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Melatonin: A Safe Nutraceutical and Clinical Agent

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### CHAPTER

# 36

# Melatonin: A Safe Nutraceutical and Clinical Agent

Edward H. Sharman and Stephen C. Bondy

#### INTRODUCTION

p0010 AU:2 Melatonin is an indoleamine with the chemical name *N*-acetyl-5-methoxytryptamine and is found in animals, plants, and bacteria. It has endocrine and antioxidant properties in both animals and plants. It is biosynthesized from the neurotransmitter serotonin, which in turn is made from the essential amino acid tryptophan. Because its normally charged amino group is acetylated and a methoxy rather than a hydroxyl group and is present in the 5 position, melatonin is a relatively nonpolar compound that readily crosses the blood-brain barrier and easily enters cells of all types. In mammals, melatonin has several roles; it is involved in circadian regulation and modulation of reproductive and immune responses, mood, and aging. It is produced by the pineal gland and several peripheral tissues, notably the gut (Chen et al., 2011). Because it is liberated into the bloodstream from the pineal and acts through receptors located in a wide variety of body tissues, it can be considered a systemic hormone.

> Levels of melatonin vary diurnally: they are highest during hours of darkness, seasonally in some mammals, and throughout the life cycle, and are lowest among the elderly.

> This chapter focuses on two areas: (i) recent findings suggesting a variety of therapeutic applications—ranging from improvement of disturbed sleep patterns and mood disorders to adjuvant cancer treatment and surgery and fertility enhancement and (ii) support for the safety of exogenously supplied melatonin. The potential molecular mechanisms underlying these potentially clinically beneficial uses are also discussed.

## RANGE OF CONDITIONS WHERE MELATONIN MAY HAVE CLINICAL UTILITY

The evidence for the beneficial properties of melatonin in the derangements described is often derived from studies on animal models of disease, but any relevant human findings are also added to each section.

#### **Disturbances of Sleep Patterns**

Melatonin is perhaps most well-known for its ability to induce sleep. Plasma levels are highest during hours of darkness and decline rapidly at the onset of light. Thus, melatonin is widely used to reset normal circadian sleep patterns after disruption by jet lag. Sleep quality can be defined by tiredness upon waking, feeling rested, and the number of awakenings experienced during the night. This can be partly correlated with objective polygraphic measures to determine the extent of fragmentation of sleep. Melatonin has been found to improve sleep quality in patients with a variety of diseases. A dosage of 3mg/day taken at bedtime for 24 days in a group of 2,062 patients with chronic cerebral ischemia improved multiple types of subjective sleep characteristics (Poluéktov et al., 2012). An analysis was made combining results from four clinical trials studying the effects in 401 hypertensive patients aged 55 years or older. The analysis determined that 2mg/ day of prolonged-release melatonin taken 2h before bedtime for 3 weeks improved quality of sleep and morning alertness (Lemoine et al., 2012). The improvements in sleep quality were maintained during a follow-up

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period of 6 months; moreover, the rate of adverse events was lower in the patients using melatonin. Although melatonin had no significant effect on blood pressure in this study, a meta-analysis of seven other clinical trials demonstrated that 2–3 mg/day of controlled-release (but not fast-release) melatonin over periods of 28–90 days significantly reduced nocturnal blood pressure in a variety of subjects, including those with hypertension (Grossman et al., 2011). In a study of 36 type 2 diabetic individuals, a regimen of 2 mg/day of prolonged-release melatonin taken 2h before bedtime for 3 weeks resulted in significant improvement in sleep efficiency, wake time after sleep onset, and reduced number of awakenings (Garfinkel et al., 2011).

The melatonin receptor agonist ramelteon has been used to treat chronic insomnia clinically with success (Liu and Wang, 2012). Some studies demonstrate that melatonin improves sleep quality more modestly. In a recent review of 35 randomized clinical trials, use of melatonin by healthy adults was found to show limited promise for preventing phase shifts from jet lag and for improving insomnia; both healthy adults and insomniacs benefited. However, available data could not confirm a positive benefit for either the initiation of sleep or sleep efficacy (Costello et al., 2014).

