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# Perfluorooctane sulfonic acid induces liver lipid accumulation through AMPK/ACC signaling

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## **Research Article**

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# Perfluorooctane sulfonic acid induces liver lipid accumulation

# through AMPK/ACC signaling

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## Abstract

Perfluorooctane sulfonic acid (PFOS) is a hepatotoxic environmental organic pollutant that can cause aberrant lipid accumulation in the liver. However, the molecular mechanism underlying PFOS-induced hepatic steatosis remains unclear. Our research shows that low-dose PFOS exposure can inhibit AMP-activated protein kinase (AMPK) phosphorylation, leading to increased acetyl-CoA carboxylase (ACC) activity and attenuated fatty acid  $\beta$ -oxidation, and consequent liver lipid accumulation. We found that 1 mg/kg/day PFOS exposure significantly aggravated steatosis in high-fat diet (HFD)-fed mice, along with reduced AMPK activity. Oil Red O results showed that PFOS exposure caused fat accumulation in HepG2 cells. As predicted, PFOS treatment reduced the level of phosphorylated AMPK in a concentration-dependent manner, leading to subsequent increase in ACC activity and lipid droplet accumulation in HepG2 cells. Treatment with 200  $\mu$ M AMPK agonist AICAR alleviated PFOS-induced ACC activation and lipid accumulation. In summary, our data highlights a crucial role of AMPK/ACC pathway in PFOS-mediated liver lipid metabolism disorders.

Keywords: PFOS; AMPK; lipid metabolism; hepatotoxicity; high-fat diet

#### **INTRODUCTION**

As one of the most commonly identified perfluorinated organic compounds in the environment, perfluorooctane sulfonic acid (PFOS) has been widely used in industrial and consumable fields, such as textiles, pesticides and coatings (Bach et al. 2015; Lau et al. 2004; Liu et al. 2015; Miralles-Marco and Harrad 2015). In 2009, PFOS and its related precursor chemicals were listed as new persistent organic pollutants (POPs) by the Stockholm Convention (Pollutants 2009). While its production and use have been restricted worldwide, the adverse impacts of PFOS and its precursors on the environment and organisms remain important public concerns, due to their extreme stability and bioaccumulation (Lindstrom et al. 2011). Studies have shown that PFOS has a half-life of approximate 5 years in human body (Olsen and Zobel 2007). A study indicated that perfluorinated chemicals were detectable in the serum of almost 98% of citizens in the United States and were positively associated with serum levels of uric acid, alanine transferase (ALT), gamma-glutamyl transferase (GGT) and total bilirubin (Gleason et al. 2015). Coinciding with this study, a variety of epidemiological and animal studies have shown that the main target organ for PFOS accumulation is the liver (Han et al. 2018). It has been found that mice exposed to PFOS exhibited weight loss, increased liver weight, and characteristics of hepatic steatosis (McDonough et al. 2020; Wang et al. 2014). The hepatotoxicity of PFOS is mainly featured by hepatic steatosis, hepatomegaly and increased hepatocyte proliferation. Population studies have found that PFOS concentration in the liver of general population in western countries ranges between4.7-57 ng/g (Maestri et al. 2006; Olsen et al. 2003; Perez et al. 2013). Notably, PFOS is detectable extensively in wild lives, including, and is accumulated through food chain (Giesy and Kannan 2001; Riebe et al. 2016). Meanwhile, animal studies indicated that the mice exposed to 10 mg/g/day PFOS for 21 days exhibited increased liver weight and obvious characteristics of steatohepatitis, accompanied by elevated serum levels of aspartate aminotransferase (AST), ALT, triglycerides (TG) (Huang et al. 2020; Wan et al. 2012). These studies raise a critical concern regarding a causal role of PFOS exposure on liver metabolic disorders.

