

Role of microRNA-133 in rats with diabetic cardiovascular complications

Thesis

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List of Contents

	<i>Page No.</i>
Acknowledgment	--
List of abbreviations	I
List of tables	IV
List of figures	V
Introduction	1
Aim of the work	6
Review of literature	7
▪ Diabetes mellitus.....	7
▪ miRNAs	14
▪ Stem cells	23
Material and methods	33
Results	55
Discussion	75
Summary	81
Conclusion	85
Recommendations	86
References	87
Arabic summary	--

List of Abbreviations

<i>ADA</i>	American Diabetes association
<i>AF</i>	Atrial fibrillation
<i>Ago2</i>	Argonaute 2 protein
<i>BM-MSCs</i>	Bone marrow mesenchymal stem cells
<i>CT</i>	Cycle Threshold
<i>CVD</i>	Cardiovascular disease
<i>DEPC</i>	Diethylpyrocarbonate
<i>DHD</i>	Diabetic heart disease
<i>DM</i>	Diabetes Mellitus
<i>DNA</i>	Deoxy Ribonucleic Acid
<i>dNTP</i>	Deoxy Nucleoside Triphosphate
<i>eIF4G</i>	Eukaryotic initiation factor 4G
<i>ELISA</i>	Enzyme Linked Immunosorbent Assay
<i>ERG</i>	Ether related gene
<i>ESC</i>	Embryonic stem cells
<i>FBG</i>	Fasting blood glucose
<i>GDM</i>	Gestational diabetes mellitus
<i>H&E</i>	Hematoxylin and Eosin
<i>HLA</i>	Human leukocyte antigen
<i>HR</i>	Heart rate
<i>HSCs</i>	Hematopoietic stem cells
<i>IDF</i>	International Diabetes Federation
<i>I_{Ks}</i>	Slowly activating delayed rectifier potassium channel
<i>Imp8</i>	Importin 8
<i>IP</i>	Intra peritoneal

List of Abbreviations (Cont.)

<i>iPS</i>	Induced pluripotent stem cells
<i>KCNQ1</i>	Potassium voltage-gated channel subfamily Q member 1
<i>KG</i>	Kilo gram
<i>LQTS</i>	Long QT syndrome
<i>mg/dl</i>	Milligram/deciliter
<i>miRNA</i>	Micro ribonucleic acid
<i>miRNP</i>	microRNA ribonucleoprotein complex
<i>mIU/L</i>	milli International Unit/liter
<i>mmHg</i>	Millimeter mercury
<i>mRNA</i>	Messenger Ribonucleic Acid
<i>MSCs</i>	Mesenchymal stem cells
<i>NK</i>	Natural killer
<i>OGTT</i>	Oral glucose tolerance test
<i>PABP</i>	Poly(A)-binding protein
<i>PACT</i>	Protein activator of protein kinase R
<i>PDAC</i>	Pancreatic ductal adenocarcinoma
<i>PKH26</i>	Fluorescent dye
<i>PTB</i>	Polypyrimidine tract binding
<i>QT</i>	Distance between Q and T waves in ECG
<i>QTc</i>	Corrected QT interval
<i>RISC</i>	RNA-induced silencing complex
<i>RNase</i>	Ribonuclease
<i>ROS</i>	Reactive oxygen species
<i>RQ</i>	Relative Quantification
<i>RT</i>	Reverse Transcription

List of Abbreviations (Cont.)

<i>RT-PCR</i>	Reverse Transcription/ Real time Polymerase Chain Reaction
<i>SCNT</i>	Somatic Cell Nuclear Transfer stem cells
<i>SD</i>	Standard Deviation
<i>SPSS</i>	Statistical package for the social sciences
<i>STZ</i>	Streptozotocin
<i>STZ/MSC</i>	Streptozotocin injection followed by mesenchymal stem cells injection
<i>T1DM</i>	Type 1 diabetes mellitus
<i>T2DM</i>	Type 2 diabetes mellitus
<i>Taq DNA</i>	Thermus Aquatica Deoxy Ribonucleic Acid
<i>T_m</i>	Melting Temperature
<i>TRBP</i>	Trans-activator RNA-binding protein
<i>UTRs</i>	Untranslated regions
<i>X</i>	Concentration Power
<i>ΔCT</i>	Delta Cycle Threshold
<i>μg/ml</i>	Microgram/Millilitre

