

Activation of Peripheral Blood CD14⁺ Monocytes Occurs in Diabetes

Christine Cipolletta,¹ Kathryn E. Ryan,² Elinor V. Hanna,² and Elisabeth R. Trimble^{1,2}

Blood levels of inflammatory markers associated with endothelial dysfunction and atherosclerosis are increased in diabetic patients; the highest levels occur in poorly controlled diabetes. We investigated the activation state of peripheral blood monocytes in diabetes with respect to scavenger receptor (CD36) expression and monocyte chemoattractant protein-1, intracellular adhesion molecule-1, vascular cell adhesion molecule-1, and peroxisome proliferator-activated receptors mRNA expression. CD14⁺ monocytes were isolated from peripheral blood of type 1 and type 2 diabetic patients with good (HbA_{1c} <7.0%) or poor (>9.4%) glycemic control and a group of nondiabetic subjects. Monocytes from diabetic subjects displayed increased CD36 cell surface expression ($P < 0.0005$) and increased uptake of oxidized LDL ($P < 0.05$). Monocyte chemoattractant protein-1 gene expression was increased in monocytes from both groups of diabetic subjects ($P < 0.05$). Both CD68 and peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor- γ gene expression were increased in the poorly controlled diabetic group ($P < 0.05$ for each), whose monocytes also displayed increased attachment to endothelial monolayers ($P < 0.0005$ vs. nondiabetic control subjects). In poorly controlled diabetes, CD14⁺ monocytes are functionally activated and show some of the differentiation markers associated with macrophages. These monocytes also demonstrate an increased ability for attachment to normal endothelial cells, one of the early stages in atherogenesis. *Diabetes* 54:2779–2786, 2005

It has become clear that inflammatory processes play a major role in atherogenesis and that the endothelium is intimately involved at all stages of atheroma formation. With this has come a major change in our understanding of the function of the endothelium as a diffuse organ, involved in prevention of thrombosis and in modulation of both relaxation and contraction of the blood vessels (1,2). Raised levels of the inflammatory marker C-reactive protein (CRP) are associated with altered endothelial function and arterial stiffness in healthy individuals (3,4) and are predictive of future coronary heart disease in healthy middle-aged men (5). Views on the importance of inflammatory markers have progressed to the extent that it has been suggested by some that CRP is a stronger predictor of first cardiovascular events than LDL cholesterol (6); however, others suggest a more cautious interpretation of available data (7). In vitro studies have shown that CRP induces endothelial cells to produce the inflammatory cytokine interleukin-6 (IL-6), which, at least in part, is responsible for upregulation of vascular cell adhesion molecule-1 (VCAM-1) and intracellular adhesion molecule-1 (ICAM-1) (8). CRP also induces production of monocyte chemoattractant protein-1 (MCP-1) by both endothelial (8) and vascular smooth muscle (9) cells; MCP-1 enhances the movement of mononuclear cells into the subendothelial space.

Although a great deal has been published on vessel wall stiffness and the prevalence of inflammatory markers in association with endothelial dysfunction, very little attention has been paid to the state of the peripheral blood monocyte in diseases associated with atherosclerosis. Usually the monocyte develops into the mature macrophage within the subendothelial space, and it is here that upregulation of scavenger receptors occurs, equipping the macrophage to bind and take up oxidized LDL (oxLDL) (10). However, it is possible that maturation of monocytes could take place in any location where the conditions were permissive.

In diabetes, there is a substantially increased risk of vascular disease (11). Inflammatory markers have been found to be predictive of coronary heart disease (12) and even of type 2 diabetes itself (12,13). Many of the inflammatory markers now associated with atherosclerosis are found in diabetes at higher levels than in the nondiabetic population. There are raised levels of CRP and IL-6 in type 1 (14) and type 2 (15) diabetes; this is also the case for

From the ¹Department of Clinical Biochemistry and Metabolic Medicine, Queen's University, Belfast, U.K.; and the ²Royal Group of Hospitals, Belfast, U.K.

