Leptin antagonism improves Rett syndrome phenotype in symptomatic *Mecp2*-deficient

mice.

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ABSTRACT

Rett syndrome (RTT) is a severe X-linked neurodevelopmental disorder caused by mutations in *MECP2*. Elevated circulating levels of the adipocyte hormone leptin are consistently observed in patients and in mouse models, yet their contribution to disease progression has remained unclear. Here, we show that reducing leptin signaling—either pharmacologically or genetically—significantly alleviates RTT-like phenotypes in *Mecp2*-deficient mice. In males, these interventions preserved general health, prevented weight loss, and improved breathing and locomotor functions. At the neuronal level, they restored excitatory/inhibitory balance in the hippocampus and somatosensory cortex and rescued hippocampal synaptic plasticity. In females, delaying the pathological rise of leptin levels postponed symptom progression. These findings uncover leptin as a key contributor to RTT pathophysiology and position leptin-targeted interventions as a promising therapeutic strategy for this currently untreatable disorder.

INTRODUCTION

Rett syndrome (RTT; OMIM identifier #312750) is a rare non-inherited genetic neurodevelopmental disorder resulting from *de novo* mutations in the X-linked gene *MECP2* (methyl-CpG-binding protein 2) [1]. The MECP2 protein binds to methylated DNA regulating the expression of thousands of genes and plays a crucial role in brain development and functioning [2]. Affected individuals experience an apparently normal development until around 6–18 months of age. They subsequently undergo a rapid regression phase marked by the loss of purposeful hand movements and acquired speech, breathing irregularities, seizures and severe cognitive deficits [3]. Several clinical features observed in humans with RTT are recapitulated in *Mecp2*-deficient mice, making these mouse models an essential tool for unraveling the cellular mechanisms underlying

the disease and evaluating potential therapeutic interventions [4]. Notably, studies have

demonstrated that phenotypic rescue is achievable in *Mecp2*-deficient mice when the *Mecp2* gene

is re-expressed even at late symptomatic stages [5]. This finding indicates that RTT is not an

irreversible condition, and it provides hope for therapeutic interventions.

Beyond *MECP2*, the expression of various molecular targets, including neurotrophic

factors and neuromodulators, is dysregulated, some of which hold therapeutic potentials [6].

Among these deregulated factors, elevated circulating levels of leptin have been observed in RTT

patients and rodent models of the disease [7–10]. Leptin, the product of the obese (*ob*) gene, is a

circulating hormone secreted mainly from the white adipocytes. It crosses the blood brain barrier

to act on the hypothalamus, where its main function is to regulate food intake [11]. However, it is

now clear that the actions of leptin extend beyond the hypothalamus, encompassing a wide range

of biological roles. This pleiotropic hormone modulates motivation [12], cognitive functions [13],

anxiety [14], the excitability of neuronal networks [15], epileptiform activities [16], breathing activity [17],

locomotor activity [18] and more [19,20]. Leptin also acts as an important neurotrophic factor during

perinatal periods, promoting neuritic growth and synaptogenesis in various brain structures,

including the hypothalamus [21] and hippocampus [22–26]. Given these important physiological and

developmental functions, dysregulation of leptin availability or signaling, either excess or

deficiency, can have far reaching effects, including social and cognitive impairments, altered

breathing activity, seizures susceptibility, locomotion and abnormal brain development [16–18,24,27].

Consequently, the elevated levels of leptin observed in RTT patients [7,8] may contribute to the

various disorders associated with Rett syndrome.

To address this hypothesis, we first confirmed the presence of elevated serum leptin levels

in male and female *Mecp2$^{2tm1-1Bird}$* mice, hereafter referred to as *Mecp2$^{-/y}$* and *Mecp2$^{+/-}$* mice

respectively. Subsequently, we evaluated the potential therapeutic effects of pharmacological

antagonism of leptin and genetic reduction of leptin production in mitigating the deficits typically

exhibited by this RTT mouse model. Our findings demonstrate that the pharmacological and

genetic anti-leptin strategies prevent the degradation of health status, weight loss, and the

progression of breathing and locomotor deficits in male $Mecp2^{-/y}$ mice. At the neuronal level,

these interventions rescue the excitatory/inhibitory balance in the hippocampus and

somatosensory cortex and mitigate the impairment of synaptic plasticity in the hippocampus.

Moreover, genetic reduction of leptin production delays the appearance of breathing and motor

difficulties, and rescue the excitatory/inhibitory balance in the hippocampus of female $Mecp2^{+/-}$

mice. These results indicate a role of leptin in the pathogenesis of RTT, providing valuable

insights into potential therapeutic strategy for treating this syndrome.

RESULTS

Serum leptin levels and leptin mRNA expression are altered in male *Mecp2*$^{-/y}$ mice.

As a prerequisite for investigating the role of leptin in RTT, we assessed the circulating levels of

leptin using ELISA, and the *Lep* mRNA expression levels from two main sources of leptin, the

white adipose tissues (WAT) and gastrocnemius muscle, using qRT-PCR in male $Mecp2^{-/y}$ and

WT littermates. $Mecp2^{-/y}$ mice showed elevated circulating leptin levels compared to their WT

littermates. This difference reached statistical significance at postnatal day (P) 30 and 50 (**Figure**

1A). Despite weighting less than their WT littermates (**Figure 1B**), inguinal (**Figure 1C**),

gonadic (1.03 ± 0.06 vs 1.89 ± 0.26 g/100g body weight, t=2.61, df=18, p=0.017, Unpaired *t*-test)

and sub-cutaneous (0.46 ± 0.07 vs 1.42 ± 0.2 g/100g body weight, t=3.83, df=16, p=0.001,

Unpaired *t*-test) WAT weighted significantly more in P50 $Mecp2^{-/y}$ mice. The weight of visceral

WAT was similar between WT and *Mecp2*$^{-/y}$ littermates (**Figure 1C**). *Mecp2*$^{-/y}$ mice also

exhibited higher expression of leptin mRNA in gastrocnemius muscle (**Figure 1D**), as well as in

visceral and inguinal WAT (**Figures 1E and F**). Taken together, these findings demonstrate that

circulating leptin levels and leptin mRNA expression are elevated in male *Mecp2*$^{-/y}$ mice when

compared to their WT littermates, providing a foundation to investigate the role of leptin in RTT-

associated symptoms.

We next aimed to determine whether hyperleptinemia results in sustained leptin receptor

activation. To address this question, we used phosphorylated STAT3 (pSTAT3) as a surrogate

marker of leptin receptor activation. Under basal conditions, *Mecp2*$^{-/y}$ mice exhibited a greater

number of pSTAT3-positive neurons across various hypothalamic nuclei compared to their WT

littermates (**Figure 1G**), confirming previous findings [28]. Interestingly, WT mice responded to

acute sub-cutaneous injection of leptin (5µg/g) by increasing the number of pSTAT3 positive

neurons in the hypothalamic nuclei to levels similar to those in *Mecp2*$^{-/y}$ mice (**Figure 1G**).

Together, these results suggest that leptin signaling is enhanced in *Mecp2*$^{-/y}$ mice as a

consequence of elevated circulating leptin levels, at least in hypothalamic nuclei.

Leptin antagonism prevents the progression of breathing deficits in male *Mecp2*$^{-/y}$ mice.

Respiratory disorders have been well described in patients and rodent models of RTT [29]. Leptin

regulates breathing by acting on neurons of the brainstem respiratory network and carotid body

cells [17]. We therefore investigated the possible contribution of leptin to RTT-associated breathing

disorders. We first characterized the respiratory activity of *Mecp2*$^{-/y}$ mice from our breeding

colony. Consistent with previous studies [30], when compared with their age-matched WT

littermates, P40 *Mecp2*$^{-/y}$ mice developed respiratory disorders characterized by increased number

of apneas (**Figure 2A**), respiratory cycle duration variability expressed as breathing irregularity

score (**Figure 2D**) and minute ventilation (**Figure 2F**). These breathing distresses worsen with

age in *Mecp2*$^{-/y}$ mice (**Figures 2C and E**), while the respiratory parameters remained constant in

WT mice (**Figures 2B and E**). Next, to test the possible role of leptin in RTT-associated

breathing disorders, P40 WT mice received daily sub-cutaneous injection of leptin recombinant

(5µg/g) during 10 consecutive days. Sham mice received the same volume of vehicle. We used

plethysmography to record breathing activity of each mouse at P40, before starting treatment, and

at P50, the last day of treatment. Leptin treatment of WT mice led to a significant increase in the

number of apneas (**Figure 2B**) and breathing irregularity score (**Figure 2E**), while in sham WT

mice these parameters remained unchanged (**Figures 2B and E**). The mean value of minute

ventilation was not affected by the anti-leptin and leptin-treatment (**Figure 2G**).

