

Disturbances in cholesterol, bile acid and glucose metabolism in peroxisomal 3-ketoacylCoA thiolase B deficient mice fed diets containing high or low saturated fat contents.

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1	Disturbances in cholesterol, bile acid and glucose metabolism in peroxisomal			
2	3-ketoacylCoA thiolase B deficient mice fed diets containing high or low fat			
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3	Abbreviations: ThA: 3-ketoacyl-CoA thiolase A; ThB: 3-ketoacyl-CoA thiolase B;				
4	FAO: fatty acid oxidation; ACOX1: acyl-coA-oxidase 1; MFP1: peroxisomal				
5	multifunctional enzyme type 1; MFP2: peroxisomal multifunctional enzyme type 2;				
6	WAT: white adipose tissue; LFD: Low Fat Diet; HFD: High Fat Diet; GH: growth				
7	hormone; IGF-I: insulin Growth Factor-I; IGFBP-3: insulin-like growth factor-binding				
8	protein-3; PPARα: peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor alpha; Wy: Wy14,643;				
9	WT: wild-type; KO: knock-out; HDL: high density lipoproteins; SR-BI: scavenger				
10	receptor class B member 1; SREBP: sterol regulatory element-binding protein; RXR:				
11	retinoid X receptor.				
12					
13	Short title: Altered lipid and glucose metabolism in $Thb^{-/-}$ mice				
14					
15	Keywords: peroxisomal 3-ketoacyl-CoA thiolase B, hypoglycemia, de novo				
16	biosynthesis of cholesterol, bile acids, lathosterol.				
17	# these authors equally contributed to this work				
18					
19 20	Highlights (Nicolas-Francès et al.,)				
21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29	 "Disturbances in cholesterol, bile acid and glucose metabolism in peroxisomal 3-ketoacylCoA thiolase B deficient mice fed diets containing high or low saturated fat contents" Reduced body size and plasma growth hormone levels in <i>Thb^{-/-}</i> mice Higher energy intake but reduced adiposity in <i>Thb^{-/-}</i> mice fed a saturated fat diet A better insulin sensitivity leads to hypoglycemia in <i>Thb^{-/-}</i> mice fed synthetic diets Increased plasma HDL-cholesterol and whole body cholesterol synthesis in <i>Thb^{-/-}</i> mice 				
30					

2 Abstract

The peroxisomal 3-ketoacyl-CoA thiolase B (ThB) catalyzes the thiolytic cleavage of 3 4 straight chain 3-ketoacyl-CoAs. Up to now, the ability of ThB to interfere with lipid 5 metabolism was studied in mice fed a routinely laboratory chow enriched or not with the 6 synthetic agonist Wy14,643, a pharmacological activator of the nuclear hormone receptor 7 PPARα. The aim of the present study was therefore to determine whether ThB could play a role in obesity and lipid metabolism when mice are chronically fed a synthetic High Fat Diet 8 9 (HFD) or a Low Fat Diet (LFD) as a control diet. To investigate this possibility, wild-type (WT) mice and mice deficient for Thb $(Thb^{-/-})$ were subjected to either a synthetic LFD or a 10 11 HFD for 25 weeks, and their responses were compared. First, when fed a normal regulatory laboratory chow, $Thb^{-/-}$ mice displayed growth retardation as well as a severe reduction in 12 13 the plasma level of growth hormone (GH) and Insulin Growth Factor-I (IGF-I), suggesting 14 alterations in the GH/IGF-1 pathway. When fed the synthetic diets, the corrected energy intake to body mass was significantly higher in $Thb^{-/-}$ mice, yet those mice were protected 15 from HFD-induced adiposity. Importantly, $Thb^{-/-}$ mice also suffered from hypoglycemia, 16 17 exhibited reduction in liver glycogen stores and circulating insulin levels under the LFD and 18 the HFD. Thb deficiency was also associated with higher levels of plasma HDL (High 19 Density Lipoproteins) cholesterol and increased liver content of cholesterol under both the 20 LFD and the HFD. As shown by the plasma lathosterol to cholesterol ratio, a surrogate 21 marker for cholesterol biosynthesis, whole body cholesterol de novo synthesis was increased in $Thb^{-/-}$ mice. By comparing liver RNA from WT mice and $Thb^{-/-}$ mice using 22 23 oligonucleotide microarray and RT-qPCR, a coordinated decrease in the expression of 24 critical cholesterol synthesizing genes and an increased expression of genes involved in bile acid synthesis (Cvp7a Cvp17a1, Akr1d1) were observed in Thb^{-/-} mice. In parallel, the 25

1	elevation of the lathosterol to cholesterol ratio as well as the increased expression of
2	cholesterol synthesizing genes were observed in the kidney of $Thb^{-/-}$ mice fed the LFD and
3	the HFD. Overall, the data indicate that ThB is not fully interchangeable with the thiolase A
4	isoform. The present study also reveals that modulating the expression of the peroxisomal
5	ThB enzyme can largely reverberate not only throughout fatty acid metabolism but also
6	cholesterol, bile acid and glucose metabolism.
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2 **1. Introduction**

3 Adipose tissue lipolysis generates free fatty acids that are taken up from the blood plasma by 4 the liver where they are activated into their fatty acyl-CoA derivatives. The activated fatty 5 acyl-CoAs are subsequently imported into mitochondria or peroxisomes for degradation to 6 acetyl-coenzyme A (acetyl-CoA) via the β -oxidation process. Whereas the mitochondrion 7 oxidizes short-, medium- and mostly long-chain fatty acids, the peroxisome oxidizes some 8 long-chain but mostly very long chain fatty acids. The peroxisome is also involved in the α -9 oxidation of very-long-straight-chain or branched-chain acyl-CoAs (reviewed in [1]). At the 10 biochemical level, the peroxisomal β-oxidation of straight-chain acyl-CoAs starts with a 11 reaction catalyzed by the ACOX1 (acyl-CoA oxidase 1) enzyme that is the first and rate-12 limiting enzyme of the pathway. The step orchestrated by ACOX1 is followed by two 13 enzymatic reactions carried out by the MFP1 or MFP2. The fourth and last step of the 14 process is catalyzed by the peroxisomal 3-ketoacyl-CoA thiolases. In humans, only a single 15 corresponding gene (peroxisomal 3-acetyl-CoA acetyltransferase-1 also known as 16 peroxisomal 3-oxoacyl-CoA thiolase or acyl-CoA:acetyl-CoA-acyltransferase, ACAA1, EC 17 2.3.1.16) has been identified [2, 3] and no isolated peroxisomal deficiency at the level of the 18 peroxisomal 3-ketoacyl-CoA thiolase, has not been reported yet [2, 3]. To date, two closely 19 related but differentially regulated peroxisomal 3-ketoacyl-CoA thiolases isoforms (thiolase 20 A, ThA, Acaa1a and thiolase B, ThB, Acaa1b, EC:2.3.1.16) have been identified in rodents 21 [4, 5]. It is still not clear whether these two proteins stem from a unique and original 22 ancestral gene. In agreement with their very high degree of nucleotide sequence identity 23 (97%), the mature forms of ThA and ThB differ in only nine amino acid in rats [4-6]. Given 24 the large amino acid sequence identity (96%) between ThA and ThB, major overlap in the 25 enzymatic activities of ThA and ThB were found [4, 7]. As a consequence, both enzymes

share virtually the same substrate specificity *in vitro* that includes very-long-straight-chain
 3-oxoacyl-CoAs [7]. The cleavage of 2-methyl-branched as well as straight-chain 3 ketoacyl-CoA esters is under the dependence of a third thiolase isoform (SCP-2/3-ketoacyl CoA thiolase, SCPx) previously characterized in both humans and rodents [8-10].

5 In addition to fatty acid β -oxidation, the peroxisome is involved in other aspects of lipid 6 metabolism ranging from synthesis of bile acids, plasmalogens, cholesterol and isoprenoids. 7 Consistent with this notion, different studies have shed light on the existence of an 8 alternative pathway for cholesterol synthesis in the peroxisomal matrix, with a specific 3-9 hydroxy-3-methylglutaryl coenzyme A (HMG-CoA) reductase that displays functional and 10 structural properties different from the endoplasmic reticulum HMG-CoA reductase [11-13]. 11 In order to investigate the physiological role of the 3-ketoacylCoA thiolase B (ThB) in vivo, a mouse model deficient for *Thb* (*Thb*^{-/-}) has been partly characterized in our laboratory [14]. 12 13 At the molecular level, Thb was identified as a direct target gene of the peroxisome 14 proliferator-activated receptor alpha (PPARa, NR1C1) in the liver [15]. PPARa forms a 15 heterodimer with the Retinoid X Receptor (RXR) and following the physical binding of 16 PPAR α /RXR α by the synthetic agonist Wy14,643 (Wy), the mRNA expression of a large 17 arrays of genes ranging from lipid, amino-acid, glycerol and glycogen metabolism as well as 18 inflammation control is upregulated ([16-23]). A crucial piece of evidence that liver *Thb* is 19 functionally regulated by the nuclear receptor PPAR α is the observation that some hepatic 20 fatty acid contents are different between WT and Thb-/- mice exposed to the PPARa agonist 21 Wy [21, 24]. Follow-up investigations also revealed that ThB could play an indirect role in 22 the control of PPARa mediated upregulation of Sterol Regulatory-Element-Binding-Protein-23 2 (SREBP-2) target genes in the liver of mice fed with Wy [25]. This result further 24 demonstrates that the deletion of a single peroxisomal activity such as ThB is sufficient to 25 impact the transcription of biosynthetic cholesterol genes in the liver. Combined, these previous data support the notion that despite the similarities between ThA and ThB, ThB
 displays a unique biochemical function that deserves further characterization.

