

The role of adipose tissue and subsequent liver tissue hypoxia in obesity and early stage metabolic dysfunction associated steatotic liver disease

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- 2 The role of adipose tissue and subsequent liver tissue hypoxia in obesity and early stage metabolic
- 3 dysfunction associated steatotic liver disease
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Abstract

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Background: Obesity is linked to several health complication, including Metabolic Dysfunction Associated Steatotic Liver Disease (MASLD). Adipose tissue hypoxia has been suggested as an important player in the pathophysiological mechanism leading to chronic inflammation in obesity, and in the progression of MASLD. The study aims to investigate the effect of progressive obesity on adipose and liver tissue hypoxia. Methods: Male 8-week-old C57BL/6J mice were fed a high-fat high-fructose diet (HFHFD) or control diet (CD) for 4, 8, 12, 16 and 20 weeks. Serum ALT, AST and lipid levels were determined, and glucose and insulin tolerance testing was performed. Liver, gonadal and subcutaneous adipose tissue was assessed histologically. In vivo tissue pO₂ measurements were performed in gonadal adipose tissue and liver under anaesthesia. A PCR array for hypoxia responsive genes was performed in liver and adipose tissue. The main findings in the liver were validated in another diet-induced MASLD mice model, the choline-deficient L-amino acid defined high-fat diet (CDAHFD). Results: HFHFD feeding induced a progressive obesity, dyslipidaemia, insulin resistance and MASLD. In vivo pO2 was decreased in gonadal adipose tissue after 8 weeks of HFHFD compared to CD, and decreased further until 20 weeks. Liver pO₂ was only significantly decreased after 16 and 20 weeks of HFHFD. Gene expression and histology confirmed the presence of hypoxia in liver and adipose tissue. Hypoxia could not be confirmed in mice fed a CDAHFD. Conclusion: Diet-induced obesity in mice is associated with hypoxia in liver and adipose tissue. Adipose tissue hypoxia develops early in obesity, while liver hypoxia occurs later in the obesity development but still within the early stages of MASLD. Liver hypoxia could not be directly confirmed in a non-obese liver-only MASLD mice model, indicating that obesity-related processes such as adipose tissue hypoxia are important in the pathophysiology of obesity and MASLD.

Introduction

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Obesity represents an enormous health burden, affecting over 650 million adults in 2016 according to the WHO(1). Obesity is related to an increased risk of developing several health problems. The main comorbidities of obesity are included in the metabolic syndrome and non-alcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD) is considered as the hepatic manifestation of the metabolic syndrome. It was therefore recently renamed and re-defined as Metabolic Dysfunction Associated Steatotic Liver Disease (MASLD)(2). MASLD consists of a spectrum of disease, ranging from isolated steatosis to non-alcoholic or metabolic dysfunction associated steatohepatitis (MASH). MASH is characterized by the concurrent presence of steatosis, ballooning and lobular inflammation, and predisposes to complications such as cirrhosis, hepatocellular carcinoma and cardiovascular disease(3, 4). Although often considered as a benign condition, isolated steatosis can predispose the liver to further injury, and is a precursor and independent risk factor for type 2 diabetes and cardiovascular disease(5). Obesity is characterized by a state of chronic inflammation and increasing evidence points to a critical role of hypoxia in mediating the proinflammatory responses in adipose tissue (AT) in obesity(6) resulting in systemic inflammation. With the expansion of the AT, there is an increased angiogenesis to ensure sufficient supply of oxygen and nutrients. As adipocyte hypertrophy continues, local tissue hypoxia develops leading to the activation of hypoxia-inducible transcription factors, in particular hypoxia-inducible factor (HIF)-1(7). This sets a cascade in motion that contributes to further adipocyte and metabolic dysfunction. Studies in mice with diet-induced obesity show that AT hypoxia can occur as soon as 1-3 days after starting the high-fat diet (HFD)(8). However, little is known about how AT hypoxia develops during the progression towards severe obesity. In MASLD progression, hypoxia has also been implicated, as increased intrahepatic resistance results in a chronic flow impairment in the microcirculation of steatotic livers (9, 10). This inadequate perfusion potentially leads to hepatic hypoxia most distally along the sinusoids(11). Indeed, hypoxia is suggested to be present in the centrilobular region of steatotic livers in mice on a HFD(12, 13). Furthermore, AT hypoxia has also been implicated in MASLD, as adipocyte HIF-modulation affects liver lipid accumulation(5). Under normal physiological circumstances, the AT and liver strive to maintain metabolic homeostasis through the secretion of adipokines and growth factors(14). However, chronic nutrient excess, causing obesity, leads to a disruption of the adipose tissue-liver axis and further contributes to the metabolic derangement. It is unclear if and to what extent the development of hypoxia in the liver and AT contributes to an imbalance in the adipose-liver axis.

