Establishment of an easy-to-construct liver injury mouse model for longitudinal analysis by drinking-water administration of 4,4'-methylenedianiline

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Conflicts of interest
The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest.

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List of Abbreviations
MDA, 4,4'-methylenedianiline; TAA, thioacetamide; ALT, alanine aminotransferase; AST, aspartate aminotransferase; GO, Gene Ontology; GAGE, Generally Applicable Gene-set Enrichment; ANIT, α-naphthylisothiocyanate; HSCs, hepatic stellate cells; PFs, portal fibroblasts

Abstract

Compound actions are diverse, capable of inducing various biological responses, making them a valuable exploratory tool for understanding biological mechanisms. While widely employed in liver dysfunction research, models requiring continuous administration for longitudinal studies come with high construction costs. Although drinking water models are useful, currently utilized compounds are limited, with thioacetamide being one of the few examples. Is it possible to expand drinking water models for liver dysfunction research? Addressing this question, our study focused on constructing a novel drinking water-induced liver injury model. Through data mining and literature research, 4,4'-methylenedianiline was identified, whose drinking water administration consistently exhibited elevated ALT levels over 28 days. To evaluate differences in pathophysiological profiles compared to existing thioacetamide models, we acquired multi-view data of early biochemical test values, immune cell trafficking, and transcriptome over time. The analysis revealed unique features such as elevated total bilirubin in serum, increased monocyte-derived macrophages in the liver, and enhanced fibrinolysis in the liver, suggesting a model of cholestatic liver injury. This study proposes the first cholestatic liver injury model for compound drinking water administration, expanding the scope of longitudinal analysis in liver dysfunction research.

Introduction

Hepatic dysfunction, a condition with severe implications such as liver cancer and failure, has diverse causes, including drugs, alcohol, and hepatitis viruses (1,2). Despite its substantial public health impact, treatment options are limited, and there is a lack of medicine-based therapeutic approaches. Owing to its diverse nature, compound administration serves as a valuable tool for assessing biological responses, thereby enhancing our comprehension of disease pathophysiology. In hepatic dysfunction research, models induced by compounds like carbon tetrachloride (CCl_4) are widely employed, capable of inducing both liver injury and fibrosis (3–10). However, for longitudinal analysis emphasizing temporal changes, continuous administration during model construction can be a significant burden in the experimental process.

The model that involves continuous administration of compounds through drinking water is cost-effective and thus appealing to longitudinal analysis. Currently, the widely used drinking water-induced liver injury model is limited, predominantly involving thioacetamide (TAA) (11,12). Expanding and comparing drinking water-induced liver injury models beyond the TAA model is expected to facilitate a comprehensive analysis, combining the advantages of compound administration-induced injury models and those induced by drinking water, regarding both longitudinal and cross-sectional analyses. Then, is it feasible to expand the drinking water-induced liver injury model?

Here, this study pursued the establishment and evaluation of a drinking water-induced liver injury model using compounds other than TAA. Data mining and literature survey identified 4,4'-methylenedianiline (MDA) as a candidate hepatic toxicant not characterized in a drinking water-induced model (13,14). MDA administration via drinking water resulted in consistently elevated ALT levels over 28 days. Comparative analysis with the well-established TAA model revealed various differences in pathological profiles, assessed multi-view data composed of biochemical values, immune cell trafficking, and transcriptome profiles in the early administration phase. This research proposes an easily constructed, novel pathological profile for a drinking water-induced liver injury model, with the potential to broaden the scope of longitudinal analyses in liver dysfunction research.

Methods

Screening of candidate compounds for drinking water-induced liver injury model

Through database searches (CEBS, Open TG-GATEs, and DrugMatrix), compounds with ALT levels surpassing 200 U/L were extracted through administration regardless of route and time (15–17). Refined selection criteria with literature survey included: (a) the ability to induce liver dysfunction via oral administration, (b) water solubility (Solubility 1.0 g/L or greater), (c) cost-effectiveness, and ease of handling, and (d) a toxicity profile distinct from TAA, an existing drinking water-induced liver injury model.

Preparation of drug-induced liver injury models

Six-week-old male C57BL/6JJcl mice were purchased from CLEA Japan (Tokyo, Japan) and acclimatized for three to five days. The mice were exposed to Thioacetamide (T0817, Tokyo Chemical Industry Co., Japan) or Methylene dianiline (M0220, Tokyo Chemical Industry Co., Japan) dissolved in drinking water (300 mg/l or 750 mg/l) to induce liver damage, whereas the controls received a tap water. Mice were sacrificed at each time point and perfused liver samples and blood were harvested (Liver and blood sample collection section). The procedures reported in this article were performed in accordance with the guidelines provided by the Institutional Animal Care Committee (Graduate School of Pharmaceutical Sciences, the University of Tokyo, Tokyo, Japan).

Liver and blood sample collection

In the early phase (1, 2, 3, 4, and 8 day), the blood was collected through an inferior vena cava into 1.5 mL tube containing 1 μL heparin (Yoshindo Inc, Toyama, Japan) and a superior vena cava was clipped using a clamp. After cutting the portal vein, the first perfusion was performed by injecting 10 mL of 5 mM HEPES (H4034, Sigma-Aldrich Co. LLCUSA) / 5 mM EDTA (345-01865, Fujifilm Corporation) Hanks' Balanced Salt Solution (17461-05, Nacalai Tesque, INC., Japan) through the inferior vena cava. Then, the second perfusion was performed by using 10 mL of 5 mM HEPES Hanks' Balanced Salt Solution. Before harvesting the tissue, 2 mL of dissociation enzyme solution of gentleMACS (Miltenyi Biotec, Germany) was filled in the liver from an inferior vena cava with clipping the cut portal vein. In the chronic phase (14 and 28 day), the same process is performed up to the point before perfusion, the perfusion was performed by injecting 20 mL of phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) through the inferior vena cava. For the obtained liver, a portion of the outer left latera lobe of the liver was subjected to RNA isolation (RNA-seq or qPCR analysis section) and the remaining tissue to flow cytometry analysis (Flow cytometry analysis section, acute phase only) or to western blotting, respectively.

Analysis of blood specimens

The collected blood sample was centrifuged (1,700 g, 4 °C for 15 min) for serum separation. Serum alanine aminotransferase (ALT) and aspartate aminotransferase (AST) were measured using a DRI-CHEM NX500sV (Fujifilm Corporation, Japan). If the upper limit is exceeded, dilute with 100 mM

HEPES with 0.1% CHAPS (pH 7.4, r.t.) and re-measured.

Analysis of liver specimens

Detailed procedures of RNA-seq analysis and flow cytometry analysis, including subsequent data analysis, are provided in Supplementary Information.

