

1 **Coenzyme Q₁₀ prevents insulin signaling dysregulation and inflammation prior to**
2 **development of insulin resistance in male offspring of a rat model of poor maternal**
3 **nutrition and accelerated postnatal growth**

4

5 **Authors:** Jane Tarry-Adkins¹, Denise Fernandez-Twinn¹, Ralitsa Madsen¹, Jian-Hua Chen¹, Asha
6 Carpenter¹, Iain Hargreaves², Josie McConnell¹, and Susan Ozanne¹

7

8 ¹University of Cambridge Metabolic Research Laboratories and MRC Metabolic Diseases
9 Unit, Wellcome Trust-MRC Institute of Metabolic Science, Level 4, Box 289, Addenbrooke's
10 Treatment Centre, Addenbrooke's Hospital, Hills Road, Cambridge, CB2 0QQ, UK;

11

12 ²Neurometabolic Unit, National Hospital, University College London, London, WC1N 3BG,
13 UK;

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19 **Corresponding author and person to whom reprint requests should be addressed:**

20 Jane Tarry-Adkins

21 University of Cambridge Metabolic Research Laboratories and MRC Metabolic Diseases

22 Unit, Wellcome Trust-MRC Institute of Metabolic Science

23 Level 4, Box 289, Addenbrooke's Treatment Centre, Addenbrooke's Hospital

24 Hills Road, Cambridge, CB2 0QQ, UK

25 Phone: +(44) 1223 336784

26 Fax: +(44) 1223 330598

27 email: janeadkins@googlemail.com

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29 **ABSTRACT:**

30 Low birth-weight and rapid postnatal-growth increases the risk of developing insulin
31 resistance and type-2 diabetes in later life. However underlying mechanisms and potential
32 intervention strategies are poorly defined. Here we demonstrate that male Wistar rats exposed
33 to a low-protein diet *in-utero* that had a low birth weight but then underwent postnatal catch-
34 up growth (recuperated offspring) had reductions in the insulin signaling proteins p110- β [13
35 \pm 6% of controls] ($p < 0.001$) and IRS-1 [39 \pm 10% of controls] ($p < 0.05$) in adipose tissue.
36 These changes were not accompanied by any change in expression of the corresponding
37 mRNAs, suggesting post-transcriptional regulation. Recuperated animals displayed evidence
38 of a pro-inflammatory phenotype of their adipose tissue with increased interleukin-6 (IL-6)
39 [139 \pm 8%], ($p < 0.05$) and interleukin-1 β (IL1- β) [154 \pm 16%], ($p < 0.05$) that may contribute to
40 the insulin signaling protein dysregulation. Post-weaning dietary supplementation of
41 recuperated animals with Coenzyme Q (CoQ₁₀) (1mg/kg of body weight/day) prevented the
42 programmed reduction in IRS-1 and p110- β and the programmed increased in IL-6. These
43 findings suggest that post-weaning CoQ₁₀ supplementation has anti-inflammatory properties
44 and can prevent programmed changes in insulin-signaling protein expression. We conclude
45 that CoQ₁₀ supplementation represents an attractive intervention strategy to prevent the
46 development of insulin resistance that results from suboptimal *in-utero* nutrition.

47

48 **INTRODUCTION:**

49 Many epidemiological studies have demonstrated that a suboptimal fetal
50 environment, resulting in low birth weight (LBW) can result in increased risk of glucose
51 intolerance, (1, 2) insulin resistance (3) and type 2 diabetes (T2D) (4, 5) in later life. Animal
52 models of intrauterine growth restriction (IUGR) have very similar phenotypes to LBW
53 humans. Using a well-established model of maternal protein restriction that generates LBW
54 offspring, we have demonstrated that the growth-restricted pups develop an insulin resistant
55 and diabetic phenotype in later life (6). These offspring show alterations in key insulin
56 signaling molecules in skeletal muscle and adipose tissue that are markedly similar to those
57 observed in men with LBW (7-9). The risk for development of poor glucose tolerance (10),
58 insulin resistance (11, 12) and T2D (13, 14) is exacerbated when LBW is combined with
59 rapid postnatal growth. We have recently demonstrated that dysregulation of insulin signaling
60 protein expression in adipose tissue occurs prior to the development of whole-body insulin
61 resistance and is a very early consequence of LBW and catch-up growth (15).

62 Oxidative stress plays an important role in the etiology of insulin resistance (16) and
63 in adipose tissue this is associated with increased inflammation (17). Oxidative stress
64 accumulation is a common underlying consequence of many sub-optimal *in-utero*
65 environments (18). Consequently, several studies have utilized antioxidant therapy during
66 pregnancy in order to attempt to prevent the observed deleterious phenotypes resulting from a
67 suboptimal *in-utero* environment (19 - 21). These demonstrate proof of principle that
68 antioxidants can prevent detrimental effects of developmental programming; however, the
69 doses employed in these studies far exceed those suitable for use in pregnant women.
70 Furthermore, it is also important to address the potential beneficial effects of targeted
71 postnatal antioxidant supplementation as, often evidence is not present for suboptimal *in utero*
72 exposure until at the time of, or just after, delivery and supplementation could be detrimental
73 to those that don't need it

74 Previously, we demonstrated that postnatal supplementation of coenzyme Q, also
75 known as ubiquinone, (CoQ) at a clinically relevant dose can prevent a programmed

76 accelerated aging phenotype in the aorta (22) and heart (23) of rats that were born small and
77 underwent catch-up growth. CoQ exists in various isoforms which differ in concentration
78 between organisms. In humans, the most abundant form of CoQ is CoQ₁₀ (as it contains 10
79 isoprenoid units attached to a benzoquinone ring); in rodents, however, CoQ₉ (containing 9
80 isoprenoid units) is the most abundant form. It is also known that rodents can convert dietary
81 CoQ₁₀ into CoQ₉ (23). CoQ is the most abundant and potent antioxidant in the body (24) with
82 additional anti-inflammatory properties, including decreasing the production of pro-
83 inflammatory cytokines (25). Clinical trials have confirmed the safety of CoQ up to doses of
84 1200 mg/kg/day (26, 27).

85 This study therefore aimed to establish whether a postnatal dietary supplementation
86 of CoQ could alter any observed dysregulation of insulin signaling in rats exposed to a
87 suboptimal environment *in-utero* and postnatal catch-up growth and then to investigate the
88 potential underlying mechanisms, including oxidative stress status and inflammatory
89 phenotypes.

