RVC OPEN ACCESS REPOSITORY – COPYRIGHT NOTICE

This is the peer-reviewed, manuscript version of the following article:

Adams, JP and Holder, AL and Catchpole, B (2014) Recombinant canine single chain insulin analogues: Insulin receptor binding capacity and ability to stimulate glucose uptake. VETERINARY JOURNAL, 202 (3). pp. 436-42.

The final version is available online via <u>http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.tvjl.2014.09.027</u>.

© 2015. This manuscript version is made available under the CC-BY-NC-ND 4.0 license <u>http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/</u>.

The full details of the published version of the article are as follows:

TITLE: Recombinant canine single chain insulin analogues: Insulin receptor binding capacity and ability to stimulate glucose uptake

AUTHORS: Adams, JP and Holder, AL and Catchpole, B

JOURNAL TITLE: Veterinary Journal

VOLUME/EDITION: 202/3

PUBLISHER: Elsevier

PUBLICATION DATE: December 2014

DOI: 10.1016/j.tvjl.2014.09.027



1	Original Article
2	
3	Development of recombinant canine single-chain insulin analogues, evaluation of their
4	insulin receptor binding capacity and ability to stimulate glucose uptake
5	
6	
7	Jamie P. Adams ¹ , Angela L. Holder, Brian Catchpole *
8	
9	Department of Pathology and Pathogen Biology, Royal Veterinary College, University of
10	London, Hawkshead Lane, Hatfield, Hertfordshire AL9 7TA, UK
11	
12	
13	
14	
15	* Corresponding author. Tel.: +44 170 766 6388.
16	E-mail address: <u>bcatchpole@rvc.ac.uk</u> (B. Catchpole).
17	¹ Current address: Boehringer Ingelheim, Ellesfield Avenue, Bracknell, Berkshire RG12 8YS,
18	UK.
19	

20 Abstract

Virtually all diabetic dogs require exogenous insulin therapy to control their 21 22 hyperglycaemia. In the UK, the only licensed insulin product currently available is a purified porcine insulin preparation. Recombinant insulin is somewhat problematic in terms of its 23 24 manufacture, as the gene product (preproinsulin) undergoes substantial post-translational 25 modification in pancreatic β cells before it becomes biologically active. The aim of the present study was to develop recombinant canine single-chain insulin (SCI) analogues that could be 26 27 produced in a prokaryotic expression system and which would require minimal processing. 28 Three recombinant SCI constructs were developed in a prokaryotic expression vector, by replacing the insulin C-peptide sequence with one encoding a synthetic peptide (GGGPGKR) 29 30 or with one of two insulin-like growth factor (IGF)-2 C-peptide coding sequences (human: 31 SRVSRRSR; canine: SRVTRRSSR). Recombinant proteins were expressed in the periplasmic 32 fraction of E. coli and assessed for their ability to bind to the insulin and IGF-1 receptors and 33 to stimulate glucose uptake in 3T3-L1 adipocytes.

34

All three recombinant SCI analogues demonstrated preferential binding to the insulin receptor, compared to the IGF-1 receptor, with increased binding compared to recombinant canine proinsulin. The recombinant SCI analogues stimulated glucose uptake in 3T3-L1 adipocytes compared to negligible uptake using recombinant canine proinsulin, with the canine insulin/cIGF-2 chimaeric SCI analogue demonstrating the greatest effect. Thus, biologicallyactive recombinant canine SCI analogues can be produced relatively easily in bacteria, which could potentially be used for treatment of diabetic dogs.

42

43 Keywords: Insulin; Insulin receptor; Canine diabetes; Glucose uptake

45 Introduction

46 Diabetes mellitus in dogs is characterised by the presence of hyperglycaemia caused by 47 an absolute or relative deficiency in the pancreatic β cell hormone, insulin (Catchpole et al., 48 2008). Virtually all diabetic dogs require administration of exogenous insulin to control their 49 blood glucose concentration. Whereas recombinant insulin is used to treat human diabetic 50 patients, in the UK there is currently only one licensed insulin product available for treatment 51 of diabetes in companion animals, which consists of purified porcine insulin (Caninsulin, MSD 52 Animal Health)¹. Recombinant human insulin has been used for many years in North America 53 for treatment of canine diabetes, where until recently there was no FDA-approved insulin for 54 companion animals (Rucinsky et al., 2010).

55

Production of purified beef and pork insulin has been scaled down, with the introduction of recombinant techniques for production of human insulin. Since the supply of bovine and porcine insulin for veterinary use generally relies on human market availability, insulin for diabetic dogs is likely to become increasingly limited. Indeed, in recent years, bovine insulin products (formerly Insuvet soluble, lente and protamine zinc insulin, Zoetis) have been withdrawn from the veterinary market. Thus, there is an anticipated need for development of recombinant canine insulin preparations.

63

Biologically active insulin is synthesised in pancreatic β cells by extensive posttranslational modification of preproinsulin. After folding and disulphide bond formation between insulin A and B chains, cleavage of the connecting C-peptide is required for biological activity (Fig. 1A). Proinsulin demonstrates a somewhat modest 1-2% affinity for binding to the insulin receptor (INSR) compared to insulin and it is thought that there are two main reasons

¹ See: <u>http://www.vmd.defra.gov.uk/productinformationdatabase/SPC_Documents/SPC_124274.doc.</u>

for this (Peavy et al., 1985); insulin C-peptide does not seem to allow enough molecular flexibility to facilitate interaction with INSR binding sites and it interferes with important receptor-binding residues such as glycine at position A1. This presents a challenge for commercial production of recombinant insulin, since most methods are based on use of prokaryotic expression systems, with bacteria and yeast lacking the necessary cellular machinery and enzymes required for correct folding and processing of proinsulin to insulin.

75

The first recombinant insulin to become commercially available (Humulin, Eli Lilly) was based on a process whereby insulin A and B chains were produced separately in bacteria, then combined to form the biologically active molecule (Riggs and Itakura, 1979). However this process is somewhat inefficient and subsequently different techniques have been employed for commercial production of recombinant human insulin, which usually involves synthesis of a precursor molecule that is subjected to chemical and/or enzymatic modification (Christensen et al., 1991).

83

84 An alternative approach to synthesis of recombinant insulin is to produce single chain 85 insulin (SCI) analogues, which do not require post-translational modification to exert their biological activity (Kristensen et al., 1995). In SCI analogues, the proinsulin C-peptide is 86 87 substituted with alternative linking peptide sequences that allow folding and disulphide bond 88 formation between A and B chains, but which do not require cleavage and interfere with 89 binding to the INSR much less than the native C-peptide. One such construct, developed for 90 gene therapy of diabetes, involved substituting the insulin C-peptide with a synthetic peptide 91 linker (Lee et al., 2000).

92

93

There are other members of the insulin superfamily, with the most important being the

94 insulin-like growth factors IGF-1 and IGF-2 (Chan and Steiner, 2000). Unlike insulin, IGF-1
95 and IGF-2 do not require cleavage of their C-peptide to bind to their cognate receptors. IGF-2
96 has been implicated in the syndrome of non-islet cell tumour hypoglycaemia, which involves
97 production of an IGF-2 related peptide by tumour cells that acts on insulin receptors to cause
98 hypoglycaemia (Boari et al., 1995; LeRoith, 2004; Zini et al., 2007). Thus, insulin and IGF-2
99 both have glucose-lowering properties that might be exploited for developing a novel
100 therapeutic for canine diabetes.