Quantitative PCR analysis

Total RNA was prepared using ISOGEN II (311-07361, Nippon Gene Co., Ltd., Tokyo, Japan). RNA was reverse transcribed into cDNA using ReverTra Ace (TOYOBO, FSQ-301). Real-time PCR was performed using the THUNDERBIRD® Next SYBR® qPCR Mix (TOYOBO, QPX-201). Target gene expression was normalized to housekeeping genes Gapdh. Primers are listed in Table S1.

Clustering Analysis

Dimensionality reduction was performed using transcriptome of the liver at 1, 2, 3, 4, and 8 days after administration as features. All features were reduced in dimensionality by principal component analysis, multidimensional scaling, t distributed stochastic neighbor embedding, uniform manifold approximation and projection, spectral embedding and locally linear embedding. The dimensionally reduced features were combined using a meta-visualization method (18). The combined meta-distance matrix was visualized with a scatter plot, with each point color-coded by time and dose condition or ALT value. Note that transcriptome features were log-transformed. The detailed code used is found on GitHub (https://github.com/mizuno-group). Analysis was performed using Python (version 3.10.6) with open-source packages (numpy, version 1.24.4; pandas, version 2.0.3; scipy, version 1.11.1; scikit-learn, version 1.1.2; statsmodels, version 0.13.2; umap, version 0.5.4)

Gene Set Analysis

First, the Gene Ontology (GO) annotation file (m5.go.v2023.1.Mm.symbols.gmt) was downloaded from the MSigDB website (https://www.gsea-msigdb.org/gsea/msigdb) and used for the following analysis (19). In this part, the genes included in this GO annotation file were the genes to be analyzed. The transcriptome data were log-transformed, and genes with less than 70% (50 individuals) confirmed to be expressed were deleted. Subsequently, if the individuals with zero expression was biased toward a

particular group by analysis of variance (one way repeated measures ANOVA), that genes was retained. Finally, missing values were complemented using KNNImputer (sklearn, version 1.1.2). The preprocessed RNA-seq data were subjected to Generally Applicable Gene-set Enrichment (GAGE) with following the GAGE algorithms comparing the control and the treated group for each model (20). After adapting GAGE, we obtained lists of GO terms with the mean difference and associated p value for each model and time point. To summarize and prioritize GO terms, we computed rank product statistics utilizing the mean difference values extracted from samples obtained at 48 and 72 hours, aligning with the respective ALT peaks for each model (21).

Results

Establishment of a drinking water-induced liver injury model using MDA

To establish a novel drinking water-induced liver injury model, we initially screened compounds inducing liver damage from large toxicology databases (15–17). Refined selection criteria were then applied, incorporating literature survey as in Methods section. From seven compounds meeting these criteria (Fluconazole, 4,4'-methylene dianiline, Suloctidil, Loratadine, N,N-dimethylformamide, Nitrosodiethylamine, Colchicine), 4,4'-methylene dianiline (MDA) stood out due to extensive studies as a liver carcinogen since 1970s, with reported drinking water administration tests for its carcinogenic evaluation (14,22). Despite reported oral administration-induced liver damage, the evaluation of MDA as a drinking water-induced liver injury model remains unexplored.

Therefore, MDA was administered via drinking water as a candidate compound. Biochemical tests at 7, 14, and 28 days from the start of administration revealed elevated levels of ALT, a marker of liver dysfunction, in both the MDA-treated and the existing TAA-treated groups (Fig. 1a, Table S2). Compared to the TAA-treated group, the MDA-treated group showed consistently higher ALT levels at day 7, and at day 14, the ALT values were significantly higher than those in the TAA-treated group. Subsequently, we evaluated liver fibrosis, a characteristic pathology of chronic liver dysfunction, using quantitative PCR. The results showed that, unlike the TAA-treated group, the MDA-treated group exhibited an increase in liver fibrosis markers such as Col1a1 and Acta2 at day 14 (Fig. 1b). This suggests that MDA administration via drinking water, similar to TAA, is a viable method for inducing a liver injury model. Hereafter, we refer to the liver injury models induced by drinking water administration of MDA and TAA as the MDA-DW model and TAA-DW model, respectively.

Experimental Design for Comparing the Pathological Development Processes of MDA-DW Model and TAA-DW Model

As shown in Figure 1, both MDA-DW and TAA-DW models exhibit liver injury, but there are differences in the trend of biochemical markers and fibrosis markers. Do they present distinct pathological profiles as

liver injury models? To assess the differences, we compared the temporal changes in the early phase of administration regarding pathological development from the following three perspectives (Figure 2):

1. Biochemical markers capturing macroscopic responses at the individual level.
2. Immune cell trafficking capturing the relationship between the liver and the immune system.
3. Transcriptome capturing molecular-level responses in the liver.

We obtained this multi-view data as shown in Figure 2.

Comparison of biochemical test results between MDA-DW and TAA-DW models

We compared biochemical test results capturing macro-level responses in both models. In the early stages of administration, the MDA-DW model exhibited a significant increase in liver dysfunction markers, including ALT, with a more gradual rise compared to the TAA-DW model (Fig. 3a, Table S3). The peak ALT value in the MDA-DW model occurred three days post-administration, contrasting with the TAA-DW model's peak at two days. Interestingly, both models showed substantial ALT recovery after the peak despite continued administration. Notably, the MDA-DW model displayed a pronounced increase in total bilirubin and total cholesterol compared to the TAA-DW model (Fig. 3b, c), suggesting a cholestatic-like liver dysfunction. This aligns with known MDA-induced cholestatic effects in single-dose oral administration studies (13). Consequently, the MDA-DW and TAA-DW models manifest distinct biochemical profile patterns.

Comparison of immune cell trafficking in MDA-DW and TAA-DW Models

Immune cell trafficking emerges as a pivotal factor in the progression of hepatic dysfunction (23–27). This study compares the immune cell trafficking capturing the interplay between the liver and the immune system in both models. Flow cytometric analysis (Fig. 4a and Fig. S1) unveiled a pronounced decline in lymphocyte population concurrent with elevated ALT levels, and a conspicuous augmentation in neutrophil population correlated with ALT elevation, observed consistently across both models. The values of neutrophils at the ALT peak exhibited substantial variability, strongly correlating with the degree of hepatic dysfunction, i.e., ALT levels (R=0.82) (Fig. 4b). Furthermore, Kupffer cells gradually diminished post-administration, indicating low population ratios on days 2-3 in both models, followed by a substantial recovery on day 4 (Fig. S2). Interestingly, other myeloid populations displayed significant differences between TAA-DW and MDA-DW models. For instance, in the TAA-DW model, the accumulation of eosinophils was confirmed three days post-administration, a phenomenon not observed in the MDA-DW model. Moreover, monocyte-derived macrophages gradually accumulated in the MDA-DW model post-administration, reaching a peak on day three, while no such changes were observed in the TAA-DW model. In summary, immune cell trafficking in MDA-DW and TAA-DW models reveals shared behaviors among cell types indicative of liver injury models, yet it also highlights substantial differences in the behavior of certain cell types.

