

CMF and MET treatment induce cognitive impairment through upregulation of IL-1 α in rat brain

A.H. ALHOWAIL¹, Y.S. ALMOGBEL², A.A.H. ABDELLATIF^{3,4}, N.F. ALSALEHI¹, F.A. ALGHENAIM¹, M.A. ALDUBAYAN¹, S.G. FELEMBAN⁵

¹Department of Pharmacology and Toxicology, College of Pharmacy, Qassim University, Buraydah, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia

²Department of Pharmacy Practice, College of Pharmacy, Qassim University, Buraydah, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia

³Department of Pharmaceutics, College of Pharmacy, Qassim University, Buraydah, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia

⁴Department of Pharmaceutics and Industrial Pharmacy, Faculty of Pharmacy, Al-Azhar University, Assiut, Egypt

⁵Department of Medical Laboratory Sciences, Fakeeh College for Medical Sciences, Jeddah, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia

Abstract. – OBJECTIVE: Cyclophosphamide (CYP), methotrexate (MTX) and 5-fluorouracil (5-FU) (CMF) are chemotherapeutic agents known to cause acute and long-term cognitive impairment in cancer patients. Cognitive function is regulated mainly by neuronal circuitry in the brain, especially the cortex and hippocampus as well as other components of the limbic area. Neuroinflammation mediated by proinflammatory cytokines is a well - known cause of cognitive impairment. Our previous study showed that metformin induced cognitive impairment and neuroinflammation in CMF-treated rats. Understanding the effects and mechanisms of CMF and MET treatment on chemotherapy-related cognitive impairment and the relationship with neuroinflammation may help prevent some of the adverse effects of this type of chemotherapy in cancer patients.

MATERIALS AND METHODS: Rats were divided into four groups: control (normal saline), CMF (50 mg/kg CYP, 2 mg/kg MTX, 50 mg/kg 5-FU; two doses administered by intraperitoneal injection over two weeks), MET (2.5 mg/ml – oral administration daily), and CMF+MET group. IL-1 α , IRS-1, Akt- α and TNF- α levels in brain tissues were measured by ELISA and data were analyzed by one-way ANOVA test followed by Tukey's test.

RESULTS: Compared with the control group, IL-1 α levels were significantly increased in the CMF+MET group, whereas there were no significant differences in the MET and CMF groups. On the other hand, IRS-1, TNF- α and Akt- α expression and mitochondrial complex 1 activi-

ty indicated that systemic CMF and MET treatment did not change the expression of these proteins in the brain compared to the control group.

CONCLUSIONS: Our results indicate that cognitive function is impaired by the administration of two doses of CMF and MET over a period of two weeks as a result of IL-1 α overexpression in the brain.

Key Words:

Chemotherapy, CMF, Cognitive impairment, Metformin, Mitochondrial function.

Introduction

Chemotherapy is one of the main strategies implemented to treat cancer. Despite its effectiveness against several types of malignancies, it can also affect normal tissues by inducing oxidative stress and inflammatory responses, leading to many side-effects and toxicities^{1,2}. These side-effects can limit the clinical endpoints and reduce patients' quality of life^{3,4}. Chemo-brain (also known as chemotherapy-related cognitive impairment) refers to a set of changes in cognitive functions that occur as a result of chemotherapy treatment⁵. It is characterized by deficits in patients' concentration, memory, decision-making, learning, and language during and after cessation of chemotherapy⁶. The signs of chemo-brain are

usually temporary, although about 35% of clinically treated patients claim that the signs persist for months, or even years after discontinuation of the therapy⁷. Cognitive function is regulated mainly by neuronal circuitry in the brain, especially the cortex and hippocampus as well as other components of the limbic area. However, the underlying mechanism of cognitive dysfunction remains uncertain, but several pathways have been suggested, including both direct neurotoxicity of chemotherapeutic agents, and indirect oxidative stress, immune dysregulation, proinflammatory cytokine production, and blood-brain barrier (BBB) damage⁸.

Cyclophosphamide (CYP), methotrexate (MTX), and 5-fluorouracil (5-FU) (CMF) are chemotherapeutic agents commonly used in combination to treat breast cancer^{9,10}. CYP exerts its effects through the alkylation of DNA, thereby blocking DNA synthesis and RNA transcription¹¹. MTX is a folate antagonist agent that inhibits several enzymes responsible for nucleotide synthesis, including dihydrofolate reductase, which catalyzes the conversion of dihydrofolate into tetrahydrofolate¹. Tetrahydrofolate is essential for the synthesis of the DNA and RNA nucleotides¹². As an antimetabolite, 5-FU inhibits the formation of thymidylate from uracil, thereby preventing DNA and RNA synthesis¹³. The BBB provides protection against cytotoxic agents, including chemotherapeutic medication¹⁴. Although many chemotherapeutic agents are unable to cross the BBB¹⁵, some studies have demonstrated the ability of 5-FU and MTX to cross this barrier^{16,17}. Furthermore, several studies have shown that the administration of MTX and CYP decreases neurogenesis in the brain, leading to impairment of learning and memory¹⁷. A previous clinical study of breast cancer patients treated with CMF about 21 years earlier showed that these individuals performed worse in several cognitive tests compared to those in the non-cancer control group¹⁸. Furthermore, one study showed that CMF-induced learning and memory impairment in rats was associated with a decrease in cellular proliferation in the hippocampus three weeks after chemotherapy¹⁹.

