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Jian Jin University of Louisville

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EVALUATING THE EFFECTS OF PCBS IN NON-ALCOHOLIC FATTY LIVER DISEASE & DIABETES AND THE ROLE OF AHR IN REGULATING THE HEPATIC PROTEOME AND LIPID METABOLISM

By

Jian Jin M.D Wenzhou Medical University, 2006

A dissertation Submitted to the Faculty of the School of Medicine of the University of Louisville In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy in Pharmacology and Toxicology

Department of Pharmacology and Toxicology University of Louisville Louisville, KY

December 2020

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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my wife and my boy

Dr. Hanyang Ye

And

Yexin Jin

who have supported me all the way.

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ABSTRACT

EVALUATING THE EFFECTS OF PCBS IN NON-ALCOHOLIC FATTY LIVER DISEASE & DIABETES AND THE ROLE OF AHR IN REGULATING THE HEPATIC PROTEOME AND LIPID METABOLISM

Jian Jin

October 27, 2020

Polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs) are persistent organic pollutants associated with non-alcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD) and diabetes. Based on their ability to activate the aryl hydrocarbon receptor (AhR), PCBs are subdivided into two classes: dioxin-like (DL) and non- dioxin-like (NDL) PCBs. This study not only evaluated the chronic effect of DL PCBs (PCB126), NDL PCBs (Aroclor1260 mainly contains NDL), and the DL/NDL PCB mixture (PCB126/Aroclor1260 mixture) on liver, but also explored the acute hepatic effects of DL PCB and potential mechanisms in NAFLD and the role of AhR in regulating hepatic proteome and lipid metabolism, and whether the process independent of PCB exposure. Additionally, the acute effects of different doses of Aroclor1260/PCB126 on pancreatic proteome in female mice model were evaluated. HFD fed male C57BL/6J mice were treated with same exposures above for 12 weeks; and chow diet fed male C57BL/6J and AhR-/ mice were exposed to PCB 126 (20 µg/kg) for 2 weeks. Besides, chow

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diet fed female C57BL/6J mice were treatd with low dose and high dose Aroclor 1260/PCB 126 mixture for 2 weeks. Chronic exposure experiments revealed Aroclor1260 increased hepatic inflammation and promoted phosphoprotein signaling disruption; PCB126 altered cytoskeletal remodeling, metal homeostasis, and disruption of intermediary/xenobiotic metabolism. Aroclor1260+PCB126 exposure enriched multiple epigenetic processes. AhR^{-/-} mice fed control diet had histological steatosis with higher levels of hepatic free fatty acids and triglycerides. AhR ablation upregulated lipogenic genes *(Cd36, Perilipin-2)* and downregulated lipolytic genes (*Pnpla3*). Pancreatic proteome in acute female mice showed transcription factors related to pancreas function were overconnected with low dose and high dose Aroclor 1260/PCB 126, including NEUROD5, HNF1-beta, HNF4-alpha, E2F1, FOXP3, HNF1-alpha. Processes associated with the insulin signal pathway were enriched by low dose or high dose Aroclor 1260/PCB126, including 'insulin-like growth factor receptor signaling pathway', 'receptor tyrosine kinase signaling pathway', 'signal transduction_insulin signaling. In summary, PCB exposures differentially regulated the hepatic proteome and the histologic severity of diet induced NAFLD. AhR plays a pivotal role in maintenance of lipid metabolism and energy homeostasis and suggested AhR regulated the hepatic proteome and lipid metabolism independent of PCB exposure. Aroclor1260+PCB126 exposure was overconnected transcription factors related to pancreas function and enriched receptor tyrosine kinase signaling pathways, including insulin signaling pathways.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs)

Polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs) are a group of persistent environmental toxicants that are detected in the serum of 100% American adults (1). PCB exposures are associated with fatty liver disease, diabetes, obesity and hypertension (1-6). PCBs are thermodynamically stable polyhalogenated aromatic hydrocarbons consisting of up to ten chlorine atoms attached to the biphenyl rings. The number of chlorine atoms and their location in the PCB molecule are associated with its physical and chemical properties (Fig, 1.1). PCBs were manufactured from 1929 until these chemicals were banned by the United States Congress in 1979 under the Toxic Substances Control Act (7) and globally by the Stockholm Convention in 2001 (8) due to a variety of toxicities such as causing fatty liver disease, diabetes, obesity, etc. (1-6). PCB congeners have been categorized into two major classes: coplanar and noncoplanar PCBs.

Coplanar PCB congeners have none or only one chlorine atom attached to the ortho-position of biphenyl rings, called non-ortho and mono-ortho PCBs, respectively. There are 12 coplanar PCBs: PCB 77, PCB 81, PCB 126, and PCB 169 are non-ortho PCBs; and, PCB105, PCB156, PCB114,

PCB157, PCB118, PCB167, PCB123 and PCB189 are mono-ortho PCBs. Coplanar PCBs have dioxin-like toxicity, and they can activate the aryl hydrocarbon receptor (AhR), so they are also called dioxin-like (DL) PCBs. Non-coplanar PCB congeners have two or more chlorine atoms at the orthoposition of biphenyl rings, and do not have dioxin-like properties, thus, these are known as non-dioxin-like (NDL) PCBs.

Aroclor 1260 is a commercial mixture of PCBs containing an average of chlorine content of 60% -- it was manufactured by Monsanto, a well-known PCB manufacturer in Anniston, Alabama in North America. It consists of mainly pentachlorobiphenyls (43.35%) and hexa-chlorobiphenyls (38.54%) and also includes mono-, bi-, tri, tetra-, hexa-, octa- and nona-chlorinated homologs. Minimally chlorinated PCB congeners are easily metabolized and eliminated, and only PCB congeners with high-level chlorination are resistant to metabolism and have bioaccumulated in humans. The PCB profiles in Aroclor 1260 best mimic the PCBs present in human adipose tissue(2) (Fig. 1.2). However, Aroclor1260 contains lower amounts of DL-PCBs, which cannot activate murine and human AhR; PCB126 (20µg/kg) was added in my project to make the PCB mixture (Aroclor1260/PCB126) more environmentally relevant, making a significant contribution by effect, while a small contribution by mass.

PCBs interact with some xenobiotic receptors associated with nonalcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD). The receptors include AhR, constitutive androstane receptor (CAR), pregnane xenobiotic receptor (PXR), peroxisome

proliferator-activated receptors (PPARs), and liver-X-receptor(9, 10). AhR is a transcription factor that regulates gene expression of phase I and phase II xenobiotic metabolizing enzyme genes (such as the *CYP1A1* gene). AhR is normally inactive and bound to several [co-chaperones](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Co-chaperone) and can be activated by several exogenous ligands such as natural plant [flavonoids,](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Flavonoid) polyphenolics and indoles, but the majority of the identified high-affinity ligands are synthetic chemicals, including synthetic polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons and [dioxin](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Dioxins_and_dioxin-like_compounds)[like compounds.](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Dioxins_and_dioxin-like_compounds) Upon binding to [ligands](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Agonist) such as [2,3,7,8-tetrachlorodibenzo](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/2,3,7,8-Tetrachlorodibenzodioxin)*p*[-dioxin](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/2,3,7,8-Tetrachlorodibenzodioxin) (TCDD) or DL-PCBs (PCB126, *etc*.), chaperones [dissociate](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Dissociation_(chemistry)) from the cytosolic AhR complex leading to AhR translocating into the [nucleus](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Cell_nucleus) and [dimerizing](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Protein_dimer) with ARNT [\(AhR nuclear translocator\),](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Aryl_hydrocarbon_receptor_nuclear_translocator) resulting in changes in [gene](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Gene) [transcription.](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Transcription_(genetics)) AhR activation regulates the transcription of many genes, such as the cytochrome P4501A (CYP1A) family.

CAR is a member of the [nuclear receptor](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Nuclear_receptor) superfamily and in human is encoded by the *NR1I3* [gene](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Gene) (11). Along with pregnane X receptor [\(PXR\)](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Pregnane_X_receptor), it functions as a sensor of [xenobiotic](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Xenobiotic) substances, CAR regulates expression of genes associated with all three phases of hepatic metabolism and transport including phase I monooxygenation, phase II conjugation, and phase III transporters that include multidrug resistance-associated proteins and organic anion transporting polypeptides. CAR is expressed primarily in the liver and intestinal enterocytes.

PXR, also known as the steroid and xenobiotic sensing nuclear receptor (SXR) or nuclear receptor subfamily 1, group I, member 2 (NR1I2) is a nuclear

receptor that in humans is encoded by the *NR1I2* gene (12, 13). PXR is activated by many endogenous and exogenous chemicals including steroids (progesterone, 17α-hydroxyprogesterone, 17α-hydroxypregnenolone, etc.), antimycotics, bile acids, and many herbal and other compound (e.g., meclizine, paclitaxel) (14). PXR can sense the presence of toxic foreign substances and upregulate the expression of proteins involved in the detoxification and clearance of these substances from the body. Activation of PXR induces expression of target genes of the Cyp3a family, including Cyp3a11 in mice and Cyp3a4 in human. On the other hand, CAR target genes of the Cyp2b10 family, such as Cyp2b10 in mice and Cyp2b6 in human, are induced upon activation.

PCBs have been found in fatty tissues of animals and humans due to their hydrophobic nature and resistance towards metabolism. Several PCBs have been shown to have toxic effects like those caused by 2, 3, 7, 8 tetrachlorodibenzo-*p*-dioxin (TCDD), the most potent congener to activate AhR. To estimate the toxicity of PCBs to human, the World Health Organization (WHO) has set up toxic equivalency factors (TEFs) for AhR ligands (15). TCDD is assigned a TEF of 1 as the prototypical ligand. The TEFs of other chemicals are calculated based on relative effect potency (REP) values compared to that of TCDD. PCB 126, having highest AhR binding affinity of DL-PCBs, has the TEF 0.1 and is the major contributor to the total TEQ from PCBs.

There are two major PCB exposure events occurred in Japan (Yusho,

1968) and in Taiwan (Yucheng, 1979) due to rice oil contamination. The Yusho study showed that the standardized mortality ratios (SMRs) for all types of cancer (SMR = 1.26; 95% CI: 1.03–1.53) and lung cancer $(NIR = 1.56; 95\% CI: 1.03–2.27)$ were significantly increased among males, but not among females. Several follow-up studies of the Yucheng events (PCB poisoning) demonstrated increased mortality from chronic liver disease and cirrhosis in men (3, 16), increased rates of DM in females (4) and neurocognitive deficits in elderly women patients (17).

In The Anniston Community Health Survey (ACHS) and ACHS-II study supported by the Agency for Toxic Substances and Disease Registry (ATSDR), the association between PCB exposure and steatohepatitis was observed; a high prevalence of diabetes (27%) was also observed, which was almost 3-times higher than the US prevalence rate (9.3%), and higher blood pressure was observed in high-PCB exposure residents. Another epidemiological study, National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey (NHANES) in the US demonstrated that in NHANES 2003-2004 adult participants, PCBs were associated with unexplained ALT elevation, a proxy marker of NAFLD (18).

Non-alcoholic fatty liver disease

Non-alcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD) is the accumulation of excessive fat in liver cells that is not caused by alcohol. NAFLD includes a spectrum of fatty liver diseases, from hepatic steatosis to hepatic steatohepatitis (NASH), fibrosis, cirrhosis, and even hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) (19). If more

than 5% – 10% of the liver's weight is fat, it is called steatosis, which reflects abnormal processes of [synthesis](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Biosynthesis) and elimination of [triglyceride](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Triglyceride) fat. When steatosis progresses to become associated with inflammation, it is known as steatohepatitis, characterized by liver injury, inflammation, oxidative stress and fibrosis, and elevation in appearance of hepatic enzymes in serum (e.g., ALT, AST) and is seen clinically. In the spectrum of NAFLD, steatosis and steatohepatitis can be reversible, but when it advances to cirrhosis, the progress cannot be reversed and is linked to elevated risk of HCC.

Dramatic modifications in lifestyle in the past century have changed the disease profile in most areas of the world, owing to a growing incidence of noncommunicable disease especially NAFLD, diabetes, obesity, etc. The increased prevalence of NAFLD parallels the worldwide increase of obesity and type 2 diabetes and the estimated global prevalence of NAFLD is currently 24%(16). Different continents have different levels, and the highest rates are from South America (31%) and the Middle East (32%), followed by Asia (27%), the USA (24%) and Europe (23%), whereas is lowest in Africa (14%) (16). 70%-80% of obese and diabetic populations develop NAFLD, 5- 10 % of individuals with steatosis progress to NASH, and 30 % of NASH patients develop cirrhosis. Unfortunately, 1-2 % of patients will progress to HCC within 10 years after developing cirrhosis (19).

NAFLD is also associated with increased morbidity and mortality of cardiovascular disease due to abnormal levels of blood lipids. Hypertriglyceridemia is the metabolic comorbidity most commonly associated

with NAFLD. For patients with end stage liver disease, there is no better treatment for end stage liver disease like cirrhosis than liver transplantation. NAFLD has been a heavy burden on public health worldwide. In the USA, estimated annual direct medical costs for NAFLD are about \$103 billion (20). The predicament clinicians are facing is that there are still no FDA approved drugs for NAFLD/NASH treatment, and lifestyle modification through body weight loss and physical exercise, is the only way to improve NAFLD/NASH (21).

NAFLD is associated with the dysfunction of glucose and lipid metabolism in the liver and the loss of homeostasis of hepatic lipid metabolism plays an important role in its pathogenesis. The homeostasis of lipid metabolism includes lipid input and output in liver. On the input side, chylomicrons (CM) from dietary fat ingestion and free fatty acids derived mainly from lipolysis can be taken up by the liver via the blood stream. Lipids can be synthesized (*de novo*) from carbohydrates and other precursors. The key proteins involved in the absorption of fatty acid in liver include fatty acid transport proteins (FATPs), plasma membrane fatty acid binding protein (FABP) and fatty acid translocase (CD36/FAT), which are associated with hepatic steatosis (21-23). Three key enzymes (ATP-citrate lyase (Acly), acetyl-CoA carboxylase (ACC) and fatty acid synthase (Fasn)) and some transcription factors like liver X receptor (LXR), sterol regulatory element-binding protein-1c (SREBP-1c), and carbohydrate response element binding protein (ChREBP) regulate the *de novo* lipogenesis (24-26). As a result, free fatty acids are mainly converted

into triglycerides and are stored in hepatocytes. On the output side, lipids can either be transferred into lipoprotein (e.g., very-low-density-lipoprotein (VLDL)) and be secreted into the blood (26), or be utilized in mitochondria by β-oxidation to produce ATP (27). When the total lipid influx rate exceeds efflux rate, excessive lipid deposition arises, resulting in hepatic steatosis. Any factor that affect these steps of lipid metabolism may cause NAFLD.

There are "two-hit" and"multiple parallel hits"hypotheses used to explain the pathogenesis of NAFLD/NASH. One scenario is that fat accumulation, as the first hit, increases susceptibility to a subsequent second hit, which is responsible for liver injury, inflammation and hepatic steatosis. Exposures to occupational and environmental chemicals are the second hit. The toxicantassociated fatty liver disease (TAFLD) and/or toxicant-associated steatohepatitis (TASH) have been used to describe this condition (28). Because the similar histopathology exists between NAFLD/NASH and TAFLD/TASH, the distinction between these will not be considered here. In our previous acute PCB exposure study, different PCBs had different effects on liver and pancreas structure and function, which may be attributed to activation of different 'cross-talking' PCB receptors. PCB 126 phenotypically induced fatty liver disease and novel mechanisms for PCBs in fatty liver disease were identified, like the PNPLA3 gene: environment interaction in fatty liver disease (29).

Diabetes Mellitus (DM)

Diabetes has been a major and rising health concern in the US population and across the world. According to the National Diabetes Statistics Report (2020) of the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention (CDC), 34.2 million people or 10.5% of the US population have diabetes. In 2017, diabetes was the seventh leading cause of death in the United States and the total direct and indirect estimated costs of diagnosed diabetes in the United States in 2017 was \$327 billion (30).

As EDCs/MDCs, PCBs increase susceptibility to diabetes. Multiple epidemiological studies and animal experiments have revealed associations between PCBs exposure and DM (31). The studies of Yucheng event showed higher prevalence rate of DM in high PCB exposed females and ACHS-I & II revealed almost 3-times higher morbidity of DM in PCB-exposed residents than the average prevalence in the states (4, 6). Our previous acute study showed the Aroclor 1260/PCB126 co-exposure caused pancreatic histopathology, including acinar cell atrophy, mild steatosis, and fibrosis without ductal changes or immune cell infiltration (29). Several novel mechanisms for PCBs in diabetes were identified, including hepatokines, PCB pancreatopathy and pancreatic islet identity factors in diabetes. Hepatokines, including FGF21, IGF1, and betatrophin, have been involved in the development of NAFLD, diabetes, and metabolic syndrome. FGF21 plays a critical role in regulating obesity, insulin resistance and NAFLD by increasing brown adipose levels and adiponectin secretion. The liver appears

to be both a target and effector organ for PCB-induced endocrine disruption (29).

Proteomics analysis

As a large-scale study analysis of proteins and proteomes, proteomics is able to identify numbers of produced or modified proteins and is widely used both in hepatology and environmental research. In proteomics, proteins generally are detected by using either [antibodies](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Antibody) (immunoassays) or [mass](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Mass_spectrometry) [spectrometry.](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Mass_spectrometry) The method of the latter needs to go through detection and separation steps using reverse-phase chromatography. Tandem mass tags (TMT) labeling protocol is a cost-effective and robust method for it reduces the quantity of required reagent and obtains complete labelling, showing its excellent reproducibility.

Overall goal and specific aims

Previously, studies on the effects of PCBs have been focused mostly on single PCB congeners or NDL-PCBs, and the acute study of different PCB exposures (including DL/NDL PCB mixture) effects on liver and pancreas has been completed (29). The chronic effects that the mixture of DL/NDL PCBs have on liver and/or pancreas require elucidation. The mechanisms that DL-PCBs and the mixture of DL/NDL PCBs utilize to induce toxicity remain to be elucidated. AhR overactivation was thought to be associated with DL-PCBinduced hepatotoxicity (32) and activation of AhR could induce hepatic steatosis via the upregulation of fatty acid transport (33). AhR gene deletion

was thought to be protective (34) , but Ahr^{\div} mice $(1-3$ weeks) developed spontaneous extensive microvesicular lipidosis (35). Therefore, the complex role of the AhR in hepatic lipid metabolism warrants investigation. The overall goal of this dissertation is to evaluate the chronic effects of different PCBs exposure by phenotypes and untargeted proteomics and examine if AhR altered hepatic proteome and lipid metabolism depending on PCB exposure. The specific aims of the project are as follows:

Aim 1: Investigate the chronic exposure effects and potential mechanisms of DL-PCBs and NDL-PCBs, or co-exposures to both in a diet-induced obesity mouse model.

In recent years, review of the publications involved in PCB studies mostly focus on NDL-PCBs, but in real world, humans are exposed to DL-PCBs and NDL-PCBs simultaneously; another issue is whether the combination of DLand NDL-PCB will cause a synergistic effect for different PCBs involves different mechanisms of action. The purpose of this chronic exposure study was to perform a phenotypic and proteomic analyses to evaluate the difference of chronic effects and potential mechanisms of different PCBs exposure in HFD obese mice.

