A Novel Chronic *in vivo* Oral Cadmium Exposure-Washout Mouse Model for

Studying Cadmium Toxicity and Complex Diabetogenic Effects

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Abstract

Type II diabetes mellitus (T2DM) is characterized by insulin resistance, β-cell dysfunction and hyperglycemia. In addition to well known risk factors such as lifestyle and genetic risk score, accumulation of environmental toxicants in organs relevant to glucose metabolism is increasingly recognized as additional risk factors for T2DM. Here, we describe the development of an *in vivo* oral cadmium (Cd) exposure model. It was shown that oral Cd exposure in drinking water followed by washout and high fat diet (HFD) in C57BL/6N mice results in islet Cd bioaccumulation comparable to that found in native human islets while mitigating the anorexic effects of Cd to achieve the same weight gain required to induce insulin resistance as in Cd naïve control mice. Inter individual variation in plasma glucose and insulin levels as well as islet Cd bioaccumulation was observed in both female and male mice. Regression analysis showed an inverse correlation between islet Cd level and plasma insulin following a glucose challenge in males but not in females. This finding highlights the need to account for inter individual target tissue Cd concentrations when interpreting results from *in vivo* Cd exposure models. No effect of Cd on insulin secretion was observed in islets *ex vivo*, highlighting differences between *in vivo* and *ex vivo* cadmium exposure models. In summary, our oral *in vivo* Cd exposure-washout with HFD model resulted in islet Cd bioaccumulation that is relevant in the context of environmental cadmium exposure in humans. Here, we showed that islet Cd bioaccumulation is associated with complex cadmium-mediated changes in glucose clearance and β-cell function. The model described here will serve as a useful tool to further examine the relationship between Cd exposure, islet Cd bioaccumulation, dysglycemia and their underlying mechanisms.

Introduction

Type II diabetes mellitus (T2DM) is characterized by insulin resistance and dysfunction of insulin-secreting β-cells within pancreatic islets of Langerhans (Petersmann, Muller-Wieland et al. 2019). The development of T2DM is dependent upon the interplay of many factors. Several genetic variations (Todd, Srinivasan et al. 2018, Banerjee, Vats et al. 2019), intrauterine environment (Fernandez-Twinn, Hjort et al. 2019) and lifestyle-related factors including obesity, diet, physical inactivity and smoking have been associated with susceptibility of T2DM (Kolb and Martin 2017). In addition to these risk factors, increasing evidence suggests that exposure to environmental toxicants such as arsenic (Martin, Gonzalez-Horta et al. 2015, Kuo, Moon et al. 2017, Beck, Chandi et al. 2019, Li, Douillet et al. 2020) and cadmium (Cd) (Schwartz, Il'yasova et al. 2003) as contributors to the development of T2DM.

To date, studies in humans and animal models describing the relationship between Cd exposure on diabetes are inconsistent. Some epidemiologic studies showed an association between Cd exposure and impaired glucose homeostasis (Bell, Early et al. 1990, Schwartz, Il'yasova et al. 2003, Afridi, Kazi et al. 2008, Fitzgerald, Olsen et al. 2020) while others reported the lack of an association (Barregard, Bergstrom et al. 2013, Menke, Guallar et al. 2016). Cadmium is a transition metal with toxic properties that is found at low levels in fruits, grains and vegetables grown on Cd-containing soil (Jolly, Islam et al. 2013), drinking water (Dalmieda and Kruse 2019) and cigarette smoke (Scherer and Barkemeyer 1983). Exposure to environmental cadmium through ingestion of Cd-containing food components and inhalation of cigarette smoke results in gradual

accumulation of Cd in various organs including insulin-producing pancreatic islets (Wong,

Allen et al. 2017). In mice, short term Cd exposure *in vivo* given as subcutaneous

injections resulted in bioaccumulation of Cd in pancreatic islets and dysglycemia

(Fitzgerald, Olsen et al. 2020). In dispersed mouse islet cell culture, bioaccumulation of

intracellular Cd was associated with a blunted glucose-stimulated insulin secretion (El

Muayed, Raja et al. 2012). Further studies examining the effects and mechanisms of

sustained, oral Cd in insulin-producing islets at environmentally relevant concentrations

while avoiding acute systemic toxicity are warranted. Cadmium has a long tissue half-life

of up to 30 years and thus, results in gradual Cd accumulation in human tissues over

decades (Elinder, Lind et al. 1976, Jarup and Akesson 2009) with the highest levels in

the kidney cortex reached at age 50 (Friberg 1984). Replicating similar rates of tissue Cd

accumulation in a murine model is of high importance for examining the effect of Cd at

tissue levels but at the same time, poses unique challenges relating to the long half-life

of Cd and its low oral bioavailability of 2-4% (Schilderman, Moonen et al. 1997).

In the present study, we established a novel *in vivo* oral Cd exposure murine model with

an initial oral Cd exposure phase followed by a washout phase with high fat feeding aimed

at replicating chronic islet Cd accumulation in the setting of insulin resistance in humans

over a reasonable time frame. Our Cd exposure-washout with high fat feeding mouse

model results in near baseline systemic Cd levels while achieving islet Cd

bioaccumulation that are within range of those found in native human islets from the

general population (Wong, Allen et al. 2017). We used this model to investigate the

effects of Cd bioaccumulation in pancreatic islets on β-cell function at islet Cd

concentrations that are relevant to human environmental Cd exposure.

Material and methods

Cadmium exposure in mice

5-6 weeks old, C57BL/6N mice were exposed to either vehicle or 0.5mM (=56.2ppm Cd,

56.2 mg/L Cd) or 1mM $CdCl_2$ (112.4ppm Cd, 112.4 mg/L Cd) (Rigaku, Cat #: 1008154)

in deionized drinking water (18.2μΩ, Millipore) acidified with HCl (30μM, Fisher Scientific)

for varying duration as indicated. During Cd exposure, mice were fed regular chow

(Envigo, Cat #: 7912) *ad libitum* unless otherwise stated. Experiments were carried out

in several successive cohorts designed to test the effect of various exposure parameters

as detailed in Table 1. In some experiments, mice were transitioned from $CdCl_2$-

containing drinking water to vehicle drinking water during a subsequent washout phase.

Mice were fed either regular chow (Envigo, Cat #: 7912) or adjusted calories high fat

rodent chow (Envigo, Cat #: TD88137, TD180240, 42% from fat) *ad libitum* during the

exposure and/or washout phase as described. Drinking water was changed once a week

to ensure freshness throughout all experimental phases. Metal analysis of regular and

high fat chow used are summarized in Suppl. Table 3. At the conclusion of the study,

mice were euthanized and tissues were collected for further analysis. All animal

experiments were reviewed and approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use

Committee of Northwestern University.

***In vivo* glucose tolerance tests and glucose-stimulated insulin secretion**

Standard glucose tolerance test (GTT) was performed by injecting a glucose bolus (50%

dextrose, pH 4.2, Hospira, Cat #: 000622) into the intraperitoneal cavity at a dose of 1g/kg

body weight following an overnight fast of 16-18 hours (Ayala, Samuel et al. 2010). Blood

was drawn through a tail capillary before glucose injection (t=0 min) and at 2, 5, 15, 30,

60 and 120 minutes post-glucose load for blood glucose determination. *In vivo* glucose-

stimulated insulin secretion (GSIS) was performed using a higher glucose dose of 3g/kg

body weight (Ayala, Samuel et al. 2010). Blood sampling time points from tail capillary

for glucose measurements during GSIS were similar to that of GTT tests. Blood glucose

concentrations were measured using an Accu-Chek Nano glucose meter (Roche

Diagnostics). For GSIS, 20μl of blood was also collected and separated in heparinized

microvette tubes (Sarstedt, Germany, Cat #: CB300LH) before glucose injection (t=0min)

and at 2, 5, 15 and 30 minutes post-glucose load for plasma insulin analysis. Plasma

samples were stored at -80°C until measurements of plasma insulin that was performed

using ELISA kits (Crystal Chem, Cat #: 90080). In some experiments, additional plasma

samples were obtained for determination of proinsulin levels (Mercodia, Cat #: 10-1232-

01).

Hyperglycemic clamp

Hyperglycemic clamps were performed by the Mouse Metabolic Phenotyping Center

(MMPC), Vanderbilt University, Tennessee.   Briefly, 5 days prior to clamp studies,

catheters were implanted into the carotid artery and jugular veins for sampling and

infusion respectively. Hyperglycemic clamps were performed in unrestrained, conscious

mice following 5 hours fast (Ayala, Samuel et al. 2010). At t=0 min, blood glucose was

raised and continuous glucose infusion rate adjusted to maintain hyperglycemic plateau

between 250-300mg/dl (13.8-16.7mM) based on arterial blood glucose measurements at

10 min intervals. Mice received heparinized saline- washed mouse erythrocytes from

donors at 5μl/min to prevent a drop in hematocrit. Baseline arterial blood glucose, insulin

and c-peptide were measured at -15 and -5 minutes prior to clamp. Arterial blood

sampling for clamp insulin was measured at 5, 10, 15, 20, 40, 60, 80, 100 and 120 minutes

during clamp. Arterial c-peptide was measured at 15, 100 and 120 minutes during clamp.

