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**ISLET AMYLOID POLYPEPTIDE – IAPP – AS A RISK
FACTOR FOR DIABETES MELLITUS**

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ii. Abstract

The accumulation of amyloid deposits in the pancreas is a histopathological hallmark of type 2 diabetes. Evidences suggest that intermediate oligomeric species, rather than the amyloid structures primarily composed of the Islet Amyloid Polypeptide (IAPP) hormone, contribute to β -cell dysfunction and loss.

Human IAPP (hIAPP) is an amyloidogenic polypeptide expressed in pancreatic β -cells as a proprotein. IAPP and insulin are co-expressed, processed by the same enzymes and co-secreted in response to the same cellular stimulus, leading to the concerted regulation of their activity towards whole-body glucose homeostasis. The molecular mechanisms underlying hIAPP intracellular oligomerization leading to the accumulation of amyloid plaques in the pancreas is still poorly understood. Humanized yeast models of IAPP expression were previously constructed to facilitate the investigation of the intracellular effects of IAPP. With the goal to overcome limitations of the previous models, this study intended to construct improved models by integrating the cDNA encoding for mature and unprocessed hIAPP forms into the genome, the latter referred as the most amyloidogenic species. The construction of novel models allowed the investigation of the cytotoxic properties of hIAPP forms, revealing that overexpression of proIAPP more drastically impaired cellular growth and led to the accumulation of hIAPP aggregates in the vacuole. In addition, the models were shown to be valuable tools to investigate hIAPP processing as convertase activity is evolutionary conserved.

hIAPP expressed in the pancreas circulates in the bloodstream being distributed to target tissues. Since the accumulation of hIAPP oligomers precedes the deposition of pancreatic amyloids, it was hypothesized that detection of hIAPP oligomers in the plasma could serve as an early indicator of diabetes. Preliminary analyses indicated the presence of ~22-24 kDa signal potentially representing hIAPP oligomers in the plasma sample of a volunteer diagnosed with diabetes. Further studies are required to address the significance of these results.

Keywords: diabetes, IAPP, IAPP oligomerization, IAPP processing, yeast

iii. Resumo

A Diabetes mellitus (DM) é definida como uma desordem metabólica caracterizada por hiperglicemia crônica e alterações no metabolismo de glicídios, lípidos e proteínas devido à insuficiente secreção e/ou ação de insulina. A DM pode ser dividida em duas grandes classes: a Diabetes tipo 1 (T1DM) que engloba 5-10% dos casos de doença e caracteriza-se pela ocorrência da destruição auto imune das células β do pâncreas. A segunda classe denomina-se de diabetes tipo 2 (T2DM), inclui 90-95% dos indivíduos com diabetes e neste caso existe uma insuficiente secreção de insulina e/ ou resistência à sua ação. A T2DM pode persistir sem diagnóstico por muitos anos até ser detetada e conseqüentemente estes indivíduos apresentam um elevado risco de desenvolvimento de complicações macrovasculares e microvasculares. Na realidade, em 2015 estimou-se que 13,3% da população portuguesa entre os 20 e 79 anos de idade sofriam de T2DM e 44% destas pessoas ainda não tinham obtido um diagnóstico. A elevada prevalência, complexidade clínica e natureza crônica da DM representam um enorme encargo médico e socioeconómico tornando urgente o desenvolvimento de novas estratégias de diagnóstico e de terapia.

Uma das características frequentemente observadas nas autópsias de indivíduos com T2DM é a presença de depósitos amilóides no pâncreas e as evidências sugerem que os agregados tóxicos de uma proteína denominada Polipéptido Amilóide dos Ilhéus (IAPP) contribuem para a disfunção e a perda das células β pancreáticas. A IAPP é uma proteína neuro-endócrina de 37 resíduos de aminoácidos, codificada por um gene localizado no cromossoma 12 em humanos e expresso nas células β pancreáticas. O péptido é expresso, armazenado e secretado em resposta aos mesmos estímulos que a insulina e embora a sua função ainda não seja clara, é reconhecido um papel na homeostase da glucose. A sequência imatura de IAPP é uma pré-proteína composta por 89 resíduos de aminoácidos - pré-proIAPP (ppIAPP) - cujo péptido sinal é hidrolisado no retículo endoplasmático (ER). Após remoção do péptido sinal, a proIAPP (pIAPP), uma pro-proteína de 67 resíduos, sofre a ação das mesmas enzimas responsáveis pelo processamento de proinsulina a insulina: prohormona convertase 1/3 (PC 1/3) e prohormona convertase 2 (PC2) para a formação da proteína madura – IAPP.

Apenas os humanos, primatas não humanos e gatos expressam uma proteína altamente amiloidogénica, contrariamente ao que acontece com os roedores. Uma diferença em apenas seis resíduos de aminoácidos torna a proteína humana susceptível à oligomerização, em oposição ao que acontece com os roedores. A existência de regiões amiloidogénicas no péptido, a sobreexpressão da proteína como consequência do aumento da expressão de insulina (resultado da resistência periférica à sua ação) e erros no processamento das formas imaturas da proteína são fatores que podem ser associados à formação de agregados de IAPP. No entanto, os mecanismos moleculares que desencadeiam a agregação da proteína ainda não são totalmente conhecidos.

A levedura *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* é um organismo eucariota frequentemente utilizado como modelo experimental. Possui um sistema genético bem definido, é de fácil manipulação, não patogénico e a sua utilização apresenta custos relativamente baixos. Alguns dos processos celulares fundamentais são conservados entre a levedura e os humanos e cerca de 31% dos genes da levedura possuem homólogos em mamíferos. Este organismo é frequentemente utilizado para estudar processos biológicos complexos como a replicação de DNA, progressão do ciclo celular, transdução de sinal e outros mecanismos relevantes. Mesmo os genes humanos que não possuem um homólogo em levedura podem ser estudados neste organismo, através de expressão heteróloga, para dar origem aos denominados modelos de leveduras humanizadas. Estes modelos eucariotas foram já validados para o estudo de algumas doenças neurodegenerativas, como a doença de Parkinson e conseguem recapitular algumas das características da doença. Assim, foram previamente desenvolvidos modelos de levedura que expressam a forma humana de ppIAPP (pphIAPP), pIAPP (phIAPP) e IAPP (hIAPP) marcadas com GFP (*green fluorescent protein*) utilizando vetores episomais de múltiplas cópias. No entanto, a

instabilidade destes vetores gera artefactos técnicos que dificultam a interpretação dos resultados. Para contornar esta limitação, neste estudo foram desenvolvidos modelos otimizados de expressão do IAPP através da integração do cDNA que codifica para o hIAPP, pIAPP and pphIAPP no genoma da levedura. Estes modelos são valiosos para a investigação das propriedades citotóxicas da proteína madura e imatura, que representou o segundo objectivo deste estudo.

Uma das principais conclusões deste trabalho é que, tal como acontece na agregação da α -sinucleína, uma cópia do gene de pphIAPP e pIAPP é insuficiente para que o crescimento da levedura seja comprometido, apesar de a sua expressão afectar alguns parâmetros de crescimento como a duração da fase *lag*, que reflete o tempo necessário para a duplicação celular, e a biomassa final. No caso das células que expressam hIAPP o crescimento demonstrou ser ligeiramente afetado pela expressão da proteína mas a citotoxicidade foi bastante inferior aos resultados obtidos com as estirpes que expressam os vetores de múltiplas cópias. Posto isto, o modelo foi otimizado através da introdução de uma segunda cópia do respetivo cDNA no genoma das estirpes recombinantes. A expressão de duas cópias da construção de pIAPP foi suficiente para que a maioria dos parâmetros relacionados ao crescimento celular fossem afetados. Mais, as estirpes foram sujeitas a ensaios de microscopia de fluorescência onde foram detetados sinais de stress celular, como a presença de largos vacúolos nas células, associados à expressão destas proteínas. A expressão de duas cópias de pIAPP teve um impacto mais drástico no crescimento celular e levou ainda à acumulação de agregados no vacúolo. Curiosamente, não foi possível detetar a proteína pphIAPP nos ensaios de microscopia de fluorescência, o que pode sugerir que o transcrito desta proteína possa ser instável ou que a proteína possa ser degradada como estratégia de defesa celular. Ensaio adicionais são necessários para corroborar esta hipótese. A expressão das formas não processadas de hIAPP foi testada por *immunoblotting* e os resultados indicam a presença de diversos intermediários de processamento sugerindo que convertases endógenas processam a pphIAPP, o que pode ocasionar a remoção do *tag* de GFP.

A presença de agregados de IAPP nas células β do pâncreas está bem documentada. Estes agregados foram não só detetados no pâncreas dos indivíduos, mas também em outros órgãos, nomeadamente nos rins de indivíduos com nefropatia diabética e no coração de pessoas com excesso de peso e/ou obesidade e em indivíduos diagnosticados com T2DM. Estes depósitos podem ser correlacionados com o dano nos tecidos onde se encontram. Depósitos da proteína podem ser também encontrados no cérebro de indivíduos diagnosticados com a doença de Alzheimer ou demência e simultaneamente de T2DM. Uma vez que as espécies oligoméricas de IAPP presentes no cérebro parecem ser transportadas a nível circulatório e o nível de expressão de IAPP no cérebro é muito baixo, é sugerido que oligómeros de IAPP expressos no pâncreas possam circular na corrente sanguínea e alojar-se em diferentes órgãos com consequências nefastas para os tecidos. De fato, foram já detetados tetrâmeros de IAPP em amostras de plasma humano. Este é um resultado importante para a exploração dos oligómeros de hIAPP como um potencial indicador da diabetes. Desta forma, foram realizados diversos ensaios para a deteção de oligómeros de IAPP no plasma de voluntários saudáveis e em voluntário diagnosticado com diabetes. Através da utilização de um anticorpo que reconhece o epítipo dos resíduos 20-29 da hIAPP foi detectado um sinal de cerca de 22-24 kDa que pode efectivamente corresponder a oligómeros hIAPP.

Palavras-Chave: diabetes, IAPP, oligomerização de IAPP, processamento de IAPP, levedura.

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vii. List of abbreviations, symbols, chemical formulas and units

AIC	Akaike information criterion
AGE	Advanced glycation end products
APS	Ammonium persulfate
AUC	Area under the curve
BSA	Bovine serum albumin
Ca ²⁺	Calcium
CEN	Centromere
cDNA	Complementary DNA
CGRP	Calcitonin gene-related peptide
CHOP	CCAA-enhancer-binding protein homologous protein
COOH	Carboxyl
COS-1	Kidney fibroblast-like cell line
CPE	Carboxypeptidase E
CSM	Complete supplement mixture
C-terminal	Carboxyl-terminal
DAPI	4',6-Diamidino-2'-phenylindole dihydrochloride
DM	Diabetes mellitus
E	Empty vector
ER	Endoplasmic reticulum
<i>E. coli</i>	<i>Escherichia coli</i>
g	g-force
g	gram
G	Glycine
Gal	Galactose
GFP	Green fluorescent protein
Glu	Glucose
gt	Generation time
h	Hour
HCl	Hydrochloric acid
hIAPP	Human Islet Amyloid Polypeptide
His18	Histidine 18
H ₂ O	Water
IAPP	Islet Amyloid Polypeptide
IDE	Insulin degrading enzyme
IL-1 β	Interleukin 1 β
INS-1	Insulin secreting beta cell derived line
K	Lysine
KCl	Potassium chloride
KDa	Kilodalton
L	Liter
LADA	Latent autoimmune diabetes in adults
LB	Luria-Bertani
LiAc	Lithium acetate
M	Molar
MgCl ₂	Magnesium chloride
MgSO ₄	Magnesium sulfate
min	Minute
mL	Milliliter

NaCl	Sodium chloride
ng	Nanogramme
NH ₂	Amine
N-terminal	Amine-terminal
OD	Optical density
ODi	Initial optical density
PAGE	Polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis
PAM	Peptidyl amidating mono-oxygenase
PBS	Phosphate buffered saline
PC1/3	Prohormone convertase 1/3
PC2	Prohormone convertase 2
PEG	Polyethylene glycol
Pgk1	3-Phosphoglyceric phosphokinase
phIAPP	Pro human -Islet amyloid Polypeptide
pIAPP	Pro-Islet Amyloid Polypeptide
PMD	Protein misfolding disorder
pphIAPP	Pre pro human-Islet Amyloid Polypeptide
ppIAPP	Pre pro-Islet Amyloid Polypeptide
PVDF	Polyvinylidene fluoride
R	Arginine
rIAPP	Rodent Islet Amyloid Polypeptide
ROS	Reactive oxygen species
rpm	Rotation per minute
s	Second
SD	Synthetic defined
SDS	Sodium dodecyl sulfate
Ser28	Serine 28
SOC	Super optimal broth with catabolite repression
<i>S. cerevisiae</i>	<i>Saccharomyces cerevisiae</i>
S1	Plasma sample 1
S2	Plasma sample 2
S3	Plasma sample 3
S4	Plasma sample 4
S5	Plasma sample 5
t	Time
TAE	Tris base; acetic acid; EDTA
TBS	Tris buffered saline
TBS-T	Tris buffered saline plus tween 20
TCA	Trichloroacetic acid
TE	Tris EDTA
TEMED	Tetramethylethylenediamine
Trp	Tryptophan
T1DM	Type 1 diabetes mellitus
T2DM	Type 2 diabetes mellitus
UCH-L1	Ubiquitin carboxyl-terminal hydrolase
UPS	Ubiquitin proteasome system
Ura	Uracil
V	Volt
Vf	Final volume
Vi	Initial volume
XBP1	X-box binding protein 1

YNB	Yeast nitrogen base
YPD	Yeast extract; peptone; glucose
2 μ	2 micron
$^{\circ}$ C	Celsius degree
μ g	Microgram
μ L	Microliter

1. Theoretical fundamentals

1.1 Diabetes mellitus

Diabetes mellitus (DM) is defined as a metabolic disorder whose main features are chronic hyperglycemia and alterations in the metabolism of carbohydrates, fat and protein due to a deficiency in insulin secretion and/or action¹. DM is majorly classified in Type 1 diabetes mellitus (T1DM) and Type 2 diabetes mellitus (T2DM). T1DM or “juvenile-onset diabetes” comprises 5-10% of DM patients and is characterized by the autoimmune destruction of pancreatic β -cells. The rate of β -cell loss is variable, being fast in some individuals (generally infants and children) and slow in others. T2DM, also named “adult-onset diabetes”, includes 90-95% of DM cases². These patients have relative insulin deficiency and peripheral insulin resistance³. Whereas total islet mass is greatly reduced in T1DM, islet loss in T2DM is a gradual process and individuals may not need insulin treatment to survive⁴. This form of DM can persist undiagnosed for many years until hyperglycemia can be detected, consequently, these patients have an increased risk of developing macro- and microvascular complications¹. In 2015, the estimated prevalence of T2DM in the Portuguese population, aged between 20 and 79 years (7.7 million individuals), was of 13.3% with a significant difference between men (15.9%) and women (10.9%). 56% of these individuals had already been diagnosed but 44% didn't have a diagnosis⁵. The high prevalence, clinical complexity and chronic nature of DM are the main causes of the huge medical and socioeconomic burden of the disease⁶.

1.2 Diabetes as a protein misfolding disorder

Protein misfolding disorders (PMDs) refer to a set of diseases sharing the misfolding, aggregation and accumulation of proteins as a pathological hallmark. Aggregates of specific proteins can be found as intracellular inclusions or extracellular plaques (amyloid structures), which can cause cellular damage and ultimately tissue and organ dysfunction^{6,7}. Although the proteins associated with different PMDs are structurally and chemically different, the resulting aggregates and amyloids are very similar, being organized in a cross β -sheet quaternary structure. These structures have also similar properties as resistance to proteolysis, capacity to bind to dyes as Congo Red and thioflavin S, and fibrillar aspect in electron microscopy⁷.

At least fifty different PMDs have been characterized, including neurodegenerative diseases, diverse systemic disorders, certain forms of heart disease, cancer and T2DM^{8,9}.

Amyloid deposits in the islets of Langerhans is a pathological hallmark of T2DM, being often observed in autopsy samples from patients^{8,10} and evidences suggest that toxic aggregates of a pancreatic hormone called Islet Amyloid Polypeptide (IAPP)¹¹ or amylin¹² may contribute to β -cell dysfunction and loss^{13,14}.

1.2.1 Physiological role of IAPP

IAPP is a 37 amino acid neuroendocrine peptide displaying homology with calcitonin gene-related peptide (CGRP). It is encoded by a single-copy gene localized on human chromosome 12, which is highly expressed in pancreatic β -cells¹⁵. Insulin and IAPP genes contain related promoter elements^{16,17}, being therefore expressed in response to similar stimulus¹⁸. The protein is stored, along with insulin, in secretory granules, and secreted in response to the same secretagogues^{18,19}. In general, like insulin, the plasma levels of IAPP are lower in the fasting state and rise in the post prandial state²⁰.

