# **Original Article**

# Streptozotocin Induced Acute Clinical Effects in Rabbits (*Oryctolagus cuniculus*)

# Masood Saleem Mir<sup>\*</sup>, Mohammad Maqbool Darzi, Omer Khalil Baba, Hilal Musadiq Khan, Shayaib Ahmad Kamil, Asif Hassan Sofi and Sarfraz Ahmad Wani

Division of Veterinary Pathology, F.V.Sc. & A.H, Sher-e-Kashmir University of Agricultural Sciences and Technology of Kashmir, Kashmir (J&K), India

# ABSTRACT

*Background & Objectives:* Streptozotocin (STZ) is used for induction of Type-1 diabetes mellitus in animal models. Its beta-cytotoxic action results in sudden release of insulin leading to severe hypoglycaemia and even mortality. However, its sensitivity varies with species. Present investigation was aimed at studying STZ induced acute clinical effects in rabbits.

*Methods:* Streptozotocin @ 65 mg/kg b.w. was administered to thirteen New Zealand White rabbits, 1-1.5 kg body weight, as single intravenous dose in 1mL citrate buffer, pH 4.6. Blood glucose levels were recorded before drug administration and then at 20 min, 1h, and hourly up to 9 hours post-treatment followed by intravenous and oral glucose therapy. Clinical signs were noted.

*Results:* STZ caused immediate hyperglycaemia up to 4 hours, and then progressively severe hypoglycaemia up to 9 hours. Hypoglycaemia caused characteristic behavioural alterations including lethargy, dullness, sitting quietly but appearing alert, followed by aesthesia and then muscular weakness with characteristic postural changes starting from drooping of head and torticollis, Rabbits recovered following glucose therapy. Marked individual variations in response vis-a-vis onset and severity of glycaemic changes were observed.

*Conclusion:* STZ induced a characteristic multiphasic immediate response in rabbits similar to one reported in other rodents. Behavioural changes were characteristic of hypoglycaemia warranting early management in order to avoid fatalities.

Key words: Signs And Symptoms, Experimental Model, Rabbits, Streptozotocin

Email: masoodmir1@gmail.com

Recieved: 10 February 2014

Accepted: 27 June 2014

Address Communications to:

Dr. Masood Saleem Mir, Associate Professor-cum-Senior Scientist, Division of Veterinary Pathology, F.V.Sc. & A.H, Shere-Kashmir University of Agricultural Sciences and Technology of Kashmir, Shuhama, Alusteng-190 006, Kashmir (J&K) India.

#### Introduction

treptozotocin (STZ) is an N-methyl-Nnitrosoureido D-glucosamine derivative originally isolated from *Streptomyces* achromogenes (1). It is selectively beta-cytotoxic (2, 3) and is being widely used for development of experimental models of type 1 diabetes mellitus (T1DM) and type 2 diabetes mellitus (T2DM) (4). Streptozotocin has been reported to be more specific and safe when compared with alloxan with broader dose range and longer half-life (15 min). The STZ induced diabetic rodent models, are characterized by sustained hyperglycaemia for longer duration and developing wellcharacterized diabetic complications with fewer incidences of ketosis and reduced mortality (4, 5). "However, its sensitivity has been reported to vary with species, strain, sex and nutritional state" (4). In addition, batch differences in activity have been reported (5, 6). It is frequently used for development of rat and mice models of diabetes mellitus (7, 8) and its action has been well characterized in these species (2).

Many species like guinea pigs (9) and marmoset (6) have been reported to be less sensitive, while cats (10) and human pancreatic beta cells (11) are resistant to the diabetogenic action of STZ. Although, STZ-diabetic rabbit models have been used especially for screening of hypoglycaemic drugs (12), early changes in this species have not been studied.

The present investigation was aimed at studying STZ induced acute clinical effects in rabbits.

# **Materials and Methods**

A total of 13 New Zealand white rabbits of three months age and weighing about 1 to 1.5 kg were utilized in the study. Rabbits were maintained under standard conditions in cage system and acclimatized for a period of 7 days prior to the commencement of the experiment. Commercially procured rabbit feed and greens were given twice a day (morning and evening) ad libitum.

