Expression of SHP-1 induced by hyperglycemia prevents insulin actions in podocytes

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Diabetic nephropathy (DN) is the leading cause of end-stage renal disease worldwide and an independent risk factor for all-cause and cardiovascular mortalities in diabetic patients (5, 30). Podocytes and their foot processes are unique in that they comprise the outer layer of the kidney ultrafiltration barrier and form the glomerular slit diaphragm, which is a complex cellular structure that prevents the development of proteinuria in an actin cytoskeleton-dependent manner (37). Careful morphometric examination of renal biopsies in subjects with type 1 and type 2 DM revealed that the density of podocytes is significantly reduced in patients with short duration of diabetes before the onset of microalbuminuria and more advanced DN (21, 28, 39). Among various morphological characteristics, a decreased number of podocytes in the glomeruli is the strongest predictor of DN progression (21).

Several studies provide support for an “insulin resistance”-renal link in type 1 diabetes (12). Yip and colleagues have reported that 14 type 1 diabetic subjects with microalbuminuria had significantly lower glucose disposal during euglycemic-hyperinsulinemic clamp studies than did matched controls, even after accounting for blood pressure and body mass index (40). Previous reports have correlated insulin-signaling pathways with podocyte function and survival (18, 21). Coward and colleagues showed that podocytes are insulin-responsive cells. Insulin induced an acute increase in glucose uptake in cultured podocyte cell lines and in human podocytes ex vivo due to translocation of the glucose transporters GLUT-1 and GLUT-4 to the plasma membrane (6, 23). Interestingly, renal disease similar to DN can be observed in patients with a genetic mutation of the insulin receptor (IR) (25). More recently, Welsh and colleagues engineered mouse models in which the gene encoding the IR was deleted in a podocyte-specific manner (38). In these animals, albuminuria developed, along with effacement of the podocyte foot processes, apoptosis, thickening of the glomerular basement membrane, and increased glomerulosclerosis, all histological features typical of DN. However, much less studied is how toxic metabolites of glucose result in abnormal insulin actions in podocytes.

We reported that the Src homology-2 domain-containing phosphatase-1 (SHP-1), a protein tyrosine phosphatase (PTP) that is critical in abating cell response to growth factors, is elevated in the retina and renal cortex by diabetes (11). SHP-1 has been shown to inhibit vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF) actions in podocytes and renal glomeruli of diabetic rats and mice (22). Because SHP-1 is also known to interact with insulin actions (7), we hypothesized that hyperglycemia-induced SHP-1 expression may affect insulin signaling in podocytes and be responsible for insulin unresponsiveness in diabetic renal glomeruli leading to DN.

EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

Reagents and antibodies. Fetal bovine serum (FBS), RPMI-1640, phosphate-buffered saline (PBS), and penicillin-streptomycin were obtained from Invitrogen. Primary antibodies for immunoblotting were obtained from commercial sources, including actin (horseradish peroxidase; 1:19), SHP-1 (C-19), IR-β (29B4), insulin receptor substrate (IRS)-1 (C-20), phosphatase and tensin homolog (PTEN, C-20-R), and PTP1B (C-19) from Santa Cruz Biotechnology; IRS-2 (L1326), protein kinase B (Akt), extracellular signal-regulated kinase (ERK), phospho-Akt (D9E), and phospho-ERK (D15.14.4E) from Cell Signaling; monoclonal antibody against SHP-1 (NL213) and IRS-1 (AW58) from Millipore; purified monoclonal antibody against PTP1B (610139) and SHP-2 (610621) from BD Biosciences; monoclonal...
antibody against IR-β (AB69508) from Abcam; isolectin B4-fluorescein isothiocyanate (FITC) conjugated from Vector Laboratories; and rabbit and mouse peroxidase-conjugated secondary antibody from Santa Cruz Biotechnology. All other reagents employed, including bovine serum albumin (fraction V), EDTA, leupeptin, phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride, aprotinin, insulin, D-glucose, D-mannitol, and Na3VO4, were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich, unless otherwise stated.

