Induction of diabetes in cynomolgus monkey with one shot of analytical grade streptozotocin

Zhengzhao Liu¹,² | Ying Lu¹ | Wenbao Hu¹ | Hidetaka Hara³ | Yifan Dai⁴ | Zhiming Cai¹ | Lisha Mou¹

¹Shenzhen Xenotransplantation Medical Engineering Research and Development Center, Institute of Translational Medicine, Shenzhen Second People's Hospital, The First Affiliated Hospital of Shenzhen University, Health Science Center, Shenzhen, China
²Movement System Injury and Repair Research Center, Xiangya Hospital of Central South University, Changsha, China
³Jiangsu Key Laboratory of Xenotransplantation, Nanjing Medical University, Nanjing, China
⁴Xenotransplantation Program/Department of Surgery, The University of Alabama at Birmingham, Birmingham, AL, USA

Correspondence
Lisha Mou, Shenzhen Second People's Hospital, No. 3002 Sungang Road, Futian district, Shenzhen, China.
Email: lishamou@gmail.com

Funding information
National Key R&D Program of China, Grant/Award Number: 2017YFC1103704; Special Funds for the Construction of High Level Hospitals in Guangdong Province; Sanning Project of Medicine in Shenzhen, Grant/Award Number: SZSM201412020; Fund for High Level Medical Discipline Construction of Shenzhen, Grant/Award Number: 2016031638; National Science Foundation for Distinguished Young Scholars of Guangdong province, Grant/Award Number: 2016A030306051; National Science Foundation, Grant/Award Number: 81701383; National Science Foundation for Postdoctoral Startup of Guangdong province, Grant/Award Number:

Abstract

Backgrounds: Streptozotocin (STZ)-induced diabetic monkey is a wide used preclinical animal model for the investigation of diabetes such as islet transplantation and development of diabetic drugs. There are serious side effects of this method, including nausea, emesis, weight loss, liver damage, renal failure, and metabolic acidosis. In order to reduce the side effects, diabetic monkeys were induced using clinical-grade STZ. However, clinical-grade STZ is not available in China. Here, we established a method by using 100 mg/kg analytical-grade STZ to induce complete diabetes in cynomolgus monkey without generating adverse effects to liver and renal.

Methods: Three cynomolgus monkeys were used in this study. 100 mg/kg STZ dissolved in normal saline and infused through vein line in 5 minutes after indwelling catheter in the carotid artery and jugular vein. After the STZ administration, blood glucose levels were examined every 1 or 2 hours in the first 48 hours. Then, blood glucose levels were examined twice per day during the first week after the STZ injection. Insulin and C-peptide levels were measured by ELISA. Blood chemistry of hepatic and renal function tests were performed. Insulin and glucagon expression in the islet of diabetic monkey and normal monkey were examined by immunohistochemistry assays.

Results: The stimulated C-peptide level (Intravenous glucose tolerance test) which is less than 0.5 ng/mL, the triphasic blood glucose response and the destroyed β cell suggested the complete induction of diabetes model. No apparent adverse effects were observed including no signs of vomiting and toxicity after STZ injection.

Conclusion: In summary, we established a safe and reproducible STZ-induced diabetic cynomolgus monkey model for islet transplantation which will be used to develop novel approaches for the treatment of diabetes.

Abbreviations: ALB, albumin; ALT, alanine aminotransferase; BUN, blood urea nitrogen; Cr, creatinine; GGT, r-glutamyltranspeptidase; GLUT2, glucose transporter 2; IVGTT, intravenous glucose tolerance test; NHP, nonhuman primate; STZ, streptozotocin; T1D, type 1 diabetes; TBA, total bile acid; TP, total protein.

Zhengzhao Liu and Ying Lu contributed equally to this work.

This is an open access article under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits use, distribution and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

© 2020 The Authors. Animal Models and Experimental Medicine published by John Wiley & Sons Australia, Ltd on behalf of The Chinese Association for Laboratory Animal Sciences
1 | INTRODUCTION

Type 1 diabetes (T1D) is the top two common chronic illness in children. It is estimated that there are now more than 1100 children and adolescents below 20 years living with T1D. Animal model of this disorder contribute to treatment of T1D such as evaluating isolated islet grafts and new immunosuppressive drugs for clinical applications. But the lack of a reproducible procedure to generate a diabetic nonhuman primate (NHP) model and the difficulties in maintaining the NHP model hindered the progress of diabetes research. Therefore, a reliable procedure to establish a NHP animal model of T1D would be particularly useful in preclinical trials of novel therapeutic approaches for T1D treatment.

