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Celastrol ameliorates acute liver injury through modulation of PPAR α

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Abstract

Celastrol, derived from the roots of the *Tripterygium Wilfordi*, has attracted interest for its potential anti-inflammatory and lipid-lowering activities. In the present study, the protective effect of celastrol on carbon tetrachloride (CCl₄)-induced acute liver injury was investigated. Celastrol improved the increased transaminase activity, inflammation, and oxidative stress induced by CCl₄, resulting in improved metabolic disorders found in mice with liver injury. Dual-luciferase reporter assays and primary hepatocyte studies demonstrated that the peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor α (PPAR α) signaling mediated the protective effect of celastrol, which was not observed in *Ppara*-null mice, and co-treatment of wild-type mice with the PPAR α antagonist GW6471. Mechanistically, PPAR α deficiency potentiated CCl₄-induced liver injury through a deoxycholic acid (DCA)-EGR1-inflammatory factor axis. These data demonstrate a novel role for celastrol in protection against acute liver injury through modulating PPAR α signaling.

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CRediT authorship contribution statement

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Declaration of Competing Interest

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

Compliance with ethical standards

All procedures performed in studies involving animals were approval by Animal Experimental Ethics Committee, Kunming Institute of Botany, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Kunming, China.

Keywords

Celastrol; Acute liver injury; PPAR α ; Metabolomics; LC-MS

1. Introduction

Celastrol is a natural compound isolated from the root extracts of *Tripterygium wilfordii* (thunder god vine). Celastrol shows significant pharmacological activities, including anti-inflammatory, anti-cancer, anti-obesity and treating mesangioproliferative glomerulonephritis [1–3]. It was reported that celastrol could modulate various targets, such as NF κ B, Nur77, and the HSF1-PGC1 α axis [2,4,5]. Celastrol protects against experimental acetaminophen (APAP)-induced liver injury and α -naphthyl isothiocyanate (ANIT)-induced cholestasis [6,7]. The liver injury induced by APAP, ANIT, triptolide, and sunitinib, disrupts mitochondrial fatty acid β -oxidation and the accumulated serum long-chain acylcarnitines [8–10]. Peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor α (PPAR α) regulates mitochondrial fatty acid transport and β -oxidation, bile acid synthesis, and inflammation [11]. PPAR α agonist reverses the increase in acylcarnitines levels that result from mitochondrial damage in mouse models of hepatotoxicity [8]. Therefore, PPAR α plays an important role in protecting against chemically-induced liver injury.

LC-MS-based metabolomics has been used to identify drug metabolites related to toxicity [12,13], and was applied to investigate the mechanism of liver injury, including cholestasis [8], liver dysfunction [14], and steatohepatitis [15]. Furthermore, metabolomics could determine the roles of nuclear receptors, such as pregnane X receptor (PXR) [16], farnesoid X receptor (FXR) [17], and PPAR α [8] in physiology, metabolic diseases and chemically-induced liver toxicities. The results of the present study reveal that celastrol regulates PPAR α signaling and significantly attenuates carbon tetrachloride (CCl $_4$)-induced acute liver injury, through modulation of inflammation, oxidative stress, bile acid metabolism and acylcarnitine utilization. The protective effect of celastrol on CCl $_4$ -induced liver injury was attenuated in *Ppara*-null mice (*Ppara*^{-/-} mice) and co-treatment with PPAR α antagonist GW6471 in wild-type (WT) mice. These findings provide a novel role for celastrol in protecting against acute liver injury through the activation of PPAR α signaling.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Chemicals and reagents

Celastrol was provided by Chengdu Mansite Bio-technology Co Ltd (Chengdu, China). CCl $_4$ and corn oil were obtained from the Shanghai Aladdin Bio-Chem Technology (Shanghai, China). Lauroylcarnitine (12:0-carnitine), myristoylcarnitine (14:0-carnitine), palmitoylcarnitine (16:0-carnitine), stearoylcarnitine (18:0-carnitine), deoxycholic acid (DCA), taurocholic acid (TCA), taurohyodeoxycholic acid (THDCA), and taurochenodeoxycholic acid (TCDCA) were ordered from Sigma-Aldrich (St. Louis, Missouri, USA). Tauro- β -muricholic acid (T β MCA) was provided by Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Inc. (Dallas, TX, USA). Tauro- α -muricholic acid (T α MCA) was purchased

from Steraloids (Newport, RI, USA). All other chemical reagents and solvents were of the highest grade commercially available.

2.2. Animals

Male WT mice and *Ppara*^{-/-} mice (6- to 8-weeks-old) on the 129/Sv genetic background were previously described [18]. All mice were maintained in a controlled environment with a standard 12 h light/12 h dark cycle and humidity 50%–60%. Animal experiments were approved by the institutional ethical committee of Kunming Institute of Botany.

Experiment 1: To determine the protective effect of celastrol on CCl₄-induced acute liver damage, the WT mice were randomly divided into four groups (n = 5): (1) control group; (2) CCl₄ group; (3) CCl₄ + celastrol group; (4) celastrol group (Fig. 1D). The *Ppara*^{-/-} mice were randomly divided into three groups (n = 5): (1) control group; (2) CCl₄ group; (3) CCl₄ + celastrol group; (4) celastrol group. CCl₄ + celastrol and celastrol groups were orally treated with celastrol (10 mg/kg dissolved in 1% DMSO + 2% Tween 80 + 97% water) for five consecutive days [7]. After the mice were treated with celastrol for three days, the mice of CCl₄ and CCl₄ + celastrol groups were given a single intraperitoneal dose of CCl₄ (20% CCl₄ solution in corn oil, 1 ml/kg body weight) [19,20].

Experiment 2: To determine the role of PPAR α on CCl₄-induced acute liver damage, the WT and *Ppara*^{-/-} mice were randomly assigned into four groups (n = 5), respectively: (1) control group; (2) CCl₄ group; (3) *Ppara*^{-/-} control group; (4) *Ppara*^{-/-} CCl₄ group (Fig. 1D). CCl₄ and *Ppara*^{-/-} CCl₄ groups were given a single intraperitoneal dose of CCl₄.

Experiment 3: To investigate the role of PPAR α inhibition in the protective effect of celastrol, the WT mice were randomly assigned into four groups (n = 5): (1) control group; (2) CCl₄ group; (3) CCl₄ + celastrol group; (4) CCl₄ + celastrol + GW6471 group (Fig. 1D). The CCl₄ + celastrol group was treated with celastrol (10 mg/kg) for 5 consecutive days. The CCl₄ + celastrol + GW6471 group was cotreated with GW6471 (10 mg/kg dissolved in 4% DMSO + 2% Tween 80 + 94% normal saline, intraperitoneal administration, 30 min before celastrol) and celastrol for 5 consecutive days. After celastrol treatment for three days, mice in CCl₄, CCl₄ + celastrol, and CCl₄ + celastrol + GW6471 groups were given a single intraperitoneal dose of CCl₄.

All mice were anesthetized by CO₂ and killed 48 h after CCl₄ treatment. Whole blood was collected in anti-coagulative tubes. Plasma was got by centrifugation of the whole blood at 2000 g for 5 min at 4 °C. Partial liver tissue was stored at -80 °C, and partial liver tissue was preserved in 10% buffered formalin for histological analysis.

2.3. Biochemical analysis and histological examination

Assay kits for aspartate aminotransferase (AST), alanine aminotransferase (ALT), alkaline phosphatase (ALP), catalase (CAT), and malondialdehyde (MDA) were obtained from Nanjing Jiancheng Bioengineering Institute (Nanjing, China). The procedure was performed following by the according protocols. The liver tissues were fixed in 10% buffer formalin, which was processed by soaking in different alcoholic concentration gradient, cleared in

xylene, and embedded in paraffin. Four μm sections were stained with hematoxylin and eosin and examined by light microscopy.

2.4. Sample preparation and metabolomics analysis

Samples of plasma and liver were prepared using a method described previously [21]. The working conditions of the LC-MS system described in a previous report [8]. A 5 μl aliquot of extract was injected into the UPLC-ESI-QTOFMS system. The chromatographic and spectral data were extracted by MassHunter Workstation software (Agilent, Santa Clara, CA, USA). The data matrix was processed using Mass Profinder software (Agilent, Santa Clara, CA, USA) and analyzed by SIMCA-P + 13.0 (Umetrics, Kinnelon, New Jersey, USA) for principal component analysis (PCA) and orthogonal projection to latent structures-discriminant analysis (OPLS-DA). HMDB was assisted to determine the chemical structures of changed metabolites, which were confirmed by comparing retention time and MS/MS fragmentation with authentic standards (Table 1).

2.5. Gene expression analysis

Total RNA was extracted from frozen liver tissues or primary hepatocytes using TRIzol reagent (Life technology, Carlsbad, CA, USA). QPCR was carried out using SYBR green PCR master mix (Takara, Dalian, China) in a CFX Connect Real-Time System (Bio-Rad Laboratories, Hercules, CA, USA). QPCR primer sequences were shown in Table 2. All results were normalized to 18S mRNA. Thermal cycling condition was carried according to a previous study [8].

