



## Markers of adipose tissue inflammation are transiently elevated during intermittent fasting in women who are overweight or obese

Bo Liu<sup>a,b</sup>, Amy T. Hutchison<sup>a,b</sup>, Campbell H. Thompson<sup>a</sup>, Kylie Lange<sup>a</sup>, Leonie K. Heilbronn<sup>a,b,\*</sup>

<sup>a</sup> Adelaide Medical School, University of Adelaide, Adelaide, South Australia 5000, Australia

<sup>b</sup> Lifelong Health Theme, South Australian Health and Medical Research Institute, Adelaide, South Australia 5000, Australia

### ARTICLE INFO

#### Article history:

Received 27 April 2019

Received in revised form 24 June 2019

Accepted 1 July 2019

#### Keywords:

Adipose tissue  
Extracellular matrix  
Inflammation  
Intermittent fasting  
Skeletal muscle

### ABSTRACT

**Objective:** This study compared the effects of daily calorie restriction (DR) versus intermittent fasting (IF) on markers of inflammation and extracellular matrix deposition in adipose tissue and skeletal muscle in a controlled feeding trial in women with overweight or obesity.

**Methods:** Women (N = 76) were randomised to one of three diets and provided with all foods at 100% (IF100) or 70% (IF70 and DR70) of calculated energy requirements for 8 weeks. IF groups ate breakfast prior to fasting for 24-h on 3 non-consecutive days/week. Weight, body composition, serum non-esterified fatty acids (NEFA), tumour necrosis factor- $\alpha$  (TNF $\alpha$ ), interleukin-6 (IL-6), interleukin-10 (IL-10), M1- and M2-macrophage markers by qPCR and immunohistochemistry in adipose tissue and skeletal muscle were measured following a 12-h overnight fast (fed day, all groups) and a 24-h fast (IF groups only).

**Results:** IF70 resulted in greater weight and fat losses and reductions in serum NEFA versus DR70 and IF100 ( $P < 0.05$ ) after fed days. Markers of inflammation in serum (TNF $\alpha$ , IL6 and IL10), subcutaneous adipose tissue and skeletal muscle (CD68, CD40 and CD163) were unchanged by DR or IF after fed days. After fasting, NEFA, M1-macrophages (CD40<sup>+</sup>) in adipose tissue, and M2-macrophages (CD163<sup>+</sup>) in muscle were increased in IF70 and IF100 (all  $P < 0.05$ ) and the changes in NEFA and mRNA of pan-macrophage marker CD68 in adipose tissue were positively correlated ( $r = 0.56$ ,  $P = 0.002$ ).

**Conclusions:** Unlike caloric restriction, IF transiently elevated markers of macrophage infiltration in adipose tissue and skeletal muscle, possibly in response to marked increases in adipose tissue lipolysis.

Crown Copyright © 2019 Published by Elsevier Ltd on behalf of Asia Oceania Association for the Study of Obesity. All rights reserved.

### Introduction

Monocytes are recruited into adipose tissue and skeletal muscle in humans and in animal models with obesity [1,2]. These monocytes are polarised towards inflammatory M1-macrophages that release pro-inflammatory cytokines, which impair the insulin signalling cascade [1–4]. Obesity is also associated with increased deposition of the extracellular matrix (ECM) and fibrosis. This may

impair adipocyte expansion and promote ectopic lipid accumulation and insulin resistance [5,6].

Daily calorie restriction (DR) results in weight and fat losses, reductions in adipocyte size and reduces the risk of type 2 diabetes and cardiovascular diseases in individuals with obesity [7–9]. DR also reduces macrophage infiltration in adipose tissue and muscle in mice [10–12], although this result is more controversial in humans [13–16]. There is some evidence that DR may result in phenotype switching of macrophages from the inflammatory M1- to anti-inflammatory M2-macrophage profile in adipose tissue in mice [10]. DR also decreases mRNA levels of collagen genes and increases the expression of genes involved in ECM degradation in adipose tissue [13,17], but the effects in muscle are less clear.

Intermittent fasting (IF) involves intermittent periods of zero or minimal energy intake, typically for 24 h, followed by ad libitum food access. IF reduces body weight, fat mass and improves cardiovascular and diabetes risk markers in mice and in humans [18–22]. The impacts of IF on markers of adipose tissue or skeletal muscle

**Abbreviations:** COL6A1, collagen type VI alpha 1; DR, daily calorie restriction; ECM, extracellular matrix; hs-CRP, high sensitive C-reactive protein; HOMA-IR, homeostasis model of assessment-insulin resistance; IF, intermittent fasting; IL-6/10, interleukin-6/10; MCP-1, monocyte chemoattractant protein-1; MMPs, matrix metalloproteinases; NEFA, non-esterified fatty acids; TIMPs, tissue inhibitors of metalloproteinases; TNF $\alpha$ , tumour necrosis factor- $\alpha$ .

\* Corresponding author at: SAHMRI, North Terrace, Adelaide, SA 5000, Australia. E-mail address: [leonie.heilbronn@adelaide.edu.au](mailto:leonie.heilbronn@adelaide.edu.au) (L.K. Heilbronn).

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.orcp.2019.07.001>

1871-403X/Crown Copyright © 2019 Published by Elsevier Ltd on behalf of Asia Oceania Association for the Study of Obesity. All rights reserved.

remodelling have not been examined in humans. This is of interest since three studies have reported that acute 24 h fasting increases macrophage infiltration into adipose tissue in mice [11,23,24].

This study compared the effects of (1) eight-week DR versus IF on markers of inflammation and extracellular matrix in adipose tissue and skeletal muscle in women with overweight or obesity, and (2) the acute effects of the 24-h fast during IF on these outcomes. We hypothesized that DR and IF would reduce markers of ECM deposition, but that IF will increase markers of inflammation in adipose tissue and muscle.

## Research design and methods

### Participants and study design

This study was approved by the Royal Adelaide Hospital Research Ethics Committee, and all participants provided written, informed consent prior to their inclusion. The study was registered as a clinical trial with Clinicaltrials.gov (NCT01769976). The design of this study has been described previously [25]. Briefly, 88 women aged 35–70 years, with a BMI of 25–42 kg/m<sup>2</sup>, were randomised to one of four groups in a 2:2:2:1 ratio (DR70, IF70, IF100 and control) for 8 weeks. This report excludes the control group (n = 12), as biopsies were not obtained. A flowchart describing the exact number of participants that were screened, enrolled, completed the intervention and underwent biopsies has been provided in Fig. 1.

DR70 were provided 70% of calculated energy requirements, daily. The IF70 group were provided foods at ~32% of requirements at breakfast on fasting days and at ~100% of energy requirements on fed days, such that their overall energy deficit was equivalent to the DR70. The IF100 group was provided foods at ~37% of requirements at breakfast on fasting days and at ~145% of energy requirements on fed days. On fasting days, IF groups consumed breakfast before 8 am prior to initiating a fast for 24-h, until 8 am the following day, every other week-day (3 fasting days per week). During the 24-h fasting period, participants were allowed to consume water and energy-free foods, black coffee and/or tea, plus one very low-calorie broth (250 ml, ~20 kcal). To monitor compliance, participants were required to complete daily checklists and to return them to the researchers on the weekly individual counselling. Self-reported adherence to DR and IF70 diets was excellent, whereas the IF100 group ate 9% less than prescribed on fed days [25].