The experimental protocols were approved by the Institutional Animal Ethics Committee, Faculty of Veterinary Sciences and Animal Husbandry, SKUAST-K vide No. AU/FVS/Estt/C-09/7983-88 dated 19-01-2010 and conforms to the guidelines for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals.

Streptozotocin (Sigma-Aldrich) was used at the dose rate of 65 mg/kg body weight, based on available literature. Solution of the calculated dose for each animal was prepared in 1mL freshly prepared citrate buffer pH 4.6 (100 mM citric acid and 100 mM sodium citrate) immediately before use. Rabbits were fasted for 18 hours followed by administration of single, slow intravenous injection of STZ through ear vein using insulin syringe.

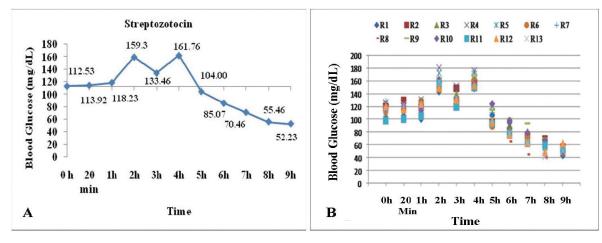
Rabbits were monitored for clinical signs including changes in behavior, appearance, activity, water/feed intake, urination/defecation or any other deviation. The blood glucose levels were recorded before treatment (0h) and after STZ administration at 20 min, 1h, and then up to 9h at hourly intervals. Blood samples were collected from central auricular artery using insulin syringe and three drop of blood immediately transferred on a clean and dry glass slide for blood glucose estimation using glucometer (Accu-Chek, Roche diagnostics India Pvt. Ltd., Mumbai). Mean of the three readings was recorded as blood glucose level for the sample. At the end of the experiment (9 h), rabbits were given 5 ml of 25% dextrose intraperitoneally, and 10% glucose in drinking water up to 24 hours post-treatment (4).

The data were analyzed by one-way ANOVA using SPSS software and values expresses as mean  $\pm$  SE.

#### Results

The mean fasting blood glucose (FBG) level was  $112.53 \pm 3.022 \text{ mg/dL}$  (97 to 128 mg/dL). At 20 min and 1 h following administration of STZ, mean blood glucose levels were  $113.92 \pm 2.615 \text{ mg/dL}$  (100 to 130 mg/dL) and  $118.23 \pm 2.757 \text{ mg/dL}$  (100 to 130 mg/dL), respectively. The values did not differ significantly from the fasting value. The value at 2 h was significantly ( $P \le 0.05$ ) higher,  $159.30 \pm 2.744 \text{ mg/dL}$  (143 to 180 mg/dL), followed by a significant ( $P \le 0.05$ ) decline at 3 h,  $133.40 \pm 2.484 \text{ mg/dL}$  (120 to 152 mg/dL), compared to that at 2 h, but was

then again higher at 4 h,  $161.76 \pm 2.511 \text{ mg/}$  dL (148 to 176 mg/dL). All these values were significantly ( $P \le 0.05$ ) higher when compared with initial FBG levels. From 5 h post-treatment the blood glucose levels decreased progressively and significantly ( $P \le 0.05$ ). The mean values at 5, 6, 7, 8, and 9 h were 104.00  $\pm$  3.069 mg/dL (89 to 124 mg/dl), 85.07  $\pm$  2.973 mg/dL (65 to 100 mg/dL), 70.46  $\pm$  3.241 mg/dL (45 to 93 mg/dL), 55.46  $\pm$  3.026 mg/dL (40 to 70 mg/dL) and 52.23  $\pm$  1.485 mg/dL (43 to 62 mg/dL) respectively, which at any point were significantly ( $P \le 0.05$ ) lower (Fig. 1).



**Fig.1:** General (A) and individual (B) trend of immediate changes in blood glucose levels of rabbits following administration of single intravenous dose of streptozotocin @ 65 mg/kg b.w

The rabbits were normal up to first five hours. Mild hyperaesthesia was noted at 5 to 6 h followed by decreased activity characterized by lethargy and dullness. At this stage, blood glucose levels ranged from 70 to 90 mg/dL. Later rabbits appeared more apprehensive with upright ears, and dashed away when approached or touched (Fig. 2). At this stage blood glucose ranged from 50 to 70 mg/dL. At 9 h post-treatment rabbits showed signs of muscular weakness, sitting quietly with their head turned slightly to one side (Fig. 3). After intravenous glucose therapy rabbits showed rapid recovery and the signs disappeared completely after 24 hours post-treatment.



