

## Article

# Prostaglandin D<sub>2</sub> Added during the Differentiation of 3T3-L1 Cells Suppresses Adipogenesis via Dysfunction of D-Prostanoid Receptor P1 and P2

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**Abstract:** We previously reported that the addition of prostaglandin, (PG)D<sub>2</sub>, and its chemically stable analog, 11-deoxy-11-methylene-PGD<sub>2</sub> (11d-11m-PGD<sub>2</sub>), during the maturation phase of 3T3-L1 cells promotes adipogenesis. In the present study, we aimed to elucidate the effects of the addition of PGD<sub>2</sub> or 11d-11m-PGD<sub>2</sub> to 3T3-L1 cells during the differentiation phase on adipogenesis. We found that both PGD<sub>2</sub> and 11d-11m-PGD<sub>2</sub> suppressed adipogenesis through the downregulation of peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor gamma (PPAR $\gamma$ ) expression. However, the latter suppressed adipogenesis more potently than PGD<sub>2</sub>, most likely because of its higher resistance to spontaneous transformation into PGJ<sub>2</sub> derivatives. In addition, this anti-adipogenic effect was attenuated by the coexistence of an IP receptor agonist, suggesting that the effect depends on the intensity of the signaling from the IP receptor. The D-prostanoid receptors 1 (DP1) and 2 (DP2, also known as a chemoattractant receptor-homologous molecule expressed on Th2 cells) are receptors for PGD<sub>2</sub>. The inhibitory effects of PGD<sub>2</sub> and 11d-11m-PGD<sub>2</sub> on adipogenesis were slightly attenuated by a DP2 agonist. Furthermore, the addition of PGD<sub>2</sub> and 11d-11m-PGD<sub>2</sub> during the differentiation phase reduced the DP1 and DP2 expression during the maturation phase. Overall, these results indicated that the addition of PGD<sub>2</sub> or 11d-11m-PGD<sub>2</sub> during the differentiation phase suppresses adipogenesis via the dysfunction of DP1 and DP2. Therefore, unidentified receptor(s) for both molecules may be involved in the suppression of adipogenesis.

**Keywords:** PGD<sub>2</sub>; DP1; DP2; adipocyte; adipogenesis



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## 1. Introduction

Obesity caused by overnutrition used to be considered a problem specific to high-income countries, but it is now an increasing problem even in low- and middle-income countries, where the prevalence of obesity previously tended to be low [1]. Obesity is a problem because it causes the development of cardiovascular disease, type 2 diabetes, cancer, osteoarthritis, occupational disorders, and sleep apnea [1]. For instance, as early as 2001, it was predicted that because cardiovascular disease survival rates had become higher in industrialized countries than in non-industrialized countries, the number of patients with cardiovascular disease associated with obesity would increase, particularly in industrialized countries [2]. In addition, the current number of patients with type 2 diabetes associated

with obesity is also predicted to increase, particularly in low- and middle-income countries. As a result, increases in the prevalence of nephropathy, atherosclerosis, neuropathy, and retinopathy due to type 2 diabetes are expected in these countries [2]. Thus, obesity, which is a major cause of health problems and a reduced quality of life, has gone from being a relatively minor public health problem primarily affecting affluent societies to a major threat to public health worldwide. To prevent obesity with excess adipose tissue, which has become such a major threat to public health, it is important to understand the mechanisms of adipogenesis. Immortal preadipocyte cell lines, such as 3T3-L1 cells, have been established with the goal of elucidating the mechanisms of adipogenesis [3,4]. The stages of adipogenesis comprise growth, differentiation, and maturation, and incubating confluent 3T3-L1 preadipocytes in medium containing 3-isobutyl-1-methylxanthine (IBMX), dexamethasone, and insulin (MDI) during differentiation can initiate adipogenesis.

Peroxisome proliferator-activated receptors (PPAR)s are ligand-activated transcription factors that belong to the nuclear hormone receptor superfamily and function as heterodimers with the retinoid X receptor (RXR). Three types of PPARs were isolated, PPAR $\alpha$ , PPAR $\delta$  (also known as PPAR $\beta$ , NUC1, and FAAR), and PPAR $\gamma$ , each with different reported physiological functions [5,6]. PPAR $\gamma$  has two protein isoforms, PPAR $\gamma$ 1 and PPAR $\gamma$ 2, which result from alternative promoter usage and differential splicing at the 5' end of the gene [7,8]. Multiple lines of evidence have been reported regarding the importance of PPAR $\gamma$ , one of the master regulators of adipogenesis, during the process of differentiation from preadipocytes to adipocytes, as described below. The findings of the initial in vitro studies showed that the ligand-dependent activation of ectopically expressed PPAR $\gamma$ 2 accelerates adipogenesis in fibroblast cell lines [9]. Furthermore, the findings of the studies in which PPAR $\gamma$  antagonists and dominant-negative forms of the receptor were used showed that the loss of the receptor function is related to a decreased ability to differentiate adipocytes [10–12]. Although it was difficult to establish the importance of adipogenesis in vivo because the genetic disruption of PPAR $\gamma$  confers an embryonic lethal phenotype [13,14], the data obtained from chimeric animals generated using an improved transgenic technique confirmed the importance of PPAR $\gamma$  during adipogenesis in mice [13,14].

