



RESEARCH ARTICLE

Role of Corticosteroid and CNS Neurotransmitters in Correlation between Diabetes and Depression

Arun K Soni^{*1}, Dr. Shrikalp Deshpande¹, Dr. Priyanshee Gohil¹

¹K.B. Institute of Pharmaceutical Education and Research (KBIPER), Sector - 23, Near GH - 6, Gandhinagar - 382 023, Gujarat, India

Manuscript No: IJPRS/V6/I3/00066, Received On: 26/07/2017, Accepted On: 09/08/2017

ABSTRACT

Diabetes and Depression are highly prevalent conditions with severe impact on health outcomes. It was found that the prevalence of depression was significantly higher among patient with type 2 diabetes (T2D) but an exact mechanistic link between these two diseases is not yet clear. HPA axis hyperactivity leads to hypercortisolemia and alteration in corticosteroid metabolism which may play a key role in the development of depression in diabetes. Objective: To study the role of Corticosteroids in depressive diabetic mice. Materials and method: Total six groups each having six animal. T2D was induced by High Fat Diet (HFD) and Streptozotocin (STZ) (10 mg Kg-1, i.p.). Depression was induced by changing light & dark cycle (22:02 hr). Mifepristone (100 mg Kg-1, p.o., b.i.d.) was administered on day 49 to 53. FBG, Corticosterone level, and Forced Swimming test were performed to judge the status of the disease. Neurotransmitters level were also measured at the end of a study. Results: Serum Corticosterone, as well as Fasting Blood Glucose (FBG) level, was significant increases in diabetic, depressive and depressive diabetic group while decrease FBG level and serum corticosterone in mifepristone treated group. Immobility was significantly increased in depressive and depressive diabetic group and significantly decrease in Mifepristone received animals. Conclusion: It was concluded that Corticosteroids might be a link between diabetes and depression.

KEYWORDS

Diabetes, depression, corticosterone, fasting blood glucose level, mifepristone

INTRODUCTION

Depression is serious medical condition that affects thoughts, feelings and the ability to function in everyday life. Approximately 340 million people worldwide suffer from depression.¹ It was estimated that depressive disorders were higher in women (4930 per 100,000) than men (3199 per 100,000) and that globally depressive disorders were the fourth leading cause of disease burden in women and seventh leading cause in men.² An interaction between genetic predisposition and life history appear to determine a person's level of risk. Episodes of depression may then be triggered by stress (due to hyper activity of HPA axis), difficult life events, side effects of medications

or other environmental factors. It is suggested that stress of chronic diseases increases the risk of depression. Several studies suggest that diabetes doubles the risk of depression compared to those without the disorder.³

The most serious of the clinical metabolic disturbances – i.e. visceral obesity, hypertension and dyslipidemia – are concurrent risk factors for type 2 diabetes.^{4,5} In recent years, alterations in corticosterone (cortisol in human) metabolism have been suggested to play a pathogenic role in metabolic disturbances,⁶ and some perturbations of the hypothalamic-pituitary– adrenal (HPA) axis have been found in diabetic patients.^{7,8} Richardson and Tayek (2003) were found that hypercortisolemia due to HPA axis hyperactivity

was observed in individual patient with type 2 diabetes.⁹ Hypercortisolemia is accompanied by increased sympatho-adrenal tone. In patients with type 2 diabetes, counter-regulation is known to start at normoglycemic thresholds, indicating elevated sympathetic neural outflow which is key factor for depression.^{10,11} Thus, HPA axis hyper-activity leads to hypercortisolemia which might play a key role in the development of depression in type 2 diabetes. In light of above facts, the present investigation is carried out to study role of corticosterone in development of depression in diabetic mice.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Animals: Healthy female Swiss Albino mice, weighing 20-40 g, procured from Zydus Research Centre, Ahmadabad, India.

Study Groups: Mice were randomly divided into seven groups (Table 1) (n=6)

Table 1: Group distribution

Groups	Detail of Groups	No. of animal
I	Control Group (NPD)	6
II	HFD + STZ (10 mg Kg ⁻¹ , i.p.) Group (DM)	6
III	Depression Group (NPD)	6
IV	DM + Depression Group	6
V	DM + Mifepristone (100 mg Kg ⁻¹ , p.o., b.i.d.)	6
VI	Depression + Mifepristone (100 mg Kg ⁻¹ , p.o., b.i.d) (NPD)	6
VII	DM + Depression + Mifepristone (100 mg Kg ⁻¹ , p.o., b.i.d)	6

The animals were housed in standard polypropylene cages and maintained under controlled room temperature (22±2 °C) and humidity (55±5%) with 12:12 h light and dark cycle. All the mice were fed with commercially available normal pellet diet (NPD) and water ad libitum, prior to the dietary manipulation. The protocol (KBIPER/2012/329) was approved by Institutional (K. B. Institute of Pharmaceutical Education and Research) Animal Ethics Committee (IEAC) under the Committee for the Purpose of Control and Supervision of Experiments on Animals (CPCSEA) before carrying out the project.

a) Induction of Type 2 diabetes

Table 2: Composition of High Fat Diet (HFD) [13]

Ingredients	Weight (gm)	Kcal %
Powdered NPD	200	724
Lard	260	2340
Casein	135	540
Sucrose	245	980
Vitamin and mineral mix	5	20
DL-methionine	3	12
Corn starch	150	600
Sodium chloride	1	0
Soya bean oil	5	45
Total	1004 gm	5261 Kcal

A dietary fat constituent such as lard is rich in Saturated Fatty Acid (SFA). Subsequent HFD feeding increased adiposity, insulin resistance and hyperglycaemia. Low-dose STZ injection further augments hyperglycaemia.[12] All animals except group I (control) & III

(Depression) were fed HFD (Table 2) from day 0 to day 53.