Plasma insulin and plasma c-peptide were measured using radioimmunoassay (EMD

Sigma, Cat #: RI-13K) and bead immunoassay (Luminex, R&D Systems) respectively that

were used according to manufacturer's instructions. Following completion of clamp

studies, mice were returned to regular housing for at least 48 hours with food and water

available *ad libitum* prior to islet perifusion studies.

Pancreatic islet isolation

Islet isolation was performed as previously described (El-Muayed, Raja et al. 2012). In

brief, C57BL/6N mice were anaesthetized with intraperitoneal injection of ketamine

(10mg/ml)/xylazine (1mg/ml) and the abdominal cavity opened to expose the common

bile duct. Pancreas was perfused with 3ml collagenase (0.5mg/ml, Sigma, Cat #: C7657)

dissolved in HBSS buffer (Corning, Cat #: 21-020-CV) with phenol red through the

common bile duct. Inflated pancreases were excised, washed in phenol red-free HBSS

buffer (Gibco, Cat #: 14175-103) and digested at 37°C for 15 minutes. Islets were purified

from digested pancreas tissue by centrifugation in Biocoll density gradient (EMD Millipore,

Cat #: L6155) at 4°C, 2500rpm for 20 minutes. Purified islets were hand-picked under a

microscope (Leica Microsystems) and transferred into clean microcentrifuge tubes. Islets

were washed 3 times in ice-cold PBS (Corning, Cat #: 21-031-CV) at 4°C, 500xg for 2

minutes and stored at -20°C for ICP-MS metal analysis or used for GSIS experiments as

described.

Islet perifusion

Islet perifusion was performed by MMPC Core Facility, Vanderbilt University, Tennessee.

In brief, following isolation, islets were handpicked under the microscope for functional

assessment. Islet function was assessed by perifusion using approximately 50 islets (~55

islet equivalents (IEQ)/per perifusion chamber) at a baseline of 5.6mM glucose, and

stimulated with 16.7mM glucose, 16.7mM glucose + 100μM 3-isobutyl-1-methyl-xanthine

(IBMX, Sigma, Cat #: I5879), 16.7mM glucose + 20mM Arginine/HCl (Sigma, Cat #:

A6969), 5.6mM glucose + 300μM Tolbutamide (Sigma, Cat #: T0891), and 5.6mM

glucose + 20mM KCl. Perifusate fractions were collected at the flow rate of 3ml/min and

insulin was measured using radioimmunoassay kit (Millipore, Cat #: RI-13K). Insulin

secretion were normalized to IEQ.

Measurement of islet and blood metal content

Measurements of islet Cd were performed as previously reported (Wong, Allen et al.

2017). In brief, 100 islets or 30μl of blood was collected in metal-free, trace metal grade,

HCl-washed, 1.7ml polypropylene tubes (Denville, Cat #: C-2170). Ceramic scissors and

plastic instruments were used for tail nicking and blood collection. Blood and islet

samples were dried and heated at 80°C for 30 minutes. Dried blood and islet samples

were dissolved in ultra trace elemental grade (TEG) 68% HNO_3 (Fisher Scientific, Cat #:

A467-500), heated to 80°C for 30 minutes followed by dilution with trace metal grade

water (EMD, Cat #: WX0003-6) and stored at -20°C. Samples were further diluted with

trace metal grade water acidified with TEG HNO_3 to a final concentration of 2.765N prior

to submission for Inductively Coupled Plasma Mass Spectrometry (ICP-MS) analysis, as

previously reported (Wong, Allen et al. 2017). Islet metal concentrations were normalized

to total islet protein. Total islet protein in hydrolyzed samples was measured using a BCA

assay kit (Thermo Scientific, Cat #: 23235) following pH neutralization with NaOH.

Accuracy of BCA assay protein measurements using this procedure was validated using

BSA standards. Negative ICP-MS output values were imputed to zero. Certified metal-

free pipette tips (VWR, Cat #: 53508-918), conical tubes (VWR Cat #: 89049-170, 89049-

174) and 1.7ml polypropylene microcentrifuge tubes (Denville, Cat #: C-2170) were used

throughout the collection and analysis process. All steps were performed in an epoxy-

coated laminar flow hood with trace element grade air filter (Baker, UK).

[67]Zn turnover in MIN6 cells

MIN6 cells, an immortalized murine β-cell line (ATCC, Menassas, VA) (Miyazaki, Araki et

al. 1990) were exposed to either vehicle or 0.5µM $CdCl_2$ for 48 hours as previously

described (El Muayed, Raja et al. 2012). Growth media was supplemented with 10µM

$ZnCl_2$ to achieve a total Zn^{2+} concentration of 15µM in culture (native media contains 5µM

Zn^{2+}). This exposure regimen results in significant accumulation of Cd (El Muayed, Raja

et al. 2012). Cells were harvested 48 hours after the start of Cd exposure. At 1, 2 or 4

hours prior to harvest, culture media was changed and fresh media containing the rare,

non-radioactive ^{67}Zn tracer was added as ^{67}ZnCl$_2$ at a concentration of 10μM (in addition

to the 5μM natural Zn mix found in media = 66.6% ^{67}Zn). At harvest, samples were

washed twice in PBS and incubated in 0.05% trypsin containing 0.5mM EDTA (37°C, 4

min, Gibco Cat #: 25300054). Following trypsinization, samples were transferred into

fresh microcentrifuges tubes, centrifuged (500 RCF, 3 min) and further washed twice with

PBS. Pellets were stored at -20°C until processed for metal profile including Zn isotopes

by ICP-MS. The rate of divalent ^{67}Zn uptake was used as a proxy measure for Zn turnover.

Statistical analysis

Area Under the Curve (AUC) for glucose and insulin curves during GSIS were calculated

using the trapezoid rule. Two-tailed t-tests were performed to compare differences

between control and test groups (Prism, v9.3.1). One way ANOVA with post hoc Tukey's

test for multiple comparison was performed to compare differences between more than

two groups. Where appropriate, two-way ANOVA with repeated measures was

performed to compare glucose and insulin secretion over time (Prism, v9.3.1). Linear

regression analysis was performed between islet Cd levels, islet Zn levels, glucose AUC

and insulin AUC in both male and female datasets (SAS). Values are expressed as mean

± standard error of the mean (SEM). $p < 0.05$ were considered statistically significant.

Results

Development of the newly established *in vivo* Cd exposure-washout model

In an initial pilot experiment, we exposed male C57BL/6N mice to either vehicle (V) or

1mM CdCl$_2$ in drinking water continuously for 12 months while being fed normal chow.

There were no differences in either glucose tolerance, glucose area under the curve or

body weight between Cd-exposed and V controls in this initial model of Cd exposure

without diet-induced insulin resistance (Suppl. Fig 1A-C, not included in Table 1). Next,

we performed experiments aimed at examining the effects of Cd exposure with high fat

diet-induced insulin resistance (Ayala, Samuel et al. 2010). To ameliorate the well

described anorexigenic effects of Cd, we employed an initial Cd exposure phase, during

which mice were exposed to either 0.5mM or 1mM $CdCl_2$ in their drinking water to induce

Cd tissue accumulation to environmentally relevant levels, followed by a washout phase

(without Cd exposure). The purpose of the washout phase is to mitigate the anorexigenic

and other systemic effects of Cd at the time of phenotyping. This is a metabolic study

and body weight is an important parameter that affects and/or influences metabolic

outcomes. Initial cohorts employed high fat diet (HFD, 42% fat) throughout the exposure

and washout phases (Table 1, Cohorts 2-4). Later cohorts employed regular chow during

the exposure phase and transitioned to HFD only during the washout phase in order to

induce weight gain closer to the timepoint of phenotyping (Table 1, Cohorts 5-7). Animal

cohorts and their experimental parameters that were performed in this study are

summarized in Table 1. All diets employed in the current study were analyzed and found

to be low in Cd content (Suppl. Table 3). The high fat diet had lower Zn concentration

compared to the regular chow.

***In vivo* islet and blood Cd kinetics**

Initial experimental cohorts were aimed at establishing the *in vivo* kinetics of Cd in blood

and pancreatic islets. To do this, we exposed male mice to either V or 1mM $CdCl_2$ for 4

weeks followed by a washout phase (without High Fat Diet (HFD)) and measured Cd

levels in blood and pancreatic islets over the course of both the exposure and washout

phases to establish islet Cd accumulation and elimination kinetics (Table 1, Cohort #1).