**Animal and experimental design.** C57BL/6J and diabetic heterozygous male Ins2+/C96Y (Akita) mice were purchased from The Jackson Laboratory and bred in our animal facility. Throughout the period of study, animals were provided with free access to water and standard rodent chow (Harlan Teklad, Madison, WI). All experiments were conducted in accordance with the Canadian Council of Animal Care and Institutional Guidelines and were approved by the Animal Care and Use Committees of the University of Sherbrooke, according to National Institutes of Health (NIH) guidelines.

### Table 1. Sequences of primers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gene</th>
<th>Forward</th>
<th>Reverse</th>
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<tr>
<td>mVEGF</td>
<td>GGAGTACCAGCGACGAGATGATA</td>
<td>AGCCCTGCAAAGCGCATC</td>
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<td>mSHP-1</td>
<td>ATCAATGCCAACTACGTGAAGAAC</td>
<td>GGCTGGCGATGTAGGTCTTAGA</td>
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<td>mSHP-2</td>
<td>CGTGAAAGAAGACTTGGTATATAAGC</td>
<td>TCCCGGCTGACATGGCTTTT</td>
</tr>
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<td>nIR</td>
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</tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>nFN</td>
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<td>ATCTCCTTTCCATTCCC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nCol IV</td>
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<tr>
<td>nGAPDH</td>
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<td>GATGGCAATGCACTGAGGGTTT</td>
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m, Mouse; VEGF, vascular endothelial growth factor; SHP-1, Src homology-2 domain-containing phosphatase-1; FTP, protein tyrosine phosphatase; IR, insulin receptor; IRS, insulin receptor substrate; FN, fibronectin; Col IV, collagen type IV; TGF, transforming growth factor.

Blood glucose, urinary albumin excretion, and glomerular filtration rate measurements. Blood glucose was measured by a Glucometer (Contour; Bayer). Twenty-four-hour urine collections were obtained from mice 1 day before death by housing them in individual mouse metabolic cages (Nalgene, model 650-0311; Nalgene Nunc International, Rochester, NY) with free access to water and rodent mash. Urinary creatinine concentration was measured using alkaline picrate colorimetry based on Jaffe reaction (The Creatinine Companion; Exocell, Philadelphia, PA), and albumin levels were measured using an indirect competitive enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) according to the manufacturer’s instructions (Albuwell M; Exocell). The glomerular filtration rate (GFR) was evaluated using FITC-inulin clearance as described previously (29). Briefly, 5% FITC-inulin (3.74 μl/g of body wt) was injected retroorbitally, followed by collection of ~20 μl of saphenous vein blood at 3, 7, 10, 15, 35, 55, and 75 min post-FITC-inulin injection in conscious mice. Fluorescence was determined using Infinite 200 PRO NanoQuant (Tecan Group).

Fig. 1. Glomerular histopathology in type 1 diabetic Akita mice (Ins2+/C96Y) mice. Six months of age renal glomeruli of control littermate mice (Ins2+/+) and Ins2+/C96Y mice stained with hematoxylin and eosin (H&E, A) or periodic acid-Schiff (PAS, B). Quantification of glomerular hypertrophy (C) and mesangium expansion (D). Results are shown as means ± SD of 3–4 glomeruli of 11 mice/group.
Histopathology and transmission electron microscopy. Left mouse kidneys were harvested for pathological examination, and sections were fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO) for 24 h and then transferred to 90% ethanol for immunohistochemistry. The tissue was embedded in paraffin, and 6-μm sections were stained with periodic acid-Schiff stain and hematoxylin and eosin (Sigma). Right mouse kidneys were used for transmission electron microscopy to evaluate podocyte structure and foot process effacement. Fifteen glomerular tufts per animal were chosen randomly for analysis. To assess for foot process effacement, the mean width of foot processes was evaluated in electron micrographs of both groups. Effacement is defined as >2.5-fold increase in mean width. Microscope analyses were performed in a blinded fashion.

