

# Metformin-Mg<sup>2+</sup> adjunct therapy synergistically modulates insulin and PDX-1 gene signatures in STZ-NAD induced diabetic model

## Abstract

Diabetes mellitus (DM) is a multi-factorial debilitating disorder of metabolism, usually due to a combination of hereditary and environmental causes, resulting in abnormally high blood sugar levels (hyperglycemia) as a result of defects in either insulin secretion or insulin action in the body. DM is usually accompanied by hypomagnesemia. This study was aimed at investigating the effect of oral magnesium supplementation on pancreatic gene expression of insulin and PDX-1 in type-2 streptozotocin-nicotinamide induced *Sprague dawley* diabetic rats. A total of 24 *Sprague dawley* rats (Four groups of six rats each), were used for this study; **Group 1:** Normal rats (CONTROL) given distilled water for 4weeks; **Group 2:** Metformin + Magnesium treated rats (DMM) orally given 100mg/kg and 1000mg/kg body weight respectively for 4weeks; **Group 3:** Metformin treated diabetic rats (DM), orally given 100mg/kg body weight for 4weeks; **Group 4:** Diabetic untreated control rats (DU) given distilled water for 4weeks. Measured data were analyzed statistically. The result revealed that there was significant ( $p < 0.05$ ) increase in the feed and water intake of the treated rats but the metformin-magnesium supplement treated group showed more increase when compared with only metformin treated group. PDX-1 and insulin gene expression levels were significantly ( $p < 0.05$ ) higher in the control when compared with all the diabetic groups. However, PDX-1 and insulin mRNA levels were significantly ( $p < 0.05$ ) higher in DMM, when compared with DM. DMM showed improvements when compared with DM which suggests magnesium supplementation as an adjunct therapy with metformin may help in the regeneration of the beta cells of the pancreas.

**Keywords:** metformin, magnesium supplementation, insulin, pancreatic duodenal homeobox 1 (*pdx-1*), and adjunct therapy

Volume 8 Issue 3 - 2020

Oluwaseun FAPOHUNDA,<sup>1</sup> Femi Abiola OGUNLEYE,<sup>1,3</sup> Tomisin Happy OGUNWA,<sup>1,2,4</sup> Idowu Olaposi OMOTUYI,<sup>1,2,4</sup> Titilola Titilayoderonke SAMUEL,<sup>3</sup> Kayode Olumide INYANG,<sup>2</sup> Hellen Omolade ADEJUBE,<sup>1</sup> Jamiyu Ayodeji SALIU<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Department of Biochemistry, Adekunle Ajasin University, Nigeria

<sup>2</sup>Chemogenomic Research Group, Adekunle Ajasin University, Nigeria

<sup>3</sup>Department of Biochemistry, College of Medicine, University of Lagos, Nigeria

<sup>4</sup>Biochemistry Laboratory, Graduate School of Fisheries and Environmental Sciences, Nagasaki University, Japan

**Correspondence:** Oluwaseun FAPOHUNDA, Department of Biochemistry, Adekunle Ajasin University, Akungba Akoko, PMB 001, Nigeria, Tel +2347062998896, Email oluwaseun.fapohunda@aaau.edu.ng, fapohundaoluwaseun97@gmail.com

**Received:** May 01, 2020 | **Published:** May 25, 2020

## Introduction

Diabetes mellitus (DM) is a constellation of metabolic diseases with characteristic hallmarks including hyperglycemia which is a corollary of insulin dysfunction either as insulin secretion deficiency, insulin inaction, or both.<sup>1,2</sup> The World Health Organization (WHO) in 2016, reported that an estimated 346 million people lived with DM worldwide and that the number of DM mortality would double by 2030. Hence, DM is an epidemic with burgeoning public health concern.<sup>2,3</sup> DM is classified as insulin dependent (type 1), non-insulin dependent or adult onset (type 2), gestational diabetes and other specific types.<sup>4,5</sup>

Hyperglycemia being an impetus of DM precipitates the conventional symptoms of polyuria, polydipsia and polyphagia. It may also be an antecedent of some micro and macro vascular complications such as neuropathies, nephropathies, and retinopathies, loss of limbs, erectile dysfunction and myopathies.<sup>6</sup> Several oral hypoglycemic agents such as biguanides, sulfonylureas,  $\alpha$ -glucose inhibitors, thiazolidinedione, dipeptidyl peptidase-4 (DPP-4) inhibitors have been used for the management of type-2 diabetes however, metformin is the choicest drug in patients with type 2 diabetes mellitus presently, as indicated in the established protocols by the European Association for the Study of Diabetes and American Diabetes Association.<sup>4</sup> Metformin (a biguanide derivative) controls glycemic level by reducing the measure of blood sugar absorbed by the stomach or intestine and the quantity of glucose produced by the

hepatocytes, restores insulin response, thereby decreasing diabetic complications.<sup>7</sup> Besides its hypoglycemic activity, metformin has prophylactic activity as it helps to prevent diabetes in people who are at high risk of coming down with the disease, when taken with controlled diet and exercise. It is also reportedly used in women with polycystic ovarian syndrome because it is believed to make menstrual cycles more regular and increase fertility.<sup>8</sup>