The lipid metabolism in the normal liver maintains a dynamic balance of lipid

synthesis and decomposition, and when aberrantly regulated, may cause lipid accumulation in the liver and hepatic steatosis (Fang et al. 2019). The development of hepatic steatosis involves a variety of metabolic and stress signaling pathways, such as AMP-activated protein kinase (AMPK) and endoplasmic reticulum (ER) stress pathways. As a master regulator of energy and lipid metabolism, AMPK is a heterotrimeric protein, composed of three subunits:  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$ , and  $\gamma$ . In the liver,  $\alpha 1$  and  $\alpha 2$ subunit isoforms are mainly expressed, and  $\alpha 2$  is highly expressed (Herzig and Shaw 2018). In response to upstream activating stimuli, including AMP/ATP, LKB1 and CAMK, AMPK may phosphorylate and inactivate Acetyl-CoA carboxylase (ACC) to suppress fatty acid synthesis (Assifi et al. 2005; Carling et al. 1987; Munday et al. 1988). ACC has two subtypes: ACC1 and ACC2, both of which can promote the conversion of acetyl-CoA to malonyl-CoA (Lane et al. 2008). Through restoring malonyl-CoA, ACC may inhibit the activity of carnitine palmitoyl transferase-1 (CPT-1), a key enzyme for fatty acidβ-oxidation, thereby leading to reduced lipolysis (Kim et al. 2012; Schreurs et al. 2010; You et al. 2004). Dr. Pan's research found that Vitis thunbergii extract can activate AMPK, then inhibit the activation of ACC and reduce lipid accumulation in liver tissue (Pan et al. 2012). Recent animal studies have shown that AMPK may alleviate lipid accumulation in the liver to prevent the development of liver steatosis in high fat diet (HFD)-fed mice (Qiang et al. 2016). Another study has shown that increased liver triglyceride (TG) accumulation by PFOS exposure is associated with decreased level of phosphorylated AMPK (Salter et al. 2021). However, the molecular mechanisms underlying the role of AMPK in PFOS-initiated liver lipid accumulation remain unclear.

In view of the above information, we investigated the involvement of PFOS exposure on liver steatosis using HFD-induced fatty liver disease model. We found that PFOS exposure resulted in reduced expression of phosphorylated AMPK, leading to increased activity level of ACC and liver lipid accumulation. In addition, HFD promoted the accumulation of triglycerides in the liver and inhibited the phosphorylation of AMPK, which is exacerbated by PFOS exposure. We also used HepG2 cells to establish an in vitro PFOS exposure model, and found that AMPK

phosphorylation decreased in a dose-dependent manner following PFOS exposure. Meanwhile, we also observed increased accumulation of fat particles in HepG2 cells which was affected by PFOS exposure. Treatment with AMPK agonist AICAR ameliorated PFOS-induced fat accumulation. In summary, our findings indicated that AMPK/ACC pathway plays an indispensable role in PFOS-induced liver lipid accumulation and abnormal liver lipid metabolism, highlighting the importance of agonizing AMPK in the prevention of PFOS-facilitated liver steatosis.

#### **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

#### Chemicals

The following reagents and kits were purchased from their suppliers: Perfluorooctane sulfonate (PFOS, potassium salt, purity 98%; Sigma-Aldrich, Shanghai, China), Dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO, Sigma, St. Louis, MO, USA), AICAR (M4869, AbMole, Shanghai, China).

#### **Animal Model**

70 male C57BL/6J mice (4 weeks old) were obtained from the Experimental Animal Center of Nantong University. All mice were kept in an environment where the ambient temperature was maintained at  $20^{\circ}$ C  $\pm$   $2^{\circ}$ C, the relative humidity was maintained at 40%-60%, and the 12 h light-dark cycle light environment was maintained, with free access to sterilized drinking water.

