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## miR-146a Mediates Thymosin $\beta$ 4 Induced Neurovascular Remodeling of Diabetic Peripheral Neuropathy in Type-II Diabetic Mice

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### Abstract

Diabetes induces neurovascular dysfunction leading to peripheral neuropathy. MicroRNAs (miRNAs) affect many biological processes and the development of diabetic peripheral neuropathy. In the present study, we investigated whether thymosin- $\beta$ 4 (T $\beta$ 4) ameliorates diabetic peripheral neuropathy and whether miR-146a mediates the effect of T $\beta$ 4 on improved neurovascular function. Male Type II diabetic BKS.Cg-*m*+/*+**Lepr*<sup>db</sup>/*J*(db/db) mice at age 20 weeks were treated with T $\beta$ 4 for 8 consecutive weeks, and db/db mice treated with saline were used as a control group. Compared to non-diabetic mice, diabetic mice exhibited substantially reduced miR-146a expression, and increased IL-1R-associated kinase-1 (IRAK1), tumor necrosis factor (TNF)-associated factor 6 (TRAF6) levels and nuclear factor kappa-light-chain-enhancer of activated B cells (NF $\kappa$ B) activity in sciatic nerve tissues. Treatment of diabetic mice with T $\beta$ 4 significantly elevated miR-146a levels and overcame the effect of diabetes on these proteins. T $\beta$ 4 treatment substantially improved motor and sensory conduction velocity of the sciatic nerve, which was associated with improvements in sensory function. T $\beta$ 4 treatment significantly increased intraepidermal nerve fiber density and augmented local blood flow and the density of fluorescein isothiocyanate (FITC)-dextran perfused vessels in the sciatic nerve tissue. In vitro, treatment of dorsal root ganglion (DRG) neurons and mouse dermal endothelial cells (MDEs) with T $\beta$ 4 significantly increased axonal outgrowth and capillary-like tube formation, whereas blocking miR-146a attenuated T $\beta$ 4-induced axonal outgrowth and capillary tube formation, respectively.

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Author Contributions statement

All authors have read and approved submission of our manuscript. Conceived and designed the experiments: LW, MC, ZGZ.

Performed the experiments: LW, XL, AS, LJ, XSL. Analyzed the data: LW AS KW ML. Wrote the paper: LW, MC, ZGZ.

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Our data indicate that miR-146a may mediate T $\beta$ 4-induced neurovascular remodeling in diabetic mice, by suppressing pro-inflammatory signals.

## Keywords

Thymosin  $\beta$ 4; miR-146a; diabetes; peripheral neuropathy; mice

## 1. Introduction

Diabetic peripheral neuropathy is a significant complication of diabetes. The vast majority of people with diabetes have type II diabetes. Type II diabetes is associated with subclinical inflammation and activation of the innate immune system (Pickup, 2004). Diabetic patients with peripheral neuropathy have increased serum levels of inflammatory cytokines (Bilir et al., 2016; Doupis et al., 2009). Hyperglycemia activates pro-inflammatory mediators, which induce vascular dysfunction and nerve damage. Inflammatory mediators participate in the pathogenesis of diabetic peripheral neuropathy (Kawamura et al., 2008; Wright, 2011).

Thymosin  $\beta$ 4 (T $\beta$ 4), a small acidic polypeptide, has multiple biological functions including neurorestoration and anti-inflammation (Chopp and Zhang, 2015). T $\beta$ 4 promotes central nervous system plasticity and neurovascular remodeling leading to neurological recovery in a variety of neurological diseases (Morris et al., 2010; Xiong et al., 2011). T $\beta$ 4 attenuates inflammatory cell infiltration and promotes wound healing in diabetic animals (Evans et al., 2013). Our previous studies have found that T $\beta$ 4 ameliorates diabetes-induced neurovascular dysfunction, and thereby promotes neurological recovery of diabetic peripheral neuropathy (Wang et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2015a). However, the mechanisms by which T $\beta$ 4 improves neurological outcome in diabetic neuropathy have not been fully investigated.

MicroRNAs (miRNAs) are small non-coding RNAs that are key players in mediating physiological and pathogenesis functions of diabetes mellitus and diabetic complications (Kantharidis et al., 2011; Lorenzen et al., 2012). Dysregulation of miRNAs may affect inflammation and lead to development of diabetic neuropathy (Andersen et al., 2014; Gong et al., 2015). miRNAs are potential biomarkers and therapeutic targets in clinical pain disorders (Andersen et al., 2014). miR-146a modulates inflammatory and innate immunity responses by negatively regulating its target genes IRAK1, TRAF6 and NF $\kappa$ B activation, which subsequently down-regulate pro-inflammatory mediators such as MCP-1 and VCAM-1 (Landry et al., 1997; Taganov et al., 2006). The serum level of miR-146a is significantly decreased in type II diabetic patients (Balasubramanyam et al., 2011; Baldeon et al., 2014). miR-146a attenuates neuropathic pain by suppressing TRAF6 signaling in the spinal cord (Lu et al., 2015). Moreover, miR-146a over-expression represses the endothelial inflammatory response (Cheng et al., 2013). We recently demonstrated that treatment of diabetic db/db mice with miR-146a mimics reduces diabetic peripheral neuropathy (Liu et al., 2017). In addition, the miR-146a increases DRG neuronal survival and axonal outgrowth under hyperglycemia conditions (Jia et al., 2016; Wang et al., 2014). miR-146a upregulated by T $\beta$ 4 promotes oligodendrocyte differentiation by suppression of pro-inflammatory pathways (Santra et al., 2014). Furthermore, T $\beta$ 4 inhibits the expression and secretion of

inflammatory mediators through miR-146a in hypoxia injured rats (Zhou et al., 2015). However, whether miR-146a mediates the therapeutic effect of T $\beta$ 4 on diabetic peripheral neuropathy has not been investigated.

In the present study, we elucidate the molecular mechanisms underlying the therapeutic effect of T $\beta$ 4 on diabetic peripheral neuropathy with a focus on miR-146a. We hypothesize that miR-146a is involved in T $\beta$ 4-improved neurovascular function in diabetic db/db mice.

## 2. Results

### 2.1. T $\beta$ 4 reverses the effect of diabetes on miR-146a expression and its target proteins in sciatic nerve tissues.