With all the foregoing benefits, metformin is not without standing associated with certain adverse effects such as hypoglycemia, drug resistance, dropsy, weight gain and toxicity when administered as a monotherapy and combined therapy. Hence it becomes imperative to quest for drugs without side effects, hypersensitivity but with high antidiabetic activities.<sup>9</sup>

Micronutrients such as vitamin D, vitamin C and supplements such as dietary fibers have demonstrated to be potential diabetes risk modifiers. Magnesium (Mg) supplements was suggested to be an adjuvant therapy in the prevention and management of diabetes.<sup>10</sup> Mg is the most abundant divalent intracellular cation in the cells, the second most abundant cellular ion next to potassium and the fourth cation in general in the human body and it is an electrolyte of chief physiological importance in the body.<sup>11</sup> Type 2 diabetes mellitus (T2DM) as it were, is often chaperoned with the alteration of Mg status as increased prevalence of Mg deficits has been reportedly identified in T2DM patients, especially in those with poorly controlled glycemic profiles, longer duration of the disease and presence of

micro- and macro-vascular complications.<sup>12-16</sup> Poor intracellular Mg concentration and increased intracellular free calcium found in T2DM patients, may precipitate insulin resistance. In contrast, higher Mg levels corresponded to a greater degree of sensitivity to insulin. The importance of Mg on insulin sensitivity was suggested in the early 1980s and resulted in the following clinical evidences. Some studies reported the beneficial effects of Mg supplementation on metabolic control in individuals with T2DM while at the same time, other studies showed no significant effects of Mg supplementation on T2DM. Hence, the effects of Mg supplementation remained controversial in the literature.<sup>10</sup> This research investigates the role of Mg supplement on beta cell regeneration and insulin sensitivity by perusing two important genes insulin and PDX-1. PDX-1 is an orphan homeodomain protein and transcription factor essential for the development of the pancreas.<sup>17-19</sup> Hence its upregulation regulation may signal beta cell regeneration in the pancreas.

## Experimental

### Diabetic models

All protocols related to animal studies were approved by the Animal Ethics Committee of Centre for Research and Development Adekunle Ajasin University Ondo State, Nigeria. Twenty-four (24) male *Sprague dawley* rats (average weight of 150g) were obtained from the Department of Plant Science and Biotechnology, Adekunle Ajasin University Ondo State, Nigeria. They were housed under standardized environmental conditions (well-ventilated room, with 12-hour light-dark cycles and 55±4% at 24±2°C). Animals were allowed to feed *ad libitum*. The models were maintained in line with the US National Institutes of Health's protocol for the care and use of Laboratory animals.<sup>20</sup>

They were divided into groups (n=6) based on their weight which was used to calculate the dosage of Streptozotocin (STZ, Sigma Aldrich, Hamburg, Germany), Nicotinamide (NAD), Magnesium Sulfate (MgSO<sub>4</sub>, Sigma Aldrich, Hamburg, Germany), and Metformin (Merck pharma care spoxil) administered. Induction was carried out after three weeks of acclimatization. Administration started when the rats were confirmed diabetic after 72h of induction. The intervention was carried out daily in the following order for four (4) weeks:

**Table 1** PCR amplification was done using the following primer set

TARGET GENE	FORWARD 5'- 3'	REVERSE 5'- 3'
GAPDH	TGA AGG TCG GAG TCA ACG GAT TTG GT	CAT GTG GGC CAT GAG GTC CAC CAC
INSULIN	ATGGCCCTGTGGATGCGC	TGCGGGCTGCGTCTAGTTG
PDX-1	GACACATCAAATCTGTTCCAAA	TCCCCTACTACGTTTCTTATCTTC

Representative snapshot of reverse transcription polymerase chain reaction-agarose gel electrophoresis data of all the rats was taken and analysed using the band density (Image-J) which is then plotted as a bar graph (Mean± SEM)

Representative snapshot of reverse transcription polymerase chain reaction-agarose gel electrophoresis data of all the rats was taken and analysed using the band density (Image-J) which is then plotted as a bar graph (Mean± SEM).

### Statistical analysis

Data are expressed as mean±standard error of mean (SEM) and analyzed using the ANOVA followed by Tukey's Multiple

### Animal design

Four groups of six rats each were used for this study, namely:

- Group 1:** Normal control rats (CONTROL) given distilled water;
- Group 2:** Metformin+Magnesium treated rats (DMM) orally given 100mg/kg and 1000mg/kg body weight respectively;
- Group 3:** Metformin treated diabetic rats (DM), orally given 100mg/kg body weight;
- Group 4:** Diabetic untreated control rats (DU) given distilled water;

### Induction of diabetes

T2DM was induced as described by<sup>21</sup> with little modifications. Briefly, overnight-fasted rats were given intraperitoneal injection (i.p.) of freshly prepared 60mg/kg STZ (dissolved in a citrate buffer of pH 4.8), 5minutes after the i.p. administration of 110 mg/kg of freshly prepared NAD dissolved in normal saline.