**Fig.2:** Rabbit following administration of single intravenous dose of streptozotocin @65 mg/kg-body weight (bw) appearing apprehensive with upright ears



**Fig.3:** Rabbit following administration of single intravenous dose of streptozotocin @65 mg/kg-body weight (bw) sitting quietly with their head turned slightly to one side

## Discussion

STZ administered to rabbits @ 65 mg/kg-body weight (bw) as single intravenous dose caused immediate hyperglycaemia followed by sustained hypoglycaemia warranting glucose therapy by 9 h. Similar pattern of early changes in glucose levels following administration of diabetogenic doses of STZ have been reported in rats (13). In rats, hyperglycaemia with a concomitant drop in blood insulin has been reported two hours after STZ injection followed by hypoglycemia with high levels of blood insulin about six hours later. In the present study although, rabbits showed individual variation, hyperglycaemia was noted 2-4 hours post-STZ administration with a slight dip at 3 hours post-treatment. After 4 h posttreatment, progressive decrease in blood glucose levels was recorded with overt hypoglycaemia appearing at 7 hours post treatment.

The early hyperglycaemic response may be ascribed to STZ induced impaired glucose oxidation (14) causing depletion of NAD<sup>+</sup> which results in an inhibition of insulin biosynthesis and secretion (15). STZ, following uptake into  $\beta$ -cells via GLUT2 receptors (16), causes dysfunction of mitochondrial enzymes (17) and damage to the mitochondrial genome (18) abolishing insulin

secretion response of  $\beta$ -cell to glucose and amino acids (19). STZ methylates proteins (20), which contributes to the functional defects of the  $\beta$ -cells after exposure to STZ.

Hypoglycaemia observed after the initial hyperglycaemia may be ascribed to temporary returnof\beta-cellresponsivenesstoglucose, followed by STZ induced beta-cytolysis (21). STZ causes DNA alkylation (16), protein glycosylation (22), and produce RNS and ROS (23, 24), resulting in beta-cytotoxicity and apoptosis (25, 26). The hyperglycaemia induced insulin secretion by β-cells as well as release of insulin following beta-cytolysis results in hyperinsulinaemia. The negative paracrine effects of high insulin levels within the islet on  $\alpha$ -cells (27, 28) associated with hyperinsulinaemia induced CNS mediated negative regulation of glucagon, epinephrine, norepinephrine and cortisol (29, 30) results in the progressive and marked hypoglycaemia following the transient hyperglycaemic state. In addition, insulin acts on the hypothalamus to regulate hepatic glucose production (31) further favoring development of hypoglycaemia (4).

All rabbits showed similar pattern of glucose response albeit individual variation in degree of response was noted. Individual difference in glycaemic response in rabbits has also been observed following alloxan induced betacytolysis (32). The blood glucose levels observed in different rabbits at any point in time from 5 hours post-treatment revealed a wider range. This may partly be attributed to the fact that rabbits of either sex were used. Difference concerning STZ induced ROS production in male and female has been reported in mice (33).

The nature and progression clinical signs corresponded to the degree of hypoglycaemia (32). High sensitivity to altered glycaemic status has been noted among normoglycaemic human subjects. Suppression of endogenous insulin secretion has been noted when blood

#### 210 Streptozotocin Induced Acute Clinical Effects in...

glucose levels fall below 80 mg/dL whereas the levels below 70 mg/dL induce glucagon and epinephrine secretion (29, 32). In case of STZ induced hypoglycaemia, insulin is principally released following bata-cell lysis (2) and hence feedback response is compromised. This may be further accentuated by GLUT2 mediated direct hepatotoxic and nephrotoxic effects of STZ (7, 34, 35) leading to progressive hypoglycaemia. The individual variations observed in the degree and progression of hypoglycaemia may be attributed partially to the inherent differences in anti-oxidant levels and counter-regulatory process (32).