Address correspondence and reprint requests to Christine Cipolletta, Department of Clinical Biochemistry and Metabolic Medicine, Queen's University Belfast, Institute of Clinical Science A, Grosvenor Road, Belfast BT12 6BJ, U.K. E-mail: ccipollettadaly@yahoo.fr or e.trimble@gub.ac.uk

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15d-PGJ2, 15-deoxy- δ 12, 14 prostaglandin J2; AGE, advanced glycation end product; CMFDA, 5-chloromethylfluorescein diacetate; CRP, C-reactive protein; DiI, 1,1'-dioctadecyl-3,3',3'-tetramethyl-indocarbocyanine perchlorate; HAoEC, human aortic endothelial cell; ICAM-1, intracellular adhesion molecule-1; IL-6, interleukin-6; MCP-1, monocyte chemoattractant protein-1; oxLDL, oxidized LDL; VCAM-1, vascular cell adhesion molecule-1.

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TABLE 1
Characteristics of the subject groups

Characteristic	NDC	WCD	PCD
<i>n</i>	13	25	27
Age (years)	51.8 ± 7.9	58.2 ± 16.8*	50.6 ± 16.1†
Sex (male/female)	7/5	16/9	12/15
Ratio of type 1 to type 2 diabetic patients	–	7:16	14:13‡
Duration of diabetes (years)	–	12.4 ± 12.7	16.0 ± 11.9
A1C (%)	ND	6.01 ± 0.60	10.11 ± 0.76
BMI (kg/m ²)	25.0 ± 3.4	28.7 ± 4.8§	29.5 ± 8.9
Systolic blood pressure (mmHg)	125 ± 5	136 ± 15†	134 ± 22¶
Diastolic blood pressure (mmHg)	75 ± 6	77 ± 9	79 ± 8
Total cholesterol (mmol/l)	5.17 ± 0.65	4.81 ± 1.15	5.14 ± 1.10
LDL cholesterol (mmol/l)	3.15 ± 0.61	2.59 ± 1.07	2.89 ± 0.90
HDL cholesterol (mmol/l)	1.54 ± 0.31	1.44 ± 0.47	1.30 ± 0.36
Family history of diabetes (<i>n</i>)	4	12	12
Current smoker (<i>n</i>)	0	4	2
Vascular complications			
Microvascular (<i>n</i>)	0	5	11
Macrovascular (<i>n</i>)	0	1	2

Data are means ± SD unless otherwise indicated. NDC, nondiabetic subjects; WCD, well-controlled diabetic patients; PCD, poorly controlled diabetic patients. **P* = 0.0143 vs. NDC. †*P* = 0.0279 vs. WCD. ‡One type 2 diabetic subject in the poorly controlled group was GAD antibody positive. §*P* = 0.0249 vs. NDC. ¶*P* = 0.0078 vs. NDC. ||*P* = 0.0007 vs. NDC.

MCP-1 levels in both type 1 (16) and type 2 (17) diabetes. Not surprisingly, endothelial dysfunction occurs in diabetes (2). However, in addition to this, many of the conditions usually thought to induce activation/maturation of the monocyte/macrophage and uptake of oxLDL in the subendothelial space are present within the peripheral circulation in diabetes. First, many of the molecules associated with upregulation of the scavenger receptor, CD36, are raised in the blood in diabetes; these include oxLDL (18), advanced glycation end products (AGEs) (19), IL-6 (20), and MCP-1 (21) [rev. in 22]. Second, oxLDL is found in the circulation in diabetes (23,24) and thus may be available for uptake if scavenger receptors are present.

The purpose of this project was 1) to investigate whether upregulation of the CD36 scavenger receptor occurs in peripheral blood CD14⁺ monocytes in diabetes and whether this is influenced by the state of glycemic control and 2) to determine whether glycemic control affects the function of these monocytes with respect to uptake of oxLDL and endothelial cell attachment.

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODS

After local ethical committee approval and written informed consent, patients with type 1 and type 2 diabetes and nondiabetic subjects were recruited. Patients with diabetes were selected according to their level of HbA_{1c} (A1C) from the routine diabetic outpatient clinic; those with A1C values of 5.4–7.0% were considered to be well controlled, whereas those with A1C values of 9.4–11.5% were classified as poorly controlled. Patients taking vitamin supplements, antioxidants, thiazolidinediones, hydroxymethylglutaryl-CoA reductase inhibitors, or fibrates drugs were excluded. Patient characteristics are described in Table 1. Healthy control subjects were taking none of the drug groups listed above.

