

Molecular Actions of $\mbox{PPAR}\alpha$ in Lipid Metabolism and Inflammation

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29 Abstract

Peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor alpha (PPARa) is a nuclear receptor of clinical interest as a drug target in various metabolic disorders. PPARa also exhibits marked anti-inflammatory capacities. The first generation PPARa agonists, the fibrates, have however been hampered by drug-drug interaction issues, statin drop-in and ill-designed cardiovascular intervention trials. Notwithstanding, understanding the molecular mechanisms by which PPARa works will enable control of its activities as a drug target for metabolic diseases with an underlying inflammatory component. Given its role in reshaping the immune system, the full potential of this nuclear receptor subtype as a versatile drug target with high plasticity becomes increasingly clear, and a novel generation of agonists may pave the way for novel fields of applications.

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94 I. Introduction to PPAR family members

95 The peroxisome proliferator-activated receptors (PPARs) are ligand-inducible 96 transcription factors that belong to the nuclear receptor (NR) superfamily. Three 97 PPAR subtypes have been identified: PPAR α (NR1C1), PPAR β/δ (NR1C2) and 98 PPAR γ (NR1C3) (1-5).

99 The first member of the PPAR family, PPARα, was identified in 1990 and named by 100 its ability to become activated by chemicals known to induce peroxisome proliferation 101 in rodents (6). Peroxisomes are subcellular organelles found in most plant and animal 102 cells and harbor a complex set of enzymes acting on various metabolic functions 103 including β-oxidation of fatty acids (FA), bile acid and cholesterol metabolism (7).

104 Peroxisome proliferators cover a various set of synthetic and structurally diverse 105 industrial and pharmaceutical chemicals, including herbicides, industrial solvents and 106 hypolipidemic drugs, that cause significant increases in the size and number of 107 peroxisomes in liver, liver hypertrophy, liver hyperplasia and hepatocarcinogenesis in 108 rodents (8). Following the initial discovery of mouse PPAR α , the two other PPAR 109 subtypes, PPAR β/δ and PPAR γ were identified by homology screens (2,9). 110 Contradicting their name, the latter two subtypes do not cause peroxisome 111 proliferation in mice (8). The PPAR subtypes are encoded by distinct genes located on 112 different chromosomes (reviewed in (10)) and share a high degree of structural and 113 sequence homology, but each subtype displays a divergent pattern of tissue-specific 114 expression and ligand-binding specificity (9,11).

PPARs were originally described as orphan nuclear receptors, but shortly thereafter a plethora of potential endogenous ligands were described (12), acknowledging PPARs to be activated by a wide range of endogenous ligands including fatty acids and fatty acid metabolites, such as hydroxylated eicosanoids, prostaglandins and leukotrienes,

and by many synthetic compounds including fibrates and antidiabeticthiazolidinedione drugs (10,13).

121 Most of the physiological functions of PPARs can be explained by their activity as 122 transcription factors that modulate the expression of specific target genes (14-17). 123 PPARs can bind to sequence-specific target elements in the promoter region of target 124 genes following heterodimerization with the retinoid receptor to drive several aspects 125 of normal cellular physiology as well as pathology (15,18). This includes lipid 126 metabolism, glucose homeostasis, cell differentiation, proliferation, obesity, cancer 127 and inflammation (19,20). In addition to positively regulating gene expression, 128 activated PPARs can inhibit gene expression by negatively interfering with the 129 activity of pro-inflammatory transcription factors including signal transducer and 130 activator of transcription (STATs), activator protein-1 (AP-1), and nuclear factor-KB 131 (NF-kB) (21-23). Such transrepression mechanisms are likely to participate in the 132 anti-inflammatory actions of PPARs (24).

133 In this review, we will focus mainly on the molecular biology of the PPAR α subtype 134 and its role in inflammation control and inflammation-related disorders. Hereby, the 135 focus is on liver, adipose, cardiovascular and immune system as prime tissues/organ 136 systems of interest.

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144 **II. PPARα expression profile, gene and protein structure**

145 PPARa controls the expression of numerous genes involved in a plethora of lipid 146 metabolic pathways, including microsomal, peroxisomal and mitochondrial fatty acid 147 oxidation (FAO), fatty acid binding and activation, fatty acid elongation and 148 desaturation, synthesis and breakdown of triglycerides (TGs) and lipid droplets, 149 lipoprotein metabolism, gluconeogenesis, bile acid metabolism, and various other 150 metabolic pathways and genes (25). Consistent herewith, PPARα is widely expressed 151 in tissues with high fatty acid oxidation rates, such as heart, liver and skeletal muscle, 152 and functions as a major regulator of fatty acid homeostasis (26-28). PPARa 153 expression is also significant in brown adipose, adrenal and kidney tissue, as well as 154 in several inflammatory/immune cell types such as monocytes/macrophages 155 (26,27,29).

156 It is generally agreed that active PPAR α is predominantly localized in the nucleus 157 (30). However, PPARa was reported to be localized in the cytoplasm of rat 158 chondrocyte primary cultures (31). Similarly, in differentiated human macrophages, 159 PPARa was also much more localized in the cytoplasm (32). Hence, as with other 160 nuclear receptors, PPARa displays a dynamic shuttling between the cytosol and the 161 nucleus. This shuttling is influenced by Ca^{2+} signaling and ligand binding, the latter 162 enhancing nuclear import of PPARa (33). In this way, internal and/or external cell 163 signals can be translated into changes in subcellular localization and turnover/stability 164 of PPAR α and, as a consequence, affect its regulation of cellular functions (33). The 165 observation of a nucleo-cytoplasmic shuttling is not only restricted to PPAR α , but 166 also applies to PPARy. MEK-dependent export of PPARy from the nucleus reduces its 167 transcriptional activity and therefore represents a mechanism by which nuclear activities of PPARy and possibly also other NR are downregulated (34). Further 168

investigations are required to fully elucidate the underlying molecular mechanism of
nucleo-cytoplasmic shuttling as well as the subcellular functions of this receptor.
Moreover, a better understanding of where and how PPARs are activated, turned over
and regulated is of the utmost importance.

173 The human and mouse PPARa genes, located on chromosome 22 and chromosome 15 174 respectively, encode 468 amino acid (AA) polypeptides with 91% homology (35). As 175 in the mouse, the human PPARa gene encoded mRNA is derived from 8 exons with a 176 5' untranslated region encoded by exons 1, 2, and part of exon 3. The remainder of 177 exon 3 and exons 4-8 contribute to the coding region of PPAR α (35,36) (Fig. 1A). 178 The last 232 bp of exon 8 contribute to the 3'-untranslated region (37). In 179 correspondence with other nuclear receptors and PPARs, the encoded PPARa protein 180 displays four distinguishable functional domains whose cooperation modulate 181 receptor activity (38). These domains are: an N-terminal region (A/B domain), a 182 central DNA-binding domain (DBD, C domain), a flexible hinge region (D domain) 183 and a C-terminal ligand-binding domain (LBD, E domain) (39,40) (Fig. 1B) (Table 184 1).

185 The N-terminal A/B domain, which is the least conserved domain among PPARs, 186 harbors a ligand-independent activation function-1 (AF-1) region. This region, 187 enriched with acidic amino acids, has a low level of basal transcriptional activity and 188 can function independently of ligand-binding (tested via GAL4-fusion proteins in 189 one-hybrid assays) (35,40). Although the A/B domain suffers from a poor structural 190 organization, secondary structure formation in this domain is suggested as an 191 important step towards AF-1-mediated transactivation (38,40). The importance of the 192 A/B domain is emphasized by the fact that its deletion results in a gene-dependent 193 alteration in PPARa transcriptional activity. For example, A/B domain deletion 194 interrupts PPAR α -mediated transactivation of the acyl-CoA oxidase (ACOX) 195 promoter, however, transactivation of the cytochrome P450 4A6 (CYP4A6) promoter 196 is unaffected (40,45). In addition, AF-1 has also been proposed to be a key 197 determinant of subtype-selective target gene expression amongst the PPAR subtypes. For example, addition of the PPARa A/B domain to PPARyAAB (A/B domain 198 199 truncated) enhances its ability to activate PPARa-specific target genes (38). Vice 200 versa, addition of the PPAR γ A/B domain to the non-adipogenic PPAR $\beta/\delta\Delta AB$ was 201 sufficient to provide adipogenic potential to the resulting PPAR β/δ chimeric protein 202 (44). Post-translational modifications (PTMs) further fine-tune PPARα functionality. 203 PPARα AF-1 domain phosphorylation leads to changes in transcriptional activity and 204 even ligand binding of the receptor (43). For example, MAPK-mediated 205 phosphorylation of serine 12 and 21 in the human PPARa A/B domain increases the 206 transcriptional activity in response to mitogenic stimuli, such as high concentration of 207 insulin (58). On the other hand, glycogen synthase kinase 3 (GSK3)-mediated 208 phosphorylation of serine 73 increases the ubiquitination and degradation of PPARa 209 (42). Concerning its relation/association with other domains in the protein, PPARa 210 AF-1 synergistically activates transcription together with AF-2, as found for other 211 nuclear receptors (40).

The DBD, which is highly conserved and rich in cysteine and basic amino acids, consists of two zinc-finger binding motifs (45). This domain is responsible for physical interaction with DNA. Like other PPAR subtypes, PPAR α binds DNA as an obligate heterodimer with retinoid X receptors (RXR) (NR2B) (49). The receptor can be activated not only by phosphorylation of the A/B domain or via ligand binding to PPARs themselves, but also via associating with RXR, which for example binds 9-cis retinoic acid. The latter activation mechanism is referred to as the permissive effect. Ligand binding of either receptor thus activates the PPAR-RXR complex; however,
simultaneous binding of both ligands can lead to a more potent or even synergistic
activation (59-65). These different activation mechanisms allow fine-tuning of PPAR
activity.

223 The PPARa-RXR heterodimer recognizes and binds to PPAR response elements 224 (PPREs), which are localized in gene regulatory regions and organized as a direct 225 repeat type 1 (DR-1). DR-1 consists of two copies of the hexameric nucleotide 226 recognition motif 5'-AGGTCA-3' separated by a single nucleotide (47,48). An 227 additional consensus AACT motif is positioned 5' to the DR1 (66,67). Binding to the 228 PPRE occurs in such a way that PPARa binds to the 5' extended half-site of the 229 response element, while RXR occupies the 3' half-site (5,66,68). The PPAR α -RXR 230 heterodimers can form independently of the PPARa ligand. These unliganded 231 heterodimers recruit the corepressor protein complex and inhibit target gene 232 transcription (69). Upon ligand binding, the corepressor complex is released from the 233 PPARa-RXR heterodimer and the coactivator complexes will be recruited to the 234 promoter region of target genes, thereby initiating transcription (70) (Fig. 2A).

The first natural PPRE was found in the promoter region of the ACOX gene (36,71). In addition, recent genome-wide profiling of PPAR α binding sites revealed about 46% of PPAR α -RXR binding sites within intronic regions (72). Using PPAR γ as study case, chromatin accessibility in general was identified as a major determinant for transcriptional activity, as PPAR-RXR heterodimers were found to primarily bind in open chromatin regions (73-75).

While PPARα binds DNA only as a heterodimer and not as a monomer, deletion of its
N-terminal A/B domain generates a truncated protein that binds DNA non-specifically
as a monomer in *in vitro* assays (45). Although the physiological significance of such

binding is not completely understood, it may serve as evidence of an interdomain communication. The DBD of PPAR γ was shown to form an interface with its own LBD as well as with the LBD of its heterodimeric partner, hereby influencing ligand binding (76). More crystallization efforts are needed to challenge or validate this interface concept in the case of PPAR α . The DBD of PPAR α (and PPAR γ) is also subject to phosphorylation, which serves to further modulate the transcriptional activity of the receptor (46).

251 Like PPARs, many other nuclear receptor members also need RXRs as their 252 obligatory heterodimerization partner, raising therefore the possibility of a 253 competition between particular NRs for their common binding partner (77). This 254 competition may have important biological outcomes. For instance, liver X receptor a 255 (LXR α) activation by either overexpression of LXR α or ligand activation suppresses 256 PPARa signaling through reduction of active PPARa-RXR heterodimers in the liver 257 and thus diminished PPRE occupancy. RXRa supplementation restored the LXR-258 mediated inhibition of PPARa activity (78). Conversely, excess PPARa in the 259 presence of its ligands suppresses the sterol regulatory element-binding protein-1c 260 (SREBP-1c) promoter that contains two LXR response elements (79), indicating that 261 the mechanism of competition for RXRa between PPARa and LXR may be reciprocal 262 (78). This relationship between PPARa, LXR and RXR could be crucial for a mutual 263 regulation of both LXR and PPARa activities, and thus for the nutritional regulation 264 of their downstream target genes. However, the physiological validation of these 265 mechanisms still remains to be demonstrated. Another example of competition for 266 RXRa between RXR-partnering NRs was described for the thyroid hormone receptor 267 (TR) with LXR (80).

268 Of note, Silent information regulator 1 (SIRT1) was also shown to bind PPARa, 269 through a region homologous to the PPARa binding domain in RXRa. Interestingly, 270 the balance between SIRT1 and RXR appears to determine whether PPAR α is a 271 positive or negative regulator of genes involved in fatty acid metabolism (81). 272 Additionally, the PPARa-SIRT1 complex would directly bind a single hexameric 273 motif embedded in estrogen-related receptor (ERR) elements (ERREs), thus 274 competitively downregulating ERR target genes, at least in the heart. These findings 275 suggest a PPARa-dependent transcriptional repression mechanism in the control of 276 ERR-driven mitochondrial respiration and cardiac contraction (82,83). In addition, 277 exposure to a high-fat diet (HFD) also induces the formation of a PPARa-SIRT1 278 complex, impairing an association of PPARa with the pro-inflammatory transcription factor p65. Collectively, this shift is expected to lead to the repression of PPARa-279 280 target genes involved in fatty acid oxidation and enhancement of pro-inflammatory 281 pathways in the heart (84). Albeit intriguing, more experimental evidence is necessary 282 to prove that PPAR α can bind DNA as an RXR-independent monomer and whether 283 this mechanism is also operative in other tissues such as the liver.

284 Immediately adjacent to the DBD is the highly flexible hinge domain (D), connecting 285 the DBD and the LBD (35). This region binds corepressor proteins, such as the 286 nuclear receptor corepressor (NCoR), to the receptor in its inactive, unliganded state 287 (51) and serves as a target for PTMs including phosphorylation on serines 179 and 288 230 catalyzed by PKC and the SUMOylation at lysine 185 that promote NCoR 289 recruitment (52,53). In addition, mutation of a potential phosphorylation site within 290 the PPAR α hinge was shown to prevent dimerization capacities (46). Another study 291 on truncated PPARa lacking part of the hinge region and LBD suggested that the 292 hinge region might contain a nuclear localization signal (NLS) (50). Consistently, a

293 series of truncation mutants revealed that PPAR nuclear transport is mediated by at 294 least two nuclear localization signals, i.e. one in the DBD-hinge region and one in the 295 AF-1 domain (33). It was suggested that the hinge region also interferes with PPARa 296 binding to DNA and hence takes up an important suppressor role (85). More 297 specifically, the ribosomal protein L11 (rpL11) was shown to interact with the D-298 domain of PPARa and to inhibit PPRE-driven reporter activity (85). Furthermore, 299 heat shock protein 90 (Hsp90) was reported to associate with both the hinge and LBD 300 of PPARa. Using several approaches to disrupt Hsp90 complexes within the cell, 301 Hsp90 was confirmed as a repressor of PPAR α (and PPAR β/δ) activity (54).

302 Next, the PPARa-LBD harbors a ligand-dependent transactivation function (AF-2) 303 and has a structure consisting of an α -helical sandwich and a four-stranded β -sheet, 304 forming a Y-shaped cavity of 1400 Å called the ligand-binding pocket (LBP) (55). 305 The volume of the PPARα-LBP is quite comparable to other PPAR subtypes, but is 306 substantially larger as compared to most other NRs. Among the PPARs, The PPARa 307 LBP is more lipophilic which potentially explains the greater affinity of PPAR α to 308 bind the more saturated fatty acids (55). Following ligand-binding, the AF-2 domain 309 undergoes conformational changes, which allows for the interaction with various 310 coactivators carrying LXXLL motifs (L-leucine, X-any amino acid) (55), such as 311 cAMP-response element-binding protein (CBP)/p300 and steroid receptor 312 coactivator-1 (SRC-1/NCoA-1) (55). In addition, the LBD is crucial for dimerization 313 with RXR; this was confirmed in studies involving deletion of PPAR α helix 10-12 as 314 well as a L433R mutation in PPARa, which caused impaired heterodimerization with 315 RXR (51,57). PPAR α furthermore possesses two nuclear export signals (NES) in the 316 DBD and LBD regions, which are recognized by the export receptors calreticulin and 317 chromosomal maintenance 1 (CRM1), respectively. A recent study confirmed the

318 presence of a functional NES in the LBD, i.e. at AA 300-308 in human PPARα319 (86,87).

320 As mentioned earlier, human and murine PPARa show 85% identity at the nucleotide level and 91% identity at the amino acid level, however evidence exists for a genetic 321 322 heterogeneity in the functional coding sequence of human PPAR α that translates into 323 functional differences in receptor activity. For example PPARa L162V, a variant of 324 the human PPARa gene resulting in the introduction of an amino acid substitution 325 within the PPARa DBD, is found at an allelic frequency of ~0.025-0.073 in 326 ethnically diverse populations (88-90), while being more frequent (0.745) in North 327 Indians (91). Functional studies on the L162V gene variant demonstrate enhanced 328 ligand-induced activity when compared to the wild-type (88,91). Importantly, in 329 various studies the L162V polymorphism is correlated with dyslipidaemia, coronary 330 ischemic events (37,88-90,92-94) and adiposity (95,96). However, other studies have 331 not replicated these correlations (97,98). These inconsistencies could be due to 332 differing environments, genetic background and disease status between the studied 333 populations. In this context, the effect of the L162V polymorphism could be 334 modulated via gene-drug and gene-nutrient interactions (94,99,100). For example, the 335 association of the L162V genotype with a particular lipoprotein profile may be 336 modified by dietary fats (94,101).