Although the physiological functions of IAPP remain largely unknown, it's recognized that this protein has a complementary action to insulin playing an important role on glucose homeostasis. IAPP affects the glucose levels in the bloodstream by (1) signaling the stomach to slow gastric emptying, delaying the absorption of glucose from the small intestine into the circulation and (2)

stimulating the satiation center of the brain thus limiting nutrient intake^{20,21}. IAPP also prevents the release of glucose from liver cells acting on arginine induced glucagon secretion. It was suggested that the protein does not act on the pancreatic cells but possibly in central nervous system²².

1.2.2 IAPP processing and clearance

IAPP is expressed as a larger precursor, preproIAPP (ppIAPP), of 89 amino acid residues (Figure 1.1). It contains a NH₂ terminal signal-sequence, which is cleaved in the Endoplasmic reticulum (ER), generating the 67 amino acid propeptide proIAPP (pIAPP)^{23,24}. The processing of pIAPP in β -cells is initiated by the cleavage of its COOH terminus by the prohormone convertase 1/3 (PC1/3)²⁵. In the absence of PC1/3, pIAPP COOH-terminus processing is catalyzed by prohormone convertase 2 (PC2)^{25,26}. The remaining dibasic residues, the lysine (K) and arginine (R), are then removed by the carboxypeptidase E (CPE)²⁷. Final processing of the COOH terminus involves removal of the exposed glycine (G) and amidation of the tyrosine by the Peptidyl amidating mono-oxygenase complex (PAM)²⁷. The NH₂ terminally unprocessed intermediate pIAPP is cleaved in secretory granules by PC2²⁶. In addition, a disulfide bridge between cysteine residue 2 and 7 is essential for IAPP full biological activity^{12,15}. It is noteworthy to mention that, besides sharing the same regulatory elements, the enzymes responsible for pIAPP processing are the same that process proinsulin to insulin²⁴, tightly connecting the activity of both hormones.

ppIAPP

MGLKIQVFLIVLSVALNHLKA TPIESHQVEKRKCNTATCATQRLANFLVHSSNFGAILSSTNVGSNTYGKRNAVEVLKREPLNYLPL

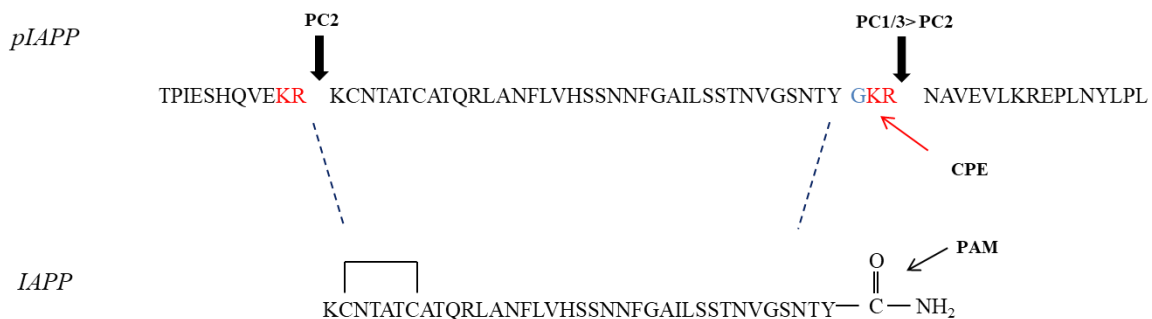


Figure 1.1 Schematic representation of IAPP processing. The ppIAPP 22-amino acid signal peptide (underlined) is cleaved off in the ER. pIAPP processing is initiated in the COOH terminus preferentially by the action of PC1/3. The KR residues (red) that remain at COOH terminus are removed by CPE. The glycine residue (blue) is then removed and the PAM complex catalyzes the amidation of the COOH terminus. The cleavage of the NH₂ terminus by PC2 yields the mature IAPP. For full biological activity a disulfide bridge between cysteine 2 and 7 is formed. ppIAPP – preproIAPP; pIAPP – proIAPP; PC1/3 -Prohormone convertase 1/3; PC2 - Prohormone convertase; CPE - Carboxypeptidase E; PAM - Peptidyl amidating mono-oxygenase complex. Adapted from Akter et al., 2015¹¹.

IAPP is cleared from plasma by renal excretion²⁸, however there are other alternative systems for IAPP removal. The Insulin degrading enzyme (IDE) is a protease responsible for degradation of IAPP and insulin, although it presents a lower affinity for IAPP than for insulin²⁹. Another protease involved in IAPP removal is neprilysin. It is a type II zinc-containing metalloprotease that degrades IAPP³⁰ and also inhibits the formation of IAPP fibrils by a non-catalytic mechanism³¹.

1.2.3 IAPP amyloidogenic properties and islet amyloid formation

The amino acid sequence of IAPP is highly conserved but there are interspecific differences critical for amyloid formation (Figure 1.2). Only humans³², non-human primates³³ and cats³⁴ express a

highly amyloidogenic protein. Conversely, rodents (mouse and rat) and several other mammalian species express a form of IAPP lacking amyloidogenic properties³².

	10	20	30
Human	KCNTATCATQRLANFLV <u>HS</u>	<u>S</u> NN <u>F</u> G <u>A</u> I <u>L</u> <u>SS</u>	TNVGSNTY
Macaque	KCNTATCATQRLANFLVRS	SNNFGTILSS	TNVGSDTY
Cat	KCNTATCATQRLANFLIRS	SNNLGAILSP	TNVGSNTY
Mouse	KCNTATCATQRLANFLV <u>RS</u>	SNNL <u>G</u> <u>P</u> <u>V</u> <u>L</u> <u>PP</u>	TNVGSNTY
Rat	KCNTATCATQRLANFLV <u>RS</u>	SNNL <u>G</u> <u>P</u> <u>V</u> <u>L</u> <u>PP</u>	TNVGSNTY

Figure 1.2 Comparison of IAPP amino acid sequences from mammalian species. IAPP sequences are highly conserved but exhibit notable differences in the region between the amino acid residues 20-29 (red box). Non-conserved amino acids are underlined and the β -sheet breaker residues proline (P) are indicated (red). Adapted from Westermark *et al.*, 2011¹¹²

Interspecific variations in IAPP primary structure seem to be responsible for the different amyloidogenic propensity of each form. Most of them occur between the residues 20-29, where five out of six differences can be observed in the IAPP sequences from humans and rodents (Figure 1.2). Indeed, *in vitro* experiments in which human IAPP (hIAPP) single amino acids were substituted by rodent amino acids between the residues 20 to 29 influenced amyloid fibril formation negatively. Rodents contain proline residues at positions 25, 28, 29, which disrupt the β -sheet conformation. In fact, exchanging the Ser28 by a proline in hIAPP most dramatically inhibited aggregation³². Even though this region is determinant for amyloid formation, two other potentially amyloidogenic domains have also been described: 30-37³⁵ region and 8-20 region^{36,37}. The first domain is 100% identical in hIAPP and rodent IAPP (rIAPP). The only difference observed in the second domain is the substitution of hIAPP His18 by an arginine in rodents. Although both hIAPP and rIAPP possess two potentially amyloidogenic domains³⁶, the proline rich domain (residues 20-29) observed in rodent sequences may inhibit an intramolecular conformation required for amyloid formation³⁶ (Figure 1.3).

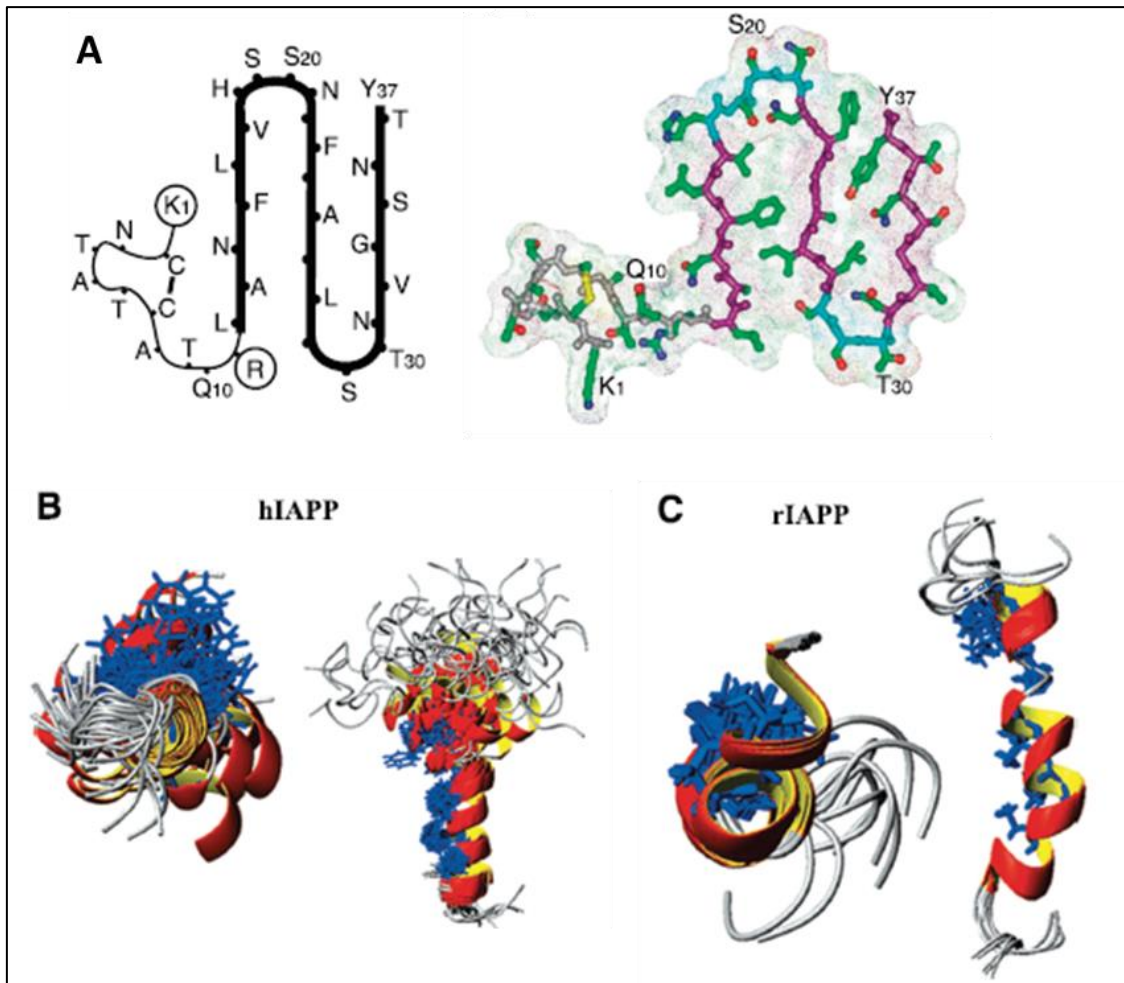


Figure 1.3 Structure of human and rat IAPP. A) Proposed model of hIAPP in the β -serpentine fold with the indication of three β -strands. The first 11 amino acid residues contain a disulfide-bonded loop, which is incompatible with extending the serpentine on this side (left). Ball-and-stick representation of the β -serpentine model. The backbones of the β -strands are represented in purple and the loops in blue (right). Adapted from Kajava *et al.*, 2005³⁸. B) Three dimensional structure of hIAPP and (C) rIAPP in the presence of dodecylphosphocholine micelles. hIAPP and rIAPP have both an ordered helical structure at NH_2 terminus and distorted COOH terminus. The rIAPP has a rigid NH_2 terminus that is bent toward of amphipathic helix whereas the NH_2 terminus of hIAPP is more flexible. hIAPP – human IAPP; rIAPP – rodent IAPP. Adapted from Nanga *et al.*, 2009³⁹.

The molecular triggers for hIAPP fibril formation are not yet known. The presence of the amyloidogenic regions is one associated issue. The fact that fibrilization does not happen in all individuals suggests that there are cellular mechanisms ensuring the proper hIAPP folding to a monomeric form. Several *in vitro* studies suggested that the environment of the secretory vesicles favors the correct conformation of hIAPP and that insulin is a potent inhibitor of fibril formation. Changes such as hIAPP overexpression, as a consequence of insulin resistance, may disrupt the homeostasis of the vesicles resulting in hIAPP aggregation^{40,41}. However, overexpression of hIAPP in the first transgenic mice models proved to be insufficient for amyloid formation suggesting that additional factors must influence amyloid deposition in T2DM^{42,43}.

The impairment of hIAPP degradation system has been also associated with amyloid formation. In conditions where hIAPP levels exceed the degradation capacity of IDE, either by increased hIAPP expression or decreased expression or activity of IDE, the balance change from degradation to deposition²⁹. This is clearly illustrated by the notion that insulinoma cell models treated with exogenous hIAPP, in which IDE was inhibited with bacitracin, amyloid formation and cell toxicity were increased⁴⁴.

T2DM is associated with chronically hyperglycemia and oxidative stress⁴⁵, which contribute to the formation of Advanced glycation end products (AGE). Evidences have shown that AGE modification converts hIAPP into a higher amyloidogenic form than the unmodified peptide⁴⁶.

Increased ratios of secreted proinsulin/insulin are observed in T2DM and both hIAPP and insulin are processed by the action of the same enzymes, PC1/3 and PC2^{24,47}. Thus, it is plausible to consider that inefficient pro-hIAPP (pIAPP) processing also occurs in T2DM. It was demonstrated that pIAPP has the typical properties of an amyloidogenic peptide⁴⁸ and there is immunological evidence for the presence of pIAPP in amyloid deposits^{24,49}. Consequently, the increase of pIAPP levels may contribute to islet amyloid deposition¹³. According to these evidences, it is suggested that β -cell dysfunction is associated with folding and/or trafficking impairment resulting in the increase of misfolded/unprocessed hIAPP in the secretory vesicles. The release of these hIAPP forms from the vesicles may expose them to an environment promoting additional structural changes favoring fibril formation. Besides, misfolded pIAPP/hIAPP in secretory granules may induce the granule contents to be targeted to lysosomal degradation⁵⁰. This argues that amyloid formation starts intracellularly, with the fibrils being released into the extracellular space after cell death. Once these fibrils are formed, they provide the seed required to the amyloid accumulation¹³.

1.2.4 Mechanisms of toxicity

Several mechanisms of hIAPP-induced toxicity have been proposed although the exact causes of β -cell death are still unclear. Initially, it was thought that large fibrils were the most pathological species that triggers the disease, but a growing number of evidences indicate that soluble oligomers are the cytotoxic agents⁵¹.

Membrane permeabilization by toxic oligomers is one of the proposed mechanisms. It has been reported that hIAPP oligomers form pore-like structures in cell membranes, such as the ER and mitochondria and the plasma membrane as well (Figure 1.4). Nonselective plasma membrane leakage occurs followed by Ca^{2+} dysregulation and hyper-activation of calpain⁵². Calpain belongs to a cytosolic cysteine proteinase family that requires Ca^{2+} for activity and plays a role in various biological processes as cell migration, cytoskeletal remodeling, cell differentiation and apoptosis. Studies in cells exposed to hIAPP aggregates also indicate the loss of mitochondrial membrane potential, ATP depletion and other mitochondrial associated damage⁵³. The intracellular accumulation of protein aggregates are known to produce chronic stress beyond the capacity of the ER, potentially leading to cellular death by inducing CHOP and caspases (Figure 1.4). In fact, it was shown that increased expression of hIAPP in INS-1 cells and transgenic rats leads to ER stress-induced apoptosis⁵⁴.

Chronic inflammation may be a significant factor in amyloid toxicity and it is frequently observed in local and systemic amyloidosis. hIAPP aggregates can contribute to cell dysfunction triggering a localized inflammatory response by stimulating the inflammasome and consequently IL- 1β , which is thought to play a direct role in hIAPP induced β -cell dysfunction and death^{55,56} (Figure 1.4). In addition to this notion, it was observed that the internalization of IAPP aggregates by resident macrophages in pancreatic tissue secrete multiple inflammatory cytokines, including IL- 1β ⁵⁷.

Elevated levels of hIAPP may also reduce the efficiency of the Ubiquitin Proteasome System (UPS), responsible to target numerous cellular proteins for degradation. Studies in human islets have shown that increased hIAPP levels downregulate, by unknown mechanisms, the expression of Ubiquitin Carboxyl-terminal hydrolase (UCH-L1), an enzyme essential for proteolytic degradation by the proteasome (Figure 1.4). Impaired UPS response may ultimately lead to aggregation and toxicity⁵⁸.

There are also evidences that hIAPP aggregates in transgenic mice impairs lysosome-dependent degradation in β -cells that may lead to cell apoptosis (Figure 1.4), although the mechanisms of impairment is still unknown⁵⁹.

