Proteomics and gene expression analyses of squalene-supplemented 1 mice identify microsomal thioredoxin domain-containing protein 5 2 changes associated with hepatic steatosis 3 4 Adela Ramírez-Torres¹, Sílvia Barceló-Batllori², Roberto Martínez-Beamonte^{1, 5}, María 5 A. Navarro^{3, 5}, Joaquín C. Surra^{1, 5}, Carmen Arnal^{4, 5}, Natalia Guillén ^{1, 5}, Sergio Acín^{3, 5}, 6 Jesús Osada^{1, 5} 7 8 9 ¹Departamento Bioquímica y Biología Molecular y Celular, Facultad de Veterinaria, 10 Instituto de Investigación Sanitaria de Aragón (IIS), Universidad de Zaragoza, Spain 11 ²Unidad de Proteómica, IIS Aragón. Zaragoza, Spain 12 ³Unidad de Investigación Traslacional. IIS Aragón. Hospital Universitario Miguel 13 Servet. Zaragoza, Spain 14 ⁴ Departamento de Patología Animal, Facultad de Veterinaria, Universidad de Zaragoza, 15 Spain ⁵CIBER de Fisiopatología de la Obesidad y Nutrición, Instituto de Salud Carlos III, 16 17 Spain 18 19 Correspondence to: Jesús Osada, PhD, 20 Department of Biochemistry and Molecular Biology, 21 Veterinary School, University of Zaragoza,

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Abstract

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Squalene is an abundant hydrocarbon present in virgin olive oil. Previous studies showed that its administration decreased atherosclerosis and steatosis in male apoEknock-out mice. To study its effects on microsomal proteins, 1 g/kg/day of squalene was administered to those mice. After 10 weeks, hepatic fat content was assessed and protein extracts of microsomal enriched fractions from control and squalene-treated animals were analyzed by 2D-DIGE. Spots exhibiting significant differences were identified by peptide fingerprinting and MSMS analysis. Squalene administration modified the expression of thirty-one proteins involved in different metabolic functions and increased the levels of those involved in vesicle transport, protein folding and redox status. Only mRNA levels of 9 genes (Arg1, Atp5b, Cat, Hyou1, Nipsnap1, Pcca, Pcx, Pyroxd2, and Txndc5) paralleled these findings. No such mRNA changes were observed in wild-type mice receiving squalene. Thioredoxin domain-containing protein 5 (TXNDC5) protein and mRNA levels were significantly associated with hepatic fat content in apoE-ko mice. These results suggest that squalene action may be executed through a complex regulation of microsomal proteins, both at the mRNA and posttranscriptional levels and the presence of apoE may change the outcome. Txndc5 reflects the anti-steatotic properties of squalene and the sensitivity to lipid accumulation.

- 47 **Keywords:** apoE-knock-out mice, fatty liver, squalene, proteomics, microsomes,
- 48 thioredoxin domain-containing protein 5, TXNDC5, endoplasmic reticulum

Introduction

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disease in Western societies paralleling the prevalence of obesity [1]. While most patients do not progress to further complications, a few of them develop a spectrum of liver pathologies such as steatohepatitis, cirrhosis and hepatocellular carcinoma [2, 3]. Hepatic steatosis is an entity not only compromising lipid metabolism [4], but also inducing whole genome expression changes [5] demanding high-throughput approaches for its study. Therefore, given the prevalence of this pathological entity and its potencial complications, it is critical to know its mechanisms to find new therapies in its early stages. Administration of olive oil, main source of dietary fat in the traditional Mediterranean dietary pattern, has shown to improve NAFLD as shown in apoE- deficient mice by decreasing hepatic triglyceride accumulation [6], an effect mainly attributed to its monounsaturated fatty acid content [7]. However, administration of different virgin olive oils showed changes at the proteomic level and in the degree of hepatic steatosis that were not directly related to its oleic acid content [8]. A potential explanation for this observation could be that virgin olive oil is a complex mixture containing saponifiable and unsaponifiable fractions [9], and for the latter, biological actions have been documented [10-13]. Squalene, as major component of the unsaponifiable fraction, may vary from 1.5 to 9.6 g/kg in different virgin olive oils [14]. Likewise, the human average intake of squalene ranges from 30 up to 400 mg/day (United States and Mediterranean countries, respectively) [15] or even 1g per day in some diets [16]. Due to its low toxicity, it has been successfully used to treat different ailments [17, 18]. Our group has shown that a high squalene dose decreased hepatic fat content in a sexdependent manner [19] in apoE-deficient mice, a well-characterized and widely used

Non-alcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD) or hepatic steatosis has become a burden

animal model which rapidly develops atherosclerotic lesions similar to those observed in humans [20]. ApoE deficiency in these animals leads to a moderate or severe hepatic steatosis when fed standard chow or a high fat diet, respectively [21, 22]. The hepatic fat content has been associated with the development of atherosclerotic lesions [23] and modulated by dietary interventions [6, 24].

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The endoplasmic reticulum (ER) is a multifunctional organelle involved in several vital functions including protein synthesis, processing and folding, intracellular transport and calcium signaling, drug detoxification and lipid metabolism [25]. Disturbed homeostasis in the ER, caused by high levels of free fatty acid, depletion of calcium or insulin resistance, leads to accumulation of misfolded proteins, which triggers a stress response, commonly known as the unfolded protein response (UPR). It has been shown that ER stress participates in the pathogenesis of hepatic steatosis, insulin resistance, obesity and diabetes [26-28]. Since endoplasmic reticulum plays a central role in lipid catabolism, and squalene decreases hepatic fat content, our hypothesis was that squalene administration could modify hepatic microsomal proteins linked to hepatic steatosis. To address such issues and gain more insight into the mechanisms involved in the action of dietary squalene supplementation, 2D-DIGE analysis was used to study the modifications caused by squalene in apoE-ko mice. Firstly, microsomal fractions were obtained by differential centrifugation. Secondly, proteomic experiments were performed to separate proteins. Using gel image analysis, differences in protein expression between both experimental conditions were searched. Those proteins displaying significant differences were identified by mass spectrometry and considered putative squalene targets. Thirdly, their expression changes were analyzed at the mRNA level. Finally, the candidate genes were also examined in wild-type and apoA1-ko mice. In all experiments groups of squalene- and chow-fed animals were used to distinguish

the solely squalene administration effects in these animals from those related to fatty
liver present in the apoE-ko mice which were modified by administrating this
compound.

2. Methods and materials

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2.1. Animals and diets.

