Sesamol: a Treatment for Diabetes-Associated Blood-Brain Barrier Dysfunction

Reyna L. VanGilder and Jason D. Huber School of Pharmacy, West Virginia University, 5706 Medical Center Dr, Morgantown, WV 26505, USA. Email: rvangilder@mix.wvu.edu

Abstract

Diabetes is a long-standing disease that leads to secondary complications of capillaries such as retinopathy, nephropathy and neuropathy. Emerging evidence suggests that diabetes may also affect the cerebromicrovasculature, the blood-brain barrier (BBB), and lead to changes in the brain that affect cognition and mood. Therefore, it is important to identify natural compounds that may have therapeutic benefit for reducing BBB dysfunction and improve patient quality of life. Preclinical evidence suggests that sesamol, a natural antioxidant in sesame seed oil, could have therapeutic benefit for treating BBB dysfunction during diabetes. Similarly, paroxetine, which shares a methylenedioxy moiety with sesamol shows clinical benefit for treating neuropathic pain associated with diabetes. This review emphasizes BBB dysfunction as a treatable secondary complication associated with diabetes and examines the evidence for the use of natural compounds like sesamol or existing therapies like paroxetine to help restore BBB function.

Keywords: BBB dysfunction, blood-brain barrier, cognition, diabetes, depression, paroxetine ,sesamol

Introduction

Microvascular dysfunction is a primary factor in the development and progression of disabilities most commonly associated with diabetes, blindness, failure, including kidney and neuropathies 2, 3). peripheral (1, Microangioapathy is clinically characterized by basement membrane thickening, cytoskeletal rearrangement, and increased paracellular leakage (4, 5). Extensive research has been conducted on microangiopathies in a number of tissues including kidney, peripheral nerves, retina, heart, and skeletal muscle (4, 6, 7). These studies have revealed that prolonged hyperglycemia, hypertension, dyslipidemia, insulin resistance and increased oxidative stress are important factors contributing to altered endothelial cell function (8, 9, 10).

Hyperglycemia-induced oxidative-stress mechanisms contribute to microvascular alterations of the kidney and retina. Furthermore, increased oxidative stress (11) or decreased antioxidant enzyme activity (12) directly correlates to altered cerebromicrovascular function. However, the role of hyperglycemia-induced oxidative stress with regard to cerebral microvascular dysfunction has been understudied. One possible explanation for this gap in knowledge is that vascular dysfunction in other tissues leads to observable changes that have a long-standing association with diabetes. Meanwhile, changes to central nervous system function are subtle, worsen with time. Often the symptomatic phase for clinical diagnosis of CNS disease is managed with therapies that enhance neuron function (15). Therefore, it is important to better understand microvascular changes that occur in presymptomatic phases of altered mood and cognition and to identify potential compounds that can mitigate pathological molecular changes in the cerebromicrovasculature.

The natural antioxidants in sesame seed oil show promise as being bioactive compounds that can aid to treat hyperglycemia induced altered blood-brain barrier (BBB) function. This is a brief review examining the bioactivity of sesamol for the use of vascular-related neurological issues associated with diabetes and examining and how the selective serotonin reuptake inhibitor may have additional therapeutic uses for treating diabetes associated microvascularopathies.

Evidence for how perturbations in the bloodbrain barrier affect cognition

The BBB is a dynamic, complex structure capable of rapid modulation and responsiveness to stimuli (13). The BBB is a semi-permeable membrane with unique characteristics that confer distinct properties that differentiate the BBB from peripheral capillaries including a welldefined basement membrane, presence of tight junctions, absence of fenestrations, and close apposition to other brain cell types, including pericytes, astrocytes, microglia, and neurons (14). The complex interaction between these cells is called the neurovascular unit. It has been known that intracellular signaling between these supporting cell types and the cerebral microvasculature can affect permeability of tight junctions (15). However, recent evidence suggests that diabetes modulates the function of supporting cell types such as astrocytes and microglia (16,17). These findings suggest that BBB dysfunction is a consequence of altered neurovascular unit cell-to-cell interactions. Moreover, the brain is a heterogeneous entity with different regions having specific neuronal functions and metabolic needs (15), thereby leading to alterations in BBB dysfunction that are region specific (18).

