

# Estrogen withdrawal and replacement differentially target liver and adipose tissues in 1 female mice fed a high-fat high-sucrose diet. Impact of a chronic exposure to a low-dose 2 pollutant mixture. 3 the French "Ministère de l'Education

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- 22 design, data collection and analysis, decision to publish, or preparation of the manuscript.
- 23 Key words: high-fat high-sucrose diet; mixture of pollutants; metabolic disorders;
- 24 ovariectomy; estradiol replacement;

## 25 Abbreviations:

- 26 ALAT, alanine aminotransferase ; ASAT, aspartate aminotransferase, AUC, area-under-
- 27 curve; BPA, bisphenol A; bw, body weight ; DEHP, diethylhexyl phthalate; DMSO,
- 28 dimethylsulfoxide; E2,  $17\beta$  estradiol; FFA, free fatty acid; GTT, glucose tolerance test;
- HFHS, high- fat high sucrose; PCB, polychlorinated biphenyl; TCDD, 2,3,7,8-
- 30 tetrachlorodibenzo-p-dioxin; TDI, Tolerable Daily Intake; TG, triglyceride.

#### 32 Abstract

Post-menopausal women may be at particular risk when exposed to chemicals especially 33 endocrine disruptors because of hormonal deficit. To get more insight, ovariectomized 34 C57Bl6/J mice fed a high-fat high-sucrose diet were chronically exposed from 5 to 20 weeks 35 of age to a low-dose mixture of chemicals with one dioxin, one polychlorobiphenyl, one 36 phthalate and bisphenol A. Part of the mice received as well E2 implants to explore the 37 potential estrogenic dependency of the metabolic alterations. With this model, estrogen loss 38 resulted in glucose but not lipid metabolism impairment and E2 replacement normalized the 39 enhanced body and fat pad weight, and the glucose intolerance and insulin resistance linked to 40 ovariectomy. It also altered cholesterol metabolism in the liver concurrently with enhanced 41 estrogen receptor Esr1 mRNA level. In addition, fat depots responded differently to estrogen 42 43 withdrawal (e.g., selective mRNA enhancement of adipogenesis markers in subcutaneous and of inflammation in visceral fat pads) and replacement challenges. Importantly, the pollutant 44 mixture impacted lipid deposition and mRNA expression of several genes related to lipid 45 metabolism but not *Esr1* in the liver. Adiponectin levels were altered as well. In addition, the 46 47 mRNA abundance of the various estrogen receptors was regionally impacted in fat tissues. Besides, xenobiotic processing genes did not change in response to the pollutant mixture, in 48 the liver. The present findings bring new light on estrogen-dependent metabolic alterations 49 with regards to situations of loss of estrogens as observed after menopause. 50

51

## 53 **Bullet points:**

- 54 Estrogens differentially impacted hepatic glucose and lipid metabolism in female mice
- 55 Estrogens differentially impacted visceral and subcutaneous fat depots
- 56 Exposure to pollutants altered lipid deposition in liver and adiponectin levels
- 57 Pollutants impacted E2-regulated gene mRNA levels in a tissue-dependent manner
- 58 Mixture contained pollutants at the tolerable daily intake dose

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### 61 **1. Introduction**

Obesity-related metabolic dysfunctions constitute a major problem in Public Health. Over 62 1.9 billion adults were overweight, of those 650 million were obese in 2016 placing them at 63 high risk for metabolic diseases including type 2 diabetes [1]. Risk of obesity is not equal 64 between males and females. Sex differences appeared as the population aged. In 2005, 16-65 66 17% of women vs 10-11% of men over 50 were obese [2]. Risk of obesity in females is associated with metabolic changes occurring during the menopausal transition characterized 67 by progressive reduction of ovarian estrogen production. According to different studies, the 68 prevalence of the metabolic syndrome which is a cluster of conditions of dyslipidemia, central 69 adiposity, hypertension, abnormal glucose metabolism and insulin resistance is enhanced 70 among postmenopausal women varying between 30 to 70% compared with 14-45% in 71 72 younger women [3] delineating the post-menopausal women as a vulnerable population.

Metabolic disorders are multifactorial diseases. Besides genetic predispositions and 73 imbalance between energy intake and expenditure, environmental pollutants have been 74 suggested to be etiologic factors as well, based on robust epidemiologic data and experimental 75 76 studies demonstrating changes in body weight and/or insulin resistance [4-7]. Environmental 77 pollutants may include persistent chemicals which bioaccumulate in the food chain. They are 78 especially present in fatty foods of animal origin (meat, milk, fish) and characterized by halflives of several years in humans, e.g. dioxins and polychlorobiphenyls [8]. Other pollutants 79 80 may have short half-lives e.g. phthalates and bisphenols. However, as these chemicals are massively used in plastic goods, the leaching from packaging causes contamination resulting 81 82 in a chronic exposure [9, 10]. Pollutants are under regulation by international risk assessment evaluation bodies (e.g., the European Food Safety Agency, EFSA). However, the cocktail 83 84 effect resulting from the chronic exposure to a myriad of chemicals originating from different sources (foods and beverages, air breathing, skin absorption of cosmetics) and to which the 85 human population is involuntary exposed is underappreciated [11-13]. Of striking importance 86 are chemicals identified for their ability to interfere with hormonal action, the so-called 87 endocrine disruptors [14]. Populations vulnerable because of hormonal deficits such as post-88 menopausal women may thus be at particular risk when exposed to these chemicals. It has 89 consistently been found that among a population of obese and post-menopausal women, 90 91 plasma levels of persistent organic pollutants (POPs) were associated with insulin resistance 92 [15].

The estrogeno-mimetic properties of endocrine disruptors are of particular concern. 93 Characterizing their mechanisms of actions could help to explain their deleterious impact on 94 95 the reproductive functions but also on metabolic disorders [10]. Indeed, it has been well 96 demonstrated that estrogens exert protective roles against metabolic diseases in addition to regulating reproductive functions. They are for instance known to positively regulate glucose 97 homeostasis and lipid metabolism favoring insulin sensitivity [5, 16-18]. All these beneficial 98 effects progressively disappear with menopause. Estrogens act through specific receptors 99 distributed centrally and peripherally including ER $\alpha$ , ER $\beta$  and the G-protein-coupled receptor 100 101 GPR30 which differ in abundance and tissue distribution in a sex-dependent manner [16, 19, 20]. Non-genomic actions of estrogens as well as cross-talk with various nuclear receptors 102 and/or transcription factors have also been evidenced [21, 22]. All these signaling pathways 103 result in pleiotropic actions of estrogens in the peripherally and metabolically active tissues 104 105 including the liver and the adipose tissues which express the estrogen receptors. Thus, these signaling pathways are potential targets for endocrine disruptors in a manner dependent on the 106 age, the sex and the tissue considered [4, 23, 24]. 107