Metformin (MET) is an oral agent that is commonly used as a first-line therapy for type 2 diabetes mellitus (T2DM)²⁰. Besides treatment of T2DM, it is also used to treat other disorders such as obesity, metabolic syndrome, and polycystic ovarian syndrome²¹. MET stimulates the 5'-adenosine monophosphate-activated protein

kinase (AMPK) pathway, which functions as a master regulator of catabolism and cell signaling pathways²². By inducing changes in the AMP:ATP ratio, AMPK inhibits gluconeogenesis in the liver²³. AMPK activation is thought to be responsible for the anti-inflammatory and anticancer properties of MET^{20,21}. The mammalian target of rapamycin (mTOR), a kinase that plays a critical role in cellular growth, is inhibited by AMPK activation²⁴, resulting in blockade of the phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase (PI3K)/protein kinase B (Akt) signaling pathway²⁵. As a pro-survival pathway, inhibition of the PI3K/Akt pathway promotes apoptosis²⁶. It has been reported that diabetic patients treated with MET have a lower risk of cancer development than other diabetic patients treated using different medications²⁷. Several studies demonstrated that MET acts synergistically with other chemotherapeutic agents in the treatment of cancer²⁸⁻³⁰. MET has also been shown to prevent memory impairment induced by MTX in the rat³¹. In addition, several studies indicated that MET treatment is associated with a lower risk of cognitive impairment in diabetic patients via AMPK-dependent and -independent mechanisms³²⁻³⁴. However, it is well known that long-term MET treatment is associated with vitamin B₁₂ deficiency³⁵, which may exacerbate central nervous system disorders. Furthermore, the adjustment of vitamin B₁₂ levels by supplementation is associated with better cognitive outcomes in diabetic patients experiencing vitamin B₁₂ deficiency due to metformin treatment³⁶. Our previous study showed that CMF and metformin treatment induced cognitive impairment by using hippocampal-dependent tasks such as Y-maze, novel object recognition and elevated plus maze through modulation of IL-6 in rats models of chemobrain [Alhowail AH, Almogbel Y, Abdellatif AAH, Aldubayan MA, Alfheaid HA, Felemban SG, Chigurupati S, Alharbi IF, Alharbi HS. Metformin Induced Cognitive Impairment and Neuroinflammation in CMF-Treated Rats. *Int J Pharmacol* 2021 (in press)]. Based on these findings, we investigated the further effects of MET and CMF on cognitive function by evaluating the expression of the neuroinflammatory cytokines interleukin-1 alpha (IL-1 α) and tumor necrosis factor-alpha (TNF- α) in the brain as well as the levels of insulin receptor substrate-1 (IRS-1) and protein kinase B (Akt-a). We also evaluated mitochondrial function by measuring complex 1 activity.

Materials and Methods

Drugs

CYP (Endoxan[®]) was obtained from Baxter (Mumbai, Maharashtra, India); MTX (Methotrexate[®]) was obtained from Hospira UK Ltd. (Leeds, UK); 5-FU (Utoral[®]) was obtained from Korea United Pharm Inc. (Seoul, South Korea); and MET hydrochloride (Metfor[®]) was obtained from Tabuk Pharmaceuticals (Tabuk, Saudi Arabia).

Animals

Male rats (n = 24; aged 10–12 weeks) were housed individually under a 12-h light/dark cycle (lights on 6:00 am) with free access to food and water. The animals were observed daily to check the mortality rate, and their body weights were measured every two days. The animals were divided into the following four groups (n = 6 per group): control group, CMF group, MET group, and CMF+ MET group. At the end of the study period and after evaluation of cognitive function, the rats were euthanized using carbon dioxide (CO₂), and their brains were collected and stored in the -80°C until analysis. The Ethics Committee Approval was approved by the Deanship of Scientific Research, Qassim University under grant number (pharmacy-2019-2-2-I-5603), in accordance with the National Research Council (US) Guide for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals.

Drug Administration

The rats were injected intraperitoneally (i.p.) with CMF (50 mg/kg cyclophosphamide, 2 mg/kg methotrexate, 50 mg/kg fluorouracil two doses in two weeks). Metformin was dissolved in drinking water at 2.5 mg/ml and administered daily during the period of two weeks after the first CMF injection. Rats in the control group received two injections of saline.

Enzyme-Linked Immunosorbent Assay (ELISA)

Rat brains were lysed with Neuronal Protein Extraction Reagent (N-PER[™] obtained from Thermo Scientific[™], Paisley, UK) and sonicated Qsonica homogenizer, 30 Hz pulses for 20 seconds (Qsonica, Newtown, CT, USA). After centrifugation at 12,000 g for 10 min, the supernatant was collected and aliquots of 200 μ L were stored at -80°C. The protein content of each sample was quantified by BCA assay (Pierce, Waltham, MA, USA) and the concentrations of interleukin-1 α , Akt-a, IRS-1, and TNF-a were analyzed using ELISA kits (Mybiosource Inc., San Diego, CA,

USA) according to the manufacturer's instructions. The absorbance in each well was measured at 520 nm using an ELx800 Absorbance Microplate Reader (BioTek Instruments, Inc., Winooski, VT, USA).

Mitochondrial Complex I Activity

Rat brains were homogenized with phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) and lysis buffer (N-PER[™] obtained from Thermo Scientific[™]) and centrifuged at 13,000 \times g and 4°C for 15 min. The supernatant was collected and frozen at -80°C prior to analysis. The protein content of each sample was quantified using the Bradford method. Mitochondrial complex I activity was assayed spectrophotometrically at 340 nm using NADH as a substrate³⁷. Mitochondrial complex I activity was calculated as NADH oxidized/mg protein.

