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# (D-Ser2)Oxm[Lys38-y-glu-PAL] improves hippocampal gene expression and cognition in a mouse model of type 1 diabetes

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# ABSTRACT

Objective: Oxyntomodulin (Oxm) is a gastrointestinal hormone with recently noted therapeutic potential for type 1 diabetes mellitus (T1DM). The present study examined the effects of a stable Oxm analogue on anxiety, exploratory behavior, cognitive function, hippocampal gene expression and metabolic control in a mouse model of T1DM. Methods: Effects of twice daily administration of the stable Oxm analogue, (p-Ser<sup>2</sup>)Oxm[Lys<sup>38</sup>-y-glu-PAL], was assessed in insulin-deficient streptozotocin (STZ)-induced T1DM mice. Results: Induction of diabetes by STZ injection significantly (P < 0.05) impaired learning and memory compared to normal control mice. However, (p-Ser<sup>2</sup>)0xm[Lys<sup>38</sup>-y-glu-PAL] Pharmaceutical Sciences University of treatment completely reversed this detrimental effect. Anxiety levels and exploratory behavior were not significantly Ulster Coleraine, Northern Ireland, UK. different between all groups of mice. Hippocampal gene expression of MASH1, SYP and mTOR were reduced (P < 0.01to P < 0.001) in T1DM mice, but significantly (P < 0.05 to P < 0.001) enhanced by twice daily (p-Ser<sup>2</sup>)0xm[Lys<sup>38</sup>- $\gamma$ -glu-PAL] intervention. Moreover, expression of SYP, mTOR and IRS-1 were significantly elevated (P < 0.05 to P < 0.050.001) in (p-Ser<sup>2</sup>)Oxm[Lys<sup>38</sup>-y-glu-PAL] mice compared to both STZ and lean controls. These effects were accompanied by improved (P < 0.001) glucose tolerance and insulin sensitivity compared to STZ controls. Conclusion: The data highlight the potential of (p-Ser<sup>2</sup>)Oxm[Lys<sup>38</sup>-y-glu-PAL] for the treatment of T1DM, and reveal the ability of this Oxm analogue to restore the deficits of learning and memory observed in STZ-induced T1DM.

KEY WORDS: Oxyntomodulin (Oxm); Type 1 diabetes mellitus (T1DM); Cognition; Hippocampus

#### 32 INTRODUCTION

33 Oxyntomodulin (Oxm) is a proglucagon derived gut 34 peptide secreted by enteroendocrine L-cells in response 35 to feeding, which is known to activate both glucagon and 36 GLP-1 receptors [1]. Accumulating evidence suggests that 37 stable Oxm analogues represent an attractive potential 38 therapeutic option for obesity and related metabolic disease 39 [2]. As such, numerous studies confirm that through 40 glucagon receptor activation, Oxm induces catabolic 41 effects that favor weight loss, while glucose homeostasis 42 is improved through activation of GLP-1 receptors [1]. 43 To capitalize on this therapeutic profile, we have recently 44 developed (D-Ser<sup>2</sup>)Oxm[Lys<sup>38</sup>-γ-glu-PAL], an enzymatically 45 stable Oxm analogue, with a significantly a protracted in vivo biological action profile [3]. 46

47 Despite a clear for use of stable Oxm analogues for the 48 treatment of type 2 diabetes, effectiveness in insulin-49 deficient type 1 diabetes mellitus (T1DM) is unknown. 50 Thus, it might seem implausible that up-regulation of 51 glucagon receptor signaling would be advantageous in 52 T1DM. However, activation of GLP-1 receptors on both 53 alpha- and beta-cells by Oxm would impart beneficial 54 intraislet-cell effects in T1DM [4]. Indeed, we have recently 55 shown that sustained treatment with  $(D-Ser^2)Oxm[Lys^{38}-\gamma-$ 56 glu-PAL] improves metabolic control and islet morphology

