

## Insulin Resistance of Skeletal Muscle was Recovered by Leptin Injection *in vivo*, but not *in vitro*, in High-fat Diet Fed Rats

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We examined the effect of leptin on the insulin resistance in skeletal muscles by measuring the glucose transport. Male Wistar rats were fed with chow or high-fat diets for 30 days. Three days before sacrifice, high-fat fed rats were subcutaneously injected with leptin (1 mg/kg body weight) for 3 days. The glucose transports in the epitrochlearis and soleus muscle were not different among the experimental groups under basal state, however these were decreased significantly in the high fat-diet rats under insulin-stimulation ( $p < 0.01$ ). Leptin treatment recovered the decreased glucose transport in the epitrochlearis ( $p < 0.05$ ) and soleus ( $p = 0.08$ ). Triglyceride concentration in the soleus muscle was increased significantly in the high fat-fed rats, compared to chow diet rats ( $p < 0.01$ ), and it was decreased significantly by leptin treatment ( $p < 0.01$ ). The glucose transport was measured under basal and 60  $\mu$ U/ml of insulin with or without 50 ng/ml of leptin. Leptin had no direct stimulatory effect on glucose transport under both basal and insulin-stimulated conditions *in vitro*. These results demonstrate that leptin injection to high fat diet fed rats recovered impaired insulin responsiveness of the skeletal muscles and muscle triglyceride concentration. However, there was no direct stimulatory effect of leptin on insulin sensitivity of the skeletal muscle *in vitro*.

**Key Words:** Leptin, Glucose transport, Insulin, Skeletal muscle

### INTRODUCTION

Fat is a physiologically important energy store in the body, however its excessive accumulation results in various metabolic disorders such as diabetes, hyperlipidemia, and coronary heart disease. As accumulation of fat increases, the production of leptin, the protein product of the ob gene, increases in fat cells. Most significantly, leptin affects the feeding regulatory center in the hypothalamus, where it binds to the leptin receptor in order to prevent obesity by reducing food intake through the inhibition of secretion of neuropeptide Y and by increasing lipid oxidation through the sympathetic nerve system (Schwartz et al, 1996).

Since leptin receptors have been shown to be expressed in skeletal muscles, fat cells, and pancreatic  $\beta$ -cells as well as the hypothalamus, studies on their physiological significance were vigorously pursued (Tartaglia et al, 1995; Girard, 1997; Siegrist-Kaiser et al, 1997; Houseknecht, 1998; Hickey & Calsbeek, 2001). Although leptin decreases the secretion of insulin in pancreatic  $\beta$ -cells (Timothy et al, 1997; Seufert et al, 1999), it can also increase the insulin sensitivity in the peripheral tissues, when treated for a long period of time (Rouru et al, 1999; Yaspelkis et al, 1999; Malendowicz et al, 2004). It has, therefore, been assumed that such leptin function can possibly cure hyperinsuli-

nemia caused by obesity and insulin resistance. Recently, adipose tissues were reported to be an active endocrine organ that secretes leptin, plasminogen activator inhibitor-1, angiotensinogen, and cytokines, such as tumor necrosis factor- $\alpha$ , interleukin-6 and transforming growth factor- $\beta$ . (Mohamed-Ali et al, 1998). Therefore, fat cells seem to control the peripheral tissues and various metabolic processes through these mediators. It was reported that the principal target tissues of those mediators are mostly skeletal muscles (Tartaglia, 1997), therefore, the metabolic link between adipocytes and skeletal muscles has attracted a great deal of attention. Taking up about 40% of the body weight, skeletal muscles are the nearest to intramuscular adipocyte, so that the mediators secreted from fat cells can act in paracrine form. It is also known that skeletal muscles are the most important organ for metabolic insulin action, since insulin resistance is expressed in high-fat diets fed animals (Rifkin & Porte, 1991). Moreover, since leptin receptors are expressed in skeletal muscles, leptin's function as a mediator for delivering signals from adipose tissues to skeletal muscles is being noticed. In addition to such direct action of leptin on skeletal muscles, it indirectly affects glucose metabolism through the central nervous system or by altering fat metabolism. However, its effectiveness still remains debated. Some reported that the glucose metabolism increases after leptin was administered to a living body (Kamohara et al,

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**ABBREVIATIONS:** 2-DG, 2-[1, 2- $^3$ H]-deoxy-D-glucose; HF, high-fat diet group; HF-L, leptin treated high-fat diet group; TG, triglyceride.