337 V227A, a natural variant in which the PPARα hinge region is affected, was identified 338 in a Japanese population with a frequency of 5.0% (102-104) and in a Chinese 339 population with a frequency of approx. 4% (105). This variant attenuates the PPARα-340 mediated transcription of CYP4A6 and the mitochondrial 3-hydroxy-3-341 methylglutaryl-CoA (mHMG-CoA) synthase genes in the presence of fibrates. This 342 transcriptional repression was ascribed, at least partially, to increased corepressor

binding to PPARα and defective release of NCoR from chromatin (106). Interestingly, 343 344 the V227A variant was associated with perturbations in plasma lipid levels and 345 modulated the association between dietary polyunsaturated fatty acid intake and highdensity lipoprotein (HDL) cholesterol concentrations (105). Of note, the PPARa 346 347 V227A polymorphism may be involved in the pathogenesis of non-alcoholic fatty 348 liver disease (NAFLD) and may play a protective role in obesity (107). Although 349 epidemiological and interventional studies demonstrate a link between PPARa 350 polymorphisms and metabolic parameters, more studies are required to understand 351 whether and how the response to fibrate drugs and other PPARa-regulated pathways 352 are affected by the polymorphisms.

353 In addition to polymorphic variants, a truncated splice variant of PPARa, generated 354 by alternative splicing resulting in the skipping of exon 6, has been detected in human 355 PPARα (Fig. 1A) (50,108). This variant lacks the hinge region and the entire LBD 356 and is unable to bind to PPREs. As a consequence, it exerts a dominant negative 357 transcriptional repressive activity on full-length PPARa through titration of the 358 coactivator CBP by competing for coactivators. It was speculated that differences in 359 the expression level of truncated hPPARa might be implicated in the heterogeneity in 360 response to fibrates among different patients (50). Of interest, genome-wide 361 correlation analysis with subsequent pathway enrichment analysis indicated a 362 selective role for truncated PPARa as an anti-proliferative and anti-inflammatory 363 factor (109). Further experimental manipulation of human and mouse hepatocytes by 364 specific knock-down and overexpression analysis substantiated this hypothesis (109). 365 In vivo evidence for a dominant negative transcriptional repressive activity is lacking 366 so far. Therefore, whether this variant has any specific physiological significance with

- 367 regard to metabolic processes, inflammation as well as its relevance for
- 368 hepatocarcinogenesis still needs to be revealed and requires further investigation.

370 III. Modulating factors of PPAR α activity

371 PPARα gene and protein expression

372 The expression of the PPARa gene is regulated by various physiological conditions 373 such as stress, glucocorticoids (GCs), growth hormones, insulin and leptin. As an 374 important physiological response, PPARa expression is induced during fasting 375 resulting in an enhanced expression of PPARa target genes in liver to operate fatty 376 acid oxidation and to form substrates that can be metabolized by other tissues. Vice 377 versa, PPAR α also controls, directly or indirectly, lipogenic pathways (which will be 378 further discussed in detail in section V). Liver lipogenesis particularly allows FA 379 synthesis in a fed state when dietary carbohydrates are abundant (110,111). 380 Adipocyte-derived factors may further influence the expression level and subsequent 381 PPARa activity. Consistent with this, administering leptin, considered pro-382 inflammatory, correlated with an increased PPARa hepatic expression in ob/ob mice 383 (112). The mechanisms underlying the induction of PPAR α transcription by leptin 384 may be connected to changes in fatty acid flux mediated by leptin signaling (112). 385 Leptin-stimulated PPARa gene expression was also observed in muscle cells, through 386 the activation of and changes in the subcellular localization of AMPK- $\alpha 2$ (113). 387 Additionally, leptin was found to enhance PPAR α gene transcription in pancreatic β -388 cells (114) but not in adipose tissue (115). The basis for this discrepancy is not 389 known, but findings generated using isolated model systems will definitely require 390 further confirmation in vivo.

391 On the other hand, the anti-inflammatory adipokine adiponectin also increased 392 PPAR α -responsive promoter activity in H4IIEC3 cells, an effect that required co-393 expression of PPAR γ coactivator-1 α (PGC-1 α), suggesting that adiponectin-induced 394 PPAR α activity may be mediated through up-regulation of PGC-1 α expression (116).

395 In contrast, growth hormone (GH) has been shown to rather decrease PPAR α mRNA 396 in cultured rat hepatocytes (117,118). A similar effect was shown in 397 hypophysectomized rats (119). In addition, GH also decreases PPARa transcriptional 398 activity (120) as well as the expression level of PPAR α (121). Similarly, treatment of 399 primary hepatocytes for 3 days with another anabolic signal, insulin, also led to 400 reduced PPARa levels (122), whereas short-term exposure to this hormone increased 401 PPARα transactivation via phosphorylation of the ligand-independent AF-1 domain 402 (123).

403 Next to tissue-specific differences in PPAR α levels, the expression of PPAR α in a 404 given tissue further oscillates under the control of the circadian rhythm. For example, 405 PPARa expression peaks during daytime in mice, which correlates with the timing of 406 fasting in these nocturnal rodents (124). These diurnal patterns thus correspond well 407 with known functions of PPAR α in physiology but also pathophysiology (125). 408 PPARa is under the transcriptional control of the GC-activated glucocorticoid 409 receptor (GR) in rat hepatocytes (126). As such, PPAR α expression follows a diurnal rhythm, which parallels that of circulating corticosterone and the levels of PPARα are 410 411 also up-regulated during times of stress (127). Moreover, the circadian expression of 412 PPARα was reported to be directly regulated by the core-clock transcription factors 413 brain and muscle Arnt-like protein (BMAL) and circadian locomotor output cycles 414 kaput (CLOCK) both in vivo and in vitro (128). In another study, the proline- and 415 acidic amino acid-rich basic leucine zipper (PARbZip) proteins were also shown to 416 modulate the rhythmic expression and activity of PPARa. The mechanism was 417 proposed to be indirect and involved a cyclic generation of PPARa ligands which 418 initiate a feed-forward loop, in which PPARa enhances transcription from its own 419 gene (129). In addition, enhanced PPARa transcript levels were observed in both B

420 and T cells upon GCs treatment (130), indicative of a function of PPAR α in the 421 immune system (see further below under section 6).

422 Additionally, PPAR α expression is also reported to be related to aging. In this line of 423 reasoning, examination of mRNA expression in mouse spleens revealed an age-424 associated decline in the levels of mRNA encoding PPAR α and its concomitant target 425 genes ACOX and catalase, which was accompanied by a constitutive pro-426 inflammatory cytokine production (131). Similarly, a recent study has shown that 427 aging inhibits PPAR α activation as assessed by diminished mRNA levels of its target 428 genes ACOX and carnitine palmitoyl transferase 1 (CPT1) in aged rat livers (132).

429 Metabolite levels also affect PPARa expression; intriguingly, glucose and metabolites 430 (glucose-1-phosphate and glucose-6-phosphate) were shown to bind PPARa with high 431 affinity resulting in a significantly altered PPARa secondary structure (133). In this 432 report, in vitro addition of glucose alone reduced the interaction of PPARa with its 433 coactivator SRC-1. Conversely, in the presence of the activating ligands arachidonic 434 acid and clofibric acid, glucose rather increased PPARa interaction with SRC-1, DNA 435 binding and activation of the β -oxidation pathway (133). In addition, high glucose 436 levels regulate PPARa expression in human macrophages. Incubation of murine J774 437 macrophages with high glucose concentrations increased the expression of PPARa at 438 the mRNA and protein levels and enhanced its binding to the PPRE of the lipoprotein 439 lipase (LPL) promoter (134). In contrast, glucose decreases PPARa expression in 440 pancreatic β -cells leading to a reduced FAO and increased phospholipids and TG 441 synthesis, a mechanism believed to underlie β -cell glucolipotoxicity (135).

442 NF- κ B-driven cytokines such as TNF α , IL-1 β and IL-6 also affect the expression of 443 PPAR α . In TNF α -treated male Sprague Dawley-rats, PPAR α mRNA and 444 corresponding PPAR α protein levels were significantly reduced, likely contributing to

the decrease of peroxisomal β -oxidation (136). IL-1 β and IL-6 both repress the induction of PPAR α expression exerted by the combined action of clofibric acid and the GC dexamethasone in fetal rat hepatocytes (137).

448 The presence or absence of the activity of other transcription factors also impacts 449 PPARα levels and activity. In hepatocytes, Krüppel-like factor 6 (KLF6) deficiency 450 reduces PPARa protein expression and downstream targets resulting in attenuation of 451 lipid and glucose abnormalities associated with a HFD. KLF6 mediated induction of 452 PPARa protein expression through miRNA 10b repression (138). PPARa is also 453 regulated at the transcriptional level by other nuclear receptors such as hepatocyte 454 nuclear factor 4 (HNF4), chicken ovalbumin upstream promoter-transcription factor II 455 (COUP-TFII), and others. While HNF4 positively regulates hPPARa expression via a 456 DR1 element present in the hPPARa promoter, COUP-TFII also bound this site but 457 antagonized this effect (139). The regulation of PPAR α by HNF4, consistent with the 458 tissue-expression pattern of PPARa, was also demonstrated in vivo using HNF4-459 deficient mice that display significantly lower PPARa mRNA levels compared with 460 the wild-type mice (140). Exemplary of another metabolite, bile acids stimulate 461 hPPARα expression in a species-specific manner through a mechanism involving the 462 binding of Farnesoid X receptor (FXR) on its promoter (141). Moreover, PPARa 463 expression in the mouse small intestine was shown to be under the control of LXR 464 and the pregnane X receptor (PXR) (142).

465 Cross-talk with other nuclear receptor signaling pathways may also modulate PPAR 466 activity, as illustrated by the direct control of the PPAR β promoter by the vitamin D 467 receptor (143). In this respect, and as mentioned earlier, nuclear receptors that 468 function as heterodimers with RXR can potentially compete with PPAR α signaling in 469 tissues in which the amount of RXR is limiting (77).

470 Furthermore, PPARα turnover is controlled by ligand specificity and availability (Fig. 471 3). In this context, Blanquart *et al.* demonstrated that synthetic PPAR α ligands such as 472 Wy14,643, GW7647 or fibrates prolonged half-life and increased stability of the 473 receptor, preventing thereby its ubiquitination and its subsequent degradation via the 474 proteasome (41). Besides, PPARa agonists, such as fenofibrate, markedly up-475 regulated hPPARa mRNA levels in primary cultures of human hepatocytes as well as 476 hPPARa promoter activity suggesting that PPARa positively autoregulates its own 477 expression (139).

478 Of note, hPPAR α mRNA levels in the liver vary among individuals (50,109), 479 suggesting that PPAR α is strongly regulated at the gene level in human liver by 480 genetic and/or environmental factors (50).

481 Last but not least, the function of PPAR α as a transcription factor is controlled by its 482 PMTs and cofactor recruitment (**Fig. 3**), which will be further discussed in detail in 483 the next sections.

Together, regulation of the PPARα expression levels efficiently modulates PPARα
activator responses and thus may affect downstream pathways involved in metabolism
and inflammatory processes.

487

488 **PPARα cofactors**

As with other nuclear receptors, PPAR α transactivation activity is regulated by the presence of coregulators, which may function as corepressors or coactivators depending on the context. In the absence of a specific ligand, PPAR α binds corepressors, such as NCoR and silencing mediator for retinoid and thyroid hormone receptors (SMRT) (26). The receptor interacting protein 140 (RIP140) is a PPAR α corepressor, which is known to repress the activity of NRs by competing with 495 coactivators and by recruiting downstream effectors such as histone deacetylases 496 (HDACs) (144). Interestingly, mice devoid of the corepressor protein RIP140 show 497 resistance to HFD-induced obesity and hepatic steatosis in association with 498 upregulation of genes involved in energy dissipation. Such phenotype may be 499 suggestive of a role for this corepressor in PPAR α signaling (145). Whether or not 500 PPARa is directly involved remains to be shown. On the other hand, known 501 coactivators that have been found in a large complex with PPARa/RXR heterodimers 502 include PGC-1a, PGC-1b, CBP/p300, SRC-1, PPAR-interacting protein (PRIP), 503 PPAR-binding protein (PBP/TRAP220/DRIP205/Med1) as well as coactivator-504 associated proteins PIMT (NCoA6IP) and coactivator-associated arginine 505 methyltransferase-1 (CARM-1). Some of the coactivators, including the SRC-1 506 family and CBP/p300, contain intrinsic histone acetyltransferase (HAT) activities 507 required to facilitate chromatin remodeling (Reviewed in (146)). The PPARa-508 interacting cofactor (PRIC) complex isolated from rat liver nuclear extracts reveals 509 the presence of many of these coregulators, likely forming one mega complex (147). 510 Most cofactors are not receptor-exclusive, yet, emerging gene knockout mouse 511 models show that some of the coactivators are essential for PPARa signaling. For 512 example, conditional deletion of PBP/MED1 gene in liver results in the abolition of PPARa ligand-induced pleiotropic effects, indicating that PBP/MED1 is essential for 513 514 the function of PPAR α (148).

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518 PPARα post-translational modifications

519 As for other nuclear receptors, PPARα activity is finely tuned by various PTMs
520 including phosphorylation, ubiquitination and SUMOylation (41,53,149).

521 PPARα is a phosphoprotein of which the transcriptional activity is affected by cross-522 talk with several kinases, including MAPK (ERK1/2), c-Jun N-terminal kinases (JNK)/p38), AMPK, protein kinase A and C (PKA, PKC) and GSK3 (Table 2). The 523 524 effects of phosphorylation on PPARa activity depend on a number of features such as 525 the nature of the modified residue, as well as the stimulus and the kinase involved. 526 PPARα phosphorylations may also have different functional outcomes depending on 527 the context, with effects on receptor stability, susceptibility to proteosomal 528 degradation, enhanced recruitment of cofactors and transactivation. PPARa was first 529 shown to be phosphorylated in primary rat adipocytes in culture in response to insulin, 530 resulting in the stimulation of basal as well as ligand-dependent transcriptional 531 activity (149). Along the same line of interest, insulin treatment of human HepG2 532 hepatoma cells increases PPARa phosphorylation enhancing thereby its 533 transcriptional activity. This insulin-mediated phosphorylation of PPARa via the 534 ERK1/2 MAPK pathway involves amino acids Ser12 and Ser21 in the AF-1 domain 535 resulting in transcriptional activation probably by relieving inhibition by corepressors 536 (42,58). In line with this, in rat neonatal cardiac myocytes, stress-activated p38 537 MAPK phosphorylates Ser 6, 12 and 21 residues located within the N-terminal A/B 538 domain of the PPARa protein leading to an increase in ligand-dependent 539 transactivation of targets and enhanced cooperativity with the transcriptional 540 coactivator PGC-1. It was speculated that PPARa phosphorylation and the subsequent 541 specific recruitment of PGC-1 favor cardiac mitochondrial fatty acid β-oxidation 542 during periods of stress (150). In contrast, during cardiac hypertrophic growth, the 543 ERK-mediated phosphorylation of PPARa was shown to have an opposite effect to that of p38 kinase resulting in a reduced capacity for myocardial lipid and energy
homeostasis (151) demonstrating therefore the importance of cellular context. In FAO
hepatic-derived cells PPARα phosphorylation level is increased by ciprofibrate,
subsequently enhancing its transcriptional activity as demonstrated by a rise in ACOX
gene expression (152).

Given that substrates for MAPK phosphatase 1 (MKP-1, also known as DUSP1) include many members of the MAPK family including ERK1/2 and p38 MAPK, overexpression of MKP-1 in turn affected the constitutive PPAR α activity, thus acting in a feedback control mechanism (153). Taken together, these studies hint at pivotal activating roles of MAPK on PPAR α activity, thereby placing this receptor under the control of growth factors and various cellular stressors, as already mentioned above.

555 In vivo phosphorylation studies show that the level of phosphorylated PPARa is 556 increased by treatment with its agonist Wy-14,643 as well as the PKC activator 557 phorbol myristoyl acetate (PMA) (46). Particular modifications can increase a subset 558 of PPAR-mediated functions, e.g. phosphorylation at serine 179 and 230 in the 559 PPARα hinge region by PKC leads to enhanced transactivation potential, but impairs 560 its transrepression activity (52). Consistently, PKC inhibition impairs ligand-activated 561 PPARa transcriptional activity and decreases PPARa ligand-induction of its target 562 genes including PPARa itself and CPT1, but enhances PPARa transrepression 563 properties. Thus, the PKC signaling pathway acts as a molecular switch dissociating 564 the transactivation and transrepression functions of PPAR α (52). In support, it was 565 proposed that the capacity of simvastatin to mitigate PKC action indirectly stimulates 566 PPARα transrepression activities towards NF-κB and as such explains statin-mediated 567 acute anti-inflammatory effects (154). As indicated earlier, PKC phosphorylation is 568 believed to be important for PPARa and RXR interaction as mutation of the PKC

569 phosphorylation sites T129 and S179 in the hinge region of PPAR α reduces 570 heterodimerization (46).

571 The fasting-responsive kinase PKA enhances PPARa activity converging in the 572 stimulation of PPARa target genes. It was speculated that under stress, fasting or 573 exercise, PPARα phosphorylation in response to PKA leads to an enhancement of β-574 oxidation, production of glucose and ketone bodies, which serve as fuel for muscles 575 and brain (155). Thus, physiological cAMP modulators such as fasting, stress or 576 exercise potentially modulate PPARa activity. Of note, PKA-mediated PPARa 577 phosphorylation occurs mainly in the DBD, while the enhancement of activity 578 generally involves the AF-2 domain (155), suggesting an effect of phosphorylation on 579 interdomain communication. As another starvation-linked kinase, AMPK activity may 580 influence the expression of PPARa and PPARa target genes in certain tissues. In the 581 murine muscle cell line C2C12, for example, leptin stimulates PPARa gene 582 expression and subsequent FAO through the activation of α 2-subunit containing 583 AMPK (113). Moreover, AMPK activation increases mRNA expression of PPARa 584 and its target genes such as ACOX and CPT1 as well as PGC-1; this effect was 585 correlated with an increased FAO in skeletal muscle (156). In addition, AMPK and 586 p38 MAPK were involved in the activation of PPARa by adiponectin in muscle cells 587 (157). However, whether and which residues within PPAR α may be phosphorylated, 588 remains an unresolved issue. Next to adiponectin, AMPK was also described as a 589 modulator of PPARa expression in response to glucose levels (158,159) suggesting 590 that cellular energy levels might affect the PPARa-regulated signaling network in a 591 ligand-independent manner. Recently, a novel mechanism was uncovered by which 592 AMPK controls PPARa-driven gene expression in murine liver subjected to a 593 prolonged fasting. Activated AMPK was recruited to promoters of glucose and lipid 594 metabolism genes that are co-controlled by PPAR α and GR α (160). For the latter 595 example in liver, it also remains to be discovered which residue(s) of involved 596 transcription factors, PPAR α , GR or both, may be phosphorylated by AMPK.