PPAR $\gamma$  can upregulate the expression of a variety of adipocyte-specific genes related to adipogenesis, including adiponectin and lipoprotein lipase (LPL) [15,16]. Adiponectin is known as a fat-derived hormone, and genetic mutations in the adiponectin gene that result in low plasma adiponectin levels have been reported to be associated with metabolic syndrome, including insulin resistant, diabetes, and atherosclerotic disease [17]. LPL is known as an enzyme that hydrolyzes triacylglycerol (TAG) in lipoprotein particles into fatty acids and monoglycerol [18]. In addition, LPL has been reported to be involved in the uptake mechanism of TAG in medium into 3T3-L1 cells, resulting in the accumulation of TAG in the cells [19]. Adiponectin and LPL have a functional PPAR-responsive element (PPRE) in their promoters, and the PPAR $\gamma$ /RXR heterodimer was shown to bind directly to these PPREs and regulate their expression [15,16]. Therefore, these two genes are frequently used as adipogenic marker genes, associated with PPAR $\gamma$  expression levels.

The biosynthesis of prostaglandins (PG)s occurs via multiple enzymatically controlled reactions. This process is initiated by the release of arachidonic acid synthesized from linoleic acid, one of the ingested n-6 polyunsaturated fatty acids (n-6 PUFA), from membrane phospholipids via the catalytic action of phospholipases. Subsequently, arachidonic acid is then converted to PGG<sub>2</sub>, and then PGH<sub>2</sub>, through the action of PG endoperoxide synthase, cyclooxygenase (COX). COX has two distinct isozymes, COX-1 and -2, which are differentially regulated [20]. The unstable PGH<sub>2</sub> intermediates generated via COX-1 or -2 are substrates for certain PG synthases and catalyze the formation of bioactive PGs [21]. PGs are broadly classified into two categories: anti-adipogenic PGs and pro-adipogenic PGs. Anti-adipogenic PGs include PGE<sub>2</sub> [22–24] and PGF<sub>2 $\alpha$</sub>  [25,26], which inhibit adipogenesis by activating EP4 and FP receptors, respectively [23–26]. Pro-adipogenic PGs include the PGJ<sub>2</sub> derivatives, 15-deoxy- $\Delta$ <sup>12,14</sup>-PGJ<sub>2</sub> and  $\Delta$ <sup>12</sup>-PGJ<sub>2</sub> [27–30], and PGI<sub>2</sub> [31,32]. In addition

to the IP receptor being a known receptor for PGI<sub>2</sub> [32], the activation of the IP receptor is suggested to activate PPAR $\gamma$  in HEK293 cells [33].

PGD<sub>2</sub> is biosynthesized via lipocalin-type PGD synthase (L-PGDS), which is preferentially expressed in adipocytes from PGH<sub>2</sub> produced from arachidonic acid via COXs [21] and is also known as a precursor to PGJ<sub>2</sub> derivatives [34]. In addition to the increased transcriptional activity of PPAR $\gamma$  induced by PGD<sub>2</sub> [27,28], the addition of PGD<sub>2</sub> during the maturation phase promotes MDI-induced adipogenesis by binding and activating D-prostanoid 1 (DP1) and/or 2 receptor (DP2, also known as a chemoattractant receptor-homologous molecule expressed on TH 2 cells) [35,36]. Based on these reports, PGD<sub>2</sub> is considered to be pro-adipogenic. Nevertheless, L-PGDS is involved in PGD<sub>2</sub> biosynthesis and is preferentially expressed in adipocytes. Antisense L-PGDS reduces the endogenous expression of L-PGDS and promotes adipogenesis when stably expressed in 3T3-L1 preadipocytes [37]. Conversely, stably overexpressed L-PGDS impairs adipogenesis in 3T3-L1 preadipocytes [38]. Furthermore, the altered L-PGDS expression in 3T3-L1 preadipocytes is reflected by the abundance of PGD<sub>2</sub> and PGJ<sub>2</sub> derivatives [37,38]. These findings regarding L-PGDS support the notion that incubating 3T3-L1 cells with PGD<sub>2</sub> during the differentiation phase inhibits MDI-induced adipogenesis. Furthermore, PGD<sub>2</sub> undergoes nonenzymatic dehydration and is readily converted to PGJ<sub>2</sub> derivatives [34], whereas the chemically stable PGD<sub>2</sub> analog, 11-deoxy-11-methylene-PGD<sub>2</sub> (11d-11m-PGD<sub>2</sub>) with an exocyclic methylene, instead of being in an 11-keto group, is considered to resist spontaneous conversion to PGJ<sub>2</sub> derivatives. In fact, we were able to generate an antibody against PGD<sub>2</sub> using 11d-11m-PGD<sub>2</sub> [34]. Based on the previous reports, we considered 11d-11m-PGD<sub>2</sub> to facilitate the analysis of the mechanism through which PGD<sub>2</sub> affects MDI-induced adipogenesis. Therefore, in the present study, we aimed to determine whether the incubation of 3T3-L1 cells with PGD<sub>2</sub> or 11d-11m-PGD<sub>2</sub> during the differentiation phase inhibits MDI-induced adipogenesis during the maturation phase. In addition, the crosstalk between PGD<sub>2</sub> or 11d-11m-PGD<sub>2</sub> and IP signaling that promotes the pro-adipogenic effect was also analyzed.