The progression behavioral changes were consistent with the glycaemic status reflecting progressive hypoglycaemia, in congruence with the observations in human, rabbits and other animals (29, 32, 36, 37). Hypoglycemiaassociated social withdrawal and anhedonia in mice have been observed to be dependent on catecholamines(norepinephrineandepinephrine), in an adrenergic receptor-mediated manner (36). The signs noted in rabbits may be ascribed to neuroglycopaenia, evolving as a direct result of CNS neuronal glucose deprivation (32, 38, 39) causing impairment of several psychomotor functions (40). The sensitivity of CNS to glycaemic changes may be ascribed to its limited glycogen stores, inability to synthesize glucose and CNS glucose levels below that in systemic circulation albeit constant energy requirements (32). During hypoglycaemia, glucose levels in brain interstitial fluid may fall as low as ~25% of plasma glucose levels (41) that may be critical in the areas of brain with increased activity (29). The observed progressive muscular weakness may be attributed to development of hypoglycaemic state. This is further supported by the fact that intravenous infusion of dextrose resulted in prompt recovery (32). Hypoglycaemia causes sympathetic activation stimulating release of epinephrine which increases peripheral muscle insulin resistance through decreased intrinsic activity of GLUT4 glucose transporters at the cell membrane (42) and increased muscle glycogenolysis and intracellular glucose-6phosphate, which inhibits cellular glucose transport (43) despite marked increase in blood flow and decreased vascular resistance (44). The exhaustion of the reserves might lead to progressive development of fatigue. However, the immediate positive response to glucose therapy is suggestive of hypoglycaemia induced-CNS mediated fatigue (32). Immediate recovery from hypoglycaemic fatigue has been reported following intravenous administration of glucose (32, 45).

# Conclusion

STZ induced a characteristic multiphasic immediate response in rabbits similar to one reported in other rodents. Behavioral changes were characteristic of hypoglycaemia warranting early management in order to avoid fatalities. In addition, marked individual variations in response exist in terms of onset and severity of glycaemic changes. As such, for undertaking any such studies using rabbit models, sex of the subjects should be defined.

#### Acknowledgment

The author would like to acknowledge staff members of the laboratory and animal house for their assistance. Financial support was obtained from Directorate of Research SKUAST-K.

# **Conflict of interest**

All authors declare that there is no conflict of interests.

#### References

1. Weiss RB. Streptozocin: a review of its pharmacology, efficacy, and toxicity. Cancer Treat Rep 1982; 66(3):427-

#### 38.

2. Szkudelski T. The mechanism of alloxan and streptozotocin action in  $\beta$ -cells of the rat pancreas. Physiol Res 2001; 50(6):537-46.

3. Lenzen S. The mechanisms of alloxan- and streptozotocin-induced diabetes. Diabetologia 2008; 51(2):216-26

4. Mir MS, Darzi MM, Khan HM, Kamil SA, Sofi AH, Wani SA. Pre-diabetic clinical changes induced by low doses of alloxan-streptozotocin cocktail in rabbits. Iran J Pathol 2014; 9 (2):107-112

5. Srinivasan K, Ramarao P. Animal models in type 2 diabetes research: An overview. Indian J Med Res 2007; 125(3):451-72

6. Kramer J, Moeller EL, Hachey A, Mansfield KG, Wachtman LM. Differential expression of GLUT2 in pancreatic islets and kidneys of New and Old World nonhuman primates. Am J Physiol- Regul Integrat Compar Physiol 2009; 296(3): R786–R793.

7. Lei YC, Hwang JS, Chan CC, Lee CT, Cheng TJ. Enhanced oxidative stress and endothelial dysfunction in streptozotocin-diabetic rats exposed to fine particles. Environ Res 2005; 99(3):335-43

8. Patel R, Shervington A, Pariente JA, Martinez-Burgos MA, Salido GM, Adeghate E, Singh J. Mechanism of exocrine pancreatic insufficiency in streptozotocininduced type 1 diabetes mellitus. Ann NY Acad Sci 2006; 1084: 71–88.

9. Losert W, Rilke A, Loge O, Richter KD. Vergleichende biochemische untersuchungen uber die diabetogene wirkung von streptozotocin bei mausen, ratten, chinesischen streifen-hamstern und meerschweinchen. Arzneim Forsch 1971; 21(11):1643-53

10. Hatchell DL, Reiser HJ, Bresnahan JF, Withworth UG. Resitence of cats to the diabetogenic effect of alloxan. Lab Anim Sci 1986; 36(1):37-40.

