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# On the Anti-adipogenic Function of Collagen Triple Helix Repeatcontaining Protein 1

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# **ON THE ANTI-ADIPOGENIC FUNCTION OF COLLAGEN TRIPLE HELIX REPEAT-CONTAINING PROTEIN 1**

by

Matthew Edmund Siviski

B.S., Fordham University, 2012

### A DISSERTATION

Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the

Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

(in Biomedical Science)

The Graduate School

The University of Maine

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# **ON THE ANTI-ADIPOGENIC FUNCTION OF COLLAGEN TRIPLE HELIX REPEAT-CONTAINING PROTEIN 1**

By Matthew Edmund Siviski

Dissertation Advisor: Dr. Igor Prudovsky

An Abstract of the Thesis Presented in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy (in Biomedical Science) December 2023

**ABSTRACT:** Adipogenesis is regulated by the coordinated activity of adipogenic transcription factors, including PPAR-gamma (PPARG) and C/EBP alpha (CEBPA). Thus, dysregulated adipogenesis predisposes adipose tissues to adipocyte hypertrophy and hyperplasia. We have previously reported that mice possessing a homozygous null gene mutation in collagen triple helix repeat-containing protein 1 (CTHRC1) have increased adiposity compared to wildtype mice, supporting the concept that CTHRC1 regulates body composition. Herein, we investigated the anti-adipogenic activity of CTHRC1. Using 3T3-L1 preadipocytes, we showed significantly reduced adipogenic differentiation in the presence of CTHRC1 commensurate to marked suppression of *Cebpa* and *Pparg* gene expression. In addition, CTHRC1 increased the expression of the anti-adipogenic factor SOX9 (transcription factor SOX-9) and promoted its nuclear translocation. Importantly, *Sox9* gene knockdown demonstrated that the anti-adipogenic effect of CTHRC1 is dependent on SOX9 expression, while the ability of CTHRC1 to regulate SOX9 was attenuated by Rho and Rac1 signaling pathway inhibitors. Collectively, these data support that a

CTHRC1-Rho/Rac1-SOX9 signaling axis negatively regulates adipogenesis. We also report selective expression of *CTHRC1* in *PDGRFA*-expressing cell populations in human white adipose tissue, but not brown or perivascular adipose tissues. Congruently, flow cytometry analysis of mouse white adipose tissue revealed CTHRC1 expression in PDGFR-alpha<sup>+</sup> stromal cells.

#### **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

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## **DEDICATION**

To my friends and family, who I love and cherish. To David Schaller, FF-NRP, USMC. I miss those discussions between calls at 03:00 about the perspective of it all, my friend.



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### **LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS**

2-mercaptoethanol (2-me)

3-isobutyl-1-methylxanthine (IBMX)

Acetyl-CoA carboxylase (ACC)

Acyl-CoA:diacylglycerol acyltransferase (DGAT)

Acylglycerolphosphate acyltransferase (AGPAT)

adipocyte mesenchymal transition (AMT)

Adipocyte triglyceride lipase (ATGL)

Angiomotins (AMOTs)

Beta–galactosidase ( $\beta$ gal)

Bone morphogenetic proteins (BMPs)

brown adipose tissue (BAT)

cAMP response element-binding protein (CREB)

CCAAT/enhancer-binding protein alpha (C/EBP alpha)

CCAAT/enhancer-binding protein beta (C/EBP beta)

CCAAT/enhancer-binding protein delta (C/EBP delta)

Collagen triple helix repeat (CTHR) domain

Collagen triple helix repeat-containing protein 1 (CTHRC1)

Complement C1q tumor necrosis factor-related proteins (CTRPs)

Component 1q (C1q)

CREB binding protein/E1A binding protein p300 (CBP/p300)

cyclic AMP (cAMP)

Desert hedgehog protein (DHH)

endoplasmic reticulum (ER) enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) epithelial-to-mesenchymal (EMT) ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid (EDTA) Fatty acid synthase (FASN) Fatty acid-binding protein 4 (FABP4) Filamentous actin (F-actin) Focal adhesion kinase 1 (FAK) Frizzled-6 (FZD6) G protein-coupled receptor (GPCR) GATA-binding factor 2 (GATA2) Glycerol-3-phosphate acyltransferase (GPAT) Glycogen synthase kinase-3 beta (GSK3B) Hormone-sensitive lipase (HSL) Immunoglobulin G (IgG) Indian hedgehog protein (IHH) inguinal white adipose tissue (iWAT)

Insulin-like growth factor 1 (IGF-1)

Insulin-like growth factor 2 (IGF-II)

Large tumor suppressor kinases (LATS)

Lysophosphatidic acid (LPA)

Map kinases (MAPK)

Mediator complex subunit 12 (MED12)

Meis homeobox 1 (MEIS1) Microfibrillar-associated protein 5 (MFAP5) Monoglyceride lipase (MGL) N,N,N',N'-tetramethyl-ethylenediamine (TEMED) NSC 23766 (N) perivascular adipose tissue (PVAT) Peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor gamma (PPAR-gamma) Phosphatidic acid (PA) Phosphodiesterase 3B (PDE3B) Planar cell polarity (PCP) Platelet-derived growth factor receptor alpha (PDGFR-alpha) Preadipocyte factor 1 (PREF1) Prostaglandin D2 (PGD2) Protein kinase A (PKA) Protein kinase B (AKT) Protein patched homolog 1 (PTC1) Protein smoothened (SMO) PVDF (polyvinylidene difluoride) Ras-related dexamethasone induced 1 (RASD1) Rho-associated kinase (ROCK) Sonic hedgehog protein (SHH) SRY-type HMG box (SOX) stromal vascular fraction (SVF)

Tat interactive protein-60 (TIP60)

Transcription factor SOX-9 (SOX9)

Transcription initiation factor IIB (GTF2B)

Transforming growth factor beta-1 (TGFB1)

Type 1 collagen alpha 1 (Col1a1)

Uncoupling protein-1 (UCP1)

WW domain containing E3 ubiquitin protein ligase 2 (WWP2)

Y-27632 (Y)

Yes-associated protein 1 (YAP)

### **SPECIFIC AIMS**

**Aim 1**: To determine if the ability of CTHRC1 to suppress lipid accumulation in differentiating adipocytes *in vitro* is attributed to the downregulation of adipogenic gene expression. Hypothesis: A CTHRC1-SOX9 axis of signaling negatively regulates adipogenic gene expression *in vitro*.

**Aim 2**: To examine the expression of CTHRC1 in the stromal vascular milieu of white adipose tissue.

Hypothesis: CTHRC1 is expressed among white adipose PDGFR-alpha+ stromal cells *in vivo*.

#### **CHAPTER 1: REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE**

### **1.1 Structure and function of adipocytes**

The human body possesses integrated control mechanisms to regulate energy reserves and expenditure. Chief among them is the storage and usage of energy from sources of fat (*i*.*e*., lipids). Despite the benefits that these regulatory mechanisms have played over the course of human evolution, modern lifestyle habits in developed societies, including sedentary living in addition to excessive consumption of energy-rich food, has led to a dramatic rise in obesity and obesity-related pathophysiologies including diabetes and heart disease (1-3). Accordingly, a better understanding of adipocyte structure and function, including the regulatory pathways of adipogenesis and adipose tissue formation, bolsters the basic and translational research platforms to develop improved treatments for obesity and obesity-related comorbidities. To this end, the following subsections discuss the molecular underpinnings of adipocyte formation, with a particular focus on the developmental origins of white adipocytes retained in white adipose tissues.

#### **1.1.1 The adipocyte and adipose tissue landscape**

Adipocytes, also referred to as lipocytes or fat cells, are derived from mesenchymal stem cells and are grouped into three distinct classes: white, beige, and brown adipocytes (4). Both white and beige adipocytes are derived from PAX7- :MYF5- progenitor cells, while brown adipocytes are derived from PAX7+:MYF5+ progenitor cells (4). More recently, beige adipocyte precursor cells were shown to be distinct from white adipocyte precursor cells, thus supporting the notion that white, beige, and brown adipogenic lineages are developmentally distinct from one another (4). White adipocytes are classically viewed as sites of lipid synthesis and catabolism in response to whole-body energy demand, while beige and brown adipocytes express uncoupling protein-1 (UCP1) that functions to dissipate stored chemical energy as heat (4). Thus, beige and brown adipocytes are thermogenic cells in that they can regulate thermogenesis (*i*.*e*., heat production).

Originally, it was presumed that brown adipocytes are present only in human neonates who do not possess the thermoregulatory ability to produce body heat by shivering. However, it is now appreciated that brown adipocytes are also present in adult humans, principally within thoracic, interscapular, and perirenal brown adipose tissue depots (4). White adipocytes are more ubiquitously expressed in the adult human in comparison to brown adipocytes, and are retained in many connective tissues throughout the body as well as in distinct adipose tissues (5). Among white adipose tissues, adipocytes are embedded in vascular loose connective tissue and are typically divided into lobules by fibrous septa that carry the larger blood vessels (5, 6). As such, adipose tissue is highly vascularized commensurate to its role in metabolism as a vital source of free fatty acids which are released into the bloodstream and used by peripheral cells and tissues to generate ATP (5). Adipose tissues are found in specific subcutaneous and visceral regions throughout the body including the mesenteries and omenta, the female breast, bone marrow, the retroperitoneal region around the kidney, the retro-orbital region behind the eyeball, in the deep plantar skin of the foot, as well as among localized pads in the synovial membrane of joints. In addition to its role as an energy reserve, white adipose tissues are a vital source of thermal insulation (*e*.*g*., subcutaneous adipose tissues), and also act as mechanical shock-absorbers (*e*.*g*., the presence of adipose depots within the soles of the feet and joints) (5).

Individually, white adipocytes measure about 20-150 µm in diameter, and are either oval or spherical in shape, but when packed together in tissues they are polygonal (4). On the other

hand, brown adipocytes measure an average diameter of 10-25  $\mu$ m and are composed of multiple lipid droplets in contrast to white adipocytes which comprise a single large lipid droplet (4). Brown adipocytes also possess more mitochondria than white adipocytes, congruent with the role of the brown adipocyte heat-producing pathway regulated by UCP1 which, localized in the inner mitochondrial membrane, disrupts the proton (*i*.*e*., hydrogen ion) gradient between the mitochondrial intermembrane space and matrix thus converting the potential energy generated by the hydrogen ion gradient into thermal energy (4). Therefore, UCP1 facilitates thermogenesis and significantly attenuates the ability of brown adipocytes to generate ATP from oxidative phosphorylation (4). In contrast, beige adipocytes possess functional characteristics of both white and brown adipocytes in response to the presence or absence of thermogenic stimuli. For example, UCP1 protein expression is enhanced by cold exposure or enhanced adrenergic tone; however, in the absence of such thermogenic stimuli, beige adipocytes possess a lower basal level of UCP1 expression and can thus efficiently synthesize or catabolize lipids based on wholebody energy demands in a comparable manner to white adipocytes which are devoid of UCP1 expression (4).

Each white adipocyte contains a peripheral rim of cytoplasm surrounding a single lipid droplet composed of a phospholipid monolayer which encapsulates neutral lipid species, the vast majority of which are triacylglycerides comprised of glycerol esters of fatty acids including oleic, palmitic, and stearic acids (7). Triacylglyceride *de novo* lipogenesis encompasses the processes of free fatty acid synthesis as well as the binding of three fatty acid molecules to a glycerol backbone to form discrete triacylglyceride species (7). Within the cytoplasm, acetyl-CoA carboxylase (ACC) catalyzes the carboxylation of acetyl-CoA to produce malonyl-CoA, from which fatty acid synthase (FASN) helps orchestrate the synthesis of fatty acyl-CoA

molecules from acetyl-CoA and malonyl-CoA substrates (7). The carboxylation of acetyl-CoA is a rate-limiting determinant in fatty acid synthesis, wherein protein kinase A is an established negative regulator of malonyl-CoA production due to its inhibitory phosphorylation of acetyl-CoA carboxylase (7). The major pathway of triacylglyceride synthesis involves glycerol-3 phosphate and occurs primarily in the endoplasmic reticulum (7). Glycerol-3-phosphate is principally derived from intermediates of glycolysis and the citric acid cycle, and in the initial step of triacylglyceride synthesis, glycerol-3-phosphate acyltransferase (GPAT) catalyzes the addition of a fatty acyl-CoA molecule to glycerol-3-phosphate to produce a lysophosphatidic acid (LPA). Next, acylglycerolphosphate acyltransferase (AGPAT) catalyzes the addition of a fatty acyl-CoA molecule to LPA to form a phosphatidic acid (PA). Phosphatidic acid phosphatase (PAP) then dephosphorylates PA yielding a diacylglycerol, upon which acyl-CoA:diacylglycerol acyltransferase (DGAT) catalyzes the final addition of a fatty acyl-CoA molecule to produce a triacylglyceride species (7). Within the leaflets of the endoplasmic reticulum (ER) phospholipid bilayer, triacylglycerides and other neutral lipid species (*e*.*g*., cholesterol esters) accumulate and coalesce into a nascent lipid droplet that buds from the ER and releases into the cytosol, in which the polar head groups of the droplet's phospholipid monolayer are oriented towards the cytosol. In white adipocytes, nascent lipid droplets fuse together to form a mature, unilocular lipid droplet which, itself, is also a site of localized triacylglyceride synthesis, storage, or catabolism in response to whole-body energy demand (7). Lipids derived from sources of food, so-called dietary fats, are transported throughout the body in lipoproteins which are endocytosed into cells (8). In addition to adipocytes, many other cell types can form lipid droplets (albeit much smaller in size than those that prevail in white adipocytes) and metabolize lipids (9).

Hallmarks of white adipocyte formation include the activation of genes that positively regulate lipogenesis, thus allowing adipocytes to efficiently synthesize and store neutral lipid species within lipid droplets, as well as the acquisition of cellular machinery governing the catabolism of those lipids (10). Accordingly, embedded within the phospholipid monolayer of the lipid droplet are proteins that regulate lipid metabolism, the most abundant of which is perilipin 1 which functions to "coat" the lipid droplet and thus sterically hinder cytoplasmic lipases from physically interacting with triacylglycerides and catabolizing them into constituent free fatty acids, an enzymatic process referred to as lipolysis (further discussed below). Fatty acid binding protein 4 (FABP4) is also expressed in mature adipocytes and functions as a critical lipid chaperone protein (1). However, factors that enhance lipid metabolism, including adrenergic and TNF-alpha signaling, stimulate lipolysis in part by positively regulating the phosphorylation of perilipin 1 by protein kinase A (PKA), which results in a conformational change of perilipin 1 thus permitting the maximal translocation of lipases from the cytoplasm to the surface of the lipid droplet (11). On the other hand, insulin is the predominant physiological suppressor of lipolysis due to its attenuation of PKA-dependent perilipin 1 phosphorylation (4, 12). Moreover, insulin activates AKT in a PI3K/mTOR-dependent manner, thus enhancing the activating phosphorylation of phosphodiesterase 3B (PDE3B) by AKT (13). PDE3B functions to increase AMP levels by catalyzing the hydrolysis of cyclic AMP (cAMP), which therefore decreases the activation rate of PKA by cAMP (13). Insulin has also been demonstrated to suppress lipolysis by negatively regulating the gene expression of lipases (4).

Fundamentally, lipolysis is the stepwise enzymatic process that converts triacylglycerides to glycerol plus three molecules of free fatty acids (4). Adipocyte triglyceride lipase (ATGL) catalyzes the primary cleavage of triacylglycerol to diacylglycerol, following which hormone-

sensitive lipase (HSL) serves as the major diglyceride lipase, and monoglyceride lipase (MGL) completes the lipolytic process by catalyzing the breakdown of monoacylglycerol to glycerol and a free fatty acid molecule (14). Free fatty acids are then released into the bloodstream to nourish peripheral tissues including skeletal and heart muscle cells which possess high-energy demands (5). The physiological pH of blood and the extracellular environment is slightly basic (with a normal pH tightly buffered to a range of about 7.35 to 7.45); therefore, the carboxyl group of a free fatty acid is deprotonated (*i.e.*, loss of a hydrogen ion;  $H^+$ ) at physiological pH and thus negatively charged (15, 16). Free fatty acids enter cells via fatty acid transporters, as well as through a diffusion mechanism wherein the negatively charged carboxylate group of a fatty acid can acquire a proton  $(i.e., H^+)$  at the outer leaflet of the plasma membrane, thus neutralizing the charge of the fatty acid and permitting its rapid diffusion across the membrane, following which the proton is released at the inner leaflet of the plasma membrane as the free fatty acid enters the cytoplasm (16). Beta oxidation of free fatty acids generates acetyl-CoA which, in turn, enters the citric acid cycle to produce NADH and FADH2 that are critical substrates used in oxidative phosphorylation to produce ATP for the cell (4).

Adipose lipid profiling reveals marked differences in lipid composition based on the anatomical location and type of adipose tissue. For example, Liaw and colleagues determined from tandem mass spectrometry analyses that mouse inguinal white adipose tissue (iWAT) and perirenal WAT differ in the prevalence of unique cardiolipin, phosphatidylserine, and phosphatidylcholine lipid species, while triglycerides of medium fatty acyl chain length significantly predominate in iWAT (17). On the other hand, triglycerides were shown to be less abundant in mouse interscapular brown adipose tissue, though they are comprised of longer fatty acyl chains than the triglyceride species present in inguinal and perirenal WAT (17). In

comparing the lipid profiles of differentiating white adipocytes *in vitro*, Liaw and colleagues also demonstrated that, congruent with white adipose tissues, white adipocytes developing in culture accumulate triglycerides, namely saturated triglyceride species, and posited that white adipocytes utilize unsaturated, longer acyl chain fatty acids to satiate their energy demands during their differentiation from white adipocyte progenitor cells to white adipocytes (17). Differentiating adipocytes further revealed significant changes in the prevalence and composition of hexosylceramides, sphingomyelins, and cholesterols (17), thus underscoring how lipid profiles reflect the unique metabolic demands of preadipocyte-to-adipocyte differentiation. As such, the regulation of white adipocyte differentiation is discussed in the following subsections.

### **1.1.2 Cellular origins of adipocytes**

The process of adipocyte formation is defined by three discrete stages: the commitment of mesenchymal stems cells to the adipogenic lineage, mitotic clonal expansion of these early adipocyte progenitor cells, followed by terminal adipogenic differentiation of adipocyte progenitor cells to adipocytes. In a developmental context, adipocytes develop from mesenchyme (and are thus primarily mesodermal in origin), though in the cephalic region adipocytes develop from the neuroectoderm and are thus ectodermal in origin. Rodent models of adipocyte lineage tracing reveal the presence of adipose-specific markers by embryonic days 16.5-17.5 in subcutaneous regions, though visceral adipose tissues develop later and become visible by approximately postnatal day 7 (4). In assessing the developmental origins of white adipocytes, it is well-documented that mesenchymal stem cell and adipocyte progenitor cells are retained within the stromal vascular fraction (SVF) of white adipose tissues (18). The SVF, in this context, refers to a heterogeneous cell population derived from the mechanical/enzymatic

digestion of adipose tissues that includes fibroblasts, immune cells, endothelial cells, as well as cells of adipogenic lineage (19).

From adipogenic lineage tracing investigations of SVF cells derived from mouse inguinal white adipose tissue, mesenchymal stems cells define the earliest adipocyte progenitor cell population and are characterized by PREF1+:CD24+: PDGFR-alpha- expression (2). Ultimately, mesenchymal stem cells advancing in the adipogenic lineage become PREF1: CD24: PDGFRalpha+ adipocyte progenitor cells capable of undergoing terminal differentiation to white adipocytes (2). Refined lineage tracing investigations have further revealed that the white adipose tissue SVF contains several discrete adipocyte progenitor cell populations in both mice and humans, specific progenitor cell populations which are also referred to as preadipocytes in part based on their ability to efficiently undergo terminal adipogenic differentiation when isolated in cell culture. For example, Merrick and colleagues reported the existence of ICAM1<sup>+</sup> preadipocytes and CD142<sup>+</sup> preadipocytes derived from DPP4<sup>+</sup> progenitor cells (18). Congruent with the adipogenic lineage tracing investigation published by Gulyaeva and colleagues, these DPP4<sup>+</sup> multipotent cells were shown to be mesenchymal progenitors given their capacity for multi-lineage differentiation, including osteocyte differentiation, while both  $ICAM1<sup>+</sup>$  and  $CD142<sup>+</sup>$  committed preadipocytes revealed high levels of PDGFR-alpha and could be efficiently differentiated into white adipocytes *in vitro*. It was further appreciated in this report by Merrick and colleagues that DPP4<sup>+</sup> mesenchymal progenitor cells occupy the reticular interstitium, which is defined as a fluid-filled compartment composed of abundant collagen and elastin fiber networks that encases many organs including adipose tissues, while  $ICAM1<sup>+</sup>$  and  $CD142<sup>+</sup>$ preadipocytes reside in a perivascular compartment encapsulated by the reticular interstitium which also possesses a collagen-rich network of extracellular matrix (18).

Independent lineage tracing investigations employing alternative adipogenic lineage markers have further shown that adipose-derived mesenchymal stem cells are also characterized by CD24+:CD34+ cell surface expression and give rise to preadipocytes marked by PDGFR $alpha^+$ :PDGFR-beta<sup>+</sup> cell surface expression in mice and humans (18, 19). In mice, SCA-1 is a well-established marker of the adipogenic lineage wherein Friedman and colleagues demonstrated the identity of a CD24+:CD29+:CD34+:SCA-1+ mesenchymal stem cell population capable of proliferating and differentiating into white adipocytes *in vitro* (20). Mesenchymal stem cells also give rise to mural cells which include both vascular smooth muscle cells and pericytes (4, 18). Thus, given that adipocytes and vasculature develop in close association with one another, it has been suggested that mural cells resident to adipose tissues can undergo a phenotypic switch to become adipocyte progenitor cells capable of differentiating into adipocytes (4). In a developmental context, it is posited that during childhood and early adulthood the number of mature adipocytes in the body becomes fixed; however, it is well documented that adipocytes turn over in which old adipocytes die and new adipocytes arise owing to adipogenic differentiation. For example, among humans, as many as 8% of all subcutaneous adipocytes turn over each year (4). Expounding on *in vivo* adipogenesis in states of obesity, Rosen and Spiegelman emphasize that new adipocyte formation is not the primary driver of obesity itself, but is rather a consequence of the body's need to store excess calories due to overnutrition or diminished energy expenditure (4). Correspondingly, in the obese state, adipose tissue remodeling is characterized by both hyperplasia (increased number of adipocytes as a result of enhanced adipogenesis) and hypertrophy (increased adipocyte size attributed to lipid droplet expansion) (4). Although numerous independent reports have shown that adipocytes are derived from mesenchymal stem cells, Gavin and colleagues reported that high-fat feeding in

mice results in the scenario where stores of mesenchymal adipocyte progenitor cells can become diminished due to enhanced rates of *in vivo* adipogenesis and, in response, new adipocytes can arise from bone marrow hematopoietic stem cells (21). It is unclear whether hematopoietic stem cell-derived adipocytes are functionally aberrant regarding their insulin sensitivity and ability to synthesize/catabolize lipids, or if they otherwise contribute to pathologic remodeling of white adipose tissues. In states of metabolic or physical stress, including obesity and trauma, a process referred to as "adipocyte mesenchymal transition" (AMT) has been shown to contribute to fibrotic, pathologic remodeling of adipose tissues (22, 23). AMT is facilitated by fibrotic stimuli (mechanical stress, YAP signaling, TGFB1 signaling, etc.) where adipocytes first lose adipogenic gene expression, thus facilitating their de-differentiation to preadipocytes which are subsequently reprogrammed to multipotent mesenchymal progenitor cells capable of differentiating to myofibroblasts (*i*.*e*., contractile fibroblasts that express alpha smooth muscle actin) (22, 23). Interestingly, evidence suggests AMT is a bi-directional process whereby myofibroblasts can be reverted back to adipocytes (22, 23). On the whole, the use of *in vivo* lineage tracing technologies will aid in a more complete understanding of discrete adipogenic lineages, including the cellular origins of adipocytes in various organs and tissues, as well as an enhanced comprehension of how adipogenic lineages contribute to healthy versus pathologic adipose tissue remodeling commensurate to their role in governing adipocyte formation and function. Accordingly, the following subsections provide an overview of known signaling pathways and factors that regulate the process of white adipocyte formation.



**Figure 1**. **Localization of adipogenic progenitors within white adipose tissues**. Adipocytes are derived from mesenchymal stem cells. Within white adipose tissues, mesenchymal stem cells reside in the reticular interstitium, which is an anatomically distinct, fluid-filled compartment possessing a collagen-rich network of extracellular matrix. Mesenchymal stem cells undergo adipogenic lineage commitment to become adipocyte progenitor cells (*i*.*e*., preadipocytes), which are capable of undergoing terminal adipogenic differentiation into adipocytes. Adipocyte progenitor cells occupy the highly vascularized adipocyte compartment, which is separate from the reticular interstitium, and are positioned between adipocytes and adjacent to vascular adventitia (as also depicted in the inset). Adipocyte turnover, in which old adipocytes die and new adipocytes arise owing to the differentiation of adipocyte progenitor cells, is a key facet of maintaining insulin-responsive adipocytes within white adipose tissues.