597 PPARa phosphorylation, besides affecting target gene regulation, also affects the 598 stability and turnover of PPAR α through ubiquitination (41,161). Ubiquitination 599 involves the conjugation of a small protein, ubiquitin, to the target protein via a 600 sequential action of particular enzymes which primarily leads to degradation of the 601 receptor by the 26S proteasome. PPAR α is targeted by the E3 enzyme murine double 602 minute 2 (MDM2), which leads, depending on the cellular PPARa levels, to 603 stabilization of receptor levels or degradation via the ubiquitin-proteasome pathway 604 (162). The effect of degradation on the transcriptional activity is still under debate; 605 Blanquart et al. showed an inverse correlation between PPAR α degradation and 606 activity, which is in contrast to results obtained by the group of Vanden Heuvel 607 (41,42). Recently, a muscle ring finger-1 (MuRF1)-mediated monoubiquitination of 608 cardiomyocyte PPARa was discovered that enhances nuclear export of the receptor 609 and consequently inhibits PPAR α -induced FAO in cardiac tissue (87).

610 GSK3 is a key enzyme of glycogen metabolism and able to inactivate glycogen 611 synthase. Its activation phosphorylates PPARa predominantly at serine 73 in the A/B 612 domain. This modification negatively affects PPARa stability and promotes ubiquitin 613 proteasome-mediated degradation (42). PPAR α ubiquitination may thus constitute a 614 regulatory pathway that may contribute to the duration and the magnitude of the 615 response to PPARa activators (41,161). Function-wise, when blocking GSK3 by 616 biliverdin reductase A (BVRA) in the liver, a protective effect against steatosis is 617 inferred, due to a preservation of hepatic PPAR α activity (163).

618 Next to phosphorylation and ubiquitination, PPARs can be modified by 619 SUMOylation. SUMOylation is a reversible modification that entails the covalent 620 attachment of small ubiquitin-related modifier (SUMO) proteins via specific enzymes 621 (164). Murine PPARa was shown to be SUMOylated on lysine 358 (56). This 622 particular SUMOylation triggers the interaction with GA-binding protein α bound to 623 the 7 α -hydroxylase cytochrome P450 7b1(*cyp7b1*) promoter resulting in specific 624 down-regulation of this gene. Hence, SUMO modification can be regarded as a 625 positive regulator of mPPARa transrepressive activity (56). Likewise, human PPARa 626 undergoes SUMOylation by SUMO-1 on lysine 185 in the hinge region, leading to 627 down-regulation of its transactivation capacity through the selective recruitment of 628 NCoR (53) (Table 3). Both SUMOylation sites are targeted by the E3 enzyme protein 629 inhibitor of activated STAT (PIAS)y (78,164).

630 Finally, another means of regulating PPAR α activity indirectly includes the 631 phosphorylation of RXR and of various associated cofactors such as PGC-1 α , SMRT 632 and NCoR (reviewed in (26)).

633 PTMs play a key role in modulating PPARα activity in (patho)physiological contexts. 634 The modifying enzymes themselves are modulated by the cellular metabolic status 635 and environment, hereby positioning PPARa into a very complex regulatory network. 636 The level of complexity is even intensified knowing that PPARa forms part of a 637 physical assembly for variable corepressor or coactivator complexes, which are also 638 on their turn subjected to PTMs (26). Full understanding of these complex patterns of 639 regulation requires more high-throughput technologies to characterize the PPARa 640 interactome, its dynamic interactions with modifying enzymes as well as the 641 mechanisms by which these interactions modulate PPARa activity. These might point

642	to drugs that can modulate the PPAR α PTMs status with regard to metabolic disorders
643	and inflammation.
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666 IV. PPARα natural and synthetic ligands

667 **PPARα natural ligands**

668 Adoption of orphan NRs through the identification of their endogenous ligands is key 669 towards understanding their biology (13). The promiscuity of PPAR α for its ligands 670 can be attributed to the large size of the LBP. PPARa is activated by a wide range of 671 endogenous or naturally occurring biological molecules encompassing a variety of 672 FAs and FA derivatives, including acyl-CoAs, oxidized FAs, eicosanoids, 673 endocannabinoids, phytanic acids (165-167) and long chain dietary FAs (166,168) 674 (listed in Table 4). As such, FAs and their metabolites that interact with PPAR α can 675 be derived from the diet or obtained via de novo synthesis. Many of those FAs exhibit 676 an affinity for PPAR α within a nanomolar range (166). This supports the fact that 677 PPARa serves as an intracellular lipid sensor. It was proposed that PPARa senses 678 certain endogenous lipid metabolism intermediates as ligands to regulate the 679 expression of target genes involved in their metabolism (169). In vivo evidence for 680 this came from studies using ACOX1 knockout mice. The disruption of this first and 681 rate-limiting enzyme of the peroxisomal FAO pathway caused accumulation of long 682 chain fatty acyl-CoA coinciding with an increased peroxisome proliferation, 683 hepatocarcinoma and profound activation of PPARa in rodents (169,170). These 684 findings suggested that substrates of the ACOX1 enzyme may possibly be PPARa 685 agonists. Numerous arachidonic acid metabolites serve as ligands for PPARa; in this 686 context, 8(S)-HETE, an intracellular hydroxy FA derived from the oxygenation of 687 arachidonic acid, mainly by lipoxygenases and monooxygenases, was shown to be a 688 strong activator of PPARa (171). In addition, 20-hydroxyeicosatetraenoic acid (20-689 HETE), a main product of cytochrome P450 (CYP4A and CYP4F) activity that 690 catalyzes the conversion of arachidonic acid, can bind to and activate PPARa in 691 HepG2 cells leading to enhanced expression of the PPARα target gene, apolipoprotein 692 A-I (APOA1) (172). Leukotriene B4 (LTB4) is another putative PPARα ligand, which 693 connects the receptor to inflammation and immune responses. Its ability to act as a 694 PPAR α agonist has been reported in several studies (165,173,174), and the binding 695 affinity is found to be within the nanomolar range (174). Stimulation of 5-696 lipoxygenase activity leads to activation of PPARa via production of intracellular 697 LTB4 (165,175). In endothelial cells, oxidized phospholipids were found to activate 698 PPARα in a phospholipase A2-dependent manner suggesting that phospholipids may 699 be precursor of endogenously generated PPARa ligands (176).

700 Mice with liver-specific inactivation of fatty acid synthase (FAS), a key lipogenic 701 enzyme, developed hypoglycemia, fatty liver and defects in expression of PPARa 702 target genes when subject to a fat-depleted diet. These effects were reversed by a 703 synthetic PPARa agonist, identifying thereby the *de novo* synthesized end products of 704 FAS as endogenous activators of PPAR α in adult liver (177). This phenomenon is not 705 limited to the liver. Indeed, selective inactivation of FAS in the hypothalamus is 706 found to affect PPAR α -dependent gene expression and feeding behavior, which are 707 corrected after hypothalamic infusion of a PPARa activator (178). These observations 708 suggest that FAS, which is known to be regulated by nutrition, is involved in the 709 generation of endogenous PPARa ligands. The same research group demonstrated 710 that FAS generates 1-palmitoyl-2-oleoyl-sn-glycerol-3-phosphocholine (16:0/18:1-711 GPC), which seems to be a putative PPAR α ligand (179).

Other natural compounds such as polyphenols have been identified as ligands of
PPARα (180,181). PPARα activation with resveratrol, a natural polyphenol, and some
of its derivatives and analogs, results in a brain protection against stroke (182,183).
Resveratrol was identified as an AMPK activator, linking this sensor of the nutritional

status again to PPAR α functionality (184) (see chapter 3). Since PPAR α acts as an intracellular sensor of FAs levels, of which an alteration is associated with the development of several diseases such as diabetes, obesity, atherosclerosis and inflammation, finding a way of regulating the receptor activity through modulating (levels of) endogenous ligands may have the potential to generate new therapies.

721

722 PPARa synthetic ligands

523 Synthetic PPARα ligands include fibrates such as clofibrate, fenofibrate, and 524 bezafibrate (listed in **Table 4**). Fibrates are used in the pharmacological treatment of 525 hypertriglyceridaemia (48,185) despite the low potencies of these first generation 526 agonists on PPARα. Fibrates act by decreasing TG-rich lipoproteins in serum through 527 an increase in genes involved in FAO and a decrease in apolipoprotein C-III (APOC3) 528 gene expression (186,187). See further chapter 6 for a current status of PPARα-529 targeted therapies in a clinical setting.

Other synthetic compounds that are not approved for clinical use, but are often used for research purposes to activate PPAR α include GW7647, GW9578 and Wy-14,643 (also known as pirinixic acid) (29). In addition, other chemicals with environmental impact, particularly plasticizers (example DEHP-used in the manufacturing of plastics) and herbicides have been shown to function as PPAR α ligands (28). As their potential impact in human health is unclear, further research is necessary to address this with respect to lifetime health.

737

738 Selective PPARα modulators (SPPARMs)

739 The development of a selective PPAR α agonist may provide a good approach to 740 maximize the therapeutic potential of these drug targets. Accordingly, a new

741	generation of highly potent and selective PPARa-modulators (SPPARMa) is being
742	developed to enable greater pharmacological effects and to dissociate the benefits of
743	the PPAR α agonists from their side effects (188). A number of SPPARM α have to
744	date been identified by in vitro and preclinical studies and some have entered early
745	clinical trial studies with promising results (see further section 6). Among these
746	modulators, elafibranor (GFT505), a dual PPAR α/δ agonist, shows protective effects
747	on liver steatosis, inflammation and fibrosis (189). Pemafibrate (K-877), a recently
748	developed highly specific PPAR α agonist with SPPARM properties (190) shows
749	more potent PPARa-activating efficacy in vitro, better effects on TGs and high-
750	density lipoprotein-cholesterol (HDL-C) levels in patients with atherogenic
751	dyslipidaemia and a reduced risk of side effect as compared to fenofibrate. Recently,
752	pemafibrate was shown to exert beneficial effects on lipid metabolism, reverse
753	cholesterol transport (RCT) and inflammation, resulting in anti-atherogenic
754	properties. Therefore, pemafibrate thus seems an ideal next-generation $PPAR\alpha$ -
755	triggering candidate to target atherogenic dyslipidaemia and cardiovascular disease
756	risk (190).
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764 V. PPARa target genes and their function

Numerous studies with PPAR α -deficient mice during the past years have demonstrated the critical roles played by this receptor in energy metabolism, hepatic functions, inflammation, cardiac pathophysiology, cell cycle alterations and rodent hepatocarcinogenesis (27). We will next discuss functionalities of PPAR α target genes and proteins per tissue type. **Table 5** summarizes the many genes that have been identified as PPAR α target genes in different organs since the end of the 1990s. We have indicated whether the regulation was found to be direct or indirect.

772

773 PPARa target genes in liver

774 The PPAR α subtype exerts its main functions in the liver, where the receptor is 775 involved in various aspects of lipid metabolism. These functions range from FA 776 transport, binding, uptake, synthesis, degradation through mitochondrial or 777 peroxisomal oxidation, storage, lipoprotein metabolism and ketogenesis under fasting 778 conditions (111). Hence, although the phenotype of PPAR α -deficient mice is normal, 779 fasting results in increased plasma free FA (207) levels, accumulation of lipids in the 780 liver, hypoketonaemia, hypoglycaemia and hypothermia (110,208-210). The wide 781 range of genes that are expressed after PPARa activation indicates that this receptor 782 has a central regulatory role in lipid metabolism (211). Recently, in a hepatocyte-783 specific PPARa knockout mouse model impairment in liver and whole-body FA 784 homeostasis was observed, resulting in hepatic lipid accumulation and 785 hypercholesterolemia during aging (212). Still today, novel mechanisms are 786 discovered. The molecular pathway that leads to the upregulation of PPAR α during 787 fasting was recently investigated by Maus and coworkers. They found that FFAs bind 788 to PLCy-coupled cell surface receptors, such as the fatty acid transporter CD36, in the 189 liver and heart. This binding activates a specific pathway that leads to Ca^{2+} influx across the plasma membrane, called store-operated Ca^{2+} entry (SOCE). Subsequently, increased intracellular Ca^{2+} levels induce in a cAMP-dependent manner PGC-1 α and PPAR α expression, ultimately leading to a transcriptional reprogramming of the cell to FA utilization (213).

Altogether these data demonstrate that PPARα is a master regulator of FA catabolism
by governing the regulation of key enzymes involved in peroxisomal, mitochondrial
and microsomal FAO.

797 Additionally, PPAR α also plays an important role in ketogenesis by regulating 798 expression of HMG-CoA synthase 2 (Hmgcs2), a rate-limiting enzyme of 799 ketogenesis, which catalyzes condensation of acetyl-CoA and acetoacetyl-CoA to 800 generate HMG-CoA (214). Accordingly, the expression of mHMG-CoA synthase 801 gene, harboring a functional PPRE (214) in its promoter, is impaired in PPARa null 802 mouse liver (215). Of note, HMG-CoA synthase specifically stimulates its own 803 transcription rate by acting as a coactivator of PPARa. A recent report identified 804 liver-specific PPARa as a critical factor for ketogenesis. It was shown that PPARa 805 protects from fish oil-induced oxidative stress leading to acute liver failure through its 806 regulatory actions on ketone body levels, hence suggesting a potential therapeutic 807 advantage of ketone bodies such as β-hydroxybutyrate in preventing lipid 808 peroxidation-induced liver damage (216). Of particular importance in regulating 809 ketogenesis, in addition to FAO, is the metabolic fibroblast growth factor 21 (FGF21). 810 Its hepatic expression is PPAR α -dependent and is induced by fasting, a ketogenic diet 811 and fenofibrate (217). Moreover, upon fasting, FGF21 production required c-AMP-812 responsive element-binding protein H (CREBH), the liver-enriched transcription 813 factor. Interestingly, it was reported that CREBH and PPARa act as interactive trans-

814 activators that regulate each other's expression and act in synergy to activate the 815 expression of their target gene FGF21 to regulate lipolysis, FAO and ketogenesis 816 upon fasting or under an atherogenic HFD (218). Of note, CREBH acetylation is 817 required for the fasting-induced CREBH-PPAR α interaction *in vivo* (219). These 818 findings on synergistic cross-talk between PPAR α and CREBH might provide a 819 regulatory mechanism for nuclear receptors or transcription factors to extend their 820 biological actions and thereby coordinate adaptive physiological responses.

821 As far as lipogenesis is concerned, besides examples listed in Table 5, Oosterveer et 822 al. showed that induction of some lipogenic genes upon fibrate treatment is regulated transcriptionally by SREBP-1c. Consistently, in SREBP-1-/- mice, chronic PPARa 823 824 activation with fenofibrate failed to induce lipogenic genes such as stearoyl-CoA 825 desaturase (Scd1) and FA desaturase 2 (Fads2) suggesting an indirect regulatory 826 mechanism (220). In line, in primary hepatocytes, the PPARa agonists Wy-14,643 827 and GW7647 increased SREBP-1c activity by triggering PPARa activity on a DR-1 828 element in the human SREBP-1c promoter (221). Moreover, in PPARα-deficient 829 mice, a disturbance in the normal regulation of SREBP-1-sensitive lipogenic genes 830 such as acetyl-CoA carboxylase (ACC) and FAS was observed (222). The effect of 831 PPARa agonists on SREBP targets has been ascribed to increased activation of 832 SREBP-1c via enhanced proteolytic cleavage (223). PPARa agonists increase the 833 protein levels of the mature form of SREBP-1c, by increasing the rate of proteolytic 834 cleavage of its membrane-bound precursor form, without changing its mRNA levels. 835 Of note, PPARa can also indirectly modulate SREBP-1c transcription via cross-836 regulation with LXRa signaling pathway. In this line, Hebbachi et al. reported that the 837 intact PPARa is required to mediate the LXRa-dependent response of Scd-1 and FAS 838 gene expression to insulin and that an exogenous non-steroidal synthetic ligand of
839 LXRα, TO-901317, was effective in rescuing PPARα deficiency, suggesting
840 participation of PPARα in generating endogenous LXRα ligands (224).

In addition, malonyl-CoA decarboxylase (MCD) is transcriptionally upregulated following PPAR α activation. MCD degrades the lipogenic intermediate malonyl-CoA, which is both a precursor of FA biosynthesis and an inhibitor of the mitochondrial fatty acid transporter CPT-1 (225). PPAR α hence might inhibit the lipogenic pathway indirectly by inducing MCD, in line with its role in promoting energy expenditure (226,227).

847 Evidence exists for a functional role of PPARa in bile acid homeostasis; however the 848 mechanism is not understood. While various studies have reported on the expression 849 modulation of Cyp7A1, a microsomal cytochrome P450 isoenzyme that regulates de 850 novo hepatic biosynthesis of bile acids by PPARa, contradictory observations were 851 made (listed in Table 5). In transfected cells, both murine and human cholesterol 7α -852 hydroxylase (Cyp7a1) gene promoters were stimulated by FA or Wy-14,643 853 treatments, however, the murine promoter harboring an additional PPRE displayed a 854 greater activity (228). In addition, the expression level of Cyp7a1 diminished in 855 PPARα-deficient mice, thus revealing the involvement of PPARα (229). In contrast, 856 bezafibrate treatment decreases liver bile acids and Cyp7a1 expression in wild-type 857 mice and PPARα-deficient mice (230). Moreover, a Cyp7a1 decrease was observed in 858 wild-type mice upon ciprofibrate treatment but not in PPARa-deficient mice (231). 859 Besides, other genes involved in bile acid synthesis are regulated by PPARa including 860 cholesterol 27α-hydroxylase (Cyp27a1) whose activity was downregulated by 861 ciprofibrate treatment in a PPARa-dependent manner (231) and sterol-12a-862 hydroxylase (rat Cyp8B1), which was reported to be directly upregulated by PPARa 863 through a functional PPRE (229).

