

# Chronic exposure to a pollutant mixture at low doses led to tissue-specific metabolic alterations in male mice fed standard and high-fat high-sucrose diet

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23	diet, metabolic disturbances, obesity
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#### **Abstract**

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Excessive consumption of industrialized food and beverages is a major etiologic factor in the epidemics of obesity and associated metabolic diseases because these products are rich in fat and sugar. In addition, they contain food contact materials and environmental pollutants identified as metabolism disrupting chemicals. To evaluate the metabolic impact of these dietary threats (individually or combined), we used a male mouse model of chronic exposure to a mixture of low-dose archetypal food-contaminating chemicals that was added in standard or high-fat, high-sucrose (HFHS) diet. Specifically, the mixture contained bisphenol A, diethylhexylphthalate, 2,3,7,8-tetrachlorodibenzo-p-dioxine and polychlorinated biphenyl 153. Exposure lasted from 5 to 20 weeks of age. Metabolic exploration was conducted setting the basis of candidate gene expression mRNA analyses in liver, jejunum and adipose tissue depots from 20 week-old mice. Strong metabolic deleterious effects of the HFHS diet were demonstrated in line with obesity-associated metabolic features and insulin resistance. Pollutant exposure resulted in significant changes on plasma triglyceride levels and on the expression levels of genes mainly encoding xenobiotic processing in jejunum; estrogen receptors, regulators of lipoprotein lipase and inflammatory markers in jejunum and adipose tissues as well as adipogenesis markers. Importantly, the impact of pollutants was principally evidenced under standard diet. In addition, depending on nutritional conditions and on the metabolic tissue considered, the impact of pollutants could mimic or oppose the HFHS effects. Collectively, the present study extends the cocktail effect concept of a low-dosed pollutant mixture and originally points to tissue-specificity responsiveness especially in jejunum and adipose tissues.

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54	Highlights:
55	Low-dosed pollutants trigger metabolic disturbances in postnatally exposed male mice
56	The mixture of pollutants induced metabolic alterations in a tissue-specific manner
57	Jejunum is highly sensitive with regards to xenobiotic receptors and lipolysis
58	Pollutants have a greatest metabolic impact in standard nutritional conditions
59	Differences in the response to the pollutant mixture were seen between the 2 fat pads
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#### 1. Introduction

According to WHO (World Health Organization), obesity is an "abnormal or excessive fat accumulation that presents a risk to health". This accumulation of fat is deleterious because it could lead to a large spectrum of metabolic diseases (type 2 diabetes, cardiovascular diseases...) which are among the first causes of mortality with 10 million deaths in 2016. For example, more than 1.9 billion of adults in 2016, 18 years and older, were overweight, of those over 650 million were obese (WHO, 2018a, b). Diabetes also exploded these last decades with an average of 400 million worldwide in 2014 (WHO, 2017). In addition, metabolic disorders constitute a heavy cost for society. For example, worldwide cost of diabetes caring exceeded \$673 billion in 2015 (WHO, 2016).

Metabolic disorders are multifactorial diseases. Apart from genetic susceptibility and low physical activity, environmental concern relates to excessive consumption of industrialized food and beverages for their content in fat and sugar but also food contact materials and environmental pollutants. Food contact materials may include phthalates and bisphenols which can leach from packaging to cause contamination (Startin et al., 1987; Vandenberg et al., 2007; Koch and Calafat, 2009; Muncke, 2009). Environmental pollutants include persistent pollutants such as dioxins or polychlorobiphenyls (PCBs) which are lipophilic and bioaccumulate through the food chain being virtually present in all animal products (Schafer and Kegley, 2002).

Importantly, risk assessment evaluation bodies e.g., the European Food Safety Authority (EFSA) or the U.S. Food and Drug administration (FDA) focused primarily on single chemicals with the definition of tolerable daily intake (TDI) doses based on the no-observed-adverse effect levels (NoAELs) or the lowest-adverse-effect levels in animal studies (Dorne, 2010). Consistently, the mean exposures for the general population were found to be below the current levels determined to be safe for chemicals (Schafer and Kegley, 2002; Koch

and Calafat, 2009). However, a recent concern arose with chemicals possibly acting at doses lower than the NoAEL doses identified in animal studies and for some chemicals in the range of the TDI doses (Vandenberg et al., 2007; Vandenberg et al., 2012), and interfering with hormonal action, the so-called endocrine disruptors (Zoeller et al., 2014).

There are more than 900 molecules present in our environment that could be considered as endocrine disruptors (EDs) (WHO/UNEP, 2013) and to which we are non-voluntary but chronically exposed. Individually, their concentration may be too low to exert an effect but through acting on identical biological outcomes, the resulting effects of mixtures may grow as significant, an event now identified as the cocktail effect (Kortenkamp, 2014; Svingen and Vinggaard, 2016; Le Magueresse-Battistoni et al., 2017; Le Magueresse-Battistoni et al., 2018a). It is therefore of striking importance to further implement the metabolic impact of mixtures of pollutants at dosage lower than their NoAEL determined in animal studies.

Interestingly, we recently developed a mouse model of exposure to four pollutants (Naville et al., 2013; Naville et al., 2015; Labaronne et al., 2017; Julien et al., 2018) selected among archetypal EDs. Specifically, the mixture is made of two persistent pollutants, 2,3,7,8-tetrachlorodibenzo-pdioxine (TCDD) and Polychlorinated Biphenyl 153 (PCB153) and two non-persistent pollutants, Bisphenol A (BPA) and diethylhexylphthalate (DEHP). These pollutants were chosen as an attempt to mimic a real-world exposure based on persistence with two short-lived and two persistent molecules, on their large occurrence in a Western-diet, on the broad range of signaling pathways activated not to mention the many cross-talks occurring between them (Casals-Casas and Desvergne, 2011; Thayer et al., 2012; Vandenberg et al., 2012). In addition, they are considered as metabolism disrupting chemicals (Casals-Casas and Desvergne, 2011; Heindel et al., 2017). Notably, BPA whom worldwide production reached millions of tons yearly and which is mainly used in the manufacture of

plastics and resins, has been well identified as triggering metabolic disturbances acting among others through estrogeno-mimetic activities (Alonso-Magdalena et al., 2011; Vandenberg et al., 2012; Vom Saal et al., 2012; Beausoleil et al., 2018; Le Magueresse-Battistoni et al., 2018b). Phthalates are massively produced to soften plastics. They have been described as anti-androgenic compounds although not acting through binding the Androgen Receptor (AR) (Schug et al., 2011). PCB153 and TCDD (also known as the Seveso Dioxin) are persistent with a very long half-life and they bioaccumulate in the fat (Casals-Casas and Desvergne, 2011). Dioxins act through binding to the Aryl hydrocarbon Receptor (AhR) and PCB153, which could bind the Pregnane X and Constitutive Androstane Receptors (PXR and CAR, respectively) but not AhR, may interfere with thyroid but also estrogen signaling (Diamanti-Kandarakis et al., 2009; Casals-Casas and Desvergne, 2011; Pavek, 2016) to mediate their metabolism disrupting effects (Angrish et al., 2012; Wahlang et al., 2013; Heindel et al., 2017). Noteworthy, diet is the major route of exposure for pollutants including those present in the mixture used in the present study (Diamanti-Kandarakis et al., 2009; Casals-Casas and Desvergne, 2011; Thayer et al., 2012; Vandenberg et al., 2012).

With this model, we demonstrated that chronic exposure to such a mixture at dosage lower than the NoAELs for each chemical of the mixture, could trigger metabolic disturbances in the progeny of diet-induced obese mice in a sex-dependent way (Le Magueresse-Battistoni et al., 2018c). Importantly, male mice developed alterations in cholesterol metabolism whereas females exhibited altered glucose tolerance, probably linked to reduced estrogen signaling in the liver, all occurring without additional obesogenic effects (Naville et al., 2013). As a step further, the present study aims to evaluate the metabolic impact of two challenging stressors, *i.e.* the high-fat high-sucrose (HFHS) diet and the mixture of pollutants, independently and combined, focusing on males in a one-generation study. Consistently, we analyzed the liver and the intestine, specifically the jejunum, because

these two organs play pivotal roles in detoxification processes and in glucose and lipid metabolisms. In addition, the jejunum is a predominant organ for dietary fat and sugar absorption. Adipose tissues were also surveyed as they play a major role in the development of insulin resistance.