After one week of adaptive housing, the mice were randomly divided into two groups: normal feed diet (Chow) and high-fat feed diet (HFD; 45% of total calories from fat), and fed with the respective diets for 12weeks.In addition, each diet group was randomly divided into three groups: vehicle control (corn oil) group, 1 mg/kg PFOS group, and 5 mg/kg PFOS group. During the last four weeks of feeding, administrated daily with the vehicle control, 1 mg/kg PFOS and 5 mg/kg PFOS (0.1 ml per 10 g body weight) using oral gavage, respectively.

Body weights of the mice were recorded weekly. After a total of 12-week-feeding, the mice were fasted for 12 hours and sacrificed. The livers were resected, fixed using

4% paraformaldehyde solution and subjected to paraffin sectioning.

The above experimental protocol has been approved by the Laboratory Animal Care and Welfare Ethics Committee of Nantong University, and is strictly implemented in accordance with the National Institutes of Health Laboratory Animal Care and Use Guidelines.

# Determination of Serum Alanine Aminotransferase (ALT) and Aspartate Aminotransferase (AST)

The collected blood samples were placed at room temperature for 4 hours, and the serum was collected by centrifugation and subjected to aspartate aminotransferase (AST) and alanine aminotransferase (ALT) assays following the manufacturer's protocols (Jiancheng Bioengineering Institute, Nanjing, China).

#### Determination of Triglyceride (TG) in Mouse Liver

Briefly, 20 mg of mouse liver tissues were added with 180  $\mu$ l of homogenization solution (absolute ethanol) according to the ratio of weight (g): volume (ml) = 1:9, and homogenized mechanically on ice. Thereafter, homogenized tissues were centrifuged at 2500 rpm, 4 °C for 10 minutes. The supernatant was transferred and subjected to TG measurement using triglyceride assay kit (Jiancheng Bioengineering Institute, Nanjing, China) according to the manufacturer's instructions.

#### Histological Analysis and Evaluation of Lipid Accumulation in Mouse Liver

The mouse liver was washed several times with ice-cold 0.9% normal saline, fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde and embedded in paraffin wax. The liver paraffin sections (3 µm thick) were subjected to hematoxylin-eosin (H&E) staining using standard protocol, and examined under a digital microscope (Laica DM4000 B LED, Wetzlar, Germany). Frozen sections of liver (6µm thick) were stained with oil red O (ORO) to assess lipid accumulation under Laica DM4000 BLED microscope. Image J software (NIH, Bethesda, MD, USA) was employed for quantification.

#### Immunohistochemistry Assay

The levels of p-AMPK and ACC in mouse liver were evaluated by immunohistochemistry using an immunohistochemical staining kit (PV-9000, ZSBIO, Beijing, China). Briefly, liver paraffin sections (3  $\mu$ m thick) were dewaxed and rehydrated with a gradient of xylene and a series of ethanol. A 0.01M sodium citrate buffer (ZLI-9064, ZSBIO, Beijing, China) with PH=6.0 was used for antigen thermal retrieval under a heating condition. After cooling, the sections were washed with PBS, incubated with endogenous peroxidase blocker for 20 minutes at room temperature, followed by blocking for 1 hour and primary antibody incubation using anti-rabbit Phospho-AMPK $\alpha$  (1:100, #2535, Cell Signaling Technology), anti-rabbit-ACC (1:200, #3676, Cell Signaling Technology) antibodies at 4°C overnight. Finally, the immunoreactivity was developed using freshly prepared DAB solution and counterstained with hematoxylin dye. After dehydration with alcohol, the sections were sealed with neutral gum, and examined under Laica DM4000 B LED microscope.

#### HepG2 Cell Culture and Treatment

HepG2 cells were provided by the Nerve Regeneration Laboratory, School of Medicine, Nantong University, and cultured in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (DMEM; GIBCO, Shanghai, China) supplemented with10% heat-inactivated fetal bovine serum (FBS; GIBCO, Shanghai, China) in a humidity incubator containing 5%  $CO_2$  at 37 °C. Cells with a confluency of 70-80% were exposed to different concentrations of PFOS (0, 50, 100 and 150  $\mu$ M) dissolved in DMSO for 48 hours. The control group was treated with vehicle control (0.1% DMSO). As for AICAR treatment (M4869, AbMole, Shanghai, China), cells were pre-treated with 200 $\mu$ M AICAR for 1 hour, and then exposed to 150 $\mu$ M PFOS for 48 hours.