Therefore, the aim of this study was to investigate the effect of progressive severe obesity on the role of hypoxia in the AT and liver tissue in a mice model for obesity.

Methodology

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Mice and experimental design model 1: high-fat high-fructose diet 83 C57BL/6J 8-week-old male mice (Janviers Labs, Le GenestSaint-Isle, France) were kept on a 12:12-hour 84 85 light/dark cycle with controlled temperature (21-24°C) and humidity (45-60%) and housed in enriched 86 cages with a stainless-steel grid, filter top, and free access to tap water. All experiments were 87 performed during the light cycle. 88 Mice had free access to standard chow in the control group (Ssniff Specialdiäten GmbH, Soest, 89 Germany), with 9kJ% from fat and 67 kJ% from carbohydrates, or a high-fat high-fructose diet (HFHFD) in the experimental group (D16042610; Research Diets, New Brunswick, NJ), containing 55 kcal% fat 90 91 and 25kcal% carbohydrates of which 14 kcal% are from fructose. Mice were fed either the standard 92 chow or HFHFD and sacrificed after 4, 8, 12, 16 or 20 weeks after the start of the experiment. A more detailed description of the 2 diets can be found in the supplemental materials. Mice were selected at 93 random for each experimental group and the researchers were blinded for all tissue analysis 94 95 performed after sacrifice. 96 This study was approved by the Ethical Committee for Animal Testing of the University of Antwerp 97 (2016-16). Based on a difference in gene expression of HIF-1 α between animals on an HFD and animals 98 on a standardised diet found in a pilot study, a sample size of 10 animals per group per time point was 99 calculated. The animals were included trough 2 separate replicate experiments. Animals were 100 excluded from the analysis when a significant drop in body weight was noticed (for example due to 101 fighting among the animals housed together). 102 Glucose and Insulin Tolerance Testing 103 Glucose and insulin tolerance testing were performed by injecting mice intraperitoneally with a 20%

glucose solution (Baxter, Deerfield, IL) at 2 mg glucose per gram of body weight or a 0.1U/mL insulin

solution (Novo Nordisk, Bagsvaerd, Denmark) at 0.75 mU per gram of body weight, after being fasted

for 6 hours. Glucose levels were determined with a portable glucometer (GlucoMen LX; A. Menarini Diagnostics, Florence, Italy) after 15, 30, 60, 90, and 120 minutes. The area under the curve (AUC) was calculated with the trapezoidal rule for both glucose and insulin.

Tissue pO₂ measurements

In vivo pO_2 measurements were made in the gonadal AT and liver tissue of anesthetized mice with an oxygen Clark-type microsensor (25 μ m tip diameter, Unisense, Aarhus, Denmark). The procedure was performed in the mice after laparotomy under general anaesthesia with isoflurane (3%, 0.2 l/min, in combination with room air).

The oxygen microsensor was connected to a high-sensitivity picoampere amplifier and was calibrated in water saturated with 21% O_2 and an oxygen-free solution (0.1M sodium ascorbate in 0.1M NaOH). In gonadal AT, the microsensor was inserted with the help of a micromanipulator 2mm into the tissue until a stable signal was obtained. For liver tissue, the microsensor was inserted 3mm into the tissue of the left lateral lobe and retracted 0.5mm. The mean adipose and liver pO_2 was measured for 90 seconds after positioning. This was repeated three times per animal per tissue, and the average of these measurements was calculated.

