

MnO₂ nanoparticles trigger hepatic lipotoxicity and mitophagy via mtROS-dependent Hsf1^{Ser326} phosphorylation

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Abstract

Manganese (Mn) is an essential element for maintaining normal metabolism in vertebrates. Mn dioxide nanoparticles (MnO₂ NPs), a novel Mn source, have shown great potentials in biological and biomedical applications due to their distinct physical and chemical properties. However, little is known about potential adverse effects on animal or cellular metabolism. Here, we investigated whether and how dietary MnO₂ NPs affect hepatic lipid metabolism in vertebrates. We found that, excessive MnO₂ NPs intake increased hepatic and mitochondrial Mn content, promoted hepatic lipotoxic disease and lipogenesis, and inhibited hepatic lipolysis and fatty acid β -oxidation. Moreover, excessive MnO₂ NPs intake induced hepatic mitochondrial oxidative stress, damaged mitochondrial function, disrupted mitochondrial dynamics and activated mitophagy. Importantly, we uncovered that mtROS-activated phosphorylation of heat

shock factor 1 (Hsf1) at Ser326 residue mediated MnO₂ NPs-induced hepatic lipotoxic disease and mitophagy. Mechanistically, MnO₂ NPs-induced lipotoxicity and mitophagy were via mtROS-induced phosphorylation and nucleus translocation of Hsf1 and its DNA binding capacity to *plin2/dgat1* and *bnip3* promoters, respectively. Overall, our findings uncover novel mechanisms by which mtROS-mediated mitochondrial dysfunction and phosphorylation of Hsf1^{S326} contribute to MnO₂ NPs-induced hepatic lipotoxicity and mitophagy, which provide new insights into the effects of metal oxides nanoparticles on hepatotoxicity in vertebrates.

Keywords: Mn dioxide nanoparticles; Hepatotoxicity; Mitochondrial oxidative stress; Mitophagy; Lipotoxicity

1. Introduction

In recent years, nanoparticles have been largely produced and extensively applied in various fields, such as medicine, animal husbandry, battery technologies and sewage treatment, due to their unique physical properties at the nano scale [1-3]. Metal oxide nanoparticles are regarded as highly versatile materials among all the nanomaterials currently in use, owing to their diverse range of properties and functionalities. Particularly, Mn dioxide (MnO₂) nanoparticles (NPs) are among the metal oxide nanoparticles widely utilized in biosensors, biomedical devices, fertilizers, drug-delivery, contrast agents for magnetic resonance imaging, wastewater treatment and feed additives [1,4-6]. Global MnO₂ NPs production can reach up to 1000 tons per year and is considered to be “mass production” [7]. Significantly, along with the extensive application of MnO₂ NPs, their potential effects on animals and human health have attracted increasing attention. Among various exposure routes to NPs, dietary exposure is recognized as one of the most crucial in humans [8,9], and aquatic organisms [10]. Experimental data suggest that MnO₂ NPs induced neuronal oxidative stress in PC12 cells and rats [11,12]. Exposure to high-concentrations of MnO₂ NPs also induced abnormal neurobehavior, damaged memory function in rats, caused significant histological alterations and Mn accumulation in rats [13,14]. Additionally, MnO₂ nanosheets induced mitochondrial toxicity in fish gill epithelial cells [15]. However,

although many studies have shown that MnO₂ NPs cause harmful biological responses in various organisms, the underlying mechanisms are largely unclear.

The liver is the major solid organ for the NPs accumulation [16,17]. It is also the central organ for lipid metabolism, which is crucial to maintain physiological functions of the organisms [17,18]. There is increasing evidence that exposure to metal nanoparticles can cause lipid metabolism disorders such as non-alcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD), which is characterized by excessive accumulation of lipid droplets (LDs) in hepatocytes [17,19]. To date, only few studies have demonstrated MnO₂ NPs-induced liver damage in rats and mice [14,20]. However, the underlying mechanisms remain largely unexplored. Studies demonstrated that oxidative stress disrupts hepatic lipid metabolism and induces lipotoxic disease, thereby initiating the development of NAFLD [17,18,21,22]. Furthermore, oxidative stress has been identified as the primary factor contributing to the cytotoxicity induced by MnO₂ NPs [23,24]. Our recent publication pointed out that MnO₂ NPs promote lipid uptake and lipogenesis and trigger oxidative stress in the intestine of yellow catfish [25], but the effects and exact mechanism is unclear in the liver tissues. Importantly, HSF1 has been demonstrated to be a sensor of redox homeostasis [22,26,27]. Under oxidative stress, Hsf1 translocates to the nucleus and binds to conserved heat shock-responsive DNA elements (HSEs) to upregulate transcription of heat shock proteins (HSPs); these serve as molecular chaperones to protect cells from stress [26]. Hsf1 can also regulate lipid metabolism [22,28,29]. During cellular stress, Hsf1 undergoes phosphorylation at serine 326 (S326), which is a critical posttranslational modification (PTM) for its transcriptional activation [30]. However, it is still unclear whether these responses are related to the regulation of MnO₂ NPs-induced hepatic lipid metabolism.

At elevated concentrations, MnO₂ NPs exhibit cytotoxicity mainly due to their reactivity with biological systems and their enhanced potentials for cellular uptake [24]. Their main target are mitochondria, which are highly dynamic and multifunctional organelles that play a critical role in keeping cellular functions [23,31]. Several studies have indicated that MnO₂ NPs induce oxidative stress and damage the mitochondrial structure and function [15,23,24,31]. Mitochondrial balance is maintained by two

interconnected processes, mitochondrial dynamics and mitophagy [32]. The removal of damaged mitochondria, known as mitophagy, is an evolutionarily conserved process that plays a crucial role in maintaining cellular homeostasis [33]. Mitophagy is primarily governed by two molecular pathways: a) the PINK1 (PTEN induced kinase 1)/PRKN (parkin RBR E3 ubiquitin protein ligase)-dependent mitophagy mediated by the ubiquitin proteasome system [33], and b) mitophagy receptors-mediated mitophagy, such as BCL2 and adenovirus E1B 19-kDa-interacting protein 3 (Bnip3), BNIP3-like (Bnip3l), FUN14 domain-containing protein 1 (Fundc1), FK506-binding protein 8 (Fkbp8), and Bcl2-like 13 (Bcl2l13) [34]. Bnip3 is highly expressed in the liver and directly interacts with LC3B to initiate the process of mitophagy [34]. Several studies have indicated that Bnip3-mediated mitophagy contributes to protection against liver injury and relief of hepatic lipid deposits [35,36]. Excessive ROS generation by metals or metal nanoparticles exposure leads to mitochondrial dysfunction and activation of Bnip3-dependent mitophagy [37,38]. However, the effects and underlying mechanisms of MnO₂ NPs on mitophagy have not been elucidated.

Fish have almost 30,000 species and are the biggest group of vertebrates in the world. Their metabolic reaction pathways and nutrient-sensing systems are evolutionarily conserved with mammals [18,39]. Yellow catfish *Pelteobagrus fulvidraco*, a freshwater economic fish widely farmed in China and other countries [40], is an excellent model for studying lipid metabolism since it has a lipid metabolism pattern similar to that of mammals and its complete genome sequence were published and available internationally [39-41]. Moreover, many studies have used yellow catfish as a model to analyze the mechanism and treatment of metabolic disorders [18,41-44], and have attracted wide attention by international researchers [45,46, 47]. Therefore, *P. fulvidraco* provides an excellent experimental model to identify regulatory mechanisms of lipid metabolism. Therefore, the aim of this study was to explore the mechanisms of MnO₂ NPs-induced changes of lipid metabolism in the liver of yellow catfish. Our study reveals an unprecedented significant regulatory role of mtROS-triggered Hsf1^{S326} phosphorylation in MnO₂ NPs-induced hepatic lipotoxicity and mitophagy. Importantly, we identified novel targets of Hsf1 mediating lipogenesis and

mitophagy, and correspondingly strengthened the role of Hsf1 as a regulator of hepatic lipid metabolism. Our findings provide new insights into the effects of metal oxides nanoparticles on hepatotoxicity in vertebrates.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Ethical standards

The experiments protocols for animal feeding and sampling, and cell culture followed the Huazhong Agricultural University (HZAU) ethical guidelines on the care and usage of laboratory animals and cells, and were authorized by the HZAU Ethic Committee.

2.2. MnO_2 NPs preparation

A stock solution of 20 mg/ml MnO_2 NPs ($\geq 99.5\%$ in purity, 50 ± 10 nm, Xiya Chemical Technology Co. Ltd., Jinan, China) was prepared by dispersing the nanoparticles in deionized water. The physico-chemical characteristics of MnO_2 NPs were described in our recent study [48].

2.3. Diets preparation, animal feeding and sampling

The approach to diet preparation was similar to that described in our recent study [49]. Three experimental diets were formulated with MnO_2 NPs (50 nm, $\geq 99.5\%$ of the purity, Xiya Chemical Technology Co. Ltd., Shandong, China) levels of 0 (control), 20 mg/kg MnO_2 NPs (low MnO_2 NPs), 80 mg/kg MnO_2 NPs (high MnO_2 NPs) (Supplementary Table 1). Final Mn contents in diets were measured using ICP-OES (Optima 8000DV; PerkinElmer, MA, USA), and the contents were 1.67, 13.63, and 50.37 mg/kg for the control, low MnO_2 NPs, and high MnO_2 NPs groups, respectively. Based on Xu et al. [49], dietary Mn requirement was 8.33-12.57 mg/kg diet for *P. fulvidraco* with MnO_2 NPs as Mn source.

The animal feeding protocols were described in our recent study [25, 49]. Briefly, a total of 225 uniformly sized yellow catfish (2.82 ± 0.01 g, mean \pm SEM) were equally assigned to nine tanks (300 L water volume), 25 fish each tank, and three replicate tanks per treatment. Fish were fed to satiation twice daily (08:30 and 16:30) for 8 weeks. During the experiment, the concentration of Mn in rearing water was detected twice per

week using the ICP-OES and the values were below detection limit ($<1 \mu\text{g/L}$).

Sampling was conducted after the 8-wk feeding experiment, and the detailed sampling methods are presented in Text S1.

2.4. Yellow catfish hepatocytes isolation, culture and treatments

The protocols for isolation and culture of yellow catfish hepatocytes were described in our recent studies [22,43]. The treatment concentrations and time for all *in vitro* experiments are presented in the figure legends.

2.5. Serum biochemical analysis

Serum aspartate aminotransferase (AST) and alanine aminotransferase (ALT) activities were determined by commercial kits (C010-2-1 and C009-2-1, Nanjing Jiancheng Bioengineering Institute, Nanjing, China).