### Metabolic testing in participants

Participants were required to attend the research clinic at 7:30 a.m., at baseline and after 8-weeks following an overnight 12-h fast. IF groups undertook an additional visit following a 24-h fast. Body weight, height, waist and hip circumference were measured with the participant dressed in a hospital gown after voiding. Intravenous cannulae were placed, baseline samples collected and a primed 120-min hyperinsulinaemic-euglycaemic (60 mU/m<sup>2</sup>/min) clamp commenced as previously described [25]. Total body composition was assessed by dual-energy X-ray absorptiometry (Lunar Prodigy; GE Healthcare, NSW, Australia) at baseline and after 8-weeks following an overnight fast for all groups.

### Adipose and muscle tissue biopsies

Subcutaneous abdominal adipose and vastus lateralis muscle samples were obtained in a subset of participants (N = 16 DR70, N = 16 IF70, N = 14 IF100) at baseline and at week 8 after 12-h fast and 24-h fast (IF groups only) as previously described [26,27]. One

**Table 1**  
Taqman primers used for mRNA expression analysis.

| Gene symbol            | Gene name                          | Assay ID      |
|------------------------|------------------------------------|---------------|
| Housekeeper            |                                    |               |
| ACTB                   | Actin beta                         | Hs01060665.g1 |
| PPIB                   | Peptidylprolyl isomerase B         | Hs00168719.m1 |
| LRP10                  | LDL receptor related protein 10    | Hs01047362.m1 |
| Pan macrophage         |                                    |               |
| CD68                   | CD68 molecule                      | Hs02836816.g1 |
| M1-macrophage          |                                    |               |
| CD40                   | CD40 molecule                      | Hs01002913.g1 |
| TNF                    | Tumour necrosis factor             | Hs01113624.g1 |
| IL6                    | Interleukin 6                      | Hs00985639.m1 |
| M2-macrophage          |                                    |               |
| CD163                  | CD163 molecule                     | Hs00174705.m1 |
| IL10                   | Interleukin 10                     | Hs00961622.m1 |
| Macrophage recruitment |                                    |               |
| CCL2                   | C-C motif chemokine ligand 2       | Hs00234140.m1 |
| CCL3                   | C-C motif chemokine ligand 3       | Hs00234142.m1 |
| Extracellular matrix   |                                    |               |
| COL6A1                 | Collagen type VI alpha 1           | Hs01095585.m1 |
| MMP2                   | Matrix metalloproteinase 2         | Hs01548727.m1 |
| TIMP1                  | TIMP metalloproteinase inhibitor 1 | Hs00171558.m1 |

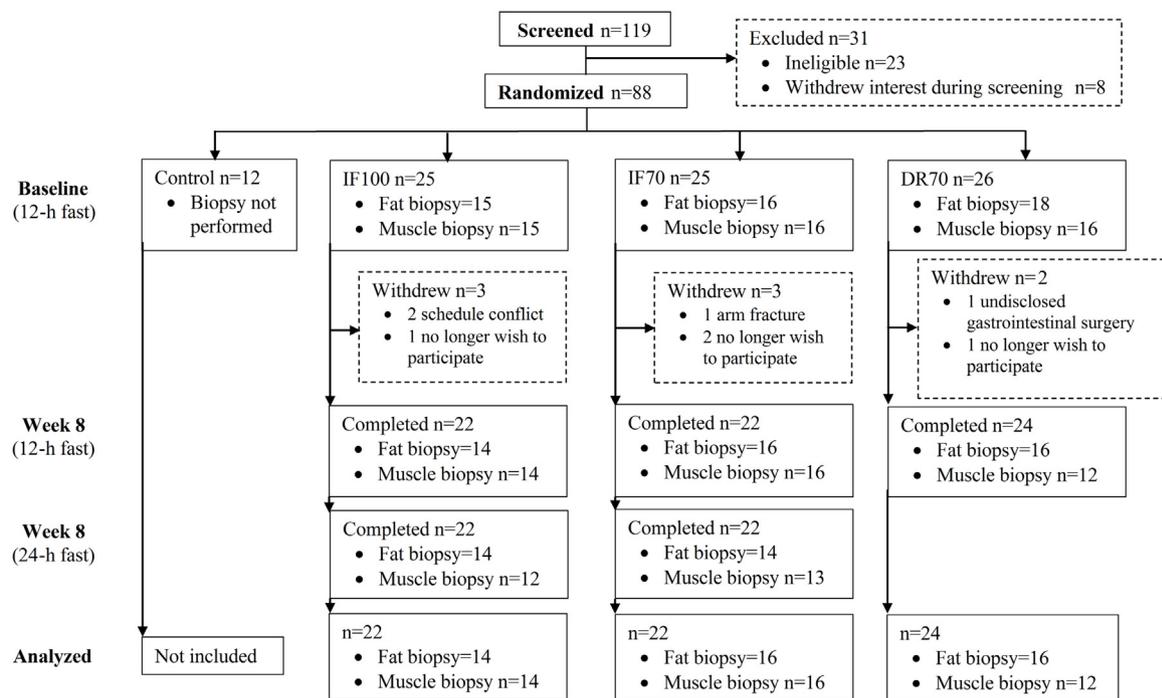
sample (~30 mg) was fixed for histology, and the remainder frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at –80 °C.

### Biochemical analysis

Blood glucose was examined by photometric assay in the laboratory of SA Pathology (Adelaide, South Australia, Australia). Serum insulin was measured by radioimmunoassay (HI-14K, Millipore, MA, USA). Plasma high-sensitivity C-reactive protein (HS-CRP, Beckman Coulter Inc., CA, USA) was measured using commercially available enzymatic kits on a Beckman AU480 clinical analyser (Beckman Coulter Inc). Serum TNF $\alpha$ , interleukin-6 (IL-6) and interleukin-10 (IL-10) were analysed by multiplex bead array assays (R & D Systems, Minneapolis, USA) with MAGPIX Multiplex Reader (Luminex, Austin, TX, USA). Serum non-esterified fatty acids (NEFA) were measured by enzymatic colorimetric assay (NEFA-HR (2), Wako Diagnostics, CA, USA), and serum monocyte chemoattractant protein-1 (MCP-1) by ELISA kit (BD, San Diego, CA, USA) on a VersaMax ELISA Microplate Reader (Sunnyvale, CA, USA). Samples were run in duplicate and samples from each subject were tested within the same run to reduce instrument variation. Homeostasis model of assessment-insulin resistance (HOMA-IR) was calculated as fasting glucose (mmol/L)  $\times$  fasting insulin (mU/L)/22.5.