Biochemistry

A blood sample was collected through cardiac puncture. Whole blood samples were centrifuged for 10 minutes at 10 000g and serum was collected. ALT (Limit of detection (LoD) \leq 7U/L), AST (LoD \leq 8U/L), triglycerides (LoD \leq 8mg/dl), HDL (LoD \leq 4 mg/dl), LDL (LoD \leq 4 mg/dl) and total cholesterol (LoD \leq 10 mg/dl were determined by means of an automated system (Atellica, Siemens Healthineers, Erlanger, Germany).

Histology

Samples of gonadal AT, subcutaneous AT and liver were fixed in 4% formaldehyde and embedded in paraffin. Subsequently, 5 μ m sections were stained with haematoxylin and eosin (H&E) according to

standard protocols. Liver sections were also stained with picrosirius red. The histological characteristics of MASH in the liver were scored on H&E-stained slides using the NASH Clinical Research Network Scoring System, including the NAFLD Activity Score (NAS)(15). The adipocyte diameter of AT was determined by means of the ImageJ plugin Adiposoft(16). Liver fibrosis was quantified with ImageJ on picrosirius red stained slides.

Hypoxia was immunohistochemically stained in AT with pimonidazole, which is reductively activated in hypoxic cells and forms stable adducts with thiol groups of proteins, peptides and amino acids(17). Pimonidazole was injected intraperitoneally at 100 mg/kg bodyweight 1 hour before tissue collection. The adducts were then stained on paraffin embedded tissue samples according to the manufacturer's protocol (Hypoxyprobe, NPI, USA).

PCR Array

A Hypoxia signal Pathway RT² Profiler PCR Array was used to screen a panel of 84 genes involved in hypoxia-related processes and 5 housekeeping genes. Samples of mice after 4, 12 and 20 weeks of diet were used. Four animals per group (control vs HFHFD) were randomly selected per time point.

Total RNA was isolated from gonadal adipose tissue, subcutaneous adipose tissue and liver using the RNeasy Plus Universal Tissue Mini Kit (Qiagen) following the manufacturer's instructions. The concentration and quality of the RNA was evaluated using the NanoDrop® ND1000 UV-Vis Spectrophotometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Next, 0.5 µg RNA was converted to cDNA by reverse transcription using the RT2 First Strand Kit (Qiagen). Gene expression was then determined with the RT² Profiler PCR Array using RT² SYBR Green ROX qPCR Mastermix (Qiagen) on an ABI 7500 Fast Real-Time PCR system (Thermo Fisher Scientific) under the following conditions: an initial activation step of the DNA Taq Polymerase for 10 minutes at 95°, followed by 40 cycles of denaturation at 95°C for 15 sec and annealing/extension for 1 min at 60°C.

Mice and experimental design model 2: choline-deficient L-amino acid defined high-fat diet

In vivo hypoxia results were validated in a second dietary MASLD model. C57BL/6J 8-week-old male mice were fed a choline-deficient L-amino acid defined high-fat diet (CDAHFD, A06071302, Research Diets, New Brunswick, NJ, USA) as reported previously(18) and compared to lean control animals on a standardized diet. Animals were sacrificed after 1, 2, 3, 4 and 6 weeks of diet. As this is a non-obese liver-only MASH mice model, only measurements in liver tissue were repeated for this model.

This study was approved by the Ethical Committee for Animal Testing of the University of Antwerp (2019-42).

Statistical and data analysis

Statistical analyses were performed in SPSS 27.0 (SPSS, Chigaco, Illinois, USA), Graphpad Prism 9 (Boston, Massachusetts, USA) and R version 4.0.1 and higher running Rstudio (2022.07.0). A p-value ≤0.05 was considered as statistically significant. Differences between groups were determined via Mann-Whitney U test adjusted for multiple testing using the two-stage step-up method of Benjamini, Krieger and Yekutieli(19). A mixed effects analysis was used to determine group and time effects on the pO₂ measurements. The associations between hypoxia and metabolic parameters was assessed using a spearman correlation analysis. A detailed description of the analysis of the PCR array data can be found in the supplemental materials.

