

Décodage du role de GPS2 dans le controle transcriptionnel de l'inflammation du tissu adipeux dans l'obésité

Amine Toubal

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UNIVERSITE PARIS VI- PIERRE ET MARIE CURIE U.F.R. SCIENCES DE LA VIE

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Présentée par Amine TOUBAL

Pour l'obtention du titre de DOCTEUR DE L'UNIVERSITE PARIS VI

Décodage du rôle de GPS2 dans le contrôle transcriptionnel de l'inflammation du tissu adipeux dans l'obésité

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Devant le jury composé de :

Pr. Bruno FEVE Pr. Bart STAELS Dr. Toby LAWRENCE Pr. Fabrizio ANDREELLI Dr. Renaud DENTIN Dr. Nicolas VENTECLEF Président du jury Rapporteur Rapporteur Examinateur Examinateur Directeur de thèse

A mes Parents, A Hiba, Nas et Doudou, A Layla,

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ABREVIATIONS

A AP-1 – Activator Protein 1 ATP – Adenosine Triphosphate

С

CCL – Chemokine (C-c motif) ligand CD – Cluster of Differentiation C/EBP – CCAAT-Enhancer Binding Protein ChIP - Chromatin immunoprecipitation CoRNRbox - Corepressor nuclear receptor box

G GPS2 – G Protein Pathway Supressor 2

Η

HAT- Histone acetyl-transferase HDAC-Histone DeACetylase HMDM- Human Monocytes Derived Macrophages

I

 $\label{eq:starses} \begin{array}{l} IFN - Interferon \\ IKK-\beta - Inhibitor of NF-\kappa B kinase subunit beta \\ IL - Interleukin \\ IRF - Interferon Regulatory Factor \\ IRS - Insulin Receptor Substrate \end{array}$

J JNK – c-JUN N-Terminal kinase

K KDM- Lysine (K) DeMethylase

L

LPS – Lipopolysaccharide LRH1- Liver receptor homologous protein 1 LXR- Liver X receptor

M MCP-1 – Monocyte Chemoattractant Protein-1 Ν

NCOR- Nuclear Receptro Corepressor NF-κB – Nuclear Factor-kappa B NLS - Nuclear localization signal

Р

PolII - ARN-polymerase II PPAR – Peroxisome Proliferator-Activated Receptor

R

RN - Récepteur nucléaire

S

SMRT- Silencing Mediator for Retinoid or Thyroid-hormone receptors

Т

TBL1- Transductin Betta-Like 1 TBLR1- Transductin Betta-Like-Related 1 TG – Triglycerides TGF-β - Transforming Growth Factor beta TLR – Toll-Like Receptor TNF – Tumor Necrosis Factor

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AVANT-PROPOS

Qui suis-je ? De tout temps l'Homme s'est posé cette question. Les philosophes à travers les âges ont essayé de répondre à cette question chacun à sa manière. De Socrate au cogito de Descartes, chaque philosophe, chaque penseur, a tenté de donner une réponse métaphysique, philosophique ou scientifique, sans jamais arriver à une réponse satisfaisante.

D'un point de vue scientifique, plusieurs disciplines se sont intéressées à la question. Les sciences humaines donnent une réponse qui est générale, universelle, et en aucun ne répond à la question de manière individuelle. L'Homme ne sait toujours pas se définir. Il faut attendre l'essor de la génétique à la fin du XIXéme siècle et surtout durant le XXème siècle, pour que l'Homme trouve une réponse à cette question. En effet, de Mendel, qui le premier a mis en évidence les caractères héréditaires, au séquençage du génome humain en passant par la découverte de la structure de l'ADN par Watson et Krick, l'Homme tenait enfin une réponse scientifique et rationnelle de ce qu'il était. L'ADN était le support de l'hérédité et tout était écrit dans notre génome, nos maladies, notre comportement. Notre phénotype était le miroir de notre génotype. Mais la tentation était forte de tout justifier par nos gènes. Si bien que ceci a donné naissance à des dérives, tels que l'eugénisme, le darwinisme social, le déterminisme.

Cependant, le tout génétique possédait plusieurs points faibles. En effet, la génétique seule ne pouvait expliquer par exemple que des vrais jumeaux, ayant un génome identique, puissent développer des maladies différentes, ni expliquer que les cellules d'un organisme, bien qu'ayant le même génome, aient un phénotype diffèrent (les hépatocytes ont un phénotype diffèrent des cellules musculaires ou des neurones). En 1942, le biologiste Conrad Waddington, introduit une nouvelle notion : l'épigénétique (au-dessus de la génétique). Pour lui l'épigénétique est la discipline « qui étudie les interactions entre les gènes et leurs produits qui transforment un phénotype en un être ». Aujourd'hui, la définition la plus communément admise de l'épigénétique est l'étude des changements héritables dans la régulation de l'information codée par les gènes, transmis d'une génération (de cellules ou d'un organisme) à la suivante, et qui ne découlent pas de modifications de la séquence d'ADN nucléaire. Nous ne sommes plus uniquement définis par notre génome, mais aussi par notre environnement.

Aujourd'hui, l'étude des mécanismes épigénétiques, connaît un véritable essor. Plusieurs d'entre eux sont bien connus tels que la méthylation et/ou l'acétylation des histones, qui modifient la structure de la chromatine et donc l'expression des gènes. Ces modifications sont très sensibles à notre environnement. En effet, plusieurs études ont montré que certains produits chimiques pouvaient induire certains cancers par des modifications épigénétiques. Depuis le début des années 2000, il y a eu de véritables regains d'intérêt pour l'étude des mécanismes épigénétiques, avec la découverte des complexes multiprotéiques corégulateurs capables de moduler la transcription des gènes en fonction de l'environnement. Le rôle de l'épigénétique est plus que jamais au cœur de l'actualité avec l'explosion de maladies métaboliques tels que le diabète de type 2 et l'obésité. En effet, bien qu'une composante génétique existe dans la mise en place de ces maladies, aujourd'hui il apparaît clairement que l'environnement joue aussi un rôle primordial. L'épigénétique pourrait par exemple expliquer pourquoi certains individus sont plus susceptibles de développer une obésité ou un diabète que d'autres.

Dans ce contexte, notre équipe s'intéresse aux mécanismes épigénétiques responsables de l'apparition et du maintien de l'inflammation chronique et des complications métaboliques associées à l'obésité.

INTRODUCTION

A. La transcription

1. Généralités

La transcription est le processus par lequel l'ADN double brin génère une séquence d'ARN simple brin. D'une manière simplifiée, le processus de transcription débute lorsque l'enzyme l'ARN polymérase se lie à l'ADN et ainsi commence la synthèse du brin d'ARN complémentaire.

Les polymérases sont des enzymes composées d'une douzaine de sous unités, capables de former un complexe transcriptionnel en interagissant avec d'autres facteurs tels que les facteurs de transcription et complexes corégulateurs. Chez les eucaryotes, il existe trois types d'ARN polymérase. L'ARN polymérase I et III qui transcrivent les gènes codant pour la majorité des ARN ribosomaux et les ARN de transfert. L'ARN polymérase II est la seule polymérase qui transcrit les ARN messagers (ARNm). Pour initier la transcription d'un gène, l'ARN reconnaît dans un premier temps le promoteur du gène à transcrire. Cette reconnaissance nécessite l'interaction de l'ARN polymérase II avec d'autres facteurs tels que TBP (TATA box-binding Protein), ou la famille des TFII (Transcription Factor for RNA polymérase II) pour former le complexe d'initiation de la transcription (Thomas and Chiang, 2006). Ces facteurs sont des facteurs « généraux » de la transcription car ils sont présents au niveau de tous les promoteurs contrôlés par l'ARN polymérase II. In vitro, l'activité du complexe d'initiation de la transcription est suffisante pour induire une activité transcriptionnelle, mais à de très faibles taux. Cette activité basale ou sa répression est sous le contrôle de facteurs spécifiques que nous évoquerons tout au long de l'introduction (facteurs de transcription et corégulateurs) (Figure 1).

Les gènes des cellules eucaryotes sont généralement constitués d'une séquence promotrice, d'exons et d'introns. Ils possèdent un site TSS (Transcription Start Site) qui correspond au site de démarrage de la transcription. C'est ce site est qui est reconnu par l'ARN polymérase pour initier la transcription. Les exons sont les séquences codantes du gène alors que les introns sont les séquences non codantes (Juven-Gershon and Kadonaga, 2010).



Figure 1: La machinerie transcriptionnelle

Le promoteur d'un gène correspond à une région non transcrite de l'ADN, généralement en amont de la région codante du gène, délimité par le site d'initiation de la transcription.

Certaines séquences du promoteur appelées « boîtes » régulatrices ont une importance particulière dans ce processus car elles autorisent le contrôle de l'expression du gène par des protéines régulatrices (facteurs de transcription). Ainsi, ces courtes séquences permettent d'adapter le niveau d'activité d'un gène aux besoins physiologiques et en fonction du niveau de différenciation des cellules. Les éléments de régulation ont été classés en deux types, selon leur distance par rapport au site d'initiation de la transcription : les séquences régulatrices proximales qui correspondent au promoteur, ou promoteur central, et les séquences régulatrices distales (Figure 2).

- La région proximale du promoteur est située juste en amont de la séquence codante du gène. C'est dans cette région proximale du promoteur que se fixe l'ARN polymerase II. Cette région comprend le site d'initiation de la transcription et contient la « TATA box » qui est située environ 25 pb en amont de celui-ci et qui sert de lieu de reconnaissance à l'ARN polymérase. Le promoteur central est incapable, à lui seul, d'assurer une transcription efficace de la séquence codante située en aval. D'autres éléments proximaux situés entre 100 et 200 pb du site d'initiation sont également impliqués dans la régulation de la transcription. La « CAAT box » signale le site de liaison pour les facteurs de transcription et est généralement accompagnée d'une séquence consensus conservée. Elle fonctionne comme l'une des séquences agissant en cis. La mutation de ces éléments centraux a des conséquences significatives sur le taux de transcription et se traduit par une forte diminution ou un blocage de la transcription (Thomas and Chiang, 2006).
- Certaines séquences promotrices appelées cis-éléments sont parfois situées jusqu'à plusieurs milliers de paires de bases en amont du site d'initiation de la transcription et sont nécessaires pour le contrôle de l'expression du gène. Ces séquences sont appelées « enhancer » lorsqu'elles sont activatrices et « silencer »



Figure 2 : Organisation de la région promotrice d'un gène. En amont de la séquence promotrice d'un gène se trouve une séquence dite « enhancer » qui a une forte affinité pour les protéines activatrices de la transcription. Pour enclencher la transcription d'un gène, l'ADN forme une boucle pour faciliter l'interaction entre la protéine activatrice et l'ARN polymérase.

lorsqu'elles sont inhibitrices. La composition de ces différentes séquences promotrices se nomme « Cistrome » (van Arensbergen et al., 2014).

 Récemment des séquences «super-enhancer» ont étaient découvertes. Ces séquences également appelées « Hotspot » correspondent à des séquences d'ADN qui se trouve au niveau des promoteurs des gènes et ou se lient plusieurs facteurs de transcription qui vont fonctionner de manière synergique pour induire la transcription des gènes. Ces Hotspots sont aujourd'hui peu caractérisés. Ils sont présents au niveau des promoteurs de certains gènes mais pas d'autres (Pott and Lieb, 2014).

L'activité de ces régions est entièrement dépendante de l'état de la chromatine : ouverte (euchromatine) ou fermée (hétérochromatine). C'est selon cet état qu'elles vont pouvoir plus ou moins interagir entre elles, recruter les éléments régulateurs et initier ou non la transcription d'un gène. Ce passage d'un état actif à un état inactif de la chromatine est un processus hautement régulé par des protéines capables d'induire les modifications post-traductionnelles des histones que nous avons évoquées précédemment.

2. Structure et remodelage de la chromatine

L'unité de base de la chromatine est le nucléosome. Il est constitué d'une séquence d'ADN de 147 paires de bases, enroulée autour d'un octamère d'histones (H2A, H2B, H3 et H4). Entre les différents nucléosomes, l'histone H1, protéine chaperonne, stabilise l'assemblage des octamères pour faciliter la condensation de la chromatine (Kornberg, 1974; Teves et al., 2014).

La chromatine est donc une structure dynamique qui passe d'un état condensé (hétérochromatine) à un état non condensé (euchromatine). A noter que la forme compacte de la chromatine bloque l'accès et l'assemblage des facteurs de transcription. Le passage de l'hétérochromatine à l'euchromatine est fortement dépendant des modifications post-traductionnelles des histones.

BOX 1 : Modifications post traductionnelle de la chromatine

La phosphorylation des histones se produit sur les résidus Sérine (H2BS10, H2BS14, H3S10, H3S28) et Thréonine (H3T3, H3T11). Elle est généralement corrélée à l'activation transcriptionnelle aussi bien chez la levure que chez les mammifères. Elle joue aussi un rôle important dans le déroulement de la mitose et la réparation de l'ADN qui nécessite la déphosphorylation de la thréonine 11 d'H3. Sur H2B, la phosphorylation des sérines 10 et 14 est liée à l'induction de l'apoptose (Hans and Dimitrov, 2001; Lo et al., 2001).

L'ubiquitination des histones joue différents rôles en fonction du résidu ciblé. L'ubiquitination de la lysine 119 de l'histone H2A, chez l'homme, est associée à la répression transcriptionnelle par inhibition de l'élongation de la PolII. A l'inverse, l'ubiquitination de la lysine 120 de l'histone H2B, chez l'homme et la levure, est associée à l'activation de la transcription. L'ubiquitination des histones H3 et H4 est induite quand l'ADN est endommagé par les ultraviolets et constitue ainsi un signal pour le recrutement de la protéine de réparation XPC (Wang et al., 2006; Zhou et al., 2008).

La SUMOylation se produit sur les lysines des quatre histones. Elle consiste en l'ajout de la protéine SUMO (Small Ubiquitin-like MOdifier). Cette modification est impliquée dans la répression transcriptionelle chez l'homme comme chez la levure *Schizosaccharomyces pombe,* car elle est mutuellement exclusive avec l'acétylation ou l'ubiquitination du résidu lysine ciblé (Garcia-Dominguez and Reyes, 2009)

La queue N-terminale des histones (« histone tails »), localisée en dehors du nucléosome, est sujette à différentes modifications post-traductionnelles dont les principales sont : la méthylation des résidus lysines et arginines, la phosphorylation des sérines et thréonine et l'acétylation des lysines (Keppler and Archer, 2008a, b) (BOX 1). Comme nous l'avons évoqué, ces modifications post-traductionnelles permettent de moduler la structure de la chromatine vers un état transcriptionnel actif (euchromatine) ou inactif (hétérochromatine). Des complexes multi-protéiques, possédant une activité enzymatique spécifique, sont responsables de ce remodelage de la chromatine (Wyrick and Parra, 2009).

Ces complexes enzymatiques utilisent, entre autres, l'énergie de l'hydrolyse de l'ATP pour changer l'état de la chromatine en modulant et en restructurant le nucléosome via les modifications décrites ci-dessus.

3. Les corégulateurs de la transcription

Il existe plus de 400 corégulateurs identifiés à ce jour. Ils sont usuellement divisés en deux grandes familles : i) les coactivateurs, qui comme leur nom l'indique sont impliqués dans l'activation de la transcription des gènes et les ii) corépresseurs qui répriment la transcription des gènes (Perissi and Rosenfeld, 2005) (Figure 3).

Les corégulateurs sont des éléments essentiels à la régulation de la structure de la chromatine et de l'activation des facteurs de transcription. Les études mécanistiques des corégulateurs de ces dernières années ont permis de mettre en évidence leurs rôles essentiels (mais complexes) dans la régulation et la coordination de la transcription. La perturbation de l'activité ou de la fonction des corégulateurs favorise un état pathologique. En effet, leurs implications dans différentes maladies humaines ne font plus aucun doute comme le décrit le Pr. Bert O'Malley (Dasgupta et al., 2014; Lonard et al., 2007).

Le laboratoire des Professeurs Christopher K.Glass et Michael G.Rosenfeld a décrit ce mécanisme d'échange entre corépresseurs et coactivateurs comme étant essentiel à la régulation de la transcription des gènes (Perissi et al., 2004; Rosenfeld et al., 2006). Ce modèle d'échange de coactivateurs a notamment été très bien décrit dans le contrôle de



Figure 3 : Les corégulateurs de la transcription : Les complexes coactivateurs comprennent des facteurs possédant une activité de remodelage de la chromatine de maniére ATP-dépendante, histone arginine méthyltransférase, histone acétyltransférase. Ils comprennent également des facteurs impliqués dans le recrutement de l'ARN et des composants du complexe « MEDIATOR » qui intervient dans l'interaction avec la polymérase II. Inversement, les corépresseurs comprennent les complexes modulateurs de la chromatine dépendants de l'ATP, des corépresseurs ligands-dépendants et des complexes ayant des sous-unités à activité « histone déacétylase ».

l'activité tanscriptionnelle des récepteurs nucléaires (RNs) (BOX 2). Ce sont des protéines qui se lient directement à l'ADN sous forme d'homo ou hétérodimère pour induire l'expression d'un gène. Leur activité est dépendante de la liaison d'un ligand. Dans un état basal non activé, les RNs interagissent avec des complexes corepresseurs qui inhibent leur activité. Cette interaction se fait au niveau de deux domaines de liaison des récepteurs nucléaires qui possédent une séquence consensus (LXX I/H IXXX I/L) formant une boîte appelée CoRNR box (corepressor-nuclear receptro box)(Perissi and Rosenfeld, 2005). La liaison d'un ligand provoque un changement de conformation des récepteurs nucléaires. Ce changement va d'une part altérer la liaison des corépresseurs (accessibilité à la séquence CoRNR BOX) et d'autre part permettre le recrutement des coactivateurs. Ceux-ci possèdent une séquence spécifique (LXXLL), site d'interaction rendu accessible suite à ce changement de conformation. Plus précisément, les complexes de corépresseurs possèdent des sous unités capables de « ressentir » la liaison de ligand sur les récepteurs nucléaires et donner le signal d'ubiquitination du complexe répresseur pour permettre le décrochage du complexe et sa dégradation par le protéasome (Figure 4).

4. La méthylation des histones

La méthylation des histones a un effet différent en fonction du résidu lysine ciblé. Elle est à la fois associée à la répression de la transcription (méthylation de K9 et K27 de l'histone H3 et de K20 de l'histone H4) ou à un état transcriptionnellement actif de la chromatine (méthylation de K4, K36, K79, R2, R17 et R23 de l'histone H3)(Figure 5). Les HMT (Histone MethylTransferase) et PRMT (Protein aRginine MethylTransferase) sont les deux enzymes responsables de la méthylation des histones (Volkel and Angrand, 2007). La méthylation des histones est une modification réversible qui peut être hydrolysée par des protéines de la famille KDM (Lysine DeMethylase). Cette famille KDM est subdivisée en deux sous groupes en fonction de leur activité enzymatique : 1) les KDM possédant une activité « flavin adenine dinucleotide (FAD)-dependent amine oxidases » capable d'enlever les résidus méthyle sur les lysines mono- et di-méthylées et 2) Les KDM contenant le domaine Jumonji C (JmjC) associé à une activité oxygénase capable d'enlever les trois états de méthylation (mono-, di- et tri-méthylation) des lysines. Cette une réaction d'oxydation nécessite du fer Fe(II) et de

BOX 2 : Les Récepteurs Nucléaires

Chez les mammifères, la superfamille des récepteurs nucléaires comprend plus de 45 facteurs de transcription, dont beaucoup régulent l'expression génique d'une manière ligand-dépendant. La superfamille des récepteurs nucléaires comprend: des récepteurs pour des hormones stéroïdes, tels que le récepteur des oestrogènes (ER), le récepteur des androgènes (AR) et le récepteur de glucocorticoïdes (GR); des récepteurs pour des ligands non stéroïdiens, tels que le récepteur de l'hormone thyroïdienne (TR) et le récepteur de l'acide rétinoïque (RAR); ainsi que les récepteurs qui se lient à divers produits du métabolisme des lipides tels que les acides gras et les prostaglandines (peroxysome proliferator activated receptor (PPAR) et des récepteurs X du foie (LXRs). La superfamille des récepteurs nucléaires comprend également de nombreux récepteurs dits orphelins pour qui les ligands sont encore inconnus ou pour lesquels les candidats n'ont été identifiés que récemment. Le séquençage du génome humain a jusqu'ici conduit à l'identification de 48 récepteurs nucléaires, qui jouent un rôle crucial dans la régulation de la croissance, le développement et l'homéostasie (Evans and Mangelsdorf, 2014).

Les protéines des récepteurs nucléaires ont une structure caractéristique, qui comprend un domaine de liaison à l'ADN hautement conservé (DBD) et un domaine de liaison au ligand (LBD). Toutefois, malgré la conservation de la structure, les membres de la famille des récepteurs nucléaires sont fonctionnellement extrêmement flexibles dans la régulation de la transcription. Par exemple, ils peuvent se lier directement à des éléments de réponse spécifiques de l'ADN, sous forme de monomère ou sous forme d'homo- et hétérodimères. Ils peuvent aussi réguler la transcription indirectement par d'autres catégories de facteurs de transcription liés à l'ADN. En outre, un sous-ensemble de récepteurs, qui comprend TR et RAR, peut réprimer activement leurs gènes cibles en l'absence de ligand. Par contre, à la liaison du ligand, ces récepteurs nucléaires deviennent de puissants activateurs transcriptionnels. Inversement, d'autres récepteurs nucléaires inhibent la transcription d'une manière dépendante du ligand (Huang et al., 2010).



Figure 4 : Motifs d'interaction entre les récepteurs nucléaires et les complexes corégulateurs. (Perissi and Rosenfeld 2005).

l' α -cétoglutarate (α KG) comme cofacteurs . Enfin, les arginines mono-méthylées, quant à elles, peuvent être converties en citrulline par l'enzyme PADI4 (PeptidylArginine DeIminase 4) et il a aussi été découvert récemment qu'elles peuvent être déméthylées par les KDM contenant le domaine JmjC (Chang et al., 2007; Mosammaparast and Shi, 2010).

5. Acétylation des histones : rôle de la balance HAT et HDAC

L'acétylation des lysines est une modification post-traductionnelle dans laquelle le groupement acétyl de l'acétyl-COA est transféré au groupement amine de la lysine. Les histones furent les premières protéines à être identifiées comme étant des substrats pour l'acétylation de la lysine, et les enzymes responsables de l'acétylation et la déacétylation furent alors nommées respectivement « Histone acétyltransférases » (HATs)) et « histone déacétylases » (HDACs) (Hodawadekar and Marmorstein, 2007; Jeppesen and Turner, 1993; Witt et al., 2009) . Aujourd'hui, il est clairement établi que ces enzymes jouent un rôle dans la régulation de « l'architecture » de la chromatine. On estime aujourd'hui que plus de 1750 protéines sont capables d'être acétylées sur un site lysine, mettant ainsi en évidence l'implication de ces enzymes dans différents processus cellulaires. Des avancées récentes dans le domaine ont identifié le rôle clef des HAT et HDACs dans le contrôle transcriptionnel des gènes inflammatoires (Figure 5).

CBP (CREB-binding protein) et P300, les deux HATs les plus étudiées dans la littérature, fonctionnent comme des activateurs de nombreux facteurs de transcription tels c-FOS et c-Jun. L'acétylation des queues amino-terminales neutralise la charge positive portée par l'azote des lysines induisant une diminution de l'interaction entre ADN et histones, mais également entre les nucléosomes. Ceci provoque l'ouverture de la chromatine et donc plus accessible aux facteurs de transcription et autres régulateurs transcriptionnels (Hodawadekar and Marmorstein, 2007).

La déacétylation des histones a un effet inverse sur l'état de la chromatine, car elle conduit à une structure plus condensée de cette dernière. Chez l'homme, la famille HDAC se compose de 11 membres regroupés en 4 sous groupes dont les plus emblématiques sont les histones deacétylase de classe I et II. Les HDACs sont généralement présents dans le noyau de la cellule dû à la présence d'une séquence NLS (Nuclear Localisation Sequence) et à l'absence d'un signal d'export nucléaire (à l'exception de HDAC3 qui



Figure 5 : Acétylation/déacétylation et méthylation/démétylation des histones. La déacétylation des histones par les HDACs permet le maintien de la chromatine dans un état transcriptionnellement inactif (hétérochromatine). A l'inverse les HATs acétylent les histones permettant la décondensation de la chromatine (euchromatine), état transcriptionnellement actif. La méthylation des histones est à la fois associée à l'hétérochromatine ou l'euchromatine, selon les résidus méthylés.

possède ce signal au niveau de la portion médiane de la protéine). Les histones de Classe I ont été essentiellement étudiées dans le cadre de leur rôle de modificateurs d'histones et de répresseurs de la transcription. Les histones de classe II possèdent un domaine d'interaction avec les facteurs de transcription au niveau de l'extrémité N-terminale. Ces histones possèdent aussi bien une activité répressive qu'activatrice de la transcription. Cependant, dans les deux cas ils nécessitent le recrutement d'autres protéines (activateurs ou corepresseurs) afin de former des complexes activateurs et répresseurs. L'existence de différents HDACs et des complexes d'HDAC soulève la question de la spécificité potentielle de leurs activités enzymatiques et leur fonctionnement de manière générale (Witt et al., 2009).

6. Les complexes corépresseurs de la transcription : NCOR et SMRT

6.1. Structure et généralités

NCOR (Nuclear receptor co-repressor) et SMRT (silencing mediator for retinoid or thyroid-hormone receptors) apparaissent comme des répresseurs transcriptionels important (Ghisletti et al., 2009).

Structurellement, plusieurs études ont permis l'identification des différents domaines de NCOR et SMRT. Au niveau N-terminal, on trouve les domaines de répression (RD1, RD2 et RD3). C'est trois domaines, hautement conservés entre NCOR et SMRT, sont responsables de l'activité répressive de ces corépresseurs. C'est au niveau de ces domaines que se fait l'interaction avec les autres membres des complexes (GPS2, TBL1). Entre RD1 et RD2, il existe un domaine appelé DAD (deacetylase activation domain) responsable du recrutement et l'activation de HDAC3. Au niveau C-terminale se trouve trois domaines d'interaction avec les récepteurs nucléaires (domaines RIDs), qui possèdent la boîte CoRNR (Figure 6). La délétion de ces domaines diminue l'activité répressive de NCOR induisant une augmentation de l'activité transcriptionnelle des récepteurs nucléaires contrôlés par NCOR ou SMRT (Oberoi et al., 2011).

L'identification de NCOR a été réalisée suite à des études biochimiques menées dans le cadre de la quête d'explication de la répression de la transcription des gènes par les récepteurs nucléaires. Les études menées par *Horlein et al.* ainsi que *Seol et al.* ont



Figure 6 : Structure des protéines NCOR et SMRT. Ces deux protéines possèdent une structure protéique très homologue. Au niveau N-terminale il y a présence de 3 domaines RD permettant l'interaction avec les autres partenaires du complexe corépresseurs. Au niveau C-terminal il y a présence de 3 domaines RIDs permettant l'interaction avec les facteurs de transcription. montré que NCOR interagissait avec TRα et RARα, cette interaction semblait être associée à l'inhibition de l'activité de TRα et RARα (Horlein et al., 1995; Seol et al., 1996). SMRT a été isolé grâce à la technique du double hybride dans la levure en utilisant RXR comme « appât ». D'autres études ont montré qu'il pouvait aussi interagir avec RAR et TR. Même s'il existe une très grande similarité de séquence entre SMRT et NCOR, ce dernier possède deux domaines répresseurs au niveau de l'extrémité N-terminale qui sont absents de la séquence de SMRT. Au niveau C-terminal, SMRT possède deux domaines d'interactions avec RID-1 et RID-2 qui interagissent différemment avec les récepteurs nucléaires (Chen and Evans, 1995).

Malgré les similitudes entre NCOR et SMRT, leurs actions semblent être spécifiques de certains promoteurs. Une action concomitante a également été décrite dans certaines régions du génome. La régulation de la transcription par NCOR et SMRT est encore mal comprise (Ghisletti et al., 2009).

La composition de ces complexes semble dépendre du type cellulaire (hépatocytes, macrophages, adipocytes). Certains partenaires sont régulièrement décrits comme étant stoechiométriquement associés à NCOR et/ou SMRT. Outre HDAC3, seule protéine du complexe possédant une activité enzymatique, les autres partenaires sont GPS2 (G protein pathway supressor 2), TBL1 (transductin b-like 1) et son homologue TBLR-1 (TBL-related 1), dont l'ensemble forme ce que *Oberoi et al.* ont appelé le « cœur » du complexe répresseur (Oberoi et al., 2011). A noter que NCOR et SMRT forment deux complexes bien distincts, bien qu'ayant les mêmes partenaires.

6.2. Rôles biologiques de NCOR et SMRT

6.2.1. Rôle de NCOR et de SMRT dans le développement

Les premières études sur les fonctions de NCOR et SMRT menées chez la Drosophile ont permis de définir leur rôle dans le développement. La caractérisation de SMRTER, homologue chez la drosophile de NCOR et SMRT, a permis de montrer qu'ils étaient capable d'interagir avec certains facteurs de transcription pour réprimer l'expression de certains gènes et ainsi permettre la mue. Si l'interaction entre SMRTER et les facteurs récepteurs est empêchée, de graves défauts de développement apparaissent (Tsai et al., 1999). Malgré leur grande similitude, NCOR et SMRT semblent avoir un rôle non redondant chez les mammifères. L'invalidation de l'un ou de l'autre est létale au stade embryonnaire. Les souris NCOR^{-/-} ont permis par exemple de mettre en évidence le rôle de NCOR dans le développement du système nerveux central (Jepsen et al., 2000). Ces souris présentent aussi un défaut dans l'érythropoïèse et un arrêt du développement des lymphocytes T. Ceci est dû essentiellement à la perturbation des signaux RAR et TR qui provoquent la mort de l'embryon au 15ème jour de développement. Tout comme NCOR, SMRT joue aussi un rôle dans le développement du système nerveux central (Jepsen et al., 2007), mais aussi dans la formation du cœur (Jepsen et al., 2008). Les souris SMRT^{-/-} meurent avant le 16ème jour de développement à cause de défauts de morphologie cardiaque. Les rôles clefs de NCOR et SMRT dans les mécanismes de développements semblent avoir été bien conservés durant l'évolution même si, selon les espèces, ils agissent à différents stades de l'embryogenèse.

Les études d'invalidation de NCOR ou SMRT chez les souris, au niveau de l'organisme entier, menée entre autres par *Jepsen et al.*, ont permis, de manière évidente, de mieux comprendre leur rôle. Cependant à cause de la létalité précoce de ces souris, il était impossible d'étudier ces corépresseurs au stade adulte. Une approche d'invalidation ou de surexpression au niveau de certaines cellules spécifiques a notamment permis de mieux comprendre leurs mécanismes d'action.

6.2.2. Rôle métabolique de NCOR

NCOR joue également un rôle dans différents tissus métaboliquement actifs tels que le muscle, le foie et le tissu adipeux.

NCOR dans le muscle : L'invalidation spécifique de NCOR dans le muscle améliore l'endurance suite à un exercice, dûe à une augmentation de la masse musculaire mais aussi grâce à l'augmentation du nombre des fibres musculaires plus oxydatives car contenant des mitochondries hyperactives (Yamamoto et al., 2011). Ce phénotype s'explique par l'absence de la répression de PPAR δ et/ou de ERR α par NCOR (Perez-Schindler et al., 2012; Yamamoto et al., 2011).

NCOR dans le foie : L'étude du rôle de NCOR dans le foie s'est faite par la création de différentes souris dans lesquelles les chercheurs ont invalidé ou muté différents domaines d'interaction de NCOR. Ces études ont permis d'identifier son rôle dans le

signal de l'hormone thyroïdienne, connue pour réguler le métabolisme du glucose, du cholestérol et l'oxydation des acides gras. Les souris NCORi, sont des souris dans lesquelles les domaines RDs ont été délétés. L'interaction entre NCOR et TR est altérée permettant l'activation constitutive de TR. Une surexpression de NCoRi spécifiquement dans le foie permet l'activation de TR mais induit également une prolifération importante des hépatocytes démontrant l'implication de NCOR dans la prolifération cellulaire (Feng et al., 2001).

Les souris L-NCoR1DID possèdent une délétion spécifique des deux domaines RIDs, essentiels à l'interaction de NCOR avec les RNs, uniquement dans le foie (Astapova et al., 2008). Dans ce cas, il est observé une augmentation de l'expression des gènes cibles de l'hormone thyroïdienne et ce, en présence ou en absence de cette hormone. Ceci souligne encore une fois l'importance de NCOR dans la répression de TR non lié à un ligand. Une autre étude sur ces même souris a démontré que NCOR participe également à la régulation de l'activité de LXR (Liver X Receptor), car l'expression de gènes cibles de LXR sont induites comme les transporteurs membranaires ABCA1 et ABCG1 (ATP Binding Cassette Transporteur).

La mutation générale du domaine DAD de NCOR empêche l'interaction et l'activation de HDAC3, induisant une dérégulation importante du cycle circadien (Alenghat et al., 2008). Cette découverte démontre l'implication du complexe NCOR/Rev-erba dans la répression d'ARNTL (Aryl hydrocarbon receptor nuclear translocator-like), composant de l'horloge circadienne (Solt et al., 2012; Yin and Lazar, 2005; Yin et al., 2007). Les souris DADm ont un métabolisme altéré avec un poids diminué, une diminution de la masse grasse mais aussi une amélioration de la sensibilité à l'insuline (Alenghat et al., 2008). Enfin, ce modèle murin a permis de mettre en évidence le rôle de NCOR dans l'autophagie via la régulation du récepteur à l'hormone thyroïdienne dans le foie (Sinha et al., 2012).

NCOR dans le tissu adipeux : Les phénotypes observés chez les souris invalidées pour NCOR spécifiquement dans l'adipocyte, sont attribués principalement à la dérépression de PPARγ, régulateur majeur de la différenciation adipocytaire (Li et al., 2011). Lorsque les souris NCOR AdipoKO sont nourries avec un régime hyperlipidique, ces souris deviennent plus obèses. Elles possèdent une plus grande quantité de petits adipocytes ce qui contraste avec les adipocytes hypertrophiés des souris sauvage sous régime hyper-lipidique. La sensibilité à l'insuline ainsi que la tolérance au glucose sont améliorés de manière significative dans tous les tissus de ces souris (foie, muscle et tissu adipeux) confirmant par ailleurs le rôle « insulino-sensibilisateur » de PPARγ (Heikkinen et al., 2007).

6.2.3. Rôle métabolique de SMRT

Les mutations dans les domaines RID1 et RID2 de SMRT perturbent son interaction avec les récepteurs nucléaires. Ces souris, SMRT^{mRID}, présentent une dépense énergétique diminuée et une résistance à l'insuline avec une augmentation de la production de glucose par le foie (Nofsinger et al., 2008). De plus, ces souris sont également plus grasses suite à l'induction des gènes adipogéniques car PPARy n'est plus réprimé.

Il existe aussi des souris invalidées uniquement pour le domaine RID1. Ce modèle de souris est très intéressant, car il peut être à la fois associé à une perte de fonction et à un gain de fonction. D'une part, c'est un modèle de perte de fonction car l'interaction avec certains facteurs de transcriptions est compromise. D'autre part, ce modèle peut aussi refléter un gain de fonction lorsque on considère que l'interaction avec des récepteurs nucléaires tels que les PPARs, qui se fait au niveau du domaine RID2, est favorisée et renforcée. En effet, les récepteurs nucléaires capables d'interagir avec le domaine RID2 de SMRT ne sont plus en compétition avec les autres récepteurs nucléaires. C'est ce gain de fonction qui a permis d'identifier le rôle de SMRT dans les processus de vieillissement. L'expression endogène de SMRT est augmentée avec l'âge dans le muscle. Les souris SMRT^{mRD1} vieillissent plus vite car l'activité des PPARs est inhibée. Elles développent également certaines caractéristiques du syndrome métabolique tels qu'une hyperlipidémie et une résistance à l'insuline, car les gènes impliqués dans le catabolisme des acides gras et le métabolisme oxydatif sont réprimés (Reilly et al., 2010). Le phénotype « perte de fonction » des souris SMRT^{mRID1} apparaît lorsqu'elles sont exposées à un stress environnemental tel que le régime hyperlipidique (Fang et al., 2011). Ces souris deviennent obèses, présentent des signes de stéatoses hépatiques associées à une augmentation du niveau sérique du cholestérol et des triglycérides. L'inflammation du tissu adipeux est aussi fortement augmentée contribuant au désordre métabolique.

Comme nous l'avons évoqué, les complexes corépresseurs NCOR et SMRT sont des complexes multi-protéiques composés de protéines qui paraissent indispensables au fonctionnement du complexe mais leurs rôles précis demeurent mal connus. Parmi ces protéines, on y trouve HDAC3 et GPS2 (G proteine pathway supressor 2),

7. Les protéines associées aux complexes répresseurs NCOR et SMRT

7.1. HDAC3

7.1.1. Structure et généralités

HDAC3 est exprimée de manière ubiquitaire. La structure protéique de HDAC3 est très semblable aux autres HDACs. Cependant HDCA3 possède une extrémité C-terminale différente des autres HDACs. Cette observation a conduit à l'hypothèse que HDAC3 pouvait avoir des propriétés spécifiques. Ceci est appuyé par une localisation cellulaire différente de HDAC3, qui, contrairement aux HDAC 1 et 2 (essentiellement nucléaires), peut être trouvée dans le noyau, le cytoplasme et à la membrane plasmique. Une analyse détaillée des domaines de HDAC3 a révélé que la protéine contient aussi bien un signal d'exportation nucléaire (Haberland et al., 2009).

En 2002, Johnson et ces collègues ont identifié les résidus lysine des histones préférentiellement déacétylés par ces différentes HDAC. Ces résultats montrent que HDAC3 déacétyle notamment les histones suivantes H4K5Ac et H4K12Ac, H3, H2B, H4K8Ac, H4K16Ac, H3K27Ac. L'ensemble de ces acétylations est lié à une répression des gènes (Johnson and Bresnick, 2002).

La compréhension du rôle biologique de HDAC3 est venue suite à son identification dans les complexes corépresseurs NCOR et SMRT. L'identification de HDAC3 comme composant catalytique des complexes NCOR / SMRT a permis de comprendre partiellement le mode de fonctionnement de ces complexes répresseurs de la transcription. En effet, l'interaction de NCOR et SMRT avec un certain nombre de facteurs de transcription, recrutent HDAC3 au niveau de promoteurs spécifiques, où l'enzyme déacétyle les histones et permet le remodelage de la chromatine pour réprimer la transcription des gènes (Karagianni and Wong, 2007).

7.1.2. Les rôles biologiques de HDAC3

L'invalidation globale de HDAC3 est létale à des stades précoces du développement embryonnaire (Montgomery et al., 2008). Les causes exactes de ce phénotype sont inconnues. Cependant, la perte de HDAC3 semble être associée à un défaut de réparation de l'ADN (Bhaskara et al., 2010). Afin de décrypter les fonctions cellulaires de HDAC3, l'invalidation spécifique HDAC3 uniquement dans les hépatocytes a permis de démontrer son rôle dans le métabolisme des lipides et du cholestérol. Ceci se caractérise par une accumulation de lipides et une diminution du stockage du glycogène. Ces changements sont notamment expliqués par la dérépression de gènes sous le contrôle de facteurs de transcription contrôlant les étapes clefs de la biosynthèse des lipides et du cholestérol (Récepteurs Nucléaires (RNs) aux hormones thyroïdiennes (TR), PPARγ (Peroxysome proliferator activated receptor)) (Lai et al., 2008; Sun et al., 2012).

Une autre étude démontre que l'invalidation de HDAC3 dans les cardiomyocytes a pour conséquence l'augmentation importante du stockage de lipides dans le coeur. Ces souris présentent une hypertrophie cardiaque sévère couplée à une expression anormale des gènes qui contrôlent le métabolisme des acides gras qui sont sous le contrôle du facteur de transcription PPAR α . De plus, la perte de HDAC3 dans le coeur induit l'apparition d'une fibrose interstitielle importante (Montgomery et al., 2008).

7.2. GPS2

7.2.1. Structure et généralités

GPS2 (G-protein pathway supressor 2) est une protéine de 37 kDa découverte par l'équipe de *Spain et al.* dans le cadre du criblage des inhibiteurs de l'activation de Ras dans le voie de la réponse aux phéromones chez les levures (Spain et al., 1996). Elle est exprimée de manière ubiquitaire (Jin et al., 1997). GPS2 est principalement localisée dans le noyau. Néanmoins, on observe également qu'une petite fraction de GPS2 est localisée dans le cytoplasme. Les rôles biologiques de ces différentes localisations subcellulaires ne sont pas encore bien compris. Il a été suggéré que GPS2 soit impliquée dans la signalisation du trafic noyau-cytoplasme suggérant un rôle non-génomique.

Zhang et ses collègues ont montré en 2002 que GPS2 était une sous-unité stœchiométrique du complexe NCOR-HDAC3. Pour cela, les auteurs ont montré que de



Figure 7 : Structure protéique de GPS2. Au niveau de l'extrémité N-terminale, GPS2 possède un domaine d'interaction avec les complexes corépresseurs NCOR/SMRT . Ce domaine est associé à une activité répressive. Au niveau C-terminal, GPS2 possède un domaine d'interaction avec les récepteurs nucléaires. Ce domaine est associé à un rôle activateur.
manière endogène GPS2, NCOR, HDAC3 mais aussi TBL1 formaient un seul complexe d'une taille de 2MDa. Dans cette même étude, les auteurs ont montré qu'aussi bien GPS2 que TBL1 interagissaient avec le domaine RD1 de NCOR. Cependant cette interaction se fait au niveau de deux régions conservées différentes du domaine RD1 (Zhang et al., 2002).

SMRT possède les mêmes domaines d'interaction avec GPS2. Les auteurs ont donc prédit un complexe similaire formé par SMRT-GPS2. Cette interaction a été confirmée par des études structurales des complexes NCOR/SMRT (Figure 7).

Outre son domaine d'interaction avec les corépresseurs NCOR/SMRT, GPS2 possède également un domaine d'interaction avec les récepteurs nucléaires. Le Dr.Treuter et ses collègues ont montré que GPS2 interagit directement avec certains récepteurs nucléaires tels que LRH-1 (Liver receptor homolog 1), SHP (small heterodimer partner, FXR (farnesoid X receptor) et LXR (Liver X receptor). Cette interaction, qui se fait au niveau de l'extrémité C-terminale de GPS2, semble très spécifique (Jakobsson et al., 2009; Sanyal et al., 2007).

De manière intéressante, le domaine d'interaction avec les récepteurs nucléaires a été associé à une activité activatrice de GPS2 alors que le domaine d'interaction avec les complexes NCOR/SMRT a été associé à une activité inhibitrice (Figure 7).

7.2.2. Rôle métabolique : Double face de GPS2

Récemment le Dr. Venteclef et le Dr. E Treuter ont publié une série d'articles démontrant que GPS2 était impliqué directement dans la régulation de l'activité de plusieurs récepteurs nucléaires qualifiés de métaboliques comme LRH1, FXR, LXR, HNF4 α et SHP (Jakobsson et al., 2009; Sanyal et al., 2007; Venteclef et al., 2010).

Dans une première étude, le Dr. Treuter a mis en évidence que GPS2 exerçait un double fonction (activatrice et inhibitrice) dans la régulation des gènes impliqués dans la synthèse des acides biliaires. D'une part GPS2 module la répression de l'expression de CYP7A1 (cytochrome P450 7A1) par SHP en permettant l'interaction avec le complexe répresseur NCOR-HDAC3 (Figure 8). Dans ce contexte GPS2 joue le rôle de « pont » entre SHP et le complexe NCOR. Ce « super complexe » inhibe l'activité du récepteur nucléaire LRH-1 empêchant ainsi l'expression de CYP7A1. D'autre part, et de manière surprenante GPS2 est capable, à l'inverse, d'activer l'expression de CYP8B1 (cytochrome P450 8B1).



Figure 8 : Rôle activateur versus rôle répresseur de GPS2. GPS2 inhibe l'expression de CYP7A1 en interagissant avec le complexe corépresseur NCOR/HDAC3. Inversement il active la transcription de CYP8B1 en interagissant avec le récepteur nucléaire FXR et le coactivateur CBP/p300. (Sanyal et al. 2007)

En effet, l'expression de CYP8B1 nécessite la communication entre une région amplificatrice contenant FXR et le promoteur de CYP8B1. GPS2 est nécessaire à la stabilisation de cette interaction et fonctionne donc aussi comme activateur (Sanyal et al., 2007). Cette étude est très intéressante car elle met en lumière les deux faces d'une même pièce de GPS2. D'une part son activité inhibitrice qui semble s'exercer au sein des complexes répresseurs NCOR/SMRT et d'autre part son activité activatrice en interagissant directement avec les récepteurs nucléaires (Figure 8).

Toujours dans le contexte du rôle métabolique de GPS2, le Dr. Venteclef a montré que GPS2 était nécessaire pour la transcription du gène ABCG1 suite à l'activation de LXR par un ligand synthétique. En effet, il démontre que GPS2 est impliqué dans un complexe de remodelage de la chromatine via la modulation de la méthylation des histones 3 au niveau d'une région amplificatrice (« enhancer ») du promoteur ABCG1. Cette modulation de la structure de la chromatine est notamment induite suite à l'interaction de GPS2 avec des histones déméthylases (KDM). Ce changement de conformation de la chromatine permet ainsi l'ouverture de chromatine et facilite le recrutement de LXR au niveau de la région promotrice de ABCG1 (Figure 9). Par ce mécanisme, LXR peut réguler le transport du cholestérol au niveau des macrophages humains. Ces données suggèrent donc que GPS2 joue un rôle actif et important dans le métabolisme des acides biliaires, des lipides et du cholestérol (Jakobsson et al., 2009).

7.3. TBLR1 et TBL1

Ces dernières années, plusieurs études biochimiques ont démontré que TBL1 (transducin (beta)-like linked 1) et TBLR1 (transducin (beta)-like linked receptor 1) faisaient partie du complexe NCOR et/ou SMRT et qu'ils pouvaient interagir avec HDAC3 (Perissi et al., 2008; Yoon et al., 2003). En effet, TBL1 et TBLR1 semblent pouvoir se lier directement à l'ADN via une interaction préférentielle avec les histones H4 et H2B hypoacétylées. TBL1 et TBLR1 servent également de médiateurs clefs de l'échange des complexes corépresseurs NCOR/SMRT avec des complexes coactivateurs au niveau des promoteurs de certains gènes. En effet, TBL1 et TBLR1 fonctionnent comme adaptateurs pour le recrutement de la machinerie ubiquitine/protéasome pour dégrader les



Figure 9 : Modèle d'activation de la transcription de ABCG1 par l'interaction de GPS2 et KDM. Le complexe GPS2-KDM, tout comme le recrutement de LXR suite à la liaison de son ligand, ne nécessite pas le domaine AF-2 de LXR. Il peut donc être fonctionnel indépendamment de l'interaction avec un coactivateur. (Jakobsson et al. 2009)

complexes corépresseurs induisant ainsi l'activation de la transcription de certains gènes médiée par les récepteurs nucléaires.

Dans une étude récente, Rhom et ses collègues ont montré que TBLR1 contrôle la mobilisation des lipides dans le tissu adipeux. En effet, l'invalidation de TBLR1 spécifiquement dans les adipocytes des souris induit une diminution de la mobilisation des lipides lorsque les souris sont à jeun, et lorsque elles sont placées sous régime gras ces souris présentent une détérioration de la tolérance au glucose et de la sensibilité à l'insuline associées à une adiposité plus importante (Rohm et al., 2013). Dans le foie, TBL1 et TBLR1 semblent jouer un rôle protecteur contre la mise en place de la stéatose (Kulozik et al., 2011). Il n'est pas clair si les rôles métaboliques de TBL1 et TBLR1 se font au sein des complexes corépresseurs NCOR ou SMRT.

B. L'obésité une maladie inflammatoire métabolique

1. L'inflammation métabolique

L'inflammation est une réponse adaptative qui est généralement déclenchée par des stimuli et des traumas tels que des infections et des lésions tissulaires. Cette réponse inflammatoire est qualifiée d'aiguë car elle consiste en une réponse brève et très coordonnée (Medzhitov, 2008). Cette inflammation aiguë s'oppose à l'inflammation chronique qui est associée à des stress et/ou des dysfonctionnements tissulaires (Hotamisligil, 2006). En effet, en présence d'un excès de nutriments, un défaut de la capacité adaptative du reticulum endoplasmique (RE) induit l'activation de l'UPR (Unfolded Protein Response), qui interagit avec différentes voies inflammatoires (AP-1, NF- κ B et IRFs) pour les activer. Plusieurs études ont montré que l'accumulation d'un excès de lipides dans un tissu métabolique, comme le foie, le muscle ou le tissu adipeux, provoque une inflammation chronique et une résistance à l'insuline. Ce phénomène est appelé lipotoxicité. Dans le contexte de l'obésité, le palmitate (acide gras saturé), libéré par les adipocytes dans le compartiment extracellulaire active la voie des Toll Like Receptors (plus précisément TLR2/TLR4) contribuant ainsi à l'inflammation chronique du tissu (Davis et al., 2008) (Figure 10).



Figure 10 : Inflammation métabolique ou Métaflammation. Elle se met en place à cause d'un excès de nutriments qui active des voies inflammatoires. Une inflammation chronique se met en place induisant une résistance à l'insuline dans les tissus métaboliques (foie, tissu adipeux et muscle). (Calay and Hotamislegil 2013)

Dans l'obésité, l'inflammation du tissu adipeux apparaît comme un évènement majeur à l'induction des complications liées à l'obésité comme le diabète de type 2 ou la stéatose hépatique.

2. L'inflammation du tissu adipeux dans l'obésité

2.1. Le tissu adipeux : un organe endocrine

Après avoir été longtemps décrit comme un tissu amorphe, le tissu adipeux est aujourd'hui considéré comme un organe endocrine, jouant un rôle clef dans la régulation du métabolisme énergétique. Le tissu adipeux est capable de dialoguer avec les autres organes grâce à la sécrétion d'hormones telles que l'adiponectine et la leptine.

Il existe deux types de tissus adipeux, le tissu adipeux blanc qui permet le stockage des lipides sous forme de triglycérides et le tissu adipeux brun qui régule notamment la thermogenèse via une activité métabolique accrue qui lui vaut aujourd'hui un intérêt thérapeutique dans le traitement de l'obésité. Au cours de ma thèse mes recherches ont porté sur le tissu adipeux blanc c'est pourquoi je me focaliserai sur ce tissu.

Le tissu adipeux blanc se localise dans différentes régions du corps humain. On distingue le tissu adipeux blanc viscéral qui se trouve dans la cavité abdominale et qui est considéré comme étant le tissu adipeux le plus métaboliquement actif et le tissu adipeux sous-cutané qui joue le rôle d'une couche protectrice/isolatrice. Ces deux dépôts représentent plus de 90 de la masse grasse totale d'un individu sain. Mais il existe d'autres dépôts graisseux dits « ectopiques » autour du cœur, dans le foie, dans les reins ou dans les muscles. Ces dépôts jouent un rôle important au niveau local (Figure 11). Le tissu adipeux blanc est composé d'une fraction adipocytaire et d'une fraction stroma vasculaire (Ouchi et al., 2011) (Figure 12).



Figure 11 : Répartition corporelle du tissu adipeux blanc

Chez l'homme, les deux principaux dépôts de tissu adipeux sont le tissu adipeux sous-cutané et le tissu adipeux viscéral Des dépôts ectopiques de tissu adipeux peuvent exister autour de certains organes tel que le cœur. (Ouchi et al., 2011)

2.2. Composition du tissu adipeux

2.2.1. Les adipocytes

Les adipocytes sont les cellules majoritaires du tissu adipeux. Elles se caractérisent par une unique et large gouttelette lipidique occupant la quasi-totalité du volume cellulaire (Arner and Spalding, 2010) (Figure 12).

Les adipocytes dérivent de cellules souches mésenchymateuses multi-potentes. Ces cellules se différencient en deux étapes distinctes. La première phase, appelée phase de détermination, consiste en la différenciation de ces cellules multi-potentes en préadipocytes, qui comme leur nom l'indique, sont les précurseurs des adipocytes. La deuxième phase est la phase de différenciation, où le préadipocyte acquiert les caractéristiques d'un adipocyte mature, c'est-à-dire la machinerie nécessaire pour le transport et la synthèse des lipides, la réponse à l'insuline et la sécrétion de molécules spécifiques des adipocytes. Tous ces changements sont sous le contrôle de facteurs de transcription « pro-adipogéniques » tels que PPARy, le « maestro » de la différenciation adipocytaire, ou les facteurs de la famille C/EBPs (Rosen and MacDougald, 2006).

Les adipocytes ont pour principale fonction de stocker l'excès d'énergie. En effet, dans les conditions d'augmentation de prise alimentaire couplée à une diminution de la dépense énergétique, le surplus d'énergie est stocké sous forme de triglycérides dans les adipocytes. A l'inverse, à jeun et/ou lorsque il y a nécessité d'augmenter la dépense énergétique, les réserves lipidiques sont mobilisées par les adipocytes afin de générer l'énergie nécessaire. C'est la lipolyse, qui est elle aussi sous le contrôle d'enzymes appelées lipases, et qui hydrolysent les triglycérides en glycérol et acides gras libres, directement utilisables par le muscle et le foie (Rajala and Scherer, 2003).

Comme évoqué auparavant, le tissu adipeux est considéré comme un organe endocrine. Les adipocytes sont capables d'émettre des signaux pour réguler la prise de nourriture et la dépense d'énergie. Ils sont capables de secréter des adipokines, molécules exclusivement produites par les adipocytes, telles que la **leptine** et l'**adiponectine**. Ils sont également capables de secréter des cytokines et chimiokines. Cette diversité de molécules sécrétées permet aux adipocytes et au tissu adipeux de manière générale de jouer un rôle important dans divers processus biologiques (sensibilité à l'insuline, induction de l'inflammation) et de dialoguer avec les organes à proximité (Galic et al., 2010).



Figure 12 : Hétérogénéité du tissu adipeux : Le tissu adipeux est composé essentiellement d'adipocytes, de préadipocytes, de cellules endothéliales, de fibroblastes et de cellules immunitaires résidentes tels que les macrophages et les lymphocytes. Toutes ces cellules sont structurées au sein d'une matrice extracellulaire permettant le maintien de l'intégrité du tissu (Ouchi et al., 2011)

2.2.2. La fraction du stroma vasculaire

La composition cellulaire de la fraction du stroma vasculaire est très hétérogène. Elle est composée de préadipocytes, de fibroblastes, de cellules endothéliales, et enfin de cellules immunitaires tels que les macrophages ou les lymphocytes. Ces cellules immunitaires résidentes du tissu adipeux, permettent le maintien de l'homéostasie tissulaire et la sensibilité à l'insuline.

2.3. Inflammation du tissu adipeux

2.3.1. Mécanisme général

Le tissu adipeux sain est donc constitué d'adipocytes mais aussi de cellules immunitaires résidentes qui participent au maintien de l'homéostasie du tissu. Par exemple, les macrophages de type M2 (anti-inflammatoire), présents en quantité importante dans le tissu adipeux sain, sont capables de secréter des cytokines anti-inflammatoires telles que l'IL-4 ou l'IL-13 qui aide à maintenir le tissu adipeux dans un état antiinflammatoire. Le tissu adipeux est alors sensible à l'insuline. Le dérèglement de la balance énergétique lors de l'obésité induit l'hyperplasie et l'hypertrophie des adipocytes. Ils vont relargué alors dans l'espace extra cellulaire des acides gras libres provoquant ainsi un état de lipotoxicité. Ces acides gras libres vont entre autre induire le changement de phénotype des macrophages résidents de type M2 en macrophages de type M1 (donc inflammatoires). De plus, les adipocytes hypertrophiés, ainsi que les macrophages M1, secrètent des cytokines et chimiokines pro-inflammatoires qui vont permettre le recrutement de nouvelles cellules immunitaires contribuant ainsi au maintien d'une inflammation chronique dans le tissu adipeux et devient résistant à l'insuline (Osborn and Olefsky, 2012; Ouchi et al., 2011)(Figure 13).

Historiquement, l'association entre le système immunitaire et le métabolisme a été cliniquement observée il y a de cela plusieurs décennies. Cependant, le rôle des cellules immunitaires, à travers la sécrétion de cytokines inflammatoires, sur la fonction de l'adipocyte n'est pas clair jusqu'aux années 1980. Ces premières études ont montré que les macrophages traités par une endotoxine stimulait la lipolyse des adipocytes (Pekala et al., 1984). Ces études ont établi les premiers liens entre les facteurs secrétés par les



Figure 13 : Changement du phénotype du tissu lors de la mise en place de l'obésité. Dans un tissu adipeux sain, le maintien d'un état anti-inflammatoire, permet au tissu adipeux de rester sensible à l'insuline. L'obésité induit d'une part le changement de phénotypes des cellules immunitaires résidentes (ex : macrophages, lymphocytes) et d'autre part le recrutement de nouvelles cellules immunitaires pro-inflammatoires. Le tissu adipeux devient inflammé et résistant à l'insuline.

macrophages et les processi métaboliques, en particulier la voie de signalisation de l'insuline. En effet, au milieu des années 90, il a été montré que certains médiateurs inflammatoires, tels que le TNF- α , l'IL-6 et le CCL2, étaient augmentés chez les souris obèses par rapport aux souris minces (Fried et al., 1998; Hotamisligil et al., 1993; Perreault and Marette, 2001; Sartipy and Loskutoff, 2003). L'invalidation de certains de ces médiateurs améliorait la sensibilité à l'insuline des souris obèses (Perreault and Marette, 2001; Uysal et al., 1997; Ventre et al., 1997), mettant en perspective le rôle potentiel de l'inflammation du tissu adipeux dans l'homéostasie. A noter que le tissu adipeux n'est pas l'unique tissu où est observée une inflammation lors de l'obésité. Le foie, le pancréas, le cerveau mais aussi le muscle, sont eux aussi le siège d'une inflammation (Cai et al., 2005; De Souza et al., 2005; Ehses et al., 2007; Saghizadeh et al., 1996).

2.3.2. Altérations métaboliques du tissu adipeux

Altération de la lipolyse : La mobilisation et la mise en réserve des lipides en réponse à des stimuli hormonaux et métaboliques sont les deux fonctions classiques du tissu adipeux. La mobilisation de cette réserve, en période de jeûne, se fait grâce au processus appelé lipolyse, qui consiste en l'hydrolyse d'un triglycéride en acides gras libres et en une molécule de glycérol. Dans l'adipocyte d'humain, ce sont les enzymes ATGL (Adipose Triglycéride Lipase) et HSL (Hormone Sensitive Lipase) qui sont responsables de ce processus permettant la libération d'acides gras libre dans la circulation afin de fournir un substrat énergétique aux autre tissus comme le foie, les muscles squelettiques et le cœur.

Lors de l'obésité, la lipolyse dans les adipocytes est considérablement augmentée, ce qui induit à une augmentation des acides gras libres. Au niveau circulant, ces acides gras vont interférer avec la fonction de plusieurs organes, induisant entres autres la résistance à l'insuline et d'autres anomalies métaboliques. Au niveau local, ces acides gras vont être reconnus par le récepteur TLR4, exprimé à la surface des adipocytes et induire une inflammation par l'activation des voies NF-ĸB, AP-1 et IRF. Dans le contexte de l'obésité, les acides gras libres apparaissent donc comme les inducteurs majeurs de l'inflammation métabolique (Girard and Lafontan, 2008; Lafontan and Girard, 2008; Ortega et al., 2010).