Previous findings have shown time-dependent and region specific alterations in BBB function during experimental diabetes (18). Interestingly, two of the most vulnerable regions to BBB dysfunction in this study were the hippocampus and the midbrain (18). These regions correlate to observed clinical pathologies in patients with diabetes such as alterations in cognitive function and mild depression. The clinical significance of these findings suggest that cerebromicrovascular dysfunction may be an underlying cause of secondary clinical pathologies in patients with diabetes. Small "openings" in the BBB can have a significant impact on BBB function and structure. Using magnetic resonance imaging on patients with type 2 diabetes, investigators showed increased BBB permeability to gadoliniumdiethylenetriamine pentaacetic acid (DTPA). These findings suggest that openings in the BBB to a small molecule (gadolinium-DTPA; 570 Da) may play a role in the progressively worsened cognitive impairment or mild depression often seen in patients with diabetes (19).

The Blood-Brain Barrier Phenotype, Diabetesassociated BBB Dysfunction & Sesamol Treatment

A particularly novel aspect of BBB structure is the presence of tight junctions, which create a barrier to paracellular diffusion of solutes between adjacent endothelial cells (14). The tight junctions are dynamic structures, in which multiple signaling pathways and factors regulate the expression, localization, and protein-protein interactions of the tight junction (20). Studies have shown that changes in total expression and subcellular localization of the tight junction proteins have been associated with alterations in paracellular permeability (21). Changes in localization of some tight junction proteins may play an important role in communicating the state of cell-cell contacts to the nucleus and participating in regulation of growth, differentiation, and gene expression (22). Changes in regulation of tight junction proteins lead to small pertubations in the brain microvaculature and subsequent neuronal changes in neuron function (14, 23). A previous study showed that cognition was impaired in diabetic rats and that sesamol treatment alone could improve cognitive function (24) These findings suggest that insulin independent oxidative stress mechanisms contribute to impaired cognition during diabetes. Meanwhile, another study showed that sesamol restored expression of key tight junction proteins and restored blood-brain barrier function (25).

Tight junctions consist of the transmembrane proteins junctional adhesion molecule, occludin, and claudins, linked via accessory proteins including zonula occludens-1 and -2 to the actin cytoskeleton. Transmembrane proteins claudin 5 and occluden homotypically bind the adjacent endothelial cell to form the tight junction. Transmembrane proteins claudin 5 and occludens homotypically bind to form the tight junction. A previous study showed that sesamol increased the protein expression of both claudin-5 and occludin in isolated cerebromicrovessls (14,23). The BBB possesses a high electrical resistance (1500–2000 Ω^* cm²), which creates both an electrical and physical barrier to maintain brain homeostasis (14). Due to the presence of tight junctions, efflux pumps and specific transport proteins, few chemical moieties can cross into the brain (14, 23). However. sesamol. but not associated metabolites, have been identified in brain tissue (26). To further support sesamol bioactivity in the brain, other preclinical studies of neurological diseases have shown that sesamol improves cognitive function (24, 27), motor abilities (28) and reduces biochemical markers of inflammation and oxidative stress in the brain (24, 27, 29, 30). The ability for sesamol to permeate the BBB could be attributed to its low molecular weight and lipophilic nature. The next section will review the anti-oxidant properties of sesamol and potential effects for reducing microvascular inflammation. A summary of he proposed protective molecular mechanisms of sesamol can be viewed in Figure 1.

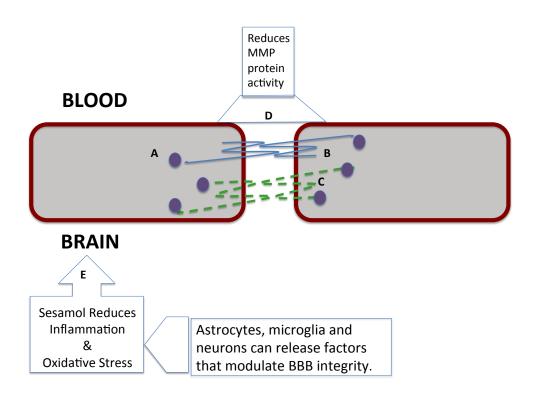


Figure 1. Schematic representation of the tight junction between two cerebral endothelial cells & potential protective effects of sesamol on BBB tight junctions. Cerebral endothelial cells also possess cadherins and junction adhesion molecule. However, the tight junction, comprised of zona occludin, claudin-5 and occludin, provides the BBB with a unique phenotype. (A) Zona occludens serve as the cytoskeletal scaffolding for the transmembrane proteins claudin-5 and occludin, which forms the cell-to-cell junction. Experimental diabetes reduces zona occludin protein expression and sesamol treatment