2.6. Primary mouse hepatocytes cultures and luciferase reporter assays

Primary mouse hepatocytes were isolated from 6-week-old 129/Sv mice as described previously [8]. To evaluate the effect of celastrol on PPAR α signaling, hepatocytes were harvested after incubation with celastrol (30, 60, and 120 nM) for 24 h [7,22]. To evaluate the function of DCA, TCA, THDCA, and TCDCA, primary mouse hepatocytes were harvested after incubation with celastrol (120 nM), DCA (50, 100, and 200 μM), TCA (100 μM), THDCA (100 μM), and TCDCA (100 μM) for 24 h [7,22,23].

For luciferase reporter gene assays, HEK293 cells were transfected with PPAR α , PPRE-luciferase, and renilla-luciferase [24]. The transfection procedure was detailed in the Lipofectamine 2000 instruction manual (Invitrogen, Grand Island, NY). Transfected cells were treated with celastrol (30, 60, and 120 nM) and fenofibrate (50 μM) for 24 h [7,22]. Luciferase activity was assayed in a Dual-luciferase Reporter Assay System.

2.7. Data analysis

All data were expressed as mean \pm SEM. Statistical analysis was performed using the one-way ANOVA followed by Dunnett's test. *P* value < 0.05 was considered statistically significant.

3. Results

3.1. Celastrol protected against CCl₄-induced acute liver injury

Celastrol, a pentacyclic triterpene isolated from the roots of the *Tripterygium Wilfordi*, has anti-inflammatory effects against various inflammatory diseases [1]. Usually, liver injury is accompanied by inflammatory infiltration. Therefore, it was predicted that celastrol could protect mice from acute liver injury induced by CCl₄. The hepatic phenotype revealed that the histology of the CCl₄ + celastrol group was similar to the control group. Celastrol alleviated the periportal parenchymal necrosis induced by CCl₄ (Fig. 1A). The increased AST, ALT, and ALP by CCl₄ in mice were significantly decreased by celastrol treatment (Fig. 1B). These results showed that celastrol could protect against CCl₄-induced acute liver injury.

3.2. Metabolic disorder of serum and hepatic metabolites was improved by celastrol

PCA modeling was used to analyze the serum data sets from the control, CCl₄, and CCl₄ + celastrol groups. The CCl₄ group was separated from the control and CCl₄ + celastrol groups, indicating that celastrol treatment significantly normalized the metabolites changed by CCl₄ (Fig. 2A). Three ions m/z 344.2794⁺, 372.3107⁺, and 398.3263⁺ were found to deviate from the ions cloud in OPLS-DA *S*-plot compared the control group with the CCl₄ group (Fig. 2B). Chemical formula calculation showed these three ions corresponded to C₁₉H₃₇NO₄, C₂₁H₄₁NO₄, and C₂₃H₄₃NO₄. These ions m/z 344.2794⁺ (Rt = 8.426), 372.3107⁺ (Rt = 9.376), and 398.3263⁺ (Rt = 9.677) were identified as C12:0-carnitine, C14:0-carnitine, and C16:1-carnitine based on their MS/MS fragmentation, respectively (Fig. 2B and Table 1). Targeted metabolomic analysis showed that celastrol decreased the levels of 29 long-chain acylcarnitines that were increased by CCl₄ (Fig. 2C). A previous study found that the increased long-chain acylcarnitine resulted from mitochondrial dysfunction and the inability of efficiently metabolize fatty acids [8]. The mRNA levels of carnitine palmitoyltransferase *1b* (*Cpt1b*) and *Cpt2* were increased by CCl₄, however, the levels of *Ppara*, medium-chain acyl-CoA dehydrogenase (*Mcad*), and hydroxyacyl-CoA dehydrogenase (*Hadha*) mRNAs remained unchanged in the CCl₄ group compared with the control group (Fig. 2D). Using non-targeted metabolomics analysis in positive and negative modes, other metabolites, such as six amino acids and five bile acids, were improved after celastrol treatment (Fig. 2C). The expression level of mRNAs encoded by genes involved in bile acid synthesis (sterol 12 α -hydroxylase (*Cyp8b1*) and cholesterol 7 α -hydroxylase (*Cyp7a1*)) and transport (sodium taurocholate cotransporting polypeptide (*Ntcp*), organic anion transporting polypeptide 1 (*Oatp1*), and *Oatp4*) were measured [8], and also improved by celastrol treatment (Fig. 2E). These results showed that celastrol could improve serum metabolites influenced by CCl₄.

PCA and OPLS-DA models were then used to analyze metabolites from livers of control, CCl₄, and CCl₄ + celastrol groups. Significant differences in the hepatic metabolites between the CCl₄ and control groups were found, including increased acylcarnitines, lyso-phosphocholine 18:2 (LPC18:2), and lyso-phosphatidylethanolamine 22:6 (LPE22:6) that largely contributed to the separation (Fig. 3A,B). Further acylcarnitine targeted analysis indicated that the levels of 34 medium-and long-chain acylcarnitines that were increased in

the CCl₄ group were significantly decreased after celastrol treatment (Fig. 3C). The levels of LPE22:6, LPC16:0, and LPC18:3 were recovered by celastrol (Fig. 3D). The mRNAs associated with LPC metabolism (lysophosphatidylcholine acyltransferase 1 (*Lpcat1*) and *Lpcat4*), PC synthesis (choline kinase α (*Chka*) and phosphate cytidylyltransferase 1 α (*Pcyt1a*)), PC metabolism (phospholipase D1 (*Pld1*)), and SM metabolism (sphingomyelin phosphodiesterase 3 (*Smpd3*)) also improved by celastrol (Fig. 3E). These results showed that celastrol improved hepatic metabolites influenced by CCl₄.

3.3. Inflammatory cytokine and oxidative stress in acute liver injury were decreased by celastrol

Increased serum acylcarnitines is an indication of mitochondrial dysfunction, which induces oxidative stress *in vitro* [8], suggesting that the increase of acylcarnitines in CCl₄-induced liver injury resulted in increased oxidative stress. Therefore, oxidative stress was evaluated. Hepatic CAT and MDA that were increased in the CCl₄ group, were decreased after celastrol treatment (Fig. 4A). The expression levels of several anti-oxidative gene mRNAs that were increased in the CCl₄ group, were lower after celastrol treatment, including glutathione peroxidases (glutathione peroxidase 2 (*Gpx2*), *Gpx3*, and *Gpx4*) and glutathione S-transferases (glutathione S-transferase α 2 (*Gsta2*) and *Gsta4*) (Fig. 4B). Early growth response 1 (EGR1) pathway analysis indicated that the up-regulated *Egr1* mRNA and its downstream inflammatory cytokines (chemokine (C-X-C motif) ligand 1 (*Cxcl1*), chemokine (C-C motif) ligand 2 (*Ccl2*), *Cxcl10*, tumor necrosis factor α (*Tnfa*), and interleukin 6 (*Il6*)) mRNAs in the CCl₄ group were improved by celastrol treatment (Fig. 4C). After celastrol treatment, the expression of *Egr1*, *Cxcl1*, *Ccl2*, *Cxcl10*, *Tnfa*, and *Il6* mRNAs were reduced 43.5%, 65.2%, 76.2%, 92.8%, 52.4%, and 53.1%, respectively, compared with the CCl₄ group. Celastrol did not reverse the expression of *Il1b* mRNA (Fig. 4C), which was observed in ANIT-induced cholestasis [7]. Whether celastrol can directly combined with these inflammatory cytokines, needs further studies. These results showed that celastrol reduced inflammatory cytokine expression and oxidative stress induced by CCl₄.

3.4. Celastrol activates PPAR α signaling pathway

Since the levels of acylcarnitine and lipids were modulated by celastrol, and the PPAR α signaling pathway participates in the metabolism of acylcarnitines and lipids [11], the effect of celastrol on PPAR α signaling was investigated. Low concentrations of celastrol (120 nM) could activate PPAR α and increase its target gene mRNAs *Cpt1b*, *Cpt2*, *Mcad*, and *Hadha* in primary mouse hepatocytes after a 24 h exposure (Fig. 4D). Dual-luciferase reporter gene assays performed with HEK293 cells co-transfected with PPAR α and PPRE-luciferase expression plasmid, demonstrated that 120 nM celastrol significantly increased the luciferase reporter gene activity (Fig. 4E). These results demonstrated a positive regulatory role of celastrol on PPAR α signaling.

Furthermore, the role of PPAR α in the protective effects of celastrol in the CCl₄-induced liver damage was explored using *Ppara*^{-/-} mice and a PPAR α antagonist. H&E staining revealed that the CCl₄-induced liver injury was not attenuated by celastrol in *Ppara*^{-/-} mice (Fig. 5A). The decreased AST, ALT, and ALP levels after celastrol treatment in WT mice

were not observed in the *Ppara*^{-/-} mice (Fig. 5B). Serum and hepatic metabolomics analysis in positive and negative modes showed that the levels of metabolites, such as acylcarnitines, bile acids, and amine acids, in the CCl₄ + celastrol group were similar to the CCl₄ group metabolites in *Ppara*^{-/-} mice (Figs. 5C–E and 6A–E). Although celastrol increased AST and ALT levels in *Ppara*^{-/-} mice (Fig. 5B), the ALP levels, histologic injury, and level of metabolites were not increased by celastrol (Figs. 5 and 6A–E). Hepatotoxicity was also not observed in WT mice treated for 5 days with celastrol (Fig. 1C). These data suggested that the levels of ALT and AST were more sensitive to celastrol exposure when PPAR α signaling is low under pathological conditions. At the same time, the protective effect of celastrol was attenuated in WT mice after cotreatment with the PPAR α antagonist GW6471 (Fig. 6F). These results showed that the protective effect of celastrol on liver injury was via activation of PPAR α signaling.

