

Does a brain dysfunction cause diabetes mellitus?

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In diabetes mellitus (DM), elevated levels of blood glucose cause serious damage to many organ systems (cardiac, renal, ophthalmological). In type I diabetes, an attack upon insulin producing cells of the pancreas by cells of the immune system causes a deficiency in insulin secretion. In the absence of insulin, muscle and liver cells fail to remove glucose from the bloodstream. In the more common type of diabetes, type II diabetes, insulin secretion may be normal or even elevated, but liver and muscle cells fail to respond to insulin and do not take up glucose from the bloodstream properly. Type II DM generally arises during middle age and can be regarded as a disorder of aging. The causes of this aging-related insulin resistance and the depressed uptake of glucose into muscle and liver are uncertain (1).

New evidence points to a crucial role of a brain region called the hypothalamus in the development of type II DM. For one thing, a gene called *Dusp8* is linked with an increased risk for type II DM (2). This gene codes for a protein that regulates neuronal signaling in the hypothalamus.

Also, infusions into the hypothalamus of a hormone called leptin normalize blood glucose in diabetic animals (3). This suggests that activation of hypothalamic cells by leptin has a crucial role in maintaining normal levels of blood glucose. Thus, both the endocrine cells of the pancreas AND cells in the hypothalamus appear to have a major influence upon the control of blood glucose.

Hypothalamic neurons likely exert their controlling influence upon blood glucose via projections to neurons of the autonomic nervous system that are found in the spinal cord. Autonomic innervation of liver and muscle cells stimulates an increased uptake of glucose. In diabetic humans, the reactivity of the autonomic nervous system to changes in blood glucose is abnormal (4, 5).

Leptin-sensitive, glucose regulating neurons become resistant to leptin during aging or during exposure to a high-fat diet. These leptin resistant neurons fail to restrain food intake, obesity, and blood glucose. The reasons for this lowered responsiveness to leptin are uncertain and are part of the puzzle of the causes of type II DM (6).

Blood glucose levels can also be normalized in diabetic rodents by a single intrahypothalamic infusion of Fibroblast Growth Factor 1 (FGF1), an effect that persists for months even in severely diabetic animals. This is accomplished by a modulation of the function of accessory brain cells called astrocytes (7, 8).

Which specific astrocytes respond to FGF1, and how is this astrocyte response translated into an altered activity of neural circuits that regulate blood glucose? Hypothalamic astrocytes that produce Fatty Acid Binding Protein 7 (FABP7) are unusually abundant in the area of the hypothalamus containing leptin-sensitive neurons. These astrocytes are in close contact with leptin-sensitive neurons, influence their function, and regulate leptin sensitivity (9, 10, 11). An abnormal function of FABP7+ astrocytes thus may contribute to the leptin resistance that appears during aging and during exposure to high-fat diets. Perhaps FGF1 may normalize hypothalamic function by reversing abnormalities in FABP7+ astrocytes. However, what would provoke an abnormal function of FABP7+ astrocytes during aging and the development of diabetes in the first place?

In fact, likely causes for aging-related abnormality in FABP7+ astrocytes have already been identified. During aging, these cells develop cytoplasmic granules derived from degenerating mitochondria. This mitochondrial degeneration is likely due to the oxidative stress of the heightened amounts of fatty acids that are taken up by these cells and oxidized within mitochondria (12, 13). It seems likely that a pathological degeneration of mitochondria in these cells would compromise their normal functions. Thus, these cells may represent a mechanistic link between aging, high fat diets, and the development of leptin resistance in the hypothalamus.

Astrocytes with these degenerating mitochondria are also unique in that they possess high capacity GLUT2 type glucose transporter proteins (14). These glucose transporters are the same type as those found in glucose-sensing, insulin-producing cells of the pancreas.

Recent data show that astrocytes function as glucose sensors in the brain. Astrocytes, and not neurons, are now known to first respond to changes in tissue levels of glucose; moreover, if astrocyte function is experimentally depressed, neurons no longer respond to glucose (15). These data suggest that FABP7+ astrocytes regulate the responsiveness of hypothalamic neurons to changes in blood glucose. This is another way by which FABP7+ astrocytes may make an important contribution to the hypothalamic control of blood glucose.

Much of this information on astrocytes with damaged mitochondria has been obtained

from studies on experimental animals. However, since the same type of astrocyte has been identified in the same region of the human hypothalamus, it is plausible that these findings can be extended to an understanding of human brain function (16).

In summary, specialized astrocytes in the hypothalamus appear to regulate the function of glucoregulatory neurons. It is possible that the age-related degenerative changes in the mitochondria of these cells may compromise their functions and contribute to the aging-related pathogenesis of type II diabetes mellitus.

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