108 We previously demonstrated that a mixture of low-dose pollutants made of dioxin, PCB, phthalate and bisphenol A (BPA) could interfere with estrogen signaling and trigger hepatic 109 insulin resistance and aggravation of glucose intolerance in female mice fed a high-fat high-110 sucrose diet [25]. In addition, mice fed a standard diet but exposed to the same mixture of 111 pollutants exhibited enhancement of hepatic triglycerides content and insulin resistance [26]. 112 The impact of this pollutant mixture depended on the age of the mice, with differences 113 occurring between mature and immature females [25, 27]. However, the metabolic impact of 114 the mixture of pollutants in conditions of hormonal deficit after ovariectomy to mimic 115 menopause and hormonal replacement using  $17\beta$  estradiol (E2) pellets implanted 116 subcutaneously, has not yet been explored. The purpose of the current study was to fill this 117 gap. After characterizing the metabolic phenotypes of liver, subcutaneous and visceral 118 119 adipose tissues in ovariectomized mice, we delineated the estrogenic component using hormonal replacement. 120

- 122 **2.** Materials and methods
- 123
- 124 2.1. Animals, diets and experimental design

A schematic view of the 3 experimental protocols is described in Supplemental Figure 1. 125 C57Bl/6 female mice (4-week-old) were purchased from Envigo laboratories (Gannat, 126 France), housed by 2 in polypropylene cages (to avoid BPA leaching from polycarbonate 127 128 cages) at 21°C with a normal light-dark cycle and free access to water (polypropylene bottles) and standard chow (LASvendi-16R; Soest, Germany). After one week of 129 acclimatization, mice of the experimental protocol 1 were fed a high fat-high sucrose (HF) 130 diet (from Envigo) containing (HFp) or not (HF0) a mixture of pollutants (see below for 131 the details). At 7 weeks of age, mice were sham-operated (HF0 sham) or underwent a 132 133 bilateral ovariectomy after general anesthesia, as previously described [28] followed by the implantation, under the neck skin, of Silastic implants filled either with vehicle (HF0 134 Ovx and HFp Ovx) or with 50µg of 17β-estradiol-3-benzoate, E2 (Sigma-Aldrich, Saint-135 Quentin Fallavier, France) in 30µl of sesame oil (HF0 Ovx+E2 and HFp Ovx+E2) as 136 137 described [29]. The implants were renewed at 13 weeks of age (8 weeks of diet) as the release of E2 was effective only 6 weeks based on body weight follow-up performed in a pilot 138 139 experiment (data not shown). In the course of the study, two other protocols were conducted to assess the individual effects of the HF diet and of the ovariectomy 140 (Supplemental Figure 1). All procedures were performed with the approval of the 141 Regional Committee of Ethics for Animal Experiments and the French Ministry for 142 Higher Education and Research. Body weight (for all protocols) and food intake (for 143 protocol 1) were recorded weekly throughout the protocol until mice were 20 weeks of 144 age. Validation of the surgery was assessed at the time of mouse euthanasia with the 145 observation of uterine atrophy in the Ovx females (measurement of uterus weight; 146 Supplemental Figure 2). Food intake measured in Protocol 1 did not change between 147 148 groups, regardless of treatments (data not shown).

The pollutant mixture was made of 2,3,7,8-tetrachlorodibenzo-p-dioxin (TCDD, CAS 149 n° 1746-01-6 from LGC-Promochem, Molsheim, France), polychlorinated biphenyl (PCB) 150 153 (CAS n°35065-27-1), bisphenol A (BPA, CAS n°80-05-7) and di-[2-ethylhexyl]-151 phthalate (DEHP, CAS n°117-81-7) (all three from Sigma-Aldrich). Each pollutant was 152 153 used at a dose close to its tolerable daily intake (TDI) reference dose of either the pollutant itself (DEHP, BPA) or representative congeners (TCDD, PCB153) [25]. 154 155 Pollutants were dissolved in dimethylsulfoxide (DMSO) and diluted in corn oil to facilitate uniform homogenization in the food and the making of pellets. Pollutant-free 156 157 diet contained identical volumes of DMSO and corn oil as the pollutant-containing food.

158 HF0 and HFp diets contained 63% fat, 23.6% carbohydrate and 13.4% protein in kcal, as 159 detailed previously [26]. To globally ensure the daily exposure to 2pg/kg bw/d of TCDD, 160 80 ng/kg bw/d of PCB153,  $50\mu$ g/ kg bw/d of DEHP and  $5\mu$ g/ kg bw/d of BPA 1 g of 161 contaminated food per 17 g of body weight was given per day to mice otherwise fed ad 162 libitum as previously described [25, 27].

163 2.2. *Metabolic tests* 

After 13 wks of diet, 16 h-fasted mice were injected intraperitoneally with glucose (1 mg/g of body weight) for the glucose tolerance test (GTT). Blood glucose was measured using the Accu-Chek Performa glucometer (Roche Diabetes Care France, Meylan).

### 167 2.3. Body composition, blood and tissue collection

One day before euthanasia, weight and whole body composition were analyzed using nuclear magnetic resonance (Minispec TD-NMR, Bruker BioSpin). Following a 6 hour fasting, blood was collected by retro-orbital sampling. Mice were euthanized by cervical dislocation and liver, inguinal subcutaneous (SAT) and visceral (periovarian+parametrial, VAT) adipose tissue were quickly dissected, snap-frozen in nitrogen liquid and conserved at -80°C until experiments. Small pieces of SAT and VAT were fixed in 4% buffered formaldehyde and embedded in paraffin for histology studies.

Blood glucose concentrations (Accu-Chek Performa glucometer) as well as plasma
levels of insulin (Mouse Ultrasensitive ELISA, Eurobio), triglycerides (Biolabo, Maizy,
France), cholesterol, free fatty acids (FFA), alanine aminotransferase (ALAT) and aspartate
aminotransferase (ASAT) activities (Sigma-Aldrich), leptin and adiponectin (Crystal
Chem, Zaandam, Netherlands) were measured. Total cholesterol and triglycerides were
also measured in the liver after extraction of lipids from frozen liver samples using a
lipid Extraction kit chloroform-free (Clinisciences, Nanterre, France).

182 *Adipose tissue histology* 

Paraffin-embedded adipose tissues were cut and adipocyte area was assessed by
immunostaining of the basal membrane realized on 4µm sections using the rabbit antilaminin antibody (1:100, Merck, L9393). Image acquisition was obtained with the
AXIOVERT 200 M inversed fluorescent microscopes (Carl Zeiss S.A.S., Marly le Roi,

187 France) equipped with the AxioVision 4.8.2 software. Analyses were performed using the188 ImageJ software.

### 189 2.4. Real time PCR analysis

Total RNA extracted from frozen tissue samples was reverse-transcribed and
analyzed by real-time PCR as described [30] using a set of specific primers
(Supplemental Table 1). In each tissue data were normalized relatively to TBP (encoding
TATA-Box Binding Protein).