In addition to be the molecular target of the fibrate drug Wy, PPAR α also mediates the effects of a High Fat Diet (HFD) on hepatic gene expression [26]. As *Thb* is a PPAR α target gene, we expected that chronic HFD could shed light on the putative consequences of the deletion of *Thb* in mouse in a more physiological context, *i.e.* HFD-induced obesity and insulin-resistance.

8 The recent demonstration that resistance to diet-induced obesity is accompanied by a 9 marked increase in peroxisomal β -oxidation has been instrumental in advancing our 10 thoughts about the origin of oxidative changes during obesity [27, 28]. Using two strains of 11 mice resistant (A/J) or sensitive (C57Bl/6) to diet-induced hepatosteatosis and obesity, it 12 was found that 10 peroxisomal oxidative genes were specifically upregulated in A/J mice 13 leading to a significant increase in peroxisomal β -oxidation [27]. It was thereby 14 hypothesized that this peroxisomal fatty acid β-oxidation could partly prevent diet-induced 15 hepatosteatosis and obesity.

The aim of the present study was therefore to evaluate the role of ThB and its ability to potentially interfere with HFD-induced lipid metabolism disorders. To explore the function of ThB in this aspect, WT mice and $Thb^{-/-}$ mice were chronically fed a synthetic High-Fat Diet (HFD) and a Low-Fat Diet (LFD) as control. Our results indicate that *Thb* deletion in mouse induces alterations not only in fatty acid metabolism but also in carbohydrate, cholesterol and bile acid metabolism, extending the function of ThB to other unexpected metabolic pathways.

23

- 24 **2. Materials and methods**
- 26 2.1. Animal experiments and ethical considerations
- 27

1 Only male mice on a pure-bred Sv129 genetic background have been used and previously 2 described [14]. Male mice were kept in normal cages with food and water *ad libitum*, unless 3 clearly indicated. In absence of dietary challenge, mice were routinely fed a standard 4 commercial pellet diet (UAR A03-10 pellets from Usine d'Alimentation Rationnelle, Epinay 5 sur Orge, SAFE, France, 3.2 kcal/g) consisting (by mass) of about 5.1% fat (C16:0 \pm 0.89%; 6 C16:1 n-7 \pm 0.09%; C18:0 \pm 0.45%; C18:1 n-9 \pm 1.06%, C18:2 n-9 \pm 1.53% and traces of C18:3 n-9), similar to previous studies [24, 25]. At the time of sacrifice, animals were only 7 8 7-weeks old. The animal experiments were approved by the animal experimentation 9 committee of the University of Burgundy (protocol number $n^{\circ}1904$) and were performed 10 according to the European Union guidelines for animal care. 11

12 13

2.2. Nutritional intervention

14 Two-month-old male mice were fed with a LFD or a HFD for 25 weeks, as previously 15 described elsewhere [26, 29]. The diets provided either 10% or 45% energy (kcal) percent in 16 the form of lard (D12450B or D12451, Research Diets Inc., New Brunswick, NJ, USA). 17 Content in cholesterol was 0,00136% (w/w) for D12450B and 0,01489% (w/w) for D12451. 18 Table I shows the composition of the diet. At the time of sacrifice, animals were around 7 19 months of age. Tissues were excised, weighted and immediately frozen in liquid nitrogen 20 before being stocked at -80°C. The animal experiments were approved by the animal 21 experimentation committee of the University of Burgundy (protocol n° 0107) and were 22 performed according to the European Union guidelines for animal care.

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24

25 2.3. Food intake and body size

Food intake was measured over 3 to 4 days for 25 weeks to the nearest 0.1 g. The experiment was conducted in three replications of 5 WT and 6 $Thb^{-/-}$ mice each. For measurement of body size, animals were lightly anesthetized with 3% of isoflurane and
 extended to their maximal length to determine the nose-to-anus distance.

3

4 2.4. *Histochemistry*

Hematoxylin and Eosin staining of adipose sections were done using standard protocols. We
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100 Santé- STIC, Université de Bourgogne, Dijon, France) for expert technical assistance.

8

10

9 2.5. Plasma metabolite levels

11 Plasma was initially collected into EDTA tubes via caudal or retroorbital puncture and 12 centrifuged at + 4°C (10 min, 6000 rpm). Plasma glycerol concentration was determined 13 using a kit from Instruchemie (Delfzijl, the Netherlands). Plasma free fatty acids were 14 determined using a kit from WAKO Chemicals (WAKO Chemicals, Germany). Plasma 15 glucose concentration was obtained by the enzymatic method employing glucose-oxidase 16 (Glucose GOD FS, Diasys, Diagnostic Systems International, Condom, France). Plasma β-17 hydroxybutyrate, cholesterol and triglycerides levels were determined using a kit from 18 Diasys. For lathosterol measurements, plasma or tissue (about 10 to 20 mg of kidney) was 19 mixed with epicoprostanol, which was used as a control standard. Potassium hydroxide 20 saponification was followed by lipid extraction with hexane. Cholesterol and lathosterol 21 were analyzed in the trimethylsilyl ether state by GC-MS using a Hewlett Packard HP6890 22 Gas Chromatograph equipped with an HP7683 Injector and an HP5973 Mass Selective 23 Detector, as previously described [25].

24

25 2.6. Plasma hormone levels

Plasma growth hormone level was determined using the rat/mouse Growth Hormone ELISA
kit from Linco Research (USA). Plasma mouse IGF-1 level was determined using the

Mouse Insulin-like Growth Factor 1 (IGF-1) ELISA Kit from ASSAYPRO (USA). IGFBP-3
 serum concentration was measured using the mouse/rat IGFBP-3 ELISA kit provided by
 BioVendor GmbH (Heidelberg, Germany). Plasma insulin level was evaluated using a
 mouse insulin enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay kit (Mercodia SA, Sweden).

5

6 2.7. Liver fatty acid profile, hepatic triglyceride and bile acid content in the liver

Liver fatty acid profile as well as quantification of hepatic triglyceride content were
performed as previously described [24]. Levels of bile acids in the liver were determined by
capillary gas chromatography/mass spectrometry as previously reported [30].

10

12

11 2.8. Liver glycogen content

13 Hepatic glycogen content was measured using a method that derives from that of Passoneau 14 and Landerdale [31]. Briefly, 100 mg of liver or muscle sample was homogenized in 700 µl 15 of 0.4 M HCLO4 and was centrifuge for 5 min at 13 000 g. 650 µl of the supernatant was 16 then neutralized with 184 µl of 0.75 M K2CO3 and was incubated 10 minutes at 4°C. After 17 centrifugation, the supernatant fraction (50 µl) was diluted in 200 µl sodium acetate 0.3 M 18 (pH 4.8) and incubated in the presence or not of 10 mg/ml of amyloglucosidase (Sigma-19 Aldrich) for 2 h at 37°C. The glucose concentration with or without amyloglucosidase 20 treatment was measured using the Glucose-DOD from Diasys. Oyster glycogen type II 21 (Sigma-Aldrich) was similarly treated and used as standard.

22

23 2.9. RNA isolation and Real-time quantitative PCR (RTqPCR)

Total RNA was extracted from liver with TRIzol (Invitrogen) using the supplier's instructions. RNA was then further purified (from free nucleotides and contaminating genomic DNA) using RNeasy columns (Qiagen) with DNAse treatment. A 260 nm/280 nm ratio of ~ 2 indicated that samples were essentially free from contaminants such as protein.

1 The reverse-transcription step was subsequently performed with 1 µg of RNA using iScript 2 Reverse Transcriptase (Bio-Rad). PCR reactions were performed using the qPCR 3 MasterMix Plus for SYBR Green I with fluorescein (Eurogentec) using an iCycler PCR 4 machine (Bio-Rad). Primers were designated to generate a PCR amplification product of 5 100-200 bp and were selected according to indications provided by the Primer 3 software 6 (http://frodo.wi.mit.edu/cgi-bin/primer3/primer3_www.cgi). Sequences are available from 7 S.M. on request. Specificity of the amplification, evaluation of primer dimers formation and 8 efficiency of PCR amplification were verified by melt curve analysis. The "delta-delta Ct" 9 quantification method was used and the expression of each tested gene was related to the 10 control gene 36B4, which did not change under any of the experimental conditions studied.