Monocyte isolation. Human venous blood was collected in a lithium heparin tube and processed within 1–2 h. CD14⁺ monocytes were isolated directly from total blood with a magnetic activated cell sorting system (AutoMACS; Miltenyi Biotech) using microbeads coated with CD14 antibody (MACS CD14 MicroBeads; Miltenyi Biotech). Briefly, 5 ml of blood was incubated with CD14 microbeads (250 μl) at 4°C for 15 min. Then the blood sample was diluted with 5 ml of FACSflow buffer and centrifuged (10 min, 2,000 rpm) at room temperature. The supernatant was carefully removed, and the cell pellet was diluted with FACSflow buffer. The cell suspension was then run on the AutoMACS system, and purified CD14⁺ monocytes were isolated by positive selection. The positive cells were at least 90% CD14⁺, as measured by flow

cytometry. Percentage of monocyte recovery was 85.6 ± 4.7%, 95.5 ± 1.4%, and 95.1 ± 1.5% in the nondiabetic control, well-controlled diabetic patient, and poorly controlled diabetic patient groups, respectively; of these, 93.8 ± 1.5%, 91.0 ± 1.7%, and 91.9 ± 1.2% were CD14⁺, respectively; no significant difference was observed among the three groups.

Quantification of CD36 expression on monocytes. Fluorescein isothiocyanate–conjugated CD14 antibody was used to identify monocytes, and the anti-CD36 antibody was conjugated to phycoerythrin. Fluorescein isothiocyanate–conjugated mouse IgG1 and phycoerythrin-conjugated mouse IgM were used as isotype-matched negative controls. Staining and flow cytometric analysis of freshly obtained monocytes were carried out by standard procedures, using a Coulter Epics Elite flow cytometer equipped with an argon ion laser.

Briefly, 200 μl of monocyte suspension was incubated for 15 min with 5.0 μl of appropriately diluted monoclonal antibody at 4°C, in the dark. Cells were then washed once with 1 ml PBS containing 2% human serum and centrifuged (5 min, 1,000 rpm). Stained cells were fixed with 2% paraformaldehyde and stored at 4–8°C until data acquisition by flow cytometry on a Beckman Coulter Epics Elite flow cytometer.

Lipoprotein labeling. LDL (Calbiochem) was labeled with the fluorescent probe 1,1'-dioctadecyl-3,3,3',3'-tetramethyl-indocarbocyanine perchlorate (DiI; Molecular Probes). Briefly, 300 μg of the fluorescent probe DiI was added to 1 mg of LDL protein. The mixture was then incubated at 37°C for 18 h, protected from light. The DiI-labeled LDL was reisolated by ultracentrifugation (100,000 rpm for 1 h) at *d* = 1.060 g/ml and extensively dialyzed against 5 mmol/l Tris, 154 mmol/l NaCl, and 0.1 g/l EDTA, pH 7.4, at 4°C. DiI-labeled LDL (1 mg) was oxidized in a solution of CuCl₂ (10 μmol/l) for 24 h at 37°C. All lipoprotein preparations were stored at 4°C in sterile containers after filtration sterilization (25,26).

DiI-OxLDL uptake. After isolation on the AutoMACS system, monocytes were seeded into a 24-well plate and incubated in RPMI-1640 (Sigma) containing 5% lipoprotein-deficient human serum, L-glutamine (2 mmol/l), streptomycin (100 μg/ml), penicillin (100 IU/ml), nonessential amino acids (2 mmol/l), D-glucose (5 mmol/l), and DiI-OxLDL (50 μg/ml) to quantify the scavenger receptor activity. Blocking of CD36 receptor activity was achieved by preincubating with anti-CD36 monoclonal antibody SMO (20 μg/ml, Sigma) for 10 min. Monocytes were incubated at 37 or 4°C for 4 h. At the end of the incubation period, the cells were transferred into polypropylene centrifuge tubes and washed twice with PBS containing 0.4% BSA and 0.25 g/l EDTA and twice with PBS/EDTA alone. After each wash, cells were centrifuged at 690 × *g* for 5 min and resuspended in 5 ml of the buffer. The centrifuge tubes were changed before the last wash to reduce contamination with free DiI-OxLDL adhering to the plastic. After the last centrifugation (2,750 × *g*; 5 min), the buffer was removed, and 1 ml of cell lysis reagent (1 g/l SDS and 0.1 mol/l NaOH) was added to the cell pellet. Cells were then incubated under gentle shaking for 1 h at room temperature. Fluorescence was measured in duplicates of 200 μl of the lysate on black plates with excitation and emission wavelengths set at 520 and 580 nm, respectively (25,26). Cellular protein