#### 2. Materials and Methods

2.1. Diet and animals

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Mouse studies were performed with the approval of the Regional Committee of Ethics for Animal Experiments. Thirty-two C57Bl/6J male mice were purchased from Envigo (Gannat, France) at the age of 4 weeks (wks) and were housed two per cage at 21°C with a normal light-dark cycle and free access to water. Cages and bottles of water were made of polypropylene to avoid BPA leaching from polycarbonate equipment. After 1 wkacclimatization, mice were divided into four groups depending on the diet: ST0 (standard diet from Genestil, Royaucourt, France; without the mixture of pollutants), STp (standard diet with the mixture of pollutants), HF0 (HFHS diet from Envigo, without the mixture of pollutants) and HFp (HFHS diet with the mixture of pollutants). Pollutants (TCDD from LGC-Promochem, Molsheim, France; PCB153, BPA and DEHP from Sigma-Aldrich, Lyon, France) were each used at doses in the range of their tolerable daily intake (TDI) reference dose and at least 10 times lower than their NoAEL dose (van Leeuwen et al., 2000; WHO, 2003; European Food Safety Authority Panel on Food Additives, 2005) (Supplementary Table 1). They were diluted in DMSO, solubilized in corn oil and mixed into the diet. All animals received the same amount of DMSO and corn oil. To make sure mice received the adequate quantity of pollutants, calculations for doses were made for 1 g of food for 17 g of body weight/day and extra food devoid of pollutants but containing vehicle was given ad libitum. Diet composition is detailed elsewhere (Labaronne et al., 2017). Mice were weighed weekly

and food changed three times a week. Exposure to pollutants lasted 15 wks after which animals were fasted for 6 h and weighed. Blood was collected and mice euthanized by cervical dislocation. The organs: liver, jejunum, perigonadal and inguinal subcutaneous adipose tissues (pgAT and scAT, respectively) were rapidly removed, weighed, frozen in liquid nitrogen and conserved at -80°C until experiments.

#### 2.2. Metabolic explorations

Metabolic tests were conducted on all animals with a one wk interval. After 12 wks of diet, mice were fasted for 16 h and received an intragastric bolus of lipids (250μl of Isio4<sup>TM</sup> oil, Lesieur). Blood samples were collected from the tail vein before gavage and at 1, 2, 3 and 4 h after gavage for triglyceride measurement. This test will reflect the intestinal fat clearance. After 13 wks of diet, mice were fasted 6 h and were orally administered a solution of 10% D-xylose (1mg of D-xylose/g of body weight). Blood samples were collected at 20, 40, 60 and 120 min after gavage for xylose measurement. This exploration of the intestinal uptake of ingested D-xylose will mirror a post-prandial sugar uptake. After 14 wks of diet, glucose tolerance test (GTT) was performed on 6 h fasted mice as previously described (Gout et al., 2010).

#### 179 2.3. Tissue and plasma dosages

Blood glucose concentrations were determined using the Accu-Chek Performa glucometer (Roche Diabetes Care France, Meylan). Insulin (Mouse ultrasensitive ELISA, Eurobio, Courtaboeuf, France), triglycerides (Biolabo, Maizy, France), free fatty acid, total cholesterol and cholesteryl esters, Alanine Aminotransferase and Aspartate aminotransferase activities (all kits from Sigma-Aldrich), leptin and adiponectin (ELISA kits from Crystal Chem Europe, Zaandam, Netherlands), were also assayed in plasma. Xylose plasma levels were determined as described elsewhere (Conarello et al., 2007). Triglycerides and total cholesterol were also

measured in liver samples after extraction of the lipids using lipid extraction kit chloroform free (Clinisciences, Nanterre, France).

#### 2.4. Real time PCR analyses

Total RNA was extracted from liver, jejunum and adipose tissue samples. After reverse transcription using the Prime Script RT Reagent kit (Takara Bio Europe SAS, Saint-Germainen-Laye, France), cDNAs were analyzed by real time PCR using the SYBR Premix Ex Taq TM (Takara) in the presence of specific primers specifically designed to encompass an intron (Supplementary Table 2) as previously described (Naville et al., 2011). Data were normalized using housekeeper genes which differ according to the tissues. They were chosen because consistently expressed in all groups in a particular tissue and they encode TATA-Box Binding Protein (*Tbp*) for scAT and pgAT, Beta-Glucuronidase (*Gusb*), for the liver, and Hypoxanthine Phosphoribosyltransferase (*Hprt*) for the jejunum.

### 2.5. Histological analyses

The two adipose tissue depots were fixed with 4 % formaldehyde solution during 24 h and then paraffin embedded. Serial sections of the paraffin-embedded blocks (4 µm thick) were obtained and immunolabeled using the rabbit anti-laminin antibody (1:100, Sigma, L9393) followed by by alexafluor secondary antibody (Invitrogen, Villebon-sur-Yvette, France; A11012). Measurement of adipocyte area was performed from the immunofluorescence acquisition using DP74 camera (Olympus, France). At least 150 adipocytes for each sample were considered. Image analyses were performed with ImageJ software.

#### 2.6. Statistical analysis

Results are presented as means ± SEM. Groups were compared using one-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni multiple comparison post-hoc test. Two-way ANOVA for non-

repeated measures was also used to determine the overall effects of the diet (Standard ST0/STp vs HFHS HF0/HFp), the mixture (non-exposure ST0/HF0 vs exposure STp/HFp) and their interaction (diet x mixture). When significant effects without interaction were obtained, differences were tested using Student's t-test between each pollutant-exposed group and corresponding non-exposed group. GraphPad Prism 5.0 software was used for all statistical analysis and differences were considered significant at P - values < 0.05.

#### 3. Results

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- 3. 1. Metabolic characterization of males fed the HFHS versus the ST diet, containing or not
- 218 the mixture of pollutants
- 219 Feeding 5-wk old male mice a HFHS diet for 15 wks resulted in a time-dependent increase of 220 body weight with first significant effects observed at 8 wks of age i.e. wk 3 of feeding (Supplementary Fig. 1A). At the end of the 15-wk HFHS feeding, strong significant diet-221 induced obesogenic effects were reported on body weight (+38%) and fat mass (+250% for 222 pgAT weight and +380% for scAT weight) (Fig. 1A and B). This was associated with 223 significant increases of hepatic and plasma triglycerides (TG), plasma cholesterol and blood 224 glucose levels (Fig. 1D, F and Supplementary Fig. 1D). An overall effect of the diet was also 225 noticed on plasma insulin level (Fig. 1D) resulting in a 4.5-fold significant enhancement of 226 227 the HOMA index of insulin resistance (HOMA-IR; Supplementary Fig. 1E). Moreover, the ratio of adiponectin to leptin, a marker of insulin resistance (Mirza et al., 2011; Lopez-228 Jaramillo et al., 2014), was strongly decreased in HFHS-fed mice (Fig.1E and Supplementary 229 230 Fig. 1F). These data are consistent with the metabolic tests performed on fasting animals showing a significant decrease in blood lipid clearance (increased Area Under Curve, AUC, 231 after oral lipid load) and increased glucose absorption (estimated using the xylose absorption 232

test) as well as glucose intolerance in HFHS diet-induced obese mice (Fig. 1C and Supplementary Fig. 1B and C).

Pollutant exposure did not result in body weight changes regardless of the nutritional context. Interestingly, slight but significant effects (P < 0.05) of the mixture of pollutants could be observed in STp-fed mice on several features including an increase of the intestinal fat clearance after oral lipid load, a significant reduction in plasma levels of TG with a tendency (P=0.05) to a reduction of plasma FFA levels and a significant increased ratio of adiponectin to leptin, all seemingly and unexpectedly converging to some alleviation of metabolic conditions (Fig. 1C, 1E, 1F and Supplementary Fig. 1F). On the opposite, mice exposed to the mixture of pollutants and fed a HFHS diet exhibited a significant enhancement of the weight of pgAT as compared to HF0 mice (Fig. 1B), in line with the observed trend (P=0.08) for enhanced leptin plasma levels (Supplementary Fig. 1F).