101

102 The aim of the present study was to develop canine SCI analogues, whereby the insulin 103 C-peptide was substituted with either a synthetic peptide linker or alternatively the human or 104 canine IGF-2 C-peptide sequence, to express these recombinant SCI analogues in bacteria and 105 to assess their ability to bind to the INSR and stimulate glucose uptake in cultured cells. The 106 hypothesis was that such SCI analogues would be biologically active, without any requirement 107 for post-translational modification.

108

109 Materials and methods

110 Generation of canine single-chain insulin analogue constructs

The coding sequence for recombinant canine proinsulin (rcPROINS) was amplified by PCR with a high-fidelity proof-reading polymerase (Easy-A High-Fidelity PCR cloning kit, Stratagene) using canine insulinoma cDNA as the template. Restriction sites for *Eco*RI and *Sph*I were incorporated into the forward and reverse primers respectively (see Appendix: Supplementary material) to allow for subsequent directional subcloning of rcPROINS from the pSC-A cloning vector (Stratagene) to the pTAC-MAT-Tag-2 expression vector (Sigma-Aldrich).

119 Three SCI analogues were designed, each substituting the proinsulin C-peptide with a 120 different peptide linker sequence (Fig. 1B). The pSC-A/rcPROINS plasmid DNA was used as 121 the template for further PCR to generate the necessary coding sequences for each of the 122 constructs. Initially, primers designed to anneal to insulin A chain or B chain were modified by 123 adding specific synthetic oligonucleotide sequences encoding the linking GGGPGKR peptide 124 as well as restriction sites to facilitate ligation of the two elements into a single construct. The 125 pTAC-MAT-Tag-2/rcINS[GGGPGKR] construct was completed by digestion of PCR 126 products, followed by ligation into the pTAC-MAT-Tag-2 vector (see Appendix: 127 Supplementary material for more information on cloning strategy).

128

129 A synthetic oligonucleotide dimer encoding the FLAG epitope (Asp-Tyr-Lys-Asp-Asp-130 Asp-Asp-Lys) was inserted into these two expression constructs immediately upstream of and 131 in frame with the proinsulin coding sequence. Subsequently, pTAC-MAT-Tag-2/rcPROINS 132 plasmid DNA was used as the template to generate amplicons required to create the canine 133 insulin/IGF-2 C-peptide chimeric constructs, rcINS[cIGF-2C] and rcINS[hIGF-2C] (see 134 Appendix: Supplementary material for more information on cloning strategy). Constructs were 135 subcloned into the pFLAG-ATS (Sigma-Aldrich) periplasmic expression vector that had been 136 modified to incorporate a 3' metal affinity tag (pFLAG-MAT-Tag-ATS). Using the same 137 methodology, the MAT sequence was also inserted into the pFLAG-ATS+BAP (bacterial 138 alkaline phosphatase) vector (Sigma-Aldrich) to create pFLAG-MAT-Tag-ATS+BAP, used as 139 a positive control for expression studies. Plasmid DNA was transformed into BL-21(T1) E. 140 coli (Sigma-Aldrich) for expression of recombinant proteins.

141

142 Expression of recombinant SCI analogues

143 Expression of recombinant protein was performed in *E. coli*, transformed with plasmid

144 DNA encoding rcPROINS or the various SCI analogues. An individual colony was inoculated into 10 mL LB broth containing 100 µg/mL ampicillin (LB Liquid Amp, Fermentas) and 145 146 incubated in an orbital shaker at 145 rpm, 37 °C overnight. Bacterial cultures were diluted by adding 1 mL to 50 mL pre-warmed LB/Amp in a 250 mL baffled shaker flask (Erlenmeyer 147 148 Culture Flask Baffled Base, BD Falcon) and incubated at 145 rpm, 37 °C until they reached 149 the desired turbidity (optical density at 600 nm; $OD_{600} = 2.0$), as measured with an Eppendorf 150 BioPhotometer. Isopropyl β-D-1-thiogalactopyranoside (IPTG, Sigma-Aldrich) was added to 151 cultures at 1 mM for 4 h to stimulate recombinant protein expression. Bacterial pellets were 152 obtained by centrifuging samples at 2500 g for 15 min. Bacteria were lysed in 10 M guanidium 153 hydrochloride (Sigma-Aldrich) in PBS pH 7.2, centrifuged at 13,000 g for 2 min and 154 supernatants used for analysis. Alternatively bacterial pellets from 20 mL culture were 155 resuspended in 40 mL/g osmotic shock buffer (500 mM sucrose, 30 mM Tris-HCl, 1 mM 156 EDTA, pH 8.0; all Sigma-Aldrich) and centrifuged at 3500 g at 10 °C for 10 min. Pellets were 157 then resuspended in 25 mL/g ice-cold distilled water, incubated for 5 min, then centrifuged at 3500 g for 10 min at 4 °C to obtain the periplasmic fraction. 158

159

160 Analysis of recombinant SCI analogues by ELISA and Western blotting

161 Fifty microlitres of bacterial lysate were added to nickel-coated ELISA wells (Ni-NTA 162 HisSorb strips, Qiagen) and incubated at room temperature for 2 h. After three washes with 163 200 µL PBS supplemented with 0.1% Tween-20 (PBST), 50 µL per well of anti-FLAG M2 164 HRP antibody conjugate (Sigma-Aldrich) diluted 1:10,000 in PBST was added and plates incubated for 1 h. After a further six washes with PBST, binding of anti-FLAG was detected 165 166 by adding 50 µL per well of 3,3',5,5'-Tetramethylbenzidine (TMB liquid substrate system for ELISA, Sigma-Aldrich) and the reaction stopped by adding 100 µL 2M sulphuric acid (SLS). 167 168 The optical density at 450 nm (OD₄₅₀) of each well was then measured using a SpectraMax M2

169 microplate reader. Results are shown as the mean OD of triplicate wells, following subtraction 170 of values for background wells containing lysis buffer only. Estimation of FLAG-tagged 171 recombinant protein concentration in bacterial periplasmic samples was performed by 172 reference to a standard curve, constructed using a dilution series of FLAG-BAP control protein 173 (Sigma-Aldrich) in an anti-FLAG ELISA.

174

175 Bacterial periplasmic fractions were reduced using 10% β-mercaptoethanol (Sigma-176 Aldrich) in sodium dodecyl sulphate (SDS) buffer (RunBlue LDS sample buffer, Expedeon) 177 for 15 min at 95 °C. Denatured proteins were separated under reducing conditions using 16% 178 PAGE gels (RunBlue Gel, Expedeon) in an X-cell SureLock Mini-cell (Invitrogen) at constant 179 180V for 60 min. Transfer of the separated proteins to nitrocellulose membranes was performed 180 in the X-cell II Blot module (Invitrogen) using transfer buffer (PAGEgel.com) under reducing 181 conditions at constant 30 V for 60 min. Membranes were rinsed with PBST, blocked in PBST 182 supplemented with 5% dried skimmed milk (Marvel, Premier International Food) overnight, 183 then incubated for 60 min in 15 mL of anti-FLAG HRP antibody diluted 1:5000 in PBST/5% 184 milk. Membranes were subsequently washed four times with PBST and antibody binding 185 detected by enhanced chemiluminescence (Amersham ECL Western Blotting Detection Reagents, GE Healthcare) using autoradiography film (Amersham Hyperfilm ECL, GE 186 187 Healthcare).

