We are IntechOpen, the world’s leading publisher of Open Access books
Built by scientists, for scientists

3,900
Open access books available

116,000
International authors and editors

120M
Downloads

154
Countries delivered to

TOP 1%
Our authors are among the most cited scientists

12.2%
Contributors from top 500 universities

WEB OF SCIENCE™
Selection of our books indexed in the Book Citation Index in Web of Science™ Core Collection (BKCI)

Interested in publishing with us?
Contact book.department@intechopen.com

Numbers displayed above are based on latest data collected.
For more information visit www.intechopen.com
1. Introduction

A debilitating consequence of diabetes mellitus (DM) is neuropathy which globally affects between 20 -30% of diabetic patients and up to 50% [1, 2]. The lifetime incidence of diabetic neuropathy (DN) is estimated to be up to 45% for type 2 diabetic patients and 59% for type 1 diabetic patients in USA. The risk of DN rises with age, duration of DM, and vascular disease. Characterized by damages in the arms and legs, peripheral neuropathy is the most common complication of DM.

The pathophysiology of DN is promoted by several risk factors: microvascular disease, neural hypoxia, and hyperglycemia-induced effects. At the molecular level, the primary cause of diabetic complications is known to be hyperglycemia, which disrupts cellular metabolism by the formation of reactive oxygen species (ROS). In the aspect of nerve functions, ROS formation increases neuron’s susceptibility to damage. In addition, hyperglycemia impedes production of angiogenic and neurotrophic growth factors, which are necessary for normal function of neurons and glial cells and maintenance of vascular structure.

The most common presentation of nerve damage due to the effects of hyperglycemia is neuropathic pain. Peripheral neuropathy may cause foot deformities such as hammertoes and unnoticed sores and infections in the numb areas of the foot. Improperly treated infection frequently extends to the bone and requires an amputation of the foot. There have not been any definitive disease-modifying treatments to reverse DN. The current treatment focuses on tight glycemic control which can reduce potential risk factors for further nerve damage and DN-associated pain management. In many studies, deficiency of neurotrophic factors and lack of vascular support have been regarded as key factors in the development DN. Therefore, cell therapy has recently emerged as an attractive therapeutic strategy to meet the needs of both neurotrophic and vascular deficiencies of DN.

2. Symptoms, signs and diagnostic tests

DN most often starts with hypesthesia (diminished sensation) of the lower extremities, which extends to a stocking-glove distribution. The most feared complications are foot pain, ulcerations and amputation, which increase morbidity and mortality thereby reduce the patient's quality of life [3]. Proper diagnosis of the etiology of DN depends on the pattern of sensory loss, reflex test, electrodiagnostic studies, and imaging. In electrodiagnostic studies, nerve conduction velocity and magnitude are measured by electrically stimulating nerves.
Peripheral nerve imaging such as ultrasound and magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) are used for evaluating the extent of peripheral nerve pathology. They give insight to which type of nerve fiber is affected.

3. Pathophysiology

DN, nerve damage caused mainly by glycemic dysregulation, is the most common complication of DM. Prolonged hyperglycemic episodes result in a complex series of metabolic and vascular damages which contribute to the multi-factorial etiology of DN [4, 5]. The major pathogenetic factors are hyperglycemia-induced metabolic derangements which cause excess oxidative stress and loss of neurovascular support.

In general, immediate pathologic effects of hyperglycemic episodes are metabolic in nature. However, electrophysiologic and morphologic alterations seem to be late occurrences. There are various pathologic changes that occur in DN. Pathologic changes in peripheral nerve are endoneurial microangiopathy, nerve demyelination, loss of nerve fibers, axonal degeneration, axonal dystrophy and Schwann cell abnormalities[6, 7-9].

3.1 Oxidative stress to cellular damage

Hyperglycemia-induced oxidative stress has been proposed as a single unifying mechanism of neurodegeneration in DM by Brownlee et al. [10]. Hyperglycemia cause metabolic abnormalities which result in mitochondrial superoxide overproduction in peripheral nerves [11] and supporting vasculatures [10, 12].

Hyperglycemic environment induces activation of 5 pathways involved in the pathogenesis of diabetic microvascular complications [13]. These include: the polyol pathway[14]; nonenzymatic glycation of proteins which increases advanced glycation end-products (AGEs) [15, 16]; hexosamine pathway flux [17]; protein kinase C (PKC) pathway [18] which triggers stress responses; and the poly ADP-ribose polymerase (PARP) pathway [19, 20]. Increased activity of the 5 pathways deplete antioxidants which are necessary for antioxidant defense system against free radicals. The hyperglycemia-mediated superoxide overproduction perturbs the five pathways, and thereby causes metabolic and vascular imbalance and initiates the progression of neurovascular dysfunction [21-23].

In polyol pathway of glucose metabolism, aldose reductase catalyzes the NADPH-dependent conversion of glucose to sorbitol [14]. Aldose reductase also competes with glutathione reductase in NADPH-dependent production of Glutathione (GSH), a major antioxidant in cells. A high level of glucose overactivates the polyol pathway thereby depleting NADPH necessary for GSH antioxidant production. Consequently, insufficient GSH level contributes to accumulation of ROS.

In hexosamine pathway of glucose metabolism, its overactivation diminishes antioxidant production. This also increases posttranslational modification of specific amino acid residues on cytoplasmic and nuclear proteins, and thereby changes their functions [17].

In DM, high levels of AGEs is found in extracellular matrix. Thus, plasma proteins enhanced with advanced glycation bind to Receptor for AGEs (RAGE) on cells such as macrophages and vascular endothelial cells. This activates pleiotropic transcription factors such as nuclear factor kappa-light-chain-enhancer of activated B cells (NF-κB) which results in multiple pathological changes in gene expression. The interaction between RAGE and AGEs is shown to cause pro-inflammatory gene activation [24]. Myelin is considered a major target for such
non-enzymatic modification by glucose. Reactive and degenerative Schwann cell changes lead to demyelination which is the dominant lesion of peripheral neuropathy. The decrease in the density of myelins affects both large and small nerve fibers. Hyperglycemic condition causes consistent demyelination and axonal degeneration and presents aberrations in nerve regeneration.

