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Title: One-Year Supplementation with a Grape Extract Containing Resveratrol Modulates Inflammatory-Related microRNAs and Cytokines Expression in Peripheral Blood Mononuclear Cells of Type 2 Diabetes and Hypertensive Patients with Coronary Artery Disease



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2	Inflammatory-Related microRNAs and Cytokines Expression in Peripheral Blood
3	Mononuclear Cells of Type 2 Diabetes and Hypertensive Patients with Coronary Artery
4	Disease
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16	Running title: Gene expression and miRs regulation in PBMCs by resveratrol
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23	Abbreviations: RES, resveratrol; GE, grape extract; GE-RES, resveratrol-containing grape
24	extract; T2DM, type 2 diabetes mellitus; PBMCs, peripheral blood mononuclear cells; CCL3,
25	C-C motif chemokine 3; IL, interleukin; TNF-α, Tumor necrosis factor; LRRFIP, Leucine-rich
26	repeat flightless-interacting protein 2: NF-LB Nuclear factor NF-kappa-B: miR microRNA

27 ABSTRACT

28	Numerous studies have shown that resveratrol (RES) exerts anti-inflammatory effects but
29	human trials evidencing these effects in vivo are limited. Furthermore, the molecular
30	mechanisms triggered in humans following the oral intake of RES are not yet understood.
31	Therefore, the purpose of this study was to investigate the molecular changes in peripheral blood
32	mononuclear cells (PBMCs) associated to the one-year daily intake of a RES enriched (8 mg)
33	grape extract (GE-RES) in hypertensive male patients with type 2 diabetes mellitus (T2DM). We
34	used microarrays and RT-PCR to analyze expression changes in genes and microRNAs (miRs)
35	involved in the inflammatory response modulated by the consumption of GE-RES in
36	comparison to a placebo and GE lacking RES. We also examined the changes in several
37	serobiochemical variables, inflammatory and fibrinolytic markers. Our results showed that
38	supplementation with GE or GE-RES did not affect body weight, blood pressure, glucose,
39	HbAlc or lipids, beyond the values regulated by gold standard medication in these patients.
40	We did not find either any significant change on serum inflammatory markers except for a
41	significant reduction of ALP and IL-6 levels. The expression of the pro-inflammatory
42	cytokines $CCL3$, $IL-1\beta$ and $TNF-\alpha$ was significantly reduced and that of the transcriptional
43	repressor <i>LRRFIP-1</i> increased in PBMCs from patients taking the GE-RES extract. Also, a
44	group of miRs involved in the regulation of the inflammatory response: miR-21, miR-181b,
45	miR-663, miR-30c2, miR-155 and miR-34a were found to be highly correlated and altered in
46	the group consuming the GE-RES for 12 months. Our results provide preliminary evidence
47	that long-term supplementation with a grape extract containing RES downregulates the
48	expression of key pro-inflammatory cytokines with the involvement of inflammation-related
49	miRs in circulating immune cells of T2DM hypertensive medicated patients and support a
50	beneficial immunomodulatory effect that may contribute to treatment.

51

52 Keywords: polyphenols, immune cells, transcriptomics, miRs, microarrays

1. Introduction

Understanding the specific in vivo cell and molecular mechanisms triggered in humans by
the regular intake of low doses of dietary polyphenols which may explain the health benefits
of these compounds is still an unresolved question. This is no less true for one of the most
extensively investigated polyphenols, resveratrol (RES). The knowledge accrued on the
bioavailability, bioactivity and cellular mechanisms and pathways allegedly regulated by RES
has been thoroughly reviewed [1, 2]. The human trials conducted up to now have evidenced
that RES exerts cardioprotective benefits through the amelioration of inflammatory markers as
well as of the atherogenic profile, glucose metabolism and endothelial function. These effects
have been shown using both high and low doses of RES and in healthy volunteers and
medicated patients [3]. However, the specific mechanisms by which these effects may occur
are not yet clear. This is a complex issue since the actual molecule(s) or intermediary signals
responsible for the effects have not yet been fully identified nor has been well established in
which specific tissues, organs or cells the direct action of these molecules or signals occurs. In
addition, to obtain tissue samples either from healthy volunteers or patients is not a simple task
and does not help to this research. Alternatively, peripheral blood mononuclear cells
(PBMCs), constituted mostly by circulating T and B lymphocytes and monocytes, are
considered a useful cell source for in vivo gene expression and molecular studies in humans
[4]. PBMCs are easily collected and are thought to reflect the metabolic regulation occurring
in other tissues (i.e. liver or adipose tissue) [5]. These cells are also involved in the immune
response and in inflammation-related disorders such as atherosclerosis, playing an important
role in the acute manifestation of plaque destabilization [6]. The study of the molecular
changes occurring in circulating blood cells in response to dietary modifications can help to
understand the mechanisms underlying the benefits of dietary polyphenols. For example, the
regular consumption of orange juice or of one of its polyphenol components, hesperidin, for a
few weeks has been reported to exert a major impact on leukocytes gene expression in

79	overweight healthy volunteers. Many of these genes were implicated in centuar processes
80	associated with the inflammatory response and lipid metabolism [7].
81	In addition to the above, there is the issue of the emerging complexity of the regulatory
82	molecular mechanisms by which cells respond to perturbations of the surrounding
83	environment such as, for example, the exposure to dietary compounds or derived metabolites.
84	One common pattern of cellular response is the early regulation of key transcriptional factors
85	followed by more sustained changes in the transcription of genes and regulatory pathways
86	involved in the specific response (regulatory modules) [8]. Gene expression regulation occurs
87	not only at the level of transcript synthesis but also during mRNA processing and translation.
88	Translation mechanisms are particularly important in the regulation of the metabolic responses
89	to nutrients, where a rapid and effective response is required. Among the translational control
90	mechanisms, non-coding RNAs such as miRs have a major impact in gene expression
91	regulation [9]. MiRs have been reported to regulate diverse metabolic pathways and to have a
92	role in inflammation and in the pathogenesis of metabolic disorders such as T2DM [10].
93	Importantly, several polyphenols associated with a decreased risk in CVDs and metabolic
94	diseases have now been reported to modulate the levels of miRs. Among those, RES has been
95	shown to modify glucose and lipid metabolism through the regulation of various miRs in
96	human monocytes, a process that may be implicated in the anti-inflammatory and anti-
97	carcinogenic properties of this polyphenol [11]. However, these effects were seen in cultured
98	monocytes exposed to very high concentrations of RES (30-50 ! M) which cannot be attained
99	in the human plasma through the dietary intake of RES-containing foods [12]. Recent studies
100	have shown that one-year daily consumption of low doses of a grape extract (GE) containing RES
101	by patients with stable coronary artery disease (CAD) improved serum levels of adiponectin and
102	plasminogen activator inhibitor type 1 (PAI-1) as well as caused a general downregulation of
103	genes involved in inflammation in PBMCs [13]. There are not many studies looking at the
104	molecular mechanisms by which low doses of RES may modulate the inflammatory response in

vivo and even less in medicated subjects. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to further
investigate the molecular changes associated to the regular intake of low doses of a RES-
containing grape extract (GE-RES) in PBMCs isolated from hypertensive patients with T2DM.
We analyzed gene expression changes induced by the GE-RES in comparison to a placebo group
and to a group consuming the GE lacking RES. In addition, we examined the changes in the levels
of several miRs which are known to be involved in the regulation of the inflammatory response
and explored the relationships between the expression of selected target genes, miRs and various
serum markers related to inflammation.

2. Materials & Methods

2.1. Patients and study design

This study was carried out with a subset of male type-2 diabetic and hypertensive
medicated patients (n=35) which were all participants in a larger intervention study previously
described [13]. Briefly, these patients had stable CAD and were treated according to current
accepted guidelines for secondary prevention of CVDs. Patients were recruited from the
Morales Meseguer University Hospital Cardiology Service (Murcia, Spain). All patients had
stable angina or acute coronary syndrome at least 6 months before the inclusion in the study,
left ventricular ejection fraction! 45 %, Class I or II according to the New York Heart
Association functional classification and medical therapy according to European Society of
Cardiology (ESC) guidelines (statins, β -blockers, antiplatelets, RAS-blockers treatment and
oral antidiabetics) for more than 3 months before inclusion. Exclusion criteria were liver
enzymes! 3- fold over normal values or renal failure (creatinine > 1.5 mg/dL), steroid or
anticoagulant treatment, habitual intake of food supplements (herbal preparations,
'antioxidant' pills), infectious or neoplastic diseases or other known chronic pathology. The
study was a randomized placebo-controlled, triple-blind, dose-response, 1-year follow-up with
three parallel arms designated as placebo (maltodextrin), GE (conventional grape extract

