Exogenous phosphatidic acid reduces acetaminophen-induced liver injury in mice by activating the interleukin-6 – Hsp70 axis through inter-organ crosstalk

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Abbreviations

APAP, acetaminophen; ALF, acute liver failure; NAPQI, N-acetyl-p-benzoquinone imine; JNK,

c-Jun N-terminal kinase; NAC, N-acetylcysteine; PA, phosphatidic acid; IL-6, interleukin-6;

ALT, alanine aminotransferase; GSH, reduced glutathione; GSSG, oxidized glutathione; GSK3β,

glycogen synthase kinase 3β; GO:BP, gene ontology:biological processes; Stat3, signal

transducer and activator of transcription 3; KC, Kupffer cell; eWAT, epididymal white adipose

tissue; Pcna, proliferating cell nuclear antigen; Hif2α, hypoxia-inducible factor; CCl4, carbon

tetrachloride; mTORC1, mechanistic target of rapamycin complex 1; LysoPA, lyso-phosphatidic

acid; DAG, diacylglycerol.

Abstract

We previously demonstrated that endogenous phosphatidic acid (PA) promotes liver

regeneration after acetaminophen (APAP) hepatotoxicity in mice. Based on that, we

hypothesized that exogenous PA is also beneficial. To test that, we treated mice with a toxic

APAP dose at 0 h, followed by PA or vehicle at multiple timepoints. We then collected blood

and liver at 6, 24, and 52 h. Post-treatment with PA protected against liver injury at 6 h, and the

combination of PA and N-acetyl-cysteine (NAC) further reduced injury compared to NAC alone.

Interestingly, PA had no effect on major early mechanisms of APAP toxicity, including APAP

bioactivation, oxidative stress, JNK activation, and mitochondrial damage. However,

transcriptomics revealed that PA activated interleukin-6 (IL-6) signaling in the liver, and IL-6

was increased in serum from PA-treated mice. Furthermore, PA did not protect against APAP in

IL-6-deficient mice. Additional experiments revealed that PA induced heat shock protein 70

(Hsp70) in the liver in WT mice but not in IL-6 KO mice. Furthermore, IL-6 expression

increased 18-fold in adipose tissue after PA, indicating that adipose tissue is a likely source of

the increased IL-6 due to PA treatment. Surprisingly, however, exogenous PA did not alter

regeneration, despite the widely accepted role of IL-6 in liver repair. These data reinforce the

protective role of IL-6 and Hsp70 in APAP hepatotoxicity, provide new insight into the role of

IL-6 in liver regeneration, and indicate that exogenous PA or PA derivatives may one day be a

useful adjunct treatment for APAP overdose with NAC.

1. Introduction

Acetaminophen (APAP) is a popular analgesic and antipyretic drug (Kaufman et al., 2002), but overdose causes severe acute liver injury. It is currently the leading cause of acute liver failure (ALF) throughout much of the world (Lee, 2008). Conversion of APAP to the reactive metabolite N-acetyl-*p*-benzo quinoneimine (NAPQI) initiates the hepatotoxicity. NAPQI binds to free sulfhydryl groups on amino acid residues, depleting hepatic glutathione and damaging proteins (Jollow et al., 1973; Mitchell et al., 1973; McGill and Hinson, 2020). The protein binding leads to mitochondrial dysfunction and oxidative stress (Jaeschke, 1990; Cover et al., 2005), which activates the c-Jun N-terminal kinases 1/2 (JNK) and other kinases (Gunawan et al., 2006; Hanawa et al., 2008; Nakagawa et al., 2008; Ramachandran et al., 2013). Activated JNK translocates from the cytosol to mitochondria, where it exacerbates the mitochondrial dysfunction by reducing mitochondrial respiration (Hanawa et al., 2008; Win et al., 2016). Eventually, the mitochondrial permeability transition occurs (Kon et al., 2004; Reid et al., 2005), and the mitochondrial damage causes release of endonucleases from mitochondria, which then cleave nuclear DNA (Bajt et al., 2006). The affected hepatocytes die by necrosis (Gujral et al., 2002; McGill etal., 2011; 2012).

