

Prevention of Obesity and Insulin Resistance in Mice Lacking Plasminogen Activator Inhibitor 1

Li-Jun Ma,¹ Su-Li Mao,¹ Kevin L. Taylor,¹ Talerngsak Kanjanabuch,¹ YouFei Guan,² YaHua Zhang,² Nancy J. Brown,² Larry L. Swift,¹ Owen P. McGuinness,³ David H. Wasserman,³ Douglas E. Vaughan,² and Agnes B. Fogo¹

Increased plasminogen activator inhibitor 1 (PAI-1) has been linked to not only thrombosis and fibrosis but also to obesity and insulin resistance. Increased PAI-1 levels have been presumed to be consequent to obesity. We investigated the interrelationships of PAI-1, obesity, and insulin resistance in a high-fat/high-carbohydrate (HF) diet-induced obesity model in wild-type (WT) and PAI-1-deficient mice (PAI-1^{-/-}). Obesity and insulin resistance developing in WT mice on an HF diet were completely prevented in mice lacking PAI-1. PAI-1^{-/-} mice on an HF diet had increased resting metabolic rates and total energy expenditure compared with WT mice, along with a marked increase in uncoupling protein 3 mRNA expression in skeletal muscle, likely mechanisms contributing to the prevention of obesity. In addition, insulin sensitivity was enhanced significantly in PAI-1^{-/-} mice on an HF diet, as shown by euglycemic-hyperinsulinemic clamp studies. Peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor (PPAR)- γ and adiponectin mRNA, key control molecules in lipid metabolism and insulin sensitivity, were maintained in response to an HF diet in white adipose tissue in PAI-1^{-/-} mice, contrasting with downregulation in WT mice. This maintenance of PPAR- γ and adiponectin may also contribute to the observed maintenance of body weight and insulin sensitivity in PAI-1^{-/-} mice. Treatment in WT mice on an HF diet with the angiotensin type 1 receptor antagonist to downregulate PAI-1 indeed inhibited PAI-1 increases and ameliorated diet-induced obesity, hyperglycemia, and hyperinsulinemia. PAI-1 deficiency also enhanced basal and insulin-stimulated glucose uptake in adipose cells in vitro. Our data suggest that PAI-1 may not merely increase in response to obesity and insulin resistance, but may have a direct causal role in obesity and insulin resistance. Inhibition of PAI-1 might provide a novel anti-obesity and anti-insulin resistance treatment. *Diabetes* 53:336–346, 2004

From the ¹Department of Pathology, Vanderbilt University Medical Center, Nashville, Tennessee; the ²Department of Medicine, Vanderbilt University Medical Center, Nashville, Tennessee; and the ³Department of Molecular Physiology and Biophysics, Vanderbilt University Medical Center, Nashville, Tennessee.

Address correspondence and reprint requests to Agnes B. Fogo, MD, MCN C3310, Department of Pathology, Vanderbilt University Medical Center, 21st and Garland Ave., Nashville, TN 37232-2561. E-mail: agnes.fogo@vanderbilt.edu.

Received for publication 19 June 2003 and accepted in revised form 29 October 2003.

AT1RA, angiotensin type 1 receptor antagonist; ECM, extracellular matrix; HF, high fat/high carbohydrate; KRP, Krebs-Ringer phosphate; PAI-1, plasminogen activator inhibitor 1; PPAR, peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor; RAS, renin-angiotensin system; UCP, uncoupling protein.

© 2004 by the American Diabetes Association.

Obesity is reaching epidemic proportions worldwide. More than half of the adults in the U.S. are overweight or obese (1). Obesity is a strong risk factor for the development of insulin resistance and type 2 diabetes (2). Type 2 diabetes affects ~17 million adults in the U.S. with increased morbidity and mortality due to increased micro- and macrovascular complications (3,4). Aggressive intervention in the early course of the disease can decrease many of the above consequences. Importantly, the prevalence of obesity-related disorders emphasizes the need for concerted efforts to prevent obesity rather than just treatment of its associated diseases.

Although environmental factors play a role in the development of type 2 diabetes, there are also significant genetic risks. Plasminogen activator inhibitor 1 (PAI-1) is the primary physiological inhibitor of tissue-type plasminogen activator and urokinase-like plasminogen activator and inhibits both fibrinolysis and proteolysis (5,6). Increased PAI-1 has been linked to not only thrombosis and fibrosis but also insulin resistance. Circulating PAI-1 levels in humans are increased in obesity and the insulin resistance syndrome and correlate strongly with the degree of insulinemia (7–12). For the last decade, the role of adipose tissue, an endocrine organ, in the development of obesity and insulin resistance has attracted attention. Adipose tissue produces and secretes a large number of hormones, cytokines, and proteins that affect glucose homeostasis and insulin sensitivity, including tumor necrosis factor- α , PAI-1, leptin, peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor (PPAR)- γ , resistin, and adiponectin (13–15). PAI-1 is overexpressed in adipose tissue of obese mice and humans (16,17), and adipose tissue itself may directly contribute to the elevated PAI-1 levels. Obese mice, humans with type 2 diabetes (18–20), and even the offspring of patients with type 2 diabetes (21) have elevated plasma PAI-1. Thus, the elevated PAI-1 associated with obesity has been considered to be a consequence of obesity and to be a marker of risk of type 2 diabetes (22).

PAI-1 is induced both in vitro and in vivo by angiotensin via the angiotensin type 1 receptor (23,24), and high levels are decreased by angiotensin inhibition (25). Adipose tissue itself is an important source of not only PAI-1, but also angiotensinogen. Obesity results in increased activity and/or expression of genes of the renin-angiotensin system (RAS) in adipocytes (26–28). In turn, activated RAS and

increased insulin in obese and hyperinsulinemic states may further upregulate PAI-1 expression in adipocytes (29,30), mainly mediated through the angiotensin type 1 receptor (31).

Effects of modification of PAI-1, through genetic knock-out or overexpression of PAI-1, on the development of obesity have been reported, but with controversial results (32–34). We hypothesized that PAI-1 is not merely a product of obesity, but contributes to obesity and insulin resistance. We therefore studied a high-fat/high-carbohydrate (HF) diet-induced model of obesity and insulin resistance in wild-type (WT) and PAI-1^{-/-} mice on a C57BL/6 background. Our findings show that PAI-1^{-/-} mice were protected from obesity and insulin resistance in response to the HF diet. Inhibition of PAI-1 might provide a novel anti-obesity and anti-diabetes treatment and thus has marked beneficial effects on both obesity and type 2 diabetes.

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODS

Mice. Adult (10-week-old) male PAI-1-deficient mice (PAI-1^{-/-}) on a C57BL/6J background and C57BL/6J wild-type (WT) mice were purchased from The Jackson Laboratory (Bar Harbor, ME). Mice were housed in a pathogen-free barrier facility (12-h light/12-h dark cycle). Mice were placed on either a normal chow (Purina Rodent “5001” meal, 23.4% protein, 4.5% fat, 6.0% fiber, 0.40% sodium; Tusculum Feed Center, Nashville, TN) or an HF diet for 12 weeks (Diet F1850; Bioserv Industries, Frenchtown, NJ) in which 58% of total calories are derived from fat and 27% of total calories are from carbohydrate. This diet has been shown to induce obesity, hyperglycemia, and insulin resistance in C57BL/6 mice (35). One additional group of WT mice was given both an HF diet and angiotensin type 1 receptor antagonist (AT1RA) (losartan, 80 mg/l drinking water) for 12 weeks. The dose chosen for AT1RA was found to be effective in treating sclerosis and inhibiting PAI-1 in rats (25,36). Groups of mice were killed under anesthesia with sodium pentobarbital (50 mg/kg body wt i.p.) at baseline (baseline control), 1 week, or 12 weeks after initiation of study (10, 11, and 22 weeks of age, respectively). White adipose tissue (obtained from epididymal fat pads), skeletal muscle (a mix of soleus, gastrocnemius, and vastus lateralis), heart, liver, and kidney were harvested for molecular analysis. Food intake was weighed daily, and body weights were measured every 2 weeks. Metabolic studies were performed as indicated below. All animal protocols were approved by the Vanderbilt University Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee.

Blood and plasma measurements. Blood glucose and plasma measurements were done 6 h after daytime food withdrawal at 0, 4, 8, and 12 weeks. Fasting glucose levels were determined using an Accu-Check glucose monitor (Roche Diagnostics, Boehringer Mannheim, Indianapolis, IN). Fasting plasma insulin and leptin were measured by radioimmunoassay (Linco Research, St. Louis, MO). Active plasma PAI-1 was assessed with an enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay kit specific for active murine PAI-1 (MPAIKT; Molecular Innovations).

Tissue and serum lipid analysis. Triglycerides in tissues were determined by chromatography after extraction of lipids with chloroform and methanol (37,38). Serum triglycerides were measured using an enzymatic assay adapted to microtiter plates (Raicham, San Diego, CA)

Euglycemic-hyperinsulinemic clamp studies. The euglycemic-hyperinsulinemic clamp studies were performed as described previously (39) at 12 weeks after an HF diet in chronically catheterized conscious mice in the Mouse Metabolic Phenotyping Center at Vanderbilt University Medical Center. Briefly, catheterization of the jugular vein and carotid artery was carried out 7 days before study. Each animal was fasted for 6 h on the morning of the experiment. After basal sampling at time 0, insulin was continuously infused at 4 mU · kg⁻¹ · min⁻¹ for the duration of the 2-h study. Blood glucose levels were measured from 8 μ l blood every 5–10 min using a Hemocue glucose analyzer. Glucose was infused at a variable rate to maintain clamped blood glucose levels at 140 mg/dl.

Body temperature. Temperature of mice at baseline and 12 weeks after an HF diet was measured with a rectal thermometer at a depth of 1.5 cm (Yellow Springs Instruments, Yellow Springs, OH).

Indirect calorimetry. Oxygen consumption (V_{O_2}) and the respiratory exchange ratio were measured by an OxyMax indirect calorimeter (Columbus Instruments, Columbus, OH) with an air flow of 0.75 l/min. V_{O_2} is expressed as the volume of O_2 consumed per kilogram^{0.75} body weight per hour. After 1 h,

to allow for adaptation to the metabolic chamber, V_{O_2} was measured, starting at 10:00 A.M., in individual mice for 1 min at 15-min intervals for a total of 22 h under a consistent environmental temperature (22°C). The respiratory exchange ratio is the ratio of the volume of CO_2 produced to the volume of O_2 consumed. Energy expenditure was calculated as $EE = (3.815 + 1.232 \times V_{CO_2}/V_{O_2}) \times V_{O_2}$ (40). Mice ambulatory activity was simultaneously estimated by the number of laser beams broken in both X and Y directions.