90

91 **MATERIALS AND METHODS:**

92 **Animal Experimentation**

93 All procedures involving animals were conducted under the British Animals
94 (Scientific Procedures) Act (1986). Pregnant Wistar rats were maintained on a 20% protein
95 diet (control) or an isocaloric low-protein (LP) (8%) diet fed *ad libitum*, as previously
96 described (28). Both diets were purchased from Arie Blok, The Netherlands. The day of birth
97 was recorded as day 1 of postnatal life. Pups born to LP diet-fed dams were cross-fostered to
98 control-fed mothers on postnatal day 3 in order to create a recuperated litter. Each recuperated
99 litter was culled to 4 male pups at random to maximize their plane of nutrition. The control
100 group constituted offspring of mothers fed the 20% protein diet and suckled by 20% protein
101 fed dams. Each control litter was culled to 8 pups as a standard. To prevent any stress to the
102 animals during cross-fostering, pups were transferred with their own bedding.. At 21 days,
103 two males per litter were weaned onto standard laboratory chow (Special Diet Services) and
104 the other two were weaned onto the same diet supplemented with CoQ to give a dose of 1
105 mg/kg body weight/day. Animals were maintained on these diets until 3 months of age. Body
106 weights were recorded at postnatal days 3, 7, 14, 21 and 3 months of age. All animals were
107 killed by CO₂ asphyxiation. At post mortem, epididymal fat pads, liver and vastus lateralis
108 skeletal muscle were removed, weighed, and snap frozen in liquid nitrogen and then stored at
109 -80 °C until analysis. For all measurements, one pup per litter was used, thus N indicated
110 throughout represents number of litters. Only male animals were used in this study.

111

112 **CoQ diet preparation**

113 A dose of 1 mg CoQ /kg of body weight per day was used in this study. This was
114 achieved by appropriate CoQ supplementation of laboratory chow as described previously
115 (22, 23). Briefly, CoQ was impregnated into the diet pellets by dissolving CoQ₁₀ in acetone
116 and mixing this with the diet pellets. The mix was then left in a fume hood overnight to allow
117 evaporation of acetone. The diet was prepared twice a week throughout the study.

118

119 **CoQ, lipid profile, glucose and insulin analysis**

120 Serum was obtained from blood collected from the tail vein after overnight fasting.
121 The blood clotted for 30 minutes before centrifugation for 3 minutes at 845 g. Fasted blood
122 glucose measurements were obtained using a blood glucose analyser (Hemocue). The lipid
123 profile and fasted serum insulin analysis was performed using an auto analyzer (Clinical
124 Chemistry Laboratory, Medical Research Council Centre for Obesity and Related Metabolic
125 Diseases, Cambridge, UK). Blood from the tail vein was collected into heparin tubes and
126 centrifuged to isolate plasma. Plasma CoQ₁₀ levels were determined by reverse-phased HPLC
127 with UV detection at 275 nm as previously described (22).

128

129 **Protein analysis**

130 Protein was extracted and assayed as described previously (29) and 20 µg protein was
131 loaded onto 10-15% polyacrylamide gels, dependent upon the molecular weight of the target
132 protein. The samples were then electrophoresed and transferred to polyvinylidene fluoride
133 membranes (22) and antibodies to the following proteins were detected: IL-6, IL1β (Abcam),
134 IRS-1, p110-β, p85α (Merck Millipore), Akt-1, (Cell Signaling Technology), and Akt-2, pAkt
135 ^(ser473) (New England Biolabs). (Please see the Antibody table for further details). Anti-rabbit
136 and anti-mouse IgG horseradish peroxidase-linked secondary antibodies were from Jackson
137 Immunoresearch Laboratories. Equal protein loading was confirmed by staining
138 electrophoresed gels with Coomassie Blue (Bio-Rad, Hemel Hempstead, Hertfordshire, UK)
139 to visualize total protein. To ensure the chemiluminescent signal changed in a linear manner,
140 the ratio between loading controls (50% and 100% pooled sample) was confirmed for each
141 detected protein. Protein bands were detected using West Pico Chemiluminescence reagent
142 (Pierce, Thermo Scientific) and analyzed using Alphaease Imaging Software (Alpha
143 Innotech).

144

145 **Gene expression**

146 RNA was extracted using a miRNeasy mini kit (Qiagen) following the manufacturers
147 instructions (22), a DNase digestion step was performed in order to ensure no gDNA
148 contamination. RNA (1 ug) was used to synthesize cDNA using oligo-dT primers and M-MLV
149 reverse transcriptase (Promega, Southampton, Hants, UK). Gene expression was determined
150 using custom designed primers (Sigma) and SYBR Green reagents (Applied Biosystems).
151 (Primer sequences are described in Table 1).

152 Quantification of gene expression (expressed as average copy number) was
153 performed using the Step One Plus q-PCR machine (Applied Biosystems). Melting curve
154 analysis was performed to confirm absence of primer-dimers. Equal efficiency of the reverse
155 transcription of RNA from all groups was confirmed through quantification of expression of the
156 housekeeping gene *β-actin*. Expression did not differ between groups (effect of maternal diet
157 $p=0.72$; (control; 153 ± 32 , recuperated; 134 ± 35 average copy number).

158

159 **microRNA (miRNA) analysis**

160 Putative miRNAs targeting the 3' untranslated regions (3'UTRs) of *p110β* and *IRS-1*
161 were identified using the miRanda/mirSVR 1.2 (Release 2010) and miRmap 3 (Release 1.1)
162 prediction algorithms, respectively. Candidates were ranked according to the strength of the
163 predicted interaction, high conservation across species and target site position along the
164 mRNA (higher scores for proximal and distal locations). The final selection of the most
165 highly ranked candidates to assess was based on common target sites within both the *p110β*
166 and *IRS-1* 3'UTRs as well as information regarding their expression in white adipose tissue.
167 RNA was extracted using a Direct-zol™ RNA MiniPrep kit (Zymo Research), in order to
168 retain RNA species with a minimal length of 17 nucleotides. RNA purity and concentration
169 was determined by spectrophotometric analysis on a NanoDrop ND-1000. RNA integrity was
170 confirmed by denaturing agarose gel electrophoresis.