Comparison of transcriptome profiles in MDA-DW and TAA-DW models

Transcriptome profiles capturing the molecular responses of the liver were compared in both models.

Employing META visualization (18), an integration of various dimensionality reduction methods was performed on individual gene expression data and visualized (Fig. 5). Results of each dimensionality reduction method used in META visualization are presented in Figure S2. When color-coded based on administered compounds and time, individuals shortly after administration in both TAA-DW and MDA-DW models initially positioned near the control group but diverged over time. Distinct clustering differences between the MDA-DW and TAA-DW models became evident with time progression (Fig. 5a). Conversely, among individuals sampled on day 8, the time point furthest from administration in this experiment, some were located close to the control group. Additionally, when visualized alongside ALT values, individuals with lower ALT values, regardless of the model, were positioned near the control group (Fig. 5b). Thus, both TAA-DW and MDA-DW models exhibited significant changes in expression profiles over time, with distinct temporal variations observed between the two models.

Analysis of distinct molecular mechanisms in MDA-DW model

Evaluation of macroscopic changes in the transcriptome profile revealed distinct molecular pathologies between the MDA-DW and TAA-DW models during the early stages of administration. To identify specific molecular mechanisms defining the pathophysiology of MDA-DW, Gene Set Analysis (GSA) was conducted. Transcriptome data obtained were subjected to Generally Applicable Gene-set Enrichment (GAGE) (Luo et al., BMC Bioinformatics, 2009), allowing application to gene expression datasets with varying sample sizes and experimental designs. Results indicated the presence of IL17 and monocyte-related Gene Ontology (GO) terms during the acute phase (48 and 72 hours) in the MDA-DW model (Table S4). Visualization confirmed a similar trend in the TAA-DW model, suggesting common mechanisms underlying liver injury due to oral administration (Fig. 6a, Table S5). Conversely, fibrinolysis-related GO terms observed in the MDA model showed concentration in opposite directions between the TAA- and MDA-DW models (Fig. 6b, Table S4, S5).

Discussion

Compounds, owing to their diverse actions, can impart various perturbations to the biological system, serving as valuable exploratory tools for elucidating biological mechanisms (28–30). However, continuous administration of a compound poses high barriers, such as laborious costs for administration and elevated economic costs when mixed with diet. Limited options for longitudinal analysis include the labor-intensive historically established repeated-dose carbon tetrachloride model and the TAA drinking water model. This study proposes the MDA-DW model as a novel liver injury model conducive to easily constructed longitudinal analyses, with the potential to broaden the scope of longitudinal analyses in liver dysfunction research. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first cholestatic liver injury model via drinking water administration. The proposed model exhibits distinct pathophysiological profiles from the existing TAA-DW model, particularly highlighting intriguing differences in immune cell trafficking, a crucial factor in the progression of liver dysfunction. Noteworthy distinctions include the accumulation of eosinophils and the accumulation of monocyte-derived macrophages, observed exclusively in the TAA

and MDA models, respectively (Fig. 4). In addressing the question of whether to expand the drinking water-induced liver injury model, this study focused on the MDA, which has a proven track record in drinking water administration studies. However, alternative candidate compounds were also found as described in the Result section. Thus, expanding liver injury models via drinking water administration of compounds is anticipated to enable future comprehensive analyses, contributing to a better understanding of the pathophysiological progression of liver dysfunction.

Model stability is essential for test reproducibility and delicate analyses. While the TAA-DW model is widely used as a model for drinking water-induced liver injury, instances of high mortality have been reported (31). The TAA-DW model in this study exhibits elevated ALT levels exceeding 10,000 U/l in the early stages, indicative of severe acute liver injury (Fig. 3). In contrast, the MDA-DW model shows milder liver dysfunction in the early stages, with ALT levels around 3,000 U/l, significantly less than the TAA-DW model. Notably, in continuous administration trials of the MDA-DW model, no fatalities have been observed so far. This proposed model could be a stable model with high individual survival rates.

Hepatic fibrosis is a crucial pathology in chronic liver dysfunction. Can the MDA-DW model be utilized for evaluating hepatic fibrosis? The MDA-DW model shows an elevation in fibrotic markers, including Acta2, at 14 days, followed by a decrease at 28 days (Fig. 1). In comparison, the TAA-DW model generally exhibits symptoms of hepatic fibrosis around 16-18 weeks (32). The distinctive temporal changes in hepatic fibrosis markers would be attributed to the activation of myofibroblasts derived from portal fibroblasts (PFs). Myofibroblasts, serving as a source of excessive extracellular matrix and playing a significant role in hepatic fibrosis, are not present in normal liver tissue and are primarily activated by hepatic stellate cells (HSCs) or PFs (33). Iwaisako's study reports differences in the origin of myofibroblasts between the bile duct ligation (BDL) model, resembling cholestatic liver dysfunction, and the CCl_4 model, representing general liver dysfunction (34). In the CCl_4 model, over 80% of fibrotic cells originate from HSCs, maintaining a constant proportion regardless of time. In contrast, in the BDL model, over 70% of fibrotic cells originate from PFs, with the proportion decreasing over time. Considering the similar temporal changes between these models and the MDA-DW model's presentation of cholestatic liver dysfunction, as depicted in Figure 1b, it is inferred that PFs are primarily activated in the MDA-DW model. Further detailed assessments through long-term administration trials are necessary to determine its suitability for hepatic fibrosis pathology evaluation. However, as a model involving PFs' activation in liver dysfunction, the MDA-DW model, being convenient and stable without requiring surgical procedures, holds promise as a valuable tool, alongside the historically established BDL model.

One notable feature of this model is the increased fibrinolysis (Fig. 6). In the pathophysiology associated with fibrinolysis during liver dysfunction, fibrin deposition is a recognized phenomenon in various liver injury models, with diverse characteristics in deposition sites (35–38). Notably, fibrin deposition in acute cholestatic liver injury induced by complete bile duct obstruction or single-dose ANIT administration to mice produces a distinctive histological pattern, extensively researched by Luyendyk's group (39–41). This group reports that ANIT-like fibrin deposition is observed in patients with primary biliary cholangitis (PBC) and primary sclerosing cholangitis (PSC). Models exhibiting ANIT-like fibrin deposition would

contribute to understanding the pathophysiology of these diseases (41). Considering the hepatotoxicity to bile ducts induced by MDA, it is inferred that the MDA-DW model also presents the pathophysiology of ANIT-like fibrin deposition. Indeed, distinctive structures are observed through immunostaining at day 14 of administration (SFig 3). As ANIT has low solubility and the preparation of ANIT-containing diets is costly for longitudinal analysis, the proposed model could be a useful tool to deepen our understanding of the characteristic fibrin deposition in liver dysfunction, although further investigation is required for fibrin deposition in the MDA-DW model.

