

ARTICLE

https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-020-19554-7

OPEN



Long non-coding RNA Gm15441 attenuates hepatic inflammasome activation in response to PPARA agonism and fasting

Chad N. Brocker ^{1,4}, Donghwan Kim^{1,4}, Tisha Melia ², Kritika Karri², Thomas J. Velenosi¹, Shogo Takahashi ^{1,3}, Daisuke Aibara¹, Jessica A. Bonzo¹, Moshe Levi ³, David J. Waxman ² & Frank J. Gonzalez ^{1⊠}

Exploring the molecular mechanisms that prevent inflammation during caloric restriction may yield promising therapeutic targets. During fasting, activation of the nuclear receptor peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor α (PPAR α) promotes the utilization of lipids as an energy source. Herein, we show that ligand activation of PPAR α directly upregulates the long non-coding RNA gene *Gm15441* through PPAR α binding sites within its promoter. *Gm15441* expression suppresses its antisense transcript, encoding thioredoxin interacting protein (TXNIP). This, in turn, decreases TXNIP-stimulated NLR family pyrin domain containing 3 (NLRP3) inflammasome activation, caspase-1 (CASP1) cleavage, and proinflammatory interleukin 1 β (IL1B) maturation. *Gm15441*-null mice were developed and shown to be more susceptible to NLRP3 inflammasome activation and to exhibit elevated CASP1 and IL1B cleavage in response to PPAR α agonism and fasting. These findings provide evidence for a mechanism by which PPAR α attenuates hepatic inflammasome activation in response to metabolic stress through induction of IncRNA *Gm15441*.

¹Laboratory of Metabolism, Center for Cancer Research, National Cancer Institute, National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, MD 20814, USA. ² Department of Biology and Bioinformatics Program, Boston University, Boston, MA 02215, USA. ³Biochemistry and Molecular & Cellular Biology, Georgetown University, Washington, DC 20057, USA. ⁴These authors contributed equally: Chad N. Brocker, Donghwan Kim. ⁶⁶email: gonzalef@mail.nih.gov

here is growing support for a strong link between metabolism and inflammation^{1,2}. Various fasting regimes are known to provide many health benefits, including antiinflammatory effects³. Peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor a (PPARa) is a ligand-activated nuclear receptor and transcription factor that is a key regulator of fatty acid oxidation and the fasting response. PPARa facilitates metabolic remodeling that promotes lipid oxidation, and its dysregulation contributes to metabolic disorders and liver disease⁴. Prolonged activation by the PPARa-specific ligand WY-14643 has many phenotypic characteristics that parallel the fasting response⁵⁻⁸. Metabolic changes that promote fat oxidation can lead to metabolic stress through increased lipid peroxidation and reactive oxygen species generation, both of which are known pro-inflammatory signals^{9,10}. Interestingly in the context of elevated fatty acid oxidation, several synthetic PPARa agonists, including WY-14643, act as potent anti-inflammatory agents¹¹. However, the regulatory mechanisms underlying how PPARa prevents inflammation are not well understood.

Long non-coding RNAs (lncRNAs) act as regulators of gene expression and play important regulatory roles in many metabolic processes. For example, lncRNA Blnc1 works in concert with another important hepatic nuclear receptor, liver X receptor (LXR), to activate the lipogenic gene program 12 . Downregulation of lncRNA lncOb reduces leptin, leading to a leptin responsive form of obesity¹³. Other studies found that lncRNAs are regulated during adipocyte differentiation^{14,15}, are expressed in the liver in sex-dependent manner when regulated by growth а hormone^{16,17}, and can be strongly induced by xenobiotic exposure¹⁸. A compartment-specific transcriptional profiling approach revealed that lncRNA PAXIP1-AS1 regulates pulmonary arterial hypertension by modulating smooth muscle cell function¹⁹. Further, lncRNA HOTAIR influences glucose metabolism by upregulation of GLUT1 in hepatocellular carcinoma cells²⁰. It is, therefore, reasonable to consider that lncRNAs may play important roles in the metabolic remodeling and antiinflammatory actions that occur after PPARa activation.

Thioredoxin interacting protein (TXNIP) acts as a critical relay linking oxidative and endoplasmic reticulum (ER) stress to inflammation through NLR family pyrin domain containing 3 (NLRP3) inflammasome activation²¹. NLRP3 inflammasome activation is a two-step process. The first step involves inflammasome assembly and is referred to as "priming". At this stage the inflammasome is waiting to be "activated" by diverse stimuli including ionic flux, lysosomal damage, mitochondrial dysfunction, and, notably, oxidative stress²²⁻²⁴. These signals then trigger inflammasome activation resulting in caspase cleavage and cleavage of target proteins such as pro-inflammatory cytokines. TXNIP is bound intracellularly to thioredoxin and plays a role in oxidative stress-induced NLRP3 inflammasome activation²⁵. As oxidative stress increases, thioredoxin is released from TXNIP freeing it to associate with the NLRP3 inflammasome. Several studies have shown that elevated TXNIP expression impacts NLRP3 inflammasome activation and cleavage of caspase-1 (CASP1) to the mature, proteolytically active p20 form^{21,26,27}. Mature CASP1 (p20) then cleaves interleukin 1β (IL1B) precursor to the active pro-inflammatory cytokine. Studies have also indicated that NLRP3 inflammasome activity is attenuated by monoand polyunsaturated fatty acids, which are endogenous PPARa agonists^{28,29}. RNA-seq data presented here revealed that lncRNA Gm15441, an antisense lncRNA of Txnip, is robustly increased by PPARa activation. The primary Gm15441 transcript is spliced, generating a mature RNA composed of four exons. Two of the four exons directly overlap with exonic regions of the *Txnip* gene. Antisense transcripts often interact the corresponding sense transcripts encoded from the opposing gene, thereby interfering

with post-transcriptional control by promoting transcript degradation or disrupting translation³⁰. The *Gm15441* transcript was identified through several independent transcriptome profiling studies providing support that this may be a functionally important lncRNA³¹⁻³³. Using siRNA, one study found that *Gm15441* knockdown by siRNA impacted hepatocyte fatty acid oxidation in vitro, however, the mechanism was not determined³¹.

In the current study, the mechanisms by which the PPARa target lncRNA Gm15441 prevents inflammation during periods of metabolic stress were investigated. ChIP-seq datasets were analyzed for PPARa binding sites within the *Gm15441* promoter, and Gm15441 regulatory elements were confirmed using reporter gene assays and PPARa ChIP studies. Gm15441 transgene expression downregulated Txnip, demonstrating lncRNAmediated gene suppression in vitro. CRIPSR/Cas9-mediated gene editing was employed to develop a Gm15441 knockout (Gm15441^{LSL}) mouse model. Basal TXNIP levels in Gm15441^{LSL} mice were significantly elevated over wild-type mice, supporting the role of *Gm15441* as a negative regulator of *Txnip* expression in vivo. Gm15441^{LSL} mice were treated with a PPARa agonist or fasted to assess how loss of Gm15441 impacts hepatic inflammasome activation in response to both pharmacological and physiologically-induced metabolic stress. TXNIP protein, active cleaved CASP1 levels, and IL1B cleavage were elevated in Gm15441^{LSL} mice, and were further increased by PPARa activation, indicating that this lncRNA plays a major role in attenuating inflammasome activation. Thus, hepatic PPARa directly regulates the lncRNA Gm15441, which in turn suppresses Txnip expression, attenuating NLRP3 inflammasome activation during periods of metabolic stress. Together, these findings support a regulatory mechanism whereby fatty acids mobilized from adipose tissue during fasting activate PPARa, which in turn suppresses the NLRP3 inflammasome by strong induction of the TXNIP-suppressing antisense lncRNA gene Gm15441. Thus, these studies reveal a regulatory mechanism supporting the beneficial effects of fasting, namely, reduced inflammation.

Results

LncRNA regulation by PPARa is highly tissue-specific. To assess the regulation of lncRNAs by PPARa, RNA-seq was performed using total liver RNA isolated from Ppara+/+ and $Ppara^{-/-}$ mice, both with and without dietary exposure to the PPARa agonist WY-14643. A lncRNA discovery pipeline was implemented that identified 15,558 liver-expressed lncRNA genes. Of these, 13,343 were intergenic, 1966 were antisense to known coding genes, and 249 were intragenic lncRNAs. Fortyfour percent of the 15,558 liver-expressed lncRNAs are considered novel¹⁷. Differential gene expression analysis revealed that a total of 1735 RefSeq genes and 442 liver-expressed lncRNA genes responded to treatment with WY-14643 at an expression fold-change > 2 at FDR < 0.05, with 968 RefSeq genes and 245 lncRNA genes upregulated, and 767 RefSeq genes and 197 IncRNA genes downregulated following WY-14643 treatment (Supplementary Data 1 and 2). Only 17 RefSeq genes (1.0%) and six lncRNAs (1.3%) responded to WY-14643 in the same manner in *Ppara*-null mice. Thus, ~99% of these transcriptomic responses are PPARa-dependent (Fig. 1a).

Comparison of the PPARa-responsive lncRNAs to lncRNAs responsive to agonist ligands of two other nuclear receptors in mouse liver, namely CAR and PXR¹⁸, identified eight lncRNAs that are induced by all three nuclear receptors and 11 lncRNAs repressed by all three receptors. Forty-five other lncRNAs were induced, or were repressed, in common by PPARa and CAR, and 30 other lncRNAs were either induced or repressed in common

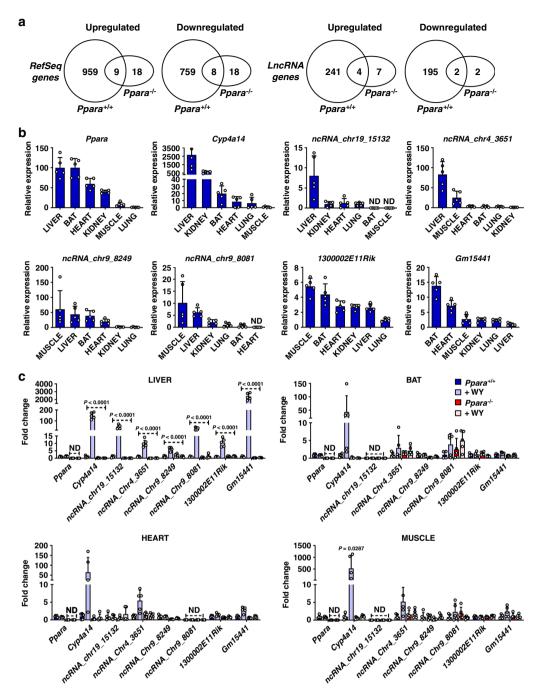


Fig. 1 LncRNA identified as PPAR α **targets are expressed in several oxidative tissues but exhibit liver-specific transcriptional response to WY-14643. a** Venn diagrams of RefSeq transcripts and lncRNA transcripts that were differentially regulated by WY-14643 (fold change > 2 at FDR < 0.05) in wild-type and in *Ppara*^{-/-} mouse liver, as determined by RNA-seq. 123 of the RefSeq genes are non-coding, indicated by their NR accession numbers. Six RefSeq genes and six lncRNA genes show opposite responses to WY-14643 treatment and are excluded from the gene counts shown. **b** Relative basal lncRNA expression in tissues from *Ppara*^{+/+} and *Ppara*^{-/-} mice treated with WY-14643 for 48 h. At least five mice were analyzed for each genotype and treatment group. Each bar represents the mean ± SD for *n* = 5 tissue samples. Adjusted *p* values, provided in the panels, as determined by ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparison correction, one-sided for comparisons to *Ppara*^{+/+} mice or as shown (dashed horizontal lines). ND not detected.

by PPARa and PXR (Supplementary Data 3). Overall, 94 (21%) of the 442 PPARa-responsive liver-expressed lncRNAs showed common responses to CAR and/or PXR activation. Furthermore, 59 other PPARa-responsive lncRNAs showed opposite patterns of response to PPARa as compared to CAR or PXR (Supplementary Data 3). These findings are consistent with the partial functional overlap between these three xenobiotic nuclear receptors and their gene targets^{34–36}. Pathway analysis revealed that the WY-14643 upregulated genes are most highly enriched for the following biological processes: lipid metabolism, peroxisome, DNA replication, DNA repair, cell cycle, and fatty acid oxidation (Supplementary Table 1). The downregulated genes are most highly enriched for: secreted factors, monooxygenase, immunity, serine protease inhibitor, metabolism of xenobiotics, and response to virus (Supplementary Table 2). PPARα-dependent lncRNAs identified by RNA-seq were selected and mRNA levels monitored over a 24h period after WY-14643 treatment, revealing that lncRNA expression profiles paralleled those of known protein-coding PPARα target genes (Supplementary Fig. 1a–d). As lncRNA expression is often highly tissue specific^{16,37,38}, the relative basal levels were measured for PPARα-responsive lncRNAs expressed in oxidative tissues that utilize fatty acids as an energy source and express PPARα at the highest levels. *Ppara* mRNA and its classic target gene *Cyp4a14* served as controls. Basal levels of *Cyp4a14* mRNA and intergenic lncRNAs *ncRNA_chr19_15132* and *ncRNA_chr4_3651* were highest in liver, while *ncRNA_chr9_8249*, *ncRNA_chr9_8081*, and *1300002E11Rik* were most highly expressed in muscle. One of the PPARα-dependent lncRNAs, *Gm15441*, was also most highly expressed in brown adipose tissue (BAT) (Fig. 1b).

