

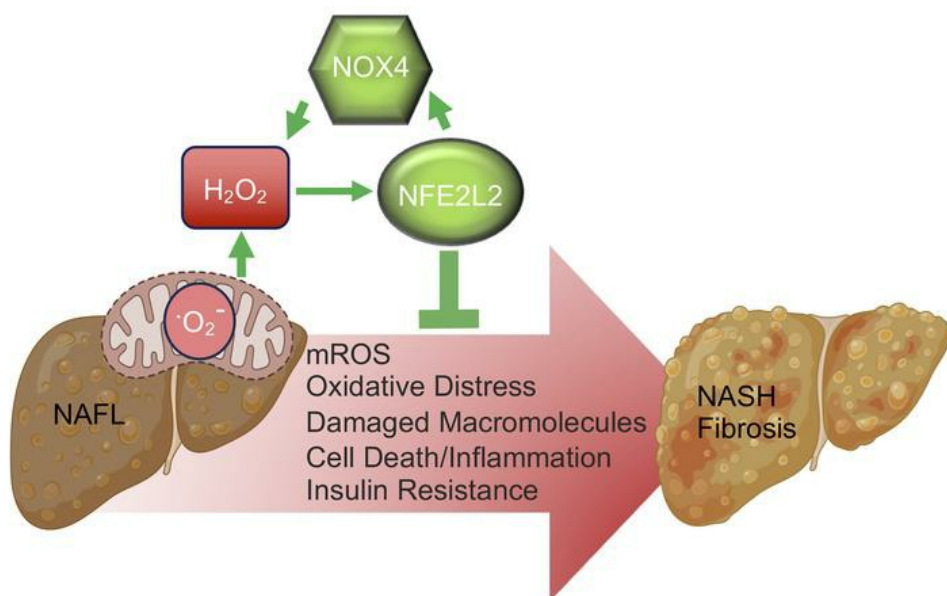
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Mitochondrial- and NOX4-dependent antioxidant defense mitigates progression to non-alcoholic steatohepatitis in obesity

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ABSTRACT

Non-alcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD) is prevalent in the majority of obese individuals, but in a subset, this progresses to non-alcoholic steatohepatitis (NASH) and fibrosis. The mechanisms that prevent NASH and fibrosis in the majority of NAFLD patients remain unclear. Here we report that NAD(P)H oxidase (NOX)-4 and nuclear factor erythroid 2-related factor 2 (NFE2L2) were elevated in hepatocytes early in disease progression to prevent NASH/fibrosis. Mitochondrial-derived reactive oxygen species (ROS) activated NFE2L2 to induce the expression of NOX4, which in turn generated H₂O₂ to exacerbate the NFE2L2 antioxidant defense response. The deletion or inhibition of NOX4 in hepatocytes decreased ROS and attenuated antioxidant defense to promote mitochondrial oxidative stress, damage proteins and lipids, diminish insulin signalling and promote cell death upon oxidant challenge. Hepatocyte NOX4 deletion in high fat fed obese mice, which otherwise develop steatosis, but not NASH, resulted in hepatic oxidative damage, inflammation and T cell recruitment to drive NASH and fibrosis, whereas NOX4 overexpression tempered the development of NASH/fibrosis in mice fed a NASH-promoting diet. Thus, mitochondrial- and NOX4-derived ROS function in concert to drive a NFE2L2 antioxidant defense response to attenuate oxidative liver damage and the progression to NASH/fibrosis in obesity.

INTRODUCTION

NAFLD has reached epidemic proportions, affecting 20-30% of the world's population (1, 2). Although there are strong genetic determinants for disease onset and progression, the prevalence of NAFLD can be attributed predominantly to the entrenched and growing obesity and diabetes epidemics (1-3). NAFLD encompasses disorders ranging from simple steatosis, or non-alcoholic fatty liver (NAFL), to NASH evident in 20-30% of NAFLD patients and characterised by chronic lipid accumulation, liver damage and lobular/portal inflammation involving the recruitment and activation of immune cells, especially T cells. The liver damage and inflammation elicit reparative processes that result in fibrosis (1). Ultimately, persistent reparative responses can lead to severe fibrosis or cirrhosis and end-stage liver disease, or even hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) (1, 4). NASH is currently the second leading cause for liver transplantation, the fastest growing cause for HCC and a major contributor to cardiovascular disease (1, 4, 5).

It is well established that the severity of steatosis can predict progression to NASH, as well as the risk for cirrhosis (1, 6). Genetic polymorphisms in *PNPLA3* that increase the risk for steatosis also increase the risk for NASH (1, 6). Steatosis occurs as a consequence of increased lipogenesis, increased uptake of dietary fatty acids and carbohydrates, and as a result of adipose tissue insulin resistance and the flux of free fatty acids to the liver (1, 6). However, the accumulation of lipids alone is not sufficient to drive progression to NASH/fibrosis. Indeed, the overexpression of DGAT2 in mice, or the deletion of ATGL in hepatocytes both increase steatosis without promoting inflammation, a key feature of NASH (7, 8). Chronic lipid accumulation in NAFL can increase mitochondrial β -oxidation and respiration (6, 9-11). The increased fatty acid oxidation and the excess supply of reduced substrates to the electron transport chain (ETC) is thought to result in increased electron leakage to generate superoxide ($O_2^{\bullet-}$) (9, 12), but mitochondrial abnormalities or functional changes in the ETC may also

contribute (9, 10, 13-15). Genetic and pharmacological studies in rodents point toward mitochondrial oxidative stress not only promoting insulin resistance, a key driver of NAFLD (15-21), but also NASH and fibrosis (9, 20, 21). Indeed, a common polymorphism in the gene encoding mitochondrial-targeted superoxide dismutase (SOD)-2 that converts $O_2^{\bullet-}$ into H_2O_2 , diminishes SOD-2 function and is associated with more advanced fibrosis in NASH (22). However, several other processes including inflammation, ER stress, and increased NOX expression might also contribute to reactive oxygen species (ROS) generation (9, 23-26). In particular, the expression of NOX4, which can generate both $O_2^{\bullet-}$ and H_2O_2 (27), is increased in the livers of patients with NAFLD and its deletion in hepatocytes has been shown to attenuate NASH/fibrosis in mice fed a NASH-promoting diet (24). $O_2^{\bullet-}$ can react with nitric oxide to generate toxic peroxynitrite, or promote the conversion of H_2O_2 into highly reactive hydroxyl radicals to damage proteins, lipids and DNA (9). Increased ROS and the oxidative damage of macromolecules have been noted in the livers of rodents or patients with NAFLD (10, 28-31), and such oxidative damage can promote cell death and elicit reparative and inflammatory responses that result in fibrosis (9). Moreover, oxidative stress in NAFLD can result in the oxidative inactivation of protein tyrosine phosphatases in hepatocytes to promote tyrosine phosphorylation-dependent signaling including STAT-1 signaling to facilitate T cell recruitment, inflammation and the progression to NASH/fibrosis (32).

Given the potential for lipid accumulation to drive oxidative stress, it is perplexing why the majority of NAFLD patients don't progress to NASH/fibrosis. One possibility is that adaptive mechanisms temper the oxidative damage that may otherwise occur along the NAFLD continuum. One such mechanism may involve NFE2L2, a transcription factor that binds to antioxidant response elements (AREs) in the promoter regions of (33). Although NFE2L2 is normally targeted for degradation by the KEAP-1/Cullin-3 E3 ligase complex, ROS oxidise Cys residues on KEAP-1 to facilitate the release and translocation of NFE2L2 to the nucleus

to drive the expression of >200 endogenous antioxidant and xenobiotic detoxifying enzymes (33). Interesting, the *NFE2L2* gene contains AREs within its promoter region so that the NFE2L2 protein can drive its own transcription to amplify NFE2L2's effects (34). Genetic studies in mice have yielded conflicting evidence as to the roles of NFE2L2 and KEAP-1 in NAFLD. (35-40). We report that hepatic NFE2L2 target genes are elevated in NAFLD and that this serves to attenuate the progression to NASH and fibrosis. We show that the induction/activation of NFE2L2 is reliant on ROS generated by both mitochondria and NOX4 and that *Nox4* deletion in hepatocytes is sufficient to abrogate antioxidant defense response to promote oxidative lipid and protein damage, cell death, inflammation and the transition to NASH/fibrosis in obesity.

RESULTS

NFE2L2 redox signatures in NAFLD

To assess redox balance in NAFLD, we first took advantage of a publicly available RNAseq dataset (41) to assess the expression of redox genes in liver biopsies from lean or overweight subjects (BMI 25.9±5.8) without steatosis [NAFLD Activity Score (NAS)=0-1], overweight or obese subjects (BMI 33.9±5.8) with NAFL and mild lobular inflammation (NAS=1-4), NASH (NAS=1-6) with mild fibrosis (fibrosis score=1), or NASH (NAS=2-6) with significant or advanced fibrosis (fibrosis score ≥ 2) (**Table 1**). The expression of genes targeted by NFE2L2 increased in NAFL and NASH with mild fibrosis, but decreased in NASH with more advanced fibrosis (**Fig. 1a**). In particular, *NQO1*, which encodes the superoxide scavenger NAD(P)H dehydrogenase (quinone 1), *SOD2*, which converts $O_2^{\bullet-}$ into H_2O_2 and catalase (*CAT*), which eliminates H_2O_2 , were increased with NAFL and NASH with mild fibrosis, but tended to decline in NASH with significant/advanced fibrosis. Interestingly, the expression of *NOX4*, which has two NFE2L2-binding AREs in its promoter (42), also increased in NAFL and NASH with mild fibrosis but declined in NASH with significant/advanced fibrosis (**Fig. 1a**). Consistent with this, *NFE2L2*, *NQO1*, *SOD2*, *CAT* and *NOX4* mRNA levels, as assessed by quantitative real time PCR (qPCR) (**Fig. 1b**), were also increased in liver core biopsies from obese patients (BMI 36-61) with NAFL (NAS=1-2), when compared to those from obese patients (BMI 36-61) without steatosis (NAS=0) (32). Moreover, except for *NOX4* that trended lower, *NFE2L2*, *NQO1*, *SOD2*, *CAT* gene expression declined in obese patients (BMI 47-74) with NASH and fibrosis (NAS=5-6; fibrosis scores=1-2) to levels evident in obese patients with non-steatotic livers (**Fig. 1b**). Therefore, NAFL, but not obesity *per se* is accompanied by the increased expression of NFE2L2 targets genes, including *NOX4* that encodes a ROS producing enzyme, and *NQO1*, *SOD2* and *CAT* that encode key antioxidant defense enzymes, but these decline with more advanced disease and fibrosis.

As NOX4 and NFE2L2 are expressed in both hepatocytes and non-parenchymal cells, we next explored whether their induction in NAFL may be hepatocyte intrinsic. We assessed the expression of redox genes in the livers and hepatocytes of chow-fed lean versus high fat diet (HFD)-fed obese mice that develop liver steatosis, but do not progress to NASH/fibrosis. Hepatocytes from HFD-fed mice were steatotic, as reflected by the accumulation of lipids and the expression of lipogenic genes (**Fig. S1a-b**). As in humans, *Nfe2l2* and *Nox4* mRNA levels were induced in the livers (**Fig. 1c**) or hepatocytes (**Fig. 1d**) from HFD-fed mice. The induction of *Nfe2l2* in hepatocytes from HFD-fed mice was accompanied by the increased expression of NFE2L2 target genes (**Fig. 1e**) encoding enzymes involved in i) NADPH production necessary for the reduction of GSSG to GSH, including phosphoglycerate dehydrogenase (*Phgdh*), malic enzyme 1 (*Me1*), and glucose-6-phosphate dehydrogenase (*G6pd*), ii) GSH production and regeneration, including glutamate-cysteine ligase (GCL) catalytic subunit (*Gclc*), GCL complex modifier subunit (*Gclm*) and glutathione reductase (*Gsr*), iii) quinone detoxification, including NQO1 (*Nqo1*) and iv) ROS detoxification, including SOD-1 (*Sod1*) and -2 (*Sod2*), peroxiredoxin-3 (*Prdx3*) and catalase (*Cat*). Several of these genes were also increased in livers of HFD-fed mice (**Fig. S1c**). The expression of *Cybb* that encodes the O₂•⁻-producing enzyme NOX2, was modestly increased, whereas *Ncf1* and *Rac1* that encode the NOX2 regulatory subunits p47^{phox} and RAC1 were not altered (**Fig. S1d**). The induction of *Nfe2l2* and *Nox4* in hepatocytes from HFD-fed mice was accompanied by increased NFE2L2 and NOX4 protein levels, as well as increased NQO1, SOD-2 and catalase (**Fig. 1f-h**) with no overt differences in NOX2, p47^{phox} and RAC1 protein levels (**Fig. S1e**). Moreover, in line with the increased NFE2L2 and NFE2L2 transcriptional targets, the abundance of KEAP-1, which normally binds and targets NFE2L2 for degradation (33) was decreased (**Fig. 1f**). Finally, in line with the induction of NOX4 being an outcome of increased NFE2L2-dependent transcription, we found that the NFE2L2 agonist isothiocyanate sulforaphane readily induced *Nox4* in hepatocytes

(**Fig. S1f**). Thus steatosis in obesity is accompanied by the induction of NOX4 and the NFE2L2 antioxidant defense response in hepatocytes.

Lipids and mitochondrial ROS drive antioxidant defense in NAFLD

Chronic hepatic lipid accumulation in NAFLD is accompanied by increased mitochondrial $O_2^{\bullet-}$ and H_2O_2 generation (9, 43). Accordingly, we determined the extent to which hepatic lipid accumulation and heightened mitochondrial ROS might influence antioxidant defense. We first compared ROS generation by hepatocytes isolated from chow-fed versus HFD-fed mice, to hepatocytes from chow-fed mice administered the saturated free fatty acid palmitate. We monitored for the emission of H_2O_2 from live hepatocytes using the H_2O_2 -selective probe Amplex Red (Amplex® Red added to the culture medium). Hepatocytes from HFD-fed mice generated more ROS than hepatocytes from chow-fed mice (**Fig. 2a**). Also, hepatocytes from chow-fed mice treated with palmitate overnight generated more ROS than vehicle-treated controls (**Fig. 2b; Fig. S2a**). Importantly, the extent of palmitate-induced ROS generation approximated that seen in hepatocytes from HFD-fed mice (**Fig. 2b**); after more prolonged treatment, lipogenic gene expression was also increased (**Fig. S2b**) as noted in hepatocytes from HFD-fed mice. Next, we assessed if palmitate-induced ROS might be sufficient to drive the antioxidant defense response. Palmitate treatment significantly increased the expression of *Nfe2l2* (**Fig. 2c**) and NFE2L2 transcriptional targets, including *Nqo1*, *Sod1*, *Sod2*, *Cat* and *Nox4* (**Fig. 2d-e; Fig. S2c**); by contrast mRNAs for NOX2 subunits were unaltered (**Fig. 2e**). The palmitate-induced increase in *Nfe2l2* was accompanied by increased NFE2L2 and decreased KEAP-1 protein levels (**Fig. 2f**). Consistent with this, NOX4, NQO1, SOD2 and catalase protein levels were all increased (**Fig. 2f**). Indeed, NFE2L2, KEAP-1, NQO1, SOD1, catalase and NOX4 levels in palmitate-treated hepatocytes from chow-fed mice approximated those seen in hepatocytes isolated from HFD-fed mice (**Fig. 2f**). Finally, we

assessed if the palmitate-induced antioxidant defense response and *Nox4* expression might be ascribed to increased mitochondrial ROS generation. To this end, we assessed if the mitochondrial-targeted $O_2^{\bullet-}$ scavenger and antioxidant mitoTEMPOL could reduce ROS and thereby antioxidant defense and *Nox4* expression. Treatment with mitoTEMPOL not only attenuated the palmitate-induced increase in H_2O_2 (**Fig. 2g**), but also the expression of the antioxidant defense genes *Nfe2l2*, *Nqo1*, *Sod1*, *Sod2* and *Cat* as well as the expression of *Nox4* (**Fig. 2h**). Therefore, heightened antioxidant defense response and the induction of NOX4 in NAFLD might be linked to the enhanced ROS production by mitochondria.

NOX4 is essential for antioxidant defense in hepatocytes

Previously we have shown that NFE2L2 drives *Nox4* expression in muscle and in turn, NOX4-derived H_2O_2 enhances NFE2L2 antioxidant defense to attenuate muscle oxidative damage and insulin resistance (44). In this study we have reaffirmed that the activation of NFE2L2 with sulforaphane is sufficient to induce *Nox4* expression in hepatocytes (**Fig. S1f**). We reasoned that the induction of NOX4 in hepatocytes in NAFLD might function as part of feedback loop to exacerbate and/or sustain NFE2L2 antioxidant defense otherwise instigated by mitochondrial ROS. To test this we isolated hepatocytes from control (*Nox4^{fl/fl}*) (45) and hepatocyte-specific NOX4-deficient mice (*Alb-Cre;Nox4^{fl/fl}*) fed a HFD for 10-weeks to induce steatosis (**Fig. S3a**) and assessed H_2O_2 levels and the expression of NFE2L2 and its target genes. NOX4 was effectively deleted in hepatocytes (**Fig. 3a-b**). The deletion of *Nox4* attenuated the otherwise increased H_2O_2 emission by hepatocytes from HFD-fed mice (**Fig. 3c**), but this still exceeded that from chow-fed *Nox4^{fl/fl}* mice (**Fig. 3c**), consistent with both mitochondria and the induced NOX4 contributing to ROS generation. The deletion of *Nox4* also attenuated the expression of both *Nfe2l2* (**Fig. 3d**) and NFE2L2 target genes, including *Nqo1*, *Sod1*, *Sod2* and *Cat* (**Fig. 3e**), as well as the corresponding NFE2L2, NQO1, SOD2 and

catalase proteins (**Fig. 3f-g**). The reduced NFE2L2 and NQO1 could be rescued by incubating cells in the presence of the proteasome inhibitor MG132 (**Fig. 3g**), consistent with NOX4-derived H₂O₂ otherwise preventing NFE2L2 degradation. Conversely, the deletion of *Gpx1* encoding glutathione peroxidase (GPX)-1, an enzyme that detoxifies H₂O₂ increased the emission of H₂O₂ by hepatocytes from HFD-fed mice (**Fig. 3g**) and increased the expression of *Nfe2l2*, *Nqo1*, *Sod2* and *Cat* (**Fig. 3h**). Therefore, changes in H₂O₂ levels in hepatocytes from HFD-fed mice can elicit corresponding changes in antioxidant defense gene expression. The reduced expression of antioxidant defense genes and decreased NFE2L2 and NQO1 proteins associated with NOX4-deficiency in hepatocytes from HFD-fed mice were also evident in the livers of 12-week HFD-fed *Alb-Cre;Nox4^{fl/fl}* versus *Nox4^{fl/fl}* mice (**Fig. 3j**; **Fig. S3b**). The reduced antioxidant gene expression in hepatocytes from *Alb-Cre;Nox4^{fl/fl}* HFD-fed mice was accompanied by reduced NFE2L2 and increased KEAP-1 protein levels, consistent with NOX4-derived ROS being required for the degradation of KEAP-1 and the stabilisation of NFE2L2 (**Fig. 3k**; **Fig. S3c**). Importantly, as with ROS production, NFE2L2 levels in hepatocytes from HFD-fed *Alb-Cre;Nox4^{fl/fl}* mice tended to exceed those in hepatocytes from chow-fed *Nox4^{fl/fl}* mice (**Fig. 3k**; **Fig. S3c**), consistent with both mitochondrial- and NOX4-derived ROS contributing to the antioxidant defense response. In line with this, SOD-2, NQO1 and catalase were attenuated by NOX4 deficiency, but still exceed those in hepatocytes from chow-fed *Nox4^{fl/fl}* mice (**Fig. 3k**; **Fig. S3c**). Importantly, the reduced antioxidant defense gene expression (**Fig. 4a**) and NFE2L2, SOD-2, NQO1 and catalase protein levels (**Fig. 4b**; **Fig. S3d**) in hepatocytes from HFD-fed *Alb-Cre;Nox4^{fl/fl}* mice could be corrected by the administration of the NFE2L2 agonist sulforaphane, consistent NOX4 deficiency abrogating NFE2L2-dependent responses. Finally, we found that NOX4-deficiency in hepatocytes from chow-fed *Alb-Cre;Nox4^{fl/fl}* mice largely attenuated the palmitate-induced increase in antioxidant defense, as reflected by the expression of *Nfe2l2* and its target genes *Nqo1*, *Sod2*

and *Cat* (**Fig. 4c**). Thus the induction of NOX4 in NAFLD, downstream of mitochondrial ROS, may be required for optimal NFE2L2 antioxidant defense responses.