171

172 **Statistical Analysis**

173 Data were analyzed using a 2-way ANOVA with maternal diet and CoQ
174 supplementation as the independent variables. Data are represented as mean \pm S.E.M. A
175 value of $p < 0.05$ was considered statistically significant. All statistical analyses were
176 performed using Statistica 7 software (Statsoft Inc) except for miRNA analysis where
177 GraphPad Prism 6.0 (GraphPad) was utilised. In all cases, N refers to the number of litters.

178 **RESULTS:**

179 Physical parameters, plasma CoQ, lipid profile and insulin data

180 Recuperated offspring were born smaller [(6.3 ± 0.2g vs. 7.4 ± 0.2g); (p<0.001)] than
181 control animals and remained smaller at postnatal day 7 [(13.4g ± 0.4 vs. 16.4g ± 0.4);
182 (p<0.001)]. By postnatal days 14 (33.7 ± 0.5g vs. 33.3 ± 0.8g) and 21 (52.2 ± 3.7 vs. 50.8 ±
183 1.2g), the recuperated offspring had undergone accelerated catch-up growth and were
184 therefore of similar weight to the control offspring. At 3 months of age, there was no
185 significant effect of CoQ supplementation and maternal diet on offspring body or liver
186 weights (Table 2). However, maternal diet increased (p<0.05) epididymal fat pad weight
187 (Table 2). There was no significant effect of CoQ supplementation on epididymal fat pad
188 weight. Furthermore, no significant effect of maternal diet upon offspring plasma CoQ levels
189 was observed. However, plasma CoQ levels were significantly (p<0.01) increased by CoQ
190 supplementation (Figure 1). Serum levels of fasting insulin, triglycerides, free fatty acids,
191 total cholesterol and fasting plasma glucose were unaltered by maternal diet or CoQ
192 supplementation and there was no interaction between these two variables on any of the
193 serum levels (Table 3).

194

195 Insulin signaling: protein, mRNA and miRNA analysis

196 **a) Effect of maternal diet:** Protein expression of IRS-1 (p<0.05) and p110-β
197 (p<0.001) were reduced in the epididymal fat pads of recuperated offspring compared to
198 controls (Figure 2A). In contrast, PKC-ζ protein levels were significantly (p<0.05) increased
199 in the recuperated group (Figure 2A). Gene (mRNA) expression of these molecules were
200 unaffected by maternal diet (Figure 3A). In liver and vastus lateralis skeletal muscle, IRS-1
201 and p110-β protein expression remained unaltered by maternal diet. However, liver PKC-ζ
202 protein levels displayed an increase (p<0.001) (Figures 2B and 2C). The mRNA levels of
203 these three genes were not different in either the liver or muscle of recuperated offspring
204 when compared to controls (Figures 3B and 3C). Protein expression of other insulin signaling

205 molecules including IR β , p85 α , Akt-1, Akt-2, pAkt^(Ser473), and GLUT-4 were unaffected by
206 maternal diet in the epididymal fat, liver and vastus lateralis muscle (Table 4).

207 The programmed reduction in adipose tissue IRS-1 and p110- β in the absence of any
208 differences in the corresponding mRNAs suggested that this effect was mediated by a post-
209 transcriptional mechanism. However, we saw no effects of maternal diet on the five miRNAs
210 predicted to regulate *p110- β* (miR-25, miR-301a, miR-19a, miR-130a and miR-130b) or the
211 two predicted to regulate IRS-1 (miR-126 and miR-143), (Figures 4A and B).

212 **b) Effect of CoQ supplementation:** CoQ supplementation significantly increased both IRS-1
213 and p110- β protein levels in recuperated offspring epididymal fat. In control offspring, CoQ
214 supplementation had no effect on p110- β levels; however supplementation increased IRS-1
215 protein expression (Figure 2A). CoQ supplementation increased ($p < 0.001$) p110- β protein
216 expression in both liver and VL skeletal muscle (Figures 2B and C). CoQ supplementation
217 significantly ($p < 0.001$) decreased PKC- ζ protein levels in recuperated adipose tissue
218 compared to the effect on control offspring (Figure 2A); however, PKC- ζ expression
219 remained similar in the liver and vastus lateralis muscle (Figures 2B and C).

220 Cytokine analysis

221 Adipose tissue protein expression of IL-6 ($p < 0.05$) and IL-1 β ($p < 0.01$) were increased
222 in recuperated offspring (Figure 5A). CoQ supplementation significantly ($p < 0.05$) reduced IL-
223 6 levels back to that of the controls, however, IL-1 β levels were unchanged by CoQ
224 supplementation (Figure 5 A). mRNA levels of *Tgfb1* and *Lep* were unaltered by maternal
225 diet; however, CoQ supplementation reduced *Tgf- β 1* ($p < 0.001$) and *Lep* ($p < 0.05$) levels
226 (Figure 5B). *Tnf- α* and *Mcp-1* gene expression were similar between all groups (Figure 5B).
227 There was no significant effect of maternal diet or CoQ₁₀ supplementation on adiponectin
228 (*adipoq*) mRNA in epididymal fat (control: $100 \pm 26.6\%$; recuperated: $107 \pm 18\%$; control
229 CoQ: $91 \pm 32\%$; recuperated CoQ: $73 \pm 9\%$).

230 Reactive oxygen species (ROS) and antioxidant defense capacity

231 4-HNE (4-hydroxynoneal; a marker of lipid peroxidation) and 3-NT (3-nitrotyrosine;
232 a measure of protein tyrosine nitration) were both undetectable in epididymal adipose tissue
233 (*data not shown*). No significant effect of maternal diet or CoQ supplementation was
234 observed upon xanthine oxidase (XO) protein expression (Figure 6A). mRNA levels of
235 components of NADPH oxidase-2 (NOX-2) (*Gp91^{phox}* and *P22^{phox}*) were unchanged by
236 maternal diet; however, CoQ supplementation reduced *Gp91^{phox}* ($p<0.001$) and *P22^{phox}*
237 ($p<0.01$) levels, (Figure 6B). No significant effect of maternal diet or CoQ supplementation
238 was observed upon manganese superoxide dismutase (MnSOD) or glutathione reductase (GR)
239 protein expression (Figure 6C). Catalase protein expression was significantly ($p<0.01$)
240 increased in recuperated offspring compared to controls (Figure 6C), and this effect remained
241 unaffected by CoQ supplementation.

