ELSEVIER

Contents lists available at ScienceDirect

Biochemical and Biophysical Research Communications

Biochemical and Biophysical Research Communications

journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/ybbrc

In vivo evidence of enhanced di-methylation of histone H3 K4 on upregulated genes in adipose tissue of diabetic *db/db* mice

Saki Fujimoto, Toshinao Goda, Kazuki Mochizuki*

The University of Shizuoka, Graduate School of Nutritional and Environmental Sciences and the Global COE, Japan

ARTICLE INFO

Article history: Received 26 October 2010 Available online 24 November 2010

Keywords: Histone H3 K4 Di-methylation Adipose tissue Diabetes

ABSTRACT

Di-methylation of histone H3 lysine (K) 4, a component of the epigenetic memory, is associated with gene transactivation. In this study, we examined whether the development of diabetes induces di-methylation of histone H3 K4 on the upregulated genes. We searched for upregulated genes in mesenteric adipose tissue of insulin-resistant/diabetic db/db mice compared with non-diabetic db/m mice using microarray analysis. We also performed chromatin immunoprecipitation assays for di-methylation of histone H3 K4 in the upregulated genes in mesenteric adipose tissue of db/m and db/db mice. Di-methylation of histone H3 K4 was enhanced at the upstream and/or transcribed regions of upregulated genes including Atp6v0d2, Mmp12, Trem2 and Clec4d genes in mesenteric adipose tissue of db/db mice, as compared with db/m mice. These results suggest that di-methylation of histone H3 K4 is involved in the induction of Atp6v0d2, Mmp12, Trem2 and Clec4d in mesenteric adipose tissue in db/db mice.

© 2010 Elsevier Inc. All rights reserved.

1. Introduction

Insulin resistance induces diabetes and abnormalities in lipid metabolism by decreasing insulin sensitivity in various tissues. Diabetes in combination with insulin resistance leads to a severe diabetic condition characterized by a loss of the pancreatic β -cell insulin secretory capacity, and the accumulation of risk factors associated with complications such as cardiovascular disease, hypertension and inflammation of peripheral tissues [1,2]. Changes in adipose tissue are major factors in the development of insulin resistance. It is known that insulin resistant adipocytes secrete greater amounts of cytokines related to insulin resistance such as interleukin 6, tumor necrosis factor α , and resistin, and show reduced expression of genes related to insulin sensitivity, such as lipogenic proteins, and adipocytokines such as adiponectin [3,4]. These results indicate that insulin sensitivity (or resistance) may be determined by the expression levels of genes related to insulin sensitivity, reflecting the stage of adipocyte differentiation. It is believed that the development of insulin resistance in adipose tissue is caused by the accumulation of lifestyle risk factors in daily life, such as excess food intake, rapid eating and little physical activity.

Recent studies have shown that abrupt changes in gene expression, particularly those that frequently occur in differentiating cells, are accompanied by a major chromatin structural change that

E-mail address: kmochi@u-shizuoka-ken.ac.jp (K. Mochizuki).

is triggered by modifications of the histone tail, such as acetylation, methylation and phosphorylation [5,6]. These modifications are known as the epigenetic memory, because the acquired information is imprinted on chromatin. Among several histone modifications that have been identified, acetylation of histone H3 lysines (K) 9 and 14, acetylation of histone H4 K5/8/12/16 and methylation of histone H3 K4 are the most extensively studied, because these histone modifications are frequently involved in the regulation of transactivation of genes [7-9]. Histone H3 K4 methylation is susceptible to three types of modification, namely mono-methylation, di-methylation and tri-methylation. In particular, di- and/or trimethylation of histone K4 seems to be important for the initial activation of transcription, because di-/tri-methylation of histone H3 K4 is induced before the acetylation of histones and transactivation of genes. In turn, methylation of histone H3 K4 induces the acetylation of histones [10,11]. Several studies have shown that di-/tri-methylation of histone H3 K4 also induces the recruitment of mRNA transcription and elongation complexes onto target genes. This occurs through the binding of proteins containing plant homeodomains (PHD), chromodomains, Tudor domains or WD40 repeat domains to methylated histones [12,13]. Recent cell-based studies have demonstrated that di-methylation of histone H3 K4 on adipocyte-specific genes, such as adiponectin and GLUT4, is closely associated with induction of their expression during adipocyte differentiation [11]. However, methylation of histone H3 K4 on targeted genes in adipose tissue in vivo has not yet been reported. Similarly, it is unknown whether histone H3 K4 methylation is associated with changes in gene expression in adipose tissue from insulin resistant and/or diabetic animal models.

