REVIEW

Gut hormones such as amylin and GLP-1 in the control of eating and energy expenditure

TA Lutz^{1,2}

The control of meal size is the best studied aspect of the control of energy balance, and manipulation of this system constitutes a promising target to treat obesity. A major part of this control system is based on gastrointestinal hormones such as glucagon-like peptide-1 (GLP-1) or amylin, which are released in response to a meal and which limit the size of an ongoing meal. Both amylin and GLP-1 have also been shown to increase energy expenditure in experimental rodents, but mechanistically we know much less how this effect may be mediated, which brain sites may be involved, and what the physiological relevance of these findings may be. Most studies indicate that the effect of peripheral amylin is centrally mediated via the area postrema, but other brain areas, such as the ventral tegmental area, may also be involved. GLP-1's effect on eating seems to be mainly mediated by vagal afferents projecting to the caudal hindbrain. Chronic exposure to amylin, GLP-1 or their analogs decrease food intake and body weight gain. Next to the induction of satiety, amylin may also constitute an adiposity signal and in fact interact with the adiposity signal leptin. Amylin analogs are under clinical consideration for their effect to reduce food intake and body weight in humans, and similar to rodents, amylin analogs seem to be particularly active when combined with leptin analogs.

International Journal of Obesity Supplements (2016) 6, S15–S21; doi:10.1038/ijosup.2016.4

INTRODUCTION

The pancreatic β -cell hormone amylin and the gut-derived hormone glucagon-like peptide-1 (GLP-1) are released in response to food intake. Behaviorally, both hormones produce similar responses on eating and have the potential to reduce body weight when administered chronically. In fact, the GLP-1 analog liraglutide was recently approved as body-weight-lowering drug by the Federal Drug Administration in the United States.

This review, which is based on a presentation given at the Quebec Symposium on Obesity in November 2014, will briefly discuss some recent findings on amylin versus GLP-1 action. An extensive literature search on the topic of this review was carried out using Pubmed (<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/>). As will be discussed, and despite similar behavioral effects after amylin or GLP-1 administration, there seem to be important differences in the mechanisms that lead to the reduction in eating by amylin versus GLP-1.

PRODUCTION SITE AND SECRETION OF AMYLIN AND GLP-1

It is generally believed that pancreatic β -cells are the major source of circulating amylin, and that meal-associated fluctuations of circulating amylin levels directly reflect changes in β -cell secretion. These fluctuations and the postprandial increase in circulating amylin are the physiological basis for amylin's effect on eating, in particular its effect on meal size.^{1,2} We recently measured levels of amylin and insulin in hepatic portal vein blood samples because this vascular bed best reflects the secretion of β -cell products into the circulation. The meal-induced increase in circulating amylin occurs within a few minutes after the meal onset and parallels the increase in plasma insulin.³

GLP-1 is secreted from enteroendocrine cells that line the entire intestinal epithelium. The density of the GLP-1-producing L-cells increases in more distal parts of the small intestine and in the colon; however, the total number of L-cells, at least in rats, is highest in the jejunum, including its proximal part.⁴ L-cells express a large number of receptors or transporters that trigger L-cell secretion in response to a variety of stimuli; these include glucose, long- or short-chain fatty acids but also bile acids that act on the TGR5 receptor.⁵ Which of these stimuli contributes most to the postprandial release of GLP-1 is still a matter of debate, in particular in individuals undergoing Roux-en-Y gastric bypass surgery who have largely elevated secretions of postprandial GLP-1.^{6–11} GLP-1 is also produced in a subset of neurons in the nucleus of the solitary tract. The exact role of GLP-1 released from these neurons is still under investigation, but they seem to be involved in the mediation of reduced eating in response to aversive stimuli or in sickness anorexia.¹² Further, recent data indicate that locally released GLP-1 also contributes to the physiological control of eating and body weight (for example, Kanoski *et al.*,¹³ Hisadome *et al.*¹⁴ and Richards *et al.*¹⁵) because the knockdown of GLP-1 in the nucleus of the solitary tract leads to increased eating, body weight and adiposity.¹⁶

AMYLIN AND GLP-1 AS SATIATION SIGNALS

The best investigated function of amylin is the role as a signal of satiety.¹⁷ Amylin is believed to be a physiological controller of meal size^{18,19} because it meets the critical criteria for a physiological endocrine satiety signal. One important criterion is that the meal-contingent infusion of amylin into the portal vein dose-dependently reduced the size and duration of the ongoing meal, and that the onset of this action occurred within minutes

¹Institute of Veterinary Physiology, Vetsuisse Faculty University of Zurich, Zurich, Switzerland and ²Zurich Center of Integrative Human Physiology, University of Zurich, Zurich, Switzerland. Correspondence: Dr TA Lutz, Institute of Veterinary Physiology, Vetsuisse Faculty University of Zurich, Winterthurerstrasse 260, 8057 Zurich, Switzerland. E-mail: tomlutz@vetphys.uzh.ch

after administration.² The meal size effect of amylin appeared to be independent of the route of administration (for example, Reidelberger *et al.*,²⁰ Reidelberger *et al.*²¹ and Rushing *et al.*²²), and similar observations have also been reported for GLP-1.^{23,24}

Administration of the amylin antagonist AC187 increased meal size,²⁵ underlining the physiological relevance of amylin's effect. Although the GLP-1 antagonist exendin-9 has been reported to increase eating under some conditions,²⁶ a specific effect of exendin-9 on meal size has not been observed consistently and may be weak (for example, Ruttimann *et al.*,²⁷ Steinert *et al.*²⁸ and Melhorn *et al.*²⁹). Finally, chronic administration of amylin, GLP-1 or their analogs has been shown to reduce body weight by reducing food intake,^{30–32} and at least in the case of amylin, this was associated with decreased meal sizes over extended time periods.³⁰

SITES OF AMYLIN AND GLP-1 ACTION

Amylin and GLP-1 produce similar activation patterns in the caudal hindbrain when assessed by c-Fos immunohistochemistry (for example, Rowland *et al.*,³³ Zuger *et al.*,³⁴ Baumgartner *et al.*³⁵ and Riediger *et al.*³⁶), but the primary sites of action may differ between amylin and GLP-1. Most experiments support the idea that the satiating effect of peripheral amylin is mediated by direct humoral action on the area postrema (AP) in the hindbrain, which lacks a functional blood–brain barrier.^{25,30,37–40} This evidence is, for example, based on experiments, showing that amylin's effect is abolished in rats with AP lesions but not by disrupting afferent nerve signaling from the periphery to the brain.^{41–44} Further, AP-administered amylin antagonists blocked the anorectic action of peripheral amylin.²⁵