242

243 **DISCUSSION:**

244 Previous studies by us and others have demonstrated that adipose tissue is very
245 vulnerable to the effects of developmental programming and is the site where some of the
246 earliest and most striking programming effects are observed (15, 30, 31). Consistent with
247 these observations, in the current study, we have shown a reduction in IRS-1 and p110- β
248 insulin signaling protein expression in response to suboptimal nutrition *in utero* and catch-up
249 growth. In contrast, maternal diet increased protein expression of PKC- ζ in adipose tissue and
250 liver, which can negatively regulate insulin signaling via serine phosphorylation of IRS-1
251 (32). All of these differences are therefore consistent with an insulin resistant phenotype.
252 These alterations are present in adipose tissue prior to any such defects in liver or skeletal
253 muscle. The differences in adipose tissue insulin signaling proteins are present at a time when
254 animals display no difference in fasting glycaemia or insulinaemia. These defects are
255 therefore not a consequence of metabolic dysfunction and more likely a contributor to the
256 increased risk of insulin resistance in the recuperated offspring (33).

257 The changes in p110 β and IRS-1 protein expression were not accompanied by altered
258 mRNA expression, which suggests the involvement of posttranscriptional regulatory
259 mechanisms. However, none of the seven candidate miRNAs predicted to regulate translation
260 of IRS-1 and/or p110 β were differentially expressed in offspring epididymal adipose tissue in
261 response to maternal diet. These could mean that a simple concentration change of
262 complementary miRNAs is not the cause of altered protein expression of IRS-1 and p110- β ,
263 or that other undefined miRs or other posttranscriptional mechanisms are involved.

264 A clinically relevant dietary supplementation of CoQ normalized the defects in
265 adipose tissue insulin signaling protein expression in recuperated offspring. In addition, CoQ
266 supplementation increased p110 β protein expression in liver and skeletal muscle. This is
267 consistent with previous studies showing that administration of a much higher dose of CoQ
268 (20 mg/kg) affects insulin sensitivity and has anti-diabetic properties via increasing the
269 activity of phosphatidylinositol kinase (PI3K) in the liver and skeletal muscle of rats fed a
270 high-fat, high-fructose diet (34). It is unclear how CoQ supplementation has its effects on

271 insulin signaling protein expression. However, uptake of CoQ into most tissues is thought to
272 be low (35) and a systemic effect is likely to be involved.

273 Inflammation is an important factor in the development of insulin resistance via
274 inhibition of insulin signaling through activation of IKK- β and JNK pathways (36). IL-6, IL-
275 1 β , tumor necrosis factor- α (TNF- α), monochemoattractant protein-1 (MCP-1), transforming
276 factor- β 1 (TGF- β 1) and leptin are major cytokines and chemokines that can be secreted by
277 dysfunctional adipocytes or infiltrated adipose tissue macrophages. These factors play a
278 pivotal role in adipose tissue-induced low-grade systemic inflammation and/or obesity. In the
279 current study, we demonstrated increased protein expression of IL-6 and IL-1 β in the
280 epididymal fat pads of recuperated offspring. IL-6 is known to inhibit protein and mRNA
281 expression of IRS-1 (37), suggesting that the increased IL-6 levels could, at least in part,
282 explain the observed reduction in IRS-1 protein levels in recuperated animals. Furthermore,
283 IL-1 β is a key factor in mediating macrophage-induced insulin resistance in human adipocytes
284 (38). However Mcp-1 expression (a key chemokine that regulates migration and infiltration of
285 monocytes and macrophages) was unaltered between groups, suggesting that any macrophage
286 infiltration in recuperated adipose tissue could be via an Mcp-1 independent mechanism.
287 Interestingly, this pro-inflammatory phenotype occurred in the absence of obesity, suggesting
288 that maternal suboptimal nutrition is the driving factor for this effect in a manner that is
289 independent of offspring adiposity. CoQ supplementation significantly reduced IL-6 protein
290 and *Tgf- β 1* and *Lep* mRNA levels, which is in agreement with findings in cardiac tissue (25),
291 and CoQ is known to have anti-inflammatory properties in mouse liver (39) and human
292 plasma (40) however, to our knowledge this is the first time that CoQ has been demonstrated
293 to have anti-inflammatory properties in adipose tissue. This highlights the function of CoQ as
294 an important anti-inflammatory molecule and may partially explain some of our reported
295 'insulin sensitizing' effects of CoQ.

296 Over-production of reactive oxygen species (ROS) is well-known to contribute to the
297 development of insulin resistance. In the current study, however, no evidence of an oxidative
298 stress phenotype was observed in the adipose tissue of recuperated animals, given that

299 *Gp91^{phox}*, *P22^{phox}* and xanthine oxidase (all important sources of ROS) were unaltered by
300 maternal diet and indicators of oxidative stress such as 4-HNE and 3-NT were undetectable.
301 This suggests that the manifestation of insulin resistance in recuperated offspring may be
302 driven by inflammation and not oxidative stress at this age. Previously, we have described an
303 oxidative stress phenotype in other tissues from recuperated offspring adipose tissue at 3
304 months of age, including pancreatic islets (41) and the heart (23), and its absence in the
305 adipose tissue highlights the tissue-specificity of developmental programming on the
306 manifestation of oxidative stress. mRNA levels of *Gp91^{phox}* and *P22^{phox}* were significantly
307 decreased by CoQ supplementation, demonstrating that CoQ has a role as a potent antioxidant
308 in adipose tissue.

309 In conclusion, a suboptimal maternal environment and rapid postnatal catch-up growth
310 initiates dysregulation of insulin signaling protein expression in epididymal adipose tissue
311 that may contribute to later development of whole body insulin resistance. This was
312 associated with increased expression of inflammatory markers, independent of increased ROS
313 generation and independent of obesity. CoQ supplementation ameliorated both insulin
314 signaling dysfunction and inflammation in the adipose tissue of ‘recuperated’ offspring,
315 suggesting that CoQ’s anti-inflammatory actions may play some role in modulating insulin
316 resistance. Although the mechanism through which CoQ mediates these changes in adipose
317 tissue is currently unknown, it is plausible that CoQ could act via antioxidant mechanisms to
318 impact on the activity of genes involved in regulation of transcription or translation.

319 **FIGURE LEGENDS:**

320 Figure 1 - The effect of *in utero* protein restriction, accelerated postnatal growth and CoQ
321 supplementation upon plasma CoQ levels in 3-month-old male rats. Results are expressed as
322 mean \pm S.E.M. * $p < 0.01$ (C and R versus CQ and RQ). C = control; CQ = control CoQ; R =
323 recuperated; RQ = recuperated CoQ. N = 10 per group.