Phosphatidic acid (PA) is a critically important lipid in all prokaryotic and eukaryotic cells. It is the simplest diacylated glycerophospholipid, having a bare phosphate head group. In cell and organelle membranes, the small size and negative charge of the head group likely promotes negative curvature that may be important for membrane fission (Kooijman et al., 2003). It is also a major metabolic intermediate, serving as a key precursor for synthesis of all other phospholipids as well as triglycerides (Pokotyla et al., 2018). Finally, it is a major lipid second messenger that is known to play a role in nutrient sensing and cell proliferation via

mechanistic target of rapamycin (mTOR) signaling (Fang et al., 2001; Foster, 2013; Pokotyla et

al., 2018).

We recently demonstrated that phosphatidic acid (PA) is beneficial after APAP-induced

liver injury in mice through an entirely novel mechanism (Lutkewitte et al., 2018; Clemens et al.,

2019a). Briefly, we found that *endogenous* PA is elevated in the liver after APAP overdose, and

that it promotes cell proliferation and therefore liver repair by regulating glycogen synthase

kinase 3β (GSK3β) (Lutkewitte et al., 2018; Clemens et al., 2019). However, we did not test the

effect of *exogenous* administration of PA on APAP-induced liver injury. In the present study, we

hypothesized that exogenous PA is beneficial in a mouse model of APAP overdose. Our data

demonstrate that it reduces APAP hepatotoxicity by increasing systemic interleukin-6 (IL-6)

from adipose tissue, which in turn upregulates expression of protective Hsp70 in the liver.

2. Experimental procedures

2.1.   Animals.

Male wild-type (WT) C57BL/6J mice and IL-6 knockout mice (IL-6 KO; B6.129S2-

Il6[tm1Kopf]/J) between the ages of 8 and 12 weeks were obtained from The Jackson Laboratory

(Bar Harbor, ME, USA). The mice were housed in a temperature-controlled 12 h light/dark cycle

room and allowed free access to food and water. The APAP and PA solutions were prepared

fresh on the morning of each experiment. APAP was prepared by dissolving 15 mg/mL APAP

(Sigma, St. Louis, MO, USA) in 1x PBS with gentle heating and intermittent vortexing. The PA

solution was prepared by re-constituting purified egg PA extract (Avanti Polar Lipids, Alabaster,

AL, USA) at 10 mg/mL in 10% DMSO in 1x PBS, warming to 80°C for 20-30 min with

intermittent mixing to obtain a uniform hazy suspension, and cooling to room temperature

immediately before injection. To determine if PA affects liver injury, WT mice (n = 5-10 per

group) were fasted overnight then injected (i.p.) with 250 mg/kg APAP at 0 h, followed by 10%

DMSO vehicle (Veh) or 20 mg/kg PA (i.p.) at 2 h. Blood and liver tissue were collected at 6 h.

We chose the 20 mg/kg dose of PA because it is commonly recommended when taken as a

dietary supplement in humans. To determine if the combination of N-acetylcysteine (NAC) and

PA reduces injury compared to NAC alone, some mice were injected with APAP at 0 h followed

by 300 mg/kg NAC (dissolved in 1x PBS) and either PA or vehicle at 2 h (n = 7 per group).

Blood was collected at 6 h. We chose the 300 mg/kg dose of NAC because it is approximately 2-

fold greater than the typical loading dose in humans after APAP overdose. Using this high dose

of NAC ensures that our results comparing NAC with APAP+NAC are conservative and robust.

For transcriptomics, the original PA experiment was repeated at the 6 h time point with addition

of a vehicle-only control group (n = 5 per group). To determine if PA protection depends upon

IL-6, the experiment was repeated again at the 6 h time point using IL-6 KO mice (n = 5-6 per

group) and a similar but higher dose of APAP (350 mg/kg). The change in APAP dose in the

latter experiment was due to an adjustment made to our university animal use protocol during the

course of the study and unrelated to our data from these experiments. Finally, to test the role of

Kupffer cells, the original PA experiment was repeated at the 6 h time point with WT mice (n =

10 per group) after 24 h i.v. (tail vein) pre-treatment with 0.2 mL of 17 mM liposomal clodronate

(Clodrosome, Brentwood, TN, USA). All study protocols were approved by the Institutional

Animal Care and Use Committee of the University of Arkansas for Medical Sciences.