Altération du profil sécrétoire des adipokines : Comme nous l'avons déjà évoqué, le tissu adipeux n'est plus considéré comme uniquement un tissu de stockage, mais comme un organe endocrine à part entière. Les différents types de cellulaires qui le composent (adipocytes, cellules immunitaires, cellules endothéliales, fibroblastes) produisent et libèrent diverses molécules. Lors de l'obésité, le tissu adipeux se caractérise par un changement important dans le profil de sécrétion des adipocytes (Ortega et al., 2010; Tilg and Moschen, 2006).

Modifications de sécrétion des adipokines :

- La leptine est une hormone peptidique qui régule l'appétit en contrôlant la sensation de satiété. Elle est secrétée par les adipocytes et agit au niveau de l'hypothalamus pour diminuer la prise alimentaire. Les souris possédant une mutation des gènes codant pour la leptine (souris ob/ob), ou pour le récepteur à la leptine (souris db/db) sont hyperphages, obèses et insulino-résistantes. Les patients obèses présentent une augmentation du niveau circulant de leptine. Celle-ci est considérée comme un facteur pro-inflammatoire (La Cava and Matarese, 2004).
- L'adiponectine est très exprimée par les adipocytes et possède des propriétés anti-inflammatoires puissantes. Chez les personnes obèses le niveau circulant d'adiponectine est diminué, et est inversement corrélé à la résistance à l'insuline. L'adiponectine augmente l'oxydation des acides gras (dans le foie et dans le muscle), le transport de glucose par le muscle, et supprime la gluconéogenèse dans le foie. L'administration exogène ou la surexpression de l'adiponectine dans des souris améliore la sensibilité à l'insuline, alors que les souris invalidées pour l'adiponectine présentent une inflammation et une résistance à l'insuline lorsqu'elles sont mises sous régime gras (Skurk et al., 2007).

Modifications de la sécrétion des cytokines et chimiokines : Le dérèglement de la sécrétion des cytokines et chimiokines par le tissu adipeux est une caractéristique de l'obésité. Ces molécules ont non seulement une action au niveau locale où elles induisent une réponse inflammatoire, mais aussi au niveau systémique. Ici, je vous présenterai trois cytokines et chimiokines qui m'ont particulièrement intéressé durant ma thèse.

- L'IL-6 (Interleukin 6): Le rôle de l'IL-6 dans l'obésité est sujet à controverse. Elle est très exprimée dans le tissu adipeux humain et est corrélée positivement avec l'obésité (Despres and Lemieux, 2006; Kern et al., 2001). IL-6 altère la voie de signalisation de l'insuline dans les hépatocytes en raison de l'augmentation de l'expression de SOCS3 suggérant que la surexpression de l'IL-6 induite par l'obésité est impliquée dans la résistance à l'insuline (Wunderlich et al., 2013). A l'inverse, et de manière surprenante, les souris invalidées pour l'IL-6 développent une obésité avec apparition d'une inflammation hépatique (Matthews et al., 2010). L'administration de l'IL-6 augmente la dépense énergétique et diminue l'obésité, l'IL-6 peut également influer sur l'obésité et la sensibilité à l'insuline par un mécanisme agissant sur le système nerveux central (Wallenius et al., 2002). Ainsi, le rôle de l'IL-6 dans l'obésité et la résistance à l'insuline dépend probablement des sites spécifiques d'expression.
- **TNF-\alpha (Tumor Necrosis Factor alpha)**: Le TNF- α est la cytokine proinflammatoire type qui est augmentée chez les humains et les rongeurs obèses contribuant ainsi à la résistance à l'insuline (Hotamisligil et al., 1996). Le traitement d'une lignée adipocytaire (3T3-L1) par le TNF- α induit une résistance à l'insuline, et la neutralisation du TNF- α dans des rats obèses fa/fa améliore la sensibilité à l'insuline. De la même manière, les souris déficientes pour TNF- α ou pour son récepteur présentent une meilleure sensibilité à l'insuline dans le tissu adipeux et les muscles squelettiques lorsqu'elles sont nourries avec un régime gras (Uysal et al., 1997). Bien que les concentrations de TNF- α circulant soit positivement corrélées à la résistance à l'insuline, et que la neutralisation du TNF- α améliore la sensibilité à l'insuline chez les rongeurs, les effets cliniques de la neutralisation de TNF- α chez l'homme sont encore controversés. En effet, l'administration à court terme d'anticorps bloquant le TNF- α à des patients obèses souffrant d'un diabète de type 2 supprime l'inflammation mais induit une amélioration très modérée de la sensibilité à l'insuline (Ofei et al., 1996). Par ailleurs, le traitement à long terme par les bloquants du TNF- α de patients obèses souffrant d'une maladie

inflammatoire sévère telle que l'arthrite rhumatoïde, induit une amélioration de la sensibilité à l'insuline (Moen et al., 2005).

CCL2 (C-C motif ligand 2): Les adipocytes sécrètent plusieurs chimioattractants qui attirent les monocytes dans le tissu adipeux. Le tissu adipeux de patient obèse est caractérisé par une augmentation d'expression de CCL2, permettant le recrutement des macrophages (Kanda et al., 2006; Oh et al., 2012). Les souris invalidées pour CCL2 présentent une diminution de l'infiltration des macrophages dans le tissu adipeux et une diminution de la résistance à l'insuline (Kanda et al., 2006). A l'inverse, la surexpression de CCL2 induit une infiltration massive de macrophages dans le tissu adipeux. Cependant, dans une étude récente, Inouye et ses collègues ont démontré que l'absence de CCL2 dans les souris n'empêche pas totalement l'infiltration de macrophages dans le tissu adipeux lorsqu'elles sont placées sous régime hyperlipidique (Inouye et al., 2007). De plus, ces souris sont intolérantes au glucose et présentent un niveau sérique d'adiponectine plus bas que leurs homologues sauvages. Ces données suggèrent donc que CCL2 n'est pas l'unique médiateur du recrutement des macrophages dans le tissu adipeux (Kanda et al., 2006). A noter que CCR2 (récepteur de CCL2) joue également un rôle important dans le développement de l'obésité et la mise en place de l'inflammation du tissu adipeux (Weisberg et al., 2006).

L'ensemble de ces altérations est impliqué dans la mise en place et le maintien d'un état inflammatoire chronique du tissu adipeux. Cependant, les acteurs majeurs de cette inflammation sont l'altération du phénotype des adipocytes et l'infiltration des cellules immunitaires et plus particulièrement des macrophages (BOX 3).

2.3.3. Altérations cellulaires

2.3.3.1. Hypertrophie adipocytaire

Le diamètre des adipocytes est un déterminant important d'un tissu adipeux dysfonctionnel. Lors de la prise de poids, l'expansion du tissu adipeux se traduit par une **hypertrophie** adipocytaire (augmentation de la taille des adipocytes matures) et/ou une **hyperplasie** adipocytaire (augmentation du nombre d'adipocytes matures à partir des préadipocytes) (Arner and Spalding, 2010).

BOX 3 : Les cellules immunitaires du tissu adipeux blanc

Le tissu adipeux est un tissu riche en cellules immunitaires. Ces cellules jouent un rôle important dans le bon fonctionnement des adipocytes, la suppression des cellules apoptotiques et le maintien de l'homéostasie du tissu des rongeurs et humains non-obèses. Leurs rôles dans le tissu adipeux obèse sont restés longtemps méconnus, mais commencent à être étudiés et décrits. La cinétique de recrutement au niveau du tissu adipeux est différente d'une cellule immunitaire à une autre. Alors que le nombre de macrophages, lymphocytes B, lymphocytes T, neutrophiles et mastocytes augmente durant l'obésité, celui des Th2, T reg et éosinophile est diminué. Ici, nous présenterons de manière succincte les différentes cellules immunitaires du tissu adipeux et leur rôle dans la métaflammation.

Les cellules dendritiques sont des cellules présentatrices d'antigènes. Elles reconnaissent les antigènes étrangers, les prennent en charge et présentent les peptides antigéniques sur le complexe majeur d'histocompatibilité présent à leur surface pour initier la reconnaissance de ces peptides par les lymphocytes T. Bien que difficilement détectables, les cellules dendritiques sont présentes dans le tissu adipeux et leur nombre augmente sous régime hyperlypidique. Leur rôle serait d'induire la prolifération des lymphocytes T naïfs CD4+ mais aussi des Th17.

Les mastocytes sont la première ligne de défense contre une invasion de pathogènes. Leur présence dans le tissu adipeux est assez importante (même si ils ne sont pas aussi abondants que les macrophages), et leur nombre dans le tissu augmente sous régime hyperlipidique. Ils régulent l'inflammation du tissu adipeux en régulant la croissance des microvaisseaux.

Les neutrophiles sont les leucocytes les plus abondants du système immunitaire. Grâce à leur recrutement rapide au niveau du site d'infection, ce sont les premiers effecteurs de la réponse inflammatoire aiguë. Leur rôle dans le tissu adipeux n'est pas encore bien défini. Chez la souris, certaines études ont montré que ces cellules étaient recrutées de manière rapide mais brève dans le tissu adipeux après le début l'administration du régime hyperlypidique.

Les éosinophiles sont des granulocytes qui combattent l'infection par les parasites. Ils sont présents dans différents dépôts du tissu adipeux, particulièrement dans les tissus adipeux épididymal et mésentérique (les plus métaboliquement actifs). Leur nombre décroît durant l'obésité. Ils sont responsables du maintien des macrophages du tissu en un phénotype M2 grâce à la sécrétion de facteurs anti-inflammatoires (ex : IL-4).

Les lymphocytes B sont impliqués à la fois dans la réponse immunitaire adaptative et innée. Leur nombre est augmenté dans le tissu adipeux sous un régime obésogène. Ils sont localisés dans les CLS (crown like structures) du tissu adipeux au côté des macrophages et lymphocytes T, suggérant un rôle important dans l'inflammation chronique du tissu adipeux.

Les lymphocytes T sont les cellules clefs de l'immunité adaptative. Il existe deux sous-groupes de lymphocytes T ; les CD4⁺, et les CD8⁺. Ils passent d'un état naïf à plusieurs états actifs durant la réponse immunitaire. Ils sont capables de secréter aussi bien des cytokines anti- que proinflammatoires tels que IFN γ (sous-types Th1), IL4, IL5 et IL13 (sous-types Th2), IL17, IL21 et IL22 (sous-types TH17) et IL10, TGF β (sous-types Treg). Des études sur l'homme ont montré une augmentation de la production de l'IFN γ par les Th1 qui à leur tour stimulent les macrophages de type M1 dans le tissu adipeux. L'obésité est associée à l'augmentation de la présence de Th1 et de Th17 dans le tissu adipeux. Ils sécrètent des cytokines pro-inflammatoires tels que IL17 et l'IFN γ qui vont activer la voie JNK. A l'inverse, les cellules Th2 et Treg joueraient un rôle protecteur contre l'inflammation du tissu adipeux en secrétant des cytokines anti-inflammatoires. Durant l'obésité, ces deux types de population sont diminués dans le tissu adipeux. Cette expansion du tissu adipeux peut engendrer plusieurs phénomènes, incluant l'inflammation, l'hypoxie, la mort cellulaire des adipocytes et une altération du flux d'acides gras (Virtue and Vidal-Puig, 2010). Plusieurs études ont démontré que la taille des adipocytes semble étroitement liées aux fonctions des adipocytes et aux altérations métaboliques associées à l'obésité telles que l'intolérance au glucose et l'insulino-résistance (Lonn et al., 2010).

La taille des adipocytes de chaque dépôt adipeux est différente. Par exemple, les adipocytes des tissu adipeux viscéraux sont plus petits, notamment due à une activité lipolytique augmentée, alors que les dépôts superficiels ou sous-cutanés présentent des adipocytes de plus gros diamètres reflétant leurs capacités accrues de stockage (Bjorndal et al., 2011).

Par ailleurs, il existe également une grande variabilité inter-individuelle dans la taille des adipocytes pour des niveaux d'adiposité similaires. Ainsi, la prédisposition des cellules adipeuses à s'hypertrophier dans chaque compartiment adipeux varie d'un individu à l'autre (Sims, 2001). Dernièrement, des études ont démontré qu'une hypertrophie des adipocytes semblait être un déterminant majeur des complications associées à l'obésité. Plus spécifiquement, Veilleux et al. ont observé qu'une hypertrophie des adipocytes viscéraux était un indicateur important et indépendant des complications métaboliques de l'obésité. Comparativement à l'hyperplasie des adipocytes viscéraux, l'hypertrophie de ceux-ci est associée à une augmentation du ratio cholestérol-total/HDL-cholestérol. Cette même étude a aussi démontré que l'association entre l'hypertrophie des adipocytes viscéraux et un profil lipidique altéré est indépendante de la taille des adipocytes sous-cutané, de la composition corporelle et de la distribution des graisses chez la femme (Veilleux et al., 2011).

Par ailleurs, les adipocytes de gros diamètre sont plus lipolytiques, ont une sécrétion altérée d'adipokines et sont, de ce fait, plus résistants à l'insuline. La taille des adipocytes semble donc influencer la fonction de ceux-ci et le développement des complications métaboliques associées à l'obésité.

L'obésité induit également l'altération des cellules immunitaires résidentes du tissu adipeux. Cet aspect sera détaillé dans la partie consacrée aux macrophages du tissu adipeux et dans la BOX 3.

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2.3.3.2. Les macrophages

2.3.3.2.1. Macrophages du tissu adipeux : une grande hétérogénéité

Les macrophages sont aussi bien présents dans le tissu adipeux « mince » que dans le tissu adipeux « obèse » (Weisberg et al., 2003; Xu et al., 2003). Partant de ce constat, plusieurs études se sont intéressées aux différences phénotypiques des macrophages dans ces deux conditions. La classification de ces macrophages n'est pas chose aisée car aucun système de nomenclature ne peut rendre compte de manière exhaustive de la diversité de phénotypes des macrophages du tissu adipeux. Cependant, un consensus tacite a été trouvé par la communauté scientifique pour le classement des macrophages selon deux catégories. D'une part les macrophages de type M2, jouant un rôle dans l'homéostasie du tissu adipeux, et de manière plus générale ont une activité immunosuppressive. Ils sont activés par les cytokines secrétées par les lymphocytes de type Th2 (T helper 2) telles que l'IL4 et l'IL13, ou par d'autres facteurs comme l'IL10 et l'arginase (Gordon, 2003; Gordon and Taylor, 2005). Ces macrophages sont considérés comme les macrophages résidents du tissu adipeux. D'autre part, il existe aussi des macrophages de type M1, activés par des cytokines inflammatoires tels que l'IFNy produit par les lymphocytes de type Th-1 mais aussi le LPS (Lipopolysaccharides). Une fois activés, ils sécrètent des cytokines pro-inflammatoires tels que le TNF- α et/ou l'IL-6. Ils sont donc logiquement impliqués dans tous les processi inflammatoires (Gordon, 2003; Gordon and Taylor, 2005).

2.3.3.2.2. Macrophages du tissu adipeux : localisation et plasticité

La répartition des macrophages dans le tissu adipeux est très différente entre un tissu adipeux « mince » et le tissu adipeux « obèse ». Alors que les macrophages M2 résidents du tissu adipeux sont répartis dans le parenchyme du tissu, les macrophages infiltrés de type M1 dans le tissu obèse vont s 'accumuler dans le tissu sous une forme de structure en couronnes appelée « crown-like structures » ou CLS autour des adipocytes (Cinti et al., 2005; Lumeng et al., 2008). L'obésité induit donc une infiltration des macrophages M1, mais paradoxalement le nombre de macrophages M2 augmente également. Cependant, leur proportion par rapport aux M1 diminue considérablement. Dans le tissu « obèse », la fonction des macrophages M2 serait de permettre la réparation tissulaire et faciliter l'adipogenèse (Lumeng et al., 2007). Chez l'homme, les macrophages du tissu adipeux sous-cutané présente un phénotype de type M2 mais expriment également des gènes pro-inflammatoires (Bourlier et al., 2008; Zeyda et al., 2007). Une autre étude a montré que les macrophages présents dans les CLSs du tissu adipeux omental et sous-cutané présentent à la fois des marqueurs M1 (CD11c) et M2 (CD206) (Wentworth et al., 2010). La différence entre les macrophages M1 et les macrophages M2 n'est pas claire chez l'homme du moins au niveau des marqueurs qui les caractérisent.

2.3.3.2.3. Rôle des macrophages dans l'inflammation du tissu adipeux et le métabolisme

Bien que la présence des macrophages dans le tissu adipeux soit connue depuis plus de 20 ans (Kahaly et al., 1994; Ochi et al., 1988), la contribution de ceux-ci aux comorbidités de l'obésité est restée floue pendant très longtemps. En 2003, deux équipes indépendantes ont utilisé des analyses par microarrays pour étudier la différence dans l'expression de gènes entre le tissu adipeux de souris obèses et le tissu adipeux de souris minces (Weisberg et al., 2003; Xu et al., 2003). Ils ont montré qu'il y avait une différence importante dans l'expression des gènes liés aux macrophages comme par exemple des marqueurs de surfaces ou des facteurs secrétés. La séparation du tissu adipeux en ces différents composants, d'une part les adipocytes et d'autre part la fraction stroma vasculaire (SVF), a montré que la plupart des gènes inflammatoires spécifiques aux macrophages sont surexprimés majoritairement dans la fraction SVF des souris obèses signifiant soit une augmentation de l'expression de ces gènes et/ou une infiltration des macrophages dans le tissu adipeux des souris obèses.

Des analyses de cytométrie en flux et d'immunohistochimie ont confirmé une augmentation du nombre de macrophages dans le tissu adipeux des souris obèses (Oh et al., 2012). A noter que cette accumulation de macrophages est indépendante de l'étiologie de l'obésité. En effet, que ce soit dans le cadre d'une obésité induite ou génétique, une augmentation du nombre de macrophages dans le tissu adipeux est observée. Ces mécanismes observés dans les modèles murins sont retrouvés chez l'homme (Weisberg et al., 2003).

Comme évoqué précédemment, l'augmentation du nombre de macrophages dans le tissu adipeux lors de l'obésité est fortement associée à la résistance à l'insuline et aux comorbidités. Les macrophages peuvent changer la fonction des adipocytes en i) en induisant une résistance à l'insuline qui a pour conséquence la dérégulation de la lipolyse basale et un stockage ectopique de ces lipides ; ii) en induisant la sécrétion de cytokines et chimiokines pro-inflammatoires par les adipocytes ; iii) et enfin en impactant la capacité de remodelage et d'expansion du tissu adipeux durant l'obésité (Xu et al., 2003).

Chez l'homme, l'accumulation des macrophages dans le tissu adipeux lors de l'obésité est moins prononcée que dans les modèles murins. Cependant, plusieurs équipes de recherche ont clairement décrit ce phénomène (Cancello et al., 2005; Cancello et al., 2006; Curat et al., 2004; Shapiro et al., 2013). Ainsi l'accumulation des macrophages, chez l'homme, est plus importante dans le tissu adipeux omental (viscéral) que dans le tissu adipeux sous-cutané (Aron-Wisnewsky et al., 2009; Cancello et al., 2006). Cette différence d'infiltration des macrophages selon le dépôt adipeux est une donnée importante, car elle expliquerait les conséquences métaboliques de l'infiltration des macrophages dans le tissu adipeux lors de l'obésité. En effet, les macrophages du tissu adipeux viscéral corrèlent positivement avec la glycémie à jeun et le niveau d'insuline, suggérant un lien entre l'inflammation du tissu adipeux omental et les maladies métaboliques (Wentworth et al., 2010). Enfin, il est à noter que la perte de poids, suite à un régime ou un acte chirurgical (chirurgie bariatrique par exemple), réduit la quantité de macrophages infiltrés dans le tissu adipeux omental et améliore l'homéostasie du glucose et la sensibilité à l'insuline (Aron-Wisnewsky et al., 2009). Il existe donc une association chez l'homme entre les phénotypes de macrophages du tissu adipeux et l'homéostasie métabolique.

2.3.4. Altérations tissulaires

Le tissu adipeux est un tissu qui possède des propriétés d'adaptation extraordinaires. Cette plasticité est nécessaire au maintien du contrôle métabolique. Lors de l'obésité, l'excès de nutriments altère de manière drastique la structure du tissu adipeux en induisant un remodelage du tissu. Ce remodelage implique tous les types cellulaires du tissu adipeux (adipocytes, cellules immunitaires, cellules endothéliales) (Lee et al., 2010) (Figure 14).



Figure 14 : Remodelage du tissu adipeux

La vascularisation du tissu adipeux joue un rôle majeur dans le remodelage du tissu. Tous les dépôts adipeux sont richement vascularisés. Ceci s'explique par la nécessité des adipocytes d'être en contact avec les vaisseaux et capillaires sanguins pour avoir accès aux nutriments qui circulent dans le sang. Durant l'expansion du tissu adipeux, le développement des vaisseaux sanguins (ou angiogenèse) précède l'adipogénèse (Ledoux et al., 2008). Chez l'homme, le potentiel angiogénique diffère selon le dépôt de tissu adipeux. En effet, le tissu adipeux sous-cutané présente des capacités angiogéniques plus importantes que le tissu adipeux viscéral (Sun et al., 2011).

Chez les patients obèses, les capacités angiogéniques du tissu adipeux sont considérablement réduites et sont associées à une résistance à l'insuline (Pasarica et al., 2009; Sun et al., 2011). L'hypoxie du tissu est un inducteur puissant de l'angiogénèse, et lors de l'obésité, le tissu adipeux est soumis à un environnement très hypoxique. In vitro, les adipocytes et les cellules de la fraction du stroma vasculaire secrètent des cytokines pro-inflammatoires en réponse à l'hypoxie. Bien que l'environnement hypoxique puisse être dû à la diminution de la diffusion de l'oxygène dans les adipocytes hypertrophiques, plusieurs études ont prouvé que l'obésité induit également une diminution du flux sanguin vers le tissu adipeux (Ye, 2009).

La voie de l'HIF-1 α (Hypoxia Inductible factor-1 α), est une des voies activées par l'hypoxie. De manière surprenante, lorsque HIF-1 α est exprimé de manière constitutive spécifiquement dans le tissu adipeux de souris, l'angiogenèse n'est pas augmentée. L'expression constitutive de HIF-1 α induit l'expression de plusieurs gènes de la matrice extracellulaires (MEC) tels que les collagènes I et III. Au regard de ces observations, l'hypoxie observée dans le tissu adipeux lors de l'obésité, sert plus de signal profibrotique et/ou pro-inflammatoire que d'inducteur de l'angiogenèse (Sun et al., 2013; Ye, 2009).

La MEC est un composant crucial du tissu adipeux car elle permet le maintien cellulaire et l'intégrité structurale du tissu. La génération, la dégradation et le maintien de la MEC du tissu adipeux sont régulés aussi bien par les cellules immunitaires que par les adipocytes. La MEC est composée de collagènes fibrillaires (collagènes I et III) et nonfibrillaires (collagènes IV, VI, VIII). Le collagène VI corrèle positivement avec l'IMC (Indice de Masse Corporelle) et est surexprimé dans le tissu adipeux d'obèse. Les souris invalidées pour le collagène IV ont une capacité d'hypertrophie des adipocytes augmentée, ce qui montre l'importance du collagène VI dans le contrôle de la forme de l'adipocyte dans des conditions de surnutrition. Les produits de clivage du collagène VI génèrent des molécules qui permettent la mise en place de fibrose, grâce au recrutement de macrophages et l'activation du signal TGF β . Le remodelage du tissu adipeux limiterait l'expansion du tissu adipeux pour favoriser le stockage ectopique des lipides (ex : foie, muscle)(Divoux et al., 2010) (Henegar et al., 2008).

Ces observations ont permis l'émergence dans la communauté scientifique de la théorie de l'extensibilité du tissu adipeux qui prétend que c'est l'incapacité du tissu adipeux à s'étendre qui serait à l'origine des complications métaboliques associées à l'obésité (Tan and Vidal-Puig, 2008). Cette capacité d'extension du tissu adipeux serait différente pour chaque individu et chaque personne possèderait une capacité d'extension maximale dépendante à la fois de facteurs génétiques et environnementaux. Une fois que cette capacité maximale est atteinte, le tissu adipeux cesse de stocker l'excèdent d'énergie, et les lipides s'accumulent ectopiquement dans le muscle ou le foie causant une inflammation et une résistance à l'insuline. Il existe plusieurs modèles animaux et humains qui renforcent cette hypothèse. Chez l'Homme, il a été montré que les individus obèses métaboliquement sains (on parle alors de « healthy obesity ») ont une capacité d'expansion du tissu adipeux plus importante que les obèses diabétiques (Karelis et al., 2004). Ces individus présentent un niveau élevé de facteurs proadipogéniques. Ces variabilités entre individus sont très intéressantes et présuppose des différences dans la régulation transcriptionnelle des gènes impliqués dans l'adipogénèse. Il serait intéressant par exemple de regarder la régulation du récepteur nucléaire PPARy et voir si éventuellement des complexes corégulateurs sont impliqués dans cette différence.

3. Régulation transcriptionelle de l'inflammation

3.1. La voie des récepteurs Toll-like :

Les TLRs (Toll Like Receptors), sont des récepteurs qui appartiennent à la grande famille des récepteurs de reconnaissance de motifs moléculaires (aussi appelés PRR). Les TLRs sont indispensables à la mise en place d'une réaction inflammatoire coordonnée. Une dérégulation de l'activation des TLRs a été associée à plusieurs reprises avec des maladies chroniques et auto-immunes. Les TLRs peuvent aussi bien être activés par des ligands endogènes qu'exogènes, ce qui montre bien leur rôle important dans l'orchestration de la réponse inflammatoire (Tableau 1).

Recepteurs	Localisation	Molécule Adaptatrice	Ligand
TLR1 (avec TLR2)	Membrane Cellulaire	MyD88/TIRAP	Lipopeptides ,Facteurs solubles
TLR2 (avec TLR1 ou TLR6)	Membrane Cellulaire	MyD88/TIRAP	Lipoprotéines, Lipopeptides, Peptidoglycane, Glycolipides, Acides Gras Saturés
TLR3	Endolysosomal	TRIF	ARN double brin
TLR4	Membrane Cellulaire et Endolysosomal	MyD88/TIRAP, TRIF/TRAM	Lipopolysaccharides (LPS), Acides Gras Saturés
TLR5	Membrane Cellulaire	MyD88	Flagelline
TLR6 (avec TLR2)	Membrane Cellulaire	MyD88/TIRAP	Lipopeptides
TLR7	Endolysosomal	MyD88	ARN simple brin
TLR8	Endolysosomal	MyD88	ARN simple brin
TLR9	Endolysosomal	MyD88	ADN CpG
TLR10	Membrane Cellulaire	MyD88	Lipopeptides (prédiction)
TLR11	Endolysosomal	MyD88	Flagelline

Tableau 1 La famille des Toll like Receptors

L'identification de la protéine Toll a été faite chez la drosophile, où elle est impliquée dans la mise en place de la polarité dorso-ventrale. C'est Lemaitre et al. qui en 1996 connecte la protéine « Toll » à la réponse immunitaire, en étudiant la résistance des drosophiles mutées pour cette protéine, à une infection fongique (Lemaitre et al., 1996). Cette découverte majeure a été reconnue par la remise du prix Nobel de Médecine en 2011. Les TLRs ont ensuite été découverts chez l'homme par deux groupes indépendants qui étaient à la recherche de l'homologue du TLR de la drosophile chez l'humain (Akira and Takeda, 2004b; Rock et al., 1998). Le premier homologue a été TLR4 découvert par le Pr. Janeway et ses collègues. Aujourd'hui, la famille des TLRs est composée de dix membres (Tableau 1). Les TLRs sont principalement exprimés dans les cellules immunitaires tels que les macrophages, neutrophiles et cellules dendritiques mais on retrouve également ces TLRs dans des cellules non immunitaires. En effet, les TLRs sont exprimés dans des organes ou cellules non immunitaires présentant une interaction avec des pathogènes extérieurs comme l'épithélium intestinal et l'épithélium respiratoire. Les TLRs sont également exprimés dans les adipocytes et les hépatocytes (O'Neill et al., 2013).

Les TLRs possèdent tous la même structure qu'un récepteur glycoprotéique de type 1. Cependant, alors que certains membres sont localisés au niveau de la membrane cytoplasmique (TLRs 1, 2, 4, 5, 6, 10), d'autres se trouvent au niveau intracellulaire dans les endosomes (TLRs 3, 7, 8, 9). L'extrémité N-terminale des TLRs contient le motif LRR (leucine-rich repeat) qui permet l'interaction avec les ligands. Le domaine cytoplasmique des TLRs est appelé TIR (Toll-IL-1R) et permet la liaison des protéines adaptatrices indispensable à la transduction du signal (Reuven et al., 2014).

La dérégulation de la voie des TLRs se caractérise par l'altération de la réponse inflammatoire. La liaison du ligand aux TLRs induit une homodimérisation ou une hétérodimérisation (ex: TLR1/TLR6) qui permet l'activation de cascades intracellulaires ce qui induit l'activation spécifique de la transcription de gènes inflammatoires. Ces cascades intracellulaires impliquent différentes protéines adaptatrices (Akira and Takeda, 2004b). Les plus connues et les mieux caractérisées sont MyD88 (Myeloid differentiation primary response gene 88) et TRIF (TIR-domaincontaining adapter-inducing interferon-β). MyD88 peut soit directement interagir avec le domaine TIR des TLRs (c'est le cas pour les TLRs 5, 7, 8 et 9), soit, dans le cas de TLR2 et TLR4, avoir besoin de la protéine TIRAP (TIR-domain-containing adaptor protein). L'activation de la voie de MyD88 peut notamment activer les facteurs de transcription NF-κB (P65/P50), CREB (C-AMP Response Element-binding protein), AP-1 (Activator Protein-1) ou IRFs (Interferon Regulatory Factors).

Les souris invalidées pour MyD88 et TRIF présentent une altération de la réponse inflammatoire induite suite à l'activation de la voie TLRs par des agents pathogènes. Ceci est marqué notamment par la diminution de l'activation du complexe NF- κ B et des IRFs notable par la diminution de la production de TNFa, IL-6 et de l'IFN- β (Akira and Takeda, 2004a; Kawai et al., 1999).

Parmi les TLRs, l'importance de TLR2 et TLR4 dans la réponse inflammatoire a été bien caractérisée. Le TLR4 fut le premier à être identifié chez l'homme. Il est spécifiquement activé par le LPS (Lipopolysaccharides) des bactéries Gram négatif (Hoshino et al., 1999). La reconnaissance du LPS par le TLR4 provoque l'activation des facteurs de transcription AP-1, NF- κ B et IRFs permettant la transcription des cytokines (ex : TNF α et IL-6) et chimiokines (ex : CCL2 et CCL5) (Figure 15).



Figure 15 : La voie TLR4. L'activation de la voie de TLR4 par la liaison d'un ligand, induit la transduction du signal par deux voies distinctes. D'une part la voie MYD88 qui permet l'activation des facteurs de transcription NF- κ B et AP-1 et d'autre part la voie TRIF qui permet l'activation des IRFs.

Il existe d'autres ligands endogènes pour le TLR4 comme par exemple certaines protéines de la matrice extracellulaire (ex : héparine) mais aussi les acides gras saturés (ex : palmitate) (Shi et al., 2006). Les souris invalidées pour TLR4 ont une réponse à la stimulation au LPS fortement diminuée par rapport aux souris contrôles (Hoshino et al., 1999). Sous régime gras ces souris sont également protégées contre la prise de poids, l'intolérance au glucose, la résistance à l'insuline et le stress de réticulum endoplasmique (Pierre et al., 2013). Cette observation suggère donc qu'il existe un lien entre l'inflammation et le développement des comorbidités de l'obésité (Akira and Takeda, 2004a; Erridge, 2010).

Le TLR2 est impliqué dans la reconnaissance d'une grande variété de composés dérivés des bactéries, champignons, parasites et virus (Erridge, 2010). Le TLR2 fonctionne en formant des hétérodimères avec les TLR1, TLR6 et TLR10. Le TLR2 est également capable d'être activé par certains acides gras saturés (ex : palmitate) (Davis et al., 2009; Senn, 2006). Les souris TLR2 KO, contrairement aux souris TLR4 KO, ont une réponse normale à une injection de LPS (induction d'une réaction inflammatoire) (Takeuchi et al., 2000). Cependant, l'invalidation de TLR2 induit une diminution de la réponse des macrophages à certaines protéines constituant la paroi des bactéries Gram-plus. De plus les souris TLR2^{-/-} sont protégées contre l'obésité induite par un régime riche en lipides, ont une diminution des marqueurs pro-inflammatoires dans le tissu adipeux (ex : TNF α), et de la résistance à l'insuline induite par le zymosane (complexe de protéines et de levures présent dans la membrane des levures) (Ehses et al., 2010). L'ensemble de ces résultats montrent que les voies de TLR2 et de TLR4 sont impliquées dans la réponse inflammatoire lors de l'obésité. Cependant, leur rôle exact dans l'obésité et le développement de la résistance à l'insuline reste encore à définir.

3.2. La voie NF kappa B

3.2.1. Généralités

Le complexe de facteur de transcription NF- κ B régule l'expression d'une large panel de gènes impliqués dans la réponse inflammatoire comme par exemple l'IL-6, IL-10 et le TNF α . Une activation inappropriée de la voie NF- κ B a été associée à l'auto-immunité, l'inflammation chronique et divers cancers (Lawrence, 2009).

Dans un état basal, non-inflammatoire, NF-κB est lié à une protéine inhibitrice, IκB. Cette liaison à IκB masque le site NLS (nuclear localization signal) de NF-κB empêchant sa translocation nucléaire (Gilmore, 2006). Le complexe NF-κB/IκB reste ainsi dans le cytoplasme empêchant ainsi NF-κB de se lier à l'ADN. L'activation du signal NF-κB est induite par une cascade signalétique associée à l'activation de la kinase IκB (IKK). IKK phosphoryle la sous unité inhibitrice IκB du complexe NF-κB/IκB présent dans le cytoplasme. Cette phosphorylation permet la dégradation de IκB par le protéasome et ainsi la libération de NF-κB du complexe inhibiteur. Le complexe NF-κB est alors transloqué dans le noyau où il se lie de manière spécifique à une séquence consensus (5'-GGGACTTTC-3') pour activer la transcription des gènes cibles.

Structurellement, NF-κB est un homo ou hétérodimère constitué à partir de 5 sous unités : p105/p50, p100/p52, p65 (RelA), RelB et c-Rel . L'hétérodimère p50-p65 est le plus commun et (donc) le plus étudié car il représente la forme de NF-κB la plus abondante dans les cellules (Grimm and Baeuerle, 1993). Ces sous-unités possèdent toutes une région N-terminale de 300 acides-aminés hautement conservés (région RHD : N-terminal Rel homology domain), permettant la liaison à l'ADN mais aussi la dimérisation et l'association à la protéine inhibitrice IκB. Seules les sous-unités p65, c-Rel et RelB sont capables d'induire la transcription des gènes suite à leur fixation sur les éléments de réponse NF-κB au niveau des promoteurs de leurs gènes cibles. Cette régulation est possible grâce à la présence au niveau C-terminal d'un domaine de transactivation de la transcription, ce que P50 et p52 ne possèdent pas et leur liaison à la séquence consensus au niveau du promoteur n'est donc pas associée à une activation de la transcription (Zheng et al., 2011) (Figure 16).

Concernant sa distribution tissulaire, le complexe p50-p65 est exprimé de manière ubiquitaire, RelB uniquement au niveau des nodules lymphatiques et des plaques de Payer (constituant du tissu lymphoïde associé à l'intestin), c-Rel uniquement dans les cellules hématopoïétiques et les lymphocytes.

L'étude de modèles de souris KO pour certains membres de la famille NF- κ B, a pu mettre en évidence des rôles distincts de ces protéines dans la régulation de l'immunité innée et adaptative. La délétion de la sous-unité p65, par exemple est létale au stade embryonnaire car conduisant à la dégénérescence du foie (Beg et al., 1995).



Figure 16 : Les voies NF-kB. Représentation de la voie classique et alternative de NF- κ B. La voie classique est déclenchée par les TLRs et les cytokines proinflammatoires (TNF α , IL-1). La voie alternative est déclenchée par la lymphotoxine B, CD40L ou RANKL. (Lawrence, 2009)

L'invalidation des autres sous-unités provoque une immunodéficience mais le développement paraît normal.

L'activation de la voie NF- κ B se fait grâce à l'activité de protéine kinases qui se trouvent en amont : les IKKs (I κ B Kinases). Ces protéines forment un complexe de plus de 700 kDa, appelé « signalosome », composé entre autres d'IKK α , IKK β et de la protéine adaptatrice IKK γ . IKK α et IKK β sont des serine/thréonine kinases. Ce sont les deux sousunités catalytiques du complexe (Figure 16).

Bien qu'ayant des homologies très fortes, leurs fonctions sont très différentes in vivo. En effet, les souris invalidées pour IKK β meurent d'une dégénérescence du foie durant les phases de développement (Tanaka et al., 1999). L'invalidation in vitro d'IKK β induit une forte diminution de la dégradation d'IkB α ainsi que de l'activation de NF- κ B (Li et al., 1999).

L'invalidation d'IKK α chez la souris induit une mort à la naissance du à des défauts développementaux au niveau de la peau, des membres et du squelette (Hu et al., 1999). La formation d'un complexe actif nécessite l'homodimérisation ou l'hétérodimerisation des sous-unités catalytiques. La dimérisation se fait grâce à la phosphorylation d'IKK α et d'IKK β , au niveau de leur domaine kinase contenant un site spécifique de phosphorylation. Le complexe une fois activé peut alors phosphoryler la protéine inhibitrice I κ B. IKK γ , la troisième sous-unité formant ce complexe IKK ne possède pas d'activité kinase mais reste néanmoins importante au fonctionnement du complexe IKK. La régulation d'IKK γ se fait également par phosphorylation (Prajapati and Gaynor, 2002). Récemment une nouvelle sous-unité IKK a été découverte : IKK ϵ . Son rôle dans la voie NF- κ B n'est pas encore bien éludé. Cependant, de plus en plus d'études montrent que les expressions géniques et protéiques de cette kinase sont augmentées chez les souris sous régime gras dans le tissu adipeux et dans le foie. L'invalidation d'IKK ϵ rend les souris résistantes à l'obésité, diminue la résistance à l'insuline, la stéatose hépatique et l'inflammation lorsqu'elles sont mises à un régime riche en lipides (Cao et al., 2014).

La dernière famille de protéines importantes dans la régulation de la voie NF-κB sont les IκB. Les plus connues sont ΙκΒα, ΙκΒβ et ΙκΒε. Elles possèdent un domaine d'interaction protéine-protéine appelé domaine ARD (« Ankyrin Repeat Domain ») (Whiteside and Israel, 1997). Classiquement, le rôle de ΙκΒ est de retenir le complexe NF-κB dans le cytoplasme en masquant le domaine NLS (Nuclear Localisation Signal) empêchant ainsi sa translocation nucléaire et l'activation de la transcription des gènes cibles (Baeuerle and Baltimore, 1988). De manière intéressante, des études récentes ont montré que le complexe NF-κB inactif (P50/P50) était constitutivement recruté au niveau des promoteurs de certains gènes inflammatoires. Ceci suggère donc qu'il existe un niveau de régulation supplémentaire.

3.2.2. NF-kB et l'inflammation métabolique

Bien que NF- κ B ait été tout d'abord caractérisé dans le système hématopoïétique, aujourd'hui il est clairement établi que son activation peut se faire dans tout type cellulaire. De nombreuses études ont montré récemment que la voie NF- κ B joue un rôle crucial dans le foie, le tissu adipeux et le système nerveux central contribuant au développement des maladies métaboliques inflammatoires (Baker et al., 2011).

L'expression constitutive dans le foie d'IKKß entraîne une signalisation de l'insuline défectueuse avec une mise en place d'une résistance à l'insuline et une intolérance au glucose dans les hépatocytes et les cellules musculaires (Cai et al., 2005). Dans l'obésité, plusieurs études ont montré une augmentation de l'activité de la kinase IKKß dans le tissu adipeux des sujets obèses (Arkan et al., 2005). Par ailleurs, Shoelson et al. ont montré que les souris invalidées pour IKKß spécifiquement dans les cellules myéloïdes les protégeaient contre une résistance à l'insuline induite par un régime hyperlipidique (Shoelson et al., 2003). D'autres études ont également démontré que IKKß, était fortement induite par des stimuli pro-inflammatoires et homologue de IKKß, était fortement induite dans les adipocytes, le foie et les macrophages du tissu adipeux des souris sous régime hyperlipidique (Chiang et al., 2009). L'invalidation de cette kinase protège de l'obésité induite par un régime riche en lipides, mais pas contre le développement de l'insulino-résistance. La voie IKKß/NF-kB apparaît donc comme jouant un rôle central dans l'inflammation métabolique.

Chez l'homme une étude clinique utilisant le salsalate (2-(2-Hydroxybenzoyl)oxybenzoic acid), connue pour atténuer l'activité d'IKKß/NF-κB, démontre une amélioration du niveau glycémique des patients diabétiques de type 2 (Goldfine et al., 2010). Cependant la forte dose utilisée ne permet pas de déterminer si les bienfaits sont associés à l'inhibition du complexe NF-κB.

3.3. La voie de signalisation de voie JNK/AP-1 :

3.3.1. Généralités sur AP-1

Le complexe de transcription AP-1 est composé des protéines des familles FOS (c-Fos, Fra-1, Fra-2, FosB) et Jun (c-Jun, JunB, JunD). Ces facteurs font partie de la super famille des protéines bZIP : leur structure comprend une région basique (b) de liaison à l'ADN et un leucine Zipper (ZIP) responsable de leur dimérisation. Leur séquence primaire contient aussi des domaines de transactivation de la transcription et des sites de phosphorylation ciblés par différentes kinases, ce qui permet leur régulation par divers signaux (Glover and Harrison, 1995; Monje et al., 2003). Au niveau de l'ADN, AP-1 se fixe sur les séquences consensus TGACGGTCA aussi appelées TRE (TPA-reponsive Element). AP-1 peut également interagir avec d'autres protéines de la super-famille bZIP comme les facteurs de transcription ATFs (Activating Transcription Factor) et ainsi étendre son activité transcriptionelle. Contrairement aux Fos, les Jun peuvent former des homodiméres et des hétérodiméres avec certains ATF. Ce sont ces nombreuses combinaisons apportées par la variété et l'état d'activation des membres de la famille AP-1 qui permettrait d'assurer la spécificité de réponse à différents signaux (infection versus métabolique par exemple). A cela, s'ajoutent des interactions avec d'autres facteurs de transcription présents sur le promoteur des gènes-cibles qui apportent un degré supplémentaire de régulation. Par exemple, les facteurs NF-ATs (Nuclear Factor of Activated T-cells) activent certains promoteurs en coopération avec AP-1, sur des sites présentant de faible affinité pour AP-1 (Karin et al., 1997).

3.3.2. JNK régulateur majeur de AP-1

La régulation d'AP-1 intervient aussi bien au niveau de la transcription, la stabilité du messager, la traduction et la stabilité de la protéine. Cependant les modifications post-traductionnelles (principalement phosphorylations) sont celles qui permettent à AP-1 d'intégrer rapidement les signaux cellulaires afin d'élaborer une réponse adaptée par l'activation des gènes cibles. Chez les mammifères, JNK (c-Jun N-terminal Kinase), qui représente un sous-groupe de MAP-kinase, activé par les cytokines (IL-1, TNF α) et le stress cellulaire, phosphoryle Jun (et non Fos), sur les sérines 63 et 73 (Weston and Davis, 2002). En effet, l'activation de la voie des TLRs, par les cytokines par exemple, va

activer la MAP3K (Mitogen Activated Protein-3 Kinase) qui phosphoryle et active les deux isoformes de MAP2K: MKK4 et MKK7, qui à leur tour active JNK en la phosphorylant au niveau des résidus thréonine et tyrosine de leur site d'activation. Celle-ci va alors phosphoryler la partie N terminale de c-Jun présent au niveau des promoteurs de ses gènes cibles. c-Jun passe alors d'une conformation d'homodimère à une conformation d'hétérodimère en se liant avec c-Fos. Il y a alors la transactivaton des gènes inflammatoires comme le TNF α et l' IL6. A noter qu'il existe 3 isoformes de JNK : JNK1 (MAPK 8), JNK2 (MAPK9) et JNK3 (MAPK10) (Bogoyevitch, 2006). JNK1 et JNK2 sont exprimées de manière ubiquitaire, JNK3 semble être spécifique uniquement du système nerveux central (Bogoyevitch, 2006).

3.3.3. La voie JNK et l'inflammation métabolique

Les JNKs jouent un rôle majeur dans diverses voies métaboliques comme par exemple la mort cellulaire (en particulier dans les neurones) (Price et al., 2003), mais aussi dans le cancer où les JNKs sont impliquées dans l'induction des tumeurs (Min et al., 2014; Mingo-Sion et al., 2004). Les JNKs sont aussi impliquées dans la mise en place de la résistance à l'insuline dans le cadre du diabète de type 2 (Kaneto et al., 2007). En effet, des études biochimiques ont montré que JNK est capable de phosphoryler IRS-1 (insulin receptor substrate-1), une protéine clef qui permet la transduction du signal de l'insuline, au niveau de la sérine 307 (Lee et al., 2003). Cette phosphorylation empêche la transduction du signal insulinémique induisant ainsi une résistance à l'insuline. L'invalidation de JNK1 chez les souris sous régime gras, induit une diminution de l'adiposité, une amélioration de la sensibilité à l'insuline. A noter que l'invalidation de JNK2 n'a aucun effet sur ces paramètres (Yu et al., 2008). En accord avec ces résultats, les souris invalidées pour JNK1 uniquement dans les adipocytes, prennent du poids de la même manière que les souris contrôles sous régime gras (Sabio et al., 2008). Cependant, ces souris présentent une amélioration de la sensibilité à l'insuline. Elles présentent également une diminution de la stéatose hépatique et une amélioration de la sensibilité à l'insuline hépatique. De plus ces souris sont protégées contre l'augmentation de l'expression d'IL-6 dans le tissu adipeux ainsi qu'au niveau sérique (Sabapathy, 2012). Comme détaillé dans le paragraphe dédié, les cellules immunitaires en général et les macrophages en particulier jouent un rôle central dans l'inflammation métabolique

observée lors de l'obésité (Solinas et al., 2007). L'invalidation de JNK1 dans les cellules myéloïdes protège les souris mises sous régime gras contre la prise de poids et la résistance à l'insuline (Solinas et al., 2007) . A l'inverse, une autre étude montre que l'invalidation de JNK1 dans les macrophages n'améliore pas la résistance à l'insuline induite pat l'obésité (Sabio et al., 2008).

L'ensemble de ces résultats suggèrent donc i) que c'est l'activité JNK dans les cellules adipeuses, et non dans les cellules myéloïdes, qui aurait un impact sur la régulation de l'homéostasie glucidique, ou ii) que la combinaison de JNK1 et JNK2 est requise pour obtenir un impact entier des cellules myéloïdes sur l'inflammation du tissu adipeux et ces conséquences métaboliques. En 2013, une étude est venue conforter la deuxième hypothèse. En effet, l'équipe de J.Davis a créé des souris invalidées pour JNK1 et JNK2 dans les cellules myéloïdes (Han et al., 2013). Mises sous régime gras, bien qu'ayant la même prise de poids que les souris contrôles, les souris KO étaient protégées contre l'hyperglycémie et l'hyperinsulinémie. Au niveau du tissu adipeux, les souris KO avaient une infiltration de macrophages moins importante que les souris sauvages sous régime gras. De plus, les auteurs de cette étude ont montré que JNK était nécessaire à la polarisation des macrophages en un phénotype pro-inflammatoire. JNK semble donc un acteur majeur dans la mise en place de l'inflammation métabolique (Han et al., 2013).

3.4. Les facteurs de transcriptions IRFs

La famille des facteurs de transcription IRFs (interferon-regulatory factor) a été initialement identifiée comme régulateur des gènes de l'interféron de types I suite à une infection bactérienne ou virale (Honda and Taniguchi, 2006). Aujourd'hui, plusieurs études ont montré que les IRFs jouaient plusieurs rôles cruciaux dans la maturation et la polarisation des cellules immunitaires et plus particulièrement dans les macrophages (Gunthner and Anders, 2013).

Les IRFs sont une famille de neuf membres (Tableau 2). Chaque IRF contient un domaine d'interaction à l'ADN bien conservé, de 120 acides aminés, localisé au niveau de l'extrémité N-terminale. Cette région reconnait une séquence consensus de l'ADN appelée ISRE (IFN-stimulated response element). Dans la région C-terminale des IRFs, exception faite pour IRF-1 et IRF-2, se trouve une séquence permettant l'interaction avec d'autres protéines. Outre la régulation de la voie des interférons, les IRFs sont

aussi capables d'être activés par la voie des TLRs et en particulier la voie de TLR4. En effet, la liaison du LPS au TLR4 induit la phosphorylation de certains IRFs (IRF3 et IRF5), qui vont se dimériser et être transloqués dans le noyau pour se lier aux promoteurs des gènes cibles (ex : IFNβ, CXCL10) et ainsi induire leurs expression.

IRF	Expression	Gènes cibles	Phénotype du KO
IRF1	Constitutive (et induite par IFN-γ)	IL12 IL15 Caspase-1	Altération de la réponse TH-1, Augmentation des risques d'infection Développement des cellules NK, NKT altéré Diminution de la réponse apoptotique des lymphocytes T matures induite par l'ADN endommagé
IRF2	Constitutive	Gènes inductibles par IFN (OAS, PKR, IRF7) IL12	Inflammation sévère de la peau induite par les lymphocytes T CD8+; développement de Cellules Dendritiques CD4+ altéré
IRF3	Constitutive	IFN-β, IFN-α4, CXCL9, CXCL10 et CCL5	Résistance au choc endotoxique induit par le LPS
IRF4	Constitutive (la ligation des TLR)	IL-4, GATA3	Différenciation des cellules TH2 altérée
IRF5	Constitutive (et induite les IFNs de type I et par la ligation des TLR)	IL6, IL12, TNF et CXCL2	Résistance au choc induit par le LPS Amélioration de la sensibilité à l'insuline
IRF6	ND	ND	ND
IRF7	Constitutive (et induite par les IFNs de type l)	IFN-β et IFN-α	Risque d'infection augmenté
IRF8	Constitutive (et induite par IFN-γ)	IL12 et IL18	Différenciation des cellules TH-1 altérée
IRF9	Constitutive	Gènes inductibles par IFN (OAS. PKR. IRF7)	Risque d'infection virale

Tableau 2 La famille des IRFs

Récemment, il a été montré que IRF4 était responsable de la polarisation des macrophages en type M2 (anti –inflammatoire) en réponse à la chitine qui compose la paroi cellulaire de certains parasites et champignons (Satoh et al., 2010). De plus, une autre étude menée par le Dr. Udalova, a montré qu'IRF5 était responsable de la polarisation des macrophages en type M1 (pro-inflammatoires) (Krausgruber et al., 2011). Les auteurs ont montré que la polarisation des macrophages induite par le traitement de cellules isolées du sang périphérique, par le GM-CSF (Granulocytes-macrophage colony stimulating factor) était exacerbée lorsque IRF5 était surexprimé. A l'inverse l'invalidation d'IRF5 (par siRNA) induisait une diminution de la polarisation M1 après traitement au GM-CSF. IRF5 est directement recruté au niveau des promoteurs associés au phénotype M1 pour induire leur expression (ex : IL1β, CCL5, IL12b). Mais de manière surprenante, IRF5 est aussi recruté au niveau des promoteurs des gènes
associés au phénotype M2 pour réprimer leur expression (ex : IL10). Cette différence pourrait s'expliquer par la collaboration d'IRF5 avec différents cofacteurs ou facteurs de transcription selon les promoteurs (Krausgruber et al., 2011).

Les IRFs jouent donc un rôle important dans la réponse inflammatoire classique. Cependant, jusqu'à récemment, leurs rôles dans l'inflammation métabolique, comme par exemple dans la polarisation des macrophages du tissu adipeux lors de l'obésité, restent flou. Plusieurs études ont montré que certains membres de la famille des IRFs (IRF1, IRF3, IRF4, IRF7 et IRF9) sont impliqués dans l'inflammation du tissu adipeux. De manière étonnante, certains IRFs jouent un rôle dans la polarisation des macrophages du tissu adipeux mais également dans les adipocytes en y influençant le métabolisme et l'adipogènèse (Eguchi et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2013).

Basé sur les travaux du Dr. Udalova, nous nous sommes intéressés, dans une étude récente, au rôle que jouerait IRF5 dans la polarisation des macrophages du tissu adipeux lors de l'obésité. Dans cette étude (Annexe 1) nous avons mis en évidence un nouveau rôle d'IRF5 dans la régulation de l'inflammation du tissu adipeux. Nous avons montré que l'invalidation d'IRF5 dans l'organisme entier ou spécifiquement dans les macrophages (souris IRF5 MacKO) limite la croissance du tissu adipeux viscéral des souris par rapport à leurs homologues contrôles lorsque elles étaient sous régime hyperlipidique. Le tissu adipeux viscéral des souris IRF5 MacKO présentait une infiltration massive de macrophages de types M2 (anti inflammatoires), un dépôt de collagène plus important dans le tissu qui restreint la taille des adipocytes et la croissance du TA et ainsi améliore la sensibilité à l'insuline. Nous avons ainsi démontré que IRF5, surexprimé dans les macrophages du tissu adipeux lors de l'obésité, orchestre la réponse immunitaire afin de favoriser l'expansion du TA adipeux en empêchant le remodelage du tissu adipeux via l'inhibition de l'expression de TGF-ß1 (Transforming Growth Factor ß) dans les macrophages. Cette étude met en lumière pour la première fois, aussi bien chez l'animal que chez l'homme, l'impact délétère d'IRF5 dans le tissu adipeux lors de l'obésité. De manière plus générale elle démontre le rôle important des IRFs dans le contrôle de la réponse immunitaire pathologique du tissu adipeux (Dalmas and Toubal, NatMed 2015 accepted) (Annexe 1).

3.5. Rôle des complexes NCOR et SMRT dans le contrôle de la transcription des gènes inflammatoires

3.5.1. Mécanismes de « dérépression » des gènes inflammatoires

Comme nous l'avons décrit auparavant, les complexes NCOR et SMRT jouent un role important dans la coordination de la transcription.

Lors d'une inflammation, le remodelage de la chromatine va être combiné à l'échange des complexes corépreseurs par des complexes coactivateurs de la transcription (au niveau de certains loci). Le mécanisme d'échange des complexes corépresseurs et coactivateurs est une étape indispensable à une réponse inflammatoire appropriée et coordonnée. La régulation du processus inflammatoire semble être un des rôles majeur de NCOR et SMRT. Ces deux corépresseurs répriment la transcription des gènes proinflammatoires, parmi lesquels beaucoup sont des cibles de NF-κB (Pascual et al., 2005). Les stimuli inflammatoires, tel que le LPS, provoquent la «clearance» de NCOR des promoteurs et l'activation de la transcription des gènes. L'inhibition de la « clearance » de NCOR ou SMRT apparaît donc comme une stratégie prometteuse pour inhiber la transcription des gènes inflammatoires.

Bien que de plus en plus décrits, les mécanismes exacts de dérépression de la transcription des gènes restent à ce jour assez énigmatique. En 2011, le Pr. Glass et ses collègues ont proposé la protéine Coro2A (coronine 2A), molécule appartenant au complexe NCOR (dans certains types cellulaires), comme étant la protéine permettant la « clearance » du complexe NCOR du promoteur des gènes inflammatoires cibles et donc la dérépression de leur transcription. Ce processus de « clearance » des complexes de corépresseurs des promoteurs des gènes cibles a également été décrit pour les gènes contrôlés par les facteurs de transcription AP-1 et NF-κB (Huang et al., 2011).

A l'état basal, AP-1 et NF- κ B sont recrutés au niveau des promoteurs de certains gènes inflammatoires (ex : IL6, CCL2), mais leur activité est inhibée par la présence de complexe corépresseurs. Suite à un stimulus inflammatoire et un changement de conformation de ces facteurs de transcription, le complexe corépresseur est remplacé par un complexe activateur. AP-1 et NF- κ B sont activés et induisent la transcription des gènes. Comme nous le disions, ce mécanisme est spécifique à certains gènes inflammatoires. Les raisons de cette spécificité ne sont pas encore connues (Figure 17).



Figure 17 : Mécanismes de dérépression des gènes inflammatoires. 1/ Dans des conditions basales, les promoteurs des gènes inflammatoires sont occupés par un ou plusieurs complexes corépresseurs (ici représentés par le complexe NCOR/SMRT-HDAC3-GPS2-TBL1 et TBLR1) qui répriment la transcription en empêchant le recrutement de la machinerie transcriptionnelle (ARN polymérase II). 2/En réponse à un stimulus inflammatoire, il y a recrutement de facteurs de transcription tel que NF- κ B (p50-p65) et activation du facteur de transcription AP-1. La sous-unité d'AP-1 va alors activer TBL1 et TBLR1 , qui recrutent l'enzyme d'ubiquitination UBCH5, qui induit sa dégradation par le protéasome . 3/ Le recrutement de complexes coactivateurs est alors possible permettant la transcription des gènes.

Dans le contexte des gènes inductibles (gènes dont l'expression est dépendante de stimulus) par TLR4, NCOR et SMRT peuvent être recrutés de manière indépendante, car les facteurs de transcription permettant leurs dégradations dans la région des promoteurs sont différents (Ghisletti et al., 2009). NCOR est recruté par le facteur c-JUN non phosphorylé au niveau des séquences de liaisons de AP-1, alors que SMRT se lie à la protéine TEL (ETS leukemia protein) et à la sous unité p50 de NFκ-B. Ces points d'encrages différents définissent des groupes de gènes cibles différents pour NCOR et SMRT. Cependant, il existe un certain nombre de gènes qui nécessite à la fois le recrutement de NCOR et de SMRT au niveau de leurs promoteurs pour permettre leurs répressions comme par exemple le promoteur du gène CCL2.

Cependant, le rôle de NCOR et de SMRT dans la répression des gènes inflammatoires n'est pas toujours cohérent. En effet, l'invalidation in vivo de NCOR spécifiquement dans les macrophages induit un phénotype anti-inflammatoire couplé à une amélioration de la sensibilité à l'insuline chez les souris obèse (Li et al., 2013). Ces résultats étaient complètement inattendus car l'invalidation de NCOR dans les macrophages in vitro induisait une dérépression des gènes inflammatoires. Ces observations mettent en évidence donc il existe peut-être in vivo des mécanismes de compensation. D'autre part, les études in vitro ne peuvent pas prendre en compte les interactions entre les différents types cellulaires.

3.5.2. Le mécanisme de « transrépression » de l'inflammation par les RNs

Les complexes corépresseurs NCOR et SMRT sont également impliqués dans les mécanismes de répression des gènes inflammatoires par les récepteurs nucléaires, phénomène de « transrépression » . En effet les récepteurs nucléaires tels que PPARs, LRH-1 et LXRs sont capables d'inhiber l'activité de facteurs de transcription inflammatoires comme par exemple NF-κB et AP-1 (Glass and Saijo, 2010).