Recent experiments indicate that the AP may not be the only primary receptive site for the action of peripheral amylin or its analogs, and that the ventral tegmental area (VTA) may also have a role in this respect.⁴⁵ The peripheral administration of the amylin receptor agonist salmon calcitonin (sCT) reduces eating by activating amylin receptors,⁴⁶ and this effect is blocked by the VTA administration of the amylin antagonist AC187.⁴⁷ How amylin (or sCT) may reach VTA neurons is unclear; the VTA is protected by the blood–brain barrier, but amylin transport across the blood–brain barrier has been described^{48,49} so that direct VTA activation by peripheral amylin or sCT seems possible. It is however important to note that the rat amylin-1 receptor is activated equally by amylin and the neurotransmitter calcitonin gene-related peptide,⁵⁰ and, importantly, that the effects of both peptides at the amylin-1 receptor are blocked by AC187. Hence, it cannot be excluded that primary activation of AP neurons may trigger calcitonin gene-related peptide release in the VTA to explain the observations discussed above.

In contrast to amylin, the acute effect of GLP-1 to reduce eating may be due to a paracrine effect on intestinal vagal afferents, which transmit the signal to the nucleus of the solitary tract that is adjacent to the AP. This finding is mainly based on the observation that the effect of intraperitoneal (but not intravenous) GLP-1 was blocked by subdiaphragmatic deafferentation, a technique that blocks all vagal afferent signaling from the abdomen to the brain.²³ Whether a direct action of GLP-1 on the AP⁵¹ also has a role under physiological conditions is still a matter of debate. Interestingly, amylin- and GLP-1-sensitive AP neurons seem to constitute different populations of neurons because amylin receptors are found in amylin-activated but not in GLP-1-activated AP cells;³⁴ hence, the AP may be able to discriminate between the effects of different signals even though their behavioral effect on eating is similar.

AMYLIN AND GLP-1 RECEPTOR FUNCTION

The amylin receptor is composed of a heterodimer of the calcitonin receptor (CTR) core protein that combines with one or several receptor-activity-modifying proteins (RAMPs) to yield specific amylin receptors.^{52–54} Receptor binding and mapping studies have shown a wide distribution of the amylin receptor components throughout the central nervous system, and a high density of both the CTR and RAMPs is found in the AP.^{55–58} Recent experiments in our laboratory have shown that single amylin-activated AP neurons contain all necessary components of the functional amylin receptor 1 or 3, that is, CTR plus RAMP1 or CTR plus RAMP3, respectively; in fact, AP neurons may often contain both types of RAMPs within single cells.⁵⁹ The functional difference of amylin-sensitive AP neurons containing the amylin 1, 3 or 1/3 receptor is currently unknown.

The presence of fully functional amylin receptors in the AP is consistent with the co-expression of cyclic GMP, which is one of the second messengers of amylin receptor activation,^{25,60} in CTR carrying AP neurons.³⁴ Another second messenger system activated by amylin is the ERK/MAPK system. Amylin leads to a phosphorylation of ERK, and this effect may be involved in the rapid effects of amylin on eating because at least under certain conditions, inhibition of ERK phosphorylation prevented the effect of amylin.⁶¹

Part of the amylin-activated AP neurons seem to express dopamine- β -hydroxylase, which characterizes noradrenergic neurons. In fact, ~50% of amylin activation seems to occur in neurons expressing dopamine- β -hydroxylase^{39,62} while the phenotype of the remainder of amylin-activated neurons is unclear; at least part of them may be second-order neurons, which therefore do not necessarily express amylin receptors and the amylin signaling transduction machinery themselves.

Interestingly, even though circulating GLP-1 also may directly activate AP neurons⁵¹ and even though the general brain activation pattern after amylin or GLP-1 injection shows many similarities and a large overlap among affected regions,³³ amylin-sensitive AP neurons seem to form a population of neurons that is different from GLP-1-sensitive AP neurons; this is based on the presence or absence of the CTR in amylin- versus GLP-1-activated AP neurons, respectively.³⁴ Further, GLP-1's eating-inhibitory action seems to differ between fasted versus fed animals because GLP-1 decreased eating when administered to rats after refeeding with a 3 g meal, but not when administered in the fasted state;⁶³ amylin, in contrast, has been shown to reduce eating when administered to fasted or *ad libitum* fed animals (for example, Lutz *et al.*,⁴³ Braegger *et al.*⁶² and Michel *et al.*⁶⁴). The increased effectiveness of GLP-1 to reduce eating in refed animals may be related to an increase in the GLP-1 receptor translocation to the cellular membrane of vagal afferent neurons; the cell bodies of these neurons are located in the nodose ganglion. These neurons mediate the satiating effect of GLP-1,²³ but the increased effectiveness of GLP-1 in refed animals (which coincides with this receptor translocation) may indicate that GLP-1 also controls postprandial satiety.⁶³

EFFECTS OF AMYLIN AND GLP-1 ON ENERGY EXPENDITURE

Energy balance is determined by gross energy intake, energy expenditure and energy loss via feces, fermentation gases or urine. Here, I will briefly summarize the effects of amylin and GLP-1 on energy expenditure, all reported results are based on the assessment of energy expenditure by indirect calorimetry. Generally, manipulations that result in changes of eating or body weight are often accompanied by alterations in energy expenditure. Usually, body weight reduction by dieting leads to an adaptive physiological response to reduce energy expenditure; this response helps the body to minimize the potential negative

effects of long-term energy restriction in a state of negative energy balance ('starvation response'). Interestingly, both amylin and GLP-1 may at least partly counteract this response.

Some of the earlier studies showed that acute administration of the amylin receptor agonist sCT increased energy expenditure in the absence of food;^{65,66} further, chronic peripheral administration of amylin also increased energy expenditure in rats and this effect was paralleled by a decrease in eating and body weight gain. Further, the effect of amylin to increase energy expenditure was markedly enhanced in mice overexpressing the amylin receptor component RAMP1, which indicates an important role of the amylin-1 receptor; this effect seemed to be paralleled by increased activation of the sympathetic outflow to enhance brown adipose tissue thermogenesis.⁶⁷ The latter effect is in line with the experiments showing that the effect of peripheral or central amylin on energy expenditure can be blocked by co-administration of a β -adrenergic receptor antagonist.⁶⁸

The site of amylin action for these effects has not yet been investigated in detail, but the AP may have some role; acute injections of amylin or sCT into the AP increased energy expenditure at a dose ~ 1000 times lower than peripherally effective doses. During chronic administration, amylin infused into the AP was also able to prevent the decrease in energy expenditure seen in rats whose food intake was yoked to the amylin-treated rats.⁶⁹ The brain pathways linking the presumed primary site of action in the AP⁶⁹ and enhanced sympathetic output⁶⁷ are currently unknown.

