Asprosin Neutralizing Antibodies as a Treatment for Metabolic Syndrome

Authors: Ila Mishra[1,6], Ph.D., Clemens Duerrschmid[1,6], Ph.D., Zhiqiang Ku[5], Ph.D., Wei Xie[1],

Ph.D., Elizabeth Sabath Silva[1], Ph.D., Jennifer Hoffmann[1], M.A., Wei Xin[4], M.D. Ph.D.,

Ningyan Zhang[5], Ph.D., Zhiqiang An[5],Ph.D., and Atul R. Chopra[1,2,3*], M.D. Ph.D.

Affiliations:

[1]   Harrington Discovery Institute, University Hospitals, Cleveland, OH

[2]   Department of Medicine, Case Western Reserve University, Cleveland, OH

[3]   Department of Genetics and Genome Sciences, Case Western Reserve University,

Cleveland, OH

[4]   Department of Pathology, Case Western Reserve University, Cleveland, OH

[5]   Texas Therapeutics Institute, Brown Foundation Institute of Molecular Medicine,

University of Texas Health Science Center at Houston, TX

[6]   Equal Contribution

*Contact:

Atul R. Chopra M.D., Ph.D.

Harrington Discovery Institute at University Hospitals

Department of Medicine, Department of Genetics & Genome Sciences

Case Western Reserve University

2103 Cornell Road, Wolstein Research Building 4130, Cleveland, OH 44106

Phone: 713-822-7668

Email: atul.chopra@case.edu

Abstract

Recently, we discovered a new glucogenic and centrally-acting orexigenic hormone – asprosin.

Asprosin is elevated in metabolic syndrome (MS) patients, and importantly, its genetic loss

results in reduced appetite, leanness and robust insulin sensitivity, leading to protection from

MS. Here we demonstrate that anti-asprosin monoclonal antibodies (mAbs) are a dual-effect

pharmacologic therapy that targets the two key pillars of MS – over-nutrition and the blood

glucose burden. Anti-asprosin mAbs from three distinct species lowered appetite and body

weight, and improved blood glucose in a dose-dependent and epitope-agnostic fashion in three

independent MS mouse models, with an IC_{50} of ~1.5 mg/kg. In addition, mAb treatment

ameliorated MS associated dyslipidemia and hepatic dysfunction. The mAbs displayed half-life

of over 3 days in vivo, with equilibrium dissociation-constants in picomolar to low nanomolar

range. This evidence paves the way for further development towards an investigational new drug

application and subsequent human trials for treatment of MS, a defining physical ailment of our

time.

Introduction

Obesity and its co-morbidities, such as insulin resistance, hypertension, and dyslipidemia, are omnipresent, affecting nearly a quarter of the world population by some estimates[1]. These conditions, which feed the spread of type II diabetes, coronary artery disease, stroke, nonalcoholic steatohepatitis, and other diseases, are commonly clustered under the umbrella term metabolic syndrome (MS) or syndrome X[1]. MS is a consequence of chronic over-nutrition, turning the evolutionary drive to gather energy from the environment into a liability. As a whole, MS currently exists as an untreatable malady despite decades of basic research and drug development[1].

Through the study of a rare genetic condition in humans, Neonatal Progeroid Syndrome (NPS, also known as Marfanoid-Progeroid-Lipodystrophy syndrome), we recently discovered a fasting-induced, glucogenic and orexigenic hormone that is the C-terminal cleavage product of profibrillin (encoded by FBN1), and named it asprosin. Its two major sites of action are the liver and the brain. At the liver, asprosin causes a glucogenic effect through a cAMP-PKA dependent pathway[2]. It was found recently to promote hepatic glucose release through the binding of OR4M1, an olfactory G-coupled protein receptor (GPCR) in the rhodopsin family3. In addition, asprosin was shown to bind the mouse analog, Olfr734 with high affinity, and elimination of the receptor considerably reduced the glucogenic effects of exogenously administered asprosin[3]. There is also evidence, that asprosin crosses the blood brain barrier and exerts effects on the hypothalamus[4]. In the arcuate nucleus of the hypothalamus, asprosin directly activates orexigenic AgRP neurons and indirectly inhibits anorexigenic POMC neurons, resulting in appetite stimulation. Patients with Neonatal Progeroid syndrome (NPS), a genetic model of deficiency in plasma asprosin, present with low appetite associated with extreme leanness and robust insulin

