Leucine metabolism in regulation of insulin secretion from pancreatic beta cells

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Leucine, a branched-chain amino acid that must be supplied in the daily diet, plays an important role in controlling protein synthesis and regulating cell metabolism in various cell types. In pancreatic β cells, leucine acutely stimulates insulin secretion by serving as both metabolic fuel and allosteric activator of glutamate dehydrogenase to enhance glutaminolysis. Leucine has also been shown to regulate gene transcription and protein synthesis in pancreatic islet β cells via both mTOR-dependent and -independent pathways at physiological concentrations. Long-term treatment with leucine has been shown to improve insulin secretory dysfunction of human diabetic islets via upregulation of certain key metabolic genes. In vivo, leucine administration improves glycemic control in humans and rodents with type 2 diabetes. This review summarizes and discusses the recent findings regarding the effects of leucine metabolism on pancreatic β -cell function.

INTRODUCTION

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Branched-chain amino acids, including leucine, isoleucine, and valine, are essential amino acids that cannot be manufactured in humans or other vertebrates and thus must be obtained through the daily diet. Branched-chain amino acids, particularly leucine, play a critical role in controlling protein synthesis by modulating translation initiation in various cells. Leucine is well known to acutely stimulate insulin secretion from pancreatic β cells by serving as both metabolic fuel and allosteric activator of glutamate dehydrogenase (GDH).¹⁻³ Recent reports indicate that leucine or its transaminated product a-ketoisocaproate (KIC) might impact insulin secretion via direct inhibition of β-cell ATP-regulated potassium (K_{ATP}) channel currents.⁴ In the past decade, leucine had been demonstrated to activate the mammalian target of rapamycin (mTOR), a serine and threonine protein kinase that regulates protein synthesis and cell metabolism in pancreatic β cells.⁵ To date, leucine has been proven to stimulate gene transcription and protein synthesis in pancreatic islets or other cell types by both mTOR-dependent and -independent pathways.⁶⁻⁹ We have recently shown that long-term treatment with leucine augments glucose-stimulated insulin secretion in INS-1 cells, rat and human islets by upregulating certain metabolic genes via a rapamycin-insensitive mechanism. 10,11 In vivo, leucine administration acutely elevates circulating insulin in humans, rodents, and mammals, and improves glycemic control in db/db mice or high-fatdiet-induced diabetic mice. 12-14 A mixture of leucine, isoleucine, and valine acutely elevates circulating insulin levels and enhances glucose clearance after glucose load in healthy human subjects. 13,15 Increased dietary leucine intake ameliorates diet-induced obesity, hyperglycemia, and hypercholesterolemia in human subjects and rodents via multiple mechanisms. 12,16-18 Leucine administration also increases protein synthesis in muscle, adipose, and liver via multiple mechanisms.^{8,19} Overall, leucine plays an important role in glucose homeostasis by exerting acute and chronic effects on pancreatic \(\beta \) cells, liver, muscle and adipose. In this review, recent findings

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regarding the effects of leucine on pancreatic β function will be briefly summarized and discussed. In particular, the therapeutic potential of some metabolic genes regulated by leucine signaling pathways in the treatment of islet dysfunction and type 2 diabetes will also be discussed.

