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Lactate signaling and fuel selection in rainbow trout:

Mobilization of energy reserves

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Running head: Lactate signaling and fuel selection in fish

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¹**Abstract**

2 Lactate is now recognized as a regulator of fuel selection in mammals because it 3 inhibits lipolysis by binding to the hydroxycarboxylic acid receptor 1 (HCAR1). The goals 4 of this study were to quantify the effects of exogenous lactate on: (i) lipolytic rate or rate 5 of appearance of glycerol in the circulation (*Ra* glycerol) and hepatic glucose production 6 (*Ra* glucose), and (ii) key tissue proteins involved in lactate signaling, glucose transport, 7 glycolysis, gluconeogenesis, lipolysis and β-oxidation in rainbow trout. Measurements of 8 fuel mobilization kinetics show that lactate does not affect lipolysis as it does in mammals (*Ra* glycerol remains at 7.3 ± 0.5 µmol kg−1 min−1 9), but strongly reduces hepatic glucose production (16.4 ± 2.0 to 8.9 ± 1.2 µmol kg⁻¹ min⁻¹). This reduction is 11 likely induced by decreasing gluconeogenic flux through the inhibition of cytosolic 12 phosphoenolpyruvate carboxykinase (Pck1, alternatively called Pepck1; 60% and 24% 13 declines in gene expression and protein level, respectively). It is also caused by lactate 14 substituting for glucose as a fuel in all tissues except white muscle that increases *glut4a* 15 expression and has limited capacity for monocarboxylate transporter (Mct)-mediated 16 lactate import. We conclude that lipolysis is not affected by hyperlactatemia because 17 trout show no activation of autocrine Hcar1 signaling (gene expression of the receptor is 18 unchanged or even repressed in red muscle). Lactate regulates fuel mobilization via 19 Pck1-mediated suppression of gluconeogenesis and by replacing glucose as a fuel. 20 This study highlights important functional differences in the Hcar1 signaling system 21 between fish and mammals for the regulation of fuel selection.

²²**Keywords**: fish metabolism, lactate, lipolysis, hepatic glucose production,

23 carbohydrates, lipids, Hcar1.

²⁴**INTRODUCTION**

25 In addition to its traditional roles as glycolytic end-product, oxidative fuel and 26 gluconeogenic precursor, lactate is now recognized as an essential metabolic signal (1- 27 5). The hydroxycarboxylic acid receptor (HCAR1: a G-protein coupled receptor 28 previously called GPR81) was originally identified as a key binding target for lactate in 29 mammalian adipocytes (6), but has since been detected in muscle (7-9) and liver (10), 30 among others. It has now also been found in fish (11, 12). Upon lactate binding, the 31 HCAR1 receptor acts via the G_i protein to inhibit the cAMP/PKA pathway (8). Functional 32 studies have linked this lactate-induced HCAR1 signaling pathway to lipid metabolism in 33 several tissues, notably the retention of neutral lipids through the inhibition of lipolysis in 34 adipose tissue (13), the inhibition of lipolysis in muscle (7-9), and conversely, enhanced 35 lipid oxidation in the (fasted) liver (10). Studies probing the metabolic roles of HCAR1 36 lactate signaling in muscle have also reported stimulation of mitochondrial biogenesis, 37 both via cAMP/PKA dependent and independent pathways (7-9). In muscle, lactate has 38 been found to mediate these effects via a positive autocrine feedback loop because 39 acute and chronic lactate administration resulted in dose-dependent increases in 40 HCAR1 mRNA and protein abundance *in vitro* and *in vivo* (7-9). Importantly, this 41 feedback loop appears to be dependent on the suppression of cAMP signaling (8), 42 suggesting that the (auto)stimulation of HCAR1 expression and translation is an 43 indicator of HCAR1 signaling activity. 44 Multiple factors affecting metabolic fuel selection have been characterized in fish,

45 particularly rainbow trout (14). Glucose mobilization (the rate of hepatic glucose

46 production or *Ra* glucose) is reduced by exogenous glucose or alanine (15, 16), insulin

47 (17), propranolol (18), prolonged swimming (19) and low temperature (20), but it is 48 stimulated by epinephrine (18). The mobilization of lipid reserves (lipolysis or rate of 49 appearance of glycerol in the circulation: *Ra* glycerol) is also increased by epinephrine, 50 but contrary to its effect in mammals, it is inhibited by norepinephrine in fish (21). 51 Surprisingly, fish lipolytic rate remains unaffected by endurance swimming (22) or 52 graded exercise up to critical swimming speed (U_{crit}) (23). Whether lactate signaling or 53 Hcar1 are involved in modulating fuel selection in fish is unknown. Therefore, this study 54 aims to determine how exogenous lactate modulates fuel selection *in vivo* by measuring 55 its effects on hepatic glucose production and lipolytic rate of rainbow trout. Exogenous 56 supply rather than exercise-induced hyperlactatemia was selected here to focus on 57 lactate as a signal and to avoid the confounding impact of the metabolic, hormonal, and 58 neural changes caused by swimming. Our goals were to quantify the effects of elevated 59 lactate levels on: (i) *Ra* glucose and *Ra* glycerol, and (ii) key tissue proteins involved in 60 lactate signaling or carbohydrate and lipid metabolism that could potentially explain the 61 observed behavior of glucose and glycerol kinetics. We anticipated that lactate would 62 cause the Hcar1-mediated inhibition of lipolysis as it does in mammals (24, 25) and a 63 decrease in hepatic glucose production (24). It was predicted that these trout responses 64 would be reflected by corresponding changes in key regulatory proteins of lipid and 65 carbohydrate metabolism.