On day 28, single dose of STZ (10 mg kg⁻¹, i.p.; selected based on pilot study) (freshly prepared by dissolving 26 mg in 75 ml 0.05 M citrate buffer at pH 4.5) was administered in all HFD groups. Mice of control group were injected with the equivalent volume of saline. The induction of diabetes was confirmed by measuring the Fasting Blood Glucose (FBG) level on day 32 (after 72 hrs of STZ administration). Mice with fasting blood glucose level > 14 mmol L⁻¹ were considered diabetic and were included for further study.

b) Induction of Depression

All the animals of group III, IV, VI, VII were exposed to 22:02 h light/dark cycle from day 32 to day 53 (three weeks) for induction of Depression and Forced Swimming Test (FST) was performed to confirm the induction of depression.¹²

c) Administration of Mifepristone

All the animals of group V, VI, VII were administered Mifepristone (100 mg Kg⁻¹, p.o., b.i.d.)¹⁴ from day 49 to day 53.

Evaluation Parameters

a) Measurement of Fasting Blood Glucose (FBG)

The Fasting Blood Glucose level was measured in all the animals on day 0, 28, 32 and 53. Mice were fasted for 24 hours, blood was collected from retro orbital plexus under anaesthesia; serum was separated by centrifugation (C24 REMI Centrifuge, India) at 5000 rpm for 15 minutes and was analyzed for glucose (GOD-POD) at 505 nm in UV-Visible Spectrophotometer (V-530, JASCO, Japan) using commercially available diagnostic kits (Span diagnostics Ltd, Surat, India).

Procedure: 20 µl of serum and standard glucose solution (100 mg/dl) was pipette into the different test-tubes, 1500 µl of working glucose reagent was added to each test tube. The test tubes were incubated at room temperature (15-30°C) for 30 min. Thereafter 1500 µl purified

water was added. Then absorbance of standard and test was measured against reagent blank at 505 nm. Concentration of test sample was determined using the following formula:¹⁵

$$\text{Serum glucose } \left(\frac{\text{mg}}{\text{dl}}\right) = \frac{\text{Absorbance of test} \times 100}{\text{Absorbance of standard}}$$

b) Forced swimming test (FST)

The FST was performed in all the animals on day 32 and day 53. Mouse was forced to swim in an open cylindrical container (diameter 10 cm, height 25 cm) filled with water (25±1°C) up to 19 cm; the total duration of immobility during a 6 min was recorded by stop watch. Mouse was judged to be immobile when it ceased struggling and remained floating motionless in the water, making only those movements necessary to keep its head above water.¹⁶

c) Measurement of Corticosterone

The corticosterone level in serum was measured in all the animals on day 0, 28, 32 and 53. Blood was collected from retro orbital plexus under anaesthesia in the morning in between 6:00 a.m to 8:00 a.m. Serum was separated by centrifugation (C24 REMI Centrifuge, India) at 5000 rpm for 15 min. Serum (0.1 ml) was diluted with 0.2 ml freshly prepared chloroform-methanol mixture (2:1, v/v) and further extracted with 3 ml chloroform. The sample was vortexed for 30 sec and centrifuge (C24 REMI Centrifuge, India) at 2000 rpm for 10 min. The chloroform layer was carefully removed with the help of syringe with a long 16 gauge needle attached to it. The chloroform layer treated with 0.3 ml of 0.1N NaOH by vortexing and remove NaOH immediately. Chloroform layer vortexed with 30N H₂SO₄ vigorously. After phase separation, chloroform layer on the top was removed using syringe and discarded. The tube containing H₂SO₄ layer was kept in dark for 60 min. and thereafter fluorescence measurement was carried out using spectrofluorophotometer (RF 5301, SHIMADZU, Japan) with excitation and emission wavelength at 472 nm & 523.2 nm respectively. Equivalent volume of the isolation media without serum was used as blank.¹⁷

d) Measurement of Neurotransmitter

[Nor epinephrine (NE), Dopamine (DA) & 5-Hydroxytryptamine (5-HT)]

