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# Alterations in the gut microbiota and its metabolic profile of $PM_{2.5}$ exposure-induced thyroid dysfunction rats



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#### HIGHLIGHTS

#### GRAPHICAL ABSTRACT

- 16S rRNA sequencing and LC-MS metabolomics were used to study the impact of PM<sub>2.5</sub> on male rats' thyroid.
- PM<sub>2.5</sub> exposure altered gut microbiome and its key metabolites related to thyroid function.
- PM<sub>2.5</sub> exposure disturbed vital metabolic pathways related to thyroid thyrotoxicity.
- The gut-thyroid axis could be a new mechanism for PM<sub>2.5</sub>- induced thyrotoxicity.

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#### ABSTRACT

Fine particulate matter (PM<sub>2</sub> s) has drawn more and more interest due to its adverse effects on health. Thyroid has been demonstrated to be the key organ impacted by PM2.5. However, the mechanisms for PM2.5 exposure-induced thyrotoxicity remain unclear. To explore the mechanisms, a rat thyroid injury model was established by exposing rats to PM2.5 via passive pulmonary inhalation. Thyroid hormones and thyroid function proteins were detected. The thyroid function affected by PM2.5 exposure was investigated via metabolomics analysis using liquid chromatography-mass spectrometry and 16S rRNA gene sequencing. Results showed that PM2.5 exposure induced remarkable alterations in gut microbiome evenness, richness, and composition. Metabolomics profiling revealed that the urine metabolites levels were changed by PM2.5 exposure. The altered gut microbiota and urine metabolites showed significant correlations with thyroid function indicators (total T3, total T4 and thyrotropin hormone, etc.). These metabolites were involved in metabolic pathways including thyroid hormone synthesis, metabolisms of tryptophan, D-Glutamine and D-glutamate, histidine, glutathione, etc. The altered gut microbiota showed significant correlations with urine metabolites (glutathione, citric acid, D-Glutamic acid, kynurenic acid and 5-Aminopentanoic acid, etc.). For example, the taurocholic acid levels positively correlated with the relative abundance of several genera including Elusimicrobium (r = 0.9741, p = 0.000000), Muribaculum (r = 0.9886, p = 0.000000), Candidatus Obscuribacter (r = 0.9741, p = 0.000000), Muribaculum (r = 0.9886, p = 0.000000), Candidatus Obscuribacter (r0.8423, p = 0.000585), Eubacterium (r = 0.9237, p = 0.000017), and Parabacteroides (r = 0.8813, p = 0.000150), while it negatively correlated with the relative abundance of Prevotella (r = -0.8070, p = 0.001509). PM<sub>2.5</sub> exposure-induced thyrotoxicity led to remarkable alterations both in gut microbiome composition and some metabolites involved in metabolic pathways. The altered intestinal flora and metabolites can in turn influence thyroid function in rats. These findings may provide novel insights regarding perturbations of the gut-thyroid axis as a new mechanism for PM<sub>2.5</sub> exposure-induced thyrotoxicity.

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#### 1. Introduction

The incidence of thyroid cancer has exhibited an increasing trend during the last few decades (Li et al., 2021b; Wirth et al., 2021). Air pollution is a potential risk factor for thyroid cancer, but the effect and mechanism remain unclear.  $PM_{2.5}$ , as a key environmental pollutant, influences human health worldwide, and the main route of  $PM_{2.5}$  exposure is contamination of atmosphere by air sources of fine particulate matter. Substantial diseases including liver, lung, bladder, and skin cancers, cardiovascular disorders, and diabetes (Lui et al., 2019), as well as metabolic and thyroid conditions, and male/female fertility (Colao et al., 2016) have been correlated with  $PM_{2.5}$  exposure. More recently, animal and human studies showed that there is a correlation between increased thyroid disease and  $PM_{2.5}$  exposure (Dong et al., 2021a; Irizar et al., 2021; Zeng et al., 2020). However, the specific pathophysiological mechanism of  $PM_{2.5}$ -induced thyroid injury remains unclear.

Multiple epidemiological studies showed that PM<sub>2.5</sub> pollution was significantly related to hypothyroidism (CH) (Pan et al., 2019; Shang et al., 2019). Moreover, the influence of air pollution on FT4 levels of cord blood was mediated at least partially by placental iodine load (Neven et al., 2021). Second trimester prenatal PM<sub>2.5</sub> exposure might interfere with maternal thyroid hormone (TH) levels (Zhao et al., 2019). Study found that PM2.5 exposure could cause hypothalamic inflammation and regulate the hypothalamic-pituitary axis (Xu et al., 2016). In our previous study, we found that PM<sub>2.5</sub> exposure could hinder the biosynthesis and transport of thyroid hormones, alter the levels of thyroid hormone receptors, induce oxidative stress and inflammation, and eventually activate the hypothalamic-pituitary-thyroid (HPT) axis (Dong et al., 2021a). It may also activate the paraventricular nucleus of the hypothalamus, thereby activating the sympathetic nervous system and stress signaling, in turn activating the HPT axis. Serum concentrations of FT4 and TSH in older, overweight or obese adults were correlated with exposure to these air pollutants (Kim et al., 2020). Other studies showed that PM2.5 was related to thyroid (dys)function in pregnant women, and there was a dose-response relationship between TSH and PM<sub>2.5</sub>, however, the underlying mechanisms remain unclear (Ilias et al., 2020). A cohort study showed that the newborn thyroid functions were correlated with prenatal PM exposure, especially during early pregnancy and midpregnancy (Howe et al., 2018). As a step in the biosynthesis of thyroid hormones, iodide oxidation was very sensitive to oxidative stress activation. The impaired iodide uptake and organification led to disturbed functions of thyroid cells (Nadolnik et al., 2008). Moreover, our previous study indicated that PM2.5 could affect the rats' thyroid function via altering the expression of thyroid stimulating hormone receptor (TSHR), sodium iodide symporter (NIS), thyroid-stimulating hormone beta (TSHB), thyrotropin releasing hormone receptor (TRHR), thyroglobulin (TG), thyroid peroxidase (TPO), thyroid synthesis related transcription factor (PAX8, TTF-1, TTF-2) and liver transthyroxine (TTR). More recently, an ecological study showed that some air pollutants may increase incidence and mortality of thyroid cancer in men (Giannoula et al., 2020), suggesting that PM<sub>2.5</sub> exposure is correlated with impaired thyroid function, which may result from oxidative stress and inflammation. Despite the aforementioned findings, the mechanism of PM<sub>2.5</sub> exposure on the thyroid disease has not been fully elucidated. Treatments for thyroid disease are limited; therefore, studies on the pathogenic processes of thyroid injury led by PM<sub>2.5</sub> exposure are required.