To specifically assess if NOX4-derived ROS in NAFLD contributes to antioxidant defense, we first assessed the impact of deleting *Gpx1*. The compound deletion of *Gpx1* corrected the diminished H₂O₂ levels (**Fig. 4d**) and the reduced antioxidant defense response (**Fig. 4e**) in hepatocytes from HFD-fed *Alb-Cre;Nox4^{fl/fl}* mice. Next, to determine if the effects of NOX4 deletion were attributed to decreased NOX4 activity, we took advantage of the NOX1/4 inhibitor GKT137831 (46). We treated hepatocytes from HFD-fed *Nox4^{fl/fl}* versus *Alb-Cre;Nox4^{fl/fl}* mice with vehicle or GKT137831 and measured ROS production and antioxidant defense. GKT137831 was just as efficient as NOX4 deletion in reducing H₂O₂ levels (**Fig. 4f**). Since we could not detect *Nox1* in isolated hepatocytes by qPCR, we surmise that these effects are due to the inhibition of NOX4. Consistent with this, GKT137831 did not further reduce the emission of H₂O₂ by NOX4-deficient hepatocytes (**Fig. 4f**). The inhibition of NOX4 and the reduction in ROS production were accompanied by reductions in NFE2L2 targets genes (**Fig. 4g**) and corresponding proteins (**Fig. 4h**). Importantly, the decreased antioxidant defense associated with the inhibition of NOX4 could be corrected by the administration of the NFE2L2 agonist sulforaphane (**Fig. 4g-h**). Furthermore, GKT137831 repressed the palmitate-induced expression of *Nfe2l2* target genes, including *Nqo1*, *Sod2* and *Cat* (**Fig. 4i**). Taken together these results point towards the induction of NOX4 and the accompanying increased ROS in hepatocytes being essential for the antioxidant defense response that is instigated by mitochondrial ROS in NAFLD.

NOX4 deletion in hepatocytes promotes oxidative stress, insulin resistance and cell death

Numerous studies have shown that oxidative stress and in particular increased mitochondrial ROS can contribute to the development of insulin resistance (16, 17, 19, 47).

Indeed, the heterozygous deletion of *Sod2* and consequent increased mitochondrial $O_2^{\bullet-}$ promotes insulin resistance in chow-fed mice, whereas SOD-2 overexpression, or the expression of mitochondrial-targeted catalase attenuate systemic insulin resistance in HFD-fed mice (16, 17, 19). Therefore, we reasoned that ablating NOX4 and abrogating the resultant H_2O_2 -dependent NFE2L2 antioxidant defense response, and in particular reducing SOD-2, would promote mitochondrial oxidative stress to diminish insulin signalling and promote insulin resistance. To test this, we monitored by confocal microscopy for mitochondrial $O_2^{\bullet-}$ levels using the mitochondrial $O_2^{\bullet-}$ probe MitoSOX Red. The deletion of *Nox4* in hepatocytes increased mitochondrial $O_2^{\bullet-}$ in NOX4-deficient hepatocytes isolated from HFD-fed mice (**Fig. 4a**). The increased mitochondrial $O_2^{\bullet-}$ was accompanied by a reduction in insulin signalling, as monitored by AKT Ser-473 phosphorylation (p-AKT) in hepatocytes (**Fig. 5b**; **Fig. S4a**). Importantly, treatment with the NFE2L2 agonist sulforaphane not only restored the decreased antioxidant defense gene expression and the decreased abundance of the NFE2L2, NQO1, SOD-2 and catalase proteins (**Fig. 3k-l**), but also partially restored insulin signalling in NOX4-deficient hepatocytes (**Fig. 5c**; **Fig. S4b**). Moreover, treatment with the mitochondrial-targeted $O_2^{\bullet-}$ scavenger mitoTEMPOL restored insulin signalling in hepatocytes from HFD-fed *Alb-Cre;Nox4^{fl/fl}* mice (**Fig. 5d**; **Fig. S4c**). Finally, the sustained inhibition of NOX4 with GKT137831 diminished the expression of antioxidant defense genes (**Fig. 6a**) and insulin-induced p-AKT in hepatocytes from HFD-fed mice (**Fig. 6b**) and both were prevented if hepatocytes were additionally co-cultured with either sulforaphane (**Fig. 6c, d**), or the GSH precursor N-acetyl cysteine (NAC) (**Fig. 6e, f**). By contrast, the short-term administration of GKT137831 had no impact on insulin-induced p-AKT, arguing against NOX4-derived ROS having direct effects on insulin signalling (**Fig. S4d**). Therefore, defective NOX4-dependent antioxidant defense may exacerbate mitochondrial oxidative stress and the attenuation of insulin signalling in hepatocytes.

A potential outcome of defective antioxidant defense in NOX4-deficient hepatocytes in NAFLD might be increased oxidative damage. Consistent with this, we noted increased oxidative lipid damage, as assessed by immunoblotting NOX4-deficient hepatocytes from HFD-fed mice for 4-hydroxynonenal (4-HNE) (**Fig. 5e; Fig. S4e**), a marker of lipid peroxidation, as well as increased oxidative protein damage, as assessed by immunoblotting for protein carbonylation (**Fig. 5f; Fig. S4f**). The increased lipid peroxidation and protein carbonylation exceeded that otherwise induced in HFD-fed mice (**Fig. 5e-f**). The increased oxidative protein damage was attenuated when NOX4-deficient *Alb-Cre;Nox4^{fl/fl}* hepatocytes were cultured with sulforaphane (**Fig. 5g**) that could rescue the defective antioxidant defense (**Fig. 4a-b**). Moreover, the increased oxidative protein damage was attenuated when NOX4-deficient *Alb-Cre;Nox4^{fl/fl}* hepatocytes were cultured in the presence of mitoTEMPOL (**Fig. 5h**). Finally, the sustained inhibition of NOX4 with GKT137831 also increased oxidative protein damage in hepatocytes from HFD-fed mice (**Fig. 6g**) and this could be corrected when cells were co-cultured with sulforaphane (**Fig. 6h**) or NAC (**Fig. 6i**). These findings are consistent with the increased oxidative damage accompanying NOX4 deficiency being attributable to defective antioxidant defense and increased mitochondrial oxidative stress.

To test further if the increased oxidative damage may be attributed to enhanced oxidant sensitivity, we treated hepatocytes from HFD-fed *Nox4^{fl/fl}* versus *Alb-Cre;Nox4^{fl/fl}* mice with menadione. Menadione is a drug that generates ROS within the cytosol and mitochondria through futile redox cycling (48). Menadione increased the generation of ROS/H₂O₂ in hepatocytes isolated from HFD-fed mice (**Fig. 7a**); overall H₂O₂ generation was reduced by NOX4-deficiency, but the relative increase in menadione-induced H₂O₂ was similar (**Fig. 7a**). As expected, menadione treatment increased oxidative protein damage in both *Nox4^{fl/fl}* and *Alb-Cre;Nox4^{fl/fl}* hepatocytes (**Fig. S4g**). However, the extent of oxidative damage was exacerbated by NOX4 deficiency (**Fig. S4g**). A potential consequence of increased oxidative damage is cell

death, which in the context of the liver would elicit regenerative responses and lead to fibrosis. Consistent with this, menadione, which promotes cell death in a ROS-dependent manner (48), induced cell death (assessed by monitoring for metabolically active live cells) and this was exacerbated by NOX4-deficiency (IC₅₀ *Nox4*^{fl/fl}=8.4 μM; IC₅₀ *Alb-Cre;Nox4*^{fl/fl}=1.3 μM; **Fig. 7b**). Importantly, the enhanced menadione-induced cell death was blocked by sulforaphane or mitoTEMPOL (**Fig. 7c**), consistent with NOX4-deficiency exacerbating cell death because of defective NFE2L2 antioxidant defense and increased mitochondrial ROS. Moreover, the enhanced menadione-induced cell death in NOX4-deficient hepatocytes was accompanied by increased cleaved caspase-3 and cleaved PARP (poly ADP ribose polymerase), consistent with the promotion of apoptosis (**Fig. 7d**). The enhanced cell death was also accompanied by the increased phosphorylation and activation of the mitogen-activated protein kinases JNK and p38 (**Fig. 7d; S4h**), which are known to contribute to apoptosis and inflammatory responses in the liver (49, 50). Finally, the enhanced cleavage of caspase-3 and PARP and the increased p38 activation were reduced by treating hepatocytes with either mitoTEMPOL (**Fig. 7e**), or the NFE2L2 agonist sulforaphane (**Fig. S4i**). These results point towards the induction of NOX4 in the liver in obesity driving the antioxidant defense response to mitigate mitochondrial oxidative stress, macromolecular damage and cell death in lipid-laden hepatocytes.

Hepatocyte NOX4-deficiency promotes obesity, steatosis and insulin resistance in mice

To explore the impact of NOX4 abundance on hepatic pathophysiology in diet-induced obesity (DIO) we sought to delete *Nox4* postnatally in hepatocytes using the *Alb-Cre* transgene; *Nox4* was efficiently deleted in the livers and hepatocytes of *Alb-Cre;Nox4*^{fl/fl} mice (**Fig. 3a-b; Fig. S5a-b**), but not in other metabolic tissues (**Fig. S5a-b**). 8-week-old *Nox4*^{fl/fl} and *Alb-Cre;Nox4*^{fl/fl} mice were fed either a standard chow-diet or a HFD for 12-weeks and effects on body weight, body composition, glucose metabolism and liver steatosis assessed. The deletion

of *Nox4* in hepatocytes had no effect on body weight in mice fed a chow-diet (**Fig. S5c**). By contrast, the deletion of hepatocyte *Nox4* in HFD-fed male (**Fig. 8a**) or female mice (**Fig. S6a**) increased body weight. The increased body weight in male mice was accompanied by increased food intake in the dark cycle, but paradoxically also increased energy expenditure, as determined by indirect calorimetry (**Fig. S7a-c; Fig. S8**). NOX4-deficiency increased whole-body adiposity and fat pad weights in HFD-fed but not chow-fed mice, without any change in lean mass (**Fig. 8b-c; Fig. S5d-e; Fig. S6b**). Liver weights were also increased in HFD-fed (**Fig. 8c; Fig. S6c**) but not chow-fed *Alb-Cre;Nox4^{fl/fl}* mice (**Fig. S5e**) and this was accompanied by increased steatosis, as assessed histologically monitoring for lipid droplets (H&E) and staining for neutral lipids with Oil Red O (**Fig. 8d; Fig. S6d**); steatosis was not evident in chow-fed *Alb-Cre;Nox4^{fl/fl}* mice (**Fig. S5f**). The increased steatosis was in turn accompanied by the increased expression of *de novo* lipogenesis genes, including *Fasn*, *Scd1* and *Srebf1* (**Fig. 8e**), increased hepatic FASN and SCD1 protein levels (**Fig. 8f**) and an ~2-fold increase in *de novo* lipogenesis (**Fig. 8g**), as assessed in liver slices *ex vivo*, without any significant change in fatty acid oxidation (**Fig. 6h**). The enhanced *de novo* lipogenesis is consistent with studies that have shown that NFE2L2 negatively regulates lipid synthesis genes in the liver and protects from steatosis (35, 36, 51-53). Indeed, we found that the expression of the lipogenesis genes *Fasn* and *Scd1* were also induced in GKT137831-treated hepatocytes (**Fig. S9a**) from HFD-fed mice where antioxidant defense was defective (**Fig. 6a**). However, the enhanced lipogenic gene expression in NOX4-deficient hepatocytes from HFD-fed mice was corrected by administering the NFE2L2 agonist sulforaphane (**Fig. S9b**). Irrespective, consistent with the overt steatosis, triglyceride, diglyceride and ceramide levels were significantly elevated in HFD-fed *Alb-Cre;Nox4^{fl/fl}* mice (**Fig. 8i**). Therefore, the deletion of NOX4 in hepatocytes exacerbates DIO and promotes steatosis attributable, at least in part, to increased *de novo* lipogenesis.

An expected outcome of DIO in C57BL/6 mice is the development of insulin resistance. Consistent with this, HFD-fed *Alb-Cre;Nox4^{fl/fl}* mice were more insulin resistant, as reflected in insulin tolerance tests (**Fig. 9a; Fig. S6e-f**) and the heightened circulating glucose and insulin in fasted mice (**Fig. 9b; Fig. S6f**). To explore the impact of NOX4-deficiency on glucose turnover and whole-body insulin sensitivity, we subjected 12-week HFD-fed conscious and free-moving *Nox4^{fl/fl}* versus *Alb-Cre;Nox4^{fl/fl}* male mice to hyperinsulinemic-euglycemic clamps. We found that the glucose infusion rate (GIR) necessary to maintain euglycemia during the insulin-clamp was reduced (**Fig. 9c; Fig. S7d-e**), consistent with the development of insulin resistance. The rate of glucose disappearance (RD), a measure of muscle and adipose tissue glucose uptake, was reduced in clamped *Alb-Cre;Nox4^{fl/fl}* mice (**Fig. 9d**), whereas endogenous glucose production (EGP) in clamped *Alb-Cre;Nox4^{fl/fl}* mice was increased (**Fig. 9e; Fig. S7f-g**), consistent with hepatic insulin resistance. The latter was accompanied by the increased expression of genes encoding glucose-6 phosphatase (*G6pc*) and phosphoenolpyruvate carboxykinase (*Pck1*) (**Fig. 9f**), rate-limiting enzymes in gluconeogenesis. The diminished insulin-induced repression of HGP in HFD-fed *Alb-Cre;Nox4^{fl/fl}* mice was also associated with a reduction in insulin-induced PI3K/AKT signalling, as assessed by immunoblotting for AKT Ser-473 phosphorylation in corresponding liver homogenates (**Fig. 9g**), or in hepatocytes from HFD-fed *Alb-Cre;Nox4^{fl/fl}* mice (**Fig. 5b-d**). Taken together, our results are consistent with NOX4 deficiency in the liver diminishing antioxidant defense to promote hepatic and systemic insulin resistance in obesity.

Hepatocyte NOX4-deficiency promotes NASH and fibrosis

C57BL/6 mice fed a HFD become obese and develop NAFL, but do not develop NASH (54). Beyond exacerbating steatosis and insulin resistance, hepatocyte NOX4-deficiency in HFD-fed C57BL/6 mice also facilitated the progression to NASH (**Fig. 7**), with many of the

key diagnostic features of human NASH (1), including hepatocyte ballooning (**Fig. 10a-b**), hepatocyte cell death, as reflected by TUNEL staining (**Fig. 10c**), and lymphocytic infiltrates, including CD3⁺ T cell infiltrates, as assessed by histology (**Fig. 10d**), immunohistochemistry (**Fig. 10e**) or flow cytometry (**Fig. 10f**; **Fig. S10**). The lymphocytic infiltrates included CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T cells with an effector/memory phenotype (CD44^{hi}CD62L^{lo}), including antigen-experienced (CD49d^{hi}) and activated (CD69^{hi}) CD8⁺ T cells, as well as those with terminally-differentiated (KLRG1^{hi}) and exhausted (PD-1^{hi}TIM-3^{hi}) phenotypes (**Fig. 10f**; **Fig. S10**), as seen previously in humans with NASH (32, 54-56). It also included ‘autoaggressive’ PD-1^{hi}CXCR6^{hi} CD8⁺ T cells (**Fig. 10f**) that have been proposed to contribute to NAFLD pathogenesis in humans (57). Natural killer (NK) cells, dendritic cells (DCs), natural killer T cells (NKT), macrophages and Kupffer cells that are frequently elevated in NASH (56) were also increased (**Fig. 10f**; **Fig. S10**), as were immunosuppressive CD4⁺ regulatory T cells (**Fig. 10f**). The increased T cell infiltration was in turn accompanied by increased inflammation, as reflected by heightened STAT-1 Y701 phosphorylation (p-STAT-1) in hepatocytes (**Fig. 11a**), the expression of the STAT-1 target gene *Cxcl9* (encodes T cell chemoattractant CXCL9) and the increased expression of genes encoding proinflammatory cytokines, including IFN γ (*Ifng*) and TNF (*Tnf*) (**Fig. 11b**). An expected consequence of T cell recruitment and activation, inflammation and hepatocyte cell death in NAFLD is the induction of reparative processes that lead to DNA damage in dividing hepatocytes and increased fibrosis due to hepatic stellate cell activation. Consistent with this, hepatocytes with dsDNA breaks (γ H2AX staining) were readily evident in the livers in HFD-fed *Alb-Cre;Nox4^{fl/fl}* mice (**Fig. 11c**). In addition, livers in HFD-fed *Alb-Cre;Nox4^{fl/fl}* mice exhibited overt signs of fibrosis, as reflected by Picrosirius red staining (stains collagen) (**Fig. 11d**), the increased expression of fibrosis-related genes, including *Acta2* (α -smooth muscle actin) and *Tgfb* (transforming growth factor β), indicative of stellate cell activation, and the extracellular matrix genes *Colla1* (α -1 type-1 collagen) and

Fnl (fibronectin) (**Fig. 11e**), as well as the increased abundance of hydroxyproline (**Fig. 11f**), a measure collagen degradation and the severity of fibrosis. Thus the deletion of NOX4 in the liver not only promotes steatosis, but also facilitates the transition to NASH and ensuing fibrosis in DIO.