### Quantitative real-time PCR

As described previously [28], total RNA was extracted from adipose (100–150 mg) and muscle (30–50 mg) samples using TRI Reagent (Sigma, St. Louis, USA) following manufacturer's instructions. The concentration and purity of RNA were assessed by NanoDrop Lite Spectrophotometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific, CA, USA). cDNA synthesis was conducted using T100 Thermal Cycler (Bio-Rad, CA, USA) with 1000 ng of each RNA sample using the QuantiTect reverse transcription kit (Qiagen, Valencia, CA, USA) according to kit instructions. Quantitative real-time PCR was performed using the Taqman primers for pan-macrophage (CD68), inflammatory M-1 macrophage (CD40, TNF and IL6), anti-inflammatory M2-macrophage (CD163 and IL10), macrophage recruitment (CCL2 and CCL3), extracellular matrix (COL6A1, MMP2 and TIMP1, Table 1) and Fast Universal PCR Master Mix (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA, USA). The samples were run in duplicate on an ABI 7500 sequence detection system (Applied Biosystems,



**Fig. 1.** Flowchart of the study.

Control: continuous energy intake at 100% of baseline energy requirements; DR70: continuous energy restriction at 70% baseline energy requirements; IF70: intermittent fasting diet at 70% baseline energy requirements; IF100: intermittent fasting diet at 100% baseline energy requirements.

Foster City, CA, USA) with internal negative controls and a standard curve (pooled from ten participants at baseline). Relative gene expression was analysed using the  $2^{-\Delta CT}$  method and normalised for the mean of *ACTB* and *PPIB* for adipose tissue, and the mean of *ACTB* and *LPR10* for skeletal muscle, which were not different at baseline, or following the intervention. *CCL3*, *TNF* and *IL6* were below detectable limits in adipose tissue and muscle.

#### Histological analysis and immunofluorescent staining

Adipose tissue biopsy samples were fixed in Bouin's solution (HT10132, Sigma-Aldrich), dehydrated, paraffin embedded, sectioned at 5  $\mu$ m and mounted on positively-charged glass slides. All slides were randomly assigned numeric codes by a research officer to blind the investigator (BL) quantifying outcomes. Haematoxylin and eosin (H&E) staining was performed using a standard protocol. Digital images were acquired using a camera (U-TV1X-2, Olympus, Tokyo, Japan) and diameters measured using cellSens Software (Olympus, Tokyo, Japan). Adipocyte diameter was measured in at least three fields of view at 20 $\times$ . The mean diameter was calculated from an average of 300 cells per sample as described previously [26]. Masson's trichrome staining was performed using a commercial kit (HT15-1KT, Sigma-Aldrich) following manufacturer's instructions. Slides were scanned using the Panoramic 250 Flash II scanner (3DHISTECH, Budapest, Hungary) and whole sections were analysed using Masson's trichrome macro in Image J (National Institutes of Health, USA). Particular care was taken to exclude areas which contained blood vessels, as collagen is associated with vasculature [29].

For CD40 (M1-macrophage) and CD206 (M2-macrophage) co-staining, deparaffinised and rehydrated slides were incubated with ELOXALL solution (SP-600, Vector) for 10 min at room temperature to eliminate endogenous peroxidase and alkaline phosphatase. Antigen retrieval was achieved using modified citrate-based buffer (S1700, Dako) and incubation in a 95  $^{\circ}$ C water bath for 20 min. Slides were blocked with 5% bovine serum albumin (A7030-10G,

Sigma) in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS, 79382-50TAB, Sigma) for 60 min at room temperature before being incubated with a mouse anti-human CD40 (1:200, MAB6321, R&D) for 90 min at room temperature. Slides were then washed with PBS for 5 min for 3 times prior to being incubated with a chicken anti-mouse secondary antibody (1:500, A-21200, ThermoFisher) for 60 min at room temperature. Following 5 min  $\times$  3 washing, goat anti-human CD206 (1:200, AF2534, R&D) and the corresponding donkey anti-goat secondary antibody (1:500, A-11057, ThermoFisher) were applied. CD40 and CD206 co-labelled slides were counterstained with ProLong Gold Antifade Mountant with DAPI (P36941, ThermoFisher). Eight to ten fields at 40 $\times$  were analysed using the camera and software mentioned above. Positive cells were expressed per 100 adipocytes as described previously [30].

#### Statistical analysis

Data are expressed as mean  $\pm$  SEM. Individuals who withdrew from the study were not included in the analyses. Participants completing baseline and week-8 (12-h fast) biopsies were included for gene expression analyses. All statistical analyses were performed using IBM SPSS Statistics 24 (Armonk, New York, USA). Baseline differences between groups were analysed using one-way ANOVA with Bonferroni–Holm post-hoc test. A maximum likelihood mixed effects model was employed to examine the group differences of 8-week intervention following an overnight 12-h fast, as well as the time effects within each group. The model included fixed effects for intervention, visit and the intervention by visit interaction, and a random effect for subject with an unstructured covariance matrix to account for the repeated visits. The effect of intervention was assessed with planned contrasts between groups in the change from baseline to week 8 (12-h fast). Bonferroni-adjusted pairwise comparisons were also conducted within each group to assess differences over time from baseline to following a 12-h fast (all groups) and a 24-h fast (IF groups only). All analysis was performed with two-tailed tests. Data were log-transformed for analysis if skew-

**Table 2**  
Anthropometric and metabolic measures of participants at baseline.

| Variable                   | DR70        | IF70        | IF100       | P     |
|----------------------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------|
| N                          | 26          | 25          | 25          |       |
| Age (years)                | 51 ± 2      | 50 ± 2      | 51 ± 2      | 0.827 |
| Pre/post menopause         | 12/14       | 13/12       | 10/15       | –     |
| Weight (kg)                | 88.4 ± 2.8  | 89.4 ± 2.8  | 84.1 ± 2.8  | 0.289 |
| Height (cm)                | 164.7 ± 1.0 | 166.0 ± 1.7 | 162.2 ± 1.5 | 0.158 |
| Waist (cm)                 | 99.0 ± 1.8  | 100.5 ± 2.2 | 98.8 ± 2.6  | 0.859 |
| Hip (cm)                   | 115.7 ± 2.4 | 115.1 ± 2.1 | 112.1 ± 1.9 | 0.433 |
| Waist/hip ratio            | 0.86 ± 0.01 | 0.87 ± 0.02 | 0.88 ± 0.02 | 0.640 |
| BMI (kg/m <sup>2</sup> )   | 32.6 ± 1.0  | 32.4 ± 0.8  | 31.2 ± 0.9  | 0.746 |
| Triglyceride (mmol/l)      | 1.3 ± 0.1   | 1.2 ± 0.1   | 1.5 ± 0.1   | 0.093 |
| Total-cholesterol (mmol/l) | 4.9 ± 0.1   | 4.8 ± 0.1   | 5.0 ± 0.2   | 0.256 |
| HDL-cholesterol (mmol/l)   | 1.4 ± 0.1   | 1.4 ± 0.1   | 1.4 ± 0.2   | 0.728 |
| LDL-cholesterol (mmol/l)   | 3.0 ± 0.1   | 2.9 ± 0.1   | 3.0 ± 0.2   | 0.726 |
| Glucose (mmol/l)           | 4.9 ± 0.1   | 4.9 ± 0.1   | 4.9 ± 0.1   | 0.956 |
| hs-CRP (mg/l)              | 2.7 ± 0.5   | 2.9 ± 0.5   | 2.8 ± 0.5   | 0.907 |

Data are presented as mean ± SEM. One-way ANOVA with Bonferroni–Holm post-hoc test. DR70: continuous energy restriction at 70% baseline energy requirements; IF70: intermittent fasting diet at 70% baseline energy requirements; IF100: intermittent fasting diet at 100% baseline energy requirements. BMI: body mass index; HDL-C: high density lipoprotein; LDL-C: low density lipoprotein.

ness in the residuals was observed. Correlations were calculated using Pearson correlation coefficients. Significance was accepted as  $P < 0.05$ .