Following 4 weeks of Cd exposure, we observed a significant increase in both islet Cd

accumulation (79.40 ± 3.40nmol/g protein vs 0.27 ± 0.05nmol/g protein, p<0.001, Fig 1A)

and systemic blood Cd ($0.9434 \pm 0.0078\mu M$ vs $0.0033 \pm 0.0003\mu M$, p<0.001, Fig 1B) in

Cd-exposed mice compared to V controls. However, at 16 weeks into the washout phase

(without HFD), we continue to observe an increase in islet Cd accumulation (Fig 1A) but

with systemic blood Cd levels (Fig 1B) returning to near baseline levels in Cd-exposed

mice.   Overall, this demonstrates that the bioaccumulated Cd in murine islets as a

consequence of oral Cd exposure *in vivo* remains and persists in islets long after the

cessation of Cd exposure despite the return of systemic Cd levels to baseline. For

comparison, Cd concentration median and range found in native human islets are

26.1nmol/g protein and 4.4-94.7nmol/g protein respectively (Wong, Allen et al. 2017).

Therefore, islet Cd concentrations are comparable but lower than the high end of

concentrations found in human islets from the general US population (Wong, Allen et al.

2017). Aiming to achieve islet Cd concentration towards the upper end of those found in

human islets, we exposed a separate cohort of male mice with either V or 1mM $CdCl_2$ in

their drinking water for 19.5 weeks followed by a washout phase (Table 1, Cohort #5).

HFD was introduced in this cohort to assess Cd kinetics and weight trajectory under diet-

indued hypercaloric conditions. We euthanized two subgroups of mice at 3 and 15 weeks

into the washout phase. At 3 weeks into the washout phase, both islet Cd (p<0.001, Fig

1C) and blood Cd levels (Fig 1D) were elevated in Cd-HFD mice compared to V-HFD

controls. At 15 weeks into the washout phase, islet Cd levels remain significantly elevated

in Cd-HFD mice (p<0.01, Fig 1C) while systemic Cd levels returned to near baseline

values (p<0.05, Fig 1D) when compared to V-HFD controls. Islet Cd bioaccumulation in

Cd-HFD mice at both 3 and 15 weeks into the washout phase were observed in the

absence of significant differences in islet content of Zn, an essential metal that shares

many of the transport and buffering pathways with Cd (Fig 1E). Body weight gain were

similar between V-HFD and Cd-HFD groups throughout the exposure and washout

phases with the exception of one time point towards the end of the Cd exposure phase

(Fig 1F, p<0.05, 33.5 $\pm$ 2.4 g vs 29.8 $\pm$ 2.6 g for V-HFD and Cd-HFD groups respectively).

As a consequence, we determined that the best time to introduce the washout phase is

just prior to the development of the Cd-induced weight loss observed in Cd-exposed mice

i.e. between 17-19 weeks of Cd and to restrict the HFD feeding to the washout phase

while using regular chow during the Cd exposure phase. As expected in the setting of

lower body weight at the end of the exposure period, Cd-exposed mice showed a lower

glucose curve during glucose-stimulated insulin secretion (GSIS) at the end of the Cd

exposure phase compared to V control mice (Suppl. Fig 3A-E).

Cadmium results in transient impairment in glucose clearance in the setting of

insulin resistance

To examine the effects of islet Cd accumulation in the setting of insulin resistance in our

exposure-washout model, we exposed male mice to either V (n=7) or 1mM CdCl$_2$ (n=6)

in their drinking water simultaneously with HFD. Mice were exposed to V or Cd for 19.1

$\pm$ 0.7 weeks followed by a washout phase (Table 1, Cohort #2). During the washout

phase, Cd-exposed mice were placed on vehicle drinking water and both mice groups

continue to receive HFD. To characterize the metabolic parameters during the washout

phase, we performed metabolic studies in the same cohort of mice at two washout time

points (about 12 and 24 weeks into the washout phase). At 11.4 ± 0.1 weeks into the

washout phase with HFD, we performed GSIS (3g/kg ip glucose challenge) in both the V

and Cd-exposed mice. Cd-HFD mice showed higher glucose values ($p<0.05$, Fig. 2A,

$p<0.01$ Fig. 2B) without changes in either plasma insulin (Fig. 2C) or fasting body weight

(Fig. 2D). However, at 24 weeks into the washout phase with HFD, Cd-HFD mice did not

show differences in glucose levels following a glucose tolerance test (Fig. 2E, 1g/kg ip

glucose challenge, insulin not measured, per standard glucose tolerance test protocol

(Ayala, Samuel et al. 2010). Another cohort of male mice underwent the same procedure

with 1mM $CdCl_2$ exposure for 19 weeks followed by GSIS after a longer washout period

of 28.9 ± 0 weeks and islet isolation at 31.3 ± 0.1 weeks (Table 1, Cohort #3). As with

our initial experiments (Fig. 1C), islet Cd (53.6 ± 9.4nmol/g protein, $p<0.001$, Fig. 2F) in

Cd-HFD mice remained elevated compared to V-HFD controls at 31 weeks into the

washout phase despite systemic Cd levels being close to baseline ($-0.0316 \pm 0.0004\mu M$

vs. $0.06 \pm 0.03\mu M$, $p<0.01$, Fig. 2G). A significantly lower plasma insulin level (Suppl. Fig

4B) during GSIS was observed in Cd-HFD mice (insulin AUC 57.3 ± 6.6 ng/mL*min)

compared to V-HFD controls (88.9 ± 10.1ng/mL*min) (Suppl. Fig 4D, $p<0.05$) without

changes in either plasma glucose levels (Suppl. Fig 4A) or fasting body weight (Suppl.

Fig 4E). We exposed a subsequent female cohort to a lower $CdCl_2$ concentration of 0.5

mM in drinking water for 18 weeks followed by a washout period with HFD feeding for

35.9 weeks (Table 1, Cohort #4). The lower exposure dose was chosen to account for

the higher bioavailability of Cd in females. Here, a significantly lower plasma insulin value

at 15 minutes (Suppl. Fig 6B) and a trend to a lower insulin AUC (Suppl. Fig 6D) during

GSIS was observed. The islet Cd bioaccumulation was fond to be markedly lower than

in males exposed to the 1 mM $CdCl_2$ concentration. We therefore employed a higher Cd

exposure concentration of 1mM for future experiments in females.

Islet cadmium bioaccumulation reduces plasma insulin during hyperglycemic

clamp without significant changes in *ex vivo* islet insulin secretion

Next, we investigated the effects of islet Cd bioaccumulation on insulin and glucose

homeostasis in the setting of insulin resistance. To do this, we exposed age-matched,

male mice to either vehicle (n=6) or 0.5mM $CdCl_2$ (n=7) in drinking water and fed regular

chow for 17 weeks (Table 1, Cohort #5). At the end of 17 weeks Cd exposure, Cd-

exposed mice were transitioned to regular vehicle water (i.e. washout phase) with HFD

for 12 weeks prior to standard hyperglycemic clamp studies (Ayala, Samuel et al. 2010).

In the setting of hyperglycemia, maintained at 250-300mg/dL arterial glucose (Fig. 3A) by

continuous glucose infusion (Fig. 3B), Cd-exposed mice on HFD (Cd-HFD) showed lower

plasma insulin levels compared to V mice on HFD (V-HFD) at 120 min ($p<0.05$, Fig. 3C).

The decrease in plasma insulin observed in Cd-HFD mice during hyperglycemic clamp

occurred in the absence of changes in either plasma c-peptide (Fig. 3D) or body weight

(Fig. 3E). To assess Cd accumulation on *ex vivo* islet insulin secretion, we performed

islet perifusion and stimulation with glucose and several insulin secretagogues in islets

from V-HFD (n=5) and Cd-HFD (n=5) mice. Islet insulin release (Fig. 3F) and total islet

insulin content (Fig. 3G) were similar between Cd-HFD and V-HFD control islets in

response to 16.7mM glucose, 100uM BMX, 20mM Arginine, 300uM Tolbutamine and

20mM KCl. This suggests that the mechanisms of Cd-induced decrease in plasma insulin

observed during hyperglycemic clamp is independent of changes in the rate of insulin

secreted per islet or that the *in vivo* milieu is relevant for the Cd's effect.