#### Cell Counting Kit-8 (CCK-8) Assay

Cell Counting Kit-8(CCK8, Biosharp, Shanghai, China) was employed to assess cell viability according to the manufacturer's instructions. HepG2 cells were seeded on the 96-well plates at a density of 7000 cells per well, and then exposed to different concentrations (0, 25, 50, 100, 150and 200  $\mu$ M) of PFOS for 24 hours after attaching. The medium was replaced with 10  $\mu$  CCK-8 solution and 90  $\mu$  DMEM complete medium, followed by incubation in a 37 °C incubator for 2 hours. Finally, the absorbance at 450nm was measured with a microplate reader (BioTek Elx800, Winusky, Vermont, U.S.). The experiment was repeated three times with similar results obtained.

#### Cell Oil Red O (ORO) Staining Analysis

HepG2 cells were cultured in a six-well plate and exposed to AICAR (200  $\mu$ M) for 48 hours in the presence or absence of 150  $\mu$ M PFOS. According to the instructions of the kit (Jiancheng Bioengineering Institute, Nanjing, China), the oil red dye solution was prepared and filtered using a filter paper. After aspirating the medium, wash with PBS, add the oil red dye solution to stain for 20 minutes, wash in 37 °C warm water, and then counter-stain the nucleus for 1 min. Observe and collect images under a microscope, and use Image J software for quantitative analysis.

#### Western Blot Analysis

The cell samples were lysed on ice with an appropriate amount of RIPA lysis buffer (P0013B, Beyotime, Shanghai, China) for 30 minutes, sonicate them, and centrifuged at 13000 rpm at 4 °C for 10 minutes. Take the supernatant and use the BCA protein concentration determination kit (P0010, Beyotime, Shanghai, China) to determine the protein concentration. The samples were electrophoresed in 6% or 10% sodium dodecyl sulfate-polyacrylamide gel (SDS-PAGE), then transferred to a PVDF membrane, and blocked with 5% BSA (BioFroxx, Einhausen, Germany) for 2 hours. Compared with rabbit anti-ACC (1:1000, #3676, CST), rabbit anti-Phospho AMPK $\alpha$  (1:1000, #2535, CST), rabbit anti-AMPK $\alpha$  (1:1000, #5831, CST), mouse After incubating with anti-GAPDH (1:6000, 60004-1-Ig, Proteintech) at 4°Covernight, TBST was washed and incubated with horseradish peroxidase (HRP) - bound secondary antibodies (1:6000, ab6721, Abcam) for 1 h at room temperature. Finally, using an enhanced chemiluminescence system (Tanon, Shanghai, China) to detect protein band. The quantification was performed by analyzing the gray value of Image J software (NIH,

Bethesda, MD, USA).

#### **Statistical Analyses**

All data are obtained from at least three independent experiments, and expressed in the form of mean $\pm$ SEM. Two-way analysis of variance and one-way analysis of variance were used to evaluate the statistical differences of the results. P<0.05 was considered to be statistically significant. All statistical analyses were performed using IBM SPSS 22.0 software (IBM Corporation, Armonk, New York, USA).

