Title: Tacrolimus, but not voclosporin, inhibits insulin secretion from human islets at a clinical

trough dose

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Abstract

Context. The incidence of new onset diabetes after transplant (NODAT) has increased over the past decade. It has been suggested that NODAT is caused by exposure to calcineurin inhibitors, particularly tacrolimus (TAC). Voclosporin (VCS), a next generation calcineurin inhibitor is reported to cause fewer incidences of NODAT.

Objective. Whilst calcineurin plays important roles in pancreatic β-cell survival, proliferation, and function, the effects of calcineurin inhibitors on human β-cells remain understudied. *In particular, we do not understand why some inhibitors have* more profound effects on the incidence of NODAT.

Design. Here, we compared the effects of TAC and VCS on the dynamics of insulin secretory function, the programmed cell death rate, and the transcriptomic profile of human islets. We studied two clinically relevant doses of TAC (10 ng/ml, 30 ng/ml) and VCS (20 ng/ml, 60 ng/ml), meant to approximate the clinical trough and peak concentrations.

Results. TAC, but not VCS, caused a significant impairment of 15 mM glucose-stimulated insulin secretion and 30 mM KCl-stimulated insulin secretion. This points to molecular defects in the distal stages of exocytosis after voltage-gated Ca_{2+} entry. No significant effects on islet cell survival or total islet insulin content were identified. RNA sequencing showed that TAC, and to a lesser extent VCS, decreased the expression of genes that regulate insulin exocytosis, trafficking, and processing, including *SYT16, SYT5, PITPNM1*, and *PAM*.

Conclusions. TAC directly inhibits insulin secretion, likely via transcriptional control of exocytosis machinery. VCS was found to be gentler on isolated human islets than TAC.

Introduction

New onset diabetes after transplant (NODAT) is a clinical problem that has increased in incidence over the past decade. It is widely believed that NODAT is caused by exposure to steroids or high dose calcineurin inhibitors, particularly tacrolimus, on cell types that are critical for the maintenance of glucose homeostasis (1). Tacrolimus (TAC; also known as FK506) is a mainstay for prevention of transplant rejection, but effective immunosuppression targeting a concentration range of 4-11 ng/mL still results in NODAT in > 20% of patients (2). There is an unmet clinical need for calcineurin inhibitors that do not cause diabetes in this already vulnerable patient population.

Voclosporin (VCS) is a next-generation calcineurin inhibitor that is structurally related to cyclosporine A (CsA) with the addition of a carbon molecule at amino acid-1 of (CsA). This modification results in enhanced binding of the VCS-cyclophilin complex to calcineurin and shifts metabolism, resulting in increased potency and a consistent pharmacokinetic-pharmacodynamic profile as compared to (CsA). VCS was previously evaluated in a Phase IIb, multi-center, open-label, concentration-controlled study in patients undergoing *de novo* renal transplantation, evaluating the efficacy and safety of three doses of VCS (0.4, 0.6, and 0.8 mg/kg BID) as compared to TAC (3). In that study, the low-dose VCS group had similar efficacy to tacrolimus in controlling acute rejection with a significantly decreased incidence of NODAT (1.6% vs. 16.4%, respectively, p=0.031) (3). In the AURA study for lupus nephritis, 1.1% of patients receiving VCS (23.7 mg) and 1.1% of patients in the placebo group reported diabetes (4), which can be compared to an approximate 25.7% of patients who developed diabetes while taking a standard dose of TAC for 1 year (5). Thus, a difference appears to exist between the clinical diabetes seen with TAC and VCS.

While the etiology of NODAT is not widely understood, calcineurin and NFAT are involved in a number of cellular processes outside of immunosuppression, including direct roles in normal pancreatic β-cell development and physiology (6-8). For example, Heit et al. reported that β-cell

selective knockout of calcineurin in mice reduced functional β-cell mass and caused diabetes that

could be rescued by over-expressing active NFATc1 (7). The effects of acute calcineurin inhibition

on human and mouse islet function was previously investigated in a study by our group comparing

clinically relevant concentrations of TAC, CsA, and rapamycin. *In vitro* experiments showed a

direct decrease in β-cell function after only 24 hours of exposure to TAC (6). Furthermore, we and

others have shown that inhibition of the calcineurin pathway by TAC impaired human islet graft

function *in vivo* (6,9). Thus, TAC has multiple pathological effects on pancreatic islets.