Similar to amylin, GLP-1 or its agonists also seem to increase energy expenditure under some but not all⁷⁰ experimental conditions; the effect is dose-dependent and seems to be most robust when GLP-1 is administered centrally.⁷¹ Interestingly, a recent study also indicated that GLP-1 may be involved in the control of energy expenditure in humans because the inhibition of GLP-1 breakdown by a dipeptidyl peptidase IV inhibitor increased energy expenditure in men.⁷²

Overall, these studies indicate that amylin and GLP-1 seem to modulate energy metabolism both via an effect on food intake and on energy expenditure, but the former effect is characterized far more extensively than the latter.

INTERACTIONS OF AMYLIN WITH OTHER FACTORS INVOLVED IN THE CONTROL OF ENERGY METABOLISM

Amylin and leptin

Consistent with the concept that long-term 'adiposity signals' may modulate the effectiveness of meal-associated satiation ('short term') signals,^{73,74} a number of recent studies investigated the interactions between amylin and leptin. One of the first studies in respect to amylin reported that rodent models with a defective leptin signaling system have a reduced response to anorectic doses of the amylin agonist sCT.⁷⁵ Subsequently, we reported that acute administration of leptin to the third ventricle increased the eating-inhibitory effect of peripheral amylin.⁷⁶

Interest in this type of interaction was fueled by the finding that amylin may be able to reduce the leptin resistance that is commonly associated with obesity.^{77–80} Leptin-resistant obese rats were 're-sensitized' to leptin by chronic amylin administration.⁸¹ In other words, amylin, which itself is still effective in obese rats,^{3,82,83} reduced eating and body weight significantly more when leptin was co-administered with amylin.^{81,84–86} The effect of amylin on leptin's action and leptin sensitivity appeared to be specific to amylin⁸¹ because the effects were not seen to the same extent with the GLP-1 analog AC3174,⁸¹ or when infusions of leptin were combined with the GLP-1 receptor agonist exendin-4.⁸⁷ Leptin combined with GLP-1 analogs did produce the stronger effects on eating and body weight than single compounds, but the interaction seemed to be (mathematically) additive rather than

synergistic.⁸⁸ Further, and in contrast to the amylin-induced sensitization of animals to leptin, the effect was only present in animals that had already lost a substantial amount of weight or after animals were switched from an obesogenic high-fat diet to regular rodent chow;⁸⁹ hence, manipulations which themselves may affect the leptin sensitivity.

The amylin/leptin combination also had increased effects on energy expenditure.⁸¹ The effect of the amylin/leptin combination on energy balance appeared to be paralleled by a preferential oxidation of fat as indicated by the low respiratory quotient in both the amylin/leptin and pair-fed groups;^{81,84–86} importantly, the lower respiratory quotient was still evident in amylin/leptin co-injected animals during the weight stable phase and not only during weight loss like in the pair-fed group.^{81,85,90–92}

All effects combined, the amylin/leptin combination treatment prevented the suppression of energy metabolism that is typically seen in situations of negative energy balance which may, for example, be induced by simple dieting. The potential mechanisms of this interaction have been summarized recently.^{85,93,94} Briefly, most data indicate that the hypothalamus, and in particular the ventromedial hypothalamus, is critically involved in this interaction. Amylin strongly enhanced leptin signaling specifically in the ventromedial hypothalamus, and this was also confirmed under *in vitro* conditions.^{81,85,95–97} Amylin also increased leptin binding in the ventromedial hypothalamus and other hypothalamic sites, for example, the dorsomedial hypothalamus,⁸⁵ whereas leptin receptor expression was reduced in the mediobasal hypothalamus in amylin-deficient mice.⁸⁵

A recent study indicated that interleukin-6 (IL-6) seems to be involved in the leptin-sensitizing effect of amylin. Amylin induced the increased synthesis and release of IL-6 from hypothalamic microglia, which seems to act on leptin-receptor-positive neurons in the ventromedial hypothalamus to improve hypothalamic leptin signaling. This was corroborated by the finding that rats treated with antibodies against IL-6 or mice deficient for IL-6 did not show the same enhancing effect of amylin on leptin signaling compared with their respective controls.⁹⁸

Finally, and consistent with earlier studies that leptin-deficient ob/ob mice are less sensitive to sCT,⁷⁵ we recently showed that leptin-receptor-deficient db/db mice or Zucker ZDF rats respond less to acute amylin injections than respective wild-type controls; further, the reduction of body weight and adiposity by leptin was lower in amylin-deficient mice than in wild-type controls,⁸⁵ and amylin-deficient mice had less leptin-induced pSTAT3 formation in the ventromedial hypothalamus.⁸⁵ In other words, endogenous leptin action may be required for a full action of amylin and the presence of amylin signaling may mutually be necessary for the full effect of leptin.

Amylin and CCK

Next to the interaction between amylin and leptin, the combined effects of amylin and CCK on eating has attracted most interest. Amylin and CCK reduce eating mainly by a meal size effect and their combined administration leads to a stronger reduction in eating than single administration.^{99,100} The effect seems to be synergistic because ineffective doses of amylin and CCK combined to produce near maximal reductions in eating.

A series of experiments indicated that CCK's anorectic action may be partly mediated by amylin, and that amylin is a necessary modulator of CCK's effect because the eating-inhibitory effect of CCK can be attenuated by amylin receptor antagonists.^{101,102} Further, amylin was necessary for the full eating-inhibitory effect of CCK because CCK's action was nearly abolished in amylin-deficient compared with control mice; this effect could be rescued because co-administration of a subthreshold dose of amylin with CCK restored normal CCK responsiveness.¹⁰³

Amylin and estradiol

Food intake in mammals is sexually differentiated and estradiol has the major role in sex-specific effects in females. One important effect of estradiol is to increase the effectiveness of satiating hormones such as CCK; this effect, for example, contributes to the cyclic decrease in eating in female rats on their day of estrus.^{104–106}

Trevaskis *et al.*¹⁰⁷ were the first to test the effect of amylin in female rats specifically in the presence or absence of estradiol. Surprisingly, eating and body weight in ovariectomized rats were reduced more by chronic amylin than in intact control rats or in ovariectomized rats receiving physiological estradiol replacement. Body adiposity also tended to be reduced by amylin in the ovariectomized compared with sham-operated or estradiol-replaced rats.¹⁰⁷ The mechanisms underlying the effect of estradiol remained unclear, but it was shown that ovariectomized rats had reduced neurogenesis in particular in the AP and that chronic amylin restored this effect. Theoretically, increased neurogenesis may lead to an increase in the number of amylin receptors or amylin-responsive cells in the AP, but this remains to be studied.