in an experimental model of T1DM [5]. However, further 32 observations from our laboratory reveal that Oxm-33 mediated actions are not limited to the pancreas and gut, 34 and that Oxm crosses the blood brain barrier [2]. As such, 35 activation of Oxm signaling pathways in the hippocampal 36 brain regions in an animal model of type 2 diabetes was 37 associated with positive effects on cognitive function and 38 overall learning and memory processes [2]. Therefore, we 39 have now examined the consequence of twice daily (D-Ser<sup>2</sup>) 40 Oxm[Lys<sup>38</sup>-γ-glu-PAL] administration on metabolic status, 41 anxiety, exploratory behavior, cognitive function and the 42 expression of key hippocampal genes involved in learning 43 and memory in insulin-deficient streptozotocin (STZ)-44 induced T1DM mice. 45

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

## Peptides

(D-Ser<sup>2</sup>)Oxm[Lys<sup>38</sup>-γ-glu-PAL] was purchased from GL 50 Biochem Ltd. (Shanghai, China) and characterized as 51 described previously [3]. 52

## Animals

55 Adult male NIH mice (14-16 weeks old; Harlan UK Ltd, 56 Blackthorn, UK) were housed individually in an air-

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1 conditioned room at  $22 \pm 2^{\circ}$ C with 12:12 h light/dark cycle. 2 Mice had free access to drinking water and standard rodent 3 maintenance diet that contained 10% fat, 30% protein 4 and 60% carbohydrate (Trouw Nutrition, Cheshire, UK). 5 Diabetes was induced by intraperitoneal (i.p.) injection 6 of 12 h fasted mice with 150 mg/kg streptozotocin (STZ) 7 freshly prepared in ice cold 0.1 M sodium citrate buffer, 8 pH 4.5. All animal procedures were carried out according 9 to the UK home office regulations (UK Animal Scientific 10 Procedures Act 1986).

#### 12 In vivo studies

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13 Following STZ administration, mice (n=8) received twice 14 daily injections (08:00 and 17:00 h) of saline vehicle (0.9% 15 (w/v) NaCl) or (D-Ser<sup>2</sup>)Oxm[Lys<sup>38</sup>-γ-glu-PAL] (25 nmol/kg, 16 b.w.) for 28 days. All STZ injected mice received insulin (15 U/kg b.w. once daily, bovine insulin, Sigma-Aldrich, 18 Poole, UK) for the first 5 days of the study. Insulin therapy 19 was only maintained thereafter in diabetic control mice. 20 Normal mice maintained on standard diet, without STZ 21 intervention, and treated twice daily with saline were used 22 for comparative purposes. Body weight, non-fasting plasma 23 glucose and insulin concentrations were recorded on day 24 28. In addition, i.p. glucose tolerance (18 mmol/kg body 25 wt) and insulin sensitivity (20 U/kg body wt) tests were 26 performed at the end of the study period.

#### 28 Open field assessment and object recognition task 29

For open field assessment, at the end of the study mice 30 were placed in an exploratory arena (58 cm diameter, 31 38 cm high) for 5 minute and a computerized tracking 32 system (Biosignals, New York) analyzed measures of speed, 33 distance travelled, rearing actions (indicator of exploratory 34 activity) and grooming events (indicator of anxiety levels) 35 [6]. For object recognition, animals were placed in the same 36 arena and two identical random objects (2 marbles, 2.5 cm 37 diameter; or 2 dice, 1.2 cm side length) were positioned in 38 the center of the arena (dimensions outlined above). Four 39 hours after initial exposure (the acquisition phase), one of 40 the two objects was replaced by a novel object (a marble or 41 dice) and the time spent exploring both objects during a 5 42 minute trial phase determined. Recognition index (RI) was 43 calculated as described previously [6]. 44

