

## REGULAR ARTICLE

# Anti-diabetic effect of *Coffea arabica*, in alloxan-induced diabetic rats

Julio Campos-Florián<sup>1\*</sup>, Jessica Bardales-Valdivia<sup>2</sup>, Liliana Caruajulca-Guevara<sup>2</sup> and Deisy Cueva-Llanos<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Department of Pharmacology, Faculty of Pharmacy and Biochemistry, Universidad Nacional de Trujillo, Trujillo-Perú

<sup>2</sup>School of Pharmacy and Biochemistry, Faculty of Health Sciences, Universidad Particular Antonio Guillermo Urrelo, Cajamarca-Perú

## Abstract

The coffee bean could provide benefits in cardiovascular and metabolic diseases. The anti-diabetic effect of extracts of *Coffea arabica* was evaluated in diabetic rats. The aqueous extract of coffee green grain (63 and 93mg/kg) was administered once daily for fifteen days to alloxan-induced diabetic rats. The effect of aqueous extract on fasting blood glucose levels was measured. After 8 and 15 day of treatment, aqueous extract of coffee green grain administration showed significantly lower blood glucose levels compared to the diabetic control group. The findings from this study suggest that extract of coffee can alleviate hyperglycemia of diabetes.

*Key words:* Anti-diabetic effect, Aqueous extract, *Coffea arabica*

## Introduction

Coffee is the most popular beverage in the world after water (George et al., 2008). It is obtained from the processing of the fruits of coffee tree, whole plant of the genus *Coffea*, Rubiaceae family (Davies et al., 2006; Castilla, 2012). They grow in more than 80 countries in tropical and subtropical regions, especially in Africa, Asia and Latin America (Mishra et al., 2012).

A great number of substances were found in coffee beans, green or roasted and have been studied for many years, such as aliphatic and aromatic compounds, among which are alcohols, aldehydes, carboxylic acids and esters, heterocyclic compounds, proteins, amino acids and nucleic acids, carbohydrates, lipids, like sterols, tocopherols and diterpenes, alkaloids such as caffeine, theobromine, theophylline, trigonelline, adenine, guanine, hypoxanthine and xanthine; also micronutrients such as magnesium and potassium (Spiller, 1998). Certainly caffeine is best known, however cafestol, kahweol and chlorogenic acid, are also compounds present in coffee with antioxidant properties attributed (Higdon et al.,

2006). The total percentage of chlorogenic acid varies by state found in the coffee bean. Some authors reported that the chlorogenic acid in green beans of *Coffea arabica* is 5.5 to 8.0% and in the roasted bean is 1.2 to 2.3% (Bolívar et al., 2009).

Diabetes mellitus (DM) is a group of metabolic diseases characterized by hyperglycemia resulting from the altered insulin secretion, insulin action, or both (Norris et al., 2009). Chronic hyperglycemia of DM is associated with long-term damage, dysfunction and organ failure as particularly eyes, kidneys, nerves, heart and blood vessels (Guzmán et al., 2010). Sustained hyperglycemia leads to oxidative stress, alterations in enzyme activity, protein glycosylation and several structural changes (Akpan et al., 2007).

Epidemiological studies conducted in recent years (van Dam and Feskens, 2002; Isogawa et al., 2003; Salazar-Martinez, 2004) revealed an inverse association between coffee consumption and the prevalence of DM2. There are also data from animal studies indicating that caffeine (Shi, 1997), but most of chlorogenic acid and derivatives (Arion et al., 1997; Clifford, 2000; Ong et al., 2012; Hunyadi et al., 2012) have hypoglycemic effect by different mechanisms. Likewise, magnesium administration has been associated with reduction of hyperglycemia induced by alloxan (Abayomi et al., 2011).

The alloxan has been commonly used as an agent to induce experimental diabetes model; exerts

Received 11 March 2013; Revised 20 May 2013; Accepted 27 May 2013; Published Online 24 June 2013

\*Corresponding Author

Julio Campos-Florián  
Department of Pharmacology, Faculty of Pharmacy and Biochemistry, Universidad Nacional de Trujillo, Trujillo-Perú

Email: juliocamposrd@yahoo.es

its action when administered parenterally, generates reactive oxygen species (ROS) and elevated cytosolic calcium in pancreatic islet B (Szkudelski, 2001).