^{*} Corresponding author. Address: Laboratory of Nutritional Physiology, School of Food and Nutritional Sciences, The University of Shizuoka, 52-1 Yada, Shizuoka-shi, Shizuoka 422-8526, Japan. Fax: +81 54 264 5565.

In this study, we examined whether the increased expression of genes in mesenteric adipose tissue of db/db mice, which lack the leptin receptor and show the progression of diabetes from hyperinsulinemia during the insulin resistant state to hypoinsulinemia as a result of the loss of the pancreatic β -cell secretory capacity [14], are associated with enhanced histone H3 K4 methylation.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Animals

Six db/m mice and six db/db mice (6 weeks old) were purchased from Japan SLC (Hamamatsu, Japan). The mice had free access to standard laboratory diet (MF, Oriental Yeast, Tokyo, Japan) and water. They were housed in a temperature (22 ± 2 °C) and humidity-controlled room ($55 \pm 5\%$), with a 12-h light/dark cycle (lights on: 07:00-19:00 h) for 1 week. At 7 weeks of age, non-fasted db/db and db/m mice were killed by decapitation, and blood and mesenteric adipose tissue were collected. The experimental procedures used in the present study conformed to the guidelines of the Animal Usage Committee of the University of Shizuoka.

2.2. Blood biochemical parameters

Serum levels of glucose, triglycerides and free fatty acids (FFAs) were determined using commercial kits (Wako Pure Chemical Industries, Osaka, Japan). The serum insulin concentration was determined using a mouse insulin enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (Shibayagi, Gunma, Japan). The body weights of all mice were measured just before decapitation.

2.3. Microarray analysis of mesenteric adipose tissue

Total RNA was extracted from the mesenteric adipose tissue of all mice using an RNeasy kit (Qiagen/BD, Tokyo, Japan). For microarray analyses, we used total RNA extracts from the mesenteric adipose tissue of four db/db mice and three db/m mice at the age of 7 weeks, which were randomly selected. Aliquots containing 100 ng of total RNA were individually converted to cRNAs and labeled with biotin using a Whole Transcript (WT) Sense Target Labeling kit (Affymetrix, Tokyo, Japan) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Next, aliquots containing $10\,\mu g$ of biotin-labeled cRNA were separately hybridized to a mouse Exon 1.0ST array (Affymetrix) according to the manufacturer's protocol. After washing, the microarray plates were analyzed with a GeneChip Scanner 3000 (Affymetrix). Data analysis was performed using the GeneChip operating system (GCOS; Affymetrix), Partec (Ryoka Systems, Tokyo, Japan) and Excel (Microsoft). Variable spots detected by an algorithm in Partec software in both plates were defined as non-expressed genes and removed accordingly. The biotin-labeled signals were normalized by the global median normalization method based on the GCOS algorithm. Biologically variable spots with P-values of >0.05, as determined by unpaired Student's *t*-tests, between the db/db mice and the db/m mice were also removed. Data are represented by base 2 logarithms.

2.4. Real-time RT-PCR

Real-time RT-PCR was performed in mesenteric adipose tissue of six db/db mice and six db/m mice. Total RNA samples (200 ng) were converted to cDNAs by reverse transcription using Super-ScriptTM III RT (Invitrogen, Tokyo, Japan) according to the manu-

facturer's instructions. PCR amplification was performed using a Light-Cycler instrument (Roche Molecular Biochemicals, Tokyo) using SYBR Premix Ex Taq (Takara, Shiga, Japan), as previously described [15] to quantify the mRNA expression levels of the selected genes. The PCR primer sequences are listed in Supplementary Table 1 The cycle threshold (CT) values of each gene and the *Yy1* gene determined by real-time RT-PCR were converted to signal intensities by the delta-delta method [16], which calculates the difference for one CT value as a 2-fold difference between the signal for each gene and the signal for a normalization gene (i.e., *Yy1*). The formula used was [2^(CT each gene-CT Yy1)].