sensitivity[2,4]. NPS mutations in mice (FBN1$^{NPS/+}$) result in phenocopy of the human disorder, and

depressed AgRP neuron activity, which can be restored to normal with asprosin replenishment[3].

Importantly, FBN1$^{NPS/+}$ mice are completely immune to diet-induced MS[4].On the opposite end of

the energy-balance spectrum, patients and mice with MS exhibit elevated plasma asprosin[2-9].

Based on these observations, we hypothesized that pharmacologic inhibition of asprosin is

particularly well suited to the treatment of MS, a condition in need of simultaneous reduction in

both appetite and the blood glucose burden. Similar to humans, mice with MS display elevations

in plasma asprosin[2,3,9] making them ideal preclinical models for testing this hypothesis.

To test this hypothesis, we generated three independent monoclonal antibodies (mAbs) that

recognize unique asprosin epitopes and investigated their preclinical efficacy and tolerability in

the treatment of MS. We specifically dissected the suitability of acute and chronic asprosin

neutralization in three different mouse models of MS – mice treated with a high fat diet (diet

induced obesity, DIO), mice with genetic leptin receptor mutation (*Lepr*$^{db/db}$), and mice treated

with a NASH (Non Alcoholic Steato-Hepatitis) diet. For absolute proof-of-concept, we tested the

ability of artificially induced plasma asprosin (adenovirus and adeno-associated virus mediated

elevation in plasma asprosin) to raise blood glucose, appetite and body weight, even in the

presence of normal chow, followed by rescue of those parameters with immunologic

neutralization of asprosin. Our results demonstrate a promising treatment of MS with the use of

anti-asprosin mAbs as a targeted, bimodal therapeutic strategy.

Results

A single dose of an asprosin neutralizing mAb reduces appetite, body weight and blood glucose levels in mice with MS

We previously showed that adolescent boys with MS have elevated circulating asprosin, and that NPS patients have undetectable plasma asprosin[2,4]. Here we find that a cohort of adult men with MS have significantly elevated plasma asprosin, with levels more than 2-fold higher than those of unaffected age- and sex-matched individuals (Supplementary Fig.1d). This result is consistent a multitude of independent studies[4-9].

To generate a preclinical model of MS, we exposed C57Bl/6 mice to a high-fat diet for a minimum of 12 weeks (DIO mice). A single dose of an asprosin-neutralizing mAb was sufficient to significantly reduce food intake by an average of 1g/day in the treatment group, but not in mice receiving a control, isotype-matched IgG mAb (Fig 1a). This decrease in food intake was associated with a 0.7g average reduction in body weight over 24h (Fig 1b). In fasted mice, a significant blood glucose reduction was evident as early as 2h post mAb treatment. The effect was most pronounced at 4h and 6h after injection (Fig 1c). Given that mice were without access to food, this result demonstrates that the glucose lowering effect is independent of reductions in food intake.

Interestingly, repeating this experiment in lean WT mice (with normal plasma asprosin compared with DIO mice) showed a subtle effect on blood glucose without inducing overt hypoglycemia, and no effect at all on 24h cumulative food intake or body weight (Suppl. Figure 2). Importantly, this result in lean WT mice points towards a clean safety profile of the drug.

Acute asprosin-neutralization dose dependently mitigates MS.