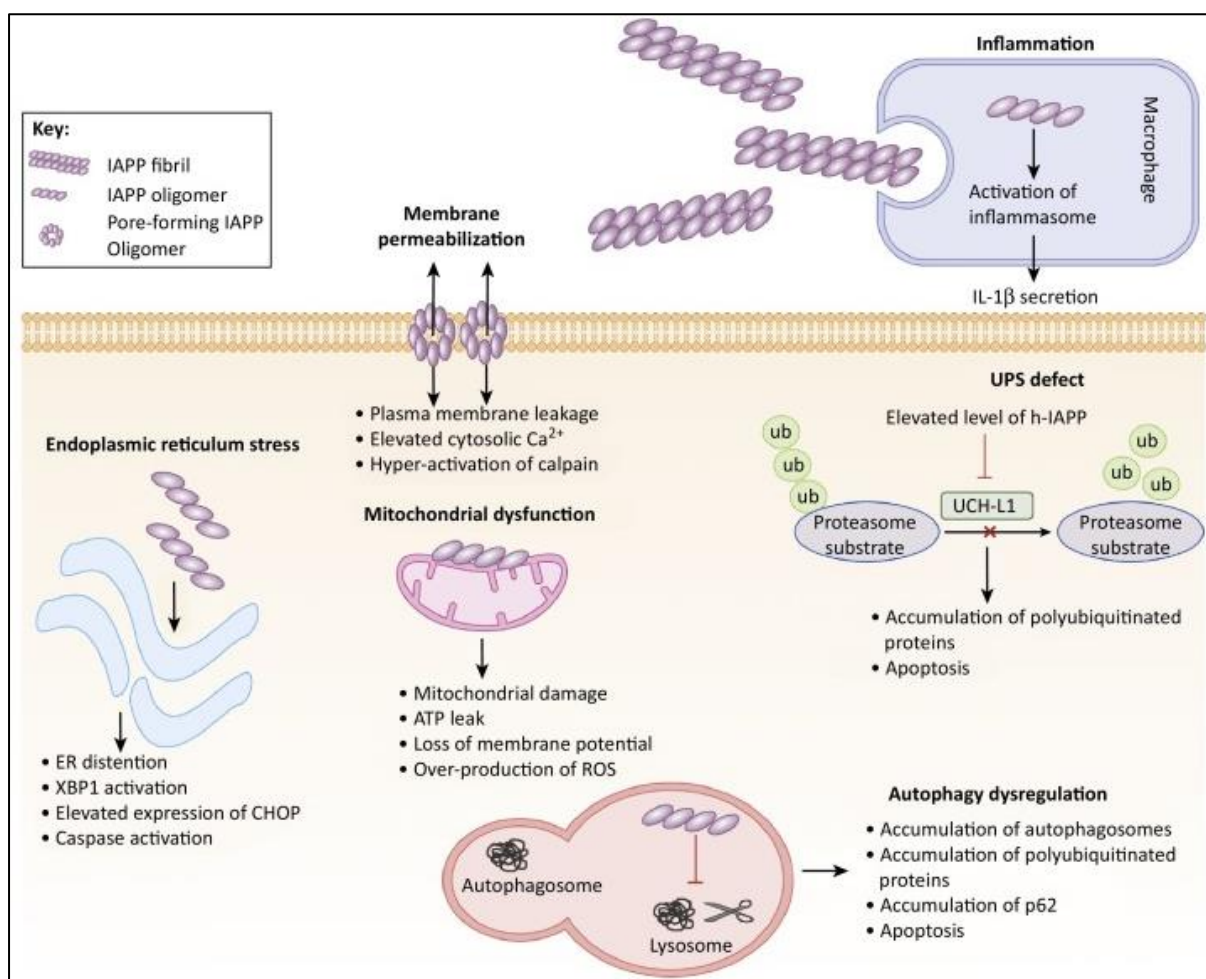


Figure 1.4 Molecular mechanisms of IAPP-induced toxicity. hIAPP oligomers induce membrane permeabilization, impair the function of ER, mitochondria, UPS and autophagy and trigger inflammatory responses. ER – Endoplasmic reticulum; Ub – ubiquitin; XBP1 - X-box binding protein 1; CHOP - CCAAT-enhancer-binding protein homologous protein; ROS - Reactive oxygen species; UCH-L1 - Ubiquitin carboxy-terminal hydrolase L1; hIAPP – human IAPP. Adapted from Mukherjee *et al.*, 2015¹¹³.

1.2.5 Role of islet amyloid in diabetes

The dysfunction and loss of β -cells are key features of T2DM and attributed to several factors including glucolipotoxicity, inflammation, accumulation of cholesterol and islet amyloid formation⁶⁰. The cytotoxic properties of IAPP are well described, however, the role of IAPP amyloids in DM onset and progression is still a subject of discussion^{61,62}. It is not yet clear whether the formation of IAPP amyloids is a cause or a consequence of T2DM but it is proposed that hyperinsulinemia, accompanied by high levels of IAPP, promotes IAPP oligomerization. This pathological process ultimately may also contribute to the development of insulin insufficiency by promoting the β -cell failure⁶³.

IAPP amyloid deposition may as well reduce β -cell replication and it was proposed that replicating cells are more vulnerable to apoptosis induced by small oligomers of hIAPP⁶⁴. It was also shown that hIAPP amyloids are associated with decline of β -cell replication in transplanted graft of transgenic mice, explaining at least partially the non-immune loss of β -cells and recurrence of hyperglycemia following islet transplantation⁶⁵.

Although IAPP amyloids are most commonly associated with T2DM, it was recently shown that a group of children and adolescents with classical T1DM have high IAPP concentrations in plasma at the clinical onset of the disease. Hence, it is speculated that increased IAPP levels may also be a risk factor for oligomerization and β -cell destruction in T1DM⁶⁶.

Oligomerized IAPP accumulates not only in pancreas but as well in the kidneys of patients with diabetic nephropathy. It was described the presence of IAPP aggregates in kidney biopsies being the deposition well correlated with disease severity and it is suggested that renal IAPP deposition may contribute to diabetic renal lesion⁶⁷.

IAPP deposits were also detected in the heart of obese and T2DM individuals and it was proposed that this accumulation accelerates the development of cardiac dysfunction⁶⁸. High levels of small IAPP aggregates have been also found in non-failing hearts from overweight and obese individuals indicating that cardiac IAPP deposition may start in early phases of insulin resistance and pre-diabetes⁶⁸.

In other study it was demonstrated that IAPP accumulates in the brain and in both blood vessels and perivascular spaces of patients suffering from Alzheimer's disease or dementia and T2DM. A curious outcome of the study is the finding of IAPP deposits in the brain of Alzheimer's disease patients without diabetes suggesting that these patients may suffer from insulin resistance⁶⁹. IAPP oligomers deposit in the brain as independent plaques or co-precipitates with amyloid- β . For this reason IAPP has been considered a second amyloid contributing to the pathology of age-related neurodegenerative disorders⁶⁹.

The absence of IAPP transcripts in human brain indicates that IAPP is not locally expressed, instead it is assumed that IAPP expressed in the pancreas circulates in the bloodstream being thus distributed to target tissues. Indeed, it was possible to detect IAPP tetramers in plasma samples of patients by immunoblotting⁶⁹. This is an important result that supports the exploitation of IAPP oligomers as a biomarker for early DM diagnosis. Another aspect that should be considered is the consequences of IAPP over secretion as a result of treatments stimulating insulin production⁷⁰.

1.3 Experimental models of IAPP aggregation and amyloid formation

Several spontaneous and genetically modified animal models have been used to study the consequences of IAPP amyloid formation. Non-human primates are the closest to humans whereas domestic cats have also been used as they develop diabetes associated with the deposition of IAPP. In both models, it was demonstrated that IAPP deposition precedes the fasting hyperglycemia in animals with impaired glucose tolerance^{71,72}. These models have provided strong evidences that IAPP deposits early in the pathogenesis of T2DM. However, the use of these animal models is very expensive and challenging so several lines of transgenic mice expressing hIAPP have been developed. As observed in humans, the expression of amyloidogenic IAPP forms in mice is not by itself enough to induce islet amyloid formation^{43,73}, even though one group had described that small deposits of fibrillary material were present within the secretory granules⁷⁴. The initial studies with these mice were performed in a normal metabolic environment and these observations strongly suggested that the presence of impaired β -cell function is required for amyloid fibril formation. In fact, IAPP amyloid formation is promoted by inducing obesity and/or insulin resistance in these models^{75,76}.

Transgenic mice have been valuable models to understand the consequences of IAPP amyloid formation. Nevertheless, more amenable models are required to deep investigate the molecular mechanisms underlying IAPP-induced β -cell dysfunction. Mammalian cells represent a suitable model to study hIAPP aggregation and the mechanism of intracellular oligomerization. A study using transfected COS-1 cells established that high levels of hIAPP expression, but not rIAPP, results in intracellular aggregation⁷⁷. These results were in agreement with *in vitro* studies showing that hIAPP amyloid fibrils are cytotoxic to human and rat islet cells⁶². Even though pancreatic β -cells from mammals represent a valuable model to IAPP oligomerization, their use is limited by the highly specialized culture conditions⁷⁸.

1.4 Yeast as a protein misfolding disorder model

The yeast *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* is a commonly used eukaryotic model organism whose genome can be easily manipulated. The features that make yeast a versatile experimental system include a well-defined genetic system, rapid growth, ease of plating and mutant isolation, and a highly versatile DNA transformation system. In addition, yeast is a nonpathogenic organism that provides a cheap source for studying complex biological processes⁷⁹. Yeast allowed the clarification of basic cellular mechanisms as DNA replication, cell cycle progression, protein turnover, vesicular trafficking, signal transduction and mechanisms involved in longevity and cell death⁸⁰. The fundamental cellular processes are well conserved between yeast and humans and about 31% of the yeast genes have a mammalian homologue⁸¹. In addition, about 30% of human disease genes known to be involved in human diseases may have a yeast orthologue^{81,82}. In turn, human genes that do not have a yeast orthologue can be heterologously expressed originating the so called humanized yeast models⁸³.

PMDs differ in their pathophysiology but share a common feature that is the accumulation of protein aggregates. Protein folding is a critical process for the maintenance of life, thus intricate cellular mechanisms, conserved from yeast to humans, have evolved to ensure that proteins are correctly folded⁸⁴. Thus, yeast can provide a valuable tool to explore the mechanisms behind aberrant protein aggregation⁸⁵. Humanized yeast models expressing disease proteins associated with PMDs have allowed major advances in the understanding of the fundamental pathological processes of human diseases^{86,87}. Many aspects of hIAPP proteotoxicity remain to be elucidated and yeast models emerge as useful tools to address the molecular mechanisms underpinning hIAPP oligomerization.

A yeast model of hIAPP aggregation was developed (Menezes *et al.*, unpublished data) to support the study of hIAPP pathophysiology. The humanized IAPP yeast models consist of the fusion of the cDNA corresponding to unprocessed and processed IAPP forms fused to Green fluorescent protein (GFP) inserted in the backbone of the episomal vector pRS426 (Figure 4.1). Expression of the chimeric proteins is regulated by the yeast *GAL1* promoter, allowing tight repression by glucose and ready activation in the presence of galactose⁸⁸. Preliminary data indicate that hIAPP overexpression in yeast recapitulates the formation of intracellular aggregates and cytotoxicity, observed in mammalian cells, supporting the use of these models to investigate the fundamental mechanisms of hIAPP proteotoxicity and to screen for protective molecules.

2. Aims

The study had three major goals:

- (1) The optimization of humanized yeast model of IAPP oligomerization through the integration of human ppIAPP and pIAPP constructs into the yeast genome;
- (2) The investigation of the cytotoxic properties of mature and unprocessed hIAPP forms;
- (3) The evaluation of hIAPP oligomers as a potential indicator of diabetes.

3. Materials and Methods

3.1 Bacterial strain and growth conditions

Escherichia coli (*E. coli*) [*recA1endA1 gyrA96 thi-1 hsdR17 supE44 relA1 lacI* [F'*proAB lacIqZDM15 Tn10 (Tet_r)*]] was used for cloning purposes and plasmid propagation. Cells were grown at 37 °C in Luria-Bertani (LB) Broth [5 g/L yeast extract (Himedia, India); 10 g/L tryptone (Difco, USA); 10 g/L NaCl (PanReac AppliChem, Spain); 100 µg/mL ampicillin (Amresco, USA)] for 16 h under orbital agitation at 200 rpm (Agitorb 200 IC, Norconcessus, Portugal).

3.2 Cloning

The plasmids used in this study are listed in Supplementary Material (Table 7.1).

For the construction of integrative recombinant vectors, DNA from p426_pphIAPP and p426_phIAPP was double digested with *SacI* (New England Biolabs, USA) and *KpnI* (New England Biolabs), resolved in 1% agarose gel [agarose electrophoresis grade (Invitrogen life technologies, UK), 40 mM Tris base; 20 mM Acetic acid; 1 mM EDTA (TAE); 5 µg/mL Ethidium bromide (Sigma Aldrich, USA)] and purified with Gel DNA Recovery Kit (Zymoclean Research, USA). The purified DNA was then cloned into the *SacI/KpnI* restriction sites of pRS304 and pRS306 vectors. The ligation reaction was performed using 2.5 ng/µL of vector and 7.5 ng/µL of insert, according to manufacturer's instructions (Thermo Scientific, USA). The reactions were incubated for 1 h at 22°C, followed by 16 h at 16°C, after which they were used for bacterial transformation.

3.3 Preparation of competent *Escherichia coli* and transformation

Competent cells were prepared as previously described⁸⁹. For the transformation, DNA (30 ng of plasmid DNA or 5 µL of the ligation reaction) was added to competent *E. coli* suspension and incubated on ice for 30 min, followed by a heat-shock at 42°C for 45 s. After 1 min incubation in ice, cells were resuspended in 800 µL of SOC [5 g/L yeast extract; 20 g/L tryptone; 5 M NaCl; 1 M KCl (Merck, Germany); 1 M MgCl₂ (Merck, Germany); 1 M MgSO₄ (Merck, Germany); 1 M glucose (Sigma-Aldrich, USA)] and incubated for 1 h at 37°C, with orbital agitation at 200 rpm. Cells were pelleted by centrifugation for 1 min at 6000 g and plated onto LB agar media supplemented with ampicillin (100 µg/mL). After incubation overnight at 37°C, single colonies were inoculated in 2 mL liquid LB/ampicillin media for plasmid DNA extraction.

3.3.1 DNA extraction

The kit ZR Plasmid Miniprep-Classic (Zymo Research, USA) was used to purify plasmid DNA. Briefly, cells suspensions were centrifuged for 1 min at 14000 g and the resulting pellets were resuspended in 200 µL of P1 Buffer. 200 µL of P2 buffer was mixed to the cells suspensions by inverting the tubes 2-4 times to promote the complete cell lysis. Neutralization of the samples was performed by adding 400 µL of P3 buffer. The samples were centrifuged for 3 min at 14000 g and the supernatant was transferred to a Zymo-Spin™ IIN column attached to a collection tube, followed by centrifugation for 30 s at 14000 g. The DNA in the column was washed twice by adding 200 µL of Endo-Wash Buffer and 200 µL of Plasmid wash, followed by a centrifugation step. The Zymo-Spin™ IIN column was transferred to an Eppendorf and 50 µL of DNA elution buffer were added to the column, followed by a centrifugation for 1 min at 14000 g. Plasmid DNA was stored at -20°C. Analytical agarose gels were used to monitor the *SacI/KpnI* restriction patterns of plasmid DNA. The GeneRuler 1 kb DNA Ladder (Thermo Scientific, USA) was used as a molecular weight marker. The identity of novel recombinant clones was checked by DNA sequencing analysis.

3.4 Yeast strains and growth conditions

The *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* strain W303-1A (MATa *can1-100 his3-11,15 leu2-3,112 trp1-1 ura3-1 ade2-1*) was used in all the experiments (Table 7.2, supplementary material). It was grown in YPD medium [10 g/L yeast extract; 20 g/L peptone (Himedia, India); 20 g/L glucose]. The selection of cells encoding plasmids was done in Synthetic Defined (SD) dropout media lacking specific amino acids [0.77 g/L Complete Supplement Mixture-Uracil (CSM-Ura) (MP biomedical, USA) or CSM-6AA (MP biomedical, USA) plus the required amino acids; 0.67 g/L Yeast Nitrogen Base (YNB) (Difco, USA); 1% (w/v) raffinose (Sigma-Aldrich, China)]. For all experiments, a pre-inoculum was prepared by inoculating one singly colony from agar plates in 3 mL of SD-raffinose and cells were grown overnight at 30°C under orbital agitation at 200 rpm. The optical density (OD) at 600 nm (OD_{600}) of cultures was measured (Plate spectrophotometer Power Wave XS, Biotek) and cultures were diluted in fresh SD-raffinose medium to obtain a culture with a final $OD_{600} = 0.2 \pm 0.02$ after 16 h, according to the equation:

$$OD_i \times V_i = \frac{OD_f}{2^{t/gt}} \times V_f \quad \text{Equation 3.1}$$

Where OD_i = initial optical density of the culture, V_i = initial volume of culture, OD_f = final optical density of the culture, t = time (16 h), gt = generation time of the strain, V_f = final volume of culture. OD_{600} readings were performed in the plate spectrophotometer Power Wave XS (Biotek).

