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The divergent roles of dietary saturated and monounsaturated fatty acids on nerve function in murine models of obesity

Abbreviated title: Monounsaturated fatty acids restore nerve function

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Abstract

Neuropathy is the most common complication of prediabetes and diabetes and presents as distal-to-proximal loss of peripheral nerve function in the lower extremities. Neuropathy progression and disease severity in prediabetes and diabetes correlates with dyslipidemia in man and murine models of disease. Dyslipidemia is characterized by elevated levels of circulating saturated fatty acids (SFAs) that associate with the progression of neuropathy. Increased intake of monounsaturated fatty acid (MUFA)-rich diets confers metabolic health benefits; however, the impact of fatty acid saturation in neuropathy is unknown. This study examines the differential effect of SFAs and MUFAs on the development of neuropathy and the molecular mechanisms underlying the progression of the complication. Male mice *Mus musculus* fed a high fat diet rich in SFAs developed robust peripheral neuropathy. This neuropathy was completely reversed by switching the mice from the SFA-rich high fat diet to a MUFA-rich high fat diet; nerve conduction velocities and intraepidermal nerve fiber density were restored. A MUFA oleate also prevented the impairment of mitochondrial transport and protected mitochondrial membrane potential in cultured sensory neurons treated with mixtures of oleate and the SFA palmitate. Moreover, oleate also preserved intracellular ATP levels, prevented apoptosis induced by palmitate treatment, and promoted lipid droplet formation in sensory neurons, suggesting that lipid droplets protect sensory neurons from lipotoxicity. Together, these results suggest that MUFAs reverse the progression of neuropathy by protecting mitochondrial function and transport through the formation of intracellular lipid droplets in sensory neurons.

Significance Statement

There is a global epidemic of prediabetes and diabetes, disorders which represent a continuum of metabolic disturbances in lipid and glucose metabolism. In the US, 80 million individuals have prediabetes and 30 million have diabetes. Neuropathy is the most common complication of both disorders, carries a high morbidity, and, despite its prevalence, has no treatments. We report that dietary intervention with monounsaturated fatty acids reverses the progression of neuropathy and restores nerve function in high fat diet-fed murine models of peripheral neuropathy. Furthermore, the addition of the monounsaturated fatty acid oleate to sensory neurons cultured under diabetic conditions shows that oleate prevents impairment of mitochondrial transport and mitochondrial dysfunction through a mechanism involving formation of axonal lipid droplets.

Introduction

Type 2 diabetes (T2D) is a prevalent and debilitating disease, affecting over 30 million Americans (Callaghan et al., 2015). Another 80 million Americans have prediabetes and one-third of these individuals will progress to T2D (Tabák et al., 2012). Prediabetic and type 2 diabetic patients exhibit similar metabolic risk factors, including obesity and dyslipidemia, and develop the same micro- and macrovascular complications (Callaghan et al., 2012a, 2016b). The most common microvascular complication is peripheral neuropathy that results in distal-to-proximal loss of sensation in the limbs due to injury of sensory myelinated and unmyelinated nerve fibers. The progression of peripheral neuropathy in prediabetes and T2D correlates with dyslipidemia (Smith et al., 2006; Callaghan et al., 2012b; Cortez et al., 2014). Elevated levels of circulating triglycerides and free fatty acids associated with dyslipidemia result from high fat diets (HFDs) containing elevated levels of saturated fatty acids (SFAs) (German and Dillard, 2004). To identify mechanisms underlying neuropathy progression in prediabetes and T2D, our laboratory established a model of neuropathy in C57BL/6J mice fed a lard-based HFD rich in SFAs (O'Brien et al., 2014; Hinder et al., 2017). These obese, insulin resistant and hyperlipidemic mice develop neuropathy with reduced motor and sensory nerve conduction velocities (NCVs) and decreased intraepidermal nerve fiber densities (IENFDs), similar to neuropathy in prediabetic and T2D humans. Neuropathy progression is reversed by changing mice from a HFD to a standard diet, restoring nerve function, body weight, and glucose tolerance (Hinder et al., 2017; O'Brien et al., 2018). Therefore, excess dietary SFAs associated with prediabetes and T2D may contribute to the progression of peripheral nerve damage (Hagenfeldt et al., 1972; Fraze et al., 1985; Miles et al., 2003).

Peripheral nerves are composed of nerve fibers that contain bundles of axons from sensory dorsal root ganglion (DRG) neurons. DRG neurons are dependent on mitochondrial ATP production throughout the axon and rely on mitochondrial transport mechanisms to distribute mitochondria for normal nerve function (Schwarz, 2013; Sheng, 2014). DRG neurons exposed to elevated levels of SFAs exhibit a decrease in motile axonal mitochondria (Rumora et al., 2018a, 2018b). This SFA-induced impairment of mitochondrial transport is accompanied by mitochondrial depolarization and impaired mitochondrial bioenergetics (Rumora et al., 2018a). Dysfunctional bioenergetics lowers the level of intracellular ATP and initiates DRG apoptosis (Rumora et al., 2018b). These studies indicate that lipotoxic SFAs impair mitochondrial function and play a critical role in peripheral neuropathy progression.

Dietary intervention studies whereby SFAs are replaced with monounsaturated fatty acids (MUFAs) reverse the adverse effects of SFAs in prediabetes and T2D. MUFAs can lower insulin resistance, normalize plasma triglycerides, and improve metabolic risk factors associated with prediabetes and T2D (Qian et al., 2016; Wanders et al., 2017). At a cellular level, MUFAs modulate mitochondrial function and improve lipid homeostasis (Burhans et al., 2015; Ducheix et al., 2017) by upregulating the expression of genes related to mitochondrial oxidative pathways (Das et al., 2010; Henique et al., 2010). This stimulation of lipid oxidation increases mitochondrial ATP production (Burhans et al., 2015). Additionally, MUFAs stimulate triglyceride formation to sequester SFAs into neutral lipid droplets, thereby limiting lipotoxicity and apoptosis in hepatocytes, adipocytes, skeletal muscle, and β-cells (Thörn and Bergsten, 2010; Kwon et al., 2014a; Capel et al., 2016). However, the impact of dietary MUFAs on neuropathy and sensory neuron mitochondrial function is unknown.