increases increases zona occluden protein. (B) Claudin-5 is a transmembrane protein that homotypically binds in the intracellular junction. Claudin-5 is essential for BBB tight junction formation. Sesamol increased Claudin-5 protein expression. However, reports conflict as to whether experimental diabetes decreases Claudin-5 protein. (C) Phosphorylation of occludin determines cellular location either within the cytosol (unphosphorylated) or at plasma membrane (phosphorylated) and location within the cell reflect changes in paracellular permeability. Sesamol may enhance phosphorylated occludin, thereby leading to increased BBB integrity through homotypic extracellular binding between cerebral endothelial cells. (D&E) Tight junctions are dynamic structures, which are regulated by multiple signaling pathways and external factors. External changes increasing inflammation and oxidative stress can influence tight junction protein expression and subcellular localization. (D) Tight junction proteins occluden and zonaoccludin are MMP substrates. Therefore, increased MMP activity could lead to decreased tight junction protein. Sesamol can decrease MMP activity. (E) Inflammatory status of other cell types in the brain (e.g. neurons, astrocytes, microglia, etc.) can influence BBB integrity. Sesamol treatment can modulate astrocyte-mediated oxidative stress. Additionally, varying models of neurological disease show that sesamol treatment can reduce total oxidative stress and inflammatory status while enhancing antioxidant enzyme function in brain tissue.

Sesamol

Sesamol, a natural antioxidant found in sesame seed oil, is thought to have greater antioxidant activity than other antioxidant lignans found in sesame seed oil. Sesamol can scavenge superoxide anion (29, 30, 31), a property attributed to phenolic compounds. The benzodioxyl moiety gives sesamol the unique ability to neutralize hydroxyl anion (29, 30, 32) and peroxyl radical (33, 34, 35). These antioxidant properties are particularly helpful for reducing oxidative stress in lipid-rich brain vulnerable to Fenton-catalyzed lipid peroxidation due to the high metabolic activity of the brain, content of polyunsaturated fatty acids and metal cofactors. In the brain, sesamol has been shown to reduce lipid peroxidation, enhance antioxidant enzyme function and reduce markers of neuroinflammation. An in vitro study showed that sesamol can attenuate the production of nitric oxide (36) and hydrogen peroxide and reduces monoamine oxidase activity in cultured astrocytes (37), which suggests that sesamol can modulate the activity of other cells that regulate BBB integrity. Alterations in monoamine oxidase activity correlate to oxidative stress and neurodegenerative disease development seen in aging, Alzheimer's Disease and stroke.

Additionally, the benzodioxyl group of sesamol may include gene regulating abilities, as by other benzodioxyl-containing indicated compounds (38, 39, 40). Most noteably, evidence suggests that sesamol has cardioprotective benefits by regulating vascular function and influencing circulating lipids by modulating liver function. One clinical study showed that sesame seed oil can control increased blood pressure, hyperlipidemia and lipid peroxidation (by increasing enzymatic and non-enzymatic antioxidants (41) and similar findings have been highlighted in preclinical studies (42, 43, 44). Sesamol treatment reduced plasma cholesterol and triglycerides in acute and chronic hyperlipidemia, improved vascular function (42) and can up regulate protective enzymes such vascular as peroxisome proliferator-activated receptors (43, 44) in the liver. Protective effects on the microvasculature likely stem from reduction of matrix metalloproteinase activity (43, 45, 46, 47) and stabilization of cell membranes through other redox sensitive mechanisms (48). Models of diabetic neuropathy and nephropathy highlight the combination of sesamol and insulin as the most effective mode of reducing inflammatory cytokine release (i.e. Tnf-a and TGF-B), reduced nitrosative stress and reduced caspase-3 protein

(49, 50). Decreased inflammatory cytokines and nitrosative stress have been reported in the brain with sesamol treatment (25, 27, 28). Mechanistic studies further elucidating these mechanisms within the cerebromicrovasculture are warranted. The next section will discuss the translation of findings linking sesamol to paroxetine, an approved therapy with a similar methelynedioxy moiety.