172 Results

Body weight and metabolic profile after HFHFD 173 174 The body weight of the mice increased progressively over 20 weeks of HFHFD (Figure 1 and Table 1). 175 This was associated with an increase in total cholesterol and LDL levels (Table 1). Glucose and insulin 176 tolerance testing showed decreased glucose tolerance after 4 weeks of HFHFD and a decreased insulin 177 sensitivity after 16 weeks of HFHFD (Figure S1). 178 After 20 weeks, liver weight was significantly increased in the animals receiving HFHFD (Table 1). 179 Histological assessment of the liver after HFHFD showed progressive stages of MASLD, with an 180 increasing NAS the longer the diet was administered (Figure 2). This was not observed in animals on 181 standard chow, displaying normal liver histology. No evidence of fibrosis was found in the animals 182 (Table S1). 183 Histological assessment of the gonadal and subcutaneous AT after HFHFD showed development of 184 adipocyte hypertrophy at all time points (Figure S2). Over time, in gonadal AT, the adipocyte diameter 185 increased from $59.29 (42.54 - 65.34) \mu m$ to $71.42 (67.28-75.53) \mu m$ after 20 weeks of HFHFD (p<0.002). 186 On standard chow the adipocyte diameter also increased in the gonadal AT after 20 weeks (41.25 187 (38.10-45.26) μm compared to 46.38 (43.86 – 49.04) μm, p=0.004), but less compared to a HFHFD. In 188 the subcutaneous AT an increase in adipocyte diameter was also observed for the animals on HFHFD, 189 with an increase from 43.53 (31.03 – 54.31) μm at 4 weeks to 68.63 (53.04 – 71.08) μm after 20 weeks 190 of HFHFD (p=0.001). In the animals on standard chow no increase in adipocyte diameter in 191 subcutaneous AT was found after 20 weeks (32.90 (27.66-35.27) μm at 4 weeks vs. 32.03 (29.46 -192 44.10) μm after 20 weeks; p=0.7). 193 Overall, the area of pimonidazole in the gonadal AT was increased in animals on a HFHFD compared to 194 animals on a standard diet (p=0.029; 0.39(0.058 - 2.60)% vs. 0.22 (0.014 - 1.42)%). However, no 195 significant difference could be found on the different time points separately. No significant difference in %area pimonidazole was found in subcutaneous AT overall or at any timepoint (p>0.05). Figure S3 summarizes these data.

Body weight and liver characteristics after CDAHFD

The characterisation of the mice fed a CDAHFD have been previously reported(18). Briefly, the body weight decreased compared to a standard diet (Figure S4 and Table S2), while the liver weight increased, albeit not significant, over time. In contrast, the liver/body weight ratio was significantly increased after 2, 3, 4 and 6 weeks of CDAHFD. This corresponded with a significant increase in ALT. (Table S2). Histological assessment of the liver of CDAHFD mice already showed an increased NAS after 1 week (median NAS of 4), with increasing severity over time (median NAS of 8 at 6 weeks).

In vivo pO₂ measurements

Increasing obesity was associated with a decreasing pO_2 in the gonadal AT after 8 weeks of HFHFD which remained until 20 weeks of HFHFD (Figure 3A). In the liver, a decrease in pO_2 was only observed after 16 and 20 weeks of HFHFD (Figure 3B).

A mixed effects analysis was used to investigate the effect of time on the pO_2 measurements (Table 2). For both gonadal AT and liver a significant effect of group (control vs. HFHFD) was found on pO_2 measurements (both p<0.001). Time did not contribute separately to the pO_2 in gonadal AT or liver tissue (p=0.06 and p=0.08), however a significant time-group interaction was found for gonadal AT pO_2 (p=0.007). The AT pO_2 also correlated significantly with the stained AT area of pimonidazole on histology after correction for adipocyte diameter (r=-0.27, p= 0.02).