Our previous study showed that diabetes reduced miR-146a expression in DRG neurons (Wang et al., 2014). To extend our findings, we measured miR-146a levels in sciatic nerve tissues by means of quantitative real time RT-PCR and found that diabetic db/db mice exhibited significantly decreased miR-146a expression compared to that in non-diabetic mice, which was reversed by T $\beta$ 4 treatment (Fig. 1). These data indicate that T $\beta$ 4 treatment overcomes diabetes-reduced miR-146a expression in the sciatic nerve tissues. IRAK1 and TRAF6 are genes that are targeted by miR-146a (Balasubramanyam et al., 2011; Yousefzadeh et al., 2015). Increasing activity of NF $\kappa$ B regulates the expression of MCP-1 and VCAM-1 (Landry et al., 1997). Thus, we examined the effect of T $\beta$ 4 on the expression of these proteins in sciatic nerve tissues. Western blot analysis showed that diabetic db/db mice exhibited a considerable increase in IRAK1 and TRAF6 protein levels, whereas treatment with T $\beta$ 4 markedly suppressed these two proteins (Fig. 1). Moreover, T $\beta$ 4 substantially reduced phosphorylated NF $\kappa$ B (p-NF $\kappa$ B), MCP-1 and VCAM-1 protein levels in sciatic nerve tissues compared to the saline treatment (Fig. 1). Double immunofluorescent staining revealed that IRAK1 and TRAF6 immunoreactivity was co-localized to vWF positive endothelial cells (Fig. 1). Collectively, these data suggest that T $\beta$ 4 reverses the effect of diabetes on miR-146a expression and its target proteins in sciatic nerve tissues.

### 2.2. T $\beta$ 4 ameliorates vascular dysfunction in the sciatic nerve tissues. miR-146a mediates the effect of T $\beta$ 4 on endothelial cell tube formation in vitro.

To examine whether T $\beta$ 4-regulation of miR-146a and its target proteins promotes vascular remodeling, vascular function was measured. Consistent with a previous report (Li et al., 2005; Wang et al., 2012), diabetic db/db mice exhibited substantial reduction of local blood flow in the sciatic nerve tissues, measured by means of a Laser Doppler Flowmeter (LDF) and FITC-dextran perfused functional microvascular density, compared to non-diabetic mice. Treatment of db/db mice with T $\beta$ 4 significantly increased functional microvascular density and regional blood flow in the sciatic nerve tissues compared to saline treated db/db mice (Fig.2). To further examine whether miR-146a mediates T $\beta$ 4-improved vascular function, we performed an in vitro capillary tube formation assay in MDEs. Compared to normal glucose (5 mM), high glucose conditions (30 mM) significantly reduced capillary tube formation. Application of T $\beta$ 4 to MDEs overcame the inhibitory effect on capillary tube formation induced by high glucose, whereas attenuation of endogenous miR-146a by siRNA against miR-146a abolished the effect of T $\beta$ 4 on endothelial cell capillary tube

formation compared to the scramble negative control (Fig.2). Quantitative real-time RT-PCR and Western blot analysis showed that the transfection of MDEs with miR-146a mimics markedly increased the miR-146a level, and reduced the protein levels of IRAK1 and TRAF6 compared to the miR-146a mimic control, respectively (Fig.2). MDEs cultured under a high glucose condition exhibited substantially reduced miR-146a and increased miR-146a target mRNAs and proteins, IRAK1 and TRAF6 and p-NFkB, along with increased MCP-1 and VCAM-1 expression, respectively. However, addition of T $\beta$ 4 reversed the effect of high glucose on miR-146a and its target mRNAs and proteins in MDEs. Furthermore, blockage of endogenous miR-146a attenuated T $\beta$ 4-suppressed IRAK1, TRAF6 and p-NFkB, as well as MCP-1 and VCAM-1 expression (Fig.2). These in vitro data suggest that miR-146a contributes to T $\beta$ 4 improved vascular function likely via its target proteins IRAK1 and TRAF6, and downstream NFkB signaling.

### 2.3. miR-146a mediates the effect of T $\beta$ 4 on axonal outgrowth in DRG neurons.

To test whether miR-146a is involved in T $\beta$ 4-induced axonal remodeling in diabetic mice, we measured intraepidermal nerve fiber density on plantar skin tissues. Diabetic mice exhibited reduction of PGP9.5 positive intraepidermal sensory nerve fibers, and T $\beta$ 4 significantly augmented intraepidermal nerve fiber density in diabetic mice compared to saline treatment (Fig.3), which is consistent with a prior report (Wang et al., 2015a).

We performed in vitro experiments to examine the effect of miR-146a on T $\beta$ 4 induced DRG neuron axonal growth, using a microfluidic device which separates distal axons from their parent neuronal soma (Jia et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2013). DRG neurons cultured under a high glucose condition exhibited substantial suppression of axonal outgrowth, which was overcome by application of T $\beta$ 4. However, attenuation of endogenous miR-146a in DRG neurons with siRNA against miR-146a significantly reduced T $\beta$ 4-enhanced DRG axonal growth compared to the scramble negative control group (Fig.3). Quantitative real-time RT-PCR revealed that high glucose reduced DRG neuron miR-146a levels and substantially increased miR-146a target genes, IRAK1 and TRAF6 in DRG neurons. However, T $\beta$ 4 significantly reversed high glucose-reduced miR-146a levels and the high glucose-increased IRAK1 and TRAF6 expression. siRNA against miR-146a in DRG neurons attenuated T $\beta$ 4-decreased IRAK1 and TRAF6 mRNA levels (Fig.3). The data indicate that miR-146a mediates T $\beta$ 4-induced axonal outgrowth under hyperglycemia.

### 2.4. T $\beta$ 4 improves neurological function in diabetic db/db mice.

Next, we investigated whether augmentation of neurovascular remodeling by T $\beta$ 4 affects neurological function of diabetic neuropathy. Consistent with our previous report (Wang et al., 2012), T $\beta$ 4-treatment significantly improved motor and sensory conduction velocities (MCV and SCV) in the sciatic nerve, and thermal latency (Plantar test) compared to diabetic db/db mice treated with saline (Fig.4). However, T $\beta$ 4-treatment in db/db mice did not decrease blood glucose and body weight (Table 1 and 2).

### 3. Discussion

The present study observed that miR-146a expression was considerably reduced in sciatic nerve tissues of diabetic db/db mice, and this reduction was associated with an increase in its target proteins IRAK1 and TRAF6, and NF $\kappa$ B activation, resulting in increased MCP-1 and VCAM-1 levels. Treatment of diabetic peripheral neuropathy with T $\beta$ 4 significantly upregulated miR-146a levels and suppressed expression of miR-146a target pro-inflammatory mediators, as well as improved neurovascular remodeling in diabetic db/db mice. In vitro, inhibiting endogenous miR-146a attenuated the effect of T $\beta$ 4-induced capillary tube formation and axonal outgrowth in MDEs and DRG neurons under high glucose conditions, respectively. These data provide a molecular mechanism, that miR-146a via its target genes, likely mediates the therapeutic effect of T $\beta$ 4 on diabetic neuropathy.