3. 2. Gene expression analysis of proteins involved in lipid metabolism in the liver

As an attempt to better comprehend the metabolic features, we first focused on liver, a central regulator of lipid metabolism and detoxification. Potential toxicity linked to pollutant exposure was first excluded through measuring plasma transaminases. Indeed, both AST and ALT levels were unchanged regardless of treatment (Supplementary Fig. 2). To understand bases for the alleviation of the lipid profile in pollutant-exposed STp mice compared with STO mice (Fig. 1C and 1F), measurement of the expression levels of genes involved in the uptake of circulating fatty acids, *de novo* lipogenesis, fatty acid breakdown, lipoprotein metabolism and lipolysis as well as cholesterol homeostasis was conducted in liver. Specifically, studied genes included *Cd36* encoding cluster of differentiation 36 and *Fabp1* encoding fatty acid binding protein 1 involved in the uptake of FA, the lipid sensor Nr1h3 encoding Liver X

SrebF1 encoding Sterol Regulatory Element-Binding Protein 1 receptor (LXR)α, 257 258 (SREBP1c), a master regulator of de novo lipogenesis, Scd1 and Acaca encoding stearoyl-CoA desaturase and acetyl-CoA carboxylase (ACC1), respectively. Lipid oxidation was 259 assessed measuring mRNA levels of Nr1c1 (encoding peroxisome proliferator-activated 260 receptor  $\alpha$ , PPAR $\alpha$ ), its target genes Cpt1a (encoding carnitine palmitoyltransferase  $1\alpha$ ) and 261 Vnn1 (encoding Vanin-1). Expression levels of Apoa5 encoding Apolipoprotein A-V (APOA-262 V) a lipoprotein lipase (LPL) activator and Apoc3, encoding an inhibitor of LPL (APO-C III) 263 were as well studied so were several key genes involved in cholesterol metabolism: Cyp7a1, 264 Hmgcr, Cyp51, Abcg5, Abcg8, Abca1 encoding Cytochrome P450 Family 7 Subfamily A 265 266 Member 1, 3-hydroxy-3-methyl-glutaryl-CoA reductase (HMGCoAR), P450 sterol 14a-267 demethylase and ATP-binding cassette (ABC) transporters, respectively. On this panel of genes, effects observed in the liver were essentially due to the HFHS diet 268 (comparison HF0 vs ST0) with significant increases of Cd36, SrebF1, Scd1 (Fig. 2A, C), 269 Nr1c1, Vnn1 (Fig. 2D) and Cyp7a1 (Fig.2E) expressions. As well, the fat-enriched diet 270 induced a decrease in the expression of *Apoa5* (Fig. 2B), *Hmgcr*, *Cyp51* (Fig. 2E) and *Abcg5*, 271 272 but not of Abcg8, Abca, Nr1h3 and Fabp1 (data not shown). It is interesting to note that some 273 alterations of gene expression induced by the fat-enriched diet were only observed in the presence of pollutants: decreased expression of Acaca and increased expression of Apoc3. As 274 well, pollutants in a standard diet context significantly-increased the mRNA expression of 275 Cyp7a1 (Fig. 2E). However, no effect of the pollutant mixture was observed on the other 276 investigated genes of the cholesterol field area including *Hmgcr*, *Cyp51* (Fig. 2E), *Nr1h3* as 277 well as *Abcg5*, *Abcg8* and *Abca1* (data not shown). 278 279 To discriminate between hepatic steatosis and steatohepatitis, a more severe liver disease than fatty liver characterized by a chronic inflammatory state with high levels of cytokines among 280 which IL6 and tumor necrosis factor (TNF)α (Tilg and Moschen, 2008; Chen et al., 2017), 281

expression levels of Il6 and  $Tnf\alpha$  were surveyed but no impact was observed regardless of treatments (Fig. 2F). Nonetheless, Ccl2 encoding the chemokine monocyte chemoattractant protein 1 (MCP1/CCL2) which levels could be increased from simple steatosis (Greco et al., 2008) were found significantly enhanced by the HFHS diet (Fig. 2F).

3. 3. Gene expression analysis of proteins involved in lipid absorption and metabolism in jejunum

In the present study, dietary fat and glucose absorption were shown impacted by the nutritional stressors tested e.g., HFHS diet and/or the pollutant mixture (Fig. 1 and Supplemental Fig. 1). Inasmuch as the jejunum is a predominant site for these functions, we analyzed the expression levels of jejunal genes involved in the absorption of fatty acids including *Got2* (encoding Plasma membrane Fatty Acid Binding Protein, FABPpm), *Cd36* and *Slc27a4* (encoding Fatty Acid Transport Protein 4, FATP4). Expression of genes involved in the cholesterol metabolism: *Npc1l1* gene (encoding Niemann Pick C1 Like-1, NPC1L1) and the lipoprotein biosynthesis: *Sar1b* (encoding Secreted associated Ras related GTPase 1B, SAR1B) and *Mttp* (encoding Microsomal Triglyceral Transfert Protein, MTP) were also investigated, together with the anti-inflammatory marker *Il10* encoding the interleukin IL10.

The HFHS diet (HF0 vs ST0) altered the expression of *Got2* and *Cd36* (increased expression, Fig. 3A) as well as *Npc1l1* (decreased expression, Fig. 3B). The pollutant mixture had no significant effect in a context of a standard diet but it has to be noted that *Slc27a4* and *Mttp* expressions were only significantly modified by the HFHS diet in a context of pollutant exposure (Fig. 3A and 3C).

The expression of genes encoding inhibitors of the lipoprotein lipase (LPL) enzyme responsible for blood chylomicron clearance: Angptl4 and Apoc3 encoding Angiopoietin-Like 4 (ANGPTL4) and Apolipoprotein-CIII (APO-CIII), respectively, were also studied. Feeding HFHS diet resulted in a significant enhancement of Apoc3 and Angptl4 mRNA levels both in the absence or presence of pollutants (Fig. 3D). Of note, exposure to pollutants resulted in a significant down-regulation of Apoc3 mRNA and a downward trend for Angptl4 (P = 0.09) in ST fed mice only (Fig. 3D). Interestingly pollutants induced a significant decrease in the Il10 expression at the mRNA level (Fig. 3E) in a context of standard diet and an inverse effect in the context of HFHS diet (Fig. 3E).

Eventually, we found that genes involved in intestinal glucose transport and sensing such as *Slc2a2* and *Slc5a1* (encoding the proteins Glucose Transporter 2, GLUT2 and sodium-dependent glucose cotransporter SGLT1, respectively) (Roder et al., 2014) were expressed at similar levels between groups (data not shown).

#### 3. 4. Gene expression analysis of proteins involved in adipocyte differentiation

As a next step, we analyzed genes related to adipogenesis including *Nr1c3* encoding peroxisome proliferator activated receptor (PPAR)γ, a master regulator of adipocyte differentiation; *Fabp4* encoding Fatty Acid Binding Protein (FABP4), and *Cidec* encoding Cell Death Inducing DFFA Like Effector C (CIDEC). Importantly, the two different ATs studied herein responded differently to nutritional stressors. While in scAT, *Fabp4* and *Cidec* mRNA levels were significantly enhanced in response to HFHS diet, they remained unchanged in pgAT (Fig. 4A and 5A). Conversely, *Nr1c3* mRNA levels remained unchanged in scAT from HF0 *vs* ST0 mice (Fig. 4A) but were significantly reduced in pgAT (Fig. 4A). These distinct features were also observed for genes involved in TG metabolism including *Pnpla2* encoding Adipose Triglyceride Lipase (ATGL); *Lipe* encoding Hormone-Sensitive

Lipase (HSL); and *Lpl* encoding Lipoprotein Lipase (LPL). While *Pnpla2* mRNA levels remained unchanged in scAT, they were strongly decreased after HF feeding in pgAT (Fig. 4B and 5B). On the contrary, an enhanced expression of *Lipe* and *Lpl* was induced by the

HFHS diet in scAT while no change was observed in pgAT (Fig. 4B and 5B).

Pollutants also targeted scAT differently than pgAT. There was a significantly enhanced expression of *Cidec* and *Lipe* and a trend to an enhanced expression of *Nr1c3*, *Fabp4* (*P*=0.07) and *Lpl* (*P*=0.06) in scAT from STp mice as compared to ST0 mice (Fig.4A and 4B) but no significant effect was observed in a context of HFHS diet. Conversely, the pollutant effects in pgAT were observed in a context of HFHS diet with a significant decrease of *Nr1c3* mRNA levels in HFp versus HF0 samples (Fig. 5A).

To complete the study, histological analyses were performed on both subcutaneous and perigonadal ATs. Consistent with enhanced fat pads and body weight (Fig. 1), adipocytes were of larger size in response to the HFHS diet. However, there was no major difference in the mean diameter of adipocytes of both fat pads in response to exposure to the mixture of pollutants (Supplementary Fig. 3).

