Review Article **PPAR**α/γ-Independent Effects of PPARα/γ Ligands on **Cysteinyl Leukotriene Production in Mast Cells**

Masamichi Yamashita

Laboratory of Food Science, Department of Bioresource Science, Nihon University Junior College, 1866 Kameino, Fujisawa 252-8510, Japan

Correspondence should be addressed to Masamichi Yamashita, may@brs.nihon-u.ac.jp

Received 3 March 2008; Revised 5 June 2008; Accepted 15 September 2008

Recommended by Francine M. Gregoire

Peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor (PPAR) α ligands (Wy-14,643, and fenofibrate) and PPAR γ ligands (troglitazone and ciglitazone) inhibit antigen-induced cysteinyl leukotriene production in immunoglobulin E-treated mast cells. The inhibitory effect of these ligands on cysteinyl leukotriene production is quite strong and is almost equivalent to that of the anti-asthma compound zileuton. To develop new aspects for anti-asthma drugs the pharmacological target of these compounds should be clarified. Experiments with bone-marrow-derived mast cells from PPAR α knockout mice and pharmacological inhibitors of PPAR γ suggest that the inhibitory effects of these ligands are independent of PPARs α and γ . The mechanisms of the PPAR-independent inhibition by these agents on cysteinyl leukotriene production are discussed in this review.

Copyright © 2008 Masamichi Yamashita. This is an open access article distributed under the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

1. INTRODUCTION

Asthma is defined as "a common chronic disorder of the airways that is complex and characterized by variable and recurring symptoms, airflow obstruction, bronchial hyperresponsiveness, and an underlying inflammation" [1]. Many types of inflammatory cells, neutrophils, eosinophils, lymphocytes, and mast cells contribute to the development of asthma.

Mast cells are differentiated from bone marrow stem cells and release various mediators of inflammation, such as histamine, through degranulation and arachidonic acid metabolites through *de novo* synthesis in response to pathological stimuli in asthma, atopic dermatitis, and other conditions. Immunoglobulin (Ig) E, a protein from B lymphocytes, increases in the serum of patients with type I allergic diseases [2].

Arachidonic acid is metabolized into many biologically active lipids, such as prostaglandins via cyclooxygenase, and leukotrienes (LTs) via 5-lipoxygenase (5-LOX). Arachidonic acid liberated from membrane phospholipids by phospholipase A_2 is then metabolized into LTA₄ by the 5-LOX/5-LOX activating protein (FLAP) complex (Figure 1). LTA₄ is metabolized into LTC_4 by conjugating cysteine, glycine, and glutamic acid via LTC synthase [3]. LTC_4 is subsequently metabolized into LTD_4 and LTE_4 via the contribution of dipeptidases [4] or cytochrome P450 [5] by glutamic acid and glycine degradation (Figure 2). The LTs C_4 , D_4 , and E_4 are called cysteinyl LTs (cysLTs) because they contain cysteine in their molecules. The cysLTs are regarded as main mediators of asthma because of their potent constricting effects on bronchiolar smooth muscle [6]. Specific receptors of cysLT are known [7, 8], and the inhibitors of the receptor [9] and the inhibitors of 5-LOX/FLAP activity [10–12] have been used to treat asthma.

Peroxisome proliferator-activated receptors (PPARs) are a family of transcription factors that are part of the nuclear receptor superfamily. The PPARs have 3 subtypes from the independent genes α , β (also called δ), and γ . A group of hypolipidemic agents, such as clofibrate and fenofibrate, are known to be ligands for PPAR α , and some agents used to treat type 2 diabetes mellitus, such as rosiglitazone, pioglitazone, and ciglitazone, are known to be ligands for PPAR γ . Some physiological fatty acids, such as leukotriene B₄ and 15-deoxy- Δ^{12-14} prostaglandin J₂, are reported to be ligands for PPAR α and PPAR γ , respectively [15, 16].



FIGURE 1: Diagram of arachidonic acid metabolism.