List of Tables

<i>Table</i>	<i>Title</i>	<i>Page</i>
1	The American Diabetes association (ADA) recommendation for diagnosis of diabetes mellitus.	12
2	Components of RT master mix.	46
3	Real time PCR master mix.	52
4	Comparison of body weight between the three studied groups.	55
5	Comparison of fasting blood glucose between the three studied groups.	56
6	Comparison of serum insulin levels between the three studied groups.	57
7	Cardiovascular parameters in the three studied groups.	58
8	Comparison of miR-133 relative expression level in the pancreatic tissues of three studied groups.	61
9	Comparison of miR-133 relative expression level in cardiac tissues of three studied groups.	62
10	Correlation between relative quantifications (RQs) analysis of miR-133 expression in pancreas and heart.	64
11	Correlation between relative quantifications (RQs) analysis of miR-133 expression in pancreas and other measured parameters.	64
12	Correlation between relative quantifications (RQs) analysis of miR-133 expression in heart and other measured parameters.	65

List of Figures

<i>Fig.</i>	<i>Title</i>	<i>Page</i>
1	miRNA biogenesis.	16
2	Classification of stem cells.	23
3	A schematic model demonstrating the biological properties of MSCs in cell therapy of T1DM.	32
4	Procedure for measurement rats' serum insulin.	39
5	Insulin standard curve.	40
6	Reverse transcription of miRNA into cDNA	45
7	miRNA detection by SYBR green PCR kit.	48
8	Melting curve analysis.	51
9	Location of cycle threshold.	53
10	Comparison of body weight in the three studied groups.	55
11	Box plot of fasting blood glucose in the three studied groups.	56
12	Comparison of serum insulin levels in the three studied groups.	57
13	Comparison of blood pressure in the three studied groups.	58
14	Comparison of the heart rate (HR) in the three studied groups.	59
15	Comparison of the corrected QT (QTc) interval in the three studied groups.	59

List of Figures

<i>Fig.</i>	<i>Title</i>	<i>Page</i>
16	Electrocardiogram showing corrected QT interval (QTc) in three studied groups.	60
17	Box plot of the miRNA-133 expression levels in pancreas tissues of the three studied groups.	61
18	Box plot of the miRNA-133 expression levels in the cardiac tissues of the three studied groups.	62
19	A representative real time PCR amplification plot miRNA-133 and SNORD (endogenous control) expression.	63
20	Melting curve for miR-133 and SNORD (endogenous control) in tissue samples.	63
21	Photomicrographs of a pancreatic tissue sections from control group.	66
22	Photomicrographs of a pancreatic tissue sections from diabetic (STZ) group.	68
23	Photomicrographs of a pancreatic tissue sections from stem cell treated diabetic (STZ/MSC) group.	69
24	Pancreatic tissue specimens of stem cell treated group with BM labeled stem cells by fluorescent microscope.	70
25	Photomicrograph of a cardiac tissue section from control group.	71

List of Figures

<i>Fig.</i>	<i>Title</i>	<i>Page</i>
26	Photomicrographs of a cardiac tissue sections from diabetic (STZ) group.	72
27	Photomicrographs of a cardiac tissue sections from stem cell treated diabetic (STZ/MSC) group.	73
28	Cardiac tissue specimen of stem cell treated group with BM labeled stem cells by fluorescent microscope.	74

Role of microRNA-133 in rats with diabetic cardiovascular complications

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ABSTRACT

Background: Diabetes is one of the most health problem globally with a serious impact on morbidity, mortality & health care resources.

Cardiovascular diseases are the leading cause of death in individuals with type 1 diabetes.

Aim: The purpose of this study was to evaluate the miRNA-133a expression in cardiac tissues of the diabetic rats and its relation to the cardiovascular complications.

Methods: 20 male albino rats divided into Group I (control) and group II (diabetic)

10 rats in each. Rats were made diabetic by intraperitoneal injection of streptozotocin (35mg/kg body weight). Physiological cardiovascular functions were assessed. Blood and cardiac tissue samples were taken from all rats for biochemical and histological studies. Quantitative RT-PCR for miRNA-133 expression in cardiac tissues was performed

Results: miR-133 expression was significantly increased in cardiac tissues of diabetic rats compared to control rats and was correlated to fasting blood glucose levels.

Conclusion: the present study suggests that there is a complex relationship between miR-133 expression and the cardiac functions in diabetic rats which needs more exploration.