The neurotransmitter (NE, DA & 5-HT) level in brain was measured in all the animals on day 54. Mice were scarified by cervical dislocation and their brain were removed and homogenized in 5 ml of homogenizing buffer (0.32M sucrose solution). Homogenate were then subjected to centrifugation (3500 gyrun per min) for 35 min.¹⁸ Nor epinephrine and Dopamine measurement was performed using reagent. Versene (prepared by dissolving 4 gm EDTA in 95 ml of distilled water & adjust the pH between 6.0 and 6.5 with 10N NaOH then make up the volume up to 100 ml with distilled water) & fluorescence was measured using spectrofluorophotometer (RF 5301, SHIMADZU, Japan) at excitation & emission wavelength 385 nm & 485 nm for NE & excitation & emission wavelength 320 nm & 385 nm for DA. 5-HT measurement was performed using o-phthaldehyde & fluorescence was measured at excitation & emission wavelength 360 nm & 470 nm.¹⁹

Statistical analysis

Data were expressed as Mean \pm SEM for 6 animals. One way ANOVA followed by Tukey test and One way ANOVA followed by Dunnet's test was performed to check the significant difference among group. Multiple linear regression was applied to check the correlation between diabetes & depression.

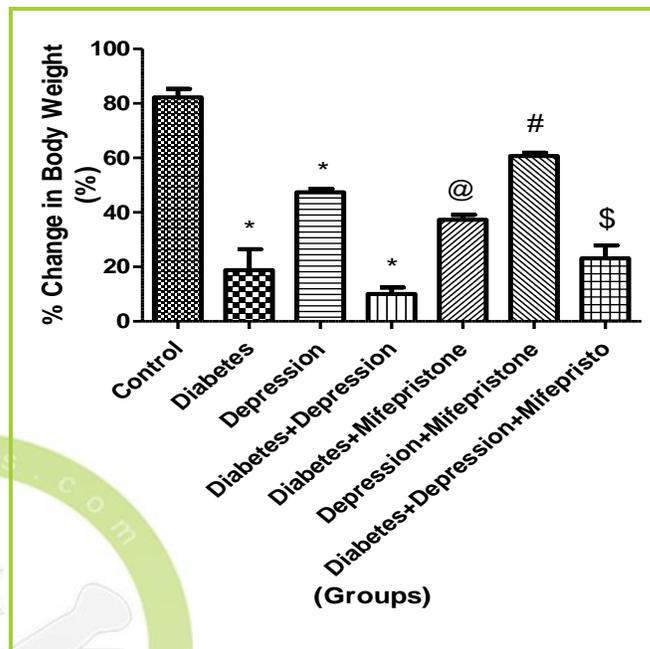
RESULT

1) % Change in Body Weight

Body Weight of animal was measured on Day 0, 14, 28, 42, 53. Change in body weight (%) was observed (Figure-1) significantly ($p < 0.05$) decrease in diabetic group (18.81 ± 7.613), depressive group (47.35 ± 1.237) & depressive diabetic group (10.05 ± 2.412) compared to control group (82.24 ± 3.086). Mifepristone treated diabetic group (37.33 ± 1.783), Mifepristone treated depressive group (60.68 ± 1.192) & Mifepristone treated

depressive diabetic group (23.17 ± 4.708) showed significantly ($p < 0.05$) increase in % body weight compared to diabetic group, depressive group and depressive diabetic group.

Figure 1: Change in body weight (%) on Day 53



Each bar in the graph represents Mean \pm SEM, n=6

* Significantly different from control group at $p < 0.05$

@ Significantly different from diabetic group at $p < 0.05$

Significantly different from depressive group at $p < 0.05$

\$ Significantly different from depressive diabetic group at $p < 0.05$

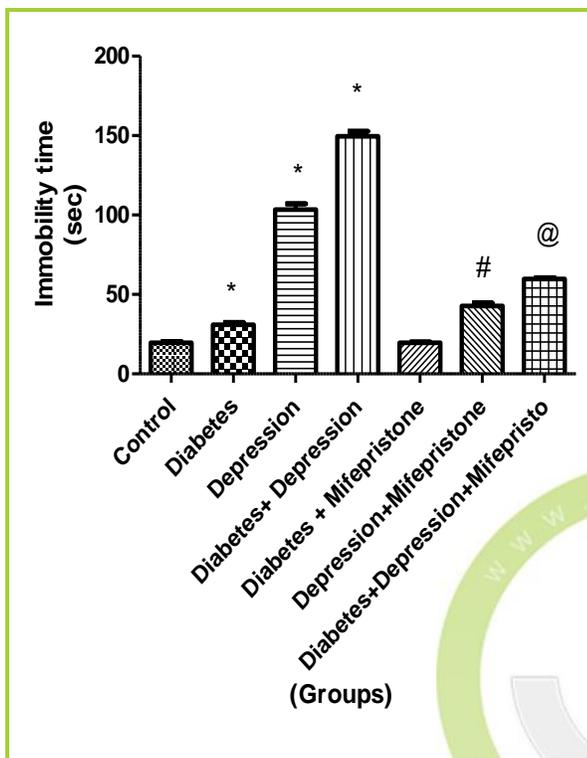
(One way ANOVA followed by Tukey's test)

(2) Forced Swimming Test

Immobility time was significantly ($p < 0.05$) increase in diabetic group (30.83 ± 1.621), depressive group (103.3 ± 3.827) as well as depressive diabetic group (149 ± 3.181) compared to control group (19.50 ± 0.991). Mifepristone treated depressive group (42.83 ± 1.778) & Mifepristone treated

depressive diabetic group (59.83 ± 0.749) showed significantly ($p < 0.05$) decrease in Immobility time compared to depressive group and depressive diabetic group (Figure-2).