131	lacking resveratrol) and GE-RES (grape extract containing resveratrol). The 35 patients
132	studied here were randomly allocated as follows: placebo (n=9), GE (n=13) and GE-RES
133	(n=13). Table 1 and Table 2 present the baseline clinical characteristics and biochemical
134	variables, respectively, for the 35 participants at the inclusion into the study. The design was
135	approved by the Clinical Ethics Committee from the Morales Meseguer University Hospital
136	(Murcia, Spain; reference of the study 02/07) and by the CSIC's Bioethics Committee
137	(Madrid, Spain). All patients provided written informed consent to participate in the study.
138	This trial was registered at clinicaltrials.gov as NCT01449110.
139	The extracts used in this study were provided in identical code-labeled capsules, containing
140	350 mg of either maltodextrin, GE or GE-RES. The composition of the grape extracts has been
141	previously described [14]. Importantly, the phenolic content of the GE and the GE-RES was
142	very similar (151 \pm 17 mg and 139 \pm 18 mg phenolics per capsule, respectively) but GE-RES
143	also contained 8.1 ± 0.5 mg of RES per capsule. Therefore, the GE and the GE-RES extracts
144	constituted an ideal model to establish the possible specific role of RES against the rest of the
145	polyphenolic constituents of the grape extract. All the extracts used in the study, including
146	GE-RES (Stilvid®), were provided by Laboratorios Actafarma S.L. (Pozuelo de Alarcón,
147	Spain). Patients were instructed to take one capsule per day in the morning, for the first 6
148	months and two capsules per day for the following 6 months. Patients were also requested to
149	continue with their habitual medication (Table 1), customary lifestyle and diet throughout the
150	12 months intervention and to avoid the intake of grape-derived products, especially red wine.
151	Potential incidences (dietary habit changes, febrile processes, treatment interruptions, etc.), as
152	well as general adverse effects such as dyspepsia, diarrhea, constipation, nausea or allergic
153	reactions to grape were monitored through questionnaires and phone calls along the study.

154

155

2.2. Blood collection and peripheral blood mononuclear cells isolation

156	Subjects were instructed to fast overnight before each blood collection. Blood samples were
157	collected between 8 and 10 AM to minimize circadian variations. Blood samples were
158	collected in heparinized tubes (BD Vacutainer, Franklin Lakes, NJ, USA) at baseline (day
159	before first pill intake), 6 and 12 months of treatment, processed within two hours after
160	extraction and used to isolate peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMCs). Isolation was
161	carried out under sterile conditions to avoid monocytes' activation. Blood was diluted (1:1)
162	with RPMI 1640 cell culture medium and centrifuged by density gradient with Histopaque-
163	1077 (Sigma-Aldrich, Madrid, Spain) according to the manufacturer instructions. After
164	washing the PBMCs (! 2) with phosphate buffer solution (PBS), the cells were lysed,
165	homogenized in RLT buffer (Qiagen, Madrid, Spain) and stored at -80 °C prior to RNA and
166	protein extraction.
167	
168	2.3. RNA and protein extraction protocols
169	Total RNA and protein were isolated from PBMCs using the AllPrep DNA/RNA/Protein
170	Mini Kit (Qiagen, Madrid, Spain) following the manufacturer recommendations. RNA
171	concentration and purity were checked using the Nanodrop ND-1000 UV-Vis
172	Spectrophotometer (Nanodrop Technologies) and the Agilent 2100 Bioanalyzer (Agilent,
173	Madrid, Spain). Only samples with a ratio Abs_{260}/Abs_{280} between 1.8 and 2.1 and RIN (RNA
174	integrity number) values above 8.5 were used in microarray experiments. Purified RNA and
175	protein samples were divided in aliquots and frozen at -80 °C until further analysis.
176	
177	2.4. Microarray analysis
178	A search for potential candidate genes expressed in the PBMCs for which transcription
179	levels may have been altered after the consumption of the GE or the GE-RES was performed
180	using the GeneChip Human Gene 1.0 ST Array (Affymetrix, Santa Clara, CA). This array
181	contains 764,885 distinct probe sets that interrogate approximately 28,869 well-annotated

182	human genes and a set of 192 microRNAs. Microarrays were performed in RNA samples
183	from six individuals (not pooled) per group (placebo, GE and GE-RES) at 3 different time
184	points (6 chips at baseline, 6 chips at 6 months and 6 chips at 12 months; total number of
185	microarrays = 54) [13]. For each sample, 250 ng of total RNA were processed according to the
186	GeneChip® Whole Transcript (WT) Sense Target Labeling protocol (Affymetrix, Santa Clara,
187	CA, USA). Amplified sense single-strand DNA was obtained using the Ambion® WT
188	Expression Kit (Life Technologies) and $5.5~\mu g$ of DNA were fragmented, labeled with the WT
189	terminal Labeling kit, and hybridized for 16 h at 45 °C onto the chips. GeneChips were
190	washed and stained in the Affymetrix Fluidics Station 450 and scanned using the GeneChip
191	Scanner 3000.
192	The CEL files were used to extract and normalize the data using Robust Multichip Average
193	(RMA) implemented with the algorithm RMA Sketch for 1.0 ST arrays in the GeneChip
194	Expression Console software version 1.1.2 (Affymetrix). RMA-normalized data were tested
195	for differential gene expression between time points using the Class Comparison tool and an
196	empirical Bayes method (Limma) [15] implemented with Babelomics
197	(http://babelomics.bioinfo.cipf.es/) which performs well for small n microarrays [16]. Using
198	this model, genes differentially expressed after 6 and 12 months of the intervention for each
199	group were defined as those with an adjusted P -value < 0.05 and with fold-change ≥ 1.2 (up-
200	regulation) and < -1.2 (down-regulation). Topmost significant differentially expressed genes
201	(fold-change >1.5 and <-1.5) were uploaded into Ingenuity Pathway Analysis (IPA) software
202	(Ingenuity® Systems, Redwood City, CA). Minimum information about a microarray
203	experiment (MIAME) compliant data have been submitted to the Gene Expression Omnibus
204	database (GEO, http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/geo/) and can be accessed through GEO Series
205	accession number GSE36930.

206

207

2.5. RT-PCR analysis for target genes

208	Changes in the expression of several selected target genes responding to supplementation
209	with GE-RES were further validated by one-step quantitative RT-PCR (Taqman system,
210	Applied Biosystems, ABI, Madrid, Spain). Primers and probes for the genes were selected
211	from Assays-on-demand (ABI, Madrid, Spain) as follows: $TNF-\alpha$ (tumor necrosis factor-
212	alpha) (Hs00174128_m1), IL - 1β (interleukin 1, beta) (Hs01555410_m1), $LRRFIP$ - 1 (leucine
213	rich repeat (in FLII) interacting protein 1) (Hs01589950_m1), CCL3 (chemokine (C-C motif)
214	ligand 3) (Hs00234142_m1), NFKB-1 (nuclear factor of kappa light polypeptide gene
215	enhancer in B-cells 1) (Hs00765730_m1), NFKBIA (nuclear factor of kappa light polypeptide
216	gene enhancer in B-cells inhibitor, alpha) (Hs00153283_m1). Relative expression was
217	measured by one-step quantitative RT-PCR (Taqman system, ABI, Madrid, Spain) run on the
218	ABI 7500 system following the manufacturer's suggested cycling parameters: 48 °C for 30
219	min, 95 °C for 10 min and then 40 cycles of 95 °C for 15 s, followed by 60 °C for 1 min. RT-
220	PCR was performed in 25 μ L reaction volumes in MicroAmp Optical 96-well plates covered
221	by optical adhesive covers and using Taqman Universal Master Mix (ABI, Madrid, Spain). All
222	data were normalized to the endogenous reference gene GAPDH (glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate
223	dehydrogenase) (Hs99999905_m1) expression. All assays for a particular gene were
224	undertaken at the same time under identical conditions and in triplicate. Relative expression
225	was calculated by the comparative Ct method and presented as relative expression ratio (2 ^{-! ! Ct})
226	[17].
227	
228	2.6. RT-PCR analysis for miRs
229	For miRs quantification, total RNA was reverse-transcribed using the miScript Reverse
230	Transcription kit (Qiagen, Madrid, Spain). Relative expression was measured using the
231	miScript SYBR Green PCR kit on a 7900HT Fast Real-Time PCR system following the
232	manufacturer protocol (Qiagen). Specific primers for each miR (miScript Primer Assay) were