66

- ⁶⁷**METHODS**
- ⁶⁸**Animals**

83

⁸⁴**Catheterizations**

85 Fish were anesthetized with ethyl 3-aminobenzoate methanesulfonate (MS-222; 60 mg \vert ⁻¹ buffered with 0.2 g \vert ⁻¹ sodium bicarbonate) and surgically fitted with 2 87 catheters (for the glucose and glycerol kinetics experiments) or a single catheter (for 88 gene expression, protein expression and enzyme activity experiments) (BTPE-50 89 catheters, Instech Laboratories, Plymouth Meeting, PA, USA) in the dorsal aorta (27). 90 The catheters were kept patent by flushing with Cortland's saline containing 50 U ml⁻¹ 91 heparin (H3393, Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA). After surgery, the fish were left to 92 recover overnight in a 90 L swim-tunnel (Loligo Systems, Tjele, Denmark) where they 93 were kept in the resting state at a water velocity of 0.5 body length per second (BL s⁻¹). 94 This weak current reduces stress and helps the flow of water over the gills, but it does 95 not require swimming to maintain body position because the animals are sitting at the 96 bottom of the chamber (15). The swim tunnel was supplied with the same quality water 97 as the holding tank and kept at 13°C.

98

⁹⁹**Glucose and glycerol kinetics (series 1 and 2)**

100 The rates of hepatic glucose production (or rate of appearance of glucose: *Ra* 101 glucose) and glycerol production (or lipolytic rate: *Ra* glycerol) were measured by 102 continuous infusion of [6- 3 H] glucose (American Radiolabeled Chemicals, St. Louis, 103 MO, USA; specific activity 2220 GBq mmol⁻¹) and $[2-3H]$ glycerol (American 104 Radiolabeled Chemicals; 925 GBq mmol⁻¹). These tracer methods have been 105 thoroughly validated in fish (28) and specifically tested in rainbow trout to assess the 106 effects of a variety of physiological stresses on *Ra* glucose (14, 19, 20, 29). The method 107 to quantify *Ra* glycerol is also well-established for rainbow trout (21-23). All infusates 108 were freshly prepared immediately before each experiment by drying an aliquot of the 109 tracer obtained from the supplier under N₂ and resuspending in Cortland's saline. For 110 glucose kinetics, a priming dose of tracer equivalent to 3 h of infusion was injected as a 111 bolus at the start of each infusion to reach isotopic steady state in <45 min (28, 30). A 112 priming dose was not required to measure glycerol kinetics because the total glycerol 113 pool is small and isotopic steady state is reached in <45 min without it (21, 23, 30). For 114 each flux measurement, the infusate was administered continuously at \sim 1 ml h⁻¹ (the

115 exact infusion rate was determined for each fish to adjust for differences in body mass) 116 using a calibrated syringe pump (Harvard Apparatus, South Natick, MA). Infusion rates 117 averaged 1523 \pm 36 Bg kg⁻¹ min⁻¹ (N=8) for labeled glucose and 9227 \pm 297 Bg kg⁻¹ 118 min⁻¹ (N=10) for labeled glycerol. These trace amounts (labeled + unlabeled 119 metabolites) had no effect on glucose or glycerol metabolism because they accounted 120 for <0.0000001% of baseline endogenous hepatic glucose production (glucose kinetics) 121 and <0.00001% of baseline endogenous rate of appearance of glycerol in the circulation 122 (glycerol kinetics). Blood samples (~100 µl each) were drawn 50, 55 and 60 min after 123 starting the tracer infusion to quantify baseline glucose or glycerol kinetics, and every 20 124 min thereafter during a 3 h administration of exogenous lactate at a rate of 30 µmol kg⁻¹ 125 min⁻¹. Lactate was infused at \sim 1 ml h⁻¹, but the exact rate was adjusted individually for 126 each fish to correct for differences in body mass. This rate is equivalent to twice the 127 baseline endogenous rate of lactate release in the circulation (31) and caused a gradual 128 increase in blood lactate concentration that reached ~13 mM after 3 h in previous 129 experiments (32). The total amount of blood sampled from each fish accounted for 130 <10% of the total blood volume. Blood samples were immediately centrifuged to 131 separate plasma (5 min; 13,000 RPM) and stored at -20ºC until analyses.

132

¹³³**Blood sample analyses for metabolite kinetics (series 1 and 2)**

134 Plasma lactate, glucose and glycerol concentrations were measured 135 spectrophotometrically (Spectra Max Plus 384 Microplate reader, Molecular Devices, 136 Sunnyvale, CA, USA) using standard NAD⁺/NADH-coupled enzymatic assays at 340 137 nm (16, 33). Radioactivity was measured by scintillation counting (Perkin-Elmer Tricarb 138 2910TR, Waltham, MA, USA) in Bio-Safe II™ scintillation cocktail (Research Products 139 International, Mt Prospect, IL, USA). $[6-3H]$ glucose activity was measured after drying 140 each plasma sample under N₂ to eliminate tritiated H₂O. [2-³H] glycerol activity was 141 measured by incubating samples with ATP and hexokinase to phosphorylate the 142 labeled free glucose that was then removed by ion-exchange column chromatography 143 [DOWEX-1 (formate form) and DOWEX-50 (HCI form)] before drying under N_2 (33) A 144 previous study had shown that $10.6 \pm 0.9\%$ of labelled glycerol is lost during this 145 separation procedure (23) and glycerol activities were corrected accordingly.