To assess the impact of PPARa activation on lncRNA expression and tissue specificity, *Ppara* wild-type mice (*Ppara*^{+/+}) and *Ppara*null mice ($Ppara^{-/-}$) were treated with WY-14643 for 48 h, and four tissues (liver, BAT, heart, muscle) then harvested for analysis. Cyp4a14 mRNA was markedly induced by WY-14643 in all four tissues and in a Ppara-dependent manner, as expected (Fig. 1c). All six lncRNAs were induced in liver, including Gm15441, which exhibited >2000-fold increase in wild-type livers, more than 10-fold higher than the other lncRNAs. In contrast to the induction of Cyp4a14 mRNA, lncRNA induction by WY-14643 was liver-specific, with no significant induction of the five other lncRNAs seen in BAT, heart, or muscle (Fig. 1c). Further, none of these lncRNAs was induced in $Ppara^{-/-}$ mice in any tissue examined. Thus, PPARa-mediated induction of these lncRNAs is highly liver-specific, with Gm15441 showing the most robust induction response.

LncRNA Gm15441 is antisense to Txnip and exhibits inverse regulation in response to PPARa activation. LncRNA Gm15441 overlaps the coding region of Txnip, which is located on the opposing strand and responds to WY-14643 treatment, albeit with different kinetics than Gm15441 (see below). Bioinformatic analysis confirmed that Gm15441 lacks coding potential and was categorized as a non-coding transcript (Supplementary Fig 2a, b). Analysis of the mapped sequence reads obtained by stranded RNA-sequencing revealed a pronounced increase in expression of Gm15441 (Fig. 2a), whereas, the Txnip transcript on the opposite strand was suppressed by WY-14643 at the 48-hour time point analyzed (Fig. 2b). Rapid amplification of cDNA ends (RACE) results showed that the primary hepatic Gm15441 transcript exon-exon boundaries matched the current annotation of Gm15441 (NR_040409.1) (Supplementary Fig. 3a and Supplementary Table 3). Gene and isoform structures analysis for mouse liver Gm15441 by de novo transcriptome assembly using Cuff-Merge identified three isoforms of Gm15441 (Supplementary Fig. 3b). The second isoform (TCONS_00330193) is identical to the RefSeq gene isoform, the first isoform is a splice variant, and the third isoform has an alternative third exon and is missing exon 4 (Supplementary Fig. 3b). All three isoforms share the precise 5' end, two full length isoforms share a common 3' end (Supplementary Fig. 3c, d). qRT-PCR analysis confirmed the very large, highly significant increase in Gm15441 expression and its complete inhibition in *Ppara*^{-/-} liver (Fig. 2c). Further, *Txnip* RNA levels were significantly suppressed by WY-14643 in wildtype mice (Fig. 2d). Additionally, Txnip expression was attenuated in untreated Ppara-/- compared to Ppara+/+ mouse liver, indicating a role for PPARa in maintaining basal expression of Txnip (Fig. 2d). Given that Txnip expression can be upregulated in human neuroblastoma cells by the PPARa activator fenofibrate, which suppresses proliferation and migration³⁹, the

effects of a single dose of WY-14643 on Gm15441 and Txnip mRNA were examined over a 24 h period. Txnip mRNA was induced rapidly, with maximum expression seen at 1.5 h, followed by a marked decrease coincident with the increased expression of Gm15441 (Fig. 2e). Inverse regulation of Txnip mRNA and Gm15441 RNA were also observed in response to fasting (Supplementary Fig. 4). These time courses are markedly different from those of 14 other WY-14643-inducible protein-coding and lncRNA genes examined, where peak induction occurred 6-12 h after WY-14643 treatment (Supplementary Fig. 1), as was also found for Gm15441. The unusual kinetics seen with Txnip—early induction followed by repression coinciding with the activation of Gm15441—indicate that Txnip is a PPARa target gene whose expression in liver is inversely regulated with that of Gm15441 after PPARa activation. Reporter assays confirmed that the Txnip promoter region has functional PPARa regulatory elements that overlap the sites of PPARa binding detected by ChIP-seq (Supplementary Fig. 5a, b).

PPARa directly regulates lncRNA Gm15441 by binding to its promotor. To identify PPARa binding sites at the Gm15441/Txnip locus, PPARa ChIP-seq datasets (GSE61817) from PPAR α agonist-treated mice⁴⁰ were analyzed (Fig. 3a). Three major ChIP-seq peaks, indicating PPARa binding, were seen upstream of Gm15441, and one major peak was seen in the promoter region of Txnip. Examination of genomic sequences upstream of Gm15441 using Genomatix MatInspector (Genomatix, Munich, Germany) identified seven peroxisome proliferator response elements (PPREs) within six genomic regions, designated A to F, within 10 kilobase (kb) upstream of the Gm15441 transcriptional start site (TSS) (Fig. 3b). These six Gm15441 upstream sequences were synthesized and cloned into the pGL4.11 reporter, and luciferase assays were performed to assay the functionality of PPARa binding to the Gm15441 promoter. A PPRE-luciferase construct containing an Acox1 PPRE repeat was used as a positive control, and an empty pGL4.11 plasmid was used as a negative control. Luciferase activity was significantly elevated in primary mouse hepatocytes transfected with five of the six pGL4.11 constructs, consistent with direct regulation by PPARa at multiple loci (Fig. 3c). PPARa binding was also assessed by ChIP assays using a polyclonal PPARa antibody and chromatin isolated from livers of wild-type and Ppara^{-/-} mice fed either control diet or a diet containing WY-14643. Enrichment of PPARa binding to PPREs of known PPARa target genes, namely Acot1 and Acox1, was determined by comparing binding to liver chromatin from wild-type mice fed control diet vs. WY-14643-containing diet (Fig. 3d). Ppara-/livers were used as a negative control to identify non-specific binding. Fscn2 primers were used as a non-target gene promoter and negative control. Enrichment of PPARa binding was found using primer sets covering Gm15441 regions B, C, D, and F, while no binding was seen with Gm15441 region E (Fig. 3d), which was transcriptionally inactive (Fig. 3c). Enrichment was strongest with region C, in agreement with the luciferase reporter gene data. Enrichment at sites C and D was significantly increased by WY-14643 treatment, indicating increased PPARa recruitment at these sites. No PPARa binding was seen with chromatin from Ppara^{-/-} mice on the control diet. Together, these data indicate that PPARa regulates Gm15441 transcription by direct binding of PPARa to multiple PPRE sites within 10 kb of the *Gm15441* TSS.

Generation of a strand-specific Gm15441 knockout mouse. A gene targeting strategy was developed to generate a Gm15441 knockout mouse without impacting Txnip expression on the opposing strand. To accomplish this goal, CRISPR/Cas9 was used

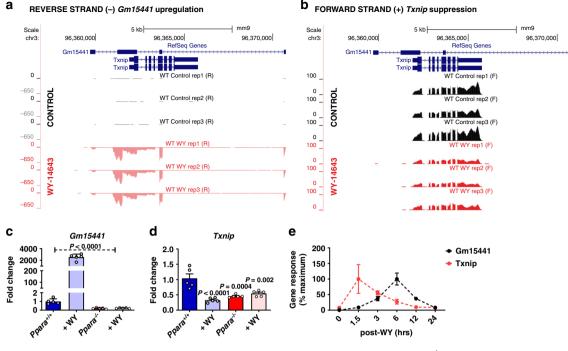


Fig. 2 *Txnip* and IncRNA *Gm15441* are inversely regulated following PPAR α activation. Wild-type (*Ppara*^{+/+}) mice were treated with WY-14643 and stranded RNA-seq was performed on total liver mRNA. **a** Expression of the antisense lncRNA *Gm15441* is strongly upregulated. **b** Expression of the protein-coding *Txnip* mRNA is downregulated. Shown are the changes in expression of *Gm15441* (**c**), and *Txnip* (**d**), mRNAs in *Ppara*^{+/+} and *Ppara*^{-/-} mice treated with WY-14643, or vehicle control, for 48 h, determined by qRT-PCR. **e** Time course for changes in expression of *Gm15441* and *Txnip* mRNA was seen at 1.5 h and for *Gm15441* was seen at 6 h. Each data point represents the mean ± SD for n = 5 liver samples. Adjusted *p* values, provided in the panels, as determined by ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparison correction, two-sided for comparisons to *Ppara*^{+/+} mice or as shown (dashed horizontal line).

to insert a Lox-STOP-Lox (LSL) cassette downstream of Gm15441 exon 1 (Fig. 4a, b). The LSL cassette prevents transcription of Gm15441 in a Gm15441-floxed mouse but has no effect on transcription of *Txnip*, which is inserted >2 kb downstream of the last exon of Txnip. Crossing with a transgenic Cre mouse deletes the LSL cassette and restores Gm15441 expression (Fig. 4c). All mouse lines were on a pure C57BL/6J background. The genotyping scheme generates an approximately 1200 bp band in Gm15441 wild-type mice $(Gm15441^{+/+})$ and a 1700 bp band in $Gm15441^{LSL}$ mice (Fig. 4d). Basal expression of Gm15441 was neglectable in livers of Gm15441^{LSL} when compared to Gm15441^{+/+} mice (Fig. 4e). Expression in heterozygous Gm15441^{HET} mice was comparable to Gm15441^{LSL}. To verify the subcellular localization and loss of expression of Gm15441, fluorescence in situ hybridization (FISH) staining was performed on livers from Gm15441^{+/+} and Gm15441^{LSL} mice fed control diet or treated with WY-14643. DAPI staining was used as a counter stain to detect nuclei in liver sections. A pronounced increase in Gm15441 fluorescence was detected in the cytoplasm and nuclei of hepatocytes in livers from WY-14643-treated Gm15441^{+/+} mice. The Gm15441 RNA signal was absent in livers from vehicle-treated $Gm15441^{+/+}$ and Gm15441^{LSL} mice, and in livers from WY-14643-treated Gm15441^{LSL} mice (Fig. 4f). Gm15441 transcript copy number was determined to be around 100 RNA molecules per hepatocyte (Supplementary Fig. 6a, b). These data validate Gm15441^{LSL} mice as an effective knockout mouse model and reveal that hepatic Gm15441 expression is both nuclear and cytosolic evoking several possible mechanisms by which it regulates *Txnip*.

