Republic of Iraq Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research University of Baghdad College of Education for pure Science (Ibn Al-Haitham) Department of Chemistry



Biochemical studies and partially purification of GPCR from iraqi patients with diabetic type 2 and diabetic nephropathy

A Thesis

Submitted to College of Education for Pure Science (Ibn Al-Haitham), University of Baghdad in Partial fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Biochemistry

By

Sulaiman Mahmod Hasan

B.Sc. in Chemistry (2012), College of Education for Pure Science (Ibn Al-Haitham)/ Baghdad University.

M.Sc. in organic chemistry (2015), College of Education for Pure Science (Ibn Al-Haitham), Baghdad University.

Supervised by

Prof. Dr. Zeinab M. Al-Rubaei

2018 A.D

1439 A.H

بَيْخَيْرُ الْسَحْمَ الْحَدَى عَنَى اللَّهُ



وَ وَقَالَتُهُ الْعَظَمَ عَالَ

Certification of Supervisor

I certify that this thesis was performed under my supervision at Department of Chemistry, College of Education for Pure Science Ibn Al-Haitham/ University of Baghdad in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Biochemistry.

Supervisor

Signature:

Prof. Dr. Zeinab M. Al-Rubaei College of Education for Pure Science Ibn Al-Haitham/ University of Baghdad

In view of the available recommendation I forward this thesis for debate by the examining committee.

Head of Chemistry Department

Signature:

Prof. Dr. Sarmad B .Dikran

College of Education for Pure Science Ibn Al-Haitham/ Baghdad University / / 2018

<u>Certífícatíon</u>

We, the examining, committee, after reading this thesis (**Biochemical studies and partially purification of GPCR from Iraqi patients with diabetic type 2 and diabetic nephropathy**) and examining the student Sulaiman Mahmod Hasan in its content, find that it is qualified for pursuing the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Clinical Biochemistry with grade on / /2018.

Signature Name: Prof. Dr. Mohammed AM. Al-Rubaai Chairmen Date: / / 2018

Signature Name: Assist.Prof. Dr.Alaa H.Jawad Signature Name: Assist.Prof. Dr. Mustafa T.Mohammed

Member Date: / / 2018 Member Date: / / 2018

Signature Name: Assist.Prof. Dr.Eiman AA. Abass <u>Member</u> Date: / / 2018 Signature Name: Assist.Prof. Dr. Bushra H. Ali <u>Member</u> Date: / / 2018

Signature: Name: Prof. Dr. Zeinab M. Al-Rubaei <u>Member (Supervisor</u>) Date: / / 2018

Approved by the Deanery of the College of Education for Pure Science Ibn Al-Haitham **Signature:**

Name: Prof. Dr. Khalid F. Ali Dean of the College of Education for Pure Science Ibn Al-Haitham Date: / / 2018.

Dedícatíon

To my parents who have always supporting me

To my wife who supported me along the time

To my sísters and brothers

To my chíldren

To all researchers who are working to improve the quality of life To all of them I dedicate this work.

Sulaíman . M . Hasan

<u>Acknowledgment</u>

Firstly, I would like to express my sincerest appreciation and thanks to my supervisor Dr. Zeinab M.M. Al-Rubaei that gave me great trust, encouragement and support during my PhD study. Thank you for each advice for the progress of my project. Thanks for all contribution to help with my talk preparation and thesis correction. All things I learnt from her are priceless and will be enormously helpful for the development of my future career.

Great thanks to Dr. salah m.Algalabí in Biotechnology research center for his continuous support, reading and revising this thesis.

my thank is due to the Dean of College of Education for Pure Science/Ibn Al-Haithem Professor Dr. Khalied Fahad Ali, and the Head of Department of Chemistry Professor Dr. Sarmad B. Dikran. and the staff of chemistry department.

Sulaíman M. Hasan

Summary 1

The study aimed to the determination of glucagon Like Peptide-1 (GLP-1) and G-Protein Coupled Receptors (GPCR) levels in diabetic and diabetic nephropathy patients and compare results with control group. In addition to study the relationship of GLP-1 and GPCR with HbA1c%,FBG,urea,createnine and lipid profile , that may be useful in marker combat diabetes and its complication

One hundred fifty samples from individuals were used in this study with ages ranged between (40-65) years that were divided into three groups as follows: first group (G1) consists of 50 healthy individuals as a control group, second group (G2) consists of 50 patients with diabetic and third group (G3) consists of 50 patients with diabetic nephropathy.

Results reveled a significant elevation in FBG, HbA1c, urea, creatinine in G2 and G3 comparing to G1 and in the G3 comparing to G2. Results display a nonsignificant decrease in albumin levels in G2 comparing to G1 however, there is a significant decrease in G3 comparing to G2 and G1.

Results revealed a significant elevation in levels of (TC, TG, LDLc, VLDL-c) in G2 and G3 comparing to G1 .While a significant decrease was found in HDL levels in G2 and G3 comparing to G1.Also, there is a significant elevation in (TC, TG, LDL-c, VLDL-c) in G3 comparing to G2 , while there is a nonsignificant decrease was found in HDL in G3 comparing to G2 .

Results showed a significant elevation in the insulin and IR levels in G2 and G3 comparing to G1 .Also ,a significant increase was noticed in G3 comparing to G2 . A significant elevation in GLP-1 and GPCR levels was observed in G2 and G3 comparing to G1. Also, a significant differences was observed in G3 comparing to G2.

Results showed a nonsignificant negative correlation between GLP-1 and urea in G1 (r_1 =-0.146,p>0.05), however , a significant correlation was found in G2 (r_2 =0.435, P<0.05) . A significant negative correlation was seen in G3 (r_3 =-0.0729, P>0.05) . Study also showed a nonsignificant correlation between GLP-1 and creatinine for G1 (r_1 =0.453, P<0.05) .While a significant positive correlation was found in G2 (r_2 =0.210, P<0.05) was found . A significant negative correlation for G3 (r_3 = -0.439, P>0.05) was observed . Correlation relation between GLP-1 and FBG, results illustrated a nonsignificant negative correlation in G1 (r_1 = -0.120, P>0.05) , while a significant positive correlation was found in G2 and G3 (r_2 =0.523, r_3 = 0.323, P<0.05) . Study revealed a nonsignificant positive correlation was found in G1 (r_1 =0.070, P>0.05) while there are a significant negative correlation in G2 and G3 (r_2 =-0.113, r_3 = -0.309, P<0.05) was detected .

Results, also , revealed a nonsignificant positive correlation between GPCR and HbA1c in G1 (r_1 =0.172) , a significant positive correlation in G2 (r_2 =0.427) and a significant negative correlation in G3 (r_3 =-0.042) in these parameters . Results , also, indicated a nonsignificant positive correlation in G1 between GPCR and cholesterol (r_1 =0.306 , P>0.05) . while there are a significant positive correlation in G2 (r_2 =0.514, P<0.05) . and a significant negative correlation between GPCR and cholesterol in G3 (r_3 = -0.288, P<0.05) were found . In this study a nonsignificant negative correlation between GPCR and TG in G1 (r_1 =-0.0009, P>0.05) and a significant negative correlation in G2 was found $(r_2=-0.292, P<0.05)$. finally, results revealed a significant positive correlation between GPCR and triglyceride in G3 $(r_3=0.276, P<0.05)$.

Conclusion could be drawn from this study that the differences in GPCR and GLP-1 levels among groups indicate that GPCR may be used as a marker in development of diabetic nephropathy depending on a significant relation with HbA1c%, urea, creatinine and insulin.

To the best of our knowledge this is the first study in determination and comparison of GPCR in diabetic and diabetic nephropathy patients. In addition to found relationship for GPCR with HbA1c%, urea, creatinine and insulin.

<u>Líst of Contents</u>

No.	Content	Page
	Summary	Ι
	List of Contents	IV
	List of Figures	VI
	List of Tables	VII
	List of Abbreviations	VIII
	Chapter One / Introduction	1-10
1.1	Diabetes Mellitus	1
1.2	Diabetic Nephropathy	1
1.3	Insulin	3
1.4	Glucagon-Like Peptide-1	5
1.4.1	GLP-1 and diabetic nephropathy	6
1.5	G-Protein Coupled Receptors (GPCR)	6
	The Aim of Study	10
	Chapter Two / Chemicals and Methods	11-36
2.1	Chemicals	11
2.2	Instruments	11
2.3	Subjects	12
2.4	Blood Sample Collection	12
2.5	Analytical Methods and Procedures	13
2.5.1	Determination of Fasting Blood Glucose	13
2.5.2	Determination of HbA _{1C}	14

252		16	
2.5.3	Determination of blood urea		
2.5.4	Determination of creatinine		
2.5.5	Determination of albumin	19	
2.5.6	Determination of Total Cholesterol	20	
2.5.7	Determination of Triacylglycerol	21	
2.5.8	Determination of High Density Lipoproteins- Cholesterol (HDL-c)	23	
2.5.9	Estimation of LDL-c and VLDL-c	24	
2.5.10	Determination of Insulin Levels	25	
2.5.11	Estimation of HOMA-IR	28	
2.5.12	Determination of Glucagon Like Peptide -1 Levels		
2.5.13	Determination of G- Protein Coupled Receptor		
2.6	Statistical analysis		
	Chapter Three / Results and Discussion		
3.1	Analytical Parameters	37	
3.2	Correlation Relation of GLP-1 with the Studied Parameters	48	
3.3	Correlation Relation of GPCR with the Studied Parameters	51	
	Conclusions	55	

<u>Líst of Fígures</u>

No.	Figure	Page	
(1.1)	Structure of Insulin		
(1.2)	Degradation of pre proglucagon to give GLP-1		
(1.3)	Classical and Non-Traditional GPCR-Mediated Signaling Cascades		
(2.1)	Standard Preparation of Insulin	26	
(2.2)	Standard Preparation of Glucagon Like Peptide-1	31	
(3.1)	Fasting Blood glucose Levels in Sera of Three Studied Groups	38	
(3.2)	HbA _{1C} Levels in Blood of Three Studied Groups	38	
(3.3)	Urea Levels in Blood of Three Studied Groups	38	
(3.4)	Creatinine Levels in Blood of Three Studied Groups	39	
(3.5)	Albumin Levels in Blood of Three Studied Groups		
(3.6)	Total Cholesterol Levels in Sera of Three Studied Groups		
(3.7)	Triglyceride Levels in Sera of Three Studied Groups		
(3.8)	HDL-c Levels in Sera of Three Studied Groups		
(3.9)	LDL-c Levels in Sera of Three Studied Groups		
(3.10)	VLDL-c Levels in Sera of Three Studied Groups	42	
(3.11)	Insulin Levels in Sera of Three Studied Groups		
(3.12)	IR Levels in Sera of Three Studied Groups		
(3.13)	GLP-1 Levels in Sera of Three Studied Groups.		
(3.14)	GPCR Levels in Sera of Three Studied Groups		
(3.15)	Correlation between GLP-1 and urea for G1,G2,G3		
(3.16)	Correlation between GLP-1 and Creatinine for G1,G2,G3		

(3.17)	Correlation between GLP-1 and FBG for G1,G2,G3		
(3.18)	Correlation between GLP-1 and insulin for G1,G2,G3		
(3.19)	Correlation relation between GLP-1 and HbAIc% for G1,G2,G3		
(3.20)	Correlation between GPCR and HbA1c % for G1,G2,G3	52	
(3.21)	Correlation between GPCR and TC for G1,G2,G3	52	
(3.22)	Correlation between GPCR and TG for G1,G2,G3		
(3.23)	Correlation between GPCR and GLP-1 for G1,G2,G3		

<u>Líst of Tables</u>

No.	Table	Page
(2-1)	Chemicals and Suppliers	11
(2-2)	Instruments, company and their origin	11
(3-1)	Descriptive Parameters for G1,G2,G3	37
(3-2)	Lipid Profile Levels for G1,G2,G3	40
(3-3)	Insulin, IR, GLP-1 and GPCR Levels for All Studied Groups	43
(3-4)	r- value and T-test for GLP-1 with FBG, urea, createnine and insulin for G1,G2 and G3	48
(3-5)	r- value and p- value for GPCR with HbA1c, TC and TG for G1,G2 and G3	51

<u>Líst of Abbrevíatíons</u>

Abbreviations	Name	
ACE	Angiotensin-converting enzyme	
ADA	American Diabetes Association	
AGEs	Advanced Glycation End products	
T2DM	Type 2 diabetic mellitus	
GFR	Glomerular filtration rate	
cAMP	cyclic Adenosine Monophosphate	
DAG	Diacylglycerol	
DM	Diabetes mellitus	
DN	Diabetic Nephropathy	
DPN	Diabetic Peripheral Neuropathy	
DPP-4	dipeptidyl peptidase-IV	
DRGs	Dorsal Root Ganglia Neurons	
DW	Distal Water	
FFAR1	Free Fatty Acid Receptor-1	
GLUT1	Glucose Transporters 1	
GLUT2	Glucose Transporters 2	
GPCR	G-Protein Coupled Receptor	
GPLR	G Protein–Linked Receptors	
GPR146	G Protein-Coupled Receptor 146	
GRPP	Glicentin-Related Pancreatic polypeptide	
Gs protein	Gs protein (stimulating)	
GTP	Guanosine-5-Triphosphate	
HbA ₀	Non-Glycosylated Hemoglobin	

HbA _{1c}	Hemoglobin A1c	
HDL-c	High Density Lipoproteins- Cholesterol	
HOMA-IR	Homeostatic Model Assessment- Insulin Resistance	
HRP	Horseradish Peroxidase	
IGR	insulin glucagon ratio	
IkB	inhibitor of kappa B	
NADH	Nicotinamide Adenine Dinucleotide	
NADPH	Nicotinamide Adenine Dinucleotide Phosphate	
NFkB	nuclear factor kappa-light-chain-enhancer of activated B cells	
OD	Optical Density	
РКА	protein kinase A	
РКС	protein kinase C	
PLC	phospholipase C	
POD	Peroxidase	
ROS	Reactive Oxygen Species	
ТМВ	Tetra Methyl Benzidine	

Introduction (1) :

1.1 Diabetes Mellitus (1):

Diabetes is a multi-factorial disease process with a complex etiology. This involving insulin resistance, aberrations in glucose homeostasis, lipid metabolism, and inflammation . Further pancreatic beta cell toxicity $^{(1,2)}$ are linked to the microvascular complications in type 1 and type 2 diabetes such as retinopathies, nephropathies, and neuropathies, which can lead to blindness and kidney disease $^{(3)}$.

Genetic background is an important issue in determining susceptibility to diabetic nephropathy, but exposure of tissues to chronic hyperglycemia is the main initiating factor $^{(4)}$.

Early detection and active treatment can help in preventing the progression of complications and are therefore, considered to be very important for controlling diabetes mellitus. Oral glucose tolerance tests (O-GTT) also, have been used to measure fasting or postprandial blood glucose in the diagnosis of diabetes $^{(5,6)}$.

1.2 Diabetic Nephropathy

Diabetic nephropathy is a microvascular complication of diabetes ,which is due to end-stage renal disease . It is linked to elevation in cardiovascular disease⁽⁷⁾ . In nephropathy complicating Type 2 DM, chronic hyperglycaemia is central to the development of renal pathology ⁽⁸⁾. Although glomerular lesions are characteristic, it is increasingly recognized that the pathology within the tubulointerstitium, for example fibrosis, tubular atrophy and ischaemic damage, are ultimately more predictive of the renal outcome ⁽⁹⁾.

The renin–angiotensin system has an important role in the determination of renal disease, by inducing changes in arterial pressure, glomerular hemodynamics ⁽¹⁰⁾. Also by increasing oxidative stress and promoting expression of proinflammatory genes and pro-fibrotic factors in mesangial cells and vascular smooth muscle ⁽¹¹⁾. Additionally, angiotensin II induced mesangial cell and vascular smooth muscle proliferation, therefore this will lead to the enlargement of the arteriolar wall. Activated inflammatory cells, (T cells) producing angiotensin, this will produce reinforcing of the intrarenal angiotensin ⁽¹²⁾. Prospective controlled clinical studies show that ,angiotensin convert enzyme inhibitors, as well as angiotensin receptor blockers, which are able to stop or slow the progression of DN ⁽¹³⁾.

In subjects with T2DM, the Glomerular filtration rate decreases by approximately 6 mL/min per year, however, it has been observed that the addition of Angiotensin-converting enzyme inhibitors or ARBs to patients' treatment regimens, while not hypertensive, achieved a reduction in the rate of progression of the fall in Glomerular filtration rate, thereby stabilizing renal function for a prolonged period ⁽¹⁴⁾. Moreover, metabolic control reduces catabolism and improves nutritional status, decreases or delays the onset of DN, and reduces glomerular hyperfiltration ⁽¹⁵⁾.

Continued investigations into mechanisms of kidney failure in patients with DM will lead to the finding of novel strategies to limit cardiovascular and renal disease are imperative. Hence, investigating the effects of incretins pathology is an important goal for glucose, cardiovascular disease and renal pathology which are inherently attractive in the treatment of patients with DM $^{(16)}$.

2

More recently, there has been increasing interest in alternative mechanisms of glucose toxicity that resulting in nephropathy, including lipotoxicity, activation of inflammatory pathways and disruption of mitochondrial DNA bioenergetics among others. Among the⁽¹⁷⁾ cytokines, most prominent in the development of diabetic nephropathy are the profibrotic cytokines (transforming growth factor) β 1 and connective tissue growth factor ⁽¹⁸⁾.

Stimuli inherent in the diabetic milieu that activate these pathways and hence are considered to be integral to the development of diabetic nephropathy include hyperglycaemia ⁽¹⁹⁾, AGE formation ⁽²⁰⁾, glucosamine overproduction ⁽²¹⁾, Ang II (angiotensin II) ⁽²²⁾. Progressive proteinuria coupled with extracellular matrix (fibronectin and collagen) expansion and inflammation lead to scarring that ultimately compromises renal function ⁽²³⁾.

1.3 Insulin

Insulin (from the Latin, insula meaning island) is a anabolic peptide hormone produced by beta cells in the pancreas which regulates the metabolism of carbohydrates and fats by promoting the absorption of glucose from the blood to skeletal muscles and fat tissue and by storing fat as well as using it for energy ⁽²⁴⁾.

The human insulin consists of 51 amino acids, with a molecular weight of 5808 Dalton. It is a dimer of an A and B-chain, which are linked together by disulfide bridge as shown in figure $(1.1 \text{ A})^{(25)}$.



Figure (1-1): A. Structure of Insulin. B. Formation of Human Insulin from Preproinsulin⁽²⁵⁾.

Insulin produced by the norepinephrine which leads to an increase in the blood glucose levels during stress. Release of catecholamines by the sympathetic nervous system led to release of insulin by beta cells, that inhibited by α_2 -adrenergic receptors ⁽²⁶⁾ and stimulated by β_2 -adrenergic receptors ⁽²⁷⁾. The net effect of norepinephrine from sympathetic nerves and epinephrine from adrenal glands on insulin release is inhibition due to dominance of the α -adrenergic receptors ⁽²⁸⁾.

The net effect of insulin is to enhance storage and block mobilization and oxidation of fatty acids. Insulin exerts its effect by formation of stimulating lipoprotienlipase, thus circulating triglycerides are hydrolyzed and free fatty acids can enter the adipocyte. Insulin is also required for the transport of glucose, which is needed for re-esterification of the triglycerides once inside the adipocyte. The conversion of glucose to fatty acids is accomplished by insulin's activation of several enzymes⁽²⁹⁾.

1.4 Glucagon-Like Peptide-1

Glucagon-like peptide 1 (GLP-1) is traditionally recognised as a peripheral incretin hormone. Released postprandially from intestinal L-cells, it binds to GLP-1 receptors (GLP-1R) on pancreatic β -cells to increase insulin secretion. Additionally, GLP-1 considered as a neuropeptide produced by preproglucagon neurons found in the brainstem, (lower) in the caudal nucleus tractus solitarii and the intermediate reticular nucleus intermediate ⁽³⁰⁾.

Pro-glucagon is secreted by the intestinal mucosa which then cleaved to GLP-1, that acts on the GLP-1 receptor in the pancreas in a glucose-dependent manner and function to stimulate pancreatic insulin release and suppress glucagon secretion, with the net effect of regulating postprandial glucose excursions. These hormones have a very short half-life that degraded rapidly by dipeptidyl peptidase-4, DPP-4 to which cleaves two amino acids at the N-terminal end of peptides (proline or less commonly an alanine) residue at the penultimate position. Hence GLP-1-(7-36)amide is cleaved to GLP-1-(9-36) amide, (the major form) ^(31,32). As shown in figure (1-2)



Figure (1-2): Degradation of pre proglucagon to give GLP-1⁽³²⁾

The GLP-1 receptor agonist class has important actions for type 2 diabetes patients which increase in glucose-mediated insulin production by pancreatic β -cells^(33,34) leading to hyporglycemia. Other actions include a decrease or no change in fasting endogenous glucose release via a reduction in glycogenolysis but not gluconeogenesis and a reduction in glucagon secretion ⁽³⁵⁾. The GLP-1 receptor agonists also act via the central nervous system, and lowered intake food ^(36,37).