Aim 2: Evaluate the role of AhR plays in the regulating hepatic proteome and whether this process is independent of PCB exposure or not in an AhR knockout mouse model.

From the results of our acute PCB exposure study, as a potent AhR agonist, DL-PCBs (e.g., PCB126) caused hepatic steatosis, while on the flip side, AhR activation also is involved in the processes of lipid metabolism and there appears to be an over-activation of AhR (33) inducing hepatic steatosis. The role that the AhR plays in regulating the hepatic proteome and lipid metabolism and whether these processes depend on PCB exposure needs to be further elucidated. The present study was performed with PCB126 and explored the acute effects in chow diet fed global Ahr^{-/-} mice. Hepatic proteomics analysis was performed, and the results from proteomics were validated by phenotypic analysis and real-time PCR. Another purpose of the study was to explore whether the global AhR ablation will bring about beneficiary or deleterious effects on lipid accumulation.

Aim 3: Investigate the acute exposure effects and potential mechanisms of different doses of DL+NDL PCBs on pancreatic proteome in a female mouse model.

In our previous sex difference mice study (36), the co-exposure of Aroclor1260/PCB126 decreased INS1 gene expression in female mice, while increased pancreas weight/body weight ratio. Some epidemiological studies, like ACHS-I and II showed women with high PCB exposure had higher prevalence of diabetes than men (6). These results suggested that compared with individual PCB congeners, the Aroclor1260/PCB126 mixture were more relevant to diabetes. The female mouse appears to be a susceptible mouse

model. In Aim 3, we used two different doses of Aroclor1260/PCB126 (20mg/kg+20µg/kg and 100mg/kg+100µg/kg) in a female mouse model.

Figure 1.1. Chemical structure of PCBs.

PCBs have the basic chemical formula (C₁₂H_{10-n}Cl_n), where n means the number of chlorine atoms, and the number means the positions where a chlorine atom is attached to biphenyl rings.

Figure 1.2. Relative PCB Composition in human Adipose tissue and Aroclor 1260

Pie charts depicting the relative abundance of PCB congeners in human adipose tissue and Aroclor 1260. Figure adapted from Wahlang, *et al*., *Toxicol Sci*, 2014,140 (2): 283-297.

CHAPTER 2

DIOXIN-LIKE AND NON-DIOXIN-LIKE PCBS DIFFERENTIALLY REGULATE THE HEPATIC PROTEOME AND MODIFY DIET-INDUCED NONALCOHOLIC FATTY LIVER DISEASE SEVERITY

INTRODUCTION

The pollutants, polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs), are metabolism-disrupting chemicals associated with nonalcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD), obesity, dyslipidemia, diabetes, and cardiovascular disease (37-42). PCBs were produced during the 1930s–1970s for use in multiple industrial applications (43). Although intentional PCB production is banned, their high thermodynamic stability imparting resistance to metabolism and degradation make PCBs persistent organic pollutants. PCBs bioaccumulate in living organisms and exposures increase along trophic levels of the food chain. PCBs have been detected in the serum of 100% American adult participants in the National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey (NHANES) (38). The 209 possible PCB congeners have been generally categorized into two major classes: "coplanar" and "noncoplanar". Coplanar PCBs (no or one chlorine atom in the ortho-position) including PCB126 potently activate the aryl hydrocarbon receptor (AhR), thereby eliciting a dioxin-like (DL) response similar to TCDD, and are known as "DL" PCBs (44). In contrast, noncoplanar PCBs have two or more chlorine atoms at

the ortho-position, conferring a conformation that precludes AhR binding and activation. However, these so-called "non-DL" (NDL) PCBs activate other xenobiotic receptors, such as the constitutive androstane receptor (CAR) and elicit a phenobarbital-like response (44). Commercially, PCBs were sold as mixtures rather than individual congeners. Arclor1260 (60% chlorine by weight) was a first-generation PCB mixture manufactured in Anniston Alabama, by Monsanto. The Anniston Community Health Survey I reported a high prevalence of suspected NAFLD associated with PCB congener exposures in Anniston residents (6). The PCB congeners that constitute Aroclor1260 are ones that have higher molecular weights and are not easily metabolized; therefore, they tend to bioaccumulate in living organisms including humans. In fact, the PCB composition in Aroclor1260 more closely resembles human bioaccumulation patterns than any other single commercially produced Aroclor mixture (45). Because low-dose Aroclor1260 does not activate either the human or murine AhR, Aroclor1260 has previously been used to model NDL PCB exposures (2, 45, 46).

PCB exposures are associated with NAFLD in human cohort studies and either cause or exacerbate diet-induced NAFLD in animal studies (reviewed in (45)). NAFLD is a broad spectrum of progressive liver disorders ranging from fat accumulation (steatosis) to hepatic inflammation (steatohepatitis), fibrosis, cirrhosis, and hepatocellular carcinoma. NAFLD and its more severe form, nonalcoholic steatohepatitis (NASH), can be due to various etiological factors, such as high-caloric intake, lifestyle habits, and more recently, environmental

chemical exposures. Our group coined the term "toxicant-associated steatohepatitis" (TASH) to reflect the steatohepatitis associated with industrial chemical exposures (47,48). However, recent studies have implicated known PCB receptors such as the AhR, CAR, pregnane-xenobiotic receptor (PXR), and epidermal growth factor receptor (EGFR) in PCB-induced TASH (49).

In the liver, AhR activation by TCDD and PCB126 increased lipid accumulation and led to simple steatosis in short-term, rodent studies (50, 51). CAR, along with PXR, function as sensors of xenobiotic substances and are primarily involved in detoxification and foreign compound metabolism. However, previous studies from our group and others have shown that NDL PCB-mediated CAR and PXR activation also play a fundamental role in regulating hepatic energy metabolism and may contribute to TASH development (49). Like phenobarbital, some PCBs appear to indirectly activate CAR by diminishing EGFR phosphorylation, leading to reduced hepatic phosphoprotein signaling and metabolic disruption in TASH (51-53). Nonetheless, these studies only evaluated the effects of either DL or NDL PCBs in diet-induced obesity, although both classes of PCBs are concurrently present in the human exposome. We recently developed a new PCB exposure model, by spiking the potent AhR agonist, PCB126, into Aroclor1260 (51). This mixture produced different hepatic effects than either Aroclor1260 or PCB126 alone in an acute exposure model (51). Therefore, the objective of the current study is to evaluate the modulation of diet-induced NAFLD by several different types of chronic PCB exposures. Similar to our previous model (51), these

exposures include low-dose Aroclor1260 (representative NDL PCB mixture), PCB126 (prototypical DL PCB), and Aroclor1260 + PCB126 (NDL + DL PCB mixture). Untargeted liver proteomics was performed to elucidate potential mechanisms for observed differences in NAFLD disease severity.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Animal studies

The related animal protocol was ratified by the University of Louisville Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee. Adult male C57BL/6 mice (8 weeks old) were purchased from Jackson Laboratory and distributed into four equal groups ($n = 10$). All mice were fed a high-fat diet (HFD, 15.2, 42.7, and 42.0% of total calories from protein, carbohydrate, and fat, respectively, TekLad TD88137) throughout the study period. At 10 weeks of age, ten mice in each group were given either corn oil, Aroclor1260 (20 mg/kg), PCB126 (20 μ g/kg), or a mixture of Aroclor1260 (20 mg/kg) plus 0.1% PCB126 (20 μ g/kg) via a one-time gavage and followed for 12 weeks (Fig. 2.1). At week 8 post gavage, a glucose tolerance test (GTT) was performed as described previously (36). Dual energy X-ray absorptiometry (DEXA) scanning (Lunar PIXImus densitometer, WI) was performed to measure body fat composition before euthanasia. Whole blood for plasma, liver, and fat tissue samples was harvested after euthanasia.

Definition of PCB doses utilized

The doses of the different PCBs used in the present study were similar to those used in the acute study (29) and were designed to mimic doses relevant to human exposures. For example, Aroclor1260 at 20 mg/kg was designed to reflect serum PCB levels measured in the highest exposed quartile of the ACHS cohort (5), while PCB126 at 20 µg/kg (0.1% of Aroclor1260) was

designed to mimic the percent of serum PCB126 measured in NHANES 2003– 2004, relative to other heavily bioaccumulated PCBs such as PCB153, the congener with the highest reported serum levels in NHANES 2003–2004 (54).

Histological staining

Liver and pancreas tissues were fixed in 10% neutral buffered formalin for 72 h and embedded in paraffin for routine histological examination. Hematoxylin– eosin (H&E) staining was performed to identify histopathological changes. Chloroacetate esterase (CAE) activity, macrophage accumulation, and fibrosis were evaluated by CAE, immunohistochemical staining, and picro sirius red staining, respectively, according to the manufacturer's protocols. Micrographic images were obtained by a high-resolution Olympus digital scanner with an Olympus digital camera (BX41).

Real-time PCR

Mouse liver and pancreas tissues were homogenized and total RNA was extracted using RNA-STAT 60 reagent according to the manufacturer's protocol. The purity and quantity of total RNA were measured with a Nanodrop spectrometer (ND-1000, Thermo Fisher Scientific, Wilmington, DE) using ND-1000 V3.8.1 software and cDNA was reverse transcribed from 1 μg RNA using

a one-step cDNA synthesis reagent (QScript cDNA Supermix, QuantaBio, Beverly, MA). RT-PCR was performed on the CFX384TM Real-Time System (Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA) using iTaq Universal Probe Supermix and Taqman probes as described elsewhere (36). The probes sequences were as follows:
AhR (Mm00478932_m1); CAR (Mm00731567_m1), and Cyp4a10 (Mm02601690_gH); peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor alpha (Pparα) (Mm00440939_m1); Cd36 (Mm01135198_m1); fatty acid-binding protein 1 (Fabp1) (Mm00444340_m1); fatty acid synthase (Fasn) (Mm00662319_m1); interleukin-6 (Il-6) (Mm00446190_m1); stearoyl coenzyme A desaturase1 (Scd1) (Mm00772290_m1); Pnpla3 (Mm00504420_m1); Car (Nr1i3) (Mm01283978_m1); Pxr (Nr1i2) (Mm01344139_m1); cytochrome P450s, including Cyp1a2 (Mm00487224_m1), Cyp2b10 (Mm01972453_s1), Cyp3a11 (Mm007731567-m1), and glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH) (Mm99999915_g1). All reactions were run in triplicate. The relative mRNA expression was calculated using the comparative 2^{-△△Ct} method and normalized against GAPDH mRNA (55).

Measurement of hepatic lipids, plasma lipids, and cytokines

Hepatic lipids were extracted by a mixture of chloroform and methanol (2:1) according to a published protocol (56). Triglycerides and free fatty acid contents were measured using commercial kits with final values normalized to liver wet weight. Plasma alanine transaminase (ALT), aspartate transaminase (AST), triglyceride, cholesterol, and lipoproteins were quantified with lipid panel plus kits on a Piccolo Xpress Chemistry Analyzer (Abbott Laboratories, IL). Plasma cytokine and adipokine levels were acquired using a customized Milliplex® MAP mouse adipokine panel on a Luminex® 100 system (Luminex Corp, Austin, TX).

Proteomics analysis

Proteins were extracted from liver tissue in RIPA buffer supplemented with protease and phosphatase inhibitors using a bead homogenizer and protein amounts were quantitated by BCA assay. Protein lysates (200 μg) were trypsinized using the modified filter-aided sample preparation method (57) and enriched for phosphopeptides by the TiO2–SIMAC–HILIC method (58). Briefly, protein samples were reduced with dithiothreitol, denatured with 8M urea, and alkylated with iodoacetamide followed by centrifugation through a high molecular weight cutoff centrifugal filter (Millipore, 10k MWCO). After overnight digestion with sequencing grade trypsin (Promega), the digested proteins were collected and cleaned with a C18 Proto™ 300 Å Ultra MicroSpin column. Protein digested samples (50µg) were labeled with tandem mass tag (TMT) TMT10plex™ Isobaric Label Reagent Set (Thermo Fisher, Waltham, MA); samples were then concentrated and desalted with Oasis HLB Extraction cartridges (Waters Corporation, Milford, MA) using a modified protocol for extraction of the digested peptides (59). Samples were then subjected to high pH reversed phase separation with fraction concatenation on a Beckman System Gold LC system supplemented with 126 solvent module and 166 detector in tandem with a Bio-Rad Model 2110 Fraction Collector (60). Liquid chromatography/mass spectrometry was used to measure TMT-labeled peptides. Briefly, every high pH reversed phase fraction was dissolved in 50μL solution of the combination of 2% v/v acetonitrile/0.1% v/v formic acid and 1 μL of each fraction was analyzed on

EASYnLC 1000 UHPLC system (Thermo Fisher) and an Orbitrap Elite—ETD mass spectrometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA). Proteome Discoverer v2.2.0.388 was used to analyze the raw data collected from the mass spectrometer. Hepatic proteins that had significance abundance were imported into MetaCore software (Clarivate Analytics, Philadelphia, PA) for the following analyses: gene ontology (GO), enrichment by protein function (EPF), and interaction by protein function (IPF).

Statistical analysis and data sharing

Statistical significance was determined by two-way analysis of variance using GraphPad Prism version 7.02 for Windows (GraphPad Software Inc., La Jolla, CA, USA). p <0.05 was considered statistically significant. Statistical analysis for the proteome data was analyzed using the R package as described previously (61, 62). Given the exploratory nature of the study, significantly altered proteins were further filtered using an FDR threshold of 0.2 and proteins exhibiting a fold change of −0.5 <log2FC < 0.5 were rejected to rule out false positives. Proteomics data files were deposited in the MassIVE (http://massive.ucsd.edu/) data repository, Center for Computational Mass Spectrometry at the University of California, San Diego, and shared on the ProteomeXchange (www. proteomexchange.org).

Figure 2.1. Experimental design of chronic PCB exposure study.

Mice were divided into 4 study groups based on the type of exposure. All

animals were fed a high fat diet and received a one-time gavage of their

respective dose at the beginning of the study.

RESULTS

Effects of PCB exposures on body composition, glucose tolerance, and adipokines

Body weight was measured weekly throughout the 12-week study. There was a gradual increase in body weight in all the four groups from week 0 to week 12 (Fig. 2.2A). However, there were no significant differences in the amount of body weight gain between the groups (Fig. 2.2B). Body fat composition was measured using both DEXA scan and by weighing the harvested epididymal fat (white adipose tissue) content. Although there was no significant difference in overall percent fat composition (Fig. 2.2E), Aroclor1260 exposure, however, increased white adipose tissue to body weight ratio (Fig. 2.2C). In addition, neither Aroclor1260 nor PCB126 affected liver weight to body weight ratio (Fig. 2.2D) and pancreas weight to body weight ratio in these mice (Fig. 2.2F). A GTT was performed to examine PCB effects on glucose metabolism; there were no differences between groups for alteration in glucose uptake (Fig. 2.2G). PCB effects on plasma lipids and adipocytokines were evaluated. The Aroclor1260+PCB126 group significantly decreased plasma cholesterol levels via its interacting Aroclor1260 and PCB126 components. PCB126 exposure decreased triglycerides levels in the Aroclor1260+ PCB126 group (Table 1). There was no PCB effect on adipokines including adiponectin, leptin, and resistin (Table 1).

Effects of PCB exposures on hepatic steatosis, inflammation, injury, and fibrosis

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(A) Body weight (BW) was measured weekly throughout the 12-week study and (B) % change in body weight relative to the initial body weight taken at the beginning of the study was calculated. (E) Percent fat composition was measured using a dual energy X-ray absorptiometry (DEXA) scan. White adipose tissue (WAT) weight, liver weight (LW) and Pancreas weight (PW) were measured and the (C) WAT/BW, (D) LW/BW and (F) PW/BW ratios were calculated. (G) A glucose tolerance test was performed and blood glucose levels were obtained at baseline and at 15, 30, 60, and 120 minutes. There were no significant differences in (H) AUC (Area under curve) between four groups. Values are mean \pm SEM; n=10, p <0.05, a = Aroclor1260 effect, b = PCB126 effect, c = interaction between Aroclor1260 and PCB126.

Table 1. Plasma lipids and adipo-cytokines.

Plasma levels of lipids and adipo-cytokines were measured using either Piccolo Chemistry Analyzer or Luminex Milliplex system. Values are mean ± SD; n=10, *p* <0.05, a= Aroclor1260 effect, b=PCB126 effect, c=interaction between Aroclor1260 and PCB126. PAI-1: plasminogen activator inhibitor 1.

Hepatic steatosis was using H&E staining of liver sections. All HFD-fed mice developed variable, centrilobular, macrovesicular steatosis and the different PCB exposures did not exacerbate HFD-induced steatosis (Fig. 2.3A). Hepatic lipids were measured and PCB exposures had no effect on either hepatic triglyceride or cholesterol levels (Fig. 2.3H&I). However, hepatic free fatty acid levels were significantly increased by the Aroclor1260 + PCB126 mixture (Fig. 2.3B). Histological analyses for liver inflammation were assessed using CAE and F4/80 staining. CAE staining demonstrated that HFD feeding induced neutrophil infiltration in the liver (Fig. 2.3C); however, Aroclor1260 exposure exacerbated this effect as shown by the number of inflammatory foci counted per field (Fig. 2.3D). Interestingly, the Aroclor1260 + PCB126 group showed a lesser number of inflammatory foci counted per field. Likewise, F4/80 staining demonstrated that the Aroclor1260 group had increased macrophage infiltration compared with any other group (Fig. 2.3E). This observation was consistent with hepatic Cd68 gene expression where in Aroclor1260 increased Cd68 mRNA levels, indicating a hepatic inflammatory state, while this effect was absent with PCB126 exposure (Fig. 2.3F). Commonly used biomarkers of liver injury, namely plasma ALT and AST levels, were measured. Elevated plasma ALT activity levels were only seen with Aroclor1260 exposure, but not with PCB126 (Fig. 2.3G) while PCB126 showed a trend for decreased plasma AST activity levels (Fig. 2.3J). In addition, the Aroclor1260 + PCB126 group showed attenuation of Aroclor1260-elevated plasma ALT levels, suggesting that PCB126 may be protective against liver injury in this model. Fibrosis was

assessed by picro sirius red staining of liver sections to detect collagen deposition (Fig. 2.4). While there were no histological differences between groups, PCB126 decreased the hepatic gene expression of collagen (Col1a2) and actin 2 (Acta2), implicating a suppression of profibrotic gene expression in the liver (Fig. 2.4).

Effects of PCB exposures on the expression of AhR, CAR and their target genes

Known PCB receptor activation such as AhR and CAR activation was examined. PCB126 exposure caused upregulation of cytochrome P450 1a2 (Cyp1a2), an AhR target gene, indicative of AhR activation. In contrast, the Aroclor1260 + PCB126 group showed decreased Cyp1a2 mRNA levels (Fig. 2.5A). With regards to AhR gene expression, PCB126 alone showed a trend for decreased AhR mRNA levels (Fig. 2.5B). For CAR activation, the CAR target gene, Cyp2b10, was measured. The Aroclor1260 group showed upregulated Cyp2b10 mRNA levels, indicative of CAR activation (Fig. 2.5C), while CAR expression was increased in the Aroclor1260 + PCB126 groups (Fig. 2.5D).

