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17

18    **Abstract**

19    A number of studies have been made on the physiological actions of insulin-like growth factor-1  
20    (IGF-1) in mammals and birds. In mammals, the effects of central administration of IGF-1 on  
21    food intake have been examined. For example, intracerebroventricular administration of IGF-1  
22    significantly decreased food intake in diabetic rats, but not in sheep and nondiabetic rats. The  
23    chicken is known to be a hyperglycemic animal. Like satiety hormones, plasma IGF-1 levels are  
24    elevated postprandially in chickens. In this study, we hypothesized that IGF-1 is involved in the  
25    regulation of food intake in chickens. Intracerebroventricular administration of IGF-1  
26    significantly suppressed food intake in chicks in a dose dependent manner. Both the mRNAs of  
27    IGF-1 and its receptor were expressed throughout the brain. However, the mRNA levels of IGF-1  
28    were not influenced by fasting and refeeding in all regions of the brain. On the other hand, 6 h of  
29    fasting significantly suppressed mRNA expression of hepatic IGF-1, and this effect was  
30    significantly reversed by 6 h of refeeding. Furthermore, intravascular administration of IGF-1  
31    significantly suppressed food intake in chicks. These findings suggest that IGF-1 may function as  
32    a satiety hormone in chickens.

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34    **Keywords:** appetite, brain, chicken, feed intake, insulin-like growth factor-1, liver

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## 36 1. Introduction

37  
38 Physiological and molecular mechanisms involved in the regulation of food intake in chickens  
39 have been investigated in recent decades [14, 32]. Lines of evidence suggest that physiological  
40 roles of several peripheral hormones differ between mammals and chickens. For example, the  
41 adipocytokine leptin and gut hormones play important roles in appetite regulation in mammals  
42 [39]. However, leptin is densely expressed in the brain but not in the adipose tissue in chickens  
43 [35]. Several gut hormones, such as cholecystokinin [14], glucagon-like peptide-2 [16], and  
44 peptide YY [1], suppress food intake in chickens when administered peripherally, but the  
45 physiological importance of these hormones have not yet been elucidated [14].

46 Over the past decades, a number of studies have been made on the physiological actions of  
47 insulin-like growth factor-1 (IGF-1) in peripheral tissues and the central nervous system. For  
48 example, IGF-1 is a key regulator of muscle development and metabolism in mammals and birds  
49 [7, 8]. Holzenberger et al. suggested the involvement of the IGF system in neurogenesis and  
50 differentiation, and possibly in neural plasticity and learning in mammals and birds [12]. In  
51 mammals, the effects of central administration of IGF-1 on food intake are controversial.  
52 Intracerebroventricular administration of IGF-1 did not influence food intake in sheep [10] but  
53 significantly increased food intake in rats [34]. However, intracerebroventricular administration of  
54 IGF-1 significantly decreased food intake in diabetic rats [21]. Lines of evidence demonstrate that  
55 IGF-1 crosses the blood-brain barrier [2, 28, 31]. Therefore, it is possible that central or peripheral  
56 IGF-1 is involved in the appetite regulatory system of mammals, although the physiological roles  
57 are different depending on the physiological conditions or species.

58 The effects of IGF-1 are similar to those of insulin in many aspects in chickens [9, 36, 37,  
59 40]. We previously reported that central administration of insulin suppresses food intake in chicks  
60 [13]. However, the effects of IGF-1 on food intake has not yet been examined in chickens. IGF-1  
61 and its receptor are expressed in the brain [12], and plasma IGF-1 levels are elevated

62 postprandially [18]. Postprandial elevation of appetite suppressive hormones is sensed by the  
63 brain as a satiety signal in mammals and birds [14, 39]. These findings raise the hypothesis that  
64 IGF-1 is also involved in the regulation of food intake in the central nervous system and/or  
65 peripheral circulation in chickens.

66 In this study, we investigated the possible involvement of IGF-1 in the mechanism of  
67 food intake regulation in chicks. The results provide direct evidence that IGF-1 suppresses food  
68 intake in chicks.