Sesamol, Paroxetine and Potential treatment for BBB dysfunction

Paroxetine is a clinically used anti-depressant classified as a selective serotonin reuptake inhibitor (SSRI). Paroxetine and sesamol both share a methlylenedioxy moiety, which is unique to paroxetine compared to other SSRIs. A cellscreening study identified paroxetine as a compound that reduced hyperglycemic endothelial cell injury by reducing mitochondrial ROS formation, mitochondrial protein oxidation and nuclear DNA damage without modulating cell bioenergetics or mitochondrial electron transport (51). At the cellular level, cross talk between NADPH oxidases and mitochondria lead to a feed-forward cycle of endothelial generation of ROS (52) during states of hyperglycemia. These findings pose an interesting concept of finding new uses for drug therapy for existing compounds outside the original indication (52). A few clinical studies report paroxetine as being useful for treating diabetes-related neuropathic pain (53, 54, 55) or depression in patients with type 2 diabetes (57, 58, 59), while other studies point to concerns of paroxetine promoting insulin resistance alone (60, 61) or in combination with pravastatin therapy for dyslipidemia (62). Another study showed that paroxetine treatment improved insulin sensitivity in patients without diabetes (63). Additional prospective clinical studies are needed to evaluate the usefulness of paroxetine for treating BBB microangiopathy during diabetes.

Microvascular dysfunction leads to secondary complications associated with diabetes and surmounting evidence highlights BBB dysfunction as a potential cause of neurological effects associated with diabetes. Sesamol is a natural antioxidant in sesame seed oil that was shown to improve cognition and BBB structure and function in preclinical models of diabetes. This action is likely associated with reduced inflammatory processes in the brain and reduced peripheral cholesterol and TAGs. Sesamol and other lignans in sesame seed oil possess a methylene dioxy moiety, which is a shared chemical structure with the SSRI paroxetine. Paroxetine or sesamol maybe useful for slowing the progression of BBB dysfunction and relieve symptoms of mild cognitive deficits or depression in patients with diabetes. Clinical studies indicate that paroxetine has clinical utility for treating diabetes-associated microangiopathies like neuropathic pain and depression. However, additional studies examining the clinical utility of paroxetine for these indications and mechanistic studies investigating structure activity relationships between BBB and methylenedioxy moieties are warranted.

Acknowledgements

A special thanks to Ms. Mollie E. Simonton for her assistance with technical editing of this manuscript.

The content was supported by the National Institute Of General Medical Sciences, U54GM104942. The content is solely the responsibility of the authors and does not necessarily represent the official views of the NIH.

References

1. Schrijvers BF, Flyvbjerg A, De Vriese AS (2004) The role of vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF) in renal pathophysiology. Kidney Int 65:2003-2017. 2. Sima AA, Zhang W, Li ZG, Kamiya H (2008) The effects of C-peptide on type 1 diabetic polyneuropathies and encephalopathy in the BB/Wor-rat. Exp Diabetes Res 2008:230458.

3. Otero-Siliceo E, Ruano-Calderon LA (2003) Diabetic neuropathy: vascular disease?. Rev Neurol 37:658-661.

4. Hill RE, Williams PE (2004) Perineurial cell basement membrane thickening and myelinated nerve fibre loss in diabetic and nondiabetic peripheral nerve. J Neurol Sci 217:157-163.

5. Idris I, Gray S, Donnelly R (2004) Protein kinase C-beta inhibition and diabetic microangiopathy: effects on endothelial permeability responses in vitro. Eur J Pharmacol 485:141-144.

6. Basile DP, Fredrich K, Weihrauch D, Hattan N, Chilian WM (2004) Angiostatin and matrix metalloprotease expression following ischemic acute renal failure. Am J Physiol Renal Physiol 286:F893-F902.

7. Pricci F, Leto G, Amadio L, Iacobini C, Cordone S, Catalano S, Zicari A, Sorcini M, Di MU, Pugliese G (2003) Oxidative stress in diabetes-induced endothelial dysfunction involvement of nitric oxide and protein kinase C. Free Radic Biol Med 35:683-694.