Figure 2: Immobility time on Day 53



Each bar in the graph represents Mean \pm SEM, n=6

* Significantly different from control group at $p < 0.05$

Significantly different from depressive group at $p < 0.05$

@ Significantly different from depressive diabetic group at $p < 0.05$

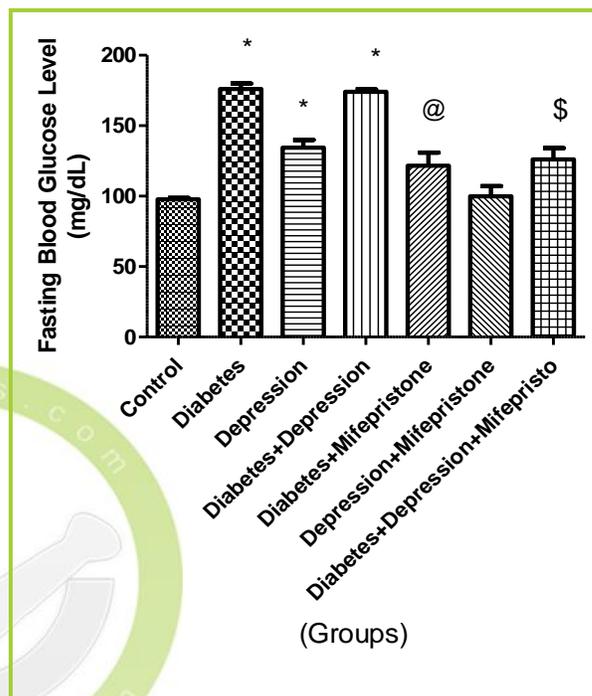
(One way ANOVA followed by Tukey's test)

(3) Fasting Blood Glucose Level

Fasting Blood Glucose (FBG) Level was measured on Day 0, 28, 32 and 53. Fasting Blood Glucose (FBG) Level was significantly ($p < 0.05$) increase in diabetic group (176.04 ± 3.943), depressive group (134.49 ± 5.435) and depressive diabetic group (174.02 ± 1.780) as compared to Control group (97.78 ± 1.021).

Fasting Blood Glucose level was significantly ($p < 0.05$) decrease in Mifepristone treated diabetic group (121.66 ± 9.190) as well as Mifepristone treated depressive diabetic group (126.13 ± 7.867) as compared to diabetic group and depressive diabetic group (Figure-3).

Figure 3: Fasting Blood Glucose (FBG) level on Day 53



Each bar in the graph represents Mean \pm SEM, n=6

* Significantly different from control group at $p < 0.05$

@ Significantly different from diabetic group at $p < 0.05$

\$ Significantly different from depressive diabetic group at $p < 0.05$

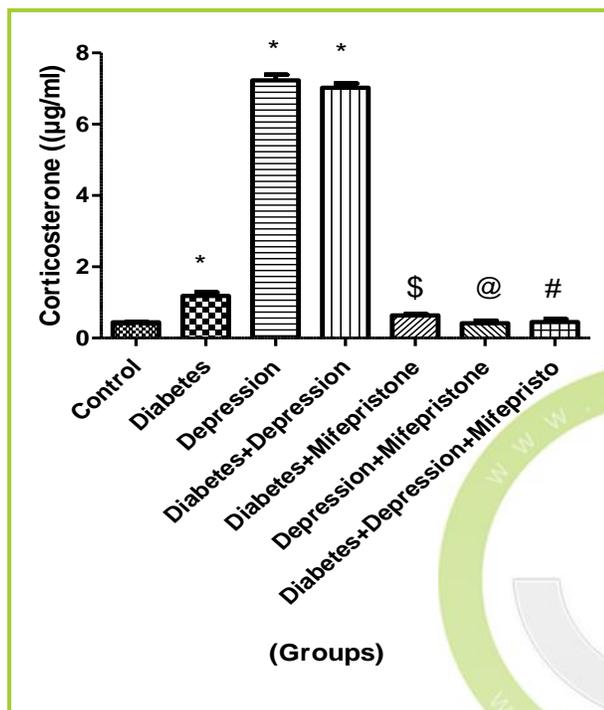
(One way ANOVA followed by Tukey's test)

(4) Serum Corticosterone Level

Serum Corticosterone level was measured on Day 0, 28, 32 and 53. Serum Corticosterone level was significantly ($p < 0.05$) increase in diabetic group (1.18 ± 0.100), depressive group (7.25 ± 0.169) and depressive diabetic group (7.33 ± 0.350) as compared to Control group (0.452 ± 0.005). Mifepristone treated diabetic group (0.63 ± 0.036), Mifepristone treated

depressive group (0.41 ± 0.076) & Mifepristone treated depressive diabetic group (0.452 ± 0.079) showed significantly ($p < 0.05$) decrease in serum corticosterone level as compared to diabetic group, depressive group & depressive diabetic group respectively. (Figure-4).