2. LIGANDS FOR PPAR_y INHIBIT cysLT PRODUCTION IN MAST CELLS

Troglitazone $(1 \,\mu M)$, a PPARy ligand formerly used to treat type 2 diabetes mellitus, inhibits LTB₄, LTC₄, and LTE₄ production induced by the type I allergy mechanism in a mast cell line, RBL-2H3 [17]. The inhibitory effects of troglitazone on these LTs are strong and similar to those of the clinically-used 5-LOX inhibitor zileuton $(1 \mu M)$ [17]. Another PPARy ligand, ciglitazone $(30 \,\mu\text{M})$, also inhibits LTC₄ production [18]. Neither troglitazone nor ciglitazone affects hexosaminidase release, the index for mast cell degranulation, or prostaglandin D₂ production via cyclooxygenase [17, 18]. The observations that $0.1 \,\mu\text{M}$ of the PPARy antagonist GW9662, which inhibits the PPARy activation of (AOx)₃-TK-Luc promoter induced by the PPARy ligand rosiglitazone [19], did not affect LTC₄ production [18] and that $30\,\mu\text{M}$ of GW9662 inhibits LTC₄ production (our unpublished data) in the IgE-sensitized, and Ag-treated RBL-2H3 mast cell line obscures the contribution of PPARy on LT production in mast cells.

3. LIGANDS FOR PPARα ALSO INHIBIT cysLT PRODUCTION IN MAST CELLS

Whether PPAR α ligands affect LT production in mast cells has been examined, and the PPAR α ligands fenofibrate (100 μ M) and Wy-14,643(30 μ M) have been reported to inhibit calcium ionophore A23187-induced cysLT production by the RBL-2H3 mast cell line [13]. However, Wy-14,643 does not significantly inhibit cysLT production by the IgE-sensitized and Ag-treated RBL-2H3 mast cell line. Neither fenofibrate (100 μ M) nor Wy-14,643 (30 μ M) affects radioactivity released from the IgE sensitized [³H]arachidonic acid prelabeled RBL-2H3 mast cell line following treatment with Ag, which is an index of arachidonic acid release from mast cells. Neither fenofibrate (100 μ M) nor WY-14,643 (30 μ M) affects lipid peroxidation, which is an index of 5-LOX activation, whereas troglitazone (1 μ M) and zileuton (1 μ M) strongly inhibit lipid peroxidation [13].

PPAR Research

4. ARE THE INHIBITORY EFFECTS OF THESE PPARs LIGANDS VIA PPARs?

Subsequently, the mRNA levels of PPARs α and γ were examined in mast cells. There were no significant PPAR α [13] and PPAR γ (our unpublished data) bands on Northern blot analysis of the RBL-2H3 mast cell line or of mouse bone marrow-derived mast cells (BMMCs). Then, PPAR α [13] and γ [14] mRNA levels in RBL-2H3 mast cell line were measured with the real-time semiquantitative polymerase chain reaction (PCR) and compared with levels in other organs. The PPAR α mRNA level is less than the level in 1000-times diluted liver, and the PPAR γ mRNA level is almost the same as the level in 100-times diluted white adipose tissue (Figure 3).

These observations that mast cells have very low levels of PPAR α/γ mRNA lead to another question: are these PPARs in mast cells effective?

Studies have examined whether fenofibrate $(100 \,\mu\text{M})$ raises acyl-CoA oxidase mRNA levels, which are known to be induced by PPAR α activation [20, 21], and have shown that fenofibrate does not increase acyl-CoA oxidase mRNA levels in the RBL-2H3 mast cell line [13]. The effects of these PPAR α ligands on BMMCs from PPAR α -null mice were thoroughly examined, and both fenofibrate (100 μ M) and Wy-14,643 (30 μ M) were found to inihbit cysLT production [13]. It has been concluded that these compounds inhibit cysLT production independently of PPAR α .