Loss of *Gm15441* potentiates inflammasome activation by WY-14643-induced metabolic stimulation. PPAR α plays a role in attenuating inflammation in many tissues and disease

models^{41,42}. In the liver, PPAR α ameliorates inflammation by reducing ER stress in hepatocytes⁴³. TXNIP is known to facilitate ER stress-induced NLRP3 inflammasome activation^{27,44}. By regulating TXNIP levels, Gm15441 could serve as a link between PPARa and the NLRP3 inflammasome. To ascertain whether lncRNA Gm15441 attenuates inflammasome activation by regulating TXNIP levels, mice were treated with WY-14643 for 48 h, and weight loss, liver index (mg liver/g total body mass), ALT, AST, and serum glucose levels were measured. There was no discernable difference in weight loss between Gm15441+/+ and Gm15441^{LSL} mice on a WY-14643 diet (Fig. 5a). Serum ALT and AST levels were unchanged by genotype or following WY-14643 treatment. Serum glucose levels were significantly decreased by WY-14643 in both Gm15441+/+ and Gm15441LSL mice, but the decrease was significantly greater in Gm15441^{LSL} mice (Fig. 5a). However, insulin and glucose tolerance tests, performed on Gm15441^{LSL} mice, indicate that these animals are insulin sensitive (Supplementary Fig. 7a-d). Furthermore, pronounced hepatomegaly was induced by WY-14643 treatment in both Gm15441+/+ and Gm15441LSL mice, as indicated by the significant increase in liver size (Fig. 5a, liver index), and by the pronounced swelling of hepatocytes seen by H&E staining (Fig. 5b). Expression of the PPARa target genes acyl-CoA dehydrogenase medium chain (Acadm) and Cyp4a14 was significantly increased by WY-14643 in both Gm15441+/+ and Gm15441LSL mice. Gm15441 was strongly upregulated in livers of wild-type mice but was not detected in Gm15441^{LSL} mice. Txnip mRNA was significantly decreased by WY-14643 in livers of wild-type animals, consistent with Fig. 2, but was significantly induced in *Gm15441*^{LSL} livers (Fig. 5c). There was also a small but significant increase in Il1b mRNA expression in wild-type mice treated with WY-14643 (Fig. 5d). Basal levels of the inflammasome-related

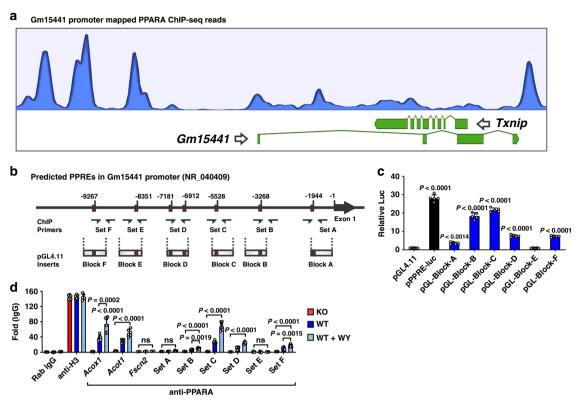


Fig. 3 LncRNA *Gm15441* **is a direct PPAR** α **target gene. a** PPAR α ChIP-seq read peaks from agonist (GW7647)-treated mouse liver. **b** Schematic representation of seven PPRE sequences found within the *Gm15441* promoter (-10 kb). ChIP primer binding sites and reporter gene construct inserts are shown. **c** Luciferase-based reporter assays identified several functional PPREs within the *Gm15441* promoter, based on n = 3 replicates. **d** PPAR α ChIP assays assessed PPRE binding in liver samples from *Ppara*^{+/+} and *Ppara*^{-/-} mice treated with WY-14643. Experiments were performed with at least four different livers. Rabbit IgG and antibody to histone H3 were used as negative and positive controls, respectively. Each data point represents the mean ± SD for n = 5 liver samples. Adjusted p values, provided in the panels, as determined by ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparison correction, one-sided for comparisons to pGL4.11 empty vector (**c**) or as indicated (**d**). ns not significant.

proteins TXNIP, cleaved CASP1 (p20), and cleaved IL1B were elevated in livers of Gm15441^{LSL} mice compared to wild-type mice, and further increased following WY-14643 treatment (Fig. 5e, f). Overall, levels of all three proteins were much higher in livers of WY-14643-treated Gm15441^{LSL} mice than wild-type mice (Fig. 5e). To test whether TXNIP is responsible for the phenotype observed in $Gm15441^{LSL}$ mice, an adenovirus associated virus (AAV) expressing short hairpin (sh) Txnip (AAVshRNA-Txnip) vector was generated. The AAV-shRNA-Txnip virus was injected into the tail vein of $Gm15441^{+/+}$ and Gm15441^{LSL} mice, and following a recovery period, the mice were placed on a control diet or WY-14643-containing diet for 24 h. WY-14643-induced liver indices and histological changes were not affected by Txnip knockdown (Supplementary Fig. 8a, b, g). Txnip mRNA and protein expression were suppressed by Txnip knockdown, or by WY-14643 treatment, in Gm15441^{+/+} mice (Supplementary Fig. 8a, c, d); they were also suppressed by Txnip knockdown in WY-14643-treated Gm15441LSL mice (Supplementary Fig. 8b, e, f). Cleaved CASP1 and IL1B protein were significantly suppressed by Txnip knockdown in WY-14643-treated Gm15441^{+/+} mice, but not in WY-14643-treated *Gm15441*^{LSL} mice (Supplementary Fig. 8c–f and Supplementary Table 4). These data support the view that Gm15441 plays an important role in WY-14643 induced metabolic stress in the liver. Thus, the ablation of Gm15441 increases the expression of TXNIP and maturation of two other proteins associated with NLRP3 inflammasome activation, namely, cleaved CASP1 and IL1B.

Loss of Gm15441 potentiates inflammasome activation during physiological response to acute fasting. During fasting, hepatic PPARa facilitates the metabolic remodeling that promotes use of lipids as an alternate energy source⁴. Fasting is also associated with many anti-inflammatory effects³. To determine whether *Gm15441* regulates inflammasome activation during physiological fasting, $Gm15441^{+/+}$ and $Gm15441^{\text{LSL}}$ mice were fasted for 24 h. Serum ALT and AST were not changed between Gm15441+/+ and Gm15441^{LSL} mice, both with and without WY-14643 treatment (Fig. 6a). Fasting decreased serum glucose levels in both $Gm15441^{+/+}$ and $Gm15441^{LSL}$ mice, but the decrease was greater in Gm15441^{LSL} mice (Fig. 6a). Expression of Acadm, Cyp4a14, and Txnip mRNAs was significantly increased by fasting in both $Gm15441^{+/+}$ and $Gm15441^{\text{LSL}}$ mice (Supplementary Fig. 9a). Gm15441 was significantly induced by fasting, although to a much lower degree than with WY-14643 treatment (Supplementary Fig. 9a). Expression of Txnip mRNA was increased to the same level in livers of fasted Gm15441^{LSL} mice as in fasted $Gm15441^{+/+}$ mice (Supplementary Fig. 9a). Fasting also increased TXNIP, cleaved CASP1 (p20), and cleaved IL1B protein levels in *Gm15441*^{LSL} mice, in contrast to either a modest increase (TXNIP) or no increase (CASP1, IL1B) in Gm15441^{+/+} mice (Supplementary Fig. 9b, c). Fasting markedly promotes lipid accumulation in mouse liver⁴. Lipid droplet accumulation was also observed and more widespread in fasting Gm15441^{LSL} mice than fasting $Gm15441^{+/+}$ mice (Supplementary Fig. 9d). Oil Red O staining was performed to validate lipid accumulation in response to fasting in $Gm15441^{LSL}$ mice. A greater amount of

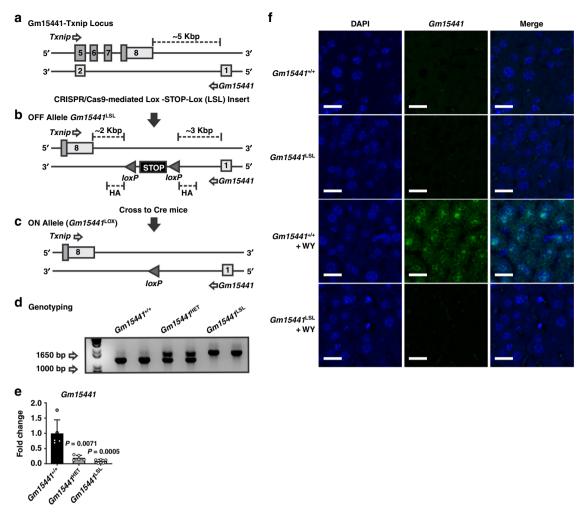


Fig. 4 Generation of the *Gm15441***-null mouse line.** Targeting strategy for generating a strand-specific *Gm15441*-null mouse line. **a** Exon structure of the targeted *Gm15441*-*Txnip* locus. **b** CRISPR/Cas9-mediated insertion of Lox-STOP-Lox (LSL) cassette selectively ablates *Gm15441* expression. **c** Cre-mediated removal of STOP cassette rescues *Gm15441* expression. **d** *Gm15441* knockout mouse genotyping. **e** Analysis of *Gm15441* RNA by qRT-PCR from livers of *Gm15441*+/+, *Gm15441*+/-, and *Gm15441*^{LSL} mice. Each data point represents the mean ± SD for n = 5 liver samples. Adjusted *p* values, provided in the panels, as determined by ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparison correction, one-sided for comparisons to *Gm15441*+/+ mice. **f** Representative fluorescence in situ hybridization staining of Gm15441 RNA in livers of *Gm15441*+/+ and *Gm15441*^{LSL} mice treated with WY-14643 for 48 h (n = 5, 3 images/mouse). Scale bars represents 20 nm (×200).

lipid accumulation was observed in fasting *Gm15441*^{LSL} liver than in fasting $Gm15441^{+/+}$ mouse liver (Fig. 6b). Expression of lipid metabolism-related genes was not significantly impacted in *Gm15441*^{LSL} mice under fasting conditions (Supplementary Fig. 10). Serum non-esterified fatty acids (NEFA), serum and liver triglyceride (TG) levels, and liver (but not serum) total cholesterol (CHOL) levels, were significantly elevated in fasting Gm15441^{LSL} mouse livers compared to fasting $Gm15441^{+/+}$ mouse livers (Fig. 6c). These findings were supported by RNA-sequencing analysis, which revealed that liver damage and lipid accumulation-related genes were impacted by Gm15441 deficiency, albeit in a complex manner (Supplementary Table 5). To check whether Gm15441 influences lipid mobilization or uptake, total lipase activity was measured in liver, skeletal muscle, and inguinal white adipose tissue (IWAT) from fed and fasted mice (Supplementary Fig. 11a-c). Total lipase activity was elevated in the livers of fasted Gm15441^{LSL} mice (Supplementary Fig. 11a). Total lipase activity in skeletal muscle was decreased by fasting in Gm15441+/+ mice and fed or fasted Gm15441LSL mice when compared to fed wild-type mice (Supplementary Fig. 11b). However, the difference between fasted $Gm15441^{+7+}$ and

Gm15441^{LSL} mice was not significant (Supplementary Fig. 11b). Total lipid activity in IWAT was not significantly different between genotype with or without fasting (Supplementary Fig. 11c). Furthermore, analysis of the impact of fasting on mRNAs for lipocalin 2 (Lcn2), orosomucoid 2 (Orm2), serum amyloid A1 (Saa1), and serum amyloid A2 (Saa2) - biomarker genes for liver damage, inflammation, and/or fatty accumulation - showed these genes were significantly elevated with fasting in Gm15441^{LSL} compared to Gm15441^{+/+} mouse livers (Fig. 6d). ELISA results indicated serum SAA1 levels were also significantly increased by fasting in $Gm15441^{LSL}$ mice (Supplementary Fig. 12). Fasting induced lower but still significant increases in several of these mRNAs in $Gm15441^{+/+}$ livers, which could reflect the fasting-induced increase in Txnip expression (Supplementary Fig. 9a-d). Thus, Gm15441 negatively regulates the NLRP3 inflammasome pathway and lipid accumulation, potentially by preventing Txnip expression, in response to fasting.

Translational regulation of TXNIP by Gm15441 is partially dependent on 5'UTR sequences. Translational regulation of

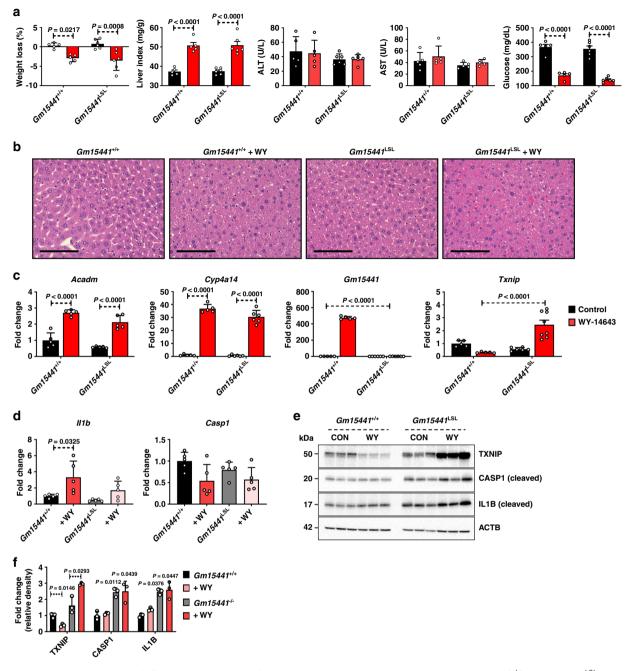


Fig. 5 Loss of *Gm15441* potentiates inflammasome activation by **WY-14643**. **a** Physiological endpoints from *Gm15441*^{+/+} and *Gm15441*^{LSL} mice treated with WY-14643 for 48 h. Weight loss and liver indices (mg liver/g body mass; a measure of hepatomegaly), as well as serum ALT, AST, and glucose levels, in response to WY-14643 treatment. **b** Representative H&E staining from liver of *Gm15441*^{+/+} and *Gm15441*^{LSL} mice treated with WY-14643 for 48 h (n = 5, 3 images/mouse). Scale bars represent 100 nm (×400). **c** qRT-PCR analysis of *Acadm, Cyp4a14, Txnip*, and *Gm15441* expression in livers of mice treated with WY-14643 for 48 h. **d** qRT-PCR analysis of *Il1b* and *Casp1* mRNA in livers of mice treated with WY-14643. **e** Western blot analysis of TXNIP, ACTB, CASP1 (cleaved), and IL1B (cleaved) protein in livers from mice treated with WY-14643 for 48 h. **f** Densitometric analysis of TXNIP, CASP1 (cleaved), and IL1B (cleaved) protein levels (n = 3). Each data bar represents mean ± SD for n = 5 liver samples; red bars, WY-14643 treatment. Adjusted *p* values, provided in the panels, as determined by ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparison correction, two-sided for comparisons between WY-14643 and control livers of the same genotype, or as shown (dashed horizontal lines).