1997; Burcellin et al, 1999; Yaspelkis et al, 2004) or to cells in an incubation medium (Bates et al, 2002), whereas others observed no effect or inhibition in animals (Rossetti et al, 1997; Widdowson et al, 1998) and cells (Sweeney et al, 2001; Tajmir et al, 2003). When treated for a long period of time, however, insulin sensitivity was increased (Rouru et al, 1999; Yaspelkis et al, 1999; Yaspelkis et al, 2004), and glucose metabolism also increased, when injected directly into the ventromedial nucleus of hypothalamus (Minokoshi et al, 1999). However, the direct effects of leptin in skeletal muscles have variously been reported and remains controversial; it increases the glucose metabolism in C2C12 myotubes and skeletal muscles (Berti et al, 1997; Ceddia et al, 1998), and it does not affect the glucose metabolism of skeletal muscles directly (Furnsinn et al, 1998; Ranganathan et al, 1998; Zierath et al, 1998), or it rather inhibits the glucose metabolism of skeletal muscles (Liu et al, 1997). Skeletal muscles use stored glycogen and triglycerides, and glucose comes from oral ingestion as the main source of energy. High-fat diets increase the triglycerides concentration in skeletal muscles (Corbalan et al, 1999), and its excessive accumulation inhibits the glucose metabolism, which in turn causes insulin resistance (Koyama et al, 1997). Leptin stimulates the expression of uncoupling protein-2 in adipocytes (Zhou et al, 1997), decreases the storage of triglycerides in fat cells and liver (Lopez-Soriano et al, 1998), and inhibits the incorporation of free fatty acids into triglycerides in skeletal muscles (Muoio et al, 1999). Such results suggest the possibility of improving the insulin sensitivity by reducing the amount of triglycerides in skeletal muscles.

In this study, the glucose transport of skeletal muscles was examined in order to elucidate leptin's effect on the glucose transport in skeletal muscles. After induction of insulin resistance by high-fat diets, leptin was injected into the peritoneum for 3 days (*in vivo* effect), and also leptin was added to incubation media of skeletal muscles *in vitro* in order to evaluate leptin's direct effect (*in vitro* action). The amount of abdominal fat and the concentration of triglycerides in skeletal muscles were measured in order to examine the mechanism of insulin resistance of skeletal muscles and leptin's effects on them.

## METHODS

### Materials

2-[1,2-<sup>3</sup>H]-deoxy-D-glucose (2-DG) was obtained from American Radiolabeled Chemicals (St. Louis, MO, USA), and D-[1-<sup>14</sup>C]mannitol was from NEN Life Science Products (Boston, MA, USA). Insulin was purchased from Novo Nordisk. All other reagents were obtained from Sigma Chemical (St. Louis, MO, USA).

### Animals

Wistar male rats (~50 g) were used for the study of indirect effect of leptin in high-fat diet groups, and were given rat chow or high-fat diet for 4 weeks (Table 1). Male (~100 g) rats were used for the study of direct effect of leptin.

### Leptin administration

Rats fed the high-fat diet were separated into two groups matched for body weight, after 24 days on the diet. The animals in one group were given daily subcutaneous injection of rat leptin (Research Diagnostics, NJ, USA; 1 mg/kg body weight) between 0900 h and 1,000 h for 3 days before the experiment. The control animals were given daily injections of phosphate buffer.