Male homozygous apoE-ko mice, hybrids of C57BL/6JxOla129 strains (more than 95% on Ola129 based on plasma cholesterol and apolipoproteins, and color coat), aged 2 months were randomly distributed into two experimental groups matched on their baseline plasma cholesterol values: the squalene group (n=5) whose beverage contained 1% (v/v) of squalene in glycerol solution and the control group (n=5), which received glycerol solution, used as vehicle. The squalene dose was 1 g/kg/day and the administration lasted 10 weeks as previously described [19]. Both groups were daily fed with mice chow, Teklad Mouse/Rat Diet no. 2014 (Harlan Ibérica, Barcelona Spain). A second experiment was carried out in two groups of male C57BL/6J wild-type mice: control (n=6) and squalene (n=7) and a third experiment was undertaken in male apoA1-ko mice on C57BL/6J genetic background receiving chow diet (n=7) and squalene (n=7). In these experiments, squalene regimen was well tolerated as there was no incidence on survival, physical appearance and solid and liquid intakes. At the end of the 10-week intervention period and after an overnight fast, the animals were killed by suffocation with CO₂ and blood was obtained thereafter by cardiac puncture. The livers were removed, weighed, frozen in liquid nitrogen, and stored at -80° C until analysis. The protocol was approved by the Ethics Committee for Animal Research of the University of Zaragoza.

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2. 2. Measurement of hepatic fat

Paraffin-embedded liver sections (4 μ m) were stained with hematoxylin and eosin and observed using a Nikon microscope. The extent of fat droplets in each liver section was evaluated with Adobe Photoshop CS and expressed as percentage of total liver section.

The diameter of 100 fat droplets of each mouse was also measured by means of Scion Image software (Scion Corporation, Frederick, Maryland, USA).

2.3. Preparation of microsomal fraction

This fraction was prepared and characterized according to Osada et al. [29]. Livers from apoE-ko mice were homogenized in PBS (4 ml/g of tissue) with protease inhibitor cocktail tablets (Roche) using a Potter homogenizer. Debris tissue was removed by centrifugation at 200 g for 10 min at 4°C. The homogenate was spun down at 1000 x g for 15 min. The supernatant containing mitochondria was centrifuged at 13000 g for 2 min. Centrifugation of the post mitochondrial supernatant at 105000 g for 90 min yielded the microsomal pellets which were washed twice, spun at the same speed and finally resuspended in 0.5 ml of PBS. Sample preparation for DIGE analysis was done as described previously [30] and protein content was quantified using the RC/DC Protein Assay (Bio-Rad Laboratories).

2.4. 2D-DIGE electrophoretic analyses

Microsomal protein samples from apoE-deficient mice (five biological replicates of each experimental condition) were analyzed by 2D-DIGE minimally labeled with Cy3 and Cy5 fluorescent dyes (50 μg of protein/400 pmol of dye) as previously described [30]. An internal standard was prepared by mixing equal amounts of microsomal proteins from control and squalene groups labeled with Cy2. Two-dimensional electrophoresis was carried as recently described [31] using 50 μg of each Cy2-, Cy3-and Cy5-labeled samples. Fluorescence images of the gels were acquired using a Typhoon Trio 9000 scanner (GE Healthcare) and processed using ImageQuant TM TL Software (GE Healthcare). Determination of protein spot abundance was performed

using the Progenesis SameSpots v4.0 software (Nonlinear Dynamics, U.K.). For protein identification, a preparative gel including 500 μ g of microsomal protein (50 μ g Cy2 labeled as internal standard) was also performed and stained with Coomassie. Spots whose densities significantly differed between treatments were excised manually from the preparative gel and subjected to triptic digestion as described [31].

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2.5. Mass spectrometry analyses

Sample and matrix, a saturated solution of alpha-cyano-4-hydroxycinnamic acid in 50% ACN/0.1% TFA/H₂O, were spotted in duplicate onto an Opti-Tof 384 well insert plate (Applied Biosystems). MALDI-TOF MS was performed using a 4800plus MALDI-TOFTOF (Applied Biosystems) in the reflector mode with accelerating voltage of 20 kV, mass range of 800 to 4000 Da and 1000 shots/spectrum. MS/MS spectra were acquired automatically on the 20 most intense precursors and calibrated using a standard protein mixture (4700 Calmix, Applied Biosystems). Alternatively, samples were dried and resuspended in 0.1 % formic acid and analysed by LC-MSMS in a nanoAcquity (Waters) coupled to an OrbitrapVelos (Thermo Scientific). Sample was injected in a C18 phase reverse column (75 µm Øi, 10 cm, nano Acquity, 1.7µm BEH column, Waters) in a gradient 1-40% for 20 min and 40-60% for 1 min at a flow rate of 250nl/min (A: 0.1% formic acid; B: 0.1% acid formic in acetonitrile). Eluted peptides were ionized by ESI (PicoTipTM, New Objective 2000V). Peptide masses were analyzed in the Orbitrap in full scan (m/z 350-1700) and 5 most abundant peptides were selected for CID fragmentation using helium as collision gas. Data was extracted with software Thermo Xcalibur (v.2.1.0.1140).

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2.6. Protein identification and data-mining

Proteins were identified using Mascot (Matrix Science Ltd.) with the SwissProt
database 57.15. MS/ MS data were searched according to the following criteria: fixed
modifications carbamidomethyl (cysteines) and peptide tolerance of 0.1 Da, fragment
mass tolerance of 0.3 Da, one missed cleavage and against the SwissProt Database for
mammalian proteins (64838 sequences). Proteins with a score above 61 (P<0.05) were
considered as a positive hit. The Protein Analysis Through Evolutionary Relationships
(PANTHER) resource was used to classify data into different categories
(www.pantherdb.org). Biological function was annotated using a manual elaboration of
information available at the following sites accessed on May 17th, 2012:
http://www.ebi.ac.uk/gxa/gene/

- 188 <u>http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/sites/entrez?db=gene&cmd</u>=
- http://func.mshri.on.ca/mouse/genes/list_functional_scores/102773
- 190 http://www.informatics.jax.org/javawi2/servlet/WIFetch?page=markerQF
- 191 http://vega.sanger.ac.uk/Mus_musculus/Gene/

2.7. Quantitative PCR analyses.

RNA from 100-mg liver mice was extracted using TriReagent (Sigma). DNA contaminants were eliminated using the DNA removal kit from AMBION (Austin, TX, USA). First-strand cDNA synthesis (0.5 μ g) and PCR reactions were performed using the SuperScript II Platinum Two-Step RT-qPCR Kit with SYBR Green (Invitrogen, Madrid, Spain) as previously described [19]. The mRNA expression was analyzed by quantitative real time PCR (qPCR) of individual samples using equal amounts of RNA. The primers (Supplementary Table 1) according to MIQE guidelines [32] were designed using Primer Express software (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA). The relative quantification of gene expression was analyzed by the $2^{-\Delta\Delta Cq}$ method [33]. The

mRNA expression corresponding to the cyclophilin B was used as the reference 203 204 control. 205 206 2.8. Statistical analyses Data were processed using SPSS version 20.0 software (SPSS®, Chicago, IL). 207 208 Comparisons were carried out using Mann-Whitney U-test. Correlations between 209 variables were tested by calculating the Spearman's correlation coefficient. Significance was set at P < 0.05. 210 211