Here, we directly tested the hypothesis that VCS has lower human β-cell toxicity compared

with TAC, and we conducted studies designed to identify the molecular mechanisms involved (Fig

1A). We found that human islets exposed for 48 hours to TAC exhibited significantly reduced

glucose-stimulated insulin secretion, while VCS showed no statistically significant inhibition. RNA

sequencing showed that TAC, and to a lesser extent VCS, decreased the expression of genes

that regulate exocytosis. In support of the clinical observations, our data suggest that VCS is less

toxic to human pancreatic β-cells at human-correlated doses. Thus, more profound effect of

tacrolimus on NFAT when compared to VCS or CsA could provide an explanation of why the risk

of NODAT is higher in patients taking TAC than VCS.

Methods

Human islet culture

High-quality research specific human islets from consenting donors were obtained from

IsletCore Laboratory in Edmonton Alberta (10), and used under ethical approval from the UBC

Clinical Research Ethics Board (H13-01865). Islets were shipped in CMRL media (Thermo Fisher

Scientific) overnight from Edmonton to the University of British Columbia. Upon arrival, islets were

immediately purified by handpicking under a stereomicroscope and suspended in RPMI 1640

medium (Thermo Fisher Scientific) supplemented with 5.5 mmol glucose, 10% FBS, and 100

units/ml penicillin/streptomycin. Groups of 100 islets were placed in non-treated 100-mm

polystyrene petri dishes (Fisher Scientific), treated with vehicle DMSO, TAC (10 ng/ml, 30 ng/ml)

or VCS (20 ng/ml, 60 ng/ml), followed by 48-hr incubation at 37°C and 5% CO_2 (Fig. 1A). Donor

and isolation characteristics can be found in Figure 1B

Immunosuppression-related assays

The Calcineurin inhibitor assay and the T-cell proliferation assay are described in more detail

elsewhere (11,12). Briefly, peripheral blood mononuclear cell (PBMC) lysates were used in the

calcineurin assay after 25 min stimulation with PMA-A23187. After lysis with a calcineurin assay

buffer (no detergents) and 3 freeze-thaw cycles, the soluble fraction was probed by Western blot

with 1:200 Santa Cruz 13033 anti-NFAT2 antibody. Western blot analysis of NFAT accumulation

after treatment with indicated doses of VCS and TAC was then conducted to identify the relative

concentrations that elicited a similar response.

Dynamic analysis of insulin secretion from human islets

To define the dynamic effects of VCS and TAC on insulin secretion from human islets, we used

human islet perifusion studies (6). We assessed the effects of TAC (10 ng/ml, 30 ng/ml) and VCS

(20 ng/ml, 60 ng/ml) on the dynamics of insulin secretion in response to two stimuli that are

diagnostic of changes in metabolism/signalling or exocytosis. Our standard approach (6,13-18)

compared the response to 15 mM glucose stimulation and direct depolarization with 30 mM KCl.

More specifically, 65 islets per column were perifused (0.4 ml/min) with 3 mM glucose KRB

solution as described previously (6) for 60 min to equilibrate the islets to the KRB and flow rate,

and then with the indicated condition (as described in corresponding figure legends). DMSO, VCS

and TAC were present at the indicated concentrations during the entirety of the perifusion

experiment. We repeated this experiment on islets from 17 donors to take into account the

significant variability between human islet preparations (10). Samples were stored at −20 °C and

insulin secretion was quantified using human insulin radioimmunoassay kits (Cedarlane).