Northern blot analysis. A 388-bp cDNA probe for uncoupling protein (UCP)-3 (GenBank accession number AF019883) was generated from total murine skeletal muscle RNA by RT-PCR with the specific primers 5'-CAACG GTTGTGAAGTCTCTG-3' (forward) and 5'-AATCGGACCTTACCAC-ATC-3' (reverse) (41). Northern blot experiments were done as previously described (25) with the following probes: mouse PAI-1 (365 bp), PPAR- γ (280 bp), adiponectin (780 bp, provided by Dr. Harvey Lodish, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Boston, MA), UCP-1, and UCP-2 (provided by Dr. Se-Jin Lee, Johns Hopkins University School of Medicine, Baltimore, MD). The ratio of specific message to the housekeeping gene GAPDH mRNA or 28S rRNA was used to quantify expression for each tissue sample.

Real-time quantitative PCR. Total RNA preparation and the RT reaction were carried out as described previously (42). PCRs were performed using an ABI PRISM 7700 sequence detection system instrument and software (PE Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA). The primer sequences for the mouse adiponectin genes were as follows: 5'-TGTGGAATGACAGGAGCTGAA-3' (forward) and 5'-CACACTGAAGCCTGAGCGA-TAC-3' (reverse). The TaqMan probe for adiponectin (5'-CATAAGCGGCTTCTCCAGGCTCTCCT-3') was labeled at the 5' end with the reporter dye FAM and at the 3' end with the quencher TAMRA. RNA samples were normalized to the level of 18S rRNA (Applied Biosystems). The probe for 18S rRNA was labeled with VIC (reporter dye) and TAMRA (quencher dye).

Isolation and culture of adipose cells. Isolated white adipose cells were obtained from 4-week-old male C57BL/6J WT or PAI-1^{-/-} mice as previously described (43,44). Briefly, epididymal fat pads were dissected, minced, and digested using collagenase type I (Sigma, St. Louis, MO) in Krebs-Ringer HEPES buffer supplemented with 20 mg/ml BSA at 37°C for 2 h. Preadipocytes were isolated and cultured in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium containing 15 mmol/l NaHCO₃, 15 mmol/l HEPES, 33 μ mol/l biotin, 17 μ mol/l pantothenate, 0.5 μ mol/l human insulin, and 0.2 nmol/l triiodothyronine. Differentiation of preadipocytes to adipocytes was induced by addition of a hormonal cocktail (1 μ g/ml insulin, 0.25 μ mol/l dexamethasone, and 0.5 mmol/l isobutylmethylxanthine) and confirmed morphologically by multiple oil red O-stained fat droplets in the cytoplasm (45).

Analysis of adipocyte size. Histological sections of epididymal fat pads from WT and PAI-1^{-/-} mice were stained with hematoxylin and eosin and studied under 200 \times magnification to compare adipocyte size.

Glucose uptake. 2-Deoxyglucose uptake was measured (46). Primary mouse WT and PAI-1^{-/-} adipocytes (day 10 after differentiation) in six-well plates were cultured overnight in 10% fetal serum–Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium with low glucose (1 g/l). After Krebs-Ringer phosphate (KRP) buffer wash (containing 136 mmol/l NaCl, 4.7 mmol/l KCl, 1 mmol/l CaCl₂, 1 mmol/l MgSO₄, 5 mmol/l sodium pyrophosphate, 20 mmol/l HEPES, and 1% BSA), cells were incubated with 1 ml KRP buffer at 37°C for 20 min in the presence or absence of insulin (10 nmol/l). [³H]-deoxyglucose was added for a final concentration of 0.1 mmol/l (23.70 Ci/mmol, Perkin Elmer Life Sciences, Boston, MA) and incubated for 10 min at 37°C. The cells were washed with cold KRP buffer and solubilized in 0.1% SDS. The radioactivity of a 200- μ l aliquot was determined in a scintillation counter. Glucose uptake was expressed as the fold increase compared with WT baseline after protein concentration was normalized in each sample.

Statistical analysis. Continuous data are expressed as means \pm SE. Differences between the groups were tested using ANOVA. Overall differences in the euglycemic-hyperinsulinemic clamp study and oxygen consumption study between PAI-1^{-/-} and WT were analyzed using the restricted/residual maximum likelihood–based mixed effect model to adjust for the intracorrelation effect for the mice that had multiple results across different time points. A *P* value <0.05 was considered significant.

RESULTS

PAI-1^{-/-} mice are protected from diet-induced obesity. When fed with normal chow, PAI-1^{-/-} and WT mice gained weight similarly (Fig. 1A). In response to an HF diet, WT mice gained more weight from 4 to 12 weeks, whereas the body weight of PAI-1^{-/-} mice on an HF diet was indistinguishable from that of PAI-1^{-/-} mice on normal chow (at 12 weeks: PAI-1^{-/-} + HF 32.1 \pm 1.0 vs.

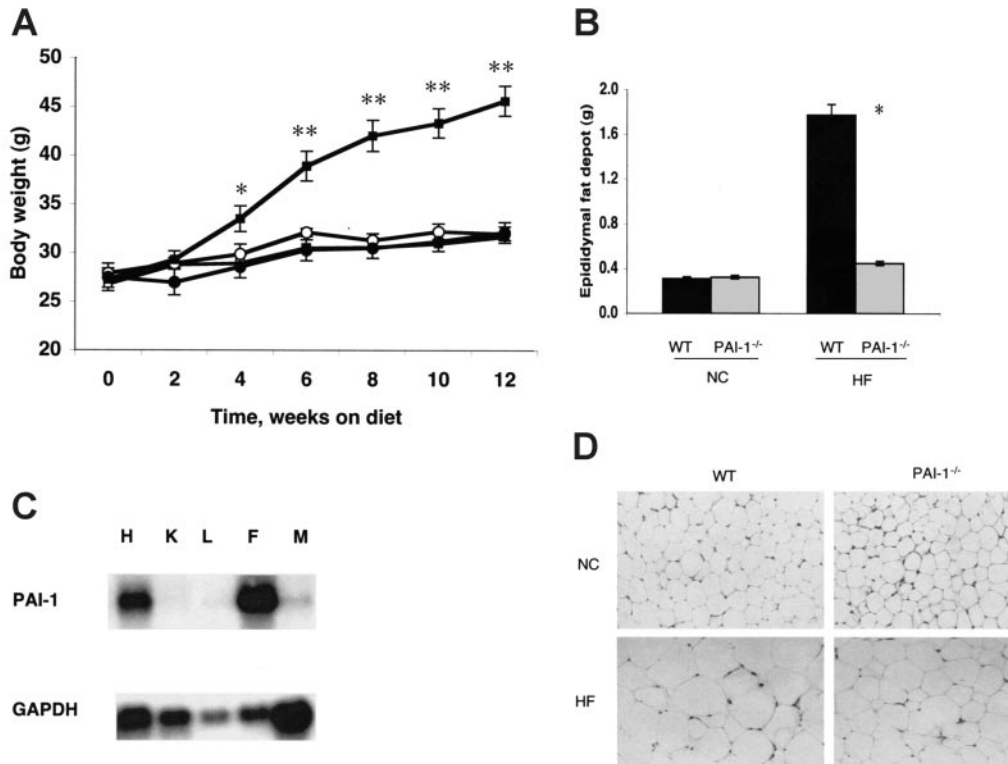


FIG. 1. Effects of PAI-1 deficiency on body weight and fat accumulation. **A:** Body weight gain over time in WT and PAI-1^{-/-} mice on normal chow (NC) and an HF diet ($n = 19$ – 21 mice in each group). WT (\square) and PAI-1^{-/-} (\circ) at baseline and after 12 weeks of HF diet (WT, \blacksquare ; PAI-1^{-/-}, \bullet). **B:** Epididymal fat pad weights of WT and PAI-1^{-/-} mice at baseline on normal chow and after 12 weeks of an HF diet ($n = 19$ – 21 mice in each group). * $P < 0.01$, ** $P < 0.001$. **C:** Representative Northern blot analysis of PAI-1 mRNA expression in different organs in WT mice after 12 weeks of an HF diet (H, heart; K, kidney; L, liver; F, white adipose tissue; M, skeletal muscle). **D:** Histological sections of epididymal fat pads (all hematoxylin and eosin, $\times 200$) of WT and PAI-1^{-/-} mice at baseline on normal chow and after 12 weeks of an HF diet (representative of $n = 3$ in each group).

WT + HF 45.6 ± 1.5 g, $P < 0.001$; PAI-1^{-/-} + HF 32.1 ± 1.0 vs. PAI-1^{-/-} + normal chow 32 ± 0.7 g, NS, Fig. 1A).

Reduced body fat mass and lipid levels in PAI-1^{-/-} mice. We assessed whether the differences in weight gain were associated with alterations in adiposity. Baseline epididymal fat pad mass in PAI-1^{-/-} mice was similar to that seen in WT mice fed normal chow (0.33 ± 0.02 vs. 0.32 ± 0.02 g, NS, Fig. 1B). However, at 12 weeks after the HF diet, the epididymal fat pad mass in PAI-1^{-/-} mice was only ~25% of that in WT mice (0.45 ± 0.02 vs. 1.77 ± 0.10 g, $P < 0.01$, Fig. 1B). Subcutaneous white fat pad mass in PAI-1^{-/-} mice was also markedly less than in WT mice in response to an HF diet (data not shown). PAI-1 mRNA was highly expressed in epididymal fat in WT mice after 12 weeks of HF feeding compared with other organs (Fig. 1C). Sections of white adipose tissue revealed that PAI-1^{-/-} mice had decreased adipocyte size compared with WT controls both at baseline and 12 weeks after an HF diet (Fig. 1D).

Baseline triglyceride contents in skeletal muscle and liver were comparable between PAI-1^{-/-} and WT mice (Table 1), although PAI-1^{-/-} mice tended to have lower triglyceride levels. Triglyceride contents in both skeletal muscle and liver in WT mice were markedly increased at 12 weeks in response to the HF diet. In contrast, the PAI-1^{-/-} mice had significantly lower triglyceride levels in

both tissues at 12 weeks (Table 1). No significant differences were observed in plasma triglyceride concentrations between genotypes.