11

12 2.10. Preparation of nuclear extracts of kidney and immunoblot analysis

13 Nuclear extracts of kidney were prepared following established protocols [32]. 10 µg of 14 nuclear protein was separated on a 10% (w/v) polyacrylamide gel in the presence of 0.1% 15 (w/v) SDS and transferred on to PVDF membranes. A broad range pre-stained SDS-PAGE 16 standard (Bio-Rad, 161-0318) was used as a protein ladder. After membrane saturation at 17 room temperature for 90 min with TBS (0.1 M Tris/HCl, pH 8.0, 0.15 M NaCl) containing 18 0.1% (v/v) Tween 20 and 5% (w/v) fat-free milk, blots were incubated overnight at 4°C with 19 a polyclonal anti-SREBP-2 rabbit antibody (Ab28482, 1:200, Abcam) or a polyclonal sheep 20 antibody to histone H1 (Ab1938, 1:200, Abcam), respectively. After three washes in TBS containing 0.1% (v/v) Tween 20, primary antibodies were detected using a peroxidase-21 22 conjugated IgG antibody, the choice of which depends on the primary antibody of interest: a 23 goat anti-rabbit IgG Antibody, (1:30000, sc-2004, Santa Cruz Biotechnology) or a rabbit 24 anti-sheep IgG antibody (Ab6747, 1:2000, Abcam). The protein bands labeled with the 25 antibodies were visualized using a Western-blotting chemiluminescence luminol reagent

- (Santa Cruz Biotechnology) by exposure to X-ray films (Amersham). Densitometry of
 proteins on Western blots was performed using the Scion Image software.
- 3
- 4

5 2.12. Lipoprotein profiling

6 Individual mouse plasma from WT (n=12) or $Thb^{-/-}$ (n=8) mice fed the LFD or the HFD 7 (WT, n=11 and $Thb^{-/-}$, n=10) was injected onto a Superose 6HR 10/30 column (Amersham 8 Biosciences) connected to a fast protein liquid chromatography (FPLC) system (Amersham 9 Biosciences). Lipoproteins were eluted at a constant 0.3 ml/min flow rate with Tris-buffer 10 saline containing 0.074% EDTA and 0.02% sodium azide. Total cholesterol and triglyceride 11 levels were determined in the different fractions using commercially available kits from 12 Diasys (Diagnostic Systems International, Condom, France).

13

14 2.13. DNA microarray/transcriptional profiling

The transcriptional profiles in liver from 7-month-old WT mice and $Thb^{-/-}$ mice fed either the LFD or the HFD for 5 months (mice were fasted 6h before sacrifice) were probed using the whole genome Affymetrix GeneChip® Mouse Genome 430 2.0 Array. For each condition, livers from 4 different mice were used, and the liver RNAs were further isolated but importantly not pooled. Hybridizations (4 per condition), washing and scanning of the chips were carried out at the MicroArray Facility in Leuven (MAF, Leuven, Belgium). The rest of the procedure was performed as previously described [33].

22

23 2.14. Statistical analyses

Data are presented as means ± standard errors. The effect of the genotype (KO vs WT) was
tested using the Student's t-test. The cut-off for statistical significance was set at a p-value of

0.05. Area under Curve was calculated with Prism (GraphPad Software Inc., Version 3.0,
 San Diego, CA, USA).

- 3
- 4

5 **3. Results**

6 **3.1 Post-natal growth restriction and alteration of the GH/IGF-1 axis in** *Thb^{-/-}* **mice**

7 The generation of mice deficient for *Thb* has been previously described elsewhere [14]. In 8 absence of any dietary challenge (normal laboratory chow), the most apparent phenotype of Thb^{-/-} mice was their reduced body mass (Fig. 1a) and reduced body length (Fig. 1b) as soon 9 10 as 4 weeks of age onwards, suggesting post-natal growth restriction. Growth hormone (GH) 11 as released by the pituitary is essential for normal growth and development. Of note, 12 deletion of *Thb* severely decreased GH circulating levels in 7-weeks-old mice supporting the 13 hypothesis of alterations in the hypothalamo-pituitary axis (Fig. 1c). Most of the effects of 14 GH are exerted by IGF-I, (Insulin-like Growth Factor-I also known as somatomedin C) a peptide hormone produced mainly by the liver but also locally by specific tissues [34, 35]. 15 Systemic levels of IGF-I were significantly reduced in 7-weeks-old *Thb*^{-/-} mice compared to 16 17 age-matched controls (Fig. 1d). The biodisponibility of IGF-I is regulated by specific binding proteins (IGFBP), insulin-like growth factor-binding protein-3 (IGFBP-3) being the 18 19 most abundant IGFBP in circulation that binds the majority ($\approx 90\%$) of circulating IGF-I [36]. Plasma IGFBP-3 concentrations were similar in 7-weeks-old WT mice and Thb^{-/-} mice 20 indicating that reduced IGF-I content by change in plasma IGFBP-3 concentrations is 21 unlikely and cannot account for the small-body phenotype observed in $Thb^{-/-}$ mice (Fig. 1e). 22 23 Liver is responsible for at least 75% of the circulating IGF-I levels [34]. Therefore, we checked for hepatic Igf-I mRNA levels in 7-weeks-old WT mice and Thb^{-/-} mice. Our results 24

indicated that Igf-1 mRNA in liver showed a similar pattern to plasma IGF-I in Thb^{-/-} mice, 1 2 as a probable consequence of the reduced stimulation by GH (Fig. 1f). GH-dependent 3 stimulation of *Igf-I* expression also takes place in peripheral tissues among which adipose 4 tissue and skeletal muscle. Similar to the liver, it was found that brown adipose tissue and 5 white adipose tissue as well as muscle Igf-1 mRNA levels were severely reduced in 7weeks-old Thb^{-/-} mice, suggesting that the peripheral production of IGF-1 was globally 6 impaired by the deletion of *Thb* (Fig. 1f). Together, it was concluded that $Thb^{-/-}$ mice exhibit 7 8 early growth retardation due to a probable alteration of the GH/IGF-I axis.

9

10 **3.2** *Thb*^{-/-} mice are protected from HFD-induced adipocyte hypertrophy

11 Chronic administration of a HFD is known to induce obesity and obesity-associated insulin 12 resistance in mice [37]. We therefore decided to study the role that ThB may play in dietinduced obesity by placing wild-type (WT) and $Thb^{-/-}$ males, at 2 months of age, on either a 13 14 synthetic control LFD (10% fat, D12450B, Research Diets, Inc.) or a synthetic high 15 (saturated-lard) fat diet (45% fat, D12451, Research Diets, Inc.) for 25 weeks (see Table I 16 for the composition). D12450B and D12451 diets have been extensively used with success 17 in previous metabolic studies [29, 38, 39]. First, detailed analysis of food intake was 18 assessed throughout the period of the diet intervention. Surprisingly, food intake (g) and consequently energy intake (Kcal) were significantly reduced in $Thb^{-/-}$ mice compared to WT 19 20 mice after the HFD (supplemental Fig. 1a and supplemental Fig. 1b). However, when energy consumption was corrected for body mass, it becomes significantly higher in $Thb^{-/-}$ mice fed 21 the LFD or the HFD, as compared to appropriate WT control mice, suggesting that the 22 23 differences observed in body mass between the 2 sets of mice may not be attributable to 24 decreased energy consumption (supplemental Fig. 1c). Furthermore, while feeding the HFD caused a significant mass gain in WT mice, the effect was less evident in $Thb^{-/-}$ mice (Fig. 25

1 2a). Area under the curve (for the evolution of the body mass throughout the diet intervention) confirmed that body mass of *Thb*^{-/-} mice was smaller compared to WT control 2 3 mice, whatever the quality of the food (Fig. 2b). We also assessed body mass at the end of the diet intervention (Fig. 2c). It was confirmed that $Thb^{-/-}$ mice did not recover from their 4 5 initial reduced body mass. Then, we turned to the study of the overall body mass change 6 (expressed in % of the initial body mass) (Fig. 2d). HFD feeding caused significantly more 7 body mass gain compared with LFD feeding in WT mice and while not significant (p=0,07), 8 $Thb^{-/-}$ mice tend to be protected from HFD-induced mass gain.

9 After 25 weeks of diet intervention, significant effects for the diet but also of the genotype 10 were observed for the weight of subcutaneous (Fig. 3a; expressed as a percentage of total 11 body weight) and epididymal fat pads (Fig. 3b), two fat depots that are assumed to reflect 12 the overall adiposity of the animals [40]. Of note, deletion of Thb had no impact on the 13 relative brown adipose tissue weight (Fig. 3b). A histological analysis of the reproductive white adipose tissue (WAT) between WT mice and $Thb^{-/-}$ mice revealed a reduction in 14 adipocyte size in Thb^{-/-} mice, fed the LFD or the HFD (Fig. 3c). Further analysis of the 15 16 adipose tissue morphology using image analysis confirmed this reduction in adipocyte size in $Thb^{-/-}$ mice and consistently, demonstrates the presence of hyperplasia (Fig. 3d). To 17 uncover the potential systemic manifestations of reduced adiposity in $Thb^{-/-}$ mice, we 18 19 measured two different plasma lipid parameters (free fatty acids and glycerol are good indicators of adipose spontaneous lipolysis) in WT mice and Thb^{-/-} mice. No significant 20 21 changes in plasma free fatty acids and glycerol content were observed between WT mice and $Thb^{-/-}$ mice indicating that spontaneous lipolysis is likely not exacerbated by the deletion 22 23 of *Thb* and cannot account for by the reduced adipose tissue mass (Fig. 3e and 3f). Together, we concluded that $Thb^{-/-}$ mice are smaller than WT counterparts, while they ingest more 24 25 calories and display adipose hyperplasia.