A unique contribution of this study, not underscored in the preceding discussions, is the acquisition of biochemical test values, transcriptome profiles, and immune cell trafficking data from identical subjects at five time points for both the MDA-DW and TAA-DW models (Fig 2). We believe this multi-view data is valuable resources contributing to the understanding of the temporal changes during liver injury, particularly the relationship between the molecular biology state of the liver and the behavior of immune cells. The accumulation of such longitudinal and comparable data would create a foundation for comprehensive analyses, fostering insights into the pathophysiological mechanisms underlying the progression of liver dysfunction.

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Figures and Legends

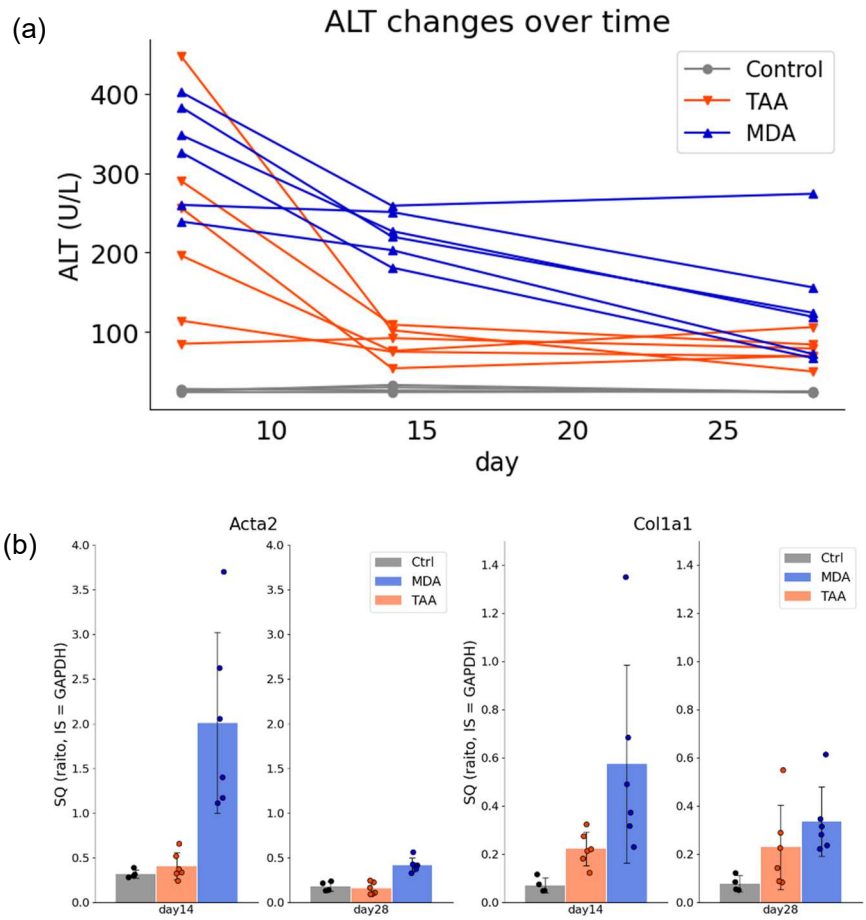

Figure 1. Induction of liver injury via the oral administration of MDA in drinking water. (a) Time course of changes in ALT. (b) Quantitative PCR evaluations of fibrosis markers at each time interval. Error bars represent standard deviation.

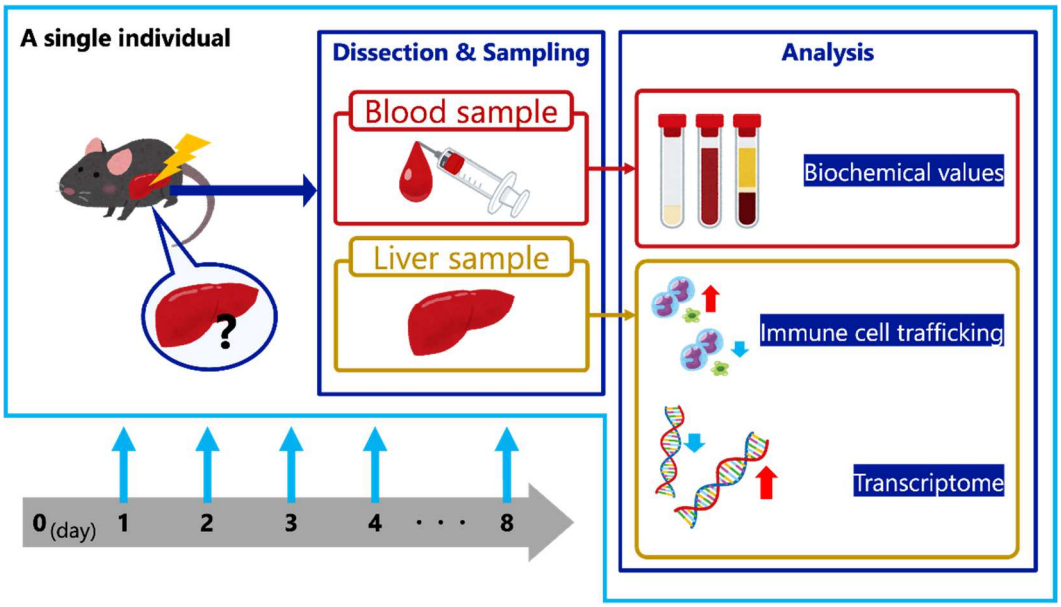

Figure 2. Experimental design of multi-view data acquisition
Blood and liver samples are obtained from each individual to provide multi-view data linking the compound administered, time post-administration, blood biochemistry values, immune cell trafficking, and transcriptome data.