Diabetic patients and rodents experience an increase in inflammatory mediators including cytokines, chemokines and adhesion molecules that are primarily produced by activated immune cells, macrophages and adipocytes (King, 2008; Navarro and Mora, 2005; Newton and Dixit, 2012). Inflammatory mediators create a pro-inflammatory microenvironment that leads to neurovascular dysfunction in the peripheral nerve system (Rahman et al., 2016). Diabetic neuropathy exhibits features of chronic subclinical inflammation. There is a significant correlation between increases in pro-inflammatory signals of NF $\kappa$ B, MCP-1 and VCAM-1 and diabetic peripheral neuropathy (Guan et al., 2011; Hocaoglu-Emre et al., 2017; Wright, 2011). Inhibition of the inflammatory mediators is effective in improving peripheral nerve and vascular function in diabetic neuropathy (Zhou and Zhou, 2014), and thereby constitutes a possible therapeutic target for diabetic neuropathy.

Dysregulation of miRNAs has been reported in human and animal models of diabetic neuropathy (Andersen et al., 2014; Gong et al., 2015). miRNAs may contribute to the pathogenesis of diabetic neuropathy (Gong et al., 2015; Natarajan et al., 2012). miR-146a regulates immune and inflammation response (Bhaumik et al., 2008; Hou et al., 2009). Serum levels of miR-146a are reduced in type II diabetic patients (Baldeon et al., 2014). miR-146a has been found to be a susceptibility factor in diabetic neuropathy (Ciccacci et al., 2014). miR-146a and its target genes IRAK1 and TRAF6 are involved in the pathogenesis of diabetic neuropathy (Yousefzadeh et al., 2015). Our previous study demonstrated that systemic administration of exogenous miR-146a mimics to diabetic db/db mice with peripheral neuropathy robustly improved regional blood flow in sciatic nerve tissue and neurological outcome by suppressing expression of IRAK1, TRAF6 and inactivating downstream NF $\kappa$ B signaling in the sciatic nerve tissue (Liu et al., 2017). Moreover, our previous in vitro studies have demonstrated that miR-146a mediates T $\beta$ 4-increased oligodendrogenesis via inhibiting IRAK1/TRAF6 and modulating the p38 MAPK pathway (Santra et al., 2014), while an increased miR-146a promotes axonal growth of DRG neurons under high glucose condition by targeting IRAK1 and TRAF6 (Jia et al., 2016). The current study confirms and extends the published studies by showing that miR-146a elevated by T $\beta$ 4 mediates the therapeutic effect of improvement of neurovascular function in diabetic neuropathy via suppressing pro-inflammatory signaling of IRAK1, TRAF6, and NF $\kappa$ B. The specificity for miR-146a to target IRAK1 and TRAF6 has been demonstrated (Hou et al., 2009; Liu et al., 2017; Taganov et al., 2006). There are two nucleotide differences of seed

regions between miR-146a and miR-146b, although they are located in different chromosomes (Garcia et al., 2011). Both miR-146a and miR-146b share the same effects on their targeted genes including BRCA1 in breast cancer cells (Garcia et al., 2011). Thus, it is likely that TRAF6 and IRAK1 genes targeted by miR-146a mimics can be targeted by miR-146b. We do not exclude the possibility that other miRNAs may also be involved in the beneficial effects of T $\beta$ 4 in diabetic neuropathy. Therefore, additional studies are warranted.

Diabetic neuropathy is closely associated with marked neurovascular dysfunction (Davidson et al., 2018; Yorek, 2015). Neurorestorative effects in diabetic peripheral neuropathy are mediated by many coupled events, including vascular remodeling and axonal outgrowth; each factor impacts the others. Our in vitro data indicate that miR-146a and its target proteins mediate the augmentation of vascular function and axonal outgrowth by T $\beta$ 4. In vivo, the present study shows that T $\beta$ 4-improved microvascular and axonal remodeling is tightly coupled, and both, in concert, likely contribute to improved neurological outcome. However, additional studies are warranted to investigate the cause-effect and sequence of vascular and axonal remodeling induced by T $\beta$ 4. Based on the present data and published studies, we speculate that T $\beta$ 4-upregulated miR-146a represses IRAK1 and TRAF6, resulting in attenuation of NF- $\kappa$ B signaling activation including pro-inflammatory mediators, MCP-1 and VCAM-1, consequently ameliorating neurovascular dysfunction and peripheral neuropathy (Fig.5). There are multiple pathways that mediate T $\beta$ 4-improved neurovascular function. We previously demonstrated that T $\beta$ 4 impacts Ang1/Tie2 and PI3K/AKT signaling pathways (Wang et al., 2012). Here, we found that miR-146a and its target pro-inflammatory factors mediate the T $\beta$ 4 therapeutic effect on neurovascular remodeling. Additional studies of diabetic neuropathy are warranted to investigate the effect of T $\beta$ 4-increased miR-146a on other signaling pathways such as p38 MAPK.

Diabetic db/db mice develop diabetes at age of 4 weeks, while peripheral neuropathy characterized by slowed NCVs occurs between 8-14 weeks of age (li et al., 2005; Pande et al., 2011; Sima and Robertson, 1978). Morphometric changes including myelinated and unmyelinated fibers and sensory neurons occur after 20 weeks of diabetes, which resembles human diabetic peripheral neuropathy (Norido et al., 1984). Thus, in the present study, 20 week-old diabetic mice were used.

DRG sensory neuron growth has high metabolic requirements (Russell et al., 1999; Russell et al., 2002). We define a normal glucose medium as a medium containing 25 mM, which is the optimal concentration for primary embryonic DRG neuron growth (Jia et al., 2016; Russell et al., 1999; Russell et al., 2002; Wang et al., 2014). However, in vivo, a normal glucose level is approximately 5 mM. Therefore, additional experiments with adult DRG neurons derived from diabetic mice are warranted to mimic in vivo conditions. In contrast to our results, miR-146a expression was increased in the sciatic nerve of STZ induced diabetic rats (Yousefzadeh et al., 2015). The differences in miR-146a expression may be due to differences in animal-type and diabetic model.

