

## ORIGINAL RESEARCH

# Reprogramming of aerobic glycolysis in non-transformed mouse liver with pyruvate dehydrogenase complex deficiency

 Mulchand S. Patel<sup>1</sup>  | Saleh Mahmood<sup>1</sup> | Jiwon Jung<sup>1</sup> | Todd C. Rideout<sup>2</sup> 

<sup>1</sup>Department of Biochemistry, Jacobs School of Medicine and Biomedical Sciences, University at Buffalo, Buffalo, NY, USA

<sup>2</sup>Department of Exercise and Nutrition Sciences, School of Public Health and Health Professions, University at Buffalo, Buffalo, NY, USA

## Correspondence

Mulchand S. Patel, Jacobs School of Medicine and Biomedical Sciences, 955 Main Street, Suite 4102, Buffalo, NY 14203.

Email: mspatel@buffalo.edu

## Funding information

This work was supported in part by US Public Health Service Grant NS093264 (MSP).

## Abstract

The Pyruvate Dehydrogenase Complex (PDC), a key enzyme in glucose metabolism, catalyzes an irreversible oxidative decarboxylation reaction of pyruvate to acetyl-CoA, linking the cytosolic glycolytic pathway to mitochondrial tricarboxylic acid cycle and oxidative phosphorylation. Earlier we reported a down-regulation of several key hepatic lipogenic enzymes and their upstream regulators in liver-specific PDC-deficient mouse (L-PDCKO model by deleting the *Pdha1* gene). In this study we investigated gene expression profiles of key glycolytic enzymes and other proteins that respond to various metabolic stresses in liver from L-PDCKO mice. Transcripts of several, such as hexokinase 2, phosphoglycerate kinase 1, pyruvate kinase muscle-type 2, and lactate dehydrogenase B as well as those for the nonglycolysis-related proteins, CD-36, C/EBP homologous protein, and peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor  $\gamma$ , were up-regulated in L-PDCKO liver whereas hypoxia-induced factor-1 $\alpha$ , pyruvate dehydrogenase kinase 1 and Sirtuin 1 transcripts were down-regulated. The protein levels of pyruvate kinase muscle-type 2 and lactate dehydrogenase B were increased whereas that of lactate dehydrogenase A was decreased in PDC-deficient mouse liver. Analysis of endoplasmic reticulum and oxidative stress indicators suggests that the L-PDCKO liver showed evidence of the former but not the latter. These findings indicate that (i) liver-specific PDC deficiency is sufficient to induce “aerobic glycolysis characteristic” in mouse liver, and (ii) the mechanism(s) responsible for these changes appears distinct from that which induces the Warburg effect in some cancer cells.

## KEYWORDS

aerobic glycolysis, Liver PDC deficiency, PKM2 and LDHB gene expression, SIRT1 down-regulation

## 1 | INTRODUCTION

Cancer cells exhibit atypical adaptive metabolic characteristics in the oxidative metabolism of glucose depending upon the origin of cell-type and growth patterns (Goetzman

& Prochownik, 2018; Vander Heiden et al., 2009). Cancers originating from prostate, lung and liver show increased mitochondrial metabolism of pyruvate derived from glucose with increased gene expression as well as increased functional activity of the pyruvate dehydrogenase complex (PDC) (Chen

This is an open access article under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits use, distribution and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

© 2021 The Authors. *Physiological Reports* published by Wiley Periodicals LLC on behalf of The Physiological Society and the American Physiological Society

et al., 2018; Dolezal et al., 2017; Marin-Valencia et al., 2012). These changes not only support increased demand for ATP generation by mitochondrial oxidative phosphorylation for biosynthetic processes for rapidly growing cancers but also provide acetyl-CoA as the precursor for biosynthesis of lipids such as fatty acids and cholesterol for rapidly proliferating cells (Chen et al., 2018). Additionally, pyruvate carboxylase-mediated anaplerosis supports survival and proliferation of some cancers and rapidly growing nontransformed fibroblasts (Sellers et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2019).

In contrast, in other cancers originating from lung and intestine, hypoxia-induced factor-1 $\alpha$  (HIF-1 $\alpha$ ), together with the expression of specific oncogene kinases, cause alterations in gene expression profiles that correspond to an aerobic glycolytic metabolism of glucose with reduced mitochondrial oxidation of glucose-derived intermediate such as pyruvate (classically known as the Warburg effect) (DeBerardinis et al., 2008; Papandreou et al., 2006). PDC, a multienzyme complex, is the gatekeeper of pyruvate oxidation in the mitochondria, and its first catalytic component, the pyruvate dehydrogenase (PDH), is subject to inactivation by phosphorylation of three specific serine residues in its  $\alpha$  subunit by a family of four dedicated PDH kinases (PDK 1–4) (Bowker-Kinley et al., 1998; Korotchikina & Patel, 2001; Patel & Korotchikina, 2003). Different PDKs are up-regulated in specific cell and cancer-dependent patterns, causing increased inactivation of PDH and the PDC complex as a whole (Dupuy et al., 2015; Grassian et al., 2011; Kim et al., 2006; Saunier et al., 2016; Woolbright et al., 2019). Expression of specific oncogene kinases (FGFR1, FLT3, BCR-ABL) in cancer cells also phosphorylate specific tyrosine residues in several PDC component proteins, promoting PDC inactivation (Fan et al., 2014; Hitosugi et al., 2011; Shan et al., 2014). Furthermore, HIF-1 $\alpha$  up-regulates PDK1 gene expression to enhance PDK-dependent inhibition of PDH (Kim et al., (2006)) and HIF-1 $\alpha$  also down-regulates mitochondrial oxidative phosphorylation system (Reznik et al. 2017). Collectively, these “adaptive” changes due to the Warburg effect result in the constitutively increased glycolytic metabolism needed for rapid cytosolic ATP generation, the anabolic substrates needed for the accrual of biomass and the production of pyruvate-derived lactate, which regenerates the NAD<sup>+</sup> needed to sustain the entire glycolytic pathway. Increases in the expression of several key glycolytic enzymes such as hexokinase 2 (HK2), pyruvate kinase muscle isozyme-2 (PKM2) and lactate dehydrogenase type A (LDHA) (Dang et al., 2008; DeBerardinis et al., 2008; Lewis et al., 2000) are well-documented in cancers exposed to hypoxic conditions. The mitochondrial pyruvate carrier (MPC), a multienzyme complex composed of two distinct MPC1 and MPC2 subunits, is required for mitochondrial pyruvate import (Schell & Rutter, 2013). Under-expression or deletion of MPC genes, particularly MPC1, is observed in many cancers

with poor prognosis (Eboli et al., 1977; Paradies et al., 1983; Schell et al., 2014).

It is not clear whether the above “adaptive” metabolic changes are acquired as a result of the constraints of a tumor microenvironment or are necessary prerequisites for its initiation. Using the earliest transition of normal human intestinal epithelium cells to hyperplastic adenoma, Bensard et al. (2020) recently showed that the earliest stages of colorectal cancer initiation were supported by aerobic glycolytic metabolism coupled with down-regulation of the mitochondrial pyruvate carrier (MPC). Additionally, using genetically altered MPC in *Drosophila* and mouse models, these investigators demonstrated that reduction in mitochondrial pyruvate metabolism due to MPC depletion was sufficient to enhance oncogenic susceptibility of intestinal cells from both species (Bensard et al., 2020).

Mitochondrial pyruvate metabolism is carried out by two principal enzymes, namely the PDC and pyruvate carboxylase (PC), generating acetyl-CoA and oxaloacetate respectively, to support the formation of the tricarboxylic acid (TCA) cycle intermediates for the oxidative metabolism as well as to supply intermediates for the biosynthetic processes in the cell. Since genetic elimination of the MPC affects the functions of both PDC and PC, it is difficult to access their relative contributions to the development of the metabolic shift (aerobic glycolysis) in otherwise normal intestinal cells exposed to normal oxygen level. To evaluate the specific contribution of PDC in this ‘adaptive’ metabolic process, we employed a liver-specific *Pdhal*-knockout mouse model (with PDC activity deficiency) to evaluate its impact on a liver-specific metabolic shift in the glycolytic gene expression profile. Our findings clearly show that hepatocyte-specific PDC loss is sufficient to alter the expression of several key glycolytic enzymes, thus mimicking the aerobic glycolytic response seen in many cancer cells.

## 2 | METHODS

### 2.1 | Generation of liver-specific L-PDCKO mice

Mice (129 J genetic background) harboring the *Pdhal*-*lox8* allele(s) were generated as described previously (Johnson et al., 2001), and their genetic background was then switched to B6 by back-crossing of floxed females with B6 wild-type males for 10 generations (Patel et al., 2014). The progeny of the last breeding was intrabred to derive a *Pdhal*-floxed colony with the B6 genetic background. To delete exon 8 in the *Pdhal* gene in the liver from male progeny (L-PDCKO), homozygous *Pdhal*<sup>*lox8/lox8*</sup> females with the B6 genetic background (Patel et al., 2014) were bred with the C57BL/6-TgN9AlbCre 21Mgn transgenic

male mice (The Jackson Laboratory), carrying an autosomally integrated *Cre* gene driven by the albumin promoter (Postic et al., 1999). The *Pdha1* gene is localized on chromosome X in the mouse, and hence the deletion of its exon 8 by Cre recombinase created complete deletion of PDH $\alpha$  protein in the male progeny only. Since female progeny were heterozygous for the *Pdha* gene expression in the liver, we did not include them in this study. To generate Cre-positive control male mice (L-PDCCT), wild-type B6 females were bred with transgenic albumin promoter-driven-*Cre* B6 males. Mice had free access to a standard rodent chow diet and water. Tail DNA from ~12-day-old progeny were isolated using a kit (Omniprep™ I; Genotechnology) and genotyped (Mahmood et al., 2016). Only male mice were weaned on postnatal day 21 on a standard rodent chow diet and water *ad libitum* and investigated in this study. Approximately 2-month-old L-PDCCT and L-PDCKO male mice in the fed state were deeply anesthetized, livers were quickly removed, frozen in liquid nitrogen, and stored at  $-80^{\circ}\text{C}$ . The procedures for breeding and maintenance of all mouse colonies and all experiments were performed in accordance with the Guide for the Use and Care of Laboratory Animals and approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee of the University at Buffalo (Protocol #201900008).