In animals fed CDAHFD no significant differences in liver pO_2 were found compared to control animals (Figure 5C), however, there was a trend for a decreased pO_2 after 6 weeks of CDAHFD diet. No effect for group or time were found on liver pO_2 in this experiment.

Correlations between pO_2 measurements and several metabolic parameters were found in the HFHFD fed mice model, which are summarized in Table 3.

Hypoxia signalling pathway PCR Array

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221 The expression of hypoxia-related genes was determined after 4, 12 and 20 weeks of HFHFD on liver, 222 and gonadal and subcutaneous AT using a PCR array. A clear tissue dependent effect was seen in the 223 expression data (Figure S5), therefore all tissues were analysed separately. 224 In the gonadal AT, 7 genes were upregulated after 12 weeks of HFHFD in obese animals compared to 225 control animals (Table S3). Two genes were related to angiogenesis (Lox, Plau), 2 genes were HIF1-226 interactors (NfkB1, Trp53), two were other hypoxia-responsive genes (Lgals3, Ctsa) and one was 227 involved in metabolism-related processes (Gusb). After 20 weeks, 28 genes were differentially 228 expressed in the gonadal AT of obese animals compared to control animals (Table S4). Four genes were 229 involved in the regulation of apoptosis (Bnip3, Adm, Nos3 (all downregulated) and Mif (upregulated)), 230 7 genes in metabolism-related processes (upregulated: Pkm2, Ero11, Slc2a1, Pdk1 and Gusb; 231 downregulated: Pfkfb3 and Gys1), 6 genes were related to angiogenesis (upregulated: Plau, Hmox1; 232 downregulated: Vegf, Angptl4, Edn1, Serpine1), 2 were HIF1-interactors (Egln1 (downregulated), Trp53 233 (upregulated)), 7 were other hypoxia-responsive genes (upregulated: Map3k1, Car9, Lgals3, Ctsa, 234 Dnajc5; downregulated: Eif4ebp1, Gbe1, ,), 1 gene was involved in the regulation of Cell Proliferation 235 (Txnip, downregulated) and 1 gene expressed in transporters, channels and receptors (Tfrc, 236 upregulated). 237 In the subcutaneous AT, 5 genes were downregulated after 12 weeks of HFHFD in obese animals 238 compared to control animals (Table S3). This was one HIF1-interactor (Eqln2), one gene related to DNA 239 damage and repair (Ruvbl2), one gene involved in the regulation of cell proliferation (Odc1) and one 240 gene expressed in transporters, channels and receptors (Tfrc). One gene could not be related to any 241 relevant pathways (Hsp90ab1). After 20 weeks, 7 genes were differentially expressed in the 242 subcutaneous AT (Table S4). Five genes were involved in metabolism-related processes (Eno1, Pfkl, 243 Pdk1, Pgam1 (all upregulated) and Slc2a3 (downregulated)), one gene was a HIF1-interactor (Egln2, 244 downregulated) and one gene was related to DNA damage and repair (Ruvbl2, downregulated).