In conclusion, we have demonstrated that the treatment of diabetic peripheral neuropathy with T $\beta$ 4 significantly promotes neurovascular remodeling, leading to improvement of

neurological function recovery. miR-146a may mediate the therapeutic effects of T $\beta$ 4 by suppressing pro-inflammatory mediators.

## 4. Experimental Procedure

### 4.1. Animals:

All experimental procedures were approved by the Henry Ford Hospital Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (IACUC#1486). Adult male BKS. Cg-*m*<sup>+/+</sup>*Lep<sup>db</sup>/J* (db/db) mice were used as a model of type II diabetes, and heterozygote mice (db/m, a non-penetrant genotype) served as nondiabetic controls. Mice were purchased from Jackson Laboratories.

### 4.2. T $\beta$ 4 treatment:

Diabetic db/db mice (age 20 weeks) were randomized to intraperitoneal (i.p.) injection with T $\beta$ 4 (30 mg/kg, RegeneRx, Inc. n=10/group) daily for 8 weeks. Age-matched db/db mice (n=10/group) and nondiabetic db/m mice (n=10/group) administered with the same volume of saline were employed as control. All mice were sacrificed eight weeks after the initial treatment. The doses and drug delivery route of T $\beta$ 4 were determined in previous studies (Wang et al., 2015a; Xiong et al., 2012).

Blood glucose, body weight and functional tests were measured in all mice before the initiation of treatment, and then every 4 weeks. Blood glucose level was assessed using test strips for glucose (Roche Diagnostics). The treatment assignments were blinded to investigators who participated in behavioral tests and endpoint analyses.

### 4.3. Measurement of motor and sensory nerve conduction velocity:

Nerve conduction velocity of the sciatic nerve was measured with orthodromic recording techniques according to published protocols (li et al., 2005; Wang et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2015b). Briefly, animals were anesthetized with ketamine/xylazine (i.p., 100/10 mg/kg) and their rectal temperature was maintained at  $37 \pm 1.0^{\circ}\text{C}$  using a feedback controlled water bath during the measurements. The sciatic notch and knee were stimulated with electrodes via a stimulator (A-M Systems, Model 2100). The simultaneous electromyographies were recorded from the dorsum of the foot by two sterilized electrodes with an Amplifier (Grass Instruments, Model P5). Motor nerve conduction velocity (MCV) and sensory nerve conduction velocity (SCV) were calculated based on published studies (li et al., 2005; Wang et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2015b).

### 4.4. Measurement of thermal sensitivity:

Plantar test (Hargreaves Method) was performed using the Plantar Test and Tail Flick Analgesia Meter (IITC Life Science, Model 336 TG), as previously described (Wang et al., 2015a; Wang et al., 2015b). Briefly, animals were acclimated for 20 min in a plexiglass chamber resting on a transparent glass surface. The temperature of the floor was set at  $\sim 32\text{-}33^{\circ}\text{C}$  (manufacturer's setup). The radiant heat source (15% intensity which produced a heating rate of  $\sim 1.3^{\circ}\text{C}$  per sec) was placed under the hind paw. The paw-withdrawal latency in response to the radiant heat was recorded, with a cut-off time of 30 sec. For each mouse,

five readings were taken at 15 min intervals, and the mean value was calculated (Wang et al., 2015a; Wang et al., 2015b).

#### 4.5. Measurement of regional blood flow and microvascular plasma perfusion:

Regional blood flow in sciatic nerve tissues was assessed by laser Doppler flowmetry (LDF PeriFlux PF4, Perimed AB) after 8 weeks of initial treatment (Wang et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2015b). Briefly, the mouse was mounted on a Kopf stereotaxic apparatus under anesthesia (ketamine/xylazine, i.p., 100/10 mg/kg, JHP Pharmaceuticals LLC.). The left sciatic nerve tissue in the mid-thigh region was exposed and the temperature of these mice was maintained at  $37 \pm 1.0^{\circ}\text{C}$  by a water bath. Relative flow values expressed as perfusion units were measured using the LDF probe placed at the surface of the sciatic nerve, every 5 minutes for a total of 5 recordings. Regional blood flow values in sciatic nerve tissues from non-diabetic db/m mice are defined as baseline values and data are expressed as a percentage of baseline values (Wang et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2015b). To assess blood perfusion in the sciatic nerve, fluorescein isothiocyanate (FITC)-dextran (0.2 mL of 50 mg/mL,  $2 \times 10^6$  molecular weight, Sigma Aldrich) was intravenously (i.v.) injected to the mice (Wang et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2015b). Ten minutes later, the sciatic nerve tissues were rapidly harvested and fixed in 2% of paraformaldehyde for 2 hours. The whole mount sciatic nerves were digitized under a 10x objective using a laser-scanning confocal microscope (Zeiss LSM 510 NLO, Carl Zeiss) (Wang et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2015b). The sciatic nerves were then embedded in optimum cutting temperature (OCT) compound and 20  $\mu\text{m}$  thickness cross sections were cut. They were imaged under a 20x microscope objective (Zeiss Axiophot) via a Micro Computer Imaging Device (MCID) system (Imaging Research Inc.). Three sections at 60  $\mu\text{m}$  intervals from each nerve were applied. The vascular density was expressed as the total number of FITC-dextran perfused vessels divided by the total tissue-area ( $\text{mm}^2$ ) (Wang et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2015b).

#### 4.6. Immunohistochemistry:

For immunohistochemistry, the sciatic nerves were fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde and then embedded in paraffin (Wang et al., 2012). Footpad skin was fixed in ice-cold Zamboni's fixative for 2 hours and then kept in 30% sucrose/PBS overnight at  $4^{\circ}\text{C}$ . The skin samples were then frozen in OCT compound. Three longitudinal 6- $\mu\text{m}$ -thick sciatic nerve and 20- $\mu\text{m}$ -thick footpad sections from each animal were used (Wang et al., 2015b). For immunostaining, the following primary antibodies were applied: polyclonal rabbit anti-protein gene product 9.5 (PGP9.5, 1:1,000, MILLIPORE), polyclonal rabbit anti-Von Willebrand Factor (vWF, 1:300, Dako), polyclonal rabbit anti-IRAK1 (1:50, Santa Cruz Biotech) and polyclonal rabbit anti-TRAF6 (1: 50, Santa Cruz Biotech). Rabbit anti-IgG was applied as a negative control. 4',6-Diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI, 1:5000, Thermo Scientific) was used as a nuclear counterstain.

#### 4.7. Image acquisition and quantification:

To measure intraepidermal nerve fiber density (IENFD), nerve profiles were imaged under a 40x microscope objective (Carl Zeiss Axiostar Plus Microscope) using the MCID system. The number of nerve fibers crossing the dermal-epidermal junction were measured and



interepidermal nerve fiber density was presented as number of fibers per millimeter of length of epidermis (Wang et al., 2015b).