### Intervention

Magnesium sulfate and metformin were intubated into the mouth of the diabetic rats in quantity based on their body weights.

### Sacrificing and tissue excision

At the end of the treatment, the animals were subjected to fasting overnight for 9hand to cervical dislocation following ethical care and handling of experimental animals' regularities and they were dissected using dissecting set. The rats were sacrificed and the pancreas was excised from each experimental animal. Little quantity of the excised tissues was dropped in eppendorf tubes containing 0.2µl TRIzol across the groups and then spun using laboratory centrifuge.

### Gene expression profiling

RNA was isolated from the pancreas using TRIzol Reagent (ThermoFisher Scientific) following manufacturer's guide. Purified DNA-free RNA was converted to cDNA immediately using ProtoScript® First Strand cDNA Synthesis Kit (NEB). PCR amplification was done using the following primer set (Table 1):

Comparison post-hoc test. A p-value below 0.05 was considered as statistically significant.

## Research outcomes

### Feed intake

According to Table 2 there was significant (p<0.05) decrease in feed intake was observed in DU (48.1±0.51) when compared with

control (49.86±0.51) while DMM (48.7±0.68) and DM (49.0±0.69) were significantly different from DU for the first week. The second week revealed significant (p<0.05) decrease in DU (44.4±0.65) when compared with control group (53.71±0.52). However, DMM (46.4±0.37) and DM (45.0±0.82) were significantly (p<0.05) higher than DU (44.4±0.65). The third week showed significant (p<0.05) reduction between DM (44.6±0.65) and DU (43.6±0.75) when compared, but an increase in DMM (47.0±0.82) and the control group (55.4±0.57). The trend in week 3 continued till the end of the intervention period.

**Table 2** Table of value for feed intake

Groups	Week 1(g)	Week 2(g)	Week 3(g)	Week 4(g)
Control	49.7±0.51	53.7±0.52	55.4±0.57	55.1±0.51
DMM	48.7±0.68 <sup>#</sup>	46.4±0.37 <sup>#</sup>	47.0±0.82 <sup>#</sup>	52.7±.34 <sup>#</sup>
DM	49.0±0.69 <sup>#</sup>	45.0±0.82 <sup>#</sup>	44.6±0.65 <sup>#</sup>	43.4±0.65 <sup>#</sup>
DU	48.1±0.51 <sup>*</sup>	44.4±0.65 <sup>*</sup>	43.6±0.75 <sup>*</sup>	42.1±0.59 <sup>*</sup>

(\*) means significant difference p<0.05 when compared with Control

(#) means significant difference p<0.05 when compared with DU

### Water intake

Table 3 shows that in week 1 there was decrease in DMM (47.7±1.15), DM (48.6±0.48) and DU (48.1±0.63) when compared with control (49.0±0.69). Although, DM (48.6±0.48) and DU (48.1±0.63) were slightly higher than DMM (47.7±1.15), the difference between DM and DMM was not significant. Second week revealed significant (p<0.05) increase in CONTROL (49.3±0.71), DMM (49.7±0.68), DM (49.1±0.51) when compared with DU (46.3±0.29). Third week showed significant (p<0.05) reduction in CONTROL (47.9±2.04) and DU (43.6±0.84) when compared with DMM (49.9±0.99) and DM (49.6±0.69). However, there was no significant (p<0.05) difference in DMM (49.9±0.99) and DM (49.6±0.69). But there was significant (p<0.05) reduction in DU (43.6±0.84) when compared with CONTROL (47.9±2.04). The last week revealed significant (p<0.05) reduction in CONTROL (47.0±1.91) and DU (40.3±0.52) when compared with DMM (50.1±1.10) and DM (50.4±0.75). But there was no significant (p<0.05) difference between DMM (50.1±1.10) and DM (50.4±0.75). However, there was significant (p<0.05) decrease in DU (40.3±0.52) when compared CONTROL (47.0±1.91).