2.5. Chromatin immunoprecipitation (ChIP) assay

Mesenteric adipose tissue was scraped by a glass slide and incubated in fixation solution (1% formaldehyde, 4.5 mM HEPES pH 8.0. 9 mM NaCl, 0.09 mM EDTA and 0.04 mM EGTA) in 10% FBS/DMEM for 30 min at 37 °C. The reaction was terminated by the addition of glycine to a final concentration of 150 mM. After washing the samples in FACS solution ($1 \times PBS(-)$, 2% bovine serum, 0.05% NaN₃), they were sonicated in SDS lysis buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.0, 10 mM EDTA pH 8.0, 1% SDS) with protease inhibitors (1 tablet/ 10 mL; Complete Mini, Roche, Tokyo, Japan) in a condition where the DNA size of samples was 200-500 bp. ChIP assays were performed, as previously described [17], using 2 µg of each specific antibody, i.e., anti-mono-methyl-histone H3 K4 antibody (Millipore, Tokyo, Japan), anti-di-methyl-histone H3 K4 antibody (Millipore), anti-tri-methyl-histone H3 K4 antibody (Millipore), or normal rabbit IgG. The precipitated DNA was subjected to realtime PCR using primers corresponding to the indicated sites in the promoter/enhancer and the transcribed sites (Supplementary Table 2). The CT values of the ChIP signals detected by real-time PCR were converted to the percentage of the ChIP signal for the input DNA, which was calculated by the delta-delta method [16], using the formula $100 \times [2^{(CT\ IP\ sample-CT\ input)}]$.

2.6. Statistical analysis

All data are expressed as means \pm SEM. Student's t-test was used to determine significant differences between the two groups. Values of P < 0.05 were considered to indicate statistical significance.

3. Results

3.1. Comparison of blood biochemical parameters between 7-week-old db/m and db/db mice

Body weight and mesenteric adipose tissue weight were significantly greater in db/db mice than in db/m mice. Furthermore, the serum glucose and insulin concentrations were greater in db/db mice than in db/m mice. No significant differences were observed

Table 1 Body weight and blood biochemical parameters in db/db mice and db/m mice.

	db/m	db/db
Body weight (g)	24.3 ± 0.4	33.2 ± 0.8**
Mesenteric adipose tissue (g)	0.31 ± 0.01	$0.92 \pm 0.04^{**}$
Serum glucose (mg/dl)	188 ± 7	492 ± 24**
Serum insulin (ng/ml)	<1.0	7.5 ± 1.4
Serum triglycerides (mg/dl)	158.5 ± 12.2	372.4 ± 50.1
Serum FFA (mEq/l)	2.35 ± 0.26	3.73 ± 0.64

Values are expressed as means ± SEM for 6 animals.

^{**} P < 0.01; Significantly different from db/m mice (Student's t-test).

in fasting serum triglyceride or free fatty acid concentrations between db/m and db/db mice (Table 1).

3.2. Comparison of gene expression profiles in mesenteric adipose tissue between db/db and db/m mice by microarray analyses

To examine whether gene expression in mesenteric adipose tissue differed between db/m mice and db/db mice, we performed microarrays using total RNAs extracted from mesenteric adipose tissues of db/m mice and db/db mice. When the differences in signals in the microarray between db/m mice and db/db mice were greater than 1 or less than -1 after \log_2 transformation, and when they were proved to be significant by unpaired Student's t-test (P < 0.05), the gene signals were subjected to further analyses. Among the 16.661 gene signals detected in the microarray, 104 were upregulated (1.13%), and 10 were downregulated (0.37%) in the mesenteric adipose tissue of db/db mice, when compared with those of db/m mice (Supplementary Tables 3 and 4). The upregulated and downregulated genes identified in the mesenteric adipose tissue of db/db mice were classified into eight groups based on their functions, namely signal transduction/transcription, metabolism, immune response, structural protein, transcription/ chromatin, protein degradation, transporters, and others.

Among the 104 upregulated genes, we selected 13 genes showing \log_2 increases >2 on microarray data, and these genes, except for one gene classified in 'others', were tested by real-time RT-PCR. Real-time RT-PCR showed that the mRNA levels of Atp6v0d2 (ATPase, H+ transporting, lysosomal V0 subunit D2) (7.5-fold, P < 0.01), Mmp12 (Matrix metallopeptidase 12) (59.8-fold, P < 0.01), Gpnmb [Glycoprotein (transmembrane) nmb] (11.6-fold, P < 0.01), Slc5a7 [Solute carrier family 5 (choline transporter), member 7] (10.4-fold, P < 0.05), Lcn2 (Lipocalin 2) (6.9-fold,