## 2. Materials and Methods

### 2.1. Materials

The following were obtained from the respective suppliers: Dulbecco's modified Eagle medium containing 25 mM HEPES, penicillin G potassium salt, streptomycin sulfate, dexamethasone, fatty acid-free bovine serum albumin, and recombinant human insulin (Sigma-Aldrich Corp., St. Louis, MO, USA); L-ascorbic acid phosphate magnesium salt n-hydrate, 3-isobutyl-1-methylxanthine (IBMX), and Triglyceride E-Test Kits (Wako Pure Chemical Industries Ltd., Osaka, Japan); fetal bovine serum (FBS) (MP Biomedicals, Solon, OH, USA); PGD<sub>2</sub>, 11d-11m-PGD<sub>2</sub>, MRE-269, BW245C, and 15R-15-methyl-PGD<sub>2</sub> (15R-15m-PGD<sub>2</sub>) (Cayman Chemical (Ann Arbor, MI, USA); M-MLV reverse transcriptase (Ribonuclease H minus, point mutant) and polymerase chain reaction (PCR) Master Mix (Promega Corp., Madison, WI, USA).

### 2.2. Cell Culture of 3T3-L1 Cells and Induction of Adipogenesis

Mouse 3T3-L1 pre-adipogenic cells (JCRB9014; JCRB Cell Bank, Osaka, Japan) at the growth phase were seeded at a density of  $1 \times 10^5$  or  $2 \times 10^5$  in 35 or 60 mm dishes containing 2 or 4 mL, respectively, in a growth medium (GM) comprising DMEM containing HEPES supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS), penicillin G (100 units/mL), streptomycin sulfate (100  $\mu$ g/L), and ascorbic acid (200  $\mu$ M). Then, they were incubated at 37 °C under 7% CO<sub>2</sub> until they reached confluence. Confluent monolayers were incubated with differentiation medium (DM) comprising GM supplemented with dexamethasone (1  $\mu$ M), IBMX (0.5 mM), and insulin (10  $\mu$ g/mL) for 48 h to induce differentiation into adipocytes. The cells were then cultured for 6 to 10 days in a maturation medium (MM; GM supplemented with 5  $\mu$ g/mL of insulin). The medium was replaced with fresh MM, every 2 days for 10 days, to promote fat storage in the adipocytes during maturation. We

examined the effects of various agents on adipogenesis during differentiation by incubating confluent cell monolayers in DM, supplemented with test compounds, for 48 h, followed by the standard maturation protocol. The test compounds were dissolved in ethanol and added to the DM to a final ethanol concentration of 0.2%.

### 2.3. Quantitation of Intracellular Triacylglycerols and Proteins

The cultured mature adipocytes were harvested, suspended in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) without  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$  and  $\text{Mg}^{2+}$  (PBS [-]), supplemented with 0.05% trypsin and 0.53 mM EDTA, and incubated at 37 °C for 5 min. The cell suspensions were washed with PBS (-), divided into two portions, and homogenized in 25 mM Tris-HCl buffer (pH 7.4) containing 1 mM EDTA and 1 N NaOH. Intracellular triacylglycerol (TAG) accumulation was quantified in one portion using Triglyceride E-Test Kits (Wako Pure Chemical Industries Ltd., Osaka, Japan). The cellular proteins were precipitated in the other portion with chilled 6% trichloroacetic acid to remove interfering substances, and then, they were quantified using the Lowry method, with fatty-acid-free bovine serum albumin as the standard. The fat contents were normalized to the protein contents and are expressed as the relative amounts of accumulated lipids in the results.