2.6. Histological, histochemical and ultrastructural observation

The liver tissues were stained with hematoxylin–eosin (H&E) (G1120; Solarbio, Beijing, China) and oil red O (ORO) (G1260; Solarbio) for vacuoles and lipid droplets observation, respectively, and yellow catfish hepatocytes were stained with BODIPY493/503 (D3922; Thermo Fisher Scientific) for lipid droplets visualization, as described in our recent publications [17,22]. Ten areas were randomly examined from each sample to analyze the relative areas of liver vacuoles with the H&E staining and lipid droplets with the ORO staining, and quantified by using the Image J software. The BODIPY493/503 fluorescent intensity was quantified by CytoFLEX flow cytometry (Beckman Coulter, Miami, USA). The lipid droplet images were acquired by the instrument TCS SP8 LSCM (laser scanning confocal microscope) (Leica, Wetzlar, Germany). The experimental protocols for ultrastructural observation were described in our recent publications [17,22].

2.7. Liver mitochondrial isolation

Mitochondria were isolated from fresh livers as previously reported [41,48]. The purified mitochondria were used to analyze protein expression and Mn content.

2.8. Analysis of cell viability, non-esterified free fatty acids (NEFAs), triglycerides (TGs) and Mn content

CCK-8 kit (C0037, Beyotime, Beijing, China) was used to evaluate the cell

viability as reported by Zhao et al. [22]. The NEFAs, TG and protein concentration were measured using the commercial kits (A042-1-1, A110-1-1 and A045-2-2, Nanjing Jiancheng Corp., Nanjing, China). Mn contents in the experimental diets, liver tissues and isolated mitochondria were measured by the instrument ICP-OES (Optima 8000, PerkinElmer, Waltham, MA, USA) according to previous publications [25,48].

2.9. Lactate dehydrogenase leakage assay

LDH leakage in the medium was determined using the LDH assay kit (C0016, Beyotime) based on the manufacturer's instructions.

2.10. Analysis of lipolytic enzyme activity and oxidative stress indicators

The activity of lipolytic enzyme Cpt1 was measured based upon Zhao et al. [22]. Several markers of oxidative stress, such as, Sod2 and Cat activity, MDA and ATP content, the ratio of GSH/GSSG, mitochondria-derived $O_2^{\bullet-}$ content, and mitochondrial membrane potential (MMP) were determined, and the detailed methods are presented in Text S2.

2.11. Quantification of mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA) copy number

mtDNA copy number was quantified by real time quantitative PCR (qPCR) as reported previously [50]. Briefly, DNA was extracted from liver and hepatocytes by Tissue DNA Kit (D3396, OMEGA Bio-tek, Norcross, GA, USA), and qPCR for *atp8* and *eef1a* representing mitochondrial and nuclear DNA genes was conducted. The mtDNA level was calculated relative to nuclear DNA. The mtDNA primers are listed in Supplementary Table 2.

2.12. RNA extraction and qPCR analysis

RNA isolation and qPCR analysis were carried out according to protocols in [22,25], which are provided in Text S3. The gene-specific primers are presented in Supplementary Table 2.

2.13. RNA interference

The yellow catfish *hsf1* small interfering RNA (siRNA) and negative control (NC) were obtained from GenePharma (Shanghai, China). The procedure for siRNA transfection into primary hepatocytes is given in details in Text S4. The sequences of siRNA are provided in Supplementary Table 2.

2.14. Plasmid construction and transient transfection

The HEK 293T cells were used to explore effect of Hsf1 on transcriptional activity of downstream promoters. The expression plasmid for pcDNA3.1-HA-Hsf1 was constructed and transfected based on our methods [22,29], which are presented in Text S5. The primer sequences are given in Supplementary Table 2.

2.15. Western blotting

Western blotting was used to determine the expression levels of several proteins, such as Pparg, Dgat1, Plin2, p-Hsf1^{S326}, Hsf1, Mfn2, Drp1, Atg7, P62, Lc3b, Parkin, Bnip3, and Tom20 as described in previous studies [18,29]. The detailed methods are presented in Text S6.

2.16. Immunofluorescence

Immunofluorescence was performed according to previous publications [18,37], and detailed methods are provided in Text S7.

2.17. Dual-luciferase reporter test

Luciferase activity tests were performed according to our studies [18,22], and the details can be found in Text S8.

2.18. Electrophoretic mobility shift assay (EMSA)

EMSA was used to investigate the direct binding site of Hsf1 in the *bnip3*, *plin2* and *dgat1* promoters according to the protocols in our studies [22,29]. The detailed protocols are presented in Text S9. All the oligonucleotide sequences are given in Supplementary Table 2.

2.19. Chromatin immunoprecipitation (ChIP) assay

ChIP assay was carried out according to previously described methods [43,51], and the detailed methods are provided in Text S10. All primers used for ChIP-qPCR are shown in Supplementary Table 2.

2.20. Statistical analysis

The software SPSS 19.0 was used for the statistical analysis. All these data are presented as means \pm SEM. Before statistical analysis, all the data were assessed for normality using a Kolmogorov–Smirnov test, and Bartlett's test was used to examine the homogeneity of the variances. One-way ANOVA and post hoc Duncan's multiple

range test were conducted to examine the statistical significance among the three groups. Student's *t*-test (unpaired, two-tailed) was used to analyze the difference between two treatments. Difference was thought significant when $P < 0.05$.

3. Results

3.1. In vivo study

3.1.1. *MnO₂ NPs increase Mn content and affect Mn metabolism in the liver*

The Mn content of liver and hepatic mitochondria increased with dietary MnO₂ NPs levels (Supplementary Fig. 1A and B). Compared with the control and low MnO₂ NPs groups, high MnO₂ NPs increased the *dmt1*, *fpn1* and *zip8* mRNA expression, which encode metal transporters (Supplementary Fig. 1C). Dietary MnO₂ NPs reduced the *zip14* and *cav1* mRNA levels (Supplementary Fig. 1C and D). Besides, compared with control, high MnO₂ NPs upregulated mRNA levels of endocytosis-related genes (*dnm1* and *cltc*) and downregulated mRNA abundances of *dnm3* (Supplementary Fig. 1D).

3.1.2 *Effects of dietary MnO₂ NPs levels on the liver health of yellow catfish*

High dietary MnO₂ NPs significantly increased the serum AST and ALT activities (Supplementary Fig. 2A and B), up-regulated the mRNA levels of inflammation-related genes (*il1 β* and *tnfa*) and down-regulated the mRNA expression of *il10* (Supplementary Fig. 2C), but did not affect the *il6* and *il8* mRNA levels (Supplementary Fig. 2C), compared to other two groups. Additionally, high dietary MnO₂ NPs significantly increased the mRNA level of apoptosis-related genes (*bax*, *casp3*, and *cycs*) and decreased mRNA level of *bcl2* (Supplementary Fig. 2D). Overall, these results suggest that high dietary MnO₂ NPs damaged liver health of yellow catfish.

3.1.3. *MnO₂ NPs increase hepatic lipid content and lipogenesis, but reduce lipolysis and fatty acid oxidation*

The liver was enlarged and seemed white in yellow catfish fed with high MnO₂ NPs (Fig. 1A). Hepatic H&E and ORO staining showed that the amount of cytoplasmic vacuolation and lipid droplets increased with dietary MnO₂ NPs addition (Fig. 1B and C). In line with these data, the hepatic TGs content in the high MnO₂ group was also

higher than those in the other two groups (Fig. 1D). The quantification of cytoplasmic vacuolations and lipid droplets further confirmed these results (Fig. 1E and F).

Compared with the control and low MnO₂ NPs groups, high dietary MnO₂ NPs up-regulated the *6pgd*, *fas*, *plin2* and *dgat1* mRNA (lipogenic genes) and down-regulated mRNA expression of *cpt1* and *atgl* (lipolytic genes) (Supplementary Fig. 3A). Compared with the control, high dietary MnO₂ NPs significantly increased the *acca*, *srebplc* and *pparg* mRNA levels (Supplementary Fig. 3A). Cpt1 activity was significantly lower for fish fed high MnO₂ NPs than those in the control and low MnO₂ NPs groups (Supplementary Fig. 3B). Additionally, high dietary MnO₂ NPs increased the protein levels of Pparg and Dgat1 (Supplementary Fig. 3C and D). The Plin2 protein levels in the high MnO₂ NPs group were higher compared to the control but did not differ from the low MnO₂ NPs group (Supplementary Fig. 3C and D). Additionally, high dietary MnO₂ NPs markedly down-regulated the expression of fatty acid oxidation-related genes (*acad8*, *acads*, *echsl*, and *eci*), but did not affect abundance of *acadl*, *acadsb*, and *hadha1* mRNAs (Supplementary Fig. 3E).

3.1.4. MnO₂ NPs induce mitochondrial dysregulation and oxidative stress, increase Hsf1^{S326} phosphorylation and promote Hsf1 nuclear translocation in the liver

Some studies have shown that NPs-induced lipid metabolism disorders are related to mitochondrial dysfunction [10,17]. Next, we investigated the effects of dietary MnO₂ NPs on hepatic mitochondrial function and antioxidant capacity of yellow catfish. High dietary MnO₂ NPs significantly decreased hepatic mtDNA copy number and ATP content compared to the control and low MnO₂ NPs groups (Fig. 2A-C). Sod2 activity was the highest in the low MnO₂ NPs group and lowest in the high MnO₂ NPs group (Fig. 2D). The Cat activity decreased, while MDA content increased remarkably in the high MnO₂ NPs group compared to the other two groups (Fig. 2E and F). Moreover, the GSH to GSSG ratio declined with increasing MnO₂ NPs levels (Fig. 2G). High MnO₂ NPs decreased the mRNA abundance of antioxidant related genes (*sod2*, *cat*, *gpx4*, *nrf2*) and augmented the *keap1* mRNA levels (Fig. 2H). The HSPs serve as crucial effectors of defensive responses against oxidative stress [26]. Compared to the control, high MnO₂ NPs up-regulated the mRNA expression of *hspbp1*, *hsp90a* and *hsf1* (Fig.

2H).

Dayalan Naidu et al. suggested that the phosphorylation of HSF1^{S303/307} inhibits Hsf1 transcriptional activity while phosphorylation of Hsf1^{S326} contributes to Hsf1 activation [52]. Therefore, the phosphorylation of Hsf1^{S326} was investigated. Compared with control and MnO₂ NPs groups, high MnO₂ NPs increased the protein abundance of p-Hsf1^{S326} and N-Hsf1 (Fig. 2I and J). Furthermore, high MnO₂ NPs increased total Hsf1 protein levels (Fig. 2I and J). Immunofluorescence analysis confirmed that MnO₂ NPs intake increased the expression and abundance of Hsf1 and promoted its nuclear translocation (Fig. 2K and L). Overall, these results indicated that MnO₂ NPs induced oxidative stress, increased Hsf1^{S326} phosphorylation and promoted nuclear translocation of Hsf1.

3.1.5. MnO₂ NPs exacerbate hepatic mitochondrial fission and inhibit mitochondrial fusion

Mitochondrial fusion and fission are crucial for maintaining mitochondrial function [53]. Next, the mitochondrial dynamics-related genes and proteins expression were determined. Compared with control and low MnO₂ NPs groups, high MnO₂ NPs increased the mRNA levels of *drp1* and *fis1* (mitochondrial fission-related genes), and reduced the expression of *pgc1a* (mitochondrial biogenesis-related transcription factor) (Supplementary Fig. 4A), and *mfn2* (mitochondrial fusion-related gene) (Supplementary Fig. 4A). In addition, high dietary MnO₂ NPs increased the Drp1 and reduced the Mfn2 protein levels (Supplementary Fig. 4B and C). These results indicated that high dietary MnO₂ NPs exacerbate hepatic mitochondrial fission and inhibit mitochondrial fusion.

