L., Bak M., Balligand J-L, and Kelly R. A., **J. Moll. Cell. Cardiol.**, ١٩٩٨; ٣٠: ٩٧٩.
- ٩٠- Gross W. L., Bak M. I., Ingwall J. S., Arstall M. A. Smith T. W., Balligand J-L., and Kelly R. A., **Proc. Nati. Acad. Sci.**, ١٩٩٦; ٩٣: ٥٦٠٤.
- ٩١- Jain S. K., **J. Biol. Chem.**, ١٩٨٩, ٢٦٤: ٢١٣٤٠.
- ٩٢- Ueno Y., Kizaki M., Nakagiri R., Kamiaya T., Sumi H., and Osawa T., **J. Nutr.**, ٢٠٠٢; ١٣٢: ٨٩٧.
- ٩٣- Lomaestro B. M., Malon M., **Ann. Pharmacother**, ١٩٩٥; ٢٩: ١٢٦٣.
- ٩٤- Meister A., **Meth. Enzymol.**, ١٩٩٥; ٢٥١: ٣.
- ٩٥- Sen C. K., **FASEB J.**, ١٩٩٦; ١٠: ٧٠٩.
- ٩٦- Benesch R. E., Benesch R., **J. Am. Chem., Soc.**, ١٩٥٥; ٧٧: ٥٨٧٧.
- ٩٧- Jung G., Breitmair E., Voel ter W., **Eur. J. Biochem.**, ١٩٧٢; ٢٤: ٤٣٨.
- ٩٨- Maiorino M., Gregolin C., Ursini G., **Meth. Enzymol.**, ١٩٩٠; ١٨٦: ٤٤٨.
- ٩٩- Waring W. S., Convery A., Mishra V., Shenkin A., Webb D. J., and Maxwell S. R. J., **Clinical Science**, ٢٠٠٣; ١٠٥: ٤٢٥.
- ١٠٠- Simic M. G., Jovanovic S. V., **J. Am. Chem. Soc.**, ١٩٨٩; ١١١(١٥).
- ١٠١- Donald V., Judith V., Charlotte P. W., **Fundamentals of biochemistry**, New York, ٢٠٠٢.
- ١٠٢- Santos X. C., Anjos E. I., Augusto O., **Arch. Biochem. Biophys.**, ١٩٩٩; ٣٧٢: ٢٨٥.
- ١٠٣- Zilva J., Pannal P. R., **Clinical Chemistry in dignosis and treatment**, ٤th edition , LLOYO- LUKE (Medical Book) LTD, ٤٩ New man Street, London, ١٩٨٤: ٢٢٢.
- ١٠٤- Marshall W., **Illusted text book of clinical chemistry**, New York, ١٩٩٢: ١٧٣.
- ١٠٥- Al-Sultani H.A., **Thesis MSC, Bablon university, Iraq**, ٢٠٠٢.

-
- 106- Simonen P. P., Gylling H., Miettinen T. A., **Diabetes Care**, 2002; 25: 1011.
- 107- Crook M. A., Pickup J. C., Lump J. C., Georgino F. O., Webb D. J., Foller J. H., and The Eurodiab IDDM complications Study group, **Diabetes Care**, 2001; 24: 316.
- 108- Gylling H., Miettinen T. A., **Diabetes Care**, 1997; 20, 90.
- 109- Scoppola A., Testa G., Frontoni S., Maddaloni E., Gambardella S., Menzinger G. and LaLa A., **Diabetes Care**, 1990; 13: 1372.
- 110- Vila A., Korytowski W., Girotti A. W., **Arch. Biochem. Biophys.**, 2000; 380(1):208.
- 111- Girotti A. W., **J. Lipid Res.**, 1988; 29: 1029.
- 112- Girotti A. W., Wron M., Korytowski, **Analytical Biochemistry**, 1999; 270: 123.
- 113- Upton G. V., **Fertility and Sterility**, 1990; 53(1): 1.
- 114- Milda T., Nakamura Y., Inano K., **Clinical Chemistry**, 1996; 42: 1992.