188

189 *Receptor-binding assays*

Flat bottomed MaxiSorp microplates (Nunc) were coated with 50 μ L per well recombinant human insulin receptor (rhINSR) or IGF-1 receptor (rhIGF-1R) (R&D Systems) at 4 μ g/mL and incubated overnight at 4 °C. Negative control wells contained diluent (0.15 M PBS) only. After three washes with PBST, plates were blocked with 100 μ L per well PBST

194 supplemented with 5% bovine serum albumin (BSA), incubated for 3 h and washed a further 195 three times. Recombinant FLAG-tagged SCI analogues from bacterial periplasmic fractions 196 were added at 50 µL per well at the indicated concentrations. Biotinylated bovine insulin 197 (Sigma-Aldrich) or biotinvlated recombinant human IGF-1 (bIGF-1; IBT Systems) were used 198 as positive controls. Plates were incubated for 1 h prior to washing three times with PBST, then 199 100 µL per well of anti-FLAG HRP at 1:10,000 dilution or streptavidin HRP (Sigma-Aldrich) 200 at 1:200 dilution (both in PBST/0.1% BSA) added. Plates were incubated for 1 h, washed six 201 times with PBST then 50 µL per well of supersensitive TMB (Sigma-Aldrich) added. The 202 reaction was stopped by adding 100 µL 2M sulphuric acid and the absorbance at 450 nm 203 (OD₄₅₀) measured using a SpectraMax M2 microplate reader. Results were calculated as the 204 mean OD₄₅₀ of triplicate wells following subtraction of background values in the absence of 205 receptor; binding curves were constructed and analysed according to a four-parameter logistic 206 equation using GraphPad Prism version 5.0 for Windows. Relative binding activities were 207 compared using one-way ANOVA, followed by the Student's t-test with the Bonferroni post-208 hoc correction applied (PASW Statistics for Windows). Adjusted values were considered 209 significant at P < 0.05.

210

211 Glucose uptake assay

The ability of recombinant SCI analogues to induce a biological effect was assessed by measuring insulin-stimulated glucose uptake in cultured adipocytes. This was achieved using a mouse fibroblast cell line (3T3-L1, ATCC) which were differentiated into mature adipocytes (see Appendix: Supplementary material), then cultured with a fluorescent glucose analogue, 6-(N-(7-nitrobenz-2-oxa-1,3-diazol-4-yl)amino)-6-deoxyglucose (6-NBDG), according to a previously described protocol (Jung et al., 2011). Briefly, triplicate wells of 3T3-L1 cells cultured in 24-well plates were used for experiments on days 8-15 post-induction of 219 differentiation. Cells were cultured in serum-free, low glucose (1.5 g/L) Dulbecco's Modified Eagles Medium (Sigma-Aldrich) for 2 h at 37 °C, 5% CO₂. Following aspiration of culture 220 221 medium, cells were then incubated for 1 h at 37 °C, 5% CO₂, in 250 µL PBS containing 100 µM 6-NBDG in the presence or absence of 5 nM porcine insulin (Sigma-Aldrich), which is 222 223 identical to canine insulin, or the different recombinant SCI analogues, isolated from bacterial 224 periplasmic fractions. Cells were washed three times with 500 µL PBS and lysed using 650 µL 225 per well 90% dimethyl-sulfoxide. Two hundred microlitres was transferred in triplicate to black 226 96-well plates and fluorescence measured using a SpectraMax M2 microplate reader ($\lambda_{ex} = 466$ nm, $\lambda_{em} = 540$ nm, cut-off = 530 nm). Fluorescence was compared between stimulated and 227 228 unstimulated cells and between the different SCI analogues using one-way ANOVA, followed 229 by the Student's t-test with the Bonferroni post-hoc correction applied (PASW Statistics for 230 Windows). Adjusted values were considered significant at P < 0.05.

231

232 Results

233 Characterisation of recombinant single-chain insulin analogues

234 All constructs (rcPROINS, rcINS[GGGPGKR], rcINS[cIGF2C] and rcINS[hIGF2C]) 235 were confirmed by sequencing in both pTAC-MAT-Tag-2 and pFLAG-MAT-Tag-ATS 236 expression vectors. All constructs were induced to express recombinant protein simultaneously 237 for 4 h and ELISA of bacterial whole cell lysates demonstrated the presence of recombinant 238 protein expressing both MAT and FLAG epitopes (Fig. 2). Since the SCI analogues were 239 designed flanked by FLAG at the 5' end and MAT at the 3' end, this was evidence that 240 recombinant protein was being expressed as anticipated, with expression from the pFLAG-241 MAT-Tag-ATS vector greater than from the pTAC-MAT-Tag-2 vector. Western blotting was 242 performed on the periplasmic fractions of bacteria transformed with the pFLAG-MAT-Tag-ATS constructs, confirming that the recombinant proteins were of the anticipated sizes (Fig. 243

244 3).

245

246 Binding of recombinant SCI analogues to insulin and IGF-1 receptors

To assess differential binding of the SCI analogues to the INSR and IGF-1R, a direct 247 248 ELISA was initially performed. This demonstrated that biotinylated insulin and IGF-1 249 preferentially bound their cognate receptors (Fig. 4A). Although rcPROINS showed a degree of binding to the INSR and IGF-1R, binding to the INSR was greater and more selective, 250 251 compared to binding to IGF-1R for the three SCI analogues assessed (Fig. 4A). Comparing the 252 relative binding for ligands to rhINSR and rhIGF-1R, revealed ratios of 1.6:1 for rcPROINS, 4.9:1 for rcINS[GGGPGKR], 3.1:1 for rcINS[cIGF-2C] and 4.9:1 for rcINS[hIGF-2C], 253 254 compared to 5.5:1 for insulin and 0.17:1 for IGF-1.

255

256 Dose-response curves for binding of each recombinant protein to rhINSR demonstrated 257 that saturation was reached at approximately 5 nM (Fig. 4B). The dose-response curve for 258 rcPROINS was shifted to the right, whilst the curves for all SCI analogues were similar. A 259 competitive-inhibition ELISA against biotinylated insulin was performed to obtain 260 comparative IC₅₀ values for the binding of each rcINS to the insulin receptor (Fig. 4C). It was 261 not possible to obtain an IC₅₀ value for rcPROINS, since sufficient inhibition of the signal 262 could not be achieved with the maximum concentration of recombinant protein available. The 263 relative IC₅₀ values for rcINS[cIGF-2C] and for rcINS[hIGF-2C] were similar, at 593 pM and 264 613 pM respectively. The lowest IC₅₀ was demonstrated by rcINS[GGGPGKR], at 187 pM, suggesting a higher affinity for the insulin receptor compared to the rcINS[IGF-2C] constructs. 265 266

267 Stimulation of glucose uptake by recombinant SCI analogues

268

Fluorescent glucose uptake was not significantly different comparing unstimulated

cells to cells incubated with rcPROINS (Fig. 5). In contrast, fluorescent glucose uptake by cells incubated with porcine insulin, rcINS[GGGPGKR], rcINS[cIGF-2C] and rcINS[hIGF-2C] was significantly greater than in unstimulated cells (P < 0.05). While cells cultured with each SCI analogue demonstrated significantly greater fluorescence than with rcPROINS (P < 0.05), there was no significant difference comparing the three different recombinant SCI analogues.

274

275 **Discussion**

The present study developed a number of plasmid DNA constructs that could be used for prokaryotic expression of recombinant SCI analogues, where the insulin C-peptide was replaced with either a synthetic linker, canine IGF-2 C-peptide or human IGF2-C peptide. These SCI analogues were shown to be capable of binding to the INSR and stimulating glucose uptake in vitro.

281

Recombinant proteins produced in this study were expressed as epitope-tagged fusion proteins. Prokaryotic vectors were selected that produced recombinant proteins with a Cterminal metal-affinity tag. Such epitope-tagged recombinant proteins can be immobilised using metals such as nickel, which is useful for both detection and purification. A FLAG epitope was inserted upstream of the B-chain coding sequence, which also possessed an enterokinase cleavage site immediately before the start of the B-chain, so that this epitope could potentially be removed, if the presence of the FLAG peptide inhibited receptor binding.