Cell death assays

Pancreatic islets from human cadaveric donors were dispersed and seeded into 384-well

plates and cultured in similar manner as previous described (19-22). Cells were stained with 50

ng/mL Hoechst 33342 (Invitrogen) and 0.5 µg/mL propidium iodide (PI) (Sigma-Aldrich) in RPMI

1640 medium (Invitrogen) with 5 mM glucose (Sigma-Aldrich), 100 U/mL penicillin, 100 µg/mL

streptomycin (Invitrogen), 10% vol/vol fetal bovine serum (FBS) (Invitrogen) with or without a

cytokine cocktail (25 ng/mL TNF-α, 10 ng/mL IL-1β, and 10 ng/mL IFN-γ; R&D Systems). We

have previously shown that neither of these chemicals affect islet cell viability on their own at

these concentrations (22). After 2 hours of staining, cells were incubated with different

concentrations of DMSO, tacrolimus or VCS (as described in figure 5C) and with a cytokine

cocktail (25 ng/mL TNF-α, 10 ng/mL IL-1β, and 10 ng/mL IFN-γ; R&D Systems). Immediately after

the addition of the test drugs, the cells were imaged at 37°C and 5% CO_2. Images were captured

every second hour for 48 hours using a robotic microscope (ImageXpress$_{MICRO}$ XLS, Molecular

Devices) and analyzed using MetaXpress multi-wave cell score Software (Molecular Devices). To

adjust for the difference in basal cell death for each individual run, each timepoint was normalized

to the first timepoint then further normalized to the cytokine control.

RNA-sequencing and pathway analysis

Groups of 200 islets from 7 independent donors were treated for 48 hours with vehicle (DMSO),

tacrolimus (30 ng/ml) or VCS (60 ng/ml) then immediately flash-frozen in liquid nitrogen and

stored at -80°C. RNA isolation, library preparation, RNA sequencing and bioinformatics support

were provided by the UBC Biomedical Research Centre Core Facility. Briefly, sample quality

control was performed using the Agilent 2100 Bioanalyzer. Qualifying samples were then prepped

following the standard protocol for the NEBnext Ultra ii Stranded mRNA (New England Biolabs).

Sequencing was performed on the Illumina NextSeq 500 with Paired End 42bp × 42bp reads. De-

multiplexed read sequences were then aligned to the reference sequence using STAR

(https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/23104886) aligners. Assembly and differential expression

were estimated using Cufflinks (http://cole-trapnell-lab.github.io/cufflinks/) through bioinformatics

apps available on Illumina Sequence Hub. FKPM reads were filtered to exclude genes with a

value <1 in the control islets (leaving 13,208 genes). We then sorted differentially expressed

genes by uncorrected *p* value < 0.01 using the comparison of DMSO vs TAC or DMSO vs VCS

to produce the heat map and a list of candidate genes.

Protein-protein interaction networks and pathway enrichment analyses were derived from

these genes and generated by the visual analytic platform, NetworkAnalyst 3.0

(http://www.networkanalyst.ca/) (23). PPI network data are based on STRING interactome.

Proteins that are linked to NFAT and calcineurin were selected and extracted as sub-networks

using the "Extract module" function.

Statistics and data analysis

Data were analyzed using a one-way multiple comparisons ANOVA followed by a *post hoc* t-

test using the Tukey HSD method, unless otherwise indicated. Data are expressed as means ±

SEM, and p < 0.05 was considered significant. n values represent the number of unique islet

donors studied.

Results

Effects of TAC and VCS on NFAT activity

Both TAC and VCS exert their immunosuppressive effects through inhibition of calcineurin

phosphatase activity, preventing the dephosphorylation and activation of NFATc (24,25). Each of

these two drugs is distinct with regard to its molecular mechanism of action. TAC interacts with

the immunophilin FKBP12 prior to binding calcineurin, whereas VCS interacts with cyclophilins.

The *in vitro* activity of TAC, VCS (and the structurally related inhibitor CsA) were compared in a

calcineurin inhibition assay and for their downstream ability to inhibit the division of activated T

cells. The IC_{50} of TAC against calcineurin was found to be approximately 4-fold lower than VCS,

in accordance with clinical dosing where the therapeutic range of TAC is 5-30 ng/mL and VCS

target trough concentrations are around 20-60 ng/mL (Fig 2A). Surprisingly, the potency

difference between TAC and VCS widened to 50-fold, in favor of TAC, when looking at inhibition

of T-cell proliferation (Fig 2A), leading to additional experiments comparing the impact of each

drug on their common pathway effector, NFAT. Maximal activation of NFAT was observed at 56

ng/mL of VCS and only 1.4 ng/mL of TAC, a potency difference of 40-fold (Fig. 2B,C,D). These

data demonstrate that, at therapeutic concentrations, TAC has a far more profound impact on

NFAT than VCS (Fig. 2E).