2.2.   Subcellular fractionation

Right and caudate liver lobes were homogenized in ice cold isolation buffer containing

220 mM mannitol, 70 mM sucrose, 2.5 mM HEPES, 10 mM EDTA, 1mM ethylene glycol tetra-

acetic acid and 0.1% bovine serum albumin (pH 7.4) using a Thermo-Fisher Bead Mill.

Subcellular fractions were obtained by differential centrifugation. Samples were centrifuged at

2,500 x g for 10 min to blood cells and debris. Supernatants were then centrifuged at 20,000 x g

for 10 min to pellet mitochondria. The supernatant was retained as the cytosol fraction. Pellets

containing mitochondria were then resuspended in 100 µL of isolation buffer and freeze-thawed

three times using liquid nitrogen to disrupt the mitochondrial membranes. Protein concentration

was measured in both the mitochondrial and cytosol fractions using the BCA assay, and the

samples were used for western blotting as described below.

2.3. Clinical Chemistry

Alanine aminotransferase (ALT) was measured in serum using a kit from Point Scientific

Inc. (Canton, MI, USA) according to the manufacturer's instructions.

2.4. Histology

Liver tissue sections were fixed in 10% formalin. For hematoxylin & eosin (H&E)

staining, fixed tissues were embedded in paraffin wax, then 5 µm sections were mounted on

glass slides and stained according to a standard protocol. Necrosis was quantified in the H&E-

stained sections by two independent, fellowship-trained, hepatobiliary pathologists who were

both blinded to sample identity. Percent necrosis was then averaged for each animal. For Oil

Red O staining, fixed tissues were embedded in OCT compound and rapidly frozen by placing

on a metal dish floating in liquid nitrogen. 8 µm sections were cut and mounted on positively-

charged glass slides. The sections were allowed to dry for 30 min at room temperature, then

treated with 60% isopropanol for 5 min, followed by freshly prepared Oil Red O solution in

isopropanol for 10 min, and then 60% isopropanol for an additional 2 min. The sections were

then rinsed with PBS, treated with Richard-Allan Gill 2 hematoxylin solution (Thermo Fisher,

Waltham, MA, USA) for 1 min, and rinsed again with PBS before cover-slipping. Digital

images were taken using a Labomed Lx400 microscope with digital camera (Labo American

Inc., Fremont, CA, USA).

2.5. Western Blotting

Liver tissues were homogenized in 25 mM HEPES buffer with 5 mM EDTA, 0.1%

CHAPS, and protease inhibitors (pH 7.4). Protein concentration was measured using a

bicinchoninic acid (BCA) assay. The samples were then diluted in homogenization buffer, mixed

with reduced Laemmli buffer, and boiled for 1 min. Equal amounts (60 µg protein) were added

to each lane of a 4-20% Tris-glycine gel. After electrophoresis, proteins were transferred to

PVDF membranes and blocked with 5% milk in Tris-buffered saline with 0.1% Tween 20.

Primary monoclonal antibodies were purchased from Cell Signaling Technology (Danvers, MA,

USA): p-JNK (Cat. No. 4668), JNK (Cat. No. 9252), AIF (Cat. No. 5318), Cytochrome-C (Cat.

No.11940), AIF (Cat. No. 5318), GSK3β (Cat. No. 9315), phospho-GSK3β (Cat. No. 9323), and

β-actin (Cat. No. 4967). All primary antibodies were used at 1:1000 dilution. Secondary

antibodies were purchased from LiCor Biosciences (Lincoln, NE, USA): IRDye 680 goat anti-

mouse IgG (Cat. No. 926-68070) and IRDye 800CW goat anti-rabbit IgG (Cat. No. 926-32211).