### 2.4. Quantitative Analysis of Gene Expression

The total RNA (1 µg) extracted from the cells on day 6 of the maturation phase using acid guanidium thiocyanate/phenol/chloroform was reverse transcribed (RT) using M-MLV reverse transcriptase (Ribonuclease H Minus Point Mutant). The single-stranded cDNA was synthesized using oligo-(dT)<sub>15</sub> and a random 9-mer (Promega Corp., Madison, WI, USA) as primers in the RT reaction. The amount of transcript was determined via qRT-PCR using TB Green™ Premix Ex Taq™ II (Tli RNaseH Plus) kits (Takara Bio Co., Inc., Kusatsu, Japan) and a Thermal Cycler Dice™ Real Time System (Takara Bio Co., Inc., Kusatsu, Japan) according to the threshold cycle (CT) and  $\Delta\Delta\text{CT}$  methods described by the manufacturer. Table 1 shows the oligonucleotides used herein. The cycling program comprised 95 °C for 30 s, 40 cycles at 95 °C for 5 s and 60 °C for 30 s, followed by 95 °C for 15 s and 60 °C for 30 s. Amounts of target gene transcripts were normalized to those of  $\beta$ -Actin. The accession numbers of the target genes are as follows: PPAR $\gamma$ , NM\_011146; adiponectin, NM\_009605.5; LPL, NM\_008509.2; DP1, NM\_008962.4; DP2, XM\_006526696.5;  $\beta$ -Actin, NM\_007393.

**Table 1.** Forward (F) and reverse (R) primers for target genes.

| GenBank Accession No. | Target Genes   | Primers (5→3')                                       | Length (bp) | Tm (°C)        | Product Length (bp) |
|-----------------------|----------------|--|-------------|----------------|---------------------|
| NM_011146.4           | PPAR $\gamma$  | F: CTTCGCTGATGCACTGCCTAT<br>R: GGGTCAGCTCTTGTGAATGGA | 21<br>21    | 60.81<br>60.00 | 216                 |
| NM_009605.5           | Adiponectin    | F: AGCCGCTTATGTATCGCT<br>R: GAGTCCCGGAATGTTGCAGT     | 20<br>20    | 59.61<br>60.32 | 154                 |
| NM_008509.2           | LPL            | F: TTGCAGAGAGAGGACTCGGA<br>R: GGAGTTGCACCTGTATGCCT   | 20<br>20    | 59.96<br>60.04 | 125                 |
| NM_008962.4           | DP1            | F: GAGTCCTATCGCTGTCAGA<br>R: CCAGAAGATTGCCAGAAG      | 19<br>19    | 52.63<br>52.63 | 100                 |
| XM_006526696.5        | DP2            | F: GCGCTATCCGACTTGTTAG<br>R: GTAGCTTGCAGAAGGTAGTG    | 19<br>20    | 55.94<br>55.88 | 100                 |
| NM_007393.5           | $\beta$ -Actin | F: GCGGGCGACGATGCT<br>R: TGCCAGATCTTCTCCATGTCG       | 15<br>21    | 59.84<br>59.86 | 197                 |

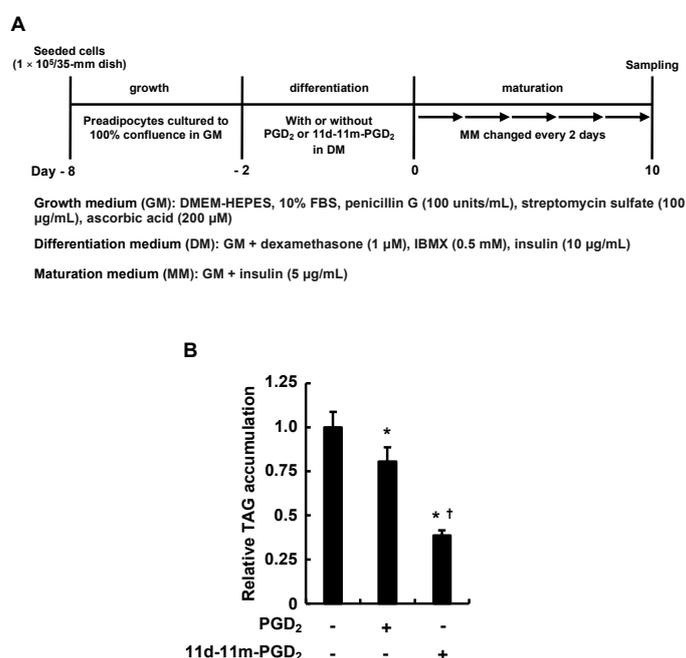
### 2.5. Statistical Analyses

All of the results are expressed as means  $\pm$  standard deviation (SD). The data were statistically analyzed via Student *t*-tests using Excel for Mac (Microsoft Corp., Redmond, WA, USA). The values were considered statistically significant at  $p < 0.05$ .

### 3. Results

#### 3.1. Incubating 3T3-L1 Cells with PGD<sub>2</sub> or 11d-11m-PGD<sub>2</sub> during the Differentiation Phase Suppressed MDI-Induced Adipogenesis

We initially examined how the 3T3-L1 cells responded to the addition of PGD<sub>2</sub> or 11d-11m-PGD<sub>2</sub> during the differentiation phase, which were pro-adipogenic when added during the maturation phase [36] (Figure 1A). We evaluated the adipogenic differentiation of the 3T3-L1 cells based on the MDI-induced intracellular TAG accumulation. In contrast to our previous findings regarding the pro-adipogenic effects of the addition of PGD<sub>2</sub> or 11d-11m-PGD<sub>2</sub> to cells during the maturation phase [36], both PGs attenuated the MDI-induced intracellular TAG accumulation (Figure 1B). Furthermore, 11d-11m-PGD<sub>2</sub> was more anti-adipogenic than PGD<sub>2</sub> (Figure 1B). These results suggest that PGD<sub>2</sub> and 11d-11m-PGD<sub>2</sub> inhibit the fate-deciding mechanism working in adipogenesis during the differentiation phase.