146

¹⁴⁷**Tissue measurements (series 3)**

148 To avoid working with radioactive tissues, these experiments were carried out on 149 a different group of fish than series 1 and 2. Fish saline (control group) or lactate 150 (treatment group; 30 µmol lactate kg⁻¹ min⁻¹) was administered at ~1 ml h⁻¹ for 3 h. Blood 151 samples were taken before starting saline or lactate administration (0 h) and after 3 h of 152 saline or lactate infusion. The animals were then euthanized by a sharp blow on the 153 head and tissues were collected. The whole liver, red muscle (along the lateral line) and 154 white muscle (perpendicular to the dorsal fin) were collected and stored at -80°C until 155 analyses.

156

¹⁵⁷*RNA extraction and gene expression*

158 Total RNA from liver, red and white muscle was extracted and quantified as 159 previously (16, 34). QuantiTect reverse transcriptase kit (Qiagen, Toronto, ON, Canada) 160 was used to generate cDNA using total RNA and following the manufacturer's protocol.

161 Two-step real-time RT-PCR assays were performed to quantify fold-changes in relative 162 hepatic mRNA abundances of the lactate-sensitive hydroxycarboxylic acid receptor 1 163 (*hcar1*), key gluconeogenic transcripts (phosphoenolpyruvate carboxykinase, *pck1*, ¹⁶⁴*pck2a*, *pck2b* and glucose-6-phosphatase, *g6pca*, *g6pcb1a*, *g6pcb1b*) and glucose 165 transporters (*glut4a* and *glut4b*, alternatively called *slc2a4*)*.* Additionally, multiple 166 transcripts involved in lipid metabolism were measured: fatty acid oxidation [carnitine 167 palmitoyltransferase 1; *cpt1* (NM_001124735.1 which is equivalent to Trout_B1b as 168 described in Morash et al., 2010) *,* hydroxyacyl CoA dehydrogenase; *hoad*), transport 169 (fatty acid translocase; *cd36*) and synthesis (fatty acid synthase; *fasn*). Standard curves 170 from pooled cDNA serial dilution were generated to optimize reaction conditions and 171 diluted samples were run in duplicates. Negative controls (no-reverse transcriptase and 172 no-template) were included in each assay to control for DNA contamination. All primer 173 sequences and amplification efficiencies are presented in Tables S2 (carbohydrate 174 metabolism targets) and S3 (lipid metabolism targets). Amplification efficiencies were 175 calculated from serially diluted 7-point standard curves and ranged between 92.8- 176 108.7%, with R² values > 0.93. Relative transcript abundance derived from standard 177 curves was normalized using the NORMA-Gene procedure (35). Finally, mRNA fold 178 changes were calculated relative to the control group.

179

¹⁸⁰*Western blotting*

181 Total protein from liver, red and white muscle was extracted, quantified and 182 prepared as previously (34) using a protease inhibitor, (88665, Thermo Fisher Scientific, 183 Waltham, MA, USA), kinase inhibitor (S1504, Sigma-Aldrich) and phosphatase inhibitor

184 (S6508, Sigma-Aldrich). Proteins were migrated for 2 h at 100 V and blotted at 100 V for 185 2 h on nitrocellulose membrane (pore size 0.2 µm, Bio-Rad Laboratories, Hercules, CA, 186 USA) in 20% Western transfer buffer. The membranes were incubated in Odyssey 187 blocking buffer (LI-COR Biosciences, Lincoln, NE, USA) for 1 h at room temperature. 188 Membranes were incubated overnight at 4°C in rabbit-raised Pck1 (A2036) and Glut4 189 (A7637) primary antibodies (ABclonal Technology, Woburn, MA, USA). Membranes 190 were washed and incubated with IRDye 800 CW goat-anti-rabbit secondary antibody 191 (925-32211, LI-COR) for 1.5 h at room temperature, protected from light. The primary 192 and secondary antibodies were diluted 1:500 and 1:20,000, respectively, as advised by 193 the manufacturers. Following incubation, the membranes were washed and visualized 194 by infrared fluorescence using the Odyssey Imaging System (LI-COR Biosciences)(16, 195 34). Band intensity was quantified by Odyssey Infrared Imaging System software (v.3.0; 196 LI-COR Biosciences), normalized to total protein stain intensity and expressed as a 197 relative-fold change compared with control groups for all tissue.