TXNIP can occur via internal ribosome entry site (IRES) sequences found in the 5'UTR⁴⁵. IRES sequences are commonly associated with cell survival- and stress response-related genes and utilized when cap-dependent translation is inhibited during nutrient deprivation⁴⁶. The 5'UTR of *Txnip* contains binding sites for IRES trans-acting factors (ITAFs), which regulate IRES-mediated translation⁴⁵. As *Gm15441* transcription generates an RNA antisense to the 5'UTR of *Txnip*, *Gm15441* RNA may block

ITAF protein binding to the *Txnip* 5'UTR and thereby inhibit *Txnip* translation. To investigate this regulatory mechanism, the translational inhibitory potential of the *Txnip* 5'UTR was examined when linked to the coding sequence for GFP (Fig. 7a). The GFP and the 5'UTR-GFP expression vectors were each transfected into Hepa-1 cells together with a *Gm15441* expression vector or an empty expression plasmid. After 48 h, strong *Gm15441* expression was achieved, but there were no effects on

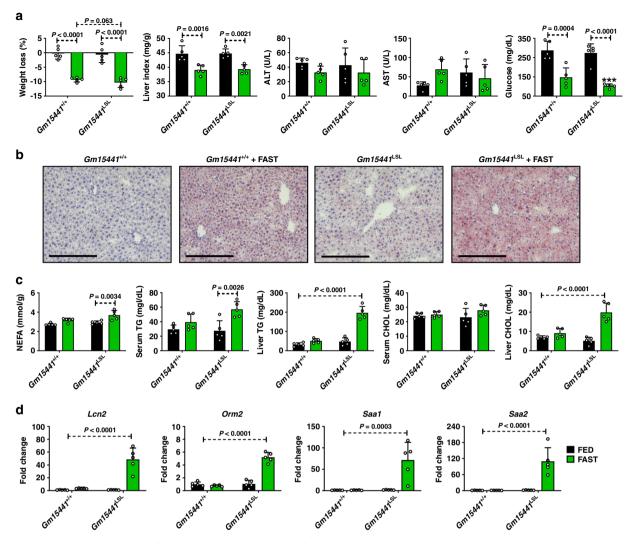


Fig. 6 Loss of *Gm15441* **potentiates inflammasome activation during physiological response to acute fasting. a** Physiological endpoints from *Gm15441*^{L/L} mice after 24 h fasting. Weight loss and liver indices (mg liver/g body mass; a measure of hepatomegaly), as well as blood ALT, AST, and glucose levels, in response to fasting. **b** Representative ORO staining of liver tissues after a 24 h fed or fast in *Gm15441*^{L/L} and *Gm15441*^{L/L} mice (*n* = 5, 3 images/mouse). Scale bars represents 100 nm (×200). **c** Non-esterified fatty acid (NEFA) from serum, triglycerides (TG) and cholesterol (CHOL) levels from serum and liver tissues after a 24 h fast. **d** Analysis of *Apoa4*, *Bhmt*, *Lcn2*, *Orm2*, *Saa1*, and *Saa2* mRNAs in livers of *Gm15441*^{L/+} and *Gm15441*^{L/L} mice after 24 h fasting. Each data bar represents the mean ± SD for *n* = 5 liver samples; green bars, 24 h fasting. Adjusted *p* values, provided in the panels, as determined by ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparison correction, two-sided for comparisons between fast-stimulated and unstimulated livers of the same genotype, or as shown (dashed horizontal lines).

the RNA levels of GFP or UTR-GFP (Fig. 7b). In contrast, GFP protein translated from the Txnip 5'UTR-GFP template was significantly reduced in cells co-transfected with Gm15441 expression plasmid (Fig. 7c). This 5'UTR-dependent decrease in GFP protein was most striking when examined by fluorescent microscopy (Fig. 7d, e). These findings suggest that Gm15441 regulates TXNIP translation through IRES sites found within its 5'UTR. In vitro transcription-translation assays performed using reticulocyte lysates provided additional evidence that Gm15441 directly suppresses TXNIP protein levels, whereby increasing Gm15441 expression levels caused a corresponding decrease in TXNIP protein expression (Supplementary Fig. 13a, b). To examine whether lncRNA Gm15441 impacts expression of genes that flank Gm15441 on mouse chromosome 3, namely, Hfe2 (Hjv), Pol3gl, and Ankrd34a, Hepa-1 and NIH3T3 mouse embryonic fibroblast cells were transfected with Gm15441 expression vector, or empty plasmid. The Gm15441 transgene was expressed and significantly downregulated Txnip without impacting the expression of *Hfe2*, *Pol3gl*, or *Ankrd34a* (Fig. 7f). Furthermore, TXNIP protein expression was suppressed by Gm15441 expression in vitro (Supplementary Fig. 14a, b). Together, these data support a regulatory mechanism whereby PPARa induces Gm15441, which in turn attenuates inflammation through TXNIP and the NLRP3 inflammasome pathway (Fig. 7g).

Discussion

The physiological alterations that accompany fasting impart several health benefits, including anti-inflammatory effects⁴⁷. PPARα activation during fasting is a key regulatory event of lipid and glucose metabolism. A growing body of evidence indicates that PPARα activation also potently suppresses inflammation in several disease models and tissues⁴⁸. However, the mechanism by which PPARα modulates metabolic stress-induced inflammation is not known. The direct regulation of protein-coding genes by

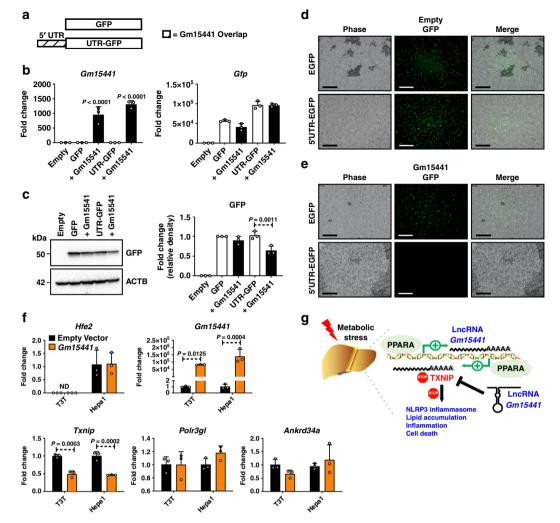


Fig. 7 *Gm15441* regulates TXNIP translation in part through IRES sequences found within the 5'UTR of TXNIP. a Schematic representation of GFP construct inserts with or without the TXNIP 5'UTR sequence. **b** Analysis of *Gm15441* RNA and *Gfp* mRNA in Hepa-1 cells. **c** Western blot analysis of GFP protein and relative density of GFP signal from Hepa-1 cells (right). **d** Fluorescence of GFP in Hepa-1 cells transfected with GFP with empty or *Gm15441* plasmid DNA for 48 h (n = 3). Scale bars represent 20 nm (100x). **e** Fluorescence of GFP in Hepa-1 cells transfected with 5' UTR sequence containing GFP with empty or *Gm15441* plasmid DNA for 48 h (n = 3). Scale bars represent 20 nm (100x). **e** Fluorescence of GFP in Hepa-1 cells transfected with 5' UTR sequence containing GFP with empty or *Gm15441* plasmid DNA for 48 h (n = 3). Scale bars represent 20 nm (100x). **f** Analysis of *Hfe2*, *Pol3gl*, and *Ankrd34a* mRNAs from Hepa-1 and NIHT3T cells transfected with empty plasmid or *Gm15441* expression vector for 24 h. Each data point represents mean ± SD for n = 3 replicates. Adjusted *p* values, provided in the panels, as determined by ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparison correction, one-sided for comparisons in the absence of Gm15441 (**b**, **c**) or to empty vector (**f**). **g** Model for role of Gm15441 in suppressing TXNIP-mediated inflammasome activation.

PPARα is well characterized, but it was not known whether lncRNAs – which may influence gene expression through a variety of mechanisms⁴⁹—also serve as direct targets contributing to physiological changes induced by PPARα activation. The present study identified several hundred PPARα-responsive liverexpressed lncRNA genes including several antisense lncRNAs, which often contribute to the regulation of genes on the opposing strand^{50,51}. Further, a PPARα-dependent regulatory axis involving one such antisense lncRNA, *Gm15441*, was characterized. *Gm15441* was shown to be transcribed in a liver-specific, PPARαdependent manner to yield an antisense lncRNA that protects against metabolic stress by suppressing expression of the opposing sense transcript, TXNIP, and thereby suppresses TXNIPmediated NLRP3 inflammasome activation.

RNA-seq analysis of livers from wild-type and $Ppara^{-/-}$ mice treated with the PPARa-specific agonist WY-14643 identified more than 400 liver-expressed lncRNA transcripts that were significantly upregulated or downregulated 48 h after WY-14643 treatment. Only six of these lncRNAs were similarly responsive to WY-14643 in $Ppara^{-/-}$ mice, thus establishing the striking

PPARa dependence of these non-coding RNA transcriptomic responses. PPARa-dependent, liver-specific expression was verified for six non-coding RNAs, and detailed functional studies were carried out on one such gene, Gm15441, which showed an unusually strong induction in WY-14643-treated liver. Importantly, the genomic orientation of Gm15441 is antisense to that of Txnip. The Txnip gene encodes a ubiquitously-expressed protein that facilitates cellular responses to oxidative stress and inflammation⁵². TXNIP was originally identified as a negative regulator of thioredoxin⁵³, and subsequent studies found that TXNIP contributes to a wide array of processes in several tissues. TXNIP is key regulator of NLRP3 inflammasome activation, which plays an important role in liver fibrosis and hepatocellular carcinoma⁵⁴, and its activation is associated with the NLRP3 inflammasome pathway in human diseases⁵⁵. TXNIP has also emerged as an important glucose sensor that regulates glucose uptake in response to insulin⁵⁶ and plays an important role in metabolic stress^{57,58}. An earlier study found that *Ppara* mRNA and PPARa target gene mRNAs were elevated in Txnip-null mice, and that Txnip expression attenuated PPRE-luciferase activity when cotransfected with PPAR α /RXR and treated with WY-14643⁵⁹, suggesting a *Txnip-Ppara* feedback regulatory loop that may also involve *Gm15441*.

LncRNAs regulate diverse cellular processes, including metabolism-related genes expressed on the opposing strand⁶⁰. The present results showed that *Gm15441* negatively regulates *Txnip* expression during metabolic stress. LncRNA *Gm15441* is antisense to *Txnip*, whose mRNA is decreased in liver coincident with the robust increase in *Gm15441* expression beginning 3 h after activation of PPARa by WY-14643. The underlying PPARa regulatory interactions controlling activation of the *Gm15441* promoter were investigated, and several PPARa binding sites identified within 10 kb of the *Gm15441* TSS were confirmed by ChIP assays and shown to be functional in reporter gene assays. Thus, the TXNIP antisense lncRNA *Gm15441* is a direct target of PPARa in WY-14643-stimulated mouse liver.

