

1 Neuroprotective effects of tibolone 2 during astrocytic metabolic 3 inflammation: a network based 4 approach

5 Abstract:

6 1.1. Introduction

7 Astrocyte-Neuron Metabolic Relationships

8 Astrocytes are the most abundant cells in the human brain and play important roles in
9 the central nervous system (CNS) [1]. They are highly associated to several homeostatic fun-
10 ctions such as glutamate, ion, and water homeostasis, energy storage in the form of glycogen,
11 synapse formation and remodeling, defense against oxidative stress, scar formation, tissue
12 repair and modulation of synaptic activity via the release of gliotransmitters [2]. Astrocytes
13 metabolize glucose in anaerobic way to produce lactate, which is released to neurons through
14 monocarboxylate transporters [3]. Lactate is used in neurons as an energy substrate after
15 its conversion to pyruvate and subsequently to ATP via oxidative phosphorylation [4]. As-
16 trocytes play an important role in glutamate mediated synaptic activity [5]; according to the
17 astrocyte–neuron lactate shuttle model, astrocytes respond to glutamate induced activation
18 by increasing their rate of glucose uptake and the release of lactate into the extracellular spa-
19 ce, increasing the lactate available to be used by neurons to supply their energetic needs [6].
20 Glutamate is uptaked by astrocytes through the glutamate aspartate transporter and glial
21 glutamate transporter-1, inducing events that involves the activation of $\text{Na}^+\text{--K}^+\text{--ATPase}$
22 and maintaining extracellular glutamate at homeostatic levels [7]. Part of incorporated glu-
23 tamate is converted to glutamine through glutamine synthetase, which is only associated to
24 glial cells and released to neurons using electroneutral systems-N transporters coupled to
25 Na^+ and H^+ [8]. In neurons glutaminase enzyme converts glutamine back into glutamate
26 which can be used again for neurotransmission or metabolized into the neuronal Krebs cycle
27 [9]. Astrocytes release many other substances related to synaptic transmission [10]. However
28 D-serine, a neurotransmitter that act as a coagonist with glutamate at NMDA receptors is

one of the most important [5]. Due only glial cells can synthesize serine, all available D-serine at synapsis is associated to be primarily produced and secreted by astrocytes [8]. D-serine is synthesized in astrocytes by serine racemase from L-serine [11]. Additionally to these energy and synaptic support associated functions, astrocytes also play an important role in the reduced glutathione (GSH) metabolism of the brain [12]. GSH is the major cellular antioxidant and plays an important neuroprotective role [13]. Cellular GSH levels are closely correlated with cell survival under adverse conditions [14]. GSH is synthesized from glutamate, cysteine, and glycine and release directly from Astrocytes through GSH transporters ion-independent, net transport is concentration-gradient dependent [15].

This strong metabolic cooperation between astrocytes and neurons allows to predict that even an small astrocytic dysfunction might cause and/or contribute neurodegenerative processes.

Inflammation

Inflammation is a biological response to injuries, metabolic disorders or infections and its dysregulation induce many complex diseases [13, 16, 17]. In brain, inflammatory response acts as a defense mechanism against any threat to homeostatic state inducing changes in glucose metabolism and release of proinflammatory factors [14]. Inflammation responses in CNS are mediated by glial cells that acquire reactive phenotypes to participate in repair mechanisms [1, 13, 18]. Astrocytes, as glial cells are highly sensitive cells to inflammatory mediators, they respond to inflammation through a complex reaction named astrogliosis [19]. During astroglyosis, glial cells generally associated to several beneficial activities in the CNS, also act as a source of inflammatory mediators and as generators of reactive oxidant species (ROS) that have the potential to damage neurons [20]. Astrogliosis is characterized by a low regulation of mitochondrial dynamics that result in mitochondrial failure [21]. Mitochondrial failure induces the deregulation of Ca^{2+} homeostasis and increased ROS generation, both of which are linked to neurotoxicity [2]. At metabolic level, inflammatory process has been associated to an increase of free saturated fatty acid in comparison with healthy conditions in some brain tissues [22]. The increase of free saturated fatty acid induce metabolic inflammation, a response associated with the induction of diverse intracellular stresses, such as mitochondrial oxidative stress, ER stress, and autophagy defects [13]. Lipid excess in metabolic inflammation activates hypothalamic $\text{IKK}\beta$ and $\text{NF-}\kappa\beta$ signaling pathways, which ultimately impairs hypothalamic leptin and insulin signaling and further triggers the synthesis and release of increased amounts of ROS and proinflammatory cytokines ($\text{TNF-}\alpha$ and IL-6) from glial cells to sustain the neuroinflammatory state [23]. Enhanced ROS generation by reactive glial cells trigger mitochondria dysfunction in neuron, which induces neuronal apoptosis, the prerequisite for a diverse number of neurodegenerative conditions [24].