Aging is associated with an altered sleep profile; sleep time is shortened and sleep is more disrupted. Sleeplessness is often found with cardiovascular disease, obesity, type 2 diabetes, cancer, and a range of inflammatory disease states. There is evidence that melatonin can be of use in amelioration of the disrupted sleep associated with Alzheimer's disease (Cardinali et al., 2011), but this is disputed (McCleery et al., 2014). Melatonin has also found utility in hypertensive patients in the treatment of sleep disruption caused by depression of intrinsic melatonin production by beta-blockers (Scheer et al., 2012). Reports of the add-on utility of melatonin to the treatment of several disorders, including epilepsy (Goldberg-Stern et al., 2012), may primarily be attributable to the improved quality of the sleep-wake cycle (Gupta et al., 2004), but melatonin has also been shown to directly potentiate the anticonvulsant efficacy of phenobarbital (Forcelli et al., 2013).

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Melatonin is effective as an adjuvant for improving cognitive function and sleep quality impaired by a number of disorders. A study group of 73 outpatients with mild to moderate Alzheimer's disease took 2mg prolonged-release melatonin or placebo daily 1–2h before bedtime for 24 weeks in combination with an acetylcholinesterase inhibitor (with or without memantine). Those using melatonin experienced a lower rate of cognitive decline and improved sleep quality. These benefits were more pronounced in a subpopulation with insomnia (Wade et al., 2014). Melatonin (5mg/day orally at bedtime) improved sleep quality among clinical trial participants with myofascial temporomandibular disorder (TMD) and pain (Vidor et al., 2013).

#### MELATONIN AND MOOD DISORDERS

The clinical applicability of melatonin and pharmacological agents active at its receptors to depressive and anxiety mood disorders has been reported. The principal antidepressant drug used is agomelatine, which acts as a melatonin MT1 and MT2 receptor agonist. However, agomelatine also acts as a serotonergic 5-HT(2C) receptor antagonist, and this could also contribute its antidepressant activity (Fuchs et al., 2006). Ramelteon, another MT1/MT2 agonist, has no serotonergic antagonistic activity but retains antidepressant properties (Hardeland and Poeggeler, 2012). The mechanism of action may involve both restoration of a normal sleep cycle and the intrinsic anxiolytic and analgesic properties of melatonin, which has opioid activity (Srinivasan et al., 2010). Ramelteon has also been reported to protect against delirium (Tresguerres et al., 2012; Hatta et al., 2014). The biochemical and behavioral deficits found in animal models of several neurodegenerative diseases, including Alzheimer's disease, Parkinson's disease, and cerebral stroke, are mitigated by melatonin treatment (Patki and Lau, 2011; García-Mesa et al., 2012; Chern et al., 2012). However, reports involving melatonin intervention in these diseases in human trials are very limited. Restoration of deranged sleep patterns may account for the majority of benefits seen in clinical testing of melatonin (Rothman and Mattson, 2012).

Melatonin has shown promise for managing some troublesome side effects of drugs used to treat mood disorders. In a study of schizophrenic patients, treatment with 3 mg/day of melatonin for 8 weeks reduced the metabolic side effects of weight gain, abdominal obesity, and hypertriglyceridemia induced by olanzapine (Modabbernia et al., 2014). However, 20 mg/day of controlled-release melatonin for 1 month was no more effective than placebo for reducing dependence on benzodiazepines in a group of 92 elderly outpatients (Lähteenmäki et al., 2014).

#### SLOWING OF COMMON AGE-RELATED PROCESSES

Aging is associated with an increasingly elevated level of inflammatory events (Bondy and Sharman, 2010). Inappropriate and excessive immune responses characterize many diseases associated with aging, including a range of cardiovascular and neurodegenerative disorders. This heightened level of inflammation appears to be unprovoked by exogenous agents and may reflect the

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inappropriate continuation of earlier and more relevant immune responses (Qin et al., 2007). In the nervous system, many of the genes whose expression is elevated with age relate to immune function, and melatonin treatment has been shown in aged experimental animals to reverse this trend and restore a more youthful pattern of mRNA production (Sharman et al., 2007). This is also reflected by reversal of age-associated morphological and biochemical changes in brain (Zhou et al., 2014). Another important feature of brain aging where melatonin may be of value concerns adult neurogenesis, which has significance that is increasingly being acknowledged. Diminished neurogenesis precedes old age (Leuner et al., 2007), and this decline can be delayed by supplementation with melatonin (Ramirez-Rodriguez et al., 2012). In addition, the maintenance of dendritic complexity is enhanced by melatonin (Ramirez-Rodriguez et al., 2011). Studies on melatonin in aging humans are relatively scarce, but several promising reports exist. Daily use of 3 mg melatonin protected the retina by delaying macular degeneration-a leading cause of severe visual loss in older people (Yi et al., 2005). Even low doses of melatonin used during the evening increased daytime activity of healthy elderly people (Valtonen et al., 2005).