3.4.1 Yeast transformation

Yeast was incubated in YPD medium overnight at 30°C under orbital agitation at 200 rpm and diluted to obtain a culture to a final OD_{600} of 0.1 ± 0.01 . Cell cultures were incubated for 3.5 h, centrifuged (1500 g for 5 min) and cells were washed with sterile H_2O . The supernatant was discarded, the pellet was resuspended in 1 mL of TE/LiAc [Tris 0.1 M (Carl Roth, Germany); EDTA 10 mM (VWR, Belgium); 100 mM Lithium acetate (Sigma-Aldrich, USA)] and cells suspensions were centrifuged at 6000 g. The competent cells were resuspended in TE/LiAc. The transformation mixture was prepared as follows: 5 μ L of denaturated DNA from salmon sperm (10 μ g/ μ L) (Sigma-Aldrich, USA); 1-2 μ L of plasmid DNA; 50 μ L of competent cells, 300 μ L of PEG/TE/LiAc [40% polyethylene glycol (PEG); TE/LiAc]. Integrative plasmids were linearized with *Pst*I (New England BioLabs, USA) enzyme before yeast transformation.

Cells suspensions were first incubated for 30 min at 30°C and then for 20 min at 42°C. Cells were washed with water, pelleted by centrifugation and plated onto SD-Uracil (Ura), SD-Tryptophan (Trp) or SD-Ura-Trp agar. Plates were incubated for 48 h at 30°C.

3.4.2 Phenotypic assays

For the phenotypic growth assays, cells were grown in SD-raffinose medium to OD_{600} nm 0.1 ± 0.01 and the OD_{600} nm was adjusted to 0.05 ± 0.005 . Serial dilutions were performed with a ratio of 1:3, and 5 μ L of each dilution was spotted onto solid medium containing glucose [0.77 g/L CSM-Ura or CSM-6AA; 0.67 g/L YNB; standard concentrations of the appropriate amino acids; and 2% (w/v) glucose] or galactose [0.77 g/L CSM-Ura or CSM-6AA; 0.67 g/L YNB; standard concentrations of the appropriate amino acids and 2% (w/v) galactose (Sigma®, Germany)] as the sole carbon sources. Protein expression was regulated by the yeast *GALI* promoter, allowing tight repression by glucose and ready activation in the presence of galactose⁸⁸. Growth was recorded after 48 h incubation at 30°C. Images were acquired using Chemidoc™ XRS and Quantity-one® software.

3.4.3 Growth curves

Cell cultures pre-grown in raffinose medium were diluted to $OD_{600} 0.03 \pm 0.003$ in medium containing glucose or galactose. The cultures, 3 biological samples and 3 technical replicates, in a total of 9 replicates, were then incubated at 30°C with shaking for 24 h in a spectrophotometer microplate reader (PowerWave XS Biotek) and cellular growth was monitored hourly by measuring OD_{600} . The data was analyzed using the R studio software. The R package `grofit`⁹⁰ was used to adjust a model-based. The selected models were the Gompertz model, the Gompertz exponential model and the Richards model established by Akaike information criterion (AIC). The growth parameters were estimated from the best model fit. The best model fit and corresponding points were represented graphically. The lag phase, the maximum cell growth, the cell doubling time at maximum growth and the area under curve (AUC) were estimated and represented as 95% confidence intervals.

3.4.4 Fluorescence microscopy

Fluorescence microscopy was used to monitor IAPP subcellular dynamics. Cell cultures, obtained as indicated above, were centrifuged at 2000 g for 5 min and resuspended in SD-galactose to induce IAPP expression. Cells were incubated for 6 h at 30°C and 500 μ L of cell suspension were collected by centrifugation at 2000 g for 2.5 min. Cell pellets were washed with 500 μ L of phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) and centrifuged at the same conditions. Slides were prepared using 4 μ L of cell suspensions and were visualized using a fluorescence microscope (Leica DM6B widefield fluorescence microscope equipped with a Leica Application Suitex software version 1.90.13747 with a cooled CCD camera, Roper Scientific Coolsnap HQ). Images were analyzed using Fiji-ImageJ1.51j8, USA.

3.4.5 Protein Extraction

After 6 h induction of IAPP expression in SD-galactose medium, the OD_{600} of cell suspensions were measured and a normalized number of cells were collected by centrifugation for 4 min at 2500 g. Total protein extracts were obtained using the TCA (trichloroacetic acid) extraction method⁹¹. Cell pellets were incubated for 20 min with TCA (Sigma-Aldrich, USA) and after centrifugation for 3 min at 15000 g, they were washed with acetone (Fluka Biochemika, USA). The pellets were resuspended in 200 μ L of MURB buffer [50mM sodium phosphate (Fluka Biochemika, Germany); 25mM MES (Sigma-Aldrich, USA); 1% Sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS) (Merck, Germany); 3 M urea (Carl Roth, Germany); 0,5% β -mercaptoethanol (Sigma-Aldrich, Germany); 1 mM sodium azide (Carl Roth, Germany); proteases and phosphatases inhibitors]. Cells were lysed by 3 cycles of vortexing and incubation on ice. Samples were incubated at 70°C for 10 min and supernatant was collected by centrifugation for 1 min at 10000 g. Protein extracts were stored at -80°C or resolved on a SDS-PAGE gel.

3.5 Protein Quantification

A calibration curve was performed using bovine serum albumin (BSA) serial dilutions, ranging from 1 mg/mL to 0.125 mg/mL. 2 μ L of each BSA dilution or the protein samples were transferred to a microplate. 100 μ L of Bradford Reagent (Bio-Rad, USA) was mixed to the plate and incubated for 10-15 min in the dark. Three technical replicates were done for each sample.

Absorbance was measured at 595 nm and a calibration curve was plotted. The curve was checked for linearity and the concentration of the protein samples were estimated using the calibration curve.

3.6 SDS-PAGE and Immunoblotting

Samples were loaded on 10% SDS gels [30% Acrylamide mix, (Carl Roth, Germany); 1.5 M tris.HCl; 0.5 M tris HCl; 10% SDS; 10%, ammonium persulfate (APS) (G-Biosciences, USA); tetramethylethylenediamine (TEMED) (Merck, Germany)] and transferred to polyvinylidene fluoride (PVDF) membranes (Bio-Rad, USA) using a trans-blot turbo transfer system (Bio-Rad, USA) for 7 min at 25 V. The membranes were boiled for 5 min in PBS to expose the epitopes and improve protein signals⁹². Ponceau S [0, 2% (w/v) Ponceau S (Merck, Germany); 3% (w/v) TCA; 3% (w/v) sulfosalicylic acid (Merck, Germany)] staining was performed as a control of the transference procedure. The membranes were immersed in the Ponceau S solution for 5 min and washed with bi-distilled water to reveal the presence of the protein bands. The membranes were blocked for 1 h in TBS-T milk [5% skimmed milk (Nestlé, Portugal) prepared in TBS containing 0.01% (v/v) tween20 (Sigma-Aldrich, USA)] (TBS-T) at room temperature, followed by overnight incubation at 4°C with the primary antibody diluted in TBS-T. The antibodies used are listed in Table 3.1. The membranes were washed 3 times with TBS-T and incubated for 2 h with horseradish peroxidase-conjugated secondary antibodies. The signals were detected using Enhanced Chemiluminescence Prime Western blotting detection reagent (GE Healthcare) in the Chemidoc Equipment XRS (Bio-Rad).

Table 3.1. Antibodies used in this study.

Primary Antibody (1:1000)	Target	Source	Secondary Antibody (1:5000)	Source
Rabbit Sera A133	Human IAPP (residues 20-29)	Kindly provided by Gunilla Westermark ²⁴	Goat anti-rabbit	Pierce, USA
Anti-GFP	GFP amino acids 1-238	Santa Cruz Biotechnology, USA	Anti-mouse	
Mouse Monoclonal Antibody Anti-Pgk1	Yeast Pgk1 (3-Phosphoglyceric Phosphokinase)	Life Technologies, USA		

3.7 Plasma samples

Plasma samples were collected at APDP (*Associação Protectora de Diabéticos de Portugal*) in EDTA tubes (BD), centrifuged at 3500 rpm for 10 min and stored at -80°C in aliquots of 200 µL. Total protein content was quantified by the Bradford method and 100 µg, 25 µg and 15 µg of total protein was dissolved in TBS and Protein Sample Buffer [0.24 M Tris; 18% β-Mercaptoetanol (Sigma-Aldrich, USA); 8% SDS; 40% Glycerol (Sigma-Aldrich, Germany); 0.1% Bromophenol Blue, pH 6.8). The samples were heated for 10 min at 45°C and resolved in a SDS-PAGE gel⁹³. Immunoblotting was performed as indicated above.

4. Results

4.1 Optimization of humanized yeast models of IAPP aggregation

One of the main advantages of working with *S. cerevisiae* as a model organism is the availability of a wide selection of vectors that can be used for various purposes. Usually, they are shuttle vectors that can be amplified in bacteria and expressed in yeast, making them useful tools for gene cloning and molecular biology approaches⁹⁴.

In yeast, shuttle vectors are maintained either extrachromosomally or by integration into the genome. The centromeric and multi-copy vectors replicate autonomously from CEN and 2 μ replication origin sequences, respectively. The transformation process is usually very efficient, resulting in 10⁴ - 10⁵ transformants per μ g of DNA. 2 μ -driven plasmids can be found at 20-50 copies per cell. Though, these plasmids are unstable being lost at a frequency of 0.2-2% per generation⁹⁵.

Yeast integrative plasmids lack autonomous replication functions in yeast being its replication associated with chromosome duplication during cell division. They are useful to integrate or disrupt genes in the yeast genome by homologous recombination. The frequency of integration is very low (1-10 transformants per μ g of DNA). Nevertheless, the transformation frequency can be increased 10-1000 fold following plasmid linearization with restriction enzymes⁹⁵. Integrated DNA sequences are usually very stable, but can be lost at a frequency of approximately 0.1-2% per generation⁹⁵. For the selection of recombinant cells, the yeast vectors encode auxotrophic marker genes, which complement the corresponding mutation in the host yeast genome and restore a given biosynthetic pathway⁹⁶.

hIAPP overexpression has been pointed as a risk factor for intracellular aggregation^{74,97,98}. Thus, the study of hIAPP proteotoxicity was first addressed in the host laboratory by the cloning of the cDNA corresponding to the unprocessed and mature hIAPP fused to GFP into the multi-copy yeast vector pRS426 (Menezes *et al.*, unpublished)(Figure 4.1).

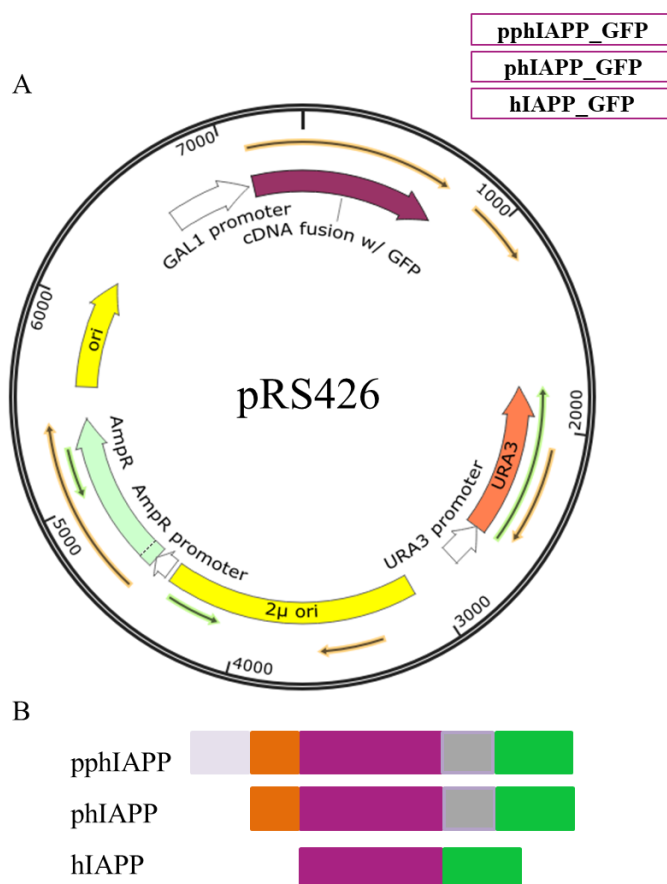


Figure 4.1 Schematic representation of the constructions to express hIAPP in yeast. A) Diagram of the pRS426 vector designed by the SnapGene software (GSL Biotech; available at snapgene.com) with the indication of *GAL1* promoter (white) driven the expression of pphIAPP, phIAPP and hIAPP cDNA fusions with GFP (purple) and the main features of the vector. B) Schematic representation of pphIAPP, phIAPP and hIAPP with the indication of processed amino acid sequences (grey and orange) and the GFP tag (green). Ori – replication origin; AmpR – ampicillin resistance gene (encoding for β -lactamase); GFP – green fluorescent protein; pphIAPP – prepro human IAPP; phIAPP – pro human IAPP; hIAPP – human IAPP.

Data obtained using these models indicated that overexpression of hIAPP in yeast leads to aggregation and cytotoxicity (Menezes *et al.*, unpublished), recapitulating the main features of IAPP toxicity in β -cells. In addition, unprocessed hIAPP forms were shown to be slightly more toxic than the mature one (Menezes *et al.* unpublished), in accordance with the notion that inefficient hIAPP processing may be associated with β -cell cytotoxicity. Although the humanized yeast models of IAPP aggregation are very promising, they presented some limitations. The instability inherent to multi-copy vectors, particularly regarding the expression of unprocessed hIAPP forms, led to difficulties in the interpretation of results.

To overcome this limitation, it was decided to integrate the same constructions, as indicated in Figure 4.1 B, into the yeast genome. The construction of novel hIAPP recombinant strains took into consideration two important aspects: (a) the *locus* of integration can affect the strength of expression^{93,99} and (b) the expression of a single copy of hIAPP constructions could not be enough to promote aggregation and cytotoxicity, as described for α -synuclein⁸⁶. To address these issues, two integrative plasmids, driven integration into the *TRP1* (pRS304) and the *URA3* (pRS306) *loci* and restoring tryptophan and uracil prototrophy respectively, were used (Figure 7.1 supplementary material). The inserts carrying the pphIAPP-GFP and phIAPP-GFP sequences were obtained from the respective pRS426 constructions (Table 7.1 supplementary material) by digestion with *SacI/KpnI* and after agarose gel purification they were ligated into pRS304 and pRS306 previously digested with the same enzymes (Table 7.1 supplementary material). The ligation reactions were transformed in competent *E. coli* and after DNA purification the positive clones were first selected by restriction analysis (Figure 7.2, supplementary material) and their identities were checked by DNA sequencing analysis. The hIAPP-GFP constructions were previously done using the same cloning strategy (Menezes *et al.*, unpublished).

4.1.1 Cytotoxicity of IAPP upon integration into the yeast genome

The use of galactose inducible *GALI* promoter in yeast allows tight regulation of gene expression according to the carbon source used in culture medium^{100,101}. In the presence of glucose, *GALI* is repressed due to a mechanism called catabolic repression¹⁰⁰. Raffinose alleviates the effect of catabolic repression but gene expression only starts when cells are faced to galactose conditions. Two sets of strains, prototrophic for tryptophan and uracil, were tested. Each set encodes the mature (hIAPP) and two independent clones of each unprocessed hIAPP form (pphIAPP_Trp₁, pphIAPP_Trp₂, pphIAPP_Ura₁, pphIAPP_Ura₂, phIAPP_Trp₁, phIAPP_Trp₂, phIAPP_Ura₁ and phIAPP_Ura₂) under the control of the *GALI* promoter, or the empty vector (E). The strains were serially diluted and plated onto repressing (Glu) or inducing (Gal) media for phenotypic growth assays (Figure 4.2). As expected, all strains exhibited a growth similar to the respective control strain (E) in glucose medium. The only exception was pphIAPP_Ura₁, whose growth seems to be impaired for reasons unrelated to pphIAPP expression. Under galactose conditions, all recombinant strains of the Trp set showed a slight growth impairment in comparison with the respective control strain whereas the phIAPP_Ura₁ was the strain of the Ura set exhibiting reduced growth. These results are in agreement with those obtained with the multi-copy plasmids (Menezes *et al.*, unpublished), however the cytotoxicity levels were shown to be lower when the constructs are integrated in the genome. The clones pphIAPP_Trp₂; phIAPP_Trp₁, pphIAPP_Ura₂ and phIAPP_Ura₂ were selected for further analysis (Table 7.2 supplementary material).