## Results

### Anthropometrics and metabolites at baseline

Anthropometric and metabolic parameters of the participants at baseline are summarised in Table 2. There were no significant differences between groups with respect to any variables assessed at baseline.

### Adiposity, glucose metabolism and non-esterified fatty acids

As previously reported [25], greater reductions in body weight and fat mass was observed in IF70 vs. DR70 and IF100 (both  $P < 0.05$ , Fig. 2A and B). Adipocyte size was reduced in all groups (all  $P \leq 0.01$ ), with no difference between groups (Fig. 2C). Following the fed day, NEFA levels were decreased in all groups (all  $P < 0.05$ ), with greater reductions in IF70 vs. DR70 ( $P = 0.02$ , Fig. 2D). Fasting HOMA-IR was reduced from baseline in IF70 ( $P = 0.01$ ) and was elevated in IF100 vs. IF70 and DR70 (both  $P < 0.05$ , Fig. 2E). Insulin sensitivity by clamp was unchanged (Fig. 2F). Following the fasting day, NEFA levels were increased ( $P < 0.05$ , Fig. 2D) and HOMA-IR were reduced in both IF groups ( $P \leq 0.01$ , Fig. 2E). Insulin sensitivity by clamp tended to be impaired following the fast in the IF100 group ( $P = 0.06$ , Fig. 2F).

### Systemic and tissue inflammation

Following the fed day, there were no within or between group changes in any inflammatory markers assessed in serum, adipose tissue or muscle (Fig. 3A–T), apart from an increase in serum MCP-1 in IF100 ( $P = 0.01$ , Fig. 3D). When measured following the 24-h fast, serum MCP-1, CD40 mRNA levels, the total number of M1- and pan-macrophages in adipose tissue by histology, CD163 mRNA and the CD163:CD40 ratio in muscle were significantly increased in the IF70 group (Fig. 3E–P). The number of M1-, M2- and pan-macrophages in adipose tissue, CD163 and CD68 mRNA and the CD163:CD40 ratio in muscle were also significantly increased after the 24-h fast in the IF100 group (Fig. 3E–P). The change in CD68 mRNA levels in adipose tissue was positively correlated with the change in NEFA in both IF groups ( $r = 0.56$ ,  $P = 0.002$ , Fig. 3I).

### Extracellular matrix remodelling in adipose tissue and muscle

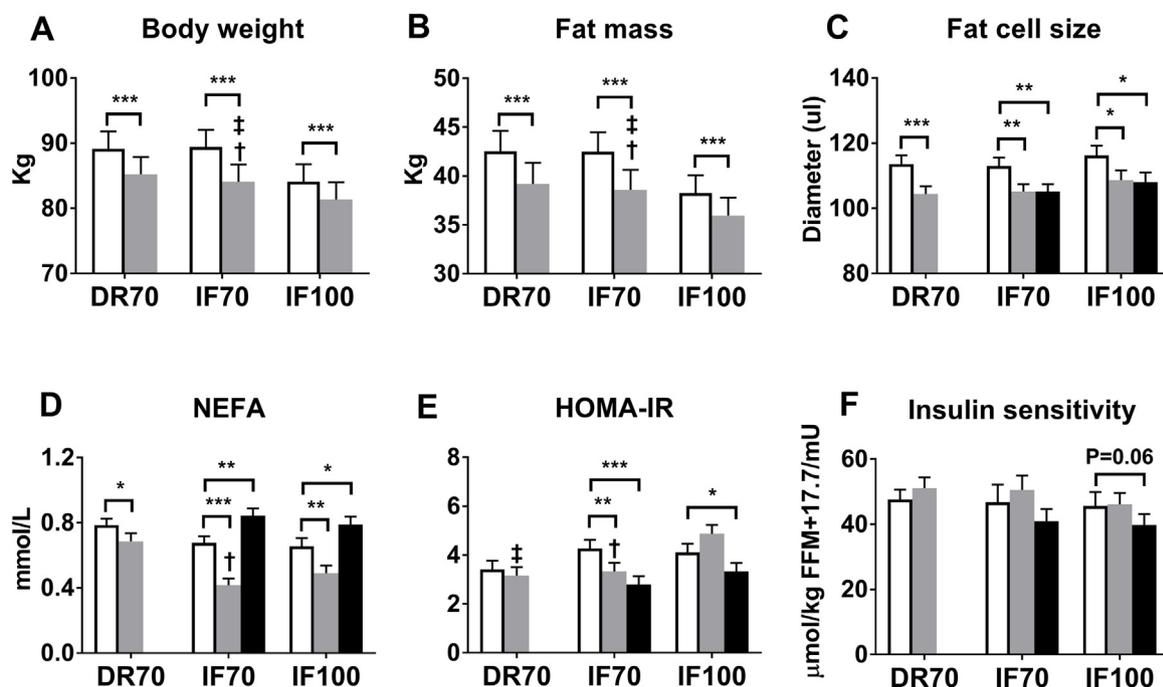
There was a significant increase in the expression of MMP2 in adipose tissue in DR70 and IF70 following the fed day, which was maintained following the fasting day in the IF70 group (Fig. 4B). However, there were no changes in any of the other ECM markers examined, or in the integrated density or area of collagen in adipose tissue by trichrome staining (Fig. 4A, C, G, H and I). In skeletal muscle, COL6A1 and MMP2 mRNA levels were increased following the fed day only in IF100 group (both  $P \leq 0.05$ , Fig. 4D and F).

## Discussion

The effects of IF, as an alternative weight loss strategy to DR, on macrophage infiltration and extracellular matrix deposition in humans are unclear. This is of interest since macrophage infiltration is stimulated in response to an acute 24-h fast in mice [11,23,24]. In this study, we observed an increase in M1 markers of macrophage infiltration in adipose tissue in response to the 24-h fast imposed by the IF schedule. This was associated with increases in NEFA, a marker of adipose tissue lipolysis.

The phenotype of macrophages cover a continuum of functional states from M1, or classically activated macrophages, which secrete pro-inflammatory molecules such as IFN- $\gamma$  and TNF $\alpha$ , to M2, or alternatively activated anti-inflammatory macrophages or both [1,31], although studies have identified a group pro-inflammatory macrophages that were metabolically activated by insulin, glucose or fatty acids, but do not present classic M1 or M2 markers [32–34]. Obesity is associated with an increase in M1 macrophages in adipose tissue, which can be partially reversed following DR [6,9,13,17,31,35,36]. M1 macrophage infiltration also occurs in skeletal muscle in mice that are fed a high fat diet [4], and linked with development of sarcopenia [37]. Increases in M1 macrophages in skeletal muscle in humans are associated with poorer insulin sensitivity [4]. In this study, DR did not impact any of the markers of inflammation that were examined in adipose tissue, skeletal muscle, or systemically. This finding is in line with previous reports [13,38]. Tam et al reported that 24-weeks of DR led to 10% weight loss in individuals with obesity, but did not alter systemic inflammation or markers of macrophages in adipose tissue [38]. Magkos et al. reported that 10–15% weight loss by DR partially improved systemic inflammation in individuals with obesity, but did not alter mRNA levels of macrophage markers in subcutaneous adipose tissue [13]. There was also no change in M1 or M2 markers at the mRNA level in skeletal muscle following 3-months of DR [15]. In response to IF, we also observed that markers of inflammation in adipose tissue or skeletal muscle were unchanged when measured following a fed day. This finding supports a recently published article in adipose tissue [39].