11. Yang H, Wright JR. Jr. Human beta cells are exceedingly resistant to streptozotocin in vivo. Endocrinol 2002; 143(7): 2491-95.

12. Sharma SB, Nasir A, Prabhu KM, Murthy PS. Antihyperglycemic effect of the fruit-pulp of Eugenia jambolana in experimental diabetes mellitus. J Ethnopharmacol 2006; 104(3):367-73

13. West E, Simon OR, Morrison EY. Streptozotocin alters pancreatic beta-cell responsiveness to glucose within six hours of injection into rats. West Indian Med J 1996; 45(2):60-2.

14. Bedoya FJ, Solano F, Lucas M. N-monomethylarginine and nicotinamide prevent streptozotocininduced double strand DNA break formation in pancreatic rat islets. Experientia 1996; 52(4):344-7.

15. Nukatsuka M, Yoshimura Y, Nishida M, Kawada J. Importance of the concentration of ATP in rat pancreatic beta cells in the mechanism of streptozotocin-induced cytotoxicity. J Endocrinol 1990; 127(1):161-5.

16. Elsner M, Guldbakke B, Tiedge M, Munday R, Lenzen S. Relative importance of transport and alkylation for pancreatic beta-cell toxicity of streptozotocin. Diabetologia 2000; 43(12):1528-33.

17. Rasschaert J, Eizirik DL, Malaisse WJ. Long term in vitro effects of streptozotocin, interleukin-1, and high glucose concentration on the activity of mitochondrial dehydrogenases and the secretion of insulin in pancreatic islets. Endocrinol 1992; 130(6):3522-8.

18. Eizirik DL, Sandler S, Ahnström G, Welsh M. Exposure of pancreatic islets to different alkylating agents decreases mitochondrial DNA content but only streptozotocin induces long-lasting functional impairment of B-cells. Biochem Pharmacol 1991; 42(12):2275-82.

19. Eizirik DL, Sandler S, Welsh N, Hellerstorm C. Defective catabolism of D-glucose and L-glutamine in mouse pancreatic islets maintained in culture after streptozotocin exposure. Endocrinol 1988; 123: 123(2):1001-7.

20. Wilson GL, Hartig PC, Patton NJ, LeDoux SP. Mechanisms of nitrosourea-induced beta-cell damage. Activation of poly (ADP-ribose) synthetase and cellular distribution. Diabetes 1988; 37(2):213-6.

21. Mythili MD, Vyas R, Akila G, Gunasekaran S. Effect of streptozotocin on the ultrastructure of rat pancreatic islets. Microscopy Res Tech 2004; 63(5):274-81.

22. Konrad RJ, Kudlow JE. The role of O-linked protein glycosylation in beta-cell dysfunction. Int J Mol Med

#### 212 Streptozotocin Induced Acute Clinical Effects in...

2002; 10(5):535-9.

23. Nukatsuka M, Yoshimura Y, Nishida M, Kawada J. Allopurinol protects pancreatic beta cells from the cytotoxic effect of streptozotocin: in vitro study. J Pharmacobiodyn 1990; 13(4):259-62.

24. Turk J, Corbett JA, Ramanadham S, Bohrer A, McDaniel ML. Biochemical evidence for nitric oxide formation from streptozotocin in isolated pancreatic islets. Biochem Biophys Res Commun 1993; 197(3):1458-64.

25. Slawson C, Zachara NE, Vosseller K, Cheung WD, Lane MD, Hart GW. Perturbations in O-linked  $\beta$ -Nacetylglucosamine protein modification cause severe defects in mitotic progression and cytokinesis. J Biol Chem 2005; 280(38):32944-56.

26. Pathak S, Dorfmueller HC, Borodkin VS, van Aalten DMF. Chemical dissection of the link between streptozotocin, O-GlcNAc, and pancreatic cell death. Chem Biol 2008; 15(8): 799–807.

27. Banarer S, McGregor VP, Cryer PE. Intraislet hyperinsulinemia prevents the glucagon response to hypoglycemia despite an intact autonomic response. Diabetes 2002; 51(4):958-65.