Statistical Analysis

All the data from *in vivo* studies were collected and analyzed by one-way analysis of variance, followed by Tukey's test. Data were presented as the mean \pm SEM (n = 6 experiments). $p < 0.05$ was considered to indicate statistical significance.

Results

The Effect of CMF and MET on IL-1 α Expression

ELISA analysis revealed that there were no significant differences in the IL-1 α expression levels

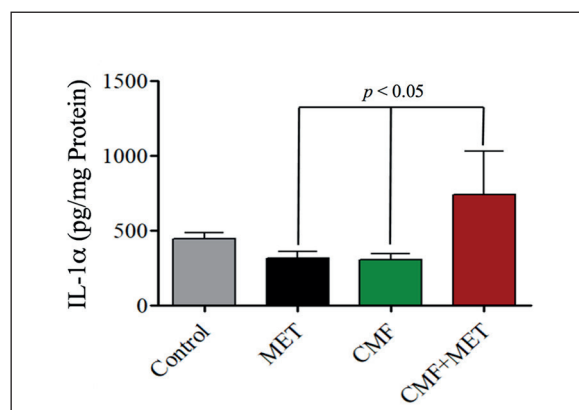


Figure 1. Effect of CMF and MET treatments on IL-1 α regulation in rat brains. ELISA analysis showed that IL-1 α expression levels were significantly higher in the CMF+MET-treated group than in the CMF- and MET-treated groups. However, the IL-1 α expression levels of the other groups did not differ compared to the levels of the control group. Data analysis was performed using "Tukey multiple comparison test". Statistical significance was accepted at $*p < 0.05$.

of all the treated groups (MET, CMF, and CMF+MET) compared to that in the control group; however, the IL-1 α expression level in the CMF+MET group was significantly higher than those in the MET and CMF groups (Figure 1).

The Effect of CMF and MET on IRS-1 Expression

ELISA analysis revealed that there were no significant differences in the IRS-1 expression levels of all the treated groups (MET, CMF, and CMF+MET) compared to that in the control group (Figure 2).

The Effect of CMF and MET on AKT-a Expression

ELISA analysis revealed that there were no significant differences in the AKT-a expression levels of all the treated groups (MET, CMF and CMF+MET) compared to that in the control group (Figure 3).

The effect of CMF and MET on TNF-a expression

ELISA analysis revealed that there were no significant differences in the TNF-a expression levels of all the treated groups (MET, CMF and CMF+MET) compared to that in the control group (Figure 4).

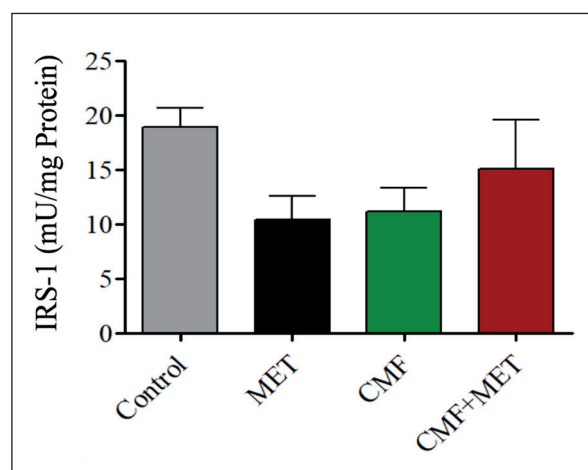


Figure 2. Effect of CMF and MET treatments on IRS-1 regulation in rat brains. ELISA analysis showed that IRS-1 expression levels were slightly reduced in the MET- and CMF-treated groups compared to that in the control group. However, the IRS-1 expression levels in the CMF+MET-treated group did not differ compared to the levels in the control group and were higher than those in the MET- and CMF-treated groups.

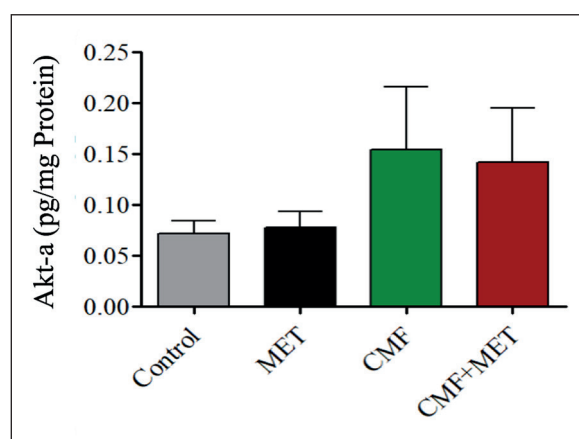


Figure 3. Effect of CMF and MET treatments on regulation of Akt-a regulation in rat brains. ELISA analysis revealed that there were no significant differences in the Akt-a expression levels among the treated groups. However, the CMF- and CMF+MET- treated groups showed slightly higher levels of Akt-a expression compared to those in the MET- alone and control groups.

Mitochondrial Complex I Activity

Analysis of mitochondrial complex I activity confirmed that there were no significant differences in the activity of all the treated groups (MET, CMF and CMF+MET) compared to that in the control group (Figure 5).