Mesangial expansion, glomerular hypertrophy, and quantitation of podocyte apoptosis. Mesangial matrix expansion was evaluated quantitatively by measuring the relative number of pixels of the mesangium divided by the total area of each glomerulus, by adjusting the threshold permitting a binary analysis using Image J (NIH, Bethesda, MD). Apoptotic nuclei of kidney sections were detected using the TACS 2 Tdt-Flor in situ apoptosis detection kit (Trevigen, Gaithersburg, MD) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Podocytes were stained using antibody against nephrin followed by incubation with secondary antibody Alexa-594-conjugated anti-goat (1:500; Jackson ImmunoResearch Laboratories). Apoptotic podocytes were counted when both podocyte markers and Tdt-fluorescein-positive cells colocalized on all glomeruli (20–30) on the transverse section of the left kidney.

Immunofluorescence. Kidneys from Ins2+/+ and Ins2+/C96Y mice were frozen in optimum-cutting temperature (OCT) compound (BDH) embedding resin in cryomolds on a block of dry ice and sectioned at 8 μm (Leica Cryostat). The sections were fixed with cold methanol, blocked in PBS containing 10% goat serum for 1 h, exposed in sequence to primary antibodies (nephrin, phospho-Akt, 1:100) overnight following by incubation with secondary antibodies Alexa-647-conjugated anti-rabbit IgG (1:500; Jackson ImmunoResearch Laboratories) and 7-amino-4-methylcoumarin-3-acetic acid-conjugated anti-goat IgG (1:500; Abcam) in mounting media (Vectashield; Vector Laboratories, Burlingame, CA). Images were taken using a Zeiss laser scan microscope equipped with a ×63 water immersion objective or a Zeiss fluorescence microscope equipped with ×10 and ×40 objectives; images of one experiment were taken at the same time under identical settings and handled in Adobe Photoshop similarly across all images.

Laser capture microdissection. Animals were killed and immediately whole mounted in OCT. Eight-micrometer-thick renal cryosections were cut, thaw mounted on nonadhesive glass slides, and then placed immediately on dry ice following fixation for 30 s in 75% ethanol and then dehydration through a series of alcohol gradients, and cleared for 4 min in xylene (Fluka). Sections were air-dried in a fume hood for 2 min and then subjected to laser microdissection using the PixCell laser capture microscope (Arcturus Engineering, ABI). Sections were also stained with isolectin-B4-FITC. Multiple glomeruli were harvested from the sections for VEGF, SHP-1, and transforming growth factor (TGF)-β mRNA expression.

Cell culture. The mouse podocyte cell line (32) was used and cultured as previously described (24). In brief, cells were grown under permissive conditions at 33°C in RPMI-1640 media containing 10% FBS, 50 U/ml interferon-γ (IFNγ), and 100 U/ml of penicillin/streptomycin in collagen-coated flasks. The IFNγ concentration was gradually reduced to 10 U/ml in successive passages. Next, cells were trypsinized and subcultured without IFNγ and were allowed to differentiate at 37°C for 14 days with media changes on alternate days. After differentiation of podocytes, medium was changed to RPMI 0.1% FBS containing normal glucose (NG; 5.6 mM + 19.4 mM glucose).

Fig. 2. Foot process effacement and podocyte apoptosis. A: transmission electron microscopy (TEM) of podocyte foot process effacement (arrow). B and C: brightfield and immunofluorescence microscopy (B) and quantification of apoptotic-positive cells (red; arrows) and podocyte (nephrin; green) (C) in the glomerulus of Ins2+/+ and Ins2+/C96Y mice. TUNEL, TdT-dUTP nick end-labeling. Results are shown as means ± SD of 3–4 glomeruli of 11 mice/group.
mannitol to adjust osmotic pressure) or high glucose (HG; 25 mM) up to 96 h.

Adenoviral vector transfection. Adenoviral vectors containing green fluorescent protein (GFP, Ad-GFP), and dominant-negative (Ad-dnSHP-1) or wild-type (Ad-wtSHP-1) SHP-1 and were generously gifted by Dr. A. Marette (Laval University) as previously described (7) and used to infect podocytes as we have reported previously in vascular cells (11, 14). Cultured mouse podocytes were infected with described adenoviral vectors at a multiplicity of infection of 75 in serum-free media for 2 h in a 37°C incubator supplemented with 5% CO₂, and adenovirus with the same parental genome carrying Ad-GFP gene was used as control. The cells were then grown in media containing 10% FBS for an additional 24 h in the incubator. Media of infected cells were removed and replaced by RPMI 0.1% FBS with additional 20 mM glucose for 96 h. Infectivity of these adenoviruses was evaluated by the percentage of green light-emitting cells under a fluorescent microscope (Nikon, Avon, MA). The presence of ~80% of Ad-GFP-positive cells was considered to be a successful infection and used for further experimentation.