## 2.2 | Quantitative real-time polymerase chain reaction (qRT-PCR) for gene expression

Livers (~100 mg) were homogenized in TRIzol reagent to extract total RNA as per the manufacturer's instructions (Life Technologies). Total RNA (~1  $\mu\text{g}$ ) was reverse transcribed into cDNA using an iScript cDNA kit (Bio-Rad). RT-PCR reactions were performed using appropriately diluted cDNA in triplicate with ( $\beta$ -actin) serving as an internal control, and gene expression levels were quantified using a CFX96 Touch RT-PCR detection system (Bio-Rad) according to the manufacturer's recommendation. Relative quantification of amplified DNA was performed using the delta-delta Ct method (Choi et al., 2010; Mahmood et al., 2016). Primers used for gene expression analysis are presented in Table S1 ([https://figshare.com/articles/figure/\\_/12821813](https://figshare.com/articles/figure/_/12821813)).

## 2.3 | Western blotting

Liver homogenates were fractionated according to the procedure described earlier (Mahmood et al., 2016). Briefly, liver (~100 mg) was homogenized in buffered sucrose containing a protease inhibitor cocktail (Sigma-Aldrich) and subjected to centrifugation to obtain the cytosolic fraction

(Mahmood et al., 2016), and stored at  $-80^{\circ}\text{C}$ . The protein content was determined using Bio-Rad protein assay. Cytosolic proteins were separated and immunodetected using the Western blotting technique as described previously (Mahmood et al., 2016). Equal amounts of protein (ranging from 25 to 50  $\mu\text{g}$ ) were separated using sodium dodecyl sulfate-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis, transferred to nitrocellulose membranes, and detected using specified antibodies as listed: PKM1 (Cell Signaling, #7067S; dil:1:1000), PKM2 (Cell Signaling #4053S; dil:1:1000), LDHA (Cell Signaling, #2012S; dil:1:1000), LDHB (Invitrogen #PA5-85883; dil:1:3000), and anti-PDH antibody (dil:1:2000) (Mahmood et al., 2016) to detect pyruvate dehydrogenase component of PDC.  $\beta$ -Actin used as a loading control was detected using  $\beta$ -actin (D6A8) antibody (Cell Signaling, #8457S; dil:1:1000). Protein bands were visualized using an Enhanced Chemiluminescence kit (Perkin-Elmer) and analyzed using Bio-Rad ChemiDoc MP image analyzer.

## 2.4 | Data analysis

Results are expressed as means  $\pm$ SE of 5 to 8 animals as indicated, and statistical differences between the means were accessed using Students' t-test and a significant difference was assigned when the *p* value was  $<0.05$ .

# 3 | RESULTS

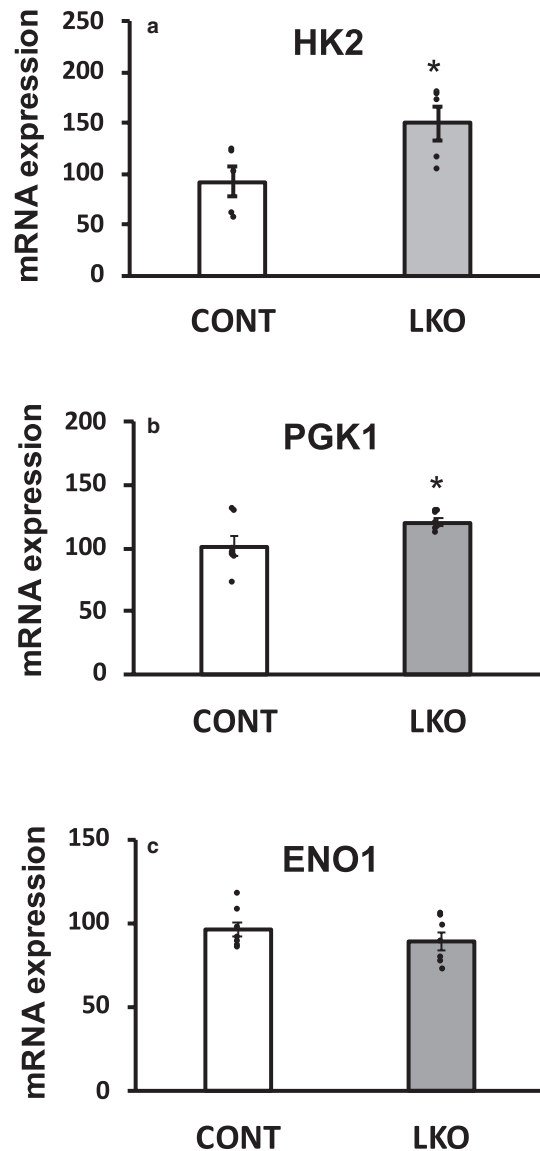
## 3.1 | Analyses of *Pdha1*mRNA and PDH protein in liver-specific PDC-deficient (L-PDCKO) male mice

Progeny from the breeding of *Pdha1*-floxed homozygous females with liver-specific albumin-Cre transgenic males were found to be normal in average litter size with no embryonic lethality and their postnatal growth was similar to that of the control L-PDCCT progeny (results not shown), as reported previously (Mahmood et al., 2016). A detailed genomic analysis of L-PDCKO and L-PDCCT mice was reported previously (Mahmood et al., 2016) and similar genotypic results were observed for the mice reported here. Genomic analysis of tail DNA showed the presence of the 800 bp *Pdha1*<sup>fl $\alpha$</sup>  allele and the 240 bp *Cre* allele in L-PDCKO male mice and the presence of the 700 bp *Pdha1*<sup>wt</sup> allele and the 240 bp *Cre* allele in L-PDCCT male mice. Liver genomic DNA analysis of 2-month-old L-PDCKO male mice showed the presence of the 400 bp *Pdha* <sup>$\Delta$ ex8</sup> deleted allele, whereas the presence of the 800 bp *Pdha1*-floxed allele was detected in skeletal muscle and heart, indicating deletion of the *Pdha1* allele in the liver

only (results not shown), as reported previously (Mahmood et al., 2016). These tissues from the age-matched control L-PDCCT male mice showed the presence of the 800 bp floxed-*Pdha1* allele as reported previously (Mahmood et al., 2016). The presence of the 240 bp *Cre* allele was detected in all tissues examined from both the L-PDCCT and L-PDCKO male mice, indicating the ubiquitous presence of the *Cre* transgene in all tissues analyzed. As expected, using western blot analysis the complete absence of the  $\alpha$  as well as  $\beta$  subunits of the PDH component of PDC was detected in the liver of L-PDCKO male mice compared with livers from L-PDCCT mice, and both the subunits of PDH were present in all other tissues analyzed in both the groups of mice (Mahmood et al., 2016). In the absence of the  $\alpha$  subunit of PDH, the  $\beta$  subunit of PDH was found to be absent due to its instability (Ho et al., 1986).

### 3.2 | Hepatic gene expression of key glycolytic enzymes in L-PDCKO male mice

Based on the well-characterized metabolic switch for aerobic glycolysis, classically known as the Warburg effect, in many types of cancer cells, we focused on “adaptive changes” in hepatic gene expression of several key enzymes in the glycolytic pathway in the liver of L-PDCKO mice. We performed qRT-PCR analyses of several key glycolytic genes such as hexokinase 2 (HK2; gene symbol *Hk2*), phosphoglycerate kinase 1 (PGK1; *Pgk1*), enolase 1 (ENO1; *Enol*), pyruvate kinase muscle-type 1 and 2 (PKM1 and 2; *Pkm1* and *Pkm2*), and lactate dehydrogenase A and B (LDH A and B; *Ldha* and *Ldhb*). Significant increases in gene expression of *HK2* and *PGK1* were observed in the liver of L-PDCKO mice compared with the control L-PDCCT mice (Figure 1a, b). The expression of hepatic *Enol* gene was not significantly affected in PDCKO mice (Figure 1c). Expression of two enzymes involved in the generation of pyruvate by pyruvate kinase (PK) and its reduction to lactate by LDH are highly up-regulated to support aerobic glycolysis in many different cancer cell-types. Normal liver expresses liver-specific pyruvate kinase (PKL) isozyme with low level expression of muscle-specific PK isozymes (PKM1 and PKM2) resulting from an alternative splicing of the *Pkm* gene. Down-regulation of liver-specific PKL (*Pklr*) gene expression in L-PDCKO was reported earlier (Mahmood et al., 2016). The expression of the *Pkm1* and *Pkm2* genes was differentially affected in the liver of L-PDCKO mice (Figure 2). Hepatic expression of the *Pkm1* gene was not significantly altered but that of the *Pkm2* gene was significantly up-regulated in L-PDCKO mice compared with L-PDCCT mice (Figure 2a, b). Similarly, expression of the *Ldha* gene remained unaffected whereas that of the *Ldhb* gene was significantly