The gut microbiome plays critical roles in host metabolism modulation (Holmes et al., 2011). The gut microbiome composition can be influenced by diet, environment, antibiotics, and bacterial/viral infection. Therefore, toxic environmental chemicals induced alteration of gut microbiome might be the mechanism underlying the effects of environmental agents on human health. Recent studies found alterations of gut microbiome composition in thyroid nodules, thyroid cancer, Graves' disease and Hashimoto's thyroiditis (Zhang et al., 2019). The gut microbiome can influence health of whole body via gut-thyroid axis (Lerner et al., 2017). Numerous studies showed that alterations of gut microbiome and its impact on physiological and metabolic processes significantly affect progression of

thyroid diseases in humans (Li et al., 2021a; Moshkelgosha et al., 2018; Virili et al., 2021; Zhang et al., 2019). PM<sub>2.5</sub> has a high toxicity, therefore the potential effects of PM2.5 exposure on gut microbiome as well as thyroid dysfunction need extensive study. Several studies reported associations between gut microbiome and environmental chemicals such as polychlorinated biphenyls, mercury and arsenic (Lin et al., 2021; Wahlang et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2021). Mass spectrometry-based analysis of metabolomics can provide more information than 16S rRNA gene sequencing on relationship between PM2.5 exposure and microbiome as well as thyrotoxicity, and therefore is widely applied in study of environmental pollutants (Chu et al., 2021). Metabolomic profiling can be used to unravel metabolic pathways underlying a disease (Cui et al., 2019). Alterations in metabolites induced by some pollutants have been found to be correlated with thyroid function (TT3, TT4, FT3, FT4 and TSH) (Villanger et al., 2020). Xu et al. reported significant alterations in mouse serum metabolome induced by PM2.5 exposure (Xu et al., 2019).

At present, the relationship between  $PM_{2.5}$  exposure-induced thyrotoxicity, gut microbiome, and its metabolic profile has not yet been elucidated. This study, for the first time, investigated the effect of  $PM_{2.5}$  exposure on thyroid function, gut microbiome and its metabolic profile in rats using an integrated approach combining 16S rRNA gene sequencing and liquid chromatography-mass spectrometry (LC-MS) metabolomics to determine whether bacterial genera and specific metabolites are associated with  $PM_{2.5}$  exposure-induced thyrotoxicity.

#### 2. Materials and methods

#### 2.1. Preparation of PM<sub>2.5</sub>

 $\rm PM_{2.5}$  was obtained using a large flow  $\rm PM_{2.5}$  particulate sampling device (TE-6070 American TISCH) located at Xinxiang city, which is contaminated mainly by coal dust and industrial pollution, especially from November to January of the next year. Sampling time, the most polluted time in winter. The data were obtained using a  $\rm PM_{2.5}$  concentration monitoring system (1405-F TEOMTM  $\rm PM_{2.5}$  Monitor [EPA equivalent method: EQPM-0609-181]). The  $\rm PM_{2.5}$  powder was dissolved in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) at different concentrations.

#### 2.2. Animals and PM<sub>2.5</sub> exposure

SPF male Sprague-Dawley rats (60  $\pm$  20 g) were purchased from SPF (Beijing) Biotechnology Co., Ltd. (License key: SCXK (Jing) 2019–0010), housed regularly for 5 days (d), and then randomly divided into four groups (10 rats/group): control group (C, 0 mg/kg), medium PM<sub>2.5</sub>-dosed group (M, 10 mg/kg), high PM<sub>2.5</sub>-dosed group (H, 20 mg/kg), and recovery PM<sub>2.5</sub>-dosed group (R, 20 mg/kg, dosed for 35 d and no treatment for 14 d). This dosing design was selected according to previous published epidemiological (Chen et al., 2017) and animal studies (Zhang et al., 2017). PM<sub>2.5</sub> was dissolved in saline solution according to the above concentrations. All rats were dosed with PM<sub>2.5</sub> twice for 49 days daily via passive pulmonary inhalation (Jin et al., 2016). This study was approved by the Institute of Zoology Animal and Medical Ethics Committee of Xinxiang Medical University, and complied with international standards (NIH publications No 80-23 revised 1996).

#### 2.3. Sample collection

The rats were anesthetized on day 49 using 10% sodium pentobarbital, and blood was collected via abdominal aorta. The serum was isolated and utilized for test of thyroid hormone and iodine levels. The stool was snap-frozen for 16S rRNA gene sequencing; the urine was collected one day before terminal for analysis of non-targeted metabolomics. These two omics experiments were conducted on control and 20 mg/kg  $PM_{2.5}$  groups. The thyroids and livers were collected from partial animals for the immunohistochemistry and western blot analyses. The thyroids collected from the rest

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rats (n = 4) were subjected to hematoxylin and eosin (H&E) staining and microscopic examination.

#### 2.4. Measurement of thyroid hormones and urine iodine levels

The levels thyrotropin hormone (TSH), total T4 (TT4), total T3 (TT3), and urine iodine (UI) were analyzed using ELISA kits by following the manufactures' instructions (Shanghai Future Industrial Co. Ltd., China).

### 2.5. Immunohistochemical staining and western blot analyses of thyroid function-related proteins

The paraffin sections of fixed thyroids and livers were incubated with NIS, TTF-1, TPO, TG, PAX8 and TTR antibodies at 4 °C overnight (Table S1), and then incubated with secondary antibodies at room temper-ature for 15 min, followed by a 15-min incubation with peroxidase-conjugated streptavidin, a 10-min incubation with diaminobenzidine (DAB) and a 5-min incubation with hematoxylin. The areal density index was applied to analyze the IHC results: Areal density = IOD/AREA. IHC mi-crographs were taken and analyzed using Image Pro-Plus 6.0 software (Media Cybernetics, Inc., Rockville, MD, USA).

Rat pituitary, hypothalamus, thyroid, and liver were homogenized, and proteins were separated with sodium dodecyl-sulfate polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis, and then transferred to PVDF membranes. After blockage with 5% bovine serum albumin, the membranes were incubated with pri-mary antibodies (TRHR, TSH $\beta$  and TTR) at 4 °C overnight, followed by in-cubation with HRP-conjugated secondary antibody (dilution 1:3000) at 37 °C for 1 h. After color development using an ECL kit, the films were scanned (V300, EPSON), and the optical densities of target bands were examined using gray level analysis software (AlphaEase FC, Alpha Innotech).

#### 2.6. 16S rRNA gene sequencing for the gut microbiome

To explore the diversity and composition of fecal microbial community, high-throughput sequencing of fecal bacterial 16S rRNA genes was per-formed on an IIIumina MiSeq platform (Majorbio. Inc., Shanghai, China) as described previously (Li et al., 2020). The CTAB/SDS method was used to extract total genomic DNA from samples in high PM<sub>2.5</sub>-dosed and control groups, and the DNA concentration and purity were detected by NanoDrop 2000 spectrophotometer (Thermo Fisher, USA). The V4 region of the 16S rRNA gene was amplified using specific primers with the barcode (515F:

and 806R: GGACTACHVGGGTWTCTAAT). The PCR Master Mix (New England Biolabs, USA), forward and reverse primers, and the template DNA were prepared for the PCR reaction system, and then the amplification was conducted. The quality filtering about raw tags was performed according to the QIIME (Version 1.9.1). The  $\geq$ 97%similarity about sequences was belonged to the same operational taxo-nomic units (OTUs). The QIIME (Version 1.9.1) was used to calculate the alpha and beta diversities. The following indexes, including Simpson, Shan-non, Chao1, and ACE were used to evaluate the alpha diversity. Beta diversity analysis was used to evaluate differences of samples in species complexity, Beta diversity on weighted UniFrac was calculated using QIIME (Version 1.9.1). The separation of samples between the two groups was visualized by the principle coordinates analysis (PCoA). Metastats (http://metastats.cbcb.umd.edu/) software was applied to conduct *t*-test on species richness between groups (White et al., 2009).