Uniquely, we have assessed markers of the inflammatory response after the fasting day imposed by an IF schedule. We observed transient increases in M1 markers of inflammation in adipose tissue, which was associated with the change in NEFA levels. This is similar to results in mice that reported increases in circulating NEFA levels in concert with macrophage infiltration in adipose tissue in response to a 24-h fast [11]. Although, we could not recently recapitulate these results in mice [40]. In that study, the peak of adipose tissue macrophage number coincided with the peak in the circulating concentration of NEFA and glycerol released from adipose tissue, suggesting that lipolysis drives macrophage accumulation in adipose tissue [11]. Moreover, *in vivo* and *in vitro* studies have shown that stimulation of adipocyte lipolysis increases the uptake and storage of lipids by macrophages [11,41]. Thus, we speculate that macrophages could play a protective role to buffer elevated NEFA levels induced by fasting in



**Fig. 2.** Adiposity, non-esterified fatty acids and insulin sensitivity after 8-weeks of intervention. (A): Body weight, (B): fat mass, (C): fat cell size, (D): NEFA, (E): HOMA-IR and (F): insulin sensitivity assessed by hyperinsulinaemic-euglycaemic clamp.

DR70: continuous energy restriction at 70% baseline energy requirements; IF70: intermittent fasting diet at 70% baseline energy requirements; IF100: intermittent fasting diet at 100% baseline energy requirements. NEFA: non-esterified fatty acids; HOMA-IR: homeostasis model of assessment-insulin resistance.

Open bar: baseline; grey bar: week 8 (12-h fast) and Black bar: week 8 (24-h fast). †P < 0.05 vs. DR70 in the change from baseline to week 8 following a 12-h fast; ‡P < 0.05 vs. IF100 in the change from baseline to week 8 following a 12-h fast. \*P < 0.05, \*\*P < 0.01 and \*\*\*P < 0.001 vs. baseline.

humans, as has been observed in mice [11], and may protect against the development of fasting-induced insulin resistance [42]. However, we did not observe a relationship between the change in insulin sensitivity by clamp and the change in macrophage numbers in adipose tissue.

The extracellular matrix is a non-cellular component that provides structural support to the neighbouring cells and influences cell morphology and function through cell-matrix connections [5]. Collagens are degraded by matrix metalloproteinases (MMPs), which are negatively regulated by tissue inhibitors of metalloproteinases (TIMPs) [9]. This balance between synthesis and degradation maintains ECM homeostasis, and is perturbed in the obese state [5]. In this study, *MMP2* mRNA expression was increased in adipose tissue in DR and IF70 groups. This finding suggests that weight loss, rather than the mode of dietary restriction, promotes ECM degradation in adipose tissue. Previous studies have also shown that 5% weight loss increases genes involved in the degradation of ECM in subcutaneous adipose tissue [13]. We did not detect changes in collagen deposition by histology. Adipose tissue fibrosis was also unchanged following substantial weight loss by bariatric surgery in patients who were morbidly obese with or without type 2 diabetes [43]. Interestingly, Clément's group observed increased collagen deposition in subcutaneous adipose tissue 3–12 months after bariatric surgery [44]. However, this was characterised by a decrease in cross-link of matrix fibres and increased degradation of the extracellular matrix and was associated with an increase in M2-macrophages. This study highlights that the structure or quality of collagen should also be taken into consideration when assessing changes in tissue fibrosis during weight loss in future studies.

Previous studies in mice show that IF promotes M2-polarisation of macrophages in adipose tissue, and that this was associated with adipose tissue browning [23,45]. In our hands, IF did not alter M2 markers in human adipose tissue. However, mRNA levels of CD163 were elevated in skeletal muscle in response to IF,

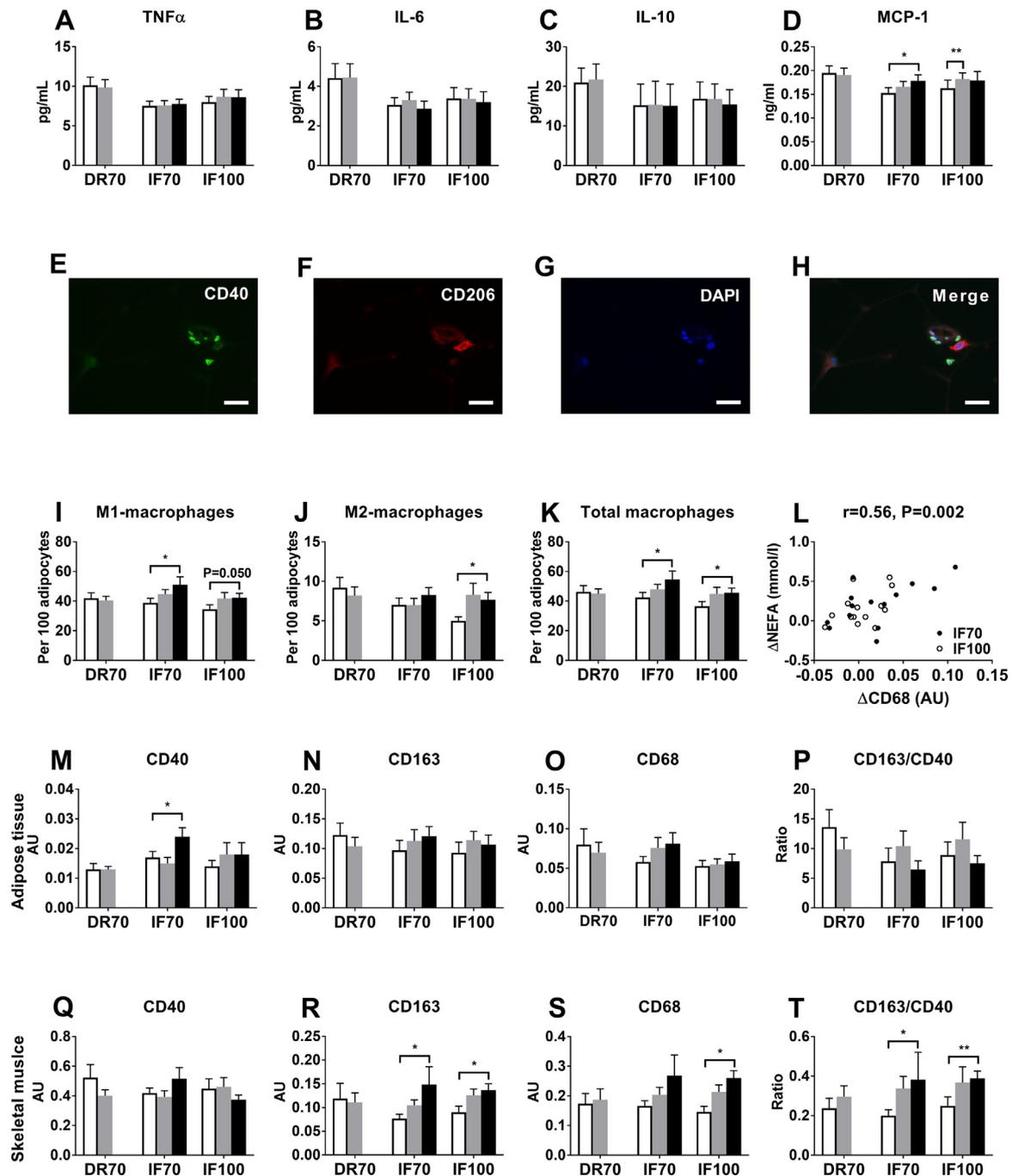
which was not observed in the DR group. Macrophages have well-characterised roles in skeletal muscle repair and regeneration in response to injury [46,47]. M1-macrophages are responsible for phagocytosing cell debris and promoting satellite-cell proliferation, while M2-macrophages release pro-fibrotic molecules that activate fibroblasts to synthesize ECM components and promote skeletal muscle differentiation [48,49]. Exercise training also increases M2 macrophages in mouse skeletal muscle, in concert with muscle growth [42]. In this study, *COL6A1* and *MMP2* mRNA levels were increased in response to IF, although this reached statistical significance only in the IF100 group after a feeding day. The possibility that IF may have positive impacts on muscle repair and regeneration requires further investigation. Although it should be noted that IF did not differentially effect muscle mass vs DR [25], however functional assessments were not conducted.