#### RESULTS

#### **PFOS Exposure Induced Liver Damage in Mice**

In order to decipher the effect of PFOS exposure on liver lipid metabolism, a highfat-diet (HFD)-induced liver steatosis model was established and administrated with different doses of PFOS. Mice were fed with Chow diet or HFD for 12 weeks, and given vehicle control, 1 mg/kg or 5 mg/kg PFOS on a daily basis in the last four weeks. We found that after the administration of PFOS, both Chow and HFD mice showed varying degrees of weight loss (Fig 1a and 1b), and signs of lethargy and dim coat. Compared with corresponding vehicle control groups, HFD plus 5 mg/kg PFOS group exhibited the most significant weight loss among all PFOS-exposed groups (Fig 1b). Meanwhile, PFOS exposure led to increased liver weights and liver-to-body ratios in both Chow and HFD groups (Fig 1c and 1d). By measuring the content of triglycerides in the liver of mice, it was found that PFOS exposure increased the accumulation of triglycerides in the liver of Chow and HFD mice (Fig 1e). PFOS exposure caused liver damage both in Chow and HFD mice, and high fat diet aggravated PFOS-induced liver damage, as revealed by serum levels of ALT and AST (Fig 1f and 1g). These data indicate that PFOS exposure may exacerbate HFD liver damage, particularly when combined with HFD.

#### **PFOS Exposure Caused Lipid Accumulation in the Liver of Mice**

Given the fact that PFOS exposure exacerbated HFD-induced liver TG accumulation, we evaluated the effect of PFOS treatment on liver lipid accumulation using oil red O staining and hematoxylin-eosin staining. As shown in Fig 2a, PFOS exposure caused fat vacuoles in the liver of mice, both in Chow and HFD-fed mice. In agreement, the oil red O staining results also pointed to a role of PFOS exposure in facilitating liver fat accumulation. In Chow-fed groups, PFOS exposure caused significant fat accumulation. Notably, PFOS exposure induced a higher degree of fat accumulation in HFD group than Chow group (Fig 2b and 2c). In addition, transmission electron microscopy (TEM) analysis found that PFOS exposure induced fatty vacuoles in the liver of mice, and PFOS exposure-induced liver fat accumulation was more pronounced in mice fed a high-fat diet (HFD group) than in the Chow group (Fig 2d). These findings infer that PFOS induces liver fat accumulation and may aggravate liver steatosis in HFD mice.

#### AMPK Played an Important Role in PFOS-Induced Liver Steatosis

Mounting data indicate that AMPK plays a vital role in lipid metabolism and the regulation of liver steatosis. In order to explore a role of AMPK in PFOS-induced liver lipid metabolic disorders, we used immunohistochemical staining to detect the expression of phosphorylated AMPK in the liver of Chow and HFD groups (Fig 3a). We found that compared with mock-exposed groups, PFOS exposure led to reduced expression of p-AMPK, especially in HFD groups (Fig 3b). This result suggests that PFOS exposure inhibits the phosphorylation of AMPK, which plays an important role in PFOS-induced fat accumulation.

#### PFOS Inhibits AMPK Activation in HepG2 Cells

In order to verify the results of in vivo experiments, we used HepG2 cells to establish a PFOS exposure model in vitro. HepG2 cells were exposed to different concentrations of PFOS for 24 hours, and subjected to cytotoxic assay using a CCK-8 kit (Fig 4a). We found that treatment with 200µM PFOS caused cell viability decrease by 45%, while mild decrease in viability and no morphological changes were observed

in HepG2 cells exposed to lower doses of PFOS. Therefore, in follow-up experiments, we use 0, 50, 100 and 150 $\mu$ M PFOS for experiments. As predicted, western blot results showed that the expression of p-AMPK declined in a concentration-dependent manner, while the total protein level of AMPK was unchanged (Figure 4b and 4d). ACC acts as a key downstream effector of AMPK-mediated lipid metabolism. Reduced AMPK activity can directly lead to reduced level of ACC phosphorylation, which in turn enhances the activity of ACC and promotes fat accumulation. Thus, consistently, Western blot results indicated that the expression of p-ACC also decreased in a concentration-dependent manner, while the total protein level of ACC remained relatively unchanged (Figure 4b and 4c). At the same time, by staining with Oil Red O, we found that after exposure to PFOS, significant lipid accumulation appeared in HepG2 cells (Fig 5b). The above data all suggest that PFOS may inhibit cellular  $\beta$ -oxidation and induce fat accumulation by inhibiting the phosphorylation of AMPK ACC.