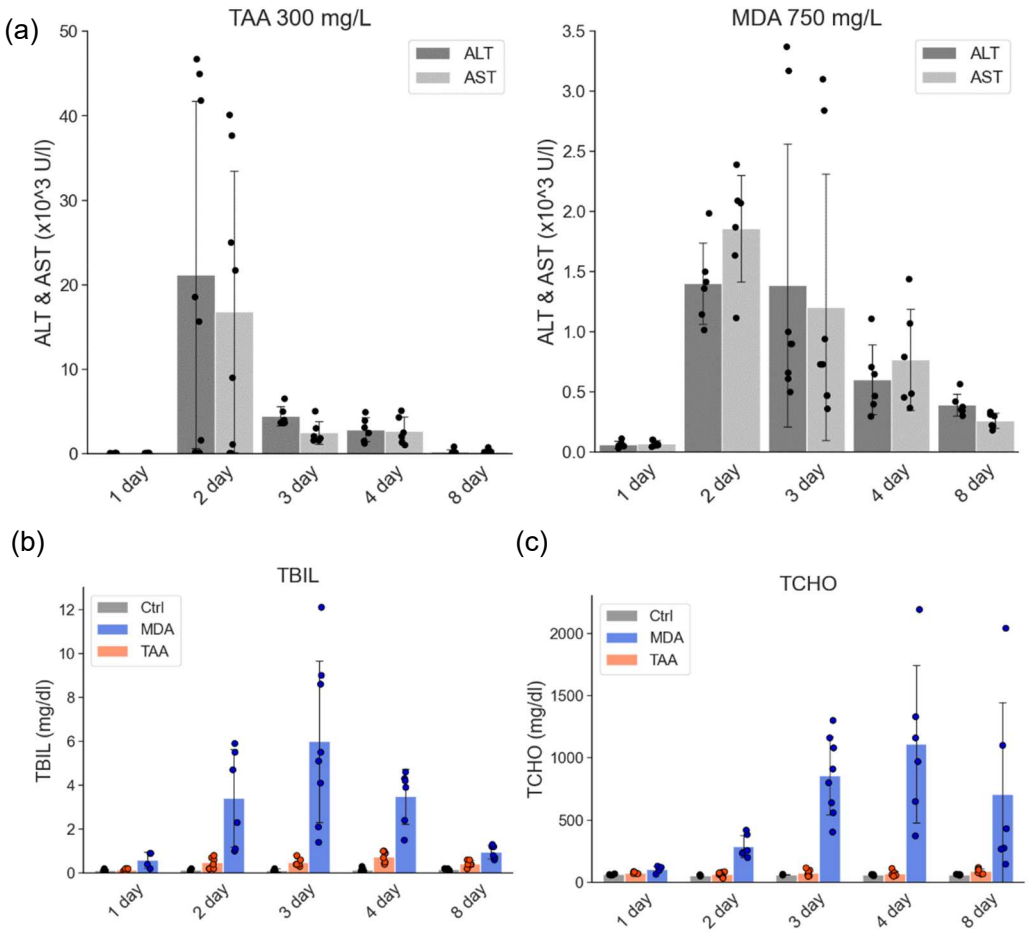

Figure 3. Comparison of changes in blood biochemistry values between MDA-DW and TAA-DW models

The figure illustrates the time course of changes in blood biochemistry values: (a) ALT and AST, (b) TBIL, and (c) TCHO. Error bars are indicative of standard deviation. It should be noted that the scale on the x-axis does not correspond to actual time. ALT, alanine aminotransferase; AST, aspartate aminotransferase; TBIL, total bilirubin; TCHO, total cholesterol Alterations in markers of liver injury during the early phase of models.

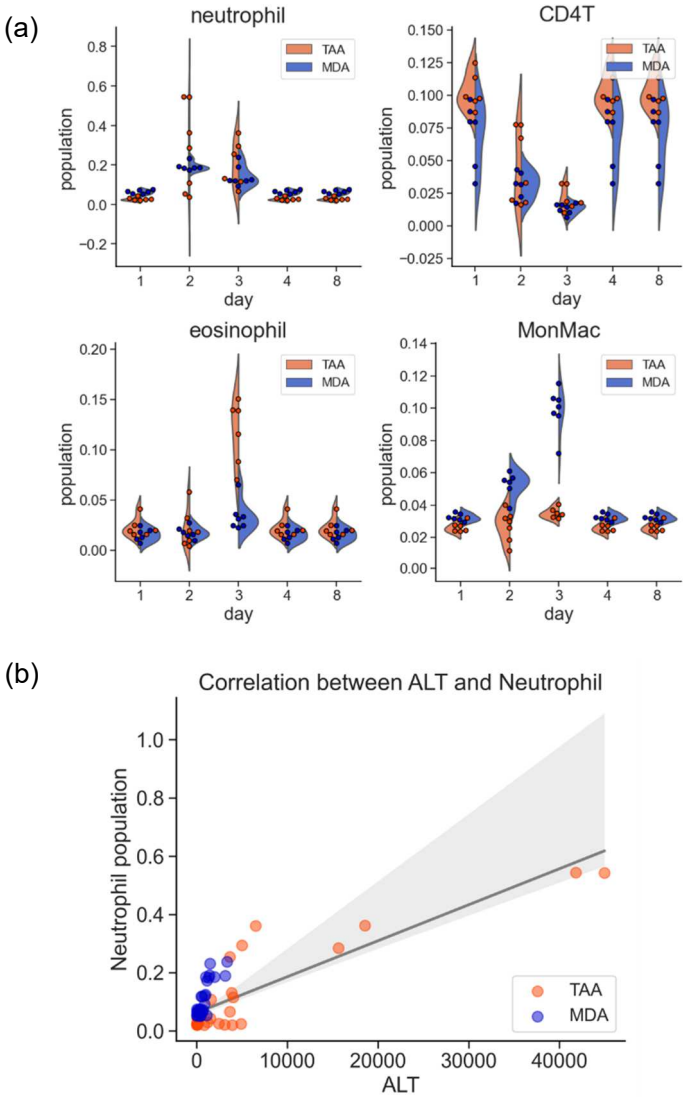

Figure 4. Comparison of immune cell trafficking between MDA-DW and TAA-DW models
(a)The violin plots represent the variation in immune cell proportion at different time points. It should be noted that the scale on the x-axis does not correspond to actual time. MonMac, monocyte-derived macrophages. (b)Visualization of the correlation between ALT and Neutrophil levels. The filled color surrounding the line indicates the 95% confidence interval.