P < 0.05), Lep (Leptin) (4.4-fold, P < 0.05), C3ar1 (Complement component 3a receptor 1) (2.5-fold, P < 0.01), Saa3 (Serum amyloid A 3) (4.1-fold, P < 0.01), Trem2 (Triggering receptor expressed on myeloid cells 2) (11.2-fold, P < 0.01) and Clec4d (C-type lectin domain family 4, member d) (14.6-fold, P < 0.01) were significantly elevated in db/db mice as compared with db/m mice. The mRNA levels of Atf3 (Activating transcription factor 3) and Serpine1 [Serine (or cysteine) peptidase inhibitor, clade E, member1] were not significantly different between the two groups, but tended to be greater in db/db mice than in db/m mice (Fig. 1).

3.3. Di-methylation of histone H3 K4 on upregulated genes in mesenteric adipose tissue of db/db and db/m mice

To investigate whether methylation of histone H3 K4 are associated with increased gene expression in the mesenteric adipose tissue of db/db mice compared with db/m mice. ChIP assays were performed for the selected genes using antibodies for mono-, di-, and tri-methylated histone H3 K4. We investigated methylation of histone H3 K4 on the promoter/enhancer and transcribed regions of Atp6v0d2, Mmp12, Gpnmb, Trem2 and Clec4d genes, which showed 5-fold greater expression (all P < 0.01) by real-time RT-PCR in db/db mice than in db/m mice. The ChIP signals for normal rabbit IgG were <0.2% per input. The ChIP signals for di-methylation of histone H3 K4 at +1000 bp of Atp6v0d2, at -2000 bp, -1000 bp, +1000 bp, +2000 bp and over 2000 bp of Mmp12, +2000 bp and over 2000 bp of Trem2 and all regions of Clec4d, except for over 2000 bp, were significantly greater in db/db mice than in db/mmice. For Gpnmb, the ChIP signal at +0 bp was significantly lower in db/db mice than in db/m mice (Fig. 2). The ChIP signals for monoand tri-methylation of histone H3 K4 on these genes were not significantly different from the IgG signals (data not shown).

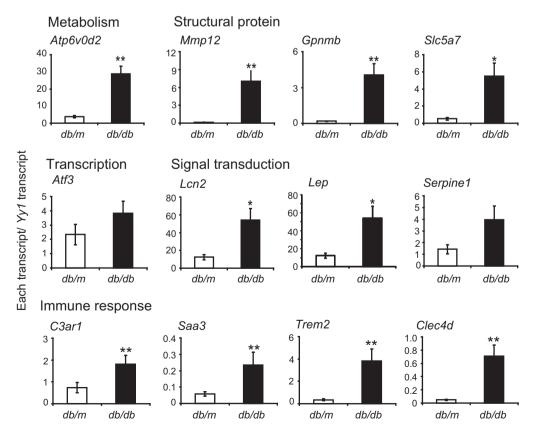


Fig. 1. Quantitative RT-PCR analyses of upregulated genes in db/db and db/m mice. The results for each sample were normalized by the corresponding Yy1 mRNA abundance. The data are means \pm SEM for 6 animals. *P < 0.05, **P < 0.01, versus db/m mice (Student's t-test).

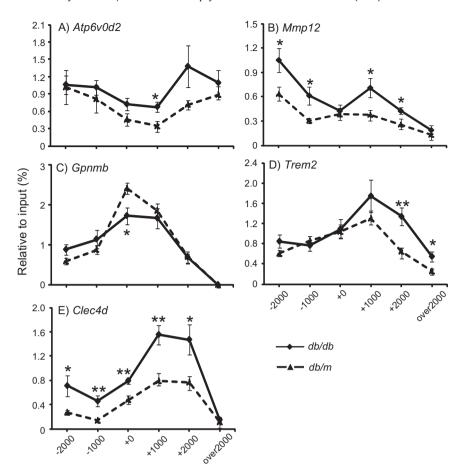


Fig. 2. Di-methylation of histone H3 K4 on upregulated genes in mesenteric adipose tissue of db/db and db/m mice. ChIP signals were detected by quantitative real-time PCR following immunoprecipitation of di-methylated histone H3 K4 on the promoter/enhancer and transcribed regions of the Atp6v0d2, Amp12, A