Cette activité répressive des récepteurs nucléaires s'exerce notamment par l'inhibition de la « clearance » de NCOR ou SMRT des promoteurs et ainsi permettre la répression de la transcription des gènes inflammatoires. En effet, l'activation de RNs par le ligand induit la SUMOylation (Small Ubiquitin-related Modifier) du récepteur. La forme SUMOylée du RN permet l'interaction avec la sous-unité GPS2 des complexes corépresseurs NCOR/SMRT, empêchant ainsi le recrutement de la machinerie d'ubiquitination nécessaire à la « clearance » de ces complexes. En conséquence, les complexes corépresseurs NCOR/SMRT restent liés aux promoteurs des gènes cibles et continuent d'exercer leurs activités répressives (Figure 18). L'interaction de GPS2 avec le récepteur SUMOylé semble essentielle à ce mécanisme de transrépression (Venteclef et al., 2010).

Dans le cadre de l'inflammation métabolique, ces mécanismes de transrépression n'ont, à ce jour, pas été décris. Les TZD (thiazolidinediones) sont des agonistes de PPARγ, utilisés dans le traitement du diabéte. Un des effets secondaires du traitement par les TZD est la diminution de l'inflammation systémique et du tissu adipeux des patients diabétiques. Il serait donc intéressant de savoir si cet effet anti-inflammatoire de PPARγ est du à la transrépression de la transcription des gènes inflammatoires via les complexes corépresseurs NCOR/SMRT.

3.5.3. Rôle de HDAC3 dans l'inflammation

Récemment, le Pr.Lazar et ses collègues ont invalidé HDAC3 (Histone Deacetylase 3) dans les macrophages. De manière surprenante, les macrophages des souris invalidées pour HDAC3 présentaient une polarisation alternative (Macrophages anti-inflammatoire ou M2) exacerbée suite à une stimulation par la cytokine anti-inflammatoire IL-4. En effet, HDAC3 va déacétyler de nombreuses histones se trouvant dans les régions régulatrices de plusieurs gènes impliqués dans l'activation alternative des macrophages (gènes qui sont sous le contrôle de facteurs de transcription tels que AP-1 et NF-κB). Son invalidation permet l'acétylation de ces promoteurs, le recrutement de la machinerie transcriptionnelle et l'expression de ces gènes (Mullican et al., 2011). Ces résultats sont très intéressants car ils mettent en perspective une fonction alternative de HDAC3 dans la régulation de la réponse inflammatoire. D'une part, il semble réprimer l'expression des gènes inflammatoires en inhibant les voies NF-κB et AP-1, et d'autre part il réprime également les gènes anti-inflammatoires cibles dans les macrophages. Ces résultats qui paraissent de prime à bord contradictoires et paradoxaux pourraient s'expliquer par le fait que HDAC3 est capable d'interagir avec différents partenaires et semble avoir une activité indépendante de son activité enzymatique. Bien que certains partenaires tels



Figure 18 : Mécanismes de transrépression. La liaison d'un ligand sur un récepteur nucléaire (ex : PPARγ, LXR) induit un changement de conformation de récepteur nucléaire lui permettant d'être SUMOylé avec la protéine SUMO1/2. Le récepteur nucléaire peut alors interagir avec le complexe corépresseur, le stabiliser et empêcher son ubiquitination par l'enzyme UBCH5. Les gènes cibles restent dans un état réprimé.

que les complexes corépresseurs NCOR et SMRT sont connus, d'autres restent à découvrir pour comprendre de manière plus exhaustive leur fonctionnement.

3.5.4. Le rôle de GPS2 dans l'inflammation

L'implication de GPS2 dans la régulation de la réponse inflammatoire a été mise en évidence très tôt dans l'histoire de cette protéine. Comme nous l'avons évoqué, en 1997 *Jin et al.* ont montré que GPS2 était capable d'inhiber l'activation du facteur de transcription AP-1 par TNF- α (Jin et al., 1997). Dans cette étude, GPS2 semble ne pas contrôler la transcription de gènes, mais interagit avec le récepteur du TNF- α au niveau de la membrane cytoplasmique (Figure 19).

GPS2 est aussi impliqué dans la régulation de la réponse inflammatoire de la phase aiguë hépatique. En effet, Le Dr.Venteclef a montré que GPS2 participe à l'interaction entre les RNs SUMOylés (LRH-1 et LXR) et le complexe corépresseur NCOR. De même dans cette étude, il est montré pour la première fois que GPS2 est absolument nécessaire à l'intégrité du complexe répresseur NCOR. En effet l'invalidation de GPS2 provoque la dislocation du complexe qui perd son activité répressive (Venteclef et al., 2010).

L'ensemble de ces études montre que le rôle de GPS2 dans le contrôle de l'inflammation est d'inhiber la réponse inflammatoire, que ce soit au niveau transcriptionnel (en interagissant avec le complexe NCOR) ou au niveau cytoplasmique (en inhibant l'activité du TNF α). De manière surprenante, bien que plusieurs études aient montré l'implication des complexes répresseurs NCOR/SMRT dans la régulation de l'inflammation métabolique aucune étude ne s'est intéressée au rôle de GPS2 dans la régulation de ce type d'inflammation. En effet, nous pouvons nous poser la question de savoir si GPS2 est impliqué dans la polarisation des macrophages médiée par HDAC3. De plus, nous avons évoqué dans une partie précédente, les différents rôles (parfois antagoniste) que semblent jouer les complexes NCOR et SMRT dans l'inflammation (du tissu adipeux par exemple). Dans ces études le rôle de GPS2 n'a pas été étudié. Or, GPS2 est non seulement nécessaire à l'intégrité de ces complexes, mais comme nous l'avons évoqué, joue un rôle clef dans la régulation de la réponse par ceux-ci. Il serait donc intéressant de comprendre comment GPS2 est régulé dans les différents contextes inflammatoires et en particulier durant l'inflammation chronique.



Figure 19 : GPS2 une protéine à activités multiples . GPS2 inhibe la voie TNF- α /JNK dans le compartiment cytoplasmique (rôle non génomique). Elle peut activer la transcription de certains gènes métaboliques (ex: CYP8B) en activant certains récepteurs nucléaires et est capable d'inhiber la transcription de gènes inflammatoires (ex : SAA) grâce à son interaction avec les complexes corépresseurs NCOR/SMRT.

4. Mécanismes transcriptionnels de l'inflammation du tissu adipeux

« Genomic and epigenomic regulation of adipose tissu inflammation in obesity » (Revue)

Genomic and epigenomic regulation of adipose tissue inflammation in obesity

Amine Toubal^{1,3,4}, Eckardt Treuter⁵, Karine Clément^{1,2,3,4}, and Nicolas Venteclef^{1,3,4}

¹Institute of Cardiometabolism and Nutrition, Paris 75013, France

² Assistance Publique-Hôpitaux de Paris, Pitié-Salpêtrière Hospital, Heart and Metabolism Division, Paris 75013, France

³ Institut National de la Santé et de la Recherche Médicale (INSERM) Unité 872, Team 7 Nutriomique, Paris 75006, France

⁴ Université Pierre et Marie Curie-Paris 6, Cordeliers Research Center, Unité Mixte de Recherche (UMR) S872, Paris 75006, France

⁵ Karolinska Institutet, Department of Biosciences and Nutrition, 14183 Huddinge, Sweden

Chronic inflammation of adipose tissue is viewed as a hallmark of obesity and contributes to the development of type 2 diabetes and cardiovascular disease. According to current models, nutrient excess causes metabolic and structural changes in adipocytes, which initiate transcriptional programs leading to the expression of inflammatory molecules and the subsequent recruitment of immune cells. Recent advances in deciphering the underlying mechanisms revealed that key regulatory events occur at the genomic and epigenomic levels. Here we review these advances because they offer a better understanding of the mechanisms behind the complex obesogenic program in adipose tissue, and because they may help in defining new therapeutic strategies that prevent, restrict, and resolve inflammation in the context of obesity.

Adipose tissue inflammation: a hallmark of obesity

Worldwide changes in lifestyle have caused a global obesity epidemic, with an estimate of over 700 million affected people in 2015. Accordingly, health authorities including the World Health Organization (WHO) and the American Medical Association (AMA) promote the designation of obesity as a new 'disease'. However, the absence of a single, clear, authoritative, and widely accepted definition of obesity, a concern to both clinicians and obese patients, emphasizes the multifactorial and sometimes poorly understood nature of the disorder [1].

Traditionally, obesity has been viewed as the result of an imbalance between energy intake and expenditure, driven by increased consumption of food with high caloric content and a sedentary lifestyle. Interindividual differences have been often ascribed to genetic variations in genes related to energy metabolism. Indeed, many genetic and epidemiological studies in the 1980s on cohorts of twins and adopted children revealed a statistically significant contribution of genetics to the development of obesity [2,3]. Although these

Corresponding author: Venteclef, N. (nicolas.venteclef@upmc.fr).

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Glossary

Coregulators (transcriptional): the term coregulators refers to proteins and multiprotein complexes that interact with DNA-bound transcription factors to either activate (coactivators) or repress (corepressors) gene transcription. Coregulators alter gene expression primarily by mediating interactions with the basal transcription machinery and by modifying chromatin structure and function, thereby making DNA more or less accessible to transcription. Coregulators rather than transcription factors are the main epigenomic players because they can reversibly write, erase, and read (translate) chromatin modifications linked to gene expression.

Enhancer-associated RNAs (eRNAs): eRNAs are a recently identified class of non-coding RNAs that are transcribed from regulatory enhancer regions, distant from the transcription start-sites of mRNA-coding genes. eRNAs are suspected to play key roles in transcription regulation, both in cis and in trans, but the underlying mechanisms remain to be identified.

Epigenetics: this term was originally coined to describe 'the study of mitotically and/or meiotically heritable changes in gene function that cannot be explained by changes in DNA sequence'. Initially, it was believed that epigenetic modifications were unidirectional, but recent studies have demonstrated that the epigenome, in other words the sum of all chromatin (DNA/ histone) modifications in a given cell type, is in fact dynamic and reversible, changing in response to nutrients, physical activity, and with aging. Thus, recent operational definitions include all these aspects of epigenetic control of gene expression.

Epigenomics: this term refers to the genome-wide analysis of epigenetic chromatin modifications, and currently includes the study of DNA methylation as well as of diverse histone modifications, the latter being far more complex and experimentally far more challenging to approach.

Histone acetyltransferases (HATs): enzymes within multiprotein (coactivator) complexes that acetylate specific lysine residues in histone tails, thereby promoting euchromatin structure and transcription activation.

Histone deacetylases (HDACs): enzymes within multiprotein (corepressor) complexes that remove acetyl groups from specific modified lysine residues in histone tails, thereby increasing their affinity for the negatively charged DNA and generating a tight chromatin structure refractory to transcription.

Lipotoxicity: lipotoxicity results from intracellular accumulation of lipid species, such as diacylglycerols, saturated fatty acids, and ceramides, leading to cell-intrinsic and -extrinsic dysfunction.

Metaflammation: the term was originally coined by Gökhan S. Hotamisligil [90] to describe the state of metabolically driven inflammation (also referred to as 'low-grade', 'chronic', or 'cold' inflammation), a key feature of common metabolic diseases including obesity. Metaflammation shares key components and signaling pathways with classical ('acute', 'hot') inflammation and is observed in most 'metabolic' tissues (e.g., fat, liver, gut, pancreas) under conditions of disease

MicroRNAs (miRNAs): a large family of small non-coding RNAs that have emerged as key post-transcriptional regulators of gene expression. The generation of miRNAs is the result of the activity of multiprotein complexes that work synergistically to induce sequential cleavage, export, and miRNA interactions with silencing complexes. They are transcribed as RNA precursors by RNA polymerase II.

Transrepression: generally describes the ability of a transcription factor to suppress transcription activation by other DNA-bound transcription factors in trans, in other words by means of protein-protein interactions, without needing to bind directly to DNA. Transrepression accounts for the antiinflammatory action of many nuclear receptors and can be achieved by multiple distinct mechanisms.



Keywords: transcription; epigenomics; coregulators; inflammation; metabolism; obesity.

approaches led to the identification of some causal genes in monogenic disease (that are usually severe with early onset), the approach was less fruitful in identifying causal genes in common forms of obesity [4–7]. In recent years obesity and its related complications have also been associated with other factors such as sleep, gut flora, or nutrients, which might increase susceptibility to weight-gain and obesity-related complications through epigenetic changes (see Glossary) (Figure 1) [8–10]. Experimental and epidemiological evidence has linked obesity and related metabolic complication to chronic inflammation. In fact, it is suggested that chronic inflammation in the context of metabolic disorders (termed 'metaflammation') might be the result, at least in part, of epigenetic alterations. Adipose tissue inflammation, a hallmark of obesity (Box 1), is present to different degrees in different individuals, and might be the consequence of epigenetic alterations in response to lifestyle and other environmental factors that influence chromatin



Figure 1. Components of epigenomic responses that influence adipose tissue inflammation in obesity. Environmental factors, lifestyle, and genetic makeup result in 'personalized' epigenomic responses and alterations in metabolic pathways, and these are likely to influence adipose tissue metaflammation during the progression of obesity. Highlighted are the major components which influence the propagation of such 'metaflammatory epigenomes' in adipose tissue.

Box 1. Inflammatory events in obesity

Dietary manipulation of rodent models has shown that both high-fat diet (HFD) or high-caloric diet (HCD) feeding induce short-term acute inflammation in adipose tissue. This phase is termed the early phase of the inflammatory response and does not involve immune cells [13]. The way in which this inflammation is initiated remains unclear. Storage of excess nutrients in the adipose tissue result in hypertrophic adipocytes, lipid dysregulation (accumulation of diacylglycerol and ceramide), mitochondrial dysfunction (oxidative stress), and endoplasmic reticulum stress [91,92]. Activation of inflammatory cascades and an increased secretion of inflammatory mediators is also observed (Figure 2) that attract immune cells such as M1 polarized (proinflammatory) macrophages [23]. This phenomenon is termed chemotaxis. Indeed, M1 macrophages are enriched within the adipose tissue in obesity, thereby orchestrating an adaptive immune response [93]. Lymphocytes have also been recently discovered to infiltrate human adipose tissue. Polarization of lymphocytes is dependent on the inflammatory environment and the capacity of adipose tissue cells to present antigens [94]. The initial idea that macrophages are responsible for T cell activation was challenged by recent evidence showing that adipocytes can also activate T cells [95]. All these inflammatory processes contribute to the development and maintenance of adipose tissue inflammation in obesity. The phenotype of immune cells and adipocytes in obesity might be triggered through specific transcriptional circuits in response to both genomic (alterations of transcription factor binding and function) and epigenomic (alterations of chromatin modifications) regulatory events.

structure, transcription factor activity, and non-coding RNA regulation.

Recent progress in dissecting transcriptional alterations in gene networks, that are specifically linked to adipose tissue inflammation in obesity, highlight the importance of a tight coordination of such networks for appropriate gene expression for a healthy state. These alterations include activation and promoter binding of specific transcription factors, referred to as genomic regulators, the recruitment of chromatin modifying coregulators, and the induction of non-coding RNAs referred to as epigenomic regulators (Figure 1).

Here we review current insights into the genomic and epigenomic regulation of adipose tissue inflammation, which offer a better understanding of the complex obesogenic program and may help in defining new therapeutic strategies to prevent, restrict, and/or resolve inflammation in the context of obesity.

Genomic regulation

Transcription factors involved in adipose tissue inflammation in obesity

Activation of innate immunity pathways. A crucial finding linking inflammation and adipose tissue dysfunction was the observation that the Toll-like receptors (TLRs), a family of pattern-recognition receptors that play a crucial role in innate immunity, respond to dietary fatty acids. Specifically, saturated free fatty acids (FFAs) induce adipose tissue inflammation through activation of the TLR4 pathway [11]. Mice lacking TLR4 are protected against high-fat diet-induced obesity, inflammation, and insulin resistance because they are resistant to the suppression of insulin signaling during lipid infusion, and exhibit reduced insulin-mediated changes in systemic glucose metabolism [12]. TLRs as well as the tumor necrosis factor α (TNF α) receptor (TNF-R) typically activate a broad spectrum of proinflammatory markers including cytokines and transcription factors such as nuclear factor κ light-chain-enhancer of activated B cells (NF- κ B), its inhibitor IKK β , and Jun N-terminal kinases (JNKs) [13] (Figure 2). Inhibition of IKK β or JNK by synthetic inhibitors or their genetic deletion prevents adipose tissue inflammation and resolves obesity-induced insulin resistance, highlighting their key functions in adipose tissue inflammation [13] (Figure 2). Interestingly, JNK depletion in macrophages reduces tissue inflammatory by macrophages (known as adipose tissue-associated macrophages – ATMs), and blocks the induction of inflammatory gene expression in adipose tissue [14] (Figure 2).

In addition to ATMs, several other immune cell types are found in the obese adipose tissue. Inflamed adipose tissue is enriched in T lymphocytes, which under conditions of obesity promote an increase in the levels of interferon γ (IFN γ). IFN γ plays a crucial role in the regulation of adipose tissue inflammation and enhances the production of various inflammatory cytokines, including $TNF\alpha$ [15,16]. The increased IFN_{γ} levels result also in the activation of interferon regulatory factors (IRFs), another class of transcription factors involved in adipose tissue inflammation (Figure 2). Indeed, IRF-1, -3, -4, -7, and -9 have all been reported to regulate adipogenesis and ATM polarization [17–19]. Interestingly, IRFs have dual functions because they not only activate but also repress transcription. In particular, IRF4 and IRF7 appear to repress antiinflammatory genes in adipocytes [20,21], thus propagating the inflammatory state. Although the underlying mechanism of repression remains unclear, the involvement of specific corepressors and a distinct epigenomic landscape specifying the repressive chromatin environment is likely to be one contributing factor (discussed below).

Nuclear receptors and adipose tissue inflammation. Although the activation of proinflammatory transcription factors is a prerequisite for adipose tissue inflammation, the concomitant suppression of anti-inflammatory transcription factors and their coregulators is also part of the equation. An example is found within the nuclear receptor family, where various nutrient-sensing members are known for their potent anti-inflammatory activities [22, 23].Peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor γ (PPAR γ), a key regulator of adipogenesis and the genomic target for the anti-diabetic drugs thiadolizinediones (TZDs) [24-27], has anti-inflammatory action, although its expression is reduced in inflamed adipose tissue [28]. Several possible mechanisms may account for the antiinflammatory action of PPAR γ in the context of obese adipose tissue. For example, because PPAR γ activation by TZDs improves insulin sensitivity, partially through promoting fatty acid storage as triglycerides in adipocytes, it reduces lipotoxicity and counteracts inflammation in adipose tissue [29]. Indeed, diabetic patients treated with TZDs show improvement in their inflammatory parameters despite gaining weight [30].

Another mechanism might be a direct inhibition of proinflammatory transcription factors in adipose tissue



Figure 2. Inflammatory signaling in adipose tissue. Adipose tissue signals (lipids, cytokines, or LPS) activate immune cells and adipocytes through TNFR and TLR pathways, which promote post-translational modifications of NF-κB and JNK. Activation of the NF-κB pathway is induced by activation of IKK complexes and degradation of I_kB to allow NF-κB translocation into the nucleus and binding to inflammatory gene promoters. Activation of these receptors also promotes phosphorylation (P) of JNK by the MAP kinase cascade. Phosphorylated JNK activates inflammatory transcription factors such c-Jun and c-Fos (AP-1) (1). Activation of TLRs by adipose-derived signals also induces the phosphorylation of IRFs via the TRAF6/TBK1 cascade. Phosphorylated IRFs can dimerize with STAT proteins (activated by JAK/STAT cascade) to form a regulatory complex which is recruited to IFN-stimulated genes promoters and activates their expression (2). These inflammatory signals can induce insulin resistance in the adipocytes in particular by triggering IRS phosphorylation at serine residues via the JNK pathway (3). Abbreviations: IFN, interferon; IRS, insulin receptor substrate; JAK, Janus kinase; JNK, Jun N-terminal kinase; LPS, lipopolysaccharide; MAP, mitogen-activated protein; MYD88, myeloid differentiation primary response gene 88; NF-κB; nuclear factor κ light-chain-enhancer of activated B cells; STAT, signal transducer and activator of transcription; TBK1, TANK-binding kinase; TLR, Toll-like receptor; TNF, tumor necrosis factor; TNFR, TNF receptor; TRAF6; TNF receptor-associated factor 6.

via transrepression, reminiscent of the anti-inflammatory action of PPARy and liver X receptors (LXRs) in macrophages [31,32]. However, although the transrepression pathway has been validated in different macrophage populations, in the context of vascular inflammation and atherosclerosis and with additional nuclear receptors, [33], it has not yet been established in adipocytes (Figure 3) and warrants more investigation. More recent findings suggest that PPARy may modulate inflammation by regulating the expression of anti-inflammatory transcription factors and their coregulators in adipocytes [29]. For example, the E-box transcription factor Twist-related protein 1 (TWIST1) controls in part the expression of two subunits of an anti-inflammatory complex that represses transcription, referred to as G protein pathway suppressor 2 (GPS2) and silencing mediator for retinoid and thyroid hormone receptor (SMRT) (described below in Box 2 and Figure 3) [34]. Interestingly, TWIST1 expression, which is also regulated by PPAR γ , is reduced in obese adipocytes and correlates with the inflammatory status of the tissue [35,36]. Thus, the GPS2/SMRT corepressor complex could be a mediator of the anti-inflammatory action of PPAR γ that specifically affects signals originating from the inflamed adipocytes.

In addition to its effects on macrophages and adipocytes, PPAR γ may also control adipose tissue inflammation and insulin sensitivity by stimulating the accumulation and function of regulatory T cells (Treg) in visceral adipose tissue [27]. Finally, another class of transcription factors known as Krüppel-Like factors (KLFs) appear to be involved in the regulation of adipose tissue inflammation as well. As observed with PPAR γ , reduced expression of KLF4 seems to be associated with elevated expression of proinflammatory markers [37].

Transcriptional coregulators

Epigenomic checkpoints of inflammatory gene expression

The term 'coregulator' describes a structurally and functionally diverse class of proteins and multiprotein complexes that do not bind directly to DNA but instead associate with DNA-bound transcription factors to regulate gene transcription (Figure 3). Coregulators can either activate (coactivators) or inhibit (corepressors) transcription through modification of the chromatin structure. Importantly, many coregulators modulate transcription in a cell- or tissue-specific manner, thus creating an additional level of control, specificity, and complexity [31]. Although



Figure 3. Epigenomic regulation of inflammation in adipose tissue. (**A**) In healthy (lean) adipose tissue inflammatory gene expression is repressed by the SMRT/GPS2 corepressor complex which suppresses the activation of proinflammatory transcription factors (NF-κB, AP-1, C/EBP) (1). H3K4 demethylation induces chromatin condensation, thereby preventing the recruitment of the transcriptional machinery (RNA polymerase II) (2). The transcription factor KLF4 is recruited onto anti-inflammatory gene promoters, allowing their expression (3). (**B**) Weight gain induces metabolic alterations that represent proinflammatory stimuli. The activation of TLR4, TNF-R, and IFN-R by their respective ligands (1) induces proinflammatory cascades (described in Figure 1) (2), that lead to the clearance of the SMRT/GPS2 corepressor complex and H3K4 methylation enables the recruitment of CBP/P300–SWI-SNF coactivator complexes which further remodel and modify chromatin (e.g., by acetylation), and thus cooperate with the transcriptional machinery, to induce gene transcription. (**D**) Weight loss or TZD treatment induces a significant improvement in adipose tissue inflammator. Weight loss induces the activation of PPAR_Y/TWIST1 restoring the expression and the activity of SMRT/GPS2 within the complex (1). TZD treatment induces the stabilization of PPAR_Y–GPS2 interaction preventing corepressor complex the retruitment of anti-inflammatory transcription factors such as KLF4 (4) completes the return to a non- or mid-inflammatory state of adipose tissue. Abbreviations: CBP/P300, CREB-binding protein (p300); C/EBP, CCAAT-enhancer-binding protein; FFA, free fatty acids, GPS2, G protein pathway suppressor 2; H3K4, histone 3 lysine 4; IFN-R, interferon receptor; KLF4, Krüppel-like factor 4; PPAR_Y, peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor γ; SMRT, siltencing mediator for retinoid and thyroid hormone receptor; SWI-SNF, switching-defective sucrose non-fermenting; TWIST1, E-box transcription factor Twist-related protein 1; TZD, thiadolizinedi

in vitro and cell-based studies have provided great insights into the structure and function of many coregulators and their complexes, their *in vivo* function and transcription factor specificity remain poorly understood partly because most of the full-body coregulator knockout mouse models are embryonic lethal [38]. Clearly, tissue-specific knockout models are required to study coregulator function *in vivo* and recent studies that have taken on this task have revealed novel functions of some coregulators in adipose tissue.

Coactivators that drive inflammation. Inflammatory transcription factors such as NF- κ B, AP-1, and IRFs are dependent on coactivators. The coactivators CREB-binding protein/p300 (CBP/P300) and switching-defective sucrose non-fermenting (SWI-SNF) activate transcription of these inflammatory genes by increasing histone acetylation of their promoters (Figure 3) [39,40]. NF- κ B interacts with CBP/P300 and SWI-SNF to induce transcription of its target genes such as $TNF\alpha$ and interleukin 6 (IL-6) [41,42], thus propagating the inflammatory profile. Receptor interacting protein 140 (RIP-140, NRIP1), originally described as a nuclear receptor corepressor, can also act as a coactivator to promote the expression of proinflammatory genes [43]. RIP140 is recruited to the promoters of NF-KB target genes and stimulates transcription by stabilizing the formation of the trimeric ReIA and CBP/P300 complexes. GPS2 (G protein pathway suppressor 2), a subunit of the NCOR (nuclear receptor corepressor)/SMRT corepressor complex, can independently act as a coactivator by directly interacting with several nuclear receptors including the oxysterol receptor LXR [44]. Most often this regulation appears to be promoter-specific, raising the question of what determines context selectivity. Different chromatin structures and binding site compositions, distinct promoter-bound transcription factor sets, and/or the contribution of post-translational modifications might be such determinants.

Box 2. GPS2, an emerging anti-inflammatory player in human obesity

G protein pathway suppressor 2 (GPS2, also known as AMF-1) is a small protein initially discovered in yeast for its capacity to inhibit lethal G protein subunit-activating mutations in the pheromone response pathway. The first evidence that GPS2 acts as antiinflammatory protein stems from experiments in yeast and mammalian cells were it was described to interfere with JNK1 activation. Subsequently, GPS2 was identified as a core subunit of NCOR/SMRT/HDAC3 corepressor complex, also supported by recent structural data [96]. Several lines of evidence suggest an important role of GPS2 in the control of transcription in inflammation. GPS2 acts as an anchor of SUMOylated nuclear receptors, such as LXRB or liver receptor homolog-1 (LRH1), with the NCOR/HDAC3 corepressor complex, allowing transrepression of inflammatory gene expression in hepatocytes. In the absence of GPS2, the NCOR complex is cleared from promoters, thus favoring transcription of inflammatory genes. Moreover, two recent studies have revealed genomic and non-genomic functions of GPS2 in adipocytes. Evidence provided by Perissi and coworkers suggests that GPS2 functions as a dual inhibitor of TNF-R signaling both in the cytoplasm and in the nucleus [50]. Also, transgenic overexpression of GPS2 in mouse adipocytes triggers insulin resistance. Moreover, the GPS2/SMRT corepressor complex is dysregulated and associated with inflammatory markers (IL-6) in adipose tissue of human obese subjects [34]. This dysregulation promotes derepression of inflammatory gene transcription, and this is reversed when GPS2 is overexpressed in obese adipocytes. These complementary studies establish that GPS2 acts as a repressive checkpoint in the regulation of inflammation in mouse and human adipocytes. In addition to its repressive activity, GPS2 may favor gene transcription at specific loci by behaving as a coactivator, as demonstrated for resistin in mouse adipocytes [50]. The next challenging step will be to understand how the transcriptional and non-transcriptional facets of GPS2 action regulate inflammatory responses not only in adipocytes but also in adipose tissue immune cells.

Corepressors that block inflammation. In recent years it has become clear that corepressors interact with inflammatory transcription factors to prevent their activation, thereby putting a molecular brake on inflammation (Figure 3). During proinflammatory signaling, corepressor complexes are cleared from promoters and replaced by coactivators to induce gene transcription. This transcriptional event is usually termed the 'derepression pathway' [32,45] (Figure 3). The corepressors NCOR and SMRT have emerged as important regulators of inflammatory gene transcription [46]. They assemble multiprotein complexes containing histone deacetylases (HDACs) and potentially other activities which block transcription, and clearance of NCOR and/or SMRT from inflammatory promoters is necessary to activate the transcriptional machinery. NCOR has been described as the main corepressor of inflammation in hepatocytes and macrophages [33,47]. Indeed, macrophage depletion of NCOR derepresses the main inflammatory genes controlled by NF-KB, AP-1, and Ets [48]. Although both NCOR and SMRT are corecruited to chromatin regions and participate in the regulation of inflammatory genes [49], less is known about the specific role of SMRT in the regulation of inflammatory genes in macrophages.

Recent studies have further refined these initial findings and identified new pathways highlighting the *in vivo* specificity and functional diversity of corepressor action. Although specific depletion of NCOR in adipocytes promotes adiposity [34,50], an effect mainly attributed to the hyper-activation of PPAR γ , the increase of weight gain is not corroborated with inflamed adipose tissue. In addition, macrophage infiltration in adipose tissue was lower in NCOR knockout mice and was associated with decreased expression of TNF α and IL-1 β . In agreement, another study demonstrated that NCOR is not dysregulated in adipose tissue or adipocytes of obese subjects, nor is it involved directly in the control of inflammatory gene transcription [34]. In contrast to what was observed in macrophages and liver, SMRT seems to be involved in the regulation of adipose tissue inflammation. Indeed, SMRT mRNA and protein expression in human adipose tissue and adipocytes is decreased in obese subjects, and is inversely correlated with inflammatory gene expression. Unexpectedly, GPS2 is an important player in the transcriptional repression of inflammatory genes mediated by the SMRT complex [34,50]. GPS2 anti-inflammatory actions appear to be mediated by both genomic and nongenomic regulation (discussed in Box 3). More recently, another subunit of the NCOR/SMRT complex, termed TBL1 related protein 1 (TBLR1), was also found to be involved in the regulation in metaflammatory events in adipose tissue [51]. Adipocyte-specific TBLR1 knockout mice display aggravated adiposity and metabolic disturbances such as glucose intolerance and insulin resistance. In addition, correlation analysis in human obese subjects revealed a negative association between circulating levels of the inflammatory marker C-reactive protein (CRP) and the expression of TBLR1 mRNA in adipose tissue.

Overall, these new findings are crucial because they assign a role for corepressor complexes in obesity-linked adipose tissue inflammation, which can be exploited for therapeutic intervention. Along these lines, the stabilization of corepressors at regulatory enhancers and promoters of inflammatory genes, in specific cells or tissues, might be an exciting strategy to block inflammatory gene expression. For example, many lipid-sensing nuclear receptors including PPARs and LXRs, all known for their antiinflammatory actions, have the potential to antagonize the derepression pathway by stabilizing SMRT/NCOR complexes at regulatory chromatin regions and preventing their clearance upon proinflammatory signaling [32,33]. However, many details of these probably multiple transrepression mechanisms remain to be clarified, such as the specific requirement of receptor SUMOylation [52] and the docking mechanism of receptors to the complex. Regarding the latter, subunits such as GPS2 and Coronin2A (Coro2A) have been proposed to be essential for receptor docking, which may involve specific recognition of modified receptors by different SUMO subtypes [33,53,54]. Although these corepressors are established repressive checkpoints of inflammatory gene expression, many questions remain to be addressed. Is derepression sufficient to initiate adipose tissue inflammation? What is the repertoire of genes regulated by these corepressors? And what 'obesity' signals dismiss corepressors from target genes?

Epigenetic modifications: is there an adipose tissuespecific histone code associated with obesity?

Epigenetic analysis ('epigenomics') refers to the study of DNA methylation and histone modifications that result in

altered gene expression. Overall, it is likely that epigenetic modifications, together with the genetic background of an individual, dictate the expression level of most genes and thereby the risk for disease. Recent studies have shown that inflammation can induce epigenetic alterations in tissues that prepare the ground for disease manifestation. Histones play a key role in the epigenetic control of gene transcription, and modification of histones either by acetylation or methylation can affect gene expression; histone acetylation, driven by enzymes termed histone acetyltransferases (HATs), is usually associated with gene activation, whereas histone methylation, driven by HDACs, results in different outcomes depending on the modified residue [55–57]. HAT action weakens the interaction between histones and DNA. By contrast, HDAC action stabilizes chromatin structure, consistent with the fact that HDACs are core enzymatic subunits of many corepressor complexes.

An emerging theme from several studies investigating the SMRT/NCOR/HDAC3 corepressor complex is that histone deacetylation represses inflammatory gene expression in both macrophages and adipocytes [58,59]. Of interest but currently poorly understood is the notion that the existence of promoter- and cell type-specific HDAC3 subcomplexes with NCOR and SMRT permit specific and sometimes opposing functions. In adipocytes, NCOR seems to be mainly involved in the repression of PPARy pathways whereas SMRT, together with GPS2, appears to repress inflammatory gene transcription [34,48,50]. Notably, recent studies have shown that HDAC3 is involved in the regulation of macrophage polarization, suggesting that HDAC3 might act as an 'epigenomic brake' in macrophage activation [60]. Specifically, HDAC3-deficient macrophages are unable to activate inflammatory gene expression upon stimulation with cytokines. Intriguingly, HDAC3 also plays crucial role in the regulation of NF-KB pathways by directly deacetylating RelA (a nonhistone target) and promoting its interaction with $I\kappa B$, thus leading to its nuclear export and termination of NF-κB signaling.

Genome-wide maps of histone modifications coupled with transcriptional profiling have revealed which histone modifications are linked with either active or inactive transcription programs. Methylation of lysine 4 (H3K4) or lysine 36 (H3K36) on histone H3 is associated with transcribed chromatin, whereas methylation of lysine 27 (H3K27) and/or lysine 9 (H3K9) generally correlates with repression [61]. Although progress has been made in monitoring the state of histone modifications during adipogenesis in vitro [62], studies that clearly link such alterations to obesity in vivo are lacking. For example, loss of the enzyme Jhdm2a (also known as Kdm3a), a H3K9-specific demethylase, promotes adiposity and obesity without any nutritional challenge; demethylation of K9 by Jhdm2a facilitates the recruitment of receptors, such as PPARy, and their coactivators to promoter sites of gene that drive the adipogenic program. Thus, H3K9-specific demethylation initiates a cascade of transcriptional changes that promote an increase in adipogenesis and repress adipose tissue inflammation [63].

CpG methylation (methylation at a cytosine preceding a guanine) is generally linked to transcriptional silencing via functional cooperation with repressive chromatin modifiers (e.g., HDACs, methylases). Although a direct association between alterations in DNA methylation and adipose tissue inflammation has never been clearly demonstrated, emerging data suggest that this might be a possibility. Notably. Bouchard *et al.* [64] have provided the first evidence that DNA methylation in adipose tissue differs between people who respond well and those who respond poorly to caloric restriction upon weight loss. Most recently, Ronn et al. [65] have shown that exercise influences DNA methylation not only in muscle but also in human adipose tissue, which interestingly affects the expression of SMRT. This suggests that exercise-mediated alterations of the DNA methylome have the potential to influence adipose tissue inflammation in humans.

To understand better the causal relationship between epigenomic alterations and obesity-associated chronic inflammation we will need to establish whether and which of the epigenomic changes precede the development of obesity or vice versa. Perhaps some alterations may not be causal at all, and are instead consequences of confounding factors such as nutrition, physical activity, gut flora diversity, and smoking.

Epigenomic regulation via non-coding RNA: new players in adipose tissue inflammation

Small non-coding RNAs termed microRNAs (miRNAs) are key post-transcriptional regulators of gene expression. They represent another important class of epigenomic regulators that functionally intersect with the genomic and epigenomic mechanisms of inflammatory processes described above [66]. Support for an integral role of miRNAs in adipose tissue development and function came from studies demonstrating that inhibition of miRNA actions in adipocyte progenitor cells represses the adipogenic process [67–69]. Following these pioneering studies, several reports revealed a crucial role for miRNAs in obesity, via their regulation of pathways involved in lipid and glucose homeostasis, and more recently inflammation [70]. Notably, many miRNAs appear to be differentially expressed in the adipose tissue of lean and obese subjects [71,72]. In addition, some miRNAs seem to be regulated by the inflammatory environment such as elevated levels of TNF α . Arner *et al.* recently reported that a subset of miRNAs were involved in the regulation of inflammatory pathways controlling the expression and secretion of chemokine (C-C motif) ligand 2 (CCL2) in human adipocytes and macrophages [73]. All these studies emphasize the importance of further exploring the role of miRNAs in the regulation of inflammatory processes in adipose tissue. In addition, the discovery that miRNAs circulate in the blood highlights their potential to be used as endocrine signaling molecules and disease biomarkers for obesity complications (diabetes and/or non-alcoholic steatohepatitis, NASH) and adipose tissue perturbations [72].

Another class of non-coding RNAs named enhancerassociated RNAs (eRNAs) has recently been discovered and linked to inflammatory gene expression. Two pioneering studies, employing mouse primary neurons and macrophages as models, indicate that, upon activation, thousands of enhancer regions distant from the transcription start-sites recruit RNA polymerase II, thus allowing local transcription and synthesis of eRNAs [74,75]. In macrophages, eRNAs appears to influence the transcription of the chemokine CCL5, which may also occur in adipose tissue where CCL5 is known for its involvement in inflammatory cascades [76]. Most interestingly, Glass and coworkers demonstrated that eRNA transcription can be repressed by the nuclear orphan receptor Rev-ErbA, resulting in the repression of inflammatory genes such as Mmp9 and Cxc3cr1 in macrophages. This new regulatory cascade has not yet been investigated in adipose tissue but could present an alternative pathway to control obesityassociated inflammation.

Of men, not mice

As highlighted in this review, tissue-specific knockout mouse models have provided and will continue to provide powerful tools to dissect complex pathways. However, there is growing awareness of the limitations of using mouse models to decipher inflammatory pathways and identify drug targets related to obesity, as initially pointed out by Arner et al. [77]. More recently, a study entitled 'Genomic responses in mouse models poorly mimic human inflammatory diseases' [78], provoked the current debate on this issue. Differences between rodents and humans have been observed regarding the action of major cytokines that are implicated in adipocyte inflammation. $TNF\alpha$ is massively produced by adipose tissue of obese mice and released into the circulation to promote insulin resistance [79]. However, in humans, $TNF\alpha$ is not released into the circulation but has a local effect on adipocyte lipolysis [80]. Another example is that adipose tissue contributes to an increase in circulating IL-6 in humans, and elevated levels of IL-6 are strongly correlated with insulin resistance [81]. By contrast, IL-6 knockout mice develop insulin resistance and impaired glucose metabolism [82]. Collectively, these findings highlight the need to assess critically the relevance of findings from rodents to human physiology, and thus observations in rodent with regards to adipose tissue inflammation need to be taken into careful consideration. However, for the purposes of this review we have specifically highlighted genomic and epigenomic pathways that were characterized in human adipose tissue, and so far there is no evidence that these pathways are substantially different in mice.

Concluding remarks and future perspectives

The concept of metaflammation generally describes the interconnection between metabolic and inflammatory processes, and is particularly useful in characterizing the unique features of metabolically driven low-grade chronic inflammation in the context of obesity. Appreciating this connection leads to many exciting ideas and unanswered questions that need to be addressed in the future. For example, weight loss induced by gastric bypass surgery or caloric restriction is known to improve insulin resistance and type 2 diabetes [83,84]. This improvement is associated with a reduction of low-grade inflammation at the systemic and tissue levels, with a switch towards

Box 3. Outstanding questions

- Is derepression sufficient to initiate adipose tissue inflammation? What is the repertoire of genes regulated by these corepressors? What 'obesity' signals dismiss corepressors from target genes? Is there an adipose tissue-specific histone code associated with obesity?
- Is reduction of inflammation and the switch towards macrophage M2 phenotypes the consequence of the metabolic improvements, or is the opposite causality more likely?
- Would the study of diabetic subjects treated with the PPAR_γ agonist pioglitazone reveal some of the missing molecular links between metabolic and inflammatory regulation in adipose tissue? Would it perhaps reveal specific transcriptomic and epigenomic signatures that can be further exploited to predict clinical responses to TZDs and other types of anti-inflammatory drugs?

macrophage M2 phenotypes (anti-inflammatory) [23], and with restored expression of anti-inflammatory transcription factors (PPAR γ , TWIST1, KLF4) [37,85] and corepressors (GPS2, SMRT) [34]. However, is reduction of inflammation the consequence of the metabolic improvements, or is the opposite causality more likely? Such questions are fundamental because answering them will provide insights into mechanisms that promote and, upon intervention, reverse or even prevent adipose tissue inflammation in obesity. Clearly, more detailed insights into the series of transcriptional events underlying the inflammatory switch following weight loss are required.

As another example, it was recently reported that a subgroup of diabetic subjects treated with the PPAR γ agonist pioglitazone did not improve their inflammatory status of adipose tissue whereas their glycemic status was ameliorated [34]. Would the study of these subjects reveal some of the missing molecular links between metabolic and inflammatory regulation in adipose tissue? Would it perhaps reveal specific transcriptomic and epigenomic signatures that can be further exploited to predict clinical responses to TZDs and other types of anti-inflammatory drugs?

Thus far, therapeutic strategies that rely on targeting single cytokines or receptors (e.g., $\text{TNF}\alpha$ and IL-1) have met with limited success in humans [86,87], suggesting that targeting downstream signaling and transcriptional components rather than circulating cytokines could provide a more effective therapeutic approach. However, a general concern with broad anti-inflammatory therapies has been that they could adversely compromise immune system responses. To overcome this problem, inhibition of JNK, IKK, or TBK1 activation under conditions of chronic inflammation emerges as a promising strategy [14,88].

Alternative strategies may selectively target transcriptional components, thus affecting the herein-discussed genomic and epigenomic components of inflammation control. Nuclear receptors including GR, PPARs, and LXRs are powerful transcriptional integrators of inflammation and metabolism, and are well-established targets for antiinflammatory drugs [54]. The challenging task will be to develop improved drugs that do not interfere with the beneficial metabolic function, thus performing in a highly pathway- and cell type (adipocytes, macrophages, and liver)-specific manner. In addition, epigenetic drugs such as inhibitors of HDACs or demethylases emerge as players not only in cancer but also in the management of inflammation. In particular, the metaflammatory action of NCOR/SMRT/GPS2/HDAC3 subcomplexes in adipose tissue (i.e., in adipocytes and macrophages) could represent a novel target to limit chronic inflammation, alone or in combination with anti-inflammatory nuclear receptor ligands. Notably, recent synthetic compounds have been reported to modulate specifically the function of HDAC subcomplexes [89]. Provided that these and other epigenomic regulators are likely considerable players in adipose tissue, future efforts will need to scrutinize their therapeutic potential in the context of obesity-associated inflammation.

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Projet de Thèse :

L'inflammation chronique du tissu adipeux est au cœur des complications métaboliques associées à l'obésité, diabète de type 2, maladies cardiovasculaires et cancers. Malgré des avancées importantes dans la compréhension des mécanismes cellulaires, les régulations génomiques et épigénomiques associées à cette inflammation chronique sont encore mal comprises.

Comme nous l'avons décrit dans l'introduction, les complexes corépresseurs composés de NCOR, SMRT et HDAC3 semblent jouer un rôle important, même si leurs importances ont été récemment remises en cause, dans la régulation de la transcription des gènes inflammatoires orchestrant la réponse inflammatoire du tissu adipeux.

La sous-unité GPS2 des complexes NCOR et SMRT semble être impliquée dans les processi génomiques et épigénomiques de la répression de la transcription des gènes inflammatoires. Cependant, les mécanismes d'action de GPS2 sont mal compris et ses fonctions in vivo énigmatiques.

Au cours de ma thèse, je me suis tout particulièrement intéressé aux fonctions transcriptionnelles de GPS2 dans les adipocytes et les macrophages du tissu adipeux dans un contexte de l'obésité. En effet, nous avons émis l'hypothèse que la dérégulation de la fonction de GPS2, dans les adipocytes et les macrophages du tissu adipeux, pourrait être une des raisons de la mise en place et du maintien de l'inflammation chronique et des désordres métaboliques associés. Dans mon projet, nous avons à la fois étudié la régulation et les fonctions de GPS2 dans ces 2 types cellulaires chez l'homme. Nous avons également développé deux modéles de souris transgéniques invalidées pour GPS2 spécifiquement dans les macrophages et les adipocytes afin de valider nos hypothèses.

Partie 1: Décodage des fonctions adipocytaires du corégulateur GPS2

Un des objectifs de cette étude était de définir l'association entre le niveau de régulation de GPS2 et l'inflammation du tissu adipeux et des adipocytes humain dans l'obésité. Après avoir démontré la dérégulation de l'expression et de la fonction de GPS2 dans les adipocytes de sujets obèses, nous avons voulu vérifier les conséquences de l'invalidation de GPS2 in vivo spécifiquement dans les adipocytes.

Partie 2: Etude du rôle répresseur de GPS2 dans les macrophages lors de l'obésité

Du fait du rôle grandissant de la fonction anti-inflammatoire de GPS2, nous avons voulu appréhender le rôle de GPS2 dans les cellules myéloïdes et tout particulièrement dans les macrophages. Les fonctions de GPS2 dans les macrophages sont à ce jour quasiment inconnues. Est-ce l'invalidation de GPS2 qui va entrainer un phénotype semblable ou souris HDAC3 KO ou NCOR KO ? Ou allons-nous confirmer le rôle anti-inflammatoire de GPS2, à savoir que les souris vont présenter une inflammation anormales et développer un insulino-résistance précoce ?

Résultats

Article #1 : La dérégulation de GPS2 dans le tissu adipeux est associée à l'inflammation de l'adipocytes lors de l'obésité

(Deregulation of SMRT-GPS2 in adipose tissue is associated with inflammation of the adipocyte in obesity)

Amine Toubal, Karine Clément, Rongrong Fan, Patricia Ancel, Veronique Pelloux, Christine Rouault, Nicolas Veyrie, Agnes Hartemann, Eckardt Treuter et Nicolas Venteclef

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SMRT-GPS2 corepressor pathway dysregulation coincides with obesity-linked adipocyte inflammation

Amine Toubal,^{1,2,3,4} Karine Clément,^{1,2,3,4} Rongrong Fan,⁵ Patricia Ancel,^{1,2,3,4} Veronique Pelloux,^{1,2,3,4} Christine Rouault,^{1,2,3,4} Nicolas Veyrie,^{1,2,3,4} Agnes Hartemann,^{1,4,6} Eckardt Treuter,⁵ and Nicolas Venteclef^{1,2,3,4}

¹Institute of Cardiometabolism and Nutrition, Paris, France. ²Assistance Publique-Hôpitaux de Paris, Pitié-Salpêtrière Hospital, Heart and Metabolism Division, Paris, France. ³INSERM, U872, Team 7 Nutriomique, Paris, France. ⁴Université Pierre et Marie Curie-Paris 6, Cordeliers Research Center, Paris, France. ⁵Karolinska Institutet, Center for Biosciences, Department of Biosciences and Nutrition, Huddinge, Sweden. ⁶Pitié-Salpêtrière Hospital, Endocrinology, Nutrition and Diabetes Department, Paris, France.

Low-grade chronic inflammation is a major characteristic of obesity and results from deregulated white adipose tissue function. Consequently, there is interest in identifying the underlying regulatory mechanisms and components that drive adipocyte inflammation. Here, we report that expression of the transcriptional corepressor complex subunits GPS2 and SMRT was significantly reduced in obese adipose tissue, inversely correlated to inflammatory status, and was restored upon gastric bypass surgery–induced weight loss in morbid obesity. These alterations correlated with reduced occupancy of the corepressor complex at inflammatory promoters, providing a mechanistic explanation for elevated inflammatory transcription. In support of these correlations, RNAi-mediated depletion of GPS2 and SMRT from cultured human adipocytes promoted derepression of inflammatory transcription and elevation of obesity-associated inflammatory markers, such as IL-6 and MCP-1. Furthermore, we identified a regulatory cascade containing PPAR_γ and TWIST1 that controlled the expression of GPS2 and SMRT in human adipocytes. These findings were clinically relevant, because treatment of diabetic obese patients with pioglitazone, an antidiabetic and antiinflammatory PPAR_γ agonist, restored expression of TWIST1, GPS2, and SMRT in adipocytes involving the dysregulation of a specific corepressor complex as among the initiating events promoting adipose tissue inflammation in human obesity.

Introduction

Obesity is today understood to be a "metaflammatory" condition, characterized by both metabolic and inflammatory deteriorations. Inflammation is commonly known as a defense mechanism that protects the host from infection or trauma. Coordinated regulation of the inflammatory response, in particular its resolution, is essential to remain healthy and to maintain homeostasis. Failure to resolve inflammatory conditions leads to a broad spectrum of common diseases (1). While this has been long recognized in the case of classic inflammatory diseases, it is only recently that conditions of chronic low-grade inflammation associated with metabolic diseases have received attention, particularly in relation to obesity and related comorbidities (2). Obese subjects display moderate but chronically elevated circulating levels of inflammatory mediators such as IL-6 and TNF- α , and this chronic inflammatory status is usually associated with development of metabolic complications such as insulin resistance and liver steatosis (3–5).

Obesity complications are thought to be caused at least in part by adipose tissue-derived inflammatory mediators that trigger low-grade inflammation, linking them to inflammatory alterations. Recent efforts in the field are aimed at understanding how these apparently separate aspects are interconnected, raising substantial interest in identifying the regulatory pathways and components that are dysregulated in obese adipose tissue (6). At pres-

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ent, adipose tissue is considered to be a major endocrine gland that synthesizes and secretes a growing list of hormones, inflammatory mediators, and immune system effectors into the systemic circulation, including adiponectin and leptin (7–11). Among the candidates secreted by enlarged adipocytes, the increase in IL-6, IL-8, and monocyte chemotactic protein–1 (MCP-1; also known as CCL2) and the decrease in adiponectin are considered to be particularly important (12).

Obesity is an evolutionary process that goes through different phases, from an initial phase, characterized by a gradual increase in body weight and fat mass in response to energy imbalance, to a chronic phase, characterized by the occurrence of complications that increase morbidity and mortality (13–15). During these different phases, adipose tissue undergoes morphological modifications and inflammatory phenotype changes. During the weight gain phase, expansion of adipose tissue induces increased adipocyte size and then promotes immune cell infiltration. This adipocyte hypertrophy has been associated with its capability to produce inflammatory mediators. Adipocyte size, for example, determines the production of cytokines, such as IL-6 and IL-8, and key mediators of immune cell infiltration, such as MCP-1 (16). As a general model, "lean" adipocytes secrete factors, such as IL-13, that promote alternative activation of macrophages (i.e., the M2 subtype) and insulin-sensitizing factors, such as adiponectin. Alternatively activated M2 macrophages secrete antiinflammatory mediators, such as IL-10. In contrast, in "obese" adipocytes, overnutrition causes an increase in lipolysis and the release of proinflammatory

nonesterified fatty acids (NEFAs) as well as factors that recruit and activate locally macrophages, such as MCP-1, IL-6, and IL-8. By secreting a large panel of chemoattractant molecules, both preadipocytes and mature adipocytes may play a role in the macrophage infiltration process (13).

An important step toward dissecting the molecular events that trigger inflammation of adipose tissue was the recognition that adipocytes display marked changes in gene expression of inflammatory mediators. Consistently, the NF- κ B pathway, implicated in the direct transcriptional regulation of inflammatory responses in multiple cell types, appears to be activated in the majority of preadipocytes and mature adipocytes in obesity (17, 18). Bacterial LPS and saturated NEFAs, which are increased in obesity, are known to be strong inducers of NF- κ B pathways. In addition, TLR4 is overexpressed in obese adipocytes (19). It was also reported that macrophage-derived TNF- α activates the TNF- α receptor–1 (TNFR-1) cascade in adipocytes, which could contribute to the costimulation of NF- κ B, JNK, and AP-1 (also known as c-Jun) pathways (20).

The activation of these inflammatory transcription factors generally requires corepressor/coactivator exchange, making the coregulator matrix an important regulatory checkpoint of inflammatory gene expression (21, 22). Several coregulators appear to play major roles in adipocyte differentiation and metabolism, although their involvement in inflammatory gene expression or in obesity-mediated alterations in humans has not yet been demonstrated. For example, receptor interacting protein 140 (RIP140; also known as NRIP1) is expressed in white adipose tissue, where it regulates expression of genes involved in lipid metabolism and glucose homeostasis (23). RIP140-knockout mice exhibit elevated fatty acid oxidation, but surprisingly had reduced fat mass and body weight. 2 other coregulators, TLE3 and PGC1- α , have been proposed to contribute to adipogenesis and insulin sensitivity processes by influencing the activity of the nuclear receptor PPARy (24). Based on current knowledge derived by recent studies, the primary transcription factors and the coregulators that control adipocyte differentiation appear to be distinct from those that control adipocyte inflammation (25).

A fundamental aspect of inflammatory transcription is the strict maintenance of gene repression in the absence of inflammatory signaling. Numerous studies emphasize the crucial involvement of transcriptional corepressor complexes linked to histone deacetylation in inflammatory gene regulation (20, 26, 27). Among various candidates, complexes assembled by 2 related corepressors, silencing mediator of retinoid and thyroid receptor (SMRT) and nuclear receptor corepressor 1 (NCOR1), have emerged as key players in the repression of inflammatory gene transcription, at least in macrophages (28) and in hepatocytes (29). A few studies have begun to address the biological function of these corepressors in murine adipocytes. Analysis of dominant-negative knockin mutants of SMRT in mice revealed a role during adipogenesis via direct repression of PPARy (30). The first reported adipocyte-specific mouse model suggests that loss of NCOR1 phenocopies the effects of systemic PPARy agonist treatment by increased adiposity, enhanced insulin sensitivity, and improved glucose tolerance (31). However, adipocyte inflammation was not elevated upon NCOR1 removal in mice, leaving open the question of whether these corepressors play roles in controlling adipocyte inflammation. These prior results, together with concerns about differences between mouse and human adipocyte pathways, emphasize the need to investigate this issue in the context of human adipose tissue.

In the present study, we aimed to identify those transcriptional alterations in human adipocytes that may be directly linked to the elevated inflammation status of obese adipose tissue. We found that 2 specific corepressor complex subunits, SMRT and G protein pathway suppressor 2 (GPS2), were differentially expressed and regulated in adipocytes of obese subjects, and investigated the functional consequences on inflammatory gene expression as well as the underlying regulatory mechanisms. Our work provides the first evidence to our knowledge that a specific transcriptional corepressor complex is dysregulated in human obesity and describes a transcriptional and potentially epigenetic reprogramming pathway that could be causally linked to metaflammation, i.e., the chronic inflammatory status of obese adipose tissue.

Results

SMRT and GPS2 expression negatively correlates with IL-6 expression in adipose tissue and in isolated adipocytes of obese subjects. To identify obesity-associated transcriptional alterations, we revisited results from a previously reported microarray study (32) for biological pathways that were differentially regulated in subcutaneous adipose tissue of obese (BMI >30 kg/m²) compared with lean (BMI <28 kg/m²) subjects. Gene Ontology (GO) analysis revealed that, in addition to the known upregulation of inflammatory pathways, multiple transcriptional pathway components were dysregulated in obese adipose tissue. We specifically examined whether genes linked to the adipose tissue coregulator matrix were differentially regulated in this set of experiments. The microarray data revealed significantly reduced expression of the 2 corepressor complex subunits SMRT and GPS2 in obese adipose tissue. In agreement with previous studies (21-23), additional coactivators or corepressors, such as PGC1- α , TLE3, and RIP140, were also deregulated in obese adipose tissue (Supplemental Figure 1; supplemental material available online with this article; doi:10.1172/JCI64052DS1).

To confirm the microarray results, we analyzed mRNA expression of all known corepressor complex subunits in subcutaneous adipose tissue of lean (n = 14) and obese (n = 36) subjects by quantitative real-time RT-PCR (qPCR; Table 1, Figure 1, and Supplemental Figure 2). GPS2 and SMRT expression was significantly decreased in adipose tissue of obese subjects (Figure 1, A and B),

Table 1

cillical parameters of lean and obese study populations				
	Lean	Obese		
n (female/male)	14 (10/4)	36 (26/10)		
Age (yr)	42.6 ± 4.3	39.0 ± 1.7		
Weight (kg)	73.7 ± 2.6	130.0 ± 4.3 ^A		
BMI (kg/m ²)	24.4 ± 0.4	47.0 ± 1.3 ^A		
Fat mass (%) ^B	28.2 ± 1.3	46.3 ± 0.7 ^A		
Fasting glycemia (mmol/l)		5.2 ± 0.1		
Fasting insulin (µU/mI)		16.9 ± 1.5		
QUICKI		0.33 ± 0.01		
Total cholesterol (mmol/l)	4.6 ± 0.2	4.9 ± 0.1		
Triglycerides (mmol/l)	0.61 ± 0.05	1.5 ± 0.1 ^A		
HDL-C (mmol/I)	1.7 ± 0.1	1.1 ± 0.1 ^A		
hsCRP (mg/l)		12.5 ± 1.6		
Leptin (ng/ml)		47.8 ± 5.4		
IL-6 (pg/ml)		4.1 ± 0.3		
Adiponectin (pg/ml)		5.4 ± 0.5		

^AP < 0.05. ^BEvaluated by biphotonic absorptiometry (DXA).





Figure 1

Expression of GPS2 and SMRT is negatively correlated with adipose tissue inflammation in human obesity. qPCR analysis of mRNA expression of (A–C) the corepressor complex subunits SMRT, GPS2, and NCOR1; of (D and E) adiponectin and leptin; and of (F) IL-6 in subcutaneous adipose tissue of lean (n = 14) and obese (n = 36) male and female subjects. *P < 0.05. (G–I) Correlations were analyzed using Spearman statistical test.

whereas other complex subunits, including the SMRT-related corepressor NCOR1, were not differentially expressed (Figure 1C and Supplemental Figure 2, D and E). As expected, gene expression of adiponectin was significantly reduced in the subcutaneous white adipose tissue of the obese group, whereas expression of leptin and IL-6 was significantly increased in those subjects (Figure 1, D–F). We also analyzed the expression profiles of GPS2, SMRT, and NCOR1 in relation to gender, but did not observe any gender-specific association in adipose tissue of obese subjects (Supplemental Figure 2, A–C).