289

Expression of each construct was assessed by both ELISA and Western blotting, demonstrating that recombinant proteins of the appropriate sizes were produced from both pTAC-MAT-Tag-2 and pFLAG-MAT-Tag-ATS vectors in *E. coli*. Expression from pTAC-MAT-Tag-2 resulted in production of recombinant protein for each rcINS construct, although subsequent work demonstrated that this was primarily in the insoluble fraction (data not shown). Expression of recombinant protein in *E. coli* commonly results in aggregation and formation of inclusion bodies (Thomas and Baneyx, 1996). The reducing environment of the bacterial cytosol does not favour folding of eukaryotic protein, especially those reliant on disulphide bond formation (Mergulhao et al., 2004), such as insulin (Williams et al., 1982).

299

300 Unlike the bacterial cytosol, the periplasm (the space between the inner cytoplasmic 301 membrane and external outer membrane of Gram-negative bacteria) provides an oxidising 302 environment which is more favourable for protein folding and disulphide bond formation 303 (Baneyx and Mujacic, 2004). Therefore, the pFLAG-MAT-Tag-ATS vector was employed in 304 an attempt to increase the yield of soluble protein. The pFLAG-MAT-Tag-ATS vector encodes 305 the outer membrane protein A signal peptide (OmpA) and incorporation of this sequence at the 306 N-terminus targets recombinant protein to the periplasm, where the OmpA is cleaved by signal 307 peptidase as the recombinant protein crosses the bacterial inner cytoplasmic membrane (Freudl 308 et al., 1987). Western blot analysis of periplasmic preparations, isolated for use in downstream 309 assays demonstrated the molecular weight differences between the different rcINS proteins 310 (Fig. 3).

311

Receptor-binding assays were developed to assess the different SCI analogues against rhINSR and rhIGF-1R, with biotinylated insulin and IGF-1 used as control ligands. Although human recombinant receptors were used, this was considered appropriate since canine $IGF-1^2$ and human $IGF-1^3$ share an identical sequence and canine insulin⁴ and human insulin⁵ differ by only one amino acid in the B chain (B30A/T). However, it should be noted that these studies

² See: <u>http://www.uniprot.org/uniprot/P33712</u>

³ See: <u>http://www.uniprot.org/uniprot/Q9NP10</u>

⁴ See: <u>http://www.uniprot.org/uniprot/P01321</u>

⁵ See: <u>http://www.uniprot.org/uniprot/P01308</u>

were undertaken with heterologous receptors, which might not represent the situation with autologous canine receptors. Initial studies established the working range of the assays with a receptor concentration of 2–4 μ g/mL found to be optimal, resulting in sensitivity for ligand binding down to approximately 0.1 nM. It was important to assess binding to rhIGF-1R as well as to rhINSR, since an insulin analogue might have the potential for increased affinity, resulting from changes to the peptide sequence, with subsequent mitogenic activity and increased oncogenic potential (Vajo et al., 2001).

324

325 Detection using anti-FLAG antibody confirmed that all SCI analogues were able to bind to both rhINSR and rhIGF-1R. Binding of rcPROINS to rhINSR resulted in a significantly 326 327 weaker signal compared to each of the SCI analogues, suggesting lower affinity for the 328 receptor. This is consistent with other studies, which demonstrate that proinsulin has relative 329 affinity of 1-2% for INSR compared to insulin (Lee et al., 2000). There was no significant 330 difference in signal for rhINSR binding comparing the different SCI analogues. Incubation 331 with rhIGF-1R gave significantly reduced signals for rcPROINS and for each SCI analogue, 332 compared to binding to rhINSR, and there was no significant difference in rhIGF-1R signal 333 within the rcPROINS/rcINS group.

334

The results of the receptor-binding assays suggest that all SCI analogues demonstrate greater affinity for the rhINSR than for the rhIGF-1R, with rcINS[GGGPGKR] and rcINS[hIGF-2C] showing relative binding similar to that demonstrated by insulin. Using a competitive-inhibition ELISA against INSR, the rcINS[GGGPGKR] analogue demonstrated the highest relative affinity (IC₅₀ = 187 pM), followed by rcINS[cIGF-2C] (IC₅₀ = 593 pM) and rcINS[cIGF-2C] (IC₅₀ = 613 pM). It was not possible to calculate IC₅₀ for rcPROINS since sufficient inhibition could not be achieved, even using a concentration of 20 nM. This indicates that each of the SCI analogues showed much greater affinity than rcPROINS. The two
insulin/IGF-2 C-peptide chimaeric proteins demonstrated similar relative affinity for rhINSR,
which is unsurprising since they differ by only two residues (Fig. 1B).

345

346 There are several other studies describing binding characteristics of SCI analogues. Lee 347 et al. (2000), who developed a human SCI analogue containing the GGGPGKR linker, 348 compared its receptor binding with both insulin and proinsulin, reporting an affinity for the 349 INSR of 28% compared to native insulin, and 1350% that of proinsulin. In a more recent study 350 investigating over 30 different SCI analogues, it was concluded that intermediate linking 351 peptides of 7-10 residues, composed primarily of glycine residues (to promote molecular flexibility) along with a C-terminal arginine, demonstrate the greatest INSR affinities and 352 353 bioactivity (Rajpal et al., 2009). Indeed, a SCI analogue with a hexapeptide linking sequence 354 (GGGPRR) has demonstrated enhanced INSR affinity of 130% compared to native insulin, 355 although in that particular molecule the A8:threonine residue was also replaced with histidine 356 (Hua et al., 2008).

357

358 We are not aware of any studies that have investigated SCI analogues based on the 359 concept of an insulin/IGF-2 C-peptide chimaera, although there has been a report of an 360 insulin/IGF-1 C-peptide chimaera (Kristensen et al. 1995). The binding affinity for that 361 molecule compared favourably with insulin, and was reported to be between 55-94%. This was 362 surprising since the presence of the linking peptide was predicted to limit the flexibility of the 363 insulin domains necessary for receptor binding, and it was also expected to impair the 364 important A1:glycine residue essential for receptor binding (Pullen et al., 1976). It was 365 proposed that the C-peptide of IGF-1 interacted directly with a conserved domain in the INSR since this receptor and the IGF-1R are similar. This is unlikely to be the case with an 366

insulin/IGF-2 C-peptide chimaera since the IGF-2R belongs to a functionally different receptorclass.

369

In glucose uptake assays, adipocytes derived from 3T3-L1 cells incubated with porcine insulin, rcINS[GGGPGKR], rcINS[cIGF-2C] or rcINS[hIGF-2C] all resulted in significantly higher fluorescence (suggesting GLUT4 mediated 6-NBDG uptake) compared to unstimulated cells. All SCI analogues resulted in comparable 6-NBDG uptake, which was significantly greater than that seen with rcPROINS. This indicates that substitution of the proinsulin Cpeptide for the various linker peptides resulted in biologically-active molecules.

376

377 Conclusions

The present study has demonstrated that it is possible to produce recombinant canine SCI analogues that are capable of INSR binding and stimulating glucose uptake in cells, without the need for post-translational processing. This work paves the way for production of recombinant canine insulin analogues that could be scaled up, with a view to developing novel therapeutics for canine diabetes.

