Contents lists available at ScienceDirect







journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/ijcard

Aged garlic extract with supplement is associated with increase in brown adipose, decrease in white adipose tissue and predict lack of progression in coronary atherosclerosis

Naser Ahmadi ^{a, b,*}, Vahid Nabavi ^a, Fereshteh Hajsadeghi ^a, Irfan Zeb ^a, Ferdinand Flores ^a, Ramin Ebrahimi ^b, Matthew Budoff ^a

^a Los Angeles Biomedical Research Institute, Harbor-UCLA Medical Center, Torrance, CA, USA

^b Greater Los Angeles Veterans Administration Medical Center, UCLA-School of Medicine, Los Angeles, CA, USA

ARTICLE INFO

Article history: Received 29 July 2011 Received in revised form 24 November 2012 Accepted 18 January 2013 Available online 1 March 2013

Keywords: White epicardial adipose tissue Coronary artery calcium Aged garlic extract Vascular function

ABSTRACT

Background: Aged garlic extract with supplement (AGE-S) significantly reduces coronary artery calcium (CAC). We evaluated the effects of AGE-S on change in white (wEAT) and brown (bEAT) epicardial adipose tissue, homocysteine and CAC.

Methods: Sixty subjects, randomized to a daily capsule of placebo vs. AGE-S inclusive of aged garlic-extract (250 mg) plus vitamin-B12 (100 μg), folic-acid (300 μg), vitamin-B6 (12.5 mg) and L-arginine (100 mg) underwent CAC, wEAT and bEAT measurements at baseline and 12 months. The postcuff deflation temperature-rebound index of vascular function was assessed using a reactive-hyperemia procedure. Vascular dysfunction was defined according to the tertiles of temperature-rebound at 1 year of follow-up. CAC progression was defined as an annual-increase in CAC>15%.

Results: From baseline to 12 months, there was a strong correlation between increase in wEAT and CAC ($r^2 = 0.54$, p = 0.0001). At 1 year, the risks of CAC progression and increased wEAT and homocysteine were significantly lower in AGE-S to placebo (p < 0.05). Similarly, bEAT and temperature-rebound were significantly higher in AGE-S as compared to placebo (p < 0.05). Strong association between increase in temperature-rebound and bEAT/wEAT ratio ($r^2 = 0.80$, p = 0.001) was noted, which was more robust in AGE-S. Maximum beneficial effect of AGE-S was noted with increase in bEAT/wEAT ratio, temperature-rebound, and lack of progression of homocysteine and CAC.

Conclusions: AGE-S is associated with increase in bEAT/wEAT ratio, reduction of homocysteine and lack of progression of CAC. Increases in bEAT/wEAT ratio correlated strongly with increases in vascular function measured by temperature-rebound and predicted a lack of CAC progression and plaque stabilization in response to AGE-S.

Published by Elsevier Ireland Ltd.

1. Introduction

Increased regional fat distribution plays an important part in the development of an unfavorable metabolic and cardiovascular risk profile [1]. Adipose tissues (AT) are inclusive of two distinct white (WAT) and brown adipose tissues (BAT). AT is a highly metabolically active complex endocrine organ that generates various molecules with profound local and systemic effects [2,3]. The most predominant portion of AT is by far WAT, which functions to store energy in the form of triglyceride-containing intracellular droplets as well as to secrete a host of hormones and cytokines (adipokines) that regulate overall

energy balance by affecting the function of other tissues including the brain, muscle, and liver [4]. The main function of BAT is to burn fat to generate heat [5,6]. Despite their similar qualitative properties, white (WAT) and brown adipose tissues (BAT) are now recognized as having distinct pro-inflammatory and anti-inflammatory functions, respectively [7–9].

Epicardial adipose tissue (EAT) is associated with multiple markers of inflammation, vascular dysfunction and oxidative stress, and is a marker for major cardiovascular events [10,7,11]. We recently reported accurate method to assess WAT and BAT using computed tomography based on Hounsfield units (HU) threshold [12].

Aged garlic extract plus supplement (AGE-S) is associated with a lack of progression of coronary atherosclerosis, improvement of vascular function and favorable effect on oxidative biomarkers [13,14]. However, the relation of AGE-S with metabolically active white (wEAT) and brown epicardial adipose tissue (bEAT) with coronary atherosclerosis is not established [15]. In this randomized study, we evaluate the effects

^{*} Corresponding author at: Los Angeles Biomedical Research Institute, Harbor-UCLA Medical Center, 1124 W. Carson Street, RB2, Torrance, CA 90502, USA. Tel.: +1 310 222 2773; fax: +1 310 787 0448.