We have observed that the immunoreactivity of anti-PPARy IgG in the RBL-2H3 mast cell line though ciglitazone (30 µM) does not induce the mRNA level of acyl-CoA binding protein [18], which is a target gene of PPARy [22]. Diaz et al. [23] have examined PPARy protein in mouse BMMCs by SDS-PAGE immunoblot analysis and reported that the amount of PPARy in BMMCs is equivalent to that in the Jurkat T-cell line, which is known to have effective PPARy [24]. Maeyama et al. [25] have demonstrated that rosiglitazone $(1-30 \,\mu\text{M})$ increases the proliferation of BMMCs, but that the proliferation is not observed in BMMCs from PPARy heterozygous deficient mice. Ward and Tan [26] have reviewed the contents of PPARs in various types of cells and have concluded that the PPARy in mast cells might play a role, and Paruchuri et al. [27] have recently reported that LTE₄-induced COX-2 induction, prostaglandin D₂ production, and ERK phosphorylation are sensitive for the interference of PPARy in the human mast cell sarcoma line LAD2 and may indicate a role of PPARy in mast cells. Further studies of the role of PPARy in mast cells are necessary.

5. WHAT IS THE TARGET?

The experimental findings that PPARs α and γ in mast cells seem not to be effective at very low mRNA levels lead to another question: what is the target of these compounds?

Fenofibrate (25 mg/kg p.o. for 10 days) induces proliferation of peroxisomes even in PPAR α -null mice [28]. Wy-14,643 (75 μ M) induces plasminogen activator inhibitor I with the induction of p38 and p42 mitogen-activated protein



FIGURE 2: Chemical structures of arachidonic acid and cysteinyl leukotrienes.

kinase (MAPK) phosphorylation 5 minutes after treatment, which would be too early for the induction to occur via transcription [29]. The ligand Wy-14,643 (1 μ M) leads to the phosphorylation of extracellular signal-regulated kinase (ERK) after 5 minutes of treatment but does not increase acyl-CoA oxidase mRNA levels [30].

The PPARy ligands ciglitazone $(20 \,\mu\text{M})$ and 15-deoxy- Δ^{12-14} prostaglandin J₂(15 μ M) induce ERK, c-Jun Nterminal kinase, and p38 MAPK after 15 minutes of treatment, which might be earlier than transcription occurs [31]. The inducible effects of PPARy ligands on MAPK have been reported elsewhere [32, 33], and most authors have concluded that these effects are independent of PPARy.

MAPK is reported to induce 5-LOX activity in human polymorphonuclear cells and the Mono Mac 6 human monocytic leukemia cell line [34], and these findings may support the presence of PPAR-independent effects of PPAR α and γ ligands. However, MAPK phosphorylation has not been observed in mast cells treated with these PPAR ligands. The stimulating effect of these compounds on MAPK seems not to be the main mechanism of the PPAR-independent inhibition of cysLT production because it might increase the production of cysLTs.

The cysLT concentration is determined by subtracting degradation from production, and the PPAR-independent activation of MAPK increases cysLT production in mast cells. The degradation of cysLTs could be another mechanism of these drugs. The responsible enzymes of cysLT metabolism remain unclear. Recent findings that LTC₄ is metabolized into LTD₄ by γ -glutamyltransferase and γ -glutamylleukotrienase and that of double knockout mice of these enzymes do not metabolize LTC₄ into LTD₄ may indicate that these enzymes are the enzymes responsible

for LTC₄ degradation [35]. The degradation of LTD₄ into LTE₄ is reported to occur partly because of dipeptidase [36], but the responsible enzyme is still unclear. Induction of cytochrome P450 (CYP) 2B1/2 by phenobarbital in rats and the decrease in LTC₄ concentrations in liver extract suggest the involvement of CYP2B1/2 in LTC₄ degradation [37]. The CYP family comprises a large number of enzymes, and we do not yet have sufficient information on the contribution of CYP to cysLT metabolism.