3.5. Deficiency of PPAR α increased CCl₄-induced liver injury

Ppara^{-/-} mice were used to evaluate the role of PPAR α in CCl₄-induced acute liver injury. Histology analysis showed that CCl₄ induced obvious parenchymal necrosis in WT mice, and the parenchymal necrosis was more severe in *Ppara*^{-/-} mice (Fig. 7A). The levels of AST, ALT, and ALP in CCl₄-induced liver injury were higher in *Ppara*^{-/-} mice compared with WT mice (Fig. 7B). Serum metabolomics was used to determine the differences among control, CCl₄, *Ppara*^{-/-} control, and *Ppara*^{-/-} CCl₄ groups (Fig. 7C). The four top increased ions 391.2854⁻, 498.2895⁻, 514.2843⁻, and 514.2843⁻ were observed in control group compared with CCl₄ group (Fig. 7D). These ions were identified as DCA, THDCA, TCA, and T α / β MCA, respectively. Bile acid analysis revealed that the increase of bile acids in the CCl₄ group was further increased in the *Ppara*^{-/-} CCl₄ group, especially DCA (Fig. 7E). Other bile acids such as T α / β MCA, TCA, THDCA, and TCDCA were not significantly increased in the *Ppara*^{-/-} CCl₄ group compared with the CCl₄ group (Fig. 7E). The mRNA levels produced by bile acids synthesis and transport genes were further decreased in *Ppara*^{-/-} mice treated with CCl₄ (Fig. 7F). DCA, THDCA and TCDCA could increase the expression of *Egr1* mRNA and its downstream inflammatory cytokine *Cxcl10* mRNA in mouse primary hepatocytes (Fig. 8A,B). Celastrol reversed the down-regulation of cell viability induced by DCA (Fig. 8C), and inhibited the increase of *Egr1* and *Il6* mRNA expression (Fig. 8D). These results indicated that PPAR α plays an important role in CCl₄-induced liver injury, and the potentiation of CCl₄-induced liver injury in *Ppara*^{-/-} mice might be due to DCA-EGR1-inflammatory factor pathway.

4. Discussion

The present study demonstrated a protective role for celastrol in CCl₄-induced acute liver injury. The CCl₄ model is frequently-used to study hepatotoxicity and liver fibrosis and to evaluate the hepatoprotective effects of drugs or natural products. One of the intriguing findings in this study was that celastrol could activate PPAR α in primary hepatocytes and luciferase reporter gene assays. Further studies using *Ppara*^{-/-} mice revealed a protective role for celastrol dependent on PPAR α activation (Fig. 8E).

Long-chain acylcarnitines are associated with the cellular stress response and activate some receptors, such as TLR2, NF κ B, and JNK [25]. A previous study found that elevated long-chain acylcarnitines protected TP-induced liver injury through activation of the NOTCH-NRF2 pathway and induced a defense response against liver redundant line feed injury *in vitro* and *in vivo* [9]. More importantly, acylcarnitines that result from impaired mitochondrial function and fatty acid β -oxidation, were common biomarkers for liver injury. Acylcarnitines levels were increased and mitochondrial fatty acid β -oxidation was inhibited in triptolide-, ANIT-, APAP-, and sunitinib-induced liver injury [8–10,26]. Serum acylcarnitines levels were used as clinical biomarkers for screening inborn genetic defects in fatty acid β -oxidation [27]. The current study found that acylcarnitine levels were significantly increased after CCl₄ treatment, indicating that mitochondrial fatty acid β -oxidation was disrupted. It was reported that PPAR α activation could reduce the accumulation of acylcarnitines and increased mitochondrial fatty acid β -oxidation in mice administered ANIT and cocaine [8,28]. Therefore, PPAR α activation may be considered as a therapeutic target for the treatment of chemical-induced liver injury.

PPAR α is expressed in metabolically-active tissues and regulates genes involved in mitochondrial and peroxisomal fatty acid β -oxidation, bile acid and amino acid metabolism, and inflammation [11]. PPAR α also plays an important role in liver injury. PPAR α deficiency potentiates chemically-induced hepatic injury. PPAR α expression was lower in patients with hepatitis C virus (HCV) infection and steatohepatitis [29,30]. *Ppara*^{-/-} mice treated with cholic acid had disrupted bile acid and phospholipids homeostasis, indicating that PPAR α was an essential regulator of bile acid synthesis and secretion [31]. Activation of PPAR α may protect against ANIT-induced cholestasis [8], sunitinib-induced liver injury [10], concanavalin A- or diet-induced hepatitis [32,33], triptolide-induced liver injury [9], and pyrazinamide-induced hepatotoxicity [34]. Many traditional Chinese medicines protect against liver injury through activating PPAR α signaling. For example, formononetin could activate PPAR α , thereby inhibiting hepatic inflammation in cholestasis [35]. Nuciferine attenuated hepatic steatosis by activating the PPAR α /PGC1 α pathway [36]. In the present study, *in vitro* data demonstrated that celastrol was a PPAR α agonist. The protective role of celastrol disappeared in CCl₄-induced liver injury when celastrol was co-treated with the PPAR α antagonist GW6471. More importantly, celastrol could not protect against CCl₄-induced liver injury in *Ppara*^{-/-} mice, demonstrating the actual role of PPAR α in the protective effect of celastrol. The activation of the *Cpt1b* and *Cpt2* expression by celastrol would contribute to the elimination of acylcarnitines and improve the disruption of mitochondrial fatty acid β -oxidation by CCl₄. Therefore, this study provided evidences that the PPAR α signaling has an important role in the protective effects of celastrol against chemically-induced liver injury.

Generally, bile acids facilitate the digestion and absorption of fat. But excessive accumulation of bile acids can result in apoptosis and inflammation *in vivo* and *in vitro*. It was reported that DCA could induce apoptosis in hepatocytes upon activation of death receptors [37]. DCA enhanced miR-34a/SIRT1/p53 proapoptotic signaling in a dose and time-dependent manner [23]. Furthermore, bile acids, such as DCA, chenodeoxycholic acid (CDCA), and TCA, up-regulated EGR1, which then regulated production of inflammatory mediators [38]. A previous study found that celastrol modulated the expression of pro-

inflammatory cytokines [1]. Therefore, we hypothesized that celastrol could protect DCA-induced inflammatory. Indeed, DCA elevated the expression of *Egr1* mRNA and the inflammatory factors *Cxcl10* mRNAs. Celastrol improved the hepatic EGR1-inflammatory factor pathway that was elevated by CCl₄ treatment. Several bile acids, including DCA, THDCA, and TCDCA, could activate EGR1-inflammatory factor pathway in the present study. Compared with the WT mice, the increase of DCA was higher than other bile acid metabolites in *Ppara*^{-/-} mice after CCl₄ treatment, suggesting that DCA likely contributed to increased inflammation.

In this study, the protective role of celastrol in acute liver injury induced by CCl₄ exposure was demonstrated by histological and biochemical analysis, and the mechanism was deciphered using UPLC-ESI-QTOFMS-based metabolomics, primary hepatocyte cultures, reporter gene assays, and *Ppara*^{-/-} mice. Finally, celastrol decreased proinflammatory cytokines and oxidative stress, and recovered the bile acid and acylcarnitine homeostasis from mice treated with CCl₄. This study revealed that PPAR α activation by celastrol significantly attenuated CCl₄-induced liver injury.

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Abbreviations:

ANIT	α -naphthyl isothiocyanate
ALP	alkaline phosphatase
ALT	alanine aminotransferase
APAP	acetaminophen
AST	aspartate aminotransferase
CAT	catalase
Ccl2	chemokine (C-C motif) ligand 2
CCl₄	carbon tetrachloride
Chka	choline kinase α
Cpt2	carnitine palmitoyltransferase 2
Cxcl1	chemokine (C-X-C motif) ligand 1
Cyp7a1	cholesterol 7 α -hydroxylase
Cyp8b1	sterol 12 α -hydroxylase
DCA	deoxycholic acid

Egr1	early growth response 1
Gpx2	glutathione peroxidase 2
Gsta2	glutathione S-transferase α 2
Hadha	hydroxyacyl-CoA dehydrogenase
Il6	interleukin 6
Lpcat1	lysophosphatidylcholine acyltransferase 1
Mcad	medium-chain acyl-CoA dehydrogenase
MDA	malondialdehyde
Ntcp	sodium taurocholate cotransporting polypeptide
Oatp1	organic anion transporting polypeptide 1
OPLS-DA	orthogonal projection to latent structures-discriminant analysis
PCA	principal component analysis
Pcyt1a	phosphate cytidyltransferase 1 α
Pld1	phospholipase D1
<i>Ppara</i>-null mice	<i>Ppara</i> ^{-/-} mice
PPARα	peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor α
Smpd3	sphingomyelin phosphodiesterase 3
TCA	taurocholic acid
TCDCA	taurochenodeoxycholic acid
THDCA	taurohyodeoxycholic acid
Tnfa	tumour necrosis factor α
WT	wild type
12:0-carnitine	lauroylcarnitine
14:0-carnitine	myristoylcarnitine
16:0-carnitine	palmitoylcarnitine
18:0-carnitine	stearoylcarnitine