3.1.6. MnO₂ NPs activate hepatic mitophagy

Mitophagy is an important mitochondrial quality control mechanism that removes damaged mitochondria [17,32,33]. Therefore, we further explored the effects of dietary MnO₂ NPs on the process of mitophagy in the liver of yellow catfish. TEM images showed that dietary MnO₂ NPs addition increased the swelling and vesiculation of the mitochondria (Fig. 3A). The mRNA expression of mitophagy receptors-related genes (*bnip3*, *bnip3la*, and *march5*) and autophagy related genes (*ULK1*, *beclin1*, *ctsb*, and *tfEB*)

were remarkably induced in the high MnO₂ NPs group (Fig. 3B), but the mRNA levels of *parkin* and *pink1* (ubiquitin-mediated mitophagy-related genes) were not significantly affected. The Atg7 and Bnip3 protein abundances were notably higher, and P62 protein levels were lower in the high MnO₂ NPs group than those in other two groups (Fig. 3C and D). The Lc3bII protein levels were markedly higher, and the Tom20 protein levels lower in the high MnO₂ NPs group (Fig. 3C and D). In addition, high MnO₂ NPs notably increased Lc3bII and Bnip3 protein levels in the mitochondrial fraction compared to control (Fig. 3C and E). Immunofluorescence results revealed that high MnO₂ NPs increased the Bnip3 fluorescence intensity and the co-localization of Lc3 and Tom20, Bnip3 and Lc3 (Supplementary Fig. 5A-F). Overall, these results suggest that dietary MnO₂ NPs activate hepatic mitophagy.

3.2. *In vitro* Study

3.2.1. MnO₂ NPs increase TGs content in hepatocytes

To further elucidate the mechanisms of MnO₂ NPs-induced lipotoxicity and mitophagy, several *in vitro* experiments were performed on yellow catfish hepatocytes. CCK8 assay showed that administration of 0–20 µg/ml of MnO₂ NPs did not remarkably affect the viability of yellow catfish hepatocytes (Supplementary Fig. 6A). The IC₅₀ of MnO₂ NPs on primary hepatocytes was 44.45 µg/ml (Supplementary Fig. 6B). Meanwhile, 0–20 µg/ml MnO₂ NPs increased TGs content in a concentration-dependent manner (Supplementary Fig. 6C), as also confirmed by BODIPY493/503 staining analysis (Supplementary Fig. 6D-F). Therefore, we chose 20 µg/ml MnO₂ NPs as the dose for our *in vitro* experiments.

3.2.2. MnO₂ NPs trigger *Pink1/parkin*-independent mitophagy in hepatocytes

Next, we investigated the effect of MnO₂ NPs on mitophagy in yellow catfish hepatocytes. The results showed that 20 µg/ml MnO₂ NPs obviously upregulated the *bnip3*, *ulk1*, *lc3b* and *tfeb* mRNA levels compared with the control and 10 µg/ml MnO₂ NPs groups (Fig. 4A), but there was no notable difference in the mRNA levels of *parkin*, *pink1*, *bnip3la*, *fundc1*, and *beclin1* among the three groups (Fig. 4A). The Bnip3 and Lc3bII protein levels were higher, and the protein levels of Tom20 and P62 were lower in the 20 µg/ml MnO₂ NPs versus the other groups (Fig. 4B and C). TEM analysis of

hepatocytes showed that a dose of 20 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ MnO_2 NPs obviously increased the size and number of lipid droplets, and also the vacuoles enclosing mitochondria (red arrow) (Fig. 4D). Importantly, MnO_2 NPs were absorbed through endocytosis (yellow arrow) and deposited in the mitochondria (blue arrow) of hepatocytes (Fig. 4D). Immunofluorescence results showed that MnO_2 NPs significantly increased the colocalization of Bnip3 and Lc3, and Tom20 and Lc3 (Fig. 4E and F). Taken together, in agreement with our *in vivo* study, the MnO_2 NPs treatment activated Pink1/Parkin-independent mitophagy in primary hepatocytes.

3.2.3. Mitochondrial ROS (mtROS) mediates MnO_2 NPs-induced mitochondrial dysfunction and lipotoxicity in hepatocytes

To demonstrate the correlation between mitochondrial oxidative stress and lipotoxicity induced by MnO_2 NPs, Mito-TEMPO was used to eliminate mitochondrial ROS. Mito-TEMPO pre-incubation alleviated MnO_2 NPs-induced cytotoxicity and LDH leakage (Supplementary Fig. 7A and B). Mito-TEMPO pre-incubation mitigated the MnO_2 NPs-induced increase in mitochondrial $\text{O}_2^{\cdot-}$ content as confirmed by MitoSOX staining (Supplementary Fig. 8A, B and 9A). Mito-TEMPO treatment also revoked the MnO_2 NPs-induced reduction in Cat and Sod2 activities, ATP content, and mitigated MnO_2 NPs-induced increase of MDA content (Supplementary Fig. 8C-F). Moreover, Mito-TEMPO pretreatment alleviated MnO_2 NPs-induced decrease in mtDNA copy number (Supplementary Fig. 8G and H). MnO_2 NPs increased NEFA content, and this effect was reversed by Mito-TEMPO pre-incubation (Supplementary Fig. 8I). JC-1 and MitoTracker Deep Red staining revealed that MnO_2 NPs incubation reduced mitochondrial membrane potential (MMP), while Mito-TEMPO pre-treatment obviously abolished these effects (Supplementary Fig. 8J, K, L and 9B). In addition, Mito-TEMPO pretreatment remarkably alleviated MnO_2 NPs-induced increase in TGs content and the fluorescence intensity of BODIPY493/503 (Supplementary Fig. 10A-D), and relieved the Mn-induced reduction in Cpt 1 activity (Supplementary Fig. 10E). Furthermore, MnO_2 NPs incubation up-regulated the expression of lipogenic genes (*fas*, *acca*, *plin2*, *dgat1*, *pparg*, and *srebp1c*), and down-regulated the expression of lipolytic genes (*cpt1* and *ppara*), while these effects were abolished by Mito-TEMPO

pretreatment (Supplementary Fig. 10F). Overall, these findings suggest that mtROS mediated MnO₂ NPs-induced mitochondrial dysfunction and lipotoxicity in the primary hepatocytes of yellow catfish.

3.2.4. Mito-TEMPO incubation inhibits MnO₂ NPs-activated mitophagy in hepatocytes

We subsequently examined whether mitochondrial oxidative stress contributes to MnO₂ NPs-induced mitophagy in hepatocytes. The mRNA expressions of *bnip3*, *atg7*, *lc3b* and *tfeb* were significantly up-regulated by MnO₂ NPs treatment, while Mito-TEMPO pre-incubation abolished these changes (Supplementary Fig. 11A). Mito-TEMPO pre-incubation markedly blunted MnO₂ NPs-induced increase in protein levels of Bnip3 and Lc3bII, and the decrease in protein level of Tom20 and P62 (Supplementary Fig. 11B and C). Immunofluorescence demonstrated that the colocalization of Lc3 and Bnip3 was apparently increased by MnO₂ NPs, while Mito-TEMPO pre-incubation attenuated this effect (Supplementary Fig. 11D and E). These results suggest an involvement of mtROS in MnO₂ NPs-induced mitophagy.

3.2.5. Mitochondrial oxidative stress is involved in MnO₂ NPs-induced phosphorylation at S326 and nuclear translocation of Hsf1 in hepatocytes

Our *in vivo* study showed that MnO₂ NPs triggered phosphorylation of Hsf1 at S326 and promoted its nuclear translocation. Meanwhile, our previous study also suggested that Mn overload-induced oxidative stress contributes to induction of Hsf1 expression [22]. Thus, we further investigated whether the mtROS was directly involved in Hsf1^{S326} phosphorylation and nuclear translocation. Mito-TEMPO alleviated MnO₂ NPs-induced increase in the mRNA expression of *hsf1*, and the protein levels of p-Hsf1^{S326} and nuclear Hsf1 (Supplementary Fig. 12A and B). Immunofluorescence confirmed that MnO₂ NPs increased Hsf1 abundance, and promoted Hsf1 nuclear translocation, while these responses were attenuated by Mito-TEMPO pre-treatment (Supplementary Fig. 12C). To further elucidate the roles of MnO₂ NPs themselves and Mn²⁺ released from MnO₂ NPs on Hsf1 nuclear translocation, we determined the concentration of Mn²⁺ dissociated from MnO₂ NPs, as shown in Supplementary Table 3. Then, the MnO₂ NPs and MnCl₂ were used to incubate hepatocytes. Compared with the control, MnO₂ NPs increased the expression of N-Hsf1, while MnCl₂ had no effect

on the expression of N-Hsf1 (Supplementary Fig. 13A and B). Furthermore, immunofluorescence also confirmed these results (Supplementary Fig. 13C). Thus, MnO₂ NPs-induced nuclear translocation of Hsf1 depend on the properties of MnO₂ NPs themselves. *3.2.6. Hsf1 mediates MnO₂ NPs-induced mitophagy through transcriptional activation of bnip3 in hepatocytes*

Previous studies pointed out that, phosphorylation of Hsf1 at S326 strongly activates its transcriptional activity by promoting Hsf1 translocation into the nucleus for binding to conserved HSEs of its target gene promoters [54-56]. Thus, we explored the role of Hsf1 in regulating MnO₂ NPs-induced mitophagy by using the small interference RNA *si-hsf1*. Pretreatment with the *si-hsf1* eliminated the MnO₂ NPs-induced elevation in mRNA expression of *bnip3*, *atg7*, *lc3b*, and *tfel* (Fig. 5A), and the protein levels of Bnip3 and Lc3b, and reversed the MnO₂ NPs-induced decrease in Tom20 and P62 protein abundance (Fig. 5B and C). Besides, *si-hsf1* pre-incubation also abolished the increase in co-localization of Lc3 and Bnip3 induced by MnO₂ NPs (Fig. 5D and E). These data suggest that activation of Hsf1 is essential for MnO₂ NPs-induced mitophagy.