#### 45 **Hippocampal gene expression** 46

47 Whole hippocampus tissue was excised at the end of 48 the treatment period, snap frozen and processed for 49 gene expression by qPCR following total RNA extraction 50 (Tripure Isolation Reagent; Roche Diagnostics, West 51 Sussex, UK). cDNA was synthesized using Transcriptor 52 First Strand cDNA Synthesis Kit (Roche Diagnostics). 53 Gene expression analysis was carried out using a Roche 54 Real Time ready qPCR assay and Light Cycler 480 Probes 55 Master and a hot start reaction mix (Roche Diagnostics, 56

West Sussex, UK), according to the Manufacturer's 1 2 instructions. The following target genes were designed 3 and supplied by Roche (Roche Probe master): insulin receptor substrate-1 (IRS-1), synaptophysin (SYP); 4 mammalian target of rapamycin (mTOR) and mammalian 5 achaete-scute homologue 1 (MASH1). Gene expression 6 was normalized to hypoxanthine guanine phosphoribosyl 7 transferase (HPRT) expression and relative quantification 8 assessed using the  $2^{-\Delta\Delta CT}$  method to calculate differences in 9 gene expression between samples, as described previously 10 11 [2]. 12

# **Statistical analysis**

Results are presented as mean ± SEM. Groups of data were compared using ANOVA and unpaired Student's t-test in GraphPad PRISM (version 3.0). Differences were considered significant if P < 0.05.

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# RESULTS

## Effects of (D-Ser<sup>2</sup>)Oxm[Lys<sup>38</sup>-**γ**-glu-PAL] on metabolic control in STZ-induced diabetic mice

23 Twice daily treatment with (D-Ser<sup>2</sup>)Oxm[Lys<sup>38</sup>-y-glu-24 PAL] resulted in the complete normalization of body 25 weight in STZ-induced diabetic mice by day 28 (Table 1). 26 Non-fasting blood glucose and plasma insulin levels were 27 still increased (P < 0.001) and decreased (P < 0.001), 28 respectively, compared to normal control mice, but they 29 were significantly improved (P < 0.01 and P < 0.001, 30 respectively) compared to STZ diabetic controls (Table 31 1), despite continued insulin therapy in STZ control mice. 32 AUC glucose tolerance values were significantly (P <33 0.001) improved compared to STZ controls, but elevated 34 (P < 0.001) when compared to normal control mice (Table 35 1). In addition, the hypoglycemic action of insulin was 36 significantly (P < 0.05) augmented in (D-Ser<sup>2</sup>)Oxm[Lys<sup>38</sup>-37 y-glu-PAL] treated mice compared to STZ diabetic 38 controls (Table 1). 39

# Effects of (D-Ser<sup>2</sup>)Oxm[Lys<sup>38</sup>-γ-glu-PAL] on anxiety levels, exploratory behavior and hippocampal gene expression

44 Open field assessment revealed no effect of 28 days twice 45 daily treatment with (D-Ser<sup>2</sup>)Oxm[Lys<sup>38</sup>-γ-glu-PAL] 46 on the number of grooming (anxiety level) and rearing 47 (exploration) episodes, as well as distance travelled and 48 average speed, when compared to STZ and lean control 49 mice (data not shown). However, STZ diabetic control mice 50 had significantly (P < 0.05) impaired recognition memory 51 by the end of the study, which was completely restored by 52 (D-Ser<sup>2</sup>)Oxm[Lys<sup>38</sup>-γ-glu-PAL] treatment (Figure 1A, B). 53 Indeed, (D-Ser<sup>2</sup>)Oxm[Lys<sup>38</sup>-γ-glu-PAL] mice displayed a 54 similar preference to explore the novel object as normal 55 control mice (Figure 1B). 56