Figure 4: Serum Corticosterone Level on Day 53



Each bar in the graph represents Mean \pm SEM, n=6

* Significantly different from control group at $p < 0.05$

\$ Significantly different from diabetic group at $p < 0.05$

@ Significantly different from depressive group at $p < 0.05$

Significantly different from depressive diabetic group at $p < 0.05$

(One way ANOVA followed by Tukey's test)

5) Level of Neurotransmitters:

A) 5-Hydroxytryptamine (5-HT)

5-HT level was measured on Day 54. There was a significant ($p < 0.05$) increase in 5-HT level in diabetic group (2.257 ± 0.088), depressive group (1.390 ± 0.317), depressive diabetic group

(2.25 ± 0.011), Mifepristone treated diabetic group (2.083 ± 0.121), Mifepristone treated depressive group (2.227 ± 0.177) & Mifepristone treated depressive diabetic group (2.430 ± 0.228) as compared to control group (0.346 ± 0.023) (Figure-5).

Figure-5: (A) 5 HT Level

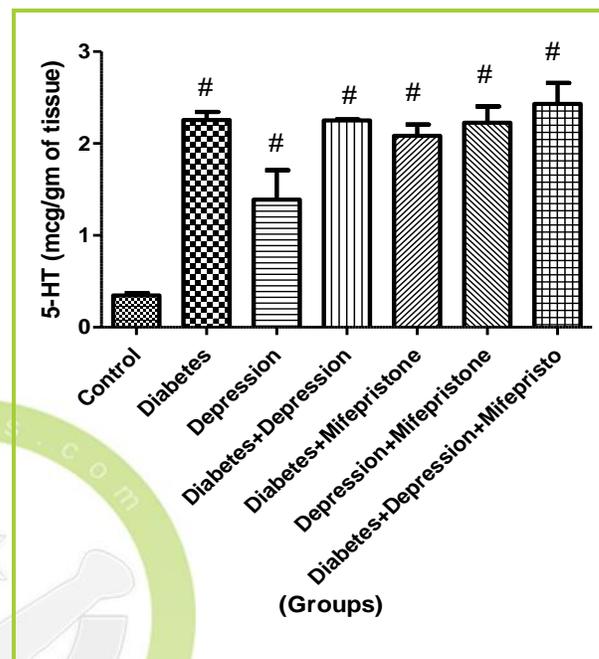


Figure-5: (B) NE level

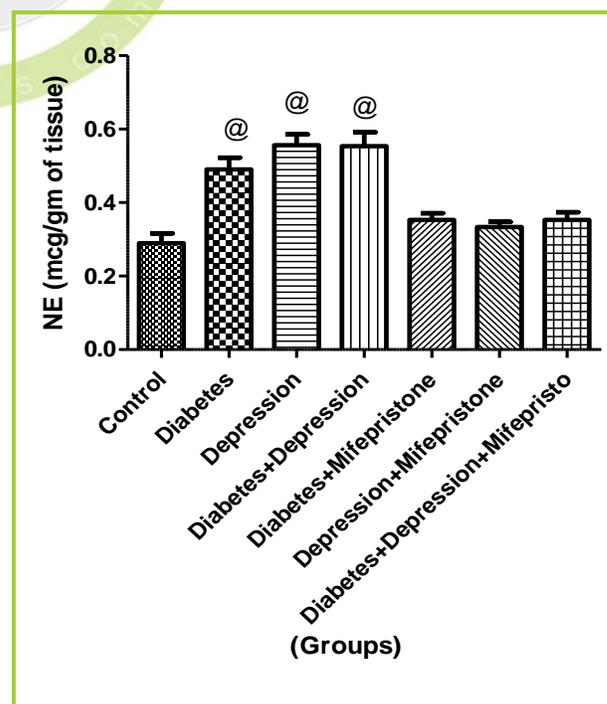
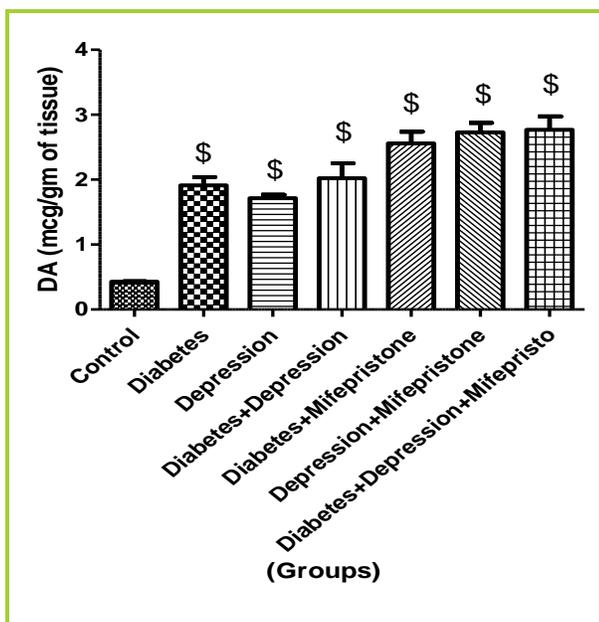