The GLP-1 analogue drug class offers a drug regimen for people with type 2 diabetes. It is well tolerated by users, weight neutral and with a low risk of hypoglycaemia ⁽³⁸⁾.

1.4.1 GLP-1 and diabetic nephropathy

Researchers suggested that a long- term treatment with the GLP-1R agonist ameliorates diabetic nephropathy in DM animal models, has an effect the glomerular endothelial and inflammatory on cells infiltrating⁽³⁹⁾.Effects of the GLP-1 on the kidney include modulation of sodium homoeostasis in the kidney via its action on proximal tubular $^{(40)}$. This has been with intravenous infusions of GLP-1 which enhanced sodium excretion, reduced H+ secretion and reduced glomerular hyperfiltration in obese improving its effect on proximal renal tubule level $^{(41)}$.

1.5 G-Protein Coupled Receptors

G protein coupled receptors (GPCRs) are the most abundant receptor family encoded by the human genome. Therefore, they are the target of a large percentage of drugs currently prescribed in the United States. Recently, several GPCRs have been identified as potential therapeutic targets for the treatment of diabetes and diabetes-associated complications, including retinopathy, nephropathy, and neuropathy ⁽⁴²⁾. All GPCRs have the same structural features comprise seven transmembrane domains, three extracellular and three intracellular loops, and contain cysteine residues in the second extracellular loop that could be have a role in the formation of the ligand binding pocket. The N-terminal region of GPCRs are extracellular and action in ligand specificity, while the C-terminal cytoplasmic tail may has an effect in signaling of GPCR comprising linked with G protein Receptor Kinases (GRKs) ⁽⁴³⁾.

GPCRs classified into five classes; however, most small peptide hormones that signal via a GPCR, The rhodopsin family (701 members), the adhesion family (24 members) , the frizzled/taste family (24members), the glutamate family (15 members) , and the secretin family (15 members) $^{(43)}$.

The "classical" signalling pathways initiated by the activation of these Class A and B receptors comprise a complex series of steps, containing dissociation of G proteins, GTP hydrolysis, and re-association of the G protein trimer . The GPCR signalling comprise induction or inhibition of adenylate cyclase by Gas or Gai, respectively . Adenylate cyclase activation triggers cAMP formation, cAMP linked to the regulatory subunits of PKA and a consequent allosteric change leads to release of the PKA catalytic subunits. then PKAc phosphorylates downstream targets, that have a role in the regulation of metabolic enzymes and activation of transcription factors ⁽⁴⁴⁾. As shown in Figure (1-3).

7



Figure (1-3): Classical and Non-Traditional GPCR-Mediated Signaling Cascades⁽⁴⁴⁾.

In 1997, Zhong et al. ⁽⁴⁵⁾ were the first to identify a new signalling pathway with cAMP-independent activation of PKA in rabbit lung cytosol extract .

Suggested that there are two separate vasoactive peptides, endothelin-1 and angiotensin II, via GPCR binding, induced the cAMP-independent PKAc activation. A major cells of the cortical collecting duct in the mammalian kidney, when induced , display elevation in ouabain binding sites and an increase in the PKA that prevented by PKA inhibitors. No elevation in the cAMP was observed . Further, PKA activation was prevented by inhibiting the proteasome ⁽⁴⁶⁾.

Activation of GPCRs coupled to Gas leads to stimulation of AC activity, led to the elevation at protein kinase A (PKA) activity, and downstream signaling events, including alterations in gene transcription.

Alternatively, dissociation of G α s can cause activation of the IKK (IkB kinase) . In turn IKK phosphorylates IkB (inhibitor of kappa B), leading to the proteosomal degradation of IkB and dissociation of the IkB-NFkB-PKA complex. This will led to activation of B cells, then translocates to the nucleus to act as a transcription factor ⁽⁴⁷⁾.

One such receptor, GPR40 (free fatty acid receptor 1 or FFAR1), is expressed in pancreatic beta cells as well as in brain, omental adipocytes, and endocrine cells of GI mucosa. Activation by medium- or long-chained free fatty acids leads to insulin secretion in a glucose-dependent manner $^{(48)}$.

Recent study ,revealed that GPCRs are abundantly expressed in the pancreatic islets and may play an important role in the normal glucose homeostasis and microvascular function ⁽⁴⁹⁾.

9

Aim of the study (1)

Aim of the present study is :

1- to determined GLP-1 levels in diabetic and diabetic nephropathy and compare the results with control individuals .

2- to determination of GPCR levels in diabetic and diabetic nephropathy patients and compare the results with control group .

3- to find relationship for GLP-1with urea, creatinine, insulin and HbA1c in these patient, in order to be used as a marker in monitoring the development of diabetic to its complication in these patients.

4- to find relationship of GPCR with HbA1c, TC and TG in these patients , in order to that GPCR could be used as a marker combat diabetes and its complication .

Chemicals and Methods (1):

2.1 Chemicals:

Chemicals used in the current study were obtained from various companies, see table (2-1).

Table (2-1):- Chemicals and Suppliers.

Chemicals	Company, Origin		
Glucose (GLUC-PAP) Kit	Randox Laboratories Limited, United Kingdom.		
HbA1c Kit	Stanbio Laboratory An EKF Diagnostics Co., USA.		
Insulin kit	Elabscience Biotechnology Co. Ltd, China		
GLP-1 kit			
Lipid Profile	Human Gesellschaft for biochemical and Diagnostica mbH, Germany.		
Urea kit	Biosystem S.A. (spain)		
Creatinine kit	Biosystem S.A. (spain)		
Albumin kit	Biosystem S.A. (spain)		
GPCR kit	BlueGene Biotechnology Co. Ltd, China		

2.2 Instruments:

Instruments-company and their origin- which are used in this study are listed in table (2-2).

Table (2-2):- Instruments, company and their origin.

Instruments	Company, origin
ELISA human reader and washer	Bio Tek, USA
Analytical balance	Ohans (France)

Spectrophotometer UV-Visible beam	Labomed (England)
Deep freeze	FROILABO, France
Water bath	Gemmy, YCW-01
Centrifuge	Hettich, Japan
pH meter	Genway (UK)
Shaker incubator	Gallenkamp (UK)
Micropipettes	Oxford (USA)

2.3 Subjects:

One hundred fifty individuals with age ranged between (40-65) years were enrolled in this study. They divided into three groups as follows:-

- 1. Group (G1) that consists of 50 healthy individuals as control group .
- 2. Group (G2) that consists of 50 diabetic patients .
- 3. Group (G3) that consists of 50 diabetic nephropathy patients.

The patients attended the diabetic & endocrinology center in Al-Yarmouk Teaching Hospital between June 2017 to September 2017. Patients with smoking and kidney disease were excluded

2.4 Blood Sample Collection:

Ten milliliters of venous blood was drawn from the study cases and control sample placed in a plane tube and left for (15 min) at room temperature, and then centrifuged at 3500 rpm for 10 min. Serum that obtained was stored at (-20° C) unless used immediately. whole blood was used in the determination of HbA1c .

2.5 Analytical Methods and Procedures:

2.5.1 Determination of Fasting Blood Glucose:

Principle:

Glucose was estimated by enzymatic reaction in the presence of glucose oxidase (GOD) and peroxidase (POD), A red-violet quinoneimine dye was produce according to the following equation⁽⁵⁰⁾.

 $\begin{array}{ccc} Glucose + O_2 + H_2O & \longrightarrow & Gluconic \ acid + H_2O_2 \\ \\ 2 \ H_2O_2 + 4-Aminophenazone + Phenol & \xrightarrow{POD} & Quinoneimine + 4 \ H_2O \end{array}$

Reagents	Concentration
1) Phosphate buffer pH 7.0	0.1mmol/L
2) Phenol	11mmol/L
3) GOD-PAP Reagent which involved:	
- 4-Aminophenazone	0.77 1/4
- Glucose oxidase	0.77mmol/L
- Peroxidase	≥1.5kU/L
	$\geq 1.5 kU/L$
4) Standard glucose	100mg/dL

Procedure:

Working solution: the content of a one vial of GOD-PAP reagent was mixed with the amount of buffer 1(phosphate buffer and phenol). The solution transferred to bottle 1, with rinsing several times. The series of tubes were prepared as follows:

	Blank	Standard	Sample	
Standard		10µL		
Serum			10µL	
Distilled water	10µL			
Working solution 1000µL 1000µL 1000µL				
Tubes were mixed , and incubated for 5 minutes at 37° C . The absorbance was recorded for the sample (A _{sample}) and standard (A _{Standard}) via blank at $(\lambda_{max}=500$ nm).				

Glucose conc. (mg / dL) =
$$\frac{\text{A sample}}{\text{A standard}} \times 100 \text{ mg/dl}$$

2.5.2 Determination of Glycated Hemoglobin (HbA_{1C}):

Principle:

A hemolyzed whole blood was mixed with a weakly binding cationexchange resin. The non-glycosylated hemoglobin (HbA₀) was linked to the resin, leaving (HbA₁) free to be removed by a resin separator. The percent of HbA₁ was measured by evaluation of the absorbance values at 415nm of the HbA₁ fraction and of the total Hb fraction,by calculating the ratio of absorbances (R).This ratio comparing was compared to the ratio of a glycohemoglobin standard that obtained from the same procedure⁽⁵¹⁾.

Reagents:

Glycohemoglobin Ion-Exchange Resin (Tubes) in which tube includes:
 3.0 mL cation-exchange resin and 8 mg/dL buffer at pH 6.9.

2. Glycohemoglobin Lysing Reagent: which consists of potassium cyanide (10 mmol/L) and surfactants.

3. Glycohemoglobin Standard (Lyophilized): that prepared from packed human erythrocytes.

Reagent Preparation:

A liquate of 1.0 mL DW was added to the vial of standard glycohemoglobin. Rubber stopper was replaced and allowed to stand for 10min at room temperature. The mixture was swirled gently until the solution was completed.

Procedure:

Hemolysate Preparation:

1. A liquate of 0.5 mL Lysing reagent was pipetted into Standard (S), Unknown (U) and Control (C) tubes.

2. A liquate of 0.1 mL of each blood sample was added into the appropriately labeled tubes, mixed and allowed to stand for 5min at room temperature ($15-30^{\circ}$ C) to complete hemolysis.

Glycohemoglobin Separation and Assay:

1. Pre-Fill resin tube Standard (S), Unknown (U) and Control (C) were labeled.

2. A liquate of 0.1 mL of the prepared hemolysate was added into the appropriately labeled resin tube.

3. A resin separator was put in the Pre-Fill tube.

4. Tubes were mixed on a hematology rocker for 5min.

5. At the end of the 5min mixing, resin eluent was introduced into tube until resin was firmly packed in the bottom of the 13min tube.

6. Each supernatant was poured directly into separate cuvettes for absorbance that recorded against D.W at 415nm, within 60 minutes.

Total Hemoglobin Assay:

1. A liquate of 5.0 mL DW was pipetted into the labeled tubes; Standard (S), Unknown (U) and Control (C).

2. Hemolysate (0.02 mL) was pipetted into , mixed , and then transferred to cuvettes to measure absorbance .

3. Absorbance (A_{tot}) of Control, Standard and Unknown were recorded against D.W at 415nm, within 60 minutes.

Results:

The HbA_{1C} percentage was calculated as follows :

 $R(unknown) = \frac{\text{Agly}(unknown)}{\text{Atot}(unknown)}$ $R((\text{standard})) = \frac{\text{Agly}(\text{standard})}{\text{Atot}(\text{standard})}$

Glycohemoglobin (%) = $\frac{R \text{ (unknown)}}{R \text{ (standard)}} \times \text{Conc. of Glycohemoglobin standard (%)}$

2.5.3 Determination of blood urea :

Principle:

The urea level was estimated after enzymatic hydrolysis by urease enzyme an Indophenol compound was generated from salicylate and Hypochlorite as shown below .The intensity of the green complex is equal to the amount of urea found in the sample⁽⁵²⁾.

 $\begin{array}{cccc} \text{urease} & & \\ \text{Urea} + & \text{H}_2\text{O} & \longrightarrow & 2\text{NH}_4^+ + \text{CO}_2 \\ \text{NH}_4^+ + & \text{Salicylate} + \text{NaCIO} & \xrightarrow{\text{Nitroprusside}} & \\ \text{Indophenol} \end{array}$

Reagents:

Reagents	Concentration
R 1:	
Sodium salicylate	62 mmol/L
Sodium nitroprusside	3.4 mmol/L
Phosphate buffer pH(6.9)	20 mmol/L
R 2 : Urease	>500U/mL
Sodium hypochlorite	7 mmol/L
Sodium hydroxide	150 mmol/L
Standard / Urea	50mg/dL

Procedure:

	Reagent blank	Standard or Sample
Standard / Sample		10µL
Distilled water	10µL	
Reagent R1	1000µL	1000µL
Tubes were mixed and incubated for 5 minutes at 37° C after that R2 was added to the mixture ,which Incubated for 5 minutes at 37° C. The absorbance of the sample / standard was recorded versus the blank reagent (ΔA) during 60 minute at (λ_{max} =600nm).		

Urea Concentration $\left(\frac{\text{mg}}{\text{dL}}\right) = \frac{\Delta A \text{ sample}}{\Delta A \text{ standard}} \times 50 \text{ mg/dl}$

2.5.4 Determination of Creatinine :

Principle:

Creatinine in the sample was reacted with picrate in alkaline medium forming a coloured complex (J affe method $)^{(53)}$.

Reagents:

Reagents	Concentration
R 1:Sodium hydroxide	0.4 mol/L
R 2 : Picric acid	25 mmol/L
Standard / Creatinine	2 mg/dL

Procedure:

	Reagent blank	Standard or Sample
Standard / Sample		100µL
Distilled water	100µL	
Reagent R1	500 μL	500 μL
Reagent R1	500 μL	500 μL
Tubes were mixed and absorbance was recorded at 500 nm after 30 second and 90 second for (A_1) and (A_2) ,respectively.		

Creatinine Con.
$$\left(\frac{\text{mg}}{\text{dL}}\right) = \frac{(A2-A1)\text{sample}}{(A2-A1)\text{standard}} \times 2 \text{ mg/dl}$$

2.5.5 Determination of Albumin :

Principle:

The method of determination of albumin is depending on the specific binding of bromocresol green (anionic dye), and the protein at acidic pH. This resulting a shift in the absorption wavelength of the complex. The concentration of albumin is equal to the intensity of color $^{(54)}$.

BCG + Albumin $\xrightarrow{pH 4.3}$ BCG-albumin complex

Reagents:

Reagents	Concentration
Bromocresol reagent :	
Succinate buffer pH 4.3	75 mmol/L
BCG	0.12 mmol/L
Standard / Albumin	5 mg/dL

Procedure:

	Reagent blank	Standard or Sample
Standard / Sample		10µL
Distilled water	10µL	
Reagent	2000µL	2000µL
Tube were mixed and let to stand 1 minute at 25° C . The absorbance were		
read for (A) samples , standard at 630 nm via blank .		

Albumin Concentration (g/dL) = $\frac{\Delta A \text{ sample}}{\Delta A \text{ standard}} \times \text{Conc. of Standard}$

2.5.6 Determination of Total Cholesterol:

Principle:

Cholesterol was evaluated using spectrophotometeric method after enzymatic hydrolysis of cholesterol ester and oxidation of the free cholesterol. The marker (quinoneimine) was generated from 4aminophenazone and phenol in the presence of hydrogen peroxide and peroxidase .The intensity of the pink complex is proportional to the total cholesterol found in the sample ⁽⁵⁵⁾.

Cholesterol ester + H_2O $\xrightarrow{\text{Cholesterol esterase}}$ cholesterol + fatty acid Cholesterol + O_2 $\xrightarrow{\text{Cholesterol oxidase}}$ cholest-en-3-one + H_2O_2 $2H_2O_2+4$ -aminophenazone + Phenol $\xrightarrow{\text{peroxidase}}$ Quinoneimine_(pink complex)+ $4H_2O$

Reagents:

Reagents	Concentration
Phosphate buffer pH(6.5)	100 mmol/L
4-aminophenazone	0.3 mmol/L
Phenol	5 mmol/L
Cholesterolesterase	> 150 U/L
Cholesteroloxidase	> 100U/L
Peroxidase	> 5 KU/L
Sodium azide	0.05%
Standard / Cholesterol	200mg/dL or 5.17mmol/L

Procedure:

	Reagent blank	Standard or Sample
Standard / Sample		10µL
Distilled water	10µL	
Reagent	1000µL	1000µL
Tubes were mixed and incubated for 5 minutes at 37° C. The absorbance of		
the sample / standard was recorded versus the blank reagent (ΔA) during 60		
minutes at (λ_{max} =500nm).		

Calculation:

Cholesterol Concentration $\left(\frac{\text{mg}}{\text{dL}}\right) = \frac{\Delta A \text{ sample}}{\Delta A \text{ standard}} \times 200 \text{mg/dl}$

2.5.7 Determination of Triacylglycerol:

Principle:

The triacylglycerol (TG) level was estimated after enzymatic hydrolysis by lipoprotein lipase. Quinoneimine that formed from hydrogen peroxide, 4-aminophenazone and 4-chlorophenol under the catalytic influence of peroxide as an indicator, is shown in the following equation ⁽⁵⁶⁾.

Triacylglycerols+ H₂O —LPL \longrightarrow glycerol + fatty acids Glycerol + ATP \xrightarrow{GK} glycerol-3-phosphate+ ADP Glycerol-3-phosphate \xrightarrow{GPO} Dihydroxyaceton phosphate+ H₂O₂ 2 H₂O₂+ 4-aminophenazone +4-chlorophenol \xrightarrow{POD} Quinoneimine
Reagents:

Reagents	Concentration
PIPES buffer (pH 7.5)	50 mmol/L
4-chlorophenol	5 mmol/L
4-aminophenazone	0.25 mmol/L
Magnesium Chloride	4.5 mmol/L
ATP	2 mmol/L
lipoprotein lipase	≥1300 U/L
glycerol kinase	≥400 U/L
glycerol-3-phosphate oxidase	≥1500 U/L
Peroxide	≥500 U/L
Sodium azide	0.05%
Standard Triacylglycerol	200mg/dL

Procedure:

	Reagent blank	Standard or Sample		
Standard / Sample		10µL		
Distilled water	10µL			
Reagent	1000µL	1000µL		
Solutions were mixed,	and then incubated f	or 5 minutes at 37° C. The		
absorbance of the sample (ΔA_{sample}) and standard (ΔA_{blank}) was recorded				
versus the blank reagent during 60 minutes at (λ_{max} =500nm).				

Calculation:

Triacylglycerol Concentration (mg/dL) = $\frac{\Delta A \text{ sample}}{\Delta A \text{ standard}} \times 200 \text{ mg/dl}$

2.5.8 Determination of High Density Lipoproteins-Cholesterol (HDL-c): Principle:

Phosphotungstic acid was added magnesium ions presence led to LDL, VLDL and chylomicron fractions precipitation quantitatively. The cholesterol concentration in the HDL fraction, which remains in the supernatant, after centrifugation was determined ⁽⁵⁷⁾.

Reagents	Concentration	
- Precipitant:		
Phosphotungstic Acid	0.55 mmol/L	
Magnesium Chloride	25 mmol/L	
Standard Cholesterol	55 mg/dL	

Procedure:

1. Precipitation

	Semi- micro
Sample/Standard	200 µL
Precipitant (R1)	
Diluted Precipitant (R1)	500µL

The above reagents were piptted into a centrifuge tube, mixed and then incubated 10 minutes at room temperature. The sample was centrifuged for 10 minutes, for at $40,000 \times g$. The clear supernatant was separated from the precipitate within 1 hour after centrifugation and cholesterol concentration was estimated by using cholesterol liquicolor reagent.

2. Cholesterol CHOD- PAP Assay:

	Blank	Standard	Sample
DW	100 µL		
Supernatant			100 μL
Standard Supernatant		100 μL	
Reagent	1000 μL	1000 μL	1000 μL

The mixture was incubated for10 minutes at 25° C. The absorbance of the sample and standard was recorded, respectively, versus the blank reagent through 60 minutes at (λ_{max} =500nm).

Calculation:

HDL Concentration
$$\left(\frac{\text{mg}}{\text{dl}}\right) = \frac{\Delta A \text{ sample}}{\Delta A \text{ standard}} \times 55 \text{ mg/dl}$$

2.5.9Estimation of LDL-c and VLDL-c:

The LDL-c and VLDL-c were calculated according to Friedewald formula⁽⁵⁸⁾, as displayed in below:

 $LDL - c (mg/dL) = TC - [HDL - c + \frac{TG}{5}]$

$$VLDL - c(mg/dL) = \frac{TG}{5}$$

2.5.10 Determination of Insulin Levels:

Principle:

Competitive (ELISA) technique was used in the estimation of insulin levels which the microtiter plate provided in this kit was pre-coated with insulin . During the reaction, insulin in the sample or standard competes with a fixed amount of INS on the solid phase supporter for sites on the biotinylated detection Ab specific to INS. Excess conjugate and unbound sample or standard were washed from the plate. Avidin was added to conjugate Horseradish Peroxidase in well microplate and then incubated. Then a Tetra Methyl Benzidine substrate solution was added per well. The enzyme-substrate reaction was stopped by adding sulphuric acid and changing in the color was measured spectrophotometrically at 450 nm. The concentration of insulin in the samples was obtained from the optical density of the samples that compared to a standard curve⁽⁵⁹⁾.