Increased metabolic rates in PAI-1^{-/-} mice. We examined whether the decreased body weight resulted from decreased food intake or increased energy expenditure. Food intake in PAI-1^{-/-} and WT mice on an HF diet was similar (2.6 ± 0.1 vs. 2.5 ± 0.1 g/day). The oxygen consumption rates of PAI-1^{-/-} and WT mice at baseline on normal chow were similar and showed a normal pattern during the 22-h measurement, with higher rates during the night (active state) and lower rates during the day (resting state) (Fig. 2A). However, after 12 weeks on HF diet feeding, PAI-1^{-/-} mice exhibited significantly higher rates of total and resting O₂ consumption than WT mice (Fig. 2B, $P < 0.001$, across all time points). Interestingly, the pattern of oxygen consumption in response to an HF diet was shifted, with PAI-1^{-/-} mice maintaining higher metabolic rates during daytime resting state. In contrast, WT mice displayed lower metabolic rates during the day and at night (Fig. 2B). In parallel, the energy expenditure of PAI-1^{-/-} and WT mice at baseline was similar (Fig. 2C). However, the energy expenditure in PAI-1^{-/-} mice at 12 weeks in response to HF feeding was also increased compared with WT mice ($P < 0.001$) (Fig. 2D). The respiratory exchange ratios of PAI-1^{-/-} and WT mice on

TABLE 1
Effects of PAI-1 deficiency on lipid content at baseline and 12 weeks after an HF diet

	WT + NC	PAI-1 ^{-/-} + NC	WT + HF	PAI-1 ^{-/-} + HF
Muscle TG content (mg/g tissue)	6.9 ± 1.9	3.0 ± 1.1	19.3 ± 3.4	$11.3 \pm 2.4^*$
Liver TG content (mg/g tissue)	6.6 ± 1.5	4.1 ± 0.4	29.3 ± 4.8	$8.1 \pm 2.3^*$
Serum G content (mg/dl)	97.5 ± 4.3	86.3 ± 6.0	87.8 ± 7.0	83.8 ± 6.0

Data are means \pm SE. * $P < 0.05$, PAI-1^{-/-} + HF vs. WT + HF ($n = 8$ – 10 in each group). NC, normal chow; TG, triglyceride.

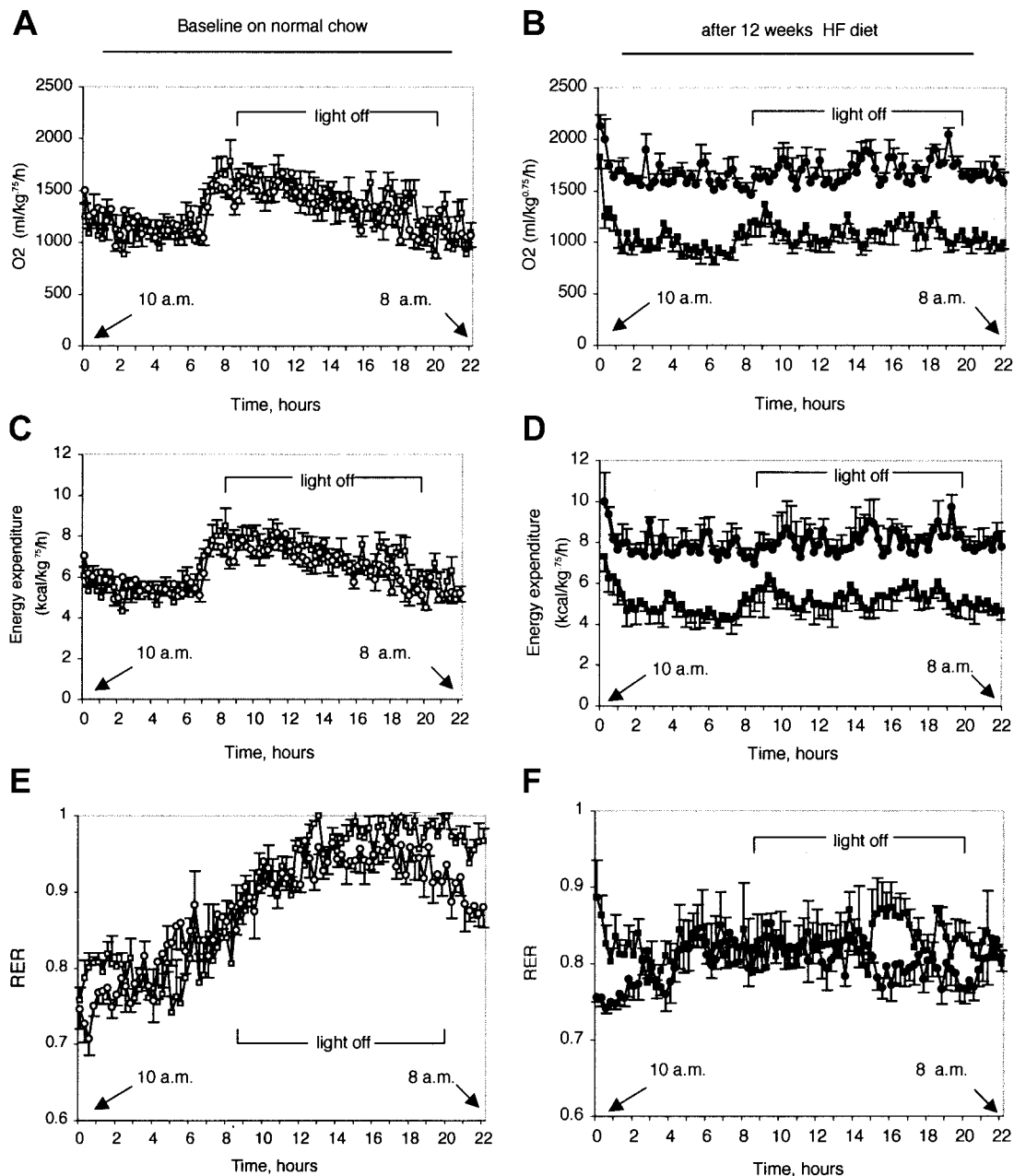


FIG. 2. Increased metabolic rates in PAI-1^{-/-} mice. Effects of PAI-1 deficiency on whole-body oxygen consumption (A and B), energy expenditure (C and D), and respiratory exchange ratio (RER) (E and F) were measured by indirect calorimetry. WT (□) and PAI-1^{-/-} (○) at baseline and at 12 weeks after an HF diet (WT, ■; PAI-1^{-/-}, ●). $P < 0.001$, across all time points for both oxygen consumption rates and energy expenditure, WT vs. PAI-1^{-/-} after 12 weeks of an HF diet ($n = 4$ for each group).

both normal chow and an HF diet were similar (Fig. 2E and F). Consistent with their elevated metabolic rates, PAI-1^{-/-} mice displayed an increase (0.7°F) in core body temperature at 12 weeks after the HF diet compared with WT mice (at baseline: WT $102.3 \pm 0.23^\circ\text{F}$, PAI-1^{-/-} $102.1 \pm 0.27^\circ\text{F}$; at 12 weeks after HF diet: WT $101.4 \pm 0.29^\circ\text{F}$, PAI-1^{-/-} $102.1 \pm 0.21^\circ\text{F}$). Surprisingly, PAI-1^{-/-} mice had similar physical activity compared with WT mice at baseline (Fig. 3A) and even slightly lower activity at 12 weeks after the HF diet (Fig. 3B).

Expression of UCPs. UCP-1 mRNA in brown adipose tissue was expressed similarly in WT and PAI-1^{-/-} mice at baseline and after the HF diet (Fig. 4A and C). There was only trace UCP-2 mRNA expression in skeletal muscle in

WT and PAI-1^{-/-} mice at baseline. After 12 weeks of the HF diet, UCP-2 mRNA expression in skeletal muscle was significantly increased, especially in PAI-1^{-/-} mice (Fig. 4B and D). UCP-3 mRNA in skeletal muscle was expressed at similarly high levels in WT and PAI-1^{-/-} mice at baseline. In response to HF feeding, PAI-1^{-/-} mice significantly increased UCP-3 mRNA compared with WT mice, which showed no change in UCP-3 (Fig. 4B and E).

Enhanced insulin sensitivity in PAI-1^{-/-} mice. The impact of an HF diet on metabolic effects in WT mice was established after only 1 week of HF feeding (Table 2). After 12 weeks of HF feeding, WT mice developed hyperglycemia (WT 207.3 ± 11.6 vs. PAI-1^{-/-} 116.7 ± 4.2 mg/dl, $P < 0.001$, Fig. 5A), hyperinsulinemia (WT 5.0 ± 0.8 vs.

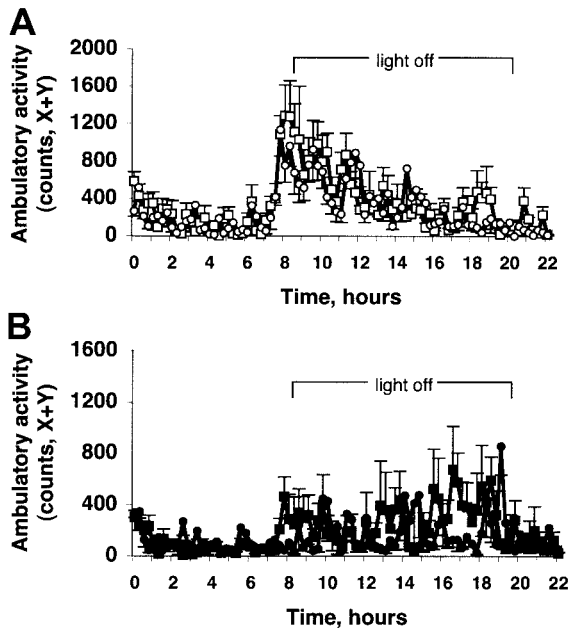


FIG. 3. Mice physiology activity. Activity at baseline on normal chow (A) and at 12 weeks after an HF diet (B) in WT and PAI-1^{-/-} mice were recorded using the Oxymax System during a 22-h period. Data for WT (□) and PAI-1^{-/-} (○) mice at baseline and at 12 weeks after an HF diet (WT, ■; PAI-1^{-/-}, ●) are shown.

PAI-1^{-/-} 0.5 ± 0.1 ng/ml, $P < 0.001$, Fig. 5B), and hyperleptinemia (WT 76.0 ± 7.0 vs. PAI-1^{-/-} 2.5 ± 0.8 ng/ml, $P < 0.001$, Fig. 5C). In contrast, the levels of blood glucose, plasma insulin, and leptin in PAI-1^{-/-} mice were indistinguishable from baseline after 12 weeks of an HF diet (Fig.