In the liver, 8 genes were differentially expressed after 12 weeks of HFHFD in control animals compared to obese animals (Table S3). Of these genes, 3 were related to angiogenesis (F3 (upregulated), Hmox1 and Mmp9 (both downregulated)), 2 to the regulation of Cell Proliferation (Met and Nampt, both upregulated), one gene was involved in Metabolism-related processes (Gbe1, upregulated) and 2 genes were hypoxia-responsive genes (Trp53 and Map3k1, both downregulated). After 20 weeks of HFHFD, 11 genes were differentially expressed in the liver of control animals compared to animals fed a HFHFD (Table S4), of which 10 genes were down regulated and only 1 gene was upregulated in obese animals compared to the controls. Six of these genes were HIF1 co-transcription factors or HIF1interactors (Apex1, Nfkb1, Map3k1, P4ha1, Trp53, Arnt, Hnf4a), 2 genes were involved in angiogenesis or coagulation (Anxa2 (upregulated), Amp9), 1 in the regulation of cell proliferation (Pim1) and 1 in metabolism-related processes (Ero11). The influence of covariates on the gene expression pattern in the different tissues was determined through a principal component analysis (PCA). In gonadal AT, three principal components (PC) could be identified. The loading of the different PC can be found in Figure S6. PC2 could distinguish based on group (control vs HFHFD) and correlated strongly with both liver and AT pO2 (Figure 4A). Also in subcutaneous AT three PC could be identified (Figure S6), where PC3 strongly correlated with glycemia (Figure 4B). In liver tissue, four PC could be identified (Figure S6). PC1 in the liver was able to distinguish based on group (control vs HFHFD) and correlated with fasting glycemia (Figure 4C). The association between the in vivo oxygen measurements and 11 core hypoxia genes(20) in liver and gonadal AT is shown in Figure 5. The hypoxia signature was optimized for each tissue (Figure 6). Both in liver and gonadal AT 5 core hypoxia genes were included, resulting in a strong correlation with the

in vivo pO₂ measurements (figure 6). Table 4 shows the core hypoxia genes included for each tissue.

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This study shows the development of visceral AT and liver hypoxia during progressive obesity, with AT hypoxia preceding liver hypoxia, and the latter developing at the stage of isolated steatosis already. We indeed found adipocyte hypoxia in early obesity after 8 weeks of HFHFD. Liver pO₂ only decreased in a later stage of obesity development, i.e. after 16 weeks of HFHFD. Nevertheless, the hypoxia development seen in the liver was during the early MASLD stadium when steatohepatitis and fibrosis had not yet developed, supporting our hypothesis that early vascular changes in steatosis can impair intrahepatic blood flow and induce local tissue hypoxia. As previously demonstrated, 20 weeks of HFHFD resulted in obesity, MASL as well as several metabolic alterations such as dyslipidaemia and insulin resistance(21). The HFHFD mouse model therefore mimics the human pathology relatively closely in terms of obesity-associated metabolic derangements and early MASLD lesions. We showed that these alterations are accompanied by significant adipose and liver tissue hypoxia, and by an altered gene expression in several hypoxia-related genes in both liver and AT. AT hypoxia was found after 8 weeks of HFHFD. Normally, AT expands trough hyperplasia and hypertrophy. However, in obesity, the rapid adipocyte expansion occurs almost solely through hypertrophy, which is not matched by blood vessel formation, resulting in AT hypoxia(22). Indeed, the adipocyte diameter already increased in the gonadal AT after 4 weeks of HFHFD. Several studies have previously indicated AT hypoxia in animal models trough histology(23-25). Additionally, Rausch et al. and Ye et al., measured partial oxygen pressure via a fibre-optic sensor with both studies indicating a decreased pO₂ in *ob/ob* mice with obesity after 28 weeks and 7 weeks of HFD respectively(24, 25). However, previous studies only measured hypoxia at a single time point and lack information on the evolution of hypoxia during the development of obesity. To the best of our knowledge, we are the first to report the longitudinal evolution of directly and indirectly measured pO₂ levels and hypoxia in AT during the progression of obesity, where we show decreasing pO₂ levels in gonadal AT of HFHFD fed mice.

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Hepatic tissue hypoxia appeared after 16 weeks of HFHFD, which was accompanied by steatosis but with very few other lesions, at this stage thus insufficient to diagnose steatohepatitis (with a median NAS score of 1.5 which was attributed to isolated steatosis with limited ballooning but no inflammation). We have previously showed that early MASLD is associated with portal hypertension as a result of an increased intrahepatic vascular resistance that impairs the intrahepatic blood flow(9, 26). These pathophysiological changes in liver vasculature could possibly underlie the hepatic tissue hypoxia seen in our experiment. We hypothesize that this local tissue hypoxia could then trigger several pathways of cell damage and inflammation that will ultimately lead to the progression of isolated steatosis to MASH, fibrosis and its further hepatic and extrahepatic complications(11). Other studies indirectly support a potential role of hypoxia in MASLD and its progression to MASH. For example, steatotic donor livers appear to be more vulnerable to ischaemia-reperfusion injury compared to normal donor livers(27-29), and furthermore a higher complication rate and mortality of primary surgery of steatotic livers has been observed(27). Also, the relationship between obstructive sleep apnoea and MASLD is well established(30-32), which could be partly due to the presence of (intermittent) hypoxia. Previous research in experimental models of diet-induced obesity showed that exposure to intermittent hypoxia exacerbates insulin intolerance and hepatic steatosis(33), and in models of liver cirrhosis intermittent hypoxia impaired liver microvasculature function and increased oxidative stress(34).