Materials:

- 1) Micro ELISA Plate (96 well)
- 2) Reference Standard
- 3) Reference Standard & Sample Diluent (20mL)
- 4) Biotinylated Detection Ab (120µL) (Concentrated)
- 5) Biotinylated Detection Ab (Diluent 10mL)
- 6) Concentrated HRP Conjugate (120µL)
- 7) HRP Conjugate Diluent (10mL)
- 8) Concentrated Wash Buffer (25x) (30mL)
- 9) Substrate Reagent (10mL)

10) Stop Solution (10mL)

11) Plate Sealer

Reagent Preparation:

1) Wash Buffer: A liquate of 30 mL of concentrated wash buffer was diluted into 750 mL of wash buffer with DW. Unused solution was stored at 4°C. The solution was warmed to 40°C in a water bath (heating temperature should not exceed 50°C), if crystals formed, in a tubes were mixed gently until the crystals have completely dissolved. The solution was cooled to room temperature before use.

2) Standard: A standard was prepared 15 minutes before use, centrifuged at $10,000 \times g$ for 1 minute, and then was mixed with 1.0mL of reference standard and sample diluent. The lid was tightened, stands for 10 minutes and turned it upside down for several times. After it dissolves fully, the lid mixed thoroughly with a pipette. This mixture produced a stock solution of 2500pg/mL. A series of dilutions were prepared as follows: 2500, 1250, 625, 312.5, 156.25, 78.125, 39.063 and 0 pg/mL. Standard and sample diluents were refereed and mixed. The undiluted standard was served as the highest standard (2500pg/mL) while the reference standard & sample diluents were served as the zero (0 pg/mL).



Figure (2.1): A standard sequence for Preparation of Insulin.

3) Biotinylated Detection Ab: The required amount was calculated before experiment (50μ L/well). The stock tube was centrifuged before use; the concentrated biotinylated detection Ab was diluted to the working concentration using biotinylated detection Ab diluent (1:100).

4) Concentrated HRP Conjugate: Amount that required was competed before experiment (100μ L/well). The HRP (concentrated) conjugate was diluted by using HRP conjugate diluent (1:100).

5) Substrate Reagent: The needed dosage of the reagent can be aspirated with sterilized tips.

Washing Procedure:

1. Automated Washer: A liquate of 350μ L wash buffer was added for each well. The interval between injection and suction should be set about 60s.

2. Manual Wash: A liquate of 350µL wash buffer was added per well, soaked for 1~2minutes. After the last wash, any remaining wash buffer was decanted by inverting the plate and blotting it dry by rapping it firmly against clean and absorbent paper , which was toweled on a hard surface.

Procedure:

After thawing, the sample was centrifuged again before the assay. All the reagents were mixed thoroughly by gently swirling before pipetting.

1. A liquate of 50μ L of standard, blank, or sample was added into each well. The blank was added with reference standard and sample diluents. Immediately, 50μ L of biotinylated detection Ab working solution was added per well, covered with the plate sealer. The plate was tapped to ensure thorough mixing and incubated for 45minutes at 37^{0} C. 2. Every well was aspirated and washed. The process was repeated 3 times by filling every well with wash buffer (approximately 350μ L). Any remaining wash buffer was removed after the last wash by aspirating or decanting, invert the plate which was pated via thick clean absorbent paper.

3. A 100 μ L of HRP conjugate was added per well, covered , incubated for 30 minutes at 37⁰C.

4. The aspiration/wash process was repeated for five times as conducted in step2.

5. A liquate of 90μ L of substrate solution was added per well, covered with a new plate sealer and incubated for about 15 minutes at 37^{0} C. The reaction time could be reduced or extended according to the actual color change, but not more than 30minutes. When apparent gradient appeared in the standard wells, the reaction was stopped by the addition of liquate of (50µL) of stop solution for every well which the color was turned to yellow immediately.

6. The optical density of each well was evaluated at once at 450 nm.

Calculation:

The average of the two recording data for every standard and samples were calculated then substrate the average zero standard optical density. A standard curve was created by plotting the mean of the OD value for every standard on the y-axis against the concentration on the x-axis and curve was drawn through the points on the graph.

2.5.11 Estimation of Homeostatic Model Assessment-Insulin Resistance:

Homeostatic Model Assessment-Insulin Resistance (HOMA-IR) was calculated according to Matthews *et al.* equation in 1985 as follows:

$$HOMA - IR = \frac{Glucose \times Insulin}{405}$$

This equation is used when glucose concentration is in mg/dL⁽⁶⁰⁾.

2.5.12 Determination of Glucagon Like Peptide -1:

Principle:

ELISA kit was used in the estimation of GLP-1, in which the micro plate was pre-coated with antibody specific to GLP-1. Samples, standards were added to the plate wells and a biotinylated detection antibody specific for GLP-1. Avidin-HRP conjugate was added to every micro plate well and incubated. The substrate solution was added to every well. Wells colored with blue that contain GLP-1, biotinylated detection antibody and Avidin-HRP conjugate . The enzyme-substrate reaction was stopped by sulphuric acid addition then , the color become yellow. The optical density (OD) was measured spectrophotometrically at a wavelength of 450 nm . The OD value was proportional to the concentration of GLP-1. The concentration of GLP-1 in the samples was calculated by comparing the OD of the samples to the standard curve.

Materials:

- 1) Micro ELISA Plate (96 well)
 - 2) Reference Standard
- 3) Reference Standard & Sample Diluent (20mL)
- 4) Biotinylated Detection Ab (120µL) (Concentrated)
- 5) Biotinylated Detection Ab Diluent (10mL)
- 6) Concentrated HRP Conjugate (120µL)

- 7) HRP Conjugate Diluent (10mL)
- 8) Concentrated Wash Buffer (25x) (30mL)
- 9) Substrate Reagent (10mL)
- 10) Stop Solution (10mL)
- 11) Plate Sealer

Reagent Preparation:

1) Wash Buffer: A liquate of 30 mL of concentrated wash buffer was diluted into 750 mL with DW. Unused solution was stored at 4°C. The solution was warmed to 40°C in water bath (heating temperature should not exceed 50°C). If crystals were formed, the solution was mixed gently until crystals have completely dissolved. The solution was cooled to room temperature before use.

2) Standard: The standard was prepared within 15 minutes prior to use, centrifuged at $10,000 \times g$ for 1 minute, and the standard was mixed with 1.0mL of reference standard &sample diluent. The lid was tightened, standed for 10 minutes and turned it upside down for several times. After it dissolved fully, the lid mixed thoroughly with a pipette. This mixture produced a stock solution of 20ng/mL. Serial dilutions were prepared as follows: 20, 10, 5, 2.5, 1.25, 0.625, 0.313 and 0 ng/mL. Standard &sample diluents were refereed and mixed. The undiluted standard was served as the highest standard (20ng/mL) while the reference standard &sample diluents were served as the zero (0 ng/mL).

Chapter two



Figure (2.2): Standard Preparation of Glucagon Like Peptide-1.

3) Biotinylated Detection Ab: The required amount was calculated before experiment (50μ L/well). The stock tube was centrifuged before use; the concentrated biotinylated detection Ab was diluted to the working concentration using biotinylated detection Ab (diluent 1:100).

4) Concentrated HRP Conjugate: The required amount was calculated before experiment (100μ L/well). The concentrated HRP conjugate was diluted to the working concentration using HRP conjugate diluent (1:100).

5) Substrate Reagent: As it is sensitive to light and contaminants, so the vial was opened until need it. The needed dosage of the reagent can be aspirated with sterilized tips and the unused residual reagent shouldn't be dumped back into the vial again.

Washing Procedure:

1. Automated Washer: A liquate of 350μ L wash buffer was added for every well, the interval between injection and suction should be set about 60s.

2. Manual Wash: A liquate of 350µLwash buffer was added per well, soaked for 1~2minutes. After the last wash, any remaining wash buffer was

decanted by inverting the plate and blotting it dry by rapping it firmly against clean and absorbent paper was toweled on a hard surface.

Procedure:

After thawing the sample was centrifuged again before the assay. All the reagents were mixed thoroughly by gently swirling before pipetting.

1. A liquate of 100μ L of standard, blank, or sample was added into each well. The blank was added with reference standard &sample diluents. Immediately 50 μ L of biotinylated detection Ab working solution was added per well, covered with the plate sealer. The plate was tapped to ensure thorough mixing incubated for 90 minutes at 37^{0} C.

2. Every well was aspirated and washed. The process was repeated three times by filling every well with wash buffer (approximately 350μ L). Any remaining wash buffer was removed after the last wash by aspirating or decanting, inverted the plate which was pated via thick clean absorbent paper.

3. A liquate of 100μ L of HRP conjugate working solution was added per well, covered with a new plate sealer, incubated for 30 minutes at 37^{0} C. 4. The aspiration/wash process was repeated for five times as conducted in step2.

5. A liquate of 90μ L of substrate solution was added per well, covered with a new plate sealer, incubated for about (15 minutes at 37^{0} C). The reaction time can be shortened or extended according to the actual color change, but not more than 30minutes. When apparent gradient appeared in standard wells, the reaction was stopped by addition of liquate of 50μ L of stop solution for every well where the color turn to yellow immediately. 6. The optical density of each well was estimated at once, using a microplate reader set to 450 nm.

Calculation:

The average of the duplicate reading of each standard and samples were calculated, and then subtract the average zero standard optical density. A standard curve was created by plotting the mean of OD value of each standard on the y-axis against the concentration on the x-axis and a curve was drawn through the points on the graph.

2.5.13 Determination of G- Protein Coupled Receptor:

Principle:

Sandwich ELISA technique was used in the determination of GPCR. The micro titer plate was pre-coated with a monoclonal antibody specific for GPCR. Standards or samples were added to the microtiter plate wells and GPCR if present will link to the antibody pre-coated wells. In order to determine the amount of GPCR in the sample, a standardized preparation of HRP-conjugated polyclonal antibody, specific for GPCR, were added to each well to "sandwich" the GPCR immobilized on the plate. The microtiter plate undergoes incubation, and then the wells were thoroughly washed to remove all unbound components. Next, substrate solutions were added to every well. The enzyme HRP and substrate were allowed to react over a short incubation period. Only those wells that contain GPCR and enzymeconjugated antibody will exhibit a change in color. The enzyme-substrate reaction was stopped by the addition of a sulphuric acid solution and the color change was measured spectrophotometrically at a wavelength of 450 nm. A standard curve was plotted relating the intensity of the color OD to the concentration of standards. The GPCR concentration in every sample was interpolated from this standard curve.

Materials:

All reagents provided in the kit which stored at 2-8° C are mentioned below:

- 1) Microtiter Plate (96 wells)
- 2) Enzyme Conjugate (10 mL)
- 3) Standard A (0 ng/mL)
- 4) Standard B (1.0 ng/mL)
- 5) Standard C (2.5 ng/mL)
- 6) Standard D (5.0 ng/mL)
- 7) Standard E (10 ng/mL)
- 8) Standard F (25 ng/mL)
- 9) Substrate A (6 mL)
- 10) Substrate B (6 mL)
- 11) Stop Solution (6 mL)
- 12) Wash Solution (100 x) (10 mL)
- 13) Balance Solution (6 mL)

Reagents Preparation:

Wash solution was prepared by diluting of 10 mL of wash solution concentrate (100×) with 990 mL of DW. The solution was stable (2 weeks at $2-8^{\circ}$ C).

Procedure:

1) The desired numbers of coated wells were secured in the holder then 50 μ L of standards or samples were added to the appropriate well in the antibody pre-coated microtiter plate. A liquate of 50 μ L of PBS (pH 7.0-7.2) was added in the blank control well.

2) A liquate of 5 μ L of balance solution was dispensed into 50 μ L specimens and mixed well.

3) A liquate of 100 μ L of conjugate was added to every well (not blank control well), them mixed well. Incubated for 1 hour at 37°C.

4) The microtiter plate was washed using one of the specified methods indicated below:

a) Manual Washing: The incubated mixture was removed by aspirating contents of the plate into a sink or a proper waste container. Every well was filled completely with $1 \times$ wash solution, and then aspirate contents of the plate into a sink or proper waste container. Procedure was repeated (5 times) for a total of five washes. After washing, the plate was inverted, and blotted dry by hitting the plate onto absorbent paper or paper towels until no moisture appears.

b) Automated Washing: The plate was washed five times with diluted wash solution (350-400 μ L/well/wash) using an auto washer. Then the plate is dried as above. It was recommended that the washer should be set for a soaking time of 10 seconds and shaking time of 5 seconds between every wash.

5) A liquate of 50 μ L of substrate A and 50 μ L of substrate B were added to every well including theblank control well, than covered and incubated for 10-15 minutes at 20-25°C. (Avoid sunlight).

6) A liquate of 50 μ L of Stop Solution was added to every well including blank control well, mixed well.

7) The OD was recorded at 450 nm using a microplate reader immediately.

Calculation:

1) The estimation level of GPCR in samples was found by using standard curve .

2) The average of the duplicate was made for every standard and sample. All OD values were subtracted by the mean value of blank control before the interpretation of result .

3) A standard curve was performed by ploted the average OD for every standard on the vertical (Y) axis versus the concentration on the horizontal (X) axis. A curve was drawn using graph paper or statistical software to generate a linear regression, four parameter logistic (4-PL) curve-fit or curvilinear regression of second degree. An x-axis for the optical density and a y-axis for the concentration was also a choice. The data may be linearized by plotting the log of the concentrations versus the log of the OD and the best fit line can be determined by regression analysis.

4) The concentration of samples was calculated corresponding to the mean absorbance from the standard curve.

2.6 Statistical analysis:

Results expressed as mean \pm SEM. Students t-test was applied to compare the significance of the difference between DN, Diabetic patient's and control groups. p- Value (P>0.05), (P<0.05) considered statistically no significant and significant respectively. The correlation coefficient (r) test is used for describing the association between the different studied parameters.

Results & Discussion (1):

3.1- Analytical Parameters:

Results in table (3-1) illustrated levels of (FBS , HbA_{1C} , Urea , Creatinine , Albumin $\,$) in G1, G2 and G3.

Parameters	(G1)	(G2)	(G3)	T-Test G1 vs G2	T-Test G1 vs G3	T-Test G2 vs G3
FBG (mg/dL)	90.62±7.223	177.62±25.742	230.67±50.974	S	S	S
HbA _{1C} (%)	5.32±0.475	8.42±1.068	11.77±1.47	S	S	S
Urea (mg/dL)	20.31±3.4	33.67±4.62	107.37±57.2	S	S	S
Creatinine (mg/dL)	0.47±0.11	0.92±0.164	3.94±2.42	S	S	S
Albumin (mg/dL)	4.029±0.3	3.97±0.215	2.4±0.836	NS	S	S

Table (3-1):- Descriptive Parameters for G1,G2,G3

*G1: control group. G2: diabetic group. G3: diabetic nephropathy group. S: significant NS: nonsignificant

Results in table (3-1) and figures (3-1,3-2,3-3 and 3-4) reveled a significant elevation in F.B.S , HbA1c , urea , creatinine in G2 and G1 comparing to G1 and in the G3 comparing to G2 . Results display a nonsignificant decrease in albumin levels in G2 comparing to G1 however, there is a significant decrease in G3 comparing to G2 and G1.



Figure (3.1): Fasting Blood glucose Levels in Sera of Three Studied Groups.



Figure (3.2): HbA_{1C} Levels in Blood of Three Studied Groups.



Figure (3.3): Urea Levels in Blood of Three Studied Groups.



Figure (3.4): Creatinine Levels in Blood of Three Studied Groups.



Figure (3.5): Albumin Levels in Blood of Three Studied Groups.

Diabetic nephropathy (DN) pathogenesis is very complex and multifactorial . Many mechanisms explained that hyperglycemia causes kidney injuries through many which mediators . Common between the pathways such as reactive oxygen species (ROS) and TGF- β and there are many overlaps and interference between the pathways ⁽⁶¹⁾.

Table (3-2) and figures (3-6,3-7,3-8,3-9 and 3-10) display levels of lipid profile (TC, TG, HDL-c, LDL-c, VLDL-c) in all studied groups . Results revealed a significant elevation in levels of (TC, TG, LDL-c, VLDL-c) in G2 and G3 comparing to G1 .While a significant decrease was found in HDL levels in G2 and G3 comparing to G1.Also, there is a

significant elevation in (TC, TG, LDL-c, VLDL-c) in G3 comparing to G2 were seen , while there is a nonsignificant decrease was found in HDL level in G3 comparing to G2 .

Parameters	(G1)	(G2)	(G3)	T-Test G1 vs G2	T-Test G2 vsG3	T-Test G1 vsG3
TC (mg/dL)	90.79±4.01	145.91±29.1	249.62±48.38	S	S	S
TG (mg/dL)	105.04±20.111	177.01±52.8	268.62±80.97	S	S	S
HDL-c (mg/dL)	48.166±4.444	35.167±4.32	35.2±4.211	S	NS	S
LDL-c (mg/dL)	82.2±14.37	110.1±32.47	138.04±18.51	S	S	S
VLDL-c (mg/dL)	22.475±6.34	34.42±9.21	53.62±12.41	S	S	S

Table (3-2):- Lipid Profile Levels for G1,G2,G3.

*G1: control group. G2: diabetic group. G3: diabetic nephropathy group. S: significant NS: nonsignificant



Figure (3.6): Total Cholesterol Levels in Sera of Three Studied Groups.



Figure (3.7): Triglyceride Levels in Sera of Three Studied Groups.



Figure (3.8): HDL-c Levels in Sera of Three Studied Groups.



Figure (3.9): LDL-c Levels in Sera of Three Studied Groups.



Figure (3.10): VLDL-c Levels in Sera of Three Studied Groups.

Diabetic dyslipidemia comprises a triad of raised triglycerides, reduced HDL-c and excess of LDL particles, which is inagreement with the present study .The dyslipidemia are found in diabetes patients due to IR or deficiency that affect the key enzymes and pathways in lipid metabolism⁽⁶²⁾.

Study reported that elevation in fasting glucose led to elevation in the transfer of cholesterol esters from HDL-C to VLDL-C particles; while denser LDL particles acquire a large percentage of these HDL esters and more diminishing the HDL-C level .The same study showed that elevation in postprandial lipid excursion in T2D patients was found which change due to the same mechanisms in chylomicron setting of and secretion by the intestine ⁽⁶³⁾.

Table (3-3) and figures (3-11,3-12,3-13 and 3-14) illustrated levels of insulin , IR , GLP-1 and GPCR in G1 , G2 and G3 . Results showed a significant elevation in the insulin and IR levels in G2 and G3 comparing to G1 .Also ,a significant increased was noticed in G3 comparing to G2 .

Parameters	(G1)	(G2)	(G3)	T-Test G1 vs G2	T-Test G1 vs G3	T-Test G2 vsG3
Insulin (IU/mL)	4.27±3.19	13.26±8.64	22.6±6.831	S	S	S
IR	2.068±0.631	6.314±1.505	12.634±3.616	S	S	S
GLP-1 (ng/mL)	0.529±0.132	1.207±0.255	1.880±0.355	S	S	S
GPCR (ng/mL)	0.54±0.158	1.307±0.299	2.10±0.59	S	S	S

Table (3-3): Insulin , IR , GLP-1and GPCR Levels for G1 , G2 and G3.

A significant elevation in GLP-1 and GPCR levels was observed in G2 and G3 comparing to G1. Also, a significant differences was observed in G3 comparing G2 .



Figure (3.11): Insulin Levels in Sera of Three Studied Groups.



Figure (3.12): IR Levels in Sera of Three Studied Groups.



Figure (3.13): GLP-1 Levels in Sera of Three Studied Groups.



Figure (3.14): GPCR Levels in Sera of Three Studied Groups.

Study revealed that insulin affects the liver apolipoprotein secretion and control the lipoprotein lipase activity and cholesterol ester transport protein .This will led to dyslipidemia in diabetes mellitus⁽⁶³⁾. Results in current study are agreement with this study .