233	also obtained from Qiagen. Relative expression was calculated as described above using U6
234	for normalization.
235	
236	2.7. Serobiochemical variables, inflammatory and fibrinolytic markers
237	Biochemical variables were determined in serum using an automated biochemical auto-
238	analyzer (Advia Systems, Siemens Healthcare Diagnostic Inc., Deerfield, IL, USA) as
239	previously described [13]. The tests included the measurement of glucose, creatinine, albumin,
240	bilirubin, total cholesterol (TChol), HDL-cholesterol (HDLc), LDL-cholesterol (LDLc),
241	triglycerides, alanine aminotransferase (ALT), alkaline phosphatase (ALP), aspartate
242	aminotransferase (AST), γ-glutamyl transferase (GGT), creatine phosphokinase (CPK) and
243	urate. Non-HDLc was calculated as Tchol-LDLc. Coagulation parameters were determined in
244	serum using an ACL TOP 700 analyzer (Instrumentation laboratory, Lexinton, MA, USA).
245	Thyroxine (T4) and stimulant hormone of the thyroid gland (TSH) were measured in an Advia
246	Centaur XP system (Siemens Healthcare Diagnostic). Serum levels of inflammation-related
247	markers were measured by enzyme-linked immunosorbent assays (ELISA) using
248	commercially available standard kits following protocols described by the manufacturers. IL-
249	6, IL-10 and TNF-α were measured using ELISA kits from Biolegend (San Diego, CA). In the
250	case of hsCRP (high-sensitivity C-reactive protein) and adiponectin, kits were purchased from
251	AssayPro (Winfield, MO). PAI-1 antigen levels were measured in citrated plasma using
252	PeproTech's (Rocky Hill, NJ) ELISA kits. All samples were tested at least in duplicate.
253	
254	2.8. Levels of TNF-! protein in PBMCs
255	Protein was extracted from PBMCs at baseline and after 12 months of supplementation and
256	was quantified using the DC protein assay kit (Biorad, Barcelona, Spain) based on the Lowry
257	assay. The levels of TNF-! levels were measured using a human TNF-α ultrasensitive ELISA

kit (Invitrogen, Barcelona, Spain) following the manufacturer's recommended protocol and
are presented as pg/mg of protein.

Statistical analyses

262	Qualitative data are shown as proportions. Quantitative data are expressed as the mean
263	value \pm SD or as the median and the 25 th to 75 th interquartile range (expression data). For RT-
264	PCR results, the statistical analyses were applied to the normalized Ct values: to the
265	endogenous control GAPDH (Ct_{target} – Ct_{GAPDH}) for genes or to the endogenous control U6
266	$(Ct_{target}$ - $Ct_{U6})$ for microRNAs. All analyses were performed with SPSS 19.0 (SPSS Inc,
267	Chicago, USA). Assumptions of normality and equal variances were checked to perform the
268	appropriate statistical test. Variables with skewed distribution were logarithm transformed
269	prior to analysis. The accepted level of significance was $P < 0.05$. Baseline data (Table 1 and
270	Table 2) were analyzed to determine possible significant starting inter-group differences.
271	Categorical variables were compared using the Chi-square test and numerical variables were
272	analyzed using one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) or the non-parametric Krustal-Wallis
273	test when the ANOVA assumptions were not met even after log transformation. For intra-
274	group comparisons and when the data met the required assumptions, we used one-way
275	analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) for repeated measurements. Post-hoc tests were used for
276	additional inter-group comparisons. The covariates used for adjustment were age, body mass
277	index, smoking, diagnosed hypercholesterolemia, ! -blockers, and type of statin. When the
278	assumptions required for ANCOVA were not reached (even after log transformation), intra-
279	group analyses were done using the Friedman repeated measurements test followed by the
280	Wilcoxon test and inter-group comparisons were assessed by the Krustal-Wallis test followed
281	by the Mann-Whitney test. Pearson's correlation coefficients or Spearman's rank correlation
282	coefficients were used to explore the relationship between the expression levels of the genes,
283	microRNAs and selected variables.

284	
285	3. Results
286	3.1. Effects of dietary interventions on serobiochemical variables, inflammatory and
287	fibrinolytic markers
288	All recruited patients completed the study and none experienced adverse effects
289	(intolerance, dyspepsia, allergic reactions, etc) during the one-year consumption of the
290	placebo, GE or GE-RES extract. All participants consumed more than 95% of the expected
291	capsules (compliance levels > 95%). Table 1 and Table 2 show that none of the investigated
292	clinical characteristics and serobiochemical variables and markers presented statistically
293	significant inter-group differences at baseline ($P < 0.05$). Values measured at the end of the
294	12-month supplementation as well as the significance of the intra-group variation with time
295	are shown in Table 3. Overall these results show that most of the variables and markers
296	examined were not significantly modified after supplementation with placebo, GE or GE-RES
297	Of specific interest for this group of hypertensive diabetic patients, no reduction was detected
298	in blood pressure, serum lipids, glucose or HbA1c following the consumption of GE or GE-
299	RES. Serum ALP was moderately reduced at the end of the study in the three groups but only
300	significantly in the groups consuming the GE-RES (13.4 %, $P < 0.05$) or the GE (16.1 %, $P < 0.05$)
301	0.05). Regarding the inflammatory markers, the most significant results were found for IL-6
302	which was significantly reduced in the volunteers consuming the GE-RES (13.3 %, $P < 0.05$)
303	In the placebo group we found a significant ($P < 0.05$) decrease in the levels of adiponectin
304	and of IL-10 which was reflected in a significant increase in the Il-6/IL-10 ratio.
305	
306	3.2. Effects of RES-GE on PBMNCs transcriptomics
307	Using the analysis model described in the Materials and Methods section, we analysed and
308	compared microarrays results between the experimental groups: placebo, GE, and, GE-RES

after 6 and 12 months of supplementation. We specifically focused on those genes and miRs

309

3.3. RT-PCR analyses of expression changes in selected gene targets and miRs

We further analysed by RT-PCR the changes in the transcript levels for three key cytokines involved in the inflammatory response: CCL3, $IL-1\beta$ and $TNF-\alpha$ as well as for two important transcriptional regulators, LRRFIP-1 and the $NF\kappa B$ complex, more specifically, for the $NF\kappa B-1$ unit (p105, precursor to the p50 subunit) and for $NF\kappa BIA$ (inhibitor to $NF\kappa B$). In addition, we analysed the changes in several miRs implicated in inflammation. Baseline transcription

336	levels for all these genes and <i>miks</i> are shown in Fig. 1. Based on the dct values, the
337	quantitative order for the expression levels of the genes was: $NF\kappa BIA$! $IL-1\beta > LRRFIP-1 >$
338	$NF\kappa B-1 > TNF-\alpha > CCL3$. Data distribution indicated that the variability was slightly higher
339	for the cytokines IL - 1β (coefficient of variation, $CV = 7.9$ %) and TNF- α ($CV = 5.6$ %) than
340	for $CCL3$ and the transcription factors (CV = 3.2–3.6 %) (Fig. 1a). The miR exhibiting the
341	highest expression level in PBMCs was miR-663 whereas miR-21 and miR-30c-2 showed the
342	lowest values. The variability in the expression levels for the $miRs$ ranged from CV = 4.0 %
343	for $miR-663$ to CV = 7.0 % for $miR-21$ (Fig. 1b).
344	The most significant intra-group gene expression changes were found after 12 months of
345	intervention, mainly, after supplementation with GE-RES (Table 5 and Fig. 2). We confirmed
346	that the transcript levels of CCL3, IL-1 β and TNF- α were most significantly downregulated
347	and $LRRFIP-1$ upregulated in the GE-RES group and that the expression of $IL-1\beta$ was also
348	significantly downregulated in the GE group. The levels of $NF\kappa B-1$ were not altered except for
349	the placebo group where a slight but significant downregulation was observed after 12 months
350	The inhibitor unit $NF\kappa BIA$ exhibited a decrease trend in the three groups which reached
351	significance only in the volunteers who took the GE. We additionally calculated the inter-
352	group differences at the end of the study (12 months) (Fig. 2). The mRNA levels of IL - 1β and
353	$TNF-\alpha$ resulted lower in the group consuming the GE-RES than in the placebo group by 62%
354	$(P=0.037)$ and 46% $(P=0.064)$, respectively. <i>IL-1β</i> was also significantly lower in the group
355	consuming the GE than in the placebo group. CCL3 and LRRFIP-1 exhibited only a tendency
356	to decrease (24 %, P =0.189) and to increase (32%, P =0.142), respectively, when compared
357	with the placebo group. $NF\kappa BIA$ mRNA levels were significantly higher (45%, P <0.039) in
358	the GE-RES group than in the placebo group.
359	Intra-group changes for the <i>miRs</i> are shown in Table 6 and Figure 3. The profile of change
360	was similar for miR-21, miR-181b, miR-663 and miR-30c2. These molecules displayed a
361	general downregulation in the placebo and the GE groups whereas the trend was slightly