3. 5. Gene expression analysis of inflammatory markers in adipocyte tissues

It is well described that AT inflammation conveys insulin-resistance (Ouchi et al., 2011). Pollutants have also been described as pro-inflammatory in certain conditions (Rebourcet et al., 2010; Kim et al., 2012; Magre et al., 2012; La Merrill et al., 2013). We therefore examined the expression levels of genes including  $Tnf\alpha$ , Il-1b and Ccl2 encoding major pro-inflammatory markers TNF $\alpha$ , interleukin 1 (IL1)  $\beta$ , and MCP1, respectively, as well as Il10 encoding an anti-inflammatory cytokine, interleukin 10. Apart from Il10 which expression levels did not change in response to HFHS diet alone (Fig. 4C and 5C), most pro-

inflammatory cytokines had their expression significantly enhanced in both AT samples from HFHS-fed mice consistent with the phenotype of insulin resistance evidenced in this HF0 group as compared to ST0 group.  $Il-1\beta$  expression was the exception with a down-regulation of its mRNA levels in pgAT samples of HFHS-fed mice (Fig. 5C).

Interestingly, as well as for adipogenesis and lipolysis markers, pollutants had differential impact depending on AT depots. In a standard diet context, the global impact was anti-inflammatory in scAT samples with significant enhancement of *Il10* mRNA expression (Fig. 4C) and no impact on pro-inflammatory cytokines (Fig 4C). In HFHS-fed mice, the inflammatory state based on the investigated studies remained unchanged by pollutant exposure in scAT (Fig 5C). Conversely, pollutants tended to reduce the pro-inflammatory state in pgAT, although *Il10* expression remained unchanged, with a significant and strong down-regulation of *Il1b* mRNA levels in response to pollutant exposure in ST-fed mice. Contrary to the observed decrease in *Il1b* expression after exposure to HFHS diet in the absence of pollutant, the exposure to the mixture in this HFHS context induced an increased expression of this gene (Fig. 5C).

### 3.6. Gene expression analysis of xenobiotic receptors

One way pollutants trigger metabolic disruption is through their direct interaction with xenobiotic receptors and downstream activation of xenobiotic processing genes, among which cytochromes P450 (CYPs) (Aleksunes and Klaassen, 2012). Therefore, a gene expression analysis of the xenobiotic receptors was undertaken. The expression of Ahr encoding the dioxin receptor AHR, could be detected in all investigated tissues consistent with its ubiquitous expression (Barouki et al., 2012a). A HFHS effect on *Ahr* expression was observed in jejunum, liver and scAT but not in pgAT with a significant down-regulation of the Ahr mRNA levels (Fig. 6A). The AHR target gene *Cyp1a2* was also reduced at the mRNA levels in liver (Fig. 6A) but could not be quantifiable in the jejunum and adipose tissues (not

shown). Expression of Nr1i2 encoding Pregnane X Receptor (PXR) and Nr1i3 encoding Constitutive Androstane Receptor (CAR) was detected in jejunum and liver (Fig. 6B-C) but not in ATs (not shown). Neither Nr1i2 nor Nr1i3 had their expression levels modified by nutritional stressors in liver. In contrast, the expression of Nr1i2 was significantly decreased in the jejunum samples from HFHS-fed mice while Nr1i3 expression tended to increase (P=0.06) as compared to ST0-fed mice (Fig. 6C). Interestingly, a trend (P = 0.06) for enhanced expression of Nr1i3 was also detected in the jejunum of STp as compared to ST0 mice, which is consistent with the significant augmentation of the expression of Cyp3a11, a PXR target gene (Fu et al., 2016). In contrast, the HFHS diet induced a significant and robust decrease of the expression levels of Cyp3a11 in jejunum and liver (Fig. 6B-C). Results in liver are consistent with previous reports (Fromenty, 2013) although discrepancies still exist regarding the regulation of Cyp3a11 expression in the liver of high-fat fed mice (Ning and Jeong, 2017). Intriguingly, expression levels of Cyp2b10, a CAR target gene (Aleksunes and Klaassen, 2012), was significantly down-regulated in jejunum and up-regulated in liver from HFHS-fed mice. Noteworthy, a significant down-regulation of the expression of Cyp2b10 was observed in STp versus ST0 liver samples (Fig. 6B-C). No alteration of the expression of *Ugt1a1*, also a CAR target gene, was noted between groups in jejunum and liver (data not shown).

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3. 7. Gene expression analysis of estrogen and androgen receptors

To complete the study, we surveyed receptors for estrogen and androgen because steroid hormones regulate energy metabolism (Mauvais-Jarvis, 2011) and that the pollutants of the mixture have been endowed with estrogeno-mimetic activities by interacting either with steroid signaling or its signaling machinery (Casals-Casas and Desvergne, 2011; Thayer et al., 2012). ER $\alpha$ , encoded by the gene *Esr1*, is the main receptor in rodent liver (Gao et al., 2008).

The liver is also expressing the Androgen Receptor (AR, encoded by Nr3c4) (Lin et al., 2008). While the expression of Esr1 and Nr3c4 was detected in the liver, these genes were not found expressed in the jejunum (data not shown) contrary to Gper1 encoding the G Protein-Coupled Estrogen Receptor 30 (GPR30), a membrane estrogen receptor (Sharma et al., 2018). These 3 genes were expressed in both scAT and pgAT (Fig. 7C and 7D). In response to the HFHS diet, expression levels of Nr3c4 were significantly reduced in ATs but augmented in liver. Esr1 expression levels were also altered by the HFHS diet in liver and ATs, but only under pollutant exposure, with a significant increase in liver (Fig. 7A) and a significant decrease in ATs (Figure 7C and 7D). Strongest effects were observed on Gper1 mRNA levels in ATs with 2.2 and 1.6-fold increases in scAT and pgAT, respectively, while there was a significant decrease of 20% in jejunum (Fig. 7B-D). Pollutant exposure in a standard diet context resulted in a 1.5-fold increase of Esr1 mRNA levels (P < 0.01) in scAT but not in pgAT or liver (Fig. 7). In jejunum, pollutants also induced a downward trend (P=0.07) in Gper1 expression, only in HFHS-fed mice (Fig. 7B). Importantly, the ratio Esr1/Nr3c4 was significantly up-regulated by pollutant exposure in the scAT of ST-fed mice but remained unchanged in pgAT samples. A significant increase was induced by the HFHS diet in scAT (Fig. 7C). In the liver, this ratio was significantly reduced in response to the HFHS diet (HF0 vs ST0) and a tendency to decrease (P=0.05) was observed under pollutant exposure in a standard diet context (Fig. 7A).

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#### **Discussion**

The results of the present study indicate that exposure to a mixture of low-dose pollutants for 15 weeks triggers metabolic effects in male mice challenged from 5 wks onwards in the absence of general toxicity and that the resulting effects depended on the nutritional status,

i.e., ST or HFHS diet, thus extending previous data of the laboratory (Naville et al., 2013; Naville et al., 2015; Labaronne et al., 2017). In addition, this study indicates, in an original way, that low-dosed pollutant cocktail exposure elicited tissue-specific responses at least at the gene expression mRNA level. Specifically, we herein demonstrated that jejunum and adipose tissues were major targets of xenobiotics in this one-generation experimental study and that scAT responded differently to the pollutant mixture than pgAT.

The protocol used herein was adapted from the previously described model (Naville et al., 2013; Naville et al., 2015; Labaronne et al., 2017) in that mice were either fed a standard or a

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HFHS diet containing the mixture of pollutants with treatments starting from the age of 5 weeks for a total duration of 15 weeks. As reviewed (Le Magueresse-Battistoni et al., 2017), pollutants comprising the used mixture were selected to approach a realistic scenario with both persistent and non-persistent chemicals, all bearing endocrine-disrupting activities and all of high concern for human health for their suspected links with metabolic diseases (Alonso-Magdalena et al., 2011; Casals-Casas and Desvergne, 2011; Gore et al., 2015). Thus, this one-generation study allowed investigating in males (females were not explored in this report) the metabolic impact of the pollutant mixture in a standard and in a HFHS diet context to better understand the individual and combined contribution of both threats to the nowadays epidemics of metabolic diseases. In addition to a thorough metabolic exploration of male mice fed the high-fat high-sucrose diet, we investigated the regulation of target gene expression in the liver, adipose tissues, and the jejunum. Both liver and jejunum play major detoxifying role and express the repertoire of xenobiotic processing genes including xenobiotic receptors and related transcription factors as well as phase I and II metabolizing enzymes and transporters (Fu et al., 2016). In addition, the small intestine is the first organ directly in contact with the dietary nutrients and the contaminating chemicals.