864 PPARα-deficient mice display severe hypoglycemia after fasting (110), illuminating 865 the central role of PPARa in glucose metabolism. Plasma glucose is maintained 866 during fasting by combination processes including de novo glucose synthesis 867 (gluconeogenesis), glycogen breakdown (glycogenolysis), and control of peripheral 868 glucose utilization. Fasting-induced hypoglycemia could be caused by inhibition of 869 either of these pathways. Interestingly, genes involved in gluconeogenesis have been 870 identified as PPARa targets including phosphoenolpyruvate carboxykinase (Pck1), 871 pyruvate carboxylase (Pcx), and lactate dehydrogenase A (Ldha) (232). Although it 872 was originally proposed that Pck1 may be specifically regulated by PPARα in human 873 but not mouse hepatocytes (233), PPARa was shown to activate Pck1 promoter 874 activity in murine hepatoma Hepa1c1c7 cells (234), whereas in the livers of rats 875 treated with clofibrate a reduced expression level of Pck1was observed (235). In 876 addition, PPARa promotes the metabolic conversion of glycerol into glucose through 877 the induction of several hepatic enzymes such as glycerol-3-phosphate dehydrogenase 878 (GPDH) and glycerol kinase, and of glycerol transporters aquaporins 3 and 9; all of 879 these genes are identified as targets of PPARa (233). Moreover, PPARa contributes to 880 gluconeogenesis by inducing the expression of pyruvate dehydrogenase kinase 881 isoform 4 (Pdk4) (236) Pdk4 phosphorylates and thereby inactivates the pyruvate 882 dehydrogenase complex, resulting in a conservation of pyruvate as gluconeogenic 883 substrate (237). Besides, PPARa targets glycogen synthesis in liver by regulating its 884 direct target, glycogen synthase 2 (Gys-2), which is a rate-limiting enzyme in the 885 storage of glycogen in liver and adipose tissue. In consistence, Wy-14,643 was shown 886 to stimulate Gys-2 expression in wild-type but not in PPARα-/- hepatocytes (238). 887 TRB3, another PPARa-target gene, is induced in liver during fasting and in diabetic 888 mice in a PGC-1-dependent manner. Upregulation of TRB3 expression through direct transcriptional control by PPAR α inhibits insulin signaling by binding to and preventing activation of Akt/PKB. The latter kinase is a positive regulator of the cellular response to insulin (239,240). How this can be reconciled with the profile of PPAR α agonists in other models or clinical, in man, is as yet unclear.

893 PPARa has also a profound impact on amino acid metabolism; specifically, it 894 downregulates genes involved in major pathways of amino acid metabolism including 895 transamination, deamination, urea cycle, oxidation of α keto acids and synthesis of 896 amino acid-derived-products. In support of a role of PPAR α in amino acids gene 897 expression, plasma urea levels are elevated in PPARα-deficient mice. The molecular 898 mechanisms underlying downregulation of amino acid metabolism by PPARa remain 899 elusive; however, some studies proposed that PPARa may modulate the activity of 900 other transcription factors that are directly involved in amino acid homeostasis, 901 including HNF4 α and C/EBP α (241).

902

903 **PPARα target genes in heart**

904 During the transition from fetal to adult cardiomyocytes, both PPAR α and PGC-1 α 905 expression are increased, corresponding with the primary use of FAO as an energy 906 source (242). In the context of a pathological cardiac hypertrophy, the expression of 907 PPARa itself is also downregulated (151,243). Conversely, PPARa activity is 908 increased in the diabetic heart, which is characterized by increased lipid oxidation. 909 Correspondingly, overexpression of PPARa leads to a cardiomyopathy mimicking a 910 diabetic heart (244-246). To dissect the in vivo role of PPARa in myocardial 911 metabolism, transgenic mice with cardiac-specific expression of PPARa were 912 generated (245,247). Interestingly, Myosin Heavy Chain (MHC)-PPARa mice, which 913 developed hepatic insulin resistance, also displayed enhanced IL-6 levels in the

914 circulation (245). Consistent with the metabolic phenotype of myocardial lipid 915 accumulation in MHC-PPAR α mice, the expression of genes involved in cellular FA 916 transport was activated by PPARa. Conversely, cardiac glucose transport and 917 glycolytic genes were repressed in MHC-PPARa mice (247), likely occurring via a 918 transcriptional mechanism, since fenofibrate also downregulated GLUT4-promoter-919 driven luciferase reporter gene expression upon cotransfection with PPARa 920 expression plasmid into rat neonatal ventricular cardiomyocytes (247). As mentioned 921 also above, Oka et al. have recently demonstrated that SIRT1, which plays an 922 important role in metabolic adaptation to starvation conditions, suppresses FAO in 923 failing hearts possibly by inhibiting the heterodimerization of PPARa and RXRa, 924 suggesting thereby that preventing PPARa-SIRT1 or restoring PPARa-RXR 925 heterodimerization may improve the progression of heart failure through modulation 926 of metabolic remodeling (81). Together, these findings highlight the complexity of a 927 balanced cardiac energy metabolism and the necessity of distinguishing the etiology 928 of heart failure to be able to predict the outcome of PPARa agonists.

929

930 PPARα target genes in lipid metabolism

931 PPARa agonists have a pronounced effect on lipoprotein metabolism, which is 932 involved in lipid and cholesterol transport. In this regard, PPARa ligands reduce very 933 low-density lipoprotein (VLDL) production and enhance the catabolism of TG-rich 934 particles, which indirectly decreases small dense LDL (sdLDL) particles and enhance 935 the formation of HDL particles and hepatic elimination of excess cholesterol (27). 936 More specifically, PPARa activators decrease plasma TG-rich particles levels by 937 increasing the activity of LPL (48,248), which is the key enzyme in the hydrolysis of 938 TGs. PPARa controls LPL gene expression directly through a functional PPRE

939 located in its promoter region (249), and indirectly by reducing the levels of APOC3, 940 a natural inhibitor of LPL activity (250), likely via a mechanism involving the 941 transcription factors Rev-erba, HNF4a or (Forkhead box protein O1) FOXO1 (251-253). Rev-erba, itself induced by fibrates via a PPRE in the Rev-erba gene promoter, 942 943 negatively interferes with the HNF4-mediated activation of APOC3 gene promoter 944 (253). FOXO1 stimulates APOC3 expression via specific binding to its target site (CCAAACA) in the APOC3 promoter. The association of FOXO1 with the APOC3 945 946 promoter was significantly reduced in response to PPAR α activation, in line with the 947 inhibition of APOC3 promoter activity in PPARa-expressing HepG2 cells (252). 948 Besides APOC3, LPL activity is tightly modulated by other factors such as 949 apolipoprotein A-V (APOA5), angiopoietin-like protein 3 (ANGPTL3) and 950 angiopoietin-like protein 4 (ANGPTL4). In line, PPARa increases expression levels 951 of APOA5, which is critical for sustaining normal plasma TG levels, through 952 functional PPREs located in its promoter (254,255). Moreover, PPARa upregulates 953 the expression levels of ANGPTL4 (256), which acts as an inhibitor of LPL activity 954 by converting active LPL dimers to inactive monomers (257), which may play a role 955 in tissue-specific directing of FA. PPARa activators affect also the metabolism of 956 HDL by regulation the expression of its major apolipoproteins, AI (APOA1) and AII 957 (APOA2). In humans, it increases the expression of these two genes by binding to 958 PPREs in their promoters, contributing to increased plasma HDL levels (258,259). In 959 rodents, however, gene expression of APOA1 is not promoted by PPARa because of 960 disabling mutations within the PPRE. In fact, the murine APOA1 gene is even 961 negatively regulated by PPARa agonists through an indirect mechanism involving the 962 PPARα-dependent induction of the NR Rev-erbα, a negative regulator of transcription 963 (260).

964 **PPARa target gene expression in immune cells**

965 The functional expression of PPAR α by several immune cell types suggests that this 966 receptor may play an important role in regulation of immune responses. The exact 967 role of PPARa in, for instance, innate host defense mechanisms is however largely 968 unknown. PPARa was shown essential for anti-mycobacterial responses in murine 969 bone marrow-derived macrophage cells, involving gene activation of transcription 970 factor EB (TFEB) and induction of lipid catabolism (261). PPARa deficiency resulted 971 in an increased bacterial load and exaggerated inflammatory responses during 972 mycobacterial infection (261). In human macrophages, PPAR α activation upregulates 973 the expression ABCA1, a member of the ATP-binding cassette-transporter family, by 974 an indirect mechanism involving the induction of LXRa expression. The increase in 975 ABCA1 expression promotes APOA1-mediated cholesterol efflux (262). Adiponectin 976 receptor 2 (AdipoR2), an LXR target gene, is positively regulated by PPARa both in 977 primary and THP-1 differentiated macrophages (263). Given that AdipoR2 is 978 expressed in human atherosclerotic lesions and macrophages, modulating the 979 expression of this gene by PPARa and LXRa may provide beneficial effects in the 980 treatment of cardiovascular disease. This finding highlights a mechanism of crosstalk 981 between adiponectin and PPARa-LXRa signaling pathways (263). In murine 982 macrophages, PPAR α activation was also shown to upregulate the expression of the 983 classic PPARa target gene CPT1 (154). Further in mice, PPARa activation in hepatic 984 Küpffer cells or monocyte-recruited macrophages results in anti-inflammatory effects 985 via the down-regulation of IL-15 and IL-18 (264).

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989 **PPARa** targets linked to the rodent-only hepatocarcinoma side effect

Sustained induction of the peroxisomal FAO system accounts for the massive proliferation of peroxisomes, which may contribute to hepatocarcinoma, a property intrinsic to mouse and rat PPAR α but not observed in humans (25,27). By using hepatocyte-specific PPAR α -deficient mice, PPAR α agonist treatment was shown to induce hepatomegaly via hepatocyte PPAR α activation. Interestingly, the proliferative response was mediated exclusively by PPAR α activation in hepatocytes (264).

996 Several mechanisms have been proposed to elucidate the species difference in 997 response to peroxisome proliferators. For example, in humans, lower expression 998 levels of PPARa or the presence of splice variants was suggested to contribute to the 999 resistance of humans to peroxisome proliferation upon treatment with fibrate drugs 1000 (50,108). However, most of the proposed mechanisms have been met with reasonable 1001 criticism (reviewed in (265)). The work of Cheung et al. with "humanized" PPARa 1002 mice suggests that there are inherent species differences in the receptor that may be 1003 more critical. In this regard, PPAR α -humanized mice that express human PPAR α in a 1004 mouse PPARa null background exhibit, unlike wild-type mice, a diminished 1005 hepatocellular proliferation while the induction of mitochondrial and peroxisomal 1006 FAO enzymes was comparable to wild-type (266). Moreover, it was proposed that the 1007 mechanism by which peroxisome proliferators lead to mitogenic and 1008 hepatocarcinogenic effects in mouse liver is due to murine PPARa-dependent 1009 downregulation of let7c microRNA, which in turn releases the repression of c-myc, an 1010 important oncogene that is related to liver cancer development. Interestingly, this 1011 effect does not occur in the humanized PPARa mice (267), thus the induced 1012 expression of c-myc protein through species-specific regulation of a microRNA, 1013 contributes to PPARa ligand-induced liver hyperplasia in mice (267). Still, some

- 1014 questions arise regarding the fact that the PPAR α -humanized mouse does not
- 1015 precisely model humans because there could be species differences in coactivators,
- 1016 corepressor and target gene response elements.

1037 VI. PPARα agonists in a clinical setting

1038 PPARa is widely expressed and serves to activate FAO pathways in the liver in response to fasting. This re-tunes energy metabolism to permit efficient use of 1039 1040 mobilized lipids in the fasted state. The resulting changes may lower secretion of 1041 TGs from the liver and promote TG clearance from plasma, and thereby also reduce 1042 atherogenic lipoprotein particles. It was this activity that prompted therapeutic 1043 development to reduce cardiovascular risk in patients with raised plasma lipids. In 1044 clinical trials, a marked reduction in circulating TGs with a rise in HDL-C was 1045 consistently documented, with reductions in LDL cholesterol (LDL-C) depending on 1046 the pre-treatment TG levels (reviewed in (27)).

1047 By virtue of their TG-lowering capacity, the official indication for fibrates is 1048 hypertriglyceridaemia. For hypertriglyceridaemia, fibrates are the first choice when a 1049 change of diet is not sufficient. For dyslipidaemia and hypercholesterolemia, statins 1050 remain the first choice because of a higher potency in lowering LDL-C (329).

1051 Fibrates are generally well-tolerated drugs and have a good safety profile irrespective 1052 of concomitant therapy (330). However, changes in biochemical markers, some of 1053 which related to pathological states, may occur. Among these are elevations in 1054 homocysteine, creatinine levels, alanine aminotransferase and aspartate 1055 aminotransferase. Of note, lowering of homocysteine with folic acid did not affect 1056 cardiovascular diseases (CVD) (331,332). Along the same line, even after prolonged 1057 treatment, the increase of creatinine is rapidly reversible upon treatment stop 1058 indicating absence of irreversible tissue damage (333). Muscle-related adverse effects, 1059 such as an increase in creatine kinase and myalgia may occur but rhabdomyolysis has 1060 only been observed upon combining gemfibrozil and cerivastatin, an effect due to

1061 classical P450-mediated drug interaction. Rhabdomyolysis was found to be rare with1062 (single) fibrate therapies (334).

1063

1064 PPARα agonists and effects on lipid and lipoprotein metabolism in humans

1065 The prominent role of PPAR α in governing lipoprotein and lipid metabolism in 1066 humans was demonstrated by the fact that fibrates, widely prescribed drugs to treat 1067 dyslipidaemia, act by binding to PPAR α and induce PPAR α -dependent gene 1068 transcription (6,335).

1069 A plethora of clinical studies have shown that fibrate treatment lowers serum TG 1070 concentration by about 30% (-35% P<0.01 (336); -30% P<0.045 (337); -40-20% 1071 P<0.001 (338); -37% (339); -38% (329)), reduces VLDL TG by about 40% (-41% P<0.01 (336); -44-20% P<0.001 (338)) and reduces (in combination with statins) the 1072 1073 atherogenic sd-LDL by about 20% (-23% (329)). Additionally, HDL increases 1074 slightly (+19% P<0.02 (336); +82-106% P<0.005 (338); +14% (329)) and serum 1075 concentration of APOA1 and APOA2 increase by about 20% (+19% P<0.02 1076 (258,336)). In obese patients with type 2 diabetes, fenofibrate decreased serum TG 1077 concentrations, while glycated haemoglobin increased (340). In contrast, the 1078 Fenofibrate Intervention and Event Lowering in Diabetes (FIELD) and Action to 1079 Control Cardiovascular Risk in Diabetes (ACCORD) studies show glucose-neutral 1080 effects of fenofibrate, supporting the notion that the first generations of fibrates are not antidiabetic drugs (330,333). In line, insulin sensitivity was not affected by 1081 1082 fenofibrate administration (337,340). Nevertheless, yet controversial, a more recent 1083 study reported that fenofibrate may increase insulin sensitivity by inhibiting adipose 1084 tissue expression of retinol-binding-protein-4 (RBP-4), an adipocytokine (341). For 1085 LPL, in patients on gemfibrozil (6 weeks), there was no significant change in LPL in 1086 adipose tissue (342), possibly due to pharmacokinetic effects. Nevertheless, plasma 1087 TG levels decreased by 46% and several patients demonstrated increases in muscle LPL activity, though these were inconsistent and not statistically significant (342). 1088 1089 Previous studies, using other PPARa agonists did report a significant increase of skeletal muscle LPL activity (+39% P<0.05 (336); +50% P<0.005 (339)) and even 1090 1091 adipose tissue LPL activity (343). It was originally proposed that gemfibrozil predominantly decreases TG levels by decreasing hepatic VLDL secretion 1092 1093 (337,342,344). However increased lipolysis may rather be caused by a primary liver 1094 effect (e.g. APOC3 decreased and APOA5 increased). Additionally, although 1095 fenofibrate reduces plasma TG levels, it does not seem to lower concentrations or 1096 turnover rates of non-esterified FAs in adipose tissue (337), correlating with a lack of 1097 effect on insulin sensitivity.

1098

1099 PPARα agonists and effects on liver in humans

1100 Dyslipidaemia and insulin resistance are known risk factors for NAFLD. As PPARa 1101 activation reduced hepatic steatosis in mice, applicability of fibrates was suggested as 1102 a potential treatment for NAFLD in humans (111). In a relatively small (16 patients) 1103 and phenotypically heterogeneous cohort study, patients completed 48 weeks of 1104 therapy with fenofibrate without adverse events (345). Significant decreases in TG, 1105 glucose, alkaline phosphatase and gamma-glutamyl transpeptidase, and an increase of 1106 APOA1 levels were found, yet, effects on fibrosis as addressed by liver histology 1107 were minimal (345). Similar studies with fenofibrate for 3 months confirmed results 1108 of a lowered TG yet unchanged hepatic fat content (346). Short-term treatment (2-8 1109 weeks) with bezafibrate combined with diet and exercise of steatosis-suffering donors 1110 for liver transplantation was found to decrease macrovesicular steatosis (347),

1111 although in this particular study the impact of bezafibrate alone was not addressed. 1112 Treatment of non-alcoholic steatohepatitis (348) patients with gemfibrozil (for 4 1113 weeks) lowers ALT, AST and yGT plasma levels (349), but not in a pilot study with 1114 clofibrate (for 12 months) (350). The relatively weak potency of these fibrates 1115 combined with lower expression level of PPARa in human as compared to mouse liver was presented as an explanation (351). However, in all studies, plasma TG levels 1116 1117 effectively decreased. Novel PPARa agonists with greater potency and efficacy, such 1118 as pemafibrate, or with dual (elafibranor) or triple (lanifibranor) agonism, may prove 1119 to be more useful in the treatment of NASH/NAFLD (352). As mentioned also in 1120 section 5.5, it is important to emphasize that humans are resistant to the induction of 1121 neoplasms by fibrate drugs in contrast to rodents (25,353). This implies that following 1122 ligand activation, the PPAR α -mediated pathways controlling lipid metabolism work 1123 independent from those controlling cell proliferation pathways (266).