2

3.3 *Thb*^{-/-} mice display better insulin sensitivity and hypoglycemia

3 It is known that small adipocytes are more insulin-sensitive than large adipocytes and 4 therefore, they may augment glucose transport and whole body sensitivity [41, 42]. Hence, reduction in the adipocyte size, as observed in $Thb^{-/-}$ mice fed the LFD or the HFD, could 5 6 limit the HFD-induced insulin resistance, as demonstrated in several animal models of dietinduced obesity [43]. To test whether insulin sensitivity was indeed better in $Thb^{-/-}$ mice, we 7 performed an insulin tolerance test (ITT) in WT mice and Thb-/- mice fed the LFD or the 8 9 HFD. In mice fed the LFD, an i.p. insulin challenge (0.75 unit per kilogram of body weight) resulted in a similar blood glucose decrease (Fig. 4a). However, in mice fed the HFD, 10 insulin injection resulted in a more prominent blood glucose decrease in Thb--- mice 11 compared to WT mice, indicating that $Thb^{-/-}$ mice are more sensitive to exogenous insulin. 12 13 Area-under-the-curve (AUC) values confirmed a significantly better preserved insulin sensitivity of $Thb^{-/-}$ mice on the HFD compared to WT mice (Fig. 4b). 14

15 We next determined whether glucose metabolism could be altered along with fat deposition in $Thb^{-/-}$ mice. To do so, we first evaluated circulating blood glucose levels in $Thb^{-/-}$ mice. 16 17 Surprisingly and despite their higher relative energy intake compared to bodyweight, a 18 significant lower plasma glucose concentration was observed in fed or in short-term (5h) 19 fasted *Thb*^{-/-} mice, independently of the quality of the food (Fig. 4c and Fig. 4d). Following 18h and 24h of fasting, no differences were observed in plasma glucose levels between WT 20 mice and $Thb^{-/-}$ mice suggesting that neoglucogenesis (a biological process that mainly 21 22 operates in the liver under fasting conditions and that describes the conversion of non-23 carbohydrates such as glycerol, propionate, lactate and pyruvate into glucose) becomes 24 similarly active in both genotypes (Fig. 4d).

Taking into account the massive hypoglycaemia observed in $Thb^{-/-}$ mice, it can be 1 hypothesized that $Thb^{-/-}$ mice are more insulin sensitive, as also suggested by the data of Fig. 2 4a. In agreement with this notion, endogenous plasma insulin levels were consistently lower 3 in $Thb^{-/-}$ mice compared with WT mice, under both the LFD and the HFD (Fig. 4e). Finally, 4 the insulin-mediated glucose uptake by the muscle is probably more efficient in $Thb^{-/-}$ mice 5 than in WT mice because glycogen content of muscle was higher in $Thb^{-/-}$ mice than in WT 6 mice (Fig. 4f). Overall, $Thb^{-/-}$ mice appeared to be more insulin sensitive because they 7 8 maintained lower glucose concentrations with reduced amounts of insulin.

9 Hepatic glycogenolysis normally sustains blood glucose levels after short-term fasting. Defective glycogenolysis and/or depletion of the initial glycogen stores in the liver of $Thb^{-/-}$ 10 11 mice could lead to hypoglycemia. To determine if the absence of *Thb* also modify glycogen 12 metabolism in the liver, we evaluated the concentration of hepatic glycogen in WT mice and Thb^{-/-} mice. It is of note that hepatic glycogen content was significantly reduced following 13 the disabling of *Thb* (Fig. 5a). Reduced concentration of glycogen in the liver of $Thb^{-/-}$ mice 14 15 could reflect a marked reduction in the glycogen synthesis rate by the liver. A defect in the 16 mRNA expression level of Glycogen synthase 2 (Gys2), the rate-limiting enzyme for 17 glycogen synthesis in liver, is unlikely because RT-qPCR and DNA arrays demonstrated that Gys2 expression tend to be higher in $Thb^{-/-}$ mice, although it did not reach statistical 18 19 significance (Fig. 5b). On the other hand, glycogen utilization could be theoretically 20 enhanced by *Thb* deletion and account for by the reduced glycogen content. Yet, the mRNA 21 expression of genes encoding critical enzymes for glycogen utilisation (Gbel, Gaa) was lower in Thb^{-/-} mice and therefore does not support this hypothesis (supplemental Table). 22 23 Overall, it was concluded that peroxisomal ThB is involved in carbohydrate metabolism 24 because circulating glucose levels as well as liver/muscle glycogen content are affected 25 when *Thb* is deleted.

2 **3.4** *Thb^{-/-}* mice do not develop HFD-induced liver steatosis

3 Consistent with the notion that the peroxisomal ThB is primarily an oxidative enzyme, 4 recent evidence suggests that ThB plays a functional role in fatty acid pattern of total liver 5 lipids, especially when mice are metabolically challenged with the potent PPAR α agonist 6 Wy14,643 [24]. Therefore, it can be expected that the effects of *Thb* deletion become much 7 more severe under conditions of fat overload such as chronic high fat feeding, a 8 physiological condition that activates PPAR α and PPAR α signaling in liver [26]. The liver is a critical organ that may indirectly contribute to the reduced adiposity observed in Thb^{-/-} 9 10 mice via increased peroxisomal and/or mitochondrial fatty acid β-oxidation (FAO). Ouantitative assays were therefore conducted with liver samples of WT mice and $Thb^{-/-}$ mice 11 12 in order to evaluate the impact of *Thb* deletion on triglyceride content. As expected, HFD 13 significantly increased hepatic lipid storage in WT mice (supplemental Fig. 1a). Regarding Thb^{-/-} mice, liver triglyceride content was also increased by the HFD to a further extent 14 15 compared to WT mice, yet the effect was not significantly different (p=0.07). The definitive 16 evidence that ThB was required for the maximal rate of peroxisomal fatty acid β -oxidation 17 came with the finding that the content of docosanoic acid (C22:0), tetracosanoic acid (C24:0) and possibly hexacosanoic acid (C26:0) was higher in liver samples of $Thb^{-/-}$ mice 18 19 (supplemental Figure 1b). Together, these data fit with the notion that ThB plays a 20 functional role in lipid handling.

21

3.5 *Thb^{-/-}* mice display increased plasma HDL-cholesterol (HDL-c) levels together with higher liver cholesterol content

To go further into the analysis of the *Thb* deficient mouse model, other plasma lipid parameters were assessed. Whatever the genotype and the feeding status, no significant 1 changes in circulating TG were found (Fig. 6a). In contrast, total cholesterol content was markedly elevated in the plasma of $Thb^{-/-}$ mice, fed the LFD or the HFD (Fig. 6d). Profiling 2 3 of lipoproteins using Fast Protein Liquid Chromatography analysis confirmed that plasma 4 TG was only modestly affected by the deletion of *Thb* (Fig. 6b and 6c). Lipoprotein profiles 5 obtained from animal fed the LFD or the HFD demonstrated that the plasma cholesterol was 6 found almost entirely as HDL (High Density Lipoproteins) cholesterol (HDL-c) in both 7 genotypes (Fig. 6d). In agreement, the increase in total plasma cholesterol previously 8 observed in $Thb^{-/-}$ mice was exclusively attributable to the HDL fractions (Fig. 6e and 6f).

9 In mammals, the liver plays a critical role in lipoprotein cholesterol metabolism and 10 hepatocytes can acquire cholesterol via the scavenger receptor class B, type I (SR-BI), that 11 mediates the selective cholesterol uptake from HDL. Consistent with cholesterol enrichment 12 of HDL particles that transport excess cholesterol from peripheral tissues back to the liver, the hepatic cholesterol content was significantly elevated in the liver of Thb^{-/-} mice. 13 14 especially under the HFD (Fig. 7a). These findings support the notion that ThB may play an 15 unexpected and indirect role in reverse cholesterol transport, and overall in cholesterol 16 homeostasis.

17

18 **3.6** Whole body cholesterol *de novo* biosynthesis is increased in *Thb*^{-/-} mice

It is worth noting that some authors have reported that plasma HDL-cholesterol would be related to cholesterol synthesis markers [44]. Furthermore, cumulative evidence in the literature points to a functional role of the peroxisome in cholesterol metabolism, which is consistent with the fact that part of the isoprenoid pathway is localized within the peroxisomal matrix [11, 25, 33, 45-49]. Therefore, to further establish without any ambiguity that ThB plays a functional in cholesterol homeostasis in mice, we evaluated plasma lathosterol to cholesterol ratio, a parameter that often serves as a surrogate marker for global cholesterol synthesis, because it correlates well with the cholesterol balance [50-52]. Unlike cholesterol, the pool of lathosterol is small and turns over rapidly, making lathosterol an analyte of choice [53]. As shown in Fig. 7b, lathosterol concentration and lathosterol to cholesterol ratio were significantly elevated in plasma samples of $Thb^{-/-}$ mice fed either the LFD or the HFD, indicating enhanced whole body cholesterol biosynthesis.

6

3.7 *De novo* cholesterol biosynthesis in liver and intestine cannot account for by the elevated cholesterol concentration in the plasma of *Thb^{-/-}* mice.