324 Figure 2 - The effect of *in utero* protein restriction, accelerated postnatal growth and CoQ
325 supplementation upon protein expression of insulin signaling molecules in A) epididymal
326 adipose tissue, B) liver and C) VL skeletal muscle in 3-month-old male rats. Results are
327 expressed as mean \pm S.E.M. * $p < 0.01$ and *** $p < 0.001$ (C versus R) and * $p < 0.01$ and ***
328 $p < 0.001$ (R vs RQ). C = control; CQ = control CoQ; R = recuperated and RQ = recuperated
329 CoQ. N = 5 - 6 per group.

330 Figure 3 - The effect of *in utero* protein restriction and accelerated postnatal growth upon
331 gene expression of insulin signaling molecules in A) epididymal adipose tissue, B) liver and
332 C) VL skeletal muscle in 3-month-old male rats. Results are expressed as mean \pm S.E.M. N =
333 8 per group.

334 Figure 4 - The effect of *in utero* protein restriction and accelerated postnatal growth upon
335 miRNA targets to A) *p110 β* and B) *IRS-1*. Results are expressed as mean \pm S.E.M. N = 10 per
336 group.

337 Figure 5 - The effect of *in utero* protein restriction, accelerated postnatal growth and CoQ
338 supplementation upon cytokine protein and gene expression in epididymal adipose tissue in 3-
339 month-male rats. Results are expressed as mean \pm S.E.M. * $p < 0.05$ (C versus R) and * $p < 0.05$
340 (R vs RQ). C = control; CQ = control CoQ; R = recuperated and RQ = recuperated CoQ. N =
341 5 - 6 per group.

342 Figure 6 - The effect of *in utero* protein restriction, accelerated postnatal growth and CoQ
343 supplementation upon A) and B) sources of ROS and C) antioxidant defense capacity in 3-
344 month-old male rat epididymal adipose tissue. Results are expressed as mean \pm S.E.M. *

345 p<0.05 (C and R versus CQ and RQ). C = control; CQ = control CoQ; R = recuperated and
346 RQ = recuperated CoQ. N = 6 per group.

347

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Table 1

Primer	Sequence (F)	Sequence (R)
<i>Irs-1</i>	TGGCAGTGAGGATGTGAAAC	CTTGGATGC TCCCC TAGAT
<i>p110-β</i>	TGAGGTTGTGAGCACCTCTG	CTTTGTTGAAGGCTGCTGTG
<i>Pkc-ζ</i>	GGGTGGATGGGATCAAAATC	GGAGGACCTTGGCATAGCTT
<i>Tnf-α</i>	CCTCCTCTCTGCCATCAAGA	TGGAAGACTCCTCCCAGGTA
<i>Tgfβ1</i>	TGCCCTCTACAACCAACACA	CTTGCGACCCACGTAGTAGA
<i>Leptin</i>	AAGCCTCGCTCTACTCCACA	CATTCAGGGCTAAGGTCCAA
<i>Mcp1</i>	TGGACCAGAACCAAGTGAGA	TGCTGAAGTCCTTAGGGTTGA
<i>Gp91^{phox}</i>	CGAAGCCTTGGCTAAAACCTCT	TCCTTGTTGAAGATGAAGTGGA
<i>P22^{phox}</i>	GTGAGCAGTGGACTCCCATT	GTAGGTGGCTGCTTGATGGT
<i>P47^{phox}</i>	TGTGACACCCTCTCACAGACA	GTCGCATTTTCCCTCCTTTA

Table 2: Effect of poor maternal nutrition and accelerated postnatal growth on body and organ weights in 3 month male rats.

Group	Body weight (g)	Epididymal fat pad weight (g)	Liver weight (g)
Control	483 ± 12	8.0 ± 0.5	17.0 ± 0.6
Recuperated	478 ± 8.8	9.0 ± 0.6 *	17.2 ± 0.4
Control CoQ	476 ± 12.3	8.2 ± 0.5	16.7 ± 0.6
Recuperated CoQ	482 ± 6.0	9.6 ± 0.5 *	18.0 ± 0.6

* p<0.05 (overall effect of maternal diet)

Table 3: Effect of poor maternal nutrition and accelerated postnatal growth on blood glucose, insulin and lipid profile in 3 month male rats.

Group	FPG (mmol/L)	Fasting serum insulin (mmol/L)	Total cholesterol (mmol/L)	FFAs (mmol/L)	Triglycerides (mmol/L)
Control (g)	5.6 ± 0.2	95 ± 26	2.3 ± 0.1	1052 ± 99	1.7 ± 0.3
Recuperated (g)	5.5 ± 0.2	49 ± 13	2.0 ± 0.1	990 ± 60	1.6 ± 0.1
Control CoQ (g)	5.4 ± 0.1	47 ± 13	2.1 ± 0.1	1051 ± 94	1.8 ± 0.2
Recuperated CoQ (g)	5.4 ± 0.1	47 ± 18	2.1 ± 0.2	976 ± 44	2.0 ± 0.4

Table 4: Effect of poor maternal nutrition and accelerated postnatal growth on insulin signaling molecule protein expression in 3 month male rats.

	Epididymal Fat		Liver		Vastus lateralis	
	Control	Recup	Control	Recup	Control	Recup
IR-β	100 \pm 6	97 \pm 9	100 \pm 17	139 \pm 17	100 \pm 7	119 \pm 10
p85-α	100 \pm 7	101 \pm 6	100 \pm 11	111 \pm 8	100 \pm 7	112 \pm 4
pAkt (ser473)	100 \pm 20	130 \pm 25	100 \pm 10	110 \pm 9	100 \pm 17	141 \pm 21
GLUT-4	100 \pm 25	146 \pm 21	-	-	100 \pm 17	107.7 \pm 21
Akt-1	100 \pm 3	96 \pm 3	100 \pm 8	103 \pm 6	100 \pm 8	85 \pm 11
Akt-2	100 \pm 5	96 \pm 3	100 \pm 4	115 \pm 7	100 \pm 6	107 \pm 6