Gender dichotomy of cadmium-mediated glycemic effects *in vivo*

Next, we investigated the gender dichotomy of Cd-mediated glycemic effects. To do this,

we exposed age-matched, male (Table 1, Cohort 7a) and female (Table 1, Cohort 7b)

mice in parallel to either V (n=9-11) or 1mM $CdCl_2$ (n=9-10) dose in drinking water for

17.8 ± 0.1 weeks. Cadmium-exposed mice were transitioned to vehicle drinking water

following 17.8 ± 0.1 weeks of Cd exposure during the washout phase. Both groups of V

and Cd-exposed mice received regular chow during the Cd exposure phase and HFD

(42% from fat) during the washout phase. Following the Cd exposure phase and prior to

the washout phase, V and Cd-exposed, male mice did not display any differences in

whole body glucose clearance (Fig. 4A) and GSIS (Fig. 4B). In contrast, Cd-exposed

female mice displayed significantly higher plasma insulin levels 30 minutes after a

glucose load compared to their V controls (p<0.05, Fig. 4B). This increase in plasma

insulin was not associated with changes in either whole-body glucose clearance (Fig. 4A)

or fasting body weight (Fig. 4C). Following 19.1 ± 0.1 weeks into the washout phase with

HFD, we did not observe significant differences in glucose values or plasma insulin during

GSIS between V-HFD and Cd-HFD males (Figs. 4D-F), a different result compared to

prior Cohorts #2 and #3 which received HFD during the Cd exposure phase. In contrast,

following the same washout period (19.0 ± 0.8 weeks), we observe a significantly higher

whole-body glucose clearance (i.e. lower glucose levels) in Cd-HFD females compared

to their V-HFD control counterparts (p<0.05, Fig. 4D and 4E). This increase in whole

body glucose clearance in Cd-HFD females was not associated with changes in either

plasma insulin (Fig. 4F) or fasting body weight (Fig. 4G). There were also no significant

differences in GSIS between Cd-HFD and V-HFD females at 34 weeks into the washout

phase (Suppl. Fig 5A-E). Islets from Cd-HFD female mice showed significant islet Cd

bioaccumulation (119.3 $\pm$ 14.0nmol/g protein) compared to their V-HFD female controls

(29.3 $\pm$ 17.3nmol/g protein) (p<0.01, Fig. 4H). While islet Cd in V-HFD female controls

was significantly lower, it was still markedly higher (29.3 $\pm$ 17.3nmol/g protein, p<0.01,

Fig. 4H) than V-HFD in males from Cohorts #1, 2, 3 and 5 (Table 1). It is of note that

serum creatinine levels in Cd-HFD animals were not significantly different to that of the

V-HFD group (Suppl. Table 1) suggesting that this regiment of Cd exposure (1mM $CdCl_2$

for 18 weeks followed by washout and HFD for 26 weeks) did not affect kidney function,

which is an important consideration when interpreting dysglycemia data given that renal

failure results in prolonged half-life of insulin.   There were no differences in plasma

proinsulin or proinsulin:insulin ratio in selected experiments (data not shown).

Linear regression analysis and correlation between islet Cd and plasma insulin

To further evaluate the relationship between Islet Cd bioaccumulation and Cd-mediated

dysglycemia in each gender, we performed linear regression analysis between islet Cd

content and insulin AUC during *in vivo* GSIS in both males and females. The aim of this

analysis is to explore the influence of variations in islet Cd accumulation on plasma insulin

given the variation in insulin values seen across cohorts. In cohorts where repeated GSIS

was performed, GSIS data closest to the time of islet isolation was chosen. When male

and female datasets were pooled and analyzed, we observed a significant gender effect

on insulin AUC ($p<0.05$, Table 2). We therefore repeated the linear regression analysis

in males and females separately. We observed that islet Cd content (independent

variable) was negatively associated with insulin AUC (dependent variable) during *in vivo*

GSIS in males ($p<0.05$, Table 2) but not in females. There was no correlation between

islet Zn and insulin AUC in either males or females (Table 2). The correlation between

insulin AUC and islet Cd as well as the gender dichotomy did not change when AUC

glucose was included in the model (Suppl. Table 2A). This correlation also did not change

in simpler models that included fewer independent variables or islet Cd alone in females

(Suppl. Table 2D) but not in males (Suppl. Table 2C). In males, a significant correlation

was observed in a model that did not include age between insulin AUC and islet Cd

content (Suppl. Table 2C).

***Ex vivo* cadmium accumulation in intact murine and human islets did not result in**

measurable changes in insulin secretion

To compare the rate of Cd accumulation and functional impact between human and

murine islets, we exposed human islets (n=3/group) and mouse islets (n=6/group) to

either V or 0.1μM $CdCl_2$ for 48 hours in culture and measured islet Cd content. Islets

originating from the same donor or mouse were divided equally between parallel

exposure conditions. Cadmium-exposed human islets accumulated significantly higher

intracellular Cd levels (121.7 $\pm$ 25.8nmol/g protein) compared to vehicle control islets

(21.1 $\pm$ 7.0nmol/g protein) following 48 hours of Cd exposure ($p<0.05$, Fig. 5A).

Cadmium-exposed murine islets also showed significantly higher Cd levels ($38.3 \pm$

3.0nmol/g protein) compared to vehicle control islets (7.6 ± 1.2nmol/g protein) following

48 hours of Cd exposure (p<0.001, Fig. 5A). Cadmium levels in human islets exposed to

Cd *ex vivo* was significantly higher compared to mouse islets exposed under the same

conditions (p<0.0001, Fig 5A). There were also no significant differences in total islet

proinsulin to insulin ratio in response to Cd exposure in mouse islets *ex vivo* (data not

shown).

***Ex vivo* cadmium accumulation did not affect islet Zn content or β-cell Zn turnover**

Given that Cd has been shown to interact with many Zn transport and binding proteins

(Himeno, Yanagiya et al. 2009, Friedman 2014), we compared islet Zn levels following *ex*

vivo (refer to paragraph above) or *in vivo* Cd accumulation in islets.   Human islets

contained lower Zn levels compared to mouse islets at baseline (p<0.01, Fig 5B),

suggesting significant differences in divalent metal handling between human and mouse

islets. However, Cd exposure did not significantly affect islet Zn content in either human

or mouse islets (Fig 5B). Next, we examined the turnover of Zn following Cd accumulation

in immortalized murine β-cell line MIN6. Cell culture, Cd exposure and cell harvest were

performed as previously described (El Muayed, Raja et al. 2012). For this, we exposed

MIN 6 cells to either V or 0.5μM $CdCl_2$ in media for 48 hours. Following 48 hours of $CdCl_2$

incubation, media was changed and 10μM [67]Zn tracer was added to fresh culture media

(equivalent to 66% of total Zn in media) and the rate of cellular [67]Zn uptake was measured

at 1, 2 and 4 hours following the start of [67]Zn tracer exposure. The rate of cellular [67]Zn

uptake was used as a proxy measurement for cellular Zn turnover. We observed that the

rate of ^{67}Zn accumulation were similar between V and Cd-exposed MIN6 cells, suggesting

that cellular Cd accumulation *in vitro* did not affect cellular Zn turnover (Suppl. Fig. 2).

Overall, islet Zn content was not significantly different between Cd-HFD mice and V-HFD

controls from any of our animal cohorts (Table 1).

Discussion

Here, we report the development of a chronic, oral Cd exposure mouse model that results

in islet Cd bioaccumulation that is comparable to that found in human islets from the

general US population (Wong, Allen et al. 2017). In males, exposure to 1mM CdCl$_2$ in

drinking water for 19 weeks followed by washout with HFD resulted in islet Cd

bioaccumulation that is associated with decrease glucose tolerance at 11 weeks and

decrease plasma insulin at 28 weeks into the washout phase in the absence of changes

in *ex vivo* islet insulin secretion, body weight or renal function. In contrast, Cd exposure

in female mice to the same conditions was associated with islet Cd bioaccumulation and

elevated plasma insulin during GSIS without changes in whole body glucose clearance

immediately following Cd exposure (prior to washout phase). However, following the

washout phase with HFD, Cd-HFD females displayed lower systemic glucose clearance

during GSIS without changes in either plasma insulin or body weight despite achieving

comparable islet Cd concentrations. A relatively wide variation in islet Cd accumulation

was observed between individual mouse. This also included a relatively high level of Cd

in female vehicle-exposed islets in cohort 7b. It is likely that variation in consumption of

CdCl$_2$-containing water as well as varied oral bioavailability and tissue distribution are

factors contributing to this. Additionally, variations in the content of Cd and other metals

in rodent chows may have contributed to the observed variations.