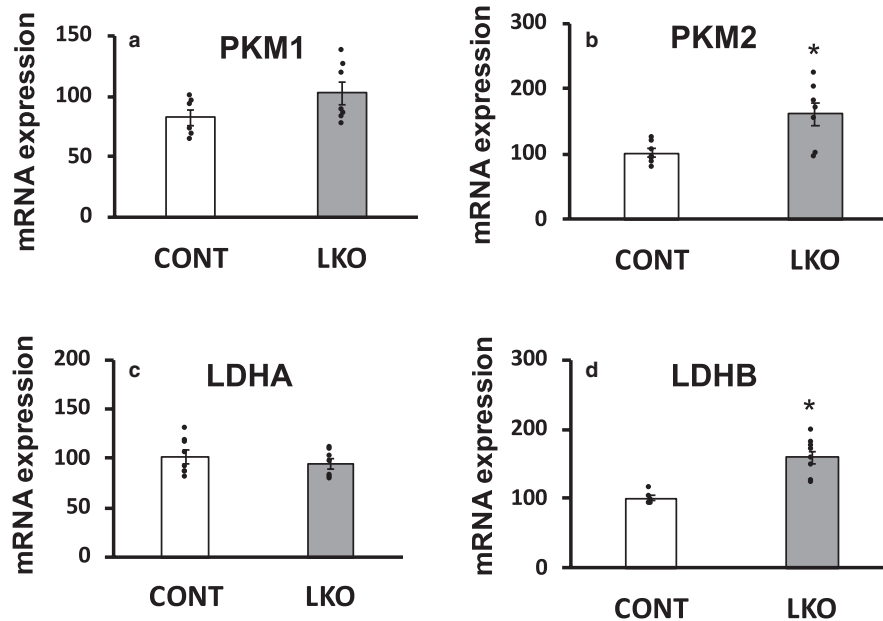
**FIGURE 1** Quantitative real-time PCR analysis of mRNA expression of three glycolytic enzymes (a) Hexokinase 2 (HK2; gene *Hk2*), (b) Phosphoglycerate kinase 1 (PGK1; *Pgk1*), and (c) Enolase 1 (ENO1; *Enol*) in livers from control (L-PDCCT) and liver-specific PDC knockout (L-PDCKO) mice. CONT: control; LKO: liver-knockout. The results are means  $\pm$ SE ( $n = 5-7$ ). \*  $p < 0.05$

up-regulated in the liver of L-PDCKO mice compared with the L-PDCCT mice (Figure 2c, d).

### 3.3 | Hepatic protein levels of key glycolytic enzymes in L-PDCKO mice

To further evaluate the possible effect of differential expression of the *Pkm* and *Ldh* genes on their encoded proteins, we performed western blot analyses using isozyme-specific antibodies. Compared to L-PDCCT mice, PKM1 protein levels in the livers of L-PDCKO mice were not significantly





**FIGURE 2** Quantitative real-time PCR analysis of mRNA expression of four glycolytic enzymes (a) Pyruvate kinase M1 (PKM1; gene *Pkm1*), (b) Pyruvate kinase M2 (PKM2; *Pkm2*), (c) Lactate dehydrogenase A (LDHA; *Ldha*) and (d) Lactate dehydrogenase B (LDHB; *Ldhb*) in livers from control L-PDCCT (CONT) and L-PDCKO (LKO) mice. The results are means  $\pm$ SE ( $n = 5-8$ ). \* $p < 0.05$

altered whereas that PKM2 protein levels were significantly increased (Figure 3a, b). These findings were consistent with their gene expression profiles reported above (see Figure 2a, b). LDHA protein was significantly decreased in L-PDCKO livers (Figure 3c) despite there being no significant changes in its transcripts c (Figure 2c). Hepatic level of LDHB protein was significantly increased in L-PDCKO mice compared with L-PDCCT mice (Figure 3d). This finding is supported by up-regulation of the *Ldhb* gene in L-PDCKO mice (Figure 2d).

### 3.4 | Hepatic gene expression of HIF-1 $\alpha$ and other metabolic and cellular stress inducers in L-PDCKO male mice

To evaluate if the observed “adaptations” in gene expression in the key enzymes in the glycolytic pathway were influenced by HIF-1 $\alpha$  and its downstream-regulated *Pdk* genes, we analyzed expression of the *HIF-1 $\alpha$*  and *Pdk1*, 2 and 4 genes. Interestingly, expression of the *HIF-1 $\alpha$*  and *Pdk1* genes was significantly decreased whereas that of the *Pdk2* and *Pdk4* genes was not significantly altered in the liver of L-PDCKO mice compared with L-PDCCT mice (Figure 4a-d).

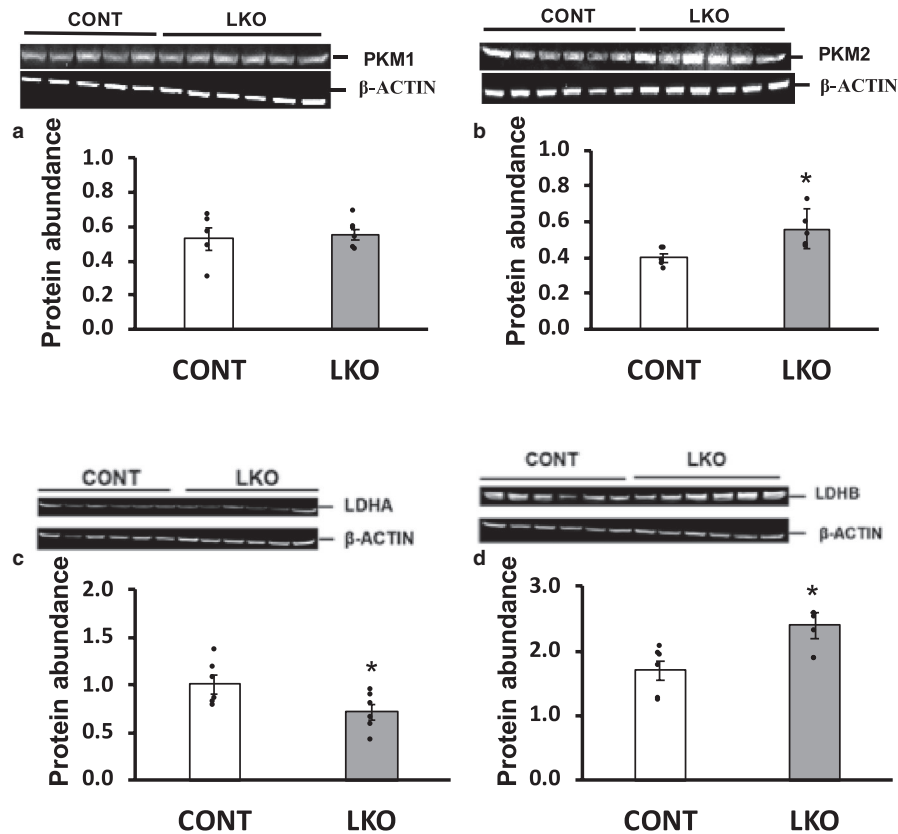
Because of a block in carbohydrate oxidative metabolism due to PDC deficiency, hepatocytes switch over to oxidation of alternate fuels and hence may experience metabolic and/or cellular stress. During the fasted state when glucose oxidation is inhibited due to PDC inactivation by its phosphorylation in the liver, long-chain fatty acids are the preferred

fuel for mitochondrial oxidative metabolism by hepatocytes. CD36 acts as a receptor for high affinity uptake of long-chain fatty acids in tissues. Hence, we determined *Cd36* gene expression in the liver of L-PDCKO mice. As seen in Figure 5a, *Cd36* gene expression was significantly up-regulated in the liver of L-PDCKO mice compared with L-PDCCT mice.

PDC is localized in the mitochondrial matrix space, and hence its absence in hepatocytes may result in persistent oxidative stress. Since superoxide dismutase 2 (SOD2) is a key mitochondrial antioxidant, we evaluated its expression. Surprisingly, there was no significant alteration in *Sod2* gene expression in L-PDCKO versus L-PDCCT livers (Figure 5b) thereby suggesting that the former was not subject to excessive mitochondrial stress. In contrast, a significant increase in transcripts for C/EBP homologous protein (CHOP), an indicator of endoplasmic reticulum (ER) stress was observed in L-PDCKO livers (Figure 5c).

Despite increased expression of several key glycolytic enzyme transcripts in the liver of L-PDCKO mice, there is no evidence of increased proliferation and/or invasion (Jackson et al., 2017). Since peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor  $\gamma$  (PPAR $\gamma$ ) activation has been shown to inhibit the invasive and metastatic potential of hepatocellular carcinoma, we analyzed *Pparg* gene expression and found a significant increase in its expression in L-PDCKO livers (Figure 5d).