9 Liver and small intestine are major organs for cholesterol homeostasis and HDL-cholesterol 10 metabolism. In the mouse, *Thb* is expressed at a much higher level in liver than in intestine 11 where mRNAs for *Thb* are barely detectable [4, 15]. We therefore first examined hepatic cholesterol metabolism in WT mice and $Thb^{-/-}$ mice, fed either the LFD or the HFD. 12 Increased hepatic content of cholesterol in $Thb^{-/-}$ mice could be normally associated with 13 14 reduced expression of cholesterol metabolism associated genes, as a common negative 15 feedback process. To verify whether this was the case, we used RT-qPCR to quantify the 16 steady-state expression level of two highly critical genes for cholesterol biosynthesis, i.e. 17 Hmg-CoA synthase and Hmg-CoA reductase (the rate-limiting enzyme in cholesterol biosynthesis) in the liver of WT mice and $Thb^{-/-}$ mice fed the LFD or the HFD. Even if it did 18 19 not reach statistical significance, the absence of Thb tend to decrease the mRNA levels of 20 Hmg-CoA synthase (Fig. 7c). In parallel, the deletion of Thb had no consequence on the 21 mRNA levels of *Hmg-CoA reductase* and HFD induced a similar decrease in hepatic *Hmg-*22 CoA reductase mRNA levels (Fig. 7c). Western blotting experiment confirmed this 23 observation at the level of HMG-CoA reductase protein (data not shown). Importantly, the 24 mRNA levels of downstream genes of Hmg-CoA synthase and Hmg-CoA reductase such as 25 *Pmvk*, *Mvd*, *Idi1*, *Fdps*, *Fdft1* (mevalonate pathway) or *Sqle* (squalene pathway) and *Cvp51*, 1 Sc5d, Dhcr7, Nsdhl (lanosterol pathway) were all coordinately decreased in the liver of Thb⁻ 2 $^{/-}$ mice fed the LFD (supplemental table and data not shown). Because the HFD *per se* 3 strongly decreases the mRNA levels of the abovementioned genes, we failed to observe 4 exacerbated decrease of this array of genes in Thb^{-/-} mice fed this particular regimen, 5 compared to WT control mice (supplemental table and data not shown). Last, the hepatic 6 mRNA expression level of Srebp2, the transcription factor regulating the cholesterol 7 biosynthesis pathway, was also decreased in Thb^{-/-} mice fed the LFD.

8 While this is not a definitive proof, the gene expression analysis observed here globally 9 supports the hypothesis that cholesterol biosynthesis in the liver probably does not massively account for by the elevated cholesterol concentration in the plasma of $Thb^{-/-}$ mice. 10 11 As previously recall, the small intestine is an important site for the synthesis and secretion of 12 the Apo-AI protein, the principal apoprotein of HDL. In agreement, about 50% of total 13 plasma Apo-AI protein comes from the intestine [54]. Therefore, in view of the elevated plasma HDL cholesterol levels observed in Thb--- mice, it could be reasoned that this 14 15 metabolism is modulated in the small intestine. However, RT-qPCR experiments do not 16 support this hypothesis because none of the following genes (Abca1, Apo-aI, Apo-aII, Sr-bI) 17 were dysregulated by the deletion of *Thb* (data not shown). The same was also true for the 18 jejunal expression of Hmg-CoA synthase, Hmg-CoA reductase, Abcg5 and Abcg8 genes 19 suggesting that elevated jejunal *de novo* biosynthesis of cholesterol cannot account for by the elevated whole body cholesterol metabolism observed in $Thb^{-/-}$ mice (data not shown). 20

21

3.8 *Thb^{-/-}* mice display increased mRNA levels of some bile acid synthesizing genes as well as elevated content of some bile acids

Excess cholesterol can be toxic in the liver where it may contribute to non-alcoholic fatty liver disease. As part of the physiologic response to the relative cholesterol enrichment

observed in the liver of *Thb*^{-/-} mice, mRNA expression levels of *Cyp7a1* (cytochrome P450, 1 2 family 7, subfamily A, polypeptide 1; CYP7A1 is the rate limiting step in the classical 3 pathway of bile acid biosynthesis), Cyp39a1 (cytochrome P450, family 39, subfamily A, 4 polypeptide 1; CYP39A1 is involved in bile acid hydroxylation) and Akr1d1 (aldo-keto 5 reductase, family 1, member d1; AKR1D1 has a crucial role in synthesis of primary bile acids) were significantly higher in the livers of $Thb^{-/-}$ mice fed the LFD or the HFD (Fig. 6 7 7d). Hence, synthesis and perhaps secretion of bile acids, which constitutes a major route for elimination of excess cholesterol from the liver, might be increased in the liver of Thb^{-/-} 8 9 mice. To verify whether this up-regulation of mRNA levels of bile acid synthesizing genes 10 was functionally translated, the content of some bile acid species in mice was evaluated in WT and $Thb^{-/-}$ mice. As illustrated Fig.7e, deletion of Thb was associated with a significant 11 12 increase in cholic acid (CA, 3α , 7α , 12α -trihydroxy-5\beta-cholanoic acid) and deoxycholic acid 13 ((DCA, (3a, 5b, 12a, 20R)- 3, 12- dihydroxycholan- 24- oic acid)) when mice are fed the 14 LFD, suggesting the increased conversion of cholesterol into bile acids. The same picture 15 was also present under the HFD but did not reach statistical significance. The gene 16 expression level of Abcg5 and Abcg8 (Abcg: ATP-binding cassette, subfamily G; two ABC 17 half-transporters that work cooperatively in the biliary excretion of sterols into the canaliculus) was significantly increased in hepatic samples of $Thb^{-/-}$ mice compared to WT 18 19 control mice (Fig. 7f and supplemental table).

Together, these findings support the concept of a compensatory hepatic up-regulation of bile acid synthesizing enzymes as well as of transporters (that mediate active efflux of cholesterol) in the liver of $Thb^{-/-}$ mice.

23

24 **3.9** Cholesterol *de novo* biosynthesis is increased in the kidney of *Thb*^{-/-} mice

1 Given that in addition to the liver, peroxisomes are abundantly present in the kidney where 2 both the *Thb* gene is well expressed and the ThB protein localized, we sought for evidence that cholesterol *de novo* biosynthesis could be increased in the kidney of $Thb^{-/-}$ mice [4, 55]. 3 4 Importantly, lathosterol content and lathosterol to cholesterol ratio were significantly elevated in kidney samples of $Thb^{-/-}$ mice, indicating enhanced in situ cholesterol 5 6 biosynthesis (Fig. 8a and Fig. 8b). However, renal cholesterol content was not different 7 between the two genotypes (Fig. 8c). This last observation suggests that excess production of cholesterol by the kidney in $Thb^{-/-}$ mice may be directly delivered into the bloodstream, 8 9 where it could perhaps be further associated with circulating HDL lipoproteins. The increase in renal lathosterol to cholesterol ratio observed in $Thb^{-/-}$ mice was supported by the parallel 10 11 increase expression of Hmg-CoA synthase, Fdpps and Srebp2 in the kidney (Fig. 8d). 12 Finally, western-blotting experiment confirmed the enrichment in the nuclear and active 13 form of the transcription factor SREBP-2, a master transcriptional regulator of cholesterol 14 biosynthetic genes (Fig. 8e).

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17 **4. Discussion**18

It was previously reported that peroxisomal β -oxidation of fat was enhanced during the 19 course of diet-induced obesity [27, 28]. The authors have proposed that elevated 20 21 peroxisomal β-oxidation would contribute to the resistance of diet-induced hepatic steatosis 22 and obesity. In light of this finding, the initial goal of this study was to evaluate the 23 consequences of *Thb* deletion in mice chronically fed a HFD. Unexpectedly, our data first 24 establish a critical role for ThB in the control of body growth, under baseline conditions. 25 The reduced body mass and size probably account for by the marked reduction in the circulating levels of GH and IGF-I in 7-weeks-old $Thb^{-/-}$ mice, because circulating levels of 26 27 IGF-1 regulate bone growth and density [56]. Further studies using dual-emission X-ray

1 absorptiometry (DEXA)-scan analysis of whole-body are deserved to assess for potential changes in bone mineral content, bone density and bone size in $Thb^{-/-}$ mice. Altered 2 biodisponibility of the remaining 66% IGF-I in 7-weeks-old $Thb^{-/-}$ mice is unlikely because 3 4 circulating IGFBP-3 levels and liver *Igfbp-3* mRNA levels were unaltered (data not shown). 5 Here, it should be acknowledged that the deletion of the closely related gene Scpx thiolase 6 did not reveal any body growth impairment [8]. However, post-natal growth retardation has 7 been previously reported for other mouse models deficient for the peroxisomal enzymes 8 such as ACOX1 and MFP2 [57, 58]. The mechanism of body growth retardation in Acox1^{-/-} and $Mfp2^{-/-}$ mutant mice remains largely speculative and was not elucidated at the moment. 9 10 Therefore, one of the future challenges will be to delineate the exact cause(s) responsible for the body growth restriction observed in $Thb^{-/-}$ mice. Also more extensive analyses that aim 11 at determining if the systemic infusion of recombinant GH or IGF-I could correct the 12 defective growth of $Thb^{-/-}$ mice have to be envisioned. It should be acknowledged here that 13 the reduction of global body weight in $Thb^{-/-}$ mice is probably not due to a reduction in 14 energy intake because corrected energy intake to body mass is higher in Thb^{-/-} mice fed the 15 16 LFD or the HFD. However, we cannot rule out at this point that growth retardation is caused 17 by intestine malabsorption.