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## 70 2. Materials and methods

### 71 2.1. *Animals and peptides*

72 Day-old male chicks (Ross 308) were purchased from a local hatchery (Ishii Co. Ltd.,  
73 Tokushima, Japan). They were given free access to water and a commercial chick starter diet  
74 (Nippon Formula Feed Mfg. Co., Ltd., Kanagawa, Japan). This study was approved by the  
75 Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee and carried out according to the Kobe University  
76 Animal Experimentation Regulation. Human IGF-1 was purchased from Novus Biologicals, LLC  
77 (Co, USA).

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### 79 2.2. *Experiment 1: effects of central administration of IGF-1 on food intake chicks*

80 Forty-eight 8-day-old chicks were weighed and allocated to four groups based on body  
81 weight (12 birds in each group). IGF-1 was dissolved in 0.85% (w/v) saline solution containing  
82 0.1% (w/v) Evans Blue. The peptide was intracerebroventricularly administered according to the  
83 method of Davis et al. [6] at a volume of 10  $\mu$ l. Chicks were administered IGF-1 (0, 30, 100, or  
84 300 pmol). Food intake was measured at 30, 60, and 120 min after administration. At the end of  
85 the experiment, the chicks were euthanized by decapitation. Verification of injection was made by  
86 observation of the presence of Evans Blue dye in the lateral ventricle.

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2.3. *Experiment 2: real-time PCR analysis of IGF-1 and its receptor mRNA in the chicken brain*

Four 7-day-old chicks were euthanized by decapitation. The whole brains were collected and preserved in RNAlater® tissue storage reagent (Sigma-Aldrich Co., St. Louis, MO, USA) and divided into six regions (telencephalon, optic lobes, cerebellum, rostral part of the brainstem, middle part of the brainstem, and caudal part of the brainstem) as described previously [1]. Total RNA extraction and cDNA synthesis were performed using the Sepazol-RNA I (Nacalai Tesque, Inc., Kyoto, Japan) and ReverTra Ace® qPCR RT Master Mix with gDNA Remover (Toyobo Co. Ltd, Osaka, Japan) as described previously [15]. The cDNA of the chicken IGF-1 (GenBank accession number: NM\_001004384) and IGF-1 receptor (GenBank accession number: NM\_205032) were amplified with the following primers: IGF-1 sense, 5'-GCT GCC GGC CCA GAA -3'; IGF-1 antisense, 5'-ACG AAC TGA AGA GCA TCA ACC A -3'; IGF-1R sense, 5'- GGA GAA TTT CAT GGG TCT GAT TG-3'; IGF-1R antisense, 5'- CAT GGG AAT GGC GAA TCT TC-3'. Complementary DNA of ribosomal protein S17 (GenBank accession number: NM\_204217) as an internal standard was amplified with primers as described previously [16]. Messenger RNA levels were quantified in duplicate using an Applied Biosystems 7300 Real-Time PCR system and SYBR® Premix Ex Taq™ II (Tli RNaseH Plus) (Takara Bio Inc., Shiga, Japan) according to the supplier's recommendations. The thermal cycle was as follows: 1 cycle at 95°C for 30 s, and 40 cycles at 95°C for 5 s and 60°C for 31 s. After the reactions, the specificity of amplifications in each sample was confirmed by dissociation analysis showing that each sample gave a single melting peak. Relative gene expression was calculated by comparing the number of thermal cycles that were necessary to generate threshold amounts of product (CT). CT was calculated for the target gene and for RPS17. For each cDNA sample, the CT for RPS17 was subtracted from the CT for the target gene to give the parameter  $\Delta CT$ , thus normalizing the initial amount of RNA used. The amount of target gene mRNA was calculated as  $2^{-\Delta\Delta CT}$ , where  $\Delta\Delta CT$  is the difference between the  $\Delta CT$  of the two cDNA samples to be compared.

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2.4. *Experiment 3: effects of fasting and refeeding on IGF-1 mRNA levels in the brain of chicks*

Eighteen 8-day-old chicks were weighed, allocated based on body weight, and euthanized by decapitation after 0, 6 hours of fasting, or 6 hours of refeeding after 6 hours of fasting. The whole brains were collected, and the mRNA levels of IGF-1 were quantified as described in Experiment 2.