383

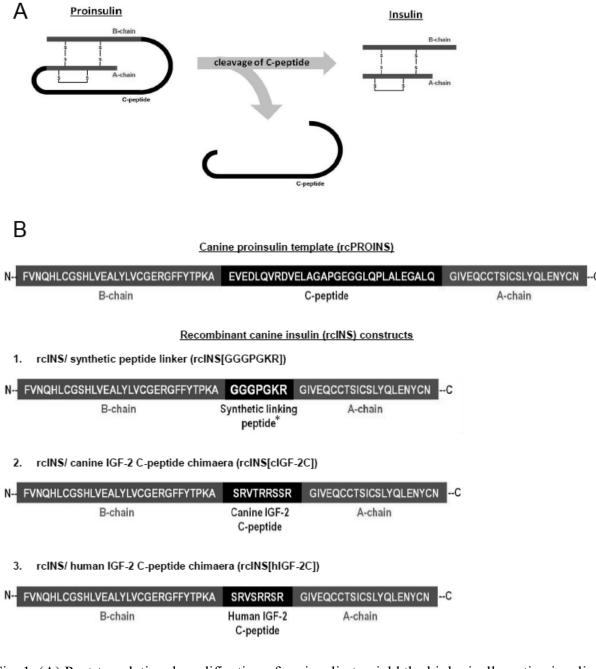
384 Conflict of interest statement

None of the authors of this paper has any financial or personal relationship with other people or organizations that could inappropriately influence or bias the content of the paper. This work was undertaken as part of a BBSRC CASE studentship with MSD Animal Health as the industrial sponsor. MSD Animal Health had no involvement in the study design, collection, analysis and interpretation of data, writing of this manuscript or the decision to submit the article for publication.

392 Acknowledgements We are grateful to BBSRC for funding this industrial CASE studentship 393 394 (BB/E527798/1) and to MSD Animal Health for their participation as the industrial partner. 395 **Appendix: Supplementary material** 396 397 Supplementary data to this article can be found online at doi:xxx 398 399 References 400 Baneyx, F., Mujacic, M., 2004. Recombinant protein folding and misfolding in Escherichia 401 coli. Nature Biotechnology 22, 1399-1408. 402 403 Boari, A., Barreca, A., Bestetti, G.E., Minuto, F., Venturoli, M., 1995. Hypoglycemia in a dog with a leiomyoma of the gastric wall producing an insulin-like growth factor II-like 404 405 peptide. European Journal of Endocrinology 132, 744-750. 406 407 Borgono, C.A., Zinman, B., 2012. Insulins: Past, present, and future. Endocrinology and 408 Metabolism Clinics of North America 41, 1-24. 409 410 Catchpole, B., Kennedy, L.J., Davison, L.J., Ollier, W.E., 2008. Canine diabetes mellitus: from 411 phenotype to genotype. Journal of Small Animal Practice 49, 4-10. 412 413 Chan, S.J., Steiner, D.F., 2000. Insulin through the ages: Phylogeny of a growth promoting and 414 metabolic regulatory hormone. American Zoologist 40, 213-222. 415 416 Christensen, T., Dalboge, H., Snel, L., 1991. Postbiosynthesis modification: Human growth 417 hormone and insulin precursors. Bioprocess Technology 13, 206-221. 418 419 DeChiara, T.M., Efstratiadis, A., Robertson, E.J., 1990. A growth-deficiency phenotype in 420 heterozygous mice carrying an insulin-like growth factor II gene disrupted by 421 targeting. Nature 345, 78-80. 422 423 Freudl, R., Schwarz, H., Degen, M., Henning, U., 1987. The signal sequence suffices to direct 424 export of outer membrane protein OmpA of Escherichia coli K-12. Journal of 425 Bacteriology 169, 66-71. 426 427 Hua, Q.X., Nakagawa, S.H., Jia, W., Huang, K., Phillips, N.B., Hu, S.Q., Weiss, M.A., 2008. 428 Design of an active ultrastable single-chain insulin analog: Synthesis, structure, and 429 therapeutic implications. Journal of Biological Chemistry 283, 14703-14716. 430 431 Jung, D.W., Ha, H.H., Zheng, X., Chang, Y.T., Williams, D.R., 2011. Novel use of fluorescent 432 glucose analogues to identify a new class of triazine-based insulin mimetics 433 possessing useful secondary effects. Molecular Biosystems 7, 346-358

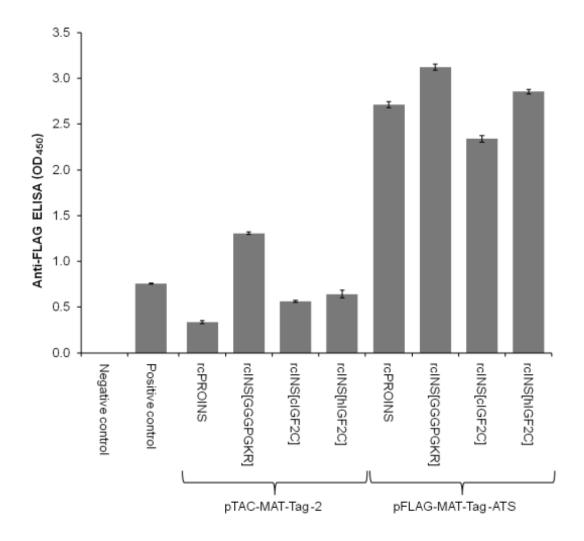
10.1	
434	
435	Kristensen, C., Andersen, A.S., Hach, M., Wiberg, F.C., Schaffer, L., Kjeldsen, T., 1995. A
436	single-chain insulin-like growth factor I/insulin hybrid binds with high affinity to the
437	insulin receptor. Biochemical Journal 305, 981-986.
438	
439	Lee, H.C., Kim, S.J., Kim, K.S., Shin, H.C., Yoon, J.W., 2000. Remission in models of type 1
440	diabetes by gene therapy using a single-chain insulin analogue. Nature 408, 483-488.
441	
442	LeRoith, D., 2004. Non-islet cell hypoglycemia. Annals of Endocrinology 65, 99-103.
443	
444	Liu, J.P., Baker, J., Perkins, A.S., Robertson, E.J., Efstratiadis, A., 1993. Mice carrying null
445	mutations of the genes encoding insulin-like growth factor I (Igf-1) and type 1 IGF
446	receptor (Igf1r). Cell 75, 59-72.
447	
448	Mergulhao, F.J., Taipa, M.A., Cabral, J.M., Monteiro, G.A., 2004. Evaluation of bottlenecks in
449	proinsulin secretion by Escherichia coli. Journal of Biotechnology 109, 31-43.
450	
451	Peavy, D.E., Brunner, M.R., Duckworth, W.C., Hooker, C.S., Frank, B.H., 1985. Receptor
452	binding and biological potency of several split forms (conversion intermediates) of
453	human proinsulin. Studies in cultured IM-9 lymphocytes and in vivo and in vitro in
454	rats. Journal of Biological Chemistry 260, 13989-13994.
455	
456	Pullen, R.A., Lindsay, D.G., Wood, S.P., Tickle, I.J., Blundell, T.L., Wollmer, A., Krail, G.,
457	Brandenburg, D., Zahn, H., Gliemann, J., Gammeltoft, S., 1976. Receptor-binding
458	region of insulin. Nature 259, 369-373.
459	
460	Rajpal, G., Liu, M., Zhang, Y., Arvan, P., 2009. Single-chain insulins as receptor agonists.
461	Molecular Endocrinology 23, 679-688.
462	
463	Riggs, A.D., Itakura, K., 1979. Synthetic DNA and medicine. American Journal of Human
464	Genetics 31, 531-538.
465	
466	Rucinsky, R., Cook, A., Haley, S., Nelson, R., Zoran, D.L., Poundstone, M., 2010. AAHA
467	diabetes management guidelines for dogs and cats. Journal of the American Animal
468	Hospital Association 46, 215-224.
469	110spital / 850clation 40, 215-224.
470	Thomas, J.G., Baneyx, F., 1996. Protein misfolding and inclusion body formation in
471	recombinant <i>Escherichia coli</i> cells overexpressing heat-shock proteins. Journal of
472	Biological Chemistry 271, 11141-11147.
473	Diological Chemistry 271, 11141-11147.
473	Vajo, Z., Fawcett, J., Duckworth, W.C., 2001. Recombinant DNA technology in the treatment
475	of diabetes: Insulin analogs. Endocrinology Reviews 22, 706-717.
	of diabetes. Insulin analogs. Endocrinology Reviews 22, 700-717.
476	Williams D.C. Van Frank D.M. Muth W.L. Durnatt I.D. 1092 Catanlagmia inclusion
477	Williams, D.C., Van Frank, R.M., Muth, W.L., Burnett, J.P., 1982. Cytoplasmic inclusion
478	bodies in <i>Escherichia coli</i> producing biosynthetic human insulin proteins. Science
479	215, 687-689.
480	
481	Zini, E., Glaus, T.M., Minuto, F., Arvigo, M., Hauser, B., Reusch, C.E., 2007. Paraneoplastic
482	hypoglycemia due to an insulin-like growth factor type-II secreting hepatocellular
483	carcinoma in a dog. Journal of Veterinary Internal Medicine 21, 193-195.
484	