We next investigated the effect of anti-leptin treatment (5µg/g, every other day during 10 days)

on the breathing activity of the *Mecp2*$^{-/y}$ mice. While the sham and anti-leptin treated *Mecp2*$^{-/y}$

mice show similar phenotypic profile at the beginning of the treatment (**Figure 2C**), we found

that the breathing distress worsen with age in sham treated *Mecp2*$^{-/y}$ mice, but remained constant

in anti-leptin treated *Mecp2*$^{-/y}$ mice (**Figures 2C**). At the end of the treatment, P50 anti-leptin

treated *Mecp2*$^{-/y}$ mice showed improved breathing parameters (apneas frequency and irregularity

score) compared to sham *Mecp2*$^{-/y}$ mice (**Figures 2D & E**). The mean value of minute ventilation

(**Figure 2F**) of P50 *Mecp2*$^{-/y}$ mice was not affected by the anti-leptin-treatment. We also tested

the effect of chronic leptin treatment on *Mecp2*$^{-/y}$ mice and found no effect on their breathing

parameters (**supplementary Figures S1A-C**). Altogether, these data suggest a contribution of

leptin to the progression of breathing difficulties in symptomatic *Mecp2*$^{-/y}$ mice.

Leptin antagonism prevents the worsening of health condition of male *Mecp2*^{-/y} mice.

We next assessed the efficacy of the anti-leptin treatment on the overall health of the *Mecp2*$^{-/y}$

mice. The thoroughly described body weight loss of *Mecp2*$^{-/y}$ mice (**Figure 3A**) was abolished by

the anti-leptin treatment (5µg/g, every other day during 10 days, from P40 to P50, **Figures 3B**

and C). The leptin treatment (5µg/g during 10 consecutive days) decreased the body weight of

the WT (**Figures 3C**) but not *Mecp2*$^{-/y}$ mice (**supplementary Figure S1D**). We also performed a

scoring of the health condition of the mice. The parameters assessed include tremor, general

aspect, spontaneous activity, limb grasp and posture. WT and *Mecp2*$^{-/y}$ mice showed significant

difference at P40 (**Figure 3D**). *Mecp2*$^{-/y}$ mice showed altered general aspect, decreased

spontaneous activity, and increased grasp and tremor (**Figure 3E**). The health scoring performed

before starting treatment (P40) and on the last day of treatment (P50) revealed a deterioration in

all parameters assessed in sham *Mecp2*$^{-/y}$ mice (**Figure 3G**). Worsening of posture, tremor and

general aspect were prevented by the anti-leptin treatment while spontaneous activity and limb

grasp showed no significant improvement (**Figure 3G**). Although it does not reach significance,

this improvement in overall health after the anti-leptin treatment was accompanied by a decrease

of early lethality, with 50% of the sham- and anti-leptin treated *Mecp2*$^{-/y}$ mice surviving after the

postnatal day 48.5 and 59 respectively (**Figure 3F**). No lethality nor change in the health scoring

were observed in WT mice treated with either vehicle or leptin (n=10 for both).

Although the underlying mechanisms require further clarification, leptin has been reported to

modulate locomotor activity [18]. We therefore assessed the effect of the anti-leptin treatment on

the locomotor activity and motor coordination of *Mecp2*$^{-/y}$ mice in the open field and the

accelerating rotarod tests. In the open field test, the distance traveled by the *Mecp2*$^{-/y}$ mice was

reduced compared to their WT littermates (**Figures 4A**). This locomotor deficit worsened with

age in $Mecp2^{-/y}$ mice (**Figures 4B**). The 10-day anti-leptin treatment (5µg/g, from P40 to P50)

prevented the degradation of locomotor activity observed in the sham $Mecp2^{-/y}$ mice (**Figures 4B**

and 4C). Moreover leptin-treated WT mice performed similarly to their sham littermates (**Figure**

4C). In the accelerating rotarod test, $Mecp2^{-/y}$ mice showed a significant decrease in the latency to

fall compared to WT littermates (**Figure 4D**). This phenotype did not worsen with age (**Figures**

4E). In the accelerating rotarod test, neither the leptin- nor the anti-leptin treatment affected the

performances of respectively WT and $Mecp2^{-/y}$ mice (**Figure 4F**). Overall, these observations

show that the anti-leptin treatment ameliorates the general health condition, (i.e., posture, tremor,

general aspect) and locomotor activity of the symptomatic $Mecp2^{-/y}$ mice.

Leptin antagonism does not affect anxiety or seizures susceptibility in male $Mecp2^{-/y}$ mice.

Leptin has been reported to exert anti-depressant and pro-cognitive like effects in rodents [13,14].

We therefore investigated the possible contribution of leptin to cognitive behavioral deficits

repeatedly reported in RTT models. Our first set of behavioral tests examined anxiety, cognition

and social interaction in P50 WT and $Mecp2^{-/y}$ mice from our breeding colony. We first compared

the spontaneous exploration in the elevated plus maze (EPM) as a measure of anxiety and found

that $Mecp2^{-/y}$ mice spent more time in the open arms than their WT littermate (**Figure 4G**). The

mean dipping time was also increased in $Mecp2^{-/y}$ mice (**Figure 4H**) a behavior also consistent

with decreased anxiety. However, no genotype effects were found in tests used to evaluate object

recognition and social behavior (**supplementary Figure S2**). We therefore limited the study of

the role of leptin to the EPM. Leptin-treated WT and anti-leptin treated-$Mecp2^{-/y}$ mice performed

similarly to their vehicle-treated littermates in the EPM, i.e., they stayed for a similar amount of

time in the open arms and exhibited similar mean dipping time (**Figures 4H and G**). These

observations therefore show that the anti-leptin treatment does not modify the anxiety-related

behavior of symptomatic *Mecp2$^{-/y}$* mice.

Leptin antagonism restores the E/I balance in CA3 hippocampal neurons and layer 5

somatosensory cortical neurons, and mitigates the hippocampal synaptic plasticity in male

***Mecp2$^{-/y}$* mice.**

We then assessed the potential benefits of anti-leptin treatment at the neuronal and cellular levels.

Alteration in the synaptic excitation/inhibition (E/I) balance is a widespread feature of neuronal

networks in *Mecp2*-deficient mice [31]. Leptin has been reported to modulate the development and

functioning of both glutamatergic and GABAergic synapses [13,23–26], raising the possibility that

elevated leptin levels might contribute to the altered E/I balance in *Mecp2$^{-/y}$* mice. We performed

whole cell patch clamp recordings of CA3 pyramidal neurons on acute hippocampal slices

obtained from P50 WT and *Mecp2$^{-/y}$* mice. We found that, as already reported [32], the E/I balance

was increased in *Mecp2$^{-/y}$* compared to their WT littermates (**Figures 5A and B**). The 10-day

leptin treatment (5µg/g, from P40 to P50) led to a significant increase in the E/I balance in P50

WT mice (**Figure 5B**), while having no effect in *Mecp2$^{-/y}$* mice (**supplementary Figure S1G**).

Conversely, the 10-day anti-leptin treatment (5µg/g from P40 to P50) restored the E/I balance in

Mecp2$^{-/y}$ mice (**Figure 5B**). We also asked whether the anti-leptin treatment could correct altered

E/I balance in cortical neurons of *Mecp2$^{-/y}$* mice. Whole cell patch clamp recordings of

somatosensory layer 5 cortical neurons revealed that E/I balance was increased in *Mecp2$^{-/y}$* mice

compared to their WT littermates (**Figure 5C**) and normalized by the 10-day anti-leptin treatment

(5µg/g from P40 to P50) (**Figures 5C**). Altogether, these results show that leptin contributes to

the E/I imbalance in symptomatic *Mecp2$^{-/y}$* mice.