#### Intervention with AMPK Agonist Blocks PFOS-Induced Lipid Accumulation

Next, in order to further decipher a causal role of AMPK activity in aberrant lipid metabolism following PFOS exposure, AMPK agonist AICAR was employed to verify whether agonizing AMPK can reverse PFOS-induced lipid accumulation. HepG2 cells were exposed to AICAR (200  $\mu$ M) in the presence or absence of 150  $\mu$ M PFOS for 48 hours. Western blot results showed that the intervention treatment of AICAR significantly increased the expression of phosphorylated ACC (Fig 5a). In addition, the results of Oil Red O showed that phosphorylation activation of AMPK significantly alleviated PFOS-induced fat accumulation in HepG2 cells (Fig 5b). Taken together, these findings implicated that AMPK plays a key role in PFOS-induced liver steatosis.

#### DISCUSSION

Mounting data from epidemiological and animal studies have confirmed an involvement of PFOS exposure on liver damage and metabolic disorder (Berthiaume and Wallace 2002; Cui et al. 2017; Geng et al. 2019; Liu et al. 2007; Marques et al.

2020). In this research, through establishing a mouse model of HFD-induced liver fat accumulation, we found that PFOS inhibited the activation of AMPK and enhanced the activity of ACC. Using western blotting analysis, we found that PFOS reduced the level of phosphorylated AMPK, while the total amount of AMPK was largely unchanged. In addition, we have also found in mouse animal experiments that high-fat diet increased the degree of PFOS-induced liver fat accumulation, and there may be a synergistic effect between HFD and PFOS in inducing liver lipid accumulation.

The development of liver steatosis is mainly attributed to disorders in liver lipid metabolism. While aberrant lipid metabolism plays an integral role in liver fat accumulation, the involvement of other factors, such as toxicant exposure and inflammation, cannot be neglected. Indeed, exposure to various environmental pollutants, including 2,3,7,8-tetrachlorodibenzofuran (TCDF), Benzo[a]pyrene and diesel exhaust, has been shown to cause liver steatosis (Feng et al. 2020; Yin et al. 2019; Yuan et al. 2020). Exposure to high doses of PFOS (10 mg/kg) has been also reportedly associated with the development of steatosis (Wan et al. 2012). However, this dose range is pretty high and physiologically irrelevant. In addition, the development of steatosis is typically driven by multiple factors, including genetic predisposition, excess energy intake and toxicant-induced hepatic damage. On the basis of the hypothesis that PFOS exposure may work synergically with nutritional factors to facilitate hepatic steatosis, we established a HFD-induced steatosis model and investigated the synergic effects of PFOS and HFD in facilitating steatosis. We found that 1mg/kg PFOS significantly aggravated HFD-induced steatosis, as revealed by histological and biochemical data. These results suggested that PFOS bioaccumulation may be a risk factor of steatosis, particularly in subjects with excess fat intake.

As a master regulator of energy metabolism, AMPK also plays an indispensable role in balancing lipid catabolism and synthesis. Studies in recent years revealed that AMPK-activating therapies and drugs may provide significant benefits in the prevention of metabolic associated fatty liver disease (MAFLD) (Chen et al. 2019; Li et al. 2011; Smith et al. 2016; Zhu et al. 2019). These results are consistent with the notion that aberrant AMPK activity plays a causal role in the development of MAFLD.