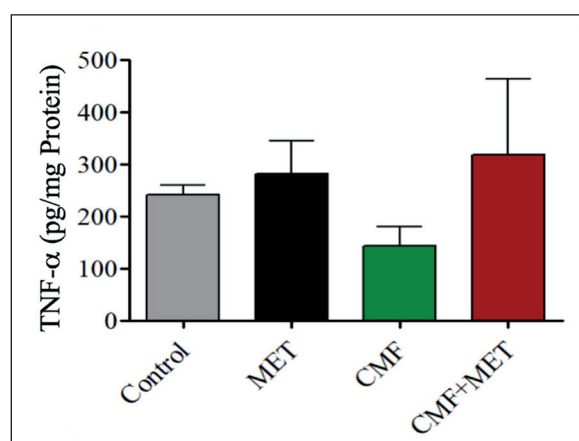


Figure 4. Effect of CMF and MET treatments on regulation of TNF-a regulation in rat brains. ELISA analysis revealed that there were no significant differences in the levels of TNF-a expression levels between the treated groups. However, the CMF-treated groups showed slightly reduced TNF-a expression compared to all the other groups including the control group.

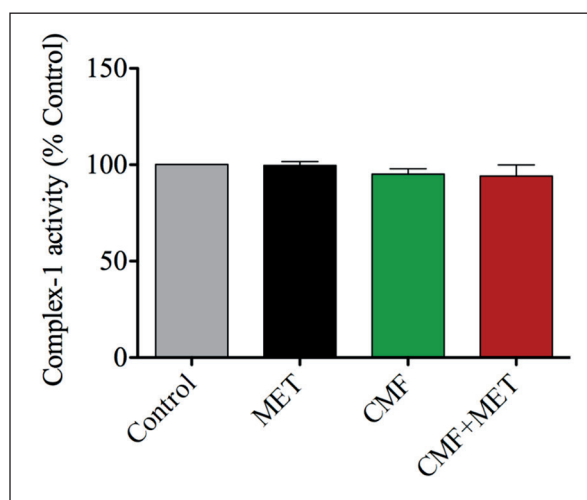


Figure 5. The effect of CMF and MET on mitochondrial complex 1 activity. CMF and MET had no significant effect on mitochondrial complex 1 activity. Protein levels were normalized to the total protein content and presented as a percentage of the levels in the control group, which was set as 100%.

Discussion

In this study, we investigated the mechanism underlying CMF-induced memory impairment. Male rats were used to establish a model of chemo-brain by using CMF to induce cognitive impairment. We then tested the hypothesis that MET protects against CMF-induced memory impairment. A previous study using behavioral tests in a rat model of chemo-brain showed that oral co-administration of MET for two weeks along with two doses of intraperitoneally injected CMF did not prevent the adverse effects of CMF¹⁹. In a previous study, we showed that metformin induced cognitive impairment and neuroinflammation in CMF-treated rats by conducting hippocampal-dependent behavioral tests including (Y-maze, novel object recognition and elevated-plus maze tests) [Alhowail AH, Almogbel Y, Abdellatif AAH, Aldubayan MA, Alfheaid HA, Felemban SG, Chigurupati S, Alharbi IF, Alharbi HS. Metformin Induced Cognitive Impairment and Neuroinflammation in CMF-Treated Rats. *Int J Pharmacol* 2021 (in press)]. In the present study, we showed that CMF and MET treatment can modulate learning and memory processes in the brain. ELISA analysis of proinflammatory cytokine levels in the brain of model rats revealed that IL-1 α levels were significantly increased in the CMF+MET

group compared with those in the CMF and MET groups. In contrast, CMF and MET treatment did not change IRS-1, TNF- α and Akt- α expression levels or mitochondrial complex 1 activity in the brain. By combining these results with those of our previous behavioral analyses, we concluded that memory is impaired treatment with CMF and MET as a result of alteration of cytokine levels in the brain.

Cytokines are glycoproteins produced by a variety of different cell types and modulate immunological and inflammatory responses as well as playing a crucial role in modulating learning and memory³⁸. Elevation of cytokine levels is involved in the pathogenesis of many diseases and disorders associated with cognitive impairment, such as Alzheimer's disease (AD), mild cognitive impairment, and Huntington's disease³⁹⁻⁴¹. Recent studies indicate that altered levels of proinflammatory cytokines are associated with cognitive impairment in cancer patients receiving chemotherapeutic agents^{42,43}. Thus, the results of our study support the hypothesis that inflammation has a role in the pathogenesis of cognitive problems associated with patients receiving chemotherapy.

The IL-1 family of cytokines affects almost all cells and organs⁴⁴ and is involved in the development of autoimmune, inflammatory, and degenerative diseases⁴⁵. IL-1 α is a unique member of the IL-1 family in that it is expressed in a healthy state and rarely associated with disease conditions. IL-1 α activity is controlled by two types of IL-1 receptors (IL-1R1 and IL-1R2) although the cytokine binds with greater affinity to IL-1R1^{46,47}. During cell necrosis, IL-1 α is released into the extracellular environment, where it facilitates sterile inflammatory signaling⁴⁷. The cytotoxic effect produced by chemotherapy is thought to be a result of increased IL-1 α release from dead cells⁴⁸. It has been reported that patients with AD have elevated serum IL-1 α levels compared to control individuals, suggesting its involvement in the pathogenesis⁴⁹⁻⁵¹. The results of the current study suggest that cognitive function was impaired by in the CMF+MET treated group as a result of increased expression of IL-1 α compared to the levels in the other treated groups.