Effects of PCB exposures on the hepatic proteome

The various PCB exposures produced distinct hepatic proteomes (Fig. 2.6). A total of 8355 unique proteins and their isoforms were detected, corresponding to 4609 protein groups. Liver protein content was regulated as follows: Aroclor1260 (35 increased and 48 decreased); PCB126 (158 increased and

Figure 2.3. Effects of PCB exposures on steatosis and inflammation.

(A) Liver sections were analyzed for steatosis using H&E staining. (B) Hepatic free fatty acid levels, (H) triglycerides and (I) cholesterol were measured using colorimetric assays. (C) Liver sections were analyzed for neutrophil infiltration using CAE staining where red positive cells indicate neutrophil infiltration. (D) The number of CAE positive cells per microscopic field were counted. (E) Liver sections were analyzed for macrophage infiltration using F4/80 immunohistochemistry staining and brown positive cells indicate macrophage accumulation. (F) Hepatic *CD68* mRNA levels were measured using RT-PCR. (G) Plasma ALT and (J) plasma AST activity levels were measured using the Piccolo Xpress Chemistry Analyzer. Values are mean ± SD, n=10, *p* <0.05, a - Aroclor1260 effect, b - PCB126 effect, c - interaction between Aroclor1260 and PCB126.

Figure 2.4. Effects of PCB exposures on hepatic fibrosis.

(A) Collagen deposition was analyzed by picro sirius red staining of liver sections. There were no differences between groups. Hepatic gene expression of fibrotic markers, namely (B) collagen 1a1 (*Col1a1*), (C) collagen 1a2 (*Col1a2*), (D) actin 2 (*Acta2*), (E) TIMP metallopeptidase inhibitor 1 (*Timp1*), and (F) plasminogen activator inhibitor 1 (*PAI-1*, *Serpine1*) were measured using RT-PCR. Values are mean ± SD; n=10, *p* <0.05, b - PCB126 effect.

Figure 2.5 Effects of PCB exposures on target gene expression.

Hepatic mRNA expression for the AhR target gene (A) *Cyp1a2* and (B) *AhR* and the CAR target gene target gene *Cyp2b10* (C) and (D) CAR (*Nr1i3*) were measured by RT-PCR. Values are mean ± SD; n=10, *p* <0.05, a - Aroclor1260 effect, b - PCB126 effect, c - interaction between Aroclor1260 and PCB126.

238 decreased); and Aroclor1260 + PCB126 (144 increased and 257 decreased) (Fig. 2.6 and Supplemental Table 1). The majority of differentially abundant proteins for each and Aroclor1260 + PCB126 (144 increased and 257 decreased) (Fig. 3.6 and Supplemental Table 1). The majority of differentially abundant proteins for each group were unique to that exposure (range 58.7–63.1%). Of the 401 proteins associated with Aroclor1260 + PCB126 exposure, only 5.9% were also associated with Aroclor1260, while only 33.6% were also associated with PCB126. Only three proteins were changed in all three PCB exposure groups (BET1-like protein and two isoforms of protein-O-linked-mannose-β-1,4- N-acetylglucosaminyltransferase 2). Clearly, the proteomic changes associated with the Aroclor1260 + PCB126 mixture were not the sum of its parts.

EPF analysis was performed to determine the protein classes most impacted by PCBs (Table 2). Enzymes were the most affected class (Aroclor1260, zscore= 3.63; PCB126, z-score = 7.11; Aroclor1260 + PCB126, z-score = 4.89). Consistent with this observation and the RT-PCR data, the enzyme levels of CYP1A1 and CYP1A2 were higher for PCB126 (CYP1A1: 9.09-fold, *p* = 7.10E−06 and CYP1A2: 5.85-fold, *p* = 3.10E−08) and, to a lesser degree, for Aroclor1260 + PCB126 (CYP1A2: 2.39-fold, *p* = 2.39E−08) (Supplemental Table 1). While Aroclor1260 increased hepatocyte injury (by histologic and plasma ALT enzyme activity biomarkers), plasma AST activity was not significantly increased. This could be related to the peculiar proteomic observation that hepatic AST enzyme levels were reduced by PCB exposures (Aroclor1260: 0.64-fold, *p* = 2.18E−03 and PCB126: 0.68-fold, *p* = 5.82E−03).

Again, consistent with the liver histology, inflammation-associated enzymes and leukocyte markers were increased with Aroclor1260 (e.g.,

macrosialin/CD68, 2.26-fold, *p* = 1.85E−04) and decreased with either PCB126 (e.g., myeloperoxidase: 0.51-fold, *p* = 1.79E−03; α-defensin 20: 0.48-fold, *p* =

2.90E−02; and the calprotectin component, protein S100-A8: 0.32-fold, *p* = 8.05E−03) or Aroclor1260 + PCB126 (e.g., protein S100-A9: 0.62-fold, *p* = 4.35E−02; neutrophil granule protein: 0.58-fold, *p* = 1.17E−02; protein jagunal homolog 1: 0.33-fold, *p* = 1.20E−02; and neutrophil gelatinase-associated lipocalin (0.30-fold, *p* = 2.41E−02) (Supplemental Table 1). EPF revealed that Aroclor1260 altered protein levels of slightly more transcription factors than expected (z-score =1.67), while the other exposures changed fewer than expected. Several nuclear receptors implicated in steatohepatitis were differentially regulated including peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor alpha (PPARα, Aroclor1260: 0.7-fold, *p* = 1.97E−03), liver X receptor alpha (PCB126: 1.47-fold, *p* = 1.81E−02), and V-erbArelated protein 2 (PCB126: 0.69- fold, p = 1.14E−02 and Aroclor1260 + PCB126: 0.63-fold, *p* = 2.69E−03). Thus, while each PCB exposure was associated with a distinct proteome, EPF demonstrated that these proteomes were consistent with the observed phenotypes.

Enrichment by GO processes (Fig. 2.7) revealed that the distinct proteomes associated with PCB126 and Aroclor1260 + PCB126 exposures were associated with similar top GO processes, although some differences were apparent. However, the top GO processes associated with Aroclor1260 were

unique to that exposure. These findings are again consistent with the histology and phenotyping data. A very limited number of GO processes were enriched by Aroclor1260 including "negative regulation of receptor internalization"; "negative regulation of catabolic process"; aspartate catabolic metabolism; and polyadenylation-dependent RNA catabolic processes (Fig. 2.7). In contrast, hundreds of GO processes were significantly enriched by PCB126 and/or Aroclor1260 + PCB126 (data not shown). Both exposures enriched: (i) cellular, metabolic, and catabolic processes; (ii) protein metabolism processes; (iii) cellular localization and organization processes; and (iv) the PCB126 and/or Aroclor1260 + PCB126 (data not shown). Both exposures enriched: (i) cellular, metabolic, and catabolic processes; (ii) protein metabolism processes; (iii) cellular localization and organization processes; and (iv) the "negative regulation of neurotransmitter (acetylcholine) secretion". These processes, however, were enriched to a greater degree by Aroclor1260 + PCB126. In contrast, while both exposures enriched xenobiotic metabolism processes and lipid metabolism processes, these were enriched to a greater degree by PCB126.

GO processes related to cytoskeletal remodeling/fibrosis and metal homeostasis were enriched by PCB126 only (Fig. 2.7). The abundance of several cytoskeletal-associated proteins were markedly increased by PCB126 including troponin C (120.33-fold, *p* = 1.30E−03); actin α, skeletal muscle (55.47- fold, *p* = 7.38E−03); myosin light chain 3 (33.67-fold, *p* = 1.27E−02); LIM domain-binding protein (15.24-fold, p = 7.88E−03), etc. (Table 3).

However, other cytoskeletal proteins, including type II keratins, were differentially regulated by Aroclor1260 (keratin 5: 0.28-fold, *p* = 2.12E−03) or Aroclor1260 + PCB126 (keratin 2: 0.30-fold, *p* = 3.85E−02; keratin 4: 0.62-fold, *p* = 4.19E−02; and keratin 6a: 1.89-fold, *p* = 1.34E−02). While the PCB exposures were not associated with fibrosis at the histologic level, PCB126 exposures were associated with reduced expression of several profibrogenic genes at the molecular level. Consistent with this observation, PCB126 was associated with reduced abundance of several proteins associated with liver fibrosis including collagen α-1(IV) chain (0.68-fold, *p* = 2.26E−02); prolyl 4 hydroxylase subunit alpha-1 (0.66-fold, *p* = 1.42E−03); and procollagen-lysine, 2-oxoglutarate 5-dioxygenase 3 (0.47-fold, *p* = 2.28E−02). Multiple proteins associated with metal homeostasis were likewise reduced only by PCB126 including ferritin light chain 1 (0.64-fold, *p* =1.44E−02), light chain 2 (0.63-fold, *p* = 1.24E−02), and heavy chain (0.60-fold, *p* = 6.11E−03), and zinc transporter 4 (0.55-fold, *p* = 3.09E−02).

Several GO processes related to the epigenetic mechanisms were enriched only by Aroclor1260 + PCB126 (Fig. 2.7). These included "regulation of gene expression, epigenetic", "negative regulation of chromatin silencing", and "histone H3-K27 methylation". Differentially abundant proteins contributing to these observations included reduced histone deacetylase 2 (0.68-fold, *p* = 1.13E−02); reduced histones H1.2 (0.63-fold, *p* = 5.98E−04), H1.4 (0.66-fold, *p* = 8.87E−03), H1.5 (0.67-fold, *p* = 2.45E−02), and H1t (0.67-fold, *p* = 1.40E−02); reduced RNA polymerase-associated protein CTR9 homolog (0.60fold, *p* = 7.64E−04); and reduced exportin 5 (0.66-fold, *p* = 2.07E−02). However, several other epigenetics proteins were reduced by PCB126 and Aroclor1260 + PCB126, such as RNA binding protein 3 (PCB126: 0.68-fold, *p* = 2.64E−03; Aroclor1260 + PCB126: 0.69-fold, *p* = 2.78E−03); LIM domaincontaining protein 1 (PCB126: 0.66-fold, *p* = 6.66E−03; Aroclor1260 + PCB126: 0.63-fold, *p* = 2.93E−03); and protein arginine methyltransferase 7 (PCB126: 0.64-fold, *p* = 9.69E−04; Aroclor1260 + PCB126: 0.70-fold, *p* = 4.74E−03).

IPF analysis was performed and the top overconnected interactions by zscore are provided in Fig. 2.8. Seven unique objects, all protein kinases, were over-connected with Aroclor1260 exposure. These kinases included the mammalian target of rapamycin (mTOR); the adenylate kinase isoenzyme, mitochondrial (AK3L1); the alternate mitogen-activated protein kinase, p38γ; and protein kinase C α (PKCα). PCB126 and/or Aroclor1260 + PCB126 exposures were associated with 18 over-connected objects (Fig. 3.8). Eleven of these objects were transcription factors and eight of these were common between the two groups. Shared transcription factors included protein C-ets-1 (ETS1), SRY-box transcription factor 17 (SOX17), and GA binding protein transcription factor subunit α (GABPα); glucocorticoid receptor; zinc finger protein x-linked (ZFX); neuroblastoma MYC oncogene (N-Myc); and acute myeloid leukemia 1 (AML1). The z-scores were all higher with the Aroclor1260 + PCB126 exposure. Unique transcription factors overconnected by PCB126 included zinc finger protein, FOG family member 1 (ZFPM1), and CAR, while

cellular oncogene FOS (c-FOS) was uniquely over-connected by Aroclor1260 + PCB126. PCB126 exposure was uniquely over-connected with the bradykinin precursor, kininogen 1, and thrombin. Aroclor1260 + PCB126 was uniquely overconnected with two enzymes associated with steatohepatitis and liver cancer, protein arginine methyltransferase 1 (PRMT1), and hypoxia-associated factor (SART1) (63, 64).

Effects of PCB exposures on hepatic intermediary metabolism and plasma profile

Proteomics analysis revealed that PCBs played a role indictating intermediary metabolism such as lipid and protein processes. To further validate these findings, hepatic expression of genes involved in a variety of metabolic processes, including lipogenesis, lipid transport and mobilization, fatty acid βoxidation, and glucose and protein metabolism were measured. The expression of genes related to lipogenesis, namely, fatty acid synthase (Fasn), sterol regulatory element-binding protein 1 (Srebf1), stearoyl-CoA desaturase-1 (Scd1), and peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor gamma (Pparg) were measured by RT-PCR. PCB exposure did not alter Fasn or Srebf1 mRNA levels although the PCB126 group demonstrated a trend for decreased Fasn and Srebf1 mRNA levels (Fig. 2.9H&I), consistent with previous findings (65, 66). Similarly, Aroclor1260 + PCB126 exposure decreased Scd1 mRNA levels (Fig. 2.9A), consistent with protein abundance data (0.70-fold, *p* = 1.35E−02, Table 3) and a prior study (51). The same group also showed increased Pparg gene expression (Fig. 2.9B). With regards to lipid transport, the hepatic mRNA levels

of Cd36 and fatty acid binding protein 1 (Fabp1) were determined. Both Aroclor1260 and PCB126 contributed to the upregulated Cd36 expression in the Aroclor1260 + PCB126 mixture (Fig. 2.9C). There was no significant difference for Fabp1 mRNA levels between groups (Fig. 2.9J). In terms of lipid breakdown, the mRNA levels of Pparα, a transcription factor that regulates fatty acid β oxidation, the Aroclor1260 + PCB126 group decreased Ppar α levels (Fig. 2.9D). These results differed from the proteomics data that showed decreased protein abundance only for Aroclor1260. PCB126 exposure also decreased the expression of the lipolytic gene, patatin-like phospholipase domain-containing protein 3 (Pnpla3, Fig. 2.9E). In addition, the gene expression of phosphoenolpyruvate carboxykinase 1 (Pck1), a gluconeogenic gene, was measured and found to be decreased with PCB126 exposure (Fig. 2.9F). Proteomics data demonstrated that PCB126 disrupted the coordination of glycolysis and gluconeogenesis by simultaneously downregulating abundance of hexokinase-3 (0.52-fold, $p = 2.53E-03$), phosphofructokinase (0.61-fold, $p =$ 6.53E−03), and glucose-6-phosphatase (0.51-fold, p = 1.33E−02). The gene expression of albumin (Alb), a biomarker for protein metabolism, was increased in the Aroclor1260 + PCB126 group (Fig. 2.9G). Overall, these results confirm that PCBs differentially altered hepatic intermediary metabolic processes.

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Figure 2.6. Effects of PCB exposures on the hepatic proteome.

Alterations in hepatic proteins are depicted by volcano plots showing significance (y-axis) versus protein fold change (x-axis) for (A) Aroclor1260, (B) PCB126 and (C) Aroclor1260+PCB126. Black denotes unaltered proteins, green denotes significantly altered proteins, red denotes significantly altered protein with ($log_2FC > 1$), blue denotes significantly altered protein with (log_2FC <-1). (D) A multi-dimensional scatter (MDS) plot depicting the pattern for protein alterations in the different groups. ExpA - Aroclor1260, ExpB - PCB126, ExpC - Aroclor1260+PCB126. (E) The number of proteins and their isoforms that were altered for the different exposure groups. (F) Venn diagram showing the number of overlapping proteins between the three exposure groups.

Table 2. Enrichment by protein function analysis

Enrichment by protein function analysis was performed by MetaCore software using the hepatic proteomics data. For a given protein class, a positive *z*-score indicates that more proteins in that class were altered than expected. Likewise, a negative *z*-score means that fewer proteins in the class were altered than expected.

Figure 2.7. Heatmap of PCB effects on gene ontology (GO) processes.

Heatmap showing different processes that were altered by PCB exposures according to the -log(*p*-value). The processes were obtained by GO analysis enrichment of the different proteins altered by PCB exposures using MetaCore. A - Aroclor1260, B - PCB126, C - Aroclor1260+PCB126.

Figure 2.8. Effects of PCB exposures on protein function.

Heatmap showing different classes of proteins, for the three exposure groups, obtained from the Interaction by Protein Function analysis using MetaCore Software and their corresponding *z*-scores. A - Aroclor1260, B - PCB126, C - Aroclor1260+PCB126.

Figure 2.9. Effects of PCB exposures on genes involved in hepatic energy metabolism.

Hepatic mRNA levels of genes involved in hepatic energy metabolism inlcuding (A) Scd1, (B) Pparg, (C) Cd36, (D) Pparα, (E) Pnpla3, (F) Pck1, (G) Alb, (H) Fasn, (I) Srebf1, and (J) Fabp1 were measured by RT-PCR. Values are mean ± SD; n=10, *p* <0.05, a - Aroclor1260 effect, b - PCB126 effect, c interaction between Aroclor1260 and PCB126.

DISCUSSION

PCBs, including both DL and NDL congeners, are metabolism-disrupting chemicals (37). PCBs exposures are associated with obesity-related diseases including diabetes, dyslipidemia, cardiovascular disease, and NAFLD. PCBrelated NAFLD mechanisms was recently reviewed (49). In animal models fed a healthy diet, DL, but not NDL PCBs, caused hepatic steatosis and NAFLD. In contrast, NDL PCBs exposures compromised the liver, thereby increasing the histologic severity of HFD-induced NAFLD. The NDL PCB exposures variably increased diet-induced hepatic steatosis, inflammation, and fibrosis while interacting with PCB receptors including PXR, CAR, and the EGFR (2, 46, 48, 51-53, 67). While humans have simultaneous exposures to both PCB classes, no previously published studies in the literature have systematically evaluated the disease modifying effects of DL PCBs, NDL PCBs, and the more environmentally relevant combination of DL + NDL PCBs in a chronic exposure model of HFD-induced NAFLD. Few to no published data exist on either DL or DL + NDL PCBs in such a model.

Our recently published acute PCB exposure study demonstrated that Aroclor1260, PCB126, and Aroclor1260 + PCB126 exposures differentially affected histology and disease mechanisms in liver and related organs in male mice fed a healthy diet (29). Based on the direction of these results, environmental relevance, and knowledge gaps in the literature, the objective of the current study was to elucidate the effects and potential mechanisms of these different PCB exposures in a diet-induced obesity mouse model of NAFLD.

The combination of the phenotyping, histologic, and molecular biomarkers demonstrated the following differential PCB effects on metabolic conditions related to HFD-induced obesity. Consistent with prior studies (65), Aroclor1260 increased liver inflammation/ injury and the white adipose tissue to body weight ratio. PCB126 decreased liver inflammation and fibrosis at the molecular level. PCB126 alone did not increase hepatic free fatty acids and hepatic triglycerides, as reported previously (29). These differences are likely related to differences in duration of exposure or diet. Aroclor1260 + PCB126 modulated lipid metabolism such as hepatic free fatty acids were increased, while the plasma cholesterol/triglycerides were decreased, and it decreased liver inflammation. The lipid effects were mediated predominantly by the PCB126 component of this mixture as previously reported (29). Therefore, PCB126 and co-exposure attenuated Aroclor1260-induced hepatic inflammation despite worsening the disruption of intermediary and xenobiotic metabolism. None of the exposures affected glucose tolerance or adipokines. AhR activation was highest with PCB126 alone; increased to a lesser degree with Aroclor1260 + PCB126; and absent with Aroclor1260, consistent with Shi et al. (29). The effects on CAR were complex. Cyp2b10 gene expression was increased by Ar1260; IPF demonstrated enriched CAR interactions with PCB126; and Aroclor1260 + PCB126 induced Nr1i3 gene expression. PCBs induced Cyp2b10 gene expression to a lower degree in HFD-fed mice compared with mice fed a low fat diet (29).