**Table 3** Table of value for water intake

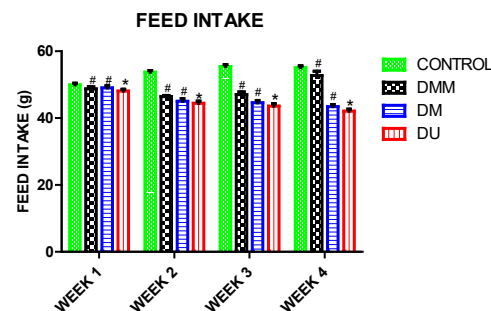
Groups	Week 1(ml)	Week 2(ml)	Week 3(ml)	Week 4(ml)
Control	49.0±0.69	49.3±0.71	47.9±2.04	47.0±1.91
DMM	47.7±1.15 <sup>#</sup>	49.7±0.68 <sup>#</sup>	49.9±0.99 <sup>#</sup>	50.1±1.10 <sup>#</sup>
DM	48.6±0.48 <sup>#</sup>	49.1±0.51 <sup>#</sup>	49.6±0.69 <sup>#</sup>	50.4±0.75 <sup>#</sup>
DU	48.1±0.63 <sup>*</sup>	46.3±0.29 <sup>*</sup>	43.6±0.84 <sup>*</sup>	40.3±0.52 <sup>*</sup>

(\*) means significant difference p<0.05 when compared with Control

(#) means significant difference p<0.05 when compared with DU

### Insulin gene expression

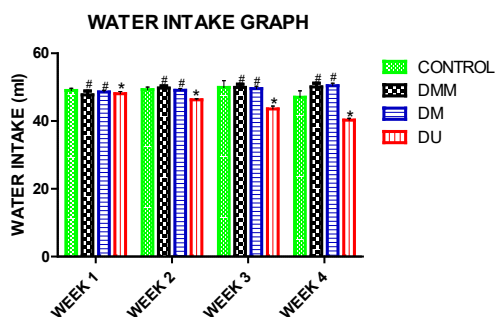
The result illustrated in Figure 1, shows that there was down-regulation of the relative expression of the insulin gene in group 2, 3 and 4 when compared with the normal control. Group 2 showed up-regulations, when compared with groups 3 and 4 and there was no significant (p<0.05) difference between group 1 and 2.



**Figure 1** Effect of magnesium supplementation on feed intake.

### PDX-1 gene expression

The result illustrated in Figure 2, shows that there was down-regulation of the relative expression of the PDX-1 gene in group 2, 3 and 4 when compared with the normal control. Group 2 and 3 showed up-regulations, when compared with group 4. More so, group 2 showed up-regulation, when compared with group 3.



**Figure 2** Effect of magnesium supplementation on water intake.

## Discussion

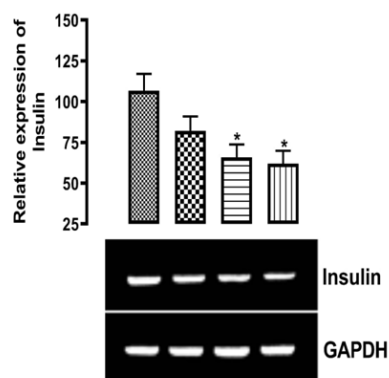
Complications are common among diabetic patients and they are responsible for significant morbidity and mortality among these patients as reported by International Diabetes Federation.<sup>22</sup> Hypomagnesemia is a common comorbid condition with T2DM. Hence researches have been carried out to address hypomagnesemia in diabetic subjects. Most of the intervention used over time has been to supplement the diets of diabetic patients with magnesium because it was believed that magnesium is an essential micronutrient and the fourth most abundant ions present in living cells, with several dietary sources including whole grains, green leafy vegetables, legumes, nuts.<sup>11</sup> Magnesium is one of the promising nutritional elements for the management of type 2 diabetes. McCarty,<sup>23</sup> asserted the discrepant outcome of observation studies on the ability of Mg supplement to prevent T2DM and that this preponderance of sequitur necessitates future large scale prevention trials.

This research investigates the role of Mg supplement on beta cell regeneration and insulin sensitivity by perusing two important genes insulin and PDX-1. The data gotten from this investigation clearly demonstrate that Mg supplement present certain changes when compared with other treated groups. The feed intake nose-dised significantly (p<0.05) at week 1 in the untreated diabetic group as presented in Figure 1 when juxtaposed with the control group. Meanwhile DMM and DM were significantly (p<0.05) different from DU. The second week revealed statistical decrease in DU when contrasted with control group. However, DMM and DM were significantly (p<0.05) higher than DU. This reduction in feed

intake could have been as a result of the chronic disease condition in the diabetic groups which is contrary to the position of,<sup>24,25</sup> The third week showed significant ( $p < 0.05$ ) reduction between DM and DU when compared, but an increase in DMM ( $47.0 \pm 0.82$ ) and the control group ( $55.4 \pm 0.57$ ). The trend in week 3 continued till the end of the intervention period. The increase in feed intake in DMM could be due to increased excretion of magnesium which might have predisposed the animals to polyphagia which is nonconflicting with the report of Ammerman *et al.*,<sup>26</sup> However, the observation made in DU is contrary with what was reported by Saravanan and Pari,<sup>27</sup> who confirmed increase in feed intake in diabetic rats. The results obtained is consistent with the study documented by Fapohunda.<sup>10</sup>