Insulin plays an important role in the regulation of memory and other cognitive functions via the IRS-1/PI3k/AKT signaling pathway in the brain⁵². Insulin action is initiated by binding to the insulin receptor and stimulation of tyrosine phosphorylation, followed by the recruitment of IRS-1 pro-

tein⁵³. IRS-1 is a widely distributed intracellular signaling adaptor protein that is involved in the metabolic functions of insulin⁵². IRS-1 stimulates PI3K, which contributes to the phosphorylation of Akt, a serine/threonine-protein kinase. Once Akt is activated, it regulates cell proliferation, survival, metabolism, and glucose transport by inducing the passage of the glucose transporter 4 (GLUT4) isoform across the plasma membrane⁵⁴. Subsequently, activated Akt inhibits glycogen synthase kinase-3 beta (GSK-3 β) activity by catalyzing its phosphorylation at Ser9, thereby promoting neural survival⁵⁵. Therefore, downregulation of insulin signaling may lead to decreased glucose metabolism and increased phosphorylation through GSK-3 activation⁵⁶. Liu et al⁵⁷ suggests that GSK-3 β activation is associated with the memory deficits that occur in advanced age and AD. MET is an antidiabetic drug that lowers blood sugar levels by improving the response to insulin. MET promotes improvement in insulin sensitivity by a complex mechanism that involves processes such as increased insulin receptor tyrosine kinase activity, enhanced glycogen production, upregulated expression of GLUT4 transporters, and increased lipogenesis. Therefore, the improved glycemia associated with MET is not associated with increased circulating levels of insulin.

Although several systemic inflammatory cytokines have been implicated in the pathogenesis of cognitive impairment, the proinflammatory cytokine TNF- α has a significant role. Studies have been shown that an elevated TNF- α levels are associated with rapid development of cognitive dysfunction over a period of six months in AD patients. TNF- α is also associated with exacerbation of behavioral symptoms such as agitation, anxiety, and depression⁵⁸. Elevation in TNF- α levels were shown to be associated with decreased hippocampal volumes and verbal memory impairment in breast cancer survivors⁵⁹. However, in the current study, we demonstrated that concomitant administration of CMF and MET did not change the expression of IRS-1, Akt- α , and TNF- α levels in the brain.

Mitochondria are organelles found in most eukaryotic organisms and play an important role in energy production, calcium regulation, cell metabolism, and synaptic transmission⁶⁰. The energy produced by the mitochondria is stored in form of the small molecule adenosine triphosphate (ATP). Mitochondrial dysfunction is a known cause of cognitive impairment⁶¹. In addition, it has been reported that mitochondrial dysfunction is in-

duced by some chemotherapeutic agents, such as CYP and MTX^{62,63}. In the present study, we established a rat model of chemo-brain using CMF and MET was used to protect against CMF toxicity. Although MET was reported to induce mitochondrial dysfunction, it is also reported to rescue mitochondrial dysfunction caused by diabetes and heart failure. In the present study, there was no significant change in mitochondrial complex I activity in the brain of rats following co-administration of MET and CMF. However, we did not observe significant alterations in mitochondrial complex I activity after two doses of CMF, possibly due to the low dose administered.

Conclusions

In this study, we investigated the levels of proinflammatory cytokines and their relationship with cognitive dysfunction in rats treated with CMF and MET. Our results indicated that treatment with CMF and MET induces cognitive impairment through upregulation of IL-1 α expression levels in the brain. Further research is needed to fully elucidate the mechanism responsible for chemotherapy-induced cognitive decline and provide strategies for its prevention and treatment.

Conflict of Interest

The Authors declare that they have no conflict of interests.

Acknowledgements

We would like to thank Ibrahim Alharbi and Hindi Alharbi Master's students in the Department of Pharmacology and Toxicology, Qassim University, for their help in running ELISAs.

Funding

The authors gratefully acknowledge Qassim University, represented by the Deanship of Scientific Research, on the financial support for this research under the number (pharmacy-2019-2-2-I-5603) during the academic years 1440 AH/2019 AD..

References

- 1) Felemban SG, Aldubayan MA, Alhowail AH, Almani IS. Vitamin B17 ameliorates methotrexate-induced reproductive toxicity, oxidative stress, and