#### 4.8. Capillary-like tube formation assay:

The capillary-like tube formation assay was performed to examine the effect of T $\beta$ 4 on in vitro angiogenesis (Wang et al., 2012). Briefly, Mouse Dermal Microvascular Endothelial Cells (MDEs, Cell Biologics Inc.) were cultured in regular (5 mM) or high (30 mM) glucose conditions with or without 100 ng/ml of T $\beta$ 4 for 48 hours. MDEs ( $2 \times 10^4$  cells) were seeded on Matrigel-coated-96-well plate (BD Biosciences) for 5 hours. Total length of tubes in 3 randomly selected fields/well was assessed using the MCID system (Wang et al., 2012). Experiments were repeated 6 times, independently (n=6/group). In the MDE study, a regular glucose (RG) medium was referred to as a medium containing 5 mM glucose, while a high glucose (HG) medium was defined as a medium containing 30 mM glucose, which was chosen to match glucose levels prevalent in patients with uncontrolled diabetes (Wang et al., 2012; Wu et al., 1999).

#### 4.9. Culture of primary embryonic DRG neurons:

Primarily DRG neurons were harvested from embryonic day 18 Wistar rats (ED18, either sex; Charles River Laboratories). Cultures were performed following previous published protocols (Jia et al., 2016). Briefly, DRGs were dissected from embryos and then digested with 0.05% trypsin (Thermo Fisher Scientific) in neurobasal medium at 37°C for 30 min. DRG neurons were dissociated with a Pasteur pipette and then the cell suspension was passed through a 70  $\mu$ m cell filter (Fisher Scientific). The cells were counted and adjusted to a concentration of  $3 \times 10^7$  cells/ml.

DRG neurons were cultured in a microfluidic chamber (Xona Microfluidics), which permits neurons to grow their distal axons into an axonal compartment without contamination of somata and dendrites (Jia et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2013). Sterilized chambers were placed on dishes (35 mm, Corning) coated with poly-D-lysine (Sigma-Aldrich). The DRG neurons ( $6 \times 10^5$  cells/chamber) were cultured in chambers in DMEM with 5% FBS for 4 hours and then the medium was replaced with neurobasal medium (Invitrogen), 2mM GlutaMax, 2% B-27, and 1% antibiotic-antimycotic (Invitrogen). 5-fluorodeoxyuridine was used to purify the neurons. On 3 day in vitro (DIV), the medium was changed with non-5-fluorodeoxyuridine neurobasal medium. The growth media was replaced every other day (Jia et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2013).

In the primary embryonic DRG neuron study, a regular glucose (RG) medium was referred to as a medium containing 25 mM glucose (optimal glucose concentration for the culture of primary embryonic DRG neurons). High glucose (HG) medium was defined as a medium containing 45 mM glucose. Both concentrations of glucose are commonly used for the embryonic DRG neurons for in vitro hyperglycemia experiments (Jia et al., 2016; Russell et al., 1999; Russell et al., 2002; Wang et al., 2014). The effects of T $\beta$ 4 (100 ng/ml) on DRG neurons under HG conditions were measured (Wang et al., 2012).

#### 4.10. Immunocytochemistry and axonal measurement:

Immunofluorescent staining was performed as previously reported (Wang et al., 2015a). Monoclonal antibody against phosphorylated neurofilament heavy protein (pNFH, 1:500, Covance) was used. Nuclei were counterstained with DAPI (1:5000). For axonal measurement, the length of the 15 longest axons in each chamber was measured by tracing individual axons with the MCID system at DIV5 (Jia et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2013).

#### 4.11. Transfection of MDEs and DRG neurons with miR-146a mimics and inhibitors:

To examine the effect of miR-146a on MDEs and DRG neurons, these cells were transfected by means of Nucleofector™ kit (Lonza) with miRIDIAN microRNA Mouse mmu-miR-146a-5p-Mimic (Dharmacon, C-310423-05-0005), miRIDIAN microRNA Mimic Negative Control (Dharmacon, CN-001000-01-05), miRIDIAN microRNA Mouse mmu-miR-146a-5p- Hairpin Inhibitor (Dharmacon, IH-310423-07-0005) and miRIDIAN microRNA Hairpin Inhibitor Negative Control (Dharmacon, IN-001005-01), following the manufacturer's protocol (Jia et al., 2016; Wang et al., 2014). Briefly, miRNA mimics, inhibitors or corresponding controls at 200 pmol/well were mixed with 100 µl of nucleofector solution. MDEs or DRG neurons were added to the transfection solution and then were transferred into a cuvette. The programs V-01 for MDEs and O-03 for DRG neurons were used for electroporation, respectively (Jia et al., 2016; Wang et al., 2014).

#### 4.12. Quantification of mature miR-146a by Real-Time RT-PCR:

Total RNAs from tissues or cells were isolated using the miRNeasy Mini kit (Qiagen). Reverse transcription and TaqMan microRNA assay were performed on ABI 7000 and ABI ViiA 7 PCR instrument (Applied Biosystems) (Wang et al., 2014). Briefly, 15 µl of reverse transcription reactions were used, including 100 ng total RNA, 5U MultiScribe Reverse Transcriptase, 0.5 mM each of dNTPs, 1x reverse transcription buffer, 4U RNase inhibitor, and nuclease-free water. The running program was as follows: 16 °C for 30 min, 42 °C for 30 min, 85 °C for 5 min. For TaqMan assay, 20 µl qRT-PCR reactions were used, including 1x TaqMan Universal PCR Master Mix No AmpErase UNG, 1x TaqMan miRNA assay, 1.33 µl of cDNA and nuclease-free water. The running program was: 95 °C for 10 min, followed by 40 cycles at 95 °C for 15 s, and 60 °C for 1 min. Relative levels of miRNAs were calculated by means of the  $2^{-C_T}$  method with U6 snRNA TaqMan miRNA control assay (Applied Biosystem) as the endogenous control (Livak and Schmittgen, 2001). Each sample was tested in triplicate, and at least three samples obtained from independent experiments were examined. The following hydrolysis miRNA primers were used: mmu-miR-146a-5p (mature sequence: UGAGAACUGAAUCCAUGGGUU) (Dharmacon, MIMAT0000158). Relative levels of miRNA were calculated by means of the formula  $2^{-C_T}$  after normalizing  $C_T$  values to a reference miRNA U6.