Figure 2 shows that in week 1 there was decrease in DMM, DM and DU when compared with CONTROL. Although, DM ( $48.6 \pm 0.48$ ) and DU ( $48.1 \pm 0.63$ ) were slightly higher than DMM ( $47.7 \pm 1.15$ ), the difference between DM and DMM was not significant. This reduction in water intake in all the diabetic groups may be due to diabetes type 2 that usually comes with symptoms such as plethoric urination, abatement in feed and water intake as reported by Goldfine,<sup>28</sup> Second week revealed significant ( $p < 0.05$ ) increase in CONTROL, DMM, DM when compared with DU. Third week showed statistical reduction in CONTROL and DU when compared with DMM and DM. However, there was no statistical difference in DMM and DM. But there was statistical reduction in DU when compared with CONTROL. The last week revealed statistical reduction in CONTROL and DU when juxtaposed with DMM and DM. But there was no statistical difference between DMM and DM. However, there was statistically significant decrease in DU when contrasted with CONTROL.<sup>28</sup>

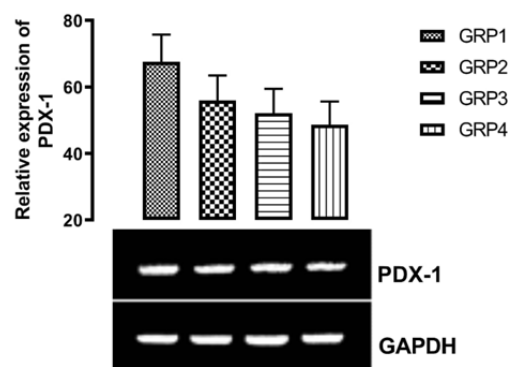
The result illustrated in Figure 3, shows that there was downregulation of the insulin gene expression in all the diabetic groups when compared with CONTROL. This could be probably due to the action of streptozotocin on the  $\beta$ -cell of pancreas which automatically affects the production of insulin from the  $\beta$ -cell of the Langerhans. King,<sup>29</sup> reported that destruction of high percentage of endogenous  $\beta$ -cells result in little endogenous insulin being produced hence hyperglycemia occurs. Marchetti *et al.*,<sup>30</sup> asserted that the reduction in endogenous insulin production precipitates the onset of hyperglycemia. These attributes were observed in this present study and this justifies the observation made in DU, in which there was drastic reduction in the production of insulin.



**Figure 3** Relative expression of Insulin gene. (\*) means significant difference  $p < 0.05$  when compared with Control. (#) means significant difference  $p < 0.05$  when compared with DU. Group 1: Normal control; Group 2: Metformin and magnesium sulphate (DMM); Group 3: Metformin (DM), Group 4: Diabetic untreated (DU).

There was deregulation of insulin gene in all the rats treated with STZ-NAD. This could possibly have resulted from the partial destruction of the  $\beta$ -cell of the pancreas responsible for the secretion of insulin.<sup>31</sup> However, this pattern was reversed after 28 days of intervention. DMM showed higher expression level of insulin gene, when compared with DM and DU, no significant ( $p < 0.05$ ) difference was envisaged between CONTROL and DMM according to Figure 3. This could be as a result of the magnesium supplementation, through mechanisms that are yet to be discovered. When the level of blood glucose increases, the insulin expression level increases to regulate glucose level and when the level of blood glucose subsides, insulin secretion is inhibited.<sup>32</sup>

PDX-1 is also referred to as insulin promoter factor.<sup>19,33</sup> Several literatures reported that PDX-1 is a key factor with specific roles in the differentiation, post-natal function, survival of  $\beta$ -cells and development of the pancreas. They reported that downregulation of this gene could possibly form the basis of beta-cell nonfeasance and T2DM.<sup>18,34-44</sup> PDX-1 was also reported to undergo downregulation in cases of DNA damage, oxidative stress and advanced glycation end-products (AGEs).<sup>45-47</sup> From the result presented in Figure 4, there was downregulation of PDX-1 gene after the administration of STZ-NAD. This is a pointer to that fact that this combinational diabetogenic agents perpetrate their action via partial DNA damage and oxidative stress<sup>48-50</sup> which is consistent with Busineni *et al.*,<sup>51</sup> leading to the downregulation of PDX-1 as expected of type 2 diabetes animal model in agreement with Wier *et al.*,<sup>39</sup> Kakkar.<sup>52</sup> The intervention of Metformin and Magnesium supplementation upregulates PDX-1 gene more than metformin monotherapy. This upregulation suggests  $\beta$ -cells survival and pancreatic development in the STZ-NAD assaulted rats. This mechanism of action potentiates the increased level of insulin gene expression in Met-Mg<sup>2+</sup> treated rats. This result is consistent with the pattern in literatures.<sup>31,35,54,55</sup> However, it is not yet known whether Met-Mg<sup>2+</sup> therapy controls PDX-1 at genetic level only or also at epigenetic, transcriptional and post-translational (phosphorylation and sumoylation) levels.<sup>40,46,47,56-66</sup>



**Figure 4** Relative expression of PDX-1 (pancreatic and duodenal homeobox 1). (\*) means significant difference  $p < 0.05$  when compared with Control. (#) means significant difference  $p < 0.05$  when compared with DU. Group 1: Normal control; Group 2: Metformin and magnesium sulphate (DMM); Group 3: Metformin (DM); Group 4: Diabetic untreated (DU).