Other study demonstrated that to display the loss of tonic restraint normally exerted by elevation in concentration of insulin on alpha-cells. Both of beta-cell destruction and beta-cell failure to liberate first phase of insulin due to alpha-cells insulin resistance. In addition to the lack of inhibitory tone exerted by insulin on glucagon release, other mechanisms have been investigated to illustrate the inappropriate elevate in alpha-cell ⁽⁶⁴⁾. The progressive impairment of β cell function and increased insulin demand as tissue becomes insulin resistance have a role development of the increase of FBS in type 2 diabetes. One of the major mechanisms of the genesis and progression of type 2 diabetes is progressive ectopic lipid deposition (e.g., in myocytes and hepatocytes, rather than in adipocytes), which stimulate insulin resistance, cell lipotoxicity, and diminished cell function, causing metabolically inadequate insulin secretion ⁽⁶⁵⁾. Obesity, insulin resistance is a prerequisite condition in diabetes type 2, that chronically increased insulin levels ⁽⁶⁶⁾. Result of this study are inagreement with present study.

Other study demonstrated that the lipoprotein lipase activity and VLDL-C clearance in uncontrolled DM were diminished causes insulin resistance⁽⁶⁷⁾, which agree with current study .

Induction of insulin liberate by glucagon was observed in experiments on human subjects nearly 50 years ago - glucagon's insulinogenic effect. In addition the insulin receptor is required in alphacells for glucagon secretion stimulate by reduced glucose levels due to siRNA-mediated "knockdown" of the insulin receptor in a pancreatic alpha-cell line (alpha-TC6), abolishes this glucagon secretion ⁽⁶⁸⁾.

The GLP-1 receptors are found in the pancreas, brain, heart, vasculature, lung, kidney, and gastrointestinal tract, so may affect systemic metabolism in multiple organs involved CV systems as a multifunctional hormone. The metabolic Syndrome patients tend to have a binge-eating disorder and it may be one of the causes of elevated levels of GLP-1. The same study suggested that metabolic Syndrome including dyslipidemia patients, have increased of GLP -1 levels are high-risk

patients for CVD, independent with the presence of diabetes⁽⁶⁹⁻⁷¹⁾. Conclusion of this study are in agreement with present study .

The study showed that hyperinsulinemic-insulin resistance *invitro* and in*vivo* is associated with impaired GLP-1 release in response to insulin and heterologous GLP-1 secretagogues response. The same study demonstrated that insulin was induced GLP-1 secretion, but it was only under high glucose conditions⁽⁷²⁾. This results are inagreement with our study.

More recent study demonstrated that three classes of diabetes medications - GLP-1agonists , DPP-4 inhibitors are also thought to slow down the progression of diabetic nephropathy ⁽⁷³⁾.

Treatment of T2D patients with GLP-1R agonists leading to lower in fasting TG, that pronounced with GLP-1R agonists than DPP-4 inhibitors in postprandial TG excursion ^(74,75).

A research reported that GLP-1 has a role in the hypertensive heart failure, and myocardial infarction. Also, preliminary clinical studies suggested that GLP-1 infusion may improve cardiac contractile function in chronic heart failure patients with and without diabetes, and in myocardial infarction patients after successful angioplasty ⁽⁷⁶⁾.

Study hypothesized that circulating of GLP-1 was linked with insulin resistance/hyperinsulinemia and metabolic syndrome ⁽⁷⁷⁾.

Recent study demonstrated that GLP-1 may inhibit lipogenesis in mature adipocytes by down –regulating FASN expression, which is at least partially mediated by PKA and MAPK pathways ^(78,79).

The ability of GLP-1 to reduced postprandial hyperglycemia by elevation in insulin secretion and lowering glucose secretion makes this peptide an ideal candidate for the treatment of type 2 diabetes. Additionally, as GLP-1 is able to retain its glucose lowering activity in patients with type 2 diabetes it is also of significant clinical relevance. The main limitation of GLP-1 is a very short half-life and as a result therapeutic strategies that activate the GLP-1R and improve GLP-1 actions have been extensively studied and developed.⁽⁷⁹⁾

Most small peptide hormones that signal via a GPCR, such as glucagon and GLP-1, interact with either Class A (Rhodopsin-Like) or Class B (Secretin-Like) GPCRs . Members of the class B family of GPCRs bind peptide hormones and play important roles in many diseases, like diabetes, osteoporosis and anxiety⁽⁸⁰⁾.

In β -cells, the main action of GLP-1 through the GPCR is the formation of cAMP and its insulinotropic activity^(81,82). Upon agonist binding, the Gas subunit dissociates from the receptor, couples to AC and generates cAMP ⁽⁸³⁾. When blood glucose levels rise, it enters the β -cell through GLUT-1 and GLUT-2 transporters. Glucose is phosphorylated by glucokinase to glucose-6-phosphate, and led to elevation in the ATP/ ADP ratio in the cytosol and the plasma membrane depolarizing by closing Na⁺/K⁺ channels. The closure of Na⁺/K⁺ channels, in turn opens calcium channels, releasing intracellular stores of calcium. The elevation of the cytosolic calcium led to secretory granules containing insulin to fuse to the plasma membrane and insulin is exocytosed ⁽⁸⁴⁻⁸⁶⁾. It is also likely that human glucokinase activity is more important in glucose-stimulate insulin secretion than the rate at which glucose enters the β -cell ^(87,88).

Despite the disorder in insulin function signaling it is often implicated in the etiology of diabetes-associated complications, many of these cellular activities may be modulated by GPCR signaling ^(89,90).

Study suggested that fatty acid-induced GLP-1 secretion is based on $\text{GPCR}^{(91,92)}$ by fatty acid receptor (GPR40) which is expressed in enteroendocrine L cells, it is mainly coupled to the Gq protein, which activates phospholipase C (PLC) upon fatty acid binding to the receptor⁽⁹³⁾.

Resent study revealed that the GPCR expression across many tissues in mice and humans will aid and may help in identify novel therapeutic targets and predict on-target side effects ⁽⁹⁴⁾.

3.2 Correlation Relation of GLP-1 with the Studied Parameters:

Correlation relation for GLP-1 with FBG , urea , createnine , insulin and T-test were studied for all groups, see table (4) .

	GLP-1			T-test		
Parameters	r-value	r-value				
	r1	r2	r3	G1	G2	G3
Urea (mg/dl)	-0.146	0.435	-0.0729	NS	S	S
Createnine (mg/dl)	0.453	0.210	-0.439	NS	S	S
FBG (mg/dL)	-0.120	0.523	0.323	NS	S	S
Insulin (IU/mL)	0.070	-0.113	-0.309	NS	S	S
HbAIc%	-0.322	0.291	0.326	NS	S	S

Table (3-4) : r- value and T-test for GLP-1 with $\,$ urea , createnine ,FBG , insulin and HbAIc% for G1,G2 and G3

Results showed a nonsignificant negative correlation between GLP-1 and urea for G1 (r_1 =-0.146, P >0.05), while a significant positive correlation was found in G2 (r_2 =0.435, P<0.05). A significant negative correlation was observed in G3 (r_3 =-0.0729, P<0.05), as shown in table (3-4) and figure (3-15).



Figure (3.15): Correlation between GLP-1 and urea for G1,G2,G3

Study also showed a nonsignificant correlation between GLP-1 and creatnine for G1 (r_1 =0.453, P>0.05) .while there are a significant positive correlation in G2 (r_2 =0.210, P<0.05) was found . A significant negative correlation for G3 (r_3 = -0.439, P<0.05) was observed as shown in table (3-4) and figure (3-16).



Figure (3.16): Correlation between GLP-1 and Creatinine for G1,G2,G3

Table (3-4) displays the correlation relation between GLP-1 and FBG. Results illustrated a nonsignificant negative correlation in G1 (r_1 = -0.120, P>0.05). While, a significant positive correlation was found in G2 and G3 (r_2 =0.523, r_3 = 0.323, P<0.05), as shown in figure (3-17).



Figure (3.17): Correlation between GLP-1 and FBG for G1,G2,G3

This study revealed a nonsignificant positive correlation between GLP-1 and insulin in G1 (r_1 =0.070, P<0.05) .while there are a significant negative correlation in G2 and G3 (r_2 = -0.113, r_3 = -0.309, P<0.05) , as presented in table (3-4) and figure (3-18).



Figure (3.18): Correlation relation between GLP-1 and insulin for G1,G2,G3

Results display nonsignificant negative correlation in G1 between GLP-1 and HbAIc% (r_1 =-0.322, P>0.05). while a significant positive correlation in G2 (r_2 =0.291, P<0.05), G3 (r_3 = 0.326, P<0.05), as shown in table (3-4) and figure (3-19).



Figure (3.19): Correlation relation between GLP-1 and HbAIc% for G1,G2,G3

3.3 Correlation Relation of GPCR with Studied Parameters:

The correlation relation of GPCR with HbA1c , TC , TG and GLP-1were studied for all examined groups .The T-test and p- value are shown in table (3-5) .

Table (3-5): r- value and p- value for GPCR with HbA1c , TC and TG for G1,G2 and G3 .

	GPCR(ng/ml)			T-test		
Parameters	r-value					
	r1	r2	r3	G1	G2	G3
HbA1c %	0.172	0.427	-0.042	NS	S	S
TC (mg/dl)	0.306	0.514	-0.288	NS	S	S
TG (mg/dl)	-0.0009	-0.292	0.276	NS	S	S
GLP-1 (ng/ml)	0.167	-0.167	0.034	NS	S	S

Results in table (3-5) revealed a nonsignificant positive correlation between GPCR and HbA1c in G1 (r_1 =0.172) while a significant positive correlation was found in G2 (r_2 =0.427) and a significant negative correlation in G3 (r_3 =-0.042) in these parameters , as shown in table (3-5) and figure (3-20).



Figure (3.20): Correlation between GPCR and HbA1c % for G1,G2,G3

Results , also, showed a nonsignificant positive correlation in G1 between GPCR and cholesterol (r_1 =0.306 , P>0.05). However , there is a significant positive correlation in G2 (r_2 =0.514, P<0.05) . and a significant negative correlation between GPCR and cholesterol in G3 (r_3 = -0.288, P<0.05) , as shown in table (3-5) and figure (3-21).



Figure (3.21): Correlation relation between GPCR and TC for G1,G2,G3

Table (3-5) showed a nonsignificant negative correlation between GPCR and TG in G1 (r_1 =-0.0009, P>0.05) . while, there is a significant negative correlation in G2 (r_2 =-0.292, P<0.05) . Also, results revealed a significant positive correlation between GPCR and triglyceride in G3 (r_3 = 0.276, P<0.05) , are seen in table (3-5) and figure (3-22).



Figure (3.22): Correlation between GPCR and TG for G1,G2,G3

Results showed nonsignificant correlation between GPCR and GLP-1in G1 (r_1 =0.167 , P>0.05) . while there are significant negative correlation was see in G2 (r_2 =-0.167, P<0.05) and a significant positive correlation in G3 (r_3 = 0.034, P<0.05) , as shown in table (3-5) and figure (3-23).



Figure (3.23): Correlation between GPCR and GLP-1 for G1,G2,G3

Conclusion could be drawn from this study that the differences in GPCR and GLP-1 levels among groups indicate that GPCR may be used as a marker in development of diabetic nephropathy depending on a significant relation with HbA1c%, urea, creatinine and insulin.

To the best of our knowledge this is the first study in determination of GLP-1 and GPCR in diabetic and diabetic nephropathy patients and compare results with control group .In addition to study relation for GPCR and GLP-1 with urea, cretinine and insulin.

Conclusions

1- Results showed a significant increase in the insulin and IR levels in G2 and G3 comparing to G1 .Also ,a significant increases was noticed in G1 comparing to G2 .

2- A significant elevation in GLP-1 and GPCR levels were observed in G2 and G3 comparing to G1. Also, a significant differences was observed in G3 comparing to G2.

3- Results showed a significant correlation for GLP-1 and GPCR with TC,TG,VLDL and HDL in G2 and G3.

4- Results showed a significant correlation for GLP-1 and GPCR with urea, creatinine, HbA1c%, insulin and IR in G2 and G3.

5- Conclusion could be drawn from this study that the differences in GPCR and GLP-1 levels among groups indicate that GPCR may be used as a marker in development of diabetic nephropathy depending on a significant relation with HbA1c%, urea, creatinine and insulin.

<u>Summary 2</u>

The study aimed to purified G- Protein Coupled Receptor from the whole blood cell and membrane of control , diabetic and diabetic nephropathy patients by different chromatography techniques . The GPCR extracted from whole cell and membrane by precipitation of proteins with 50 – 75% ammonium sulfate , it was cooled and centrifuged at 3500g for 10 minutes . Finally , the pellet was dissolved in a minimum volume of (1.5 mM) of PBS at pH 7.3 .The Pellet cells were thawed and resuspended in the extraction buffer and then solubilized in phosphate buffer containing n-Dodecyl- β - D-Maltoside as detergents and protease inhibitor cocktail and glass bead. The extracted G Protein Coupled Receptor from whole cell was purified by ion exchange chromatography, as a first step using DEAE-Sepharose .A gel filtration chromatography was applied as a second step of purification using sepharose 6B.The molecular weight and purity of GPCR was determined by SDS.PAGE .

Results of ion exchange chromatography for control patients showed two proteins peaks that appeared after elution by the gradient concentration of sodium chloride , and there was no protein peaks appeared in the washing fractions . The GPCR concentration was measured in the fractions of these two protein peaks . Data indicated that the GPCR is located in the first protein peak (eluted at 0.1 M of NaCl) at fraction numbers between (6 and 12) . The second peak (eluted at 0.2 M of NaCl) gave a peak between (18-20) fraction numbers .

Results for diabetic patient showed two proteins peaks that appeared after elution with the gradient concentration of sodium chloride, while no protein peak appeared in the washing fractions. The GPCR concentration was measured in the fractions of these two protein peaks. Data indicated that GPCR located in the first protein peak (eluted at 0.1 M of NaCl) at fraction numbers between (7 and 13). The second peaks (eluted at 0.2 M of NaCl) gave a peak between (18-20) fraction numbers.

Results for diabetic nephropathy patient showed two proteins peaks that appeared after elution with the gradient concentration of sodium chloride . While no protein peaks appeared in the washing fractions . The GPCR concentration was measured in the fractions of these two protein peaks . Data indicated that GPCR located in the first protein peak (eluted at 0.1 M of NaCl) in fraction numbers between (7 and 13) . The second peaks (eluted at 0.2 M of NaCl) gave a peak between (19-21) fraction numbers .

After purification by ion exchange chromatography fractions were collected pooled and concentrated to be applied in gel filtration chromatography by using sepharose 6B column . Aliquot of five mL of concentrated fraction was injected into column (65 x 1.5) cm which previously equilibrated with 50 Mm phosphate buffer saline (pH=7.4) , and eluted with elution buffer PBS pH =7.4 containing (0.5Mm) DDM . Flow rate was (1ml /min) with 5 ml for each fraction that monitored at 280 nm .

Results showed a single active protein peak after eluted with elution buffer that was identical with the peak that presented GPCR concentrations at fractions number (14) for control group and show of single active protein peak that was identical with the peak that presented GPCR concentrations at fractions number (12) for diabetic patients which show a single active protein peak that was identical with the peak that presented GPCR concentrations at fractions at fractions number (12) for diabetic patients which show a single active protein peak that was identical with the peak that presented GPCR concentrations at fractions number (12) for diabetic nephropathy patients .
The molecular weight of GPCR that estimated by SDS-PAGE electrophoresis was approximately two bands of GPCR appear in control subject at approximady (~ 30 KD) and at (~ 51 KD). This could be due to the isoform of GPCR that papered in these groups .

Results ,also , showed appearance of three bands in G2 related to GPCR in (~ 29 KD) and (~ 47,49 KD) . While it is not very clear related to its little concentrations . In diabetic nephropathy, bands appeared similar to the bands appeared in G2 but with highly clearance related to its highly concentration .This three bands related to the type of GPCR and its isoform in this disease .

The conclusion could be drawn from this study for the first time that 2 bands of GPCR appear in the control group while there are three bands appeared in G2 and G3. This finding could be useful in the early detection and active treatment for diabetic and diabetic nephropathy patients . Further study is important to find type of GPCR that purified by amino acid analyzer .

<u>Líst of Contents</u>

No.	Content	Page
	Summary	Ι
	List of Contents	IV
	List of Figures	VI
	List of Tables	VI
	List of Abbreviations	VII
	Chapter four / Introduction	55-64
4.1	Purification of GPCR from Various Sources by Different Methods	56
4.2	GPCR in diabetes mellitus	58
	The Aim of Study	64
	Chapter five / Chemicals and Methods	65-75
5.1	Chemicals	65
5.2	Instruments	66
5.3	Solution and buffers	66
5.3.1	Solution and buffer saline PBS	66
5.3.2	Solution for protein purification	67
5.3.3	Solutions and reagents for determination of protein concentration	68
5.3.4	Solutions for polyacrylamide Gel electrophoresis	69
5.4	Subjects	70
5.5	Methods	70
5.5.1	Extraction of GPCR from blood	70

5.5.2	Determination of protein concentration	71
5.5.3	Determination of GPCR concentration by ELISA	71
5.5.4	G- protein coupled receptor purification	72
5.5.4.1	GPCR extraction from blood cell	72
5.5.4.1.1	Ion extraction chromatography	72
5.5.4.1.2	Gel filtration chromatography	73
5.6	Estimation of GPCR molecular weight	74
5.7	SDS-PAGE Electrophoresis	74
	Chapter sex / Results and Discussion	76-87
6.1	Extraction and solubilization of GPCR from control ,diabetic patients and diabetic nephropathy patients	76
6.2	purification of GPCR Extracted from cell membrane	78
6.2.1	Ion Exchange chromatography	78
6.2.2	Gel filtration chromatography	80
6.3	Determination of purity and molecular weight of GPCR by SDS-PAGE	83
	Conclusion	88
	Recommendation	89
	References	90-106

<u>Líst of Fígures</u>

No.	Figure	Page
4.1	GPCR-mediated amplification of insulin secretion	59
6.1	Ion Exchange for Control	79
6.2	Ion Exchange for Diabetic patient	79
6.3	Ion Exchange for Diabetic Nephropathy patient	80
6.4	Gel -filtration for Control patient	81
6.5	Gel -ffiltration for Diabetic patient	81
6.6	Gel -ffiltration for Diabetic Nephropathy patient	82
6.7	SDS-PAGE of purified GPCR G1,G2 and G3	84

<u>Líst of Tables</u>

No.	Table	Page
4.1	type of GPCRs that found in beta cell that affect insulin secretion	60
5.1	Chemicals and Suppliers	65
5.2	Instruments, company and their origin	66
6.1	protein and GPCR concentration for extraction and solubilization steps of lysate	77
6.2	Volume , protein concentration , GPCR concentration , specific activity , purification fold and yield for all purification steps of GPCR from control , diabetic and diabetic nephropathy	82

<u>Líst of Abbrevíatíons</u>

Abbreviations	Name
AEBSF	4-(-Amino Ethyl)-Benzene Sulfony Fluoride
DDM	n-Dodecyl -β-maltoside
ROS	Rod outer segments
Gβγ	Beta gamma Subunit G-protein
Gα	Alfa subunit G-protein

4. Introduction (2):

4.1 purification of GPCR from various sources by different methods .

Purification is a major challenge in the field of GPCR research because many GPCRs are denatured by detergents (due to the difficulty of purifying GPCRs) . Membrane mimics provide a range of choice for GPCR reconstitution and biophysical characterization that beginning to be applied to GPCR research , and detailed biophysical date remain scarce for receptors other than rhodopsin ⁽⁹⁵⁻⁹⁷⁾.

Rhodopsin is the favorite type of GPCR that studied due to its stability in the dark state and to large quantities that purified from retinal extracts $^{(98)}$.

Previous studies suggested that combination of purification and crystallization of rhodopsin of other membrane protein which the initial rhodopsin structure utilized the selective precipitation of opsins and other membrane proteins by Zn(oAc)₂ treatment of alkyl-glucose extraction of rod outer segments (ROS) that isolated from dark adapted biovine retina ^(99,100).

It was reported that to obtain new rhodopsin crystals which are stable to photo activation a combination of previously reported methods of purification was employed. The expression of ID4-tagged GPCRs in the retinas represents a promising a approach for the expression of recombinant GPCRs in rod cells , where they are homogeneously processed and transported to ROS and rhodopsin . These tagged GPCRs can be purified and concentrate using the immunoaffinity and crystallized by using $(NH_4)_2SO_4$ concentrations⁽¹⁰¹⁾. The human melatonin receptors were purified by tandem affinity tag technique at their carboxyl – terminal tails and expressed in human embryonic kidney 293 cells $^{(102)}$.

Human ${}_{5}$ -HT₄ receptor was purified by one – step immunoaffinty chromatography and the purified receptor in detergent solution preserved its legend binding properties . This expression methods may prove generally useful for generation functional , high – quality GPCR protein ⁽¹⁰³⁾.

Immunoaffinity purification was used to purify rho ID4 monoclonal antibody (cell essentials) Linked to CNBr-actvated sepharose 4B beads then 17-4 protein was subjected to gel filtration chromatography using a HiLoad 16/60 superdex 200 column . This system is feasible for the production of large quantities of olfactory receptor with yields of 3mg/L of culture medium and > 90% purity which is important for structure and functional analysis ⁽¹⁰⁴⁾.