3. Results

3.1. Histological analyses

ApoE-ko mice accumulate triglycerides and cholesterol in liver [34]. Although squalene did not modify plasma cholesterol and triglycerides [19], male apoE-ko mice receiving this agent showed decrease of hepatic fat content. Representative images are shown in Figure 1, panels A and B, and quantitative assessment showed that the decrease was statistically significant (Fig. 1C). Indeed, lipid droplet size was found significantly decreased in squalene-supplemented mice (control 2.16 ± 0.02 vs squalene group 2.08 ± 0.03 µm; Fig.1D). The tiny decrease in lipid droplet size compared to the important decrease in size occupied by lipids is suggesting a decrease in the number of lipid droplets as the main effect of squalene.

3.2. Microsomal proteomic profile after the dietary supplementation of squalene

in apoE-ko mice

The specific activity of the microsomal marker enzyme NADPH cytochrome P450 reductase used to monitor the purification process revealed an enrichment of over 3-fold and a yield of fraction recovery of over 28%. No enrichment was found when specific succinate dehydrogenase activity was used as mitochondrial marker and yield of this enzyme was lower than 9%. Separation and identification of microsomal hepatic proteins differentially regulated by squalene supplementation were carried out by 2D-DIGE. SameSpots software revealed statistically significant differences in 34 protein spots using ANOVA (p<0.05). Subsequently, after running a preparative Coomassiestained gel (Figure 2), including cy2-labeled proteins, the selected spots were manually excised and identified by MALDI-MS, being the hits searched in the databases (Table 1 and Supplementary Table 2). Twenty-two protein spots showed at least 1.3-fold

increased expression in the squalene group compared to the control group, while twelve protein spots were 1.3-fold decreased (Table 2). We observed changes in 10 proteins corresponding to mitochondria, 3 to peroxisomes and 19 to reticulum. Using protein accession numbers and PANTHER gene ontology database [35], proteins were classified in two groups according to their 1) biological processes or 2) molecular functions. Attending to the biological process criteria, protein changes were grouped in 5 categories (Fig. 3A), the majority of which participated in metabolism (46%). Of these, 68% were involved in primary metabolic processes (Fig. 3A), that is, protein and lipid (53%), amino acid (17%), nucleic acid (17%) and carbohydrate metabolism (13%). Attending to their molecular functions (Fig. 3B), the 61% of the differentially expressed proteins showed catalytic activity mainly as oxidoreductases (30%), hydrolases (20%), transferases (17%) and isomerases or ligases (13% each, respectively). A more detailed classification based on biological functions and subcellular localizations is shown in Table 2. In mitochondrial proteins those involved in generation of oxalacetate (PYC, Pcx), fatty oxidation (Echs1 and Pcca) and generation of ATP (Atp5a1 and Atp5b) were increased while catabolism of amino acids and generation of urea (Glud1 and Cps1) were decreased. For peroxisomes some isoforms of fatty oxidation and inactivation of hydrogen peroxide were increased (Acox1 and Cat). In reticulum, proteins involved in catabolism of amino acids (P4hb and Ftcd) and folates (Aldh111) were decreased, except arginine catabolism (Arg1), and amino acid biosynthesis (Pbld2) was increased. Proteins involved in lipid (Mup8 and Scp2) and vesicular transport (Nipsnap1 and Vcp), quality control of proteins (*Psma7*, *Pdia3*, *Hyou1* and *Hspa5*), calcium storage (*Calr*) and redox homeostasis (Txndc5 and Pyroxd2) were increased. Overall, squalene administration seems to favor an environment of protein biosynthesis and stabilization along with calcium storage and control of redox status in endoplasmic reticulum.

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3.3. RNA analysis of differentially expressed proteins

264 In order to support the observed squalene-induced protein changes, mRNA expression 265 analyses by qPCR of the 31 identified gene products were carried out in apoE-ko mice. 266 Aldh111, Arg1, Atp5b, Cat, Cps1, Hyou1, Ndufs1, Nipsnap1, Pcca, Pcx, Pyroxd2, 267 Slc25a13 and Txndc5 mRNA levels displayed significant increases after squalene 268 supplementation (Table 2). While changes in Arg1, Atp5b, Cat, Hyou1, Nipsnap1, 269 Pcca, Pcx, Pyroxd2, and Txndc5 paralleled the findings observed in the proteomics 270 analysis (Table 2), for Aldh111, Cps1, Ndufs1 and Slc25a13 an opposite behavior was 271 observed. For the remaining 18 gene products, the changes at the protein level were not 272 accompanied by mRNA changes. The fact corroborates that protein and mRNA 273 expression levels do not always show a direct correlation, since protein turnover rate, 274 stability, degradation, processing and post-translational modifications are not reflected 275 at the mRNA level [36]. There were evidences of post-translational modifications in 276 the identified proteins because of the deviations from the experimental pI, estimated by 277 spot migration in the 2D gels, and their corresponding theoretical values (vg CATA 278 [spot 5] and CPSM [spots 23-26], Table 1). Indeed, post-translational modifications 279 such as acetylation and phosphorylation of CPSM have already been described [37] 280 [38]. Further work will be required to identify the post-transcriptional and post-281 translational mechanisms underlying the observed changes at the protein level and not 282 in mRNA abundance. 283 To verify whether the mRNA changes in response to squalene were independent of the 284 presence of apolipoprotein E, wild-type animals were fed squalene, and the nine hepatic 285 transcripts reproducing the protein pattern were assayed. In this experimental setting of 286 presence of apoE (Table 3), squalene administration only produced a significant decreased expression of *Hyou1*, while *Arg1*, *Atp5b*, *Cat*, *Nipsnap1*, *Pcca*, *Pcx*, *Pyroxd2* and *Txndc5* expressions did not experience significant changes.

The requirement of squalene for *Hyou1* mRNA changes was also tested in mice lacking *Apoa1* as genetic model of absence of HDL and low possibility to deliver the hydrophobic molecule, squalene, to the liver [39]. Interestingly, these mice showed no change for *Hyou1* (data not shown). Collectively, these results suggest that the absence of apoE is an important determinant of squalene action and that *Hyou1* expression is sensitive to squalene administration.