Effects of TAC or VCS on basal and glucose stimulated insulin secretion

Insulin is released from pancreatic islets, *in vivo* and *in vitro*, in a biphasic pattern that includes

both a rapid 1_{st} phase of pre-docked insulin granules and a 2_{nd} sustained phase involving granules

that are recruited to the plasma membrane (26). There is significant inter-individual variability in

the rate of insulin secretion from human islets (10) and the effects of immunosuppressants (6),

so we examined insulin secretion from high quality human islets isolated from 17 donors

exclusively for research purposes. We employed the dynamic perifusion system with frequent

sampling to evaluate basal insulin secretion at 3 mM glucose, both phases of insulin secretion

during 15 mM glucose stimulation, and insulin secretion in response to direct depolarization with

30 mM KCl. TAC at 10 ng/ml (clinical trough) and 20 ng/ml (clinical peak) significantly inhibited

total insulin secretion at 15 mM glucose (Fig. 3A,B), with a specific effect on the 2_{nd} phase but not

the 1_{st} phase (Fig. 3C,D). The insulin secretory response to 30 mM KCl was also significantly

inhibited by both concentrations of TAC (Fig. 3E). In contrast, VCS concentrations approximately

2 times higher than TAC had milder effects on glucose-stimulated insulin secretion. Specifically,

the clinical trough concentration of 20 ng/ml VCS was ~50% less inhibitory to the total and 2_{nd}

phase of insulin secretion and did not result in statistically significant inhibition (Fig. 3A,B,D). No

significant differences in basal insulin secretion were observed at 3 mM glucose for either drug at

either of the concentrations tested (Fig. 3F). Similar results were observed when the perifusion

data were normalized to basal insulin secretion (Fig. 3G,H). We were unable to detect significant

differences in acid-ethanol extractable insulin protein content in human islets treated with either

drug, at either concentration, for 48 hr (Fig. 4). These results indicate that the specific significant

inhibitory effects of TAC on total and 2_{nd} phase glucose-stimulated insulin secretion, as well as

insulin secretion stimulated by direct depolarization, are likely to be direct effects on the

exocytosis machinery rather than a result of reduced insulin production. Collectively, these data

also demonstrate that VCS has milder effects on human islet secretory function when compared

with TAC in this sensitive *in vitro* assay system.

Effects of TAC or VCS on human islet cell survival

We next assessed the effects of TAC and VCS on the survival of dispersed human islet cells

using our long-term high-content imaging protocols that measure both apoptotic and non-

apoptotic cell death over multiple days of culture in the presence of proinflammatory cytokines

(19-22) (Fig. 5A,B). We studied both TAC and VCS over a 5 point-dose response curve. We

observed no significant differences in human islet cell survival following either drug treatment (Fig.

5C). This is consistent with our data showing no changes in insulin content following 48 hrs of

drug treatment, further pointing to the primacy of the direct effect of TAC on insulin secretion.

Effects of TAC or VCS on human islet gene expression

In order to provide clues as to the underlying molecular mechanisms by which TAC, but not

VCS, significantly inhibits insulin secretion we performed RNAseq on human islets from 7 donors

(Fig 1B). As expected, there was significant donor to donor variation in gene expression (Fig. 6A).

Notwithstanding, we were able to make several conclusions from these data (Fig. 6A,B). The

most significantly differentially expressed gene was synaptotagmin 16 (*SYT16*), a member of the

synaptotagmin family of exocytosis-regulating proteins that has not previously been directly

implicated in insulin secretion. While we did not observe large statistical changes in specific

genes, pathway analysis showed that there was a significant over-representation of nominally

differentially expressed ($p < 0.001$) genes the Syntaxin-Binding 'Molecular Function' Gene

Ontology Term, as well as many related Cellular Component terms (Fig. 6B). These observations

further support the contention that TAC directly inhibits insulin granule trafficking and/exocytosis

in human β-cells.