Keywords: diabetes mellitus • cardiovascular complications• miR-133 expression

Introduction

Diabetes mellitus (DM) is one of the top 10 leading causes of morbidity and mortality, affecting nearly 350 million people worldwide (*Xi and Bu, 2014*). Diabetes is a serious condition with potentially devastating complications that affects all age groups worldwide (*International Diabetes Federation, 2013*). The prevalence of diabetes, has been increasing at alarming rates all over the world and is estimated to rise to 552 million adults by 2030 (*Chen et al., 2011, Whiting et al., 2011*). The associated increase in mortality and morbidity makes it one of the major health and socio-economic problems in our society (*Chen et al., 2011, Moura et al., 2013*).

Type 1 diabetes mellitus (T1DM) is a chronic disease in which pancreatic β cells are destroyed by self-autoimmune attack (*Wu et al., 2014*). It is a complex multifactorial disorder which involves a loss of self-tolerance leading to the autoimmune destruction of pancreatic β -cells (*Ezquer et al., 2014*). Clinical studies showed that transplantation of islets is a sufficient cure for aiding patient to relieve from diabetes-related symptoms. However, the lack of applicable donor cells limits the treatment (*Wu et al., 2014*). The scientific community and diabetic patients are thus, still waiting for an effective therapy which could preserve the remaining β -cells, replenish islet mass and protect newly generated β -cells from auto-immune destruction (*Ezquer et al., 2014*).

Diabetic heart disease (DHD) is the leading cause of morbidity and mortality among people with diabetes, being

responsible for approximately 80% of the deaths in diabetics (*Rawal et al., 2014*). Importantly, cardiovascular complications in the diabetics develop at a much earlier stage, although remaining asymptomatic till the later stage of the disease, thereby restricting its early detection and active therapeutic management (*Katare et al., 2010*). Thus, a better understanding of the modulators involved in the pathophysiology of DHD is necessary for the early diagnosis and development of novel therapeutic implications for diabetes-associated cardiovascular complications (*Rawal et al., 2014*).

Kv7.1 is a potassium channel causing a voltage gated repolarization current. It is encoded by KCNQ1 and expressed both in β -cells (*Rosengren et al., 2012*) and in cardiomyocytes (*Moss et al., 2007*).

Many studies reported that functional mutations, or down-regulation of KCNQ1 lead to long QT syndrome (LQTS) which is associated with prolonged ventricular repolarization predisposes to life-threatening arrhythmias. However, the clinical and physiological significance of functional KCNQ1 mutations in β -cells of pancreas is still unknown (*Torekov et al., 2014*).

MicroRNAs (miRNAs) are small (~ 22 nucleotides) noncoding RNAs which post-transcriptionally regulate gene expression by binding complementary sequences within messenger RNAs (mRNAs). The human genome encodes over 1800 miRNAs, which target about 60% of human genes (*Hedley et al., 2014*).

MicroRNAs participate in many essential biological processes, such as cell proliferation, differentiation, apoptosis and stress (*Mathieu and Ruohola-Baker, 2013*). They are novel regulators involved in cardiac physiology and pathophysiology, including the regulation of cardiac physiological function and participation in the genesis of cardiac diseases. Many recent studies suggest that miRNAs play a crucial role in the pathogenesis of diabetes and many cardiovascular complications by regulating the expression of multiple genes (*Zampetaki et al., 2010, Cardin et al., 2012*).

It was found that miR-133a -induced by hyperglycemia- leads to suppression of insulin biosynthesis. miR-133a decreased polypyrimidine tract binding protein expression which is required for stabilization of insulin mRNA, leading to decrease insulin secretion. This may contribute as one of the mechanisms by which hyperglycemia causes beta-cell dysfunction (*Fred et al., 2010*).

MiR-133a is the most abundant miRNAs in the heart and has been reported to regulate cardiac ion channels (*Hedley et al., 2014*). It is selectively expressed in heart and have been used as early markers of cardiac tissue damage (*Chen et al., 2014*). The three forms of miR-133 (namely: miR-133a-1, miR-133a-2 and miR-133b) are expressed in cardiac muscles (*Topkara and Mann, 2011*). Several studies have demonstrated the important role of miR-133 in various cardiovascular diseases. However, their exact role in DHD is still unrecognized (*Rawal et al., 2014*).