#### 4.13. Quantification of mRNA by Real-Time RT-PCR:

The reverse transcription was performed using M-MLV reverse-transcriptase (Invitrogen). The qRT-PCR was performed using the SYBR green real-time PCR method on a ViiA7 Instrument (Applied Biosystems) (Wang et al., 2014). The mRNA of Heat shock cognate protein 70 (HSC70) was used as a reference gene. The primers are: HSC70 (FWD,

GGCACCACCTACTCCTGTGT; REV, TCTGTGTCCGTGAAAGCAAC), IRAK1 (FWD, GAGACCCTTGCTGGTAGAG; REV, GCTACACCCACCCACAGAGT), TRAF6 (FWD, GCCCAGGCTGTTCATAATG; REV, CGGATCTGATGGTCCTGT), NFκB (FWD: CAGACCTTCGGTTGGAAGAG; REV: TCCTTCACAGCATTTGCATC), MCP-1(FWD:CTGCTACTCATTACCAGCAAG;REV:CTCTCTCTTGAGCTTGGTGAC A), VCAM-1 (FWD:CAGGTGGAGGTCTACTCATTCC; REV: CTCCAGATGGTCAAAGGGATAC). Relative levels of mRNAs were calculated using the  $2^{-C_T}$  method (Livak and Schmittgen, 2001). Each sample was tested in triplicate.

#### 4.14. Western blot analysis:

Western blot was performed as in published protocols (Wang et al., 2012; Wang, 2014). Briefly, equal amounts of protein extracts were separated by 10% SDS-polyacrylamide gel. The proteins were then transferred to nitrocellulose membranes, and the following antibodies were used: rabbit anti-IRAK1 (1:1000, Santa Cruz), rabbit anti-TRAF6 (1:1000, Santa Cruz), mouse anti-phospho-NF-κB p65 (1:1000, Cell Signaling Technology), mouse anti-vascular cell adhesion molecule-1 (VCAM-1, 1:500, Santa Cruz), rabbit anti-monocyte chemoattractant protein-1 (MCP-1, 1:1000, Abcam) and rabbit anti-β-actin (1:10000, Abcam). Protein levels of β-actin were used as the internal controls. The band density was analyzed using Scion Image analysis program (Scion Image). At least 3 individual experiments were performed.

#### 4.15. Statistical analysis:

Data were evaluated for normality and illustrated as mean±SE. GEE Global Test was used to test Tβ4 effect on functional recovery measured by MCV, SCV and Planter tests at day 56 after treatment. The repeated measure analysis of variance (ANCOVA) was used to study treatment effect in individual functional tests over time. The analysis started testing for group by time interaction, followed by the testing the main effect of group and subgroup analyses.

Two-sample t-test or analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to test the group differences in immunostaining, biochemistry and Western blot measurements, respectively. The same analytical approaches were used to test effect of diabetes, compared to the normal controls. A p-value <0.05 was taken as significant.

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## Abbreviations:

Tβ4

Thymosin beta 4

<b>Db/db mice</b>	BKS. <i>Cg-m+/+Lepr<sup>db</sup>/J mice</i>
<b>IRAK1</b>	IL-1R-associated kinase 1
<b>TRAF6</b>	tumor necrosis factor (TNFR)-associated factor 6
<b>NFκB</b>	Nuclear factor kappa-light-chain-enhancer of activated B cells
<b>VCAM-1</b>	Vascular cell adhesion molecule-1
<b>MCP-1</b>	Monocyte chemotactic protein-1
<b>MCV</b>	Motor nerve conduction velocities
<b>SCV</b>	Sensory nerve conduction velocities
<b>DRG</b>	Dorsal root ganglion
<b>LDF</b>	Laser Doppler Flowmetry
<b>FITC</b>	Fluorescein isothiocyanate
<b>OCT</b>	Optimum cutting temperature
<b>MCID</b>	Micro Computer Imaging Device
<b>PGP 9.5</b>	Protein gene product 9.5
<b>DAPI</b>	4', 6-Diamidino-2-phenylindole
<b>IgG</b>	Immunoglobulin G
<b>IENF</b>	Intraepidermal nerve fiber
<b>ANCOVA</b>	Analysis of covariance
<b>GEE</b>	Generalized estimating equations
<b>ANOVA</b>	Analysis of variance

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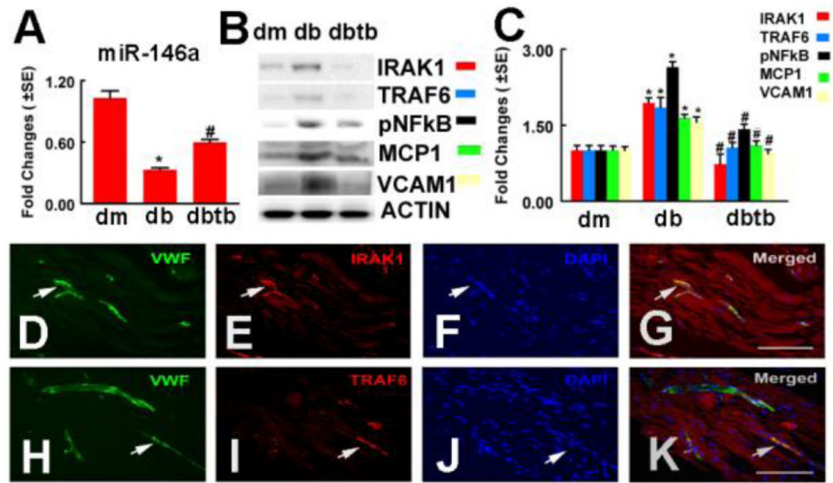
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**Highlights**

