

The Epoxygenases CYP2J2 Activates the Nuclear Receptor PPAR α *In Vitro* and *In Vivo*

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Abstract

Background: Peroxisome proliferator-activated receptors (PPARs) are a family of three (PPAR α , - β/δ , and - γ) nuclear receptors. In particular, PPAR α is involved in regulation of fatty acid metabolism, cell growth and inflammation. PPAR α mediates the cardiac fasting response, increasing fatty acid metabolism, decreasing glucose utilisation, and is the target for the fibrate lipid-lowering class of drugs. However, little is known regarding the endogenous generation of PPAR ligands. CYP2J2 is a lipid metabolising cytochrome P450, which produces anti-inflammatory mediators, and is considered the major epoxygenase in the human heart.

Methodology/Principal Findings: Expression of CYP2J2 *in vitro* results in an activation of PPAR responses with a particular preference for PPAR α . The CYP2J2 products 8,9- and 11-12-EET also activate PPAR α . *In vitro*, PPAR α activation by its selective ligand induces the PPAR α target gene pyruvate dehydrogenase kinase (PDK)4 in cardiac tissue. *In vivo*, in cardiac-specific CYP2J2 transgenic mice, fasting selectively augments the expression of PDK4.

Conclusions/Significance: Our results establish that CYP2J2 produces PPAR α ligands *in vitro* and *in vivo*, and suggests that lipid metabolising CYPs are prime candidates for the integration of global lipid changes to transcriptional signalling events.

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Introduction

Exogenous PPAR activators include a number of fatty acids as well as a variety of eicosanoid, HETEs, HODEs, prostaglandins, and leukotrienes. A number of lipid-metabolising pathways have therefore been suggested as sources of PPAR ligands, however none really fully satisfy the criteria required for them to be regarded as ubiquitous endogenous PPAR ligand generators [1,2]. The cyclooxygenase, and 5-, 12/15-lipoxygenase pathways are good examples: prostanoid synthase enzymes and lipoxygenase isoforms have a highly tissue-specific expression pattern that do not fully match those of the PPARs and the effects of prostanoid/lipoxygenase enzyme inhibitors or the phenotypes of the corresponding knockout animal do not match those of the PPARs [1]. Phospholipases [3] or lipoprotein lipase [4] can produce PPAR α ligands from circulating lipoproteins. However, it is unclear whether these enzymes produce PPAR ligands universally. A very attractive hypothesis is that cytochrome P450 enzymes (CYPs) could provide the link. Similar to related eicosanoids, 8,9-, 11,12-, and 14,15-EET and their CYP4A hydroxylase metabolites can bind and activate a PPAR α reporter gene [5], and 8,9-, 11,12- and 14,15-EETs can functionally activate both PPAR α [6] and PPAR γ [7,8] *in vitro*. It is not known however, which CYPs act as potential sources of the EETs, or whether CYPs or EETs mediate any functional effects on PPARs *in vivo*.

There are more than 500 CYP genes primarily associated with the metabolism and detoxification of foreign chemicals. A number of CYPs also catalyze the metabolism of lipids by epoxygenases lipoxygenase-like, and ω - and ω -1-hydroxylase activities [9]. The CYP2 gene family of epoxygenases has approximately 25 members. CYP2J2 is the only CYP2J family member expressed in man, and it is localised in the heart and vasculature, throughout the gastro-intestinal and respiratory tracts and in the kidney [9,10], where it catalyses the conversion of arachidonic acid via the epoxygenase pathway to anti-inflammatory and vascular-protective EETs [10]. Here we show CYP2J2 activates PPAR α *in vitro* and *in vivo*.

Results

CYP2J2 activates PPARs *in vitro* in an autocrine manner

Transient transfection of the CYP2J2 cDNA in HEK293 cells produced significant expression of CYP2J2 protein (Figure 1A). The combination of CYP2J2 with PPAR α (Figure 1A), PPAR δ or PPAR γ (Figure 1B) induced a synergistic activation of PPAR reporter genes, with a marked preference in terms of absolute activity for PPAR α activation (Figure 1A). pDR-1 was used as a reporter gene for PPAR δ activation due to the reported lack of efficacy for pACO on PPAR δ responses [11]. A functional