Activation of PKC pathway leads to inhibition of Na+/K+ ATPase which in turn leads to decreased endothelial nitric oxide synthase (eNOS). Consequently, eNOS reduction results in blood-flow abnormalities and vascular occlusion caused by increased transforming growth factor beta (TGF-B) and plasminogen activator inhibitor-1 (PAI-1). PKC pathway activation also increase NF-kB expression which results in proinflammatory response and dysfunction in sending electrical signals in neurons. As a result, the nerve conduction level diminishes, and thereby obstructs nerve regeneration.

In healthy cells, ROS production is tightly controlled. The antioxidant defense system of a cell responds to the environmental changes [25]. However, in diabetic environment, cells end up with accumulated ROS which alter proteins and their functions. Superoxide accumulation can have direct, toxic damages to Schwann cells. This leads to decreased neuron insulation causing ineffective signaling, weakened immunologic perineurial blood-nerve-barrier, and reduced nerve regeneration. Studies showed that oxidative stress impairs vasodilation of epineural blood vessels, resulting in ischemia to the neural tissue [26-28].

3.2 Loss of neurotrophic and vascular support

Oxidative stress majorly contributes to the development of DM complications, both microvascular and macrovascular [13]. The confluence of metabolic and vascular disturbances in nerve causes impairment of neural function. There are clear evidences that insufficient vascular support and neurotrophic factors play a major pathophysiologic role in DN. Studies show decreases in nerve and angiogenic growth factors in nerves from animals with experimental DN [29, 30]. The emphasis placed on the fact that animals with DN show a deficiency in growth factors with both angiogenic and neurotrophic function. This seems to play significant role in pathogenesis of DN.

3.2.1 Growth factor deficiency

There are specific growth factors that guide blood vessels and nerves to their tissue targets, and their deficiency plays a significant role in the pathogenesis of DN. Many representative growth factors display pleiotropic effects which are both neurotrophic and angiogenic [31]. To underline their duality, the growth factors that have both angiogenic and neurotrophic effects are referred to as, “angioneurin” [32]. For example, vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF) was originally discovered as growth factors specific for endothelial cells [33]. While VEGF was originally known to play a key role in promoting angiogenesis, studies showed that it directly affects the neural growth, neural survival and protection (neurotrophic), and axonal outgrowth (neurotropic) [31]. Thus, VEGF which was once regarded as a specific angiogenic factor is now implicated in neuroprotection.

Similarly, nerve growth factor (NGF), known to promote neurotrophic and neurotropic effects in neuronal cells [34-36], also have angiogenic effect on endothelial cells. Since nerve growth factors (NGF) promote maintenance, survival and regeneration of nerves, a decrease in NGF synthesis causes functional deficit of nerve fibers [37].

www.intechopen.com
VEGF and NGF are not the only examples of angioneurin. Another representative angioneurin involved in pathogenesis of DN is insulin-like growth factor (IGF) [38-40]. IGFs are known to promote growth and differentiation of neurons. In addition, IGFs is also found to exert favorable effects on angiogenesis [41]. Insulin deficiency in diabetic state causes reduction in IGFs level in circulation. This abnormal metabolism of angioneurins adds to pathogenesis of DN. Several studies have shown that diabetic animals showing decreased level of angioneurins highly correlates with reduced neural and vascular function [42, 43].

3.2.2 Vascular deficiency
Initially, the focus has been on the hyperglycemia-induced metabolic changes and their direct neuronal effects. However, studies in animal models showed that they also have vascular targets linked to neuropathy [44].

The vascular alterations observed in human and animal models of DN include: thickening of basement membrane of vasa nervorum [6, 36, 45-48] strongly related to severity of DN [45, 49, 50], decrease in nerve conduction velocity (NCV) in rats with impaired vasodilation in epineurial arterioles [26-28], changes in luminal areas of endoneurial capillaries, and changes in endoneurial capillary density. Studies on measures of luminal areas of endoneurial capillaries showed different findings. Rodent and feline models of DN showed increase in luminal areas of endoneurial capillaries [51-54]. Conversely, studies on human showed various results. They showed that luminal areas increased [45, 46, 55], unaltered [36, 48, 56], or decreased [6, 47, 49, 57, 58]. Similar to measures of luminal areas, the measured density of endoneurial capillaries also showed mixed results. Studies on animal models showed that the density was increased [53, 59], unaltered [60], or decreased [42, 43, 61]. As well as in human, the results were mixed. A study showed that the density of endoneurial capillaries was increased in patients of early stage DM than healthy subjects [56], while the density of those with established neuropathy and late stage DM was similar to that of normal people [36, 45, 49].

The complex series of oxidative stress-related metabolic changes result in reduced nerve perfusion and ischemia [23, 62]. Impaired blood supply to nerve and ganglion and endoneurial hypoxia play a significant role in causing DN. Specifically, impairment of blood supply to neural tissues through vasa nervorum, blood vessels of peripheral nerves prompt pathogenic mechanisms of DN [62].

Thrainsdottir et al. [56] reported vascular structural alterations caused by early diabetic condition. Blood vessel number in diabetic nerves increased in response to ischemia in early DM. However, the blood vessel number decreased due to impaired neovascularization under prolonged diabetic condition [6].

One of the major pathogenic factors in the development of DN is reduced nerve blood flow (NBF). Various clinical and experimental studies give evidence that amelioration of NBF improved nerve functions. Studies on diabetic patients reported decrease in endoneurial blood flow and presence of hypoxia compared to healthy subjects. Direct measures of nerve perfusion revealed that DN strongly correlated with decreased sural nerve blood flow [63, 64]. A study by Tesfaye et al. [63] also showed that patients suffering from DN had impoverished endoneurial microenvironment.

Overall, the results of various studies indicate that vascular deficiency is highly represented in established DN. As observed, there was an increased number of capillaries in response to ischemia in early stage DM. Eventually, the number of capillaries decreased. It is plausible that chronic diabetic condition disturbed neovascularization and regeneration [51, 65, 66].
Therefore, debilitating microvascular dysfunction and pathogenic mechanisms altering the surrounding vascularity damage the peripheral nerve.

