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## Alpha-lipoic acid reduces retinal cell death in diabetic mice

Yoon Sook Kim <sup>a</sup>, Minjun Kim <sup>a</sup>, Mee Young Choi <sup>a</sup>, Dong Hoon Lee <sup>a</sup>, Gu Seob Roh <sup>a</sup>, Hyun Joon Kim <sup>a</sup>, Sang Soo Kang <sup>a</sup>, Gyeong Jae Cho <sup>a</sup>, Eun-Kyung Hong <sup>b</sup>, Wan Sung Choi <sup>a</sup>, \*

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#### ABSTRACT

Oxidative stress plays an important role in the development of diabetic retinopathy. Here, we examined whether  $\alpha$ -lipoic acid ( $\alpha$ -LA), a natural antioxidant, attenuated retinal injury in diabetic mice. The  $\alpha$ -LA was orally administered to control mice or mice with streptozotocin-induced diabetes. We found that  $\alpha$ -LA reduced oxidative stress, decreased and increased retinal 4-hydroxy-2-nonenal and glutathione peroxidase, respectively, and inhibited retinal cell death. Concomitantly, a-LA reversed the decreased activation of AMP-activated protein kinase (AMPK) and acetyl-CoA carboxylase, and increased the levels of peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor delta and sirtuin3 in diabetic mouse retinas, similar to results shown after metformin treatment of retinal pigment epithelial cells (RPE) exposed to high glucose. Moreover,  $\alpha$ -LA lowered the levels of O-linked  $\beta$ -N-acetylglucosamine transferase (OGT) and thioredoxin-interacting protein (TXNIP) in diabetic retinas that were more pronounced after metformin treatment of RPE cells. Importantly,  $\alpha$ -LA lowered interactions between AMPK and OGT as shown by coimmunoprecipitation analyses, and this was accompanied by less cell death as measured by double immunofluorescence staining by terminal deoxynucleotide transferase-mediated dUTP nick-end labelling and OGT or TXNIP in retinal ganglion cells. Consistently, α-LA lowered the levels of cleaved poly(ADP-ribose) polymerase and pro-apoptotic marker cleaved caspase-3 in diabetic retinas. Our results indicated that  $\alpha$ -LA reduced retinal cell death partly through AMPK activation or OGT inhibition in diabetic mice.

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#### 1. Introduction

Production of mitochondrial reactive oxygen species (ROS) in response to hyperglycaemia may be an initiating cause in the pathogenesis of diabetes complications [1], including diabetic retinopathy, the leading cause of acquired blindness in developed countries [2]. In diabetic retinopathy, early neurodegeneration in the retinal ganglion cells via apoptosis is evident [3].

Alpha-lipoic acid ( $\alpha$ -LA), a potent antioxidant, improves insulin sensitivity and skeletal muscle fatty acid oxidation by activating AMP-activated protein kinase (AMPK) in diabetic patients [4]. The  $\alpha$ -LA acts in a hypoglycaemic manner that may lower O-

E-mail address: choiws@gnu.kr (W.S. Choi).

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GlcNAcylation [5], which influences the activities of several proteins, including AMPK [6]. Although  $\alpha$ -LA beneficially affects obesity, type 2 diabetes and dyslipidaemia [7], the mechanism by which this occurs remains incompletely understood.

AMPK, a critical cellular energy sensor, affects metabolic stress via phosphorylation of downstream substrates, including acetyl-CoA carboxylase (ACC) [8]. Previous reports have shown possible anti-apoptotic effects of AMPK [9], consequently, AMPK may influence the pathophysiology and therapy of diabetes [10].

Hyperglycaemia elevates protein modification by O-linked *N*-acetylglucosamine (O-GlcNAc) [11]; reversible modification by O-GlcNAc might act in parallel with protein phosphorylation to modify protein-protein interactions [12]. Crosstalk between the O-GlcNAc and AMPK systems has been reported, suggesting O-GlcNAc transferase (OGT), the enzyme for this modification, and AMPK might affect each other in regulating nutrient sensitive intracellular processes [13].

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup> Department of Anatomy and Convergence Medical Science, Institute of Health Science, Gyeongsang National University School of Medicine, Jinju, Gyeongnam, Republic of Korea

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>b</sup> Medvill Co., Ltd, 1606 Daeryung Post Tower 5th, 68 Digitalro 9gil, Guemcheon-gu, Seoul, 08512, Republic of Korea

<sup>\*</sup> Corresponding author. Department of Anatomy and Convergence Medical Science, Institute of Health Science, Gyeongsang National University School of Medicine, 15, 816 Beongil, Jinju-daero, Gyeongnam, Jinju, 52727, Republic of Korea.

2

Apoptotic thioredoxin-interacting protein (TXNIP) might cause the development of diabetic retinopathy (DR) [14], and is indirectly regulated by AMPK [15], but no studies have shown its relationship to  $\alpha$ -LA in DR.

The peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor family of nuclear receptors (PPAR)  $\delta$  act as metabolic sensors, and prevent ER stress, inflammation, and insulin resistance in skeletal muscle cells by activating AMPK [16].

Sirtuin3 (SIRT3) regulates mitochondrial oxidative stress [17]. Manganese superoxide dismutase (MnSOD) is one of SIRT3 targets, which is the primary mitochondrial enzyme converting superoxide to water [18]. Therefore, decreased SIRT3 function due to hyperglycaemia could lead to reduced MnSOD activity [19], leading to retinal cell death in diabetic mice.