Fujimura et al. [38] have reported that incubation with prostaglandin A₁ (as PPAR β/δ ligand) and 15-deoxy- Δ^{12-14} prostaglandin J₂(as PPAR γ ligand) for more than 6 hours decreases the surface IgE receptor Fc ε RI in the KU812 human basophilic cell line, whereas LTB₄ (as PPAR α ligand) does not. The PPAR α and γ ligands were preincubated for 2 hours before antigen treatment in mast cells [13, 17, 18], and the decrease of Fc ε RI on the surface of mast cells is not the main mechanism of the PPAR-independent inhibition of cysLT production. Regulation of the sensitivity to antigens is of pathological interest in allergic diseases, including asthma, and the interaction of mast cells with other inflammatory cells in pathological conditions should be examined.

6. CONCLUSION

These findings show that some effects of ligands of PPARs α and γ occur through a mechanism independent of PPARs α and γ . The involvement of PPARs α and γ should be examined in pharmacological experiments of PPAR ligands and of ligands of other nuclear receptors.

The involvement of PPAR α in the effects of PPAR ligands can be investigated in PPAR α -null mice [39] and at lower cost in mast cells, as described above.



FIGURE 3: Measurement of mRNA levels of PPAR α (upper panel) and PPAR γ (lower panel) with real-time semiquantitative PCR. Total RNA (1 μ g) extracted from white adipose tissue (\blacklozenge), liver (\blacktriangle), BMMC (\blacksquare), and RBL-2H3 mast cells (\blacklozenge) was supplemented with 50 pg of chloramphenicol acetyltransferase RNA and then reverse-transcribed. The indicated amounts of cDNA were applied to real-time PCR. PCR performed without cDNA was used as a negative control (\times) of the reaction. Data are presented as the number of PCR cycles to cross the threshold. Messenger RNA levels in these tissues were extrapolated from the PCR cycle of the liver for PPAR α or white adipose tissue for PPAR γ and then corrected by the chloramphenicol acetyltransferase cDNA content in each sample and presented in the manuscripts [13, 14].

PPARy-null mice die at 10.5 to 11.5 days post coitum because of placental dysfunction [40], and the contribution of PPARy cannot be examined in PPARy-homozygous knockout mice. One of the mutants of the PPARy2 subtype, ^{Pro}12^{Ala}, reduces transcription of wildtype tk-Luclinked PPARy-related acyl-CoA oxidase, the peroxisome proliferator-responsible element, and lipoprotein lipase promoter by 40%, and persons homogenous for Ala-mutated PPARy have lower body mass indexes and higher serum levels of high-density lipoprotein cholesterol [41]. A 50% reduction in PPARy activity seems to have some biological effects, and PPARy heterozygous knockout mice, which are expected to have 50% lower levels of PPARy activity, and conditional knockout mice could be useful experimental models. Some RNA interference probes are available to inhibit PPARy transcription and would be useful tools for investigating PPARy involvement in cells, although the nonspecific interference by off-target effects should be noted.

Further investigations of the involvement of PPARs and other nuclear receptors in arachidonic acid metabolism are necessary to develop more effective and specific compounds as anti-asthma drugs.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Part of this work, appearing in Figure 3, was performed in the NCI Intramural Research Program in Laboratory of Metabolism, Center for Cancer Research, National Cancer Institute, National Institutes of Health, USA. The publication was supported by the special subsidies of subsidies for ordinary expenses of private school from the promotion and mutual aid corporation for private schools of Japan, and the Nihon University College of Bioresouce Sciences Research Fund for 2008.