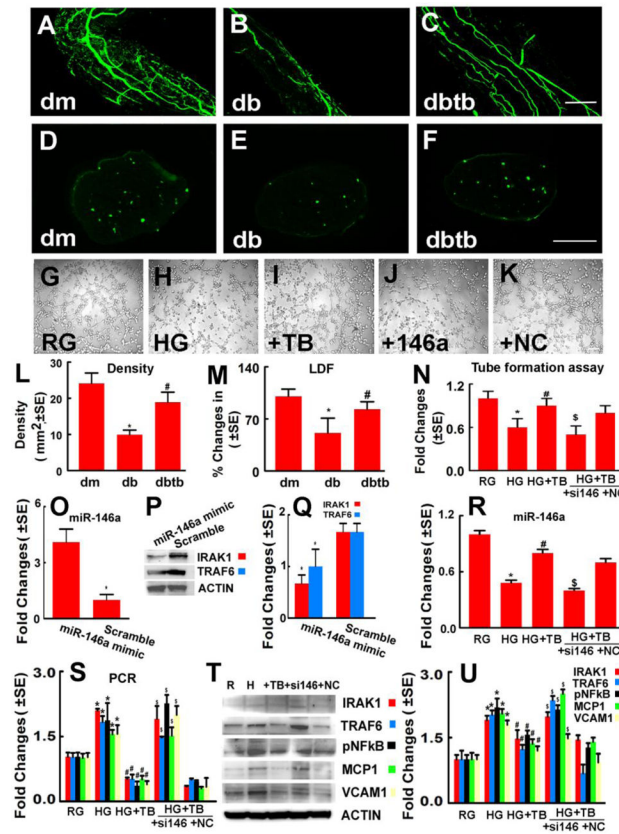
- miR-146a mediates T $\beta$ 4-promoted endothelial cell function under hyperglycemia.
- miR-146a regulates T $\beta$ 4-induced axonal outgrowth under hyperglycemia.
- miR-146a contributes the therapeutic effect of T $\beta$ 4 on diabetic neuropathy.



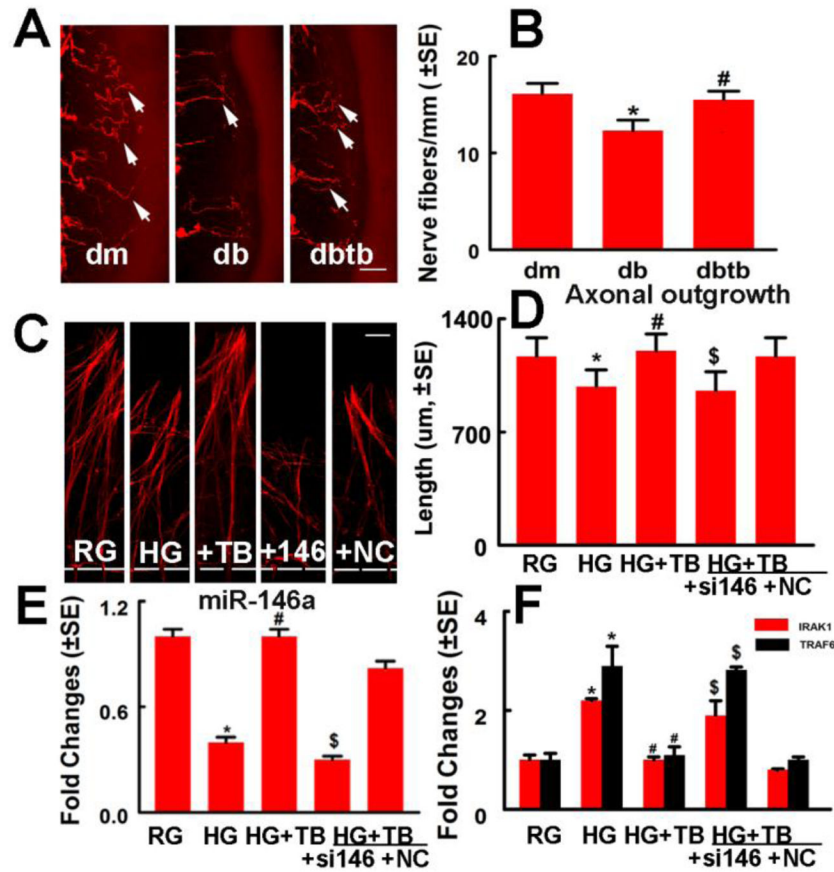


**Fig.1: T $\beta$ 4 treatment increased miR-146a level and decreased IRAK1, TRAF6 and p-NFkB expression, as well as MCP-1 and VCAM-1 levels in sciatic nerve tissues.**

Panels A to C show real-time RT-PCR analysis of miR-146a expression (A) and Western blot analysis of IRAK1, TRAF6 and p-NFkB, as well as MCP-1 and VCAM-1 levels in the sciatic nerve tissues,  $\beta$ -actin was used as an internal control (B and C). Double immunofluorescent staining shows that IRAK1 (E, G red, arrows) and TRAF6 (I, K, red, arrows) immunoreactivity were localized to vWF positive vessels (D, G, H, K green, arrows). Panels F and J show DAPI nuclear staining (blue). \* $p < 0.05$  and # $p < 0.05$  versus the db/m mouse and the saline treated db/db mouse, respectively.  $n = 6/\text{group}$ . Bar = 100  $\mu\text{m}$ . dm=db/m mouse; db=db/db mouse. dbtb=diabetic mouse treated with T $\beta$ 4.

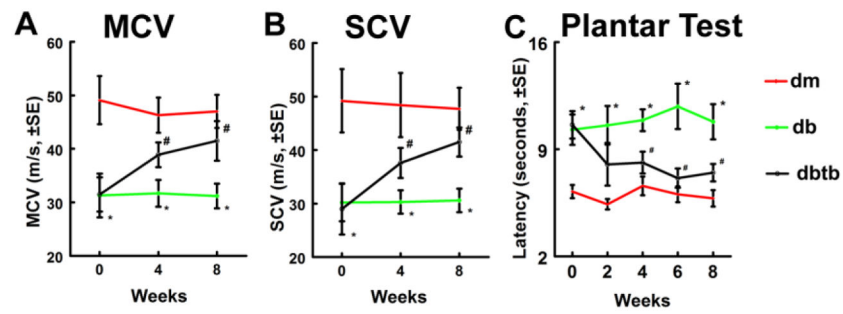


**Fig.2: miR-146a mediates T $\beta$ 4-improved vascular function in the diabetic sciatic nerve.** Panels A to F show that whole-mounted (A to C) and cross sections (D to F) of the sciatic nerve tissues revealed FITC-dextran perfused vessels from a representative dm mouse (A, D), db mouse treated with saline (B, E), and db mouse treated with T $\beta$ 4 (C,F). Panels L and M show quantitative data of the density of FITC-dextran perfused vessels in cross section (L, n=6/group) and percentage changes of sciatic nerve tissue blood flow with a reference of dm mice at 100% (M, n=6/group). \*p<0.05 and #p<0.05 versus the db/m mouse and the saline treated db/db mouse, respectively. Bar=100 $\mu$ m. dm=db/m mouse; db=db/db mouse. dbtb=diabetic mouse treated with T $\beta$ 4. Panels G to K show representative microscopic images (G-K) and quantitative data (N) of capillary-like tube formation in MDEs cultured in normal glucose (RG), high glucose (HG), high glucose with T $\beta$ 4 (HG+TB), high glucose with T $\beta$ 4 in the presence of miR-146a inhibitor (+si146) and scramble negative control (+NC). Bar in K=50 $\mu$ m. Panel O shows quantitative data of real-time RT-PCR analysis of miR-146a expression in MDEs. Panels P and Q show Western blot analysis of IRAK1 and TRAF6 levels in MDEs transfected with miR-146a mimics and scramble control, respectively. Panel R shows quantitative data of real-time RT-PCR analysis of miR-146a expression in MDEs. Panels S to U show quantitative data of real-time RT-PCR (S) and Western blot analysis (T and U) of IRAK1,TRAF6, p-NF $\kappa$ B, MCP-1 and VCAM-1 levels in MBEs under different conditions, and HSC70 and  $\beta$ -actin were used as internal controls, respectively. \*p<0.05, #p<0.05 and \$p<0.05 versus the normal glucose (RG), high glucose (HG) and scramble negative control (NC) groups, respectively. n=6/group.