362	different in the group consuming the GE-RES extract, where the levels of these miRs remained
363	constant or exhibited a tendency to increase, especially after 12 months of supplementation.
364	Inter-groups comparison supported these results with the levels of miR-21, miR-181b, miR-663
365	and miR -30c2 being significantly higher in the GE-RES group than in the placebo group (P <
366	0.05) and, for miR-21, miR-663 and miR-30c2, also significantly higher than in the GE group
367	(Fig. 3). On the other hand, the levels of miR-155 were most significantly downregulated after
368	treatment with GE-RES and with GE but we did not find any inter-group significant
369	differences. Mir-34a was not significantly altered with time in any of the three groups but at
370	the end of the study the levels of this miR were significantly lower in the GE-RES and the GE
371	groups in comparison with the placebo group. Using the miRWalk database [18] we found that
372	IL -1 β and NF κ B -1 are validated or predicted targets for miR -21 and miR -181 b and that NF κ B -
373	1 is also a target for miR-30c. Of note, LRRFIP-1 is a predicted target of miR-155 and miR-
374	34a, while $NF\kappa BIA$ is a target of miR -34a (www.targetscan.org).
375	
376	3.4. TNF-α in PBMCs from the three groups of volunteers
377	In an attempt to find out whether some of the observed transcriptional changes were
378	translated into protein changes we measured the levels of TNF- α in PBMCs from the three
379	groups of volunteers. At baseline, the values found were: 0.7 ± 1.1 pg/mg total protein for the
380	placebo group, 1.4 ± 1.5 pg/mg in the GE group and 1.7 ± 1.6 pg/mg in the GE-RES group.
381	No significant inter-group differences were detected. After 12 months of supplementation, no
382	significant intra-group or inter-group variations of the protein were found (final values of
383	TNF- α : 2.2 ± 1.9 pg/mg in the placebo group, 1.2 ± 1.0 pg/mg in the GE group and 1.4 ± 1.0
384	pg/mg in the GE-RES group).
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3.5. Correlations between miRs expression, genes expression and serum markers

In an attempt to understand the potential interplay between the investigated miRs, target
genes and serum markers we applied correlation analyses. We found that, at baseline
(Supplemental Table 3), most of the miRs investigated in the PBMCs exhibited a significant
(P < 0.05) and high positive correlation. The maximum correlation was found between $miR-21$
and miR-181b with miR-30c2 whereas miR-663 was also highly correlated to miR-34a, miR-
155 and miR-181b. Among the genes examined, IL-1 β , TNF- α and NF!BIA also displayed a
significant positive correlation. In addition, NF! BIA was found to be negatively correlated
with miR-30c2 and miR-21 and LRRFIP-1 exhibited a negative correlation with miR-663.
Supplemental Table 3 also shows some significant correlations found between genes or miRs
and specific markers. The levels of TNF- α in PBMCs displayed a significant and positive
correlation with the mRNA levels of $TNF-\alpha$, $IL-1\beta$ and $NF!BIA$ but not with serum TNF- α
which was found negatively correlated to NF1B1. Other serum markers of interest such as
serum IL-6 had a negative correlation with the expression of $IL-1\beta$ in PBMCs and adiponectin
was found to be positively correlated with miR-663 and CCL3. We did not find any significant
correlation between the basal levels of ALP and any of the genes or miRs investigated.
We next examined the overall correlation at the end of the one-year supplementation and
also explored each group separately (Supplemental Table 4). After 12 months of treatment, we
observed that the overall correlation values were, in general, lower and less or not significant
in comparison to baseline indicating a general deregulation of the investigated molecules. We
estimated the extent of differential correlation between the three groups by computing the
variance of the separate correlation values [19] which ranged from 0.001 to 0.406. The lowest
variance is associated to pairs of molecules that are still correlated after supplementation and
have similar correlation values in each group. This was the case for some of the miRs, e.g. the
pairs formed by miR-21/miR-181b, miR-21/miR-30c2 or miR-181b/miR-30c2. As the variance
increases differences in the correlation values between the groups become larger suggesting an

with the mRNA levels of TNF - α .	
group exposed to the GE-RES. In addition, serum ALP also displayed a	negative correlation
between the protein and mRNA levels of TNF- α in PBMCs remained si	gnificant only in the
most of the correlation values were not significant at the end of the stud	y. The correlation
663/miR-34a or miR-21/miR-34a. With regards to the investigated mark	ers, we found that
effect of the supplementation on the correlation between molecules, e.g.	, the pair mik-

4. Discussion

A plethora of cell and animal studies have indicated that RES exerts anti-inflammatory
effects in association with the modulation of key molecules involved the inflammatory
response. Instead, clinical trials addressing the anti-inflammatory effects of RES are limited
and only a few studies have looked at potential molecular mechanisms triggered in humans
following the oral intake of RES [1–3]. Furthermore, studies looking at long-term effects of
RES in medicated patients are only beginning to emerge [13, 14, 20]. In this context, the
present study adds to the knowledge on the effects of long-term consumption of low doses of
RES in medicated subjects with established heart disease. Our main findings were: i) one-year
supplementation with a GE alone or containing an additional small amount of RES did not
modify body weight, blood pressure, serum levels of glucose, HbAlc or lipids, beyond the
values regulated by gold standard medication in hypertensive T2DM male patients; ii)
treatment with GE or GE-RES did not cause significant changes on a range of serum markers
except for a small but significant reduction of ALP; importantly, GE-RES significantly
downregulated the levels of IL-6; iii) the expression of the pro-inflammatory cytokines CCL3,
IL -1 β and TNF - α was most significantly downregulated and that of the transcriptional
repressor LRRFIP-1 upregulated in PBMCs from patients taking the GE-RES extract; iv) in
addition, several miRs involved in the inflammatory response and expressed in PBMCs (miR-

- 21, *miR-181b*, *miR-663*, *miR-30c2*, *miR-155* and *miR-34a*) were highly correlated and significantly altered in the group consuming GE-RES.
- Various studies in rodents had reported a reducing effect of RES on blood pressure, serum lipids, and glucose [3]. In pigs, an animal with physiological and genomic similarities to humans [21], RES exhibited different effects. For example, in high-fat fed pigs, 100 mg
- RES/kg b.w. (Human Equivalent Dose, HED: ~6400 mg/70 Kg person) for 7–11 weeks

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reduced the levels of serum cholesterol, glucose, BMI and systolic blood pressure [22–24] whereas a much smaller dose (8 mg/70 Kg person) for one year did not affect these variables [25] suggesting that high pharmacological rather than low dietary doses of RES are needed to cause significant effects in these models. In humans, results are limited and inconsistent and not only depend on the dose and duration of the trial but also on the individuals evaluated, e.g. medicated patients or healthy volunteers. In T2DM patients, a reduction in blood pressure, glucose, HbAlc, and serum lipids has been reported at high doses of the compound (250 mg for 3 months) [26] whereas smaller doses (10 mg for 4 weeks) only affected glucose levels [27]. On the other hand, in overweight patients [28] or with metabolic syndrome [29] these variables were not modified even at high doses of RES and, in healthy volunteers, only a small reduction in systolic pressure [30] and in triglycerides [31] has been observed following the intake of high doses of RES for 30 days. In our study, both the low dose of RES administered and the fact that these variables were tightly controlled by the medication may contribute to explaining the lack of effects on these variables. We detected a small but significant decrease of serum ALP in volunteers consuming the GE or the GE-RES. These results are in agreement with previous studies showing a significant reduction of ALP in pigs fed a

459	hypercholesterolemic diet and supplemented with RES [32]. The physiological significance of
460	these results is not well understood but ALP activity has been associated with glucose
461	regulation [33] and is moderately but significantly increased (by ! 17%) in diabetic patients
462	[34]. Also, treatment with some antidiabetic drugs caused a decrease in serum ALP levels
463	positively correlated with changes in the levels of IL-6 [35] and thus, a reduction in ALP may
464	be associated to a decrease in the inflammatory conditions. In agreement with this and with
465	previous cell and animal studies [3], we also report here a significant downregulation of the
466	serum levels of IL-6 following the one-year intake of GE-RES. Nonetheless, other human
467	trials using high doses of RES (75 mg – 1500 mg for 1 to 3 months) failed to show changes in
468	serum IL-6 [36, 37] giving evidence, once more, of the variability in the effects of RES and its
469	dependence on doses, duration of treatment and individuals.
470	In this study we also confirmed a significant downregulation of the expression of key pro-
471	inflammatory cytokines involved in the pathogenesis of T2DM [38] in PBMCs isolated from
472	the volunteers consuming the GE-RES extract for 12 months. PBMCs play a critical role in the
473	inflammatory response and are considered suitable for comparative gene expression analyses
474	after dietary interventions [5, 7] but, variability must be controlled by strict sample handling
475	and processing protocols [4]. In our study, PBMCs were routinely isolated from fasted patients
476	during the same time gap in the morning and processed within 1 hour. Cell analyses showed
477	that the cell population remained quite homogeneous and was constituted mainly by
478	lymphocytes (84.4 \pm 2.9 %) and monocytes (13.0 \pm 3.2 %) and also by a small percentage of
479	granulocytes (2.2 \pm 1.0 %). In consonance with our results, various cell and animal studies
480	have reported that RES is associated with the downregulation of IL-1 β and TNF- α [2, 3]. More
481	specific studies looking at the effect of RES on gene expression regulation in cultured
482	lymphocytes or monocytes or in PBMCs are scarce but, for example, RES has been shown to
483	suppress IL-8 transcription in cultured phorbol ester-induced human monocytes [39] and to
484	reduce <i>TNF-α</i> and <i>IL-8</i> mRNA in cultured LPS/IFNγ-induced PBMCs [40]. Recent studies