To determine the association between expression of GPS2 and SMRT with inflammatory genes being deregulated in obesity, we conducted correlation studies among these different genes. We observed a significant inverse correlation between GPS2 and SMRT expression and between that of GPS2 and IL-6 (Figure 1, G and H). GPS2 gene expression was also positively correlated with adiponectin expression (Figure 1I). No significant correlations were identified between NCOR1 and IL-6 expression (Supplemental Figure 2, F-H). Adipose tissue is mainly composed of adipocytes, preadipocytes, and adipose tissue-associated immune cells. Previous studies have reported that adipose tissue inflammation is promoted in the first step of obesity by inflamed and hypertrophic adipocytes and preadipocytes (33). Therefore, we performed expression profiling in mature adipocytes of lean (n = 8) and obese (n = 12) subjects isolated from the subcutaneous adipose tissue. We confirmed that expression of SMRT and GPS2, but not that of NCOR1, was significantly reduced in isolated adipocytes of obese individuals (Figure 2, A-C). As was observed in obese adipose tissue, IL-6 expression was increased in the isolated adipocytes, whereas adiponectin expression was reduced (Figure 2, D and E). Correlation studies confirmed the association of GPS2 expression with SMRT and IL-6 levels (Figure 2, F and G, and Supplemental Figure 3A) and the positive correlation with adiponectin expression (Figure 2H), whereas no significant correlation was seen for NCOR1 (Supplemental Figure 3B). Finally, downregulation of GPS2 and SMRT, but not of NCOR1, in obese adipocytes was con-



Figure 2

Adipocyte inflammation is associated with clearance of the SMRT-GPS2 complex from the IL-6 promoter. (A-E) qPCR analysis of mRNA expression of SMRT, GPS2, NCOR1, adiponectin, and IL-6 in isolated human adipocytes from subcutaneous adipose tissue of lean (n = 8) and obese (n = 12) subjects. *P < 0.05. (F-H) Gene expression correlations were analyzed using Spearman statistical test. (I) Western blot analysis of protein levels of GPS2, SMRT, and NCOR1 in isolated human mature adipocytes from subcutaneous adipose tissue of lean and obese subjects (n = 3). (J) ChIP assays were performed to measure recruitment of GPS2, SMRT, NCOR1, HDAC3, and POL2 onto the IL-6 promoter, in conjunction with histone modifications (me2H3K9, indicative of repression, and me2H3K4 and acH3, indicative of activation), in isolated human adipocytes from subcutaneous adipose tissue of lean (n = 6) and obese (n = 5) subjects. IgG served as nonspecific control antibody.

firmed at the protein level by quantitative Western blot analysis (Figure 2I and Supplemental Figure 3C).

Clearance of the SMRT-GPS2 complex from the IL-6 promoter triggers derepression of inflammatory gene expression in obese adipocytes. To investigate the functional consequences of altered corepressor expression at the transcriptional level, we next studied the recruitment of GPS2, SMRT, and NCOR1 onto the IL-6 promoter in human adipocytes of lean and obese subjects using ChIP assays. In adipocytes of lean subjects, GPS2 and SMRT occupied the IL-6 promoter, while only low levels of RNA polymerase II (POL2) could be detected. In contrast, in adipocytes of obese subjects, GPS2 and SMRT recruitment was strongly reduced, and significantly increased recruitment of POL2 was observed (Figure 2J). The increased recruitment of POL2 was associated with changes of specific histone 3 marks linked to transcription activation (increased H3K4 methylation [me2H3K4] and H3 acetylation [acH3] and decreased H3K9 demethylation [me2H3K9]). Notably, the recruitment of HDAC3, the main histone deacetylase of the corepressor complex, mirrored expression of GPS2 and SMRT, while the subunit NCOR1 was not recruited onto the IL-6 promoter. These results support the concept that a corepressor complex containing SMRT, GPS2, and HDAC3 represses IL-6 expression in lean adipocytes, whereas IL-6 expression becomes derepressed due to corepressor complex clearance in obesity conditions.

Depletion of GPS2 and SMRT promotes adipocyte inflammation by increased expression of proinflammatory cytokines and chemoattractant molecules. The critical involvement of SMRT and GPS2, but not of NCOR1, in regulating inflammatory gene expression in adipocytes was surprising, given the established role of NCOR1-containing complexes in inflammatory pathways in other tissues, such as macrophages and liver (29, 34). Our results suggest that, at least in part, distinct complexes could control transcription of



Figure 3

Depletion of GPS2 or SMRT, but not of NCOR1, derepresses a subset of inflammatory genes in primary human adipocyte cultures. (A) Genomewide mRNA expression analysis using microarrays was performed in undifferentiated preadipocytes and adipocytes upon siRNA-mediated depletion of GPS2, SMRT, and NCOR1 (n = 6). (B and C) Repressed genes that were upregulated upon siRNA-mediated depletion as in A. Numbers in parentheses denote the number of upregulated/downregulated genes.

different gene subsets in adipocytes. To identify which subset is controlled by GPS2, SMRT, and NCOR1 in human adipocytes, we depleted these 3 components individually by RNAi in preadipocytes and in isolated mature adipocytes (Figure 3A). We first validated the effectiveness and specificity of the individual siRNAs targeting GPS2, SMRT, or NCOR1 at the mRNA and protein levels (Supplemental Figure 4, A-F). We then analyzed and compared the genome-wide transcriptome signatures of preadipocytes and adipocytes in control and knockdown conditions. Depletion of GPS2, SMRT, and NCOR1 in preadipocytes caused upregulation of 159, 97, and 244 genes, respectively (Figure 3B). Unexpectedly, the number of upregulated (i.e., derepressed) genes was higher in differentiated adipocytes for GPS2 and SMRT (1,006 and 511, respectively), whereas only 14 genes were derepressed by NCOR1 (Figure 3C). Functional GO classification revealed that genes upregulated upon SMRT or GPS2 depletion that overlapped were linked to the NF- κ B cascade, inflammatory response pathways, and immune cell chemotaxis (Supplemental Figure 5, A and B, Supplemental Figure 6, A-C, and Supplemental Table 7). In agreement with our correlation data, IL-6 expression was significantly upregulated in adipocytes depleted for GPS2 and SMRT, but not for NCOR1. Notably, GPS2 and SMRT appeared to control the expression of MCP-1 and CXCL2 (Table 2), which, being chemoattractants, play main roles in recruiting immune cells to proinflammatory adipocytes, thereby establishing the inflammatory status of obese adipose tissue.

Microarray results were essentially confirmed by qPCR analysis of selected genes (Figure 4A and Supplemental Figure 7). Upregulation of key inflammatory genes, such as IL-6, IL-8, and MCP-1, upon depletion of GPS2 and SMRT was confirmed using different sets of individual siRNAs (Supplemental Figure 4 and data not shown). Moreover, the expression results based on mRNA quantification were further confirmed at the protein level by measuring the secretion of a large panel of cytokines (secretome) into the culture media (Figure 4B). Confirming the microarray results, GPS2 and SMRT depletion in adipocytes provoked secretion of chemoattractant cytokines, such as IL-8, CCL5, MCP-1, CXCL1, and CXCL10, that was higher in isolated adipocytes. Interestingly, inflammatory mediators, such as TNF- α and IL-11, were significantly less affected by depletion of GPS2 or SMRT. Notably, depletion of NCOR1 seemed to be associated with reduced expression of some inflammatory genes (such as MCP-1, CXCL10, CCL5, or MIF), fully consistent with recent findings on adipocyte-specific NCOR1 knockout mice (31).

We then analyzed the consequences of siRNA depletion on promoter occupancy and chromatin marks at the IL-6 promoter using ChIP assays, analogous to the experiments described in Figure 2J. SMRT and GPS2 were specifically recruited onto the IL-6 promot-

 Table 2

 Top 10 common upregulated genes upon SMRT and GPS2

 depletion

	siRNA-mediated depletion		
	GPS2	SMRT	NCOR1
CXCL2	1.56	2.03	0.9
CXCL5	2.36	2.39	0.86
CXCL6	1.75	2.12	1.03
MCP-1	1.39	1.84	0.88
CCL20	2.14	2.6	0.92
CCL26	1.46	1.55	1.01
IL-6	1.68	2.11	0.99
IL-8	1.61	1.9	0.95
IL-7R	1.43	1.53	0.83
IL-32	1.78	2.04	1.06

Values represent fold change. Expression changes were directly calculated from the microarray analysis (see Figure 3A).

er under control conditions, whereas depletion of SMRT or GPS2 derepressed transcription, as shown by POL2 recruitment, reduced me2H3K9, and increased me2H3K4 and acH3 (Figure 4C). The combined results of expression analysis at the gene and protein level, chromatin recruitment, and siRNA depletion further supported the concept that regulation of proinflammatory genes in human mature adipocytes involves a corepressor complex containing SMRT and GPS2, but not NCOR1.

Adenovirus-mediated expression of GPS2 reverses the inflammatory phenotype of obese adipocytes and rescues siRNA-mediated depletion. To further confirm the involvement of the SMRT-GPS2 complex in the transcriptional repression of inflammatory gene expression, we ectopically expressed HA-tagged human GPS2 using recombinant adenovirus particles in human isolated mature adipocytes from lean and obese subjects (Figure 5, A and B, and Supplemental Figure 9). We found that virus-mediated GPS2 expression significantly inhibited IL-6 and IL-8 expression in obese adipocytes (Figure 5A), consistent with recruitment of both SMRT and GPS2 onto the IL-6 promoter and decreased POL2 recruitment (Figure 5B).

A series of gain-of-function experiments was performed to study IL-6 regulation in human adipocytes under endogenous conditions (Figure 5, C–E) and using an ectopically expressed IL-6 reporter vector (Supplemental Figure 10). Adenoviral expression of GPS2 reversed the derepression of IL-6 expression mediated by RNAi-induced GPS2 depletion, but not SMRT depletion (Figure 5C), which confirmed that SMRT is required to repress IL-6 expression by GPS2. In addition, using the IL-6 reporter assay, we observed that plasmid-mediated overexpression of SMRT or GPS2 was capable of partially reversing siRNA-mediated derepression of IL-6 promoter activity (Supplemental Figure 10, B and C).

Cytokine stimulation by individual cytokines or by adipose tissue-conditioned medium from obese subjects (ATCM) in the above experiments revealed that virus-mediated GPS2 expression and rescue of siRNA depletion counteracted cytokine induction of IL-6 and MCP-1 expression (Figure 5, D and E, Supplemental Figure 10, E and F, and Supplemental Figure 11). Intriguingly, GPS2 depletion and cytokine stimulation had additive effects on the endogenous expression of IL-6 (Figure 5, D and E) and MCP-1 (Supplemental Figure 11C) and on IL-6 reporter activation (Supplemental Figure 10, E and F). This suggests a close mechanistic relationship of (a) derepression by corepressor removal and (b) activation by inflammatory transcription factor signaling in order to induce key inflammatory genes in adipocytes.

Identification of GPS2-regulated inflammatory transcription factors in adipocytes, and their role in controlling IL-6 expression. Inflammatory transcription factors, such as AP-1, C/EBP, STATs, and NF- κ B, mediate inflammatory responses in immune cells and hepatocytes; however, with the exception of NF- κ B, little is known about their role in regulating inflammatory gene expression in human adipocytes. To identify such transcription factors and to determine whether their activity is controlled by GPS2, we analyzed the activation of 47 transcription factors in nuclear extracts from human adipocytes that were siRNA-depleted for GPS2 and SMRT, in conjunction with adenovirus expression of GPS2 and/or cytokine stimulation (Figure 6A and Supplemental Table 1).

Depletion of GPS2 and SMRT induced activation of major inflammatory transcription factors, including AP-1, C/EBPs, Ets, NF- κ B, and STAT3, whereas other candidate factors, such as IRFs and STAT1, were not affected (Figure 6A and Supplemental Table 1). Notably, we observed that transcription factor activation by GPS2 depletion was comparable to the level of cytokine-induced (i.e., ATCM) activation (Figure 6B), in agreement with the results described above. Rescue experiments using adenovirus-expressed GPS2 under inflammatory conditions (siRNA-mediated GPS2 depletion or ATCM treatment) provoked repression of inflammatory transcription factor activation and abolished transcription factor II D (TFIID) binding (Figure 6B and Supplemental Table 2), consistent with genomic antagonism of a GPS-containing corepressor complex with the basal transcription machinery.

ChIP assays were performed to study the possible involvement of these factors in regulating IL-6 expression in adipocytes and to test whether GPS2 and SMRT are capable of forming genomic corepressor complexes at the suspected transcription factor binding sites at the human IL-6 promoter. Binding site search and previous data (35, 36) suggested that 2 core regulatory regions at the IL-6 promoter can be distinguished within the human IL-6 promoter (Figure 6C): (a) the region composed of NF- κ B and C/EBP β binding sites (referred to herein as R1), and (b) the region including the AP-1 binding site (referred to herein as R2). Using specific primers for R1 versus R2, we found that GPS2 depletion or ATCM treatment promoted the recruitment of C/EBPβ and NF-κB p65 onto R1, whereas AP-1 was specifically recruited onto R2 (Figure 6, D and E). Importantly, ectopic expression of GPS2 induced corecruitment of GPS2 with SMRT and antagonized the recruitment of inflammatory transcription factors onto IL-6 promoter regions (Figure 6, D and E), fully consistent with our transcription factor profiling results (Figure 6, A and B). Additionally, ChIP and re-ChIP experiments in adipocytes upon adenovirus-mediated GPS2 expression revealed that GPS2 and SMRT were part of the same transcriptional complex with C/EBP β , NF- κ B p65, and AP-1 at the specific IL-6 promoter regions (Figure 6, F and G). Collectively, these results lent further support to a major genomic function of GPS2, in conjunction with the SMRT corepressor complex, in antagonizing the activation of inflammatory transcription factors in human adipocytes.

TWIST1, a PPARy-inducible gene, controls GPS2 and SMRT expression in human adipocytes. To identify potential regulators of SMRT and GPS2 expression in adipocytes, we analyzed the corresponding promoter sequences for putative binding sites for transcription factors that were differentially regulated in obese adipose tissue based on our transcriptomic data (Supplemental Figure 1 and



Figure 4

Depletion of GPS2 and SMRT induces gene expression and secretion of inflammatory cytokines in primary human adipocyte cultures. (A) Verification of the microarray data using qPCR and color map representation of inflammatory gene expression (transcriptome) under the experimental conditions outlined in Figure 3A. (B) Secretion of cytokines (secretome) was monitored by a membrane array (n = 3). (C) ChIP assays were performed to measure recruitment of GPS2, SMRT, POL2, and histone markers at the IL-6 promoter upon siRNA-mediated depletion of GPS2 and SMRT. CTL, control. IgG served as nonspecific control antibody. *P < 0.05.

data not shown). This analysis revealed TWIST1, an E-box-binding transcription factor recently described as being differentially expressed in lean versus obese adipocytes (37, 38), to be a strong candidate. Indeed, we found in ChIP assays that TWIST1, along with POL2, was recruited onto the SMRT and GPS2 promoter regions containing E-boxes in lean adipocytes, whereas recruitment was significantly reduced in obese adipocytes (Figure 7, A and B). In agreement with the previous studies (37, 38), we found that TWIST1 expression was reduced by more than 50% in isolated adipocytes from obese subjects (Figure 7C). Correlation studies highlighted the strong positive association of GPS2 and SMRT expression with that of TWIST1 (Figure 7, D and E). TWIST1 siRNA knockdown in adipocytes caused downregulation of GPS2 and SMRT expression and upregulated expression of inflammatory genes, such as IL-6 and IL-8 (Figure 7F). In addition, siRNAmediated depletion of TWIST1 reduced the recruitment of GPS2 and SMRT onto the IL-6 promoter (Figure 7G), whereas no direct recruitment of TWIST1 to this region was observed (data not shown). Finally, adenovirus-mediated GPS2 expression in adipocytes depleted for TWIST1 partially reversed IL-6 and IL-8 expression (Figure 7H), which is probably the consequence of SMRT downregulation induced by TWIST1 depletion. In line with these results, induction of an IL-6 luciferase reporter by TWIST1 depletion was antagonized by plasmid-mediated overexpression of GPS2 and SMRT (Supplemental Figure 10D). Overall, these data support the concept that TWIST1 could be one of the key factors controlling inflammatory gene expression in human adipocytes, here via positive regulation of GPS2 and SMRT expression.

Improvement of adipose tissue inflammation induced by weight loss is associated with upregulation of TWIST1 and the SMRT-GPS2 complex pathway. Weight loss is known to improve the metabolic status of morbidly obese subjects, which is corroborated by reports of reduced system-



Figure 5

Adenoviral expression of GPS2 represses cytokine expression in isolated human adipocytes and reverses siRNA- or cytokine-mediated derepression of IL-6 expression. (**A** and **B**) Adenoviral expression of HA-GPS2 or GFP (as control) in human isolated mature adipocytes from subcutaneous adipose tissue of lean and obese subjects. (**A**) Gene expression of IL-6 and IL-8 was measured by qPCR. (**B**) Recruitment of GPS2, SMRT, and POL2 onto the IL-6 promoter was quantified by ChIP assays. (**C–E**) Gain-of-function experiments. Adenoviral expression of HA-GPS2 or GFP (as control) in isolated mature adipocytes from subcutaneous adipose tissue of lean subjects upon treatment with siRNAs and/or isolated cytokines, including ATCM. IL-6 mRNA expression was measured by qPCR. All data are representative of 5 different experiments. *P < 0.05.

ic and improved adipose tissue inflammation (39). Therefore, we examined the expression of corepressor complex components, in relation to TWIST1 and inflammatory markers, in obese subjects before and 6 month after gastric bypass surgery-induced weight loss (Table 3). Expression of TWIST1, SMRT, and GPS2 increased after weight loss, in contrast to decreased expression of inflammatory cytokines, such as IL-6, IL-8, and MCP-1 (Figure 8, A–D, and data not shown). Expression of NCOR1, TBL1, and TBLR1 did not change (data not shown). Spearman association analysis indicated that the expression of SMRT and GPS2 positively correlated with that of TWIST1 and negatively correlated with that of IL-6 in mature adipocytes (Figure 8, E–G). Collectively, these data further support the relevance of the identified TWIST1-SMRT-GPS2 pathway in relation to obesity and adipose tissue inflammation, in particular highlighting its reversibility upon clinical intervention.

Thiazolidinedione drug treatment improves adipose tissue inflammation by regulation of SMRT and GPS2 expression. PPARy is known to be a master regulator of fat cell biology and adipocyte differentiation and the target for antidiabetic thiazolidinedione drugs (TZDs) such as rosiglitazone (40, 41). Notably, TWIST1 has been previously reported to be regulated by PPARs (42). To investigate the possibility that PPARy acts upstream of the identified TWIST1-SMRT-GPS2 pathway, we analyzed the expression of PPARy in subcutaneous adipose tissue of obese subjects before and 6 months after gastric bypass surgery-induced weight loss. PPARy expression was significantly increased 6 months after surgery and positively correlated with expression levels of GPS2 and TWIST1 (Figure 8, H–J). To confirm these observa-

tions in vitro, we treated human adipocytes with rosiglitazone for 24 hours and then analyzed the gene expression profile. Rosiglitazone induced expression of FABP4, a known PPARy target gene, as well as that of TWIST1, GPS2, and SMRT, but not that of NCOR1 (Figure 9A). ChIP assays revealed that at the TWIST1 promoter, rosiglitazone treatment increased PPARy recruitment, in association with CBP/P300 and POL2 (Figure 9B), reflective of transcription activation. At the promoters of SMRT and GPS2, rosiglitazone treatment increased recruitment of TWIST1 (Figure 9, C and D).

To investigate the link to inflammatory status, we treated adipocytes with ATCM in combination with rosiglitazone (1 μ M) or DMSO vehicle. As expected, ATCM markedly induced expression of inflammatory genes such as IL-6, IL-8, MCP-1, IL-1, and TNF- α (Figure 9E). Under these conditions, rosiglitazone treatment increased the recruitment of PPAR γ and TWIST1 onto the TWIST1 and GPS2 promoters, respectively (Figure 9, F and G). Similarly, recruitment of GPS2 and SMRT onto the IL-6 promoter was also increased (Figure 9H).

Our in vitro observations corroborated the putative link among the antiinflammatory actions of PPARγ. We then analyzed adipose tissue transcripts of previously reported diabetic subjects treated with the TZD pioglitazone for 6 months (43). Although all treated patients had improvement of their diabetic status (Table 4), we observed a difference regarding the adipose tissue gene signatures. Half of the patients responded to pioglitazone treatment, with reduced adipose tissue inflammation marked by decreased expression levels of IL-6, MCP-1, CD68, and CRP (Figure 10A). Using these





Figure 6

The SMRT-GPS2 complex represses IL-6 expression in human adipocytes through inhibition of the proinflammatory transcription factors NF-κB, AP-1, and C/EBP. (**A** and **B**) Identification of GPS2 and SMRT-dependent inflammatory transcription factors (TF) in adipocytes using a transcription factor profiling assay. Transcription factor activation was analyzed in nuclear extracts of human adipocytes upon treatment with GPS2 siRNA or ATCM coupled with adenoviral expression of GPS2 (or GFP as control). Reporter activation was measured as relative luminescence activity (RLU). Data are derived from 4 different experiments. (**C**) Human IL-6 promoter with known binding sites for inflammatory transcription factors. (**D** and **E**) ChIP analysis of transcription factor binding at R1 and R2. See Supplemental Figure 12 for schematic and ChIP analysis of the nonresponsive control region R3. (**F** and **G**) Re-ChIP. Human adipocytes were infected with adenovirus HA-GPS2 or GFP (as control). ChIP (first IP) using anti-HA was followed by re-ChIP (second IP) using the indicated antibodies. Data are representative of 5 different experiments. **P* < 0.05.

parameters, we distinguished 2 patient profiles: those *with* and *without* improvement of adipose tissue inflammation. Interestingly, patients with improvement of adipose tissue inflammation demonstrated significantly increased expression of GPS2, SMRT, and TWIST1, while these were not regulated in the group without improvement (Figure 10B). In agreement with our observations in adipose tissue of obese subjects, GPS2 and SMRT expression negatively correlated with IL-6 systemic concentration (Figure 10, C and D) and with IL-6 mRNA expression (Figure 10E) in all patients. More-

over, expression of SMRT correlated positively with GPS2 and PPARy (Figure 10F and Supplemental Figure 13). Collectively, these results indicated that adipose tissue inflammation seemed to be associated with expression levels of GPS2 and SMRT, which could be modulated by clinical responses to TZD treatment in patients.

Discussion

The SMRT-GPS2 corepressor complex as a genomic checkpoint for adipocyte-specific reprogramming toward metaflammation. Cell type-



Figure 7

TWIST1 controls transcription of GPS2 and SMRT in human adipocytes. (**A** and **B**) Recruitment of TWIST1 and POL2 was analyzed on promoter and enhancer regions of GPS2 and SMRT in isolated adipocytes from subcutaneous adipose tissue of lean (n = 6) and obese (n = 5) subjects by ChIP assays. (**C**) TWIST1 mRNA expression was measured in isolated adipocytes of lean (n = 8) and obese (n = 12) subjects. (**D** and **E**) Correlation of TWIST1 expression with GPS2 and SMRT was analyzed using Spearman statistical test. (**F**) Adipocytes were transfected with siRNA targeting TWIST1. mRNA expression of TWIST1, GPS2, SMRT, NCOR1, IL-6, and IL-8 was measured by qPCR. (**G**) POL2, SMRT, and GPS2 recruitment onto the IL-6 promoter upon siRNA depletion of TWIST1 was analyzed by ChIP assay. IgG served as nonspecific control antibody. (**H**) Adenoviral overexpression of HA-GPS2 or GFP (as control) upon siRNA depletion of TWIST1. Gene expression of IL-6 and IL-8 were measured by qPCR. *P < 0.05.

specific epigenetic and transcriptional reprogramming events, and their underlying regulatory components, are fundamentally linked to human diseases and are attracting increasing attention in the areas of obesity, metaflammation, and adipose tissue biology (21). The molecular characterization of such events not only promises to reveal insights into the causality of diseaseassociated physiological alterations, but also promises to reveal targets and strategies for therapeutic intervention and, optimally, disease prevention. In this study, we sought to identify novel regulatory pathways and components that participate in adipocyte-specific transcriptional reprogramming events toward obesity-associated inflammation. We report that 2 specific transcriptional corepressor complex subunits, SMRT and GPS2, were differentially expressed and regulated in adipocytes of obese subjects. We provide evidence that this dysregulation of corepressor complex function contributed to adipose tissue inflammation by accounting for the derepression of a subset of inflammatory genes in adipocytes (Figure 11). We further identified

Table 3

Clinical parameters of the female obese population before and 6 months after gastric bypass surgery

	Before	After
BMI (kg/m ²)	44.96 ± 6.45	34.53 ± 5.18 ^A
IL-6 (pg/ml)	3.18 ± 2.04	3.01 ± 1.47
Adiponectin (pg/ml)	4.69 ± 1.89	5.43 ± 1.28 ^A
Leptin (ng/ml)	38.05 ± 13.60	26.62 ± 15.33 ^A
Total cholesterol (mmol/l)	4.5 ± 0.64	4.08 ± 0.78 ^A
HDL (mmol/l)	1.32 ± 0.38	1.43 ± 0.33
Triglycerides (mmol/l)	1.09 ± 0.35	0.96 ± 0.35
CRP (mg/ml)	10.27 ± 6.94	8.07 ± 3.10

n = 14 female subjects (age 37.28 ± 8.23 years). AP < 0.05, paired test.

a molecular pathway implicating TWIST1 and PPARy in the transcriptional regulation of SMRT and GPS2 expression in adipocytes. Finally, we demonstrated that resolution of adipose tissue inflammation by gastric bypass surgery-induced weight loss in obese subjects or by treatment with a PPARy agonist in diabetic subjects was associated with restored expression of SMRT and GPS2 (Figure 11).

These data, along with our findings in gain-of-function studies using human adipocytes, suggest that the corepressor pathway toward inflammation is reversible and thus may present an attractive target for future intervention. Our study provides the first evidence that a specific transcriptional corepressor complex is dysregulated in human obesity and describes a transcriptional and potentially epigenetic and reprogramming pathway that could be causally linked to metaflammation: the chronic inflammatory status of obese adipose tissue.

The present findings further refined the recent hypothesis that obesity complications are initiated by alterations in adipocytes that cause transcriptional reprogramming, leading to the secretion of adipose tissue-derived inflammatory mediators. Our newly identified pathway, controlled by the SMRT-GPS2 corepressor complex in human adipocytes, is likely to contribute to the welldocumented attraction of immune cells via regulating MCP-1 (44, 45) as well as to the expression of adipocytokines involved in inflammatory responses, macrophage activation, and polarization via regulating IL-6 (16, 20, 46). These alterations, if not resolved by clinical or pharmacological intervention, are likely to establish the chronic low-grade inflammation status of obese adipose tissue.

Our results also indicate that the transcriptional regulation of inflammatory responses in adipocytes and macrophages, at least in part, requires different components and thus can be mechanistically distinguished. For example, MCP-1 expression in adipocytes is controlled by a SMRT-GPS2 corepressor complex, while in macrophages, MCP-1 is controlled by a related yet distinct complex containing NCOR1 and coronin 2A, but not GPS2 or SMRT (28, 34). Although we currently lack any data on human adipose tissueassociated macrophages, it is likely that the obesity-associated alterations that reduce GPS2 and SMRT expression in obese adipose tissue define a pathway that occurs specifically in adipocytes.

Dysregulation of corepressor expression: cause or consequence of adipose tissue inflammation? Our observations demonstrated a correlation of corepressor expression with adipose tissue inflammation in vivo and provided direct evidence that experimental reduction of SMRT-GPS2 expression was sufficient to induce proinflammatory gene expression in cultured human adipocytes. However, whether



Regardless, it is likely that metabolic and inflammatory signalling in obese adipocytes, as well as in adipose tissue, converge in complex regulatory circuits with multiple levels of interdependence. For example, alterations of corepressor expression in noninflamed adipocytes (healthy obese) could be initiated by nutritional signaling linked to enigmatic epigenetic changes, whereas with disease progression (inflamed obese), inflammatory signaling cascades could have a more direct negative effect on the expression of GPS2 and SMRT, along with a variety of other genes and miRNAs, as reported previously (47).

The involvement of dynamic epigenetic processes is supported by our demonstration that the SMRT-GPS2 pathway toward inflammation had degrees of reversibility, both upon experimental manipulation (i.e., siRNA-mediated depletion and adenovirus expression) and upon clinical intervention (i.e., TZD treatment and gastric bypass surgery). The correlations also suggested that individual genetic or epigenetic differences regarding the expression of SMRT and/or GPS2 could be distinctive in causing variations concerning the inflammatory status of obese people. To further explore such a possibility, studies involving healthy obese or early-onset obese individuals would be of great benefit. Additionally, it would be interesting to determine the expression levels of GPS2 and SMRT, and their relation to inflammation, in childhood obesity.

Derepression is crucial to induce inflammatory gene expression in human adipocytes. Our data should also be useful in developing and refining models of how inflammatory gene expression is regulated in specific nonimmune cell types, such as adipocytes. In the absence of any functional studies in human adipocytes, we can currently assume that most inflammatory genes will be regulated by a variety of inflammatory transcription factors, some of which are targets for repression by SMRT-GPS2.

Numerous findings of the present study suggested that the classic activation model does not fully describe the mechanisms that account for induced gene transcription at inflammatory sites in adipocytes. First, our transcription factor profiling assay indicated that depletion of GPS2, similar to the effects of SMRT depletion, increases the activity of many, but not all, inflammatory factors, along with increased TFIID activity, in human adipocytes. Second, RNAi-mediated depletion of corepressor subunits, and the reversal thereof by adenovirus expression, clearly induced transcription of inflammatory genes, such as IL-6 and MCP-1, in human adipocytes, even in the apparent absence of any stimulating inflammatory signal (e.g., cytokines and ATCM). Third, re-ChIP experiments at the IL-6 promoter detected promoter-bound complexes of SMRT and GPS2 as well as inflammatory factors, including NF-KB p65, AP-1, and C/EBP. Intriguingly, the latter 2 factors are known to be already promoter-bound under basal conditions, and thus represent good candidates for recruiting SMRT-GPS2.

Together, these data suggest that appropriate genomic corepressor action is required for maintaining a transcriptional silent state of inflammatory gene expression in adipocytes. We speculate that any stimulus that reduces promoter occupancy of corepressors can potentially initiate the inflammatory program in adipocytes and contribute to initiation and maintenance of subsequent chronic inflammatory states. Such stimulus could be either the activation



Figure 8

Increased expression of GPS2 and SMRT in obese adipose tissue after gastric bypass surgery–induced weight loss. (**A–D**) qPCR analysis of SMRT, GPS2, IL-6, and TWIST1 expression in subcutaneous adipose tissue of obese subjects before and 6 months after surgery-induced weight loss (n = 14). (**E–G**) Correlations were determined with Spearman statistical test. (**H**) qPCR analysis of PPAR_Y expression in subcutaneous adipose tissue of obese subjects before and 6 months after surgery-induced weight loss (n = 14). (**I** and **J**) Correlations were determined with Spearman statistical test. (**H**) qPCR analysis of PPAR_Y expression in subcutaneous adipose tissue of obese subjects before and 6 months after surgery-induced weight loss (n = 14). (**I** and **J**) Correlations were determined with Spearman statistical test. *P < 0.05.

of inflammatory factors, such as NF- κ B p65 (classic activation mechanism), or the reduced expression — and thereby occupancy — of corepressor subunits (alternative activation by derepression). In reality, it will be difficult to separate these 2 key events from each other, and they likely will act in a synergistic manner. Indeed, we showed that corepressor removal (using siRNA depletion) and cytokine stimulation synergistically affected the expression of IL-6 and other genes, although each stimulus alone was sufficient to partially induce transcription.

Related corepressors NCOR1 and SMRT have different functions in adipocytes. According to available data, the highly related corepressors SMRT and NCOR1 share the same domain architecture, interact with the same set of transcription factors, and assemble into similar corepressor complexes, which suggests that they have redundant functions. Our results provide evidence that this may not be the case with respect to control of inflammatory responses, in which NCOR1 and SMRT complexes obviously have separate functions.

Glass and coworkers have demonstrated that in murine macrophages, NCOR1 and SMRT seem to function independently and in a mutually dependent manner to regulate some specific subsets of inflammatory genes (29, 34). A large set of inflammatory genes, including MCP-1 and IL-1, seems to be controlled by NCOR1 and SMRT, indicative of an unexpected requirement of both corepressors. In contrast, we previously reported that in human and murine hepatocytes, key genes associated with the acute phase response, such as haptoglobin or SAA, are controlled specifically by a NCOR1-GPS2 complex, but not by SMRT (29).

Here, we report that in human adipocytes, depletion of NCOR1 and SMRT induced different gene expression profiles. As far as we can determine from the gene expression, SMRT acts as a key repres-





Figure 9

PPAR_γ controls a TWIST1-SMRT-GPS2 cascade in human adipocytes. (A-D) Adipocytes were differentiated for 10 days and then treated with the PPARy agonist rosiglitazone (1 µM) or vehicle (DMSO) for 24 hours. (A) Gene expression of TWIST1, GPS2, NCOR1, SMRT, and FABP4 was analyzed by qPCR. (B) PPARy, CBP/300, and POL2 recruitment onto the TWIST1 promoter was measured by ChIP assays. (C and D) TWIST1 and POL2 recruitment onto the SMRT and GPS2 promoters. (E) Expression analysis. (F-H) ChIP assays were performed on TWIST1, GPS2, and IL-6 promoters. Adipocytes were differentiated for 10 days, then cotreated for 24 hours with ATCM or control media and with vehicle (DMSO) or rosiglitazone (1 μ M). *P < 0.05.

sion checkpoint of inflammatory gene expression, whereas NCOR1 seems to be more involved in metabolic processes in adipocytes. However, our microarray data also revealed that 43 genes were commonly regulated by SMRT and NCOR1 in preadipocytes, which suggests that SMRT and NCOR1 function in a mutually dependent manner for these genes, as described in macrophages. Unexpectedly, NCOR1 did not seem to regulate many genes in mature human adipocytes compared with preadipocytes. One possible explanation for this could be that NCOR1 acts as major corepressor for (unliganded) PPARy in preadipocytes, while the addition of rosiglitazone during differentiation causes dissociation of NCOR1 from PPARγ. This could indicate that SMRT and NCOR1 act at different stages of adipocyte differentiation by repressing distinct gene programs. Indeed, GPS2, SMRT, and NCOR1 did not appear to regulate the same gene expression profiles during human adipogenesis (Supplemental Figure 8, Supplemental Table 8, and our unpublished observations), in support of this hypothesis.

Our data are consistent with a recent study suggesting that NCOR1 is the main corepressor of PPARy actions in adipocytes, as specific knockout of NCOR1 in mature adipocytes derepressed

Table 4

Clinical parameters of diabetic patients before and after 6 months of pioglitazone treatment

	Before	After
Fasting plasma glucose (mmol/l)	8.5 ± 2.2	7.7 ± 2.2
Weight (kg)	85 ± 13	89 ± 15
Free fatty acids (µmol)	501 ± 213	440 ± 125
Adiponectin (mg/ml)	3.9 ± 1.6	11.7 ± 5.1 ^A
CRP (mg/ml)	2 ± 2	1.2 ± 1.1 ^A
IL-6 (ng/l)	3.41 ± 0.5	2.36 ± 0.42 ^A

AP < 0.05, paired test.

PPARγ activity, at least in mice (31). Our human data are also supported by a previous study in mice, showing that SMRT mutants that disrupted interactions with nuclear receptors presented widespread adipose tissue defects, including adipocyte hypertrophy and increased expression of inflammatory genes (30, 48). Although our study suggests that SMRT function is uncoupled from regulating PPARγ activity, a direct comparison of the respective NCOR1 versus SMRT knockout phenotypes in mice would be needed to draw further conclusions.

Genomic and antiinflammatory roles of the corepressor complex subunit GPS2 in human adipocytes. Recent biochemical studies have highlighted the assembly of the subunit GPS2 into both SMRT and NCOR1 complexes and suggest a structural core function of GPS2 in both (49). However, ChIP assays combined with RNAi also indicated the existence of SMRT and NCOR1 complexes, along with the HDAC3, TBL1, and TBLR1 subunits, that occupied different genes - in macrophages or hepatocytes - despite the lack of GPS2 (29, 34). In our adipose studies, we demonstrated that GPS2 depletion provoked the same gene expression alterations as did SMRT depletion, which suggests that GPS2 is mainly part of a SMRT-containing corepressor complex in adipocytes. These data indicate that GPS2 and SMRT function in a mutually dependent manner, independent of NCOR1. Our observations further support the notion that GPS2 seems to be linked to a number of antiinflammatory pathways, making it an interesting regulatory molecule. While we describe here a genomic pathway wherein GPS2 and SMRT, along with the corepressor complex, converge at the inflammatory promoters in adipocytes, we note that GPS2, unlike SMRT, may exert additional nongenomic functions by inhibiting the cytoplasmic TNF-α–JNK signaling cascade (50). To what extent this pathway contributes to the inflammatory phenotype of human adipose tissue, and whether it occurs in human adipocytes and/or in adipose tissue-associated macrophages, remain to be addressed. Whether the general antiinflammatory role of GPS2 is a suitable target for future therapeutic strategies also remains to be explored. Interestingly, we observed that GPS2 expression negatively correlated with systemic IL-6 concentration in patients that responded to clinical treatment with the antidiabetic PPARy agonist pioglitazone. GPS2 was also found to be strongly associated with adiponectin expression, linking GPS2 expression with insulin sensitivity status. This is consistent with a related observation in transgenic mice (50). Of note in this respect is that GPS2, in addition to being upregulated by PPARy agonists, also directly interacts with SUMOylated PPARy, thus providing a realistic route for antiinflammatory drug design.

Upstream regulators of GPS2 and SMRT expression in human adipocytes. In our search for upstream regulators of GPS2 and SMRT expression in adipocytes, we herein identified TWIST1, a PPAR γ -inducible gene, as a strong candidate (42). TWIST1, which belongs to the family of basic helix-loop-helix transcription factors, acts as a key player in embryogenesis, particularly in gastrulation and subsequent mesoderm formation, and knockout mice were embryonic lethal due to neuronal abnormalities (51). Interestingly, TWIST1 has been characterized as a critical regulator of energy homeostasis and inflammation in metabolic tissues, including adipose tissue (37, 38, 42).

Studies using our molecular model suggested that TWIST1 regulates the expression of GPS2 and SMRT, but not that of NCOR1. Thus, reduced expression of TWIST1 in obese adipocytes is likely to contribute to the downregulation of GPS2 and SMRT. Our data additionally indicated that treatment of inflamed adipocytes with a PPARy agonist improved their inflammatory phenotype by increasing the binding of SMRT and GPS2 onto inflammatory promoters, such as IL-6. This binding of GPS2 and SMRT was directly related to increased recruitment of TWIST1 onto GPS2 and SMRT promoters, consistent with their increased expression levels. In agreement with previous observations (38), we found that reduced levels of TWIST1 were associated with an inflammatory phenotype of adipose tissue. However, the precise role of TWIST1 in the regulation of inflammatory gene expression in adipocytes remains to be clarified, in particular with regard to the possible direct positive or negative regulation of IL-6 as a promoter-bound factor (37).

Available data indicate that several mechanisms could be involved in the transcription regulation of inflammatory genes by TWIST1. While our present findings demonstrated positive regulation of GPS2 and SMRT, TWIST family members have been previously reported to repress transcription in other promoter contexts (51). Mechanisms include the promotion of histone deacetylation – via HAT inhibition or HDAC recruitment – or direct inhibition of promoter-bound transcriptional activators. This second mechanism may account for the possible antiinflammatory action of TWIST1 on NF- κ B activation of TNF- α expression and would not require the recruitment of corepressor complexes to inhibit inflammatory genes. In support of this model, our results indicated that GPS2 and SMRT have a minor role in the regulation of TNF- α expression, compared with IL-6 and MCP-1.

Emerging antiinflammatory PPAR γ pathways in human adipocytes. Our findings suggest PPAR γ to be an upstream regulator of the TWIST1-SMRT-GPS2 cascade. That TWIST1 could be a direct PPAR target gene was evident from previous work describing the related PPAR δ subtype as a regulator of TWIST1 expression in brown adipose tissue. Whereas PPAR δ -induced TWIST1 in brown adipose tissue blocked transactivation of the coregulator PGC1- α (42), our study identified that the PPAR γ -TWIST1-SMRT-GPS2 corepressor cascade in white adipose tissue seems to be mechanistically distinct. Additionally, our finding that PPAR γ acted as a regulator of GPS2 expression in human adipocytes is opposed by the prior finding that in mouse adipocytes, GPS2 acts as a regulator of PPAR γ (50), further highlighting notable species differences in regulatory adipocyte cascades.

Our identified pathway may help to further dissect the role of PPAR γ , and its ligands, in human adipose tissue. While the key role of PPAR γ in promoting adipogenesis is well established (52, 53), a currently debated issue is whether the antiinflammatory effect


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Figure 10

Expression of GPS2 and SMRT in adipocytes negatively correlates with IL-6 levels in diabetic subjects treated for 6 months with pioglitazone. (A and B) Gene expression profiling of subcutaneous adipose tissue from 12 diabetic subjects before and after pioglitazone treatment. *P < 0.05, paired test. (C–F) Correlation analysis was performed with Spearman statistical test.

of PPAR γ agonists in adipose tissue is caused by PPAR γ action in macrophages, adipocytes, or both. PPAR γ is induced during differentiation of monocytes into macrophages, is highly expressed in activated macrophages, acts as a main regulator of M2 macrophage polarization (54), and functions as a potent antiinflammatory regulator in murine macrophages (55). Other studies have revealed that specific activation of PPAR γ in adipocytes is sufficient to improve insulin sensitivity and to repress adipose tissue inflammation, at least in mouse models (56).

We have shown here that activation of PPARy in human adipocytes is associated with repression of inflammatory genes, mainly due to the activation of a TWIST1-SMRT-GPS2 cascade. In addition, mRNA levels of GPS2 and SMRT in adipose tissue were inversely correlated with systemic levels of IL-6 in patients who responded to treatment with the TZD pioglitazone, which suggests that the antiinflammatory action of PPAR γ in adipocytes involves the regulation of SMRT and GPS2 expression levels.

An intriguing open issue concerns the possibility that PPAR γ in human adipocytes also directly inhibits inflammatory gene expression via a transrepression pathway related to those previously identified in macrophages or hepatocytes (29, 34, 56). Moreover, because an inflammatory environment promotes phosphorylation of PPAR γ by CDK5, which affects its transrepressive activity, the interplay of agonist action with both modifications in the contexts of human adipocytes awaits further clarification (57). Hypothetically, the adipocyte pathway could involve ligand-modulated dock-



Figure 11

Sequence of events leading to adipocyte inflammation in obesity. Based on integration of the present data into previous models, we propose the following. Metabolic excess/overnutrition triggers adipocyte hypertrophy, which — via lipid toxicity and/or ER stress — initiates inflammatory gene expression in adipocytes. Initiation may occur via direct activation of inflammatory signaling cascades and/or via epigenetic mechanisms linked to derepression. Our present work demonstrated that a subset of key inflammatory genes was induced by clearance of the SMRT-GPS2 complex (IL-6, IL-8, and MCP-1), promoting chromatin remodeling and recruitment of the transcriptional machinery (POL2 and TFIID). Subsequently, adipocyte-derived chemoattractants and cytokines stimulate immune cell activation that finally results in the chronic inflammatory status of obese adipose tissue. Both obesity-associated epigenetic alterations and inflammatory signaling are likely to cause downregulation of GPS2 and SMRT expression, in part via TWIST1. Improvement (resolution) of adipose tissue inflammation by TZD treatment or by gastric bypass–induced weight loss stimulates expression and activity of PPAR_Y, an upstream regulator of the TWIST1-SMRT-GPS2 cascade. Consequently, these interventions restore the expression and function of the SMRT-GPS2 corepressor complex at inflammatory genes in adipocytes, thereby acting antiinflammatory.

ing of SUMOylated PPARγ to the SMRT-GPS2 corepressor complex at inflammatory genes, thereby adding yet another regulatory level to the transcriptional cascade identified herein.

Methods

Isolation of human preadipocytes and adipocytes from subcutaneous adipose tissue. Isolation and culture of human preadipocytes and adipocytes from biopsies of subcutaneous adipose tissue of lean subjects (after plastic surgery) and obese subjects (after bariatric surgery) was essentially performed as previously described (58). See Supplemental Methods for details.

Culture of human adipocytes. Preadipocytes were cultured for 24 hours in 1 ml DMEM with 10% FBS in 12-well plates at a cell density of 10⁵ cells per well. Cells were then incubated with 0.75 ml DMEM/F12 differentiation medium (50 nM insulin, 100 nM dexamethasone, 0.25 mM inhibitor-1-methyl-3-isobutylxanthine, and 100 nM rosiglitazone) for 4 days. This medium was then replaced by 0.75 ml DMEM/F12 culture medium (50 nM insulin, 100 nM dexamethasone, and 100 nM rosiglitazone), and the culture medium was changed every 2 days until day 10, at which time most of the preadipocytes contained large lipid droplets. The preadi-

pocytes were then incubated with DMEM/F12 without dexamethasone and rosiglitazone treatment for 2 days to avoid the antiinflammatory effects of these compounds.

Recombinant virus construction and adipocyte infection. Adenoviral expression vectors were constructed using the AdEasy system (Agilent Technologies). Briefly, HA-tagged human GPS2 was subcloned into the pAdTrack shuttle vector containing a CMV promoter in front of the insert and GFP under the control of a second CMV promoter. Empty pAdTrack vector, only expressing GFP, was used as a negative control. The shuttle vectors were recombined in BJ5183 bacteria. Virus particles were then packaged, amplified, and harvested in 293A cells. The titer was determined by TCID50 assay. For infections, cultured adipocytes were incubated with adenovirus particles for 2 days at MOI 5 and MOI 50. Transduction was efficient after 2 days of culture, as determined by Western blot analysis and GFP fluorescence.

ELISA and cytokine membrane array. The secretion medium (cell culture medium) of preadipocytes and adipocytes was collected 48 hours after siRNA cell transfection. See Supplemental Table 3 for details of individual siRNAs. The secretion profiles of inflammatory cytokines were measured using Human Cytokines array Panel A Array (R&D Systems), according

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to the manufacturer's instructions. Cell culture supernatants were mixed with a cocktail of biotinylated detection antibodies. Nitrocellulose membranes (spotted with different cytokine antibodies) were then incubated the sample/antibody mixture. After several washes, streptavidin-HRP and chemiluminescent detection reagents were added, which produced light at each spot proportional to the amount of cytokine bound. To quantify cytokine secretion in cultured cells, ELISA was performed according to the manufacturer's instructions (R&D).

DNA microarray. An Illumina RNA amplification kit (Ambion) was used according to the manufacturer's instructions to obtain biotin-labeled cDNA from 250 ng total RNA. cDNA was hybridized to Illumina Human HT-12 v3.0 Expression BeadChips (Illumina Inc.) containing probes for 48,000 transcripts. 12 samples were hybridized on the same chip. Hybridized probes were detected with cyanin-3-streptavidin (1 mg/ml; Amersham Biosciences, GE Healthcare) using Illumina BeadArray Reader (Illumina Inc.) and BeadStudio v3 software (Illumina Inc.). Raw data (i.e., average probe signals) were extracted using the numerical results with Illumina Bead Studio software using default settings without any additional normalization. Differential gene expression was determined by standard analysis of microarray (SAM) analysis using a false discovery rate (FDR) of approximately 0.5%. We performed a functional analysis of these gene lists using the FunNet tool (59). KEGG pathways and Gene Ontology (GO) Cellular Component annotations were examined in order to identify those functional annotations that were significantly enriched in the different gene lists.

Transcription factor profiling array. The activity of 47 human transcription factors in human adipocytes was assayed using a plate array according to the manufacturer's instructions (Signosis Inc.). Briefly, nuclear proteins were isolated from adipocytes, and 12 g nuclear extract was added to a mixture of DNA sequences that encoded 47 different human transcription factor-binding sites. This mixture was incubated at 16°C for 30 minutes to allow for the formation of transcription factor-DNA complexes, then passed through an isolation column to separate the transcription factor-DNA complexes from free DNA probes. 100 µl elution buffer was then added to the column to elute the transcription factor-DNA complexes, which were subsequently denatured by incubation at 98°C. 95 µl of each sample was then added to each well of a 96-well plate containing an immobilized complementary sequence to 1 of the 47 transcription factors. The 96-well plate was sealed and incubated overnight at 42°C to hybridize the complementary strands of DNA. After hybridization, the plate was washed 3 times, streptavidin-HRP conjugate and substrate was added, and resulting chemiluminescence was detected using a multidetection microplate reader.

ChIP assays. ChIP assays were performed as described previously (29). Briefly, adipocytes isolated from adipose tissue were crosslinked for 10 minutes with 1% formaldehyde, and the reaction was stopped with 125 mM glycine for 5 minutes. Cells were rinsed by PBS and incubated with Farnham lysis buffer (5 mM PIPES [pH 8.0], 85 mM KCl, and 0.5% NP-40 plus protease inhibitor) at 4°C to isolate the nuclei. Nuclei were then centrifuged at 380 g for 5 minutes at 4°C. The nuclei were resuspended in 1 ml RIPA buffer (1× PBS, 1% NP-40, 0.5% sodium deoxycholate, and 0.1% SDS plus protease inhibitor cocktail) at 4°C and sonicated using Diogenode Bioruptor Sonicator at high setting for 15 minutes (30 seconds on, 30 seconds off) to generate DNA fragments 0.2-0.8 kb in length. Sonicates were centrifuged at 16,060 g at 4°C, and supernatant was collected. 200 µl resuspended magnetic bead slurry was added in the microfuge tube containing the collected supernatant. 2-5 µg primary antibody was then added. The microfuge was gently mixed on a rotor platform overnight. The next day, 100 µl antibodycoupled beads was added to the chromatin preparation and incubated at 4°C overnight on a rotor. After several washes, immune-bound chromatin was eluted from the beads and centrifuged, and the supernatant containing the ChIPed DNA was incubated at 65°C overnight to complete the reversal of the formaldehyde crosslinks. Qiagen Kit was then used to elute the DNA. Quantification of the precipitated DNA regions was performed by PCR. See Supplemental Tables 4–6 for primer sequences and antibodies.

Clinical study populations. Morbidly obese patients, candidates for bariatric surgery, were recruited in the nutrition division of Pitié-Salpêtrière Hospital, Institute of Cardiometabolism and Nutrition (ICAN). As part of this study, we used biopsies of subcutaneous adipose tissue located in the periumbilical area obtained during gastric bypass surgery (obese subjects) or during plastic surgery (lean subjects) (Table 1). 14 obese patients were followed for 6 months after gastric bypass. Subcutaneous adipose tissue pieces were taken from these patients before and 6 months after gastric bypass (Table 3) in the same area. Clinical investigation was performed as described previously (43); we used adipose tissue biopsies from this prior study (Table 4). Tissue samples were stored at -80°C until RNA extraction.

Statistics. Data are expressed as mean \pm SEM. Experiments were performed at least 3 times, each using preadipocytes and adipocytes from different human subjects. Statistical analysis was performed using 2-tailed Student's t test. Comparisons between more than 2 groups were carried out using 1-way ANOVA. Correlations analyses were made using Spearman statistical test. A P value less than 0.05 was considered statistically significant.

Study approval. The ethics committee of Hotel-Dieu Hospital approved the clinical investigations. All subjects gave written informed consent after individual explanation of the research program.

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Address correspondence to: Nicolas Venteclef, Institute of Cardiometabolism and Nutrition, INSERM U872 Team 7, Cordeliers Research Centre, 15 Rue de L'Ecole de Médecine, 75006 Paris, France. Phone: 33.0.1.42346825; Fax: 33.0.1.42346993; E-mail: nicolas.venteclef@upmc.fr. Or to: Eckardt Treuter, Center for Biosciences, Department of Biosciences and Nutrition, Karolinska Institutet, S-14183 Huddinge, Sweden. Phone: 46.0.8.52481060; Fax: 46.0.8.7745538; E-mail: eckardt.treuter@ki.se.

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SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIALS & METHODS

Expression and reporter constructs

The human IL6 promoter construct and HA-GPS2 derivatives have been described previously (29, 36). We thank Dr. Marta Palmieri and Dr. Ronald Evans for providing the IL6 reporter plasmid and SMRT expression plasmid, respectively.

Western blot antibodies

GPS2: A rabbit polyclonal antiserum was raised against bacterially expressed and purified His-tagged human GPS2 N-terminus (aa 1-105) according to standard procedures (Agrisera AB, Sweden).

SMRT: rabbit polyclonal against human (LsBio LS-B1548)

NCOR: mouse monoclonal against human (LsBio LS-C108878) and rabbit polyclonal against human (LsBio LS-C118605)

Nuclear extracts

All nuclear extracts were performed using signosis nuclear extraction kit according to the manufacturer's instruction (signosis, SK-0001).

Western blot analysis of human adipocyte extracts

Samples for western blot analyses were diluted with water and reducing buffer (6 °— solution: 4.5 % sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS), 15% β -mercaptoethanol, 0.018% bromophenol blue, and 36 % glycerol in 170 mM Tris-HCl pH 6.8) to a concentration of 20 µg of protein per 15 µl and heated at 70°C for 10 min. Samples were then processed using Invitrogen 4–12 % gradient gels and transferred to nitrocellulose membranes. The membranes were blocked

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with LiCor blocking buffer (Lincoln, NE) for 1 h at room temperature, then probed with primary antisera diluted in 0.1% Tween LiCor blocking buffer. The membranes were washed twice for 10 min each in 0.1% Tween phosphate buffer solution (PBST) then probed with goat anti-mouse or goat anti-rabbit IR-Dye 670 or 800cw labeled secondary antisera in 0.1% Tween, 0.01 % SDS LiCor blocking buffer for 1 h at room temperature. Washes were repeated after secondary labeling, washing twice for 10 min in PBST, then placed in PBS. Membranes were imaged using a LiCor Odyssey scanner. Boxes were manually placed around each band of interest, which returned near-infrared fluorescent values of raw intensity with intra-lane background subtracted using Odyssey 3.0 analytical software (LiCor, Lincoln, NE).

Luciferase reporter assays in human adipocytes

For reporter assays, adipocytes were seeded in 24-well plates and transfected with indicated constructs. Luciferase and b-galactosidase activities were measured using luciferine, and ATP reagents (BioThema) and a galacto-Start Kit (Tropix) respectively, in a microplateluminometer (thermo Electron Corp). All transfections were performed using FuGENE 6 transfection reagent (Roche) according to the manufacturer's instructions.

Isolation of human (pre-) adipocytes from subcutaneous adipose tissue

Adipose tissue was digested for 30 min to 2 hours (depending on the tissue) by collagenase (ROCHE, USA). The digestion product was filtered and then centrifuged to separate the stromal vascular fraction (composed of endothelial cells, immune cells and adipocyte precursors) and the adipocyte fraction (containing only mature adipocytes). Isolated adipocytes were lysed for analysis or further cultured in DMEM/F12 culture medium supplemented with insulin (50 nM) for 2 days.

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To isolate pre-adipocytes for analysis, the stromal vascular fraction was centrifuged. The cell pellet was resuspended in a buffer that allows the lysis of red blood cells (154 mM NH4CL, 5.7 mM K2PO4, and 0.1 mM EDTA, pH 7.0). After washing with PBS and filtration, the pellet was suspended in DMEM 10 % Foetal Bovine Serum (FBS) and used for cell culture at passage 2 to eliminate non-preadipocyte cell contamination.

RNA extraction and expression profiling by qPCR

RNA was extracted with the Mini RNAeasy kit (Qiagen, Courtabeauf, France) and assayed by lecture of the optical density at λ = 260nm (ND-1000, Nanaodrop, USA). Reverse transcription (RT) was made from an initial quantity of 500 ng of RNA to obtain cDNA. Real-time PCRs were conducted with 25 ng cDNA and both the sense and antisense oligonucleotides in a final volume of 20 µl using the SYBR green universal PCR mix (Applied Biosystems, Minneapolis, MN) monitored and assessed in a detection system instrument (Applied Biosystems). All values were normalized according to 18S expression.

siRNA-mediated knockdown in pre-adipocytes

Adipocytes were transfected with 10 nM (10 ng) siRNAs using lipofectamine RNAi MAX (Invitrogen) according to the manufacturers instruction. After transfection, preadipocytes and adipocytes were incubated for 48 h in RPMI 1% FBS (preadipocytes) or DMEN/F12 (adipocytes). For ELISA and cytokine analysis via membrane array, medium was collected, while mRNA, protein and chromatin analysis was analysed from cell extracts.



Analysis of coregulator gene expression in subcutaneous adipose tissue of lean (n=10) and obese subjects (n=10) from our previously published microarray data (32). Up-regulated genes were marked in red whereas down-regulated genes in green. Values in the square represent the False Discovery Rate (FDR) in %. Genes were significantly regulated when FDR < 5 %.



(A - C) mRNA expression of corepressor complex subunits SMRT, GPS2, NCOR1 was analyzed by qPCR in subcutaneous adipose tissue of lean (female, n=10; male, n=4) and obese (female, n=20; male n=16) subjects. (D-E) mRNA expression of corepressor complex subunits TBL1 and TBLR1 was analyzed by qPCR in subcutaneous adipose tissue of female lean (n=14) and obese subjects (n=36). (F-H) Correlation between expression levels of NCOR1 versus ADIPOQ, LEP and IL6 in human subcutaneous adipose tissue of lean (n=10) and obese (n=36) subjects. Correlations were analyzed using Spearman statistical test. P-value *=p<0.05; r= Spearman coefficient.



(A) Significant negative correlation between expression levels of SMRT versus IL6 in human adipocytes isolated from subcutaneous adipose tissue of lean and obese subjects. (B) No significant correlation between expression levels of NCOR1 versus IL6 in human adipocytes isolated from subcutaneous adipose tissue of non-obese and obese subjects. Correlations were analyzed using Spearman statistical test. P-value *=p<0.05; r= Spearman coefficient. (C) Western blot quantification of GPS2, SMRT and NCOR1 protein levels in adipocytes from subcutaneous adipose tissue of non-obese and obese subjects. CLX infrared detection imaging system (LI-COR Biosciences UK). β -Actin was used for normalization.



Validation of the siRNA experiments. (A-C) Adipocytes were transfected with specific siRNA against GPS2, SMRT or NCOR1 for 48 h and then gene expression profiles of GPS2, SMRT and NCOR1 were analyzed by qPCR. (D-F) Validation using 2 single siRNAs (#1 and #2) and 1 pool of four sequences (#3) targeting GPS2, SMRT or NCOR1. Gene expression and protein levels were quantified by qPCR and western blotting. IL6 mRNA expression was also quantified to confirm our findings.



(A-C) Unbiased microarray analysis (GO) of the up-regulated genes upon depletion of GPS2, SMRT and NCOR1 in pre-adipocytes. See Figure 3 for experimental details. A Summary of the top 10 common up-regulated genes is given in Supplemental Table 7.



(A-C) Unbiased microarray analysis (KEGG) of the up-regulated genes upon siRNA depletion of GPS2, SMRT. See Figure 3 for experimental details.



Quantitation of the regulated genes presented in the color map in Figure 4 B. mRNA expression profiles of inflammatory genes from human adipocytes depleted for GPS2, SMRT and NCOR1 as measured by qPCR. Data are representative for 8 different experiments. (* = p < 0.05)



(A) Regulation of adiponectin mRNA expression upon siRNA GPS2, SMRT and NCOR1 in human adipocytes. (B) Regulation of FABP4, adiponectin and PPARg expression during adipogenesis of isolated human pre-adipocytes upon siRNA-mediated depletion of GPS2, SMRT and NCOR1.



Validation of adenoviral expression of HA-GPS2 and GFP in isolated human preadipocytes and human mature by GFP fluorescence. (A,B) Mature adipocytes: Validation of HA-GPS2 expression by western blotting (anti-GPS2 blots: lower mobility band marks endogenous GPS2, higher mobility band HA-tagged GPS2) and of transfection efficiency by GFP fluorescence. (C) Measurement of average adipocyte size in non obese and obese subjects.



Analysis of IL6 promoter activity in isolated human adipocytes using a luciferase reporter. (A) Activity of a transfected IL6 reporter was analyzed upon siRNA-mediated depletion of GPS2, SMRT and NCOR (random siRNA as control). (B-C) IL6 promoter activity was analyzed upon siRNA depletion of GPS2 (B) and SMRT (C) and overexpression of pGPS2 (B), pSMRT or empty (as control) plasmids. (D) IL6 promoter activity was analyzed upon siRNA depletion of TWIST1 and plasmid-mediated overexpression of GPS2 and SMRT (empty plasmids as control). (E-F) IL6 promoter activity was studied upon siRNA-mediated depletion of GPS2 or SMRT in conjunction with treatment by cytokines or adipose tissue-conditioned media (ATCM).