LEUCINE ACUTELY STIMULATES INSULIN SECRETION FROM PANCREATIC β CELLS

Leucine or its metabolic intermediates regulates K_{ATP} channel activity

Leucine stimulates insulin secretion from pancreatic β cells via two main mechanisms. One is in the direction of deamination to yield KIC,20 and the other is to enhance glutaminolysis by allosterically activating GDH, a key enzyme controlling the oxidation of glutamate.²¹ In the first case, it is believed that leucine or KIC regulates KATP channel activity4 and results in an increase of free cytosolic Ca²⁺, which then triggers insulin secretory granules exocytosis via mechanisms involving the activation of some protein kinases and protein acylation. 22,23 Leucine has been shown to be a more potent insulin secretagogue than its non-metabolic analog, 2aminobicyclo(2,2,1)heptane-2-carboxylic acid (BCH).²⁴ Interruption of pyruvate cycling inhibits insulin secretion stimulated by leucine in the presence of glutamine in rat islets and INS-1 cells.²⁵ Controversially, it has also been reported that KIC may more potently stimulate insulin secretion from islet β cells than leucine at an equal molar concentration.^{26,27} Recently, we found that leucine and KIC show distinct effects on stimulation of insulin secretion from pancreatic islet cells. We observed that glucose completely blocks the effects of leucine, but not those of KIC on stimulation of insulin secretion from islet β cells.²⁰ Branstrom et al.⁴ demonstrate that KIC closes the ATP-sensitive K⁺ channel and induces the depolarization of plasma membrane of db/db mouse islet cells via a direct action, whereas leucine fails to do so. In addition, there is a subset of leucine-sensitive hyperinsulinemichypoglycemic children who have mutations in the sulfonylurea receptor 1 (SUR1) subunit of KATP channel but have no mutations in GDH.^{28,29} Moreover, a recent study indicates that glutaminolysis stimulated by BCH is enhanced in SUR1 knockout and glyburide-treated wildtype islets.³⁰ Controversially, Ball et al.³¹ report that longterm treatment with 100 µM glyburide, a potent inhibitor of SUR1, significantly inhibits leucine-stimulated, but not glucose-stimulated, insulin secretion in the BRIN-BD11 cell line. Rabaglia et al.³² demonstrate that methyl-leucine or aminooxyacetate, inhibitors of branched-chain amino transferase, blocks KIC-stimulated insulin secretion in diabetes-susceptible BTBR mouse islets, which supports the suggestion that that conversion to leucine plays an

important role in KIC-stimulated insulin secretion.²⁰ However, it should be noted that further oxidation of KIC to yield ATP may also play important roles in leucine- or KIC-stimulated insulin secretion.²⁰ We have previously demonstrated that glucose and KIC cause a significant increase in unesterified arachidonic acid accumulation in pancreatic islet cells, whereas mannose, fructose, and glyceraldehyde have no significant effects on cellular unesterified arachidonic acid accumulation concomitant with their failure to stimulate insulin secretion.³³ Consistent with these observations, diabetic Goto-Kakizaki rat islets have a deficient insulin response to leucine, which has been proposed to be due to decreased generation of acetyl-CoA from KIC oxidation.34 Recently, MacDonald et al. 35,36 reported that KIC alone fails to stimulate insulin secretion in cultured rat islets and INS-1832/13 cells.

Allosteric activation of GDH by leucine

There are two GDH isoenzymes in human tissues. One is encoded by the GLUD1 gene with ubiquitous expression (housekeeping gene), and the other is encoded by the GLUD2 gene with specific expression in neural tissues.³⁷ The GDH isotype in pancreatic β cells is encoded by the GLUD1 gene. GDH is the key enzyme controlling amino acids and ammonia metabolism in pancreatic β cells, liver, and brain.³⁸ Mature human GLUD1-derived GDH without the leader peptide (55 amino acids) contains 505 amino acid residues, 39 which form one catalytic domain at the N-terminus and one allosteric domain at the C-terminus.³⁹ Leucine and ADP potently activate GDH, whereas valine, isoleucine, and methionine activate GDH weakly. GDH is normally allosterically inhibited by GTP and ATP. It was reported decades ago that a nonmetabolic analog of leucine, BCH, significantly stimulates insulin secretion from pancreatic β cells.^{2,40} Selective activation of GDH is the main or the only mechanism by which BCH stimulates insulin secretion from β cells because it cannot be metabolized.^{2,40} Selective inhibition of GDH activity by polyphenols extracted from green tea 5'-deoxypyridoxal inhibits BCH- or leucinestimulated, but not glucose-stimulated, insulin secretion from pancreatic islet cells. 41,42 Interruption of pyruvate cycling inhibits BCH-stimulated insulin secretion in the presence of glutamine in rat islets and INS-1 cells.²⁵ Aluminum has also been shown to inhibit human GDH activity by inducing conformational change of the protein. 43 BCH and other non-metabolic analogs of leucine are very useful for studying the acute effects of leucine on stimulation of insulin secretion involving selective activation of GDH in pancreatic β cells. We have previously demonstrated that leucine-mediated glutaminolysis via GDH activation may play a critical role in interprandial insulin release when blood glucose falls below 5 mM. This basal insulin release accounts for about half of the daily required insulin secretion from β cells. ⁴⁴ Overexpression of GDH significantly enhances insulin secretion by glutamine stimulation alone (2.7-fold) or glutamine plus BCH (about 6-fold) in pancreatic β cells. Interestingly, although insulin secretion at low glucose is not affected by GDH overexpression, high glucose-stimulated insulin secretion is significantly potentiated by GDH overexpression in rat islets. ⁴⁵ Consistently, deletion of GDH partially abolishes glucose-stimulated insulin secretion in pancreatic β cells. ⁴⁶ These observations suggest that GDH may also function as a rate-limiting enzyme in the process of glucose-induced insulin secretion in pancreatic β cells beyond its well-established role as a glutamate sensor. ⁴⁵