have examined targeted gene expression changes in vivo in PBMCs following the
consumption of RES. In healthy subjects, the consumption of a plant (Polygonum cuspidatum)
extract containing RES (40 mg) for 3 to 6 weeks led to a significant downregulation of various
inflammation-related transcripts including, $TNF-\alpha$, $IL-6$ and $I!$! B transcripts, as well as to a
reduction in NF-! B binding activity [41]. In a later study, healthy subjects fed a high-fat, high-
carbohydrate diet and supplemented with RES plus a muscadine grape extract displayed a
significant downregulation of the diet-induced mRNA levels of IL - 1β but no effects on TNF - α
were reported [42]. Also, multiple-targeted analysis using microarrays has been implemented
to investigate the molecular changes induced in PBMCs in healthy volunteers after the intake
of RES, a RES-phosphate or a catechin-rich grape extract. These authors reported a general
effect on antioxidant, stress and anti-inflammatory related genes [43]. We had previously
shown that the one-year consumption of GE-RES improved the inflammatory and fibrinolytic
status of patients undergoing both primary [14, 20] and secondary [13] prevention of CVDs. In
a group of male diabetic hypertensive patients with stable CAD consuming GE-RES for one
year, several inflammation-related transcription factors were predicted to be inactivated and
various genes involved in inflammation downregulated in PBMCs [13]. These previous results
and the results presented here support that the consumption of RES is associated with a
moderate anti-inflammatory effect that is partially exposed by a transcription downregulation
of pro-inflammatory cytokines in circulating cells of the immune system. This effect might be
mediated through regulation of the NF-! B signaling system. Our functional analysis predicted
the inactivation of this transcription factor in PBMCs isolated from the patients consuming the
GE-RES extract (Table 4). We hypothesized that this inactivation might have been associated
to the downregulation of the expression of the subunit NFKB-1 and (or) upregulation of the
inhibitor NFKBIA, however, our microarrays and RT-PCR results did not confirm this
hypothesis and thus, NF-! B signaling might be regulated through alternative mechanisms. Of

510	note, we found that GE-RES significantly upregulated the expression of LRRFIP-1, a gene that
511	encodes for a transcriptional repressor that regulates Toll-like receptor signaling and whose
512	overexpression has been reported to inhibit the expression levels of <i>IL-1β</i> and of <i>TNF-α</i> in
513	monocytic cell lines [44].
514	With regards to the contents of TNF- α in PBMCs we did not detect a significant decrease
515	of the protein in parallel to the mRNA downregulation. Although a lack of correlation between
516	transcription and translation changes is not unusual due to possible differences between the
517	half-life and stability of the mRNA and protein molecules [45], we cannot discard that protein
518	data variability and the small number of participants per group may contribute to these results.
519	In addition, we were not able to find a correlation between the levels of TNF- α in PBMCs and
520	serum levels of the cytokine which may be explained by the fact that circulating levels of
521	TNF- α do not originate only from peripheral leukocytes, but may also come from the vessel
522	wall, other lymphoid tissues, or non-lymphoid cells such as hepatocytes and adipocytes. Also,
523	circulating cytokines can bind to extracellular matrix proteins or to cognate receptors and may
524	not represent the actual degree of immune activation or deactivation [46]. It has been
525	suggested that gene expression in peripheral blood cells may be more easily and rapidly
526	affected than systemic cytokine levels and may constitute an independent sign for modulation
527	of systemic inflammation [47, 48].
528	Growing evidence suggests that miRs play a significant role in inflammatory diseases such
529	as obesity and T2DM [10]. MiR-155, miR-21, miR-181b and miR-34a are among the most
530	investigated miRs in relation to inflammation and are involved in the regulation of Toll-like
531	receptor and NF-! B signaling [49] as well as in the regulation of the levels of inflammatory
532	cytokines such as TNF- α , IL-1 β and IL-6 [50, 51]. Our results indicate that in patients
533	consuming the GE-RES for 12 months, the observed downregulation of the pro-inflammatory
534	cytokines in PBMCs was concomitant with higher levels of miR-21, miR-181b, miR-663 and
535	miR-30c2 and lower levels of miR-155 and miR-34a in this group when compared to the

placebo or the GE group. The exact regulatory role of these molecules is difficult to determine
since both an effect of the cytokines on the miRs levels and of the miRs on the levels of
cytokines have been reported. Indeed, some miRs seems to reinforce an appropriately
'balanced' pathway by targeting both positive and negative regulatory components and thus
buffering gene expression against minor physiological variation [52]. For example, miR-181b
is a potent positive regulator of NF-! B signaling with TNF-α reducing miR-181b expression
and $miR-181b$ suppressing TNF- α -induced pro-inflammatory gene expression in endothelial
cells [53]. MiR-21 has also been described to act as an anti-inflammatory agent with a negative
regulatory loop: NF-! B activity is necessary for miR-21 induction but miR-21 also works to
inhibit NF-! B and its pro-inflammatory transcriptional targets $TNF-\alpha$ and $IL-1\beta$ [49, 50]. Mir -
34a has been recently identified as a novel inflammation negative regulator in macrophages
where inhibition of $miR-34a$ increased the expression of $TNF-\alpha$ and $IL-6$ [51] and, $miR-30c2$ is
also induced by NF-! B [54] with low levels of miR-30c2 being associated to high levels of
PAI-1 [55]. Of interest, miR-21, miR-34a and mir-30c2 have all been connected with diabetes
[10, 50]. MiR-663 has also been implicated in the inflammatory response of human endothelial
cells reducing TNF-α-induced monocyte adhesion [56] and miR-155 is one of the most
dynamically regulated miRs highly expressed in both activated B and T lymphocytes and in
monocytes/macrophages. The levels of miR-155 are upregulated during the immune response
in correlation with NF-! B activation and increased <i>miR-155</i> contributes to TNF-α production
[49, 57]. Conversely, inhibition of <i>miR-155</i> reduces TNF-α production [58]. Also, both TNF-α
and IL-1β have been reported to upregulate <i>miR-155</i> [59]. In general, <i>miR-155</i> has been
reported to function in the promotion of T-cell-dependent tissue inflammation and its
repression has been considered as a therapeutic target for the treatment of immune diseases
[60].

Importantly, it has been shown that nutritional doses of various dietary polyphenols can
modulate <i>miRs</i> expression profiles in the liver of mice [61]. Of specific interest for our study,
RES has also been shown to modulate miRs related to metabolic and chronic diseases [11]. For
example, and in good agreement with some of our results, RES upregulates miR-663 and
donwregulates miR-155 in human THP-1 monocytic cells as well as in human blood
monocytes. Mir-663 is known to target JunB and JunD transcripts which are components of
the inflammation regulatory transcription complex AP-1 [12]. Our microarray results
(Supplementary Table S1) show the downregulation of the expression of <i>JunD</i> as well as of
ATF7, another component of AP-1 and suggest that the anti-inflammatory effect of GE-RES
may be mediate through the regulation of transcription regulator AP-1 as it had been
previously predicted [13]. In general, our results support the in vivo involvement of miRs
regulation in the molecular anti-inflammatory response observed in PBMCs following the
long-term consumption of GE-RES. Of note, we found high and significant correlations
between most of the miRs investigated before and after supplementation (Supplementary
Tables S3 and S4). Since multiple co-expressed miRs can cooperatively regulate a given
biological or pathological process [62] our results suggest that the miRs investigated may be
part of a modulatory network and cooperate in the regulation of the observed anti-
inflammatory effects in PBMCs. The possibility of targeting different miRs that influence
inflammatory pathways by dietary supplementation with RES adds new perspectives to the
prevention or treatment of inflammatory-related disorders. Further research is needed before
the link between RES and miRs can be incorporated into clinical care.