Impairment of synaptic plasticity is another common feature of mice RTT models [33] and

leptin has been reported to modulate the strength of glutamatergic synapses [27]. We therefore

examined the effect of leptin and leptin antagonist treatment on long term potentiation (LTP) at

the hippocampal Schaffer collaterals-CA1 synapses of P50 WT and $Mecp2^{-/y}$ mice. As already

reported [33], the magnitude of early (0-2 min post-tetanus) and late (45-50 min post-tetanus) LTP

were reduced in $Mecp2^{-/y}$ mice compared to WT littermates (**Figure 5D**). Leptin treatment of WT

mice (5µg/g during 10 consecutive days from P40) attenuated the magnitude of late and early

LTP compared to sham-treated mice but these differences did not reach significance (**Figure 5E**).

Conversely, the anti-leptin treatment (5µg/g every other day during 10 days from P40) increased

the magnitude of early and late LTP in $Mecp2^{-/y}$ mice (**Figure 5H**). Altogether, these data

demonstrate the major contribution of leptin elevation to the hippocampal LTP impairment in

symptomatic $Mecp2^{-/y}$ mice.

Studies have shown that the brain derived neurotrophic factor (BDNF) levels are reduced

in $Mecp2$-deficient mice and that their recovery would be a potential candidate for the treatment

of RTT [34]. Leptin modulates BDNF expression in several brain structures including the

hypothalamus [35] and hippocampus [36]. To determine whether the anti-leptin treatment modulates

BDNF expression, we quantified the levels of mBDNF and proBDNF proteins in P50

hippocampi using ELISA. As already reported [34], the level of mBDNF was significantly lower in

$Mecp2^{-/y}$ mice compared to their WT littermates (**supplementary Figure S3**). The level of

proBDNF in $Mecp2^{-/y}$ mice was not different from that of WT mice. The anti-leptin treatment

(5µg/g every other day during 10 days from P40) did not restore the level of mBDNF in $Mecp2^{-/y}$

mice (**supplementary Figure S3**). Therefore, BDNF is unlikely to mediate the effects on the

ant-leptin treatment in the hippocampus of $Mecp2^{-/y}$ mice.

RTT-associated symptoms are improved in male and female leptin haplo insufficient

Mecp2-deficient mice.

The data presented above show that leptin antagonism effectively mitigates the deterioration of,

or even rescues, certain symptoms observed in symptomatic _Mecp2_$^{-/y}$ mice. However, prolonged

administration of a leptin antagonist presents challenges, as it may potentially lead to metabolic

and/or immune disturbances. To reduce this drawback and further evaluate the possible

contribution of leptin in RTT phenotype, we generated _Mecp2_$^{-/y}$ mice that are haplo insufficient

for leptin with the aim of restoring the physiological levels of leptin in _Mecp2_-deficient mice.

Leptin haplo insufficient _Mecp2_$^{-/y}$ mice were generated by backcrossing _Mecp2_$^{+/-}$ female mice

with heterozygous leptin deficient male mice (_ob_$^{+/-}$). The resulting double transgenic _Mecp2_$^{-}$

$^{/y}$_;ob_$^{+/-}$ mice showed normalized leptin levels at P40-50 (**Figure 6A**). We next examined whether

Mecp2$^{-/y}$_;ob_$^{+/-}$ mice exhibited any improvements at advanced symptomatic stage. Notably, the

progressive deterioration in breathing activity typically observed in _Mecp2_$^{-/y}$ mice was prevented

in _Mecp2_$^{-/y}$_;ob_$^{+/-}$ mice (**Figures 6B and C**). In addition, _Mecp2_$^{-/y}$_;ob_$^{+/-}$ mice displayed

significantly higher body weight compared to _Mecp2_$^{-/y}$ littermates, with this difference becoming

increasingly pronounced as the disease progressed (**Figures 6D**). Whole cell recordings

performed on hippocampal slices revealed that the E/I balance (**Figures 6E**) was improved in

CA3 hippocampal neurons of _Mecp2_$^{-/y}$_;ob_$^{+/-}$ mice. Field recordings on hippocampal slices further

revealed that the magnitude of early and late LTP at the Schaffer collateral-CA1 synapses was

increased in _Mecp2_$^{-/y}$_;ob_$^{+/-}$ mice (**Figure 6F**). Analysis of the health condition of the _Mecp2_$^{-}$

$^{/y}$_;ob_$^{+/-}$ mice revealed some improvement at P40 but not at P50 (**Figure 6G**). At P40, _Mecp2_$^{-}$

$^{/y}$_;ob_$^{+/-}$ mice showed fewer tremor and limb grasping compared to the _Mecp2_$^{-/y}$ mice (**Figure**

6H). The life expectancy of $Mecp2^{-/y};ob^{+/-}$ mice was however not different compared to their

$Mecp2^{-/y}$ littermates (**Figure 6I**). Overall, these data show that reducing leptin production

improves some RTT-associated symptoms in $Mecp2^{-/y}$ mice.

Given that RTT primarily affects females, we wondered whether RTT symptoms were also

alleviated in female $Mecp2^{+/-}$ mice that are haplo-insufficient for leptin (hereafter referred to as

$Mecp2^{+/-};ob^{+/-}$ mice). A characteristic feature of the RTT mouse model on a C57BL/6J genetic

background is that, unlike males, females gain weight as the disease progresses. The

hyperleptinemia associated with this weight gain could therefore counterbalance haplo-

insufficiency and prevent the normalization of leptin levels in $Mecp2^{+/-};ob^{+/-}$ mice. To address

this point and identify a window for reliable assessment of leptin involvement in RTT symptoms,

we performed a longitudinal measurement of circulating leptin levels in $Mecp2^{+/-}$, $Mecp2^{+/-};ob^{+/-}$

and WT mice from postnatal day (P) 20 to 200. $Mecp2^{+/-}$ mice showed significantly elevated

circulating leptin levels from P40 onwards compared to their WT littermates (**Figure 7A**).

Moreover, at P40 and P50, but not at older stages, $Mecp2^{+/-;ob/+}$ mice showed normalized leptin

levels (**Figure 7A**). It is worth noting that from P100 $Mecp2^{+/-}$ and $Mecp2^{+/-};ob^{+/-}$ mice weighted

more than WT (**Figure 7B**). This suggests that weight gain beyond P100, and the associated

increase in leptin production, prevents normalization of leptin levels in $Mecp2^{+/-};ob^{+/-}$ mice.

Based on these observations, we conducted a behavioral and neuronal characterization of the

female mice at two different stages: at an early stage (P40-50), when the leptin levels are

normalized in $Mecp2^{+/-};ob^{+/-}$ mice and at a late stage (P100-200), when the leptin levels are

comparable between $Mecp2^{+/-}$ and $Mecp2^{+/-};ob^{+/-}$ mice. We assessed several parameters including

breathing, phenotypic score, E/I ratio, (**Figures 7C-F**). Notably, the $Mecp2^{+/-};ob^{+/-}$ mice showed

an improvement in breathing activity at P40-50, but this improvement was not maintained at

P100-200 (**Figure 7C**). Similarly, the E/I ratio recorded on CA3 hippocampal neurons was

restored in P40-50 $Mecp2^{+/-};ob^{+/-}$ mice (**Figure 7D**). There was no significant difference in the

E/I balance between WT, $Mecp2^{-/y}$ and $Mecp2^{+/-};ob^{+/-}$ mice at P100-200 (**Figure 7D**). The

longitudinal analysis of the health condition of the mice revealed a progressive decline in $Mecp^{2-/y}$

mice (**Figure 7E**), characterized by worsening of tremor and limb grasping from P50, followed

by a decline in spontaneous activity from P100 (**Figure 7F**). In $Mecp2^{+/-};ob^{+/-}$ mice, the onset of

tremors and limb grasping was delayed, though spontaneous activity showed no significant

improvement (**Figure 7F**). Overall these data show that delaying the leptin rise delays the

worsening of RTT-associated symptoms in $Mecp2^{+/-};ob^{+/-}$ mice.