Next, we determined whether the deletion of NOX4 might be sufficient to drive NASH/fibrosis in adult mice that are already obese with established steatosis. To this end we sought to delete *Nox4* using an adeno-associated viral (AAV)-thyroxine binding globulin (TBG) promoter construct that expresses Cre specifically in hepatocytes (58). 8-week-old *Nox4^{fl/fl}* mice were HFD-fed for 10-weeks to promote obesity and steatosis and then administered either AAV-TBG-EGFP control, or AAV-TBG-iCre and high fat feeding continued for a further 10-weeks. The administration of AAV-TBG-iCre efficiently deleted *Nox4* so that *Nox4* mRNA was reduced by approximately 70% and NOX4 protein by 60% (**Fig. 12a-b**). The deletion of *Nox4* was accompanied by modest increases in body weight (**Fig. 12c**) attributed to increased whole-body adiposity (**Fig. 12d**). The deletion of *Nox4* was also accompanied by the decreased hepatic expression of antioxidant defense genes, including *Nfe2l2*, *Nqo1*, *Sod1*, *Sod2*, *Prdx1* and *Catalase* (**Fig. 12e**) and reduced NFE2L2 (**Fig. 12f**), increased KEAP-1 (**Fig. 12f**) and decreased NQO1, SOD-2 and catalase proteins (**Fig. 12f**), consistent with an abrogated antioxidant defense response. Moreover, *Nox4* deletion increased steatosis (**Fig. 12g**) and the expression of lipogenic genes (**Fig. 12h**). Notably, the deletion of hepatocyte *Nox4* in adult obese mice also facilitated the transition to NASH with fibrosis, as assessed histologically by Picrosirius red staining (**Fig. 12i**), by measuring the hepatic expression of inflammatory (*Tnf*, *Ifng*) and fibrosis-related (*Acta2*, *Tgfb*, *Colla1*, *Fnl*) genes (**Fig. 12j**), and by measuring hepatic hydroxyproline levels (**Fig. 12k**). Therefore, the deletion of hepatocyte *Nox4* in adult obese mice can abrogate the antioxidant defense response

otherwise induced during NAFL to exacerbate steatosis and facilitate the transition to NASH/fibrosis.

To explore if the progression to NASH/fibrosis associated with the deletion of *Nox4* might be ascribed to decreased NOX4-derived ROS generation and antioxidant defense, we determined if the NOX1/4 inhibitor GKT137831 could promote NASH/fibrosis in HFD-fed C57BL/6 mice (**Fig. 13**). The administration of GKT137831 (40 mg/kg, 3x/week, 5-weeks) to 15-week HFD-fed obese C57BL/6 mice modestly increased body weights (**Fig. 13a**) and had no significant effect on liver weights (**Fig. 13b**), but decreased *Nfe2l2* expression in the liver along with the expression of key antioxidant defense genes, including *Sod1*, *Sod2*, *Catalase* and *Nqo1* (**Fig. 13c**), while increasing the expression of lipogenic genes (**Fig. 13d**; **Fig. S9a**). This was accompanied by increased steatosis (**Fig. 13e**) and lymphocytic infiltrates (**Fig. 13f**), as well as increased fibrosis (**Fig. 13g-h**), as assessed by the hepatic expression of fibrosis-related genes (**Fig. 13g**) and by histology (**Fig. 13h**). These results are consistent with the induction of NOX4 in the livers of obese mice with steatosis driving ROS-dependent antioxidant defense to limit steatosis, mitochondrial oxidative stress and tissue damage and attenuate the progression to NASH/fibrosis.

Reduced NOX4 and antioxidant defense gene expression in NASH with advanced fibrosis

Our analysis of publicly available RNAseq data (41) and our qPCR analyses of liver core biopsies revealed that *NOX4* and antioxidant genes tended to decline in humans with NASH and advanced fibrosis when compared to those with NAFL (**Fig. 1a**). We reasoned that the decline in *NOX4* and antioxidant defense may exacerbate disease and contribute to NASH/fibrosis. Accordingly, we first asked if the reduced *NOX4* and antioxidant defense gene expression might have been hepatocyte intrinsic, or otherwise, indicative of changes in the abundance/activation of non-parenchymal cells in NASH/fibrosis. To this end we isolated

hepatocytes from C57BL/6 mice that were fed either a standard chow-diet, a HFD to promote obesity, insulin resistance and steatosis, or a choline-deficient HFD (CD-HFD) to promote obesity, insulin resistance and the progression to NASH/fibrosis. CD-HFD-fed mice exhibited NASH with steatosis, lymphocytic infiltrates and fibrosis (**Fig. 14a-b**). As noted already, *Nox4*, *Sod2*, *Cat* and *Nqo1* mRNA levels were increased in lipid-laden hepatocytes from HFD-fed C57BL/6 (**Fig. 14c; Fig. S11**). Importantly, as noted in humans with NASH and advanced fibrosis, *Nox4*, *Sod2*, *Cat* and *Nqo1* were reduced in hepatocytes from CD-HFD fed mice (**Fig. 14c**). The reduced expression of *Nox4*, *Sod2*, *Cat* and *Nqo1* was accompanied by decreased NOX4, NQO1, SOD2 and catalase protein levels (**Fig. 14d**) and reduced H₂O₂ production (**Fig. 14e**). Importantly, the reduced NOX4 and H₂O₂ and the decreased expression of antioxidant defense proteins in hepatocytes from CD-HFD fed mice, was in turn accompanied by increased oxidative protein damage (**Fig. 14f**). To independently assess the extent to which NASH and fibrosis may impact on *Nox4* expression *in vivo* we took advantage of a publicly-available cell type-resolved transcriptional dataset (59) to assess the expression of *Nox4*, as well as the expression of antioxidant defense genes in hepatocyte nuclei from mice fed a low-fat control diet versus a HFD rich in fructose, palmitate and cholesterol (HFD/FPC diet) for 20-weeks; the HFD/FPC diet promotes variable degrees of NASH and fibrosis and recapitulates key aspects of human NASH (59). We found that *Nox4*, *Sod1*, *Sod2*, *Cat*, *Nfe2l2* and *Nqo1* mRNA levels were increased in hepatocytes from HFD/FPC mice with mild NASH with minimal inflammation and no appreciable fibrosis (**Fig. 14g**), but tended to decline in hepatocytes in mice with advanced NASH with comparable levels of steatosis but more inflammatory foci and overt fibrosis (**Fig. 14g**). Therefore, the decline in NOX4 and NFE2L2 antioxidant defense associated with more advanced NASH/fibrosis may contribute to disease progression. To test this, we sought to overexpress NOX4 and ascertain whether this might sustain the antioxidant defense response and temper NASH/fibrosis in mice fed a CD-HFD. We took advantage of

AAVs to overexpress either GFP (AAV-TBG-EGFP) or murine NOX4 (AAV-TBG-m*Nox4*) in hepatocytes before feeding mice a CD-HFD for 12-weeks. Hepatic *Nox4* was overexpressed by 7.9-fold (**Fig. 15a**) and this was accompanied by increased NOX4 protein (**Fig. 15b**) and a >2-fold increase in extracellular H₂O₂ in isolated hepatocytes (**Fig. 15c**). The overexpression of NOX4 was accompanied by modestly decreased body (**Fig. 15d**) and liver weights (**Fig. 15e**) but no change in body composition (**Fig. 15f**). The decreased liver weight was accompanied by the decreased expression of lipogenic genes (**Fig. 15g**) and decreased steatosis (**Fig. 15h**). Moreover, the overexpression of NOX4 increased the hepatic expression of select antioxidant defense genes (**Fig. 15i**) and proteins, including NFE2L2, SOD2 and NQO1 (**Fig. 15j**; **Fig. S12**) and decreased oxidative damage as assessed by monitoring for protein carbonylation in hepatocytes from the corresponding mice (**Fig. 15k**). The decreased oxidative damage was accompanied by a trend for decreased hepatic CD8⁺ T cell infiltrates including decreased activated and effector/memory CD8⁺ T cells and a significant decrease in the proportion of exhausted and ‘autoaggressive’ CD8⁺ T cells (**Fig. 16a**); innate immune cells remained unaltered (**Fig. 16a**). In addition, CD-HFD-fed mice overexpressing NOX4 were characterised by a trend for decreased hepatic inflammation, as assessed by the decreased immune infiltrates (**Fig. 16b**) and the decreased expression of proinflammatory genes (**Fig. 16c**). This was accompanied by decreased fibrosis, as assessed histologically (**Fig. 16d**), the expression of fibrosis-related genes (**Fig. 16e**) and hepatic hydroxyproline levels (**Fig. 16f**). Therefore, forced NOX4 overexpression can mitigate NASH/fibrosis otherwise associated with the decline in *Nox4* in mice fed a NASH/fibrosis-promoting CD-HFD.

DISCUSSION

In this study we report that the induction of the NFE2L2 antioxidant defense response in NAFL, orchestrated by mitochondrial- and thereon NOX4-derived ROS, prevents liver damage and the progression to NASH with fibrosis. Conversely, reduced NOX4 and antioxidant defense might be a key feature of the progression to NASH and fibrosis.

The dysregulation of redox balance resulting in oxidative stress can affect the progression of many human diseases (60). In particular, the increased production of mitochondrial oxidants in metabolic tissues has been causally linked to the development of insulin resistance (10, 15-21, 23, 28, 61, 62), a key pathological feature of type 2 diabetes and a leading risk factor of NAFLD (1). Genetic and pharmacological studies in rodents also point toward mitochondrial oxidative distress facilitating the progression to NASH/fibrosis (9, 10, 14, 20-22). However, beyond the potential to drive disease progression, ROS also have important physiological functions (60). For example, ROS such as H₂O₂ can function as second messengers to facilitate signalling in response to physiological stimuli by oxidising and inactivating protein tyrosine phosphatases (63). Moreover, we have shown previously that H₂O₂ generated by NOX4 in skeletal muscle in mice during exercise can activate NFE2L2 and elicit adaptive responses that enhance muscle function and maintain insulin sensitivity (44). Similarly, others have reported that NOX4 also activates NFE2L2 in the heart to prevent oxidative stress and maintain cardiac function during exercise (64), whereas studies in humans have shown that antioxidants can negate the beneficial effects of exercise on insulin sensitivity and this is accompanied by the decreased expression of muscle genes encoding mediators of antioxidant defense, including SOD-1/2 and GPX-1 (65). Therefore, beyond directly affecting signalling and physiological processes, ROS also drive adaptive responses that mitigate disease.

In this study we have shown that mitochondrial- and NOX4-derived ROS function in concert to elicit adaptive responses in the liver to temper NAFLD pathogenesis. We have shown that mitochondrial- and NOX4-derived ROS drive NFE2L2 antioxidant defense in hepatocytes to limit the oxidative damage of macromolecules, the development of insulin resistance and the progression to NASH/fibrosis. Our studies indicate that this response is graded, with mitochondrial ROS first stabilising NFE2L2 to thereon increase the expression of NOX4, to further increase ROS/H₂O₂ and the abundance of NFE2L2, to thereby drive a robust antioxidant defense response. The importance of mitochondria-derived ROS/H₂O₂ in driving such adaptive/protective responses in the liver has been noted previously. Carter *et al.* reported that the beneficial effects of static magnetic and electric fields on insulin sensitivity were reliant in mitochondrial-derived O₂•⁻ (66). Our own studies have shown the deletion of *Gpx1* in hepatocytes and the resultant increased H₂O₂ levels enhance insulin sensitivity in HFD-fed mice and attenuate NASH/fibrosis in mice fed a choline-deficient amino acid-defined (CDAA) diet (67). In this study, we report that ROS generation by NOX4 is essential for the mitochondrial-orchestrated adaptive response in NAFLD. The deletion of *Nox4* increased KEAP-1 and decreased NFE2L2 protein levels, thereby reducing the expression of NFE2L2 target genes, including those encoding SOD-2 and catalase. Previous studies have shown that the heterozygous deletion of *Sod2* in mice can promote mitochondrial oxidative stress (16), whereas genetic polymorphisms in *SOD2* in humans that decrease SOD-2 mitochondrial targeting and activity may be associated with NASH and the severity of fibrosis (22, 68). Thus, we propose that the reductions in SOD-2 and catalase would be key contributors to the oxidative distress evident in NOX4-deficient hepatocytes. The promotion of mitochondrial oxidative stress associated with the deletion/inhibition of NOX4 in hepatocytes diminished insulin signalling, whereas NOX4 deficiency *in vivo* promoted hepatic and systemic insulin resistance, a key driver of NAFLD. The deletion of *Nox4* and the diminished antioxidant

defense also exacerbated the ability of mitochondrial oxidants to promote hepatocyte cell death. The progression to NASH/fibrosis in HFD-fed *Alb-Cre;Nox4^{fl/fl}* mice was accompanied by hepatocyte cell death, inflammation and the recruitment/accumulation of CD8⁺ T cell subsets that have been causally linked with NASH (32, 54-57). The extent to which the progression to NASH/fibrosis may have been ascribed to oxidant-dependent cell death and ensuing inflammation, or otherwise to the oxidative inactivation of tyrosine phosphatases and the promotion of STAT-1 signalling in hepatocytes to drive T cell recruitment, inflammation and cell death as we have noted previously (32) remains unclear. Since both DNA damage and heightened hepatocyte STAT-1 signalling were readily evident, we propose that both mechanisms are likely to contribute. Interestingly, the deletion of *Nox4* in hepatocytes also increased DIO and enhanced steatosis, which is a risk factor for the progression to NASH. Although the molecular basis for the increased body weight in HFD-fed *Alb-Cre;Nox4^{fl/fl}* mice remains unclear, food consumption was increased pointing towards potential crosstalk with the CNS and the control of feeding. The increased body weight/adiposity and systemic insulin resistance in HFD-fed *Alb-Cre;Nox4^{fl/fl}* mice may have contributed to the increased steatosis by promoting the flux of lipids from adipose tissue. However, the increased steatosis was also accompanied by increased *de novo* lipogenesis. Previous studies have shown that NFE2L2 can negatively regulate the expression of lipid synthesis genes and protect from steatosis (35, 36, 51-53). Consistent with this we found that the increased hepatocyte lipogenic gene expression resulting from the deletion of *Nox4* was corrected by the administration of the NFE2L2 agonist sulforaphane. However, neither obesity *per se* nor steatosis are sufficient to drive the progression from NAFL to NASH in C57BL/6 mice or indeed humans (1, 7, 8). Therefore, although the increased weight gain and steatosis may have influenced disease severity, they would not have instigated disease progression.

Our findings seemingly contrast with previous studies that have reported that the deletion of *Nox4* in hepatocytes attenuates NASH/fibrosis in mice fed diets that promote NASH/fibrosis, with or without obesity (24). Yet other studies have shown that systemic NOX1/NOX4 inhibition with GKT137831 can repress liver fibrosis induced by bile duct ligation or CCl₄ treatment (46, 69). Our studies do not preclude NOX4-derived ROS in the context of diminished antioxidant defense contributing to oxidative distress and NAFLD pathogenesis. Moreover, our findings do not preclude a role for NOX1/NOX4 in other cell types, including hepatic stellate cells, where NOX1/4 activation may drive an activated/fibrogenic state (70). Our studies demonstrate that whereas steatosis and resultant increases in mitochondrial ROS drive *NOX4* expression in NAFL, the progression towards more advanced disease with fibrosis is accompanied by reduced *NOX4* and concomitantly reduced antioxidant defense. This is consistent with other studies that have shown that catalase activity declines in patients with overt NASH/fibrosis (10), as well as studies showing that hepatic *Nox4* and *Cat* transcripts are reduced in mice fed a NASH/fibrosis-promoting MCD diet (71). Importantly, we found that NOX4 overexpression in hepatocytes was able to increase antioxidant defense and decrease steatosis, inflammation and fibrosis in mice fed a NASH/fibrosis-promoting CD-HFD. Precisely why NOX4 and the antioxidant defense response may decline in NASH/fibrosis remains unclear, but may relate to the mitochondrial dysfunction associated with advanced disease (9, 10, 72). Irrespective, in the context of reduced NOX4 and resultant decreased adaptive antioxidant defense, any ROS generated by NOX4 might thereon contribute to oxidative distress and exacerbate disease severity, so that its complete deletion or inhibition would be beneficial. This is line with NOX4 contributing to both adaptive redox signalling to mitigate NAFLD progression, as well oxidative distress to promote NASH pathogenesis.

The results of this study underscore the importance of redox balance in governing the transition from NAFL to NASH and the progressive development of fibrosis in obesity. Our studies define the interplay between mitochondria and NOX4 in eliciting optimal NFE2L2-dependent antioxidant defense in hepatocytes and point towards perturbations in this adaptive response being an important contributor to NAFLD pathogenesis.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Experimental procedures and reagents can be found in *Supplemental Data*.

Statistics

Statistical significance was set at $P < 0.05$ and determined with a 2-tailed Student's *t* test, or Mann-Whitney U Test, or a one-way or two-way ANOVA with multiple comparisons.

Study approval

Animal experiments were approved by the Monash University School of Biomedical Sciences Animal Ethics Committee (Project IDs: 22138;23077;36631;17687;14368).

Use of human tissue was approved by the Monash University Human Research Ethics Committee (CF12/2339-2012001246; CF15/3041-2015001282). Subjects gave written consent before participating in the study. Liver core biopsies were from obese men and women undergoing bariatric surgery (32) and were processed for RNA isolation. Gender difference analyses were not performed due to the low frequency of suitable donors.

Data Availability

All data are available from the corresponding author or provided in the Supporting data values file.

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

T.T. conceived/conceptualized the study, designed experiments, wrote the manuscript and interpreted the data with intellectual input from all authors. S.G. S.K. and C.E.X. conceptualized and designed experiments, conducted and analysed experiments and contributed to manuscript reviewing/editing. Other authors performed and/or analysed experiments and/or contributed to manuscript reviewing/editing.