We evaluated the effect of dietary MUFAs on neuropathy progression and identified underlying molecular effects of MUFAs on mitochondrial transport and function in DRG neurons. Switching mice from a SFA-rich HFD to a MUFA-rich HFD restored nerve function in obese mice with neuropathy. We next evaluated the mechanisms underlying dietary MUFA supplementation and discovered that MUFAs prevent SFA-induced impairment of axonal mitochondrial transport and function, likely via the formation of intra-axonal lipid droplets. These findings provide insight into the efficacy of MUFA-based diets and suggest that dietary intervention is a plausible strategy to treat neuropathy.

Materials and Methods

Mouse studies. Fifteen-week-old male C57BL/6J mice fed either a standard diet (Stock #380056) or 60% SFA-rich HFD (Stock #380050) from 6 weeks of age were purchased from The Jackson Laboratory (Bar Harbor, ME, USA). At 16 weeks of age, mice were divided into 3 groups: 1) **SD** mice maintained on a standard diet (D12450B: 10% kcal fat, Research Diets, New Brunswick, NJ, USA) until 24 weeks of age (n=5/group), 2) **HFD** mice fed a lard-based 60% HFD (D12492: 60% kcal fat, Research Diets) until 24 weeks of age (n=7/group), and 3) **HFD-MUFA** mice fed a lard-based 60% HFD until 16 weeks of age followed by a MUFA-based 60% HFD (D18043009: 60% kcal fat derived from high MUFA sunflower oil, Research Diets) from 16-24 weeks of age (n=8/group). The fatty acid composition of the SD, HFD, and HFD-MUFA is provided in Figure 1-1. All animals were housed in a pathogen-free environment at the University of Michigan. Animal work protocols adhered to the University of Michigan, state, and federal guidelines accredited by the Association for the Assessment and Accreditation of Laboratory Animal Care International. Protocols were approved by the University of Michigan Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (Protocol #PRO00008115).

Metabolic and neuropathy phenotyping. At the termination of the study, mouse body weights were collected and body composition parameters, including lean mass, fat mass, and body fluids, were assessed using an NMR-based Bruker Minispec LF 9011 at the University of Michigan Mouse Metabolic and Phenotyping Core (University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, MI). A terminal glucose tolerance test was completed by measuring fasting blood glucose using an AlphaTrak Glucometer (Abbott Laboratories, Abbott Park, IL). This was followed by administration of a

glucose bolus at 1 g/kg body weight via intraperitoneal injection for each mouse, and blood glucose levels were monitored for 2 hours after administration of the glucose bolus.

Neuropathy phenotyping included sural nerve and motor NCVs and footpad IENFD measurements. All neuropathy phenotyping was completed according to guidelines of the Diabetic Complications Consortium (https://www.diacomp.org/shared/protocols.aspx) (Oh et al., 2010). To evaluate IENFD, footpads were extracted from the plantar surface of the hind paw, fixed, embedded and stained according to Cheng et al (Cheng et al., 2012). Fluorescent z-series images were captured at an optical thickness of 3.3 µm using an Olympus FV500 confocal microscope (20X objective, 1024x1024 pixels resolution). Nerve fibers that crossed the basement membrane into the epidermis in each z-series were examined and quantified using MetaMorph (Version 7.7.0.8, Molecular Devices, Sunnyvale, California, RRID:SCR_002368) (Hinder et al., 2017).

Primary DRG neuron cell culture. Primary DRG neuron cultures were used to evaluate the effect of oleate and palmitate fatty acid treatments on axonal mitochondrial transport, mitochondrial membrane potential (MMP), and lipid droplet formation. DRG neurons from adult 16–18-week-old male C57BL/6J mice (The Jackson Laboratory) were dissected and cultured as described in our previously published protocols (Vincent et al., 2007, 2009a, 2009b; Rumora et al., 2018b, 2018a). Briefly, intact DRG were incubated in 2 mg/ml collagenase (Millipore-Sigma, Billerica, MA, USA) for 30 minutes at 37°C. The DRG were then mechanically dissociated in heat-inactivated bovine serum albumin (BSA) using repetitive trituration. DRG neurons were resuspended in treatment media (TM) (50% F-12K (Cell Gro; Corning, Manassas, VA, USA) and 50% DMEM (Cell Gro; Corning), 1:100 dilution of Nb^{+}, 1000 U/ml

183 penicillin/streptomycin/neomycin (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA), 7.2 μM
184 aphidicolin (Millipore-Sigma)) supplemented with 1X B27 and 0.4 μM L-glutamine (Rumora et
185 al., 2018a, 2018b) and transfected with mitochondria-GFP by adding 3.75 μl/ml CellLight
186 mitochondria-GFP (mito-GFP BacMam 2.0, Thermo Fisher Scientific). The DRG neurons were
187 then plated on 4-well Nuc Lab-Tek chambered coverglass imaging plates (Thermo Fisher
188 Scientific) coated with 25 μg/ml laminin (Millipore-Sigma). After 24 hours, the DRG neuron
189 culture media was replaced with feed media composed of TM and 1X B27 supplement for
190 another 24 hours allowing for DRG axon outgrowth (Rumora et al., 2018a, 2018b).
191
192 **Fatty acid treatments.** *Fatty acid preparation:* Oleate (Millipore-Sigma) and palmitate (Nu-
193 Chek Prep, Elysian, MN, USA) fatty acids were conjugated to fatty acid-free BSA (Thermo
194 Fisher Scientific) at 5 mM fatty acid concentration (Rumora et al., 2018a). The 5 mM stock of
195 oleate and palmitate was used to prepare the required oleate and palmitate treatments. *Oleate and*
196 *palmitate treatments:* Primary DRG neurons were treated with physiological concentrations
197 ranging from 31.25–250 μM of the SFA palmitate, or 31.25–250 μM of the MUFA oleate, for 24
198 hours. To quantitate the basal percentage of motile mitochondria in DRG neurons without fatty
199 acid treatment, a TM control was used, and to identify whether BSA alone had an effect on
200 mitochondrial transport in DRG neurons, a 0.25% BSA vehicle control was used. DRG neurons
201 were also treated with oleate/palmitate mixtures at a 1:1 equimolar or 2:1 molar ratio to
202 determine the impact of mixtures on mitochondrial transport and function. Lastly, to determine
203 whether oleate could rescue mitochondrial transport in DRG neurons treated with palmitate,
204 cultures were treated with palmitate treatments for 12 hours followed by two rinses with TM and
205 a 12-hour incubation with oleate. The ability of oleate to prevent palmitate-induced inhibition of

mitochondrial transport was evaluated by pre-treating DRG neurons with oleate for 12 hours, washing the cells twice with TM, and then replacing the treatment with palmitate.