TABLE 2
Metabolic effects of an HF diet on WT mice

	Day 0	Day 7 after HF diet
<i>n</i>	24	24
Blood glucose (mg/dl)	137 ± 3.4	162 ± 6.0 [†]
Plasma insulin (ng/ml)	0.37 ± 0.03	0.54 ± 0.04*
Plasma leptin (ng/ml)	1.55 ± 0.34	3.7 ± 1.0*

Data are means ± SE. * $P < 0.05$, [†] $P < 0.01$ vs. day 0.

5A–C). During the euglycemic-hyperinsulinemic clamp study, insulin-stimulated whole-body glucose infusion rates to maintain euglycemia (Fig. 6A) were significantly higher in PAI-1^{-/-} mice than in WT mice (Fig. 6B, overall difference $P = 0.0039$), indicating increased insulin sensitivity in PAI-1^{-/-} mice.

Expression of adipocyte-derived genes in PAI-1^{-/-} mice. The development of obesity and insulin resistance in WT mice on an HF diet was associated with a 2.5-fold increase in PAI-1 mRNA in white adipose tissue compared with WT mice on normal chow (Fig. 7B and E). PPAR- γ mRNA expression in white adipose tissue in PAI-1^{-/-} mice on normal chow was lower than that in WT mice on normal chow. At 12 weeks after HF feeding, PPAR- γ mRNA was downregulated in WT mice but maintained in PAI-1^{-/-} mice (Fig. 7A and C; note that RNA loading verified by 28S rRNA in an ethidium bromide-containing agarose gel was parallel to GAPDH; therefore, values are expressed as ratio vs. GAPDH). Adiponectin mRNA was similarly highly expressed in WT and PAI-1^{-/-} mice on normal chow. After 12 weeks of the HF diet, adiponectin

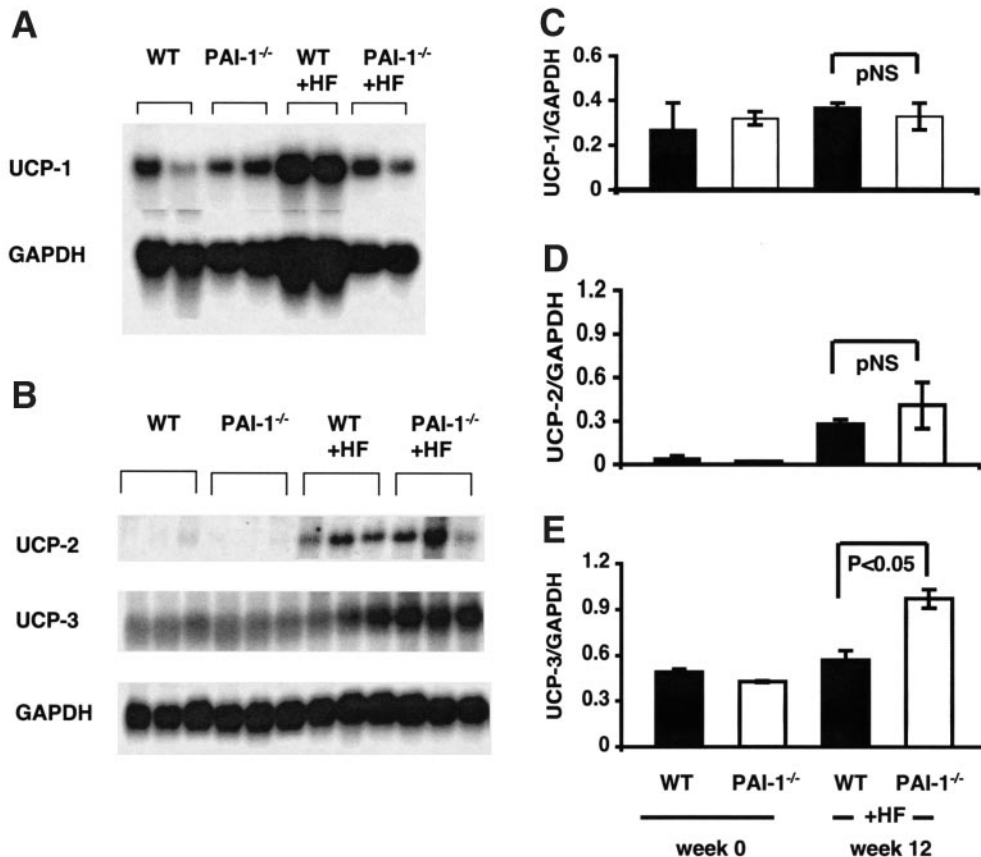


FIG. 4. Expression of UCPs. Relative amounts of UCP-1 mRNA expression in brown adipose tissues (A and C) and UCP-2 mRNA (B and D) and UCP-3 mRNA (B and E) expressions in skeletal muscles in WT (■) and PAI-1^{-/-} mice (□) were determined by Northern blot analysis and normalized to GAPDH mRNA.

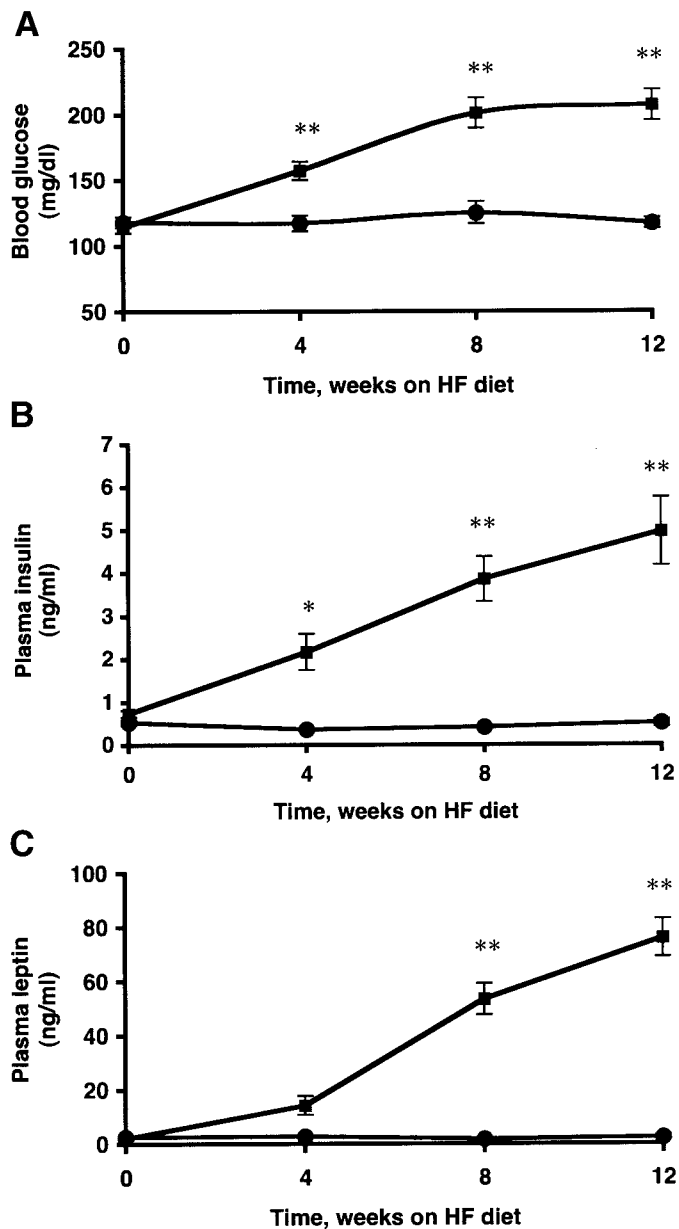


FIG. 5. Prevention of insulin resistance in PAI-1-deficient mice. Fasting glucose (A), fasting plasma insulin (B), and fasting plasma leptin (C) levels in response to an HF diet in WT (■, $n = 21$) and PAI-1^{-/-} (●, $n = 19$) mice. * $P < 0.01$, ** $P < 0.001$, WT vs. PAI-1^{-/-}.

mRNA was markedly suppressed in WT mice, but was maintained in PAI-1^{-/-} mice (Fig. 7B and D). Interestingly, adiponectin mRNA level changes in white adipose tissue (downregulated in WT mice but maintained in PAI-1^{-/-} mice) were observed after only 1 week of the HF diet (Fig. 8), a time point when metabolic abnormality was already established in WT mice (Table 2).

Attenuation of obesity and insulin resistance with the angiotensin receptor antagonist linked to inhibition of PAI-1. To test whether inhibition of angiotensin achieved by AT1RA can prevent the development of obesity and insulin resistance in a manner similar to the genetic absence of PAI-1, AT1RA (80 mg/l losartan) was administered to WT mice along with an HF diet. Food intake in mice with or without AT1RA was comparable (WT + HF + AT1RA, 2.4 ± 0.1 g/day). These AT1RA +

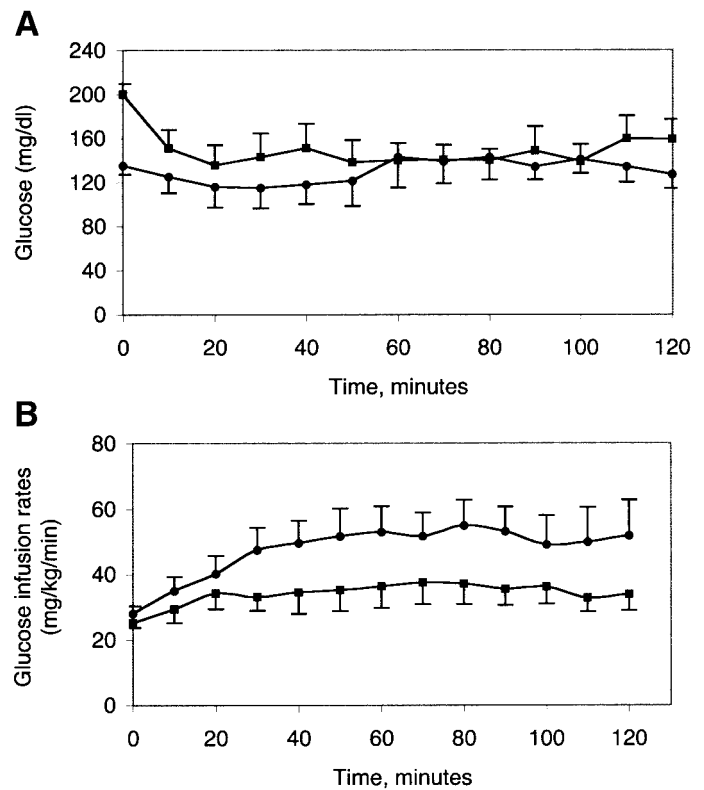


FIG. 6. Euglycemic-hyperinsulinemic clamp study. Blood glucose concentrations (A) and glucose infusion rates (B) during the euglycemic-hyperinsulinemic clamp at 12 weeks after an HF diet in WT (■, $n = 10$) and PAI-1^{-/-} (●, $n = 9$) mice. $P = 0.0039$, overall difference of glucose infusion rates across the time points between groups.