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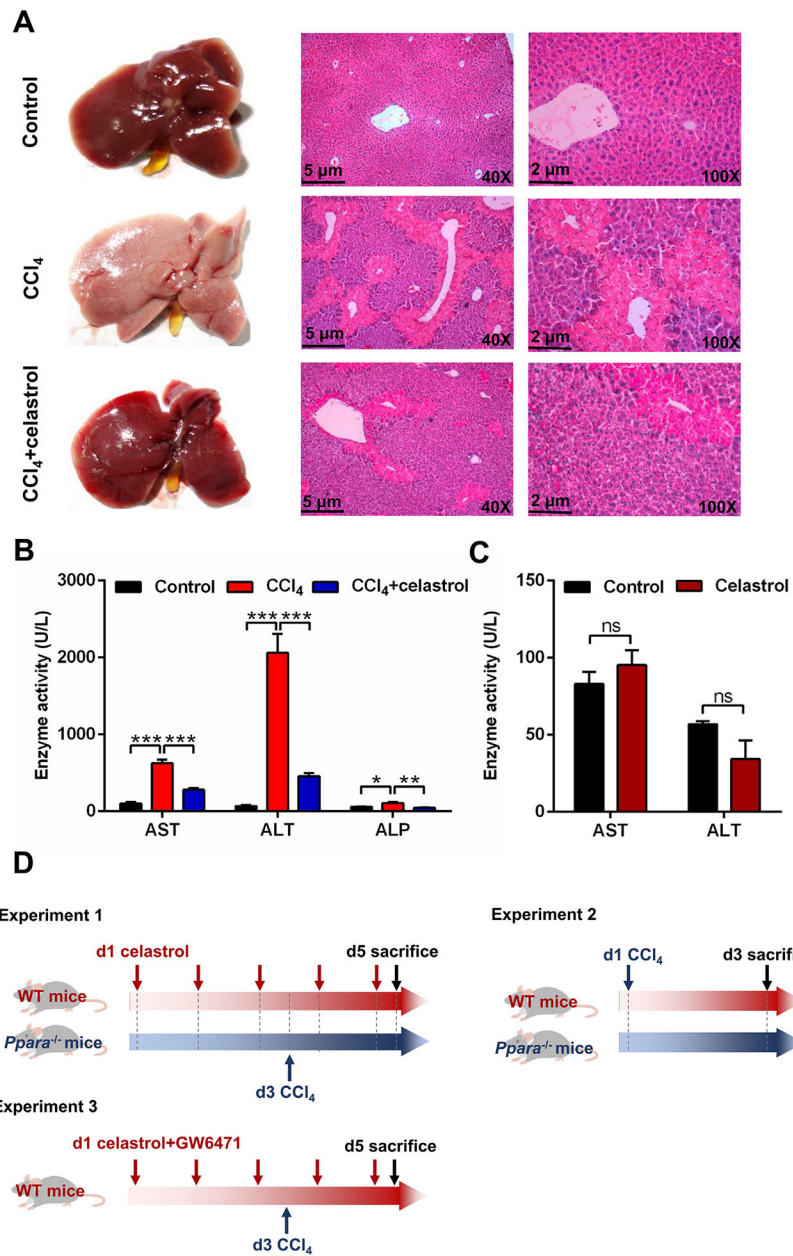


Fig. 1. Celastrol attenuated CCl₄-induced liver injury in WT mice. (A) Phenotype and H&E staining of liver. (B) Serum AST, ALT, and ALP enzyme activities in control, CCl₄, and CCl₄ + celastrol groups. (C) Celastrol does not cause hepatotoxicity at the therapeutic dose (10 mg/kg). (D) Experimental scheme for animal experiments. All data are expressed as mean ± SEM (n = 5). **P* < 0.05, ***P* < 0.01, ****P* < 0.001, ns = not significant.

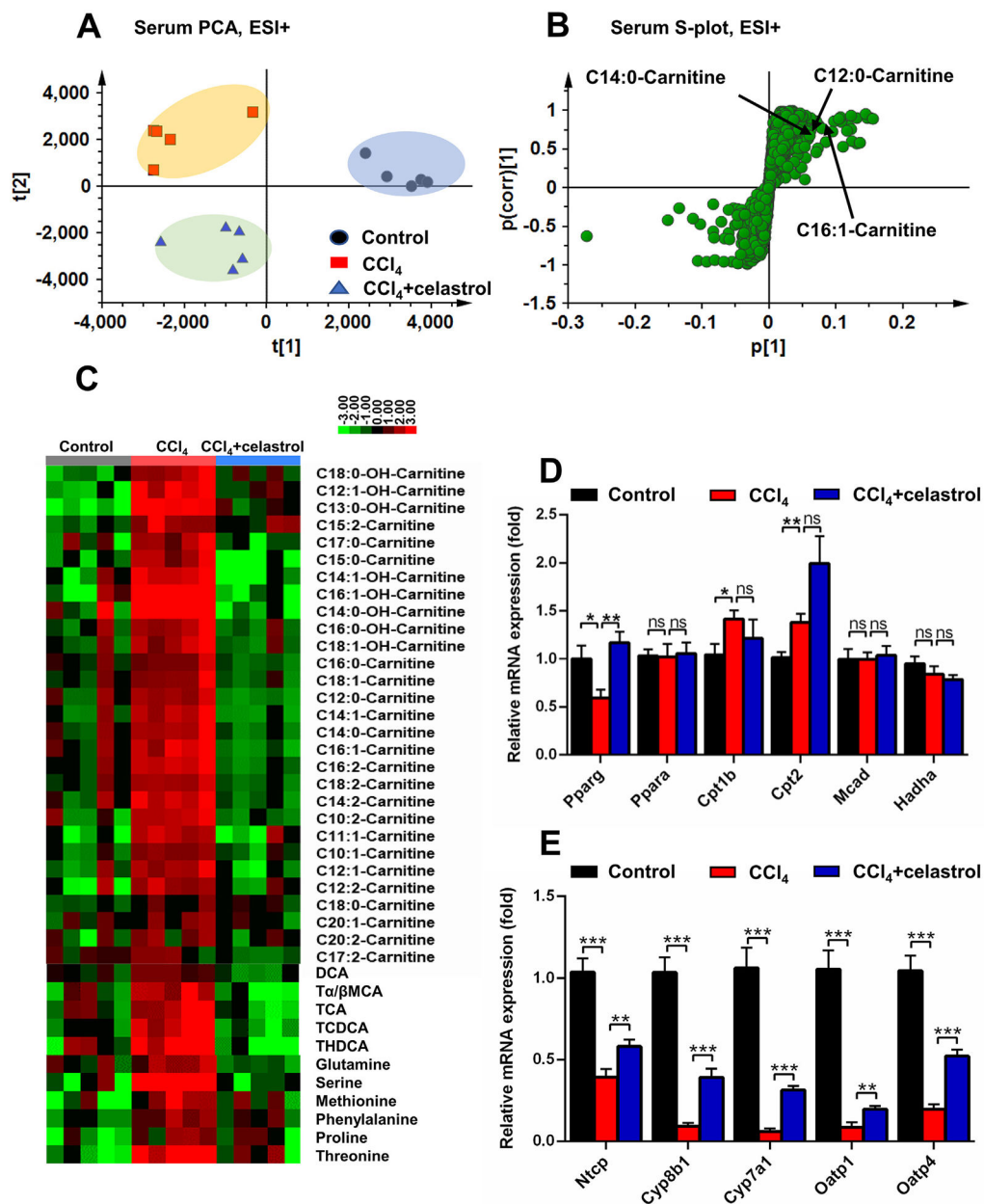


Fig. 2. Celastrol decreased the accumulation of acylcarnitines and bile acids induced by CCl₄ in serum. PCA score plot (A) and OPLS-DA *S*-plot (B) derived from LCMS data of serum ions in positive mode. Each point represented an individual mouse serum sample (-left) and an ion in the samples (-right). Metabolites were labeled in the *S*-plot (●, control group; ■, CCl₄ group; ▲, CCl₄ + celastrol group). (C) Heat map analysis of the relative abundance of long-chain acylcarnitines, amino acids, and bile acids in serum of control, CCl₄, and CCl₄ + celastrol groups. QPCR analysis was performed to measure the mRNAs coded by acylcarnitine-related genes and *Pparg* (D) and bile acid-related genes in liver (E). All data were repressed as mean ± SEM (n = 5). Value represents fold change after normalization to control. **P* < 0.05, ***P* < 0.01, ****P* < 0.001, ns = not significant.