DISCUSSION

DISCUSSION

Here, we show that *Mecp2*^{-/y} and *Mecp2*^{+/-} mice have elevated circulating leptin levels

compared to their age-matched WT littermates. Given the diverse central and peripheral roles of

leptin, this finding provides a foundation for investigating its potential contribution to RTT

pathogenesis. Remarkably, a 10-day treatment of male *Mecp2*-null mice from P40 with a leptin

antagonist prevented the worsening of several symptoms including breathing difficulty,

locomotor deficit, weight loss and degradation of general health condition. At the neuronal level,

the anti-leptin treatment restored hippocampal synaptic plasticity as well as hippocampal and

cortical excitatory/inhibitory balance. However, the leptin antagonism strategy showed limited

effectiveness against anxiety, motor coordination deficits and early lethality. Consistent with the

role of leptin to RTT pathogenesis, we also showed that leptin treatment of WT mice impaired

the hippocampal excitatory/inhibitory balance, reduced hippocampal synaptic plasticity and

caused breathing abnormality in male WT mice, thus mimicking some RTT symptoms. We

further showed that genetic manipulation aimed at normalizing leptin level in male *Mecp2*-null

mice prevents weight loss, the progression of breathing deficits, and rescues the

excitatory/inhibitory balance and glutamatergic synaptic plasticity in the hippocampus. Finally,

we showed that delaying the leptin rise in female *Mecp2*-deficient mice delays the worsening of

their RTT-associated symptoms. These findings strengthen the link between leptin and RTT,

providing a valuable insight into potential therapeutic strategy for this syndrome.

Elevated circulating leptin is consistently observed in patients with Rett syndrome [7,8] and

in Mecp2-deficient mice [9,10,28]. While chronic inflammation[37], hormonal deregulations[38], or

medications [39] may contribute, increased adiposity alone is unlikely in patients, as

hyperleptinemia occurs without changes in BMI or fat mass [7,8,40,41]. In mice, however, elevated

leptin is often associated with higher body weight[28 42] or fat mass [9,10]. Notably, we found that

symptomatic male *Mecp2*-null mice exhibit increased fat mass despite reduced body weight,

together with elevated WAT leptin mRNA expression. The underlying mechanisms remain

unclear, but they are likely to involve non-cell-autonomous processes. Supporting this

hypothesis, previous studies showed that neuron-specific Mecp2 knockout mice (*Mecp2[tm1.1Jae]*

KO mice) display both increased circulating leptin levels and higher WAT leptin mRNA

expression [9], whereas adipocyte-specific Mecp2 knockout mice (*Mecp2[Adi]* KO mice) exhibit

downregulated WAT leptin mRNA expression without changes in circulating leptin levels [43].

Together, these findings suggest that both increased leptin synthesis per unit of adipose tissue and

increased adiposity contribute to elevated circulating leptin. Finally, intramuscular adipose tissue,

known to expand in neuromuscular and metabolic diseases [44], may also contribute, consistent

with the muscle hypotrophy and fibrosis observed in symptomatic *Mecp2*-null mice [45].

In the present study, we used a pegylated super active mouse leptin antagonist (Peg-

SMLA) that exhibits poor penetration in the central nervous system [46]. The leptin antagonist

inhibits leptin activity by two mechanisms: (i) by reducing the transport of circulating leptin

across the blood brain barrier (BBB), thus reducing central leptin levels, and (ii) by blocking the

binding of leptin to its peripheral receptors, thereby reducing peripheral leptin signaling.

Similarly, haploinsufficiency for leptin mice reduces both central and peripheral actions of leptin.

Several observations support the hypothesis that the beneficial effects of leptin antagonism rely

on a reduction in the central action of leptin. Firstly, functional leptin receptors are expressed

throughout the brain [47]. *In vitro* studies indicate that leptin directly regulates the excitability and

synaptic function of neurons within different brain regions, including the hippocampus [15,23,24,26,48]

and nucleus tractus solitarius, which plays a critical role in the modulation of breathing,

cardiovascular control and food intake [49]. Furthermore, *in vivo* experiments demonstrate that

local/systemic injections of leptin or chemogenetic/optogenetic activation of leptin receptor

expressing neurons, modulate physiological and behavioral responses, and that targeted deletion

of central leptin receptors prevent these effects [50–56]. The respiratory network is complex and the

effects of leptin on respiratory control are not yet fully understood. Nevertheless, alterations in

the E/I balance have been reported in respiratory nuclei expressing leptin receptors, such as the

nucleus tractus solitarius and the rostro ventrolateral medulla [57,58]. The latter could contribute to

apneustic and irregular breathing in *Mecp2*-deficient mice [29]. More research is needed to

determine whether and how leptin antagonism affects the E/I balance in these brain regions [31].

Additionally, while our findings support the central effects of the treatments, we cannot

completely rule out a peripheral effect, for example on carotid bodies. Further investigations are

required to elucidate these peripheral effects in conjunction with the central mechanisms of leptin

receptor antagonism.

Given the known facilitatory role of leptin on breathing and synaptic function, our present

finding might initially appear counter-intuitive. However, it is worth noting that an excess of

leptin can lead to a blunted response known as "leptin resistance". Thus, rodents fed with a high-

fat diet that causes elevated leptin levels and leptin resistance also exhibit altered hippocampal

synaptic function, breathing, locomotor activity and anxiety level [17,59]. Torres-Andrade and

colleagues demonstrated that the absence of Mecp2 leads to hypothalamic leptin resistance in

female mice [28]. Consistent with this observation, we found that peripheral administration of leptin

increases pSTAT3 immunostaining -a surrogate marker of leptin receptor activation- in

hypothalamic nuclei of wild-type mice, but not in *Mecp2$^{-/y}$* littermates (**supplementary Figure**

S4). Furthermore, leptin injection in Mecp2$^{-/y}$ mice has no effect on their weight, unlike in WT mice (**supplementary Figure S1D**). These findings support the notion that *Mecp2* deficiency disrupts leptin signaling, at least within hypothalamic circuits. It is conceivable that anti-leptin treatment or leptin haploinsufficiency, by lowering central leptin levels, alleviates leptin-resistance and thereby restore leptin sensitivity. This hypothesis is supported by studies in the context of obesity, where a reduction in circulating leptin levels has been shown to enhance leptin responsiveness, resulting in decreased food intake, increased energy expenditure, and improved glucose homeostasis [60,61]. Conversely, daily leptin treatment of WT mice could lead to leptin resistance, which may be responsible for the symptoms observed in these mice. Interestingly, elevated leptin levels have also been observed in children with autism spectrum disorders [62–64]. Yet, the clinical features seen in ASD only partially overlap with those of Rett syndrome, suggesting that the functional and physiological actions of leptin may depend, among other factors, on the specific mutations associated with the etiology of the disease.

We have shown that the anti-leptin treatment is well tolerated with no premature deaths or overt side effects, indicating it potential therapeutic application. Additionally, leptin antagonist therapy has been reported to be effective in preventing or treating diseases where elevated leptin levels are involved [65,66]. It is noteworthy that leptin antagonist treatment has also shown improvements in bone mineralization [67] and muscle function [68], two peripheral symptoms observed in RTT. Furthermore, hyperleptinemia has been suggested to contribute to sympathetic overactivity and cardiac abnormalities observed in RTT [8]. These observations collectively suggest that leptin may play a role in various central and peripheral RTT clinical manifestations underscoring the broad therapeutic potential of this approach.