Figure 1

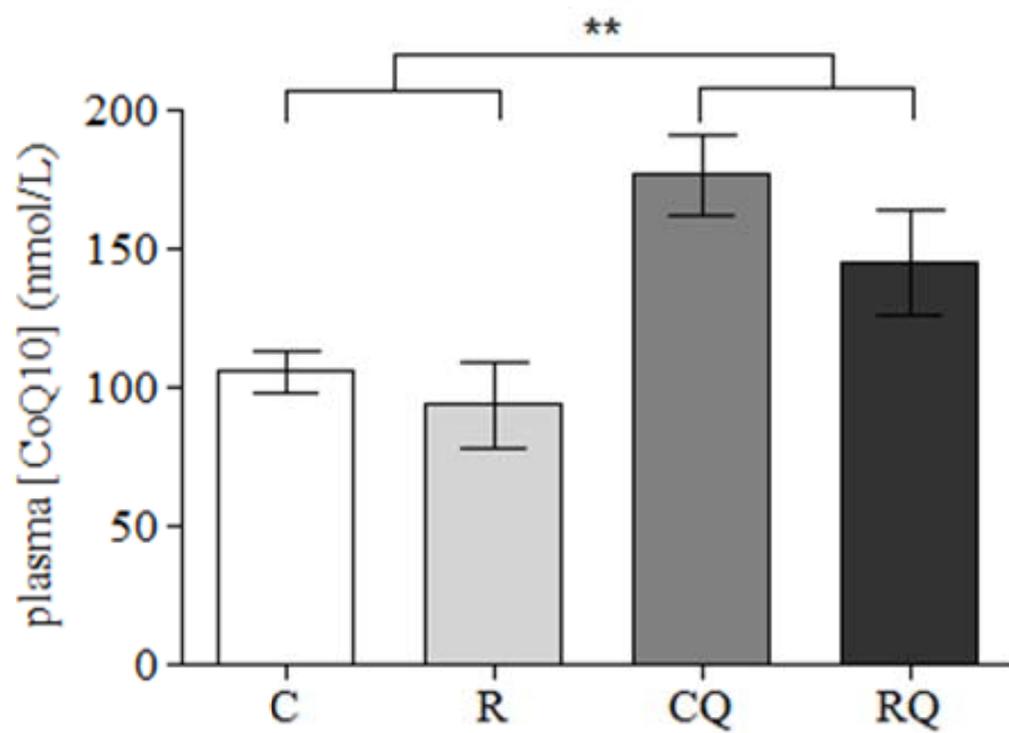
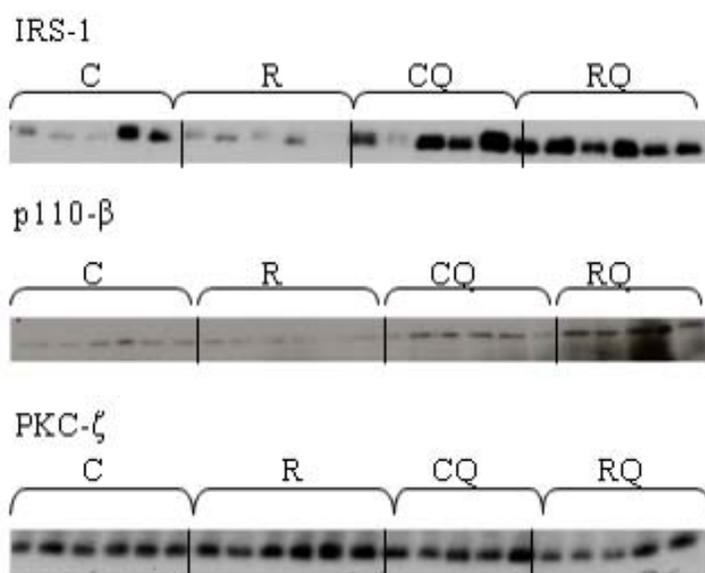
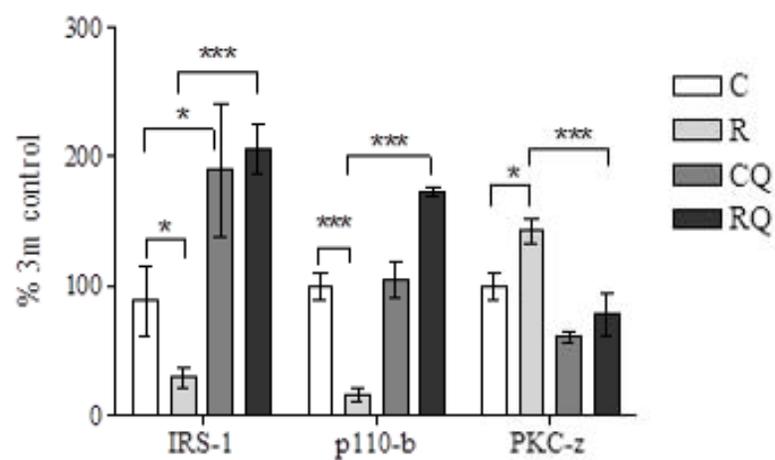
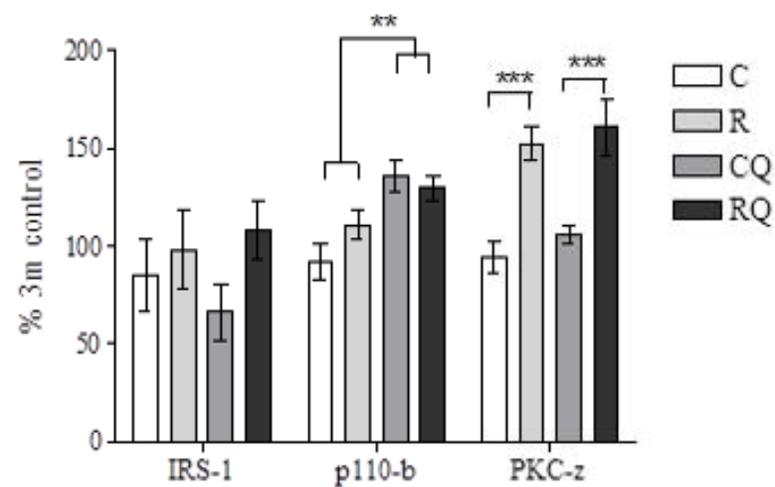