Therefore, we believe that PFOS-induced inactivation of AMPK may contribute heavily to the accumulation of fat in the liver. In line with our data that PFOS may attenuate the activity of AMPK, a recent report also showed that PFOS can hinder the hypoglycemic effect of metformin (an AMPK agonist) (Salter et al. 2021). In our experiments, we also observed that PFOS can reduce the phosphorylation of AMPK. Once AMPK is inactivated, the activity of ACC will increase accordingly, thereby promoting fatty acid synthesis (Assifi et al. 2005; Carling et al. 1987; Munday et al. 1988). We also found that pretreatment with AMPK agonist AICAR can reduce PFOS-mediated lipid accumulation in the liver. This further indicates that PFOS mediates liver steatosis through AMPK/ACC. In addition, acute exposure to PFOS increases insulin secretion (Zhang et al. 2020), and the insulin/IGF-1 signaling pathway inhibits the activation of AMPK (Hawley et al. 2014; Horman et al. 2006; Kovacic et al. 2003; Ning et al. 2011). We speculate that the insulin pathway-mediated AMPK inactivation may serve as an indirect mechanism leading to PFOS-induced lipid accumulation.

In summary, our study verified a role of aberrant AMPK activity in PFOS-induced liver lipid accumulation, and dissected the mechanism by which AMPK-ACC pathway contributes to PFOS-induced lipid accumulation. PFOS inhibits the phosphorylation of AMPK, promotes the expression of ACC, and inhibits the oxidation of fatty acid  $\beta$ , which leads to the accumulation of lipids in the liver and the development of MAFLD. This study provides new insights for elucidating the mechanism underpinning PFOS-induced liver fat metabolism, and also provides a new theoretical basis for preventing and intervening PFOS liver toxicity.

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#### **CONFLICT OF INTEREST STATEMENT**

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

#### **Figure Legends**

Fig 1 PFOS exposure induces liver injury in C57BL/6 mice

Mice were fed chow diet (Chow) or high-fat diet (HFD) for 12 weeks, and were administered 1 mg/kg, 5 mg/kg PFOS or vehicle carrier (corn oil) in the last 4 weeks. The body weight (BW) changes of 4-week-old mice fed for 12 weeks in Chow group (a) and HFD group (b). We also assessed the (c) liver weight, (d) liver organ coefficient, (e) liver triglyceride (TG) content, (f) serum alanine aminotransferase (ALT) and (g) aspartate aminotransferase (AST) content. Note: Values are mean  $\pm$  SEM. \*, P<0.05, VS Con group (A and B); &, P<0.05, VS Chow-Con group; #, P<0.05, VS HFD-Con group; \*, P<0.05, VS Chow group.

Fig 2 PFOS exposure induces liver steatosis in mice

(a) H&E staining analysis of liver tissue sections. Scale bar:  $50\mu$ m. (b) Oil red O staining analysis of mouse liver tissue sections. Scale bar:  $50\mu$ m. (c) Histogram of quantitative analysis of oil red O staining results. (d) Transmission electron microscopy analysis of mouse liver tissue sections. Scale bar:  $0.5\mu$ m. Note: Values are mean ± SEM. &, P<0.05, VS Chow-Con group; #, P<0.05, VS HFD-Con group; \*, P<0.05, VS Chow group.

**Fig 3** PFOS exposure reduces the levels of phosphorylated AMPK in the liver of mice (**a**) Immunohistochemistrical analysis of the expression of phosphorylated AMPK in liver tissue sections of mice in each experimental group. Scale bar: 50μm. (**b**) Histogram of positive results for quantitative analysis of p-AMPK in mouse liver. Note: Values are mean ± SEM. &, P<0.05, VS Chow-Con group; #, P<0.05, VS HFD-Con group; \*, P<0.05, VS Chow group.

Fig 4 Effect of PFOS exposure on AMPK/ACC signaling in HepG2 cells

HepG2 cells were treated with different concentrations of PFOS (0, 50, 100 and 150  $\mu$ M) for 48 hours. (a) Analysis of cell viability by CCK-8 detection method. (b) Expression analysis of p-ACC, ACC, p-AMPK and AMPK in HepG2 cells. (c) Histogram means the density ratio of p-ACC/ACC. (d) Histogram denotes the density ratio of p-AMPK/AMPK. Note: Values are mean ± SEM. \*, P<0.05.

