

*Research Article***Mechanisms Underlying the Protective Effect of Sildenafil in Metabolic Syndrome in Rats****Entesar F. Amin, Mohamed A. Ibrahim, Salwa A. Ibrahim, Remoon R. Rofael and Aly M. Abdelrahman**

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Abstract

Metabolic syndrome (MS) is described as the simultaneous occurrence of insulin resistance, abnormal serum lipid levels, hypertension and recently fatty liver. MS is also associated with erectile dysfunction that is treated with sildenafil. The current study investigated the effect of sildenafil on a rat model of MS induced by fructose overfeeding. Rats were divided into five groups: 1st group served as normal control, 2nd group MS control group; 3rd, 4th and 5th groups treated by oral sildenafil in doses of 0 mg/kg/day, 10 mg/kg/day, 40 mg/kg/day; respectively for six weeks. Liver weight/body weight ratio (liver index), visceral fat index, insulin resistance (fasting blood glucose, fasting serum insulin and homeostasis model assessment of insulin resistance (HOMA-IR)), serum levels of lipids (triglyceride (TG), and high density lipoprotein (HDL), total cholesterol), oxidative stress (malondialdehyde (MDA), reduced glutathione (GSH) and catalase, and nitric oxide (NO)), tumor necrosis factor- α (TNF- α) and immunohistochemical assay of induced nitric oxide synthase (iNOS) and endothelial nitric oxide synthase (eNOS) in hepatic tissues were studied. Sildenafil in all doses reduced liver index and visceral fat index. Sildenafil (10 and 40 mg/kg) improved fasting glucose level, fasting insulin level, (HOMA-IR). The protective effect of Sildenafil was associated with significant attenuation in oxidative stress as well as significant decrease in serum levels of TNF- α . Sildenafil increased eNOS and decreased iNOS expression in hepatic tissue. In conclusion, sildenafil was shown to be protective against MS as evidenced by improving lipid profile, improving insulin resistance, decreasing visceral fat index and liver index possibly via anti-oxidant, decrease serum levels of TNF- α as well as via modulation of nitric oxide.

Keywords: Sildenafil, Metabolic syndrome and Fructose overfeeding.**Introduction**

Metabolic syndrome (MS) is characterized by a constellation of metabolic risk factors: obesity, dyslipidemia, elevated blood pressure, insulin resistance, and a prothrombotic and pro-inflammatory state (Grundey et al., 2004).

Several lines of evidence have suggested that endothelial dysfunction, nitric oxide (NO) modulation, inflammation and increases in oxidative stress may be responsible for MS. However; the exact pathogenesis of MS is still not fully understood (Van Erk et al., 2010). Erectile dysfunction is a highly prevalent disease which is also associated with components of MS such as hypertension, obesity, dyslipidemia and diabetes (Hatzimouratidis, 2006).

Sildenafil, a phosphodiesterase 5 inhibitor (PDE-5), which revolutionized erectile dys-

function treatment was also reported to reverse endothelial dysfunction and oxidative stress. Daily treatment with (PDE5) inhibitors has beneficial effects on endothelial function in men with increased cardiovascular risk (Behr-Roussel et al., 2008).

The aim of the present work was to evaluate the possible mechanisms of the protective effect of sildenafil in MS induced by fructose in rats.

Materials & Methods

Animals: Adult male albino rats weighing 180-200 g were used. They were allowed free access to standard laboratory food (El-Nasr Company, Abou-Zaabal, Cairo, Egypt) and water for one week before the experiment, as adaptation. All experimental protocols were approved by the board of the faculty of medicine, minia university.

Drugs & kits: Sildenafil (a generous gift from Pfizer, Egypt). Epitope **specific antibody to nitric oxide synthase (iNOS)**, endothelial nitric oxide (eNOS) and caspase-3 monoclonal mouse antibodies were purchased from Lab Vision Laboratories.

Experimental protocol: Fructose was added to drinking water (10%) and also to rats chow diet (10%) for 6 weeks for induction of MS. Rats were divided into five groups: 1st group served as normal control, 2nd group MS control group; 3rd; 4th and 5th groups treated by sildenafil (orally by gastric tube) in three ascending doses (0 mg/kg/day, 10 mg/kg/day, 40 mg/kg/day); respectively for six weeks.