2.5. *Experiment 4: effects of fasting and refeeding on hepatic IGF-1 mRNA levels in chicks*

Eighteen 8-day-old chicks were weighed, allocated based on body weight, and euthanized by decapitation after 0, 6 hours of fasting, or 6 hours of refeeding after 6 hours of fasting. The liver was excised, weighed, and frozen immediately by liquid nitrogen, and stored at -80°C. The mRNA levels of IGF-1 were quantified as described in Experiment 2.

2.6. *Experiment 5: effects of peripheral administration of IGF-1 on food intake in chicks*

Thirty six 8-day-old chicks were weighed and allocated to three groups based on body weight (12 birds in each group). IGF-1 was dissolved in a 0.85% (w/v) saline solution. The peptide (0, 3, or 12 nmol/mL/kg body weight) was administered via a wing vein with *ad libitum* feeding. Food intake was measured at 30, 60, and 120 min after administration.

2.7. *Data analysis*

Data were analyzed by the Tukey-Kramer test. All statistical analyses were performed using the commercial package (StatView version 5, SAS Institute, Cary, NC, USA, 1998).

3. **Results**

In the present study, we firstly examined the effect of central administration of IGF-1 on

140 food intake in chicks. Intracerebroventricular administration of IGF-1 significantly suppressed  
141 food intake in a dose-dependent manner, suggesting that IGF-1 might function as an anorexigenic  
142 peptide in the brain (Fig. 1).

143 In order to evaluate the possible role of brain IGF-1, we next examined the mRNA levels of  
144 IGF-1 and the receptor in the brain. Both the mRNAs of IGF-1 and the receptor were expressed  
145 throughout the brain (Fig. 2). The mRNA level of IGF-1 was significantly higher in the optic  
146 lobes than in the rostral part of the brainstem and cerebellum (Fig. 2). On the other hand, the  
147 mRNA level of IGF-1R was significantly lower in the telencephalon than in the rostral part of the  
148 brainstem, caudal part of the brainstem, and optic lobes. However, fasting and refeeding did not  
149 influence the mRNA levels of IGF-1 in all regions of the brain (Fig.3). It is therefore possible that  
150 brain IGF-1 is not involved in the regulation of food intake in chickens.

151 It is well known that liver secretes IGF-1 into the bloodstream in chickens [23]. Therefore, in  
152 order to evaluate the possible role of hepatic IGF-1, we next examined the effects of fasting and  
153 refeeding on the mRNA levels of IGF-1 in the liver. Six hours of fasting significantly decreased  
154 the mRNA levels of hepatic IGF-1, and this effect was significantly reversed by 6 h of refeeding  
155 (Fig. 4). Furthermore, we finally examined the effect of peripheral administration of IGF-1 on  
156 food intake in chicks and found that intravascular administration of IGF-1 significantly  
157 suppressed food intake at 30 and 60 min after administration (Fig. 5). These findings suggest that  
158 IGF-1 may function as an postprandial satiety hormone in the peripheral circulation in chickens.

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#### 160 4. Discussion

161 The anorexigenic action of IGF-1 was observed in chicks (Fig. 1) and diabetic rats [21]  
162 but not in non-diabetic mammals [10, 34]. Birds maintain higher plasma glucose concentrations  
163 than other vertebrates of similar body mass [4]. These findings raise the hypothesis that IGF-1  
164 functions as an anorexigenic hormone only in hyperglycemic animals. Radhakrishnan et al.  
165 reported that hyperglycemia alters responsiveness to IGF-I, resulting in increased Src homology 2



166 domain-containing protein-tyrosine phosphatase substrate-1 phosphorylation and assembly of a  
167 signaling complex that enhances mitogen-activated protein kinase and phosphatidylinositol  
168 3-kinase (PI3K) pathways [30]. There is evidence that insulin suppresses food intake via the PI3K  
169 pathway in mammals [26, 27]. It is therefore possible that IGF-1 suppresses food intake via PI3K  
170 pathway in diabetic mammals and birds.