### **1.1.3 Commitment of progenitor cells to the adipogenic lineage**

Preceding the adipogenic differentiation of preadipocytes into adipocytes (*i*.e., adipogenesis), multipotent progenitor cells first "commit" to the adipogenic lineage and thus acquire the cellular machinery to undergo adipogenesis. Although it has been recently demonstrated that certain progenitor cells derived from hematopoietic stem cells are capable of committing to the adipogenic lineage, particularly under obesogenic conditions (21), this subsection focuses on the commitment of mesenchymal stem cells to the white adipogenic lineage.

There are several known mechanisms describing the process by which PAX7:MYF5 mesenchymal stem cells undergo white adipogenic lineage commitment. For example, bone morphogenetic protein (BMP) 2 and BMP4 both positively regulate the adipogenic lineage commitment of mesenchymal stem cells (5, 24). BMPs are members of the TGFB superfamily known to bind several bone morphogenetic protein receptors, including BMPR1 and BMPR2, which phosphorylate the R-SMADs (*e.g.*, SMAD1/5/8) that, in turn, dimerize and subsequently complex with the co-SMAD, SMAD4, to undergo nuclear translocation (24). Such R-SMAD/co-SMAD heterotrimeric complexes interact with nuclear co-repressors and co-activators to regulate gene transcription (5). In the context of adipogenic lineage commitment, BMP2 and BMP4 have been shown to positively regulate cytoskeletal- and extracellular matrix-associated factors, including lysyl oxidase and translationally controlled tumor protein (TCTP), which function to disrupt the F-actin cytoskeleton and promote a more rounded cell shape (5, 25). Moreover, separate genetic knockdown of either protein-lysine 6-oxidase, TCTP, or SMAD4 attenuated mesenchymal stem cell adipogenic lineage commitment induced by BMP2 or BMP4, while overexpression of constitutively active BMP receptors promoted lineage commitment even in the absence of BMP2 or BMP4 (5). By activating the SMAD1/5/8 complexes, BMP2 and BMP4

have also been shown to enhance adipogenic gene expression in mesenchymal progenitor cells, including C/EBP beta, C/EBP alpha, and PPAR-gamma (5).

Relatedly, Bowers and Lane have demonstrated that WNT signaling acts upstream of BMP4 to enhance adipogenic lineage commitment of mesenchymal stem cells (26). WNTs are secreted glycoproteins and serve as ligands for the frizzled receptor family in conjunction with LDL-related receptor-5 or -6 (LRP5/6) coreceptors to activate canonical WNT signaling, thus promoting the nuclear localization of Catenin beta-1 (CTNB1) where it binds T-cell factor/lymphoid-enhancing factor (TCF/LEF) promoters (5, 26). In the absence of WNT signaling, CTNB1 is phosphorylated by GSK3B and embedded in a destruction complex consisting of GSK3B, axin, and adenomatous polyposis coli, whereby phospho-CTNB1 is targeted for ubiquitination and proteasomal degradation (26). The R-spondins are also known to activate WNT signaling, of which Bowers and Lane purport that R-spondin-2 and -3 stimulate canonical WNT signaling to drive BMP4 expression in mesenchymal stem cells, which thus positively regulates SMAD1/5/8 signaling to enhance adipogenic gene expression therein (5). On the other hand, Hedgehog (HH) signaling negatively regulates the adipogenic lineage commitment of mesenchymal stem cells (5, 25). HH signaling involves the activation of Protein patched homolog 1 (PTC1) receptors by Sonic hedgehog (SHH), Indian hedgehog (IHH), or Desert hedgehog (DHH), thus stimulating the G protein-coupled receptor (GPCR) homolog, Smoothened (SMO), resulting in the nuclear localization of the GLI family of transcription factors (27). Activation of HH signaling in mesenchymal stem cells has been shown to enhance the gene expression of GLI1, GLI2, and GLI3 which, in turn, suppress adipogenic gene expression and promote osteogenic lineage commitment. Congruently, mesenchymal stem cells

undergoing adipogenic lineage commitment demonstrate downregulated GLI1, GLI2, and GLI3 gene expression (5).

On the whole, the commitment of mesenchymal stem cells to the adipogenic lineage is marked by changes in gene expression as well as morphological changes to the cell, namely the disruption of the F-actin cytoskeleton and the acquisition of a round cell shape phenotype. While HH signaling and other determinants inhibit adipogenic lineage commitment, there is strong evidence to suggest that BMP2/4 signaling enhances adipogenic lineage commitment commensurate to the positive regulation of adipogenic gene expression in mesenchymal stem cells, thus giving rise to adipocyte progenitor cells which are capable of undergoing terminal adipogenic differentiation into adipocytes. The mechanisms underpinning the regulation of adipogenic gene expression in adipocyte progenitor cells is further discussed in the next subsection.

#### **1.1.4 Terminal adipogenic differentiation**

The commitment of mesenchymal stem cells to the adipogenic lineage yields adipocyte progenitor cells (*i*.*e*., preadipocytes) that possess the capacity to undergo terminal adipogenic differentiation. Adipogenesis is therefore the cellular process of preadipocyte-to-adipocyte differentiation which gives rise to mature, lipid-laden white adipocytes (*Figure 2*). To date, the regulation of adipogenesis, including changes in the gene expression and cell cycle profiles of the differentiating preadipocyte, has been most extensively characterized *in vitro* with the use of transformed cell lines such as 3T3-L1 and 3T3-F442A preadipocytes, in addition to primary cells (*e*.*g*., mouse embryonic fibroblasts, stromal vascular cells harvested from white adipose tissues, etc.). *In vitro* adipogenesis can be achieved over the course of about 6-10 days through a process

of chemically stimulating such adipocyte progenitor cells with insulin, IBMX (3-isobutyl-1 methylxanthine), and dexamethasone. Respectively, this chemical cocktail serves to activate insulin/insulin growth factor receptors, inhibit phosphodiesterase activity which thus enhances cAMP-PKA signaling, and positively regulate glucocorticoid pathways, the implications of which are discussed below in more detail. Glitazones, which are a class of small molecules known to stimulate PPAR-gamma transcriptional activity, are often included as part of this chemical cocktail to enhance the overall rate of adipogenesis *in vitro* (4, 5).

Preadipocytes stimulated with insulin, IBMX, and dexamethasone will initially experience cell cycle arrest for a period of about 16-20 hours, followed by reentry into the cell cycle and several rounds of mitosis (commonly referred to as mitotic clonal expansion in adipogenesis literature). Mitotic clonal expansion at this juncture of the adipogenesis program is requisite since forced inhibition of DNA replication or blocking cell cycle progression has been shown to prevent preadipocyte differentiation (5). The combined application of insulin, IBMX, and dexamethasone also serves to positively regulate the adipogenic transcription factor C/EBP beta early in the adipogenesis program. Moreover, IBMX, owing to its suppression of phosphodiesterases, enhances cAMP-PKA signaling which activates cAMP response elementbinding protein (CREB). The phosphorylation of CREB by PKA thus positively regulates the transcriptional activity of CREB which increases *CEBPB* gene expression, as well as *CEBPD* gene expression, which is another adipogenic transcription factor upregulated early in the adipogenesis program (5). On the other hand, the interplay of insulin and dexamethasone functions to enhance the DNA binding activity of C/EBP beta. As elucidated by Kim and colleagues, dexamethasone increases the gene expression of the Ras family small G protein, RASD1 (Ras-related dexamethasone induced 1), which, quite intriguingly, couples insulin
growth factor 1 (IGF-1) receptor signaling to map kinase (MAPK) (28). In the presence of RASD1, insulin is thus able to stimulate an IGF-1 receptor-SHC/GRB2-MAPK axis of signaling. Active MAPK, in turn, phosphorylates threonine residue 188 of C/EBP beta (5). While the insulin receptor can also function to enhance MAPK signaling, particularly through SHC-GRB2 complex activation induced by insulin receptor substrates, the insulin receptor itself is maintained at low basal levels of expression in preadipocytes (28).

Relative to the treatment of preadipocytes with insulin, IBMX, and dexamethasone, phosphorylation of C/EBP beta by MAPK occurs approximately 4 hours following chemical stimulation (5). This can be explained on the basis that marked *RASD1* gene expression has been observed several hours after the application of dexamethasone in culture (29). 16-20 hours following chemical stimulation with insulin, IBMX, and dexamethasone, C/EBP beta phosphorylation by glycogen synthase kinase-3 beta (GSK3B) has been observed at threonine residue 179 or serine residue 184 (5). To date, this relative delay in C/EBP phosphorylation by GSK3B *in vitro* has not been addressed in the literature. GSK3B is a constitutively active kinase stemming from autophosphorylation at tyrosine residue 216 (30), while phosphorylation of GSK3B at serine residue 9 by AKT and other kinases, for example, has been shown to inhibit its kinase activity (31). Furthermore, Kim and colleagues demonstrated that, although RASD1 couples IGF-1 receptor signaling to the MAPK signaling pathway, RASD1 does not diminish the ability of insulin to activate the IGF-1 receptor or enhance PI3K/AKT effector signaling, including the phosphorylation of GSK3B at serine residue 9 (28). It is plausible that, following chemical treatment of preadipocytes with insulin, IBMX, and dexamethasone *in vitro*, GSK3B is initially inactivated and is only thus able to regain appreciable kinase activity hours following the onset of chemical treatment, presumably when insulin-PI3K-AKT signaling has significantly subsided.

Nevertheless, dual phosphorylation at threonine residue 188 and threonine residue 179/serine residue 184 by MAPK and GSK3B, respectively, is required for C/EBP beta DNA binding activity (5, 32). Given the finding that there is a more than 12-hour lag in MAPK- versus GSK3B-induced C/EBP beta phosphorylation based on *in vitro* investigations of adipogenic signaling, phospho-C/EBP beta thus displays a high degree of protein stability. C/EBP delta is also a direct substrate of GSK3B which phosphorylates its serine residue 167 (33). The phosphorylation of both C/EBP beta and C/EBP delta induces conformational changes that promote their respective homo- and heterodimerization, and thus the acquisition of DNA binding function (5). At this juncture of the adipogenesis program, preadipocytes are still arrested in the cell cycle; however, heterochromatin centromeric satellite DNA possesses C/EBP regulatory elements thus allowing the binding of C/EBP beta and C/EBP delta which, in turn, facilitates chromatin remodeling (34), cell cycle reentry, and preadipocyte mitotic clonal expansion (5, 28). RASD1 expression has also been demonstrated to be required for the G1-S transition of the cell cycle early in the adipogenesis program (28), data which further support the essential role of C/EBP beta as both a regulator of the cell cycle and adipogenic gene expression. The genes for the adipogenic transcription factors C/EBP alpha and PPAR-gamma also possess C/EBP regulatory elements and, in this manner, C/EBP beta and C/EBP delta function to positively regulate *CEBPA* and *PPARG* gene expression (34, 35). Unlike C/EBP beta and C/EBP delta, the binding of C/EBP alpha to centromeric satellite DNA produces an antimitotic effect such that preadipocytes in the advancing stages of the adipogenesis program once again undergo cell cycle arrest (34). However, relative to the onset of preadipocyte mitotic clonal expansion, C/EBP beta

and C/EBP delta are initially unable to enhance *CEBPA* gene expression due to the inhibitory binding of SP1 (Specificity protein 1) to the C/EBP alpha gene promoter (34). Following several rounds of mitotic clonal expansion, SP1 expression is downregulated permitting significant transactivation of *CEBPA* gene expression by C/EBP beta and C/EBP delta, and thus the onset of cell cycle arrest given the antimitotic activity of C/EBP alpha (5). Moreover, when C/EBP alpha and PPAR-gamma are more appreciably expressed, it has been suggested that C/EBP alpha is principally responsible for maintaining the active gene expression of both *CEBPA* and *PPARG* via transactivation of C/EBP regulatory elements contained within the proximal promoter region of each gene (34).

As with C/EBP beta and C/EBP delta, several phosphoacceptors within C/EBP alpha are substrates for GSK3B (*e*.*g*., threonine residues 222 and 226), though the functional consequences of such phosphorylation events have not been investigated (36). C/EBP alpha homodimerization (in addition to heterodimerization with C/EBP beta or C/EBP delta) lends DNA binding activity in which the activation of *PPARG* gene expression, in particular, further enhances the expression of lipogenic genes, including perilipins and fatty acid-binding protein 4 (FABP4) (5), the functions of which are discussed in greater detail in the previous section (*1.1.1 The adipocyte and adipose tissue landscape*). At this stage of the adipogenesis program, when the expression and activity of C/EBP alpha and PPAR-gamma abound, lipogenic factors are expressed at greater levels and function to equip the developing, cell cycle arrested adipocyte with the necessary cellular machinery to synthesize, store, and metabolize lipids. Based on *in vitro* methods of adipogenesis, while dexamethasone and IBMX are omitted during the later stages of the adipogenesis program, insulin is continually applied to cells at intermittent intervals (*e*.*g*., every second or third day) given its ability to positively regulate *de novo* lipogenesis (5), and as

discussed in the previous section herein (*1.1.1 The adipocyte and adipose tissue landscape*). Taken together, over the span of 6-10 days in culture, preadipocytes can be differentiated into mature, lipid-laden white adipocytes.

From studies implementing *in vitro* models of adipogenesis, investigators have discerned critical aspects of the adipogenesis program, including temporal patterns of adipogenic and lipogenic gene expression, as well as the mechanisms underpinning the regulation of those genes. The gene expression choreography of adipogenesis has also been investigated *in vivo* using reporter mouse models, flow cytometry, single-cell RNA sequencing, and other methods to delineate cell populations among adipose tissues that define the adipogenic lineage (2, 18). From these investigations, mesenchymal stem cells advancing in the adipogenic lineage have been shown to acquire adipogenic gene expression, while preadipocytes more advanced in the adipogenic lineage possess significant adipogenic gene expression including *CEBPA* and *PPARG* (2, 18). While refined lineage tracing investigations are paramount for better understanding the regulation of adipogenesis *in vivo*, such corroborating adipogenic gene expression data highlight the relevance and utility of implementing *in vitro* methods to study novel aspects of adipogenic signaling in concert with animal models.

Complimentary *in vitro* and *in vivo* approaches to studying adipogenic signaling has also aided in characterizing negative regulators of adipogenesis in part by defining how these factors influence the lineage commitment of pluripotent mesenchymal stem cells (37). In addition to the adipogenic lineage, mesenchymal stem cells can undergo lineage commitment towards other cell fates including but not limited to chondrocytes, osteoblasts, endothelial cells, and myocytes (37). In this context, Kruppel-like factor 2 (KLF2) has been shown to enhance osteoblast differentiation while its inhibition of the C/EBP alpha gene promoter negatively regulates

adipogenesis (5). Moreover, while canonical WNT signaling functions to enhance the adipogenic lineage commitment of mesenchymal stem cells in addition to preadipocyte mitotic clonal expansion (thus increasing the total pool of preadipocytes available to differentiate into adipocytes), WNT10B, for example, suppresses terminal adipogenic differentiation by inhibiting *PPARG* gene expression (5) and promotes osteoblast differentiation (38). Similarly, while it has been shown that TGF-β superfamily members BMP2 and BMP4 promote mesenchymal stem cell adipogenic lineage commitment, the TGFB1 pathway inhibits adipogenic gene expression while promoting osteoblast differentiation and overall bone formation (5, 39). Furthermore, Li and colleagues have investigated the role of the zinc finger transcription factor, GATA-binding factor 2 (GATA2), among mesenchymal lineages, and revealed from the use of transgenic mouse models harboring either a mesenchymal stem cell-, adipocyte-, or osteoblast-specific deletion in *Gata2* how GATA2 positively regulates both the adipogenic and osteogenic lineage commitment of mesenchymal stem cells, yet negatively regulates adipogenesis and osteoblast differentiation (40). These data suggest that GATA2 functions to enhance the number of adipocyte and osteocyte progenitor cells within local microenvironments *in vivo*. Transcription factor SOX-9 (SOX9) has also been identified as transcriptional regulator of mesenchymal lineages. For example, SOX9 expression is required for chondrocyte formation (41), while it has also been shown to inhibit adipogenesis (2). Regarding the latter, the Sul group first identified the antiadipogenic function of SOX9 by determining that it is a PREF1 (preadipocyte factor 1) effector protein (42). Earlier reports demonstrated that SOX9 directly inhibits adipogenic gene promoters (42), while a more recent investigation further highlighted that the direct SOX9 effector, meis homeobox 1 (MEIS1), also inhibits the gene promoters of C/EBP beta, C/EBP delta, C/EBP alpha, and PPAR-gamma (2). Moreover, Gulyaeva and colleagues showed that downregulation

of *Sox9* gene expression in mice is required for adipogenesis *in vivo*, and demonstrated that subcutaneously implanted preadipocytes bearing a null mutation in *Sox9* undergo an enhanced rate of adipogenesis *in situ* versus implanted preadipocytes possessing wildtype *Sox9* gene expression (2). Therefore, these studies highlight the physiological relevance of SOX9 in the regulation of *in vivo* adipogenesis. To this end, the ability of CTHRC1 to regulate SOX9 expression and its anti-adipogenic activity is further discussed in the proceeding sections herein.



**Figure 2. Transcriptional regulation of adipogenic lineage commitment and differentiation**. Mesenchymal stem cells define the earliest adipocyte progenitor cell population. Bone morphogenetic proteins 2 and 4 (BMP2/4) positively regulate mesenchymal stem cell adipogenic lineage commitment by enhancing the basal expression levels of adipogenic genes including C/EBP beta and C/EBP delta. C/EBP beta and C/EBP delta promote mitotic clonal expansion of preadipocytes, and function to transactivate the expression levels of C/EBP alpha and PPARgamma. C/EBP alpha induces cell cycle arrest in the latter stages of the adipogenesis program

and robustly enhances the gene expression levels of PPAR-gamma which, in turn, positively regulates the gene expression of lipogenic factors that equip the developing adipocyte with the requisite machinery to synthesize, store, and metabolize lipids.

### **1.2 CTHRC1 structure and function**

Collagen triple helix repeat-containing protein 1 (CTHRC1) is a secreted protein discovered by Dr. Volkhard Lindner and colleagues at Maine Medical Center Research Institute (currently MaineHealth Institute for Research). This introductory subsection will focus on the discovery of the *CTHRC1* gene, with an emphasis on the molecular characterization of CTHRC1, as well as established features of its biochemistry and signaling.

### **1.2.1 Identification of the CTHRC1 gene**

The genesis of the CTHRC1 story is rooted in basic biology research focused on vascular remodeling. As conveyed in the seminal publication on CTHRC1, the recurrent clinical failure of angioplasty procedures secondary to constrictive arterial remodeling led Dr. Lindner and colleagues to investigate potential differentially expressed genes in normal versus ballooninjured arteries (43). Remarkably, in a foregone era of genetics preceding the publication of the Human Genome Project in 2001, the novel gene *CTHRC1* was discovered in the late 1990s from a balloon catheter injury model of rat carotid arteries (43). *Cthrc1* was first identified by automated DNA sequence analysis of rat subtractive hybridization cDNA libraries of normal versus balloon-injured arteries. Human *CTHRC1* was subsequently cloned using cDNA libraries generated from cultured human smooth muscle cells. In this primary report, *Cthrc1* mRNA was not detected in normal rat carotid arteries. However, significant *Cthrc1* mRNA levels were

detected 4 days and 8 days following balloon catheterization in rat (43), thus underpinning the nuanced, transient nature of *Cthrc1* gene expression that is a focus of the following section. It was further appreciated in this primary publication that CTHRC1 boasts at least 500 million years of conservation in the evolutionary record and is a highly conserved gene among vertebrate species (44). Interestingly, Leclere and colleagues later reported the existence of several *Cthrc1* paralog genes in most nonvertebrate species, and posited from phylogenetic analysis that the genesis of the *Cthrc1* gene likely occurred over 750 million years ago in the last common metazoan ancestor as a result of a novel gene fusion event of two preexisting domains: a collagen triple helix repeat (CTHR) domain and a C1q-like domain (44). To this end, the following sections will further describe the molecular and structural features of CTHRC1, as well as its gene expression trends.

### **1.2.2 The molecular structure of CTHRC1**

In the primary publication on CTHRC1, Dr. Lindner and colleagues characterized that CTHRC1 is a secreted protein and possesses a N-terminal hydrophobic signal peptide, a short CTHR domain containing 12 GXY repeats, followed by a highly conserved C-terminal domain (*Figure 3*). When this first report was published in 2005, the C-terminal domain of CTHRC1 was not known to possess sequence homology to other protein domains based on BLAST searches of primary protein structures (43). The initial molecular characterization of CTHRC1 also suggested that it is N-glycosylated and capable of trimerization given its CTHR domain which, itself, is susceptible to collagenase digestion (43). Moreover, CTHRC1 possesses 10 cysteine residues (of which 8 cysteine residues are located in the C-terminal domain) (45). By Western blot analysis, secreted CTHRC1 was shown to run as an apparent dimer and trimer under non-

reducing chemical conditions, and as a monomer under reducing conditions at a molecular weight of approximately 28 kDa (43). Intriguingly, this seminal report further highlighted that the rat pulmonary artery smooth muscle cell line, PAC1, expresses endogenous CTHRC1, in which Western blot analysis revealed two distinct CTHRC1 fragments approximately 16 and 18 kDa in weight (46). As such, plasmin was purported to cleave a putative propeptide region thus resulting in an N-terminally truncated CTHRC1 species capable of inhibiting collagen matrix deposition (46). Recently, the presence of a propeptide within CTHRC1 was confirmed (47).

More than twenty years after the discovery of the *CTHRC1* gene, Leclere and colleagues published the first in-depth phylogenetic analysis on the evolution of *Cthrc1* genes, and therein demonstrated how the sequence evolutionary rate of *Cthrc1* markedly decreased beginning with the gnathostome lineage (*i*.*e*., "jawed vertebrates") (44). Regarding the evolutionary conservation of the C-terminal domain of *Cthrc1*, in particular, and especially among the gnathostome lineage, Leclere and colleagues used three-dimensional alignment modeling softwares (*e*.*g*., HHpred) and determined that the C-terminal domain possesses striking structural homology to the globular complement component 1q (C1q) superfamily domain. Congruent with the authors of the primary publication on CTHRC1, who suggested that CTHRC1 is likely not a "structural" collagen-like protein based, in part, on their observation of its transient gene expression patterns (44), Leclere and colleagues posited that the highly conserved C1q-like domain within CTHRC1 could regulate key aspects of its molecular function, while its short CTHR domain, which possesses only 12 GXY repeats, contrasts considerably to bona fide structural collagen species whose CTHR domains typically contain hundreds of GXY repeats that facilitate vast triple helical formation.

Similar to CTHRC1, Complement C1q tumor necrosis factor-related proteins (CTRPs) are secreted factors possessing a variable N-terminal domain, followed by a short CTHR domain adjoining a globular C-terminal domain (48). CTRPs exude both anti-inflammatory and insulinsensitizing effects (48), as was shown for the adipose tissue secreted factor, adiponectin. While adiponectin possesses hormone functionality and can bind to several known cell surface receptors, it is also characterized by non-canonical endocrine function, including its ability to bind anionic phospholipid and sphingolipid species present in liposomes, low-density lipoproteins, cell membranes, and plasma (48). Critically, mutagenic deletion of its C1q-like Cterminal domain prevents adiponectin from binding lipids (48). In further evaluating the hormone-independent functions of adiponectin, Ye and colleagues contend that, by virtue of its C1q-like domain, adiponectin targets ectopic lipids (*e*.*g*., low-density lipoproteins, membranous debris, etc.) within vessels and extracellular spaces and shuttles them to phagocytes (48). Itself, C1q is best characterized in innate immunity as the initiator of the classical complement cascade, and is capable of binding the Fc region of most immunoglobulin G (IgG) subclasses (48, 49). Congruently, C1q is also known to bind lipid species, including cardiolipin and phosphatidylserine, thus facilitating the opsonization of apoptotic cells and microbes (48). C1q, as well as other protein species harboring C1q-like structure, nevertheless display a diversity of functions and molecular activities. Regarding CTHRC1, it is noteworthy that its purported C1qlike C-terminal domain comprises more than half of its molecular composition (44). While future investigations are required to functionally characterize the C-terminal domain of CTHRC1, the motif is nonetheless remarkably conserved among vertebrate species. On the whole, Leclere and colleagues observed that the *Cthrc1* gene is highly conserved among vertebrates in a syntenic block that includes *Frizzled6* (*Fzd6*) (44). Intriguingly, CTHRC1 has been shown to bind the

extracellular domain of Fzd6 to drive planar cell polarity signaling (50), suggesting that the *Cthrc1*-*Fzd6* genomic linkage is functionally important.