HF-treated mice had lower weight gain than WT mice on an HF diet alone (Fig. 9A). Hyperglycemia and hyperinsulinemia were also markedly attenuated after treatment with AT1RA compared with WT mice on an HF diet alone (Fig. 9B and C). At 12 weeks after an HF diet, in parallel with the 2.5-fold increase of PAI-1 mRNA in white adipose tissue in WT mice, active plasma PAI-1 levels in WT mice increased ~2.5-fold compared with baseline in WT mice. AT1RA treatment for 12 weeks in WT mice on an HF diet markedly inhibited plasma active PAI-1 to levels only half of those observed in WT mice on an HF diet alone (Fig. 10).

PAI-1 deficiency enhanced glucose uptake in primary adipose cells. Baseline glucose uptake without insulin stimulation, determined by [²⁻³H]-deoxyglucose incorporation, was higher in PAI-1^{-/-} adipocytes versus WT (threefold increase vs. WT baseline, $P < 0.01$). Insulin-stimulated glucose uptake was further markedly increased in PAI-1^{-/-} adipocytes (10-fold increase vs. WT baseline, $P < 0.01$) compared with WT adipocytes (fourfold increase vs. WT baseline, $P < 0.01$) (Fig. 11).

DISCUSSION

This study demonstrates that HF diet-induced obesity, hyperglycemia, and hyperinsulinemia were prevented in mice lacking PAI-1. The protection against obesity in PAI-1^{-/-} mice was linked to increased metabolic rates, energy expenditure, and body temperature, but similar physical activity, compared with WT mice. Furthermore, PAI-1^{-/-} mice did not have increased tissue triglyceride in

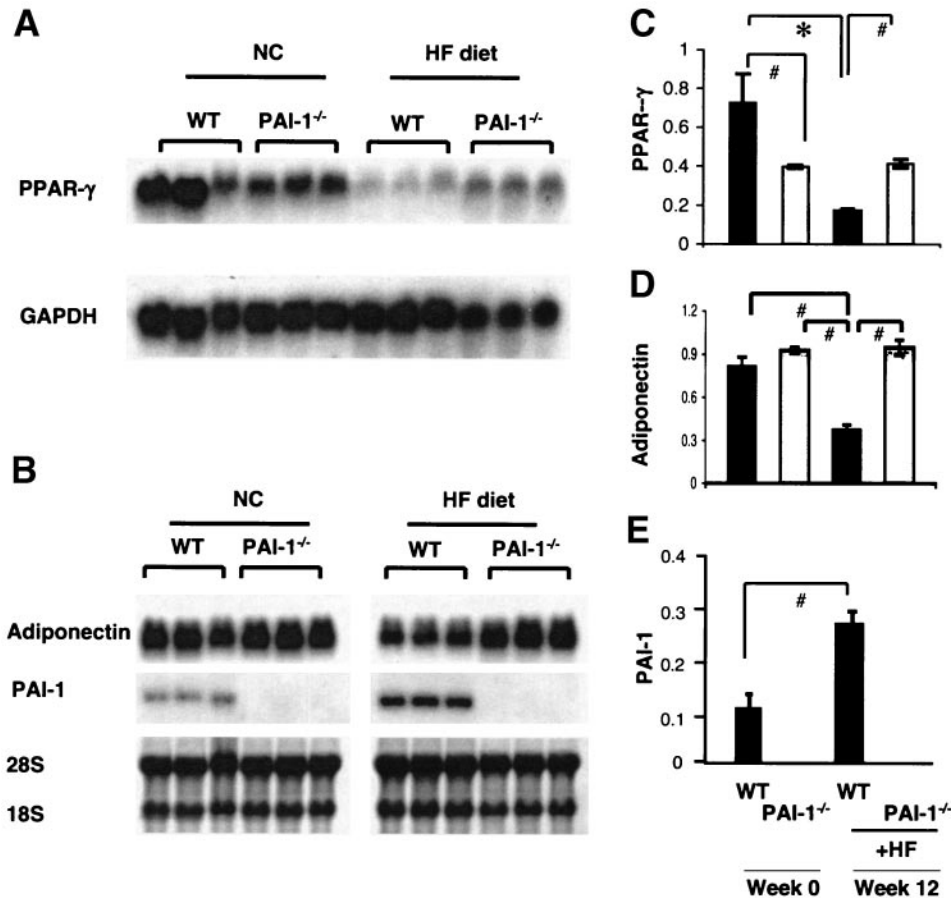


FIG. 7. Expression of adipocyte-derived genes in white adipose tissue. Relative amounts of PPAR- γ (A and C), adiponectin (B and D), and PAI-1 mRNA expressions (B and E) in WT (■, $n = 9$) and PAI-1^{-/-} (□, $n = 9$) mice at baseline and at 12 weeks after an HF diet were determined by Northern blot analysis and normalized to GAPDH mRNA or 28S rRNA. # $P < 0.05$, * $P < 0.01$.

skeletal muscle and liver and had increased insulin sensitivity compared with WT mice. The mechanisms for protection against insulin resistance in PAI-1^{-/-} mice may involve maintained expression of PPAR- γ and adiponectin, key adipocyte-derived hormones. Obesity and insulin resistance were also attenuated by inhibition of angiotensin, an effect linked to inhibition of PAI-1, suggesting interactions of angiotensin and PAI-1 in both obesity and insulin resistance.

Morange et al. (32) previously observed that PAI-1

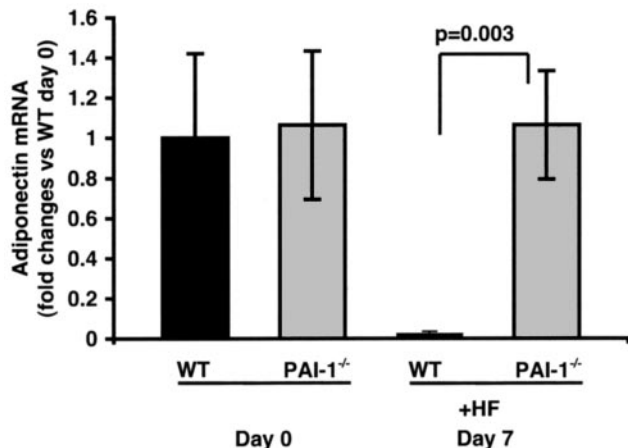


FIG. 8. Effects of short time exposure of an HF diet on expression of adiponectin mRNA in white adipose tissue. Adiponectin mRNA expressions in WT (■, $n = 5$) and PAI-1^{-/-} (□, $n = 5$) mice were determined by real-time PCR and normalized to 18S rRNA.

deficiency had no beneficial effects on obesity. Overexpression of PAI-1 in mice surprisingly attenuated nutritionally induced obesity (34). These reports are different from the current study and the results of others (33). Schafer et al. (33) demonstrated that the absence of PAI-1 reduced adiposity and improved the metabolic profiles in genetically obese mice (PAI-1^{-/-} *ob/ob*), which were on a C57BL/6 background. Using WT C57BL/6 mice has allowed us to produce a reliable and overwhelming model of obesity and insulin resistance with an HF diet. In contrast, Morange et al. studied young PAI-1^{-/-} mice (4 weeks old) on a mixed genetic background (81% C57BL/6 and 19% 129SV) and showed milder hyperinsulinemia in the corresponding WT mice after 17 weeks on an HF diet (32). Thus, differences in genetic background, animal age, and/or high-fat food formula between the studies of Morange et al. (32), the results of Schafer et al. (33), and the present study possibly account for the different outcomes. These varying results in different mice strains mirror the key influence of genetic susceptibilities observed in a myriad of human diseases, such as the observation that only 30–40% of diabetic patients will develop diabetic nephropathy.

Obesity results from an imbalance between energy intake and energy expenditure, including that linked to resting metabolic rates (47–49). The UCPs are mitochondrial inner membrane proteins that play important roles in whole-body energy expenditure (46,47,50,51). UCP-1 is exclusively expressed in brown adipose tissue, whereas UCP-2 is widely expressed in many tissues and UCP-3 is primarily expressed in skeletal muscle. Overexpression of

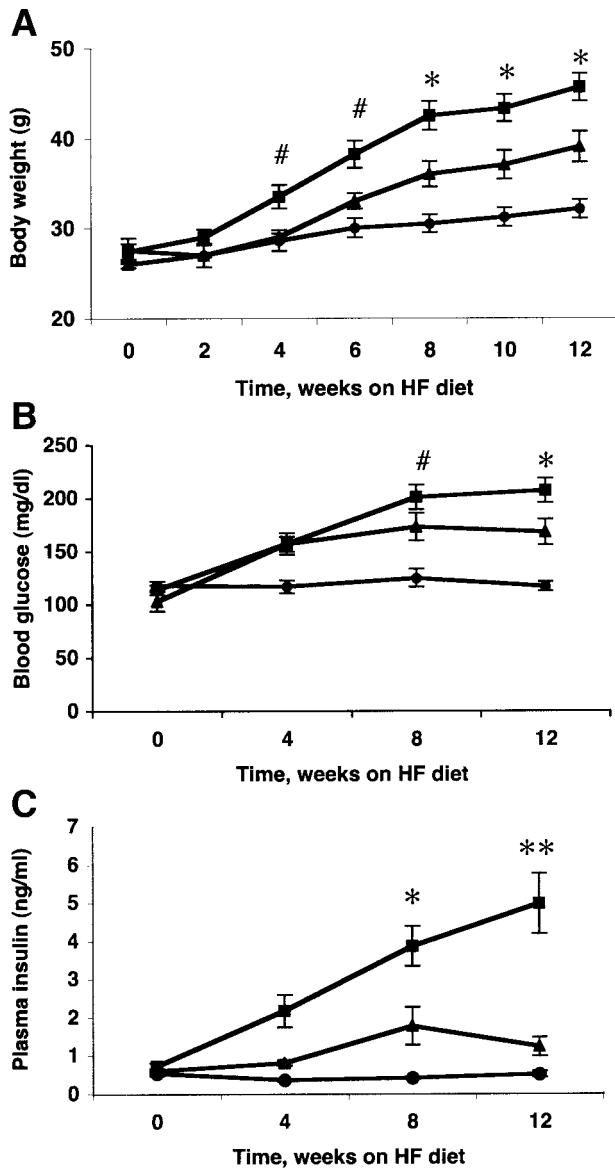


FIG. 9. Amelioration of obesity and insulin resistance by ATIRA. Body weight (A), fasting blood glucose (B), and fasting plasma insulin (C) in WT mice on an HF diet without (■, $n = 21$) or with (▲, $n = 8$) ATIRA and PAI-1^{-/-} mice on an HF diet (●, $n = 19$). # $P < 0.05$, * $P < 0.01$, ** $P < 0.001$, WT + ATIRA on HF vs. WT on HF alone ($n = 21$).