The drug doses, routes of their administration as well as time of administration were selected on the basis of pilot study as well as according to the previously published studies (Csont et al., 1998; Cunha et al., 2010; Dussault et al., 2009; Habre et al., 2011; Khayyal et al., 2009; Schäfer et al., 2008; Rizzo et al., 2010; Nalbant et al., 2006; Hermann et al., 2003; Padi et al., 2003; Kim et al., 2006).

After 6 weeks, rats were weighed, anesthetized with ether. Blood samples were collected from neck veins by decapitations and centrifuged. Sera were separated and stored at -80 °C for further assessments. Livers were rapidly dissected, weighed and prepared for immunohistochemical examinations or stored at -80°C for further investigation.

Visceral fat index: Visceral fat (adipose tissue surrounding the abdominal and pelvic organs) were dissected and weighed. Visceral fat index was calculated according to the following equation: (visceral fat weight (g) / body weight (g)) x 100 (Hansen et al., 1997).

Liver index: Liver index was calculated (liver weight/body weight) x 100 (Xu. et al., 2006).

Insulin resistance index: fasting glucose was determined after a 12 h fasting period. Blood glucose concentration from the tail vein was measured using the Active blood glucose meter (Roche, Mannheim, Germany). Enzyme-Linked Immunosorbent Assay (ELISA) was used for determination of fasting serum insulin (Grassi and Pradelles, 1991; Lu et al., 2010). Insulin

resistance was estimated according to the Homeostasis Model Assessment (HOMA-IR) which was calculated (the fasting concentrations of glucose (mg/dl) × insulin (μIU/ml) / 400 (BleCastillo et al., 2012).

Lipid profile: serum TG, total cholesterol and HDL (Spectrum, Egypt) were measured using an enzymatic colorimetric kits (Biodiagnostic, Giza, Egypt), Egypt).

Serum level of alanine amino transferase: serum levels of alanine amine transferase (ALT) were assayed spectrophotometrically using commercially available kits (Randox laboratories, UK).

Assessment of NO in the hepatic tissue: NO in form of nitrite was determined spectro-photometrically using Greiss reagent systems. NO_x was assayed by measuring nitrite (NO₂⁻) level, one of the stable end products of NO oxidation using Griess reagent, method described by Sogut et al., (2003).

Determination of serum level of tumor necrosis factor-alpha (TNF-α): TNF-α was measured using an ELISAKit (ID Labs Inc., Canada) according to manufacture instruction. It depends up on using wells coated with a polyclonal antibody specific for rat TNF-α. After incubation with the rat TNF-α antigen and a biotinylated polyclonal antibody and washing to remove the unbound enzyme, a substrate solution was added to induce a colored reaction product. The intensity of this colored product was directly proportional to the concentration of rat TNF- α present in the samples. The values were read at 450 nm in an ELISA reader.

Oxidative stress parameters (lipid peroxides, reduced glutathione (GSH) and catalase): Lipid peroxides was determined using the thiobarbituric acid method described by Buege and Aust (1978).The method depends on measuring the malondialdehyde (MDA) equivalent substances which are breakdown products of lipid peroxides. The thiobarbituric-MDA adduct forms colored complexes when extracted with n-butanol/ pyridine; the absorbance of which is read at 532 nm using Bausch & Lomb Spectronic 2000 spectro-photometer (Rochester, NY, USA). Reduced glutathione and catalase in serum were measured using

colorimetric kits (Bio-diagnostic) according to the method described by Beutler et al. (1963) and Aebi, (1984) respectively.

Immunohistochemical assay of iNOS and eNOS in liver: immunohistochemistry was performed using induced nitric oxide synthase (iNOS), and endothelial nitric oxide (eNOS) monoclonal antibodies (Lab Vision Laboratories) according to the method described by Sun et al., (2009) and Ilker et al., (2010).

Statistical analysis

Results were expressed as means \pm standard error of mean (SEM). One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) followed by the Tukey's test. P-values less than 0.05 were considered significant. Graph Pad Prism was used for statistical calculations (version 6.0 for Windows, Graphpad Software, San Diego California USA, www.graphpad.com).

Results

Effect of sildenafil on body weight, liver index, visceral fat index: There was no significant change in body weight between all groups. In MS group significance, there was a significant increase in liver index and visceral fat index compared to control group. Sildenafil (0, 10 and 40 mg/kg) significantly reduced liver index and visceral fat index compared to MS group (Table 1).