**Fig 5** AMPK activation can alleviate the fat accumulation of HepG2 cells induced by PFOS exposure

HepG2 cells were exposed to AICAR (200  $\mu$ M) in the presence or absence of 150  $\mu$ M PFOS for 48 hours. (a) The expression of p-ACC and ACC in HepG2 cells was analyzed by Western blot. The histogram shows the density ratio of p-ACC/ACC. (b) Oil red O staining analysis. Scale bar: 50 $\mu$ m. The histogram represents the quantitative analysis of the oil red O staining results. Note: Values are mean ± SEM. \*, P<0.05.

# **Figures**



# Figure 1

PFOS exposure induces liver injury in C57BL/6 mice

Mice were fed chow diet (Chow) or high-fat diet (HFD) for 12 weeks, and were administered 1 mg/kg, 5 mg/kg PFOS or vehicle carrier (corn oil) in the last 4 weeks. The body weight (BW) changes of 4-week-old mice fed for 12 weeks in Chow group (a) and HFD group (b). We also assessed the (c) liver weight, (d) liver organ coefficient, (e) liver triglyceride (TG) content, (f) serum alanine aminotransferase (ALT) and (g) aspartate aminotransferase (AST) content. Note: Values are mean ± SEM. \*, P<0.05, VS Con group (A and B); &, P<0.05, VS Chow-Con group; #, P<0.05, VS HFD-Con group; \*, P<0.05, VS Chow group.





# Figure 2

PFOS exposure induces liver steatosis in mice

(a) H&E staining analysis of liver tissue sections. Scale bar: 50μm. (b) Oil red O staining analysis of mouse liver tissue sections. Scale bar: 50μm. (c) Histogram of quantitative analysis of oil red O staining results. (d) Transmission electron microscopy analysis of mouse liver tissue sections. Scale bar: 0.5μm. Note: Values are mean ± SEM. &, P<0.05, VS Chow-Con group; #, P<0.05, VS HFD-Con group; \*, P<0.05, VS Chow group.





# Figure 3

PFOS exposure reduces the levels of phosphorylated AMPK in the liver of mice

(a) Immunohistochemistrical analysis of the expression of phosphorylated AMPK in liver tissue sections of mice in each experimental group. Scale bar: 50µm. (b) Histogram of positive results for quantitative analysis of p-AMPK in mouse liver. Note:

Values are mean ± SEM. &, P<0.05, VS Chow-Con group; #, P<0.05, VS HFD-Con group; \*, P<0.05, VS Chow group.



## Figure 4

Effect of PFOS exposure on AMPK/ACC signaling in HepG2 cells

HepG2 cells were treated with different concentrations of PFOS (0, 50, 100 and 150  $\mu$ M) for 48 hours. (a) Analysis of cell viability by CCK-8 detection method. (b) Expression analysis of p-ACC, ACC, p-AMPK and

AMPK in HepG2 cells. (c) Histogram means the density ratio of p-ACC/ACC. (d) Histogram denotes the density ratio of p-AMPK/AMPK. Note: Values are mean ± SEM. \*, P<0.05.



## Figure 5

AMPK activation can alleviate the fat accumulation of HepG2 cells induced by PFOS exposure

HepG2 cells were exposed to AICAR (200  $\mu$ M) in the presence or absence of 150  $\mu$ M PFOS for 48 hours. (a) The expression of p-ACC and ACC in HepG2 cells was analyzed by Western blot. The histogram shows the density ratio of p-ACC/ACC. (b) Oil red O staining analysis. Scale bar: 50 $\mu$ m. The histogram represents the quantitative analysis of the oil red O staining results. Note: Values are mean ± SEM. \*, P<0.05.