198

¹⁹⁹*Enzyme activities*

200 Tissue homogenates were prepared as previously (36). Enzyme activity was 201 determined kinetically at 21.0°C by measuring the oxidation of NADH or reduction of $_{202}$ $\,$ NADP * </code> at 340 nm and expressed in µmol min $^{\text{-1}}$ g $^{\text{-1}}$ protein. The activity was assayed in 203 triplicate. Control reactions were run for 10 min for each enzyme assay after adding 204 reagents. Background activity was subtracted from enzyme activity. The conditions 205 of the individual enzyme assay were as detailed below (values given are final 206 concentrations in the well). Hexokinase (Hk; EC 2.7.1.1) and glucokinase (Gck; EC

 207 2.7.1.2) assay mixture contained 300 mM imidazole, 100 mM KCl, 10 mM MgCl₂, 1 mM $_{208}$ $\,$ NADP * , 5 U ml *1 G6PDH, 5 mM ATP and glucose (omitted for control), 5 mM for Hk and 209 50 mM for Gck, reflecting different affinities for the substrate. Phosphoenolpyruvate 210 carboxykinase (Pck; EC 4.1.1.32) reaction mixture contained 50 mM imidazole, 20 mM 211 NaHCO₃, 1 mM MnCl₂, 0.5 mM PEP (Na₃), 0.12 mM NADH, 6 U ml⁻¹ malate 212 dehydrogenase and 0.2 mM deoxyguanosine diphosphate (dGDP; omitted for control). 213 Hydroxyacyl CoA dehydrogenase (Hoad; EC 1.1.1.35) reaction mixture contained 50 214 mM imidazole, 5 mM EDTA, 1 mM KCN, 0.05 mM NADH and 0.1 mM acetoacetyl CoA 215 (omitted for control).

216

²¹⁷**Calculations and statistics**

²¹⁸*Ra* glucose and *Ra* glycerol were calculated using the steady-state equation of 219 Steele (37), where R_a (in µmol kg⁻¹ min⁻¹) is the infusion rate of labeled glucose or 220 glycerol (in Bq kg⁻¹ min⁻¹) divided by the measured specific activity of glucose or glycerol 221 (in Bq µmol⁻¹). Statistical comparisons for metabolite kinetics (series 1 and 2) were 222 performed using one-way repeated-measures analysis of variance (RM-ANOVA) with 223 the Dunnett's post hoc test to determine which time points were statistically different 224 from baseline. Glucose, glycerol and lactate concentrations were analyzed by two-way 225 RM ANOVA (series 3; table 3), where the treatment and (sampling) time were the 226 effects. Based on rearing conditions, body mass between experimental series were 227 different. Gene expression, protein expression and enzyme activity results were 228 analyzed using a two-tailed unpaired t-test to assess the effects of lactate. Before all 229 tests, normality and homoscedasticity were assessed using the Shapiro-Wilk and

230 Levene's test, respectively. When the assumptions of normality or equality of variances 231 were not met, the data were normalized by natural logarithm or square root 232 transformation. When transformation failed to normalize the distribution, Kruskall-Wallis 233 non-parametric one-way ANOVA on ranks (series 1 and 2) or non-parametric Mann- 234 Whitney U test (series 3) were performed. Values presented are means \pm s.e.m. and a 235 level of significance of *P*<0.05 was used in all tests.

236

²³⁷**RESULTS**

²³⁸**Series 1: Glucose kinetics**

239 During the measurement of glucose kinetics, exogenous lactate infusion had no 240 effect on plasma glucose concentration (*p>0.05*; Fig. 1A), but progressively increased 241 plasma lactate concentration to 10.9 ± 0.4 mM over 3 hours (*p<0.001*; Fig. 1B and 242 Table 2). Elevating plasma lactate caused an increase in glucose specific activity 243 (*p<0.001* at 1 h and *p<0.05* at 2.33 h; Fig. 2A) and a decrease in hepatic glucose 244 production from a baseline rate of 16.4 \pm 2.0 µmol kg⁻¹ min⁻¹ to a final value of 8.9 \pm 245 1.2 μ mol kg⁻¹ min⁻¹. ($p < 0.001$; Fig. 2B and Table 2).

246

²⁴⁷**Series 2: Glycerol kinetics**

248 During the measurement of glycerol kinetics, the infusion of exogenous lactate 249 caused large increases in plasma glycerol concentration (*p<0.001*; Fig. 3A) and plasma 250 lactate concentration (*p<0.001*; Fig. 3B). Glycerol concentration doubled and lactate 251 concentration reached 10.5 ± 1.4 mM, a level similar to the glucose kinetics 252 experiments (Table 2). Increasing the availability of plasma lactate caused minor

253 fluctuations in glycerol specific activity (Fig. 4A; *p<0.05*) and glycerol production or rate 254 of lipolysis (*p<0.05*; Fig. 4B). For these 2 parameters, however, post-hoc tests could not 255 identify any particular means that were significantly different from baseline (Fig. 4 and 256 Table 2).

257

²⁵⁸**Series 3: Gene expression, protein signaling and enzyme activities**

²⁵⁹*Metabolite concentrations*

260 Plasma metabolite concentrations of the fish used for tissue measurements 261 (series 3) and their statistical analyses are in Table 3. Control animals that received a 262 saline infusion showed no changes in glucose, glycerol or lactate levels. Those given an 263 infusion of exogenous lactate also maintained steady glucose concentration, but more 264 than doubled glycerol concentration. In addition, they showed a large increase in 265 plasma lactate concentration like the animals used to measure *in vivo* metabolite fluxes 266 (series 1 and 2). Interactions between time and treatment effects were significant for 267 glycerol and lactate concentrations.