Another study, based on purified synthetic human GPCR in two steps from membrane fractions . Firstly, by Ni⁺² affinity purification of His₆ – tagged protein using a Hitrap chelating HP 5ml column and Gel filtration purification was used to the second step by using superdex 200 10/300 GL. The protein purified from the first step include monomer , dimmer , and higher oligomer for receptor , these species could be further resolved in the gel filtration step. The yields of purified Trx-hcRs finally achieved in this system was ~ $1.3/L^{(105)}$.

A systematic detergent screen showed that foes – chalic -14 was the optimal detergent to solubilize and subsequently purify the GPCR receptors by using immunoaffuity chromatography followed by gel filtration . Circular dichroism showed that the purified receptors had helical secondary structures , indicating that they were properly folded

suitable for functional analysis and for subsequent crystallization trials⁽¹⁰⁶⁾.

Thromboxane A_2 receptor is a GPCR that mediate vasoconstrictin and promotes thrombosis in response to binding of thromboxane this receptor expressed and purified by using a single step affinity purification (107).

In order recent study Human Mu Oproid Receptor from <u>*E.coli*</u> was carried out with several purification steps as a affinity chromatography and ionic exchange chromatography $^{(108)}$.

4.2 GPCR in diabetes mellitus :

Islet function is regulated by a number of different signals. A main signal is generated by glucose, which stimulates insulin secretion and inhibits glucagon secretion. The glucose effects are modulated by many factors, including hormones, neurotransmitters and nutrients⁽¹⁰⁹⁻¹¹⁶⁾. Receptors activation are linked with the postprandial phase that is the targets for nutrients, bile acids and gut hormones⁽¹¹⁷⁾.

Many GPCRs are directly involved in the development of insulin resistance and β -cell dysfunction , and in the etiology of inflammation that can lead to obesity – induced T2DM^(118,119). Although there is a well-recognised GPCR capable of detecting glucose—the sweet taste receptor TAS1R2/3 heterodimer non-GPCR mechanisms appear to dominate postprandial glucose-dependent insulin and GLP-1 release, which are instead achieved through metabolism-dependent closure of ATP-sensitive potassium (K_{ATP}) channels in beta cells or electrogenic sodium-dependent glucose transport in GLP-1-secreting L cells ⁽¹²⁰⁾.

Glucose-dependent stimulation of insulin secretion is not restricted to $G_{\alpha s}$ -coupled receptors, and has also been observed with $G_{\alpha q}$ -coupled receptors linked to protein kinase C activation and inositol 1,4,5-trisphosphate (IP₃)-dependent calcium release from intracellular stores. One of the classical $G_{\alpha q}$ -coupled receptors linked to insulin secretion is the muscarinic acetylcholine receptor M_3 , responsible for the vagal stimulation of insulin release in some species ^(121,122). GPCRs that signal via the $G\alpha_q$ and $G\alpha_s$ pathways led to elevation insulin liberation, which GPCRs that signal via the $G\alpha_i$ pathway that inhibit insulin secretion. the GPCRs couple to a complex of $G\alpha\beta\gamma$, that activated GPCRs led to the secretion of $G\beta\gamma$ as well as $G\alpha$ subunits. The effects of any one type of GPCR on insulin liberation that quite complex ⁽¹²³⁾, as show in figure (4.1).



Figure (4.1): GPCRs – mediated amplification of insulin secretion ⁽¹²²⁾.

Table (4.1) display GPCRs that found in beta cells that affect insulin liberation and their ligands . levels of glucose are a primary regulator of insulin liberation, signaling via various GPCRs that positive or negative effects on insulin secretion via their regulation of intracellular signaling pathways⁽¹²³⁾.

GPCRs	Full name	Ligand	Alpha subunit	Cell type	Insulin secretion
ADRB2	Beta-2 adrenergic	Epinepherine	Gs	beta	+
ADRA2A	Alpha-2 adrenergic (A)	Norepinepherine	Gi	beta	-
MTNR1A	Melatonin 1A	Melatonin	Gq/Gi	beta	?
MTNR1B	Melatonin 1B	Melatonin	Gq/Gi	beta	?
HTR2B	Serotonin-2B	Serotonin	Gq	beta	+
HTR1D	Serotonin-1D	Serotonin	Gi	beta	-
M3	Muscarinic-3	Acetylcholine	Gq	beta	+
SSTR2	Somatostatin-2	Somatostatin	Gi	beta	-
GLP1R	Glucagon- like Peptide 1	Glucagon-like Peptide 1	Gs	beta/alpha?	+
GPR40	G-protein receptor40	Free fatty acids	Gq	beta	+
GPR119	G-protein receptor119	Free fatty acids	Gs	beta	+
GCGR	Glucagon	Glucagon	Gs/q	beta/alpa	+

Table (4.1) type of GPCRs that found in beta cell that affect insulin secretion

These receptors have important effect in the regulation of blood pressure, study revealed that adrenergic family of GPCRs, ($\alpha 2$ and $\beta 2$ receptors) regulate islet function. Which $\alpha 2$ -adrenergic receptors inhibit insulin liberation and stimulate glucagon secretion. The $\beta 2$ -adrenergic receptors stimulate both insulin and glucagon secretion. Studies revealed that $\alpha 2$ receptor have role in type 2 diabetes. People who carry a specific mutation (single nucleotide polymorphism) in the gene encoding the $\alpha 2$ receptor (subtype 2A) have an increased risk of type 2

diabetes. This genetic variant is associated with overexpression of the $\alpha 2$ receptor and lowered insulin secretion ⁽¹²³⁾.

In clinic, two strategies are widely applied to treat the diabetes, GLP-1 analogs and inhibitors of DPP-4 that degrades both GLP-1 and GIP. These strategies had limitations in clinical practice: GLP-1 analogs can only be administered by injection and the effectiveness of DPP4 inhibitors is mild. Therefore, development of agent(s) that may enhance GLP-1 pathway received increasing attentions at first. Basically, GLP-1 is released in response to activation of two GPCRs ; GPCR119 (GPR119) and GPCR 131 (GPR131). Adverse reaction due to activating GPRs has been conducted and limited it to develop in clinical application⁽¹²⁴⁾. Interestingly, agonist for GLP-1 receptor from natural product has been developed and geniposide were introduced as the potential one. It will be the new target in the development of agent(s) for therapeutics of diabetes in the future. Also, we suggest the suitable target(s) to call the attention(s) for better treatment of diabetes ⁽¹²⁵⁻¹²⁸⁾

The number of β -cell GPCRs involved in the control of insulin secretion has increased steadily and there are six to seven different known G protein-coupled mechanisms. Although these receptors are expressed in high levels in pancreatic β -cells ⁽¹²⁹⁾.

Glucose metabolism raises the ATP/ADP ratio, which closes ATPsensitive potassium channels (KATP channels), depolarizes the cell membrane, activates voltage-gated calcium channels (Ca2_ channels), and results in calcium influx, which in turn triggers the release of insulin. Several extracellular signals can amplify this process through the activation of GPCRs.These receptors couple to various downstream signaling pathways in the cell leading to an increase in cAMP levels and/or intracellular calcium and converge to amplify GSIS. Acetylcholine, carnitine-palmitoyl transferase 1, diacylglycerol , endoplasmic reticulum , fatty acid , inositol triphosphate , long-chain coenzyme-A, M3-muscarinic receptor , N acylphosphatidylethanolamine , phosphatidic acid , phosphatidylcholine , cAMP-dependent protein kinase , protein kinase C , phospholipase A2 , phospholipase C , phospholipase D , G protein subunit q. $^{(130-132)}$.

Results for the previous study show for the first time the occurrence of potentially patho genic agAAB directed against GPCR in patients suffering from type 2 diabetes. The presence of agAAB that mainly interact with the a α_1 -AR suggests an increased risk of hypertension and vascular complications for diabetic patients ⁽¹³³⁻¹³⁵⁾.

The Gi-GPCRs, that signal through G α proteins of the i/o class (G $\alpha_{i/o}$), control cellular behaviors in mammalian tissues, such as Gi-GPCRs control insulin release from pancreatic β cells, and variants in genes encoding several Gi-GPCRs—including the α -2a adrenergic receptor, ADRA2A—elevation the risk of type 2 diabetes mellitus. Increased Gi-GPCR activity in perinatal β cells lowered β -cell proliferation, lowered adult β -cell mass, and impaired glucose homeostasis. The Gi-GPCR inhibition enhanced perinatal β -cell proliferation, increased adult β -cell mass, and improved glucose homeostasis. Transcriptome analysis detected the expression of multiple Gi-GPCRs in developing and adult β cells, and gene-deletion experiments suggest that ADRA2A as a key Gi-GPCR regulator of β -cell replication⁽¹³⁶⁾.

Insulin secretory capacity depends on both the secretory capacity of individual β cells and total β -cell mass, which is reduced in both type 1 and type 2 diabetes . Two sources contribute to the pool of β cells in the

pancreas: neogenesis from progenitor cells and proliferation of preexisting β cells. The β -cell population expands most dramatically during the perinatal and early postnatal period because of increased proliferation, which then falls markedly as adulthood approaches in both rodents and humans ^(137,138).

Previous study aimed to synthesis many mini-G proteins that used in the structure estimation of GPCRs in their fully active state. Mini-G proteins was performed on G_s , which turned out to be one of the best expressed and most stable of the mini-G proteins. The structures of GPCRs and G proteins are highly conserved, and there are thought to be highly conserved networks of side chain interactions within the GPCR, and G protein, that are essential for receptor activation and G protein activation⁽¹³⁹⁾.

Phylogenetic analyses revealed several kinds of evolutionary patterns that occurred during GPCR evolution including one-to-one orthologous relationships, species-specific gene expansion, and episodic duplication of the entire GPCR repertoire in certain species lineages. This study suggested dynamic process of birth and death of GPCR genes since hundreds of millions of years . A range of amino acid residues can be accommodated in this interface and therefore it plays a less important role in defining both specificity and the affinity of G protein binding ⁽¹⁴⁰⁾. Genetic drift and selective forces have shaped the individual structure of a given receptor gene but also of the species-specific receptor repertoire – a process that is still ongoing ⁽¹⁴¹⁻¹⁴³⁾.

Aim of the study

Researchers are seeking to understand which GPCRs involved in normal and diabetic islet function, as this knowledge has the potential to suggest new approaches to treat diabetes. Given the importance of GPCRs in transmitting signals from the extracellular environment and potential as drug targets, scientists have sought to understand their role in pancreatic islet cell biology. A first step in this process was to understand which GPCRs are expressed in islets.

Therefore, this study designed for the first time to improve the number and type of GPCR that found in control, type 2 diabetic and diabetic nephropathy patients in order to treat these patients successfully.

Chemicals and Methods (2):

5.1 Chemicals:

Chemicals used in the present study were obtained from various companies as displayed in table (5-1).

Chemicals	Company, Origin
AEBSF	Sigma / USA
BSA	BHD/England
Blue dextrin	BHD/UK
Coomassie brilliant blue G-250	Sigma / USA
DEAE- Sepharoe	Sigma / USA
DDM	Sigma / USA
KH ₂ PO ₄	BHD/England
KCL	Fluka/Switzerland
Na ₂ HPO ₄	BHD/England
NaCL	BHD/England
Tris -HCL	BHD/UK
Sepharose 6B	Sigma / USA

Table (5-1):- Chemicals and Suppliers.

5.2 Instruments:

Instruments-company and their origin that used in this study are summarized in table (5-2).

Table (5-2):- Instruments, company and their origin.

Instruments	Company, origin
Analytical balance	Ohans (France)
Cooling Centrifuge	Gallenkamp(UK)
Deep freeze	FROILABO, France
ELISA human reader and washer	Bio Tek, USA
Gel electrophoresis system	Bio- Red (USA)
Micropipettes	Oxford (USA)
pH meter	Genway (UK)
Spectrophotometer UV-Visible beam	Labomed (England)
Water bath	Gemmy, YCW-01, Taiwan

5.3 Solutions and Buffers

5.3.1 Solutions and Buffers that used for Extraction and solubilization of GPCR ^{(144,145):}

A. Phosphate Buffer Saline PBS $^{(146)}$, (1.5mM), pH =7.3

According to Gruikshank et. al (1975) method. Na_2HPO_4 (2.1 g) was dissolved in a 1 L of distilled water. The pH was adjusted to 7.4, sterilized by autoclave and stored at 4 °C prior to use.

B. NaCl solution (100 mM).

C. 4- (2-amino ethyl)- benzene sulfonyl fluoride, (a Serine protease inhibitor), (1mM).

D. n-Dodecyl- B- D- Maltoside.

5.3.2 -Solutions for Protein purification :

1) Sodium Chloride Solution (0.1-0.5)M

2) (Wash Buffer) Phosphate Saline (1.5mM) pH =7.3 :

It was prepared as described in (5.3.1. A). The pH was adjusted to (7.4) then buffer sterilized by autoclave and stored at 4°C prior to use.

3) Elution Buffer:

A) For Ion Exchange Chromatography:

This buffer was prepared by adding (50 mM of DDM to the PBS(1.5 mM, pH =7.3) containing step wise of NaCl (0.1-0.5)M.

B) For Gel Filtration Chromatography:

It was prepared by adding 1.5 mM of DDM to the phosphate buffer saline (1.5mM,pH=7.3).

4) Sodium hydroxide Solution (0.25M).

5) Hydrochloric acid Solution (0.25M).

5.3.3-Solutions and Reagents for Determination of Protein Concentration :

The solution and reagent for determination of protein concentration. were prepared according to Bradford ⁽¹⁴⁷⁾ methods as follows:

A-Bovine Serum Albumin (BSA):

Stock Solution of BSA it was prepared by dissolving (0.01 g) of BSA in (10 mL) of distilled water .The solution was used to prepare (20,40,60,80,100 μ g/mL) concentration of BSA. These concentrations were used to determine the standard curve of protein.

B- Coomassie Brilliant Blue G-250 Stain: It was prepared by dissolving(100 mg) of the dye in (50mL) ethanol (95%). Aliquot of 100 mL of 85% (w/v) phosphoric acid was added to this solution. The solution was completed to 1 liter with distilled water and it was filtered via whatman-1 filter papers . The reagent was stored in dark bottle at 4° C.

C-Tris -HCl Stock Solution (0.15M):

This solution was prepared by dissolving (0.3g) of Tris -HCl in (80ml) of distilled water. The pH was adjusted to (7.5) then its volume was completed to (100 mL) with distilled water.

D- Reagent Blank :

This reagent was prepared by mixing (0.1 mL)of 0.15 M (Tris HCl pH 7.5) and (5mL) of Coomassie Brilliant Blue G-250 reagent.

5.3.4- Solutions for Polyacrylamide Gel Electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE) (148).

A. Stock 30% Acrylamide -Bisacrylamide Gel Solution:

It was prepared by dissolving (3g) polyacrylamide and (0.08g) Bisacrylamide in (10mL) of distilled water. The solution was filtered through whatman-1 filter paper, then stored in refrigerator at 4 °C in a dark bottle for no longer than one month.

B. Stock 4x Resolving Gel, Tris base (pH =8.8):

It was prepared by dissolving (3.64g) of Tris base and (0.8ml) of (10%SDS) in (11 mL) of distilled water, The pH was adjusted to (8.8) and then the volume was complete to (20 mL).

C. Stock 4x Stacking Gel ,Tris base (pH 6.8):

This solution was prepared by dissolving (1.2g) of (Tris -base), (0.8mL) of (10% SDS) in (11 mL) of distilled water, the pH was adjusted to (6.8) the volume was completed to(20 mL).

D. Stock (4x) Tris-glycine tank buffer –SDS:

Quantities of (3 g) Tris- base and (14.5 g) glycine were dissolved in (250mL) distilled water.

E. (1x) Tris- glycine tank buffer-SDS: Mixed (250mL) of 4x Tris- glycine reservoir buffer SDS and (10mL) of (10%) SDS solution then the volume was completed to I L.

F. Catalyst: 10% Ammonium per sulfate solution (A.P.S): It was prepared by dissolving (100 mg) of (A.P.S) in (1 ml) of distilled water.

G. Sodium Dodecyl Sulfate (SDS) 10% (w/v):

It was prepared by dissolving (1 g) in (6mL) distilled water .The volume was completed to (10mL) with distilled water.

H. TEMED (N,N,N,N-Tetra Methylene Diamine).

- I. Coomassie Brilliant Blue R-250.
- J. Resolving Gel Solution .

K. Stacking Gel Solution .

L. Staining Solution: It was prepared by dissolving (0.6 mg) of comassie Brilliant Blue in a mixture of (23mL) of acetic acid and (112mL) of methanol. The volume was completed to (250mL) by distilled water **.**

M. De Staining Solution: It was prepared by mixing (50 mL) of methanol with (25 mL) acetic acid. The volume was completed to (500 mL) with distilled water.

N. loading Dye: It was prepared by dissolving (2 mg) of bromophenol blue in a mixture of (5ml)of C, (8 mL) of G,(4ml) of glycerol, (2mL) of 2- mercaptoethanol and (1 ml) distilled water.

5.4 - subjects : Blood were collected from control , diabetic and diabetic nephropathy patient . That aged in the range (40-65) years .

5.5 - Methods :

5.5.1- Extraction of GPCR from blood :

1- Blood that obtained from subjects were centrifuged at 2500g for 15 minutes to separate pack cell volumes . Supernatant plasma and buffy coat were discarded . RBCs were washed with (3) volume of normal saline and hemolysed by adding (5)

volumes of water . After 20 minutes , hemolysed was centrifuged at 3500g for 20 minutes . Transparent supernatant was collected and filtered through qualitative filter paper (whatmen-1) to remove left out cell debris . It was followed by precipitation of proteins with 50 - 75% ammonium sulfate . For precipitation an equal volume of saturated solution of $(NH_4)_2SO_4$ was mixed with filtrate and after 15 minutes , it was cooled and centrifuged at 3500g for 10 minutes . Finally , the pellet was dissolved in a minimum volume of (1.5 mM) of Phosphate Buffer Saline PBS pH 7.3 .

2- The Pellet cells were thawed and resuspended in extraction buffer (1.5 mM PBS buffer, pH =7.3, 1 mM AEBSF) and then protease inhibitor cocktail (up 10 ml for 1ml) was added with gentle swirling on ice.

3- DDM (1%) was added to the lysed sample and stirred on ice for 1 h.

4-The dissolved pellet was dialyzed for 72 hrs against 1500 ml of dialysis buffer (1.5 mM PB, pH 7.3) in a cold room . buffer was changed three times during 72 hrs.

5.5.2-Determination of Protein Concentration:

Protein concentration was estimated according to the Bradford method (1976), (0.1ml) of each concentration of BSA that prepared in (5.3.3.A) was added and mixed with five mL, of Coomassie Brilliant Blue G-250(5.3.3.B), after 3 minutes the absorbance measured at 595 nm against a reagent blank(5.3.3.D).

5.5.3 Determination of GPCR Concentration by ELISA:

A-The desired numbers of coated wells in the holder were secured then (50ml) of standards or samples were added to the appropriate well in the antibody

pre-coated micro titer plate. Aliquot of (50 ml) of PBS pH (7.0-7.2) was added in the blank control well.

B- Five ml of balance solution was dispensed into (50 ml) of specimens, mixed well.

C-Aliquots of (100 ml) of conjugate solution was added to each well, except blank control well and mixed well.

D-The microtiter plate was washed by manual washing.

E- Add (50ml) of substrate A and(50ml) of substrate B to each well including blank control well, and the covered and incubated for 10-15 minutes at 20-25 °C.

F- Aliquots of (50 ml) of stop solution was added to each well including blank control and mixed well.

G- The absorbance was determined for samples at 450 nm by using a microplate reader immediately.

5.5.4 - G-protein Coupled Receptor Purification:

5.5.4.1- GPCR Extraction from blood Cell :

GPCR that extracted from blood was purified by using ion exchange chromatography as a first step of purification, and gel filtration chromatography as a second step of purification.

5.5.4.1.1- Ion Exchange Chromatography:

The GPCR solution that obtained from step (5.4.1.2) was passed through DEAE-Sephorose anion column (2.5 x8cm) after equilibration of column and washing with 1.5 mM phosphate buffer saline at pH =7.3. Then GPCR crude was

eluted with (5.3.2. 3.A) buffer; Aliquot of 5ml fraction was collected in each tube with flow rate of 0.5 ml/min. Protein concentration was estimated for each fraction which measured at 595 nm using UV- VIS spectrophotometer . The GPCR concentration was determined by ELISA Kit from (BlueGene). The fractions that gave the highest absorbance were collected. Protein and GPCR concentrations were measured for these fractions.

5.5.4.1.2- Gel filtration chromatography ⁽¹⁴⁹⁾ :

*Column Preparation (Sepharose 6B):

Column was prepared according to bioworld company procedure in which the suspension gel was degassed by vacuum pump to remove the air bubbles and poured into column (96 x 1.6 cm) after packaging, the gel was equilibrated with(5.3.1.A) buffer at pH 7.3.