Proteomics was performed to elucidate potential mechanisms for the

observed differences in metabolic phenotype and TASH severity, which were greatest for Aroclor1260 versus the more similar PCB126 and Aroclor1260 + PCB126 exposure groups. The large number of differentially abundant proteins between the PCB exposure groups was surprising. For example, 99.58% of these proteins were not conserved across all three treatment groups. PCB126 and Aroclor1260 + PCB126 altered many more proteins than Aroclor1260. However, 79.06% of the proteins altered by either of the latter two treatments were not common to both groups. Despite these differences, PCB126 and Arclor1260 + PCB126 shared many top GO processes consistent with the observed similarities in liver histologic phenotype. The observed alterations in cholinergic neurotransmission associated with these exposures is novel and could be mechanistic. For example, human neonates exposed to PCBs display a number of hematologic and immunologic disturbances in neuronal signaling, immune regulation via the AhR and other receptors (68, 69). In addition, these exposures alter many normal medical biomarkers used in clinical medicine, such as cholesterol levels, AST enzyme levels, etc.

While a number of new putative PCB targets and modes of action in TASH were identified, others were reassuringly consistent with known targets. Aroclor1260 exposure was associated with the "negative regulation of receptor internalization" GO process and overconnected interactions with protein kinases including mTOR, AK3L1, p38γ, and PKCα. These findings could be consistent with the decreased EGF-stimulated EGFR internalization with consequent phosphoprotein signaling disruption previously reported for Aroclor1260-

associated TASH (36, 51-53, 67). These studies reported decreased protein kinase B (Akt)/mTOR and extracellular signal-regulated kinases (ERK) signaling. AK3L1 is a downstream EGFR target that regulates glycolysis, thereby adding a new link between signaling disruption and intermediary metabolism (70). Intriguingly, p38γ and PKCα regulate both EGF-dependent ERK signaling (71-

73) and NASH (74, 75). The potential mechanistic roles of these kinases warrant future investigation in Aroclor1260-associated TASH.

The observed alterations in GO processes related to hepatic metal hemostasis and cytoskeleton for PCB126 could be mechanistic. PCB126-induced metal dysregulation has been described previously (76, 77). However, the specific effector proteins identified by the present study (e.g., hepcidin, ferritin, zinc transporter 4, etc.) and the hepcidin-regulating transcription factor, ZFPM1(78) , warrant future investigation. Several cytoskeleton proteins were the most upregulated proteins by PCB126. The other exposures were associated with altered abundance of keratins 2, 4, 5, or 6a. Cellular localization analysis of a previous hepatic proteomics experiment from our group demonstrated that cytoskeletal-associated proteins were the top enriched cellular location for liver proteins differentially regulated by Aroclor1260 in mice fed a control diet, but this decreased in HFD-fed mice (51). Circulating epithelial cell-derived keratin18 was associated with PCB-related TASH in ACHS (6). Ethanol-associated alterations of the hepatocyte cytoskeleton may influence the progression of alcohol-related steatohepatitis (79). Therefore, the potential mechanistic role of PCB-induced cytoskeletal changes in TASH warrants future investigation. If the observed

reduction in hepatic AST protein abundance is confirmed in humans, the utility of circulating AST enzyme activity as a biomarker for PCB-related liver toxicity in environmental epidemiology studies would be reduced. Several GO processes uniquely enriched with Aroclor1260 + PCB126 co-exposure were discovered, including the epigenetic regulation of gene expression and the localization of macromolecules including proteins.

IPF analysis of the PCB126 and Aroclor1260 + PCB126 exposure groups revealed overconnected interactions with several transcription factors regulating myriad processes involved in the resolution and repair of liver injury including inflammation, stellate cell plasticity and fibrosis, stem cells, proliferation, differentiation, metabolism, and transformation. These transcription factors are new targets for PCB hepatotoxicity in NASH and include ETS1 (80, 81), SOX17 (82, 83), GABPα (80, 84), c-FOS (85), ZFX (86), N-Myc (87), and AML1 (81). While tumors were not observed in the present study, the identification of oncogenes is not surprising because PCB126 has previously been associated with liver cancer. Although Cyp1a2 message and protein were induced by PCB126 and Aroclor1260 + PCB126, MetaCore analyses provided no evidence to support the potential AhR-dependence in any of the identified GO processes. Moreover, IPF analysis did not identify AhR as an overconnected transcription factor. While this could simply be a limitation of the software package, future studies are required to determine the AhR-dependence of PCB-related TASH.

Aroclor1260 and PCB126 did not result in either additive hepatotoxicity or additive differential protein abundances in this chronic, diet-induced NAFLD

model. Hepatic protein abundance is a function of protein synthesis, degradation and transport into and out of the liver. Epigenetics-related GO processes were enriched in the Aroclor1260 + PCB126 exposure group, and this may have influenced the synthesis rates of specific hepatic proteins. The abundance of multiple epigenetics-related proteins was reduced including histone deacetylase 2; histones H1.2, H1.4, H1.5, and H1t; RNA polymerase-associated protein CTR9 homolog; RNA binding protein 3; and LIM domain-containing protein 1 and protein arginine methyltransferase 7). The proteins are involved in numerous epigenetics processes including histone acetylation, methylation, and microRNAs. IPF demonstrated overconnected interactions with the methyltransferase, PRMT1, and the several transcription factors associated with the epigenetic regulation of gene expression such as ETS1 and GABPα (80).

The abundance of other proteins involved in epigenetics and the regulation of gene expression was altered in the other treatment groups (e.g., the noncanonical poly(A) RNA polymerase PAPD5, Table 3) in Aroclor1260). Future studies are required to establish the mechanistic importance of epigenetic mechanisms in the genesis, progression, and potential heritability of PCBrelated liver diseases.

Although perhaps the most comprehensive analysis of different chronic PCB exposures in an animal model of NAFLD, the present study is not without its limitations. Most notably, while proteins regulating metal homeostasis and epigenetics were implicated, direct measurement of hepatic metals and epigenetic signatures was not performed. While we previously published a

proteomics analyses in the HFD plus Aroclor1260 TASH model (51), the present experiment utilized a different, and potentially more sensitive, proteomics technique (TMT labeling) as well as different analytic procedures. This may limit the comparability of results between studies, and as a result, the MetaCore outcomes may vary. Sex differences were previously reported for Aroclor1260 induced TASH (36), with female mice being more susceptible. Because male mice were utilized in the present study, potential sex differences for PCB126 and Aroclor1260 + PCB126 exposures in TASH remain unknown. While Aroclor1260 + PCB126 exposures were associated with a pancreatic pathology resembling diabetic exocrine pancreatopathy in an acute model (51), the present study did not evaluate pancreatic endpoints because GTT was unchanged.

In conclusion, the present study demonstrated the complexity of the hepatic effects of PCB mixtures. DL PCBs, NDL PCBs, and a more environmentally relevant mixture of both types of PCBs differentially modulated the hepatic proteome and the severity of diet-induced NAFLD. Aroclor1260 increased hepatic inflammation and phosphoprotein signaling disruption consistent with prior research. PCB126 decreased hepatic inflammation and fibrosis at the molecular level. Mechanisms including altered cytoskeletal remodeling, metal homeostasis, and disruption of intermediary and xenobiotic metabolism were implicated in PCB126's mode of action, and all have been previously reported. Neither the histologic nor the proteomic effects of Aroclor1260 and PCB126 were additive in the co-exposure model. PCB126 attenuated Aroclor1260-induced hepatic inflammation but increased hepatic free fatty acids while reducing

plasma lipids. The overwhelming majority of differentially regulated hepatic proteins associated with Aroclor1260 + PCB126 exposure were not associated with either Aroclor1260 or PCB1260 exposure. Likewise, most proteins associated with either Aroclor1260 or PCB126 exposures were not associated with co-exposure to both. Despite this, many of the top GO processes and overconnected interactions by protein function were common to the PCB126 and Aroclor1260 + PCB126 exposure groups. These conserved processes were broadly related to metabolism and cellular organization and localization. A complex web of overconnected transcription factors broadly regulating metabolism; liver injury and inflammation; and liver repair was identified. Aroclor1260 + PCB126 exposure was strongly associated with multiple epigenetic processes, and these could potentially explain the observed nonadditive effects of the exposures on the hepatic proteome. When compared with our recently published acute study investigating the same PCB exposures, the modifying effect on diet (and possibly duration) on PCB-induced hepatotoxicity is also demonstrated. More data including translational research are required on potential modes of PCB action in NAFLD including phosphoprotein signaling disruption; abnormal metal homeostasis; cytoskeletal remodeling; and transcriptional reprogramming by epigenetic mechanisms. Likewise, potential sex differences and the AhR-dependence of PCB126's NAFLD modifying effects warrant future investigation.
CHAPTER 3

AHR PLAYS A PIVOTAL ROLE IN REGULATING HEPATIC PROTEOME AND LIPID METABOLISM

INTRODUCTION

As a highly stable chemical, polychlorinated biphenyls (PCBs) were used in industrial and commercial applications, such as coolant fluids, transformers and they were commercially producedBoth contraction of HIK and PE have been normalized to length. in the United States from 1929 to 1979. Although the production of PCBs is banned by the US government, 1.3 million tons of PCBs were produced, consisting of 130 individual congeners, which has an association with a variety of conditions, especially like non-alcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD), diabetes and hypertension. According to the National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey (NHANES), PCBs can be detected in the serum of 100% American adults (38).

PCBs have been categorized into two major classes: coplanar and noncoplanar PCBs. The former have none or only one chlorine atom attached to the ortho-position of biphenyl rings, called non-ortho and mono-ortho PCBs, respectively. Coplanar PCBs like PCB 126 can activate the aryl hydrocarbon receptor (AhR), and they are also called dioxin-like (DL) PCBs, causing a

response similar to TCDD. Non-coplanar PCB congeners, known as nondioxin-like (NDL) PCBs, have two or more chlorine atoms at the ortho-position, and do not have dioxin-like properties, which can activate the constitutive androstane receptor (CAR) (44). Aroclor 1260 is a commercial mixture of PCBs manufactured by Monsanto, a well-known PCB manufacturer in Anniston, Alabama, containing an average chlorine content of 60%. Mostly, it contains NDL-PCB, and the PCB profiles in Aroclor 1260 best mimic the PCBs present in human adipose tissue (45). Although Aroclor 1260 contains small amounts of DL-PCBs, it cannot activate human or murine AhR (2, 45).

PCBs are found to be associated with NAFLD either in human studies and in animal studies, and NAFLD is a progressive condition with a broad spectrum ranging from simple steatosis, non-alcoholic steatohepatitis (NASH), liver cirrhosis, hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) with multiple pathogenic factors such as fat accumulation, occupational and environmental chemicals. In 2019, we firstly raised the term of the toxicant-associated fatty liver disease (TAFLD) and/or toxicant-associated steatohepatitis (TASH) to describe this condition (29). Apart from AhR, our group found PCB receptors involved with CAR, pregnane-xenobiotic receptor (PXR), and epidermal growth factor receptor (EGFR) in TASH in the last a few years.

As a ligand-binding activated transcription factor, the AhR regulates a variety of physiological and pathological function (88). The activation of AhR induces the transcription of many genes, such as the cytochrome P4501A (*CYP1A*) family involved in carcinogenesis. The high-affinity binding agonists for AhR

include 2,3,7,8-tetrachlorodibenzo-p-dioxin (TCDD), 1,2-benzo[a]pyrene (BA) and DL-PCBs. While, low-affinity binding agonists for AhR are flavonoids and indoles, endogenous bilirubin and tryptophan metabolites, and products of the microflora (89). Apart from regulation of immunity, stem cell maintenance and cellular differentiation (89), AhR activation also is involved in the processes of glucose and lipid metabolism. Over-activation of AhR (33) or constitutively activated AhR (90) induces hepatic steatosis via upregulation of fatty acid transport genes, such as *CD36/FAT*. Alteration of hepatic fatty acid composition (91) and decreased fatty acid oxidation (92) contribute to AhR ligand-induced liver toxicity and steatosis. Some publications showed AhR deficiency has a protective effect against high fat diet-induced obesity, and mitigates hepatic steatosis (34, 93). On the other hand, liver-specific AhR knockout mice are susceptible to HFD-induced hepatic steatosis, inflammation and injury (94), suggesting AhR activation protects against fatty liver disease. There is also a report that $\Delta h r^2$ mice developed spontaneous microvesicular lipidosis (35). The exact role of AhR activation plays in regulating hepatic proteome and lipid metabolism needs to be elucidated.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Animal studies

The related animal protocol was approved by the University of Louisville Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee. Adult male C57BL/6 mice and Ahr^{-/-} mice (8-9 weeks old) were purchased from Taconic Biosciences Laboratory and distributed into four equal groups (n=10): WT Vehicle group, WT PCB 126 group, Ahr-/- Vehicle group and Ahr-/- PCB126 group. All mice were fed a control synthetic diet (20.0 %, 69.8 %, and 10.2 % of total calories come from protein, carbohydrate, and fat, TekLad TD 06416). At 10 weeks of age, 10 mice in each group were given either corn oil, or PCB126 (20 μg/kg) via a one-time gavage and followed for 2 weeks (Fig. 3.1). Dual energy X-ray absorptiometry (DEXA) scanning (Lunar PIXImus densitometer, WI) was performed to analyze body fat composition before euthanasia. Whole blood for plasma, liver, and fat tissue samples were collected after euthanasia.

Histological staining

Liver tissues were fixed in 10% Neutral Buffered Formalin for 72 hours and embedded in paraffin for routine histological examination. Hematoxylin-eosin (H&E) staining was performed to identify histopathological changes. Oil Red O stain was used to evaluate lipid accumulation according to the manufacturer's protocols. Micrographic images were acquired by a high-resolution Olympus digital scanner with an Olympus digital camera (BX41).

Real-time PCR

Mouse liver tissues were homogenized and total RNA was extracted using

RNA-STAT 60 according to the manufacturer's protocol. The purity and quantity of total RNA were assessed with a Nanodrop spectrometer (ND-1000, Thermo Fisher Scientific, Wilmington, DE) using ND-1000 V3.8.1 software and cDNA was reverse transcribed from 1 ug RNA with a one-step cDNA synthesis reagent (QScript cDNA Supermix, QuantaBio, Beverly, MA). Then RT-PCR was performed on the CFX384™ Real-Time System (Biorad, Hercules, CA) using iTaq Universal probe Supermix and Taqman probes as described previously (36). All reactions were run triplicately. The relative mRNA expression was calculated using the comparative $2^{\triangle \triangle Ct}$ method and normalized against GAPDH mRNA.

Measurement of hepatic lipids, plasma lipids and cytokines

The liver tissues were rinsed in 1× phosphate buffered saline (PBS) and homogenized in 50 mM NaCl solution. Hepatic lipids were extracted by a mixed solution of chloroform and methanol (2:1) according to a published protocol (56). Hepatic triglycerides and free fatty acid contents were assessed using commercial kits with final values normalized to liver weight. Plasma alanine transaminase (ALT), aspartate transaminase (AST), cholesterol, triglyceride, high-density lipoprotein (HDL), low-density lipoprotein (LDL), very low-density lipoprotein (VLDL), and non-HDL cholesterol (nHDLc) levels were determined with lipid panel plus kits on a Piccolo Xpress Chemistry Analyzer (Abbott Laboratories, IL). Plasma cytokine and adipokine levels were evaluated using a customized Milliplex® MAP mouse adipokine Panel on a Luminex® 100 system (Luminex Corp, Austin, TX).

Proteomics Analysis

Proteins were extracted from liver tissues in RIPA buffer with protease and phosphatase inhibitors using a bead homogenizer and protein amounts were measured by BCA assay. Protein lysates (200 μg) were trypsinized using the modified Filter-Aided Sample Preparation (FASP) method (57) and enriched for phosphopeptides by the method of TiO2-SIMAC-HILIC (TiSH) (58). Firstly, protein samples were reduced by dithiothreitol, denatured by 8M urea and alkylated by iodoacetamide, then they were centrifuged through a high molecular weight cutoff centrifugal filter (Millipore, 10k MWCO). Next, after overnight digestion with sequencing grade Trypsin (Promega), the digested proteins were collected and cleaned with a C18 Proto™ 300 Å Ultra MicroSpin column. Digested protein samples (50 μg) were labeled with tandem mass tag (TMT) TMT10plex™ Isobaric Label Reagent Set (Thermo Fisher, Waltham, MA), then were concentrated and desalted with Oasis HLB Extraction cartridges (Waters Corporation, Milford, MA) using a modified protocol for extraction of the digested peptides (59). Then samples were separated by high pH reversed phase separation with fraction concatenation on a Beckman System Gold LC system supplemented with 126 solvent module and 166 detector in tandem with a BioRad Model 2110 Fraction Collector (60). Liquid Chromatography/Mass Spectrometry (LC/MS) was used to measure TMT-Labeled peptides. Briefly, every high pH reversed phase fraction was dissolved in 50 µL solution of the combination of 2% v/v acetonitrile/ 0.1% v/v formic acid and 1 µL of each fraction was analyzed on EASY-nLC 1000 UHPLC system (Thermo Fisher) and an Orbitrap Elite – ETD mass spectrometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA,

USA). The raw data from the mass spectrometer were analyzed by Proteome Discoverer v2.2.0.388.

Statistical analysis and data sharing

Statistical evaluation was performed by two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) using GraphPad Prism version 7.02 for Windows (GraphPad Software Inc., La Jolla, CA, USA). *P* <0.05 was considered statistically significant. Statistical analysis for the proteome data was carried out using the R package as described previously (62). Significantly altered proteins were further filtered with an FDR threshold of 0.2 and proteins exhibiting a fold change of -0.5<log2FC< 0.5 were rejected to eliminate false positives. Hepatic proteins that had significance abundance were imported into MetaCore software (Clarivate Analytics, Philadelphia, PA) for the further analyses: gene ontology (GO process), enrichment by protein function (EPF), and interaction by protein function (IPF). Proteomics data files were deposited with MassIVE [\(http://massive.ucsd.edu/\)](http://massive.ucsd.edu/) data repository, Center for Computational Mass Spectrometry at the University of California, San Diego and shared with the ProteomeXchange [\(www.proteomexchange.org\)](http://www.proteomexchange.org/).

Figure 3.1. Experimental Design of acute AhR knockout study.

Mice were divided into 4 study groups based on the type of exposure. All

animals were fed a chow diet and received a one-time gavage of their

respective dose at the beginning of the study.