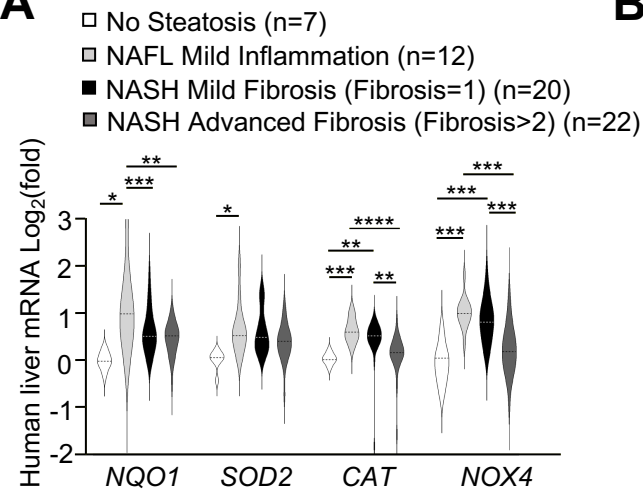
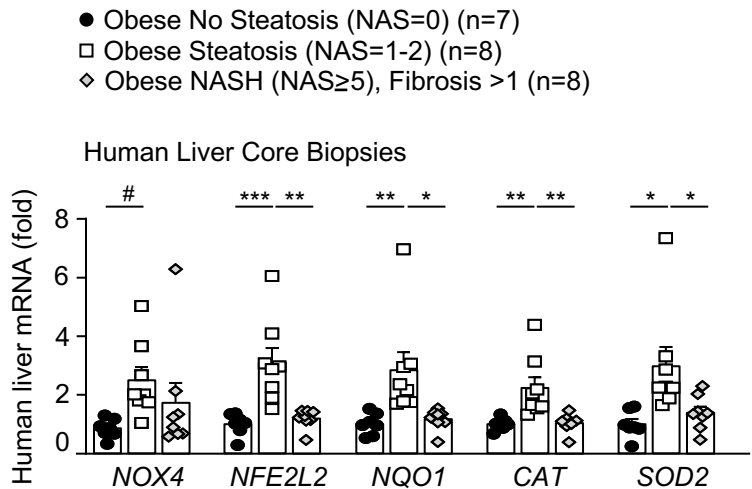
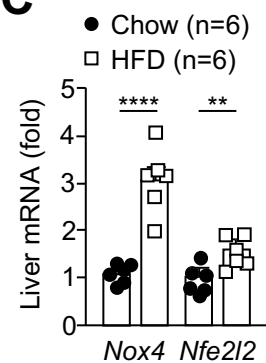
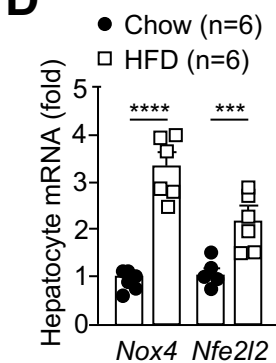
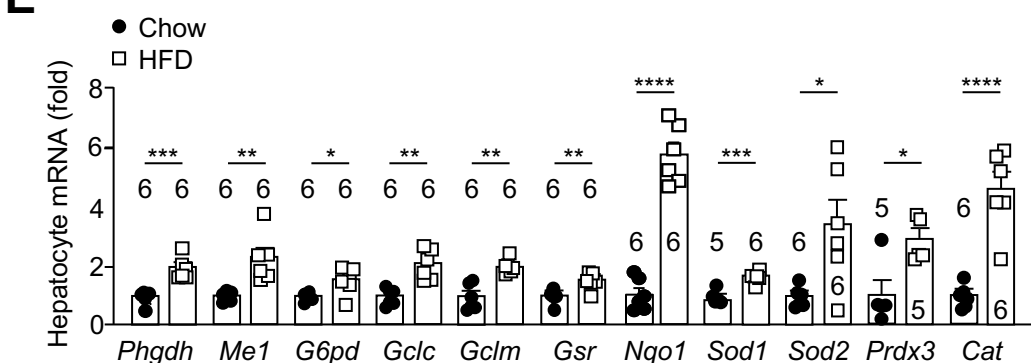
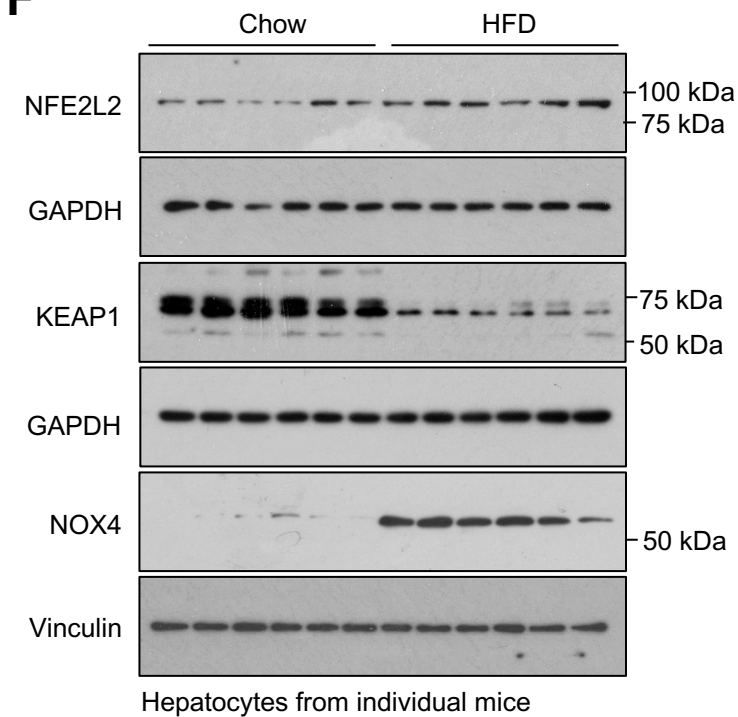
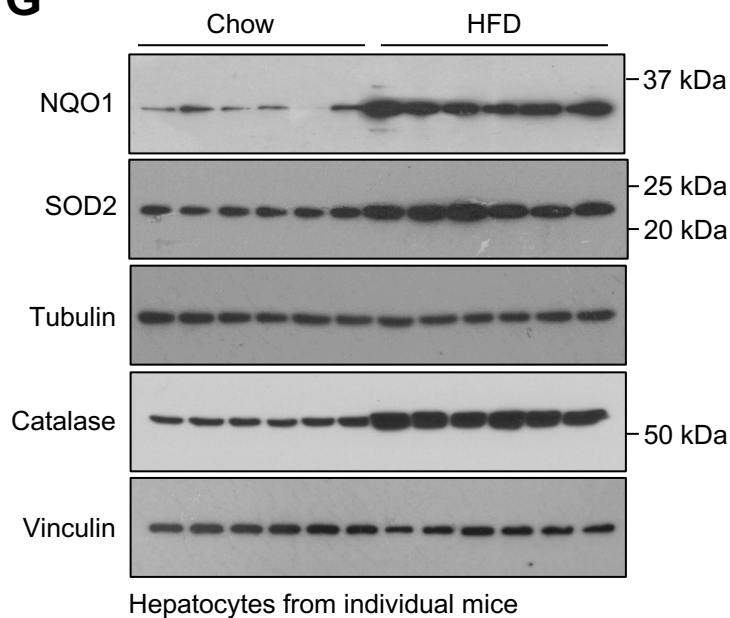
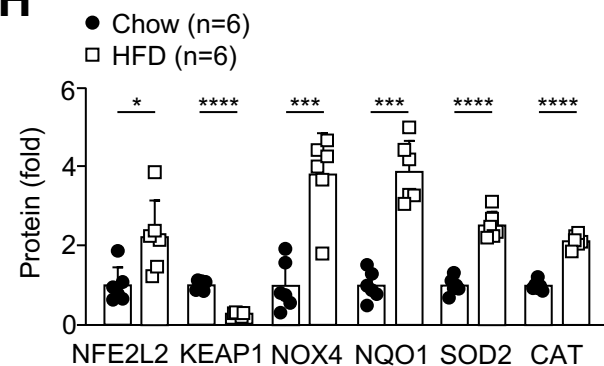
A**B****C****D****E****F****G****H****FIG 1**

Figure 1. *NOX4* and *NFE2L2* antioxidant defense gene expression in NAFLD. **a)** RNAseq analysis (GSE130970) of livers from patients without steatosis (n=7), with NAFL (n=13; NAS=1-4, fibrosis score=0), NASH with mild fibrosis (n= 20; NAS=3-6, fibrosis score=1), or NASH with advanced fibrosis (n=22; NAS=3-6, fibrosis score \geq 2). **b)** qPCR analysis of liver core biopsies from obese patients without steatosis (n=7; NAS=0), with NAFL (n=8; NAS=1-2) or NASH and fibrosis (n=8; NAS $>$ 5, fibrosis score=1-2). **c)** C57BL/6 mice were fed a chow-diet or a HFD for 12-weeks and livers processed for qPCR. **d-h)** C57BL/6 mice were fed a chow-diet or HFD for 8-10-weeks and hepatocytes isolated and processed for **d-e)** qPCR or **f-g)** immunoblotting. **h)** Quantification of protein from f-g. Representative and quantified results are shown (mean \pm SEM) for the indicated number of mice. Significance determined using (c-e, h) Student's t-test, or (a-b) one-way ANOVA.

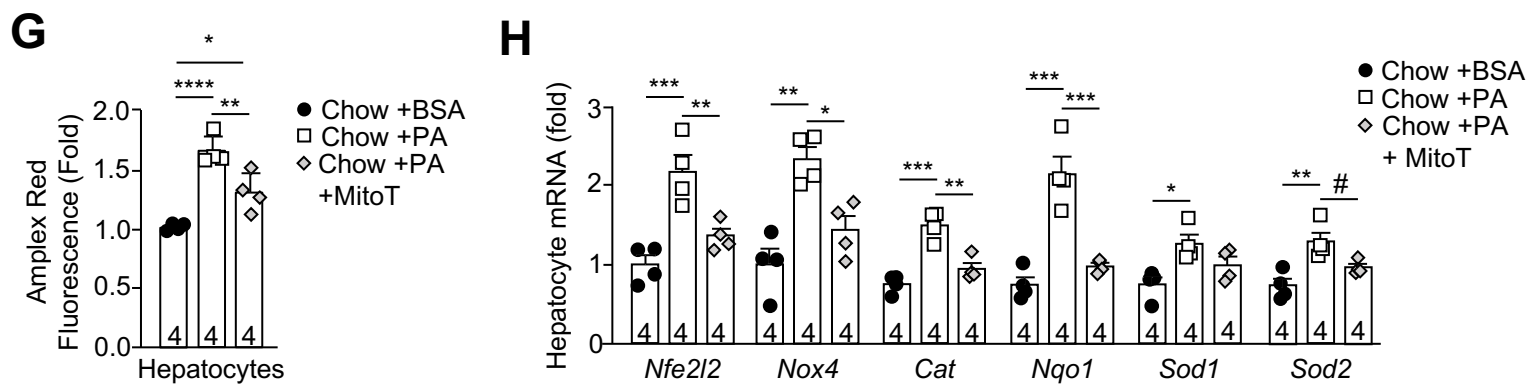
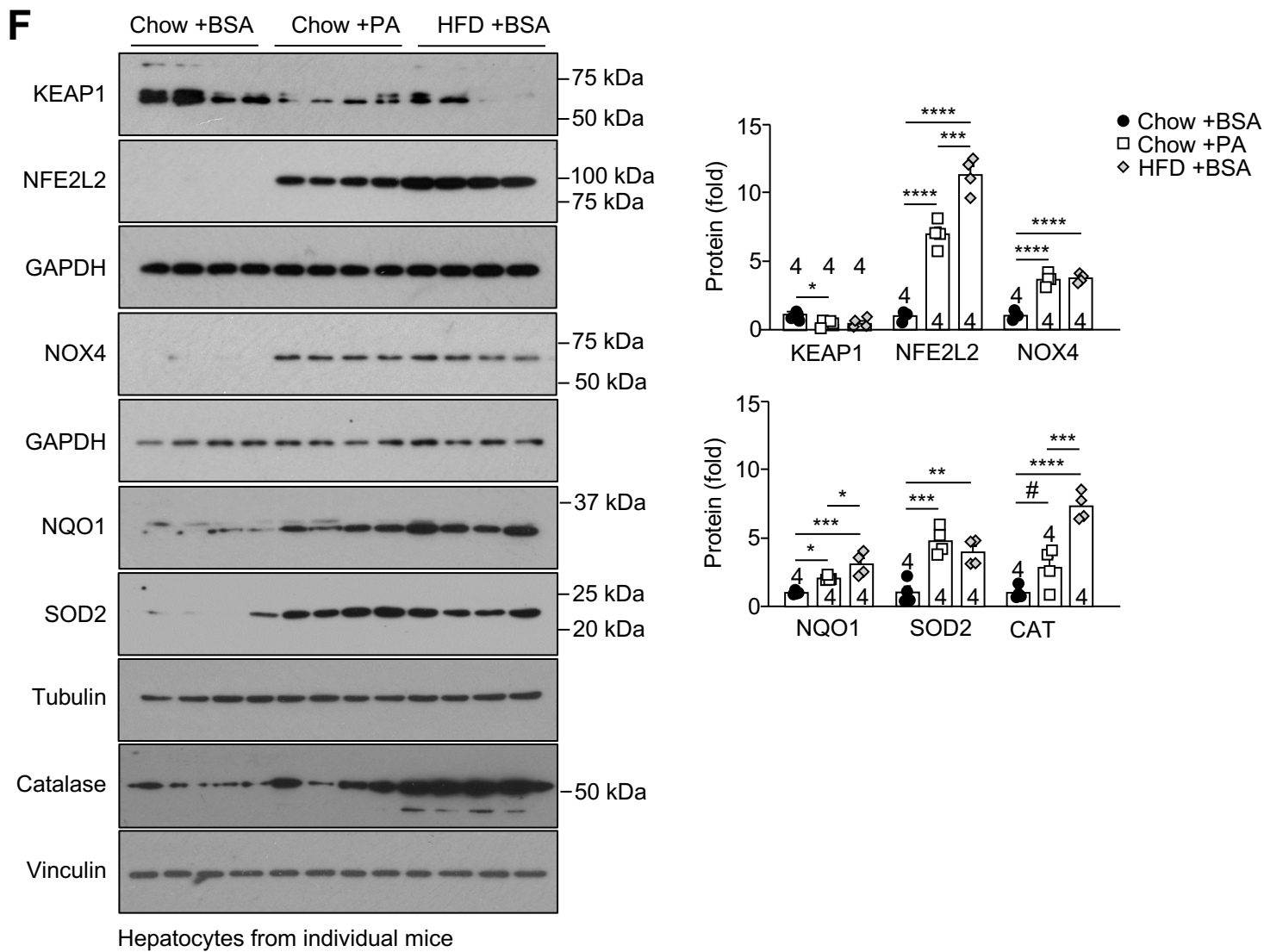
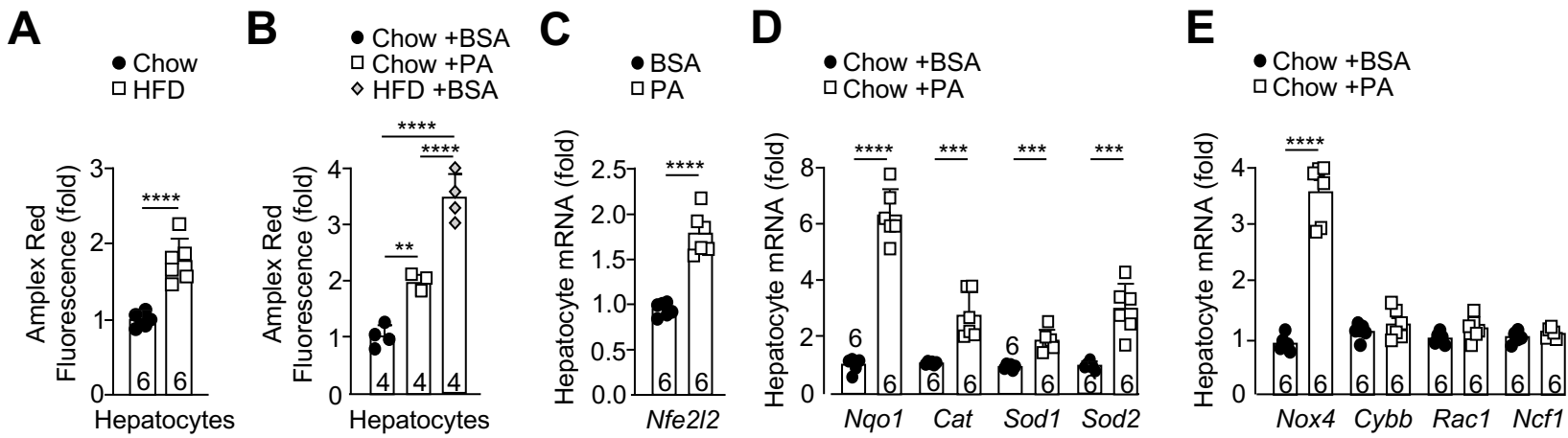


FIG 2

Figure 2. Lipids and mitochondrial ROS drive antioxidant defense. a-b) C57BL/6 mice were fed a chow-diet and/or a HFD for 8-10-weeks and hepatocytes isolated, cultured for 16h and **a)** processed for extracellular H₂O₂ measurements using Amplex Red, or **b)** treated with BSA-conjugated palmitate (PA) or BSA for 16h and processed for H₂O₂ measurements, or **c-e)** processed for qPCR, or **f)** treated with BSA or PA for 36h and processed for immunoblotting, or **g-h)** treated with BSA, PA or PA plus 20 μ M mitoTEMPOL (MitoT) for 16h and processed for qPCR. Representative and quantified results are shown (mean \pm SEM) for the indicated number of mice. Significance determined using (a, c-e) Student's t-test, or (b, f-h) one-way ANOVA; # Student's t-test.

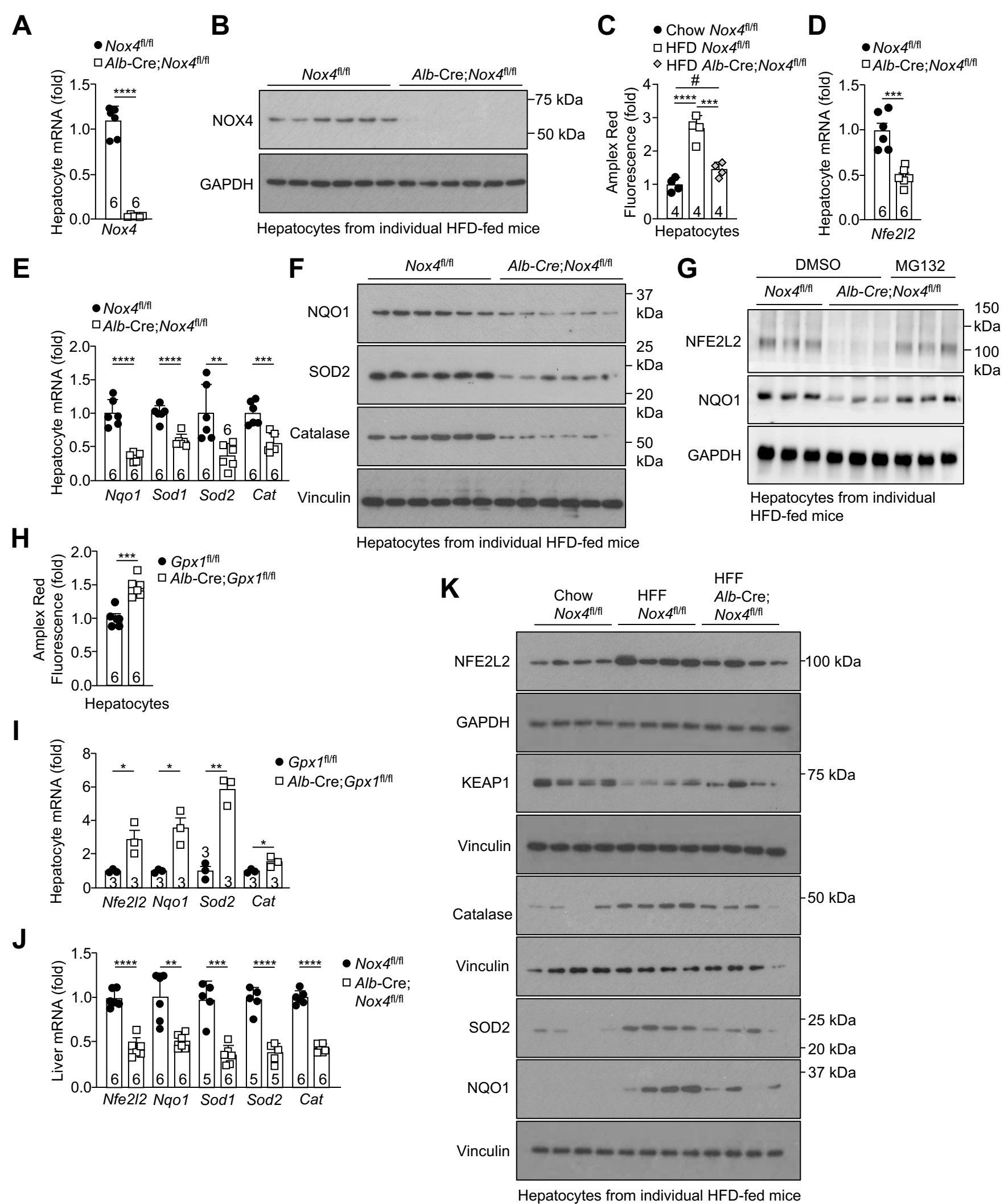


FIG 3

Figure 3. NOX4 is essential for antioxidant defense. **a-b)** *Nox4*^{fl/fl} or *Alb-Cre;Nox4*^{fl/fl} mice were fed a HFD for 8-10-weeks and hepatocytes isolated and processed for **a)** qPCR, or **b)** immunoblotting to assess NOX4 expression. **c)** C57BL/6 mice were fed a chow-diet or HFD and hepatocytes isolated and processed for H₂O₂ measurements. **d-f)** *Nox4*^{fl/fl} or *Alb-Cre;Nox4*^{fl/fl} mice were fed a HFD and hepatocytes isolated and processed for **d-e)** qPCR or **f)** immunoblotting. **g)** *Nox4*^{fl/fl} or *Alb-Cre;Nox4*^{fl/fl} mice were fed a HFD and hepatocytes incubated with vehicle or MG132 for 36h and processed for immunoblotting. **h-i)** Hepatocytes were isolated from chow-fed *Gpx1*^{fl/fl} or *Alb-Cre;Gpx1*^{fl/fl} (C57BL/6) mice and processed for **h)** H₂O₂ measurements, or **i)** qPCR. **j)** *Nox4*^{fl/fl} or *Alb-Cre;Nox4*^{fl/fl} mice were fed a HFD for 12-weeks and livers processed for qPCR. **k)** *Nox4*^{fl/fl} or *Alb-Cre;Nox4*^{fl/fl} mice were fed a chow-diet or HFD and hepatocytes isolated and processed for immunoblotting. Representative and quantified results are shown (mean±SEM) for the indicated number of mice. Significance determined using (a, d,e, h-j) Student's t-test or (c) one-way ANOVA; # Student's t-test.