1124

1125 PPARα agonists and effects on the cardiovascular system in humans

1126 As in rodents, PPAR α is downregulated in the failing human heart (354). PPAR α 1127 protein levels were compared between homogenates from left ventricular biopsies 1128 from five control donor hearts vs biopsies from five patients with compensated end-1129 stage heart failure at the time of transplantation (354). Whether augmenting PPARa 1130 activity would improve the progression of heart failure is an interesting, but to date 1131 unanswered question. Sub-group analysis of the Helsinki Heart Study (HHS) trial 1132 suggested potential benefit in preventing heart failure with gemfibrozil compared to 1133 placebo (13.3% vs. 10.6%, HR 0.76; P=0.04) (355). Potential mechanisms may relate 1134 to direct cardiac and/or on PPARa's lipid lowering effects. PPARa agonists may also 1135 improve cardiac performance by decreased transcription of pro-inflammatory

1136 cytokines as shown in vitro (356) and/or as in rodent studies, by reduced activation of 1137 aldosterone-mediated myocardial apoptosis (357) and/or by decreased endothelin-1-1138 mediated cardiac fibrosis (358). Further research is needed to assess whether or not 1139 fibrates, and especially the novel SPPARMs (see further section 6.5) can prevent or 1140 ameliorate chronic heart failure in man.

1141 Gemfibrozil was shown to decrease the incidence of coronary heart disease in both 1142 HHS and Veterans Affairs HDL Intervention Trial (VA-HIT). Treatment was 1143 concomitant with a marked increase in HDL-C and reductions in serum levels of total, 1144 low-density lipoprotein and non-HDL-C and TGs (199,355), yet there is no definite 1145 proof that these events are the mode of action leading to a decrease incidence of 1146 coronary heart disease.

1147 Investigating a role for fibrates in the prevention of cardiovascular disease, a pooled 1148 meta-analysis of long-term randomized placebo-controlled clinical trials pointed out 1149 that fibrates significantly reduce the odds of nonfatal myocardial infarction, but not of 1150 cardiovascular mortality, fatal myocardial infarction or stroke, compared to placebo 1151 (359). Fibrates can reduce the risk of major cardiovascular events predominantly by 1152 prevention of coronary events, and might have a role in individuals at high risk of 1153 cardiovascular events and in those with combined dyslipidaemia (360,361). Further, 1154 in a small-scale pilot study, bezafibrate was found to induce plaque regression in 1155 thoracic and abdominal aortas with marked TG reduction and HDL-C increase (362).

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1157 Human clinical trials and clinical trial endpoints

1158 Primary endpoint results from the HHS and VA-HII studies as well as the post-hoc 1159 and analysis of the ACCORD and FIELD trials suggest that fibrates may benefit 1160 patients with high TG (≥ 200 mg/dl) and low HDL-C (330,333). This hypothesis is

now formally being tested in a phase 3 study with pemafibrate, called Pemafibrate to
Reduce Cardiovascular OutcoMes by Reducing Triglycerides IN patiENts With
diabetes (PROMINENT).

1164 Clinical trials have found that fibrate treatment of atherogenic dyslipidaemia reduces 1165 vascular atherosclerosis and CV risk (363). In the Bezafibrate Coronary 1166 Atherosclerosis Intervention Trial (BECAIT), bezafibrate treatment decreased 1167 angiographic evidence of coronary atherosclerosis (364,365). Moreover, in the HHS, 1168 gemfibrozil decreased cardiovascular events, especially among patients with diabetes 1169 (355). Data from the VA-HIT (366), and subgroup analyses from the Bezafibrate 1170 Infarction Prevention Trial (BIPT) (367) have demonstrated that fibrate therapy 1171 significantly reduces the risk of cardiovascular events in particular in patients with 1172 diabetes with raised TGs and low HDL-C. However, large, well-powered 1173 interventional studies resulted in disappointing outcomes. The FIELD trial saw no benefit of fenofibrate, with the intervention group showing only non-significant 1174 1175 differences compared to the controls (330). One potential explanation for this failure 1176 was the relatively high drop-in usage of statins in the placebo group and the lower 1177 overall rates of cardiovascular events. The ACCORD study looked at addition of 1178 fenofibrate to simvastatin, but enrolled patients with little dyslipidaemia (368-371). The currently running phase 3 trial PROMINENT will test the efficacy of pemafibrate 1179 1180 in diabetic patients with high baseline TG levels (372). Meanwhile, fibrates are 1181 mainly prescribed for the management of raised TGs in patients at risk of pancreatitis. 1182 One clinical feature noted through many of the fenofibrate studies was reduction in 1183 markers of systemic inflammation, including C-reactive protein (CRP) and IL-6. 1184 These reductions occurred even in populations lacking a significant change in lipid parameters, suggesting that the effect was direct, and not mediated through changes in 1185

1186 lipid-mediated vascular damage (373). This phenomenon may be the physiological 1187 consequence of immune cell PPAR activation and cross-talk/inhibition of NF-KB signaling. The combination of anti-inflammatory efficacy along with promotion of 1188 1189 hepatic FAO suggested that PPARa activation may prevent the progression of liver 1190 steatosis to NASH and ultimately cirrhosis. The dual PPAR α/δ agonist elafibranor 1191 was tested for efficacy in patients with liver steatosis. A reduction in histological end-1192 points of acute NASH was seen, although the trial did not achieve its originally set 1193 target of NASH resolution (206). Therapeutic efficacy of elafibranor is currently 1194 assessed in the phase 3 trial RESOLVE-IT, enrolling patients with active NASH and 1195 fibrosis stage F1-3 (374).

1196

1197 Selective PPARa modulators (SPPARMs) in humans

1198 Overall it is surprising that there are so few therapeutic applications for fibrates, 1199 considering the important role that PPAR α has in regulating hepatic energy 1200 metabolism in response to the fasted state. Furthermore, although we have good 1201 evidence for cross-talk between PPAR α and inflammatory signaling pathways, 1202 including NF- κ B, the fibrates have not found a role in the management of chronic 1203 inflammatory diseases.

1204 In an attempt to maximize the therapeutic potential of PPAR α as a drug target, 1205 SPPARM α are being developed to gain greater pharmacological effect (375,376). A 1206 restricted activation potential can be explained at the molecular level by a general 1207 decrease in affinity for cofactors due to partial activation, binding to different target 1208 gene promoters and, but not limited by, the induction of a differential receptor 1209 conformation, which leads to a changed PTM status and the recruitment of a specific subset of PPAR cofactors, also according to their expression level in different organs(26,375,377).

1212 Pemafibrate is an example of a high affinity PPARa agonist with SPPARM properties 1213 which is currently in phase 3 clinical development (203). Pemafibrate was designed to 1214 possess higher PPARa activity and selectivity over existing PPARa agonists. 1215 Pemafibrate monotherapy induced atheroprotective effects in several murine models 1216 of atherosclerosis. As a multi-level strategy compound, pemafibrate acts on 1217 inflammation, lipid metabolism and RCT (190,378). Promising results were achieved 1218 with pemafibrate for the treatment of a severe complication of type 2 diabetes, i.e. 1219 diabetic nephropathy, by targeting the pathways leading to renal oxidative stress 1220 (379). The first-line treatment for hypercholesterolaemia, a common feature of 1221 atherosclerotic cardiovascular disease (ASCVD), is statins, which lower the levels of 1222 LDL-C. However, remaining residual risks, such as elevated TG levels and decreased 1223 HDL-C, underscore the necessity for complementary therapies. Pemafibrate was 1224 found superior to fenofibrate with regard to serum TG-lowering effect and hepatic and 1225 renal safety, when used over 24 weeks in adults with dyslipidaemia (203). 1226 Consequently, in recent randomized, double-blind, placebo-controlled clinical trials in 1227 patients with dyslipidaemia, statins were combined with the SPPARMa pemafibrate, 1228 which showed a favorable benefit-to-risk ratio during phase 2 clinical trials for the 1229 treatment of combined dyslipidaemia (380,381). The compound was used as an add-1230 on therapy in combination with statin treatment to treat the residual CV risk. Next to 1231 decreasing TG levels, this drug combination targets also several other atherogenic 1232 lipoproteins, hereby improving apolipoprotein ratios and lowering LDL-C levels 1233 (380,381). In patients with type 2 diabetes with hypertriglyceridaemia, pemafibrate was also shown to ameliorate lipid abnormalities, and well tolerated (382). 1234

1235 Next to SPPARMs, combining selective RXR agonists with statins can be an
1236 alternative option for the treatment of atherosclerosis. Suboptimal doses of both
1237 treatments not only minimized dose-related adverse effects, but also resulted in
1238 synergistic beneficial effects on endothelial function, compared to each drug alone.
1239 The anti-inflammatory effects were mediated in part by increased RXRα-PPARα and
1240 RXRα-PPARγ interactions (383).

Finally, dual or pan-PPAR modulators with partial or selective activation profiles maybe good alternatives, depending on the clinical application.

Metabolic disorders such as diabetes, atherosclerosis, hyperlipidaemia and obesity, rarely occur in isolation, but usually arise in the same individuals. This complex phenotype is called the metabolic syndrome or syndrome X (4,375,384). Treatment of this aggregation of metabolic abnormalities, usually accompanied by an inflammatory context, would benefit from a more holistic approach, such as the application of a pan-PPAR agonist, to target the multiple facets of this complex disease phenotype.

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1259 VII. Inflammation-priming and inflammation-resolving 1260 molecular actions of PPARα

1261 Evidence suggests that PPAR α can counter inflammation via multiple, distinct 1262 mechanisms (23,385,386). Both *in vitro* and *in vivo* studies identified PPAR α 1263 influences on both acute and chronic inflammatory processes (154,165,387,388).

1264 The first indication of a beneficial role for PPAR α in suppressing inflammation came 1265 from studies on LTB₄ action in PPARa-deficient mice. Compared to WT mice, the 1266 duration of LTB4-induced ear-swelling responses was prolonged. This anti-1267 inflammatory effect correlated with LTB4 activation of PPARa, thereby identifying a 1268 feedback loop through PPARa to limit LTB4 action. These findings implied that 1269 some of the anti-inflammatory actions of PPARa occur through up regulation of 1270 enzymes involved in ω and β -oxidation pathways and thereby accelerated degradation 1271 of signaling lipids including LTB4 (165). Subsequently, Poynter et al. showed that 1272 PPARα-deficient murine splenocytes had NF-κB activity, and thereby produced more 1273 IL-6 and IL-12 in response to lipopolysaccharide (LPS), supporting PPARa-1274 dependent anti-inflammatory effects in non-metabolic tissues (131). Most recent 1275 research has focused on the anti-inflammatory actions of PPARa. Hence, the majority 1276 of the subchapters below discuss the many and diverse molecular mechanisms 1277 accounting for the anti-inflammatory effect of PPARa in various models (Fig. 4 and 1278 Fig. 5). However, under certain conditions PPARα induces target genes that are more 1279 consistent with a pro-inflammatory profile (see further below), suggestive of 1280 inflammation-priming (Fig. 6) or -sensitization, the phenomenon of sequential signals 1281 leading to cellular adaptation and affecting subsequent responses, specifically in a 1282 context of inflammation. The augmented second response may well be gene-specific 1283 and transient, as has been described for the response of synoviocytes to a repeated 1284 treatment with pro-inflammatory cytokines (389). These consecutive signals may 1285 encompass pro-inflammatory mediators, as in the study above, but may also combine 1286 signals of a different nature. For example, the anti-inflammatory glucocorticoid 1287 hormones transcriptionally upregulate several components of the innate immune 1288 system and thus prime pro-inflammatory responses (390-392), a circuit thought to 1289 contribute to more effective resolution of inflammation. We hypothesize similar 1290 mechanisms may also apply to PPARa agonist action. Hence, an overall anti-1291 inflammatory network may also comprise a component which is "pro-inflammatory" 1292 dependent on the specific inflammatory and cellular context. More work is needed to 1293 substantiate these speculations. Data that may support this concept, however limited, 1294 are discussed in the last subsection.

1295

1296 Effector cells mediating the anti-inflammatory activity of PPARa

1297 The extent to which PPAR α plays a decisive role in various immune cells in humans 1298 as compared to rodents remains a point of contention. Literature and public resources 1299 such as the human immune genome project indicate that PPAR α expression is lower 1300 in human immune cells than in hepatocytes. This originally supported the concept that 1301 cell types like hepatocytes with high PPAR α are likely contributing to the immune 1302 regulatory effects by providing secondary signals to the immune cells, but data is 1303 accumulating on functional PPAR α effects in different immune cells. In addition, it is 1304 not inconceivable that during an inflammatory response, a change in the PPARa 1305 expression profile of immune cells may turn a dormant factor into an active 1306 contributor to assist in blocking the inflammatory response. In support of that 1307 assumption, the well-known adrenal stress hormones GCs enhance PPARa transcript 1308 levels in T and B lymphocytes (130), at least in the mouse.

1309 PPAR α is not only expressed in undifferentiated human monocytes but also in 1310 differentiated human monocyte-derived macrophages and is transcriptionally active 1311 upon ligand binding. In TNF and IFN- γ activated macrophages PPAR α can induce 1312 apoptosis (32). All three PPAR subtypes play important roles in human macrophages. 1313 For example, the anti-inflammatory properties of PPAR γ have been connected to its 1314 ability as a driver of M2 polarization in human atherosclerosis (393).

1315 Brocker et al. recently compared hepatocyte- to macrophage-specific PPARa null 1316 mice and found that the downregulation of the inflammatory cytokines IL-15 and IL-1317 18 depended on macrophage PPARα, identifying Küpffer cell PPARα as an important 1318 mediator of the anti-inflammatory effects of PPARa agonists (264). Functional human 1319 PPARa was demonstrated following a global gene expression profiling experiment on 1320 human primary macrophages treated with specific PPAR α agonists (263). The role of 1321 PPARs, fatty acid signaling, and fatty acid oxidation within primary human immune 1322 cell types in a variety of inflammatory conditions requires further experimental study. 1323 Linking inflammation to metabolism, murine macrophage LXR is critical for PPARa 1324 to promote cholesterol efflux and reverse cholesterol transport (RCT) in vivo, 1325 contributing to anti-atherogenic effects and hence indirectly resolving inflammatory 1326 responses within the blood vessels. In support, PPARa activation was demonstrated to 1327 inhibit the development of atherosclerosis by promoting macrophage RCT in 1328 humanized hypercholesterolemic mice expressing the human APOA1 gene (394).

1329 Connecting metabolic and immune responses to cancer, in murine and human
1330 melanoma models, an increase in free FA species during tumor progression was
1331 shown to activate PPARα signaling in CD8⁺ tumor-infiltrating lymphocytes.
1332 Consequently, CD8⁺ tumor-infiltrating lymphocytes switched toward FA catabolism
1333 to preserve their effector functions. Promoting FA catabolism with fenofibrate

1334 markedly improved the capacity of CD8⁺ tumor-infiltrating lymphocytes to delay 1335 tumor growth, via a synergistic mechanism involving a Programmed cell Death 1336 protein-1 (PD-1) blockade to efficiently boost the efficacy of melanoma 1337 immunotherapy (395). Together, these data highlight the interplay between the 1338 metabolic programs of T lymphocytes and tumor cells, with potential impact on 1339 melanoma immunotherapy (396). Ligand activation of PPARa also antagonizes NF-1340 κB in murine T and B lymphocytes, and conversely, T cell activation results in 1341 reduced PPARa expression. Of note, treatment of T lymphocytes with specific 1342 PPARα activators can upregulate the expression of endogenous PPARα-controlled 1343 genes in combination with histone deacetylase inhibitors. The presence of functional 1344 PPARα within T and B lymphocytes again emphasizes a role for this nuclear receptor in cells of the immune system (130). In addition to targeting NF-KB, PPARa also 1345 1346 counters proinflammatory signaling in T lymphocytes at the level of IL-2 and c-Jun 1347 activation (397). In evidence, genetic ablation of the PPAR α gene resulted in the loss 1348 of antagonism of NF-kB, increased production of Th1 and decreased production of 1349 Th2 cytokines by T cells (397). In another study, the PPARα agonist Wy-14,643 was 1350 shown to increase IL-4 secretion and to inhibit IFN-y expression in murine mitogen-1351 activated splenocytes, and to reduce the proliferation of human T cell lines (398). 1352 Similarly, stimulation of isolated CD4-positive human T cells with PPAR α agonists at 1353 clinically relevant concentrations decreased IFN-y, TNFa and IL-2 production. 1354 However, in this study no effect on viability was noted (399).

Epidermal Langerhans cells (LCs) play a pivotal role in initiating and maintaining
primary immune responses in the skin. PPARα is expressed in immature LC but
downregulated in mature LC. Pharmacological PPARα activation inhibits LC
maturation, migratory capacity, cytokine expression, and the ability to drive T-cell

1359 proliferation. Moreover, PPAR α in LC also inhibits NF- κ B activity. Taken together, 1360 PPAR α activation by endogenous ligands may provide a molecular signal that allows 1361 LC to remain in an immature state (400). The activation of PPARs by drugs, and 1362 products of intermediary energy metabolism within the diverse cells of the immune 1363 system may reveal new opportunities to target inflammatory process or to advance 1364 adjunctive therapies to enhance anti-cancer treatment.

1365

1366 Interactions between PPARα and other transcription factors

1367 The best-known mechanism by which PPAR α (as well as the other PPAR subtypes) 1368 inhibits many inflammatory genes is transrepression. In this tethering mechanism, 1369 PPAR α acts directly to negatively regulate the expression of pro-inflammatory genes 1370 by antagonizing the activities of other regulators of inflammation such as members of 1371 the NF- κ B, AP-1 and STAT families, as also already alluded to in the section above 1372 (27) (**Fig. 4A**).

1373 In this regard, it was found that fibrate-activated PPARa inhibits IL-1-stimulated 1374 secretion of IL-6 and 6-keto-prostaglandin by decreasing IL-6 and COX-2 gene 1375 transcription in smooth-muscle cells (SMCs). Inhibition of COX-2 induction occurred 1376 transcriptionally as a result of PPARa interference with NF-kB signaling (23). This 1377 effect of PPAR α in the vascular wall may influence the progress of atherosclerosis. 1378 Accordingly, Delerive *et al.* have demonstrated that aortas from PPAR α -null mice 1379 display an exacerbated inflammatory response to LPS, as assessed by enhanced IL-6 1380 secretion, and that fibrate treatment represses IL-6 mRNA levels in LPS-stimulated 1381 aortas of PPARa wild-type, but not of PPARa-null mice, confirming that the observed 1382 anti-inflammatory properties of fibrates are PPARa-dependent. This vascular antiinflammatory response is a result of PPARa interference with NF-kB and AP-1 1383

transactivation capacity involving direct protein-protein interaction with p65 and c-Jun. Of note, a bidirectional antagonism between the PPAR α and NF-κB signaling pathway exists (387).