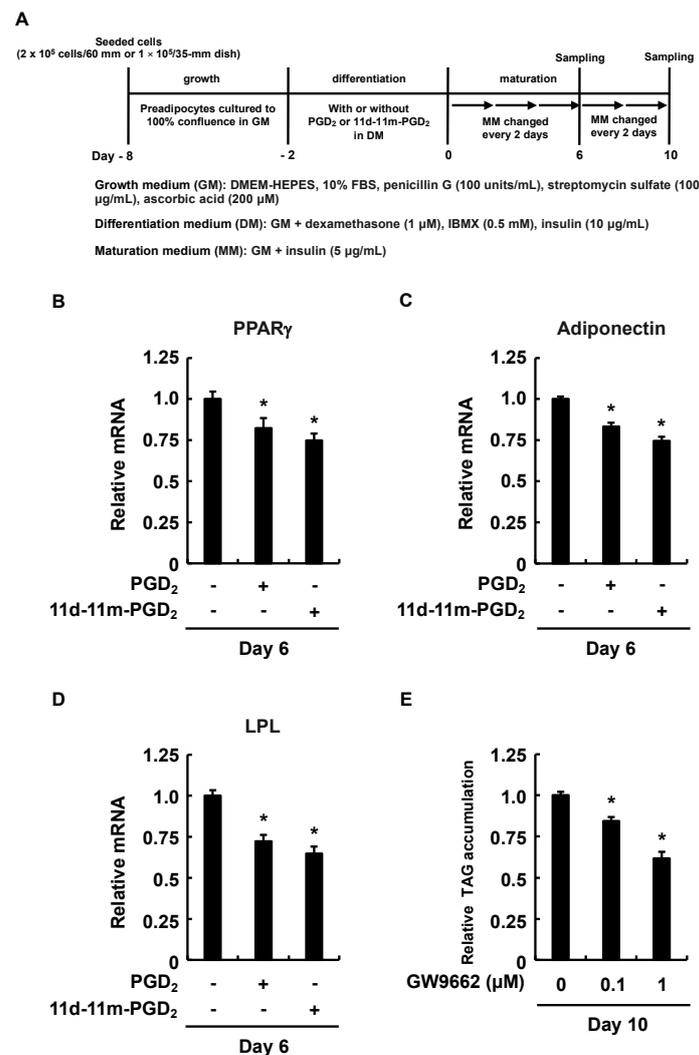


**Figure 1.** Effects of addition of PGD<sub>2</sub> or 11d-11m-PGD<sub>2</sub> during the differentiation phase of 3T3-L1 cells on intracellular TAG accumulation. (A) Experimental procedure. We seeded 3T3-L1 cells (1 × 10<sup>5</sup> per 35 mm dish) containing 2 mL of GM and cultured them until they reached 100% confluence. Confluent cells were incubated for 48 h in 2 mL of DM with or without 1 µM of PGD<sub>2</sub> or 11d-11m-PGD<sub>2</sub> each. We replaced DM with 2 mL of fresh MM which was refreshed every 2 days for 10 days. (B) Amounts of TAG were analyzed in terminally differentiated mature adipocytes on day 10. Data are expressed as means ± SD of n = 3 experiments. *p* < 0.05 vs. \* vehicle (control) and † PGD<sub>2</sub> in DM. DM, differentiation medium; GM, growth medium; MM, maturation medium; TAG, triacylglycerol.

#### 3.2. Downregulated PPAR<sub>γ</sub> Expression Affected the Inhibitory Effects of Addition of PGD<sub>2</sub> or 11d-11m-PGD<sub>2</sub> during the Differentiation Phase on MDI-Induced Adipogenesis

We further confirmed whether the reduced level of intracellular TAG accumulation during the maturation phase was reflected in the expression levels of PPAR<sub>γ</sub>, known as one of the master regulators of adipogenesis [39], and the adiponectin and LPL regulated downstream of PPAR<sub>γ</sub> [15,16]. We found that the gene expression levels of PPAR<sub>γ</sub>, adiponectin, and LPL in the 3T3-L1 cells peaked by day six in the maturation phase [40] (Figure 2A). In the maturation phase, the expression level of PPAR<sub>γ</sub> in the 3T3-L1 cells was significantly reduced on day six after the addition of PGD<sub>2</sub> or 11d-11m-PGD<sub>2</sub> during the differentiation phase (Figure 2B). The decreased expression of PPAR<sub>γ</sub> also affected the expression levels of its regulated genes, adiponectin and LPL (Figure 2C,D). In particular, LPL is involved in the mechanism by which 3T3-L1 cells take up TAG from the media [19], suggesting that

the attenuation of the PPAR $\gamma$ -LPL pathway was reflected in the level of intracellular TAG accumulation. In fact, the addition of the PPAR $\gamma$  antagonist, GW9662, during the differentiation phase of 3T3-L1 inhibited MDI-induced intracellular TAG accumulation during the maturation phase (Figure 2E). Taken together, these results indicate that the addition of PGD<sub>2</sub> or 11d-11m-PGD<sub>2</sub> during the differentiation phase suppresses the MDI-induced intracellular TAG accumulation through the downregulation of the PPAR $\gamma$  expression during the maturation phase.