A single dose of the mAb resulted in a significant reduction in blood glucose levels (measured 4h

post treatment), plasma insulin and triglyceride levels (measured 24h post treatment), and in 24h

cumulative food intake and body weight in a dose-dependent manner in DIO mice (Fig. 2a-e).

Half maximal inhibitor concentration (IC_{50}) determined using four-parameter non-linear variable

slope curve for these three measures was in the range of 30-55 µg/mouse (~1.5 mg/kg). An

isotype-matched, control IgG did not show any effect at all. Interestingly, the dose-response

curve shapes were distinct for the five end-points, suggesting that either the potency of asprosin

varies among these measures, or they utilize distinct epitopes on asprosin that are differentially

affected by this mAb. Further, the plateauing of the mAb effect for body weight, glucose, insulin

and triglycerides with higher doses suggests the existence of internal compensatory/buffer

mechanisms to protect against drastic reductions in those parameters.

Viral overexpression of human asprosin induced a hyperphagic, obese, and hyperglycemic

phenotype in mice that was rescued by immunologic neutralization

We were interested in the effects of sustained elevation of asprosin in mice fed a normal diet, and

in generating tools that obviate the need to employ recombinant proteins of variable activity. To

this end, we compared three gain-of-function experiments where we transduced mice with

adenoviruses (Ad5) or adeno-associated viruses (AAV8) encoding human *Fbn1* (with native

signal peptide) or human cleaved asprosin (with an IL2 signal peptide to promote secretion), and

then tested whether viral vector-induced metabolic phenotypes could be rescued with mAb

treatment. When compared to mice transduced with Ad5-empty and AAV8-empty control viral

vectors, mice transduced with Ad5-*FBN1*, Ad5-*Asprosin* and AAV8-*Asprosin* all exhibited

hyperphagia, gained weight and displayed significantly higher baseline glucose and insulin levels

(supplementary Fig. 3a-d,f-i,k-n). This metabolic phenotype in all three experiments was

coincident with the elevation of human asprosin in mouse plasma in the time it takes to achieve

peak expression *in vivo* (supplementary Fig. 3e,j,o)[10,11]. For example, AAV8 vectors typically

take up to 50-60 days to achieve peak protein expression *in vivo*[11]. Notably, that is when the

mice transduced with AAV8-*Asprosin* first display an increase in body weight (Fig. 3i). In

contrast, Ad5 vectors produce a more accelerated peak expression, resulting in quicker increase

in body weight (Fig. 3a, 3e). In either case, these three distinct gain-of-function experiments

clearly show the effect of asprosin *in vivo* in an experimentally robust and rigorous manner.

When injected with anti-asprosin mAb, mice with viral overexpression of human asprosin

restored their food intake to the level observed in empty virus-treated mice (Fig 3b,f,j), and this

resulted in an average net body weight loss of 0.3 to 0.5g within the first 24 hours (Fig 3c,g,k). A

single injection of mouse anti-asprosin mAb also reduced baseline glucose to levels observed in

Ad5-empty injected mice (Fig 3d,h,i). The results of this combined gain-of-function/rescue study

indicate that viral overexpression of asprosin is a valuable tool to study asprosin effects in non-

obese mice, and that immunologic neutralization fully rescues the metabolic effects of elevated

plasma asprosin.

Chronic asprosin-neutralization mitigates hyperphagia, hyperglycemia and weight gain in

obese mice.

In DIO mice treated with daily injection for 10 days, we observed a ~10% decrease in body

weight with asprosin neutralization (Fig 4a) that was associated with improved glucose tolerance

on day 11 (after 1 day without mAb) (Fig 4b). On day 13 however (10 days of once daily mAb

treatment followed by 3 days without mAb treatment), the body weight difference between the

two groups remained the same (Fig 4c) but the improved glucose tolerance disappeared (Fig 4d),

showing once again that the effect of asprosin neutralization on glucose homeostasis is

independent of systemic improvements in metabolism due to weight loss, and also demonstrating

the short effect-life of the mAb (24-48 hours).