### 194 2.5. Statistical analysis

All results are expressed as means  $\pm$  SEM and differences between means were 195 196 considered significant at *p*-value <0.05. To test for statistical significance, one-way ANOVA followed by Tukey post hoc test was used when comparing HF0 sham, HF0 197 198 Ovx and HF0 Ovx+E2 groups. To test for pollutant effects, two-way ANOVA for nonrepeated measures with E2 and pollutants as factors was used, followed by a Bonferroni 199 200 post hoc test. When significant effects without interaction were obtained, differences were tested using Student's t-test between the pollutant-exposed group and the non-201 exposed group. GraphPad Prism 5.0 software was used for all statistical analysis. 202

203

## **3. Results**

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## 206 207

# 3.1. Metabolic characterization of sham and ovariectomized females fed a HF diet and effect of 17ß estradiol replacement

Sham-operated (sham) and ovariectomized (Ovx) females having received E2 or vehicle 208 209 supplementation, all fed a HF diet were thoroughly characterized (Protocol 1). Non-operated females fed either a standard diet or a HF diet were monitored in parallel (Protocol 3). As 210 expected, females fed the HF diet were significantly heavier than ST fed mice with high 211 levels of blood glucose and plasma insulin levels resulting in a 3-fold increase of the HOMA-212 IR (Fig. 1A-B; Supplemental Figure 3) which is an index of insulin resistance. Ovariectomy 213 induced an additional increase of body weight and fat mass, a hyperglycaemia after a 16h 214 215 fasting (time 0 of the GTT) with a trend after a 6h fasting (blood sample at euthanasia), and 216 elevated insulin plasma levels, all resulting in glucose intolerance (GTT) and insulin

217 resistance (enhanced HOMA-IR) (Fig. 1). Conversely, triglycerides (TG) and cholesterol

218 levels (both plasma and liver) were not significantly impacted by ovariectomy (Table 1).

219 These metabolic features were also observed in Protocol 2 in which ovariectomy was

performed in mice fed a standard diet (Supplemental Figure 4). Neither ovariectomy nor E2

treatment induced liver toxicity as there was no increase in plasma AST or ALT in HF0 Ovx

and HF0 Ovx+E2 mice (data not shown).

Estradiol supplementation to HF0 Ovx mice led to a restoration of insulin and FFA plasma 223 levels as well as glucose tolerance to values measured in HFO-sham mice (Fig. 1; Table 1). 224 Other metabolic parameters including glycaemia, body weight, VAT and SAT weight, plasma 225 cholesterol (total and cholesteryl esters) and leptin levels were significantly lower than those 226 227 measured in HF0 sham mice (Fig. 1 and Table 1). For some parameters, the range of values 228 was identical to those in standard-fed mice (Fig. 1). Besides, impedance analyses revealed 229 enhanced lean mass and reduced fat mass in E2-replaced Ovx mice compared to HF-fed sham mice (Fig. 1D) which is probably associated to the reduced adipocyte diameter observed in 230 both AT depots (Fig. 1D and Supplemental Figure 5) with E2 replacement. Moreover, 231 232 adiponectin levels, not affected by ovariectomy, were reduced in E2-replaced females (Table 233 1) as reported elsewhere [31].

234

# 3.2. Fat depots were differently affected in response to ovariectomy and 17β estradiol supplementation

237 The metabolic explorations showed that the adipose tissue was highly responsive to ovariectomy and E2 replacement consistent with estrogens playing major roles in fat tissue 238 239 deposition and expansion in females [16, 32]. To go further in-depth, we analyzed by RTqPCR a panel of genes encoding the estrogen receptors and markers of adipogenesis or 240 241 inflammation. We observed that the expression level of Esr1 and Esr2 genes encoding the nuclear estrogen receptor (ER)  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ , respectively and *Gper1* encoding the G protein 242 243 coupled estrogen receptor 1 (GPR30) responded differently to estrogen withdrawal and replacement. Esrl mRNA levels were unchanged in Ovx females but significantly increased 244 245 (2-fold) upon E2 replacement in both SAT and VAT. Gper1 and Esr2 mRNA levels were significantly higher and lower, respectively, in Ovx than in sham females. E2 replacement 246 247 corrected these effects in SAT but not in VAT (Fig. 2). The pattern of expression of Nr3c4 (encoding the androgen receptor) and Esrl mRNA was quite similar in SAT and VAT (i.e., 248

- almost no change following ovariectomy and augmentation following E2 replacement relative
- to sham mice) (Fig 2). Additionally, ten-fold more *Esr1* and 1.5-fold more *Nr3c4* mRNA
- levels were found in VAT than in SAT, and 2-fold more *Gper1* mRNA levels were found in
- 252 SAT than in VAT. As for *Esr2*, mRNA levels were low in both fat pads with large
- 253 fluctuations in the VAT of sham mice (Fig. 2).

Plasma leptin levels of Ovx females (Table 1) which correlated with obesity were consistent 254 with the increase of lep mRNA levels. They returned to sham levels in SAT and VAT of E2-255 treated mice (Fig. 3). A similar pattern of mRNA expression was observed for *Ccl2* which 256 encodes the monocyte chemoattractant protein 1 (MCP1) along with estrogen loss and 257 recovery challenges in both fat pads (Fig. 4). Conversely, fluctuations in level of 258 adipogenesis, lipogenesis, lipolysis and inflammation markers were found to vary in fat 259 260 depots according to body localization i.e., subcutaneous or visceral (Fig. 3, 4). Specifically, we surveyed Nr1c3 encoding peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor PPARy, Fabp4 261 encoding fatty-acid binding protein4, Lipe encoding hormone-sensitive lipase (HSL), Lpl 262 263 encoding lipoprotein lipase (LPL), *Pnpla2* encoding Patatin Like Phospholipase Domain Containing 2 also known as Adipose triglyceride lipase (ATGL) and inflammatory cytokines, 264 265 *Tnfa*, *Il1β* and *Il12a* encoding tumor necrosis factor (TNF) $\alpha$  and the interleukins 1B and 12a, respectively. On the one hand, no variations were observed in the level of Nr1c3, Pnpla2, 266  $Tnf\alpha$  and Il12a mRNA in SAT across the groups, while the same genes were up-regulated in 267 VAT in the Ovx group. Specifically, VAT samples from E2-replaced females had higher 268 mRNA levels of Nr1c3 and Pnpla2 than samples from Ovx females which was consistent 269 270 with PPARy being a direct transcriptional regulator of ATGL [33] while inflammatory marker mRNA levels increased in Ovx females and returned to sham levels in E2-replaced females 271 (Fig. 3, 4). On the other hand, *Fabp4*, *Lipe* and *Lpl* had a profile of gene expression consistent 272 with estrogens negatively regulating these genes in SAT but not in VAT samples (Fig. 3, 4). 273 274 Regarding  $II1\beta$ , the profile was identical to the other inflammatory markers in VAT while the mRNA levels were enhanced following E2 replacement in SAT. 275

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### 3.3. Estrogens differentially impact glucose and lipid metabolism in the liver

Estrogens act in liver to positively regulate insulin sensitivity and glucose tolerance [16]. ERα
being the primary estrogen receptor expressed in mouse liver [34], we explored the hepatic
expression of the *Esr1* gene in ovariectomized females. We observed a significant decrease

of *Esr1* mRNA levels (Fig. 5A). Interestingly, in E2-replaced Ovx mice a significant doubling 281 282 in *Esr1* mRNA levels was measured compared to those detected in sham mice. We next performed RT-qPCR analyses to discriminate, among genes regulating glucose and lipid 283 metabolism, those under negative and positive estrogen regulation. Consistent with E2 284 positively regulating glucose tolerance, the expression levels of *G6pc* encoding the catalytic 285 subunit of the gluconeogenic enzyme G6Pase (glucose-6 phosphatase) doubled in Ovx mice 286 and was restored in E2-replaced females, relative to the level of sham mice (Fig. 5B). 287 288 Expression levels of Gck encoding Glucokinase, mirrored those of G6pc (Fig. 5B) consistent 289 with an adaptive role of Gck in counteracting hyperinsulinemia and insulin resistance and 290 with the reduction of glycaemia [35].