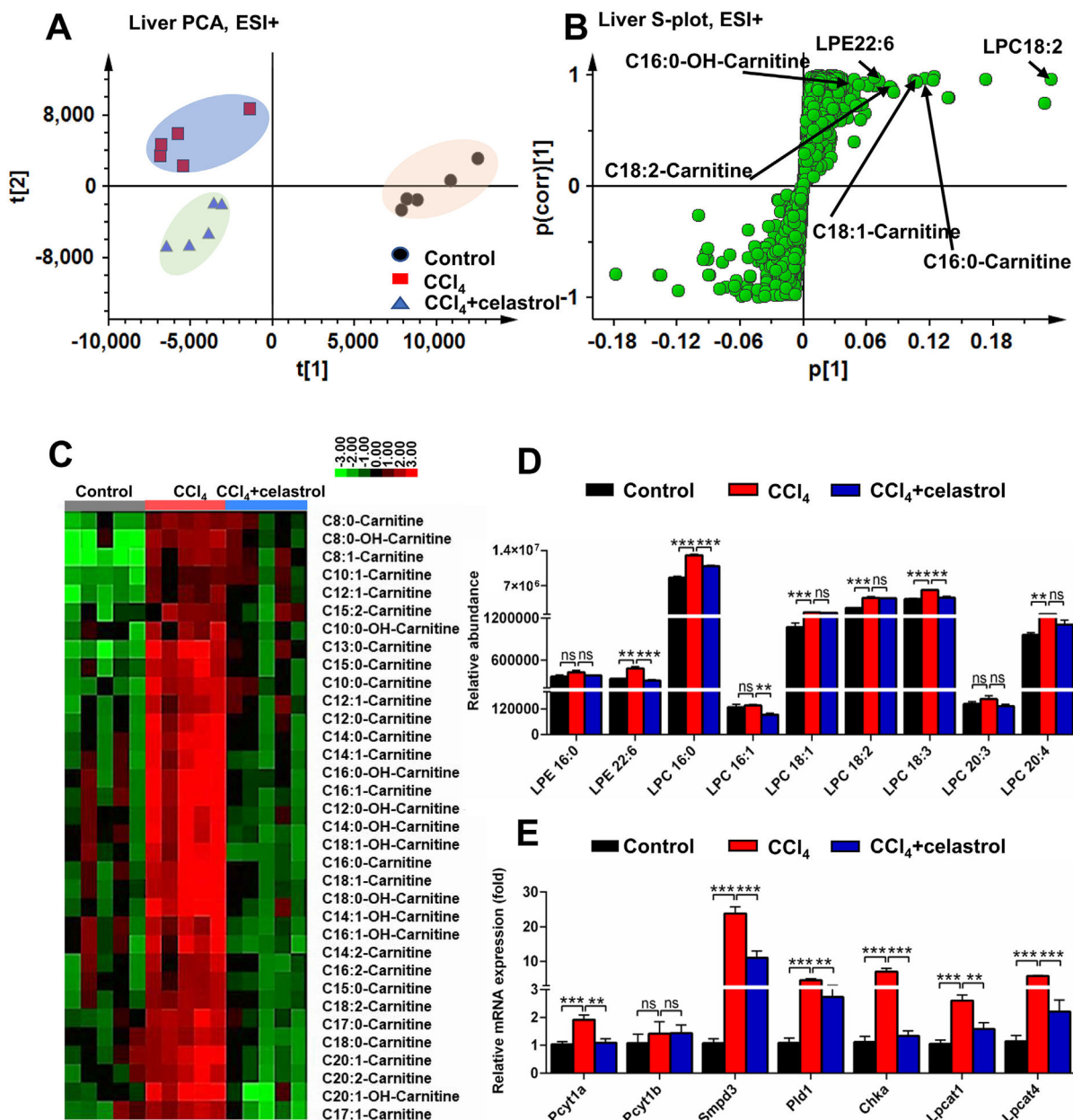


Fig. 3. Celastrol decreased the accumulation of acylcarnitines and lipids induced by CCl₄ in liver. PCA score plot (A) and OPLS-DA *S*-plot (B) derived from LC-MS data of hepatic ions in positive mode. Each point represented an individual mouse hepatic sample (-left) and an ion in the samples (-right). Metabolites were labeled in the *S*-plot (●, control group; ■, CCl₄ group; ▲, CCl₄ + celastrol group). (C) Heat map analysis of the relative abundance of medium- and long-chain acylcarnitines in liver of control, CCl₄, and CCl₄ + celastrol groups. (D) Celastrol decreased LPEs and LPCs levels in liver. (E) Lipid-related mRNAs were attenuated after celastrol treatment in liver. All data are expressed as mean ± SEM (n = 5). Values represent fold change after normalization to control. ***P* < 0.01, ****P* < 0.001, ns = not significant.

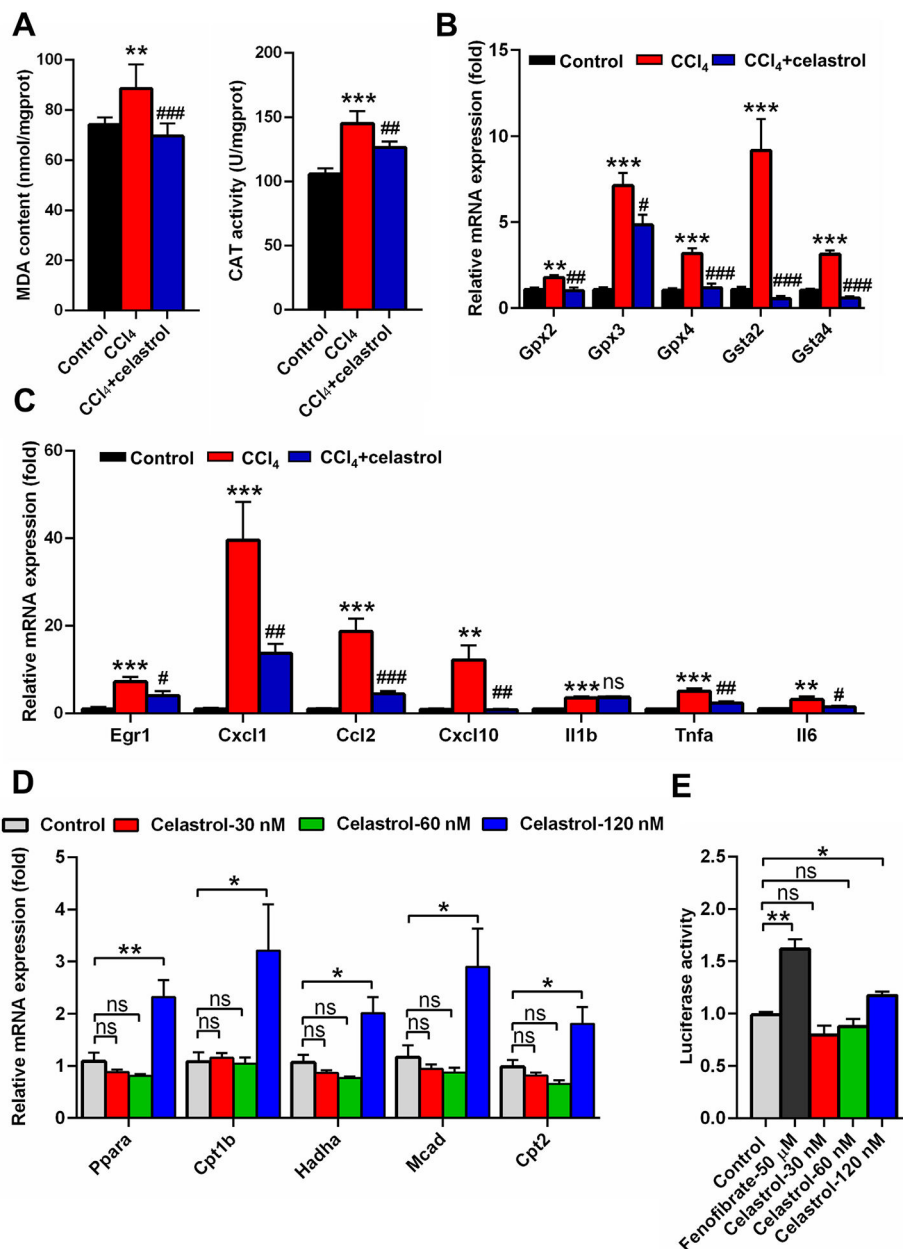


Fig. 4. Celastrol eliminated oxidative stress and activated the PPAR α signaling pathway. (A) Hepatic MDA and CAT levels in control, CCl₄, and CCl₄ + celastrol groups. (B) QPCR analysis of the mRNA expression of hepatic Gpx and Gst isoforms. (C) QPCR analysis of the mRNA expression of *Egr1* and its downstream genes in liver. ** $P < 0.01$ and *** $P < 0.001$ verse control; # $P < 0.05$, ## $P < 0.01$, ### $P < 0.001$, and ns means not significant verse CCl₄. (D) QPCR analysis of the gene expression of PPAR α and its target genes in primary mouse hepatocyte after celastrol treatment for 24 h *in vitro*. (E) Luciferase assays of the activation of PPAR α in HEK293 cells. All data are expressed as mean \pm SEM (n = 5). Values represent fold change after normalization to control. * $P < 0.05$, ** $P < 0.01$, ns = not significant.

