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Obesity and its associated metabolic syndrome and type 2 diabetes are becoming epidemics in the United States. Obesity is particularly true for skeletal muscle, a major site of fuel use, where its continuous vascular endothelium has well-developed functional structures and abundant caveolae that provides a relatively tight di usional barrier. Muscle's tight endothelium has constituted the structural basis for a strong argument that the transit of insulin from the vascular to the interstitial compartment within skeletal muscle is the limiting for insulin's metabolic action [21]. Most importantly, this rate-limiting step for peripheral insulin action is delayed in insulin-resistant obese subjects [22-24] and it has been estimated that slow trans-endothelial insulin transport may account for 30-40% of insulin resistance seen with human obesity [1].

Early studies have shown that feeding rodent animals with a high fat diet (HFD) (~60% of calories) produces not only obesity [2] but also insulin resistance [3]. These HFD-fed rodents develop striking hyperinsulinemia with significantly reduced whole body insulin sensitivity and glucose disposal rates, severe impairments in both muscle and adipose tissue insulin signaling and glucose uptake and an impairment of insulin-mediated suppression of hepatic glucose output [4-6]. Moreover, obesity has been shown to be a state of low-grade chronic systemic inflammation known as the metabolic inflammation characterized by elevated levels of pro-inflammatory cytokines (such as TNF- α , IL-6, IL-1, CCL2 etc.), accumulation of leukocytes within adipose tissue and other organs, activation of macrophages in both liver and fat and activation of pro-inflammatory signaling pathways in multiple organs or tissues [7,8]. The mechanisms causing the metabolic inflammation have been related to excess nutrient intake (metabolic stress) including HFD feeding [7,8]. Dietary fat intake not only significantly increases circulating free fatty acids (FFAs) concentration but also affects the composition of circulating FFAs [9]. Four-week HFD feeding has been shown to cause metabolic endotoxemia leading to the metabolic inflammation in mice [10]. The lipopolysaccharide (LPS)-induced inflammatory responses in macrophages have been shown to be mediated by Toll-Like Receptor-4 (TLR4) (pattern recognition receptors that sense lipopeptides and lipopolysaccharides of bacterial walls) [11]. Interestingly, saturated fatty acids (SFAs), but not unsaturated fatty acids, can induce an inflammatory response like LPS through activation of TLR4 [12,13]. It has also been proposed that nutrients per se are naturally inflammatory [7]. While the food of nutrients in a short period of time may induce a brief episode of stress signaling in the target cells, long-chain SFAs, particularly palmitate, have been shown to directly activate TLR4 that may require CD36 (a class B scavenger receptor) [14-16], leading to IKK/NF- κ B and c-jun N-terminal kinase (JNK) pathway activation, increased production of pro-inflammatory cytokines TNF- α , IL-1 and IL-6 [13,17-19] and significant insulin resistance as reflected by impairments in insulin-stimulated tyrosine phosphorylation of IRS-1, serine phosphorylation of Akt and eNOS, and NO production. Interestingly, recent studies have shown evidence that vascular endothelium that line up the inner wall of vasculature appear to be the first responder to the environmental insult, high fat feeding, leading to the vascular endothelial metabolic inflammation and insulin resistance.

Vascular endothelial cells (ECs) have pleiotropic functions and regulate a large variety of cellular processes including coagulation, fibrinolysis, angiogenesis, adhesion and transmigration of inflammatory cells and vasculature hemodynamics. Another very important vascular endothelial function is providing a barrier that regulates entry of nutrients and hormones into the interstitium of peripheral tissues.

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