UCP-1 or UCP-3 in skeletal muscle in mice protects against diet-induced obesity and its metabolic consequences (52,53). Because skeletal muscle is the principal tissue responsible for insulin-stimulated glucose disposal, increased uncoupling activity due to overexpression of UCP could result in increased glucose metabolism. Expression of UCP-3 in skeletal muscle cells in vitro stimulates glucose uptake (54). In contrast, in patients with type 2 diabetes, UCP-3 was decreased in skeletal muscle, as whole-body insulin-mediated glucose utilization was also decreased (55). Consistent with previous studies, our data support that increased skeletal muscle UCP-2 and UCP-3 may contribute to increased metabolic rates and energy expenditure in PAI-1^{-/-} mice. Although we do not have evidence of a direct interaction of PAI-1 with UCPs, we speculate that PAI-1 deficiency in skeletal muscle may indirectly regulate UCP-2 and UCP-3 through activated

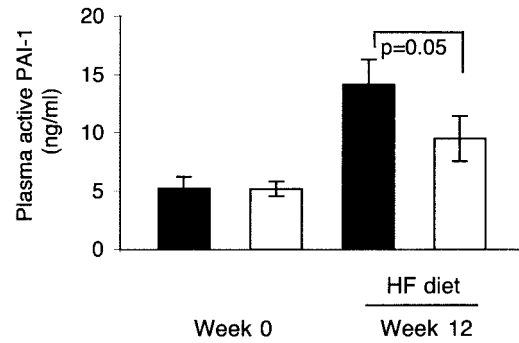


FIG. 10. Inhibition of plasma PAI-1 by ATIRA. Effects of ATIRA treatment for 12 weeks on plasma active PAI-1 levels in WT mice with an HF diet alone (■) and with HF diet + ATIRA (□) ($n = 3-5$ in each group).

PPAR- γ . Interestingly, recent studies have shown a direct interaction between PPAR- γ and UCP-2, suggesting that PPAR- γ activation could increase glucose metabolism in part by direct upregulation of muscle UCP-2 expression (56,57).

Our euglycemic-hyperinsulinemic clamp studies show that mice lacking PAI-1 have increased insulin sensitivity. A strong correlation between intracellular triglyceride content and insulin resistance has been well established in both human and animal studies of obesity-related insulin resistance and type 2 diabetes (58). Decreased tissue triglyceride level in skeletal muscle and liver in response to an HF diet in PAI-1^{-/-} mice is potentially a protective mechanism contributing to the observed increased insulin sensitivity. Adipocytes were also smaller in PAI-1^{-/-} mice compared with WT mice after an HF diet, an additional potential contributor to increased insulin sensitivity (59). Our data from the primary adipose cell culture further provide direct evidence indicating that PAI-1 deficiency enhances glucose uptake in white adipose tissue, which may play an important role in increased whole-body insulin sensitivity in PAI-1^{-/-} mice.

We next examined potential molecular mechanisms that might underlie the protection from insulin resistance in the PAI-1^{-/-} mice. PPAR- γ and adiponectin are key proteins implicated in the development of obesity and insulin resistance. PPAR- γ , a member of the nuclear receptor superfamily of ligand-activated transcriptional factors, has

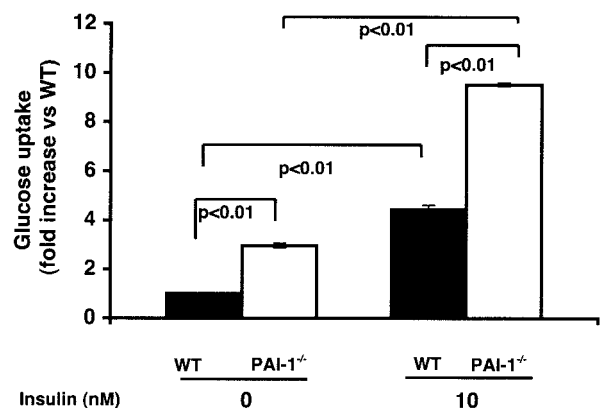


FIG. 11. PAI-1 deficiency enhanced glucose uptake in adipocytes in vitro. Representative glucose uptake in WT (■) and PAI-1^{-/-} (□) adipocytes in vitro ($n = 3$ in each group).

been implicated in metabolic diseases including type 2 diabetes (15). PPAR- γ is highly enriched in adipose tissue and has effects on genes involved in adipocyte differentiation and glucose homeostasis. Activation of PPAR- γ transcriptional activity by thiazolidinediones reduces insulin resistance and hyperglycemia in type 2 diabetes (60). Adiponectin is another adipocyte-derived hormone produced inversely to the amount of fat stores (14,61,62). Adiponectin is reduced in obese mice and humans as well as in type 2 diabetes (62–64). Decreased circulating adiponectin is strongly associated with progression of insulin resistance in humans (65). Conversely, direct treatment with recombinant adiponectin reversed insulin resistance in mice, whether associated with lipoatrophy or obesity (66), whereas mice lacking adiponectin exhibited severe insulin resistance (67,68). Interestingly, activation of PPAR- γ increases adiponectin, indicating that one of the insulin-sensitizing mechanisms of PPAR- γ may be via regulation of adiponectin (69,70). In this study, we found that PPAR- γ and adiponectin mRNA expressions were downregulated in WT mice in response to the HF diet, associated with the development of obesity and insulin resistance. In contrast, PPAR- γ and adiponectin mRNAs were maintained after an HF diet in the protected PAI-1^{-/-} mice. Our results are consistent with the hypothesis that stimulation of adiponectin production and/or activation of PPAR- γ expression enhance whole-body insulin sensitivity (70,71).

Although there is no evidence that PAI-1 can directly affect PPAR- γ and adiponectin, indirect interactions of PAI-1 with PPAR- γ and adiponectin through remodeling of the extracellular matrix (ECM) component are possible. We speculate that PAI-1 deficiency might modulate the microenvironment and network of ECM surrounding adipocytes, which can affect cell-ECM interactions and transduction of extracellular signals to intracellular components such as PPAR- γ . Furthermore, although PAI-1^{-/-} mice have no light microscopic-detectable phenotype, subtle changes of the microvasculature could contribute to changes in diffusion distance in skeletal muscle and thus affect glucose sensitivity.

Recent studies of interaction of PAI-1 with the adhesive ECM glycoprotein vitronectin have provided additional insight into the effects of PAI-1 deficiency on insulin resistance. PAI-1 circulates in plasma as a complex with vitronectin (72), stabilizing PAI-1 in an active conformation. PAI-1 can competitively inhibit the urokinase-like plasminogen activator receptor-dependent attachment of cells to vitronectin (73). Furthermore, binding of PAI-1 to vitronectin may also affect integrin-mediated cell adhesion to vitronectin (66,67,74). PAI-1 can also inhibit insulin signaling by competing with $\alpha v \beta 3$ integrin for vitronectin binding (75). Thus, deficiency of PAI-1 may enhance insulin-signaling pathways.

Previous studies have established the connection between obesity, insulin resistance, and increased PAI-1. In this study, we observed total protection against diet-induced obesity and insulin resistance when PAI-1 was absent. Our data suggest that increased PAI-1 may not merely be secondary to obesity, but has direct effects on the development of obesity and insulin resistance. We therefore assessed whether inhibiting PAI-1 indirectly by

angiotensin receptor antagonism would also be effective in preventing obesity and insulin resistance. Of interest, obesity itself is associated with activation of the RAS. RAS inhibition improves insulin resistance in humans and mice (76) and decreases plasma PAI-1 in hypertensive type 2 diabetic patients (77). The effects of RAS inhibition on the prevention of type 2 diabetes by ACE inhibitors and angiotensin type 1 receptor antagonists have been evaluated in recent clinical trials. The Captopril Prevention Project (78) was the first controlled clinical trial to demonstrate a reduction in the development of type 2 diabetes in hypertensive patients treated with ACE inhibitors. This decreased development of type 2 diabetes in patients receiving angiotensin inhibition was confirmed in two other clinical trials: the Heart Outcomes Prevention Evaluation and the Losartan Intervention for Endpoint Reduction in Hypertension Study (79–81). A new prospective Diabetes Reduction Assessment with Ramipril and Rosiglitazone Medications trial is also being evaluated (82). RAS inhibition has been proposed to prevent type 2 diabetes by promoting recruitment and differentiation of adipocytes (83). Our data show that the AT1RA losartan attenuated the development of obesity and insulin resistance in WT mice induced by an HF diet. Further, our data show that active plasma PAI-1 was decreased by AT1RA. We thus propose that an additional key mechanism for the beneficial effects of RAS inhibition on the development of obesity and diabetes may be mediated through regulation of PAI-1.

In summary, HF diet-induced obesity and insulin resistance are prevented in mice lacking PAI-1. This protection is linked to maintenance of the key metabolic molecules PPAR- γ and adiponectin and an increased metabolic rate, which may be due to modulation of UCPs. AT1RA attenuated development of diet-induced obesity and insulin resistance, linked to inhibition of PAI-1. Our data suggest that inhibition of PAI-1 might prove to be a novel anti-obesity and anti-insulin resistance treatment.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This study was supported in part by the American Heart Association (AHA #016200B) and Genzyme Renal Innovation Program (Y.G.).

We thank the Mouse Metabolic Phenotyping Center at Vanderbilt University for expertise on euglycemic-hyperinsulinemic clamps, oxygen consumption, physiological activity studies, and serum and tissue lipid measurements (U24 DK59637).

