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A Comprehensive Insight into the Development of Animal Models for Obesity Research Dr. AMIT GOYAL Received: 1 January 2012 Accepted: 21 January 2012 Published: 1 February 2012

6 Abstract

Obesity, a multifactorial, metabolic disorder, involves complex interaction between genetic and
 environmental factors. With an alarming increase in the prevalence of obesity worldwide, it

has become a major health care burden not just in terms of the increased risk of type 2

diabetes, cardiovascular morbidity, cholelithiasis, arthiritis and certain malignancies, but also

in the economic costs to healthcare providers. The great similarity and homology between the

¹² genomes of rodents and humans make these animal models an important tool in unraveling

the mechanisms involved in the etiology, prevention and treatment of obesity. This review

¹⁴ summarizes the various approaches for the induction of obesity in the rodent models via

¹⁵ genetic manipulation, hypercaloric diets and neuroendocrine perturbations.

16

17 Index terms— Obesity; Animal models; Rodents; Hypercaloric diet; Genome.

18 1 INTRODUCTION

besity is a metabolic disorder characterized by an excessive accumulation of fat in the body to a sufficient 19 magnitude which adversely affects the health of an individual. It is a direct consequence of perpetual imbalance 20 between energy intake and expenditure with storage of extra calories in the form of triglycerides in the adipose 21 tissue [1][2]. It is increasing probably, as a consequence of easily available hypercaloric diet and an increasingly 22 sedentary lifestyle. Thus it can be appropriately termed as New World Syndrome or Disease of Civilization 3. In 23 obesity, there is an increase in intake of high fat and high energy food and a decrease in daily energy expenditure 24 25 4. Diet and physical reduce appetite or to inhibit fat absorption 5. However in exercise remain as main stay in obesity management; nonetheless antiobesity drugs may be required either to gastric balloon may be placed to 26 reduce stomach volume and or bowel length, leading to earlier satiation and reduced ability to absorb nutrients 27 from food ??6][7]. 28 Animal models of obesity not only allow us to investigate the basic mechanisms by which food intake is 29

regulated but also act as tool for investigation of mechanism of antiobesity drugs. These models also provide 30 significant insights into the etiology of human obesity consequently aiding in the development of pharmaceuticals 31 for treatment of obesity. The animal models used for study of obesity either have a spontaneous origin or the 32 result of experimental manipulation of the environmental or hypothalamic center that regulate food intake and 33 energy balance or gene expression 8. The rodent models are advantageous also in terms of their size, ease of 34 handling, fast reproduction rate, shorter generation time availability of accurate and reliable metabolic tests 35 2,5,9. This review summarizes the various approaches for induction of obesity in the rodent models via dietary 36 manipulations, genetic interventions or neuroendocrinological perturbations. 37

38 2 II.

39 3 DIET INDUCED MODELS

⁴⁰ Diet induced obesity models are best suited and simplest obesity induction models and possibly the one that ⁴¹ most closely resembles the reality of obesity in humans. Hypercaloric value diets varying between 3.7Kcal/g and

42 5.4Kcal/g have proved effective for induction of obesity 10. The environmental conditions including temperature,

duration of light and dark period, number of animals per cage or the feeding system used for the cages are 43 important to develop these types of models 11. Hence, to minimize the data variability, it is important to 44 control the environmental conditions. Another factor that has to be considered is the age of the animals at which 45 study is conducted. It is most effective to start high fat diet feeding at a young age, but it is also important to 46 take into consideration that the energy balance differs in young compared to older animals. For example rats 47 in their pubertal age rapidly gain lean mass and show completely different metabolic features compared to aged 48 rats, which may in turn be losing lean mass and gaining fat mass. Another important variable is the duration of 49 an obesity producing diet, that is the longer the feeding period, the greater the increment of bodyweight gain and 50 presumably body fat. a) High Fat Diet (HFD) Induced Models O Exposure to HFD results in positive energy 51 balance and obesity in certain rodent models that can be considered an adequate model of human obesity [13][14] 52 The male C57BL/6J mouse is the gold standard for a diet induce obese model. The C57BL/6J mouse develops 53 obesity only when allowed ad libitum access to a high-fat diet whereas on a low-fat diet, C57BL/6J mice remain 54 normal. In comparison to C57BL/6J, other strains such as the A/J mouse or the C57BL/KsJ are relatively 55 resistant to these effects when fed a HFD 15. The adipocyte hypertrophy and hyperplasia are responsible for 56 obese phenotype in the C57BL/6J mouse. The outbred Sprague-Dawley rat is markedly more sensitive to HFD-57 58 induced obesity than other common rat strains. However, when outbred Sprague-Dawley rats are placed on a 59 high-energy diet, only a subset of them overeat and develop diet induced obesity (DIO) whereas others remain 60 lean (diet resistant, DR) [16][17]. The obesity prone subset of rats becomes obese, hyperphagic, hyperleptinemic, hyperinsulinemic, hyperglycemic, and hypertriglyceridemic 17. The obese phenotype results from hyperphagia 61 which is caused by an increase in meal size and increased energy efficiency 18. The DIO rat displays a central 62 resistance to circulating leptin indicating that reduced central leptin signaling may be involved in the etiology 63 of hyperphagia in the obesity proneness. DIO rats exhibit a positive energy balance and a significantly higher 64 respiratory quotient than DR rats, indicating a lower usage of fat as energy substrate. The physiological aspects 65 of this model replicate many of the features observed with the human obesity syndrome: a polygenic mode of 66 inheritance, a persistence of the phenotype once it is established, and dysregulated glucose homeostasis 19. 67