Hyperinsulinemia is the most common cause of persistent hypoglycemia in infants and children. Recent discoveries show that the disorders of KATP channel, gainof-function mutations in glucokinase (GK) and GDH are associated with hyperinsulinemic hypoglycemia of infancy (HHI).47-49 In 1998, Stanley et al.39 first demonstrated that hyperinsulinism-hyperammonemia syndrome is caused by mutations in the glutamate dehydrogenase gene. The authors identified five mutations in glutamate dehydrogenase, which are His454Tyr, Ser445Leu, Gly446Ser, Gly446Asp, and Ser448Pro, respectively, from eight patients with hyperinsulinismhyperammonemia syndrome. Sequence comparison revealed that all of these mutations are located in a narrow region near the GTP-binding domain of GDH.³⁹ These mutant GDH proteins show a similar basal enzyme activity and sensitivity to ADP activation, whereas they are insensitive to GTP inhibition in comparison with wild-type GDH protein. Clearly, the activity of these mutant GDHs may increase in response to amino acid stimulation. Actually, hypoglycemia of patients with hyperinsulinism-hyperammonemia syndrome will be precipitated after a protein meal or amino acids load. 39,50,51 Transgenic (TG) mice specifically expressing human His454Tyr GDH in pancreatic islet driven by the rat insulin promoter show hypoglycemia as compared with control mice expressing wild-type human GDH in islets. In vitro, His454Tyr TG mouse islets secrete more insulin in response to leucine or amino acid mixture in the presence of 2 mM glutamine than control mouse islets due to increased glutamine oxidation.⁵² In contrast, glucose-stimulated insulin secretion is inhibited in His454Tyr TG mouse islets when compared with control islets.⁵² Moreover, although mutation of Arg 443 in the regulatory domain of human GDH to Ser significantly impairs its basal enzyme activity, leucine at the concentrations of 0.3-6.0 mM activates the mutant enzyme activity up to 20-fold in the presence of 0.025-0.1 mM ADP.⁵³ Recently, Kapoor et al.⁵⁴ identified another three mutations in GDH, which are N410D, D451V, and P436L,

respectively. Interestingly, although P436L GDH is associated with loss of GTP inhibition like other mutants, ^{39,50,51} the patients with heterozygous P436L GDH have hyperinsulinism and normal serum ammonia concentration. ⁵⁴

All of these studies indicate that GDH plays a crucial role in regulating insulin secretion from pancreatic β cells in response to glutamine, leucine, glucose, or other fuels. Activating mutations of GDH are predominantly associated with hyperinsulinism-hyperammonemia syndrome. Discoveries and development of selective inhibitors of GDH have shed new light on the treatment of hyperinsulinism-hypoglycemia syndrome involving gain-of-function mutations in the GDH gene. 41,55 In islet β cells of db/db mice, KIC fails to elevate cellular NADH and Ca2+, whereas glucose potently increases both of them.⁵⁶ On the contrary, KIC induces hypersecretion of insulin in islets of insulin-resistant BTBR mice.³² These observations suggest that dysregulation of leucinemetabolic-linked insulin secretion may be involved in the progression of islet β-cell dysfunction and type 2 diabetes. In isolated perfused chicken pancreas, 20 and 40 mM L-leucine or 10-40 mM KIC alone fails to stimulate insulin secretion, while they evoke a slight biphasic insulin release in the presence of 14 mM glucose; this suggests that leucine may stimulate insulin secretion differently in chickens and mammals.57