All secondary antibodies were used at 1:10,000 dilution. Bands were visualized using the

Odyssey Imaging System (LiCor Biosciences, Lincoln, NE, USA).

2.6. Glutathione measurement

Total glutathione (GSH+GSSG) and oxidized glutathione (GSSG) were measured using a

modified Tietze assay, as we previously described in detail (McGill and Jaeschke, 2015).

2.7. APAP-protein adduct measurement

APAP-protein adducts were measured using high pressure liquid chromatography

(HPLC) with electrochemical detection, as previously described (Muldrew et al., 2002; McGill et

al., 2013).

2.8. Transcriptomics

The Supporting Information section contains all details concerning RNA-seq sample

prep, next generation sequencing, and bioinformatic analyses.

2.9. Statistics

Normality was assessed using the Shapiro-Wilk test. Normally distributed data were

analyzed using a t-test for comparison of two groups or one-way ANOVA with post-hoc

Student-Neuman-Keul's for comparison of three or more groups. Data that were not normally

distributed were analyzed using a nonparametric Mann-Whitney U test for comparison of two

groups, or one-way ANOVA on ranks with post-hoc Dunnet's test to compare three or more. All

statistical tests were performed using SigmaPlot 12.5 software (Systat, San Jose, CA, USA).

3. Results

3.1. Exogenous PA reduces liver injury at 6 h after APAP overdose.

To determine the effect of exogenous PA treatment on APAP-induced liver injury, we

treated mice with APAP at 0 h followed by PA or vehicle at 2 h. We then collected blood and

liver tissue at 6 h. We observed a significant reduction in serum ALT values in the PA-treated

mice at 6 h post-APAP (Fig. 1A). Two blinded, fellowship-trained hepatobiliary and GI

pathologists independently confirmed the reduction in injury based on histology (Fig. 1B and

Table 1). NAC is the current standard-of-care treatment for APAP-induced liver injury in

patients. To determine if the combination of PA and NAC can further reduce injury after APAP

overdose compared to the standard-of-care alone, we treated mice with APAP followed by 300

mg/kg NAC and either vehicle or PA. The combination of NAC plus PA significantly decreased

serum ALT compared to NAC plus vehicle (Table 2). Together, these data demonstrate that

exogenous PA can reduce liver APAP-induced liver injury and indicate that it could be useful as

an adjunct treatment for APAP overdose.

3.2.   Exogenous PA does not affect the canonical mechanisms of APAP-induced liver

injury.

Next, we sought to determine the mechanisms by which exogenous PA reduces early

APAP hepatotoxicity. The initiating step in APAP-induced liver injury is formation of the

reactive metabolite N-acetyl-*p*-benzoquinone imine (NAPQI), which depletes glutathione and

binds to proteins. To determine if the decrease in liver injury at 6 h was due to an effect on

NAPQI formation, we measured total glutathione (GSH + GSSG) and APAP-protein adducts in

the liver. We did not detect a significant difference between the APAP plus vehicle and APAP

plus PA groups in either parameter (Fig. 2A,B).

To determine if PA protects by preventing the early mitochondrial dysfunction and

oxidative stress after APAP overdose, we measured GSSG in the liver. There was no significant

difference in either total GSSG or the percentage of glutathione in the form of GSSG (%GSSG)

between the two groups (Fig. 2C,D). To test if JNK activation and/or mitochondrial translocation

were affected, we immunoblotted for phosphorylated and total JNK. Again, we could not detect

a difference between the groups (Fig. 2E,F). To determine if PA had an effect on mitochondrial

damage downstream of JNK, and therefore mitochondrial rupture, we also immunoblotted for

AIF and cytochrome c in cytosolic fractions, and again no differences were detected (Fig. 2G).