5. Conclusions

The main limitation of this study is the sample size since it has been conducted in a relatively small number of patients (n= 35; 9–13 per group) and thus, a larger sample size is needed to further confirm these results. Nevertheless, this study provides preliminary evidence

that long-term supplementation with a grape extract containing a small quantity of RES: i)
downregulates the expression of several important cytokines and, ii) modifies the expression
of a modulatory network of miRs involved in the inflammatory response, in circulating cells of
the immune system from T2DM hypertensive patients with stable CAD and treated according
to accepted guidelines for secondary prevention of CVDs. Since T2DM is recognized as an
inflammatory disease where activation of PBMCs is a relevant additional aspect that may be
caused by a deregulation of the production of cytokines and of the cross-talk between
adipocytes and the circulating immune cells [63] our results support a beneficial
immunomodulatory effect of the GE-RES that may contribute to T2DM treatment. We cannot,
however, discard that the observed effects may result from the combined action of RES with
other phenolic compounds present in the GE extract or with some of the specific medication
administered to these patients.
Conflict of interest
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621	Figure Legend
622	Figure 1. Comparative baseline transcriptional levels of the selected investigated (a) gene
623	targets and (b) miRNAs. Data are presented as dCt (Ct target- Ct reference).
624	
625	Figure 2. Intra-group gene expression changes in PBMCs of selected targets involved in
626	the regulation of the inflammatory response and Type-2 diabetes mellitus (T2DM).
627	Values are presented as relative changes vs. baseline following 6 and 12 months of
628	supplementation with placebo, GE (grape extract) or GE-RES (grape extract containing
629	resveratrol). Significant intra-group gene expression relative changes are marked with
630	asterisks: **, <i>P</i> <0.05; ***, <i>P</i> <0.01; ****, <i>P</i> <0.001. Significant differences between
631	groups after 12 months of supplementation are also indicated (fold- change and P value);
632	! upregulated or ! downregulated in the GE-RES group with respect to the placebo
633	group; CCL3, chemokine (C-C motif) ligand 3; IL-1!, interleukin 1 beta; TNF-!, tumor
634	necrosis factor alpha; LRRFIP-1, leucine rich repeat flightless interacting protein 1;
635	NFκB-1, nuclear factor of kappa light polypeptide gene enhancer in B-cells 1 (p105);
636	NFκBIA, nuclear factor of kappa light polypeptide gene enhancer in B-cells inhibitor
637	alpha ($I\kappa B\alpha$).

638	
639	Figure 3. Intra-group miRs changes in PBMCs of selected molecules involved in the
640	regulation of the inflammatory response and Type-2 diabetes mellitus (T2DM). Values
641	are presented as relative changes vs. baseline following 6 and 12 months of
642	supplementation with placebo, GE (grape extract) or GE-RES (grape extract containing
643	resveratrol). Significant intra-group gene expression relative changes are marked with
644	asterisks: **, <i>P</i> <0.05; ***, <i>P</i> <0.01; ****, <i>P</i> <0.001. Significant differences between
645	groups after 12 months of supplementation are also indicated (fold- change and P value).
646	! upregulated or ! downregulated in the GE-RES group with respect to placebo or GE
647	groups.
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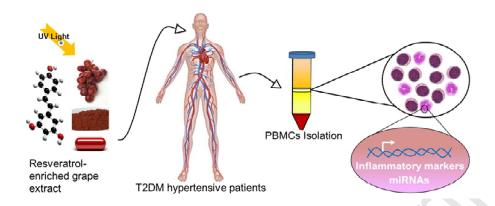
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Table 1. Baseline clinical characteristics of the hypertensive diabetic male patients taking part in the gene expression study.

	Groups (at baseline)					
Characteristics	Placebo	GE	GE-RES	All		
	(n=9)	(n=13)	(n=13)	(n=35)		
Age, years	57! 10	60! 10	63! 12	60! 11		
Weight, kg	86! 12	91! 19	84! 11	87! 14		
BMI, kg/m ²	30.5! 3.8	32.2 ! 5.1	31.0! 5.1	31.3! 4.7		
SBP, mmHg	129! 21	129! 20	130 ! 16	129! 18		
DBP, mmHg	74! 13	73!9	70! 10	72! 10		
Heart rate, beats/min	63! 13	69!9	64! 10	66! 10		
LVEF (%)	55!5	55!5	55! 3	55!4		
Active smoking, n (%)	5 (56)	3 (33)	2 (22)	10 (29)		
Diagnosed hypercholesterolemia, n (%)	9 (100)	10 (77)	12 (92)	31 (89)		
Stable angina, n (%)	1 (11)	2 (15)	2 (15)	5 (14)		
ST-segment elevation myocardial infarction, n (%)	3 (33)	6 (46)	5 (38)	14 (40)		
non-ST-segment elevation acute coronary syndrome, n (%)	5 (56)	5 (38)	6 (46)	16 (46)		
Myocardial revascularization, n (%)	7 (78)	11 (85)	12 (92)	30 (86)		
Coronary stenting	5 (56)	8 (62)	9 (69)	22 (63)		
Coronary artery bypass grafting	2 (22)	3 (23)	3 (23)	8 (23)		
Ischemic ictus, n (%)	1 (11)	1 (8)	1 (8)	3 (9)		
Intermittent claudication, n (%)	3 (33)	2 (15)	2 (15)	7 (20)		
Family history of premature ischemic heart disease, n (%)	4 (44)	5 (38)	5 (38)	14 (40)		
Antiplatelet therapy	9 (100)	13 (100)	13 (100)	35 (100)		
Statins, n (%)	9 (100)	13 (100)	13 (100)	35 (100)		
Atorvastatin	7 (20)	8 (23)	8 (23)	23 (66)		
Rosuvastatin	1 (3)	4 (11)	-	5 (14)		
Pravastatin	-	1 (3)	1 (3)	2 (6)		
Fluvastatin	1 (11)	-	4 (11)	5 (14)		
β-Blockers, n (%)	8 (89)	11 (85)	9 (69)	28 (80)		
RAS-blockers, n (%)	9 (100)	13 (100)	13 (100)	35 (100)		

Values are expressed as the mean value \pm SD or n (%) (total number and percentage of volunteers per group). None of these characteristics presented statistically significant intergroup differences at baseline (P < 0.05). Placebo (maltodextrin); GE (grape extract); GE-RES (grape extract containing RES); BMI, body mass index; SBP, systolic blood pressure; DBP, diastolic blood pressure; LVEF, left ventricular ejection fraction; RAS, reninangiotensin system.

Table 2

Baseline serobiochemical variables, inflammatory and fibrinolytic markers of the recruited hypertensive diabetic male patients taking part in the gene expression study.

		Groups (at b	oaseline)	
Variables	Placebo	GE	GE-RES	All
Total cholesterol, mg/dL (131-	158! 39ª	154! 36	165 ! 33	159! 35
HDL-cholesterol, mg/dL (35-67)	38 ! 6	42 ! 9	43 ! 6	41!8
LDL-cholesterol, mg/dL (83-130)	86! 36	82 ! 29	90 ! 29	86! 30
Triglycerides, mg/dL (35-201)	191! 133	153 ! 52	166 ! 126	167! 105
Non-HDL-cholesterol, mg/dL	118 ! 20	114! 31	122! 31	118 ! 28
LDL-cholesterol/HDL-cholesterol	2.3! 0.9	2.0! 0.8	2.2 ! 0.5	2.1! 0.7
Glucose, mg/dL (73.8-100.1)	148 ! 69	132 ! 30	151! 54	143 ! 50
HbA1c, % (6.0-7.0)	7.0! 1.0	7.1! 1.3	7.4! 1.6	7.1! 1.3
GGT, U/L (2-30)	23 ! 7	23 ! 6	31! 14	26! 11
ALT, U/L (10-40)	44 ! 22	32! 20	62 ! 68	46 ! 46
AST, U/L (8-30)	30 ! 21	30! 12	38 ! 22	33! 18
ALP, U/L (90-360)	176! 27	174! 47	186 ! 62	180 ! 50
CPK, U/L (38-174)	125! 78	133! 109	160 ! 74	139! 118
Creatinin, mg/dL (0.68-1.26)	1.1! 0.3	1.1! 0.3	0.9 ! 0.2	1.0 ! 0.3
Albumin, g/dL (34-48)	45!3	45 ! 2	45 ! 4	45!3
Urate, mg/L (2.6-6.1)	6.6! 1.3	6.4 ! 1.7	5.6 ! 1.4	6.2 ! 1.5
TSH, mU/L (0.35-5.50)	2.3! 0.8	1.6! 0.6	2.1 ! 0.9	2.0! 0.8
T4, ng/dL (0.90-1.77)	1.3 ! 0.2	1.3 ! 0.2	1.2 ! 0.2	1.4 ! 0.2
Fibrinogen, g/L (2.0-4.0)	3.4! 0.4	3.6! 0.5	3.5 ! 0.6	3.5 ! 0.5
DD, mg/L (0.00-0.28)	0.14 ! 0.09	0.16! 0.09	0.19 ! 0.24	0.17! 0.16
hsCRP, mg/L (< 3 mg/L)	3.9! 2.4	3.3 ! 1.2	4.9 ! 4.5	4.0! 3.1
Adiponectin, μg/mL	11.2 ! 8.2	10.9 ! 5.2	10.3 ! 4.2	12.1! 6.0
PAI-1, ng/mL	26! 18	21! 18	17!9	21! 14
TNF-α, pg/mL	12.5 ! 6.4	12.1 ! 6.6	11.7 ! 5.5	10.7 ! 5.6
IL-10, pg/mL	27! 12	16! 12	23! 16	21! 14
IL-6, pg/mL	2.4! 1.0	2.4 ! 2.0	3.0! 1.9	2.6! 1.8
IL-6/IL-10	0.11! 0.06	0.15 ! 0.12	0.16 ! 0.11	0.14 ! 0.11