171 Kita et al. reported that postprandial elevation of hepatic IGF-1 mRNA in egg type  
172 chickens at 6 weeks of age [18]. However, the response of hepatic IGF-1 production might be  
173 different between strains or age. In fact, IGF-I mRNA was undetectable in the liver of the  
174 developing embryo, but during post-hatching development, hepatic IGF-I mRNA levels increased  
175 until 4 weeks of age [5]. Several studies demonstrated that plasma IGF-1 levels are different  
176 between strains of chickens [17, 19, 29]. Therefore, we have evaluated the effects of fasting and  
177 refeeding on hepatic IGF-1 mRNA levels in neonatal chicks and suggested that hepatic IGF-1  
178 production is stimulated by feed intake. Thus, our findings give a new insight into the  
179 physiological importance of hepatic IGF-1 in the regulation of food intake in chicks during early  
180 post-hatch period.

181 In the present study, intravascular administration of IGF-1 suppressed food intake in  
182 chicks (Fig. 5). Meanwhile, refeeding increased the mRNA levels of IGF-1 in the liver (Fig. 4).  
183 There is evidence that the blood IGF-1 level is elevated by food intake in chickens [18]. Fasting,  
184 restricted feeding, and low protein diet feeding significantly reduce blood IGF-1 levels in  
185 chickens [8]. In mammals, dietary protein elevated blood IGF-1 levels [20]. Therefore, dietary  
186 nutrients and/or protein stimulate blood IGF-1 levels, which in turn results in satiety in chickens.

187 As shown in Figs. 3 and 4, fasting decreased the mRNA levels of IGF-1 in the liver, but  
188 not in the brain. Lu et al. reported that a significant increase in the plasma IGF-I level was  
189 observed after hatching for each day up to 21 days of age [21]. Burnside and Cogburn reported  
190 that during post-hatching development, the plasma IGF-I profile coincided with the expression of  
191 hepatic IGF-I mRNA: plasma IGF-I and hepatic IGF-I mRNA levels increased rapidly until a

192 peak was reached at 4 weeks of age [5]. On the other hand, Holzenberger and Lapointe reported  
193 that IGF-I expression in the chicken brain is down-regulated shortly after hatching, and the levels  
194 were below detectability at 30 days of age [12]. All these findings suggest that physiological roles  
195 of brain IGF-1 differ from those of hepatic IGF-1 in chickens.

196 Holzenberger and Lapointe suggested that the involvement of the IGF system in  
197 neurogenesis and differentiation, and possibly in neural plasticity and learning, may have arisen  
198 early in tetrapode/vertebrate evolution [12]. Therefore, IGF-1 and its receptor mRNAs may be  
199 widely distributed in the brain of chicks (Fig. 2). Interestingly, the mRNA level of IGF-1 was  
200 significantly high in the optic lobes, which are well developed in birds. In probably most avian  
201 species the majority of retinal ganglion cells project to the optic tectum, and the tectum projects  
202 bilaterally to the thalami nucleus rotundus, which itself sends fibers to the ipsilateral ectostriatum  
203 [11]. It is therefore possible that visual information is transmitted via IGF-1 in the optic lobes in  
204 chicks.

205 Foster et al reported that intracerebroventricular administration of IGF-1 does not  
206 influence serum IGF-1 levels in sheep [10]. Therefore, it seems likely that central administration  
207 of IGF-1 in chicks might not influence blood IGF-1 levels. McMurtry et al. demonstrated that  
208 exogenous IGF is present in the free or binding (45 kDa or 150 kDa) form in the blood of  
209 chickens when administered peripherally, but most injected IGF-1 apparently abolished 2 h after  
210 administration [24]. Therefore, exogenous IGF-1 and its anorexigenic effect probably abolished at  
211 120 min after administration (Fig. 5). Further studies are needed to clarify the relationships  
212 between the circulating forms or levels of plasma IGF-1 and the appetite suppressive effect of  
213 IGF-1 in chicks.