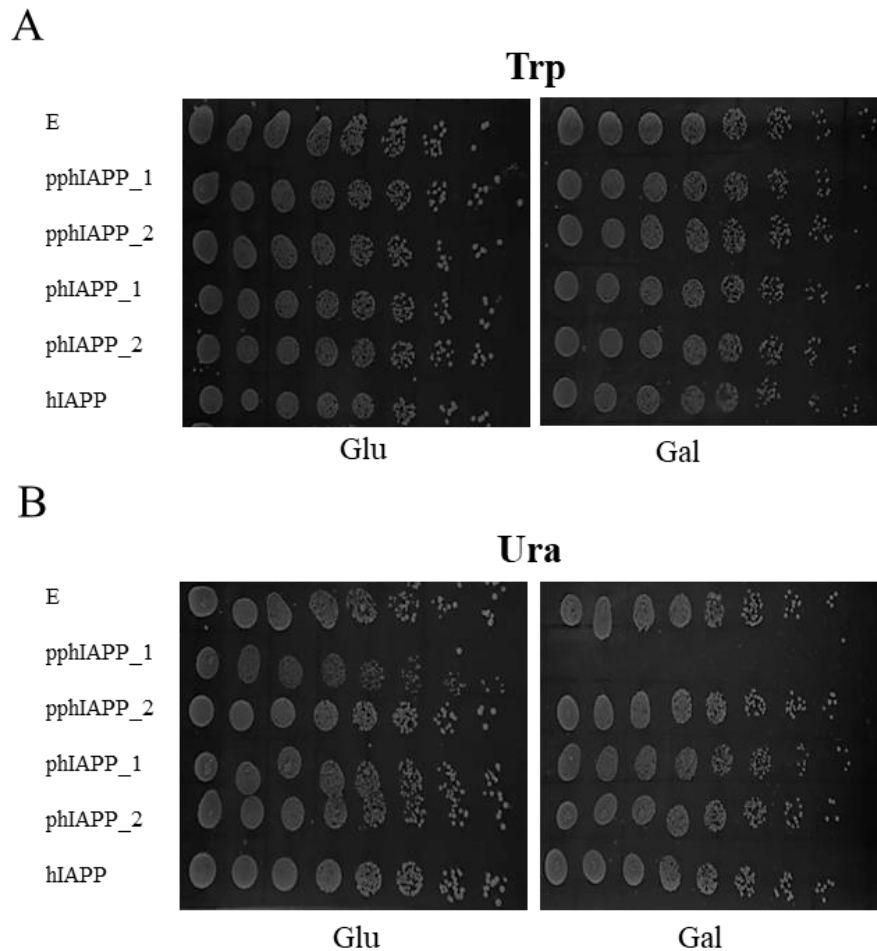


Figure 4.2 Phenotypic growth assays. A) Clones of the Trp set. B) Clones of Ura set. The strains were grown in raffinose medium, serial dilutions were performed with a ratio of 1:3, and 5 μ l of each dilution was spotted onto solid medium containing glucose (Glu) – repressing media – or galactose (Gal) – inducing media. Images were recorded after two days incubation at 30°C. Trp – Tryptophan; Ura – Uracil; E – Empty vector; pphIAPP - prepro human IAPP; piIAPP – pro human IAPP; hIAPP – human IAPP.

As a more refined measurement of cellular growth, the selected strains were subjected to growth curve analysis to evaluate growth parameters potentially affected by the expression of hIAPP. A normalized number of cells were inoculated in galactose medium and cellular growth was monitored hourly for 24 h. The results depicted in Figure 4.3 A-C indicate that growth of all strains from the Trp set was slightly compromised in comparison with the control strain (E). The lag time, which reflects the time required for a cell population to duplicate after the inoculum, is the parameter mostly affected upon pphIAPP and phIAPP expression (Figure 4.3 D-F). Despite the overlap of confidence intervals, there was a tendency for the mean of the recombinant strains to be higher than the mean of the controls. Expression of hIAPP affected majorly the final biomass of the cultures, the lag time and the area under the curve (AUC) in comparison with the respective control strain (Figure 4.3 D-F).

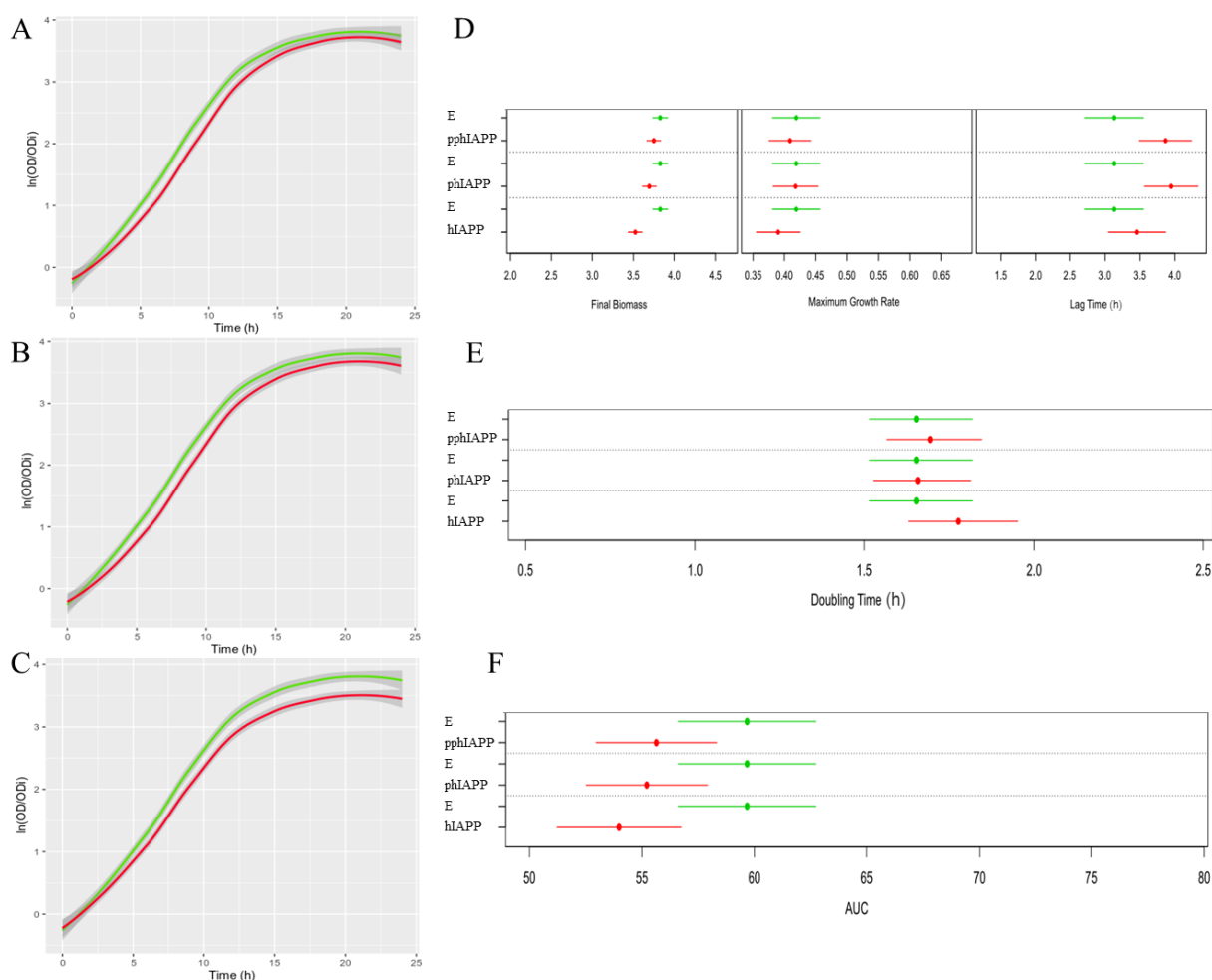


Figure 4.3 Growth curves of strains of the Trp set. Growth was kinetically monitored by OD600 measures and results are expressed as mean values from three independent biological replicates. Growth curves and growth parameters of the humanized strains (red) and the respective controls (green), obtained using an R script are represented. (A) pphIAPP model, (B) phIAPP model (C) hIAPP model. Graphical representation of the confidence intervals with 95% of confidence for (D) the final biomass, maximum growth rate and lag time, (E) doubling time and (F) AUC. Trp – Tryptophan; E – Empty vector; pphIAPP – prepro human IAPP; pIAPP – pro human IAPP; hIAPP – human IAPP; AUC – area under the curve.

The strains from the Ura set were also subjected to growth curve analysis. The growth of pphIAPP was slightly affected in comparison with the control strain (E) whereas phIAPP remained unaltered. Among all strains, the growth of the hIAPP model was the most drastically affected (Figure 4.4 A-C). The final biomass and AUC of the model expressing hIAPP were the parameters showing the highest differences as compared to the control condition (Figure 4.4 D-F). The maximum growth rate and doubling time were also affected. Despite the overlap of confidence intervals, there was a tendency for the increase of the doubling time and reduction of the maximum growth rate.

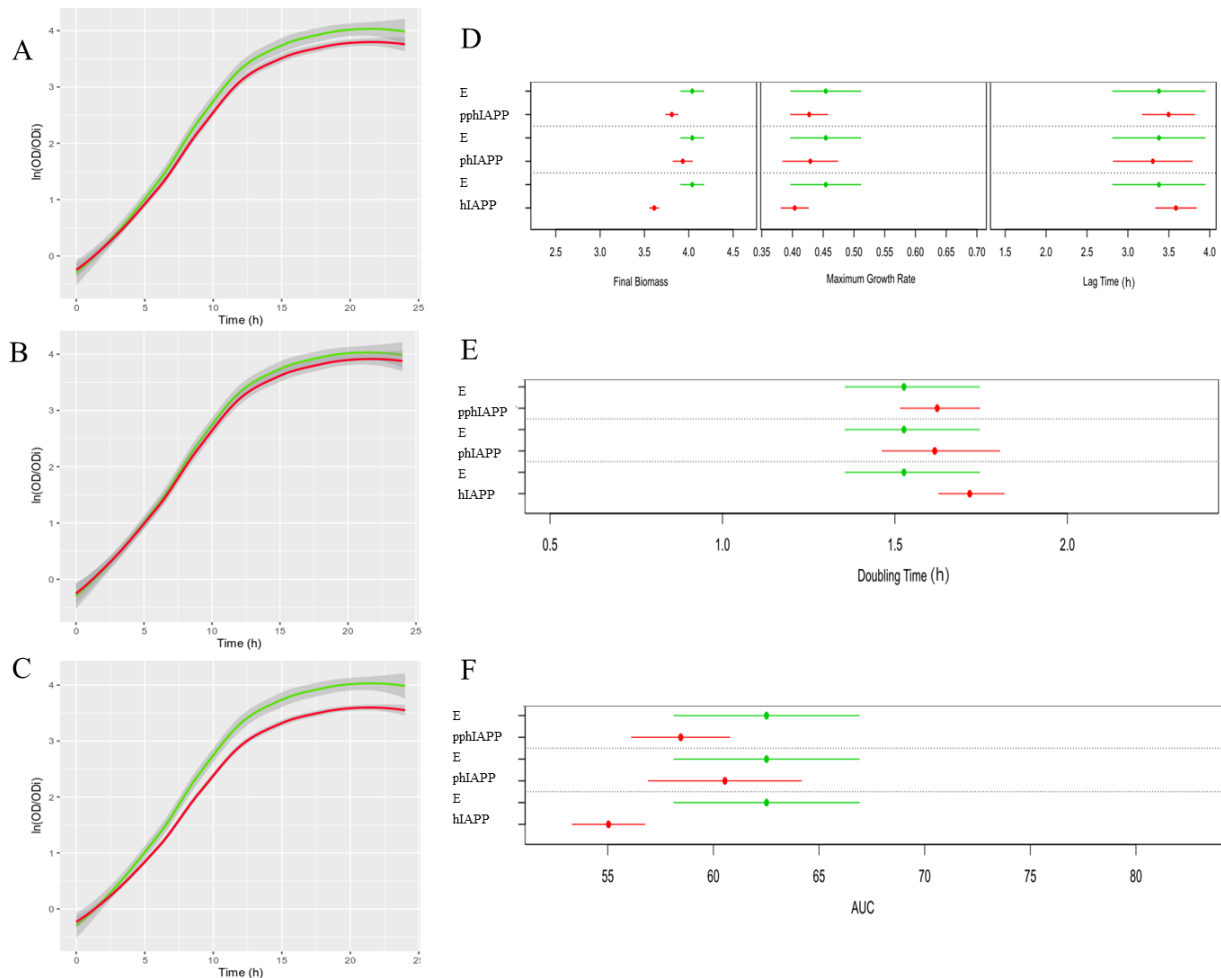


Figure 4.4 Growth curves of strains of the Ura set. Growth was kinetically monitored by OD₆₀₀ measures and results are expressed as mean values from three independent biological replicates. Growth curves and growth parameters of the humanized strains (red) and the respective controls (green), obtained using an R script are represented. (A) pphIAPP model, (B) phiIAPP model (C) hIAPP model. Graphical representation of the confidence intervals with 95% of confidence for (D) the final biomass, maximum growth Rate and lag Time, (E) doubling time and (F) AUC. Ura – uracil; E – Empty vector; pphIAPP - prepro human IAPP; phiIAPP – pro human IAPP; hIAPP – human IAPP; AUC – area under the curve.

In general terms, it can be suggested that hIAPP expression in the strains of Trp set seem to confer a higher degree of toxicity in comparison with the strains of the Ura set. Notwithstanding, hIAPP cytotoxicity observed in these strains is too low and should be improved to increase the robustness of the models.

4.1.2 Subcellular localization of hIAPP

hIAPP subcellular localization was monitored by fluorescence microscopy. As shown in Figure 4.5, similar results were obtained for both the Trp and Ura set of strains. phiIAPP and hIAPP were shown to be dispersed throughout the cytosol and in a cellular compartment resembling the nucleus. However, staining with specific nuclei probes such as 4',6-Diamidine-2'-phenylindole dihydrochloride (DAPI) is required to confirm this issue. No evident hIAPP aggregates could be detected under these conditions (Figure 4.5). Another feature that seems to be associated with hIAPP expression is the presence of large vacuoles. Previous unpublished data from the host laboratory suggests that this phenomenon can be associated with a cellular stress¹⁰², in this case mediated by hIAPP expression.

Unexpectedly, the fluorescence of cells expressing pphIAPP was shown to be almost undetectable, as shown in supplementary material Figure 7.3 A. A possible explanation for this result is the instability of the fusion protein in yeast and/or the removal of the GFP tag after processing of the COOH-terminal region of pphIAPP. This issue will be discussed in more details in the next sections.

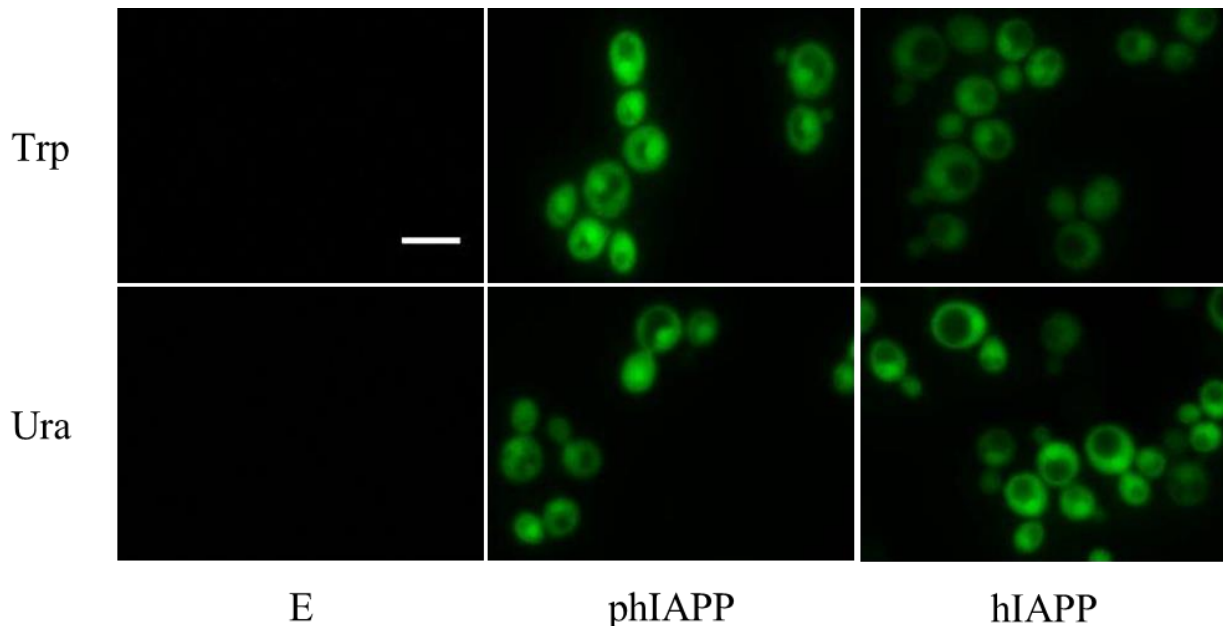


Figure 4.5 Fluorescence microscopy of yeast cells expressing pphIAPP and hIAPP. Cells were first grown in raffinose media and IAPP expression was induced with galactose for 6 h. Scale bar= 10 μ m. Trp – tryptophan; Ura – uracil; E – Empty vector; pPhIAPP – pro human IAPP; hIAPP – human IAPP.

4.2 Generation of humanized yeast models encoding two integrated copies of hIAPP

The previous results had demonstrated a very low level of cytotoxicity when a single copy of the constructions were integrated in the yeast genome, in agreement to what was described for α -synuclein⁸⁶. Therefore, in an effort to increase the robustness of the models a second copy of the respective constructions were integrated in the yeast genome. For that, pphIAPP_Trp₂ cells were transformed with pphIAPP_Ura₂ DNA to generate the strain pphIAPP_Trp-Ura (Table 7.2 supplementary material) encoding two copies of the pphIAPP DNA. A similar approach was used for the generation of the double transformed pPhIAPP strain (Table 7.2 supplementary material), using the pPhIAPP_Trp₁ cells and the DNA of pPhIAPP_Ura₂. The double-transformed hIAPP strain, expressing the mature form, was previously generated using a similar strategy (Menezes *et al.*, unpublished).