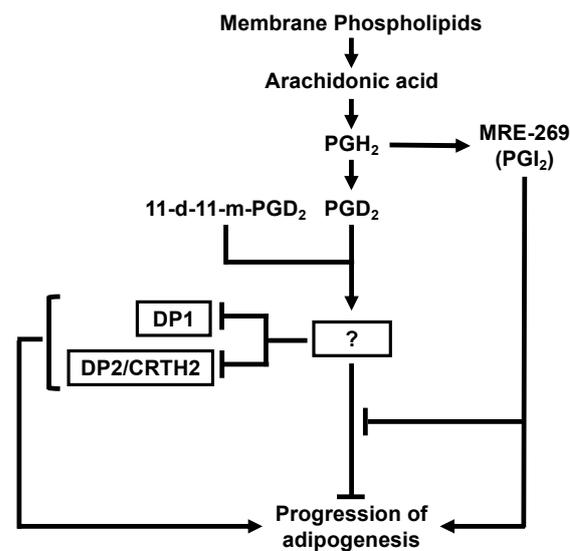


**Figure 2.** Effects of addition of PGD<sub>2</sub>, 11d-11m-PGD<sub>2</sub>, or PPAR $\gamma$  antagonist, GW9662, during the differentiation phase of 3T3-L1 cells on DP1 and DP2 expression and intracellular TAG accumulation during the maturation phase. (A) Experimental procedure. We seeded 3T3-L1 cells ( $2 \times 10^5$  per 60 mm dish) containing 4 mL of GM for quantitative PCR or 3T3-L1 cells ( $1 \times 10^5$  per 35 mm dish) containing 2 mL of GM for analysis of intracellular TAG and incubated them until they reached confluence. Confluent cells were incubated for 48 h during differentiation with 4 mL or 2 mL of DM with or without 1  $\mu$ M of PGD<sub>2</sub> or 11d-11m-PGD<sub>2</sub> and 1  $\mu$ M of MRE-269. We replaced DM with 4 mL or 2 mL of fresh MM which was refreshed every 2 days. Quantitative PCR results for (B) PPAR $\gamma$ , (C) adiponectin, and (D) LPL on day 6. (E) Amounts of TAG were analyzed in terminally differentiated mature adipocytes on day 10. Data are shown as means  $\pm$  SD of three experiments each for (B–E). \*  $p < 0.05$  vs. vehicle (control) in DM. DM, differentiation medium; GM, growth medium; MM, maturation medium; PG, prostaglandin.









**Figure 6.** Schematic representation of proposed PGD<sub>2</sub> or 11d-11m-PGD<sub>2</sub> function during the differentiation phase and subsequent effects on adipogenesis induced by 3-isobutyl-1-methylxanthine, dexamethasone, and insulin. Interactions between PGD<sub>2</sub> or 11d-11m-PGD<sub>2</sub> with unidentified receptor(s) result in the inhibition of adipogenesis by suppressing the expression of DP1 and DP2 or through another pathway independent of DP1 and DP2. 11d-11m-PGD<sub>2</sub>, 11d-11m-prostaglandin D<sub>2</sub>; DP1, D-prostanoid receptor 1; DP2, D-prostanoid receptor 2; PGD<sub>2</sub>, prostaglandin D<sub>2</sub>; PGH<sub>2</sub>, prostaglandin H<sub>2</sub>; Δ<sup>12</sup>-PGJ<sub>2</sub>, Δ<sup>12</sup>-prostaglandin J<sub>2</sub>; PGI<sub>2</sub>, prostaglandin I<sub>2</sub>.

We previously showed that DP1 and DP2 are expressed during the differentiation phase [36]. However, in addition to the possibility that PGD<sub>2</sub> and 11d-11m-PGD<sub>2</sub> do not act on DP1 or DP2 during the differentiation phase, based on the results of this study, we propose that unidentified receptors for PGD<sub>2</sub> and 11d-11m-PGD<sub>2</sub> are involved in the suppression of MDI-induced adipogenesis. Such receptors should have higher affinity for PGD<sub>2</sub> and 11d-11m-PGD<sub>2</sub> than DP1 and DP2, or should be more abundantly expressed than DP1 and DP2 during the differentiation phase. This would cause the inhibitory effect of PGD<sub>2</sub> on adipogenesis to take precedence over its pro-adipogenic effects mediated by DP1 and DP2. In addition, in the present study, the inhibitory effect of PGD<sub>2</sub> on adipogenesis was stronger, even though ~50% of the initial PGD<sub>2</sub> would have been transformed to PGJ<sub>2</sub> derivatives within 6 h at 37 °C in MM [34]. Therefore, PGD<sub>2</sub> being bound to unidentified receptor(s) would lead to the inhibition of MDI-induced adipogenesis before its conversion into PGJ<sub>2</sub> derivatives.