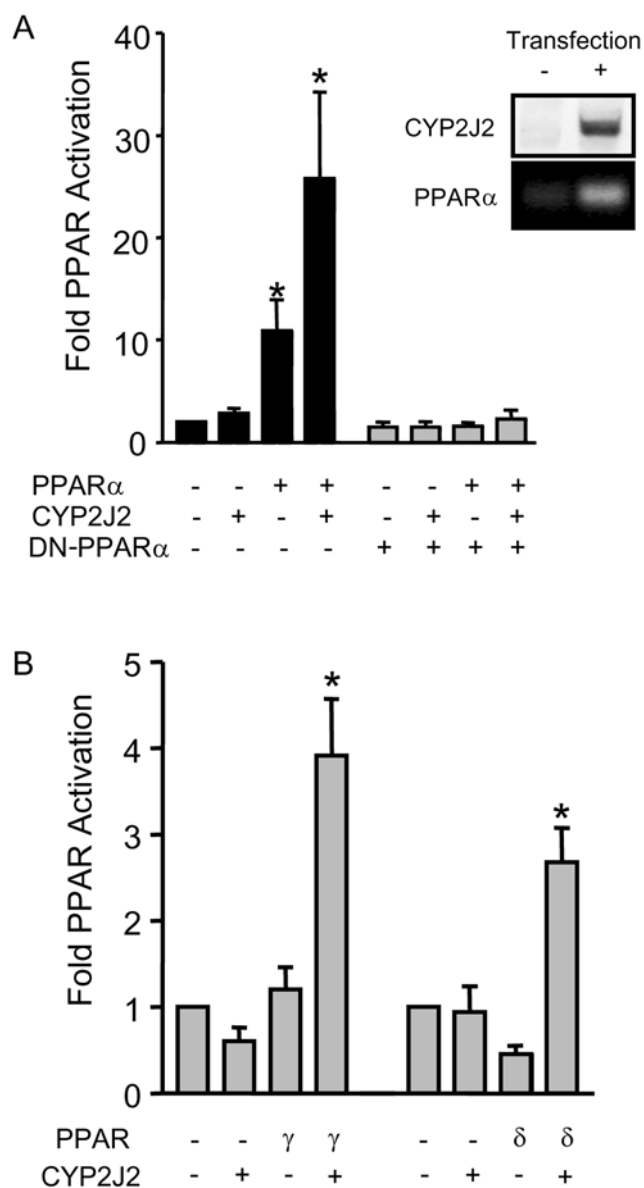


Figure 1. CYP2J2 activates PPAR responses *in vitro*. CYP2J2 synergises with PPAR α (A), PPAR β/δ or PPAR γ (B) to induce PPAR reporter gene activation. Dominant-negative (DN)-PPAR α co-transfected into cells with CYP2J2 and PPAR α abolished the ability of CYP2J2 to activate PPAR α (A). HEK293 cells were transfected with PPAR reporter genes (pACO.gLuc for PPAR α and $-\gamma$, and pDR-1 for PPAR δ), and pcDNA-CYP2J2, pCMX-PPAR α , pCMX-PPAR δ , or pCMX-PPAR γ alone, or co-transfected with CYP2J2 and the individual PPAR (2J2+ α , 2J2+ δ , and 2J2+ γ). All PPAR reporter gene activation studies are represented as fold luciferase from PPAR response element transfection alone (control), normalised to total protein at 20 h post-transfection. Total plasmid DNA for transfections was normalised using pcDNA3.1 throughout. Data represents n=9–12 replications from 4 separate experiments. * denotes $p < 0.05$ by one-sample t-test between control and transfected cells. Inset (A) is Western blot for CYP2J2 and RT-PCR for PPAR α in cells with either mock transfected (–; pcDNA3.1) or cells transfected with pcDNA-CYP2J2 and pcDNA-mPPAR α (+).
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PPAR was required for this activation, as no significant reporter gene activation was seen in cells co-transfected with vector reporter gene lacking the PPRE (data not shown), or when cells were co-transfected with dominant-negative (DN)-PPAR α [12];

Figure 1A). Similarly, the activation of PPAR reporter gene by co-transfection of PPAR α and CYP2J2 required *active* CYP2J2, as the epoxygenase inhibitor SKF525A caused a concentration-dependent inhibition of PPAR α -CYP2J2 induced PPAR reporter gene activation (Figure 2). These endogenous products of CYP2J2 act in an intracellular manner, as only when cells are co-transfected so that PPAR α and CYP2J2 are co-expressed together in the same cell is a significant synergistic activation of the PPAR reporter gene detected (data not shown).

CYP2J2 activates PPAR α and inhibits NF κ B activation

PPAR α activation inhibits the activation of the pro-inflammatory and survival transcription factor NF κ B [1,2]. IL-1 β (10 ng/ml) induced NF κ B reporter gene activation in HEK293 cells transfected with control plasmid cDNA. In cells transfected with the combination of CYP2J2 and PPAR α , IL-1 β induced NF κ B activation was completely abolished (Figure 3). Inhibiting CYP2J2 with SKF525A (10 μ M) restored the ability of IL-1 β to activate NF κ B in PPAR α and CYP2J2 transfected cells (Figure 3)

EETs activate PPAR α

8,9- and 11,12-EET at nM concentrations induced activation of PPAR in HEK293 cells in the presence, but not absence of transfected PPAR α (Figure 4). The CYP products 14,15-EET, or 5,6-DiHETE, the stable metabolite of 5,6-EET (Figure 4) or the linoleic acid metabolite of CYP2J2 leukotoxin (Figure 5A) had no effect on PPAR α reporter gene activation. Although, 14,15-EET had no effect in our hands, consistent with the previous report [5], the CYP4A hydroxylase 14,15-EET metabolite was a potent PPAR α activator (Figure 5B). The activation of PPAR α responses by 8,9-EET or 11,12-EET was completely reversed when cells were co-transfected with dominant negative DN-PPAR α (Figure 4B).