RESULTS

Effects of PCB126 exposure and Ahr-/- on body composition, glucose tolerance, plasma lipids

Body fat composition was measured using Dexascan and white adipocyte tissue weight was evaluated by weighing the harvested epididymal fat. Body weight was measured weekly throughout the 2-week study. There was a gradual increase in body weight in PCB126-free groups from Week 0 to Week 2, while the weight of PCB 126 exposure mice groups did not change significantly, suggesting PCB126 had an effect of decreasing body weight, which was showed in percentage change in body weight (Fig. 3.2A, 2B & 2C). Compared to wildtype (WT) mice, Ahr^{-/-} mice had lower body weight, lower liver weight/body weight ratio, decreased lean body mass percentage and higher body fat composition. (Fig. 3. 2C, 2D, $2E \& 2F$). Additionally, Ahr^{-/-} mice also showed higher pancreas weight/body weight ratio (Fig. 3.2G). These results showed AhR deprivation caused or deteriorated lipid accumulation. A glucose tolerance test was performed to evaluate whether PCB126 or AhR gene knockout affects glucose metabolism; GTT curve and AUC graph showed PCB126 exposure groups had significant lower AUC, suggesting PCB126 improves glucose uptake (Fig. 3.2I & 2J). PCB126 exposure and Arf - effects on plasma lipids were also evaluated. Although there was no significant differences in plasma LDL-c between groups (Fig. 3.2N), AhR gene deletion caused a trend to decrease plasma VLDL (*p*=0.06) (Fig. 3.2O), meanwhile, Ahr^{-/-} mice groups had significantly decreased plasma cholesterol, HDL-c, and

glucose levels (Fig. 3.2K, L & M). Apart from these above, AhR gene ablation had the effect of lowering the plasma triglyceride in Arr^{-1} mice. (Fig. 3.2P).

Effects of PCB126 exposure and Ahr-/- on hepatic steatosis, associated hepatic gene expression, hepatic lipids and liver enzymes

Hepatic steatosis was evaluated by H&E stain of liver sections. WT PCB126 group developed small droplet macrovesicular steatosis, while Ahr-/- Vehicle and Ahr^{-/-} PCB126 groups both showed severe centrilobular, large droplet macrovesicular steatosis. No significant difference was found between these two groups in the severity of steatosis by H&E stain (Fig. 3.3A). To confirm the results further from H&E stain, Oil Red O stain was performed. WT PCB126 group developed a few lipid droplets (Red spots), while Ahr^{-/-} Vehicle and Ahr^{-/-} PCB126-exposed groups demonstrated much more larger lipid droplets (Fig. 3.3B). The expression of hepatic genes related to lipid metabolism like *Cd36*, *Pnpla3* and *Perilipin-2* were evaluated by RT-PCR. Both PCB126 exposure and Ahr-/- increased the expression levels of *Cd36*, promoting hepatic lipid uptake (Fig. 4.3E), while global AhR deletion decreased the expression of *Pnpla3*, essential for lipid hydrolysis (Fig. 3.3F). Apart from these genes above, the mRNA expression levels of *Perilipin-2*, which relates to the formation of lipid droplets, was upregulated by Ahr^{-/-} (Fig. 3.3G). Additionally, the mRNA expression level of tyrosine aminotransferase (Tat) gene, a target gene of Glucocorticoid receptor (GCR) was evaluated by RT-PCR. Ahr^{-/-} also increased the expression of Tat gene, meanwhile, there was a trend that PCB126 also upregulated Tat mRNA expression ($p=0.06$) (Fig. 3.3H). Hepatic lipids were

measured biochemically to further evaluate hepatic steatosis. Both Ahr^{-/-} and PCB126 increased the hepatic triglyceride (Fig. 3.3J). Meanwhile whole AhR ablation increased hepatic free fatty acids. (Fig. 3.3K). There was a trend for PCB126 to increase hepatic cholesterol level (*p*=0.05) (Fig. 3.3I). As for liver enzymes, Ahr^{-/-} significantly increased plasma ALT and AST levels, showing whole AhR gene deletion caused hepatic injury (Fig. 3.3C & D).

Effects of PCB exposure and Ahr-/- on hepatic expression of AhR, Pxr, Car and their target genes

The activation of AhR, Pxr, Car and their target genes was assessed by RT-PCR. As expected, compared to WT Vehicle group, Ahr^{-/-} groups showed totally inhibited AhR mRNA expression ($2 - \Delta \Delta$ Ct value from 1.02 in WT Vehicle group to 0 in Ahr-/- Vehicle and Ahr-/- PCB126 group, both *p*<0.01), suggesting the AhR knockout was achieved (Fig. 3.4A). As for the target genes of AhR: Cyp1a1 and Cyp1a2, AhR ablation had the effect on downregulating the mRNA expression of both genes (both *p*<0.01). (Fig. 4.4B & C). Although AhR mRNA level was not significantly increased, Cyp1a1 and Cyp1a2 were upregulated significantly by PCB126 (2615.6-fold & 10.6-fold), indicative of AhR activation (Fig. 3.4B & C). With regards to Pxr gene and its target gene (Cyp3a11) expression, AhR gene depletion showed the effect of upregulating Pxr and Cyp3a11 mRNA expression (*p*=0.01 and p<0.01) (Fig. 3.4D &E); compared to WT Vehicle, the expression of Pxr in Ahr^{-/-} Vehicle and Ahr^{-/-} PCB126 group increased by 1.39 ($p=0.07$) and 1.51 fold ($p=0.01$), while the expression of Cyp3a11 in Ahr^{-/-} Vehicle and Ahr^{-/-} PCB126 group upregulated by 4.32 fold and 4.73 fold (both p<0.01), indicative of Pxr

activation. Meanwhile PCB126 also showed a trend to increase Pxr gene expression (p=0.05) (Fig. 3.4F & G). Both Ahr^{-/-} Vehicle and Ahr^{-/-} PCB126exposed groups had increased Cyp2b10 (the target gene of Car) mRNA levels (35.29-fold, *p*=0.00 and 44.44-fold, *p*=0.01 respectively vs WT Vehicle), consistent with Car activation, despite the decreased level of Car mRNA expression (Fig. 3.4F & G).

Effects of PCB126 exposure and Ahr-/- on plasma adipo-cytokines

Plasma adipo-cytokine levels were determined using a customized Milliplex® MAP mouse adipokine Panel on a Luminex® 100 system (Luminex Corp, Austin, TX). AhR ablation had effect of decreasing the level of IL-6 (Fig. 3.5A), Ahr-/- Vehicle showed a lower IL-6 level than WT Vehicle, while there was no significant difference of PAI-1 and MCP-1 levels between the groups (Fig. 3.5C & F). Meanwhile, AhR knockout decreased the levels of plasma insulin and resistin (Fig. 3.5B & E), but increased the level of leptin (Fig. 3.5D), suggesting the improvement of insulin resistance.

Effects of PCB126 exposure and Ahr-/- on hepatokine expression

Protective hepatokines (e.g. Fgf21, Igf1, and betatrophin) were measured by RT PCR. AhR gene deletion resulted in increasing Fgf21 expression, while both Ahr-/- and PCB126 exposure decreased the expression of *betatrophin*. With respect to Igf1, PCB126 slightly increased the expression, but there was a trend for Ahr^{-/-} mice to downregulate the I gf1 expression ($p=0.07$) (Fig. 3.6A, B&C).

Ahr

K L

M N

Figure 3.2. Effects of PCB126 exposure and Ahr^{-/-} on body composition, **glucose tolerance, plasma lipids.**

(A, C) Body weight was measured weekly throughout the 2-week study. AhR-/ mice had a significant lower body weight than WT mice. (B) % change in body weight relative to the initial body weight taken at the beginning of the study was calculated. (D) the body fat composition was measured by calculating the white adipose tissue weight to body weight ratio. Liver weight (LW) and White adipose tissue (WAT) weight were measured, and WATW/BW was calculated by the epididymal fat weight divide body weight. (E & G) The liver and pancreas were weighed and their respective weights relative to body weight were calculated. (F) % lean body mass was calculated by lean body mass divide body fat weight. Lean body mass= Body weight – body weight * % body fat percentage. A glucose tolerance test was performed after the second PCB gavage and blood glucose levels were measured; (I) GTT curve was made and (J) AUC (Area Under the Curve) of four groups was calculated. (K) Plasma cholesterol, (L) Plasma HDLc, (M) Plasma triglyceride, (N) Plasma LDL-c, (O) Plasma VLDL, and (P) Plasma glucose were measured by Piccolo Xpress chemical analyzer. Values are mean \pm SD. Values for $p \le 0.05$ are in bold, a – Ahr^{\pm} effect, b – PCB126 effect, c – interaction between Ahr^{-/-} effect and PCB126 exposure.

Figure 3.3. Effects of PCB126 exposure and Ahr-/- on hepatic steatosis, expression of genes related to lipid metabolism, hepatic lipids and liver enzymes.

Hepatic steatosis was evaluated using (A) hematoxylin-eosin (H&E) staining of liver sections and hepatic lipids (G-H).(B) Oil Red O stain was performed to confirm the existence of neutral triglyceride and lipids on frozen sections. (C) Plasma ALT and (D) Plasma AST were measured to indicate hepatic injury using Piccolo Xpress chemical analyzer. (E) *Cd36*, (F) *Pnpla3*, (G) *Perilipin-2*, and (H) *Tat* mRNA expression levels were evaluated by RT-PCR. (I) Hepatic cholesterol, (J) Hepatic triglyceride, (K) Hepatic free fatty acid and were analyzed. Values are mean \pm SD. Values for $p < 0.05$ are in bold, a - Ahr^{-/-} effect, b – PCB126 effect, c – interaction between Ahr^{-/-} effect and PCB126 exposure.

*p***-value**

Figure 3.4. Effects of PCB126 exposure and Ahr-/- on hepatic expression of AhR, Pxr, Car and their target genes.

The expression of AhR, Pxr, Car and their target genes were assessed by RT-PCR. (A) Hepatic AhR mRNA expression & the expression of its target genes: (B) *Cyp1a1*, (C) *Cyp1a2.* (D) Hepatic Pxr mRNA expression and the expression of its target gene: (E) *Cyp3a11*. (F) Car mRNA expression and the expression of its target gene: (G) *Cyp2b10*. Values are mean ± SD. Values for p < 0.05 are in bold, a - Ahr^{-/-} effect, b – PCB126 effect, c – interaction between Ahr^{-/-} effect and PCB126 exposure.

*p***-value**

Figure 3.5. Effects of PCB126 exposure and Ahr-/- on plasma adipo-

cytokines.

Plasma adipo-cytokine levels were measured using a customized Milliplex®

MAP mouse adipokine Panel on a Luminex® 100 system (Luminex Corp,

Austin, TX), including IL-6 (A), Insulin (B), PAI-1 (C), Leptin (D), Resistin (E),

MCP-1 (F). Values are mean \pm SD. Values for $p < 0.05$ are in bold, a - Ahr^{-/-}

effect, b – PCB126 effect, c – interaction between Ahr^{$/$} effect and PCB126 exposure.

*p***-value**

Figure 3.6. Effects of PCB126 exposure and Ahr-/- on hepatokines expression.

Hepatic mRNA levels of Fgf21 (A), Igf1 (B), and betatrophin (C) were evaluated by RT-PCR. Values are mean \pm SD. Values for p < 0.05 are in bold, a - Ahr^{-/-} effect, b – PCB126 effect, c – interaction between Ahr^{$/-$} effect and PCB126 exposure.

Effects of PCB126 exposure and Ahr-/- on the hepatic proteome

PCB126 exposure and AhR gene knockout produced distinct hepatic proteomes. 5,075 unique proteins and their isoforms were detected, and alterations in hepatic proteins were demonstrated by Volcano plots showing significance (y-axis) versus protein fold change (x-axis) for comparisons between these four groups. The graphs were denoted as follows: (A) B vs A: WT PCB126 group vs WT Vehicle group, (B) C vs A: Ahr^{-/-} Vehicle group vs WT Vehicle group, (C) D vs A: Ahr^{-/-} PCB126 group vs WT Vehicle group, (D) D vs B: Ahr^{-/-} PCB126 group vs WT PCB126 group & (E) D vs C: Ahr^{-/-} PCB126 group vs Ahr-/- Vehicle group. Black denotes unaltered proteins, green denotes significantly altered proteins, red denotes significantly upregulated protein with ($log_2FC \geq 1$), blue denotes significantly downregulated protein with ($log_2FC \leq -1$). (F) A multi-dimensional scatter (MDS) plot depicting the pattern for protein alterations in the different groups (Fig. 3.7A-F). The differentially abundant hepatic proteins were listed at Table 4. The comparisons of hepatic abundance proteins content between groups were regulated as follows: WT PCB126 group vs WT Vehicle group (5 increased and 3 decreased), Ahr-/- Vehicle group vs WT Vehicle group (279 increased and 61 decreased), Ahr^{-/-} PCB126 group vs WT Vehicle group (209 increased and 92 decreased), Ahr^{-/-} PCB126 group vs WT PCB126 group (185 increased and 77 decreased) and Arf - PCB126 group vs Ahr-/- Vehicle group (0 increased and 0 decreased) (Fig. 3.7G). A Venn diagram showed the number of overlapping proteins in different groups compared with A (WT Vehicle group) (Fig. 3.7H).

PCB126 caused much less proteomic changes which are shown in Graph A (8 proteins) and Graph E (0 protein) than AhR deprivation in Graph B (301 proteins) and Graph C (262 proteins) (Fig. 3.7G). Notably, there were no alterations of proteins in Ahr^{-/-} PCB126 group vs Ahr^{-/-} Vehicle group, suggesting that without AhR gene involvement, PCB126 did not cause significant differentially abundance hepatic protein changes. 3 proteins were altered in all comparisons of groups except Ahr^{-/-} PCB126 vs Ahr^{-/-} Vehicle group , namely, cytochrome P450 1A2, Isoform 2 of cytochrome P450 2C50, and Fatty acid-binding protein 5, showing these proteins were affected by both AhR ablation and PCB126 exposure (Supplemental Table 2). Of the 340 abundant proteins in mice not exposed to PCB126 (Ahr^{-/-} Vehicle vs WT Vehicle) regulated by AhR gene deletion, 91 proteins were unique (26.8%); of the 262 altered proteins in PCB126-exposed mice (Ahr-/- PCB126 vs WT PCB126) related to AhR deprivation, only 46 proteins were exclusive (17.6%).

EPF analysis was performed to evaluate the protein classes most impacted by PCB126 exposure or AhR gene deletion (Table 4). Enzymes were the most affected class (WT PCB126 vs WT Vehicle: *z*-score=6.423; Ahr-/- Vehicle vs WT Vehicle: *z*-score=17.84; Ahr^{-/-} PCB126B vs WT PCB126: *z*-score=15.52). This ending was consistent with the results of abundance proteins which showed 6/8 proteins in WT PCB126 vs WT Vehicle regulated by PCB126 were enzymes and most of the proteins in other comparisons altered by AhR gene knockout also belong to enzymes (Supplemental Table 2). AhR knockout increased hepatic steatosis and injury (by histologic and plasma ALT and AST

enzyme activity biomarkers). The abundance proteins in the comparisons of Ahr^{-/-} Vehicle vs WT Vehicle and Ahr^{-/-} PCB126 vs WT PCB126 related to AhR ablation, indicating hepatic steatosis, hepatic injury and inflammation, were upregulated. These proteins included Glutathione S-transferase A1 (Ahr-/- Vehicle vs WT Vehicle: Log2FC=4.97, *p*=9.68E-09; Ahr-/- PCB126 vs WT PCB126: Log₂FC=5.13, p=8.00E-08), Glutathione S-transferase Mu3 (Ahr^{-/-} Vehicle vs WT Vehicle: Log2FC=3.76, *p*=7.63E-09; Ahr-/- PCB126 vs WT PCB126: Log₂FC=3.21, *p*=8.00E-08), Glutathione S-transferase A4 (Ahr^{-/-} Vehicle vs WT Vehicle: Log2FC=3.06, *p*=1.03E-08; Ahr-/- PCB126 vs WT PCB126: Log₂FC=2.17, p=1.34E-06), Annexin A5 (Ahr^{-/-} Vehicle vs WT Vehicle: Log2FC=2.35, *p*=9.70E-09; Ahr-/- PCB126 vs WT PCB126: Log₂FC=2.10, *p*=5.83E-08), Protein S100-A11 (Ahr^{-/-} Vehicle vs WT Vehicle: Log₂FC=2.29, p=3.13E-07; Ahr^{-/-} PCB126 vs WT PCB126: Log₂FC=2.45, *p*=1.70E-07), Perilipin-2 (Ahr^{-/-} Vehicle vs WT Vehicle: Log₂FC=2.24, *p*=1.18E-03; Ahr^{-/-} PCB126 vs WT PCB126: Log₂FC=1.97, *p*=3.88E-03), Glutathione Stransferase Mu 1 (Ahr^{-/-} Vehicle vs WT Vehicle: Log₂FC=2.23, p=5.45E-08; Ahr⁻ /- PCB126 vs WT PCB126: Log2FC=1.66, *p*=3.09E- 06), Long-chain-fatty-acid-CoA ligase 4 (Ahr^{-/-} Vehicle vs WT Vehicle: Log₂FC=1.87, p=3.20E-05; Ahr^{-/-} PCB126 vs WT PCB126: Log2FC=2.12, *p*=9.24E-06), Isoform Short of Longchain-fatty-acid-CoA ligase 4 (Ahr^{-/-} Vehicle vs WT Vehicle: Log₂FC=1.87, *p*=3.20E-05; Ahr-/- PCB126 vs WT PCB126: Log2FC=2.12, *p*=9.24E-06), Apolipoprotein A-IV (Ahr^{-/-} Vehicle vs WT Vehicle: Log₂FC=1.51, *p*=3.65E-06; Ahr-/- PCB126 vs WT PCB126: Log2FC=2.22, *p*=3.15E-08), Integrin beta-2

(Ahr-/- Vehicle vs WT Vehicle: Log2FC=1.11, *p*=9.66E-04; Ahr-/- PCB126 vs WT PCB126: Log₂FC=1.32, *p*=2.17E-04). Consistent with the results that AhR null mice displayed decreased plasma glucose levels and plasma insulin levels. The effect of AhR ablation in Ahr^{-/-} Vehicle vs WT Vehicle and Ahr^{-/-} PCB126 vs WT PCB126, was to decrease the levels of proteins promoting insulin resistance and glycogenolysis like glycogen phosphorylase, brain form (Ahr-/- Vehicle vs WT Vehicle: Log2FC=3.00, *p*=1.21E-08, Ahr-/- PCB126 vs WT PCB126: Log₂FC=2.43, p=3.01E-07), and glycogen phosphorylase, liver form (Ahr^{-/-} Vehicle vs WT Vehicle: Log₂ FC= -1.09, p=7.20E-04, Ahr^{-/-} PCB126 vs WT PCB126: Log₂FC=-1.51, p=3.11E-05). The liver form of glycogen phosphorylase serves the glycemic demands of the body in general, while the brain form of glycogen phosphorylase supplies just the brain, AhR gene ablation caused an increase in glucose supply for brain, while decreased glucose supply level for the body, in general.