Mitochondrial trafficking and kymograph analysis. Mitochondrial trafficking analyses were performed with live-cell time-lapse microscopy on a Nikon A1 confocal microscope (Nikon Instruments, Melville, NY, USA) as described previously (De Vos et al., 2007; Rumora et al., 2018a). Mitochondrial transport in the axon of each DRG neuron was recorded using a 40X objective and confocal aperture setting at 4.49 μm optical thickness. Consecutive images were taken 2.5 seconds apart for 2.5 minutes with NIS Elements ND acquisition software. Throughout the image acquisition, live DRG neurons were maintained at 5% CO_2 and 37°C in a Tokai Hit environmental chamber (Tokai Hit, Shizuoka-ken, Japan).

DRG neuron mitochondrial trafficking was assessed using kymograph analysis with MetaMorph Software (Molecular Devices, Sunnyvale, CA, USA) as described previously (Rumora et al., 2018a). For each neuron, a region of interest was drawn down the axon away from the cell body and mitochondrial signals within 10 μm of that region of interest were incorporated into the kymographing analysis. Two kymographs were generated to identify the number of motile and stationary mitochondria (De Vos et al., 2003, 2007; De Vos and Sheetz, 2007; Rumora et al., 2018a), and the percentage of stationary and motile mitochondria was derived from the kymographs. Mitochondria that were transported at a velocity lower than the threshold velocity of 0.02 μm/s were categorized as stationary (De Vos et al., 2007).

Mitochondrial depolarization analysis. The impact of oleate and palmitate treatments on MMP was evaluated using the cationic fluorophore, tetramethylrhodamine methyl ester (TMRM;

Thermo Fisher Scientific) (Russell et al., 2002; Vincent et al., 2007). DRG neurons expressing mito-GFP were treated with TM, 0.25% BSA, 125 μM palmitate, 125 μM oleate, 250 μM oleate, and a 1:1 oleate/palmitate mixture for 24 hours and then stained with 50 nM TMRM for 30 minutes at 37°C. Image acquisition and analysis were completed as described previously (Rumora et al., 2018a, 2018b). An average of 34 neurons from 3 experimental replicates were analyzed for each treatment condition.

50B11 DRG neuron cell culture. A 50B11 DRG neuron immortalized cell line (RRID:CVCL_M745) was used to evaluate the effect of oleate and palmitate on apoptosis and ATP production. The 50B11 DRG neurons were cultured and prepared according to a previously published protocol (Chen et al., 2007; Rumora et al., 2018a). Briefly, 50B11 DRG neurons were added to a 96-well plate at a density of 10,000 cells per well in 50B11 media (Neurobasal media (Gibco) supplemented with 10% (v/v) heat inactivated fetal bovine serum (Gibco), 0.2% glucose (v/v), 0.5 mM L-glutamine (Gibco), and 5.6X B27 (Gibco)). Twelve hours before treatment, the media was changed to TM (50B11 media containing 75 μM Forskolin) to differentiate the cells. For the treatment, 75 μM Forskolin was added to the TM control, the 0.25% BSA control, and the fatty acid treatments to ensure the 50B11 DRG neurons remained differentiated throughout the treatment.

CellTiter-Glo and Caspase 3/7-Glo assays. Differentiated 50B11 DRG neurons were treated with 31.25-250 μM oleate or 31.25-250 μM palmitate and mixtures of oleate/palmitate at 1:1 and 2:1 molar ratios in triplicate for 24 hours. A CellTiter-Glo assay (Promega, Madison, USA) or Caspase 3/7-Glo assay (Promega, Madison, USA) was used to assess ATP levels or apoptotic

activation in treated 50B11 DRG neurons, respectively, according to the manufacturer's protocols. The luminometric reactions were evaluated on a Synergy|HTX multimode plate reader (BioTek, Winooski, VT, USA) with Gen5 software (version 3.03). The luminometric signal, which is measured in relative light units (RLU), was analyzed in an average of 6 wells of treated 50B11 neurons per condition in 2 experimental replicates for the CellTiter-Glo assay and 3 wells of treated 50B11 neurons per condition in 1 experimental replicate for the Caspase 3/7-Glo assay.

Axonal lipid droplet analysis. The formation of axonal lipid droplets in response to fatty acid treatments was evaluated using Nile Red stain to selectively label intracellular lipid droplets (Greenspan et al., 1985; Rumin et al., 2015). Mito-GFP-transfected DRG neurons were treated with 0.25% BSA, 125 μM palmitate, 125 μM oleate, and a 1:1 and 2:1 molar ratio mixture of oleate/palmitate for 24 hours. The 0.25% BSA condition was used as the vehicle control to show the level of lipid droplet formation in DRG neurons without fatty acid treatment. The TM condition was excluded from the lipid droplet analysis due to high non-specific background staining of Nile Red. Following 24 hours of treatment, 10X Nile Red was added to each DRG neuron culture for 30 minutes at 37°C. The Nile red-containing treatments were then removed from the DRG neurons, the cells were washed 2X with TM to remove excess Nile Red, and the treatment was replaced. Single sequential images of DRG neurons exhibiting both mito-GFP and Nile Red fluorescence were captured on a Nikon A1 confocal microscope with a 40X objective. The number of axonal lipid droplets and mitochondria were counted using the MetaMorph Image Analysis program (Molecular Devices). For each neuron, the regions of the neurite were selected using the box tool to evaluate lipid droplet accumulation. The Imaris Spots function was used,

with an estimated XY diameter of 2 μm, to mark/detect mitochondria and lipid droplets separately along the axon. After adjusting the threshold and changing the color of each different type of spot, mitochondria and lipid droplet spots were quantified and evaluated for colocalization. An average of 32 DRG neurons from 3 experimental replicates were evaluated for lipid droplet formation in each treatment condition.