Pharmacological activation of PPARa deregulates NLRP3 inflammasome activity in a mouse model of diabetes⁶¹ and prolonged hepatic NLRP3 inflammasome activation leads to hepatocyte death, inflammation, and fibrosis^{62,63}. Mice treated solely with the PPARa agonist WY-14643 exhibit pronounced liver hepatomegaly, hepatocyte hypertrophy, and lipid accumulation. These changes are coupled to an increase in oxidative stress⁶⁴. Oxidative stress is known to stimulate NLRP3 inflammasome activation and IL1B maturation^{22-24,65,66}. Interestingly, differential gene expression and pathway analysis of RNA-sequencing data in wild-type mice treated solely with WY-14643 revealed activation of some acute inflammatory response pathways. Thus, the TXNIP-mediated NLRP3 inflammasome pathway was examined. Txnip mRNA was significantly decreased by PPARa activation in livers of wild-type and Gm15441+/+ mice, while TXNIP protein was elevated in livers of Gm15441^{LSL} mice. Furthermore, TXNIP-mediated NLRP3 inflammasome activation resulted in cleavage of CASP1 to its mature, proteolytically active p20 form. Mature CASP1 subsequently cleaves target proteins, including the pro-inflammatory cytokine IL1B to its corresponding mature, active form. Mature, cleaved CASP1 (p20) and IL1B protein were elevated in Gm15441^{LSL} mice, indicating an increase in inflammasome activation. Thus, PPARa activation of lncRNA Gm15441 suppresses the TXNIP-mediated NLRP3 inflammasome pathway in response to metabolic stress. PPARa plays an important regulatory role in the fasted mouse liver model⁴. Hepatic expression of PPARa target genes Acadm and *Cyp4a14* was significantly increased by fasting, as was the expression of Txnip mRNA, in livers of $Gm15441^{LSL}$ mice as well as $Gm15441^{+/+}$ mice compared with fed mice. However, TXNIP protein was more highly increased in fasting Gm15441^{LSL} mice compared to fasting Gm15441+/+ mice. Fasting Txnip mRNA levels are closely associated with lipid and glucose regulation⁶⁷. In addition, TXNIP-mediated NLRP3 inflammasome pathway target protein cleavage (i.e., CASP1 and IL1B) was significantly elevated in livers of fasting Gm15441^{LSL} mice compared to Gm15441^{+/+} mice. These results support the proposal that physiological upregulation of lncRNA Gm15441 in response to fasting prevents metabolic stress by suppressing the TXNIP-mediated NLRP3 inflammasome response.

PPARα, a key regulator of global lipid homeostasis, modulates fasting-induced lipid accumulation and hepatosteatosis in mice⁴. Lipid droplets appeared in livers of fasted $Gm15441^{+/+}$ mice but were more widely distributed in livers of fasting $Gm15441^{LSL}$ mice. Histological lipid staining revealed considerably larger amounts of lipid accumulation in livers of fasted $Gm15441^{LSL}$ mice than in wild-type mouse livers. Moreover, serum and liver TG levels and liver CHOL levels were also significantly elevated by fasting in $Gm15441^{LSL}$ mice. To determine whether Gm15441influences lipid mobilization or uptake, total lipase activity was measured in liver, skeletal muscle, and inguinal white adipose tissue (IWAT) from fed and fasted $Gm15441^{+/+}$ and Gm15441^{LSL} mice. Total lipase activity in liver was elevated in fasted Gm15441^{LSL} mice after 24 h while fasting didn't affect lipase levels in wild-type mice. Elevated hepatic lipase activity in fasted Gm15441LSL mice is suggestive of an increase in lipid uptake. As lipids and TGs in the liver accumulate, spillover into circulation would be expected and may explain the observed increase. Lipase activity in the skeletal muscle of fed Gm15441^{LSL} mice was significantly lower than wild-type suggesting Gm15441 may influence lipid uptake into this tissue. Interestingly, our data shows that basal Gm15441 expression levels are considerably higher in skeletal muscle than liver suggesting that this lncRNA may have vet-to-be determined functions within other nonhepatic tissues. RNA-seq analysis revealed that liver damage, inflammation, and fatty accumulation biomarkers such as Lcn2, Orm2, Saa1, and Saa2 mRNAs showed significantly higher expression under fasting-induced metabolic stress in Gm15441LSL compared to wild-type. Hepatic Lcn2 and Orm2 mRNAs are both upregulated in the liver in response to IL1B^{68,69}. SAA1 and SAA2 are major acute phase proteins which are activated in response to inflammation⁷⁰. Activation is dependent on proteolytic cleavage by matrix metallopeptidases (MMPs), namely MMP9⁷¹. Hepatic MMP9 expression is responsive to IL1B activation⁷². Therefore, the increase in SAA1 and SAA2 further substantiates elevated NLRP3-induced inflammation in our model. Like SAA1 and SAA2, OSM2 is an acute phase protein associated with inflammation that is primarily produced in the liver⁷³. Although the exact function of this protein has not been discovered, elevation of its expression is linked to several inflammatory diseases, suggesting that it is an important marker of inflammation⁷³⁻⁷⁶. Lipocalin-2 (LCN2) is also specifically associated with NLRP3 inflammasome activation⁷⁷. The increase in mature, cleaved IL1B in Gm15441^{LSL} mice may at least partially explain the increased hepatic expression of Lcn2, Orm2, Saa1, and Saa2 mRNAs in fasted Gm15441^{LSL} mice. Thus, these genes are all associated with inflammation/oxidative stress, consistent with the PPARadependent attenuation by Gm15441 of TXNIP-associated hepatic inflammation in response to metabolic stress.

IRES is an RNA element that allows for translation initiation of certain mRNAs, including TXNIP, when cap-dependent translation is inhibited under stress conditions⁴⁵. ITAFs such as polypyrimidine tract binding protein were shown to regulate TXNIP expression during nutrition starvation by binding to IRES sequences within the Txnip 5'UTR⁴⁵. By binding to these IRES sequences, ITAF proteins regulate translation initiation and TXNIP protein expression. As lncRNA Gm15441 is antisense to TXNIP and its exon 3 almost entirely overlaps the Txnip 5'UTR, Gm15441 may block IRES sequences needed for translation of TXNIP. The ability of Gm15441 to modulate TXNIP protein levels via Txnip 5'UTR IRES sequences was demonstrated in vitro by co-transfection of a GFP reporter with a Gm15441 expression vector. A decrease in GFP expression was dependent on both Gm15441 and the Txnip 5'UTR, indicating that Gm15441 in part regulates TXNIP through its 5'UTR, presumably by masking functional IRES sites. In vitro transcription-translation assays provided additional evidence that Gm15441 directly suppresses TXNIP protein levels. Incrementally increasing Gm15441 expression caused a corresponding decrease in TXNIP protein suggesting that translation was repressed. Together, these data support a mechanism whereby Gm15441 translationally regulates TXNIP protein levels through IRES sites found within the TXNIP 5'UTR.

The strand-specific Gm15441 knockout mouse developed in this study enabled us to assess the function of this lncRNA without impacting regulation of its antisense protein-coding

partner, *Txnip*. In contrast, previous knockout mouse models developed to evaluate TXNIP function disrupt both *Txnip* and *Gm15441*, and therefore abolish the unique regulatory loop that exists between these two genes. *Txnip*-null mice show a higher incidence of hepatocellular carcinoma, with approximately 40% of male mice developing hepatic tumors⁷⁸. However, the *Txnip*-null mice lack exons 1–4, and thus *Gm15441* is also ablated⁷⁹. TXNIP expression in vitro inhibited hepatocellular carcinoma cell proliferation and induced apoptosis⁸⁰. Thus, prolonged *Gm15441*-mediated suppression of TXNIP may also contribute to PPARa agonist induced hepatocellular carcinoma⁸¹.

In summary, the present study focused on the role of lncRNAs as potential metabolic regulators. Pharmacological activation of PPARa promoted induction of large numbers of hepatic lncRNAs, a subset of which are also targeted by the nuclear receptors CAR and PXR. *Gm15441* was identified as a liver-specific, PPARa-dependent lncRNA positioned antisense to the proinflammatory gene *Txnip*. Gm15441 expression was shown to suppress TXNIP protein by a mechanism involving the blocking of IRES sites within its 5'UTR. By suppressing TXNIP translation, Gm15441 inhibited TXNIP-mediated activation of the NLRP3 inflammasome as well as subsequent CASP1 cleavage and IL1B maturation. Taken together, these results demonstrate that lncRNA *Gm15441* can directly prevent metabolic stress-induced inflammation and represents a therapeutic target for the treatment of inflammatory disorders.

Methods

Mouse models. Male 8- to 12-week-old mice were used for all studies and all mouse strains were on the C57BL/6J background and maintained on a grain-based control diet (NIH-31). Mice were housed in light (12 h light: 12 h darkness cycle) and temperature-controlled rooms (humidity 40-60%) and were provided with water and pelleted chow ad libitum. For pharmacological studies, the mice were provided a grain-based control diet or matched diet containing 0.1% WY-14643 for 24 or 48 h. For monitoring the time dependence of gene responses, WY-14643 was dissolved in 1% carboxymethyl cellulose (CMC) solution and orally administered by gavage (50 mg/kg in 200 µl). At the end of the treatment period, the mice were killed by CO2 asphyxiation and tissues harvested. For physiological studies, food was removed for 24 h starting shortly after the onset of the light cycle and endpoints collected at the same time the following day. Animals were then killed, and tissue samples harvested for further analysis. Blood was collected by venipuncture of the caudal vena cava. All animal experiments were performed in accordance with the Association for Assessment and Accreditation of Laboratory Animal Care international guidelines and approved by the National Cancer Institute Animal Care and Use Committee.

Generation of Gm15441-null mice. SAGE Laboratories (Cambridge, UK) provided design and construction services for the CRISPR/Cas gene targeting technologies used to create a *Gm15441*-null (*Gm15441*^{LSL}) mouse line. The targeting strategy results in the insertion of a floxed cassette containing a transcriptional stop repeat within the first intron of *Gm15441* (NR_040409.1) (Supplementary Table 6). Presence of the cassette prevents *Gm15441* expression. Crossing with a *Cre* mouse line removes the stop cassette and allows *Gm15441* expression to proceed. Microinjection-ready sgRNA, *Cas9* mRNA, and a plasmid donor with a floxed stop cassette were purchased from SAGE Laboratories. The sgRNA, Cas9 mRNA, and plasmid donor were then injected into C57BL/6J mouse embryos by the Transgenic Mouse Model Laboratory at the National Cancer Institute (Fredrick, MD) using the manufacturer's recommended protocol. Founder animals were genotyped using primer sets in Supplementary Table 7, and all modifications were confirmed by targeted sequencing. Homozygous mice were then backcrossed ten times into the C57BL/6 background to breed out any off-target effects.

Mouse genotyping. Genomic DNA was extracted from mouse tail snips using the Sigma REDExtract-N-Amp Kit. Genotyping was performed following the manufacturer's protocol with the following modifications. Twenty five μ l of E buffer and 7 ul of TPS buffer were added to each snip and the samples stored room temperature for 10 min. Samples were heated at 95 °C for 5 min then 25 μ l of N buffer was added. Polymerase chain reactions for genotyping *Gm15441* mice used the following primers: forward: 5'-TGCGAGGCACGATATGGCGA-3', reverse: 5'-AGCGCACCTGTCACTTTCCTGC-3'. Bands of 1200 bp or 1700 bp were detected in wild-type and *Gm15441*^{LSL} mice, respectively.

Preparation of adeno-associated virus (AAV) expressing short hairpin (sh) RNA targeting TXNIP. For the TXNIP knockdown studies, AAV gene delivery vectors were constructed by cloning TXNIP shRNA sequences into an AAVshRNA plasmid (Addgene #85741, Watertown, MA). The AAV-shRNA expression plasmid was digested with XbaI and BamHI and a shRNA sequence (5'-GGAC-TACTTGCGCTATGAAGA-3') targeting the first exon of TXNIP was inserted. AAV2/8 virus was generated by transfecting HEK293T cells with the pAAV2 insert containing either shRNA control or shRNA-Txnip under the control of the mouse U6 promoter, and flanked by serotype-2 inverted terminal repeats, pXR1 containing rep and cap genes of AAV serotype-8, and pHelper encoding the adenovirus helper functions (Addgene, Watertown, MA). Cell lysates were subjected to three rounds of freeze/thaw and then treated with 1 ul of benzonase (Sigma St. Louis, MO) per 5 ml of lysate for 30 min at 37 °C and clarified by centrifugation. Virus was purified by iodixanol gradient ultracentrifugation and titered by qRT-PCR. Mice 11-12 weeks old were given AAV-shRNA-Txnip or AAV-shRNA-Ctrl at a dose of 1×10^{12} genome copies/mouse by tail vein injection. Six weeks later, the mice were given a second AAV injection and allowed another two weeks to recover. Mice were then provided with control or WY-14643-containing diets and killed 24 h later.