Effect of sildenafil on insulin resistance:

There was a significant increase in fasting blood glucose, fasting serum insulin and HOMA-IR in MS group as compared to control group. Sildenafil (10 and 40 mg/kg) significantly lowered the previous parameters to near normal values (Table 2)

Effect of sildenafil on triglycerides, high density lipoprotein, cholesterol and ALT:

In MS group, there were significant increases in serum TG, cholesterol, and ALT and a significant decrease in serum HDL as compared to control group. Sildenafil (40 mg/kg) significantly reduced serum TG, cholesterol

and, ALT and significantly increased HDL (Table 3).

Effects of sildenafil on serum levels of TNF- α , catalase, GSH and MDA: There was a significant increase in TNF- α in MS group as compared to control group. Sildenafil (10 and 40 mg/kg) significantly reduced TNF- α level. There was a significant reduction in catalase and GSH as well as a significant increase in MDA in MS group compared to control group. Sildenafil, dose dependently improved the oxidative stress parameters (Table 4).

Effect of sildenafil on NO and MDA in hepatic tissue:

MS rats showed significant reduction of liver total nitrites (NO end product) and a significant increase in MDA compared to control group. Sildenafil (0, 10 and 40 mg/kg) significantly increased total to control group. Sildenafil (0, 10 and 40 mg/kg) significantly increased total nitrites and reduced MDA significantly compared to MS group (Table 5).

Effect of sildenafil on Immunohistochemical assay of iNOS and eNOS in liver:

eNOS immunoreactivity in rat liver was strong in control group and weak in MS group. This was evident by the significant reduction in semi-quantitative scoring in MS group as compared to control group. Immunoreactivity of eNOS was weak in sildenafil (0 mg/kg)-treated group, however, it was strong in both sildenafil (10 and 40 mg/kg)-treated groups in which semi-quantitative scoring was significantly increased as compared to MS group (Table 6, Fig. 1).

iNOS immunoreactivity in rat liver were weak in control group and strong in MS group. The semi-quantitative score showed that MS group was significantly higher as compared to control group. Strong iNOS immunoreactivity was noticed in sildenafil (0 mg/kg)-treated group, however, it was weak in both sildenafil (10 and 40 mg/kg)-treated groups in which semi-quantitative scoring was significantly reduced as compared to MS group (Table 6, Fig. 2)

Table (1): Effects of sildenafil on total body weight, liver index, visceral fat index

Group	Body weight (g)	Liver index	Visceral fat index
Control	224 ± 7.72	1.78 ± 0.17	0.11 ± 0.01
MS	208 ± 14.1	3.73 ± 0.18 ^a	2.37 ± 0.17 ^a
Sil.0	227 ± 0.97	2.91 ± 0.12 ^{a, b}	1.04 ± 0.19 ^{a, b}
Sil.10	224 ± 3.48	2.90 ± 0.08 ^{a, b}	0.78 ± 0.05 ^b
Sil.40	220 ± 0.21	2.70 ± 0.09 ^{a, b}	0.09 ± 0.05 ^b

Values represent the mean ± SEM of observations from 7 animals.

Control, control group; MS, metabolic syndrome non-treated group; Sil.0, sildenafil (0 mg/kg)-treated group; Sil.10, sildenafil (10 mg/kg)-treated group; Sil.40, sildenafil (40 mg/kg)-treated group.

^aSignificantly different from control group at $p < 0.05$, ^bsignificantly different from MS group at $p < 0.05$.

Table (2): Effect of sildenafil on fasting blood glucose, fasting serum insulin, homeostasis assessment model of insulin resistance (HOMA-IR)

Group	Fasting blood glucose (mg%)	Fasting serum insulin (μIU/ml)	HOMA-IR
Control	103 ± 4.48	12.4 ± 0.86	3.16 ± 0.32
MS	139 ± 4.87 ^a	22.8 ± 1.84 ^a	7.88 ± 0.83 ^a
Sil.0	129 ± 3.12 ^a	22.9 ± 2.0 ^a	7.42 ± 0.72 ^a
Sil.10	117 ± 3.99 ^b	12.7 ± 1.2 ^{b, c}	3.74 ± 0.42 ^{b, c}
Sil.40	108 ± 2.8 ^b	14.0 ± 1.07 ^{b, c}	3.78 ± 0.44 ^{b, c}

Values represent the mean ± SEM of observations from 7 animals.