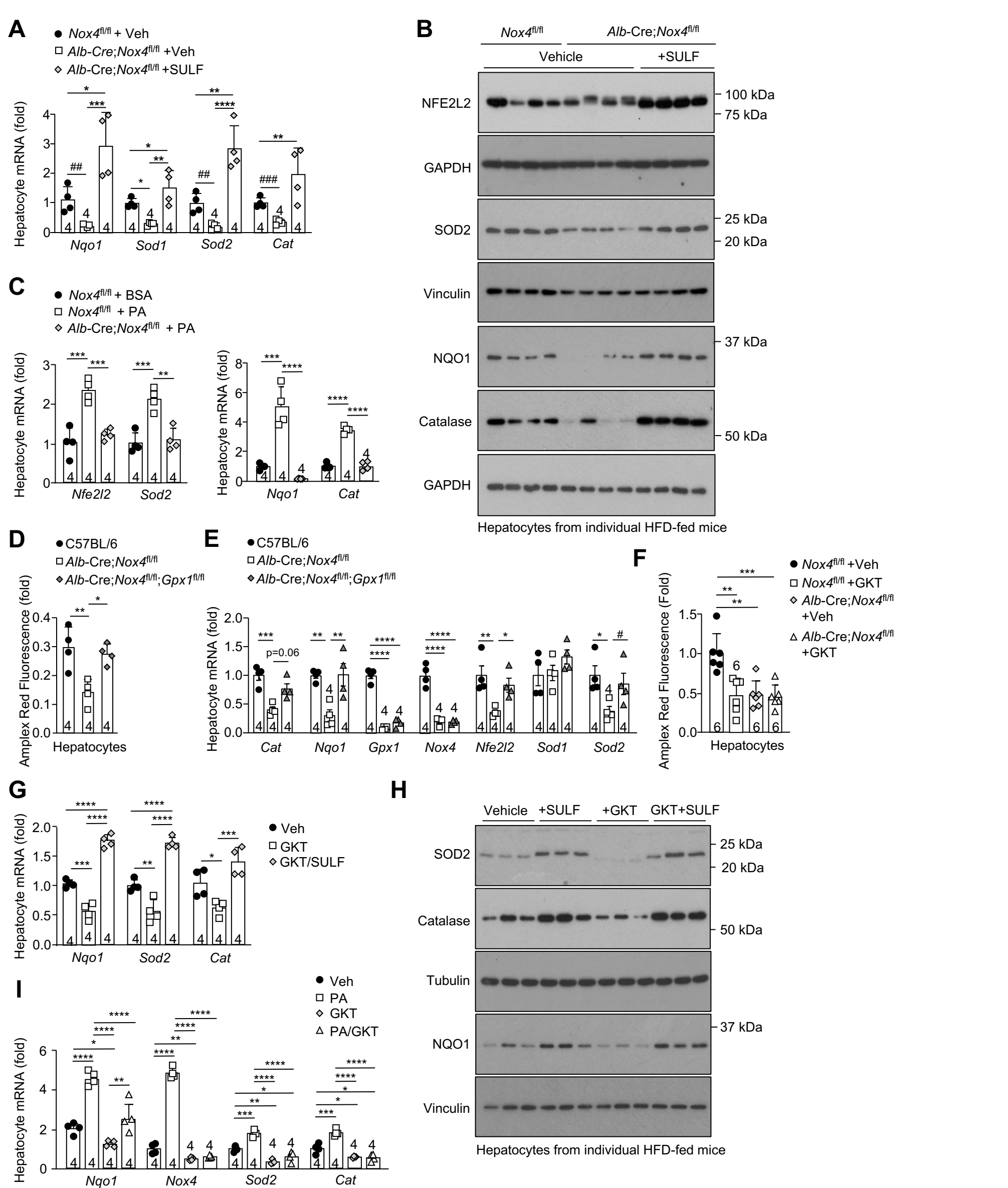


FIG 4

Figure 4. NOX4-derived H_2O_2 is essential for antioxidant defense. **a-b)** $Nox4^{fl/fl}$ or $Alb-Cre;Nox4^{fl/fl}$ mice were fed a HFD for 8-10-weeks and hepatocytes isolated and treated with vehicle (DMSO) or 1 μ M sulforaphane (SULF) for **a)** 16h and processed for qPCR, or **b)** 36h and processed for immunoblotting. **c)** Alternatively, hepatocytes were treated with BSA or PA for 16h and processed for qPCR. **d-e)** 8-week-old $Nox4^{fl/fl}$, $Alb-Cre;Nox4^{fl/fl}$ or $Alb-Cre;Nox4^{fl/fl};Gpx1^{fl/fl}$ mice were fed a HFD for 8-10-weeks and hepatocytes isolated and processed for **d)** H_2O_2 measurements, or **e)** qPCR. **f-h)** $Nox4^{fl/fl}$ or $Alb-Cre;Nox4^{fl/fl}$ mice were fed a HFD for 8-10-weeks and isolated hepatocytes treated with vehicle (DMSO), 40 μ M GKT137831 (GKT), or GKT plus 1 μ M SULF for 16h and processed for **f)** H_2O_2 measurements and **g)** qPCR, or **h)** 36h and processed for immunoblotting. **i)** Alternatively, hepatocytes were treated with vehicle, PA, GKT or PA plus GKT for 16h and processed for qPCR. Representative and quantified results are shown (mean \pm SEM) for the indicated number of mice. Significance determined using (a, i) Student's t-test or (a, c, d, e, g) one-way ANOVA or (f, i) two-way ANOVA; # Student's t-test.

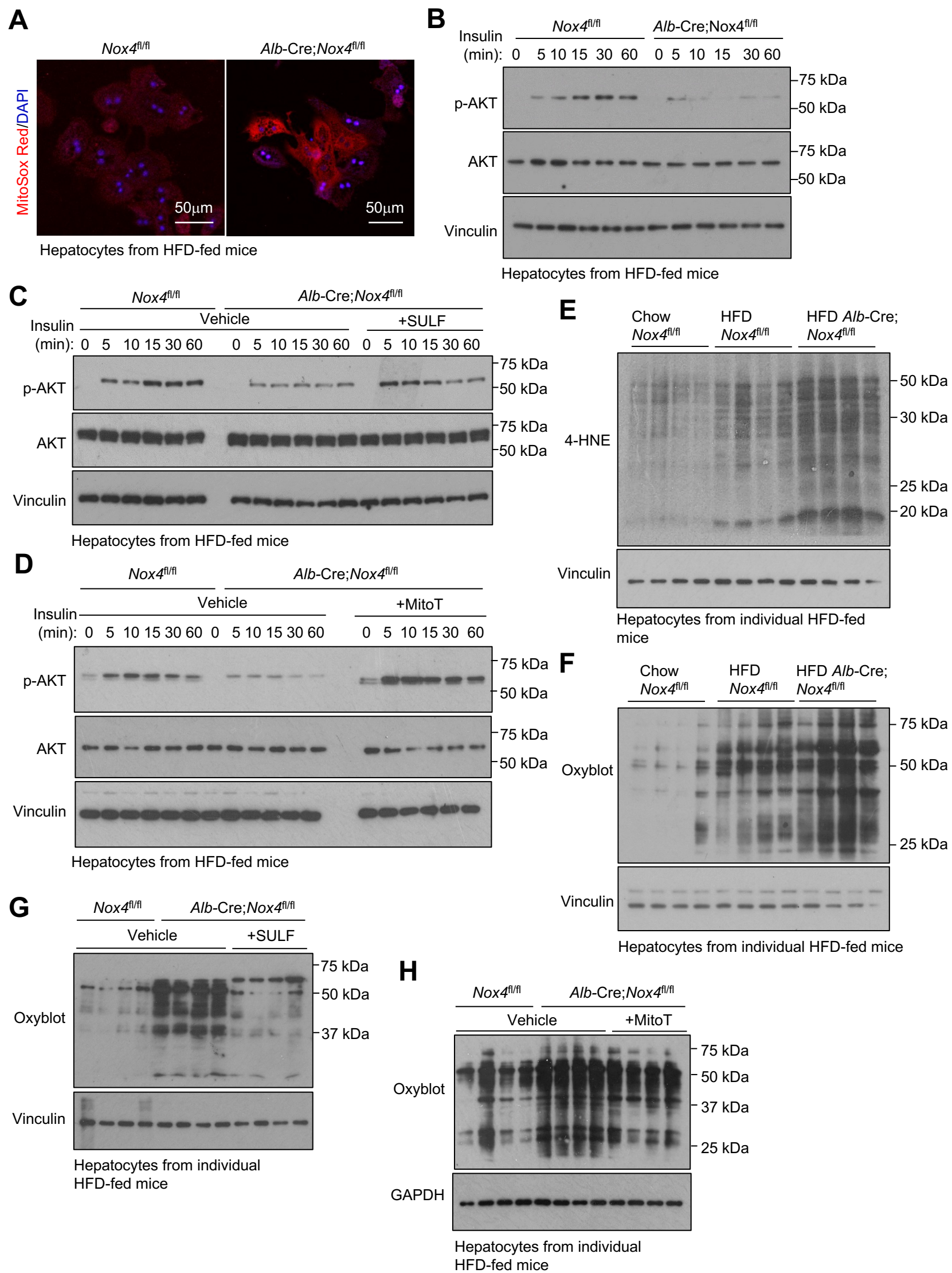


FIG 5

Figure 5. NOX4 deletion in hepatocytes promotes oxidative stress and insulin resistance. **a-b)** *Nox4^{fl/fl}* or *Alb-Cre;Nox4^{fl/fl}* mice were fed a HFD for 8-10-weeks and isolated hepatocytes either **a)** stained with 1 μ M MitoSOXTM Red and analysed by confocal microscopy (counterstained with DAPI) or **b)** serum-starved and stimulated with 1 nM insulin and processed for immunoblotting to monitor for AKT Ser-473 phosphorylation (p-AKT). **c-d)** Alternatively hepatocytes were treated with vehicle, 1 μ M SULF or 20 μ M MitoT for 16h, serum-starved, and then stimulated with 1 nM insulin and processed for immunoblotting. **e-f)** *Nox4^{fl/fl}* or *Alb-Cre;Nox4^{fl/fl}* mice were fed a chow-diet or HFD for 8-10-weeks and hepatocytes isolated and processed for lipid peroxidation (4-HNE) or protein carbonylation (Oxyblot) analysis by immunoblotting. **g-h)** *Nox4^{fl/fl}* or *Alb-Cre;Nox4^{fl/fl}* mice were fed a HFD for 8-10-weeks and isolated hepatocytes treated with vehicle, 1 μ M SULF or 20 μ M MitoT for 16h and processed for 4-HNE or Oxyblot immunoblotting. Representative results of at least three independent experiments are shown.

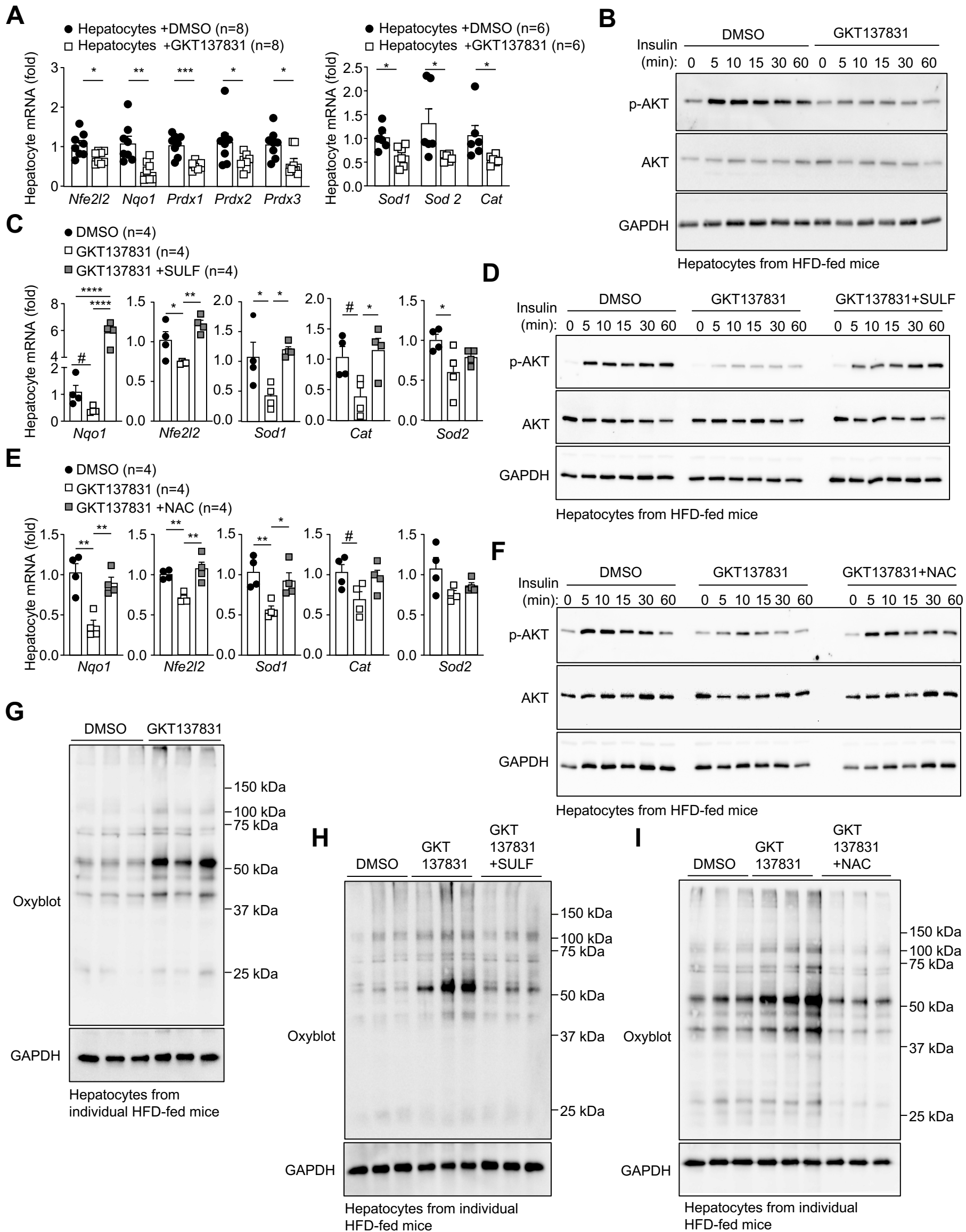


FIG 6

Figure 6. NOX4 inhibition diminishes antioxidant defense and promotes oxidative stress and insulin resistance. C57BL/6 mice were fed a HFD for 8-10-weeks and hepatocytes isolated and cultured for 16 h at 5% O₂. **a-b)** Hepatocytes were treated with vehicle (DMSO) or 40 μ M GKT137831 twice per day for 48h and processed for **a)** qPCR, or **b)** serum-starved and stimulated with 2 nM insulin and processed for immunoblotting. **c-d)** Hepatocytes were treated with vehicle, GKT137831 twice per day, or GKT137831 twice per day plus 1 μ M SULF once per day for 48h and processed for **c)** qPCR or **d)** immunoblotting. **e-i)** Hepatocytes were treated with DMSO, GKT137831 twice per day or GKT137831 twice per day plus NAC (1 mM) for 48h and then processed for **e)** qPCR, or **f)** stimulated with 2 nM insulin and processed for p-AKT immunoblotting, or **g-i)** processed for Oxyblot immunoblotting. Representative and quantified results are shown (mean \pm SEM) for the indicated number of mice. Significances were determined using (a) Student's t-test or (c, e) one-way ANOVA; # Student's t-test.