**Figure 3**. **Structure of collagen triple helix repeat-containing protein 1 (CTHRC1)**.

Graphical illustration of the functional domains of human CTHRC1. CTHRC1 contains a proline-rich, hydrophobic N-terminal signal peptide (amino acids 1-30) which is cleaved during the transport of the nascent CTHRC1 molecule to the lumen of the endoplasmic reticulum. Recently, it was shown that CTHRC1 possesses a propeptide region (amino acids 33-48) (47). The cleavage of the propeptide results in a truncated form of CTHRC1 with enhanced biological activity (47). CTHRC1 is also comprised of a short collagen-like domain (amino acids 57-90) consisting of twelve G-X-Y repeats that enables the protein to form trimers. By Western blot analysis, secreted CTHRC1 runs principally as a homodimer and homotrimer under nonreducing chemical conditions, though higher molecular weight complexes are observed (*Figure 4B*). On the other hand, Western blot analysis under chemically reducing conditions reveals that secreted CTHRC1 runs as a monomer at an approximate molecular weight of 28 kDa (*Figure 4B*). CTHRC1 contains ten cysteine residues, eight of which are located in the globular Cterminal domain. CTHRC1 can also undergo *N*-glycosylation at asparagine 188 (a posttranslational modification which has been reported to stabilize CTHRC1 and decrease its overall rate of protein turnover) (51). The C-terminal domain of CTHRC1 spans amino acids 91-243,

and is not known to share structural homology with other protein domains. However, based on 3D protein modeling, it was recently suggested that the C-terminal domain of CTHRC1 is similar in structure to the globular component 1q (C1q) superfamily domain, which includes secreted factors like adiponectin and other complement C1q tumor necrosis factor-related protein (CTRP) family members.

### **1.2.3 CTHRC1 expression trends**

In the seminal publication on CTHRC1, Dr. Lindner and colleagues first identified that *Cthrc1* is a gene whose expression in adventitial fibroblasts and intimal smooth muscle cells of rat arteries is transiently increased following injury via balloon angioplasty (43). At the protein level, CTHRC1 was expressed post injury in the cellular compartment of arterial fibroblast and smooth muscle cells, while neither *Cthrc1* mRNA nor protein expression were detected in rat arteries prior to vascular injury. In this report, exogenous application of either BMP4 or TGFB1 to NIH3T3 mouse fibroblast cultures significantly enhanced endogenous *Cthrc1* mRNA levels *in vitro*, and the recombinant overexpression of CTHRC1 in PAC1 rat smooth muscle cells markedly decreased the mRNA expression of type 1 collagen alpha 1 (*Col1a1*) (43). Of note, in the vascular wound healing process, TGFB1 signaling positively regulates collagen synthesis and deposition which, in turn, enhances adventitial smooth muscle cell proliferation, typically resulting in luminal narrowing of the remodeling vasculature (*i*.*e*., constrictive vascular remodeling) (43). In a follow-on investigation assessing the role of CTHRC1 in vascular remodeling, in which ischemic injury was induced by ligating mouse carotid arteries in wildtype versus transgenic *Cthrc1*-overexpressing mice, it was determined that transgenic mice displayed significantly decreased carotid artery intimal area, as well as markedly reduced intimal smooth

muscle cell proliferation within the injured vessel (52). It was also determined in this report that CTHRC1 significantly decreased the phosphorylation of SMAD2/3, suggesting that the effect of CTHRC1 on vascular remodeling could pertain to its negative regulation of TGFB1 signaling and corresponding reduction in the expression of fibrillar collagen species, including type 1 collagen (52). The relationship between CTHRC1 and TGFB1 signaling events is therefore dichotomous: while TGF-b signaling drives *Cthrc1* gene expression, CTHRC1 can suppress the activities of TGFB1 effector proteins, including SMAD2/3, in an apparent regulatory feedback loop (52).

The initial discovery that *Cthrc1* gene expression is transiently increased secondary to vascular injury, and is thus potentially integral in wound healing and tissue remodeling processes, next prompted several independent investigations of *Cthrc1* expression trends during embryonic and early postnatal development in mice. Durmus and colleagues first published in 2006 that *Cthrc1* is expressed in the notochord at embryonic day (E) 8.5, based on in situ hybridization analyses, and becomes expressed in somites by E9.5, as well as in the hindbrainmidbrain junction and otic placode of the developing head at this latter time point (53). At E14.5, marked *Cthrc1* mRNA expression was detected in chondrocytes and developing bone (including skull, ribs, and vertebrae), as well as in the developing kidney. Based on immunostaining, CTHRC1 protein expression was detected in the visceral endoderm at E6.5, and in the notochord and neural tube at E12.5. At E14.5, CTHRC1 protein expression was localized throughout ventricular and atrial myocardia, as well as in the skull, ribs, and vertebrae of the developing skeleton system, thus congruent with the aforementioned bone in situ hybridization data (53). Also, CTHRC1 was detected in the chondrocytes of long bones, in addition to the surrounding perichondrium and periosteum, as well as within the mineralized bone matrix of adult mice (53).

Constitutive expression of CTHRC1 in osteocytes and osteoblasts is responsible for its secretion into circulation (54), while constitutive CTHRC1 expression has also been detected by certain neurons in the brain (55).

### **1.2.4 The effect of CTHRC1 on signaling pathways and networks**

Pioneer vascular biology investigations published in the mid 2000s highlighted the discovery of CTHRC1 and how it is markedly upregulated in vasculature following injury , where it was shown to restrict the deposition of collagen extracellular matrix by suppressing SMAD2/3 phosphorylation, which corresponded with accelerated wound healing given enhanced migration of smooth muscle cells and fibroblasts (43, 46, 52). CTHRC1 has also been shown to regulate WNT signaling in cancer (56). In adenocarcinoma, CTHRC1 enhanced the nuclear translocation of CTNB1, while in ovarian cancer, CTHRC1 promoted epithelial-to-mesenchymal (EMT) transition through the WNT/CTNB1 effector, protein snail (56). CTHRC1 secreted from osteoclasts has also been shown to drive WNT/CTNB1 signaling in osteoblasts resulting in enhanced basic fibroblast growth factor expression and the development of cancerous bone lesions (57). Additionally, it has been reported that CTNB1can bind the *CTHRC1* promoter to enhance transcription, while CTHRC1 *N*-glycosylation can stabilize CTHRC1 protein expression in oral squamous cell carcinoma (51). On the other hand, CTHRC1 overexpression in both HEK293T and gastrointestinal stromal tumor cells suppressed canonical WNT signaling but enhanced noncanonical WNT/planar cell polarity (PCP) signaling (50, 58).

CTHRC1 has been shown to interact with extracellular components of canonical and noncanonical WNT signaling (50, 59, 60). Co-immunoprecipitation studies using HEK293T cells revealed the binding of CTHRC1 to FZD3, FZD5, FZD6, ROR2, WNT3A, WNT5A, and

WNT11 (50). Unlike full-length CTHRC1, a CTHRC1 mutant lacking the C-terminal domain was unable to bind FZD6, ROR2, WNT3A, WNT5A, and WNT11 (50). In cervical, pancreatic, and urothelial cancers, CTHRC1 has also been shown to drive PCP signaling (57). In human umbilical vein endothelial cells, CTHRC1 was reported to phosphorylate ERK and JNK by activating PCP signaling (57). In both HEK293T cells and primary gastrointestinal stromal tumor cells, CTHRC1 was shown to enhance the levels of Rho-GTP and Rac1-GTP in a PCPdependent manner (45). Interestingly, the aforementioned CTHRC1 mutant, which lacks the Cterminal domain, was unable to enhance the levels of Rho-GTP or Rac1-GTP, suggesting that the C-terminal domain of CTHRC1 functions to regulate PCP signaling (45). In models of ovarian cancer, CTHRC1 has also been shown to regulate integrin signaling and the activation of FAK1 (Focal adhesion kinase 1) thus enhancing cancer cell adhesion, migration, and invasion (45).

### **1.2.5 CTHRC1 regulates body composition**

CTHRC1 has also been shown to regulate body composition. Stohn and colleagues determined that *Cthrc1*-null mice are characterized by significantly increased adiposity in both subcutaneous and visceral adipose tissues in comparison to age-matched wildtype mice (55). *Cthrc1*-null mice also revealed decreased lean mass and energy expenditure in comparison to wildtype organisms. Moreover, transgenic mice overexpressing human *CTHRC1* had significantly decreased adipocyte size and adiposity in relation to wildtype controls. Stohn and colleagues further demonstrated that CTHRC1 suppresses *in vitro* adipogenesis. Primary stromal vascular cells were isolated from the inguinal white adipose tissue (iWAT) of wildtype or age-matched *Cthrc1* null mice. Upon chemical induction of adipogenic differentiation *in vitro*, stromal cells derived from *Cthrc1*-null mice had comparatively enhanced adipocyte differentiation and maturation.

These data were recapitulated using 3T3-L1 preadipocyte cells, in which adenoviral overexpression of human *CTHRC1* significantly inhibited adipogenic differentiation based on decreased levels of lipid accumulation (55). Collectively, these data support that CTHRC1 could restrict adiposity by enhancing voluntary energy expenditure and regulating adipocyte differentiation.

### **CHAPTER 2: MATERIALS AND METHODS**

### **2.1 Adenoviral transduction and conditioned media preparation**

3T3-L1 cells, originally from Zen-Bio (Cat. # LIP-1-L1-F), were seeded at passage 14 in 15 cm dishes (CytoOne; CC7682-3614) containing DMEM (high glucose, without sodium pyruvate; Sigma Aldrich; D5796) supplemented with 4% fetal bovine serum (v/v; Hyclone; SH30396.03), 6% bovine calf serum (v/v; Cytiva; SH30072.03), and 1x antibiotic-antimycotic solution (Gibco; 15240-062), which we refer to as full-serum DMEM. 3T3-L1 cells were grown in a 5%  $CO<sub>2</sub>$ atmosphere at 37˚C. Cells were transduced as described (55) with adenoviral vectors overexpressing either human *CTHRC1* or control  $\beta$ *–galactosidase* ( $\beta$ *gal*). Briefly, 8 hours following the onset of transduction, cells were washed twice with full-serum DMEM (8 mL per dish per wash), and then incubated for 15 hours in 22 mL of full-serum DMEM. Conditioned media were collected in 50 mL conical tubes and centrifuged at 450 x g for 3 minutes to pellet any detached cells, after which conditioned media supernatants were transferred to fresh 50 mL conical tubes for study and stored at 4˚C. The presence of recombinant human CTHRC1 in conditioned medium was confirmed by Western blot analysis, or by an established ELISA as described previously (55). From ELISA, we determined that the concentration of recombinant human CTHRC1 in undiluted conditioned medium is approximately 9-10 ng/mL. In this study, we evaluated the effect of human CTHRC1 conditioned medium at specific dilutions (methodology described below), corresponding to the following concentration range of recombinant human CTHRC1: 1/4 dilution (2.5 ng/mL); 1/12 dilution (800 pg/mL); 1/60 dilution (150 pg/mL).



**Figure 4**. **Assessment of CTHRC1 by immunoblotting**. 3T3-L1 cells were transduced with adenoviral vectors overexpressing either human *CTHRC1* (hCTHRC1) or control  $\beta$ – *galactosidase* (bgal) for a period of 15 hours. Afterwards, conditioned media were collected, and whole-cell lysates were prepared from the transduced cells. **A**) Immunoblotting of transduced whole-cell lysates run in the absence or presence of the reducing agent 2-mercaptoethanol (2 me). GTF2B served as the loading control. **B**) Immunoblotting of conditioned media run in the absence or presence of the reducing agent 2-mercaptoethanol (2-me). The presence of

recombinant human CTHRC1 in transduced whole-cell lysates and conditioned media was probed using a rabbit monoclonal antibody raised against the C-terminus of human CTHRC1 (clone Vli55).

### **2.2 Exogenous application of conditioned media and adipogenic differentiation**

3T3-L1 cells were grown and expanded in a sub-confluent manner in 10 cm dishes in full-serum DMEM. For study, 3T3-L1 cells were seeded at passage 11 in 24-well plates (TC24; CytoOne; CC7682-7524) at a density corresponding to 70% confluence in the presence of  $\beta$ gal or human CTHRC1 conditioned medium. Prior to the application of conditioned media to cells,  $\beta$ gal and human CTHRC1 conditioned media were first diluted in full-serum DMEM to specific final dilutions as indicated. Cells were suspended in freshly diluted conditioned media in 15 mL conical tubes and plated at a volume of 0.5 mL per TC24 well. After seeding, TC24 plates were vigorously agitated in all directions for several seconds every 30 minutes for a total period of 2 hours in order to prevent cells from clumping in the center of each well. In terms of a relative timeline, cells were seeded on Day -3, after which media were changed on a daily basis and replenished with freshly diluted  $\beta$ gal or human CTHRC1 conditioned medium at a volume of 0.5 mL per TC24 well. Freshly diluted βgal and human CTHRC1 conditioned media were also added on a daily basis during the six day period of chemically-stimulated adipogenesis. Beginning on Day 0, cells were treated with adipogenic differentiation induction cocktail including insulin (10 µg/mL, final; Sigma Aldrich; 19278), 3-isobutyl-1-methylxanthine (IBMX, 0.5 mM, final; Sigma Aldrich; 410957), and dexamethasone (1 µM, final; Tocris; 1126). The cocktail of insulin, IBMX, and dexamethasone was applied on Day 0, after which media were changed on Day 1 and replenished with freshly prepared insulin, IBMX, and dexamethasone. On Day 2 and Day 4, media were changed and replenished with insulin (10  $\mu$ g/mL, final). On Day 3 and Day 5, media were changed and replenished with only  $\beta$ gal or human CTHRC1 conditioned medium. In studies utilizing the Rac1 inhibitor, NSC 23766 (Tocris; 2161), and the Rhoassociated kinase inhibitor, Y-27632 (Tocris; 1254), these reagents were freshly added on a daily basis beginning at the moment of cell seeding on Day -3. For all experiments utilizing TC24 plates, each well contained a final volume of 0.5 mL.

### **2.3 Assessment of YAP or SOX9 nuclear localization**

3T3-L1 cells were seeded in triplicate on sterile, round 12 mm glass coverslips (Chemglass Life Sciences; CLS-1763-012) in TC24 plates in the presence of  $\beta$ gal or human CTHRC1 conditioned medium as described above. At the indicated timepoints, cells were fixed using 10% neutral formalin (Sigma Aldrich; F5554). Next, cells were washed twice in phosphate buffered saline (PBS) and blocked overnight at 4˚C in immunofluorescence blocking buffer consisting of PBS supplemented with 2% bovine serum albumin (w/v), 0.2% Tween 20 (v/v), 0.1% sodium azide (w/v), and  $0.2\%$  Triton X-100 (v/v). Following blocking, primary antibodies against YAP (Cell) Signaling Technology; Cat. # 14074) or SOX9 (Cell Signaling Technology; Cat. # 82630) were prepared at a 1/250 dilution in immunofluorescence blocking buffer and applied to coverslips overnight at 4˚C. The next day, cells were washed twice in PBS. Alexa Fluor 546 Phalloidin (Molecular Probes; A22283) and Alexa Fluor 488 chicken anti-rabbit antibody (Invitrogen; A21441) were each prepared at a 1/250 dilution in immunofluorescence blocking buffer, to which Hoechst 33342 (4  $\mu$ M; Thermo Fisher Scientific; 62249) was also added. This secondary antibody solution was applied to each coverslip for 1 hour at room temperature in darkness. Cells were then washed twice in PBS, after which each coverslip was inverted and embedded in

Vectashield Mounting Medium (Vector Laboratories, Inc.; H-1000), and secured in the center of a microscope slide (25 x 75 x 1 mm; VWR Scientific; 48312-705) with clear nail polish along the circumference of the coverslip. Confocal microscopy of the preparations was performed using the Leica SP8 microscope (Leica Microsystems) within the Histopathology and Microscopy Core Facility at MaineHealth Institute for Research.

### **2.4 Lentiviral-mediated RNA interference studies**

Passage 9 3T3-L1 cells were seeded in two 10 cm dishes at approximately 600,000 cells per dish in full-serum DMEM. 4 hours later, upon complete cell attachment, cells were transduced with lentiviral particles overexpressing either a shRNA construct targeting *Sox9* mRNA (*i*.*e*., shSOX9) or a non-targeting scrambled control shRNA construct (*i*.*e*., shSCR). shSOX9 and shSCR lentiviral plasmids were a kind gift from Dr. Robert Weinberg, and were originally prepared as described (61). Briefly, the following shRNA sequences were cloned in the pLKO.1 puro lentiviral plasmid vector: shSOX9 (CTCCACCTTCACTTACATGAA); shSCR (CCTAAGGTTAAGTCGCCCTCG). shSOX9 and shSCR lentiviruses were then generated at the Viral Vector Core Facility at MaineHealth Institute for Research. Lentiviral transduction was conducted by incubating the cells for 15 hours with 8 µg/mL of polybrene (Sigma Aldrich; TR-1003-G) plus respective lentiviral particles in 10 mL of full-serum DMEM. Following lentiviral transduction, cells were washed twice in full-serum DMEM, and then treated with 10 mL of fullserum DMEM supplemented with puromycin  $(2 \mu g/mL)$ , final; Gibco; A11138-03). After that, shSOX9 and shSCR lentivirally transduced cells were expanded in the continued presence of puromycin in a sub-confluent manner. For study, shSOX9 and shSCR cells were seeded in TC24 plates in the presence of  $\beta$ gal or human CTHRC1 conditioned medium as described above.

### **2.5 Oil Red O staining**

In TC24 plates, medium was aspirated and wells were washed with serum-free DMEM and fixed with 10% neutral formalin overnight at room temperature. Formalin was then aspirated and wells were washed with 60% 2-propanol. Oil Red O (Sigma Aldrich; 1320-06-5) solution was prepared as previously described (55), and applied at a volume of 250 µL per well. Plates were incubated on a rotator at room temperature for 15 min, and then washed twice with distilled water. Oil Red O was eluted with  $100\%$  2-propanol (250  $\mu$ L per well), and plates were then incubated by rotation at room temperature for 15 min. 200  $\mu$ L of eluate was added to one well of a clear, round-bottom 96-well plate (BRAND*plates*; 781840). Oil Red O absorbance was then measured at 520 nm using a FlexStation 3 plate reader (Molecular Devices) set to room temperature. Per 96-well plate, four wells were loaded with 200 µL of 100% 2-propanol to account for absorbance background. Oil Red O absorbance data were normalized by subtracting the average absorbance value of 2-propanol from the raw absorbance data.

### **2.6 Western blotting**

Whole-cell lysates were prepared from cells treated with conditioned media and grown in TC24 plates, as described above, by first washing cells with PBS and then scraping each well in 50 µL of protein lysis buffer (ITSI Biosciences; K-0045-50). Per experimental group, protein lysates were pooled from six TC24 wells into a 1.5 mL microcentrifuge tube and immediately flash frozen on dry ice. Subsequently, lysates were thawed on ice, briefly vortexed, and their relative protein concentrations determined by absorbance spectroscopy using Coomassie Brilliant Blue (Thermo Scientific; 23236) measured at a 595 nm wavelength. 250 µL of lysate was transferred to a fresh 1.5 mL microcentrifuge tube and re-suspended with 83 µL of 4x Laemmli Sample

Buffer supplemented with 10% 2-mercaptoethanol. Samples were boiled at 100°C for 5 minutes, and loaded at a volume of 20  $\mu$ L per lane in 12% polyacrylamide gels at equalized protein concentrations alongside a broad range protein standard (New England BioLabs; P7719S). 12% polyacrylamide gels were prepared as follows. A glass 1.5 mm spacer plate (Bio-Rad; 1653312) was assembled with a short plate (Bio-Rad; 1653308) using a gel caster apparatus (Bio-Rad; 1653303). Next, 7.5 mL of running gel was prepared per cast and allowed to fully polymerize underneath a thin layer of sec-butanol (Sigma Aldrich; 78-92-2). The following running gel constituent concentrations and percentages are final; double distilled water was used as the diluent: 12% acrylamide (prepared from stock 30% Acrylamide/Bis Solution 29:1; Bio-Rad; 1610156), 0.38 M Tris (prepared from a 1.5 M stock solution at pH 8.8; Sigma Aldrich; 77-86- 1), 0.1% sodium dodecyl sulfate (Roche; 151-21-3), 0.1% ammonium persulfate (Sigma Aldrich; A3678), and 0.04% TEMED (N,N,N',N'-tetramethyl-ethylenediamine; Sigma Aldrich; 110-18- 9). Upon running gel polymerization, sec-butanol was rinsed off using cold tap water, after which 3 mL of stacking gel was added to the cast along with a 1.5 mm 10 hole gel making comb (Bio-Rad; 1653359). The following stacking gel constituent concentrations and percentages are final; double distilled water was used as the diluent: 5% acrylamide (prepared from stock 30% Acrylamide/Bis Solution 29:1), 0.125 M Tris (prepared from a 1.0 M stock solution at pH 6.8), 0.1% sodium dodecyl sulfate, 0.1% ammonium persulfate, and 0.1% TEMED. Upon polymerization, 12% polyacrylamide gels were assembled in a Mini-PROTEAN 3 Cell (Bio-Rad; 165-3301) according to the manufacturer's instructions, and run at 100 volts (Power Pac 200, Bio-Rad; 25501) for 2 hours in approximately 500 mL of running buffer comprised of 25 mM Tris, 76 mM sodium dodecyl sulfate, and 959 mM glycine (Sigma Aldrich; 56-40-6). Gels were subjected to a wet transfer for 3 hours at 50 volts according to the manufacturer's

instructions (Hoefer; TE62) using PVDF transfer membrane (polyvinylidene difluoride; Thermo Scientific; 88518) in a transfer buffer solution comprised of 25 mM Tris, 192 mM glycine, and 20% methanol (v/v; VWR Chemicals; BDH1135). PVDF blots were then blocked in Trisbuffered saline with Tween 20 (TBST; Cell Signaling Technology; 9997) supplemented with 5% powdered, non-fat milk (w/v) for 2 hours at room temperature or overnight at  $4^{\circ}$ C. Blots were then briefly washed with TBST, and incubated with primary antibody overnight by rotation at 4˚C. Primary antibodies were prepared in a TBST solution supplemented with 2% bovine serum albumin and 0.1% sodium azide. Following overnight incubation, the primary antibody solution was removed, and blots were washed with TBST in triplicate (5 minutes per wash). Secondary antibodies were prepared to a final dilution of 1/5000 in TBST supplemented with 5% powdered, non-fat milk (w/v), after which blots were incubated for 1 hour at room temperature. Following incubation with secondary antibodies, blots were washed with TBST in triplicate (5 minutes per wash). Chemiluminescent solution (ProSignal Pico; Prometheus; 20-300B) was applied to the blot for 1 minute after which autoradiography film (Thomas Scientific; 1141J52) was exposed at various intervals under red light and developed using a SRX-101A manufactured by Konica Minolta. The following rabbit primary antibodies were purchased from Cell Signaling Technology: C/EBP beta (Cat. # 3087), C/EBP delta (Cat. # 2318), C/EBP alpha (Cat. # 8178), PPAR-gamma (Cat. # 2435), FABP4 (Cat. # 2120), SOX9 (Cat. # 82630), and GTF2B (Cat. # 4149), CHOP (Cat. # 5554), Beta-Actin (Cat. # 4970), and SPARC (Cat. # 8725). Mouse monoclonal antibody (clone Vli19C07 and clone Vli10G07) raised against the N-terminus of human CTHRC1, as well as rabbit monoclonal antibody (clone Vli55) raised against the Cterminus of CTHRC1, were produced in-house: further product information is available on the MaineHealth Institute for Research website. The following HRP-conjugated secondary

antibodies were purchased from Cell Signaling Technology: horse anti-mouse (Cat. # 7076); goat anti-rabbit (Cat. # 7074). Densitometry was performed using ImageJ (National Institutes of Health) by normalizing the intensity of a given protein band relative to the intensity of its respective loading control (as indicated).