There are several methods of inducing T1D in NHPs, such as complete pancreatectomy, injection of streptozotocin (STZ), etc. Besides, alloxan has been reported to chemically induce a diabetic state in NHPs, which was reported works selectively on β cell of rodents in recent study. The most utilized model of T1D in mouse is the nonobese diabetic (NOD) mouse that spontaneously develop diseases with similarities to human T1D. Additionally, genetically modified animal models of T1D are mainly performed in the rodents, but not NHPs, such as Ins2Akita mice and humanized mice with aspects of human immune system. There are limited transgenic NHP model of human diseases reported such as Huntington's and autism disease monkeys. Above all, pancreatectomy has significant drawbacks. The surgery is complicated, and it affects the digestive system due to pancreatic insufficiency. Additional postoperative nursing care is needed as the animal is insulin-dependent and it shows abnormal digestive system.

An alternative approach to pancreatectomy is the administration of STZ. STZ is a broad-spectrum antibiotic which may be up-taken by glucose transporter GLUT2, causing DNA alklylation and destroying the insulin producing β cells. STZ is a drug used for the treatment of metastatic islet cell carcinoma of the pancreas in clinical. Regarding the toxic side effects, the optimal dose needed to induce a diabetic state is also a challenge for the investigator to produce a permanent diabetic state without adverse effect consistently. In rhesus monkey, 30 mg/kg is not sufficient to induce the monkey diabetic and need higher concentration of more than 45 mg/kg. It is reported that Rhesus macaques (Macaca mulatto) received 140 mg/kg of STZ developed T1D and became insulin dependent for more than 1 year without apparent reversal of diabetes. In another study, Shibata et al test 100, 125, and 150 mg/kg STZ in Rhesus monkey (Macaca mulatto) and found that 100 mg/kg of STZ is not sufficient and 150 mg/kg was toxicity, whereas only 125 mg/kg of STZ could reliably induce diabetes without side effects. Previous studies also reported that 30 mg/kg STZ is successful for inducing diabetes in cynomolgus monkey. In another study, Koumulanda et al found that 55 mg/kg of STZ was the optimal dosage to induce diabetes in cynomolgus monkeys (Macaca fascicularis) and higher dose has more adverse effect, but reports were not successful even with 60 mg/kg STZ. Conversely, larger dose of 150 mg/kg STZ were also used to induce diabetes in cynomolgus monkey with minimal adverse effects and complications by another group. Rood et al also reported that cynomolgus given 150 mg/kg Zanosar STZ becoming completely diabetic without adverse effects. Zou et al tested 60, 68, and 100 mg/kg STZ to induce diabetes in cynomolgus monkey and found that 68 and 100 mg/kg of STZ successfully induced a stable diabetic model. The different dosage for successfully induction of diabetic monkey may due to the differences in the age of the monkey and the effective dose of the drug after dissolving in various solutions such as citrate buffer (PH = 4.5) and normal saline.

As treatment of T1D in NHPs also requires twice a day for blood glucose determination and administration of insulin to maintain blood glucose levels within the range 2.2-11.1 mmol/L, the subcutaneous vascular port system provided a safer and easier method for daily access for intravenous sampling and drug delivery. However, clinical-grade STZ used in these studies is not available in China.

In this study, we induce diabetes in three cynomolgus monkeys with consistent results, using analytical-grade STZ. We found that a single dose of 100 mg/kg STZ dissolved in normal saline that were immediately injected into jugular vein through subcutaneous vascular access ports prior putted in animals resulted in consistent, reliable, and safe induction of hyperglycemia. Moreover, diabetic monkeys were treated with 1.2-3.6 U/d insulin twice daily, without apparent adverse effect and ketoacidosis for at least 2 weeks. We placed subcutaneous vascular access ports in the carotid artery and jugular vein of all animals. This protocol is safe, easy, and reproducible. The diabetic model is useful for preclinical trials for the treatment of T1D in human beings, including the technique of islet cell transplantation.