More recent data from our own lab indicate that the interaction between amylin and estradiol seems more complex. Under conditions of acute amylin administration, single amylin injections reduced eating more effectively in estradiol-replaced rats than in ovariectomized rats without physiological estradiol replacement.^{108,109} Hence, future experiments need to clarify whether the role of estradiol in modulating amylin action depends on the experimental conditions or whether a common mechanism under acute or chronic conditions can be identified.

GLP-1 and estradiol

Similar to CCK and amylin, the eating-inhibitory effect of GLP-1 also seems to be enhanced by estradiol because physiological estradiol replacement in ovariectomized rats enhanced GLP-1's action.⁷⁴ Further, a recent study showed that non-physiological replacement of estrogen in the form of a GLP-1/estrogen conjugate lead to a stronger decrease in eating and body weight than GLP-1 alone.¹¹⁰ The mechanisms underlying these effects have not been studied yet.

AMYLIN AS A POTENTIAL TREATMENT STRATEGY AGAINST OBESITY

Basic research findings on the interaction between amylin and leptin have been described above. Because obese animals and humans are often leptin-resistant and hence unresponsive to exogenous leptin, the finding that amylin increases leptin sensitivity and that amylin may therefore be able to overcome leptin resistance in obese individuals is of high clinical relevance. Clinical trials tested the combined use of the amylin analog pramlintide as adjunct therapy with insulin for the treatment of type 1 and type 2 diabetes; these trials showed that the treatment of diabetic persons with insulin plus pramlintide improved glycemic control and also lead to a significant body weight loss compared with insulin monotherapy.¹¹¹ Pramlintide was subsequently shown to reduce energy intake in type 2 diabetics and obese non-diabetics.^{112–115}

Similar to the experiments in rodents, the combination of the amylin and leptin analogs pramlintide and metreleptin, respectively, was effective in lowering body weight and adiposity in humans.^{81,116} The clinical data were encouraging and future work will have to test the effects of prolonged treatment, potential side effects and the consequences of cessation of treatment. Similar to treatment of diabetics with insulin, the maintenance of body weight loss may require continuous therapy because the weight-

lowering effect seems to fade on discontinuation of treatment (see also Trevaskis *et al.*,⁹² Trevaskis *et al.*⁹³ and Bello *et al.*¹¹⁷).

Pramlintide-releasing fat sensors

Recently, an interesting experimental approach to reduce eating and body weight has been reported.¹¹⁸ The authors of this study produced a self-controlled release device for the amylin analog pramlintide. Cells were manipulated in a way that they contained a closed-loop genetic circuit that constantly monitored blood fatty acid levels, and that was coupled to the coordinated and reversible expression and release of pramlintide. The fatty acid sensor was based on the peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor- α . This sensor, which was sensitive to a broad spectrum of fatty acids, was subsequently shown to be activated in a reversible manner *in vitro* and also *in vivo*, for example, when manipulated cells were administered to mice as intraperitoneal implants. Most importantly, increasing amounts of dietary fat led to an enhanced release of pramlintide that resulted in reduced eating and body weight in mice on a high-fat but not on a low-fat diet.¹¹⁸ Whether this strategy can be employed clinically needs to be studied in coming years.

SUMMARY

This review briefly summarizes some recent findings in respect to the control of eating and body weight by amylin and GLP-1. Both hormones or their respective analogs also seem to be active in humans. Although the use of amylin analogs, in particular in combination with leptin, is still at the experimental phase, the GLP-1 analog liraglutide has recently been approved for anti-obesity treatment in the United States.

CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The author declared no competing interest.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The continued financial support of our amylin-directed research by the Swiss National Science Foundation, the support by the Zurich Center of Integrative Human Physiology, the Stiftung für wissenschaftliche Forschung der Universität Zürich, the Novartis Foundation, the Ciba-Geigy Foundation, the Olga Mayenfisch Foundation, the EMDO foundation and the Vontobel Foundation are gratefully acknowledged. The publication of this article was sponsored by the Université Laval's Research Chair in Obesity in an effort to inform the public on the causes, consequences, treatments and prevention of obesity.

REFERENCES

- Young A, Denaro M. Roles of amylin in diabetes and in regulation of nutrient load. *Nutrition* 1998; **14**: 524–527.
- Lutz TA, Geary N, Szabady MM, Del Prete E, Scharrer E. Amylin decreases meal size in rats. *Physiol Behav* 1995; **58**: 1197–1202.
- Boyle CN, Lutz TA. Amylinergic control of food intake in lean and obese rodents. *Physiol Behav* 2011; **105**: 129–137.
- Hansen FC, Bueter M, Theis N, Lutz TA, Paulsen S, Dalboge L *et al.* Hypertrophy dependent doubling of L-cells in Roux-en-Y gastric bypass operated rats. *Plos One* 2013; **8**: e65696.
- Ezcurra M, Reimann F, Gribble FM, Emery E. Molecular mechanisms of incretin hormone secretion. *Curr Opin Pharmacol* 2013; **13**: 922–927.
- Chambers AP, Jessen L, Ryan KK, Sisley S, Wilson-Perez HE, Stefater MA *et al.* Weight-independent changes in blood glucose homeostasis after gastric bypass or vertical sleeve gastrectomy in rats. *Gastroenterology* 2011; **141**: 950–958.
- Jorgensen NB, Dirksen C, Bojsen-Moller KN, Jacobsen SH, Worm D, Hansen DL *et al.* Exaggerated glucagon-like peptide 1 response is important for improved beta-cell function and glucose tolerance after Roux-en-Y gastric bypass in patients with type 2 diabetes. *Diabetes* 2013; **62**: 3044–3052.
- le Roux CW, Aylwin SJ, Batterham RL, Borg CM, Coyle F, Prasad V *et al.* Gut hormone profiles following bariatric surgery favor an anorectic state, facilitate weight loss, and improve metabolic parameters. *Ann Surg* 2006; **243**: 108–114.