1387 In human vascular endothelial cells, PPAR α inhibits the thrombin-mediated activation of endothelin-1, a vasoactive peptide. This inhibition occurs at the transcriptional 1388 1389 level and occurs via interference with the AP-1 signaling pathway by preventing the 1390 binding of AP-1 proteins to their target sequence (401). Consistently, PPARa 1391 activators prevent TNFa-induced vascular cell adhesion molecule 1 (VCAM-1) 1392 expression in human endothelial cells, partly through inhibition of the NF-KB 1393 pathway. This PPARa action, with a consequent decrease in monocyte adherence to 1394 endothelial cells, may have important implications on early stage of atherosclerosis 1395 (402). PPARα agonists decrease cytokine-induced tissue factor in monocytes most 1396 likely by interfering negatively with AP-1 and/or NF-kB activity (403,404). Because 1397 these pathways are involved in the activation of inflammatory response genes 1398 implicated in atherogenesis, PPARa activation may be beneficial in combatting the 1399 pathogenesis of atherosclerosis. In addition, oxidized eicosapentaenoic acid (EPA) 1400 attenuates monocyte chemotactic protein 1 (MCP-1) and IL-8 expression in 1401 endothelial cells, by inhibiting NF- κ B in a PPAR α -dependent manner (405).

1402 The transcription factor, specificity protein 1 (Sp1), is also involved in the anti-1403 inflammatory mechanism of PPAR α . PPAR α activation inhibits vascular endothelial 1404 growth factor receptor-2 (VEGFR-2) in endothelial cells, which occur at the 1405 transcriptional level via decreasing Sp1 site-dependent binding to the promoter 1406 sequence through an increased interaction with the Sp1 transcription factor (406). 1407 Thus, PPAR α activators may control inflammatory responses in part by targeting

1408 endothelial VEGFR2 signaling, which is critical for angiogenic responses during1409 chronic inflammation.

1410 Further work has demonstrated that the mechanism of PPAR interference with NF-KB 1411 action additionally involves a PPAR α -mediated induction of the inhibitory protein 1412 IκBα expression. Interestingly, fibrates increase IκBα expression in primary smooth 1413 muscle cells and hepatocytes, thus preventing nuclear p50/p65 NF-KB translocation 1414 and thereby arresting p65-mediated gene activation, to oppose development of the 1415 inflammatory response. PPARa-mediated IkBa upregulation did not require a 1416 functional PPRE in the IκBα promoter, but rather involved functional Sp1 and NF-κB 1417 sites, in a cross-talk mechanism (407). Cytosolic retention of p50/p65 NF-κB extends 1418 the list of candidate anti-inflammatory PPARa mechanisms from those mainly 1419 characterized by direct binding and inactivation of transcription factors, such as p65/ 1420 NF-κB and c-Jun (23,387). In further, detailed molecular studies fibrates were found 1421 to decrease basal and IL-6-stimulated expression of the human fibrinogen gene in 1422 human primary hepatocytes and hepatoma HepG2 cells by interfering with the pro-1423 inflammatory transcription factor CAATT/enhancer-binding protein β (C/EBP- β) via 1424 sequestration of the coactivator glucocorticoid receptor-interacting protein 1425 1/transcriptional intermediary factor 2 (GRIP1/TIF2) (408) (Fig. 4A). This anti-1426 inflammatory action of PPARa is not restricted to fibrinogen but also applies to other 1427 acute phase genes containing a C/EBP response element in their promoters (408).

1428 In addition, fibrate-activated PPARα negatively regulates IL-1-stimulated CRP gene 1429 expression in isolated primary human hepatocytes by two mechanisms, the inhibition 1430 of p50-NF- κ B translocation and the down-regulation of basal p50-NF- κ B and C/EBP-1431 β expression in a PPARα-dependent fashion (409). Such observations reveal a direct 1432 contribution of PPARα in controlling the inflammatory gene response in the liver.

1433 Furthermore, chronic PPARa agonist treatment inhibited the expression of IL-6 1434 induced acute phase response (APR) gene expression in vivo. This suppression occurs 1435 transcriptionally due to the down-regulation of the IL-6 receptor components gp80 1436 and gp130 in the liver, thereby reducing the phosphorylation and activation of the 1437 downstream transcription factors STAT3 and c-Jun that transduce the IL-6 signal; and 1438 to the reduction of the basal expression of the transcription factors CCAAT enhancer-1439 binding protein- α , - β , - δ (410). Related to STAT signaling, Van der Meer *et al.* 1440 proposed that activated PPARα may downregulate gene expression in HepG2 cells by 1441 causing the loss of STAT1 and STAT3 binding to DNA. Therefore, interfering with 1442 STAT-dependent transcriptional activity, which has been previously well documented 1443 for other PPAR subtypes, may also contribute to the anti-inflammatory action of 1444 PPARα activation (72) (Fig. 4A). Inhibitory effects of PPARα agonists on IL-1- and 1445 IL-6-induced expression of APR proteins including CRP, serum amyloid A (SAA), 1446 fibrinogen and haptoglobin, were also observed in mice displaying liver-restricted 1447 expression of PPARa (411).

1448 PPARa reduced the stimulation of the APR mediated by LPS and prevented the LPS-1449 induced increase of proinflammatory mediators IL-1, IL-6 and TNF in plasma via a 1450 liver-specific transcriptional mechanism. This resulted in decreased expression of the 1451 adhesion molecules, intercellular adhesion molecule 1 (ICAM-1) and VCAM-1 in the 1452 murine aorta, suggesting that PPARa can control the systemic and vascular 1453 inflammatory response via a liver-specific action (411). Importantly, this implies that 1454 the spectrum of PPAR α -controlled genes may be vastly larger in a more physiological 1455 context than in isolated cells (412). Further evidence of this comes from analysis in 1456 human liver slices where there was suppression of inflammatory genes, but not in primary hepatocytes. The most highly repressed genes included chemokines, IFN-γ-induced genes and other immune-related genes (412).

1459 Fibrate activation of PPARa inhibits hepatic inflammatory responses, which 1460 unimpeded lead to liver injury and progression to fibrosis, by a mechanism relying on transrepressive activity, rather than binding to cognate PPREs and activation of lipid 1461 1462 metabolism genes (388). These findings indicate that PPARa agonists with 1463 dissociated activity, selectively modulating PPARa transrepression, might have the 1464 potential to prevent the progression of NASH to liver fibrosis through a direct 1465 counteraction of inflammatory responses independent of effects on intrahepatic lipid 1466 accumulation. In the same line, a recent report has shown that PPARa gene and 1467 protein expression are decreased in NASH (413). The PPAR α levels were restored by 1468 pharmacological inhibition or genetic suppression of miRNA-21, a micro-RNA 1469 upregulated in the liver of patients with NASH, decreasing thereby liver injury, 1470 inflammation and fibrosis (413). These findings suggest that inhibition of the miRNA-1471 21 pathway might be an interesting new therapeutic strategy to combine with some of 1472 the current PPARα pharmacological agonists in NASH (413).

1473 A PPRE-dependent mechanism of PPAR α -NF- κ B interference in the regulation of 1474 complement C3 transcription has been observed in a human hepatoma cell line, 1475 identifying transactivation as another mechanism for the anti-inflammatory effects of 1476 PPAR α (**Fig. 2B**). Ligand-dependent activation of PPAR α abolishes TNF α -mediated 1477 upregulation of complement C3 through a physical interaction of PPRE-bound 1478 PPAR α with p65 within the C3 promoter (414).

Finally, the transcription factor Sp1 is also involved in the anti-inflammatory
mechanism of PPARα. PPARα activation inhibits vascular endothelial growth factor
receptor-2 (VEGFR-2) in endothelial cells, which occur at the transcriptional level via

decreasing Sp1 site-dependent binding to the promoter sequence through an increasedinteraction with the Sp1 transcription factor (406).

1484

1485 Cooperation between PPARα and other anti-inflammatory nuclear receptors

Simultaneous activation of PPAR α and GR α , a well-characterized NF- κ B repressor, enhances transrepression of NF- κ B-driven gene expression and additively represses proinflammatory cytokine production, including MCP-1 and IL-6 in various cell lines (385) (**Fig. 4B**). This finding offers a rationale for the control of inflammation by GR α and PPAR α by inflammatory gene repression and suggests new approaches for the treatment of inflammatory diseases where combinations of PPAR α and GR α activation could offer a more effective anti-inflammatory intervention.

1493 This phenomenon is not restricted to PPAR α since a similar proof of concept was 1494 recently also shown for PPAR γ agonists in skin and lung. Indeed, house-dust mite 1495 induced skin sensitization, which aggravates asthmatic responses in mice via a mixed 1496 Th2/Th17 response, was prevented by treatment combining glucocorticoids with 1497 rosiglitazone (415). Similarly, the role of PPAR α in estrogen-mediated anti-1498 inflammatory activity in lungs was shown by the demonstration of a weakened 1499 response to estrogen in PPAR α -deficient mice (416).

1500

1501 Regulation of MAPK and PKC kinase activities

1502 Given that inflammatory responses are driven in part by the activation of MAPKs,

1503 PPARα ligands were also shown to modulate the degree of macrophage inflammation

- 1504 not only by reducing NF-κB activation, but also by reducing MAPK phosphorylation,
- 1505 hence effectively decreasing the expression of the proinflammatory mediator COX-2
- and inducible nitric oxide synthase (163,417).

1507 PPARa was further shown to polarize T-cell differentiation processes, also via a 1508 modulation of MAPK activities. In CD4(+) T lymphocytes, unliganded PPARa 1509 suppressed p38 MAPK phosphorylation. Ligand activation reversed this inhibition, 1510 augmenting the expression of the transcription factor of T cells (T-bet), a lineage-1511 determinant of Th1 inflammatory responses (418) which drives IFN- γ expression. 1512 PPAR α thus reduced the level of activation-induced IFN- γ produced by CD4⁺ T cells. 1513 Mechanistically, the control of PPARa over T-bet expression occurs via a DNA-1514 binding independent mechanism, mediated through the ability of PPAR α to repress 1515 the phosphorylation of p38-MAP kinase following T cell activation. These data 1516 suggested a novel and important function for PPARa within T cells. Both in 1517 transformed T and B lymphocytes, PPARa ligands effectively repress NF-kB activity 1518 (130). Additionally, the anti-inflammatory effects of PPAR α in macrophages involve 1519 an inhibition of the PKC signaling pathway (52,154). Little is known about the exact 1520 molecular mechanisms underlying the PPARa-mediated modulation of (potentially 1521 other) kinase activities and to what extent this may contribute to an overall anti-1522 inflammatory action.

1523

1524 Anti-inflammatory activity of PPARα in a PPRE-dependent manner

In addition to down-regulating the expression of pro-inflammatory genes, PPAR α also suppresses the inflammatory response by direct up-regulation of genes with antiinflammatory properties, suggesting a possible cooperation between PPAR α dependent transactivation and transrepression to govern anti-inflammatory pathways. Besides the upregulation of IkB α , discussed above, as a mechanism contributing to its anti-inflammatory actions (409,419), activated PPAR α strongly up-regulated the hepatic expression of IL-1 receptor antagonist (IL-1ra), an inhibitor of cytokine 1532 signaling, during LPS-induced inflammation, while numerous inflammatory genes 1533 including STAT3, SAA and IL-18 were found to be down-regulated (420). 1534 Transactivation and chromatin immunoprecipitation studies identified IL-1ra as a 1535 direct positive target gene of PPAR α with a functional PPRE present in the promoter. 1536 Moreover, up-regulation of IL-1ra by PPAR α was conserved in human HepG2 1537 hepatoma cells and the human monocyte/macrophage THP-1 cell line (420).

1538 In the same context, Heme Oxygenase-1 (HO-1), a PPAR α target gene with a 1539 functional PPRE, is also directly upregulated by PPAR α ligands and contributes to the 1540 anti-inflammatory effects in human vascular cells (421).

1541 Interestingly, the gene coding for vanin-1 (Vnn1), a protein with anti-inflammatory 1542 potential, is robustly activated in liver by PPARa agonists, such as Wy-14,643, 1543 fenofibrate, and clofibrate (211), and functional PPRE sites have been identified in the 1544 Vnn1 promoter (422). Vanin activity prevents steatosis development in response to 1545 fasting. while its deficiency affects multiple involved genes in 1546 inflammation/immunity (423).

1547 Considering the above studies, it is clear that PPAR α may affect markers of 1548 inflammation in a direct or indirect manner. Below, we continue the discussion on 1549 recent findings regarding the role of PPARs in some specific examples of 1550 inflammatory disease models.

1551

1552 **PPARα** in the metabolic syndrome as an inflammatory disease

1553 Inflammation is a critical component of the metabolic syndrome, which represents a 1554 cluster of risk factors that include dyslipidemia, insulin resistance, hypertension, 1555 inflammation and coagulation disorders. Consequently, PPAR α , being on the 1556 crossroad between inflammation and metabolism, is an important regulator of the

1557 metabolic syndrome (27,424). It is now well-accepted that pro-inflammatory 1558 cytokines and specific immune cell populations promote metabolic disease 1559 progression. Accordingly, a chronic low-grade inflammatory condition, which is 1560 characterized by increased circulating inflammatory cytokines and acute phase 1561 proteins and which often accompanies the metabolic syndrome, has been implicated 1562 as a major factor both in the establishment of the metabolic syndrome and its associated pathophysiological consequences (207). PPARa, and other PPAR 1563 1564 isoforms, have all demonstrated anti-inflammatory effects in these conditions (425). 1565 In hyperlipidemic patients and patients with metabolic syndrome PPARa activation 1566 using fenofibrate decreases plasma levels of several acute phase and inflammatory 1567 proteins that are normally increased during inflammatory conditions, such as high-1568 sensitivity CRP and IL-6 (23,373,410). In addition, fenofibrate treatment also reduces 1569 plasma concentrations of the cytokines interferon- γ (IFN- γ) and TNF α in 1570 hyperlipoproteinemia type IIb patients (426). Addition of fenofibrate to simvastatin-1571 treated patients with atherosclerosis and early glucose metabolism disturbances 1572 further reduces lymphocyte release of IL-2, IFN- γ and TNF- α , accompanied by a 1573 reduction in plasma CRP levels, compared to statin alone (427). It was also found that 1574 fibrates have an anti-inflammatory effect in the interaction between adipocytes and 1575 macrophages in obese adipose tissue, thereby improving the dysregulated 1576 adipocytokine production and obesity-related metabolic syndrome (428).

1578 **PPARα** in age-related inflammation

1579 Enhancing PPAR α levels and activity was shown to ameliorate age-related 1580 inflammatory processes. Increased inflammatory marker levels during aging correlate 1581 with a decreased PPAR α activity. Administration of PPAR α activators improved the 1582 splenocyte cellular redox balance and reduced the age-associated elevations in NF- κ B activity and constitutive pro-inflammatory cytokine production (131,429). The PPAR
pan agonist MHY2013 alleviated age-related hepatic lipid accumulation, in part by
upregulating β-oxidation signaling and suppressing inflammation in the liver (430).

In a similar context, a recent study has demonstrated that LPS-induced liver inflammation and lipid accumulation were associated with a chronically overactive inflammasome/IL-1 β pathway in aged rat livers and that these effects were due to the dysregulation of PPAR α and SREBP1c. Indeed, in these aged rat livers, PPAR α was consistently inactivated and the levels of SREBP1c were chronically increased (132). Therefore, targeting PPAR α signaling might reduce the age-related sensitivity to endotoxin-induced liver inflammation.

1593 These data, positioning PPAR α at the crossroad of aerobic metabolism and 1594 inflammation, fit the observations that link non-aerobic glycolytic ATP generation to 1595 the production of pro-inflammatory cytokines (80). To illustrate, complex host 1596 responses to the TLR9 agonist CpGA were found to be mediated by plasmacytoid 1597 dendritic cell (pDC) production of IFNs, operating in an autocrine fashion. FAO was 1598 necessary for full pDC activation, pointing to PPAR α as a potential target to modulate 1599 downstream effects of type I IFNs (431).

1600

1601 **PPARα in inflammatory bowel disease**

1602 Considering the intestine as an organ contributing to immune system, a link between 1603 PPAR α signaling and the control of colitis was found upon studying the IL-10 gene 1604 deficient mouse as a model for human inflammatory bowel disease. In this model 1605 anti-inflammatory IL-10 gene expression changes were related to PPAR α activation 1606 although the mechanisms responsible remain undefined (432). Infectious disease 1607 control in intestine also involves PPAR α activation. As such, clearance of a Giardia 1608 muris infection was found to coincide not only with IL-17 production, contributing to 1609 protection, but also with an early PPAR α induction (433). Along similar lines, 1610 fenofibrate represses IL-17 and IFN- γ expression and improves colitis in IL-10-1611 deficient animals, suggesting a possible therapeutic potential in Crohn's disease (434). 1612 Of note, PPAR α protects the intestine from colitis-induced permeability (435)

- 1613
- 1614 **PPARα in inflammatory skin disease**

1615 PPARa activation impaired epidermal Langerhans Cell (LCs) maturation and 1616 migratory capacity and alters cytokine production through the inhibition of NF-KB 1617 phosphorylation (400), suggesting a role for PPAR α in combatting inflammatory skin 1618 diseases (436). In this regard, PPAR α -deficient mice exhibit impaired recruitment of 1619 neutrophils and monocytes/macrophages to the wound bed and present a transient 1620 delay in healing, which coincides with the inflammatory phase (437). These data 1621 support the concept that PPARa favors skin healing via a modulation of the 1622 inflammatory phase (437). In addition, PPARa activation is beneficial in mouse 1623 models with a hyperproliferative epidermis (438) and in models of irritant and allergic 1624 dermatitis (439). The anti-inflammatory properties of PPARa agonists, coupled with 1625 their anti-proliferative and pro-differentiating effects, suggest that they could be 1626 beneficial for the treatment of a variety of cutaneous diseases (439). In a model of 1627 atopic dermatitis, topical application of the PPARa agonist WY14643 significantly 1628 decreased antigen-induced skin inflammation, providing in vivo evidence for the role 1629 of PPARa in controlling skin inflammation and pointing to a potential benefit in 1630 combating systemic inflammatory responses in patients with atopic dermatitis, a 1631 disease characterized by inflammatory infiltrates and barrier dysfunction (440). 1632 Interestingly, PPARa may be the molecular mediator of the anti-allergic and anti-

1633 inflammatory effects of palmitoylethanolamide, a natural FA derivative present in 1634 murine skin (441). Taken together, the many observations above underscore the 1635 implications of PPAR α in inflammatory skin disorders and paves the way for trials of 1636 topical PPAR α agonist application.