REFERENCES

- Natioal Heart Lung and Blood Institute, "Guidelines for the diagnosis and management of asthma (EPR-3)," Tech. Rep. NIH 08-4051, Natioal Heart Lung and Blood Institute, Bethesda, Md, USA, 2007.
- [2] J. M. Brown, T. M. Wilson, and D. D. Metcalfe, "The mast cell and allergic diseases: role in pathogenesis and implications for therapy," *Clinical & Experimental Allergy*, vol. 38, no. 1, pp. 4–18, 2008.
- [3] P. Christmas, B. M. Weber, M. McKee, D. Brown, and R. J. Soberman, "Membrane localization and topology of leukotriene C₄ synthase," *The Journal of Biological Chemistry*, vol. 277, no. 32, pp. 28902–28908, 2002.
- [4] M. Raulf, M. Stuning, and W. Konig, "Metabolism of leukotrienes by L-γ-glutamyl-transpeptidase and dipeptidase from human polymorphonuclear granulocytes," *Immunology*, vol. 55, no. 1, pp. 135–147, 1985.
- [5] A. H. Dantzig, R. L. Shepard, K. L. Law, et al., "Selectivity of the multidrug resistance modulator, LY335979, for Pglycoprotein and effect on cytochrome P-450 activities," *The Journal of Pharmacology and Experimental Therapeutics*, vol. 290, no. 2, pp. 854–862, 1999.
- [6] G. W. James, "The use of the *in vivo* trachea preparation of the guinea-pig to asses drug action on lung," *Journal of Pharmacy* and Pharmacology, vol. 21, no. 6, pp. 379–386, 1969.
- [7] C. E. Heise, B. F. O'Dowd, D. J. Figueroa, et al., "Characterization of the human cysteinyl leukotriene 2 receptor," *The Journal of Biological Chemistry*, vol. 275, no. 39, pp. 30531– 30536, 2000.

- [8] K. R. Lynch, G. P. O'Neill, Q. Liu, et al., "Characterization of the human cysteinyl leukotriene CysLT₁ receptor," *Nature*, vol.
- 399, no. 6738, pp. 789–793, 1999.
- [9] B. Dahlén, E. Nizankowska, A. Szczeklik, et al., "Benefits from adding the 5-lipoxygenase inhibitor zileuton to conventional therapy in aspirin-intolerant asthmatics," *American Journal of Respiratory and Critical Care Medicine*, vol. 157, no. 4, pp. 1187–1194, 1998.
- [10] T. F. Reiss, C. A. Sorkness, W. Stricker, et al., "Effects of montelukast (MK-0476), a potent cysteinyl leukotriene receptor antagonist, on bronchodilation in asthmatic subjects treated with and without inhaled corticosteroids," *Thorax*, vol. 52, no. 1, pp. 45–48, 1997.
- [11] J. E. Fish, J. P. Kemp, R. F. Lockey, M. Glass, L. A. Hanby, and C. M. Bonuccelli, "Zafirlukast for symptomatic mildto-moderate asthma: a 13-week multicenter study," *Clinical Therapeutics*, vol. 19, no. 4, pp. 675–690, 1997.
- [12] N. C. Barnes and J.-C. Pujet, "Pranlukast, a novel leukotriene receptor antagonist: results of the first European, placebo controlled, multicentre clinical study in asthma," *Thorax*, vol. 52, no. 6, pp. 523–527, 1997.
- [13] M. Yamashita, "Peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor αindependent effects of peroxisome proliferators on cysteinyl leukotriene production in mast cells," *European Journal of Pharmacology*, vol. 556, no. 1–3, pp. 172–180, 2007.
- [14] C. J. Nicol, M. Yoon, J. M. Ward, et al., "PPARy influences susceptibility to DMBA-induced mammary, ovarian and skin carcinogenesis," *Carcinogenesis*, vol. 25, no. 9, pp. 1747–1755, 2004.
- [15] G. Krey, O. Braissant, F. L'Horset, et al., "Fatty acids, eicosanoids, and hypolipidemic agents identified as ligands of peroxisome proliferator-activated receptors by coactivatordependent receptor ligand assay," *Molecular Endocrinology*, vol. 11, no. 6, pp. 779–791, 1997.
- [16] N. Latruffe and J. Vamecq, "Peroxisome proliferators and peroxisome proliferator activated receptors (PPARs) as regulators of lipid metabolism," *Biochimie*, vol. 79, no. 2-3, pp. 81–94, 1997.
- [17] M. Yamashita, M. Kushihara, N. Hirasawa, et al., "Inhibition by troglitazone of the antigen-induced production of leukotrienes in immunoglobulin E-sensitized RBL-2H3 cells," *British Journal of Pharmacology*, vol. 129, no. 2, pp. 367–373, 2000.
- [18] K. Okuyama, M. Yamashita, Y. Kitabatake, S. Kawamura, M. Takayanagi, and I. Ohno, "Ciglitazone inhibits the antigeninduced leukotrienes production independently of PPARy in RBL-2H3 mast cells," *European Journal of Pharmacology*, vol. 521, no. 1–3, pp. 21–28, 2005.
- [19] J. T. Huang, J. S. Welch, M. Ricote, et al., "Interleukin-4dependent production of PPAR-y ligands in macrophages by 12/15-lipoxygenase," *Nature*, vol. 400, no. 6742, pp. 378–382, 1999.
- [20] H. N. Sørensen, E. Hvattum, E. J. Paulssen, K. M. Gautvik, J. Bremer, and Ø. Spydevold, "Induction of peroxisomal acyl-CoA oxidase by 3-thia fatty acid, in hepatoma cells and hepatocytes in culture is modified by dexamethasone and insulin," *Biochimica et Biophysica Acta*, vol. 1171, no. 3, pp. 263–271, 1993.
- [21] J. D. Tugwood, I. Issemann, R. G. Anderson, K. R. Bundell, W. L. McPheat, and S. Green, "The mouse peroxisome proliferator activated receptor recognizes a response element in the 5' flanking sequence of the rat acyl CoA oxidase gene," *The EMBO Journal*, vol. 11, no. 2, pp. 433–439, 1992.