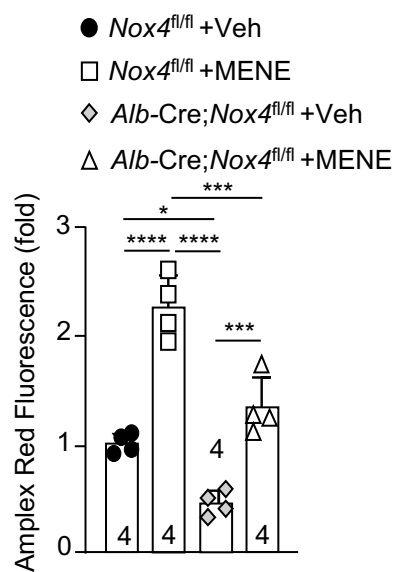
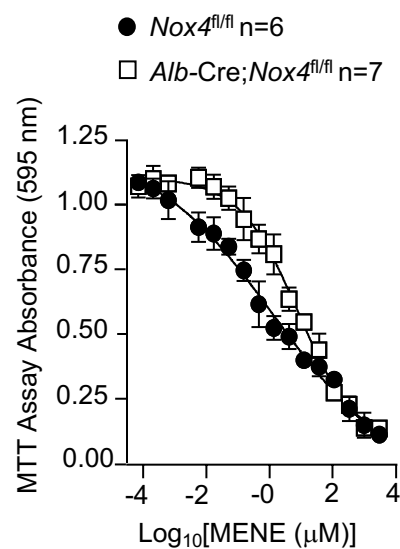
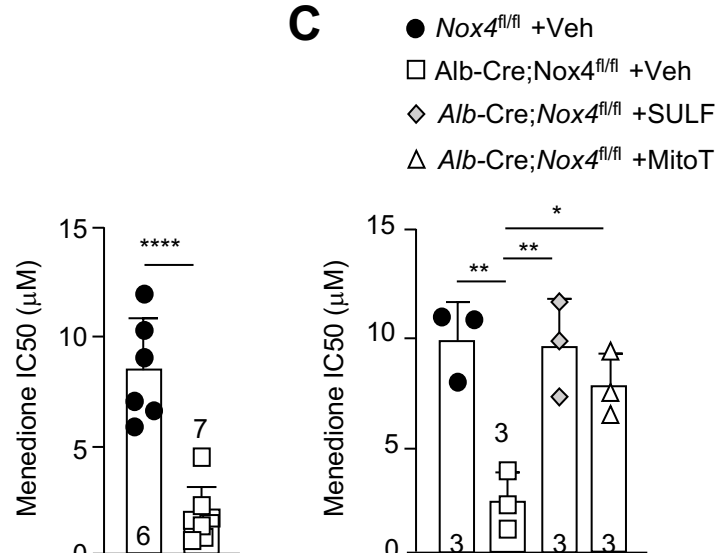
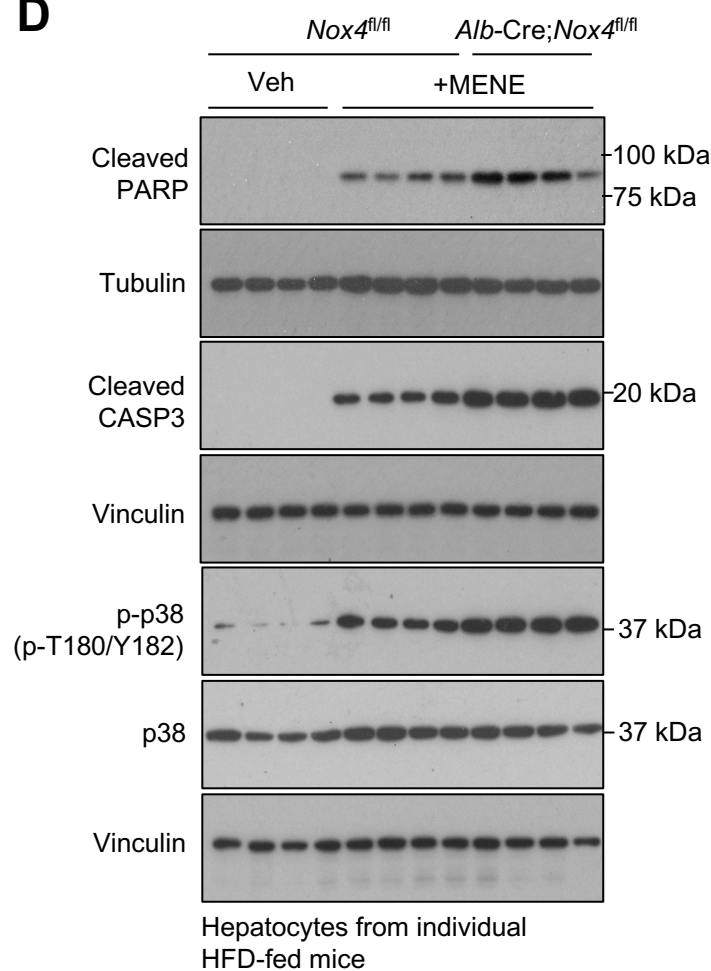
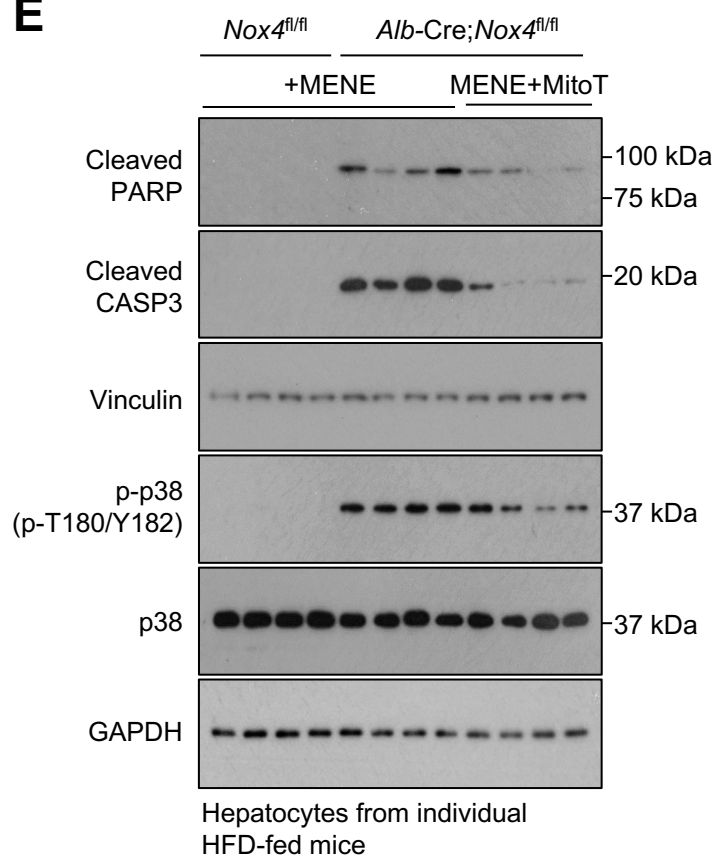
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Figure 7. Figure 6. NOX4-deficiency promotes cell death. a-d) *Nox4^{fl/fl}* or *Alb-Cre;Nox4^{fl/fl}* mice were fed a HFD for 8-10-weeks and hepatocytes isolated and **a)** treated with vehicle (EtOH) or 1 μ M menadione (MENE) for 16h and processed for H₂O₂ measurements, or **b)** treated with varying concentrations of MENE (16.9 μ M-3mM) for 48h, or **c)** with vehicle, 1 μ M SULF or 20 μ M MitoT for 16h and then varying concentrations of MENE for 48h in the presence of 1 μ M SULF or 20 μ M MitoT as indicated and processed for the analysis of cell death using the MTT assay. **d-e)** Alternatively, cells were incubated with **d)** vehicle or 1 μ M MENE for 24h or **e)** with vehicle or 20 μ M MitoT for 16h and then 1 μ M MENE for 24h in the presence of 20 μ M MitoT as indicated and processed for immunoblotting to monitor for cleaved PARP, cleaved caspase 3 (CASP3) and T180/Y182 phosphorylated p38 (p-p38) MAPK. Representative and quantified results are shown (mean \pm SEM) for the indicated number of mice. Significance determined using (b) Student's t-test, or (a, c) two-way ANOVA.

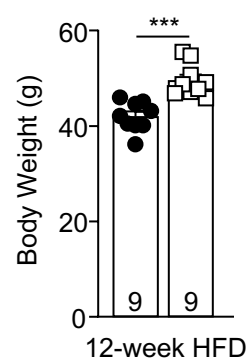
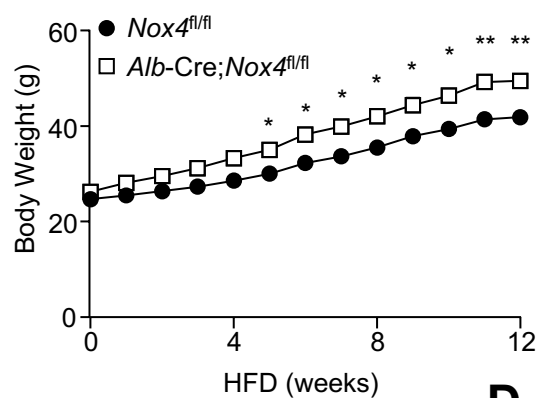
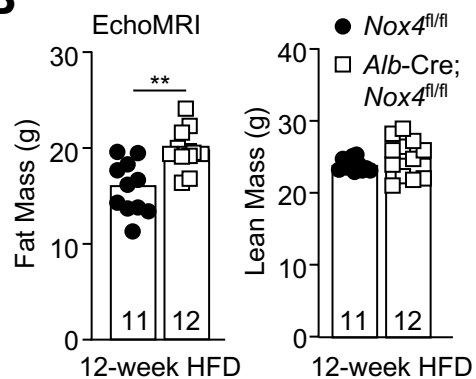
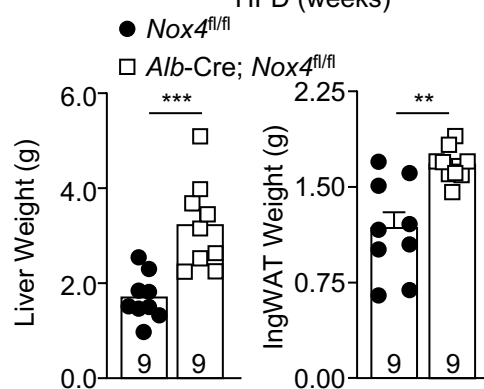
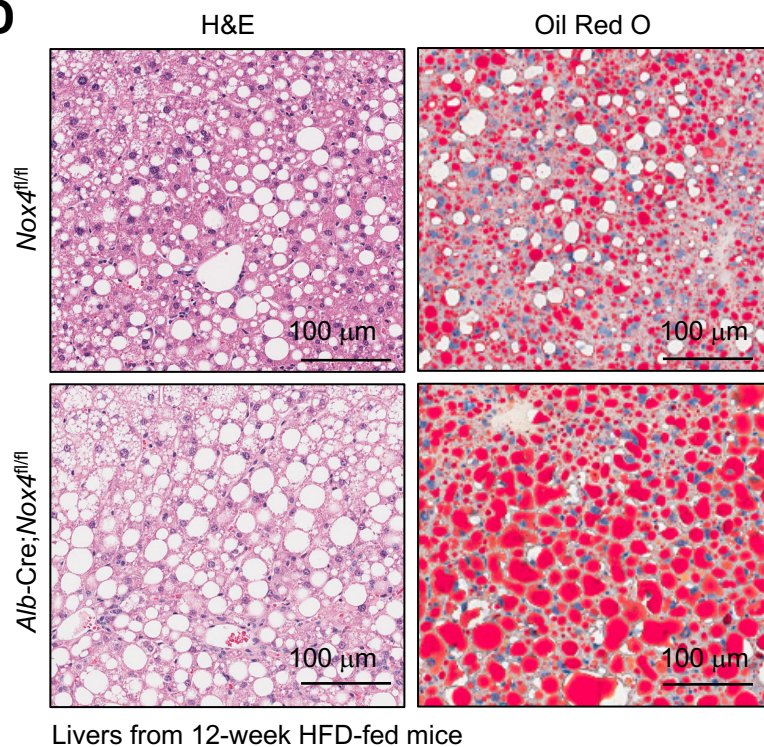
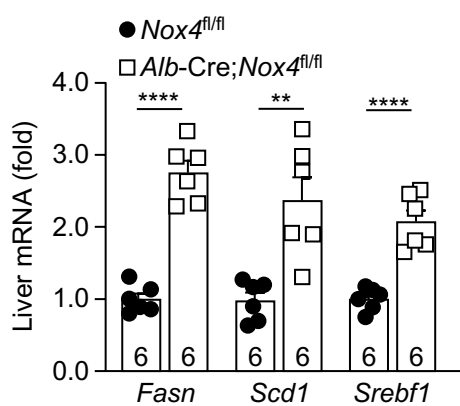
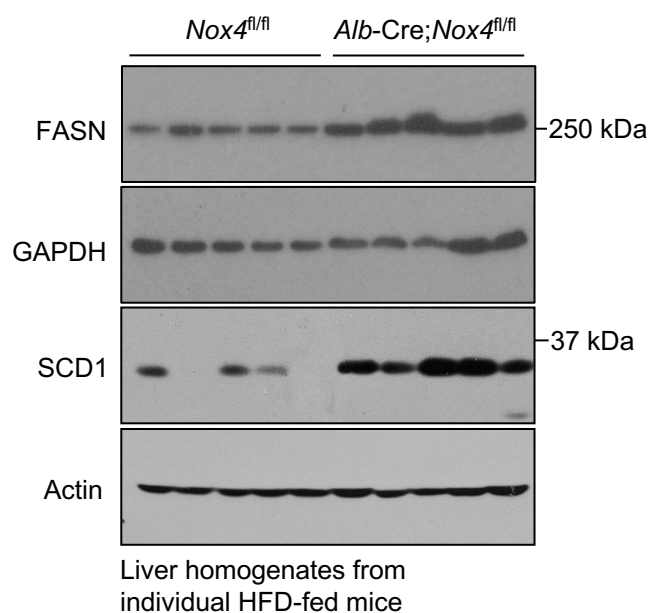
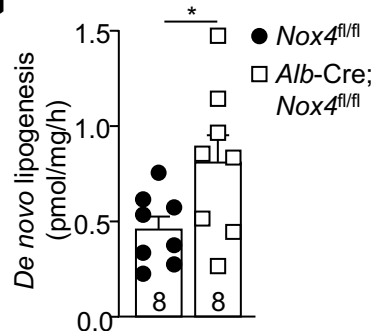
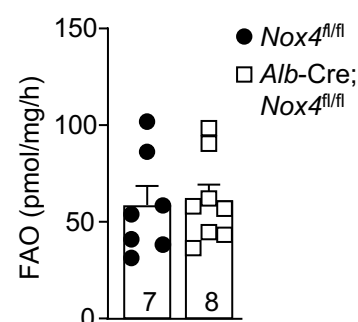
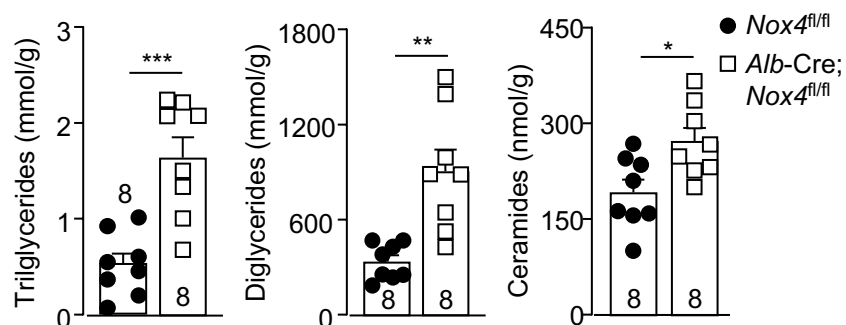
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Figure 8. NOX4-deficiency promotes obesity, steatosis and insulin resistance. *Nox4^{fl/fl}* and *Alb-Cre;Nox4^{fl/fl}* male mice were fed a HFD for 12-weeks. **a)** Body weights, **b)** body composition, **c)** liver and inguinal white adipose tissue (ingWAT) weights. **d)** Livers were processed for histology (H&E: hematoxylin and eosin or Oil Red O). **e-i)** Livers were processed for **e)** qPCR, or **f)** immunoblotting, or biochemical assays to measure **g)** *de novo* lipogenesis, **h)** fatty acid oxidation (FAO) as well as **i)** triglyceride, diglyceride and ceramide levels. Representative and quantified results are shown (means±SEM) for the indicated number of mice; significance determined using (a) two-way ANOVA, (a) Student's t-test (12-week body weight) or (b-c, e, g-i) Student's t-test.

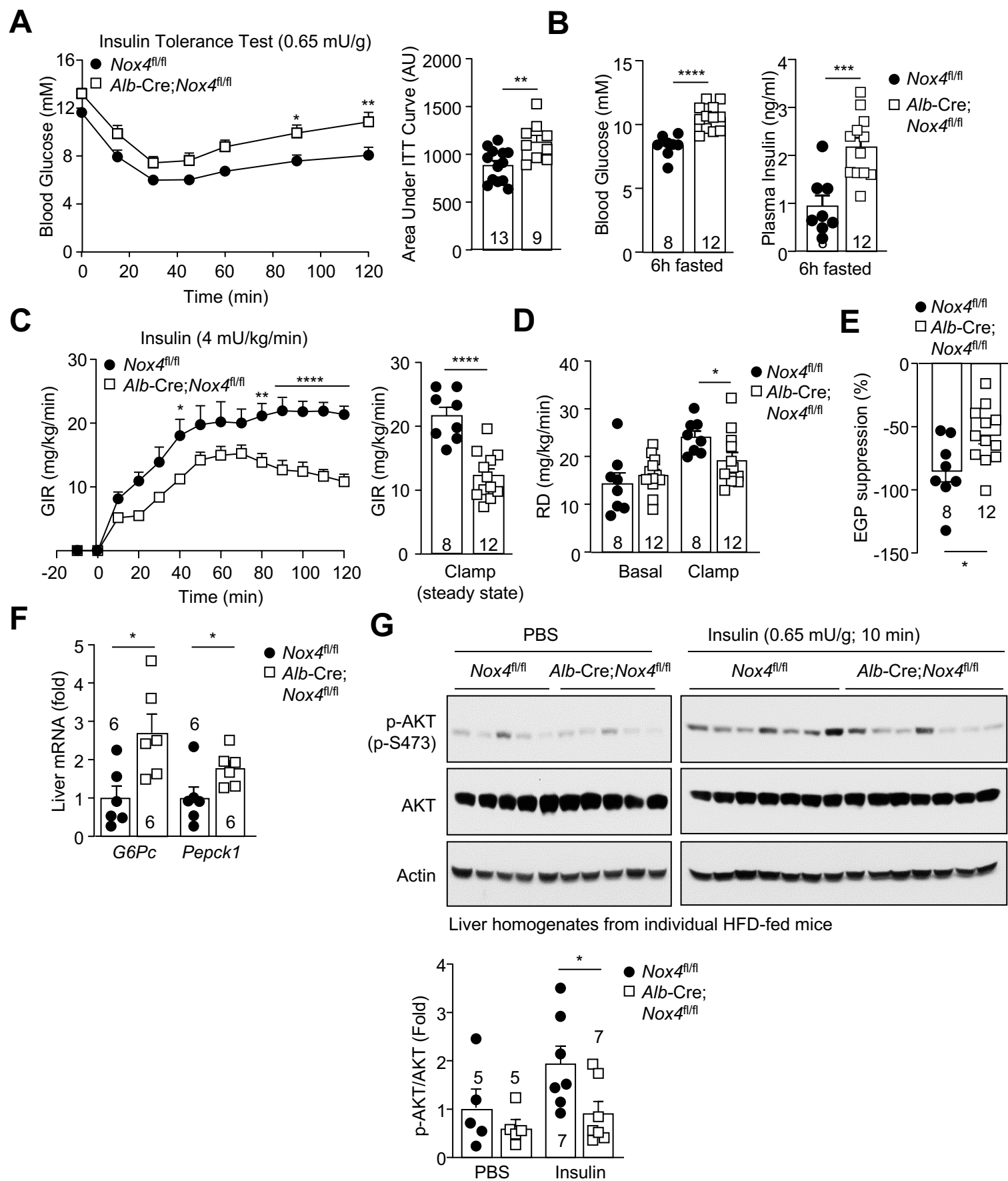


FIG 9

Figure 9. NOX4-deficiency promotes insulin resistance. **a-g)** *Nox4^{fl/fl}* and *Alb-Cre;Nox4^{fl/fl}* male mice were fed a HFD for 12-weeks. **a)** Mice were subjected to insulin tolerance tests [ITTs; areas under ITT curves determined; arbitrary units (AU) shown], or fasted for 6h and **b)** blood glucose and plasma insulin levels determined, or subjected to hyperinsulinaemic-euglycaemic clamps. **c)** GIRs and **d)** RD **e)** EGP (% suppression). **f)** Clamped livers were processed for qPCR. **g)** Mice were fasted for 6h, injected with PBS or insulin and livers processed for immunoblotting. Representative and quantified results are shown (means±SEM) for the indicated number of mice; significance determined using (a b, c, d, e-g) Student's t-test, or (a, c) two-way ANOVA (ITT curves and GIR time courses).