We then explored the mechanism of Hsf1 mediating MnO₂ NPs-induced mitophagy by analyzing the promoter of the mitophagy-related gene *bnip3*. We identified a conservative HSE sequence (-nGAAn-) on the *bnip3* promoter in yellow catfish, which was positioned between -922 and -893 bp (Fig. 6A). MnO₂ NPs incubation significantly increased reporter luciferase activity of the *bnip3* promoter, and this effect was abolished by HSE mutation (Fig. 6B). Meanwhile, Hsf1 overexpression increased luciferase activity of the *bnip3* promoter, and this effect was reversed by HSE mutation (Fig. 6C and D). EMSA and chIP were performed to investigate whether Hsf1 can directly bind to the *bnip3* promoter (Fig. 6E-G). Remarkably, EMSA showed that the HSE sequences of the *bnip3* promoter could bind to the nuclear extract, and the interaction was hindered by unlabeled competitor wild type but not mutant probes (Fig. 6E). Besides, the binding activity of HSE to the nuclear extract was enhanced upon MnO₂ NPs incubation (Fig. 6E, lane 5). Importantly, a ChIP assay also confirmed that Hsf1 interacted with the *bnip3* promoter, and MnO₂ NPs treatment increased the Hsf1

binding (Fig. 6F and G). Thus, we demonstrate that Hsf1 mediates MnO₂ NPs-induced mitophagy through transcriptional activation of *bnip3* in hepatocytes.

3.2.7. Hsf1 mediates MnO₂ NPs-induced lipotoxicity through transcriptional activation of *plin2* and *dgat1* in hepatocytes

Next, we investigated the role of oxidative stress-mediated Hsf1 activation in regulating MnO₂ NPs-induced lipotoxicity. We found that si-*hsf1* alleviated the MnO₂ NPs-induced increase in TGs content and the BODIPY493/503 fluorescence intensity (Fig. 7A-D). Moreover, si-*hsf1* pretreatment down-regulated the MnO₂ NPs-induced elevation of the mRNA and protein levels of Dgat1 and Plin2 (Fig. 7E-G). We then attempted to clarify the mechanism by which Hsf1 mediates MnO₂ NPs-induced lipotoxicity through HSE. By analyzing the promoters of *plin2* and *dgat1* in yellow catfish, we found that HSE sites were located at -755 to -725 bp of *plin2* and -868 to -838 bp and -1391 to -1361 bp sites of *dgat1* promoter (Fig. 8A and B). Furthermore, MnO₂ NPs treatment significantly enhanced the luciferase activities of *plin2* and *dgat1* promoters, and these observations were reversed by HSE mutation on *plin2* and HSE mutation site1 on *dgat1* (Fig. 8C and D). Meanwhile, Hsf1 overexpression also increased the luciferase activities of *plin2* and *dgat1* promoters, and these changes were abolished by HSE mutation on *plin2* and HSE mutation site1 on *dgat1* (Fig. 8E and F). EMSA indicated that the putative HSE sequences of the *plin2* and *dgat1* promoters could bind to the nuclear extract, and the interaction was disrupted by unlabeled wild type but not mutant probes (Fig. 8G and H). Thus, the -755 to -725 bp site of *plin2* and -868 to -838 bp site of *dgat1* promoter region could directly interact with Hsf1. Importantly, the binding activity of HSE to nuclear extracts was enhanced upon MnO₂ NPs incubation (Fig. 8G and H, lane 5). A ChIP experiment also confirmed that Hsf1 could bind to the -755 to -725 bp site of *plin2* and -868 to -838 bp site of *dgat1* promoters, and MnO₂ NPs treatment enhanced the binding activity of Hsf1 (Fig. 8I-K). Overall, these findings reveal that Hsf1 promotes MnO₂ NPs-induced lipotoxicity through transcriptional activation of *plin2* and *dgat1*.

4. Discussion

Despite the wide use of MnO₂ NPs in biology and biomedicine, little is known about whether and how they affected animal or cellular metabolism after long-term exposure. Here, we investigated the potential mechanisms by which dietary MnO₂ NPs affect hepatic lipid metabolism. Our main innovative findings are: (1) high dietary MnO₂ NPs increase hepatic and mitochondrial Mn levels, hepatic lipid content and lipogenesis, and concomitantly decrease hepatic lipolysis and fatty acid β -oxidation; (2) excessive MnO₂ NPs intake induces hepatic mitochondrial oxidative stress, disrupts mitochondrial dynamics and activates mitophagy; (3) mtROS-promoted Hsf1^{S326} phosphorylation mediated MnO₂ NPs-induced hepatic lipotoxicity and mitophagy; (4) MnO₂ NPs-induced lipotoxicity involves mtROS-induced Hsf1^{S326} phosphorylation and Hsf1 nuclear translocation for enhanced DNA binding to the *plin2/dgat1* promoters; (5) MnO₂ NPs-induced mitophagy occurs via mtROS-induced Hsf1^{S326} phosphorylation and Hsf1 nuclear translocation and enhanced DNA binding to the *bnip3* promoter. Overall, for the first time, these findings reveal novel mechanism by which mtROS-mediated mitochondrial dysfunction and Hsf1^{S326} phosphorylation contribute to MnO₂ NPs-induced hepatic lipotoxic disease and mitophagy. Our data provide new insights into the effects of metal oxides nanoparticles on physiological responses and metabolism in vertebrates.

The liver is the main site for Mn accumulation and metabolism. Our study validates that dietary intake of MnO₂ NPs increase hepatic Mn content, as reported by others [14]. Previous work showed that metal oxide nanoparticles are absorbed via dissolved ions and endocytosis routes in vertebrates [17,25]. Hepatic Mn metabolism is modulated by metal transporters (importers and exporters) [57,58]. Zip8 is located on the apical membrane of hepatocytes and is necessary for maintaining liver Mn homeostasis [59]. Zip14 is expressed at high levels in the liver and can import Mn [60]. Divalent metal transporter 1 (Dmt1) is the plasma membrane protein and the primary Mn²⁺ importer for cellular Mn uptake [61]. Ferroportin 1 (Fpn1) is involved in the regulation of Mn efflux [62]. Studies showed that *ZIP8* mRNA expression was notably induced by Mn overload in HeLa cells [63]. Exposure to high Mn decreased Zip14 levels which help maintain their integrity by reducing Mn uptake [64]. We recently

reported that dietary MnO₂ NPs increase the *zip8* and *dmt1* mRNA expression in the yellow catfish intestine [25]. In the present study, the higher expression of endocytosis-relevant genes (*dnm*, *cltc* and *eps15*) in the high MnO₂ NPs group indicates that MnO₂ NPs are also internalized via endocytosis, as shown in other studies [10,65]. Thus, high dietary MnO₂ NPs increase hepatic Mn uptake and accumulation partially via endocytosis of nanoparticles.

The liver also performs crucial functions in metabolism and detoxification, which is affected by toxicant exposure [17,22]. Several studies have reported hepatotoxicity induced by exposure to metal oxide nanoparticles [17,66]. Serum AST and ALT activities, hepatic inflammation and apoptosis are the key indicators for assessing hepatotoxicity [19,39,67]. Several studies have indicated that MnO₂ NPs exposure increased serum AST activity in mice and rats [14,20]. Our study revealed that high dietary MnO₂ NPs significantly increased the activities of serum AST and ALT, suggesting excessive MnO₂ NPs caused liver injury in yellow catfish.

Inflammation responses are regulated by both pro-inflammatory (Il6, Il8, Il1 β and Tnf α) and anti-inflammatory factors Il10 [25,39]. Our recent study indicated that MnO₂ NPs induced inflammation responses in liver of yellow catfish compared to MnSO₄ [68]. Here, we found that high dietary MnO₂ NPs significantly increased the mRNA expression of pro-inflammatory factors (*il1 β* and *tnfa*) and decreased mRNA expression of anti-inflammatory factor (*il10*), suggesting that MnO₂ NPs promoted hepatic inflammation.

Hepatic apoptosis is also regarded as a prominent pathological characteristic in the majority of liver injury [69]. In present study, high dietary MnO₂ NPs increased the mRNA expressions of pro-apoptotic genes *bax*, *casp3* and *cycs* and decreased anti-apoptotic gene *bcl-2*. Other study also reported MnO₂ NPs exposure induced apoptosis in MCF-7 and HT1080 cells [24]. Our recent study also showed that MnO₂ NPs induced hepatic apoptosis of yellow catfish compared to MnSO₄ [68]. The aforementioned evidence indicates that an excess of MnO₂ NPs triggers inflammatory response and apoptosis, leading to liver injury and hepatotoxicity.

Disruption of hepatic lipid homeostasis is another important factor contributing to

hepatotoxicity, which is mainly manifested in NAFLD [17,18]. NAFLD is a chronic liver disorder observed in vertebrates, characterized by excessive lipid accumulation in hepatocytes [18]. Hepatic lipid accumulation leads to lipotoxicity, a hallmark of NAFLD [17]. Our results show that high dietary MnO₂ NPs increased hepatic lipid accumulation and lipogenesis, and decreased lipolysis. To our knowledge, this is the inaugural study on the impact of MnO₂ NPs on hepatic lipid metabolism. The diacylglycerol O-acyltransferase 1 (*Dgat1*) and PPAR γ play important functions for triglyceride synthesis, and adipose triglyceride lipase (*Atgl*) is responsible for the hydrolysis of triglycerides [70]. *Plin2* is a cytosolic protein predominantly expressed in the liver and associated with the NAFLD development [70]. Importantly, *Plin2* coats the lipid droplets membrane and reduces the exposure of adipose triglyceride lipase (*Atgl*) to lipid droplets, thereby preventing lipolysis [70]. Our study pointed out that high dietary MnO₂ NPs significantly upregulated the mRNA and protein expression of *Dgat1*, *Pparg* and *Plin2*, and downregulated *atgl* mRNA levels, further supporting that high dietary MnO₂ NPs induce hepatic lipotoxicity through up-regulation of lipogenesis and down-regulation of lipolysis.

The dissection of the mechanism underlying MnO₂ NPs-induced hepatic lipotoxicity is crucial for exploiting potential targets in NAFLD treatment. Mitochondrial oxidative stress was considered one of the molecular mechanisms involved in lipotoxicity induced by nanoparticles [17]. Our study indicated that high dietary MnO₂ NPs compromise mitochondria function and induce oxidative stress, in agreement with other studies [13,24,31]. *Sod2* and CAT are crucial enzymes responsible for mediating antioxidant responses [18,22], and elevated MDA content served as an indicator of cellular damage in animals exposed to nanoparticles [17]. Reduced mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA) copy number and ATP content are biomarkers of oxidative stress [42], which disrupts mitochondrial function and decreases the MMP [22]. Our results show that high MnO₂ NPs decrease mtDNA copy number, ATP content *Sod2* and *Cat* activities, and decrease MMP, in agreement with other studies [23,24]. A large flux of mitochondrial-derived O₂^{•-} and mitochondrial dysfunction result in oxidative stress [22]. There is also significant evidence that mtROS induce lipid accumulation [17,22]. Here, Mito-TEMPO pre-incubation abrogated MnO₂ NPs-

induced oxidative stress, mitochondrial dysfunction and lipotoxicity, further supporting that mtROS mediated the MnO₂ NPs-induced mitochondrial dysfunction and lipotoxicity. Thus, our study reveals that MnO₂ NPs increase mitochondrial-derived O₂⁻ production and cause mitochondrial dysfunction, and accordingly induce hepatic lipid accumulation and lipotoxicity.