E-mail address: ahmadi@ucla.edu (N. Ahmadi).

of AGE-S on change in wEAT and brown bEAT, inflammatory markers, vascular dysfunction and coronary artery calcium (CAC).

2. Methods

Sixty-five asymptomatic participants aged 40–79 years with Framingham risk scores (FRS) [16] of 10–20% and CAC>30,who received chronic statin therapy and were free of clinical coronary artery disease (CAD), were randomized to a daily capsule of either placebo or AGE-S. AGE-S consists of AGE (250 mg), vitamin B6 (12.5 mg), vitamin B12 (100 μ g), folate (300 μ g) and L-arginine (100 mg) (Kyolic 108, Wakunaga Nutritional Supplement, CA, USA).

All subjects received cardio-protective lifestyle education and their digital thermal monitoring (DTM) of vascular function, homocysteine, wEAT, bEAT and CAC were measured at baseline and 12-month follows up, 60 subjects completed the study. Demographics, blood pressure and routine blood work were assessed using standard techniques. The study protocol and consent form were approved by the IRB Committee Board of the Los Angeles Biomedical Research Institute at Harbor UCLA Medical Center, Torrance, CA.

CAC scanning was performed with an E-Speed electron beam scanner (EBCT) (GE-Imatron, South San Francisco, Calif, USA). The coronary arteries were imaged with 30–40 contiguous 3 mm slices during mid-diastole using ECC-triggering during a 15 second breath hold. CAC was considered present in a coronary artery when a density of >130 Hounsfield units (HU) was detected in \geq 3 contiguous pixels (>1 mm²) overlying that coronary artery and was quantified using the previously described Agatston scoring method. CAC progression was defined as annual CAC progression >15% [17].

Total EAT, bEAT and wEAT were measured in axial images starting 15 mm above the superior extent of the left main coronary artery (LM) to the bottom of the heart. Adipose tissue inside pericardial sac was traced manually in each slice and defined epicardial adipose tissue (EAT) [18]. Volume Analysis software (GE Healthcare, Waukesha, WI) was used to discern adipose tissue based on Hounsfield units (HU) threshold of -10 to -190for total EAT, -10 to -87 for bEAT and -88 to -190 for wEAT [12].

Digital thermal mentoring of vascular function was measured in the morning in a quiet, dimmed room at a controlled ambient temperature of 23.5° to 25.0 °C after an overnight fast of 10 h. The measurements were obtained with the subjects in the supine position and after 30 min of rest. Subjects' blood pressure in the control arm was recorded in the sitting position 5 min before the DTM test. DTM of vascular function was obtained during 5 min of stabilization, 5 min of cuff inflation to 50 mm Hg greater than systolic blood pressure, and 5 min of deflation using an automated, operator-independent protocol (VENDYS, Endothelix, Houston, Texas). Thermal changes during the 5-minute arm cuff-induced reactive hyperemia test were monitored continuously in the fingertip using VENDYS software. The device consists of a computer-based thermometry system (0.006 °C thermal resolution) with fingertip resistance temperature detector fast response probes designed to minimize the skin-probe contact area and fingertip pressure that attach to the pulp of the index finger on hand. The system includes a common automated sphygmomanometer cuff, cuff-inflation pump, and release valve to permit noninvasive measurement of the arterial pressure and the control of occlusive hyperemia. Dual-channel temperature data are simultaneously acquired at a 1-Hz sampling rate. Vascular function was measured based on the amount of temperature rebound (TR) in the fingertip during the reactive hyperemia procedure.

2.1. Statistical analysis

All statistical analyses were performed using SAS 9.2 (www.sas.com, Cary, NC) and STATA 12.1(www.stata.com, College Station, Texas). All continuous data are presented as a mean value \pm SD, and all categorical data are reported as a percentage or absolute number. Student's *t* tests and Chi-square tests were used to assess differences between groups. Logistic regression analyses were employed to assess the change in total EAT, bEAT, wEAT, homocysteine, vascular function and coronary atherosclerosis in response to AGE-S. These analyses were adjusted for demographics, age, gender, conventional cardiovascular risk factors, body mass index and statin therapy.