Here, we investigated whether  $\alpha$ -LA was effective at reducing retinal cell death in the early stages of DR, using a streptozotocin-induced diabetic mouse model.

#### 2. Materials and methods

#### 2.1. Animals

Diabetes was induced in male C57BL/6 mice (KOATEC, Pyeongtaek, Republic of Korea), as previously described [20]. All animal experiments were carried out in accordance with the National Institutes of Health Guide for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals (NIH Publication No. 8023). The  $\alpha$ -LA was purchased from MP Biomedicals (101138; Burlingame, CA, USA) and orally administered to the mice at 200 mg/kg/day. All mice were sacrificed at 2 months after the final injection of 2-deoxy-2-(3-methyl-3-nitrosoureido)-p-glucopyranose (STZ) or saline. Blood was obtained by tail puncture, and diabetes induction was verified weekly after STZ injection by evaluating blood glucose concentrations using a Precision glucometer (Abbott Laboratories, Alameda, CA, USA). Mice with a blood glucose concentration  $\geq$ 250 mg/dL were considered diabetic.

#### 2.2. Cell culture and treatments

The ARPE-19 human retinal pigment epithelial (RPE) cell line was purchased from American Type Culture Collection (Manassas, VA, USA), and grown at 37 °C in Dulbecco's modified Eagle medium supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA), 100 g/mL streptomycin, and 100 units/mL penicillin (Invitrogen). Cells were treated with low glucose (LG, 5 mM), high glucose (HG, 25 mM)  $\pm$   $\alpha$ -LA (ALA, 300  $\mu$ M; T1395; Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA), HG  $\pm$  metformin [MET, 80 mM; Enzo Life Sciences (ENZO-ALX-270-432, Farmingdale, NY, USA)] or HG  $\pm$  Compound C (CC, 20  $\mu$ M; Calbiochem, 171260; San Diego, CA, USA).

#### 2.3. $\alpha$ -LA administration

The  $\alpha$ -LA was orally administered to mice. When conventional antidiabetic doses were used in mice, the equivalent dose was 250 mg/kg/day; based on previous reports [4,7], we administered 200 mg/kg  $\alpha$ -LA once daily for 8 weeks after the final STZ or saline injection. Control and diabetic mice were gavaged daily with saline. Blood glucose levels and body weights were measured weekly.

#### 2.4. Antibodies

The following antibodies were used: 4-HNE (ab46545; Abcam, Cambridge, UK), GPx-1/2 (sc-133160; Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Santa Cruz, CA, USA), AMPK (#2532; Cell Signaling Technology, Beverly, MA, USA), phospho-AMPK (Thr172) (#2535; Cell Signaling Technology), OGT (ab96718; Abcam), TXNIP (sc-166234; Santa Cruz

Biotechnology), ACC (#3662; Cell Signaling Technology), phospho-ACC (#3661; Cell Signaling Technology), PPARδ (ab23673; Abcam), SIRT3 (ab189860; Abcam), PARP (#9532; Cell Signaling Technology), cleaved PARP (#5625; Cell Signaling Technology), cleaved caspase-3 (#9664; Cell Signaling Technology), caspase-3 (#9662; Cell Signaling Technology),  $\beta$ -Actin (A5441; Sigma-Aldrich), secondary horseradish-peroxidase-conjugated goat anti-mouse IgG (#31430; Thermo Scientific/Pierce Biotechnology, Rockford, IL, USA), and goat anti-rabbit IgG (#31460; Thermo Scientific/Pierce Biotechnology).

#### 2.5. Western blotting

Protein extraction and western blotting were performed as described previously [21].

#### 2.6. Immunoprecipitation

Immunoprecipitation was performed as described previously [22].

#### 2.7. Immunohistochemistry analysis

Immunohistochemistry was performed on frozen retinal sections (5-μm thick), as described previously [20].

#### 2.8. Immunofluorescence analysis

Immunofluorescence analysis was performed as described previously [22].

#### 2.9. Statistical analysis

Quantitative analyses were performed using ImageJ analysis software (National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, MD, USA) and GraphPad Prism 5 (GraphPad Software, San Diego, CA, USA). Data are representative of three independent experiments and are presented as the mean  $\pm$  standard error of the mean (SEM). The statistical significance of differences was determined using one-way analysis of variance followed by Bonferroni's post hoc analysis to compare groups. Results were considered significant when P was <0.05.

#### 3. Results

#### 3.1. $\alpha$ -LA lowered blood glucose levels in diabetic mice

Blood glucose levels were significantly increased in diabetic mice compared to control mice (Fig. 1A, P < 0.005), whereas control mice showed normoglycemia throughout the study. However,  $\alpha$ -LA administration significantly reversed these levels compared to those without  $\alpha$ -LA (Fig. 1A, P < 0.01 or P < 0.005). Regarding body weight, diabetic mice showed significant weight loss compared to control mice (Fig. 1B, P < 0.005), whereas  $\alpha$ -LA only marginally changed this loss (Fig. 1B, not significant).

## 3.2. $\alpha$ -LA reduced oxidative stress in diabetic mouse retina and retinal cells exposed to high glucose

To determine the  $\alpha$ -LA's effects on oxidative stress [23], we examined whether  $\alpha$ -LA affected 4-hydroxynonenal (4-HNE), an oxidative stress marker [24,25], and glutathione peroxidase (GPx), an antioxidant enzyme [26], in diabetic mice and retinal cells exposed to high glucose. Indeed, we found that 4-HNE or GPx were significantly increased or decreased, respectively, in diabetic retinas

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