Experimental design and statistical analysis. Statistical analyses of all data sets were obtained with Prism, v.7 (GraphPad Software, La Jolla, CA, USA, RRID:SCR_002798). For *in vivo* studies including glucose tolerance tests, body weight, NCVs, and IENFDs, data was collected from 5-8 mice per group and plotted as means ± SEM. Statistical significance was evaluated using a One-way ANOVA and Tukey's post-hoc test for multiple comparisons. NCVs were significant at $*p < 0.0001$ and IENFDs reached significance at $\#p = 0.0071$ and $\&p = 0.0297$.

All assays evaluating mitochondrial trafficking, mitochondrial depolarization, ATP level, and caspase 3/7 activity in DRG neurons are reported as means ± SEM. Significance was evaluated using a One-way ANOVA and Tukey's post-hoc test for multiple comparisons. Mitochondrial trafficking results were based on 16-23 DRG neurons treated with 31.25-250 μM oleate alone, 18-23 neurons treated with 1:1 and 2:1 oleate + palmitate mixtures, and 12-16 neurons in oleate rescue experiments. Mitochondrial depolarization analyses included an average of 34 neurons per condition. Results of mitochondrial trafficking and mitochondrial depolarization analyses were statistically significant at $*P < 0.0001$. CellTiter-Glo ATP assay measurements were performed on 6 wells per fatty acid treatment condition of 50B11 DRG neurons. A total of 3 wells of 50B11 DRG neurons were evaluated using the Caspase 3/7-Glo assay for apoptosis. CellTiter-Glo and Caspase 3/7-Glo experiments were statistically significant at $*p < 0.0001$ and

#$p = 0.0056$. Lipid droplet formation was evaluated in 20-47 DRG neurons and DRG neurons (20-37 neurons) with lipid droplets were assessed for lipid droplet-mitochondrial interactions. Results were statistically significant at *$p < 0.0001$.

Results

A MUFA-rich diet restores nerve function. We have previously reported that mice fed a 54% SFA-rich HFD develop neuropathy by 16 weeks of age, while control mice fed a standard 10% fat chow diet (SD) do not develop neuropathy (Hinder et al., 2017). Similarly, in this study we found that mice fed a 60% SFA-rich HFD have impaired sural and sciatic NCV by 16 weeks of age (Figure 1-2). To evaluate the effect of MUFAs on nerve function, mice fed a HFD from 6 to 24 weeks of age were compared to mice fed a HFD from 6 to 16 weeks of age and then changed to a MUFA-rich diet (HFD-MUFA) until 24 weeks of age (Figure 1A). Metabolic phenotyping at the termination of the study revealed that the HFD and HFD-MUFA groups developed glucose intolerance (Figure 1B; n = 5-8 mice per condition: mean ± SEM). Both the HFD and HFD-MUFA animals also had increased body weights (Figure 1C; n = 5-8 mice per condition: one-way ANOVA, $F_{(2, 16)} = 29.21$, $^*p < 0.0001$; Tukey's multiple-comparisons test, $^*p < 0.0001$ between SD vs. HFD and SD vs. HFD-MUFA; no statistically significant difference between HFD vs. HFD-MUFA) as well as increased body fat mass and decreased lean mass relative to SD mice (Figure 1D). Despite the same degrees of glucose intolerance and body mass composition, however, neuropathy phenotyping at the termination of the study revealed that consumption of a MUFA-rich HFD for 8 weeks restored normal sural (Figure 1E; n = 5-8 mice per condition: one-way ANOVA, $F_{(2, 16)} = 37.61$, $p < 0.0001$; Tukey's multiple-comparisons test, $^*p = 0.0001$ between SD vs. HFD, and HFD vs. HFD-MUFA; no statistically significant difference between SD vs. HFD-MUFA) and sciatic NCVs (Figure 1F; n = 5-8 mice per condition: one-way ANOVA, $F_{(2, 16)} = 41.18$, $p < 0.0001$; Tukey's multiple-comparisons test, $^*p = 0.0001$ between SD vs. HFD, and HFD vs. HFD-MUFA; no statistically significant difference between SD vs. HFD-MUFA) relative to the HFD mice. In terms of nerve structure,

HFD-MUFA mice also had higher levels of IENFD compared to the HFD mice at 24 weeks (Figure 1G; n = 5-8 mice per condition: one-way ANOVA, $F_{(2, 16)} = 7.243$, $p = 0.0058$; Tukey's multiple-comparisons test, #$p = 0.0071$ between SD vs. HFD, &$p = 0.0297$ between HFD vs. HFD-MUFA; no statistically significant difference between SD vs. HFD-MUFA). These data demonstrate that altering the degree of fatty acid saturation in the HFD murine chow from SFAs to MUFAs reverses peripheral neuropathy without altering glucose tolerance, body weight, or body composition.

MUFA treatment rescues mitochondrial trafficking in SFA-treated DRG neurons. Since neuropathy was reversed in animals fed a MUFA-based HFD diet, we sought to explore the molecular mechanisms underlying the beneficial effect of MUFAs using primary sensory DRG neurons. We previously reported that the SFA palmitate impairs axonal mitochondrial transport in DRG neurons (Rumora et al., 2018a), so we first evaluated mitochondrial transport in cultured DRG neurons in the presence of the MUFA oleate. DRG neurons treated with a physiological concentration range (31.25 μM-250 μM) of exogenous oleate showed no change in the percentage of motile mitochondria relative to the vehicle control (0.25% BSA) or TM alone after 24 hours (Figure 2 A and B; n = 16-23 neurons per condition: one-way ANOVA, $F_{(5, 114)} = 2.035$, $p = 0.0789$; Tukey's multiple-comparisons test, no statistically significant difference between TM vs. 0.25% BSA, and 31.25-250 μM oleate). Consistent with our previous findings, treatment of DRG neurons with 125 μM palmitate significantly reduced the percentage of motile mitochondria (evidenced by straight lines in the kymograph in Figure 2C) (Figure 2 C and D), suggesting differential regulation of mitochondrial trafficking by palmitate and oleate. Since co-incubation of oleate and palmitate can prevent cell stress induced by palmitate alone

(Listenberger et al., 2003; Coll et al., 2008; Kwon et al., 2014a), we next treated DRG neurons with equimolar 1:1 mixtures of oleate and palmitate (at physiologically relevant concentrations of 125 μM each) or with a 2:1 molar ratio of oleate to palmitate (250 μM oleate to 125 μM palmitate). Oleate prevented the reduction in mitochondrial motility conferred by palmitate alone in DRG neurons treated with both ratios of oleate to palmitate (Figure 2D; n = 18-23 neurons per condition: one-way ANOVA, $F_{(5, 116)} = 21.99$, $p < 0.0001$; Tukey's multiple-comparisons test, *$p < 0.0001$ between TM vs. 125 μM palmitate; no statistically significant difference between TM, 0.25% BSA, 125 μM oleate, 125 μM oleate + 125 μM palmitate, and 250 μM oleate + 125 μM palmitate). These results suggest that oleate prevents palmitate-induced impairment of mitochondrial motility in DRG neurons.