1637

1638 **PPARα in other inflammatory diseases**

1639 Expanding the applicability of PPARa agonists to other inflammatory diseases, anti-1640 inflammatory properties of activated PPARa were observed in primary murine 1641 astrocytes, a cell type implicated in the pathology of experimental autoimmune 1642 encephalomyelitis (EAE), an animal model of multiple sclerosis (MS). Fibrates 1643 decreased the LPS-induced secretion of pro-inflammatory cytokines TNFa, IL-1β and 1644 IL-6 and NO production, likely via interference with the DNA binding of NF-κB 1645 (442), suggesting a putative function of PPAR α in controlling neurodegenerative 1646 diseases. In the same line, PPARa activation significantly inhibited radiation-induced 1647 microglial production of pro-inflammatory cytokines such as TNFa, IL-1β, Cox-2 and 1648 iNOS by inhibiting nuclear translocation of the NF-kB/p65 subunit and reducing phosphorylation of nuclear c-Jun/AP-1 (443). Genetic ablation of PPARa in an 1649 1650 experimental model of autoimmune encephalomyelitis increased clinical symptoms in male but not female SV.129 H^{2b} mice, consistent with the finding that male mice of 1651 this strain express higher levels of PPARa than female mice (397). Recently, PPARa 1652 1653 was reported to contribute to the anti-inflammatory activity of melatonin in Spinal 1654 Cord Injury (SCI), again by modulating the NF-κB pathway. It was demonstrated that 1655 melatonin was less effective in PPARa null, compared to WT mice, as evaluated by 1656 inhibition of the degree of spinal cord inflammation and tissue injury, neutrophil infiltration, pro-inflammatory cytokine expression, NF-κB activation and iNOS
expression (444).

1659

1660 The paradox of PPARα as a pro-inflammatory mediator

1661 The above studies (Fig. 5) are in line with the well-accepted notion that PPAR α is 1662 involved primarily in anti-inflammatory signaling. As stated in the introduction to this 1663 chapter, PPARα has also been ascribed potential "pro-inflammatory" effects (Fig. 6). 1664 Lee et al. suggested that oxidized phospholipids induce MCP-1 and IL-8 expression 1665 through a PPAR α -dependent signaling cascade in human aortic endothelial cells 1666 (445). These data demonstrate that PPAR α can mediate the activation of endothelial 1667 cells by stimulating the production of monocyte chemotactic activity in response to 1668 oxidized phospholipids and lipoproteins (445)

1669 Additionally, PPARa activation by Wy-14,643 enhances IL-1\beta-induced pro-1670 inflammatory cytokine release, including IL-6, IL-8 and TNF- α , in ocular cells and 1671 induces proangiogenic responses (446). In contrast, in the FIELD and ACCORD 1672 studies (330,333) fibrates showed a protection against diabetic retinopathy. In line, the 1673 antiangiogenic activity of PPARa ligands specifically depended on the activation of 1674 PPARα since PPARα ligands inhibited FGF2-corneal neovascularization in wild-type 1675 but not in PPAR α deficient mice (447). Consistent with these data fenofibrate was shown to improve diabetic retinopathy in type 1 diabetes animal models and 1676 1677 ischemia-induced retinal neovascularization. Herewith, PPARα-dependency also formed the mechanistic basis for the therapeutic effects of fenofibrate (448). The anti-1678 1679 inflammatory effects of fenofibrate-activated PPARa were ascribed to the inhibition 1680 of NF-kB signaling in the diabetic retina (448). The basis for these differences

remains unclear but might reflect a reduced complexity of *in vitro* studies versus *in vivo* studies.

1683 Then again, in a mouse model of endotoxemia, fenofibrate administration strongly 1684 increased circulating LPS-induced TNF levels (449). In a rat hypertensive model, 1685 bezafibrate was shown to sensitize for endotoxin effects, concomitant with low levels 1686 of HDL and increased levels of TG (450). In murine macrophage lines and in contrast 1687 to Wy-14,643, the natural PPARa ligands LTB4 and 8(S)-HETE showed a pro-1688 inflammatory potential by increasing NOS activity (348). These observations are 1689 again not restricted to PPARa, since PPARy activity in T-cells and dendritic cells 1690 promotes Th2 immunity (451,452). These are interesting findings suggesting that 1691 PPARα activation may result in different responses depending on the inflammatory 1692 settings, an effect which may involve combinatorial signaling. Although the 1693 mechanisms by which such potentially "pro-inflammatory" effects occur is not 1694 understood, these data point to the need for a careful evaluation of the effects of 1695 PPARα agonists in the relevant cell types, and in different physiological contexts. How to reconcile these seemingly contradictory findings with the wealth of data on 1696 1697 anti-inflammatory PPAR actions is as of yet unclear. For instance, reduced PPARa 1698 expression has also been linked to a lower overall survival and an enhanced tissue 1699 bacterial load in sepsis (453). The timing and nature of the pro-inflammatory stimulus 1700 and/or treatment may play a decisive role. It may well be that PPARa exerts a 1701 context-dependent immune-system priming role, as has been documented recently 1702 also for glucocorticoids (391). Given that GR and PPARa are able to physically 1703 interact and able to co-control genes involved in both inflammatory and metabolic 1704 pathways (160,385), increases the likelihood of this assumption. More research is 1705 clearly necessary to disentangle and explain these paradoxical observations. This

- 1706 hitherto hidden role of PPARα not only merits further mechanistic attention but also
- 1707 requires a better understanding at the level of physiological relevance.
1708 VIII. Future perspectives

1709 On account of their pleiotropic effects, PPARs may be targets in a number of disease 1710 conditions. It is clear there is still a lot of ground to cover, foremost by studying novel 1711 generations of more potent and better tolerated single, dual or pan PPAR agonists in 1712 the clinic. More basic research involving novel PPAR α agonists is important, as many 1713 mechanistic aspects differ from the first generation of PPAR α agonists. Plus, novel 1714 fields of application may still arise, for which the first generation of drugs did not 1715 show therapeutic benefit.

1716 Fibrates might be beneficial in the prevention of coronary heart disease. The highest 1717 benefit is achieved in cardiovascular disease patients with high TG and low HDL-C 1718 (454). A clinical benefit of PPAR α activation with novel agonists remains to be 1719 demonstrated in patients with high TG/low HDL and residual cardiovascular risk. 1720 Fibrates might be useful in the treatment and prevention of atherosclerosis, especially 1721 the new fibrates with greater potency open new perspectives. However, it remains 1722 unclear whether fibrates in general are useful in the treatment or prevention of heart 1723 failure.

1724 It is now evident that the effects of PPAR α are much more widespread and cover 1725 numerous aspects of inflammation and inflammatory related diseases, however many 1726 mechanistic fundamental details of its function still remain to be unraveled. For 1727 instance, nuclear receptor regulation of circadian rhythms in inflammatory metabolic 1728 diseases deserves more clinical investigation. There is newfound appreciation for the 1729 timing of treatment interventions. For example, a recent study shows a link between 1730 the circadian clock and perioperative myocardial injury in patients undergoing aortic 1731 valve replacement, whereby antagonism of Rev-erba, another nuclear receptor family 1732 member and PPARa target gene (260) seems to provide a benefit for cardioprotection

(455). Moreover, the circadian clock regulates the expression and activity of genes
and proteins involved in the progression of several autoimmune diseases (456,457).
Future therapeutics relying on PPARs in a context of inflammation will therefore
most probably have to take "the clock" into consideration.

1737 The role of PPAR α needs to be further evaluated in various pathophysiological 1738 conditions. For instance, it is unclear how PPAR α may influence immune cell 1739 (metabolic) control in immune/inflammatory diseases that are glucocorticoid resistant, 1740 such as sepsis.

1741 Defining the molecular mechanisms of PPAR α function that govern inflammatory 1742 programs will improve our understanding of its roles and will allow us to further 1743 exploit their potential in the therapeutic field.

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3524 Figure 1: Schematic presentation of the human PPAR α gene and protein domain 3525 structure-function relationship. (A) The human PPAR α gene contains at least 8 3526 exons. Exons are shown in boxes with translated regions shaded. 5' UTR encoded by 3527 exons 1, 2 and the 5'-end of exon 3. The coding DNA sequence spans the 3' region of 3528 exon 3, exons 4–7 and the 5' extremity of exon 8. The 3' UTR consists of the last 232 3529 base pairs of exon 8. The splicing events S_{wt} and S_{tr} generating hPPARa_{wt} and 3530 hPPARatr transcripts respectively are depicted. The variant transcript lacks exon 6 3531 resulting in a frame shift generating a premature TGA termination codon. The 3532 corresponding protein products of the two splice isoforms are underlined. (B) PPAR α 3533 contains four distinct domains. The amino-terminal A/B domain contains the ligandindependent activation function-1 (AF-1), the C domain consists of a highly 3534 3535 conserved DNA-binding domain (DBD), the D domain consists of a variable hinge 3536 region and the C terminal E domain includes ligand-binding domain (LBD) and a 3537 ligand-dependent activation function-2 (AF-2). Per domain, main functions are listed. 3538 Hsp90, Heat shock protein 90; PPRE, PPAR response element; UTR, untranslated 3539 region; wt, wild type; tr, truncated.

3540 Figure 2: PPRE-dependent transcription regulation. (A) PPRE-dependent 3541 activation. In the absence of specific ligands, PPARa/RXR heterodimers bind to the 3542 PPRE located in the promoter of target genes, or elsewhere in the genome, and recruit 3543 corepressor complexes thereby maintaining PPARa target genes in a silent state 3544 (ligand-independent repression). Upon ligand activation, the nuclear corepressors are 3545 released and the coactivator complexes are then recruited and bound to PPAR α /RXR α 3546 heterodimers, hence inducing expression of target genes involved in several biological 3547 processes including glucose and lipid metabolism. (B) PPRE-dependent inhibition of NF-KB transcriptional activity. Upon ligand activation, PPRE-bound PPARa directly 3548

interferes with the activity of p65 antagonizing thereby its binding to an NF-κB-RE in
the complement promoter. Sirt1; Silent information regulator 1; PPRE, PPARresponse element; RXR, Retinoid X receptor; DR1, Direct repeat1; NF-κB-RE, NFκB response element.

Figure 3: Levels of modulating PPARα activity. PPARα activity is controlled at
several levels including gene expression, protein translation, ligand selectivity,
posttranslational modifications affecting receptor stability and cofactor recruitment.
Ub, Ubiquitinated; S, SUMOylated; P, Phosphorylated; PPRE, PPAR response
element; GSK3, glycogen synthase kinase 3; AMPK, AMP kinase; PKC, protein
kinase A; PKA, protein kinase A; PIASy, Protein inhibitor of activated STATy; RXR,
retinoid X receptor.

Figure 4: Models of PPARα transrepression activity. (A) PPARα directly interacts
with pro-inflammatory transcription factors such as NF-κB, AP-1 and STAT to
negatively regulate their targets leading to anti-inflammatory effects through a DNAindependent mechanism. (B) Simultaneous ligand-activation of PPARα and GR leads
to the enhanced repression of TNF-induced IL-6 transcriptional activity, likely via a
mechanism involving a direct physical interference between PPARα and GR.
Ub, Ubiquitinated; S, SUMOylated; P, Phosphorylated; PPRE, PPAR response

element; GSK3, glycogen synthase kinase 3; AMPK, AMP kinase; PKC, protein

3568 kinase A; PKA, protein kinase A; PIASy, Protein inhibitor of activated STATy; RXR,

3569 retinoid X receptor; C/EBP-β, CAATT/enhancer-binding protein β; STAT, signal

3570 transducer and activator of transcription; AP-1, activator protein-1; NF- κ B, nuclear 3571 factor- κ B.

3572 *Figure 5: Anti-inflammatory effects of PPARα activation.* (A) Effect of human
3573 PPARα activation, by various synthetical ligands on inflammatory mediators. (B)

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3574 Effect of rodent PPARa on inflammatory mediators. Note that for some of these 3575 effects, conclusions on an involvement of PPARa were reached by using PPARa -/-3576 mice, in which an aggravated inflammatory effect was observed. hASMCs, human 3577 aortic smooth muscle cells; hUVEC, human vascular endothelial cells; COX-2, cyclooxygenase; PG, prostaglandin; VCAM, vascular cell adhesion molecule; MCP-3578 3579 1, Monocyte chemotactic protein-1; VEGFR2, vascular endothelial growth factor 3580 receptor-2; CRP, C-reactive protein; IFN- γ , interferon- γ ; APP, acute phase response 3581 proteins; LPS, lipopolysaccharide; SAA, serum amyloid A; IL-1ra, IL-1 receptor 3582 antagonist; LTB₄, Leukotriene B4; iNOS, inducible nitric oxide synthase. 3583 Figure 6: Stimulatory effects of human and murine PPARa activation on 3584 *inflammatory mediators*. Note here that mostly natural ligands seem able to trigger 3585 PPARα-dependent pro- inflammatory effects. MCP-1, Monocyte chemotactic protein-3586 1; LPS, lipopolysaccharide; 8(S)-HETE, 8(S)- hydroxyeicosatetraenoic acid; LTB₄, 3587 Leukotriene B4; NOS, nitric oxide synthase.

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Table 1: PPAR α functional domains						
Domain	Functions	Ref				
N-Terminal (A/B domain)	Transactivation function AF-1 Phosphorylation sites Subtype-selective target gene expression	(35,40) (41-43) (38,44)				
DBD (C domain)	Zinc-fingers binding motifs Phosphorylation sites Recognition PPRE Dimerization	(45) (46) (47,48) (49)				
Hinge (D domain)	Nuclear localization signals Docking for Coactivators Phosphorylation sites SUMOylation sites Interacts with HSP90	(33,50) (51) (46,52) (53) (54)				
C-Terminal LDB (E/F domain)	Transactivation function AF-2 / Cofactor recruitments SUMOylation sites Dimerization Interacts with HSP90	(55) (56) (51,57) (54)				

Table 1: PPARa functional domains and their relative functions. PPARa displays a classical nuclear receptor canonical structure. Per domain, main PPARa functions are listed (details in the text). Hsp90, Heat shock protein 90; PPRE, PPAR response element.

Table 2: P	nosphorylation mo	ounications affectin	g PPARa activity	
Kinase involved	Residues phosphorylated	Effect on transcriptional activity	Physiological outcome	Ref
ERK1/2 MAPK	Ser12 and Ser21 in A/B domain in hPPARα	Increased ligand- dependent transactivation	Cross-talk between insulin signaling and PPARα activity	(58,149)
P38 MAPK and JNK	Ser6, Ser12 and Ser21 in A/B domain in mPPARα	Increased ligand- dependent transactivation	Increased cardiac mitochondrial fatty acid β-oxidation during periods of stress	(150)
ERK- MAPK	Ser6, Ser12 and Ser21 in A/B domain in mPPARα	Decreased transactivation	Down-regulation of PPARα and its target genes during cardiac myocyte hypertrophic growth.	(151)
РКС	Ser179, Ser230 in D domain in hPPARα	Increased transactivation Decreased transrepression	Molecular switch dissociating the transactivation and transrepression functions of PPARα	(52)
РКА	Mainly C domain	Increased ligand- dependent transactivation	Enhanced β -oxidation, production of glucose and ketone bodies under stress, fasting or exercise	(155)
AMPK	n.d.	Increased transactivation	Increased fatty acid oxidation and PPAR α gene expression in skeletal muscle	(113,156, 157)
GSK3	Predominantly at serine 73 in the A/B domain in rPPARα	Decreased PPARα stability	Links GSK3 signaling and PPARα activity to metabolic regulation	(42)

Table 2: Phosphorylation modifications affecting PPARα activity

Table 2: Phosphorylation modifications affecting PPAR α activity.PPAR α undergoes several phosphorylation modifications that markedly impact receptorfunction (details in the text).

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SUMO Ligase (E3) identified	Residues SUMOylated	Effect on transcriptional activity	Physiological outcome	Ref				
PIASy	SUMO-1, Lys358 in the LBD region in mPPARα	Transcriptional repression	Sex-specific gene repression and protective effect in estrogen-related liver diseases, including inflammation and cholestasis	(56)				
	SUMO-1, Lys185 in the hinge region in hPPARα	Downregulation of transactivation	Decrease in NCoR-specific hPPARα target gene expression	(53)				

Table 3: SUMOylation modifications affecting PPARα activity

Table 3: SUMOylation modifications affecting PPARa activity. PPARa undergoes

several SUMOylation modifications that markedly impact receptor function (details in the text).

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Туре	Ligand		Biological & therapeutic outcome	Ref
Fatty acids	Arachidonic Acid		PPAR α binding and activation.	(19,191)
Eicosanoids	8(S)-HETE		PPARα -mediated transcription activation and induction of adipogenic differentiation of 3T3-L1 preadipocytes	(19,171)
	20-HETE		PPARα target gene expression (APOA1) activation	(172)
	Leukotriene B4		LTB_4 breakdown stimulation which may contribute to the resolution of inflammation.	(19,165,174,1 75)
Phospholipids	Oxidized phospholi	pids	PPARα activation in a phospholipase A2-dependent manner in endothelial cells.	(176)
	Phosphatidylcholine (16:0/18:1-GPC)	2	Interaction with PPARα-LBD and coactivator peptide motifs. PPARα-dependent gene induction and hepatic steatosis decreased.	(179)
Polyphenols	Resveratrol		PPARα activation in cell-based reporter assays. Brain protection against ischemic stroke in mice.	(180-183)
Synthetic Liga	ands			
Ligand	EC50	Status of Clinical development	Biological & therapeutic outcome	Ref
Clofibrate	50 (m)-55(h) µM	In clinical use	Decreased the lipid levels in hypercholesterolemic patients, mainly as the results of a reduction in VLDL, and less in LDL fraction.	(192-194)
Fenofibrate	18(m)-30(h) µM In clinical use		Improved the plasma lipid profiles and lipoprotein profiles. Decreased atypical sphingolipids in plasma of dyslipidaemic patients.	(194-196)
Bezafibrate	20(m)-80(h) μM	In clinical use	Decreased plasma TG levels and increased HDL-C levels in dyslipidaemic and diabetic patients.	(197)
Gemfibrozil	61(h) μM	In clinical use	Increased HDL-C levels and lowered TG levels. Coronary heart disease and stroke prevention.	(196,198,199)

Table 4: PPARa Natural and Synthetic Ligands

WY14643	0.63(m)-5(h) μM	Used in basic research only	Agonist activity in functional assays. Inhibition of NF-κB transcriptional activity and decreased inflammatory responses <i>in vitro</i> and <i>in vivo</i> .	(19,23,191,19 2,194)
GW9578	0.005(m)-0.05(h) μM	Used in basic research only	Potent lipid lowering Activity. Decreased LDL-C in Sprague- Dawley rats. Improved insulin sensitivity in obese Zucker rats.	(194,200,201)
GW7647	0.001(m)-0.006 (h)µM	Used in basic research only	Agonist activity in GAL4-PPAR binding assay. Decreased TGs in fat-fed hamsters and rats.	(202)
Pemafibrate (K-877)	1 nM (h)	Phase 3 trials ongoing for treatment of dyslipidaemi a.	Improved lipid profile in patients with dyslipidaemia. Enhances RCT and decreased inflammation and atherosclerosis.	(188,190,203)
Dual PPARα/β(δ	5) agonists			
Elafibranor (GFT505)	10-20 nM	Phase 3 trial ongoing for treatment of NASH	Improved hepatic steatosis, inflammation and fibrosis in NASH rodent models and in patients with NASH. Improved lipid profile and insulin sensitivity in patients with dyslipidaemia or prediabetes and in obese individuals.	(189,204-206)

Table 4: The natural and synthetic $PPAR\alpha$ ligands and their physiological roles.