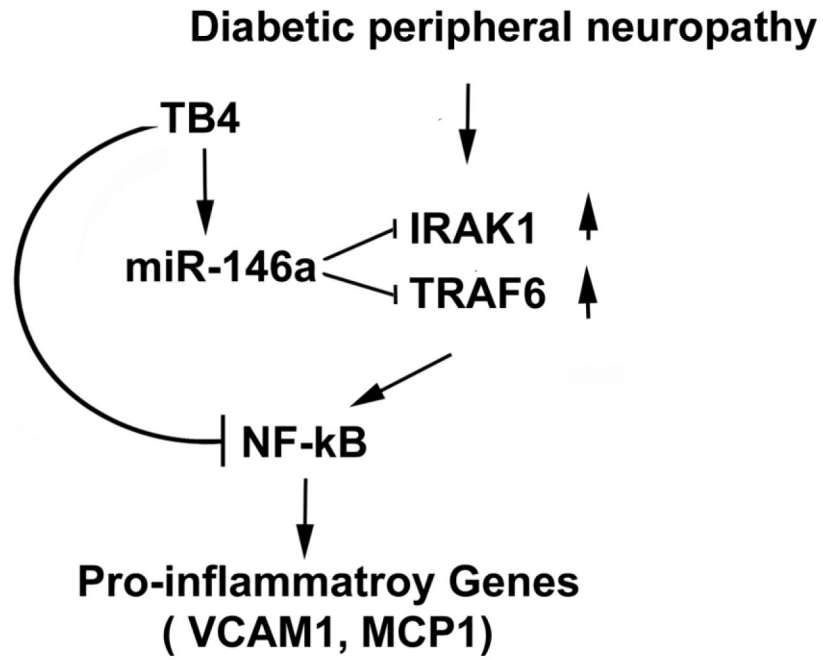
**Fig.3: miR-146a mediates Tβ4-induced axonal remodeling in vivo and in vitro.**

Panels A and B show PGP 9.5 immunoreactive intraepidermal nerve fibers (red, arrows) in the plantar skin from a representative non-diabetic mouse treated with saline (dm), diabetic mouse treated with saline (db) and diabetic mouse treated with Tβ4 (dbtb). Panel B shows quantitative data of intraepidermal nerve fiber density (IENFD). \*p<0.05 and #p<0.05 versus the non-diabetic mouse (dm) and the diabetic mouse treated with saline (db), respectively. n=10/group. Bar=50μm. Panels C and D show representative microscopic images (C) and quantitative data (D) of axonal outgrowth in DRG neurons cultured in normal glucose (RG), high glucose (HG), high glucose with Tβ4 (+TB), high glucose with Tβ4 in the presence of miR-146a inhibitor (+si146) and scramble negative control (+NC). Panel E shows quantitative data of real-time RT-PCR analysis of miR-146a (E) and IRAK1 and TRAF6 (F) levels in DRG neurons under different conditions, and HSC70 was used as an internal reference gene (F). \*p<0.05, #p<0.05 and \$p<0.05 versus the normal glucose (RG), high glucose (HG) and scramble negative control (NC) groups, respectively. n=6/group. Bar in C =100μm



**Fig.4: Effect of Tβ4 on neurological function in diabetic db/db mice.**

Treatment of db/db mice with Tβ4 improved neurological function measured by MCV (A), SCV (B) and Plantar Test (C). \*p<0.05 and #p<0.05 versus the db/m mouse and the db/db mouse treated with saline, respectively. n=10/group. dm=db/m mouse; db=db/db mouse. dbtb=diabetic mouse treated with Tβ4.

**Fig.5:**

A schematic shows potential interaction of miR-146a increased by T $\beta$ 4 with its target genes and downstream pro-inflammatory proteins. Diabetic peripheral neuropathy down-regulates miR-146a, upregulates IRAK1 and TRAF6, and activates downstream NF $\kappa$ B. T $\beta$ 4-elevated miR-146a represses IRAK1 and TRAF6, which results in attenuation of NF $\kappa$ B activation and pro-inflammatory genes VCAM-1 and MCP-1.

**Table 1.**Effect of T $\beta$ 4 on body weight

Groups	Weight, g		
	0 w	4 w	8 w
<b>dm-saline</b>	29.6 $\pm$ 0.7 <sup>*</sup>	29.9 $\pm$ 0.8 <sup>*</sup>	28.4 $\pm$ 0.7 <sup>*</sup>
<b>db-saline</b>	57.1 $\pm$ 1.8	54.4 $\pm$ 3.15	54.2 $\pm$ 1.8
<b>db-T<math>\beta</math>4</b>	57.3 $\pm$ 1.5	51.7 $\pm$ 2.3	53.1 $\pm$ 2.0

Values are mean $\pm$ SE.<sup>\*</sup>p<0.01 versus db+saline group. n=10/group. w indicates the week before and after the treatment, respectively.

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**Table 2.**Effect of T $\beta$ 4 on blood glucose

Groups	Blood glucose (g/dl)		
	0 w	4 w	8 w
<b>dm-saline</b>	139 $\pm$ 7.2 *	141 $\pm$ 4.3 *	126 $\pm$ 5.4 *
<b>db-saline</b>	481 $\pm$ 19.4	522 $\pm$ 19.5	475 $\pm$ 19.9
<b>db-T<math>\beta</math>4</b>	523 $\pm$ 12.7	514 $\pm$ 16.1	522 $\pm$ 26.0

Values are mean $\pm$ SE.

\* p&lt;0.01 versus db+saline group. n=10/group. w indicate that the week before and after the treatment, respectively.

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