214 In the present study, we used human IGF-1 instead of chicken IGF-1. Complete amino  
215 acid sequencing of IGF-I purified from chicken plasma established the presence of eight amino  
216 acid substitutions compared with human [3]. However, Upton et al. reported that recombinant  
217 chicken IGF-I was equipotent with human IGF-I in cell culture bioassays of protein synthesis and

breakdown using rat L6 myoblasts and chick embryo fibroblasts [38]. They also showed that binding of radiolabelled chicken IGF-I and human IGF-I was equivalent in the two cell lines, as was their binding in ligand blots of chicken, sheep and human plasma. In addition, the metabolic clearance of chicken IGF-1 and human IGF-1 was similar when administered intravascularly in 7-week-old chickens [24]. Human IGF-I is frequently used for IGF-1 study in chickens [22, 25, 33, 40]. Therefore, chicken IGF-1 and human IGF-1 probably show similar effects on food intake when administered centrally and peripherally.

225

## 226 5. Conclusion

In the present study, we found that central and peripheral administration of IGF-1 suppressed food intake in chicks. We also showed that hepatic IGF-1 mRNA levels were significantly increased in response to feeding. These findings suggest that IGF-1 may function as a satiety hormone in chickens.

231

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235

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### Figure captions

Fig. 1. Effects of central administration of insulin-like growth factor-1 on food intake in chicks. Data represent means  $\pm$  S.E.M. The number of chicks used is shown in parentheses. Groups with different letters are significantly different ( $P < 0.05$ ).

Fig. 2. Distribution of insulin-like growth factor-1 (IGF-1) and its receptor (IGF-1R) mRNAs in the brain of chicks. Data represent means  $\pm$  SEM ( $n = 4$ ). Groups with different letters are significantly different ( $P < 0.05$ ).

Fig. 3. Effects of fasting and refeeding on the mRNA levels of insulin-like growth factor-1 in the brain. Data are means  $\pm$  S.E.M. ( $n = 6$ ).

Fig. 4. Effects of fasting and refeeding on the hepatic insulin-like growth factor-1 mRNA levels in chicks. Data are means  $\pm$  S.E.M. ( $n = 6$ ). Groups with different letters are significantly different ( $P < 0.05$ ).

Fig. 5. Effects of peripheral administration of insulin-like growth factor-1 on food intake in chicks. Data represent means  $\pm$  S.E.M. ( $n = 6$ ). Groups with different letters are significantly different ( $P < 0.05$ ).