485 Figure legends



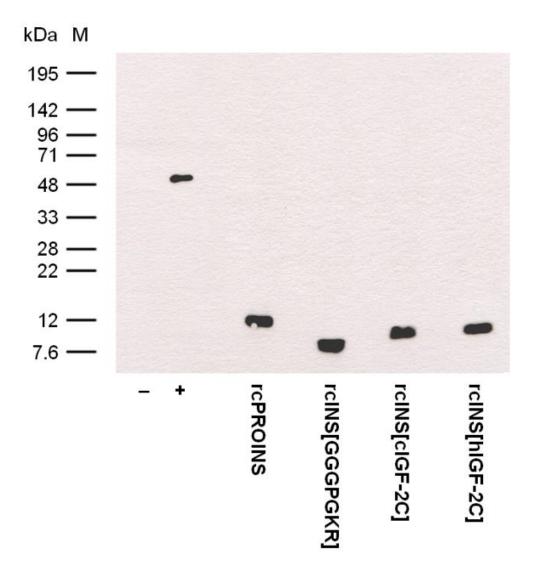
486

Fig. 1. (A) Post-translational modification of proinsulin to yield the biologically-active insulin and C-peptide. (B) Details of single chain insulin analogues adapted from recombinant canine proinsulin (rcPROINS) for the present study. Three different recombinant canine insulin analogues (rcINS) were generated, where the insulin C-peptide was substituted with different linking peptide sequences.



493

494 Fig. 2. Detection of FLAG-tagged recombinant protein. BL-21(T1) Escherichia coli were 495 transformed with each rcINS construct in one of two expression vectors. After induction of 496 expression, bacterial lysates were prepared and analysed by ELISA, using nickel-coated plates 497 to capture proteins expressing a metal-affinity tag and detected using an anti-FLAG antibody. 498 Absorbance is shown as the mean \pm standard error of the mean (SEM) of triplicate wells 499 following subtraction of background (lysis buffer only). Negative control is lysate from 500 bacteria transformed with wild-type pTAC-MAT-Tag-2 plasmid DNA. Positive control is lysate 501 from bacteria transformed with pFLAG-MAT-Tag-ATS+BAP. The experiment was repeated 502 with similar results.



505 Fig. 3. Western blotting of FLAG-tagged rcINS isolated from bacterial periplasmic fractions. 506 BL-21 (T1) Escherichia coli were transformed with pFLAG-MAT-Tag-ATS plasmid DNA 507 containing the indicated constructs. After induction of expression, bacteria were subjected to 508 osmotic lysis and periplasmic samples analysed by Western blotting, using an anti-FLAG 509 antibody, detected by enhanced chemiluminescence. The negative control (-) is from bacteria 510 transformed with wild-type pTAC-MAT-Tag-2 vector and the positive control (+) is from 511 bacteria transformed with pFLAG-MAT-Tag-ATS+BAP (anticipated size of bacterial alkaline 512 phosphatase ~50kDa). M, molecular weight marker.

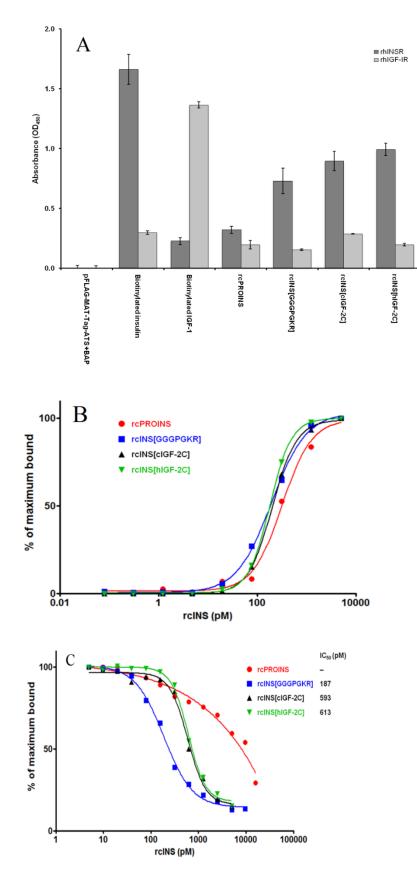
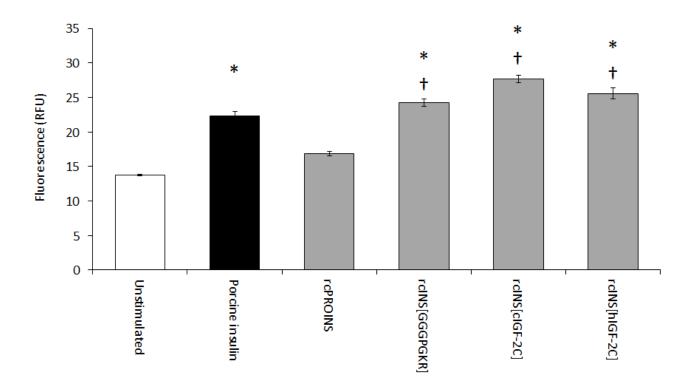




Fig. 4. (A) Binding of rcINS constructs to INSR and IGF-1R. ELISA wells were coated with 4
μg/mL rhINSR or rhIGF-1R. Biotinylated bovine insulin, biotinylated human IGF-1 or

periplasmic fractions of the indicated constructs (all 5 nM) were added and binding detected using either streptavidin-HRP or anti-FLAG HRP antibody. Absorbance is shown as the mean \pm standard error of the mean (SEM) of triplicate wells. (B) Dose-response curve for binding of rcINS constructs to INSR. (C) Competition-ELISA for binding of rcINS constructs to INSR. Increasing concentrations of rcINS protein were co-cultured in rhINSR coated plates in the presence of 3 nM biotinylated bovine insulin, with binding detected using streptavidin-HRP.



523

Fig. 5. Assessment of insulin-stimulated glucose uptake in 3T3-L1 adipocytes. 3T3-L1 524 adipocytes were serum-starved in low-glucose DMEM for 2 h prior to incubation with 525 526 fluorescent glucose analogue 6-NBDG for 1 h in the presence of 5 nM porcine insulin, 527 recombinant canine proinsulin (rcPROINS) or the indicated recombinant canine insulin analogues. Cells were lysed and fluorescence measured ($\lambda_{ex} = 466 \text{ nm}$, $\lambda_{em} = 540 \text{ nm}$, cut-off 528 529 = 530 nm). Results represent the mean of triplicate samples \pm SEM. The Student's t test was 530 used to compare fluorescence of stimulated cells to unstimulated cells (* P < 0.05) and to compare recombinant insulin analogues to rcPROINS ([†] P < 0.05). 531

33 Appendix: Supplementary Table 1

Restriction endonuclease sites shown underlined; coding sequences in bold refer to explanation in target column.