 $^{^{\}rm a}$: Data are shown as the mean value \pm SD. The established normal range of values is indicated

between brackets. None of these variables presented statistically significant inter-group differences at baseline (P < 0.05). Placebo (maltodextrin); GE (grape extract); GE-RES (grape extract containing RES); HDL, high density lipoprotein; LDL, low density lipoprotein; HbA1c, glycated haemoglobin; GGT, γ -glutamyl transferase; AST, aspartate aminotransferase; ALT, alanine aminotransferase; ALP, alkaline phosphatase; CPK, creatine phosphokinase; TSH, thyroid

879	stimulating hormone; T4, thyroxine; DD, D-dimer; hsCRP, high-sensitivity C-reactive protein; PAI-
880	1, plasminogen activator inhibitor type-1; IL, interleukin; TNF-!, tumor necrosis factor alpha.
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Table 3

Serobiochemical variables, inflammatory and fibrinolytic markers of the hypertensive diabetic male patients taking part in the gene expression study following the consumption of the placebo, GE or

		Groups (after 12 months)							
Variables	Placebo	Р	GE	Р	GE-RES	Р			
Total cholesterol, mg/dL (131-201)	165! 49 ^a	0.47	154! 32	0.96	166! 38	0.89			
HDL-cholesterol, mg/dL (35-67)	39!5	0.30	41!8	0.38	40! 7	0.13			
LDL-cholesterol, mg/dL (83-130)	88 ! 43	0.88	81! 20	0.93	96 ! 28	0.50			
Triglycerides, mg/dL (35-201)	196! 118	0.78	163 ! 84	0.55	148 ! 81	0.51			
Non-HDL-cholesterol, mg/dL	123! 34	0.55	116! 26	0.80	121! 34	0.91			
LDL-cholesterol/HDL-cholesterol	2.3! 1.1	0.92	2.0! 0.5	0.82	2.2 ! 0.5	0.97			
Glucose, mg/dL (73.8-100.1)	140! 23	0.59	152 ! 65	0.21	148 ! 42	0.97			
HbA1c, % (6.0-7.0)	7.4! 1.0	0.06	7.2! 1.2	0.69	7.6! 1.5	0.33			
GGT, U/L (2-30)	25!7	0.32	22! 7	0.64	29! 12	0.40			
ALT, U/L (10-40)	28! 10	0.76	31! 14	0.81	34! 14	0.89			
AST, U/L (8-30)	49! 23	0.33	31! 14	0.98	67 ! 71	0.36			
ALP, U/L (90-360)	154! 38	0.15	146 ! 20	0.04	161! 69	0.02			
CPK, U/L (38-174)	137 ! 91	0.37	92 ! 25	0.12	140 ! 70	0.20			
Creatinin, mg/dL (0.68-1.26)	1.1! 0.4	0.76	1.1! 0.3	0.12	1.0 ! 0.2	0.32			
Albumin, g/dL (34-48)	48!3	0.73	46 ! 2	0.17	46 ! 2	0.59			
Urate, mg/L (2.6-6.1)	6.7! 1.4	0.82	6.0! 1.4	0.22	6.2 ! 1.4	0.34			
TSH, mU/L (0.35-5.50)	2.1! 0.6	0.32	1.8 ! 0.9	0.39	2.1! 1.0	0.83			
T4, ng/dL (0.90-1.77)	1.3! 0.2	0.53	1.3 ! 0.2	0.72	1.2 ! 0.2	0.65			
Fibrinogen, g/L (2.0-4.0)	3.5 ! 0.5	0.49	3.4 ! 0.9	0.26	3.5 ! 0.5	0.96			
DD, mg/L (0.00-0.28)	0.14! 0.08	0.95	0.13! 0.08	0.31	0.13! 0.06	0.55			
hsCRP, mg/L (< 3 mg/L)	4.5! 1.8	0.10	3.0! 1.2	0.46	3.7 ! 2.5	0.52			
Adiponectin (! g/mL)	9.1 ! 5.9	0.03	11.1 ! 5.1	0.80	11.5 ! 4.9	0.13			
PAI-1 (ng/mL)	32! 18	0.33	17 ! 10	0.82	16!8	0.82			
TNF-α, pg/mL	13.9! 6.9	0.16	11.9 ! 5.1	0.81	10.7 ! 5.8	0.22			
IL-10, pg/mL	24! 14	0.04	15 ! 12	0.31	22 ! 16	0.92			
IL-6, pg/mL	2.4! 1.0	0.89	2.4 ! 1.9	0.40	2.6 ! 1.9	0.00			
IL-6/IL-10	0.14 ! 0.10	0.04	0.16 ! 0.11	0.13	0.15 ! 0.13	0.59			

GE-RES for 12 months.

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 a : Data are shown as the mean value \pm SD. The established normal range of values is indicated between brackets. Intra-group P values are also indicated (0-12m) and significant differences (P <

0.05) marked in bold. None of these variables presented statistically significant inter-group
differences after 12 months of supplementation ($P < 0.05$). Placebo (maltodextrin); GE (grape
extract); GE-RES (grape extract containing RES); HDL, high density lipoprotein; LDL, low density
lipoprotein; HbA1c, glycated haemoglobin; GGT, γ-glutamyl transferase; AST, aspartate
aminotransferase; ALT, alanine aminotransferase; ALP, alkaline phosphatase; CPK, creatine
phosphokinase; TSH, thyroid stimulating hormone; T4, thyroxine; DD, D-dimer; hsCRP, high-
sensitivity C-reactive protein; PAI-1, plasminogen activator inhibitor type-1; IL, interleukin; TNF-!
tumor necrosis factor alpha.

899 **Table 4**

900 Summary of the functional analysis performed with the IPA software and top regulated

901 molecules with significant altered levels of expression in PBMCs from volunteers consuming

902 GE-RES.

IPA Results	Genes most significantly modulated in PBMCs by
	GE-RES after 12 months (cut-off values: 1.5 and -
т. D. П	1.5, adj. <i>P</i> -value < 0.05)
Top Bio Functions	
Diseases and Disorders	Inflammatory Response, Cardiovascular Disease, Inflammatory Disease
Molecular and Cell Functions	Cellular Movement, Cell Death, Cell-to-Cell
	Signaling and Interaction
Physiological System Development and Function	Hematological System Development and Function,
	Immune Cell Trafficking, Cardiovascular System
	Development and Function
Top Canonical Pathways	Differential Regulation of Cytokine Production in
	Macrophages and T Helper Cells by IL-17A and
	IL-17F
Top downregulated molecules (fold- change by	<u>Cytokines involved in the inflammatory response</u> :
microarrays)	CCL3 (- 5.93) ^a
	$TNF-\alpha (-4.13)$
	<i>IL-8</i> (- 3.503
	$IL-1\beta$ (- 3.46)
	CXCL2 (- 2.29)
	M. DAIA M. L. C. C.
	MicroRNAs with a role in inflammation:
	miR-155 (-1.75)
	miR-34a (-1.26)
	EIF4B (- 2.68)
	RNASEK (- 2.48)
	BRK1 (- 2.48)
	C14orf43 (- 2.38)
	<i>IER3</i> (- 2.11)
Top upregulated molecules (fold- change by	MicroRNAs with a role in inflammation:
microarrays)	miR-21 (+ 2.24)
	miR-181 (+ 2.14)
	miR-186 (+ 1.91)
	<i>LRRFIP</i> (+ 1.85)
	IFI44 (+ 1.79)
	MT-ND6 (+ 2.11)
	RNA processing:
	LUC7L3 (+ 1.86)
	RNPC3 (+ 1.80)
	SNRPA1 (+ 1.79)
Top Upstream regulators	NF-! B complex (predicted activation state:
1 1	inhibited)
Target Molecules (genes that have expression	CCL3, TNF-α, IL-1β, IL-8, CXCL2, IER3, ZFP36
direction consistent with inhibition of NF-! B	(all downregulated)
complex)	
0	

903 a: fold-change value, + upregulation; - downregulation. PBMCs, peripheral blood mononuclear

904 cells; GE-RES, grape extract containing resveratrol; MT-ND6, NADH-ubiquinone

905	oxidoreductase chain 6; LUC7L3, cAMP regulatory element-associated protein 1; LRRFIP,
906	Leucine-rich repeat flightless-interacting protein 2; RNPC3, RNA-binding protein 40;
907	SNRPA1, U2 small nuclear ribonucleoprotein A; IFI44, Interferon-induced protein 44; CCL3
908	C-C motif chemokine 3; TNF-α, Tumor necrosis factor; IL-8, Interleukin-8; IL-1β,
909	Interleukin-1 beta; CXCL2, C-X-C motif chemokine 2; EIF4B, Eukaryotic translation
910	initiation factor 4B; RNASEK, Ribonuclease kappa; BRK1, Protein BRICK1; C14orf43,
911	Uncharacterized protein C14orf43; IER3, Radiation-inducible immediate-early gene IEX-1;
912	NF-! B, Nuclear factor NF-kappa-B; ZFP36, Zinc finger protein 823; miR, microRNA.
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Table 5Intra-group relative expression changes in PBMCs of selected genes involved in the regulation of the inflammatory response and Type-2 diabetes (T2D).