⁶⁸ 4 b) High Fructose Fed Animal Models

Fructose has several adverse metabolic effects, including hypertriglyceridemia, hyperinsulinemia and hypertension
 in rodents and induces moderate obesity 20 .

The abnormalities and the disease progression in fructose fed rats resemble the human condition of metabolic syndrome, and are important risk factors for coronary heart disease. As to the metabolic mechanisms underlying the effects of dietary fructose the general notion is that hepatic intermediary metabolism is more affected by ingestion of fructose than of glucose.

Fructose bypasses the phosphofructokinase regulatory step and enters the pathway of glycolysis or gluconeogenesis at the triose phosphate level, resulting in increased hepatic triglyceride production 21. Recent findings also provide a novel hypothesis: Fructose raises uric acid, which in turn inhibits nitric oxide availability. Since insulin requires nitric oxide to stimulate glucose uptake it can be speculated that fructose-induced hyperuricemia may have a pathogenic role in promoting insulin resistance and metabolic syndrome 22.

⁸⁰ 5 c) Cafeteria Rats

The mixture of palatable commercially available supermarket food can act as a diet to stimulate energy intake in rodents. This diet is known as cafeteria diet, It is the combination of the high fat content with a high carbohydrate content 23. These diets can be implicated in the development of obesity, leading to significant body weight gain, fat deposition and also insulin resistance 24. It has been suggested that rats become more obese with cafeteria diets than with pure high fat diets, indicating a greater hyperphagia arising from the food variety, texture and palatability 25. III. VENTEROMEDIAL HYPOTHALAMIC (VMH) NUCLEUS LESION a) Monosodium Glutamate (MSG)

The ventromedial hypothalamic and arcuate nuclei is considered to be the area which controls the food intake 88 and energy expenditure. The administration of monosodium glutamate to newborn rats is responsible for the 89 destruction of the ventromedial hypothalamic and arcuate nuclei which leads to development of obesity. The 90 subcutaneous or intraperitoneal route can be used for administration of MSG [26][27]. The dose that varies by 91 2-4 g/kg of body weight of the rat for 5 times every other day, during the neonatal period of rat causes obesity 92 [28][29][30][31]. Overeating is not responsible for the obesity in neonatal MSG treated rodents. MSG obesity is 93 associated with high level of corticosteroids 28. The increase in the level of glucocorticoids is due to the chronic 94 exposure of the adrenal gland to high serum levels of leptin, which occurs in rats treated with MSG [32][33]. 95

⁹⁶ 6 b) Electrical VMH Lesion

The Electrical VMH lesion can be used to induce obesity. A bilateral destruction of hypothalamic nuclei, which leads to obesity can be caused by passing a current of 1.2 mA for 4 seconds, repeated thrice at an interval of 30-second each after adjusting the position of electrodes 34. The stereotactic instruments can be used to cause injury with a single electrical current of 2.5 mA for 15 seconds by placing the tip of the rat nose 3.3 mm below the interaural line and positioning the tip of a stainless steel electrode 2.6 mm behind the bregma,

0.5-0.6 mm lateral to the midline and below the base of the brain and raised 0.5mm 35. The irritative theory 102 suggests that the hypothalamic nuclei gets destroyed due to the deposition of iron ions in the hypothalamus 103 with the introduction of electrodes, the ablative theory is of the view that the cause of injury is electric current 104 only. Studies were performed comparing electric injury with radiofrequency (without ion deposition) using the 105 conventional technique and the results obtained were a lower index of obesity using radio frequency. Therefore, 106 both mechanisms are involved in the development of obesity [36][37][38][39]. 107 IV.