2 | MATERIALS AND METHODS

2.1 | Animals

Three cynomolgus monkeys (3.75-3.85 kg, female, age 3-5 years), which were free of Mycobacterium tuberculosis, Shigella, Salmonella, Helminths, Ectoparasites, Entamoebahistolytica, and herpes B virus,
were used in this study. Animal care and experiments were conducted at the Landao Bio monkey facility in Guangdong, China, under the guidance of the Animal Laboratory Protocol established by the Guangdong Bureau of Science and Technology and approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (IACUC). Monkeys were housed in individual standard cages. The house condition and care of the animal was performed following the previously reported methods. Room temperature was set at 25°C, and humidity was kept between 40% and 70%. The air was exchanged 12 times hourly. Lights were on from morning to night. Water supply is continuous and commercially monkey food plus fruits were supplied daily twice. The animals were conditioned for a minimum of 1 month prior to the start of the experiment. The work has been reported in accordance with the ARRIVE guidelines (Animals in Research: Reporting In Vivo Experiments).

### 2.2 | Induction of diabetes with STZ

Two lines were surgically placed in each monkey. After indwelling catheters in the carotid artery and jugular vein to facilitate drug administration and serial blood sampling, all monkeys were fasted for 12 hours prior to receiving a single (100 mg/kg) intravenous injection of STZ. Giving (0.12 mg/kg, iv) Tropisetron hydrochloride prior to STZ administration to avoid vomiting. 100 mg of STZ (Sigma-S0130) was first dissolved into 5 mL of saline, and then add to 15 mL cold saline to a final volume of 20 mL. STZ was administered via the jugular vein over a 5-min period immediately after dissolving.

### 2.3 | Insulin treatment of diabetic monkeys

Insulin treatment was performed as previously described. Briefly, blood glucose levels were monitored twice per day during the first week after the STZ injection using a Glucotrend monitor (Roche Instruments, Basel, Switzerland). Diabetic monkeys were treated with two injections of insulin per day to maintain blood glucose within the range 2.2-11.1 mmol/L and to prevent metabolic dysfunction. Insulin doses were determined via previously determined scale, which is as follows: glucose levels <11.1 mmol/L = no insulin; glucose levels between 11.1 and 16.6 mmol/L = 1-2 U of insulin; glucose levels between 16.6 and 22.2 mmol/L = 2-4 U of insulin; and glucose levels >22.2 mmol/L = 4-6 U of insulin.

### 2.4 | Intravenous glucose tolerance test (IVGTT) and C-peptide analysis

IVGTT was performed before and after STZ injection. Glucose (0.5 g/kg of body weight) was injected into the femoral vein. Blood glucose levels were recorded at 0, 5, 15, 30, 60, and 90 min with a Glucotrend monitor. Plasma was also collected at the same time points for insulin (Insulin (IRI) ELISA kit, SIMENS, Germany) and C-peptide (C-peptide (CpS) ELISA kit, SIMENS, Germany) measurements. Insulin and C-peptide levels measured by chemiluminescence machine (ADVIA Centaur®XP, SIMENS, Germany, insulin detection level is 0.34 mU/L).

### 2.5 | Blood chemistry

For hepatic and renal function tests, monkey serum was collected from tail vein before and 1 week after STZ administration. The parameters examined include: Total protein (TP), albumin (ALB), total bile acid (TBA), alanine aminotransferase (ALT), r-glutamyltranspeptidase (GGT), blood urea nitrogen (BUN), and creatinine (Cr).

### 2.6 | Histological examination

Normal pancreatic tissue was obtained from a necropsy from cynomolgus monkey. This monkey was used for the experiments not involving diabetes or pancreatic function and was healthy when sacrificed. The diabetic pancreas was obtained from the three monkeys during necropsy after STZ injection. Pancreatic tissue was then fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde (PFA), followed by embedding in paraffin, and cutting into 5-µm-thick sections. The sections were de-paraffin treated, rehydrated, antigen fixed, and stained using an immunohistochemistry technique to visualize β (insulin) and α (glucagon) cells. Briefly, the sections were dewaxed with xylene and ethanol, rehydrated with ethanol gradient, blocked with 1% bovine serum albumin at room temperature for 1 hour, and then incubated with primary antibodies overnight at 4°C. The primary antibodies were guinea pig anti-human insulin (1:100; Cell Signaling Technology) and mouse anti-human glucagon (1:100; Cell Signaling Technology). The sections were then incubated with donkey anti-guinea pig IgG or goat anti-mouse IgG (1:200; Maixin) followed by DAB staining. Images were captured using a Leica2000U microscope (Leica).