4. Discussion

In this study, we found that the expression of many genes related to metabolism, structural proteins, signal transduction and the immune response was higher in the mesenteric adipose tissue of db/db mice than in db/m mice (Fig. 1 and Supplementary Table 3). In fact, over 40% of the proteins coded by these genes are involved in either signal transduction (20.2%) or immune responses (22.1%). For example, two of the upregulated genes identified in this study, Clec4d (14.5-fold by real-time RT-PCR, P < 0.01) and Tlr8 (Toll-like receptor 8) (2.3-fold by real-time RT-PCR, P < 0.05), are considered to be localized on the surface or within leukocytes, and may have vital roles in killing bacteria/viruses by binding to the substances produced by bacteria/virus, such as C-type lectin, C-type mannose and nucleic acid [18,19]. The protein coded by Cd68 (CD68 antigen) (2.2-fold by real-time RT-PCR, P < 0.05), which is specifically expressed in monocytes and macrophages, binds to low-density lipoprotein [20]. These results suggest that macrophage infiltration into mesenteric adipose tissue could occur in db/db mice at 7 weeks of age. These results are consistent with the concept that insulin resistance and diabetes induce macrophage infiltration [21]. Furthermore, we found that the expression of *Atp6v0d2*, which codes an enzyme for the activation of electron transport chain in mitochondria, was upregulated (7.5-fold by real-time RT-PCR, P < 0.01) in db/db mice. It has been reported that upregulation of genes related to the electron transport chain is associated with an increased production of reactive oxygen species, as well as elevated insulin resistance in adipose tissue [22]. In addition, we have demonstrated that many structural proteins were upregulated in db/db mice. The proteins coded by Col81a (procollagen, type VIII, alpha 1), Fbln (fibulin)-2 and Fbln5 (Supplementary Table 3) are present in the extracellular matrix, while the protein coded by Acta1 (Actin, alpha 1, skeletal muscle) is a component of the intracellular cytoskeleton. In addition, we have shown that the expression of Mmp12, which codes a protease that digests proteins in the extracellular matrix and participates in cell remodeling, needed to change in adipocytes during their transition from smaller size adipocytes (i.e., non-obese adipocytes) to those with a larger size (i.e., obese adipocytes) [23,24]. In the present study, we also found that the expression of this gene was much higher (59.8-fold by real-time RT-PCR, P < 0.01) in db/db mice than in db/m mice. It is known that the shape of adipocytes changes in the transition from an insulin sensitive phenotype to an insulin resistant phenotype. Indeed, we have demonstrated that the weight of mesenteric adipose tissue was significantly greater in db/db mice than in db/m mice (Table 1). Thus, the induction of these structural proteins could be due to adipose tissue remodeling from the non-obese phenotype to the obese phenotype, and/or from the insulin sensitive phenotype to the insulin resistant phenotype.

Interestingly, we found that di-methylation of histone H3 K4 in mesenteric adipose tissues of db/m mice and db/db mice was abundant in the promoter/enhancer and/or transcribed regions of Atp6v0d2, Mmp12, Trem2 and Clec4d genes. To our knowledge this is the first report showing methylation of histone H3 K4 on genes in adipose tissue $in\ vivo$. Previous studies have suggested that the expression of genes in cultured adipocytes (3T3-L1 adipocytes) is closely associated with di-methylation, but less so with

mono- and tri-methylation, of histone H3 K4 on adipocyte-specific genes [11,25]. Our results, together with these of previous reports, indicate that di-methylation of histone H3 K4 is important for the induction of gene expression in adipocytes. Furthermore, we have demonstrated that di-methylation of histone H3 K4 in the promoter/enhancer and/or transcribed region of Atp6v0d2, Mmp12, Trem2 and Clec4d genes in mesenteric adipose tissues was more pronounced in db/db mice than in db/m mice. These results suggest that enhanced histone H3 K4 di-methylation on these genes is closely associated with the induction of gene expression in mesenteric adipose tissue of db/db mice. These results also indicate that information associated with excess eating, development of insulin resistance and diabetes are written on histone H3 K4 of these genes as di-methylated histone H3 K4. It should be noted that dimethylation of histone H3 K4 on the Gpnmb gene was not lower in db/db mice than in db/m mice. These results indicate that other histone modifications may be associated with changes in the expression of the Gpnmb gene. Other modifications on genes upregulated in db/db mice, including Gpnmb, should be examined.