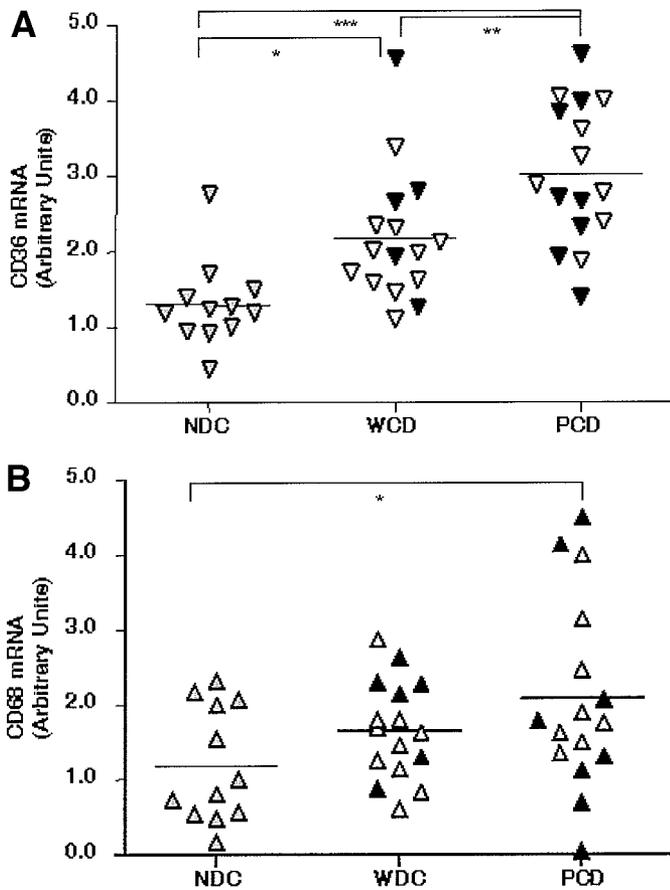


FIG. 2. CD36 and CD68 mRNA expression. Expression of CD36 mRNA (A) and expression of CD68 mRNA (B) in CD14⁺ monocytes from control subjects (NDC), well-controlled diabetic patients (WCD), and poorly controlled diabetic patients (PCD). ∇ , patients with type 2 diabetes; \blacktriangle , patients with type 1 diabetes; and \triangle , control subjects. The mRNA level was quantified using real-time RT-PCR; $n = 12$ (NDC), $n = 16$ (WCD), $n = 16$ (PCD). * $P < 0.05$; *** $P < 0.005$; **** $P < 0.0005$.

was significant in poorly controlled patients compared with nondiabetic control subjects, 2.09 vs. 1.20 arbitrary units (AU) ($P = 0.0257$) (Fig. 2B), although there was variability within the group; CD68 was not significantly increased in well-controlled patients compared with nondiabetic control subjects, 1.66 vs. 1.20 AU ($P = 0.4785$). There was no difference between type 1 and type 2 diabetic subjects ($P = 0.908$).

LDL receptor mRNA. Because no significant difference was found among the LDL cholesterol levels of the three groups, it was not surprising that no significant difference was found in LDL receptor mRNA expression among the groups studied. LDL receptor mRNA expression was 1.10 ± 0.28 , 0.70 ± 0.25 , and 0.96 ± 0.37 AU in nondiabetic control subjects, well-controlled diabetic patients, and poorly controlled diabetic patients, respectively.

DiI-OxLDL uptake by freshly isolated circulating monocytes. To determine whether the scavenger receptor CD36 expressed at the surface of the freshly isolated circulating monocytes was fully functional, we assessed the uptake or internalization of fluorescently labeled oxLDL, DiI-OxLDL. Freshly isolated monocytes were able to internalize DiI-OxLDL (Fig. 3A). DiI-OxLDL uptake was increased by 243% ($P = 0.0023$) and 433% ($P = 0.0002$) in circulating monocytes from well-controlled diabetic pa-