Finally, we sought to bioinformatically connect the differentially expressed genes to the

NFAT/calcineurin signalling network known to mediate the proximal effects of these

immunosuppressants. Based on protein-protein interaction sub-network analysis, we identified

differentially expressed genes in both VSC and TAC treatments that are linked to NFAT/calcinerin

signaling (Fig. 7A,B). FOS and PTGS2 (COX2) are associated with NFAT subunits and were

downregulated by both treatments. ALB, upregulated by VSC, and MAPK4 and PPP1R1A, altered

by TAC, are associated with calcineurin subunits (PPP3CA/B/C). These analyses show how VCS

and TAC treatment affect the expression of specific genes via calcineurin signalling and lead us

to our current working model (Fig. 7C).

Discussion

The effects of calcineurin inhibitors on human β-cells remain understudied. A deeper

understanding of how immunosuppressive agents affect human islets is necessary to elucidate

the pathogenesis of NODAT and to identify immunosuppressants with improved safety profiles.

Thus, the objective of the present study was to determine the mechanism by which the next-

generation calcineurin inhibitor, VCS, has lower human β-cell toxicity compared with TAC. To

examine this, we compared the effects of TAC and VCS on the dynamics of insulin secretory

function, the programmed cell death, and the transcriptomic profile of isolated human islets. We

found that TAC, but not VCS, caused a significant impairment of both 15 mM glucose and 30 mM

KCl-stimulated insulin secretion at clinically relevant doses. We saw no effect on total insulin

content or human islet cell survival with either drug. Gene pathway enrichment analysis of

RNAseq data showed that TAC decreased the expression of genes that regulate exocytosis and

genes that regulate transport from the ER to the Golgi apparatus. VCS treatment also induced

these changes; however, it did so to a lesser extent. Thus, this greater inhibition could provide an

explanation of why the risk of NODAT is higher in patients taking TAC than the next generation

calcineurin inhibitor VCS. The equivalently immunosuppressive dose ranges of VCS and TAC we

used have dramatically different potencies on NFAT, suggesting that NFAT-mediated gene

expression mediates the observed effects on exocytosis regulating gene expression.

Previous studies have found that calcineurin inhibitors impair glucose-stimulated insulin

secretion (7,27-35), including in human islets (6,9,36-42). Our study extends these previous

findings by rigorously examining the kinetics of insulin release *in vitro* and by implicating a direct

effect on insulin granule trafficking. TAC at 10 ng/ml (clinical trough) and 20 ng/ml (clinical peak)

significantly inhibited total insulin secretion in response to 15 mM glucose and this inhibition was

directly due to a specific effect on the 2nd phase of insulin release. Furthermore, KCl-stimulated

insulin secretion was decreased to a similar degree, implicating secretory pathways distal to Ca_{2+}

entry via voltage-gated Ca_{2+} channels. Together, these data suggest that the readily releasable

pool of insulin granules is not robustly affected by TAC-mediated calcineurin inhibition; instead,

TAC impairs pathways associated with insulin granule trafficking to the plasma membrane. While

we did not directly look at exocytotic events in this study, the results of our RNAseq analysis are

consistent with a TAC-mediated effect on insulin granule traffic and release. Our RNAseq data

provide the impetus for follow-up studies on several genes, including *SYT16* which has not

previously been directly implicated in glucose-stimulated insulin secretion but that is known to be

glucose responsive in human islets (43) and under circadian control in mouse islets (44). Network

analysis demonstrated that calcineurin signalling was linked PTGS2 (a.k.a. Cox2), FOS,

PPP1R1A, and MAPK4 in TAC-treated human islets. Collectively, these data further solidify the

role of calcineurin signaling and NFAT-mediated gene transcription in human β-cell function and

provide insight into the molecular mechanisms controlling 2nd phase insulin exocytosis.