Mitochondria are highly dynamic organelles that play a critical role in maintaining cellular functions and are the main target of MnO₂ NPs-induced cytotoxicity [23,24]. The balance of mitochondria is maintained by two interconnected processes, mitochondrial dynamics and mitophagy [32]. Several studies have shown that oxidative stress enhances mitochondrial fission, inhibits fusion, and activates mitophagy [17,32,33]. In our study, high MnO₂ NPs increased mitochondrial fission and inhibited mitochondrial fusion. Alterations in mitochondrial dynamics are also involved in the pathogenesis of liver diseases [71]. Palma et al. suggested that the mitochondrial fission pathway is hyperactivated in NAFLD [71]. Therefore, mitochondrial fission and fusion could serve as a quality control mechanism, whereby normal mitochondria are retained through fusion and poor-quality mitochondria are removed through fission. In addition, mitophagy, an evolutionarily conserved process that plays a vital role in preserving cellular homeostasis, offers another quality control mechanism for removing damaged mitochondria [33]. Mitophagy is primarily governed by two molecular pathways: one is the PINK1 (PTEN induced kinase 1)/PRKN (parkin RBR E3 ubiquitin protein ligase)-dependent mitophagy mediated by the ubiquitin proteasome system [33], and another is receptor-mediated mitophagy, involving mitophagy receptors such as Bnip3, Nix, Fundc1, Fkbp8, and Bcl2l13 [34]. Bnip3 is highly expressed in the liver and initiates the process of mitophagy by directly interacting with LC3B [34]. Several studies have indicated that the activation of mitophagy is a protective mechanism to prevent liver injury and attenuate hepatic lipid accumulation [35,36]. Therefore, the activation of mitophagy in our study may act as a protective mechanism to attenuate lipid deposition induced by high MnO₂ NPs [17]. Several studies showed that metal- or metal nanoparticles-induced oxidative stress leads to mitochondrial damage and activation of Bnip3-dependent mitophagy [37,38]. Our study indicates that MnO₂ NPs

significantly upregulate the mRNA and protein expression of *bnip3* and activate mitophagy, and these responses are antagonized by Mito-TEMPO pre-treatment. Thus, our study reveals a novel mechanism whereby MnO₂ NPs activate mitophagy through oxidative stress, which may be a protective mechanism against hepatic lipid accumulation and help maintenance of mitochondrial homeostasis.

We further explored the mechanism by which MnO₂ NPs-induced oxidative stress causes lipid accumulation and mitophagy. Several studies have shown that Hsf1 acts as a sensor of redox homeostasis [22,26,27]. Under oxidative stress, Hsf1 nuclear translocation binds to conserved HSEs to upregulate transcription of HSPs, which serve as molecular chaperones to protect cells from oxidative stress and various diseases [26]. Other previous studies also indicated that Hsf1 can regulate lipid metabolism and mitophagy [28,29]. For example, Zhang et al. suggested that the activation of Hsf1 by oxidative stress exacerbated hepatic lipid accumulation [29]. Zhao et al. [72] indicated that Hsf1 regulates mitophagy by binding to HSP60. However, it remains unclear whether Hsf1 directly regulates mitophagy and lipid deposition. Here, we found that the regions of *dgat1*, *plin2* and *bnip3* promoters possess Hsf1 binding sites (HSEs), and that MnO₂ NPs significantly enhance the binding activities of Hsf1 to the *dgat1*, *plin2* and *bnip3* promoters. Recently, we reported that Hsf1 targeted *pparg* and mediated the oxidative stress-induced hepatic lipid accumulation after Mn incubation [22], suggesting that Hsf1 linked oxidative stress with MnO₂ NPs-induced lipotoxicity. These data indicated that MnO₂ NPs promote hepatic lipid accumulation and activate mitophagy by inducing Hsf1. Moreover, we found that Hsf1 knockdown abolished the MnO₂ NPs-induced lipotoxicity and mitophagy in hepatocytes, further confirming the central role of Hsf1 in MnO₂ NPs-induced lipotoxicity and mitophagy. In addition, a previous study indicated that oxidative stress could induce HSR by promoting Hsf1 phosphorylation, thereby enhancing DNA binding activity [26]. Hsf1 phosphorylation occurs under cellular stresses, and its phosphorylation at S326 is vital for transcriptional activation [30]. We show that the increase in Hsf1^{S326} phosphorylation induced by MnO₂ NPs can be reversed by Mito-TEMPO pretreatment. However, further studies are needed to elucidate the specific kinase that mediates Hsf1^{S326} phosphorylation

following MnO₂ NPs treatment. Taken together, our data reveal that phosphorylation of Hsf1^{S326} acts as a hub between oxidative stress and lipid accumulation as well as mitophagy. Considering that the forms of Mn (MnO₂ NPs and Mn²⁺) have differential effects on lipid metabolism in vertebrates [25,48,68], it is necessary to construct different forms of Mn models to explore their differential effects and advantages in future studies.

5. Conclusions

In conclusion, we propose a model for the mechanism of MnO₂ NPs inducing hepatic lipotoxic disease and mitophagy (Supplementary Fig. 14). Dietary MnO₂ NPs induce Mn and lipid accumulation and activate oxidative stress and mitophagy in the liver. The scavenging of mtROS alleviates the MnO₂ NPs-induced lipotoxic disease and mitophagy, while mtROS drive the progression of Bnip3-mediated mitophagy. Importantly, we found, for the first time, that MnO₂ NPs enhance the Hsf1 binding ability to the *dgat1*, *plin2* and *bnip3* promoters, and accordingly increase lipogenesis and activate mitophagy, respectively. Mechanistically, MnO₂ NPs promote lipotoxicity and mitophagy through mtROS-induced phosphorylation of Hsf1 at S326, triggering its nuclear translocation. Our study elucidates the mechanism by which MnO₂ NPs induce lipotoxicity and identify Hsf1 as a central regulator of lipid metabolism and mitophagy. Our data highlight the importance of Hsf1 as a potential target of MnO₂ NPs- and oxidative stress-associated NAFLD, which provide new insights into the effects of metal oxides nanoparticles on hepatotoxicity in vertebrates.

Data availability

The data generated in this study are available upon request from the corresponding author.

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Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that there are no conflicts of interest.

Authorship statement

ZL and TZ designed the experiments. TZ carried out animal and cell experiments and sample analysis with the help of HZ, JJX, YCX, LLL, XJL and PCX; TZ and ZL analyzed data; TZ drafted the manuscript, and ZL and KP revised the manuscript. All the authors read and approved the manuscript.

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Figure captions

Fig. 1. Dose-dependent effects of dietary MnO₂ NPs on the hepatic lipid content in

yellow catfish. (A) Representative images of liver; scale bars, 1 cm, (B and C)

Representative microphotograph of liver tissues stained by H&E (B) and Oil-red O (C).

200× magnification; scale bars, 50 μm, respectively. (D) TGs content; (E and F)

Relative areas for hepatic vacuoles after H&E staining and lipid droplets after Oil Red

O staining, respectively. Lipids appear red, and nuclei appear blue after Oil Red O

staining. The depth of red color and the size of lipid droplets were positively correlated

with lipid content. Va, vacuoles; Ld, lipid droplets. Values are means ± S.E.M. [For

analyzing hepatic TGs content, n= 3 represents three replicate tanks for each treatment

and was used as three biological replicates. At least 6 fish were sampled for each tank

and used as technical replicates); For analyzing H&E and ORO relative areas, n= 3

represents three replicate tanks for each treatment and was used as three biological

replicates. At least 3 fish were sampled for each tank and used as technical replicates].

P value was calculated by one-way ANOVA and further post hoc Duncan's multiple

range testing. Values without the same letter indicate significant difference among three

treatments ($P < 0.05$).

Fig. 2. Dose-dependent effects of dietary MnO₂ NPs on hepatic mitochondrial

function and Hsf1 expression and localization in yellow catfish. (A) RT-PCR for

mtDNA copy number; (B) Relative quantification of mtDNA copy number; (C) ATP

content; (D) Sod2 activity; (E) Cat activity; (F) MDA content; (G) The ratio of GSH/GSSG; (H) mRNA expression of antioxidant and heat shock proteins related genes; (I) Western blot analysis of p-Hsf1^{S326}, Hsf1 and N-Hsf1; (J) Relative quantification of p-Hsf1^{S326}, Hsf1 and N-Hsf1 protein levels; (K) Immunofluorescence images of Hsf1; Scale bars: 10 μ m; The white arrows represent the co-localization of Hsf1 with the nucleus; (L) Relative fluorescence intensity of Hsf1. Relative mRNA expression values were normalized to housekeeping genes (*ubce* and *rpl7*) expressed as a ratio of the control. Values are means \pm S.E.M. (n= 3). *P* value was calculated by one-way ANOVA and post hoc Duncan's multiple range testing. Values without the same letter indicate significant difference among three treatments (*P* < 0.05).

Fig. 3. Effects of dietary MnO₂ NPs levels on hepatic mitophagy in yellow catfish.

(A) Representative ultrastructural images of liver tissue; Ld, lipid droplet; M, mitochondria; N, nucleus; AV, autophagosome vacuoles; The yellow dotted line represents mitophagy; (B) mRNA expression of mitophagy and autophagy -related genes; (C) Western blot analysis of autophagy and mitophagy-related proteins; (D) Relative quantification of autophagy and mitophagy-related proteins; (E) Relative quantification of of Lc3b and Bnip3 proteins on mitochondria. Relative mRNA expression values were normalized to housekeeping genes (*ubce* and *rpl7*) expressed as a ratio of the control. Values are means \pm S.E.M. n= 3. *P* value was calculated by one-way ANOVA and post hoc Duncan's multiple range testing. Values without the same letter indicate significant difference among three treatments (*P* < 0.05).

Fig. 4. MnO₂ NPs incubation activates mitophagy in hepatocytes of yellow catfish.

The primary hepatocytes from yellow catfish were incubated in control or MnO₂ NPs for 48h in M199 medium. (A) mRNA expression of mitophagy and autophagy -related genes; (B) Western blot analysis of autophagy and mitophagy-related proteins; (C) Relative quantification of autophagy and mitophagy-related proteins; (D) Representative ultrastructural images of hepatocytes; Ld, lipid droplet; N, nucleus; Black arrows represent the mitochondria, red arrows represent the mitophagy, yellow arrows represent nanoparticle endocytosis, blue arrows represent nanoparticles; (E) Immunofluorescence images of Lc3b and Bnip3; Scale bars: 10 μ m; White arrows represent the colocalization of the two proteins; (F) Immunofluorescence images of Lc3b and Tom20; Scale bars: 10 μ m. Relative mRNA expression values were normalized to housekeeping genes (*elfa* and *rpl7*) expressed as a ratio of the control. Values are means \pm S.E.M. n = 3. *P* value was calculated by one-way ANOVA and post hoc Duncan's multiple range testing. Values without the same letter indicate significant difference among three treatments (*P* < 0.05).