Vegetables are an important source of antioxidants; high levels of these compounds in the diet is believed to help reduce certain diseases (Astley, 2003; Bazzano et al., 2002), even more if ROS are involved in the pathogenesis (Akpan et al., 2007).

This study evaluated the effect of the aqueous extract of *Coffea arabica* on hyperglycemia level in rats with alloxan-induced diabetic.

## Materials and Methods

### Plant material

Samples were collected in Jazan (Pedro Ruiz Gallo, Bongará district, province of Amazonas Region). The identification was made by Dr. Isidoro Sánchez Vega from The Herbarium of the National University of Cajamarca and Research Associate of The Field Museum, Chicago, Illinois, USA.

### Animals

Holtzman male rats (200-230g) were purchased from the National Institute of Health (INS-Lima, Peru). Before starting the experiments, the animals were acclimatized for 10 days. The rats were maintained on a 12 hour light / dark at  $22 \pm 2^\circ\text{C}$ . They received a diet of standardized pellets and water *ad libitum*. In the use of animals for experimentation we have followed the guidelines of the Institutional Committee of Ethic for the Use of Animals from the Universidad Peruana Cayetano Heredia de Lima, Peru (UPCH), with whom the Universidad Privada Antonio Guillermo Urrelo, Cajamarca, Peru -UPAGU) has an interinstitutional signed agreement.

### Chemicals and reagents

Alloxan monohydrate was purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (St Louis, MO, USA), glucose kit from Wiener Lab (Rosario, Argentina), glyburide was from Farindustria Lab (Lima, Peru) and sodium hypochlorite from Peruvian Merck Laboratories (Lima, Peru).

### Preparation of extracts

After harvesting, the green beans were selected from *Coffea arabica* L. "Coffee", washed with water and sodium hypochlorite 1% (v/v), to subsequently carry out the stability process at a temperature of  $120^\circ\text{C}$  for 5 minutes. The aqueous extract was made using a decoction, for which weighed 15 g of coffee green beans and added 100 mL of distilled water in order to boil for 15

minutes. Then we proceeded to filter through sterile gauze. The extract was poured into glass jar amber. The dose was obtained on dry matter.

### Induction of Diabetes mellitus

Diabetes was induced by a single intraperitoneal administration of alloxan (140mg/kg) with 4% saline solution (an average of 0.90 mL per specimen). Before administering alloxan, we took a baseline glycemia. After twelve hours were extracted from blood samples by puncture of the tail vein. After five days the rats showed levels above 300mg/dL were considered diabetic. One group of rats not administered alloxan and served as normal control. Glyburide (0.36mg/kg) was used as a reference point.

### Experimental design

The animals were randomized into 5 groups, consisting of six specimens each group:

Treatments were administered orally for 15 days once a day from the eighth day of induction of diabetes. The distribution of the specimens was as follows:

- Group I: Non-diabetic rats received saline solution (2mL/kg) served as normal control group.
- Group II: Diabetic rats received saline solution (2mL/kg) served as diabetic control group.
- Group III: Diabetic rats received aqueous extract of *Coffea arabica* grain at a dose of 63mg/kg.
- Group IV: Diabetic rats received aqueous extract of *Coffea arabica* grain at a dose of 93mg/kg.
- Group V: Diabetic rats received a dose of glyburide 0.36mg/kg serves as a control reference.

### Determination of glycemia

After an overnight fast (12 -14 hours), we took blood samples (once a week) and the serum was obtained by centrifugation ( $1,096 \times g$ ). To determine the blood glucose we proceeded by the glucose oxidase method. The results are reported in mg/dL.

### Statistical analysis

For analysis of statistical comparisons the program SPSS v. 19.0 (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) were used. We determined the mean and standard deviation for quantitative variables making a comparison between post-treatment values of the groups through ANOVA and Student t test, with a significance level of  $p < 0.05$ .

## Results and Discussion

The diabetes health significance due to cardiovascular morbidity, based on a condition where there is a manifest of plasma glucose levels higher than normal. The consensus is clear about that intensive treatment of all factors risk are the best way to prevent or delay diabetes-associated morbidity, that is why reducing hyperglycemia to prevent the occurrence of these effects is the best strategy hypoglycemic activity (Jara, 2006).