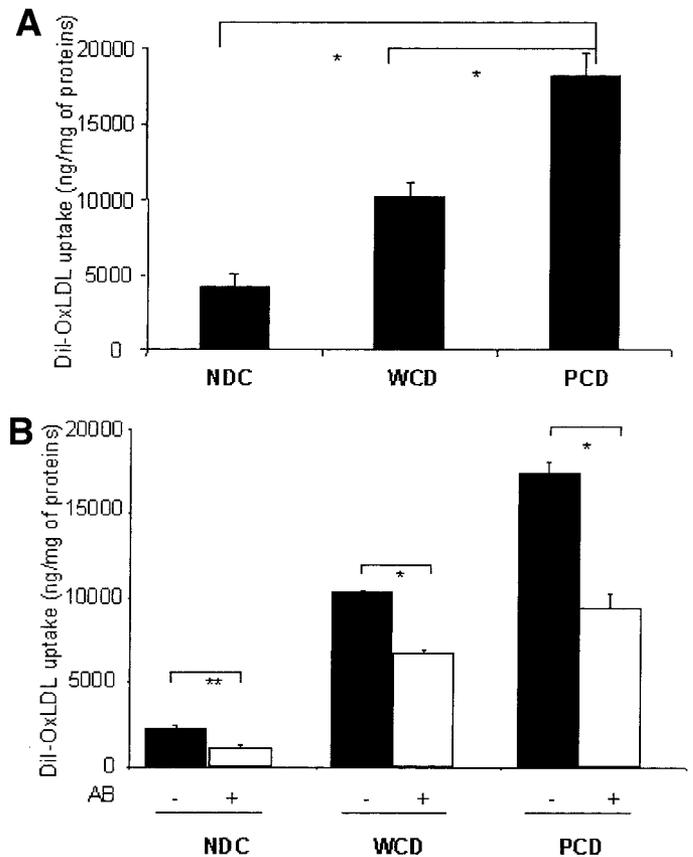


FIG. 3. DiI-OxLDL uptake by CD14⁺ circulating monocytes. CD14⁺ monocytes from control subjects (NDC), well-controlled diabetic patients (WCD), and poorly controlled diabetic patients (PCD) were incubated in presence of DiI-OxLDL (50 μ g/ml) alone (A) or with an anti-CD36 monoclonal antibody (20 μ g/ml) (B) for 4 h at 4°C or 37°C. After washes and lysis of the cells, DiI-OxLDL uptake was assessed by spectrofluorimetry (excitation, 520 nm; emission, 580 nm). Data are expressed as means \pm SE. For the DiI-OxLDL uptake experiments, $n = 7$ (NDC), $n = 7$ (WCD), $n = 9$ (PCD); * $P < 0.05$, ** $P < 0.005$. For the DiI-OxLDL uptake in presence of anti-CD36 monoclonal antibody, three samples per group were analyzed.

tients and from poorly controlled diabetic patients, respectively, compared with nondiabetic subjects. However, this effect was only significant in poorly controlled patients (Fig. 3A). Addition of a specific antibody blocking the ligand-binding domain of CD36 reduced the uptake of DiI-OxLDL by 49% ($P = 0.0079$), 34% ($P = 0.0262$), and 48% ($P = 0.0252$) in monocytes from nondiabetic control subjects, well-controlled diabetic patients, and poorly controlled diabetic patients, respectively (Fig. 3B).

Expression of atherosclerotic markers (MCP-1, ICAM-1, and VCAM-1) mRNA in circulating monocytes. To understand the mechanisms and genes involved in the upregulation of CD36 expression in monocytes from poorly controlled diabetic patients, we assessed the gene expression of different proinflammatory mediators such as MCP-1 and adhesion molecules (ICAM-1 and VCAM-1).

MCP-1 gene expression was significantly increased in monocytes from subjects with diabetes. MCP-1 expression was increased by 237% (3.59 vs. 1.51 AU; $P = 0.0488$) and by 278% (4.20 vs. 1.51 AU; $P = 0.0143$) in monocytes from well-controlled diabetic patients and monocytes from poorly controlled diabetic patients, respectively, compared with the nondiabetic control group (Fig. 4A); there