### **2.7 RT-qPCR**

RNA was prepared from cell culture by first washing cells with PBS at 0.5 mL per well, and then scraping each well in 50 µL of TRIzol Reagent (Ambion; 15596018). Per experimental group, TRIzol cell lysate preparations were pooled from six TC24 wells into a 1.5 mL microcentrifuge tube and immediately flash frozen on dry ice and then stored at -70˚C. On the day of RNA isolation, 250 µL of each TRIzol cell lysate preparation was added to a fresh 1.5 mL microcentrifuge tube containing an additional volume of 750 µL of TRIzol, briefly vortexed, and allowed to sit for 5 minutes at room temperature. For studies involving the isolation of RNA from mouse inguinal white adipose tissue, frozen adipose tissue was pulverized in liquid nitrogen using a mortar and pestle, and then re-suspended in 1 mL of TRIzol and allowed to sit for 5 minutes at room temperature with intermittent vortexing. In all cases, 100 µL of stock 1-bromo-3-chloropropane (Sigma Aldrich; B9673) was then added to the 1 mL volume of TRIzol/lysed cells. Each tube was briefly vortexed and allowed to sit for 5 minutes at room temperature, followed by a 15 minute centrifugation at 12,000 x g at  $4^{\circ}$ C. 350 µL of the upper aqueous layer was then transferred to a fresh 1.5 mL microcentrifuge tube containing  $350 \mu$ L of 70% ethanol (Sigma Aldrich; E7023) and mixed thoroughly by briefly vortexing. This 700 µL volume was transferred to a Zymo-Spin IIICG Column included in the *Quick*-RNA Miniprep Kit (Zymo Research; R1055), and RNA was subsequently isolated following the kit manufacturer's

instructions. The RNA concentration per sample was measured using a NanoDrop 2000c spectrophotometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific; ND2000CLAPTOP), and 500 ng of cDNA was then generated in 0.2 mL PCR tubes (USA Scientific; 1402-4300) following the manufacturer's instructions (Reverse Transcription Supermix for RT-qPCR; Bio-Rad; 1708841) using a GeneAmp PCR System 9700 (AB Applied Biosystems; 4303481H). cDNA was loaded at 5.7 ng per well in a 96-well qPCR plate (USA Scientific; 1402-8900) in triplicate per sample. Respective forward and reverse cDNA primer pairs (see below) were loaded in each well at a final concentration of 839 nM. The 20 µL final reaction volume per well contained AzuraQuant Green (Azura Genomics; 2024-07) which was diluted following the manufacturer's instructions. qPCR reactions were thermally cycled according to the AzuraQuant Green manufacturer's instructions using a 96-well CFX Connect 96 (Bio-Rad; 1855201). 5'-to-3' forward  $(E)$  and reverse (R) primer sequences were used to detect the following target mouse genes:

*Sox9* (F: CACACGTCAAGCGACCCATGAA ; R: TCTTCTCGCTCTCGTTCAGCAG), *Gtf2b* (F: ATGGCGGACAGAATCAACCTCC ; R: ACAAGCAGAGGCTATCGCGTCA), *Cthrc1* (F: CCTGGACCCCAAACTATAAGCA ; R: AGCCACTGAACAGAACTCGC), *Cebpb* (F: CAACCTGGAGACGCAGCACAAG ; R: GCTTGAACAAGTTCCGCAGGGT), *Cebpd* (F: CGAGAACGAGAAGCTGCATCAG ; R: CCCAAAGAAACTAGCGATTCGG), *Cebpa* (F: GCAAAGCCAAGAAGTCGGTGGA ; R: CCTTCTGTTGCGTCTCCACGTT), *Pparg* (F: GTACTGTCGGTTTCAGAAGTGCC ; R: ATCTCCGCCAACAGCTTCTCCT),

*Fabp4* (F: GCTGCAGCCTTTCTCACC ; R: CACTTTCCTTGTGGCAAAGC). Actb (E: CATTGCTGACAGGATGCAGAAGG; R: TGCTGGAAGGTGGACAGTGAGG) *Fn1* (**F**: CCCTATCTCTGATACCGTTGTCC ; **R**: TGCCGCAACTACTGTGATTCGG)

## *Col1a1* (F: CCTCAGGGTATTGCTGGACAAC ; R: CAGAAGGACCTTGTTTGCCAGG) *Igf2* (**F**: CTTCAGTTTGTCTGTTCGGACCG; <u>R:</u> GTGGCACAGTATGTCTCCAGGA)

### **2.8 Co-culture**

Passage 11 3T3-L1 cells were grown in 22 mL of full-serum DMEM to 100% confluence in 15 cm dishes and then transduced with adenoviral vectors overexpressing either human *CTHRC1* or control b–*galactosidase* as described above. In parallel, non-transduced 3T3-L1 cells at passage 11 were grown in 10 mL of full-serum DMEM in a 10 cm dish. Upon reaching approximately 70% confluence in the 10 cm dish, non-transduced cells were incubated for 30 min in a 2  $\mu$ M solution of CellTracker Deep Red (Thermo Fisher Scientific; C34565) prepared in serum-free DMEM according to the manufacturer's instructions. Following incubation, CellTracker-labelled cells were treated with 0.25% Trypsin-EDTA. At the moment CellTracker-labelled cells were trypsinized, adenovirally transduced cells had been washed and incubated in full-serum DMEM by this point for 18 hours. As such, transduced cells in 15 cm dishes were trypsinized. In 15 mL conical tubes, two co-cultures were then prepared: 1) CellTracker-labelled 3T3-L1 cells plus adenovirally transduced 3T3-L1 cells overexpressing bgal; 2) CellTracker-labelled 3T3-L1 cells plus adenovirally transduced 3T3-L1 cells overexpressing human CTHRC1. In each 15 mL conical tube, CellTracker-labelled cells and transduced cells were added at equal ratios, mixed by inversion, and added to a 6-well plate at approximately 750,000 cells in a 2 mL volume of full-serum DMEM per well. Prior to cell seeding, sterilized thickness 1 glass coverslips (22 x 22 mm; Corning;  $2845-22$ ) were placed in each well of the 6-well plate. The  $\beta$ gal co-culture and CTHRC1 co-culture were each seeded on glass coverslips in triplicate. The day after cell seeding, old medium was removed and replenished with full-serum DMEM (2 mL per well). The next day (Day 0), co-cultures were treated with insulin, IBMX, and dexamethasone (as described above) prepared in full-serum DMEM (2 mL per well). On Day 1, old medium was removed, and insulin, IBMX, and dexamethasone freshly prepared in full-serum DMEM were added. On Day 2, old medium was removed, and insulin freshly prepared in full-serum DMEM was added. On Day 3, old medium was removed, and full-serum DMEM was added. On Day 4, cells were protected from light and fixed using 10% neutral formalin for 1 hour at room temperature at a volume of 2 mL formalin per well. Next, cells were washed twice in PBS and blocked overnight at 4˚C in darkness using immunofluorescence blocking buffer (2 mL per well). Following blocking, Hoechst 33342 (4 µM, final), Bodipy 493/503 (5 µM, final; Invitrogen; D3922), and Alexa Fluor 546 Phalloidin (1/100 final dilution) were prepared in immunofluorescence blocking buffer and applied to each coverslip at 40  $\mu$ L per well for 1 hour at room temperature in darkness, wherein each coverslip was fully covered with parafilm. The parafilm was then removed and cells were then washed twice in PBS, after which each coverslip was inverted and embedded in Vectashield Mounting Medium, and secured on a microscope slide with clear nail polish along the perimeter of the coverslip. Confocal microscopy of the preparations was performed using the Leica SP8 microscope (Leica Microsystems) at the Histopathology and Microscopy Core Facility at MaineHealth Institute for Research.

### **2.9 Assessment of the F-actin cytoskeleton**

Passage 11 3T3-L1 cells were seeded on sterilized thickness 1 glass coverslips (22 x 22 mm) in a 6-well plate at approximately 250,000 cells in a 2 mL volume of full-serum DMEM per well. Cells reached confluence several days later and were then transduced in triplicate with adenoviral vectors overexpressing either human *CTHRC1* or control β–*galactosidase* as

described above. Two days after adenoviral transduction, cells were fixed for 1 hour at room temperature using 10% neutral formalin at a volume of 2 mL formalin per well. Next, cells were washed twice in PBS (2 mL per well) and blocked overnight at  $4^{\circ}$ C in darkness using immunofluorescence blocking buffer (2 mL per well). Following blocking, Hoechst 33342 (4 µM, final) and Alexa Fluor 546 Phalloidin (1/100 final dilution) were prepared in immunofluorescence blocking buffer and applied to each coverslip at 40 µL per well for 1 hour at room temperature in darkness, wherein each coverslip was fully covered with parafilm. The parafilm was then removed and cells were washed twice in PBS (2 mL per well), after which each coverslip was inverted and embedded in Vectashield Mounting Medium and secured in the center of a microscope slide with clear nail polish along the perimeter of the coverslip. Confocal microscopy of the preparations was performed using the Leica SP8 microscope (Leica Microsystems) following the manufacturer's instructions at the Histopathology and Microscopy Core Facility at MaineHealth Institute for Research.

### **2.10 Mice**

All protocols involving animals were approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee at MaineHealth Institute for Research (protocol number 2105) and were in compliance with all applicable regulations and guidelines, including the National Institutes of Health Guide for Care and Use of Laboratory Animals. *Cthrc1*-null mice with global, homozygous inactivation of the collagen triple helix repeat-containing 1 gene have been previously described (62). Wildtype and *Cthrc1*-null C57BL/6 mice were kindly provided by Dr. Volkhard Lindner.

### **2.11 Isolation of stromal vascular fraction cells**

Inguinal white adipose tissue was surgically removed (both left and right lobes) per mouse, minced with a sterile razor blade in a 6 cm petri dish (VWR; 25384-060), and then transferred to a 15 mL conical tube and digested with collagenase D (1.5 units/ml; Roche; 59983422) and dispase II (2.4 units/ml; Sigma Aldrich; D4693) in 2.5 mL of DMEM/F12 (Corning; 10-092-CV) containing 0.8% bovine serum albumin at 37˚C with agitation for 45 minutes. Dissociated cells were passed through a 100 µm strainer (VWR North American; 76327-102) into a 50 mL conical tube and centrifuged at 450 x g for 3 minutes. The supernatant was then aspirated, and SVF cells were collected in 1 mL of a PBS solution supplemented with 0.5% bovine serum albumin and 2 mM EDTA (ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid; Sigma Aldrich; E9884), which we refer to as FACS buffer.

### **2.12 Multi-parameter flow cytometry**

SVF cells were treated with 1 mL of ACK lysis buffer (ThermoFisher Scientific; A1049201) for 5 min at room temperature in a 15 mL conical tube, after which 10 mL of FACS buffer was added, and cells were centrifuged for 3 min at 450 x g. The supernatant was aspirated, and the cell pellet was re-suspended in 100 µL of DPBS (Corning; 21-031-CV) plus 100 µL of VioBlue viability stain (ThermoFisher Scientific; L3495) according to the manufacturer's instructions, and transferred to a FACS tube (Falcon; 352054). Cells were light protected and incubated for 25 min at room temperature. 1 mL of DPBS was added, and cells were centrifuged for 3 min at 450 x g. The supernatant was aspirated and cells were re-suspended in 100 µL of a Fc blocking solution for 10 min at  $4^{\circ}$ C, which was initially prepared by adding 25 µL of stock TruStain FcX (BioLegend; 101320) to 225 µL FACS buffer. 250 µL of FACS buffer was then added, and cells

were distributed to three FACS tubes at a volume of 100  $\mu$ L/tube. Next, 100  $\mu$ L of FACS buffer was added to each tube supplemented with or without the following antibody panels – panel 1: no antibodies; panels 2-3:  $CD24<sup>FITC</sup>$  (BioLegend; 101816; clone M1/69), PDGFR-alpha<sup>PeCy7</sup> (BioLegend; 135912; clone APA5), CD31PacificBlue (BioLegend; 102422; clone 390), CD45PacificBlue (BioLegend; 103126; clone 30-F11), and TER119PacificBlue (BioLegend; 116232). Cells were incubated for 30 min at 4˚C, after which FACS buffer was added at 1.5 mL/tube, followed by centrifugation for 3 min at  $450 \times g$  and supernatant aspiration. Cells were incubated in fixation/permeabilization buffer (BD Biosciences; 554714) for 40 minutes at room temperature, followed by washing with permeabilization solution (BD Biosciences; 554714) at 1 mL/tube, centrifugation for 4 min at 450 x g, and supernatant aspiration. Next, 200  $\mu$ L of permeabilization solution was added to each tube supplemented with or without the following antibody panels – panels  $1/2$ : no antibodies; panel 3: CTHRC1<sup>APC</sup> (produced in-house, clone Vli08G09). Cells were incubated for 30 min at 4˚C, after which permeabilization solution was added at 2 mL/tube, followed by centrifugation for 4 min at 450 x g and supernatant aspiration. Cells were re-suspended in FACS buffer at 250 µL/tube. Panels were sequentially analyzed using the MACSQUANT Analyzer (Miltenyi Biotec) following the manufacturer's instructions at the Flow Cytometry Core Facility at MaineHealth Institute for Research.

### **2.13 RNA sequencing**

Human PVAT tissue isolation, library preparation, sequencing, and analytical methodologies were conducted by Angueira and colleagues (63). Filtered feature barcode matrices were retrieved from the Gene Expression Omnibus. Previously published (64) deep neck BAT singlenucleus RNA-seq filtered feature barcode matrices were retrieved from the European

Bioinformatics Institute and reanalyzed. Single-cell RNA sequencing was conducted on human subcutaneous adipose tissue (18) and filtered feature barcode matrices were retrieved from the Gene Expression Omnibus.

Seurat objects were constructed for each tissue sample  $(n=18)$  using Seurat v4.1.1 (65). Data were filtered based on number of unique features, percent.mt, and doublets were removed using Scrublet v1.0. Filtered objects were integrated together using the library harmony v0.1.1. Data were log normalized with a scale.factor of 10000, using the Seurat function NormalizeData. For use in clustering, an assay was added in which the normalized data were scaled to fit a distribution with a variance of 1 and a mean of 0 using the ScaleData function. The variables percent.mt, nFeature\_RNA, and the S and G2M cell cycle scores, determined through the CellCycleScoring, were regressed out to limit effects on clustering. A principal component analysis was performed using the Seurat function RunPCA over features which were identified as highly variable through use of the previously ran FindVariableFeatures function. Dimensionality reduction was accomplished using the FindNeighbors, FindClusters, and RunUMAP functions with the dims and resolution parameters set to 60 and 0.6, respectively. The DimPlot, FeaturePlot, and VlnPlot functions were utilized to visualize the clusters and marker genes. Manual cluster identification was executed using the FindAllMarkers function, while automatic cluster identification was supplementally performed using the ScType v1.0 package. Immune cells were removed based on PTPRC and MRC1 expression. To save plots, ggsave function from ggplot2 v3.3.6 was utilized (66).

### **2.14 Data availability**

Human PVAT single-nucleus RNA sequencing filtered feature barcode matrices were retrieved from Gene Expression Omnibus data repository under accession GSE164528 (63). Human deepneck BAT single-nucleus RNA sequencing filtered feature barcode matrices were retrieved from the European Bioinformatics Institute under accession E-MTAB-8564. (63). Filtered feature barcode matrices from single-cell RNA sequencing of human subcutaneous adipose tissue were retrieved from the Gene Expression Omnibus under accession GSE128890 (18).

### **2.15 Statistical analysis**

Paired Student t-test was used to compare the mean values of two conditions. In addition, twoway analysis of variance (listed in *Table B.1*) was used to compare the "vehicle" group to the "N+Y" group presented in *Figure 14A*. All data in this report are presented as the mean  $\pm$  SEM (standard error of the mean).

### **CHAPTER 3: CTHRC1 NEGATIVELY REGULATES ADIPOGENESIS** *IN VITRO*

# **3.1 Paracrine CTHRC1 suppresses lipid accumulation in differentiating adipocytes** We have reported that adenoviral overexpression of human CTHRC1 significantly inhibits chemically-induced 3T3-L1 mouse cell adipogenic differentiation (55). Herein, we assessed whether CTHRC1 might possess paracrine function by conducting an adipogenic differentiation co-culture experiment. Briefly, 3T3-L1 cells were transduced with adenoviral vectors overexpressing either human *CTHRC1* or control  $\beta$ –*galactosidase* ( $\beta$ *gal*). In parallel, nontransduced 3T3-L1 cells were fluorescently labelled with CellTracker. Two co-cultures were then seeded: 1) non-transduced 3T3-L1 cells plus transduced 3T3-L1 cells overexpressing bgal; 2) non-transduced 3T3-L1 cells plus transduced 3T3-L1 cells overexpressing human CTHRC1  $(hCTHRC1)$ . Relative to the  $\beta$ gal co-culture, the percentage of non-transduced cells positively stained with the neutral lipid dye, BODIPY, was significantly lower in the CTHRC1 co-culture after four days of chemically-induced adipogenic differentiation (*Figure 5A*-*C*). These data support that secreted CTHRC1 suppresses lipid accumulation in differentiating adipocytes.



**Figure 5**. **CTHRC1 suppresses lipid accumulation** *in vitro* **in a paracrine-dependent manner**. **A**,**B**) Representative confocal microscopy images of non-transduced 3T3-L1 cells labelled with CellTracker Deep Red (red) that were co-cultured with unlabeled 3T3-L1 cells adenovirally transduced with control  $\beta$ –*galactosidase* (A) or human C*THRC1* (B). Each coculture group was subjected to chemically-induced adipogenic differentiation for four days, and then stained with the neutral lipid dye, Bodipy (green). Nuclei were stained with Hoechst (blue), and the F-actin cytoskeleton was stained with Alexa Fluor 546 Phalloidin (white). The width of the white rectangle (lower left-hand corner) denotes the scale: 10 µm. **C**) Quantification of

CellTracker-labelled cells stained with Bodipy per co-culture. 10 separate fields were analyzed per co-culture per experiment  $(n=3; ** p \le 0.01)$ .

### **3.2 Exogenously applied CTHRC1 suppresses lipid accumulation in differentiating adipocytes**

We next investigated the regulation of lipid accumulation relative to the application of exogenous hCTHRC1. For these studies, we exploited the feature that CTHRC1 is a secreted factor, and thus prepared conditioned media from 3T3-L1 cells transduced with adenoviral vectors expressing either human *CTHRC1* or control b*gal*, which we refer to as hCTHRC1 or bgal conditioned medium, respectively. Despite divergence in the amino acid composition of the N-terminal signal peptide and the adjacent pro-peptide regions, mouse and human CTHRC1 otherwise share nearly identical sequence homology, differing in a single amino acid within the C-terminal domain. In 3T3-L1 cells, endogenous mouse CTHRC1 was not detected at the mRNA or protein levels (data not shown). The presence of recombinant human CTHRC1 in conditioned medium was confirmed by an established ELISA or by Western blot analysis (*Figure 6A*). For these adipogenesis experiments, 3T3-L1 cells were seeded on Day -3 in the presence of either  $\beta$ gal or hCTHRC1 conditioned medium, and the chemical induction of adipogenic differentiation commenced on Day 0. Cells were chemically stimulated for a total period of six days in the continued presence of bgal or hCTHRC1 conditioned medium, and then stained with the neutral lipid dye, Oil Red O (*Figure 6B*,*C*). Based on absorbance spectroscopy measuring the relative concentration of eluted Oil Red O, we observed that 3T3-L1 cells treated with hCTHRC1 conditioned medium had significantly lower lipid content in comparison to cells
treated with bgal conditioned medium control (*Figure 6B*,*C*). These data support that hCTHRC1 conditioned medium suppresses lipid accumulation in differentiating adipocytes.



### **Figure 6**. **Exogenously applied CTHRC1 suppresses lipid accumulation** *in vitro*.

**A**) Western blot analysis of hCTHRC1 protein expressed in hCTHRC1 conditioned medium but not bgal conditioned medium. **B**,**C**) Representative Oil Red O quantification data. 3T3-L1 cells were seeded on Day -3 with  $\beta$ gal or hCTHRC1 conditioned medium at a 1/4 dilution, and then chemically stimulated to undergo adipogenic differentiation for a total period of 6 days. Cells were formalin fixed on Day 6 and stained with Oil Red O, which was then eluted and its

concentration determined by absorbance spectroscopy  $(B)$  (n=3; \*\*\*\* p $\leq 0.0001$ ). Per experiment, 3T3-L1 cells were plated in one 24-well plate in which 6 wells were treated with either bgal or hCTHRC1 conditioned medium. **C**) Representative image of Oil Red O staining: left) cells treated with bgal conditioned medium; right) cells treated with hCTHRC1 conditioned medium.

### **3.3 CTHRC1 negatively regulates adipogenic gene expression**

Given that the exogenous application of hCTHRC1 conditioned medium decreased lipid accumulation in 3T3-L1 cells following induction of adipogenic differentiation (*Figure 6B*), we next assessed the effect of hCTHRC1 conditioned medium on adipogenic gene expression. As before,  $3T3-L1$  cells were seeded on Day -3 in the presence of either  $\beta$ gal or hCTHRC1 conditioned medium, and then chemically stimulated to undergo adipogenesis beginning on Day 0. Whole-cell lysates were collected on Days 0, 2, and 6 for qPCR analyses. Samples collected on Day 0 were undifferentiated controls. Consistent with literature detailing the temporal expression patterns of both adipogenic and lipogenic genes during the course of adipogenic differentiation (Guo et al., 2015), elevated *Cebpb* and *Cebpd* gene expression on Day 2 preceded significant induction of *Cebpa, Pparg*, and *Fabp4* gene expression on Day 6 (*Figure 7A*-*E*). Of note, cells treated with hCTHRC1 conditioned medium displayed significantly decreased C*ebpd* gene expression on Day 0 (*Figure 7B*), as well as marked decrease of C*ebpa*, P*parg*, and F*abp4* gene expression on Day 6 (*Figure 7C*-*E*). Taken together, the ability of hCTHRC1 conditioned medium to suppress lipid accumulation is commensurate to its inhibition of adipogenic gene expression, thus supporting the hypothesis that CTHRC1 is a negative regulator of preadipocyteto-adipocyte differentiation.



**Figure 7**. **Exogenously applied hCTHRC1 conditioned medium inhibits adipogenic gene expression** *in vitro*. **A**-**E**) hCTHRC1 conditioned medium applied to 3T3-L1 cells before and during the course of chemically-stimulated adipogenic differentiation negatively regulates the mRNA expression of adipogenic and lipogenic factors as demonstrated by qPCR analyses. 3T3- L1 cells were seeded on Day -3 with either  $\beta$ gal or hCTHRC1 conditioned medium at a 1/4 dilution, after which whole-cell lysates were collected on Day 0, 2, or 6 relative to the chemical induction of adipogenic differentiation. **A**-**E**) qPCR fold expression differences in specific

mRNA transcript levels relative to housekeeping *Gtf2b* expression levels from three independent experiments (n=3; \* p $\leq 0.05$ , \*\* p $\leq 0.01$ , \*\*\* p $\leq 0.001$ , \*\*\*\* p $\leq 0.0001$ ).

#### **3.4 CTHRC1 negatively regulates adipogenic transcription factor protein expression**

Given data supporting that CTHRC1 negatively regulates adipogenic gene expression, we next assessed the effect of hCTHRC1 conditioned medium on the protein expression levels of adipogenic transcription factors. As before, 3T3-L1 cells were seeded on Day -3 in the presence of either bgal or hCTHRC1 conditioned medium, and then chemically stimulated to undergo adipogenesis beginning on Day 0. Whole-cell lysates were collected on Days 0, 2, and 6 for Western blot analyses. Samples collected on Day 0 were undifferentiated controls. Consistent with literature detailing the temporal expression patterns of both adipogenic and lipogenic genes during the course of adipogenic differentiation (35), these temporal adipogenic gene expression trends were recapitulated at the protein level (*Figure 8A*-*F*), in which C/EBP beta and C/EBP delta protein expression were highest on Day 2, while C/EBP alpha, PPAR-gamma, and FABP4 each displayed maximal protein expression levels on Day 6. C/EBP alpha, PPAR-gamma, and FABP4 protein expression levels, in particular, were also significantly reduced on Day 6 in cells treated with hCTHRC1 conditioned medium (*Figure 8D*-*F*). Taken together, the ability of hCTHRC1 conditioned medium to suppress lipid accumulation is commensurate to its inhibition of adipogenic transcription factor protein expression, thus supporting the hypothesis that CTHRC1 is a negative regulator of preadipocyte-to-adipocyte differentiation.



**Figure 8**. **Exogenously applied hCTHRC1 conditioned medium inhibits adipogenic transcription factor protein expression** *in vitro*. **A**-**F**) hCTHRC1 conditioned medium applied to 3T3-L1 cells before and during the course of chemically-stimulated adipogenic differentiation negatively regulates the protein expression of adipogenic and lipogenic factors as demonstrated

by Western blot analyses. 3T3-L1 cells were seeded on Day -3 with either  $\beta$ gal or hCTHRC1 conditioned medium at a 1/4 dilution, after which whole-cell lysates were collected on Day 0, 2, or 6 relative to the chemical induction of adipogenic differentiation. **A**) Representative Western blots. **B**-**F**) Average protein fold change densitometry values relative to housekeeping GTF2B protein expression levels from three independent experiments (n=3;  $*$  p $\leq$ 0.05,  $**$  p $\leq$ 0.01).

## **3.5 CTHRC1 enhances both the gene and protein expression of SOX9**

Given evidence in support of the anti-adipogenic function of CTHRC1 (*Figures 4*-*7*), we next focused on potential CTHRC1 effector proteins with demonstrated anti-adipogenic activity. It was recently shown that a subpopulation of activated fibroblasts in heart tissues co-express high levels of CTHRC1 and SOX9 following myocardial infarction (67). SOX9 is a well-established transcription factor with marked anti-adipogenic function (2). When we assessed if CTHRC1 regulates *Sox9* gene expression in 3T3-L1 cells, we found that cells treated with hCTHRC1 conditioned medium expressed increased SOX9 at both the mRNA (*Figure 9A*) and protein (*Figure 9B*,C) levels in comparison to cells treated with  $\beta$ gal conditioned medium. These data support that hCTHRC1 conditioned medium positively regulates SOX9 mRNA and protein expression levels in preadipocytes.



**Figure 9**. **Exogenously applied hCTHRC1 conditioned medium enhances** *Sox9* **gene expression** *in vitro*. **A-C**) 3T3-L1 cells were seeded on Day -3 with either βgal or hCTHRC1 conditioned medium at a 1/4 dilution. Whole-cell lysates were collected on Day 0 in order to determine SOX9 expression by qPCR (**A**) and Western blot (**B**) analyses. **A**) Average fold expression differences in *Sox9* mRNA levels relative to housekeeping *Gtf2b* gene expression levels from five independent experiments ( $n=5$ ; \*\*  $p\leq 0.01$ ). C) Average SOX9 protein fold change densitometry values relative to housekeeping GTF2B protein expression levels from three independent experiments (n=3; \*\*  $p \le 0.01$ ).