In summary, leucine is likely to exert its acute effects on stimulation of insulin secretion from pancreatic islets through combined mechanisms involving regulation of both ATP production and K_{ATP} activity. In the former case, the leucine-mediated increase in ATP production is achieved through its metabolic oxidation and allosteric activation of GDH that enhances glutaminolysis.

LEUCINE REGULATION OF GENE TRANSCRIPTION AND PROTEIN SYNTHESIS IN PANCREATIC β CELLS

mTOR-dependent signaling

Mammalian target of rapamycin (mTOR) is a serine and threonine kinase that regulates protein translation via activation of the 70-kDa ribosomal protein S6 kinase (p70 $^{\rm S6K}$) and the eukaryotic translation initiation factor 4E-binding protein-1 (4EBP1). 9,58 The effect of mTOR on enhancement of protein synthesis can be blocked by rapamycin, a widely used immunosuppressant. Recently, a number of studies have revealed that branched-chain amino acids play an important role in the regulation of protein synthesis by activating mTOR in pancreatic β cells. 5,7,9,58 Leucine and KIC significantly stimulate the phosphorylation of p70 $^{\rm S6K}$ and enhance protein synthesis in pancreatic β cells in a rapamycin-sensitive and insulinindependent manner at physiological concentrations

ranging from 0.4 mM to 4 mM. 9,58,59 Similarly, isoleucine and valine also activated p70^{S6K} in these studies.^{9,58,59} In contrast, BCH fails to activate mTOR and p70^{S6K} at the concentrations ranging from 0.2 mM to 10 mM.58 These results indicate that leucine activates mTOR signaling pathway by a metabolic-linked mechanism, in which GDH activation is unlikely involved. Protein-energy malnutrition has been reported to inhibit pancreatic β-cell replication in the fetal rodent pancreas by an unknown mechanism. 60,61 Since leucine diversely and nonspecifically stimulates protein synthesis in pancreatic β cells via an mTOR-dependent mechanism, certain important transcriptional regulator(s) might be degraded under low-leucine condition, resulting in consequential inhibition of gene transcription and β -cell replication observed in these studies. 60,61

A recent study reveals that the inhibition of AMPK activity by glucose and amino acids may be involved in nutrient-stimulated mTOR activation but not in insulin secretion in pancreatic β cells. 62 Consistently, activation of AMPK by 5-aminoimidazole-4-carboxamide-1-beta-D-ribonucleoside (AICAR) inhibits leucine-induced increases in mTOR activity and protein synthesis in rat skeletal muscle under in vivo conditions. 63 Importantly, leucine has also been shown to enhance protein synthesis by mTOR-mediated activation of p70 S6K and 4EBP1 in other tissues, such as liver, muscle, adipose, and myoblast. $^{6,64-71}$

mTOR-independent signaling

We recently demonstrated that long-term culture with leucine upregulates certain metabolic genes via an unknown mechanism. 10,11 Rapamycin at a concentration of 10 nM fails to block the induction of these metabolic genes by leucine at 10 mM. Rapamycin was used at a concentration of 10 nM in these studies 10,11 because longterm treatment with rapamycin greater than 10 nM significantly induces apoptosis of pancreatic β cells.⁷² Although the rapamycin concentration tested in our studies is lower than that used in other studies in which the acute effects of leucine on mTOR activation have been evaluated, 9,58 we still cannot rule out the possibility that leucine regulates gene expression or protein synthesis via a rapamycin-insensitive signaling pathway in pancreatic islet cells. In support, Talvas et al. 73 report there is a lack of regulation of mTOR activity in response to leucine deprivation in C2C12 myotubes, suggesting that the activation of p70^{S6K} may be achieved through an mTORindependent mechanism. The authors further show that the availability of eIF4E with eIF2α phosphorylation is not determinant for decreasing global protein synthesis in leucine deprivation condition. As extensively reviewed and discussed by Yoshizawa,8 rapamycin attenuates but