3.4. Association among protein and mRNA expression changes and hepatic fat accumulation

The likelihood that protein expression could be associated with changes in hepatocyte fat accumulation induced by squalene intake in apoE-ko mice was analyzed by a correlation study among differences in levels of protein expression (% normalized spot volume) and the hepatic fat content. As reflected in Figure 4A, an inverse and statistically significant correlation was found between hepatic fat content and thioredoxin domain-containing protein 5 (TXNDC5) levels. No association was found between protein levels and diameter of lipid droplets (data not shown). Txndc5 mRNA changes were also inverse and significantly associated with hepatic fat (Fig. 4B). Since TXNDC5 changes were reflected at its mRNA level, an analysis of association was also carried out among this messenger changes and the other transcript levels in apoE-Ko mice. As shown in Fig. 4C, when a correlation analysis among Txndc5 and other hepatic mRNA levels was carried out, its mRNA levels were found significantly correlated with those of Aldh111, Arg1, Cps1, Cat, Hyou1, Ndufs1, Pcx and Slc25a13. These results indicate that Txndc5 expression is associated with that of these other genes.

4. Discussion

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In this study, the possible molecular mechanisms involved in hepatic steatosis have been investigated by studying the effects of administration of squalene, the major compound of the unsaponifiable fraction in virgin olive oil. For this purpose, liver microsomal proteomes from standard chow-fed apoE-ko mice supplemented or not with squalene have been analyzed and compared. Using 2D-fluorescence DIGE gels and image processing, thirty one proteins displaying significant differences were identified by mass spectrometry and considered putative squalene targets. Their changes were studied at the mRNA level and nine of them (Arg1, Atp5b, Cat, Hyou1, Nipsnap1, Pcca, Pcx, Pyroxd2, and Txndc5) paralleled the findings observed in the proteomics analysis. TXNDC5 also showed protein and mRNA levels associated with the degree of fat content in the liver. When these nine candidate genes were analyzed in squalene-fed wild-type animals, only Hyoul expression showed a significant decrease. The sensitivity of Hyou1 changes to squalene was also tested in Apoa1-deficient mice and its expression did not change. Using these animal models has allowed us to differentiate between the effects of squalene administration with or without fatty liver, developed by absence of apoE, and to define expression changes of squalene-sensitive genes. Our proteomics approach unveiled thirty one proteins displaying significant differences. The mild effects are consistent with our previous experiences in the field using one dietary component [31, 40] or complex mixtures such as virgin olive oils [8], and those of others [41] [12] indicating the inherent characteristics of dietary interventions in the nutrition field. Observed changes covered all aspects of metabolism, being particularly relevant those belonging to protein and lipid pathways (53% of changes), which are consistent with the important role of endoplasmic reticulum in these metabolic processes [25]. In addition, the administration of this

agent increased proteins involved in all actions of reticulum such as lipid and vesicular transport, protein quality control, calcium storage and redox homeostasis. Particularly the increase in GRP78/HSPA5 and PDIA3, known chaperones of apoB100 [42], could be relevant to control apoB100 insertion in VLDL, secretion of these particles and hepatic steatosis. The presence of mitochondrial proteins in microsomal preparation could represent a special contamination between these fractions in the preparation. The facts that no special enrichment of microsomes by mitochondria according to succinate dehydrogenase activity and that some mitochondrial proteins increased while other decreased are indicative of selective changes in these proteins induced by squalene rather than contamination. Something not surprising taking into account that most mitochondrial proteins are biosynthesized outside these organelles and need to be transferred into them, and close interaction between both subcellular fractions also exists [43, 44]. In fact, carbamoyl phosphate synthetase 1 (CPSM or CPS1) was copurified with 10-formyltetrahydrofolate dehydrogenase (ALDH1L1/ FDH) and betaine homocysteine S-methyltransferase as a protein complex of 300 kDa in rat [45]. Likewise, the presence and opposite nature of changes noted for peroxisomal proteins in our preparations could be explained by the dependence of peroxisomes on the microsomal protein biosynthesis [46, 47]. Another important finding of this study was the increased thioredoxin domain containing 5 (TXNDC5) protein expression in apoE-ko mice receiving squalene and that both its protein and mRNA levels were also significantly associated with hepatic fat content. TXNDC5 belongs to the thioredoxin family, has a protein disulphide isomerase-like domain which is thought to catalyse disulphide formation to aid protein folding or to regulate protein function against endoplasmic reticulum stress induced by

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oxidative insults [48]. Interestingly, an important decrease in oxidative stress, evaluated as 8-isoprostaglandin $F_{2\alpha}$, was observed in mice receiving squalene [19], in agreement with previous reports [49]. So, these protein changes could contribute to this lower oxidative stress. Furthermore, oxidative stress has been shown to induce apoB degradation [50] [51] and in this way decreased VLDL secretion. The observed association of TXNDC5 with the degree of fatty liver opens an interesting role for this protein in control of apoB in fatty liver present in absence of apoE. Furthermore, squalene-induced increase in TXNDC5 expression was also at the mRNA level in apoE-ko mice and these changes were in association with other members of ER mRNAs suggesting a coordinated regulation. In wild-type mice, this mRNA was not modified by squalene administration (Table 3). Thus, TXNDC5 seems a marker of the hepatic steatosis developed in absence of apoE and may play a role in this condition's amelioration induced by squalene. HYOU1 levels were found increased in apoE-deficient mice receiving squalene and their changes were correlated with their mRNA. HYOU1/GRP170/ORP150 mediates efficient insertion of polypeptides into the microsomal membrane using nucleoside triphosphates [52]. In addition to this role, it may participate in cell signalling. In this regard, HYOU1 or ORP150 is up-regulated by hypoxia, its expression increased in glucose starved cells [53], decreased in calorie-restricted mice [54] and had a role in hepatic insulin action [55, 56]. Transgenic mice overexpressing ORP150 showed lower concentrations of serum triglyceride, glucose and insulin [57]. In addition, it has been considered as an inhibitor of apoptosis in hepatocytes [58]. Based on these properties, squalene induction of this protein, which may protect hepatocytes, takes place at mRNA level. However, it is dependent on the presence of apoE since its increase was not observed in wild-type mice. In addition it requires the transport of high density