IL6

Supplemental Figure 11

(A) Dose (MOI)-dependent adenoviral expression of HA-GPS2 or GFP (as control) was performed in human adipocytes upon treatment with adipose tissue-conditioned media (ATCM). IL6 mRNA expression was analyzed by qPCR (B) Adenoviral expression of HA-GPS2 or GFP (as control) was performed in human adipocytes upon treatment with cytokines or adipose tissue-conditioned media (ATCM). MCP-1 (CCL2) mRNA expression was analyzed by qPCR. (C) Adenoviral expression of HA-GPS2 or GFP (as control) was performed in human adipocytes upon siRNA-mediated depletion of GPS2, and/or treatment with cytokines or adipose tissue-conditioned media (ATCM). MCP-1 (CCL2) mRNA expression was analyzed by qPCR. (C) Adenoviral expression of GPS2, and/or treatment with cytokines or adipose tissue-conditioned media (ATCM). MCP-1 (CCL2) gene expression was analyzed by qPCR. Data are representative of 5 different experiments.

Α



Supplemental Figure 12

Schematic representation of the human IL6 promoter. (A) Highlighted are the suspected binding sites for inflammatory transcription factors and the location of ChIP primers specific for regions R1, R2 and R3 (control promoter region without suspected binding sites). (B) ChIP analysis of the indicated factors onto the non-responsive control region R3 in human adipocytes, similar to the assays described in Figure 6 D, E. Data are representative of 4 different experiments.



Correlation between mRNA expression of SMRT and GPS2 (A) or SMRT and PPAR γ (B) in human subcutaneous adipose tissue of obese subjects before and 6 month after gastric bypass surgery (n=14). Correlations were analyzed using Spearman statistical test. P-value *=p<0.05; r= Spearman coefficient.

Supplemental Table 1: Transcription factor profiling in human adipocytes

Table representing data of DNA-binding of the 47 transcription factors studied. Results represent luminescence intensity associated with the binding of transcription factors upon our experimental conditions outlined in Figure 6 A. Experiment was performed with a pool of 4 nuclear extracts.

	siCTI		siGPS2		siSMRT	
			0.0.02			
	RLU	Fold Change to CTL	RLU	Fold Change to CTL	RLU	Fold Change to CTL
AP1	1997	1	4210	2.108162243	4123	2.064596895
AP2	2154	1	2272	1.054781801	2213	1.027390901
AR	4579	1	4565	0.996942564	3057	0.667613016
ATF2	1720	1	3442	2.001162791	3746	2.177906977
Brn-3	2145	1	1825	1.061046512	1763	1.025
C/EBP	1123	1	3145	2.800534283	3214	2.861976848
CAR	1532	1	1776	1.15926893	1778	1.160574413
CBF	1498	1	1558	1.040053405	1560	1.041388518
CDP	2219	1	2056	0.926543488	2019	0.909869311
CREB	1857	1	1831	0.985998923	1830	0.98546042
E2F1	2869	1	2897	1.009759498	1858	0.647612409
EGR	1658	1	1703	1.02/141134	1/60	1.061519903
ER	1/25	1	3754	2.176231884	3589	2.0805/9/1
Ets	1856	1	3529	1.901400862	3301	1.778556034
FAST-1	1607	1	2146	1.335407592	2109	1.312383323
GAS/ISRE	1621	1	2852	1.759407773	3100	1.912399753
GAIA	1628	1	1875	1.151/19902	1816	1.115479115
GR/PR	1498	1	1453	0.969959947	1416	0.945260347
HIF	1421	1	3788	2.00572830	3520	2.4//128/83
HNF4	1538	1	1425	0.926527958	1432	0.931079324
	1320	1	1325	0.999245852	1450	1.093514329
MEF2	1800	1	1998	1.100920208	1804	1.032080981
myb Mixe Mex	1387	1	1231	0.007027037	1222	0.001030212
	1001	1	1320	0.0399747	1020	0.029222011
NEAT	1324	1	2846	2 109149149	2621	1 0/1/920990
NE-E2	3154	1	2040	2.100140140	3312	1.941401401
NEkB	1259	1	2871	2 280381255	2751	2 185067514
OCT4	1200	1	1058	0 848436247	1000	0 801924619
n53	1954	1	1521	0.778403275	1542	0.789150461
PAX-5	1553	1	1916	1 233741146	1985	1 278171281
Pbx1	1952	1	1990	1 019467213	1812	0 928278689
Pit	1625	1	1943	1 195692308	1941	1 194461538
PXR	2004	1	2067	1.031437126	2261	1.128243513
SMAD	1487	1	1622	1.090786819	1613	1.084734364
sp1	7114	1	2848	0.400337363	2214	0.311217318
SRF	1345	1	1213	0.901858736	1352	1.005204461
SATB1	2481	1	2108	0.849657396	2213	0.891979041
STAT1	5721	1	5823	1.017829051	5201	0.9091068
STAT3	1759	1	4191	2.382603752	3954	2.247868107
STAT4	1457	1	2164	1.485243651	2154	1.478380233
STAT5	1857	1	2216	1.193322563	2248	1.210554658
STAT6	3641	1	2431	0.667673716	3216	0.883273826
TCF.LEF	1607	1	1873	1.165525825	1851	1.151835719
TR	1398	1	1762	1.26037196	1217	0.870529328
YYI	2014	1	2086	1.035749752	2134	1.05958292
TEIID	3609	1	7210	1 997783319	7423	2 056802438

Supplemental Table 2: Transcription factor profiling in human adipocytes under inflammatory conditions

Table representing data of DNA-binding of the 47 transcription factors studied. Results represent luminescence intensity associated with the binding of transcription factors upon our experimental conditions outlined in Figure 6 B. Experiment was performed with a pool of 4 nuclear extracts.

Ī		CTL	siGPS	2+ Ad-GFP	siGPS2 + Ad-GPS2		ATC	ATCM + Ad-GFP		ATCM + Ad-GPS2	
t	DUU	Fold Change to	DLU	Fold Change to	DUU	Fold Change to	DUU	Fold Change to	DUU	Fold Change to	
	RLU	CTL	RLU	CTL	RLU	CTL	RLU	CTL	RLU	CTL	
AP1	2068	1	4003	1.9357	1415	0.6842	5316	2.5706	1862	0.9004	
AP2	2250	1	1372	0.6098	1613	0.7169	1281	0.5693	1245	0.5533	
AR	5035	1	4215	0.8371	3097	0.6151	3211	0.6377	3591	0.7132	
ATF2	1600	1	3442	2.1513	1346	0.8413	3197	1.9981	1238	0.7738	
Brn-3	2150	1	1825	1.1406	2083	1.3019	1771	1.1069	1912	1.1950	
C/EBP	1272	1	3260	2.5629	2014	1.5833	3095	2.4332	1913	1.5039	
CAR	1609	1	1776	1.1038	1718	1.0677	1840	1.1436	1753	1.0895	
CBF	1573	1	1558	0.9905	1460	0.9282	1517	0.9644	1499	0.9530	
CDP	2384	1	1828	0.7668	1319	0.5533	2017	0.8461	2346	0.9841	
CREB	1804	1	1884	1.0443	1460	0.8093	1334	0.7395	1092	0.6053	
E2F1	2976	1	2563	0.8612	1858	0.6243	2307	0.7752	1676	0.5632	
EGR	1439	1	1403	0.9750	1260	0.8756	1502	1.0438	1534	1.0660	
ER	1825	1	3567	1.9545	1589	0.8707	1670	0.9151	1147	0.6285	
Ets	1629	1	3372	2.0700	1592	0.9773	3107	1.9073	1341	0.8232	
FAST-1	1709	1	1946	1.1387	1604	0.9386	1885	1.1030	1665	0.9743	
GAS/ISRE	1801	1	2501	1.3887	1466	0.8140	2756	1.5303	1354	0.7518	
GATA	1627	1	2059	1.2655	1418	0.8715	1487	0.9140	1568	0.9637	
GR/PR	1594	1	1646	1.0326	1296	0.8130	1346	0.8444	1893	1.1876	
HIF	1372	1	3482	2.5379	1520	1.1079	3263	2.3783	1286	0.9373	
HNF4	1509	1	1485	0.9841	1215	0.8052	1469	0.9735	1609	1.0663	
IRF	1512	1	1494	0.9881	1466	0.9696	1382	0.9140	1401	0.9266	
MEF2	1785	1	2098	1.1754	2867	1.6062	2394	1.3412	2476	1.3871	
myb	1315	1	1561	1.1871	1406	1.0692	1691	1.2859	1699	1.2920	
Myc-Max	1637	1	1688	1.0312	1628	0.9945	2235	1.3653	1842	1.1252	
NF-1	1858	1	1749	0.9413	1520	0.8181	1909	1.0274	1594	0.8579	
NFAT	1378	1	2646	1.9202	1278	0.9274	2920	2.1190	1492	1.0827	
NF-E2	3261	1	3383	1.0374	3298	1.0113	2807	0.8608	2523	0.7737	
NFkB	1348	1	2646	1.9629	1201	0.8909	2421	1.7960	1125	0.8346	
OCT4	1387	1	1758	1.2675	1900	1.3699	1442	1.0397	1672	1.2055	
p53	1712	1	1834	1.0713	2262	1.3213	2229	1.3020	1855	1.0835	
PAX-5	1667	1	1916	1.1494	3457	2.0738	1774	1.0642	3905	2.3425	
Pbx1	1934	1	2390	1.2358	1712	0.8852	2089	1.0801	2018	1.0434	
Pit	1409	1	1743	1.2370	1284	0.9113	1472	1.0447	1603	1.1377	
PXR	1901	1	2022	1.0637	1260	0.6628	1777	0.9348	1898	0.9984	
SMAD	1327	1	1533	1.1552	1502	1.1319	1257	0.9472	1000	0.7536	
sp1	6897	1	2848	0.4129	6217	0.9014	3747	0.5433	6354	0.9213	
SRF	1363	1	1439	1.0558	2382	1.7476	2008	1.4732	1367	1.0029	
SATB1	2387	1	2204	0.9233	1756	0.7357	2208	0.9250	1904	0.7977	
STAT1	6101	1	6201	1.0164	5160	0.8458	4447	0.7289	4357	0.7141	
STAT3	1940	1	3831	1.9747	1436	0.7402	3960	2.0412	1364	0.7031	
STAT4	1242	1	2025	1.6304	1125	0.9058	1855	1.4936	1719	1.3841	
STAT5	1813	1	1898	1.0469	1448	0.7987	1948	1.0745	1505	0.8301	
STAT6	3562	1	2162	0.6070	1290	0.3622	1795	0.5039	1857	0.5213	
TCF.LEF	1503	1	1831	1.2182	1310	0.8716	1514	1.0073	1506	1.0020	
TR	1442	1	1819	1.2614	2217	1.5374	2178	1.5104	1973	1.3682	
YYI	1949	1	2007	1.0298	1882	0.9656	1652	0.8476	2188	1.1226	
TFIID	3404	1	7009	2.0590	2152	0.6322	9424	2.7685	1857	0.5455	

Supplemental Table 3: Source of all siRNAs

siRNA	#1	#2	#3	Supplier
siGPS2	D-004329-05	L-004329-09	L-004329-00	Dharmacon
siSMRT	L-020145-11	L-020145-13	L-020145-01	Dharmacon
siNCOR	L-003518-06	L-003518-08	L-003518-00	Dharmacon
siTWIST1	1-006434-00	-	-	Sigma
siCTL	D-0012110-02-05	-	-	Dharmacon

Supplemental Table 4: Primers for ChIP experiments

Promoter	Forward	Reverse
SMRT-promoter	5'-GAGTCTGCAGTGTGTTCGCC-3'	5'-TCGCGTTTCAGCTATTAAAT-3'
SMRT-enhancer	5'-CACTCACTGCTGTTACT-3'	5'-GAAGCCTTATCAACTCAAGC-3'
GPS2-promoter	5'-TGCCTGATCCTATATGTGGG-3'	5'-ACCTCGTGAGCTCAAGCGAT-3'
GPS2-enhancer	5'-GATTACAGTGTGGGTCACCA-3'	5'-TCCATAATCACAGCCTCCTG-3'
IL6 R1	5'CGTCCACATTGCACAATCTTA-3'	5'-CATCTCCAGTCCTATATTTA-3'
IL 6 R2	5'TGCATGACTTCAGCTTTACTC-3'	5'-GCAGAACCACTCTTCCTTTAC-3'
IL 6 R3	5'-GGGCTTCTGAACCAGCTTGA-3'	5'-CAGGACGGCTCTAGGCTC-3'
TWIST1	5'-CCTGTAGCGGAAGATGCAAAC-3'	5'-ATTCCGTCGCCGAGTGATTT-3'

Antibody	Catalog #	Supplier
GPS2	(aa 1-105)	Custom-made (this study)
NCOR	06-892	Upstate
HADC3 (B-12)	Sc-17795	Santa Cruz
POL2	Sc-9001	Santa Cruz
IgG	Sc-2027	Santa Cruz
PPARγ (H-100)	Sc-7126	Santa Cruz
acH3	ab 1791	Abcam
Me2H3K4	ab7766	Abcam
Me3H3K9	06-599	Upstate
TWIST1	T6451	Sigma
P65	ab19870	Abcam
<i>C/EBPβ</i>	sc-7962	Santa Cruz
c-Jun	ab31419	abcam

Supplemental Table 5: List of antibodies used for ChIP experiments

Supplemental Table 6: Primer used for qPCR

Gene	Forward	Reverse		
Adiponectin	AGAGATGGCACCCCTGGT	CACCGATGTCTCCCTTAGGA		
Leptin	TTGTCACCAGGATCAATGACA	GTCCAAACCGGTGACTTTCT		
IL6	GCCCAGCTATGAACTCCTTCT	GAAGGCAGCAGGCAACAC		
IL1β	CTGTCCTGCGTGTTGAAAGA	TTGGGTAATTTTTGGGATCTACA		
IL8	AGACAGCAGAGCACACAAGC	ATGGTTCCTTCCGGTGGT		
IL11	TATCCACTTGAGGGCGATTT	CTGCCCCAGTTACCCAAG		
IL33	AGCAAAGTGGAAGAACACAGC	CTTCTTTGGCCTTCTGTTGG		
CXCL1	TCATCGAAAAGATGCTGAACA	TTCAGGAACAGCCACCAGT		
CXCL2	CATCGAAAAGATGCTGAAAAATG	TTCAGGAACAGCCACCAATA		
CXCL5	AAATGAGCACGCATGGAAA	TCTTCCCTGGGTTCAGAGAC		
CCL2	TTCTGTGCCTGCTGCTCAT	GGGGCATTGATTGCATCT		
CCL5	ACACCAGTGGCAAGTGCTC	ACACACTTGGCGGTTCTTTC		
CCL7	GAAAGCCTCTGCAGCACTTC	AATCTGTAGCAGCAGGTAGTTGAA		
ΤΝΓα	CAGCCTCTTCTCCTTCCTGA	GCCAGAGGGCTGATTAGAGA		
GCSF	TCCAGGAGAAGCTGGTGAGT	CCAGAGAGTGTCCGAGCAG		
GPS2	GCTGCACCGCACATTATG	CATCATCTTATCCACCTCTTCTTCCT		
NCOR	CCCAGGAGAAACTGCAGACCTGT	CTGATTCCTGCTGTGGCGATA		
SMRT	GGTACCCATTTGGAATCACGGGCTGC	AAGCTTCCACACACACAGACACGCAC		
TBLR1	TTAGCAAGTGCATCCTTTGATTCT	TCTTGGTGTGGTCTTCTTCCT		
TBL1	ATTGACGTCCCGAGTAACAAAGAC	CGTAGCCAAGAGTGTTCCATTG		

Supplemental Table 7:

Summary of the top 10 common up-regulated genes upon siRNA depletion of GPS2, SMRT and NCOR1 in human pre-adipocytes.

	siGPS2 (fold change)	siSMRT (fold change)	siNCOR1) (fold change)
CXCL2	7.69	9.3	1.26
IL1ß	2.25	2.3	0.69
IL6	2.74	2.63	0.85
NFkBIZ	2.7	2.35	1.15
NFkB1A	2.64	2.71	1.18
TNFAIP3	3.83	2.86	0.98
ANXA1	2.21	1.77	2.08
BIRC3	5.5	4.94	1.65
TNFAIP8	2.2	1.94	0.84
TNFRSF10B	1.85	2.01	1.52

Supplemental Table 8:

Regulation of various PPARy target genes involved in adipogenesis that were identified in our microarray study.

	siGP	S2	siSM	RT	siNCOR1	
Gene	fold change	p value	fold change	p value	fold change	p value
FABP4	0.73	0.166	0.78	0.195	1.22	0.1511
PLIN	0.87	0.287	0.82	0.090	1.18	0.2846
LPL	0.52	0.392	0.51	0.364	1.13	0.1347
FAS	0.93	0.256	1.03	0.586	1.08	0.2088
ACC	0.93	0.106	0.85	0.035	1.3	0.0002
SREBP1c	0.77	0.003	0.74	0.003	1.36	0.0079
SCD	0.86	0.058	0.82	0.113	1.15	0.0330

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Une relation « inflammée » entre le complexe GPS2 et le tissu adipeux dans l'obésité

Amine Toubal¹, Eckardt Treuter², Nicolas Venteclef¹

L'obésité : une pathologie inflammatoire

L'obésité est considérée comme une maladie inflammatoire que caractérise une détérioration métabolique et inflammatoire du tissu adipeux [1]. Dans le cadre d'une réponse physiologique, l'inflammation est un mécanisme de défense qui protège l'organisme d'un traumatisme ou d'une infection. Cependant, le maintien de cette réponse inflammatoire est délétère pour l'organisme. L'obésité est associée à une inflammation dite de bas grade et chronique au niveau systémique et tissulaire. De nombreuses études mettent en évidence les effets néfastes de cette inflammation chronique qui est notamment associée au développement de pathologies métaboliques comme le diabète de type 2 et l'athérosclérose [2]. Le tissu adipeux n'est plus considéré comme un organe de stockage, mais comme une glande endocrine sécrétant un nombre important d'hormones appelées adipokines (adiponectine, leptine), mais

aussi des molécules inflammatoires (IL [interleukine]-6, IL-8, MCP-1 [monocyte chemoattractant protein 1]). L'inflammation du tissu adipeux chez le sujet obèse s'accompagne d'une modification morphologique des adipocytes (hypertrophie et hyperplasie adipocytaires) et d'une infiltration de cellules immunitaires (macrophages, lymphocytes et mastocytes). Si de nombreuses études ont permis de caractériser les mécanismes cellulaires altérés dans l'obésité, les mécanismes de régulation de la transcription des gènes impliqués sont à ce jour mal compris.

Les corégulateurs : un rôle crucial dans le contrôle de la transcription des gènes inflammatoires

Il a été clairement établi que l'activation des voies relayées par les toll-like receptor (TLR) ou par le TNF (tumor necrosis factor) induit l'activation d'un large spectre de facteurs de transcription, tels que NFκB (p65) et AP-1, qui régulent l'expression des gènes inflammatoires

¹Institut de cardiométabolisme et nutrition (IHU-ICAN), Centre de recherche des Cordeliers, Inserm, U872, équipe 7 nutriomique, 15, rue de l'École de Médecine, 75006 Paris, France ;

²Karolinska Institutet, Center for Biosciences, Department of Biosciences and Nutrition, S-14183 Huddinge, Suède. <u>nicolas.venteclef@upmc.fr</u>

> (IL-6, TNF α et IL1 β) dans les cellules du tissu adipeux (adipocytes et macrophages notamment) [3]. Cependant, la régulation de la transcription des gènes inflammatoires (inductibles) fait intervenir différents processus biologiques tels que le remodelage de chromatine, la liaison de facteurs de transcription et des échanges de corégulateurs. Tout ce processus dynamique est régulé de manière coordonnée afin de permettre une régulation de la transcription adaptée à la situation [4]. Existe-t-il une dérégulation de cette coordination dans l'obésité ?

> Les corégulateurs de la transcription sont indispensables à la répression ainsi qu'à l'activation de cette dernière. Ils représentent une superfamille de régulateurs de la transcription comprenant plus de 300 membres [5] au sein de laquelle on distingue deux groupes : les coactivateurs (activateurs de la transcription tels que CBP/P300 et SRC) et les corépresseurs (inhibiteurs de la transcription tels que NCOR [nuclear receptor corepressor], SMRT



repression de la transcription par le complexe sinti-Gr32-HDACS. B. La prise de polas est caractérisée par un changement morphologique du tissu adipeux et une augmentation de l'expression des gènes inflammatoires qui est induite notamment par l'échange entre le complexe SMRT-GPS2-HDCA3 et un complexe de coactivateurs

de la transcription. *C.* Une diminutiones qui est induite notamment par l'echange entre le complexe SMRI-GP32-HDCA3 et un complexe de coactivateurs de la transcription. *C.* Une diminution de l'inflammation du tissu adipeux est observée lors d'une perte de poids ou un traitement anti-diabétique par les TZD. Cette réduction de l'inflammation est orchestrée par le rétablissement partiel de l'activité du complexe SMRT-GPS2-HDAC3 bloquant ainsi l'action des coactivateurs. *D.* La stabilisation du complexe SMRT-GPS2-HDAC3 au niveau des promoteurs des gènes inflammatoires pourrait être une stratégie originale pour limiter l'inflammation du tissu adipeux. L'activation des récepteurs nucléaires ayant une activité anti-inflammatoire dépendante de GPS2 (LXR et PPAR) ainsi que celle des modulateurs épigénétiques de l'activité (HDAC et KDM) de ce complexe GPS2 pourraient permettre de contrôler certains gènes impliqués dans l'inflammation pathologique du tissu adipeux dans l'obésité.

[silencing mediator for retinoid and thy*roid hormone receptors*] et HDAC [histone déacétylases]). Ces corégulateurs ont la particularité de ne pas interagir directement avec l'ADN mais par l'intermédiaire des facteurs de transcription. Leurs fonctions physiologiques sont cruciales dans le développement, l'homéostasie glucido-lipidique, l'inflammation et certains cancers. Déterminer leurs fonctions in vivo est complexe puisque l'invalidation des gènes correspondants est généralement létale (notamment pour les corépresseurs), ce qui confirme leur importance physiologique [5]. Le mécanisme général d'action des corégulateurs lors d'un stress inflammatoire est le suivant : en l'absence d'inflammation, un complexe de corépresseurs interagit avec des facteurs de transcription caractéristiques d'un état inflammatoire tels que NF κ B (p50), AP-1 ou STAT (signal transducers and activators of transcription), maintenant silencieux les gènes codant pour les facteurs inflammatoires. Lors de stimulus inflammatoires, un complexe de coactivateurs se substitue au complexe de corépresseurs, permettant ainsi le recrutement de la machinerie transcriptionelle et l'induction de la transcription des gènes [6]. Ce phénomène a été nommé « voie de la dérépression » par l'équipe du Pr C.K. Glass. Les complexes NCOR et SMRT, initialement identifiés comme répresseurs des récepteurs nucléaires, sont notamment impliqués dans le contrôle de gènes inflammatoires [7]. NCOR et SMRT ont en effet une activité anti-inflammatoire. Cependant, deux études récentes décrivent des conséquences anti-inflammatoires de la déplétion spécifique *in vivo* de NCOR dans les adipocytes et les macrophages, suggérant qu'un ou des complexe(s) non identifié(s) serai(en)t impliqué(s) dans le contrôle de l'expression des gènes inflammatoires dans le tissu adipeux [8]. Les complexes NCOR et SMRT sont très homologues dans leur mode d'action et leur composition,

mais leurs fonctions semblent différentes même si ces complexes ont été démontrés comme fonctionnant de manière coordonnée. La fonction du complexe SMRT dans le tissu adipeux est peu connue. Ces complexes sont composés de diverses protéines telles que *transducer* β -like proteins (TBL1), *transducer* β -like proteins receptor (TBLR1), histone deacetylase 3 (HDAC3) et *G* protein pathway supressor 2 (GPS2). La protéine GPS2, petite sousunité de ce complexe, est curieuse. En effet, cette protéine ne possède pas d'activité enzymatique et semble présenter des propriétés anti-inflammatoires [9].

Dérégulation de l'activité du complexe GPS2 associée à l'inflammation du tissu adipeux

Les données transcriptomiques (puce à ADN) de l'analyse du tissu adipeux de sujets minces et de sujets obèses nous ont permis d'identifier une dérégulation du niveau d'expression de GPS2 et de SMRT chez ces derniers [10]. En effet, l'expression de GPS2 et de SMRT est fortement diminuée dans le tissu adipeux et les adipocytes des sujets obèses. De plus, cette dérégulation est associée à une augmentation de l'expression d'IL-6 dans le tissu adipeux. Des expériences de déplétion par ARN interférence ou de surexpression dans des adipocytes humains démontrent l'importance du complexe SMRT/GPS2 dans la répression de l'expression des gènes codant pour l'IL-6, l'IL-8 et MCP-1. Cependant, il semblerait que tous les gènes inflammatoires ne soient pas contrôlés par ce complexe. C'est le cas par exemple de l'expression du TNF α , suggérant l'implication d'un autre complexe répresseur [10]. De manière surprenante, le complexe répresseur impliquant NCOR ne semble pas impliqué dans le contrôle de la transcription des gènes inflammatoires chez l'homme. Ceci est en accord avec les études murines récemment publiées démontrant l'importance de NCOR dans le contrôle de l'activité transcriptionelle de PPARy (peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor) et non dans la régulation de la transcription des gènes inflammatoires [8]. Ces observations mettent en évidence que : (1) NCOR exerce une activité anti-inflammatoire dans le foie alors qu'il aurait une fonction plus métabolique dans les adipocytes [9, 10]; (2) SMRT semble avoir une activité anti-inflammatoire dans l'adipocyte, mais beaucoup plus faible dans le foie [9]; et (3) la protéine GPS2 apparaît comme la composante essentielle à l'activité anti-inflammatoire des complexes NCOR et SMRT [9, 10]. Ces observations ont pu être mises en évidence dans deux situations cliniques [10]. En effet, l'amélioration du profil inflammatoire du tissu adipeux des patients obèses après une perte de poids, ou des patients diabétiques traités par un agoniste de PPARγ (thiazolidinedione, pioglitazone), est associée à une augmentation de l'expression de GPS2 et SMRT.

Conclusions et perspectives

Le concept selon lequel la réduction de l'inflammation du tissu adipeux pourrait permettre une amélioration du statut métabolique et une meilleure réponse aux traitements est excitant [11]. Cependant, cette réduction de l'inflammation est-elle la conséquence de l'amélioration des paramètres métaboliques ou la cause? Un premier exemple est celui de la perte de poids induite par la chirurgie bariatrique ou la restriction calorique : on en connaît les effets sur l'amélioration de la sensibilité à l'insuline et la résolution du diabète de type 2. Cette amélioration est associée à une réduction de l'inflammation chronique au niveau systémique et tissulaire marqué par (1) des changements dans le phénotype des macrophages (qui de pro-inflammatoire devient anti-inflammatoire), (2) une augmentation de l'expression des facteurs de transcription anti-inflammatoires (PPARγ, TWIST1 et KLF4), et (3) une augmentation de l'activité des corépresseurs de la transcription (GPS2 et SMRT) [10, 12]. Si il apparaît que la réduction de l'inflammation contribue à l'amélioration métabolique, des études complémentaires sur les événements transcriptionnels impliqués dans le changement du profil inflammatoire du tissu adipeux lors de la perte de poids sont requises afin de déterminer si il s'agit un événement causal. Le deuxième exemple concerne la réponse anti-inflammatoire associée au traitement à la pioglitazone (agoniste de PPAR γ) des patients diabétiques [10]. Notre étude démontre que chez tous les patients traités par la pioglitazone, les paramètres glycémiques s'améliorent, ce qui n'est pas toujours le cas de l'inflammation du tissu adipeux. Cette observation met-elle en évidence le manque d'un lien moléculaire entre la régulation de l'homéostasie glycémique et l'inflammation ? Existe-il une signature transcriptomique ou epigénétique qui permettrait d'évaluer les réponses à certains traitements comme les TZD

(thiazolidinediones)? Les stratégies anti-inflammatoires ciblant des cytokines ou des récepteurs (par exemple, TNFlpha et IL-1) ont des succès limités chez l'homme [13]. Ces observations suggèrent qu'il serait sans doute plus efficace d'inhiber les voies de signalisation intracellulaires ou les composants transcriptionnels impliqués dans les processus inflammatoires. Une stratégie alternative - actuellement en développement dans le traitement de certains cancers - pourrait être de moduler les réponses épigénétiques [14]. La modulation de l'activité du complexe NCOR/SMRT/GPS2/HDAC3 dans le tissu adipeux (adipocytes et macrophages) pourrait représenter une nouvelle stratégie pour limiter la progression de l'inflammation du tissu adipeux dans l'obésité. Des molécules ciblant spécifiquement l'activité du complexe HDAC-GPS2 ont récemment été décrites, ouvrant une opportunité thérapeutique dans la prévention de l'inflammation du tissu adipeux [15]. ♦ An « inflamed » relationship between GPS2 and the adipose tissue in human obesity

LIENS D'INTÉRÊT

Les auteurs déclarent n'avoir aucun lien d'intérêt concernant les données publiées dans cet article.

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Ramollir le cortex Un prérequis à l'asymétrie de la division ovocytaire

Agathe Chaigne^{1,2}, Marie-Hélène Verlhac^{1,2}, Marie-Emilie Terret^{1,2} ¹ Centre interdisciplinaire de recherche en biologie, CNRS-UMR7241, Inserm-U1050, Équipe labellisée Ligue contre le cancer, Collège de France, 11, place Marcelin Berthelot, 75005 Paris, France.
² Memolife Laboratory of Excellence and Paris Science Lettre, Paris, F-75005, France. <u>marie-emilie.terret@college-de-france.fr</u> <u>marie-helene.verlhac@college-de-france.fr</u>

> Former un embryon diploïde nécessite la mise en commun de la moitié des génomes du père et de la mère. La différenciation des gamètes (ovocyte et spermatozoïde) s'accompagne donc d'une réduction du nombre de chromosomes pour passer d'une cellule diploïde à une cellule haploïde. Cette réduction du matériel génétique se produit lors de la méiose et s'accompagne d'une division cellulaire et d'une spécialisation indispensables au développement du nouvel individu. Chez la femelle, tout en éliminant la moitié du génome, l'ovocyte conserve un maximum de cytoplasme contenant les réserves stockées lors de sa croissance, ce qui est indispensable pour toutes les espèces à développement externe où l'embryon se développe uniquement grâce à ces réserves accumulées. Comment ce partitionnement inégal est-il réalisé dans l'ovocyte de mammifère ?

La division de l'ovocyte, une division asymétrique

La méiose commence avant la naissance dans les gonades embryonnaires ; les ovocytes restent bloqués en prophase de première division (méiose l) jusqu'à la puberté chez les mammifères. Puis, tous les mois, un pic de LH (hormone lutéinisante) provoque la reprise de la méiose et sa dernière étape, la maturation méiotique. Le premier événement remarquable est la rupture de l'enveloppe nucléaire (NEBD : nuclear envelope breakdown) qui est suivie par la formation d'un fuseau de microtubules autour des chromosomes répliqués et appariés au niveau des chiasma (Figure 1). Ce fuseau se forme à l'emplacement du noyau, quasiment au centre de la cellule. Chez la souris, cinq à six heures après NEBD, le fuseau migre selon son grand axe vers le cortex le plus proche [1], et, huit à neuf heures après NEBD, une première division asymétrique a lieu avec expulsion d'un premier globule polaire contenant la moitié des chromosomes homologues et une quantité de cytoplasme réduite à son minimum. Le fuseau de deuxième division méiotique se reforme directement excentré et parallèle au cortex. L'ovocyte reste bloqué en attente de la fécondation, qui déclenchera l'achèvement de la méiose avec l'expulsion du second globule polaire contenant la moitié des chromatides sœurs.

L'asymétrie des divisions méiotiques est permise par le positionnement périphérique des fuseaux de division dans cette très grosse cellule de 80 µm de diamètre. Quels sont les mécanismes de positionnement du fuseau?

Les mécanismes de positionnement du fuseau

Lors de la division des cellules somatiques, le fuseau est positionné grâce aux microtubules astraux, nucléés par les centrosomes qui organisent également pôles et microtubules du fuseau. Les ovocytes sont dépourvus de centrosomes canoniques et possèdent à la place des MTOC (*microtubule organizing centers*) dépourvus de centrioles. Le positionnement du fuseau ne dépend donc pas des microtubules, mais de l'actine [1, 2].

En prophase, les ovocytes présentent un réseau de microfilaments d'actine très dense qui se désagrège à NEBD [3], puis réapparaît progressivement formant un réseau cytoplasmique très dynamique comprenant également une cage d'actine entourant le fuseau de microtubules [4, 5] (*Figure 2A*). Ce réseau dépend de la formine-2, un nucléateur

Discussion et perspectives de l'Etude #1

Nous avons montré pour la première fois l'implication du complexe SMRT-GPS2 dans la régulation de la transcription des gènes inflammatoires dans le tissu adipeux humain dans l'obésité. Nous avons notamment démontré que l'invalidation de GPS2 et SMRT dans les adipocytes humains induisait la sécrétion d'un large panel de molécules proinflammatoires dont plus particulièrement les chimiokines telles que CCL2 et IL-8. Cependant, tous les gènes inflammatoires ne semblent pas être affectés par l'invalidation de GPS2 et SMRT (par exemple le TNF α). Ceci suggére donc que GPS2 et SMRT exerce une activité spécifique au niveau de certains loci du génome. Une analyse plus détaillée des mécanismes moléculaires est notamment requise pour comprendre cette spécificité. Une approche « genome-wide mapping » par ChIP-sequencing pourrait notamment nous éclairer sur le mécanisme d'action de GPS2 et de ses partenaires.

De manière plus surprenante, nous avons également révélé que NCOR ne semblait pas jouer un rôle majeur dans la répression de la transcription des gènes inflammatoires dans l'adipocytes humain. Cette observation est intéressante et étonnante car dans d'autres types cellulaire (macrophages, hépatocytes), il semblerait que ce soit plutôt le complexe NCOR-GPS2 qui est responsable de la régulation de gènes inflammatoires. Ceci est en accord avec une étude récente démontrant que l'invalidation de NCOR dans l'adipocyte in vivo est associée à une amélioration de la sensibilité à l'insuline et à une diminution de l'inflammation du tissu adipeux. Cependant, une augmentation de l'adiposité des souris NCOR KO est observée. Ce phénotype est notamment la conséquence de la dé-répression de l'activité transcriptionnelle de PPARy (Li P. et al , Cell 2011). En effet, l'invalidation de NCOR dans les souris miment les effets métaboliques des tiazolidinedione (TZD), agonistes de PPARy.

La combinaison de notre étude et de celle de *Li et al.* suggèrent donc que GPS2 ne serait pas impliqué dans l'activité répressive médié par le complexe NCOR. Cependant, *Cardamone et al.* ont récemment démontré que la surexpression de GPS2 dans les adipocytes était associée à la modulation de l'activité de PPARy. GPS2 aurait donc un rôle à la fois dans le contrôle de l'activité de PPARy ainsi que dans la répression de la transcription des gènes inflammatoires. Afin de décrypter le rôle de GPS2 dans l'adipocyte in vivo, nous avons opté pour le développement de souris invalidées pour GPS2. L'invalidation de GPS2 dans tout l'organisme est délétère à des stades précoces de l'embryogénèse (données personnelles). A fin de caractériser, *in vivo*, le rôle de GPS2 dans les adipocytes, nous avons alors généré des souris invalidées pour GPS2 spécifiquement dans les adipocytes. A notre connaissance aucun modèle d'invalidation de GPS2 dans un tissu spécifique n'a été décrit dans la littérature. Pour générer ces souris, nous avons utilisé le système Cre-Lox. Ce système permet d'invalider un gène dans un type cellulaire exprimant la CRE recombinase. Dans notre cas, nous avons utilisé des souris dont le gène GPS2 est floxé entre les allèles 1 et 6 que nous avons croisées avec des souris exprimant la Cre-recombinase sous le contrôle du promoteur de l'Adiponectine (adipokine uniquement exprimée dans les adipocytes) (Figure 1). Grâce à cela, nous avons généré des souris invalidées pour GPS2 spécifiquement dans l'adipocytes, souris GPS2 AdipoKO (Figure 2).



Figure 1 Schéma d'invalidation de GPS2

Après validation du KO GPS2 dans le tissu adipeux (Figure 2), nous avons placé les souris GPS2-AdipoKO (n=14) et leurs contrôles (littermate) (n=11) sous régime gras (60 % des calories proviennent des lipides) afin d'étudier les conséquences de l'invalidation de GPS2 dans le tissu adipeux lors de l'obésité. Je présenterai quelques résultats préliminaires obtenus.



Figure 2 Validation du KO GPS2 dans le tissu adipeux (tissu adipeux épididimal) par qPCR

Le suivi du poids des souris durant la période de régime montre un pourcentage de prise de poids plus important chez les souris GPS2-AdipoKO. A noter que nous n'observons pas de différences en terme de poids absolu (en gramme) entre les souris. Cela pourrait signifier que cette prise de poids est due à un disfonctionnement métabolique et non pas à une différence de prise alimentaire. De plus, une analyse détaillée de la répartition de la masse maigre et de la masse grasse par IRM démontre que les souris GPS2 AdipoKO ont une augmentation de la masse grasse et une diminution de la masse maigre (non significative) par rapport aux souris contrôles (Figure 3-A et B).



Figure 3 (A) % de prise de poids, (B) masse maigre et masse grasse. (C) Test de tolérance au glucose, (D) Test de tolérance à l'insuline, (E) glycémie à jeun.

Ensuite, nous avons caractérisé l'homéostasie glucidique de ces souris par des tests de tolérance au glucose et à l'insuline. Les souris GPS2 AdipoKO présentent une intolérance au glucose comparé aux souris contrôles alors que la sensibilité à l'insuline n'est pas altérée (Figure 3-C et D). De plus, les souris GPS2 AdipoKO présentent une glycémie à jeun plus élevée que les souris contrôle

L'intolérance au glucose ainsi que l'hyperglycémie observée chez les souris AdipoKO pourraient s'expliquer par l'augmentation de la masse grasse et plus précisément par une accumulation de tissu adipeux viscérale plus importante chez les souris GPS2-AdipoKO (résultats non montrés). L'absence d'effet sur la sensibilité à l'insuline est relativement surprenante. On peut remarquer que la dose d'insuline injectée aux souris induit une diminution de la glycémie d'environ 60 à 70 qui pourrait suggérer que la dose d'insuline injectée est trop importante pour visualiser un effet. Des études complémentaires avec une dose insuline réduite devrait pourvoir éclaircir ce point. Un test de transport du glucose sur adipocytes isolés devrait également nous permettre de mieux apprécier la sensibilité à l'insuline des adipocytes des souris GPS2 AdipoKO et WT.

L'ensemble des ces résultats démontre que l'invalidation de GPS2 dans les adipocytes est associée i) à une augmentation de la masse grasse et 2) une perturbation de l'homéostasie glucidique.

L'altération de l'homéostasie glucidique pourrait être la conséquence d'une inflammation accrue dans le tissu adipeux. Une caractérisation des évènements cellulaires et l'identification des voies signalisations altèrés dans l'adipocytes des souris AdipoKO devraient nous permettre de répondre à cette question.

Il sera également nécessaire de savoir si les complexes NCOR et SMRT peuvent exercer leurs actions répressives lors de l'invalidation de GPS2 dans les adipocytes. Il serait également intéressant de voir si des voies métaboliques tels que la lipolyse ou la lipogenèse sont altérées. Enfin, comme nous l'avons rapporté précédemment, *Cardamone et al.* ont démontré un lien entre GPS2 et l'activité de PPARy, il sera donc nécessaire de décrypter cette interaction. En effet, l'augmentation de l'adiposité des souris AdipoKO pourrait être la conséquence d'une augmentation de l'activité de PPARy en l'absence de GPS2.
Article #2 : La perte de GPS2 déclenche des modifications épigénomiques dans les macrophages qui accélèrent l'inflammation métabolique liée à l'obésité chez les souris et les humains.

(Loss of GPS2 Triggers Epigenomic Alterations in Macrophages that Accelerate Obesity-Associated Metabolic Inflammation in Mice and Humans)

Amine Toubal^{*}, Rongrong Fan^{*}, Saioa Goni, Zhiqiang Huang, Ning Liang, Anastasios Damdimopoulos, Fabienne Foufelle, Jean-Francois Gautier, Nicolas Venteclef and Eckardt Treuter

* These authors equally contributed to this work

Article soumis à Cell Metabolism

Loss of GPS2 Triggers Epigenomic Alterations in Macrophages that Accelerate Obesity-Associated Metabolic Inflammation in Mice and Humans

Highlights

- GPS2 KO macrophages are pro-inflammatory and hypersensitive to metabolic activation
- Loss of GPS2 triggers epigenomic changes at macrophage enhancers and promoters
- Loss of GPS2 in macrophages accelerates obesity-linked metabolic inflammation
- Macrophage GPS2 levels correlate to AT inflammation and insulin resistance in humans

eTOC blurb / In Brief

How closely linked epigenomic/transcriptional alterations and components modulate metabolic inflammation and insulin resistance remains to be clarified. Fan et al. identify the corepressor GPS2 as an epigenomic regulator in mouse/human macrophages and provide evidence that loss of GPS2 accelerates obesity-linked inflammation, particularly in adipose tissue, and systemic insulin resistance.



Loss of GPS2 Triggers Epigenomic Alterations in Macrophages That Accelerate Obesity-Associated Metabolic Inflammation in Mice And Humans

Amine Toubal^{2,3,#}, Rongrong Fan^{1,#}, Saioa Goñi¹, Zhiqiang Huang¹, Patricia Ancel⁴, Ning Liang¹, Anastasios Damdimopoulos¹, Antoine Soprani^{2,5}, Judith Aron-Wisneswsky^{3,6}, Fabienne Foufelle^{2,3}, Jean-Francois Gautier^{2,7}, Nicolas Venteclef^{2,3,*}, and Eckardt Treuter^{1,*}

¹Karolinska Institutet, Department of Biosciences and Nutrition, S-14183 Huddinge, Sweden. ²Sorbonne Universités, Université Pierre et Marie-Curie, INSERM, UMR_S 1138 Cordeliers Research, Paris, France, ³ICAN, Paris, France, ^{4,5} Geoffroy Saint-Hilaire Clinic, General de Santé, Paris, France, ⁶Assistance Publique-Hôpitaux de Paris, Pitié-Salpêtrière Hospital, Heart and Metabolism Division, Paris, France ⁷Assistance Publique-Hôpitaux de Paris, DHU FIRE, Lariboisière Hospital, Department of Diabetes, University Paris-Diderot, Paris, France

Keywords: GPS2, epigenomics, macrophages, inflammation, adipose tissue

Running title: Macrophage GPS2 controls metabolic inflammation

[#]These authors equally contributed to this work.

*Correspondence:

Nicolas Venteclef E-mail: <u>nicolas.venteclef@upmc.fr</u> Eckardt Treuter E-mail: <u>eckardt.treuter@ki.se</u>

SUMMARY

Tissue microenvironment and diverse signals shape the identity and activation states of macrophages. The underlying epigenomic and transcriptional reprogramming events are directed by lineage-determining and signal-responsive transcription factors acting in concert with coregulators. Which coregulators fulfill this role in vivo, particularly in the context of metabolic activation linked to obesity and diabetes, remains poorly defined. We report here that the corepressor GPS2 controls such activation pathways in murine and human macrophages, including adipose tissue macrophages. GPS2-deficient macrophages display pro-inflammatory signatures resembling toll-like receptor activation, including elevated monocyte chemoattractant protein-1, and hypersensitivity towards infectious and metabolic signals. GPS2 occupies H3K27ac-marked enhancers and promoters, which upon GPS2 removal undergo epigenomic alterations linked to transcription. Studies of obesity mouse models and obese/diabetic human subjects reveal a causal relationship between inappropriate GPS2 expression and function, adipose tissue inflammation, and insulin resistance. Thus, corepressor-dependent epigenomic mechanisms in macrophages control the inflammatory response to metabolic activation.

INTRODUCTION

Macrophages play a central role in innate immunity but also in the coordination of acute and metabolic inflammation linked to disease (Murray et al., 2014; Odegaard and Chawla, 2008). They can respond to diverse activating signals, ranging from infectious pathogenderived compounds (such as lipopolysaccharide, LPS) to abundant dietary saturated fatty acids (such as palmitate) during obesity-induced metabolic activation. Notably, the response to different signals occurs via the similar receptor signaling pathways (such as toll-like receptor-4, TLR4) (Shi et al., 2006; Vila et al., 2014), consistent with the conservation of the key molecular components of acute versus metabolic disease-linked inflammation (also referred to as metaflammation)(Gregor and Hotamisligil, 2011). Studies in mice and humans have shown that during obesity progression adipose tissue (AT) expansion coincides with the recruitment of AT macrophages (ATMs), and other types of immune cells, thereby initiating the state of chronic inflammation (Dalmas et al., 2011; Lumeng et al., 2007; Nagareddy et al., 2014; Prieur et al., 2011; Wentworth et al., 2010; Xu et al., 2013; Zeyda et al., 2007). ATMs are a major source of inflammatory chemokines, such as (C-C) motif ligand-2 (CCL2)/monocyte chemoattractant protein-1 (MCP1)(Kanda et al., 2006), and cytokines, such as interleukin-6 (IL6)(Mauer et al., 2014) and tumor necrosis factor alpha (TNF α) (Arner et al., 2010). Recent findings suggest that obesity progression causes a switch of resident ATMs towards a metabolic-inflammatory M1/M2 phenotype (Kratz et al., 2014). All of these cellular mechanisms provoke AT and systemic inflammation finally leading to tissue insulin resistance and type-2 diabetes.

Despite these advances in understanding the physiologic and cellular events that trigger inflammatory signaling linked to macrophage activation during obesity, our knowledge of the underlying control mechanisms at the (epi-) genomic level is currently lacking behind.

Studies using cultured murine macrophages have revealed an intrinsic relationship of transcription factor (TF) binding (cistromes), chromatin modifications (epigenomes) and gene expression (transcriptomes), both under non-stimulated conditions and in response to short-time acute inflammatory signals such as LPS (Gosselin and Glass, 2014; Heinz et al., 2015; Okabe and Medzhitov, 2014; Ostuni et al., 2013; Saeed et al., 2014). These genomic studies identified a key role of lineage-determining 'pioneer' transcription factors (TFs), such as PU.1 and C/EBPs, in establishing the macrophage-specific enhancer/promoter landscape. They further revealed first insights into the role of signal-regulated TFs, such as members of the AP-1/ATF, IRF, and NF- κ B families, in the rapid transcriptional response to acute signals such as LPS/TLR agonists.

To modulate the chromatin landscape and transcription in macrophages, TFs need to cooperate with coregulators. According to recent models, mostly derived from in vitro studies, inflammatory gene activation involves a corepressor - coactivator switch during the transition from inactive into active chromatin states, along with changes in histone marks, which then triggers transcriptional initiation and/or elongation (Gosselin and Glass, 2014; Heinz et al., 2015; Lawrence and Natoli, 2011; Medzhitov and Horng, 2009). Notably, the perceived passive role of coregulators ('being recruited by TFs') likely undermines the regulatory impact of coregulators, which becomes significant in light of possible disease-associated alterations. Therefore, it remains to be explored which of the many candidate coregulators critically modulate macrophage activation, particularly in vivo, and in the context of obesity-associated metabolic inflammation.

Amongst the currently most promising candidates to fulfill such role emerge individual subunits of a conserved corepressor complex containing histone deacetylase-3 (HDAC3), along with the core subunits nuclear receptor corepressor (NCOR), silencing mediator of retinoid and thyroid hormone receptors (SMRT), transducing beta-like proteins

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(TBL1/TBLR1), and G-protein pathway suppressor 2 (GPS2) (Guenther et al., 2000; Li et al., 2002; Oberoi et al., 2011; Zhang et al., 2002). In the inflammatory context, the complex is involved in nuclear receptor transrepression (Glass and Saijo, 2010; Venteclef et al., 2010). The initial studies also revealed that corepressor removal caused de-repression of subsets of inflammatory genes in murine macrophages (Barish et al., 2012; Ghisletti et al., 2009). Surprisingly, macrophage-specific NCOR knockout (KO) mice displayed an anti-inflammatory phenotype, such as reduced AT inflammation and improved insulin sensitivity (Li et al., 2013). This was attributed to liver X receptor (LXR) de-repression of genes involved in the synthesis of anti-inflammatory omega-3 fatty acids. Notably, a distinct anti-inflammatory phenotype, linked to alternative M2 activation, was reported for HDAC3 knockout mice (Chen et al., 2012; Mullican et al., 2011). These findings point at the possibility that corepressors or subunits other than NCOR or HDAC3 serve the predicted anti-inflammatory role in macrophages.

Here we demonstrate a key role of the corepressor complex subunit GPS2 in controlling epigenomic reprograming linked to metabolic macrophage activation, AT inflammation and insulin resistance. By characterizing macrophage-specific KO mice along with obesityassociated alterations in humans we provide evidence that the identified anti-inflammatory GPS2 pathways are essentially conserved in mice and humans. Our study reveals a hitherto unrecognized epigenomic mechanism explaining how the inappropriate action of a corepressor leads to increased signal responsiveness under conditions of metabolic macrophage activation, thereby further accelerating the progression of obesity-associated inflammation and type-2 diabetes.

RESULTS

GPS2-deficient macrophages display a pro-inflammatory gene expression signature and enhanced TLR activation upon infectious or metabolic signaling.

To decipher the function of GPS2 in murine macrophages, we generated myeloid-specific GPS2 knockout mice in the C57BL/6 background (*LysM-Cre-Gps2*^{flox/flox}), hereafter referred to as MKO (Figure S1A). GPS2 was efficiently and specifically removed at the mRNA and protein level in bone marrow-derived macrophages (BMDMs) and in thioglycollate-elicited peritoneal macrophages (TEPMs) of the MKO mice (Figures S1B, S1C and S1D). GPS2 removal did not alter the expression of other core subunits of the corepressor complex in macrophages, and GPS2 expression was unaffected in other tissues examined (e.g. liver, kidney, AT, muscle, brain) (Figure S1E).

In light of the possible diversity between macrophage populations (Lavin et al., 2014; Okabe and Medzhitov, 2014), we investigated GPS2-regulated transcriptomes in three types of murine macrophages (outlined in Figure 1A). We began by analyzing differential gene expression in differentiated but non-stimulated BMDMs from MKO versus WT mice using microarrays (Figure 1B). Of the annotated ~20,000 genes, approximately 1,000 were differentially expressed, with 488 genes up-regulated and 588 genes down-regulated upon GPS2 removal. Pathway analysis revealed that pro-inflammatory signaling pathways were most significantly enhanced in GPS2-deficient BMDM (Figure 1B). To confirm the microarray results, we determined relative mRNA levels of selected pro-inflammatory genes using quantitative real-time PCR (qRT-PCR) in BMDMs (Figure 1C) and TEPMs (Figure 1D). Intriguingly, the expression of CCL-type chemokines such as Ccl2 (Mcp-1) and their respective CCR-type receptors (such as Ccr2 and Ccr5) were amongst the top-regulated genes in both types of MKO macrophages. The expression of cytokine genes such as II1a (encoding

IL1 α , interleukin 1 alpha) was differentially affected in BMDMs versus TEPMs, while the expression of *Tnfa* remained un-changed.

We next profiled the transcriptomes of non-stimulated versus LPS-activated TEPMs from MKO versus WT mice (Figure 1E). We found at the genome-wide scale that the proinflammatory GPS2 signature, obtained in non-stimulated BMDMs, substantially overlaps with the LPS/TLR4 signature characteristic for pro-inflammatory macrophage activation (previous referred to as classic M1-type activation). The microarray results additionally suggested that GPS2 removal might affect the LPS responses in macrophages. To elaborate this further in both BMDMs and TEPMs, we treated macrophages from WT and MKO mice for 6 hr with low-dose LPS and quantified gene expression by qRT-PCR (Figures 1F and S1F). We observed an enhanced LPS response of the chemokine genes Ccl2 and Ccl7 in both types of MKO macrophages, while the cytokine genes Il1b and Il6 were enhanced only in MKO TEPMs, consistent with different origin and in part distinct chromatin landscapes of these macrophages. That the 'sensitized' LPS response upon GPS2 depletion is a general phenomenon and not restricted to one macrophage population was confirmed in the RAW264.7 macrophage cell line (hereafter referred to as RAW cells) using adenovirusmediated RNA interference (Figure S1G). On the contrary, ectopic over-expression of GPS2 in RAW cells suppressed LPS-activation of the same genes (Figure S1H).

Given the increased LPS-sensitivity of GPS2-deficient macrophages in vitro, we also wanted to investigate the in vivo consequences in a mouse model of LPS-induced endotoxemia. WT and MKO mice were subjected to intraperitoneal (i.p.) injection of LPS at a lower or a lethally high dose. Gene expression analysis of peritoneal macrophages from WT and GPS2 MKO injected with a lower dose of LPS confirmed that the pro-inflammatory LPS response in vivo (after 16 hr) was exacerbated in MKO mice (Figure S1I). Injection with a lethal LPS dose resulted in the rapid death of MKO mice due to endotoxic shock (within 18

hr), while WT mice were more resistant to LPS infection and survived up to 48 hr (Figure S1J).

The TLR4 pathway is known to participate in the orchestration of metabolic inflammation through sensing abundant saturated fatty acids such as palmitate (C16:0), which are particularly enriched in high-fat diet (HFD) and trigger inflammation of AT (Kratz et al., 2014). We therefore asked whether metabolic activation was similarly affected by GPS2-removal from macrophages. We treated TEPMs from WT and MKO mice for 24 hr with palmitate and observed that the expression of pro-inflammatory signature genes was enhanced in GPS2-deficient macrophages (Figure 1G). Related responses were obtained using selective synthetic TLR agonists, further strengthening the involvement of GPS2 in suppressing TLR activation (data not shown).

Even more significant was the question whether related changes can be observed under physiological conditions in AT, and in particular in stromal vascular fraction (SVF) containing AT macrophages (ATMs) and other types of immune cells but lacking adipocytes. Thus, in a second set of experiments we analyzed gene expression in the SVF of epididymal (visceral) AT (epiWAT) of WT and MKO mice fed with a low fat diet (LFD) (Figure 1H). The results confirmed the enhanced expression of GPS2 signature genes (e.g. *Ccl2, Ccl4* and *Ccl7*) in a tissue macrophage environment enriched in saturated fatty acids. While the expression of the cytokines *Il1b* and *Il6* was not affected in MKO mice fed with a LFD, they were affected along with *Ccl* chemokines in isolated ATMs of MKO mice upon HFD feeding (see Figure 4D).

Together, these data suggest a dual anti-inflammatory role of GPS2 in (i) preventing (partial) TLR activation in non-stimulated macrophages, and further in (ii) enhancing proinflammatory TLR responses by sensitizing macrophages to different infectious (acute) and metabolic (chronic) stimuli.

Intersection of the GPS2 cistrome, epigenome and transcriptome in macrophages

In order to define the chromatin occupancy (cistrome) of GPS2, in relation to the epigenomic landscape (epigenome) in murine macrophages, we performed chromatin immunoprecipitation-coupled genomic sequencing (ChIP-seq) in BMDMs of WT versus MKO mice (Figure 2). GPS2 ChIP-seq in macrophages was established and controlled using two different custom-made GPS2 antibodies raised against separate N/C-terminal epitopes (Figures S2A and S2B), in conjunction with validated antibodies against key chromatin marks linked to the modulation of transcription, namely H3K4me3 (marking promoters) and H3K27ac (marking active enhancers and promoters) (Lavin et al., 2014). MKO and input samples served as additional controls. Analysis of the genomic distribution of tag counts (peaks) revealed that approximately 50% of the total 16,283 GPS2 binding sites mapped to promoters (proximal to the transcription start sites, TSS) and enhancers (intergenic regions, distal to the TSS) (Figures 2A, 2E and 2F).

De novo motif analysis (Figures 2B and 2C) predicted that GPS2-bound regions were specifically enriched for motifs recognized by lineage-specifying transcription factors such as PU.1/ETS, C/EBP and RUNX, consistent with the role of these factors in establishing the macrophage-specific enhancer landscape (Heinz et al., 2015). Amongst the motifs recognized by pro-inflammatory signal-regulated transcription factors, AP-1/ATF and IRF motifs were most abundantly found in GPS2-bound regions, suggesting GPS2 to repress pro-inflammatory gene expression in part by targeting or interfering with these factors. Surprisingly, NF- κ B motifs and nuclear receptor half-site motifs were only poorly enriched of the GPS-bound regions, raising questions about the importance of these TFs in communicating with GPS2 in macrophages, at least at the genome-wide level.

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The comparative analysis of changes in histone marks and transcriptomes in MKO versus WT macrophages uncovered quantitative increases of H3K27ac and H3K4me3 signal intensity at enhancers/promoters of pro-inflammatory signature genes that were up-regulated upon GPS2-removal (Figures 2D and 2H), indicative of transcriptional de-repression/activation. As an example, in GPS2-deficient macrophages H3K27 acetylation increased by up to 69% and 109% at the promoters of the 'GPS2-sensitive' *Ccl2* and *Ccl7* gene cluster respectively, and by 41% at the first enhancer (E1, 13 kb upstream of TSS), and around 65% at the second enhancer (E2, 30 kb upstream of TSS) (Figure 2D).

To investigate whether GPS2 possibly functions in conjunction with the corepressor complex in macrophages, we re-analyzed and compared the cistrome characteristics of GPS2 to those earlier reported for NCOR, SMRT and HDAC3 in BMDMs (Barish et al., 2012; Mullican et al., 2011) (Figure S2). The analysis revealed an extensive overlap of promoter/enhancer binding sites, with 6,867 sites to be co-occupied by all three complex core subunits (Figure S2C). The example of the GPS2 top-regulated signature gene *Ccl2* illustrates the nearly identical binding pattern of GPS2, NCOR, SMRT, and HDAC3, as demonstrated by the UCSC Genome Browser view (Figure S2D). These results were confirmed by ChIP-qRT-PCR and extended to demonstrate that LPS-activation induced the release of GPS2 along with NCOR, SMRT and HDAC3 from the distinct promoter/enhancer regions controlling *Ccl2* expression (Figure S2E), while no recruitment or release of the complex was seen at a negative control region.

Overall, these results indicate that GPS2 likely functions along with, and/or as a core subunit, of the corepressor complex to repress pro-inflammatory gene expression in macrophages.

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Macrophage GPS2-deficiency changes AT properties and promotes macrophage infiltration upon diet-induced obesity

Importantly, analysis of *Gps2* expression in epiWAT of WT mice subjected to control lowfat diet (LFD) versus HFD for 4, 8 and 12 weeks revealed a significant decrease of GPS2 mRNA levels (Figure 3A). In addition, GPS2 expression levels were negatively correlated to macrophage infiltration (F4/80⁺CD11b⁺ cells) and insulin-resistance index (HOMA-IR) (Figures 3B and 3C). Therefore, the down-regulation of GPS2 levels in response to HFD might be a compensatory mechanism that limits the anti-inflammatory action of GPS2 in macrophages under conditions of obesity.