We followed up the single-dose and 10-day studies by testing the effect of asprosin

neutralization for 2 weeks. A 14-day course of daily injection of an anti-asprosin mAb

significantly reduced food intake and body weight in diet-induced MS (DIO mice; Fig 4e,f),

genetic MS ($Lepr^{db/db}$ mice; Fig 4i,j) as well as in mice on a NASH diet (Fig 4m,n). On average,

mice treated with the mAb weighed approximately 5% - 11% less than mice treated with a

control mAb, indicating that the observed reduced food intake results in a net calorie deficit and

weight loss. Mice on DIO and NASH diet lost weight, whereas $Lepr^{db/db}$ mice were protected

from excessive weight gain during the treatment period. Furthermore, while all three mouse

models of MS displayed improvement in hyperglycemia (Fig 4g,k,o), a significant reduction in

plasma insulin after mAb treatment was observed only in DIO mice (Fig. 4h,l,p).

A single injection of the anti-asprosin mAb significantly reduced plasma levels of total

cholesterol, LDL, glycerol and triglycerides in DIO mice, measured 6 hours after injection in

mice without access to food (supplementary Fig 4a-f). Chronic treatment for 2 weeks however,

in DIO, $Lepr^{db/db}$, and NASH diet-treated mice, did not display the uniform improvements in

plasma lipids that were noted with a single injection, despite marked improvements in appetite,

body weight and plasma glucose levels (supplementary Fig 4g-x). Thus, while the positive effect

of chronic asprosin neutralization on appetite, body weight and glucose homeostasis is clear; its

positive effect on plasma lipids appears inconsistent. This inconsistency may reflect adaptations

and physiological differences in the three mouse models studied.

A 14-day course of anti-asprosin mAb treatment improves liver health in mice

Inflammation, steatosis, and fibrosis are common hepatic manifestations of MS. We sought to assess the effect of asprosin neutralization on liver health. A significant reduction in mRNA expression of pro-inflammatory markers in anti-asprosin treated DIO mice indicated that hepatic inflammation was markedly suppressed after 14 days of mAb treatment, compared to the control group (Fig 5a). However, prolonged asprosin-neutralization had varied effects on hepatic inflammation in other mouse models of MS. In *Lepr*db/db mice, expression of proinflammatory cytokines, *Il6* and *Tnfα*, was significantly reduced in the anti-asprosin group, but the across-the-board decrease in transcripts of inflammatory candidates observed in DIO mice was not seen in *Lepr*db/db mice, reflecting physiological differences in DIO and *Lepr*db/db models (Fig 5b). In the NASH diet-treated mice, anti-inflammatory *Tgfβ* expression was significantly elevated while pro-inflammatory *Ccl2* expression was reduced. Complicating the picture, a significant increase in pro-inflammatory *Fas* and *Cxcl2* gene expression was also noted (Fig. 5c). Thus, in the NASH diet-treated mice the overall effect on tissue inflammation is harder to deduce, and probably reflects differential adaptations to the specialized NASH diet[12,13].

Interestingly, the expression of genes associated with fibrosis (*Col1a1)* and tissue healing/remodeling (*Acta2)* in NASH diet-treated mice was significantly altered with asprosin neutralization (Fig 5c), suggesting improvement. Hepatic fibrosis and remodeling are only known to occur in mice fed the NASH diet, but not in DIO or *Lepr*db/db mice[12,14-16]. Thus, it is remarkable that asprosin neutralization has an effect on these parameters only in NASH diet-treated mice and not in the other two models of MS. Hepatic triglyceride content was significantly reduced in DIO and NASH diet-treated mice (Fig. 5d,f), indicating reduced lipid

burden and improved liver health. This change was not noted in *Lepr*[db/db] mice (Fig. 5e), likely

due to the role of leptin signaling in de novo hepatic lipogenesis[17,18].