DNA fragmentation analyses. DNA fragmentation was measured by quantitation of cytosolic oligonucleosome-bound DNA using ELISA (Roche Molecular Biochemicals) according to the manufacturer’s instructions. Briefly, cells were grown in six-well plates at a density of 5 x 10⁴ cells/well in 2 ml RPMI and 10% FBS. Podocytes were exposed to HG (96 h) in the presence or absence insulin (10 nmol/l) and then lysed directly on the plate.

Coimmunoprecipitation and immunoblot analyses. Cells were stimulated with the conditions and compounds indicated after overnight starvation. Renal cortex and cells were lysed in immunoprecipitation buffer [50 mM Tris (pH 6.8) and 10% glycerol] or Laemmli buffer [50 mM Tris (pH 6.8), 2% SDS, and 10% glycerol] containing protease inhibitors (1 mmol/l phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride, 2 µg/ml aprotinin, 10 µg/ml leupeptin, and 1 mmol/l Na₃VO₄; Sigma). Protein amount was measured with a BCA kit (Bio-Rad). The lysates (500 µg of protein) were incubated with 1 µg specific antibody against SHP-1, IRS-1, or IR-β. Next, 50 µl protein A/G agarose beads (Santa Cruz Biotechnology) were added to the mix and rotated at 4°C for 90 min. Proteins linked to beads were pelleted and mixed with 25 µl of 2× Laemmli buffer. For immunoblot, 5–100 µg of protein were separated by SDS-PAGE, transferred to a polyvinylidene difluoride membrane, and blocked with 5% skim milk. Antigens were detected using anti-rabbit horseradish peroxidase-conjugated antibody for other Western blotting and detected with the enhanced chemiluminescence system (Pierce Thermo Fisher, Piscataway, NJ). Protein content quantification was performed using computer-assisted densitometry (Image J; NIH).

Real-time PCR analyses. Real-time PCR was performed to evaluate mRNA expressions of VEGF, SHP-1, IRS-1, IRS-2, IR-β, collagen type IV, TGF-β, and fibronectin. Total RNA was extracted from renal cortex or cultured podocytes with TRI-REAGENT, as described by the manufacturer, and an RNeasy mini kit (Qiagen, Valencia, CA). The RNA was treated with deoxyribonuclease I (Invitrogen) to re-
move any genomic DNA contamination. Approximately 1 μg RNA was used to generate cDNA using SuperScript III reverse transcriptase and random hexamers (Invitrogen) at 50°C for 60 min. PCR primers are listed in Table 1. GAPDH mRNA expression was used for normalization. PCR products were gel purified, subcloned using a QIA quick PCR Purification kit (Qiagen), and sequenced in both directions to confirm identity.

Caspase-3/7 assay. Caspase-3 and -7 enzymatic activity was determined by quantification of cleaved substrate using luminescent assay Caspase 3/7 Glo (Promega, Fitchburg, WI) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Cells were stimulated as indicated and then lysed in Laemmli buffer. The same volumes of protein extract and reagent were mixed in a black-walled 96-well plate, and luminescence was determined using Infinite M1000 PRO (Tecan Group).

Statistical analyses. The data were shown as means ± SD for each group. Statistical analysis was performed by unpaired t-test or by one-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's test correction for multiple comparisons. All results were considered statistically significant at P < 0.05.