Strikingly, our studies indicate that $Thb^{-/-}$ mice are protected from HFD-induced expansion 18 of epididymal adipose tissue, the most commonly used fat depot in mouse studies, which 19 20 likely reflects differences in overall adiposity [40]. An important question is why there is an apparent limit to the expansion of adipose tissue in $Thb^{-/-}$ mice fed the HFD, despite 21 22 increased (corrected) energy intake. Total body composition analysis by quantitative nuclear 23 magnetic resonance and determination of whole body metabolic activity as well as fuel 24 preference should provide the first clues. It is also conceivable that the reduced adiposity in Thb^{-/-} mice stems from increased energy expenditure arising from physical activity or 25

1 changes in the ratio between lipogenesis and lipolysis/ β -oxidation. It is also possible that the 2 mobilization of fat stores, which occurs predominantly through the hydrolysis of 3 triglycerides into glycerol and fatty acids, is increased in *Thb*^{-/-} mice. However, this latter 4 hypothesis is unlikely because plasma free fatty acids and glycerol levels were not 5 differently affected by the deletion of *Thb* (figure 9).

6 Our results also support the notion that ThB is involved in glucose homeostasis because Thb⁻ ^{/-} mice fed either the LFD or the HFD display hypoglycaemia in fed and after a short-term 7 8 (5h) fasting period. This finding is exciting because i) this is the first report showing that a 9 peroxisomal defect in mice is associated with a marked hypoglycemia that takes place not 10 only after a short-term food deprivation but also in the fed state, ii) it definitively provides 11 evidence that despite their high amino acid sequence homology and high overlap in substrate 12 specificity, ThA and ThB isoforms do not drive the same in vivo functions in mice [7]. Of note, only a moderate diminution in glucose plasma level (that did not reach statistical 13 significance) was observed in $Scp2/Scpx^{-/-}$ mice, when kept under standard laboratory 14 conditions [8]. Whether similar conclusions would have been drawn with $Scp2^{-/-}$ mice fed 15 the HFD remains an unresolved issue at present. Regarding the $Acox1^{-/-}$ and the $Mfp2^{-/-}$ 16 17 mouse models, it was reported that insulin and glucose levels were normal, both in fed and 18 fasted conditions [33, 59]. The question arises how the lack of the peroxisomal ThB enzyme 19 leads to hypoglycemia? At present, the underlying molecular mechanisms are far to be understood but it may be hypothesized that the hypoglycemia observed in $Thb^{-/-}$ mice is the 20 21 consequence of the hormonal and metabolic perturbations that include reduced circulating 22 levels of insulin and hepatic glycogen stores. One possibility is that *Thb* deficiency leads to 23 enhanced hepatic insulin signaling resulting in the suppression of gluconeogenesis and 24 enhanced glycolysis. However, this scenario is rather unlikely because glucose production 25 by the liver (gluconeogenesis) in the fed state is relatively minor and plasma glucose is

1 primarily derived from ingestion of nutrients. If we adhere to the notion that glycolysis would be enhanced in $Thb^{-/-}$ mice, it also implies that glucose oxidation, and in turn the 2 derived pool of pyruvate/acetyl-CoA, are higher providing more substrates for the 3 4 subsequent enzymatic reactions of the Kreb's cycle. However, the experimental backing of 5 this claim is weak because the mitochondrial succinate dehydrogenase activity and the mitochondrial oxidation rate of palmitoyl-CoA were similar in WT mice and in Thb^{-/-} mice 6 7 (data not shown). Despite this, we cannot rule out that the absence of ThB causes a higher 8 flux of pyruvate towards the Kreb's cycle, explaining at least in part, the hypoglycemia observed in $Thb^{-/-}$ mice. Intriguingly, compared to WT mice, $Thb^{-/-}$ mice fed the LFD display 9 10 similar fat pads mass supporting the notion that ThB may have some functions in glucose 11 metabolism that could be independent of the degree of fat expansion.

During the first hours of fasting, hepatic glycogenolysis normally provides most of the circulating blood glucose. Therefore, the steeper drop in blood glucose observed in $Thb^{-/-}$ mice during early (5h) fasting probably reflects the reduced glycogen reserve and/or an impaired liberation of glucose. After 18h and 24h of fasting, blood glucose concentrations were similar in WT mice and in $Thb^{-/-}$ mice reinforcing the notion that gluconeogenesis is likely not responsible for the hypoglycemia observed in fed and short-term fasted $Thb^{-/-}$ mice.

19 $Thb^{-/-}$ mice display heightened response to exogenous insulin administration when placed on 20 the HFD, which might explain at least in part, their concomitant hypoglycaemia. $Thb^{-/-}$ mice 21 seems to be more sensitive to insulin than WT mice but the definitive evidence would imply 22 further *in vivo* experiments that aim at calculating both the percentage stimulation of whole-23 body glucose utilization and the percentage inhibition of hepatic glucose output by insulin. 24 Future investigations that aim at characterizing the metabolic phenotype of the $Thb^{-/-}$ mice 25 under a synthetic diet will also require the determination of the relative contribution of each 1 insulin target tissue in the observed hypoglycaemia.

2 Higher glucose utilization due to an impaired mitochondrial FAO in the skeletal muscle 3 could theoretically explain part of the reduction in circulating blood glucose. It was recently 4 reported by Derks and colleagues that inhibition of mitochondrial FAO in vivo slightly 5 suppresses gluconeogenesis but instead enhances clearance of glucose in mice [60]. In our 6 mouse model of global deletion of Thb, liver mitochondrial oxidation of palmitate (C16:0) 7 and plasma levels of β -hydroxybutyrate were similar as compared to WT mice (data not 8 shown). These results suggest that Thb deletion does not massively reverberate on 9 mitochondrial oxidative functions at least in the liver, but whether the same may also apply 10 to the muscle remains to be established. Therefore, increased glucose consumption by the muscle remains a plausible explanation for the hypoglycemia observed in $Thb^{-/-}$ mice. 11

12 Similar to previous studies performed by others with mice carrying a single deletion of a 13 peroxisomal enzyme, our data point to the notion that cholesterol metabolism is altered in Thb^{-/-} mice [11, 25, 33, 45-49]. However, it was also recently reported that cholesterol 14 synthesis is not altered in peroxisome deficient hepatocytes of liver Pex5^{-/-} mice, casting 15 16 doubts on the real impact of the peroxisome in hepatic cholesterogenesis. Our results strenghten the notion that peroxisome is functionally involved in de novo biosynthesis of 17 18 cholesterol, as well as in plasma HDL cholesterol metabolism. Interestingly, and in constrast 19 to what we observed for the deletion of *Thb*, the deficiency of peroxisomes as the result of 20 the Pex2 gene knockout was shown to lead to decreased HMG-CoA reductase activity and 21 cholesterol biosynthesis in the kidney [47]. It demonstrates that the cholesterol homeostatic 22 response within a tissue differs according to the identity and function of the peroxisomal gene targeted. At the moment, it is unclear to us why HDL cholesterol was increased in the 23 plasma of $Thb^{-/-}$ mice. It should be stressed that we found increased Apo-AI protein content 24 in the plasma HDL fraction in $Thb^{-/-}$ mice, pointing toward an increase in the number of 25

1 HDL particles (unpublished data). In addition to a larger number of circulating HDL particles, it is also possible that $Thb^{-/-}$ mice display higher content of cholesterol in these 2 3 HDL particles. From a mechanistic view, it can be expected some changes in hepatic 4 lipoprotein synthesis and/or receptor-mediated lipoprotein cholesterol clearance following 5 the deletion of Thb. However, this aspect remains to be firmly established because Thb 6 deficiency did not change the steady-state mRNA expression level of liver Sr-bI, a cognate 7 receptor for HDL in the liver, or that of Apo-aI, the major ligand for SR-BI (supplemental 8 Table).

9 Even if we cannot rule out differences in intestinal absorption rates between WT mice and Thb^{-/-} mice, it is likely that the increase in cholesterol synthesis is the larger factor 10 11 contributing to elevated plasma total cholesterol levels given the small amount of cholesterol 12 especially in the LFD (< 0,002%), and in the HFD (to some extent, $\approx 0.015\%$) used in the 13 present study. Supporting this notion, others have previously reported that in mice fed a 14 standard rodent chow containing relatively little cholesterol, the requirement in cholesterol 15 is achieved primarily through *de novo* biosynthesis [61]. Future studies should be directed at 16 investigating the consequence of Thb deficiency when mice are fed chow alone or 17 supplemented with 2% cholesterol.

Lathosterol content is higher in plasma and kidney in $Thb^{-/-}$ mice, a phenotype reminiscent 18 19 of what is observed in mice deficient for the Sc5d (lathosterol-5-desaturase) gene [62]. 20 Consistent with this observation, the hypothesis by which SC5D activity (the enzyme that 21 catalyzes the conversion of lathosterol to 7-hydroxycholesterol in the next to last step of cholesterol synthesis) could be reduced in $Thb^{-/-}$ mice becomes plausible. However, although 22 23 mice deficient in the Sc5d gene displayed elevated lathosterol levels compared to WT 24 control mice, a parallel decrease in plasma and liver cholesterol levels is observed, which is not the case for $Thb^{-/-}$ mice [62]. Therefore, it is unlikely that this postulated mechanism 25

1 could explain the hypercholesterolemia present in $Thb^{-/-}$ mice.