### **3.6 CTHRC1 enhances SOX9 nuclear translocation**

SOX9 is a transcriptional regulator known to translocate to the nucleus and thus suppress the activity of adipogenic gene promoters (42). Given data supporting that CTHRC1 enhances *Sox9* gene expression in 3T3-L1 preadipocytes (*Figure 9*), we next assessed the effect of CTHRC1 on SOX9 nuclear translocation. As before, 3T3-L1 cells were seeded on Day -3 with either  $\beta$ gal or hCTHRC1 conditioned medium at a 1/4 dilution, and then subjected to four days of chemicallystimulated adipogenic differentiation. Confocal microscopy analysis of SOX9 nuclear translocation in 3T3-L1 cells revealed that application of hCTHRC1 conditioned medium significantly enhanced SOX9 nuclear localization on Day 0 in comparison to cells treated with bgal conditioned medium (*Figure 10A*,*B*). Moreover, enhanced SOX9 nuclear translocation was also observed on Day 4 of chemically-stimulated adipogenic differentiation in 3T3-L1 cells treated with hCTHRC1 conditioned medium but not in cells treated with  $\beta$ gal conditioned medium (*Figure 10C*,*D*). These data support that hCTHRC1 conditioned medium enhances the basal levels of SOX9 nuclear translocation in preadipocytes, and also functions to preserve the expression levels of SOX9 in the nucleus when preadipocytes are chemically stimulated to undergo adipogenic differentiation *in vitro*.



**Figure 10**. **Exogenously applied hCTHRC1 conditioned medium enhances SOX9 nuclear translocation** *in vitro*. 3T3-L1 cells were seeded on Day -3 with either bgal or hCTHRC1 conditioned medium at a 1/4 dilution, after which cells were formalin fixed on either Day 0 or Day 4 relative to the chemical induction of adipogenic differentiation. **A**,**B**) Representative confocal microscopy images of SOX9 protein localization on Day 0 in 3T3-L1 cells treated with either bgal conditioned medium (**A**) or hCTHRC1 conditioned medium (**B**). **C**,**D**) Representative confocal microscopy images of SOX9 protein localization on Day 4 of adipogenic differentiation in 3T3-L1 cells treated with either bgal conditioned medium (**C**) or hCTHRC1 conditioned

medium (**D**). Nuclei (blue); SOX9 (green); F-actin/Alexa Fluor 546 Phalloidin (red). The length of the white rectangle (lower left-hand corner) denotes the scale:  $20 \mu m$ .

## **3.7 Assessing the anti-adipogenic activity of hCTHRC1 conditioned medium at various dilutions**

Based on Oil Red O analyses, we next sought to determine an effective dilution range in which application of hCTHRC1 conditioned medium significantly decreases the degree of lipid accumulation in differentiating 3T3-L1 preadipocytes. Thus, 3T3-L1 cells were seeded on Day - 3 with either bgal or hCTHRC1 conditioned medium at the following dilutions followed by six days of chemically stimulated adipogenic differentiation: 1/4, 1/8, 1/12, 1/16, 1/20, 1/24, or 1/32. Notably, each dilution of hCTHRC1 conditioned medium significantly suppressed overall lipid accumulation in comparison to respective bgal conditioned medium controls (*Figure 11*). From ELISA, we determined that the concentration of recombinant human CTHRC1 in undiluted conditioned medium is approximately 9-10 ng/mL, which corresponds as follows to each dilution of hCTHRC1 conditioned medium: 1/4 dilution (2.5 ng/mL), 1/8 dilution (1.25 ng/mL), 1/12 dilution (800 pg/mL), 1/16 dilution (600 pg/mL), 1/20 dilution (480 pg/mL), 1/24 dilution (400 pg/mL), 1/32 dilution (300 pg/mL). Congruent with Stohn and colleagues who extrapolated that the physiological range of CTHRC1 in circulation in mice is expressed on the order of pg/mL concentrations (62), these data provide evidence in support of the hypothesis that secreted hCTHRC1 still possesses anti-adipogenic activity when exogenously applied at concentrations below 2.5 ng/mL to preadipocytes.



**Figure 11**. **Assessment of the anti-adipogenic effect of hCTHRC1 conditioned medium at various dilutions** *in vitro*. Representative Oil Red O quantification data. 3T3-L1 cells were seeded on Day -3 with  $\beta$ gal or hCTHRC1 conditioned medium at the following dilutions: 1/4, 1/8, 1/12, 1/16, 1/20, 1/24, or 1/32. Cells were seeded in a 24-well plate corresponding to three wells per each conditioned medium dilution, and then chemically stimulated to undergo adipogenic differentiation beginning on Day 0. Cells were formalin fixed on Day 6 and stained with Oil Red O, which was then eluted and its concentration determined by absorbance spectroscopy (\*\*  $p \le 0.01$ , \*\*\*  $p \le 0.001$ ).

#### **3.8 SOX9 protein expression is critical for the anti-adipogenic activity of CTHRC1**

Based on data supporting that CTHRC1 increases *Sox9* gene expression as well as SOX9 protein nuclear translocation in preadipocytes (*Figures 8*,*9*), we next queried if SOX9 protein expression is required for the anti-adipogenic activity of CTHRC1. As such, we implemented a RNA interference (RNAi) strategy to knockdown *Sox9* gene expression in 3T3-L1 cells. Briefly, 3T3- L1 cells were transduced with lentiviral vectors overexpressing either a shRNA construct against mouse *Sox9* mRNA (*i*.*e*., shSOX9), or a non-targeting, scrambled control shRNA construct (*i*.*e*., shSCR). Puromycin was then used to select transduced shSOX9 and shSCR cells. It is well documented that when primary adipocyte progenitor cells or transformed cell lines, including 3T3-L1 cells, are extensively passaged or become confluent during passaging, the cells lose their ability to efficiently differentiate into adipocytes *in vitro* (68, 69). Accordingly, we did not implement single-cell cloning strategies following lentiviral transduction, and instead propagated all puromycin-selected shSCR and shSOX9 cells in a sub-confluent manner prior to study. On this basis, we posited that the degree of *Sox9* gene knockdown was variable among shSOX9 cells. Given that hCTHRC1 conditioned medium significantly enhanced *Sox9* mRNA expression (*Figure 9A*), we further rationalized that higher concentrations of hCTHRC1 conditioned medium could "outcompete" the constitutively expressed shRNA construct targeting *Sox9* mRNA, particularly in shSOX9 cells with less efficient lentiviral transduction, and thus negate overall *Sox9* gene knockdown. On this basis, and also in consideration of data supporting that hCTHRC1 conditioned medium possesses marked anti-adipogenic activity even when exogenously applied to 3T3-L1 cells at a 1/32 dilution (*i*.*e*., at an approximate 300 pg/mL concentration of secreted recombinant hCTHRC1), we opted to assay  $\beta$ gal and hCTHRC1 conditioned media at a dilution of 1/60 (*i*.*e*., at an approximate 150 pg/mL concentration of secreted recombinant hCTHRC1) for the RNAi adipogenic differentiation studies. Based on Oil Red O absorbance spectroscopy data, and relative to  $\beta$ gal conditioned medium control, application of hCTHRC1 conditioned medium significantly decreased 3T3-L1 adipogenic

differentiation in shSCR cells but not shSOX9 cells (*Figure 12A*). Furthermore, based on the quantification of SOX9 protein expression levels, in comparison to the application of bgal conditioned medium, hCTHRC1 conditioned medium significantly enhanced SOX9 levels in shSCR cells but not in shSOX9 cells, the latter displaying significant knockdown of SOX9 protein expression levels (*Figure 12B*,*C*). Thus, these data provide evidence in support of the hypothesis that SOX9 protein expression is critical for the anti-adipogenic activity of hCTHRC1 conditioned medium.



**Figure 12**. **SOX9 expression is indispensable to anti-adipogenic CTHRC1 signaling** *in vitro*. **A**-**C**) 3T3-L1 cells were lentivirally transduced with either a shRNA construct targeting *Sox9* mRNA (*i*.*e*., shSOX9), or a non-targeting scrambled control shRNA construct (*i*.*e*., shSCR). The resultant shSOX9 and shSCR cells were seeded on Day -3 with bgal or hCTHRC1 conditioned

medium at a dilution of 1/60. Whole-cell lysates were collected from cohorts of shSOX9 and shSCR cells on Day 0 to assess SOX9 protein expression levels by Western blot analysis (**B**,**C**), while the other cohorts were chemically stimulated to undergo adipogenic differentiation for a total period of 6 days (**A**). **A**) Representative Oil Red O quantification data. shSOX9 and shSCR cells were formalin fixed on Day 6 and stained with Oil Red O, which was then eluted and its concentration determined by absorbance spectroscopy. Per experiment, shSOX9 and shSCR cells were plated in 24-well plates in which 6 wells each were treated with  $\beta$ gal or hCTHRC1 conditioned medium at a dilution of  $1/60$  (n=3; \*\*  $p \le 0.01$ ). **C**) Average SOX9 protein fold change densitometry values relative to housekeeping GTF2B protein expression levels from three independent experiments (n=3;  $*$  p $\leq 0.05$ ).

## **3.9 Higher-concentrated hCTHRC1 conditioned medium negates RNAi-mediated** *Sox9* **gene knockdown**

Based on results of the RNAi adipogenic differentiation studies when assaying conditioned media at a 1/60 dilution, which thus support that SOX9 expression is indispensable to the antiadipogenic activity of CTHRC1, we also assessed the adipogenic effect of conditioned media when applied to shSOX9 and shSCR cells at a higher-concentrated 1/12 dilution. While the application of hCTHRC1 conditioned medium at the 1/60 dilution significantly decreased 3T3- L1 adipogenic differentiation in shSCR cells but not shSOX9 cells, the application of hCTHRC1 conditioned medium at the 1/12 dilution exerted a significant anti-adipogenic effect when applied to both shSCR cells and shSOX9 cells (*Figure 13A*,*B*). Importantly, when assessing the concentration-dependent effect of hCTHRC1 conditioned medium on SOX9 expression, SOX9 protein expression levels did not statistically differ in shSCR cells versus shSOX9 cells when

hCTHRC1 conditioned medium was applied at the 1/12 dilution (*Figure 13C*). In contrast, application of hCTHRC1 conditioned medium at the 1/60 dilution revealed that shSOX9 cells expressed significantly decreased SOX9 protein expression levels in comparison to shSCR cells (*Figure 13C*). Given that we did not implement single-cell cloning strategies following lentiviral transduction, these SOX9 protein expression data can plausibly be attributed to the heterogeneous degree of *Sox9* gene knockdown among the population of shSOX9 cells, such that higher-concentrated hCTHRC1 conditioned medium can negate overall *Sox9* gene knockdown in shSOX9 cells. Critically, when hCTHRC1 conditioned medium was applied at the 1/60 dilution to shSOX9 cells, its application was not able to significantly enhance SOX9 protein expression or suppress adipogenic differentiation relative to the application of  $\beta$ gal conditioned medium control (*Figure 12A-C*). Based on our RNAi experimental strategy, these SOX9 protein expression data further suggest that hCTHRC1 conditioned medium is unable to impede overall *Sox9* gene knockdown in shSOX9 cells when the concentration of recombinant human CTHRC1 therein is below 800 pg/mL at an approximate range of 150 pg/mL.



**Figure 13**. **Higher-concentrated hCTHRC1 conditioned medium negates** *Sox9* **gene knockdown in 3T3-L1 cells**. **A**-**C**) 3T3-L1 cells were lentivirally transduced with either a shRNA construct targeting *Sox9* mRNA (*i*.*e*., shSOX9), or a non-targeting scrambled control shRNA construct (*i.e.*, shSCR). The resultant shSOX9 and shSCR cells were seeded on Day -3 with  $\beta$ gal or hCTHRC1 conditioned medium at dilutions of either 1/12 or 1/60. Whole-cell lysates were collected from cohorts of shSOX9 and shSCR cells on Day 0 to assess SOX9 protein expression levels by Western blot analysis (**C**), while the other cohorts were chemically stimulated to undergo adipogenic differentiation for a total period of 6 days (**A**,**B**). **A**) Representative Oil Red O quantification data. shSOX9 and shSCR cells were formalin fixed on Day 6 and stained with Oil Red O, which was then eluted and its concentration determined by

absorbance spectroscopy. Per experiment, shSOX9 and shSCR cells were plated in 24-well plates in which 6 wells each were treated with  $\beta$ gal or hCTHRC1 conditioned medium at dilutions of either  $1/12$  or  $1/60$  (n=3; \*\*  $p \le 0.01$ , \*\*\*\*  $p \le 0.0001$ ). **B**) Graphical representation quantifying that hCTHRC1 conditioned medium loses its anti-adipogenic effect when applied to shSOX9 cells at a 1/60 dilution (displayed as average percent reduction in Oil Red O staining relative to the application of hCTHRC1 conditioned medium). In contrast, the anti-adipogenic effect of hCTHRC1 conditioned medium at a 1/12 dilution is not statistically different when applied to either shSOX9 or shSCR cells. Data reflect the averages from three independent experiments ( $n=3$ ;  $*$   $p\leq 0.05$ ). C) SOX9 protein fold change densitometry values relative to housekeeping GTF2B protein expression levels quantifying the concentration-related effect of hCTHRC1 conditioned medium on SOX9 levels in both shSOX9 and shSCR cells (n=3; \*  $p \le 0.05$ 

## **3.10 CTHRC1-induced SOX9 nuclear translocation is positively regulated in a Rho/Rac1 dependent manner**

Given data in support of the hypothesis that the anti-adipogenic activity of CTHRC1 is regulated by SOX9 (*Figures 11*,*12*), and in further consideration that the anti-adipogenic function of SOX9 is predicated on its nuclear translocation and direct inhibition of adipogenic gene promoters (2), we next investigated specific facets of CTHRC1 signaling that might regulate SOX9 nuclear translocation. Hironaka and colleagues recently reported that the actin binding protein, drebrin, stabilizes the F-actin cytoskeleton in myofibroblasts which, in turn, enhances the nuclear translocation of SOX9 (70). Moreover, disruption of actin stress fibers in adipocyte progenitor cells has been shown to enhance their adipogenic differentiation (71), and we have observed that

CTHRC1 overexpression enhances the F-actin cytoskeleton in 3T3-L1 cells (*Figure A.1*).

Because Rho-like GTPases are also well characterized regulators of the actin cytoskeleton, and other investigations have demonstrated that CTHRC1 overexpression significantly increases the levels of both Rho-GTP and Rac1-GTP (50, 72), we hypothesized that Rho and Rac1 signaling positively regulate CTHRC1-mediated SOX9 nuclear translocation. To address this hypothesis, 3T3-L1 cells were seeded in the presence of  $\beta$ gal or hCTHRC1 conditioned medium at a 1/60 dilution, with or without the combined treatment of NSC 23766 ("N") and Y-27632 ("Y"). NSC 23766 is a well-defined Rac1 activation-specific inhibitor (73), while Y-27632 is a potent inhibitor of the direct Rho effector, Rho-associated kinase (ROCK) (74). Significantly, the combined application of N (10  $\mu$ M, final) and Y (15  $\mu$ M, final) attenuated SOX9 nuclear translocation caused by treatment with hCTHRC1 conditioned medium (*Figure 14A*-*D*). Quantification of SOX9-positive nuclei further revealed that the combined application of N and Y reduced SOX9 nuclear translocation to the same basal levels in 3T3-L1 cells despite treatment with either bgal or hCTHRC1 conditioned medium (*Figure 14E*). Therefore, these data support that Rho and Rac1 signaling positively regulate SOX9 nuclear translocation induced by hCTHRC1 conditioned medium.



**Figure 14**. **CTHRC1 increases SOX9 nuclear localization in a Rho/Rac1-dependent manner**  *in vitro*. **A-E**) 3T3-L1 cells were seeded on Day -3 with  $\beta$ gal or hCTHRC1 conditioned medium at a 1/60 dilution in the absence or presence of the combined application of NSC 23766 (N; 10  $\mu$ M) and Y-27632 (Y; 15  $\mu$ M). N (NSC 23766) is a well-defined Rac1 activation-specific inhibitor, and Y (NSC 23766) is a potent inhibitor of the direct Rho effector, Rho-associated kinase. **A**-**D**) Representative confocal microscopy images of SOX9 protein localization on Day 0 in 3T3-L1 cells treated with either  $\beta$ gal conditioned medium  $(A,C)$  or hCTHRC1 conditioned

medium (**B**,**D**) in the absence (**A**,**B**) or presence (**C**,**D**) of the combined application of N (10  $\mu$ M) and Y (15 µM): nuclei (blue); SOX9 (green); F-actin/Alexa Fluor 546 Phalloidin (red). The length of the white rectangle (lower left-hand corner) denotes the scale: 25 µm. **E**) Quantification of SOX9<sup>+</sup> nuclei based on 10 separate fields per experiment (n=3; \*\*  $p \le 0.01$ ).

#### **3.11 Rho and Rac1 signaling positively regulate anti-adipogenic CTHRC1 activity**

Given data supporting that CTHRC1 increases SOX9 nuclear localization in a Rho/Rac1 dependent manner, we next investigated whether the combined chemical inhibition of Rac1 and Rho signaling pathways with N (NSC 23766) and Y (NSC 23766), respectively, negates the antiadipogenic effect produced by hCTHRC1 conditioned medium. As before, we applied  $\beta$ gal and hCTHRC1 conditioned media at dilutions of  $1/60$ , in which 3T3-L1 cells were treated with or without N and Y. However, the combined application of N and Y at final concentrations of 10  $\mu$ M and 15  $\mu$ M, respectively, resulted in significant detachment of cells several days after the onset of chemically stimulated adipogenic differentiation (data not shown). Therefore, we reduced the final concentrations of N and Y to 3  $\mu$ M and 5  $\mu$ M, respectively, and repeated the adipogenic differentiation experiments. Based on Oil Red O absorbance spectroscopy data, in three out of four experiments, hCTHRC1 conditioned medium produced a significant antiadipogenic effect when applied in the presence of N and Y (*Figure 15A*). However, when quantifying the percent suppression of Oil Red O staining relative to the application of hCTHRC1 conditioned medium, the application of N and Y significantly reduced the antiadipogenic effect of hCTHRC1 conditioned medium (*Figure 15B*). This result was further corroborated based on two-way analysis of variance (*Table B.1*), which indicated that hCTHRC1 conditioned medium produced a statistically greater anti-adipogenic effect when N and Y were

omitted. In correlating these Oil Red O data relative to SOX9 protein expression levels, it is noteworthy that, in direct comparison to cells treated with  $\beta$ gal conditioned medium, application of hCTHRC1 conditioned medium with or without the combined presence of N and Y (3  $\mu$ M and 5 µM, respectively) significantly increased SOX9 protein expression levels (*Figure 15C*,*D*). Critically, however, in assessing the effect of hCTHRC1 conditioned medium on SOX9 expression, the application of N and Y significantly reduced SOX9 protein expression levels in comparison to vehicle control (*Figure 15D*). Thus, the data presented here support the notion that the anti-adipogenic effect of hCTHRC1 conditioned medium is dependent on the positive regulation of Rho and Rac1 signaling.



**Figure 15**. **Rho and Rac1 signaling mediate the SOX9-dependent anti-adipogenic function of CTHRC1** *in vitro*. **A-D**) 3T3-L1 cells were seeded on Day -3 with  $\beta$ gal or hCTHRC1 conditioned medium at a dilution of 1/60, in the absence or presence of the combined application of NSC 23766 (N; 3  $\mu$ M) and Y-27632 (Y; 5  $\mu$ M) (N+Y). N (NSC 23766) is a well-defined Rac1 activation-specific inhibitor, and Y (Y-27632) is a potent inhibitor of the direct Rho effector, Rho-associated kinase. Whole-cell lysates were collected from cohorts of cells on Day 0 to assess SOX9 protein expression levels by Western blot analysis (**C**,**D**), while the other cohorts were chemically stimulated to undergo adipogenic differentiation for a total period of 6 days (**A**,**B**). **A**) Representative Oil Red O quantification data. 3T3-L1 cells were formalin fixed on Day 6 and stained with Oil Red O, which was then eluted and its concentration determined by absorbance spectroscopy. Per experiment, 3T3-L1 cells were plated in 24-well plates in which 6

wells each were treated with  $\beta$ gal or hCTHRC1 conditioned medium at a dilution of 1/60, in the presence or absence of N+Y (n=4; \*\*  $p \le 0.01$ , \*\*\*  $p \le 0.001$ , \*\*\*\*  $p \le 0.0001$ ). **B**) Graphical representation quantifying that hCTHRC1 conditioned medium has a significantly diminished anti-adipogenic effect when applied in the presence of N+Y (displayed as average percent reduction in Oil Red O staining relative to the application of hCTHRC1 conditioned medium). Data reflect the averages from four independent experiments ( $n=4$ ; \*\*  $p\leq 0.01$ ). **C**) Representative Western blot image where the vertical line denotes the splice junction within both SOX9 and GTF2B immunoblots. **D**) Average SOX9 protein fold change densitometry values relative to housekeeping GTF2B protein expression levels from four independent experiments  $(n=4; ** p \le 0.01, ** p \le 0.001).$ 

# **3.12 Individually suppressing either Rho or Rac1 signaling is not sufficient to negate antiadipogenic CTHRC1 activity**

Given data supporting that the anti-adipogenic effect of hCTHRC1 conditioned medium is dependent on the positive regulation of Rho and Rac1 signaling, we also assessed whether the independent chemical inhibition of Rac1 and Rho signaling pathways with N (NSC 23766) and Y (NSC 23766), respectively, could negate anti-adipogenic CTHRC1 activity. As such, we applied bgal and hCTHRC1 conditioned media at dilutions of 1/60, in which 3T3-L1 cells were treated with or without N, Y, or the combination of N and Y. Unlike the combined application of N and Y, the individual treatment of 3T3-L1 cells with either N or Y was not sufficient to significantly downregulate the anti-adipogenic effect of hCTHRC1 conditioned medium when comparing the results of three independent Oil Red O experiments (*Figure 16A*). Congruently, unlike the combined application of N and Y, the individual treatment of 3T3-L1 cells with either

N or Y was not able to attenuate the increase in SOX9 protein expression levels produced by hCTHRC1 conditioned medium (*Figure 16B*). Therefore, these results suggest that both Rho and Rac1 signaling are integral components with respect to the ability of hCTHRC1 conditioned medium to positively regulate SOX9 protein expression, as well as to negatively regulate *in vitro* adipogenesis.



**Figure 16**. **Individually suppressing Rho or Rac1 signaling pathways does not significantly downregulate SOX9 protein expression or the anti-adipogenic effect of CTHRC1** *in vitro*. **A,B**) 3T3-L1 cells were seeded on Day -3 with  $\beta$ gal or hCTHRC1 conditioned medium at a dilution of 1/60, in the absence or presence of NSC 23766 (N; 3  $\mu$ M), Y-27632 (Y; 5  $\mu$ M), or the combined application of N (3  $\mu$ M) and Y (5  $\mu$ M) (N+Y). N (NSC 23766) is a well-defined Rac1 activation-specific inhibitor, and Y (Y-27632) is a potent inhibitor of the direct Rho effector, Rho-associated kinase. Whole-cell lysates were collected from cohorts of cells on Day 0 to assess SOX9 protein expression levels by Western blot analysis (**B**), while the other cohorts were chemically stimulated to undergo adipogenic differentiation for a total period of 6 days (**A**). **A**) Graphical representation quantifying that hCTHRC1 conditioned medium has a significantly diminished anti-adipogenic effect when applied in the presence of N+Y, but not when applied in the individual presence of N or Y (displayed as average percent reduction in Oil Red O staining relative to the application of hCTHRC1 conditioned medium). 3T3-L1 cells were formalin fixed on Day 6 and stained with Oil Red O, which was then eluted and its concentration determined by absorbance spectroscopy. Per experiment, 3T3-L1 cells were plated in 24-well plates in which 6 wells each were treated with  $\beta$ gal or hCTHRC1 conditioned medium at a dilution of 1/60, in the presence or absence of N, Y, or N+Y. Data reflect the averages from three independent experiments ( $n=3$ ;  $*$   $p\leq 0.05$ ). **B**) Average SOX9 protein fold change densitometry values relative to housekeeping GTF2B protein expression levels from three independent experiments (n=3; \*  $p \le 0.05$ ).

#### **3.13 CTHRC1 enhances YAP nuclear translocation**

Based on our data supporting that Rho and Rac1 signaling positively regulates the antiadipogenic activity of CTHRC1, we next queried the literature to determine other potential CTHRC1 effector proteins with established anti-adipogenic function. Thus, the transcriptional regulator, yes-associated protein 1 (YAP), became a factor of interest given that it is known to inhibit 3T3-L1 adipogenic differentiation (75), while Rho and Rac1 signaling have been further shown to positively regulate YAP nuclear translocation (76). On this basis, we assessed the effect of hCTHRC1 conditioned medium on YAP nuclear translocation. 3T3-L1 cells were seeded on Day -3 with either  $\beta$ gal or hCTHRC1 conditioned medium at a 1/4 dilution, and then subjected to four days of chemically stimulated adipogenic differentiation. Confocal microscopy analysis of YAP nuclear translocation in 3T3-L1 cells revealed that application of hCTHRC1 conditioned medium significantly enhanced YAP nuclear localization on Day 0 in comparison to cells treated with bgal conditioned medium (*Figure 17A*,*B*). Moreover, enhanced YAP nuclear translocation was also observed on Day 4 of chemically stimulated adipogenic differentiation in  $3T3-L1$  cells treated with hCTHRC1 conditioned medium but not in cells treated with  $\beta gal$ conditioned medium (*Figure 17C*,*D*). These data support that hCTHRC1 conditioned medium enhances the basal levels of YAP nuclear translocation in preadipocytes, and also functions to preserve the expression levels of YAP in the nucleus when preadipocytes are chemically stimulated to undergo adipogenic differentiation *in vitro*.