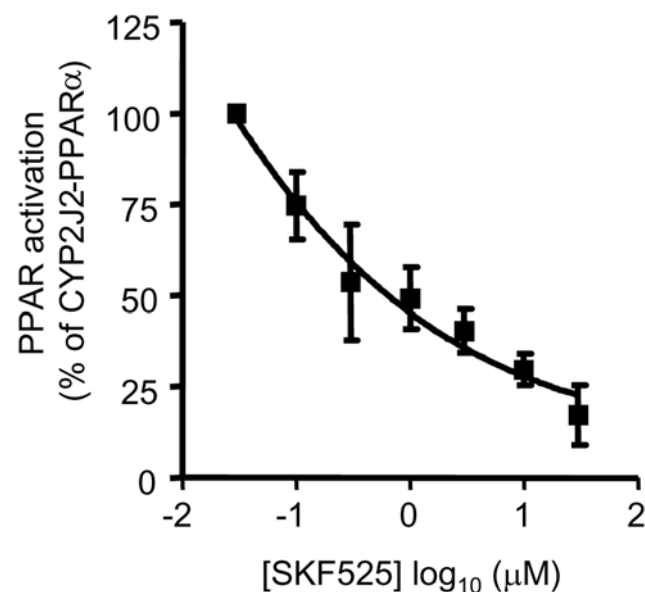


Figure 2. Synergistic activation of PPAR α by CYP2J2 requires an active CYP2J2. Cells were co-transfected with PPAR reporter gene, CYP2J2 and PPAR α , and treated with the epoxygenase inhibitor SKF525A (0–30 μ M). SKF525A caused a concentration-dependant inhibition of PPAR reporter gene activation. Data represents n=9–12 replications from 4 separate experiments.
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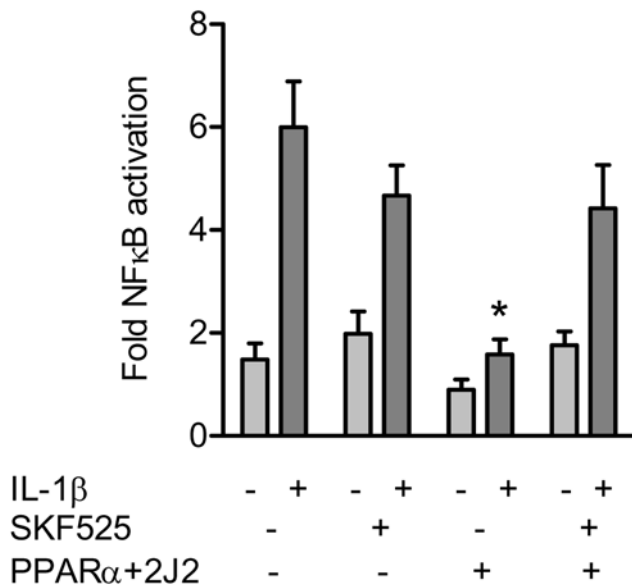


Figure 3. CYP2J2 activates PPAR α to inhibit NF κ B activation. IL-1 β (10 ng/ml; 20 h) induced NF κ B reporter gene activation in HEK293 cells. Cells co-transfected with CYP2J2 and PPAR α abolished IL-1 β -induced NF κ B activation. Co-incubation of cells with the epoxigenases inhibitor SKF525A (10 μ M) had no effect on IL-1 β induced NF κ B activation, but reversed the ability of PPAR α and CYP2J2 to inhibit IL-1 β induced NF κ B activation. HEK293 cells were transfected with NF κ B reporter gene and pcDNA-CYP2J2 and pCMX-PPAR α . Data is represented as fold luciferase from NF κ B reporter transfection alone (control), normalised to total protein at 20 h post-transfection. Total plasmid DNA for transfections was normalised using pcDNA3.1 throughout. Data represents n=6 replications from 3 separate experiments. * denotes p<0.05 by paired t-test between IL-1 β and treatments. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0007421.g003

PPAR α activation induces PDK4 in cardiac tissue *in vitro*

PDK4 is a tissue specific PPAR α target gene that facilitates fatty acid oxidation by “sparing” pyruvate for oxaloacetate formation [12,13]. The highly selective PPAR α ligand GW7647 induced PDK4 mRNA in mouse cardiac tissue in culture *in vitro* (Figure 6); an effect which was abolished by co-incubation with the selective PPAR α antagonist GW6471 (Figure 6), or if tissue was used from PPAR α knockout mice (data not shown).

Cardiac-specific CYP2J2 transgenic mice have an elevated PPAR α response during fasting

The fasting response is a model of PPAR α activation *in vivo* as a decline in insulin levels and/or a rise in lipid fuel availability facilitates PPAR α activation and the up-regulation of PDK4. Moreover, this marked up-regulation of PDK4 expression in response to fasting is absent in PPAR α knockout mice [14]. Therefore, PDK4 is a robust index of PPAR α activation *in vivo*. Expression of the related proteins PDK1, PDK2 and E1a are not regulated by PPAR α , and were used as controls.