3. Results

Table 1 shows that there were no significant differences between groups in age, gender, and traditional cardiovascular risk factors at baseline. Table 2 demonstrates the baseline, 1-year follow-up and annual change in CAC, homocysteine, temperature rebound, total EAT, bEAT and wEAT. There were no significant differences between groups in CAC, homocysteine, temperature rebound, wEAT, bEAT and total EAT at baseline (p > 0.05). At 1 year, increases in CAC, total and white EAT were significantly lower in AGE-S as compared to placebo (p < 0.05). In addition, temperature rebound, levels of brown EAT and bEAT/wEAT ratio were significantly higher in AGE-S as compared to placebo (p < 0.05). Similarly, levels of homocysteine were significantly lower in AGE-S (p < 0.05) (Table 2).

From baseline to 12 months, there was a strong correlation between increase in wEAT and CAC ($r^2 = 0.54$, p = 0.0001) as demonstrated in

Table 1

Baseline demographic characteristics of study subjects.

Variable	AGE-S	Placebo	р
	n=33	n=32	
Baseline			
Age (years)	60 (8)	61 (10)	0.40
Gender (% male)	26 (79%)	25 (78%)	0.90
Hypertension	18 (55%)	12 (38%)	0.20
Antihypertensive medication (%)	31 (94%)	32 (100)	0.85
Hypercholesterolemia (%)	24 (73%)	26 (81%)	0.20
Diabetes Mellitus (%)	1 (3%)	2 (6%)	0.70
Current smoker (%)	11 (33%)	12 (38%)	0.70
Family History of CAD	21 (64%)	23 (72%)	0.50
Framingham risk score (%)	13 ± 5	15 ± 7	0.7

Fig. 1. The increase in bEAT correlated directly with decreases in homocysteine levels ($r^2 = 0.66$, p = 0.0001). Strong association between increase in temperature rebound and bEAT/wEAT ratio ($r^2 = 0.80$, p = 0.001) was noted, which was more robust in AGE-S (Fig. 2).

Table 3 reveals that the risk of CAC progression was 65% less with AGE-S as compared to placebo (p=0.03). After adjustment for risk factors, the relative risk of each standard deviation increase in total EAT and wEAT was 0.63 (95% CI 0.43–0.90, p=0.02) and 0.43 (95% CI 0.25–0.75, p=0.003) in AGE-S as compared to placebo. The risk of each standard deviation increase in homocysteine was 0.63 (95% CI 0.43–0.91, p=0.01) in AGE-S as compared to placebo. In addition, risk of each standard deviation increase in temperature rebound, bEAT and bEAT/wEAT ratio was 94%, 101% and 189% higher in AGE-S as compared to placebo (p<0.05).

Fig. 3 shows that annual percent CAC increased proportionally with decrease in bEAT/wEAT ratio as well as decrease in temperature rebound (p<0.05). Maximum beneficial effect of AGE-S was noted with increase in bEAT/wEAT ratio, temperature-rebound, and lack of progression of wEAT and CAC. The likelihood ratio of combined lack of progression in CAC and increase in bEAT/wEAT ratio and temperature rebound was 12.82 (95% CI 4.05–41.66, p = 0.0001) in AGE-S as compared to placebo.

4. Discussion

The current study demonstrates that: 1) AGE-S is independently associated with reduction of homocysteine wEAT and progression of CAC, 2) AGE-S is independently associated with increase in bEAT, bEAT/wEAT ratio and temperature rebound, 3) a strong direct relationship between the increase in wEAT and progression of coronary atherosclerosis exists, and 4) increase in bEAT and bEAT/wEAT ratio was associated with increases in vascular function measured by temperature rebound, similar to previous studies which increase in temperature rebound has been associated with evidence of concomitant removal of OxPL from the vessel wall and plaque stabilization in animal models, and predicted lack of progression of CAC [19].

Progression of CAC, measured by cardiac CT, is a marker of cardiovascular prognosis even after adjustment for the extent of baseline CAC [17]. Previous studies have shown that the progression of CAC, defined as clinically significant when the rate of change exceeds 15% per year based upon clinical outcomes studies, may provide incremental prognostic information beyond that provided by the baseline calcium score itself [17]. We recently reported that EAT is independently associated with the presence and severity of CAC after adjustment for age, gender, BMI, and cardiovascular risk factors [18]. Ding et al. [20] showed that there is an independent association of EAT with incident coronary artery disease in 998 participants of the Multiethnic Study of Atherosclerosis. Increases in total EAT is associated with increased inflammation, insulin resistance, dyslipidemia, obesity, cardiovascular risk factors, metabolic dysfunction, and coronary atherosclerosis [21].