Because we previously found that endogenous PA can regulate GSK3β activity through Ser9

phosphorylation (Clemens et al., 2019a) and because active GSK3β is known to exacerbate

APAP-induced liver injury (Shinohara et al., 2010), we also measured GSK3β Ser9

phosphorylation but once again observed no differences (Fig. 2H). Finally, as an additional

indicator of mitochondrial function, we performed Oil Red O staining of triglycerides in frozen

liver sections to assess lipid oxidation. Consistent with previous studies (Bhattacharyya et al.,

2014; Borude et al., 2018), we observed Oil Red O accumulation in the damaged hepatocytes

within centrilobular regions, indicating loss of β-oxidation due to mitochondrial damage, but

again we saw no apparent difference between the groups (Fig. 2I). Altogether, these data largely

rule out an effect of PA on APAP bioactivation, oxidative stress, and overt mitochondrial

damage.

3.3.   Exogenous PA protects through IL-6 signaling in the liver.

To identify other mechanisms by which PA might reduce early APAP hepatotoxicity, we

performed next generation RNA sequencing in liver tissue from mice treated with vehicle only,

APAP plus vehicle, and APAP plus PA. We found that 6,192 genes were differentially expressed

between the vehicle only and the APAP plus vehicle groups. Consistent with the protein

alkylation, oxidative stress, and inflammation known to occur in APAP hepatotoxicity, gene

ontology (biological processes; GO:BP) analysis revealed that genes involved in protein

refolding, cell responses to chemical stimulus, and toll-like receptor signaling were increased by

APAP, while various cell growth and cell signaling processes were decreased (Fig. 3A). 388

genes were differentially expressed between the APAP plus vehicle and APAP plus PA groups.

This was insufficient for complete GO analysis, but it is notable that the GO:BP term "acute

inflammatory response" was over-represented in the APAP plus PA group when using a log2

fold-change threshold of 1. Furthermore, hierarchical clustering analysis (Fig. 3B) showed clear

separation of the APAP plus vehicle and APAP plus PA groups across the five biological

replicates per group. Importantly, upstream analysis (Ingenuity Pathway Analysis [IPA])

revealed activation of signaling downstream of IL-6 and its target transcription factor signal

transducer and activator of transcription 3 (Stat3) (Table 3). Recent studies have demonstrated

that IL-6 is protective in APAP hepatotoxicity (Gao et al., 2019), and it was previously

demonstrated that treatment with exogenous PA at doses similar to those we used here rapidly

increase serum IL-6 concentration (Lim et al., 2003). Thus, to confirm that PA increased serum

IL-6 in our experiment, we measured IL-6 protein in serum at 6 h post-APAP. Importantly, IL-6

was significantly elevated in the APAP plus PA mice compared to the APAP plus vehicle

animals (Fig. 3C). Together, these data indicate that PA may protect against APAP toxicity by

activating IL-6.

To confirm that exogenous PA affects APAP-induced liver injury through IL-6, we

compared the effect of exogenously administered PA on APAP hepatotoxicity in WT and IL-6

KO mice at 6 h post-APAP. Importantly, PA did not reduce liver injury in the KO mice, despite

protecting in the WT mice in the same experiment (Fig. 4). In fact, it appeared to worsen injury

in the IL-6 KO mice. These data clearly demonstrate that IL-6 is necessary for the protection

provided by exogenous PA in WT mice, and support previous work indicating that IL-6 is

protective in APAP-induced liver injury overall.

It is known that IL-6 increases expression of Hsp70 and other heat shock proteins in the

liver during APAP hepatotoxicity (Masubuchi et al., 2003). Furthermore, Hsp70 is protective

after APAP overdose (Tolson et al., 2006). These data suggest that PA might protect through IL-

6-mediated induction of Hsp70. To test that, we immunoblotted for Hsp70 in liver tissue from

the WT and IL-6 KO mice. Importantly, Hsp70 protein level was significantly increased by

exogenous PA in the WT mice but not the KO mice (Fig. 5), indicating that PA may indeed

protect through an Hsp70 – IL-6 axis.

3.4. Adipose tissue is a likely source of increased IL-6 after PA treatment.

Multiple liver cell types express IL-6, but Kupffer cells (KCs) are the major producers.