Results from the regression analysis showed the close relationship between islet Cd

plasma insulin levels during *in vivo* glucose-stimulated insulin secretion experiments,

providing additional evidence for the functional impact of Cd accumulation at

environmentally relevant concentrations on *in vivo* beta-cell function. At the same time,

this relationship indicates that variations in the observed effect of Cd exposure across

cohorts and within cohorts are at least partially explained by variations in islet Cd

accumulation. There are several benefits to our oral exposure-washout *in vivo* mouse

model. Firstly, it ameliorated the anorexigenic effects of Cd, thereby resulting in a similar

mean body weight gain between V and Cd-exposed animals throughout the study. The

in vivo anorexigenic effects of Cd was mitigated with the washout phase following Cd

exposure in our model. Secondly, this oral exposure-washout regiment achieves target

tissue (pancreatic islets) Cd bioaccumulation at concentrations comparable to those

found in human islets while reducing systemic blood Cd concentrations at the end of the

washout phase and minimizing generalized systemic toxic effects. Islet Cd range in Cd-

exposed mice is consistent with islet Cd range that we have previously reported in human

islets (4.4 - 94.7nmol/g protein) (Wong, Allen et al. 2017), hence making this *in vivo*

experimental Cd dose relevant in the context of human environmental Cd exposure.

Furthermore, the continued oral Cd exposure through drinking water was employed to

resemble environmental exposure routes seen in the general population. The oral Cd

dose of 1mM was chosen to compensate for low oral Cd bioavailability and life-long tissue

accumulation as reported in humans (Jarup, Rogenfelt et al. 1983, Schilderman, Moonen
et al. 1997).

Several epidemiological studies have described contradictory findings between Cd
exposure and dysglycemia. Some have reported a statistically significant, positive
association between Cd exposure and dysglycemia (Schwartz, Il'yasova et al. 2003,
Wallia, Allen et al. 2014, Nie, Wang et al. 2016) while others have reported the lack of a
statistically significant association (Barregard, Bergstrom et al. 2013, Moon 2013, Menke,
Guallar et al. 2016). Discrepancies in observations could be attributed to differences in
study design, study power, sample analyzed (blood or urine), genetics and population
exposure levels. Inconsistencies between Cd exposure and dysglycemia have also been
reported in Cd-induced diabetic animal models. Some studies have shown that *in vivo*
Cd exposure resulted in hyperglycemia and β-cell dysfunction (Chang, Hsu et al. 2013,
Trevino, Waalkes et al. 2015, Huang, Kuo et al. 2019, Fitzgerald, Olsen et al. 2020, Hong,
Xu et al. 2021) while others have demonstrated normal glucose homeostasis with modest
decrease in insulin secretion following Cd exposure *in vivo* (Li, Li et al. 2019). Trevino *et*
al (2015) and Fitzgerald *et al* (2020) used a lower Cd dose of 32.5ppm and 0.6ppm in
their exposure rat models respectively. Animal strain, dose, duration and route of
administration of Cd should be considered when interpreting data reported in Cd-induced
animal models of dysglycemia. Additionally, short duration Cd exposure may result in
acute systemic toxic effects especially with elevated blood Cd levels in the absence of a
washout period. Given the diverse intracellular targets of Cd, each with a different
concentration-effect relationship, it is not surprising that Cd effects that are observed at a

whole cell and organism level are strongly dependent on exposure duration and tissue

concentration.

Pancreatic β-cells accumulate Cd in a dose- and time-dependent manner *in vitro* (El-

Muayed, Raja et al. 2012). Measurable levels of Cd have also been detected in human

islets (Wong, Allen et al. 2017). However, the molecular mechanisms of Cd^{2+} transport

into β-cells are largely unknown. DMT1 (Lortz, Schroter et al. 2014), ZnT (Kambe, Narita

et al. 2002, Chimienti, Favier et al. 2005, Cai, Kirschke et al. 2018) and ZIP (Lawson,

Maret et al. 2017) are metal transport proteins that are abundantly expressed in

pancreatic β-cells. A known iron transporter, DMT1 has been reported to also effectively

transport several other divalent metals such as Fe^{2+}, Mn^{2+}, Ni^{2+}, $Co^{2+}$and Cd^{2+} (Tallkvist,

Bowlus et al. 2001, Arredondo, Munoz et al. 2003, Garrick, Dolan et al. 2003). ZIP and

ZnT are known to facilitate Zn^{2+} entry into and exit from the cytosol respectively (Lemaire,

Chimienti et al. 2012, Lawson, Maret et al. 2017). In addition to transporting the divalent

cation Zn^{2+}, some ZIP class transporters can transport Cu^{2+}, Ni^{2+} (Antala and Dempski

2012) and Mn^{2+} (Winslow, Limesand et al. 2020). The capacity to transport Cd effectively

has been shown for ZIP8, ZIP14 and ZnT1 (Dalton, He et al. 2005, Ohana, Sekler et al.

2006, Girijashanker, He et al. 2008). DMT-1, ZIP14 and ZIP8 are highly expressed in

murine and human islets (Mohanasundaram, Drogemuller et al. 2011, Hansen, Tonnesen

et al. 2012, Coffey and Knutson 2017, Lawlor, George et al. 2017, Wong, Wang et al.

2021).

We have previously shown that the accumulation of Cd in β-cells at environmentally

relevant levels leads to impaired β-cell function *ex vivo* (El-Muayed, Raja et al. 2012).

These experiments were carried out in dispersed murine islets as well as in an

immortalized murine β-cell line, MIN6. In contrast, our current experiments did not show

any differences in *ex vivo* function of intact islets following either *in vivo* or *ex vivo* Cd

accumulation. It is likely that this difference is due to a protective effect of an intact islet

structure. We also observed a higher rate of *ex vivo* Cd accumulation in human islets

compared to mouse islets, possibly due to differences in the composition and function of

metal transporters (especially divalent metal transporters) between human and mouse

islets. This observation highlights the value of assessing tissue level Cd concentrations

when evaluating its toxic effects. Accumulation of Cd *in vivo* have been associated with

hyperglycemia and decrease glucose-stimulated insulin secretion in a model of shorter

term exposure (Fitzgerald, Olsen et al. 2020). The addition of a washout phase in our

current model provides the added advantage of mitigating acute toxic effects of Cd,

thereby facilitating a better correlation between target tissue Cd levels and its resulting

toxic effects.

The underlying molecular mechanisms of intracellular Cd bioaccumulation on β-cell

cytotoxicity and function are not well studied. Chang et al. (2013) showed that intracellular

Cd accumulation *in vitro* resulted in β-cell apoptosis that is mediated by the JNK-regulated,

mitochondria-dependent pathway (Chang, Hsu et al. 2013). Cadmium-mediated

pancreatic β-cell death was also shown to be mediated by Ca^{2+}-dependent, JNK

activation and CHOP-related signaling pathways (Huang, Kuo et al. 2019). It has also

been hypothesized that Cd may interfere with the trafficking of Zn in β-cells given the high

Zn turnover present in β-cells and the overlap between Cd and Zn transport pathways.

However, the lack of change in islet Zn concentration in response to Cd accumulation

provides evidence against this hypothesis, at least at the whole cell level. However, this

does not rule out changes in Zn distribution within cells at the protein or organelle level in

response to Cd accumulation. Taken together, our current findings and published

literature indicate that accumulation of Cd in pancreatic islets at environmentally relevant

concentrations that are in the range found in human islets (Wong, Allen et al. 2017) is

cytotoxic to β-cells, thus resulting in Cd-mediated β-cell changes that consequently

affects total insulin secretory capacity *in vivo*. Therefore, the current study adds to prior

epidemiologic and experimental evidence that members of the general population are

exposed to environmental Cd levels that are likely to contribute to β-cell failure, thereby

increasing the risk for type 2 diabetes. Consequently, the diabetogenic effect of Cd

should be taken into account when setting Cd exposure limits.

Cadmium-mediated molecular mechanisms *in vivo* and *ex vivo* are likely distinct from one

another which, in turn, could affect Cd toxicology differently under both conditions. This

may be due to the uptake, organification and toxicokinetic properties of Cd. *In vivo*, Cd

is primarily bound to albumin or metallothionein (Jin, Nordberg et al. 1986, Nordberg

2004). *Ex vivo*, the primary form of Cd in culture is Cd^{2+}. Recently, we reported

differences in Cd-mediated islet transcriptome changes between *in vivo-* and *ex vivo-*

exposed islets where we did not find any overlap in Cd-induced differentially expressed

genes in both groups (Wong, Wang et al. 2021). While our model shows several

advantages over other approaches, several drawbacks have to be acknowledged. Firstly,

these experiments are time-consuming and resource-intensive. Secondly, the observed

variation in islet Cd accumulation and resulting variations in observed changes in plasma

insulin presents a drawback. Despite this, we believe this model to be a good tool for

studying the degree and mechanisms underlying the diabetogenic effect of Cd and other

persistent toxicants that accumulate in insulin-producing islets.

Here, we report the development of a chronic, oral Cd exposure mouse model that results

in islet Cd bioaccumulation that is relevant in the context of environmental Cd exposure

in humans.   Our *in vivo* Cd exposure-washout mouse model showed islet Cd

bioaccumulation that is associated with subtle and complex Cd-mediated effects on

glucose clearance and plasma insulin levels. Further research examining the relationship

between Cd exposure, islet Cd bioaccumulation, dysglycemia and their underlying

mechanisms are needed to understand the effects of Cd-mediated β-cell dysfunction.