268

²⁶⁹*Gene expression*

270 Exogenous lactate reduced the relative mRNA expression of the 271 hydroxycarboxylic acid 1 (lactate) receptor *hcar1* in red muscle (*p<0.01*), showed a non-272 significant trend to decrease it in white muscle (*p=0.*057), and had no effect in liver 273 (*p>0.05*; Fig. 5). The impacts of lactate on target genes that play key roles in the 274 regulation of carbohydrate and lipid metabolism are shown in Fig. 6. For carbohydrate 275 metabolism (left panels of Fig. 6), exogenous lactate decreased the relative mRNA

276 abundances of the glucose transporters *glut4a* and *glut4b* in red muscle (*p<0.01 and* ²⁷⁷*p<0.001* respectively), but increased them in white muscle (*p<0.05*; Fig. 6). In liver, 278 lactate reduced the relative expression of the *pck1* paralogue of phosphoenolpyruvate 279 carboxykinase (*p<0.05*), but had no effect on other paralogues of this gluconeogenic 280 enzyme (*pck2a* and *pck2b*; *p>0.05*; Fig.6). None of the glucose-6-phosphatase 281 paralogues (*g6pca*, *g6pcb1a* and *g6pcb1b*) were affected by lactate (*p>0.05*; Fig. 6). 282 For proteins involved in lipid metabolism (right panels of Fig. 6), the relative transcript 283 abundance of two β-oxidation enzymes were quantified. Lactate did not affect *cpt1* in 284 liver, red muscle or white muscle (*p>0.05*). The relative expression of *hoad* was 285 stimulated in white muscle (*p<0.01*), but remained constant in liver and red muscle 286 (*p>0.05*; Fig. 6). The relative mRNA expression of *cd36* was decreased in liver (*p<0.05*), 287 but remained unaffected by lactate in red and white muscle (*p>0.05*; Fig. 6). Similarly, 288 exogenous lactate caused no measurable change in the transcript abundance of *fasn* in 289 liver (*p>0.05*; Fig. 6).

290

²⁹¹*Protein expression*

292 The relative protein abundance of Pck1 and Glut4 was quantified by Western 293 blotting (Fig. 7). Exogenous lactate decreased the protein expression of Pck1 in liver 294 (*p<0.05*), echoing what had been observed for the mRNA abundance of this 295 gluconeogenic enzyme (Fig. 6). The expression of Glut4 in white or red muscle was not 296 affected by lactate (*p>0.05*).

297

²⁹⁸*Enzyme activities*

299 The effects of exogenous lactate on the activities of target enzymes playing key 300 roles in the regulation of carbohydrate and lipid metabolism are presented in Fig. 8. For 301 carbohydrate metabolism, lactate caused the activation of Hk in white muscle (*p<0.05*), 302 but had no effect on liver Pck, Hk, or Gck (*p>0.05*). For lipid metabolism, Hoad activity 303 was reduced by lactate in liver (*p<0.01*), but remained constant in white and red muscle 304 (*p>0.05*; left panels of Fig. 8).

305

³⁰⁶**DISCUSSION**

307 This study shows that high lactate does not inhibit lipolysis in fish as it does in 308 mammals, but strongly decreases hepatic glucose production. This lack of effect on 309 lipolytic rate is due to weak putative Hcar1-mediated signaling because the expression 310 of the trout receptor is not modified by elevated lactate except in red muscle where it 311 actually declines. Therefore, the known HCAR1 autocrine feedback mechanism that 312 slows lipolysis in mammals does not seem to operate in fish. Trout *Ra* glucose is greatly 313 reduced by high lactate, likely through a decrease in gluconeogenesis caused by the 314 inhibition of Pck1. The overall need for glucose may be reduced because it is replaced 315 by lactate as an oxidative fuel in tissues that readily use carbohydrates, such as brain, 316 heart, and liver. Indeed, previous work suggests that the majority of lactate produced is 317 oxidized at rest and during recovery from exercise in rainbow trout (38). The liver (38), 318 heart (39) and brain (40) can all readily oxidize lactate in the resting state. Opposite 319 responses in *glut4* expression of red *vs* white muscle suggest that glucose import is 320 reduced in red muscle where it is replaced by lactate, but increased in white muscle: a 321 tissue with a very limited capacity for Mct-mediated transmembrane lactate transport

322 (41). Results emphasize the importance of measuring metabolite fluxes directly rather 323 than to rely on changes in concentration when investigating metabolic responses. 324 Without directly quantifying glycerol and glucose kinetics, it would have been impossible 325 to demonstrate that lactate does not affect lipolysis (because glycerol concentration 326 increases dramatically) and strongly inhibits hepatic glucose production (because 327 glycemia remains steady).

328

³²⁹**Lactate infusion protocol mimics strenuous exercise**

330 We have administered exogenous lactate in the circulation rather than exercise 331 the animals. Before starting exogenous supply, the fish showed no signs of stress and 332 had circulating lactate (~1 mM), glucose (~7 mM) and glycerol levels (~0.2 mM) (Figs. 1 333 and 3) well within normal resting values (23, 42, 43). Lactate was then infused at twice 334 the baseline endogenous rate of release in the circulation (31) to reach plasma 335 concentrations of 10.9 \pm 0.4 mM and 10.5 \pm 1.4 mM after 3 h in series 1 and 2 336 experiments, respectively (Figs. 1 and 3, Table 2). The rate of exogenous supply was 337 equal to the natural endogenous release of trout when swimming at ~3 body lengths/s 338 (42). Final plasma lactate concentrations were similar to those measured in previous 339 exogenous supply experiments (32) and closely mimicked a normal increase in blood 340 lactate induced by strenuous exercise (38, 41).