This was a highly controlled, short-term intervention to examine mechanisms associated with improvements in IF versus continuous dietary restriction that was limited to women who were overweight and obese. Thus, the responses in free-living populations, men, or in individuals with normal body weight and the long-term effects may be different. In addition, macrophages activated by metabolic stimuli and presenting both M1 and M2 markers were not evaluated in this report.

This study highlights that the mode of dietary restriction differentially alters macrophage infiltration in adipose tissue and skeletal muscle in humans. These findings supports studies in mice to show that macrophages rapidly respond to fasting and NEFA release in adipose tissue. Future studies should also investigate the effects of IF on skeletal muscle growth and regeneration in obesity.

## Funding

This work was supported by an Australian National Health and Medical Research Council Project Grant APP1023401 and Diabetes



**Fig. 3.** Systemic and tissue inflammation after 8-weeks of intervention. (A–D): serum TNF $\alpha$ , IL-6, IL-10 and MCP-1. (E–H): representative images of fluorescent staining for M1-macrophage (CD40, Fig. E), M2-macrophage (CD206, Fig. F), nuclei (DAPI, Fig. G) and layout (Fig. H). (I–K): quantification of M1-, M2- and total macrophages in adipose tissue. (L): correlation between changes in NEFA levels and CD68 mRNA levels in adipose tissue after a 24-h fast. (M–O): mRNA levels of CD40 (M1-), CD163 (M2-) and CD68 (pan-macrophage) in adipose tissue. (P): the ratio of CD163:CD40 in adipose tissue. (Q–S): mRNA levels of CD40, CD163 and CD68 in skeletal muscle. (T): the ratio of CD163:CD40 in muscle. AU: arbitrary unit.

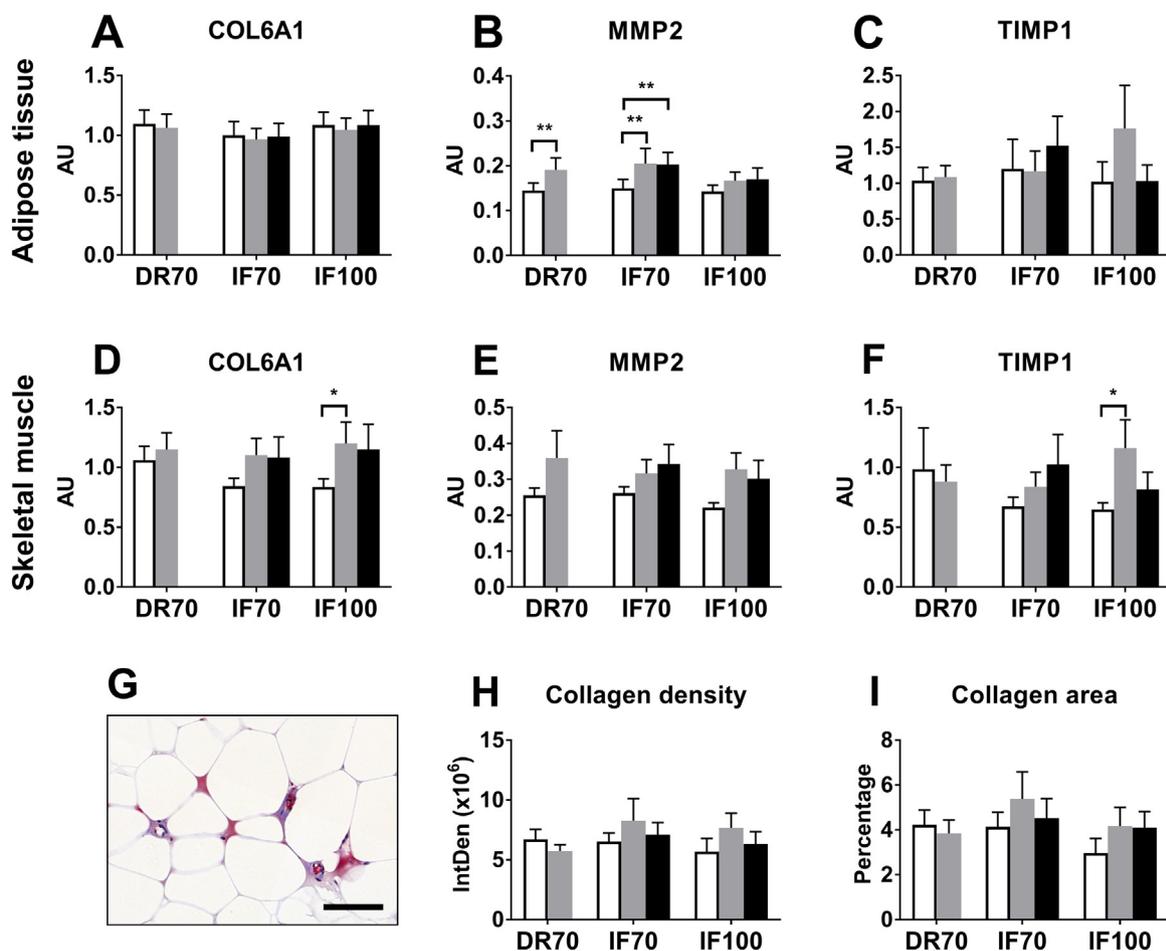
DR70: continuous energy restriction at 70% baseline energy requirements; IF70: intermittent fasting diet at 70% baseline energy requirements; IF100: intermittent fasting diet at 100% baseline energy requirements. TNF $\alpha$ : tumour necrosis factor-alpha; IL-6/10: interleukin-6/10; MCP-1: monocyte chemoattractant protein-1; NEFA: non-esterified fatty acids.