Table 2

Baseline, 1	l-year follow-u	p and annual chang	ge in different adi	pose tissues, tem	perature rebound, ho	omocysteine and o	coronary artery	calcium.
-------------	-----------------	--------------------	---------------------	-------------------	----------------------	-------------------	-----------------	----------

Variable	Baseline			1-year follow up			Annual absolute change		
	AGE-S	Placebo	р	AGE-S	Placebo	р	AGE-S	Placebo	р
CAC (AJ)	291 ± 50	347 ± 67	0.3	311 ± 48	439 ± 77	0.03	22 ± 18	62 ± 43	0.005
Total EAT (cc)	118 ± 30	110 ± 20	0.6	127 ± 41	135 ± 48	0.04	11 ± 8	21 ± 7	0.01
wEAT (cc)	79 ± 45	77 ± 33	0.8	83.8 ± 25.9	100.9 ± 29.6	0.001	4.7 ± 16.6	24.5 ± 12.9	0.0001
bEAT (cc)	38 ± 15	36 ± 13	0.5	43.4 ± 15.9	33.7 ± 13.89	0.001	4.5 ± 3.4	-2.8 ± 2.4	0.0001
bEAT/wEAT ratio	$48\pm18\%$	$52\pm21\%$	0.3	$60\pm19\%$	$39\pm20\%$	0.001	$125\pm38\%$	$-11 \pm 20\%$	0.0001
Temperature rebound	0.57 ± 0.2	0.56 ± 0.15	0.9	1.36 ± 0.2	0.71 ± 0.2	0.04	0.79 ± 0.2	0.10 ± 0.2	0.001
Homocysteine, mg/dL	10.1 ± 2.4	10.7 ± 2.2	0.3	8.3 ± 2.7	10.6 ± 2.6	0.02	-1.7 ± 2.5	-0.2 ± 2.4	0.004

The current study showed that AGE-S is associated with decrease in progression of EAT and CAC, also revealed significant direct correlation between change in wEAT and CAC.

Unlike WAT which is associated with increase in metabolic disease, obesity and cardiovascular diseases, expansion of BAT resulted in opposite effects on body weight and metabolism [22]. In which, brown adipose tissue (BAT) is inversely associated with obesity and metabolic disease [23]. In rodent models several pharmacological approaches which increase BAT activity, have been proven to effectively prevent obesity, facilitate weight reduction, and ameliorate insulin resistance [24]. Brown fat cells could derive from direct conversion of white adipocytes [25–27]. In response to cold, appearance of brown fat cells is observed in mouse visceral WAT [1]. The study of modified human subcutaneous white adipocytes to express human PPARy coactivator 1α (PGC- 1α), as opposed to intact white adipocytes with low expression of low levels of PGC-1 α , demonstrated an increase in the capacity of fatty acid oxidation as well as expressed higher level of nuclear receptor, peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor α (PPAR α), in modified white adipocytes similar to BAT [28–31]. Previous studies revealed that PPAR α is involved in the remodeling of WAT of mice treated with a β 3-adrenergic agonist with appearance of brown fat-like adipocytes [32]. The current study reconfirms previous studies



Fig. 1. Aged garlic extract plus supplement is associated with significant decrease in the progression of coronary artery calcium and epicardial adipose tissue (EAT), especially white EAT.

and demonstrates increase in brown to white epicardial adipose tissue in response to AGE-S.

Previous studies have demonstrated that impaired vascular function is associated with higher risk of subsequent atherosclerotic cardiovascular disease events [33]. Similarly, several studies have demonstrated strong correlations between vascular dysfunction and cardiovascular risk factors and CAC [34,35]. Nevertheless, there is considerable heterogeneity in the magnitude of vascular dysfunction in individuals with similar risk factor profiles [36]. In this regard, vascular dysfunction may be seen as an important "integrative factor" of the inherent atherosclerotic risk of an individual which takes into account the cumulative effects of various risk and protective factors [36]. In addition to risk assessment for prediction of clinical outcomes measures of vascular function may be used to evaluate response to therapies [37,38].