To determine if the increase in IL-6 caused by treatment with exogenous PA is due to increased

expression of IL-6 in KCs or other liver cells, we measured IL-6 mRNA in liver tissue in the

APAP plus vehicle and APAP plus PA groups. We could not detect a significant difference in

IL-6 expression between the two groups (Fig. 6A). Because KCs account for only a small portion

of cells in the liver, it is possible that total liver mRNA has poor sensitivity to detect changes

specifically within KCs. Thus, to further test if KCs are the source of IL-6 after PA treatment, we

pre-treated mice with liposomal clodronate to ablate macrophages. The following day, we

administered APAP followed by either PA or vehicle. Blood and liver tissue were collected at 6

h post-APAP. Surprisingly, serum ALT was still significantly reduced by PA (Fig. 6B), despite

depletion of the liver macrophages (Fig. 6C). These data indicate that the liver itself is probably

not the major source of IL-6 after PA treatment.

To identify other possible sources of IL-6, we treated mice with PA or vehicle and

collected liver, kidney, lung, epididymal white adipose tissue (eWAT), and spleen 4 h later. We

chose these tissues because they have high basal IL-6 expression and are known to produce IL-6

in other disease contexts. Interestingly, we observed an 18-fold increase in IL-6 mRNA in eWAT

(Fig. 6D). We could not detect differences in the other tissues. These data reveal that adipose

tissue is a likely source of increased systemic IL-6 after PA treatment, indicating inter-organ

crosstalk between liver and fat.

3.5. Exogenous PA does not promote liver regeneration.

Finally, because we previously demonstrated that endogenous PA promotes liver

regeneration (Lutkewitte et al., 2018; Clemens et al., 2019a) and because IL-6 is a well-known

driver of regeneration (Clemens et al., 2019b), we wanted to determine if exogenous PA

enhances regeneration and repair after APAP overdose. To test that, we treated mice with APAP

at 0 h, followed by exogenous PA or vehicle at 6, 24, and 48 h post-APAP. We selected these

late post-treatment time points to avoid an effect on the early injury, which would have

decreased liver regeneration secondary to the reduced injury. We then collected blood and liver

tissue at 24 and 52 h. Although serum ALT was significantly decreased at 52 h (Fig. 7A), there

was no apparent difference in area of necrosis (Fig. 7B) and no change in Pcna (Fig. 7C)

between the treatment groups at either time point. These data indicate that exogenous PA, unlike

endogenous PA, does not affect liver regeneration after APAP overdose.

4. Discussion

Together with our earlier work, the results from this study reveal that endogenous and

exogenous PA have different beneficial effects in APAP hepatotoxicity involving different

mechanisms of action. We previously demonstrated that endogenous PA accumulates in liver

tissue and plasma after APAP overdose in both mice and humans (Lutkewitte et al., 2018).

Importantly, inhibition of the PA accumulation had no effect on injury in the mice, but did

reduce regeneration and survival by de-regulating GSK3β activity through an effect on Ser9

phosphorylation (Lutkewitte et al., 2018; Clemens et al., 2019a). In the present study, we found

that exogenous PA reduces the early injury by increasing systemic IL-6 levels, but has no effect

on GSK3β phosphorylation or liver regeneration. These data indicate that exogenous PA or PA

derivatives may be a useful adjunct with NAC to treat early APAP hepatotoxicity in patients, but

targeting PA-mediated signaling to promote liver regeneration in late presenters will require a

different approach.

Our data demonstrate that exogenous PA reduced early injury but had no effect on the

major intracellular mechanisms of APAP hepatotoxicity (NAPQI formation, oxidative stress,

mitochondrial damage). Transcriptomics analysis then indicated that PA activated IL-6 signaling.