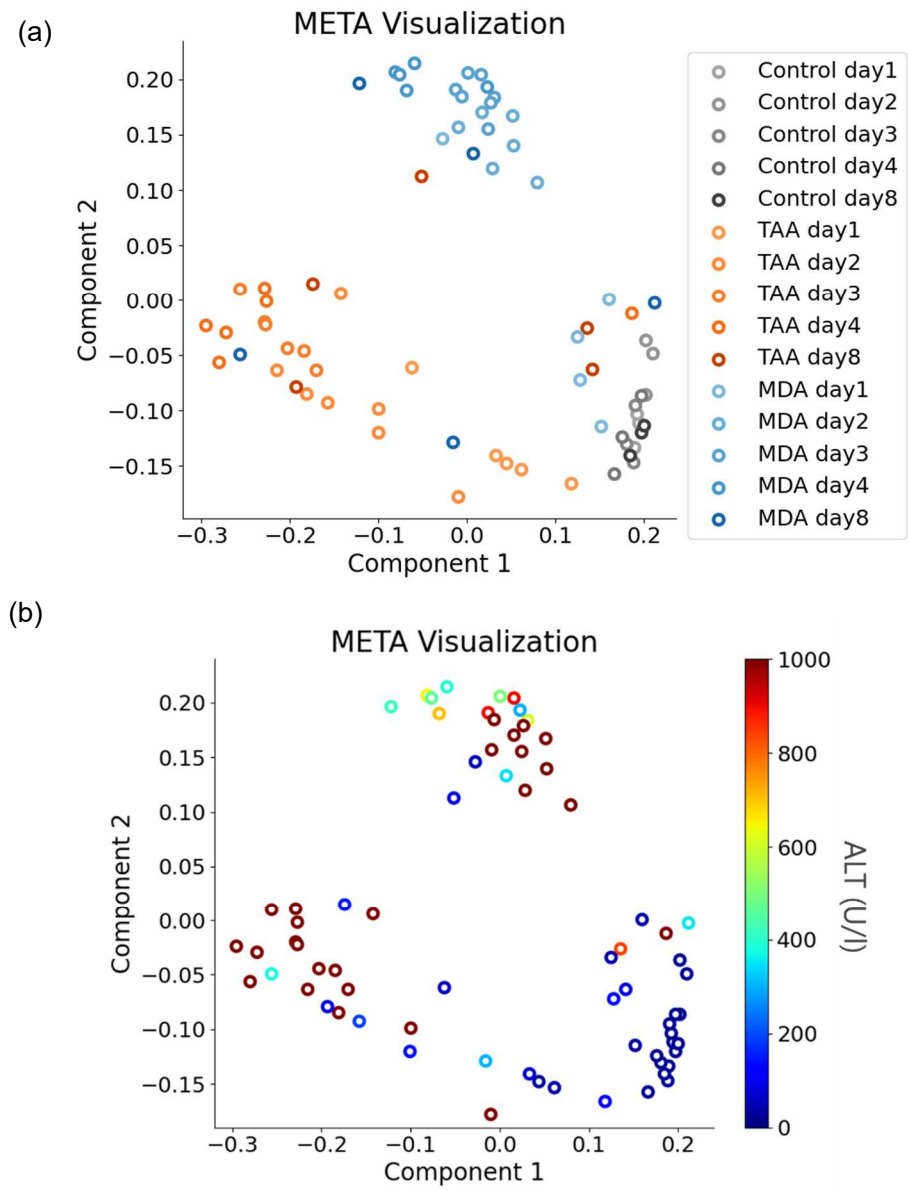

Figure 5. Comparison of transcriptome profiles between MDA-DW and TAA-DW models
Transcriptome profiles were embedded in 2-dimensions with meta-visualization, a dimension-reduction method (18). The embedded values were plotted for visualizing two aspects: (a) temporal changes and (b) associations with ALT values.

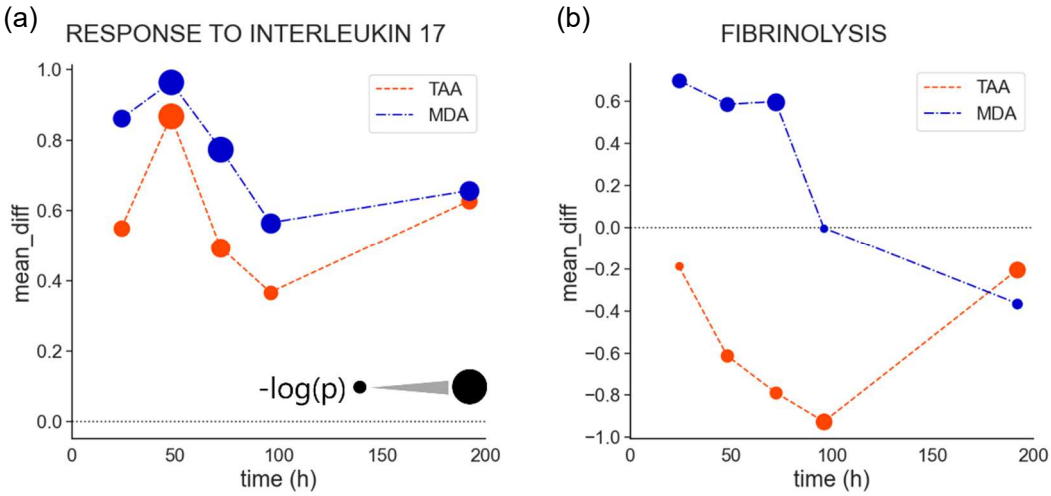

Figure 6. Gene set analysis of MDA-DW and TAA-DW models
Characteristic Gene Ontology (GO) terms of MDA-DW and TAA-DW models are visualized. (a) The vertical axis represents the GAGE mean difference, and the horizontal axis represents time. The circle size at each point corresponds to the -log(p) value calculated by GAGE.

Supplementary Information for "Establishment of an easy-to-construct liver injury mouse model for longitudinal analysis by drinking-water administration of 4,4'-methylenedianiline"

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Supplementary Methods

RNA-seq analysis

Poly(A) tailed mRNA was purified from total RNA prepared with Isogen II (311-07361, Nippon Gene, Japan) using the NEBNext Poly(A) mRNA Magnetic Isolation Module. RNA-Seq libraries were prepared using the NEBNext Ultra II Directional RNA Library Prep Kit for Illumina. Libraries were sequenced using the NovaSeq 6000 S1 Rgt Kit v1.5 (200 cyc).

Quality control of all reads was performed using PRINSEQ++ (version 1.2.4) with the indicated parameters (trim_left=5, trim_tail_right=5, trim_qual_right=30, ns_max_n=20, min_len=30) (https://peerj.com/preprints/27553/). The Expression of transcripts was quantified using Salmon (version 1.6.0) and gencode.vM28.transcripts obtained from GENCODE (https://www.gencodegenes.org/) with the indicated parameters (validationMappings, gcBias, seqBias) and decoy-aware index created using Salmon and GRCm39.primary_assembly.genome obtained from GENCODE [1]. Transcripts Per Kilobase Million (TPM) data was obtained using tximport which is implemented in the software package Bioconductor with R (version 4.2.3) from quant.sh files created by Salmon (version 1.8.0)[2].

Flow cytometry analysis

The liver sample was dissociated using gentleMACS according to the manufacturer's instructions. Except noted especially, PBS containing 2% fetal bovine serum was used as "Wash Buffer" thereafter. The washed samples were centrifuged (50×g, 4 °C for 3 min) to eliminate hepatocytes and were subjected to ACK Lysis Buffer. ACK buffer was prepared by adding 8,024 mg of NH4Cl (A2037, TCI, Japan), 10 mg of NHCO3 (166-03275, FUJIFILM Wako, Japan), and 3.772 mg of EDTA 2Na · 2H2O (6381-92-6, Dojindo Laboratories, Japan) into 1 L pure water. The samples were washed with the Wash Buffer three times and then the samples were subjected to flow cytometry analysis. Flow cytometric analysis was performed with FACSCelesta (BD Biosciences, USA), and data were analyzed with FlowJo software (Treestar). Proportions of NK cells (CD45+/CD3−/NK1.1+), B cells (CD45+/B220+), CD4+ T cells (CD45+/CD3+/B220−/CD4+), CD8+ T cells (CD45+/CD3+/B220−/CD4−/CD8a+), NKT cells (CD45+/CD3+/B220−/CD4−/CD8a−/NK1.1+), γδT cells (CD45+/CD3+/B220−/CD4−/CD8a−/gdTCR+), eosinophils (CD45+/CD11b+/Siglec-F+), neutrophils (CD45+/CD11b+/Siglec-F−/Ly6G+/Tim4−), monocytes (CD45+/CD11b+/Siglec-F−/Ly6G−/Tim4−/Ly6C+), monocyte-derived macrophages

(CD45+/CD11b+/Siglec-F−/Ly6G−/Tim4−/Ly6C−), and Kupffer cells (CD45+/CD11b+/Siglec-F−/Ly6G−/Tim4+/Ly6C−) were acquired via flow cytometry. The antibodies used are listed in Supplementary Table S6.