- 115- Jen Kins A. J., Thorpe S. R., Alderson N. L., Hermayer K. L., Lyons T. J., King L. P., Chassereau C. N., and Klein R. L., **Metabolism**, 2004; 53(8): 969.
- 116- Fernandez- Real J. M., Molina A., Ricart W., Gutierrez C., Casamitjana R., Vendrell J., Soler J., and Gomez- Saez M., **Diabetes**, 1999; 18: 1108.
- 117- Hamilton- Craig I., **MJA**, 2002; 177: 404.
- 118- Buse J., **CLINICAL DIABETES**, 2003; 21(4): 168.
- 119- Henry R. R., **CLINICAL DIABETES**, 2001; 19(3): 113.
- 120- Ganong W.F., **Review of medical physiology**, 18th ed, medical publication, California, 1997.
- 121- Buettner G. R., **Arch. Biochem. Biophys.**, 1993; 300: 030.
- 122- Gutteridge J. M., **Clin. Chem.**, 1990, 41: 1818.
- 123- Mc Cay P. B., Lai E. K., Poyer J. L., Du Bosc C. M., Janzen E. J., **J. Biol. Chem.**, 1984; 259: 2130.
- 124- Jain S., Thomas M., Kumar G. P., Laloraya M. **Biochem. Biophys. Res. Commun.**, 1993; 190: 074.
- 125- Fujii T., Hiramoto Y., Terao J., Fukuzawa K., **Arch. Biochem. Biophys.**, 1991; 288: 120.

-
- ١٢٦- Minotti G., **Chem. Res. Toxicol.**, ١٩٩٣; ٦: ١٣٤.
- ١٢٧- Aisen P., Listowsky I., **Annu. Rev. Biochem.**, ١٩٨٠; ٤٩: ٣٥٧.
- ١٢٨- Thomas C. E., Morehouse L. A., Aust S. D., **J. Biol. Chem.**, ١٩٨٥; ٢٦٠: ٣٢٥٧.
- ١٢٩- Boyer R. F., Mc Cleary C. J., **Free Radic. Biol. Med.**, ١٩٨٧; ٣: ٣٨٩.
- ١٣٠- Das S. K., Nair R. C., **Br. J. Haematol.**, ١٩٨٠; ٤٤: ٨٧.
- ١٣١- Sevanian A., Kim E., **Free Radic. Biol. Med.**, ١٩٨٥; ١: ٢٦٣.
- ١٣٢- Begin M. E., **Chem. Phys. Lipids**, ١٩٨٧; ٤٥: ٢٦٩.
- ١٣٣- Yang X., Chasteen N. D., **Biochem. J.**, ١٩٩٩; ٣٣٨.
- ١٣٤- Jialal I., Devaraj S., **Clinical Chem.**, ١٩٩٦; ٤٢: ٤٩٨.
- ١٣٥- Cross C. E., **Ann. Intern. Med.**, ١٩٨٧; ١٠٧: ٥٢٦.
- ١٣٦- Marshall P. J., Warso M. A., Lands W. E., **Anal. Biochem.**; ; ١٤٥: ١٩٢.
- ١٣٧- Muslih R. K., Al-Nimer M. S., Al-Zamely O. M., **National Journal of Chemistry**;
٢٠٠٢: ١٣٩.
- ١٣٨- Al-Zamely O. M., **Ph. D. Thesis**, University of Mustansirya, ٢٠٠١.
- ١٣٩- Gutteridge j. M., **int. J. Biochem.**, ١٩٨٢; ١٤: ٦٤٩.
- ١٤٠- Dotan Y., Lichtenberg D., Pincut I., **Prog. Lipid Res.**, ٢٠٠٤; ٤٣: ٢٠٠.
- ١٤١- Manuel- Y- Keenoy B., Vinckx M., Vertommen J., Gal L. V., Leeuw I. D.,
Atherosclerosis, ٢٠٠٤, ١٧٥: ٣٦٩.