#### 2.7. LC-MS based urine metabolomics and multivariate statistical analysis

The urine supernatant (200  $\mu$ L) of rats' urine in high PM<sub>2.5</sub>-dosed and control groups was subjected to liquid chromatography-mass spectrometry (LC-MS) analysis as described previously (Dong et al., 2021b). The Ultra performance liquid chromatography (UPLC) software (Waters ACQUITY UPLC HSS T3 C18, USA) was used to quantify the metabolite concentrations. The LC-MS data was analyzed by a supervised orthogonal partial least-squares discriminant analysis (OPLS-DA) clustering method. Variable Importance in Projection (VIP) derived from the OPLS-DA analysis was used to screen a variable, and a VIP value  $\geq 1$  and  $P \leq 0.05$  is marked as a discriminating metabolite in this study. Biological pathway analysis was performed based on LC-MS data using MetaboAnalyst 4.0. The impact value threshold calculated for pathway identification was set at 0.1.

#### 2.8. Exploration and validation of the biological functions of the gut microbiome

The impact of PM<sub>2.5</sub> exposure on the gut microbiome and its metabolic profiles were examined as described previously (Wu et al., 2021). Briefly, the gut microbiome changes induced by PM2.5 exposure were revealed by the QIIME and Metastats software packages. The XCMS software was used to analyze the metabolites, and the MS/MS spectra generated by the exact masses and retention times was used to confirm the identified metabolites with significant changes (1.5-fold change, p < 0.05). The HMDB and KEGG databases were applied to find the altered metabolic pathway, which



**Fig. 1.** Effect of PM<sub>2.5</sub> exposure on thyroid histologic changes (A-D) and functional status (*E*-H). H&E staining of rat thyroid tissue. Infiltration of few macrophages into the lumen, and a few follicular epithelial cells were shed and disappeared in the M and H groups. The presence of diluted colloid staining and necrotic material filled the local follicles in the H group ( $200 \times$ , scale bars =  $100 \mu$ m) (A, Control; B, Medium; C, High; D, Recovery). Effects of various concentrations of PM<sub>2.5</sub> on TT3, TT4, TSH, and UI levels in rat serum (TT3, E-Total triiodothyronine; TT4, F-Total thyroxine; TSH, G-thyroid-stimulating hormone; UI, H-urine iodine). The values are expressed as the mean  $\pm$  SEM. \**P* < 0.05 and \*\**P* < 0.01 versus the control group.

was consistent with the identified microbial functional pathway. In addition, correlations between the changed gut microbes related to thyroid function indicators and shifted metabolites were conducted to establish the functional impacts of  $PM_{2.5}$  exposure on the thyroid.

#### 2.9. Statistical analysis

All experiments data are expressed as mean  $\pm$  standard deviation (SD). SPSS software (version 18.0, SPSS, Inc., Chicago, IL, USA) was used for statistical analysis. The homogeneity of variance was analyzed by Levene's test. The statistical differences between multiple groups were analyzed using one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) followed by Tukey's test. The statistical analysis of thyroid function was performed using GraphPad Prism version 5 (GraphPad Software, La Jolla, CA, USA). The correlation between gut microbiome and thyroid function or metabolome was analyzed using the Spearman correlation test. P < 0.05 was considered significant, and P < 0.01 was considered highly significant.

#### 3. Results

#### 3.1. Effect of PM<sub>2.5</sub> exposure on male rats' thyroid histology

The histopathologic changes in thyroid tissue of male rats following  $PM_{2.5}$  exposure were evaluated using H&E staining. The C group displayed



**Fig. 2.** Effect of PM<sub>2.5</sub> exposure on the expression of thyroid hormone-related proteins. Protein expression levels of thyroid NIS, TPO, TTF1, TG, PAX8 and TTR were assessed by immunohistochemical analysis. Rats (n = 5/group) were treated with PM<sub>2.5</sub> by passive pulmonary inhalation for 49 d. The development of brown and yellow color in the tissue sections indicated positive expression of the relevant target proteins. A: Control group, normal saline for 49 d; B: Medium-dose group, 15 mg/kg for 49 d; C: High-dose group, 30 mg/kg for 49 d. D: Recovery-dose group, 30 mg/kg for 35 d and no treatment for 14 d. NIS: Sodium iodide symporter; TPO: Thyroid peroxidase; TTF1: Thyroid transcription factor1; TG: Thyroglobulin; PAX8: paired box 8; TTR, Hepatic transthyretin. Magnification:  $200 \times$ . The values are expressed as the mean  $\pm$  SEM. \*P < 0.05 and \*\*P < 0.05 versus the high-dose group.

normal cytoplasmic structure of follicular epithelial cells without any macrophage infiltration in the follicular lumen (Fig. 1A). In the M group, a few follicular epithelial cells were shed and disappeared and had vacuolated cytoplasm. In addition, a few macrophages might be infiltrated in the lumen (Fig. 1B). In the H group, a large number of thyroid follicular epithelial cells were exfoliated with more cells exhibited abnormal structures than those in the M group (Fig. 1C). Moreover, in the H group, colloid staining in a few follicles was diluted and even disappeared. The necrotic material filled the local follicles, and hyperplasia appeared in the surrounding epithelial cells. In recovery group, the follicle colloid staining was light, some immersed macrophages appeared, and some follicular epithelial cells were shed and lost (Fig. 1D). These results showed that PM<sub>2.5</sub> dosedependently induced infiltration of inflammatory cells.

#### 3.2. Effect of PM<sub>2.5</sub> exposure on levels of thyroid hormones in serum

The expression levels of thyroid hormones including TSH, total T3 (TT3), and total T4 (TT4), as well as urine iodine (UI) in serum were measured using ELISA to explore the influence of PM<sub>2.5</sub> on thyroid function. Results showed that the serum TT4 and TSH levels in the H group were significantly higher than those in the C group, while no significant difference was observed between M and C groups (Fig. 1F and G). Moreover, upon exposure to PM<sub>2.5</sub>, the serum TT3 and UI levels displayed an

increasing trend compared with the C group (Fig. 1E and H). However, both levels of thyroid hormones and UI in the recovery group were remarkably enhanced than the C group.

#### 3.3. PM<sub>2.5</sub> exposure affected expression of thyroid function-related proteins

The expression levels of thyroid-related proteins (PAX8, TG, TTF1, TPO, and NIS), pituitary TSH $\beta$  protein, and hypothalamus TRHR were examined to investigate the roles of the HPT axis in PM2.5-induced thyroid dysfunction. The results indicated that compared to C group, PM<sub>2.5</sub> significantly increased the NIS, TPO and TG levels in thyroid at d 49 (P < 0.05), and a significant decline in TTF1 and PAX8 was also observed. While the expression of these proteins was significantly increased in the recovery group at d 49 compared with the H group (P < 0.05) (Fig. 2). PM<sub>2.5</sub> exposure led to a dramatic decrease in expression of hypothalamus TRHR in both M and H groups, as well as recovery group at 49 d. (Fig. S1). PM<sub>2.5</sub> exposure induced a remarkable increase in pituitary TSHB expression in both M and H groups at 49 d, while it went back to normal in the recovery group (Fig. S1). Moreover, both IHC and WB analyses revealed that compared with C group, the protein expression of liver TTR was dramatically decreased in PM2 5-treated groups at d 49 (P < 0.05), while it presented a decreased trend in the recovery group compared to H group (Fig. S1).