Calcineurin activity has been ascribed a number of distinct functions in pancreatic β-cells (7-

9,37,45-48). For example, cultured insulinoma cells treated with the calcineurin inhibitor

cypermethrin exhibited decreased insulin exocytosis in response to both glucose and KCl

stimulation (49). In contrast to this, some studies suggest that calcineurin has a negative role in

insulin exocytosis. However, these were indirect findings obtained by examining the inhibition of

β-cell exocytosis via neurotransmitter-mediated activation of calcineurin (50,51), as opposed to

direct effects observed following inhibition of calcineurin. Nevertheless, our study now shows that

VCS is gentler on human islets because it does not cause the same level of inhibition on insulin

exocytosis compared to TAC.

In our previous work, we examined the different effects of immunosuppressive drugs (TAC,

cyclosporine, and rapamycin) on induced endoplasmic reticulum (ER) stress and caspase-3-

dependent apoptosis in human islets (6). In that study, we found that TAC impaired glucose-

stimulated insulin release from human islets, but did not significantly elevate the protein levels of

CHOP or cleaved caspase-3, indicating that it's effects were mostly on β-cell function rather than

fate (6). In our current study we measured human islet cell survival over a longer period by using

our high-content imaging protocol. We found that neither TAC nor VCS had significant deleterious

effect on islet cell survival or insulin content over 48 hours, under the current testing conditions.

Similarly, our post RNA-seq pathway analysis did not identify significant changes in genes

involved in β-cell apoptosis and/or survival. While an increase in β-cell ER-stress and apoptosis

is a plausible pathophysiological mechanism for the diabetic effects of immunosuppressants in

the post-transplant clinical setting, it is unlikely that this is the mechanism explaining why the risk

of NODAT is higher in patients taking TAC when compared with VCS.

Limitations of our study include the following. Although we had the benefit of directly examining

human islets, our *in vitro* experiments may be impacted by islet isolation and culture.

Nevertheless, the fundamental *in vivo* mechanisms appear to be well conserved in high quality

isolated islets such as those used in our study (10). Mechanistically, our analysis of insulin

secretion in response to high glucose and high KCl, together with the transcriptomic profiling,

points to direct effects on the distal processes of insulin exocytosis. Future studies could directly

measure exocytosis with electrophysiological capacitance measurements. Our data point to

differences in NFAT activation between VCS and TAC than can explain the distinct impacts on

insulin secretion, but our work employed non-β-cells for the dose-finding experiment and ideally

future studies will be repeated in human β-cells or human β-cell lines. Given the clinical

importance of calcineurin inhibitor mediated β-cell dysfunction, we hope that our work stimulates

more experimentation in this field.

In summary, we have demonstrated that TAC significantly inhibits the 2_{nd} phase of glucose-

stimulated insulin secretion from human islets. This decrease in secretion is not mediated by

effects on islet cell health or insulin content and is most likely a direct consequence of decreased

insulin granule exocytosis. VCS, a next generation calcineurin inhibitor, does not cause the same

degree of inhibition of insulin secretion. Thus, this is a plausible physiological mechanism

explaining the lower incidence of NODAT in patients taking VCS.

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Author Contributions:

JK designed, conducted and analyzed experiments, and co-wrote the manuscript.

LB conducted and analyzed experiments and edited the manuscript.

PO designed, conducted and analyzed experiments, and edited the manuscript.

HHC designed and analyzed experiments and edited the manuscript.

EP designed, conducted and analyzed experiments, and edited the manuscript.

DRU designed, conducted and analyzed experiments, and edited the manuscript.

JLC designed experiments and edited the manuscript.

RBH designed experiments and edited the manuscript.

JDJ designed and analyzed experiments and co-wrote the manuscript.

Data Availability:

All data generated or analyzed during this study are included in this published article or in the

data repositories listed in References.

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Figure Legends

Figure 1| Experimental design, and human islet donor and isolation characteristics (A) Experimental design for study of VCS and TAC effects on high quality primary human islets isolated from cadaveric donors. Details of each isolation are available from IsletCore.ca (the example image shown from the R297 isolation). **(B)** High-quality, research-specific human islets from consenting donors were obtained from IsletCore Laboratory in Edmonton, Alberta. Islet donors and isolation characteristics are listed here. Stimulation index is the average of 3 technical replicates of the 16.7 mM to 2.8 mM glucose response as provided by the IsletCore Laboratory quality control database.