Control, control group; MS, metabolic syndrome non-treated group; Sil.0, sildenafil (0 mg/kg)-treated group; Sil.10, sildenafil (10 mg/kg)-treated group; Sil.40, sildenafil (40 mg/kg)-treated group. HOMA-IR: homeostasis assessment model of insulin resistance

^aSignificantly different from control group at $p < 0.05$, ^bsignificantly different from MS group at $p < 0.05$, ^c significantly different from sil.0 group at $p < 0.05$.

Table (3): Effect of sildenafil on triglycerides, high density lipoprotein, total cholesterol, Alanine aminotransferase enzyme (ALT).

Group	Triglycerides (mg/dl)	High density lipoprotein (mg/dl)	Total cholesterol (mg/dl)	(ALT) (U/l)
Control	70.3 ± 3.38	37.0 ± 3.26	130 ± 4.07	18.3 ± 2.46
MS	186 ± 7.44 ^a	10.0 ± 1.77 ^a	276 ± 7.79 ^a	01.3 ± 4.08 ^a
Sil.0	178 ± 0.27 ^a	18.3 ± 2.4 ^a	270 ± 14.3 ^a	01.0 ± 4.43 ^a
Sil.10	160 ± 7.84 ^a	19.8 ± 3.68 ^a	278 ± 13.7 ^a	34.2 ± 3.28 ^{b, c}
Sil.40	124 ± 0.3 ^{abcd}	38.0 ± 0.82 ^{b, c, d}	190 ± 12.8 ^{a, b, c, d}	24.7 ± 3.05 ^{b, c}

Values represent the mean ± SEM of observations from 7 animals.

Control, control non diseased group; MS, metabolic syndrome non-treated group; Sil.0, sildenafil (0 mg/kg)-treated group; Sil.10, sildenafil (10 mg/kg)-treated group; Sil.40, sildenafil (40 mg/kg)-treated group.

^aSignificantly different from control group at $p < 0.05$, ^bsignificantly different from MS group at $p < 0.05$, ^csignificantly different from sil.0 group at $p < 0.05$, ^d significantly different from sil.10 group at $p < 0.05$.

Table (4): Effects of sildenafil on serum levels of TNF- α , catalase, GSH, MDA

Group	TNF- α (pg/ml)	Catalase (U/dl)	GSH (mg/dl)	MDA(nmol /L)
Control	11.8 \pm 1.71	30.2 \pm 4.06	03.3 \pm 4.80	227 \pm 19.2
MS	31.7 \pm 1.17 ^a	18.4 \pm 1.02 ^a	28.7 \pm 3.11 ^a	334 \pm 24.2 ^a
Sil.0	26.7 \pm 2.31 ^a	27.9 \pm 3.19 ^b	47.0 \pm 3.60 ^b	231 \pm 20.9 ^b
Sil.10	21.0 \pm 1.87 ^{a,b}	28.7 \pm 3.77 ^b	02.0 \pm 4.49 ^b	207 \pm 9.29 ^b
Sil.40	20.3 \pm 1.99 ^{a,b}	33.7 \pm 2.80 ^b	04.7 \pm 3.69 ^b	232 \pm 27.1 ^b

Values represent the mean \pm SEM of observations from 7 animals.

Control, control non diseased group; MS, metabolic syndrome non-treated group; Sil.0, sildenafil (0 mg/kg)-treated group; Sil.10, sildenafil (10 mg/kg)-treated group; Sil.40, sildenafil (40 mg/kg)-treated group. ^aSignificantly different from control group at $p < 0.05$, ^bsignificantly different from MS group at $p < 0.05$.

Table (5): Effect of sildenafil on hepatic tissue content of NO, MDA, and immunohistochemical expression of iNOS, eNOS and caspase-3

Group	MDA (nmol /g tissue)	NO (nmol/g tissue)	iNOS expression	eNOS expression
Control	20.4 \pm 2.09	123 \pm 6.36	1.20 \pm 0.16	3.20 \pm 0.37
MS	48.2 \pm 3.00 ^a	87.2 \pm 0.00 ^a	3.88 \pm 0.13 ^a	1.20 \pm 0.20 ^a
Sil.0	32.0 \pm 2.90 ^b	123 \pm 7.34 ^b	3.00 \pm 0.19 ^a	1.60 \pm 0.24 ^a
Sil.10	31.6 \pm 2.99 ^b	128 \pm 4.24 ^b	2.20 \pm 0.20 ^{a,b}	2.70 \pm 0.28 ^b
Sil.40	28.7 \pm 4.87 ^b	124 \pm 10.9 ^b	2.00 \pm 0.27 ^{b,c}	2.60 \pm 0.40 ^b

Values represent the mean \pm SEM of observations from 7 animals.