* Loading of Sample

The concentrated sample was applied to the sepharose 6B column that pre equilibrated with (1.5 mM PBS pH 7.4), then eluted with (5.3.2.3.B) buffer. Aliquot of 5ml fractions were collected in each tube with flow rate of 0.5 ml/min . Protein concentration was estimated for each fraction was measured at 595 nm using UV- VIS spectrophotometer . The GPCR concentration was determined and fractions which gave the highest absorbance and concentration of GPCR were collected.

5.6 - Estimation of GPCR Molecular Weight ⁽¹⁵⁰⁾:

Molecular weight of GPCR was determined by SDS-PAGE Electrophoresis

5.7- SDS-PAGE Electrophoresis (151-153)

Sodium dodecal sulfate (SDS) -gel electrophoresis was used to improve the purity of the purified GPCR,SDS anionic detergent, is very effective in solubilizing most membrane proteins. However, it unravels protein structures and cover the polypeptide in negative charge The molecular weight and purity of individual polypeptide chain can be determined by polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis in the presence of SDS .Since protein solubilized in SDS are all negatively charged and bind SDS such that the charge to molecular weight ratio is constant ,their subsequent migration in an electric field is dependent under ideal conditions on the size of the protein and the sieving effect of the polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis support.

Stock solution	Stacking gel solution	Resolving gel solution
30% Stock acrylamide acrylamide	1.3 ml	5 ml
Stacking gel buffer	1.9 ml	-
Resolving gel buffer	-	3.7 ml
Resolving buffer	-	-
10% ammonium Persulfate	75 μL	150 μL
Distilled Water	4.4 ml	6.3 ml
TEMED	3.5µL	15µL

Chapter five

The gel was run after mixing immediately between two securely sealed glass plates. The bottom of the glass plates was sealed with sealant (30% polyacrylamide plug). When the gel was set, a stacking gel was formed over the resolving gel and formed the sample wells for the protein samples. Samples were injected into the sample wells and a running buffer was laid over the top. The plates were placed in position and a 150 voltage was applied across the gel at room temperature. The gel was removed, stained in a staining solution to visualise the protein bands, destained in a destaining solution for a few hours until a colourless background was obtained.

Results & Discussion (2):

6.1- Extraction and solubilization of GPCR from control ,diabetic and diabetic nephropathy patients .

Phosphate buffer saline is often used as a buffer in biochemistry to maintain the pH of protein , neutral or charges on certain amino acids which allow the structure of protein to be in its native form $^{(154)}$.

Detergents break the lipid barrier surrounding cells by proteins solubilization and disrupting lipid-lipid, and protein-lipid interaction, self associate and bind to hydrophobic surfaces. A suitable detergent for solubilization an individual membrane of proteins were determined, for successfully purification , conjunction with homogenization and mechanical grinding ⁽¹⁵⁵⁾.

Many detergents have been used for solubilization of different GPCRs but the one of chaise was , non –ionic detergent , dodecal- β -D-maltoside (DDM) was used in the extraction and solubilization of GPCR from different membrane tissues ⁽¹⁵⁶⁻¹⁶⁰⁾.

Table (6-1) shows protein concentration which was determined by Bradford test and GPCR concentration for extraction and solubilization steps of lysate . Results show an decrease in protein and GPCR concentration after extraction and solubilization steps , control which were (0.89) mg/ml and (6.61) ng/ml respectively in the crude lysate in control group and (0.718) mg/ml , (3.038) ng/ml after precipitate by (NH₄)₂SO₄ in (50 -75%) . In diabetic patients the concentration of protein and GPCR were (0.92) mg/ml and (6.19) ng/ml in the crude lysate respectively and (0.799) mg/ml , (3.052) ng/ml after precipitation by (NH₄)₂SO₄ in (50 -75%) . diabetic nephropathy which protein and

76

GPCR concentration were (0.94) mg/ml and (5.322) ng/ml respectively in the crude lysate and (0.801) mg/ml , (3.088) ng/ml after precipitation by $(NH_4)_2SO_4$ in (50-75%).

Table (6.1): protein and GPCR concentrations for extraction and solubilization and precipitation steps of lysate .

Sample	Volume (ml)	Protein con.(mg/ml)	GPCR con.(ng/ml)		
Crude	30	0.89	6.61		
precipitate by (NH ₄) ₂ SO ₄ (50-75%)	15	0.718	5.34		
		Diabetic			
Sample	Volume (ml)	Protein con.(mg/ml)	GPCR con.(ng/ml)		
Crude	30	0.92	6.19		
Precipitate by (NH ₄) ₂ SO ₄ (50-75%)	15	0.799	6.052		
Diabetic nephropathy					
Sample	Volume (ml)	Protein con.(mg/ml)	GPCR con.(ng/ml)		
Crude	30	0.94	5.322		
precipitate by (NH ₄) ₂ SO ₄ (50-75%)	14	0.801	4.95		

Control

6.2- purification of GPCR Extracted from cell membrane

Ion Exchange and gel filtration chromatography were applied, respectively in the purification of GPCR that extracted from the whole cell.

6.2.1 Ion Exchange chromatography :

The GPCR that extracted from blood was purified by ion exchange chromatography using DEAE-Sepharose (an anionic ion exchanger) which has multiple uses led to its high capacity for bio separation , easy preparation and simplicity to separate biomolecules ⁽¹⁶¹⁻¹⁶³⁾.

Five ml of crude of the extract was applied on the DEAE-sepharose column (2.5 x 8) cm . The column was equilibrate and washed with an equal volume of 50 mM of phosphate buffer saline contained DDM (pH=7.4) to wash uncharged and positive charged proteins in protein mixture of crude GPCR . The bound proteins (negatively charged) were then eluted using gradient concentrations of NaCl ranged (0.1- 0.5) M . Fraction were collected in 5 ml tube at a flow rate of 0.5 ml/min and eluted with gradient (0.1 – 0.5) of sodium chloride solution .

Results of control group showed two proteins peaks ,figure (6.1) that appeared after elution by the gradient concentration of sodium chloride , while no protein peaks appeared in the washing fractions . The GPCR concentration were measured in the fractions of these two protein peaks . Data indicated that GPCR located in the first protein peak (eluted at 0.1 M of NaCl) at fraction numbers between (6 and 12) . The second peaks (eluted at 0.2 M of NaCl) gave a peak between (18-20), thus its neglected . Fractions represent GPCR were pooled and concentrated to (5ml) by sucrose .



Figure (6.1) : Ion Exchange for Control group

Results for diabetic patient , figure (6.2), showed two proteins peaks that appeared after elution with the gradient concentration of sodium chloride , while no protein peaks appeared in the washing fractions . The GPCR concentration were measured in the fractions of these two protein peaks . Data indicated that GPCR located in the first protein peak (eluted at 0.1 M of NaCl) at fraction numbers between (7 and 13) . The second peaks (eluted at 0.2 M of NaCl) give peak between (18-20).



Figure(6.2) : Ion Exchange for Diabetic patient

Results for diabetic nephropathy patient in figure (6.3) showed two proteins peaks that appeared after elution by the gradient concentration of sodium chloride, while no protein peaks appeared in the washing fractions. The GPCR concentration were measured in the fractions of these two protein peaks. Data indicated that GPCR located in the first protein peak (eluted at 0.1 M of NaCl) in fraction numbers between (7 and 13). The second peaks (eluted at 0.2 M of NaCl) give peak between (19-21).



Figure (6.3) : Ion Exchange for Diabetic Nephropathy patient

6.2.2 – Gel filtration chromatography :

After purification by ion exchange chromatography fractions were collected pooled and concentrated to be applied in gel filtration chromatography by using sepharose 6B column . Aliquot of five mL of concentrated fraction was injected into column (65 x 1.5) cm which previously equilibrated with 50 Mm phosphate buffer saline (pH=7.4) , and eluted with elution buffer PBS pH =7.4 containing (0.5Mm) DDM . Flow rate was (1ml /min) with 5 ml for each fraction that monitored at 280 nm .

Results displayed in figures (6.4-6.5-6.6) showed a single active protein peak after eluted with elution buffer that was identical with the peak that presented GPCR concentrations at fractions number (14) for control patients and show of single active protein peak that was identical with the peak that presented GPCR concentrations at fractions number (12) for diabetic patients which show a single active protein peak that was identical with the peak that presented GPCR concentrations at fractions number (12) for diabetic nephropathy patients .



Figure (6.4) : Gel -filtration for Control patient



Figure (6.5): Gel -ffiltration for Diabetic patient



Figure (6.6) : Gel -ffiltration for Diabetic Nephropathy patient

Volume, protein concentration, GPCR concentration, specific activity, purification fold for all purification steps of GPCR from control, diabetic and diabetic nephropathy are shown in table (6.2).

Table (6.2) : Volume , protein concentration , GPCR concentration , specific activity , purification fold for all purification steps of GPCR from control , diabetic and diabetic nephropathy

Steps	Volume (ml)	Protein con.(mg/ml)	GPCR con.(ng/ml)	Specific activity (ng/mg)	Purification fold		
Crude	30	0.89	6.61	7.42	1.0		
Ion exchange	12	0.718	5.32	7.49	1.1		
Gel filtration	8	0.32	3.26	10.18	1.37		
	Diabetic						
Crude	30	0.92	6.19	6.72	1.0		
Ion exchange	10	0.713	5.688	7.9	1.17		
Gel filtration	8	0.512	4.89	9.55	1.42		
Diabetic nephropathy							
Crude GPCR	30	0.94	5.322	5.66	1.0		
Ion exchange	9	0.723	4.49	6.21	1.1		
Gel filtration	7	0.525	3.52	6.7	1.18		

Control

6.3- Determination of purity and molecular weight of GPCR by SDS-PAGE:

The molecular weight and purity of GPCR that purified from the G1,G2 and G3 were determined by sodium dodecyl sulfate –polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE) ,as shown in figure (6.7) .



Figure (6.7) SDS-PAGE of purified GPCR G1,G2 and G3

Results indicated the appearance of two bands of GPCR in the control subject at approximady (~30 KD) and at (~51 KD). This could be due to the isoform of GPCR that papered in these groups . As it was reported that the monomeric form is important to activate G-protein for binding , and they stated that further studies are required to understand the function of the dimerization of such receptor for its biological function $^{(164,165)}$.

Results ,also , showed the appearance of three bands in G2 that related to GPCR in (~ 29 KD) and (~ 47,49 KD) . While, it is not very clear related to its little concentrations . In diabetic nephropathy G3 bands ,also , appeared similar to the bands appeared in G2 but with highly clearance related to its highly concentration as show in table (6-2) . This three bands related to the type of GPCR and its isoform in this disease .

Chapter six

Study revealed that expression does not always lead to successful functional membrane purification which do not retain their activity of post – purification $^{(166)}$. Engineering a robust microbial host for GPCR expression , investigated the expression of 12 GPCRs in the diabetic disease . All receptors were expressed at the mg/L scale , however only the human adenosine A2a receptor with M.wt of (47.05 KD) is active for ligand – binding and located primarily at the plasma membrane , whereas other tested GPCRs mainly retained within the cell which suggests that a pool of receptors may be folded incorrectly $^{(166)}$.

superimposed NMR-derived structure to the homologous regions in the crystal structure of the β_2 receptor and , revealed a sensible conformation and orientation for the TM2 and TM3 mimetics .⁽¹⁶⁷⁾

Previous study for 5-hydroxytryptamine_{1B} revealed bands with apparent molecular weights of ~43 and ~86 kDa, corresponding to 5-HT_{1B} receptor monomers and dimers . In cells expressing the 5-HT_{1D} receptor, bands with apparent molecular weights of ~38 and ~76 kDa representing 5-HT_{1D} receptor monomers and dimers were immunodetected . 5-HT_{1B} and 5-HT_{1D} receptor monomers are predicted by sequence analysis to be ~43 and ~38 kDa, respectively . ⁽¹⁶⁸⁾

GPR40 is a membrane-bound receptor paired with medium and long-chain fatty acids (FFA) as endogenous ligands. Its acute activation potentiates insulin secretion from beta cells, whereas prolonged binding might contribute to the deleterious effects of chronic exposure to FFA. Little information is available on the expression of GPR40 and its regulation in human islets (HI)⁽¹⁶⁹⁾.

G-protein coupled receptor 40 (GPR40) has drawn a considerable attention as a potential therapeutic target for type 2 diabetes. As GPR40

agonist may offer advantages to commonly used agents, by acting ambient glucose dependent manner which mechanistically leads to reduced risk of developing hypoglycemia⁽¹⁶⁹⁾.

The glucagon – like peptide -1 receptor (GLP1R) is a class B GPCR with M.wt 53 KD, that found in type two diabetes in previous study $^{(170)}$.

Study found that a short form of dopamine receptor D2 (DRD2S) is efficiently transported to the primary cilia, while a long form of dopamine receptor D2 (DRD2L) is rarely transported to the primary cilia. Using an anti-Prlhr antibody, we found that Prlhr localized to the cilia on the surface of the third ventricle in the vicinity of the hypothalamic periventricular nucleus. Predicted molecular seizes of GPCRs are as follows: DRD2S, 47.3kDa; DRD2L, 50.6kDa; NPFFR1, 47.8kDa NMUR1, 47.4kDa; NPFFR2, 47.4kDa; NMUR2, 47.8kDa; PRLHR, 41.1kDa.⁽¹⁷¹⁾

G-protein-coupled receptors (GPCRs) modulate cytoplasmic signalling in response to extracellular stimuli, and are important therapeutic targets in a wide range of diseases. Structure determination of GPCRs in all activation states is important to elucidate the precise mechanism of signal transduction and to facilitate optimal drug design. However, due to their inherent instability, crystallisation of GPCRs in complex with cytoplasmic signalling proteins, such as heterotrimeric G proteins and β -arrestins, has proved challenging. Study engineered mini-Gs, using rational design mutagenesis, to form a stable complex with detergent-solubilised β 1-adrenergic receptor (β 1AR). Mini G proteins induce similar pharmacological and structural changes in GPCRs as heterotrimeric G proteins, but eliminate many of the problems associated with crystallisation of these complexes, specifically their large size,
conformational dynamics and instability in detergent. They are therefore novel tools, which will facilitate the biochemical and structural characterisation of GPCRs in their active conformation. ⁽¹⁷²⁾

According to the previous researches that improved molecular weight of GPCRs about ~30 and ~50 KD, such as GLP-1R (~53 KD), GPCR 40 (31,438), α_2 - Adregeric receptor (~50 KD) , β_2 - Adregeric receptor (47.058KD) ,so , in this study one or more of the above receptors were purified in diabetic and diabetic nephropathy . further study is important to know amino acid sequences in the purified receptors to know the type of GPCR that purified in these patients exactly .

Conclusion

1- Results showed the appearance of two bands of GPCR in the control subject at approximady (~ 30 KD) and at (~51 KD).

2-Results ,also , showed appearance of three bands related to GPCR in (~ 29 KD) and (~ 47,49 KD) . While it is not very clear related to its little concentrations . In diabetic nephropathy bands ,also , appeared similar to the bands appeared in G2 but with highly clearance related to its highly concentration .

3-The conclusion could be drawn from this study that 2 bands of GPCR appear in control group while there are three bands appeared in G2 and G3 with different concentrations which may be useful in early detection and active treatment to controlling diabetic and diabetic nephropathy patients .

As far as to our knowledge this is the first study reported the purification of GPCR from Iraqi control subjects, diabetic patients and diabetic nephropathy patients by using DEAE-sepharose in ion exchange chromatography and sepharose 6B in gel filtration chromatography. In order to compare the levels and types of GPCR that appear in these groups which may be useful in diagnosis the defect in GPCR type to predict treatment for these patient's to improve disease in these patient's and to reduce the development of the disease.

Recommendation :

Study recommended to :

1- Study make on large scale of GPCR .

2- Number of patients increased to increase GPCR concentration in diabetic and diabetic nephropathy patients .

3- Amino acid analyzer must be doing to the purified GPCR from all groups to improve the type of GPCR that appear in this disease .

References:

(1) Taylor R. Type 2 diabetes: etiology and reversibility. Diabetes Care. 2013;36(4):1047-1055.

(2) Van Belle TL, Coppieters KT, von Herrath MG. Type 1 diabetes: etiology, immunology, and therapeutic strategies. Physiol Rev. 2011;91(1):79-118.

(3) Bowden DW ,Cox AJ, Freedman BI, Hugenschmidt CE , Wagenknecht LE, Herrington D, Agarwal S, Register TD, Maldjian JA, Ng MC, Hsu FC, Langefeld CD, Williamson JD, Carr JJ. Review of the Diabetes Heart Study (DHS) family of studies: a comprehensively examined sample for genetic and epidemiological studies of type 2 diabetes and its complications. Rev Diabet Stud. 2010;7(3):188-201.

(4) Gariani K, de Seigneux S, Pechere-Bertschi A, Philippe J, Martin PY. Diabetic nephropathy: an update. Rev Med Suisse .2012;8(330):473-479.

(5) Sung KC, Rhee EJ. Glycated haemoglobin as a predictor for metabolic syndrome in non-diabetic Korean adults. Diabet Med. 2007;24:848-54.

(6) Jones GC, Macklin JP, Alexander WD. Contraindications to the use of metformin. BMJ .2003; 326: 4–5 .

(7) Lim, Andy KH. "Diabetic nephropathy – complications and treatment
". International Journal of nephrology and Renovascular Disease.2014:7:361-381.

(8) Perkovic V,Heerspink HL,chalmers J,Woodward M,Jun M,Li Q, MacMahon S Cooper ME, Hamet P,Marre M,Mogensen CE , poulter N,Mancia G, Cass A,Patel A,Zoungas S . advance collaborative Group .Kidney Int.2013;83(3):517-23 .

(9) Tavafi MA ,Complexity of diabetic nephropathy pathogenesis and design of investigations . J Renal Inj Prev. 2013; 2(2): 59–62.

(10) Saito Y, Hongwei W, Ueno H, Mizuta M, Nakazato M. Telmisartan attenuates fatty-acid-induced oxidative stress and NAD (P) H oxidase activity in pancreatic B-cells. Diabetes Metab .2009;35(5):392–7.

(11) Duran-Salgado MB, Rubio-Guerra AF. Diabetic nephropathy and inflammation. World J Diabetes. 2014;5(3):393–8.

(12) Vinik A.I., Nevoret M.L., and Casellini C The new age of sudomotor function testing: a sensitive and specific biomarker for diagnosis, estimation of severity, monitoring progression, and regression in diabetic nephropathy. Frontiers in Endocrinology. 2015. 6(94):1-12.

(13) Zohreh R,. The role of Renin angiotensin Aldosterone system Genes in diabetic nephropathy. 2016 .40(2):178-83.

(14) Gnudi L, Goldsmith D. Renin angiotensin aldosterone system (RAAS) inhibitors in the prevention of early renal disease in diabetes. Med Rep 2010;18(2):1–4.

(15) Meeme A, Kasozi H. Effect of glycemic monitoring on glomerular filtration rate in Diabetes Mellitus patients. Afr Health Sci. 2009;9(1):S23–6.

(16) Nath, K. A. Tubulointerstitial changes as a major determinant in the progression of renal damage. Am. J. Kidney Dis. 1992 .20, 1–17.

(17) Javier Donate - C, Ernesto Martín-N, Mercedes Muros-de-F, Carmen Mora-F, and Juan F. Navarro-G. Inflammatory Cytokines in Diabetic Nephropathy. Diabetes Research . 2015; 948417: 9 .

(18) Arora MK, Singh UK .Molecular mechanisms in the the pathogenesis of diabetic nephropathy : An update . Vascular Pharmacol. 2013;58:259-71 .

(19) Ziyadeh, F. N., Han, D. C., Cohen, J. A., Guo, J. and Cohen, M. P. Glycated albumin stimulates fibronectin gene expression in glomerular mesangial cells: involvement of the transforming growth factor- β system. Kidney Int.1998. 53, 631–638.

(20) Kolm-Litty, V., Sauer, U., Nerlich, A., Lehmann, R. and Schleicher, E. D. High glucose-induced transforming growth factor β 1 production is mediated by the hexosamine pathway in porcine glomerular mesangial cells. J. Clin. Invest.1998. 101, 160–169.

(21) Wolf G, MD, Fuad N, Ziyadeh . The role of angiotensin II in diabetic nephropathy: Emphasis on nonhemodynamic mechanisms. Am. J. Kidney Dis .1997; 29 (1) : 153–163

(22) Studer, R. K., Negrete, H., Craven, P. A. and DeRubertis, F. R. Protein kinase C signals thromboxane induced increases in fibronectin synthesis and TGF- β bioactivity in mesangial cells. Kidney Int.1995. 48, 422–430.

(23) Bogan, J.S. Regulation of glucose transporter translocation in health and diabetes. Annu. Rev. Biochem. 2012. 81: 507–532.

(24) Rhoades , Rodney A, Bell, David R. Medical phisiology: Principles for clinical medicine $(3^{rd} ed.)$.Philadelphia : Lippincott Williams & Wilkins . 2009;644-647 .