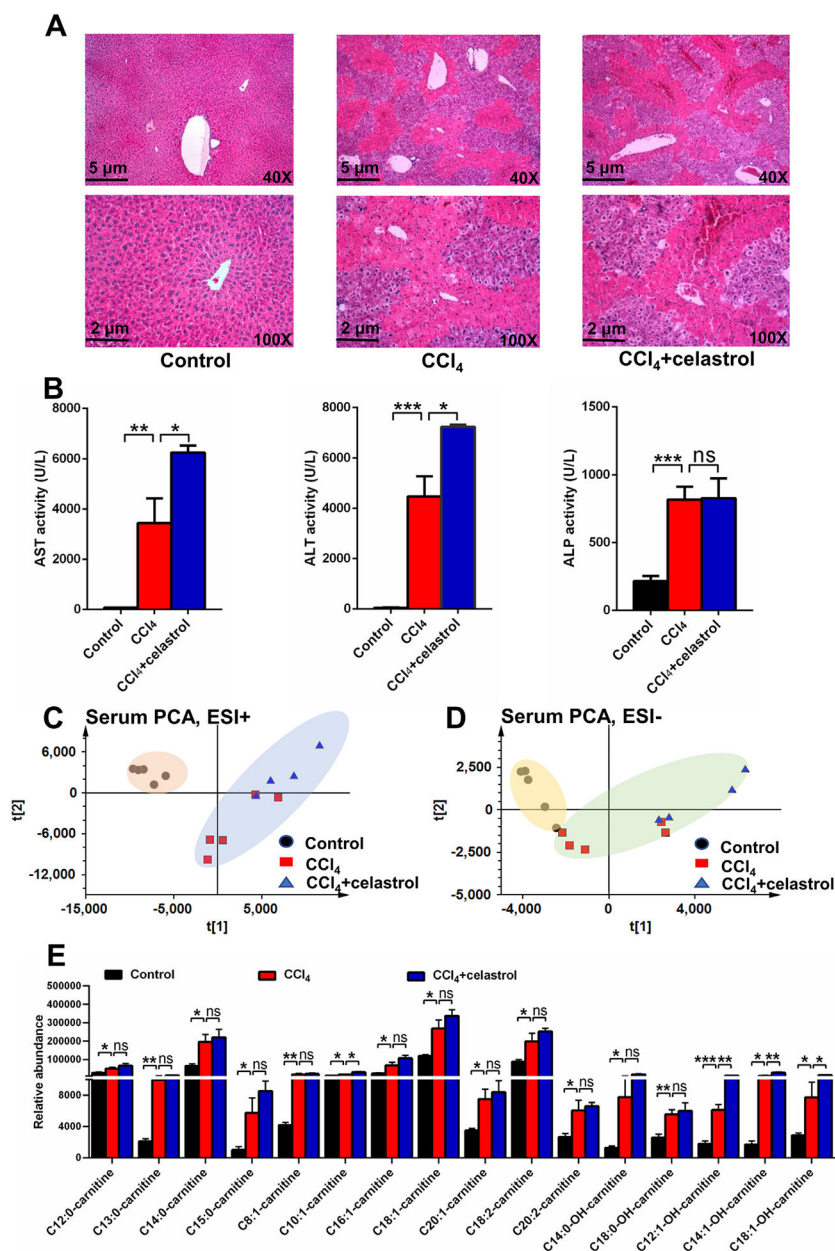


Fig. 5. Role of PPAR α in celastrol protected against liver injury using *Ppara*^{-/-} mice. (A) H&E staining of liver. (B) Serum AST, ALT, and ALP enzyme activities. PCA score plot derived from LC-MS data of serum ions in both positive (C) and negative (D) modes. Each point represents an individual mouse serum sample (●, control group; ■, CCl₄ group; ▲, CCl₄ + celastrol group). (E) Serum acylcarnitine levels in *Ppara*^{-/-} mice. All data are expressed as mean \pm SEM (n = 5). **P* < 0.05, ***P* < 0.01, ****P* < 0.001, ns = not significant.

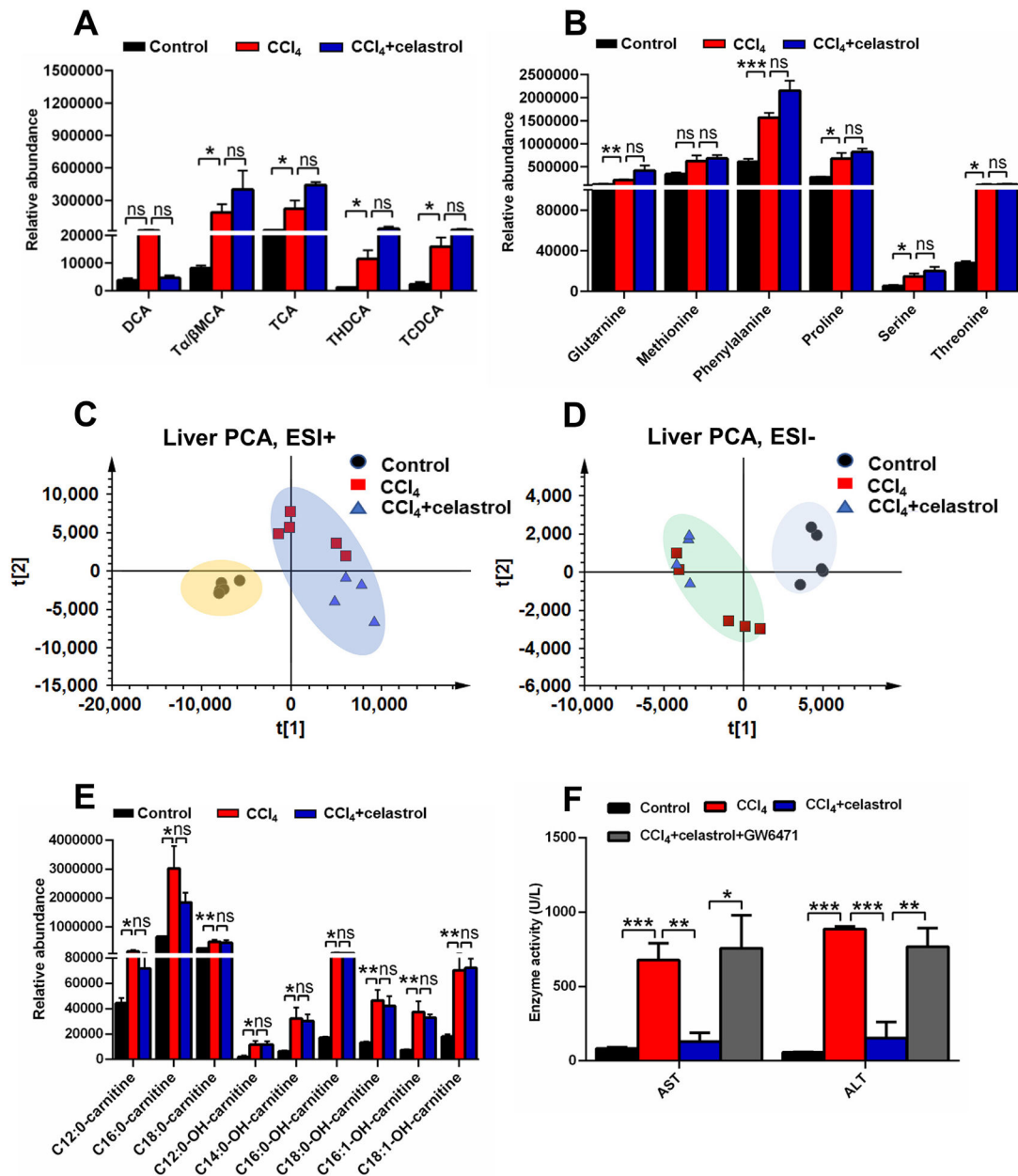


Fig. 6. Role of celastrol was dependent on PPAR α using *Ppara*^{-/-} mice and PPAR α inhibition GW6471. Serum bile acids (A) and amino acids (B) levels in *Ppara*^{-/-} mice. PCA score plot derived from LC-MS data of liver ions in both positive (C) and negative (D) modes. Each point represented an individual mouse serum sample (●, control group; ■, CCl₄ group; ▲, CCl₄ + celastrol group). (E) Hepatic acylcarnitine levels in *Ppara*^{-/-} mice. (F) The protective effect of celastrol was attenuated after GW6471 cotreatment. All data are expressed as mean \pm SEM (n = 5). *P < 0.05, **P < 0.01, ***P < 0.001, ns = not significant.