## Conclusion

This study investigated the underlying mechanisms of magnesium supplement using *in vivo* experiments. This supplement showed increased insulin and blood GLP-1 release when used as adjuvant

therapy with the standard anti-diabetic drug metformin. Intriguingly, the research outcome substantiates that magnesium supplement represents an important adjunct for the management of T2DM.

## Acknowledgments

None.

## Conflicts of interest

Authors declare that there is no conflict of interest.

## Source of funding

None.

## References

1. American Diabetes Association Classification and diagnosis of Diabetes: Standards of Medical care in Diabetes. *Diabetes Care*. 2019;42:513–528.
2. World Health Organization (WHO). *Global reports on diabetes*. 2016.
3. Saliu JA, Fapohunda O. The antihyperglycemic, hepatoprotective and renoprotective potential of the aqueous extract of *Costus lucanusianus* on streptozotocin-induced diabetic rats. *Journal of Applied Life Sciences International*. 2016;4(2):1–10.
4. Fapohunda O, Balogun O. Oral magnesium supplementation modulates hepatic and intestinal expression of some carbohydrate metabolizing genes in type 2 diabetic rats. *Int J Mol Biol Open Access*. 2019;4(6):189–194.
5. Sneha P, Kumar DT, Lijo J. Probing the protein–protein interaction network of proteins causing Maturity Onset Diabetes of the Young. *Advances in Protein chemistry and structural biology*. 2018;110(6):167–202.
6. Scheen AJ, Paquot N. Metformin revisited: A critical review of the benefit–risk balance in at–risk patients with type 2 diabetes. *Diabetes Metab*. 2013;39(3):179–90.
7. Kirpichnikov D, McFarlane SI, Sowers JR. Metformin: An update. *Ann Intern Med*. 2002;137(1):25–33.
8. Hundal RS, Inzucchi SE. Metformin: New understandings, new uses. *Drugs*. 2003;63:1879–1894.
9. Szabo C. Role of nitrosative stress in the pathogenesis of diabetic vascular dysfunction. *British Journal of Pharmacology*. 2009;156:713–27.
10. Fapohunda O. Synergistic Insulinotropic effect of metformin–Mg<sup>2+</sup> adjunct supplement: A case study of streptozotocin induced type 2 diabetes in *Sprague dawley* rats. *Journal of Diabetes Metabolic Disorder and Control*. 2018;5(2):38–46.
11. Barbagallo M, Dominguez LJ. Magnesium metabolism in type 2 diabetes mellitus, metabolic syndrome and insulin resistance. *Arch Biochem Biophys*. 2007;458:40–47.
12. Mather HM, Levin GE. Magnesium status in diabetes. *Lancet*. 1979;1(8122):924.
13. Schnack C, Bauer I, Pregant P, et al. Hypomagnesaemia in type 2 (non–insulin–dependent) diabetes mellitus is not corrected by improvement of long–term metabolic control. *Diabetologia*. 1992;35:77–79.
14. Ramadass S, Basu S, Srinivasan AR. Serum magnesium levels as an indicator of status of Diabetes Mellitus type 2. *Diabetes Metab Syndr*. 2015;9(1):42–45.
15. Ma J, Folsom AR, Melnick SL, et al. Associations of serum and dietary magnesium with cardiovascular disease, hypertension, diabetes, insulin, and carotid arterial wall thickness: the ARIC study. Atherosclerosis Risk in Communities Study. *J Clin Epidemiol*. 1995;48(7):927–940.