Sirtuin (SIRT)1 and 2 are histone/protein deacetylases and play important roles in cellular functions in both normal and cancer cells (Farcas et al., 2019). We found a significant reduction in *Sirt1* gene expression and an increase in hepatic *Sirt2* gene expression in L-PDCKO mice compared



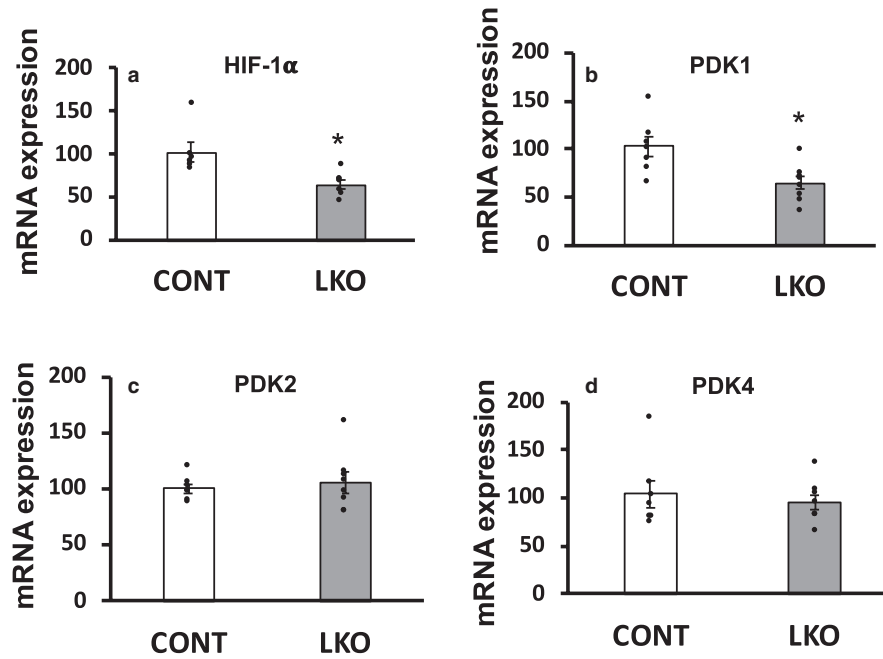
**FIGURE 3** Western blot analysis of liver glycolytic enzymes. (a) Pyruvate kinase M1 (PKM1), (b) Pyruvate kinase M2 (PKM2), (c) Lactate dehydrogenase A (LDHA) and (d) Lactate dehydrogenase B (LDHB) in livers from control L-PDCCT (CONT) and L-PDCKO (LKO) mice.  $\beta$ -actin was used as an internal control. The results are means  $\pm$ SE ( $n = 5-6$ ). \*  $p < 0.05$ . Relative protein expression level was quantified and reported in a bar graph form

with L-PDCCT mice (Figure 6a & b). Increased expression of *Nurr1* is observed in some types of cancer. In this study, there was no significant change in *Nurr1* gene expression in the liver of L-PDCKO mice compared with L-PDCCT mice (Figure 6c).

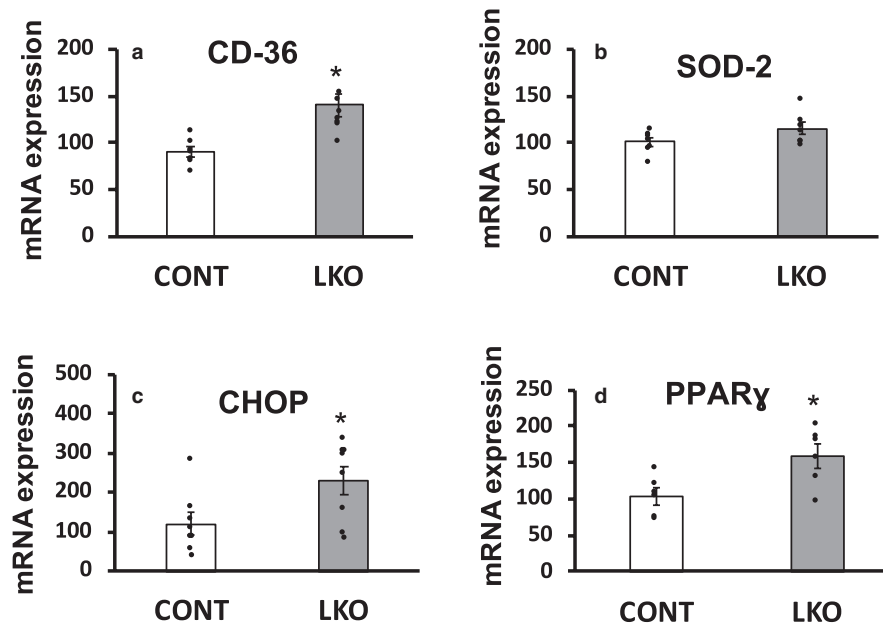
## 4 | DISCUSSION

The functional utility afforded by “aerobic glycolysis” (aka Warburg effect) for some cancers is well-documented (Goetzman & Prochownik, 2018; Vander Heiden et al., 2009). While inefficient in its energy generation process, it nevertheless provides cancer cells with increased supplies of intermediates needed for biosynthesis of macromolecules to support growth and proliferation. Aerobic glycolysis is enhanced by HIF-1 $\alpha$ , which up-regulates the expression of many genes encoding glycolytic enzymes [such as HK2, phosphofructokinase 1 (PFK1), and phosphoglycerate kinase (PGK1) (Denko, 2008), GLUT1 and GLUT3 (Chen et al., 2001; Maxwell et al., 1997), PKM2 (Luo et al., 2011), LDHA (Keith et al., 2011), MCT4 (Keith et al., 2011; Ullah et al., 2006). HIF-1 $\alpha$  also decreases the

transport of pyruvate (Eboli et al., 1977; Paradies et al., 1983; Schell et al., 2014) and its oxidation by PDC in the mitochondria, causing reduced oxidative respiration (Battello et al., 2016). In cancer cells and rapidly growing nontransformed cells with enhanced aerobic glycolysis, reduced pyruvate oxidation by PDC is achieved by at least five complimentary mechanisms: (a) posttranslational phosphorylation of specific  $\alpha$  subunit tyrosine residues of PDH by oncogenic kinases [such as fibroblast growth factor receptor 1 (FGFR1)] causing inhibition of PDC activity (Fan et al., 2014; Hitosugi et al., 2011), (b) a novel posttranslational modification of pyruvate dehydrogenase phosphatase 1 (PDP1) by tyrosine phosphorylation by oncogene kinases to inhibit its activity (Shan et al., 2014), (c) increased transcription of *PDK1* to increase PDK1 activity to exert greater inhibition of PDH via serine phosphorylation of the  $\alpha$  subunit, and (d) decreased levels of PDH and PDP2 (Jackson et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2019), and (e) the modulation of both PDK1 and PDP2 by small molecule products of oxidative phosphorylation such as ATP, NADH and acetyl-CoA (Roche et al., 2001). The effects in (a) and (b) are exerted by oncogene kinases, and in (c) by HIF-1 $\alpha$ . These modulators, however, also regulate



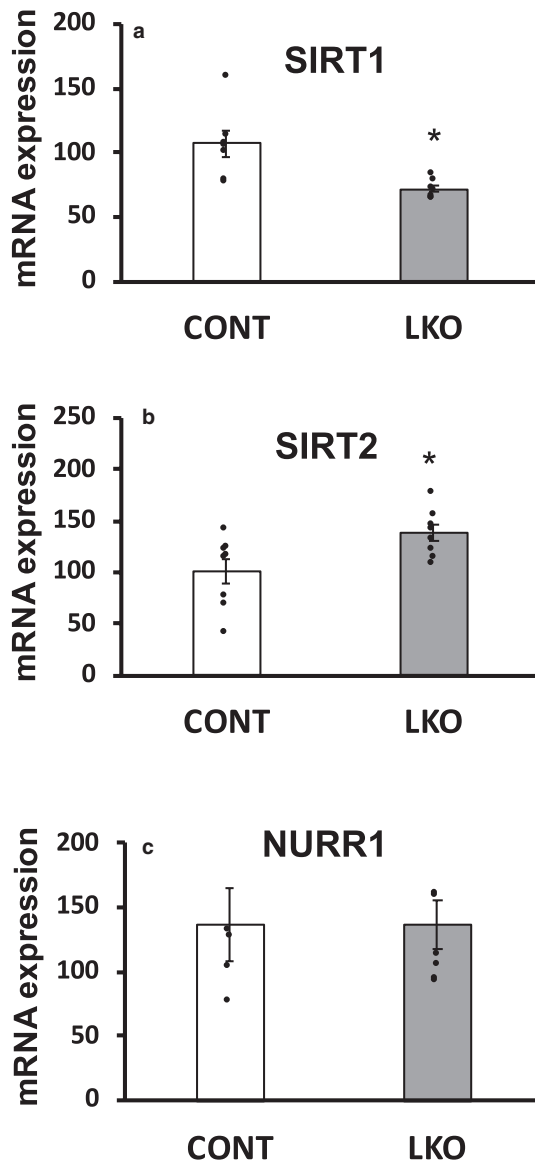
**FIGURE 4** Quantitative real-time PCR analysis of mRNA gene expression of (a) Hypoxia-inducible factor-1 $\alpha$  (HIF-1 $\alpha$ ; gene *Hif1a*), (b) Pyruvate dehydrogenase kinase, isoenzyme 1 (PDK1; *Pdk1*), (c) Pyruvate dehydrogenase kinase, isoenzyme 2 (PDK2; *Pdk2*), (d) Pyruvate dehydrogenase kinase, isoenzyme 4 (PDK4; *Pdk4*) in livers from control L-PDCCT (CONT) and L-PDCKO (LKO) mice. The results are means  $\pm$ SE ( $n = 6-8$ ). \* $p < 0.05$



**FIGURE 5** Quantitative real-time PCR analysis of mRNA gene expression of (a) Cluster of Differentiation-36 (CD36; gene *Cd36*), (b) Superoxide dismutase 2, mitochondrial (SOD2; *Sod2*), (c) CCAAT-enhancer-binding protein homologous protein (CHOP; *Chop*), and (d) Peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor  $\gamma$  (PPAR $\gamma$ ; *Pparg*) in livers from control L-PDCCT (CONT) and L-PDCKO (LKO) mice. The results are means  $\pm$ SE ( $n = 6-8$ ). \* $p < 0.05$ .

many other key genes or proteins responsible for increased aerobic glycolysis and oxidative phosphorylation (Wang et al., 2019). The findings presented here (Figure 7) show that the elimination of PDC activity in otherwise normal

mouse liver by *Pdhal* gene deletion (without involving any cancer-mediated modulators described above) is sufficient to induce Warburg-type respiration as a result of PDC deficiency (Jackson et al., 2017; Reznik et al., 2017).



**FIGURE 6** Quantitative real-time PCR analysis of mRNA expression of (a) SIRT1 (gene *Sirt1*), (b) SIRT2 (*Sirt2*) and (c) NURR1 (*Nurr1*) in livers from control L-PDCCCT (CONT) and L-PDCKO (LKO) mice. The results are means  $\pm$ SE ( $n = 5-8$ ). \*  $p < 0.05$ .