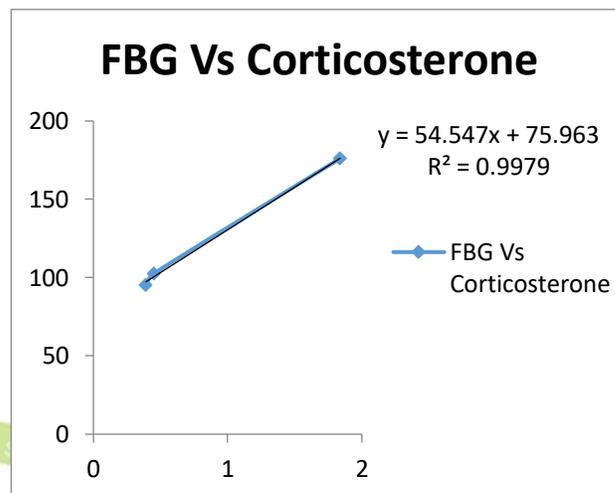
Figure-5: (C) DA level



6) Correlation between Diabetes & Depression

There is positive and significant correlation between diabetes & depression ($R^2 = 0.997$).

Figure 6: Correlations between Diabetes & Depression



Each bar in the graph represents Mean \pm SEM (n=6), #, @ and \$ Significantly different from control group at $p < 0.05$ (ANOVA followed by Dunnett's test)

B) Nor Epinephrine (NE)

NE level was measured on Day 54. There was a significant ($p < 0.05$) increase in 5-HT level in diabetic group (0.49 ± 0.032), depressive group (0.556 ± 0.029), depressive diabetic group (0.553 ± 0.038), Mifepristone treated diabetic group (0.6 ± 0.030), Mifepristone treated depressive group (0.6 ± 0.020) & Mifepristone treated depressive diabetic group (0.553 ± 0.020) as compared to control group (0.29 ± 0.029) (Figure-5).

C) Dopamine (DA)

DA level was measured on Day 54. There was a significant ($p < 0.05$) increase in 5-HT level in diabetic group (1.913 ± 0.123), depressive group (1.713 ± 0.054), depressive diabetic group (2.023 ± 0.228), Mifepristone treated diabetic group (2.56 ± 0.177), Mifepristone treated depressive group (2.727 ± 0.147) & Mifepristone treated depressive diabetic group (2.770 ± 0.205) as compared to control group (0.426 ± 0.008) (Figure-5).

DISCUSSION

Depression is the major co-morbid psychological disorder with diabetes.^{20,21} The probability of depression in diabetic patients is approximately double that of those without diabetes.²⁰ It was found that the prevalence of depression was significantly higher among patients with type 2 diabetes than those without diabetes²² but exact mechanistic link between these two diseases is yet not clear. Since corticosteroid has a key role in insulin resistance²³ and also in depression, present investigation focus on corticosteroid as a link between diabetes and depression. Present investigation focused on corticosteroid as a link between diabetes and depression. For undergoing the study, diabetic (T2D) symptoms were induced in mice by high fat diet fed-STZ injected model which have been proposed as the better model for T2D.²⁴⁻²⁶ A low fat diet is not enough to induce Insulin resistance (IR). Only high fat diet requires very long time to produce IR whereas only STZ administration causes T1D. High fat diet with STZ injection causes pancreatic β -cell damage as well as permanent IR. Thus, the pathogenesis of high fat diet-STZ induced diabetes is likely similar to the

pathogenesis in human, however, the dose and composition of diets largely affect the success of the induction of T2D in experimental animal. Depression was induced by changing light & dark cycle which causes mainly psychological stress (fear of drowning and suffocation) and consequently also physical stress (vigorous activity to come out).²⁷ High fat diet fed animal showed elevated body weight initially due to leptin resistance.²⁵ Diabetic, Depressive and depressive diabetic groups showed decrease in body weight compared with normal control group. Lipolysis due to insulin resistance and stress induced anorexia is major reasons for decreased body weight in diabetic group and depressive group respectively. There was significant increase in body weight in Mifepristone received groups.

Mifepristone is potent progesterone as well as glucocorticoid receptor antagonist. The advantage of Mifepristone over other anti-steroid agents is that it has no mineralo-corticoid action.²⁸ It showed dose-dependent action in body and 200 mg/kg, p.o. dose has anti-glucocorticoid action. Behavioral immobility reflects a state of despair in the mice and is one of the valuable parameter in assessing the depressive state.²⁹ Present investigation showed increase in immobility time in Diabetic, Depressive and depressive diabetic groups when compared with normal control group. Present investigation showed that there was a significant change in immobility time of diabetic, depressive and depressive diabetic group as compare to normal control group. Mifepristone treated animal shows decrease immobility time as compared to disease control group. Fasting blood glucose (FBG) level was found to be increased due to insulin resistance. There was a significant increase in FBG level in Diabetic group, Depressive group and Depressive diabetic group compared with normal control group. On the other hand, there was a significant decrease in FBG level in Mifepristone received animals due to its action on insulin resistance.³⁰

Hypothalamic-Pituitary-Adrenocortical (HPA) axis plays major role in the etiopathogenesis of major depression. HPA axis abnormality was

found in depression that leads to hypercorticoesteronemia and thereby elevated corticosterone level.²⁸ A significant elevated corticosterone level was found in diabetic group, depressive group and diabetic depressive group compared with control group. Mifepristone, being a glucocorticoid receptor antagonist, restored elevated corticosterone level in Mifepristone received diabetic group, depressive group and diabetic depressive group.