Within this study, HFHS diet recapitulated metabolic disorders linked to obesity and insulin resistance including dyslipidemia, hyperglycemia, elevated plasma levels of insulin and leptin. Interestingly, the metabolic impact was found more deleterious herein than in the twogeneration study with regards to insulin resistance (Homa-IR) and leptin levels (Naville et al., 2013). There was also impaired lipid homeostasis as evidenced through the oral lipid load test and the findings of enhanced expression of several genes encoding proteins involved in lipid transport and/or lipoprotein synthesis in the jejunum, in fat uptake and lipogenesis favoring steatosis in the liver. In addition, fat mass was largely increased with an overall inflammatory profile in both ATs (apart from a decreased Illb expression in pgAT) and augmented adipogenesis in scAT. Curiously, jejunum has so far not been extensively investigated in response to HFHS diet and several features, indicative of alterations in jejunum homeostasis, could be originally described in the present study. The antiinflammatory cytokine Il10 gene expression was severely down-regulated concurrently with the decreased expression of genes encoding the estrogen receptor Gper, the xenobiotic receptors Ahr and Nr1i2 as well as processing genes Cyp3a11 and Cyp2b10. Additional work would help to resolve why Nr1i2 and Nr1i3 mRNA levels did not change the same way in liver and jejunum in response to HFHS diet along with their target genes, Cyp3a11 and Cyp2b10. Namely, CYP3A11 is an important phase I enzyme which catalyzes detoxification of a wide range of substrates thus, in the long run, an inhibition of this enzyme, as observed in both jejunum and liver, would be harmful consistent with reduced metabolization of pharmacological drugs in obese patients (Fromenty, 2013). Whether increased Cyp2b10 mRNA levels will compensate for the decreased Cyp3a11 expression in liver warrants further study.

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Interestingly, mice fed the HFHS diet in this experimental study retained some metabolic adaptability as exemplified with the mild hepatic phenotype (accumulation of TG with limited

inflammation) and unchanged FFA levels restricting lipotoxicity. The upregulation of genes encoding inhibitors of lipoprotein activity in liver and jejunum and the down-regulation of a LPL activator in liver may have also contributed to this phenotype. In addition, gene expression studies suggested restrained hypercholesterolemia through a reduced expression of Npc111 which encoding protein transports cholesterol in jejunum and of genes encoding protein involved in liver cholesterol synthesis (Hmgcr, Cyp51) coupled to its enhanced metabolization (Cyp7a1) in biliary acids. Importantly, AT depots responded differently to the HFHS diet with regards to inflammation, adipocyte differentiation, Ahr expression as well as estrogen and androgen receptors. Because it is known that estrogens favor subcutaneous over visceral fat (Mauvais-Jarvis, 2011), it would be of interest to determine if the relative limitation of the metabolic disorders observed in male mice fed the HFHS diet, particularly concerning the fasting plasma glucose, could not be linked to the enhanced ratio of Esr1/Nr3c4 found in the scAT. Analysis of the metabolic impact of a chronic exposure to the mixture of pollutants revealed that effects were more marked in ST than in HFHS-fed mice. A major difference with the HFHS threat consisted in the lack of any effect of pollutants on body weight which is consistent with our previous data using the same mixture of pollutants (Naville et al., 2013; Naville et al., 2015; Labaronne et al., 2017). In addition and contrasting with previous published data using the chemicals present in the mixture but tested individually and at higher doses (Wahlang et al., 2013; Wei et al., 2014; Duval et al., 2017; Heindel et al., 2017), the pollutant cocktail did not trigger hepatic TG accumulation nor was the HFHS-induced TG accumulation exacerbated in the pollutant-exposed mice. Discrepancies may be due to a different diet composition, differences in the experimental chemical doses, the strain species and the period of exposure to the pollutants which excluded in the present study the highly

vulnerable maternal period (Barouki et al., 2012b). However, one remarkable effect was the

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alteration of the post-prandial plasma TG (in response to an oral lipid load) in ST-fed pollutant-exposed males while glucose absorption was not affected. Post-prandial TG levels result from intestinal TG secretion and clearance which depend on expression levels of several binding proteins and apolipoproteins (Drover et al., 2005; Petit et al., 2007). Interestingly, the significant increase of blood TG clearance in STp vs ST0 mice is consistent with the decrease in the 6h-fasting plasma TG. In addition, the concomitant decrease in *Apoc3* gene expression in the jejunum might suggest a higher efficiency of TG clearance by LPL (Petit et al., 2007). The reduced plasma TG levels associated with the trend to decreased FFA levels induced by the pollutants in a ST context were also indicative of changes in lipid metabolism.

Regarding gene expression analysis of xenobiotic receptors, a trend for an elevation of *Nr1i3* expression and a significant enhancement in *Cyp3a11* mRNA levels were shown in jejunum of STp vs ST0 mice, but not in liver, again documenting that jejunum is highly responsive to its environment. The meaning of the significant decrease of *Cyp2b10* expression in liver, an enzyme which regulation is dependent on estrogens (Yamada et al., 2002) could be linked to estrogen signaling impairment in response to pollutant exposure. Moreover, metabolic tissues express estrogen and/or androgen receptors and there was a significant increase of the ratio of *Esr1* to *Nr3c4 mRNA* levels in scAT from STp *vs* ST0 mice, and a trend to a decrease of this same ratio in liver, all indicative of changes in the estrogen signaling in these tissues. Additionally, it is possible that the enhanced ratio of adiponectin to leptin that we observed in the STp male mice and which suggests a better insulin sensitivity was linked to the estrogen signaling changes in adipose tissues as adiponectin and leptin are synthesized by these tissues.

There were other features in addition to the effect of pollutants on plasma TG and on the ratio of adiponectin to leptin which were the opposite of the effect induced by the HFHS diet, such

as the findings of reduced levels of *Il-1β* mRNA levels in pgAT, *Apoc3* in jejunum, *Cyp2b10* in liver as well as enhanced *Il10* expression in scAT and of *Cyp3a11* in jejunum, all from STp *vs* ST0 mice. However, not all of the pollutant effects were opposite to those observed in response to the HFHS diet. Interestingly, we observed effects mimicking HFHS-induced metabolic disorders in the scAT. For example, there were enhanced expressions of genes encoding markers of lipolysis and adipogenesis suggesting higher differentiation of subcutaneous adipocytes. Collectively, and in line with a recently proposed hypothesis of an estrogeno-mimetic effect of the pollutant mixture (Julien et al., 2018), our data could suggest that the pollutant-induced changes of estrogen signaling may favor subcutaneous over visceral fat as described in males fed the HFHS diet (this study) or injected with estradiol E2 (Clegg et al., 2006), resulting in the "feminization" of the fat deposition. Whether, such "feminization" will explain all of the changes described in STp fed mice will warrant further studies.

Another finding of the present study is that, according to the diet, the effects of the pollutants were either to alleviate or to aggravate metabolic features. Indeed, exposure of HFHS-fed mice to the pollutant mixture could aggravate some of the effects of the HFHS alone such as the increased weight of the pgAT depot and the slight but not significant enhancement of plasma leptin levels. There were also significant spotted impacts on gene expression in jejunum and pgAT. Specifically, the increased (*Mttp*) or decreased (*Gper1* and *Slc27a4*) expressions in jejunum were only observed in HFHS-fed pollutant exposed mice not in absence of pollutant. As well, pollutants induced a strong significant increase of Il10 expression in jejunum in the HFHS context (the reverse effect being observed in ST-fed pollutant exposed mice). In this HFHS context, pollutants were capable to decrease *Nr1c3* and increase *Il1b* expression in pgAT only, thus amplifying the impact of the HFHS diet.

These data obtained from post-weaning studies induced metabolic changes somehow different from the previous two-generation study in which male adult offspring showed reduced hepatic cholesterol levels and alteration of cholesterol metabolism in response to the HFHS dietcontaining pollutants. If comparing the one- (this study) and two-generation (Naville et al., 2013) studies on the various endpoints monitored, cholesterol metabolism does not appear to be a major pollutant target in the present study apart from Cyp7a1 enhancement. Discrepancies do not seem to rely to the difference in pollutant dosage between the two experimental protocols. Because we previously demonstrated that the low-dose pollutant mixture could trigger metabolic disturbances leading to common and specific features as compared to a HFHS diet (Labaronne et al., 2017), it may be considered that some effects of the pollutants could be masked by the more pronounced effect of the HFHS diet in this study regarding body weight and markers of insulin resistance (HOMA-IR, leptin levels) than in the two-generation study (Naville et al., 2013). Thus, a more likely explanation for differences in metabolic outcome in HFHS-fed pollutant exposed mice could be in line with the Developmental Origin of Health and Disease (DOHaD) concept (Barker et al., 2002; Suzuki, 2018). This concept proposes that part of adult diseases finds their origins during fetal life which is a highly vulnerable period of time specifically with regards to pollutant exposure (Barker et al., 2002; Barouki et al., 2012b; Le Magueresse-Battistoni et al., 2016). In conclusion, the present study underlines that the threat posed by a Western-style diet relates to the fat and sugar content but that pollutants which contaminate food are also part of the equation. In addition to evidences for metabolic deleterious effects of the HFHS diet in line with obesity associated metabolic features and insulin resistance, we demonstrated, at

least at the mRNA expression level that metabolic tissues responded in a tissue-specific way

to the cocktail of pollutants and that the greatest metabolic impact of pollutants was evidenced

in standard nutritional conditions in this one-generation study. Importantly, jejunum was

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highly sensitive with regards to xenobiotic receptors and lipolysis and AT depots responded differently to both nutritional stressors. Moreover, the impact of pollutants was found to mimic or oppose the HFHS effects in a manner depending on nutritional conditions and on the metabolic tissue considered. Collectively and although pollutants in the mixture have not been tested individually, we here reinforce previous observations (Le Magueresse-Battistoni et al., 2017) that the resulting effect of a mixture of low dosed pollutants cannot be derived from the expected effect of one chemical at a time based on its dosage and this is raising important implications in terms of recommendations for food market security.