Plasma levels baseline of glucose are observed in the study groups (Table 1), ranging from 105 to 115 mg/dL. In normal rats, with free access to food and water, glucose values between 70 and 135mg/dL (Nitz et al., 2003), although variations may be higher, depending on the strain and the type of food they receive. This shows that our specimens are homogeneous and comparable in status and energy metabolism, and ensures that our results are more reliable.

Although a pharmacological model cannot be extrapolated to a complex human pathology, the use of alloxan is accepted as a chemical induction model resembles human diabetes (González, 2006). After receiving alloxan to the single dose of 140mg/kg, the glucose levels in groups II,III, IV and V (Table 1) showed a significant increase (p <0.05) and significantly higher, an increase that exceeds 400% of the values basal glucose.

The alloxan can be administered intravenously at a dose of 40 to 45mg/kg or intraperitoneally between 50 and 200mg/kg. When using the higher dose the glucose levels rise to levels ranging from 150 to 900mg/kg, however the percentage of diabetic rats obtained is variable and depends on the sensitivity of the rats (Di Loreto, 2003).

Alloxan response can be divided into three phases. The initial hyperglycemia lasting about two hours, probably due to hepatic glycogenolysis; transient hypoglycemia, at approximately 6 hours, due to the output of insulin from damaged cells and finally hyperglycemia permanent begins at 12 hours. This diabetogenic agent forming free radicals, depletion of NAD<sup>+</sup> due to DNA damage and inhibition of glucosinase within mitochondrial changes include decreased reduced glutathione, calcium and deficient ATP (Szkudelski, 2001).

After eight days of treatment with the aqueous extract of *Coffea arabica* L. in groups III and IV (Table 2) at doses of 62 and 93mg/kg respectively, we observed a statistically significant reduction (p <0.05) in group IV and group V compared to day "0". Similarly if we compare intergroups, we note that the group III had no significant effect compared with groups IV and V. The higher dose of *Coffea arabica* reduces glucose levels in 71%, while glyburide reduces that in 56%.

Table 1. Blood glucose before and after administration of diabetogenic agent (alloxan) in the study groups.

Glycemia (mg/dL)	Group I	Group II	Group III	Group IV	Group V
Day -4 (baseline)	108.17±24.03	111.58±17.71	105.67±19.40	115.83±25.57	112.83±17.71
Day 0 (alloxan)	106.55±22.09	583.25±22.84 <sup>#</sup>	600.33±1.51 <sup>#</sup> (+468%)	600.33±2.66 <sup>#</sup> (+418%)	570.00±46.90 <sup>#</sup> (+405%)

n = 6

Groups II, III, IV and V are alloxan.

# p <0, 05 compared with baseline glycemia.

Table 2. Blood glucose in alloxan post "day 0", day 8 and day 15 in the study groups.

Glycemia (mg/dL)	Group I	Group II	Group III	Group IV	Group V
Day 0	106.55±22.09	583.25±22.84	600.33±1.51	600.33±2.66	570.00±46.90
Day 8	105.23±18.44	492.54±32.56 <sup>#</sup> (-16%)	513.67±103.38 <sup>#</sup> (-15%)	172.67±36.92 <sup>+,*</sup> (-71%)	248.67±46.68 <sup>#,+,*</sup> (-56%)
Day 15	108.16±20.32	476.65±38.52 <sup>#</sup> (-18%)	93.33±7.45 <sup>+,*,&amp;</sup> (-83%)	97.50±7.59 <sup>+,*,&amp;</sup> (-84%)	148.50±28.20 <sup>+,*</sup> (-74%)

Drugs test material begins to manage when the animals are experimentally diabetic. The groups III and IV are 62 and 93mg dose / kg of aqueous extract of coffee, respectively; glyburide group V received a dose of 0.36mg/kg.

Intragroup:

intragroup:

# p <0.05 compared with group I

\*p <0.05 compared with day 0

+ p <0.05 compared with group II

&p <0.05 compared with day 8

Glyburide is part of the standard treatment of Type 2 Diabetes mellitus. Like other members of this pharmacological group, the channels block ATP-dependent potassium found in the membranes of type  $\beta$  pancreatic cells, causing depolarization, calcium entry and insulin release. Also decreases hepatic glycogenolysis and gluconeogenesis (Alquilante, 2010; Schelleman, 2010).

After completing the fifteen day treatment, we observed (Table 2) a reduction of over 80% at two tested doses of *Coffea arabica*, while glyburide achieves a 74% reduction. The effect of coffee extract is more intense than the sulfonylurea, showing that the longer the administration hypoglycemic effect is better.