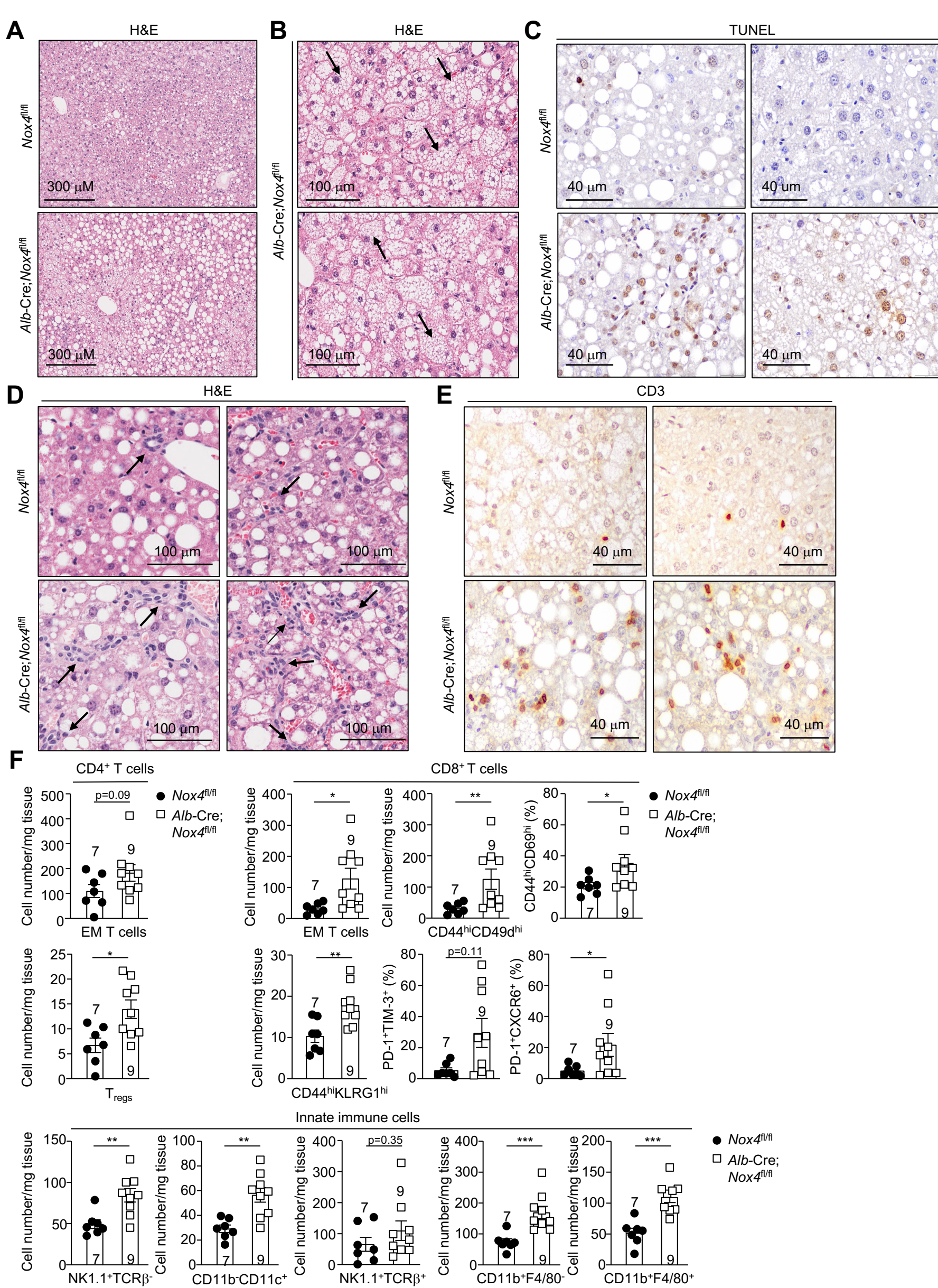


FIG 10

Figure 10. NOX4-deficiency promotes NASH. a-h) *Nox4^{fl/fl}* and *Alb-Cre;Nox4^{fl/fl}* male mice were fed a HFD for 12-weeks. **a-e)** Livers were processed either for **a-b, d)** histology (H&E) to monitor **a)** steatosis and **b)** hepatocyte ballooning (indicated by arrows), or **d)** lymphocytic infiltrates (indicated by arrows) or **c, e)** immunohistochemistry to monitor for **c)** TUNEL⁺ apoptotic cells or **e)** CD3⁺ T cells. **f)** Liver lymphocytes including CD44^{hi}CD62L^{lo} CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ effector/memory (EM) T cells, CD4⁺CD25⁺FoxP3⁺ regulatory T cells (T_{regs}), CD8⁺CD44^{hi}CD49d^{hi} T cells, CD8⁺CD44^{hi}CD69d^{hi} T cells, CD8⁺CD44^{hi}KLRG1^{hi} T cells, CD8⁺PD-1^{hi}TIM-3^{hi} T cells, CD8⁺PD-1^{hi}CXCR6^{hi} autoreactive T cells, NK1.1^{hi}TCRβ^{lo} natural killer (NK) cells, NK1.1^{hi}TCRβ^{hi} NK T cells, CD11b⁻CD11c⁺ lymphoid dendritic cells, CD11b^{hi}F4/80^{lo} hepatic macrophages and CD11b^{hi}F4/80^{hi} Kupffer cells were analysed by flow cytometry. Representative and quantified results are shown (means±SEM) for the indicated number of mice; significance in (f) was determined using a 2-tailed Mann-Whitney U Test.

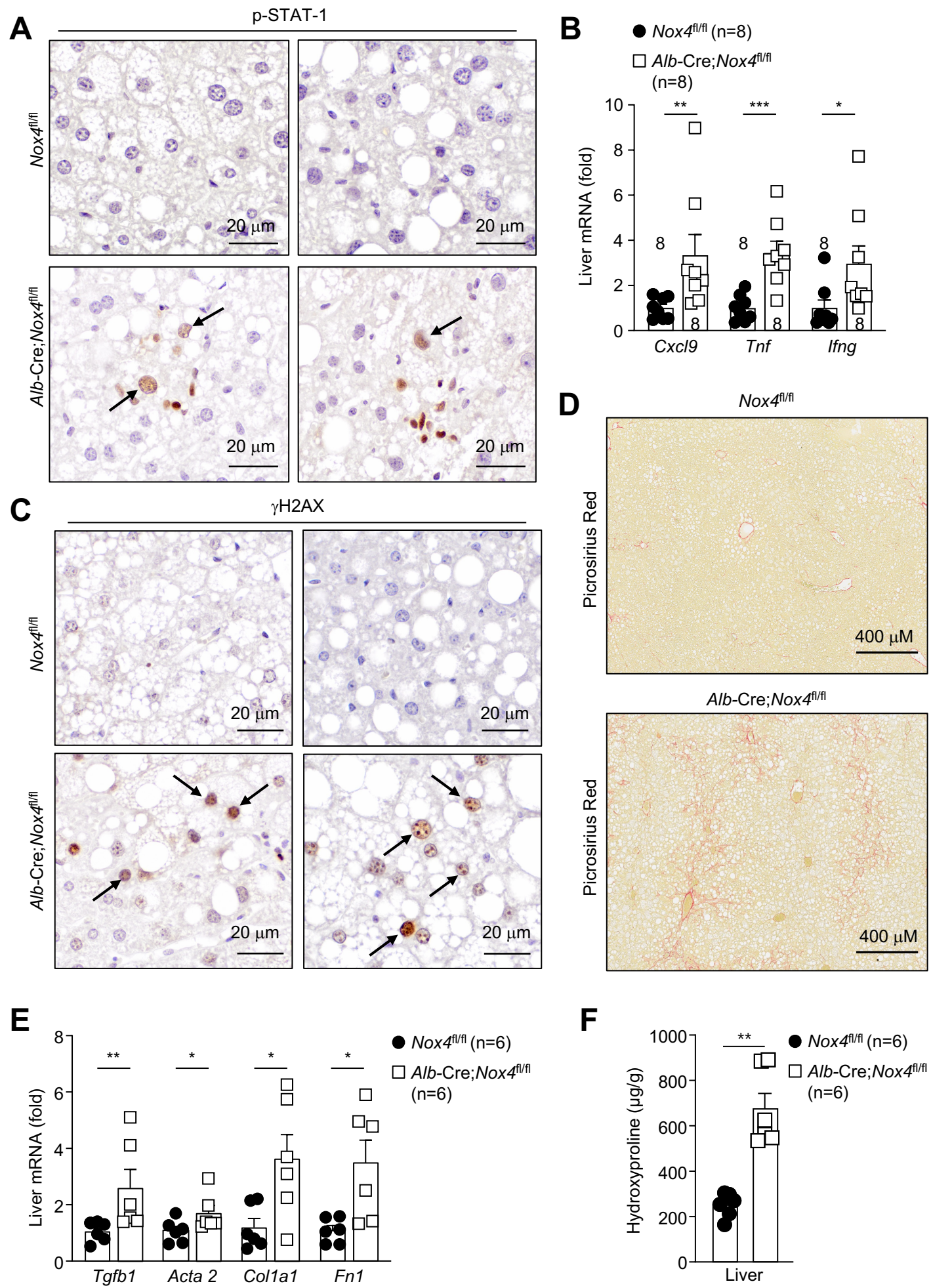


FIG 11

Figure 11. NOX4-deficiency promotes inflammation and fibrosis. a-f) *Nox4^{fl/fl}* and *Alb-Cre;Nox4^{fl/fl}* male mice were fed a HFD for 12-weeks. **a)** Livers were processed for immunohistochemistry to monitor for STAT-1 Y701 phosphorylation (p-STAT-1; p-STAT-1+ hepatocytes indicated by arrows). **b)** Liver *Cxcl9*, *Tnf* and *Ifng* mRNA levels were assessed by qPCR. **c)** Livers were processed for immunohistochemistry to monitor for DNA damage (γ H2AX+ hepatocytes indicated by arrows). **d)** Livers were processed for PicroSirius Red staining to monitor for fibrosis. **e)** Liver *Acta2*, *Tgfb*, *Colla1* and *Fnl* mRNA levels were assessed by qPCR. **f)** Liver hydroxyproline levels. Representative and quantified results are shown (means \pm SEM) for the indicated number of mice; significance (b, e, f) determined using Student's t-tests.

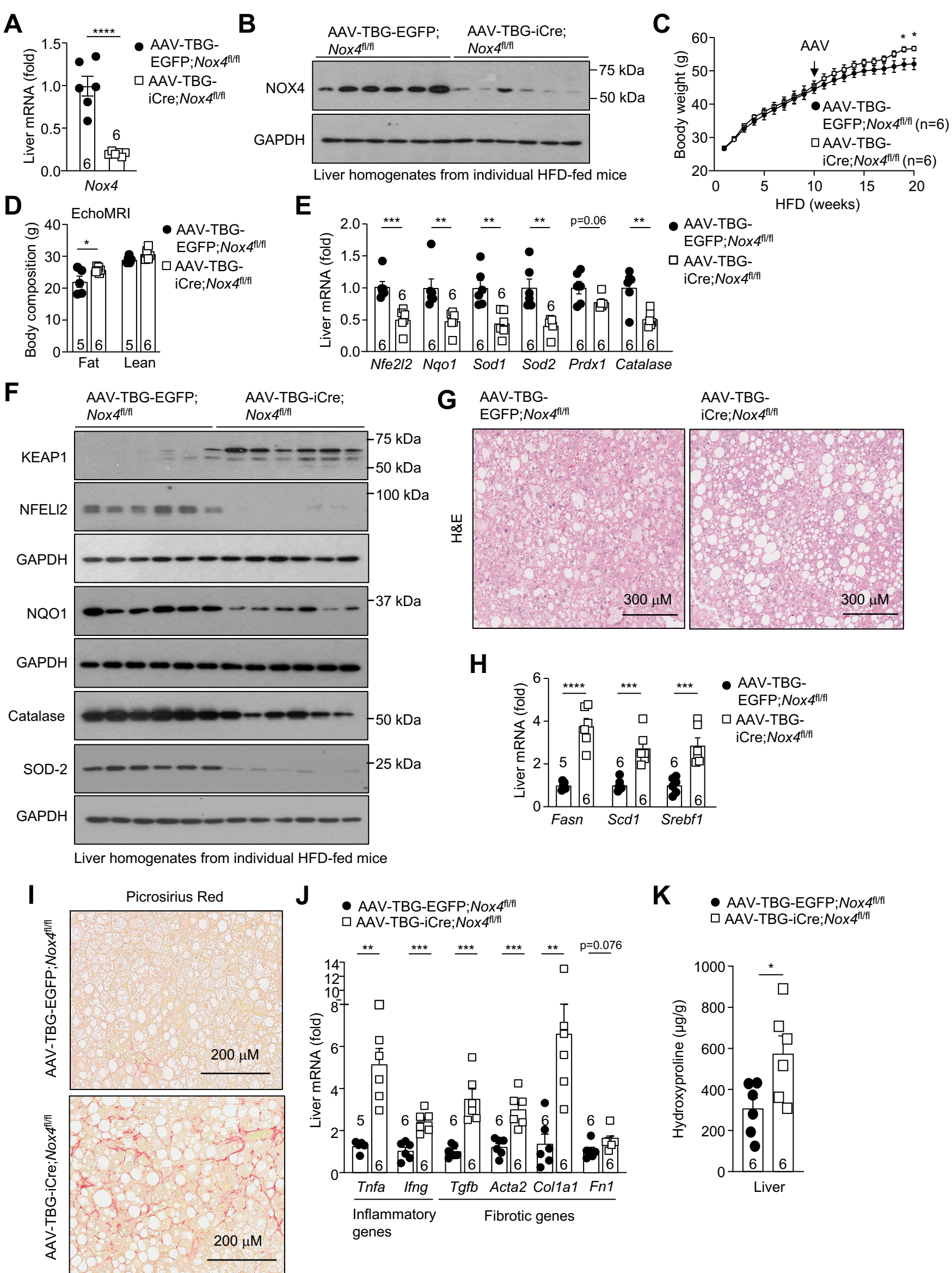


FIG 12

Figure 12. NOX4-deficiency in obese adult mice promotes NASH/fibrosis. a-i) Male *Nox4^{fl/fl}* mice fed a HFD for 10-weeks were administered (intravenous) AAV-TBG-iCre or AAV-TBG-EGFP and then HFD-fed for a further 10-weeks. Livers were processed for **a)** qPCR or **b)** immunoblotting. **c)** Body weights and **d)** body composition. Livers were processed for **e)** qPCR or **f)** immunoblotting to monitor for antioxidant defense, **g)** histology (H&E) and **h)** qPCR to monitor for steatosis, and **i)** histology (Picrosirius Red) and **j)** qPCR to monitor for fibrosis and inflammation. **k)** Liver hydroxyproline levels. Representative results (means±SEM) from at least two independent experiments are shown. Significance in (a, c-e, h, j-k) determined using Student's t-tests.

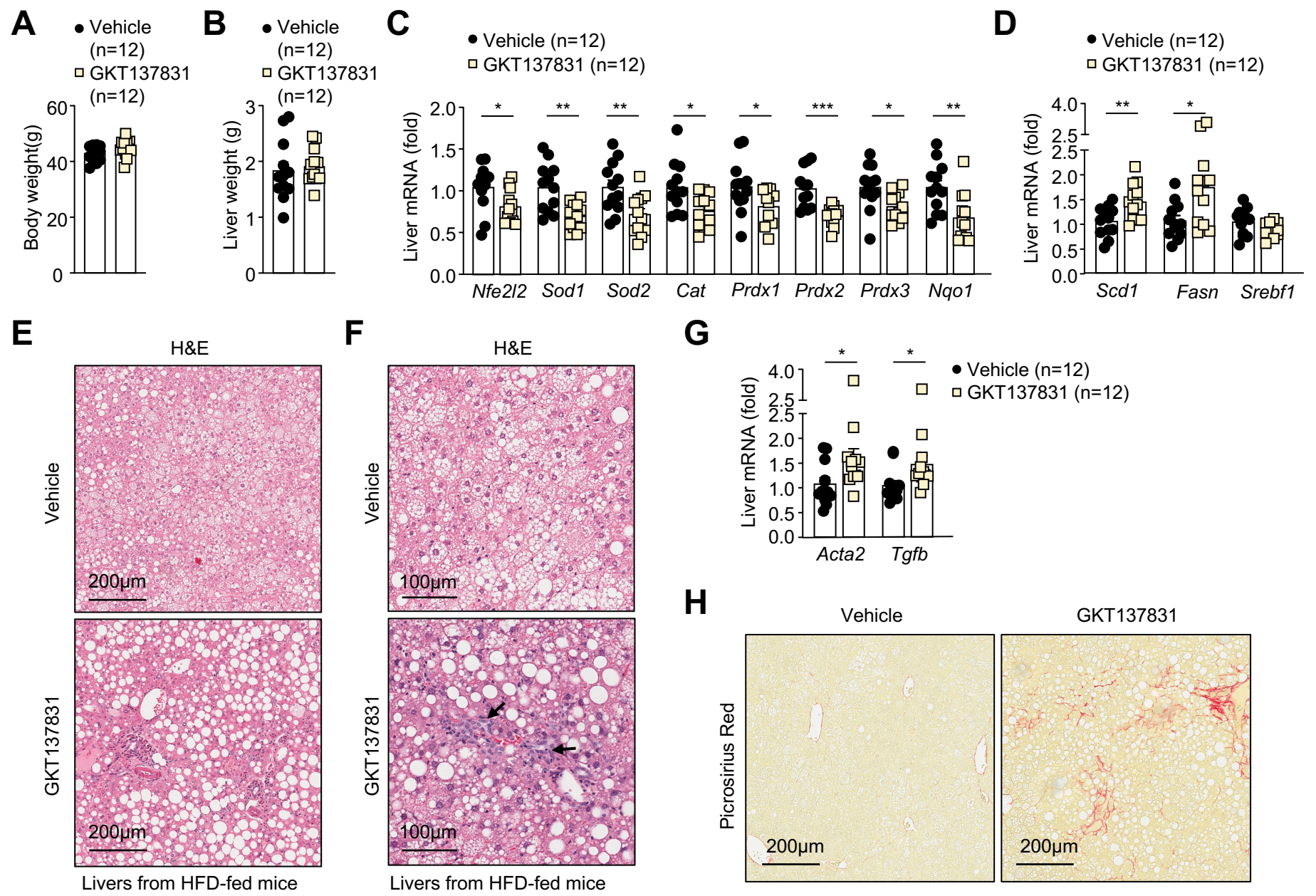


FIG 13

Figure 13. NOX4 inhibition promotes NASH/fibrosis in HFD-fed mice. a-f) C57BL/6 male mice were fed a HFD for 15-weeks and administered GKT137831 (40 mg/kg, 3x/week, oral gavage) for 5 weeks. **a)** Body weights. **b)** Liver weights. Livers were processed for **c-d)** qPCR to assess the expression of **c)** antioxidant defense s or **d)** lipogenic genes. Livers were processed for **e-f)** H&E staining to monitor for **e)** steatosis, or **f)** lymphocytic infiltrates (indicated by arrows). Livers were processed for **g)** qPCR to assess the expression of fibrosis-related genes, or **h)** or histology (PicroSirius Red). Representative and quantified results are shown (means \pm SEM) for the indicated number of mice. Significance in (a-d, g) was determined using Student's t-test.