Figure 2| *Differences between TAC, VCS and CsA on* **calcineurin activity, lymphocyte proliferation assay, and NFAT accumulation. (A-D)** Sister aliquots of PBMC were treated in the presence of drug or vehicle control for analysis of lymphocyte cell division (Div), calcineurin activity (CN), and cytosolic NFAT. **(A)** Lymphocyte division was determined by CFSE analysis following 3-day stimulation with CD3 antibody. Calcineurin activity was determined by radioactive 32P-RII peptide assay following 30-min stimulation with PMA+A23187. **(B)** Cytosolic NFAT relative to CypA (loading control protein) was determined by Western blotting and densitometric quantitation following 30-min stimulation with PMA+A23187. **(C)** K562 cells stably transfected with an NFAT-luciferase reporter were stimulated for 22 hr with PMA + A23187 in the presence of drug or vehicle control. Cells were separated into separate aliquots for measurement of calcineurin activity and luciferase activity for NFAT promoter activation. **(D)** Percent inhibition was determined by normalizing values to vehicle control (100% activity) and to 2 µg/ml VCS (100% inhibition). These observations were replicated 5 times. **(E)** Calculated IC50 values in PBMC and K562-NFAT-Luc. n = 8-12 experiments for PBMC and 4-7 experiments for K562-NFAT-Luc.

Figure 3| Basal, glucose-stimulated and KCl-stimulated insulin secretion from human

islets treated with peak and trough concentrations of VCS and TAC. (A) Averaged traces of

dynamic insulin secretion measurements in the context of 3 mM glucose, 15 mM glucose, or 30

mM KCl (as indicated). **(B)** Total area under the curve (AUC) of the 15 mM glucose response. (**C,**

D, E) AUCs of 1_{st} phase and 2_{nd} phase 15 mM glucose responses, as well as the KCl response.

(F) Baseline insulin secretion. **(G, H)** Insulin secretion normalized to baseline, including AUC.

n=17

Figure 4| Insulin content from isolated human islets treated with VCS and TAC. Insulin

protein measured by radioimmunoassay from 20 islets treated for 48 hours with VCS or TAC

(concentrations as indicate) after acid-ethanol extraction of insulin.

Figure 5| Islet cell survival from dispersed human islets treated with VCS and TAC. (A,B)

Cell death was assessed every 30 minutes over 48 hours using Propidium Iodide (PI) and Hoechst

staining, with a significant increase seen in the presence of a β-cell toxic cytokine cocktail. **(C)**

Shown is the maximum cell death normalized measurement (see methods) for each condition

TAC and VCS dose, normalized to the DMSO control cultures. Results shown are quantified from

5 cultures per drug condition, over two separate runs.

Figure 6| RNA sequencing analysis of human islets treated with TAC and VCS at peak

doses. (A) mRNAs that were nominally differentially expressed ($p < 0.01$, uncorrected) are shown

in blocks organized by primary difference (1 increased in TAC vs control, 2 increased in VCS vs

control, 3 decreased TAC vs control, 2 decreased in VCS vs control). Raw CPM values from each

biological replicate are shown in the heatmap table. p values < 0.001 are shown in grey for Control

vs Tac and in purple for Control vs VCS. **(B)** Significantly enriched gene categories (Top, GO

Molecular Function; Bottom, GO Cellular Component) according to Gene Ontology.

Figure 7| Protein-protein interaction networks in human islets treated with TAC and VCS

at peak doses. Protein-protein interaction networks highlight connections between

calcineurin/NFAT pathway and deferentially expression genes in **(A)** VCS or **(B)** TAC treatment.

Up or down regulated genes are shown in red or green, respectively. **(C)** Working model of

differential regulation of insulin exocytosis by VCS and TAC. In our model, TAC has more potent

inhibitory effects on NFAT, and therefore results in the stronger suppression of key genes.