Control, control non diseased group; MS, metabolic syndrome non-treated group; Sil.0, sildenafil (0 mg/kg)-treated group; Sil.10, sildenafil (10 mg/kg)-treated group; Sil.40, sildenafil (40 mg/kg)-treated group. ^aSignificantly different from control group at $p < 0.05$, ^bsignificantly different from MS group at $p < 0.05$, ^c significantly different from sil.0 group at $p < 0.05$.

Figure captions

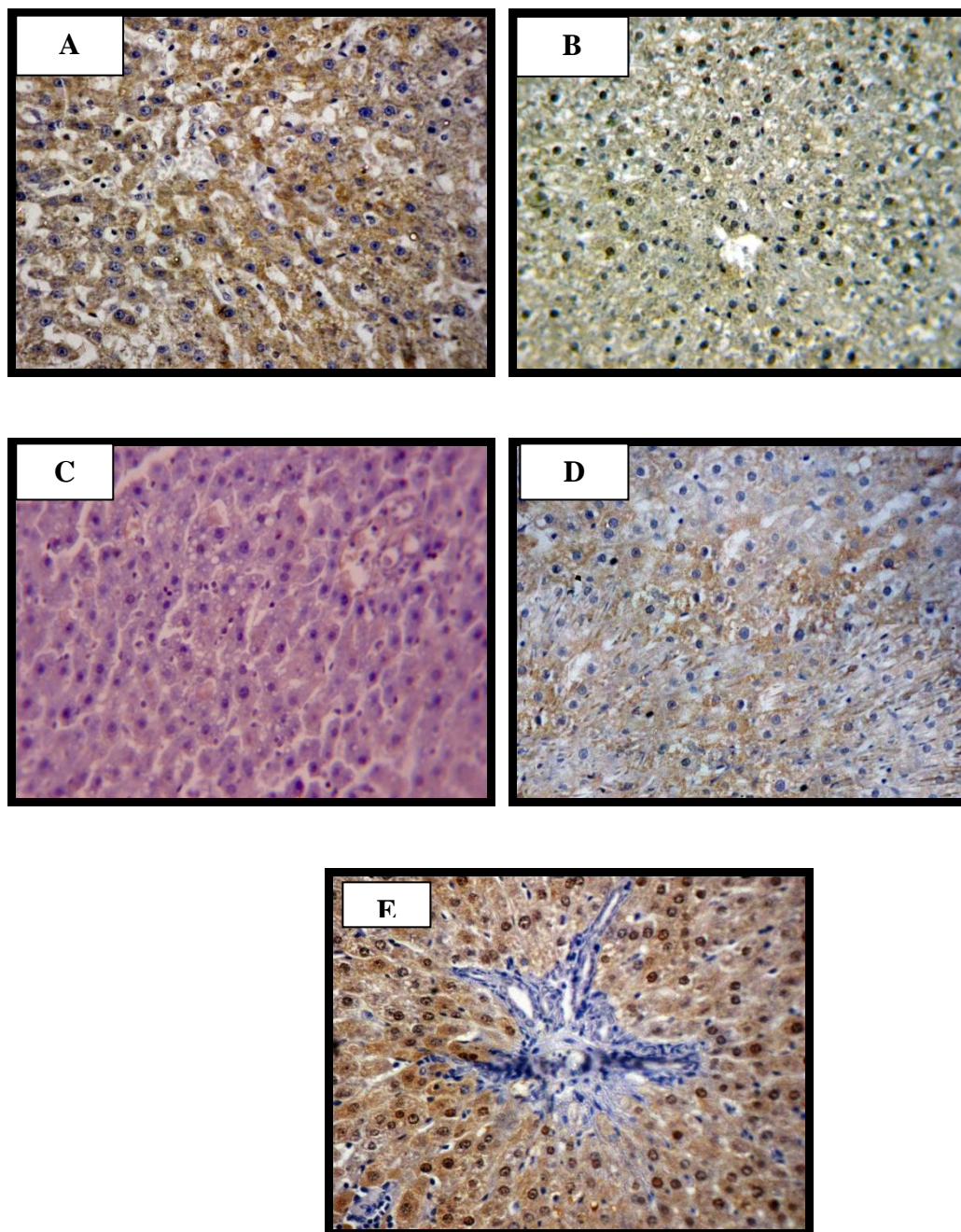


Figure (1): Effect of sildenafil on hepatic eNOS immunohistochemical staining in fructose fed rats