Fig. 5. Hsf1 mediates MnO₂ NPs-induced mitophagy in hepatocytes of yellow catfish. The primary hepatocytes were incubated in control or MnO₂ NPs in M199 medium with or without treatment with *hsf1* knockdown for 48 h. (A) mRNA expression of mitophagy and autophagy -related genes; (B) Western blot analysis of autophagy and mitophagy-related proteins; (C) Relative quantification of autophagy and mitophagy-related proteins; (D) Immunofluorescence images of Lc3b and Bnip3; Scale bars: 10 μ m; White arrows represent the colocalization of the two proteins; (E) Relative quantification of Lc3b and Bnip3 colocalization. Relative mRNA expression

values were normalized to housekeeping genes (β -actin and *elfa*) expressed as a ratio of the si-NC. Values are means \pm S.E.M. n = at least 3. *P* value was calculated by Student's *t* tests. **P* < 0.05, ***P* < 0.01, compared with si-NC; #*P* < 0.05, ##*P* < 0.01, compared with MnO₂ NPs + si-NC group.

Fig. 6. MnO₂ NPs transcriptionally activate Bnip3 expression by promoting the binding of Hsf1 to the *bnip3* promoter. (A) Hsf1 binding sequence (HSE) located at -922 bp to -893 bp of *bnip3* promoter of yellow catfish; (B) Site-mutation analysis of Hsf1 binding sites on pGl3-*bnip3*-1675/+60 vectors in HEK 293T cells treated with 20 μ g/ml MnO₂ NPs for 48h; (C) The yellow catfish *hsf1* gene was overexpressed in HEK293T cells for 48 h; (D) Site-mutation analysis of Hsf1 binding sites on pGl3-*bnip3*-1675/+60 vectors in HEK 293T cells treated with pcDNA3.1-HA-Hsf1 overexpression for 48h. (E) EMSA of putative Hsf1 binding sequences (HSE). The 5'-biotin labeled double-stranded oligomers were incubated with nuclear protein in yellow catfish hepatocytes. A 200-fold excess of the competitor and mutative competitor oligomers were added to the competition and mutant competition assay, respectively. (F and G) ChIP assay for *bnip3* promoter binding with Hsf1 by agarose gel electrophoresis and qRT-PCR in hepatocytes. Values are means \pm SEM (n = 3). *P* value was calculated by Student's *t* tests. **P* < 0.05, ***P* < 0.01, compared with the control; #*P* < 0.05, ##*P* < 0.01 compared with relative luciferase activity between two promoters.

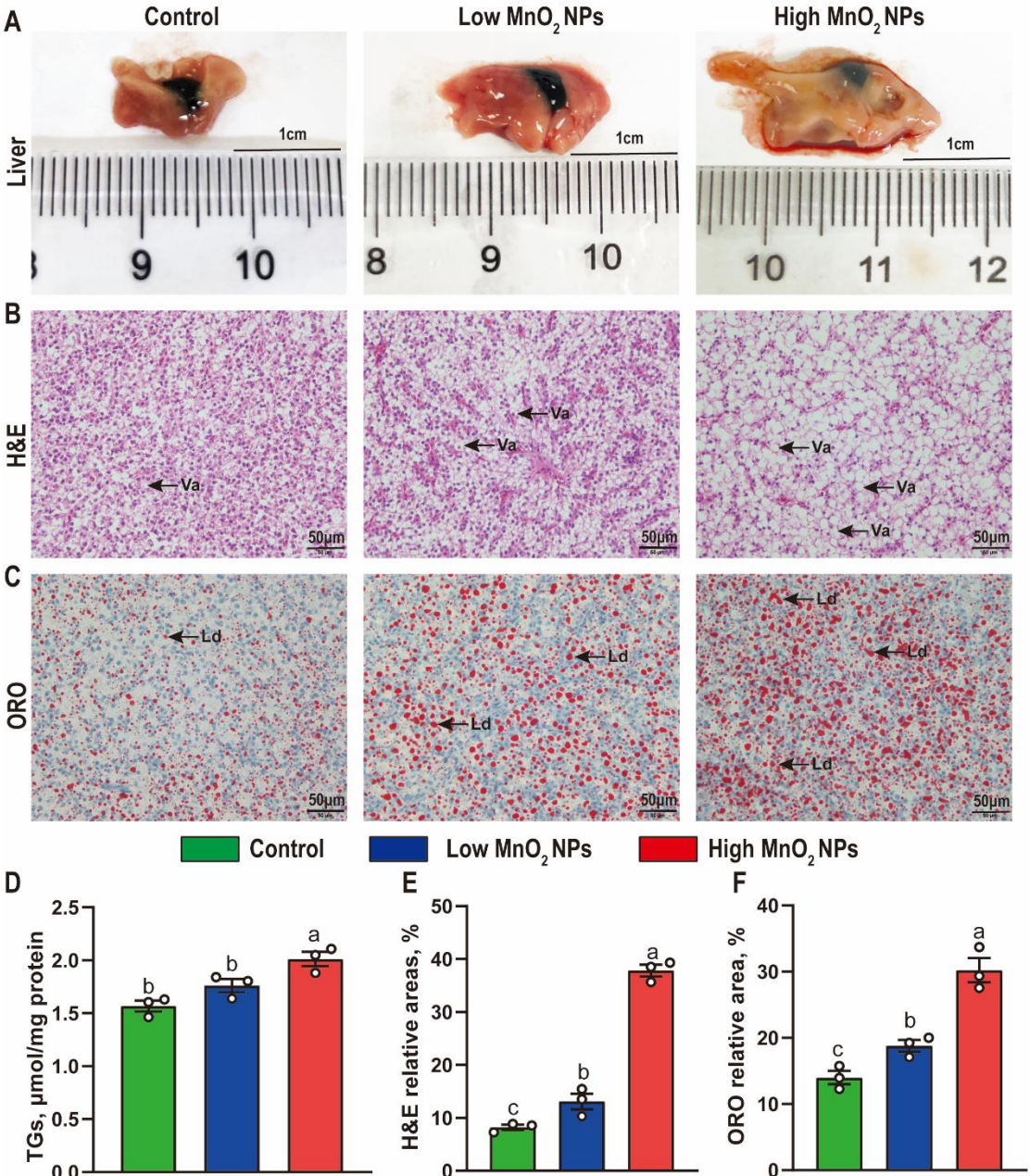
Fig. 7. Hsf1 mediates MnO₂ NPs-induced lipogenesis and lipid accumulation in hepatocytes of yellow catfish. The yellow catfish hepatocytes incubated in control or MnO₂ NPs in M199 medium with or without treatment with *hsf1* knockdown for 48 h.

(A) TGs content; (B) The presence of Bodipy 493/503-stained lipid droplet was demonstrated by flow cytometry; (C) The lipid content quantified by flow cytometric analysis of FL1 (green) mean fluorescence intensity after Bodipy 493/503 staining; (D) Representative confocal microscopy image of yellow catfish hepatocytes after 5 μ g/ml BODIPY 493/503 staining. Scale bars, 25 μ m. (E) mRNA expression of *dgat1* and *plin2*. (F and G) Protein levels of Dgat1 and Plin2. Relative mRNA expression values were normalized to housekeeping genes (β -actin and *elfa*) expressed as a ratio of the si-NC. Values are means \pm S.E.M. (n = 3). *P* value was calculated by Student's *t* tests. **P* < 0.05, ***P* < 0.01, compared with si-NC; #*P* < 0.05, ###*P* < 0.01, compared with MnO₂ NPs + si-NC group.

Fig. 8. MnO₂ NPs transcriptionally induce *plin2* and *dgat1* expression by promoting the binding of Hsf1 to the *plin2* and *dgat1* promoters. (A and B) Hsf1 binding sequence (HSE) located at -755 bp to -725 bp of *plin3* promoter region and -868 bp to -838 bp of *dgat1* promoter region of yellow catfish; (C and D) Site-mutation analysis of Hsf1 binding sites on pGl3-*plin2*-822/+33 and pGl3-*dgat1*-1489/+42 vectors in HEK 293T cells treated with 20 μ g/ml MnO₂ NPs for 48h; (E and F) Site-mutation analysis of Hsf1 binding sites on pGl3-*plin2*-822/+33 and pGl3-*dgat1*-1489/+42 vectors in HEK 293T cells treated with pcDNA3.1-HA-Hsf1 overexpression for 48h. (G and H) EMSA of putative Hsf1 binding sequences (HSE). The 5'-biotin labeled double-stranded oligomers were incubated with nuclear protein in yellow catfish hepatocytes. A 200-fold excess of the competitor and mutative competitor oligomers were added to the competition and mutant competition assay, respectively.

(I-K) ChIP assay for *plin2* and *dgat1* promoters binding with Hsf1 by agarose gel electrophoresis and qPCR in hepatocytes. Values are means \pm SEM (n = 3). *P* value was calculated by Student's *t* tests. **P* < 0.05, ***P* < 0.01, compared with the Control; ##*P* < 0.01 compared with relative luciferase activity between two promoter regions.