Figure 2

A) Adipose tissue



B) Liver



C) Vastus lateralis

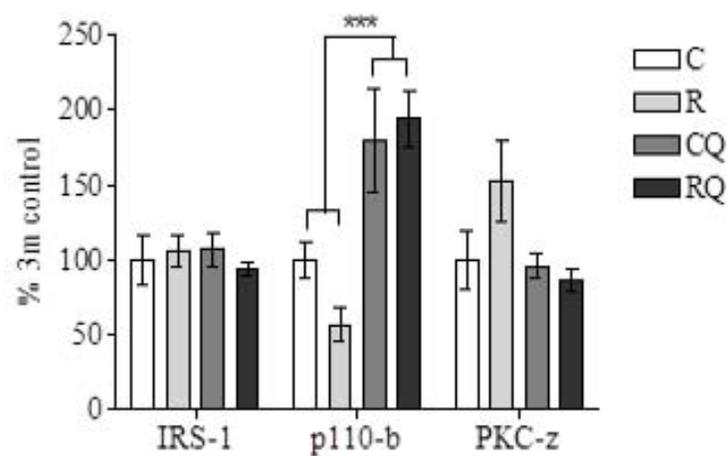


Figure 3

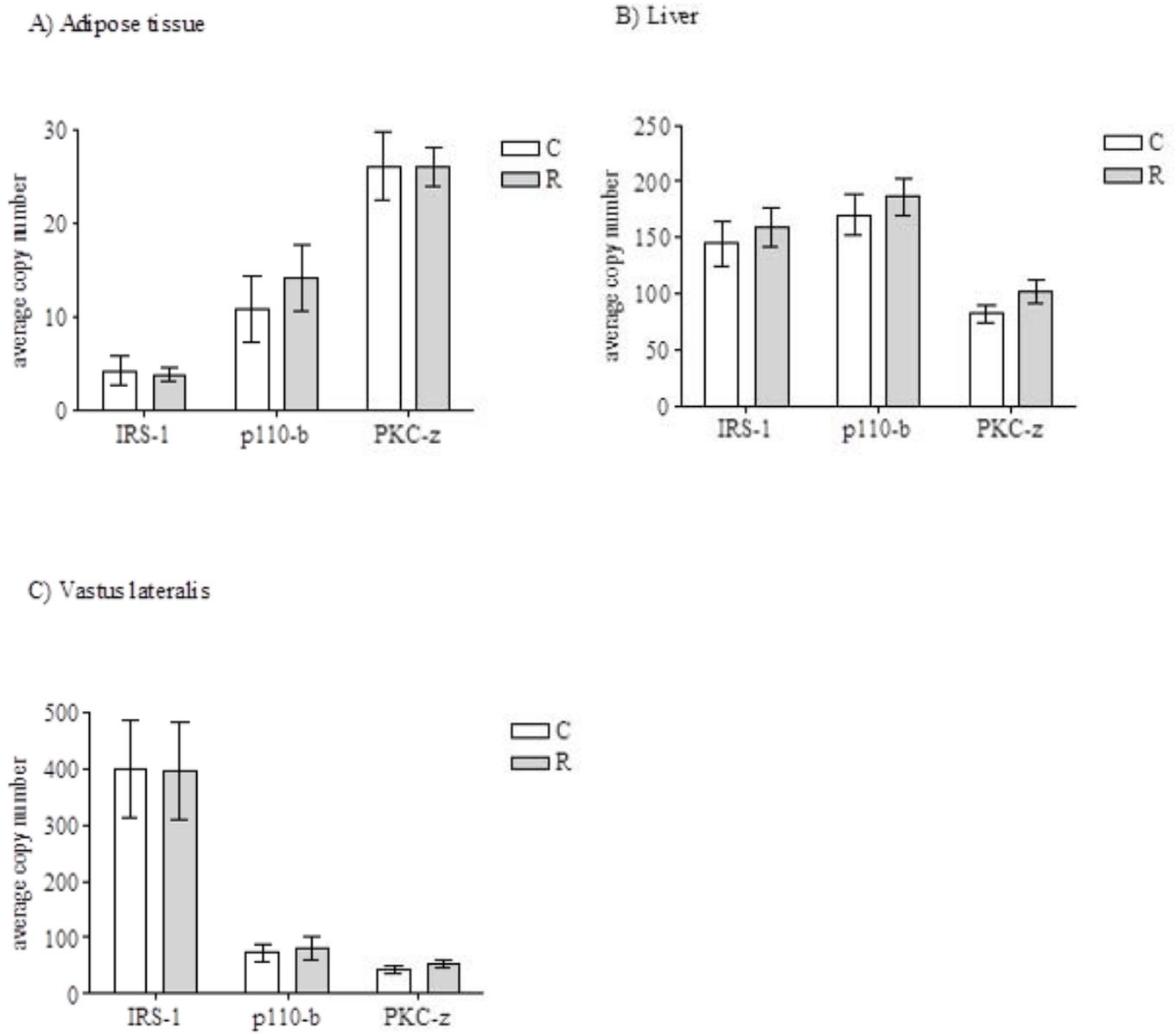
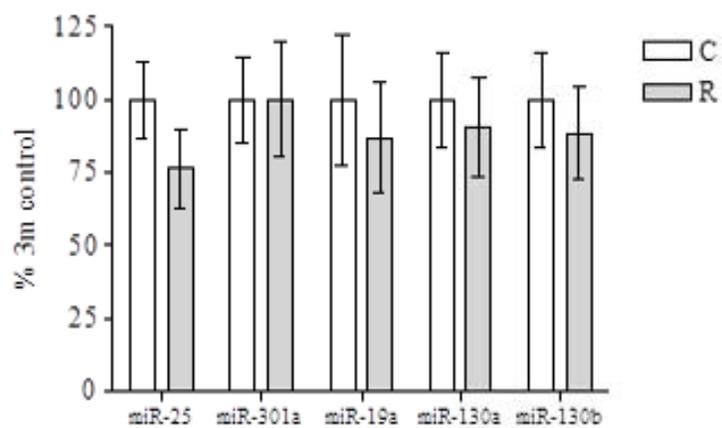