A, control group (the staining was strong); B, Metabolic syndrome non treated group (the staining was weak); C, sildenafil (0 mg/kg/day)-treated group the staining was weak); D, sildenafil (10 mg/kg/day)-treated group (the staining was strong); E, sildenafil (40 mg/kg/day)-treated group (the staining was strong).

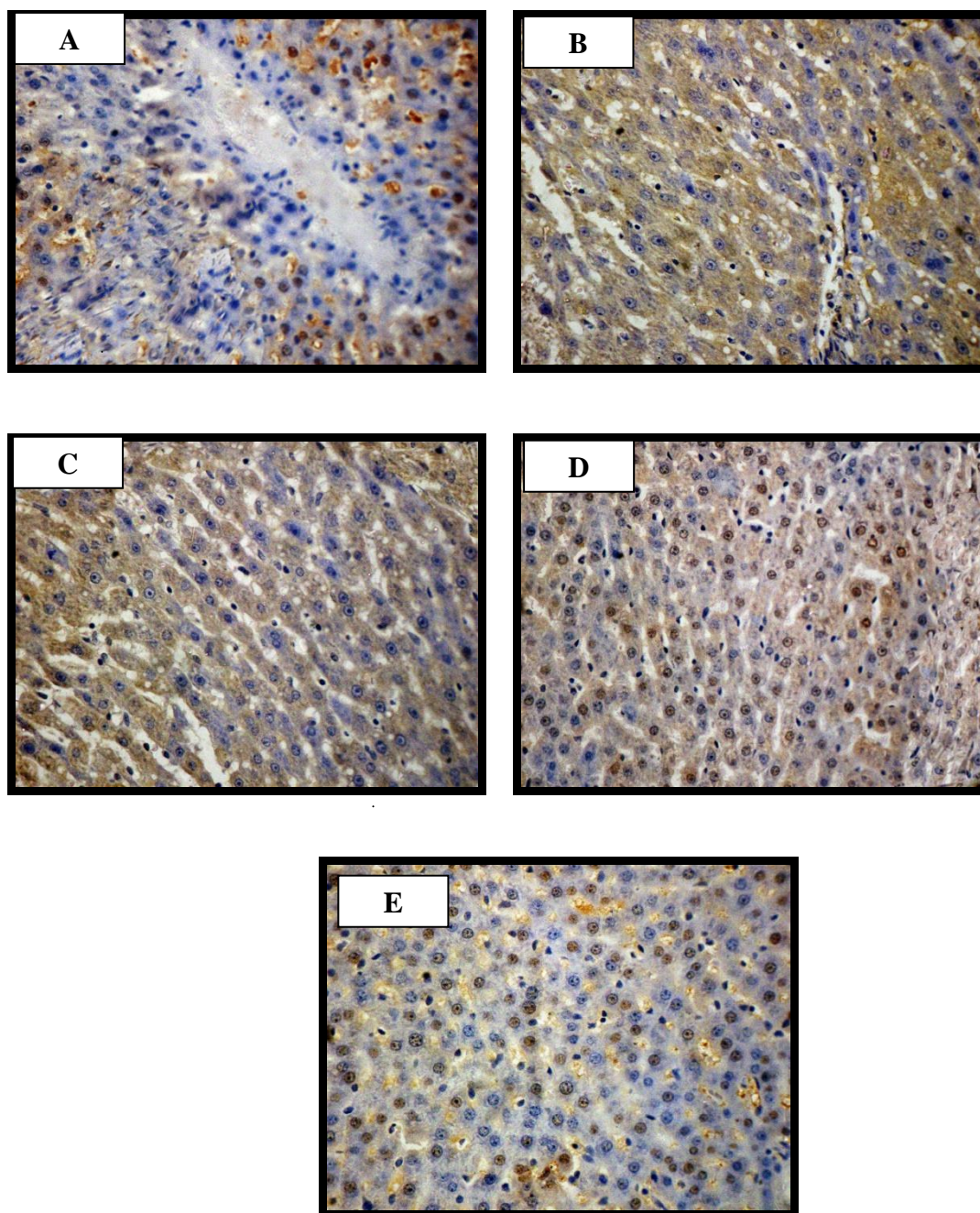


Figure (2): Effect of sildenafil on hepatic iNOS immunohistochemical staining in fructose fed rats

A, control non diseased group (the stain was weak); B, Metabolic syndrome non-treated group (the stain was strong); C, sildenafil (20 mg/kg/day)-treated group; D, sildenafil (10 mg/kg/day)-treated group (the stain was weak); E, sildenafil (5 mg/kg/day)-treated group (the stain was weak).