To investigate if the effects seen in the liver could be repeated in another model, some experiments were repeated in a CDAHFD mouse model which is a liver-specific model with rapid progression towards steatohepatitis with fibrosis but without developing obesity(35). In this model of more severe MASH compared to HFHFD, no significant decrease in liver pO₂ could be found after 6 weeks CDAHFD feeding despite liver histology already showing an increased average NAS score of 5 after 1 week of

CDAHFD diet (corresponding with steatohepatitis) which further increased to an average score of 8 after 6 weeks. With a longer duration of the diet, liver tissue pO2 tended to decrease but without reaching significance. It is important to emphasise that the CDAHFD model, in which steatosis develops due to impaired hepatic VLDL and triglyceride secretive capacity, histologically and functionally resembles sever human MASH at the level of the liver but does not resemble the metabolic context of obesity and peripheral insulin resistance in which MAFLD usually develops(35). The lack of significant hypoxia, demonstrated by direct measurement, in this model with primary hepatocellular damage potentially indicates that the metabolic alteration as seen in a more physiological model as the HFHFD mouse model could be essential for the development of (direct) measurable liver hypoxia in MASLD. Previous research has shown the presence of panlobular hypoxia in the liver of CDAHFD mice model trough immunohistochemistry (18). However, the differences in liver hypoxia between the HFHFD and CDAHFD model indicate that the metabolic changes seen during obesity are important in several pathophysiological mechanism involved. Indeed, basal lipolysis, a key feature in AT dysfunction, is stimulated by AT hypoxia(5), which was further indicated in the study by Pasarica et al. where lipolysis was inversely correlated with oxygen tension in the white AT of patients(36). The associated release of fatty acids into the bloodstream can lead to re-esterification and deposition of fatty acids in insulinsensitive organs such as the liver, leading to both insulin resistance and MASLD. Furthermore, adipocyte HIF modulation can affect liver lipid accumulation. Studies have shown that a knockout of adipocyte HIF- 1α leads to improved insulin sensitivity, and that HIF- 1α inhibition is able to prevent MASLD and hepatocyte inflammation(8, 37, 38). The adipose tissue-liver axis is hence potentially of great pathophysiological relevance in human MASLD(39, 40). By using a PCR hypoxia-signalling pathway array, the expression of multiple genes could be simultaneously screened while using real-time PCR for the accurate quantification of changes in mRNA level. The development of obesity involved changes in many hypoxia-related genes, including changes in angiogenesis and metabolism-related processes. However, liver and AT showed a clear distinct

expression pattern. Furthermore, progressive obesity resulted in changes in the expression pattern in

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the different tissues. For instance, we found that *Slc2a1*, a classic hypoxia-sensitive gene, was upregulated in gonadal AT after 20 weeks of diet, while this was not found for the liver or subcutaneous AT. This again indicates the importance of longitudinal changes in the hypoxia response during obesity, which is relevant to study disease progression and also implies the data generated on a single time point in disease evolution should be interpreted with caution. Future studies should also study the effect of weight loss on hypoxia in these tissues, as it is not yet known if the longitudinal changes found in our experiment are reversible.