- 9 Mumphrey MB, Patterson LM, Zheng H, Berthoud HR. Roux-en-Y gastric bypass surgery increases number but not density of CCK-, GLP-1-, 5-HT-, and neurotensin-expressing enteroendocrine cells in rats. *Neurogastroenterol Motil* 2013; **25**: e70–e79.
- 10 Bueter M, Lowenstein C, Olbers T, Wang M, Cluny NL, Bloom SR *et al*. Gastric bypass increases energy expenditure in rats. *Gastroenterology* 2010; **138**: 1845–1853.
- 11 Osto E, Doytcheva P, Corteville C, Bueter M, Dorig C, Stivala S *et al*. Rapid and body weight-independent improvement of endothelial and HDL function after Roux-en-Y gastric bypass: role of glucagon-like peptide-1. *Circulation* 2015; **131**: 871–878.
- 12 Rinaman L. A functional role for central glucagon-like peptide-1 receptors in lithium chloride-induced anorexia. *Am J Physiol* 1999; **277** (5 Pt 2): R1537–R1540.
- 13 Kanoski SE, Fortin SM, Arnold M, Grill HJ, Hayes MR. Peripheral and central GLP-1 receptor populations mediate the anorectic effects of peripherally administered GLP-1 receptor agonists, liraglutide and exendin-4. *Endocrinology* 2011; **152**: 3103–3112.
- 14 Hisadome K, Reimann F, Gribble FM, Trapp S. CCK stimulation of GLP-1 neurons involves alpha1-adrenoceptor-mediated increase in glutamatergic synaptic inputs. *Diabetes* 2011; **60**: 2701–2709.
- 15 Richards P, Parker HE, Adriaenssens AE, Hodgson JM, Cork SC, Trapp S *et al*. Identification and characterization of GLP-1 receptor-expressing cells using a new transgenic mouse model. *Diabetes* 2014; **63**: 1224–1233.
- 16 Barrera JG, Sandoval DA, D'Alessio DA, Seeley RJ. GLP-1 and energy balance: an integrated model of short-term and long-term control. *Nat Rev Endocrinol* 2011; **7**: 507–516.
- 17 Lutz TA. The role of amylin in the control of energy homeostasis. *Am J Physiol Regul Integr Comp Physiol* 2010; **298**: R1475–R1484.
- 18 Geary N. A new way of looking at eating. *Am J Physiol Regul Integr Comp Physiol* 2005; **288**: R1444–R1446.
- 19 Lutz TA, Geary N. Gastrointestinal factors in Appetite and Food Research—Animal Research. In: Harris R, Mattes R (eds). *Appetite and Food Intake: Behavioral and Physiological Consideration*. CRC Press, Taylor & Francis Group: Boca Raton, London, New York, 2008, pp 163–186.
- 20 Reidelberger RD, Arnelo U, Granqvist L, Permert J. Comparative effects of amylin and cholecystokinin on food intake and gastric emptying in rats. *Am J Physiol Regul Integr Comp Physiol* 2001; **280**: R605–R611.
- 21 Reidelberger RD, Kelsey L, Heimann D. Effects of amylin-related peptides on food intake, meal patterns, and gastric emptying in rats. *Am J Physiol Regul Integr Comp Physiol* 2002; **282**: R1395–R1404.
- 22 Rushing PA, Seeley RJ, Air EL, Lutz TA, Woods SC. Acute 3rd-ventricular amylin infusion potently reduces food intake but does not produce aversive consequences. *Peptides* 2002; **23**: 985–988.
- 23 Ruttimann EB, Arnold M, Hillebrand JJ, Geary N, Langhans W. Intrameal hepatic portal and intraperitoneal infusions of glucagon-like peptide-1 reduce spontaneous meal size in the rat via different mechanisms. *Endocrinology* 2009; **150**: 1174–1181.
- 24 Chelikani PK, Haver AC, Reidelberger RD. Intravenous infusion of glucagon-like peptide-1 potently inhibits food intake, sham feeding, and gastric emptying in rats. *Am J Physiol Regul Integr Comp Physiol* 2005; **288**: R1695–R1706.
- 25 Mollet A, Gilg S, Riediger T, Lutz TA. Infusion of the amylin antagonist AC 187 into the area postrema increases food intake in rats. *Physiol Behav* 2004; **81**: 149–155.
- 26 Williams DL, Baskin DG, Schwartz MW. Evidence that intestinal glucagon-like peptide-1 plays a physiological role in satiety. *Endocrinology* 2009; **150**: 1680–1687.
- 27 Ruttimann EB, Arnold M, Geary N, Langhans W. GLP-1 antagonism with exendin (9-39) fails to increase spontaneous meal size in rats. *Physiol Behav* 2010; **100**: 291–296.
- 28 Steinert RE, Schirra J, Meyer-Gerspach AC, Kienle P, Fischer H, Schulte F *et al*. Effect of glucagon-like peptide-1 receptor antagonism on appetite and food intake in healthy men. *Am J Clin Nutr* 2014; **100**: 514–523.
- 29 Melhorn SJ, Tyagi V, Smeraglio A, Roth CL, Schur EA. Initial evidence that GLP-1 receptor blockade fails to suppress postprandial satiety or promote food intake in humans. *Appetite* 2014; **82**: 85–90.
- 30 Lutz TA, Mollet A, Rushing PA, Riediger T, Scharrer E. The anorectic effect of a chronic peripheral infusion of amylin is abolished in area postrema/nucleus of the solitary tract (AP/NTS) lesioned rats. *Int J Obes Relat Metab Disord* 2001; **25**: 1005–1011.
- 31 Arnelo U, Permert J, Adrian TE, Larsson J, Westermark P, Reidelberger RD. Chronic infusion of islet amyloid polypeptide causes anorexia in rats. *Am J Physiol* 1996; **271** (6 Pt 2): R1654–R1659.
- 32 Mells JE, Fu PP, Sharma S, Olson D, Cheng L, Handy JA *et al*. Glp-1 analog, liraglutide, ameliorates hepatic steatosis and cardiac hypertrophy in C57BL/6J mice fed a Western diet. *Am J Physiol Gastrointest Liver Physiol* 2012; **302**: G225–G235.
- 33 Rowland NE, Crews EC, Gentry RM. Comparison of Fos induced in rat brain by GLP-1 and amylin. *Regul Pept* 1997; **71**: 171–174.
- 34 Zuger D, Forster K, Lutz TA, Riediger T. Amylin and GLP-1 target different populations of area postrema neurons that are both modulated by nutrient stimuli. *Physiol Behav* 2013; **112–113**: 61–69.
- 35 Baumgartner I, Pacheco-Lopez G, Ruttimann EB, Arnold M, Asarian L, Langhans W *et al*. Hepatic-portal vein infusions of glucagon-like peptide-1 reduce meal size and increase c-Fos expression in the nucleus tractus solitarius, area postrema and central nucleus of the amygdala in rats. *J Neuroendocrinol* 2010; **22**: 557–563.
- 36 Riediger T, Zuend D, Becskei C, Lutz TA. The anorectic hormone amylin contributes to feeding-related changes of neuronal activity in key structures of the gut-brain axis. *Am J Physiol Regul Integr Comp Physiol* 2004; **286**: R114–R122.
- 37 Mack CM, Soares CJ, Wilson JK, Athanacio JR, Turek VF, Trevaskis JL *et al*. Davalintide (AC2307), a novel amylin-mimetic peptide: enhanced pharmacological properties over native amylin to reduce food intake and body weight. *Int J Obes* 2010; **34**: 385–395.
- 38 Lutz TA, Senn M, Althaus J, Del Prete E, Ehrensperger F, Scharrer E. Lesion of the area postrema/nucleus of the solitary tract (AP/NTS) attenuates the anorectic effects of amylin and calcitonin gene-related peptide (CGRP) in rats. *Peptides* 1998; **19**: 309–317.
- 39 Potes CS, Turek VF, Cole RL, Vu C, Roland BL, Roth JD *et al*. Noradrenergic neurons of the area postrema mediate amylin's hypophagic action. *Am J Physiol Regul Integr Comp Physiol* 2010; **299**: R623–R631.
- 40 Edwards GL, Gedulin BR, CJ, Dilts RP, CCM, Young A. Area postrema (AP)-lesions block the regulation of gastric emptying by amylin. *Neurogastroenterol Motil* 1998; **10**.
- 41 Wickbom J, Herrington MK, Permert J, Jansson A, Arnelo U. Gastric emptying in response to IAPP and CCK in rats with subdiaphragmatic afferent vagotomy. *Regul Pept* 2008; **148**: 21–25.
- 42 Lutz TA, Althaus J, Rossi R, Scharrer E. Anorectic effect of amylin is not transmitted by capsaicin-sensitive nerve fibers. *Am J Physiol* 1998; **274** (6 Pt 2): R1777–R1782.
- 43 Lutz TA, Del Prete E, Scharrer E. Reduction of food intake in rats by intraperitoneal injection of low doses of amylin. *Physiol Behav* 1994; **55**: 891–895.
- 44 Lutz TA, Del Prete E, Scharrer E. Subdiaphragmatic vagotomy does not influence the anorectic effect of amylin. *Peptides* 1995; **16**: 457–462.
- 45 Mietlicki-Baase EG, Hayes MR. Amylin activates distributed CNS nuclei to control energy balance. *Physiol Behav* 2014; **136**: 39–46.
- 46 Lutz TA, Tschudy S, Rushing PA, Scharrer E. Amylin receptors mediate the anorectic action of salmon calcitonin (sCT). *Peptides* 2000; **21**: 233–238.
- 47 Mietlicki-Baase EG, Rupprecht LE, Olivos DR, Zimmer DJ, Alter MD, Pierce RC *et al*. Amylin receptor signaling in the ventral tegmental area is physiologically relevant for the control of food intake. *Neuropsychopharmacology* 2013; **38**: 1685–1697.
- 48 Banks WA, Kastin AJ. Differential permeability of the blood-brain barrier to two pancreatic peptides: insulin and amylin. *Peptides* 1998; **19**: 883–889.
- 49 Banks WA, Kastin AJ, Maness LM, Huang W, Jaspán JB. Permeability of the blood-brain barrier to amylin. *Life Sci* 1995; **57**: 1993–2001.
- 50 Bailey R, Walker C, Ferner A, Loomes K, Prijic G, Halim A *et al*. Pharmacological characterization of rat amylin receptors: implications for the identification of amylin receptor subtypes. *Br J Pharmacol* 2012; **166**: 151–167.
- 51 Punjabi M, Arnold M, Ruttimann E, Graber M, Geary N, Pacheco-Lopez G *et al*. Circulating glucagon-like peptide-1 (GLP-1) inhibits eating in male rats by acting in the hindbrain and without inducing avoidance. *Endocrinology* 2014; **155**: 1690–1699.
- 52 Bailey RJ, Walker CS, Ferner AH, Loomes KM, Prijic G, Halim A *et al*. Pharmacological characterization of rat amylin receptors: implications for the identification of amylin receptor subtypes. *Br J Pharmacol* 2012; **166**: 151–167.
- 53 McLatchie LM, Fraser NJ, Main MJ, Wise A, Brown J, Thompson N *et al*. RAMPs regulate the transport and ligand specificity of the calcitonin-receptor-like receptor. *Nature* 1998; **393**: 333–339.
- 54 Hay DL, Christopoulos G, Christopoulos A, Poyner DR, Sexton PM. Pharmacological discrimination of calcitonin receptor: receptor activity-modifying protein complexes. *Mol Pharmacol* 2005; **67**: 1655–1665.
- 55 Sexton PM, Paxinos G, Kenney MA, Wookey PJ, Beaumont K. *In vitro* autoradiographic localization of amylin binding sites in rat brain. *Neuroscience* 1994; **62**: 553–567.
- 56 Becskei C, Riediger T, Zund D, Wookey P, Lutz TA. Immunohistochemical mapping of calcitonin receptors in the adult rat brain. *Brain Res* 2004; **1030**: 221–233.