- ١٤٢- Oliver I. T., **Biochemical J.**, ١٩٥٥; ٦١: ١١٦.
- ١٤٣- Hess J. W., **Clin. Chem.**, ١٩٦٧; ١٣(١١): ٩٩٤.
- ١٤٤- Allain C. C., **Clin. Chem.**, ١٩٧٣; ١٩(٢): ٢٢٣.
- ١٤٥- Mercer, **Clin. Chem.**, ١٩٧٤; ٢٠: ٣٦.
- ١٤٦- Rej R., **Clin. Chem.**, ١٩٩٨; ٤٤(٦): ١١٤٩.
- ١٤٧- Nealon D. A., Hendrson A. R., **Clin. Chem.**, ١٩٧٥; ٢١(٣): ٣٩٢.
- ١٤٨- Schluter K., Wingenders E., Tegge W., and Piper H. M., **J. Biol. Chem.**, ١٩٩٦;
٢٧١(٦): ٣٠٧٤.

-
- 149- Suhluter K., Piper H. M., **Am. J. Physiol.**, 1992; 263: H 1739.
- 150- Robyt J. F., White B. J., **Biochemical techniques, Theory and practis**, waveland press, Inc, 1990.
- 151- Stryer L., **Biochemistry**, 4th ed., New York, Freeman W. H. and Company, 2000.
- 152- Ellman G. L., **Arch. Biochem. Biophys.**, 1969; 82: 70.
- 153- Sedlak J., Lindsay R. H., **Anal. BIOCHEM.**, 1978; 25: 192.
- 154- Barham, Trinder, **Analysit**, 1972; 97: 142.
- 155- Fossati P., **Clin. Chem.**, 1980; 28: 227.
- 156- Richmond W., **Clin. Chem.**, 1973; 19: 1300.
- 157- Flegg H. M., **Ann. Clin. Biochem.**, 1973; 10: 79.
- 158- Allain C. C., **Clin. Chem.**, 1974; 20: 470.
- 159- Study Group, European Atherosclerosis Society, **European Heart J.**, 1988; 9: 571.
- 160- Arcol I. S. B., 1989; 15: 121.
- 161- Fossati P., **Clin. Chem.**, 1982; 20: 77.
- 162- Burstein M., **Lipid Res.**, 1970; 11: 583.
- 163- Friedewald W. T., Levy R. I., Fredrickson D. S., **Clin. Chem.**, 1972; 18: 499.
- 164- Harris N., Neufeld E. T., Ticho B., **Clin. Chem.**, 1996; 42(8): 1182.
- 165- Roberts M. J., Young T. S., Trenton T. G., **Laucet**, 1990, 336: 143.
- 166- Guidet B., Shah S. V., **Am. J. Physiol.**, 1989, 257(26): F 440.
- 167- Bioshop M. L., Duben- Engel Kirk, and Foby E. P., **Clinical Chemistry**, 4th ed., Philadelia, Lippincott Williams and Wilkins, 2000.
- 168- Varley H., Gowenlock A. H., and Bell M., **Parctical Clinical Biochemistry Vol. 1**, 5th ed., London, William, Henemann medical Book LTd, 1991.
- 169- Genet S., Kale R. K., Baquer N. Z., **Mol. Cell. Biochem.**, 2000; 210: 23.
- 170- Liu Z. J., Zhou J., **Biochem. Biophys. Acta.**, 1990; 1203: 63.
- 171- Konorev E. A., Kalyanarman B., **FEBS Lett**, 1998; 427: 171.

-
- 172- Szudelski T., **Physiol. Res.**, 2001; 50: 536.
- 173- Hoeldtke R. D., Bryner K. D., Mc Neill D. R., Hobbs G. R., Riggs J. E., Warehime S. S., Christie I., Gancer G., and Dyke K. V., **Diabetes**, 2002; 51: 2817.
- 174- Chiarelli F., Cipollone F., Romano F., Tumini S., Costantin F., Ricco L. D., Pomilio M., Pierdomenico S. D., Marini M., Cuccurullo F., and Mezzetti A., **Diabetes**, 2000; 49: 1208.