**Fig. 3.** PM<sub>2.5</sub> exposure alters the composition of gut microbiome at the phylum level in rats revealed by 16S rRNA sequencing (each color represents one bacterial phylum). (A) Composition and relative abundance of bacterial phyla in all samples. (B) Composition and relative abundance of bacterial phyla in different groups. (C) The PCoA plot is generated of the R language tool based on the four distance matrices and explains the largest variance between all samples. (D) Community composition at the phylum level of each sample is shown with hierarchical clustering based on Weighted Unifrac Distance of OTU profiles. Note: Vertical seat represents Beta distance; the upper box diagram of "All Between <sup>O</sup>" represents the Beta distance data of samples in all groups; the latter box diagram represents the Beta distance data of samples in different groups. Horizontal clustering is sample information, while vertical clustering is species information. The left cluster tree is the phylum cluster tree. In the middle is the heat map. The product level clustering tree: the closer the samples are, the shorter the branch length is, suggesting that the species composition of the two samples is more similar.

### 3.4. Effect of PM<sub>2.5</sub> exposure on community diversity and gut microbiome richness

The influence of  $PM_{2.5}$  exposure on gut microbiome was evaluated using 16S rRNA gene sequencing (Table S2). The alpha diversity index was applied to analyze the community diversity and richness (Fig. S2A and B). Results showed that compared with C group,  $PM_{2.5}$  exposure induced increased shannon index and decreased simpson index, indicative of an increased gut microbiome diversity caused by  $PM_{2.5}$ . Meanwhile, compared with C group, the richness estimator chao1 and ACE were significantly promoted in the  $PM_{2.5}$ -treated group (Fig. S2C and D).

#### 3.5. Effect of PM<sub>2.5</sub> exposure on composition of gut microbiome

Totally 1286 OTUs were identified in the publicly available sequences from the SILVA 132 repository. The proportions of annotated OTUs at kingdom, phylum, class, order, family, genus, and species levels were 98.22%, 73.34%, 72.12%, 68.72%, 61.99%, 35.49%, and 12.40%, respectively. At the phylum level, *Bacteroidota* was the predominant phylum in the gut microbiome of rats, with a total abundance of nearly 90%, followed by the *Verrucomicrobiota*, *Proteobacteria*, *Elusimicrobiota*, *Cyanobacteria*, *Patescibacteria*, *Desulfobacterota*, *Firmicutes* and *Bacteroidetes*. These microbes exhibited differences upon PM<sub>2.5</sub> exposure. Among them, *Cyanobacteria*, *Bacteroidetes*, and *Proteobacteria* had a quite low relative abundance in the PM<sub>2.5</sub>-treated group, which decreased with increasing PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentration. In contrast, the relative abundance of *Verrucomicrobiota*, *Elusimicrobiota*, *Patescibacteria*, *Desulfobacterota*, *Firmicutes* and *Bacteroidota* in the PM<sub>2.5</sub>-treated group was significantly higher than that in the C group (Fig. 3A and B).

The PCoA plot displayed a distinct structure of gut microbiome induced by PM<sub>2.5</sub> exposure compared with C group (Fig. 3C). The PM<sub>2.5</sub>-treated group was well separated, with principle components PC1 and PC2 contributing to 23.46% and 14.48% variation, respectively. Moreover, the hierarchical clustering analysis using the unweighted pair group method with arithmetic mean (UPGMA) showed that most of the PM<sub>2.5</sub> treated and control samples clustered in their own groups (Fig. 3D).

#### 3.6. Correlations between gut microbial species and clinical indices and functional protein in PM<sub>2.5</sub>-induced thyrotoxicity rats

To clarify the pathological significance of the altered intestinal bacteria in PM2.5-induced thyrotoxicity rats, the relationships between the relative abundances of the intestinal bacteria and clinical features (serum levels of TT3, TT4 and TSH) and functional protein (thyroid tissue levels of NIS, TPO, TTF1, TG, PAX8 and TTR) of PM2.5-induced thyrotoxicity rats were analyzed using the Spearman's rank correlation coefficient method. Results indicated that Firmicutes, Bacteroidota, and Bacteroidetes were negatively correlated with the serum level of TSH. In addition, Bacteroidota were negatively correlated with those of TT3 and TT4. Moreover, Cyanobacteria was negatively correlated with those of TT4 at the phylum level (Fig. 4A). At the phylum level, Bacteroidetes, Proteobacteria and Bacteroidota were positively correlated with thyroid tissue levels of NIS and TG, and Bacteroidetes was negatively correlated with those of TTF1 and PAX8. Proteobacteria and Bacteroidota were negatively correlated with those of TTF1 (Fig. 4C). At the genus level, Allobaculum was negatively correlated with the serum level of UI, Eubacterium was negatively correlated with the serum level of TSH, Lactobacillus and Muribaculum were negatively correlated with the serum level of TT3, and Candidatus-Obscuribacter and Lactobacillus were negatively correlated with the serum level of TT4 (Fig. 4B). At the genus level, Lactobacillus. Prevotella, Muribaculum, lleibacterium, Escherichia were positively correlated with thyroid tissue levels of NIS and TG. Parasutterella and Lactobacillus were positively correlated with those of NIS and TTF1, respectively. In addition, Prevotella and Muribaculum were negatively correlated with those of TTF1 and PAX8. Parasutterella and Escherichia were negatively correlated with those of TTF1 (Fig. 4D).

### 3.7. Imputed microbiome function and phenotype prediction induced by $PM_{2.5}$ exposure

Given the structural differences in intestinal bacteria displayed by PERMANOVA/Anosim analysis (Fig. 5A), we next explore whether  $PM_{2.5}$ -induced thyrotoxicity leads to functional changes in the microbiome. As shown by Fig. 5B, the biomarkers with statistically significant differences



**Fig. 4.** Correlations between intestinal bacteria and clinical indicators or functional proteins of  $PM_{2.5}$ -induced thyrotoxicity in rats. Heatmap of correlations between clinical indicators or functional proteins of  $PM_{2.5}$ -induced thyrotoxicity in rats and the abundances of the intestinal bacterial phyla (A, C) and genera (B, D). The color bars with numbers indicate the correlation coefficients. The false discovery rate (FDR)-adjusted *P*-values by *t*-test are shown by asterisks (\*: corrected *P* < 0.05; \*\*: corrected *P* < 0.01).