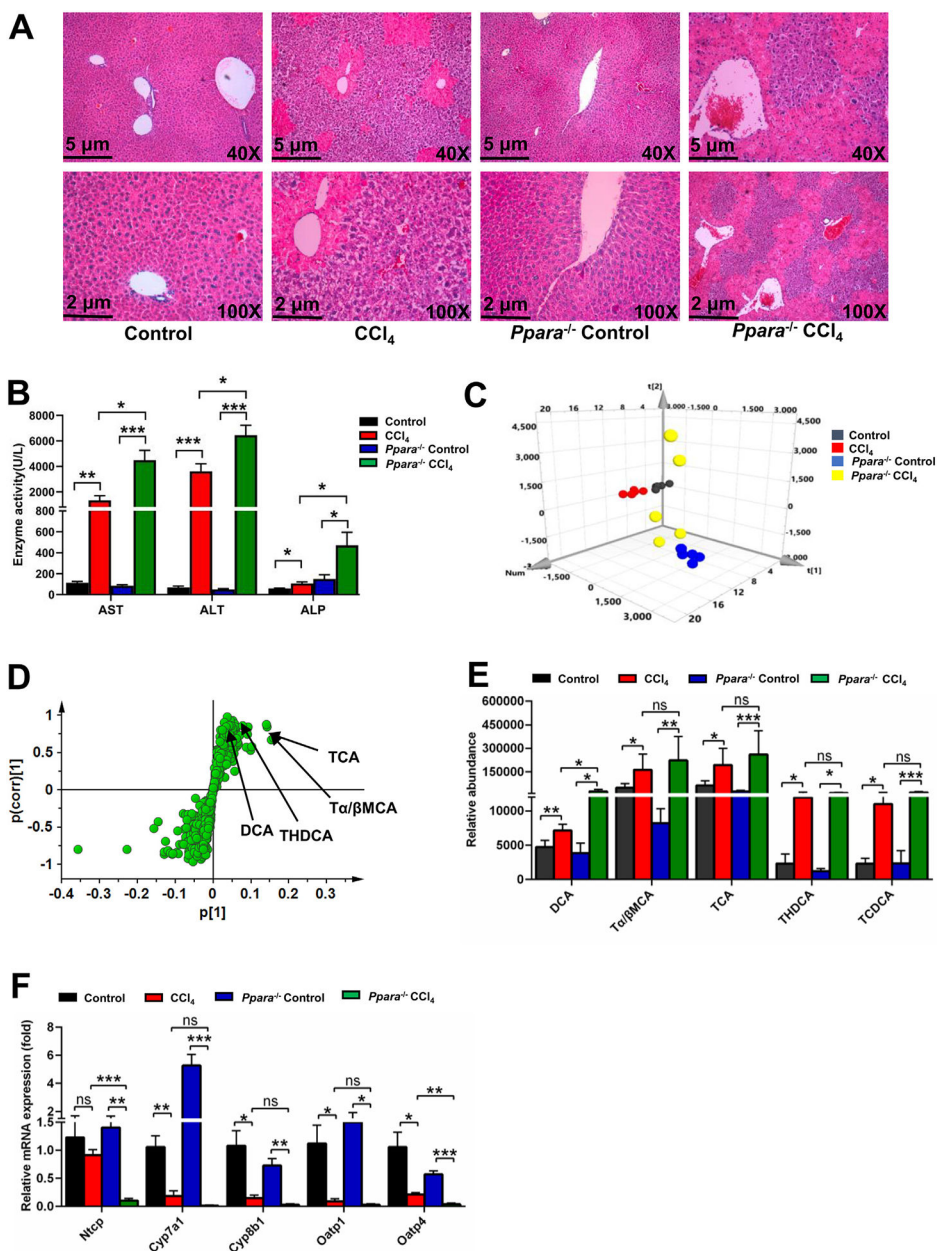


Fig. 7. Role of PPAR α in CCl $_4$ -induced liver injury using *Ppara*^{-/-} mice. (A) H&E staining of liver. (B) Serum AST, ALT, and ALP enzyme activities. PCA score plot (C) and OPLS-DA *S*-plot (D) derived from LC-MS data of serum ions. Each point represented an individual mouse serum sample (-up) and an ion in the sample (-down). Metabolites were labeled in the OPLS-DA *S*-plot. (E) Serum bile acids levels in CCl $_4$ -induced liver injury. (F) QPCR analysis of the hepatic mRNA expression of bile acids synthesis and basolateral uptake transporters. All data are expressed as mean \pm SEM (n = 5). Values represent fold change after normalization to control. **P* < 0.05, ***P* < 0.01, ****P* < 0.001, ns = not significant.

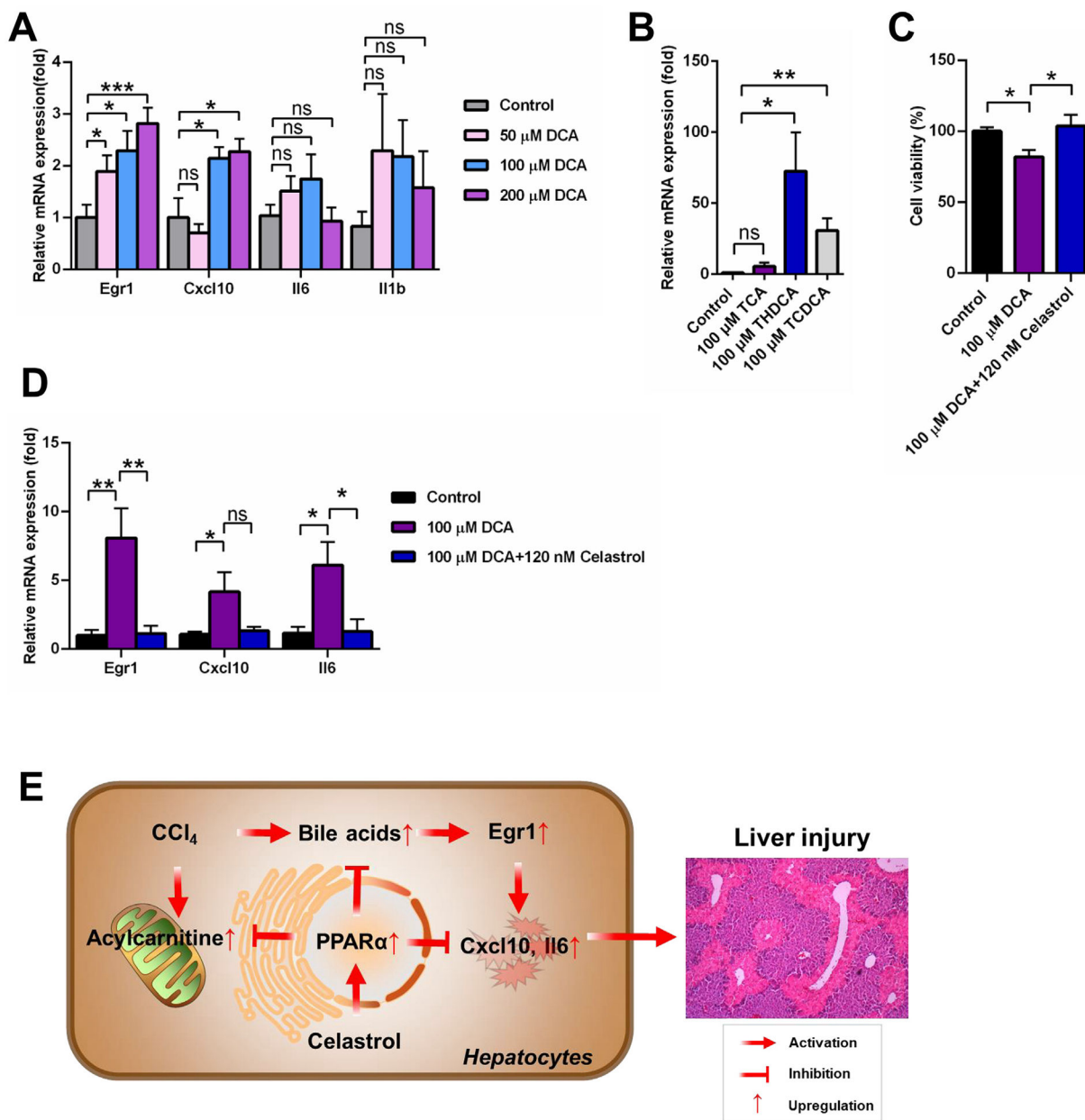


Fig. 8. Bile acids, especially DCA, activated EGR1-inflammatory factor axis. (A) DCA increased *Egr1* mRNA and its downstream mRNAs *Cxcl10* in primary mouse hepatocyte. (B) THDCA and TCDCA increased *Egr1* mRNA in primary mouse hepatocyte. (C) Celastrol reversed the down-regulation of cell viability induced by DCA in primary mouse hepatocyte. (D) Celastrol reversed the increase of *Egr1* and its downstream genes in primary mouse hepatocyte. (E) Proposed mechanism of hepatoprotective effect of celastrol against liver injury. All data are expressed as mean ± SEM (n = 5). Value represented fold change after normalization to control. **P* < 0.05, ***P* < 0.01, ****P* < 0.001, ns = not significant.

Table 1

Biomarkers recovered by celastrol.

No.	Identity	Rt (min)		Observed	Error (ppm)	Formula	MS/MS
		PR	HILIC				
1	C8:0-carnitine	6.3	-	288.2169	0.3	C15H29NO4[H+]	144;85;60
2	C10:0-carnitine	7.4	-	316.2483	-1.3	C17H33NO4[H+]	257;144;85
3 ^a	C12:0-carnitine	8.4	-	344.2783	-3.2	C19H37NO4[H+]	285;183;144;85;60
4	C13:0-carnitine	8.8	-	358.2952	0.6	C20H39NO4[H+]	299;144;85;60
5 ^a	C14:0-carnitine	9.4	-	372.3109	0.5	C21H41NO4[H+]	313;211;144;85
6	C15:0-carnitine	9.7	-	386.3231	-8.3	C22H43NO4[H+]	327;144;225;85;60
7 ^a	C16:0-carnitine	10.3	-	400.3423	0.7	C23H45NO4[H+]	341;239;144;85
8	C17:0-carnitine	10.8	-	414.3573	-0.7	C24H47NO4[H+]	355;85;60
9 ^a	C18:0-carnitine	11.3	-	428.3711	-5.1	C25H49NO4[H+]	369;267;144;85
10	C8:1-carnitine	4.8	-	286.2011	-0.6	C15H27NO4[H+]	85;60
11	C10:1-carnitine	6.9	-	314.2329	1.0	C17H31NO4[H+]	85
12	C11:1-carnitine	7.6	-	328.2483	0.4	C18H33NO4[H+]	85;60
13	C12:1-carnitine	7.9	-	342.2657	5.8	C19H35NO4[H+]	283;85;60
14	C14:1-carnitine	8.9	-	370.2943	-1.9	C21H39NO4[H+]	311;209;144;85;60
15	C16:1-carnitine	9.7	-	398.3261	-0.5	C23H43NO4[H+]	339;237;144;85;60
16	C17:1-carnitine	10.1	-	412.3422	0.2	C24H45NO4[H+]	353
17	C18:1-carnitine	10.6	-	426.3573	-0.7	C25H47NO4[H+]	367;265;144;85;60
18	C20:1-carnitine	11.4	-	454.3884	-1.5	C27H51NO4[H+]	395;293;144;85;60
19	C10:2-carnitine	6.6	-	312.2173	1.4	C17H29NO4[H+]	85;60
20	C12:2-carnitine	7.4	-	340.2481	-0.2	C19H33NO4[H+]	85;60
21	C14:2-carnitine	8.3	-	368.2801	1.9	C21H37NO4[H+]	207;144;85;60
22	C15:2-carnitine	8.7	-	382.2965	3.5	C22H39NO4[H+]	221;85;60
23	C16:2-carnitine	9.2	-	396.3109	0.3	C23H41NO4[H+]	85;60
24	C17:2-carnitine	9.5	-	410.3264	-0.2	C24H43NO4[H+]	85;60
25	C18:2-carnitine	10.0	-	424.3443	5.4	C25H45NO4[H+]	365;263;144;85;60
26	C20:2-carnitine	10.8	-	452.3720	-3.1	C27H49NO4[H+]	393;144;85;60