Fig. 1

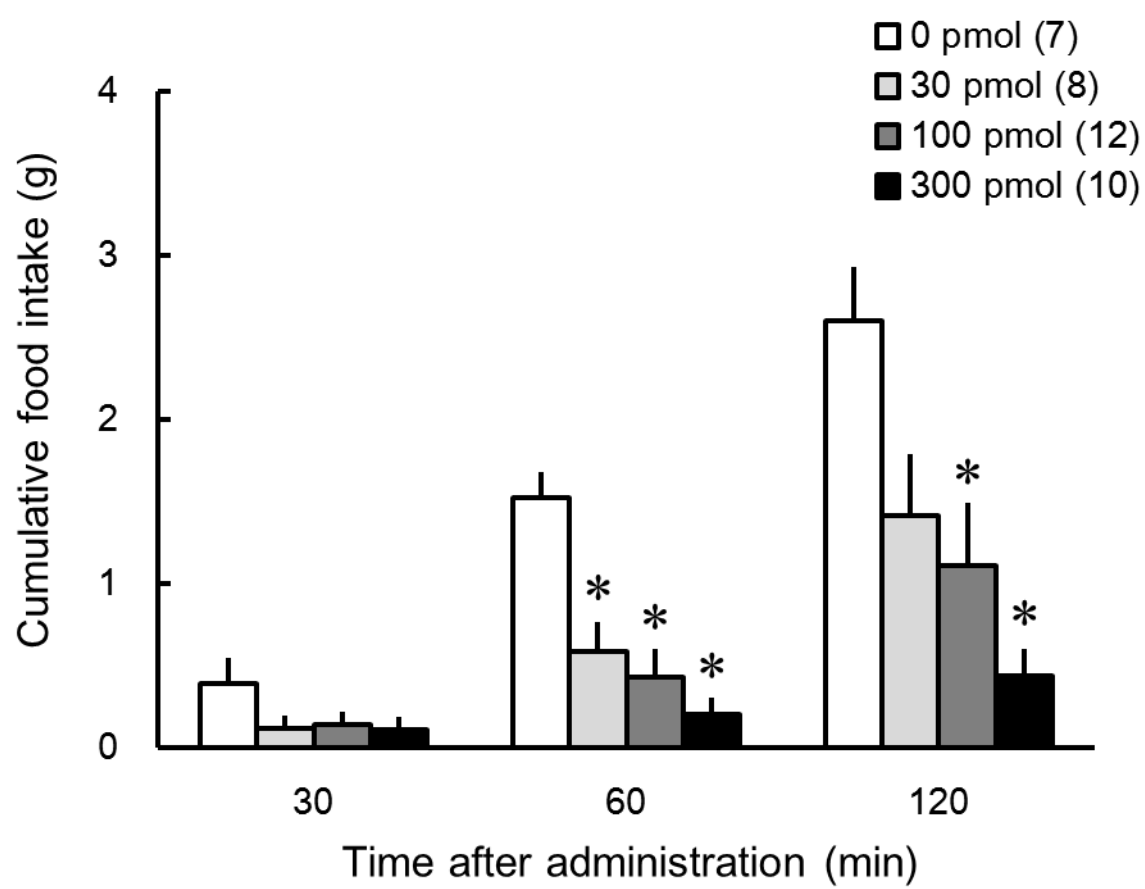


Fig. 2