**Fig. 5.** Imputed metagenomic differences between the  $PM_{2.5}$ -treated and control groups. (A) Beta diversity difference between the treated and control groups. (B) Taxonomic cladogram obtained using linear discriminant analysis (LDA) effect size (LEfSe) analysis of the 16S sequences. (C) The significant differences in metagenomic functions of  $PM_{2.5}$ -induced thyrotoxicity in rats compared with control individuals (corrected P < 0.05 and confidence intervals = 95%). (D) BugBase phenotype prediction diagram. The important metagenomic functions are marked with rectangles (corrected P < 0.05 and confidence intervals = 95%). This analysis was performed by software PICRUSt. Note: The figure shows the species whose LDA Score is greater than the set value (default setting is 4.0). The length of the bar chart represents the impact size of different species (i.e., LDA Score), and different colors represent the species in different groups.

were screened by Line Discriminant Analysis (LDA) Effect Size as described previously. The Bray-Curtis distance-based community analysis revealed an evident separation between PM<sub>2.5</sub>-treated and control groups, indicating these two groups exhibited significant difference in metabolic function composition. The KEGG pathways with the largest difference included metabolism of terpenoids and polyketides, amino acid metabolism, carbohydrate metabolism, lipid metabolism, nucleotide metabolism, endocrine system, energy metabolism, and nervous system, exhibiting lower relative abundance in PM<sub>2.5</sub>-treated group than C group (Fig. 5C). Moreover, the aerobic level was markedly enhanced in PM<sub>2.5</sub>-induced thyrotoxicity rats presented in BugBase phenotype prediction diagram (Fig. 5D).

## 3.8. Effect of $PM_{2.5}$ exposure on the urine metabolic profile, biomarker identification and metabolic pathway screening

The metabolite profiles of the urine samples were explored using LC-MS. The 3D PCA Plot showed that the metabolites of both PM<sub>2.5</sub>-treated and control groups were well separated, with 50.36%, 7.59% and 6.16% variation attributed to the principle components PC1, PC2 and PC3, respectively (Fig. 6A). The compounds responsible for the differences between different groups were identified using an OPLS-DA model, with OPLS-DA scores indicating that the control and PM<sub>2.5</sub>-treated groups were dispersed in two different regions. Goodness of fit values and predictive ability values (treated vs control group: R2X = 0.836, R2Y = 0.873, Q2Y = 0.462, and  $P \le 0.05$ ) showed that the OPLS-DA model had a good fit with excellent predictive power (Fig. 6B). The R2 and Q2 values of the model after Y substitution were less than those in the

original model, suggesting that the model was appropriate for screening of metabolites according to Variable Importance in the Projection (VIP) (Fig. 6C).

Totally 1798 differential metabolites were identified in the control versus treated groups. Among them, 8 metabolites decreased while 1790 metabolites increased in the PM<sub>2.5</sub>-treated group compared with control group (Fig. 6D and F). The metabolites exhibiting different levels were further screened using VIP (Susanne et al., 2007). Metabolites with fold change  $\geq 1.5$  or  $\leq 0.5$ , VIP  $\geq 1.0$ , and  $P \leq 0.05$  were considered as differential metabolites, including 37 biomarkers in positive mode (Table S3), and 23 biomarkers in negative mode (Table S4). The identified main differential metabolites were further quantitatively and qualitatively analyzed, and the top 20 differential metabolites between control and treated groups were screened by Linear discriminate analysis (LDA) effect size analysis (Fig. 6E).

The Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes (KEGG) database was used to further analyze the metabolic pathways affected by  $PM_{2.5}$  exposure. The results indicated that these metabolites included carboxylic acids and derivatives, 5'-deoxyribonucleosides, fatty acyls, steroids and steroid derivatives, nucleoside and nucleotide analogues, among others (Fig. 7A), which represent key metabolic pathways including thyroid hormone synthesis, arginine and proline metabolism, tryptophan metabolism, primary bile acid biosynthesis, cysteine and methionine metabolism, histidine metabolism, nicotinate and nicotinamide metabolism, bile secretion, D-glutamine and D-glutamate metabolism, beta-alanine metabolism, glyoxylate and dicarboxylate metabolism, ascorbate and aldarate metabolism, as well as ABC transporters (Fig. 7B).

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**Fig. 6.** PCA scatter plot of the metabolite profile and variation characteristics of various metabolites in the urine treated by  $PM_{2.5}$ . The control group was separated from  $PM_{2.5}$  treated group (A). OPLS-DA analysis of the metabolite profile. OPLS-DA score plot (B) and OPLS-model test chart (C) show good discrimination between the treated and control groups,  $R^2X = 0.836$ ,  $R^2Y = 0.873$ ,  $Q^2 = 0.462$ , and P < 0.05. Volcano Plot showing differential metabolites between the control and treated groups (D). Linear discriminate analysis (LDA) effect size analysis of top 20 differential metabolites between the treated and control groups (E). Hierarchical clustering heat map analysis of differential metabolites between the treated and control groups (F). Each column represents a sample and each row depicts a metabolite. The color of each section corresponds to a concentration value of each metabolite calculated by peak area normalization method (red, upregulated; green, downregulated). The data set was screened using variable importance for projection (VIP) values >1, values of fold change  $\geq 2$  or  $\leq 0.5$ , *p*-value <0.05, in the urine metabolites.



**Fig. 7.** HMDB classification of different metabolites in each group (A) and pathway analysis of differential metabolites between the  $PM_{2.5}$ -treated and control groups (B). Urine metabolic alterations of the most relevant pathways induced by  $PM_{2.5}$  were analyzed using the MetaboAnalyst 3.0., and the significantly enriched pathways are displayed by a bubble plot (p < 0.05, Fisher's exact test).

### 3.9. Correlations between urine metabolites and clinical indices and functional protein in $PM_{2.5}$ -induced thyrotoxicity rats

To further clarify the biological significances of the altered urine metabolites in PM2.5-induced thyrotoxicity rats, the relationships between the relative abundances of the urine metabolites and clinical features (serum levels of TT3, TT4 and TSH) and functional protein (thyroid tissue levels of NIS, TPO, TTF1, TG, PAX8 and TTR) of PM2.5-induced thyrotoxicity rats were analyzed using the Spearman's rank correlation coefficient method. Results indicated that 5-Aminopentanoic acid, 2-Pyrrolidinone, PI-18-0-16-0, glycylprolylhydroxyproline, and chlorogenic acid, etc. were positively correlated with thyroid tissue levels of TTF1 and PAX8. Servlaspartic acid, 5-Pminopentanoic acid, 2-pyrrolidinone, PI-18-0-16-0, chlorogenic acid, and kynurenic acid, etc. were negatively correlated with those of NIS and TSH. Citric acid, 2-Pyrrolidinone, kynurenic acid, PI-18-0-16-0, and l-Proline, etc. were negatively correlated with those of TT4. Gamma-Glutamylleucine, glycylprolylhydroxyproline, chlorogenic acid, and glucosylgalactosyl hydroxylysine, etc. were negatively correlated with those of TG in positive ion mode (Fig. 8A). In negative ion mode, creatinine was negatively correlated with those of TT3 and TT4. Kynurenic acid was negatively correlated with the levels of TT3, UI and NIS. N-Aacetyl-L-arginine was negatively correlated with the levels of TSH and NIS. Glutathione and L-Gulonolactone were negatively correlated with the level of NIS and TTR, respectively. Naringenin-4-O-glucuronide and glutathione were positively correlated with thyroid tissue levels of PAX8. 2-Hydroxy-3-methylbutyric-acid, N-A-acetyl-L-arginine and glutathione were positively correlated with those of TTF1 (Fig. 8B).