RNA isolation, library construction, and RNA sequencing. RNeasy Plus Mini Kits (Qiagen, Valencia, CA, USA) were used to extract total RNA from livers from four different treatment and control groups, namely wild-type and Ppara^{-/-} mice treated with control or WY-14643-containing diets. Mice were fed either control diet or fed a matching diet containing 0.1% WY-14643 for 48 h. All mice were killed between 1 and 3 PM. RNAs were extracted from n = 9 to 15 independent livers per group and RNA quality assessed using a TapeStation 4200 (Agilent, Santa Clara, CA, USA). High quality RNA samples (RIN > 9.0) were pooled, as described below, and used to construct stranded RNA-seq libraries from polyA-selected total liver RNA using an Illumina stranded TruSeq mRNA Prep Kit (Illumina, San Diego, CA, USA). Three pooled RNA samples were prepared for each of the four treatment groups with each pool comprised of n = 3-5 individual liver samples. The libraries were subjected to paired-end sequencing using an Illumina HiSeq 2500 instrument (Illumina) at the NCI-CCR sequencing facility (Frederic, USA) at a depth of 30-42 million read pairs for each of the 12 RNA-seq libraries. For RNAseq analysis of Gm15441^{LSL} mice, total liver RNA was isolated from wild-type mice and Gm15441^{LSL} mice fed either control diet or a diet containing 0.1% WY-14643 for 24 h and killed between 1 and 3 PM. RNAs were extracted from n = 9 independent livers per experimental group, analyzed for RNA quality (RIN > 9.0), and used to prepare sequencing libraries. Three pooled RNA samples were prepared for each of the 4 treatment groups, with each pool comprised of n = 3 individual liver RNA samples. Libraries were subjected to 150 cycle paired-end Illumina sequencing at a depth of 13-21 million read pairs for each of the 12 RNA-seq libraries.

Analysis of sequencing results. Data were analyzed using a custom RNA-seq analysis pipeline^{18,82}. Briefly, sequence reads were mapped to the mouse genome (release mm9) using TopHat2 (v2.1.1)⁸³. Genomic regions that contain exonic sequence in at least one isoform of a gene (exon collapsed regions⁸²;) were defined for each RefSeq gene and for each lncRNA gene. HTSeq (0.6.1p1) was then used to obtain read counts for exon collapsed regions of RefSeq genes, and featureCounts (1.4.6-p5) was used to obtain read counts for exon collapsed regions of lncRNA genes. A set of 24,197 annotated mouse RefSeq genes (which includes some RefSeq IncRNAs) and a set of 15,558 liver-expressed lncRNA genes^{17,18} was considered for differential expression analysis. These lncRNAs include intergenic lncRNAs, as well as lncRNAs that are antisense or intragenic with respect to RefSeq genes, and were discovered using a computational pipeline for lncRNA discovery described elsewhere¹⁶ based on 186 mouse liver RNA-seq datasets representing 30 different biological conditions. RefSeq and lncRNA genes that showed significant differential expression following exposure to WY-14643 were identified by EdgeR as outlined elsewhere¹⁶. Genes dysregulated with an expression fold-change (i.e., either upregulation or downregulation) >2 at a false discovery rate (FDR), i.e., an adjusted P-value < 0.05 were considered significant and are shown in Supplementary Table 1 and Supplementary Table 5. Raw and processed RNA-seq data are available at GEO (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/gds) accession numbers GSE132385 and GSE132386.

Cell culture and transfection. Primary hepatocytes were isolated from C57BL6N mice as previously reported⁸⁴ and seeded on collagen-coated 12-well plates (Becton Dickinson and Company, Franklin Lakes, NJ) at a density of 2×10^5 cells in Williams' Medium E (Thermo-Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA) supplemented with 5% FBS and penicillin/streptomycin/amphotericin B solution (Gemini Bio-products, West Sacramento, CA). Hepa-1 mouse hepatoma cells and NIHT3T mouse embryonic fibroblast cells (ATCC, Manassas, VA) were maintained at 37 °C in a humidified atmosphere of 5% CO₂ in Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Medium (DMEM) containing 10% Fetal Bovine Serum (FBS) and 1% of penicillin/streptomycin mixture (Invitrogen, Waltham, MA). pCMV-EGFP plasmid was purchased from Origene (Origene #PS10001). Spliced Gm15441 transcript insert was cloned into pCMV-EGFP to generate pCMV-Gm15441. One day after

seeding, Hepa-1 and NIHT3T cells were transfected with recombinant pCMV-Gm15441 and pCMV-Txnip for 48 h. The cells were then harvested and analyzed by qRT-PCR and western blotting. For 5'UTR transfection experiments, the 5'UTR sequence from *Txnip* was inserted into pCMV-EGFP plasmid followed by transfection in Hepa-1 cells for 48 h. Non-5'UTR inserted pCMV-EGFP was used as a negative control. The cells were subjected to microscopic analysis or harvested and subjected to qRT-PCR and western blotting.

Histological staining. Fresh liver tissue was immediately fixed in 10% phosphatebuffered formalin for 24 h and then processed in paraffin blocks. Four-micrometer sections were used for H&E staining. For Oil Red O (ORO) staining, fresh liver tissue was placed into a cryomold and filled with OCT Compound (Tissue-Tek), then transferred to a beaker of isopentane prechilled in liquid nitrogen. Sections were processed by HistoServ, Inc. (Germantown, MD). Slide imaging was performed using a Keyence BZ-X700 series all-in-one microscope with both ×20 and ×40 objectives, ×200 and ×400 magnification, respectively.

Serum biochemistry. Blood was collected from mice and transferred to BD Microtainer Serum Separator Tubes (Becton Dickinson, Franklin Lakes, NJ). Serum was flash frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80C. Serum chemistry analysis for total cholesterol (CHOL), non-esterified fatty acids (NEFA), and triglycerides (TG) was performed using Wako Clinical Diagnostics kits (WakoUSA, Richmond, VA). Serum alanine aminotransferase (ALT) and aspartate aminotransferase (AST) levels were measured using Catachem VETSPEC Kits as recommended by the manufacturer (Catachem, Oxford, CT). Blood glucose (GLU) levels were measured using a Contour blood glucose meter (Bayer, Mishawaka, IN). Serum SAA1 analysis was performed using Mouse Serum Amyloid A Quantikine ELISA Kit (R&D Systems, Minneapolis, MN).

Metabolic assays. For the glucose tolerance tests (GTT), mice were fasted overnight for 16 h. For the insulin tolerance tests (ITT), the mice were fasted for 4 h. Glucose at 2 g/kg or insulin (Eli Lilly, Washington, DC) at 0.8 U/kg in saline were injected intraperitoneally into animals and blood glucose measured from tail bleeds using a Contour Glucometer (Bayer, Mishawaka, IN). Blood glucose was measured before the injection and at intervals of 15 min for 2 h post injection using the glucometer.

Western blot analysis. Whole-cell extracts were prepared from mouse liver tissue or mouse primary hepatocytes using RIPA buffer supplemented with Halt Protease and Phosphatase Inhibitor Cocktail (Thermo-Fisher Scientific) and 1 mM PMSF. Protein concentrations were determined using the Pierce BCA Protein Assay Kit (Pierce, Rockford, IL). Twenty to forty µg of protein lysate was loaded per lane on a 4-12% Criterion TGX Precast Gel (Bio-Rad) then transferred to PVDF membranes using a Trans-Blot Turbo Transfer System (Bio-Rad). Membranes were blocked in 5% nonfat milk followed by an overnight incubation with primary antibodies targeting TXNIP (Novus #NBP1-54578), CASP1 (Invitrogen #14-9832-82), or IL1B (Cell Signaling #12242) at 4 °C. Primary antibodies were diluted at 1:500 before use. Following primary antibody incubation, the blots were washed and incubated with HRP-conjugated secondary antibodies for one hour (Cell Signaling #7074S, #7076S). Secondary antibodies were diluted at 1:5000 before use. The blots were then stripped using Restore Western Blot Stripping Buffer (Thermo-Fisher Scientific) and re-probed with alternate antibodies. An antibody against ACTB (Cell Signaling #8457L) was used as a loading control. Blot imaging was performed on a ChemiDoc MP System (Bio-Rad) after exposing the blot to Clarity Western ECL Blotting Substrate (Bio-Rad). Protein expression was quantitatively analyzed using band density and ImageJ software (NIH, Bethesda MD)85.

Quantitative reverse transcription PCR assays. Total RNA was isolated from fresh mouse liver, mouse primary hepatocytes, and Hepa-1 cells using TRIzol Reagent (Thermo-Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA) and quantified using a NanoDrop Spectrophotometer (NanoDrop Products, Wilmington, DE, USA). Total RNA (2 µg) was reverse transcribed using All-in-One cDNA Synthesis SuperMix (BioTool, Houston, TX, USA). qRT-PCR analysis was performed using SYBR Green qPCR Master Mix (BioTool). Primers were designed for gene specificity and to cross exon-exon junctions using Primer-BLAST (www.ncbi.nlm.nih. gov/tools/primer-blast/) and purchased from IDT DNA Technologies (Coralville, IA, USA) (Supplementary Table 7). qRT-PCR experiments were designed and performed according to Minimum Information for Publication of Quantitative Real-Time PCR Experiments (MIQE) guidelines⁸⁶. Results are normalized to actin expression. Values given are fold over control or relative expression value, where appropriate, calculated using the 2 Δ Ct QPCR calculation method⁸⁷.

Luciferase reporter assays. For luciferase assays, pSG5-PPAR α (mouse) and pSG5-RXRA (mouse) were used for transcription factor expression⁸⁸. Custom GeneBlocks (IDT DNA) were synthesized containing the predicted PPRE sites for Gm15441. GeneBlocks were digested and purified using a Qiagen PCR Purification Kit (Qiagen, Valencia, CA), and cloned into the pGL4.11 or pGL4.27 for PPRE reporter constructs (Promega, Madison, WI) using a BioRad Quick Ligation Kit

(BioRad, Hercules, CA, USA). Prior to performing assays, all constructs were confirmed by Sanger sequencing at the NCI Center for Cancer Research Genomics Core. The phRL-TK renilla luciferase construct was used as a control to normalize for transfection efficiency. Primary hepatocytes were seeded into 12-well plates $(4 \times 10^4 \text{ cells/well})$. PPRE reporter constructs were co-transfected into hepatocytes with PPARa and RXR expression vectors. PPRE-luc plasmid containing an *Acos1* PPRE site repeat was used as a positive control⁸⁹. Empty pGL4.11 or pGL4.27 plasmids were used as negative controls. Plasmids were transfected using Lipofectamine 3000 Reagent (Thermo-Fisher Scientific). Luciferase activities were measured and plotted relative to lysate protein concentrations using the Promega Dual Luciferase Reporter (Promega) assays according to the manufacturer's protocol. Measurements were taken on a Veritas microplate luminometer (Turner Biosystems, Sunnyvale, CA, USA).

Chromatin immunoprecipitation. Chromatin was prepared from hepatocytes for ChIP assays as previously described⁹⁰. Cells were fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde for 15 min, then glycine was added to a final concentration of 0.125 M and incubated for 10 min before harvesting. Chromatin was sonicated using a Bioruptor Pico (Diagenode, Denville, NJ, USA). Chromatin preparations were subjected to ChIP using a ChIP-IT High Sensitivity Kit and Protein G Agarose Prepacked Columns (Active Motif, Carlsbad, CA, USA) using either PPARa (Abcam Ab24509) antibody, normal rabbit IgG (Cell Signaling Technologies #2729S), or Histone H3 (Cell Signaling Technologies #4620) antibody. Rabbit IgG and Histone H3 were used as negative and positive controls, respectively. DNA was purified and concentrated using MinElute Reaction Cleanup columns (Qiagen). qRT-PCR and conventional PCR were performed using 2 μ l of ChIP DNA samples from the 50 μ l of purified samples using gene-specific primers (Supplementary Table 7). Cycle threshold (Ct) values of ChIP and input samples were calculated and presented as fold change.

RNA fluorescent in situ hybridization (FISH). For FISH staining of Gm15441, $Gm15441^{1/4+}$, and $Gm15441^{1SL}$ mice were fed either a control diet or diet containing WY-14643 for 36 h. Livers were harvested, fixed in 4% of paraformaldehyde overnight then sent to the Molecular Pathology Laboratory at the National Cancer Institute for processing, RNA FISH experiments were performed using custom RNAscope probes and reagents developed by Advanced Cell Diagnostics (Newark, CA). Proprietary FISH probes targeted a region of Gm15441 that does not overlap with *Txnip* to prevent signal interference (Supplementary Table 8). Slide imaging was performed using Aperio ImageScope software (Leica Biosystems, Buffalo Grove, IL, USA).