We recently reported that increases in CAC were inversely correlated with the increases in vascular function and OxPL/apoB and Lp (a) levels in response to AGE [14]. The findings of the current study reveal direct correlation between changes in bEAT/wEAT ratio with increase of vascular function in response to AGE-S. These salutary effects have been associated with evidence of concomitant removal of oxidized phospholipids from the vessel wall and the stabilization of atherosclerosis [39], as well as positive changes in bEAT/wEAT ratio [40], and correlate strongly with increases in vascular function and regression in the burden of atherosclerosis [14].



Fig. 2. Aged garlic extract plus supplement is associated with significant increase in temperature rebound and brown to white epicardial adipose tissue ratio.

Table 3

The effect of AGE-S on various epicardial adipose tissues, temperature rebound, homocysteine and coronary atherosclerosis.

Model	Placebo	Aged garlic extract OR (95% CI)	р
CAC progression [†]	1.0 (Ref)	0.35 (0.1-0.85)	0.03
Increased tEAT [△]	1.0 (Ref)	0.63 (0.43-0.90)	0.02
Increased wEAT ^{Δ}	1.0 (Ref)	0.43 (0.25-0.75)	0.003
Increased bEAT [△]	1.0 (Ref)	2.01 (1.24-3.45)	0.001
Increased bEAT/wEAT [△]	1.0 (Ref)	2.89 (1.67-4.98)	0.0001
Increased temperature rebound [△]	1.0 (Ref)	1.94 (1.32-2.84)	0.001
Increased homocysteine $^{\Delta}$	1.0 (Ref)	0.63 (0.43-0.91)	0.01

Logistic regression analysis.

Adjusted for age, gender, diabetes mellitus, hypertension, hypercholesterolemia, family history of CHD, smoking status, statin therapy and BMI.

[†] Relative risk of CAC progression (increase in CAC \geq 15%/year).

^Δ Relative risk of each standard deviation increase in total (tEAT), brown (bEAT) and white epicardial adipose tissue (wEAT) as well as temperature rebound and homocysteine.

Hyperhomocysteinemia is associated with insulin resistance and endothelial cell injury through the induction of resistin expression and secretion from adipocytes via the activation of the reactive oxygen species, protein kinase C, and nuclear factor kappaB pathway [41–43]. Furthermore, aggregation of lipoproteins complexed with homocysteinylated and oxidized lipoproteins, and lipoprotein autoantibodies in areas of high tissue pressure, causing ischemia, vascular dysfunction and plaque vulnerability [44]. This study confirms previous studies and provided evidence of linkage of increase in bEAT/wEAT ratio and increase in vascular function with decrease in inflammation measured by homocysteine in response to AGE-S which predicts lack of CAC progression and plaque stabilization.

5. Limitations

This study has several limitations. The study sample size was small; however this study clearly demonstrates the beneficial effects of AGE-S on total EAT, wEAT, bEAT and inflammatory biomarkers and CAC progression. Further studies are needed to assess the long-term effect of AGE-S on different adipose tissues on major adverse cardiovascular events (MACE).



Fig. 3. Annual percent coronary artery calcium increased proportionally with decrease in brown to white epicardial adipose tissue ratio as well as increase in temperature rebound.

6. Conclusion

AGE-S is associated with reduction of homocysteine, wEAT and progression of CAC. Additionally, increases in bEAT/wEAT ratio in response to AGE-S were directly correlated with the increase in vascular function measures by temperature rebound and decrease in homocysteine, and were associated with the lack of CAC progression; highlighting the important role of conversion of wEAT to bEAT with improvement of vascular function and lack of progression of CAC.