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#### MELATONIN AND INFLAMMATORY DISEASE

Chronic inflammation characterizes several common diseases. Many of the disorders for which melatonin therapy has been found to be of use involve inflammatory changes. Collating evidence from both animal models and the clinical situation, such diseases include hypertension (Hrenak et al., 2015), ocular inflammation (uveitis) (Sande et al., 2014), a human model of endotoxemia (Alamili et al., 2014), reflux esophagitis (Konturek et al., 2013), sepsis (Sharman and Bondy, 2014), pancreatitis (Jaworek et al., 2012), and cerebral edema (Rathnasamy et al., 2014).

A review of the effects of melatonin treatment for inflammatory bowel syndrome reveals that melatonin typically supplemented at 3 mg/day for periods varying from 2 weeks to 6 months is generally effective in reducing the abdominal pain associated with this disease (Siah et al., 2014). Other studies reviewed by Siah et al. (2014) reported an increase in pain threshold and improvements in bowel symptoms, visceral pain, abdominal bloating, overall IBS scores, and quality of life.

Symptoms of endometriosis—another disease with a large inflammatory component—were relieved in a clinical trial involving 40 affected women aged 18–45 years (Schwertner et al., 2013). After 8 weeks of using a regimen of 10 mg/day of oral melatonin taken at bedtime, daily pain scores were reduced by 40%, dysmenorrhea

was reduced by 38%, and quality of sleep was improved. Interestingly, the women using melatonin also reported an 80% reduction in analgesic usage.

#### MELATONIN AND DISEASE RELATED TO IMMUNE FUNCTION

Melatonin has also been found to be of utility in the treatment of other diseases and adverse health states in which excess inflammation may not constitute a major element of pathogenesis but where immune function is likely a factor, including cancer (Cutando et al., 2012; Seely et al., 2012; Lissoni et al., 2012). Supplementation of the diet of aged mice with melatonin leads to a major reduction of tumor incidence (Sharman et al., 2011). Although melatonin is generally reported as supporting cell survival, it appears to promote apoptosis in malignant cells (Sánchez-Hidalgo et al., 2012). Several meta-analyses have shown that adjuvant treatment of cancer-particularly solid tumor cancers—with melatonin significantly improves outcomes (Cutando et al., 2012). Similarly, two recent case studies have reported encouraging results in patients with breast cancer (Di Bella et al., 2013) and hepatocellular carcinoma (Tomov et al., 2013). Encouraging but modest benefits were reported very recently in a clinical trial involving 151 advanced nonsmall cell lung cancer patients also receiving chemotherapy. In this study, 10 or 20mg/day of melatonin taken at night for 6 months following initiation of chemotherapy decreased DNA damage and tended to improve quality of life; however, even though the longest-living survivors were among those patients receiving melatonin, supplementation did not lengthen survival time significantly overall (Sookprasert et al., 2014).

Melatonin therapy can also speed the rate of healing of diverse types of wound (Celinski et al., 2011; Drobnik et al., 2013). In an experimental model of multiple sclerosis—which certainly reflects inappropriate immune responses—melatonin was able to reverse demyelination (Kashani et al., 2014).

#### MELATONIN AND OXIDATIVE STRESS

There are several states that are predominantly characterized by excessive generation of reactive oxidant species. These include strenuous exercise and chronic pulmonary obstructive disease. Melatonin has been shown to be able to reduce indices of free radical damage in each of these in humans (Ochoa et al., 2011; de Matos Cavalcante et al., 2012). The relatively low tissue content of active unconjugated melatonin is approximately 1 pM (Lahiri et al., 2004), which makes a direct antioxidant effect unlikely because several other potent antioxidants such

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as water-soluble glutathione and lipophilic  $\alpha$ -tocopherol are present at much higher intracellular concentrations. Nonetheless, melatonin has been shown to reduce indices of oxidative stress in several clinical situations, including metabolic syndrome (Koziróg et al., 2011), Duchenne muscular dystrophy (Chahbouni et al., 2011), and in severely ill children (Marseglia et al., 2013).

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## MELATONIN AND NOCICEPTION

Melatonin may be effective for reducing chronic pain associated with some diseases. Being antinociceptive, it can act to support conventional anesthetics (Marseglia et al., 2015). In a randomized, placebo-controlled clinical trial involving 32 patients with myofascial TMD pain, pain levels evaluated by two different measurements were reduced in those using 5 mg/day at bedtime over a course of 4 weeks; moreover, these patients also reported requiring smaller and smaller amounts of other analgesics to cope with their pain as the trial progressed (Vidor et al., 2013).