4.2.1 Cytotoxicity of the optimized hIAPP models

To evaluate the impact of hIAPP expression in the optimized models, the strains were first grown in raffinose medium and were then serially diluted and plated on repression (Glu) or inducing (Gal) media for phenotypic growth assays (Figure 4.6). Integrating a second copy of the constructions in the yeast genome potentially increases the intracellular accumulation of the respective proteins thus exacerbating their toxic functions. Indeed, the growth of the pPhIAPP_Trp-Ura model was shown to be more dramatically affected in relation to the control strain (Figure 4.6) than the equivalent strains encoding one copy of the hIAPP cDNA (Figure 4.2). Otherwise, the phenotypic growth assays did not show any significant growth impairment of the pphIAPP and the hIAPP strains.

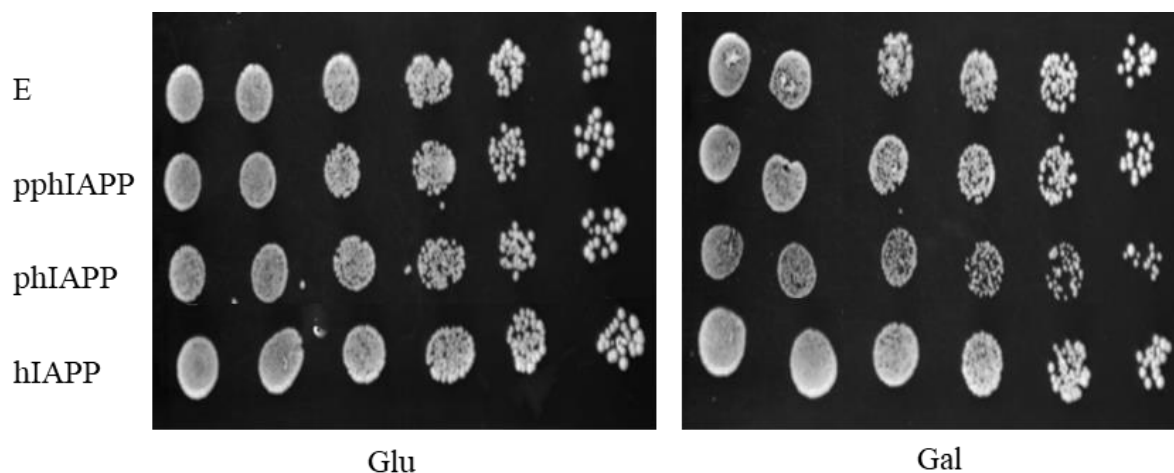


Figure 4.6 Phenotypic growth assays of the humanized yeast models expressing two copies of pphIAPP, pHAPP and hIAPP. The strains were grown in raffinose medium, serial dilutions were performed with a ratio of 1:3, and 5 μ l of each dilution was spotted onto solid medium containing glucose (Glu) – repressing media – or galactose (Gal) – inducing media. Images were recorded after two days incubation at 30°C. E – Empty vector; pphIAPP - prepro human IAPP; pHAPP – pro human IAPP; hIAPP – human IAPP.

In order to investigate in greater detail the cellular growth of these strains, they were subjected to growth curve analysis. A normalized number of cells were inoculated in galactose medium and cellular growth was monitored hourly for 24 h. The results in Figure 4.7 A-C show that the growth profile of pphIAPP strain is similar to that of the control strain, in agreement with results of the phenotypic growth assays. A clear impairment of pHAPP_{Trp-Ura} strain growth was observed as compared to the control strain (Figure 4.7 A-C), also consistent with the results of the phenotypic growth assays. In particular, the growth parameters of final biomass, maximum growth rate, and doubling time, were shown to be significantly altered, impacting on the AUC of the growth curves (Figure 4.7 C-F).

The only parameter that seems to be only negatively affected by the expression of hIAPP in the optimized strain is the final biomass (Figure 4.7 A), although there was a tendency towards the increase of the doubling time and a reduction in the maximum growth rate as compared to the control strain (Figure 4.7 C-E). The fact that pHAPP expression impairs growth in greater extent than hIAPP supports the notion that unprocessed forms are potentially more toxic than the mature hIAPP form. The growth of the pphIAPP_{Trp-Ura} model was similar to the control strain suggesting that pphIAPP expression did not compromise cellular growth.

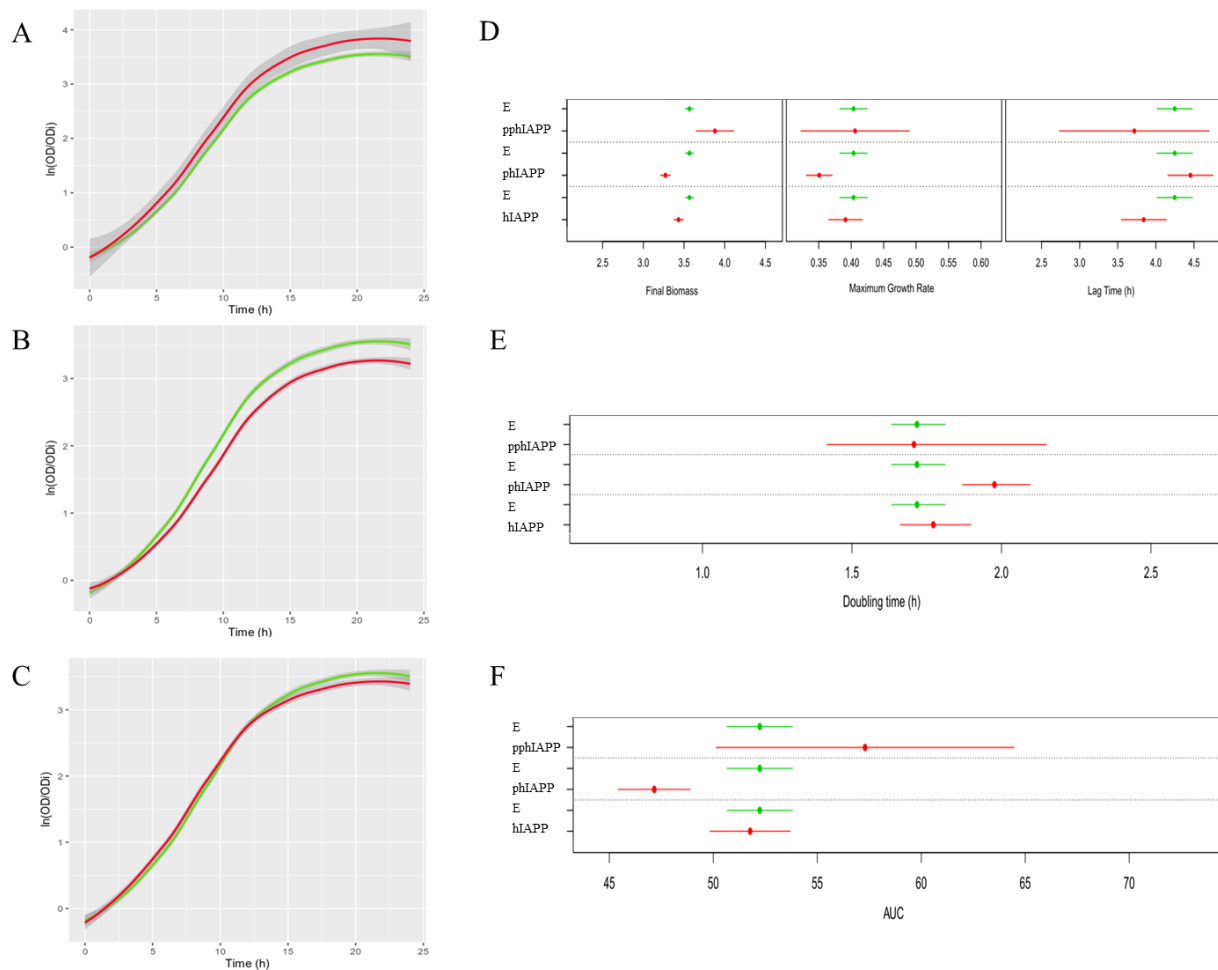


Figure 4.7 Growth curves of the optimized hIAPP models. Growth was kinetically monitored by OD600 measures and results are expressed as mean values from three independent biological replicates. Growth curves and growth parameters of the humanized strains (red) and the respective controls (green), obtained using a R script are represented. (A) pphIAPP model (B) phIAPP model (C) hIAPP model. Graphical representation of the confidence intervals with 95% of confidence for (D) the final biomass, maximum growth rate and lag time, (E) doubling time and (F) AUC. Ura – uracil; E – Empty vector; pIAPP – pro human IAPP; hIAPP – human IAPP; AUC – area under the curve.

4.2.2 Subcellular localization of IAPP and unprocessed forms in the humanized model expressing two copies of each construction

To investigate hIAPP subcellular localization in the optimized models, protein expression was induced in galactose media for 6 h. As observed in the model expressing one copy of hIAPP, GFP fluorescence in the optimized strain was dispersed throughout the cytoplasm and obvious aggregates could not be detected (Figure 4.8). Remarkably, the strain expressing two copies of phIAPP displayed punctate structures that seem to accumulate in the lumen of the vacuoles and in association with the vacuole membrane (Figure 4.8). Co-localization studies using vacuole probes are required to clarify this issue. The fluorescence of cells expressing pphIAPP was shown to be residual, as shown in supplementary material Figure 7.3 B.

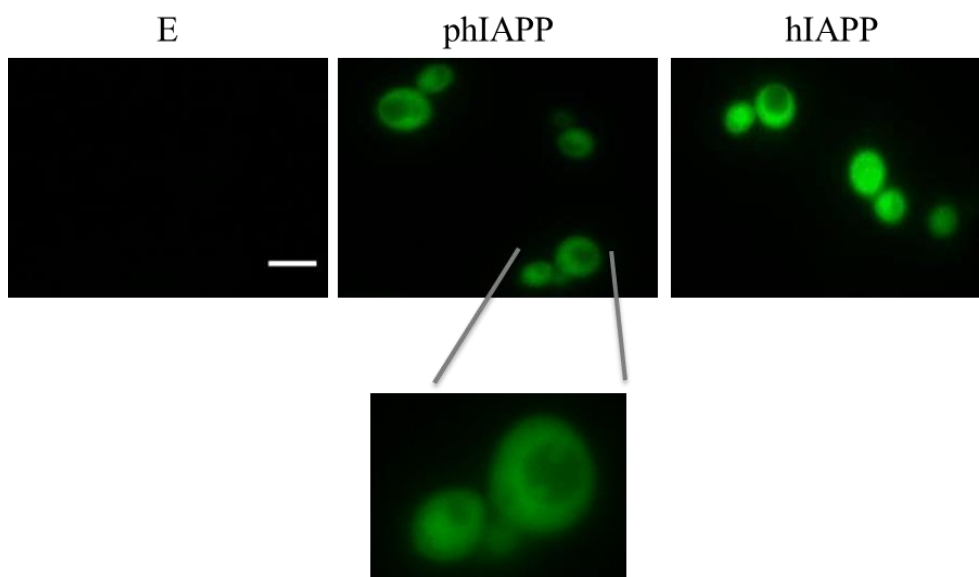


Figure 4.8 Fluorescence microscopy of hIAPP and pHIAPP optimized yeast models. Cells were first grown in raffinose media and IAPP expression was induced with galactose for 6 h. The pHIAPP and hIAPP model and an amplification of the punctate structures that seems to accumulate in cells expressing pHIAPP. Scale bar= 10 μ m. E – Empty vector; pHIAPP – pro human IAPP.

4.3 hIAPP processing in yeast

IAPP is processed by signal-peptidases and convertases to yield mature IAPP and some evidences suggest that unprocessed human IAPP forms are more amyloidogenic than the mature ones. To evaluate hIAPP expression and processing in yeast, strains expressing pphIAPP, pHIAPP and hIAPP from multi-copy plasmids and the single- and double-integrated versions, were subjected to immunoblotting analysis using antibodies against an internal sequence (residues 20-29) of hIAPP (A133) and the GFP tag.

For the expression driven by the single copy vectors encoding *TRP1* and *URA3* selectable markers, it was only possible to detect an evident protein signal of pHIAPP from the Ura set using the A133 antibody (Figure 4.9 B, upper panel). As an alternative, the membranes were incubated with the anti-GFP antibody, which revealed the presence of specific signals that were absent in the control strain (E) (Figure 4.9, middle panels). Remarkably, extracts of cells expressing pphIAPP and pHIAPP displayed a band corresponding to the molecular weight of mature hIAPP fused to GFP (~32 kDa) indicating that endogenous yeast enzymes were able to process hIAPP. It is noteworthy to mention that processing of pphIAPP seems to be more efficient than pHIAPP according to the high intensity of protein signal corresponding to intermediate unprocessed forms of pHIAPP (~35 kDa) (Figure 4.9 B, middle panel).

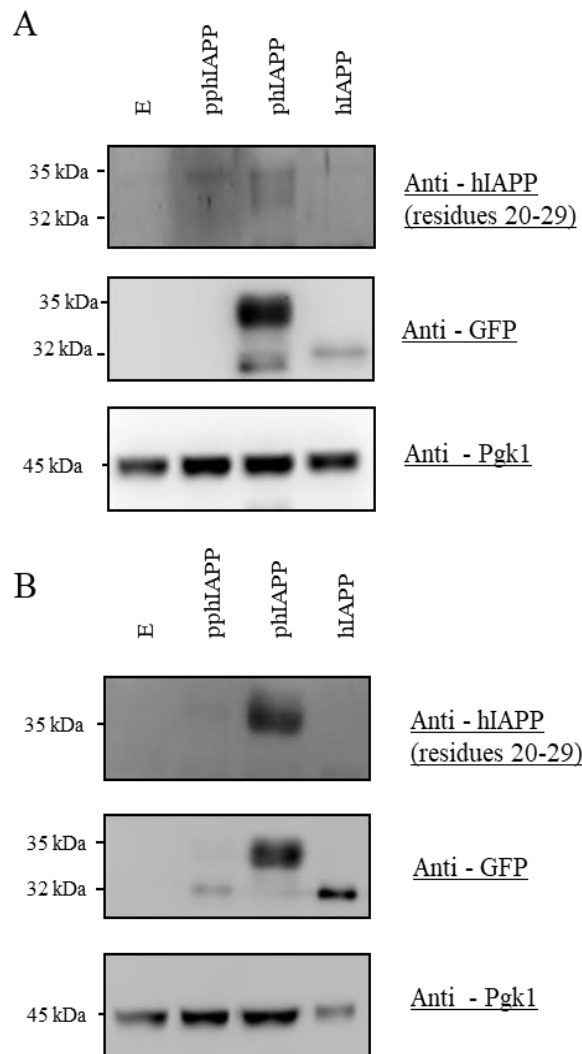


Figure 4.9 IAPP expression and processing in humanized strains encoding a single copy of pPhIAPP, PhIAPP and hIAPP cDNA. Cells were incubated for 6 h in galactose medium and total proteins were extracted using the TCA method. Immunoblot was performed using the antisera anti-hIAPP (residues 20-29) and anti-GFP antibodies. Pgk1 was used as loading control. (A) Tryptophan set of strains and (B) Uracil set of strains. E – Empty vector; pPhIAPP - prepro human IAPP; PhIAPP – pro human IAPP; hIAPP – human IAPP; pgk1 - 3-phosphoglycerate kinase; GFP – green fluorescent protein; TCA - trichloroacetic acid.

Aiming to improve the detection of different hIAPP forms, the whole procedure was repeated using the strains encoding the double-integrated hIAPP constructions. As depicted in Figure 4.10, the protein signals provided by the use of the A133 antibody were highly improved. The membranes were also incubated with the anti-GFP antibody, which revealed the presence of strong protein signals. The strain expressing a double-integrated pPhIAPP construction exhibited a signal whose molecular weight is lower than mature hIAPP fused to GFP (~32 kDa), which may correspond to the pPhIAPP processed COOH-terminus fused to GFP (Figure 4.1 B). This result corroborates the previous ones showing that endogenous yeast enzymes efficiently process hIAPP. In addition, Figure 4.10 further supports that pPhIAPP processing is more efficient than PhIAPP.