To determine whether oleate rescues mitochondrial motility following inhibition of mitochondrial transport by palmitate, DRG neurons were treated with palmitate for 12 hours followed by a 12-hour oleate treatment. While the 12 hour 125 μM palmitate treatment reduced mitochondrial motility, subsequent treatment with 125 μM or 250 μM oleate for 12 hours completely restored mitochondrial transport in DRG axons (Figure 2E and F; n = 12-16 neurons per condition: one-way ANOVA, $F_{(6, 93)} = 12.07$, $p < 0.0001$; Tukey's multiple-comparisons test, *$p < 0.0001$ between TM vs. 125 μM palmitate (12 hour); no statistically significant difference between TM vs. 0.25% BSA, 125 μM palmitate (pre-treatment) + 125 μM oleate (post-treatment), and 125 μM palmitate (pre-treatment) + 250 μM oleate (post-treatment)). We next determined whether oleate could prevent palmitate-induced impairment of mitochondrial trafficking by pre-treating DRG neurons for 12 hours with 125 μM and 250 μM oleate treatments prior to a 12-hour 125 μM palmitate treatment. While pre-treatment with oleate did not completely protect DRG neurons from a reduction of mitochondrial transport conferred by

palmitate, the percentage of motile mitochondria in DRG neurons pre-treated with oleate was considerably higher than in DRG neurons treated with 125 μM palmitate alone. These data suggest that oleate and palmitate differentially regulate molecular mechanisms involved in axonal mitochondrial transport and that oleate can restore mitochondrial transport after palmitate treatment.

MUFA treatment prevents DRG neuronal mitochondrial depolarization. Impaired mitochondrial transport in palmitate-treated DRG neurons is associated with a loss in MMP during mitochondrial depolarization (Miller and Sheetz, 2004; Rumora et al., 2018a, 2018b), so we next stained mito-GFP-transfected DRG neurons with TMRM, a fluorophore dependent on MMP, to determine whether oleate prevents palmitate-induced mitochondrial depolarization. While DRG neurons treated with 125 μM palmitate exhibited diffuse TMRM staining in axonal mitochondria, indicating a loss in MMP (Figure 3B), DRG neurons treated with TM, 0.25% BSA, and 125-250 μM oleate retained punctate red TMRM staining that colocalized with the green mito-GFP signal in the merged image (Figure 3 A and C). Interestingly, a 1:1 equimolar mixture of oleate and palmitate retained TMRM staining in axonal mitochondria (Figure 3D), demonstrating a mito-protective effect of oleate in preventing palmitate-induced mitochondrial depolarization. Quantitation of TMRM staining showed a significant three-fold increase in percentage of depolarized mitochondria in palmitate-treated neurons that was abolished by the presence of oleate (Figure 3E; n = 31-35 neurons per condition: one-way ANOVA, $F_{(5, 196)}$ = 13.35, $p < 0.0001$; Tukey's multiple-comparisons test, $^{*}p < 0.0001$ between TM vs. 125 μM palmitate; no statistically significant difference between TM vs. 0.25% BSA, 125 μM oleate, 250

μM oleate, and 125 μM oleate + 125 μM palmitate). These data indicate that oleate prevents mitochondrial depolarization in the presence of palmitate.

MUFA treatment prevents decreases in ATP production and DRG neuronal apoptosis. Since mitochondrial depolarization causes a loss of mitochondrial function and reduction in ATP synthesis (Bagkos et al., 2014; Zorova et al., 2018), we next evaluated the ATP level in treated 50B11 DRG neurons using a CellTiter-Glo assay. We found that 62.5-250 μM oleate maintained a basal level of ATP comparable to that of the 0.25% BSA control, while 187.5-250 μM palmitate induced a significant reduction in ATP level. This loss of ATP triggered by palmitate was prevented in 1:1 and 2:1 oleate:palmitate mixtures (Figure 4A; $n = 6$ wells of 50B11 neurons per condition: one-way ANOVA, $F_{(11, 60)} = 22.63$, $^*p < 0.0001$; Tukey's multiple-comparisons test, $^*p < 0.0001$ between 0.25% BSA vs. 187.5 μM palmitate and 250 μM palmitate; no statistically significant difference between 0.25% BSA vs. 62.5-250 μM oleate, 62.5-125 μM palmitate, 1:1 oleate + palmitate, and 2:1 oleate + palmitate). Because a loss of MMP can initiate apoptosis (Liao et al., 2011), we also measured activation of pro-apoptotic caspases with a Caspase 3/7-Glo assay in cultured 50B11 DRG neurons treated with 62.5-250 μM oleate, 62.5-250 μM palmitate, and mixtures of oleate and palmitate. Oleate alone did not increase apoptotic signaling in 50B11 DRG neurons, similar to the TM and BSA controls (Figure 4B; $n = 3$ wells of 50B11 neurons per condition: one-way ANOVA, $F_{(13, 28)} = 74.27$, $p < 0.0001$; Tukey's multiple-comparisons test, $\#p = 0.0056$ between TM vs. 125 μM palmitate, $^*p < 0.0001$ between TM vs. 187.5 μM palmitate and 250 μM palmitate; no statistically significant difference between TM vs. 0.25% BSA, 62.5-250 μM oleate, 62.5 μM palmitate, 1:1 oleate + palmitate, and 2:1 oleate + palmitate), but treatment with palmitate resulted in a dose-dependent increase in caspase 3/7

activity, with physiological diabetic concentrations of palmitate (250 μM) inducing an approximate four-fold increase in apoptotic signaling. Conversely, treating cells with an equimolar or 2:1 oleate:palmitate mixture completely prevented apoptosis in 50B11 DRG neurons (Figure 4B). These results indicate that oleate protects mitochondrial function and prevents apoptosis in palmitate-treated DRG neurons.