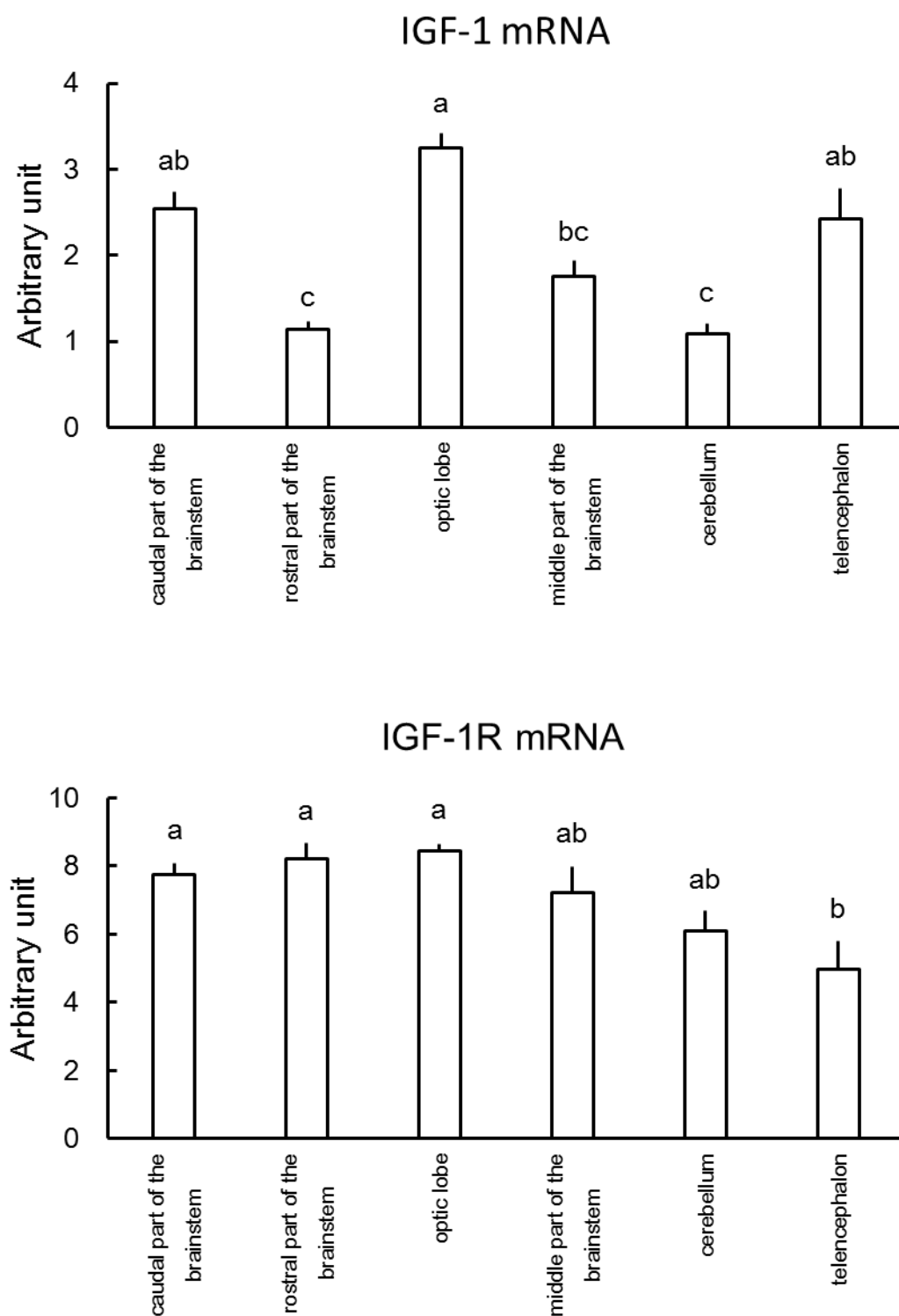


Fig. 3

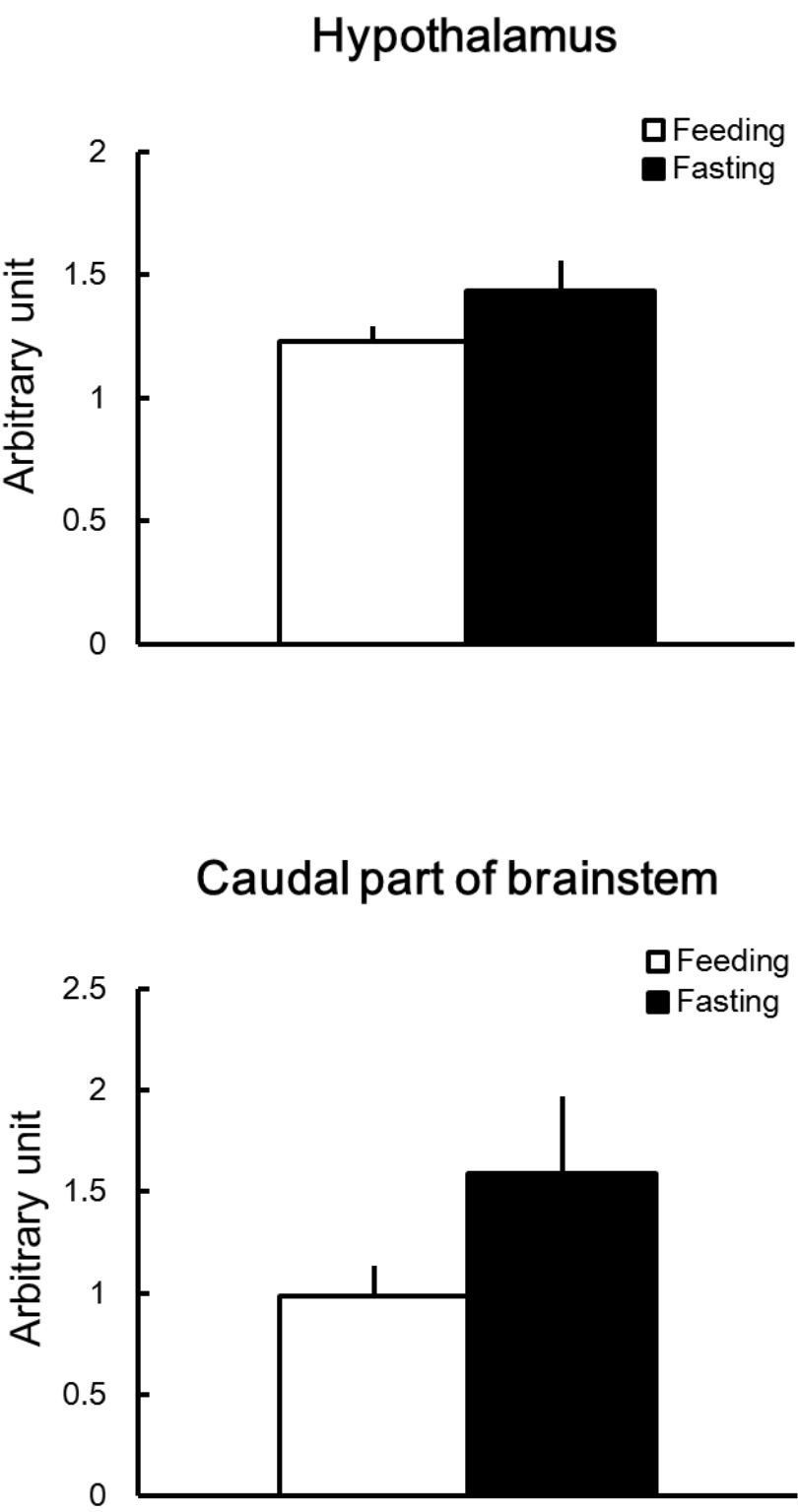