To investigate whether and how the lack of GPS2 in macrophages affects ATM function and gene expression in vivo under conditions of metaflammation, WT and MKO mice were subjected to 60% HFD feeding, compared to LFD for 12 weeks. We found that removal of GPS2 from macrophages did not result in significant changes in body weight gain (Figure 3D), and food and water intake (Figures S3A). However, weight analysis of three distinct fat depots revealed that MKO mice had significantly increased retroperitoneal visceral fat (retWAT) (Figure 3E), contributing to the slightly increased total fat mass (Figure S3B). We additionally found that accumulation of inflammatory macrophages in WAT of MKO mice contributed to the modifications of AT properties marked by reduced adipocyte size (Figures 3F and S3C), an increase of fibro-inflammatory markers (Figure S3D), and increased basal lipolytic activity, indicated by elevated glycerol release from AT (Figure S3E). Most strikingly, the infiltration of macrophages (F4/80⁺CD11b⁺ ATMs) was increased in MKO compared to WT mice within both WAT depots (ingWAT and epiWAT), as visualized by immunohistochemistry (IHC) (Figure 3G) and quantified by flow cytometry (Figure 3H and 3I). Specifically, the increase of the F4/80⁺CD11b⁺ ATM fraction in MKO mice was due to an increase in both CD11c⁺ and CD206⁺ pro-inflammatory macrophages (Figure 3I).

In conclusion, these data imply that loss of GPS2 in macrophages sensitizes the response of AT to HFD (i.e. metabolic stress, lipotoxicity, TLR activation), characterized by closely related inflammatory (chemotaxis, macrophage infiltration), metabolic (lipolysis), and structural (adipocyte size, fibrosis) alterations.

Macrophage GPS2-deficiency causes enhanced pro-inflammatory gene expression in AT in response to HFD feeding

To proof whether increased macrophage infiltration in MKO AT was likely a consequence of corresponding changes in gene expression, MKO versus WT mice were subjected to HFD feeding and analyzed by microarray and qRT-PCR (schematically outlined in Figure 4A). Indeed, transcriptome profiling of ATMs, isolated from epiWAT, followed by pathway analysis confirmed that GPS2-removal provoked an enhanced pro-inflammatory response upon 12 weeks HFD (Figure 4B). This was further substantiated by a kinetic qRT-PCR analysis of the HFD response in AT, demonstrating an elevated expression of GPS2 signature chemokines, such as Ccl2, and cytokines, such as Il6, in both epiWAT and ingWAT of MKO mice (Figures 4C and S4A). Consistent with the fact that visceral fat depots are often more susceptible to inflammation than subcutaneous fat, the elevated pro-inflammatory signature in epiWAT was seen already after 4 weeks of HFD feeding. These changes were confirmed to specifically occur in the F4/80+ macrophage fraction, but not in adipocytes (Figures 4D and S4D). To support that the changes were specifically caused by GPS2, and not by alterations of associated complex subunits, we validated that the expression of Ncor and Smrt was not changed in macrophages or adipocytes of epiWAT (Figure S4B and S4C). We finally demonstrated that the transcriptome alterations in GPS2-deficient macrophages provoked a systemic increase of the encoded gene products CCL2, IL6 and TNFa upon HFD (Figure 4E). Thus, macrophage GPS2 likely has a crucial role in limiting metaflammatory responses in the

AT itself, and in limiting systemic responses originating from AT under conditions of dietinduced obesity.

Macrophage GPS2-deficiency exacerbates insulin resistance in peripheral tissues during diet-induced obesity

In light of the initial observed correlation between GPS2 levels and insulin resistance score upon HFD feeding (Figure 3C), we closer investigated glucose homeostasis in MKO versus WT mice. We observed that both fasting and feeding blood glucose levels were elevated in MKO mice, in conjunction with increased serum insulin levels, suggesting that these mice were more insulin-resistant according to the HOMA-IR index (Figures 5A-5C). Oral glucose tolerance test (OGTT) showed that MKO mice were less glucose-tolerant than WT mice, despite increased serum insulin during the glycemic burst (Figures 5D and S5A). Insulin tolerance test (ITT) confirmed that MKO mice became more insulin resistant than WT mice after 12 weeks of HFD (Figure 5E). For both tests, no changes between WT and MKO mice were detected under control LFD conditions (Figures S5B and S5C).

Consistent with the increased basal lipolysis detected in the AT of MKO mice (Figures S3D and S3E), the mice showed elevated circulating non-esterified/free fatty acids (NEFA) levels (Figure 5F) and accumulated ectopic fat in the liver (Figure 5G). Correspondingly, liver weight and intrahepatic triglyceride (TG) content increased, indicating worsening of the HFD-induced steatosis in MKO mice (Figure 5H and 5I). These metabolic changes were accompanied by substantially elevated macrophage infiltration (Figure 5J) and pro-inflammatory gene expression (Figure S5D) in the livers of MKO mice upon 12 weeks HFD feeding. Elevated insulin-resistance as consequence of GPS2 dysfunction was confirmed at the intracellular level, as AKT phosphorylation, a read-out of intracellular insulin signaling, in

epiWAT, muscle and liver was reduced after *in vivo* insulin stimulation in MKO mice compared to WT mice (Figures 5K and 5L).

Taken together, the MKO-derived results infer a mechanism thereby macrophage GPS2 protects against metabolic inflammation of AT, contributes to maintaining systemic insulin sensitivity, and prevents ectopic lipid partitioning in the liver (steatosis) under conditions of HFD-induced obesity. Therefore, the data support a causal relationship between macrophage GPS2 function and the extent of metaflammation in metabolic tissues.

The pro-inflammatory GPS2 signature is conserved in human macrophages

To address translational aspects including human disease relevance, we asked whether the mouse model derived pathways controlled by macrophage GPS2 were essentially conserved in humans. In analogy to the murine macrophage in vitro experiments (Figures 1 and S1), we depleted GPS2 using RNAi in human monocyte-derived macrophages (HMDMs) under basal (non-stimulated) conditions and determined gene expression changes using microarray and qRT-PCR (as outlined in Figure 6A). Pathway analysis of GPS2-regulated transcriptomes revealed pro-inflammatory TLR and chemokine signaling to be major pathways linked to genes that were up-regulated upon GPS2-depletion (Figure 6B). The mice and humans conserved pro-inflammatory GPS2 signature was confirmed by qRT-PCR and identified in addition to CCL2/4/5/7 the interleukin 8 gene (IL8, CXCL8) as a major cytokine to be under GPS2 control in human macrophages (Figure 6C). We next tested the response to TLR ligands and found that GPS2 depletion caused a substantially increased response of CCL2, CCL7 and IL8 to LPS (TLR4) or HKLM (TLR2) (Figure 6D), while as in mice TNFA was not significantly changed. We proceeded to characterize GPS2-dependent human ATM signatures using loss- and gain of function studies in vitro (as outlined in Figure S6A). We isolated CD14⁺ macrophages from either subcutaneous AT (SAT) of non-obese subjects (i.e. ATMs from a low-grade inflammation environment), or from visceral AT (VAT) of obese subjects (i.e. ATMs from a high-grade inflammation environment), and subjected them to RNAimediated depletion (Figure S6B) or adenovirus-mediated overexpression of GPS2 (Figure S6C), respectively, followed by qRT-PCR analysis. GPS2 depletion in SAT ATMs provoked an increase of *CCL2* and *IL8* expression while not changing *IL1B* and *IL6* expression (Figure 6E). By contrast, GPS2 overexpression in VAT ATMs strongly repressed pro-inflammatory chemokine (*CCL2*, *IL8* and *CCL5*) and cytokine (*IL1B* and *IL6*) gene expression (Figure 6F). These data indicate that GPS2 plays a conserved anti-inflammatory role in mouse and human macrophages, i.e. by suppressing a pro-inflammatory gene expression signature under nonstimulated conditions, and by enhancing the responses of this signature to pro-inflammatory TLR signaling.

Macrophage GPS2 expression levels correlate with AT inflammation and type-2 diabetes in obese humans

Given that macrophage GPS2 acts anti-inflammatory in murine and human ATMs derived from AT, the HFD-induced down-regulation of *Gps2* expression in murine ATMs prompted us to study GPS2 levels and correlations to inflammatory and diabetic status in human ATMs. We found that *GPS2* expression was generally lower in visceral AT (VAT), known as the most inflamed AT depot, compared to subcutaneous AT (SAT), suggesting a relationship of GPS2 levels to the inflammatory status of AT (Figure S7A).

Intriguingly, *GPS2* mRNA and protein levels were reduced in CD14⁺-selected visceral ATMs from obese subjects (Figure 7A), and in the corresponding SVF (Figure S7B), compared to non-obese subjects, while no alterations were observed for *NCOR* and *SMRT* mRNA levels (Figure S7E). Moreover, *GPS2* expression in ATMs negatively correlated with pro-inflammatory signature genes such as *CCL2* (Figure 7B), *IL8* (Figure 7C) and *CCL7*

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(Figure S7H), while it positively correlated with the anti-inflammatory marker gene *IL10* (Figure S7I). Taken together, these data strongly suggest that GPS2 expression is associated with the inflammatory status of human ATMs during obesity.

Inflammatory signature of ATM in VAT was recently reported to be enhanced in obese subjects developing type-2 diabetes (Dalmas et al., 2014). Our finding that *Gps2*-deficient MKO mice became diabetic during HFD-induced obesity, prompted us to investigate the role of *GPS2* expression in this relationship in humans. We observed that *GPS2* expression in AT and ATMs was generally lower in diabetic subjects compared to non-diabetic subjects, both in obese and non-obese subjects (Figures 7D and 7E), while the expression of NCOR or SMRT was not significantly altered in these subjects (Figure S7F and S7G). This suggested an association between *GPS2* dysregulation and type-2 diabetes, which was further supported by a strong correlation of HbA1c levels with *GPS2* expression in ATMs from both obese and non-obese populations (Figures 7F and 7G). Collectively, these data support the hypothesis that dysregulation of GPS2 expression and function in macrophages is a pioneer event that accelerates AT inflammation and the onset of type-2 diabetes in humans.

DISCUSSION

Our study identifies the corepressor GPS2 as an epigenomic component of metabolic macrophage activation in the context of obesity. The analysis of a novel macrophage-specific GPS2 mouse model along with the study of obese and/or diabetic human subjects suggests that depletion or reduction of GPS2 promotes pro-inflammatory gene activation, in particular elevated CCL2, and sensitizes responses of macrophages including ATMs towards infectious and metabolic signals. These findings point at a causal relationship between inappropriate GPS2 expression and function, the extent of tissue inflammation, and systemic insulin resistance. The underlying mechanisms appear conserved between mice and humans and exemplify how the metabolic disease environment shapes the chromatin landscape, and vice versa.

Given the mouse/human conservation of the identified GPS2 pathways, our study helps to better interpret the role of epigenetic mechanisms in human metabolic health and disease. For example, although obesity is commonly associated with risk factors for cardiovascular disease including insulin resistance and type-2 diabetes, some obese people with a similar body max index (BMI) do not developed metabolic and/or inflammatory abnormalities (Ahima and Lazar, 2013). There are likely several molecular reasons responsible for such individual differences but some could be related to epigenomic mechanisms described here and in adipocytes (Kang et al., 2015; Toubal et al., 2013a). Indeed, our HFD-fed GPS2 MKO mice develop more rapidly metabolic alterations (fatty liver, glucose intolerance and insulin resistance), while no weight difference was observed compared to WT mice. This phenotype is intriguingly comparable to the human situation of the metabolically healthy versus unhealthy obese subjects. As another example, immune cells including macrophages receive recent attention as they are ultimately linked to the pathological alterations of AT during the manifestation of the inflamed obesity status (Kratz et al., 2014; Xu et al., 2013). Less clear is how macrophages maintain a pro-inflammatory status during the continued progression obesity and diabetes. Epigenetic/transcriptional alterations have been proposed to play roles in establishing a metabolic 'memory' in AT, particularly in adipocytes (Toubal et al., 2013b). Our findings point at a related 'inflammatory memory' in macrophages, thereby decreased GPS2 expression in AT/ATMs in obese and/or diabetic humans limits its anti-inflammatory capacity in macrophages during the progression of metabolic disease, thereby helping to maintain the chronic inflamed status.

Our study uncovers a hitherto unrecognized epigenomic feature of corepressor action during the signal-dependent transcriptional activation linked to metaflammation. The comparative analysis of GPS2 cistrome, epigenome and transcriptome revealed that GPS2 occupies H3K27ac-marked enhancers at regulated genes, which undergo epigenomic changes upon GPS2 removal. De-repression is not the only consequence of loss of GPS2, as the responses to acute (LPS) and metabolic (palmitate, HFD) signals were further enhanced. This is compatible with recent findings demonstrating that increased H3K27ac at enhancers opens the entrance for incoming TFs upon signaling (Stasevich et al., 2014). Intriguingly, an epigenomic memory mechanism would explain how alterations of GPS2 levels modulate the activity of inducible inflammatory TFs (such as AP1, IRFs), even in the absence of physical interactions between GPS2 and these TFs. Overall, the epigenomic and signal-sensitizing function of GPS2 in macrophages complements and goes beyond earlier described antiinflammatory actions of GPS2 actions in hepatocytes (Venteclef et al., 2010) and in adipocytes (Cardamone et al. 2012; Toubal et al., 2013a). We therefore propose that obesitymediated GPS2-dependent epigenomic changes in human macrophages including ATMs establish an epigenomic memory that accelerates inflammatory responses to metabolic signals.

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Our data indicate that GPS2 MKO mice are a relevant disease model for metaflammation, characterized by the hallmarks (i) chronic elevated low-level inflammation under basic/chow (ii) accelerated AT inflammation and macrophage infiltration (iii) diet conditions, development of systemic insulin resistance under diet-induced obesity conditions (Gregor and Hotamisligil, 2011). While the anti-inflammatory GPS2 corepressor function is documented in several murine and human cell types in vivo and in vitro, the functions of other subunits of the corepressor complex, i.e. NCOR and HDAC3, appear more complex (as already introduced). For example, NCOR MKO mice showed an unexpected pro-inflammatory phenotype with reduced AT inflammation and improved insulin sensitivity upon HFDfeeding due to de-repression of LXR pathways linked to the synthesis of omega-3 fatty acids (Li et al., 2013). In contrast, both our phenotype and the genomic data suggest that GPS2 has no major role in repressing these pathways in macrophages (unpublished results). Although GPS2 seems to communicate with LXRs and PPARs at certain other genes (Cardamone et al., 2014; Jakobsson et al., 2009; Venteclef et al., 2010), the distinct epigenomic landscape in macrophages along with the cell type-specific pathways likely accounts for these differences.

Despite in part separate pathways controlled by GPS2 versus other complex subunits, ChIP-seq revealed co-recruitment of GPS2, NCOR, SMRT and HDAC3 at most of the highly regulated inflammatory 'GPS2 signature' genes such as *Ccl2*. How these apparently converging macrophage cistromes relate to transcriptomes remains an issue to be clarified. For example, a comparison of our GPS2 data to reported HDAC3 transcriptome data (Chen et al., 2012) revealed that many of the GPS2 top-regulated pro-inflammatory genes were not coregulated (e.g. *Ccl2*), while others were (e.g. *Ptgs1*) (data not shown). It remains possible that GPS2, HDAC3 or NCOR/SMRT function at some genes in distinct sub-complexes, or even out-of-complex. Addressing these issues by ChIP-seq approaches remains a challenge, particularly for coregulators and from limited cell numbers (such has ATMs). As another point of consideration, the emerging concept of 'hot spots' (Siersbaek et al., 2014) implies that TFs and coregulators accumulate at extended H3K27ac-marked enhancer regions, exemplified by the *Ccl2/Ccl7* locus, in part irrespective of their functional activity for the transcription of adjacent genes. Evidently, context (chromatin landscape, inflammatory factors, PTMs) decides whether or not a coregulator, despite being bound to chromatin, also impacts on gene expression at a given locus.

Finally, we describe with GPS one of the first examples of an epigenomic modifier those expression/function in macrophages/ATMs/AT is influenced by the metaflammatory disease status. This suggests therapeutic possibilities to delay or even reverse metaflammation by restoring GPS2 expression/function. The apparent uncoupling of anti-inflammatory GPS2 pathways from macrophage differentiation and metabolism may offer additional alternatives for future interventions.

EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

Mouse models

The generation of GPS2 myeloid-specific knockout (MKO) mice and the in vivo treatments are described in detail in Supplemental Experimental Procedures. All animal experiments were approved by the Karolinska Institutet and Paris-Sorbonne University ethical boards, and were conducted in accordance with Swedish or French official guidelines for experimental animals, respectively.

Human samples

Visceral AT (VAT) and subcutaneous AT (SAT) biopsies were obtained from different groups of subjects, as detailed in Table S1. SAT and VAT from lean subjects were obtained after local surgery, and VAT from obese subjects after bariatric surgery. Blood samples from healthy volunteer donors (Etablissement français du sang) were used for HMDM experiments. See Supplemental Experimental Procedures for further details.

Primary macrophage isolation and treatments

Mouse primary BMDMs, TEPMs, ATMs, and human primary HMDMs, ATMs were isolated and cultured in vitro, as detailed in Supplemental Experimental Procedures. For LPS treatment, mouse and human cells were incubated in 10% heat-inactivated FBS and 1% P/S supplemented DMEM, and treated with 10 ng/ml LPS (Sigma) for 6 hr. For other treatments and siRNA transfection and adenovirus mediated ectopic over-expression or shRNA knocking down, see Supplemental Experimental Procedures.

Transciptome analysis by microarray

Total RNA from mice and human samples was hybridized to Affymetrix or Illumina chips, respectively. The data were analyzed as previously described (Toubal et al., 2013a). Analysis of enrichment of KEGG pathway was carried out with WebGestalt. See Supplemental Experimental Procedures for details.

ChIP/ChIP-seq and data analysis

Nuclear lysates of BMDMs were isolated as described in Supplemental Experimental Procedures. Each lysate was immunoprecipitated with 1-10 µg of the following antibodies: control rabbit IgG (Santa Cruz, sc-2027), anti-H3K4me3 (Abcam, ab8580), anti-H3K27ac (Abcam, ab4729), anti-NCOR (Abcam, ab24552), anti-SMRT (Bethyl laboratories, A301-147A), anti-HDAC3 (Abcam, ab7030) and anti-GPS2 (Toubal et al., 2013a). 10% of the total lysate per ChIP was used as input. Quantification of the immunoprecipitated DNA regions (specific and negative control) was performed by qRT-PCR. See Table S4 for primer sequences. For library preparation and sequencing, 5-10 ng of ChIPed DNA was processed at the EMBL Genomics Core Facility (Heidelberg, Germany) using standard protocols and 50SE reads were obtained in the Illumina HiSeq 2000 (Illumina). For further analysis details refer to Supplemental Experimental Procedures.

Statistical Analysis

All data are represented as mean \pm SEM. The differences between groups were assessed by parametric tests (Student T test two-way ANOVA) or non-parametric test (Mann-Whitney or Kruskal-Wallis) test with a post hoc test. Significance code is *, # p < 0.05, **, ## p < 0.01, ***, ### p < 0.001. All tests were performed using the Prism software (GraphPad Software, Inc., La Jolla, CA).

ACCESSION NUMBERS

Microarray and ChIP-seq data have been deposited in NCBI's Gene Expression Omnibus (GEO) under the accession number GSE66774 and 66874.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

R.F., A.T., N.V. and E.T conceived the study, interpreted data and wrote the manuscript. R.F and A.T. performed the majority of experiments and analyzed data. N.L., S.G. and Z.H contributed to the in vivo studies and data analyses. S.G. and A.D. performed the genomic/ChIP studies and analyzed data. J-F.G., J.A-W, A.S., A.T., P.A. and N.V. collected, analyzed and interpreted the human data.

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FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1. GPS2-deficient (MKO) macrophages display a pro-inflammatory gene signature and are sensitized for TLR activation

(A) Flowchart illustrating the isolation and genomic analysis of murine macrophages from three different origins (see also Figure 2).

(B) Heat map representing global gene expression in WT and MKO BMDMs, along with the heat map representing the top up-regulated genes in MKO BMDMs (n = 3 mice per group). Green and red intensity were used for down- and up-regulation, respectively. Indicated are the top KEGG pathways for up-regulated genes (at least 1.5 fold increase, p < 0.05).

(C, D) Gene expression profiles in BMDMs and TEPMs macrophages from WT and MKO mice were determined by qRT-PCR. n = 3 mice per group.

(E) WT and MKO TEPMs were treated with LPS (10 ng/ml) or vehicle for 6 hr and the genome-wide transcriptome was determined by microarray. Bar code plot representing the similarity of LPS-response genes with GPS2-regulated genes (up- or down-regulated in MKO). The red line represents enrichment of MKO up-regulated gene signatures comparing with LPS up-regulated signatures while the green line represents down-regulated genes. n = 3 mice per group.

(F) WT and MKO TEPMs were treated with 10 ng/ml LPS or vehicle for 6 hr and gene expression was measured by qRT-PCR. n = 3 mice per group.

(G) WT and MKO TEPMs were treated with 0.4 mM palmitate or vehicle for 24 hr. Inflammatory gene expression after palmitate treatment was measured by qRT-PCR. n = 3 mice per group.

(H) EpiWAT SVF (containing ATMs) from WT and MKO mice on LFD for 12 weeks was analyzed for gene expression by qRT-PCR. n = 13 mice per group. All data are represented as mean \pm SEM. ^{**} p <0.01, ^{***} p <0.001. See also Figure S1.

Figure 2. Loss of GPS2-binding to chromatin dictates epigenomic changes at macrophage promoters and enhancers

(A) Genome-wide distribution of GPS2 chromatin occupancy in BMDMs relative to RefSeq genes as determined by ChIP-seq (see also Figures 1A, S2A and S2B).

(B) De novo motif analysis of GPS2 peaks in BMDMs.

(C) Average peak profile showing the probability of finding TF motifs in GPS2 peaks. The xaxis represents the distance from the peak center and the y-axis represents associated TF binding sites per bp per peak.

(D) UCSC genome browser tracks of the GPS2, H3K27ac and H3K4me3 peak distribution at the *Ccl2-Ccl7* locus. Numbers represent the percentage of increased enrichment of chromatin marks onto the promoter/enhancer regions when comparing MKO with WT BMDMs.

(E) Intersection of the GPS2 cistrome and epigenome in BMDMs as assessed by a density plot indicating the distribution of GPS2, H3K27ac and H3K4me3 peaks relative to the closest TSS.

(F) GPS2, H3K27ac and H3K4me3 peaks were aligned with respect to the GPS2 peak center in a window of ± 2 kb. Each line represents one peak out of total 16283 peaks.

(G) Volcano plot indicating the presence of GPS2 peaks (cistrome) at genes that were regulated (transcriptome) in MKO relative to WT BMDMs (see Figure 1B). Red dots represent genes with annotated GPS2 peaks. Highlighted are individual GPS2 signature genes.(H) Binomial plot showing the probability of genes being up- (red) or down-regulated (green) in MKO macrophages in relation to the H3K27ac signal change. The red plot represents up-

22
regulated gene loci and the green plot represents down-regulated gene loci. See also Figure S2.

Figure 3. Macrophage GPS2-deficiency elevates AT inflammation and lipolysis during HFD-induced obesity

(A) *Gps2* mRNA levels in epiWAT of WT mice fed with a LFD (for 12 weeks) or HFD for 4, 8 and 12 weeks. (LFD 12 weeks n = 5; HFD 4 weeks n = 4; 8 weeks n = 5, 12 weeks n = 6) (B, C) Correlative analysis between *Gps2* mRNA levels and (B) percentage of macrophages identified as CD11b⁺F4/80⁺ ATMs (n = 16) and (C) insulin resistance index (HOMA-IR), in mice fed with a HFD for 12 weeks (n = 19). Correlations were assessed by non-parametric Spearman's test.

(D) WT and MKO mice were subjected to 12 weeks HFD. Body weight was measured at the start point (8 weeks old mice, n = 17) and every week during HFD feeding.

(E) Weight of epididymal fat (epiWAT), retroperitoneal fat (retWAT) and inguinal fat (ingWAT) from MKO and WT mice after 12 weeks HFD. n = 7 mice per group.

(F) The left panel represents a quantification of adipocyte size (cross-sectional area) from WT and MKO HFD-fed mice. n = 7 mice per group. The right panel represents the partition of adipocytes in epiWAT as the ratio of the number of cells from WT and MKO mice, defined as small (<50 µm), medium (50-100 µm) and large (>100 µm) cells. 3 cross-sectional areas were quantified per mouse. n = 7 mice per group.

(G) Representative image of macrophage infiltration in epiWAT from WT and MKO mice (n = 6) as assessed by anti-F4/80 antibody staining.

(H) Representative FACS plots showing frequencies of CD11b⁺F4/80⁺ macrophages among stromal CD45⁺ cells isolated from epiWAT of WT and MKO mice on HFD. (I) Number of macrophages per gram of epiWAT. Macrophage subpopulations were identified by expression of CD206 or CD11c among CD11b⁺F4/80⁺ cells isolated from epiWAT of WT and MKO mice on HFD. n = 7 mice per group.

All data are represented as mean \pm SEM. ^{***} p <0.001 versus LFD or WT control. See also Figure S3.

Figure 4. Macrophage GPS2-deficiency elevates pro-inflammatory gene expression in AT during HFD-induced obesity

(A) Flowchart illustrating the analysis of HFD feeding kinetics.

(B) Microarray analysis of the HFD transcriptome in isolated ATMs (immune-selected F4/80⁺ SVF cells) from epiWAT of WT and MKO mice fed with a HFD for 12 weeks. KEGG terms for up-regulated gene pathways were analyzed using WebGestalt. n = 5 mice per group.

(C) Kinetics of pro-inflammatory gene expression upon HFD-feeding in epiWAT from WT and MKO mice. n = 4-7 mice per group.

(D) qRT-PCR analysis of pro-inflammatory gene expression in isolated ATMs (immuneselected F4/80⁺ SVF cells) from epiWAT of WT and MKO mice fed with a HFD for 12 weeks. n = 7 mice per group.

(E) Serum concentration of CCL2, IL6, and TNF α was determined in HFD-fed WT and MKO mice. n = 12-13 mice per group.

All data are represented as mean \pm SEM. *p <0.05, **p <0.01, ***p <0.001 versus WT control. See also Figure S4.

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Figure 5. Macrophage GPS2-deficiency provokes systemic glucose intolerance, insulin resistance and inflammation during diet-induced obesity

(A-C) HFD-fed WT and MKO mice were measured for (A) fasting and fed blood glucose levels, (B) fasting insulin levels, and (C) HOMA-IR index. n = 9-10 mice in each group.

(D, E) Oral glucose tolerance test (OGTT) and insulin tolerance test (ITT) in HFD-fed WT and MKO mice. n = 9-17 mice per group.

(F) Measurement of NEFA concentration in the blood from WT and MKO mice upon 12 weeks HFD-feeding. n = 7 mice per group.

(G) Representative images of liver HE staining from WT and MKO mice (n = 6).

(H, I) Determination of liver weight and quantification of intra-hepatic triglyceride (TG) content in WT and MKO mice after 12 weeks HFD. n = 6-11 per group.

(J) Representative F4/80 staining of livers from WT and MKO mice (n = 6). Arrows indicate areas of macrophage infiltration.

(K, L) WT and MKO HFD-fed mice were fasted for 6 hr and then injected intraperitoneally with 1 U/kg insulin for 15 min and sacrificed. (K) Representative tissue samples were examined by western blot analysis using antibodies to AKT and phosphorylated AKT (pAKT-S473). (L) The ratio of p-AKT to AKT was quantified by densitometry. n = 3 mice per group.

All data are represented as mean \pm SEM. *p <0.05, **p <0.01, ***p <0.001 versus WT group. See also Figure S5.

Figure 6. GPS2-depletion in human macrophages (HMDMs, ATMs) induces a proinflammatory gene signature and elevated TLR2/4 responses

(A) Flowchart illustrating the isolation and transcriptome analysis of HMDMs.

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(B) Heat map and KEGG pathway analysis of up-regulated genes in siGPS2-depleted HMDMs determined by microarray. n = 6 (different healthy, non-obese donors).

(C) Gene expression in GPS2 siRNA-transfected HMDMs was determined by qRT-PCR. n =
 6 (different healthy, non-obese donors)

(D) Gene expression in GPS2 siRNA-transfected HMDMs treated with HKLM (TLR2 agonist) or LPS (TLR4 agonist) for 6 hr was determined by qRT-PCR. n = 6 (different healthy, non-obese donors).

(E) Analysis of pro-inflammatory gene expression in siRNA-mediated GPS2 depletion in $CD14^+SVF$ cells isolated from subcutaneous AT (SAT) of healthy non-obese subjects (n = 8 different donors).

(F) Analysis of pro-inflammatory gene expression upon adenovirus-mediated GPS2 overexpression in CD14⁺ SVF cells isolated from visceral AT (VAT) of obese subjects (n = 5 different donors).

Data are represented as mean \pm SEM. *p <0.05, **p <0.01, ***p <0.001 represents differences between siCtrl versus siGPS2 or adGFP versus adGPS2. See also Figure S6.

Figure 7. Alterations of GPS2 expression in AT / ATMs correlate with obesity, inflammation and type-2 diabetes in humans

(A) mRNA and protein levels of GPS2 in immune-selected CD14⁺ SVF cells isolated from VAT of non-obese (n = 5) and obese subjects (n = 21, Table S1, population 1).

(B, C) Correlative analysis of *GPS2* versus *CCL2* or *IL8* mRNA levels was performed in $CD14^+$ SVF cells from VAT of obese subjects. Correlations were assessed by non-parametric Spearman's test. (n = 25, Table S1, population 2).

(D) *GPS2* mRNA was measured in CD14⁺ SVF cells from VAT from obese non-diabetic subjects (n = 11, Table S1 population 2) versus obese diabetic subjects (n = 14, Table S1, population 2).

(E) GPS2 mRNA was measured in SAT from non-obese non-diabetic (n = 8, Table S1, population 3) and non-obese diabetic (n = 16, Table S1, population 3) subjects.

(F, G) Correlative analysis of *GPS2* mRNA with HbA1c levels in blood from obese (n = 25, Table S1, population 2) and non-obese patients (n = 24, Table S1, population 3). Correlations were assessed by non-parametric Spearman's test.

Data are represented as mean \pm SEM. ^{**}p < 0.01, ^{***}p < 0.001 versus non-obese or non-diabetic control. See also Figure S7.







С



D



Complement and coagulation cascades

Toll-like receptor signaling pathway

2.50E-02 3.80E-02









Figure 1





GPS2 ChIP-seq

В				
	Motif	P-value	Target %	Background %
	PU.1/ETS	1E-1376	48.19%	7.62%
FTGTGGTJIS	RUNX	1E-263	15.80%	3.82%
GAASSGAAAC	IRF	1E-249	8.10%	0.93%
ATTASAAJ AS	C/EBP	1E-162	7.54%	1.37%
TGASTCAS	ATF/AP-1	1E-146	17.14%	6.4%
CCCBATAT	ETS	1E-75	13.66%	6.57%



Ε



F











Figure 2

























Α

D



KEGG TERM (Up-regulated)	P-Value
Cytokine-cytokine receptor interaction	1.60E-03
Toll-like receptor signaling pathway	3.40E-03
Phagosome	5.00E-03
Chemokine signaling pathway	5.00E-03







В

EpiWAT 12 weeks





Ccl2



Ccl3 Ccl4 Ccl5 Ccl7 Cxcl2 II1b



Ε

116





Figure 4

















Figure 6

С















Figure S1, related to Figure 1



Figure S1, related to Figure 1: Characterization of gene expression in macrophage-specific GPS2 knockout (MKO) mice and comparison to RAW264.7 cells.

(A) Genomic strategy to delete Gps2 exons 2 to 5 using Cre-Lox recombination. GPS2^{flox/flox} mice were bred with transgenic LysM-Cre mice to generate the LysM-Cre-Gps2^{flox/flox} mice, referred to as MKO mice. (B, C) 12 weeks old WT and MKO mice on LFD were sacrificed. mRNA expression of the corepressor complex subunits Gps2, Ncor, Smrt, Tbl1, Tblr1 and Hdac3 was measured in both (B) BMDMs and (C) TEPMs. n = 3 mice per group. (D) GPS2 protein levels in BMDMs were evaluated by western blot using the GPS2-N antibody (used for ChIP-seq, see Figure S2B). n = 3 mice per group. (E) Gps2 mRNA expression levels were measured in different tissues to evaluate the specificity of the MKO. n = 3 mice per group. (F) WT and MKO BMDMs were treated with 10 ng/ml LPS for 6 hr and pro-inflammatory gene expression was analyzed by qRT-PCR. n = 3 mice per group. (G, H) RAW264.7 cells were subjected to either (G) adenovirus shRNA-mediated depletion of GPS2 or (H) ectopic adenovirus over-expression of GPS2. 48 hr after virus transduction cells were treated with 10 ng/ml LPS as indicated. Basal (left panel) and LPS-induced (right panel) inflammatory gene expression were analyzed by qRT-PCR. n = 3 independent experiments. (I) WT and GPS2 MKO mice were i.p. injected with a sub-lethal dose of LPS (1 mg/kg). Peritoneal macrophages were collected and pro-inflammatory gene expression was measured by qRT-PCR. (J) WT and GPS2 MKO mice were i.p. injected with a lethal dose of LPS (100 mg/kg). The survival rate of the mice was evaluated during 48 hr. n = 4 mice per group. All data are represented as mean \pm SEM. *p <0.05, ** p <0.01, *** p <0.001 versus WT (or shLuc and adGFP) controls. #p <0.05, ### p <0.001 versus WT LPS group in Figure S1I.





Figure S2, related to Figure 2: Confirmation of the ChIP-seq data and analysis of GPS2 in relation to corepressor complex subunits NCOR, SMRT and HDAC3.

(A, B) Genome browser view of the *Ccl2-Ccl7* locus exemplifying reproducible ChIP-seq data. ChIP-seq was compared with two different GPS2 antibodies (GPS2-N versus GPS2-C), in BMDMs versus RAW264.7 cells, and from two independent experiments. (C) Venn diagram showing the overlap between GPS2 cistrome, with previously published NCOR and SMRT data (Barish et al., 2012) in BMDMs. (D) UCSC genome browser view of the recruitment of GPS2, NCOR, SMRT and HDAC3 (Mullican et al., 2011) to the *Ccl2-Ccl7* locus. Enhancer 1 (E1), enhancer 2 (E2), promoter (P), and negative control region (C) represent the location of primers used for ChIP assays (see Table S4). (E) RAW264.7 cells were treated with 100 ng/ml LPS for 30 min and the recruitment of corepressor complex subunits to the *Ccl2* locus was analyzed by ChIP-qRT-PCR assay. IgG was used as antibody control, and region C was used as unspecific gene control. n = 3 independent experiments. All data are represented as mean \pm SEM. *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001 versus control.



Figure S3, related to Figure 3. Phenotyping and expression analysis in AT of WT and MKO mice.

(A) Measurement of food and water intake in WT and MKO mice after 12 weeks HFD feeding (n = 12 mice). (B) Lean and fat mass of the HFD-fed WT and MKO mice were evaluated with MRI (n = 7 mice). (C) Adipocyte size and partition in inguinal WAT (ingWAT) was measured and calculated as described in Figure 3F. n = 7 mice per group. (D) Gene expression was measured in epiWAT of WT and MKO mice by qRT-PCR. n = 7-8 mice per group. (E) Quantification of glycerol release from AT explant cultures (ingWAT versus epiWAT) of WT versus MKO mice after 12 weeks HFD. n = 7 mice per group. Data are represented as mean \pm SEM. ^{**}p <0.01, ^{***}p <0.001 versus WT group.





Figure S4, related to Figure 4: HFD-feeding responses in AT.

(A) Kinetics of pro-inflammatory gene expression upon HFD-feeding in ingWAT from WT and MKO mice. n = 4-7 mice per group. (B, C) Gene expression of *Gps2, Smrt* and *Ncor* assessed by qRT-PCR in (B) epiWAT SVF cells and (C) adipocytes. n = 5 mice per group. (D) Gene expression of pro-inflammatory genes in isolated adipocytes of WT versus MKO mice upon 12 weeks of HFD-feeding. n = 5 mice per group. Data are represented as mean \pm SEM. *p <0.05, *** p <0.001 versus WT group.

Figure S5, related to Figure 5



D



Figure S5, related to Figure 5: Systemic responses to HFD feeding in WT versus MKO mice.

(A) Insulin secretion at each time point during the OGTT test (upon HFD-feeding) was measured by ELISA. n = 7 mice per group. (B) OGTT and (C) ITT were performed in WT and MKO mice fed with a LFD for 12 weeks. (WT n = 5, MKO n = 10) (D) Analysis of inflammatory gene expression in livers of WT and MKO mice after 12 weeks of HFD feeding. n = 12-15 mice per group. Data are represented as mean \pm SEM. *p <0.05, **p <0.01, ***p <0.001 versus WT group.

Figure S6, related to Figure 6



Figure S6, related to Figure 6. Loss- and gain-of-function studies in human ATMs.

(A) Flowchart illustrating the isolation and treatment of human ATMs. (B, C) Analysis of relative *GPS2* mRNA expression showing effective siRNA-mediated GPS2 knockdown upon siRNA treatment in SAT ATMs (n = 8) and effective adenovirus-mediated overexpression in VAT ATMs (n = 5). Data are represented as mean \pm SEM. *p <0.05, **p <0.01, ***p <0.001 represents differences between groups (siCtrl versus siGPS2 or ad-GFP versus ad-GPS2).

Figure S7, related to Figure 7



Figure S7, related to Figure 7. GPS2 expression in AT and ATMs correlates with obesity, inflammation and type 2 diabetes in human subjects.

(A) *GPS2* mRNA expression was measured by qRT-PCR in SAT and VAT of obese subjects. (n = 24 in each group, Table S1, population 2). (B) *GPS2* mRNA expression in obese VAT SVF cells (n = 21) comparing with non-obese controls (n = 5) (Table S1, population 1). (C, D) *CCL2* and *IL8* mRNA levels in obese subjects (n = 21) comparing with non-obese controls (n = 5) (Table S1, population 1). (E-G) *NCOR* and *SMRT* mRNA expression levels were measured in (E) non-obese (n = 5) or obese (n=21) (Table S1, population 1), in (F) obese non-diabetic (ND) (n = 11) or obese diabetic (T2D) (n =14) (n=25, Table S1, population 2) and in (G) non-obese non-diabetic (ND) (n = 8) or non-obese diabetic (T2D) (n =16) subjects (n=24, Table S1, population 3). (H-I) Correlation analysis of *GPS2* mRNA levels and *CCL7* and *IL10* in human CD14⁺ VAT SVF (n = 25, Table S1, population 2). Correlations were assessed by non-parametric Spearman's test. Data are represented as mean \pm SEM. *p <0.05, **p <0.01, ***p <0.001 represented differences between groups (non-obese versus obese; diabetic versus non-diabetic).

Table S1 related to main text experimental procedures.

	Population 1		Population 2		Population 3	
Groups	CD14+ VAT SVF		CD14+ VAT SVF		SAT	
Subjects	Non-obese	Obese	Obese	Obese Diabetics	Non-obese	Non-obese diabetic
N	5	21	11	14	8	16
F/M	3/2	21/0	6/5	9/5	4/4	5/11
Age (years)	57.8 ± 3.4	40.4 ± 1.4	46 ± 2.6	51 ± 2.3	41.1 ± 3.8	49.5 ± 2.7
BMI (kg/m ²)	27 ± 0.5	47.6 ± 1.4	43 ± 1.4	42 ± 1.7	29.4 ± 0.7	29.8 ± 1.2
Total Cholesterol (mmol/L)	-	4.9 ± 0.2	4.2 ± 0.3	4.7 ± 0.2	5.4 ± 0.4	4.4 ± 0.2
Triglycerides (mmol/L)	-	1.3 ± 0.1	1.2 ± 0.3	1.4 ± 0.6	1.0 ± 0.2	1.3 ± 0.2
HbA1c	-	6.1 ± 0.2	6.0 ± 0.2	6.9 ± 0.1	5.9 ± 0.2	6.7 ± 0.2
Corresponding Figures	S7b-e	S7b-e	7a-d, 7f; S7a, S7f, S7h-i	7a-d, 7f; S7a, S7f, S7h-i	7e, 7g; S7g	7e, 7g; S7g

Anthropometric and clinical variables in human groups

Data are represented as mean \pm SEM. BMI: Body Mass Index.

Table S2 related to main text experimental procedures.

	Forward (5'-3')	Reverse (5'-3')
Adiponectin	AAATTCCACTGCAACATTCCG	AGTCCATTGTTGTCCCCTTCC
Atgl	TGTGGCCTCATTCCTCCTAC	TCGTGGATGTTGGTGGAGCT
Ccl2	CAGATGCAGTTAACGCCCCA	TGAGCTTGGTGACAAAAACTACAG
Ccl3	AACCAAGTCTTCTCAGCGCC	GTCAGGAAAATGACACCTGGCTG
Ccl4	CCAGGGTTCTCAGCACCAAT	TCAGGAATACCACAGCTGGC
Ccl5	CCTCACCATATGGCTCGGAC	ACGACTGCAAGATTGGAGCA
Ccl6	TCAAGCCGGGCATCATCTTT	CTGCCCTCCTTCTCAAGCAA
Ccl7	GATCTCTGCCACGCTTCTGT	TGTCTTGAAGATAACAGCTTCCCA
Ccl12	GAGAGACACTGGTTCCTGACTC	GTGCTCACCGCATCTGGTC
Ccr1	AGTAAGCAACTGGACCTGGC	CTTCCAGAACCGTTCACCCA
Ccr2	AAGGAGCCATACCTGTAAATGCCA	CCGTGGATGAACTGAGGTAACA
Ccr5	CCCCTACAAGAGACTCTGGCTC	TGAGCCGCAATTTGTTTCACA
Col1a1	CACCCTCAAGAGCCTGAGTC	TCGATCCAGTACTCTCCGCT
Col3a1	CTCACCCTTCTTCATCCCACT	ACATGGTTCTGGCTTCCAGAC
Col4a1	AGCAGGTGTGCGGTTTGTG	TAGGGCACTGCGGAATCTG
Cxcl2	GACCCTGCCAAGGGTTGAC	AGTTAGCCTTGCCTTTGTTCAGT
F4/80	CTTTGGCTATGGGCTTCCAGTC	GCAAGGAGGACAGAGTTTATCGTG
Fabp4	TCACCGCAGACGACAGGAAGG	CCGACTGACTATTGTAGTGTTTGATG
Fas	GGTCGTTTCTCCATTAAATTCTCAT	CTAGAAACTTTCCCAGAAATCTTCC
Gps2	GAAGCACCAGCTTTTCTTGCAGC	GCACTTGTGGTCCAAACATCTGC
Hdac3	TACAGCAGGCCAGAAGCACCCA	TGGGGAAACCATACTTTCCTTCCCA
Hsl	GCTGGGCTGTCAAGCACTGT	GTAACTGGGTAGGCTGCCAT
ll1a	TTGCTGAAGGAGTTGCCAGA	GTGCACCCGACTTTGTTCTT
ll1b	AAATACCTGTGGCCTTGGGC	CTTGGGATCCACACTCTCCAG
116	GCTGGAGTCACAGAAGGAGTGGC	TCTGACCACAGTGAGGAATGTCCA
Leptin	GACACCAAAACCCTCAT	CAGTGTCTGGTCCATCT
Ncor	TGGATCCTGCTGCTGCTTACCT	GGCTGCTCTCGTGGGGACAGT
Smrt	GCCCTTAGTCCTAGGTGTGG	TTGTACAGAGGCGTGTGGGA
Tbl1	CGGCGAGGGTGGTCCTGGACTT	CCAGAAAGTTCACCTCGTCGCTGG
Tbl1r	GCCGCCACTAACCAGCAAGG	CATGGCCCCGAAGCACAACCG
Tnfa	AGCCCACGTCGTAGCAAACC	GAGGAGCACGTAGTCGGGGC

Mouse qRT-PCR primers. Table S2 related to Experimental Procedures.

Table S3 related to main text experiment procedures.

Human qRT-PCR primers.

	Forward (5'-3')	Reverse (5'-3')
CCL2	TTCTGTGCCTGCTGCTCAT	GGGGCATTGATTGCATCT
CCL4	GCTTTTCTTACACTGCGAGGA	CCAGGATTCACTGGGATCAG
CCL5	ACACCAGTGGCAAGTGCTC	ACACACTTGGCGGTTCTTTC
CCL6	AGCGATCGGAGAGTTCAGAGGTG	TTCACCCCAAGAGCCCAGTTTCA
CCL7	GAAAGCCTCTGCAGCACTTC	AATCTGTAGCAGCAGGTAGTTGAA
CXCL1	TCATCGAAAAGATGCTGAACA	TTCAGGAACAGCCACCAGT
CXCL2	CATCGAAAAGATGCTGAAAAATG	TTCAGGAACAGCCACCAATA
GPS2	GCTGCACCGGCACATTATG	CATCATCTTATCCACCTCTTCTTCCT
IL1B	ACAGATGAAGTGCTCCTTCCA	GTCGGAGATTCGTAGCTGGAT
IL6	GCCCAGCTATGAACTCCTTCT	GAAGGCAGCAGGCAACAC
IL8	AGACAGCAGAGCACACAAGC	ATGGTTCCTTCCGGTGGT
IL10	GCCTAACATGCTTCGAGATC	TGATGTCTGGGTCTTGGTTC
NCOR	CCCAGGAGAAACTGCAGACCTAT	CTGATTCCTGCTGTGGTCGATA
SMRT	GGTACCCATTTGGAATCACGGGCTGC	AAGCTTCCACACACACAGACACGCAC
TNFA	CAGCCTCTTCTCCTTGA	GCCAGAGGGCTGATTAGAGA

Table S4 related to main text experimental procedures

Mouse ChIP qPCR primers.

	Forward (5'-3')	Reverse (5'-3')
Ccl2 C1	GTTTGCATCACAACGCCAGA	ACTAGGCTCAGACATGCAGC
Ccl2 P	CACTTCCTGGAAACACCCGA	CTTGGTGCCAAGGAGTAGCA
Ccl2 E1 -13Kb	GGCAGCGAAATGGAAAGAGG	GGTCCACAGCAGGATGTACC
Cc/2 E2 -30Kb	GGTCATGCAAGCCTCTTCCT	GCCATTTGTGCAGAAAGCCA

SUPPLEMENTAL EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

Human samples

Population 1 comprised CD14⁺ cells from SVF from non-obese and obese individual's VAT. Population 2 comprised CD14⁺ cells obtained from SVF from obese-non-diabetic and obese-diabetic individual's VAT. Population 3 comprised SAT tissue from non-obese and non-obese diabetic individuals. The clinical and anthropometric variables that were measured are shown in Table S1 including are sex, age, BMI (kg/m²), total cholesterol (mmol/l), triglycerides (mmol/l) and HbA1c (in %).

Generation of GPS2 myeloid-specific KO mice

GPS2^{flox/flox} mice were generated using a targeting construct which contained loxP sites flanking exons 2 and 5 followed by a FRT site and a neomycin cassette inserted between exons 5 and 6. The targeting vector was then electroporated into C57BL/6 Bruce4 embryonic stem (ES) cells. The correctly recombinated ES colony was then injected into C57BL6 blastocytes. Male chimeras were mated with female C57BL6 mice to get the mice with targeted GPS2 allele. The mice were cross-bred with C57BL6 flp-recombinase mice to remove the neomycin cassette to create heterozygous GPS2 ^{floxed/+} mice. The mice were then cross-bred with C57BL6 mice for 9 generations before breeding with heterozygous GPS2 ^{flox/flox} mice. To produce the myeloid-specific GPS2 KO mice the GPS2^{flox/flox} mice to get lysM-Cre⁺ GPS2^{flox/flox} mice. The lysM-Cre⁻ GPS2^{flox/flox} littermates were used as control.

In vivo treatment and analysis

LPS treatment: 12-16 week old male WT and MKO mice were used for the in vivo LPS challenge. The mice were injected with either a low dose of LPS (1 mg/kg body weight; n = 4-5 per group) or a high dose of LPS (100 mg/kg body weight; n = 4 per group) via i.p. injection. The low dose LPS injected mice were then sacrificed after 16 hr and the peritoneal macrophages were collected. The high dose LPS induced endotoxemia and the survival rate of the mice was analysed during 48 hr.

HFD: 7-8 week old WT and GPS2-MKO mice (n = 5-7 per experiment) were put in 60% high fat diet (Research Diets, # D12492) or in 10% fat diet (low fat diet) (Research Diets, # D12450) for 4, 8 and 12 weeks. The 12 week HFD experiments were repeated 3 times independently. The OGTT and ITT were performed before and after the HFD feeding. For insulin signaling assays, WT and MKO mice were fasted for 6 hr and then treated with 1 U/kg insulin via i.p. injection. The mice were sacrificed after 15 minutes, and liver, epididymal AT and muscle were collected for western blot analysis. The lean tissue mass and fat mass were measured using an Echo Medical systems' EchoMRI 100 (Whole Body Composition Analyzers, EchoMRI, Houston, USA) according to manufacturer's instructions.

All mice strains were bred and maintained at the Center for Comparative Medicine at Karolinska Institutet/University Hospital (AKM, PKL, Huddinge, Sweden) and at the "Centre exploration fonctionnel (CEF)" at Paris University (UPMC, 91 and 105 boulevard de l'hopital Paris 13). The animal experiments were conducted in accordance with the Swedish and French official guidelines for experimental animal research, respectively.

Analysis of metabolic parameters

Blood glucose levels were measured using a glucometer (Accu-Chek Performa, Roche). Plasma insulin (Mercodia, #10-1247-01), CCL2 (R&D systems, #855993), IL6 (R&D systems, #872791) and TNFα (R&D systems, #783567) levels were determined by ELISA. HOMA-IR in mice was calculated using the following equation (Fasting Glucose concentration*Fasting Insulin concentration)/405). Plasma NEFA and glycerol release were measured using colorimetric diagnostic kit according to the manufacturer's instructions (Randox Laboratories). Liver TGs were extracted and measured with a colorimetric diagnostic kit according to the manufacturer's instructions.

Immunohistochemical and morphometric analyses

Adipose and liver tissue samples were fixed in 3% formaldehyde solution overnight and embedded in paraffin. Tissue slides were stained with hematoxylin and eosin (H&E) for the evaluation of the tissue morphology, following standardized protocols. Adipose and liver tissue macrophage infiltration was evaluated by IHC using a F4/80 antibody (AbD Setotec, # MCA497R). Adipocyte size was measured by the diameters of the adipocytes in light-microscopy images (20x) of AT sections (n = 50 adipocytes per section, 3 sections per animal, 7 animals per groups) and analyzed using ImageJ software.

Macrophage cultures

RAW264.7: Mouse RAW264.7 cells were purchased from ATCC cell bank (#TIB-71). The cells were cultured in DMEM medium supplemented with 10% heatinactivated FBS and 1% P/S.

BMDMs: 12-16 week old male WT and GPS2-MKO mice were sacrificed and femurs and tibias were collected. The bone marrow cells were cultured and differentiated for 7 days in DMEM medium supplemented with 10% heat-inactivated FBS, 1% P/S and 30% L929 conditioned-media.

TEPMs: 12-16 week old male WT and GPS2-MKO mice were injected with 3ml 3% thioglycollate (Sigma, 70157) via i.p. injection. The mice were then sacrificed on day 4 after the injection. Peritoneal macrophages were collected from the peritoneal lavage using DMEM supplemented with 10% heat-inactivated FBS and 1% P/S. The cells were cultured for 24 hr prior to the treatment.

Mouse ATMs (AT F4/80⁺ cells): The epididymal AT was digested using collagenase (Roche) to isolate the SVF cells. The SVF cells were stained with F4/80 antibody (BM8; eBioscience, #25-4801-82) and the F4/80⁺ cells were sorted using a high-speed flow cytometer/cell sorter (FACSAria). The sorted cells were immediately used for microarray or qRT-PCR analysis.

HMDMs: Human peripheral blood mononucleated cells (PBMC) were isolated from enriched buffy coats by Ficoll density gradient centrifugation. Monocyte Isolation kit II (Miltenyi Biotec, #130-091-153) was used for monocyte purification. The isolated blood monocytes were differentiated in RPMI 1640 medium supplemented with 10% FCS and 100 ng/ml of M-CSF (Miltenyi Biotec, #130-096-493) for 6 days to obtain human monocyte-derived macrophages (HMDMs).

Human adipose CD14⁺ SVF: Subcutaneous or visceral (omental) AT from non-obese and obese human subjects was digested using collagenase (Roche) as previously described (Dalmas et al., 2014). The SVF was resuspended in endotoxin-free DPBS

supplemented with 2% FCS and 1 mM EDTA. CD14⁺ SVF cells were purified using magnetic beads (Stemcell Technologies, #18058) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Cells were cultured in DMEM medium supplemented with 10% heat-inactivated FCS or immediately used for total RNA or protein extraction.

FACS analysis of HFD mice AT SVF

The purified adipose SVF cells were resuspended in fluorescence-activated cell sorter (FACS) buffer and stained with indicated fluorescent isotope-conjugated antibodies for 30 min at 4°C in the dark. The antibodies used for FACS included F4/80 (BM8; eBioscience, #25-4801-82), CD11b (M1/70; eBioscience, #17-0112-82), CD11c (N418; eBioscience, #48-0114-82) and CD206 (C068C2; BioLegend, #141704). Live/Dead fixable dead cell stain (Invitrogen, Paisley, UK) was used to discriminate between live and dead cells. The cells marked with the antibody were then washed three times with DPBS and fixed in 1% paraformaldehyde before analysis. Samples were analyzed in a LSRII cytometer (Becton Dickinson) using FACS Diva (BD Biosciences) and FlowJo (Tree Star) softwares.

Macrophage treatments

For TLR agonist treatments, cells were treated with 10 ng/ml LPS or HKLM (10E8 cells/ml) for 6 hr for gene expression analysis. For ChIP assay, the RAW264.7 cells were treated with 100 ng/ml LPS for 30 minutes. The TLR agonists were incubated with the cells in complete medium (10% heat-inactivated FBS and 1% P/S supplemented DMEM) for 6 hr. For palmitate acid treatment, the sodium palmitate (Sigma, #P9075) was dissolved in 18.4% fatty acid free BSA (Sigma, #A0281) at 8mM as a stock solution. Cells were incubated with 0.4 mM palmitate (or BSA as a control) in 1% FBS supplemented DMEM for 24 hr.

Transient transfection, RNAi and adenoviral infection.

The human GPS2 siRNAs were described previously (Toubal et al., 2013). Mouse macrophage cells were transfected with GPS2, SMRT and NCOR siRNAs (GE Healthcare). Luciferase siRNA (TGACAGAGCCAAACAAATG) was used as a negative control. 100 nM siRNAs along with Lipofectamine 2000 (Life Technologies) were used for the transfection of both human and mouse macrophages. For the adenovirus experiments, the ectopic GPS2 overexpressing adenovirus was described previously (Toubal et al., 2013). The luciferase shRNA (targeting sequence:

TGACAGAGCCAAACAAATG) and GPS2 shRNA (targeting sequence: CAGTACCCTCTCTTTGCAGAA) adenovirus were constructed and packaged using Block-it adenoviral RNAi expression system (Life Technologies, #4941-00). The cells were infected with 100 MOI control or GPS2 overexpression (or knocking down) adenovirus for 48 hr before further treatment.

qRT-PCR analysis

The mouse/human tissues and purified primary cells were processed for total RNA extraction using the RNeasy RNA Mini Kit (Invitrogen). Complementary DNAs were synthesized using Superscript II reverse transcriptase kit (Life Technologies). qRT-PCR was performed using the ABI Prism 7000 PCR system (Applied Biosystems). 18S and 36B4 were used for normalization and for relative quantification of gene expression. The primers are listed in Table S2 and S3.

Western blot analysis

Tissue and cell samples were lysed in RIPA buffer. After BCA quantification the cell extracts were mixed with loading buffer and heated at 98°C for 10 min. The proteins were separated in a SDS-PAGE electrophoresis and transferred to a PVDF membrane blotted with: anti-GPS2 (Toubal et al., 2013). Anti-β-actin (8226, Abcam), anti-phospho-AKT (Cell signaling, #9331S) and anti-AKT (Cell signaling, #9272S). The western blot was semi-quantified using ImageJ software.

Human and mouse gene expression microarray analysis

Briefly, total RNA from WT and MKO BMDMs in basal conditions (n = 3 per group), WT and MKO TEPMs treated with or without 10 ng/ml LPS for 6 hr (n = 3 per group), HFD fed WT and MKO AT SVF F4/80⁺ cells (n = 4 per group), and HMDMs transfected with control or GPS2 siRNA for 40 hr, was extracted using RNA miniprep kit (Qiagen) according to manufacturer's instructions. 50 ng of BMDM RNA, 50 ng of TEPM RNA, 100 ng of SVF F4/80⁺ cells RNA and 250 ng of HMDM RNA was used according to the manufacturer's instructions, to obtain biotin-labeled cDNA.

BMDMs: Affymetrix mouse gene 1.1 ST plate was used, with 24582 well-established annotations. RNA samples from replicates were subjected to analysis. The target synthesis and hybridization were performed at the Bioinformatics and Expression

Analysis core facility (BEA, <u>www.bea.ki.se</u>, Novum, Karolinska Institutet, Huddinge, Sweden) according to standardized protocol.

TEPMs and SVF F4/80⁺ *cells*: Illumina MouseRef-8 v2.0 Expression BeadChips were used containing 25600 annotated probes for 19100 coded transcripts.

HDMDs: Illumina Human HT-12 v3.0 Expression BeadChips were used containing 48000 annotated probes for 28688 coded transcripts.

For obtaining the biotin-labeled cDNAs of all the samples for the Illumina microarrays, the Illumina RNA amplification kit (NuGEN, BiotinIL, Module) was used. BeadChips were read with an iScan Illumina (San Diego, USA) scanner. Hybridization probe intensities were then detected using GenomeStudio. The q-value is the adjusted p-value for multiple testing using an optimized False Discovery Rate (FDR) approach (as defined by John D. Storey's method). q-value was provided by SAMr package under R statistical software. The differentially expressed genes were further annotated using WebGestalt with biological annotations from Gene Ontology and KEGG databases.

For the BMDMs and TEPMs, raw intensity expression files (CEL files) were imported to R and Bioconductor using the Oligo package. The same package was used for quantile normalization, background correction and summarization by robust multichip average preprocessing (RMA). The normalized log2 transformed expression values were then imported to the Limma package for differential expression analysis by linear modeling. A paired design was used to remove the batch effect between the biological replicates. Furthermore genes with low expression (less than the 95th quantile of the negative control probes on the Affymetrix chip) were removed. Genes with a p value < 0.05, after adjusting for multiple hypothesis testing using the false discovery rate method, were defined as differentially expressed. Hierarchical clustering of the gene expression in WT and MKO mice, was performed in R with the Hclust function using the Ward.D2 method and visualized employing the Ggplot2 package. Prior to hierarchical clustering, genes were standardized across the samples to a mean of zero and standard deviation of 1, the z-values were then used for the clustering. Limma was also used for the analysis of the microarray data from the peritoneal macrophages.