Discussion

In the present study, fructose feeding caused development of MS as indicated by significant increase in fasting blood glucose, fasting serum insulin and HOMA-IR value which indicate development of insulin resistance (Borai et al., 2011).

Chronic exposure to fructose seems to indirectly cause hyperinsulinemia and obesity. Insulin receptor mRNA, and subsequent insulin receptor numbers in skeletal muscle and liver were reported to be significantly

lower in fructose fed rats compared to rats fed a standard chow diet (Catena et al., 2003).

Furthermore, disturbance in glucose transporters (GLUT) which is also a fructose transporter causing marked insulin resistance, implying a possible role of GLUT receptors in the pathology of MS associated with fructose feeding and insulin resistance (Litherland et al., 2004).

Fructose-induced MS can be explained by the hexosamine hypothesis, where hexosamine flux is thought to regulate glucose and satiety-sensing pathways. With over-expression of glutamine: fructose-6-phosphate amidotransferase, the key regulatory enzyme in hexosamine synthesis, the liver produces excess fatty acids, skeletal muscle becomes insulin resistant, and hyperinsulinemia results. This pathway of excess hexosamine flux leads to long-term storage of energy, and eventually obesity and insulin resistance. (McClain, 2002).

The results of the current study showed that sildenafil reduced fasting insulin and fasting glucose levels and improved HOMA-IR which is a sensitive indicator of insulin resistance. This result is in agreement with Oudot et al., (2010) who reported that sildenafil administration corrected hyperglycemia and hyper-insulinemia. In the same time, these results are in accordance with Rey Valzacchi et al. (2011) who reported that sildenafil co-administration significantly reduced HOMA-IR and fasting glucose level as compared to metformin alone.

In the MS group, there was a significant increase in serum TG, cholesterol and significant decrease in serum HDL as compared to control group. The exposure of the liver to large quantities of fructose leads to rapid stimulation of lipogenesis and TG accumulation, which in turn contributes to reduced insulin sensitivity and hepatic insulin resistance/ glucose intolerance. Because of its lipogenic properties, excess fructose in the diet can cause glucose and fructose malabsorption, and greater elevations in TG and cholesterol compared to other carbohydrates. It is believed that the ability of the liver to metabolize high doses of fructose is responsible for the

disruption in energy stores (Daly et al., 1997). Fructose-induced insulin resistance is consistent with the increased TG, very low density lipo-protein (VLDL) secretion, and atherosclerosis associated with chronic fructose feeding. Sildenafil in high dose (40 mg/kg) significantly lowered triglycerides. This effect is mostly through antagonizing insulin resistance which is strongly linked to elevation of triglycerides induced by fructose administration (Czyzewska et al., 2010).

In the presence of hyper-triglyceridemia, accelerated cholesterol ester transfer protein (CETP)-mediated lipid transfer generates TG-enriched HDL particles. This enhances HDL catabolism mediated by hepatic lipase and endothelial lipase which explained the reduction of HDL in FFR group. Similarly, reduction in triglycerides may explain the elevation of HDL noticed with sildenafil 40 mg/kg (Czyzewska et al., 2010).

In the current work, fructose increased serum cholesterol which is in agreement with previous results of Mahmoud et al., (2012). Sildenafil (40 mg/kg) reduced serum cholesterol which can be attributed to improvement of insulin responsiveness affecting SREBP expression, which is responsible for regulating fatty acid and cholesterol biosynthesis by activating many enzymes involved in cholesterol biosynthetic pathways, such as HMG-CoA reductase (Brown and Goldstein, 1997) and FAS (Bennet et al., 1990). Expression of SREBP is enhanced by insulin in all three major insulin target tissues, liver, fat, and skeletal muscle (Kim et al., 1998). Similarly, levels of SREBP are enhanced in the presence of hyperinsulinemia (Shimomura et al., 1999). Fructose caused a gradual extended increase in SREBP activity (Matsuzaka et al., 2004).