RESULTS

Type 1 diabetic Akita mice (Ins2+/-C96Y) exhibited podocyte loss and renal pathology. Renal pathology (glomerular hypertrophy and mesangial cell expansion) and function (urine albumin-to-creatinine ratio and GFR) have been previously reported in diabetic Ins2+/C96Y compared with control littermates (14). As expected, glomerular hypertrophy was increased at 6 mo of age in Ins2+/C96Y mice compared with nondiabetic mice (P = 0.0030) (Fig. 1, A and C). Blinded assessment of the mesangial cell expansion demonstrated a significant increase of extracellular matrix deposition in Ins2+/-C96Y mice compared with nondiabetic control littersmates (P = 0.0018) (Fig. 1, B and D). Increased renal pathology correlated with podocyte effacement and apoptosis. Transmission electron microscopy showed the presence of podocyte effacement (Fig. 2A) and positive apoptotic signal (TdT-dUTP nick end-labeling) in podocytes of Ins2+/C96Y mice compared with nondiabetic Ins2+/+ mice (Fig. 2B). Furthermore, we observed that Ins2+/C96Y mice exhibited an increase of urine albumin-to-creatinine ratio by 3.3-fold (P = 0.0051) and elevated GFR (0.206 vs. 0.295 ml/min, P = 0.0029) compared with nondiabetic Ins2+/+ mice (Fig. 3, A and B), which confirmed previous observations (27). Quantitative PCR analysis demonstrated that Ins2+/C96Y mice have elevated TGF-β, collagen type IV, and fibronectin mRNA expression (Fig. 3, C, D, and E), well known markers of glomerular injury.

Renal insulin resistance in Ins2+/C96Y mice. We injected insulin (5 mU/g iv) in Ins2+/+ and Ins2+/C96Y mice to evaluate its signaling actions in the kidney. The right kidney was removed before the insulin injection to serve as an internal control (nonstimulated). Fifteen minutes after the injection (iv), insulin markedly increased IR-β, Akt, and ERK phosphorylation compared with unstimulated kidney of Ins2+/+ mice. By contrast, insulin-induced IR-β, Akt, and ERK phosphorylation was significantly blunted in renal cortex of Ins2+/C96Y mice (Fig. 4A). To demonstrate unequivocally insulin resistance in

![Fig. 4. Inhibition of insulin signaling in Ins2+/-C96Y mice. Insulin injection (iv) for 15 min in 6 mo of age Ins2+/+ and Ins2+/C96Y mice. A: expression of phosphor (p)-tyrosine [immunoprecipitated (IP) against insulin receptor (IR)-β], IR-β, phospho-protein kinase B (Akt), Akt, phospho-extracellular signal-regulated kinase (ERK), ERK, and actin was detected by Western blot, and densitometric quantitation was measured. B: immunofluorescence labeling of podocytes (nephrin; green) and phospho-Akt (red). Arrows represent colocalization of podocyte marker and phospho-Akt. Results are shown as means ± SD of 4–5 independent experiments. *P < 0.05 or **P < 0.01 vs. unstimulated Ins2+/+ mice. †P < 0.05 vs. insulin-stimulated Ins2+/+ mice.](http://ajpendo.physiology.org/10.1152/ajpendo.00560.2012)
podocytes of \( \text{Ins}2^{+/+} \) mice in vivo, immunofluorescence analysis of podocytes (nephrin) indicated that diabetic podocytes exhibited lower Akt phosphorylation compared with \( \text{Ins}2^{+/+} \) mice after insulin stimulation (Fig. 4B). These findings suggest that hyperglycemia affects insulin signaling pathways in renal podocytes.

Increased SHP-1 expression modulates insulin unresponsiveness in diabetic glomeruli. We have previously reported that SHP-1 expression is elevated in renal cortex of streptozotocin-induced type 1 diabetic mice (11). We confirmed using a genetically modified type 1 diabetic model that SHP-1 mRNA and protein expression was elevated in renal cortex of \( \text{Ins}2^{+/+} \) mice (Fig. 5, A and B). Other protein phosphatases that have been previously shown to interact with the insulin-signaling pathway, such as PTEN, PTP1B, and SHP-2, were unchanged (Fig. 5, A and B). Furthermore, we confirmed by both immunofluorescence (Fig. 5C) and laser capture microdissection (Fig. 5D) that SHP-1 expression is definitely and significantly \((P = 0.0199)\) elevated in the glomerular podocytes of \( \text{Ins}2^{+/+} \) mice, as well as other markers (VEGF and TGF-\( \beta \)) of glomerular injury (Fig. 5D).