8. Liu Y, Pelekanakis K, Woolkalis MJ (2004) Thrombin and tumor necrosis factor alpha synergistically stimulate tissue factor expression in human endothelial cells: regulation through c-Fos and c-Jun. J Biol Chem 279:36142-36147.

9. Megherbi SE, Milan C, Minier D, Couvreur G, Osseby GV, Tilling K, Di CA, Inzitari D, Wolfe CD, Moreau T, Giroud M (2003) Association between diabetes and stroke subtype on survival and functional outcome 3 months after stroke: data from the European BIOMED Stroke Project. Stroke 34:688-694.

10. Osicka TM, Russo LM, Qiu ML, Brammar GC, Thallas V, Forbes JM, Comper WD, Jerums G (2003) Additive effects of hypertension and diabetes on renal cortical expression of PKCalpha and -epsilon and alpha-tubulin but not PKC-beta 1 and -beta 2. J Hypertens 21:2399-2407.

11. Olesen SP (1987) Free oxygen radicals decrease electrical resistance of microvascular endothelium in brain. Acta Physiol Scand 129:181-187.

12. Agarwal R, Shukla GS (1999) Potential role of cerebral glutathione in the maintenance of blood- brain barrier integrity in rat. Neurochem Res 24:1507-1514.

13. Winkler F, Koedel U, Kastenbauer S, Pfister HW (2001) Differential expression of nitric oxide synthases in bacterial meningitis: role of the inducible isoform for blood-brain barrier breakdown. J Infect Dis 183:1749-1759.

14. Huber JD, Egleton RD, Davis TP (2001) Molecular physiology and pathophysiology of tight junctions in the blood-brain barrier. Trends Neurosci 24:719-725.

15. Vangilder RL, Rosen CL, Barr TL, Huber JD (2011) Targeting the neurovascular unit for treatment of neurological disorders. Pharmacol Ther. 2011;130(3):239-47

16. Nagayach A, Patro N, Patro I. (2014) Astrocytic and microglial response in experimentally induced diabetic rat brain. Metab Brain Dis. 17. Shinozaki Y, Nomura M, Iwatsuki K, Moriyama Y, Gachet C, Koizumi S (2014) Microglia trigger astrocyte-mediated neuroprotection via purinergic gliotransmission. Sci Rep. 4:4329.

18. Huber JD, Vangilder RL, Houser KA (2006) Streptozotocin-induced diabetes progressively increases blood-brain barrier permeability in specific brain regions in rats. Am J Physiol Heart Circ Physiol. 291(6):H2660-8.

19. Baborie A, Kuschinsky W (2006) Lack of relationship between cellular density and either capillary density or metabolic rate in different regions of the brain. Neurosci Lett 404:20-22.

20. Matter K, Aijaz S, Tsapara A, Balda MS (2005) Mammalian tight junctions in the regulation of epithelial differentiation and proliferation. Curr Opin Cell Biol 17:453-458.

21. Kumagai AK, Kang YS, Boado RJ, Pardridge WM (1995) Upregulation of blood-brain barrier GLUT1 glucose transporter protein and mRNA in experimental chronic hypoglycemia. Diabetes 44:1399-1404.

22. Zhang L, Krzentowski G, Albert A, Lefebvre PJ (2001) Risk of developing retinopathy in Diabetes Control and Complications Trial type 1 diabetic patients with good or poor metabolic control. Diabetes Care 24:1275-1279.

23. Hawkins BT, Egleton RD (2008) Pathophysiology of the blood-brain barrier: animal models and methods. Curr Top Dev Biol 80:277-309.

24. Kuhad A, Chopra K. (2008) Effect of sesamol on diabetes-associated cognitive decline in rats. Exp Brain Res. 185(3):411-20.

25. Vangilder RL, Kelly KA, Chua MD, Ptachcinski

RL, Huber JD (2009) Administration of sesamol improved blood-brain barrier function in streptozotocin-induced diabetic rats. Exp Brain Res. 197(1):23-34.

26.Jan KC, Ho CT, Hwang LS (2008) Bioavailability and tissue distribution of sesamol in rat. J Agric Food Chem 56:7032-7037.

27. Hassanzadeh P, Arbabi E, Rostami F (2014) The ameliorative effects of sesamol against seizures, cognitive impairment and oxidative stress in the experimental model of epilepsy. Iran J Basic Med Sci.17(2):100-7.