**Figure 17**. **Exogenously applied hCTHRC1 conditioned medium enhances YAP nuclear translocation** *in vitro*. 3T3-L1 cells were seeded on Day -3 with either bgal or hCTHRC1 conditioned medium at a 1/4 dilution, after which cells were formalin fixed on either Day 0 or Day 4 relative to the chemical induction of adipogenic differentiation. **A**,**B**) Representative confocal microscopy images of YAP protein localization on Day 0 in 3T3-L1 cells treated with either bgal conditioned medium (**A**) or hCTHRC1 conditioned medium (**B**). **C**,**D**) Representative confocal microscopy images of YAP protein localization on Day 4 of adipogenic differentiation in 3T3-L1 cells treated with either bgal conditioned medium (**C**) or hCTHRC1 conditioned medium (**D**). Nuclei (blue); YAP (green); F-actin/Alexa Fluor 546 Phalloidin (red). The length of the white rectangle (lower left-hand corner) denotes the scale:  $20 \mu m$ .

## **3.14 CTHRC1-induced YAP nuclear translocation is positively regulated in a Rho/Rac1 dependent manner**

Given that Rho/Rac1 signaling have been shown to positively regulate YAP nuclear translocation (76), we next investigated whether the combined chemical inhibition of Rac1 and Rho signaling pathways with N (NSC 23766) and Y (NSC 23766), respectively, negates the ability of hCTHRC1 conditioned medium to regule YAP nuclear translocation. As before, we applied  $\beta$ gal and hCTHRC1 conditioned media at dilutions of 1/60, in which 3T3-L1 cells were treated with or without N and Y. Moreover, the combined application of N and Y attenuated YAP nuclear translocation caused by treatment with hCTHRC1 conditioned medium (*Figure*  18A-D). Therefore, these data support that Rho and Rac1 signaling positively regulate YAP nuclear translocation induced by hCTHRC1 conditioned medium.



**Figure 18**. **CTHRC1 induces YAP nuclear localization in a Rho/Rac1-dependent manner** *in vitro*. 3T3-L1 cells were seeded on Day -3 with  $\beta$ gal or hCTHRC1 conditioned medium at a 1/60 dilution in the absence or presence of the combined application of NSC 23766 (N; 10  $\mu$ M) and Y-27632 (Y; 15 µM) (N+Y). N (NSC 23766) is a well-defined Rac1 activation-specific inhibitor, and Y (Y-27632) is a potent inhibitor of the direct Rho effector, Rho-associated kinase. **A**-**D**) Representative confocal microscopy images of YAP protein localization on Day 0 in 3T3-L1 cells treated with either  $\beta$ gal conditioned medium  $(A,C)$  or hCTHRC1 conditioned medium  $(\mathbf{B}, \mathbf{D})$  in the absence  $(\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{B})$  or presence  $(\mathbf{C}, \mathbf{D})$  of the combined application of N and Y (N+Y): nuclei (blue); SOX9 (green); F-actin/Alexa Fluor 546 Phalloidin (red). The length of the white rectangle (lower left-hand corner) denotes the scale: 20 µm.

#### **3.15 Discussion of Chapter 3**

Our data highlight the anti-adipogenic function of CTHRC1, demonstrating its ability to negatively regulate adipogenic transcription factor gene expression at both the mRNA and protein levels. In this context, CTHRC1 also positively regulated *Sox9* gene expression and the nuclear localization of SOX9 protein. Congruent with the anti-adipogenic function of SOX9, wherein SOX9 silences adipogenic genes by binding to their promoter regions in an inhibitory manner (2, 42), CTHRC1 preserved SOX9 nuclear localization even after the chemical stimulation of adipogenic differentiation *in vitro*. This spatiotemporal observation supports that SOX9 nuclear translocation is a critical element of anti-adipogenic CTHRC1 signaling. We also identified the contribution of Rho-like GTPase signaling to the regulation of anti-adipogenic CTHRC1 function. Specifically, we observed that the combined suppression of Rho and Rac1 signaling attenuates the ability of CTHRC1 to enhance SOX9 protein expression as well as SOX9 nuclear localization, thus resulting in a significant reduction of anti-adipogenic CTHRC1 activity.

We further defined that SOX9 protein expression is indispensable to CTHRC1 antiadipogenic activity based on adipogenic differentiation studies that implemented RNAi-mediated *Sox9* gene knockdown in 3T3-L1 cells. The 3T3-L1 cell line, which constitutes the most extensively investigated *in vitro* model of adipogenesis (77), has been shown to display a diminished capacity to differentiate into adipocytes if extensively passaged or reaches confluence during passaging (68, 69). For this reason, as part of our RNAi-based studies, we did not implement single-cell cloning strategies following lentiviral transduction and puromycin selection of shSCR and shSOX9 cells. Despite extensively optimizing our lentiviral transduction methods, including the applied concentration of lentiviral particles for each vector, in addition to

refining the duration of transduction preceding puromycin selection, we consistently observed that more shSCR cells survived puromycin selection than shSOX9 cells. Thus, at the moment shSCR and shSOX9 cells were seeded for study, shSOX9 cells were at a slightly higher passage than shSCR cells. This is reflected in our Oil Red O absorbance spectroscopy data revealing that shSCR cells underwent an overall higher degree of adipogenic differentiation than shSOX9 cells. However, from these RNAi adipogenic differentiation studies, it was consistently observed that the anti-adipogenic effect of hCTHRC1 conditioned medium is dependent on SOX9 protein expression levels. In addition, chemical suppression of Rho and Rac1 signaling pathways not only enhanced the adipogenic differentiation of 3T3-L1 cells despite concomitant treatment with hCTHRC1 conditioned medium, but also significantly attenuated the ability of hCTHRC1 conditioned medium to enhance SOX9 protein expression. These results are congruent with Gulyaeva and colleagues who demonstrated that *Sox9*-deficient, primary mouse adipocyte progenitor cells underwent increased adipogenic differentiation *in vitro* in comparison to *Sox9* wildtype adipocyte progenitor cells (2), thus supporting the overall correlation between enhanced adipogenesis and decreased SOX9 expression. Collectively, these data support that a CTHRC1- Rho/Rac1-SOX9 signaling axis negatively regulates adipogenesis.

Application of hCTHRC1 conditioned medium to 3T3-L1 cells, as well as adenovirusmediated overexpression of human *CTHRC1* in 3T3-L1 cells, enhanced the F-actin cytoskeleton. As mesenchymal stem cells commit to the adipogenic lineage thus becoming adipocyte progenitor cells (*i*.*e*., preadipocytes) capable of undergoing adipogenic differentiation into mature adipocytes, downregulation of Rho-like GTPase signaling disrupts the F-actin cytoskeleton during the advancement of the adipogenesis program resulting in lipid-laden adipocytes with a rounded cell shape (78). The F-actin cytoskeleton is also regulated

concomitantly with Hippo-dependent or -independent signaling (79), which further mediates the nuclear translocation of YAP. In the case of Hippo-dependent signaling, YAP is sequestered in the cytoplasm given its association with adhesion molecules (*e*.*g*., cadherins) (79). In this context, cadherins also function to positively regulate the phosphorylation of large tumor suppressor kinases (LATS) which, in turn, phosphorylate angiomotins (AMOTs) resulting in their dissociation from the actin cytoskeleton where they can also sequester YAP in the cytoplasm (79). Depolymerization of the F-actin cytoskeleton further results in the dissociation of AMOTs from the actin cytoskeleton and their sequestration of cytoplasmic YAP (76). On the other hand, activation of receptor tyrosine kinases and G(q) protein-coupled receptors functions to inhibit LATS phosphorylation thus stimulating YAP nuclear translocation (76). Hippoindependent regulation of YAP pertains to how the cell responds to the tension of the extracellular matrix such that a stiff mechanical environment enhances the formation of F-actin stress fibers that associate with focal adhesions to promote YAP nuclear translocation (80). Thus, common to both Hippo-dependent and -independent signaling is the architecture of the robust Factin cytoskeleton in promoting the shuttling of cytoplasmic YAP to the nucleus.

As with SOX9, application of hCTHRC1 conditioned medium to 3T3-L1 cells preserved YAP nuclear localization even after the chemical stimulation of adipogenic differentiation *in vitro*. Once translocated to the nucleus, YAP interacts with its cognate DNA-binding partners, the TEA domain (TEAD) proteins, to regulate gene transcription (76). Relatedly, YAP is a known transcriptional activator of *SOX9* gene expression (81). Therefore, while our data support that Rho and Rac1 signaling enhance the nuclear localization of both YAP and SOX9, future investigations will be required to confirm whether YAP is situated directly within the CTHRC1-

SOX9 axis, where it could function to positively regulate *SOX9* gene expression and thus augment anti-adipogenic CTHRC1 signaling.

Further investigations are also required to discern the mechanism by which CTHRC1 enhances SOX9 nuclear translocation. Posttranslational modifications are known to modify SOX9 function, in which the phosphorylation of SOX9 at serine residue 181 has been shown to enhance SOX9 nuclear translocation and DNA binding activity (82). While it is conceivable that the phosphorylation of SOX9 at serine 181 could augment the overall anti-adipogenic function of SOX9, this has yet to be addressed in the literature. In addition, serine 181 of SOX9 has been identified as a direct substrate for multiple kinases including Rho-associated kinase (82) and AKT (83). With respect to the activities of these kinases, Y-27632 directly inhibits the kinase function of Rho-associated kinase, while the inhibition of Rac1 activity with NSC 23766 could potentially suppress AKT signaling based on literature situating Rac1-GTP (*i*.*e*., "active" Rac1) upstream of the PI3K-AKT pathway (84). In this manner, it is plausible that the chemical suppression of Rho and Rac1 signaling pathways with Y-27632 and NSC 23766, respectively, could inhibit SOX9 phosphorylation thus downregulating overall SOX9 nuclear translocation. Finally, based on a report by Feng and colleagues, it is noteworthy that G(q) protein-coupled receptor signaling activates Rac1 and Rho via the guanine nucleotide-binding protein alpha-q (GNAQ)-regulated guanine nucleotide exchange factor, TRIO (76). This report further established that a GNAQ-Rho/Rac1 axis of signaling functions to enhance YAP nuclear translocation (76). Therefore, we suggest that the nuclear translocation of both YAP and SOX9 could be cohesively regulated by a CTHRC1-Rho/Rac1 axis of signaling.



**Figure 19**. **Proposed model of a CTHRC1-Rho/Rac1-YAP-SOX9 axis of signaling**. Our data support the hypothesis that the anti-adipogenic effect of CTHRC1 is positively regulated by SOX9. We provided further evidence supporting that Rho and Rac1 signaling mediates the CTHRC1-SOX9 axis, in which the combined chemical inhibition of Rho and Rac1 signaling pathways downregulates the anti-adipogenic effect of CTHRC1 and its ability to enhance both SOX9 protein expression and SOX9 nuclear translocation. YAP is a transcriptional regulator with demonstrated anti-adipogenic function, and it has also been shown to enhance *SOX9* gene expression. As with SOX9, YAP nuclear localization induced by hCTHRC1 conditioned medium is also suppressed commensurate to the chemical inhibition of Rho and Rac1 signaling. We suggest that YAP could be situated directly within the CTHRC1-SOX9 axis, where it could function to enhance *SOX9* gene expression and thus positively regulate the overall anti-

adipogenic activity of CTHRC1. CTHRC1 also enhances the F-actin cytoskeleton. We further suggest that CTHRC1 positively regulates Rho/Rac1 signaling to maintain a robust F-actin cytoskeleton that promotes the shuttling of YAP and SOX9 to the nucleus.

# **CHAPTER 4: CTHRC1 IS EXPRESSED IN PDGFR-ALPHA+ STROMAL CELLS OF ADIPOSE**

## **4.1** *Cthrc1* **gene expression in subcutaneous white adipose tissue decreases during postnatal development**

We have previously reported that stromal vascular fraction (SVF) cells harvested from mouse inguinal white adipose tissue (iWAT) express detectable *Cthrc1* mRNA levels (55), while it has been further demonstrated from transcriptomic analysis of C57BL/6 mice that *Cthrc1* gene expression in iWAT decreases during early postnatal development (*Figure 20A*). Congruently, we observed a marked decrease in *Cthrc1* gene expression in the iWAT isolated from 3-monthold mice versus 7-day-old mice (*Figure 20B*). Taken together, these data suggest that *Cthrc1* gene expression in mouse iWAT is downregulated throughout postnatal development.



**Figure 20**. **Postnatal decrease of** *Cthrc1* **gene expression in mouse subcutaneous adipose tissue**. **A**) *Cthrc1*, *Mfap5*, and *Pdgfra* mRNA expression levels in inguinal white adipose tissue
(iWAT) during postnatal development. Koza and colleagues (3) conducted microarray analyses of RNA isolated from the iWAT of C57BL/6 male mice aged 5, 10, 21, and 56 days, in which *Cthrc1* and *Mfap5* gene expression were shown to decrease in iWAT during early postnatal development. **B**) qPCR analysis of *Cthrc1* gene expression in iWAT isolated from 7-day-old and 3-month-old C57BL/6 male mice. Data were normalized to housekeeping *Gtf2b* expression levels, and are presented as the average fold value per mouse  $(n=4; ** p \le 0.01)$ .

# **4.2 Wildtype and** *Cthrc1***-null juvenile mice display differential** *Sox9* **gene expression in subcutaneous white adipose tissue**

On the basis that *Cthrc1* gene expression in mouse inguinal white adipose tissue (iWAT) decreases throughout postnatal development (*Figure 20*), we next proceeded to analyze *Sox9* gene expression in the iWAT isolated from 7-day-old wildtype and *Cthrc1*-null C57BL/6 littermate mice, and observed significantly higher *Sox9* gene expression levels among the iWAT derived from wildtype pups (*Figure 21*). These data provide evidence in support of correlative *Cthrc1* and *Sox9* gene expression patterns within mouse subcutaneous white adipose tissue.

### *Sox9* **Gene Expression in Juvenile iWAT**



**Figure 21**. *Cthrc1***-null mice display decreased** *Sox9* **gene expression in subcutaneous adipose tissue**. qPCR analysis of *Sox9* gene expression in iWAT isolated from 7-day-old wildtype and *Cthrc1*-null C57BL/6 littermate mice that were derived from heterozygous breeding pairs (three litters in total). Data were normalized to housekeeping *Gtf2b* expression levels, and are presented as the average fold value per mouse ( $n=5$ ;  $*$   $p\leq 0.05$ ).

### **4.3 CTHRC1 is expressed among PDGFR-alpha+ stromal cells in subcutaneous white adipose tissue**

Next, we conducted multi-parameter flow cytometry (*Figure 22A*-*H*) to assess CTHRC1 protein expression among SVF cells harvested from the iWAT of juvenile C57BL/6 mice (5-day-old pups). Following the strategy of Gulyaeva and colleagues (2), SVF cells that expressed either TER119 (erythroid cells), CD31 (endothelial cells), or CD45 (immune cells) were excluded from the multi-parameter analysis that assessed CTHRC1 expression chiefly among CD24<sup>+</sup> or

PDGFR-alpha+ SVF cells. Accordingly, CTHRC1 was detected in PDGFR-alpha+ SVF cells (*Figure 22F*), with negligible CTHRC1 expression detected in CD24+ SVF cells (*Figure 22G*). Among PDGFR-alpha<sup>+</sup> SVF cells, we also identified a subpopulation(s) of YAP<sup>+</sup>:CTHRC1<sup>+</sup> cells (*Figure 22H*). Intriguingly, all CTHRC1+ SVF cells were shown to express YAP (*Figure 22H*). As with PDGFR-alpha+ SVF cells, not all YAP+ SVF cells expressed CTHRC1; however, our findings nevertheless reveal the existence of PDGFR-alpha $\text{``YAP\text{''}:CTHRC1''}$  stromal cells expressed in mouse subcutaneous white adipose tissue.



**Figure 22**. **PDGFR-alpha+ stromal cells express CTHRC1** *in vivo*. **A**-**H**) Representative multi-parameter workflow, displayed in the form of contour plots, assessing endogenous CTHRC1 protein expression in  $CD24^+$  versus PDGFR-alpha<sup>+</sup> stromal vascular fraction (SVF) cells. SVF cells were harvested from the iWAT of 5-day-old wildtype and *Cthrc1*-null C57BL/6 mice. SVF cells from three mice were pooled together per genotype (n=4). Dead SVF cells, in addition to SVF cells of erythroid lineage (TER119<sup>+</sup>), CD31<sup>+</sup> endothelial cells, and CD45<sup>+</sup>

immune cells (*i*.*e*., lineage-negative cells), were omitted from the multi-parameter FACS analysis. **A**,**B**) VioBlue-treated SVF cells stained without (**A**) or with (**B**) lineage-negative markers. Side scatter (SCC) area. **C**,**D**) Live SVF cells treated without (**C**) or with (**D**) antibodies against CD24 and PDGFR-alpha. **E**) No detectable CTHRC1 expression in PDGFR-alpha<sup>+</sup> SVF cells derived from *Cthrc1*-null mice. **F**) Detectable CTHRC1 expression in certain PDGFRalpha+ SVF cells derived from age-matched wildtype mice*.* **G**) Negligible expression of CTHRC1 in CD24+ SVF cells derived from age-matched wildtype mice. **H**) PDGFRalpha+:CTHRC1+ stromal cells express YAP.

# **4.4** *PDGFRA***+:***MFAP5***<sup>+</sup> cells express** *CTHRC1* **and** *SOX9* **in human subcutaneous white adipose tissue**

Next, we evaluated *CTHRC1* gene expression in adult human subcutaneous white adipose tissues, brown adipose tissue (BAT), and perivascular adipose tissue (PVAT). Based on available single-nuclei or single-cell RNA sequencing databases, we observed significant *CTHRC1*  expression in human subcutaneous white adipose tissues, principally among cells expressing high mRNA levels of *PDGFRA* and *MFAP5* (microfibrillar-associated protein 5) (*i*.*e*., *PDGFRA*+:*MFAP5*<sup>+</sup> cell populations) (*Figure 23A*-*D*). While *CTHRC1* expression in subcutaneous white adipose tissues did not differ in lean versus obese human subjects, it was not significantly detectable in human BAT or PVAT (*Figure 23C*). Furthermore, *SOX9* mirrored the gene expression patterns of *CTHRC1*, albeit expressed at lower levels, and was most abundantly expressed in human subcutaneous white adipose tissues among *PDGFRA*+:*MFAP5*<sup>+</sup> cell populations (*Figure 23D*). Therefore, the analysis of *PDGFRA*+:*MFAP5*<sup>+</sup> stromal cells in human

subcutaneous white adipose tissues demonstrated a positive correlation between patterns of *CTHRC1* and *SOX9* gene expression.



**Figure 23**. **Identification of** *CTHRC1* **and** *SOX9* **gene expression in** *PDGFRA***+:***MFAP5***<sup>+</sup> enriched cell populations in human subcutaneous white adipose tissue. A**) Harmonized UMAP projection of perivascular adipose and brown adipose single-nuclei RNA sequencing, as well as subcutaneous white adipose single-cell RNA sequencing, from lean and obese human donors. Data were filtered based on number of unique features and percent.mt. Doublets were

removed using Scrublet. **B**) UMAP projection displaying *CTHRC1* and *SOX9* expression as indicated by purple coloration. *CTHRC1* expression is observed in *PDGFRA*+:*MFAP5*<sup>+</sup> cell populations in subcutaneous white adipose from both lean and obese human donors. *SOX9* mirrors *CTHRC1* gene expression patterns, though is expressed at lower levels. **C**,**D**) ViolinPlots displaying the distribution of *CTHRC1* (**C**) and *SOX9* (**D**) expression among *PDGFRA*+:*MFAP5*<sup>+</sup> cells in human perivascular, brown, and subcutaneous white adipose tissues. Mean expression is displayed by a blue horizontal bar. In comparing subcutaneous white adipose from lean versus obese human donors, there was no significant difference in the expression levels of *CTHRC1* or *SOX9*.

#### **4.5 Discussion of Chapter 4**

The results of multi-parameter flow cytometry analysis identified a novel PDGFRalpha<sup>+</sup>:CTHRC1<sup>+</sup> stromal cell population retained within inguinal white adipose tissue (iWAT). During early postnatal development, adipose tissue compartments are significantly expanding due to two central factors: (i) adipocyte progenitor cells are actively recruited to differentiate into adipocytes, and (ii) there is a simultaneous increase in adipocyte hypertrophy (85). From lineage tracing investigations of stromal vascular fraction (SVF) cells in iWAT, mesenchymal stems cells define the earliest adipocyte progenitor cell population and are characterized by PREF1<sup>+</sup>:CD24<sup>+</sup>:PDGFR-alpha<sup>-</sup> expression (2). Ultimately, mesenchymal stem cells advancing in the adipogenic lineage become PREF1: CD24: PDGFR-alpha<sup>+</sup> preadipocytes capable of undergoing terminal differentiation to white adipocytes (Gulyaeva et al., 2018). Our finding that CTHRC1 is expressed among CD24: PDGFR-alpha<sup>+</sup> stromal cells in mouse iWAT could

therefore suggest that CTHRC1 is expressed in the adipogenic lineage among a population of preadipocytes.

In a recent study focused on the gene expression profiles of human adipose tissue-derived SVF cells, *CTHRC1* mRNA levels were significantly enhanced following the chemical induction of adipogenic differentiation of these SVF cells *in vitro* (86). However, *CTHRC1* mRNA expression was upregulated in a SVF subpopulation that did not terminally differentiate into mature adipocytes and was chiefly characterized by high expression levels of extracellular matrix genes (86). Relatedly, to identify cells expressing *CTHRC1* in human adipose tissues we queried single-cell and single-nuclei transcriptomic data, and report herein selective expression of *CTHRC1* in *PDGFRA*+:*MFAP5*<sup>+</sup> gene-rich cell populations in subcutaneous white adipose tissues, but not within BAT or PVAT. *CTHRC1* and *SOX9* displayed correlative gene expression patterns among these *PDGFRA*+:*MFAP5*<sup>+</sup> cells, which supports the hypothesis that CTHRC1 could function *in vivo* to positively regulate *SOX9* gene expression within white adipose tissues. Moreover, Vaittinen and colleagues found that MFAP5 localizes in the extracellular matrix of human abdominal subcutaneous adipose tissue (87). Using an *in vitro* model of human adipogenic differentiation, it was also reported that *MFAP5* mRNA is expressed maximally in preadipocytes and minimally in adipocytes (87), data which are congruent with a recent investigation demonstrating that MFAP5 suppresses 3T3-L1 cell adipogenic differentiation (88). Although MFAP5 has been characterized as a secreted protein associated with microfibrils within the extracellular matrix (87), Zhang and colleagues reported an intracellular functionality in its suppression of adipogenesis given that MFAP5 was shown to both bind to and inhibit the expression of SND1 (Staphylococcal nuclease and tudor domain-containing 1), which is a wellestablished co-activator of PPAR-gamma (88). Intriguingly, similar to the gene expression

profile of *Cthrc1* in mouse iWAT, *Mfap5* mRNA levels also decrease during early postnatal development, suggesting that downregulation of both *Cthrc1* and *Mfap5* gene expression could be required for terminal differentiation of preadipocytes *in vivo*. Importantly, in directly comparing the degree of *Sox9* gene expression among iWAT derived from wildtype and *Cthrc1* null juvenile littermate mice, *Sox9* mRNA levels were significantly enhanced in wildtype mice. These data further present the possibility that CTHRC1 could function as a regulator of SOX9 *in vivo*.

MFAP5 expression has also been reported in various fibroblast populations, including cancer-associated fibroblasts (89). Similarly, although PDGFR-alpha is expressed in preadipocytes (2), it is a known marker of stromal fibroblast populations that are separate from the adipogenic lineage (90). Regarding stromal cells resident to white adipose tissues, Marcelin and colleagues found that PDGFR-alpha<sup>+</sup>:CD9<sup>high</sup> stromal populations possess a myofibroblastic phenotype. Notably, *Cthrc1* mRNA expression significantly correlated with this PDGFR-alpha<sup>+</sup> sub-population robustly expressing CD9 protein (91). Correspondingly, *Mfap5* gene expression was enhanced in this PDGFR-alpha<sup>+</sup>:CD9<sup>high</sup> stromal cell population (91). *Cthrc1* mRNA expression has also been detected in cardiac fibroblasts (67, 70). In one report, both *Cthrc1* and *Sox9* gene expression were significantly upregulated in a subpopulation of activated, pro-fibrotic fibroblasts following myocardial infarction in mice (67). More recently, Hironaka and colleagues demonstrated using mouse cardiac myofibroblasts that the actin binding protein, drebrin, stabilizes the F-actin cytoskeleton, increases *Cthrc1* gene expression, and promotes the nuclear translocation of SOX9 protein (70). Therefore, this corroborating investigation suggests that Factin stability, in relation to SOX9 localization within the nucleus, comprise core elements of CTHRC1-related signaling. Among white adipose tissues, our data present the possibility that

CTHRC1 could be expressed in the adipogenic lineage among a population of preadipocytes. On the other hand, CTHRC1 may also be expressed in adipose PDGFR-alpha<sup>+</sup> stromal fibroblasts, from where it could be secreted in order to tightly regulate the differentiation of adipocyte progenitor cells therein. Accordingly, refined lineage tracing experiments will be essential in order to elucidate the expression of CTHRC1 among discrete fibroblastic and/or adipocyte progenitor cell populations of adipose tissues. In that connection, using mice we also demonstrated that all CTHRC1<sup>+</sup> stromal cells within subcutaneous white adipose tissue express YAP. While these data suggest coregulation of the *CTHRC1* and *YAP* genes *in vivo*, it is plausible that CTHRC1 is a positive regulator of *YAP* gene expression (or vice versa) among specific populations of adipose tissue stromal cells. Our novel identification of PDGFRalpha<sup>+</sup>:YAP<sup>+</sup>:CTHRC1<sup>+</sup> stromal cells could thus aid future investigations seeking to define the lineage identify and function of these CTHRC1+ stromal cells *in vivo*.