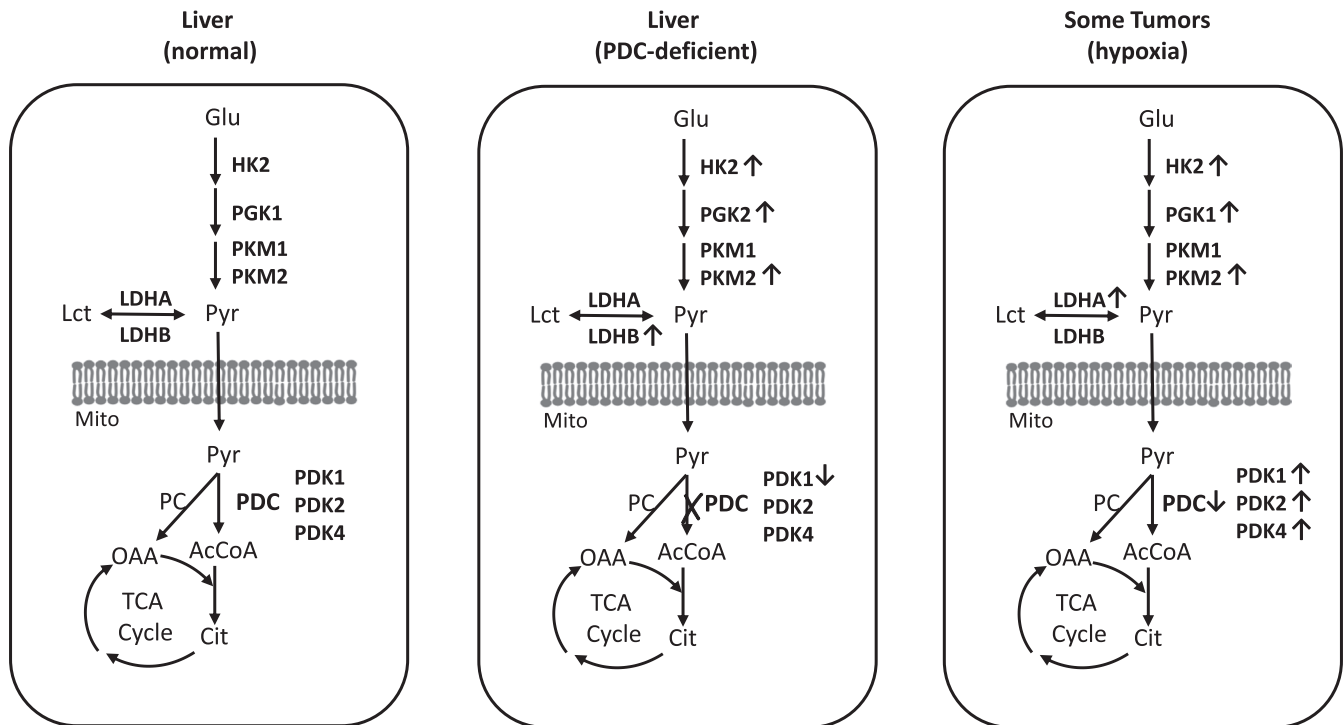
In hypoxic cancer cells, increased expression of HIF-1 $\alpha$  induces gene expression of several key enzymes in the glycolytic pathway as well as it increases expression of pyruvate dehydrogenase kinase 1 (PDK1) which phosphorylates PDH and hence inhibits PDC activity (minimizing pyruvate oxidation to acetyl-CoA and its further metabolism in the Krebs Cycle in the mitochondria). In the liver from normoxic L-PDCKO mice, the expression of several genes (HKII, PKM2 and LDHB) is increased despite a decrease in the expression of HIF-1 $\alpha$ , suggesting that the mechanism responsible for induction of aerobic glycolysis between hypoxic tumors and livers from normoxic L-PDCKO mice may differ to some extent. One limitation

of this study is that it does not provide a direct support for increased aerobic glycolysis in PDCKO livers by increases in the carbon flux and/or in key enzyme activities in the glycolytic pathway.

We have previously observed no incorporation of [U- $^{14}$ C]-glucose-derived  $^{14}$ C-carbon into fatty acids by liver slices from L-PDCKO male mice (Choi et al., 2010). In a follow-up study, down-regulation of several key lipogenic genes, including (*Acc*, *G6pd2*, and *Hmgcr*) and their upstream regulators (SREB1c, SREBP2, ChREBP, LXR- $\alpha$ , and *Pgc-1 $\alpha$* ) was observed in the livers from L-PDCKO mice maintained in the fed state (Mahmood et al., 2016). This indicated that the bulk of *de novo* lipid synthesis requires pyruvate-derived acetyl-CoA and, in the absence of PDC, cannot be rescued by acetyl-CoA derived from other sources. However, the mechanism(s) responsible for down-regulation of these lipogenic genes remains obscure. The current findings also show that key glycolytic genes can be up-regulated and drive Warburg-type respiration in an otherwise normal tissue (mouse liver). It should be noted that within ~24 to 48 hr of fasting, hepatic PDC in normal rodents is nearly completely inactivated by serine phosphorylation with pyruvate being redirected into gluconeogenesis (Harris et al., 2002; Holness et al., 1987). This high degree of hepatic PDC inhibition during fasting, however, does not cause up-regulation of any key glycolytic genes in liver from fasted mice. Contrarily, hepatic glycolysis is inhibited to support hepatic gluconeogenesis. It is possible that the time difference between the fasting period (24 to 48 hr only) and a prolonged adaptation in the livers of L-PDCKO mice over several weeks may account, in part, for this phenomenon.

As described above, several distinct and nonmutually exclusive layers of transcriptional and/or posttranslational regulation permit enhanced activity of several key enzymes in the glycolytic pathway. In addition to PDH, these include HK2, PKM1 and 2, LDHA and B isozymes and PDKs (Prakasam et al., 2017; Xie & Simon, 2017). Expression of HK2 and PKM2 is low in normal adult mouse livers. Binding of PPAR $\gamma$  to the promoters of these two genes activates their transcription (Christofk et al., 2008; Kim et al., 2004; Panasyuk et al., 2012; Rempel et al., 1994). Expression of *Pparg* was increased in L-PDCKO liver which may account for observed enhanced expression of HK2 and PKM2 in PDC-deficient liver. Hong et al. (Hong et al., 2019) recently observed that transcriptional down-regulation of LDHB (*Ldhb*) attenuated oxidative phosphorylation via lactate-mediated modulation of the PDH/PDK axis in hepatoma cell lines. These investigators noted that a low LDHB/LDHA ratio was associated with enhanced glycolytic gene expression in cancer cells. Interestingly, expression of several glycolytic genes was increased in L-PDCKO liver despite an increase in the LDHB/LDHA ratio, suggesting that this ratio may not be predictive of a change in glycolytic gene expression at least in





**FIGURE 7** Schematic representation of the differences in several glycolytic gene expression in normal liver, liver deficient in PDC activity (due to *Pdhal* gene deletion), and some tumors in hypoxic conditions. Heavy X indicates genetic deletion of the *Pdhal* gene (and consequently absence of PDC functional activity) in hepatocytes. Direction of open arrows (up or down) next to enzymes indicates a significant change in gene expression in PDCKO liver and tumors in comparison to the respective genes in normal liver. Abbreviations: Mito, mitochondria; TCA Cycle, tricarboxylic acid cycle; Glu, glucose; Pyr, pyruvate; Lct, lactate; OAA, oxaloacetate; AcCoA, acetyl-CoA; Cit, citrate; PC pyruvate carboxylase. Other enzyme/gene abbreviations as indicated in the text.

noncancerous hepatocytes. It is noteworthy that livers from L-PDCKO experienced a normoxic condition for availability of oxygen and hence it is expected that HIF-1 $\alpha$  expression will not be up-regulated as it occurs in hypoxic tumor cells. We observed an increased expression of LDHB (and no change in LDHA expression) in L-PDCKO livers unlike its down-regulation of LDHB (and up-regulation of LDHA) in hypoxic tumors. Low LDHB expression is associated with decreased oxidative phosphorylation activity via lactate-mediated PDK-PDH axis (Hong et al., 2019). In L-PDCKO liver, increased expression of LDHB could support normal mitochondrial oxidative phosphorylation activity through fatty acid oxidation as indicated by increased expression of CD36 and PPAR $\gamma$  (Figure 5). Possible alterations in fatty acid oxidation and oxidative phosphorylation activity of mitochondria from L-PDCKO mice remain to be investigated.

Mitochondrial PDC is regulated by PDKs (by phosphorylation and hence inactivation) and PDH phosphatases (dephosphorylation and hence activation). Since the PDK/PDH axis is modified via increased expression of HIF-1 $\alpha$  in several tissue-specific cancers, we quantified gene expression of three PDKs, and observed that the mRNA levels of HIF-1 $\alpha$  and PDK1 were significantly decreased whereas that of PDK2 and PDK4 remained unaltered in L-PDCKO livers compared

with L-PDCCT livers (Figure 4). We did not measure expression of either mRNAs or enzymic activity of PDH phosphatases in livers of L-PDCKO mice because any change in PDH phosphatases would not have any impact due to the absence of PDH protein.

Both observed increases and decreases in PDC activity in different cancers under hypoxic and normoxic conditions are consistent with the metabolic adaptations observed in these tumors (Chen et al., 2018; DeBerardinis et al., 2008; Denko, 2008; Dolezal et al., 2017; Ferriero et al., 2018). Cancer cells experiencing hypoxia-induced PDC inhibition switch to aerobic glycolysis to enhance ATP generation with increased consumption of glucose with increased production of lactate (DeBerardinis et al., 2008; Goetzman & Prochownik, 2018; Vander Heiden et al., 2009).