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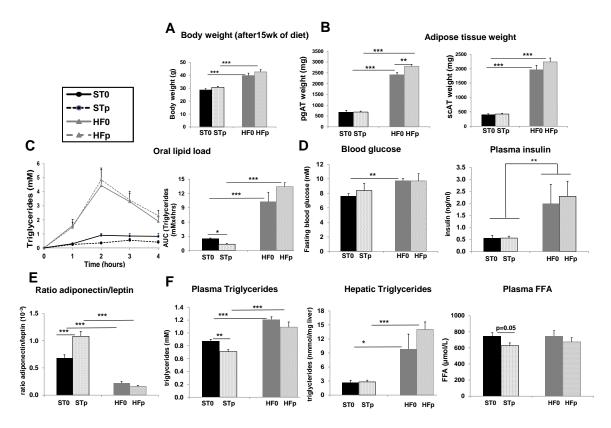
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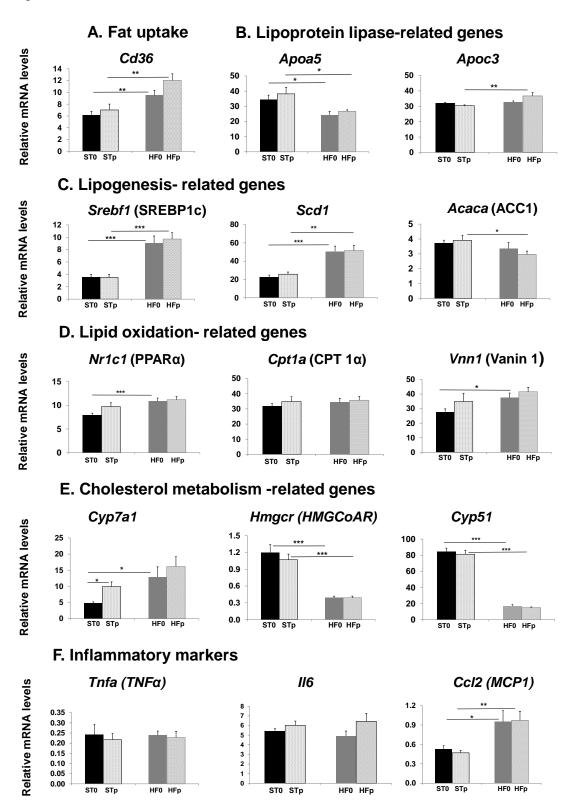
#### 776 Figure legends

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- 779 **Figure 1**: (A) Body weight measured at the end of the protocol (after 6 h of fasting). (B)
- Weight of perigonadal and subcutaneous adipose tissues (pgAT and scAT) at the end of the
- protocol. (C) Tests performed after 12 wks of diet (Oral lipid load expressed as differences of
- 782 triglyceride levels from time 0 and corresponding AUC) (**D-F**) Biochemical parameters:
- 783 Blood glucose and plasma insulin (**D**); adponectin/leptin ratio (**E**); plasma and hepatic
- 784 Triglycerides; plasma Free Fatty Acids (FFA) (F). Values are means  $\pm$  SEM with n=8.
- 785 \*\*\*P<0.001; \*\* P<0.01; \*P<0.05
- 786 Figure 2: Effect of the HFHS diet and the mixture of pollutants on the hepatic expression of
- genes related to Fat uptake (A), Lipoprotein lipase (B), lipogenesis (C), lipid oxidation (D),
- cholesterol homeostasis (E) and inflammation (F). Values are means  $\pm$  SEM with n=8.
- 789 \*\*\*P<0.001; \*\* P<0.01; \*P<0.05
- 790 Figure 3: Effect of the HFHS diet and the mixture of pollutants on the jejunum expression of
- 791 genes related to Fatty Acid absorption (A), cholesterol metabolism (B), lipoprotein
- biosynthesis (C), and encoding LPL inhibitors (D) or inflammatory markers (E). Values are
- 793 means  $\pm$  SEM with n=8. \*\*\*P<0.001; \*\* P<0.01; \*P<0.05
- 794 Figure 4: Effect of the HFHS diet and the mixture of pollutants on the scAT expression of
- 795 genes related to adipocyte differentiation (A), triglyceride metabolism (B) or encoding
- inflammatory markers (C). Values are means  $\pm$  SEM with n=8. \*\*\*P<0.001; \*\* P<0.01;
- 797 \*P<0.05
- 798 Figure 5: Effect of the HFHS diet and the mixture of pollutants on the pgAT expression of
- 799 genes related to adipocyte differentiation (A), triglyceride metabolism (B) or encoding

inflammatory markers (C). Values are means ± SEM with n=8. \*\*\*P<0.001; \*\* P<0.01; 800 \*P<0.05 801 802 Figure 6: Effect of the HFHS diet and the mixture of pollutants on the expression of genes encoding xenobiotic receptors. Ahr and Cyp1a2 mRNA expression in liver; Ahr mRNA 803 expression in jejunum, scAT and pgAT (A). Nr1i2 and Nr1i3 mRNA expression and their 804 805 respective target gene en liver (B) and jejunum (C). Values are means  $\pm$  SEM with n=8. 806 \*\*\*P<0.001; \*P<0.05 Figure 7: Effect of the HFHS diet and the mixture of pollutants on the expression of genes 807 encoding estrogen and androgen receptors in liver (A), jejunum (B), scAT (C) and pg AT (D). 808 809 Values are means ± SEM with n=8. \*\*\*P<0.001; \*\* P<0.01; \*P<0.05 810 811





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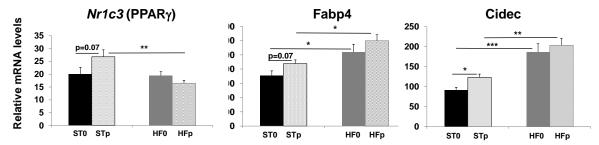
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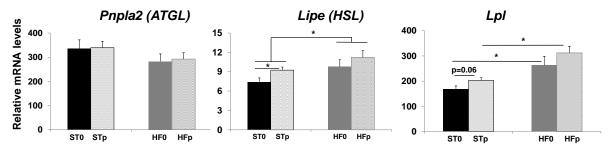
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#### A. Fatty acid absorption Got2 (FABPpm) SIc27a4 (FATP4) Cd36 Relative mRNA levels 0.5 6 5 0.4 6 4 0.3 4 3 0.2 2 2 0.1 1 0.0 ST0 STp ST0 STp HF0 HFp ST0 STp HFp HF0 HFp B. Cholesterol metabolism C. Lipoprotein biosynthesis Npc1I1 Sar1b Mttp Relative mRNA levels 1.0 10 10 0.8 8 8 0.6 6 6 0.4 4 2 0.2 2 0.0 STO STp ST0 STp D. Genes encoding LPL inhibitors E. Inflammatory markers II10 Angptl4 Apoc3 Relative mRNA levels 21 \*\*\* 8 10 18 8 15 6 12 6 4 p=0.09 9 4 6 2 2 3 0 0 STO STp HF0 HFp STO STp HF0 HFp STO STp HF0 HFp

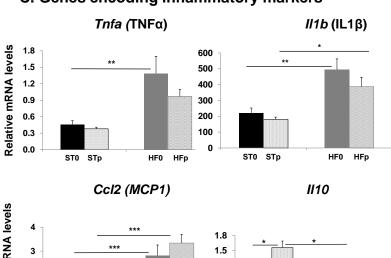
### A. Adipocyte differentiation-related genes