Given the progressive nature of Rett symptoms and the high inter-individual variability,

we assessed their evolution (i.e., the difference between the values at the beginning and at the end

of treatment) to estimate the potential efficacy of the leptin antagonist treatment. Our data

indicate that treatment with the leptin antagonist during the symptomatic period delays the

progression of certain symptoms (i.e. breathing, locomotor activity, weight loss, general health

status) but does not lead to a complete recovery. The notion of a pre-symptomatic period in RTT

has recently been questioned, as studies have shown subtle symptoms in RTT girls and early

alterations in animal models before the appearance of overt symptoms [69]. Therefore, while

translational applications may pose challenges, it will be interesting in the future to determine

whether "pre-symptomatic" treatments have more significant positive effects. Such interventions

could shed light on potential therapeutic strategies for intervening at an earlier stage to possibly

improve treatment outcomes in RTT.

MATERIALS and METHODS

Animals

All animal procedures were carried out in accordance with the European Union Directive of 22 September (2010/63/EU) and have been approved by the Ethical Committee for Animal Experimentation (APAFIS-Numbers 17605-2018-1119-1115-7094 and 41156-2023-0220-1011-9732) delivered by the French Ministry of Education and Research.

Experiments were performed on male wild type and $Mecp^{2tm1-1Bird}$ mice [70] C57BL/6J genetic background (Jackson Laboratory, stock number 003890). Hemizygous mutant males (hereafter referred as to $Mepc2^{-/y}$ mice) were generated by crossing heterozygous females ($Mecp2^{+/-}$) with C57BL/6 wild type males. $Mecp2^{-/y}$ and $Mecp2^{+/-}$ mice haplo insufficient for leptin (hereafter referred as to $Mecp2^{-/y};ob^{+/-}$ and $Mecp2^{+/-};ob^{+/-}$) were generated by crossing heterozygous females $Mecp2^{+/-}$ with C57BL/6 heterozygous leptin deficient males mice (Jackson Laboratory genotyping protocol, strains B6.Cg-Lepob/J, ID 000632). Animals were housed in a temperature-controlled environment with a 12h light/dark cycle and free access to food and water. Genotyping was performed by PCR techniques according to Jackson Laboratory protocols.

Leptin and anti-leptin injection

Recombinant murine leptin (Peprotech, New Jersey, USA) was reconstituted in sterile water and daily injected (5 µg/g) sub-cutaneous at 12-14 hr a.m during 10 days starting at postnatal day (P) 40. The pegylated super active mouse leptin antagonist (Peg-SMLA, Protein Laboratories, Rehovot, Israel) was reconstituted in sterile water [46]. As the half-life of the Peg-SMLA was about

24 hours, mice were injected (5 µg/g) sub-cutaneous at 12-14 hr a.m every other day during 10

days starting at P40. Control mice received same volume injections of vehicle.

Leptin and BDNF immunoassay

Blood samples were collected by two routes: submandibular bleeding, performed every 10 days

from postnatal day 20 to 90 in female mice or decapitation (trunk blood samples) at P15, 30 and

50 in male mice and at P100-200 in female mice. Blood samples were centrifuged (10.000 rpm,

10 min, 4°C) immediately after collection at 10–11 hr a.m. Quantification of endogenous leptin

was performed with Mouse Leptin ELISA Kit (BioVendor R&D[R], Brno, Czech Republic)

following the manufacturer's protocol. The measured concentration of samples was calculated

from the standard curve and expressed as ng/ml.

Hippocampal tissues were homogenized in RIPA buffer (150 mM NaCl, 1% Triton X100, 0.1%

SDS, 50 mM Tris HCl), pH 8, containing protease inhibitors (Complete Mini; Roche). Lysates

were centrifuged (10.000 g for 30 min at 4 °C). Loading was 200 µg of proteins as determined

using a modified Bradford reaction (BioRad Laboratories). Quantification of mature- and

proBDNF was performed with both proBDNF and mature BDNF Rapid ELISA Kit (Biosensis

Pty Ltd., Thebarton, SA, Australia) in the concentrated solutions following the manufacturer's

protocol.

Real-time reverse transcription quantitative polymerase chain reaction

Visceral and inguinal fat pads and gastrocnemius muscles were dissected, rapidly frozen in liquid

nitrogen and stored at -80°C. Total RNAs from fat pads and gastrocnemius muscle were isolated

using a RNeasy Mini kit (74106, Qiagen, Germany) and RNA Fibrous Tissue Mini kit (74704,

Qiagen) respectively, following the manufacturer's instructions and quantified by reading the

absorbance at 260 nm (NanoPhotometer, IMPLEN). RNAs were converted to cDNA using 1 µg

RNA and a QuantiTect Reverse Transcription kit (Qiagen) according to manufacturer's

instructions. Quantitative RT-PCR was performed with a Light Cycler 480 SYBR Green IMaster

(Roche Applied Science) following the manufacturer's instructions, using the following

oligonucleotides (QuantiTect Primer Assays, Qiagen): Leptin (Mm_Lep_1_SG QT00164360

(NM_008493)), and glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH, QT001199633).

Relative mRNA values were calculated using the LC480 software and GAPDH as the

housekeeping gene. PCR was performed in triplicate.

Slice preparation and electrophysiological recordings

Brains were removed and immersed into ice-cold (2° to 4°C) artificial cerebrospinal fluid

(ACSF) with the following composition: 126 mM NaCl, 3.5 mM KCl, 2 mM CaCl2, 1.3 mM

MgCl2, 1.2 mM NaH2PO4, 25 mM NaHCO3, and 11 mM glucose (pH 7.4) equilibrated with

95% O2 and 5% CO2. Hippocampal slices (350µm thick) were cut using a vibrating microtome

(Leica VT1000S, Germany) in ice-cold oxygenated choline-replaced ACSF and were allowed to

recover at least 90 min in ACSF at room temperature (25°C). Slices were then transferred to a

submerged recording chamber perfused with oxygenated (95% O2 and 5% CO2) ACSF (3

ml/min) at 34°C.

Whole cell recordings were performed from hippocampal CA3 and somatosensory layer V

pyramidal neurons in the voltage-clamp mode using an axopatch 200B amplifier (Molecular

Devices LLC, San Jose, USA). To assess the excitatory/inhibitory balance, the glass recording

electrodes (4-7 MΩ) were filled with a solution containing 100 mM K-gluconate, 13 mM KCl, 10

mM Hepes, 1.1 mM EGTA, 0.1 mM CaCl2, 4 mM Mg–adenosine 5′-triphosphate, and 0.3 mM

Na–guanosine 5′-triphosphate. The pH of the intracellular solution was adjusted to 7.2, and the

osmolality was adjusted to 280 mOsmol liter−1. With this solution, $GABA_A$-receptor mediated

postsynaptic currents ($GABA_A$-PSCs) reversed at −70 mV. $GABA_A$-PSCs and Glut-PSCs were

recorded at a holding potential of −45 and -70 mV respectively. Spontaneous synaptic currents,

were recorded with Axoscope software version 8.1 (Molecular Devices LLC, San Jose, USA) and

analyzed offline with Mini Analysis Program version 6.0 (Synaptosoft).

Field recordings were performed in area CA1. A cut was made between CA1 and CA3. The

Schaffer collaterals/commissural fibers were stimulated using a bipolar tungsten electrode (66

μm; A-M Systems, WA, USA) placed on the surface of the stratum radiatum of CA1 (10–50 μs,

5–15 V, 0.03 Hz). Extracellular tungsten electrodes (California Fine Wire,CA, USA) were used

to record dendritic field excitatory postsynaptic potentials (fEPSP) from the stratum radiatum of

the CA1 region. The signals were amplified using a DAM80 amplifier (WPI, UK), digitized with

an Axon Digidata 1550B (Molecular Devices, CA, USA), recorded with Axoscope software

version 8.1 (Molecular Devices, CA, USA) and analyzed offline with Mini Analysis Program

version 6.0 (Synaptosoft, GA, USA) by measuring the onset (a 30–70% rising phase) slope of the

fEPSP. LTP was induced by three 100 Hz trains of 100 stimuli 30 sec apart at 50% of the

maximal intensity. The slope of the fEPSP was measured and expressed relative to the

preconditioning baseline.

pSTAT3 Immunohistochemistry

Mice were deeply anesthetized with tiletamine/zolazepam (Zoletil, 40 mg/kg) and medetomidine

(Domitor, 0.6 mg/kg) and trans-cardially perfused with 4% paraformaldehyde (PFA) in 0.1 M

phosphate buffer (pH 7.4). After perfusion, brains were removed and post-fixed through

immersion in cold solution of 4% PFA for 24 h and then stored at 4°C in Phosphate-Buffered

Saline (PBS) with **0.01%** sodium azide until processing. Serial coronal brain sections (40 µm

thickness) at the hypothalamic level (from the bregma coordinates -0.58 to -2.18) were done

using a vibratome (Leica VT1000S, Germany) and collected in PBS.