28. Sonia angeline M, Sarkar A, Anand K, Ambasta RK, Kumar P (2013) Sesamol and naringenin reverse the effect of rotenoneinduced PD rat model. Neuroscience. 254:379-94.

29. Hsu DZ, Chien SP, Chen KT, Liu MY (2007) The effect of sesamol on systemic oxidative stress and hepatic dysfunction in acutely iron-intoxicated mice. Shock 28:596-601.

30. Aboul-Enein HY, Kruk I, Kladna A, Lichszteld K, Michalska T (2007) Scavenging effects of phenolic compounds on reactive oxygen species. Biopolymers 86:222-230.

31. Joshi R, Kumar MS, Satyamoorthy K, Unnikrisnan MK, Mukherjee T (2005) Free radical reactions and antioxidant activities of sesamol: pulse radiolytic and biochemical studies. J Agric Food Chem 53:2696-2703.

32. Hiramoto K, Ojima N, Sako K, Kikugawa K (1996) Effect of plant phenolics on the formation of the spin-adduct of hydroxyl radical and the DNA strand breaking by hydroxyl radical. Biol Pharm Bull 19:558-563.

32. Parihar MS, Pandit MK (2003) Free radical induced increase in protein carbonyl is attenuated by low dose of adenosine in hippocampus and mid brain: implication in neurodegenerative disorders. Gen Physiol Biophys 22:29-39.

34. Uchida M, Nakajin S, Toyoshima S, Shinoda M (1996) Antioxidative effect of sesamol and related compounds on lipid peroxidation. Biol Pharm Bull

35. Gupta A, Sharma S, Kaur I, Chopra K (2009) Renoprotective effects of sesamol in ferric nitrilotriacetate-induced oxidative renal injury in rats. Basic Clin Pharmacol Toxicol 104:316-321.

36. Chen PR, Tsai CE, Chang H, Liu TL, Lee CC (2005) Sesamol induces nitric oxide release from human umbilical vein endothelial cells. Lipids 40:955-961.

37. Mazzio EA, Harris N, Soliman KF (1998) Food constituents attenuate monoamine oxidase activity and peroxide levels in C6 astrocyte cells. Planta Med 64:603-606.

38. Tenorio-López FA Z-OGP-HG (2007) Vulgarenol, a sesquiterpene isolated from Magnolia grandiflora, induces nitric oxide synthases II and III overexpression in guinea pig hearts. Z Naturforsch C 62:725-730.

39. Schneider K Keller S (2008) Proximicins A, B, and C-antitumor furan analogues of netropsin from the marine actinomycete Verrucosispora induce upregulation of p53 and the cyclin kinase inhibitor p21. Agnew Chem Int Ed Engl 47:3258-3261.

40. Jurd L, Narayanan VL, Paull KD (1987) In vivo antitumor activity of 6-benzyl-1,3-benzodioxole derivatives against the P388, L1210, B16, and M5076 murine models. J Med Chem 30:1752-1756.

41. Sankar D, Sambandam G, Ramakrishna rao M, Pugalendi KV (2005) Modulation of blood pressure, lipid profiles and redox status in hypertensive patients taking different edible oils. Clin Chim Acta. 355(1-2):97-104.

42. Kumar N, Mudgal J, Parihar VK, Nayak PG, Kutty NG, Rao CM (2013) Sesamol treatment reduces plasma cholesterol and triacylglycerol levels in mouse models of acute and chronic hyperlipidemia. Lipids. 48(6):633-8.

43. Periasamy S, Hsu DZ, Chang PC, Liu MY (2014) Sesame oil attenuates nutritional fibrosing steatohepatitis by modulating matrix metalloproteinases-2, 9 and PPAR-γ. J Nutr Biochem. 25(3):337-44.

44. Chang CC, Lu WJ, Chiang CW, et al. (2010) Potent antiplatelet activity of sesamol in an in vitro and in vivo model: pivotal roles of cyclic AMP and p38 mitogen-activated protein kinase. J Nutr Biochem. 21(12):1214-21.

45. Periasamy S, Hsu DZ, Chen SY, Yang SS, Chandrasekaran VR, Liu MY. (2014) Therapeutic sesamol attenuates monocrotaline-induced sinusoidal obstruction syndrome in rats by inhibiting matrix metalloproteinase-9. Cell Biochem Biophys.