Coffee is a complex beverage with hundreds of components present in the grain or produced in the process and in the development of the beverage. Thus, there has been identified more than 700 volatile compounds from several categories in roasted coffee beans, as well as numerous nonvolatile components such as polysaccharides, melanoidins, chlorogenic acids, aldehydes, ketones, alkaloids such as caffeine and inorganic compounds such as nitrogen, potassium, calcium, magnesium, phosphorus and sulfur. To this is added the compounds formed during processing of the beverage (Gil et al., 2004).

Under our findings, we must focus our discussion on active components that justifies the effect found. However, from a purely pharmacological point of view, it is difficult to attribute the effect only to a component or a small group of them, especially if these effects are fuzzy.

Crist et al. (1998) found that caffeine administered to obese rats inhibits glucose uptake in adipose tissue. Wachmann et al. (1970) over forty years ago showed that coffee intake in healthy volunteers, increased glycemia after glucose tolerance test. Ten years ago Keijzers et al. (2012) showed, also in non-diabetic volunteers that caffeine intake reduces sensitivity to insulin, which explain the effect of increased plasma levels of adrenaline and free fatty acids causing consumption of caffeine. Greer et al. (2001) found caffeine reducing effect on glucose uptake; Thong et al. (2002) also found similar effects.

The methodological difficulty of all these authors is that they measure blood glucose levels after acute intake of coffee and / or caffeine. As we know drug intake leads to prolonged adaptation effects; this leads us to speak of tolerance to caffeine, as Naismith et al. demonstrated. In 1970, it showed that in nondiabetic volunteers coffee

consumption over a period of 14 days caused a reduction in plasma levels of fasting glucose. Shi (1997) evaluated the effect of caffeine found in animal models serving as stimulating insulin secretion.

As previously mentioned, the effects of coffee and caffeine are especially diffuse. However, epidemiological studies carried out in a large number of subjects, support the use of coffee for diabetes prevention. For example Isogawa et al. (2003) with a sample of 4620 adult subjects revealed that coffee consumption was inversely associated with the prevalence of fasting hyperglycemia.

The path must not necessarily focus only on caffeine, although there is positive evidence. Clifford (2000) reported that the chlorogenic acid present in the coffee beverage, reduces intestinal absorption of glucose and cellular oxidative stress, the reduction of glucose uptake is due to the inhibition of glucose-6-phosphate translocase and reduced sodium gradient driven apical glucose transport (McCarty, 2005). It has also been reported to inhibit the hydrolysis of glucose-6-phosphate to inhibit glucose-6-phosphatase, which might reduce the release of glucose by liver (Arion, 1997). The presence of magnesium is also important. Abayomi et al. (2011) reported that magnesium improves tissue sensitivity and insulin secretion.

Our findings, therefore, are justified by the presence of chlorogenic acid, magnesium and even caffeine. Since in our study the administration has been done for two weeks, it supports the hypothesis of glucose tolerance and other previously mentioned studies. It has been demonstrated that chlorogenic acid on one hand act as a trophic factor and protect pancreatic beta cells and moreover decrease intestinal absorption of glucose, increasing the levels of glucagon-like peptide-1 (GLP-1) and decreasing insulinotropic polypeptide both glucose-dependent (GIP), phenomena that result in a lower glycemic index. The quinolactonas or quinidas also present in coffee which in turn increase the uptake of glucose by peripheral tissues (Johnston et al., 2003).

However, it is necessary to carry experimental studies to evaluate the effect of coffee on lipid levels, as there is evidence (Urgert et al., 1997) that two compounds found in drinking coffee, cafestol and kahweol, could increase blood lipids, although their presence depends on the mode of obtaining the extract.

## Conclusions

This study reveals that the aqueous extract of *Coffea arabica* reduces blood glucose levels and thus helps to know the effect of coffee on diabetes mellitus.

## Acknowledgement

The authors wish to express their deepest gratitude to Professor Luca Rastrelli (SILAE) for the initiative to gather our countries and thus to foster research.