16. Del Gobbo LC, Song Y, Poirier P, et al. Low serum magnesium concentrations are associated with a high prevalence of premature ventricular complexes in obese adults with type 2 diabetes. *Cardiovasc Diabetol*. 2012;11:23.
17. Melloul D, Marshak S, Cerasi E. Regulation of insulin gene transcription. *Diabetologia*. 2002;45(3):309–326.
18. Kim SK, Hebrok M. Intercellular signals regulating pancreas development and function. *Genes and Development*. 2001;15(2):111–127.
19. Fujimoto K, Polonsky KS. PDX–1 and other factors that regulate pancreatic  $\beta$ –cell survival. *Diabetes, Obesity and Metabolism*. 2009;11(4):30–37.
20. National Institutes of Health. Guide for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals. National Research Council (US) Committee for the Update of the Guide for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals. National Academy of Sciences. 8 Edition. Washington (DC): National Academies Press (US). 2011.
21. Eggadi V, Sheshagiri SBB, Devandla A, et al. Effect of Atorvastatin on Pharmacology of Sitagliptin in Streptozotocin Nicotinamide Induced Type–II Diabetes in Rats. *Biol Med (Aligarh)*. 2015;7:1.
22. International Diabetes Federation. *Diabetes voice*. 2016;61(2):1–9.
23. McCarty MF. Nutraceutical resources for diabetes prevention—an update. *Med Hypotheses*. 2005;64(1):151–158.
24. Morakinyo AO, Samuel TA, Adekunbi DA. Magnesium upregulates insulin receptor and glucose transporter–4 in streptozotocin–nicotinamide–induced type–2 diabetic rats. *Endocrine Regulations*. 2018;52(1):6–16.
25. Ene AC, Nwankwo EA, Sambu LM. Alloxan–induced diabetes in arts and the effects of black caraway (*Caramcarvi L.*) oil on their body weight. *J Pharmacol Toxicol*. 2007;3(2):141–146.
26. Ammerman CB, Chicco CF, Moore JE. Effect of Dietary magnesium on voluntary feed intake and rumen fermentations. *J Dairy Sci*. 1971;54(9):1288–1293.
27. Saravanan G, Pari L. Hypoglycemic and antihyperglycemic effect of *Syzygium cumin* bark in streptozotocin–induced diabetic rats. *Journal of Pharmacology and Toxicology*. 2008;3(1):1–10.
28. Goldfine AB. Assessing the cardiovascular safety of diabetes therapies. *The New England Journal of Medicine*. 2008;359(11):1092–1095.
29. King AJ. The use of animal models in diabetes research. *British Journal of Pharmacology*. 2012;166(3):877–894.
30. Marchetti P, Bugliani M, De Tata V, et al. Pancreatic beta cell identity in humans and the role of type 2 diabetes. *Front Cell Dev Biol*. 2017;5:55.
31. Emaleku SA. Hypoglycemic Effect of Asheitu Adams Bitter in Diabetic Experimental Animals. *Acta Scientific Medical Sciences*. 2019;3(2):70–76.
32. Thorens B, Mueckler M. Glucose transporters in the 21<sup>st</sup> Century. *American Journal of Physiology–Endocrinology and Metabolism*. 2010;298(2):E141–E145.
33. Karim MA, Wang X, Hale TC, et al. Insulin promoter factor 1 variation is associated with type 2 diabetes in African Americans. *BMC Medical Genetics*. 2005;6:37.
34. Zhou G, Brunicardi FC. PDX–1 (pancreatic and duodenal homeobox 1). *Atlas of Genetics and Cytogenetics in Oncology and Haematology*. 2011;15(6):507–510.
35. Ashizawa S, Brunicardi FC, Wang XP. PDX–1 and the pancreas. *Pancreas*. 2004;28:109–120.