341

³⁴²**High lactate does not inhibit fish lipolysis**

343 The rate of appearance of glycerol in the circulation is the best index of whole-344 organism lipolytic rate (30) and it has been widely used to assess lipid mobilization in 345 mammals (33, 44-47) as well as fish (21-23). This study is the first to investigate the 346 effects of exogenously increased circulating lactate on lipolytic rate *in vivo* for any 347 species. How lactate modulates glycerol and fatty acid fluxes has never been 348 measured, and this type of manipulation provides a novel research avenue to improve 349 the understanding of lactate signaling.

350

 351 Elevated lactate levels do not affect trout R_a glycerol that remains at an average 352 baseline value of 7.3 ± 0.5 µmol kg⁻¹ min⁻¹ (Fig. 4). This contrasts greatly with the well-353 known anti-lipolytic effect of hyperlactatemia reported in mammals (5, 48) and suggests 354 that other reported responses of mammalian lipid metabolism to lactate, like tissue 355 triacylglycerol accumulation and lowering of plasma fatty acid levels (7-9) are also 356 absent in trout. This idea is supported by the observation that lactate has no effect on 357 the gene expression of *fasn* (Fig. 6), that encodes for a protein essential for lipogenesis 358 (49, 50). Similarly, the expression of *lpl* does not respond to lactate and *hsl* mRNA 359 shows opposite responses in red muscle (activation that would oppose lipid storage) 360 and white muscle (inhibition that would promote storage) (Fig. S1). What could then be 361 the underlying physiological reasons why lipid metabolism of fish remains mostly 362 insensitive to lactate? In mammals, lipolytic suppression is mediated by lactate binding 363 to HCAR1 in adipose tissue and muscle (25). Even though fish possess this lactate 364 receptor (11, 12), the signaling pathway does not seem to operate in trout because 365 Hcar1 is not activated by lactate and may therefore have a different function than in 366 mammals. Mammalian HCAR1 is regulated via an autocrine feedback loop (3) whereby 367 lactate increases the expression of the receptor (7, 51). In trout, lactate has no

368 stimulating effect on *hcar1* expression in any tissue, and even suppresses it by 78% in 369 red muscle (Fig. 5). Rainbow trout always maintain very high rates of lipolysis and 370 triacylglycerol/fatty acid substrate cycling under a wide range of physiological conditions 371 that include rising plasma lactate concentration up to \sim 10 mM in the resting state (Fig. 372 4), endurance exercise lasting several days (22), and graded exercise up to critical 373 swimming speed (23). In mammals, lactate inhibits lipolysis (5) and similar stresses of 374 endurance and strenuous exercise cause major changes in fat mobilization (45, 52). 375 The lack of Hcar1 signaling observed here may be responsible for the high lipolytic 376 activity and the "lipolytic inertia" commonly observed in fish. Therefore, this study 377 highlights major functional differences between fish and mammals for the role of lactate 378 and Hcar1 signaling in metabolic fuel selection.

379

³⁸⁰**High lactate reduces hepatic glucose production**

 381 Elevated lactate causes a decline in R_a glucose from 16.4 \pm 2.0 to 8.9 \pm 1.2 µmol \log^{-1} min⁻¹ (Fig. 2B), and this 46% reduction occurs within one hour of exogenous 383 supply. A similar decrease in resting glucose production was reported in endurance-384 trained humans (24), but not in sedentary subjects (53) when circulating lactate was 385 clamped at 4 mM. *Ra* glucose represents the combined contributions of 386 gluconeogenesis and glycogenolysis, but does not provide information on the relative 387 importance of each pathway. However, tissue measurements show that a reduction in 388 gluconeogenic flux is most likely responsible for the observed decrease in total glucose 389 production because lactate infusion reduces both *pck1* transcript abundance (-60%; Fig. 390 6) and Pck1 protein levels (-24%; Fig. 7). In mammals, PCK1 is the most significant

391 regulating step of gluconeogenesis. It catalyzes the conversion of oxaloacetate to 392 phosphoenolpyruvate that serves as a substrate for downstream gluconeogenic 393 enzymes, among them fructose 1,6-bisphosphatase and glucose-6-phosphatase which 394 ultimately cause the release of free glucose in the circulation. The Pck1 transcript has a 395 very short half-life (~30 min) and there is no evidence that Pck is subject to covalent 396 modifications or allosteric regulation. Its activity depends on transcription and/or *pck1* 397 degradation (54), and, therefore, the observed inhibition of trout *Ra* glucose is caused, 398 at least in part, by a decrease in gluconeogenesis mediated by the downregulation of 399 Pck1.

400

401 The role of Pck2, the mitochondrial isozyme, has recently been the subject of 402 renewed interest, especially in the context of substrate preference for gluconeogenesis 403 (54-56). Because Pck2 silencing reduces the ability of mammals to use lactate as a 404 gluconeogenic substrate (56) and hypoxia induces the expression of *pck2b* in rainbow 405 trout alevins (55), we have quantified the hepatic expression of *pck2* transcripts, but 406 found no effect of lactate (Fig. 6). The relative expression of cytosolic and mitochondrial 407 Pck appears to be species, tissue, and physiological state-dependent (54, 57). Overall, 408 hepatic Pck activity does not change following lactate infusion (Fig. 8) and previous 409 reports show strong compartmentalization of Pck activity to mitochondria in rainbow 410 trout (57, 58). This suggests that other factors than changes in *pck1* transcript and 411 Pck1 protein abundance are involved in reducing *Ra* glucose in trout. Therefore, further 412 work is needed to establish the exact localization of Pck isozymes and to characterize 413 the relative influence of each on the regulation of trout gluconeogenesis.