ChIP and ChIP-seq sample preparation

RAW264.7 and BMDMs were crosslinked with 1% formaldehyde in DPBS for 10 min for histone modifications, and double crosslinked with 2 mM disuccinimidyl glutarate (DSG) for 30 min, followed by 1% formaldehyde for 10 min, for GPS2. The reaction was stopped with glycine at a final concentration of 0.125 M for 5 min. Approximately, 10-20.10⁶ cells were used for the histone marks ChIP and ChIP-seq, and around 20-30.10⁶ cells for GPS2 single ChIP and 60-90×10⁶ cells for GPS2 ChIPseq. The cells were spun down and rinsed with cold DPBS two times. The nuclei were isolated using Lysis buffer 1 (50 mM Hepes-KOH, pH 7.5, 140 mM NaCl, 1 mM EDTA, 10% glycerol, 0.5% NP-40 and 0.25% Triton X-100), Lysis buffer 2 (10 mM Tris-HCl, pH 8.0, 200 mM NaCl, 1 mM EDTA and 0.5 mM EGTA) and Lysis buffer 3 (10 mM Tris-HCl, pH 8.0, 100 mM NaCl, 1 mM EDTA, 0.5 mM EGTA, 0.1% Na-Deoxycholate and 0.5% N-Lauroylsarcosine), and subsequently sonicated during 30 min (30 sec ON/OFF) in the UCD-200 Bioruptor (Diagenode), to generate DNA fragment sizes of 0.2-0.5 kb. Protein A Dynabeads (Invitrogen) were incubated O/N with the antibodies. After several washings the beads were incubated with the sonicated chromatin O/N. Next day the samples were washed with RIPA buffer (50 mM HEPES-KOH pH 7.5, 200 mM NaCl, 500 mM LiCl, 1 mM EDTA, 1% NP-40, 0.7% Na-Deoxycholate) six times, once with TBS (20 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.6, 150 mM NaCl) and the immune-bound chromatin was eluted in the elution buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl pH 8, 10 mM EDTA, 1% SDS). The samples remained at 65°C O/N to reverse the formaldehyde crosslinking. After RNAse A (Fermentas) and proteinase K (Fermentas) treatment, the immunoprecipitated DNA was purified using the QIAquick PCR purification kit (Qiagen). For preparing the ChIP-seq samples, the same ChIP protocol was followed but using the ChIP DNA Clean & Concentrator Capped Zymo-Spin I (Zymo Research) purification kit. In the case of GPS2, from 3 to 4 ChIPs were pooled in the last step of the purification to obtain concentrated material. For the ChIP primers refer to Table S4.

ChIP-seq data analysis

Sequencing files (fastq files), provided by the EMBL Genomics Core Facility (Heidelberg, Germany), and raw data from the published ChIP-seq data (NCOR and SMRT: GSE27060; HDAC3: GSE33609) were aligned to the NCBI37/mm9 version of the mouse reference genome using Bowtie 2. The sequencing tags were then read
and imported to the HOMER package. Peaks were identified using HOMER with default settings, and peak overlap was calculated by merging together all the individual peak files for every experiment. Peaks needed to have at least one base pair overlap in order to be merged. The sequences, found in peaks that were identified at least twice in any of the GPS2 ChIP-seq experiments, were submitted to motif analysis to identify potentially over-represented transcription factor binding sites (HOMER). Heatmap clustering of the peaks was performed in Cluster 3.0 using self organizing maps and then visualized in TreeView. For statistical analysis of the peaks, tags were counted in all the peaks without any normalization. The raw tag counts were then imported in to R and Bioconductor. We used the Voom function in the Limma package to transform the raw tag counts to counts per million (cpm) on the log2 scale as well as to calculate observational level-weights. The log2-cpm transformed counts were then passed on to Limma to identify potential differential binding sites. For the H3K27ac and H3K4me3 signal analysis in Limma we only used tags from peaks that were identified at least twice in the respective ChIP-seq experiments. Peaks with a p value < 0.05, after adjusting for multiple hypothesis testing using the false discovery rate method, were defined as differentially regulated. The percentual difference in enrichment of chromatin marks was calculated comparing the total number of normalized tag counts between WT and MKO in the indicated genomic loci ((MKO tags - WT tags)*100/ WT tags).

Discussion et perspectives

Ces dix dernières années, des avancées importantes ont démontré l'importance de la réponse inflammatoire dans le développement des maladies métaboliques chroniques tels que l'obésité, le diabète de type-2 et l'athérosclérose (Amor et al., 2010; Grivennikov et al., 2010). L'inflammation du tissu adipeux apparaît comme un déterminant majeur dans le développement de ces pathologies métaboliques (Hotamisligil, 2006). Aujourd'hui les événements cellulaires impliqués dans l'inflammation chronique du tissu adipeux (hypertrophie adipocytaire et infiltration des cellules immunitaires) apparaissent bien compris. Cependant, les mécanismes transcriptionnels comprenant le recrutement de facteurs de transcription, le remodelage de la chromatine et l'échange des coactivateurs demeurent assez énigmatiques. Comment expliquer que certains individus obèses (de même poids) développent des pathologies alors que d'autres semblent épargnés ? Comment expliquer que d'un obèse à l'autre la répartition de la masse grasse est différente? Pourquoi la population décrite comme « super-obèse » ne présente pas d'altérations métaboliques majeures? L'hypothèse des mécanismes épigénétiques a été évoquée mais très peu d'études démontrent une causalité de ces mécanistiques épigénétiques dans les pathologies métaboliques.

Dans mon travail de thèse, j'ai pu démontrer que la dérégulation du régulateur épigénomique GPS2 induit une inflammation du tissu adipeux qui précipitait le développement de l'insulino-résistance et l'intolérance au glucose dans un contexte obésogène.

GPS2 contrôle la transcription des gènes inflammatoires impliqués dans la chimioattraction des cellules immunitaires chez l'homme et la souris

L'invalidation de GPS2 dans les adipocytes et les macrophages se traduit par une augmentation importante de l'expression des gènes codant pour des chimiokines ainsi que des gènes dépendants de la voie des TLRs (notamment TLR2 et TLR4). Cette fonction répressive de GPS2 est également validée chez l'homme. Ceci mesure l'importance de nos études dans la compréhension du contrôle transcriptionnel de l'inflammation dans le tissu adipeux humain. Nous avons démontré que l'activité de GPS2 était fortement altérée dans le tissu adipeux de patients obèses et/ou diabétiques présentant un niveau anormalement élevé d'expression de ces cytokines. Notre modèle transgénique nous permet ainsi de valider que la diminution de l'activité de GPS2 (notable par la diminution de son expression) induit une expression élevée de certaines cytokines et chimiokines comme CCL2 ou IL6, fortement associée aux pathologies cardio-vasculaires chez l'obèse.

De manière intéressante, l'amélioration du profil inflammatoire du tissu adipeux humain suite à une perte de poids ou un traitement antidiabétique est également associée à une augmentation de l'activité de GPS2. Par ailleurs, certains patients ne présentant pas une augmentation de GPS2 n'améliorent pas leur profil inflammatoire, démontrant encore une fois l'importance de GPS2 dans la répression de l'inflammation du tissu adipeux. Basée sur nos études, GPS2 pourrait apparaître comme une cible thérapeutique intéressante pour limiter l'inflammation du tissu adipeux. A mon avis, il sera difficile de synthétiser des drogues ciblant GPS2 per se. Cependant, une meilleure compréhension des mécanismes d'action de GPS2 devrait permettre de révéler des pistes intéressantes tant sur le plan génomique qu'épigénomique. Ce décodage pourrait ainsi servir soit à la découverte de nouvelle(s) cible(s) soit à la stratification de patients basée sur l'état inflammatoire et ainsi permettre une meilleure prise en charge de la pathologie.

Quels sont les mécanismes associés à l'action répressive de GPS2 ?

La dérépression d'un même cluster de gènes inflammatoires par l'invalidation de GPS2 dans les adipocytes et les macrophages suggère qu'un mécanisme commun pourrait être responsable de l'induction de cette réponse inflammatoire impliquant à la fois NCOR, SMRT et HDAC3. Cependant, nous ne confirmons pas cette hypothèse. En effet, GPS2 semble interagir avec SMRT dans l'adipocyte alors que son rôle de corépresseur dans les macrophages pourrait être indépendant du complexe NCOR ou SMRT. L'analyse à large échelle de l'occupation de GPS2 au niveau des régions régulatrices du génome dans les macrophages est en parfaite adéquation avec le phénotype des macrophages observé ainsi que le phénotype des souris c'est-à-dire : infiltration accrues de cellules immunitaires, augmentation de l'inflammation et développement d'une insulinorésistance. La combinaison de nos résultats de ChIP-seq avec ceux de la littérature démontre que GPS2, HDAC3 et NCOR sont corecrutés au niveau d'un même cluster de gènes régulés. Ceci suggère donc un rôle du complexe NCOR-HDAC3-GPS2 dans la régulation de la transcription des gènes dans le macrophage. Cependant, les souris invalidées pour NCOR et HDAC3 dans les macrophages ne présentent pas de phénotype pro-inflammatoire mais un phénotype anti-inflammatoire. L'ensemble de ces résultats suggère donc que le recrutement de NCOR et HDAC3 au niveau des loci des gènes inflammatoires ne participe pas à la dérépression de la transcription lors d'un stimulus infectieux (LPS) ou métabolique (palmitate). Une analyse plus fine de corecrutements de GPS2, NCOR, SMRT et HDAC3 dans les macrophages des souris WT et GPS2 MacKO suivis de différents stimuli inflammatoires devrait nous permettre de répondre partiellement à cette interrogation. Une approche complémentaire serait de générer des souris double KO pour GPS2 et NCOR, SMRT ou HDAC3 et de décrypter les conséquences sur la transcription des gènes inflammatoires.

Dans l'adipocytes, la fonction de GPS2 semble plus évidente. En effet, GPS2 semble être majoritairement associé au complexe SMRT plutôt qu'au complexe NCOR. Nous avons montré, que l'invalidation de GPS2 et SMRT induit la dérépression de la transcription des gènes inflammatoires alors que NCOR serait plus impliqué dans le contrôle de la transcription des gènes métaboliques. Ces résultats ont été confortés par deux études importantes :

1/ L'invalidation spécifique de NCOR dans les adipocytes dé-réprime l'activité de PPARγ (Li et al., 2011). En effet, les souris invalidées pour NCOR présentent une amélioration de la sensibilité à l'insuline et une diminution de l'inflammation du tissu adipeux associé à l'activation constitutive de PPARγ. Le traitement de souris NCOR KO par des agonistes PPARγ ne peut améliorer le profil métabolique des souris NCOR KO en comparaison des souris WT. NCOR apparaît donc comme la sentinelle de PPARγ.

2/ Les souris mutantes pour SMRT où l'interaction avec les facteurs de transcription (dont les RNs) est affectée, présentent une hypertrophie des adipocytes et une augmentation de l'expression des gènes inflammatoires (Fang et al., 2011). Ce phénotype semble plus semblable au phénotype de nos souris GPS2 AdipoKO confortant notre hypothèse que le complexe GPS2-SMRT est impliqué dans le contrôle transcriptionnel de l'inflammation des adipocytes.

Outre son rôle génomique dans la régulation de la transcription des gènes inflammatoires, une étude récente a également mis en avant une fonction non

génomique de GPS2. En effet dans cette étude, GPS2 non associé à un complexe inhibe la voie cytoplasmique TNF- α /JNK dans les adipocytes (Cardamone et al., 2012). Il serait très intéressant de comprendre dans quelle mesure cette voie est impliquée dans la répression de l'inflammation du tissu adipeux lors de l'obésité.

GPS2 contrôle-t-il l'activité transcriptionnelle de PPARy ?

Une question demeure concernant le rôle de GPS2 dans le contrôle de l'activité de PPARy. Des études menées dans une lignée murine adipocytaire (3T3-L1) démontrent que l'invalidation de GPS2 induit une augmentation de l'activité de PPARy et ainsi de l'adipogénèse. Nous n'avons pas confirmé cette observation dans un système cellulaire humain. La génération de modèles de souris GPS2 KO dans les adipocytes devrait nous permettre de répondre à cette question.

Nous avons montré que le traitement des adipocytes inflammés par un agoniste de PPARy, améliorait leur état inflammatoire en augmentant l'activité de GPS2 et SMRT au niveau des promoteurs de certains gènes inflammatoires tel que l'IL6. Cette observation est très intéressante car elle s'oppose à des études menées dans les adipocytes murins, où il a été montré que GPS2 agit comme régulateur de PPARy. En effet, GPS2 en association avec la déméthylase KDM4A (Lysine(K)-demethylase 4A), agit comme coactivateur de PPARy pour induire un programme transcriptionnel adipogénique spécifique (Cardamone et al., 2014). Comme déjà observé dans les hépatocytes (Jakobsson et al., 2009), GPS2 possèderait un double rôle de coactivateur et de corépresseur de la transcription des gènes dans l'adipocyte.

Plusieurs études ont montré que l'activation de PPARγ par ses agonistes avait des conséquences antiinflammatoires sur le tissu adipeux. Cette action anti-inflammatoire se produirait à la fois dans les adipocytes et dans les macrophages. En effet, PPARγ est capable de réguler la polarisation des macrophages en type M2 (anti-inflammatoire) (Hevener et al., 2007). D'autres études ont montré que l'activation de PPARγ dans l'adipocyte est suffisante pour améliorer la sensibilité à l'insuline et induire une diminution de l'inflammation (Pascual et al., 2007). Grâce à l'étude que nous avons menée sur les patients obèses diabétiques traités par un agoniste de PPARγ, nous avons

montré que les capacités anti-inflammatoires de PPARγ pourraient s'exercer à travers la régulation de GPS2 et SMRT.

Enfin, il n'est pas à exclure que PPARγ exerce son activité anti-inflammatoire grâce à des mécanismes de transrépression impliquant GPS2 comme déjà observé dans les macrophages et les hépatocytes (Venteclef et al., 2010). Cependant, cette hypothèse « transrépression » reste à être validée *in vivo*.

Existe-t-il une signature GPS2 ?

D'après l'ensemble de nos études, nous commençons à pouvoir définir une « signature GPS2 » au niveau génomique, cistromique et épigénomique.

Signature génomique : Comme nous l'avons décrit tout au long de ma thèse, GPS2 réprime la transcription des gènes associés au chimiotactisme mais également des gènes impliqués dans la réponse TLR 2 et TLR4 (chez l'homme et la souris). Cette signature transcriptomique se caractérise notamment par l'augmentation de sensibilité des souris invalidées pour GPS2 à une stimulation par le LPS ou par un stress métabolique. Etant donné l'importance de la voie des TLRs dans la coordination de la réponse immunitaire, GPS2 apparait donc comme un senseur de la coordination de la réponse inflammatoire.

Signature cistromique : La signature cistromique correspond aux facteurs de transcription cible de GPS2.

La signature de GPS2 dans l'adipocyte est encore mal connue. D'après nos études, il semblerait que GPS2 interfère avec l'activité des facteurs de transcription inflammatoires comme p65 ou encore AP-1 (c-Jun) dans l'adipocyte. D'après les études de Cardomone et al., GPS2 régule également l'activité de PPARy. Cependant aucune analyse en ChIP-seq du profil de GPS2 n'a pu mettre en avant cette préférence de GPS2 pour les RNs.

Dans le macrophage, notre étude pionnière démontre que GPS2 est préférentiellement recruté au niveau des loci du génome où les facteurs de transcription PU.1, ETS, IRF, ATF et AP-1 semblent réguler la transcription. Pour la plupart de ces facteurs de transcription, l'interaction avec GPS2 n'a pas été caractérisée. Cependant, ces motifs associés à l'activité de GPS2 sont en accord avec le fait que GPS2 contrôle la voie des TLRs. En effet, PU.1, ETS, IRF et AP-1 sont des voies activées par les agonistes TLRs. Les facteurs de transcription de la famille des ATF ont été décrits comme impliqués dans la

réponse au stress du reticulum (ER stress) dans différents types cellulaires. GPS2 pourrait donc avoir un rôle dans la réponse à l'ER stress. Des études complémentaires sont nécessaires pour décrypter ce phénomène.

Signature épigénomique : L'activation de transcription en l'absence de GPS2 devrait se visualiser par un remodelage de la chromatine. Afin de le visualiser, nous avons analysé l'épigénome des macrophages WT et GPS2 MacKO en se focalisant particulièrement sur des modifications d'histones associées à l'activation : H3K4me et H3K27ac. Ainsi nous avons révélé que la déplétion de GPS2 était fortement associée à l'acétylation de la lysine 27 qui semble cohérente avec une « co-action » de GPS2 avec HDAC3. Une étude plus exhaustive est actuellement menée afin de définir une signature épigénomique précise de l'action de GPS2.

Une étape cruciale dans le décodage de l'activité de GPS2 dans les adipocytes et les cellules immunitaires sera d'effectuer des expériences de ChIP-sequencing dans un système humain et de comparer le recrutement de GPS2 dans différentes conditions physiopathologiques (obésité et diabète).

Conclusion

Le contrôle transcriptionnel de l'inflammation métabolique est un processus complexe mettant en jeu différents facteurs qui agissent et interagissent à différents niveaux de la cascade inflammatoire. Dans ce projet de thèse, nous avons mis en évidence que le corégulateur transcriptionnel GPS2 est un répresseur majeur de l'inflammation métabolique du tissu adipeux lors de l'obésité et du diabète de type 2 chez la souris et chez l'homme. Ceci laisse donc présager de l'utilisation du modèle « GPS2 » pour définir une nouvelle stratégie pour limiter l'inflammation. Nos études démontrent également que la modification de la réponse épigénomique à un stress métabolique peut précipiter vers une aggravation de la pathologie. Nos études confirment que la modulation de la réponse épigénomique apparaît comme une stratégie prometteuse pour limiter les effets néfastes de l'inflammation dans les pathologies métaboliques (Figure 20).



Figure 20 : Schéma bilan du rôle de GPS2 dans le tissu adipeux. GPS2 apparaît comme un régulateur de la transcription des gènes inflammatoires dans les adipocytes et les macrophages

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ANNEXE 1

IRF5 controls visceral obesity through TGF- β 1-dependent tissue remodeling and insulin sensitivity

Elise Dalmas^{*1,2,} Amine Toubal^{*1,2,3,} Fawaz Alzaid ^{*2,3}, Katrina Blazek⁴, Hayley L Eames⁴, Kristell Lebozec^{2,3}, Maria Pini^{1,2}, Isabelle Hainault^{2,3}, Emilie Montastier^{5,6}, Raphaël GP Denis⁷, Patricia Ancel^{1,2}, Amélie Lacombe², Yin Ling^{1,2}, Omran Allatif^{1,2}, Céline Cruciani-Guglielmacci⁷, Sébastien André^{1,2}, Nathalie Viguerie⁶, Christine Poitou^{1,2,8}, Vladimir Stich^{9,10}, Alexandra Torcivia¹¹, Fabienne Foufelle^{2,3}, Serge Luquet⁷, Judith Aron-Wisnewsky^{1,2,8}, Dominique Langin^{8,9}, Karine Clément^{1,2,8}, Irina A Udalova⁴ and Nicolas Venteclef^{2,3}

¹Sorbonne Universités, Université Pierre et Marie-Curie; INSERM UMR_S 1166-ICAN, Nutriomics, ²Institute of Cardiometabolism and Nutrition, Paris, France and ³Sorbonne Universités, Université Pierre et Marie-Curie, NSERM, UMR_S 1138 Cordeliers Research, Paris, France, ⁴Kennedy Institute of Rheumatology, University of Oxford, Oxford, UK, ⁵ INSERM, University of Toulouse, Paul Sabatier University, UMR1048, Obesity Research Laboratory and Franco-Czech Laboratory for Clinical Research on Obesity, Institute of Metabolic and Cardiovascular Diseases, Toulouse, France, ⁶Toulouse University Hospitals, Departments of Clinical Biochemistry and Nutrition, Toulouse, France, ⁷Université Paris Diderot, Sorbonne Paris Cité, Unité de Biologie Fonctionnelle et Adaptative, CNRS UMR8251, Paris, France, ⁸Assistance Publique-Hôpitaux de Paris, Pitié-Salpêtrière Hospital, Heart and Metabolism Division, Paris, France, ⁹Department of Sports Medicine, Third Faculty of Medicine, Charles University in Prague, Prague, Czech Republic, ¹⁰Franco-Czech Laboratory for Clinical Research on Obesity, Third Faculty of Medicine, Charles University in Prague, Prague, Czech Republic and ¹¹Assistance Publique-Hôpitaux de Paris, Pitié-Salpêtrière Jospital, Salpêtrière Hospital Visceral Surgery Division, Paris, France

* Contributed equally to the work

Address correspondence to:

Nicolas Venteclef Phone: +33-(0)1-44272467, FAX: +33-(0)1-44272427 E-mail: <u>nicolas.venteclef@upmc.fr</u> or Irina Udalova Phone: +44-(0)1865-612637, FAX: +44-(0)1865-612601 E-mail: <u>Irina.udalova@kennedy.ox.ac.uk</u>

Abstract

Accumulation of visceral adipose tissue correlates with inflammation and increased risk of metabolic diseases. However, little is known about the molecular mechanisms that control its pathological expansion. Transcription factor interferon regulatory factor 5 (IRF5) has been implicated in polarizing macrophages towards an inflammatory phenotype. Here we demonstrate that mice lacking IRF5 show limited growth of epididymal white adipose tissue (epiWAT). EpiWAT from IRF5 deficient mice is marked by accumulation of alternatively activated macrophages, higher collagen deposition that restricts adipocyte size and enhanced insulin sensitivity compared to wild-type mice. In obese subjects, *IRF5* expression is negatively associated with insulin sensitivity and collagen deposition in visceral adipose tissue. Genome-wide analysis of gene expression in adipose tissue macrophages highlights TGFB1 gene itself as a direct target of IRF5 inhibition. This study uncovers a novel function for IRF5 in controlling visceral adiposity and suggests that inhibition of IRF5 would promote a healthy metabolic state during obesity.

INTRODUCTION

Obesity and its comorbidities, including glucose intolerance and type 2 diabetes (T2D), are frequently associated with the accumulation of adipose tissue in the intra-abdominal area (named visceral obesity)¹. On the contrary, individuals with predominant capacities to store fat in the subcutaneous depots rather show a better metabolic profile^{2,3}. The molecular and cellular mechanisms behind these clinical observations remain poorly understood. There has been a growing interest in the ability of macrophages to balance adipose tissue inflammation towards a pathological versus an adaptive response. Macrophages populating lean adipose tissue typically express M2 or "alternatively activated" macrophage markers including the mannose receptor (CD206) and secrete anti-inflammatory cytokines (such as interleukin (IL)-10), contributing to the maintenance of tissue homeostasis. During obesity, "classically activated" (M1) macrophages that produce pro-inflammatory mediators such as Tumor Necrosis Factor α (TNF α) or IL-1 β accumulate into the adipose tissue and promote insulin resistance^{4,5}. Interfering with transcription factors controlling M2 macrophage, such as KLF4 and PPARy, predispose rodents to development of diet-induced obesity, insulin resistance, and glucose intolerance^{6,7}. Surprisingly, no study has yet focused on genetic or pharmaceutical ablation of the M1 macrophage molecular program to prevent obesityinduced complications.

Interferon (IFN) regulatory factors (IRFs) are a family of nine transcription factors (IRF1-9) involved in cytosolic pattern recognition receptor- and Toll-like receptor (TLR)-mediated signal transduction and immune cell differentiation. In humans, IRF5 has been associated with susceptibility to inflammatory and autoimmune diseases⁸. Our earlier work demonstrated that IRF5 plays a key role in polarizing macrophage towards a pro-inflammatory M1 phenotype by controlling expression of M1 markers and thereby promoting T helper type (Th)1 and Th17 responses⁹. Of interest, we and others also showed enhanced Th17 responses in human visceral adipose tissue of obese and diabetic subjects compared to non-obese controls¹⁰⁻¹². Here we reveal that whole-body and myeloid cell-specific ablation of IRF5 induces massive tissue remodeling in the intra-abdominal adipose tissue and concomitant type 2 immune response. Consequently, IRF5-deficient mice showed enlarged subcutaneous fat mass and were protected from obesity-induced metabolic dysfunction. In human obese adipose tissue, *IRF5* expression negatively correlated with collagen deposition and was positively associated with insulin resistance. Mechanistically, IRF5 directly inhibits transcriptional activation of *TGFB1* gene known to play a key role in tissue remodeling. Thus,

we identified IRF5 as a critical factor in adipose tissue macrophage polarization, controlling metabolic homeostasis during obesity.

RESULTS

Obesity induces the expression of Irf5 in adipose tissue macrophages

To explore the role of IRF5 in adipose tissue during obesity, we analyzed the Irf5 gene expression in inguinal fat (ingWAT, defined as the subcutaneous fat depot) and intraabdominal adipose tissues including epiWAT and retroperitoneal (retWAT) depots from C57BL/6 mice fed with a standard chow (CD) or a high-fat diet (HFD) for 12 weeks. IRF5 gene and protein expression were increased in the intra-abdominal depots compared to ingWAT during obesity (Fig. 1a-b). Irf5 expression in epiWAT was incremental to the duration of the high fat feeding (Fig. 1c), suggesting a functional role of IRF5 in the visceral fat pads. To further identify the cellular sources of IRF5, we isolated the adipocytes and the stromal cell fraction from epiWAT of obese mice, including immuno-selected F4/80-positive cells (macrophages) and F4/80-negative cells. Irf5 mRNA levels were higher in the F4/80positive cells than in any other cell fractions of epiWAT in both CD- and HFD-fed mice (Fig. 1d). We observed that Irf5 was specifically expressed in F4/80-positive macrophages isolated from the epiWAT compared to ingWAT during HFD (Fig. 1e). Obesity induced accumulation of CD11b⁺F4/80⁺ macrophages into epiWAT but not ingWAT (Fig. 1f). Accordingly, Irf5 expression correlated with the number of CD11b⁺F4/80⁺CD11c⁺ M1 macrophages infiltrating epiWAT (Fig. 1g).

IRF5 modulates intra-abdominal adipose remodeling

Seven-week-old male C57BL6 mice genetically ablated for *Irf5* (KO) and age- and sexmatched wild-type (WT) littermates were fed with either CD or HFD for 12 weeks. We did not observe any difference in weight between WT and KO mice on CD (**Fig. 2a**). The KO mice on HFD gained more weight and MRI-evaluated fat mass without change in lean mass (**Fig. 2a-b** and **Supplementary Fig. 1a**). Detailed analysis of food intake using lean body mass as covariate (**Supplementary Fig. 1b**) revealed a difference between WT and the KO mice on HFD (1.084 g \pm 0.1853 *versus* 1.805 g \pm 0.1853, respectively; *P*<0,05), with the latter being hyperphagic. Energy expenditure and physical activity were not different between genotypes (**Supplementary Fig. 1c-d**). Specific expansion of the subcutaneous ingWAT depot is likely to explain the *Irf5* knockout-mediated weight and fat mass gain (**Fig. 2b**). Histological examination revealed that epiWAT and retWAT but not ingWAT from the KO mice are characterized by higher collagen deposition compared to WT mice as determined by red picrosirius staining (**Fig. 2c**). We observed higher expression of types I, III and IV collagen (*Col1a1*, *Col3a1* and *Col4a1*) in obese KO mice (**Fig. 2c**). Adipocyte diameter was smaller in epiWAT and retWAT of the KO mice compared to WT mice (**Fig. 2d** and Supplementary Fig. 1e), while, *Irf5* expression correlated positively with adipocyte diameter in epiWAT of obese WT mice (Fig. 2e). Adipocytes from the subcutaneous ingWAT depot were larger in the KO than WT mice (Fig. 2d and Supplementary Fig. 1e). Lipolysis-derived glycerol release and gene expression of the lipolytic enzyme *Atgl* (Adipose triglyceride lipase) were increased in epiWAT and retWAT compared to ingWAT of obese KO mice (Supplementary Fig. 1f), suggesting lipid partitioning in favor of the healthy inguinal depots. Measurement of intrahepatic triglycerides, histological examination and fibrotic gene expression did not reveal any difference in the liver of the KO mice compared to WT (Supplementary Fig. 1g-h).

Deficiency in IRF5 promotes type 2 immune responses

EpiWAT remodeling in the IRF5 KO mice on HFD was associated with a massive accumulation of macrophages compared to WT controls (**Fig. 2f-g**). EpiWAT macrophages isolated from the KO expressed higher levels of the typical M2 surface antigen CD206 compared to controls, while expression of the M1 markers CD11c and MHCII were unchanged (**Fig. 2h** and **Supplementary Fig. 2a**). Similarly, EpiWAT explants from the KO mice produced higher levels of IL-10 with no difference in IL-6, IL-1 β and TNF- α (**Fig. 2i**). Inflammatory gene expression did not differ between WT and the KO mice on CD, suggesting a requirement of high fat feeding for activation of the IRF5 pathway (**Supplementary Fig. 2b**). The "M2 like" signature of the KO epiWAT macrophages was coupled with a type 2 immune response characterized by higher CD3⁺ T cell number and enhanced production of adipose tissue-derived IL-4, IL-5 and IL-13 compared to controls (**Fig. 2j and Supplementary Fig. 2c**). In contrast, concentrations of Th1/Th17 prototypical cytokines IFN- γ and IL-17 remained unchanged (**Fig. 2j**). IngWAT did not show similar fibro-inflammatory properties (**Supplementary Fig. 2d-g**).

Systemic IRF5 KO phenotype is mirrored by myeloid-specific deletion of IRF5

To demonstrate the cellular action of IRF5 in myeloid cells (macrophages), we generated macrophage (MacKO) cell-specific genetic deletion of *Irf5* by crossing *Irf5* lox/lox mice with LyzM-Cre mice. IRF5 expression and protein levels were reduced in bone marrow-derived macrophages and adipose tissue stromal cells (**Supplementary Fig. 3a**). The MacKO mice gained more weight than WT littermates (MacWT) on HFD (Fig. 3a). Weight gain was mainly associated with larger subcutaneous fat mass, mirroring the whole-body KO phenotype (**Fig. 3b** and **Supplementary Fig. 3b**). Histological analyses of epiWAT and retWAT from obese MacKO mice showed enhanced tissue remodeling (**Fig. 3c**) concomitant to higher

expression of types I, III and IV Collagens (**Supplementary Fig. 3c**) and overall smaller adipocytes compared to the MacWT (**Supplementary Fig. 3d**). We did not detect any difference in the liver weight and intrahepatic TG accumulation between both genotypes (**Supplementary Fig. 3e**). Similar to the whole-body KO, epiWAT isolated from obese MacKO was characterized by a massive infiltration of CD206⁺ M2 macrophages (**Fig 3d**) and CD3⁺ T cells including a specific increase in GATA3⁺IL-13⁺Th2 cells compared to controls (**Fig. 3e**—**f** and **Supplementary Fig. 3f**). EpiWAT explants of obese MacKO secreted higher concentrations of type 2 immune cytokines IL-5 and IL-13 compared to the MacWT (**Fig. 3g**). As expected, up-regulation of IL-5 was associated with higher number of CD11b⁺Siglec-F⁺ eosinophils into the epiWAT of obese MacKO compared to controls (**Fig. 3h**). IngWAT from MacKO showed no structural and fibro-inflammatory changes (data not shown). We also generated adipocyte-specific KO mice (AdipoKO) and subjected them to HFD. No structural or cellular changes in adipose tissue, including adipocyte size, collagen accumulation and type 2 immunity were observed in AdipoKO compared to controls (**Supplementary Fig. 4a-j**).

Myeloid deficiency in IRF5 preserves glucose homeostasis during obesity

We next examined the impact of the IRF5 deficiency on glucose homeostasis in HFD-fed mice. Fasting glycemia was not different between the Irf5 knockout models (KO and MacKO) and WT littermates (Fig. 4a). Consistent with an increase in fat mass, the fasting insulin concentrations were higher in the KO and MacKO mice compared to controls (Fig. 4b). Oral glucose tolerance tests (oGTT) confirmed that despite an increased total fat mass, the KO and MacKO mice had improved glucose tolerance (Fig. 4c). No change in oGTT was observed in the AdipoKO mice (Supplementary Fig. 5a). Of note, there was no modification in insulin secretion burst during oGTT between genotypes (Supplementary Fig. 5b), or in the insulin tolerance (Supplementary Fig. 5c). To encompass the effect of weight differences, we performed an insulin tolerance test with the MacKO and MacWT littermate mice matched for fat mass percentage (Supplementary Fig. 5d). In those settings, the MacKO mice were more insulin sensitive than the MacWT (Fig. 4d) with corresponding lower fasting insulinemia (Supplementary Fig. 5e). The insulin resistance index (HOMA-IR) normalized to fat mass was lower in the IRF5 knockout mice compared to controls (Fig. 4e). EpiWAT and to a lesser extent ingWAT explants isolated from obese MacKO showed an improved insulin signaling and insulin-induced glucose uptake, as well as higher concentrations of the insulin-sensitizing adipokine adiponectin in the serum compared to WT (Fig. 4f-i). No difference in insulin signaling was observed in liver and muscle between the genotypes on HFD (Supplementary Fig. 5f-g).

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Human IRF5 expression correlates with visceral adiposity and obesity-associated comorbidities

Immuno-staining of IRF5 in human visceral adipose tissue (viscWAT) of morbidly obese subjects confirmed that macrophages are the main cellular source of IRF5, as shown by staining for the pan and M1 macrophage markers CD68 and CD11c, respectively (Fig. 5a). The myeloid source of IRF5 was confirmed by increased IRF5 expression in immunoselected viscWAT CD14-positive cells (Fig. 5b), which also expressed high levels of CD68 (Supplementary Fig. 6a). IRF5 mRNA and protein levels were increased in viscWAT CD14positive cells from obese compared to non-obese subjects of population 1 (Supplementary **Table 1** and **Fig. 5c-d**). Expression of *IRF5* was strongly increased in viscWAT compared to the subcutaneous adipose tissue (scWAT) of morbidly obese subjects of population 1 (Supplementary Table 1 and Supplementary Fig. 6b). Next, we measured IRF5 expression in viscWAT isolated from lean (LE), overweight (OV) and obese (OB) subjects as well as patients with metabolic syndrome (MS) of population 2 (Supplementary Table 1). Obese individuals of population 2 had larger amount of visceral fat compared to lean controls and 50 % of patient with MS were diagnosed for T2D (Supplementary Table 1). IRF5 mRNA expression in viscWAT was progressively up-regulated in all three groups of obese subjects compared to lean controls (**Fig. 5e**) and was positively correlated (P < 0.0001) with the percentage of fat mass (Fig. 5f) and with the amount of visceral fat as determined by waist circumference (Fig. 5g). Moreover, glucose disposal rate (representing glucose uptake by peripheral tissues) and the HOMA-IR were negatively (P=0.0005) (Fig. 5h) and positively (P<0.0001) (Fig. 5i) correlated with IRF5 expression respectively. In agreement with our mouse data, the percentage of collagen accumulation as evaluated by picrosirius red staining negatively correlated with IRF5 (Fig. 5j), but not with CD68 expression in viscWAT (Supplementary Fig. 6c).

IRF5 directly inhibits TGFB1 expression in adipose tissue macrophages

To identify genes associated with *IRF5* expression in viscWAT macrophages of obese subjects, we conducted correlative analyses of the *IRF5* mRNA levels with the genome-wide transcriptional profiling of viscWAT CD14-positive cells immunoselected from 21 morbidly obese subjects of population 1 (**Supplementary Table 1**). We observed that *IRF5* expression was negatively associated (green bar) with 135 genes mostly involved in the TGF- β and MAPK pathways, while being positively correlated (red bar) with 32 genes mainly

involved in the Janus Kinase-signal transducer and activator of transcription pathways (Fig. 6a and Supplementary Fig. 6d). IRF5 expression correlated negatively with TGFB1 expression in the same subjects (P<0.0001) (Fig. 6b), while it was positively associated with the expression of pro-inflammatory innate immune markers, such as ITGAX (also known as CD11c) and TLR4 (Supplementary Fig. 6e). Moreover, TGFB1 expression strongly correlates with the percentage of collagen accumulation in viscWAT of obese subjects (P<0.0001) (Fig. 6c). Therefore, we hypothesize that IRF5 might directly control the transcription of TGFB1 in human viscWAT macrophages. We conducted gain (adenoviral over-expression) and loss (siRNA depletion) of function experiments in CD14-positive cells isolated from human viscWAT and human monocyte-derived macrophages (HMDM) cultured in the presence of viscWAT adipose tissue conditioned media (ATCM) to mimic fat environment^{11,13}. Ectopic expression of IRF5 in viscWAT CD14-positive cells of non-obese subjects strongly repressed expression of TGFB1 (Fig. 6d and Supplementary Fig. 7a). IRF5 also up-regulated the expression of the ATCM-induced inflammatory markers such as IL1B, IL6 and TNF and down-regulated that of IL10 and MRC1 (also known as CD206) as previously reported ⁹ (Supplementary Fig. 7b). Depletion of IRF5 interfered with the ATCMinduced pro-inflammatory gene expression (Supplementary Fig. 7c-e) and promoted expression of TGFB1 (Fig. 6e). In our mouse models, Tafb1 expression was higher in the stromal cells isolated from epiWAT of both the KO and MacKO mice compared to controls (Fig. 6f). Expression levels of Tqfb2 and Tqfb3 as well as genes involved in tissue remodeling such as Lox and Mmp9 were also up-regulated in the epiWAT stromal cells of the IRF5 knockout mice compared to controls (Supplementary Fig. 7f).

To further elucidate the molecular mechanisms of the IRF5-mediated inhibition of *TGFB1*, we examined IRF5 recruitment to the *TGFB1* gene promoter in the IRF5-transduced viscWAT CD14-positive cells of non-obese subjects using chromatin immunoprecipitation (ChIP). Binding of IRF5 to the *TGFB1* promoter led to reduction of RNA polymerase II recruitment to the same region (**Fig. 6g**). Moreover, IRF5 binding to the *TGFB1* promoter was also enriched in the viscWAT stromal cells isolated from obese subjects compared to non-obese controls (**Fig. 6h**). To further support the direct role of IRF5 in the transcriptional inhibition of the TGF- β -mediated tissue remodeling, epiWAT explants from the MacWT and MacKO mice were treated with anti-TGF- β 1 neutralizing antibody or isotype control and then collagen transcripts were quantified. Collagen I, III and IV expression levels were reduced in the epiWAT explants from the MacKO mice treated with anti-TGF- β 1 while no effect was observed in the MacWT control mice (**Fig. 6i**).

DISCUSSION

The expandability hypothesis states that fat expansion is required to store energy surplus efficiently and prevent ectopic lipid deposition and metabolic complications. Indeed, not all obese subjects eventually develop comorbidities including T2D despite increased adiposity. Clinical studies have demonstrated that excess accumulation of intra-abdominal adipose tissue is closely related to clustering cardio-metabolic risk factors^{1,14,15}. Conversely, increased amounts of subcutaneous adipose tissue confer to some patients' metabolic benefits such as improved insulin sensitivity and lower risks of developing T2D^{16,17}. Our study offers a detailed analysis of a novel transgenic mouse model which directly supports the concept that limiting visceral fat mass results in improvement of glucose homeostasis. IRF5 deficiency induced pronounced accumulation of fat in the healthy subcutaneous depot while enhanced lipolytic activity and fibrotic tissue remodeling limited intra-abdominal adipose expansion. Both subcutaneous and intra-abdominal adipose tissue depots showed increased adiponectin secretion and insulin sensitivity supporting metabolic improvement in IRF5 knockout mice. This novel function of IRF5 is reinforced by our human observations showing a positive correlation of IRF5 gene expression with visceral obesity and negative associations with visceral fat collagen accumulation and metabolic fitness.

Adipose tissue remodeling often relates to the accumulation of interstitial extracellular matrix, associated with modifications of adipocyte properties and expansion^{18,19}. In mouse models of abnormal collagen accumulation, developmental fibrosis rigidity limited adipose tissue expansion^{20,21}. In contrast, targeted deletion of Col6 or Mmp12 in obese mice resulted in healthy expansion of individual adipocytes^{22,23}. In humans, obese subjects with high COL6A1 mRNA in the subcutaneous depot showed increased visceral fat mass, supporting the adipose tissue expandability hypothesis^{24,25}. Here, we observe lower *IRF5* expression in the subcutaneous adipose tissue compared to the visceral depot, consistent with the subcutaneous adipose layer being the most fibrotic tissue in our cohort of morbidly obese subjects^{19,24,26}. Over the last decade, it has been generally accepted that abnormal collagen deposition is a key feature of adipose tissue dysfunction during obesity ¹⁸. However, these extracellular matrix dynamics are believed to occur in the pro-inflammatory context of hypertrophic adipocytes, local hypoxia and pathological immunity and may be initiated independently of macrophage infiltration²⁷. For instance, adipocyte inflammation was proposed to contribute to healthy adipose tissue remodeling supporting the concept of beneficial inflammation²⁸. Here, we show that IRF5-deficient macrophages selectively orchestrate healthy remodeling in the epiWAT concomitant with an insulin-sensitizing type 2

immune environment.

Inflammatory macrophages expressing IRF5 accumulate into the intra-abdominal adipose tissue of obese mice. Macrophages, known to drive an inflammatory program within obese adipose tissue, are believed to also orchestrate fibrogenesis in several organs^{29,30}. In human adipose tissue, macrophages are often found in close proximity with collagen-producing cells such as adipocyte progenitors and inside fibrotic bundles^{24,31}. A number of recent studies demonstrated the link between TLR signalling pathways, activation of adipose tissue macrophages and tissue remodeling^{9,32,33}. Mice with a TLR4 loss of function mutation transplanted with wild-type bone marrow demonstrated increased expression of both macrophage markers and tissue remodeling features in the epididymal adipose tissue²¹. In accordance with our findings, there was no evidence of fibrosis and macrophage activation in the subcutaneous fat²¹. Considering the absence of phenotype in the adipocyte-specific IRF5 KO, we believe that epididymal adipose tissue remodeling observed in the MacKO mice is driven by the massive accumulation of alternatively activated M2 macrophages and subsequent increased expression of the major remodeling modulator TGF-\beta1. This is consistent with other studies observing an increased expression of TGF-B1 in adipose tissue remodeling by obesity^{21,24,34,35}.

Here, we discovered an additional mechanism of IRF5-controlled macrophage polarization, *i.e.* IRF5 can directly repress TGFB1 in macrophages (Fig. 6J). Consequently, IRF5 deficiency induces TGF-B1 signaling, leading to collagen deposition and tissue remodeling specifically in the intra-abdominal adipose depot where macrophages preferentially accumulate during obesity. This adaptive program is characterized by a concomitant infiltration of Th2 cells and eosinophils and the secretion of "fibrokines" such as IL-5 and IL-13. Such type 2 immunity was previously implicated in insulin sensitivity and maintenance of glucose homeostasis³⁶. In addition to its remodeling activities, TGF-β1 was shown to inhibit adipogenesis of 3T3-L1 cells and human preadipocytes, contributing to the overall interference of adipose tissue growth^{37,38}. Due to the relative paucity of the IRF5 positive macrophages in the subcutaneous fat depot in obese mice, the ingWAT was unaffected by IRF5 deficiency and could buffer the lipid flux through healthy expansion (Fig. 6J). In summary, our observations support the strong relationship linking inflammatory processes to extracellular matrix deposition. Depending on the adipose depot at stake, the adipocyte size restriction in the intra-abdominal or the subcutaneous area can beneficially or pathologically, respectively, affect metabolic homeostasis.

Considering the key role of macrophages in adipose tissue function, it is tempting to speculate that IRF5 expression is a finely tuned balance between macrophage adaptive

versus pathological responses in immune-metabolic diseases such as T2D.

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Author contributions

E.D, I.A.U and N.Ve. conceived the study and wrote the manuscript. E.D. performed part of the in vivo studies (human and mouse) and data analysed. A.T and F.A performed the in vivo studies and data analyses, and assisted in the preparation of the manuscript. K.B, H.L.E., M.P., I.H., Y.L. and P.A. assisted with the mouse studies. S.A and K.L assisted with flow cytometry analyses. A.L., R.GP.D, C.C-G performed the metabolic analyses in vivo. E.M, N.Vi, C.P. V.S, A.T., J.A-W, D.L. and KC contributed to the human data collection, data analyses and interpretation. O.A. and K.C. performed statistical analyses in population 1. F.F., S.L., J.A-W, D.L. and K.C. interpreted and assisted in the writing of the manuscript. I.A.U and N.Ve designed, analysed and interpreted the studies.

Competing financial interests

The authors declare no competing financial interests.
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Figure Legends

Figure 1: IRF5 is specifically induced in visceral adipose tissue macrophages during obesity.

(a) Irf5 gene profiling in inguinal white adipose tissue (ingWAT), epididymal (epiWAT) and retroperitoneal (retWAT) of mice fed with a chow diet (CD) or high fat diet (HFD) for 12 weeks (n=5). (b) Protein levels of IRF5 in ingWAT and epiWAT from lean and diet-induced obese mice (after 12 weeks of CD or HFD). (c) Gene expression of Irf5 in epiWAT of lean and diet-induced obese mice subjected to 4, 8 and 12 weeks HFD (n=5). (d) Gene profiling of Irf5 in epiWAT fractions including adipocytes (Adipo) and stromal cell fraction composed of macrophages (immuno-selected F4/80-positive cells) and the F4/80-negative fraction (Neg) (n=5 in each group). (e) Measurement of Irf5 mRNA levels in isolated adipose tissue macrophages (immune-selected F4/80-positive cells) from ingWAT and epiWAT from lean and diet-induced obese mice after 12 weeks of CD or HFD (n=5). (f) Flow cytometry analyses of stromal fractions isolated from ingWAT and epiWAT of mice fed a CD and HFD for 12 weeks (n=5). Macrophages were identified as CD11b⁺F4/80⁺ cells. Results are expressed as mean percentages among stromal CD45⁺ cells ± SEM. Differences between groups (CD versus HFD) were determined by non-parametric unpaired Mann-Whitney comparative tests or analysis of variance (ANOVA), Bonferroni's post hoc test, * P<0.05, ** P<0.01, ***P<0.001 (from post hoc test). (g) Correlative analysis between Irf5 mRNA levels and percentages of pro-inflammatory M1 macrophages identified as CD11b⁺F4/80⁺CD11c⁺ cells in the same epiWAT of mice after 8-12 weeks of HFD (n=16). Correlation was assessed by non-parametric Spearman's test (r=0.98, P<0.001).

Figure 2: IRF5 deficiency promotes intra-abdominal adipose tissue remodeling and type 2 immune response while enhancing inguinal adiposity

(a) Weight (grams) of WT (n=5) and KO (n=6) mice during 12 weeks of CD (Chow Diet) and HFD (High Fat Diet). (b) Fat mass (grams) in WT and KO mice after 12 weeks of HFD. Weights of ingWAT, epiWAT, retWAT and the sum of these weights (total WAT) from WT and KO mice after 12 weeks of HFD. (c) Left, representative illustration and quantification of collagen deposition in ingWAT, epiWAT and retWAT from WT (n=5) and KO (n=6) mice after 12 weeks of HFD (Scale bars, 100 μ m). Right, collagen expression (*Col1a1, Col3a1* and *Col4a1*) in ingWAT, epiWAT and retWAT from WT (n=5) and KO (n=6) mice after 12 weeks of HFD. (d) Left, representative images of haematoxylin and eosin staining of ingWAT,

epiWAT and retWAT. Right, quantification of adipocyte size in ingWAT, epiWAT and retWAT of WT (n=5) and KO (n=6) HFD-fed mice (Scale bars, 100 um). (e) Correlative analysis between Irf5 mRNA levels and adipocyte diameters in epiWAT of mice after 12 weeks of HFD (n=12). Correlations were assessed by non-parametric Spearman's test (r=0.87, P=0.004). (f) Representative images of immunohistochemistry staining for CD68 in epiWAT from WT and KO mice after 12 weeks of HFD. (g) Left, representative flow cytometry plots showing frequencies of CD11b⁺F4/80⁺ macrophages among stromal CD45⁺ cells isolated from epiWAT of WT (33.9% ± 7.7, n=5) and KO (56.2% ± 5.1, n=6) mice on HFD. Right, macrophages expressed per gram of epiWAT. (h) Quantification of CD11b⁺F4/80⁺ CD206⁺ (left) or CD11c⁺ (right) cells isolated from epiWAT of WT (n=5) and KO (n=6) mice on HFD. (i) Concentration of cytokines in epiWAT culture media of WT (n=5) and KO (n=6) mice fed HFD. (j) Left, guantification of CD45⁺CD3⁺ lymphocytes among stromal CD45⁺ cells isolated from epiWAT of WT (n=5) and KO (n=6) mice on HFD. Lymphocytes expressed per gram of epiWAT. Right, concentrations of cytokines in epiWAT culture media of WT (n=5) and KO (n=6) mice on the HFD. Data represent mean values ± SEM. Differences between groups (WT versus KO) were determined by non-parametric unpaired Mann-Whitney comparative tests or analysis of variance (ANOVA), Bonferroni's post hoc test, * P<0.05, ** P<0.01, ***P<0.001 (from post hoc test).

Figure 3: Specific IRF5 deletion in myeloid cells promotes subcutaneous adiposity and intra-abdominal adipose tissue remodeling

(a) Weight gain (grams) of MacWT (n=5) and MacKO (n=6) mice during 12 weeks of HFD. (b) Left, fat mass (grams) of MacWT and MacKO mice after 12 weeks of HFD. Right, weights (grams) of ingWAT, epiWAT, retWAT and the sum of these weights (total WAT) from MacWT (n=5) and IRF5 MacKO (n=6) after 12 weeks of HFD. (c) Representative images (left) and quantification of collagen deposition (right) in epiWAT from MacWT (n=5) and MacKO (n=6) mice after 12 weeks of HFD (Scale bars, 100μ m). (d) Left, quantification of stromal CD45⁺F4/80⁺CD11b⁺ cells expressed per gram of epiWAT and right, CD206⁺ cells expressed as percentage among CD45⁺F4/80⁺CD11b⁺ cells isolated from epiWAT of MacWT (n=5) and MacKO (n=6) mice on HFD. (e) Quantification of stromal CD45⁺CD3⁺ cells are expressed per gram of epiWAT (WT n=5 verus KO n=6). (f) Left, representative flow cytometry plots showing frequencies of GATA3⁺IL-13⁺ Th2 cells among CD45⁺CD3⁺ cells isolated from epiWAT of WT (8.6% ± 1.5, n=5) and KO (20.8% ± 2.5, n=5) mice on HFD. Right, Th2 cells expressed per gram of epiWAT. (g) Concentrations of IL-5 and IL-13 in epiWAT culture media of MacWT and MacKO mice on HFD (n=5). (h) Left, representative flow cytometry plots showing frequencies of CD11b⁺SIGLEC-F⁺ eosinophils among stromal CD45⁺ cells isolated from epiWAT of WT (0.8% \pm 0.27, n=5) and KO (2.05% \pm 0.33, n=6) mice on HFD. Right, eosinophils expressed per gram of epiWAT. Data represent mean \pm values. Differences between groups (MacWT *versus* MacKO) were determined by non-parametric unpaired Mann-Whitney comparative tests or analysis of variance (ANOVA), Bonferroni's post hoc test, * P<0.05, ** P<0.01, ***P<0.001 (from post hoc test).

Figure 4: IRF5 depletion preserves glucose homeostasis during obesity

Fasting blood concentrations of glucose (a) and insulin (b) of HFD-fed WT (n=5) and IRF5 KO (n=6) models (whole-body KO and macrophage specific MacKO). (c) Oral glucose tolerance test (oGTT) in WT (n=5) and KO (n=6) (left) and MacWT (n=5) and MacKO (n=6) (right) mice fed a HFD for 12 weeks. Results are representative from 3 independent experiments. (d) Insulin tolerance test (ITT) in MacWT and MacKO adjusted on the percentage of fat mass after HFD for 12 (MacKO) and 16 (MacWT) weeks of HFD (n=5). (e) HOMA-IR index normalized by the fat mass of WT and KO mice and MacWT and MacKO models (n=5). (f) MacWT and MacKO HFD-fed mice were injected intraperitoneally with 1 U/kg insulin. Representative epiWAT (left) and ingWAT (right) tissue samples were examined by immunoblot analyses by probing antibodies to AKT, phospho-AKT (pAKT-S473) and phospho-Gsk3 (pGSK3). Results are representative of at least 4 independent experiments. (g-h) ingWAT and epiWAT explants of HFD-fed MacWT and MacKO mice were stimulated ex-vivo with insulin (100 nM) for 10 minutes. (g) Intracellular radiolabelled [3H]-2deoxyglucose was guantified in both depots (n=3). (h) Insulin signaling (AKT, phospho-AKT (pAKT-S473) and phospho-Gsk3 (pGsk3) was also investigated in epiWAT upon similar condition described in (f). Results are representative of at least 4 independent experiments. (i) Adiponectin concentrations (µg/ml) in epiWAT culture media and serum of MacWT and MacKO (n=5). Data represent mean values ± SEM. Differences between groups (MacWT versus MacKO) were determined by non-parametric unpaired Mann-Whitney comparative tests or analysis of variance (ANOVA), Bonferroni's post hoc test, * P<0.05, ** P<0.01, ***P<0.001 (from post hoc test).

Figure 5: IRF5 expression in macrophages is associated with adipose tissue collagen deposition in human obesity.

(a) Representative images of immunohistochemistry staining for IRF5, CD68 and CD11c in viscWAT of obese subjects (n=4) (Scale bars, 100 μ m (top) and 50 μ m (bottom)). (b) *IRF5* mRNA in viscWAT cell fractions: adipocytes (Adipo), macrophages (immunoselected CD14-

positive cells), lymphocytes (immunoselected CD3-positive cells) and the double negative fraction isolated from morbidly obese subjects (n=10, population 1). (c) *IRF5* mRNA and (d) representative images of western blot analyses of IRF5 protein in immunoselected CD14-positive macrophages isolated from viscWAT of non-obese (n=4) and morbidly obese (n=21, population 1) subjects (e) *IRF5* gene profiling in viscWAT from lean (LE, n=12), overweight (OV, n=12), obese (OB, n=14) subjects and patients with metabolic syndrome (MS, n=14) (population 2). Correlation analyses between *IRF5* mRNA levels and (f) fat mass (r=0.52, P<0.0001), (g) waist circumference (r=0.60, P<0.0001), (h) glucose disposal rate (r=-0.46, P=0.0005) and (i) HOMA-IR (r=-0.77, P=0.0012). (j) Correlative analyses of *IRF5* mRNA levels and percentages of collagen accumulation in viscWAT from obese subjects (n=15). Correlations were assessed by non-parametric Spearman's test. Data represent mean values ± SEM. Differences between groups (non obese *versus* obese or LE *versus* OV *versus* OB *versus* MS) were determined by non-parametric unpaired Mann-Whitney comparative tests or analysis of variance (ANOVA), Bonferroni's post hoc test, * P<0.05, ** P<0.01, ***P<0.001 (from post hoc test).

Figure 6: IRF5 controls transcription of the *TGFB1* gene in human adipose tissue macrophages.

(a) Regulatory model of IRF5 activity based on pangenomic profiling of human adipose tissue macrophages isolated from viscWAT CD14-positive cells of obese patients (n=21, population 1). (b) Correlative analysis between mRNA levels of IRF5 and TGFB1 of viscWAT CD14positive cells from obese subjects (r=-0.85, P < 0.0001, n=21, population 1). (c) Correlative analyses of TGFB1 mRNA levels and percentages of collagen accumulation of viscWAT from obese subjects (r=0.68, P=0.006, n=15, Population 1). (d) Adenoviral overexpression of IRF5 or GFP in immunoselected CD14-positive cells isolated from viscWAT of obese subjects (n=5, population 1). mRNA quantification of TGFB1 gene. (e) siRNA depletion of IRF5 (siIRF5) or control (siCTL) in human macrophage-derived monocytes (HMDM) stimulated by adipose tissue conditioned media (ATCM) for 24h. mRNA quantification of TGFB1 gene (n=5). (f) Tafb1 gene profiling in epiWAT stromal cells isolated from KO (n=6) and MacKO (n=6) mice compared to WT littermate controls (n=5). (g-h) Recruitment of IRF5 and RNA polymerase 2 (POL2) onto the promoter of TGFB1 gene in (g) HMDM over-expressing IRF5 or GFP and stimulated with ATCM and (h) viscWAT stromal cells isolated from obese subjects (n=4, population 1) (i) mRNA quantification of collagen genes in epiWAT explants from obese MacWT and MacKO treated with a neutralizing antibody against TGF- β 1 or IgG control for 24h (n=4). Data represent mean values ± SEM. Differences between groups were

determined by non-parametric unpaired Mann-Whitney comparative tests or analysis of variance (ANOVA), Bonferroni's post hoc test, * P<0.05, ** P<0.01, ***P<0.001 (from post hoc test). (J) Model depicting the role of IRF5 in adipose tissue remodelling and glucose tolerance.

Online Methods

Study populations

Population 1: morbidly obese patients, candidates for bariatric surgery, were recruited in the Nutrition division of Pitié-Salpêtrière Hospital, Institute of Cardiometabolism and Nutrition (ICAN), Paris (France). We used, as part of this study, biopsies of visceral adipose tissue (viscWAT) obtained during gastric bypass surgery (obese subjects) or during elective surgery (non-obese subjects) (Table 1). In obese subjects, we evaluated body fat mass by biphotonic absorptiometry (DXA) and a series of bioclinical variables was obtained after 12 hours fasting. Tissue samples were stored at -80 °C until RNA extraction. The study was conducted in accordance with the Helsinki Declaration and was registered in a public trial registry (ID Number: NCT01655017). The Ethics Committee (CPP Ile-de-France) approved the clinical investigations for all individuals. All subjects provided written informed consent when included in the surgery program.

Population 2: individuals scheduled to have visceral surgery (laparoscopic or laparotomic cholecystectomy, hysterectomy and gastric banding) at the Departments of Surgery and Gynecology at Kralovske Vinohrady Faculty Hospital in Prague was included. Exclusion criteria were: malignancy, current inflammatory conditions as diagnosed by clinical status and laboratory findings, known endocrinopathy, chronic liver or kidney disease, psychiatric disorders and body weight fluctuations >2% over the preceding 3 months. Each participant gave written informed consent and the study was approved by the Ethic Committee of the Third Faculty of Medicine, Charles University, Prague. According to BMI, and presence or absence of the metabolic syndrome evaluated according to the International Diabetes Federation criteria. The participants were stratified into four groups: lean (LE; n=12), overweight (OV; n=12), obese (OB; n=14) and obese with the metabolic syndrome (MS ; n=14). Tissue samples were stored at -80 °C until RNA extraction. This population has already been described^{39,40}

Request regarding clinical studies:

Karine.clement@psl.aphp.fr, (Population 1)

Vladimir.stich@lf3.cuni.cz or Dominique.langin@inserm.fr (Population 2)

Animals

Male C57BI6/J IRF5 whole-body knockout and wild-type littermate controls were bred at the Kennedy Institute of Rheumatology at Imperial College (London, UK) as previously described⁴¹. Studies were carried out according to the National health and medical research

of UK guidelines. High fat diets (Research Diet, 60% fat) were started at 7 weeks of age and continued for 12 weeks (n=5-6 per experiment) with *ad libitum* access to water and food. The diet-induced obesity experiments were repeated 3 times independently.

To generate IRF5 AdipoKO and MacKO, IRF5lox/lox mice from The Jackson Laboratory, (C57BL6-IRF5^{tm1Ppr}, stock number: 017311) were crossed to either LyzM-cre mice from the Jackson Laboratory (B6.129P2-Lyz2tm1(cre)Ifo/J-cre mice, stock number: 04788) or Adiponectin-cre mice from the Jackson Laboratory (B6;FVB-Tg(Adipoq-cre)1Evdr/J, stock number: 010803) for at least 5 generations before starting *in vivo* experiments. Male C57BI6/J IRF5 AdipoKO or MacKO and their WT littermates were bred in the "Centre exploration fonctionnel (CEF)" at Paris University (UPMC, 91 and 105 boulevard de l'hopital Paris 13) according to the French research council guidelines. High fat diets were started at the age of 7 weeks and were continued for 12 weeks (n= 5-8 per experiment) with *ad libitum* access to water and food. The diet-induced obesity experiments were repeated 2-3 (faut être précis non?) times independently. We randomly allocated cages of mice to the experimental groups by random raw. We did blind investigators to metabolic tests.