REFERENCES

1. Must A, Spadano J, Coakley EH, Field AE, Colditz G, Dietz WH: The disease burden associated with overweight and obesity. *JAMA* 282:1523–1529, 1999
2. Marx J: Unraveling the causes of diabetes. *Science* 296:686–689, 2002
3. Skyler JS, Oddo C: Diabetes trends in the USA. *Diabetes Metab Res Rev* 18 (Suppl. 3):S21–S26, 2002
4. Collins FM: Current treatment approaches to type 2 diabetes mellitus: successes and shortcomings. *Am J Manag Care* 8:S460–S471, 2002
5. Fogio AB: The role of angiotensin II and plasminogen activator inhibitor-1 in progressive glomerulosclerosis. *Am J Kidney Dis* 35:179–188, 2000
6. Ma L-J, Fogio AB: Angiotensin as inducer of plasminogen activator inhibitor-1 and fibrosis. *Contrib Nephrol* 135:161–170, 2001
7. Landin K, Stigendahl L, Eriksson E, Krotkiewski M, Risberg B, Tengborn L, Smith U: Abdominal obesity is associated with an impaired fibrinolytic

- activity and elevated plasminogen activator inhibitor-1. *Metabolism* 39: 1044–1048, 1990
8. Vague P, Juhan-Vague I, Aillaud MF, Badier C, Viard R, Alessi MC, Collen D: Correlation between blood fibrinolytic activity, plasminogen activator inhibitor level, plasma insulin level, and relative body weight in normal and obese subjects. *Metabolism* 35:250–253, 1996
 9. Juhan-Vague I, Alessi MC, Morange PE: Hypofibrinolysis and increased PAI-1 are linked to atherothrombosis via insulin resistance and obesity. *Ann Med* 32 (Suppl. 1):78–84, 2000
 10. McCormack LJ, Nagi DK, Stickland MH, Mansfield MW, Mohamed-Ali V, Yudkin JS, Knowler WC, Grant PJ: Promoter (4G/5G) plasminogen activator inhibitor-1 genotype in Pima Indians: relationship to plasminogen activator inhibitor-1 levels and features of the insulin resistance syndrome. *Diabetologia* 39:1512–1518, 1996
 11. Hoffstedt J, Andersson IL, Persson L, Isaksson B, Arner P: The common -675 4G/5G polymorphism in the plasminogen activator inhibitor-1 gene is strongly associated with obesity. *Diabetologia* 45:584–587, 2002
 12. Viitanen L, Pihlajamaki J, Halonen P, Lehtonen M, Kareinen A, Lehto S, Laakso M: Association of angiotensin converting enzyme and plasminogen activator inhibitor-1 promoter gene polymorphisms with features of the insulin resistance syndrome in patients with premature coronary heart disease. *Atherosclerosis* 157:57–64, 2001
 13. Ahima RS, Flier JS: Adipose tissue as an endocrine organ. *Trends Endocrinol Metab* 11:327–332, 2000
 14. Saltiel AR: You are what you secrete. *Nat Med* 7:887–888, 2001
 15. Picard F, Auwerx J: PPAR(γ) and glucose homeostasis. *Annu Rev Nutr* 22:167–197, 2002
 16. Loskutoff DJ, Fujisawa K, Samad F: The fat mouse: a powerful genetic model to study homeostatic gene expression in obesity/NIDDM. *Ann N Y Acad Sci* 902:272–281, 2000
 17. Alessi MC, Peiretti F, Morange P, Henry M, Nalbone G, Juhan-Vague I: Production of plasminogen activator inhibitor 1 by human adipose tissue: possible link between visceral fat accumulation and vascular disease. *Diabetes* 46:860–867, 1997
 18. Festa A, D'Agostino R Jr, Mykkanen L, Tracy RP, Zaccaro DJ, Hales CN, Haffner SM: Relative contribution of insulin and its precursors to fibrinogen and PAI-1 in a large population with different states of glucose tolerance: the Insulin Resistance Atherosclerosis Study (IRAS). *Arterioscler Thromb Vasc Biol* 19:562–568, 1999
 19. Meigs JB, Mittleman MA, Nathan DM, Tofler GH, Singer DE, Murphy-Sheehy PM, Lipinska I, D'Agostino RB, Wilson PW: Hyperinsulinemia, hyperglycemia, and impaired hemostasis: the Framingham Offspring Study. *JAMA* 283:221–228, 2000
 20. Aso Y, Matsumoto S, Fujiwara Y, Tayama K, Inukai T, Takemura Y: Impaired fibrinolytic compensation for hypercoagulability in obese patients with type 2 diabetes: association with increased plasminogen activator inhibitor-1. *Metabolism* 51:471–476, 2002
 21. Gurlek A, Bayraktar M, Kirazli S: Increased plasminogen activator inhibitor-1 activity in offspring of type 2 diabetic patients: lack of association with plasma insulin levels. *Diabetes Care* 23:88–92, 2000
 22. Festa A, D'Agostino R Jr, Tracy RP, Haffner SM: Elevated levels of acute-phase proteins and plasminogen activator inhibitor-1 predict the development of type 2 diabetes: the Insulin Resistance Atherosclerosis Study. *Diabetes* 51:1131–1137, 2002
 23. Kerins DM, Hao Q, Vaughan DE: Angiotensin induction of PAI-1 expression in endothelial cells is mediated by the hexapeptide angiotensin IV. *J Clin Invest* 96:2515–2520, 1995
 24. Nakamura S, Nakamura I, Ma L-J, Vaughan DE, Fogo AB: Plasminogen activator inhibitor-1 expression is regulated by the angiotensin type 1 receptor in vivo. *Kidney Int* 58:251–259, 2000
 25. Ma L-J, Nakamura S, Whitsitt JS, Marcantoni C, Davidson JM, Fogo AB: Regression of sclerosis in aging by an angiotensin inhibition-induced decrease in PAI-1. *Kidney Int* 58:2425–2436, 2000
 26. Frederich RCJ, Kahn BB, Peach MJ, Flier JS: Tissue-specific nutritional regulation of angiotensinogen in adipose tissue. *Hypertension* 19:339–344, 1992
 27. Ailhaud G, Fukamizu A, Massiera F, Negrel R, Saint-Marc P, Teboul M: Angiotensinogen, angiotensin II and adipose tissue development. *Int J Obes Relat Metab Disord* 24:S33–S35, 2000
 28. Barton M, Carmonab R, Ortmanna J, Kriegerb JE, Traupea T: Obesity-associated activation of angiotensin and endothelin in the cardiovascular system. *Int J Biochem Cell Biol* 35:826–837, 2003
 29. Jones BH, Standridge MK, Taylor JW, Moustaid N: Angiotensinogen gene expression in adipose tissue: analysis of obese models and hormonal and nutritional control. *Am J Physiol* 273:R236–R242, 1997
 30. Bastard JP, Pieroni L: Plasma plasminogen activator inhibitor 1, insulin resistance and android obesity. *Biomed Pharmacother* 53:455–461, 1999
 31. Skurk T, Lee YM, Hauner H: Angiotensin II and its metabolites stimulate PAI-1 protein release from human adipocytes in primary culture. *Hypertension* 37:1336–1340, 2001
 32. Morange PE, Lijnen HR, Alessi MC, Kopp F, Collen D, Juhan-Vague I: Influence of PAI-1 on adipose tissue growth and metabolic parameters in a murine model of diet-induced obesity. *Arterioscler Thromb Vasc Biol* 20:1150–1154, 2000
 33. Schafer K, Fujisawa K, Konstantinides S, Loskutoff DJ: Disruption of the plasminogen activator inhibitor 1 gene reduces the adiposity and improves the metabolic profile of genetically obese and diabetic ob/ob mice. *FASEB J* 15:1840–1842, 2001
 34. Lijnen HR, Maquoi E, Morange P, Voros G, Van Hoef B, Kopp F, Collen D, Juhan-Vague I, Alessi MC: Nutritionally induced obesity is attenuated in transgenic mice overexpressing plasminogen activator inhibitor-1. *Arterioscler Thromb Vasc Biol* 23:78–84, 2003
 35. Surwit RS, Kuhn CM, Cochran C, McCubbin JA, Feinglos MN: Diet-induced type II diabetes in C57BL/6J mice. *Diabetes* 37:1163–1167, 1988
 36. Fogo AB: Progression and potential regression of glomerulosclerosis (Nephrology Forum). *Kidney Int* 59:804–819, 2001
 37. Folch J, Lees M, Sloane-Stanley GH: A simple method for the isolation and purification of total lipids from animal tissues. *J Biol Chem* 226:497–509, 1957
 38. Morrison WR, Smith LM: Preparation of fatty acid methyl esters and dimethylacetals from lipids with boron fluoride-methanol. *J Lipid Res* 5:600–608, 1964
 39. Halseth AE, Bracy DP, Wasserman DH: Overexpression of hexokinase II increases insulin and exercise-stimulated muscle glucose uptake in vivo. *Am J Physiol* 276:E70–E77, 1999
 40. Obici S, Wang J, Chowdury R, Feng Z, Siddhanta U, Morgan K, Rossetti L: Identification of a biochemical link between energy intake and energy expenditure. *J Clin Invest* 109:1599–1605, 2002
 41. Kratky D, Strauss JG, Zechner R: Tissue-specific activity of lipoprotein lipase in skeletal muscle regulates the expression of uncoupling protein 3 in transgenic mouse models. *Biochem J* 355:647–652, 2001
 42. Ma LJ, Marcantoni C, Linton MF, Fazio S, Fogo AB: Peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor-gamma agonist troglitazone protects against nondiabetic glomerulosclerosis in rats. *Kidney Int* 59:1899–1910, 2001
 43. Hauner H, Entenmann G, Wabitsch M, Gaillard D, Ailhaud G, Negrel R, Pfeiffer EF: Promoting effect of glucocorticoids on the differentiation of human adipocyte precursor cells cultured in a chemically defined medium. *J Clin Invest* 84:1663–1670, 1989
 44. Bjorntorp P, Karlsson M, Pertoft H, Pettersson P, Sjostrom L, Smith U: Isolation and characterization of cells from rat adipose tissue developing into adipocytes. *J Lipid Res* 19:316–324, 1978
 45. Viravaidya K, Shuler ML: Prediction of naphthalene bioaccumulation using an adipocyte cell line model. *Biotechnol Prog* 18:174–181, 2002
 46. Mur C, Arribas M, Benito M, Valverde AM: Essential role of insulin-like growth factor I receptor in insulin-induced fetal brown adipocyte differentiation. *Endocrinology* 144:581–593, 2003
 47. Spiegelman BM, Flier JS: Obesity and the regulation of energy balance. *Cell* 104:531–543, 2001
 48. Tataranni PA, Ravussin E: Variability in metabolic rate: biological sites of regulation. *Int J Obes Relat Metab Disord* 19 (Suppl. 4):S102–S106, 1995
 49. Ravussin E, Lillioja S, Knowler WC, Christin L, Freymond D, Abbott WG, Boyce V, Howard BV, Bogardus C: Reduced rate of energy expenditure as a risk factor for body-weight gain. *N Engl J Med* 318:467–472, 1988
 50. Kozak LP, Harper ME: Mitochondrial uncoupling proteins in energy expenditure. *Annu Rev Nutr* 20:339–363, 2000
 51. Ricquier D, Bouillaud F: Mitochondrial uncoupling proteins: from mitochondria to the regulation of energy balance. *J Physiol* 529:3–10, 2000
 52. Li B, Nolte LA, Ju JS, Han DH, Coleman T, Holloszy JO, Semenkovich CF: Skeletal muscle respiratory uncoupling prevents diet-induced obesity and insulin resistance in mice. *Nat Med* 6:1115–1120, 2000
 53. Clapham JC, Arch JR, Chapman H, Haynes A, Lister C, Moore GB, Piercy V, Carter SA, Lehner I, Smith SA, Beeley LJ, Godden RJ, Herrity N, Skehel M, Changani KK, Hockings PD, Reid DG, Squires SM, Hatcher J, Trail B, Latcham J, Rastan S, Harper AJ, Cadenas S, Buckingham JA, Brand MD, Abuin A: Mice overexpressing human uncoupling protein-3 in skeletal muscle are hyperphagic and lean. *Nature* 406:415–418, 2000
 54. Huppertz C, Fischer BM, Kim YB, Kotani K, Vidal-Puig A, Sliker LJ, Sloop KW, Lowell BB, Kahn BB: Uncoupling protein 3 (UCP3) stimulates glucose uptake in muscle cells through a phosphoinositide 3-kinase-dependent mechanism. *J Biol Chem* 276:12520–12529, 2001
 55. Krook A, Digby J, O'Rahilly S, Zierath JR, Wallberg-Henriksson H: Uncou-