(h), EC50 for human PPAR α ; (m), EC50 for murine PPAR α

Table 5: List of selected PPAKa target genes								
Target gene	Official gene symbol	Gene functions	Comments	Fibrates WT KO	Ref			
LIVER								
FA Transport Protein (FATP)	SLC27A1	Facilitates the uptake of long chain fatty acids by the liver Fatty acid transport	Direct PPARa target with a functional PPRE in its promoter.	↑ =	(268-270)			
Fatty acid translocase (FAT/CD36)	CD36	Uptake of long- chain fatty acids and oxidized LDL	Transcriptional mechanism remains unclear. Induction goes through the distal promoter region of the gene even though no PPRE could be identified.	↑ =	(270-272)			
Acyl-coA synthetase	ACS	Catalyzes fatty acid metabolism by converting inactive fatty acids into active acyl CoA derivatives	Direct PPARa target with a functional PPRE in its promoter.	↑ =	(208,223,269, 273,274)			
Fatty acid binding protein	FABP	Intracellular lipid trafficking	Functional PPRE was identified. FABP2 and FABP1 have different effects on the ability of different agonists to promote PPARa activation ligand- dependently.	↑ =	(275-277)			
Acyl-CoA binding protein (ACBP)	DBI	Fatty acyl CoA esters transport	Functional PPRE was identified. ACBP expression is regulated by fasting/refeeding in rodents. A dual regulation by PPARα and SREBP-1c might be considered.	↑ =	(278,279)			
Carnitine palmitoyl- transferase 1	CPT1A	Catalyzes the transfer of a long- chain fatty acyl group from coenzyme A to carnitine.	Functional PPRE was identified.	↑ =	(280)			
Carnitine palmitoyl- transferase 2	CPT2	Conjugates the fatty acid <i>back</i> to Coenzyme A for subsequent β -oxidation.	Functional PPRE was identified.	↑ =	(208,281)			
Medium-chain acyl-CoA dehydrogenase (MCAD)	ACADM	Mitochondrial fatty acid β- oxidation	Functional PPRE was identified.	↑ =	(210,282-284)			

Table 5: List of selected PPARa target genes

Long-chain acyl- CoA dehydrogenase (LCAD)	ACADL	Mitochondrial fatty acid β- oxidation	No PPRE / unknown mechanism.	↑	=	(208,285)
Very long chain acyl-CoA dehydrogenase (VLCAD)	ACADVL	Mitochondrial fatty acid β- oxidation	No PPRE reported	↑	=	(208,286,287)
Dodecenoyl-CoA δ-isomerase	ECII	Mitochondrial β- oxidation of unsaturated and saturated fatty acids	Using microarray, expression of EC11 was found to be decreased in PPAR α -deficient mice but no PPRE has yet been identified.	↑	?	(288,289)
Acyl-CoA oxidase	ACOX	Peroxisomal β- oxidation	Functional PPRE was identified. The fasting- induced activation of ACOX expression was markedly blunted in PPARa deficient mice.	↑	=	(71,165,210,2 88,290)
Bifunctional enzyme (BIEN)	EHHADH	Peroxisomal β- oxidation	Three different PPREs have been identified in the promoter sequence of the BIEN gene, yet only one allows for efficient transactivation of the BIEN gene by PPARα.	↑	Ξ	(276,288,290, 291)
Peroxisomal 3- ketoacyl-CoA thiolase.	ACAA1	Peroxisomal β- oxidation	It is unclear whether the DR-1 sequence identified within its promoter mediates PPARα transactivation. Differential gene regulation in human vs rodent hepatocytes.	↑	=	(71,291-293)
Peroxisomal membrane protein 11A PEX11α	PEX11A	Peroxisome proliferation	A functional PPRE 8.4 kb downstream of the PEX11α was identified by a gene transfection study.	↑	?	(294-296)
Cytochrome P450 4A	CYP4A	Microsomal FA ω -hydroxylation	In rodents, CYP4A1 upregulation through a functional PPRE. In humans, no PPRE detected in the 5'-flanking region of the CYP4A11 gene. Induction upon fasting or fenofibrate	↑	Ξ	(288,297-299)

			treatment in transgenic mice.			
Mitochondrial 3- hydroxy-3- methylglutaryl- CoA synthase (mHMG-CoAS)	HMGCS2	Ketogenesis/ condensation of acetyl-CoA and acetoacetyl-CoA to generate HMG- CoA	Functional PPRE identified in the rat and pig mHMG- CoAS gene. mHMG-CoAS proteins interact physically with PPAR α and act as a coactivator to up- regulate transcription from the PPRE of its own gene.	↑	=	(215,288)
Fibroblast growth factor 21	FGF21	Metabolic fuel homeostasis during ketosis	Functional PPRE identified. Induction upon fasting and PPARα agonists treatment.	↑	=	(217,300,301)
FA desaturase 2 (Fads2)	FADS	Lipogenesis	DR-1 that functions in the regulation of human FADS2 gene transcription identified. An indirect regulatory mechanism involving SREBP- 1c might be considered.	↑	=	(220,302-306)
Stearoyl-CoA desaturase (Scd1)	SCD	Lipogenesis	Functional PPRE identified. An indirect regulatory mechanism involving SREBP- 1c might be considered.	↑	=	(302-304)
Malic enzyme (Mod1)	ME1	Lipogenesis	Functional PPRE identified. Decrease of ME1 expression in livers of PPARa deficient mice.	↑ :	=	(272,288,307)
Phosphatidate phosphatase (Lpin2)	LPIN2	Lipogenesis	Dual target of PPAR α and PPAR β/δ . Induction by fasting and dietary FA maintained in PPAR α deficient mice.	↑	=	(232,308)
Acetyl-CoA carboxylase (ACC)	ACACA	Lipogenesis	PPARα might indirectly influence ACC and FAS expression by controlling metabolic processes. In human primary	^	?	(220-222)

Fatty acid synthase (FAS)	FASN	Lipogenesis	hepatocytes, PPARα agonists, cooperatively with insulin and LXR agonists, induce FAS and ACC.	↑	?	
Liver X receptor alpha (LXRα)	NR1H3	Cholesterol metabolism	Induction in macrophages upon PPAR α treatment Decreased in livers upon fasting in PPAR α deficient mice.	↑	?	(309,310)
Cholesterol 7α- hydroxylase (Cyp7a1)	СҮР7А	Bile acid metabolism	Functional PPRE was identified. Murine Cyp7A1 species, harbors an additional PPRE. Indirect mechanism involving HNF4α transactivation activity was also reported.	#	?	(228,231,311, 312)
Cholesterol 27α- hydroxylase (Cyp27a1)	CYP27A1	Bile acid metabolism	PPAR α affects the stability of Cyp27a1 mRNA. In rodents, fibrates suppress bile acid biosynthesis via PPAR α -mediated downregulation of Cyp27a.	Ţ	=	(231,310)
Sterol-12a- hydroxylase	CYP8B1	Bile acid metabolism	Functional PPRE identified.	↑	=	(229)
Phosphoenolpyruva te carboxykinase (Pck1)	PKC1	Gluconeogenesis	Elusive regulation mechanism, although a functional PPRE was shown to be functional in adipocytes. PPAR α -mediated Pck1 regulation only observed in human hepatocytes. Induction during fasting reported.	?	?	(232,233,313)
Glycerol-3- phosphate dehydrogenase (GPDH)	GDP	Metabolic conversion of glycerol into glucose	PPARα directly governs glycerol metabolic by directly upregulating expression of these	↑	=	(233)
Glycerol kinase,	GK		genes.			
Glycerol transporters aquaporins 3&9	AQA3&9		Upregulation by fasting only in wild-type mice.			
Pyruvate dehydrogenase kinase isoform 4 (Pdk4)	PDK4	Glucose oxidation	No PPRE yet identified. In wild type PPARα mice, PDK4 expression	?	?	(314,315)

			increased in response to fasting with suppression by refeeding.			
Glycogen synthase 2 (Gys-2)	GYS2	Glycogen synthesis	Functional PPRE identified. Regulation mechanism involving competition between HNF4α and PPARα reported. Gys-2 mRNA reduction is PPARα deficient mice and in fasted and refed state	↑	=	(238)
Lipoprotein lipase	LPL	Hydrolysis of TGs	Functional PPRE identified	↑	=	(48,249,270,2 89)
Angiopoietin-like protein 4	ANGPTL 4	Inhibitor of LPL activity	Increased upon fasting.	↑	=	(256,316)
Rev-erbα	NR1D1	Repressor of gene transcription	Functional PPRE identified. Negative interference with the activation of APOC3 gene promoter by HNF4	↑	?	(47,249,260)
Apolipoprotein AI	APOA1	Plasma HDL Metabolism	In humans, a functional PPRE was identified. In rodents, an indirect mechanism involving the PPAR α -dependent induction of the Rev-erb α was reported.	¥	=	(259,260,317)
Apolipoprotein AII	APOA2	Plasma HDL Metabolism	Functional PPRE identified. Induced APOA2 plasma levels and hepatic mRNA expression in human. Both a marginal reduction and induction upon fibrate treatment observed in rodents.	↑	=	(258,318-320)
Apolipoprotein A- V	APOA5	Plasma TG Metabolism	Functional PPRE identified.	↑	?	(254,255)
Apolipoprotein C- III	APOC3	Plasma HDL Metabolism	Transcriptional suppression by fibrates involves HNF4.	¥	=	(250,253,321)
Heart						

Acyl-CoA oxidase	ACOX	Peroxisomal β- oxidation	Reduced fasting- induced ACOX expression in PPARa-deficient mice.	?	?	(71,210)			
Carnitine palmitoyl- transferase 1	CPT1	Fatty acid transport/oxidati on	Functional PPRE identified. Reduced fasting- induced CPT1 expression in PPAR α deficient mice.	↑	?	(210,322,323)			
Carnitine palmitoyl- transferase 2 (CPT2)	CPT2	Fatty acid oxidation	Functional PPRE identified.	?	?	(281,324)			
Long-chain acyl- CoA synthetase (LCAS)	ACADL	Fatty acid activation	Functional PPRE identified.	?	?	(273,324)			
Medium-chain acyl-CoA dehydrogenase (MCAD)	ACADM	Mitochondrial fatty acid β- oxidation	The fasting- induced activation ACADM expression was abolished in PPARα deficient mice.	?	?	(210,283,324)			
Muscle									
Carnitine palmitoyl- transferase 1	CPT1	Fatty acid transport/oxidati on	Functional PPRE identified	↑	?	(323,325)			
Pyruvate dehydrogenase kinase isoform 4 (Pdk4) (soleus)	PDK4	Glucose oxidation	No PPRE has yet been identified	↑	?	(323,326)			
White adipose tiss	ue								
Fatty acid translocase (FAT/CD36)	CD36	Uptake of long- chain fatty acids and oxidized LDL	Transcriptional mechanism remains unclear.	↑	1	(327)			
Acyl-CoA oxidase	ACOX	Peroxisomal β- oxidation	Functional PPRE identified.	↑	1	(71,327)			
Lipoprotein lipase	LPL	Hydrolysis of TGs	Functional PPRE identified. Basal levels of LPL mRNA were higher in PPARα deficient mice as compared to WT mice.	↑	=	(249,327)			
Glycogen synthase 2 (Gys-2)	GYS2	Glycogen synthesis	Gys-2 mRNA is reduced in PPARα deficient mice.	?	?	(238)			
Small intestine									
Pyruvate dehydrogenase kinase isoform 4 (Pdk4)	PDK4	Glucose oxidation	Intestine-specific regulation of PDK gene transcription by LXR.	?	?	(328)			
Carnitine palmitoyl-	CPT1	FA transport/oxidati	Intestine-specific regulation of CPT1	?	?	(328)			

			by LXR.			
Apolipoprotein C- III)	APOC3	Plasma HDL Metabolism	PPAR α -dependent gene repression by fibrates in <i>vivo</i> .	¥	?	(251,327)
Fatty acid binding protein	FABP	Intracellular lipid trafficking	Reduced FABP mRNA in PPARα deficient mice.	↑	?	(275,327)

Table 5: Selected PPARa target gene. PPARa regulates the expression of its target genes involved in different biological process via distinct mechanisms (more details for some examples are discussed in the text). \uparrow , represents an increase upon fibrate treatment; \downarrow , represents a decrease upon fibrate treatment; =, represents no change upon fibrate treatment; ?, no information available on a change; #, represents conflicting results; WT, wild-type mouse; KO, knockout PPARa mouse.



Figure 1: Schematic of PPARα gene and protein domain structure-function relationship. (A) Schematic of the PPARα gene showing 8 exons. (B) PPARα contains four distinct domains. The amino-terminal A/B domain contains the ligandindependent activation function-1 (AF-1), the C domain consists of a highly conserved DNA-binding domain (DBD), the D domain consists of a variable hinge region and the C terminal E domain includes ligand-binding domain (LBD) and a ligand-dependent activation function-2 (AF-2). Per domain, main functions are listed. Hsp90, Heat shock protein 90; PPRE, PPAR response element.



Figure 2: PPRE-dependent transcription regulation. (A) PPRE-dependent activation. In the absence of specific ligands, PPAR α /RXR heterodimers bind to the PPRE located in the promoter of target genes, or elsewhere in the genome, and recruit corepressor complexes thereby maintaining PPAR α target genes in a silent state (ligand-independent repression). Upon ligand activation, the nuclear corepressors are released and the coactivator complexes are then recruited and bound to PPAR α /RXR α heterodimers, hence inducing expression of target genes involved in several biological processes including glucose and lipid metabolism. (B) The typical DR1 sequence favors PPAR α /RXR α heterodimerization, whereas the switch from PPAR α /RXR to

PPARα/Sirt1 takes place on imperfect DR1s, thereby causing downregulation of many known PPARα target genes mediating FA utilization (56). (C) PPRE-dependent inhibition of NF- κ B transcriptional activity. Upon ligand activation, PPRE-bound PPARα directly interferes with the activity of p65 antagonizing thereby its binding to an NF- κ B-RE in the complement promoter (56). Abbreviations used in the figure: Sirt1; Silent information regulator 1; PPRE, PPAR-response element; RXR, Retinoid X receptor; DR1, Direct repeat1; NF- κ B-RE, NF- κ B response element.



Figure 3: Levels of modulating PPAR α *activity.* PPAR α activity is controlled at several levels including gene expression, protein translation, ligand selectivity, posttranslational modifications affecting receptor stability and cofactor recruitment. Abbreviations used in the figure; Ub, Ubiquitinated; S, SUMOylated; P, Phosphorylated; PPRE, PPAR response element; GSK3, glycogen synthase kinase 3;

AMPK, adenosine monophosphate -activated protein kinase; PKC, protein kinase A; PKA, protein kinase A; PIASy, Protein inhibitor of activated STATy; RXR, retinoid X receptor.



Figure 4: Models of PPARa transrepression activity. (A) PPAR α directly interacts with pro-inflammatory transcription factors such as NF- κ B, AP-1 and STAT to negatively regulate their targets leading to anti-inflammatory effects through a DNA-independent mechanism. (B) Simultaneous ligand-activation of PPAR α and GR leads to the enhanced repression of TNF-induced IL-6 transcriptional activity, likely via a mechanism involving a direct physical interference between PPAR α and GR.

Abbreviations used in the figure; Ub, Ubiquitinated; S, SUMOylated; P, Phosphorylated; PPRE, PPAR response element; GSK3, glycogen synthase kinase 3; AMPK, adenosine monophosphate -activated protein kinase; PKC, protein kinase A; PKA, protein kinase A; PIASy, Protein inhibitor of activated STATy; RXR, retinoid X receptor; C/EBP- β , CAATT/enhancer-binding protein β ; STAT, signal transducer and activator of transcription; AP-1, activator protein-1; NF- κ B, nuclear factor- κ B.



Figure 5: Anti-inflammatory effects of PPARa activation. (A) Effect of human PPARa activation, by various synthetical ligands on inflammatory mediators. (B) Effect of rodent PPARa on inflammatory mediators. Note that for some of these effects, conclusions on an involvement of PPARa were reached by using PPARa -/- mice, in which an aggravated inflammatory effect was observed. Abbreviations used in the figure; hASMCs, human aortic smooth muscle cells; hUVEC, human vascular endothelial cells; COX-2, cyclooxygenase; PG, prostaglandin; VCAM, vascular cell adhesion molecule; MCP-1, Monocyte chemotactic protein-1; VEGFR2, vascular endothelial growth factor receptor-2; CRP, C-reactive protein; IFN- γ , interferon- γ ; APP, acute phase response proteins; LPS, lipopolysaccharide; SAA, serum amyloid A; IL-1ra, IL-1 receptor antagonist; LTB₄, Leukotriene B4; iNOS, inducible nitric oxide synthase.



Figure 6: Stimulatory effects of human and murine PPARa activation on inflammatory mediators. Note here that mostly natural ligands are able to trigger PPARa-dependent pro- inflammatory effects. Abbreviations used in the figure; MCP-1, Monocyte chemotactic protein-1; LPS, lipopolysaccharide; 8(S)-HETE, 8(S)-hydroxyeicosatetraenoic acid; LTB₄, Leukotriene B4; NOS, nitric oxide synthase.