MUFA treatment induces axonal lipid droplet formation. Given that oleate is reported to protect mitochondrial function via the synthesis of triglycerides (Kwon et al., 2014a) and formation of intracellular lipid droplets (Listenberger et al., 2003), we evaluated whether oleate triggers intracellular lipid droplet formation in DRG axons. Primary DRG neurons transfected with mito-GFP were treated with palmitate, oleate, or a mixture of both fatty acids for 24 hours and stained with Nile Red dye to visualize intra-axonal lipid droplets. We then quantified the number of lipid droplets per axon (red images) as well as the number of lipid droplets interacting with green mitochondria (yellow in merged images; Figure 5A-E). While palmitate treatment did not stimulate axonal lipid droplet formation or an increase in lipid droplet number in DRG neurons relative to the 0.25% BSA control (Figure 5 A and B), oleate-treated DRG neurons exhibited increased numbers of punctate red lipid droplets in DRG axons (Figure 5 C and D). This oleate-induced increase in lipid droplet number was also seen in the presence of palmitate at a 2:1 ratio (Figure 5E); however, a 1:1 ratio of oleate and palmitate did not lead to a significant increase in lipid droplet number (Figure 5F; n = 20-47 neurons per condition: one-way ANOVA, $F_{(5, 182)} = 10.28$, $p < 0.0001$; Tukey's multiple-comparisons test, *$p < 0.0001$ between 0.25% BSA vs. 125 μM oleate and 2:1 oleate + palmitate; no statistically significant difference between 0.25% BSA vs. 125 μM palmitate, and 1:1 oleate + palmitate). Likewise, the number of

458 mitochondria interacting with lipid droplets was significantly higher in cells treated with oleate
459 alone or the 2:1 oleate:palmitate mixture (Figure 5G; n = 20-37 neurons per condition: one-way
460 ANOVA, $F_{(5, 165)} = 7.528$, $p < 0.0001$; Tukey's multiple-comparisons test, *$p < 0.0001$ between
461 0.25% BSA vs. 125 μM oleate and 2:1 oleate + palmitate; no statistically significant difference
462 between 0.25% BSA vs. 125 μM palmitate, and 1:1 oleate + palmitate). These effects of oleate
463 on lipid droplet formation and number of mitochondria-lipid droplet interactions may represent a
464 mechanism underlying the mito-protective effects of oleate in DRG neurons.
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481 **Discussion**

482 The current study demonstrated that a SFA-rich HFD produced neuropathy while dietary
483 intervention with a MUFA-rich HFD restored normal nerve function. Since nerve function
484 depends on axonal mitochondrial ATP production, we further showed that the MUFA oleate
485 prevented impairment of mitochondrial axonal transport by the SFA palmitate in DRG axons,
486 and that oleate maintained axonal MMP and ATP production relative to DRG neurons treated
487 with palmitate alone. Protection of mitochondrial function by oleate associated with formation of
488 intra-axonal lipid droplets that sequester palmitate, preventing intracellular lipotoxicity. These
489 data suggest that the degree of dietary fatty acid saturation plays a regulatory role in neuropathy.

490 Mice were fed a lard-based 60% SFA-rich HFD, and by 16 weeks of age were obese with
491 insulin resistance and impaired glucose tolerance relative to mice fed standard chow. This
492 murine model parallels findings in man where prediabetes and T2D are associated with diets rich
493 in SFAs. In a meta-analysis of 19 cross-sectional, 12 prospective, and two nested case-control
494 studies, subjects consuming a Western diet had a 41% increased risk of T2D compared to
495 subjects on a healthy diet (McEvoy et al., 2014). In a Study of the Interplay between Genetic and
496 Lifestyle Behavioral Factors on the Risk of T2D in European Populations (the EPIC-InterAct
497 study), a case-cohort analysis of 12,403 T2D subjects compared to 16,154 nondiabetic subjects
498 revealed plasma even-chain SFAs strongly correlate with incident T2D. Of these SFAs, palmitic
499 acid, produced by the liver in response to the Western diet, had the highest odds ratio [1.26
500 (1.15-1.37)] (Forouhi et al., 2014). We previously reported that dietary obesity coupled with
501 impaired glucose tolerance secondary to insulin resistance are the main metabolic drivers of
502 neuropathy in four human clinical studies: a 4,000 subject Chinese cohort (Callaghan et al.,
503 2018), a 1,445 subject Danish cohort (Andersen et al., 2018), and two separate American cohorts

including 102 subjects with a mean age of 52 years (Callaghan et al., 2016b) and 2,383 elderly subjects with a mean age of 73 years (Callaghan et al., 2016a). Like their human counterparts, obese and insulin resistant prediabetic mice develop neuropathy, with reduced sural and sciatic NCVs and decreased IENFDs (Hinder et al., 2017; Callaghan et al., 2018), providing an ideal animal model to study the role of dietary fatty acid saturation in neuropathy pathogenesis.

We recently reported normal nerve function in mice switched from a HFD to a standard low fat diet (Hinder et al., 2017). To evaluate whether the beneficial effects of dietary reversal on neuropathy is secondary to the degree of dietary fatty acid saturation, we switched animals from a 60% SFA-rich HFD to a 60% MUFA-rich HFD. We selected this paradigm because MUFAs exhibit a greater rate of oxidation compared to polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFAs) or SFAs *in vivo* (Jones et al., 1985, 2008; McCloy et al., 2004). The change to a MUFA-rich HFD had no impact on glycemic status, body composition, or body weight, but restored normal sural and sciatic NCVs and IENFDs. This reversal of neuropathy progression suggests that fatty acid saturation, not prediabetes, is the main factor underlying neuropathy progression in HFD-fed obese mice. Partial restoration of nerve function is also seen in diabetic rodent models fed a HFD supplemented with Menhaden Oil containing mixtures of PUFAs (Shevalye et al., 2015; Yorek et al., 2017; Coppey et al., 2018; Davidson et al., 2018). However, supplementation with MUFA-rich olive oil did not restore nerve function in obese rats (Coppey et al., 2018). These alternative results may be due to intrinsic differences in lipid metabolism between mice and rats (Menahan and Sobocinski, 1983; Yin et al., 2012) or to fundamental differences in the HFD paradigms. MUFA levels in our chow were 17% higher than in the olive oil supplement, suggesting that a higher MUFA:SFA ratio may restore nerve function (Figure 1-1). We also focused on neural changes occurring in response to MUFAs earlier in the course of dyslipidemia and neuropathy,

between 16-24 weeks of age compared to 28-60 weeks of age in the Coppey study. These data collectively suggest that MUFAs may be an effective early intervention for neuropathy.