414

415 We have also measured the hepatic expression of several paralogues of 416 glucose-6-phosphatase: the enzyme that liberates glucose from both hepatic *de novo* 417 gluconeogenesis as well as glycogenolysis (58). Lactate has no effect on the 418 expression of *g6pc* paralogues (Fig. 6) and this supports the idea that the decrease in ⁴¹⁹*Ra* glucose is mainly caused by upstream gluconeogenic suppression of Pck1. It would 420 be useful to know the phosphorylation status and the activities of glycogen synthase 421 and glycogen phosphorylase, as well as the size of liver glycogen stores to assess 422 potential contributions of glycogen metabolism to the reduction in *Ra* glucose. We 423 cannot discard the possibility that changes in *Ra* glucose arise from changes in 424 glycogenolysis, but a previous study using labeled lactate shows that, under similar 425 conditions, tracer incorporation into the glucose or glycogen pools is extremely limited 426 (38). Overall, therefore, rainbow trout reduce hepatic glucose production mainly through 427 the inhibition of gluconeogenesis and probably not by modulating glycogen breakdown. 428

⁴²⁹**Effects of high lactate on fuel selection**

430 Like other animals, trout maintain high rates of lactate production and utilization, 431 even at rest (31, 32, 42). The most important pathway for lactate disposal is oxidation 432 (38) and the end product is a preferred oxidative fuel over other substrates like glucose 433 and fatty acids (14). In trout, lactate oxidation increases strongly with exogenous supply 434 (32) and the contribution of other fuels to energy metabolism decreases accordingly in 435 the liver (38), heart (39) and brain (40) under resting conditions. Here in trout, the high 436 availability of lactate causes the same decrease in circulating glucose utilization as for

⁴³⁷*Ra* glucose (Fig. 2B) because glycemia remains constant (Fig. 1A). This decrease in 438 glucose disposal is driven by a reduction in glucose oxidation potentially supported by 439 the lowered expression of *gckb* (Fig. 6), although no change in Gck activity could be 440 detected (Fig. 8). Fatty acid oxidation is another pathway that may be reduced, 441 particularly in the liver where both transport (*cd36* expression; Fig. 6) and β-oxidation 442 (Hoad activity; Fig. 8) are inhibited. Overall, therefore, exogenous supply causes the 443 partial replacement of glucose and fatty acids by lactate as an oxidative fuel for energy 444 metabolism.

445

⁴⁴⁶**Red and white muscles metabolize carbohydrates differently**

447 Hyperlactatemia causes opposite responses in *glut4* paralogue expression of red 448 (-42% and -43% for *glut4a* and *glut4b*, respectively) versus white muscle (+166% and 449 +178% for *glut4a* and *glut4b*, respectively) (Fig. 6), suggesting that glucose utilization is 450 reduced in red muscle and increased in white muscle. Tissue glucose and lactate 451 metabolism are constrained by transmembrane transport through Glut (59) and Mct 452 isoforms (41). Substitution of glucose by lactate appears to take place in red muscle, 453 but may not be possible in white muscle that has an extremely low capacity for lactate 454 transport. White muscle expresses Mct isoforms very poorly, especially the Mct1 455 paralogues that specialize in lactate import for oxidation (41). The overall switch from 456 glucose to lactate seen at the whole organism level means that relatively more glucose 457 becomes available for white muscle that, unlike other tissues, may take advantage of 458 this opportunity and increase glucose utilization. This idea is supported by the fact that 459 white muscle is the only tissue showing a rise in Hk activity (Fig. 8) and further

460 emphasizes that important differences in carbohydrate metabolism exist between the 461 two muscle types. Conversely, the expression of both *glut4* paralogues decreased 462 significantly in the red muscle of lactate infused fish. This finding is in line with an 463 observed, but non-significant, decrease in Hk activity in red muscle, suggesting that 464 increasingly available glucose is not used as a fuel by this tissue. Similarly, the 465 observed (non-significant) tendency of hepatic Gck activity to decrease suggests that 466 the liver does not increase its use of glucose either.

467

⁴⁶⁸**Perspectives and significance**

469 Higher lactate availability does not reduce lipolytic rate because rainbow trout 470 only show weak Hcar1 signaling that may have a different metabolic function than in 471 mammals. The trout receptor responds differently because its expression remains 472 unaffected by lactate in all tissues except red muscle where it is even strongly 473 suppressed. This lack of Hcar1 activation may contribute to the high lipolytic rate and 474 the "lipolytic inertia" observed quasi permanently in fish. Rainbow trout maintain high R_a 475 glycerol during hyperlactatemia, and elevated rates of triacylglycerol/fatty acid cycling 476 during all types of exercise even when strenuous. Results show that trout *Ra* glucose is 477 greatly diminished because high lactate decreases gluconeogenic flux by inhibiting 478 Pck1 via reductions in *pck1* transcript abundance and Pck1 protein levels. 479 Hyperlactatemia also reduces overall tissue need for glucose by substituting it for 480 lactate as an oxidative fuel. However, this substitution does not occur in white muscle 481 that activates *glut4* expression and can probably not stimulate lactate import because of 482 its limited capacity for Mct-mediated transmembrane lactate transport. This study

484 between fish and mammals in the regulation of fuel selection for energy metabolism.