291 To complete the study and although we did not observe significant changes in hepatic TG and 292 cholesterol levels in ovariectomized mice (Table 1), we undertook a comprehensive analysis of genes encoding proteins involved in hepatic lipid metabolism. Specifically, genes surveyed 293 included Nr1h3 encoding Liver X receptor (LXR)a and its downstream target gene Srebf1 294 encoding sterol regulatory element binding protein 1c (SREBP1c), a master regulator of de 295 296 novo lipogenesis; Scd1 encoding the stearoyl-CoA desaturase-1 (SCD1), a rate-limiting enzyme of lipogenesis; Dgat2 encoding diacylglycerol O-acyltransferase 2 which catalyzes 297 the final reaction in the synthesis of triglycerides; Cd36 encoding Cluster of differentiation 36 298 involved in fatty acid uptake; Nr1c1encoding peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor 299 300 (PPAR)a which regulates fatty acid oxidation and its target gene Cpt1a encoding carnitine palmitoyltransferase 1a; Srebf2 which encodes the transcription factor Sterol Regulatory 301 Element Binding Transcription Factor 2 and its downstream target genes Hmgcr and Pcsk9 302 encoding 3-Hydroxy-3-Methylglutaryl-CoA Reductase, the rate limiting enzyme of 303 cholesterol metabolism and Proprotein convertase subtilisin/kexin type 9 which regulates 304 lipoprotein metabolism, respectively. We surveyed Ldlr encoding the low density lipoprotein 305 receptor which mediates the endocytosis of cholesterol-rich LDL; Nr1h4 encoding the bile 306 307 acid receptor Farnesoid X receptor (FXR), and Cyp7a1 encoding the cholesterol  $7\alpha$ 308 hydroxylase which is the rate-limiting enzyme in the synthesis of bile acids [36].

309 On this panel of genes, *Nr1h4* was unique in that the mRNA level was enhanced by estrogen

310 withdrawal compared to sham mice. There was reduction in mRNA abundance of *Srebf1*,

311 *Dgat2* and *Ldlr* in the Ovx mice (Fig. 5). All returned to sham levels after E2 replacement.

Lower *Nr1c1* and *Cd36* mRNA levels were found in E2 replaced mice than in sham mice

313 (Fig. 5); mRNA levels of Nr0b2 encoding small heterodimeric partner (SHP) and those of

*Cpt1α, Nr1h3, Scd1* remained the same between the different groups (data not shown). In
addition, several genes belonging to the cholesterol metabolism pathway had their mRNA
levels strongly increased following E2 supplementation. This included *Srebf2* and the target
genes *Hmgcr, Pcsk9* and *Cyp7a1* (Fig. 5E).

318

# 3.4 A low-dose mixture of pollutants differentially impacted the expression levels of E2regulated genes depending on the metabolic tissue explored

321 The expression levels of estrogen receptors and estrogen-regulated genes were analyzed in the

liver and adipose tissues of mice exposed to a mixture of low-dose pollutants previouslyshown to exhibit estrogeno-mimetic activities [25, 27, 28].

324 Metabolic exploration revealed that exposure to pollutants did not change food intake (not

shown), body weight and fat pad weight of the exposed animals (Supplemental Figure 6). No

effect of pollutants was observed on blood glucose and plasma insulin levels, HOMA-IR,

327 glucose tolerance, as well as on TG (plasma and hepatic) and FFA levels (Table 1).

328 Notwithstanding, cholesterol (plasma and hepatic) and leptin levels were significantly

329 increased in HFp-Ovx females compared to HF0 sham mice while these parameters were not

significantly changed by ovariectomy itself arguing for a pollutant effect. Moreover, liver TG

accumulation in HFp Ovx mice was 1.5-fold higher than in HF0 Ovx mice although it did not

reach significance. In addition, its level significantly decreased following E2 replacement

333 (HFp Ovx+E2 *versus* HFp Ovx) which was not observed in pollutant-free conditions (Table

1). Adiponectin levels were significantly different in HFp Ovx+E2 versus levels measured in

HF0-Ovx+E2 mice which also indicated a pollutant effect (Table 1).

Regarding gene expression, exposure to pollutants resulted in the increase of *Esr1* mRNA

levels in SAT and in the ratio of *Esr1* to *Nr3c4* expression in SAT and VAT of Ovx mice

(Fig. 6). In conditions of E2 supplementation, effects of pollutant exposure included the

augmentation of *Esr2* mRNA levels in both fat pads as well as *Esr1 /Nr3c4* ratio in SAT (HFp

340 Ovx+E2 versus HF0 Ovx+E2) (Fig. 6). Among genes involved in cholesterol metabolism, we

observed a significant doubling of *Nr1h3*, *Nr0b2* and *Cd36* in pollutant-exposed Ovx mice

342 compared to non-exposed Ovx mice. Interestingly, in E2-replaced females, pollutant exposure

triggered significant changes in *Cyp7a1* (half-decrease) and *Nr1h3* (a doubling) mRNA levels

344 (Fig. 6C). These pollutant-induced effects were different than those exerted by E2345 replacement (Fig.4).

To complete the study, we measured the expression levels of genes encoding xenobiotic

347 receptors including the aryl hydrocarbon receptor (AhR), the constitutive androstane receptor

CAR (Nr1i3) and the pregnane xenobiotic receptor PXR (Nr1i2) as well as CAR and PXR

immediate target genes which encode the cytochrome P450 enzymes CYP2B10 and

350 CYP3A11 [37]. These genes were not found impacted by the pollutant mixture as compared

to non-exposed mice except Cyp2b10 which mRNA abundance slightly increased

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#### 354 **Discussion**

(Supplemental figure 7).

355 In the present study, we developed a model allowing the exploration of the metabolic consequences of ovarian withdrawal and E2 replacement on liver and adipose tissues along 356 357 with investigating the impact of a low-dose mixture of pollutants previously reported to exhibit some estrogeno-mimetic properties in female mice [25, 27]. Because of differences in 358 the literature regarding the extent of the ovariectomy-induced deleterious metabolic effects, 359 the experimental model developed herein was first characterized. Accordingly [17, 19, 38-40], 360 ovariectomy induced body weight increase, glucose intolerance and insulin resistance and 361 tended toward an increase of leptin and insulin plasma levels. No changes in TG plasma 362 levels and cholesterol or in hepatic lipid deposition could be measured in the ovariectomized 363 364 mouse model.