### 3.3 Multifactorial etiology of DN

DN is caused by damages in vessels, neurons, and Schwann cells. Hyperglycemia induces metabolic abnormalities cause overproduction of reactive oxygen species (ROS), activation of inappropriate inflammation pathways, and decreased level of antioxidants such as glutathione. These abnormalities render endothelial and neural cells more susceptible to angioneurin deficiency which finally causes deterioration of neurovascular support in nerves. Ischemia (a restriction in blood supply) and damaged perfusion further stimulates hyperactivity of pathogenic cycles in endothelial cells, neurons, and Schwann cells – resulting in nerve degeneration.

![Pathogenesis of Diabetic Neuropathy](image)

Fig. 1. The proposed pathways that lead to the pathogenesis of DN and interactions at the level of each proposed mechanism. Polyol = Polyol pathway; ECs = endothelial cells.

### 4. Treatment options and cell therapy

Current treatment strategies focus on preventing neuropathy, slowing its progression, and reducing symptoms and pain. Symptomatic treatment options which are partially effective include lifestyle interventions, physical therapies, drug-therapies and complementary therapies. Several potential therapies exist for the treatment of DN based on neurovascular pathogenesis. They include: gene, protein, and cell therapies. Emerging evidence is that angiogenic factors such as VEGF-A, VEGF-C, SHh, and statin can restore microcirculation of the affected nerves and induced functional improvement in DN [61, 62, 67]. On the other hand, lack of neurotrophic factors has emerged as an important pathogenic mechanism of DN [29, 30]. Administration of neurotrophic factors such as NGF
IGF1 and IGF2 [38, 39], ciliary neurotrophic factor (CNTF) [69], or glial cell line-derived neurotrophic factor (GDNF) [70] was shown to ameliorate DN in animal models. These findings suggest that a therapy targeting both angiogenic and neurotrophic processes may be more advantageous for the treatment of DN. As stem or progenitor cells have such pleiotropic effects, cell therapy can be more effective than single gene or protein therapy. Cell therapy can provide multiple angiogenic and neurotrophic factors as well as specific type of cells required for vascular or neuronal regeneration (Fig 1). Currently, various bone marrow (BM) cells were shown to have favorable effects for treating DN.

4.1 Therapeutic potential of bone marrow mononuclear cells

Bone marrow (BM) is a source mononuclear cells (MNCs). Bone marrow-derived mononuclear cells (BM-MNCs) are heterogeneous group of cells which include at least: endothelial progenitor cells (EPCs) and the mesenchymal stem cells (MSCs). MSCs are speculated to differentiate into the cellular components of vascular structures [71]. An advantage of using circulating or BM-derived cells is that they can be harvested from a patient’s own peripheral blood or bone marrow, and re-introduced back to the patient [72, 73]. Studies have shown the beneficial effects of using BM-MNCs. They improved neovascularisation by increasing levels of angiogenic factors such as VEGF, FGF-2, and angiopeptin-1 [102, 103]. In patients with ischemia, BM-MNCs transplantation has also been reported to be beneficial [104]. Because bone marrow derived MSC transplantation has been shown to be an option in treating ischemic diseases [74], there was an in interest of using similar strategy in treating DN.

![Dual Effects of BM-MNCs in DN](image)

Fig. 2. BM-MNCs induce paracrine effects by releasing angiogenic and neurotrophic growth factors (GFs) thereby increasing neurovascular support in the nerves.

An advantage of using BM-MNCs as source of cell therapy is that they are rather easy to acquire. They can be isolated from bone marrow by centrifugation and do not require ex
vivo culture system. Other advantages of using the BM-derived cells that MSCs and EPCs have proved their therapeutic effects in various clinical and experimental studies of DN. For example, a study by Hasegawa showed that peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PB-MNCs) or BM-MNCs implantation in rats with DN partially recovered blood flow and improved the NCV of the sciatic nerve [60]. A study by Kim et al. [43] reported that intramuscular transplantation of BM-MNCs preferentially homed in vasa nervorum and increased expression of various angiogenic and neurotrophic factors in the nerves [43]. The study also showed improvement of nerve vascularity and normalization of NCV suggesting that BM-MNC-induced neovascularization is a consequence of angiogenesis (Fig 2). Overall, the emphasis must be placed on the idea that BM-MNCs induce neovascularization and improve manifestations of DN by their ability to promote angiogenesis. Also the safety of autologous BM-derived cells was reported by clinical trials [75].

4.2 Endothelial progenitor cells and vasculogenesis

There are two processes involved in blood vessel formation: vasculogenesis and angiogenesis. Vasculogenesis is the process of formation of blood vessels from de novo productions of endothelial cells which may have differentiated from angioblasts or endothelial progenitor cells [76]. Conversely, angiogenesis is the pre-existing vessel growth by vessel formation blood vessels through proliferation and migration of endothelial cells [77]. Thus, endothelial cells are of great interest because of their ability to form blood vessels thereby potential to regenerate vascular dysfunction in DN.

Endothelial progenitor cells (EPCs) are a heterogeneous subset of BM-MNCs. EPCs are capable for differentiation within endothelial cell lineage and are identified according to expression of hematopoietic stem cell and endothelial cell surface markers. EPCs were initially identified by their expression of surface markers VEGF receptor-2 and CD34 [78-80]. However, later studies also used CD133 expression to identify EPCs [4, 81]. The precise definition and characterization of EPCs are still controversial due to the fact that they don’t have a unique marker that solely identifies the EPCs. Various types of EPCs have been known as different culture methods give rise to EPCs with distinct characteristics [82]. Derived from mononuclear cells or monocytes, “Early EPCs”, have a short proliferation period which is up to a few weeks [83-85]. Conversely, “Late EPCs” have rapid and longer proliferation period and shaped like cobblestones [83, 86]. The early and late EPCs also express different set of cell surface markers. In addition, therapeutic potential of early EPCs has been reported but that of late EPCs is still questioned [83, 86].