Through upstream analysis, we observed activation of IL-6/STAT3 signaling in liver tissue from

our PA-treated animals. We then demonstrated that PA does not protect in IL-6 KO mice. Those

results are consistent with earlier data demonstrating that systemic administration of exogenous

PA dramatically increases circulating levels of IL-6 (Lim et al., 2003). They also confirm the

protective role of IL-6 in APAP hepatotoxicity. Masubuchi et al. (2003) reported that IL-6 KO

mice have worse injury after APAP overdose. More recently, Gao et al. (2019) observed that

administration of exogenous IL-6 is protective. Importantly, the protective effect of IL-6 likely

involves heat shock proteins, since Hsp70 and others are increased in liver tissue after APAP

treatment in an IL-6-dependent manner (Masubuchi et al., 2003) and Hsp70 KO worsens APAP

toxicity (Tolson et al., 2006). Taken together with our data, it seems likely that exogenous PA

delays injury through its effects on the IL-6-Hsp70 signaling axis.

Bae et al. (2017) recently demonstrated that exogenously administered lysoPA also

protects against APAP hepatotoxicity. PA can be converted to lysoPA by phospholipases, so it is

theoretically possible that lysoPA contributed to the protection we observed in our study.

However, their data demonstrated that lysoPA protected by 1) preventing early glutathione

depletion and increasing glutathione re-synthesis at 6 h post-APAP and by 2) altering JNK and

GSK3β activation (Bae et al., 2017), while we could not detect any effect of exogenous PA on

either glutathione or kinases in our experiments. These data indicate that PA protected through

entirely different mechanisms in our study. However, Bae et al. (2017) also used a 1 h pre-

treatment in most of their experiments, which has limited clinical relevance and makes it difficult

to directly compare our results.

It is surprising that exogenous PA did not enhance liver regeneration after APAP

overdose despite multiple treatments, especially considering the importance of IL-6 in liver

repair. IL-6-deficient animals have delayed regeneration after partial hepatectomy, APAP

overdose, and CCl_4 hepatotoxicity (Cressman et al., 1996; Selzner et al., 1999; James et al.,

2003; Rio et al., 2008). On the other hand, Bajt et al. (2003) found that injection of recombinant

IL-6 does not enhance regeneration after APAP overdose, and many treatments that do enhance

regeneration do not increase IL-6. It may be the case then that basal IL-6 levels are sufficient to

aid liver repair, such that reducing IL-6 can blunt regeneration but increasing it has no effect. In

any case, IL-6 can clearly influence both early injury and later regeneration in multiple liver

disease models, and we need more data to understand the details of those effects.

5. Conclusions

Overall, we conclude that post-treatment with exogenous PA likely reduces APAP

hepatotoxicity in mice by increasing systemic IL-6, which then induces Hsp70 in the liver.

Because PA is readily available over-the-counter as a supplement due to its purported ergogenic

effects (Shad et al., 2015) and because the combination of PA and NAC protected better than

NAC alone in our experiments, exogenous PA or PA derivatives may one day be a useful adjunct

with NAC for treatment of early-presenting APAP overdose patients. However, more research is

needed to test that possibility. In future studies, we will optimize the dose of PA for protection,

test additional treatment regimens and time points, and explore the effects of different acyl

chains. We will also test the effects of both endogenous and exogenous PA in other liver disease

models.

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Tables

Table 1. Percent necrosis in H&E-stained liver sections.

Percent necrosis:	0-10%	11-25%	26-50%	>50%
Vehicle	20%	60%	20%	0
PA	100%	0	0	0

Table 2. Comparison of NAC/Veh and NAC/PA after APAP overdose.

Treatment	ALT (U/L), mean±SE	p-value
APAP+NAC+Veh	170±31	
APAP+NAC+PA	69±12	0.011

Table 3. Signaling pathways affected by exogenous PA after APAP overdose.

Pathway	Predicted effect	z-score	p-value
IL-6	Activated	3.346	0.0219
STAT3	Activated	3.0213	0.0132

 Figure Legends

Figure 1. Post-treatment with exogenous PA protects against early APAP hepatotoxicity.

Mice were treated with 250 mg/kg APAP at 0 h, followed by vehicle (Veh) or PA at 2 h. Blood

and liver tissue were collected at 6 h. (A) Serum ALT activity. (B) H&E-stained liver sections.