- testicular injury in male rats. *Oxid Med Cell Longev* 2020; 2020: 4372719.
- 2) Alhowail AH, Bloemer J, Majrashi M, Pinky PD, Bhattacharya S, Yongli Z, Bhattacharya D, Eggert M, Woodie L, Buabeid MA, Johnson N, Broadwater A, Smith B, Dhanasekaran M, Arnold RD, Suppiramaniam V. Doxorubicin-induced neurotoxicity is associated with acute alterations in synaptic plasticity, apoptosis, and lipid peroxidation. *Toxicol Mech Methods* 2019; 29: 457-466.
 - 3) Liu YQ, Wang XL, He DH, Cheng YX. Protection against chemotherapy- and radiotherapy-induced side effects: A review based on the mechanisms and therapeutic opportunities of phytochemicals. *Phytomedicine* 2021; 80: 153402.
 - 4) Mounier NM, Abdel-Maged AE, Wahdan SA, Gad AM, Azab SS. Chemotherapy-induced cognitive impairment (CICI): an overview of etiology and pathogenesis. *Life Sci* 2020; 258: 118071.
 - 5) Alharbi I, Alharbi H, Almogbel Y, Alalwan A, Alhowail A. Effect of metformin on doxorubicin-induced memory dysfunction. *Brain Sci* 2020; 10: 152.
 - 6) Argyriou AA, Assimakopoulos K, Iconomou G, Giannakopoulou F, Kalofonos HP. Either called "chemobrain" or "chemofog," the long-term chemotherapy-induced cognitive decline in cancer survivors is real. *J Pain Symptom Manage* 2011; 41: 126-39.
 - 7) Turrina S, Gibelli F, De Leo D. Chemotherapy-induced cognitive impairment from the forensic medicine perspective: a review of the updated literature. *J Forensic Leg Med* 2020; 76: 102070.
 - 8) Subramaniam CB, Bowen JM, Gladman MA, Lustberg MB, Mayo SJ, Wardill HR. The microbiota-gut-brain axis: an emerging therapeutic target in chemotherapy-induced cognitive impairment. *Neurosci Biobehav Rev* 2020; 116: 470-479.
 - 9) Early Breast Cancer Trialists' Collaborative Group (EBCTCG), Clarke M, Coates AS, Darby SC, Davies C, Gelber RD, Godwin J, Goldhirsch A, Gray R, Peto R, Pritchard KI, Wood WC. Adjuvant chemotherapy in oestrogen-receptor-poor breast cancer: patient-level meta-analysis of randomised trials. *Lancet* 2008; 371: 29-40.
 - 10) Park JH, Im SA, Byun JM, Kim KH, Kim JS, Choi IS, Kim HJ, Lee KH, Kim TY, Han SW, Oh DY, Kim TY. Cyclophosphamide, methotrexate, and 5-fluorouracil as palliative treatment for heavily pre-treated patients with metastatic breast cancer: a multicenter retrospective analysis. *J Breast Cancer* 2017; 20: 347-355.
 - 11) Iqbal A, Iqbal MK, Sharma S, Ansari MA, Najmi AK, Ali SM, Ali J, Haque SE. Molecular mechanism involved in cyclophosphamide-induced cardiotoxicity: old drug with a new vision. *Life Sci* 2019; 218: 112-131.
 - 12) Verberne EA, de Haan E, van Tintelen JP, Lindhout D, van Haelst MM. Fetal methotrexate syndrome: a systematic review of case reports. *Reprod Toxicol* 2019; 87: 125-139.
 - 13) Wang N, Yang L, Dai J, Wu Y, Zhang R, Jia X, Liu C. 5-FU inhibits migration and invasion of CRC cells through PI3K/AKT pathway regulated by MARCH1. *Cell Biol Int* 2021; 45: 368-381.
 - 14) Upadhyay RK. Drug delivery systems, CNS protection, and the blood brain barrier. *Biomed Res Int* 2014; 2014: 869269.
 - 15) Ren X, Boriero D, Chaiswing L, Bondada S, St Clair DK, Butterfield DA. Plausible biochemical mechanisms of chemotherapy-induced cognitive impairment ("chemobrain"), a condition that significantly impairs the quality of life of many cancer survivors. *Biochim Biophys Acta Mol Basis Dis* 2019; 1865: 1088-1097.
 - 16) Anderson JE, Trujillo M, McElroy T, Groves T, Alexander T, Kiffer F, Allen AR. Early effects of cyclophosphamide, methotrexate, and 5-fluorouracil on neuronal morphology and hippocampal-dependent behavior in a murine model. *Toxicol Sci* 2020; 173: 156-170.
 - 17) Briones TL, Woods J. Dysregulation in myelination mediated by persistent neuroinflammation: possible mechanisms in chemotherapy-related cognitive impairment. *Brain Behav Immun* 2014; 35: 23-32.
 - 18) Koppelmans V, Breteler MM, Boogerd W, Seynaeve C, Gundy C, Schagen SB. Neuropsychological performance in survivors of breast cancer more than 20 years after adjuvant chemotherapy. *J Clin Oncol* 2012; 30: 1080-1086.
 - 19) Briones TL, Woods J. Chemotherapy-induced cognitive impairment is associated with decreases in cell proliferation and histone modifications. *BMC Neurosci* 2011; 12: 124.
 - 20) Foretz M, Guigas B, Viollet B. Understanding the glucoregulatory mechanisms of metformin in type 2 diabetes mellitus. *Nat Rev Endocrinol* 2019; 15: 569-589.
 - 21) Rêgo DF, Pavan LM, Elias ST, De Luca Canto G, Guerra EN. Effects of metformin on head and neck cancer: a systematic review. *Oral Oncol* 2015; 51: 416-422.
 - 22) Agius L, Ford BE, Chachra SS. The metformin mechanism on gluconeogenesis and AMPK activation: the metabolite perspective. *Int J Mol Sci* 2020; 21: 3240.
 - 23) Viollet B, Guigas B, Leclerc J, Hébrard S, Lantier L, Mounier R, Andreelli F, Foretz M. AMP-activated protein kinase in the regulation of hepatic energy metabolism: from physiology to therapeutic perspectives. *Acta Physiol (Oxf)* 2009; 196: 81-98.
 - 24) Ling NXY, Kaczmarek A, Hoque A, Davie E, Ngoei KRW, Morrison KR, Smiles WJ, Forte GM, Wang T, Lie S, Dite TA, Langendorf CG, Scott JW, Oakhill JS, Petersen J. mTORC1 directly inhibits AMPK to promote cell proliferation under nutrient stress. *Nat Metab* 2020; 2: 41-49.
 - 25) Tao R, Gong J, Luo X, Zang M, Guo W, Wen R, Luo Z. AMPK exerts dual regulatory effects on the PI3K pathway. *J Mol Signal* 2010; 5: 1.