Cardiomyocyte-specific CYP2J2 transgenic (Tr) mice have been generated and have a normal heart anatomy and contractile function [15]. Fed CYP2J2 Tr mice had no altered expression of PDK1, -2, -4 or E1a expression in the heart, kidney, or liver compared to wild type controls (Figure 6; and data not shown). In fasted mice, PDK4 protein expression was selectively up-regulated in the heart (Figure 7A and B), kidney and liver (Figure 7C) of wild type mice. In response to fasting, wild type male mice had an approximate 2–3 fold higher induction of cardiac PDK4 expression

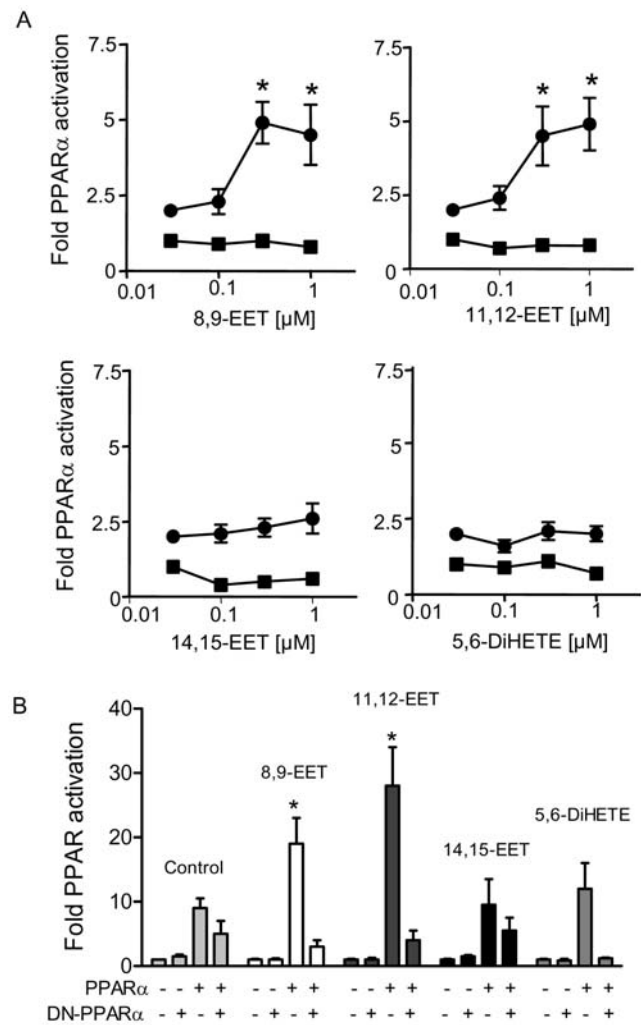


Figure 4. CYP products activate PPAR α . (A) 8,9-EET, and 11,12-EET, but not 14,15-EET, or 5,6-DiHETE, induce PPAR reporter gene activation in cells transfected with PPAR α (with out PPAR α , closed squares; +PPAR α closed circles). HEK293 cells were transfected with PPAR reporter gene in the presence or absence of PPAR α . 20 h post transfection cells were treated with CYP2J2 products (0–10 μ M), for a further 20 h. * denotes p<0.05 by one-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni's post test. (B) 8,9-EET and 11,12-EET activation of PPAR α responses were inhibited by co-transfection with dominant-negative DN-PPAR α . Cells were transfected with a PPAR reporter alone or with PPAR α , in the presence or absence of DN-PPAR α . Cells were treated with CYP2J2 products as indicated (all at 1 μ M). Data represents n=9–12 replications from 3–4 separate experiments. * denotes p<0.05 by one-sample t-test between control and transfected cells. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0007421.g004

than female mice (9.3 ± 2.4 male compared to 3.7 ± 0.9 female; relative fold induction; n=4–6). The basal PDK4 levels between male and female mice were equivalent, so this gender difference in PPAR α activity/PDK4 expression upon fasting is gender specific.

Upon fasting, male wild type and CYP2J2 Tr mice, had a comparable induction of cardiac PDK4 protein (9.3 ± 2.4 wild type; 7.4 ± 1.3 CYP2J2 Tr; fold expression; n=4). In contrast, female CYP2J2 Tr exhibited a much greater induction of cardiac PDK4 protein upon fasting compared to wild-type controls (Figure 7). PDK1, PDK2 and E1a protein expression were unchanged by 24 h of fasting in any tissue tested (Figure 6, and data not shown).

Up-regulation of PDK4 expression is linked to a decline in circulating insulin concentrations [13,14,16]. Upon fasting, both