108

OVARIECTOMY 7 109

The initial leptin drops by the removal of gonads from female rats, which causes hyperphagia and marked weight 110 gain. Seven weeks after ovariectomy, the leptin levels rise again reaching much higher levels that the preoperative 111 112 ones. It is not known whether this increase is due to resistance to leptin, and could involve hypothalamic receptors 113 [40][41]. More recent studies have tried to find changes in the expression of genes related to energy expenditure in ovariectomized rats to account for weight gain 42. It appears that leptin and estradiol do not regulate themselves 114 directly, because administration of these in intact female rats did not show that it altered either of them, and the 115 reciprocal is true [43][44]. Therefore it is believed that there is a factor responsible for alerting the hypothalamus 116 to the fact that estrogen production has ceased. A few studies speculate on the participation of neuropeptide 117 Y. It appears to serve as a signal to the hypothalamus when the estrogen levels have dropped, since it would be 118 raised after ovariectomy and would remain at the same levels if hormone replacement occurred in the female rats 119 41,45 . 120

V. 121

GENETIC MODELS OF OBESITY 8 122

The genetic models of obesity are very useful and can be easily developed. The use of these models to study 123 obesity increased in the 1990s because of cloning and identification of the product of five different genes causing 124 obesity. Furthermore, it was discovered that by crossing quantitative trait loci (QTL) with known genes, i.e., 125 obese phenotypes vs identified genotype, the influence of quantitative gene loci, and its penetrance in the quantity 126 of body fat and its distribution [46][47]. 127

a) Monogenic Model Of Obesity 9 128

The diabetic (db/db), obese(ob/ob), Tubby (tub), "Agouti" yellow(Ay) and fat (fat) were first five monogenic 129 models of obesity. Over a century ago The "Agouti" rat was described for the first time and it was the first obesity 130 gene to be cloned and characterized at the molecular level in1992. Agouti is expressed in adipose tissue as well 131 as in several other tissues in humans, suggesting that it could be involved in regulating the energy balance. The 132 over expression of agouti in adipose tissue, by genetic modification in rats, results in increased body weight than 133 the non genetically modified ones, without any change in the amount of intake. This suggest that the increase 134 of fatty mass in these rats could be the result of changes in the energy expenditure [46][47]. The gene of the 135 obese rat (ob/ob) was cloned at the end of 1994, followed a year later by cloning the diabetic one (db/db). In 136 experimental studies, it was found that a circulating factor of a normal rat or a db/db rat, when administered 137 in an ob/ob rat, normalized its weight. But when this factor of a normal rat or an ob/ob was placed in a db/db 138 rat, there was no weight change. These results strongly suggested that both genes were from the same metabolic 139 pathway, and that db/db could be an ob/ob receptor, which was later proved. This factor was called leptin, i.e., 140 a hormone produced by the ob/ob gene, that was responsible for communicating with the brain concerning the 141 level of energy stored in adipose tissue in the form of fat [46][47]. 142

b) Polygenic Models of Obesity 10 143

The body weight, adiposity and related metabolic traits shows significant variability in rodents, as with human 144 beings 48 .The high fat diet causes obesity and insulin resistance in inbred C57Bl/6J mice, but this strain remains 145 non obese when fed on chow diet 49 Susceptibility to diet-induced obesity in this strain is polygenic and has 146 147 been associated with hyperphagia and leptin resistance. AKR/J mice are also prone to diet induced obesity, 148 however, unlike C57Bl/6J, AKR/J do not become hyperglycemic on a high-fat diet 50. The SWR/J strain prefers carbohydrates and remains thin on high calorie diets 51 . Similarly, A/J mice are less prone to obesity 149 49. As expected, these obesity-resistant mouse strains are less susceptible to hyperglycemia 49. Obesity prone 150 and resistant rats have also been bred in Sprague-Dawley and Fischer 344 genetic background 52 Together, 151 these models facilitate the study of how diet and other environmental factors affect body weight, adiposity and 152 metabolic disorders 53 . 153

154 **11 VI.**

155 12 TRANSGENIC MODELS OF OBESITY a) Pro-156 Opiomelanocortin and Melanocortin Receptor Knockouts