No.	Identity	Rt (min)	Observed	Error (ppm)	Formula	MS/MS	
		PR	HILIC				
27	C8:0-OH-carnitine	4.1	-	304.2113	-1.3	C15H29NO5[H+]	85;60
28	C10:0-OH-carnitine	6.3	-	332.2430	0.0	C17H33NO5[H+]	85
29	C12:0-OH-carnitine	7.4	-	360.2743	-0.6	C19H37NO5[H+]	199;144;85
30	C13:0-OH-carnitine	8.2	-	374.2907	1.7	C20H39NO5[H+]	85;60
31	C14:0-OH-carnitine	8.4	-	388.3052	-1.0	C21H41NO5[H+]	329;85;60
32	C16:0-OH-carnitine	9.3	-	416.3367	-0.5	C23H45NO5[H+]	357;85
33	C18:0-OH-carnitine	10.3	-	444.3683	0.2	C25H49NO5[H+]	283;85;60
34	C12:1-OH-carnitine	6.9	-	358.2583	-1.4	C19H35NO5[H+]	85;60
35	C14:1-OH-carnitine	8.0	-	386.2896	-1.0	C21H39NO5[H+]	327;225;85
36	C16:1-OH-carnitine	8.7	-	414.3223	2.4	C23H43NO5[H+]	253;144;85;60
37	C18:1-OH-carnitine	9.6	-	442.3534	1.8	C25H47NO5[H+]	383;281;144;85;60
38	C20:1-OH-carnitine	10.5	-	470.3844	0.8	C27H51NO5[H+]	85;60
39 ^a	DCA	10.2	-	391.2857	0.8	C24H40O4[H-]	373;355;345;327
40 ^a	Tα/βMCA	6.3	-	514.2825	-3.5	C26H45NO7S[H-]	124;80
41 ^a	TCA	7.2	-	514.2873	5.8	C26H45NO7S[H-]	124;80
42 ^a	TCDCa	8.1	-	498.2890	-1.0	C26H48NO6S[H-]	124;80
43 ^a	THDCA	7.1	-	498.2893	-0.4	C26H48NO6S[H-]	124;80
44 ^a	Glutamine	0.9	5.3	147.0762	-1.2	C5H10N2O3[H+]	84;56
45 ^a	Serine	0.8	5.3	106.0497	-1.9	C3H7NO3[H+]	70;60;42
46 ^a	Methionine	1.0	5.2	150.0583	0.0	C5H11O2NS[H+]	133;104;102;56
47 ^a	Phenylalanine	1.0	5.0	166.0865	1.2	C9H11NO2[H+]	149;131;120;103;93;77
48 ^a	Proline	0.9	5.5	116.0701	-4.3	C5H9NO2[H+]	58;59;70;74
49 ^a	Threonine	0.8	5.4	120.0653	-1.7	C4H9NO3[H+]	102;84;74;56

^aConfirmed by authentic standards.

Table 2

Primer sequences for QPCR.

Gene	Abbreviation	Sequence
Choline kinase α	<i>Chka</i>	AAAGTGCTCTGCGGCTCTA GACCTCTCTGCAAGAATGGC
Chemokine (C-C motif) ligand 2	<i>Ccl2</i>	AGGTCCCTGTCATGCTTCTG GGGATCATCTTGCTGGTGAA
Carnitine palmitoyltransferase 1	<i>Cpt1b</i>	CCTCTCATGGTGAACAGCAA GGTCCAGTTACGGCGATAC
Carnitine palmitoyltransferase 2	<i>Cpt2</i>	CAGCACAGCATCGTACCCA TCCCAATGCCGTTCTCAAAT
Chemokine (C-X-C motif) ligand 1	<i>Cxcl1</i>	AACCGAAGTCATAGCCACAC CAGACGGTGCCATCAGAG
Chemokine (C-X-C motif) ligand 10	<i>Cxcl10</i>	TCAGCACCATGAACCCAAG CTATGGCCCTCATTCTCACTG
Cholesterol 7 α -hydroxylase	<i>Cyp7a1</i>	GGGAATGCCATTTACTTGGA GTCCGGATATTCAAGGATGC
Sterol 12 α -hydroxylase	<i>Cyp8b1</i>	TCCTCAGGGTGGTACAGGAG GATAGGGGAAGAGAGCCACC
Early growth response 1	<i>Egr1</i>	ACGACAGCAGTCCCATCTACTCGG GGACTCGACAGGGCAAGCATATGG
Glutathione peroxidase 2	<i>Gpx2</i>	GGGCTGTGCTGATTGAGA CGGACATACTTGAGGCTGTT
Glutathione peroxidase 3	<i>Gpx3</i>	GGCTTCCCTTCCAACC AATTTCTGCTCTTCTCCC
Glutathione peroxidase 4	<i>Gpx4</i>	ACGATGCCCACCCACT CCACGCAGCCGTTCTT
Glutathione S-transferase α 2	<i>Gsta2</i>	TTATGTCCCCAGACCAAAG CCTGTTGCCACAAGGTAGT
Glutathione S-transferase α 4	<i>Gsta4</i>	AGACCACGGAGAGGCT CCTGACCACCTCAACATAGGG
Hydroxyacyl-CoA dehydrogenase	<i>Hadha</i>	AAGGGGATGTGGCAGTTATT ACTCTGATTTGGTCGTTGG
Interleukin 1	<i>Mb</i>	CCCTGCAGCTGGAGAGTGTGGA TGTGCTCTGCTTGTGAGGTGCTG
Interleukin 6	<i>H6</i>	TGATGCACTGCAGAAAACA ACCAGAGGAAATTTCAATAGGC
Lysophosphatidylcholine acyltransferase 1	<i>Lpcat1</i>	CACGAGCTGCGACTGAGC ATGAAAGCAGCGAACAGGAG
Lysophosphatidylcholine acyltransferase 4	<i>Lpcat4</i>	GAGTTACACCTCTCCGGCCT GGCCAGAGGAGAAAAGAGGAC
Medium-chain acyl-CoA dehydrogenase	<i>Mcad</i>	GCGAGCAGAAATGAACTCC AGCTCTAGACGAAGCCACGA
Sodium taurocholate cotransporting polypeptide	<i>Ntcp</i>	AGGGGGACATGAACCTCAG TCCGTCGTAGATTCCTTTGC
Organic anion transporting protein 1	<i>Oatp1</i>	ACTCCCATAATGCCTTGG TAATCGGGCCAACAATCTTC
Organic anion transporting protein 4	<i>Oatp4</i>	ACCAAACCTCAGCATCCAAGC TAGCTGAATGAGAGGGCTGC
Phosphate cytidylyltransferase 1 α	<i>Pcyt1a</i>	AGCCCTATGTCAGGGTGACT GGCATGACCAGAGTGAACA
Phosphate cytidylyltransferase 1 β	<i>Pcyt1b</i>	ATAGAGCACACATGCCACA GGCAACGGTCAGTTTTTCAT

Gene	Abbreviation	Sequence
Phospholipase D1	<i>Pldl</i>	CTGCATCCTCAAACGGAAAG GCTTGCTGTACTCGCTGTTG
Peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor α	<i>Ppara</i>	CCCAAGGGAGGAATAGCTTCT CTCTGCGATGCGGTTCCTAA
Peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor γ	<i>Pparg</i>	CCACCAACTTCGGAATCAGCT TTTGTGGATCCGGCAGTTAAGA
Sphingomyelinphosphodiesterase 3	<i>Smpd3</i>	CCTGACCAGTGCCATTCTTT AGAAACCCGGTCTCGTACT
Tumour necrosis factor α	<i>Tnfa</i>	CCACCACGCTCTTCTGTCTAC AGGGTCTGGGCCATAGAACT
18S ribosomal RNA	<i>18S</i>	ATTGGAGCTGGAATTACCGC CGGCTACCACATCCAAGGAA

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