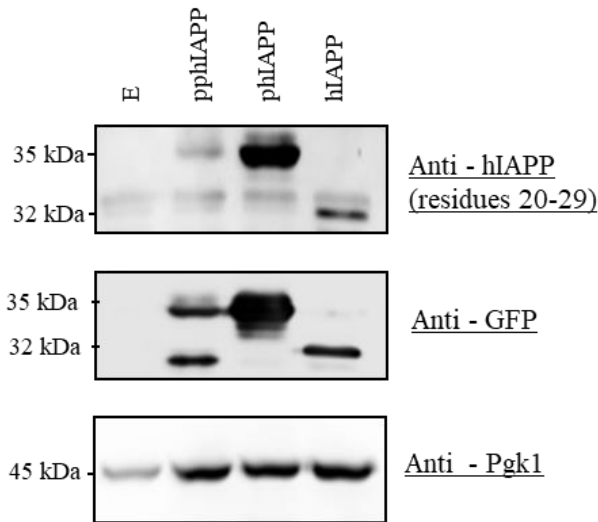


Figure 4.10 IAPP expression and processing in humanized strains encoding double-integrated versions of pphIAPP, phIAPP and hIAPP cDNA. Cells were incubated for 6 h in galactose medium and total proteins were extracted using the TCA method. Immunoblot was performed using the antisera anti-hIAPP (residues 20-29) and anti-GFP antibodies. Pgk1 was used as loading control. E – Empty vector; pphIAPP - prepro human IAPP; phIAPP – pro human IAPP; hIAPP – human IAPP; pgk1 - 3-phosphoglycerate kinase; GFP – green fluorescent protein.

hIAPP expression and processing patterns were also investigated in the strains encoding the cDNA for pphIAPP, phIAPP and hIAPP from multi-copy vectors. The protein signals provided by the use of the A133 antibody were further improved in comparison with the double-integrated strain, being possible to detect a faint signal corresponding to a phIAPP form with increased electrophoretic mobility that could not be detected in other conditions (Figure 4.11 A, upper panel). Incubation of the membranes with the anti-GFP antibody revealed the presence of several processing intermediates that were undetectable using the other constructions (Figure 4.11 B, upper panel). Although the high frequency of plasmid loss associated with the expression driven by multi-copy vectors were shown to be a limitation for the growth assays, these results suggest that expressing driven by multi-copy vectors represents a powerful tool to address hIAPP processing in yeast.

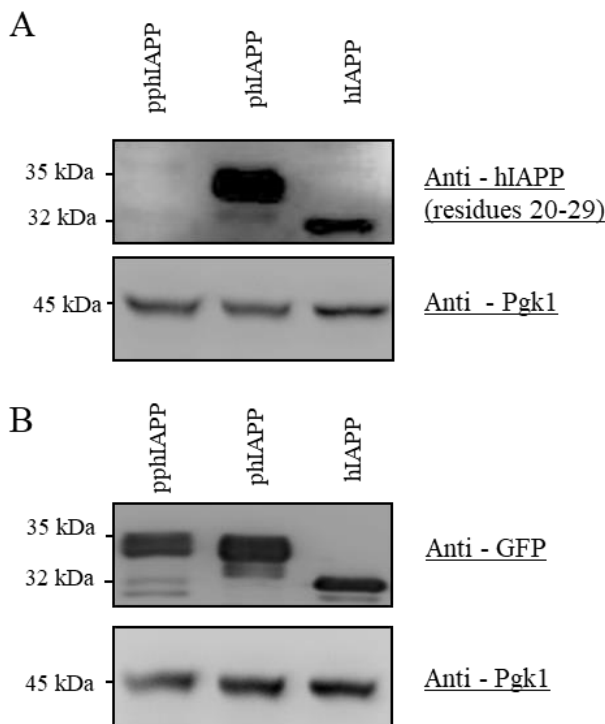


Figure 4.11 IAPP expression and processing in humanized strains encoding pphIAPP, phIAPP and hIAPP cDNA from multi-copy vectors. Cells were incubated for 6 h in galactose medium and total proteins were extracted using the TCA method. Immunoblot was performed using A) the antisera anti-hIAPP (residues 20-29) and B) anti-GFP antibodies. Pgk 1 was used as loading control. E – Empty vector; pphIAPP - prepro human IAPP; phIAPP – pro human IAPP; hIAPP – human IAPP; pgk1 - 3-phosphoglycerate kinase; GFP – green fluorescent protein.

4.4 Detection of human IAPP oligomers in plasma samples

The next goal was to evaluate the presence of hIAPP oligomers in the plasma as potential indicators of diabetes. For that, the blood samples of five volunteers were collected. After obtaining the plasma samples, they were processed as described by Jackson *et al.*⁶⁹. This study reported that IAPP expressed in pancreas of T2DM and Alzheimer's or dementia patients accumulates in the brain and precipitates as independent plaques or co-precipitates with amyloid β , meaning that the oligomers that reach the brain are most probably synthesized in the pancreas, circulate in the bloodstream and may accumulate in various organs.

Immunoblotting from SDS gels loaded with 100 μg of total plasma proteins revealed the presence of several bands in all the samples, mostly probably representing the unspecific recognition of high abundant plasma proteins such as albumin and immunoglobulins (Figure 4.12 A), which may mask the specific signal of hIAPP oligomers. To overcome this technical limitation, the gels were loaded with 25 μg of total plasma proteins. Remarkably, under this condition it was possible to detect a signal of a molecular weight of 22-24 kDa only in the plasma sample of the volunteer diagnosed with LADA (Latent Autoimmune Diabetes in Adults) (sample 4), which could correspond to hIAPP oligomers (Figure 4.12 B). Noteworthy, the hIAPP signal detected in the immunoblotting analysis seems to be specific as it was detected in protein extracts from yeast cells expressing the pphIAPP-GFP fusion. It was further tested the whether hIAPP signals could be detected using lower amounts (15 μg) of total plasma proteins. For this purpose, only sample 4 (S4) and sample 2 (S2) were loaded in the gel but hIAPP signals were show to be absent. As shown in Figure 4.12 C, it was possible to corroborate the presence of the 22 kDa signal, which appears very intense in S4, but was also present as a faint signal in sample 2. The decrease of protein concentration completely abolished detection of hIAPP.

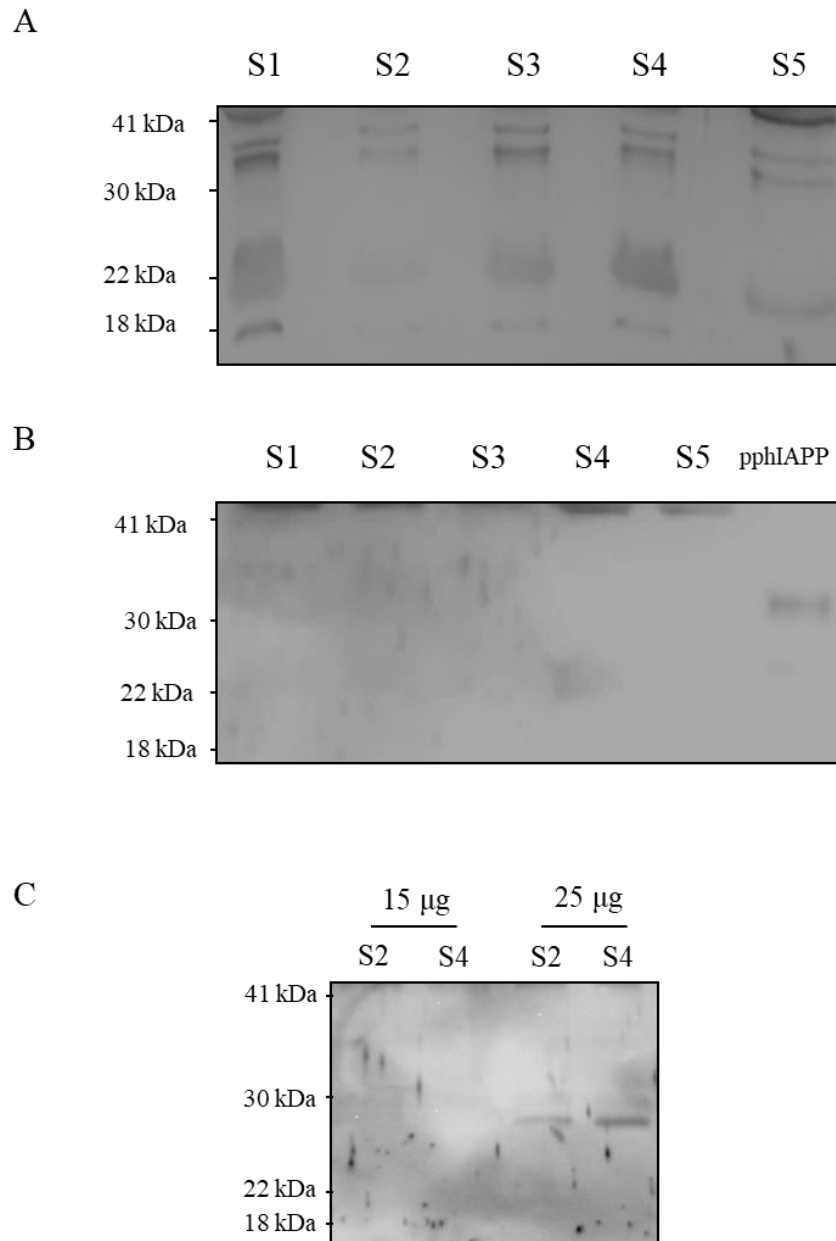


Figure 4.12 Detection of IAPP in plasma samples. A) 100 μ g of total plasma proteins were loaded on SDS gels and IAPP was detected using the rabbit sera A133, which recognizes the hIAPP 20-29 epitope. B) The SDS gels were loaded with 25 μ g of total plasma proteins. Protein extracts obtained from yeast cells expressing ppIAPP-GFP were used as controls. C) The SDS gels were loaded with 15 or 25 μ g of total plasma proteins of S2 and S4. S1 - sample 1; S2 - sample 2; S3 - sample 3; S4 - sample 4; S5 - sample 5; pphIAPP_GFP – prepro human IAPP; GFP – green fluorescent protein.

5. Discussion

5.1 Novel yeast models of hIAPP proteotoxicity

The cytotoxic role of hIAPP oligomers and amyloid deposition in the islets have a significant impact in the pathology of DM⁸. An important question that remains to be answered is whether formation of islet amyloids is a pathogenic mechanism contributing to the development of T2DM or a consequence of the islet malfunctioning. It was observed that islet amyloid was detectable in a baboon colony before the development of T2DM and the amount of islet amyloid is correlated with the progression of the disease¹⁰³. Based on that, it was proposed that the combination of a predisposing genetic background with environmental factors such as obesity and high-fat diets can lead to insulin resistance and overstimulation of β -cells to secrete insulin. As a consequence there is also the concomitant overexpression of IAPP favoring its intra- and extracellular accumulation. However, the mechanism underlying IAPP aggregation and deposition remain to be elucidated¹⁰³. Therefore, a simple experimental model as yeast can be a valuable tool to dissect the intracellular events of IAPP oligomerization and to reveal the hallmarks of hIAPP fibril formation.

Yeast models encoding the cDNA for mature and unprocessed hIAPP forms from multi-copy vectors were previously used in the host laboratory to study the cellular effects of hIAPP overexpression and aggregation. Given the artifacts associated with the use of these expression systems, mostly due the high frequency of loss (0.2-2% per generation)⁹⁵, novel strains were designed. They were constructed by integrating the cDNA for pphIAPP, phIAPP or hIAPP into the yeast genome, in the *TRP1* and *URA3* loci. So, two sets of strains, prototrophic for tryptophan and uracil (Table 7.2 supplementary material), were generated.

The first experiments addressed the growth of strains expressing pphIAPP, phIAPP and hIAPP by phenotypic assays. The recombinant strains of the Trp set showed slight growth impairment (Figure 4.2) whereas the phIAPP clones of the Ura set were the only marginally affected by the expression of the respective protein. To complement these data, the 24-hour growth curves of strains were compared. The results were in accordance with the phenotypic assays and the recombinant strains of the Trp set were shown to be slightly affected by the expression of mature and unprocessed hIAPP forms (Figure 4.3 A-C). The expression of pphIAPP and phIAPP seems to increase the lag phase of the cultures in comparison with the control (Figure 4.3 D), which represents the time required for a cell population to duplicate after the inoculum. This indicates that the expression of the protein somehow interferes with cell metabolism, delaying cell growth that is then recovered after cells are able to adapt to the stress conditions induced by hIAPP expression. The final biomass is the parameter mostly affected by the expression of hIAPP (Figure 4.3 D), which seems to be a consequence of alterations of the maximum growth rate and consequently the doubling time of the cultures (Figure 4.3 D, E). These results corroborate the previous results showing impaired cell growth of the hIAPP strain. The growth of pphIAPP and particularly hIAPP strains with integrations in the *URA3* locus (Ura set) were also compromised relatively to the control strain (Figure 4.4 A). Taken together, the data suggest that integration of one copy of hIAPP constructs affects negatively the growth of strains from both the Trp and Ura set.

The subcellular localization of the protein fusions, monitored by fluorescence microscopy, indicates that both phIAPP and hIAPP from the Trp and Ura set of strains (Figure 4.5) presented a cytosolic distribution with no visible aggregates. These results indicate that these models cannot recapitulate the intracellular aggregates observed in β -cells, as it was observed for the expression of phIAPP driven by multi-copy vectors (Menezes *et al.*, unpublished). An interesting finding of these experiments was the presence of large vacuoles in the cells encoding the phIAPP and hIAPP cDNA. Data from the host laboratory suggests that this phenomenon can be associated with cellular stress¹⁰², in this case mediated by hIAPP expression. Surprisingly, the fluorescence of cells expressing pphIAPP

was shown to be almost undetectable (Figure 7.3 A supplementary material). The possible explanation for this result is the removal of the GFP tag after processing of the COOH-terminal region of pphIAPP, which was further confirmed by the immunoblotting experiments (Figure 4.9-Figure 4.11).

In an attempt to increase the robustness of the models, a second copy of the cDNA for pphIAPP and phIAPP were integrated into the yeast genome and the resulting strains were tested together with a previously constructed strain expressing two copies of hIAPP. The cell growth of hIAPP model was not significantly impaired by the integration of a second copy of the corresponding cDNA. The most impaired parameter was the final biomass (Figure 4.7 D-F) suggesting that the two copies of the protein slightly affect strains growth and replication. The cell growth of the pphIAPP strain did not show any significant difference relatively to the control strain (Figure 4.7). Indeed, pphIAPP protein levels seem to be strongly affected as indicated by the immunoblotting (Figure 4.10) and microscopy assays (Figure 7.3 B supplementary material). The GFP signal of strains encoding two copies of pphIAPP are higher than those observed in the equivalent strains expressing pphIAPP from *TRP1* or *URA3* integrative constructions (Figure 7.3 B supplementary material). However, it is still residual compared to the strains expressing phIAPP and hIAPP, which further suggests the instability of pphIAPP transcripts and/or pphIAPP protein degradation as a cellular defense mechanism. Quantitative real time PCR and protein stability assays should be performed to elucidate this question. The low fluorescence signals of pphIAPP strains (Figure 7.3 supplementary material) seems to be also a consequence of pphIAPP processing by the convertases to yield mature IAPP, leading to the removal of COOH-terminal region of the peptide fused with the GFP tag. This hypothesis is confirmed by the presence of several hIAPP processing intermediates (Figure 4.9-Figure 4.11) observed in the immunoblotting assays, particularly the one whose molecular weight is lower than that of the hIAPP (Figure 4.10, compare lanes 2 and 4 in the middle panel; Figure 4.11 B, compare lanes 1 and 3 in the upper panel). In humans, the prohormone convertases PC2 and PC1/3 process the COOH and the NH₂ terminal of phIAPP at the dibasic amino acid residues (lysine and arginine). The candidate enzyme exerting this function is the homologous yeast Kex2¹⁰⁴, a Ca²⁺-dependent serine protease involved in proprotein processing¹⁰⁵. Like the human counterparts, Kex2 also cleaves dibasic sites in target peptides and belongs to the family of subtilisin-like proteases. The evolutionary conservation of proprotein convertase function between yeast and mammals allows the use of yeast to investigate aberrant phIAPP processing, which can help understanding the impact of phIAPP processing on intracellular oligomerization and islet amyloid formation.

Interestingly, the strain carrying two copies of the cDNA for phIAPP was the only one displaying pronounced growth defects (Figure 4.6 and Figure 4.7). In addition, this strain exhibits punctate structures resembling protein aggregates that seem to be located in the vacuole (Figure 4.8). The data suggest that cells try to cope with phIAPP toxicity (Figure 4.6) by sequestering it into the vacuoles. Although co-localization studies are required to clarify this issue, it can be speculated that increased expression of phIAPP, by the insertion of an additional copy of the phIAPP cDNA into the yeast genome, induces proteotoxic stress and cells try to get rid of these toxic species by sequestering them into the vacuole. The presence of phIAPP processing intermediates in islet amyloids of T2DM patients was already demonstrated and it was also suggested that an increase in phIAPP levels may also contribute to islet amyloid deposition⁴⁹. In agreement with these notions, the data discussed above demonstrate that overexpression of phIAPP driven by two integrated copies of phIAPP cDNA promotes cellular stress; furthermore it leads to IAPP aggregation and impairs cellular growth thereby validating these model as a valuable tool to investigate the molecular mechanisms underlying phIAPP aggregation and proteotoxicity.

To conclude, the expression of mature and unprocessed hIAPP forms driven by single genome integrations in the *TRP1* and *URA3* loci triggers growth impairment and cellular stress. Since immunoblotting procedures were performed simultaneously for the extracts from cells expressing the

TRP1 and *URA3* constructs, and using a normalized number of cells, it is plausible to conclude that expression driven by the *URA3* construct is more efficient than the *TRP1* construct (Figure 4.9). However, the negative impact caused by a single copy of cDNA of pphIAPP, pHAPP and hIAPP expression in these strains is lower compared to those driven by the multi-copy constructs (Menezes *et al.*, unpublished).