#### 3.10. Potential correlations between gut microbiome and urine metabolites

Based on the differences in metabolites and gut microbiome between the control and  $PM_{2.5}$ -treated groups, the functional correlations between the alterations in metabolite profiles and gut microbiome were explored by calculation of the Spearman's correlation coefficient. A significant correlation (r = 0.8; P < 0.05) was observed between the alterations in metabolite profiles and the perturbed gut microbiome at the genus (Fig. 8C and D) and phylum levels (Fig. 8E and F). Fig. 8 lists several typical gut microflora-related metabolites that are highly correlated with specific gut bacteria to demonstrate the functional correlation between the gut microbiome and metabolites. The results showed that the abundances of some bacterial families, including Lactobacillaceae, Erysipelotrichaceae, Prevotellaceae and Muribaculaceae highly correlated with a few metabolites (Fig. 8), vice versa. For example, the D-Glutamic acid level positively correlated with the abundance of Enterobacteriaceae (r = 0.8377, p =(0.000670), *Prevotellaceae* (r = 0.8707, p = 0.000228), and *Muribaculaceae* (r = 9072, p = 0.000046); the urocanic acid level positively correlated with the abundance of *Erysipelotrichaceae* (r = 0.8298, p = 0.000838) and *Lactobacillaceae* (r = 0.8469, p = 0.000508); the Glutathione level positively correlated with the abundance of phylum including Bacteroidota (r = 0.8071, p = 0.001504); the Kynurenic acid level positively correlated with the abundance of several phyla including *Firmicutes* (r = 0.8505, p =0.8775, p = 0.000176, and Campilobacterota (r = 0.8716, p =0.000221); the D-Glutamic acid level positively correlated with the abundance of several phyla including Firmicutes (r = 0.8268, p = 0.000910), Bacteroidota (r = 0.9072, p = 0.000046), and Proteobacteria (r = 0.8377, p = 0.000670; the Citric acid level positively correlated with the abundance of several phyla including Firmicutes (r = 0.8356, p =0.000710), Elusimicrobiota (r = 0.8555, p = 0.000386), Bacteroidota (r = 0.9059, p = 0.000049), Campilobacterota (r = 0.8511, p = 0.000445)and Cyanobacteria (r = 0.8175, p = 0.001161); the Taurocholic acid level positively correlated with the abundance of *Elusimicrobium* (r =0.9741, p = 0.000000), Muribaculum (r = 0.9886, p = 0.000000), Candidatus\_Obscuribacter (r = 0.8423, p = 0.000585), Eubacterium (r =



**Fig. 8.** Correlations analysis between clinical indicators or functional proteins and metabolites (A, B) and conjoint analysis of microbiota and metabolites (C-E). Correlation map (A, B) showing the functional correlation between clinical indicators or functional proteins and altered urine metabolites in positive and negative ion mode. Correlation map (C, D) and plot (E, F) showing the functional correlation between perturbed gut bacteria genera or phyla and altered urine metabolites in positive and negative ion mode. Red represents the positive correlation, and blue or light blue represents the negative correlation.

0.9237, p = 0.000017), and Parabacteroides (r = 0.8813, p = 0.000150), whereas it negatively correlated with the abundance of Prevotella (r = -0.8070, p = 0.001509); the 2-Pyrrolidinone level positively correlated with the abundance of *Elusimicrobium* (r = 0.8811, p = 0.000153), Muribaculum (r = 0.9016, p = 0.000062), Candidatus\_Obscuribacter (r = 0.8295, p = 0.000846), Eubacterium (r = 0.9133, p = 0.000033),Parabacteroides (r = 0.8110, p = 0.001371), Helicobacter (r = 0.8694, p = 0.000239) and Prevotella (r = 0.8175, p = 0.001165); the gamma-Glutamylleucine level positively correlated with the abundance of *Elusimicrobium* (r = 0.9310, p = 0.000011), *Muribaculum* (r = 0.9224, p = 0.000019), Candidatus\_Obscuribacter (r = 0.8046, p = 0.001598), *Eubacterium* (r = 0.8854, p = 0.000128), *Parabacteroides* (r = 0.9515, p= 0.000002), and *Helicobacter* (r = 0.9222, p = 0.000020), whereas it negatively correlated with Lactobacillus, Escherichia, and lleibacterium. Taken together, these results suggest that PM<sub>2.5</sub> exposure induces a significant taxonomic perturbation in the gut microbiome, which in turn substantially alters the metabolomic profile of the gut microbiome, as evidenced by changes of diverse gut microflora-related metabolites. In addition, the alterations in the aforementioned gut microbiome and gut microflorarelated metabolites were significantly correlated with changes in thyroid function indexes.

#### 4. Discussion

Thyroid cancer is the leading endocrine cancer (Bray et al., 2018), with increasing incidence in the past decades (Cai and Liu, 2021) in the USA (Kitahara and Sosa, 2016) and Asia (Ahn et al., 2016). Thyroid disease can affect all stages of life (Wang et al., 2020). The atmosphere level of  $PM_{2.5}$  gradually increases with increasing urbanization and industrialization, which enhances the risk of diseases including endocrine system diseases (Darbre, 2018). The toxic effects of  $PM_{2.5}$  and related mechanisms have been investigated (Dong et al., 2021a; Riggs et al., 2020). However, the mechanism underlying  $PM_{2.5}$ -induced thyroid injury remains unclear.

Combination of metabonomics, microbiome and the related metabolites can be used to understand the disease development mechanisms (Li et al., 2020; Lin et al., 2021). Recent studies reported the impact of  $PM_{25}$ exposure on gut microbiome (Zhao et al., 2021) and the potential relationship between gut microbiome and thyroid disease (Virili et al., 2021). However, no study combines metabolic profile and microbiome analyses to investigate PM2.5 exposure-induced thyrotoxicity. Herein, we constructed a rat thyroid injury model via intratracheal instillation of PM2 5. H&E staining showed infiltration of few macrophages into the lumen, disappeared follicular epithelial cells, diluted colloid staining and the necrotic material in the local follicles in the M and H groups, indicating the presence of inflammatory thyroid injury (Wang et al., 2017), consistent with previous study showing that PM2.5 exposure significantly resulted in light color colloid dyeing, inducing exfoliated follicular epithelial cells, macrophages and inflammatory cells (Kroemer et al., 2009). ELISA analysis indicated that the serum TT4 and TSH levels were remarkably enhanced following PM2.5 exposure. Considering that iodine is an important ingredient in the synthesis of thyroid hormones (Ren et al., 2021), we concluded that PM2.5 induced thyroid injury by affecting thyroid hormone levels via impacting the expression of thyroid functional proteins. Therefore, we further analyzed thyroid functional proteins in male rats and observed increased levels of NIS, TPO, TG and TTR, but decreased levels of TTF-1 and PAX-8 after PM2.5 exposure. These results suggest that PM<sub>2.5</sub> exposure may affect the secretion, biosynthesis and biotransport of thyroid hormones by interfering with the expression of the above functional proteins via the HPT axis, thus leading to thyroid dysfunction. This is consistent with our previous conclusions on the mechanism of thyroid injury in female rats (Dong et al., 2021a). But the specific regulatory mechanism and cause for the abovementioned changes are still unclear. Studies showed that air pollutants may influence the relative abundance of gut bacteria (Zhao et al., 2021). However, whether air pollutants-induced potential composition and functional alterations in gut microbiome are associated with thyroid function remains unclear. The gut microbiome has been demonstrated to even impact the whole body health by gut-thyroid axis (Lerner et al., 2017). Therefore, this study aimed to explore whether residential based estimate of  $PM_{2.5}$  exposure was associated with the gut microbiome in rats and its relationship with thyrotoxicity.