Primer name	Target	Prim	er sequence	Amplicon length (bp)
PROINS pTACMAT EcoRI/SphI	Canine proinsulin coding sequence with additional restriction site <i>Eco</i> RI for cloning	For:	<u>GAATTC</u> GTTAACCAGCACCTG	268
	Canine proinsulin coding sequence with additional restriction site SphI for cloning	Rev:	<u>GCATGC</u> CGTTGCAGTAATTCTCCAG	
INS A CORE	Amplification of canine insulin A chain. Used with PROINS pTACMAT Sph1 REV.	For:	GGCATCGTGGAGCAGTGC	70
INS B CORE	Amplification of canine insulin B chain. Used with PROINS pTACMAT <i>Eco</i> RI FOR	Rev:	GGCCTTAGGCGTGTAGAAG	93
INS A LINK	Modified INS A CORE primer to generate synthetic linker sequence (in bold). Contains Xmal restriction site. Used with PROINS	For:	CCCGGGTAAGAGAGGCATCGTGGAGCAGTGC	83
INS B LINK	pTACMAT Spill REV Modified INS B CORE primer to generate synthetic linker sequence (in bold). Contains Xmal restriction site. Used with PROINS	Rev:	ATA <u>CCCGGG</u> CCACCACCTGCCTTAGGCGTGTAG	110
INSA cIGF2C	pTACMAT <i>Eco</i> RI FOR Amplification of canine insulin A chain and part of canine IGF-2 C peptide (in bold). Contains <i>Bg</i> /II site. Used with PROINS	For:	AGATCTAGCCGTGGCATCGTGGAGCAGTGC	82
INSB cIGF2C	pTACMAT Sph1 REV Amplification of canine insulin B chain and part of canine IGF-2 C peptide (in bold). Contains Bg/II site. Used with PROINS	Rev:	GATCT GCGAGTTACGCGAGAGGCCTTAGGCGTGTAGAAG	113
INSA hIGF2C	pTACMAT <i>Eco</i> RI FOR Amplification of canine insulin A chain and part of human IGF-2 C peptide (in bold). Contains <i>Xhal</i> site Used with PROINS	For:	TCTAGACGCAGCCGTGGCATCGTGGAGCAGTGC	85
INSB hIGF2C	pTACMAT Sph1 REV Amplification of canine insulin B chain and part of human IGF-2 C peptide (in bold). Contains Xba1 site. Used with PROINS pTACMAT EcoRI FOR	Rev:	GA <u>TCTAGA</u> CACGCGGCTGGCCTTAGGCGTGTAGAAG	110

For, forward; Rev, reverse; bp, base pairs.

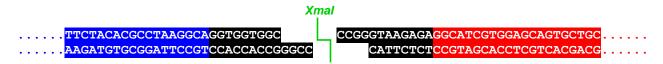
<u>339</u>

Separate coding sequences for canine insulin A-chain and B-chain were generated by PCR, using pSC-A/rcPROINS pDNA as template. The reverse primer for the insulin B chain, and the forward primer for the insulin A-chain incorporated the additional coding sequence for the synthetic peptide linker (GGGPGKR) as well as for *Xmal*, to facilitate ligation.

	PCR product for insulin B-chain + synthetic peptide linker (INSB/GGG) coding sequence (110 bp). Primer pair: PROINS pTACMAT EcoRI For/		
EcoRI	Incorporated 5' <i>EcoRI</i> site and 3' <i>XmaI</i> site:	Xmal	
GAA <mark>TTC</mark>	<u>GTTAACCAGCACCTG</u> TGTGGCTCCCACCTGGTAGAGGCTCTGTACCTGGTGTGCGGGGAGCGCGGCTT <u>CTTCTACACGCCTAAGGCA</u>	GGTGGTGG <mark>CCCGG</mark> GTAT	
CTT <mark>AAG</mark>	CAATTGGTCGTGGACACACCGAGGGTGGACCATCTCCGAGACATGGACCACACGCCCCTCGCGCCGAAGAAGATGTGCGGATTCCGT	CCACCACC <mark>GGGCCC</mark> ATA	

PCR product for synthetic peptide linker + insulin A-chain (PKGR/INSA) coding sequence (83 bp). Primer pair: INS A LINK For/ PROINS pTACMAT Sphl Rev Incorporated 5' Xmal site and 3' Sphl site:

1. The complete coding sequence for rcINS[GGGPGKR] was constructed via ligation of sticky ends generated following digestion of coding sequences with Xmal.

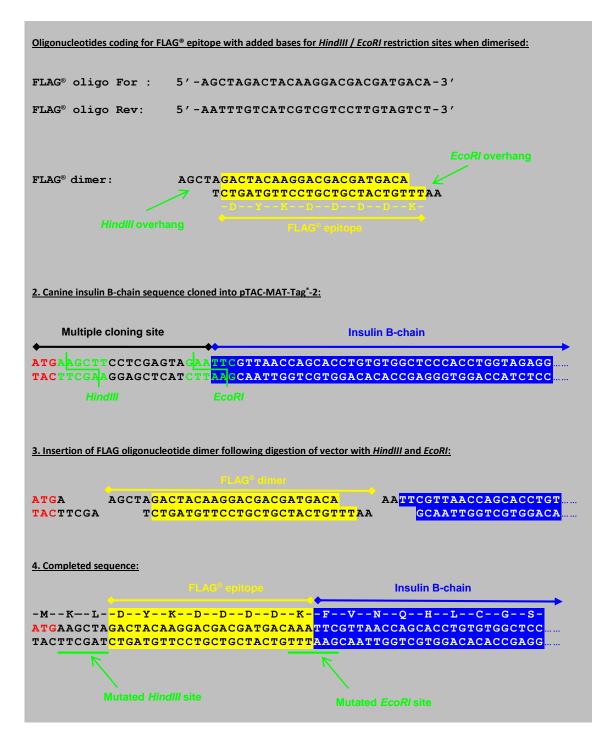


2. rcINS[GGGPGKR] following ligation:

Insulin B-chain	Synthetic linker	Insulin A-chain
 -FYTPKA-	-GGGPGKR-	-GIVEQCC-
 TTCTACACGCCTAAGGCA	GGTGGTGGCCCGGGTAAGAGA	GGCATCGTGGAGCAGTGCTGC
 AAGATGTGCGGATTCCGI	CCACCACCGGGCCCATTCTCT	CCGTAGCACCTCGTCACGACG

Suppl Fig. 1. Generation of rcINS/ synthetic peptide linker (rcINS[GGGPGKR])

Coding sequences for insulin B-chain highlighted in <u>blue</u>, for linking peptide sequence in **black**, and for insulin A-chain highlighted in **red**. Non-coding sequences are not highlighted. Primer binding sites are shown underlined. Restriction sites shown in *green*. Primer sequences are given in Supplementary Table 1.



Suppl. Fig. 2. Schematic illustrating insertion of FLAG[®] coding sequence into pTAC-MAT-Tag[®]-2/rcPROINS and pTAC-MAT-Tag[®]-2/rcINS[GGGPGKR]

FLAG oligonucleotides were annealed to form a dimer and then ligated into the pTAC-MAT-Tag[®]-2 vector containing rcPROINS or rcINS[GGGPGKR] which had been digested with *HindIII* and *EcoRI*. Recognition sites shown in green, start codon in red.