 Adipose tissue hypertrophy and hyperplasia are well defined characteristics of obesity, in which obese individuals are at a greater risk of developing diabetes, metabolic syndrome, and other related comorbidities (1). In the obese state, there are multiple lines of evidence supporting that adipocytes can become insulin resistant (6). In the lean state, adipocyte turnover, in which old adipocytes are degraded and new adipocytes arise owing to adipogenic differentiation, has also been demonstrated to be an essential facet of maintaining insulin-responsive adipocytes (92). Thus, future investigations will be critical in order to fully define the molecular mechanism by which CTHRC1 suppresses adipogenic signaling, and how CTHRC1 could be therapeutically targeted to finely regulate the rate at which new, insulin-responsive adipocytes are formed, while altogether preventing precocious adipogenesis *in vivo*.



**Figure 24**. **Conceptualizing the CTHRC1-SOX9 axis within white adipose tissues**. Graphical illustration addressing the question of whether CTHRC1 is expressed and secreted from adipocyte progenitor cells and/or fibroblasts within white adipose tissues. As with adipocyte progenitor cells, fibroblast cells are also present in the adipocyte compartment, though mostly within the vascular adventitia. We report herein the presence of CTHRC1 in PDGFR-alpha<sup>+</sup> stromal cells derived from mouse subcutaneous white adipose tissue, and also report the selective expression of *CTHRC1* mRNA within a *PDGFRA*+:*MFAP5*<sup>+</sup> gene-rich cell population retained

in human subcutaneous white adipose tissue. Adipocyte progenitor cells and fibroblasts both express PDGFR-alpha and MFAP5; therefore, our investigation highlights the possibility that CTHRC1 could be expressed within adipogenic and/or fibroblastic lineages among white adipose tissues. Both scenarios support that CTHRC1, owing to its secretion from such PDGFRalpha+ stromal cells, could suppress the local differentiation of adipocyte progenitor cells through its putative anti-adipogenic effector protein, SOX9. If CTHRC1 is expressed among adipocyte progenitor cells, this could further suggest that the CTHRC1-SOX9 axis functions in a feedforward manner to negatively regulate adipogenesis *in vivo*. Additional questions arise from the observation that *Cthrc1* gene expression in mouse subcutaneous white adipose tissue markedly decreases during early postnatal development (*Figure 20*). Is this trend recapitulated during human development? If so, is *CTHRC1* gene expression regulated at low levels in human white adipose tissues? Commensurate to adipocyte turnover in adult white adipose tissues, is *CTHRC1* gene expression transiently activated as a means to limit the degree of new adipocyte formation therein? Finally, does the CTHRC1-SOX9 axis function to prevent precocious adipogenesis *in vivo*, thus regulating the formation of insulin-responsive white adipocytes which promote the metabolic fitness of adipose tissues that cater to whole-body energy demands?

#### **CHAPTER 5: PERSPECTIVES ON SOX9**

Our data support the hypothesis that CTHRC1 is a positive regulator of SOX9. For example, our *in vitro* results demonstrate that CTHRC1 enhances *Sox9* gene expression and positively regulates SOX9 nuclear translocation. In the context of adipogenesis, the expression of SOX9 within the nucleus is paramount to its anti-adipogenic function given that it inhibits adipogenic gene promoters (2). Our *in vivo* data provide further evidence supporting that CTHRC1 regulates SOX9 gene expression. Moreover, in one study directly comparing juvenile wildtype and C*thrc1*-null littermate mice, *Sox9* gene expression was significantly higher in the inguinal white adipose tissue of wildtype mice. From RNA sequencing, we also observed correlative gene expression patterns between *CTHRC1* and *SOX9* in *PDGFRA*+:*MFAP5*<sup>+</sup> cell populations retained in human subcutaneous white adipose tissues. Given our *in vitro* data supporting that SOX9 is a critical regulator of anti-adipogenic CTHRC1 activity, we further posit that a CTHRC1-SOX9 axis of signaling functions to regulate adipogenesis *in vivo*.

SOX9 is a member of the SRY-type HMG box (SOX) family of transcription factors which are characterized by a high mobility group (HMG) box DNA-binding domain, and is further part of the SOXE subgroup including SOX8 and SOX10 which share collective structural homology (93). SOX9 possesses a consensus DNA-binding motif (AGAACAATGG), while the HMG domain of SOX9 facilitates its sequence-specific DNA binding (94). The dimerization domain (DIM) of SOX9 is situated near the N-terminus and is adjacent to the HMG domain (93). The DIM domain of SOX9 promotes homodimerization, as well as heretodimerization with other SOXE subgroup members (95). In certain contexts, SOX9 dimerization is required for its DNA binding and transcriptional activity, including the activation of cartilage-specific genes (95).

Additionally, SOX9 possesses two transactivation domains: the transactivation domain located in the middle (TAM), and the transactivation domain at the C-terminus (TAC) (93). TAM and TAC domains enhance the transcriptional activity of SOX9 by engaging transcriptional co-activators. For example, the TAC domain has been shown to interact directly with mediator complex subunit 12 (MED12), CREB binding protein/E1A binding protein p300 (CBP/p300), WW domain containing E3 ubiquitin protein ligase 2 (WWP2), and Tat interactive protein-60 (TIP60) (93, 96). Relative to established anti-adipogenic gene targets of SOX9 as discussed in the previous section (*1.1.4 Terminal adipogenic differentiation*), Gulyaeva and colleagues reported the finding that SOX9 transcriptionally activates *Meis1*, and further demonstrated that MEIS1 suppresses adipogenesis by directly inhibiting the gene promoters of C/EBP alpha, C/EBP beta, C/EBP delta, and PPAR-gamma (2). SOX9 is referred to as the master regulator of chondrogenesis and drives the chondrogenic lineage commitment of mesenchymal stem cells (93). Thus, the potent, redundant anti-adipogenic function of the SOX9-MEIS1 axis further underscores the important role SOX9 plays in the regulation of mesenchymal lineages. Future investigations are necessary to elucidate if CTHRC1 can promote the expression of MEIS1 either in a SOX9-depedent or -independent manner, and whether CTHRC1 also functions to enhance the transcriptional activity of SOX9 by regulating its DNA binding, dimerization, or transactivation domains. In addition, it further remains to be determined whether CTHRC1 regulates SOX9 posttranslational modifications, its RNA-binding functions (a unique manner in which SOX9 regulates protein translation of certain target genes), or the activity of SOX9 as an identified pioneer factor capable of regulating chromatin accessibility and the epigenome (93, 97, 98).

In various cellular contexts, SOX9 gene expression has been shown to be positively regulated by multiple signaling factors including prostaglandin D2 (PGD2), hedgehog, fibroblast growth factor (FGF), non-canonical WNT, BMP, and TGFB1 (93, 97). As discussed in the previous section (*3.15 Discussion of Chapter 3*), YAP is also a known transcriptional activator of SOX9 (97). Thinking in terms beyond the scope of the proposed CTHRC1-YAP-SOX9 signaling axis suggested herein, for example, BMP and TGFB1 both positively regulate CTHRC1 and SOX9 gene expression (45, 97). However, the relationship between CTHRC1 and TGFB1 is dichotomous in that, while TGFB1 is known to enhance CTHRC1 expression, CTHRC1 can act as a negative regulator of TGFB1 signaling (45, 52). It is plausible that, in certain contexts, CTHRC1 could downregulate TGFB1 signaling thus suppressing SOX9 expression. While SOX9 is known to inhibit terminal adipogenic differentiation, Gulyaeva and colleagues also placed SOX9 directly in the adipogenic lineage within adipose, revealing that *Sox9* gene expression is expressed maximally in mesenchymal stem cells and to a lesser degree in PDGRFalpha<sup>+</sup> preadipocytes  $(93)$ . Therefore, these data support the finding that SOX9 is a negative regulator of mesenchymal stem cell adipogenic lineage commitment as well as preadipocyte-toadipocyte differentiation. While the link between TGFB1 and SOX9 signaling has not yet been functionally established in the adipose tissue biology/adipogenesis fields, it is thought provoking to speculate that CTHRC1 could, at times, context-dependently suppress TGFB1/SOX9 signaling to promote the adipogenic lineage commitment of mesenchymal stem cells. This effect would thus increase the available pool of preadipocytes capable of differentiating into adipocytes. Commensurate to the metabolic needs of adipose tissues to maintain their supply of insulin-responsive adipocytes, CTHRC1 could theoretically regulate a "healthy" degree of adipocyte turnover *in vivo* by reengaging SOX9 signaling at this juncture to prevent precocious

adipogenesis. This speculative point further addresses the need to determine how CTHRC1 influences the adipogenic lineage at large, particularly with respect to the regulation of multiple signaling pathways and networks that choreograph the formation of mature adipocytes from mesenchymal progenitor cells.

### **CHAPTER 6: CONSOLIDATED DISCUSSION, PITFALLS, SUCCESSES, AND FUTURE EXPERIMENTAL DIRECTIONS**

This final chapter is composed principally in a narrative form and addressed to those who might inherit this body of work and seek to expand the knowledge of how CTHRC1 contributes to the field of adipose tissue biology research. In this section, I outline the trajectory of my experimental reasonings and findings. Perhaps most important, I also explain my experimental failures and shortcomings, and offer my opinion on how research devoted to anti-adipogenic CTHRC1 signaling could be advanced.

The publication by our group, "Cthrc1 controls adipose tissue formation, body composition, and physical activity" (55), established the correlation between high CTHRC1 expression levels and reduced lipid accumulation in differentiating adipocytes *in vitro*, thus paving the way for me to investigate if CTHRC1 regulates adipogenic gene expression. Prior to my work optimizing and utilizing human CTHRC1 conditioned medium (discussed below), I relied on adenovirus to overexpress human CTHRC1 in preadipocyte cell lines (*e*.*g*., 3T3-L1 cells). As illustrated in *Figure C.1.*, adenoviral-mediated hCTHRC1 overexpression in 3T3-L1 cells significantly decreased *Cebpb*, *Cebpd*, *Cebpa*, and *Pparg* gene expression levels. Intriguingly, in two out of three conditioned medium experiments, 3T3-L1 cells treated with hCTHRC1 conditioned medium showed significantly increased *Cebpb* mRNA levels on Day 0, while *Cebpd* mRNA levels on Day 0 were downregulated by application of hCTHRC1 conditioned medium in all three experiments (*Figure 7*). These collective data suggest that there are differences in the regulation of *Cebpb* gene expression in an experimental model system where hCTHRC1 is more constitutively expressed (*i*.*e*., adenoviral transduction) versus methods where hCTHRC1 conditioned medium is applied once daily. Regarding the latter, it would also be important to discern the relative activity of hCTHRC1 conditioned medium. For example, relative to a single application of hCTHRC1 conditioned medium to 3T3-L1 cells or other cell types, when is *Sox9* gene expression maximally expressed? How long does it take for SOX9 to maximally translocate to the nucleus? Better understanding such spatiotemporal dynamics could be a critical determinant in optimizing future experiments to further address the putative CTHRC1-SOX9 signaling axis. Since SOX9 is known to directly bind to the proximal promoter regions of *Cebpb* and *Cebpd* in an inhibitory manner (2), why does adenoviral overexpression of hCTHRC1 in 3T3-L1 cells, or the daily application of hCTHRC1 conditioned medium to 3T3-L1 cells, both result in marked downregulation of *Cebpd* gene expression on Day 0, while *Cebpb* mRNA levels display differential patterns of expression when comparing the qPCR results based on these two discrete *in vitro* methods of introducing hCTHRC1 to 3T3-L1 cells? In this respect, I think one important future direction would be to assess if adenoviral-mediated hCTHRC1 overexpression or the application of hCTHRC1 conditioned medium regulates the binding of SOX9 to adipogenic genes including *Cebpb*, *Cebpd*, *Cebpa*, and *Pparg*. These chromatin immunoprecipitation (ChIP) efforts could also be accompanied by sequencing (*i*.*e*., ChIP-Seq) to determine the broader landscape of how CTHRC1 might regulate SOX9-DNA interactions. Such data could be fundamentally important to the understanding of how adipogenesis is regulated in states of health versus obesity. If CTHRC1 regulates the binding of SOX9 to specific DNA enhancer regions or regulatory elements in states of health to control adipogenesis and adipocyte turnover within adipose tissues, for example, might certain obesogenic phenotypes be attributed to mutations that hinder or prevent CTHRC1-mediated SOX9 DNA binding? My collective body of thesis work supports the hypothesis that CTHRC1 positively regulates multiple facets of

SOX9 signaling including its gene expression levels and protein nuclear translocation, and assessing whether CTHRC1 also regulates SOX9 DNA binding activity would be a logical step forward.

Given the finding that adenoviral-mediated hCTHRC1 overexpression in 3T3-L1 cells suppresses adipogenic gene expression (*Figure C.1.*) in the early stages of my Ph.D. studies, I next investigated whether this anti-adipogenic effect is potentially regulated by C/EBPhomologous protein (CHOP). CHOP is an anti-adipogenic factor that prevents C/EBP beta, C/EBP delta, and C/EBP alpha DNA binding as a result of forming heterodimers with these adipogenic transcription factors (99, 100). Consequently, CHOP protein expression has also been shown to be downregulated early in the adipogenesis program *in vitro* (99). We happened to possess a monoclonal antibody against CHOP, and I designed an experiment in which whole-cell lysates were prepared from adenovirally transduced 3T3-L1 cells on Day 0 and Day 2 relative to the onset of chemically induced adipogenic differentiation. Interestingly, we observed in a reproducible manner that CHOP protein expression is increased on Day 2 in 3T3-L1 cells overexpressing hCTHRC1 (*Figure D.1.*). I next investigated the effect of adenoviral-mediated hCTHRC1 overexpression on *Chop* mRNA levels in 3T3-L1 cells at multiple timepoints during the course of adipogenic differentiation. Paradoxically, these qPCR data revealed that hCTHRC1 overexpression significantly decreased *Chop* gene expression in 3T3-L1 cells (*Figure D.1.*). However, because we consistently observed that CHOP protein expression was increased on Day 2 of adipogenic differentiation in 3T3-L1 cells overexpressing hCTHRC1, we developed a RNAi strategy to investigate whether *Chop* mRNA knockdown affects the ability of hCTHRC1 overexpression to suppress 3T3-L1 cell adipogenic differentiation. I spent considerable time and effort investigating the *Chop* knockdown efficiency of multiple shRNA constructs, and learned

the hard way that 3T3-L1 cells are exceedingly difficult to directly transfect with retroviral plasmid vectors. I observed that nucleofection strategies augment 3T3-L1 cell transfection efficiency in comparison to lipofectamine-based procedures; however, in hindsight, I made the critical mistake of using single-cell cloning strategies to propagate puromycin-selected 3T3-L1 cells, which resulted in populations of transfected cells with meager abilities to differentiate into adipocytes in culture (data not shown). To further avoid the pitfalls of these *Chop* knockdown experiments using 3T3-L1 cells, we next acquired age-matched wildtype and *Chop*-null C57BL/6 male mice from which I harvested stromal vascular cells from inguinal white adipose tissue. These primary stromal cells were transduced with control or hCTHRC1-expressing adenovirus, and then subjected to chemically stimulated adipogenic differentiation (*Figure D.1.*) supporting that CHOP does not regulate the ability of hCTHRC1 overexpression to suppress adipogenesis *in vitro*. Using 3T3-L1 cells, I later observed that application of hCTHRC1 conditioned medium markedly suppressed CHOP protein expression on Day 0 and Day 2 relative to the onset of chemically stimulated adipogenic differentiation (*Figure D.1.*). Since CHOP protein expression has been shown to be induced by endoplasmic reticulum (ER) stress (101), it is plausible that increased CHOP protein levels observed on Day 2 of adipogenic differentiation in 3T3-L1 cells overexpressing hCTHRC1 (*Figure D.1.*) was an artifact of ER stress primarily attributable to a high degree of adenoviral-mediated hCTHRC1 synthesis and ER processing.

The co-culture data presented in *Figure 5* support the hypothesis that CTHRC1 could exert its anti-adipogenic effects in a paracrine manner, and so I next started to develop the methodology of applying secreted CTHRC1 to cells in the form of the conditioned medium. The choice to focus on conditioned medium was attributed to the limitation that we did not possess a reliable form of recombinant human CTHRC1 (though recently, colleagues of Dr. Lindner at

Boehringer Ingelheim have produced recombinant CTHRC1 with demonstrated pro-glycolytic activity in cultured endothelial cells, and it remains to be determined if it also possesses antiadipogenic activity). During the early stages of my work with conditioned medium, I would let secreted CTHRC1 accumulate in cell culture medium for a period of 4 days. When I applied this "4-days-old" hCTHRC1 conditioned medium to confluent 3T3-L1 cells, for example, I was not able to observe evidence for the binding of hCTHRC1 based on Western blotting (data not shown). This included studies in which 3T3-L1 cells were incubated with hCTHRC1 conditioned medium on ice in the presence of a chemical crosslinker (data not shown). I then took a shot in the dark and decided to first apply 4-days-old hCTHRC1 conditioned medium to 3T3-L1 cells before they reached 100% confluence. While application of 4-days-old hCTHRC1 conditioned medium did not produce an anti-adipogenic effect when 3T3-L1 cells were chemically stimulated to undergo adipogenic differentiation, I did observe evidence for the putative binding of hCTHRC1 to these cells comparable to the Western blot data presented in *Figure 8*. Out of curiosity, on several occasions after collecting 4-days-old hCTHRC1 conditioned medium from 3T3-L1 cells that had been transduced with hCTHRC1-expressing adenovirus, I replenished the cell culture dishes with full-serum DMEM and observed for how long the cells would survive. Interestingly, after about 10 days, 3T3-L1 cells that had been transduced with hCTHRC1 expressing adenovirus began to undergo spontaneous adipogenic differentiation, unlike control transduced cells, based on the observation that some 3T3-L1 cells started to accumulate lipid droplets (data not shown). This led me to speculate that CTHRC1 might also enhance the expression of a pro-adipogenic secreted factor that, when expressed above a certain threshold, could nullify the anti-adipogenic effect of CTHRC1 itself (a hypothesized negative feedback loop of sorts). Based on this theory, I started collecting hCTHRC1 conditioned medium at earlier

intervals, and observed that some "batches" of hCTHRC1 conditioned medium collected 2 days after adenoviral transduction would produce an anti-adipogenic effect, while 1-day-old hCTHRC1 conditioned medium produced a consistent anti-adipogenic effect based on Oil Red O staining (*Figure E.1.*), though the percent reduction in Oil Red O staining compared to 3T3-L1 cells treated with bgal conditioned medium was variable – some iterations (*i*.*e*., "batches") of 1 day-old hCTHRC1 conditioned medium produced a 15% reduction in Oil Red O staining, while others yielded a 40% reduction (data not shown). In hopes of addressing mechanistic elements as part of my thesis work (*e*.*g*., Rho/Rac1 and SOX9 signaling), I knew I needed to produce hCTHRC1 conditioned medium that produced a consistent anti-adipogenic effect from "batch" to "batch," and ultimately found that hCTHRC1 conditioned medium collected 15 hours following the 8-hour adenoviral transduction window of 3T3-L1 cells produced such an effect. As discussed above, while it is certainly plausible that CTHRC1 could enhance the expression of a pro-adipogenic secreted factor that, when expressed above a specific threshold level in conditioned medium, could counteract the anti-adipogenic activity of CTHRC1 (see below for the discussion on immunodepletion), I also speculate that secreted CTHRC1 could become misfolded if it accumulates at too high of a level in conditioned medium. *Figure 4* demonstrates that CTHRC1 present in 15-hours-old hCTHRC1 conditioned medium runs on a Western blot principally as a dimer and trimer under nonreducing conditions, and as a monomer in the presence of the disulfide bond reducing agent, 2-mercaptoethanol. CTHRC1 possesses 10 cysteine residues and, while it is purely conjecture, if secreted CTHRC1 accumulates in conditioned medium above a certain threshold, might it become misfolded or aggregated due to indiscriminate disulfide bonding? Using a similar logic, might secreted CTHRC1 require chaperone proteins to maintain its proper folding and biological activity? If secreted CTHRC1

reaches a certain concentration in conditioned medium (or along its journey in the secretory pathway), could the endogenous supply of CTHRC1 chaperone proteins become exhausted thus resulting in misfolded, inactive secreted CTHRC1? While it is not yet fully understood, 15 hours-old hCTHRC1 conditioned medium nevertheless displays robust, reproducible antiadipogenic activity.

Molecular investigations of how CTHRC1 interacts with cell surface receptors and other proteins has not been the focus of my thesis research. However, in my investigation of the putative CTHRC1-SOX9 signaling axis, I have stumbled upon certain observations that potentially relate to how CTHRC1 signals through cell surface receptors. As discussed at greater length in the Chapter 3 Discussion (*3.15*), G(q) protein-coupled receptor signaling has been shown to activate both Rho and Rac1 (76). More specifically, activation of Rho and Rac1 was shown to be mediated by the guanine nucleotide exchange factor, TRIO, which is directly activated by guanine nucleotide-binding protein alpha-q (76). From private discussion with Dr. Evi Kostenis at the University of Bonn, who is a world leader in G protein-coupled receptor signaling, Dr. Kostenis gifted me the selective inhibitor of guanine nucleotide-binding protein alpha-q that was synthesized in her laboratory, FR900359 (102). Intriguingly, application of FR900359 (FR) to 3T3-L1 cells negated the anti-adipogenic effect produced by hCTHRC1 conditioned medium and its ability to enhance SOX9 protein expression levels (*Figure F.1.*). While this work is preliminary and requires the scrutiny of greater quantitation and reproducibility, it is thought provoking to hypothesize that CTHRC1 could regulate G proteincoupled receptor signaling. In thinking further outside the box, I hypothesize that CTHRC1 could signal through the class of adhesion G protein-coupled receptors which are known to bind extracellular matrix or neighboring cell-surface ligands (103). If the hCTHRC1 Western blot

data presented in *Figure 8* are indeed evidence of bona fide CTHRC1 binding, as opposed to a phenomenological artifact of the cell culture materials or methods, then the methodology is fully in place to investigate CTHRC1 binding partners by immunoprecipitation of whole-cell lysate and follow-on mass spectrometry analysis. By extension, immunoprecipitation and subsequent mass spectrometry analysis of hCTHRC1 in 15-hours-old hCTHRC1 conditioned medium could discern whether secreted CTHRC1 binds to other secretome proteins/factors. As far as additional mechanistic insights regarding the anti-adipogenic activity of 15-hours-old hCTHRC1 conditioned medium, application of verteporfin (VP) to 3T3-L1 cells also negated the antiadipogenic effect of hCTHRC1 conditioned medium while lowering overall levels of adipogenic differentiation based on Oil Red O staining (*Figure G.1.*). VP is an inhibitor of YAP transcriptional activity (104) and could serve as an important tool to help determine whether YAP is a transcriptional activator of *SOX9* gene expression as it pertains to the putative CTHRC1-SOX9 axis of signaling.

Perhaps most critical to the future use and investigation of 15-hours-old hCTHRC1 conditioned medium is to decisively determine whether hCTHRC1 is directly mediating the antiadipogenic effect produced by this conditioned medium when it is applied to preadipocytes in culture. Fortunately, the methods are almost in place to address this question once and for all. I have observed that streptococcal bacteria-derived Protein G binds hCTHRC1, and have further observed that bovine sera impede the overall efficiency of hCTHRC1 immunoprecipitation (data not shown). From recent ELISA data which confirm the successful removal of hCTHRC1 from conditioned medium (*Figure H.1.*), this promising result was obtained from a series of refinement and optimization. First, 15-hours-old hCTHRC1 conditioned medium was diluted eight times in serum-free DMEM to dilute the overall concentration of bovine sera. Second, anti-

CTHRC1 monoclonal antibody clone Vli13E09 was pre-conjugated to Protein A Sepharose beads prior to conditioned medium incubation. Unfortunately, based on Oil Red O staining (*Figure H.1.*), these data suggest that hCTHRC1 present in hCTHRC1 conditioned medium incubated with control naïve IgG-conjugated Protein A Sepharose is becoming inactivated. One thought is that, given our immunoprecipitation regimen of incubating condition medium with conjugated Protein A Sepharose beads by overnight rotation at 4°C, hCTHRC1 could be aggregating as an artifact of the excessive mechanical rotation. Efforts to confirm the presence of hCTHRC1 aggregate complexes by native (*i*.*e*., non-denaturing) immunoblotting were inconclusive (data not shown). If there is any merit to this hypothesis regarding hCTHRC1 aggregation, I am in favor of using a conjugated Protein A Sepharose column such that hCTHRC1 in conditioned medium could be immunoprecipitated by gravity or low speed centrifugation in order to avoid prolonged mechanical rotation strategies. On the other hand, if the results of future immunoprecipitation optimization efforts suggest that Protein A is somehow directly inactivating hCTHRC1, hCTHRC1 could likely be immunoprecipitated using biotinylated Vli13E09 conjugated to a streptavidin column or beads. Alternatively, a neutralizing anti-CTHRC1 antibody could be investigated, developed, or procured. If it is determined that secreted hCTHRC1 does not possess direct anti-adipogenic function, this would support the interesting conclusion that a secreted CTHRC1 effector protein(s) positively mediates the antiadipogenic activity of 15-hours-old hCTHRC1 conditioned medium, thus warranting deeper investigation into the CTHRC1-regulated secretome to identify such anti-adipogenic secreted factors that enhance SOX9 signaling.