### 2.7 | Statistical analysis

After STZ administration and immunohistochemistry technique to visualize β (insulin) and α (glucagon) cells, number of β-cell or α-cell per islet area in normal and diabetic monkeys were counted (β- or α-cell number/10⁴ μm²) (n = 20, 20 slides in total from three monkeys). Mean values and standard error of the mean (SEM) were calculated using the Prism-6 software (Graphpad Software).

### 3 | RESULTS

#### 3.1 | High blood glucose level and cessation of C-peptide production after STZ administration

STZ was infused into the jugular vein, fasting blood glucose level, insulin, and C-peptide concentrations were measured before and after
STZ administration (Table 1). All animals (n = 3, M16001, M16004, M16005) became persistently hyperglycemic. The blood glucose concentrations is >11.1 mmol/L within 36 hours after injection with STZ; the insulin level decreased from 59.33 mU/L on average before STZ to <3.48 mU/L after STZ; the C-peptide concentration changed from 3.53 ng/mL average before STZ to <0.5 ng/mL after STZ. After STZ injection, all monkeys required 1.2-3.6 units of additional insulin twice a day to maintain blood glucose. No nausea and vomiting were observed after STZ administration and no signs of toxicity were found to the liver and the renal.

Baseline IVGTTs were performed. Fasting blood glucose concentrations recorded before STZ injection was 3.9 ± 0.2 mmol/L. Blood glucose concentrations reached a plateau within 5 minutes after intravenous injection of glucose (16.1 ± 1.0) mmol/L and returned to normal within 60 minutes. Fasting C-peptide concentrations before STZ treatment was (1.5 ± 0.5) ng/mL. C-peptide concentrations reached plateau within 30-60 minutes after intravenous glucose injection (4.2 ± 0.8) ng/mL and returned to basal by 90 minutes (Figure 1A, C, E). IVGTTs were performed again 7 days after injection of STZ. After stopped giving insulin, fasting blood glucose concentrations were increased in all monkeys (11.7 ± 6.0) mmol/L. Blood glucose values reached plateau within 15 minutes after administration of intravenous glucose (26.0 ± 4.6) mmol/L. It kept higher than fasting glucose levels until 90 minutes. Fasting C-peptide concentrations were decreased in all animals (0.3 ± 0.2) ng/mL. C-peptide secretions were not stimulated after the administration of intravenous glucose and remained less than 0.5 ng/mL at 90 minutes (Figure 1B, D, F).

|                | M16001 | M16004 | M16005 |
|----------------|--------|--------|--------|
| **Pre**        |        |        |        |
| BG levels (mmol/L) | 4.4  | 4.1  | 3.9   |
| Insulin (mU/L)   | 119.06 | 10.02 | 48.92 |
| C-peptide (ng/mL) | 6.69 | 1.05  | 2.79  |
| **Post**        |        |        |        |
| BG levels (mmol/L) | 17.8 | 17.2 | 12.4  |
| Insulin (mU/L)   | <3.48  | <3.48  | 4.53  |
| C-peptide (ng/mL) | 0.33 | 0.09  | 0.49  |

Abbreviation: BG, blood glucose.
Insulin levels were under detection level (<3.48 mU/L) after STZ administration (data not shown).

3.2 | A triphasic blood glucose response to STZ

After the STZ administration, blood glucose levels were examined every 1 or 2 hours in all groups. It is consistent with the previous studies\(^6\)\(^{,}\)\(^22\) that a triphasic blood glucose curve was recorded in monkeys treated with 100 mg/kg STZ, in responding to STZ treatment (Figure 2). Peak blood glucose appeared after 4-8 hours post-STZ; blood glucose decreased steadily until 12-20 hours, and raised again with persistent hyperglycemia (20-30 mmol/L) after 32-36 hours. This triphasic response suggested that the induction of diabetes was complete and successful. Following the STZ injection, all monkeys exhibited hyperglycemia, with fasting blood glucose levels >11.1 mmol/L. Moreover, the IVGTT results suggested dramatic evidence of dampened carbohydrate tolerance in STZ-treated monkeys (Figure 1). Almost no circulating C-peptide and insulin could be found after STZ administration and a subcutaneous injection of exogenous insulin was required (1.2-3.6 U/d) to avoid metabolic dysfunction.