- 26) Zhang K, Bai P, Dai H, Deng Z. Metformin and risk of cancer among patients with type 2 diabetes mellitus: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Prim Care Diabetes* 2021; 15: 52-58.
- 27) Saraei P, Asadi I, Kakar MA, Moradi-Kor N. The beneficial effects of metformin on cancer prevention and therapy: a comprehensive review of recent advances. *Cancer Manag Res* 2019; 11: 3295-3313.
- 28) Peng M, Darko KO, Tao T, Huang Y, Su Q, He C, Yin T, Liu Z, Yang X. Combination of metformin with chemotherapeutic drugs via different molecular mechanisms. *Cancer Treat Rev* 2017; 54: 24-33.
- 29) Soo JS, Ng CH, Tan SH, Malik RA, Teh YC, Tan BS, Ho GF, See MH, Taib NA, Yip CH, Chung FF, Hii LW, Teo SH, Leong CO. Metformin synergizes 5-fluorouracil, epirubicin, and cyclophosphamide (FEC) combination therapy through impairing intracellular ATP production and DNA repair in breast cancer stem cells. *Apoptosis* 2015; 20: 1373-1387.
- 30) Wen KC, Sung PL, Wu ATH, Chou PC, Lin JH, Huang CF, Yeung SJ, Lee MH. Neoadjuvant metformin added to conventional chemotherapy synergizes anti-proliferative effects in ovarian cancer. *J Ovarian Res* 2020; 13: 95
- 31) Sritawan N, Prajit R, Chaisawang P, Sirichoat A, Pannangrong W, Wigmore P, Welbat JU. Metformin alleviates memory and hippocampal neurogenesis decline induced by methotrexate chemotherapy in a rat model. *Biomed Pharmacother* 2020; 131: 110651.
- 32) Ng TP, Feng L, Yap KB, Lee TS, Tan CH, Winblad B. Long-term metformin usage and cognitive function among older adults with diabetes. *J Alzheimers Dis* 2014; 41: 61-68.
- 33) Urruticoechea A, Alemany R, Balart J, Villanueva A, Viñals F, Capellá G. Recent advances in cancer therapy: an overview. *Curr Pharm Des* 2010; 16: 3-10.
- 34) Zhang QQ, Li WS, Liu Z, Zhang HL, Ba YG, Zhang RX. Metformin therapy and cognitive dysfunction in patients with type 2 diabetes: a meta-analysis and systematic review. *Medicine (Baltimore)* 2020; 99: e19378.
- 35) Aroda VR, Edelstein SL, Goldberg RB, Knowler WC, Marcovina SM, Orchard TJ, Bray GA, Schade DS, Temprosa MG, White NH, Crandall JP; Diabetes Prevention Program Research Group. Long-term metformin use and vitamin B12 deficiency in the diabetes prevention program outcomes study. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab* 2016; 101: 1754-1761.
- 36) Ping F, Jiang N, Li Y. Association between metformin and neurodegenerative diseases of observational studies: systematic review and meta-analysis. *BMJ Open Diab Res Care* 2020; 8: e001370.
- 37) Thrash-Williams B, Karuppagounder SS, Bhat-tacharya D, Ahuja M, Suppiramaniam V, Dhanasekaran M. Methamphetamine-induced dopaminergic toxicity prevented owing to the neuroprotective effects of salicylic acid. *Life Sci* 2016; 154: 24-29.
- 38) Donzis EJ, Tronson NC. Modulation of learning and memory by cytokines: signaling mechanisms and long term consequences. *Neurobiol Learn Mem* 2014; 115: 68-77.
- 39) Galimberti D, Schoonenboom N, Scheltens P, Fenoglio C, Bouwman F, Venturelli E, Guidi I, Blankenstein MA, Bresolin N, Scarpini E. Intrathecal chemokine synthesis in mild cognitive impairment and Alzheimer disease. *Arch Neurol* 2006; 63: 538-543.
- 40) Swardfager W, Lanctôt K, Rothenburg L, Wong A, Cappell J, Herrmann N. A meta-analysis of cytokines in Alzheimer's disease. *Biol Psychiatry* 201; 68: 930-941.
- 41) Valadão PAC, Santos KBS, Ferreira E Vieira TH, Macedo E Cordeiro T, Teixeira AL, Guatimosim C, de Miranda AS. Inflammation in Huntington's disease: a few new twists on an old tale. *J Neuroimmunol* 2020; 348: 577380.
- 42) Williams AM, Shah R, Shayne M, Huston AJ, Krebs M, Murray N, Thompson BD, Doyle K, Korotkin J, van Wijngaarden E, Hyland S, Moynihan JA, Cory-Slechta DA, Janelsins MC. Associations between inflammatory markers and cognitive function in breast cancer patients receiving chemotherapy. *J Neuroimmunol* 2018; 314: 17-23.
- 43) Lyon DE, Cohen R, Chen H, Kelly DL, McCain NL, Starkweather A, Ahn H, Sturgill J, Jackson-Cook CK. Relationship of systemic cytokine concentrations to cognitive function over two years in women with early stage breast cancer. *J Neuroimmunol* 2016; 301: 74-82.
- 44) Xu D, Mu R, Wei X. The roles of IL-1 family cytokines in the pathogenesis of systemic sclerosis. *Front Immunol* 2019; 10: 2025.
- 45) Garlanda C, Dinarello CA, Mantovani A. The interleukin-1 family: back to the future. *Immunity* 2013; 39: 1003-1018.
- 46) Dinarello CA. Overview of the IL-1 family in innate inflammation and acquired immunity. *Immunol Rev* 2018; 281: 8-27.
- 47) Khazim K, Azulay EE, Kristal B, Cohen I. Interleukin 1 gene polymorphism and susceptibility to disease. *Immunol Rev* 2018; 281: 40-56.
- 48) Cavalli G, Colafrancesco S, Emmi G, Imazio M, Lopalco G, Maggio MC, Sota J, Dinarello CA. Interleukin 1α: a comprehensive review on the role of IL-1α in the pathogenesis and treatment of autoimmune and inflammatory diseases. *Autoimmun Rev* 2021; 20: 102763.
- 49) Shaftel SS, Griffin WS, O'Banion MK. The role of interleukin-1 in neuroinflammation and Alzheimer disease: an evolving perspective. *J Neuroinflammation* 2008; 5: 7.
- 50) Rubio-Perez JM, Morillas-Ruiz JM. A review: inflammatory process in Alzheimer's disease, role of cytokines. *ScientificWorldJournal* 2012; 2012: 756357.