365 Importantly, treatment of ovariectomized mice with E2 either reversed the ovariectomy-

induced adverse effects (e.g., glucose tolerance) to sham levels or improved metabolic

functions over the physiological levels (e.g., adipose tissue weight and leptin levels). It

368 suggested that diet-induced obesity could impair estrogenic signaling in the adipose tissues in

369 female mice and that part of the HF effects were counter-balanced by E2 supplementation,

extending previous data [31]. Importantly, while ovariectomy and E2 replacement similarly

regulated the ERs and AR encoding mRNA expression in SAT and VAT depots, adipogenesis

and inflammatory markers were differently regulated in response to estrogen withdrawal and

E2 replacement. Specifically, our findings were consistent with estrogens negatively

regulating adipogenesis in SAT but not in VAT, and inflammation in VAT but not in SAT. In

addition, enhanced Nr1c3 and Atgl mRNA expression in VAT, two markers of adipocyte 375 differentiation, suggested a positive effect of E2-treatment on this tissue in Ovx mice. 376 Extending the literature [41, 42], the herein findings underlined distinct functions of SAT and 377 378 VAT in the development of obesity-induced metabolic disorders in females, with estrogens regulating fat distribution and expansion preferably in subcutaneous depots and opposing 379 inflammation particularly in VAT thus protecting from insulin resistance. Noticeably, the 380 mRNA abundance changes of the estrogen receptors induced by ovariectomy and E2 381 replacement emphasized that, in physiological conditions, circulating estrogens could regulate 382 383 Gper1 and Esr2 at a transcriptional level. In addition, if considering the reported phenotypes 384 of enhanced adiposity in *Esr2*-deficient female mice [43] and the protection from diet-induced 385 obesity in Gper1-deficient female mice [44], the alterations (herein observed) of Gper1 and *Esr2* expression in the adipose tissues could well be linked to the obesity phenotype of the 386 387 Ovx mice. The E2 replacement data suggested that the up-regulation of Esr1 and Nr3c4 expression in both fat pads and the restored Esr2 and Gper1 mRNA abundance (at least in 388 389 SAT) could be linked to the observed decreased in adiposity in line with previous data [19, 43, 45]. Moreover, the data presented herein indicated that the described estrogen anti-390 391 inflammatory properties [19, 43] could be mediated through ERß in VAT extending previous 392 reports in female mice [46]. Interestingly, SAT and VAT share identically regulated genes including Ccl2 (in line with previous findings [28]) and Lep which could be positively 393 regulated by estradiol in adipose tissues via *Gper1* or negatively via ER<sup>β</sup>. Such regulations 394 remain to be demonstrated. 395

Within the present study, ovariectomy clearly impacted glucose metabolism but not 396 hepatic steatosis while E2 replacement resulted in altered cholesterol metabolism concurrently 397 with marked changes in liver Esr1, Nr1c1 and Cd36 mRNA abundance linking estrogen 398 signaling to these effects. It could indicate that impairment of glucose metabolism might be an 399 400 early metabolic consequence of estrogen loss while alteration of lipid metabolism could be 401 indirectly affected. This hypothesis is consistent with the phenotype of hepatosteatosis 402 observed after a long-term ovariectomy [47] but not in the present study. The finding that TG 403 accumulation did not change with ovariectomy is in agreement with the observation that the 404 mRNA levels of FXR, a protein known to oppose hepatic steatosis and hyperlipidemia [48], 405 was increased while the abundance of genes related to lipogenesis (Srebpf1, Dgat2) was reduced. Noticeably, the impairment of cholesterol metabolism observed following E2 406 407 supplementation extended previous data demonstrating that Esr1 overexpression could trigger

a loss in the fine tuning of negative feedback regulation of cholesterol synthesis [49]. 408 Deregulation of lipid metabolism may as well result from the lack of cycles in E2-replaced 409 females since it has been demonstrated that reproduction and lipid metabolism are tightly 410 coupled in cycling females [47]. Whether changes in the mRNA levels of Esr1, Nr1c1 and of 411 Cd36 in the E2-replaced Ovx mice also resulted from a loss in feed-back regulatory 412 mechanism will await further studies. Collectively, it could be concluded that regulation of 413 glucose metabolism is tightly controlled by estradiol but that lipid metabolism escaped 414 physiological regulatory feedback in E2-treated females. In addition, because ovaries produce 415 416 progestogens as well as androgens, E2 replacement is not expected to normalize all disorders 417 induced by ovariectomy.

418 The use of a model of estrogen withdrawal and replacement has allowed the identification of a set of estrogen-regulated genes. We expected these genes to exhibit 419 changes in mRNA levels in response to chronic exposure to a mixture of archetypal endocrine 420 disruptors previously identified as bearing some estrogeno-mimetic activities as well as 421 metabolic disrupting effects [25, 27, 50]. Specifically, the protocol used herein was adapted 422 423 from the published previous model [25, 26] except that female mice were not exposed to the mixture of pollutants from fetal life onwards but continuously from week 5 to week 20 424 through diet. As reviewed previously [7, 51, 52], the mixture of pollutants was designed to 425 question the metabolic health consequences of a multi-exposure scenario to various pollutants 426 427 at low dosage to approach a real life situation. Specifically, the mixture was made of shortly metabolized (BPA, DEHP) and persistent pollutants (TCDD, PCB153) contaminating food 428 429 either through bioaccumulation along the food chain (TCDD, PCB153) or leaching from packaging (BPA, DEHP), activating a wide range of signaling molecules, not to mention the 430 many cross-talks occurring between them and triggering estrogeno-mimetic and anti-androgen 431 activities among others [4, 6, 10]. Pollutants constituent parts of the mixture were also chosen 432 because of high concern for links with metabolic diseases in epidemiological and 433 434 experimental studies [4, 7, 53-55]. Interestingly, we herein observed modest but significant effects in the set-up model of Ovx and E2 replacement in response to the mixture of 435 pollutants. Phenotypically, and in agreement with our previous studies [25, 27, 50], the 436 437 mixture did not impact body weight. No changes were observed in glucose tolerance or 438 insulin resistance in the mice exposed compared to those not exposed to the pollutant mixture. Nonetheless, adiponectin levels were found to be lower in E2-replaced and pollutant-exposed 439 440 mice than in E2-replaced and non-exposed females. This finding is indicative of an adverse

hormonal and metabolic effect triggered by pollutant exposure since adiponectin is an 441 adipokine with positive metabolic properties [56]. In addition, TG accumulation in liver of 442 HFp Ovx mice was trending upward compared to non-exposed Ovx mice. Some genes 443 involved in lipid metabolism in the liver and which mRNA levels were not modified by 444 ovariectomy, were found impacted in response to the mixture of pollutants in Ovx mice (i.e., 445 HFp Ovx versus HF0 Ovx mice). All these findings indicated that the mixture of pollutants 446 had some metabolic impact but did not exert estrogeno-mimetic activities at least on the set of 447 hepatic genes studied. These data do not fully reproduce previous findings in which the same 448 449 mixture of pollutants was found to enhance Esrl gene expression in the liver of 450 ovariectomized females and alleviate glucose intolerance [28]. One possible explanation 451 resides in the timing of exposure to the mixture encompassing gestation and lactation in the previous protocol [28] but not in the present study. Indeed, the maternal period has been 452 453 found to be a highly vulnerable period [57, 58]. For example, it was demonstrated that hepatic metabolic gene expression in adult mice including Esrl was strongly impacted in mice 454 455 exposed in utero to BPA as compared to control mice [59]. In addition, the vulnerability of the fetal period towards exposure to the presently used mixture of pollutants has been 456 457 evidenced in male mice [50].