Insulin inhibition and podocyte apoptosis in HG concentration. The effects of the high glucose condition on podocyte survival were measured by DNA fragmentation and caspase-3/7 enzymatic activity, markers of apoptosis. Exposing podocytes to HG levels for 96 h increased DNA fragmentation by 1.75-fold \((P = 0.0265, \text{Fig. 6A})\). The osmotic pressure was adjusted by adding a proper concentration of mannitol in the NG condition. Adding insulin (10 nmol/l) for 96 h partially reduced HG-induced podocyte apoptosis. However, insulin treatment for the

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**Fig. 5.** Increased expression of Src homology-2 domain-containing phosphatase-1 (SHP-1) in renal glomeruli of \( \text{Ins}2^{+/+} \) mice. SHP-1, SHP-2, and protein tyrosine phosphatase (PTP) 1B mRNA (A) and protein (B) expression from renal cortex of \( \text{Ins}2^{+/+} \) and \( \text{Ins}2^{+/+} \) mice. PTEN, phosphatase and tensin homolog. C: immunofluorescence labeling of podocytes (nephin; green) and SHP-1 (red). D: vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF), SHP-1, and TGF-\( \beta \) mRNA expression in glomeruli of \( \text{Ins}2^{+/+} \) and \( \text{Ins}2^{+/+} \) mice. Protein expression was detected by Western blot, and densitometric quantitation was measured. Results are shown as means \( \pm \) SD of 4–5 independent experiments. \(*P < 0.05\) vs. \( \text{Ins}2^{+/+} \) mice.
last 24 h did not prevent HG effects on podocyte DNA fragmentation (Fig. 6A), suggesting that HG-induced insulin unresponsiveness requires several hours of HG exposure. Caspase-3/7 enzymatic activity is also elevated in podocytes exposed to HG levels for 96 h and remained higher in the presence of insulin compared with the NG condition (Fig. 6B). These data suggest that hyperglycemia induced changes after several days and caused inhibition of insulin actions in podocytes. We then evaluated the insulin-signaling pathway in podocytes. In NG concentrations, insulin stimulation for 5 min enhanced the phosphorylation of IR-β, Akt, and ERK (Fig. 7). In contrast, podocytes exposed to elevated glucose levels showed a significant reduction of IR-β, Akt, and ERK phosphorylation.

**Elevated glucose concentration-induced SHP-1 expression causes insulin inhibition.** We have previously showed that high glucose levels increased SHP-1 expression in pericytes and podocytes (11, 22). We confirmed these results by showing that HG treatment enhanced SHP-1 mRNA and protein expression in podocytes by immunoblot, qPCR, and immunofluorescence analysis (Fig. 8, A, B, and C). In contrast, HG exposure did not change PTP1B, PTEN, or SHP-2 mRNA and protein expression in podocytes (Fig. 8, A and B). To link increased expression of SHP-1 and inhibition of insulin action, we examined its role using Ad-wtSHP-1 and Ad-dnSHP-1. Our data showed that overexpression of Ad-dnSHP-1 prevented HG-induced podocyte DNA fragmentation and caspase-3/7 enzymatic activity compared with control GFP-overexpressing podocytes (Fig. 9, A and B). In contrast, overexpressing SHP-1 wild type exacerbated HG-caused inhibition of insulin actions. We further examined the role of SHP-1 on the insulin-signaling pathway on Akt and ERK in podocytes. Overexpression of Ad-dnSHP-1 prevented HG effects by reestablishing insulin capacity to stimulate IR-β, Akt, and ERK phosphorylation exposed either to NG or HG (Fig. 9C). These data strongly support the notion that enhanced SHP-1 expression causes insulin inhibition and podocyte apoptosis.

**SHP-1 interacts with IR-β to inhibit the insulin-signaling pathway.** We investigated the mechanism of action by which SHP-1 reduces insulin action in podocytes exposed to HG levels. First, we performed qPCR analysis of IR-β, IRS-1, and IRS-2 in renal cortex and podocytes. Our data demonstrated that these genes were unaffected in the HG condition in podocytes and renal cortex of Ins2+/C96Y mice (data not shown). Coimmunoprecipitation assays indicated that SHP-1 association with IR-β is elevated in HG treatment but unchanged with IRS-1 in both podocytes exposed to HG levels (P = 0.0464) (Fig. 10A) and diabetic renal cortex of Ins2+/C96Y mice.
Liver extract served as positive control for the coimmunoprecipitation assay. These data indicate that SHP-1 binds to IR-β to inhibit insulin actions.