Tissue total lipase activity assays. Liver, skeletal muscle (soleus), and inguinal white adipose tissue (IWAT) were homogenized in ice-cold PBS buffer using a Percellys bead homogenizer and 1 mm zirconia/silica beads. Tissue total lipase activity was assayed using a fluorometric lipase activity assay kit (Abcam #ab204721) following the manufacturer's recommendations and normalized to total protein. According to the manufacturer, assay specificity has been confirmed for LPL, hormone-sensitive lipase [also known as (a.k.a.) LIPE], hepatic TG lipase (a.k.a. LIPC), and pancreatic TG lipase (a.k.a. PNLIP). Adipose TG lipase (a.k.a. PNPLA2) activity should also be detectable, although specificity has not directly been confirmed. Protein concentrations were determined using a Pierce BCA Protein Assay Kit (Thermo-Fisher).

In vitro transcription-translation assay. TNT T7 Quick Coupled Transcription/ Translation System was used for checking transcription and translation (Promega) according to the manufacturer's protocol. Linear pCMV-Empty, pCMV-Gm15441 (GenScript custom gene synthesis construct containing mature, spliced Gm15441 transcript; NR_040409.1), and pCMV-Txnip (Origene; MR206196; NM_023719) plasmids were used as templates. All plasmids included the T7 promoter sequence for RNA transcription. pCMV-Txnip plasmid (0.5 µg) was added to reticulocyte lysate in combination with increasing amounts (0.1, 0.3, and 0.5 µg) of pCMV-Empty or pCMV-Gm15441 plasmid. Western blots were then performed on lysates using anti-TXNIP antibody as described above. Blot imaging was performed on a ChemiDoc MP System (Bio-Rad) after exposing the blot to Clarity Western ECL Blotting Substrate (Bio-Rad).

5' Rapid amplification of cDNA ends (5' RACE). ExtractSTART Eukaryotic mRNA 5'-& 3'-RACE kit was used for cDNA library preparation according to the manufacturer's protocol (Epicentre Biotechnologies, Illumina). 2 μg of total RNA from livers of mice treated with WY-14643 for 24 h was used for template. All steps followed the manufacturer's protocol. PCR products were analyzed by Sanger Sequencing (2-ABI 3500xL and 1-3730xL DNA sequencers, Illumina) after cleanup using a PCR purification kit (Qiagen). The sequencing primers are listed in Supplementary Table 6.

Data and statistical analyses. PPARα ChIP-seq data was downloaded from NCBI Gene Expression Omnibus (GSE61817). ChIP-seq data was uploaded to the Galaxy public server at usegalaxy.org for analysis⁹¹. More specifically, data were converted

ARTICLE

to bigwig file format using Galaxy tools. Bigwig files were then visualized using CLC workbench (Qiagen) and Integrated Genome Browser (version $9.0.09^{2}$. All results are expressed as means \pm SD. Significance was determined by t-test or one-way ANOVA with Bonferroni correction using Prism 7.0 software (GraphPad Software, La Jolla, CA, USA). A *P* value less than 0.05 was considered significant and statistical significance is indicated in the figure legends.

Reporting summary. Further information on research design is available in the Nature Research Reporting Summary linked to this article.

Data availability

The data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding authors upon request. Supplementary information are provided in Supplementary Figs. 1–14, Supplementary Tables 1–8, and Supplementary Data 1–3. RNA-seq data have been deposited in the Gene Expression Omnibus under the accession code GSE132386. PPARA ChIP-seq data in Fig. 3a was downloaded from Gene Expression Omnibus under the accession code GSE61817. Source data are provided with this paper.

Received: 28 June 2019; Accepted: 12 October 2020; Published online: 17 November 2020

References

- Andrejeva, G. & Rathmell, J. C. Similarities and distinctions of cancer and immune metabolism in inflammation and tumors. *Cell Metab.* 26, 49–70 (2017).
- Bettencourt, I. A. & Powell, J. D. Targeting metabolism as a novel therapeutic approach to autoimmunity, inflammation, and transplantation. *J. Immunol.* 198, 999–1005 (2017).
- Corrales, P. et al. Long-term caloric restriction ameliorates deleterious effects of aging on white and brown adipose tissue plasticity. *Aging Cell* 18, e12948 (2019).
- Brocker, C. N. et al. Extrahepatic PPARalpha modulates fatty acid oxidation and attenuates fasting-induced hepatosteatosis in mice. *J. Lipid Res.* 59, 2140–2152 (2018).
- Li, G. et al. Hepatic peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor alpha mediates the major metabolic effects of Wy-14643. *J. Gastroenterol. Hepatol.* 33, 1138–1145 (2018).
- Brocker, C. N. et al. Hepatocyte-specific PPARA expression exclusively promotes agonist-induced cell proliferation without influence from nonparenchymal cells. *Am. J. Physiol. Gastrointest. Liver Physiol.* 312, G283–G299 (2017).
- Zhen, Y., Krausz, K. W., Chen, C., Idle, J. R. & Gonzalez, F. J. Metabolomic and genetic analysis of biomarkers for peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor alpha expression and activation. *Mol. Endocrinol.* 21, 2136–2151 (2007).
- Sinal, C. J., Yoon, M. & Gonzalez, F. J. Antagonism of the actions of peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor-alpha by bile acids. *J. Biol. Chem.* 276, 47154–47162 (2001).
- 9. Quijano, C., Trujillo, M., Castro, L. & Trostchansky, A. Interplay between oxidant species and energy metabolism. *Redox Biol.* **8**, 28–42 (2016).
- Mittal, M., Siddiqui, M. R., Tran, K., Reddy, S. P. & Malik, A. B. Reactive oxygen species in inflammation and tissue injury. *Antioxid. Redox Signal* 20, 1126–1167 (2014).
- Yang, R. et al. WY-14643, a selective agonist of peroxisome proliferatoractivated receptor-alpha, ameliorates lipopolysaccharide-induced depressivelike behaviors by preventing neuroinflammation and oxido-nitrosative stress in mice. *Pharm. Biochem Behav.* 153, 97–104 (2017).
- Zhao, X. Y. et al. Long noncoding RNA licensing of obesity-linked hepatic lipogenesis and NAFLD pathogenesis. *Nat. Commun.* 9, 2986 (2018).
- Dallner, O. S. et al. Dysregulation of a long noncoding RNA reduces leptin leading to a leptin-responsive form of obesity. *Nat. Med.* 25, 507–516 (2019).
- Yuan, H. et al. A novel long noncoding RNA PGC1beta-OT1 regulates adipocyte and osteoblast differentiation through antagonizing miR-148a-3p. *Cell Death Differ.* 26, 2029–2045 (2019).
- Yuan, Y. et al. The role and possible mechanism of lncRNA AC092159.2 in modulating adipocyte differentiation. J. Mol. Endocrinol. 62, 137–148 (2019).
- Melia, T., Hao, P., Yilmaz, F. & Waxman, D. J. Hepatic long intergenic noncoding RNAs: high promoter conservation and dynamic, sex-dependent transcriptional regulation by growth hormone. *Mol. Cell Biol.* 36, 50–69 (2016).
- Melia, T. & Waxman, D. J. Sex-Biased lncRNAs Inversely correlate with sexopposite gene coexpression networks in diversity outbred mouse liver. *Endocrinology* 160, 989–1007 (2019).

- Lodato, N. J., Melia, T., Rampersaud, A. & Waxman, D. J. Sex-differential responses of tumor promotion-associated genes and dysregulation of novel long noncoding RNAs in constitutive androstane receptor-activated mouse liver. *Toxicol. Sci.* 159, 25–41 (2017).
- Jandl, K. et al. Long non-coding RNAs influence the transcriptome in pulmonary arterial hypertension: the role of PAXIP1-AS1. *J. Pathol.* 247, 357–370 (2019).
- 20. Wei, S. et al. Promotion of glycolysis by HOTAIR through GLUT1 upregulation via mTOR signaling. Oncol. Rep. 38, 1902-1908 (2017).
- Oslowski, C. M. et al. Thioredoxin-interacting protein mediates ER stressinduced beta cell death through initiation of the inflammasome. *Cell Metab.* 16, 265–273 (2012).
- Yang, Y., Wang, H., Kouadir, M., Song, H. & Shi, F. Recent advances in the mechanisms of NLRP3 inflammasome activation and its inhibitors. *Cell Death Dis.* 10, 128 (2019).
- Yu, J. W. & Lee, M. S. Mitochondria and the NLRP3 inflammasome: physiological and pathological relevance. *Arch. Pharm. Res* 39, 1503–1518 (2016).
- Kelley, N., Jeltema, D., Duan, Y. & He, Y. The NLRP3 inflammasome: an overview of mechanisms of activation and regulation. *Int J Mol Sci* 20, 3328 (2019).
- Wuensch, T. et al. High glucose-induced oxidative stress increases transient receptor potential channel expression in human monocytes. *Diabetes* 59, 844–849 (2010).
- Lerner, A. G. et al. IRE1alpha induces thioredoxin-interacting protein to activate the NLRP3 inflammasome and promote programmed cell death under irremediable ER stress. *Cell Metab.* 16, 250–264 (2012).
- Anthony, T. G. & Wek, R. C. TXNIP switches tracks toward a terminal UPR. Cell Metab. 16, 135–137 (2012).
- Shen, L. et al. Dietary PUFAs attenuate NLRP3 inflammasome activation via enhancing macrophage autophagy. J. Lipid Res 58, 1808–1821 (2017).
- 29. Kliewer, S. A. et al. Fatty acids and eicosanoids regulate gene expression through direct interactions with peroxisome proliferator-activated receptors alpha and gamma. *Proc. Natl Acad. Sci. USA* **94**, 4318–4323 (1997).
- Pelechano, V. & Steinmetz, L. M. Gene regulation by antisense transcription. Nat. Rev. Genet 14, 880–893 (2013).
- Batista, T. M. et al. Multi-dimensional Transcriptional Remodeling by Physiological Insulin In Vivo. Cell Rep. 26, 3429–3443 (2019). e3423.
- Hansmeier, N. R., Widdershooven, P. J. M., Khani, S. & Kornfeld, J. W. Rapid generation of long noncoding RNA knockout mice using CRISPR/Cas9 technology. *Noncoding RNA* 5, 12 (2019).
- Zhang, N. et al. Dynamic transcriptome profile in db/db skeletal muscle reveal critical roles for long noncoding RNA regulator. *Int J. Biochem Cell Biol.* 104, 14–24 (2018).
- Wada, T., Gao, J. & Xie, W. PXR and CAR in energy metabolism. *Trends Endocrinol. Metab.* 20, 273–279 (2009).
- Cui, J. Y. & Klaassen, C. D. RNA-Seq reveals common and unique PXR- and CAR-target gene signatures in the mouse liver transcriptome. *Biochim Biophys. Acta* 1859, 1198–1217 (2016).
- Gonzalez, F. J., Fang, Z. Z. & Ma, X. Transgenic mice and metabolomics for study of hepatic xenobiotic metabolism and toxicity. *Expert Opin. Drug Metab. Toxicol.* 11, 869–881 (2015).
- Iwakiri, J., Terai, G. & Hamada, M. Computational prediction of lncRNAmRNA interactionsby integrating tissue specificity in human transcriptome. *Biol. Direct* 12, 15 (2017).
- Perron, U., Provero, P. & Molineris, I. In silico prediction of lncRNA function using tissue specific and evolutionary conserved expression. *BMC Bioinforma*. 18, 144 (2017).
- Su, C. et al. Fenofibrate suppressed proliferation and migration of human neuroblastoma cells via oxidative stress dependent of TXNIP upregulation. *Biochem Biophys. Res Commun.* 460, 983–988 (2015).
- 40. Lee, J. M. et al. Nutrient-sensing nuclear receptors coordinate autophagy. *Nature* **516**, 112–115 (2014).
- Yoo, S. H., Abdelmegeed, M. A. & Song, B. J. Activation of PPARalpha by Wy-14643 ameliorates systemic lipopolysaccharide-induced acute lung injury. *Biochem Biophys. Res Commun.* 436, 366–371 (2013).
- Schaefer, M. B. et al. Peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor-alpha reduces inflammation and vascular leakage in a murine model of acute lung injury. *Eur. Respir. J.* 32, 1344–1353 (2008).
- Zhang, L. et al. Peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor alpha acts as a mediator of endoplasmic reticulum stress-induced hepatocyte apoptosis in acute liver failure. *Dis. Model Mech.* 9, 799–809 (2016).
- Lee, S. et al. Thioredoxin-interacting protein regulates protein disulfide isomerases and endoplasmic reticulum stress. *EMBO Mol. Med.* 6, 732–743 (2014).
- Lampe, S. et al. Identification of the TXNIP IRES and characterization of the impact of regulatory IRES trans-acting factors. *Biochim Biophys. Acta Gene Regul. Mech.* 1861, 147–157 (2018).