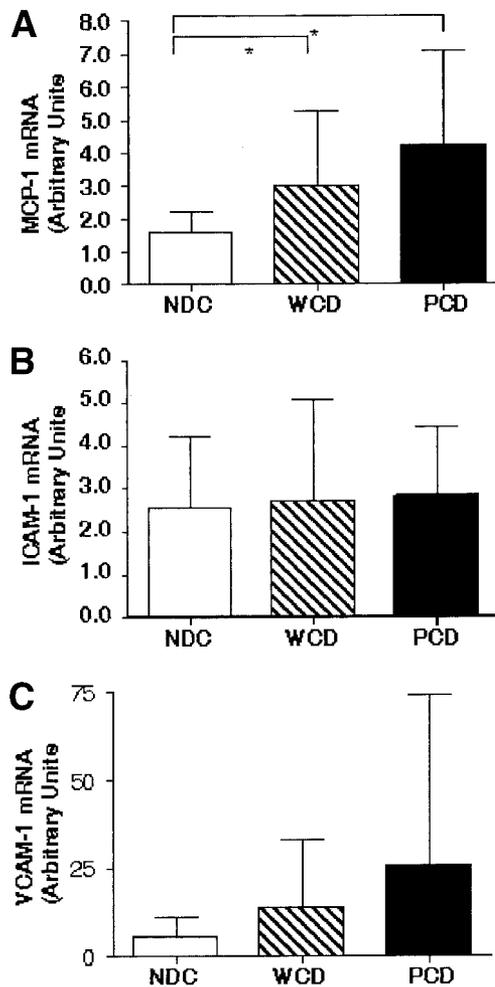


FIG. 4. Expression of MCP-1 (A), ICAM-1 (B), and VCAM-1 (C) mRNA in CD14⁺ monocytes from control subjects (NDC), well-controlled diabetic patients (WCD), and poorly controlled diabetic patients (PCD). Expression of gene mRNA level was determined by real-time RT-PCR; $n = 12$ (NDC), $n = 16$ (WCD), $n = 16$ (PCD). Data are expressed as means \pm SD, * $P < 0.05$.

was no significant difference between the two diabetic patient groups. Although a relationship of BMI with MCP-1 has been shown in severe obesity, in this study, when all subjects were analyzed as a single group, there was no correlation between MCP-1 and BMI ($P = 0.781$). With respect to type of diabetes, there was no difference in MCP-1 gene expression (type 1 vs. type 2 diabetes, $P = 0.818$).

No significant difference in ICAM-1 and VCAM-1 gene expression was observed among the three groups of subjects studied (Fig. 4B and C). In the case of VCAM-1, there was a tendency for increased levels in the two groups of diabetic subjects that was more marked in the poorly controlled group (Fig. 4C); however, this was not statistically significant because of wide variation within the group. With respect to type of diabetes, there was no difference between type 1 and type 2 subjects for ICAM-1 ($P = 0.234$) or VCAM-1 ($P = 0.983$).

Expression of PPARs mRNA in circulating monocytes. No significant differences were observed in PPAR α and PPAR δ mRNA expression among the three groups (Fig. 5A and B). However, PPAR γ expression was significantly increased in monocytes from poorly controlled