Importantly, we observed that the response to the mixture of pollutants was highly 458 tissue-dependent extending our previous data [26, 50]. While we did not identify estrogeno-459 mimetic activities of the pollutant mixture in the liver, the situation was clearly distinct in 460 461 SAT. Indeed, the estrogen receptors *Esr1* and *Esr2* were found regulated the same way by either the pollutant mixture or E2 supplementation. Conversely, the mixture of pollutants 462 tended to oppose E2 effects in VAT with an up-regulation of Esr2 and Ill2a mRNA 463 abundance in E2-replaced mice. The meaning of these distinct effects depending on fat 464 depots, remains to be investigated but may be linked to the distinct functions of the fat depots 465 regarding adipogenesis and inflammation [41, 42]. In addition, it should be reminded that the 466 467 dosage of the mixture was based on the tolerable daily intake (TDI) doses defined empirically by risk assessment agencies, e.g., the European Food Safety Authority (EFSA) or the U.S. 468 469 Food and Drug administration (FDA) [60], thus not expected individually to generate a 470 metabolic effect. Therefore, the herein demonstration that several genes were impacted (at 471 least at the mRNA level) by a mixture of low-dose pollutants together with previous data on the adverse metabolic effects of low-dosed mixture [52], emphasizes that current legislation 472 473 on chemical risk assessment may underestimate the risk and should be updated.

In summary, analysis of female mice in conditions of withdrawal of estrogen, E2 replacement 474 or exposure to a mixture of pollutants with reported estrogeno-mimetic activities, extended 475 knowledge on the estrogenic regulation of glucose and lipid metabolism in the liver and of 476 adipogenesis and inflammatory markers in the fat depots. Importantly, this model highlighted 477 that the disrupting effect of the mixture of low-dosed pollutants which did not affect body 478 479 weight, glycaemia, plasma insulin and lipidemia was different in the liver and adipose tissues. 480 Noticeably, alterations concerned adiponectin plasma levels, estrogen receptors in the adipose tissue and lipid metabolism in the liver. The present findings may have important implications 481 for the understanding of the estrogen-dependent metabolic alterations with regards to 482 situations of loss of estrogens as observed with menopause, especially if considering the 483 worldwide context of exposure to chemicals. 484

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## 643 **Conflict of interest**

644 The authors have declared that no competing interests exist.

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## 647 Legends

Figure 1: (A) Body weight and weight of visceral and subcutaneous adipose tissues (VAT and SAT, respectively) measured at the end of the protocols (after 6 h of fasting). (B)
Biochemical parameters: Blood glucose, plasma insulin and HOMA-IR. (C) Glucose
Tolerance test performed after 13 wks of diet and corresponding AUC. (D) Measurement of
whole body composition by NMR and of the adipocyte area.

Values are means  $\pm$  SEM with n=7-8. \*\*\*P<0.001; \*\* P<0.01; \*P<0.05 (one-way ANOVA followed by Tukey post hoc test). For the adipocyte area, values are means  $\pm$  SEM with n=3. A significant overall effect was obtained using a Two-way ANOVA followed by the Bonferroni test. Standard: standard diet; HF0: pollutant-free high-fat high-sucrose diet; Sham: sham-operated mice; Ovx: ovariectomized mice; Ovx+E2: ovariectomized mice with E2 replacement.

**Figure 2**: Effect of ovariectomy alone (Ovx) or with 17β-estradiol (E2) supplementation (Ovx+E2) on the expression of genes encoding the estrogen receptors ERα, ERβ, GPR30 and the androgen receptor AR in subcutaneous (**A**) and visceral (**B**) adipose tissues (SAT and VAT, respectively). Values are means  $\pm$  SEM with n=6-8. \*\*\*P<0.001; \*\* P<0.01; \*P<0.05. Sham: sham -operated mice.

664 <u>Figure 3</u>: Effect of ovariectomy alone (Ovx) or with 17β-estradiol (E2) supplementation 665 (Ovx+E2) on the expression of genes related to adipogenesis and lipogenesis (A, A'), 666 lipolysis (B, B') in subcutaneous (SAT, A, B) and visceral (VAT A', B') adipose tissues. 667 Values are means  $\pm$  SEM with n=6-8. \*\*\*P<0.001; \*\* P<0.01; \*P<0.0; Sham: sham-operated 668 mice.

669 **Figure 4**: Effect of ovariectomy alone (Ovx) or with 17β-estradiol (E2) supplementation 670 (Ovx+E2) on the expression of genes encoding inflammatory markers in subcutaneous (SAT) 671 and visceral (VAT) adipose tissues. Values are means  $\pm$  SEM with n=6-8. \*\*\*P<0.001; \*\* 672 P<0.01; \*P<0.0. Sham: sham-operated mice.

673Figure 5: Effect of ovariectomy alone (Ovx) or with 17β-estradiol (E2) supplementation674(Ovx+E2) on the expression of genes encoding the nuclear estrogen receptor ERa (A), genes675related to glucose metabolism (B), fatty acid metabolism (C), triglyceride metabolism (D),676cholesterol metabolism (E) in liver. Values are means ± SEM with n=6-8. \*\*\*P<0.001; \*\*</td>677P<0.01; \*P<0.05. Sham: sham-operated mice.</td>

**Figure 6:** Effect of the mixture of pollutants on the expression of genes expressed in subcutaneous (SAT, A), visceral (VAT, B) adipose tissues, or liver (C). Values (expressed as fold-change relative to the HF0 group) are means  $\pm$  SEM with n=6-8. \*\*\*P<0.001; \*\* P<0.01; \*P<0.05. Ovx: ovariectomized mice; Ovx+E2: ovariectomized mice with E2 replacement. HF0: pollutant-free high-fat high-sucrose diet; HFp: high-fat high-sucrose diet containing the mixture of pollutants.