The question of whether the differentiation of EPCs plays a vital role in the recovery of damaged tissue function is still controversial. Some studies showed that differentiation of EPCs into endothelial lineage cells and they were incorporated into blood vessel formation [87, 88]. However, more recent studies have argued against the fact that EPCs did not differentiate into ECs [89, 90]. Although the major therapeutic effects are not through endothelial differentiation but angiogenesis, overall evidence clearly suggests that BM-derived EPCs partake blood vessel formation through vasculogenesis. Despite such discrepancies, studies on EPC transplantation in DN animal models appear to reach the consensus that EPCs’ therapeutic effects and promotion of neovascularization are primarily caused by paracrine or humoral action, not endothelial differentiation [84, 91]. One study showed that cord-blood derived EPCs was effective for treating DN [92]. This
study claimed that mechanistically, the therapeutic effects are due to the increased differentiation of EPCs into endothelial cells in hind limb muscles, which then led to an increase in sciatic nerve blood flow. However, this study did not demonstrate the fate of the EPCs in tissues, nor did it address the mechanisms by which transplanted EPCs increase neovascularization in muscles or nerve. Given that most recent studies have argued against the endothelial differentiation of EPCs as a major mechanism for neovascularization, endothelial differentiation does not appear to underlie such magnitude of therapeutic effects toward DN [84, 91].

A study by Jeong et al. [42] reported direct augmentation of neural neovascularization in sciatic nerves of mice with DN after local intramuscular injection of BM-derived EPCs. The injected EPCs preferentially homed to peripheral nerves but much less to the muscles. This showed that muscular neovascularization is not the mechanism at work. Also, the study showed EPCs have durable engraftment into diabetic nerve. The engraftment lasted up to 12 weeks, which is a unique behavior of EPCs in peripheral nerves because EPCs normally disappear within a couple of weeks in other tissue types. Another novel finding was that engrafted EPCs were localized close to the vasa nervorum which is the blood supply to the peripheral nerves. These findings clearly indicated that BM-derived EPCs exerted therapeutic effects by directly targeting the nerves. At the molecular level, the study showed significantly increased levels of angiogenic and neurotrophic factors in the EPC-injected nerves. They include: VEGF-A [62, 93], FGF-2 [94], BDNF [95], SHh [61, 96], and stromal cell derived factor (SDF)-1α [97, 98]. These factors are known to have effects on both angiogenesis and neuro-protection [62, 99, 100], suggesting dual angioneurotrophic effects of EPCs. More direct evidence of such dual effects of EPCs were demonstrated by proliferation of endothelial cells and schwann cells and decreased apoptosis of Schwann cells at the histology level. This study showed previously unexpected and distinct properties of BM-derived EPCs such as peripheral neurotropism, sustained engraftment, vascular localization of EPCs, dual angioneurotrophic effects and reversal of various functional and pathologic features of DN [42, 43, 60, 92].

4.3 Mesenchymal stem cells
Mesenchymal stem cells (MSCs) are multipotent cells which are found in nearly all postnatal organs and tissues [101]. The adherent nature of MSCs makes them easy to expand in culture and an attractive candidate to use in cell therapy. Also, MSCs are particularly attractive therapeutic agents because of their ability to self-renew, differentiate into multilineage cell types [102, 103], and locally secrete angiogenic cytokines, including basic fibroblast growth factor (bFGF) and VEGF [74, 104-106]. These factors were reported to prompt neovascularization [107] and have support for neural regeneration [99, 108].

MSC transplantation was reported to be a therapeutic agent in the treatment of cardiovascular disease. Similarly, it was plausible that MSCs may also be an effective therapeutic agent for the DN treatment [74, 109] through the paracrine effects of bFGF and VEGF [110] and their potential to differentiate into neural cells such as astrocytes [111], oligodendrocytes [112], and Schwann cells [113, 114].

A study by Shibata et al. [109] suggested that the MSC transplantation on thigh muscles of STZ-induced rats with DN achieved therapeutic effects. Diabetic rats showed hypoalgesia, decreased nerve conduction velocity (NCV), decreased sciatic nerve blood flow (SNBF), decreased capillary number–to–muscle fiber ratio in muscles. These variables were
improved by intramuscular MSC injection. MSC injection in diabetic rats seems to produce bFGF and VEGF which eventually showed increased muscular and neural blood flow leading to functional improvement [109]. Although MSCs seem to have some ameliorating, paracrine effects on diabetic nerve fibers [109] they did not seem to differentiate into neural cells.

Despite the beneficial effects of MSC transplant in experimental DN shown previously, there appears to be major limitation in using MSCs for DN therapy. Study by Jeong et al. [115] showed that BM-derived MSCs may undergo chromosomal abnormalities and formed malignant tumors after injection into mice with DN. This study alerts careful monitoring of chromosomal status for transplantation of MSCs from in vitro expansion.

5. Conclusion

Intensive symptomatic treatment and tight glycemic control benefits and ameliorates nerve dysfunction and pain in some patients with DN. However, favorable outcomes of cell therapy using BM-MNCs, EPCs and MSCs emphasize the importance of targeting multiple pathophysiologies for effective therapy and the need for future clinical trial. Particularly, EPCs’ synergistic action of neurotrophic, angiogenic and vasculogenic properties show great potential as a therapeutic agent.

Cell therapy may not be a standard treatment option for all stages of DN because different stages of DN are marked by different structural or functional changes. At present, cell therapy may be applied to those patients who suffer from intractable symptoms, acute exacerbation, or combined diseases such as diabetic foot ulcers or critical limb ischemia. However, there are a few remaining concerns in cell therapy strategy. The effectiveness of the patient’s own cells needs to be evaluated considering the possibility that BM cells derived from diabetic subjects may be impaired in therapeutic potential. Experiments using the autologous cells derived from diabetic subjects are necessary to address these concerns. Also, the long-term effects of cell therapy need to be tested.

6. Acknowledgment

This work was supported in part by NIH grants RO1HL084471, RC1GM092035, AMDCC pilot and feasibility grant, and HHSN268201000043C (Program of Excellence in Nanotechnology Award); NSF EBICS grant; and Stem Cell Research Center of the 21st Century Frontier Research Program grant SC4300, funded by the Ministry of Science and Technology, Republic of Korea. The authors declare no competing financial interests.