Similar findings in prediabetes and T2D rodent models demonstrate that PUFAs improved neuropathy despite persistent hyperglycemia (Yorek et al., 2017). These preclinical data align with National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey reports where the dietary intake of PUFAs associates with lower incident neuropathy (Tao et al., 2008), and EPIC-InterAct study results where dietary PUFAs from plant sources inversely associate with incident T2D (Forouhi et al., 2016). A 12-month study of dietary omega-3 PUFA supplementation in type 1 diabetic subjects showed no change in sensory function or NCVs (Lewis et al., 2017). In contrast, three small studies using different outcome measures and PUFA doses reported improved neuropathy in T2D subjects (Jamal and Carmichael, 1990; Keen et al., 1993; Okuda et al., 1996). These reports, along with the Yorek laboratory data (Yorek, 2018) and our preclinical data, strongly support future contemporary trials evaluating the clinical utility of dietary MUFAs and PUFAs for neuropathy.

To understand the mechanisms underlying fatty acid saturation and nerve function, we evaluated the impact of MUFAs and SFAs on mitochondrial function in DRG sensory neurons. Mitochondria are synthesized in DRG cell bodies (Chang and Reynolds, 2006) and distributed throughout the length of the axon via axonal transport to provide the ATP required for normal nerve function (Kiryu-Seo et al., 2010). We recently showed that physiological concentrations of the SFA palmitate significantly reduce axonal mitochondrial trafficking in DRG neurons (Rumora et al., 2018a, 2018b); therefore, we assessed how palmitate and the MUFA oleate differentially regulate mitochondrial axonal transport and function in DRG neurons. The human serum metabolome contains 66-122 μM palmitate and 49-122 μM oleate (Psychogios et al.,

550 2011), while C57BL/6J mice exhibit up to 250 μM palmitate and 80 μM oleate (Eguchi et al.,
551 2012). As the concentration of palmitate and oleate in diabetic humans and mice is likely to
552 exceed this concentration range, we utilized physiological concentrations of palmitate or oleate
553 ranging from 31.25-250 μM.

554 Oleate restored mitochondrial trafficking in palmitate-treated DRG axons. As trafficking is
555 dependent on MMP (Miller and Sheetz, 2004; Koshkin et al., 2008), we showed that palmitate
556 prompted mitochondrial depolarization, while oleate restored mitochondrial function. We also
557 observed apoptosis in palmitate-treated DRG neurons, likely secondary to mitochondrial
558 depolarization and decreased intracellular ATP synthesis (Bagkos et al., 2014; Zorova et al.,
559 2018) (Liao et al., 2011). Oleate prevented apoptosis by restoring intracellular ATP levels in
560 palmitate-treated DRG neurons. Our findings agree with previous work demonstrating palmitate-
561 induced loss of MMP and subsequent apoptosis in pancreatic cells (Koshkin et al., 2008). In
562 pancreatic cells and podocytes, palmitate mitotoxicity is prevented by exposure to oleate
563 (Maedler et al., 2003; Koshkin et al., 2008; Xu et al., 2015), and MUFAs protect skeletal muscle
564 cells, adipocytes, and hepatocytes from SFA lipotoxicity (Coll et al., 2008; Ricchi et al., 2009;
565 Peng et al., 2011a; Finucane et al., 2015). These reports support our data showing that MUFAs
566 restore mitochondrial function in SFA-treated DRG neurons by maintaining normal MMP, ATP
567 levels, and axonal trafficking.

568 To further understand the beneficial effects of MUFAs, we evaluated whether intra-axonal
569 lipid droplet formation in DRG axons prevents SFA-mediated lipotoxicity. Gene expression
570 profiles of MUFA-treated cells reveal an upregulation of genes related to lipid synthesis
571 pathways (Das et al., 2010; Yuzefovych et al., 2010), and MUFAs upregulate diacylglycerol
572 acyltransferase expression, resulting in accumulation of neutral triglycerides (Das et al., 2010;

573 Kwon et al., 2014b) which trigger the formation and expansion of intracellular lipid droplets that
574 store excess SFAs and prevent SFA lipotoxicity (Listenberger et al., 2003; Peng et al., 2011b).
575 Lipid droplet formation occurred in cultured DRG axons treated with oleate and oleate/palmitate
576 mixtures, suggesting that MUFAs trigger lipid droplet formation and sequester toxic SFAs into
577 triglycerides to prevent cytoplasmic accumulation of deleterious SFAs and subsequent
578 mitochondrial dysfunction. Sequestration of toxic SFAs into lipid droplets also prevents
579 accumulation of metabolic lipotoxic intermediates, like ceramides, that induce apoptotic
580 signaling (Senkal et al., 2017). Mitochondria associated with lipid droplets also have increased
581 electron transport and ATP synthesis (Benador et al., 2018). Interestingly, lipid droplet formation
582 in the oleate/palmitate mixtures was concentration dependent (Ma et al., 2011; Yenuganti et al.,
583 2016), appearing only at 250 μM oleate, suggesting alternative beneficial effects of low oleate
584 concentrations. Oleate increases β-III tubulin expression in neurons (Ghareghani et al., 2017), a
585 protein essential for microtubule formation for organellar trafficking in neurons, and can enhance
586 fatty acid oxidation through a mitochondrial-dependent pathway (Lim et al., 2013).

587 Overall, we report that mice fed a SFA-rich HFD develop obesity, prediabetes, and
588 neuropathy, reflecting the development of neuropathy in man, while a MUFA-rich HFD reverses
589 neuropathy progression and restores nerve function. The MUFA oleate prevents the impairment
590 of mitochondrial transport and function induced by the SFA palmitate *in vitro,* likely through the
591 formation of intra-axonal lipid droplets. Our work strongly supports dietary intervention for
592 treatment of neuropathy, and provides rationale for a clinical trial of MUFA-rich oils to treat
593 neuropathy in prediabetes and T2D patients.
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596 **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

597 A. E. Rumora designed the research; A. E. Rumora, G. LoGrasso, J. A. Haidar, J. M. Hayes, and
598 analyzed the data; A. E. Rumora, G. LoGrasso, J. M. Hayes, J. A. Haidar, F. E. Mendelson and
599 M. A. Tabbey performed the research; A. E. Rumora wrote the paper; S. I. Lentz developed the
600 kymograph, TMRM, and lipid droplet image analysis protocols and reviewed the manuscript;
601 and E. L. Feldman directed the study, provided scientific expertise, and reviewed the manuscript.