Importantly, active synthesis of cholesterol by the kidney has been previously noted by others especially under a cholesterol-free diet which is close to the LFD used in the present study, leading to a level accounting for over 50% of the total renal cholesterol [63]. However, because the synthesis by the kidney of the Apo-AI protein is unlikely, it reasonably raises the question to what extent the local increased synthesis of cholesterol is involved in the elevated HDL-cholesterol plasma content observed in *Thb*^{-/-} mice [64].

What is also puzzling is that in a previous study using $Thb^{-/-}$ mice (on the same genetic 8 9 background, Sv129) routinely fed the standard commercial pellet diet UAR A03-10 (SAFE), we did not find any changes in plasma lathosterol to cholesterol ratio between WT 10 mice and $Thb^{-/-}$ mice [25]. While the exact reason for this discrepancy remains odd at the 11 12 moment, the quality of the long-chain fatty acids present in the diet, which is presumably 13 different from the synthetic LFD and HFD used in the present study, together with the 14 cholesterol/oxysterol content that likely differs, may play a prominent role in the observed 15 phenotype.

16 From a biochemical point of view, ThB catalyzes the last step of the β -oxidation pathway, 17 i.e., the conversion of 3-ketoacyl-CoA into shorter acyl-CoA (by two carbon atoms) together 18 with acetyl-CoA. Only limited information concerning the substrate specificity of ThB is 19 available at present. Mature form of ThA and ThB differing only in several amino acids, it 20 came with no surprise that both enzymes equally react with medium and long-straight chain 21 3-oxoacyl-CoAs [7, 65]. However, given the different traits of the phenotype observed in Thb^{-/-} mice, it becomes clear that ACCA1a (ThA) and ACCA1b (ThB) isoforms are not fully 22 23 interchangeable. Others have previously reported that acetyl-CoA derived from the 24 peroxisomal β-oxidation of very long-chain fatty acids and medium-chain dicarboxylic acids 25 would be preferentially channeled to cholesterol synthesis inside the peroxisomes, without

1 mixing with the cytosolic acetyl-CoA pool [11, 46, 66]. However, the picture is far from 2 complete because it was also argued that peroxisomal β -oxidation of (very) long-chain fatty 3 acids supplies acetyl-CoA to the cytosol [67]. Here, we found that the single deletion of *Thb* was leading to higher C22:0, C24:0 and possibly C26:0 content in the liver of *Thb*^{-/-} mice, as 4 5 a consequence of the probable reduced peroxisomal β -oxidation pathway. Whatever is the 6 metabolic fate of the peroxisomal pool of acetyl-CoA, the single deletion of Thb may 7 concurrently lead to its lower availability. One would thereby expect reduced de novo cholesterol synthesis in the peroxisome and/or in the cytosol of (kidney) cells in $Thb^{-/-}$ mice. 8 9 However, our results do not support this hypothesis because whole body synthesis of cholesterol was enhanced in *Thb*^{-/-} mice fed the LFD or the HFD. Future investigations 10 11 employing mice with targeted disruption of the *Thb* gene in the liver or in the kidney should 12 help to precise the respective role of *Thb* in local cholesterol homeostasis in vivo.

Besides conversion of cholesterol into bile salts, the liver also disposes of plasma cholesterol by secretion into bile unmodified. Consistent with the upregulation of the Abcg5/Abcg8 canalicular cholesterol transporters in the liver of $Thb^{-/-}$ mice, the rate of biliary cholesterol secretion might be increased in response to the accumulation of liver cholesterol. However, proof of this concept will require future investigations that are beyond the scope of the present study.

19 Collectively, our data support the concept that ThB plays a role in hepatic cholesterol and 20 lipoprotein metabolism in mice and opens the road to future investigations regarding bile 21 acid and glucose metabolism.

In conclusion, the $Thb^{-/-}$ mouse model used in this study demonstrates that the peroxisome could play a more important role than solely regulating very-long chain fatty acid β oxidation. In particular, our data suggest that regulating the activity of ThB *in vivo* in mice, may provide an additional route for the therapeutic correction of disorders affecting plasma
 cholesterol and glucose levels.

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Figure 1. Growth restriction and reduced plasma IGF-I and GH levels in *Thb*^{-/-} mice 5 (a) Body mass and (b) body length of WT mice (white bars, n=27) and $Thb^{-/-}$ mice (gray 6 bars, n=19) throughout week 4 till week 50 of life. (c) Plasma GH concentration in WT mice 7 (n=18) and $Thb^{-/-}$ mice (n=16) aged of 1 month and half. (d) Plasma IGF-I concentration in 8 WT mice (n=16) and $Thb^{-/-}$ mice (n=18) aged of 1 month and half. (e) Plasma IGFBP-3 9 concentration in WT mice (n=18) and $Thb^{-/-}$ mice (n=16) aged of 1 month and half. (f) Igf-1 10 11 mRNA expression in the liver, brown adipose tissue (BAT), white adipose tissue (WAT) and gastrocnemius of WT mice (n=9) and $Thb^{-/-}$ mice (n=11) as determined by RT-qPCR. 12 Error bars represent \pm SEM. Differences between WT mice and $Thb^{-/-}$ mice were evaluated 13 using the Student's t-test (GraphPad Prism 3 software, San Diego, CA). * p<0.05, ** p<0.01; 14 15 *** p<0.001.

16

17 Figure 2. LFD and HFD feeding of WT mice and *Thb^{-/-}* mice

a) Evolution of body weight during the experimental feeding. Mice were weighed twice a week. Data were expressed as mean \pm SEM (n=9 to n=12 per group) b) Area Under the Curve calculated from the evolution in body mass presented in a) c) Graph shows mean body mass of WT mice and *Thb*^{-/-} mice fed the HFD or the LFD for 150-days. d) Body mass changes (expressed in %) of mice are determined by comparing body mass values at the beginning of the diet intervention and after the LFD or the HFD intervention. The Student's t-test was used to compare the results obtained between two different groups of mice with GraphPad Prism 3 software (San Diego, CA). * p<0.05, ** p<0.01; *** p<0.001, LFD: low-
 fat diet; HFD: high-fat diet.

3

4 Figure 3. *Thb^{-/-}* mice are protected from HFD-induced adipocyte hypertrophy

5 a) Subcutaneous and b) epididymal and brown adipose tissues weights as a percentage of 6 body weight c) representative light micrographs (magnification 20x) of epididymal fat pads 7 d) adipocytes were counted from eight-to-ten randomly selected fields for each fat 8 epididymal pads (left part); quantification of adipocyte size using software analysis (right 9 part) e) free fatty acids and f) plasma glycerol in the four experimental groups of mice (n=8 10 to n=11 per group) that were fasted for 5h (starting at 5 am). Data were expressed as mean \pm 11 SEM. The Student's t-test was used to compare the results obtained between two different 12 groups of mice (GraphPad Prism 3 software, San Diego, CA). * p<0.05, ** p<0.01; *** 13 p<0.001, LFD: low-fat diet; HFD: high-fat diet.

14

Figure 4. *Thb^{-/-}* mice display hypoglycemia as the consequence of better insulin sensitivity

a) Insulin sensitivity test was performed in 5-h-fasted WT mice and $Thb^{-/-}$ mice previously 17 18 fed the LFD or the HFD; note that plasma glucose was significantly less in HFD-KO mice 19 compared to HFD-WT mice at time T=20 min and T=40 min b) AUC, area under curves of 20 glucose response expressed as arbitrary units (a.u), c) Plasma glucose in WT and KO mice 21 fed the LFD or the HFD d) plasma glucose in WT and KO mice fed the LFD or the HFD 22 fasted for 0, 5, 18, and 24h; note that plasma glucose level was significantly less in KO 23 mice compared to WT mice (both LFD and HFD) at time T=0 and T=5h of fasting e) Endogenous plasma insulin levels in (fed) WT and Thb^{-/-} mice, f) Glycogen content in 24 muscle of WT mice and $Thb^{-/-}$ mice, (WT LFD, n= 12; WT HFD, n=10; KO LFD, n= 8; KO 25

HFD, n= 8). Values are means ± SEM. The Student's t-test was used to compare the results
obtained between two different groups of mice (GraphPad Prism 3 software, San Diego,
CA). * p<0.05, ** p<0.01; *** p<0.001, LFD: low-fat diet; HFD: high-fat diet. KO = *Thb^{-/-}*.

6

Figure 5. Hepatic glycogen content in WT mice and *Thb^{-/-}* mice previously fed the LFD
or the HFD.