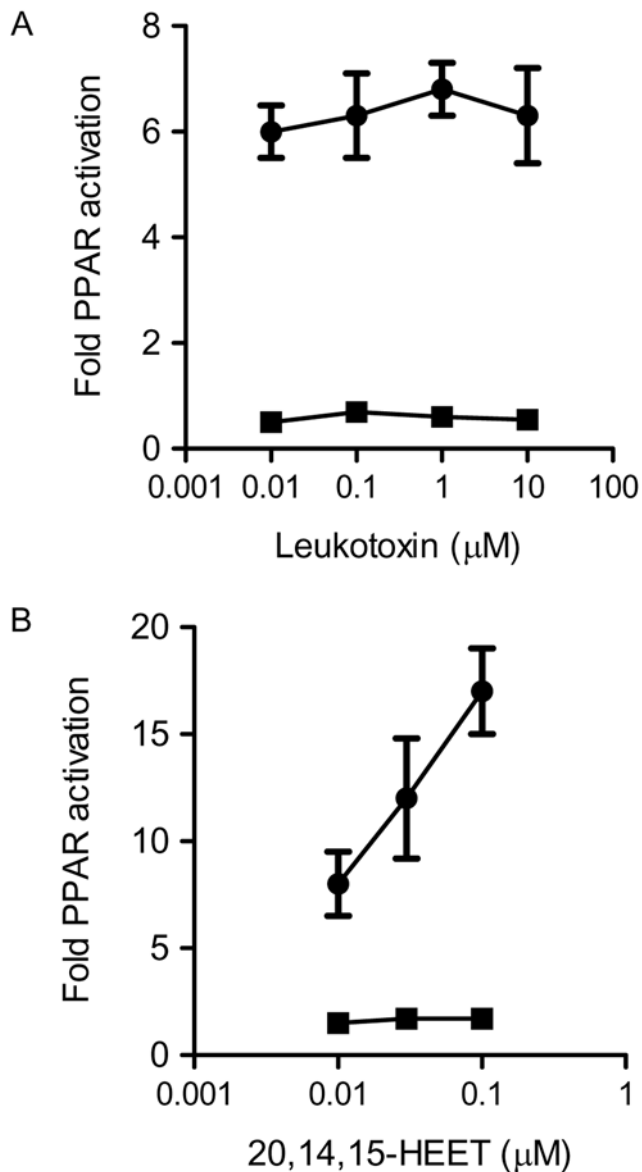


Figure 5. Alternative CYP products and PPAR α activation. (A) PPAR reporter gene activation is not induced by the linoleic acid CYP2J2 metabolite leukotoxin in the presence or absence of PPAR α , but is potently induced by (B) the CYP4A 14,15-EET metabolite 20,14,15-HEET in the presence of PPAR α . HEK293 cells were transfected with PPAR reporter gene in the presence or absence of PPAR α . 20 h post transfection cells were treated with CYP2J2 products (0–10 μ M), for a further 20 h. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0007421.g005

plasma insulin and blood glucose levels fell to equivalent levels in wild type and CYP2J2 Tr mice (Table 1). Fibrate administration is associated with suppression of circulating triglyceride levels [2], however, neither triglyceride nor non-esterified fatty acid concentrations were affected in wild type or CYP2J2 Tr mice (Table 1). Since no systemic metabolic differences were observed, any changes in PPAR response we conclude are due to the local cardiac specific activity of CYP2J2 in the transgenic mouse.

Endogenous CYPs and the cardiac fasting response

The use of pharmacological CYP inhibitors *in vivo* is complicated due both to lack of specificity of inhibitors and the great heterogeneity in CYP enzymes between species. We did

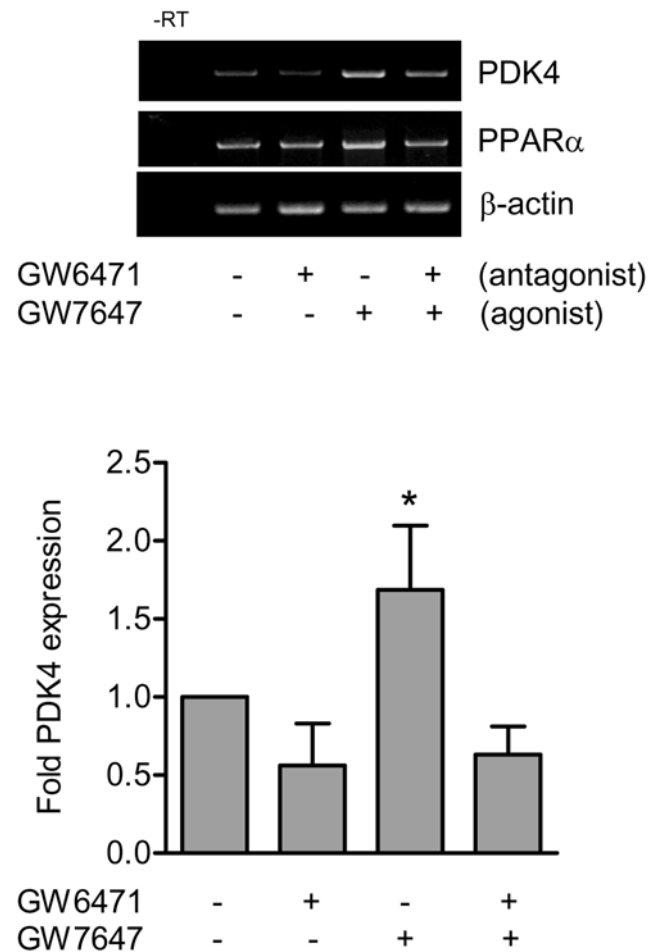


Figure 6. PPAR α activation induces the PPAR α target gene PDK4 in heart segments in organ culture. Fresh mouse heart tissue in culture was incubated in the presence or absence of the selective PPAR α agonist GW7647 (10 nM) or antagonist GW6471 (3 μ M) for 24 h and PDK4, PPAR α and β -actin expression determined by RT-PCR. *denotes $p < 0.05$ by one-sample t-test between control and treatments. Data represents mean \pm SEM of $n = 9$ incubations from 3 separate experiments. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0007421.g006

however examine the fasting response in CYP2J5 knockout mice [17], the only murine CYP2J family member where a knockout has been generated. There was however no difference in the circulating blood glucose levels, or the heart, liver or kidney PDK4, or heart E1a expression levels (Table S1) between knockout and wild type male or female mice either under fed or fasted conditions.