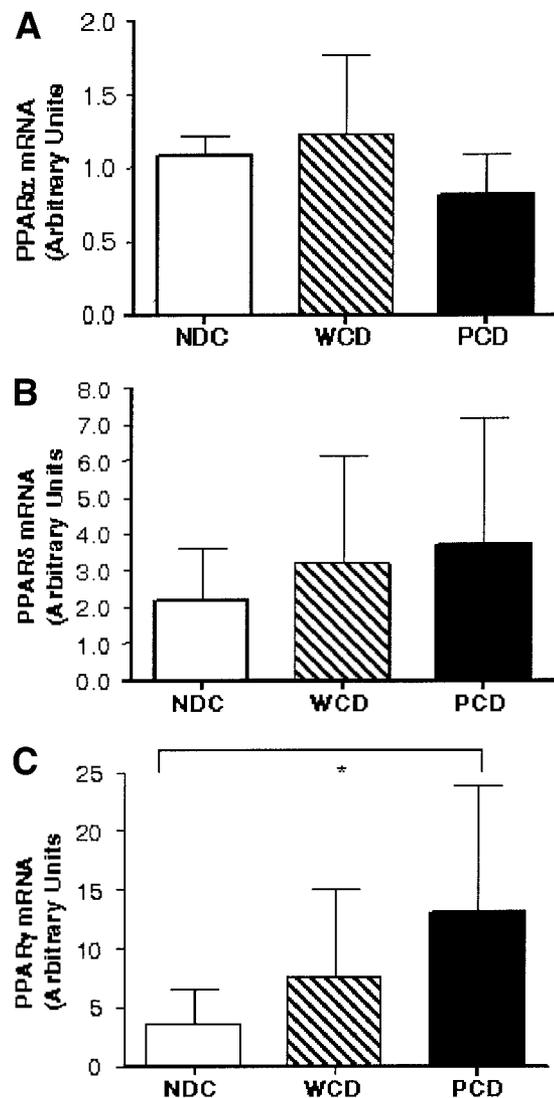


FIG. 5. Expression of PPAR α (A), PPAR δ (B), and PPAR γ (C) mRNA in CD14⁺ monocytes from control subjects (NDC), well-controlled diabetic patients (WCD), and poorly controlled diabetic patients (PCD). The mRNA level was quantified using real-time RT-PCR; 12 (NDC), $n = 16$ (WCD), $n = 16$ (PCD). Data are expressed as means \pm SD, * $P < 0.05$.

diabetic patients compared with the monocytes from nondiabetic control subjects (Fig. 5C). There was no difference between type 1 and type 2 diabetic subjects ($P = 0.401$).

Monocyte adhesion to HAoEC. To determine whether the reactivity of circulating monocytes from diabetic patients was different from nondiabetic control subjects, we performed a test of adhesion on a monolayer of human aortic endothelial cells that had not been treated in any way to enhance adhesiveness. Fluorescently labeled, freshly isolated peripheral blood CD14⁺ monocytes attached to HAoEC. There was a modest increase in the well-controlled diabetic group compared with nondiabetic subjects; in poorly controlled diabetic subjects, there was a greater than twofold, significant increase in monocyte attachment to the endothelial monolayers compared with nondiabetic control subjects and a significant, $\sim 60\%$ increased attachment compared with monocytes from well-controlled diabetic subjects (Fig. 6).

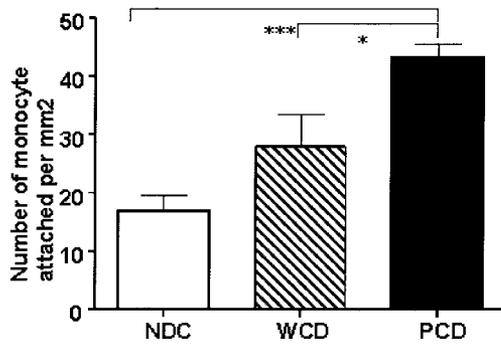


FIG. 6. Circulating monocyte adhesion to HAoEC. After being labeled with CMFDA, CD14⁺ monocytes from control subjects (NDC), well-controlled diabetic patients (WCD), and poorly controlled diabetic patients (PCD) were incubated in presence of HAoEC at 37°C for 45 min. After PBS washes, the numbers of attached monocytes per square millimeter were quantified on five randomly chosen fields, using an inverted microscope. Data are expressed as means \pm SE. For monocyte adhesion experiments, $n = 10$ (NDC), $n = 8$ (WCD), $n = 6$ (PCD), *** $P < 0.0005$.

DISCUSSION

The results clearly show an increase in functional CD36 scavenger receptors in peripheral blood CD14⁺ monocytes of subjects suffering from diabetes. Furthermore, monocytes from those with high levels of A1C demonstrated a significantly increased ability to attach to endothelial cells, one of the early steps leading to atheroma formation. Gene expression of CD68, another scavenger receptor, was also significantly increased in monocytes from poorly controlled diabetic subjects. Increase in CD36 and CD68 expression has been previously associated with the maturation of monocytes toward macrophages (30). CD36 is a type B scavenger receptor, which is normally thought to be responsible for $\sim 50\%$ of oxLDL uptake. Scavenger receptors can recognize oxidized lipids or oxidized apoproteins (22). Initial work had shown that CD36 recognized lipid moieties of oxLDL (31); however, recent work has shown that the binding of oxLDL to CD36 is mediated by oxidized phospholipids associated with both the lipid and protein moieties of the lipoprotein (32). In the present study, the increase in CD36 surface expression was paralleled by an increase in uptake of oxLDL, which could be blocked by 40–50% with antibodies to the ligand binding domain of CD36. The present study also revealed a significant increase in MCP-1 mRNA in subjects with poor glycemic control, another sign of monocyte activation. All CD14⁺ cells were included in the measurements, because monocytes were isolated solely on the basis of CD14 positivity and not on any criterion that would give selective advantage to activated cells, such as prior attachment to a substratum (30).