Figure 1

Overall study design and human islet donor characteristics

A

Human islet isolation

48 hours of culture

DMSO
VCS low
VCS high
TAC low
TAC high

Beta-cell function

Beta-cell survival

Islet cell gene expression

B

Donor ID	Age (years)	Sex	HbA1c (%)	BMI	Islet Purity	Stimulation Index	Experiments
R297	69	Male	No data	27.2	90%	5.05	Perifusion
R300	30	Female	No data	25.3	75%	2.05	Perifusion
R301	18	Male	5.0	19.0	75%	9.21	Perifusion
R302	62	Female	6.2	32.3	40%	3.57	RNAseq
R303	56	Female	No data	24.1	85%	2.64	Perifusion
R305	60	Male	5.6	21.0	80%	1.29	Perifusion, RNAseq
R306	22	Female	5.3	21.1	80%	19.13	Perifusion
R308	20	Male	5.5	19.8	80%	5.90	Perifusion
R309	47	Female	5.5	27.4	80%	9.08	Perifusion, RNAseq
R310	25	Male	5.4	26.4	90%	3.81	Perifusion, RNAseq
R314	31	Female	5.0	30.3	80%	6.53	Perifusion, RNAseq
R316	52	Male	5.7	26.0	50%	6.93	Perifusion, RNAseq
R317	54	Male	5.1	26.4	90%	10.78	RNAseq
R318	54	Male	5.0	20.5	90%	2.76	Perifusion
R319	68	Male	5.0	27.8	90%	5.04	Perifusion
R322	44	Female	4.9	23.2	90%	3.09	Perifusion
R325	50	Male	No data	30.3	75%	2.86	Perifusion
R326	26	Male	5.5	27.0	90%	5.34	Perifusion
R327	57	Male	5.8	95%	95%	3.59	Perifusion
R335	25	Male	4.9	24.6	80%	11.92	Cell death
R338	30	Male	5.3	25.5	90%	6.73	Cell death

Figure 2

A

B

C

D

E

	PBMC Calcineurin Activity		PBMC Cell Division		K562-NFAT-Luc Calcineurin Activity		K562-NFAT-Luc NFAT Activity	
	IC50 (±SE) ng/ml	Relative Potency	IC50 (±SE) ng/ml	Relative Potency	IC50 (±SE) ng/ml	Relative Potency	IC50 (±SE) ng/ml	Relative Potency
CsA	83.7 (±18.7)	1	50.5 (±7.8)	1	201.6 (±52.7)	1	53.4 (±10.2)	1
VCS	26.3 (±4.1)	3.2	13.8 (±2.1)	3.7	65.2 (±15.9)	3.1	11.0 (±2.4)	4.9
FK506	2.6 (±0.7)	32	0.3 (±0.2)	168	1.1 (±0.3)	183	0.054 (±0.02)	989

Figure 3

Figure 4

A

Figure 5

Figure 6

A

B

Functional enrichments in your network

Molecular Function (GO)			
GO-term	description	count in gene set	false discovery rate
GO:0019905	syntaxin binding	4 of 83	0.0281

Cellular Component (GO)			
GO-term	description	count in gene set	false discovery rate
GO:0030137	COPI-coated vesicle	3 of 22	0.0146
GO:0030662	coated vesicle membrane	5 of 161	0.0153
GO:0030135	coated vesicle	6 of 255	0.0153
GO:0030659	cytoplasmic vesicle membrane	9 of 724	0.0173
GO:0030133	transport vesicle	6 of 356	0.0295
GO:0030126	COPI vesicle coat	2 of 13	0.0346
GO:0098588	bounding membrane of organelle	14 of 1950	0.0391
GO:0030285	integral component of synaptic vesicle membrane	2 of 15	0.0391
GO:0030136	clathrin-coated vesicle	4 of 172	0.0442
GO:0098791	Golgi subcompartment	8 of 801	0.0476
GO:0030672	synaptic vesicle membrane	3 of 83	0.0476
GO:0030658	transport vesicle membrane	4 of 181	0.0476

Figure 7

A — DMSO vs. VCS

B — DMSO vs. TAC

C

VCS

TAC

Ca²⁺

Cyclophilin FKBP12

Calcineurin

NFAT

Insulin granules

NFAT

Exocytosis & trafficking genes