References

- Young P, Arch JR, Ashwell M. Brown adipose tissue in the parametrial fat pad of the mouse. FEBS Lett 1984;167:10–4.
- [2] Tiraby C, Langin D. Conversion from white to brown adipocytes: a strategy for the control of fat mass? Trends Endocrinol Metab 2003;14:439–41.
- [3] Tilg H, Moschen AR. Adipocytokines: mediators linking adipose tissue, inflammation and immunity. Nat Rev Immunol 2006;6:772–83.
- [4] Gesta S, Tseng YH, Kahn CR. Developmental origin of fat: tracking obesity to its source. Cell 2007;131:242–56.
- [5] Cannon B, Nedergaard J. Brown adipose tissue: function and physiological significance. Physiol Rev 2004;84:277–359.
- [6] Farmer SR. Molecular determinants of brown adipocyte formation and function. Genes Dev 2008;22:1269–75.
- [7] Jeong JW, Jeong MH, Yun KH, et al. Echocardiographic epicardial fat thickness and coronary artery disease. Circ J 2007;71:536–9.
- [8] Maurovich-Horvat P, Massaro J, Fox CS, Moselewski F, O'Donnell CJ, Hoffmann U. Comparison of anthropometric, area- and volume-based assessment of abdominal subcutaneous and visceral adipose tissue volumes using multi-detector computed tomography. Int J Obes (Lond) 2007;31:500–6.
- [9] Iacobellis G, Barbaro G. The double role of epicardial adipose tissue as pro- and anti-inflammatory organ. Horm Metab Res 2008;40:442-5.
- [10] Fain JN, Madan AK, Hiler ML, Cheema P, Bahouth SW. Comparison of the release of adipokines by adipose tissue, adipose tissue matrix, and adipocytes from visceral and subcutaneous abdominal adipose tissues of obese humans. Endocrinology 2004;145:2273–82.
- [11] Taguchi R, Takasu J, Itani Y, et al. Pericardial fat accumulation in men as a risk factor for coronary artery disease. Atherosclerosis 2001;157:203–9.
- [12] Ahmadi NHF, Budoff M, Brent G, Ebrahimi R. Accurate detection of metabolically active "brown" adipose tissue with computed tomography. J Am Coll Cardiol 2012;59(13s1):E1343.
- [13] Budoff MJ, Ahmadi N, Gul KM, et al. Aged garlic extract supplemented with B vitamins, folic acid and L-arginine retards the progression of subclinical atherosclerosis: a randomized clinical trial. Prev Med 2009;49:101–7.
- [14] Ahmadi N, Tsimikas S, Hajsadeghi F, et al. Relation of oxidative biomarkers, vascular dysfunction, and progression of coronary artery calcium. Am J Cardiol 2010;105: 459–66.
- [15] Tsimikas S. In vivo markers of oxidative stress and therapeutic interventions. Am J Cardiol 2008;101:34D–42D.
- [16] Wilson PW, D'Agostino RB, Levy D, Belanger AM, Silbershatz H, Kannel WB. Prediction of coronary heart disease using risk factor categories. Circulation 1998;97:1837–47.
- [17] Raggi P, Callister TQ, Shaw LJ. Progression of coronary artery calcium and risk of first myocardial infarction in patients receiving cholesterol-lowering therapy. Arterioscler Thromb Vasc Biol 2004;24:1272–7.
- [18] Ahmadi N, Nabavi V, Yang E, et al. Increased epicardial, pericardial, and subcutaneous adipose tissue is associated with the presence and severity of coronary artery calcium. Acad Radiol 2010;17:1518–24.
- [19] Tsimikas S, Aikawa M, Miller Jr FJ, Miller ER, Torzewski M, Lentz SR, Bergmark C, Heistad DD, Libby P, Witztum JL. Increased plasma oxidized phospholipid: apolipoprotein B-100 ratio with concomitant depletion of oxidized phospholipids from atherosclerotic lesions after dietary lipid-lowering: a potential biomarker of early atherosclerosis regression. Arterioscler Thromb Vasc Biol 2007;27:175–81.
- [20] Ding J, Hsu FC, Harris TB, et al. The association of pericardial fat with incident coronary heart disease: the Multi-Ethnic Study of Atherosclerosis (MESA). Am J Clin Nutr 2009;90:499–504.
- [21] Kiechl S, Willeit J, Mayr M, et al. Oxidized phospholipids, lipoprotein(a), lipoprotein-associated phospholipase A2 activity, and 10-year cardiovascular outcomes: prospective results from the Bruneck study. Arterioscler Thromb Vasc Biol 2007;27:1788–95.
- [22] Kershaw EE, Flier JS. Adipose tissue as an endocrine organ. J Clin Endocrinol Metab 2004;89:2548–56.
- [23] Kopecky J, Clarke G, Enerback S, Spiegelman B, Kozak LP. Expression of the mitochondrial uncoupling protein gene from the aP2 gene promoter prevents genetic obesity. J Clin Invest 1995;96:2914–23.
- [24] Ghorbani M, Himms-Hagen J. Appearance of brown adipocytes in white adipose tissue during CL 316,243-induced reversal of obesity and diabetes in Zucker fa/fa rats. Int J Obes Relat Metab Disord 1997;21:465–75.
- [25] Granneman JG, Li P, Zhu Z, Lu Y. Metabolic and cellular plasticity in white adipose tissue I: effects of beta3-adrenergic receptor activation. Am J Physiol Endocrinol Metab 2005;289:E608–16.
- [26] Himms-Hagen J, Melnyk A, Zingaretti MC, Ceresi E, Barbatelli G, Cinti S. Multilocular fat cells in WAT of CL-316243-treated rats derive directly from white adipocytes. Am J Physiol Cell Physiol 2000;279:C670–81.