7. References

[1] Rathur, H.M. and A.J. Boulton, Recent advances in the diagnosis and management of diabetic neuropathy. The Journal of bone and joint surgery. British volume, 2005. 87(12): p. 1605-10.
[2] Wild, S., et al., Global prevalence of diabetes: estimates for the year 2000 and projections for 2030. Diabetes care, 2004. 27(5): p. 1047-53.
[3] Dalla Paola, L. and E. Faglia, Treatment of diabetic foot ulcer: an overview strategies for clinical approach. Current diabetes reviews, 2006. 2(4): p. 431-47.
Peripheral Neuropathy – Advances in Diagnostic and Therapeutic Approaches

[4] Feldman, E.L., et al., *New insights into the pathogenesis of diabetic neuropathy*. Curr Opin Neurol, 1999. 12(5): p. 553-63.

[5] Verrotti, A., et al., *New trends in the etiopathogenesis of diabetic peripheral neuropathy*. J Child Neurol, 2001. 16(6): p. 389-94.

[6] Malik, R.A., et al., *Sural nerve pathology in diabetic patients with minimal but progressive neuropathy*. Diabetologia, 2005. 48(3): p. 578-85.

[7] Yagihashi, S., S. Yamagishi, and R. Wada, *Pathology and pathogenetic mechanisms of diabetic neuropathy: correlation with clinical signs and symptoms*. Diabetes Res Clin Pract, 2007. 77 Suppl 1: p. S184-9.

[8] Fernyhough, P., S.K. Roy Chowdhury, and R.E. Schmidt, *Mitochondrial stress and the pathogenesis of diabetic neuropathy*. Expert Rev Endocrinol Metab, 2010. 5(1): p. 39-49.

[9] Lauria, G., et al., *Axonal swellings predict the degeneration of epidermal nerve fibers in painful neuropathies*. Neurology, 2003. 61(5): p. 631-6.

[10] Brownlee, M., *The pathobiology of diabetic complications - A unifying mechanism*. Diabetes, 2005. 54(6): p. 1615-1625.

[11] Obrosova, I.G., *How does glucose generate oxidative stress in peripheral nerve? Neurobiology of Diabetic Neuropathy*, 2002. 50: p. 3-35.

[12] Yu, T., J.L. Robotham, and Y. Yoon, *Increased production of reactive oxygen species in hyperglycemic conditions requires dynamic change of mitochondrial morphology*. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America, 2006. 103(8): p. 2653-8.

[13] Giacco, F. and M. Brownlee, *Oxidative stress and diabetic complications*. Circulation research, 2010. 107(9): p. 1058-70.

[14] Oates, P.J., *Polyol pathway and diabetic peripheral neuropathy*. Int Rev Neurobiol, 2002. 50: p. 325-92.

[15] Sugimoto, K., M. Yasujima, and S. Yagihashi, *Role of advanced glycation end products in diabetic neuropathy*. Curr Pharm Des, 2008. 14(10): p. 953-61.

[16] Obrosova, I.G., et al., *An aldose reductase inhibitor reverses early diabetes-induced changes in peripheral nerve function, metabolism, and antioxidative defense*. FASEB J, 2002. 16(1): p. 123-5.

[17] Goldberg, H.J., C.I. Whiteside, and I.G. Fantus, *The hexosamine pathway regulates the plasminogen activator inhibitor-1 gene promoter and Sp1 transcriptional activation through protein kinase C-beta I and -delta*. J Biol Chem, 2002. 277(37): p. 33833-41.

[18] Koya, D. and G.L. King, *Protein kinase C activation and the development of diabetic complications*. Diabetes, 1998. 47(6): p. 859-66.

[19] Garcia Soriano, F., et al., *Diabetic endothelial dysfunction: the role of poly(ADP-ribose) polymerase activation*. Nat Med, 2001. 7(1): p. 108-13.

[20] Ilnytska, O., et al., *Poly(ADP-ribose) polymerase inhibition alleviates experimental diabetic sensory neuropathy*. Diabetes, 2006. 55(6): p. 1686-94.

[21] Cameron, N.E. and M.A. Cotter, *Effects of protein kinase C beta inhibition on neurovascular dysfunction in diabetic rats: interaction with oxidative stress and essential fatty acid dysmetabolism*. Diabetes Metab Res Rev, 2002. 18(4): p. 315-23.

[22] Cameron, N.E., et al., *Inhibitors of advanced glycation end product formation and neurovascular dysfunction in experimental diabetes*. Ann N Y Acad Sci, 2005. 1043: p. 784-92.
[23] Cameron, N.E., et al., Vascular factors and metabolic interactions in the pathogenesis of diabetic neuropathy. Diabetologia, 2001. 44(11): p. 1973-88.

[24] Bierhaus, A., et al., Diabetes-associated sustained activation of the transcription factor nuclear factor-kappaB. Diabetologia, 2001. 50(12): p. 2792-808.

[25] Vincent, A.M., et al., Oxidative stress in the pathogenesis of diabetic neuropathy. Endocrine reviews, 2004. 25(4): p. 612-28.

[26] Coppey, L.J., et al., Preventing superoxide formation in epineurial arterioles of the sciatic nerve from diabetic rats restores endothelium-dependent vasodilation. Free Radic Res, 2003. 37(1): p. 33-40.

[27] Coppey, L.J., et al., Slowing of motor nerve conduction velocity in streptozotocin-induced diabetic rats is preceded by impaired vasodilation in arterioles that overlie the sciatic nerve. Int J Exp Diabetes Res, 2000. 1(2): p. 131-43.

[28] Coppey, L.J., et al., Effect of antioxidant treatment of streptozotocin-induced diabetic rats on endoneurial blood flow, motor nerve conduction velocity, and vascular reactivity of epineurial arterioles of the sciatic nerve. Diabetes, 2001. 50(8): p. 1927-37.

[29] Leinninger, G.M., A.M. Vincent, and E.L. Feldman, The role of growth factors in diabetic peripheral neuropathy. J Peripher Nerv Syst, 2004. 9(1): p. 26-53.

[30] Anand, P., Neurotrophic factors and their receptors in human sensory neuropathies. Prog Brain Res, 2004. 146: p. 477-92.