- pling protein 3 is reduced in skeletal muscle of NIDDM patients. *Diabetes* 47:1528–1531, 1998
56. Shimokawa T, Kato M, Watanabe Y, Hirayama R, Kurosaki E, Shikama H, Hashimoto S: In vivo effects of pioglitazone on uncoupling protein-2 and -3 mRNA levels in skeletal muscle of hyperglycemic KK mice. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun* 251:374–378, 1998
 57. Lopez-Solache I, Marie V, Vignault E, Camirand A, Silva JE: Regulation of uncoupling protein-2 mRNA in L6 myotubules. I. Thiazolidinediones stimulate uncoupling protein-2 gene expression by a mechanism requiring ongoing protein synthesis and an active mitogen-activated protein kinase. *Endocrine* 19:197–208, 2002
 58. Saltiel AR: New perspectives into the molecular pathogenesis and treatment of type 2 diabetes. *Cell* 104:517–529, 2001
 59. Okuno A, Tamemoto H, Tobe K, Ueki K, Mori Y, Iwamoto K, Umesono K, Akanuma Y, Fujiwara T, Horikoshi H, Yazaki Y, Kadowaki T: Troglitazone increases the number of small adipocytes without the change of white adipose tissue mass in obese Zucker rats. *J Clin Invest* 101:1354–1361, 1998
 60. Auwerx J: PPARgamma, the ultimate thrifty gene. *Diabetologia* 42:1033–1049, 1999
 61. Scherer PE, Williams S, Fogliano M, Baldini G, Lodish HF: A novel serum protein similar to C1q, produced exclusively in adipocytes. *J Biol Chem* 270:26746–26749, 1995
 62. Hu E, Liang P, Spiegelman BM: AdipoQ is a novel adipose-specific gene dysregulated in obesity. *J Biol Chem* 271:10697–10703, 1996
 63. Kahn BB, Flier JS: Obesity and insulin resistance. *J Clin Invest* 106:473–481, 2000
 64. Statnick MA, Beavers LS, Conner LJ, Corominola H, Johnson D, Hammond CD, Rafaeloff-Phail R, Seng T, Suter TM, Sluka JP, Ravussin E, Gadski RA, Caro JF: Decreased expression of apM1 in omental and subcutaneous adipose tissue of humans with type 2 diabetes. *Int J Exp Diabetes Res* 1:81–88, 2000
 65. Weyer C, Funahashi T, Tanaka S, Hotta K, Matsuzawa Y, Pratley RE, Tataranni PA: Hypoadiponectinemia in obesity and type 2 diabetes: close association with insulin resistance and hyperinsulinemia. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab* 86:1930–1935, 2001
 66. Yamauchi T, Kamon J, Waki H, Terauchi Y, Kubota N, Hara K, Mori Y, Ide T, Murakami K, Tsuboyama-Kasaoka N, Ezaki O, Akanuma Y, Gavrilova O, Vinson C, Reitman ML, Kagechika H, Shudo K, Yoda M, Nakano Y, Tobe K, Nagai R, Kimura S, Tomita M, Froguel P, Kadowaki T: The fat-derived hormone adiponectin reverses insulin resistance associated with both lipotrophy and obesity. *Nat Med* 7:941–946, 2001
 67. Maeda N, Shimomura I, Kishida K, Nishizawa H, Matsuda M, Nagaretani H, Furuyama N, Kondo H, Takahashi M, Arita Y, Komuro R, Ouchi N, Kihara S, Tochino Y, Okutomi K, Horie M, Takeda S, Aoyama T, Funahashi T, Matsuzawa Y: Diet-induced insulin resistance in mice lacking adiponectin/ACRP30. *Nat Med* 8:731–737, 2002
 68. Kubota N, Terauchi Y, Yamauchi T, Kubota T, Moroi M, Matsui J, Eto K, Yamashita T, Kamon J, Satoh H, Yano W, Nagai R, Kimura S, Kadowaki T, Noda T: Disruption of adiponectin causes insulin resistance and neointimal formation. *J Biol Chem* 277:25863–25866, 2002
 69. Berg AH, Combs TP, Du X, Brownlee M, Scherer PE: The adipocyte-secreted protein Acrp30 enhances hepatic insulin action. *Nat Med* 7:947–953, 2001
 70. Combs TP, Wagner JA, Berger J, Doebber T, Wang WJ, Zhang BB, Tanen M, Berg AH, O'Rahilly S, Savage DB, Chatterjee K, Weiss S, Larson PJ, Gottesdiener KM, Gertz BJ, Charron MJ, Scherer PE, Moller DE: Induction of adipocyte complement-related protein of 30 kilodaltons by PPARgamma agonists: a potential mechanism of insulin sensitization. *Endocrinology* 143:998–1007, 2002
 71. Maeda N, Takahashi M, Funahashi T, Kihara S, Nishizawa H, Kishida K, Nagaretani H, Matsuda M, Komuro R, Ouchi N, Kuriyama H, Hotta K, Nakamura T, Shimomura I, Matsuzawa Y: PPARgamma ligands increase expression and plasma concentrations of adiponectin, an adipose-derived protein. *Diabetes* 50:2094–2099, 2001
 72. Czekay RP, Aertgeerts K, Curriden SA, Loskutoff DJ: Plasminogen activator inhibitor-1 detaches cells from extracellular matrices by inactivating integrins. *J Cell Biol* 160:781–791, 2003
 73. Deng G, Curriden SA, Hu G, Czekay RP, Loskutoff DJ: Plasminogen activator inhibitor-1 regulates cell adhesion by binding to the somatomedin B domain of vitronectin. *J Cell Physiol* 189:23–33, 2001
 74. Loskutoff DJ, Curriden SA, Hu G, Deng G: Regulation of cell adhesion by PAI-1. *APMIS* 107:54–61, 1999
 75. Lopez-Alemayn R, Redondo JM, Nagamine Y, Munoz-Canoves P: Plasminogen activator inhibitor type-1 inhibits insulin signaling by competing with alphavbeta3 integrin for vitronectin binding. *Eur J Biochem* 270:814–821, 2003
 76. Yale JF: Prevention of type 2 diabetes. *Int J Clin Pract Suppl* 35–39, 2000
 77. Fogari R, Mugellini A, Zoppi A, Corradi L, Preti P, Lazzari P, Derosa G: Losartan and perindopril effects on plasma plasminogen activator inhibitor-1 and fibrinogen in hypertensive type 2 diabetic patients. *Am J Hypertens* 15:316–320, 2002
 78. Hansson L, Lindholm LH, Niskanen L, Lanke J, Hedner T, Niklason A, Luomanmaki K, Dahlöf B, de Faire U, Morlin C, Karlberg BE, Wester PO, Björck JE: Effect of angiotensin-converting-enzyme inhibition compared with conventional therapy on cardiovascular morbidity and mortality in hypertension: the Captopril Prevention Project (CAPPP) randomised trial. *Lancet* 353:611–616, 1999
 79. Yusuf S, Gerstein H, Hoogwerf B, Pogue J, Bosch J, Wolfenbutter BH, Zinman B: Ramipril and the development of diabetes. *JAMA* 286:1882–1885, 2001
 80. Yusuf S, Sleight P, Pogue J, Bosch J, Davies R, Dagenais G: Effects of an angiotensin-converting-enzyme inhibitor, ramipril, on cardiovascular events in high-risk patients: the Heart Outcomes Prevention Evaluation Study Investigators. *N Engl J Med* 342:145–153, 2000
 81. Dahlöf B, Devereux RB, Kjeldsen SE, Julius S, Beevers G, Faire U, Fyhrquist F, Ibsen H, Kristiansson K, Lederballe-Pedersen O, Lindholm LH, Nieminen MS, Omvik P, Oparil S, Wedel H: Cardiovascular morbidity and mortality in the Losartan Intervention For Endpoint reduction in hypertension study (LIFE): a randomised trial against atenolol. *Lancet* 359:995–1003, 2002
 82. McFarlane SI, Kumar A, Sowers JR: Mechanisms by which angiotensin-converting enzyme inhibitors prevent diabetes and cardiovascular disease. *Am J Cardiol* 91:30H–37H, 2003
 83. Sharma AM, Janke J, Gorzelniak K, Engeli S, Luft FC: Angiotensin blockade prevents type 2 diabetes by formation of fat cells. *Hypertension* 40:609–611, 2002