Open bar: baseline; grey bar: week 8 (12-h fast) and Black bar: week 8 (24-h fast). Scale bar: 20  $\mu$ m. \* $P < 0.05$  and \*\* $P < 0.01$  vs. baseline.

Australia. L.K.H was supported by an Australian Research Council Future Fellowship FT120100027. B.L. was supported by an Australian Government Research Training Program Scholarship.

#### Prior presentation

Parts of this study were presented as an oral presentation at the Australian & New Zealand Obesity Society 2016 Annual Scientific



**Fig. 4.** Extracellular matrix remodeling in adipose tissue and muscle after 8-weeks of intervention. (A–C): mRNA levels of *COL6A1*, *MMP2* and *TIMP1* in adipose tissue; (D–F): mRNA levels of *COL6A1*, *MMP2* and *TIMP1* in muscle; (G): representative image for Masson's trichrome staining in adipose tissue; (H–I): the integrated density (H) and area (I) of collagen in adipose tissue.

DR70: continuous energy restriction at 70% baseline energy requirements; IF70: intermittent fasting diet at 70% baseline energy requirements; IF100: intermittent fasting diet at 100% baseline energy requirements. *COL6A1*: collagen type VI alpha 1; *MMPs*: matrix metalloproteinases; *TIMPs*: tissue inhibitors of metalloproteinases. Open bar: baseline; grey bar: week 8 (12-h fast) and black bar: week 8 (24-h fast). Scale bar: 100  $\mu$ m. \* $P < 0.05$  and \*\* $P < 0.01$  vs. baseline.

Meeting, Brisbane, 19–21 October, 2016, and as a poster at the 77th Scientific Sessions of the American Diabetes Association, San Diego, 9–13 June, 2017.

#### Ethical statement

This study was approved by the Royal Adelaide Hospital Research Ethics Committee, and all participants provided written, informed consent prior to their inclusion.

#### Conflict of interest

The authors have no conflict of interest to declare.

#### Acknowledgements

The authors thank Briohny Johnston for her assistance in recruiting, screening, and conducting metabolic visits, and all the volunteers who participated in this research study.

#### References

- [1] Martinez-Santibanez G, Lumeng CN. Macrophages and the regulation of adipose tissue remodeling. *Annu Rev Nutr* 2014;34:57–76.
- [2] Wu H, Ballantyne CM. Skeletal muscle inflammation and insulin resistance in obesity. *J Clin Invest* 2017;127:43–54.
- [3] Lumeng CN, Bodzin JL, Saltiel AR. Obesity induces a phenotypic switch in adipose tissue macrophage polarization. *J Clin Invest* 2007;117:175–84.
- [4] Fink LN, Costford SR, Lee YS, Jensen TE, Bilan PJ, Oberbach A, et al. Pro-inflammatory macrophages increase in skeletal muscle of high fat-fed mice and correlate with metabolic risk markers in humans. *Obesity (Silver Spring)* 2014;22:747–57.
- [5] Sun K, Tordjman J, Clement K, Scherer PE. Fibrosis and adipose tissue dysfunction. *Cell Metab* 2013;18:470–7.
- [6] Divoux A, Tordjman J, Lacasa D, Veyrie N, Hugol D, Aissat A, et al. Fibrosis in human adipose tissue: composition, distribution, and link with lipid metabolism and fat mass loss. *Diabetes* 2010;59:2817–25.
- [7] Heilbronn LK, Ravussin E. Calorie restriction and aging: review of the literature and implications for studies in humans. *Am J Clin Nutr* 2003;78:361–9.
- [8] Larson-Meyer DE, Heilbronn LK, Redman LM, Newcomer BR, Frisard MI, Anton S, et al. Effect of calorie restriction with or without exercise on insulin sensitivity, beta-cell function, fat cell size, and ectopic lipid in overweight subjects. *Diabetes Care* 2006;29:1337–44.
- [9] Zamarron BF, Mergian TA, Cho KW, Martinez-Santibanez G, Luan D, Singer K, et al. Macrophage proliferation sustains adipose tissue inflammation in formerly obese mice. *Diabetes* 2017;66:392–406.
- [10] Fabbiano S, Suarez-Zamorano N, Rigo D, Veyrat-Durebex C, Stevanovic Dokic A, Colin DJ, et al. Caloric restriction leads to browning of white adipose tissue through type 2 immune signaling. *Cell Metab* 2016;24:434–46.
- [11] Kosteli A, Sogari E, Haemmerle G, Martin JF, Lei J, Zechner R, et al. Weight loss and lipolysis promote a dynamic immune response in murine adipose tissue. *J Clin Invest* 2010;120:3466–79.
- [12] Boldrin L, Ross JA, Whitmore C, Doreste B, Beaver C, Eddaoudi A, et al. The effect of calorie restriction on mouse skeletal muscle is sex, strain and time-dependent. *Sci Rep* 2017;7:5160.
- [13] Magkos F, Fraterrigo G, Yoshino J, Luecking C, Kirbach K, Kelly SC, et al. Effects of moderate and subsequent progressive weight loss on metabolic function and adipose tissue biology in humans with obesity. *Cell Metab* 2016;23:591–601.