- 175- Kaasik A., Minajeva A., Sousa E. D., Ventara- Clapier R., Veksler V., **FEBS Lett.**, 1999; 444: 70.
- 176- Stachowiak O., Dolder M., Wallimann T., and Richart C., **J. Biol. Chem.**, 1998; 273(27): 17694.
- 177- Mathews C. E., Bagley R., and Leiter E. H., **Diabetes**, 2004, 53(1): S 120.
- 178- Mekhfi H., Veksler V., Mateo P., Moupoil V., Rochette L., and Ventara- Clapier R., **Circul. Res.**, 1997; 78: 1016.
- 179- Popovich B. K., Boheler K. R., and Dillmann W. H., **Am. J. Physiol.**, 1989; 257(20): E 073.
- 180- Jocelyn P. C., **CLINICAL CHEMICA ACTA**, 1908; 3: 401.
- 181- Woodward G. E., **J. Biol. Chem.**, 1930: 1.
- 182- Richie J. P., Skowronski L., Abraham P., and Leutzinger Y., **Clin. Chem.**, 1997; 42: 46.
- 183- Andersson A., Lindgren A., Arnadottir M., Prytz H., and Hultberg B., **Clin. Chem.**, 1999, 45(7): 1084.
- 184- Morrison J. A., Jacobsen D. W., Specher D. L., Robinson K., Khoury P., Daniels S./ R., **Circulation**, 1999; 100: 2244.
- 185- Register U. D., **J. Biol. Chem.**, 1904; 206: 700.
- 186- Krahl M. E., **J. Biol. Chem.**, 1903; 200: 99.
- 187- Gunst J. J., Langlois M. R., Delanghe J. R., **Clin. Chem.**, 1998; 44(5): 939.
- 188- Yang J. O., **M Sc Thesis**, University of Iowa, Japan, 1999.
- 189- Eldjarn L., Pihl, **J. Biol. Chem.**, 1907; 220: 499.
- 190- Mikami T., Yoshino Y., and Ito T., **Free Radical Res.**, 2000; 32: 31.

-
- 191- Roch- Ramel F., Guisan B., **News Physiol. Sci.**, 1999; 14:80.
- 192- Zitnanova I., Korytar P., Aruoma O. I., Sustrova M., Garaiova I., Muchova J., Kalnovicova T., Puschel S., Durackova Z., **Clinica Chemica Acta**, 2004; 341: 139.
- 193- Machin M., Simoyi M. F., Blemings K. P., Klandorf H., **Comparative Biochemistry and Physiology**, 2004; 137 B: 383.
- 194- Lehto S., Niskanen L., Ronnema T., Laakso M., **Stroke**, 1998; 29: 730.
- 195- Seghieri G., Morazzo D., Fascetti S., Ambani C., Anichini R., DE Bellis A., Alviggi L., and Franconi F., **Diabetes Care**, 2002; 25(6): 1090.
- 196- Skinner K. A., White C. K., Patel R., Tan S., Barnes S., Kirks M., Dorley- Usmar V., and Parks D. A., **J. Biol. Chem.**, 1998, 273(38): 24449.
- 197- Kelly F. J., Teletly T. D., **Biochem. J.**, 1997, 320: 90.
- 198- Halliwell B., Gutteridge J. M. C., **Methods Enzymol.**, 1990; 186: 1.
- 199- Girotti A. W., **Photochem. Photobiol.**, 1990, 51: 497.
- 200- Lin F., Girotti A. W., **Arch. Biochem. Biophys.**, 1993; 300: 714.
- 201- Suzuki Y. J., Forman H. J., Sevenian A., **Free radic. Biol. Med.**, 1997; 22: 269.
- 202- Abrams J. J. Ginsberg H., Grundy S. M., **Diabetes**, 1982; 31: 903.
- 203- Gylling H., Miettinen T. A., **Diabetes Care**, 1997; 20: 90.