Enrichment by GO processes (Fig. 3.8) revealed that the proteomes associated with AhR gene deletion shared similar top GO processes with those related to PCB126 exposure, although Ahr^{-/-} caused a much higher degree of enrichment. These top GO processes mostly involved in two classes of processes: Lipid processes and Xenobiotic metabolism processes. Lipid processes, included "Fatty acid metabolic process", "Long-chain fatty acid metabolic process", "Cellular lipid metabolic process", "Monocarboxylic acid metabolic process", "Lipid metabolic process", "Carboxylic acid metabolic process" and "Monocarboxylic acid biosynthetic process", and xenobiotic

metabolism processes incorporated "epoxygenase P450 pathway", "small molecule metabolic process", "arachidonic acid metabolic process", "oxidationreduction process", "omega-hydroxylase P450 pathway", "oxidation-reduction process", "oxoacid metabolic process", "organic acid metabolic process", "drug metabolic process", "organic acid biosynthetic process" and "generation of precursor metabolites and energy". Compared to PCB126 effect in the comparison of WT PCB126 vs WT Vehicle, the effect of ablated AhR in Ahr-/- Vehicle vs WT Vehicle and Ahr-/- PCB126 vs WT PCB126, enriched lipid processes to a much greater extent mostly (-Log₁₀ (p-value): 6.510-45.110), consistent with the histology and phenotyping data. The abundance of 8 proteins was altered in WT PCB126 vs WT Vehicle; 3 of which belonged to P450 enzymes were increased, and 1 protein (Acyl-coenzyme A thioesterase 1) related to lipid metabolism was upregulated to promote free fatty acid production (Log2FC=2.05, *p*=1.79E-02) (Supplemental Table 2), while Ahr-/ resulted in severe large droplet macrovesicular steatosis. The abundance of lipid processes-associated proteins were increased significantly by AhR ablation in Ahr^{-/-} Vehicle vs WT Vehicle and/or Ahr^{-/-} PCB126 vs WT PCB126, including: Acyl-coenzyme A thioesterase 1 $(Ahr^{-/-}$ Vehicle vs WT Vehicle: Log2FC=2.97, *p*=2.57E-06), Acyl-coenzyme A thioesterase 2, mitochondrial (Ahr-/- Vehicle vs WT Vehicle: Log2FC=2.90, *p*=7.77E-12, Ahr-/- PCB126 vs WT PCB126: Log₂FC=1.99, *p*=2.74E-09), Perilipin-2 (Ahr^{-/-} Vehicle vs WT Vehicle: Log₂FC=2.24, p=1.18E-03, Ahr^{-/-} PCB126 vs WT PCB126: Log₂FC=1.97, p=3.88E-03), Acyl-coenzyme A thioesterase 4 (Ahr^{-/-} Vehicle vs WT Vehicle:

Log₂FC=2.24, p=1.18E-03, Ahr^{-/-} PCB126 vs WT PCB126: Log₂FC=1.97, p=3.88E-03), Acyl-CoA desaturase 2 (Ahr^{-/-} Vehicle vs WT Vehicle: Log₂FC=1.87, p=3.41E-02), Acyl-CoA desaturase 3 (Ahr^{-/-} Vehicle vs WT Vehicle: Log₂FC=1.87, p=3.41E-02), Long-chain-fatty-acid--CoA ligase 4 (Ahr^{-/-} Vehicle vs WT Vehicle: Log2FC=1.87, *p*=3.20E-03, Ahr-/- PCB126 vs WT PCB126: Log2FC=2.12, *p*=9.24E-06), Isoform Short of Long-chain-fatty-acid-- CoA ligase 4 (Ahr^{-/-} Vehicle vs WT Vehicle: Log₂FC=1.87, p=3.20E-03, Ahr^{-/-} PCB126 vs WT PCB126: Log2FC=2.12, *p*=9.24E-06), Acyl-coenzyme A thioesterase 10, mitochondrial (Ahr^{-/-} Vehicle vs WT Vehicle: Log₂FC=1.71, *p*=3.67E-07, Ahr-/- PCB126 vs WT PCB126: Log2FC=1.56, *p*=1.59E-06), Acylcoenzyme A thioesterase 9, mitochondrial (Ahr^{-/-} Vehicle vs WT Vehicle: Log₂FC=1.71, p=3.67E-07, Ahr^{-/-} PCB126 vs WT PCB126: Log₂FC=1.56, p=1.59E-06), Acyl-CoA desaturase 1 (Ahr-/- Vehicle vs WT Vehicle: Log2FC=1.62, *p*=2.87E-02), and Elongation of very long chain fatty acids protein 2 (Ahr^{-/-} Vehicle vs WT Vehicle: $Log₂FC=1.57$, p=8.38E-04, Ahr^{-/-} PCB126 vs WT PCB126: Log₂FC=1.34, p=3.58E-03). Apart from lipid processes, PCB126 exposure enriched xenobiotic metabolism processes, especially "epoxygenase P450 pathway" and "omega-hydroxylase P450 pathway", showing that the P450 pathway played a vital role in the effect of PCB126 as expected. Unlike PCB126 exposure, AhR ablation in Ahr^{-/-} Vehicle vs WT Vehicle and Ahr^{-/-} PCB126 vs WT PCB126 enriched other xenobiotic processes greatly except the two processes above, like "oxidation-reduction process" (Ahr^{-/-} Vehicle vs WT Vehicle: -Log₁₀ (p-value)= 53.42, Ahr^{-/-} PCB126

vs WT PCB126: -Log¹⁰ (*p*-value)= 26.75), "oxoacid metabolic process" (Ahr-/- Vehicle vs WT Vehicle: -Log₁₀ (*p*-value)= 42.94, Ahr^{-/-} PCB126 vs WT PCB126: -Log₁₀ (*p*-value)= 44.58), "organic acid metabolic process" (Ahr^{-/-} Vehicle vs WT Vehicle: -Log¹⁰ (*p*-value)= 42.94, B vs D: -Log¹⁰ (*p*-value)= 44.58), "drug metabolic process" (Ahr^{-/-} Vehicle vs WT Vehicle: -Log₁₀ (*p*-value) = 42.94, Ahr^{-/-} PCB126 vs WT PCB126: -Log¹⁰ (*p*-value)= 44.58), etc. (Fig. 4.8) Consistently, differentially abundant proteins contributing to these processes included upregulated objects: Glutathione S-transferase A1 (Ahr^{-/-} Vehicle vs WT) Vehicle: Log₂FC=4.97, *p*=9.68E-08, Ahr^{-/-} PCB126 vs WT PCB126: Log₂FC=5.13, p=8.00E-08), Glutathione S-transferase Mu 3 (Ahr^{-/-} Vehicle vs WT Vehicle: Log₂FC=3.76, *p*=7.63E-09, Ahr^{-/-} PCB126 vs WT PCB126: Log2FC=3.21, *p*=8.00E-08), Aldehyde dehydrogenase family 1 member A3 (Ahr-/- Vehicle vs WT Vehicle: Log2FC=3.56, *p*=4.50E-09, Ahr-/- PCB126 vs WT PCB126: Log₂FC=3.50, *p*=8.05E-09), Aldehyde dehydrogenase X, mitochondrial (Ahr^{-/-} Vehicle vs WT Vehicle: Log2FC=3.06, p=1.03E-08, Ahr^{-/-} PCB126 vs WT PCB126: Log₂FC=2.17, p=1.34E-06), Glutathione Stransferase A4 (Ahr^{-/-} Vehicle vs WT Vehicle: Log₂FC=3.06, p=1.03E-08, Ahr^{-/-} PCB126 vs WT PCB126: Log₂FC=2.17, p=1.34E-06), transferase Mu1 (Ahr^{-/-} Vehicle vs WT Vehicle: Log2FC=2.23, *p*=5.45E-08, Ahr-/- PCB126 vs WT PCB126: Log2FC=1.66, *p*=3.09E-06), NADH dehydrogenase [ubiquinone] 1 beta subcomplex subunit 9 (Ahr^{-/-} Vehicle vs WT Vehicle: Log₂FC=1.38, *p*=1.88E-02), NADH dehydrogenase [ubiquinone] 1 beta subcomplex subunit 5, mitochondrial (Ahr^{-/-} Vehicle vs WT Vehicle: Log₂FC=1.31, p=1.97E-02),

Aldehyde dehydrogenase, and cytosolic 1 (Ahr^{-/-} Vehicle vs WT Vehicle: Log2FC=1.26, *p*=2.77E-06). Notably, the process "Steroid metabolic process" was greatly enriched by AhR KO in Ahr^{-/-} Vehicle vs WT Vehicle and B vs D (Ahr-/- Vehicle vs WT Vehicle: -Log¹⁰ (*p*-value)= 12.34, Ahr-/- PCB126 vs WT PCB126: -Log₁₀ (*p*-value)= 26.75), the abundance of proteins associated with steroid metabolism included upregulated: 17-beta-hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase type 6 (Ahr^{-/-} Vehicle vs WT Vehicle: Log₂FC=3.02, p=3.51E-08, Ahr^{-/-} PCB126 vs WT PCB126: Log₂FC=2.24, p=2.18E-06), 17-betahydroxysteroid dehydrogenase 13 (Ahr^{-/-} Vehicle vs WT Vehicle: Log₂FC=3.02, *p*=2.68E-09, Ahr-/- PCB126 vs WT PCB126: Log2FC=2.29, *p*=1.71E-07), and Isoform 2 of 17-beta-hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase 13 (Ahr-/- Vehicle vs WT Vehicle: Log₂FC=2.94, *p*=1.86E-09, Ahr^{-/-} PCB126 vs WT PCB126: Log2FC=2.35, *p*=5.83E-08), downregulated: 3 beta-hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase type 5 (Ahr^{-/-} Vehicle vs WT Vehicle: Log₂FC=-4.28, p=9.00E-12, Ahr-/- PCB126 vs WT PCB126: Log2FC=-4.59, *p*=3.47E-12). All of these enzymes were essential in the synthesis of glucocorticoid and other steroid hormones (Supplemental Table 2). In particular, there was no significant alteration of protein abundance in Ahr^{-/-} PCB126 vs Ahr^{-/-} Vehicle representing the effect of PCB126 in AhR null mice, resulting in no processes being enriched in Ahr^{-/-} PCB126 vs Ahr^{-/-} Vehicle.

IPF analysis was performed and the top over-connected interactions by *z*score, are provided in Fig. 4.9. Eight unique objects, 5 enzymes and 3 other proteins, were over-connected with PCB126 exposure in A vs B. 5 enzymes

included: Acyl-CoA desaturase 3 (SCD3), NADH-cytochrome b5 reductase 3 (CYB5R3), NAD(P)H steroid dehydrogenase-like (NSDHL), UDP-

glucuronosyltransferase 1-4 (UGT1A4) and DEU-B, the other 3 proteins were visinin-like protein 3 (VILIP3). Ahr^{-/-} Vehicle vs WT Vehicle for AhR knockout effect in PCB126-free mice and Ahr^{-/-} PCB126 vs WTPCB126 for AhR ablation effect in PCB126 exposed mice shared 23 over-connected objects, their only difference was that NADH- dehydrogenase [ubiquinone] 1 beta subcomplex subunit 11, mitochondrial (NDUFB11) was not overconnected in Ahr^{-/-} PCB126 vs WT PCB126 (Fig. 4.9). 23 objects included 10 transcription factors, 1 receptor, two proteases, two enzymes, seven other objects. Shared transcription factors included: Zinc finger protein 125 (Zfp125), Liver X receptor-alpha (LXR-alpha), Glucocorticoid receptor (GCR), Sterol regulatory element-binding protein 1 (nuclear) (SREBP1 (nuclear)), Peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor-alpha (PPAR-alpha), Thyroid hormone receptor beta (TR-beta), cellular oncogene FOS (c-FOS), cAMP-responsive elementbinding protein H (CREB-H), Specificity protein 1 (SP1), and LIM domain only protein 7 (LMO7); the receptor was Insulin receptor, and two proteases were Coagulation factor XIII A, and Matrix metalloproteinase-2 (MMP-2); two common enzymes were DEAD-box helicase 19B (DDX19B) and Transglutaminase 2 (TGM2); seven other objects were microRNA-132-5p (miR-132-5p), Complement receptor 1 (Cr1), Alpha-synuclein, Diaphanousrelated formin-1 (DIA1), Glucose transporter 4 (GLUT4), Transient receptor potential cation channel subfamily M (melastatin) member 8 (TRPM8) and

Enamelin. No significant alterations of abundance proteins were found in Ahr^{-/-} PCB126 group vs Ahr^{-/-} Vehicle group, accordingly, there was no overconnected objects in this comparison in IPF analysis. The common top overconnected objects shared by all three comparisons were Zinc finger protein 125 (Zfp125), Liver X receptor-alpha (LXR-alpha), Peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor-alpha (PPAR-alpha), Insulin receptor and miR-132-5p; the former 3 transcription factors were associated with lipid metabolism, showing both PCB 126 and AhR deletion had effect on lipid metabolism.

Effects of PCB126 exposure and Ahr-/- on the microRNAs (miRNAs) in the IPF analysis

In the IPF analysis from proteomic data, totally 9 miRNAs were overconnected by PCB126 exposure and Ahr^{-/-}, listed at Table 4. Of these 9 miRNAs, 7 miRNAs were over-connected with PCB126 exposure, which were miR-122-5p, miR-132-5p, miR-142-5p, miR-150- 5p, miR- 221-3p, miR-222-3p and miR-223-3p; meanwhile, 4 miRNAs overconnected with Ahr^{-/-} were miR-122-5p, miR-132-5p, miR-192-3p and miR-544-3p. With respect to the overconnection with the combination of PCB126 exposure and Arf , only 3 miRNAs were included, namely, miR-122-5p, miR-132-5p and miR-544-3p.

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Figure 3.7. Effects of PCB126 exposure and Ahr-/- on the hepatic proteome.

Alterations in hepatic proteins were demonstrated by volcano plots showing significance (y-axis) versus protein fold change (x-axis) for comparisons between these four groups, which are (A) WT PCB126 vs WT Vehicle , (B) Ahr- $\frac{1}{2}$ Vehicle vs WT Vehicle, (C) Ahr $\frac{1}{2}$ PCB126 vs WT Vehicle, (D) Ahr $\frac{1}{2}$ PCB126 vs WT PCB126 & (E) Ahr^{-/-} PCB126 vs Ahr^{-/-} Vehicle. Black denotes unaltered proteins, green denotes significantly altered proteins, red denotes significantly altered protein with (log2FC≥0.5), blue denotes significantly altered protein with $(log_2FC \leq 0.5)$. (F) A multi-dimensional scatter (MDS) plot depicting the pattern for protein alterations in the different groups. A – WT Vehicle, B – WT PCB126, $C - Ahr'$ Vehicle, $D - Ahr'$ PCB126. (G) The number of proteins and their isoforms that were altered for the four comparisons between different groups (The data was adjusted by FDR=0.2). (H) Venn diagram showing the number of overlapping proteins in different groups relative to WT Vehicle group.

Figure 3.8. Effects of PCB126 exposure and Ahr-/- on gene ontology (GO) processes.

Heatmap showing different processes that were altered by PCB exposures and Ahr^{-/-} according to the -log(p-value). The processes were obtained by GO analysis enrichment of the different proteins altered by PCB exposures and/or AhR knockout using MetaCore. No processes were obtained from the comparison of Ahr^{-/-} PCB126 vs Ahr^{-/-} Vehicle due to no significant protein abundance alteration.

Fig. 3.9. Effects of PCB exposures and Ahr-/- on protein function.

Heatmap showing different classes of proteins, for the different groups, obtained from the Interaction by Protein Function analysis using MetaCore and their corresponding *z* scores. No overconnected proteins were found in Ahr-/- PCB126 vs Ahr^{-/-} Vehicle.

Table 3. Enrichment by protein function analysis

Enrichment by protein function analysis was performed by MetaCore software using the hepatic proteomics data. For a given protein class, a positive *z*-score indicates that more proteins in that class were altered than expected. Likewise, a negative *z*-score means that fewer proteins in the class were altered than expected.

Table 4. Over-connected miRNAs and their z-scores in IPF analysis

Seven miRNAs were over-connected with PCB126 exposure in IPF analysis, including miR-122-5p, miR-132-5p, miR-142-5p, miR-150-5p, miR-221-3p, miR-222-3p and miR-223-3p; while only 4 miRNAs were over-connected with Ahr^{-/-}, namely, miR-122-5p, miR-132-5p, miR-192-3p and miR-544-3p; and three miRNAs, such as miR-122-5p, miR-132-5p and miR-544-3p were overconnected with the combination of PCB126 exposure and AhR gene ablation.

DISCUSSION

Polychlorinated biphenyls, as endocrine, metabolism and signaling disrupting chemicals, are associated with nonalcoholic steatohepatitis and diabetes (37). PCB-induced NAFLD mechanisms were not fully elucidated, but there have been some findings found, such as a "two-hit" hypothesis was proposed that NAFLD pathogenesis consists of two "hits". The first "hit" causes lipid accumulation in the hepatocytes, while the second "hit" including high fat diet, insulin resistance (IR), proinflammatory cytokines, organelle dysfunction, oxidative stress, altered organokines like fibroblast growth factor 21 (FGF-21), leptin, adiponectin, and alteration in gut microbiome, deteriorate hepatic injury. The PCB126 dose used in this present study was 20µg/kg, the same as our previous acute study and this dose was enough for the activation of AhR target genes, like Cyp1a1 and Cyp1a2.

The aryl hydrocarbon receptor (AhR) is a ligand-activated transcriptional factor that regulates a variety of physiological and pathological function (88). The high-affinity ligands for AhR include 2,3,7,8-tetrachlorodibenzo-p-dioxin (TCDD), and DL PCBs (e.g. PCB126). Many studies have demonstrated that AhR plays a critical role in regulation of metabolic disease, including fatty liver disease. Excessive activation of AhR or activation of AhR induced hepatic steatosis characterized by the accumulation of triglycerides (33), and the effect of AhR is likely through the combined upregulation of CD36 and fatty acid transport proteins (FATPs), resulting in suppression of fatty acid oxidation, inhibition of hepatic export of triglycerides, enhancement of peripheral fat

mobilization, and increased hepatic oxidative stress (90). In a 12-week study, Banrida Wahlang et al. found that PCB126 (4.9 mg/kg) induced hepatic steatosis in control diet-fed mice (66). Yulang Chi et. al administered PCB126 by continuous 6- week gavage (total dose of 300µg/kg) in adult female mice, not only causing hepatic steatosis histologically, but increasing the mRNA expression of lipogenetic genes including Srebf1, Fasn, Scd1, Cd36, PPARg at the genetic level (95). A 2-week study showed the gavage of PCB126 (1.5mg/kg) resulted in a significant lipid accumulation and increased the hepatic triglyceride (TG) level (96). In the 12-day and 28-day studies performed by Gopi S. Gadupudi et al., PCB126 (1.63 mg/kg) induced hepatic steatosis by intraperitoneal injection (IP) in rats fed a defined AIN-93 diet (92, 97). In our previous acute PCB exposure study, two weeks of exposure to PCB126 (20µg/kg) induced mild hepatic steatosis due to increased hepatic lipid import and associated hypolipidemia (29). The publications above showed that PCB126 did cause hepatic steatosis, while in the present study did not show PCB126 had significant hepatic lipotoxicity in wild type mice. The inconsistency may be due to these reasons below: (1) the difference in exposure time of PCB126: the time length of most studies above were more than 4 weeks, while the present study only lasted 2 weeks; (2) different doses of PCB126: most studies administer the doses of PCB126 ranging from 50µg/kg to 4.9mg/kg, far more higher the one of my study. (3) different administration routes of PCB126: some studies administered PCB126 by intraperitoneal injection (ip), having higher efficacy by avoiding the first-pass effect compared with oral gavage. (4)

different species: some studies used male Sprague Dawley rats as models, compared to C57BL/6 mice, having a higher body mass. Whether the effects of DL-PCBs are AhR dependent or not and what exact role AhR plays in the regulation of hepatic proteome and lipid metabolism needs to be elucidated. AhR deficiency enhances insulin sensitivity and reduces PPARα pathway activity (93), as well as protects against high fat diet (HFD)-induced obesity, hepatic steatosis, insulin resistance and inflammation (34). However, liverspecific AhR knockout mice are susceptible to HFD-induced hepatic steatosis, inflammation and injury (94), suggesting AhR activation protects against fatty liver disease. Whole Ahr^{-/-} mice showed early growth defects, hepatic defects, reduced liver weight, spontaneous microvesicular fatty accumulation and fibrosis, also suggesting the role of AhR in protecting against hepatic lipidosis (35).