(25) Rosenthal MD., and Glewm RH. Medical biochemistry: Human metabolism in health and disease. A John Wiley & Sons, Inc., Publication, USA. 2009; 112-40.

(26) Amisten S, Salehi A, Rorsman P, Jones PM, Persaud SJ. An atlas and functional analysis of G-protein coupled receptors in human islets of Langerhans. Pharmacol Ther. 2013;139(3):359-391.

(27) Anuradha G., Malini S., and Jyoti S., A Role of Insulin in different types of Diabetes. Int.J.Curr.Microbiol.App.Sci. 2015; 4(1): 58-77.

(28) Chen, Y.; Wang, Y.; Zhang, J.; Deng, Y.; Jiang, L.; Song, E.; Wu, X.S.; Hammer, J.A.; and Xu, T.; Lippincott-Schwartz, J.; et al. Rab10 and myosin-Va mediate insulin-stimulated GLUT4 storage vesicle translocation in adipocytes. J. Cell Biol. 2012; 198, 545–560.

(29) Llewellyn-Smith, I.J., Reimann, F., Gribble, F.M., Trapp, S. Preproglucagon neurons project widely to autonomic control areas in the mouse brain. Neuroscience .2011 .180:111e121.

(30) Ansorge, S., Nordhoff, K., Bank, U., Heimburg, A., Julius, H., Breyer, D., Thielitz, A., Reinhold, D. and Tager, M. Novel aspects of cellular action of dipeptidyl peptidase IV/CD26. Biol. Chem. 2011.392; 153–168.

(31) Drucker DJ: The biology of incretin hormones. Cell Metab .2006;3:153–165.

(32) Ma X,Guan Y,Hua X . "Glucagon-like peptide-1 potentiated insulin secretion and proliferation of pancreatic β -cells ". Diabetes.2014; 6(5): 394-402 .

(33) Aulinger BA, Vahl TP, Wilson-perez HE, Prigeon RL, D'Alessio DA . B-cells sensitivity to GLP-1 in Healthy Humans Is Variable and proportional to insulin Sensitivity . J Clin Endocrinol Metab. 2015. 100:2489-96.

(34) Thompson A, Kanamarlapudi V . Type 2 Diabetes Mellitus and Glucagon Like Peptide-1 Receptor Signalling. Clin Exp Pharmacol.2013.3: 138.

(35) Seghieri M, Rebelos E, Gastaldelli A, Astiarraga BD, Casolaro A, Barsotti E, Pocai A, Nauck M, Muscelli E, Ferrannini E: Direct effect of GLP-1 infusion on endogenous glucose production in humans. Diabetologia. 2013.56:156–161. 2013.

(36) Mietlicki-Baase EG, Ortinski PI, Rupprecht LE, Olivos DR, Alhadeff AL,pierce RC,Hayes MR. The food intake- suppressive effects of glucagon-like peptide-1 receptor signaling in the ventral tegmental area are mediated by AMPA/kainite receptors. Am J physiol Endocrinol Metab.2013; 305:E1367-74.

(37) DeFronzo RA., Okerson T, Viswanathan P, Guan X, John H. Holcombe JH, Macconell L. Effects of exenatide versus sitagliptin on postprandial glucose, insulin and glucagon secretion, gastric emptying, and caloric intake: a randomized, cross-over study. Current Medical Research and Opinion. 2008;24(10): 2943-2952.

(38) Nauck M, Frid A, Hermansen K, Thomsen AB, During M, Shah N, Tankova T, Mitha I, Matthews DR: Long-term efficacy and safety comparison of liraglutide, glimepiride and placebo, all in combination with metformin in type 2 diabetes: 2-year results from the LEAD-2 study. Diabetes Obes Metab.2013; 15:204–212.

(39) Glucagon-like peptide-1 analogues –a practical guide to initiation . Diabetes & Primary Care Australia .2017 ; 2 (1):35-9 . (40) Kodera, R., Shikata, K., Kataoka, H. U., Takatsuka, T., Miyamoto, S., Sasaki, M., Kajitani, N., Nishishita, S., Sarai, K., Hirota, D. et al. Glucagon-like peptide-1 receptor agonist ameliorates renal injury through its anti-inflammatory action without lowering blood glucose level in a rat model of type 1 diabetes. Diabetologia. 2017;54: 965–978.

(41) Crajoinas, R. O., Oricchio, F. T., Pessoa, T. D., Pacheco, B. P., Lessa, L. M., Malnic, G. and Girardi, A. C. Mechanisms mediating the diuretic and natriuretic actions of the incretin hormone glucagon-like peptide-1. Am. J. Physiol. Renal Physiol.2011; 301: F355–F363.

(42) Kolar GR, Elrick MM, Yosten GLC. G protein-coupled receptor signaling: Implications for the treatment of diabetes and its complications. OA Evidence-Based Medicine .2014 ; 18;2(1):2.

(43) Ming HUG., Lun Mai T., Ming chem C., Visualizing the GPCR network : classification and Evolution , Scientific Reports , 2017;7:15495.

(44) Taylor SS, Zhang P, Steichen JM, Keshwani MM, Kornev AP. PKA: lessons learned after twenty years. Biochim Biophys Acta. 2013;1834(7):1271-8.

(45) Zhong H, SuYang H, Erdjument-Bromage H, Tempst P, Ghosh S. The transcriptional activity of NF-kappaB is regulated by the IkappaB-associated PKAc subunit through a cyclic AMP-independent mechanism. Cell. 1997,89:413-24.

(46) Kim J, Geoffrey Li, Michael A. Walters, Susan S. Taylor, and Veglia G .Uncoupling catalytic and binding functions in the cyclic AMP-Depending protein kinase A. Structure. 2016;24(3): 353–363 .

(47) Mousumi Ghosh, Vladimir Aguirre, Khine Wai, Hady Felfly,
W.Dalton Dietrich , and Damien D.Pearse. The Interplay between Cyclic AMP, MAPK, and NF-_KB pathways in Response in Microglia . BioMed Research International. Biomed Res Int. 2015; 308461.

(48) Burant .CF. Aotivation of GPCR 40 as a therapentic target for the treatment of type2 diabetes . Diabetes care .2013;36(2):S 175-9 .

(49) Amisten S, Salehi A, Rorsman P, Jones PM, Persaud SJ. An atlas and functional analysis of G-protein coupled receptors in human islets of Langerhans. Pharmacol Ther. 2013;139(3):359-391.

(50) Barham D., and Trinder P. An improved colour reagent for the determination of blood glucose by the oxidase system. Analyst. 1972; 97(151):5-142.

(51) Abraham, E. C., Huff, T. A., and Cope, N. D., Determination of the glycosylated hemoglobins (HbA1c) with a new microcolumn procedure. Suitability of the technique for assessing the clinical management of diabetes mellitus. Diabetes. 1978; 27, 931-937.

(52) Weatherurn., M.W. Phenol-hypochlorite reaction for determination of ammonia. Chem. 1967; 39 (8):971–974

(53) Jaffe, M.Z. determination of creatinine .Physiol Chem .1869; 391.

(54) Doumas , P . T , Biggs , H.G. Determination of serum albumin , ACAD. PRESS ,N . Y.,1972, 175-188.

(55) Richmond W. Proceeding in the development of an enzymatic technique for the assay of cholesterol in biological fluids. Clin Sci Mol Med. 1974; 46:67.

(56) Fossati P., and Prencipe L. Measurement of serum triglyceride calorimetrically with an enzyme that produce H_2O_2 . Clin. Chem. 1982; 28(10):2077-2088.

(57) Burstein M., Scholink H.R., and Morfin R. Measurement of HDL-c in the plasma with a sensitive calorimetric method .J Lipid Res. 1970;19:583.

(58) Friedewald WT, Levy RI, and Fredrickson DS. Estimation of the concentration of low-density lipoprotein cholesterol in plasma, without use of the preparative ultracentrifuge. Clin Chem. 1972; 18:499-502.

(59) Shivanada Nayak B .Manipal Manual of clinical biochemistry .3rd ed .Medical publishers (p) LTD .2007

(60) Matthews DR, Hosker JP, Rudenski AS, Naylor BA, Treacher DF, and Turner RC. "Homeostasis model assessment: insulin resistance and beta-cell function from fasting plasma glucose and insulin concentrations in man.". Diabetologia . 1985; 28 (7): 412–9.

(61) Tavafi M. Complexity of diabetic nephropathy pathogenesis and design of investigations. J Renal Inj Prev 2013; 2(1): 59-62.

(62) Dixit et al. The prevalence of dyslipidemia in patients with diabetes mellitus of ayurveda Hospital . Journal of Diabetes & Metabolic Disorders, 2014; 13:58.

(63) Taskinen MR, Borén J. New insights into the pathophysiology of dyslipidemia in type 2 diabetes. Atherosclerosis.2015; 239(2):483–495.

(64) Muoio DM, and Newgard CB: Mechanisms of disease: molecular and metabolic mechanisms of insulin resistance and beta-cell failure in type 2 diabetes. Nat Rev Mol Cell Biol. 2008; 9:193–205.

(65) Nauck MA.A critical analysis of the clinical use of incretin – based therapies: the benefits by far outweigh the potential risks. Diabetes care. 2013; 36:2126–32.

(66) Unger RH: Reinventing type 2 diabetes: pathogenesis, treatment, and prevention. The Journal of the American Medical Association 2008; 299(10):1185-1187.

(67) Jonathan D.S., yilfeliu and Handrem S .Diabetes Dyslipidemia .Diabetes ther. 2016; 7(2):203–219.

(68) Bessho M, Murase-Mishiba Y, Imagawa A, Terasaki J, and Hanafusa T. Possible contribution of taurine to distorted glucagon secretion in intra-islet insulin deficiency: a metabolome analysis using a novel alpha-cell model of insulin-deficient diabetes. PLoS One. 2014; 9: e113254.

(69) kahn, SE. Incretin therapy and islet pathology :a time for caution . Diabetes. 2013;62:2178-80 .

(70) Carroll JF, Kaiser KA, Franks SF, Deere C, and Caffrey JL Influence of BMI and gender on postprandial hormone responses. Obesity (Silver Spring). 2007; 15:2974-2983.

(71) Liu,J;Li,L;Deng, K;Xu,C;Busse,JW;Vandvik, Po;Li,S; Guyatt, GH;Sun,X " Incretin based treatments and mortality in patients with type 2 diabetes:systematic review and meta-analysis ". BMJ (Clinical research ed.). 2017; 357:j2499 .

(72) Gareth Eu-Juang Lim "The effect of insulin and insulin resistance on glucagon-like peptide-1 secretion from the intestinal L cell." Doctorate of

Philosophy / Department of Physiology/ University of Toronto; Gareth Eu-Juang Lim. 2009.

(73) Boer IH. A new chapter for diabetic kidney disease . N Engl J Med 2017;377:885-887 .

(74) Xiao C, Dash S, Morgantini C, Adeli K, Lewis GF. Gut peptides are novel regulators of intestinal lipoprotein secretion: experimental and pharmacological manipulation of lipoprotein metabolism. Diabetes 2015;64:2310–2318.

(75) Calanna S, Christensen M, Holst JJ,et al. "Secretion of glucagonlike peptide-1 in patients with type 2 diabetes mellitus: systematic review and meta-analysis of clinical studies ". Diabetologia . 2013; 56(5): 965-972 .

(76) Seghieri M, Rebelos E, Gastaldelli A, Astiarraga BD, Casolaro A, Barsotti E, Pocai A, Nauck M, Muscelli E, Ferrannini E Direct effect of GLP-1 infusion on endogenous glucose production in humans. Diabetologia.2013; 56:156–161.

(77) Petrie JR The cardiovascular safety of incretin-based therapies: a review of the evidence . Cardiovasc Diabetol .2013;12:130 .

(78) S. Karger AG, Cellular Physiology and Biochemistry.Basel cell physiol Biochem 2017;42:1165-1176

(79) Poparic Ds etal . GLP-1 receptor Agonists and type1 diabetes – where do we stand ? curr pharm Des.2015,21(36):5292-8

(80) De-hua Y., Cai-hong Z., Qing L., an Ming-wei W., "Landmark studies on the glucagon subfamily of GPCRs: from small molecule modulators to a crystal structure". Acta Pharmacol Sin. 2015; 36(9): 1033–1042.

(81) Prasad-Reddy L, Isaacs D.A clinical review of GLP-1 receptor agoinsts:efficacy and safety in diabetes and beyond. Drugs Context. 2015;4:212283

(82) Thompson A, and Kanamarlapudi V. Type 2 Diabetes Mellitus and Glucagon Like Peptide-1 Receptor Signalling. Clin Exp Pharmacol. 2013;3: 138.

(83) Kohl B.A., Hammond M.S., Cucchiara A.J., Ochroch E.A.. Intravenous GLP-1 (7-36) amide for prevention of hyperglycemia during cardiac surgery: a randomized , double-blind, placebo-controlled study .J Cardiothorac Vasc Anesth . 2014; 28: 618-625.

(84) Sindhu R., Lorna M.D., Elizabeth M., Caitlin M.O.O., Johanne H.E., Louis H.P., and Barton W., "Chronic hyperglycemia downregulates GLP-1 receptor signaling in pancreatic β -cells via protein kinase A" Mol Metab. 2015; 4(4): 265–276.

(85) Ahren B . Incretin dysfunction in type 2 diabetes : clinical impact and future perspective . diabetes and metabolism . 2013;39(3):195-201 .

(86) Shao Y., Yuan G, Feng Y, Zhang J, Guo X. Early liraglutide treatment is better in glucose control, beta –cell function improvement and mass preservation in db/db mice. peptides .2014;52:134-142.

(87) Akinobu N., and Yasuo T., "Present status of clinical deployment of glucokinase activators". J Diabetes Invest. 2015; 6: 124–132.

(88) Khu LY, Story KB, Rubtsov AM, Goncharova NY. Regulation of glucokinase activity in liver of hibernating ground squirrel spermophilus undulates.2014;79(7):727-32.

(89) Da Young oh ,Jerold M.O. .G-protein coupled receptors as targets for anti-diabetic there pentics . Nature reviews Drug discovery .2016;15:161-172 .

(90) Mei Li Ng , Carol Wadham, and Olga A .Sukocheva .The role of sphingolipid signaling in diabetes- associated pathologies .2017;39(2):243-252 .

(91) Amisten S., Salehi A ,Rorsman P, Jones PM, Persand SJ. An atlas and function analysis of G-protein coupled receptors in human islets of Lanyerhahs .Pharmacol Ther .2013;139:359-391 .

(92) Kentaro Sakamoto, Sumie Okahata, Takako Mitsumatsu, Teruo Shiba . Effect of GLP-1 receptor agonists on free fatty acids and implication for preventing atherosclerosis . atherosclerosis .2017; 263: 161–162 .

(93) Choi Y J etal . GPCR 40 agonists as novel therapeutics for type2 diabetes . Arch pharm Res . 2014 ;37(4):435-9 .

(94) Komatsu H, Maruyama M, Yao S, Shinohara T, Sakuma K, and Imaichi S, Anatomical Transcriptome of G Protein-Coupled Receptors Leads to the Identification of a Novel Therapeutic Candidate GPR52 for Psychiatric Disorders. PLoS ONE. 2014; 9(2): e90134. (95) Chac RS., Rasmussen SG. ,Rana RR., contfryd K., chandra R. Maltose – neopentyl glycol (MNG) amphiphiles for solubilization, stabilization and crystallization of membrane proteins. Nat. Methods, 2010; 7,1003-1008.

(96) Serebryany E ., Zhu AG. and Yan YE. Artifical membrane-like environments for in vitro Studies of purified G-protein coupled receptors. Biochemica et Biophysica Acta. 2012; 1818: 225-233.

(97) Mohammed Jamshad ,Jack Charlton ,[...],and Mark Wheatly .Gprotein coupled receptor solubilization and purification for biophysical analysis and functional studies, in the total absence of detergent . Biosci Rep. 2015; 35(2): e00188.

(98) Filipek S., Stenkamp RE., Teller CD., palczewski K. G-protein coupled receptor rhodopsin : Aprospectus . Annu. Rev. physiol, 2003; 65 : 851-879 .

(99) Papermaster DS. preparation of retinal rod outer segments methods. Enzymol, 1982;81: 48- 52.

(100) Okada T., Le Trong I., Fox BA., Behnke CA., Stenkamp RE., Palczewski K. X-ray diffraction analysis of three dimensional crystals of bovine rhodopsin obtained from mixed micelles. J. Structure . Biol. 2000; 130(1): 73-80.

(101) Zhang L., salom D., He J., Okun A., Ballesteros J., palczewski
K., Li N. Expression of functional G-protein coupled receptors in photoreceptors of transgenic xanopos leavis , Biochemistry, 2005; 44(44): 14509-14518.

(102) Daulatts MA ., Maurice P. , Foment C., Guillaume IJ., Broussard C., Monsarrat B., Delagrange P. and Jockers R . purification and identification of G-protein coupled receptor protein complexes under native conditions. Molecular and cellular proteomics, 2007; 6:835-844.

(103) Salom D., Wu N., Sun W., Dong Z., Palczewski K., Jordan S., Salon JA. Heterologous Expression and purification of the serotonin type 4 receptor from Transgenic Mouse Retina . Biochemistry Val. 2008;47(50): 13296-13307 .

(104) Cook Bl., Steuerward D., Kaiser L., Graveland-BikkerJ., Vanberghem M. Berke P., Herlihy K., Pick H., Vogel H. and Zhang S. large-scale production and study of a synthetic G-protein coupled receptor : Human olfactory receptor 17-4. PNAS. 2009;106(29) : 11925-11930.

(105) Ren H., Yu D., Ge B., Cook B., Xu Z ., Zhang S. High level production , solubilization and purification of synthetic Human GPCR Chemokine Receptors CCR5,CCR3,CXCR4 and CX3CR1.PLoS ONE. 2008; 4(2) : e 4509 .

(106) Wang X., corin K., Rich C., Zhang Sh. study of two G-protein coupled receptor variants of human trace amino-associated receptor 5. Scientific Reports. 2011;1:102-110.

(107) Xu B., Chakraborty R., Eilers M., Dakshinamurti S.,O'Neil JD., Smith SO., Bhullar RP., Chelikani P. High-level Expression purification and Characterization of a constitutivety Active Thromboxane A $_2$ receptor polymorphic variant. PLoS ONE. 2013; 8(9) : e 76481.

(108) Ma Y., Kubicek J. and Labahn J. Expression and purification of functional Human Mu. Opioid Receptor from E. Coli. PLoS ONE.2013; 8(2): 56500-56507.

(109) Wess J,. G-protein-coupled receptors and islet function Implications for treatment of type 2 diabetes, Pharmacology & Therapeutics . 2007;116 (3): 437-448.

(110) Frank Reimann and Fiona M.Gribble .G protein-coupled receptors as new therapeutic targets for thype 2 diabetes. Metabolic Research Laboratories.2016;59:229-233.

(111) Oh Dy , Olefsky JM .G protein coupled receptors as targets for anti-diabetic therapeutics .Nat Rev Drug Discov. 2016;15(3):161-72.

(112) Tan T, Bloom S. Gut hormones as therapeutic agents in treatment of diabetes and obesity. Curr Opin Pharmacol. 2013;13:996–1001.

(113) Sara J.Brandt, Timo D. Müller. Gut hormone polyagonists for the treatment of type2 diabetes . Elsevier Sponsored Documents.2018 ;100:190-201.

(114) Jeremy P., Irl H., Steven E. GLP-1 agonists in type 1 diabetes . Clinical Immunology . 2013;149 (3): 317-323

(115) Mancini AD, Poitout V. GPR40 agonists for the treatment of type 2 diabetes: life after 'TAKing' a hit. Diabetes Obes Metab. 2015;17:622–629.

(116) Vsevolod K, Vadim C, and Raymond C. S. Structure-Function of the G Protein–Coupled Receptor Superfamily . Annual Review of Pharmacology and Toxicology.2013;53: 531-556.

(117) Reimann F, Tolhurst G, Gribble FM. G-protein-coupled receptors in intestinal chemosensation. Cell Metab. 2012;15:421–431.

(118) Darren M.Riddy,Philippe Delerive,Roger J.Summers , Patrick M.Sexton and Christopher J.Langmead . G protein coupled receptors targeting insulin resistance , obesity , and type 2 diabetes mellitus .Pharmacological reviews . 2018.70(1) 39-67 .

(119) Kimple ME ,Neuman JC ,Linnemann AK ,Casey PJ . Inhibitory G protein and their receptors : emerging therapeutic targets for obesity and diabetes . EXP Mol Med. 2014 ;46:e102.

(120) Ashcroft FM , Rorsman P. K_{ATP} channels and islet hormone secretion : new insights and controversies . Nat Rev Endocrinol . 2013;9:660–669.

(121) McCormick LM, Heck PM, Ring LS, et al. Glucagon-like peptide-1 protects against ischemic left ventricular dysfunction during hyperglycemia in patients with coronary artery disease and type 2 diabetes mellitus. Cardiovasc Diabetol. 2015;14:102.