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Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

Authors' contributions

Winifred Wong: Conceptualization, Investigation, Validation, Formal analysis, Writing – original draft, review and editing. Janice Wang: Investigation, Validation, Writing-review and editing. Matthew Meyers: Investigation. Nathan Wang: Investigation. Rebecca Sponenburg: Investigation. Norrina Allen: Formal analysis. Joshua Edwards: Writing – review and editing. Malek El-Muayed: Conceptualization, Investigation, Formal

analysis, Funding acquisition, Writing-review and editing. All authors have read and

approved the final manuscript.

List of Figures

Fig. 1: (A) Islet Cd content (normalized to total islet protein) and (B) blood Cd levels in

male mice exposed to either V (n=4-5) or 1mM $CdCl_2$ (n=4-8) for 4 weeks followed by 16

weeks of washout (Table 1, Cohort #1). (C) Islet Cd content, (D) blood Cd levels, (E) islet

Zn content and (F) body weight curve in male mice exposed to either V (n=3-6) or 1mM

$CdCl_2$ (n=3-6) for 19.5 weeks on regular chow followed by 3 and 15 weeks washout with

high fat diet (HFD, Table 1, Cohort #5). V-HFD, Vehicle-exposed followed by washout

and HFD; Cd-HFD, Cd-exposed followed by washout and HFD. Data are expressed as

mean ± SEM. *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001.

Fig 2: (A) Blood glucose, (B) area under the curve, (C) plasma insulin and (D) fasting

body weight during GSIS about 11.4 ± 0.1 weeks into washout phase with HFD in male

mice exposed to either V (n=7) or 1mM $CdCl_2$ (n=6) for 19.1 ± 0.7 weeks with HFD. (E)

Blood glucose during glucose tolerance test 24 weeks into washout phase with HFD in V

(n=7) or Cd-exposed (n=6) male mice on HFD (Table 1, Cohort #2). (F) Islet Cd content

and (G) blood Cd in male mice exposed to either V (n=6) or 1mM $CdCl_2$ (n=6) for 19

weeks with HFD followed by 31.3 ± 0.1 weeks of washout with HFD (Table 1, Cohort #3).

V-HFD, Vehicle-exposed followed by washout and HFD; Cd-HFD, Cd-exposed followed

by washout and HFD. Data are expressed as mean $\pm$ SEM. *p<0.05, **p<0.01,

***p<0.001.

Fig. 3: (A) Arterial blood glucose, (B) glucose infusion rate, (C) plasma insulin, (D) plasma

c-peptide and (E) body weight during hyperglycemic clamp in mice exposed to either V

(n=6) or 0.5mM $CdCl_2$ (n=7) for 17 weeks followed by 12 weeks of washout with HFD on

V water (Table 1, Cohort #6). (F) Islet insulin secretion in response to high glucose and

several insulin secretagogues from V and Cd-exposed mice following 12 weeks of

washout with HFD (n=5/group). (G) Total islet insulin content following islet perifusion in

V and Cd-exposed mice islets following 12 weeks of washout with HFD (n=5/group). V-

HFD, Vehicle-exposed followed by washout and HFD; Cd-HFD, Cd-exposed followed by

washout and HFD. Data are expressed as mean $\pm$ SEM. *p<0.05.

644 (F)

Fig. 4: (A) Blood glucose, (B) plasma insulin and (C) fasting body weight during *in vivo*

GSIS in age-matched male and female mice exposed to either V (n=10 (males), n=11

(females)) or 1mM $CdCl_2$ (n=10/gender) for 17.8 ± 0.1 weeks (Table 1, Cohort #7a-b). (D)

Glucose curve and corresponding (E) area under the curve, (F) plasma insulin and (G)

fasting body weight during GSIS in age-matched V-HFD and Cd-HFD male (n=9-10/group)

and female (n=9-10/group) mice 19.1 ± 0.1 weeks into the washout phase with HFD. (H)

Islet Cd content (normalized for total islet protein) at sacrifice in V-HFD (n=9) and Cd-

HFD (n=8) female mice. V-F, Vehicle females; Cd-F, Cd-exposed females; V-M, Vehicle

males; Cd-M, Cd-exposed males; V-HFD, Vehicle-exposed followed by washout and HFD;

Cd-HFD, Cd-exposed followed by washout and HFD. Data are expressed as mean $\pm$

SEM. *p<0.05, **p<0.01.

Fig. 5: (A) Islet Cd and (B) islet Zn (normalized to total islet protein) in murine (n=6/group)

and human islets (n=3/group) exposed to either V or 0.1μM CdCl$_2$ for 48 hours. Data are

expressed as mean ± SEM. Adjusted p-values from one way ANOVA with post hoc

Tukey's test for multiple comparison. * p<0.05, **p<0.01, ****p<0.0001, ns: not significant.

List of tables

Table 1: List of cohorts with their relevant experimental and islet outcome parameters. Data are expressed as mean ± SEM.

*p<0.05.

Cohort#	Cohort Description	Gender	Number of animals used (Cd / Vehicle)	Deaths (Cd / V)	Exposure Group CdCl₂ Concentration in Drinking Water	Diet During Exposure/Diet during Washout	Vehicle Group AUC Insulin During GSIS Avg	Cd Group AUC Insulin During GSIS	Vehicle Group AUC Glucose During GSIS	Cd Group AUC Glucose During GSIS	islet Cd in V group	Islet Cd in Cd group	islet Zn in V group	Islet Zn in Cd group	Fasting Body Weight During GSIS Cd / V Group (g)	Exposure Time Prior to Washout Cd/V (weeks)	Washout Duration prior to GSIS (Cd/V, weeks)	Washout Duration prior to islet isolation (Cd/V, weeks)
1 (Fig. 1A-B)	Islet Cd Kinetics (4 Week Uptake, 1,4,16 Week Elimination)	m	21/13	0/0	1 mM	Regular/Regular	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	0.27 ± 0.04, 0.78± 0.1, 0.67 ± 0.12 after 0, 1, 4 weeks washout	79.40 ± 2.9, 49.82 ± 4.6, 50.25 ± 1.8, 76.91 ± 7.5 after 0, 1, 4, 16 weeks washout	40010 ± 2451, 34710 ± 1115, 36366 ± 3227 after 0, 1, 4 weeks washout	42362 ± 1449, 25307 ± 642, 68449 ± 7134 after 0, 1, 4, 16 weeks washout	28.7 ± 0.6 / 29.4 ± 0.5	4 ± 0 / 4 ± 0	N/A	0,1,4, and 16
2 (Fig.. 2A-E)	Effect of Cd accumulation on markers of beta islet function in males	m	6/7	0/0	1 mM	42% fat/42% fat	70.98 ± 18.62	53.70 ± 10.60	33803 ± 2119 *	46365 ± 2794 *	2.50 ± 1.90	114.25 ± 31.23	49403 ± 2278	50552 ± 1788	46.1 ± 2.1 / 46.6 ± 1.8	19.6 ± 1.1 / 18.6 ± 0.8	11.5 ± 0.1 / 11.3 ± 0.1	27.3 ± 0.0/ 26.9 ± 0
3 (Fig. 2F-G, Suppl. Fig. 4)	Effect of Cd accumulation on markers of beta islet function in males (prolonged washout)	m	6/6	0/0	1 mM	42% fat/42% fat	88.93 ± 10.13 *	57.32 ± 6.58*	44417 ± 2514	35375 ± 6152	BDL	53.58 ± 8.55	25270 ± 1434	24874 ± 2645	50.3 ± 1.2 / 53.8 ± 1.4	19 ± 0 / 19 ± 0	28.9 ± 0 / 28.9 ± 0	31.4 ± 0.1 / 31.3 ± 0.1
4 (Suppl. Fig. 6)	Effect of lower Cd exposure dose with continuous HFD in females	f	8/7	0/0	0.5 mM	42% fat/42% fat	63.95 ± 4.25	49.60 ± 5.23 (p=0.073)	41713 ± 4768	51546 ± 4033	BDL	30.38 ± 3.09	27330 ± 1970	30641 ± 2609	47.8 ± 1.1 / 43.7 ± 3.8	18 ± 0 / 18 ± 0	35.9 ± 0 / 35.9 ± 0	40.9 ± 0.2 / 40.9 ± 0
5 (Fig. 1C-F, Suppl. Fig3)	Islet Cd Kinetics 19.6 week uptake, 3 and 15 week washout	m	10/9	1/0	1 mM	Regular/42% fat	22.58 ± 2.67	17.70 ± 1.42	55430 ± 2581*	38835 ± 4598 *	BDL	120.3 ± 12.2, 78.9 ± 12 after 3 and 19.6 weeks washout	20540 ± 695, 19128 ± 1133 after 3 and 19.6 weeks washout	19342 ± 3707, 20047 ± 1817 after 3 and 19.6 weeks washout	27.1 ± 0.7 / 28.7 ± 0.7	19.6 ± 0/ 19.6 ± 0	0 (no washout)	3 and 15
6 (Fig. 3A-G)	Effect of Cd accumulation on markers of beta islet function in males, lower exposure dose	m	7/6	0/0	0.5 mM	Regular/42% fat	N/A	N/A	N/A	N/A	Not measured (islets used for perifusion studies)				41.4 ± 1.5 / 44.0 ± 1.8 (Hyperglycemic Clamp)	16.9 ± 0 / 16.9 ± 0	12.3 ± 0.2 / 12.1 ± 0.2 (Hyperglycemic Clamp)	N/A
7a (males) standard washout (Fig. 4A-G)	Gender comparison of Cd effect	m	12/10	2/1			40.74 ± 3.93	44.93 ± 6.26	47893 ± 3411	49779 ± 3492	Not measured (islets used for ex vivo GSIS)				45.1 ± 1.1 / 45.3 ± 0.7	17.8 ± 0 / 17.9 ± 0.1	19.1 ± 0.2 / 19.1 ± 0.1	N/A
7b (females) GSIS standard washout (Fig. 4-G)	Gender comparison of Cd effect	f	10/10	1/1	1 mM	Regular/42% fat	44.33 ± 7.70	30.61 ± 4.54	52458 ± 2734*	40767 ± 3849*	Measured at later time point (see 6b)				40.2 ± 2.9 / 42.3 ± 1.6	17.9 ± 0.1 / 18.0 ± 0.1	18.7 ± 0.2 / 19.2 ± 0.3	33.5 ± 0.9 / 33.8 ± 0.5
7b (females) prolonged washout (Fig. 4H, Suppl. Fig. 5)	Effect of prolonged washout in females	f					62.05 ± 6.43	52.05 ± 6.10	43544 ± 3704	42745 ± 4865	33.65 ± 15.14	119.28 ± 13.13	22337 ± 2293	23171 ± 2216	40.1 ± 3.5 / 44.7 ± 1.6	17.9 ± 0.1 / 18.0 ± 0.1	31.8 ± 1.1 / 31.7 ± 1.1	33.5 ± 0.9 / 33.8 ± 0.5