46. Periasamy S, Mo FE, Chen SY, Chang CC, Liu MY (2011) Sesamol attenuates isoproterenolinduced acute myocardial infarction via inhibition of matrix metalloproteinase-2 and -9 expression in rats. Cell Physiol Biochem. 27(3-4):273-80.

47. Lu YC, Jayakumar T, Duann YF, et al. Chondroprotective role of sesamol by inhibiting MMPs expression via retaining NF-κB signaling in activated SW1353 cells. J Agric Food Chem. 2011;59(9):4969-78.

48. Chennuru A, Saleem MT (2013) Antioxidant, lipid lowering, and membrane stabilization effect of sesamol against doxorubicin-induced cardiomyopathy in experimental rats. Biomed Res Int. 2013:934239.

49. Chopra K, Tiwari V, Arora V, Kuhad A (2010) Sesamol suppresses neuro-inflammatory cascade in experimental model of diabetic neuropathy. J Pain. 11(10):950-7.

50. Kuhad A, Sachdeva AK, Chopra K (2009) Attenuation of renoinflammatory cascade in experimental model of diabetic nephropathy by sesamol. J Agric Food Chem. 57(14):6123-8.

51. Gerö D, Szoleczky P, Suzuki K, et al. (2013) Cell-based screening identifies paroxetine as an inhibitor of diabetic endothelial dysfunction. Diabetes. 62(3):953-64.

52. Wheatcroft SB (2013) Teaching an old drug new tricks: can paroxetine ease the burden of cardiovascular disease in diabetes?. Diabetes. 2013;62(3):698-700

53. Sindrup SH, Gram LF, Brøsen K, Eshøj O, Mogensen EF (1990) The selective serotonin reuptake inhibitor paroxetine is effective in the treatment of diabetic neuropathy symptoms. Pain. 42(2):135-44.

54. Giannopoulos S, Kosmidou M, Sarmas I, et al. (2007) Patient compliance with SSRIs and gabapentin in painful diabetic neuropathy. Clin J Pain. 23(3):267-9.

55. Sindrup SH, Grodum E, Gram LF, Beck-nielsen H (1991) Concentration-response relationship in paroxetine treatment of diabetic neuropathy

symptoms: a patient-blinded dose-escalation study. Ther Drug Monit. 13(5):408-14.

56. Paile-hyvärinen M, Wahlbeck K, Eriksson JG. Quality of life and metabolic status in mildly depressed women with type 2 diabetes treated with paroxetine: a single-blind randomised placebo controlled trial. BMC Fam Pract. 2003;4:7

57. Gülseren L, Gülseren S, Hekimsoy Z, Mete L (2005) Comparison of fluoxetine and paroxetine in type II diabetes mellitus patientsPailehyvärinen M, Wahlbeck K, Arch Med Res. 36(2):159-65.

58. Eriksson JG (2007) Quality of life and metabolic status in mildly depressed patients with type 2 diabetes treated with paroxetine: a double-blind randomised placebo controlled 6-month trial. BMC Fam Pract. 8:34.

59. Paile-hyvärinen M, Wahlbeck K, Eriksson JG (2007) Quality of life and metabolic status in mildly depressed patients with type 2 diabetes treated with paroxetine: a double-blind randomised placebo controlled 6-month trial. BMC Fam Pract. 8:34.

60. Isaac R, Boura-halfon S, Gurevitch D, Shainskaya A, Levkovitz Y, Zick Y (2013) Selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs) inhibit insulin secretion and action in pancreatic β cells. J Biol Chem. 288(8):5682-93.

61. Levkovitz Y, Ben-shushan G, Hershkovitz A, et al. (2007) Antidepressants induce cellular insulin resistance by activation of IRS-1 kinases. Mol Cell Neurosci.36(3):305-12.

62. Gooden KM, Bibeau KB, Wood J, et al. (2014) Incident Type 2 Diabetes Among Patients Exposed to the Combination of Pravastatin and Paroxetine. Curr Drug Saf. 63. Li F, Zhang M, Xu D, et al. (2014) Coadministration of paroxetine and pravastatin causes deregulation of glucose homeostasis in diabetic rats via enhanced paroxetine exposure. Acta Pharmacol Sin. 35(6):792-805.