Hepatic glycogen content was determined as described under "Materials and Methods". a) 9 liver glycogen content in WT mice and *Thb*^{-/-} mice normally fed (*ad libitum*) the LFD or the 10 11 HFD. Sacrifice was performed between 10 and 11 am b) Relative liver glycogen synthase-2 (Gys2) mRNA levels in WT mice and $Thb^{-/-}$ mice, as measured by RT-qPCR. Values were 12 expressed as fold-change as compared to WT mice fed LFD arbitrarily set at 1.0. (WT LFD, 13 14 n= 10; WT HFD, n=9; KO LFD, n= 8; KO HFD, n= 9). Values are means ± SEM. The 15 Student's t-test was used to compare the results obtained between two different groups of mice (GraphPad Prism 3 software, San Diego, CA). * p<0.05, ** p<0.01; *** p<0.001, 16 LFD: low-fat diet: HFD: high-fat diet. KO = $Thb^{-/-}$. 17

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19 Figure 6. Plasma HDL-cholesterol levels is elevated in $Thb^{-/-}$ mice.

a) Plasma triglyceride and d) plasma cholesterol content was determined in EDTA plasma of WT mice and $Thb^{-/-}$ mice fed the LFD or the HFD. b-c) Fast-protein liquid chromatography analysis of plasma triglyceride or e-f) cholesterol of WT mice and $Thb^{-/-}$ mice fed the LFD or the HFD. 0,2 ml of individual mouse plasma sample was passed through a Superose 6-HR column and total triglyceride and cholesterol content of individual fractions was determined

1	by an enzymatic method, as described in Materials and Methods. Each point is the mean \pm
2	SEM. (WT LFD, n=12; KO LFD, n=8; WT HFD, n=11; KO HFD, n=10). The
3	corresponding legend for the different circles is indicated in the figure. KO = $Thb^{-/-}$. LFD:
4	low-fat diet; HFD: high-fat diet.
5	
6	
7	
8	Figure 7. Whole body cholesterol synthesis as well as hepatic cholesterol efflux and bile
9	acid synthesis are increased in <i>Thb</i> ^{-/-} mice.
10	a) Hepatic cholesterol concentration, b) Plasma lathosterol concentration and plasma
11	lathosterol to cholesterol ratio, c) mRNA expression of 3-hydroxy-3-methylglutaryl-
12	Coenzyme A synthase-1 (Hmg-Coa synthase) and 3-hydroxy-3-methylglutaryl-Coenzyme A
13	reductase (Hmg-Coa reductase), d) mRNA expression of cholesterol-7-alpha hydroxylase
14	(Cyp7a1), cholesterol-17-alpha hydroxylase (CYP17a1) and aldo-keto reductase family 1,
15	member D1 (Akr1d1) in the liver of WT mice and $Thb^{-/-}$ mice fed the LFD or the HFD, e)
16	Hepatic content of cholic acid (CA) and deoxycholic acid (DCA), e) mRNA expression of
17	the ATP-binding cassette sub-family G member 5 (Abcg5) and ATP-binding cassette sub-
18	family G member 8 (Abcg8) in the liver of WT mice and $Thb^{-/-}$ mice fed the LFD or the
19	HFD. (WT LFD, n= 12; WT HFD, n=12; KO LFD, n= 9; KO HFD, n= 8). Values were
20	expressed as fold-change as compared to WT mice fed LFD arbitrarily set at 1.0. The
21	Student's t-test was used to compare the results obtained between two different groups of
22	mice (GraphPad Prism 3 software, San Diego, CA). * p<0.05, ** p<0.01; *** p<0.001,
23	LFD: low-fat diet; HFD: high-fat diet. $KO = Thb^{-/-}$.

Figure 8. The higher lathosterol to cholesterol ratio is accompanied by the upregulation of cholesterol synthesizing genes in the kidney of *Thb^{-/-}* mice.

3 a) Kidney lathosterol concentration, b) Kidney lathosterol to cholesterol ratio, c) Kidney 4 cholesterol content, d) mRNA expression of 3-hydroxy-3-methylglutaryl-Coenzyme A 5 synthase-1 (Hmg-Coa synthase), farnesyl di-phosphate synthase (Fdpps) and Sterol Regulatory Element-Binding Protein-2 (Srebp-2) in the kidney, e) Nuclear protein extracts 6 pooled from kidneys of WT mice and $Thb^{-/-}$ mice fed the LFD or the HFD, were analyzed by 7 Western blotting for the abundance of the mature form of the transcription factor SREBP-2. 8 9 Histone H1 was used for normalization of nuclear proteins. Quantification of bands relative 10 to histone H1 is given under the picture corresponding to the blot of SREBP-2, nSREBP-2: 11 nuclear SREBP-2. Ten to twelve mice were used per group. Values were expressed as fold-12 change as compared to WT mice fed LFD arbitrarily set at 1.0. The Student's t-test was used 13 to compare the results obtained between two different groups of mice (GraphPad Prism 3 software, San Diego, CA). * p<0.05, ** p<0.01; *** p<0.001, LFD: low-fat diet; HFD: 14 high-fat diet. $KO = Thb^{-/-}$. 15

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17 Figure 9: ThB is involved in cholesterol and bile acid metabolism and plays a 18 prominent role in glucose homeostasis in mouse. The important metabolic alterations 19 observed in mice deficient for Thb fed a LFD or a HFD for 5 months are summarized and 20 depicted. ThB: Thiolase B; SREBP2: sterol regulatory element-binding protein-2; Abcg: 21 ATP-binding cassette, subfamily G; Cyp7a1: cytochrome P450, family 7, subfamily A, 22 polypeptide 1; *Cyp39a1*: cytochrome P450, family 39, subfamily A, polypeptide 1; *Akr1d1*: 23 aldo-keto reductase, family 1, member d1; CA: cholic acid, DCA: deoxycholic acid; \uparrow : 24 increased; \downarrow : decreased; \rightarrow : unchanged. Note that body weight and growth are also affected 25 by the deletion of *Thb* in mice fed a normal laboratory chow.

2 **Table 1:** Composition of diets used in the present study.

3

4 **Supplemental Table:**

Microarray analysis was performed on individual liver mRNA samples (n = 4 per group)
comparing the gene expression signals induced by the deletion of *Thb* in mice fed the LFD
or the HFD. Column C-F: Expression in WT mice fed the LFD was arbitrarily set at 1.0.
Changes in gene expression are expressed as fold-changes in comparison with WT mice fed
the LFD. LFD: low-fat diet; HFD: high-fat diet.

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11

12 Supplemental Figure 1:

a) Food intake (expressed as g/week/mouse) of the four experimental groups (n=9 to n=12
per group) b) Energy intake (expressed as kcal/week/mouse) of the four experimental groups
(n=9 to n=12 per group) c) Energy intake corrected for body weight (expressed as
kcal/week/g of body weight). The Student's t-test was used to compare the results obtained
between two different groups of mice with GraphPad Prism 3 software (San Diego, CA). *
p<0.05, ** p<0.01; *** p<0.001, LFD: low-fat diet; HFD: high-fat diet.

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20 Supplemental Figure 2:

a) Liver triglyceride content was evaluated using gas-chromatography in WT mice and $Thb^{-/-}$ mice at the end of the intervention diet (n=7 for each condition). b) Liver content of docosanoic acid (C22:0), tetracosanoic acid (C24:0) and hexacosanoic acid (C26:0) in WT mice and $Thb^{-/-}$ mice fed the LFD or the HFD, (WT LFD, n= 11; WT HFD, n=4; KO LFD, n= 7; KO HFD, n= 6). Errors bars represent ± S.E.M. Significant effects were observed
using the Student's t-test. * p<0.05, ** p<0.01; LFD: low-fat diet; HFD: high-fat diet.

3

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NICOLAS-FRANCES et al., Fig. 1















NICOLAS-FRANCES et al., Fig. 5









е

(ng/mg of liver)

20

15

10

5

0

CA

+<u>/+ -/-</u> +<u>/+ -/-</u>

LFD

HFD

**

Cyp39a1



DCA

+<u>/+ -/-</u>+/<u>+ -/-</u>

LFD

p=0,08

HFD



f

liver RNA (%)

2.0

1.5







8





	D12450B (LFD)	D12451 (HFD)	
Protein (g/100g)	19.2	24.0	
Carbohydrate (g/100g)	67.3	41.0	
Starch	29.9	8.5	
Sucrose	33.2	20.1	
Fat (g/100g)	4.3	24.0	
ingredient (g)			
Lard	20.0	177.5	
C14, Myristic	0.2	1.6	
C14:1, Myristoleic	0.1	0.9	
C16, Palmitic	7.2	43.2	
C16:1, Palmitoleic	0.8	6.7	
C18, Stearic	3.6	24.6	
C18:1, Oleic	14.3	79.0	
C18:2, Linoleic	15.1	28.6	
C18:3, Linolenic	2.2	3.7	
C20:4, Arachidonic	0.3	3.0	
Total (g)			
saturated	11.0	69.4	
monounsaturated	15.2	86.7	
polyunsaturated	17.6	35.4	
Total (%)	05.4		
saturated	25.1	36.3	
polyunsaturated	42 0	18.5	
	12.0	10.0	
Cholesterol (%; w/w)	0.00136	0.01489	
Cholesterol (mg/kg)	13.6	148.9	
	NICOLAS-FRANCES et al., Table 1		

 $\begin{array}{c}
1 \\
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\end{array}$



Nicolas-Francès et al., supplemental Fig. 1



Nicolas-Francès et al., supplemental Fig. 2