Fig. 4

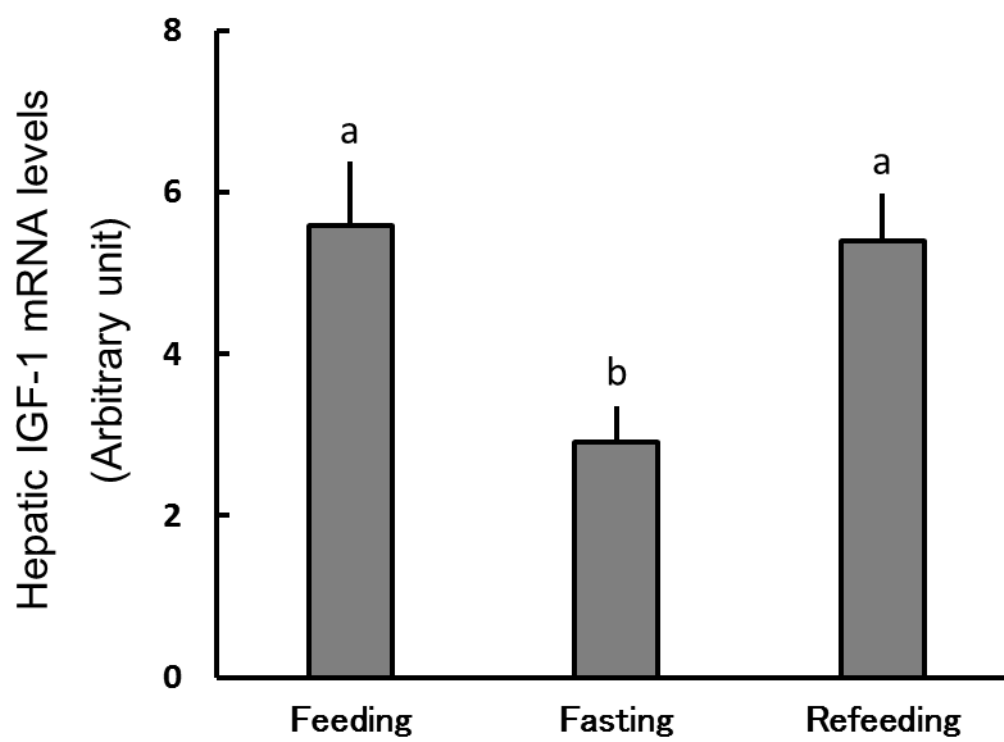


Fig. 5