In fructose fed rats, fructose markedly elevated liver and visceral fat indices. This can be explained by that lipid accumulation in liver and visceral adipose tissue is linked to insulin resistance and is linked also to hyper-triglyceridemia. Each of these risk factors can occur as a result of excessive fructose consumption. Visceral adiposity is known to be increased by fructose ingestion. It is associated with insulin resistance as a result of

the direct delivery of portal blood flow from visceral fat to the liver releasing free fatty acids (FFAs). The greater lipolytic capacity of visceral than peripheral adipocytes releases more FFAs to the portal circulation. Furthermore, when visceral adipocytes enlarge, they become more insulin resistant than smaller adipocytes. Increased amounts of FFAs directly affect insulin signaling, diminish glucose uptake in muscle, and induce gluconeogenesis in the liver (El Mesallamy et al., 2010).

Increased FFA release from adipose tissue or failure of FFA using tissues to remove them normally, lead to increased TG and FFA fluxes. Increased delivery of FFA to muscle reduces muscle glucose uptake and utilization by substrate competition or direct inhibition of glucose transport. Intracellular TG have been involved in beta cell failure which is called lipotoxicity phenomena. The rate of FFA to the liver is a major determinant of hepatic TG secretion. So the regulation of FFA distribution between FFA using tissues and the partition of FFA between storage and oxidation could be involved in the development of insulin resistance (Ziegler et al., 2001).

Sildenafil (10 and 40 mg/kg) lowered liver and visceral fat indices. This result is supported by Nseir et al., (2010) who linked hyper-triglyceridemia, insulin resistance and inflammatory status with liver and abdominal fat accumulation and the former parameters were improved by sildenafil. High-fructose diets have induced fatty liver in rats and together with increases in hepatic lipid peroxidation and activation of inflammatory pathways in the liver of rats. The long-term administration of fructose to rats results in hepatic macro- and micro vesicular steatosis with a increase in hepatic triglycerides and an increase in hepatic cholesterol concentration.

In MS rats, there was a rise in ALT that reflects the liver damage. This finding is in agreement with previous work which reported elevation of ALT with fatty liver that recently considered a component of MS (Hamad et al., 2011).

TNF- α which is a marker of inflammation was increased in MS rat. This may play a role in liver injury and is correlated with the activation of hepatocyte apoptosis (Wang et al., 2003). Liver steatosis is a potential contributor to the low-grade inflammation associated with the MS (Gong et al., 2012). Sildenafil, dose dependently, reduced ALT, and TNF- α serum levels. Cadrici et al. (2011) reported that sildenafil reduced serum TNF- α . Reduction in serum TNF- α has been linked to hepatic protection in several studies (Gong et al., 2012; Kerner et al., 2000; Wang et al., 2003).

Excessive fructose intake was associated with an increase in oxidative stress. The increased production of MDA, the reduction of catalase activity and reduced glutathione in serum detected in the current work were supported by the findings of Ozdogan and co-workers (2012). In the present results, fructose increased liver MDA and reduced liver nitrites denoting increased oxidative stress in this organ. This in agreement with Kostogryz and co-workers (2010) and Pooranaperundevi and co-workers (2010) who reported that MDA concentrations were significantly increased while nitrites were reduced in liver of fructose fed rat. Sildenafil increased serum GSH and reduced serum MDA. The antioxidant effects of sildenafil has been previously reported (Cadrici et., 2011; El-Far et al., 2009; Lee et al., 2010; Luo et al. 2011).

In the present study, sildenafil increased hepatic tissue content of NO. NO is a key molecule with diverse functions including liver injury (Koeppel et al., 2007). Increased eNOS expression in hepatic tissue may explain the ability of sildenafil to increase NO content. At the same time reduction of iNOS is linked to antioxidant effects (Sahnon et al., 1998).

In conclusion, sildenafil was shown to be protective against MS as evidenced by improving lipid profile, insulin resistance, visceral fat index and liver index. Such protection was associated with reduction of oxidative stress and TNF- α as well as modulation of eNOS and iNOS expression in hepatic tissue. These findings implying that, the most proposed mechanism of this

protective effect is through anti-oxidant, anti-inflammatory actions, and modulation of NO.

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