Data expressed as mean ± SE for n = 10 per group. *p<0.05 vs. APAP plus Veh.

Figure 2. Post-treatment with exogenous PA does not affect canonical mechanisms of

APAP hepatotoxicity. Mice were treated with 250 mg/kg APAP at 0 h, followed by vehicle

(Veh) or PA at 2 h. Liver tissue was collected at 6 h. (A) Total glutathione (GSH+GSSG) in

liver. (B) APAP-protein adducts in liver. (C) Absolute oxidized glutathione (GSSG) in liver. (D)

GSSG as the percentage of total glutathione (%GSSG). (E) Immunoblots for total and

phosphorylated JNK. (F) JNK densitometry. (G) Immunoblots for AIF, cytochrome c, and β-

actin. (H) Immunoblots for total and phosphorylated (Ser9) GSK3β. (I) Oil Red O staining in

liver sections. Data expressed as mean ± SE for n = 5 per group. No statistically significant

differences were detected.

Figure 3. Post-treatment with exogenous PA activates IL-6 signaling in the liver. Mice were

treated with 250 mg/kg APAP or vehicle alone at 0 h, followed by vehicle (Veh) or PA at 2 h.

Blood and liver tissue were collected at 6 h. (A) Gene ontology (Biological Process) analysis of

vehicle alone vs. APAP+vehicle. (B) Hierarchical clustering of genes in the APAP+vehicle and

APAP+PA groups. (C) Serum IL-6 values. Data expressed as mean ± SE for n = 5 per group.

*p<0.05 vs. APAP plus Veh.

Figure 4. Post-treatment with exogenous PA does not protect in IL-6 KO mice. WT and IL-6

KO mice were treated with 350 mg/kg APAP at 0 h, followed by vehicle or PA at 2 h. Blood and

liver tissue were collected at 6 h. (A) Serum ALT activity in WT mice. (B) Serum ALT activity

in KO mice. (C) H&E-stained liver sections from both genotypes. Data expressed as mean ± SE

for n = 5-6 per group. *p<0.05 vs. APAP plus Veh.

Figure 5. Exogenous PA induces hepatic Hsp70 in WT but not IL-6 KO mice.

Immunoblotting was performed in liver lysates from the WT and KO mice. (A) Hsp70 and total

protein loading in liver tissue from WT mice. (B) Hsp70 and total protein loading in liver tissue

from IL-6 KO mice. (C,D) Densitometry. Data expressed as mean ± SE for n = 5-6 per group.

*p<0.05 vs. APAP plus Veh.

Figure 6. The source of IL-6 is extrahepatic and likely includes white adipose tissue. In one

experiment, mice were treated with 250 mg/kg APAP at 0 h, followed by vehicle (Veh) or PA at

2 h. Where indicated, mice were pre-treated for 24 h with liposomal clodronate (LC). Blood and

liver tissue were collected at 6 h. In a second experiment, mice were treated with 20 m/kg PA or

vehicle and various tissues were collected 4 h later. (A) Liver IL-6 mRNA from the first

experiments. (B) Serum ALT activity from the first experiment. (C) F4/80

immunohistochemistry in liver tissue sections from the first experiment. (D) IL-6 mRNA from

the second experiment. Data expressed as mean ± SE for n = 5-10 per group. *p<0.05 vs. APAP

plus Veh.

Figure 7. Late post-treatment with exogenous PA does not affect liver regeneration. Mice

were treated with 250 mg/kg APAP at 0 h, followed by vehicle (Veh) or PA at 6, 24, and 48 h.

Blood and liver tissue were collected at 24 and 52 h. (A) Serum ALT. (B) H&E-stained liver

sections. (C) Immunoblot for proliferating cell nuclear antigen (Pcna) and β-actin. Data

expressed as mean ± SE for n = 4-5 per group. *p<0.05 vs. APAP plus Veh.

Figure 1.

A

B

Figure 2.

Figure 3.

Figure 4.

Figure 5.

Figure 6.

Figure 7.