Neither PGD<sub>2</sub> nor 11d-11m-PGD<sub>2</sub> suppressed the MDI-induced adipogenesis promoted by MRE-269. A positive feedback loop between PPARγ and cytosine–cytosine–adenosine–adenosine–thymidine (CCAAT) box motif/enhancer binding protein alpha (C/EBPα) functions during adipocyte differentiation [41]. MRE-269 activates PPARγ via the IP receptor [33], suggesting that the PPARγ-C/EBPα loop is activated by MRE-269 and PGI<sub>2</sub>. The activation of this loop could alleviate the downregulation of PPARγ caused by PGD<sub>2</sub> and 11d-11m-PGD<sub>2</sub> and restore the MDI-induced adipogenesis. Thus, the balance between the signaling from PGD<sub>2</sub> and PGI<sub>2</sub> may influence adipogenesis.

According to the findings of the Signaling Pathway Program [42], C/EBPα should bind to the DP1 and DP2 promoters. In addition, C/EBPα forms a regulatory positive feedback loop with PPARγ during adipogenesis [41]. Based on these findings, we predict that PPARγ can regulate DP1 and DP2 expression via C/EBPα. This prediction can be supported by our previous finding that the expression of PPARγ, DP1, and DP2 in the 3T3-L1 cells changed, following a similar trend within ten days of the maturation phase [36]. Furthermore, this finding also suggests that DP1 and DP2 may contribute to adipogenesis during the maturation phase. If DP1 and DP2 also function in a pro-adipogenic manner during the differentiation phase, the addition of PGD<sub>2</sub> and 11d-11m-PGD<sub>2</sub> during that period would

promote adipogenesis. The present results, however, reveal that the incubation of the 3T3-L1 cells with PGD<sub>2</sub> or 11d-11m-PGD<sub>2</sub> for two days in the differentiation phase has anti-adipogenic effects and, furthermore, significantly reduces the expression of PPAR $\gamma$ , DP1, and DP2 on day six in the maturation phase. Thus, if PPAR $\gamma$  activation leads to increased DP1 and DP2 expression during the differentiation phase, then the addition of PGD<sub>2</sub> and 11d-11m-PGD<sub>2</sub> during that period would be more pro- than anti-adipogenic. Our present finding that MRE-269 canceled the inhibitory effects of PGD<sub>2</sub> and 11d-11m-PGD<sub>2</sub> on adipogenesis during the differentiation phase may also have been due to the increase in DP1 and DP2 expression via the PPAR $\gamma$  activation induced by MRE-269. Taken together, the PPAR $\gamma$  activated by MRE-269 and the IP receptor will increase the expression of C/EBP $\alpha$ , which may promote the upregulation of DP1 and DP2 expression by binding to the DP1 and DP2 promoters. Based on this scheme, we can propose that unidentified PGD<sub>2</sub> receptor(s) exist at least during the differentiation phase and suppress the expression or transcriptional activity of C/EBP $\alpha$  and/or PPAR $\gamma$ , leading to decreases in the DP1 and DP2 expression levels. However, this requires further investigation, in addition to how PGD<sub>2</sub> and 11d-11m-PGD<sub>2</sub> reduce sensitivity to DP1 and DP2 ligands.

Six PG receptors—DP1, DP2, PPAR $\gamma$ , the IP receptor, the FP receptor, and the EP4 receptor—have been reported to be expressed in the differentiation phase of 3T3-L1 cells [23]. Among these, the FP and EP4 receptors, specific to PGF<sub>2 $\alpha$</sub>  and PGE<sub>2</sub>, respectively, exhibit anti-adipogenic effects [32]. Therefore, it could be possible that PGD<sub>2</sub> or 11d-11m-PGD<sub>2</sub> inhibit adipogenesis via signaling from the FP and/or EP4 receptors if the compounds can act on these receptors. The FP receptor reduces the transcriptional activity of PPAR $\gamma$  via its phosphorylation through the activation of mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK) [43]. The EP4 receptor produces PGF<sub>2 $\alpha$</sub>  by increasing its COX-2 expression [44]. That is, the activation of the EP4 receptor may lead to a decrease in the transcriptional activity of PPAR $\gamma$ , as well as the FP receptor. As PPAR $\gamma$  has an auto-loop mechanism with C/EBP $\alpha$  [41], decreased PPAR $\gamma$  transcriptional activity simultaneously leads to the suppression of its own expression via decreased C/EBP $\alpha$  expression [41]. As a result, the activation of the FP and EP4 receptors would lead to a decrease in the expression of PPAR $\gamma$ , which is similar to the results of the present study. However, if PGD<sub>2</sub> and 11d-11m-PGD<sub>2</sub> can bind to EP4 and FP receptors, the addition of PGD<sub>2</sub> and 11d-11m-PGD<sub>2</sub> during the maturation phase should inhibit MDI-induced adipogenesis. Our previous results show that the addition of PGD<sub>2</sub> and 11d-11m-PGD<sub>2</sub> during the maturation phase promotes MDI-induced adipogenesis [36]. This means that PGD<sub>2</sub> and 11d-11m-PGD<sub>2</sub> may not bind to EP4 and/or FP receptors. As described above, it is likely that PGD<sub>2</sub> and 11d-11m-PGD<sub>2</sub> do not bind to the previously reported PG receptors expressed in 3T3-L1 cells and are more likely to be a ligand for other receptors.