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906 **Figure legends**

907 **Figure 1. A MUFA-rich diet reverses neuropathy in prediabetic mice.** (*A*), Dietary
908 intervention murine model whereby C57BL/6J mice were fed a standard diet (SD), 60% HFD, or
909 60% HFD followed by 60% HFD-MUFA (see Figure 1-1). (*B-D*) Metabolic phenotyping of mice
910 at 24 weeks of age, including (*B*) fasting blood glucose levels (mg/dL), (*C*) terminal body weight
911 (g), and (*D*) terminal body composition. (*E-F*) Neuropathy phenotyping using nerve conduction
912 velocity (m/s) for sural and sciatic nerves, respectively (see Figure 1-2). (*G*) Intraepidermal
913 nerve fiber density of mouse food pad. All data represents mean ± SEM from 5-8 animals per
914 group. One-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple-comparisons test, *$p < 0.0001$, #$p = 0.0071$,
915 &$p = 0.0297$.
916
917 **Figure 2. MUFA treatment preserves axonal mitochondrial motility in cultured DRG**
918 **neurons.** (*A*) Kymograph analysis of DRG axons treated for 24 hours with TM, vehicle only
919 (0.25% BSA), and varying concentrations (31.25-250 μM) of oleate. (*B*) Percentage of motile
920 mitochondria as observed in (A). (*C*) Kymograph analysis of DRG axons treated for 24 hours
921 with TM, vehicle only (0.25% BSA), 125 μM palmitate alone, and 125 μM palmitate with 125
922 μM or 250 μM oleate. (*D*) Percentage of motile mitochondria as observed in (C). (*E*)
923 Kymograph analysis of DRG neurons treated for 24 hours with TM, vehicle alone (0.25% BSA),
924 pre-treatment (12 hours) with 125 μM palmitate followed by post-treatment (12 hours) with 125
925 μM or 250 μM oleate, or pre-treatment (12 hours) with 125 μM or 250 μM oleate followed by
926 post-treatment (12 hours) with 125 μM palmitate. (*F*) Percentage of motile mitochondria as
927 observed in (E). All data represents $n = 18$-23 neurons per condition: one-way ANOVA with
928 Tukey's multiple-comparisons test, *$p < 0.0001$.

Figure 3. MUFA treatment preserves and protects DRG neuronal mitochondrial membrane potential. Fluorescence microscopy imaging of DRG neurons expressing mito-GFP that were stained with TMRM dye specific for polarized mitochondrial membranes, following treatment with TM (*A*), 125 μM palmitate (*B*), 250 μM oleate (*C*), or a mix of 125 μM palmitate and oleate (D). Green signal (mito-GFP) indicates mitochondria, red signal (TMRM) indicates mitochondria with membrane potential, and yellow signal (Merge) shows overlap of mito-GFP and TMRM signals indicative of polarized mitochondria. (*E*) Percentage of depolarized mitochondria as shown in (A-D), i.e., mitochondria fluorescing green (mito-GFP) but lacking red TMRM signal, as a percentage of total mitochondria. All data represents n = 31-35 neurons per condition: one-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple-comparisons test, $*p < 0.0001$.

Figure 4. MUFA treatment prevents ATP production decreases and apoptotic signaling induced by palmitate. (*A*) Relative ATP production (relative light units; RLU) as measured by CellTiter-Glo assay in 50B11 DRG neuronal cells treated for 24 hours with TM, vehicle alone (0.25% BSA), varying concentrations (62.5-250 μM) of oleate and palmitate alone, or either 125 μM or 250 μM oleate mixed with 125 μM palmitate. Data represents mean ± SEM from n = 6 wells of 50B11 neurons per condition: one-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple-comparisons test, $p < 0.0001$ (*B*) Relative caspase 3/7 activity (RLU) as measured by Caspase 3/7-Glo assay in 50B11 DRG neuronal cells treated with conditions identical to those in (A). Data represents mean ± SEM from n = 3 wells of 50B11 neurons per condition: one-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple-comparisons test, $p < 0.0001$ and $\#p < 0.0056$.

952 **Figure 5. MUFA treatment induces axonal lipid droplet formation in DRG neurons.**
953 Fluorescence microscopy of cultured DRG neurons expressing mito-GFP (green puncta) and
954 stained with lipid droplet-specific Nile Red (red puncta), following treatment with vehicle alone
955 (0.25% BSA) (*A*), 125 μM palmitate (*B*) or oleate alone (*C*), or 125 μM palmitate mixed with
956 125 μM (*D*) or 250 μM oleate (*E*). Yellow puncta (Merged signal) indicates co-localization
957 between mitochondria and lipid droplets in DRG axons. (*F*) Number of lipid droplets (red puncta
958 as stained by Nile Red) per DRG neuron as shown in (A-E). n = 20-47 neurons per condition:
959 one-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple-comparisons test, *$p < 0.0001$ (*G*) Number of
960 mitochondria co-localizing with lipid droplets (yellow puncta in Mito-GFP/Nile Red Merge) per
961 DRG neuron as shown in (A-E). n = 20-37 neurons per condition: one-way ANOVA with
962 Tukey's multiple-comparisons test, *$p < 0.0001$.
963
964 **Figure 1-1. Fatty acid composition of standard and high fat diets (Extended data**
965 **supporting Figure 1).** The fatty acid profile of the SD, HFD, and HFD-MUFA used to evaluate
966 the role of dietary SFA and MUFA on neuropathy. The total amount of SFA, MUFA, and PUFA
967 in each chow is listed within the table.
968
969 **Figure 1-2. A HFD rich in SFAs reduces nerve conduction velocity by 16 weeks of age**
970 **before HFD-MUFA intervention (Extended data supporting Figure 1).** (A) Impact of the
971 SD and HFD on sural and (B) sciatic nerve conduction velocity measurements. All data
972 represent mean ± SEM from 7-8 animals per group. One-way ANOVA with Tukey's
973 multiple-comparisons test, *$p < 0.0001$.
974