- [22] T. Helledie, L. Gróntved, S. S. Jensen, et al., "The gene encoding the acyl-CoA-binding protein is activated by peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor *y* through an intronic response element functionally conserved between humans and rodents," *The Journal of Biological Chemistry*, vol. 277, no. 30, pp. 26821–26830, 2002.
- [23] B. L. Diaz, H. Fujishima, Y. Kanaoka, Y. Urade, and J. P. Arm, "Regulation of prostaglandin endoperoxide synthase-2 and IL-6 expression in mouse bone marrow-derived mast cells by exogenous but not endogenous prostanoids," *The Journal of Immunology*, vol. 168, no. 3, pp. 1397–1404, 2002.
- [24] A. Tautenhahn, B. Brüne, and A. von Knethen, "Activationinduced PPARy expression sensitizes primary human T cells toward apoptosis," *Journal of Leukocyte Biology*, vol. 73, no. 5, pp. 665–672, 2003.
- [25] K. Maeyama, M. Emi, and M. Tachibana, "Nuclear receptors as targets for drug development: peroxisome proliferatoractivated receptor *y* in mast cells: its roles in proliferation and differentiation," *Journal of Pharmacological Sciences*, vol. 97, no. 2, pp. 190–194, 2005.
- [26] J. E. Ward and X. Tan, "Peroxisome proliferator activated receptor ligands as regulators of airway inflammation and remodelling in chronic lung disease," *PPAR Research*, vol. 2007, Article ID 14983, 12 pages, 2007.
- [27] S. Paruchuri, Y. Jiang, C. Feng, S. A. Francis, J. Plutzky, and J. A. Boyce, "Leukotriene E₄ activates peroxisome proliferatoractivated receptor *y* and induces prostaglandin D₂ generation by human mast cells," *The Journal of Biological Chemistry*, vol. 283, no. 24, pp. 16477–16487, 2008.
- [28] X. Zhang, N. Tanaka, T. Nakajima, Y. Kamijo, F. J. Gonzalez, and T. Aoyama, "Peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor α-independent peroxisome proliferation," *Biochemical and Biophysical Research Communications*, vol. 346, no. 4, pp. 1307–1311, 2006.
- [29] C. Banfi, J. Auwerx, F. Poma, E. Tremoli, and L. Mussoni, "Induction of plasminogen activator inhibitor I by the PPARα ligand, Wy-14,643, is dependent on ERK 1/2 signaling pathway," *Thrombosis and Haemostasis*, vol. 90, no. 4, pp. 611–619, 2003.
- [30] C. J. Pauley, B. J. Ledwith, and C. Kaplanski, "Peroxisome proliferators activate growth regulatory pathways largely via peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor α-independent mechanisms," *Cellular Signalling*, vol. 14, no. 4, pp. 351–358, 2002.
- [31] A. M. Lennon, M. Ramaugé, A. Dessouroux, and M. Pierre, "MAP kinase cascades are activated in astrocytes and preadipocytes by 15-deoxy- $\Delta^{12,14}$ -prostaglandin J₂ and the thiazolidinedione ciglitazone through peroxisome proliferator activator receptor γ -independent mechanisms involving reactive oxygenated species," *The Journal of Biological Chemistry*, vol. 277, no. 33, pp. 29681–29685, 2002.
- [32] S. Goetze, X.-P. Xi, Y. Kawano, et al., "TNF-α-induced migration of vascular smooth muscle cells is MAPK dependent," *Hypertension*, vol. 33, no. 1, pp. 183–189, 1999.
- [33] M. Caivano, C. Rodriguez, P. Cohen, and S. Alemany, "15-deoxy- $\Delta^{12,14}$ -prostaglandin J₂ regulates endogenous cot MAPK kinase kinase 1 activity induced by lipopolysaccharide," *The Journal of Biological Chemistry*, vol. 278, no. 52, pp. 52124–52130, 2003.
- [34] O. Werz, J. Klemm, B. Samuelsson, and O. Rådmark, "5lipoxygenase is phosphorylated by p38 kinase-dependent MAPKAP kinases," *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America*, vol. 97, no. 10, pp. 5261–5266, 2000.