Immunofluorescent staining

The molecular staining process for HNF4a involved the following steps: Liver samples were fixed overnight at 4°C in 10% formalin neutral buffer solution. After fixation, the samples were washed with phosphate-buffered saline (PBS), dehydrated overnight in a 30% sucrose solution, and then embedded using OTC compound. The embedded samples were sectioned to 10 μm at -30°C, affixed to glass slides (MAS-01, Matsunami Glass Ind., Japan), and allowed to dry. The sections were activated in citrate buffer at 95°C for 20 minutes, blocked with 3% bovine serum albumin in PBS for 1 hour at room temperature, and then incubated with a rabbit anti-HNF4a antibody (1:200 in block buffer; Abcam, ab181604) for overnight at 4°C. Subsequently, the sections were washed with PBS and incubated for 3 hours at room temperature with Alexa Fluor™ 546 Donkey anti-Rabbit IgG (H+L)(Invitrogen) diluted 1:250 in block buffer. Finally, the slides were washed with PBS, and the fluorescent staining in the liver sections was visualized using ZEISS Axio Scan.Z1.

Fibrin western blotting

Frozen liver underwent homogenization in phosphate-buffered saline (D-PBS (-)) with a pH of 7.5, supplemented with 5 mM EDTA, 10 U/ml heparin, and protease inhibitors (25955-11, Nacalai Tesque, INC., Japan). The resultant pellet underwent washing with the extraction buffer, followed by a repeated centrifugation. The resulting pellet was suspended in 1 ml of 4M urea, subjected to rotation at 37°C for 2 hours, quantified and standardized for protein concentration, and then centrifuged at 14,000 g for 15 minutes at 4°C. The pellet was resuspended in 20 μl of SDS buffer per 50 μg of protein and underwent reduction by boiling for 5 minutes in the presence of 2-mercaptoethanol. Protein samples underwent electrophoresis, followed by transfer to a membrane, and were detected using an anti-Fibrin antibody (59D8, 1:1,000).

Supplementary Figures and Tables

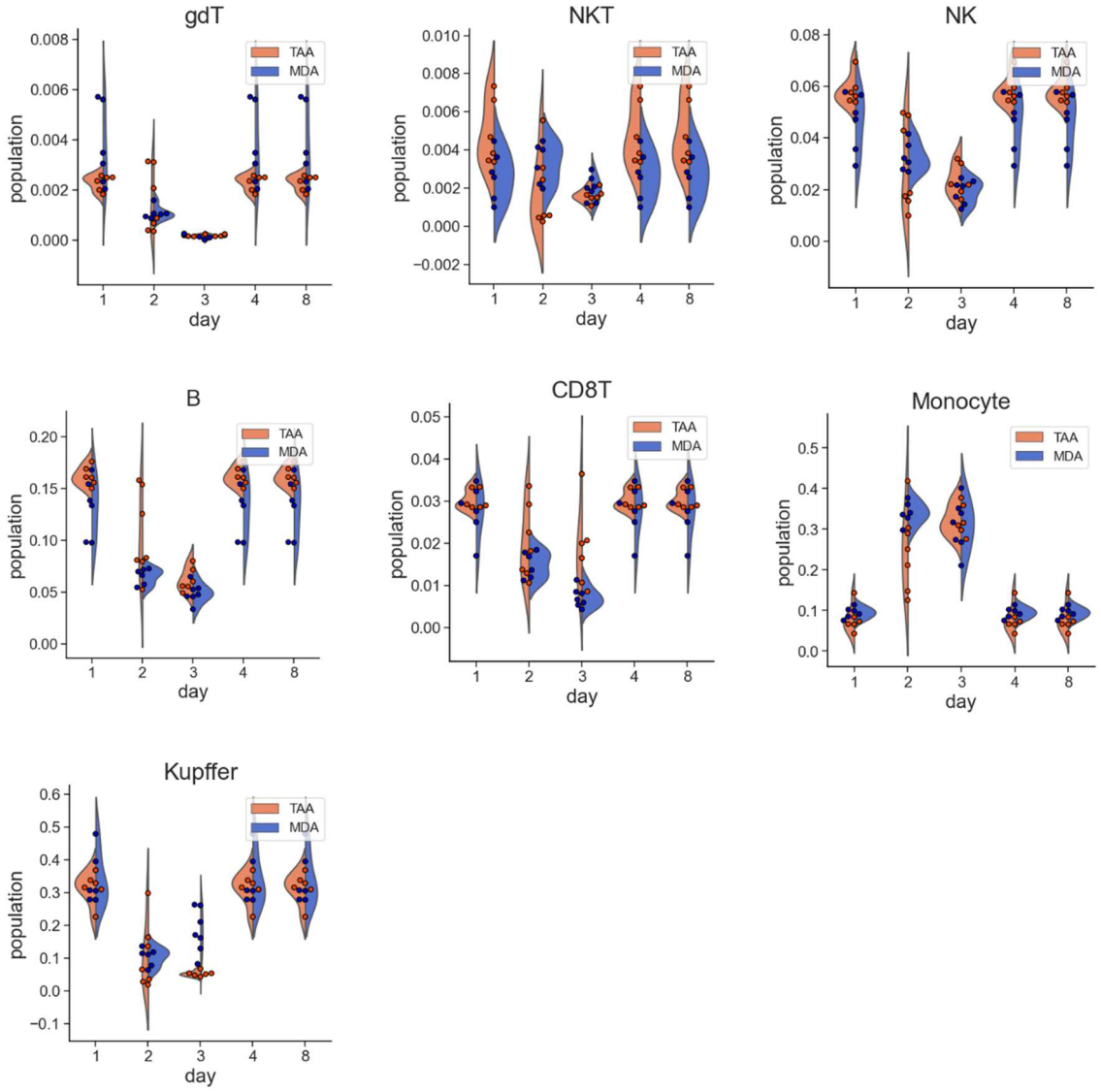

Figure S1. Violin plot for immune cell populations after administration
The violin plots represent the variation in immune cell proportion at different time points. It should be noted that the scale on the x-axis does not correspond to actual time.