does not prevent the leucine-induced enhancement of protein synthesis or eIF4F complex formation. It has been proposed that leucine regulates muscle protein synthesis through both an insulin- and mTOR-dependent signaling pathway involving 4EBP1 and p70^{S6K} phosphorylation, and an insulin- and mTOR-independent pathway involving enhanced eIF4F complex formation.8 In addition, Blomstrand et al.6 also report that branched-chain amino acids, in particular leucine, can stimulate phosphorylation of p70^{S6K} and enhance protein synthesis in muscle by a mechanism involving both mTORdependent and -independent pathways. Lee et al. 74 report that leucine increases ³H-thymidine incorporation and cell proliferation in chicken hepatocytes through a mechanism involving both the PKC/ERK1/2 signaling pathway and the mTOR-dependent signaling pathway. Rapamycin fails to block swelling-independent proteolysis inhibition by leucine in perfused rat livers, suggesting that at least rapamycin-sensitive mTOR activation is not involved in this process.75 Islets isolated from mice fed a low-protein (LP) diet for 8 weeks have lower expression levels of insulin receptor substrate-1 (IRS-1) and p70^{S6K} than those from mice fed a normal-protein (NP) diet. Glucose- and leucine-stimulated insulin secretion are significantly impaired in islets of LP-diet-fed mice when compared with control islets.⁷⁶ Overall, it is likely that leucine also regulates gene transcription and protein synthesis in pancreatic β cells by mTOR-independent signaling pathway(s).

LEUCINE REGULATION REVEALS THAT ATP SYNTHASE FUNCTIONS AS A RATE-LIMITING ENZYME IN THE PROCESS OF INSULIN SECRETION

Given the well-established facts that leucine nonspecifically enhances protein synthesis via mTOR-dependent and/or -independent mechanisms, it is reasonable to speculate that the protein expression of some transcription regulators or important metabolic enzymes might be upregulated by long-term treatment of leucine in pancreatic β cells. Thus, leucine may exert a long-term impact on insulin secretion and cell function of pancreatic β cells by regulating gene expression. To test this hypothesis, a genome-wide screening of 40,000 genes in RINm5F cells treated with leucine using microarray analysis was performed by our laboratory. The microarray analysis results show that treatment with 10 mM leucine for 24 h upregulates the ATP synthase β subunit (ATP- β) mRNA level by 3.2-fold. In contrast, the expression of other subunits of mitochondrial ATP synthase complex is not affected by leucine treatment. 10,11 The effect of long-term treatment with leucine on upregulation of ATP-β mRNA and protein levels is further confirmed in rat islets, INS-1 cells and human islets. Leucine regulation, siRNA knockdown and plasmid overexpression experiments indicate that ATP synthase (ATP-β) may function as a rate-limiting enzyme in the process of insulin secretion upon GK activation, 10,11 which is consistent with the previous observations that overexpression of GK alone fails to augment insulin secretion in INS-1 cells. 77,78 However, it should be noted that the enhancement of insulin secretion in rat and human islets by long-term leucine treatment in our studies is likely due to the change of a bunch of metabolic genes including ATP-B.11 Consistently, mitochondria have been reported to set the limit of fuel-induced insulin secretion in pancreatic islets.⁷⁹ Our findings contradict a previous report that 24-h culture with 20 mM leucine impairs glucose-induced insulin secretion and increases the ADP level in rat islets. However, the lack of change in the ATP level and glucose utilization and oxidation observed in this study is difficult to explain.80 Moreover, Zhang et al.81 report that chronic exposure to leucine downregulates the expression of PDX-1, GK, and GLUT2 in rat insulinoma β cells, resulting in decreased insulin content and glucose-induced insulin secretion at high glucose. Martens et al.82 demonstrate that treatment with 10 mM leucine for 72 h significantly reduces apoptosis of rat islet β cells concomitant with decreased levels of reactive oxygen species (ROS). Given that all of the catalytic sites of F1 ATP synthase are located either exclusively on the β subunits or at interfaces between β and α (ATP- α) subunits, 83,84 reduced expression of ATP- β or ATP- α will definitely impair ATP synthesis in mitochondria. It has been reported that reduced cellular ATP content is associated with decreased expression of ATP-β or ATP-α in various tissues of diabetic humans and rodents.85,86 Recently, ATP-β was shown to be expressed in the plasma