SysBio Inflammation

Tibolone

1.2. Material and Methods

Tissue Specific Model Construction

The tissue specific model construction process started with the identification of all enzyme-coding genes expressed over the mean in at least 50 % of samples for healthy human astrocytes indexed in the GEO database [25] as GSE73721 [26]. Gene identifiers conversion from GeneCards[27] to ENTREZ [28] was performed through ‘UniProt.ws’ R Package [29]. Reactions associated with the identified genes were mapped from the Human Genome Scale Metabolic Reconstruction RECON 2.04 downloaded from the VMH Lab (<https://vmh.uni.lu>) [30]. The R package ‘g2f’ [31] was used to identify and fill the gaps using all no gene associated reactions included in RECON 2.04, as well as to identify and remove all blocked reactions from the reconstruction. All reactions involved in the conversion of extracellular glutamate, glycine, cysteine and glucose to extracellular glutamine, glycine, serine-D, reduced glutathione, lactate and ATP respectively were added. Exchange reactions were limited to components of the Dulbecco’s Modified Eagle Medium (DMEM) as input and gliotransmitters (glutamine, D-serine, ATP, glutamate), reduced glutathione, lactate, glucose, nitric oxide, prostaglandins and leukotrienes as output. Finally, syntax, mass-charge validation and creation of SBML files were carried out through the ‘minval’ R Package [32]. Reaction limits (upper and lower bounds) were constrained proportional to the mean gene expression reported for genes included in Gene-Protein-Reaction (GPR) [33] associated to each reaction in samples of 47 to 63 years old using ‘exp2flux’ R package [34]. All analysis were done by the ‘sybil’ [35] R Package running under R 3.3.1 [36].

Flux Balance Analysis

Flux Balance Analysis (FBA) is a linear optimization method for simulating metabolism that allows to identify the set of reactions involved in the production of a biological response within a metabolic model [37]. The metabolic reactions are represented internally as a stoichiometric matrix (S), of size $m * n$, where m represents the compounds and n the reactions; the entries in the matrix are the stoichiometric coefficients of the metabolites participating in a reaction [38]. The flux through all of the reactions in a network is represented by the vector v , which has a length of n . The concentrations of all metabolites are represented by the vector x , with length m . The systems of mass balance equations at steady state, $\frac{d_x}{d_t} = 0$ or $S * v = 0$. FBA seeks to maximize or minimize an objective function which can be any linear combination fluxes, to obtain a flux for each reaction, indicating how much each reaction contributes to the objective function [37]. FBA for healthy, inflamed and medicated scenarios was

100 resolved using GLPK 4.60, setting the generic human biomass reaction included in RECON
101 2.04 and each one of reactions described in table **1-1** as objective functions. Models were
102 analyzed by comparing fluxes between scenarios, metabolites production rate and sensitivity
103 analysis.