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388 lipoproteins to the liver since mice lacking apoA1 failed to show any effect. These 389 findings open interesting possibilities regarding the effects of squalene in more 390 advanced liver diseases, which would be particularly attractive considering its low 391 toxicity. 392 An interesting observed aspect was the decrease in fat content through decrease in 393 number and size of lipid droplets by squalene administration (Figure 1). A decrease that 394 was found associated with decreased atherosclerosis lesion [19]. Likewise, presence of 395 increased hepatic lipids and atherosclerosis has been widely reported in mice [24, 59], 396 rabbits [60] and even in humans [61]. However, increased hepatic lipids have been also 397 associated with lower atherosclerosis [8]. In latter case, the increased antioxidant 398 defence was considered as a potential explanation for the outcome, and as a common 399 finding for both conditions of hepatic fat changes might be an important player. But the 400 picture will be more complex, our male mice receiving squalene accumulate it in liver 401 [19]. Recently, using yeasts that accumulate squalene, it has been proposed that this 402 compound can be accommodated in lipid droplets or organelle membranes without 403 causing deleterious effects [62]. Overall, these observations are in line with current 404 opinion of whether non-alcoholic fatty liver disease is a defence mechanism against 405 toxic fatty acids [5] that may became awry under some circumstances, and squalene as 406 modulator of hepatic fat content that needs to be studied in depth. 407 In conclusion, proteomic experiments in apoE knockout mice point out that squalene 408 action is modifying endoplasmic reticulum proteins participating mainly in lipid and 409 protein metabolisms, more specifically, increasing proteins involved in lipid and 410 vesicular transport, protein quality control, calcium storage and redox homeostasis. 411 When the protein changes were studied at the mRNA level, nine of them (Arg1, Atp5b,

Cat, Hyou1, Nipsnap1, Pcca, Pcx, Pyroxd2, and Txndc5) paralleled the findings

observed in the proteomics analysis. Their mRNA levels were up-regulated by squalene administration in an apoE-dependent way. TXNDC5 protein and mRNA changes were associated with the degree of fatty liver developed by absence of apoE. The variation in TXNDC5 expression in presence of fatty liver was associated with the beneficial effect of squalene, suggesting a novel role for this protein in steatosis development.

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Abbreviations

- 428 ACOXI, AcoxI, peroxisomal acyl-coenzyme A oxidase 1; ACTB, Actb, actin,
- 429 cytoplasmic 1; AL1L1, Aldh111, aldehyde dehydrogenase family 1 member L1;
- 430 ARGI1, Arg1, arginase-1; ATPA, Atp5a1, ATP synthase subunit alpha, mitochondrial;
- 431 ATPB, Atp5b, ATP synthase subunit beta, mitochondrial; CALR, Calr, Calreticulin;
- 432 CATA, Cat, catalase; CMC2, Slc25a13, calcium-binding mitochondrial carrier protein
- 433 Aralar2; COQ9, Coq9, ubiquinone biosynthesis protein COQ9, mitochondrial; CPSM,
- 434 *Cps1*, carbamoyl-phosphate synthase [ammonia], mitochondrial; DHE3, *Glud1*,
- 435 glutamate dehydrogenase 1, mitochondrial; ECHM, Echs1, enoyl-CoA hidratase;
- 436 EST31, Ces3a, liver carboxylesterase 31; FTCD, Ftcd, formimidoyltransferase-
- 437 cyclodeaminase; GRP78, *Hspa5*, 78 kDa glucose-regulated protein; GSTM1, *Gstm1*,
- 438 glutathione S-transferase Mu 1; HYOU1, Hyou1, hypoxia up-regulated protein 1; LDL,
- low density lipoprotein; MIQE, minimum information for publication of quantitative
- real time PCR experiments; MUP8, Mup8, major urinary proteins 11 and 8; NDUS1,
- 441 Ndufs1, NADH-ubiquinone oxidoreductase 75 kDa subunit; NIPS1, Nipsnap1, protein
- NipSnap homolog 1; NLTP, Scp2, non-specific lipid-transfer protein; PANTHER,
- 443 protein analysis through evolutionary relationships; PBLD2, Pbld2, phenazine

biosynthesis-like domain-containing protein 2; PCCA, *Pcca*, propionyl-CoA carboxylase alpha chain, mitocondrial; PDIA1, *P4hb*, Protein disulfide-isomerase; PDIA3, *Pdia3*, protein disulfide-isomerase A3; PSA7, *Psma7*, proteasome subunit alpha type-7; PYC, *Pcx*, pyruvate carboxylase, mitocondrial; PYRD2, Pyroxd2, pyridine nucleotide-disulfide oxidoreductase domain-containing protein 2; TERA, *Vcp*, transitional endoplasmic reticulum ATPase; TXNDC5, *Txndc5*, thioredoxin domain-containing protein 5.

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637 Fig. 1. Effects of squalene on hepatic steatosis in apoE- knockout male mice. 638 Representative micrographs of control (A) and squalene-treated liver sections (B), bar 639 denotes 50 µm. C) Changes in hepatic fat content expressed as percentage of surface 640 occupied by lipid droplets in experimental groups (control and squalene, n=5, 641 respectively). D) Average lipid droplet diameter of 100 droplets per mouse of both 642 experimental groups were measured and expressed in µm. Mann-Whitney U-test was 643 used for the statistical analyses. **, P < 0.01. 644 Fig. 2. Proteome analyses of microsomal fractions. A) Representative images of Cy2, 645 Cy3, Cy5 and the overlap of the 3 dyes of 2-DE gels from apoE-ko mice. B) 2D 646 preparative Coomassie-stained gel with 34 spots exhibiting statistically significant 647 differences. Spot numbers correspond to proteins shown in Table 1. C) Spot pairs 648 corresponding to up-regulated PDIA3, PDIA1 and down-regulated NDUS1 and FTCD. 649 Fig. 3. Gene ontology groupings using the PANTHER classification system 650 (www.pantherdb.org). Classification of the identified changed proteins according to A) 651 biological processes and B) molecular functions. 652 Fig. 4. Association analyses among liver fat content, hepatic mRNA and protein 653 levels of control and squalene-treated apoE-deficient mice. A) Correlation analysis 654 among liver fat content and % normalized spot volume, B) Correlation analysis among 655 Txndc5 mRNA level and liver fat content and C) correlation analysis among Txndc5 and 656 other hepatic mRNA levels. Black squares denote chow-fed and grey triangles squalene-657 treated mice.

Table 1. List of spots and characterized proteins differentially expressed between squalene-treated and control animals in apoE-deficient mice.