REDUCED TOXICITY OF VENOMS AND PHARMACOLOGICAL AGENTS AFTER MELATONIN ADMINISTRATION

Melatonin has been found to ameliorate the venominduced hemorrhage and myonecrosis incurred after a snake bite (Katkar et al., 2014). It is also protective against the nephrotoxicity of tenofovir, a reversetranscriptase inhibitor used in the treatment of HIV infection (Ramamoorthy et al., 2014). The toxicity of several antineoplastics, such as neocarbazine and cyclophosphamide, is reduced in the presence of melatonin (Alp et al., 2014; Shokrzadeh et al., 2014).

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### BENEFICIAL EFFECTS OF MELATONIN USE DURING SURGICAL PROCEDURES

Melatonin improves survival of animals after heart transplantation both in the presence and absence of cyclosporine (Liu et al., 2014). Prior administration of melatonin also improved survival rates after kidney transplantation (Li et al., 2009). The persistence of ovaries following transplantation was also increased (Hemadi et al., 2012). Clinical studies in these areas are very limited, but melatonin had only marginally beneficial effects in major liver resection surgery (Nickkholgh et al., 2011). However, it has been shown to be nearly as effective as clonidine as an agent for sleep induction preceding surgical anesthesia in children aged 1–5 years (Almenrader et al., 2013). Moreover, melatonin administration has been reported to lead to improved outcome following organ transplant procedures (Liu et al., 2014) and neonatal surgery (Gitto et al., 2004). The more successful reports used much higher doses of melatonin.

Melatonin appears to have clinical utility in reducing the damage incurred by ischemia-reperfusion injury in the liver, which is very susceptible to such fluxes in vascular supply (Li et al., 2014). However, several trials on the potential of melatonin to mitigate the effects of reperfusion injury on the heart have not been proven to be successful (Kücükakin et al., 2010; Ekeløf et al., 2014).

### MIGRAINE AMELIORATION BY MELATONIN

Melatonin shows promise for reducing severity of migraine headaches in adults and children. In a recent study of 60 children (mean age, 10.3 years), monthly frequency of migraines was reduced by 55%, duration was reduced by 51%, and severity was reduced by 43%; the most frequent side effect was daytime sleepiness that occurred in seven subjects (Fallah et al., 2014).

## MELATONIN SUPPLEMENTATION AND FERTILITY

The quality of oocytes used for in vitro fertilization has been reported to be improved by treatment of the donors with melatonin (Rizzo et al., 2010; Batioğlu et al., 2012). The efficacy of oral melatonin supplementation on oocyte and embryo quality in patients in an assisted reproductive technologies program has been studied (Nishihara et al., 2014). Patients were treated with 3mg/day melatonin for at least 2 weeks. To evaluate the cumulative effect of melatonin supplementation, cycle outcomes between the first (no supplementation) and second cycles (melatonin supplementation) of patients who completed two treatment cycles were compared. There were no significant differences in maturation rates, blastocyst rates, and the rate of good-quality blastocysts between the first and second cycles. However, melatonin increased the fertilization rate from 35.1% to 68.2% and the proportion of good-quality embryos from 48.0% to 65.6%; these effects were ascribed to a reduction in oxidative damage.

#### SAFETY OF MELATONIN

The term nutraceutical implies that a substance has little or no toxicity even when consumed for long periods of time. Although melatonin is considered to have little toxicity, much of the evidence for this comes from

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#### SAFETY OF MELATONIN

short-term studies (Bruni et al., 2015; Fallah et al., 2014). In attempting to assess its safety as a nutraceutical, in addition to considering short-term toxicity data, a careful evaluation of any information pertaining to melatonin's long-term consumption should be performed. The only adverse report of potential harmfulness of melatonin is a report indicating that, in an isolated system, its metabolite 6-hydroxymelatonin promoted metalion–induced lesions to guanine and thymidine residues in DNA (Sakano et al., 2004). Most redox-capable antioxidants such as ascorbic acid and lipoic acid can also facilitate this cycling. Neither short-term treatment nor extended treatment of humans with melatonin has led to symptoms of dependence, tolerance, rebound insomnia, or withdrawal (Lyseng-Williamson, 2012).