683 N/A = not applicable, BDL=below detectable limit.

684 Table 2: Linear regression analysis between insulin AUC (dependent variable), islet Cd content, islet Zn content and age

685 (independent variable) in males alone (n=33), females alone (n=29) and combined male and female mice (n=62). *p<0.05,

686 ***p<0.001.

		Model 1				Model 2			
Gender	Predictor	Parameter Estimate	LCL Mean	UCL Mean	Pr > |t|	Parameter Estimate	LCL Mean	UCL Mean	Pr > |t|
Males and females	Gender	5.65	-8.48	19.79	0.435	-17.36	-33.43	-1.29	0.039*
	Islet Cd	-0.15	-0.28	-0.02	0.028*	-0.09	-0.2	0.03	0.138
	Islet Zn	0.0005	-12×10^{-5}	0.001	0.115	0.0004	-21×10^{-5}	0.0009	0.217
	Age	-	-	-	-	1.36	0.75	1.98	<0.001***
Males	Islet Cd	-0.27	-0.48	-0.06	0.018*	-0.19	-0.37	-0.02	0.042*
	Islet Zn	0.0009	-5×10^{-6}	0.002	0.061	0.0007	18×10^{-7}	0.001	0.059
	Age	-	-	-	-	1.38	0.70	2.07	<0.001***
Females	Islet Cd	-0.04	-0.16	0.09	0.588	-0.02	-0.16	0.13	0.844
	Islet Zn	-3×10^{-4}	-0.001	0.0006	0.538	-44×10^{-5}	-0.002	0.0006	0.435
	Age	-	-	-	-	0.68	-1.85	3.2	0.604

687 LCL: lower control limits, UCL: upper control limits, Pr > |t|: t-distribution two-tailed p-value.

688 **Supplemental Figures**

689 Suppl. Fig. 1: (A) Glucose tolerance test and corresponding (B) area under the curve

690 (AUC) and (C) fasting body weight in mice exposed to either V (n=3) or 1mM $CdCl_2$ (n=5)

691 in drinking water for 12 months. Data are expressed as mean $\pm$ SEM.

(A)

(B)

(C)

Suppl. Fig. 2: Rate of non-radioactive, rare Zn isotope, ^{67}Zn uptake as a proxy for Zn

turnover in MIN6 cells following exposure to either V or 0.5μM CdCl$_2$ for 48 hours (n=2).

Data are expressed as mean ± SEM.

Suppl. Fig 3: (A) Blood glucose, (B) plasma insulin, (C) AUC glucose, (D) AUC insulin

and (E) fasting body weight during *in vivo* GSIS in male mice exposed to either V (n=9)

or 1mM $CdCl_2$ (n=10) for 19 weeks (Table 1, Cohort #4). GSIS was performed at the end

of the Cd exposure phase and prior to the commencement of the washout phase. Data

are expressed as mean $\pm$ SEM. *p<0.05.

(A)

(B)

(C)

(D)

(E)

Suppl. Fig 4: (A) Blood glucose, (B) plasma insulin, (C) AUC glucose, (D) AUC insulin

and (E) fasting body weight during *in vivo* GSIS in male mice exposed to either V (n=6)

or 1mM CdCl$_2$ (n=6) for 19 weeks followed by 28.9 weeks washout phase (table 1, Coort

#3). Mice were given HFD at both the Cd exposure and washout phases. V-HFD, V-

exposed group given HFD; Cd-HFD, Cd-exposed group given HFD. Data are expressed

as mean $\pm$ SEM. **p<0.01.

(A)

(B)

(C)

(D)

(E)

716   Suppl. Fig 5: (A) Blood glucose, (B) plasma insulin, (C) AUC glucose, (D) AUC insulin

717   and (E) fasting body weight during *in vivo* GSIS in female mice exposed to either V (n=6)

718   or 1mM $CdCl_2$ (n=6) for 18 weeks followed by washout phase for 34 weeks with HFD

719   (Table 1, Cohort #7b). V-HFD, V-exposed followed by washout and HFD; Cd-HFD, Cd-

720   exposed followed by washout and HFD. Data are expressed as mean $\pm$ SEM.

(A)

 (B)

(C)

 (D)

(E)

Suppl. Fig 6: (A) Blood glucose, (B) plasma insulin, (C) AUC glucose, (D) AUC insulin

and (E) fasting body weight during *in vivo* GSIS in female mice exposed to either V (n=7)

or 1mM $CdCl_2$ (n=8) for 18 weeks followed by 36 weeks washout phase (without Cd)

(Table 1, Cohort #4). Mice were given HFD at both the Cd exposure and washout phases.

V-HFD, V-exposed group given HFD; Cd-HFD, Cd-exposed group given HFD. Data are

expressed as mean $\pm$ SEM. *p<0.05.

(A)

(B)

(C)

(D)

(E)

 Supplemental Table

732 Suppl. Table 1: Serum Clinical Chemistry from male mice that were treated with either V

733 (n=9) or 1mM CdCl$_2$ (n=10) for 18 weeks followed by 26 weeks HFD thereafter. V-HFD,

734 V-exposed followed by washout with HFD mice; Cd-HFD, Cd-exposed followed by

735 washout with HFD mice. Data are expressed as mean $\pm$ SEM. *p<0.05.