## References

- Abayomi, A., E. Adewoye, S. Olaleye and A. Salami. 2011. Effect of Magnesium pre-treatment on Alloxan induced hyperglycemia in rats. *Afr. Health Sci.* 11(1):79-84.
- Aquilante, C. 2010. Sulfonylurea pharmacogenomics in Type 2 diabetes: the influence of drug target and diabetes risk polymorphisms. *Exp. Rev. Card. Ther.* 8(3):359-372.
- Akpan, H., A. Adefule and F. Fakoya. 2007. Caxton-Martins EA. Evaluation of LDH and G6-PDH activities in auditory relay centers of streptozotocin-induced diabetic wistar rats. *J. Anal. Sci.* 1:21-25.
- Arion, W. J., W. K. Canfield, F. C. Ramos, P. W. Schindler, H. J. Burger, H. Hemmerle, G. Schubert, P. Below and A. W. Herling. 1997. Chlorogenic acid and hydroxyl nitrobenzaldehyde: new inhibitors of hepatic glucose 6-phosphatase. *Arch. Biochem. Biophys.* 339(2):315-322.
- Astley, S. 2003. Dietary antioxidants: past, present and future? *Trends Food Sci. Technol.* 14:93-98.
- Bazzano, L., J. He, L. Ogden, C. Loria, S. Vupputuri, L. Myers and P. Whelton. 2002. Fruit and vegetable intake and risk of cardiovascular disease in US adults: the first national health and nutrition examination survey epidemiologic follow-up study. *Am. J. Clin. Nutr.* 76:93-99.
- Bolivar, C., G. Guerrero, J. Monograph on the coffee bean galactomannan and its importance in the prosecution obtaining soluble coffee (Monograph to qualify for the title of Industrial Chemistry). Universidad Tecnológica de Pereira, Facultad de Tecnologías, Escuela de Química, Programa Química Industrial. 2009. (Thesis on internet). Consulted in March 21, 2013. Electronic version.
- Castilla, Y. 2012. Conservación de recursos fitogenéticos de cafeto (*Coffea* spp.) por métodos biotecnológicos: Una alternativa para su preservación. *Cultivos Tropicales.* 33(4):29-39.
- Clifford, M. 2000. Chlorogenic acid and other cinnamates-nature, occurrence, dietary burden, absorption and metabolism. *J. Sci. Food Agric.* 80:33-43.
- Crist, G., B. Xu, K. LaNoue and C. Lang. 1998. Tissue-specific effects of in vivo adenosine receptor blockade on glucose uptake in Zucker rats. *FASEB J.* 12(1):1301-1308.
- Davies, A., R. Govaerts, D. Bridson and P. Stoffelen. 2006. An annotated taxonomic conspectus of the genus *Coffea* (Rubiaceae). *Bot. J. Linn. Soc.* 152:465-512.
- DiLoreto, V. 2003. Efectos de la insulina y la glucosa sobre la homeostasis del fosfato en la diabetes experimental. Tesis para optar el título de Doctor en Ciencias Biomédicas. Universidad Nacional de Rosario. Argentina. pp. 23-27. [www.cienciasbiomedicas.com.ar](http://www.cienciasbiomedicas.com.ar)
- George, S., K. Ramalakshmi and R. Mohan. 2008. A perception on health benefits of coffee. *Crit. Rev. Food Sci. Nutr.* 48:464-486.
- Gil, J., E. Moreno, A. Gil, J. Blanco. 2004. Efectos del consumo de café para la salud cardiovascular, la diabetes y el desarrollo de cáncer. *Psicothema* 16(4):531-47.
- González, V. 2006. Influencia de la diabetes experimental sobre la reactividad de las arterias basilar, carótida y renal de conejo a la endotelina-1. Universidad de Valencia. Departamento de Fisiología. España. pp. 15-20. <http://roderic.uv.es>
- Greer, F., R. Hudson, R. Ross and T. Graham. 2001. Caffeine ingestion decreases glucose disposal during a hyperinsulinemic-euglycemic clamp in sedentary humans. *Diabetes* 50(10):2349-54.
- Guzmán, J., R. Lyra, C. Aguilar-Salinas, S. Cavalcanti, F. Escaño, M. Tambasia et al. 2010. Treatment of type 2 diabetes in Latin America: a consensus statement by the medical associations of 17 Latin American countries. *Rev. Panam. Salud. Publica.* 28(6):463-471.