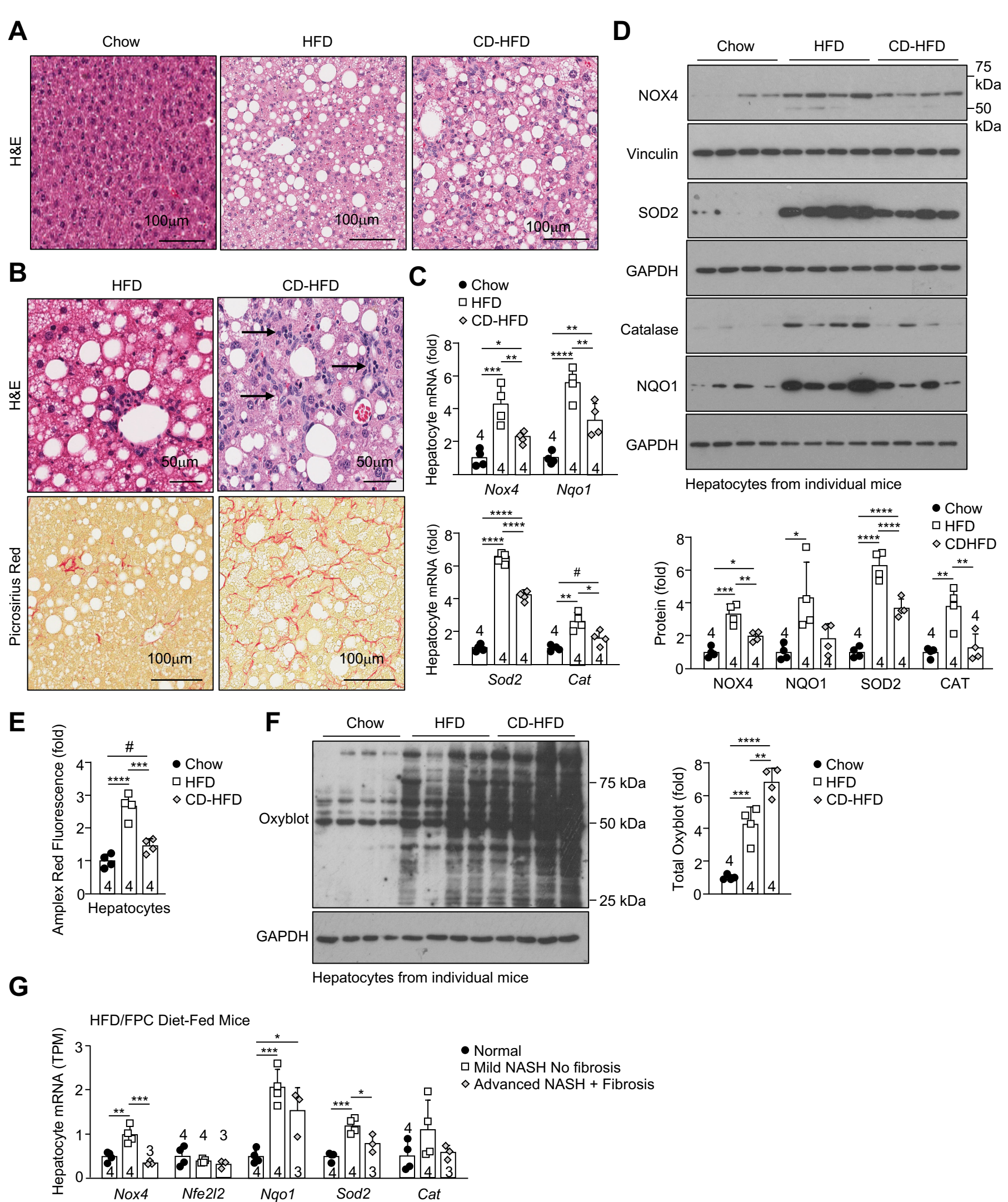


FIG 14

Figure 14. Reduced NOX4 and antioxidant defense gene expression in NASH with advanced fibrosis. **a-f)** C57BL/6 male mice were fed a chow-diet, a HFD or a CD-HFD for 12-weeks. Livers were processed for histology **a)** and stained with H&E to monitor for steatosis, **b)** or lymphocytic infiltrates (indicated by arrows), or stained with Picrosirius Red to monitor for fibrosis. **c-f)** Hepatocytes were isolated and processed for **c)** qPCR, **d)** immunoblotting, **e)** H₂O₂ measurements, or **f)** protein carbonylation analysis. **g)** RNAseq analysis (GSE162876) of hepatocyte nuclei from HEP-INTACT mice (59) fed a low-fat control diet (n=4) versus a HFD rich in fructose, palmitate and cholesterol (HFD/FPC diet) for 20-weeks; HFD/FPC diet-fed mice stratified into those with, mild fibrosis (n=4) or overt inflammation and advanced fibrosis (n=3). Representative and quantified results are shown (mean±SEM) for the indicated number of mice. Significance (c, d, e, f, g) determined using one-way ANOVA; # Student's t-test.

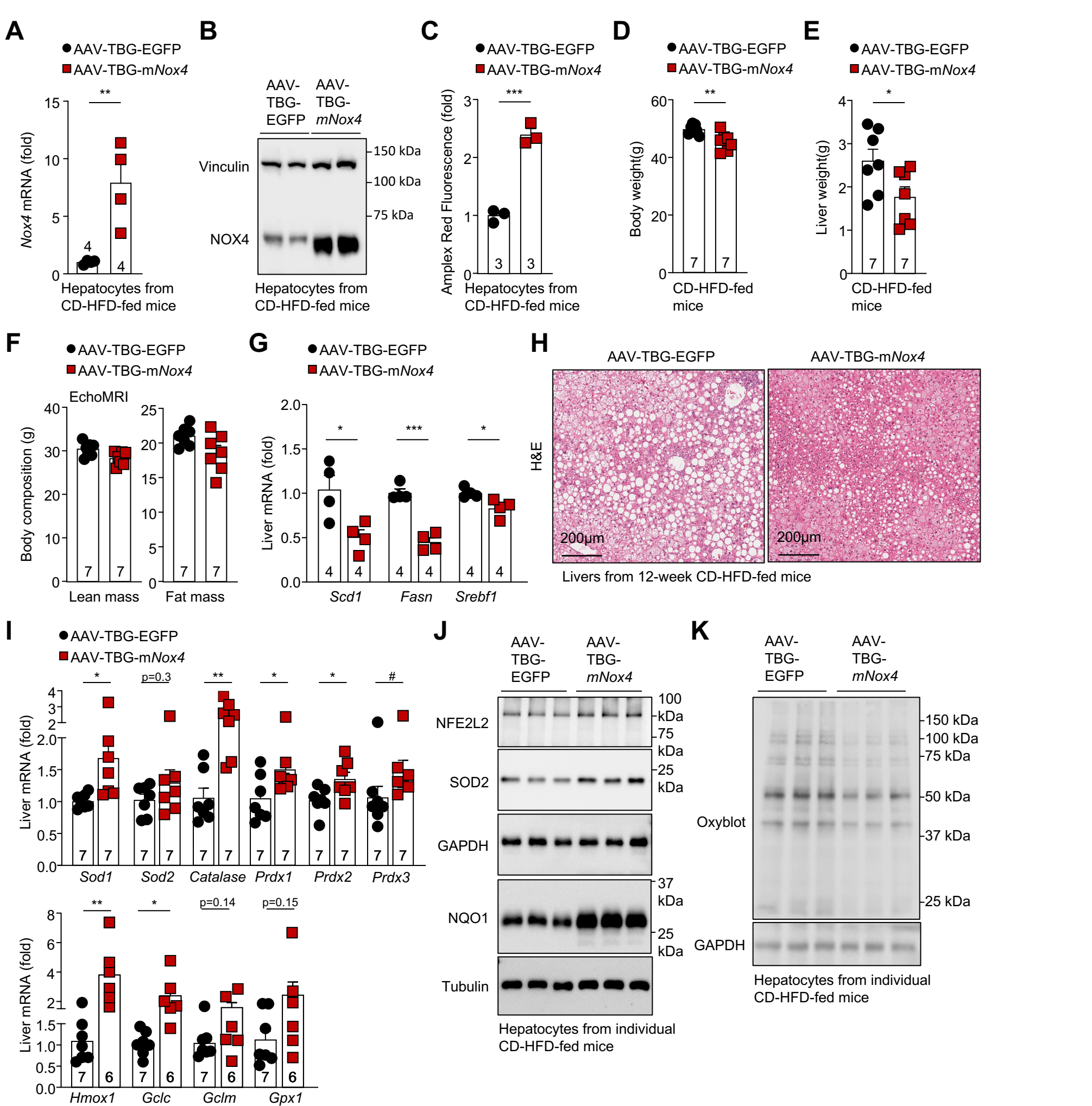


FIG 15

Figure 15. *NOX4* overexpression promotes antioxidant defense and tempers steatosis and oxidative damage. C57BL/6 male mice were administered (intravenous) AAV-TBG-EGFP or AAV-TBG-m*Nox4* and fed a CD-HFD for up to 12-weeks. **a-c)** Hepatocytes were isolated and processed for **a)** qPCR, **b)** immunoblotting, or **c)** extracellular H₂O₂ measurements. **d)** Body weights, **e)** liver weights and **f)** body composition in 12-week CD-HFD-fed mice. Livers were processed for **g)** qPCR to assess the expression of lipogenic genes, **h)** histology to monitor for steatosis, or **i)** qPCR to assess antioxidant defense gene expression. **j-k)** Hepatocytes were isolated and **j)** the abundance of antioxidant defenses proteins and **k)** protein carbonylation (Oxyblot) assessed by immunoblotting. Representative and quantified results are shown (mean±SEM) for the indicated number of mice. Significance (c-e, g, i) determined using Student's t-test. # significance using 2-tailed Mann-Whitney U Test.

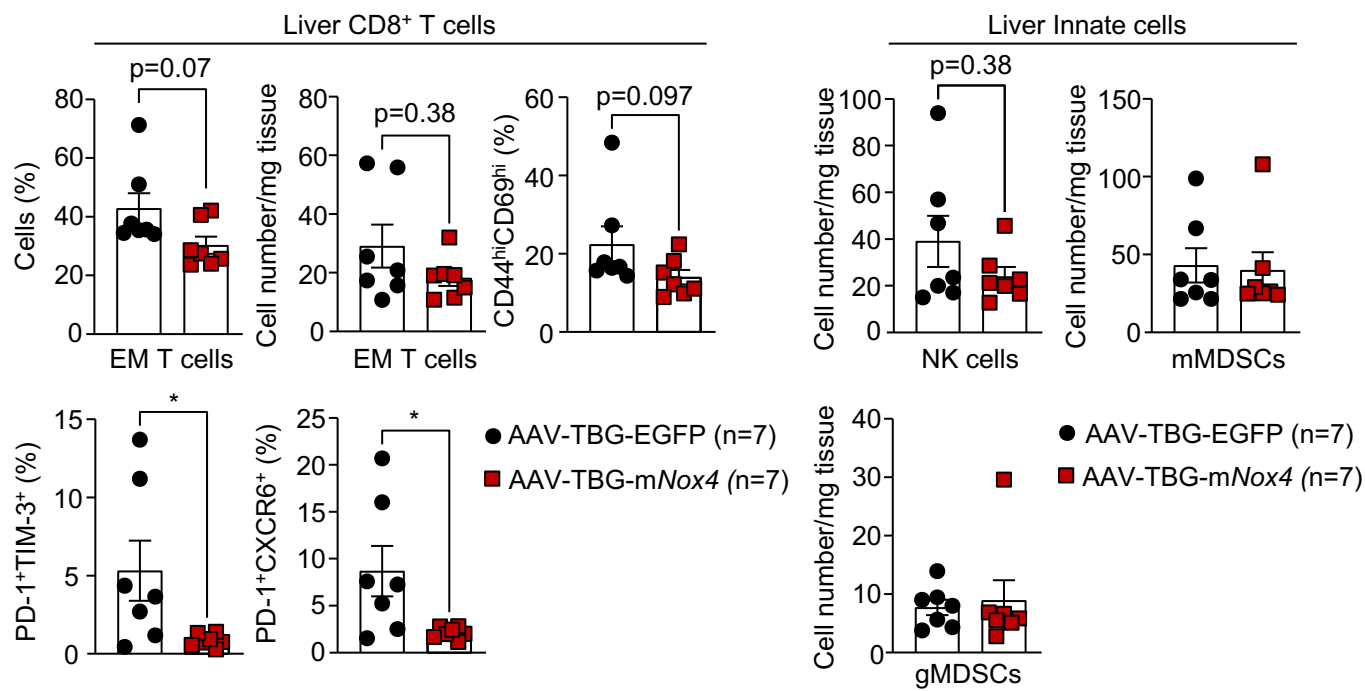
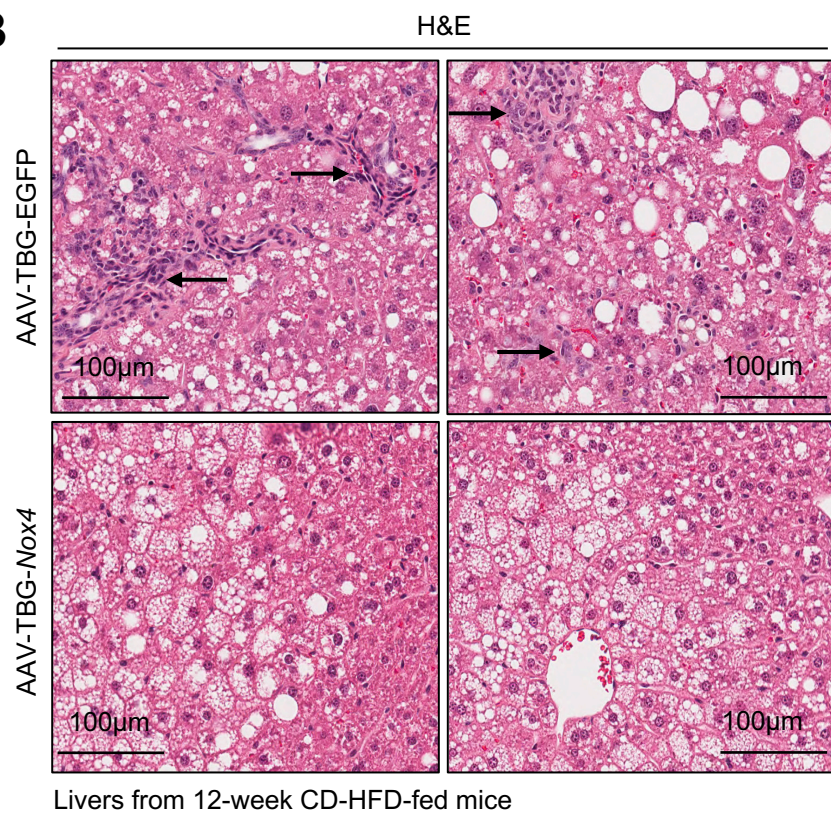
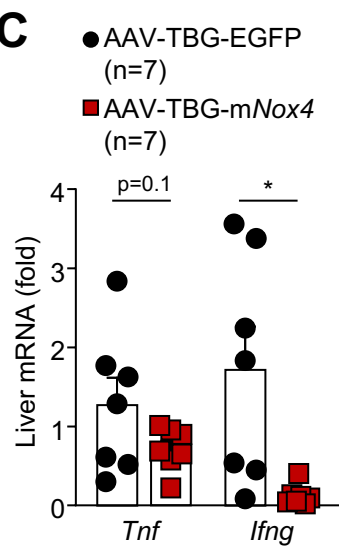
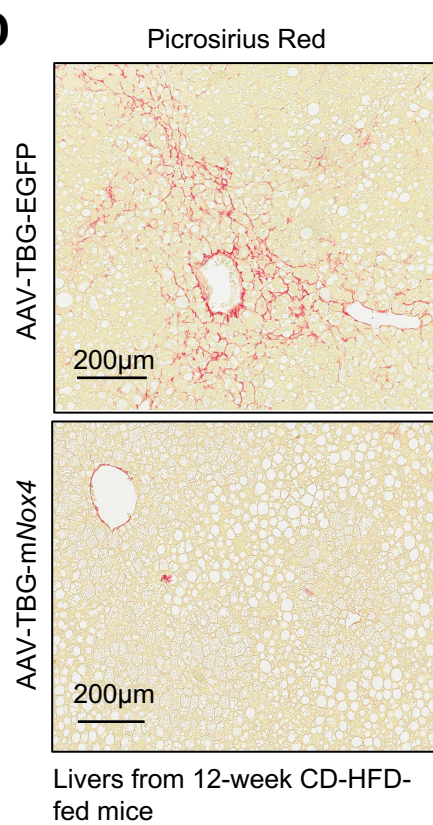
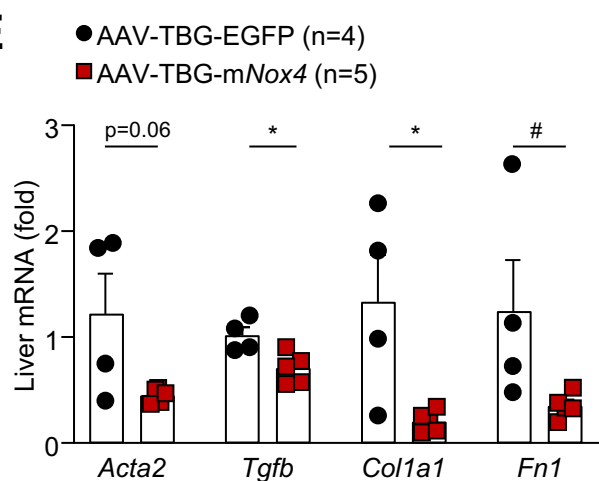
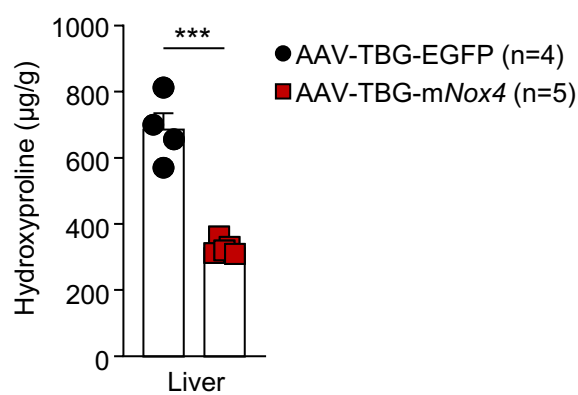
A**B****C****D****E****F**

Figure 16. *NOX4* overexpression tempers NASH/fibrosis. C57BL/6 male mice were administered AAV-TBG-EGFP or AAV-TBG-m*Nox4* and fed a CD-HFD for 12-weeks. **a)** Liver lymphocytes including CD8⁺ EM T cells, CD8⁺CD44^{hi}CD69^{hi} T cells, CD8⁺PD-1^{hi}TIM-3^{hi} T cells, CD8⁺PD-1^{hi}CXCR6^{hi} autoreactive T cells, NK cells, monocytic myeloid-derived CD11b⁺F4/80^{hi/lo}Ly6C⁺Ly6G⁻ (mMDSCs) and granulocytic myeloid-derived CD11b⁺F4/80^{hi/lo}Ly6C⁺Ly6G⁺ (gMDSCs) suppressor cells were analysed by flow cytometry. Livers were processed for **b)** histology or **c)** qPCR to monitor for immune cell infiltrates (H&E; lymphocytes indicated by arrows) or inflammation (*Ifng* and *Tnf*). Livers were processed for **d)** histology (Picrosirius Red), **e)** qPCR, or **f)** measurement of hydroxyproline levels to monitor for fibrosis. Representative and quantified results are shown (mean±SEM) for the indicated number of mice. Significance (c, e, f) determined using Student's t-test or (a) a 2-tailed Mann-Whitney U Test.