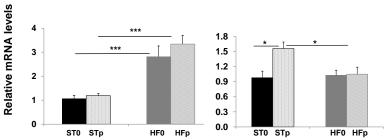


### B. Triglyceride metabolism -related genes

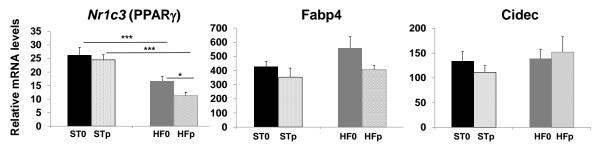


### C. Genes encoding inflammatory markers

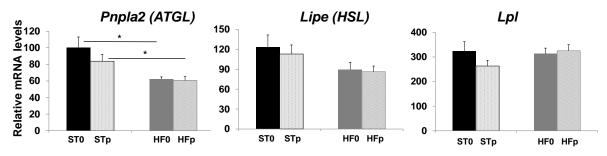




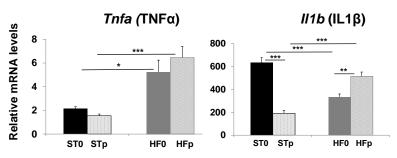
## A. Adipocyte differentiation-related genes

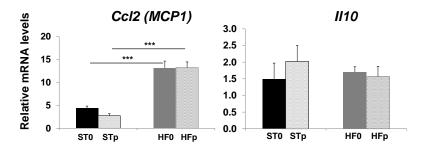


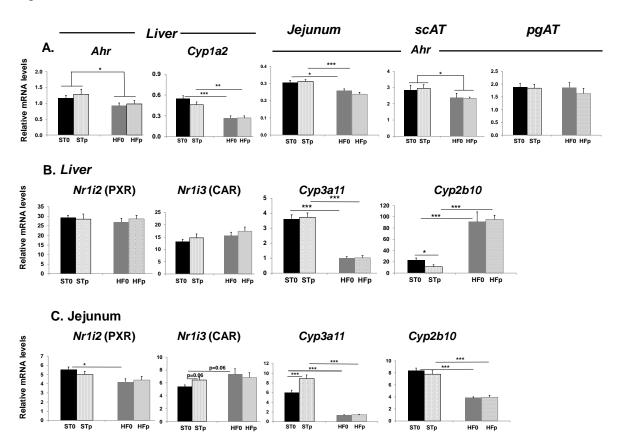
### B. Triglyceride metabolism -related genes

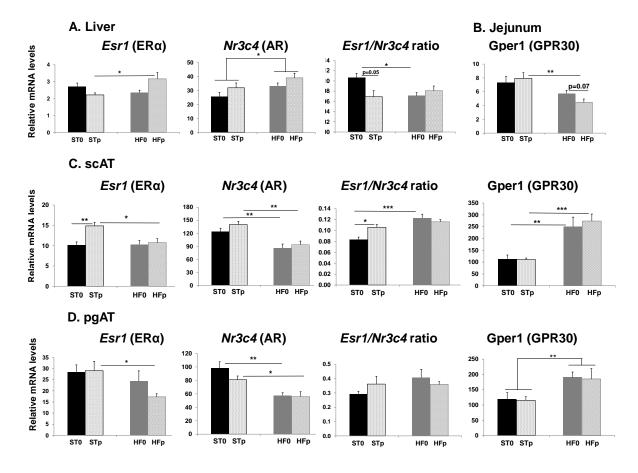


### C. Genes encoding inflammatory markers









# **Supplementary Tables**

## Supplementary Table 1: References doses of the pollutants present in the

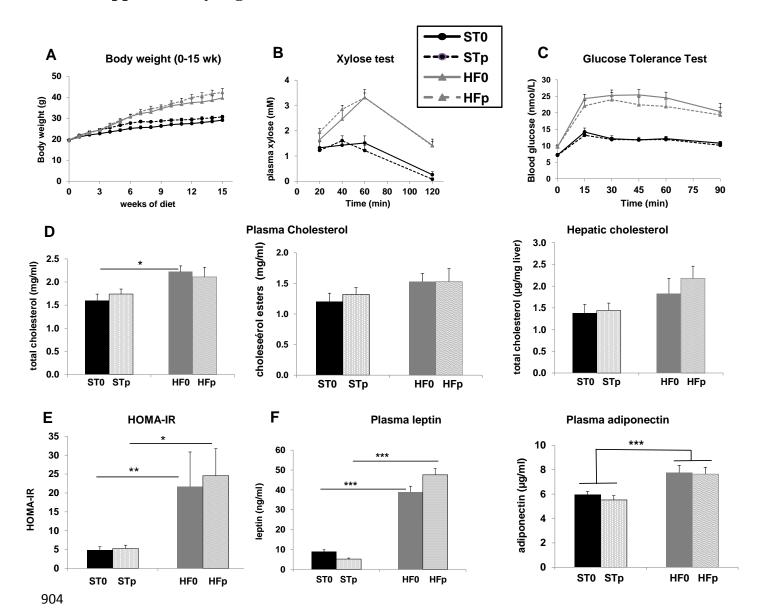
mixture and doses used in the diets (all per kg and per day).

Pollutants in the mixture	PCB153	ВРА	TCDD	881 DEHP 882
NOAEL	40µg	5mg	2 ng	5m <b>g</b> 83
TDI	20ng	4µg	1-4pg	50µg4
doses used	200ng	40µg	20pg	500µg_