membrane of various cell types and be a putative receptor for enterostatin, a pentapeptide secreted by stomach and pancreas. ^{87,88} Incubation with enterostatin for 60 min significantly stimulated the translocation of ATP- β to the plasma membrane of INS-1 cells by 3.5-fold, ⁸⁹ which may have reduced mitochondrial ATP- β content and thus impaired ATP synthesis. This observation may partially explain the previous observations that enterostatin inhibits fuel-stimulated insulin secretion from pancreatic β cells. ⁹⁰⁻⁹² Chronic exposure to free fatty acids (FFAs) also stimulates the translocation of ATP- β to the plasma membrane of INS-1 cells, ⁸⁹ which may also contribute to the deleterious effects of FFAs on pancreatic β cells. ⁹³

Pancreatic B-cell dysfunction is a decisive cause of type 2 diabetes. Obesity-related hyperglycemia, hyperlipidemia, and excessive circulating inflammatory cytokines are the most important physiological factors causing β-cell dysfunction. In the past decade, increasing evidence has suggested that inhibition of ATP synthesis in mitochondria is the central event during the progression of β-cell dysfunction (Figure 1). Long-term lipid or glycemic stress activates uncoupling protein 2 (UCP2) expression in islet β cells, which initially prevents cells from being damaged by lipotoxic or glucotoxic insult by decreasing the proton potential ($\Delta \psi$) between intermembrane space and inner membrane of the mitochondria.94,95 However, mitochondrial ATP synthesis and insulin secretion from pancreatic islet β cells will be inhibited by an increase in UCP2 expression. 96,97 Genipin, a UCP2 inhibitor, acutely reverses obesity- and high glucose-induced \(\beta\)-cell dysfunction in isolated pancreatic islets.⁹⁷ Köhnke et al.⁹⁸ report that a combination of fatty acids and glucose at high concentrations downregulates

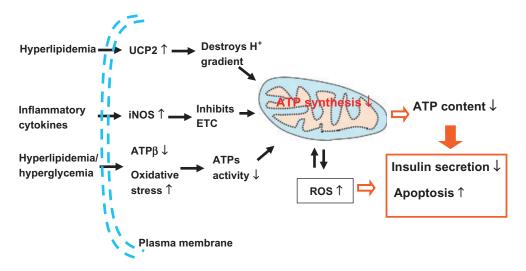


Figure 1 Association of reduced ATP synthesis in mitochondria with obesity-induced pancreatic β -cell dysfunction. Decrease in ATP synthesis is the central event in the progression of islet dysfunction under insulin-resistant conditions. Abbreviations: UCP2, uncoupling protein 2; iNOS, inducible nitrogen synthase; ATP β , ATP synthase β subunit; ATPs, ATP synthase complex; ROS, reactive oxygen species; ETC, electron transport chain.