This study, for the first time, utilized LC-MS-based metabolomics profiling analysis and high-throughput 16S rRNA gene sequencing to explore the influence of PM2.5 exposure on gut microbiome and metabolic profile related to thyroid function alterations. The results revealed that PM2.5 exposure caused a marked change in rat gut microbiome composition, and the gut microbiome in PM<sub>2.5</sub>-treated group exhibited a higher community diversity and richness (a-diversity) than the control group, consistent with previous report by Zhao et al. (Zhao et al., 2021). First, Shannon, Chao1 and Ace were higher, but Simpson was lower in PM2.5-induced thyrotoxicity, suggesting the bacterial diversity and richness in guts of PM<sub>2 5</sub>-induced thyrotoxicity rats were increased, consistent with previous report on gut microbiota in hypothyroidism and hyperthyroidism patients (Su et al., 2020). In addition, we observed that the major differential intestinal bacteria (Firmicutes, Bacteroidota, Bacteroidetes, and Cyanobacteria) could represent biomarkers for clarifying PM<sub>2.5</sub>-induced thyrotoxicity mechanism. They were negatively correlated with thyroid function indicators (TT3, TT4, and TSH) and positively correlated with the serum UI level at the phyla level. Additionally, the altered bacteria of PM2 5-induced thyrotoxicity rats including Candidatus-Obscuribacter, Lactobacillus, Muribaculum, Eubacterium, and Allobaculum, which were negatively correlated with serum TT4, TT3, TSH, and UI levels at the genera level. Previous studies showed that dysbacteriosis could influence thyroid hormone synthesis and metabolism (DiStefano et al., 1993), and deiodinate thyroid hormones, thereby impacting the levels of these hormones in serum (Fekete et al., 2004). Moreover, the relationships analysis results about the altered intestinal bacteria and functional protein (thyroid tissue levels of NIS, TPO, TTF1, TG, PAX8 and TTR) further supported evidence that the above-mentioned intestinal bacteria could affect the thyroid function and the HPT axis of PM2.5-induced thyrotoxicity rats. These results suggest that PM<sub>2.5</sub> exposure alters the structure of gut microbiome and leads to thyroid injury.

In fact, the correlation between PM<sub>2.5</sub> exposure and thyroid injury was reported previously (Irizar et al., 2021); the gut-thyroid link and gut microbiomes might function as intermediaries to promote individual susceptibility to inhaled PM<sub>2.5</sub>. The gut microbiome has been demonstrated to interact with the gut-thyroid link (Li et al., 2021a), suggesting that PM<sub>2.5</sub> exposure-induced gut microbiome perturbations could be an etiological pathway leading to thyroid injury. Moreover, PM2.5 and its main constituents- black carbon (BC), organic matter (OM), nitrate  $(NO_3(-))$ , ammonium  $(NH_4(+))$  and sulfate  $(SO_4(2-))$  influence the maternal and neonatal thyroid function and in turn induce changes in the distribution and structure of gut microbiota, a possible mechanism by which PM2.5 exposure alters gut microbiome (Wang et al., 2019). Moreover, these perturbed gut bacteria found in this study were closely related to alterations of substantial gut microflora-associated metabolites, suggesting that PM<sub>2.5</sub> exposure both disturbs gut bacteria at abundance level and alters the metabolomic profile of the gut microbiome, thereby disturbing host metabolite homeostasis. The imputed metagenomic differences between control and PM2.5-treated groups were involved in endocrine system, amino acid metabolism, nervous system, nucleotide metabolism, lipid metabolism, energy metabolism and glycan biosynthesis metabolism. These results might shed new light on PM2.5 exposure-induced perturbations of the gut microbiome, a possible novel mechanism for environmental chemicalinduced thyroid disease. However, the deep reasons between the PM<sub>2.5</sub>.induced gut microbiota changes and thyroid dysfunction requires further study.

To further investigate the causes of changes in the biological pathways of bacteria, liquid chromatography-coupled metabolomics techniques were applied to explore the key regulatory mechanisms for the aforementioned altered pathways. In this study, PCA, OPLS-DA and hierarchical clustering heat map showed that PM<sub>2.5</sub> exposure caused significant changes in urine metabolic profile and some potential biomarkers were identified in

negative and positive ion mode. The levels of metabolites including urocanic acid, D-Glutamic acid, taurocholic acid, glutathione, kynurenic acid, N-Acetylhistamine, creatinine, 2,3-Dihydroxybutanedioic acid, aspartame, 5-Aminopentanoic acid, citric acid, o-propanoyl-carnitine, PI(18:0/ 16:0), 11,12,15-THETA, Nicotinamide N-oxide, 2(N)-Methyl-norsalsolinol, calcitriol, S-Adenosylme thioninamine, and 4-Guanidinobutanoic acid in the PM<sub>2.5</sub>-treated groups increased significantly compared with those in the control group, whereas the prolylhydroxyproline level exhibited a decreasing trend. Glutathione is an intermediate for thyroid hormone synthesis. Arginine and proline metabolism, glutathione metabolism, lysine degradation, and glyoxylate and dicarboxylate metabolism are involved in energy metabolism. The decrease in levels of glutathione, citric acid, and 5-Aminopentanoic acid in the PM2.5-treated groups revealed that PM<sub>2.5</sub> exposure impacted the energy consumption and TCA cycle, indicative of PM<sub>2.5</sub> exposure-induced disturbance of thyroid function, similar with previous report (Xu et al., 2019). Further analysis with KEGG database showed that differential metabolites were involved in thyroid hormone synthesis, primary bile acid biosynthesis, arginine and proline metabolism, tryptophan metabolism, histidine metabolism, bile secretion, cysteine and methionine metabolism, nicotinate and nicotinamide metabolism, beta-Alanine metabolism, glutathione metabolism, D-Glutamine and Dglutamate metabolism, ascorbate and aldarate metabolism, glyoxylate and dicarboxylate metabolism, as well as ABC transproters. The screened differential metabolites in dicarboxylate and glyoxylate metabolism demonstrated that PM<sub>2.5</sub> exposure disturbed energy metabolism. Tryptophan metabolism, nicotinate and nicotinamide metabolism, primary bile acid biosynthesis, thyroid hormone synthesis and histidine metabolism exert modulating function in neuroendocrine system disorder (Robitaille, 1995). Moreover, D-Glutamine and D-glutamate metabolism generates oxygen free radicals, which play a key role in  $PM_{2.5}$ -induced oxidative stress. Fernandez-Pastor et al. showed that D-Glutamine and D-glutamate metabolism disorder is correlated with altered thyroid function (Fernandez-Pastor et al., 1983). PM<sub>2.5</sub> exposure-induced perturbed arginine and proline metabolism in thyroid injury was first reported in this study. Amino acids are closely associated with gut-thyroid axis activation and inflammation (van der Boom et al., 2020), so amino acid metabolic disorder might induce thyroid immune disorders and enhance inflammation. Furthermore, the correlation analysis results about the urine metabolites and clinical features (serum levels of TT3, TT4 and TSH) and functional protein (thyroid tissue levels of NIS, TPO, TTF1, TG, PAX8 and TTR) further testified that the above-mentioned metabolites and their pathways could regulate the thyroid function and the HPT axis of PM2.5-induced thyrotoxicity rats. In summary, the metabolomics results may help to clarify the thyrotoxicity mechanism caused by PM<sub>2.5</sub> treatment in rats.