The monoamine hypothesis of depression predicts impairment in central monoaminergic function. The lesion may comprise deficiencies in the absolute concentrations of norepinephrine and/or serotonin (5-HT). The studies have shown a correlation between depletion of monoamine level and depressive symptoms.³¹ But Contrary to this, higher 5-HT, NE and DA level was observed in all the groups except control group in our study. This is in accordance with previous reports. Palanza, 2001³² reported that female mice show higher level of 5-HT in depressive status. Further, Alvaro, 2011³³ and Strickland et al, 2002³⁴ also observed higher 5-HT level in female suffering from MDD. 5-HT or its agonists are reported to induce hyperglycemia in rats.³⁰ Increased 5-HT level might be one of the causes for increase in blood sugar level in depressive group in our study. Likewise, as per study of Wurtman, 2002, elevated NE level is associated with HPA axis abnormality.³³⁻³⁴ The raised DA level might be due to either lack of N-methyl transferase in rodent's brain or psycho-depressive status. Furthermore correlation coefficient (R² Value) between FBG and Corticosterone is 0.997, between FBG and 5-HT is 0.817, between FBG and NE is 1.000 & between FBG and DA is 0.995. These results indicate that there is positive and significant correlation between diabetes & depression.

REFERENCES

1. Greden, J. F. (2003). Physical symptoms of depression: unmet needs. *The Journal of clinical psychiatry*, 64, 5-11.

2. Üstün, T. B., Ayuso-Mateos, J. L., Chatterji, S., Mathers, C., & Murray, C. J. (2004). Global burden of depressive disorders in the year 2000. *The British journal of psychiatry*, 184(5), 386-392.
3. Wajchenberg, B. L. (2000). Subcutaneous and visceral adipose tissue: their relation to the metabolic syndrome. *Endocrine reviews*, 21(6), 697-738.
4. Ohlson, L. O., Larsson, B., Björntorp, P., Eriksson, H., Svärdsudd, K., Welin, L., ... & Wilhelmsen, L. (1988). Risk factors for type 2 (non-insulin-dependent) diabetes mellitus. Thirteen and one-half years of follow-up of the participants in a study of Swedish men born in 1913. *Diabetologia*, 31(11), 798-805.
5. Rosmond, R. (2005). Role of stress in the pathogenesis of the metabolic syndrome. *Psychoneuroendocrinology*, 30(1), 1-10.
6. Cameron, O. G., Kronfol, Z., Greden, J. F., & Carroll, B. J. (1984). Hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenocortical activity in patients with diabetes mellitus. *Archives of General Psychiatry*, 41(11), 1090-1095.
7. Lee, Z. S., Chan, J. C., Yeung, V. T., Chow, C. C., Lau, M. S., Ko, G. T., ... & Critchley, J. A. (1999). Plasma insulin, growth hormone, cortisol, and central obesity among young Chinese type 2 diabetic patients. *Diabetes Care*, 22(9), 1450-1457.
8. Shaffer, D., Fisher, P., Dulcan, M. K., Davies, M., Piacentini, J., Schwab-Stone, M. E., ... & Canino, G. (1996). The NIMH Diagnostic Interview Schedule for Children Version 2.3 (DISC-2.3): Description, acceptability, prevalence rates, and performance in the MECA study. *Journal of the American Academy of Child & Adolescent Psychiatry*, 35(7), 865-877.
9. Richardson, A. P., & Tayek, J. A. (2002). Type 2 diabetic patients may have a mild form of an injury response: a clinical research center study. *American Journal of Physiology-Endocrinology and Metabolism*, 282(6), E1286-E1290.
10. Shamon, H., Friedman, S., Canton, C., Zacharowicz, L., Hu, M., & Rossetti, L. (1994). Increased epinephrine and skeletal muscle responses to hypoglycemia in non-insulin-dependent diabetes mellitus. *Journal of Clinical Investigation*, 93(6), 2562.
11. Spyer, G., Hattersley, A. T., MacDonald, I. A., Amiel, S., & MacLeod, K. M. (2000). Hypoglycaemic counter-regulation at normal blood glucose concentrations in patients with well controlled type-2 diabetes. *The Lancet*, 356(9246), 1970-1974.
12. Kusakabe, T., Tanioka, H., Ebihara, K., Hirata, M., Miyamoto, L., Miyanaga, F., ... & Hosoda, K. (2009). Beneficial effects of leptin on glycaemic and lipid control in a mouse model of type 2 diabetes with increased adiposity induced by streptozotocin and a high-fat diet. *Diabetologia*, 52(4), 675-683.
13. Srinivasan, K., Viswanad, B., Asrat, L., Kaul, C. L., & Ramarao, P. (2005). Combination of high-fat diet-fed and low-dose streptozotocin-treated rat: a model for type 2 diabetes and pharmacological screening. *Pharmacological research*, 52(4), 313-320.