- Higdon, J. and B. Frei. 2006. Coffee and health: A review of recent Human Research. *Crit. Rev. Food Sci. Nutr.* 46:101-23.
- Hunyadi, A., A. Martins, T. Hsieh, A. Seres and I. Zupko. 2012. Chlorogenic acid and rutin play a major role in the in vivo anti-diabetic activity of *Morus alba* leaf extract on type ii diabetic rats. *PLoS ONE* 7(11): e50619. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0050619.
- Isogawa, A., M. Noda, Y. Takahashi, T. Kadowaki and S. Tsugane. 2003. Coffee consumption and risk of type 2 diabetes mellitus. *Lancet* 361:703-704.
- Jara, A. 2006. Avances en diabetología. *Revista Oficial de la Sociedad Española de Diabetes.* 22(2):112-114.
- Johnston, K., M. Clifford and L. Morgan. 2003. Coffee acutely modifies gastrointestinal hormone secretion and glucose tolerance in humans: glycemic effects of chlorogenic acid and caffeine. *Am. Soc. Clin. Nutr.* 78:728-733.
- Keijzers, G., B. De Galan, C. Tack and P. Smits. 2002. Caffeine can decreased insulin sensitivity in humans. *Diabetes Care* 25(2):364-69.
- McCarty, M. 2005. A chlorogenic acid-induced in GLP-1 production may mediate the impact of heavy coffee consumption on diabetes risk. *Med. Hypotheses* 64(4):848-53.
- Mishra, M. and K. Slater. 2012. Recent advances in the genetic transformation of Coffee. *Biotech. Res. Internat.* Article ID 580857, p. 17.
- Naismith, D., P. Akinyanju, S. Szanto and J. Yudkin. 1970. The effect in volunteers of coffee and decaffeinated coffee on blood clotting. *Nutr. Metab.* 12(3):144-151.
- Nitz, E., N. Schmidt and L. Masako. 2003. Experimental model of induction of diabetes mellitus in rats. *Acta Cirúrg. Brasil.* 18:60-64.
- Norris, S., X. Zhang, A. Avenell, E. Gregg, C. Schmid and J. Lau. 2009. Pharmacotherapy for weight loss in adults with type 2 diabetes mellitus (Review). *The Cochrane Collaboration*, John Wiley & Sons, Ltd.
- Ong, K., A. Hsu and B. Tan. 2012. Chlorogenic acid stimulates glucose transport in skeletal muscle via AMPK activation: A contributor to the beneficial effects of Coffee on diabetes. *PLoS ONE* 7(3): e32718. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0032718
- Salazar Martínez, E., W. Willett, A. Ascherio, J. Manson, M. Leitzmann, M. Stampfer and F. Hu. 2004. Coffee consumption and risk for type 2 diabetes mellitus. *Ann. Internal Med.* 140(1):1-8.
- Schelleman, H., W. Bilker, C. Brensinger, F. Wan and S. Hennessy. 2010. Anti-infectives and risk of severe hypoglycemia in glipizide and glyburide users. *Clin. Pharmacol. Ther.* 88(2):214-222.
- Shi, C. 1997. Effects of caffeine and acetylcholine on glucose-stimulated insulin release from islet transplants in mice. *Cell. Transplant.* 6:33-37.
- Spiller, M. 1998. The chemical components of coffee. En G. Spiller (Ed.), pp. 97-161. *Caffeine*. Boca Raton, Ca, CRC Press.
- Szkudelski, T. 2001. The Mechanism of Alloxan and Streptozotocin Action in B Cells of the Rat Pancreas. *Physiol. Res.* 50:536-546.
- Thong, F., W. Derave, B. Kiens, T. Graham, B. Urso, J. Wojtaszewski, B. Hansen and E. Richter. 2002. Caffeine-induced impairment of insulin action but not insulin signaling in human skeletal muscle is reduced by exercise. *Diabetes* 51(3):583-590.
- Urgert, R., N. Essed, G. van der Weg, T. Kosmeijer-Schuil and M. Katan. 1997. Separate effects of the coffee diterpenes cafestol and kahweol on serum lipids and liver aminotransferases. *Am. J. Clin. Nutr.* 65(2):519-24.
- van Dam, R. and E. Feskens. 2002. Coffee consumption and risk of type 2 diabetes mellitus. *Lancet* 360:1.477-1.478.
- Wachmann, A., R. Hattner, B. George and D. Bernstein. 1970. Effects of decaffeinated and nondecaffeinated coffee ingestion on blood glucose and plasma radioimmunoreactive insulin responses to rapid intravenous infusion of glucose in normal man. *J. Metab.* 19:539-546.