Adrenocorticotropin (ACTH), ?, ?-and ? melanocyte stimulating hormone (MSH), and the opioid ?-endorphin 157 are the Pro-opiomelanocortin (POMC) February derived peptides. Leptin, a soluble hormone secreted from 158 the adjpocytes, acts on the POMC neurons of the hypothalamic arcuate nucleus [54][55]. The acute anorectic 159 effects of leptin 4 appears due to the activation of POMC neurons and its activation might also be involved in 160 the stimulation of metabolism by leptin 56. Five melanocortin receptors have been cloned (MC1-5R). Two of 161 these receptors (MC3R and MC4R) are expressed in the CNS in regions involved in energy homeostasis. The 162 development of MC3R and MC4R knockouts help us to know the roles of the neurons expressing these receptors 163 as there is no specific melanocortin receptor agonists. Melanocortin-4 receptor knockout (MC4RKO) mice exhibit 164 the same phenotype observed in Ay/a mice, notably obesity, hyperphagia, increased longitudinal growth and in 165 some cases the development of type 2 diabetes [56][57]. Mice in which the Pomc1 gene has been inactivated, 166 exhibit obesity and hyperphagia and mice lacking a functional Mc3r gene also exhibit increased adiposity [58][59] 167 . Y (NPY) is a 36-amino acid peptide neurotransmitter found in the brain. The genetic approaches to the study 168 of the role of NPY in energy homeostasis have included knockouts of the NPY receptor genes Npy1r [60][61] 169 , Npy2r 62, and Npy5r 63. It has been shown that there are at least six receptors for . Surprisingly, for 170 the receptors of an orexigenic all of the NPY receptor knockout mice developed so far exhibit a mild late-onset 171 obesity. The Npy1r knockout mouse exhibited a 27% increase in mature bodyweight in females. The Npy2r 172 knockout mouse exhibited mild late-onset obesity in response to a HFD, th greater sensitivity in the females 63 173 . The Npy5r knockout mouse exhibited mild obesity with increased adiposity and hyperphagia 64. 174

The PPAR are members of the steroid/ thyroid/retinoid receptor superfamily that transactivate a variety of genes involved in the control of lipid metabolism65. The PPAR? isoform is primarily expressed in liver, kidney, heart and skeletal muscle. The development of a mouse line with a disruption of the gene encoding PPAR? has made it possible to determine the role of this receptor in vivo66. PPAR??/? mice develop late-onset obesity.

Estrogens are not just sex hormones, they play an important role in white adipose tissue regulation as estrogen replacement decreases white adipose tissue. ER knockouts exhibit an increase in white adipose tissue and reduced energy expenditure 67. The ER knockout mice have helped to unravel the role of estrogen receptors in obesity 68. Follicle stimulating hormone receptor is expressed on the granulose cells of the developing ovary 69. Follicle stimulating hormone receptor knockouts (FORKO) retards ovarian development and causes chronic estrogen deficiency. Female FORKO develop obesity that is associated with an increased deposition of abdominal fat and that is reversed by estradiol treatment.

136 **VII. ?3-ADRENORECEPTORS**

All three known subtypes of ?-adrenergic receptors (?-ARs) are expressed in adipose tissue; however, the ?3-AR appears to predominate in brown fat in the rodent. Mice lacking expression of the ?3-AR (?3-KO) have normal body weight compared to WT mice, although they do exhibit modest increases in total body fat. Fed insulin and glucose levels and food intake are unchanged in the ?3-KO mice; however, the increase in insulin and metabolic rate and decrease in glucose and food intake in response to a ?3-AR agonist is eliminated. Compensatory mechanisms might operate in the ?3-KO animals to maintain normal energy homeostasis and, in fact, the expression of ?1-AR mRNA is upregulated in brown and white adipose tissue in these mice.

194 **14 VIII.**

195 15 CONCLUSION

As the incidence of obesity is progressing at alarming rate worldwide, there is a great need for relevant 196 experimental models to provide a better understanding of the pathophysiology of this epidemic to facilitate its 197 therapy and prevention. The multifactorial etiology of obesity provides substantial alternatives for induction of 198 obesity in the experimental models. The animal models may be grouped into genetic, dietary and neuroendocrine 199 forms depending on the origin of the obesity. Although the ultimate model for this human malady is man 200 himself; nevertheless these models provide in valuable insight into the physiological mechanisms that control 201 the energy homeostasis. This information further catalysis the future prospective research for identification of 202 potential therapeutic interventions for obesity. The key factor governing the choice of the model may be either 203 environmental or genetic, depending on the characteristics to be targeted for research. 204

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