Spot number ^a	Protein name	UniProt ID	UniProt entry name	Gene symbol	Mascot score ^b	Sequence coverage (%)	Peptides ^c	Ions score ^d	MW experimental	MW theoretical	pI experimental	pI theoretical
1	Glutathione S-transferase Mu 1	P10649	GSTM1	Gstm1	283	37	22	278	25	25.8	7.73	8.14
2	Non-specific lipid-transfer protein	P32020	NLTP	Scp2	542	28	26	534	50	59.1	7.17	7.16
3	Protein disulfide-isomerase A3	P27773	PDIA3	Pdia3	9025	76	494	9025	49	54.2	5.64	5.69
4	Ubiquinone biosynthesis protein COQ9, mitochondrial	Q8K1Z0	COQ9	Coq9	189	17	10	189	32	30.2	4.92	4.93
5	Catalase	P24270	CATA	Cat	875	45	61	795	49	59.6	4.5	7.72
6	Thioredoxin domain-containing protein 5	Q91W90	TXNDC5	Txndc5	62	18	9	9	43	43.0	4.97	5.19
7	Phenazine biosynthesis-like domain-containing protein 2	Q9CXN7	PBLD2	Pbld2	606	48	20	594	31	31.9	4.99	5.19
8	Major urinary proteins 11 and 8	P04938	MUP8	Mup8	91	53	14	14	18	17	4.67	4.74
9	Glutathione S-transferase Mu 1	P10649	GSTM1	Gstm1	170	33	14	165	25	25.8	7.89	8.14
10	Protein disulfide-isomerase A3	P27773	PDIA3	Pdia3	112	39	27	29	49	54.2	5.54	5.69
11	Calcium-binding mitochondrial carrier protein Aralar2	Q9QXX4	CMC2	Slc25a 13	768	35	42	767	82	74.4	7.2	8.77
	Peroxisomal acyl-coenzyme A oxidase 1	Q9R0H0	ACOX1	Acox1	209	13	8	209	82	74.6	7.2	8.64
12	Enoyl-CoA hydratase	Q8BH95	ECHM	Echs1	388	28	30	383	27	28.5	7.92	7.78

	Proteasome subunit alpha type-7	Q9Z2U0	PSA7	Psma7	376	41	13	364	27	27.7	7.92	8.59
	Protein NipSnap homolog 1	O55125	NIPS1	Nipsna p1	248	27	8	248	27	33.3	7.92	9.48
13	Liver carboxylesterase 31	Q63880	EST31	Ces3a	224	15	9	224	54	60.0	7.9	5.78
	ATP synthase subunit alpha, mitochondrial	Q03265	ATPA	Atp5a1	283	19	12	282	54	55.3	7.9	8.28
	Pyridine nucleotide-disulfide oxidoreductase domain-containing protein 2	Q3U4I7	PYRD2	Pyroxd 2	210	17	9	209	54	62.7	7.9	8.22
14	ATP synthase subunit beta, mitochondrial	P56480	ATPB	Atp5b	492	23	12	492	40	51.7	4.86	4.99
15	Arginase-1	Q61176	ARGI1	Arg1	109	51	21	5	38	34.8	6.45	6.52
16	Calreticulin	P14211	CALR	Calr	168	27	13	90	54	46.3	4.20	4.33
17	Protein disulfide-isomerase A3	P27773	PDIA3	Pdia3	612	51	40	356	49	54.2	5.45	5.69
18	Enoyl-CoA hydratase, mitochondrial	Q8BH95	ECHM	Echs1	306	27	21	305	26	28.5	7.9	7.78
	Proteasome subunit alpha type-7	Q9Z2U0	PSA7	Psma7	243	43	15	231	26	27.7	7.9	8.59
	Protein NipSnap homolog 1	O55125	NIPS1	Nipsna p1	237	32	9	237	26	33.3	7.9	9.48
19	Hypoxia up-regulated protein 1	Q9JKR6	HYOU1	Hyou1	4714	53	275	2578	158	107	4.96	5.06
20	78 kDa glucose-regulated protein	P20029	GRP78	Hspa5	145	28	20	58	78	70.5	4.7	5.01

21	Pyruvate carboxylase, mitochondrial	Q05920	PYC	Pcx	1140	39	59	1134	137	127.4	4.95	6.05
	Transitional endoplasmic reticulum ATPase	Q01853	TERA	Vcp	303	247	27	304	137	89.2	4.95	5.14
22	Propionyl-CoA carboxylase alpha chain, mitocondrial	Q91ZA3	PCCA	Pcca	700	45	36	683	76	74.5	5.75	6.04
23	Carbamoyl-phosphate synthase [ammonia], mitochondrial	Q8C196	CPSM	Cps1	1950	36	89	802	184	160.3	5.85	6.09
24	Carbamoyl-phosphate synthase [ammonia], mitochondrial	Q8C196	CPSM	Cps1	179	4	8	179	174	160.3	5.62	6.09
25	Carbamoyl-phosphate synthase [ammonia], mitochondrial	Q8C196	CPSM	Cps1	421	7	15	421	173	160.3	5.54	6.09
26	Carbamoyl-phosphate synthase [ammonia], mitochondrial	Q8C196	CPSM	Cps1	4670	64	306	2146	185	160.3	5.95	6.09
27	Actin, cytoplasmic 1	P60710	ACTB	Actb	143	40	19	58	42	41.7	5.03	5.29
28	Actin	P60710	ACTB	Actb	112	40	15	0	42	41.7	5.09	5.29
29	Aldehyde dehydrogenase family 1 member L1	Q8R0Y6	AL1L1	Aldh111	152	7	9	153	108	98.7	5.85	5.64
30	Calcium-binding mitochondrial carrier protein Aralar2	Q9QXX4	CMC2	Slc25a 13	660	31	35	660	71	74.5	7.39	8.77
	Peroxisomal acyl-coenzyme A oxidase 1	Q9R0H0	ACOX1	Acox1	197	9	5	198	71	74.6	7.50	8.64
31	NADH-ubiquinone oxidoreductase 75 kDa subunit	Q91VD9	NDUS1	Ndufs1	149	29	27	0	82	77.2	5.02	5.24

32	Protein disulfide-isomerase	P09103	PDIA1	P4hb	292	35	29	149	49	55.1	4.66	4.72
33	Formimidoyltransferase- cyclodeaminase	Q91XD4	FTCD	Ftcd	110	40	20	4	48	58.9	5.48	5.78
34	Glutamate dehydrogenase 1, mitochondrial	P26443	DHE3	Glud1	303	21	18	322	47	55.9	6.49	6.71
	ATP synthase subunit alpha, mitochondrial	Q03265	ATPA	Atp5a1	291	14	19	278	47	55.3	6.49	8.28

⁶⁵⁸ a. Spot numbers correspond to Figure 2B

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b. Mascot score: Protein Mascot Score based on MS and MSMS data (Protein Summary report). Protein scores > 61 were significant (p<0.05). Values higher than 600 correspond to those identified by LC-MS/MS.