In a recent study, compared to wild-type rat fibroblasts, CRISPR/Cas9-mediated *Pdhal*-knockout rat fibroblasts showed a modest increase in glucose uptake with increased steady-state levels of several glycolytic intermediates, notably pyruvate being very high without any significant change in lactate level under normal culture conditions (Wang et al., 2019). Interestingly, the levels of fructose and mannose-6-phosphate were also increased in PDH-knockout rat fibroblasts, most likely derived from the selective glycolytic

intermediates (Wang et al., 2019). PDH-knockout rat fibroblasts showed lower oxygen consumption rates, indicating a greater dependence on glycolysis for ATP generation (Wang et al., 2019). Furthermore, there were significant changes in the steady-state levels of the tricarboxylic acid cycle intermediates, a significant increase in oxaloacetate and reduction in the levels of the intermediates between  $\alpha$ -ketoglutarate to malate in PDH-knockout rat fibroblasts compared with wild-type fibroblasts (Wang et al., 2019). Unlike slowly proliferating liver cells in L-PDCKO mice showing nearly 80% decrease in the level of acetyl-CoA (Jackson et al., 2017), rapidly growing PDH-knockout rat fibroblasts showed no significant change in acetyl-CoA levels, indicating its origin from fatty acid oxidation and/or acetate (Wang et al., 2019). In this study we did not measure the concentrations of lactate and other glycolytic intermediates in support of aerobic glycolysis in L-PDCKO livers.

We have previously reported that systemic null mutation as well as brain-specific mutation in the *Pdhal* gene (located on chromosome X in mouse) was embryonic lethal for male embryos but allowed heterozygous female embryos to develop *in utero* and to develop/survive with about 50% reduction in PDC activity in all tissues (except the brain) (Johnson et al., 2001; Pliss et al., 2004, 2013). When tissue/cell-specific *Pdhal* deletions were created [such as in pancreatic beta cells (Srinivasan et al., 2010), cardiomyocytes (Sidhu et al., 2008) and hepatocytes (Choi et al., 2010)], male embryos survived *in utero* and grew normally postnatally. As shown here, liver-specific PDC deficiency is associated with the Warburg-type respiration more characteristic of cancer cells (Figure 7). Whether this is a unique characteristic of liver metabolism or whether a similar aerobic metabolic switch develops in other tissue/cell-specific PDCKO mouse models remains to be investigated. If it is unique to the liver, then it will be important to determine the specific determinant(s) that dictate the tissue specificity of this metabolic switch?

The mechanism(s) responsible for induction of aerobic glycolytic characteristic in noncancerous L-PDCKO liver is not known at present. There are several inducers/modulators of the aerobic glycolysis switch in cancer cells, namely (a) HIF-1 $\alpha$  (Chen et al., 2001; Denko, 2008; Keith et al., 2011; Luo et al., 2011; Maxwell et al., 1997; Ullah et al., 2006), (b) specific oncogene kinases (Fan et al., 2014; Hitosugi et al., 2011), (c) tumor suppressors (Dang, 1999; Kamp et al., 2016), (d) the PI3 K/Akt/mTOR pathway (DeBerardinis et al., 2008; Elstrom et al., 2004; Fan et al., 2014; Hitosugi et al., 2011; Rathmell et al., 2003), (e) pH change due to lactate production (Hsu et al., 2016) and down-regulation of mitochondrial oxidative phosphorylation via the PDK-PDH axis (Hong et al., 2019), (vi) Sirtuins, and possibly others. As indicated earlier, the first three (a to c) inducers are not applicable to L-PDCKO liver because of their noninvolvement in observed aerobic glycolysis in nontransformed L-PDCKO

liver. Increased Akt activity in the PI3 K/Akt/mTOR pathway (d) was found to be sufficient to induce the Warburg effect in both cancer as well as in nontransformed cells (Elstrom et al., 2004; Rathmell et al., 2003). A possible involvement of this signaling pathway in L-PDCKO liver remains to be investigated. Similarly, increased lactate production (e) due to enhanced aerobic glycolysis would affect intracellular pH in L-PDCKO hepatocytes. Cultured PDC-deficient fibroblasts showed their cytoplasm to be more acidic and their mitochondrial matrix to be more alkaline (Wang et al., 2019). Whether a similar change in intracellular pH in L-PDCKO liver is a cause or an effect is not known. The involvement of Sirtuins (f) is an attractive possibility for observed increased aerobic glycolysis in nontransformed PDC-deficient hepatocytes. Wei et al. (2019) recently reported that SIRT1/MRPS5 axis is involved in metabolic reprogramming in liver cancer stem cells. The subcellular localization of mitochondrial ribosomal protein S5 (MRPS5) is determined by its acetylation status. Deacetylated MRPS5, resulting from increased SIRT1 expression, translocates to mitochondria to promote mitochondrial functions such as oxidative phosphorylation and generation of NAD<sup>+</sup> (Wei et al., 2019). Low levels of SIRT1 maintain MRPS5 acetylation and permitting its nuclear translocation where it stimulates aerobic glycolysis (by yet noncharacterized mechanism) (Farcas et al., 2019; Wei et al., 2019). Interestingly, in this study SIRT1 expression was decreased in L-PDCKO hepatocytes, keeping more of MRPS5 in acetylated form and promoting its translocation to the nucleus to enhance the Warburg effect. SIRT2 up-regulation has been reported in primary hepatocellular carcinoma tumors and correlated with shorter patient survival (Huang et al., 2017). SIRT2 expression was also increased in L-PDCKO liver. Unlike SIRT1, SIRT2 did not deacetylate MRPS5 (Wei et al., 2019).

Finally, in some cancer cells in which PDH $\alpha$  protein level and PDC activity are increased (Chen et al., 2018; Dolezal et al., 2017; Marin-Valencia et al., 2012) the supply of mitochondrial acetyl-CoA for increased *de novo* biosynthesis of lipids as well as protein acetylation in the cytoplasmic/nuclear compartment is supported for rapid growth (Dolezal et al., 2017; Marin-Valencia et al., 2012). In contrast, when PDC activity is inhibited due to the increased PDK activity in some cancer cells, the supply of pyruvate-derived acetyl-CoA in the form of citrate from mitochondria to the cytosolic/nuclear compartment is inhibited. In such cases, mitochondrial PDC may translocate to the nucleus (Sutendra et al., 2014), allowing a more efficient and/or directed generation of acetyl-CoA that is dedicated solely to histone acetylation and gene regulation in the nucleus (Boukouris et al., 2016; Chen et al., 2018; Ferriero et al., 2018). The deletion of the *Pdhal* gene resulted in a marked reduction in the acetyl-CoA level in L-PDCKO liver (Jackson et al., 2017). Hence, its impact

on protein acetylation in the nucleus and its effects on gene transcription of key enzymes in the glycolytic pathway remains to be investigated.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

We thank Dr. Edward V. Prochownik of Children's Hospital of the University of Pittsburgh Medical Center for a critical reading of this manuscript.

## CONFLICT OF INTEREST

The authors declare that there are no conflicts of interest, financial or otherwise, for this study.

## AUTHORS' CONTRIBUTIONS

M.S.P.: conception and financial support; M. S. P., S. M., and T.C.R.: design of research and interpretation of results; S.M. and J. J. performed the experiments and prepared the figure; M.S. P. drafted the manuscript; All contributed to revision of the manuscript and approved the final version of manuscript.

## ORCID

Mulchand S. Patel  <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-7992-086X>

[org/0000-0001-7992-086X](https://orcid.org/0000-0001-7992-086X)

Todd C. Rideout  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-1834-7083>