In vivo studies

Mice were fasted overnight and tail vein blood was collected. Plasma samples were stored at -20°C until they were analyzed. Oral Glucose Tolerance Tests (oGTT) and Insulin Tolerance Tests (ITT) were performed as previously described⁴². For insulin signaling assays, MacWT and IRF5 MacKO HFD-fed mice were fasted overnight and then treated by intraperitoneal injection with 2U/kg insulin (15 minutes). Tissue samples were examined by immunoblot analysis by probing with antibodies to phospho-AKT (Cell signaling #9331S), AKT (Cell signaling #9272S) and phospho-GSK3 (Cell signaling #9378S).

Analysis of metabolic parameters

Blood glucose level was measured using a glucometer (Accu-Chek Performa, Roche). Plasma insulin (Cristal Chem Inc, Dowers Grove, IL, USA) and adiponectin (R&D system) levels were determined by ELISA. *HOMA-IR* in mice was calculated using the equation ((Fasting Glucose concentration x Fasting Insulin concentration)/405) as previously reported⁴³. *Glucose uptake* of [3H]-2-deoxyglucose was assayed as described previously⁴⁴. In brief, adipose tissue explants (ingWAT and epiWAT) were preincubated in the absence or presence of 100 nmol/l of insulin and 50 mmol/l of [3H]-2DG (NEN, Boston,Mass., USA, specific activity 26.2 Ci/mmol). After 10 min incubation, explants were washed in ice-cold KRH buffer to stop transport and washed an additional four times in the same buffer in order to remove unbound label. Explants were blotted and then proteins were quantified to normalized. 3H radioactivity was determined by scintillation counting using a Minaxa Scintillation counter from Packard. Basal glucose uptake was taken as 2-deoxyglucose uptake in the absence of insulin. Liver TGs were extracted as previously described⁴⁵ and measured with a colorimetric diagnostic kit according to the manufacturer's instructions (Randox Laboratories)

Immunohistochemical and morphometric analyses

Adipose tissue samples were fixed in formaldehyde solution and embedded in paraffin according to standard procedure. Tissue sections (7.5 μ m thick) were stained with i) hematoxylin and eosin to determine adipocyte diameters, ii) anti-human CD68 (KP1; Dako), anti-human CD11c (5D11; NovoCastra) and anti-mouse/human IRF5 (ab33478; Abcam) antibodies and iii) red picrosirius staining to quantify collagen accumulation as previously described⁴⁶. Adipocyte diameters were measured digitally in histological light-microscopy images (20x) of adipose tissue sections (n=50 adipocytes per section, 3 sections per animal, 5 animals per groups) using ImageJ software.

Adipose cell isolation and flow cytometry analyses:

The stroma vascular fraction (SVF) containing mononuclear cells and preadipocytes was extracted from adipose tissue.

For human: Adipose tissue was digested using collagenase (Roche) as previously described⁴⁷ to obtain adipocytes and cells from the SVF. SVF cells were resuspended in endotoxin-free PBS supplemented with 2% FCS and 1 mM EDTA. Positive isolation of CD14-positive and CD3-positive cells from SVF cells was performed using magnetic beads (Stemcell Technologies) according to the manufacturer's instructions. The CD14/CD3 double negative cells (Neg) were also recovered. Cells were immediately used for total RNA or protein extraction.

For mouse: Adipose tissue was digested using collagenase (Roche) as previously described⁴⁸ to obtain adipocytes and cells of the SVF. After 15 min incubation with Fc block, SVF cells were resuspended in fluorescence-activated cell sorter (FACS) buffer and stained with appropriate antibodies conjugated to fluorochromes or isotype controls for 30 min at 4°C in the dark: CD45 (30-F11; eBioscience, #47-0451-82), CD3 (17A2; eBioscience, #11-0032-82), F4/80 (BM8; eBioscience, #25-4801-82), CD11b (M1/70; eBioscience, #17-0112-82), CD11c (N418; eBioscience, #48-0114-82), CD206 (C068C2; BioLegend, #141704), MHCII (M5/114.15.2; BDPharmigen , #562363) and Siglec-F (BDPharmigen, #552126). For intracellular staining, SVF cells were stimulated with phorbol-12-myristate-13-acetate (30

ng/mL; Sigma-Aldrich) and ionomycin (1 mg/mL; Alexis Biochemicals, San Diego, CA) at 37°C for 6 h with GolgiStop (BD Biosciences). Cells were then stained for surface markers, permeabilized with Cytofix/Cytoperm solution (BD Biosciences), and incubated for 40 min at room temperature in the dark with anti-IL-13 (eBioscience, #25-7133-82) and anti-GATA3 (BDPharmigen, #560074) antibodies. Live/Dead fixable viability dyes (Invitrogen, Paisley, UK) were used to discriminate between live and dead cells. Samples were acquired using an LSRII cytometer (Becton Dickinson) and analyzed with FACS Diva (BD Biosciences) and FlowJo (Tree Star) softwares.

Generation of monocyte-derived macrophages

HMDM: Human peripheral blood mononucleated cells were isolated from enriched buffy coats of healthy volunteer donors (Etablissement français du sang, Hôtel-Dieu hospital) by Ficoll density gradient centrifugation (PAA). Monocytes were purified by negative selection using Monocyte Isolation kit II (Miltenyi Biotec). Monocytes were differentiated for 6 days in RPMI 1640 medium supplemented with 10% FCS and 100 ng/mL of recombinant M-CSF (Miltenyi Biotec) to obtain human monocyte-derived macrophages (HMDM). HMDM were cultured for 24h in RPMI 1640 medium supplemented with recombinant cytokines as indicated and then processed for RNA extraction or ChIP assays.

BMDM: Mouse bone marrow was isolated from femurs and tibias from IRF5 KO or WT control mice. Bone marrows cells were plated in RPMI-1640 medium supplemented with 10% FCS and 30% L929 conditioned-media and were allowed to differentiate for 8-10 days into bone marrow-derived monocytes (BMDM). BMDM were used for RNA extraction.

Adipose tissue culture

Human and mouse adipose tissue biopsies (0.1g) were minced and incubated in 1 mL of endothelial cell basal medium (Promocell) containing 1% bovine serum albumin, penicillin (100 U/mL), and streptomycin (100 mg/mL). Adipose tissue conditioned media (ATCM) were recovered after 24h and stored at -80°C until analysis. Tissue viability was checked using lactate dehydrogenase (LDH) assay according to manufacturer's instructions (Biovision). Mouse epiWAT was cultured in the presence of a neutralizing antibody-against TGF- β 1 (1 µg/ml) for 24h or corresponding immunoglobulin G (IgG) isotype control (R&D system). At the end of the incubation period, epiWAT was frozen in liquid nitrogen, stored at -80°C and used for RNA extraction.

Analytic measurement

Cytokine concentrations from adipose tissue conditioned media (ATCM) and serum were analyzed using a MilliPlex Pro mouse Cytokine assay (Millipore). ATCM and serum concentrations of adiponectin and glycerol were determined using commercial kits (R&D system and Randox Laboratories, respectively).

Real-Time PCR

Adipose tissue, freshly isolated cells from adipose tissue and HMDM were processed for total RNA extraction using the RNeasy RNA Mini Kit (Invitrogen). Complementary DNAs were synthesized from and prepared with Supercript II reverse transcriptase (Invitrogen). SYBR green primers were designed by the manufacturer (Roche or Qiagen) and used for qRT-PCR using the StepOne real time PCR system (Applied Biosystem). 18S was used for normalization and for relative quantification of gene expression.

Western blot analysis

Samples for western blot analyses were diluted to a concentration of 20 μ g of protein per 15 μ l and heated at 70°C for 10 min. Membranes were imaged using a LiCor Odyssey scanner. Boxes were manually placed around each band of interest, which returned near-infrared fluorescent values of raw intensity with intra-lane background subtracted using Odyssey 3.0 analytical software (LiCor). The following antibodies were used: IRF5 (ab21689, Abcam), anti- β -actin (ab8226, Abcam), phospho-AKT (#9331S, Cell signaling), AKT (#9272S, Cell signaling) and phospho-GSK3 (#9378S, Cell signaling).

Chromatin ImmunoPrecipitation (ChIP)

ChIP assays were performed as described in detail previously⁴⁹ on HMDM stimulated with recombinant cytokines as indicated. Quantification of the precipitated DNA regions was performed by PCR. Primer sequences are listed for TGF β 1: 5'-TTGTTTCCCAGCCTGACTCTC-3' (Forward) and 5'-TGTGGGTCACCAGAGAAAGAG-3' (Reverse). The following polyclonal antibodies were used: anti-polymerase 2 (H224, SantaCruz), IRF5 (2932, Abcam) and normal rabbit IgG (SantaCruz).

Human gene expression microarray analysis

The Illumina (San Diego, CA) RNA amplification kit (NuGEN, BiotinIL Module) was used according to the manufacturer's instructions to obtain biotin-labeled cDNA from 50 ng of total RNA extracted from adipose tissue CD14-positive immunoselected cells. Hybridization was performed onto Illumina Human HT-12 v3.0 Expression BeadChips containing 48000 probes for 28688 coded transcripts. BeadChips were read with an iScan Illumina (San Diego, USA)

scanner. Hybridization probe intensities were then detected by GenomeStudio. Among 48000 probes, intensities were detected for 9990 probes coding for 9810 annotated genes in the 21 samples (Table 1, Obese subjects, Population 1). We then performed a correlation analysis between IRF5 gene expression and this set of 9810 annotated genes enriched in omental adipose tissue macrophages (*i.e.* viscWAT CD14-positive cells) isolated from 21 obese patients (BMI 46.3 \pm 2.3 kg/m²). The correlation was considered significant when q-value < 0.05. The q-value is the adjusted p-value for multiple testing using an optimized False Discovery Rate (FDR) approach (as defined by John D. Storey's method). q-value was provided by SAMr package under R statistical software. Using this method, we found that 167 genes correlated to IRF5 gene expression; 35 correlated positively and 132 negatively with this gene. These genes were further annotated using FunNet⁵⁰ with biological annotations from Gene Ontology and KEGG databases. Gene Expression Omnibus (GEO, database repository) accession number is GSE65802.

Indirect calorimetric measurements

Mice were analyzed for whole energy expenditure (EE), oxygen consumption and carbon dioxide production, respiratory exchange rate (VCO2/VO2), food intake (in gram) and locomotor activity (beambreaks/hour) using calorimetric tides cages with bedding, food and water (Labmaster, TSE Systems GmbH, Bad Homburg, Germany). Ratio of gases is determined through an indirect open circuit calorimeter^{51,52}. Monitored O₂ and CO₂ concentration of each cage, in which a flow of air (0,45 L/min) is being ventilated, are compared to a reference empty cage. Whole energy expenditure is calculated according to the Weir equation respiratory gas exchange measurements⁵³. The flow is previously calibrated with an O₂ and CO₂ mixture of known concentrations (Air Liquide, S.A. France). The instrument combines a set of highly sensitive feeding and drinking sensors for automated online measurements and each cage is embedded in a frame with an infrared light beam-based activity monitoring system, allowing measurement of total locomotion in both light and dark phases. Data collection was performed every 15 minutes. Mice were individually housed and had free access to food and water ad libitum with lights on from 07:00 to 19:00 hours and an ambient temperature of 22.5 ± 1°C. All animals were acclimated for 48 hours before experimental measurements. Whole analysis was performed for 4 days and then food was removed at 12.00 am for 24h and retrieved for 24h.

Whole body composition Analysis

Lean tissue mass, fat mass, free water and total water content were measured using an Echo Medical systems' EchoMRI 100 (Whole Body Composition Analyzers, EchoMRI, Houston, USA). Non-anesthetized mice were weighed before being placed into a mouse holder and inserted in the MR analyzer. Readings of body composition were given within 3 min. Analysis was performed using O₂ consumed, CO₂ production (express in ml/h), and energy expenditure (Kcal/h). Subsequently, each value was expressed either by total body weight or whole lean tissue mass extracted from the EchoMRI analysis. Displayed values are expressed as mean \pm SEM. Testing for homogeneity of variance (F-test) was performed prior to analysis. Comparisons between groups were carried out using non-parametric Mann-Whitney test (Minitab®). A p-value < 0.05 (*) was considered statistically significant.

Statistical Analyses

Gaussian distribution was tested using Kolmogorov-Smirnov test. Skewed data were log transformed and tested again (for the human data). The differences between groups were assessed using parametric tests such as Student T test (two groups comparison) or one-way or two-way ANOVA (more than two groups) with Tukey post-hoc test and Bonferroni test to correct for multiple comparison testing (after variance homogeneity hypothesis assessment using Levene tests). In contrast, when the Gaussian distribution was not fulfilled, we examined differences between groups using non-parametric Mann-Whitney test (two groups comparison) or Kruskal-Wallis (more than two groups) test with a Dunn's *post hoc* test and Bonferroni test to correct for multiple comparison testing. Significance code is now added in each figure legends: *P < 0.05, **P < 0.01, ***P < 0.001 in agreement with multiple testing correction (Bonferroni).

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Supplementary Figure 1:

(a) Fat and lean mass (in gram) quantified in WT (n=5) and KO (n=6) mice after 12 weeks of HFD. (b) Cumulative food intake (kcal) measured during 4 consecutive days in WT (n=5) and KO (n=6) mice after 12 weeks of HFD. (c) Energy expenditure measured during 4 consecutive days in WT (n=5) and KO (n=6) mice after 12 weeks of HFD. (d) Spontaneous locomotor activity measured during 4 consecutive days in WT (n=5) and KO (n=6) mice after 12 weeks of HFD. (d) Spontaneous locomotor activity measured during 4 consecutive days in WT (n=5) and KO (n=6) mice after 12 weeks of HFD. (e) Quantification of adipocyte diameter average in ingWAT, epiWAT and retWAT sampled from WT (n=5) and KO (n=6) mice after 12 weeks of HFD. Graph represents the average cell size. (f) Measurement of basal glycerol released from ingWAT, epiWAT and retWAT explants of WT (n=5) and KO (n=6) mice after 12 weeks of HFD. *Atgl* expression is measured by qPCR in ingWAT, epiWAT and ret WAT explants from WT and KO mice after 12 weeks of HFD. (g) Measurement of intrahepatic triglycerides (TG) accumulation in WT (n=5) and KO (n=6) mice after 12 weeks of HFD. (h) Representative illustrations of hematoxylin and eosin (H&E) and Masson's trichrome staining of liver isolated from WT (n=5) and KO (n=6) mice after 12 weeks of HFD. (*col3a1* and *Col4a1*) in liver of WT (n=5) and KO (n=6) mice after 12 weeks of HFD. Data represent mean values ± SEM. Differences between groups WT *versus* KO) were determined by non-parametric unpaired Mann-Whitney comparative tests or analysis of variance (ANOVA), Bonferroni's post hoc test, * P<0.05, ** P<0.01, ***P<0.001 (from post hoc test).

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Supplementary Figure 2:

(a) Macrophage subpopulation was identified by expression of MHCII. Flow cytometry frequencies are expressed as among CD11b+F4/80+ cells isolated from epiWAT of WT (n=5) and KO (n=6) mice on HFD. (b) Gene expression profile of inflammatory markers (*Ccl5, II1b, II6, II10 and Tnfa*) and macrophage markers (*Ccl11b and Cd68*) in epiWAT of WT (n=5) and KO(n=6) mice after 12 weeks of Chow Diet (CD). (c) Gene expression profile of Th2 lymphokines (*II4, II5* and *II13*) of the stromal cells isolated from epiWAT of WT (n=5) and KO(n=6) mice after 12 weeks of HFD. (d) Flow cytometry frequencies of CD11b+F4/80+ macrophages among stromal CD45+ cells isolated from ingWAT of WT (n=5) and KO(n=6) mice on HFD. (e) Gene expression profile and protein secretion of inflammatory cytokines (IL-1 β , IL-6, IL-10 and TNF α) and measurement of these cytokines in cultured ingWAT explants sampled from WT (n=5) and KO (n=6) mice after 12 weeks of HFD. (f) Flow cytometry frequencies of CD3+ T cells among stromal CD45+ cells isolated from epiWAT of WT and KO mice on HFD. (g) Gene expression profile and protein secretion of Th2 lymphokines (IL-4, IL-5 and IL-13) of the stromal cells isolated from ingWAT explant media of WT (n=5) and KO(n=6) mice after 12 weeks of HFD. (f) Flow cytometry frequencies between groups (WT versus KO) were determined by non-parametric unpaired Mann-Whitney comparative tests or analysis of variance (ANOVA), Bonferroni's post hoc test, * P<0.05, ** P<0.01, ***P<0.001 (from post hoc test).



Supplementary Figure 3:

(a) Measurement of IRF5 gene expression in bone marrow-derived macrophages (BMDM) and stromal vascular cells (SVF) isolated from epiWAT of WT (MacWT) and IRF5 macrophage-specific KO (MacKO) mice (n=5). Western blot representing the depletion of IRF5 in BMDM from MacKO compared to their WT littermate controls (n=2). (b) Fat and lean mass (in gram) of MacWT and MacKO mice after 12 weeks of HFD (n=5-6). (c) Measurement of collagen gene expression (*Col1a1, Col3a1* and *Col4a1*) in epiWAT from MacWT (n=5) and MacKO (n=6) mice after 12 weeks of HFD. (d) Quantification and frequencies of adipocyte diameter in epiWAT of MacWT (n=5) and MacKO (n=6) mice after 12 weeks of HFD. (d) Quantification and frequencies of cell size. (e) Liver weight (in gram) of MacWT (n=5) and MacKO (n=6) mice after 12 weeks of HFD. Measurement of intrahepatic triglycerides (TG) accumulation in MacWT (n=5) and MacKO (n=6) mice after 12 weeks of HFD. (f) Representative flow cytometry plots showing frequencies of CD3⁺ T cells among stromal CD45⁺ cells isolated from epiWAT of MacWT (n=5) and MacKO (n=6) mice on HFD. Data represent mean values \pm SEM. Differences between groups (MacWT *versus* MacKO- were determined by non-parametric unpaired Mann-Whitney comparative tests or analysis of variance (ANOVA), Bonferroni's post hoc test, * P<0.05, ** P<0.01, ***P<0.001 (from post hoc test).



Supplemental Figure 4:

(a) mRNA and protein quantification of IRF5 in isolated matured adipocytes isolated from epiWAT of WT (AdipoWT) and IRF5 adipocyte-specific KO (AdipoKO) mice (n=5). (b) Weight gain (in gram) and percentage of weight gain in AdipoWT (n=5) and AdipoKO (n=8) mice after 12 weeks of HFD. (c) Fat and lean mass (in gram) quantified in AdipoWT and AdipoKO mice after 12 weeks of HFD. (d) Weight of inguinal WAT (ingWAT), epidydimal WAT (epiWAT), retroperitoneal WAT (retWAT) and the sum of these weights (total WAT) from AdipoWT (n=5) and AdipoKO (n=8) after 12 weeks of HFD. (e) Representative picture and quantification of collagen deposition by red picrosirius staining in epiWAT from AdipoWT (n=5) and AdipoKO (n=8) mice after 12 weeks of HFD. Quantification of collagen was reported to the surface of the biopsy. (f) Measurement of collagen gene expression (*Col1a1, Col3a1* and *Col4a1*) in epiWAT from AdipoWT (n=5) and AdipoKO (n=8) mice after 12 weeks of HFD. (g) Measurement of adipocyte diameter in AdipoWT (n=5) and AdipoKO (n=8) mice after 12 weeks of HFD. (h) Flow cytometry frequencies of CD11b⁺F4/80⁺ macrophages and CD11b⁺F4/80⁺CD206⁺ subpopulation among stromal CD45⁺ cells isolated from ingWAT of AdipoWT (n=5) and AdipoKO (n=8) mice on HFD. (j) Expression of lymphokines (IL-4, IL-5, IL-13) in epiWAT of AdipoWT (n=5) and AdipoKO (n=8) mice on HFD. (j) Expression of lymphokines (IL-4, IL-5, IL-13) in epiWAT of AdipoWT (n=5) and AdipoKO (n=8) mice on HFD. (j) Expression of lymphokines (IL-4, IL-5, IL-13) in epiWAT of AdipoWT (n=5) and AdipoKO (n=8) mice on HFD. (j) Expression of lymphokines (IL-4, IL-5, IL-13) in epiWAT of AdipoWT (n=5) and AdipoKO (n=8) mice on HFD. (j) Expression of lymphokines (IL-4, IL-5, IL-13) in epiWAT of AdipoWT (n=5) and AdipoKO (n=8) mice on HFD. (j) Expression of lymphokines (IL-4, IL-5, IL-13) in epiWAT of AdipoWT (n=5) and AdipoKO (n=8) mice on HFD. (j) Expression of lymphokines (IL-4, IL-5, IL-13) in epiWAT of AdipoWT (n=5) and AdipoKO (n=8) mice on HFD. (j) Expression of lymp



Supplementary Figure 5:

(a) Oral Glucose Tolerance Test (oGTT) was performed with AdipoWT and AdipoKO mice after 12 weeks of HFD (n=7). (b) Quantification of circulating insulin concentrations of WT and IRF5 KO (left panel) and MacKO (right panel) at the different time points of the oGTT after 12 weeks on HFD diet (n=5-6). (c) Insulin tolerance test (ITT) was performed with WT (n=5) and KO (n=6) (left panel) and MacKO (n=6) (right panel) mice after 12 weeks of HFD. (d) Percentages of fat mass in MacWT and MacKO fed with a HFD for 16 and 12 weeks respectively (n=5). (e) Measurement of fasting insulin levels in MacWT and MacKO HFD-fed mice were fasted overnight and then treated with intraperitoneal injection of 1 U/kg insulin (15 min). Representative tissue samples were examined by immunoblot analyses by probing antibodies to AKT, phospho-AKT (pAKT-S473) and phospho-Gsk3 (pGSK3) (n=4). Data represent mean values ± SEM. Differences between groups were determined by non-parametric unpaired Mann-Whitney comparative tests, Bonferroni's post hoc test, * P<0.05, ** P<0.01, ***P<0.001 (from post hoc test).



Supplementary Figure 6:

(a) Quantification of CD68 mRNA in adipocytes (Adipo), immunoselected CD14-positive cells (CD14⁺) and CD3positive cells (CD3⁺) and the double negative (Neg) enriched fractions isolated from visceral adipose tissue (viscWAT) of obese subjects (n=10). (b) Quantification of IRF5 mRNA in subcutaneous (sc)WAT and viscWAT of 21 severe obese subjects (Population 1, Table 1). (c) Correlative analyses of CD68 mRNA levels and percentage of collagen accumulation assessed by picrosirus red staining of viscWAT from obese subjects (n=15, population 1(r=0.11; p=0.67). Correlations were assessed by non-parametric Spearman's test. (d) Genes positively (upregulated transcripts) and negatively (down-regulated transcripts) correlated with IRF5 expression in immunoselected CD14-positive cells isolated from viscWAT of obese subjects (n=21) were annotated using FunNet with biological annotations from Gene Ontology and KEGG databases. (e) Correlative analyses between IRF5 and TLR4 (r=0.53, p=0.01) and CD11c (r=0.55, p=0.008) relative mRNA levels in immunoselected CD14-positive cells isolated from viscWAT of obese subjects (n=21). Data represent mean values ± SEM. Differences between groups were determined by non-parametric unpaired Mann-Whitney comparative tests or analysis of variance (ANOVA), Bonferroni's post hoc test, * P<0.05, ** P<0.01, ***P<0.001 (from post hoc test).



b



Supplementary Figure 7:

(a) Human monocyte derived-macrophages (HMDM) were infected with adenovirus encoding GFP (control) or IRF5 for 24 hours and stimulated with adipose tissue conditioned media (ATCM) for 18 hours (n=5). IRF5 mRNA was measured to visualize IRF5 over-expression in cells (n=5). (b) Under these experimental conditions, inflammatory marker genes (IL-1 β , IL-6, TNF α , CD206 and IL-10) were quantified by qPCR (n=5). (c-d) siRNA mediated depletion of IRF5 in HMDM. HMDM were transfected with siRNA control (CTL) or IRF5 for 48h. IRF5 levels were measured by qPCR (n=5) and western blotting under our experimental conditions (n=3). (e) 48h post siRNA transfection, cells were stimulated with ATCM for 18h and inflammatory marker genes (IL-1 β , IL-6, TNF α , CD206 and IL-10) were quantified by qPCR (n=5). (f) mRNA quantification of remodelling genes (TGF β 2, TGF β 3, MMP2, MMP9 and LOX) in epiWAT from WT and whole-body IRF5 KO (left panel) and MacKO (right panel) HFD-fed mice for 12 weeks (n=5-6). Data represent mean values ± SEM. Differences between groups were determined by non-parametric unpaired Mann-Whitney comparative tests or analysis of variance (ANOVA), Bonferroni's post hoc test, * P<0.05, ** P<0.01, ***P<0.001 (from post hoc test).

	Population 1		Population 2			
Groups	CD14 ⁺ cells from viscWAT		viscWAT			
Subjects	Non- obese	Obese	Lean	Overweight	Obese	Metabolic Syndrome
Ν	4	21	12	12	14	14
F/M	1/3	21/0	12/0	12/0	14/0	14/0
T2D (% of subjects)	0	28.5	0	0	0	50
Age (years)	57.8 ± 3.4	40.4 ± 1.4	38 ± 4	42 ± 3	44 ± 2.6	49 ± 3
BMI (kg/m²)	27 ± 0.5	47.6 ± 1.4	21.3 ± 0.6	27.8 ± 0.3^{a}	36.2 ± 1 .4 ^{a,b}	34 ± 0.8 ^{a,b}
Fat mass (%)	-	48.5 ± 1.9	25.7 ± 1.7	34.7 ± 1.3 ^a	44.6 ± 1.1 ^{a,b}	42.2 ± 1.3 ^a
Waist (cm)	-		74.1 ± 1.4	92.1 ± 1.0 ^a	108.2± 2.9 ^{a,b}	107.3 ± 1.6 ^{a,b}
Fasting glycemia (mmol/L)	4.8 ± 0.4	5.2 ± 0.13	4.8 ± 0.1	4.8 ± 0.1	5.4 ± 0.1	6.3 ± 0.1 ^{a,b}
Fasting insulin (µU/mL)	-	17.8 ± 1.8	4.4 ± 0.6	7.7 ± 0.7^{a}	9.3 ± 1.1 ^a	14.1 ± 1.5 ^a
Total Cholesterol (mmol/L)	-	4.9 ± 0.2	4.6 ± 0.2	4.7 ± 0.5	4.8 ± 0.3	4.6 ± 0.4
Triglycerides (mmol/L)	-	1.3 ± 0.1	0.8 ± 0.1	1.3 ± 0.2	1.2 ± 0.1	2.5 ± 0.4^{a}
Leptin (ng/mL)	-	48.5 ± 5.4	7.3 ± 1.3	12.4 ± 1.7	$32.5 \pm 4.2^{a,b}$	22.7 ± 3.0^{a}
Adiponectin (pg/mL)	-	3.9 ± 0.1	9.6 ± 1.1	8.5 ± 1.4	8.0 ± 0.7	7.7 ± 1.1
hsCRP (mg/L)	<4	10.9 ± 1.8	3.3 ± 1.0	8.1 ± 4.7	12.3 ± 5.5	5.6 ± 1.4
Glucose disposal rate (mg/kg body weight/min)	-		7.2 ± 0.7	6.6 ± 1.4	3.7 ± 0.5^{a}	$2.8 \pm 0.3^{a,b}$

Table 1: Anthropometric and clinical variables in human groups

Data are means ± SEM. BMI: Body Mass Index, T2D: type 2 diabetes

^ap<0.0.0083 compared with lean, ^bp<0.0.0083 compared with overweight

Glucose disposal rate (mg/ kg fat free mass/min): lean: 9.7 ± 0.9 ; overweight: 10.2 ± 2.3 ; obese: 6.8 ± 0.9 ; metabolic syndrome: $4.9 \pm 0.6^{a,b}$

To compare clinical variables between the groups of individuals, log-transformed data were analyzed by one-way ANOVA (four groups of individuals) with Bonferroni post hoc analysis using SPSS 17.0 statistical software (SPSS, Chicago, IL, USA).

ANNEXE 2

L'inflammation du tissu adipeux dans l'obésité

Comment la contrôler?

Amine Toubal*, Nicolas Venteclef*

RÉSUMÉ

L'inflammation du tissu adipeux dans l'obésité est un processus majeur impliqué dans le développement des complications métaboliques comme le diabète de type 2. Dans l'obésité, le tissu adipeux subit des modifications morphologiques et cellulaires entraînant la production de substances pro-inflammatoires, ce qui, in fine, conduit à une résistance à l'insuline et favorise le développement du diabète de type 2. Les mécanismes cellulaires de cette mise en place de l'inflammation, notamment par l'infiltration des macrophages pro-inflammatoires dans le tissu, sont aujourd'hui relativement bien connus. Plus récemment, plusieurs études se sont intéressées aux mécanismes transcriptionnels responsables de l'expression des gènes inflammatoires dans le tissu adipeux. Ces études ont suggéré la présence d'une désorganisation dans le contrôle de la transcription des gènes inflammatoires qui influencerait leur intensité d'expression. Cette revue va résumer les différents processus impliqués dans la mise en place de l'inflammation du tissu adipeux ainsi que les stratégies anti-inflammatoires menées dans le traitement du diabète de type 2. L'implication de nouvelles voies sera également présentée et la relevance thérapeutique sera discutée.

L'INFLAMMATION CHRONIQUE, CARACTÉRISTIQUE DE L'OBÉSITÉ ET DU DIABÈTE DE TYPE 2

De multiples mécanismes sont impliqués dans la pathogenèse de l'obésité et du diabète de type 2. Ces mécanismes incluent la glucotoxicité, la lipotoxicité, le stress oxydatif, le stress du réticulum et l'altération de la flore microbienne (1-2). La contribution de chaque mécanisme reste encore à déterminer. De manière intéressante, tous ces mécanismes sont associés à une réponse inflammatoire (3). Dans le cadre d'une réponse physiologique, l'inflammation est un mécanisme de défense qui protège l'organisme d'un traumatisme ou d'une infection. Cette inflammation est une réponse coordonnée qui est caractérisée par un pic de sécrétion de molécules inflammatoires permettant la résolution de cette infection ou trauma puis un retour à une situation physiologique. Cependant, le maintien de cette réponse inflammatoire pourrait être délétère pour l'organisme. L'obésité et le diabète de type 2 sont aujourd'hui considérés comme des maladies inflammatoires qui se caractérisent par une inflammation de bas grade aux niveaux systémique et tissulaire (4). En effet, de nombreuses études mettent en évidence les effets néfastes de cette inflammation chronique qui est, notamment, associée au développement de pathologies métaboliques comme le diabète de type 2 et l'athérosclérose (1). Depuis plusieurs années, le tissu adipeux n'est plus considéré comme un organe de stockage mais comme une glande endocrine sécrétant un nombre important d'hormones appelées adipokines (adiponectine, leptine) mais aussi des molécules inflammatoires (IL6, IL1 β et TNF α). De plus, le tissu adipeux est capable de modifier ses propriétés (sécrétoires et de stockage) en fonction de son microenvironnement, démontrant la plasticité de ce tissu. Le tissu adipeux d'un sujet non-obèse est constitué d'adipocytes ainsi que de cellules de la fraction stroma vasculaire comprenant notamment des pré-adipocytes (précurseurs des adipocytes), des cellules endothéliales et des cellules immunitaires telles que les lymphocytes, éosinophiles et les macrophages. La fonction primaire du tissu adi-

^{*}INSERM, UMR_S 1138, Cordeliers, Paris; Sorbonne Universités, UPMC Paris 06, UMR_S 1138, Cordeliers, Paris; Université Paris Descartes, Sorbonne Paris Cité, UMR_S 1138, Cordeliers, Paris nicolas.venteclef@upmc.fr





2. L'obésité est associée à une augmentation de l'inflammation du tissu adipeux. Cette inflammation est principalement induite par une augmentation du nombre de macrophages et de lymphocytes pro-inflammatoires dans le tissu adipeux. Ces cellules immunitaires sont ainsi capables de produire des molécules du type IL1β et TNFα (macrophage M1) et IL17 (Th17).

3. Mécanismes moléculaires impliqués dans la régulation de la transcription des gènes inflammatoires. Cette réponse inflammatoire fait intervenir la voie de signalisation dépendante de TLR4 qui va se traduire par l'activation de la voie NFkB. Cette activation induit un remodelage de la chromatine ainsi que l'échange du complexe répresseur GPS2-SMRT-HDCA3 et le recrutement de co-activateurs. Cette cascade transcriptionnelle permet l'activation de la transcription des gènes inflammatoires. L'interférence avec ces voies d'activation pourrait permettre un meilleur contrôle de l'inflammation du tissu adipeux.

peux est de stocker des lipides (acides gras) sous forme de gouttelettes lipidiques riches en triglycérides (TGs). En cas de besoin énergétique, en période de jeûne par exemple, les adipocytes sont capables de mobiliser ces TGs. Ce processus est appelé la lipolyse. Les acides gras ainsi libérés seront utilisés comme substrat énergétique par les autres organes (foie, muscles). En plus des acides gras, les adipocytes produisent un large nombre de biomolécules appelées adipokines telles que adiponectine ou leptine, ayant un rôle important dans l'angiogenèse, l'homéostasie du glucose et le métabolisme des lipides. L'obésité, qui résulte du dérèglement de la balance énergétique en faveur d'un stockage

important d'énergie sous forme de triglycérides dans le tissu adipeux, "désorganise" de manière importante l'homéostasie du tissu adipeux (Fig. 1). L'accumulation excessive de lipides (TGs) dans les adipocytes se traduit par une augmentation de leur taille (hypertrophie) mais également de leur nombre (hyperplasie) afin de subvenir au surplus de stockage. Ces modifications se traduisent par un changement du profil sécrétoire des adipocytes, entraînant notamment la diminution de l'adiponectine (hormone insulinosensible), l'augmentation de cytokines (IL-6 et TNF α) ainsi que des molécules chémo-attractantes (CCL2 et CCL5). Ceci va avoir pour conséquences i) de modifier le phénotype des cellules immunitaires résidentes vers un phénotype pro-inflammatoires et ii) d'induire le recrutement de cellules immunitaires de la circulation, notamment les monocytes (qui se différencieront en macrophages pro-inflammatoires dans le tissu adipeux). Toutes ces modifications participent à la mise en place de l'inflammation du tissu adipeux contribuant à une augmentation de l'inflammation systémique par le relargage de molécules inflammatoires comme l'IL1 β et le TNF α .

Le système immunitaire est aujourd'hui décrit comme le processus influençant les propriétés métaboliques du tissu adipeux ainsi que le développement du diabète de type 2. De nombreuses études ont pu mettre en évidence les effets délétères de l'activation du système immunitaire dans l'obésité.

L'IMMUNOTHÉRAPIE COMME NOUVELLE APPROCHE ANTIDIABÉTIQUE?

Depuis plusieurs années, il apparaît de plus en plus évident que les cellules immunitaires jouent un rôle prépondérant dans le maintien de l'homéostasie du tissu adipeux (5). Les macrophages résidents du tissu adipeux non-obèse sont de types anti-inflammatoires (aussi appelés macrophages de type M2). Ils sont capables de secréter de l'interleukine -10 (IL-10), une cytokine antiinflammatoire. De même, les éosinophiles, à travers la sécrétion de l'interleukine-4 et 13 (IL-4, IL-13), contribuent au maintien d'un environnement anti-inflammatoire du tissu adipeux. Enfin, il a été montré récemment que les lymphocytes résidents du tissu adipeux, de type $T_{H}2$ (lymphocyte T helper 2) ou T_{reg} (lymphocyte T régulateur) sont capables de secréter de l'IL-10 et de l'IL-4 permettant le maintien des macrophages en type M2 (Fig. 1). L'ensemble de ces cellules immunitaires contribue à rendre le tissu adipeux non-inflammatoire et sensible à l'insuline. Le changement de phénotype des macrophages lors d'une accumulation excessive d'acides gras au niveau du tissu adipeux se caractérise par la sécrétion de cytokines pro-inflammatoires comme l'IL1 β et le TNF α (Fig. 1). En plus de contribuer à l'inflammation des adipocytes, ces cytokines induisent le changement de polarisation des autres cellules immunitaires environnantes. En effet, le nombre des éosinophiles diminue drastiquement et le phénotype des lymphocytes change, avec une

augmentation de la population de lymphocytes (T helper, T₁₁) proinflammatoires ($T_{H}1$ et $T_{H}17$) au détriment des lymphocytes antiinflammatoires (T_{H}^{2} et T_{reg}^{2}) (Fig. 1). C'est l'ensemble des ces modifications du tissu adipeux lors de l'obésité qui contribue à la mise en place d'une inflammation du tissu adipeux, responsable de l'insulinorésistance du tissu et de la mise en place du diabète de type 2. Basées sur ces observations, différentes stratégies ont été développées pour bloquer l'activation du système immunitaire. En effet, des études d'immunothérapies ont été menées chez des patients diabétiques en bloquant les cytokines pro-inflammatoires IL1 β et TNF α (6). De manière inattendue, le traitement des patients avec un antagoniste du TNF α (enbrel; Amgen/Pfizer) n'induit pas une diminution significative de l'inflammation. De plus, la sensibilité à l'insuline n'est pas améliorée. En revanche, les traitements par des antagonistes de l'IL1 β (anticorps bloquants, cankizumab et LY2189102) ou des inhibiteurs de l'IL1^β (Il1 récepteur antagoniste, anakinra) ont démontré une diminution de l'inflammation associée à une faible augmentation de la sensibilité à l'insuline (6). Ces résultats encourageant sur l'inflammation sont cependant entachés par les effets limités sur l'amélioration de la sensibilité à l'insuline. Des stratégies alternatives ciblant les lymphokines (cytokines secrétées par les lymphocytes) comme IL-17 pourraient être envisagées (Fig. 1).

EXISTE-T-IL UNE SIGNATURE CHROMATINIENNE SPÉCIFIQUE ASSOCIÉE À L'INFLAMMATION DU TISSU ADIPEUX ?

Dans une étude récente, nous avons

démontré l'existence d'une signature transcriptomique inflammatoire dans les macrophages du tissu adipeux de sujets obèses diabétiques (7). En effet, nous avons comparé le profil d'expression des macrophages du tissu adipeux de sujets obèses non-diabétiques et diabétiques avec une moyenne de l'indice de masse corporelle identique entre les deux groupes. Cette approche originale nous a permis de définir un panel de gènes inflammatoires significativement augmentés chez les sujets diabétiques (IL1 β et TNF α) et de mettre en évidence l'existence d'un programme transcriptomique impliqué dans l'expression des gènes inflammatoires. La régulation de la transcription des gènes inflammatoires fait intervenir différents processus biologiques tels que le remodelage de chromatine, la liaison de facteurs de transcription et des échanges de co-régulateurs. Tout ce processus dynamique est régulé de manière coordonnée afin de permettre une régulation de la transcription adaptée en fonction de la situation (8). Existe-t-il une dérégulation de cette coordination dans la régulation des gènes inflammatoires du tissu adipeux dans l'obésité?

Il a été clairement établi que l'activation des voies médiées par les Toll-Like Receptor (TLRs) ou par le TNFR (Tumor Necrosis Factor Receptor) induit l'activation d'un large spectre de facteurs de transcription, tels que NFkB (p65) et AP-1, qui régulent l'expression des gènes inflammatoires (IL6, IL1 β et TNF α) dans les cellules du tissu adipeux (adipocytes et macrophages) (9). La stratégie consistant à bloquer l'activation du facteur de transcription proinflammatoire, NFkB, a été testée et semble convaincante. En effet, le traitement avec un inhibiteur

de NFkB (Salsate) de sujets obèses provoque une diminution de l'inflammation et une augmentation de la sensibilité à l'insuline. Cependant, la dose élevée de slasate utilisée dans les essais cliniques peut suggérer des effets néfastes à long terme.

Une stratégie alternative serait de réprimer la transcription des gènes inflammatoires en modifiant la structure de la chromatine via l'action des complexes co-régulateurs de la transcription. Les co-régulateurs de la transcription sont indispensables à la répression ainsi qu'à l'activation de la transcription. Les co-régulateurs représentent une super famille de régulateurs de la transcription comprenant plus de 300 membres (10). Cette famille se divise en deux groupes : les co-activateurs (activateurs de la transcription tels que CBP/P300 et SRCs) et les co-répresseurs (inhibiteurs de la transcription tels que NCOR, SMRT et HDACs). Ces co-régulateurs ont la particularité de ne pas interagir directement avec l'ADN mais par l'intermédiaire des facteurs de transcription. La détermination des fonctions in vivo des corégulateurs est complexe puisque la majorité des modèles murins invalidés pour des co-régulateurs est létale (notamment pour les corépresseurs), mettant en évidence leur importance physiologique (10). Le mécanisme général d'action des co-régulateurs lors d'un stress inflammatoire est le suivant. Dans une situation non-inflammée, un complexe de co-répresseurs interagit avec des facteurs de transcription inflammatoires tels que NFkB (p50), ou AP-1, ce qui permet de maintenir les gènes inflammatoires silencieux. Lors de stimuli inflammatoires, le complexe de co-répresseurs

est remplacé par un complexe de co-activateurs permettant ainsi le recrutement de la machinerie transcriptionnelle et d'induire la transcription des gènes (11-15). Les complexes NCOR (Nuclear Receptor Co-repressor) et SMRT (Silencing Mediator For Retinoid or Thyroid-hormone Receptors) ont été décrits comme les "répresseurs" de gènes inflammatoires (16). Cependant, des études récentes ont remis en cause la fonction anti-inflammatoire de NCOR in vivo. En revanche, nous avons démontré récemment l'importance de SMRT dans le contrôle de la transcription des gènes inflammatoires au niveau du tissu adipeux humain. Ces complexes sont composés de diverses protéines telles que Transducer β-like proteins (TBL1), Transducer β -like proteins Receptor (TBLR1), Histone Deacetylase 3 (HDAC3) et G Protein Pathway Supressor 2 (GPS2). Dans notre étude pionnière chez l'homme, nous avons pu démontrer l'importance de GPS2 dans le maintien de la répression des gènes inflammatoires (14). En effet, son invalidation se caractérise par une augmentation de l'inflammation. Ces observations in vitro ont pu être confirmées dans des populations humaines de sujets obèses et diabétiques. La réduction de l'activité de GPS2 est associée à une augmentation de l'inflammation du tissu adipeux (Fig. 1). Ceci suggère qu'une dérégulation au niveau du contrôle de la répression de la transcription des gènes influence l'inflammation du tissu adipeux. GPS2 a été décrit pour interagir avec HDAC3 qui est également impliqué dans la régulation de la transcription des gènes inflammatoires. HDAC3 module la transcription en modifiant la structure de la chromatine via la dé-acétylation de histone.

Ceci a pour conséquence de maintenir la chromatine dans un état hypo-acétylé qui est associé à un état répressif. De manière intéressante, des molécules pharmacologiques permettant la stabilisation de l'interaction entre HDAC3 et GPS2 ont récemment été générées. L'utilisation de ces molécules n'a cependant jamais été testée et pourrait présenter une alternative intéressante dans la prévention de l'inflammation du tissu adipeux. En effet, la stabilisation du complexe HDAC3-GPS2 au niveau des promoteurs des gènes inflammatoires pourrait permettre l'inactivation de la transcription (Fig. 1).

Le maintien de la chromatine dans un état inactif au niveau des promoteurs des gènes inflammatoires semble pertinent. Dans le cadre du cancer, cette stratégie a fait ses preuves alors que cette hypothèse n'a jamais été validée dans le cadre de l'obésité et du diabète (17-18). Le maintien de la chromatine dans un état inactif est notamment associé au degré de méthylation de l'ADN et des histones. La méthylation des histones se fait au niveau des résidus lysines par des enzymes nommées "lysines déméthylases (KDMs)". Plusieurs études ont démontré que l'activation de la transcription des gènes inflammatoires était associée à des changements de méthylation des histones permettant la modulation de la structure chromatinienne d'un état inactif à actif. Récemment, une molécule synthétique ciblant spécifiquement une lysine déméthylase (impliquée dans l'activation de la transcription des gènes inflammatoires) est associée à la répression de l'activation des gènes inflammatoires en réponse au TNF α . Des études plus approfondies sont requises afin de définir les consé-
COMPRENDRE

quences de cette inhibition in vivo. Il semble également nécessaire de définir le profil chromatinien des cellules immunitaires du tissu adipeux afin d'identifier les modifications (acétylation et méthylation) associées à l'inflammation du tissu et d'y corréler les complications métaboliques comme le diabète de type 2.

LES LIMITES DES MODÈLES MURINS DANS L'ÉTUDE DE L'INFLAMMATION DU TISSU ADIPEUX

Les modèles murins sont principalement utilisés pour disséquer les voies de signalisation impliquées dans l'inflammation du tissu adipeux. Cependant, de plus en plus d'études remettent en cause la pertinence de ces modèles dans l'identification de potentielles cibles thérapeutiques. Des différences importantes entre les modèles murins et l'humain ont été observées concernant l'action de la majorité des cytokines impliquées dans l'inflammation du tissu adipeux. En effet, le TNF α , par exemple, est produit de manière très importante par le tissu adipeux de souris obèses et est sécrété dans la circulation contribuant ainsi à la résistance à l'insuline. Chez l'homme, le TNF α n'est pas relargué dans la circulation sanguine, mais possède un effet local sur la fonction des adipocytes. L'IL6 est un autre exemple de la

différence qui peut exister entre humain et modèles animaux. En effet, chez l'homme le tissu adipeux dans le contexte de l'obésité induit une augmentation du niveau de l'IL6 circulant, contribuant à la résistance à l'insuline. À l'inverse, les souris invalidées pour l'IL6 développent une résistance à l'insuline accrue par rapport à leur contrôle. Il est donc indispensable de réfléchir à l'applicabilité et l'extrapolation des découvertes faites sur les modèles animaux à la physiologie humaine.

Mots-clés:

Tissu adipeux, Obésité, Inflammation, Diabète de type 2

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ANNEXE 3

ARTICLE / ARTICLE

Current trends in obesity treatments: from scalpel to molecules

Tendances actuelles dans les traitements de l'obésité : du scalpel à la molécule

C. Sá · A. Toubal

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Abstract Obesity is a worldwide recognized public health problem commonly associated with chronic morbidities such as diabetes. The growing prevalence of obesity translates in a significant burden of morbidity, mortality, social exclusion and discrimination. The associated healthcare costs are extremely elevated and rising rapidly as the prevalence of obesity increases. Thus, more efficient and less expensive interventions are needed to solve or attenuate this epidemic. The present review report recent evidences and suggest new therapeutic pathways in obesity research.

Keywords Obesity · Metaflammation · Brown adipose tissue · Bariatric surgery · Anti-obesity strategies

Résumé L'obésité qui est communément associée à des comorbidités chroniques telles que le diabète est un problème mondial de santé publique. La prévalence croissante de l'obésité se traduit par une augmentation importante de la morbidité, de la mortalité, de l'exclusion sociale et des discriminations. De plus, les coûts de santé associés à cette maladie sont extrêmement élevés. Ainsi, la découverte et la mise en place d'interventions plus efficaces et moins coûteuses sont nécessaires pour résoudre ou atténuer cette épidémie. La présente revue rapporte des évidences récentes et suggèrent de nouvelles voies thérapeutiques dans la lutte contre l'obésité.

Mots clés Obésité · Métaflammation · Tissu adipeux brun · Chirurgie bariatrique · Stratégies anti-obésité

C. Sá · A. Toubal (🖂)

Institute of Cardiometabolism and Nutrition, Paris, France e-mail : amine.toubal@upmc.fr

Assistance Publique-Hôpitaux de Paris, Pitié-Salpêtrière Hospital, Heart and Metabolism Division, Paris, France

INSERM, U872, Team 7 Nutriomique, Paris, France

Université Pierre et Marie Curie-Paris6, Cordeliers Research Center, Paris, France

Introduction

The global epidemic of obesity and overweight, also recently termed "globesity", is becoming a serious public health problem worldwide due to the parallel alarmed increase in the rate of associated comorbidities including type 2 diabetes and cardiovascular diseases [1,2]. The etiology of obesity involves a multifactorial interaction between genetics, hormones and the environment [3], making this disease a significant and challenging clinical condition. Numerous antiobesity therapeutic procedures are currently available, ranging from nonpharmacological to surgical interventions. However, effective strategies for long-term weight loss are needed. The purpose of this review is to summarize three recent publications in the obesity field that 1) compare the effectiveness of two different surgical approaches to improve weight loss, insulin sensitivity and β -cell function; 2) highlight the potential importance of brown adipose tissue (BAT) transplantation in obesity and its related diseases and 3) disclose the discovery of a potent anti-inflammatory complex that is dysregulated in human obesity and describe a transcriptional and potentially epigenetic pathway that might be related to chronic inflammation in obese adipose tissue.

Gastric by pass or gastric banding: which is the most successful/which one to choose?

Gastric bypass is one of the most common bariatric surgical procedure for morbid obesity ($BMI > 40 \text{ kg/m}^2$ or $BMI > 35 \text{ kg/m}^2$ with comorbidities). The technique was developed by Dr. Edward E. Mason of the University of Iowa in 1967, which noted that patients with partial stomach removal, as a result of peptic ulcers, failed to gain weight afterwards [4]. Over the years, the surgery has progressed to address several issues experienced by Mason and gave rise to what is known as Roux-en-y-Gastric Bypass (RYGB), the chosen method in the fight against morbid obesity. However, other surgical techniques have been developed including the laproscopic

adjustable gastric banding (LAGB). Recently, Bradley et al. published a comparison between both bariatric surgeries [5]. The authors compared the effects of 20% weight reduction mediated by LAGB or RYGB surgery in the response to a mixed meal, insulin sensitivity and β -cell function in nondiabetic obese patients [5]. They showed that patients submitted to RYGB surgery lost $20.1\% \pm 2.3\%$ of their body weight only 16 ± 2 weeks after the intervention, whereas patients whom experienced LAGB surgery have lost $19.3\% \pm 1.9\%$ of their initial weight after 22 ± 7 weeks. After weight loss, both RYGB and LAGB groups showed a similar significant decrease in insulin resistance and improvement on β -cell function [5]. Moreover, the metabolic response to a mixed meal showed a similar decline in plasma insulin and C-peptide levels in both groups. However, the shape of the concentration curves was modified in RYGB group (higher peak in early rise). Finally, the authors observed that only RYGB surgery significantly increased postprandial plasma glucagon-like peptide-1 (GLP-1) levels, while plasma glucagon or glucose levels were not affected by both surgical procedures [5]. This study demonstrated that both RYGB and LAGB surgeries present similar therapeutic effects in weight loss, insulin sensitivity and β-cell function but revealed different metabolic response to a mixed meal in obese patients [5]. The choice of the surgery will always require the evaluation by the surgeon of the patient's health/condition. Since obesity is highly related to diabetes mellitus, it will be interesting to perform a similar research in diabetic patients.

Brown adipose tissue transplantation: a new hope to treat obesity

Brown adipose tissue (BAT) is one of the two types of adipose tissue present in mammals and it is especially abundant in newborns and hibernating mammals. It plays a central role in maintained energy homeostasis through thermogenesis, i.e. dissipation of energy in the form of heat [6]. Unlike white adipose tissue (WAT) that contains a single lipid droplet that occupies almost the entire intracellular space, adipocytes from BAT contain multilocular lipid droplets [7]. Moreover, BAT also differs from WAT by its high vascularisation and its elevated content of mitochondria (responsible for its brownish colour) [8], which allows β -oxidation and thermogenesis through fatty acid and glucose consumption. It has been recently reported that healthy adult humans have significant BAT levels and that BAT was inversely correlated with BMI and age [9-11]. Thus, BAT has emerged as a potential therapeutic target to combat obesity and its related diseases, with new techniques being developed to address this issue. BAT transplantation is emerging as an alternative strategy in obesity control. Despite the first attempts that revealed some limitations of the method, with BAT being sustained only for 3 to 4 weeks, a recent publication from Stanford et al. showed a succeeded approach in maintaining BAT transplantation in mice by 8-12 weeks [12]. The authors also found that BAT transplantation significantly reduced body weight and enhanced glucose metabolism and insulin sensitivity of chow-fed and high-fat diet-fed mice [12]. Additionally, the study disclosed a potential role of circulating IL-6 in the observed beneficial effect on metabolic profile, since this effect was lost when BAT transplantation was derived from IL-6 knockout mice [12]. At first sight, this finding may seem surprising since IL-6 is considered a pro-inflammatory cytokine and often associated with a deterioration of metabolism. However, other recent publications, including this one, sustain the theory that high levels of circulating IL-6 enhances energy expenditure, reduces adiposity and improves glucose tolerance [12-14].

These results provided evidence that BAT is able to improve glucose metabolism in an IL-6 dependent manner and highlighted the value of BAT as a potential therapeutic tool agent for the treatment of obesity-related diseases.

GPS2/SMRT: A new potent anti-inflammatory complex

In the last decade, several studies have been focused in controlling adipose tissue inflammation, a major feature of obesity. These studies identified several molecules, including transcription factors and coregulator complexes that modulate overall and obesity-linked inflammation. The recent work from Venteclef and colleagues identified a regulator complex of inflammation in adipose tissue and adipocytes from obese patients, the corepressor complex G protein pathway suppressor (GPS2)/SMRT [15]. The study showed: 1) that bypass surgery leads to the reestablishment of GPS2/ SMRT in morbid obese patients and 2) a negative correlation of this complex and IL-6 in obese adipose tissue and adipocytes [15]. These evidences were related with the clearance of GPS2/SMRT corepressor complex at the promoter of inflammatory genes, namely IL-6, leading to an increase in inflammatory transcription. In vitro depletion of GPS2/ SMRT confirmed the previous results by inducing a derepression of a myriad of proinflammatory markers, like IL-6 and monocyte chemotactic protein-1 (MCP-1). Furthermore, adenovirus-mediated overexpression of SMRT or GPS2 reversed the inflammatory profile of obese adipocytes [15]. The authors identified a regulatory pathway that modulates GPS2/SMRT expression in human adipocytes, the peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor gamma (PPARy) and twist-related protein 1 (TWIST1). These evidences were clinically significant since treatment of diabetic obese patients with the thiazolidinedione (TZD) pioglitazone, a

PPAR γ agonist, restored adipose tissue levels of TWIST1, GPS2 and SMRT [15]. All together and along with the findings in gain-of-function studies using human adipocytes, these data suggest that the corepressor pathway toward inflammation is reversible and thus may present an attractive target for future intervention. Moreover, this study provides the first evidence that a specific transcriptional corepressor complex is dysregulated in human obesity and describes a transcriptional and potentially epigenetic reprogramming pathway that could be causally linked to *metaflammation*: the chronic inflammatory status of obese adipose tissue [15].

Conclusion

The prevalence of obesity is increasing worldwide and there is an urgent demand for safe and effective antiobesity strategies to deal with this epidemic boost. This review describes three recent scientific advances made in this field that may contribute to understanding the pathogenesis and pathophysiology of the disease and cover the limitations/advantages of the current therapeutic procedures applied.

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Résumé

Décodage du rôle de GPS2 dans le contrôle transcriptionnel de l'inflammation du

tissu adipeux dans l'obésité

L'obésité est aujourd'hui considérée comme une maladie inflammatoire chronique dite de « bas grade » principalement caractérisée par une augmentation de l'inflammation du tissu adipeux. Les adipocytes et les macrophages sont connus pour jouer un rôle clé dans l'établissement, la progression et le maintien de l'inflammation. Dans mon projet de thèse, nous nous sommes particulièrement intéressés aux mécanismes transcriptionnels impliqués dans l'inflammation chronique en décodant l'action du corégulateur transcriptionnel GPS2 (G protein pathway suppressor 2) dans les adipocytes et les macrophages du tissu adipeux.

Dans un premiers temps, nous avons étudié la régulation et les actions de GPS2 (et ses partenaires SMRT et NCOR) dans le tissu adipeux humains de sujets obèses par rapport à des sujets minces. Dans cette première étude, nous avons identifié un mécanisme épigénomique qui participe à la régulation de la transcription des gènes inflammatoires dans les adipocytes lors de l'obésité. Nous avons démontré que la dérégulation de GPS2 contribuait à l'inflammation du tissu adipeux en permettant à la dérépression de certains gènes inflammatoires dont l'interleukine 6.

Dans la deuxième étude, nous avons caractérisé les conséquences de l'invalidation de GPS2 dans le phénotype inflammatoire des macrophages ainsi que les conséquences in vivo sur la progression de l'insulino-résistance. Pour ceci, nous avons généré un modèle de souris où GPS2 a été spécifiquement invalidé dans les macrophages (GPS2-MacKO). De manière intéressante, les souris GPS2-MacKO, présentent une expression accrue des gènes impliqués dans la voie de signalisation des TLR et des chimiokines dans les macrophages isolés. Par conséquent, une augmentation significative de l'infiltration des macrophages dans le tissu adipeux est observée dans un contexte d'obésité induisant une altération de l'homéostasie glucidique.

Par nos approches génomiques, transcriptomiques et épigénomiques, nous avons pu révéler les voies de signalisations spécifiquement contrôlées par GPS2. Ces travaux démontrent également l'importance des régulations épigénomiques dans l'inflammation métabolique du tissu adipeux durant l'obésité.

Abstract

$Decoding \ the \ role \ of \ GPS2 \ in \ transcriptional \ control \ of \ inflammation \ of \ adipose$

tissue during obesity

Obesity is now considered a chronic low-grade inflammatory disease with increased levels of inflammatory mediators both in circulation and adipose tissue. Among adipose tissue cell types, adipocytes and macrophages are known to play key roles in the progression of inflammation by establishing and maintaining it. In this PhD project, we particularly focus on the transcriptional mechanisms behind the chronic low-grade inflammation by deciphering the action of G protein pathway suppressor 2 (GPS2) in adipocytes and adipose tissue macrophages (ATM). We initially studied the gene regulation and the actions of GPS2 and its partners (SMRT and NCOR) in adipose tissue and adipocytes of human obese subjects compared to lean subjects. In this first study we identified a novel regulatory pathway that participates in the transcriptional control of inflammation associated with obesity, both in adipose tissue and adipocytes. We have shown that GPS2 and SMRT were differentially expressed and regulated in obese adipocytes. In addition, this dysregulation contributes to inflammation of the adipose tissue by allowing the derepression of specific inflammatory genes. In a second study, in order to go further in the characterisation of the in vivo function of GPS2, we generated a mouse model were GPS2 was specifically invalidated in macrophages (GPS2-MacKO). Models of diet-induced obesity were applied in these experiments. Interestingly, GPS2-MacKO mice showed an increased expression of inflammatory genes both in adipose tissue and isolated ATMs (F4/80⁺ cells) associated with a significant increase of macrophages infiltration in the adipose tissue. Finally, we observed that GPS2-MacKO mice had impaired glucose metabolism as they presented high glucose intolerance as well as an important insulin resistance. By combining, genomic, epigenomic and transcriptomic approaches, we identified specific GPS2 dependent regulatory pathways. All together, our data bring new insights into the understanding of epigenetic changes involved in the metabolic inflammation associated with adipose tissue during obesity.