The combination of the phenotype, histology and molecular biomarkers showed a variety of PCB126 effects on metabolism. Similar to our previous study (29), PCB126 activated AhR target genes, namely, Cyp1a1 and Cyp1a2. It also activated Car mRNA expression; PCB126 decreased percent change in body weight (showing the wasting syndrome), and caused mild lipidosis in H&E stain and Oil red O stain, although neither hepatic TG nor FFA were increased on biochemical measurement. Meanwhile, PCB126 increased liver triglyceride, and demonstrated a trend to upregulate the liver cholesterol (*p*=0.05), suggesting lipid accumulation in liver. Proteomics was performed to explore potential mechanisms for the differences in phenotype between different

groups. WT PCB126 vs WT Vehicle reflecting the PCB126 effect in WT mice had 8 altered abundance proteins, mostly belonging to enzymes, consistent with the results of EPF. Two enzymes, namely, Cyp1A1 and Cyp1A2, were increased as expected; another upregulated enzyme: Acyl-coenzyme A thioesterase 1 facilitated fatty acid production. Consistent with the results from abundance protein analysis, IPF in WT PCB126 vs WT Vehicle revealed overconnected interactions with 3 transcription factors, namely, Zfp125, LXR-alpha, PPAR-alpha, regulating lipid metabolism. GO processes analysis demonstrated top processes enriched by PCB126 in WT PCB126 vs WT Vehicle were associated with lipid metabolism and xenobiotic metabolism. The results from hepatic proteome in WT PCB126 vs WT Vehicle were consistent with the phenotype and other biomarkers. An important finding was the fact of alterations of hepatic differentially abundant proteins in Ahr-/- PCB126 vs Ahr-/- Vehicle group, meaning in Ahr^{-/-} mice, PCB126 did not cause significant protein changes. This demonstrated that the effects of PCB126 on protein abundance were AhR dependent.

In the present study, the differentially abundant proteins analysis showed Cyp1A1 was downregulated by AhR ablation in PCB126 exposed mice (Log2FC=-4.90, *p*=4.66E-06), while Cyp1A2 decreased in Ahr-/- Vehicle vs WT Vehicle (Log₂FC=-1.91, *p*=4.33E-04) and Ahr^{-/-} PCB126 vs Ahr^{-/-} Vehicle (Log2FC=-6.43, *p*=1.58E-10) (Supplemental Table 2). The RT-PCR showed not only AhR mRNA expression was totally inhibited by AhR ablation (2 $-\Delta\Delta$ Ct value close to 0), but the expression of their target genes Cyp1a1 and Cyp1a2 were

significantly downregulated by AhR gene deletion (both p<0.01). Meanwhile, in the table of abundant proteins, Cyp3a11 was upregulated by AhR deletion in Ahr^{-/-} Vehicle vs WT Vehicle (Log₂FC=3.61, *p*=2.33E-07) and Ahr^{-/-} PCB126 vs Ahr-/- Vehicle (Log2FC=2.38, *p*=4.83E-05). With regard to RT-PCR, *Cyp3a11*, the target gene of Pxr, was increased by global AhR knockout (Ahr^{-/-} Vehicle: 4.33-fold, Ahr^{-/-} PCB126: 4.74-fold relative to WT Vehicle, both $p<0.01$). PCB126 did not cause NAFLD in the present study due to no increased hepatic lipids by biochemical analysis. In hepatic differentially abundant proteins analysis in hepatic proteome, AhR knockout altered much more proteins than PCB126 exposure (Ahr^{-/-} Vehicle vs WT Vehicle: 340 proteins, Ahr^{-/-} PCB126 vs Ahr-/- Vehicle: 262 proteins). In hepatic differentially abundant proteins table (Supplemental Table 2), AhR deletion upregulated at least 12 proteins involved in lipid accumulation, including Acyl-coenzyme A thioesterase 1, Acylcoenzyme A thioesterase 2, mitochondrial, Perilipin-2, Acyl-coenzyme A thioesterase 4, Acyl-CoA desaturase 2, Acyl-CoA desaturase 3, Long-chainfatty-acid--CoA ligase 4, Isoform Short of Long-chain-fatty-acid--CoA ligase 4, Acyl-coenzyme A thioesterase 10, mitochondrial, Acyl-coenzyme A thioesterase 9, mitochondrial, Acyl-CoA desaturase 1, and Elongation of very long chain fatty acids protein 2 (Supplemental table 2). Hepatic lipid accumulation originates from an imbalance between lipid acquisition and lipid disposal, which is determined by four major pathways: hepatic lipid uptake, de novo lipogenesis (DNL), oxidation of fatty acids (FAO), and lipid export in VLDL; increased levels of Acyl-coenzyme A thioesterases promote production

of free fatty acids; upregulated Acyl-CoA desaturases, Elongation of very long fatty acids protein 2, Long-chain-fatty-acid--CoA ligase 4, and its isoform induce synthesis of triglycerides; these regulation above lead to promoted hepatic lipid uptake and DNL, resulting in liver fat accumulation. Consistently, enriched top processes related to lipid metabolism in GO process analysis in Ahr^{-/-} Vehicle vs WT Vehicle and Ahr^{-/-} PCB126 vs WT PCB126, were listed as follows: "Fatty acid metabolic process", "Long-chain fatty acid metabolic process", "Cellular lipid metabolic process", "Monocarboxylic acid metabolic process", "Lipid metabolic process", "Carboxylic acid metabolic process" and "Monocarboxylic acid biosynthetic process", most of them were associated with synthesis and processing of fatty acids (Fig. 4.8). IPF analysis of Ahr^{-/-} effect in Ahr^{-/-} Vehicle vs WT Vehicle and Ahr^{-/-} PCB126 vs WT PCB126 revealed several overconnected transcription factors involved in lipid steatosis, like Zfp125 (causes lipidosis by reducing liver secretion of triglycerides), LXRalpha, SREBP1 (nuclear), PPAR-alpha, c-Fos; notably, LXRα activates the transcription factor SREBP-1c, resulting in lipogenesis and c-Fos, as a new target of NASH, induces hepatic PPARγ signaling and lipid accumulation (Fig. 4.9). RT-PCR results further validated the results of phenotype s and hepatic proteomes, which showed Ahr^{-/-} increased Cd36 expression, facilitating the fatty acid transport, and upregulated perilipin-2 gene expression, promoting lipid droplets formation, meanwhile, Ahr^{-/-} decreased Pnpla3 gene expression, downregulating lipolysis. All these alterations in gene expression caused the overall effect of lipid accumulation. The results from the phenotype, histology,

biomarker and RT-PCR, were consistent with the results from hepatic proteome. AhR ablation increased liver triglyceride, liver FFA, while decreased liver weight/body weight ratio, plasma triglyceride, plasma cholesterol, plasma HDL-c, and plasma VLDL in a trend ($p=0.06$). Meanwhile, in H&E stain and Oil Red O stain, AhR null mice showed conspicuous lipid steatosis. RT-PCR for genes involved in lipid metabolism demonstrated that AhR knockout increased *Cd36* gene expression, related to lipid uptake, and decreased *Pnpla3* expression (associated with lipolysis). Combined with all the results, AhR gene deletion did not bring about the beneficiary effect on lipid metabolism, on the contrary, caused significant lipidosis, the mechanism of global AhR knockoutinduced NAFLD is that AhR deletion promoted the production of fatty acid, increasing hepatic lipid uptake, promoting formation of lipid droplets and downregulated lipolysis. This also suggested a potential role of AhR in the negative regulation of the expression of these genes involved in hepatic steatosis. In the present study, the effects of PCB126 were not all AhRdependent. However, its effects on the hepatic proteome were AhR dependent.

In IPF analysis, notably, GCR was over-connected with Ahr^{-/-} (Ahr^{-/-} Vehicle vs WT Vehicle: z-score=12.43, Ahr^{-/-} PCB126 vs WT PCB126: z-score=10.80); whether GCR expression was upregulated or downregulated needs to be elucidated, then the expression level of Tat gene, the target gene of GCR was measured, and it showed Tat gene expression was increased by Ahr-/ indicating Tat gene and GCR activation. As cytoplasmic protein complexes, GR and AhR bind their respective ligands, on the flip side, AhR and GR have

potentially complex receptor cross-talk, showing AhR-mediated responses include effects on GR expression, and vice versa (98), although their exact interaction pattern needs to be elucidated. Moreover, global AhR knockout affected the steroid hormone which was shown in the GO process analysis in Ahr^{-/-} Vehicle vs WT Vehicle and Ahr^{-/-} PCB126 vs WT PCB126; check through the hepatic differentially abundance proteins, 3 important enzymes regulating the steroid hormone synthesis were altered, including 17-beta-hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase type 6, 17-beta-hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase 13, Isoform 2 of 17-beta-hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase 13, 3 beta-hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase type 5 (Supplemental table 2). Upregulated 17-betahydroxysteroid dehydrogenases (17β-HSD) and its isoform and decreased 3 beta-hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase (3β-HSD) promoted the production of sex hormone and decreased the production of glucocorticoid; IPF analysis in Ahr^{-/-} Vehicle vs WT Vehicle and Ahr^{/-} PCB126 vs WT PCB126, showed overconnected transcription factor: GCR (glucocorticoid receptor). These results suggest AhR^{-/-} affected the enzymes in the steroidogenesis and showed actual impacting of GCR. Another possible mechanism for overconnected GCR is that GCR was affected by the existence of hepatic lipidosis which may be accompanied by inflammation, and GCR regulated annexins to reduce inflammation (99).

With respect to glucose metabolism, AhR ablation lowered plasma glucose, plasma insulin and resistin level, increased plasma leptin concentration, indicating the effect of AhR knockout on decreasing insulin resistance. In

hepatic differentially abundant proteins analysis, several altered proteins regulating glucose homeostasis by AhR deletion in Ahr \div Vehicle vs WT Vehicle and Ahr^{-/-} PCB126 vs WT PCB126, were found as follows: like Glycogen phosphorylase, brain form, and Glycogen phosphorylase, liver form; the liver form of glycogen phosphorylase serves the glycemic demands of the body in general while the brain form of glycogen phosphorylase supply just brain, so here, AhR KO caused the increase of glucose supply for brain, but decreased the blood glucose level for the body. Additionally, IPF analysis showed two over-connected proteins associated with glucose homeostasis, which are insulin receptor (Ahr^{-/-} Vehicle vs WT Vehicle: z-score=9.049, Ahr^{-/-} PCB126 vs WT PCB126: z-score=7.595), and glucose transporter 4 (GLUT4) (Ahr-/- Vehicle vs WT Vehicle: z-score=8.153, Ahr-/- PCB126 vs WT PCB126: zscore=9.295); insulin receptor stimulates glycogen synthesis and promotes the degradation of insulin; unlike GLUT2 mostly expresses in liver to uptake glucose for glycolysis and glycogenesis, GLUT4 mostly expresses in adipose tissues and striated muscle to uptake glucose to promote fat accumulation and muscle contraction. Overconnected insulin receptor and GLUT4 facilitated the transport and utilization of glucose and conversion of glucose into fat and decreased the glucose level. Combined with the results from phenotype, plasma glucose level, plasma insulin and resistin level, hepatic proteome etc., AhR gene ablation had a potential beneficiary effect on glucose metabolism, improving insulin resistance on molecular level and generally lowering the glucose level.

MicroRNAs (miRNAs) are small non-coding RNAs that maintain cellular homeostasis and potentially modulate responses to environmental exposures. In the present animal study, totally seven over-connected miRNAs were shown with PCB126 exposure in IPF analysis, including miR-122-5p, miR-132-5p, miR-142-5p, miR-150-5p, miR-221-3p, miR-222-3p and miR-223-3p; while only 4 miRNAs were over-connected with Ahr^{-/-}, namely, miR-122-5p, miR-132-5p, miR-192-3p and miR-544-3p; and three miRNAs, such as miR-122-5p, miR-132-5p and miR-544-3p were over-connected with the combination of PCB126 exposure and AhR gene ablation. This suggested different treatments may have their different targets of alteration in miRNAs, like Ahr^{-/-} over-connected only four miRNAs. In our previous human epidemiological study (ACHS), PCBassociated liver necrosis was associated with circulating miRNAs. It showed the necrotic liver disease category (n=359) was associated with four upregulated miRNAs (miR-99a-5p, miR-122-5p, miR-192-5p, and miR-320a) and five down-regulated miRNAs (let-7d-5p, miR-17-5p, miR-24-3p, miR197-3p, and miR-221-3p). Compared our animal data with human data, they shared 3 common miRNAs, which were miR-122-5p, miR-221-3p, and miR-192-3p, although having different PCB exposures and different species. These primary results provided some insights into the potential mode of action of PCBs, although the exact mechanism of miRNA-induced toxicity needs further study.

There are some limitations for the present study. AhR null mice had severe lipidosis in histology, significantly higher ALT and AST in biomarkers, increased proapoptotic or proinflammatory proteins, like Annexin A5, Protein S100-A11,

Growth arrest-specific protein 2 (Supplemental table 2), all of which suggested the existence of inflammation or apoptosis. On the flip side, inflammationassociated factors including plasma IL-6 and PAI-1 determination were not elevated in AhR null mice. Inflammation and cell death mechanisms can be more rigorously evaluated in the future. In conclusion, the present study showed global AhR gene deletion caused significantly lipid accumulation; AhR activation plays a pivotal role in lipid metabolism; the mechanism of AhR knockout-induced lipidosis was probably through the enhancement of production of fatty acid and decrease of lipid breakdown. At the same time, AhR ablation affected the steroid hormone metabolism, influenced the enzymes in the steroidogenesis and downregulated the synthesis of glucocorticoid leading to the activation of GCR. Besides, AhR ablation demonstrated a beneficiary effect on glucose metabolism, generally lowering the glucose level through increased transport, utilization of glucose in peripheral tissue and promoted conversion of glucose into fat. Lastly, PCB126 did not have significant effect in AhR null mice, suggesting AhR regulates the hepatic proteome and lipid metabolism independent of PCB exposure.

CHAPTER 4

THE ACUTE EXPOSURE EFFECTS AND POTENTIAL MECHANISMS OF DIFFERENT DOSES OF DL+NDL PCBS ON THE PANCREATIC PROTEOME

INTRODUCTION

Diabetes has been a major health concern in the US population and across the world. According to the data from Disease Control and Prevention (CDC), 10.5% of the US population has diabetes (30). Diabetes patients aged 50 years or older die 4.6 years earlier, develop disability 6 to 7 years earlier, and spend about 1 to 2 more years in a disabled state than adults without diabetes (100). From 2012 until 2017, excess medical costs per person associated with diabetes increased from \$8,417 to \$9,601 (30).

Diabetes is characterized by elevated blood sugar levels due to either the result of inadequate amounts of insulin production, inadequate utilization of insulin or a combination of both. Diabetes is categorized as type 1, type 2, gestational diabetes mellitus (GDM), specific types of diabetes due to other causes, e.g., monogenic diabetes syndromes (such as maturity-onset diabetes of the young [MODY]), diseases of the exocrine pancreas (such as cystic fibrosis), and drug- or chemical-induced diabetes.

Multiple epidemiological studies and animal experiments have revealed associations between PCB exposure and DM (101, 102). In a 24-year follow-up study of the Yucheng cohort (PCB poisoning), increased rates of DM in females were observed (4). In 736 PCB-exposed human subjects in the Anniston Community Health Survey (ACHS), a high prevalence of diabetes (27%) was observed, which was almost 3-times higher than the US prevalence rate (6). Also, some papers in animal models reported the correlation between PCBs exposure and DM. Zhang S et.al reported that the treatment with Aroclor 1254 (5, 50, and 500 µg/kg) resulted in a significant increase in blood glucose concentrations in male mice (103). Aroclor1254 is high in both DL PCB (PCB105, PCB118, and PCB156) and non-dioxin-like PCB (PCB 99, PCB 138, and PCB153). PCB77 and PCB126 were found to increase the blood glucose in male C57BL/6 mice (104). The mechanisms by which PCBs cause DM are still controversial with some literature reporting decreased insulin production and others reporting increased IR (105, 106). ACHS-II study showed with the increase of PCBs concentration, the level of insulin decreased (6). In our acute PCB exposure study, the Aroclor1260/PCB126 mixture caused histological changes in pancreas and Ins1 gene expression was decreased, hinting at the effect of PCB mixture on pancreas (29). Banrida Wahlang's sex difference acute PCB exposure study showed Aroclor1260/PCB126 mixture decreased Ins1 gene expression, while increased pancreas weight/body weight ratio, suggesting PCB mixture potentially had affected the pancreas function (36). To further explore the acute effects and potential mechanism of DL/NDL PCB

mixture on pancreas, untargeted proteomics was performed in a female mouse model.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Animal studies

The related animal protocol was ratified by the University of Louisville Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee. Adult female C57BL/6 mice (8 weeks old) were purchased from Jackson Laboratory and distributed into three equal groups (n = 10). All mice were fed a control synthetic diet (20.0 %, 69.8 %, and 10.2 % of total calories come from protein, carbohydrate, and fat, TekLad TD 06416) throughout the study period. At 10 weeks of age, ten mice in each group were given either corn oil, low dose of Aroclor1260/PCB126 mixture (20 mg/kg/20 µg/kg) (LD), or high dose of Aroclor1260/PCB126 mixture (100 mg/kg/100 µg/kg) (HD) via a one-time gavage and followed for 2 weeks (Fig. 4.1). At week 2 post gavage, a glucose tolerance test (GTT) was performed as described previously (36). Whole blood for plasma, and pancreas tissue samples were harvested after euthanasia.