- 57 Barth SW, Riediger T, Lutz TA, Reckemmer G. Peripheral amylin activates circumventricular organs expressing calcitonin receptor a/b subtypes and receptor-activity modifying proteins in the rat. *Brain Res* 2004; **997**: 97–102.
- 58 Ueda T, Ugawa S, Saishin Y, Shimada S. Expression of receptor-activity modifying protein (RAMP) mRNAs in the mouse brain. *Brain Res Mol Brain Res* 2001; **93**: 36–45.
- 59 Liberini CG, Boyle CN, Cifani C, Venniro M, Hope BT, Lutz TA. Amylin receptor components and the leptin receptor are co-expressed in single rat area postrema neurons. *Eur J Neurosci* 2016; **43**: 653–661.
- 60 Riediger T, Schmid HA, Lutz T, Simon E. Amylin potentially activates AP neurons possibly via formation of the excitatory second messenger cGMP. *Am J Physiol Regul Integr Comp Physiol* 2001; **281**: R1833–R1843.
- 61 Potes CS, Boyle CN, Wookey PJ, Riediger T, Lutz TA. Involvement of the extracellular signal-regulated kinase 1/2 signaling pathway in amylin's eating inhibitory effect. *Am J Physiol Regul Integr Comp Physiol* 2012; **302**: R340–R351.
- 62 Braegger FE, Asarian L, Dahl K, Lutz TA, Boyle CN. The role of the area postrema in the anorectic effects of amylin and salmon calcitonin: behavioral and neuronal phenotyping. *Eur J Neurosci* 2014; **40**: 3055–3066.
- 63 Ronveaux CC, de Lartigue G, Raybould HE. Ability of GLP-1 to decrease food intake is dependent on nutritional status. *Physiol Behav* 2014; **135**: 222–229.
- 64 Michel S, Becskei C, Erguven E, Lutz TA, Riediger T. Diet-derived nutrients modulate the effects of amylin on c-Fos expression in the area postrema and on food intake. *Neuroendocrinology* 2007; **86**: 124–135.
- 65 Wielinga PY, Alder B, Lutz TA. The acute effect of amylin and salmon calcitonin on energy expenditure. *Physiol Behav* 2007; **91**: 212–217.
- 66 Wielinga PY, Löwenstein C, Alder B, Lutz TA. Effect of peripheral and central amylin on energy expenditure and body temperature. *Appetite* 2008; **91**: 409.
- 67 Fernandes-Santos C, Zhang Z, Morgan DA, Guo DF, Russo AF, Rahmouni K. Amylin acts in the central nervous system to increase sympathetic nerve activity. *Endocrinology* 2013; **154**: 2481–2488.
- 68 Osaka T, Tsukamoto A, Koyama Y, Inoue S. Central and peripheral administration of amylin induces energy expenditure in anesthetized rats. *Peptides* 2008; **29**: 1028–1035.
- 69 Wielinga PY, Lowenstein C, Muff S, Munz M, Woods SC, Lutz TA. Central amylin acts as an adiposity signal to control body weight and energy expenditure. *Physiol Behav* 2010; **101**: 45–52.
- 70 Abegg K, Schiesser M, Lutz TA, Bueter M. Acute peripheral GLP-1 receptor agonism or antagonism does not alter energy expenditure in rats after Roux-en-Y gastric bypass. *Physiol Behav* 2013; **121**: 70–78.
- 71 Osaka T, Endo M, Yamakawa M, Inoue S. Energy expenditure by intravenous administration of glucagon-like peptide-1 mediated by the lower brainstem and sympathoadrenal system. *Peptides* 2005; **26**: 1623–1631.
- 72 Heruc GA, Horowitz M, Deacon CF, Feinle-Bisset C, Rayner CK, Luscombe-Marsh N *et al.* Effects of dipeptidyl peptidase IV inhibition on glycemic, gut hormone, triglyceride, energy expenditure, and energy intake responses to fat in healthy males. *Am J Physiol Endocrinol Metab* 2014; **307**: E830–E837.
- 73 Schwartz MW, Woods SC, Porte Jr D, Seeley RJ, Baskin DG. Central nervous system control of food intake. *Nature* 2000; **404**: 661–671.
- 74 Asarian L, Geary N. Sex differences in the physiology of eating. *Am J Physiol Regul Integr Comp Physiol* 2013; **305**: R1215–R1267.
- 75 Eiden S, Daniel C, Steinbrueck A, Schmidt I, Simon E. Salmon calcitonin—a potent inhibitor of food intake in states of impaired leptin signalling in laboratory rodents. *J Physiol* 2002; **541**(Pt 3): 1041–1048.
- 76 Osto M, Wielinga PY, Alder B, Walser N, Lutz TA. Modulation of the satiating effect of amylin by central ghrelin, leptin and insulin. *Physiol Behav* 2007; **91**: 566–572.
- 77 Friedman JM. Leptin, leptin receptors and the control of body weight. *Eur J Med Res* 1997; **2**: 7–13.
- 78 Leibel RL. The role of leptin in the control of body weight. *Nutr Rev* 2002; **60**(10 Pt 2): S15–S19.
- 79 Myers MG, Cowley MA, Munzberg H. Mechanisms of leptin action and leptin resistance. *Annu Rev Physiol* 2008; **70**: 537–556.
- 80 Zhang Y, Scarpace PJ. The role of leptin in leptin resistance and obesity. *Physiol Behav* 2006; **88**: 249–256.
- 81 Roth JD, Roland BL, Cole RL, Trevaskis JL, Weyer C, Koda JE *et al.* Leptin responsiveness restored by amylin agonism in diet-induced obesity: evidence from nonclinical and clinical studies. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 2008; **105**: 7257–7262.
- 82 Boyle CN, Rossier MM, Lutz TA. Diet-induced obesity, hyperamylinemia and amylin sensitivity. *Appetite* 2010; **54**: 636.
- 83 Boyle CN, Rossier MM, Lutz TA. Influence of high-fat feeding, diet-induced obesity, and hyperamylinemia on the sensitivity to acute amylin. *Physiol Behav* 2011; **104**: 20–28.
- 84 Trevaskis J, Coffey T, Cole R, Lei C, Wittmer C, Walsh B *et al.* Amylin-mediated restoration of leptin responsiveness in diet-induced obesity: magnitude and mechanisms. *Endocrinology* 2008; **149**: 5679–5687.