### Muscle and plasma preparation

Food was removed after 1,800 h the day before the experiment. Rats were anesthetized by an intraperitoneal injection of pentobarbital sodium (50 mg/kg body weight) and blood samples were drawn from the tail vein for measurement of glucose, insulin, triglycerides and leptin concentration, and then the epitrochlearis and soleus muscles were excised. Before incubation, soleus muscle was longitudinally split into strips with an average weight of 20~25 mg.

### Weights of fat-pads

After the muscle dissection was completed, the abdominal cavity was opened, and the epididymal, mesenteric and retroperitoneal fat-pads were excised and weighed.

### Incubations of muscle (effects of insulin)

To allow recovery from the dissection and splitting procedures, muscles were incubated for 30 min at 35°C in a shaking incubator in 2 ml of oxygenated Krebs-Henseleit buffer (KHB) supplemented with 8 mmol/l glucose, 32 mmol/l mannitol, and 0.1% bovine serum albumin (BSA). After the 30 min recovery period, epitrochlearis muscles and soleus strips were incubated for 60 min at 35°C in 2 ml of oxygenated KHB containing 8 mM glucose, 32 mM mannitol, and 0.1% BSA in the presence or absence of maximally effective concentration of insulin (2 mU/ml) before measurement of 2-DG transport activity.

### Measurement of 2-DG transport activity

Glucose transport activity was measured using 2-DG, according to Kim et al. (1999). After incubation with insulin or stimulation of contraction, muscles were incubated for 20 min at 30°C in 2 ml KHB containing 4 mM 2-[1,2-<sup>3</sup>H]-DG (1.5 μCi/ml), 36 mM [<sup>14</sup>C]mannitol (0.2 μCi/ml), 0.1% BSA, and insulin if it was present in the previous incubation. Extracellular space and intracellular concentration of 2-DG (μmol/ml intracellular water/20 min) were determined according to the method of Kim et al (1999).

### Analytical procedures

Plasma glucose concentration was determined, using the glucose oxidase method, by YSI Glucose Analyzer. Plasma insulin and leptin were measured by radioimmuno-assay. Serum triglyceride concentration was measured using a kit obtained from Sigma Chemical (St. Louis, MO, USA). Muscle triglyceride concentration was determined by extracting total lipids from clamp-frozen muscle samples with chloroform-methanol (2 : 1, vol/vol) as described by Folch et al. (1957), separating the chloroform and methanol-water

phases, removing phospholipids and further processing the sample using Frayn and Maycock's (1980) modification of the method of Denton and Randle (1967). Triglycerides were then quantified spectrophotometrically as glycerol using a Sigma enzymatic assay kit (Sigma Chemical, St. Louis, MO, USA).

### Statistical analysis

Values are expressed as means  $\pm$  SE. The significance of difference between two groups was evaluated using Student's *t*-test. For multiple comparisons, a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used. When ANOVA showed significant differences, post-hoc analysis was performed with the Newman-Keuls multiple range test.

## RESULTS

In the high-fat diet group, epididymal, mesenteric, and retroperitoneal fat mass increased significantly, compared with fats in the chow diet group ( $p < 0.01$ ), although there was no significant difference in body weight. Increased fats of the abdominal cavity in the high-fat diet group were decreased significantly by leptin treatment ( $p < 0.05$ ), but they were still significantly higher than those in the chow-diet group ( $p < 0.01$ ) (Table 1). Plasma glucose and triglycerides levels had no significant difference among the groups. Plasma insulin and leptin levels were significantly

**Table 1.** Body weight and regional fat mass (g) in experimental groups

	Chow	HF	HF-L
Body weight			
Feeding state	254.5 $\pm$ 4.71	253.3 $\pm$ 3.50	253.5 $\pm$ 1.74
Fasting state	235.8 $\pm$ 5.12	244.8 $\pm$ 4.13	245.5 $\pm$ 1.44*
Total fat	7.1 $\pm$ 0.84	11.7 $\pm$ 0.54**	9.8 $\pm$ 0.44**#
Epididymal fat	2.2 $\pm$ 0.31	3.3 $\pm$ 0.22**	2.8 $\pm$ 0.18**#
Mesenteric fat	3.1 $\pm$ 0.24	4.1 $\pm$ 0.23**	3.6 $\pm$ 0.13*#
Retroperitoneal fat	1.9 $\pm$ 0.31	4.3 $\pm$ 0.30**	3.4 $\pm$ 0.24**#
<i>n</i>	7	7	8