Three randomly chosen sections per animal of the same coordinates range for each hypothalamic

nucleus examined were used for the immuhistochemistry processing (bregma -0.80 to -1.00 for

the paraventricular nucleus of the hypothalamus (PVN); -1.06 to -1.34 for the lateral

hypothalamic area (LH); -1.46 to -1.70 for the dorsomedial hypothalamic nu (DM); -1.46 to -1.82

for the ventromedial hypothalamic nu (VMH); -1.58 to -1.94 for the arcuate hypothalamic nu

(Arc)). The free-floating sections were first rinsed in Tris buffer salin (TBS) and pre-treated in

0.3% Glycine for 30 min at room temperature (RT). They were then permeabilized for 30 min in

0.3% triton x100 and were blocked in 5% normal donkey serum and 5% bovine serum albumin

(BSA) for 1 h at RT. Section were incubated overnight at 4°C in pSTAT3 antibody (1/200 Cat

9131, cell Signaling) diluted in TBS with 1% BSA. On the next day, sections were washed four

times in TBS and incubated with a donkey anti rabbit Alexa Fluor 568 labeled secondary

antibody (1/500) for 2 h. The stained sections were mounted on coverslips with mounting reagent

(FluorSave reagent, Calbiochem) and kept away from light until analysis.

The immunostaining in the nuclei of interest was acquired at 20x magnification using a Zeiss

AxioImager M2 Apo1.2 microscope from IBDM imaging facility. Each hypothalamic structure

examined was delineated and the nuclear profiles of all pSTAT3 positive labeled cells were

manually counted from 3 sections using Fiji Image J analysis software from the NIH, to exclude

any bias that could result from changes in cell soma size or shape among experimental

conditions. The average number of cells counted in the 3 sections per area in each mouse was

taken for statistical comparisons.

Plethysmography.

The breathing activity of non-anesthetized freely moving mice was recorded using a constant

flow whole body plethysmograph (EMKA technologies, Paris, France) with 200ml animal

chambers maintained at 25±0.5 $^{\circ}$C and ventilated with air (600ml min^{-1}). The breathing activity of

pairs of WT and *Mecp2$^{-/y}$* mice littermates was simultaneously recorded. Mice were allowed to

acclimate to the experimental room for 1 hour and to the plethysmography chamber and airflow

for approximatively 30 mins before breathing measurement. Breathing activity was recorded

during 1 hour. A differential pressure transducer measured the changes in pressure in the body

chamber resulting from the animal's respiration. Signals from the pressure transducer were stored

on a personal computer and analyzed offline via the Spike 2 interface and software (Cambridge

Electronic Design, Cambridge, UK). Only periods of quiet breathing without body movements

were analyzed, during which the number of apneas (> three respiratory cycles) per hour was

quantified.

General health scoring and lifespan

Weight was measured every day from the beginning of the treatment. The phenotypic score was

evaluated the day before treatment and the last day of treatment. Severity score, typically used in

RTT phenotypic assessments [70], was used to group animals into 4 severity classes: absence of

phenotype (4) to severe phenotype (0). The parameters scored are: tremor, posture, limb grasp,

spontaneous activity in the home cage and general aspect. To be noticed, mice that rapidly lost

weight were euthanized for ethical reasons. The day of the sacrifice was considered as the

endpoint of lifespan assessment.

Accelerating rotarod

A rotarod apparatus (Biological Research Apparatus, Gemonio, Italy) was used to measure the

motor coordination. After a 5 mins habituation session (4 r.p.m), each mouse was given three

trials with the rate of rotation increasing from 4 to 40 r.p.m. over 5 mins. The trial ended when

the mouse fell from the rod or remained on the rotarod for at least 5 mins. The time spent on the

rotarod was recorded by an automated unit, which stopped as the mouse fell. The mouse was

placed back in its home cage for 10 mins between each trial. The latency to fall was determined

as the best of the 3 trials.

Behavior

All the behavioral tests were performed by Phenotype Expertise, Inc. (France). For all tests,

animals were first acclimated to the behavioral room for 30 minutes. WT and $Mecp2^{-/y}$ mice

underwent elevated plus maze, open field, three chamber test and spontaneous social interaction

test at P50. WT and *Mecp2*$^{-/y}$ treated mice underwent elevated plus maze and open field at P40,

before the beginning of the treatment, and at P50, at the end of the treatment.

Elevated-Plus Maze. The EPM was used to assess anxiety state of animals. The device consists of

a labyrinth of 4 arms 5 cm wide located 80 cm above the ground. Two opposite arms are open

(without wall) while the other two arms are closed by side walls. The light intensity was adjusted

to 20 Lux on the open arms. Mice were initially placed on the central platform and left free to

explore the cross-shaped labyrinth for 5 minutes. Maze was cleaned and wiped with H2O and

with 70% ethanol between each mouse. Animal movement was video-tracked using Ethovision

software 11.5 (Noldus). Time spent in open and closed arms, the number of entries in open arms,

as well as the distance covered, are directly measured by the software.

Open-field. Open field was used to evaluate both the locomotor activity of the animals. Mice

were individually placed in a 40 x 40 cm square arena with an indirect illumination of 60 lux.

Mouse movement was video-tracked using Ethovision software 11.5 (Noldus) for 10 minutes.

Total distance traveled and time in center (exclusion of a 5 cm border arena) are directly

measured by the software. Grooming (time and events) and rearing were manually counted in live

using manual functions of the software, by an experimented behaviorist. The open-field arena

was cleaned and wiped with H2O and with 70% ethanol between each mouse.

Three-chamber social preference test. A square arena 40 x 40 cm was used, with the wired cages

placed in opposite diagonal corners. The task was carried out in four trials. The three-chambers

apparatus was cleaned and wiped with water and with 70% ethanol between each trial and each

mouse. In the first trial (habituation), a test mouse was placed in the center of the arena and was

allowed to freely explore each chamber. The mouse was video-tracked for 5 min using

Ethovision software. At the end of the trial, the animal was briefly removed from the arena to

allow for the preparation of the following trial. In the second trial (social exploration), a 8- weeks

old C57BL/6J congener mouse (S1) was placed randomly in one of the two wire cages to avoid a

place preference. The second wire cage remained empty (E). Then the test mouse was placed in

the center of the arena and allowed to freely explore for 10 min. A second 8-weeks old C57BL/6J

congener mouse (S2) was placed in the second wire cage for the third trial (social

discrimination). Thus, the tested mouse had the choice between a familiar mouse (S1) and a new

stranger mouse (S2) for 10 min. At the end of the trial, the mouse was returned to home-cage for

30 min. For the fourth trial (short-term social memory), S2 was replaced by a new stranger mouse

(S3), the familiar mouse (S1) staying the same. Then tested mouse was allowed to freely explore

the arena for 10 min. Time spent in each chamber and time of contact with each wire cage (with a

mouse or empty) were calculated using Ethovision software. The measure of the real social

contact is represented by the time spent in nose-to-nose interactions with the unfamiliar or

familiar mouse. This test was performed using grouped house mice of 4 months old.

Spontaneous social interaction test. The tested mouse was placed into the same OF arenas that

were used for the OF test and allowed to explore this empty arena for 2.5 min. Immediately

following this initial stage, the mouse was again allowed to explore the OF for an additional 10

min with the target (Swiss mouse) present. Mouse movement was video-tracked using Ethovision

software 11.5 (Noldus) and the time spent in nose-to-nose, nose-to-body, and nose-to-genitals

interactions was measured.