Table 1. Effects of (d-Ser <sup>2</sup> )Oxm[Lys <sup>38</sup> -γ-glu-PAL] on metabolic parameters in STZ-induced diabetic mid	се
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Parameter	STZ diabetic control	(d-Ser²)Oxm[Lys³8-γ-glu-PAL]	Lean control
ody weight (g)	16.0 ± 0.2***	19.5 ± 0.3	20.5 ± 0.3
on-fasting glucose (mmol/l)	34.5 ± 1.1***	25.7 ± 1.1***. <sup>ΔΔ</sup>	$3.6 \pm 0.2$
lon-fasting insulin (ng/ml)	0.1 ± 0.1***	$0.6 \pm 0.1^{***,\Delta\Delta\Delta}$	1.1 ± 0.1
Glucose tolerance: 0-60 min glucose	705.7 ± 47.0***	526.7 ± 19.0***,ΔΔΔ	331.1 ± 18.4
nsulin sensitivity: glucose 0-60 min AAC	412.5 ± 67.2	808.2 ± 95.9 <sup>∆</sup>	530.7 ± 179.0

Parameters were measured after 28 days treatment with saline vehicle or (d-Ser<sup>2</sup>)Oxm[Lys<sup>38</sup>-y-glu-PAL] (25 nmol/kg). For glucose tolerance, glucose (18 mmol/kg body wt) was administered in non-fasted mice and 0-60 min plasma glucose AUC values calculated. For insulin sensitivity, insulin (20 U/kg body wt) was administered in non-fasted mice and 0-60 min AAC values calculated. Values are mean ± SEM for six mice. \*\*\*P < 0.001 compared to normal lean controls. <sup>A</sup>P < 0.05, <sup>A</sup>P < 0.01, <sup>AA</sup>P < 0.001 compared to STZ diabetic controls maintained on insulin (15 U/kg b.w. once daily) throughout.



Figure 1. Effects of twice daily (d-Ser<sup>2</sup>)Oxm[Lys<sup>38</sup>-y-glu-PAL] administration on (A, B) recognition index (RI) and (C-F) hippocampal gene expression in STZ-induced diabetic mice. (A, B) Recognition index (RI) was assessed during the acquisition (A) and test (B) tasks in mice. RI was defined as the amount of time exploring the familiar (tA) or novel object (tB) over the total time spent exploring both objects x 100: (tA or tB/(tA+tB))\*100. (C-F) mRNA expression of (C) MASH1, (D) SYP, (E) mTOR and (F) IRS-1 was examined in the hippocampus and expression normalized to levels of the internal control gene HPRT. All values are mean ± SEM for 5-7 mice. \*P < 0.05, \*\*P < 0.01, \*\*\*P < 0.001 compared to normal controls. <sup>Δ</sup>P < 0.05, <sup>ΔΔΔ</sup>P < 0.001 compared to STZ diabetic controls. 

Effects of (D-Ser<sup>2</sup>)Oxm[Lys<sup>38</sup>-y-glu-PAL] on hippocampal gene expression 

Induction of diabetes by STZ injection significantly (P <0.01 to P < 0.001) reduced hippocampal gene expression of MASH1, SYP and mTOR (Figure 1C-E). (D-Ser<sup>2</sup>) Oxm[Lys<sup>38</sup>- $\gamma$ -glu-PAL] treatment significantly (P < 0.05) increased MASH1 expression compared to STZ diabetic control mice, although this was still lower (P < 0.05) than normal controls (Figure 1C). However, SPY and mTOR hippocampal gene expression was enhanced compared to both normal (P < 0.05 and P < 0.001; respectively) and diabetic (P < 0.001 in both cases) control mice (Figure 1D,E). STZ diabetic mice had unaltered IRS-1 hippocampal gene expression, but treatment with (D-Ser<sup>2</sup>)

Oxm[Lys<sup>38</sup>- $\gamma$ -glu-PAL] increased expression compared to normal (P < 0.01) and diabetic (P < 0.05) control mice (Figure 1F).