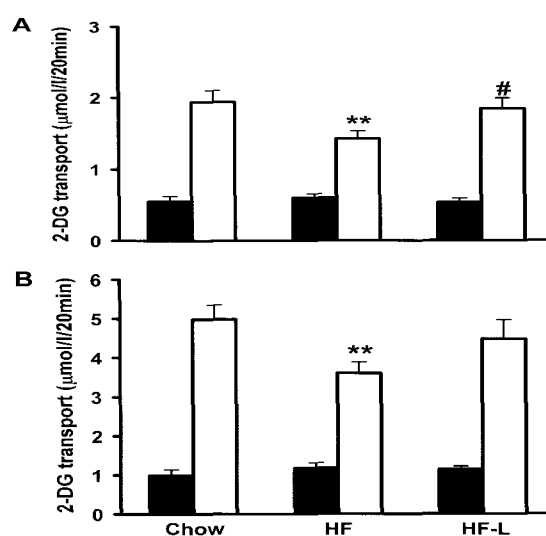
Values are mean  $\pm$  S.E. *n* indicates the number of experimental cases. HF: high-fat diet group, HF-L: leptin treated high-fat diet group. \* $p < 0.05$ , \*\* $p < 0.01$ , vs chow. # $p < 0.05$ , vs HF.

**Table 2.** Plasma concentrations of glucose, insulin, leptin, and triglyceride (TG) in experimental groups

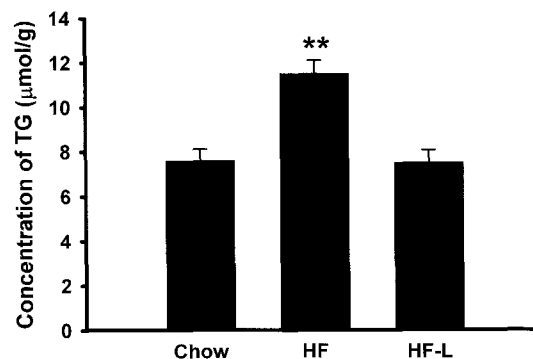
	Chow	HF	HF-L
Glucose (mg/dl)	91.7 $\pm$ 2.6	96.2 $\pm$ 3.6	98.5 $\pm$ 4.6
TG (mg/dl)	59.6 $\pm$ 2.9	63.1 $\pm$ 2.6	60.5 $\pm$ 4.4
Insulin (uU/ml)	9.8 $\pm$ 0.9	17.2 $\pm$ 2.1**	16.9 $\pm$ 3.1**
Leptin (ng/ml)	0.7 $\pm$ 0.1	2.0 $\pm$ 0.2**	1.6 $\pm$ 0.3**
<i>n</i>	7	7	8

Values are mean  $\pm$  S.E. *n* indicates the number of experimental cases. HF: high-fat diet group, HF-L: leptin treated high-fat diet group. \* $p < 0.05$ , \*\* $p < 0.01$ , vs chow.

higher in both the high-fat diet group and the high-fat diet-leptin group ( $p < 0.01$ ) compared with the chow diet group. There was no difference in these levels between the high-fat diet group and the high-fat diet-leptin group (Table 2). The glucose transport ( $\mu\text{mol}/20 \text{ min}$ ) of the epitrochlearis muscle had no significant difference among the groups under the basal state. However, it was significantly lower in the high-fat diet group than in the chow diet group by insulin stimulation ( $1.42 \pm 0.109$  vs  $1.94 \pm 0.163$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ), and significantly higher in the high-fat diet-leptin group than in the high-fat diet group ( $1.85 \pm 0.144$  vs  $1.42 \pm 0.109$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ) (Fig. 1). Also, the glucose transport of the soleus muscle had no significant difference among the groups under the basal state. It was significantly lower in the high-fat diet group than in the chow diet group by insulin stimulation ( $3.61 \pm 0.278$  vs  $4.98 \pm 0.370$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ), but tended to increase in the high-fat diet-leptin group,