Table 1-1: Main metabolic capabilities associated to astrocytes represented as the set of
objective functions used to evaluate neuroprotective effects of Tibolone under
inflamed scenarios

ID	FORMULA REACTION	DESCRIPTION
Glu2Gln	1 glu_L[e] \Rightarrow 1 gln_L[e]	Glutamate - Glutamine Cycle
Gly2SerD	1 gly[e] \Rightarrow 1 ser_D[e]	Glycine to D-serine conversion
Glc2Lac	1 glc_D[e] \Rightarrow 2 lac_L[e]	Lactate production from Glucose
Glc2ATP	1 glc_D[e] \Rightarrow 36 atp[e]	ATP production from Glucose
Cys2GTHRD	1 cys_L[e] + 1 glu_L[c] + 1 gly[c] \Rightarrow 1 gthrd[e]	Catch of Cysteine to produce re- duced Glutathione

104 Metabolic Scenarios

105 To test neuroprotective effects of tibolone during astrocytic metabolic inflammation we define
106 three different metabolic scenarios. A ‘healthy’ scenario, where palmitate uptake rate was
107 freely set by optimizer; an ‘inflamed’ scenario, where uptake rate of palmitate was forced
108 to be stable in the mean of the half maximal inhibitory concentration (IC50) value for all
109 objective functions included in table **1-1**. IC50 values were calculated through a robustness
110 analysis performed using uptake of palmitate (‘EX_hdca(e)’ in RECON 2.04) as control
111 reaction and a 1000 points in the range from 0 to 1 mMgDW⁻¹h⁻¹ for each objective function.
112 Uptake value where each objective function reached IC50 was selected and subsequently
113 averaged. Finally, a medicated scenario, defined as an inflamed scenario that include
114 279 reactions associated with tibolone and estradiol-derived compounds metabolism. Ten
115 specific reactions described in table **1-2** associated to specific Tibolone action mechanism
116 non included in RECON 2.04 were added to medicated scenario.

117 Metabolic Changes

Metabolic changes across metabolic scenarios were measured through two different approxi-
mations. Flux differences for each reaction between optimized scenarios were measured using

Table 1-2: Set of reactions associated to tibolone specific action mechanism in brain reported by Kloosterboer, H. J. (2004) added to medicated scenario model.

ID	FORMULA REACTION	DESCRIPTION
T1	tibolone[e] \Leftrightarrow	Tibolone exchange reaction
T2	tibolone[e] \Leftrightarrow a3OHTibolone[e]	3 α hydroxytibolone interconversion
T3	tibolone[e] \Leftrightarrow b3OHTibolone[e]	3 β hydroxytibolone interconversion
T4	tibolone[e] \Rightarrow d4tibolone[e]	Tibolone Δ^4 isomer formation
T5	b3OHTibolone[e] \Rightarrow d4tibolone[e]	Tibolone Δ^4 isomer formation from 3 β -hydroxytibolone
T6	a3OHTibolone[e] \Rightarrow estradiol[c]	Estradiol receptor agonist action mechanism of 3 α -hydroxytibolone
T7	b3OHTibolone[e] \Rightarrow estradiol[c]	Estradiol receptor agonist action mechanism of 3 β -hydroxytibolone
T8	d4tibolone[e] \Rightarrow prgstrn[c] + tststerone[c]	Progesterone and androgen receptor activation by tibolone Δ^4 isomer
T9	a3OHTibolone[e] \Leftrightarrow a3SOTibolone[e]	3 α hydroxytibolone interconversion to sulfated inactive compounds
T10	a3SOTibolone[e] \Rightarrow	Tibolone inactive form in blood

the fold change calculated as described in equation 1-1.

$$foldChange = \frac{valueModel2 - valueModel1}{|valueModel1|} \quad (1-1)$$

118 Additionally, to obtain a full perspective about inflammation effects in metabolites pro-
 119 duction, the production of each metabolite was set as objective function in each metabolic
 120 scenario and differences were evaluated as well as flux differences.

121 Proinflammatory, Antiinflammatory and Tibolone Action Mechanism 122 Associated Enzymes

123 Identification of enzymes involved in proinflammatory and antiinflammatory responses as
 124 well as in the tibolone action mechanism were identified through several sensitivity analysis
 125 as follows: Proinflammatory enzymes, are those that catalyze reactions that being knocked
 126 out allows an increase of objective function value. Antiinflammatory enzymes, are those
 127 associated to reactions that being knocked out reduce even more the objective function
 128 value. Tibolone action mechanism associated enzymes are those that catalyze reactions that
 129 being knocked out inhibit entirely the metabolic effect of tibolone.

¹³⁰ **1.3. Results**

¹³¹ **1.4. Conclusion**

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