c. Number of matching peptides

d. Ion score: Mascot score which results from adding up individual MS/MS scores (Peptide Summary Report). Ion scores > 28 were significant (p<0.05

Table 2. Effect of squalene on proteins and their hepatic mRNA levels in apoE-ko mice.							
Biological function	Protein name	Gene symbol	Protein fold change ^a	mRNA fold change ^b			
Mitochondria							
Biosynthesis of oxalacetate	Pyruvate carboxylase	Pcx	1.3	2.6*			
Biosynthesis of urea	Carbamoyl-phosphate synthase	Cps1	-1.9	1.7*			
Carrier of aspartate	Aralar2	Slc25a13	1.4	1.9*			
Carrier of aspartate	Aralar2	Slc25a13	-1.4	1.9*			
Desamination of glutamate	Glutamate dehydrogenase 1	Glud1	-1.3	1.2			
Electron transport	NADH-ubiquinone oxidoreductase 75 kDa subunit	Ndufs1	-1.4	1.4*			
Electron transport	Ubiquinone biosynthesis protein COQ9	Coq9	1.5	1.2			
Fatty acid catabolism	Enoyl-CoA hydratase	Echs1	1.4	1.0			
Fatty acid catabolism	Propionyl-CoA carboxylase alpha	Pcca	1.3	1.4*			
Generation of ATP	ATP synthase subunit alpha	Atp5a1	1.4	1.2			
Generation of ATP	ATP synthase subunit alpha	Atp5a1	-1.3	1.2			
Generation of ATP	ATP synthase subunit beta	Atp5b	1.4	1.3*			
Peroxisomes							
Fatty acid oxidation	Acyl-coenzyme A oxidase 1	Acox1	-1.4	1.2			
Fatty acid oxidation	Acyl-coenzyme A oxidase 1	Acox1	1.4	1.2			
Inactivation of hydrogen peroxide	Catalase	Cat	1.5	1.6*			
Endoplasmic reticulum							
Biosynthesis de amino acids	Phenazine biosynthesis-like domain- containing protein 2	Pbld2	1.5	1.2			
Biosynthesis of urea	Arginase-1	Arg1	1.4	2.2*			
Catabolism of proline	Protein disulfide-isomerase	P4hb	-1.3	1.2			
Catabolism of histidine	Formimidoyltransferase-cyclodeaminase	Ftcd	-1.3	1.0			
Catabolism of formyltetrahydrofolate	Aldehyde dehydrogenase 1L1	Aldh1l1	-1.4	2.1*			
Conjugation of glutathione	Glutathione S-transferase Mu 1	Gstm1	1.7	1.1			
Cytoskeleton	Actin	Actb	-1.5	0.9			
Ester hydrolysis	Liver carboxylesterase 31	Ces3a	1.4	1.1			
Intracellular vesicle transport	Protein NipSnap homolog 1	Nipsnap1	1.4	2.4*			
Intracellular vesicle transport	Transitional endoplasmic reticulum ATPase	Vcp	1.3	1.0			
Intracellular lipid transport	Non-specific lipid-transfer protein	Scp2	1.6	1.0			
Intracellular lipid transport	Major urinary proteins 11 and 8	Mup8	1.5	1.0			
Management of calcium storages	Calreticulin	Calr	1.3	1.2			
Protein degradation	Proteasome subunit alpha type-7	Psma7	1.4	1.1			
Protein folding	Protein disulfide-isomerase A3	Pdia3	1.6	1.3			
Protein folding	78 kDa glucose-regulated protein	Hspa5	1.3	1.0			
Protein insertion into membrane	Hypoxia up-regulated protein 1	Hyou1	1.3	2.0*			
Redox homeostasis	Thioredoxin domain-containing protein 5	Txndc5	1.5	1.8*			
Redox homeostasis in nucleotides	Pyridine nucleotide-disulfide oxidoreductase domain-containing protein 2	Pyroxd2	1.4	2.2*			

^a Positive and negative fold changes in spot expressions indicate up- and down-regulation of protein spots between squalene-treated (n=5) and control (n=5) animals.

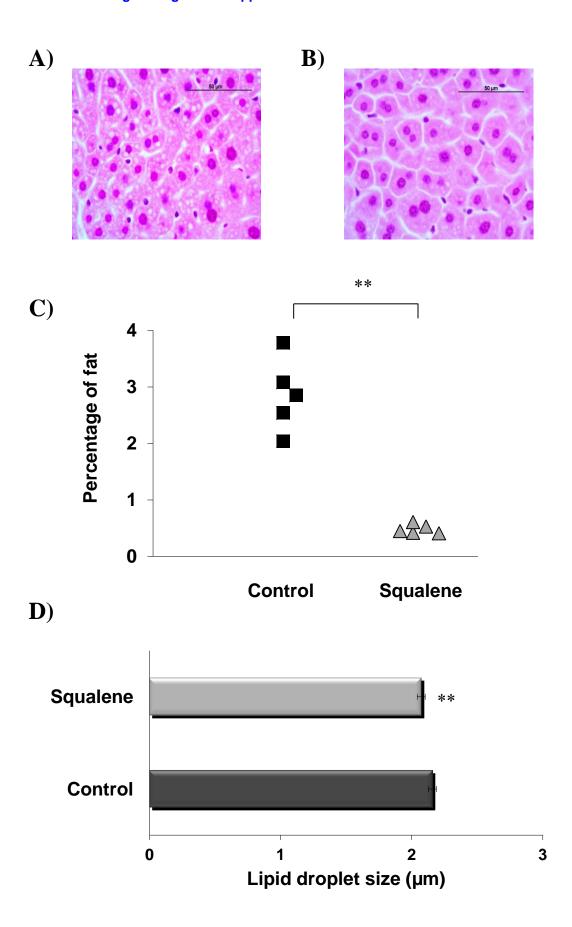
^b Fold changes in arbitrary fluorescence units normalized to the *Cyclophilin B* gene expression with the qPCR analysis. *P < 0.05 665