Figure 1



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1056 **Figure 2**

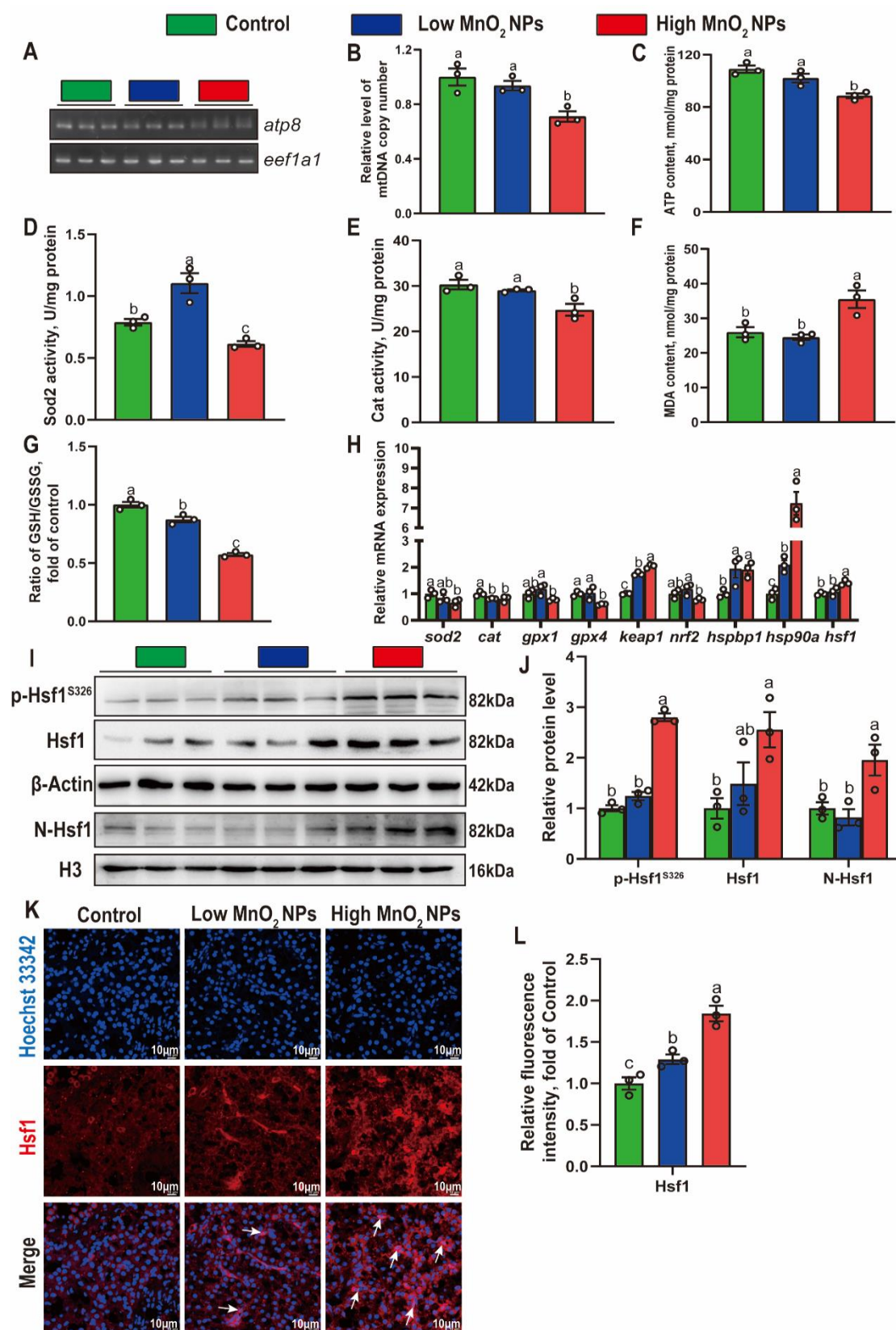
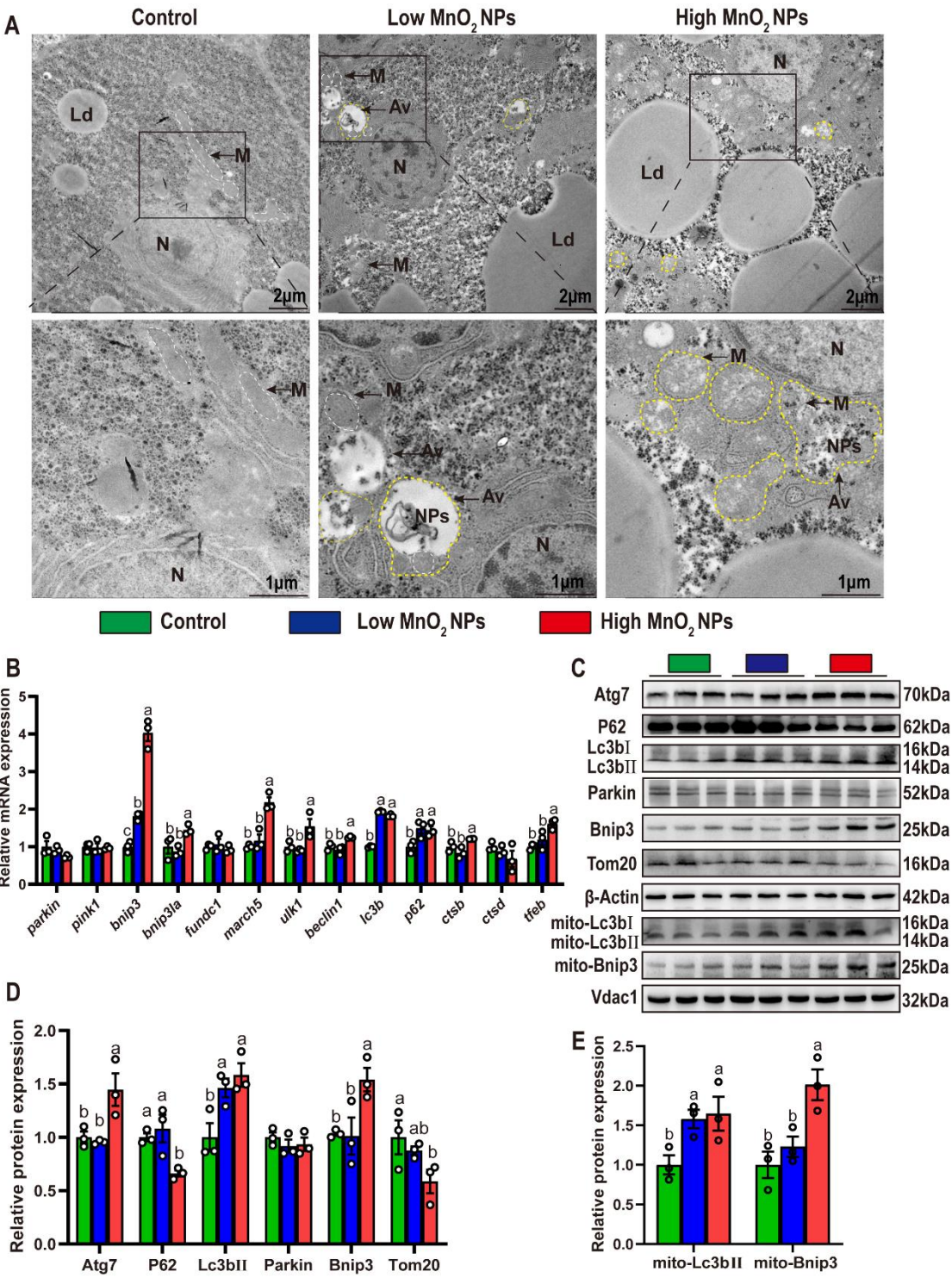


Figure 3

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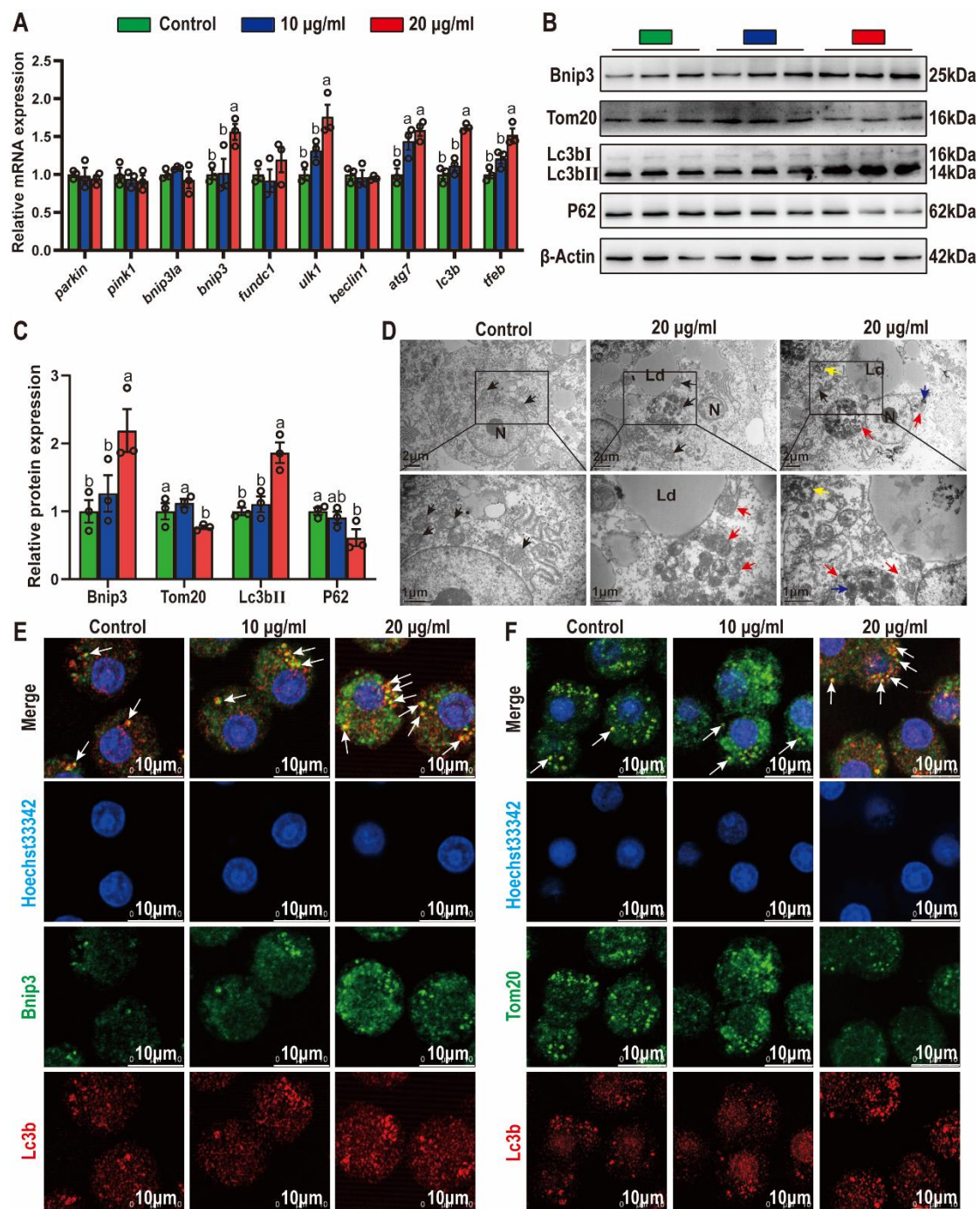
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Figure 4**Figure 5**