Discussion

The nature of endogenous PPAR ligands are still far from clear, as is whether PPARs act as general lipid sensors or whether high affinity ligands exist in the body. Here we show CYP2J2 can act as an endogenous epoxygenase source of high affinity PPAR ligands. When co-transfected together *in vitro*, CYP2J2 induces PPAR, in particular PPAR α , activity. In cardiac-specific-CYP2J2 Tr mice, fasting greatly elevates the PPAR α target gene PDK4. These results do not exclude a role for CYP2J2 or other CYPs as regulators of PPAR β/δ or $-\gamma$. Indeed we found CYP2J2 can activate PPAR δ and PPAR γ , (albeit it to lower absolute levels than

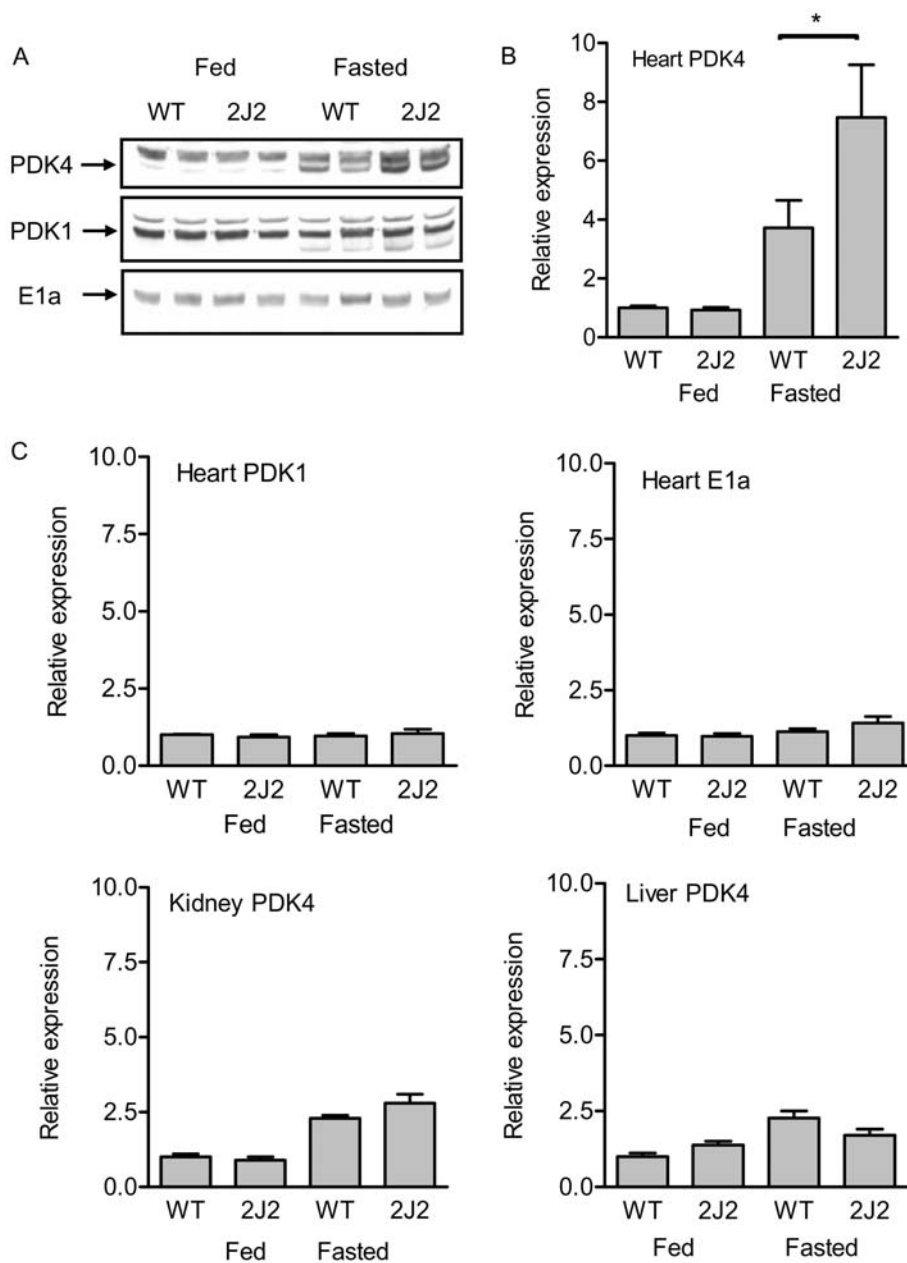


Figure 7. CYP2J2 augments PPAR α *in vivo* in the fasting model of PPAR α activation. Female wild-type or cardiac-specific CYP2J2 Tr mice were allowed food and water ad libitum, or fasted for 24 h. Figure (A) shows representative western blots for 2 of the 6 animals tested for PDK4, PDK1 (antibody has cross reactivity with PDK4 indicated by changes in the lower band) and E1a in the hearts of wild type (WT) or cardiac-specific CYP2J2 Tr mice (2J2); specific bands are identified by the arrows. Figures show the relative protein expression of PDK4 in the heart (B), kidney, and liver (C as indicated) and PDK1 and E1a in the heart (as indicated) in wild type (WT) and cardiac-specific CYP2J2 Tr (2J2), fed and fasted female mice. Data represents relative densitometry of protein compared to wild type fed controls for $n=4-6$ separate animals in each group. Only the PPAR α target gene PDK4 was induced on fasting both in the heart and kidney. Upon fasting there was an approximate doubling of PDK4 in the hearts (b), but not the kidney (e), or liver (f) of female cardiac specific CYP2J2 transgenic mice. * denotes $p<0.05$ by unpaired t-test between the fasting response in wild-type and CYP2J2 transgenic mice. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0007421.g007

PPAR α in our transfection system) and it is known that lipid CYP products (though not the CYP responsible) are endogenous PPAR γ activators, induced by laminar shear of human endothelial cells *in vitro* [7,8].