# **Supplementary Table 2**: List of the primers used in RT-qPCR

		sequences: 5'->3' 887		
gene	reference	sense	antisense	
Abca1	NM_013454	CAG-GAG-GTG-ATG-TTT-CTG-ACC-A	TTG-GCT-GTT-CTC-CAT-GAA-GGT-C	
Abcg5	NM_031884	AGC-CTC-GCT-CTG-AGC-TCT-TC	TTC-AGG-ACA-GGG-GTA-ACC-AC 888	
Abcg8	NM_026180;NM_001286005	AGC-CTC-GCT-CTG-ACA-TCT-TC	GTC-AAG-TCC-ACG-TAG-AAG-TC	
Acaca	NM_022193	GAG-CAA-GGG-ATA-AGT-TTG-AG	AGG-TGC-ATC-TTG-TGA-TTA-GC	
Ahr	NM_013464.4	TCA-TCT-GGT-TTC-CTG-GCA-ATG-AAT	ATA-AGC-TGC-CCT-TTG-GCA-TC	
Angptl4	NM_020581	GA-CCT-TAA-CTG-TGC-CAA-GAG	AAG-TCA-CTG-TCT-TCT-TAG-GC	
Apoa5	NM_080434	AGA-GCC-TCT-GGG-ACT-ACT-TC	GTC-CCA-GCT-TTT-CTA-GGT-AA	
Apoc3	NM_001289755;NM_001289756;NM_023114;NM_001289833	GCT-AAG-TAG-CGT-GCA-GGA-GT	TCC-TCA-GGG-TTA-GAA-TCC-CA	
Ccl2	NM_011333	TGG-AGC-ATC-CAC-GTG-TTG-GC	ACT-ACA-GCT-TCT-TTG-GGA-CA	
Cd36	NM_001159558.1	AAG-ATC-CAA-AAC-TGT-CTG-TA	GTC-CTG-GCT-GTG-TTT-GGA-GGOO1	
Cidec	NM_178373;NM_001301295	TGG-CAC-AAT-CGT-GGA-GAC-AG	GTC-CTG-GCT-GTG-TTT-GGA-GG-891	
Cpt1a	NM_001876;NM_001031847	TAC-AAC-AGG-TGG-TTT-GAC-A	GGC-TGT-CAA-TGG-ACA-TGA-CG	
Cyp1a2	NM_009993	TCA-TCC-TGG-AGA-TCT-ACC-GA	TGA-CCT-GCC-ACT-GGT-TTA-TG 892	
Cyp51	NM_020010	AGT-GCC-TGG-ATG-GGC-TTC-TT	GGA-GGC-CTC-AGT-CTT-AGT-GT	
Cyp3a11	NM_007818	ACG-CCT-CTC-CTT-GCT-GTC-ACC	TTG-CCT-TCT-GCC-TCA-AGT-AC	
Cyp7a1	NM_007824.2	TAC-AGA-GTG-CTG-GCC-AAG-AG	AGT-GAA-GTC-CTC-CTT-AGC-TG 203	
Cyp2b10	NM_009999	TTC-TGC-CCT-TCT-CAA-CAG-GA	CCT-TAG-GAG-CAA-CAT-GGC-TT	
Esr1	NM_000125;NM_001122740;NM_001122741;NM_001122742	TGT-TTG-CTC-CTA-ACT-TGC-TC	CCT-TCT-CTT-CCA-GAG-ACT-TC	
Fabp1	NM_017399	TGC-GAA-CTG-GAG-ACC-ATG-AC	CCA-ATG-TCA-TGG-TAT-TGG-TG 894	
Fabp4	NM_024406	CAG-AAG-TGG-GAT-GGA-AAG-TCG	CGA-CTG-ACT-ATT-GTA-GTG-TTT-GA	
Got2	NM_010325	ATG-GTG-AAG-GAT-GCC-TGG	TTC-ATC-CGC-ATC-TTT-GCA-GAC-C	
Gper1	NM_029771	AGC-TGA-TCA-GAT-CTA-GGG-AG	GTC-CTG-GGA-GCC-TGT-TAG-TC 895	
Gusb	NM_010368	CTT-CAT-GAC-GAA-CCA-GTC-AC	GCA-ATC-CTC-CAG-TAT-CTC-TC	
Hmgcr	NM_008255	CCG-GCC-TGT-GTG-TCG-CTG-GT	CCA-GCG-ACT-ATG-AGC-GTG-AA	
Hprt	NM_013556	TTG-CTG-ACC-TGC-TGG-ATT-AC	AGT-TGAG-AGA-TCA-TCT-CCA-C 896	
II1b	NM_008361	ACT-GTT-CCT-GAA-CTC-AAC-TG	CTT-GTT-GAT-GTG-CTG-CG	
116	NM_031168	AGT-TGC-CTT-CTT-GGG-ACT-GAT	TCC-ACG-ATT-TCC-CAG-AGA-AC	
II10	NM_010548	CAG-GGC-CCT-TTG-CTA-TGG-TG	cgg-ctg-ggg-gat-gac-agt-ag897	
Lipe	NM_001039507,NM_010719	GTG-TGT-CAG-TGC-CTA-TTC-AG	GTC-AGC-TTC-TTC-AAG-GTA-TC	
Lpl	NM_008509	GGT-CGA-AGC-ATT-GGA-ATC-CAG	TAG-GGC-ATC-TGA-GAA-CGA-GTC	
Mttp	NM_008642,NM_001163457	GGA-GAA-GTA-ACC-TGA-ACA-TC	ACA-GGT-CTG-AGC-TGA-ACA-TC 898	
Npc1I1	NM_207242	GCT-AGC-AGC-CAA-CAT-CAC-AG	CAG-TAG-GAG-GTA-GCA-GAC-CA	
Nr1c1	NM_011144; NM_001113418.1	AAG-GGC-TTC-TTT-CGG-CGA-AC	GTT-CAT-GTT-GAA-GTT-CTT-CAG	
Nr1c3	NM_001127330,NM_011146	TCT-CTC-CGT-AAT-GGA-AGA-CC	GCA-TTA-TGA-GAC-ATC-CCC-AC 899	
Nr3c4	NM_013476.3	AGA-AGA-CCT-GCC-TGA-TCT-G	GCT-GGC-ACA-TAG-ATA-CTT-CTG	
Nr1h3	NM_013839	CCG-GGA-AGA-CTT-TGC-CAA-AGC	GGA-GCT-GGT-CCT-GCA-CGT-TG	
Nr1i2	NM_010936.3	AGG-AGG-AGT-ATG-TGC-TGA-TG	ctt-cag-gaa-cag-gaa-cct-gtg900	
Nr1i3	NM_001243063;NM_001243062;NM_009803	GTC-CCA-TCT-GTC-CGT-TTG-C	AGG-GCT-TCT-GAC-AGT-ATC	
Pnpla2	NM_025802,NM_001163689	TCA-TC-CAG-GCC-AAT-CTC-TGC	TGG-ATG-TTG-GTG-GAG-CTG-TC	
Sar1b	NM_025535	ATT-GCT-GGC-ATG-ACG-TTT-AC	TGC-CAT-TGA-TAG-CAG-GAA-GG 901	
Scd1	NM_009127	GAT-ACA-CTC-TGG-TGC-TCA-AC	AAC-GTG-GTG-AAG-TTG-ATG-TG	
Slc2a2	NM_031197	TGG-GTA-CTC-TTC-ACC-AAC-TG	AGG-ATG-TGC-CAA-TGA-TCC-TG 902	
Slc5a1	NM_019810	GCT-CCT-TGA-CCT-CCA-TCT-TC	CAG-GCA-ATG-CTG-ATG-CCA-AT	
Slc27a4	NM_011989	GAC-ACC-TCA-AAG-GCA-CGA-GC	GAG-GG-TCC-AGA-TGC-TCT-GTG	
Srebf1	NM_011480	ACG-GAG-CCA-TGG-ATT-GCA-CA	AAG-GGT-GCA-GGT-GTC-ACC-TT	
Tnfa	NM_013693	CCA-GAC-CCT-CAC-ACT-CAG-ATC	CAC-TTG-GTG-GTT-TGC-TAC-GAC	
Tbp	NM_013684	TGG-TGT-GCA-CAG-GAG-CCA-AG	TTC-ACA-TCA-CAG-CTC-CCC-AC	
Ugt1a1	NM_201645	GCA-TCT-ATC-TGG-CTG-ATG-AG	CAG-AGG-CGT-TGA-CAT-AGG	
Vnn1	NM_ 011704	CTG-AAG-TGT-TGC-TGA-GTG-AG	GAT-GCC-CAG-TCC-TTC-CCA-TA	

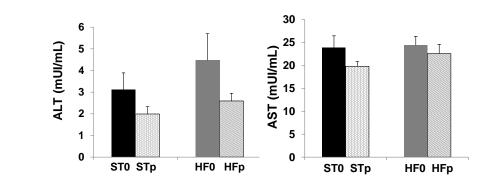
### 903 Supplementary Figures



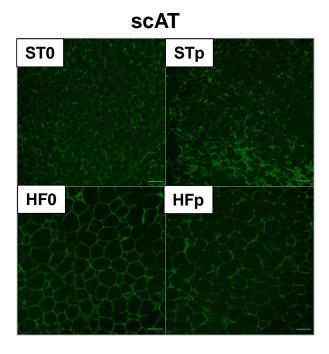
**Supplementary Figure 1:** (**A**) Body weight measured along the 15 weeks of diet (**B/C**) Tests performed after 13 wks of diet (Xylose absorption test) and after 14 wks of diet (Glucose tolerance test) (**D**) Plasma total cholesterol and cholesteryl esters and hepatic total cholesterol (**E**) HOMA-IR calculated from blood glucose and plasma insulin measurements.

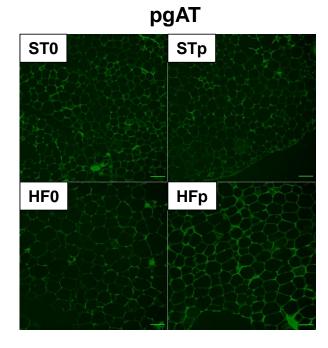
Values are means ± SEM with n=8. \*\*\*P<0.001; \*\* P<0.01; \*P<0.05

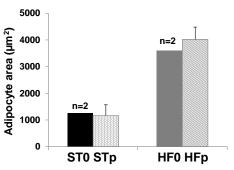
(F) Plasma measurement of leptin and adiponectin by ELISA. Results are expressed as means  $\pm$  SEM. Significant differences were assessed after One-way ANOVA followed by Bonferroni post-hoc test for leptin and overall HFHS effect by Two-way ANOVA using Bonferroni as post-hoc test for adiponectin. (\*\*\* P<0.001)

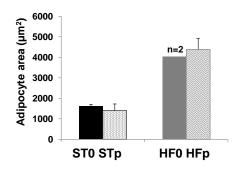


**Supplementary Figure 2:** Plasma measurement of Alanine Aminostransferase (ALT) and Aspartate Aminotransferase activities. Values are means  $\pm$  SEM with n=8.









**Supplementary Figure 3:** Representative laminin immunostaining of paraffin section of adipose tissues obtained from mice fed standard diet without (ST0) or with the pollutant mixture (STp), and mice fed high fat high sucrose diet without (HF0) or with the pollutant mixture (HFp). Adipose tissue acquisition is represented for subcutaneous (scAT) and perigonadal (pgAT) depots using objective x10. Scale bar=100 $\mu$ m. For adipocyte area measurement, at least 150 adipocytes for each sample were considered. Image analyses were performed with ImageJ software. Values are means  $\pm$  SEM with n=3. When n=2, the value is the aryhtmetic mean.