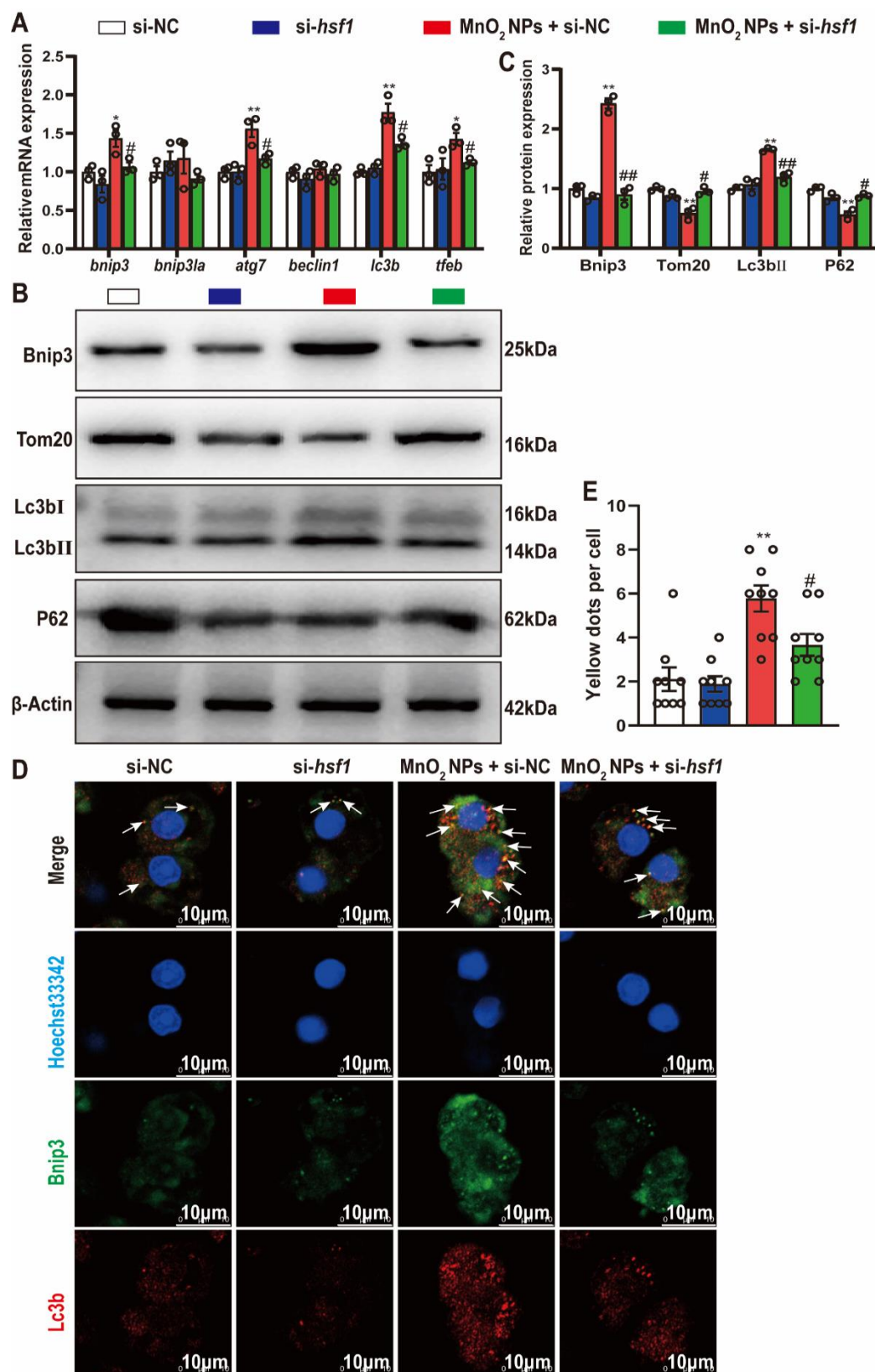


Figure 6

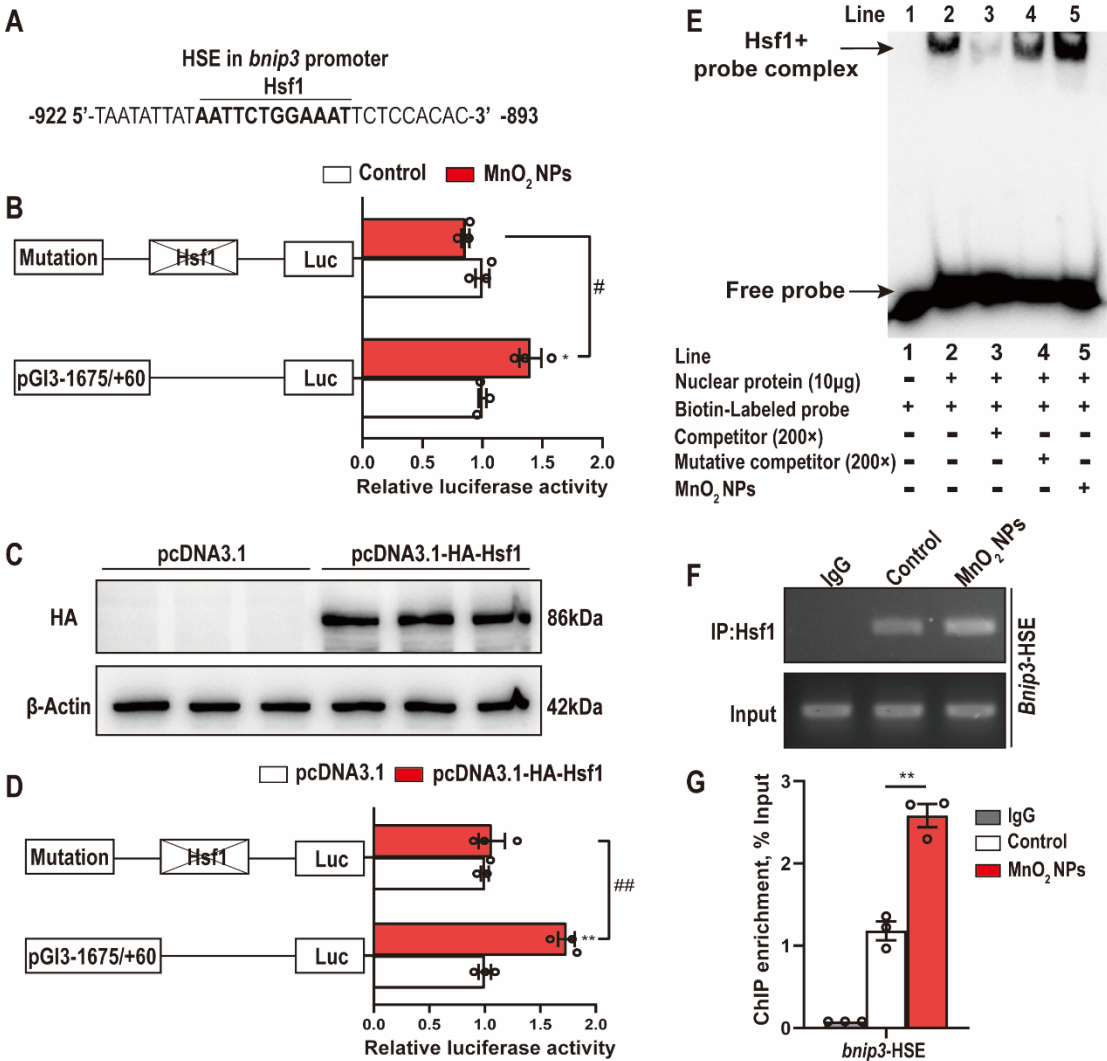
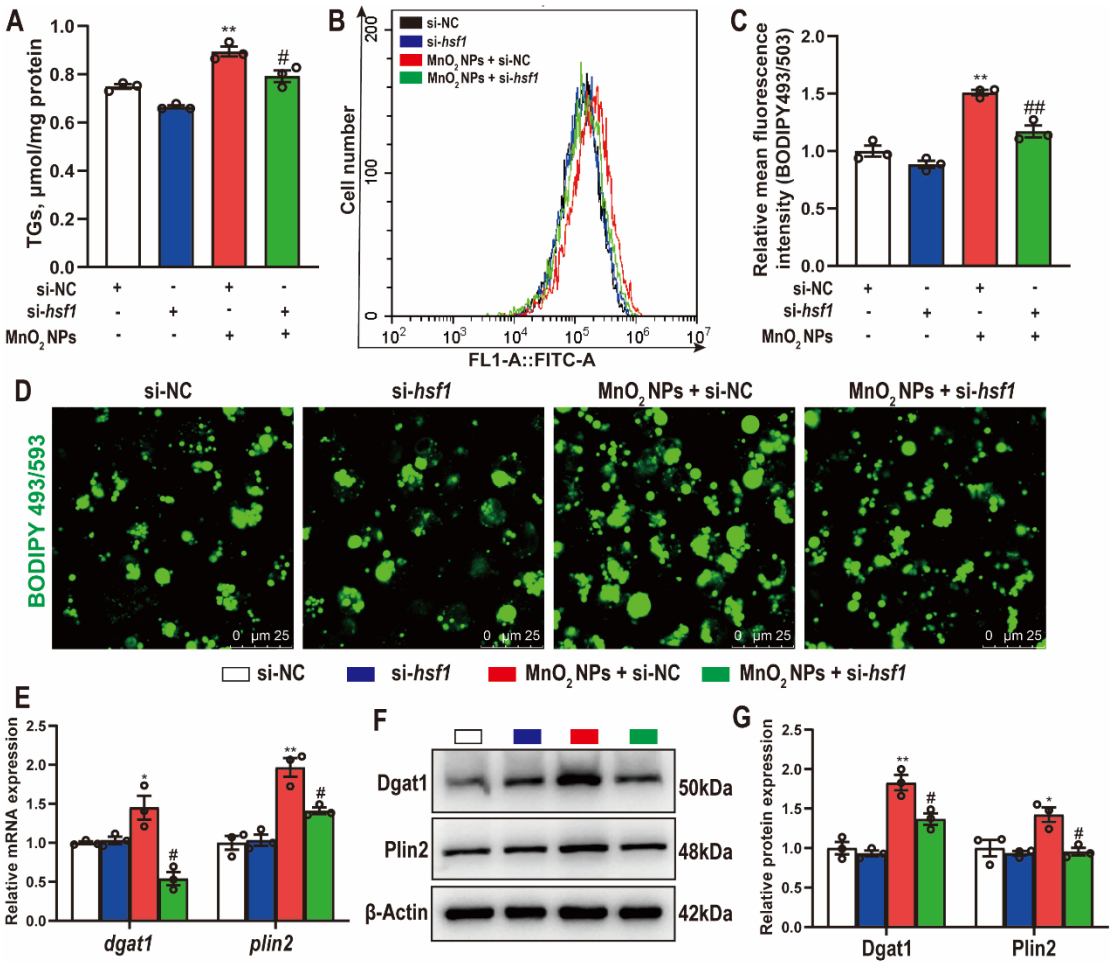


Figure 7



A HSE in *plin2* promoter
Hsf1
-755 5'-ATTACTCTAGAACATACCAGAAATATTTT-3' -725

B HSE in *dgat1* promoter
Hsf1
Site1 -868 5'-GATTAGAAATATCCAGAAATATCCTTATGGTT-3' -838
Site2 -1391 5'-GATTGGCATCTCTGGAAAATTGTCGCTAGTG-3' -1361

C Mutation Hsf1 Luc
pGI3-822/+33 Luc
Relative luciferase activity

D Mutation2 Hsf1-site2 Luc
Mutation1 Hsf1-site1 Luc
pGI3-1489/+42 Luc
Relative luciferase activity

E pcDNA3.1 pcDNA3.1-HA-Hsf1
Mutation Hsf1 Luc
pGI3-822/+33 Luc
Relative luciferase activity

F pcDNA3.1 pcDNA3.1-HA-Hsf1
Mutation2 Hsf1-site2 Luc
Mutation1 Hsf1-site1 Luc
pGI3-1489/+42 Luc
Relative luciferase activity

G Hsf1+ probe complex
Free probe
Line 1 2 3 4 5
Nuclear protein (10μg)
Biotin-Labeled probe
Competitor (200×)
Mutative competitor (200×)
MnO₂ NPs

H Hsf1+ probe complex
Free probe
Line 1 2 3 4 5
Nuclear protein (10μg)
Biotin-Labeled probe
Competitor (200×)
Mutative competitor (200×)
MnO₂ NPs

I IgG Control MnO₂ NPs
IP:Hsf1
Input
Plin2-HSE

J IgG Control MnO₂ NPs
IP:Hsf1
Input
dgat1-HSE

K ChIP enrichment, % Input
IgG Control MnO₂ NPs
plin2-HSE
dgat1-HSE