Unlike other proposed PPAR ligand-generating enzymes (e.g. 12/15-lipoxygenase; [18]), CYP2J2 did not require additional arachidonic/linoleic acid substrate(s), suggesting a high level of functional coupling between the epoxygenases and PPARs. We

also show for the first time a functional *in vivo* response for a PPAR ligand generating system. Our results do not rule out the role of other enzymes, such as phospholipases [3] or lipoprotein lipases [4] implicated in PPAR α ligand generation. These enzymes are likely to produce PPAR ligands in parallel to CYPs, and/or supply free fatty acid substrates for CYPs to utilise.

8,9-EET, and 11,12-EET, but not 14,15-EET activated PPAR α . 11,12-EET in contrast to 14-15-EET is highly anti-

Table 1. Blood parameters in fed and fasted wild type and cardiac-specific CYP2J2 transgenic mice (CYP2J2).

	Fed		Fasted	
	Wild Type	CYP2J2	Wild Type	CYP2J2
Insulin (μU/ml)	13 \pm 3	11 \pm 2	3 \pm 1*	3 \pm 1*
Glucose (mM)	13.3 \pm 0.3	12.5 \pm 0.6	4.5 \pm 0.6*	5.5 \pm 0.5*
NEFA (mM)	1.13 \pm 0.04	1.12 \pm 0.05	0.91 \pm 0.18	0.92 \pm 0.14
Triglycerides (mM)	0.7 \pm 0.1	0.9 \pm 0.1	0.5 \pm 0.2	0.7 \pm 0.1

Wild type and CYP2J2 mice have similar basal levels of plasma insulin, blood glucose, non-esterified fatty acids (NEFA) and triglycerides. Following 24 h of fasting, plasma insulin and blood glucose dropped in both wild type and CYP2J2 mice to equivalent levels, while non-esterified fatty acids and triglycerides remained relatively unchanged. This data represents the mean \pm s.e.m. for n=6 animals per group. * denotes p<0.05 by unpaired t-test between fed and fasted levels.

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inflammatory and vascular protective [10,19]. Therefore, we propose that PPAR α is a likely anti-inflammatory target for 11,12-EET and CYP2J2. Indeed we found the combination of PPAR α and CYP2J2 abolished IL-1 β induced NF κ B activation; a central pro-inflammatory transcription factor and PPAR α target [1,2].

Many EETs, including 14,15-EET, can also act as cellular hyperpolarising agents [9,19], however, since 14,15-EET was inactive in our system, hyperpolarization mechanisms are highly unlikely to be involved. Our results are consistent with previous findings that EETs and some of their metabolites can directly bind and activate PPAR α [5–7]. Although 14,15-EET did not activate PPAR α in our hands, its CYP4A hydroxylase 14,15-EET metabolite 20,14,15-HEET, was the most potent EET product we tested. EETs can be rapidly metabolised by at least 10 different intracellular pathways, and it is estimated that when given exogenously <10% is available free within the cell [9]. Our results therefore do indicate that alternative CYP2J2 products exist or further unknown EET metabolites [5,7,8] are potential endogenous PPAR α activators.

There is considerable species difference between CYPs in man and in the mouse. CYP2J2 is the human isoform, in the mouse the situation is far more complex with up to 8 putative homologues (CYP2J5 – CYP2J13; [20]). Since epoxygenases are ubiquitous and potentially have many roles, examining the role of endogenous epoxygenases especially in the mouse is extremely difficult. We therefore chose as our main model the established cardiac specific CYP2J2-Tr mouse. We did however test the recently described CYP2J5 knockout mouse [17], the only CYP2J knockout available. However, we did not detect a change in the fasting response or in PDK4 expression, suggesting a lack of involvement of CYP2J5 in PPAR α ligand generation or the more likely compensation from other mouse CYP2J or CYP2C EET-producing epoxygenases that are present.

The selective augmentation of PDK4 in cardiac-specific CYP2J2-Tr mice occurred only in female mice. The fasting PPAR α response was much stronger in males, and we believe maximally activated. Interestingly, our results are consistent with known gender differences in cardiac PPAR α responses in the mouse. Pharmacological stress of the hearts of PPAR α knockout mice with Etomoxir to prevent mitochondrial fatty acid import, results in cardiac lipid accumulation and a 100% mortality of male mice but only 25% mortality of female mice [21].

In conclusion, *in vitro* CYP2J2 activates PPAR α without exogenous stimuli. *In vivo* CYP2J2 does not appear to be rate-

limiting as PPAR α target gene (PDK4) expression is only augmented in cardiac-specific CYP2J2 transgenic mouse upon fasting. Therefore, CYP2J2 *in vivo* is an enzyme apparently quiescent, but capable of responding to changes in lipid availability to generate endogenous PPAR α agonists and thereby integrate transcriptional fasting events. CYP2J2 products activate PPARs, in particular PPAR α *in vitro* and *in vivo*. As lipid-metabolising CYP enzymes have a widespread expression, utilise a variety of lipid substrates and produce a large family of oxidised biologically active lipid mediators, we suggest that lipid metabolising CYPs may represent an important source of PPAR ligands throughout the body.