Analyte	V-HFD	Cd-HFD
ALP (U/L)	105.4 $\pm$ 11.5	105.1 $\pm$ 11.6
AST (U/L)	503.8 $\pm$ 90.4	522.2 $\pm$ 86.4
ALT (U/L)	611.7 $\pm$ 115.8	678.3 $\pm$ 158.1
Creatine kinase (U/L)	793.2 $\pm$ 504.9	349.7 $\pm$ 84.8
GGT (U/L)	0 $\pm$ 0	0 $\pm$ 0
Albumin (g/dL)	2.5 $\pm$ 0.1	2.6 $\pm$ 0.1
Total Bilirubin (mg/dL)	0.14 $\pm$ 0.02	0.15 $\pm$ 0.02
Total Protein (g/dL)	5.2 $\pm$ 0.2	5.4 $\pm$ 0.2
Globulin (g/dL)	2.7 $\pm$ 0.1	2.8 $\pm$ 0.1
Bilirubin – Conjugated (mg/dL)	0.06 $\pm$ 0.02	0.05 $\pm$ 0.02
BUN (mg/dL)	16.2 $\pm$ 2.0	16.2 $\pm$ 1.1
Creatinine (mg/dL)	0.10 $\pm$ 0.03	0.16 $\pm$ 0.05
Cholesterol (mg/dL)	314.8 $\pm$ 22.7	305.0 $\pm$ 20.0
Glucose (mg/dL)	376.3 $\pm$ 15.5	412.3 $\pm$ 27.3
Calcium (mg/dL)	8.5 $\pm$ 0.2	8.8 $\pm$ 0.3
Phosphorus (mg/dL)	7.4 $\pm$ 0.6	8.5 $\pm$ 0.7
Bicarbonate TCO$_2$ (mM)	17.3 $\pm$ 0.7	17.1 $\pm$ 1.6
Chloride (mM)	113.1 $\pm$ 1.3	108.3 $\pm$ 1.3*
Potassium (mM)	6.1 $\pm$ 0.5	6.2 $\pm$ 0.7
ALB/GLOB ratio	0.9 $\pm$ 0.03	0.9 $\pm$ 0.03
Sodium (mM)	150.6 $\pm$ 0.9	148.4 $\pm$ 1.4
BUN/Creatinine ratio	92.2 $\pm$ 27.8	58.3 $\pm$ 18.0
Bilirubin – Unconjugated (mg/dL)	0.09 $\pm$ 0.03	0.12 $\pm$ 0.03
Na/K ratio	26.0 $\pm$ 2.4	26.0 $\pm$ 2.6
Triglycerides (mg/dL)	67.0 $\pm$ 3.7	57.6 $\pm$ 4.9
C-reactive peptide (ng/ml)	15234.1 $\pm$ 815.1	14033.4 $\pm$ 574.7

737 Suppl. Table 2A: Linear regression analysis between insulin AUC during GSIS

738 (dependent variable) and islet Cd content, islet Zn content, age and glucose AUC as

739 independent variables in males alone (n=33), females alone (n=29) and combined (n=62).

Gender	Predictor	Parameter Estimate	LCL Mean	UCL Mean	Pr > |t|
Males and females	Gender	-12.93	-30.22	4.37	0.149
	Islet Cd	-0.09	-0.20	0.03	0.137
	Islet Zn	0.0003	-24×10^{-5}	0.0009	0.257
	Age	1.27	0.65	1.90	<0.001
	AUC glucose	-37×10^{-5}	-92×10^{-5}	0.0002	0.196
Males	Islet Cd	-0.19	-0.37	-0.02	0.042
	Islet Zn	0.0007	-46×10^{-6}	0.001	0.077
	Age	1.33	0.61	2.06	0.001
	AUC glucose	-2×10^{-4}	-0.001	0.0006	0.634
Females	Islet Cd	-0.006	-0.15	0.14	0.931
	Islet Zn	-34×10^{-5}	-0.001	0.0007	0.529
	Age	0.49	-1.96	2.94	0.699
	AUC glucose	-56×10^{-5}	-0.001	0.0001	0.111

740 LCL: lower control limits, UCL: upper control limits, Pr > \|t\|: t-distribution two-tailed p-

741 value.

743 Suppl. Table 2B: Linear regression model between insulin AUC during GSIS (dependent

744 variable) and islet Cd content with successive addition of gender, islet Zn content, age

745 and AUC glucose as independent variables in males and females combined (n=62).

	Model											
	MODEL1				MODEL2				MODEL3			
	Parameter Estimate	LCLmean	UCLmean	Pr > |t|	Parameter Estimate	LCLmean	UCLmean	Pr > |t|	Parameter Estimate	LCLmean	UCLmean	Pr > |t|
Predictor												
Islet_Cd	-0.14	-0.26	-0.006	0.044	-0.14	-0.27	-0.007	0.043	-0.15	-0.28	-0.02	0.028
female	.	.	.	.	3.72	-10.40	17.84	0.607	5.65	-8.48	19.79	0.436
Islet_Zn	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	0.0005	-12E-5	0.001	0.115
Age	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
AUC_glucose	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.

	Model							
	MODEL4				MODEL5			
	Parameter Estimate	LCLmean	UCLmean	Pr > |t|	Parameter Estimate	LCLmean	UCLmean	Pr > |t|
Predictor								
Islet_Cd	-0.09	-0.20	0.03	0.138	-0.09	-0.20	0.03	0.137
female	-17.36	-33.43	-1.29	0.039	-12.93	-30.22	4.37	0.149
Islet_Zn	0.0004	-21E-5	0.0009	0.217	0.0003	-24E-5	0.0009	0.257
Age	1.36	0.75	1.98	<.001	1.27	0.65	1.90	<.001
AUC_glucose	.	.	.	.	-37E-5	-92E-5	0.0002	0.196

747 LCL: lower control limits, UCL: upper control limits, $Pr > |t|$: t-distribution two-tailed p-

748 value.

751   Suppl. Table 2C: Linear regression model between insulin AUC during GSIS (dependent

752   variable) and islet Cd content with successive addition of islet Zn content, age, and AUC

753   glucose as independent variables in males (n=33).

	Model											
	MODEL1				MODEL2				MODEL3			
	Parameter Estimate	LCLmean	UCLmean	Pr > |t|	Parameter Estimate	LCLmean	UCLmean	Pr > |t|	Parameter Estimate	LCLmean	UCLmean	Pr > |t|
Predictor												
Islet_Cd	-0.27	-0.48	-0.06	0.018	-0.19	-0.37	-0.02	0.042	-0.19	-0.37	-0.02	0.042
Islet_Zn	0.0009	-5E-6	0.002	0.061	0.0007	18E-7	0.001	0.059	0.0007	-46E-6	0.001	0.077
Age	.	.	.	.	1.38	0.70	2.07	<.001	1.33	0.61	2.06	0.001
AUC_glucose	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	-2E-4	-0.001	0.0006	0.634

755   LCL: lower control limits, UCL: upper control limits, Pr > $|t|$: t-distribution two-tailed p-

756   value.

759 Suppl. Table 2D: Linear regression model between insulin AUC during GSIS (dependent

760 variable) and islet Cd content with successive addition of islet Zn content, age and AUC

761 glucose as independent variables in females (n=29).

	Model											
	MODEL1				MODEL2				MODEL3			
	Parameter Estimate	LCLmean	UCLmean	Pr > |t|	Parameter Estimate	LCLmean	UCLmean	Pr > |t|	Parameter Estimate	LCLmean	UCLmean	Pr > |t|
Predictor												
Islet_Cd	-0.04	-0.16	0.09	0.588	-0.02	-0.16	0.13	0.844	-0.006	-0.15	0.14	0.931
Islet_Zn	-3E-4	-0.001	0.0006	0.538	-44E-5	-0.002	0.0006	0.435	-34E-5	-0.001	0.0007	0.529
Age	.	.	.	.	0.68	-1.85	3.20	0.604	0.49	-1.96	2.94	0.699
AUC_glucose	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	-56E-5	-0.001	0.0001	0.111

763 LCL: lower control limits, UCL: upper control limits, Pr > $|t|$: t-distribution two-tailed p-

764 value.

767   Suppl. Table 3: Metal analysis for regular and high fat chow by ICP-MS normalized to

768   chow weight (n=3/group). Data are expressed as mean $\pm$ SEM.

Element	Regular chow, Envigo 7912 (ng element/g chow)	High fat chow, Envigo TD180240 (ng element/g chow)	High fat chow, Envigo TD88137 (ng element/ g chow)
^{7}Li	35.1 ± 4.9	0 ± 7.7	0 ± 1.0
^{55}Mn	42266.9 ± 7351.0	55231.8 ± 2919.6	46686.5 ± 463.6
^{57}Fe	112389.0 ± 4746.6	55883.5 ± 7653.1	755284.0 ± 25902.4
^{59}Co	344.5 ± 29.9	11.6 ± 1.2	12.4 ± 3.1
^{60}Ni	1302.8 ± 67.2	156.7 ± 46.0	76.7 ± 10.5
^{63}Cu	6676.0 ± 892.9	14361.6 ± 10018.0	6364.2 ± 988.5
^{66}Zn	37582.9 ± 681.1	7798.6 ± 773.6	7586.0 ± 982.1
^{75}As	87.1 ± 8.7	10.8 ± 1.0	11.4 ± 0.7
^{77}Se	219.4 ± 25.8	158.9 ± 21.3	196.7 ± 36.9
^{111}Cd	40.2 ± 4.9	33.8 ± 7.0	5.7 ± 0.4
^{182}W	63.2 ± 20.3	4.6 ± 0.9	2.3 ± 0.1
^{208}Pb	79.3 ± 41.5	23.9 ± 14.2	2.0 ± 0.8
^{202}Hg	1.2 ± 0.3	0.5 ± 0.1	0.1 ± 0.1

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