- 85 Turek VF, Trevaskis JL, Levin BE, Dunn-Meynell AA, Irani B, Gu G *et al.* Mechanisms of amylin/leptin synergy in rodent models. *Endocrinology* 2010; **151**: 143–152.
- 86 Seth R, Knight WD, Overton JM. Combined amylin-leptin treatment lowers blood pressure and adiposity in lean and obese rats. *Int J Obes* 2011; **35**: 1183–1192.
- 87 Reidelberger R, Haver A, Chelikani PK, Apenteng B, Perriotte-Olson C, Anders K *et al.* Effects of leptin replacement alone and with exendin-4 on food intake and weight regain in weight-reduced diet-induced obese rats. *Am J Physiol Endocrinol Metab* 2012; **302**: E1576–E1585.
- 88 Zhao S, Kanoski SE, Yan J, Grill HJ, Hayes MR. Hindbrain leptin and glucagon-like-peptide-1 receptor signaling interact to suppress food intake in an additive manner. *Int J Obes* 2012.
- 89 Muller TD, Sullivan LM, Habegger K, Yi CX, Kabra D, Grant E *et al.* Restoration of leptin responsiveness in diet-induced obese mice using an optimized leptin analog in combination with exendin-4 or FGF21. *J Pept Sci* 2012; **18**: 383–393.
- 90 Ashwell M, Meade CJ. Obesity: do fat cells from genetically obese mice (C57BL/6J ob/ob) have an innate capacity for increased fat storage? *Diabetologia* 1978; **15**: 465–470.
- 91 Mack C, Wilson J, Athanacio J, Reynolds J, Laugero K, Guss S *et al.* Pharmacological actions of the peptide hormone amylin in the long-term regulation of food intake, food preference, and body weight. *Am J Physiol Regul Integr Comp Physiol* 2007; **293**: R1855–R1863.
- 92 Trevaskis JL, Lei C, Koda JE, Weyer C, Parkes DG, Roth JD. Interaction of leptin and amylin in the long-term maintenance of weight loss in diet-induced obese rats. *Obesity (Silver Spring)* 2010; **18**: 21–26.
- 93 Trevaskis JL, Parkes DG, Roth JD. Insights into amylin-leptin synergy. *Trends Endocrinol Metab* 2010; **21**: 473–479.
- 94 Lutz TA. The interaction of amylin with other hormones in the control of eating. *Diabetes Obes Metab* 2013; **15**: 99–111.
- 95 Seth R, Terry DE, Parrish B, Bhatt R, Overton JM. Amylin-leptin coadministration stimulates central histaminergic signaling in rats. *Brain Res* 2012; **1442**: 15–24.
- 96 Moon HS, Chamberland JP, Diakopoulos KN, Fiorenza CG, Ziemke F, Schneider B *et al.* Leptin and amylin act in an additive manner to activate overlapping signaling pathways in peripheral tissues; *in vitro* and *ex vivo* studies in humans. *Diabetes Care* 2011; **34**: 132–138.
- 97 Moon HS, Chamberland JP, Mantzoros CS. Amylin and leptin activate overlapping signalling pathways in an additive manner in mouse GT1-7 hypothalamic, CC muscle and AML12 liver cell lines. *Diabetologia* 2012; **55**: 215–225.
- 98 Le Foll C, Johnson MD, Dunn-Meynell A, Boyle CN, Lutz TA, Levin BE. Amylin-induced central IL-6 production enhances ventromedial hypothalamic leptin signaling. *Diabetes* 2015; **64**: 1621–1631.
- 99 Bhavsar S, Watkins J, Young A. Synergy between amylin and cholecystokinin for inhibition of food intake in mice. *Physiol Behav* 1998; **64**: 557–561.
- 100 Trevaskis JL, Turek VF, Griffin PS, Wittmer C, Parkes DG, Roth JD. Multi-hormonal weight loss combinations in diet-induced obese rats: therapeutic potential of cholecystokinin? *Physiol Behav* 2010; **100**: 187–195.
- 101 Lutz TA, Del Prete E, Szabady MM, Scharrer E. Attenuation of the anorectic effects of glucagon, cholecystokinin, and bombesin by the amylin receptor antagonist CGRP(8-37). *Peptides* 1996; **17**: 119–124.
- 102 Lutz TA, Tschudy S, Rushing PA, Scharrer E. Attenuation of the anorectic effects of cholecystokinin and bombesin by the specific amylin antagonist AC 253. *Physiol Behav* 2000; **70**: 533–536.
- 103 Mollet A, Meier S, Grabler V, Gilg S, Scharrer E, Lutz TA. Endogenous amylin contributes to the anorectic effects of cholecystokinin and bombesin. *Peptides* 2003; **24**: 91–98.
- 104 Asarian L, Geary N. Estradiol enhances cholecystokinin-dependent lipid-induced satiation and activates estrogen receptor-alpha-expressing cells in the nucleus tractus solitarius of ovariectomized rats. *Endocrinology* 2007; **148**: 5656–5666.
- 105 Asarian L, Geary N. Cyclic estradiol treatment phasically potentiates endogenous cholecystokinin's satiating action in ovariectomized rats. *Peptides* 1999; **20**: 445–450.
- 106 Thammacharoen S, Lutz TA, Geary N, Asarian L. Hindbrain administration of estradiol inhibits feeding and activates estrogen receptor-alpha-expressing cells in the nucleus tractus solitarius of ovariectomized rats. *Endocrinology* 2008; **149**: 1609–1617.
- 107 Trevaskis JL, Turek VF, Wittmer C, Griffin PS, Wilson JK, Reynolds JM *et al.* Enhanced amylin-mediated body weight loss in estradiol-deficient diet-induced obese rats. *Endocrinology* 2010; **151**: 5657–5668.
- 108 Asarian L, Boyle CN, Lutz TA. Estradiol (E2) increases the acute eating-inhibitory effect of amylin in ovariectomized (OVX) rats. *Appetite* 2011; **57S**: S2.
- 109 Lutz TA. Amylin may offer (more) help to treat postmenopausal obesity. *Endocrinology* 2011; **152**: 1–3.