With respect to evaluating the safety of melatonin, it is important to distinguish two possible applications: its low-dose nutraceutical consumption by relatively healthy individuals and the acute administration of high dosages to patients with serious medical conditions. The former involves the oral, possibly chronic, intake of relatively low dosages (0.3-10 mg/day), anticipated to be taken at bedtime or when the induction of nocturnal physiological conditions is desired. Frequently, the goal is the restoration or modulation of normal homeostatic function to compensate for age-related changes or circadian cycle disruption, rather than as treatment of serious disease. Here, safety considerations need to focus on the presence or lack of association of low-dose, possibly chronic, consumption of melatonin with increased incidence of disease or pathology in humans. Although high-quality, long-term clinical studies would provide the best evidence for or against such an association, the lack of such studies means that one has to rely on shorterterm, less powerful ones. Nevertheless, the safety and toxicity of melatonin have been the focus of a number of studies, and this hormone is frequently characterized as being both safe and nontoxic (Garfinkel et al., 2011; Reiter and Korkmaz, 2008; Seabra et al., 2000).

The safety of melatonin used as a nutraceutical ingre-

dient in food has been challenged on at least one occasion

in a Food and Drug Administration (FDA) warning letter

(U.S. Food and Drug Administration, 2011). Rather than

restate evidence for melatonin's safety, insight from a dif-

ferent perspective may be gained by scrutinizing—at least

as an illustrative case—the opposing evidence provided

in this document in which it may be presumed that the

strongest available references would be selected for char-

acterizing melatonin as being toxic and/or unsafe. The

warning letter cited 23 reports that "have raised safety concerns" about melatonin. Of these, the entire text of

21 could be accessed. Surprisingly, terms such as "safe,"

"safety," "toxic," "toxicity," or "adverse" did not occur

at all in these 21 or they occurred in statements actually

supporting the safety and/or nontoxicity of melatonin.

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Most of these references provide poor or no support for safety concerns either in humans or in the experimental models studied in rodents or in vitro. Among the references cited as raising concerns over melatonin's effects on blood glucose homeostasis, two of the studies (Puchalski et al., 2003; Rasmussen et al., 1999) performed no glucose measurements and mentioned no concerns; a third study in rats (Peschke et al., 2010) found that melatonin induced no change in blood glucose. A fourth study (Cagnacci et al., 2001) reported decreased glucose tolerance and insulin sensitivity in older women treated with 1mg of melatonin in the morning. Typically, longterm supplementation of melatonin is recommended to be used only at bedtime, and not in the morning. As noted by the study's authors, the effects measured may merely represent the induction during the daytime of the reduced nocturnal glucose sensitivity observed in normal, healthy humans. In contrast to the results of this study, beneficial improvements in HbA1c and no such possibly deleterious effects on glucose metabolism were found in a more recent study of diabetic patients (Garfinkel et al., 2011).

There were two adverse reports among studies cited to support reproductive concerns. Singh et al. (2011) observed strain-specific mortality in rat pups when dams received a 250-times higher dose (on a weight basis, for a 75-kg human) than the 3mg/day frequently recommended for humans. The strain-specificity and high dosage suggest these results may not be relevant to typical human nutraceutical usage. A second study reporting reduced semen quality in men receiving 3mg/day of melatonin for 3 months (Luboshitzky et al., 2002) is of more concern. However, this reduction occurred in only two of eight subjects, suggesting that only a minority of males may be affected; in any case, a much larger study is required for confirmation. With regard to females, an in vitro study merely exposed cultured human granulosa cells to melatonin without expressing any safety implications (Woo et al., 2001). Additional human studies in which no safety concerns were mentioned included those of Okatani et al. (1998) and Cagnacci et al. (1995a,b), but only the abstracts could be checked.

Rodents were used in seven of the reports cited in the FDA warning letter. In rodents, adverse effects were observed only at melatonin concentrations much higher than the 0.5–10 mg typically suggested for long-term nutraceutical consumption in humans. Moreover, all but one of the rodent experiments were performed on animals that modeled human disease, and thus they may have questionable applicability to healthy humans. For example, Puchalski et al. (2003) studied castrated rats without adverse effects, whereas Wiechmann et al. (2007) reported that under normal conditions, increased retinal cell death and thinned outer nuclear layer in retinas of *no-pigmented* rats were associated with administration of 100-times the melatonin dosage typical of human intake.