485

Table 1: Physical characteristics of the animals

Three types of experiments were carried out on adult rainbow trout to measure rates of glucose mobilization (series 1), rates of fatty acid mobilization (series 2) or gene expression, protein expression, and enzyme activities (series 3). Values are means ± s.e.m.

Table 2: Initial (baseline) and final values after 3 h of exogenous lactate infusion for plasma metabolite concentrations and fluxes measured in the glucose kinetics experiments (series 1) and glycerol kinetics experiments (series 2).

Ra glucose: rate of glucose mobilization or hepatic glucose production.

Ra glycerol: rate of mobilization of fatty acids (glycerol production or lipolytic rate). Values are means ± s.e.m (N=8-10). Significant effects of exogenous lactate infusion are indicated by *** (P<0.001).

Table 3: Initial and final values with statistical analyses for plasma glucose, glycerol and lactate concentrations measured in fish used for tissue measurements of gene expression, protein expression and enzyme activities (series 3). The animals were divided into 2 groups that received either an infusion of Cortland's saline (controls) or an infusion of lactate (treatment), both for 3 h.

Values are means ± s.e.m.

ns (not significant) P>0.05, * P <0.05, ** P <0.01, **** P <0.0001.

⁵¹⁰**Figure captions**

⁵¹¹**Fig. 1.** Circulating glucose (A) and lactate concentrations (B) of rainbow trout while 512 hepatic glucose production was quantified during exogenous lactate infusion that 513 started at time 0 (series 1). Values are means ± s.e.m. (N=8). *** Indicates significant 514 differences from mean resting values (P<0.001). 515 ⁵¹⁶**Fig. 2.** Effects of exogenous lactate on glucose specific activity (A) and hepatic glucose 517 production (B) in rainbow trout (series 1). Values are means ± s.e.m. (N=7-8). 518 Significant differences from mean baseline values are indicated by * (P<0.05), ** 519 (P<0.01) and *** (P<0.001). 520 ⁵²¹**Fig. 3.** Circulating glycerol (A) and lactate concentrations (B) of rainbow trout while 522 lipolytic rate (= rate of appearance of glycerol) was quantified during exogenous lactate 523 infusion that starts at time 0 (series 2). Values are means ± s.e.m. (N=10). Significant 524 differences from mean baseline values are indicated by ** (P<0.01) and *** (P<0.001). 525 ⁵²⁶**Fig. 4.** Effects of exogenous lactate on glycerol specific activity (A) and rate of 527 production of glycerol or lipolytic rate (B) in rainbow trout (series 2). Values are means \pm 528 s.e.m. (N=10). 529 ⁵³⁰**Fig. 5.** Effects of exogenous lactate on the relative mRNA expression of the 531 hydroxycarboxylic acid receptor 1 (*hcar1*) in rainbow trout tissues. Values are means ± 532 s.e.m. (N=6-8). Significant effect of lactate is indicated by ** (P<0.01). Relative mRNA 533 abundance was normalized using the NORMA-Gene procedure (35) and fold changes 534 were calculated relative to the control group. 535 536 537 538

⁵³⁹**Fig. 6.** Effects of exogenous lactate on the relative mRNA expression of genes 540 associated with carbohydrate (left panels) and lipid metabolism (right panels) in rainbow 541 trout tissues. Glucose transporters 4a and 4b (*glut4a* and *glut4b*), phosphoenolpyruvate 542 carboxykinase (*pck1*, *pck2a* and *pck2b*), glucose 6 phosphatase (*g6pca*, *g6pcb1a* and ⁵⁴³*g6pcb1b*), carnitine palmitoyltransferase 1 (*cpt1*), hydroxyacyl CoA dehydrogenase 544 (*hoad*), fatty acid translocase (*cd36*), and fatty acid synthase (*fasn*). Values are means $545 \pm$ s.e.m. (N=5-8). Significant effects of lactate are indicated by $*(P<0.05)$, $**$ (P $<$ 0.01) 546 and *** (P<0.001). Relative mRNA abundance was normalized using the NORMA-Gene 547 procedure (35) and fold changes were calculated relative to the control group. 548

- ⁵⁴⁹**Fig. 7.** Effects of exogenous lactate on the protein expression of liver
- 550 phosphoenolpyruvate carboxykinase (Pck1) and muscle glucose transporter 4 (Glut4) in
- 551 rainbow trout. Values are means ± s.e.m. (N=6). Significant effect of lactate is indicated 552 by $*(P<0.05)$.

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- ⁵⁵⁴**Fig. 8.** Effects of exogenous lactate on the activity of enzymes involved in carbohydrate
- 555 (left panels) and lipid metabolism (right panels) in rainbow trout tissues.
- 556 Phosphoenolpyruvate carboxykinase (Pck) hexokinase (Hk), glucokinase (Gck)
- 557 hydroxyacyl CoA dehydrogenase (Hoad). Values are means ± s.e.m. (N=7-8).
- 558 Significant effects of lactate are indicated by * (P<0.05), and ** (P<0.01).

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Carbohydrates

Lipids

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Carbohydrates

Lipids

Enzyme activity (µmol min⁻¹ g protein⁻¹)

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