36. Zhou G, Sinnett-Smith J, Liu SH, et al. Down-regulation of pancreatic and duodenal homeobox-1 by somatostatin receptor subtype 5: a novel mechanism for inhibition of cellular proliferation and insulin secretion by somatostatin. *Front Physiol.* 2014;5:226.
37. Zhou G, Liu SH, Shahi KM, et al. Negative regulation of pancreatic and duodenal homeobox-1 by somatostatin receptor subtype 5. *Mol Endocrinol.* 2012;26:1225-1234.
38. Weir GC, Sharma A, Zangen DH, et al. Transcription factor abnormalities as a cause of beta cell dysfunction in diabetes: a hypothesis. *Acta Diabetol.* 1997;34(3):177-184.
39. Kim YC, Kim SY, Mellado-Gil JM, et al. RB regulates pancreas development by stabilizing Pdx1. *EMBO J.* 2011;30(8):1563-1576.
40. Leonard J, Peers B, Johnson T, et al. Characterization of somatostatin transactivating factor-1, a novel homeobox factor that stimulates somatostatin expression in pancreatic islet cells. *Mol. Endocrinol.* 1993;7(10):1275-1283.
41. Ohlsson H, Karlsson K, Edlund T. IPF1, a homeodomain-containing transactivator of the insulin gene. *EMBO J.* 1993;12(11):4251-4259.
42. Miller CP, McGehee RE Jr, Habener JF. IDX-1: a new homeodomain transcription factor expressed in rat pancreatic islets and duodenum that transactivates the somatostatin gene. *EMBO J.* 1994;13(5):1145-1156.
43. Macfarlane WM, Smith SB, James RF, et al. The p38/reactivating kinase mitogen-activated protein kinase cascade mediates the activation of the transcription factor insulin upstream factor 1 and insulin gene transcription by high glucose in pancreatic beta-cells. *J Biol Chem.* 1997;272(33):20936-20944.
44. Kaneto H, Miyatsuka T, Shiraiwa T, et al. Crucial role of PDX-1 in pancreas development, beta-cell differentiation, and induction of surrogate beta-cells. *Curr Med Chem.* 2007;14:1745-1752.
45. Lebrun P, Montminy MR, Van Obberghen E. Regulation of the pancreatic duodenal homeobox-1 protein by DNA-dependent protein kinase. *J Biol Chem.* 2005;280(46):38203-38210.
46. Boucher MJ, Selander L, Carlsson L, et al. Phosphorylation marks IPF1/PDX1 protein for degradation by glycogen synthase kinase 3-dependent mechanisms. *J Biol Chem.* 2006;281(10):6395-6403.
47. Puddu A, Storace D, Odetti P, et al. Advanced glycation end-products affect transcription factors regulating insulin gene expression. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun.* 2010;395(1):122-125.
48. Tanaka T, Cosma MP, Wirth K, et al. Identification of cohesion association sites at centromeres and along chromosome arms. *Cells.* 1999;98(6):847-858.
49. Tanaka A, Kato M, Nagase T, et al. Isolation of genes encoding novel transcription factors which interact with the Hap complex from *Aspergillus* species. *Biochem Biophys Acta.* 2002;1576(1-2):176-182.
50. Kaneto H, Katakami N, Matsuhisa M, et al. Roles of reactive oxygen species in the progression of Type 2 diabetes and atherosclerosis. *Mediators of Inflamm.* 2010;2010:1-11.
51. Busineni J, Goud DV, Chikka S. Streptozotocin - A Diabetogenic agent in animal models. *International Journal of Pharmacy and Pharmaceutical Research.* 2015;3(1):254-269.
52. Kakkar R. Rising burden of Diabetes—Public health challenges and way out. *Nepal Journals.* 2016;5(33):12-85.
53. Stoffers DA, Zinkin NT, Stanojevic V, et al. Pancreatic agenesis attributable to a single nucleotide deletion in the human IPF1 gene coding sequence. *Nat Genet.* 1997;15:106-110.
54. Butler PC, Meier JJ, Butler AE, et al. The replication of beta cells in normal physiology, in disease and for therapy. *Nat Clin Pract Endocrinol Metab.* 2007;3(11):758-768.
55. Jonsson J, Carlsson L, Edlund T, et al. Insulin-promoter factor 1 is required for pancreas development in mice. *Nature.* 1994;371:606-609.
56. Park JH, Stoffers DA, Nicholls RD, et al. Development of type 2 diabetes following intrauterine growth retardation in rats is associated with progressive epigenetic silencing of Pdx1. *J Clin Invest.* 2008;118(6):2316-2324.
57. Ma J, Wang JD, Zhang WJ, et al. Promoter hypermethylation and histone hypoacetylation contribute to pancreatic-duodenal homeobox 1 silencing in gastric cancer. *Carcinogenesis.* 2010;31(9):1552-1560.
58. Yang BT, Dayeh TA, Volkov PA, et al. Increased DNA methylation and decreased expression of PDX-1 in pancreatic islets from patients with type 2 diabetes. *Mol Endocrinol.* 2012;26(7):1203-1212.
59. Wu KL, Gannon M, Peshavaria M, et al. Hepatocyte nuclear factor 3beta is involved in pancreatic beta-cell-specific transcription of the pdx-1 gene. *Mol Cell Biol.* 1997;17(10):6002-6013.
60. Gupta D, Jetton TL, Mortensen RM, et al. In vivo and in vitro studies of a functional peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor gamma response element in the mouse pdx-1 promoter. *J Biol Chem.* 2008;283:32462-32470.
61. Sun Y, Zhang L, Gu HF, et al. Peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor-alpha regulates the expression of pancreatic/duodenal homeobox-1 in rat insulinoma (INS-1) cells and ameliorates glucose-induced insulin secretion impaired by palmitate. *Endocrinology.* 2008;149(2):662-671.
62. Da Silva Xavier G, Sun G, Qian Q, et al. ChREBP regulates Pdx-1 and other glucose-sensitive genes in pancreatic beta-cells. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun.* 2010;402(2):252-257.
63. An R, da Silva Xavier G, Hao HX, et al. Regulation by Per-Arnt-Sim (PAS) kinase of pancreatic duodenal homeobox-1 nuclear import in pancreatic beta-cells. *Biochem Soc Trans.* 2006;34(5):791-793.
64. An R, da Silva Xavier G, Semplici F, et al. Pancreatic and duodenal homeobox 1 (PDX1) phosphorylation at serine-269 is HIPK2 dependent and affects PDX1 subnuclear localization. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun.* 2010;399(2):155-161.
65. Humphrey RK, Yu SM, Flores LE, et al. Glucose regulates steady-state levels of PDX1 via the reciprocal actions of GSK3 and AKT kinases. *J Biol Chem.* 2010;285:3406-3416.
66. Kishi A, Nakamura T, Nishio Y, et al. Sumoylation of Pdx1 is associated with its nuclear localization and insulin gene activation. *Am J Physiol Endocrinol Metab.* 2003;284(4):E830-E840.