The signals responsible for changes in the di-methylation of histone H3 K4 on the Atp6v0d2, Mmp12, Trem2 and Clec4d genes in mesenteric adipose tissue of db/db mice remain unknown. A recent study showed that transient exposure of vascular cells to high glucose induces mono-methylation of histone H3 K4 on the proximal promoter region of NFκB-target genes, which was followed by the induction of the P65, Mcp1 and Vcam1 genes, along with recruitment of histone methyltransferase Set 7/9 on the promoter region of these NFkB-target genes [26], although di- and tri-methylation was not clearly detected. Studies need to identify the signals and molecular mechanisms responsible for the di-methylation of histone H3 K4 on the Atp6v0d2, Mmp12, Trem2 and Clec4d genes in mesenteric adipose tissue of db/db mice. In addition, further studies should seek direct evidence for the associations between histone H3 K4 methylation in the upregulated genes in the mesenteric adipose tissue of db/db mice and the development/progression of diabetes and its complications.

In conclusion, the results of this study suggest that increased expression of the *Atp6v0d2*, *Mmp12*, *Trem2* and *Clec4d* genes in mesenteric adipose tissue of *db/db* mice is closely associated with di-methylation of histone H3 K4 on the genes. To our knowledge, this is the first report showing increased histone modification on genes in adipose tissues of diabetic compared with non-diabetic animals.

Acknowledgments

This work was supported by Grants-in-Aid for Scientific Research (20590233) and Young Scientists (22680054) from the Ministry of Education, Science, Sports and Culture of Japan, the Global COE program, the Center of Excellence for Innovation in Human Health Sciences, a grant from the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology of Japan and a grant from The Naito Foundation.

Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found, in the online version, at doi:10.1016/j.bbrc.2010.11.097.