- [27] Loncar D. Convertible adipose tissue in mice. Cell Tissue Res 1991;266:149-61.
- [28] Larrouy D, Vidal H, Andreelli F, Laville M, Langin D. Cloning and mRNA tissue distribution of human PPARgamma coactivator-1. Int J Obes Relat Metab Disord 1999;23:1327–32.
- [29] Mazzucotelli A, Viguerie N, Tiraby C, et al. The transcriptional coactivator peroxisome proliferator activated receptor (PPAR)gamma coactivator-1 alpha and the nuclear receptor PPAR alpha control the expression of glycerol kinase and metabolism genes independently of PPAR gamma activation in human white adipocytes. Diabetes 2007;56:2467-75.
- [30] Tiraby C, Tavernier G, Lefort C, et al. Acquirement of brown fat cell features by human white adipocytes. J Biol Chem 2003;278:33370–6.
- [31] Ryall RL, Goldrick RB. Glycerokinase in human adipose tissue. Lipids 1977;12:272–7.
 [32] Li P, Zhu Z, Lu Y, Granneman JG. Metabolic and cellular plasticity in white adipose
- tissue II: role of peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor-alpha. Am J Physiol Endocrinol Metab 2005;289:E617-26.
- [33] Yeboah J, Crouse JR, Hsu FC, Burke GL, Herrington DM. Brachial flow-mediated dilation predicts incident cardiovascular events in older adults: the Cardiovascular Health Study. Circulation 2007;115:2390–7.
- [34] Kirma C, Akcakoyun M, Esen AM, et al. Relationship between endothelial function and coronary risk factors in patients with stable coronary artery disease. Circ J 2007;71: 698–702.
- [35] Quyyumi AA. Prognostic value of endothelial function. Am J Cardiol 2003;91: 19H-24H.
- [36] Halcox JP, Schenke WH, Zalos G, et al. Prognostic value of coronary vascular endothelial dysfunction. Circulation 2002;106:653–8.

- [37] Minson CT, Wong BJ. Reactive hyperemia as a test of endothelial or microvascular function? J Am Coll Cardiol 2004;43:2147 [author reply -8].
- [38] Binggeli C, Spieker LE, Corti R, et al. Statins enhance postischemic hyperemia in the skin circulation of hypercholesterolemic patients: a monitoring test of endothelial dysfunction for clinical practice? J Am Coll Cardiol 2003;42:71–7.
- [39] Fraley AE, Schwartz GG, Olsson AG, et al. Relationship of oxidized phospholipids and biomarkers of oxidized low-density lipoprotein with cardiovascular risk factors, inflammatory biomarkers, and effect of statin therapy in patients with acute coronary syndromes: results from the MIRACL (Myocardial Ischemia Reduction with Aggressive Cholesterol Lowering) trial. J Am Coll Cardiol 2009;53:2186–96.
- [40] Fisher FM, Kleiner S, Douris N, et al. FGF21 regulates PGC-1alpha and browning of white adipose tissues in adaptive thermogenesis. Genes Dev 2012;26:271-81.
- [41] Li Y, Jiang C, Xu G, et al. Homocysteine upregulates resistin production from adipocytes in vivo and in vitro. Diabetes 2008;57:817–27.
- [42] Chen Z, Li CS, Zhang J, Pang BS, Xia CQ, Liu XF. Relationship between endothelial dysfunction and serum homocysteine in patients with coronary lesions. Chin Med Sci J 2005;20:63–6.
- [43] Held C, Sumner G, Sheridan P, et al. Correlations between plasma homocysteine and folate concentrations and carotid atherosclerosis in high-risk individuals: baseline data from the Homocysteine and Atherosclerosis Reduction Trial (HART). Vasc Med 2008;13:245–53.
- [44] McCully KS. Chemical pathology of homocysteine. V. Thioretinamide, thioretinaco, and cystathionine synthase function in degenerative diseases. Ann Clin Lab Sci 2011;41: 301–14.