28. Meier JJ, Kjems LL, Veldhuis JD, Lefèbvre P, Butler PC. Postprandial suppression of glucagon secretion depends on intact pulsatile insulin secretion: further evidence for the intraislet insulin hypothesis. Diabetes 2006; 55(4):1051-6.

29. Sherwin RS. Bringing light to the dark side of insulin: A journey across the blood-brain barrier. Diabetes 2008; 57(9):2259-68

30. Paranjape SA, Chan O, Zhu1 W, Horblitt AM, McNay EC, Cresswell JA, et al. Influence of insulin in the ventromedial hypothalamus on pancreatic glucagon secretion in vivo. Diabetes 2010; 59(6):1521-7.

31. Obici S, Zhang BB, Karkanias G, Rossetti L. Hypothalamic insulin signaling is required for inhibition of glucose production. Nat Med 2002; 8(12):1376-82.

32. Mir MS, Darzi MM, Baba OK, Khan HM, Kamil SA, Sofi AH, et al. Alloxan induced glycaemic changes vis-à-vis clinical pattern of acute hyperinsulinaemic hypoglycaemia in rabbits. SKUAST J Res 2013; 15

#### (1):41-51

33. Friesen NT, Buchau AS, Schott-Ohly P, Lgssiar A, Gleichmann H. Generation of hydrogen peroxide and failure of antioxidative responses in pancreatic islets of male C57BL/6 mice are associated with diabetes induced by multiple low doses of streptozotocin. Diabetologia 2004; 47(4):676-85.

34. Uldry M, Thorens B. The SLC2 family of facilitated hexose and polyol transporters. Pflugers Archiv 2004; 447(5): 480-89.

35. Valentovic MA, Alejandro N, Betts Carpenter A, Brown PI, Ramos K. Streptozotocin (STZ) diabetes enhances benzo(alpha)pyrene induced renal injury in Sprague Dawley rats. Toxicol Lett 2006; 164(3): 214– 20.

36. Park MJ. Neuroendocrine mechanisms of behavioral changes induced by hypoglycemia. PhD Dissertation submitted to University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign, 2008.

37. Lin YY, Hsu CW, Sheu WHH, Chu SJ, Wu CP, Tsai SH. Risk factors for recurrent hypoglycemia in hospitalized diabetic patients admitted for severe hypoglycaemia. Yonsei Med J 2010; 51(3): 367-74.

 Cryer PE. Symptoms of hypoglycemia, thresholds for their occurrence, and hypoglycemia unawareness. Endocrinol Metabol Cl North Am 1999; 28(3): 495-500.
Guettier JM, Gorden P. Hypoglycemia. Endocrinol Metabol Cl North Am 2006; 35(4): 753-66.

40. Geddes J, Deary IJ, Frier BM. Effects of acute insulin-induced hypoglycaemia on psychomotor function: people with type 1 diabetes are less affected than non-diabetic adults. Diabetologia 2008; 51(10): 1814-21.

41. Abi-Saab WM, Maggs DG, Jones T, Jacob R, Srihari V, Thompson J, et al. Striking differences in glucose and lactate levels between brain extracellular fluid and plasma in conscious subjects with epilepsy: effects of hyperglycemia and hypoglycemia. J Cerebral Bl Flow Metabol 2002; 22(3): 271–79.

42. Bonen A, Megeney LA, McCarthy SC, McDermott JC, Tan MH. Epinephrine administration stimulates Glut4 translocation but reduces glucose transport in

muscle. Biochem Biophys Res Comm 1992; 187(2): 685–691.

43. Hoffman RP, Sinkey CA, Dopp JM, Phillips BG. Systemic and local adrenergic regulation of muscle glucose utilization during hypoglycemia in healthy subjects. Diabetes 2002; 51(3): 734-42.

44. Baron AD, Brechtel G. Insulin differentially regulates

systemic and skeletal muscle vascular resistance. Am J Physiol 1993; 265: E61–E67.

45. Arogyasami J, Sellers TL, Wilson GI, Jones JP, Duan C, Winder WW. Insulin-induced hypoglycemia in fed and fasted exercising rats. J Appl Physiol 1992; 72 (5): 1991-98.