DISCUSSION

Podocyte loss is an important determinant factor of DN and glomerulosclerosis, the leading cause of progression of kidney diseases. Superior to other markers of kidney injury, podocyte damage and depletion is probably the best early prognostic marker of nephropathy progression. Therefore, it is not surprising that an increasing number of basic and clinical studies have focused their attention to elucidate the mechanisms of podocyte loss in DN. More evidence suggests that insulin has multiple cellular functions on podocytes. In the present study, we hypothesized that hyperglycemia-induced SHP-1 expression in renal podocytes might have a significant role in podocyte function and survival. We demonstrated that SHP-1 binds with IR-β, preventing the insulin signaling pathway on Akt and ERK phosphorylation. Inhibition of SHP-1 restores insulin action and prevents podocyte apoptosis induced by HG levels.

Although the concept of insulin resistance has been largely attributed to type 2 diabetes, it is widely recognized that insulin resistance occurs in type 1 diabetes. This notion is supported by two clinical epidemiological studies that showed more cellular insulin resistance in type 1 patients with nephropathy compared with those without renal involvement (15, 26). Using a type 1 diabetic mouse model, we demonstrated that insulin-stimulated Akt and ERK phosphorylation is reduced in diabetic renal cortex compared with nondiabetic counterparts. The kidney has traditionally not been considered a target organ of insulin action. However, podocytes react similarly to insulin-stimulated glucose uptake kinetics and glucose transport (GLUT-1 and GLUT-4) expression as skeletal muscle and adipocytes (6). Furthermore, some evidence also suggested that rosiglitazone, a peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor-γ agonist, enhances GLUT-1 translocation in podocytes, increasing insulin sensitivity (20), and protects podocytes from injury (19). Although insulin has been shown to be essential for normal glomerular filtration, relatively little is known about cellular actions of insulin in podocytes. In an elegant study by Welsh and colleagues, podocyte-specific deletion of IR leads to the rapid development of albuminuria and glomerulosclerosis without diabetes (38). The loss of insulin-stimulated Akt phosphorylation has also been described in podocytes of the db/db model of type 2 diabetes (36, 51). The inability to signal through Akt is associated with increased susceptibility to podocyte death. In our study, we also observed that podocytes exposed to several days of high glucose levels inhibit insulin-stimulated Akt and ERK phosphorylation. Another study has extended our under-
standing of the insulin signaling in the renal endothelial cells. With the use of two rat models of diabetes, experiments showed that diabetes decreases insulin capability to trigger IRS-1/Akt/eNOS phosphorylation in renal endothelial cells (23).

Reduction of podocyte density is a critical determinant for the development of proteinuria and the progression of kidney dysfunction in diabetic patients (34). Multiple studies using in vitro and in vivo mouse models of diabetes suggested that

Fig. 9. Inhibition of SHP-1 prevents HG-induced podocyte apoptosis and restores insulin action. Podocytes were transfected with either adenoviral vectors containing green fluorescent protein (Ad-GFP, white bars), adenoviral vectors containing dominant-negative green fluorescent protein (Ad-dnSHP-1, black bars), or adenoviral vectors containing wild-type green fluorescent protein (Ad-wtSHP-1, gray bars) and then incubated with NG or HG for 96 h in the absence or presence of insulin. Apoptosis was measured by DNA fragmentation (A) and caspase-3/7 enzymatic activity (B) according to the manufacturer’s instructions. C: expression of phospho-tyrosine of IR-β, phospho-Akt, Akt, phospho-ERK, ERK, SHP-1, and actin was detected by Western blot, and densitometric quantitation was measured. Results are shown as means ± SD of 3–4 independent experiments. *P < 0.05 vs. NG in Ad-GFP. †P < 0.05 vs. HG in Ad-GFP. ‡P < 0.05 vs. HG insulin in Ad-GFP.