		Gene expression intra-group changes (ratio)										
Gene	Biological function	Placebo GE							GE-RES			
		6 months vs. baseline	12 months vs. baseline	12 months vs. 6months	6 months vs. baseline	12 months vs. baseline	12 months vs. 6 months	6 months <i>vs.</i> baseline	12 months vs. baseline	12 months vs. 6 months		
CCL3	Involved in chemotaxis of mononuclear cells.	0.86 ^a (0.82-1.19)	1.02 (0.52-2.22)	1.29 (0.61-1.70)	1.11 (0.49-1.45)	0.58 (0.53-1.08)	0.67 (0.48-1.33)	0.96 (0.75-1.54)	0.61 (0.34-0.92)	0.63 (0.43-0.93)		
		P=0.395	P=0.835	P=0.648	P=0.763	P=0.154	P=0.020	P=0.865	P=0.004	P=0.006		
<i>IL-1β</i>	Critical early mediator of inflammation secreted by monocytes and macrophages. Regulates NFkB.	0.74 (0.07-1.50)	0.43 (0.21-1.04)	1.37 (0.33-4.83)	0.81 (0.16-2.11)	0.09 (0.04-0.84)	0.39 (0.08-1.06)	0.20 (0.04-2.71)	0.08 (0.03-0.31)	0.27 (0.06-1.16)		
	Elevated levels in monocytes from T2D patients.	P=0.134	P=0.070	P=0.551	P=0.326	P=0.003	P=0.037	P=0.170	P=0.000	P=0.008		
TNF-α	Major adipocyte cytokine that can interfere with insulin signaling. Regulates NFκB. Elevated levels in	0.83 (0.57-1.25)	0.80 (0.70-1.35)	1.14 (0.88-1.68)	0.78 (0.58-1.59)	0.86 (0.37-1.31)	0.62 (0.35-1.08)	0.39 (0.25-1.23)	0.65 (0.22-1.02)	0.71 (0.38-2.13)		
	monocytes from T2D patients.	P=0.239	P=0.890	P=0.354	P=0.775	P=0.083	P=0.024	P=0.016	P=0.019	P=0.435		
LRRFIP-1	Transcriptional regulator of Toll-like receptor signaling.	1.41 (0.65-2.00)	1.35 (0.69-2.27)	1.03 (0.96-1.14)	1.24 (0.96-1.74)	1.35 (0.97-1.77)	1.08 (0.72-1.47)	1.23 (0.89-1.59)	1.77 (0.98-2.27)	1.24 (1.16-1.62)		
		P=0.358	P=0.261	P=0.277	P=0.326	P=0.116	P=0.585	P=0.125	P=0.009	P=0.002		
NFκB-1	Major transcription regulator of inflammatory responses. Modulates the expression of cytokines such as TNF- α and IL-1 β .	0.96 (0.70-1.06)	0.77 (0.48-1.01)	0.74 (0.52-1.30)	0.96 (0.73-1.09)	0.92 (0.61-1.16)	0.83 (0.74-1.31)	0.98 (0.80-1.20)	1.14 (0.69-1.38)	1.09 (0.94-1.37)		
		P=0.137	P=0.045	P=0.245	P=0.249	P=0.122	P=0.428	P=0.769	P=0.698	P=0.355		
NFκBIA	Inhibitor of dimeric NFkB/REL complexes. It degrades on cellular stimulation and allows the dimeric	0.90 (0.52-1.2)	0.77 (0.51-1.00)	1.18 (0.65-1.30)	0.78 (0.54-1.19)	0.63 (0.43-0.88)	0.77 (0.53-1.21)	0.97 (0.56-1.16)	0.74 (0.48-1.04)	0.88 (0.68-1.01)		
	RELA to translocate to the nucleus.	P=0.124	P=0.075	P=0.508	P=0.069	P=0.005	P=0.102	P=0.431	P = 0.087	P=0.132		

^a: Results are displayed as the median (25th to 75th interquartile range); Placebo (maltodextrin, n=9); GE (grape extract, n=13); GE-RES (grape extract containing resveratrol, n=13); P < 0.05 was considered statistically significant (shaded cell); CCL3, chemokine (C-C motif) ligand 3; IL-1β, interleukin 1 beta; TNF-α, tumor necrosis factor alpha; LRRFIP-1, leucine rich repeat flightless interacting protein 1; NFκB-1, nuclear factor of kappa light polypeptide gene enhancer in B-cells 1 (p105); NFκBIA, nuclear factor of kappa light polypeptide gene enhancer in B-cells inhibitor alpha (IκBα).

Table 6Intra-group relative expression changes in PBMCs of selected microRNAs implicated in the regulation of the inflammatory response and Type-2 diabetes (T2D).

		MicroRNA expression intra-group changes (ratio)								
MicroRNA	Inflammatory related function		Placebo	MIC	rokiva expre	GE	oup changes	(rano)	GE-RES	
		6 months	12 months	12 months	6 months	12 months	12 months	6 months	12 months	12 months
		<i>vs.</i> baseline	vs. baseline	vs. 6months	vs. baseline	vs. baseline	vs. 6months	<i>vs.</i> baseline	vs. baseline	vs. 6months
miR-21	Involved in the inflammatory response and the regulation of NF-κB and Toll-like receptors signaling, TNF-α and IL-1β.	1.52 ^a (0.24-1.89) P=0.587	0.22 (0.17-0.37) <i>P</i> =0.000	0.15 (0.12-1.98) P=0.051	0.64 (0.26-1.13) <i>P</i> =0.041	0.61 (0.29-0.94) <i>P</i> =0.033	1.07 (0.70-1.95) <i>P</i> =0.736	0.82 (0.52-1.37) <i>P</i> =0.318	0.67 (0.22-3.34) <i>P</i> =0.652	1.27 (0.53-3.11) <i>P</i> =0.721
miR-181b	Involved in the regulation of NF-κB signaling and TNF-α.	0.36 (0.30-0.89)	0.60 (0.37-1.07)	1.37 (1.11-2.02)	0.39 (0.28-1.02)	0.69 (0.47-1.25)	1.36 (0.66-3.21)	0.49 (0.34-1.06)	1.05 (0.51-1.95)	1.71 (1.42-2.66)
	_	P=0.013	P=0.179	P=0.004	P=0.012	P=0.150	P=0.128	P=0.044	P=0.645	P=0.000
miR-155	Highly expressed in monocytes and macrophages. Involved in the regulation of NF-κB and Toll-like receptors signaling, TNF-α and IL-1β.	1.35 (0.73-2.11)	0.86 (0.46-1.34)	0.66 (0.44-1.05)	0.48 (0.31-0.68)		0.65 (0.54-1.03)	1.01 (0.47-1.21)	0.80 (0.38-1.09)	0.84 (0.50-1.30)
miR-34a	Increased expression in T2D. Regulator of pancreatic cells function. Involved in the regulation of NF- κ B signaling, TNF- α and IL-1 β .	P=0.709 1.54 (0.40-3.89) P=0.568	P=0.215 0.70 (0.44-1.83) P=0.541	P=0.060 0.56 (0.49-1.23) P=0.130	P=0.002 1.03 (0.48-2.51) P=0.820	P=0.001 0.52 (0.35-1.80) P=0.327	P=0.052 0.75 (0.56-1.39) P=0.127	P=0.325 1.75 (0.83-2.18) P=0.056	P=0.015 0.61 (0.30-1.24) P=0.084	P=0.113 0.59 (0.21-0.88) P=0.004
miR-663	It may target transcripts encoding factors involved in the immune response known to activate cytokines.	1.61 (0.44-2.18)	0.55 (0.21-1.31)	0.46 (0.35-0.76)	0.61 (0.42-0.88)	0.66 (0.49-1.17)	1.42 (0.60-1.84)	0.74 (0.52-1.26)	1.10 (0.49-2.19)	1.15 (0.78-2.60)
miR-30c2	Induced by NF-κB. Associated to diabetes.	P=0.859 0.62 (0.17-0.94)	P=0.086 0.14 (0.11-0.43)	P=0.021 0.27 (0.19-2.40)	P=0.006 0.18 (0.12-0.63)	P=0.055 0.30 (0.15-1.09)	P=0.753 1.54 (0.61-2.95)	P=0.087 0.36 (0.24-0.85)	P=0.861 0.45 (0.21-4.06)	P=0.221 1.42 (0.64-6.37)
		P=0.088	P=0.000	P=0.171	P=0.000	P=0.007	P=0.293	P=0.043	P=0.761	P=0.095

^a: Results are displayed as the median (25^{th}) to 75^{th} interquartile range); Placebo (maltodextrin, n=9); GE (grape extract, n=13); GE-RES (grape extract containing resveratrol, n=13); P < 0.05 was considered statistically significant (shaded cell); miR, microRNA.