[31] Lazarovici, P., C. Marcinkiewicz, and P.I. Lelkes, Cross talk between the cardiovascular and nervous systems: neurotrophic effects of vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF) and angiogenic effects of nerve growth factor (NGF)-implications in drug development. Curr Pharm Des, 2006. 12(21): p. 2609-22.

[32] Zacchigna, S., D. Lambrechts, and P. Carmeliet, Neurovascular signalling defects in neurodegeneration. Nat Rev Neurosci, 2008. 9(3): p. 169-81.

[33] Simovic, D., et al., Improvement in chronic ischemic neuropathy after intramuscular phVEGF165 gene transfer in patients with critical limb ischemia. Arch Neurol, 2001. 58(5): p. 761-8.

[34] Salis, M.B., et al., Nerve growth factor supplementation reverses the impairment, induced by Type 1 diabetes, of hindlimb post-ischaemic recovery in mice. Diabetologia, 2004. 47(6): p. 1055-63.

[35] Emanuelli, C., et al., Nerve growth factor promotes angiogenesis and arteriogenesis in ischemic hindlimbs. Circulation, 2002. 106(17): p. 2257-62.

[36] Giannini, C. and P.J. Dyck, Ultrastructural morphometric abnormalities of sural nerve endoneurial microvessels in diabetes mellitus. Ann Neurol, 1994. 36(3): p. 408-15.

[37] Vinik, A.I., Diabetic neuropathy: pathogenesis and therapy. Am J Med, 1999. 107(2B): p. 175-265.

[38] Schmidt, R.E., et al., Insulin-like growth factor I reverses experimental diabetic autonomic neuropathy. Am J Pathol, 1999. 155(5): p. 1651-60.

[39] Zhuang, H.X., et al., Insulin-like growth factors reverse or arrest diabetic neuropathy: effects on hyperalgesia and impaired nerve regeneration in rats. Exp Neurol, 1996. 140(2): p. 198-205.

[40] Lopez-Lopez, C., D. LeRoith, and I. Torres-Aleman, Insulin-like growth factor I is required for vessel remodeling in the adult brain. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America, 2004. 101(26): p. 9833-8.
Granata, R., et al., *Insulin-like growth factor binding protein-3 induces angiogenesis through IGF-I- and SphK1-dependent mechanisms.* J Thromb Haemost, 2007. 5(4): p. 835-45.

Jeong, J.O., et al., *Dual angiogenic and neurotrophic effects of bone marrow-derived endothelial progenitor cells on diabetic neuropathy.* Circulation, 2009. 119(5): p. 699-708.

Kim, H., et al., *Bone marrow mononuclear cells have neurovascular tropism and improve diabetic neuropathy.* Stem Cells, 2009. 27(7): p. 1686-96.

Cameron, N.E. and M.A. Cotter, *The relationship of vascular changes to metabolic factors in diabetes mellitus and their role in the development of peripheral nerve complications.* Diabetes/metabolism reviews, 1994. 10(3): p. 189-224.

Britland, S.T., et al., *Relationship of endoneurial capillary abnormalities to type and severity of diabetic polyneuropathy.* Diabetes, 1990. 39(8): p. 909-13.

Malik, R.A., et al., *Microangiopathy in human diabetic neuropathy: relationship between capillary abnormalities and the severity of neuropathy.* Diabetologia, 1989. 32(2): p. 92-102.

Malik, R.A., et al., *Endoneurial localisation of microvascular damage in human diabetic neuropathy.* Diabetologia, 1993. 36(5): p. 454-9.

Sima, A.A., et al., *Endoneurial microvessels in human diabetic neuropathy. Endothelial cell dysjunction and lack of treatment effect by aldose reductase inhibitor.* Diabetes, 1991. 40(9): p. 1090-9.

Bradley, J., et al., *Morphometry of endoneurial capillaries in diabetic sensory and autonomic neuropathy.* Diabetologia, 1990. 33(10): p. 611-8.

Khawaja, K.I., et al., *Clinico-pathological features of postural hypotension in diabetic autonomic neuropathy.* Diabet Med, 2000. 17(2): p. 163-6.

Sugimoto, K. and S. Yagihashi, *Effects of aminoguanidine on structural alterations of microvessels in peripheral nerve of streptozotocin diabetic rats.* Microvasc Res, 1997. 53(2): p. 105-12.

Yasuda, H., et al., *Effect of prostaglandin E1 analogue TFC 612 on diabetic neuropathy in streptozocin-induced diabetic rats. Comparison with aldose reductase inhibitor ONO 2235.* Diabetes, 1989. 38(7): p. 832-8.

Uehara, K., et al., *Effects of cilostazol on the peripheral nerve function and structure in STZ-induced diabetic rats.* J Diabetes Complications, 1997. 11(3): p. 194-202.

Estrella, J.S., et al., *Endoneurial microvascular pathology in feline diabetic neuropathy.* Microvasc Res, 2008. 75(3): p. 403-10.

Yasuda, H. and P.J. Dyck, *Abnormalities of endoneurial microvessels and sural nerve pathology in diabetic neuropathy.* Neurology, 1987. 37(1): p. 20-8.

Thrainsdottir, S., et al., *Endoneurial capillary abnormalities presage deterioration of glucose tolerance and accompany peripheral neuropathy in man.* Diabetes, 2003. 52(10): p. 2615-22.

Dyck, P.J., et al., *Capillary number and percentage closed in human diabetic sural nerve. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America, 1985. 82(8): p. 2513-7.