Statistics

Statistical analyses were conducted with GraphPad Prism (GraphPad software 5.01). Shapiro-

Wilk normality test was used to determine the normality of distributions. We used a Two-tailed

Mann-Whitney *U* test or Two-tailed unpaired *t*-test for comparison between two independent

groups, a Wilcoxon matched pairs signed rank test or Two-tailed paired *t*-test for comparison

between two matched data, a Two-tailed Kruskal-Wallis test followed by a Dunn's multiple

comparison or a two-way ANOVA followed by a Tukey's multiple comparison for comparison

between three or more independent groups, and a Fisher exact test for nominal comparison

between two independent groups. The effect of tetanic stimulation of the slope of field EPSPs

was analyzed using repeated measure ANOVA. The survival analysis was performed using a

Kaplan-Meier log-rank test. Possible outliers within an experimental group were identified with

Grubb's test and discarded from the final analysis. To ensure the consistency and reproducibility

of our results, we conducted repeated trials in different acute hippocampal slices prepared from at

least three different animals from three different littermates. All data are expressed as mean $\pm$

standard error to the mean (S.E.M.). For results expressed as percent of WT (i.e. serum and

mRNA leptin, Figure 1, all values (WT and *Mecp2$^{-/y}$* mice) were normalized to the mean WT

value. In the figures, box plots represent the 1^{rst} and 3rd quartiles; whiskers show data range;

horizontal lines show the median.

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CONFLICT OF INTEREST STATEMENT

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

DATA AVAILABILITY

All datasets generated for this study are available on request to the corresponding author.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

J-LG, YB, CM and GAW conceived the experiments and wrote the manuscript. YB, J-LG, DD,

MB-H, PS and VV performed the experiments. CS performed the behavioral analysis. J-CG bred

the colony. All authors approved the final version of the manuscript.

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 FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1: Circulating leptin levels, leptin mRNA expression and p-STAT3 immunostaining

are elevated in symptomatic *Mecp2*$^{-/y}$ mice.

A) Box plots of serum leptin levels determined in blood samples taken at postnatal day (P) 15, 30

and 50, using ELISA kit and expressed as percentage of age matched wild type (WT) mice. **B)**

Scatter plots of serum leptin levels as a function of mice body weight of P30-P50 WT and *Mecp2*$^{-}$

$^{/y}$ mice. **C)** Box plots of normalized visceral (V) and inguinal (In) white adipose tissue (WAT)

mass of P50 WT and *Mecp2*$^{-/y}$ littermates. **D-F)** Mean$\pm$SEM plots of normalized leptin mRNA

expression in gastrocnemius muscle (**D**), visceral WAT (**E**) and inguinal WAT (**F**) of P30 and

P50 WT and *Mecp2*$^{-/y}$ littermates. **(G)** G Representative microphotographs and quantification

(mean$\pm$SEM) of pSTAT3 immunoreactivity in the delineated arcuate hypothalamic nucleus

(bregma level -1.70) of WT Sham (1), WT Leptin (2) and KO Sham (3) and in the lateral

hypothalamic area (bregma level -1.34) of WT Sham (4), WT Leptin (5) and KO Sham (6). V:

third ventricle; Opt: optic tract; fr: fornix; delineated MGP: Medial globus Pallidus. Scale bars,

50 µmIn this and following figures, box plots represent quartiles, whiskers show data range,

lozenges represent arithmetic means. Numbers in parentheses indicate the number of mice used.

*$P < 0.05$, **$P < 0.01$, ***$P < 0.001$, two-tailed unpaired student *t*-test (C-F), One-way ANOVA

followed by a Tukey's multiple comparison (A, G).

Figure 2: Leptin antagonism prevents the progression of breathing deficits of symptomatic *Mecp2$^{-/y}$* mice.

A) Box plots of apnea frequency in P40 untreated WT and *Mecp2$^{-/y}$* mice. **B, C)** Plots of apnea frequency in treated WT (**B**) and *Mecp2$^{-/y}$* (**C**) mice. Lines indicate individual mice recorded the day before the treatment (P40) and at the end of the treatment (P50). Connected scares indicate mean$\pm$SEM. **D)** Box plots of breathing irregularity score in P40 untreated WT and *Mecp2$^{-/y}$* mice. **E)** Box plots of the percentage of change of breathing irregularity score in sham- and treated- WT and *Mecp2$^{-/y}$* mice. **F)** Box plots of minute ventilation in P40 untreated WT and *Mecp2$^{-/y}$* mice. **G)** Box plots of the percentage of change minute ventilation in sham- and treated- WT and *Mecp2$^{-/y}$* mice. Numbers in parenthesis indicate the number of mice used. ***P* < 0.01; ****P* < 0.001, Two-tailed paired t-test (B, C), Two-tailed unpaired t-test (A, D-G), One-way ANOVA followed by a Tukey's multiple comparison (E, F).

Figure 3: Leptin antagonism ameliorates the general health and lifespan of symptomatic *Mecp2$^{-/y}$* mice.

A) Box plots of the body weight of untreated P40 WT and *Mecp2$^{-/y}$* mice. **B)** Body weight change (% of P40) as a function of age in sham and anti-leptin treated *Mecp2$^{-/y}$* mice. The treatment started at P40 and ended at P50 (Mean$\pm$SEM). **C)** Box plot of the body weight change (% of P40) at P50 in sham and treated WT and *Mecp2$^{-/y}$* mice. **D)** Severity score of untreated P40 WT and *Mecp2$^{-/y}$* mice. mean$\pm$SEM. **E)** Radar plot of the symptoms scored in P40 WT and *Mecp2$^{-/y}$* mice. **F)** Plot of the percentage of surviving mice as a function of age. The treatment started at P40 and was maintained until the death of the animal. **G)** Radar plot of the symptoms scored in sham and anti-leptin treated *Mecp2$^{-/y}$* mice. Numbers in parenthesis indicate the number of mice used. **P* <

0.05; **$P < 0.01$; ***$P < 0.001$, Two-tailed unpaired t-test (A,C,D), One-way ANOVA followed

by a Tukey's multiple (C), Mann Whitney U test (E, G), Kaplan-Meier log rank test (F).

Figure 4: Leptin antagonism prevents the worsening of locomotor deficit but does not

improve motor coordination nor anxiety alterations of symptomatic *Mecp2$^{-/y}$* mice.

A) Box plots of the distance traveled by untreated P40 WT and *Mecp2$^{-/y}$* mice in an open field. **B)**

Plots of distance traveled by sham and anti-leptin *Mecp2$^{-/y}$* mice in an open field. Connected

points indicate individual mice recorded the day before the treatment (P40) and at the end of the

treatment (P50). Connected squares indicate mean±SEM. **C)** Box plots of the distance traveled in

an open field by P50 sham and treated WT and *Mecp2$^{-/y}$* mice at the indicated genotype and

treatment. **D**) Mean ± SEM plots of the latency to fall of untreated P40 WT and *Mecp2$^{-/y}$* mice in

the accelerating rotarod. **E)** Plots of latency to fall by sham and anti-leptin *Mecp2$^{-/y}$* mice.

Connected points indicate individual mice recorded the day before the treatment (P40) and at the

end of the treatment (P50). Connected squares indicate mean±SEM. **F**) Box plots of the latency

to fall by P50 sham and treated mice at the indicated genotype and treatment. **G, H**) Box plots of

the time spent in open arms (**G**) and dipping (**H**) by untreated P40 WT and *Mecp2$^{-/y}$* mice, and

P50 WT- and *Mecp2$^{-/y}$*-sham and treated mice in an elevated plus maze. Numbers in parenthesis

indicate the number of mice used. *$P < 0.05$; **$P < 0.01$; ***$P < 0.001$, two-tailed unpaired *t*-test

when comparing untreated mice (A,C,F,G,H,), two-tailed paired *t*-test (B,E), Mann Whitney U

test (D), Fisher exact test (J), Mann Whitney test (D), One-way ANOVA followed by a Tukey's

multiple comparisons when comparing treated mice (C,F,G,H,I).

Figure 5: Leptin contributes to hippocampal and cortical synaptic alterations of symptomatic *Mecp2*$^{-/y}$ mice.