Proteomics analysis

Proteins were extracted from liver tissue in RIPA buffer supplemented with protease and phosphatase inhibitors using a bead homogenizer and protein amounts were quantitated by BCA assay. Protein lysates (200 μg) were trypsinized using the modified filter-aided sample preparation method (57) and enriched for phosphopeptides by the TiO2–SIMAC–HILIC method (58). Briefly, protein samples were reduced with dithiothreitol, denatured with 8M urea, and alkylated with iodoacetamide followed by centrifugation through a high molecular

weight cutoff centrifugal filter (Millipore, 10k MWCO). After overnight digestion with sequencing grade trypsin (Promega), the digested proteins were collected and cleaned with a C18 Proto™ 300 Å Ultra MicroSpin column. Protein digested samples (50 μg) were labeled with tandem mass tag (TMT) TMT10plex[™] Isobaric Label Reagent Set (Thermo Fisher, Waltham, MA); samples were then concentrated and desalted with Oasis HLB Extraction cartridges (Waters Corporation, Milford, MA) using a modified protocol for extraction of the digested peptides (59). Samples were then subjected to high pH reversed phase separation with fraction concatenation on a Beckman System Gold LC system supplemented with 126 solvent module and 166 detector in tandem with a Bio-Rad Model 2110 Fraction Collector (60). Liquid chromatography/mass spectrometry was used to measure TMT-labeled peptides. Briefly, every high pH reversed phase fraction was dissolved in 50μL solution of the combination of 2% v/v acetonitrile/0.1% v/v formic acid and 1 μL of each fraction was analyzed on EASYnLC 1000 UHPLC system (Thermo Fisher) and an Orbitrap Elite—ETD mass spectrometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA). Proteome Discoverer v2.2.0.388 was used to analyze the raw data collected from the mass spectrometer. Hepatic proteins that had significance abundance were imported into MetaCore software (Clarivate Analytics, Philadelphia, PA) for the following analyses: gene ontology (GO) processes analysis and transcription factor analysis (TFA).

Statistical analysis

Statistical significance was determined by two-way analysis of variance using GraphPad Prism version 7.02 for Windows (GraphPad Software Inc., La Jolla, CA, USA). p <0.05 was considered statistically significant. Statistical analysis for the proteome data was analyzed using the R package as described previously (61, 62). Given the exploratory nature of the study, significantly altered proteins were further filtered using an FDR threshold of 0.2.

Figure 4.1. Experiment Design of female mice acute PCB mixture study.

Mice were divided into 3 study groups based on the type of exposure. All

animals were fed a chow diet and received a one-time gavage of their

respective dose at the beginning of the study.

RESULTS

Effects of different doses of PCB mixture exposures on body composition and glucose tolerance.

Body weight was measured weekly throughout the 2-week study. There was a gradual increase in body weight in all three groups from week 0 to week 2 (Fig. 4.2A). However, there were no significant differences in body weight and percent change in body weight between these three groups (Fig. 4.2B, 2D). As for the pancreas weight to body weight ratio, no significant differences were found between the groups (Fig. 4.2C). A GTT was performed to examine the effects of different doses of PCB mixture on glucose tolerance (Fig. 4.2E); there were no differences between groups for alteration in glucose uptake (Fig. 4.2F).

Effects of different doses of PCB mixture exposures on the pancreatic proteome

A total of 7671 unique proteins and their isoforms were detected. The alterations of pancreatic abundance proteins content were regulated as follows: Low Dose Aroclor1260/PCB126 group (LD) vs Control (38 increased and 82 decreased) and High Dose Aroclor1260/PCB126 group (HD) vs Control group (256 increased and 288 decreased) (Table 5).

Enrichment by GO processes (Fig. 4.3) showed that both doses of PCB mixture enriched the process of "peptide biosynthetic process". With regard to processes related to inflammation and immunity, low dose Aroclor1260/PCB126 enriched the processed such as "antigen processing and presentation of endogenous Antigen", "regulation of leukocyte mediated cytotoxicity" and

(A, B) Body weight was measured weekly throughout the 2-week study. No signifcant differences were found between the three groups. (D) % change in body weight relative to the initial body weight taken at the beginning of the study was calculated. Three groups had no significant differences in % change in BW. (C) The pancreas was weighed and their respective weights relative to body weight were calculated. Three groups had no differences in PW/BW. A glucose tolerance test was performed after the second PCB gavage and blood glucose levels were measured; (E) GTT curve was made and (F) AUC (Area Under the Curve) of three groups was calculated. Values are mean ± SD. n=10, Values for p < 0.05 are in bold, by one-way ANOVA with Turkey's post hoc comparison..

"antigen processing and presentation of peptide antigen", while the other dose enriched four processes, including " Inflammation IL-6 signaling", "Immune response_Antigen presentation", "Apoptosis_Apoptotic nucleus" and "Inflammation_NK cell cytotoxicity". In addition, processes associated with insulin signal pathway were enriched by low dose or high dose Aroclor 1260/PCB126 exposure. These processes were "insulin-like growth factor receptor signaling pathway", "receptor tyrosine kinase signaling pathway", "Signal transduction_Insulin signaling" and "Signal transduction_WNT signaling".

Enrichment by transcription factor analysis (TFA) (Fig. 4.4A) showed that low dose and high dose group shared similar overconnected transcription factors. Transcription factors associated with inflammation were overconnected by both doses of Aroclor1260/PCB126, including NF-kB1 (p105), NF-kB2 (p52), and NFkB1 (p50). Notably, 5 transcription factors related to pancreas function and glucose metabolism by over-connected with low dose or high dose PCB mixture. These were as follows: NEUROD5, HNF1-beta, HNF4-alpha, E2F1, FOXP3, HNF1-alpha.

Table 5. Alterations of diffentially abundant pancreatic proteins

The number of proteins and their isoforms that were altered for the two comparisons between different groups (The data were adjusted by FDR=0.2).

Figure 4.3 Effects of different doses of Aroclor1260/PCB126 exposure on gene ontology (GO) processes.

Heatmap showing different processes that were altered by different doses of Aroclor1260/PCB126 exposure according to the -log(*p*-value). The processes were obtained by GO processes analysis using MetaCore.

Figure 4.4 Effects of different doses of Aroclor1260/PCB126 exposure on

Enrichment by transcription factor analysis (TFA)

Heatmap showing different transcription factors, for the different groups,

obtained from the Enrichment by transcription factor analysis (TFA) using

MetaCore and their corresponding *z* scores.

DISCUSSION

Considered as a group of multifactorial disease, diabetes is caused by some combination of genetic and environmental factors including environmental pollutants. In recent years, the association between PCB and diabetes has gained concern.

Multiple epidemiological studies and animal studies demonstrated the association of PCB and diabetes. In the follow-up study of Yucheng cohort, females with high PCB exposure had higher prevalence of diabetes (4). In the ACHS study, insulin level was associated with increased PCB concentration. The mechanisms of PCB-induced diabetes remain unclear. Our previous acute PCB exposure study (29) showed Aroclor1260/PCB126 mixture exposure caused "PCB pancreatopathy", presenting with acinar cell atrophy, mild steatosis, and fibrosis absent of ductal changes or immune cell infiltration. PCB mixture decreased Ins1 gene expression, downregulated the expression of Nkx6-1, NR4a1, NR4a3 gene, associated with beta-cell islet identity, suggesting DL/NDL PCB mixture had more effects on pancreas than PCB congeners. Consistent with previous study (107), the potential mechanism of PCB-induced diabetes was associated with impaired islet identity. Our previous sex difference study also showed Aroclor1260/PCB126 mixture decreased Ins1 gene expression in female mice, while increased the pancreas weight to body weight ratio (36).

In the present study, TFA showed that 5 transcription factors associated with pancreatic function and glucose homeostasis were overconnected with either

low dose Aroclor1260/PCB126 or high dose Aroclor1260/PCB126, including NEUROD5, HNF1-beta, HNF4-alpha, E2F1, FOXP3, and HNF1-alpha. All these factors were involved in pancreas development, and three of them, namely, HNF1-beta, HNF4-alpha, and HNF1-alpha, were associated with MODY in human.

Maturity onset diabetes of the young (MODY) is referred to as monogenic diabetes, caused by mutations in an [autosomal dominant](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Autosomal_dominant#Autosomal_dominant_gene) gene disrupting [insulin](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Autosomal_dominant#Autosomal_dominant_gene) production. There have been 11 different types of MODY caused by changes in eleven different genes. MODY 1 is caused due to a loss-of-function mutation in the [HNF4α](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/HNF4A) gene; MODY 3 is due to mutations of the [HNF1α](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/HNF1A) gene (a [homeobox](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Homeobox) gene); MODY 5 is a less common forms of MODY due to defect in [HNF-1 beta](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/HNF1B) gene, has some distinctive clinical features, such as atrophy of the pancreas and [renal](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Kidney) disease.

Here, over-connected HNF1-beta were associated with MODY 5, HNF4 alpha with MODY 1 and HNF1-alpha with MODY 3. This finding from proteomics may provide us new insight towards the pathogenesis of PCBinduced diabetes. Will this potential mechanism of PCB-induced diabetes have some similarity with MODY? In PCB-induced diabetes, some patients have insulin resistance while others present as pancreatic failure, like type 1 diabetes. And different MODY have diverse presentations, some present similar to type 1 diabetes, and some just like type 2 diabetes. And the mechanisms of MODYs are not fully clear. What caused the mutations of specific genes of different MODY? These questions need to be elucidated.

GO processes analysis showed either low dose or high dose Aroclor1260/PCB126 exposure enriched the processes related to insulin signal pathway, including "insulin-like growth factor receptor signaling pathway", "receptor tyrosine kinase signaling pathway", "Signal transduction_Insulin signaling" and "Signal transduction_WNT signaling". The results were consistent with the results from TFA.

Although AUC did not show differences between groups, we got some meaningful data from proteomics. There are a couple of reasons for this inconsistency, first, although GTT is relatively easy to perform and minimally invasive, the interpretation of these tests can be strongly influenced by variable experimental conditions (like the accurate time point of measurement, the emotion changes of mice, and the accuracy of glucometer) and data analysis. Second, the results from GTT may not be able to reflect the early changes in pancreatic function.

In ongoing research, the results from proteomics will be validated by other methods, like Western blots, phenotype, plasma insulin, adipokines, HOMA-IR, HOMA-B, etc.

In conclusion, transcription factor analysis showed transcription factors related to pancreas function were over-connected with low dose and high dose Aroclor 1260/PCB 126, like HNF1-alpha, HNF1-beta and HNF4-alpha, which were associated with MODY 3, MODY 5 and MODY 1 in human. Processes associated with insulin signal pathway were enriched by either low dose or high dose of Aroclor 1260/PCB126, including "insulin-like growth factor receptor

signaling pathway", "receptor tyrosine kinase signaling pathway", "Signal transduction_Insulin signaling". The study is an ongoing research, and more data are required.

CHAPTER 5

OVERALL SUMMARY

Overall goal and specific aims

As persistent organic pollutants PCBs are associated with non-alcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD) and metabolic disruption. Previous studies focus mostly on the effect of NDL PCBs and single PCB congeners. But in real life, people are exposed to DL-PCB and NDL-PCB mixtures. We have built a relevant model, Aroclor1260/PCB126, which increases the amount of DL-PCB (PCB126) (20µg /kg) to activate the AhR. The chronic effects of DL/NDL- PCB mixture need to be investigated. The mechanism of PCB-induced NAFLD still remains unclear. PCBs are predicted to interact with many receptors previously implicated in xenobiotic/energy metabolism and NAFLD, including AhR, Pxr, Car etc. And DL- PCBs are potent AhR ligand, and cause steatosis. The overactivation of AhR can be found in NAFLD. The exact role of AhR in hepatic proteome and lipid metabolism needs to be elucidated. The overall goal of this dissertation was to evaluate the chronic effects of different PCBs exposure by phenotype and untargeted proteomics. To fulfill the goal, we performed the following specific aims:

Aim 1: Investigate the chronic exposure effects and potential mechanisms of DL-PCBs and NDL-PCBs, or co-exposures to both in a diet-induced obesity mouse model.

Aim 2: Evaluate the role of AhR plays in the regulating hepatic proteome and whether this process is independent of PCB exposure or not in an AhR knockout mouse model.

Aim 3: Investigate the acute exposure effects and potential mechanisms of different doses of DL+NDL PCBs on pancreatic proteome in a female mouse model.

Major findings of this dissertation

Chronic PCB exposure study adopted proteomics to observe the effects of different PCB exposures in protein production differences, which provided us new insights towards the mechanism of PCB toxicity. In this study, we found PCB126 rather than Aroclor 1260 decreased hepatic inflammation and fibrosis at the molecular level, while it altered cytoskeletal remodeling, metal homeostasis, and damaged intermediary and xenobiotic metabolism.

In acute AhR knockout study, we used global AhR null mice to observe without AhR, how PCB126 altered hepatic proteome and lipid metabolism whether the process was AhR independent or not. Global AhR gene deletion caused significant lipid accumulation. The effects of PCB126 were not all AhRdependent, and its effect on hepatic proteome were AhR dependent. This
finding is the first research to confirm the role AhR plays in the regulation of hepatic proteome and lipid metabolism.

In female mice acute PCB mixture exposure study, we found transcription factors (such as HNF1-alpha, HNF1-beta and HNF4-alpha) related to pancreas function were over-connected with both doses of Aroclor 1260/PCB 126 exposure, and observed that processes associated with insulin signal pathway were enriched by low dose or high dose Aroclor 1260/PCB126, including "insulin-like growth factor receptor signaling pathway", "receptor tyrosine kinase signaling pathway", "Signal transduction_Insulin signaling" and "Signal transduction_WNT signaling".

Strengths of this dissertation

There is much strength in this dissertation. First and foremost, for the first time, we discovered the role of AhR in regulating the hepatic proteome and lipid metabolism which was independent of PCB exposure. And we confirmed AhR plays a pivotal physiological role in maintaining lipid homeostasis and hormone production. And we clarify the misunderstanding towards AhR, which is deletion of AhR may bring about a protective effect against lipidosis, on the contrary, whole deletion of AhR gene will cause severe NAFLD.

Secondly, we used hepatic proteomics to explore the underlying mechanisms of PCB exposure effect, which provided us new insights toward their action modes, like PCB126 altered cytoskeletal remodeling and metal homeostasis, xenobiotic metabolism, which were not reported previously.

Another finding is that in acute AhR knockout study, several miRNAs were found to be associated with PCB126 and AhR ablation in mouse model; several miRNAs can also be observed in human samples; some of the miRNAs have strong association with some NASH biomarkers. All these will provide us new direction to our future research.

Lastly, in female mice acute PCB mixture study, for the first time, we observed the association between PCB exposure and some responsible genes involved in MODY in humans, it provides us new insights to explore the association between MODY and PCB exposure, the potential mechanisms of both.

Limitations of this dissertation

There are several weaknesses of this dissertation. Although we described the phenotypic effects of different types of PCB exposure on liver and pancreatic disease, the precise molecular mechanisms, underpinning these observations were not determined. They need further investigation in the future. Potential species differences due to differential AhR ligand binding affinity were not examined. Moreover, potential sex differences need to be pointed out for in PCB exposed populations, men tend to have a slightly higher prevalence of liver disease, while women tended to have a higher prevalence of type 2 diabetes. While proteins regulating metal homeostasis and epigenetics were implicated, direct measurement of hepatic metals and epigenetic signatures was not performed. Another weakness is female mice

acute PCB mixture study, although we got some valuable data from proteomics, all of these remain to be validated by other methods.

Future directions

1. Evaluate the potential effects of species and sex differences on the endocrine disruption and TASH induced by PCB exposures.

2. Use proteomics technique and TMT labelling to analyze different chronic PCB-exposed pancreas samples, to explore the potential mechanism of PCBinduced diabetes.

3. Since PCB-exposure mostly is a chronic process, studies with a longer period may be needed (e.g., 6 months).

Conclusion

Taken together, this dissertation evaluated the acute and chronic effects of PCB exposure on liver and pancreas, also explored the role of AhR in regulating hepatic proteome and lipid metabolism. The chronic exposure study demonstrated PCBs, NDL PCBs, and a more environmentally relevant mixture of both types of PCBs differentially modulated the hepatic proteome and the severity of diet- induced NAFLD. PCB 126 decreased hepatic inflammation at the molecular level, while Aroclor1260 increased hepatic inflammation and promote phosphoprotein signaling disruption consistent with prior research. PCB126 altered cytoskeletal remodeling, and disrupted metal homeostasis, and the intermediary and xenobiotic metabolism; all of them implicated in PCB126's mode of action. Aroclor1260 + PCB126 exposure enriched multiple

epigenetic processes, and these could potentially explain the observed nonadditive effects of the exposures on the hepatic proteome. Acute AhR knockout study showed 12 differentially abundant hepatic proteins related to lipid metabolism were altered by AhR deletion; Gene ontology analysis showed metabolic processes including 'oxidation-reduction process' and 'lipid metabolic process' were enriched in Ahr-/- mice; transcription factors involved in lipid metabolism including Zfp125, LXRα, SREBP1 (nuclear), c-Fos were overconnected with Ahr-/- . Global AhR gene deletion caused significantly lipid accumulation rather than had protective effect against NAFLD. The mechanism of AhR knockout-induced lipidosis was probably through the upregulation of lipogenic genes (CD36, Perilipin-2) and downregulation of lipolytic gene (Pnpla3). Most importantly, the study discovered how Ahr regulated hepatic proteome and lipid metabolism independent of PCB exposure. In the female mice acute PCB mixture study, pancreatic proteomics showed transcription factors related to pancreas function were over-connected with low dose and high dose Aroclor 1260/PCB 126, like HNF1-alpha, HNF1-beta and HNF4 alpha, responsible genes of MODY in human; processes related to insulin signal pathway were enriched by low dose or high dose Aroclor 1260/PCB126, including 'insulin-like growth factor receptor signaling pathway', 'receptor tyrosine kinase signaling pathway', 'Signal transduction_Insulin signaling" and "Signal transduction_WNT signaling".

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Supplemental Table 1: Differentially Hepatic Abundant Proteins

Altered by Different PCBs in Chronic Study

List of hepatic proteins (fold change, *p*-value) altered by PCB exposure.

Fold change >1 , protein upregulation; fold change <1, protein downregulation.

Supplemental Table 2: Differentially Hepatic Abundant Proteins Altered by

PCB126 and Ahr-/-

List of hepatic proteins (Log₂ FC, *p*-value) altered by PCB126, Ahr^{-/-} or both. Log₂ FC≥1, protein upregulation; Log2 FC≤ -1, protein downregulation.

Supplemental Table 3: Summary of effects of PCB exposures on liver,

and blood biomarkers in chronic PCB exposure study.

Notes:

1. ↔ indicates no change; ↑ indicates increase; ↓ indicates decrease *versus* vehicle control;

2. * indicates interaction between Aroclor 1260 and PCB 126.

Supplemental Table 4: Summary of effects of PCB exposure and Ahr-/- on

liver, and blood biomarkers in acute AhR knockout study

Notes:

1. ↔ indicates no change; ↑ indicates increase; ↓ indicates decrease *versus* vehicle control;

2. * indicates interaction between PCB126 and Ahr^{-/-}.

ABBREVIATIONS

- CREB CAMP responsive element binding protein 1
- CYP Cytochrome P450
- DCE Dichloroethylene
- EPA Environment Protection Agency
- ER Endoplasmic reticulum
- FASN Fatty acid synthase
- FFA Free fatty acid
- GCK Glucokinase
- GLUT4 Glucose transporter 4
- GSK3b Glycogen synthase kinase 3b
- H&E Hematoxylin and eosin
- HCC Hepatocellular carcinoma
- HFD High-fat diet
- IHC Immunohistochemistry
- KEAP1 Kelch-like ECH-associated protein 1
- LC3 Light chain 3
- LFD Low-fat control
- LIX Lipopolysaccharide-induced CXC chemokine

- TCE Trichloroethene
- TG Triglyceride
- TNF-α Tumor necrosis factor-α

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