Going back several years to a fortuitous discussion with Dr. Rob Koza, it was determined that *Cthrc1* gene expression levels in mouse inguinal white adipose tissue markedly decline

during postnatal development (*Figure 20A*). I later recapitulated these array data based on qPCR analysis (*Figure 20B*). During early postnatal development, in particular, the adipose tissue compartment is rapidly expanding due to enhanced adipocyte hypertrophy and hyperplasia (85). If CTHRC1 is conclusively determined to be an anti-adipogenic factor, why is its gene expression in mouse inguinal white adipose tissue expressed at high levels during the period of postnatal development when significant adipogenesis is occurring *in vivo*? One approach to address this question would be to determine when CTHRC1 mRNA levels are expressed maximally in the developing adipose of mice. Mouse inguinal white adipose tissue, like other subcutaneous and visceral adipose depots, develops from the mesenchyme and is primarily mesodermal in origin (4). During embryonic development, the earliest recognizable structure resembling an adipose tissue is a cluster of vasculature called a "primitive organ" (4), while PPAR-gamma expression is detectable in mice by embryonic day 14.5 (preceding the development of characteristic adipose tissues) (105). Hypothetically, the observation that *Cthrc1* gene expression in mouse inguinal white adipose tissue decreases more than 100-fold during the period from postnatal day 7 to 3 months of age (*Figure 20A*) could pale in comparison to changes in *Cthrc1* gene expression in the mesenchyme throughout embryonic adipose tissue development. Though speculative, it is plausible that *Cthrc1* gene expression in the mesenchyme of mice on embryonic day 10 versus *Cthrc1* gene expression in nascent adipose tissue on postnatal day 1, for example, could decrease more than 1000-fold. This would suggest that significant downregulation of *Cthrc1* gene expression is requisite for the advancement of perinatal adipose tissue development. Harvesting embryonic mesenchyme and the developing adipose at various timepoints during perinatal and very early postnatal development (*e*.*g*., postnatal days 1-3) would provide an excellent platform for RNA sequencing to discern the gene

expression profile of CTHRC1 and other factors throughout the entire course of adipose tissue development *in vivo*. Similarly, implementation of the *Pref1* reporter mouse model characterized by Gulyaeva and colleagues (2) could inform whether CTHRC1 is expressed in  $PREF1^+$ mesenchymal stem cells within the adipogenic lineage. It is also important to reanalyze the RNA sequencing data of human subcutaneous adipose tissues in which *CTHRC1* and *SOX9* gene expression both clustered in adipose stromal cells expressing high levels of *PDGFRA* and *MFAP5* (*Figure 23*). Fundamentally, are CTHRC1 and SOX9 expressed in the same stromal cell populations of adipose?

The finding that adult *Cthrc1*-null mice are characterized by enhanced adiposity in comparison to age-matched wildtype mice (55) could support that, in a developmental context, CTHRC1 functions to restrict adipogenesis during the perinatal and early postnatal periods of development, thus limiting the overall number of preadipocytes that differentiate into adipocytes. If so, such precocious adipogenesis in *Cthrc1*-null mice during embryonic and early postnatal development could predispose these mutant mice to hyperplastic and hypertrophic adipose tissue phenotypes in adulthood. Feeding adult wildtype and *Cthrc1*-null mice a high-fat diet could further exacerbate those differences in adiposity. Therefore, it is an open question whether CTHRC1 expression is enhanced commensurate to high-fat feeding and functions to restrict dietinduced obesity. It should also be noted that a global, homozygous null mutation in *Sox9* in mice is embryonically lethal (106). The implementation of postnatal *Sox9* gene deletion to assess evidence in support of the putative CTHRC1-SOX9 signaling axis *in vivo* could be achieved using mice with floxed *Sox9* alleles (107). For example, these floxed mice could be crossed with *Cthrc1*-null mice and then challenged with high-fat feeding to determine whether null mutations

in both *Sox9* and *Cthrc1* exacerbate diet-induced obesity, or otherwise promote hyperplastic/hypertrophic adipose phenotypes in mice fed a standard chow diet.

I will conclude this chapter by offering some final perspectives on how readily available data and experimental resources could aid the advancement of CTHRC1 research in the field of adipose tissue biology. Like *Cthrc1* (*Figure 20A*), many genes expressed in mouse inguinal white adipose tissue are characterized by decreasing levels of expression during early postnatal development, including *Pref1*, *Igf2* (Insulin-like growth factor II), and *Fn1* (Fibronectin) (3). In connection to SOX9 signaling, the cleaved extracellular domain of PREF1 has been shown to bind fibronectin in the extracellular matrix thus stabilizing fibronectin-integrin receptor interactions which positively regulate *SOX9* gene expression (42). Application of hCTHRC1 conditioned medium to 3T3-L1 cells produced a variable effect on PREF1 expression at the mRNA and protein levels during the course of chemically stimulated adipogenic differentiation (*Figure I.1.*). Regardless, by Western blot analysis, it would be important to determine whether application of hCTHRC1 conditioned medium enhances the enzymatic cleavage of PREF1. The extracellular domain of PREF1 is cleaved by disintegrin and metalloproteinase domaincontaining protein 17 (ADAM17) (42). In addition, several small molecules are known to inhibit the enzymatic activity of ADAM17, including TAPI 1 (108), which could be useful in the investigation of whether hCTHRC1 conditioned medium enhances PREF1 cleavage via the activity of ADAM17. I have also shown that hCTHRC1 conditioned medium enhances *Fn1* gene expression and decreases *Col1a1* gene expression in 3T3-L1 cells (*Figure J.1.*). LeClair and colleagues also showed that overexpression of CTHRC1 decreased type 1 collagen protein expression levels in smooth muscle cells (52). These collective data support the notion that CTHRC1 regulates the collagen extracellular matrix. It is well documented that an abundance of

collagen fibers in the extracellular matrix promote a "rigid," mechanically tense matrix that can cause adipocyte hypertrophy and insulin resistance (4). Therefore, it would also be important to determine whether CTHRC1 promotes collagen extracellular matrix remodeling in adipose tissues. Finally, I showed that hCTHRC1 conditioned medium enhances *Igf2* gene expression in 3T3-L1 cells (*Figure J.1.*). IGF-II has been shown to preserve the stemness and renewal of adipose-derived stromal cells (109) and promote glucose metabolism (110). To this end, questions arise regarding the effect of CTHRC1 on the regulation of the secretome, and whether factors including IGF-II contribute to the boarder scope of CTHRC1 signaling *in vivo*.

In conclusion, the investigation of the CTHRC1-regulated secretome is an important step forward in determining how CTHRC1 exudes its anti-adipogenic effect and whether its biological activity is mediated by potential binding partners in the extracellular milieu. In a preliminary assessment of the CTHRC1-regulated secretome, 3T3-L1 cells were transduced with control or hCTHRC1-expressing adenovirus, after which conditioned media were collected 2, 4, or 8 days thereafter. The presence of hCTHRC1 in 2-, 4-, and 8-days-old hCTHRC1 conditioned media was confirmed by ELISA (data not shown), and conditioned media were then subjected to proteomic analysis by mass spectrometry (*Table L.1.*). Although hCTHRC1 was not detected by mass spectrometry analysis, the secretome analysis did show, for example, that secreted protein acidic and rich in cysteine (SPARC) had increasing fold expression values in hCTHRC1 conditioned medium (*Table L.1.*). In comparison to control  $\beta$ gal conditioned media, SPARC registered a nearly 4-fold increase in 2-days-old hCTHRC1 conditioned medium, a 28-fold increase in 4-days-old hCTHRC1 conditioned medium (though this did not reach statistical significance, and these data are not shown), and a greater than 150-fold increase in 8-days-old hCTHRC1 conditioned medium. Intriguingly, by Western blot analysis, SPARC was expressed

at the same levels in bgal and hCTHRC1 conditioned media (*Figure K.1.*). Also, treatment of 3T3-L1 cells with hCTHRC1 conditioned medium did not enhance *Sparc* mRNA expression levels (*Figure K.1.*). Taken together, I hypothesize that the results of the preliminary secretome analysis can be explained on the basis that SPARC binds to secreted hCTHRC1, and potentially masks the ability of hCTHRC1 to be detected by mass spectrometry. SPARC is known to regulate extracellular matrix-integrin interactions (111) and, while wholly speculative, if SPARC is a binding partner of secreted CTHRC1, how might this interaction regulate the ability of CTHRC1 to signal through cell surface receptors? Does SPARC potentially inhibit CTHRC1 activity, thus explaining why 4-days-old hCTHRC1 conditioned medium, for example, did not produce an anti-adipogenic effect when applied to 3T3-L1 cells (*Figure E.1.*)? By extension of this logic, might 15-hours-old hCTHRC1 conditioned medium exude significant anti-adipogenic activity on the basis that SPARC does not appreciably accumulate in conditioned medium during this window of time (*Figure K.1.*)?

Collectively, these are just some of the questions that can be gleaned from the body of my thesis research; questions which I hope you find helpful and potentially thought provoking. Also included for your reference are quantitative proteomic data based on adenovirally transduced 3T3-L1 cells overexpressing hCTHRC1 (*Table M.1.*). The table reflects statistically significant differentially expressed proteins, and is organized such that control transduced 3T3- L1 cells (bgal) are normalized to hCTHRC1-overexpressing 3T3-L1 cells (*Table M.1.*). That said, I want to personally welcome you to this field. Please do not hesitate to contact me should you have any questions. Also, please keep me informed on your research progress, and good luck! I look forward to your future correspondence. For your reference, below is a summation of future directions that I think are necessary and important to pursue:

- Removal of hCTHRC1 from conditioned medium (is hCTHRC1 a direct negative regulator of adipogenic signaling?)
- Assessment of whether recombinant CTHRC1 produced at Boehringer Ingelheim possesses anti-adipogenic activity
- Are CTHRC1 and SOX9 expressed in the same stromal cell populations of adipose?
- Does CTHRC1 regulate SOX9 posttranslational modifications and DNA binding activity?
- RNA sequencing of white adipose tissue during perinatal and very early postnatal development. Therein, how does the CTHRC1 gene expression profile change?
- Evaluation of the CTHRC1-regulated secretome, proteome, and phospho-proteome

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### **APPENDICES**

## **APPENDIX A: CTHRC1 regulates the F-actin cytoskeleton**



**Figure A.1. CTHRC1 enhances the F-actin cytoskeleton**. Representative confocal microscopy images of the enhanced F-actin cytoskeleton in cells overexpressing human CTHRC1. 3T3-L1 cells were transduced with adenoviral vectors overexpressing either control  $\beta$ –*galactosidase* (A) or human *CTHRC1* (**B**). Two days following the onset of adenoviral transduction, cells were formalin fixed and treated with Hoechst nuclear stain (blue) or Alexa Fluor 546 Phalloidin (red). The length of the white rectangle (lower left-hand corner) denotes the scale:  $20 \mu m$ . (n=4).



#### **APPENDIX B: Two-way ANOVA data**

**Table B.1. Two-way ANOVA**. Two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) table displaying the significance of the interaction term between the "vehicle" and "N+Y" groups graphically displayed in *Figure 14A*. The significant interaction term in four independent experiments strongly supports the hypothesis that the anti-adipogenic effect of hCTHRC1 conditioned medium is diminished in a statistically significant manner when specific Rho-like GTPase chemical inhibitors are applied (*i*.*e*., N and Y). N (NSC 23766) is a well-defined Rac1 activationspecific inhibitor (73), and Y (Y-27632) is a potent inhibitor of the direct Rho effector, Rhoassociated kinase (74).

# **APPENDIX C: CTHRC1 overexpression inhibits adipogenic gene expression**



**Figure C.1. Adenoviral overexpression of hCTHRC1 suppress lipid accumulation and adipogenic gene expression in differentiating adipocytes**. 3T3-L1 cells were transduced with adenoviral vectors overexpressing either control b–*galactosidase* (bgal) or human *CTHRC1*  (hCTHRC1). Two days following the onset of adenoviral transduction, whole-cell lysates were

collected for qPCR analyses (**A**-**D**), while other cohorts were chemically stimulated to undergo adipogenic differentiation for a total period of 6 days (**E**). **A**-**D**) Representative qPCR fold expression differences in specific mRNA transcript levels relative to housekeeping *Gtf2b* expression levels (n=3). **E**) Representative Oil Red O quantification data determined by absorbance spectroscopy (n=3).

## **APPENDIX D: Assessing the role of CHOP expression**

**relative to the anti-adipogenic effect of CTHRC1 overexpression**



**Figure D.1. Assessing the anti-adipogenic effect of CTHRC1 overexpression in preadipocytes relative to CHOP expression levels**. **A**) 3T3-L1 cells were transduced with adenoviral vectors overexpressing either control b–*galactosidase* (bgal) or human *CTHRC1* 

(hCTHRC1). Two days following the onset of adenoviral transduction (*i*.*e*., Day 0), whole-cell lysates were collected while other cohorts of cells were chemically stimulated to undergo adipogenic differentiation in which whole-cell lysates were collected on Day 2 relative to chemical induction. Representative Western blot of CHOP protein expression. Beta-actin served as the loading control (n=3). **B**) 3T3-L1 cells were transduced with adenoviral vectors overexpressing either control  $\beta$ –*galactosidase* ( $\beta$ gal) or human *CTHRC1* (hCTHRC1). Two days following the onset of adenoviral transduction [*i*.*e*., Day 0 (D0)], whole-cell lysates were collected while other cohorts of cells were chemically stimulated to undergo adipogenic differentiation in which whole-cell lysates were collected on Day 2 (D2), Day 3 (D3), Day 4 (D4), and Day 7 (D7) relative to chemical induction. Representative qPCR fold expression differences in CHOP mRNA levels relative to housekeeping Beta-actin expression levels (n=3; \*  $p\leq 0.05$ , \*\*  $p\leq 0.01$ ). **C,D**) Stromal vascular fraction cells were isolated from the inguinal white adipose tissue of 12-week-old wildtype (WT) and *Chop*-null (KO) C57BL/6 male mice and subjected to chemically stimulated adipogenic differentiation for seven days. **C**) Representative Western blot of CHOP protein expression. Beta-actin served as the loading control (n=2). **D**) Representative Oil Red O quantification data determined by absorbance spectroscopy (n=2; \* p≤0.05). **E**) 3T3-L1 cells were seeded on Day -3 with either βgal or hCTHRC1 conditioned medium at a 1/4 dilution, after which whole-cell lysates were collected on Day 0 for Western blot analysis of CHOP protein expression. Beta-actin served as the loading control  $(n=2)$ .

#### **APPENDIX E: Determining the anti-adipogenic effect of**



#### **human CTHRC1 conditioned media**

**Figure E.1. Determining the anti-adipogenic effect of human CTHRC1 conditioned media**. **A**,**B**) 3T3-L1 cells were transduced in duplicate with adenoviral vectors overexpressing either control  $\beta$ –*galactosidase* ( $\beta$ gal) or human *CTHRC1* (hCTHRC1) for 8 hours using serum-free DMEM. Cells were then washed and replenished with DMEM containing serum. 24 hours (*i*.*e*., 1 d) or 4 days (*i*.*e*., 4 d) thereafter, conditioned media were collected. **A**) Representative Oil Red O quantification data from independent experiments delineated by the dashed vertical line. In separate experiments, 3T3-L1 cells were seeded on Day -3 with  $\beta$ gal or hCTHRC1 conditioned medium (1-day-old or 4-days-old), and then chemically stimulated to undergo adipogenic differentiation for a total period of 6 days. Cells were formalin fixed on Day 6 and stained with Oil Red O, which was then eluted and its concentration determined by absorbance spectroscopy. The Oil Red O data reflect the trends of more than three independent experiments. **B**) Immunoblotting of respective conditioned media chemically reduced with 2-mercaptoethanol. The presence of recombinant human CTHRC1 in conditioned media was probed using a rabbit monoclonal antibody raised against the C-terminus of human CTHRC1 (clone Vli55).

**APPENDIX F: Assessing the role of guanine nucleotide-binding protein alpha-q in the** 



**regulation of anti-adipogenic CTHRC1 signaling**

**Figure F.1. Evidence for the role of guanine nucleotide-binding protein alpha-q in the positive regulation of anti-adipogenic CTHRC1 signaling**. **A**,**B**) 3T3-L1 cells were seeded on Day -3 with βgal or hCTHRC1 conditioned medium in the absence or presence of FR900359 (FR), a chemical inhibitor of guanine nucleotide-binding protein alpha-q activity (102), then chemically stimulated on Day 0 to undergo adipogenic differentiation for a total period of 6 days. Cells were formalin fixed on Day 6 and stained with Oil Red O, which was then eluted and its concentration determined by absorbance spectroscopy  $(n=2; ** p \le 0.001)$ . (A). FR (1  $\mu$ M, final) or vehicle (veh; 0.1% DMSO) were freshly added each day of the experiment. **B**) Immunoblotting of whole-cell lysates collected on Day 0 for SOX9 protein expression levels. GTF2B served as the loading control  $(n=2)$ .

### **APPENDIX G: Verteporfin nullifies anti-adipogenic CTHRC1 activity Oil Red O**



**Figure G.1. Verteporfin suppresses adipogenic differentiation and nullifies anti-adipogenic CTHRC1 activity**. 3T3-L1 cells were seeded on Day -3 with bgal or hCTHRC1 conditioned medium in the absence or presence of verteporfin (VP), a chemical inhibitor of YAP transcriptional activity (104), then chemically stimulated on Day 0 to undergo adipogenic differentiation for a total period of 6 days. Cells were formalin fixed on Day 6 and stained with Oil Red O, which was then eluted and its concentration determined by absorbance spectroscopy  $(n=2)$ . VP (5  $\mu$ M, final) or vehicle (veh; 0.1% DMSO) were freshly added each day of the experiment.

#### **APPENDIX H: Immunodepletion of hCTHRC1 conditioned medium**



**Figure H.1. Immunodepletion of hCTHRC1 conditioned medium**. bgal and hCTHRC1 conditioned medium were treated by overnight rotation with Protein A-Sepharose conjugated with either naïve mouse IgG (IgG) or mouse anti-CTHRC1 IgG clone Vli13E09 (13e9). Following overnight rotation, Protein A-Sepharose was pelleted by centrifugation and the supernatant was transferred to a fresh 15 mL conical tube. Three rounds of immunodepletion were conducted in total, following which 3T3-L1 cells were seeded on Day -3 with respective conditioned media and chemically stimulated to undergo adipogenic differentiation for a total period of 6 days. Respective conditioned media were applied fresh daily. Cells were formalin fixed on Day 6 and stained with Oil Red O, which was then eluted and its concentration determined by absorbance spectroscopy  $(A)$  (\*  $p \le 0.05$ ). **B**) Enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) data measuring the relative concentration of recombinant human CTHRC1 in conditioned media. Left panel:  $\beta$ gal and hCTHRC1 conditioned medium not treated with IgG/13e9-conjugated Protein A-Sepharose (no IgGs). Middle panel: hCTHRC1 conditioned medium after two rounds (2°) of immunodepletion using either naïve IgG-conjugated Protein A-Sepharose (N) or 13e9 conjugated Protein A-Sepharose (e9). Right panel: hCTHRC1 conditioned medium after three rounds (3°) of immunodepletion using either naïve IgG-conjugated Protein A-Sepharose (N) or 13e9-conjugated Protein A-Sepharose (e9).

## **APPENDIX I: The effect of hCTHRC1 conditioned medium on PREF1 expression levels**



**Figure I.1. Determining the effect of hCTHRC1 conditioned medium on PREF1 expression**  levels. 3T3-L1 cells were seeded on Day -3 with either βgal or hCTHRC1 conditioned medium at a 1/4 dilution, after which whole-cell lysates were collected on Day 0 and subjected to qPCR (**A**) or Western blot (**B**) analyses. **A**) qPCR fold expression differences in *Pref1* mRNA levels relative to housekeeping *Gtf2b* expression levels from three independent experiments (n=3; \*  $p \le 0.05$ , \*\*  $p \le 0.01$ ). **B**) Average PREF1 protein fold change densitometry values relative to housekeeping GTF2B protein expression levels from three independent experiments (n=3; \*  $p \le 0.05$ ).

# **APPENDIX J: The effect of hCTHRC1 conditioned medium on**

*Igf2***,** *Fn1***, and** *Col1a1* **gene expression levels**



**Figure J.1. Assessing the effect of hCTHRC1 conditioned medium on** *Igf2***,** *Fn1***, and** *Col1a1* **gene expression levels**. 3T3-L1 cells were seeded on Day -3 with either  $\beta$ gal or hCTHRC1 conditioned medium at a 1/4 dilution, after which whole-cell lysates were collected on Day 0 and subjected to qPCR analyses to measure specific target genes. **A**) Representative qPCR fold

expression differences in *Igf2* mRNA levels relative to housekeeping *Gtf2b* expression levels ( $n=2$ ; \*\*  $p\leq 0.01$ ). **B**) Representative qPCR fold expression differences in *Fn1* mRNA levels relative to housekeeping  $Gtf2b$  expression levels (n=2;  $*$  p $\leq$ 0.05). **C**) Representative qPCR fold expression differences in *Col1a1* mRNA levels relative to housekeeping *Gtf2b* expression levels  $(n=2; * p \le 0.05)$ .



**medium on SPARC expression levels**

**Figure K.1. Assessing the effect of hCTHRC1 conditioned medium on** *Sparc* **gene expression levels and determining the relative levels of SPARC protein in hCTHRC1 conditioned medium**. **A**) 3T3-L1 cells were seeded on Day -3 with either bgal or hCTHRC1 conditioned medium at a 1/4 dilution, after which whole-cell lysates were collected on Day 0. Representative qPCR fold expression differences in *Sparc* mRNA levels relative to housekeeping *Gtf2b* expression levels (n=1). **B**) 3T3-L1 cells were transduced in duplicate with adenoviral vectors overexpressing either control b–*galactosidase* (bgal) or human *CTHRC1* 

(hCTHRC1) for 8 hours using serum-free DMEM. Cells were then washed and replenished with DMEM containing serum. 15 hours (*i*.*e*., 15 h) or 4 days (*i*.*e*., 4 d) thereafter, conditioned media were collected. Immunoblotting of respective conditioned media chemically reduced with 2 mercaptoethanol. The relative levels of SPARC protein in respective conditioned media were determined by immunoblotting (n=1).

#### **APPENDIX L: Assessing the CTHRC1-regulated secretome**

**Table L.1. Assessing the CTHRC1-regulated secretome**. In a preliminary assessment of the hCTHRC1-regulated secretome,  $3T3-L1$  cells were transduced with control ( $\beta$ gal) or hCTHRC1expressing adenovirus, after which conditioned media were collected 2, 4, or 8 days thereafter. The presence of hCTHRC1 in 2-, 4-, and 8-days-old hCTHRC1 conditioned media was confirmed by ELISA (data not shown), and conditioned media were then subjected to proteomic analysis by mass spectrometry. The table indicates the day on which  $\beta$ gal and hCTHRC1 conditioned media were collected (Day Collected column) and statistically significant differentially expressed proteins (Group column) when normalizing the hCTHRC1 conditioned medium secretome to the  $\beta$ gal conditioned medium secretome at each timepoint.



















## **APPENDIX M: The effect of CTHRC1 overexpression on the proteome**

**Table M.1. The effect of CTHRC1 overexpression on the proteome**. 3T3-L1 cells were transduced with control (bgal) or hCTHRC1-expressing adenovirus. Whole-cell lysates were collected two days thereafter and subjected to proteomic analysis by mass spectrometry. The table indicates statistically significant differentially expressed proteins (Group column) when normalizing the  $\beta$ gal group to the hCTHRC1 group.












































## **Table M.1. continued**

























## **Table M.1. continued**
































## **Table M.1. continued**





















## **Table M.1. continued**



## **BIOGRAPHY OF THE AUTHOR**

Matthew Edmund Siviski was born and raised in Lewiston, Maine. He is the son of Peter and Janet, and has a younger sister, Anya. Matt is a graduate of Phillips Exeter Academy and Fordham University. He concentrated in chemistry while an undergraduate at Fordham College at Rose Hill. Matt is a candidate for the Doctor of Philosophy degree in Biomedical Science from the University of Maine in December 2023.