A) Examples of whole-cell recordings performed on CA3 pyramidal neurons at a holding potential of −45 and -70 mV at P50. The glutamatergic synaptic currents are inwards and the GABAergic synaptic currents are outwards. Scale bars: 100pA, 2 sec. **B, C)** Box plots of the ratio frequency of spontaneous glutamatergic and GABAergic postsynaptic currents recorded from P50 untreated and treated WT and *Mecp2*$^{-/y}$ CA3 pyramidal neurons (**B**) and layer V somatosensory pyramidal neurons (**C**). **D-F)** LTP was recorded for 50 min following tetanic stimulation at the Schaffer collateral-CA1 synapses of acute hippocampal slices from symptomatic (P50) untreated (**D**) and treated (**E, F**) *Mecp2*$^{-/y}$ and WT mice. Insets show examples of fEPSP. Scale bar: 100µV, 3ms. Numbers in parenthesis indicate the number of slices recorded and mice used. Numbers in parenthesis indicate the number of cells recorded and mice used. *******P* < 0.01; ********P* < 0.001, two-tailed unpaired *t*-test when comparing untreated mice (B,C), One-way ANOVA followed by a Tukey's multiple comparison when comparing treated mice (B,C). Repeated measure ANOVA (D-F).

Figure 6: RTT-associated symptoms are improved in male leptin haplo insufficient mice.

A) Box plot of serum leptin levels in P50 WT, *Mecp2*$^{-/y}$ and *Mecp2*$^{-/y;ob/+}$ littermates. **B)** Mean $\pm$SEM plot of apnea frequency in P40 and P50 WT, *Mecp2*$^{-/y}$ and *Mecp2*$^{-/y;ob/+}$ littermates. Scatter plots show individual data points. **C)** Mean $\pm$SEM change of apnea frequency at P50 (% of P40). **D)** Box plot of body weight in P40 and P50 WT, *Mecp2*$^{-/y}$ and *Mecp2*$^{-/y;ob/+}$ littermates. **E)** Box plots of the frequency ratio of spontaneous glutamatergic and GABAergic postsynaptic currents

716 recorded from CA3 pyramidal neurons at P50. **F**) LTP at the Schaffer collateral-CA1 synapses of

717 acute hippocampal slices from P50 *Mecp2*$^{-/y}$ and *Mecp2*$^{-/y;ob/+}$ mice. Numbers in parenthesis

718 indicate the number of mice used and number of cells recorded. **G**) Average severity score of P40

719 and P50 WT, *Mecp2*$^{-/y}$ and *Mecp2*$^{-/y;ob/+}$ littermates. **H**) Radar plot of the symptoms scored in P40

720 and P50 WT, *Mecp2*$^{-/y}$ and *Mecp2*$^{-/y;ob/+}$ littermates. **I**) Plot of the percentage of surviving mice as

721 a function of age. *$P < 0.05$; **$P < 0.01$; ***$P < 0.001$. One-way ANOVA followed by a

722 Tukey's multiple comparison (A, B, D, E, G, H), Mann-Whitney test (C), two-tailed Kruskal-

723 Wallis followed by a Dunn's multiple comparison (H), repeated measure ANOVA (F).

725 **Figure 7: RTT-associated symptoms are improved in female leptin haplo insufficient mice.**

726 **A**) Mean $\pm$SEM plot of serum leptin levels determined in blood samples taken at postnatal day

727 (P) 20 every 10 days until P200, in female WT, *Mecp2*$^{+/-}$ and *Mecp2*$^{+/-;ob/+}$ littermates. **B-D**) Box

728 plots of body weight (**B**), frequency of apneas (**C**) and frequency ratio of spontaneous

729 glutamatergic and GABAergic postsynaptic currents (**D**) in P40-50 and P100-200 WT, *Mecp2*$^{+/-}$

730 and *Mecp2*$^{+/-;ob/+}$ littermates. **E**) Evolution of the severity score of WT, *Mecp2*$^{+/-}$ and *Mecp2*$^{+/-;ob/+}$

731 littermates. mean$\pm$SEM. **F**) Radar plot of the symptoms scored in P60 and P150 WT, *Mecp2*$^{+/-}$

732 and *Mecp2*$^{+/-;ob/+}$ littermates. *$P < 0.05$; **$P < 0.01$; ***$P < 0.001$. Two-tailed Kruskal-Wallis

733 followed by a Dunn's multiple comparison (F), One-way ANOVA followed by a Tukey's

734 multiple comparison (A, B, C, D), Wilcoxon matched-pairs signed rank test (E).

736 **Supplementary Fig S1: Leptin treatment has no effect on *Mecp2*$^{-/y}$ mice.**

P40 *Mecp2$^{-/y}$* received daily sub-cutaneous injection of leptin recombinant (5µg/g) during 10

days. Sham mice received the same volume of vehicle. **A-C**) Box plots of the percentage of

change (% of P40) of apnea frequency (**A**), breathing irregularity score (**B**) and minute

ventilation (**C**) in sham- and treated- *Mecp2$^{-/y}$* mice. **D**) Body weight change (% of P40) as a

function of age in sham- anti-leptin treated *Mecp2$^{-/y}$* mice. **E**) Box plots of the frequency ratio of

spontaneous glutamatergic and GABAergic postsynaptic currents recorded on CA3 pyramidal

neurons of sham- and leptin treated- *Mecp2$^{-/y}$* mice at P50. Numbers in parenthesis indicate the

number of mice used. Two-tailed unpaired t-test.

Supplementary Fig S2: Lack of differences in social and cognitive behavior between P50

WT and *Mecp2$^{-/y}$* mice.

A, B) Mean $\pm$ SEM plots of the time interacting of P50 WT (A) and *Mecp2$^{-/y}$* (B) mice during the

different phase of the 3 chambers test. **C**) Box plots of the time interacting of P50 WT and

Mecp2$^{-/y}$ mice with a stranger mouse in the spontaneous social interaction test. **D**) Mean $\pm$ SEM

plots of the time interacting and index preference of P50 WT and *Mecp2$^{-/y}$* mice in the novel

object recognition test. Numbers in parenthesis indicate the number of mice used. **P < 0.01;

***P < 0.001, two-tailed paired *t*-test (A, B, D), two-tailed unpaired *t*-test (B, D).

Supplementary Fig S3: mature and pro-brain derived neurotrophic factor (BDNF) proteins

expression in WT and *Mecp2$^{-/y}$* mice.

A-C) Box plots of mature (A) and pro (B) BDNF protein expressions in hippocampal samples

taken from P50 WT and *Mecp2$^{-/y}$* mice, using ELISA kit. P40 WT and *Mecp2$^{-/y}$* received sub-

cutaneous injection of vehicle (sham) or anti-leptin (5µg/g), every other day, during 10 days. *P

< 0.05, One-way ANOVA followed by a Tukey's multiple comparison.

Supplementary Fig S4: Lack of phenotypic differences between WT and *Mecp2$^{+/-}$* mice.

A) Representative images of pSTAT3 labeling within the arcuate nucleus (Arc) the lateral

hypothalamic area (LHA) the ventromedial hypothalamus (VMH) and the dorsomedial

hypothalamus (DM) of leptin-treated and sham *Mecp2$^{-/y}$* mice (B) (bregma level -1.94). Note that

a high number of pSTAT3 immuno-positive cells, intensely labeled, is detected in the DM and

the Arc in both conditions. However, the significant but less intense pSTAT3 labeled cells

observed in the VMH of sham *Mecp2$^{-/y}$* mice is no longer observed in leptin-treated *Mecp2$^{-/y}$*

mice. 3V: third ventricle; Opt: optic tract; fr: fornix; delineated STN: Subthalamic nucleus;

delineated cp: cerebral peduncle, Scale bars, 250 µm. **B**) Percentage of increase of pSTAT3

positive cells induced by sub-cutaneous injection of leptin in WT and *Mecp2$^{-/y}$* mice. LH: Lateral

hypothalamic area; DM: dorsomedial nucleus; VMH: ventromedial nucleus; Arc: arcuate

nucleus; PVN: periventricular nucleus.

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