Fig. 10. SHP-1 interacts with IR-β. Podocytes were incubated with NG (5.6 mM of mannitol) or HG (25 mM) for 96 h. Coimmunoprecipitation of SHP-1 with either IR-β or IRS-1 in podocytes (A) and renal cortex (B) of Ins2+/+ and Ins2+/C96Y mice. Protein expression was detected by Western blot, and densitometric quantitation was measured. IB, immunoblot. Results are shown as means ± SD of 3–4 independent experiments.
oxidative stress, activation of p38 mitogen-activated protein kinase, and TGF-β1 overexpression are involved in podocyte apoptosis (3, 31, 35). Besides insulin, several studies point to other growth factors such as the VEGF as essential for podocyte function and survival. VEGF expression is elevated in diabetic kidney (2, 16). Disruption of the Vegfa gene specifically in podocytes resulted in apoptosis of these cells, foot process effacement, loss of mesangial and endothelial cell fenestration, and death within the first days of life (8, 9). Evidence against an autocrine VEGF signaling loop in podocytes in vivo is in disagreement with previous data using cultured human and mouse podocytes (4, 10, 13). Interestingly, Sison et al. provide evidence that mouse podocytes in vivo express scant, if any, VEGF2 and that podocyte-derived VEGFR2 does not contribute to the pathologies observed when there is too much or too little glomerular VEGF (33). This is in contrast with Mima and colleagues who have recently demonstrated that VEGFR2 signaling is altered in cultured podocytes exposed to high glucose levels (22).

The regulation of PTP, such as SHP-1, is an important mechanism for developmental control and homeostasis of an array of cellular processes, including cell growth, differentiation, mitotic cycle, and oncogenic transformation. SHP-1 knockout mice are markedly glucose tolerant and insulin sensitive compared with wild-type controls. Dubois and colleagues showed that these observations are due to the enhancement of the IR signaling by way of the IRS/phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase (PI3K)/Akt axis in the liver (7). Furthermore, SHP-1 regulates muscle insulin action in a cell-autonomous manner by negatively modulating both insulin signaling to Akt and GLUT-4 translocation, as well as GLUT-4 expression (1). In our current study, we showed that SHP-1 is associated with IR-β and interferes with insulin-induced Akt and ERK phosphorylation, which are blunted in podocytes exposed to high glucose levels. A previous study reported that the lipid phosphatase SHIP2 associates with CD2AP in podocyte, which can reduce insulin-stimulated Akt phosphorylation (17). However, this study was not performed under hyperglycemic conditions. Our study is the first to show that the increased expression of SHP-1 triggers insulin unresponsiveness in renal podocytes. Interestingly, with the use of an insulin-resistant type 2 diabetes model, previous data have reported that free fatty acids cause profound modifications in cultured podocytes, including decreased IR-β, IRS-1, and Akt expression (20). By contrast, our results did not show any significant changes in IRβ, IRS1, or IRS2 expression in podocytes or renal cortex of Ins2−/+C96Y mice. Taken together, these data indicate that activation of SHP-1 and the consequent inhibition of insulin activity by SHP-1 contributed to the reduction of IR-β/IRS/PI3K/Akt phosphorylation. We cannot exclude the possibility that other mechanisms such as reactive oxygen species may be involved in HG-induced podocyte apoptosis independent of SHP-1. However, we believe that high glucose levels promote podocyte apoptosis through two important pathways: the increased oxidative stress/ROS production and the reduction of prosurvival factor action such as insulin and VEGF by triggering SHP-1 expression.

In conclusion, our study clearly demonstrated that insulin action is important in maintaining podocyte survival, and podocytes exposed to high glucose levels exhibit insulin resistance. The mechanisms causing insulin unresponsiveness by hyperglycemia are in part due to the increased association of SHP-1 with IR-β, which interferes with the insulin-stimulated Akt and ERK phosphorylation. Our study provides, for the first time, new insights into molecular mechanisms underlying hyperglycemia-induced insulin resistance in podocytes and will offer new attractive approaches to prevent kidney disease in patients with diabetes.

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DISCLOSURES

No conflicts of interest, financial or otherwise, are declared by the authors.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS


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