3.3 | Histology examination of pancreas, kidney, and liver

Histology examination of pancreas, kidney, and liver were performed by hematein and eosin stain. Compared with normal monkey, no histopathology abnormalities in liver and kidney were found after STZ administration (Figure 3).

3.4 | β cells destroyed after STZ administration

Immunohistochemistry assays showed that, although glucagon expression was persistent in the residue islets of STZ-treated monkeys, insulin expression is disappeared (Figure 4). When β-cell numbers were calculated per islet area, a significant reduction in β-cell numbers was observed comparing with the control group (Figure 5A). In contrast, the numbers of α-cell per islet were markedly elevated in the post-STZ monkeys in comparing with the control group (Figure 5B). This ratio is relative since α cells are the predominant relative population in the islet after β cells are destroyed. These suggested that pathologic changes were limited to β cells in the pancreas without affecting other organs functions (Figures 4 and 5).

3.5 | No additional signs of toxicity were observed

The blood glucose levels were found dramatically increased on the second day post-STZ. Table 2 summarized the blood chemistry of hepatic and renal function tests results before and after 1 week of STZ treatment. The results showed that globulin, alanine aminotransferase, and blood urea nitrogen raised slightly in one case but not others. Urine glucose was detected within 72 hours of STZ administration in all the three monkeys. Urine ketones were negative after STZ administration. We did not observed significant gross lesions in any animals at necropsy. Kidney function was also normal for diabetic monkeys after the STZ injection. Other hepatic and renal parameters measured were similar to reference of diabetic monkeys (Table 2).
3.6 | No changes in the body weight after STZ administration

The body weights of all three monkeys were recorded at 1 week and 2 weeks after STZ injection. Although the body weights decreased in mice model after STZ injection in previous studies, the monkeys’ body weights kept stable during the first 2 weeks post-STZ in our study (Table 3). No significant change in the body weight after STZ administration was observed.

4 | DISCUSSION

Establishing an animal models for diabetes studies, especially setting up an NHP model, are critical for developing novel methods to cure diabetes and preclinical trial for T1D. Several protocols that established diabetic NHP model by STZ administration in cynomolgus and rhesus monkeys. Different species and ages of monkeys affect the efficacy of STZ treatment. The optimal dose of STZ used in nonhuman primates is still controversial. It is hard to balance the efficiency to consistently induce diabetic monkeys and the adverse effects caused by the STZ administration. Small doses (55 mg/kg) failed to induce diabetes in cynomolgus monkeys consistently in different groups. Large doses caused adverse effects and complications. The islets may become more sensitive to STZ with age, and this may explain the varying STZ dosages required to induce diabetes in different groups. Moreover, there is no access for investigators in China to purchase clinical-grade STZ. Thus, commercially available analytical-grade STZ was used to induce diabetic monkeys in this study.

After STZ administration, successful induction of diabetes was confirmed by the persistence of fasting hyperglycemia and by the low level of C-peptide and insulin. First, diabetes was rendered with fasting blood glucose level >11.1 mmol/L in combination with a stimulated C-peptide <0.5 ng/mL. Second, complete and successful induction of diabetes should have the appearance of triphasic blood glucose response after STZ administration and disappearance of β cells. The dose of STZ positive correlated with the development of renal and hepatic damage. This is shown by an elevation in BUN, serum creatinine, and hepatic enzymes. Therefore, it is essential to find the optimal dose of STZ to induce diabetes reliably and without apparent adverse effects.

In this study, we successfully induced diabetes in cynomolgus monkeys without β cell remaining and without generating adverse effects to liver and renal using 100 mg/kg STZ. In this study, blood glucose, plasma insulin and C-peptide, and hepatic and renal function which were associated with a diabetic state were recorded before and after STZ administration in these animals. Within 36 hours after STZ treatment, a triphasic response in blood glucose appeared. This has been documented in rodents and monkeys. Initial
reduction in insulin may be due to immune reactions including inflammation and reduced ability of \( \beta \) cells to secret insulin,9 which explained the phase I increase in blood glucose level. Further disruption of the \( \beta \) cells by STZ leads to an extensive release of insulin resulting in phase II reduction in blood glucose level. Finally, stable hyperglycemia in phase III is due to the complete loss of \( \beta \) cells.