We focused on insulin signaling as a mechanism by which PGD<sub>2</sub> and 11d-11m-PGD<sub>2</sub> inhibit MDI-induced adipogenesis via receptors other than the PG receptors previously reported. Insulin signaling is essential for adipogenesis [45], and insulin was also added during the differentiation phase in the present study. Insulin leads the insulin receptor and its substrate, insulin receptor substrate-1 (IRS-1), to phosphorylate tyrosine residues [46], through which it signals phosphatidylinositol-3 kinase (PI3K) to Akt, ultimately leading to differentiation from preadipocytes to adipocytes [47]. Thus, if PGD<sub>2</sub> and 11d-11m-PGD<sub>2</sub> can be involved in signaling to dephosphorylate phosphorylated tyrosine residues in the insulin receptor and IRS-1, the differentiation from preadipocytes to adipocytes should be inhibited. The leukocyte common antigen-related phosphatase receptor (LAR, also known as protein tyrosine phosphatase-RF (PTP-RF)), a transmembrane receptor-type PTP, is a receptor that dephosphorylates the tyrosine-residue-phosphorylated insulin receptor and IRS-1, and has been reported to inhibit the differentiation from preadipocytes to adipocytes as a PTP [48]. However, unlike transmembrane receptor-type protein tyrosine kinases, transmembrane receptor-type PTPs, including LAR, have reduced PTP activity upon the ligand-mediated dimerization of their receptors [49]. That is, if PGD<sub>2</sub> and 11d-11m-PGD<sub>2</sub> are ligands for LAR, PGD<sub>2</sub> may enhance insulin signaling and thereby promote

adipogenesis by suppressing PTP activity through LAR dimerization. Therefore, as PGD<sub>2</sub> and 11d-11m-PGD<sub>2</sub> were shown to suppress MDI-induced adipogenesis in the present study, it is unlikely that PGD<sub>2</sub> and 11d-11m-PGD<sub>2</sub> are ligands for transmembrane receptor-type PTPs, including LAR.

Continuing to focus on insulin signaling, in addition to the phosphorylation of tyrosine residues, IRS-1 has also been reported to be a phosphorylated serine site. For instance, when human IRS-1 is phosphorylated at serine 312 (serine 307 in mouse IRS-1), its interaction with the insulin receptor is disrupted [47]. In addition, phosphorylation at serine 616 in human IRS-1 (serine 612 in mouse IRS-1) results in the attenuation of its interaction with PI3K. Thus, the phosphorylation of these serine residues in IRS-1 causes insulin resistance. Consistent with these results, if PGD<sub>2</sub> and 11d-11m-PGD<sub>2</sub> can bind to the receptors that activate molecules that phosphorylate serine residues of IRS-1, as described above, then the differentiation from preadipocytes to adipocytes should be inhibited by this pathway. However, as we have not yet clarified which intracellular signaling pathways are activated by PGD<sub>2</sub> and 11d-11m-PGD<sub>2</sub> in 3T3-L1 cells during the differentiation phase, leading to the downregulation of PPAR $\gamma$  expression and anti-adipogenic effects during the maturation phase, we cannot predict which molecules will function as receptor(s) for PGD<sub>2</sub> and 11d-11m-PGD<sub>2</sub> in the present situation. Therefore, in the future, the clarification of the intracellular signaling pathway induced by PGD<sub>2</sub> and 11d-11m-PGD<sub>2</sub> and the identification of its receptor are expected, using the decreased expression of PPAR $\gamma$  as an indicator.

## 5. Conclusions

PGD<sub>2</sub> can promote and inhibit adipogenesis, depending on the affinity or expression of DP1 and DP2 and unidentified receptor(s). Therefore, the unknown receptor(s) for PGD<sub>2</sub> and the regulatory mechanisms of DP1 and DP2 expression should be identified to understand the effects of PGs on the adipogenic program that drives the differentiation of white adipocytes. In addition, in the investigation of the actions of PGD<sub>2</sub>, 11d-11m-PGD<sub>2</sub> would be a more practical choice.

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