## REFERENCES

- Battello, N., Zimmer, A. D., Goebel, C., Dong, X., Behrmann, I., Haan, C., Hiller, K., & Wegner, A. (2016). The role of HIF-1 in oncostatin M-dependent metabolic reprogramming of hepatic cells. *Cancer Metabolism*, 4, 3.
- Bensard, C. L., Wisidagama, D. R., Olson, K. A., Berg, J. A., Krahn, N. M., Schell, J. C., Nowinski, S. M., Fogarty, S., Bott, A. J., Wei, P., Dove, K. K., Tanner, J. M., Panic, V., Cluntun, A., Lettlova, S., Earl, C. S., Namnath, D. F., Vazquez-Arrequin, K., Villanueva, C. J., ... Rutter, J. (2020). Regulation of Tumor Initiation by the Mitochondrial Pyruvate Carrier. *Cell Metabolism*, 31, 284–300 e287.
- Boukouris, A. E., Zervopoulos, S. D., & Michelakis, E. D. (2016). Metabolic enzymes moonlighting in the nucleus: Metabolic regulation of gene transcription. *Trends in Biochemical Sciences*, 41, 712–730.
- Bowker-Kinley, M. M., Davis, W. I., Wu, P., Harris, R. A., & Popov, K. M. (1998). Evidence for existence of tissue-specific regulation of the mammalian pyruvate dehydrogenase complex. *The Biochemical Journal*, 329(Pt 1), 191–196.
- Chen, C., Pore, N., Behrooz, A., Ismail-Beigi, F., & Maity, A. (2001). Regulation of glut1 mRNA by hypoxia-inducible factor-1. Interaction between H-ras and hypoxia. *Journal of Biological Chemistry*, 276, 9519–9525.
- Chen, J., Guccini, I., Di Mitri, D., Brina, D., Revandkar, A., Sarti, M., Pasquini, E., Alajati, A., Pinton, S., Losa, M., Civenni, G., Catapano, C. V., Sgrignani, J., Cavalli, A., D'Antuono, R., Asara, J. M., Morandi, A., Chiarugi, P., Crotti, S., ... Alimonti, A. (2018). Compartmentalized activities of the pyruvate dehydrogenase complex sustain lipogenesis in prostate cancer. *Nature Genetics*, 50, 219–228.
- Choi, C. S., Ghoshal, P., Srinivasan, M., Kim, S., Cline, G., & Patel, M. S. (2010). Liver-specific pyruvate dehydrogenase complex deficiency upregulates lipogenesis in adipose tissue and improves peripheral insulin sensitivity. *Lipids*, 45, 987–995.
- Christofk, H. R., Vander Heiden, M. G., Wu, N., Asara, J. M., & Cantley, L. C. (2008). Pyruvate kinase M2 is a phosphotyrosine-binding protein. *Nature*, 452, 181–186.
- Dang, C. V. (1999). c-Myc target genes involved in cell growth, apoptosis, and metabolism. *Molecular and Cellular Biology*, 19, 1–11.
- Dang, C. V., Kim, J. W., Gao, P., & Yustein, J. (2008). The interplay between MYC and HIF in cancer. *Nature Reviews Cancer*, 8, 51–56.
- DeBerardinis, R. J., Lum, J. J., Hatzivassiliou, G., & Thompson, C. B. (2008). The biology of cancer: metabolic reprogramming fuels cell growth and proliferation. *Cell Metabolism*, 7, 11–20.
- Denko, N. C. (2008). Hypoxia, HIF1 and glucose metabolism in the solid tumour. *Nature Reviews Cancer*, 8, 705–713.
- Dolezal, J. M., Wang, H., Kulkarni, S., Jackson, L., Lu, J., Ranganathan, S., Goetzman, E. S., Bharathi, S. S., Beezhold, K., Byersdorfer, C. A., & Prochownik, E. V. (2017). Sequential adaptive changes in a c-Myc-driven model of hepatocellular carcinoma. *Journal of Biological Chemistry*, 292, 10068–10086.
- Dupuy, F., Tabaries, S., Andrzejewski, S., Dong, Z., Blagih, J., Annis, M. G., Omeroglu, A., Gao, D., Leung, S., Amir, E., Clemons, M., Aguilar-Mahecha, A., Basik, M., Vincent, E. E., St-Pierre, J., Jones, R. G., & Siegel, P. M. (2015). PDK1-dependent metabolic reprogramming dictates metastatic potential in breast cancer. *Cell Metabolism*, 22, 577–589.
- Eboli, M. L., Paradies, G., Galeotti, T., & Papa, S. (1977). Pyruvate transport in tumour-cell mitochondria. *Biochimica Et Biophysica Acta*, 460, 183–187.
- Elstrom, R. L., Bauer, D. E., Buzzai, M., Karnauskas, R., Harris, M. H., Plas, D. R., Zhuang, H., Cinalli, R. M., Alavi, A., Rudin, C. M., & Thompson, C. B. (2004). Akt stimulates aerobic glycolysis in cancer cells. *Cancer Research*, 64, 3892–3899.
- Fan, J., Kang, H. B., Shan, C., Elf, S., Lin, R., Xie, J., Gu, T. L., Aguiar, M., Lonning, S., Chung, T. W., Arellano, M., Khoury, H. J., Shin, D. M., Khuri, F. R., Boggon, T. J., Kang, S., & Chen, J. (2014). Tyr-301 phosphorylation inhibits pyruvate dehydrogenase by blocking substrate binding and promotes the Warburg effect. *Journal of Biological Chemistry*, 289, 26533–26541.
- Farcas, M., Gavrea, A. A., Gulei, D., Ionescu, C., Irimie, A., Catana, C. S., & Berindan-Neagoe, I. (2019). SIRT1 in the development and treatment of hepatocellular carcinoma. *Frontiers in Nutrition*, 6, 148.
- Ferriero, R., Nusco, E., De Cegli, R., Carissimo, A., Manco, G., & Brunetti-Pierri, N. (2018). Pyruvate dehydrogenase complex and lactate dehydrogenase are targets for therapy of acute liver failure. *Journal of Hepatology*, 69, 325–335.
- Goetzman, E. S., & Prochownik, E. V. (2018). The Role for Myc in Coordinating Glycolysis, Oxidative Phosphorylation, Glutaminolysis, and Fatty Acid Metabolism in Normal and Neoplastic Tissues. *Frontiers in Endocrinology (Lausanne)*, 9, 129.
- Grassian, A. R., Metallo, C. M., Coloff, J. L., Stephanopoulos, G., & Brugge, J. S. (2011). Erk regulation of pyruvate dehydrogenase flux through PDK4 modulates cell proliferation. *Genes & Development*, 25, 1716–1733.
- Harris, R. A., Bowker-Kinley, M. M., Huang, B., & Wu, P. (2002). Regulation of the activity of the pyruvate dehydrogenase complex. *Advances in Enzyme Regulation*, 42, 249–259.

- Hitosugi, T., Fan, J., Chung, T. W., Lythgoe, K., Wang, X., Xie, J., Ge, Q., Gu, T. L., Polakiewicz, R. D., Roesel, J. L., Chen, G. Z., Boggon, T. J., Lonial, S., Fu, H., Khuri, F. R., Kang, S., & Chen, J. (2011). Tyrosine phosphorylation of mitochondrial pyruvate dehydrogenase kinase 1 is important for cancer metabolism. *Molecular Cell*, *44*, 864–877.
- Ho, L., Hu, C. W., Packman, S., & Patel, M. S. (1986). Deficiency of the pyruvate dehydrogenase component in pyruvate dehydrogenase complex-deficient human fibroblasts. Immunological Identification. *The Journal of Clinical Investigation*, *78*, 844–847.
- Holness, M. J., French, T. J., Schofield, P. S., & Sugden, M. C. (1987). The relationship between fat synthesis and oxidation in the liver after re-feeding and its regulation by thyroid hormone. *The Biochemical Journal*, *247*, 621–626.
- Hong, S. M., Lee, Y. K., Park, I., Kwon, S. M., Min, S., & Yoon, G. (2019). Lactic acidosis caused by repressed lactate dehydrogenase subunit B expression down-regulates mitochondrial oxidative phosphorylation via the pyruvate dehydrogenase (PDH)-PDH kinase axis. *Journal of Biological Chemistry*, *294*, 7810–7820.
- Hsu, C. C., Tseng, L. M., & Lee, H. C. (2016). Role of mitochondrial dysfunction in cancer progression. *Experimental Biology and Medicine (Maywood)*, *241*, 1281–1295.
- Huang, S., Zhao, Z., Tang, D., Zhou, Q., Li, Y., Zhou, L., Yin, Y., Wang, Y., Pan, Y., Dorfman, R. G., Ling, T., & Zhang, M. (2017). Downregulation of SIRT2 inhibits invasion of hepatocellular carcinoma by inhibiting energy metabolism. *Translational Oncology*, *10*, 917–927.
- Jackson, L. E., Kulkarni, S., Wang, H., Lu, J., Dolezal, J. M., Bharathi, S. S., Ranganathan, S., Patel, M. S., Deshpande, R., Alencastro, F., Wendell, S. G., Goetzman, E. S., Duncan, A. W., & Prochownik, E. V. (2017). Genetic Dissociation of Glycolysis and the TCA Cycle Affects Neither Normal nor Neoplastic Proliferation. *Cancer Research*, *77*, 5795–5807.
- Johnson, M. T., Mahmood, S., Hyatt, S. L., Yang, H. S., Soloway, P. D., Hanson, R. W., & Patel, M. S. (2001). Inactivation of the murine pyruvate dehydrogenase (Pdh1) gene and its effect on early embryonic development. *Molecular Genetics and Metabolism*, *74*, 293–302.
- Kamp, W. M., Wang, P. Y., & Hwang, P. M. (2016). TP53 mutation, mitochondria and cancer. *Current Opinion in Genetics & Development*, *38*, 16–22.
- Keith, B., Johnson, R. S., & Simon, M. C. (2011). HIF1alpha and HIF2alpha: sibling rivalry in hypoxic tumour growth and progression. *Nature Reviews Cancer*, *12*, 9–22.
- Kim, J. W., Tchernyshyov, I., Semenza, G. L., & Dang, C. V. (2006). HIF-1-mediated expression of pyruvate dehydrogenase kinase: a metabolic switch required for cellular adaptation to hypoxia. *Cell Metabolism*, *3*, 177–185.
- Kim, J. W., Zeller, K. I., Wang, Y., Jegga, A. G., Aronow, B. J., O'Donnell, K. A., & Dang, C. V. (2004). Evaluation of myc E-box phylogenetic footprints in glycolytic genes by chromatin immunoprecipitation assays. *Molecular and Cellular Biology*, *24*, 5923–5936.
- Korotchkina, L. G., & Patel, M. S. (2001). Site specificity of four pyruvate dehydrogenase kinase isoenzymes toward the three phosphorylation sites of human pyruvate dehydrogenase. *Journal of Biological Chemistry*, *276*, 37223–37229.
- Lewis, B. C., Prescott, J. E., Campbell, S. E., Shim, H., Orlowski, R. Z., & Dang, C. V. (2000). Tumor induction by the c-Myc target genes *rc1* and lactate dehydrogenase A. *Cancer Research*, *60*, 6178–6183.
- Luo, W., Hu, H., Chang, R., Zhong, J., Knabel, M., O'Meally, R., Cole, R. N., Pandey, A., & Semenza, G. L. (2011). Pyruvate kinase M2 is a PHD3-stimulated coactivator for hypoxia-inducible factor 1. *Cell*, *145*, 732–744.
- Mahmood, S., Birkaya, B., Rideout, T. C., & Patel, M. S. (2016). Lack of mitochondria-generated acetyl-CoA by pyruvate dehydrogenase complex downregulates gene expression in the hepatic de novo lipogenic pathway. *American Journal of Physiology. Endocrinology and Metabolism*, *311*, E117–127.
- Marin-Valencia, I., Yang, C., Mashimo, T., Cho, S., Baek, H., Yang, X. L., Rajagopalan, K. N., Maddie, M., Vemireddy, V., Zhao, Z., Cai, L., Good, L., Tu, B. P., Hatanpaa, K. J., Mickey, B. E., Mates, J. M., Pascual, J. M., Maher, E. A., Malloy, C. R., ... Bachoo, R. M. (2012). Analysis of tumor metabolism reveals mitochondrial glucose oxidation in genetically diverse human glioblastomas in the mouse brain in vivo. *Cell Metabolism*, *15*, 827–837.
- Maxwell, P. H., Dachs, G. U., Gleadle, J. M., Nicholls, L. G., Harris, A. L., Stratford, I. J., Hankinson, O., Pugh, C. W., & Ratcliffe, P. J. (1997). Hypoxia-inducible factor-1 modulates gene expression in solid tumors and influences both angiogenesis and tumor growth. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America*, *94*, 8104–8109.
- Panasyuk, G., Espeillac, C., Chauvin, C., Pradelli, L. A., Horie, Y., Suzuki, A., Annicotte, J. S., Fajas, L., Foretz, M., Verdeguer, F., Pontoglio, M., Ferre, P., Scoazec, J. Y., Birnbaum, M. J., Ricci, J. E., & Pende, M. (2012). PPARgamma contributes to PKM2 and HK2 expression in fatty liver. *Nature Communications*, *3*, 672.
- Papandreou, I., Cairns, R. A., Fontana, L., Lim, A. L., & Denko, N. C. (2006). HIF-1 mediates adaptation to hypoxia by actively down-regulating mitochondrial oxygen consumption. *Cell Metabolism*, *3*, 187–197.
- Paradies, G., Capuano, F., Palombini, G., Galeotti, T., & Papa, S. (1983). Transport of pyruvate in mitochondria from different tumor cells. *Cancer Research*, *43*, 5068–5071.
- Patel, M. S., & Korotchkina, L. G. (2003). The biochemistry of the pyruvate dehydrogenase complex\*. *Biochemistry and Molecular Biology Education*, *31*, 5–15.
- Patel, M. S., Srinivasan, M., Strutt, B., Mahmood, S., & Hill, D. J. (2014). Featured Article: Beta cell specific pyruvate dehydrogenase alpha gene deletion results in a reduced islet number and beta-cell mass postnatally. *Experimental Biology and Medicine (Maywood)*, *239*, 975–985.
- Pliss, L., Hausknecht, K. A., Stachowiak, M. K., Dlugos, C. A., Richards, J. B., & Patel, M. S. (2013). Cerebral developmental abnormalities in a mouse with systemic pyruvate dehydrogenase deficiency. *PLoS One*, *8*, e67473.
- Pliss, L., Pentney, R. J., Johnson, M. T., & Patel, M. S. (2004). Biochemical and structural brain alterations in female mice with cerebral pyruvate dehydrogenase deficiency. *Journal of Neurochemistry*, *91*, 1082–1091.
- Postic, C., Shiota, M., Niswender, K. D., Jetton, T. L., Chen, Y., Moates, J. M., Shelton, K. D., Lindner, J., Cherrington, A. D., & Magnuson, M. A. (1999). Dual roles for glucokinase in glucose homeostasis as determined by liver and pancreatic beta cell-specific gene knock-outs using Cre recombinase. *Journal of Biological Chemistry*, *274*, 305–315.
- Prakasam, G., Singh, R. K., Iqbal, M. A., Saini, S. K., Tiku, A. B., & Bamezai, R. N. K. (2017). Pyruvate kinase M knockdown-induced signaling via AMP-activated protein kinase promotes mitochondrial biogenesis, autophagy, and cancer cell survival. *Journal of Biological Chemistry*, *292*, 15561–15576.