# DISCUSSION

Consistent with previous observations, up-regulation of Oxm signaling pathways resulted in marked beneficial effects in STZ-induced T1DM mice [4,5]. Thus, twice daily administration of (D-Ser<sup>2</sup>)Oxm[Lys<sup>38</sup>-γ-glu-PAL] markedly improved glucose homeostasis and insulin sensitivity. Notably, normalization of body weight was also observed in the current study, together with substantially reduced circulating glucose and increased insulin concentrations. We have already shown that these beneficial Oxm-mediated effects are associated with improvements of islet morphology [5]. However, whilst encouraging effects of (D-Ser<sup>2</sup>)Oxm[Lys<sup>38</sup>-γ-glu-PAL] on cognition have recently been evidenced in type 2 diabetes [2], information in this regard is lacking in insulin-deficient T1DM. In view of the increasing awareness of cognitive defects in diabetes [7], we therefore examined the impact of (D-Ser<sup>2</sup>)Oxm[Lys<sup>38</sup>- $\gamma$ -glu-PAL] treatment on anxiety, exploratory behavior, recognition memory and the expression of key hippocampal genes involved in cognition in STZ-induced T1DM mice. In addition, recent evidence suggests a neuroprotective effect of Oxm in a mouse model of Parkinson's disease [8]. 

In harmony with findings in high fat fed mice [2], treatment with (D-Ser<sup>2</sup>)Oxm[Lys<sup>38</sup>-γ-glu-PAL] resulted in a marked increase in hippocampal SYP gene expression in STZ-induced T1DM mice. This could point towards improved neuronal communication (synaptogenesis) in these mice [9], as expression was significantly elevated compared to both STZ-diabetic and lean control mice. In accordance with this, expression of MASH1, a molecule important for neuronal growth [10], was also enhanced in the hippocampus of (D-Ser<sup>2</sup>)Oxm[Lys<sup>38</sup>-γ-glu-PAL] treated STZ mice. As such, augmented MASH1 signaling indicates proliferation and differentiation of hippocampal progenitor neuronal cells [11]. Interestingly, sustained activation of GLP-1 receptors has also been shown to elevate hippocampal mRNA expression of MASH1 in mice [12]. Taken together, these observations suggest improvements in the processes underlying hippocampal-mediated cognitive performance. Thus, (D-Ser<sup>2</sup>)Oxm[Lys<sup>38</sup>- $\gamma$ -glu-PAL] treated mice exhibited significantly increased learning and recognition memory, as evidenced by the novel object recognition behavioral task. Moreover, despite daily insulin therapy, STZ diabetic mice exhibited decreased recognition memory, highlighting the clear advantages of  $(D-Ser^2)Oxm[Lys^{38}-\gamma-glu-PAL]$  therapy in T1DM [5]. Importantly, improved memory was not associated with changes in anxiety or exploratory behavior, which could have otherwise impacted upon these findings. 

There is a recognized connection between the development of cognitive decline and insulin resistance [13]. Treatment with (D-Ser<sup>2</sup>)Oxm[Lys<sup>38</sup>-γ-glu-PAL] resulted in increased

hippocampal mRNA expression of IRS-1, an important signaling protein responsible for initiating insulin and insulin-like growth factor signaling pathways [14]. As such, defective IRS-1 dependent insulin signaling in the hippocampus has been associated with severe cognitive deterioration [15]. Interestingly, hippocampal expression of mTOR, a protein kinase involved in the insulin signaling pathway [16], was prominently enhanced by (D-Ser<sup>2</sup>) Oxm[Lys<sup>38</sup>-γ-glu-PAL] treatment. These observations suggest that the improvement of peripheral insulin sensitivity noted with (D-Ser<sup>2</sup>)Oxm[Lys<sup>38</sup>-γ-glu-PAL] also extends to its central actions. However, additional assessments of protein expression would also be important to more closely mimic a functional physiological effect for the genes described in this study.

In conclusion, the present study indicates that the therapeutic efficacy of  $(D-Ser^2)Oxm[Lys^{38}-\gamma-glu-PAL]$  in T1DM extends to enhancement of hippocampal signaling pathways involved in cognition and memory function [2]. The extent to which improvements in metabolic control contribute to these effects requires further clarification [17,18], but this study clearly highlights the potential of stable analogues of Oxm as novel therapeutic agents for alleviation of cognitive defects in T1DM.

# **DECLARATION OF INTEREST**

The authors report no conflict of interests.

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