This optimal dosage of STZ provides an useful procedure to set up NHP diabetic model for islet transplantation. Blood glucose reaches to plateau after 4-8 hours (compared with 2-7 hours in rat), followed by a steady decrease until 12-20 hours (compared with 8-12 hours in rat), and a subsequent persistent high blood glucose level (20-30 mmol/L) after 36 hours (24 hour in rat). This triphasic response indicated the complete and successful induction of diabetes. Pancreatic islet immunohistochemistry results suggested a nearly complete loss of \( \beta \) cells in the islets of all monkeys treated with STZ. This was consistent with the blood glucose levels, which were persistently high. The side effects of STZ mainly include hepatic adrenal injury. Although we observed a slight change in the indexes of hepatic and renal function (ie, ALT, TBA, and BUN) within 1 week post-STZ, the numerical values were still in the normal range.

In conclusion, diabetic cynomolgus monkeys can be reliably established at the dose of 100 mg/kg using analytical-grade STZ without significant hepatic or renal impairment. This may be valuable for the future research of diabetes model for NHP, especially for those who are not able to access clinical-grade STZ.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS
We thank Rita Bottino (Institute for Cellular Therapeutics, Allegheny-Singer Research Institute, Pittsburgh) and David KC Cooper (The University of Alabama, Birmingham) for technical support, helpful discussion, and suggestions.

This work was supported by grants from the National Key R&D Program of China (2017YFC1103704). Special Funds for the Construction of High Level Hospitals in Guangdong Province (2019), Sanming Project of Medicine in Shenzhen (SZSM201412020), Fund for High Level Medical Discipline Construction of Shenzhen (2016031638), National Science Foundation for Distinguished Yong Scholars of Guangdong province (2016A030306051), National Science Foundation...
CONFLICT OF INTEREST

None.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

ZL, WH, YL, YD, ZC, and LM conceived the study and LM directed the study. ZL, WH, and YL performed and analyzed most of the work. HH supported the work technically and supervised the work. ZL and YL recorded the glucose level and perform the insulin injection. ZL, WH, and YL performed and analyzed the insulin and glucagon staining. And ZL wrote the paper with substantial input from WH and YL.