**Fig. 1.** 2-Deoxy-glucose (2-DG) uptake in epitrochlearis (A) and soleus (B) muscle in chow, high-fat (HF), and leptin treated high-fat (HF-L) diet rats. Open bars indicate basal state and closed bars indicate insulin (2 mU/ml) stimulated state. \*\* $p < 0.01$  vs chow, # $p < 0.05$  vs HF.



**Fig. 2.** Concentrations of triglyceride (TG) in soleus muscle in chow, high-fat (HF), and leptin treated high-fat (HF-L) diet fed rats. \*\* $p < 0.01$ , vs chow or HF-L.

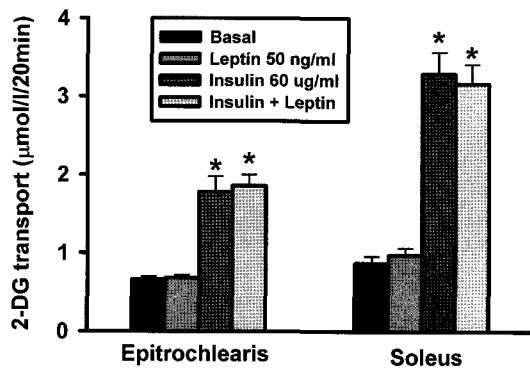


Fig. 3. 2-Deoxy-glucose (2-DG) uptake in epitrochlearis and soleus muscles after incubation with leptin *in vitro* \* $p < 0.01$  vs basal or leptin.

compared with the high-fat diet group ( $4.48 \pm 0.484$  vs  $3.61 \pm 0.278$ ,  $p = 0.08$ ). The concentration of triglyceride in the soleus muscle was significantly higher ( $p < 0.01$ ) in the high-fat diet group ( $11.5 \pm 0.57 \mu\text{mol/g}$ ) than in the chow diet group ( $7.6 \pm 0.49 \mu\text{mol/g}$ ) (Fig. 2). In case of the high-fat diet-leptin group, it was about the same level as the chow diet group, since it was significantly lower ( $7.5 \pm 0.55$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ) than in the high-fat diet group. In order to examine the direct effect of leptin on the glucose transport of skeletal muscles, leptin was added to the incubation medium of muscle tissues, and the rate of glucose transport was measured. The result showed that leptin had no effect on the glucose transport of both epitrochlearis and soleus muscles under the basal state. Also, there was no stimulatory effect on the glucose transport by insulin (Fig. 3).

## DISCUSSION

Rats fed high-fat diets for 30 days had an increased amount of fat in the abdomen without any significant difference in the body weight, compared with rats on chow diets, and had an increased plasma insulin and leptin levels. Fats accumulated by high-fat diets in the abdominal cavity became significantly lower as a result of leptin treatment for 3 days, but were still significantly high, compared with fats in the chow diet group. This result agrees with the report that leptin was considerably effective in reducing the fats in abdominal cavity (Barzilai et al, 1997).

In the high-fat diet group, the fasting plasma glucose was similar to that in the chow diet group. However, the plasma insulin level in the high-fat diet group was about 1.7 times higher than in the chow diet group. This result apparently differs from the reports that leptin directly acts on pancreatic islets or improves the insulin sensitivity (Timothy et al, 1997; Seufert et al, 1999). The plasma leptin level increased about 2.8 times in the high-fat diet group, compared with the chow diet group, however there was no significant difference due to leptin treatment.