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## 689 **Table 1:** Biochemical parameters

	HF0 sham	HF0 Ovx	HF0 Ovx + E2	HFp Ovx	HFp Ovx + E2
Plasma					
Total cholesterol (mg/mL)	1.54 ± 0.06	1.72 ± 0.08	$1.32 \pm 0.09^{\beta}$	1.84 ± 0.08	1.16 ± 0.17 <sup>β</sup>
Cholesteryl esters (mg/mL)	1.17 ± 0.04	1.31 ± 0.06	$1.02 \pm 0.07^{\beta}$	1.38 ± 0.07	$0.87 \pm 0.12^{\beta}$
Triglycerides (mM)	0.70 ± 0.04	$0.63 \pm 0.03$	0.62 ± 0.10	0.73 ± 0.06	$0.46 \pm 0.05^{\beta}$
Free Fatty Acids (µM)	325 ± 36	$500 \pm 43^{\alpha}$	$352 \pm 44^{\beta}$	468 ± 50	281 ± 39 <sup>β</sup>
Leptin (ng/mL)	23.2 ± 3.8	32.3 ± 4.5	11.4 ± 1.2 <sup>α,β</sup>	41.3 ± 4.0	12.1 ± 1.9 <sup>β</sup>
Adiponectin (µg/mL)	14.7 ± 0.4	15.1 ± 0.4	12.6 ± 0.6 <sup>α,β</sup>	15.0 ± 0.8	$9.82 \pm 0.63^{\beta,\gamma}$
Liver					
Cholesterol (µg/mg)	3.19 ± 0.13	$3.59 \pm 0.40$	3.70 ± 0.21	3.67 ± 0.15	3.27 ± 0.16
Triglycerides (nmol/mg)	18.6 ± 3.6	25.8 ± 4.8	15.6 ± 1.4	38.6 ± 8.1	14.8 ± 1.7 <sup>β</sup>

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691 Values are means  $\pm$  SEM with n=6-8. ( $\alpha$ ): significant effect vs HF0 sham; ( $\beta$ ) significant E2 effect;

 $(\gamma)$  significant pollutant effect (using a one-way ANOVA followed by Tukey post hoc test).

HF0: pollutant-free high-fat high-sucrose diet; HFp: high-fat high-sucrose diet containing the
mixture of pollutants; Sham: sham-operated mice; Ovx: ovariectomized mice; Ovx+E2:
ovariectomized mice with E2 replacement.



Figure 1





Figure 4



Figure 5



## 703 Supplemental Figures



Supplemental Figure 1: Experimental protocols. ST: standard chow diet; HF: high-fat high-sucrose diet; HF0: pollutant-free high-fat high-sucrose diet; HFp: high-fat high-sucrose diet
 containing the mixture of pollutants. Sham: sham-operated mice; Ovx: ovariectomized mice;
 Ovx+E2: ovariectomized mice with E2 replacement.



**Supplemental Figure 2**: Uterus was weighed at the end of the protocol to validate ovariectomy and delivery of E2 after surgery. HF0: pollutant-free high-fat high-sucrose diet; HFp: high-fat high-sucrose diet containing the mixture of pollutants. Sham: sham-operated mice; Ovx: ovariectomized mice; Ovx+E2: ovariectomized mice with E2 replacement. Values are mean  $\pm$  SEM (n=6-8). \*\*p<0.01, \*\*\*p<0.001 (using a one-way ANOVA followed by Tukey post hoc test).



**Supplemental Figure 3**: (A) Body weight curves along the 15 weeks of diet. Arrows indicate weeks when mice (sham, Ovx and Ovx+E2) were submitted to anesthesia (ovariectomy and implant after 2 weeks of diet and implant replacement at 8 weeks). Standard: standard chow diet; HF0: pollutant-free high-fat high-sucrose diet; HFp: high-fat high-sucrose diet containing the mixture of pollutants. Sham: sham-operated mice; Ovx: ovariectomized mice; Ovx+E2: ovariectomized mice with E2 replacement. Values are mean  $\pm$ SEM (n=8). \*p<0.05; \*\*p<0.01, \*\*\*p<0.001.



Supplemental Figure 4: Phenotype and biochemical characterization of Standard-fed Ovx
versus standard-fed sham-operated mice. Standard: standard chow diet; Sham: sham operated
mice; Ovx: ovariectomized mice; SAT: subcutaneous adipose tissue; VAT: visceral adipose
tissue. Values are mean ± SEM (n=4-5). \*p<0.05; \*\*p<0.01, \*\*\*p<0.001.</li>





Supplemental Figure 5: Impact of E2 replacement on adipocyte size. Representative laminin
immunostaining of paraffin section of adipose tissues obtained from mice fed HFHS diet and
ovariectomized without (Ovx) or with (Ovx+E2) estrogen replacement. Adipose tissue
acquisition is represented for subcutaneous (SAT) and visceral (VAT) depots using objective
x10. Scale bar=100µm





Supplemental Figure 6: Comparison between treatment-matched HF0-fed and HFp-fed mice. A. Body and adipose tissue weights; B. Blood glucose, plasma insulin and HOMA-IR.
C. Glucose Tolerance Test. HF0: pollutant-free high-fat high-sucrose diet; HFp: high-fat high-sucrose diet containing the mixture of pollutants. Sham: non-operated mice; Ovx: ovariectomized mice; Ovx+E2: ovariectomized mice with E2 replacement.; SAT: subcutaneous adipose tissue; VAT: visceral adipose tissue. Values are mean ± SEM (n=6-8).



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**Supplemental Figure 7**: Effect of the mixture of pollutant on the expression of xenobiotic processing genes in liver. Results are expressed as HFp/HF0 ratio for each group of mice with ratio equal to 1.0 for the HF0 groups. HF0: high-fat high-sucrose diet pollutant-free; HFp: high-fat high-sucrose diet containing the mixture of pollutants. Sham: not operated mice; Ovx: ovariectomized mice; Ovx+E2: ovariectomized and E2 replaced mice. Values are mean  $\pm$  SEM (n=6-8). \*p<0.05.