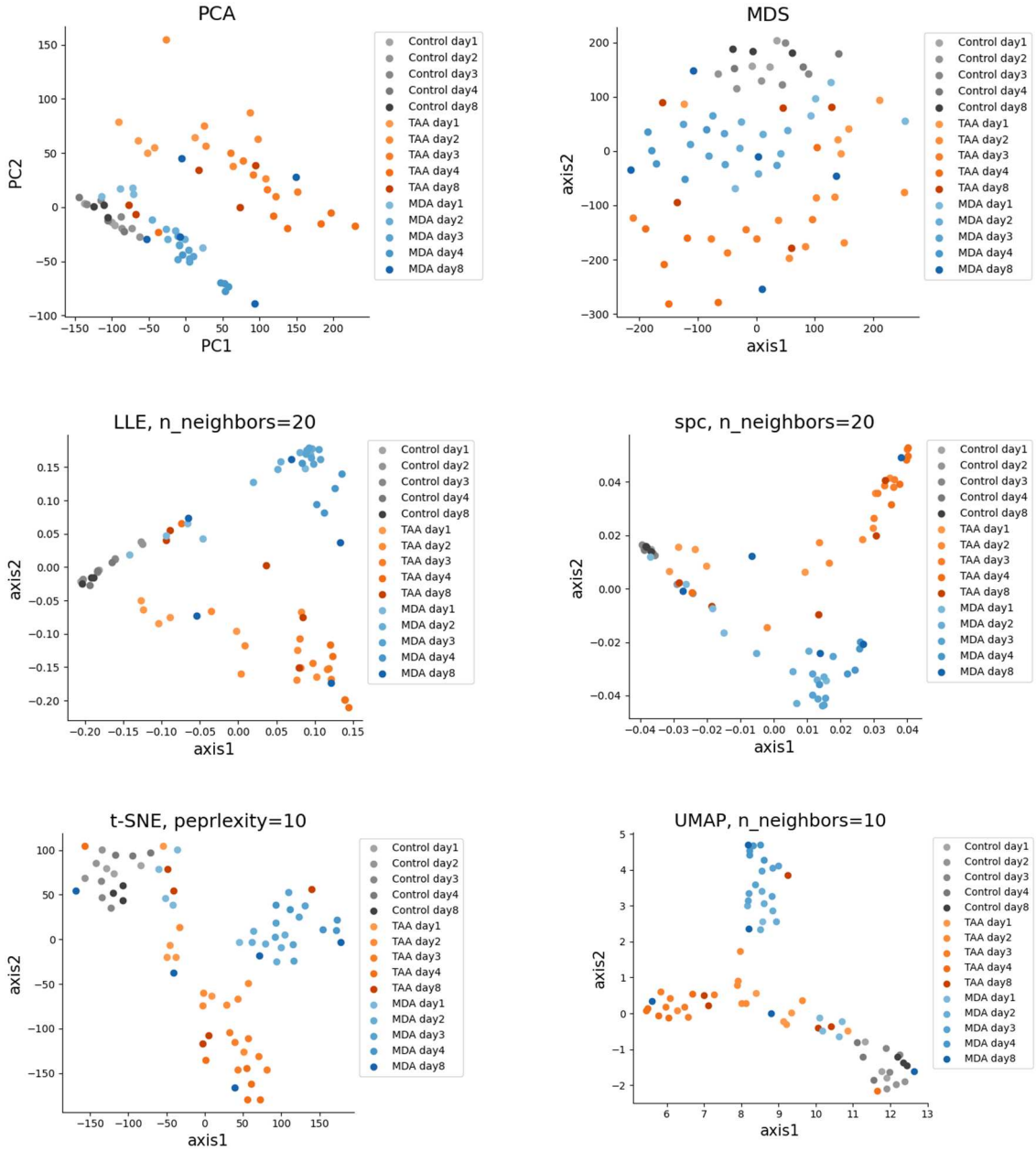

Figure S2. Visualization of transcriptome data embedded in 2D with each method constituting meta-visualization

The numerical value provided alongside the title represents the specified hyperparameter value. PCA, principal component analysis; MDS, multidimensional scaling; LLE, locally linear embedding; spc, spectral embedding; t-SNE, t distributed stochastic neighbor embedding; UMAP, uniform manifold approximation and projection.

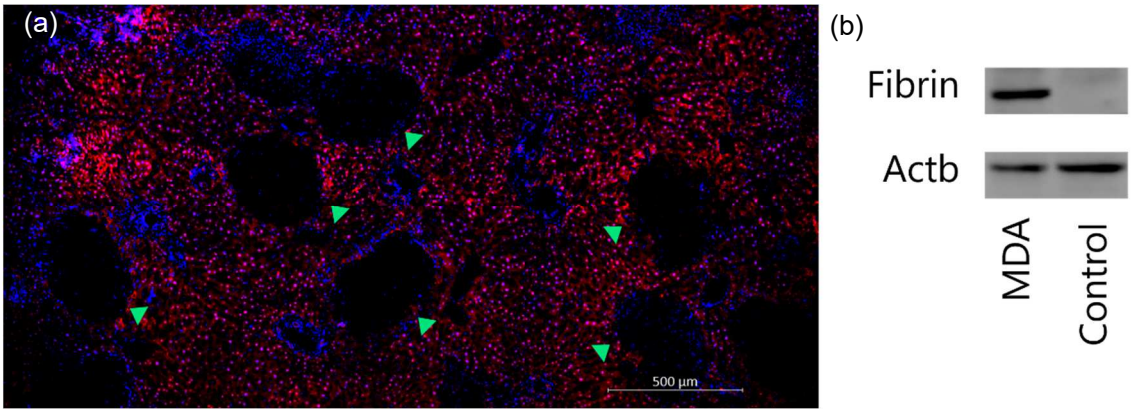

Figure S3. Activation of the coagulation system in MDA-treated mice
(a) The figure displays HNF4a (red) and TOPRO (blue) staining in livers. Green arrow heads indicate the characteristic patterns observed in MDA-treated mice. Mice received MDA treatment (750 mg/L in drinking water), and liver samples were collected 14 days later. (b) The levels of liver fibrin were assessed using Western blotting. Mice were treated with either vehicle or MDA (300 mg/kg, po), and liver samples were collected 48 hours later.

References

1. Frankish, A. *et al.* GENCODE reference annotation for the human and mouse genomes. *Nucleic Acids Res* **47**, D766–D773 (2019).
2. Patro, R., Duggal, G., Love, M. I., Irizarry, R. A. & Kingsford, C. Salmon provides fast and bias-aware quantification of transcript expression. *Nat Methods* **14**, 417–419 (2017).