PPAR α is known as a controller of lipid metabolism and inflammation. Linking CYP2J2 and epoxygenases to PPAR α has many potential clinical implications. Variants of CYP2J2 with lower activity are known in some populations to be linked to an increased risk of coronary artery disease [22,23]. Epoxygenases such as CYP2J2 in addition to metabolising arachidonic acid may also regulate xenobiotic drug metabolism. Understanding how epoxygenases are regulated, the mediators they produce, and where they work, will give us novel information on biomarkers for dyslipidaemia and inflammation, allow us to understand side-effects of drugs metabolised by epoxygenases, and help us to design novel PPAR α ligands based on the structure of high affinity EETs and their metabolites.

Materials and Methods

Materials

HEK293 cells were from ATCC. pEGFPN-1 and pNF κ B-luc were from Clontech. pGL-2 was from Promega (Southampton, UK). pCMXmPPAR α , pACOG.Luc, and h6/29 hPPAR α were gifts from Dr Ruth Roberts (AstraZeneca; Macclesfield, U.K.), pCMX-mPPAR δ was from Dr Ronald Evans (Salk Institute, La Jolla, USA), pDR-1 was from Dr Bert Vogelstein (Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, USA), pCMX-mPPAR γ was from Dr Christopher Glass (UCSD, San Diego, USA). Novafactor was from VennNova (Pompano Beach, FL, USA). Rabbit polyclonal anti-CYP2J2 [24] and PDK2 [25] were raised as previously described. Anti-PDK4 antibodies were generously provided by Professor Bob Harris (Indianapolis, USA). CYP2J2 metabolites were from Cayman Chemical Company (Axxora, Nottingham, UK). SKF525A was from Biomol (Affiniti Research Products, Exeter, UK). Plasma insulin ELISA was from Mercodia (Uppsala, Sweden). Plasma glucose kits were from Roche Diagnostics (Lewes, East Sussex, UK). WAKO kits for plasma triacylglycerol were from Alpha Labs. (Eastleigh, Hants, UK). ECL reagents, hyperfilm were from Amersham Biosciences (Little Chalfont, Buckinghamshire, UK). Bradford reagents for protein estimation were purchased from BioRad Ltd. (Hemel Hempstead, Hertfordshire, UK). All other reagents were from Sigma (Poole, Dorset, UK).

Cell culture and transfections

HEK293 were maintained in DMEM containing, supplemented with Antibiotic/Antimycotic mix, and 10% FCS; 37°C; 5% CO₂; 95% air. Cells were transfected with Novafactor and Luciferase assays performed, essentially as previously described [26] but modified for a 96 well format [27]. Luciferase activity was normalised to cell protein (BCA assay). Global cellular changes, cell morphology, and GFP expression were recorded on a Nikon TE2000 inverted fluorescent microscope, with a SPOT RT digital camera. In some experiments organ culture of mouse cardiac tissue was performed, essentially as previously described [28].

Ethics Statement

All animal studies were approved by the National Institute of Environmental Health Sciences Animal Care and Use Committee.

Animal experiments

Cardiac-specific CYP2J2 transgenic mice (α -MHC promoter driven) and littermate wild type C57BL6/J controls [15] along with CYP2J5 knockout mice [27] have been described previously. Animals were allowed food and water ad libitum or fasted for 24 h. In some experiments mice were given SKF525A (30 mg/kg; i.p) or vehicle (sterile PBS) immediately prior to initiation of the 24 h fasting/non-fasting period.

Immunoblotting and assays

PDK1, -2, -4 and E1a and CYP2J2 protein levels were determined as previously described [13,24,25]. For animal experiments each representative immunoblot presented are results from a single gel exposed for a uniform duration, and each lane represents a preparation from a different mouse. Plasma immunoreactive insulin concentrations were measured by ELISA, using rat insulin as a standard. Plasma glucose concentrations were determined by a glucose oxidase method. Plasma NEFA and TAG levels were determined spectrophotometrically using commercial kits.

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Supporting Information

Table S1 Blood glucose and PDK4 expression in female fed and fasted wild type and CYP2J5 knockout (–/–) mice. Wild type and CYP2J5 –/– mice have similar basal levels of plasma glucose. Following 24 h of fasting, blood glucose dropped in both wild type and CYP2J2 mice to equivalent levels, while the PPARalpha target gene PDK4 was induced to similar levels in the heart, liver and kidney. The non-PPARalpha target genes E1a and PDK2 (data not shown), were unaffected by fasting. Similar results were found in male mice. This data represents the mean \pm s.e.m. for n=4 animals per group. * denotes p<0.05 by paired t-test between fed and fasted levels.

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Author Contributions

Conceived and designed the experiments: MS DZ LMD JAB MH TW DBB. Performed the experiments: JW DZ GG SS LMD JAB DBB. Analyzed the data: JW MS GG SS MH TW DBB. Contributed reagents/materials/analysis tools: DZ DBB. Wrote the paper: JW MS MH DBB.

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