Malik, R.A., et al., *Transperineurial capillary abnormalities in the sural nerve of patients with diabetic neuropathy.* Microvasc Res, 1994. 48(2): p. 236-45.
[59] Artico, M., et al., Morphological changes in the sciatic nerve of diabetic rats treated with low molecular weight heparin OP 2123/parnaparin. Anat Histol Embryol, 2002. 31(4): p. 193-7.
[60] Hasegawa, T., et al., Amelioration of diabetic peripheral neuropathy by implantation of hematopoietic mononuclear cells in streptozotocin-induced diabetic rats. Exp Neurol, 2006. 199(2): p. 274-80.
[61] Kusano, K.F., et al., Sonic hedgehog induces arteriogenesis in diabetic vasa nervorum and restores function in diabetic neuropathy. Arterioscler Thromb Vasc Biol, 2004. 24(11): p. 2102-7.
[62] Schratzberger, P., et al., Reversal of experimental diabetic neuropathy by VEGF gene transfer. J Clin Invest, 2001. 107(9): p. 1083-92.
[63] Tesfaye, S., et al., Impaired blood flow and arterio-venous shunting in human diabetic neuropathy: a novel technique of nerve photography and fluorescein angiography. Diabetologia, 1993. 36(12): p. 1266-74.
[64] Newrick, P.G., et al., Sural nerve oxygen tension in diabetes. British medical journal, 1986. 293(6554): p. 1053-4.
[65] Zochodne, D.W. and C. Nguyen, Increased peripheral nerve microvessels in early experimental diabetic neuropathy: quantitative studies of nerve and dorsal root ganglia. J Neurol Sci, 1999. 166(1): p. 40-6.
[66] Kennedy, J.M. and D.W. Zochodne, Influence of experimental diabetes on the microcirculation of injured peripheral nerve: functional and morphological aspects. Diabetes, 2002. 51(7): p. 2233-40.
[67] Li, M., et al., Neuronal nitric oxide synthase mediates statin-induced restoration of vasa nervorum and reversal of diabetic neuropathy. Circulation, 2005. 112(1): p. 93-102.
[68] Apfel, S.C., Neurotrophic factors in the therapy of diabetic neuropathy. Am J Med, 1999. 107(2B): p. 34S-42S.
[69] Mizisin, A.P., et al., Ciliary neurotrophic factor improves nerve conduction and ameliorates regeneration deficits in diabetic rats. Diabetes, 2004. 53(7): p. 1807-12.
[70] Anitha, M., et al., GDNF rescues hyperglycemia-induced diabetic enteric neuropathy through activation of the PI3K/Akt pathway. J Clin Invest, 2006. 116(2): p. 344-56.
[71] Silva, G.V., et al., Mesenchymal stem cells differentiate into an endothelial phenotype, enhance vascular density, and improve heart function in a canine chronic ischemia model. Circulation, 2005. 111(2): p. 150-6.
[72] Tacken, P.J., et al., Dendritic-cell immunotherapy: from ex vivo loading to in vivo targeting. Nat Rev Immunol, 2007. 7(10): p. 790-802.
[73] Prochazka, V., et al., Autologous bone marrow stem cell transplantation in patients with end-stage chronic critical limb ischemia and diabetic foot. Vnitr Lek, 2009. 55(3): p. 173-8.
[74] Kinnaird, T., et al., Local delivery of marrow-derived stromal cells augments collateral perfusion through paracrine mechanisms. Circulation, 2004. 109(12): p. 1543-9.
[75] Abdel-Latif, A., et al., Adult bone marrow-derived cells for cardiac repair: a systematic review and meta-analysis. Arch Intern Med, 2007. 167(10): p. 989-97.
[76] Risau, W., Mechanisms of angiogenesis. Nature, 1997. 386(6626): p. 671-4.
[77] Carmeliet, P. and R.K. Jain, Angiogenesis in cancer and other diseases. Nature, 2000. 407(6801): p. 249-57.
[78] Gehling, U.M., et al., In vitro differentiation of endothelial cells from AC133-positive progenitor cells. Blood, 2000. 95(10): p. 3106-12.

[79] Peichev, M., et al., Expression of VEGFR-2 and AC133 by circulating human CD34(+) cells identifies a population of functional endothelial precursors. Blood, 2000. 95(3): p. 952-8.

[80] Shi, Q., et al., Evidence for circulating bone marrow-derived endothelial cells. Blood, 1998. 92(2): p. 362-7.

[81] Simmons, Z. and E.L. Feldman, Update on diabetic neuropathy. Curr Opin Neurol, 2002. 15(5): p. 595-603.

[82] Lin, Y., et al., Origins of circulating endothelial cells and endothelial outgrowth from blood. J Clin Invest, 2000. 105(1): p. 71-7.

[83] Hur, J., et al., Characterization of two types of endothelial progenitor cells and their different contributions to neovasculogenesis. Arterioscler Thromb Vasc Biol, 2004. 24(2): p. 288-93.

[84] Rehman, J., et al., Peripheral blood "endothelial progenitor cells" are derived from monocyte/macrophages and secrete angiogenic growth factors. Circulation, 2003. 107(8): p. 1164-9.

[85] Kalka, C., et al., Transplantation of ex vivo expanded endothelial progenitor cells for therapeutic neovascularization. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America, 2000. 97(7): p. 3422-7.

[86] Yoon, C.H., et al., Synergistic neovascularization by mixed transplantation of early endothelial progenitor cells and late outgrowth endothelial cells: the role of angiogenic cytokines and matrix metalloproteinases. Circulation, 2005. 112(11): p. 1618-27.

[87] Peters, B.A., et al., Contribution of bone marrow-derived endothelial cells to human tumor vasculature. Nat Med, 2005. 11(3): p. 261-2.

[88] Yeh, E.T., et al., Transdifferentiation of human peripheral blood CD34+-enriched cell population into cardiomyocytes, endothelial cells, and smooth muscle cells in vivo. Circulation, 2003. 108(17): p. 2070-3.

[89] O'Neill, T.J.t., et al., Mobilization of bone marrow-derived cells enhances the angiogenic response to hypoxia without transdifferentiation into endothelial cells. Circulation research, 2005. 97(10): p. 1027-35.

[90] Ziegelhoeffer, T., et al., Bone marrow-derived cells do not incorporate into the adult growing vasculature. Circulation research, 2004. 94(2): p. 230-8.

[91] Cho, H.J., et al., Role of host tissues for sustained humoral effects after endothelial progenitor cell transplantation into the ischemic heart. J Exp Med, 2007. 204(13): p. 3257-69.

[92] Naruse, K., et al., Therapeutic neovascularization using cord blood-derived endothelial progenitor cells for diabetic neuropathy. Diabetes, 2005. 54(6): p. 1823-8.