Notwithstanding, the integration of a second copy of the respective cDNAs, particularly encoding for pHAPP can promote aggregation and cytotoxicity as described for the α -synuclein⁸⁶.

5.2 hIAPP oligomers indicators of diabetes

A methodology for detecting the presence of IAPP oligomers in human plasma samples was optimized aiming at the evaluation of these species as early indicators of diabetes. For that, the plasma samples of healthy volunteers and a patient diagnosed with LADA were subjected to immunoblotting analysis using an antibody against hIAPP residues 20-29. The results indicate the presence of a very promising protein signal of 22-24 kDa (Figure 4.12), possible corresponding to IAPP oligomers. A further procedure to validate these results is the utilization of antibodies recognizing oligomeric structures, such as the A11¹⁰⁶. It is reported that A11 efficiently recognizes intracellular oligomeric IAPP species in the β -cells of hIAPP transgenic mice⁹⁸ and in the human pancreatic tissue of T2DM patients^{98,107}. These antibodies are useful to identify small IAPP oligomers *in vitro*; however their use in biological materials and tissue sections can lead to artifacts since specificity could be compromised by the cross-reaction with a variety of molecules with β -conformation¹⁰⁸.

Analysis of human plasma samples for protein studies can be a complex task due to the presence of a high concentration of albumin and immunoglobulins. Indeed, this was shown to be a limitation in this study leading to the unspecific protein signals in the immunoblotting analysis (Figure 4.12 A). Removal of these proteins is an approach often used to study low abundance proteins such as hIAPP or hIAPP oligomers. There are a plenty of techniques to deplete proteins from plasma but one easy way to do it is using depletion columns kits. Samples are loaded in a pre-filled convenient disposable column and can be quickly processed. This could be a suitable alternative, although it can lead to the partial loss of proteins of interest. Another alternative is the use of DynaBeads derivatized with anti-hIAPP antibodies to remove albumin, immunoglobulins and other molecules that may interfere with specific signals. In order to follow this methodology it is necessary to guarantee that the assemblages of IAPP are not discarded along with the other proteins.

In conclusion, the presence of IAPP oligomers in the blood remains to be elucidated and the literature regarding the subject is also scarce. An important immediate goal to pursue is the development of a simpler approach aimed at detecting these molecules and using them as a potential biomarker of islet amyloid and also as a new target for new therapies.

6. References

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7. Supplementary material

Table 7.1 Plasmids used in this study.

Description	Features	Source
pRS304	<i>Integrative TRP1 amp^R</i>	Sikorski and Hieter ⁹⁴
p304_pphIAPP	<i>Integrative TRP1 amp^R GAL1^{promoter}- pphIAPP-GFP</i>	This study
p304_phIAPP	<i>Integrative TRP1 amp^R GAL1^{promoter}- phIAPP-GFP</i>	This study
p304_hIAPP	<i>Integrative TRP1 amp^R GAL1^{promoter}- hIAPP-GFP</i>	Menezes <i>et al.</i> , unpublished
pRS306	<i>Integrative URA3 amp^R</i>	Sikorski and Hieter ⁹⁴
p306_pphIAPP	<i>Integrative URA3 amp^R GAL1^{promoter}- pphIAPP-GFP</i>	This study
p306_phIAPP	<i>Integrative URA3 amp^R GAL1^{promoter}- phIAPP-GFP</i>	This study
p306_hIAPP	<i>Integrative URA3 amp^R GAL1^{promoter}- hIAPP-GFP</i>	Menezes <i>et al.</i> , unpublished
pRS426	<i>2μ URA3 amp^R</i>	Christianson <i>et al.</i> ¹⁰⁹
p426_pphIAPP	<i>2μ URA3 amp^R GAL1^{promoter}- pphIAPP-GFP</i>	Menezes, <i>et al.</i> , unpublished
p426_phIAPP	<i>2μ URA3 amp^R GAL1^{promoter}- phIAPP-GFP</i>	Menezes, <i>et al.</i> , unpublished
p426_hIAPP	<i>2μ URA3 amp^R GAL1^{promoter}-hIAPP- GFP</i>	Menezes <i>et al.</i> , unpublished

Table 7.2 Yeast Strains used in this study.

Yeast Strain	Description	Reference
W303.1A	MATa <i>can1-100 his3-11,15 leu2-3,112 trp1-1 ura3-1 ade2-1</i>	Thomas and Rothstein ¹¹⁰
W303.1A_TRP1	W303.1A <i>trp1-1::TRP1*</i>	Menezes <i>et al.</i> , unpublished
W303.1A_pphIAPP_Trp ₁	W303.1A <i>trp1::GAL1pphIAPP-GFP_TRP1*</i>	This study
W303.1A_pphIAPP_Trp ₂	W303.1A <i>trp1::GAL1pphIAPP-GFP_TRP1*</i>	This study
W303.1A_phIAPP_Trp ₁	W303.1A <i>trp1::GAL1phIAPP-GFP_TRP1*</i>	This study
W303.1A_phIAPP_Trp ₂	W303.1A <i>trp1::GAL1phIAPP-GFP_TRP1*</i>	This study
W303.1A_hIAPP_Trp	W303.1A <i>trp1::GAL1hIAPP-GFP TRP1*</i>	Menezes <i>et al.</i> , unpublished
W303.1A_URA3	W303.1A <i>ura3-1::URA3*</i>	Menezes <i>et al.</i> , unpublished
W303.1A_pphIAPP_Ura ₁	W303.1A <i>ura3-1::GAL1pphIAPP-GFP URA3*</i>	This study
W303.1A_pphIAPP_Ura ₂	W303.1A <i>ura3-1::GAL1pphIAPP-GFP URA3*</i>	This study
W303.1A_phIAPP_Ura ₁	W303.1A <i>ura3-1::GAL1phIAPP-GFP URA3*</i>	This study
W303.1A_phIAPP_Ura ₂	W303.1A <i>ura3-1::GAL1phIAPP-GFP URA3*</i>	This study
W303.1A_hIAPP_Ura	W303.1A <i>ura3-1::GAL1hIAPP-GFP URA3*</i>	Menezes <i>et al.</i> , unpublished
W303.1A_pphIAPP_Trp-Ura	W303.1A <i>trp1::GAL1pphIAPP-GFP_TRP1 ura3-1::GAL1pphIAPP-GFP URA3*</i>	This study
W303.1A_phIAPP_Trp-Ura	W303.1A <i>trp1::GAL1phIAPP-GFP_TRP1 ura3-1::GAL1phIAPP-GFP URA3*</i>	This study
W303.1A_hIAPP_Trp-Ura	W303.1A <i>trp1::GAL1hIAPP-GFP_TRP1 ura3-1::GAL1hIAPP-GFP URA3*</i>	Menezes <i>et al.</i> , unpublished
W303.1A <pphIAPP_GFP>	W303.1A pRS416_ <i>GAL1pphIAPP-GFP</i>	Menezes <i>et al.</i> , unpublished
W303.1A <phIAPP_GFP>	W303.1A pRS416_ <i>GAL1phIAPP-GFP</i>	Menezes <i>et al.</i> , unpublished
W303.1A <hIAPP_GFP>	W303.1A pRS416_ <i>GAL1hIAPP-GFP</i>	Menezes <i>et al.</i> , unpublished
W303.1A <pphIAPP>	W303.1A pRS416_ <i>GAL1pphIAPP</i>	Menezes <i>et al.</i> , unpublished

*Integrative constructions

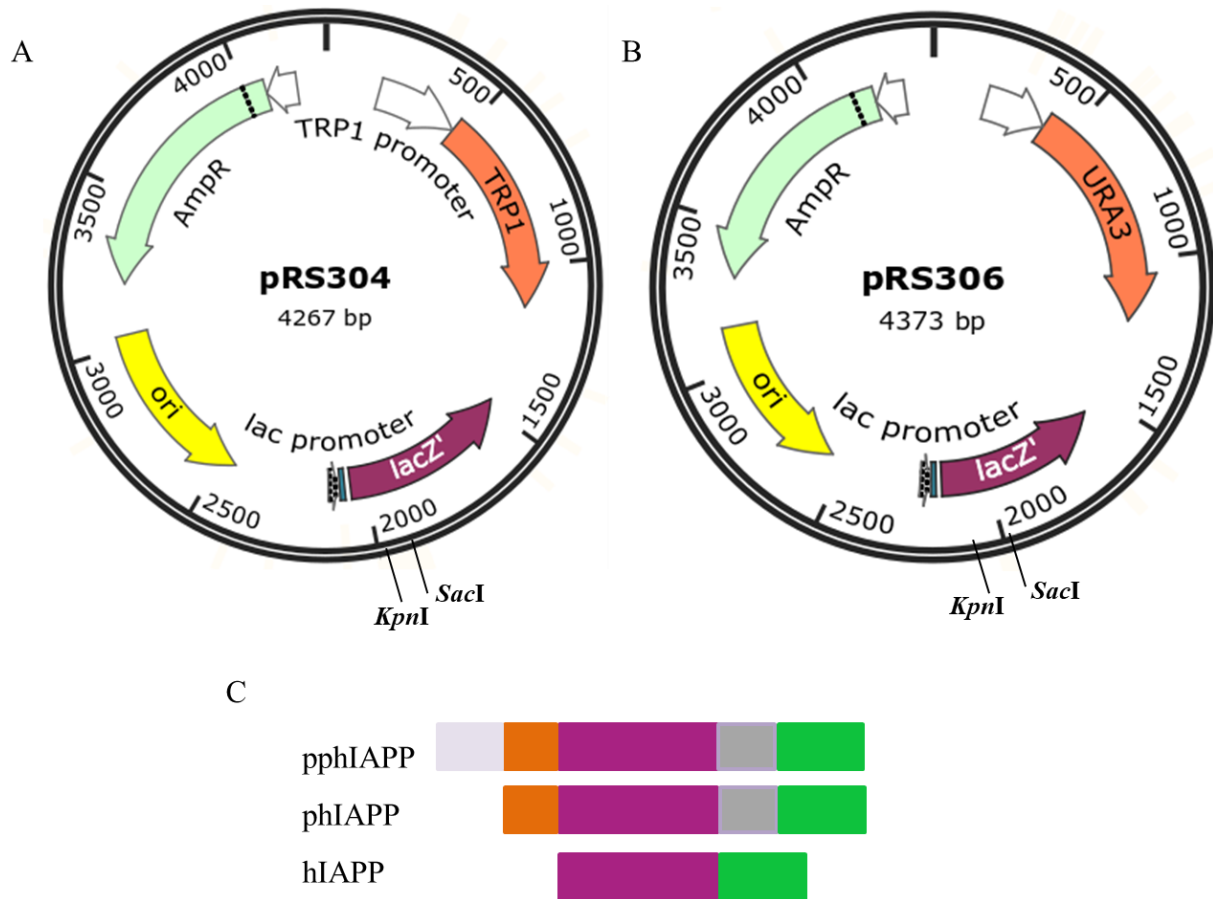


Figure 7.1 Schematic representation of the constructions to express integrative versions of hIAPP in yeast. A) Diagram of the pRS304 and B) pRS306 vectors designed by the SnapGene software (from GSL Biotech; available at snapgene.com) with the indication of the main features of the vector and the *KpnI* and *SacI* restriction sites. C) Schematic representation of pphIAPP, phIAPP and hIAPP with the indication of processed amino acid sequences (grey and orange) and the GFP tag (green). Ori – replicatin origin; AmpR – ampicillin resistance gene (encoding for β -lactamase).

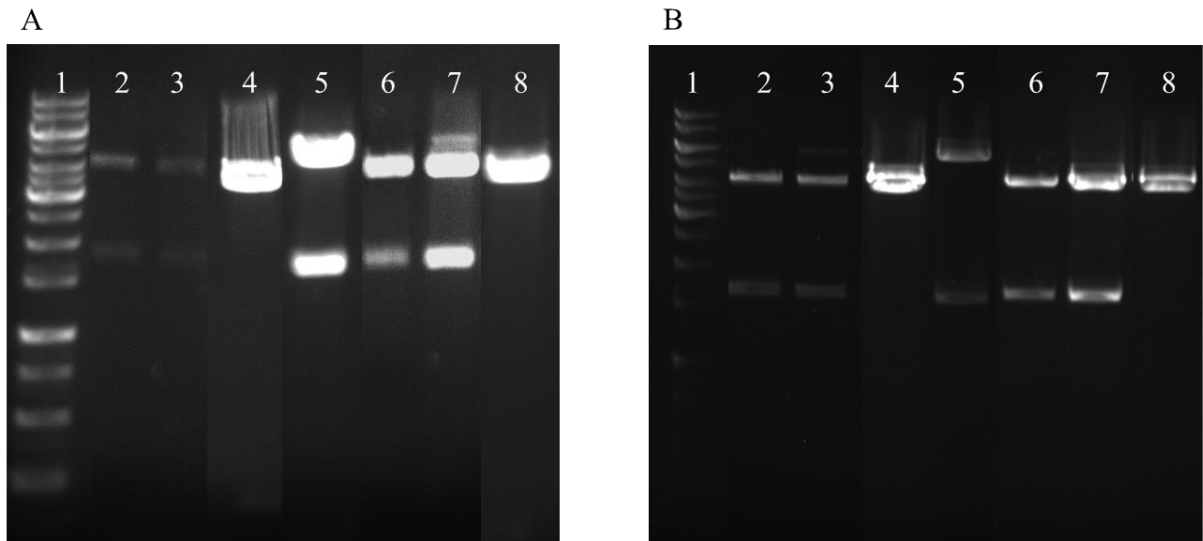


Figure 7.2 Restriction analysis of integrative constructions. The DNA were digested with *SacI/KpnI* and resolved in a 1% agarose gel. A) Lanes 1 – Molecular weight marker (GeneRuler 1 kb DNA Ladder); 2 – pphIAPP_Trp₁; 3 – pphIAPP_Trp₂; 4 – pRS304; 5 – p426_pphIAPP; 6 – pphIAPP_Ura₁; 7 – pphIAPP_Ura₂; 8 – pRS306. B) Lanes 1 – Molecular weight marker; 2 – phIAPP_Trp₁; 3 – phIAPP_Trp₂; 4 – pRS304; 5 – p426_phIAPP; 6 – phIAPP_Ura₁; 7 – phIAPP_Ura₂; 8 – pRS306.

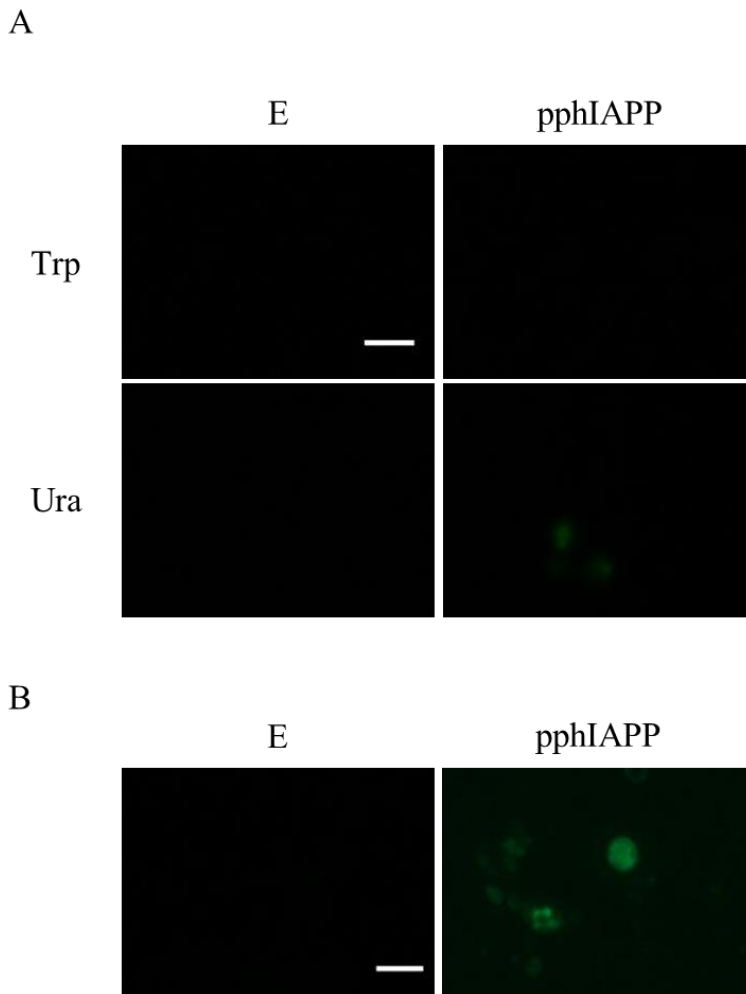


Figure 7.3 Fluorescence microscopy of yeast cells expressing pphIAPP. Cells were first grown in raffinose media and IAPP expression was induced with galactose for 6 h. A) Cells encoding a copy of pphIAPP from the Trp and Ura sets. The fluorescence is undetectable. B) Cells encoding two integrated copies of pphIAPP. Fluorescence of cells was residual. Scale bar= 10 μ m. Trp – tryptophan; Ura – uracil; E – Empty vector; pphIAPP – pre pro human IAPP.