- [35] Z.-Z. Shi, B. Han, G. M. Habib, M. M. Matzuk, and M. W. Lieberman, "Disruption of *y*-glutamyl leukotrienase results in disruption of leukotriene D₄ synthesis *in vivo* and attenuation of the acute inflammatory response," *Molecular and Cellular Biology*, vol. 21, no. 16, pp. 5389–5395, 2001.
- [36] G. M. Habib, Z.-Z. Shi, A. A. Cuevas, Q. Guo, M. M. Matzuk, and M. W. Lieberman, "Leukotriene D₄ and cystinylbis-glycine metabolism in membrane-bound dipeptidasedeficient mice," *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America*, vol. 95, no. 9, pp. 4859–4863, 1998.
- [37] R. S. Peebles and H. P. Glauert, "Effect of phenobarbital on hepatic eicosanoid concentrations in rats," *Archives of Toxicology*, vol. 71, no. 10, pp. 646–650, 1997.
- [38] Y. Fujimura, H. Tachibana, and K. Yamada, "Peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor ligands negatively regulate the expression of the high-affinity IgE receptor FccRI in human basophilic KU812 cells," *Biochemical and Biophysical Research Communications*, vol. 297, no. 2, pp. 193–201, 2002.
- [39] S. S.-T. Lee, T. Pineau, J. Drago, et al., "Targeted disruption of the α isoform of the peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor gene in mice results in abolishment of the pleiotropic effects of peroxisome proliferators," *Molecular and Cellular Biology*, vol. 15, no. 6, pp. 3012–3022, 1995.
- [40] N. Kubota, Y. Terauchi, H. Miki, et al., "PPARy mediates high-fat diet-induced adipocyte hypertrophy and insulin resistance," *Molecular Cell*, vol. 4, no. 4, pp. 597–609, 1999.
- [41] S. S. Deeb, L. Fajas, M. Nemoto, et al., "A Pro12Ala substitution in PPARy 2 associated with decreased receptor activity, lower body mass index and improved insulin sensitivity," *Nature Genetics*, vol. 20, no. 3, pp. 284–287, 1998.