ATP- β expression in INS-1 cells and reduces cellular ATP content. The authors further propose that the decreased rate of ATP synthesis in mitochondria resulting from downregulation of ATP-B plays a crucial role in fatty acidand glucose-induced β-cell dysfunction.98 Other alternative mechanisms through which fatty acids induce pancreatic β-cell dysfunction and apoptosis include activation of PKR-like ER kinase (PERK) and microRNAs, oxidative stress, and excessive accumulation of cellular ceramide. 99,100 Chronic exposure to excessive proinflammatory cytokines including IL-1β, TNF-α, and INF-γ activates inducible nitrogen synthase in pancreatic islet β cells, which produces excessive nitric oxide. Nitric oxide binds to complex IV of the mitochondrial respiratory chain and inhibits the formation of proton gradient in pancreatic β-cell mitochondria. Thus, inhibition of ATP synthesis is likely to be involved in cytokine-induced pancreatic β -cell dysfunction and apoptosis. 101,102 Chronic exposure of islet β cells to high glucose will both upregulate GK gene expression and allosterically activate GK activity, resulting in sequential increases in glucose oxidation, electron transport rate in the electron transport chain, and mitochondrial $\Delta \psi.^{103,104}$ It has been reported that high mitochondrial $\Delta \psi$ is the primary cause of excessive production of ROS in pancreatic β cells under hyperglycemic and hyperlipidemic conditions. 105,106 Consistently, although glucose oxidation is increased, cellular ATP content under glucose stimulation is significantly reduced in β -cell lines overexpressing GK. Moreover, cells overexpressing GK produce more ROS concomitant with increased apoptotic cells under the stimulation of high glucose. 107 In contrast, PPAR- γ agonists have been shown to protect β cells from fatty acid-induced oxidative stress and cell apoptosis by increasing cellular ATP content and decreasing ROS levels. 108 Similarly, transgenic mice specifically overexpressing GK in liver show impaired glucose tolerance after the age of 6 months. 109 These results indicate that long-term activation of GK alone enhances glucose oxidation and elevates mitochondrial $\Delta \psi$, which results in excessive ROS production. Increasing the mitochondrial proton leak rate, either by ATP synthesis 10,11,82 or UCP2-mediated heat production 106,110 will be important for maintaining normal mitochondrial $\Delta \psi$ and preventing excessive ROS production in pancreatic islet β cells under hyperglycemic and hyperlipidemic conditions (Figure 1). Clearly, leucine may also attenuate glucotoxicity by inhibiting ROS production via an increase in ATP synthesis10,11 or other unknown mechanisms.82

To date, the mechanism by which leucine upregulates GK and ATP- β remains unknown. However, recent studies have suggested the leucine signaling pathway may have crosstalk with some transcriptors or nuclear receptors including PDX-1,¹¹¹ LXR,¹¹² and PPAR γ ¹¹³⁻¹¹⁵ in the upregulation of GK and ATP- β .

Overall, the decrease in the mitochondrial ATP synthesis rate is associated with progression of pancreatic islet dysfunction and type 2 diabetes. Elevation of the cellular ATP synthesis rate by leucine-mediated upregulation of ATP- β or other metabolic enzymes may represent a potential intervention strategy for the treatment of islet dysfunction and type 2 diabetes.

CONCLUSION

Leucine plays important roles in the regulation of insulin secretion and cell metabolism of pancreatic β cells via acute and chronic effects (Figure 2). Allosteric regulation of GDH activity by leucine and/or other molecules has been demonstrated to be a potential intervention strategy for some insulin secretion disorders. In addition, further studies on the distinct mechanism(s) by which leucine regulates the expression of key metabolic genes in pancreatic β cells will shed new light on the prevention and treatment of islet dysfunction and type 2 diabetes.

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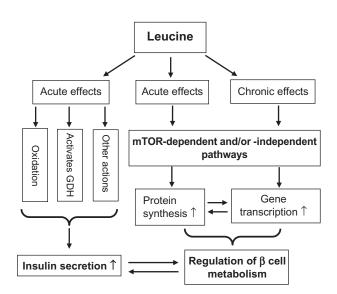


Figure 2 Leucine plays diverse roles in regulation of insulin secretion in pancreatic β -cells via acute and chronic effects. Further demonstration of the mechanisms by which leucine regulates GDH activity and up regulates other key metabolic genes will shed new light on prevention and treatment of type 2 diabetes.

Abbreviations: GDH, glutamate dehydrogenase; mTOR, mammalian target of rapamycin.

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Declaration of interest. The authors have no relevant interests to declare.

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