[93] Schratzberger, P., et al., Favorable effect of VEGF gene transfer on ischemic peripheral neuropathy. Nat Med, 2000. 6(4): p. 405-13.

[94] Abe, K. and H. Saito, Neurotrophic effect of basic fibroblast growth factor is mediated by the p42/p44 mitogen-activated protein kinase cascade in cultured rat cortical neurons. Brain Res Dev Brain Res, 2000. 122(1): p. 81-5.

[95] Kermani, P., et al., Neurotrophins promote revascularization by local recruitment of TrkB+ endothelial cells and systemic mobilization of hematopoietic progenitors. J Clin Invest, 2005. 115(3): p. 653-63.
[96] Calcutt, N.A., et al., Therapeutic efficacy of sonic hedgehog protein in experimental diabetic neuropathy. J Clin Invest, 2003. 111(4): p. 507-14.

[97] Chalasani, S.H., et al., The chemokine stromal cell-derived factor-1 promotes the survival of embryonic retinal ganglion cells. J Neurosci, 2003. 23(11): p. 4601-12.

[98] Mirshahi, F., et al., SDF-1 activity on microvascular endothelial cells: consequences on angiogenesis in vitro and in vivo models. Thromb Res, 2000. 99(6): p. 587-94.

[99] Nakae, M., et al., Effects of basic fibroblast growth factor on experimental diabetic neuropathy in rats. Diabetes, 2006. 55(5): p. 1470-7.

[100] Masaki, I., et al., Angiogenic gene therapy for experimental critical limb ischemia: acceleration of limb loss by overexpression of vascular endothelial growth factor 165 but not of fibroblast growth factor-2. Circ Res, 2002. 90(9): p. 966-73.

[101] Porada, C.D., E.D. Zanjani, and G. Almeida-Porad, Adult mesenchymal stem cells: a pluripotent population with multiple applications. Current stem cell research & therapy, 2006. 1(3): p. 365-9.

[102] Pittenger, M.F., et al., Multilineage potential of adult human mesenchymal stem cells. Science, 1999. 284(5411): p. 143-7.

[103] Jackson, L., et al., Adult mesenchymal stem cells: differentiation potential and therapeutic applications. Journal of postgraduate medicine, 2007. 53(2): p. 121-7.

[104] Kinnaird, T., et al., Bone-marrow-derived cells for enhancing collateral development: mechanisms, animal data, and initial clinical experiences. Circulation research, 2004. 95(4): p. 354-63.

[105] Iwase, T., et al., Comparison of angiogenic potency between mesenchymal stem cells and mononuclear cells in a rat model of hindlimb ischemia. Cardiovascular research, 2005. 66(3): p. 543-51.

[106] Al-Khaldi, A., et al., Postnatal bone marrow stromal cells elicit a potent VEGF-dependent neoangiogenic response in vivo. Gene therapy, 2003. 10(8): p. 621-9.

[107] Masaki, I., et al., Angiogenic gene therapy for experimental critical limb ischemia: acceleration of limb loss by overexpression of vascular endothelial growth factor 165 but not of fibroblast growth factor-2. Circulation research, 2002. 90(9): p. 966-73.

[108] Schratzberger, P., et al., Reversal of experimental diabetic neuropathy by VEGF gene transfer. The Journal of clinical investigation, 2001. 107(9): p. 1083-92.

[109] Shibata, T., et al., Transplantation of bone marrow-derived mesenchymal stem cells improves diabetic polyneuropathy in rats. Diabetes, 2008. 57(11): p. 3099-107.

[110] Wang, X., et al., Hsp20-engineered mesenchymal stem cells are resistant to oxidative stress via enhanced activation of Akt and increased secretion of growth factors. Stem Cells, 2009. 27(12): p. 3021-31.

[111] Wislet-Gendebien, S., et al., Astrocytic and neuronal fate of mesenchymal stem cells expressing nestin. Brain research bulletin, 2005. 68(1-2): p. 95-102.

[112] Hermann, A., et al., Efficient generation of neural stem cell-like cells from adult human bone marrow stromal cells. Journal of cell science, 2004. 117(Pt 19): p. 4411-22.

[113] Keilhoff, G., et al., Transdifferentiated mesenchymal stem cells as alternative therapy in supporting nerve regeneration and myelination. Cellular and molecular neurobiology, 2006. 26(7-8): p. 1235-52.
[114] Dezawa, M., et al., *Sciatic nerve regeneration in rats induced by transplantation of in vitro differentiated bone-marrow stromal cells*. The European journal of neuroscience, 2001. 14(11): p. 1771-6.

[115] Jeong, J.O., et al., *Malignant tumor formation after transplantation of short-term cultured bone marrow mesenchymal stem cells in experimental myocardial infarction and diabetic neuropathy*. Circulation research, 2011. 108(11): p. 1340-7.
Over the last two decades we have seen extensive progress within the practice of neurology. We have refined our understanding of the etiology and pathogenesis for both peripheral and central nervous system diseases, and developed new therapeutic approaches towards these diseases. Peripheral neuropathy is a common disorder seen by many specialists and can pose a diagnostic dilemma. Many etiologies, including drugs that are used to treat other diseases, can cause peripheral neuropathy. However, the most common cause is Diabetes Mellitus, a disease all physicians encounter. Disability due to peripheral neuropathy can be severe, as the patients suffer from symptoms daily. This book addresses the advances in the diagnosis and therapies of peripheral neuropathy over the last decade. The basics of different peripheral neuropathies is briefly discussed, however, the book focuses on topics that address new approaches to peripheral neuropathies.

How to reference
In order to correctly reference this scholarly work, feel free to copy and paste the following:

Julie J. Kim and Young-Sup Yoon (2012). Cell Therapy for Diabetic Neuropathy, Peripheral Neuropathy - Advances in Diagnostic and Therapeutic Approaches, Dr. Ghazala Hayat (Ed.), ISBN: 978-953-51-0066-9, InTech, Available from: http://www.intechopen.com/books/peripheral-neuropathy-advances-in-diagnostic-and-therapeutic-approaches/cell-therapy-for-diabetic-neuropathy