14. Vogel, H. G. (2008). Psychotropic and neurotropic activity. In: drug discovery and evaluation Pharmacological assay. 3rd ed. New York: Springer publisher. 430-31.
15. Yanina R, Niels V, Rekers L, Mieke C. Glucocorticoid receptor blockade normalizes hippocampal alterations and cognitive impairment in streptozotocin-induced type 1 diabetes mice. *Neuropsychopharmacology* 2009;34:747-58.
16. Godkar, P. (1996). Textbook of Medical laboratory Technology. In: Chemistry of Carbohydrate. Mumbai: Bhalani Publication House. 110-14.
17. Vogel, H. G. (2008). Psychotropic and neurotropic activity. In: drug discovery and evaluation Pharmacological assay. 3rd ed. New York: Springer publisher. 559-60.
18. Katyare, S. S., & Pandya, J. D. (2005). A simplified fluorimetric method for corticosterone estimation in rat serum, tissues and mitochondria.
19. Dunkley, P. R., Jarvie, P. E., & Robinson, P. J. (2008). A rapid Percoll gradient procedure for preparation of synaptosomes. *Nature protocols*, 3(11), 1718.
20. Jacobowitz, D. M., & Richardson, J. S. (1978). Method for the rapid determination of norepinephrine, dopamine, and serotonin in the same brain region. *Pharmacology Biochemistry and Behavior*, 8(5), 515-519.
21. Anderson, R. J., Freedland, K. E., Clouse, R. E., & Lustman, P. J. (2001). The prevalence of comorbid depression in adults with diabetes. *Diabetes care*, 24(6), 1069-1078.
22. Lin, E. H., Katon, W., Von Korff, M., Rutter, C., Simon, G. E., Oliver, M., ... & Young, B. (2004). Relationship of depression and diabetes self-care, medication adherence, and preventive care. *Diabetes care*, 27(9), 2154-2160.
23. Egede, L. E., Zheng, D., & Simpson, K. (2002). Comorbid depression is associated with increased health care use and expenditures in individuals with diabetes. *Diabetes care*, 25(3), 464-470.
24. Black, P. H. (2003). The inflammatory response is an integral part of the stress response: Implications for atherosclerosis, insulin resistance, type II diabetes and metabolic syndrome X. *Brain, behavior, and immunity*, 17(5), 350-364.
25. Reed, M. J., Meszaros, K., Entes, L. J., Claypool, M. D., Pinkett, J. G., Gadbois, T. M., & Reaven, G. M. (2000). A new rat model of type 2 diabetes: the fat-fed, streptozotocin-treated rat. *Metabolism*, 49(11), 1390-1394.
26. Srinivasan, K., Viswanad, B., Asrat, L., Kaul, C. L., & Ramarao, P. (2005). Combination of high-fat diet-fed and low-dose streptozotocin-treated rat: a model for type 2 diabetes and pharmacological screening. *Pharmacological research*, 52(4), 313-320.
27. Vogel, H. G. (2008). Psychotropic and neurotropic activity. In: drug discovery and evaluation Pharmacological assay. 3rd ed. New York: Springer publisher. 555-89.
28. Goudswaard, A. N., Stolk, R. P., Zuithoff, P., de Valk, H. W., & Rutten, G. E. (2004). Starting insulin in type 2 diabetes: Continue

- oral hypoglycemic agents?. *J Fam Pract*, 53, 393-9.
29. Porsolt, R. D., Anton, G., Blavet, N., & Jalfre, M. (1978). Behavioural despair in rats: a new model sensitive to antidepressant treatments. *European journal of pharmacology*, 47(4), 379-391.
30. Stokes, P. E. (1995). The potential role of excessive cortisol induced by HPA hyperfunction in the pathogenesis of depression. *European Neuropsychopharmacology*, 5, 77-82.
31. Palanza, P. (2001). Animal models of anxiety and depression: how are females different?. *Neuroscience & Biobehavioral Reviews*, 25(3), 219-233.
32. Machado Dias, A. (2011). Are 5-HT Levels Increased in Depression?. *Current Psychiatry Reviews*, 7(1), 19-24.
33. Strickland, P. L., Deakin, J. W., Percival, C., Dixon, J., Gater, R. A., & Goldberg, D. P. (2002). Bio-social origins of depression in the community. *The British Journal of Psychiatry*, 180(2), 168-173.
34. Yamada, J., Sugimoto, Y., Noma, T., & Yoshikawa, T. (1998). Effects of the non-selective 5-HT receptor agonist, 5-carboxamidotryptamine, on plasma glucose levels in rats. *European journal of pharmacology*, 359(1), 81-86.



HOW TO CITE THIS ARTICLE

Arun, K. S., Deshpande, S., Priyanshee, G. (2017). Role of Corticosteroid and CNS Neurotransmitters in Correlation between Diabetes and Depression. *International Journal for Pharmaceutical Research Scholars (IJPRS)*, 6(3), 01 - 11.