We utilized several different methodologies to determine hypoxia. Tissue hypoxia is a challenging marker to determine, and is often limited to only immunohistochemistry. Indirect hypoxia markers can be influenced by various processes and may not (solely) reflect hypoxia. Especially in the liver, hypoxia is difficult to measure because of the unique vascularization of the liver that results in an oxygen gradient across the liver lobule with lower oxygen tensions in the perivenous regions(18, 41). A direct measurement of tissue hypoxia is the best standard to objectify hypoxia and to link observed changes to hypoxia, but indirect hypoxia markers support the data obtained by direct measurements, which is important as the direct measurement can be technically challenging. An important strength of this study is hence the determination of *in vivo* hypoxia by means of a microsensor combined with histology and gene expression patterns. A good correlation between the *in vivo* pO₂ measurements and the expression of core hypoxia genes(20) was found in both liver and AT. Also, a significant correlation between the pimonidazole stain and *in vivo* oxygen measurements in the gonadal AT was found, all in line with other tests related to hypoxia. Consequently, we established a core hypoxia signature model for both liver (*Ldha, Slc2a1, Eno1, Aldoa* and *Mif*) and AT (*Eno1, Mif, Slc2a1, Tpi1* and *Pgam1*) that best corresponded with the direct hypoxia measurements.

In conclusion, the development of diet-induced obesity was associated with a gradual decrease in pO_2 in the liver and AT of mice. While AT hypoxia develops in the early stages of obesity, liver hypoxia occurs later in progressive obesity development but before the occurrence of MASH. Liver hypoxia

could not be directly confirmed in a non-obese liver-only MASH mice model, indicating that obesity-related processes such as AT hypoxia are important in the pathophysiology of obesity and its hepatic manifestation MASLD.

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Credit author statement

AVE: conceptualization, methodology, formal analysis, investigation, writing original draft, project administration, funding acquisition; WK: methodology, writing – review & editing; CP: investigation, writing – review & editing; SVL: formal analysis, writing – review & editing; KVDM: writing – review & editing; KVH: writing – review & editing; JDM: methodology, writing – review & editing; BDW: methodology, writing – review & editing, supervision; SF: conceptualization, methodology, writing – review & editing, supervision; SV: conceptualization, writing – review & editing, supervision, funding acquisition

Competing Interests

We have no conflict of interest to declare. Funding was received by an Unrestricted Research Grant of the American Thoracic Society Foundation, but this organization had no conflict of interest with the result, nor a role in the study design.

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391	Data Availability Statement
392	The raw data supporting the conclusions of this article will be made available from the corresponding
393	authors, without undue reservation on reviewers' request.
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509	Figure legends
510	Fig 1: Effect of HFHFD on total body weight presented as median and IQR. (n per time point and
511	group can be found in table 1)
512	Fig 2: Histology of the liver. (A) NAS score represented as median with individual data points;
513	Representative 10x images of (B) H&E stained liver tissue and (C) picrosirius red stained liver tissue
514	after 20 weeks of diet (left control, right HFHFD).
515	Fig 3: In vivo pO ₂ in (A) gonadal AT and (B) liver tissue of mice fed either a control diet or HFHFD; and
516	(C) liver pO₂ in mice fed either a control diet or CDAHFD. Graph represents median and individual
517	data points.
518	Fig 4: Covariate analysis for the different principal components in (A) gonadal adipose tissue, (B)
519	subcutaneous adipose tissue and (C) liver tissue, represented as a heat map.
520	Fig 5: Correlation analysis between in vivo pO ₂ measurements and core hypoxia genes in (A) liver
521	tissue and (B) gonadal adipose tissue.
522	Fig 6: AIC curve for a hypoxia gene signature model and the corresponding correlation plots between
523	the best model and pO ₂ measurements in (A) liver and (B) gonadal adipose tissue
524	

Table Legends Table 1: Effect of HFHFD on weight and biochemistry. Table 2: Mixed effects analysis to determine group and time effect on pO₂ measurements in liver and adipose tissue. **Table 3:** Spearman correlation analysis between in vivo pO₂ and metabolic parameters. **Table 4:** Core hypoxia genes included in the hypoxia signature model in liver and adipose tissue.