- 110 Schwenk RW, Baumeier C, Finan B, Kluth O, Brauer C, Joost HG *et al.* GLP-1-oestrogen attenuates hyperphagia and protects from beta cell failure in diabetes-prone New Zealand obese (NZO) mice. *Diabetologia* 2015; **58**: 604–614.
- 111 Hollander P, Maggs DG, Ruggles JA, Fineman M, Shen L, Kolterman OG *et al.* Effect of pramlintide on weight in overweight and obese insulin-treated type 2 diabetes patients. *Obes Res* 2004; **12**: 661–668.
- 112 Chapman I, Parker B, Doran S, Feinle-Bisset C, Wishart J, Lush CW *et al.* Low-dose pramlintide reduced food intake and meal duration in healthy, normal-weight subjects. *Obesity (Silver Spring)* 2007; **15**: 1179–1186.
- 113 Aronne L, Fujioka K, Aroda V, Chen K, Halseth A, Kesty NC *et al.* Progressive reduction in body weight after treatment with the amylin analog pramlintide in obese subjects: a phase 2, randomized, placebo-controlled, dose-escalation study. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab* 2007; **92**: 2977–2983.
- 114 Smith SR, Blundell JE, Burns C, Ellero C, Schroeder BE, Kesty NC *et al.* Pramlintide treatment reduces 24-h caloric intake and meal sizes and improves control of eating in obese subjects: a 6-wk translational research study. *Am J Physiol Endocrinol Metab* 2007; **293**: E620–E627.
- 115 Smith SR, Aronne LJ, Burns CM, Kesty NC, Halseth AE, Weyer C. Sustained weight loss following 12-month pramlintide treatment as an adjunct to lifestyle intervention in obesity. *Diabetes Care* 2008; **31**: 1816–1823.
- 116 Ravussin E, Smith SR, Mitchell JA, Shringarpure R, Shan K, Maier H *et al.* Enhanced weight loss with pramlintide/metreleptin: an integrated neurohormonal approach to obesity pharmacotherapy. *Obesity (Silver Spring)* 2009; **17**: 1736–1743.
- 117 Bello NT, Kemm MH, Ofeldt EM, Moran TH. Dose combinations of exendin-4 and salmon calcitonin produce additive and synergistic reductions in food intake in nonhuman primates. *Am J Physiol Regul Integr Comp Physiol* 2010; **299**: R945–R952.
- 118 Rossger K, Charpin-El-Hamri G, Fussenegger M. A closed-loop synthetic gene circuit for the treatment of diet-induced obesity in mice. *Nat Commun* 2013; **4**: 2825.