To further prove that PM<sub>2.5</sub> affects the flora and thus changes thyroid homeostasis through the above-mentioned altered biomarkers, the functional conjoint analyses between perturbed gut bacteria at genera or phyla level and altered urine metabolites in positive and negative ion mode were conducted in this study. We found that the altered urine metabolites exhibited significant correlations with gut microbiota. Lactobacillaceae, Erysipelotrichaceae, Prevotellaceae and Muribaculaceae were closely associated with the levels of multiple metabolites in the host. For instance, the urocanic acid level positively correlated with the abundance of Erysipelotrichaceae and Lactobacillaceae. The D-Glutamic acid level positively correlated with the abundance of Enterobacteriaceae, Prevotellaceae, and Muribaculaceae. The taurocholic acid level positively correlated with the abundance of several genera including Elusimicrobium, Muribaculum, Candidatus\_Obscuribacter, Eubacterium, Parabacteroides, and Prevotella, whereas negatively correlated with Prevotella. Taurocholic acid was shown to affect the populations of gut bacteria (Wolf et al., 2020). Ridlon et al. showed that taurocholic acid can stimulate intestinal bacteria to convert cholic acid and taurine to deoxycholic acid and hydrogen sulfide, a tumor- and genotoxin-promoter, respectively (Ridlon et al., 2016). The glutathione level positively correlated with the abundance of phylum including Bacteroidota. In our study, increased level of glutathione induced by PM<sub>2.5</sub> was involved in thyroid hormone synthesis, which was further

found to be related to Bacteroidota at the phylum level. TG was found to bind to extracellular matrix and thyroid follicles in rats with PM2.5thyrotoxicity, thus strengthening the gut-thyroid relationship and the correlation with TPO level (Naiyer et al., 2008). Study showed that glutathione can improve the TPO activity, which is the enzyme involved in thyroid hormone synthesis, and can rescue metabolism from severe thyroid dysfunction (Palazzolo and Ely, 2015). The levels of kynurenic acid, a metabolite of tryptophan metabolism, positively correlated with the abundance of several phyla including Firmicutes, Bacteroidota and Proteobacteria. The levels of D-Glutamic acid, a metabolite of D-Glutamine and D-glutamate metabolism, positively correlated with the relative abundance of several phyla including Proteobacteria, Firmicutes, and Bacteroidota. The levels of citric acid, a metabolite of citrate cycle, positively correlated with the abundance of several phyla including Firmicutes, Elusimicrobiota, Bacteroidota, Campilobacterota and Cyanobacteria. Collectively, these results suggest that the changes in the gut microbiome were correlated with alterations in urine metabolites. The above analyses suggest that PM2.5 could affect the flora and its biological functions by affecting the changes of metabolites involved in the key metabolic pathways identified above, thus affecting the thyroid function. We found PM2 5 decreased several Firmicutes families, some of which are butyrate producers (Tremaroli and Backhed, 2012). Therefore, PM<sub>25</sub>induced gut microbiome might impact adipogenesis, short-chain fatty acid production, and energy harvesting. Moreover, fatty acid carnitines, which transport fatty acids into mitochondria for fatty acid oxidation to generate metabolic energy (Negrao et al., 1987), were observed to decrease in urine of PM<sub>2.5</sub>-treated rats. This may be a compensation for energy harvest. So we concluded that the gut microbiome could regulate glucose, lipid and cholesterol metabolisms by hydrolyzing bile acid, resulting in hormonal release. These results indicate the causality between perturbation changes in microbiota induced by PM2.5 and thyroid function-related metabolic profile.

All in all, our study revealed  $PM_{2.5}$  induced alteration in gut microbiome in terms of both abundance and physiology, as well as the related metabolomic profiles. The alterations in the metabolic profiles of gut microbiome might be due to regulation of bacterial gene and protein expression. A recent report showed that xenobiotics induced remarkable changes in physiology and gene expression of human gut microbiome (Maurice et al., 2013). These results indicate that a correlation might exist between gut microbiota composition disruption and diversity increase and metabolite homeostasis disorder, which ultimately promotes thyroid injury after  $PM_{2.5}$  exposure.

This study has some limitations. First, the effective components of  $PM_{2.5}$  were no investigated in detail. Second, more thorough information on correlations between gut microbiome, metabolites and biochemical parameters is required. Moreover, a better rat model with a standardized murine microbiome should be used to reduce individual variations in gut microbiota. Finally, the present study did not explore the possible difference in gut microbiome and metabolic response to  $PM_{2.5}$  exposure between males and females.

#### 5. Conclusions

In this study, 16S rRNA gene sequencing and LC-MS based metabolomics analysis were applied to reveal the effect of  $PM_{2.5}$  exposure on rat gut microbiome and metabolic profile, and explore the potential mechanisms of thyrotoxicity. The sequencing showed that the alteration in gut microflora composition induced by  $PM_{2.5}$  exposure may be one of the pathogenic phenomena of  $PM_{2.5}$  exposure-induced thyrotoxicity. With exposure to  $PM_{2.5}$ , the altered flora can affect thyroid function, whereas a series of metabolites were substantially impacted by  $PM_{2.5}$ . In addition, some gut microbiotas were significantly correlated with the altered urine metabolites. Taken together, this study may shed new light on mechanism underlying  $PM_{2.5}$ -induced thyroid injury. Furthermore, the altered gut microflora-associated metabolites can act as biomarkers for probing the thyroid functional impacts of  $PM_{2.5}$  or other environmental chemicals. More research is warranted to unravel the mechanisms of gut-thyroid axis interaction affected by PM<sub>2.5</sub>.

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#### CRediT authorship contribution statement

Xinwen Dong: Conceptualization, Writing – original draft, Writing – review & editing. Sanqiao Yao: Data curation. Lvfei Deng: Formal analysis, Validation. Haibin Li: Formal analysis. Fengquan Zhang: Resources, Software, Supervision, Validation. Jie Xu: Software, Supervision, Validation. Zhichun Li: Methodology. Li Zhang: Software, Supervision. Jing Jiang: Project administration. Weidong Wu: Writing – review & editing.

#### Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

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#### Appendix A. Supplementary data

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