Figure 4

A) miRNA targets to p110- β



B) miRNA targets to IRS-1

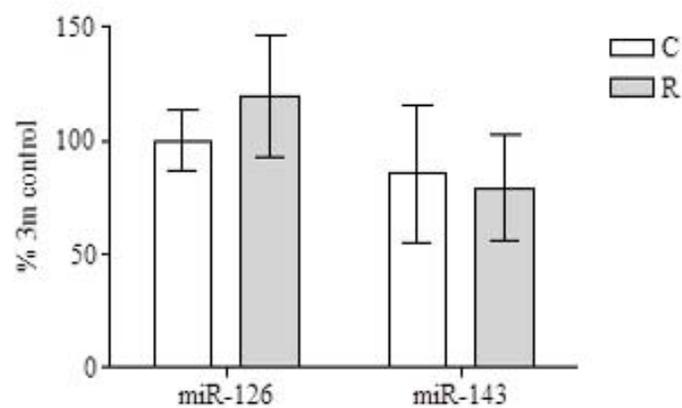
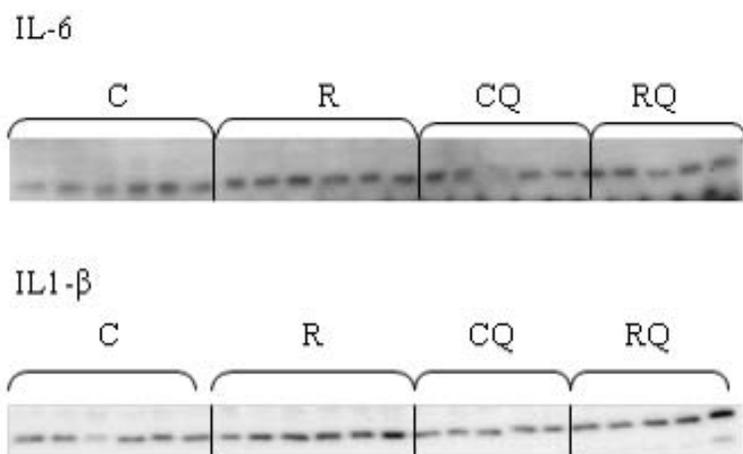
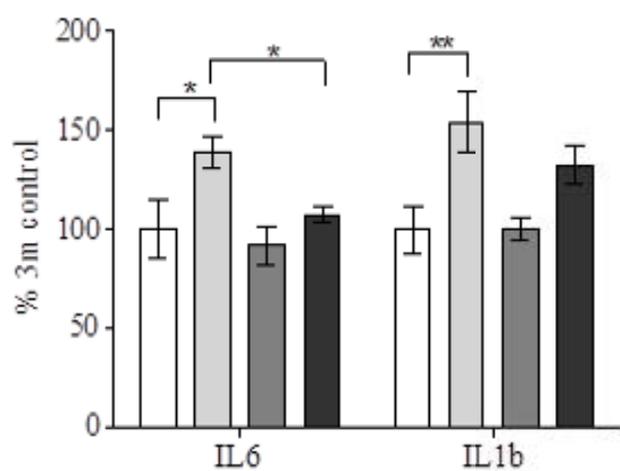


Figure 5

A) IL-6 and IL1 β



B) Tnf- α , tgf β 1, leptin & mcp1

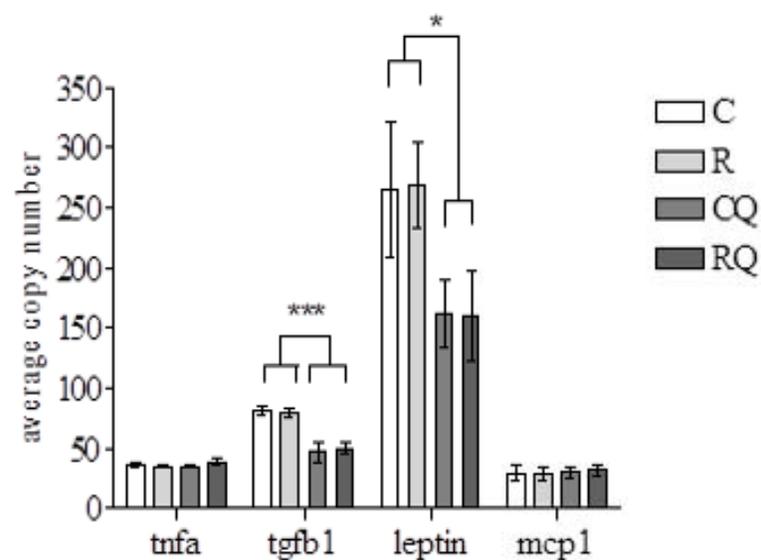
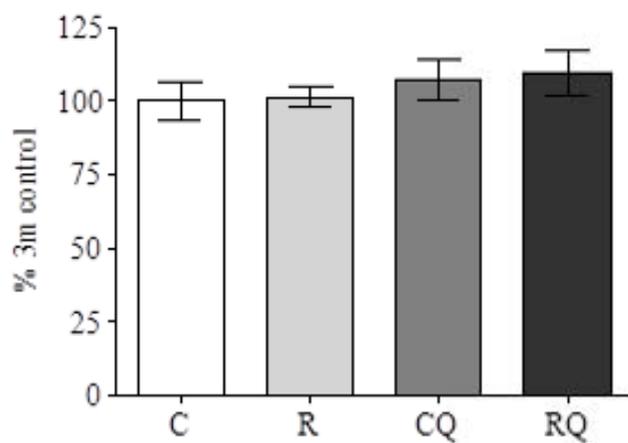
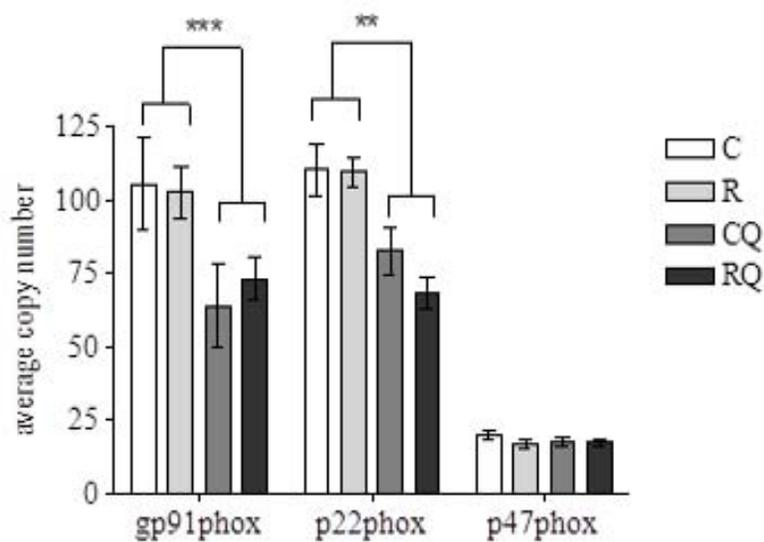


Figure 6

A) XO



B) NOX-2



C) Antioxidant defense capacity