- 51) Babcock AA, Ilkjær L, Clausen BH, Villadsen B, Dissing-Olesen L, Bendixen AT, Lyck L, Lambertsen KL, Finsen B. Cytokine-producing microglia have an altered beta-amyloid load in aged APP/PS1 Tg mice. *Brain Behav Immun* 2015; 48: 86-101.
- 52) Arnold SE, Arvanitakis Z, Macauley-Rambach SL, Koenig AM, Wang HY, Ahima RS, Craft S, Gandy S, Buettner C, Stoekel LE, Holtzman DM, Nathan DM. Brain insulin resistance in type 2 diabetes and Alzheimer disease: concepts and conundrums. *Nat Rev Neurol* 2018; 14(3): 168-181.
- 53) Xu Y, Fu JF, Chen JH, Zhang ZW, Zou ZQ, Han LY, Hua QH, Zhao JS, Zhang XH, Shan YJ. Sulforaphane ameliorates glucose intolerance in obese mice via the upregulation of the insulin signaling pathway. *Food Funct* 2018; 9: 4695-4701.
- 54) Zborowski VA, Heck SO, Marques LS, Bastos NK, Nogueira CW. Memory impairment and depressive-like phenotype are accompanied by downregulation of hippocampal insulin and BDNF signaling pathways in prediabetic mice. *Physiol Behav* 2021: 113346.
- 55) Gabbouj S, Ryhänen S, Marttinen M, Wittrahm R, Takalo M, Kemppainen S, Martiskainen H, Tanila H, Haapasalo A, Hiltunen M, Natunen T. Altered insulin signaling in Alzheimer's disease brain - special emphasis on PI3K-Akt pathway. *Front Neurosci* 2019; 13: 629.
- 56) Talbot K, Wang HY, Kazi H, Han LY, Bakshi KP, Stucky A, Fuino RL, Kawaguchi KR, Samoyedny AJ, Wilson RS, Arvanitakis Z, Schneider JA, Wolf BA, Bennett DA, Trojanowski JQ, Arnold SE. Demonstrated brain insulin resistance in Alzheimer's disease patients is associated with IGF-1 resistance, IRS-1 dysregulation, and cognitive decline. *J Clin Invest* 2012; 122: 1316-1338.
- 57) Liu Y, Liu F, Grundke-Iqbal I, Iqbal K, Gong CX. Deficient brain insulin signalling pathway in Alzheimer's disease and diabetes. *J Pathol* 2011; 225: 54-62.
- 58) Hennessy E, Gormley S, Lopez-Rodriguez AB, Murray C, Murray C, Cunningham C. Systemic TNF- α produces acute cognitive dysfunction and exaggerated sickness behavior when superimposed upon progressive neurodegeneration. *Brain Behav Immun* 2017; 59: 233-244.
- 59) Kesler S, Janelsins M, Koovakkattu D, Palesh O, Mustian K, Morrow G, Dhabhar FS. Reduced hippocampal volume and verbal memory performance associated with interleukin-6 and tumor necrosis factor-alpha levels in chemotherapy-treated breast cancer survivors. *Brain Behav Immun* 2013; 30 Suppl: S109-116.
- 60) Knott AB, Bossy-Wetzel E. Impairing the mitochondrial fission and fusion balance: a new mechanism of neurodegeneration. *Ann N Y Acad Sci* 2008; 1147: 283-292.
- 61) Khacho M, Clark A, Svoboda DS, MacLaurin JG, Lagace DC, Park DS, Slack RS. Mitochondrial dysfunction underlies cognitive defects as a result of neural stem cell depletion and impaired neurogenesis. *Hum Mol Genet* 2017; 26: 3327-3341.
- 62) Crouch ML, Knowels G, Stuppard R, Ericson NG, Bielas JH, Marcinek DJ, Syrjala KL. Cyclophosphamide leads to persistent deficits in physical performance and in vivo mitochondria function in a mouse model of chemotherapy late effects. *PLoS One* 2017; 12: e0181086.
- 63) Heidari R, Ahmadi A, Mohammadi H, Ommati MM, Azarpira N, Niknahad H. Mitochondrial dysfunction and oxidative stress are involved in the mechanism of methotrexate-induced renal injury and electrolytes imbalance. *Biomed Pharmacother* 2018; 107: 834-840.