- Rathmell, J. C., Fox, C. J., Plas, D. R., Hammerman, P. S., Cinalli, R. M., & Thompson, C. B. (2003). Akt-directed glucose metabolism can prevent Bax conformation change and promote growth factor-independent survival. *Molecular and Cellular Biology*, *23*, 7315–7328.
- Rempel, A., Bannasch, P., & Mayer, D. (1994). Differences in expression and intracellular distribution of hexokinase isoenzymes in rat liver cells of different transformation stages. *Biochimica Et Biophysica Acta*, *1219*, 660–668.
- Reznik, E., Wang, Q., La, K., Schultz, N., & Sander, C. Mitochondrial respiratory gene expression is suppressed in many cancers. *Elife* *6*: 2017.
- Roche, T. E., Baker, J. C., Yan, X., Hiromasa, Y., Gong, X., Peng, T., Dong, J., Turkan, A., & Kasten, S. A. (2001). Distinct regulatory properties of pyruvate dehydrogenase kinase and phosphatase isoforms. *Progress in Nucleic Acid Research and Molecular Biology*, *70*, 33–75.
- Saunier, E., Benelli, C., & Bortoli, S. (2016). The pyruvate dehydrogenase complex in cancer: An old metabolic gatekeeper regulated by new pathways and pharmacological agents. *International Journal of Cancer*, *138*, 809–817.
- Schell, J. C., Olson, K. A., Jiang, L., Hawkins, A. J., Van Vranken, J. G., Xie, J., Egnatchik, R. A., Earl, E. G., DeBerardinis, R. J., & Rutter, J. (2014). A role for the mitochondrial pyruvate carrier as a repressor of the Warburg effect and colon cancer cell growth. *Molecular Cell*, *56*, 400–413.
- Schell, J. C., & Rutter, J. (2013). The long and winding road to the mitochondrial pyruvate carrier. *Cancer and Metabolism*, *1*, 6.
- Sellers, K., Fox, M. P., Bousamra, M. 2nd, Slone, S. P., Higashi, R. M., Miller, D. M., Wang, Y., Yan, J., Yuneva, M. O., Deshpande, R., Lane, A. N., & Fan, T. W. (2015). Pyruvate carboxylase is critical for non-small-cell lung cancer proliferation. *The Journal of Clinical Investigation*, *125*, 687–698.
- Shan, C., Kang, H. B., Elf, S., Xie, J., Gu, T. L., Aguiar, M., Lonning, S., Hitosugi, T., Chung, T. W., Arellano, M., Khoury, H. J., Shin, D. M., Khuri, F. R., Boggon, T. J., & Fan, J. (2014). Tyr-94 phosphorylation inhibits pyruvate dehydrogenase phosphatase 1 and promotes tumor growth. *Journal of Biological Chemistry*, *289*, 21413–21422.
- Sidhu, S., Gangasani, A., Korotchkina, L. G., Suzuki, G., Fallavollita, J. A., Cauty, J. M. Jr, & Patel, M. S. (2008). Tissue-specific pyruvate dehydrogenase complex deficiency causes cardiac hypertrophy and sudden death of weaned male mice. *American Journal of Physiology. Heart and Circulatory Physiology*, *295*, H946–H952.
- Srinivasan, M., Choi, C. S., Ghoshal, P., Pliss, L., Pandya, J. D., Hill, D., Cline, G., & Patel, M. S. (2010). ss-Cell-specific pyruvate dehydrogenase deficiency impairs glucose-stimulated insulin secretion. *American Journal of Physiology. Endocrinology and Metabolism*, *299*, E910–917.
- Sutendra, G., Kinnaird, A., Dromparis, P., Paulin, R., Stenson, T. H., Haromy, A., Hashimoto, K., Zhang, N., Flaim, E., & Michelakis, E. D. (2014). A nuclear pyruvate dehydrogenase complex is important for the generation of acetyl-CoA and histone acetylation. *Cell*, *158*, 84–97.
- Ullah, M. S., Davies, A. J., & Halestrap, A. P. (2006). The plasma membrane lactate transporter MCT4, but not MCT1, is up-regulated by hypoxia through a HIF-1alpha-dependent mechanism. *Journal of Biological Chemistry*, *281*, 9030–9037.
- Vander Heiden, M. G., Cantley, L. C., & Thompson, C. B. (2009). Understanding the Warburg effect: the metabolic requirements of cell proliferation. *Science*, *324*, 1029–1033.
- Wang, H., Lu, J., Kulkarni, S., Zhang, W., Gorka, J. E., Mandel, J. A., Goetzman, E. S., & Prochownik, E. V. (2019). Metabolic and oncogenic adaptations to pyruvate dehydrogenase inactivation in fibroblasts. *Journal of Biological Chemistry*, *294*, 5466–5486.
- Wei, Z., Jia, J., Heng, G., Xu, H., Shan, J., Wang, G., Liu, C., Xia, J., Zhou, H., Wu, M., Yang, Z., Wang, M., Xiong, Z., Huang, H., Liu, L., & Qian, C. (2019). Sirtuin-1/mitochondrial ribosomal protein S5 axis enhances the metabolic flexibility of liver cancer stem cells. *Hepatology*, *70*, 1197–1213.
- Woolbright, B. L., Rajendran, G., Harris, R. A., & Taylor, J. A. 3rd (2019). Metabolic flexibility in cancer: Targeting the pyruvate dehydrogenase kinase: Pyruvate dehydrogenase axis. *Molecular Cancer Therapeutics*, *18*, 1673–1681.
- Xie, H., & Simon, M. C. (2017). Oxygen availability and metabolic reprogramming in cancer. *Journal of Biological Chemistry*, *292*, 16825–16832.

## SUPPORTING INFORMATION

Additional supporting information may be found online in the Supporting Information section.

**How to cite this article:** Patel MS, Mahmood S, Jung J, Rideout TC. Reprogramming of aerobic glycolysis in non-transformed mouse liver with pyruvate dehydrogenase complex deficiency. *Physiol Rep*. 2021;9:e14684. <https://doi.org/10.14814/phy2.14684>