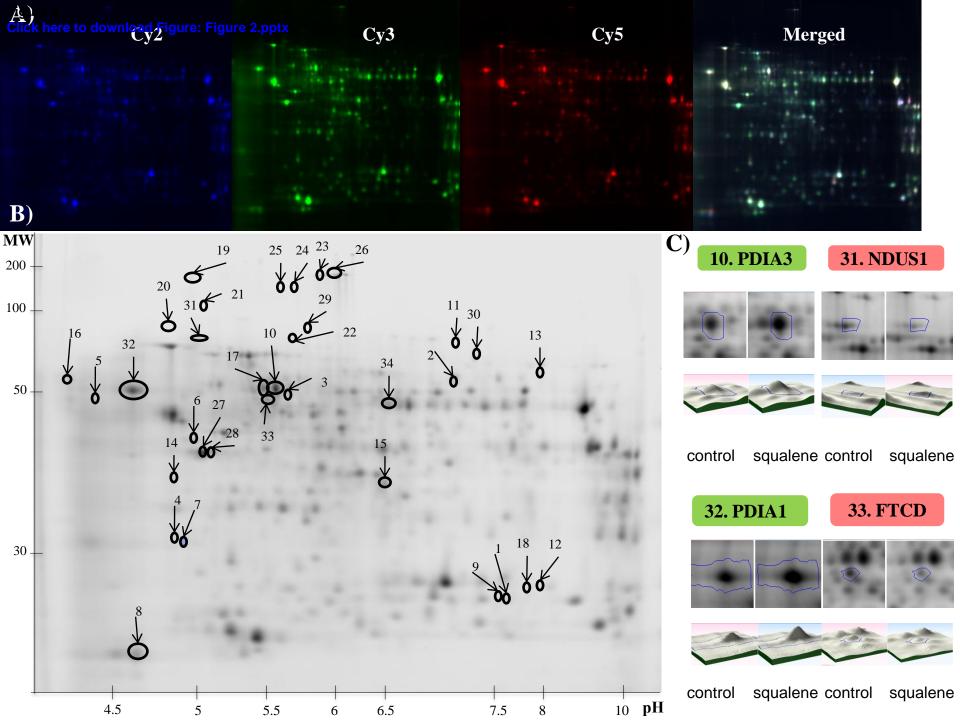
Table 3. Effect of squalene administration on hepatic mRNA levels in wild-type mice

	Control group (n=7)	Squalene group (n=7)
Argl	1.0 ± 0.1	0.9 ± 0.2
Atp5b	1.0 ± 0.1	1.4 ± 0.3
Cat	1.2 ± 0.2	1.5 ± 0.2
Hyou1	1.1 ± 0.2	$0.5 \pm 0.2*$
Nipsnap1	1.1 ± 0.2	1.2 ± 0.2
Pcca	1.1 ± 0.2	1.3 ± 0.2
Pcx	1.0 ± 0.1	0.9 ± 0.1
Pyroxd2	1.1 ± 0.1	1.2 ± 0.1
Txndc5	1.0 ± 0.1	0.8 ± 0.1

Results are expressed as mean \pm SEM of arbitrary fluorescence units normalized to the *Cyclophilin B* gene expression with the qPCR analysis. Statistical analyses were done according to Mann–Whitney U-test.

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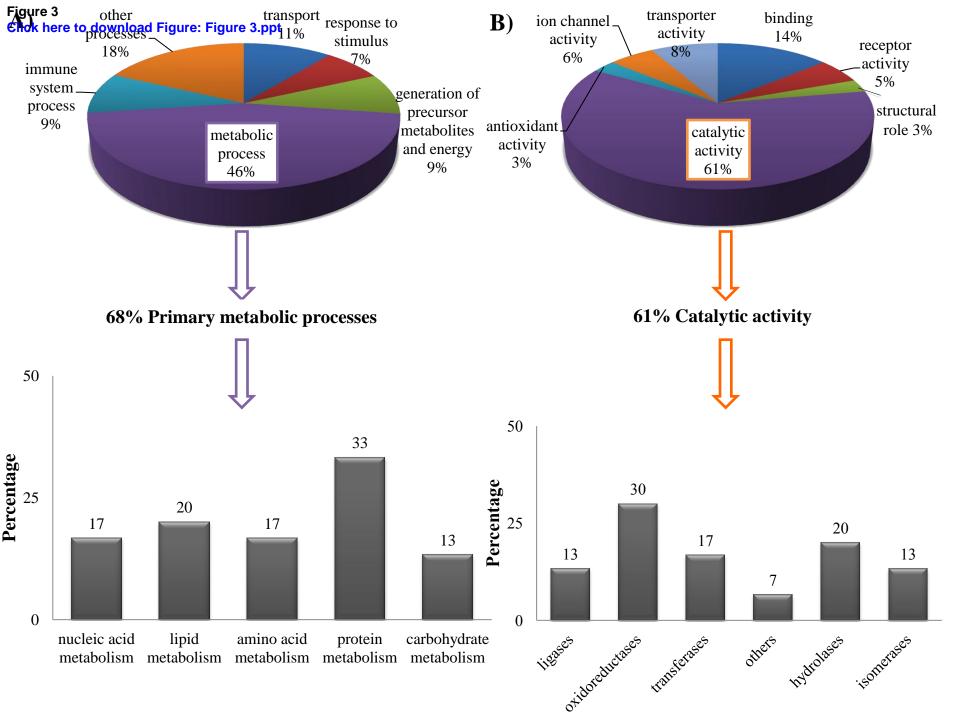
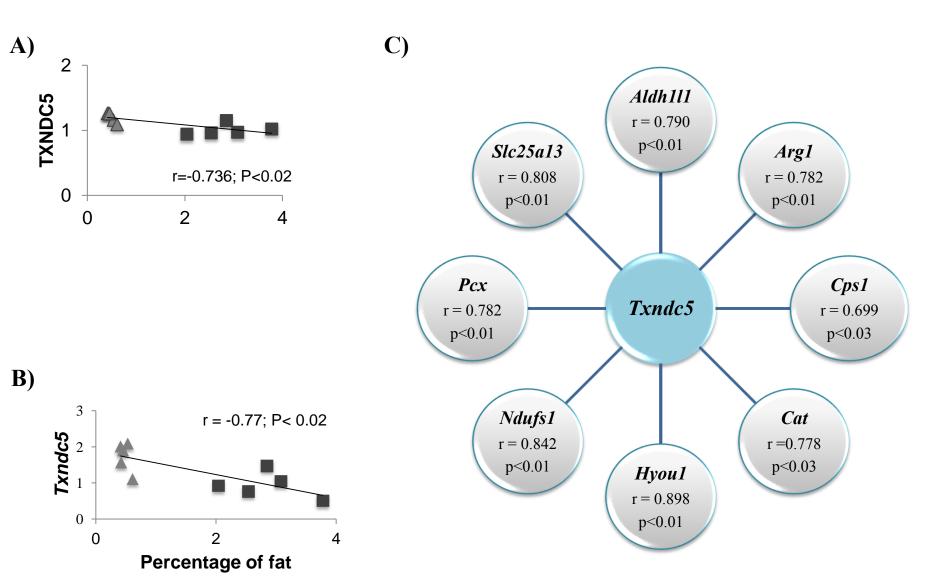


Figure 4
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Supplementary Table 1
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Supplementary Table 2
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