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## 781 Supplemental table

## **Supplemental table 1**: List of the primers used for qPCR analyses

		sequences: 5'->3'		
gene	reference	sense	antisense	
Ahr	NM_013464.4	TCA-TCT-GGT-TTC-CTG-GCA-ATG-AAT	ATA-AGC-TGC-CCT-TTG-GCA-TC	
Atoh1	NM_007500	CAG-CGA-TGA-TGG-CAC-AGA-AG	TGG-TTG-TCT-CAG-TTT-TCA-GG	
Ccl2	NM_011333	TGG-AGC-ATC-CAC-GTG-TTG-GC	ACT-ACA-GCT-TCT-TTG-GGA-CA	
Cd36	NM_001159558.1	AAG-ATC-CAA-AAC-TGT-CTG-TA	GTC-CTG-GCT-GTG-TTT-GGA-GG	
Cldn2	NM_016675	CCT-TCG-GGA-CTT-CTA-CTC-GC	TCA-CA-CAT-ACC-CAG-TCA-GGC	
Cpt1a	NM_001876;NM_001031847	TAC-AAC-AGG-TGG-TTT-GAC-A	GGC-TGT-CAA-TGG-ACA-TGA-CG	
Cyp3a11	NM_007818	ACG-CCT-CTC-CTT-GCT-GTC-ACC	TTG-CCT-TCT-GCC-TCA-AGT-AC	
Cyp7a1	NM_007824.2	TAC-AGA-GTG-CTG-GCC-AAG-AG	AGT-GAA-GTC-CTC-CTT-AGC-TG	
Cyp2b10	NM_009999	TTC-TGC-CCT-TCT-CAA-CAG-GA	CCT-TAG-GAG-CAA-CAT-GGC-TT	
Dgat2	NM_026384	AAG-GGC-TTT-GTG-AAA-CTG-GC	CCT-CCT-CGA-AGA-TCA-CCT-GC	
Esr1	NM_000125;NM_001122740;NM_001122741;NM_001122742	TGT-TTG-CTC-CTA-ACT-TGC-TC	CCT-TCT-CTT-CCA-GAG-ACT-TC	
Esr2	NM_207707; NM_010157	CTC-TTC-CCA-GCA-GCA-GTC-AGT-C	AGC-ATC-TCC-AGC-AGC-AGG-T	
Fabp4	NM_024406	CAG-AAG-TGG-GAT-GGA-AAG-TCG	CGA-CTG-ACT-ATT-GTA-GTG-TTT-GA	
Gck	NM_010292	CAA-CTG-GAC-CAA-GGG-CTT-CA	CCA-GCT-CCA-CAT-TCT-GCA-TC	
Got2	NM_010325	ATG-GTG-AAG-GAT-GCC-TGG	TTC-ATC-CGC-ATC-TTT-GCA-GAC-C	
G6pc	NM_008061	TTA-CCA-AGA-CTC-CCA-GGA-CTG	GAG-CTG-TTG-CTG-TAG-TAG-TC	
Gper1	NM_029771	AGC-TGA-TCA-GAT-CTA-GGG-AG	GTC-CTG-GGA-GCC-TGT-TAG-TC	
Hmgcr	NM_008255	CCG-GCC-TGT-GTG-TCG-CTG-GT	CCA-GCG-ACT-ATG-AGC-GTG-AA	
ll1b	NM_008361	ACT-GTT-CCT-GAA-CTC-AAC-TG	CTT-GTT-GAT-GTG-CTG-CTG-CG	
ll12a	NM_001159424,NM_008351	GAC-ATC-GAT-CAT-GAA-GAC-ATC-AC	TAC-CAA-GGC-ACA-GGG-TCA-TC	
Lcn2	NM_008491	TCA-CTC-TGG-GAA-ATA-TGC-AC	ATG-ATG-TTG-TCG-TTG-AG	
Ldlr	NM_001252658,NM_001252659,NM_010700	GTT-GAT-TCC-AAA-CTC-CAC-TC	TTC-ACA-TCT-GAA-CCC-GTG-AG	
Lep	NM_008493	CAC-CAG-GAT-CAA-TGA-CAT-TTC	TGC-CAG-TGT-CTG-GTC-CAT-CTT-G	
Lipe	NM_001039507,NM_010719	GTG-TGT-CAG-TGC-CTA-TTC-AG	GTC-AGC-TTC-TTC-AAG-GTA-TC	
Lpl	NM_008509	GGT-CGA-AGC-ATT-GGA-ATC-CAG	TAG-GGC-ATC-TGA-GAA-CGA-GTC	
Mmp7	NM_010810; NM_001319986	ACG-ACA-TTG-CAG-GCA-TTC-AG	GTT-CAT-GCC-AGC-TGA-GGG-AT	
Muc2	NM_023566	GCT-ATG-ACG-TCT-GTG-TGA-AG	CAA-ACA-CAG-TCC-TTG-CAG-TC	
Ngn3	NM_009719	GCT-ATC-CAC-TGC-TGC-TTG-AC	TGG-AAT-TGG-AAC-TGA-GCA-CTT	
Npc1I1	NM_207242	GCT-AGC-AGC-CAA-CAT-CAC-AG	CAG-TAG-GAG-GTA-GCA-GAC-CA	
Nr0b2	NM_011850	CTG-CCT-GGA-GTC-TTT-CTG-GA	GTG-CCT-GGA-ATG-TTC-TTG-AG	
Nr1c1	NM_011144; NM_001113418.1	AAG-GGC-TTC-TTT-CGG-CGA-AC	GTT-CAT-GTT-GAA-GTT-CTT-CAG	
Nr1c3	NM_001127330,NM_011146	TCT-CTC-CGT-AAT-GGA-AGA-CC	GCA-TTA-TGA-GAC-ATC-CCC-AC	
Nr3c4	NM_013476.3	AGA-AGA-CCT-GCC-TGA-TCT-G	GCT-GGC-ACA-TAG-ATA-CTT-CTG	
Nr1h3	NM_013839	CCG-GGA-AGA-CTT-TGC-CAA-AGC	GGA-GCT-GGT-CCT-GCA-CGT-TG	
Nr1h4	NM_001163700.NM_001163504,NM_009108	GCA-ACC-TGT-TGG-AAG-AAA-G	GTC-TGT-CTG-GAG-AGA-GGA-TG	
Nr1i2	NM_010936.3	AGG-AGG-AGT-ATG-TGC-TGA-TG	CTT-CAG-GAA-CAG-GAA-CCT-GTG	
Nr1i3	NM_001243063;NM_001243062;NM_009803	GTC-CCA-TCT-GTC-CGT-TTG-C	AGG-GCT-TCT-GAC-AGT-ATC	
Pcsk9	NM_153565	AAC-TGC-AGC-ATC-CAC-AAC-AC	CAG-CAG-GAA-GCA-TAG-ACA-CT	
Pnpla2	NM_025802,NM_001163689	TCA-TC-CAG-GCC-AAT-CTC-TGC	TGG-ATG-TTG-GTG-GAG-CTG-TC	
Scd1	NM_009127	GAT-ACA-CTC-TGG-TGC-TCA-AC	AAC-GTG-GTG-AAG-TTG-ATG-TG	
SIc2a2	NM_031197	TGG-GTA-CTC-TTC-ACC-AAC-TG	AGG-ATG-TGC-CAA-TGA-TCC-TG	
SIc5a1	NM_019810	GCT-CCT-TGA-CCT-CCA-TCT-TC	CAG-GCA-ATG-CTG-ATG-CCA-AT	
Srebf1	NM_011480	ACG-GAG-CCA-TGG-ATT-GCA-CA	AAG-GGT-GCA-GGT-GTC-ACC-TT	
Srebf2	NM_033218	CCT-GTG-ATG-ATG-GGG-CAA-GAG	CCT-CAG-AAC-GCC-AGA-CTT-G	
Тbр	NM_013684	TGG-TGT-GCA-CAG-GAG-CCA-AG	TTC-ACA-TCA-CAG-CTC-CCC-AC	
Tjp1	NM_009386	ACG-CAT-CAC-AGC-CTG-GTT-G	TGG-CTC-CTT-CCT-GTA-CAC-C	
Tnfa	NM_013693	CCA-GAC-CCT-CAC-ACT-CAG-ATC	CAC-TTG-GTG-GTT-TGC-TAC-GAC	

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