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Because melatonin may have greatly different effects in humans compared to rodents in certain circumstances (Peschke et al., 2010), caution needs to be used in applying the results of animal studies when evaluating the safety of melatonin consumption by humans. Tailleux et al. (2002) showed that large amounts of melatonin fed to mice in an atherogenic diet exacerbate plaque formation, but they state that "melatonin had no toxicity on animal health even at this high dose" and express caution by noting that one cannot infer "that high melatonin doses (in mice) would have any deleterious effect on atherosclerosis development in humans." In humans, other vascular studies-those of Cook et al. (2011), Kitajima et al. (2001), Arangino et al. (1999), Cagnacci et al. (1998), and Nishiyama et al. (2001)-expressed no safety concerns. Similarly, authors of a vision-related study in humans (Rufiange et al., 2002) expressed no concerns about melatonin's safety.

Safety concerns of melatonin may apply when treating patients with specific medical conditions, but not in healthy humans using melatonin at bedtime. Gagné et al. (2009) reported that a single 15 mg dose of melatonin administered during the daytime lowered input to subjects' retinal cones; no safety concerns were raised other than cautioning that melatonin should not be taken during the daytime, and the authors concluded that this effect "may serve to promote (normal) night vision."

Further suggesting that undesirable effects may not be a concern in healthy individuals, serious adverse events were reported only in studies of small numbers of human subjects with medical conditions. In this regard, Whittom et al. (2010) reported that exogenous melatonin, in conjunction with late-night bright light, exacerbated symptoms in eight patients with restless legs syndrome, and Sheldon (1998) observed an increased incidence of seizures among six children with neurological disabilities who had undergone multiple medical procedures.

In summary, this examination of references supporting the "safety concerns" raised against melatonin supports the notion that there is little evidence engendering significant generalized concerns about melatonin's safety, particularly with regard to typically recommended dosages of melatonin consumption in healthy humans. There is no doubt that the toxicity of melatonin is extremely low. Thus, even 800 mg/kg body weight has not been proven lethal in experimental animals (Barchas et al., 1967). Few nutraceutical vitamins or cofactors have such a large margin of safety.

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## CONCLUDING REMARKS AND **FUTURE DIRECTIONS**

The processes underlying the properties of melatonin have not been fully defined. The pleiotropic and interconnected nature of the many effects of melatonin makes the delineation of a smaller number of initiating events difficult. The existence of several specific melatonin receptor types (Singh and Jadhav, 2014) suggests that melatonin primarily has a signaling role that ultimately impacts gene expression. The emergence of an antioxidant and immunomodulatory role resulting from altered gene output could account for many of the reported properties of melatonin. The primary mechanisms of melatonin action involve alteration of gene expression, suggesting very low concentrations of melatonin in the cytosol. Melatonin is an immunomodulator; although it can suppress inflammation, it can also be supportive of immune function. This is in contrast to many antiinflammatory drugs, which generally act in a nonspecific manner and can also suppress desirable immune responses. In the context of supporting immune function, melatonin appears to have utility as a vaccination adjuvant (Regodón et al., 2009).

The potential benefits of melatonin are often only partially understood and not wholly delineated. However, the high degree of safety and nontoxic nature of this agent allow it to be safely used in situations in which its utility is probable but not certain. Melatonin is inexpensive and readily available, and this may have limited its commercial testing for health benefits and consequent promotion. There is a large body of evidence suggesting its applicability in a broad range of clinical situations. The very breadth of its apparent beneficial qualities gives a panacea-like impression, and this also may have limited the recognition of its value in the treatment of specific disorders. There is no doubt that the gradually expanding number of positive reports of the use of melatonin in medicine will ultimately lead to greater acknowledgment of the value of this agent in the support of human health.

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#### **NON-PRINT ITEM**

#### Abstract

Melatonin is an indoleamine with the chemical name *N*-acetyl-5-methoxytryptamine and is found in animals, plants, and bacteria. It has endocrine properties in both animals and plants. It is biosynthesized from the neurotransmitter, serotonin, which in turn is made from the essential amino acid, tryptophan. Because its 5-hydroxy and charged amino groups are both acetylated, it is a relatively nonpolar compound. In mammals, melatonin has several roles; it is involved in circadian regulation and modulation of reproductive and immune responses, mood, and aging. It is produced by the pineal gland and several peripheral tissues, notably the gut. Because it is liberated into the bloodstream from the pineal, it can be considered a systemic hormone. Levels of melatonin vary diurnally, being highest during hours of darkness, and also vary throughout the life cycle, being lowest among the elderly. This chapter focuses on recent findings suggesting a variety of therapeutic applications and supporting the safety of exogenously supplied melatonin. The potential molecular mechanisms underlying these potentially clinically beneficial uses are also discussed.

**Keywords** Melatonin; nutraceutical

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