It has been reported that severe atherosclerosis is associated with a reduction in the expression of CD36 on peripheral blood monocytes (33). In the present study, therefore, it is unlikely that the degree of atherosclerosis, per se, is the cause of the increase in CD36 found in the poorly controlled diabetic group. However, PPAR γ (32), oxLDL (19), AGEs (19), and MCP-1 (21) have all been associated with upregulation of the CD36 receptor.

PPAR γ mRNA was significantly increased in monocytes from poorly controlled patients. The regulation of PPAR γ mRNA in monocytes is not yet fully understood, but it can

be induced by oxLDL (18,34); additionally, oxidized metabolites of linoleic acid (34,35) and arachidonic acid (15-deoxy- δ 12, 14 prostaglandin J2 [15d-PGJ2]) (35) can induce PPAR γ activation, and it is known that glucose causes oxidative stress (36). This is of possible importance because upregulation of CD36 receptors by oxLDL is PPAR γ dependent (37). However, it is difficult to implicate oxLDL or oxidized metabolites of linoleic and arachidonic acid as the cause of differences between the two groups of diabetic patients with respect to PPAR γ gene expression and CD36 upregulation because the absolute concentrations of oxLDL in the plasma in well-controlled and poorly controlled diabetes are similar (24). Furthermore, in the case of the arachidonic acid metabolite, 15d-PGJ2, there appears to be no difference in the concentrations between nondiabetic and diabetic subjects (38), and the levels measured with the more recent, sensitive assays for 15d-PGJ2 are believed to be below those needed to activate PPAR γ (38).

AGEs upregulate CD36 gene expression in a dose-dependent fashion, and they also upregulate PPAR γ gene expression (18). The increased levels of AGEs present in poorly controlled diabetic subjects (39) could account, in large part, for the difference in CD36 gene expression between poorly controlled and well-controlled patients in the present investigation. In contrast to AGEs, transient increases in plasma glucose have no additional effect on CD36 expression in monocytes from well-controlled type 2 diabetic subjects (40).

The results of the present investigation indicate that peripheral blood monocytes are activated in poorly controlled diabetes; this also occurs in hypertension (41). In the present study, several patients from both diabetic groups had a history of hypertension, but all had good blood pressure control at the time of study. When the individual results for CD36 were subjected to subanalysis, those patients with a history of hypertension did not have higher monocyte CD36 expression than those without a history of hypertension within their own A1C-defined groups (individual data not shown). It has also been shown that (total) peripheral monocytes, from glucose-tolerant, grossly obese subjects (BMI in the range 37–60 kg/m²) are in a proinflammatory state (42,43). In contrast, in the mildly obese, diabetic subjects of the present study, there is an important association between the level of A1C and the degree of proinflammatory activation of CD14⁺ monocytes.

Activation of peripheral blood monocytes is an important additional facet of the inflammatory profile of diabetic vascular disease to be added to endothelial dysfunction. The CD36 scavenger receptors were functional with respect to uptake of oxLDL, and there was also a significant increase of CD68 gene expression in patients with poor glycemic control. These changes are usually associated with maturation toward fully differentiated macrophages. However, it cannot be deduced from the results of this study that these activated monocytes will easily become foam cells in the peripheral blood because activators of PPAR γ that induce gene expression of CD36 may also induce the scavenger receptor CLA-1/SR-B1, which binds HDL with high affinity and promotes cholesterol efflux from macrophages as the first step in the reverse chole-

terol transport pathway (44); on the other hand, HDL cholesterol tends to be lower in diabetes, as in the present study, and the reverse transport pathway may be compromised. Whether PPAR γ activation in monocytes will result in a net increase or decrease in lipid accumulation and whether PPAR γ activation, per se, induces or inhibits atherogenesis is unclear. Although increased PPAR γ expression may be induced by cytokines and its activation may have proinflammatory effects (45), it has also been shown to inhibit production of monocyte inflammatory cytokines (46) and be a negative regulator of monocyte/macrophage activation (47).

However, the results of this study leave little doubt that peripheral blood CD14⁺ monocytes in subjects with poorly controlled diabetes are functionally activated and show some of the differentiation markers associated with macrophages. Of major importance is the fact that the monocytes demonstrate an increased ability for endothelial cell attachment, one of the early stages in atheroma formation.

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