(122) Richards P, Parker HE, Adriaenssens AE, et al. Identification and characterization of GLP-1 receptor-expressing cells using a new transgenic mouse model. Diabetes. 2014;63:1224–1233.

(123) Layden, B. T., Durai, V. & Lowe, Jr., W. L . G-Protein-Coupled Receptors, Pancreatic Islets, and Diabetes . Nature Education 2010; 3(9):13.

(124) Li Y, Cheng KC, Cheng JT. GPR119 and GPR131: Functional Difference? Curre Res Diabetes Obes J. 2017;1:555566.

(125) Li Y, Cheng KC, Cheng J-T. New Target(s) for Diabetes Treatment. Ann Diabetes Res. 2017; 1(1): 1002.

(126) Michael A.Kalwat ,Melanie H. Cobb.Mechanisms of the amplifying pathway of insulin secretion in the β -cell. Pharmthera.2017;179:17-30.

(127) Kalwat MA , Cobb MH . Mechanisms of the amplifying pathway of insulin secretion in the β cell . Pharmacol Ther. 2017;179:17-30.

(128) Zou CY, Gong Y, Liang J. Metabolic signaling of insulin secretion by pancreatic β -cell and its derangement in type 2 diabetes. Eur Rev Med Pharmacol Sci. 2014;18(15):2215-27.

(129) Meister J , Le Duc D , Ricken A , Burkhardt R , Thiery J , Pfannkuche H , Polte T , Grosse J , Schöneberg T , Schulz A . The G protein-coupled receptor P2Y14 influences insulin release and smooth muscle function in mice. J Biol Chem. 2014;289(34):23353-66.

(130) SU-Xian Zhou, Dong-Mei Huo,Xiao-Yun He,Ping Yu,Yan-Hua Xaio,Chun-Lin Ou,Ren-Mei Jiang ,Dan Li,Hao Li .High gloucose /lysophosphatidylcholine levels stimulate extracellular matrix deposition in diabetic nephropathy via platelet – activating factor receptor . Mol Med Rep.2018; 17(2): 2366–2372.

(131) Riddy DM, Delerive P, Summers RJ, Sexton PM, Langmead CJ. G Protein-Coupled Receptors Targeting Insulin Resistance, Obesity, and Type 2 Diabetes Mellitus. Pharmacol Rev. 2018;70(1):39-67.

(132) Fridlyand LE, Philipson LH. Pancreatic Beta Cell G-Protein Coupled Receptors and Second Messenger Interactions: A Systems Biology Computational Analysis. PLoS One. 2016;11(5):e0152869.

(133) Wenzel K, Haase H, Wallukat G, Derer W, Bartel S, Homuth V, Herse F, Huebner N, Schulz H, Janczikowski M, Lindschau C, Schroeder C, Verlohren S, Morano I, Mueller D, Luft FC, Dietz R, Dechend R, Karczewski P. Potential functional relevance of a α_1 - adrenergic receptor autoantibodies in refractory hypertension. PLoS ONE 2008;3:e3742. (134) Jessica Edith Rodriguez et al. Expression and localization of the AT1 and AT2 angiotensin II receptors and α 1A and α 1D adrenergic receptors in aorta of hypertensive and diabetic rats . clinical and expremantal hypertension .2017 ; 39(1)85-92.

(135) Jessica Edith- Rodriguez, Aldo Arturo Resendiz-Albor, Ivonne Maciel Arciniega-Martinez, Rafael campos-Rodriguez,Enrique Hong. Effect of early diabetes on the expression of alpha-1 adrenergic receptors in arteries of wistar kyoto and spontaneously hypertensive rats . clinical and expremantal hypertension . 2013 ; 35(6)389-395.

(136) Miles Berger, David W. Scheel, Hector Macias, Takeshi Miyatsuka, Hail Kim, Phuong Hoang, Greg M. Ku, Gerard Honig, Angela Liou,a,b Yunshuo Tang, Jean B. Regard, Panid Sharifnia,g Lisa Yu,g Juehu Wang, Shaun R. Coughlin, Bruce R. Conklin, Evan S. Deneris,i Laurence H. Tecott, and Michael S. Germanc. $G\alpha i/o$ -coupled receptor signaling restricts pancreatic β -cell expansion . Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A. 2015; 112(9): 2888–2893.

(137) El Ouaamari A, et al. Liver-derived systemic factors drive β cell hyperplasia in insulin-resistant states. Cell Reports. 2013;3(2):401–410.

(138) Brouwers B, et al. Impaired islet function in commonly used transgenic mouse lines due to human growth hormone minigene expression. Cell Metab .2014;20(6):979–990.

(139) Nehmé R, Carpenter B, Singhal A, Strege A, Edwards PC, White CF, et al. Mini-G proteins: Novel tools for studying GPCRs in their active conformation. PLoS ONE .2017;12(4): e0175642.

(140) Stäubert C., Le Duc D., Schöneberg T. Examining the Dynamic Evolution of G Protein-Coupled Receptors. 2014.2(2):23-24.

(141) Rinshi S K, Akihiro K, . Single-molecule imaging revealed dynamic GPCR dimerization. Current Opinion in Cell Biology . 2014; 27: 78-86.

(142) Dikla K , Gennadiy F, Abraham O S. Elastic network normal mode dynamics reveal the GPCR activation mechanism.2014;82(4): 579-586.

(143) Latorraca NR, Venkatakrishnan AJ, Dror RO. GPCR Dynamics: Structures in Motion. Chem Rev. 2017;117(1):139-155.

(144) Polczeweski Kand orban T. From atomic structures to neuronal function of G- protein coupled receptors . Annu Rev. Neurosci . 2013;36:139-184

(145) Shi C , Shin YO , Hanson J, Cass B, Loewen M.C , and Durocher Y. Purification and Characterization of a Recombinant G-Protein-Coupled Receptor, Saccharomyces cerevisiae Ste2p, Transiently Expressed in HEK293 EBNA1 Cells. Biochemistry. 2005; 44 (48) : 15705–15714

(146) Cruickshank R., Dugnid J., Marimon B., Swan R. "Medical Microbiology, The Practice of medical Microbiology" 2 : 12th ed. Churchill Livingstone, UK. 1975.

(147) Bradford MM. Rapid and sensitive method for the quantitative of microgram quantities of protein Utilizing the Principle of Protein-Dye binding, Analytical Biochemistry, 1976;72:248-254.

(148) Garfin DE. One-dimensional gel electrophoresis. Methods in Enzymology, 1990; 463:497-513.

(149) StellWagen E. " Gel filtration . In: Methods in Enzymology". (edited by Murray ,E.D. and Dentscher ,P,J.). 1990;182:317-328.

(150) Fischer L ,. Gel Filtration Chromatography (Laboratory techniques in biochemistry and molecular biology) 2nd Edition . 1980. ISBN-10: 0444802231.

(151) Reddy P R , Raju N . Gel-Electrophoresis and Its Applications .2012

(152) Garfin ED ."Gel Electrophoresis of Protein, Essential .Cell. Biology. Cell Structure", Vol. 1:Apartical Approach, Edited by John Davey and Mike Lord, Oxford Uni. Press, Oxford ,UK. P:197-268. 2003.

(153) Westermeier, R . Electrophoresis in Practice: a Guide to Methods and Applications of DNA and Protein Separation, VCH, Weinheim.1997 (154) Marris Mc., Depollier J., Mery J., Heitz F.A peptide Carrier for the delivery of biologically active proteins into mamaline Cells. Nature Biotechnology. 2001; 19(12) : 1173-1176.

(155) Kang HJ ., Lee C. and Drew D. Breaking the barriers in membrane Protein Crystallography . Int. J. Biochem. Cell Biol . 2013;45(3): 636-644.

(156) Hjelmeland LM. Solubilizat of native membrane proteins Methods Enzymol, 1990; 182 : 253- 264.

(157) Dario Mizrachi, Yujie Chen, Matthew P.Delisa. Making water – soluble integral membrane proteins in vivo using an amphipathic protein fusion strategy. Nat Commun. 2015; 6: 6826.

(158) Abraham O, Bartholomaus D, Annette M,Jonathan OB,Carolyn V,Sandro K . Solubilization of membrane proteins into functional lipidbilayer nanodiscs using a diisobutylene/maleic acid copolymer . Chem.Int.2017;56:1919-1924 .

(159) Amitabha Chattopadyay , Bhagyashree D.Rao,Md. Jafurulla . Solubilization of G protein coupled receptors : AConvenient strategy to explore lipid – receptor interaction . methods in E nzymology .2015;557:0076-6879.

(160) O'Malley AM., Mancini DJ., Young LC., McCusker CE., Raden D. and Robinson SA. Progress toward hetorotyous Expression of active G protein- coupled receptors in saccharomyces cerevisiae linking cellular stress response with translocation and trafficking Protein Sci., 2009; 18 : 2356-2370.

(161) Karlsson E., Ryden L., Brewer J. "Protein purification, high resolution methods and applications", In: Janson, J. C. (eds) 2nd., vol.:59, Wile-VCH, Welnbeim, Germany. p. 145-205. 1998.

(162) Labrou NE. Protein purification :an overview . Methods Mol Biol. 2014;1129:3-10.

(163) Hanke AT, Ottens M. Purifying biopharmaceuticals :knowledge – based chromatographic process development . Trends Biotechnol. 2014;32(4):210-20.

(164) Kamal M., Maurice P. and Jockers R. Expanding the Concept of G Protein-Coupled Receptor (GPCR) Dimer Asymmetry towards GPCR-Interacting Proteins. Pharmaceuticals, 2011; 4: 273-284.

(165) Cook BL ., Ernberg KE., Chung H., Zhang, S. Study of a Synthetic Human Olfactory Receptor 17-4: Expression and Purification from an Inducible Mammalian Cell Line. PLoS ONE, 2008; 3(8): e2920.

(166) O'Malley MA., LazarovaT., Britton ZT., Robinson AS. High-level expression in Saccharomyces cerevisiae enables isolation and spectroscopic characterization of functional human adenosine A2a receptor. J Struct. Biol. 2007;159(2):166-178.

(167) Irina G T, and Stefano C. Unraveling the structure and function of G protein-coupled receptors through NMR spectroscopy . Curr Pharm Des. 2009; 15(35): 4003–4016.

(168) Xie Z, Lee SP, O'Dowd BF, George SR. Serotonin 5-HT1B and 5-HT1D receptors form homodimers when expressed alone and heterodimers when co-expressed. FEBS Lett. 1999;456(1):63-7.

(169) Choi YJ, Shin D, Lee JY. G-protein coupled receptor 40 agonists as novel therapeutics for type 2 diabetes. Arch Pharm Res. 2014 ; 37(4):435-9.

(170) Donnelly D. The structure and function of the glucagon-like peptide-1 receptor and its ligands. Br J Pharmacol. 2012;166(1):27-41.

(171) Omori Y, Chaya T, Yoshida S, Irie S, Tsujii T, Furukawa T. Identification of G Protein-Coupled Receptors (GPCRs) in Primary Cilia and Their Possible Involvement in Body Weight Control. PLoS One. 2015;10(6):e0128422.

(172) Carpenter B , Tate CG . Engineering a minimal G protein to facilitate crystallisation of G protein-coupled receptors in their active conformation. Protein Eng Des Sel. 2016;29(12):583-594.

الخلاصة

هدفت الدراسة إلى تحديد مستويات الجلوكاجون مثل الببتيد -1 و المراسل المزدوج للبروتين ج في مرضى السكري ومرضى الاعتلال السكري الكلوي ومقارنة النتائج مع مجموعة السيطرة. بالإضافة إلى دراسة العلاقة بين الجلوكاجون مثل الببتيد -1 و المراسل المزدوج للبروتين ج مع نسبة السكر التراكمي و السكر و اليوريا والكرياتينين والدهون ، والتي قد تكون مفيدة في مكافحة داء السكري ومضاعفاته.

تم اخذ مائة وخمسون عينة في هذه الدراسة حيث تراوحت الأعمار (40-65) سنة والتي تم تقسيمها إلى ثلاث مجموعات على النحو التالي: المجموعة الأولى (G1) تتكون من 50 فردًا أصحاء كمجموعة تحكم ، المجموعة الثانية (G2) تتكون من 50 مريضًا مع مرضى السكري ومجموعة ثالثة (G3) يتكون من 50 مريضا يعانون من اعتلال الكلية السكري.

- أظهرت النتائج ارتفاعًا ملحوظًا في السكر ونسبه السكر التراكمي و اليوريا و الكرياتينين في G2 و G3 مقارنة بـ G1 و G3 مقارنة بـ G2. تظهر النتائج انخفاضا غير ملحوظ في مستويات الألبومين في G2 مقارنة مع G1 ، ومع ذلك ، هناك انخفاض كبير في G3 مقارنة G2 و G1.
- أظهرت النتائج ارتفاعًا ملحوظًا في مستويات (VLDL-c ، LDL-c ، TG ، TC) في G2 و G3 مقارنة بـ G1. في حين وجد انخفاض ملحوظ في مستويات HDL في G2 و G3 مقارنة بـ G1. ارتفاع ملحوظ في (VLDL-c ، LDL-c ، TG ، TC) في G3 مقارنة G2 ، في حين أن هناك انخفاض غير ملحوظ في HDL في G3 مقارنة G2.
- أظهرت النتائج ارتفاعًا ملحوظًا في مستويات الأنسولين في G2 و G3 مقارنةً بـ G1. كما لوحظت زيادة ملحوظة في G3 مقارنةً بـ G2.
- لوحظ ارتفاع ملحوظ في مستويات GLP-1 و GPCR في G2 و G3 مقارنة مع G1. أيضا لوحظت فروق ذات دلالة إحصائية في G3 مقارنة G2

أظهرت النتائج وجود علاقة سلبية غير معنوية بين 1-GLP واليوريا ل (6.146 = 1) GLP، أظهرت النتائج وجود علاقة الرتباط ذات دلالة في (2.05 GL (r2 = 0.435) ، بينما توجد علاقة الرتباط ذات دلالة في (P < 0.05) ، (r2 = 0.435). شو هد ارتباط سلبي كبير في (P < 0.05 = -0.0729). وأظهرت الدراسة أيضا وجود علاقة غير ذات دلالة بين 1-GL و كرياتنين لـ (P < 0.05 > 0). وأز الوقت علاقة غير ذات دلالة بين 1-GL و كرياتنين لـ (P < 0.05 = -0.0729). في الوقت

نفسه توجد علاقة ارتباط موجبة معنوية في (0.02 = 0.210) ، (G2 (r2 = 0.210) . ولوحظ ارتباط بنفسه توجد علاقة الرتباط موجبة معنوية في (GLP-1 علاقة الارتباط بين 1-GLP و السكر. سلبي كبير ل (GLP-1 = 6.130) ، (G2 (r2 = 0.20)) . علاقة الارتباط بين 1-GLP و السكر. أوضحت النتائج وجود علاقة سلبية غير محددة في (Cl2-1 = 1) Gl) ، (Gl-0.05) . في حين تم العثور على ارتباط إيجابي كبير في G2 و (Cl2-2 = 23) G3 ، (Cl2-2 = 23)، (P 20.05) . كشفت الدراسة عن وجود علاقة إيجابية غير واضحة بين 1-GLP والأنسولين في >0.05(P) . (Gl-2 = 0.20) . في الوقت نفسه هناك ارتباط سلبي كبير في G2 و GLP-1

 $(P < 0.05 r^3 = -0.309) \cdot (0.113 - r^2)$

الجزاء الثاني من البحث تضمن:

هدفت الدراسة إلى تنقية مستقبل البروتين G من الدم لمرضى اعتلال الكلية السكري ومرضى السكري عن طريق تقنيات الكروماتو غرافيا المختلفة ، والتي تعتبر أبسط نموذج للتنقية ودراسة بنية ووظيفة مستقبل البروتين في خلية حقيقية النواة . تم استخلاص مستقبل G البروتين من خلية بنية ووظيفة مستقبل البروتين من خلية حقيقية النواة . تم استخلاص مستقبل G البروتين من خلية بنية ووظيفة مستقبل البروتين من حم كاملة و غشاء بواسطة ترسيب البروتينات مع 50 - 75٪ من كبريتات الأمونيوم ، وتم تبريده بالطرد المركزي عند 3500 جم لمدة 10 دقائق. وأخيرا ، تم حل الكرية في الحد الأدنى من حجم بالطرد المركزي عند 3500 جم لمدة 10 دقائق. وأخيرا ، تم حل الكرية في الحد الأدنى من حجم أدار دامركزي عند 3500 جم لمدة 10 دقائق. وأخيرا ، تم حل الكرية في الحد الأدنى من حجم أدار دامر) محلول منظم PBS (7.3 Ph) محلول منظم DDD كمنظفات. تم تنقيته المستقبلة G البروتين المترقب الماليوني كخطوة أولى باستخدام DEAE. المتلقية من خلية كاملة بواسطة كروماتوجراف التبادل الأيوني كخطوة أولى باستخدام Sepharose. تطبيق كروماتوجرافيا الترشيح كخطوة ثانية للتنقية.

تم تحديد الوزن الجزيئي لـ مستقبل G البروتين بو اسطة SDS.PAGE.

أظهرت نتائج التحليل الكروماتوجرافي التبادلي الأيوني لمريض السيطرة ذروتين بروتينتين ظهرتا بعد الشطف بواسطة تركيز متدرج من كلوريد الصوديوم ، في حين لم تظهر أي قمم للبروتين في أجزاء الغسل. تم قياس تركيز GPCR في كسور هذين القمتين البروتين. أشارت البيانات إلى أن GPCR تقع في أول ذروة البروتين (المصفوفة في 0.1 M من كلوريد الصوديوم) بأرقام الكسور بين (6 و 12). القمم الثانية (المصفوفة في 0.2 M من اNaCl) تعطي الذروة بين (18-20).

أظهرت النتائج لمريض المصاب بالسكري اثنين من قمم البروتينات التي ظهرت بعد شطف تركيز متدرج من كلوريد الصوديوم ، في حين لم تظهر أي قمم للبروتين في أجزاء الغسيل. تم قياس تركيز SPCR في كسور هذين القمتين البروتين. أشارت البيانات إلى أن GPCR تقع في أول قمة بروتين (تمت التصفية في 0.1 M من NaCl) بأرقام الكسور بين (7 و 13). القمم الثانية (المصفوفة في 0.2 M من NaCl) تعطي الذروة بين (18-20).

أظهرت النتائج لمريض اعتلال الكلية السكري اثنين من قمم البروتينات التي ظهرت بعد شطف بواسطة تركيز التدرج من كلوريد الصوديوم ، في حين لم تظهر قمم البروتين في الكسور الغسيل. تم قياس تركيز GPCR في كسور هذين القمتين البروتين. أشارت البيانات إلى أن GPCR تقع في أول ذروة البروتين (المصفوفة في 0.1 M من كلوريد الصوديوم) في أعداد الكسور بين (7 و 13. القمم الثانية (المصفوفة في 0.2 M من المحا) تعطي الذروة بين (19.2).

كان الوزن الجزيئي لـ GPCR الذي يقدره الترحيل الكهربائي SDS-PAGE هو ما يقرب من شريطين من GPCR يظهران في عينه الاصحاء (~ 30 د.ك) و عند (~51 د.ك). GPCR. كما ذكر أن الشكل الأحادي مهم لتنشيط ج بروتين للارتباط

كما أظهرت النتائج ظهور ثلاثة نطاقات متعلقة بـ GPCR في (~ 29 د.ك) و (47،49 د.ك). في حين أنه ليس واضحا جدا لتركيز اته الصغيرة. في مجموعه اعتلال الكلية السكري أيضا بدا مشابها للأشرطةالتي ظهرت في G2.

الإهداء

الى كل من الحب العراق

ارضأ وانسانأ

الى الطيبين الخيرين اللذين انجبتهما ارض الرافدين ...

and alter a

الى الذين طاب بهم الثربى....

شمداء وطنهى

الى الامير العر الكريم خدرنا في مياتنا وظودها...

المنه الشميد (شاكر)

الۍ سندي ورفيټة درېي

زوجتي العزيزه

الى النور الذي ينير حربي ...

اولادي

الى من زرع الامل والابتسامه في حياتي....

اخوتي وخواتي

الى الشموع التي أضاءت لي طريق العلم ...

اساتذتي الافاضل

أهدي جمدي المتواضع



جمهورية العراق وزارة التعليم العالي والبحث العلمي جامعة بغداد كلية التربية للعلوم الصرفة (إبن الهيثم)/قسم الكيمياء

دراسات كيموحيوية وتنقية جزئية للبروتين المراسل ج المزدوج من مرضى عراقين مصابين بمرض السكري من النوع الثاني و الاعتلال السكري الكلوي

بكالوريوس علوم في الكيمياء (2012) / كلية التربية للعلوم الصرفة (إبن الهيثم)/ جامعة بغداد. ماجستير علوم في الكيمياء العضوية (2015) / كلية التربية للعلوم الصرفة (إبن الهيثم)/ جامعة بغداد.

> *بإشراف* أ.د. زينب منيب مالك الربيعي

1439 هـ

2018 م