- 204- Briones E. R., Steiger DiL., Palumbo P. J., O' Fallon W. M., Langworthy A. L., Zimmerman B. R., Kotkka B. A., **Am. J. Clin. Nutr.**, 1986, 44: 303.
- 205- Scoppola A., Testa G., Frontoni S., Maddaloni E., Gambardella S., Menzinger G., Lala A., **Diabetes Care**, 1990, 13: 1372.
- 206- Llag L.L., **CLINICAL DIABETES**, 2001; 19(4): 183.
- 207- Mc Neely M. J., **CLINICAL DIABETES**, 2002, 10(4): 190.
- 208- Thomas- Doberson D., **CLINICAL DIABETES**, 2002; 20(4): 202.
- 209- Miles J. M., Park Y. S., Walewicz D., Russell- Lopez C., Windsor S., Isley W. I., Coppack S. N., and Harris W. S., **Diabetes**, 2004; 53: 521.
- 210- Boizel R., Benhamou P. Y., Lardy B., Laport F., Foullo T., Halami S, **Diabetes Care**, 2000; 23(11): 1679.
- 211- Taskinen M. R., **Diabetes**, 1992; 41(2): 12.

-
- ۲۱۲- Siegel R. D., Cupples a., Schaefer E. J., Wilson P. W. F., **Diabetes, Metabolism**, ۱۹۹۶; ۴۵: ۱۲۶۷.
- ۲۱۳- Wolf R. R. Shaw J. H. F., Durkot M. J., **Am. J. Physiol**, ۱۹۸۵; ۲۴۸: E ۷۳۶.
- ۲۱۴- Garvey W. T., Kwon S., Zheng D., Shaughnessy S., Penny Wallace, Hutto A., Pugh K., Jenkins A., Klein R., and Liao Y., **Diabetes**, ۲۰۰۳; ۵۲: ۴۵۳.
- ۲۱۵- Gerrity R. G., **Am. J. Pathol**, ۱۹۸۱; ۱۰۳: ۱۸۱.
- ۲۱۶- Brown M. S., Goldstein J. L., *Annu. Rev. Biochem.*, ۱۹۸۳; ۵۲: ۲۲۳.
- ۲۱۷- Lunee J., **Ann. Clin. Biochem.**, ۱۹۹۰; ۲۷: ۱۷۳.
- ۲۱۸- Rubert M. J., Young T. S., Trenton T. G., **Lancet**, ۱۹۹۰; ۳۳۶; ۱۴۳.
- ۲۱۹- Vanlent F., Waltzky J. A., **Eu. J. Clin. Chem. Clin. Biochem.**, ۱۹۹۴; ۳۲: ۵۸۳.

LIST OF TABLES

| Figure No. | Title of Tables | Page No. |
|-------------------|--|-----------------|
| ١-١ | Criteria for the Diagnosis of Diabetes Mellitus. | ١-٢ |
| ١-٢ | The Constituents of Lipo-proteins Plasma of Healthy Controls. | ٣٤ |
| ٣-١ | The Age of Healthy Controls and Patients with Diabetes Mellitus. | ٦٣ |
| ٣-٢ | The levels of Ck Activity in Healthy Controls and Patients with Diabetes Mellitus. | ٦٤ |
| ٣-٣ | The Levels of GSH Activity in Healthy Controls and Patients with Diabetes Mellitus. | ٦٩ |
| ٣-٤ | The Levels of UA Activity in Healthy Controls and Patients with Diabetes Mellitus. | ٧٢ |
| ٣-٥ | The Levels of TC Activity in Healthy Controls and Patients with Diabetes Mellitus. | ٧٨ |
| ٣-٦ | The Levels of TG Activity in Healthy Controls and Patients with Diabetes Mellitus. | ٨٠ |
| ٣-٧ | The Levels of Lipo-proten Activity in Healthy Controls and Patients with Diabetes Mellitus. | ٨٤ |
| ٣-٨ | The Levels of MDA Activity in Healthy Controls and Patients with Diabetes Mellitus. | ٨٨ |