References

 D. Giugliano, A. Ceriello, K. Esposito, Glucose metabolism and hyperglycemia, Am. J. Clin. Nutr. 87 (2008) 217S-222S.

- [2] E. Bonora, Postprandial peaks as a risk factor for cardiovascular disease: epidemiological perspectives, Int. J. Clin. Pract. Suppl. (2002) 5–11.
- [3] Y. Matsuzawa, T. Funahashi, S. Kihara, I. Shimomura, Adiponectin and metabolic syndrome, Arterioscler. Thromb. Vasc. Biol. 24 (2004) 29–33.
- [4] B. Antuna-Puente, B. Feve, S. Fellahi, J.P. Bastard, Obesity, inflammation and insulin resistance. Which role for adipokines, Therapie 62 (2007) 285–292.
- [5] J.C. Rice, S.D. Briggs, B. Ueberheide, C.M. Barber, J. Shabanowitz, D.F. Hunt, Y. Shinkai, C.D. Allis, Histone methyltransferases direct different degrees of methylation to define distinct chromatin domains, Mol. Cell 12 (2003) 1591–1598.
- [6] D. Schubeler, D.M. MacAlpine, D. Scalzo, C. Wirbelauer, C. Kooperberg, F. van Leeuwen, D.E. Gottschling, L.P. O'Neill, B.M. Turner, J. Delrow, S.P. Bell, M. Groudine, The histone modification pattern of active genes revealed through genome-wide chromatin analysis of a higher eukaryote, Genes Dev. 18 (2004) 1263–1271.
- [7] C. Yan, D.D. Boyd, Histone H3 acetylation and H3 K4 methylation define distinct chromatin regions permissive for transgene expression, Mol. Cell. Biol. 26 (2006) 6357–6371.
- [8] T.Y. Roh, S. Cuddapah, K. Zhao, Active chromatin domains are defined by acetylation islands revealed by genome-wide mapping, Genes Dev. 19 (2005) 542–552
- [9] W. Lin, S.Y. Dent, Functions of histone-modifying enzymes in development, Curr. Opin. Genet. Dev. 16 (2006) 137–142.
- [10] H. Wang, R. Cao, L. Xia, H. Erdjument-Bromage, C. Borchers, P. Tempst, Y. Zhang, Purification and functional characterization of a histone H3-lysine 4-specific methyltransferase, Mol. Cell 8 (2001) 1207–1217.
- [11] M.M. Musri, H. Corominola, R. Casamitjana, R. Gomis, M. Parrizas, Histone H3 lysine 4 dimethylation signals the transcriptional competence of the adiponectin promoter in preadipocytes, J. Biol. Chem. 281 (2006) 17180-17188
- [12] R.J. Sims 3rd, D. Reinberg, Histone H3 Lys 4 methylation: caught in a bind?, Genes Dev 20 (2006) 2779–2786.
- [13] J. Wysocka, T. Swigut, H. Xiao, T.A. Milne, S.Y. Kwon, J. Landry, M. Kauer, A.J. Tackett, B.T. Chait, P. Badenhorst, C. Wu, C.D. Allis, A PHD finger of NURF couples histone H3 lysine 4 trimethylation with chromatin remodelling, Nature 442 (2006) 86–90.
- [14] H. Ishida, M. Takizawa, S. Ozawa, Y. Nakamichi, S. Yamaguchi, H. Katsuta, T. Tanaka, M. Maruyama, H. Katahira, K. Yoshimoto, E. Itagaki, S. Nagamatsu, Pioglitazone improves insulin secretory capacity and prevents the loss of β-cell mass in obese diabetic db/db mice: possible protection of beta cells from oxidative stress, Metabolism 53 (2004) 488–494.
- [15] S. Fujimoto, K. Mochizuki, M. Shimada, Y. Murayama, T. Goda, Variation in gene expression of inflammatory cytokines in leukocyte-derived cells of highfat-diet-induced insulin-resistant rats, Biosci. Biotechnol. Biochem. 72 (2008) 2572–2579.
- [16] K.J. Livak, T.D. Schmittgen, Analysis of relative gene expression data using realtime quantitative PCR and the 2(-Delta Delta C(T)) method, Methods 25 (2001) 402–408.
- [17] K. Honma, K. Mochizuki, T. Goda, Carbohydrate/fat ratio in the diet alters histone acetylation on the sucrase-isomaltase gene and its expression in mouse small intestine, Biochem. Biophys. Res. Commun. 357 (2007) 1124– 1129.
- [18] I. Arce, L. Martinez-Munoz, P. Roda-Navarro, E. Fernandez-Ruiz, The human C-type lectin CLECSF8 is a novel monocyte/macrophage endocytic receptor, Eur. J. Immunol. 34 (2004) 210–220.
- [19] Z. Chen, G. Ma, Q. Qian, Y. Yao, Y. Feng, C. Tang, Toll-like receptor 8 polymorphism and coronary artery disease, Mol. Biol. Rep. 36 (2009) 1897– 1901
- [20] D. O'Reilly, C.M. Quinn, T. El-Shanawany, S. Gordon, D.R. Greaves, Multiple Ets factors and interferon regulatory factor-4 modulate CD68 expression in a cell type-specific manner. J. Biol. Chem. 278 (2003) 21909–21919.
- [21] V. Bourlier, A. Bouloumie, Role of macrophage tissue infiltration in obesity and insulin resistance, Diabetes Metab. 35 (2009) 251–260.
- [22] C. Pietrement, G.H. Sun-Wada, N.D. Silva, M. McKee, V. Marshansky, D. Brown, M. Futai, S. Breton, Distinct expression patterns of different subunit isoforms of the V-ATPase in the rat epididymis. Biol. Reprod. 74 (2006) 185–194.
- [23] A. O'Hara, F.L. Lim, D.J. Mazzatti, P. Trayhurn, Microarray analysis identifies matrix metalloproteinases (MMPs) as key genes whose expression is upregulated in human adipocytes by macrophage-conditioned medium, Pflugers Arch. 458 (2009) 1103–1114.
- [24] C. Chavey, B. Mari, M.N. Monthouel, S. Bonnafous, P. Anglard, E. Van Obberghen, S. Tartare-Deckert, Matrix metalloproteinases are differentially expressed in adipose tissue during obesity and modulate adipocyte differentiation, J. Biol. Chem. 278 (2003) 11888-11896.
- [25] D.J. Steger, G.R. Grant, M. Schupp, T. Tomaru, M.I. Lefterova, J. Schug, E. Manduchi, C.J. Stoeckert Jr., M.A. Lazar, Propagation of adipogenic signals through an epigenomic transition state, Genes Dev. 24 (2010) 1035–1044.
- [26] A. El-Osta, D. Brasacchio, D. Yao, A. Pocai, P.L. Jones, R.G. Roeder, M.E. Cooper, M. Brownlee, Transient high glucose causes persistent epigenetic changes and altered gene expression during subsequent normoglycemia, J. Exp. Med. 205 (2008) 2409–2417.