- Wu, C. A., Huang, D. Y. & Lin, W. W. Beclin-1-independent autophagy positively regulates internal ribosomal entry site-dependent translation of hypoxia-inducible factor 1alpha under nutrient deprivation. *Oncotarget* 5, 7525–7539 (2014).
- Goodpaster, B. H. & Sparks, L. M. Metabolic flexibility in health and disease. Cell Metab. 25, 1027–1036 (2017).
- Zhao, Q., Yang, R., Wang, J., Hu, D. D. & Li, F. PPARalpha activation protects against cholestatic liver injury. Sci. Rep. 7, 9967 (2017).
- Militello, G. et al. A novel long non-coding RNA Myolinc regulates myogenesis through TDP-43 and Filip1. J. Mol. Cell Biol. 10, 102–117 (2018).
- Zhang, C. L., Zhu, K. P. & Ma, X. L. Antisense lncRNA FOXC2-AS1 promotes doxorubicin resistance in osteosarcoma by increasing the expression of FOXC2. *Cancer Lett.* 396, 66–75 (2017).
- Qu, X., Alsager, S., Zhuo, Y. & Shan, B. HOX transcript antisense RNA (HOTAIR) in cancer. *Cancer Lett.* 454, 90–97 (2019).
- Watanabe, R., Nakamura, H., Masutani, H. & Yodoi, J. Anti-oxidative, anticancer and anti-inflammatory actions by thioredoxin 1 and thioredoxinbinding protein-2. *Pharm. Ther.* **127**, 261–270 (2010).
- Muoio, D. M. TXNIP links redox circuitry to glucose control. *Cell Metab.* 5, 412–414 (2007).
- Wree, A. et al. NLRP3 inflammasome driven liver injury and fibrosis: Roles of IL-17 and TNF in mice. *Hepatology* 67, 736–749 (2017).
- Kim, S. K., Choe, J. Y. & Park, K. Y. TXNIP-mediated nuclear factorkappaB signaling pathway and intracellular shifting of TXNIP in uric acidinduced NLRP3 inflammasome. *Biochem Biophys. Res Commun.* 511, 725–731 (2019).
- Waldhart, A. N. et al. Phosphorylation of TXNIP by AKT mediates acute influx of glucose in response to insulin. *Cell Rep.* 19, 2005–2013 (2017).
- 57. Mandala, A. et al. Thioredoxin interacting protein mediates lipid-induced impairment of glucose uptake in skeletal muscle. *Biochem Biophys. Res Commun.* **479**, 933–939 (2016).
- Wu, N. et al. AMPK-dependent degradation of TXNIP upon energy stress leads to enhanced glucose uptake via GLUT1. Mol. Cell 49, 1167–1175 (2013).
- Oka, S. et al. Thioredoxin binding protein-2/thioredoxin-interacting protein is a critical regulator of insulin secretion and peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor function. *Endocrinology* 150, 1225–1234 (2009).
- Marin-Bejar, O. et al. The human lncRNA LINC-PINT inhibits tumor cell invasion through a highly conserved sequence element. *Genome Biol.* 18, 202 (2017).
- Deng, Y. et al. PPARalpha agonist stimulated angiogenesis by Improving endothelial precursor cell function via a NLRP3 inflammasome pathway. *Cell Physiol. Biochem* 42, 2255–2266 (2017).
- Wree, A. et al. NLRP3 inflammasome activation results in hepatocyte pyroptosis, liver inflammation, and fibrosis in mice. *Hepatology* 59, 898–910 (2014).
- Han, C. Y. et al. FXR Inhibits endoplasmic reticulum stress-induced NLRP3 inflammasome in hepatocytes and ameliorates liver injury. *Cell Rep.* 24, 2985–2999 (2018).
- 64. Woods, C. G. et al. WY-14,643 induced cell proliferation and oxidative stress in mouse liver are independent of NADPH oxidase. *Toxicol. Sci.* **98**, 366–374 (2007).
- 65. Ullah, H. et al. Poncirin attenuates CCL4-induced liver injury through inhibition of oxidative stress and inflammatory cytokines in mice. *BMC Complement Med. Ther.* **20**, 115 (2020).
- Ling, L. R. et al. Effect of HBx on inflammation and mitochondrial oxidative stress in mouse hepatocytes. *Oncol. Lett.* 19, 2861–2869 (2020).
- Szpigel, A. et al. Lipid environment induces ER stress, TXNIP expression and inflammation in immune cells of individuals with type 2 diabetes. *Diabetologia* 61, 399–412 (2018).
- Sai, K. et al. Distal promoter regions are responsible for differential regulation of human orosomucoid-1 and -2 gene expression and acute phase responses. *Biol. Pharm. Bull.* 37, 164–168 (2014).
- Zhang, Y. et al. Lipocalin 2 expression and secretion is highly regulated by metabolic stress, cytokines, and nutrients in adipocytes. *PLoS ONE* 9, e96997 (2014).
- Olteanu, S. et al. Lack of interleukin-1alpha in Kupffer cells attenuates liver inflammation and expression of inflammatory cytokines in hypercholesterolaemic mice. *Dig. Liver Dis.* 46, 433–439 (2014).
- Gouwy, M. et al. Matrix metalloproteinase-9-generated COOH-, but not NH2-terminal fragments of serum amyloid A1 retain potentiating activity in neutrophil migration to CXCL8, with loss of direct chemotactic and cytokineinducing capacity. *Front Immunol.* 9, 1081 (2018).
- Gieling, R. G., Wallace, K. & Han, Y. P. Interleukin-1 participates in the progression from liver injury to fibrosis. *Am. J. Physiol. Gastrointest. Liver Physiol.* 296, G1324–G1331 (2009).
- Wan, J. J. et al. Role of acute-phase protein ORM in a mice model of ischemic stroke. J. Cell Physiol. 234, 20533–20545 (2019).

- 74. Rucksaken, R. et al. Plasma orosomucoid 2 as a potential risk marker of cholangiocarcinoma. *Cancer Biomark.* **18**, 27–34 (2017).
- Lin, H. et al. Identification of key candidate genes and pathways in hepatitis B virus-associated acute liver failure by bioinformatical analysis. *Med. (Baltim.)* 97, e9687 (2018).
- Fang, T. et al. Orosomucoid 2 inhibits tumor metastasis and is upregulated by CCAAT/enhancer binding protein beta in hepatocellular carcinomas. Oncotarget 6, 16106–16119 (2015).
- Song, E. et al. Lipocalin-2 induces NLRP3 inflammasome activation via HMGB1 induced TLR4 signaling in heart tissue of mice under pressure overload challenge. *Am. J. Transl. Res* 9, 2723–2735 (2017).
- Kwon, H. J. et al. Vitamin D3 upregulated protein 1 suppresses TNF-alphainduced NF-kappaB activation in hepatocarcinogenesis. J. Immunol. 185, 3980–3989 (2010).
- Oka, S. et al. Impaired fatty acid utilization in thioredoxin binding protein-2 (TBP-2)-deficient mice: a unique animal model of Reye syndrome. *FASEB J.* 20, 121–123 (2006).
- Liu, Y. et al. 6-Methoxyethylamino-numonafide inhibits hepatocellular carcinoma xenograft growth as a single agent and in combination with sorafenib. *FASEB J.* 31, 5453–5465 (2017).
- Cho, S. Y. et al. Clinical significance of the thioredoxin system and thioredoxin-domain-containing protein family in hepatocellular carcinoma. *Dig. Dis. Sci.* 64, 123–136 (2019).
- Connerney, J., Lau-Corona, D., Rampersaud, A. & Waxman, D. J. Activation of male liver chromatin accessibility and STAT5-dependent gene transcription by plasma growth hormone pulses. *Endocrinology* 158, 1386–1405 (2017).
- Kim, D. et al. TopHat2: accurate alignment of transcriptomes in the presence of insertions, deletions and gene fusions. *Genome Biol.* 14, R36 (2013).
- Seglen, P. O. Preparation of isolated rat liver cells. *Methods Cell Biol.* 13, 29–83 (1976).
- Schneider, C. A., Rasband, W. S. & Eliceiri, K. W. NIH Image to ImageJ: 25 years of image analysis. *Nat. Methods* 9, 671–675 (2012).
- Plain, K. M. et al. High-throughput direct fecal PCR assay for detection of Mycobacterium avium subsp. paratuberculosis in sheep and cattle. J. Clin. Microbiol 52, 745–757 (2014).
- Pfaffl, M. W. A new mathematical model for relative quantification in realtime RT-PCR. *Nucleic Acids Res.* 29, e45 (2001).
- Shah, Y. M. et al. Peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor alpha regulates a microRNA-mediated signaling cascade responsible for hepatocellular proliferation. *Mol. Cell Biol.* 27, 4238–4247 (2007).
- Kliewer, S. A., Umesono, K., Noonan, D. J., Heyman, R. A. & Evans, R. M. Convergence of 9-cis retinoic acid and peroxisome proliferator signalling pathways through heterodimer formation of their receptors. *Nature* 358, 771–774 (1992).
- Kim, J. H., Qu, A., Reddy, J. K., Gao, B. & Gonzalez, F. J. Hepatic oxidative stress activates the Gadd45b gene by way of degradation of the transcriptional repressor STAT3. *Hepatology* 59, 695–704 (2014).
- Afgan, E. et al. The Galaxy platform for accessible, reproducible and collaborative biomedical analyses: 2018 update. *Nucleic Acids Res.* 46, W537–W544 (2018).
- Freese, N. H., Norris, D. C. & Loraine, A. E. Integrated genome browser: visual analytics platform for genomics. *Bioinformatics* 32, 2089–2095 (2016).

Acknowledgements

We thank Linda G. Byrd and John R. Buckley for technical assistance with the mouse studies. This work was funded by the intramural research program at the National Cancer Institute, National Institutes of Health and by NIH grant R01-ESO24421 to D.J.W. C.N.B. was supported in part by the Postdoctoral Research Associate Training (PRAT) program through the National Institute of General Medical Sciences, National Institutes of Health. D.K. was supported in part by a grant from the Korea Health Technology R&D Project through the Korea Health Industry Development Institute, funded by the Ministry of Health & Welfare, Republic of Korea (H117C2082). The content of this paper is solely the responsibility of the authors and does not necessarily represent the official views of the National Institutes of Health, Boston University, or Georgetown University. The Alb-Cre mice were provided by Derek LeRoith (Mount Sinai School of Medicine).

Author contributions

C.N.B. and D.K. conducted the experiments and performed data analysis. C.N.B., D.J.W., and F.J.G. designed the experiments and wrote the paper. C.N.B. and D.K, performed all the mouse experiments. T.M., K.K., and D.J.W. analyzed NGS data and identified WY-14643-responsive liver IncRNAs, and D.J.W. revised and edited the paper. T.J.V., S.T., D.A., J.A.B., and M.L. contributed to the analysis of mouse experimental data. C.N.B. and F.J.G. supervised and coordinated the overall study.

ARTICLE

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

Additional information

Supplementary information is available for this paper at https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-020-19554-7.

Correspondence and requests for materials should be addressed to F.J.G.

Peer review information *Nature Communications* thanks the anonymous reviewers for their contribution to the peer review of this work.

Reprints and permission information is available at http://www.nature.com/reprints

Publisher's note Springer Nature remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.

Open Access This article is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution 4.0 International License, which permits use, sharing, adaptation, distribution and reproduction in any medium or format, as long as you give appropriate credit to the original author(s) and the source, provide a link to the Creative Commons license, and indicate if changes were made. The images or other third party material in this article are included in the article's Creative Commons license, unless indicated otherwise in a credit line to the material. If material is not included in the article's Creative Commons license and your intended use is not permitted by statutory regulation or exceeds the permitted use, you will need to obtain permission directly from the copyright holder. To view a copy of this license, visit http://creativecommons.org/ licenses/by/4.0/.

This is a U.S. government work and not under copyright protection in the U.S.; foreign copyright protection may apply 2020