ORCID

Lisha Mou https://orcid.org/0000-0001-6232-8341

REFERENCES

1. Theriault BR, Thistlethwaite JR Jr, Levisetti MG, et al. Induction, maintenance, and reversal of streptozotocin-induced insulin-dependent diabetes mellitus in the juvenile cynomolgus monkey (Macaca fascicularis). Transplantation. 1999;68(3):331-337.
2. International Diabetes Federation. IDF diabetes atlas 9th ed. 2019. https://diabetesatlas.org/en/resources/
3. Sakata N, Yoshimatsu G, Tsuchiya H, Egawa S, Unno M. Animal models of diabetes mellitus for islet transplantation. Exp Diabetes Res. 2012;2012:256707.
4. Dehoux JP, Gianello P. The importance of large animal models in transplantation. Front Biosci. 2007;12:4864-4880.
5. Ericzon BG, Wijnen RMH, Kubota K, Bogaard AVD, Kootstra G. Diabetes induction and pancreatic transplantation in the cynomolgus monkey: methodological considerations. Transpl Int. 1991;4(2):103-109.
6. Rood PPM, Bottino R, Balamurugan AN, et al. Induction of diabetes in cynomolgus monkeys with high-dose streptozotocin: adverse effects and early responses. Pancreas. 2006;33(3):287-292.
7. Howard CF Jr. Nonhuman primates as models for the study of human diabetes mellitus. Diabetes. 1982;31(Suppl 1 Pt 2):37-42.
8. Tyberg B, Andersson A, Borg LA. Species differences in susceptibility of transplanted and cultured pancreatic islets to the beta-cell toxin alloxan. Gen Comp Endocrinol. 2001;122(3):238-251.
9. Szkudelski T. The mechanism of alloxan and streptozotocin action in B cells of the rat pancreas. Physiol Res. 2001;50(6):537-546.
10. Quinn A. Antigen-induced T1D in NOD mice. J Autoimmun. 2003;20(3):207-210.
11. Mathis D, Vence L, Benoist C. Beta-cell death during progression to diabetes. Nature. 2003;414(6865):792-798.
12. Rees DA, Alcolado JC. Animal models of diabetes mellitus. Diabet Med. 2005;22(4):359-370.
13. Chan AW. Progress and prospects for genetic modification of nonhuman primate models in biomedical research. ILAR J. 2013;54(2):211-223.
14. Mathews CE, Langley SH, Leiter EH. New mouse model to study islet transplantation in insulin-dependent diabetes mellitus. Transplantation. 2002;73(8):1333-1336.
15. Viehhmann Milam AA, Maher SE, Gibson JA, et al. A humanized mouse model of autoimmune insulinitis. Diabetes. 2014;63(5):1712-1724.
16. Niu Y, Yu Y, Bernat A, et al. Transgenic rhesus monkeys produced by gene transfer into early-cleavage-stage embryos using a simian immunodeficiency virus-based vector. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A. 2010;107(41):17663-17667.
17. Yang SH, Cheng PH, Banta H, et al. Towards a transgenic model of Huntington’s disease in a non-human primate. Nature. 2008;453(7197):921-924.
18. Liu Z, Li X, Zhang JT, et al. Autism-like behaviours and germline transmission in transgenic monkeys overexpressing MeCP2. Nature. 2016;530(7588):98-102.
19. Pitkin RM, Reynolds WA. Diabetogenic effects of streptozotocin in rhesus monkeys. Diabetes. 1970;19(2):85-90.
20. Jones CW, Reynolds WA, Hoganson GE. Streptozotocin diabetes in the monkey: plasma levels of glucose, insulin, glucagon, and somatostatin, with corresponding morphometric analysis of islet endocrine cells. Diabetes. 1980;29(7):536-546.
21. Thomas JM, Contreras JL, Smyth CA, et al. Successful reversal of streptozotocin-induced diabetes with stable allogeneic islet function in a preclinical model of type 1 diabetes. Diabetes. 2001;50(6):1227-1236.
22. Shibata S, Kirchhof N, Matsumoto S, et al. High-dose streptozotocin for diabetes induction in adult rhesus monkeys. Transplant Proc. 2002;34(4):1314-1344.
23. Litwak KN, Cefalu WT, Wagner JD. Streptozotocin-induced diabetes mellitus in cynomolgus monkeys: changes in carbohydrate metabolism, skin glycation, and pancreatic islets. Lab Anim Sci. 1998;48(2):172-178.
24. Koulimanda M, Qipo A, Chebrolu S, O’Neill J, Auchincloss H, Smith RN. The effect of low versus high dose of streptozotocin in cynomolgus monkeys (Macaca fascicularis). Am J Transplant. 2003;3(3):267-272.
25. Zou C, Wang J, Wang S, et al. Characterizing the induction of diabetes in juvenile cynomolgus monkeys with different doses of streptozotocin. Sci China Life Sci. 2012;55(3):210-218.
26. Casu A, Bottino R, Balamurugan AN, et al. Metabolic aspects of pig-to-monkey (Macaca fascicularis) islet transplantation: implications for translation into clinical practice. Diabetologia. 2008;51(1):120-129.
27. Wojnicki FH, Bacher JD, Głowia JR. Use of subcutaneous vascular access ports in rhesus monkeys. Lab Anim Sci. 1994;44(5):491-494.
28. Park HK, Cho JW, Lee BS, et al. Reference values of clinical pathologic parameters in cynomolgus monkeys (Macaca fascicularis) used in preclinical studies. Lab Anim Res. 2016;32(2):79-86.
29. Deeds MC, Anderson JM, Armstrong AS, et al. Single dose streptozotocin-induced diabetes: considerations for study design in islet transplantation models. Lab Anim. 2011;45(3):131-140.
30. Gupta RA, Dixit VP. Dose dependent alteration in lipid and carbohydrate metabolites in streptozotocin induced diabetic rats. Endokrinologie. 1982;80(3):332-340.
31. West E, Simon OR, Morrison EY. Streptozotocin alters pancreatic beta-cell responsiveness to glucose within six hours of injection into rats. West Indian Med J. 1996;45(2):60-62.
32. Takimoto G, Jones C, Lands W, Bauman A, Jeffrey J, Jonasson O. Biochemical changes in rhesus monkey during the first days after streptozotocin administration are indicative of selective beta cell destruction. Metabolism. 1988;37(4):364-370.

How to cite this article: Liu Z, Lu Y, Hu W, et al. Induction of diabetes in cynomolgus monkey with one shot of analytical streptozotocin. Animal Model Exp Med. 2020;3:79–86. https://doi.org/10.1002/ame2.12109