Separate coding sequences for canine insulin A-chain and B-chain were generated by PCR, using pSC-A/rcPROINS or pTAC-MAT-Tag[®]-2/FLAG[®]-rcPROINS pDNA respectively as template. The reverse primer for the insulin B chain, and the forward primer for the insulin A-chain incorporated the additional coding sequence for the canine IGF-2 C-peptide (cIGF-2C) as well as for *BgIII*, to facilitate ligation.

> PCR product for canine IGF-2 C-peptide + insulin A-chain coding sequence (82 bp). Primer pair: INS A cIGF2C For/ PROINS pTACMAT Sphl Rev Incorporated 5' BgIII site and 3' Sphl site: Sphl

<mark>AGATCTAGCCGT</mark>GGCATCGTGGAGCAGTGCTGCACCAGCATCTGCTCCCCTCTACCAGCTGGAGAATTACTGCAAC<mark>GGCATGC</mark> TCTAGATCGGCACCGTAGCACCTCGTCACGACGTGGTCGTAGACGAGGGAGATGGTCGACCTCTTAATGACGTTG<mark>CCGTACG</mark>

1. The complete coding sequence for rcINS[cIGF-2C] was constructed via ligation of sticky ends generated following digestion of both coding sequences with BgIII.



2. rcINS[cIGF-2C] following ligation:

Suppl. Fig. 3. Generation of rcINS/ canine IGF-2 C-peptide chimaera (rcINS[cIGF2-C])

Coding sequences for insulin B-chain highlighted in blue, for linking peptide sequence in black, and for insulin A-chain highlighted in red. FLAG[®] epitope coding sequence highlighted in yellow. Non-coding sequences are not highlighted. Primer binding sites are shown underlined. Restriction sites shown in green. Primer sequences are given in Supplementary Table 1.

Separate coding sequences for canine insulin A-chain and B-chain were generated by PCR, using pSC-A/rcPROINS or pTAC-MAT-Tag[®]-2/FLAG[®]-rcPROINS pDNA respectively as template. The reverse primer for the insulin B chain, and the forward primer for the insulin A-chain incorporated the additional coding sequence for the human IGF-2 C-peptide (hIGF-2C) as well as for *XbaI*, to facilitate ligation.

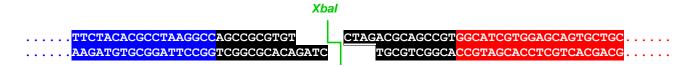
PCR proc	PCR product for insulin B-chain + human IGF-2 C-peptide coding sequence incorporating the FLAG [®] epitope (135 bp). Primer pair: FLAG [®] For/ INS B hIGF2C Rev		
HindIII	Incorporated 5' <i>EcoRI</i> site and 3' XbaI site (3' terminal T/A added by Taq DNA polymerase)	Xbal	
AAGCTT <mark>GACT</mark> .	AAGGACGACGGAAATGACAAA <mark>TTCGTTAACCAGCACCTGGAGCGCGGGCTT<mark>CTTCTACACGCCTAAGGCC</mark>AGCCGCGT</mark>	GTCTAGA	
TTCGAA <mark>CTGA</mark>	ITCCTGCTGCCTTTACTGTTTTGGTCGTGGACACACCCCTCGCGCCGAAGAAGATGTGCGGATTCCGGTCGGCGCA	CAGATCT	
	R product for human IGF-2 C-peptide + insulin A-chain coding sequence (85 bp). Primer pair: INS A hIGF2C/ PROINS pTACMAT SphI Rev		
	Incorporated 5' Xba/ site and 3' Sph/ site:		

 Xbal
 Sphl

 TCTAGACGCAGCCGTGGCATCGTGGAGCAGTGC
 GGCATCGCCCCCCTCTACCAGCTGGAGAATTACTGCAAC

 GGCATCCTGCGCACCGTGGCACCTCGTCACGACGTGGTCGTAGACGAGGGGAGATGGTCGACCTCTTAATGACGTTGCCGTACG
 GGCATGC

1. The complete coding sequence for rcINS[hIGF-2C] was constructed via ligation of sticky ends generated by digestion of both coding sequences with Xbal.

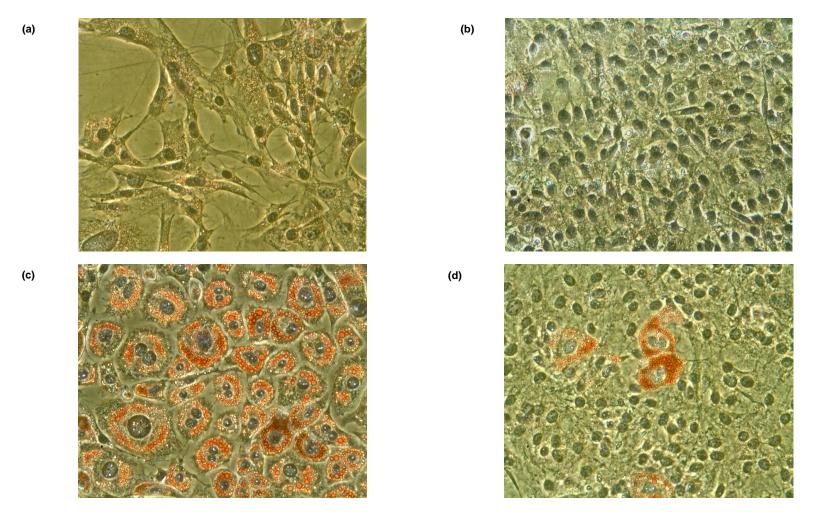


2. rcINS/hIGF-2C following ligation:

Insulin B-chain	Human IGF-2 C-peptide	Insulin A-chain
		-GIVEQCC-
TTCTACACGCCTAAGGC	CAGCCGCGTGTCTAGACGCAGCCGT	GGCATCGTGGAGCAGTGCTGC
AAGATGTGCGGATTCCG	<mark>G</mark> TCGGCGCACAGATCTGCGTCGGCA(CCGTAGCACCTCGTCACGACG

Suppl. Fig. 4. Generation of rcINS/ human IGF-2 C-peptide chimaera (rcINS[hIGF2-C])

Coding sequences for insulin B-chain highlighted in <u>blue</u>, for linking peptide sequence in <u>black</u>, and for insulin A-chain highlighted in <u>red</u>. FLAG[®] epitope coding sequence highlighted in <u>yellow</u>. Non-coding sequences are not highlighted. Primer binding sites are shown underlined. Restriction sites shown in *green*. Primer sequences are given in Supplementary Table 1.



Suppl Fig. 5 Murine fibroblasts were differentiated into adipocytes

Murine fibroblasts (3T3-L1) were seeded at a density of 1 x 10⁵ cells per well in 24-well tissue culture plates. After growing to confluency in DMEM/ 10% bovine calf serum, cells were cultured for another 48 h before induction of adipogenesis was induced with insulin, IBMX and dexamethasone in DMEM/ 10% FBS (day 0). Adipocyte differentiation was usually complete by day 8. Oil Red O/ haematoxylin staining, x200.

- (a) 3T3-L1 preadipocytes demonstrated a fibroblast-like morphology 2 d after seeding.
 (c) Day 8: 3T3-L1 cells had an adipocyte like morphology with much more rounded
- cytoplasm full of lipid droplets stained red with Oil Red O
- (b) Day 0: 48 h after cells became 100% confluent, usually 5-6 days after seeding.
- (d) Day 8: 3T3-L1 cells which were not stimulated with insulin, IBMX and dexamethasone. There was approximately 1 differentiated cell/ hpf.