Insulin responsiveness of skeletal muscles was evaluated by the rate of glucose transport. It was evident that insulin resistance developed in the high-fat diet group, since the glucose transport by insulin stimulation decreased significantly in both epitrochlearis muscles and soleus muscles

compared with the chow diet group. When leptin was administered to the high-fat diet group for 3 days, the glucose transport of epitrochlearis muscles increased significantly up to the level of the chow-diet group, and it tended to increase also in soleus muscles, thus verifying that insulin responsiveness of skeletal muscles was improved by leptin treatment. This means that leptin can recover insulin resistance of skeletal muscles, in agreement with other reports (Kamohara et al, 1997; Burcellin et al, 1999; Mino-koshi et al, 1999).

In order to know the direct effect of leptin on the insulin responsiveness of skeletal muscles, leptin was added to the incubation medium of epitrochlearis and soleus muscles. Both muscles did not show any increase of the glucose transport under the basal condition as well as with insulin stimulation. This result agrees with the reports that, although leptin receptors were expressed in skeletal muscles, it did not have direct effects on the glucose transport of skeletal muscles (Furnsinn et al, 1998; Ranganathan et al, 1998; Zierath et al, 1998). In other studies (Berti et al, 1997; Ceddia et al, 1998), it was reported that, although leptin could not magnify the function of insulin, leptin itself to a certain degree could act like insulin. However, as opposed to these reports, our result showed that leptin had no effects at all on the glucose transport under the basal condition. In the above two studies, Berti et al (1997) used NIH3T3 and HepG2 cell strains, while Ceddia et al (1998) used albino rats, although the cultivation time of one hour was same. Therefore, the different results could possibly be explained, based on the condition of skeletal muscles or species difference.

Numerous studies (Storlien et al, 1991; Koyama et al, 1997; Pan et al, 1997) indicate that the increase in the triglyceride of skeletal muscles induces insulin resistance. Therefore the triglyceride of soleus muscles was measured in this study in order to examine whether the improved insulin resistance of skeletal muscles by leptin was related with the decreased triglyceride. The triglyceride of soleus muscles increased by 50% in the high-fat diet group compared with the chow diet group, in agreement with the report that verified the increase in the triglyceride of skeletal muscles in rats fed high-fat diets (Corbalan et al, 1999). It was reported that the accumulation of triglyceride in skeletal muscles on high-fat diets was due to excess energy intake and inhibition of the expression of uncoupling protein-2 and 3, which caused the decrease of lipid oxidation (Corbalan et al, 1999; Muoio et al, 1999). After leptin treatment, however, the triglyceride accumulated in skeletal muscles by high-fat diets decreased to the level of the chow diet group. These outcomes are most likely due to leptin's specific effect, since leptin has been shown to increase the expression of uncoupling protein-2 (Zhou et al, 1997), decrease the influx of triglyceride into adipose tissues (Lopez-Soriano et al, 1998), and inhibit the accumulation of fatty acid as triglyceride in skeletal muscles (Muoio et al, 1999). Therefore, the mechanism of the improved insulin sensitivity of skeletal muscles by leptin in this study can be attributed to the effect of leptin in reducing the triglyceride in skeletal muscles.

There are two pathways that leptin directly affect the glucose transport of skeletal muscles. First, it combines with the leptin receptor and participates in the signal transfer process related with the glucose transport. Second, it increases the degree of bonding in the insulin receptor residing in the cell membrane, since leptin causes some

changes in lipid components of the cell membrane (Muio et al, 1997). The former pathway would show the effect after one-hour preincubation executed in the present study, but the latter might need a longer period of action time. Therefore, the result in the present study could not exclude the change of fat component of the cell membrane as the mechanism of increasing the glucose transport of skeletal muscles with leptin dosage into a living body for three days. In order to examine whether leptin actually increases the glucose transport by changing the components of the cell membrane of skeletal muscles, further studies should be carried out to measure the insulin-binding capacity of skeletal muscles and to analyze lipid components of the cell membrane of skeletal muscles.

To sum up the above results, although leptin was effective in decreasing the amount of fat in abdominal cavity and triglyceride in skeletal muscle induced by high-fat diet as well, no direct effect on the skeletal muscles was shown.

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