- [14] Capel F, Klimcakova E, Viguerie N, Roussel B, Vitkova M, Kovacicova M, et al. Macrophages and adipocytes in human obesity: adipose tissue gene expression and insulin sensitivity during calorie restriction and weight stabilization. *Diabetes* 2009;58:1558–67.
- [15] Liu D, Morales FE, IglayReger HB, Treutelaar MK, Rothberg AE, Hubal MJ, et al. Expression of macrophage genes within skeletal muscle correlates inversely with adiposity and insulin resistance in humans. *Appl Physiol Nutr Metab* 2017;1–7.
- [16] Yang L, Licastro D, Cava E, Veronese N, Spelta F, Rizza W, et al. Long-term calorie restriction enhances cellular quality-control processes in human skeletal muscle. *Cell Rep* 2016;14:422–8.
- [17] Higami Y, Barger JL, Page GP, Allison DB, Smith SR, Prolla TA, et al. Energy restriction lowers the expression of genes linked to inflammation, the cytoskeleton, the extracellular matrix, and angiogenesis in mouse adipose tissue. *J Nutr* 2006;136:343–52.
- [18] Varady KA, Allister CA, Roohk DJ, Hellerstein MK. Improvements in body fat distribution and circulating adiponectin by alternate-day fasting versus calorie restriction. *J Nutr Biochem* 2010;21:188–95.
- [19] Gotthardt JD, Verpeut JL, Yeomans BL, Yang JA, Yasrebi A, Roepke TA, et al. Intermittent fasting promotes fat loss with lean mass retention, increased hypothalamic norepinephrine content, and increased neuropeptide Y gene expression in diet-induced obese male mice. *Endocrinology* 2016;157:679–91.
- [20] Heilbronn LK, de Jonge L, Frisard MI, DeLany JP, Larson-Meyer DE, Rood J, et al. Effect of 6-month calorie restriction on biomarkers of longevity, metabolic adaptation, and oxidative stress in overweight individuals: a randomized controlled trial. *JAMA* 2006;295:1539–48.
- [21] Heilbronn LK, Smith SR, Martin CK, Anton SD, Ravussin E. Alternate-day fasting in nonobese subjects: effects on body weight, body composition, and energy metabolism. *Am J Clin Nutr* 2005;81:69–73.
- [22] Trepanowski JF, Kroeger CM, Barnosky A, Klempel MC, Bhutani S, Hoddy KK, et al. Effect of alternate-day fasting on weight loss, weight maintenance, and cardioprotection among metabolically healthy obese adults: a randomized clinical trial. *JAMA Intern Med* 2017;177:930–8.
- [23] Asterholm IW, McDonald J, Blanchard PG, Sinha M, Xiao Q, Mistry J, et al. Lack of “immunological fitness” during fasting in metabolically challenged animals. *J Lipid Res* 2012;53:1254–67.
- [24] Ding H, Zheng S, Garcia-Ruiz D, Hou D, Wei Z, Liao Z, et al. Fasting induces a subcutaneous-to-visceral fat switch mediated by microRNA-149-3p and suppression of PRDM16. *Nat Commun* 2016;7:11533.
- [25] Hutchison AT, Liu B, Wood RE, Vincent AD, Thompson CH, O’Callaghan NJ, et al. Effects of intermittent versus continuous energy intakes on insulin sensitivity and metabolic risk in women with overweight. *Obesity* 2019;27:50–8.
- [26] Tam CS, Viardot A, Clement K, Tordjman J, Tonks K, Greenfield JR, et al. Short-term overfeeding may induce peripheral insulin resistance without altering subcutaneous adipose tissue macrophages in humans. *Diabetes* 2010;59:2164–70.
- [27] Tam CS, Chaudhuri R, Hutchison AT, Samocha-Bonet D, Heilbronn LK. Skeletal muscle extracellular matrix remodeling after short-term overfeeding in healthy humans. *Metabolism* 2017;67:26–30.
- [28] Chen M, Liu B, Thompson CH, Wittert GA, Heilbronn LK. Acute overfeeding does not alter liver or adipose tissue-derived cytokines in healthy humans. *Ann Nutr Metab* 2016;69:165–70.
- [29] Rhodes JM, Simons M. The extracellular matrix and blood vessel formation: not just a scaffold. *J Cell Mol Med* 2007;11:176–205.
- [30] Aron-Wisniewsky J, Tordjman J, Poitou C, Darakhshan F, Hugol D, Basdevant A, et al. Human adipose tissue macrophages: m1 and m2 cell surface markers in subcutaneous and omental depots and after weight loss. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab* 2009;94:4619–23.
- [31] Kang YE, Kim JM, Joung KH, Lee JH, You BR, Choi MJ, et al. The roles of adipokines, proinflammatory cytokines, and adipose tissue macrophages in obesity-associated insulin resistance in modest obesity and early metabolic dysfunction. *PLoS One* 2016;11:e0154003.
- [32] Kratz M, Coats Brittney R, Hisert Katherine B, Hagman D, Mutskov V, Peris E, et al. Metabolic dysfunction drives a mechanistically distinct proinflammatory phenotype in adipose tissue macrophages. *Cell Metab* 2014;20:614–25.
- [33] Coats BR, Schoenfelt KQ, Barbosa-Lorenzi VC, Peris E, Cui C, Hoffman A, et al. Metabolically activated adipose tissue macrophages perform detrimental and beneficial functions during diet-induced obesity. *Cell Rep* 2017;20:3149–61.
- [34] Boutens L, Hooiveld GJ, Dhingra S, Cramer RA, Netea MG, Stienstra R. Unique metabolic activation of adipose tissue macrophages in obesity promotes inflammatory responses. *Diabetologia* 2018;61:942–53.
- [35] Weisberg SP, McCann D, Desai M, Rosenbaum M, Leibel RL, Ferrante Jr AW. Obesity is associated with macrophage accumulation in adipose tissue. *J Clin Invest* 2003;112:1796–808.
- [36] Xu H, Barnes GT, Yang Q, Tan G, Yang D, Chou CJ, et al. Chronic inflammation in fat plays a crucial role in the development of obesity-related insulin resistance. *J Clin Invest* 2003;112:1821–30.
- [37] Wang X, Zhao D, Cui Y, Lu S, Gao D, Liu J. Proinflammatory macrophages impair skeletal muscle differentiation in obesity through secretion of tumor necrosis factor- $\alpha$  via sustained activation of p38 mitogen-activated protein kinase. *J Cell Physiol* 2019;234:2566–80.
- [38] Tam CS, Covington JD, Ravussin E, Redman LM, Pennington CT. Little evidence of systemic and adipose tissue inflammation in overweight individuals(dagger). *Front Genet* 2012;3:58.
- [39] Schübel R, Nattenmüller J, Sookthai D, Nonnenmacher T, Graf ME, Riedl L, et al. Effects of intermittent and continuous calorie restriction on body weight and metabolism over 50 wk: a randomized controlled trial. *Am J Clin Nutr* 2018;108:933–45.
- [40] Liu B, Page AJ, Hatzinikolas G, Chen M, Wittert GA, Heilbronn LK. Intermittent fasting improves glucose tolerance and promotes adipose tissue remodeling in male mice fed a high-fat diet. *Endocrinology* 2019;160:169–80.
- [41] Caspar-Bauguil S, Kolditz CI, Lefort C, Vila I, Mouisel E, Beuzelin D, et al. Fatty acids from fat cell lipolysis do not activate an inflammatory response but are stored as triacylglycerols in adipose tissue macrophages. *Diabetologia* 2015;58:2627–36.
- [42] Delarue J, Magnan C. Free fatty acids and insulin resistance. *Curr Opin Clin Nutr Metab Care* 2007;10:142–8.
- [43] Chabot K, Gauthier MS, Garneau PY, Rabasa-Lhoret R. Evolution of subcutaneous adipose tissue fibrosis after bariatric surgery. *Diabetes Metab* 2017;43:125–33.
- [44] Liu Y, Aron-Wisniewsky J, Marcelin G, Genser L, Le Naour G, Torcivia A, et al. Accumulation and changes in composition of collagens in subcutaneous adipose tissue after bariatric surgery. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab* 2016;101:293–304.
- [45] Kim KH, Kim YH, Son JE, Lee JH, Kim S, Choe MS, et al. Intermittent fasting promotes adipose thermogenesis and metabolic homeostasis via VEGF-mediated alternative activation of macrophage. *Cell Res* 2017;27:1309–26.
- [46] Perandini LA, Chimin P, Lutkemeyer DDS, Câmara NOS. Chronic inflammation in skeletal muscle impairs satellite cells function during regeneration: can physical exercise restore the satellite cell niche? *FEBS J* 2018;285:1973–84.
- [47] Ikeda S, Tamura Y, Takechi S, Takeno K, Kawaguchi M, Watanabe T, et al. Exercise-induced enhancement of insulin sensitivity is associated with accumulation of M2-polarized macrophages in mouse skeletal muscle. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun* 2013;441:36–41.
- [48] Mann CJ, Perdiguerro E, Kharraz Y, Aguilar S, Pessina P, Serrano AL, et al. Aberrant repair and fibrosis development in skeletal muscle. *Skelet Muscle* 2011;1:21.
- [49] Wang H, Melton DW, Porter L, Sarwar ZU, McManus LM, Shireman PK. Altered macrophage phenotype transition impairs skeletal muscle regeneration. *Am J Pathol* 2014;184:1167–84.