Neutralization of asprosin using mAbs from distinct species and against distinct epitopes is

equally protective

We wondered whether the positive metabolic effects of asprosin neutralization depended on a

specific asprosin epitope, or whether multiple epitopes could be targeted. We generated a new

rabbit mAb against full-length, glycosylated human asprosin and a new fully human mAb

derived from a phage display library. A single injection of each of the three mAbs resulted in

significantly improved glucose tolerance (Fig 6a), and a reduction in food intake (Fig. 6b) and

body weight (Fig. 6c) in DIO mice. Of these three mAbs, the mouse and human mAbs compete

for binding to asprosin and so recognize the same or an overlapping epitope, whereas the rabbit

mAb recognizes a distinct epitope, displaying no binding competition (Fig. 6d). This indicates

that, insofar as these two epitopes are concerned, the positive metabolic effects of asprosin

neutralization are epitope-agnostic. We speculate that formation of an asprosin-mAb complex

either accelerates asprosin disposal or prevents ligand-receptor interaction, effectively inhibiting

the activity of endogenous asprosin. These results also effectively rule out any potential off-

target effects of the mAbs being responsible for their positive effects on metabolic health.

Pharmacokinetic parameters of asprosin neutralization

Using an antigen capture ELISA, we measured the plasma concentrations of free mAbs at

periodic intervals after injection to calculate their half-life in both endogenously high-asprosin

(DIO mice) and low-asprosin (NPS mice) conditions (Fig. 6e-g). No mAbs against asprosin were

detected before injection, whereas a calculated peak concentration of 0.1 mg/ml ligand-free mAb

was observed two hours after injection. In DIO mice, the free mouse anti-asprosin mAb had the

longest half-life, of approximately 11 days, the free rabbit anti-asprosin mAb had a half-life of

approximately 5.6 days, and the free human anti-asprosin mAb had a half-life of approximately

3.2 days. Of note, the half-lives of these three mAbs were fairly similar in NPS mice, indicating

that the concentration of circulating asprosin does not appear to directly influence the rate of

mAb clearance.

Asprosin-mAb affinity was measured on the Octet RED96 system (Fig. 6h-j). The K_D of the

rabbit mAb to recombinant human asprosin was calculated as < 10 pM from a k_{on} of 1.11 x 10^5

$M^{-1}s^{-1}$ and a k_{off} <1x10^{-7} s^{-1} (r^2 = 0.99, χ^2 = 99.88). The mouse mAb displayed a K_D of 0.48±0.02

nM with k_{on} of (1.45±0.003) x 10^5 $M^{-1}s^{-1}$ and k_{off} of (6.67±0.23) x 10^{-5} s^{-1} (r^2 = 0.99, χ^2 = 15.05).

The human mAb displayed a K_D of 14.4±0.24 nM with k_{on} of (6.76±0.07) x 10^4 $M^{-1}s^{-1}$ and k_{off} of

(9.71±0.13) x 10^{-4} s^{-1}(r^2 = 0.94, χ^2 = 408.8). Thus the rabbit mAb has the highest affinity for

asprosin and the human mAb the lowest, over a 1000-fold range. Nevertheless, all three mAbs

were able to functionally neutralize asprosin *in vivo*.

Discussion

We recently discovered a novel glucogenic and orexigenic hormone, named asprosin, whose

circulating levels are elevated in mice, rats, and humans with metabolic syndrome[2-8].

In this report, we show that three independent asprosin gain-of-function tools (Ad5-*FBN1*, Ad5-

Asprosin, AAV8-*Asprosin*) produce an increase in appetite, body weight and blood glucose, and

three independent asprosin loss-of-function tools (mouse, rabbit and human mAbs against at

least two distinct asprosin epitopes) produce the opposite *in vivo,* compared with their respective

controls. We were even able to demonstrate mAb-induced rescue of the viral-induced plasma

asprosin elevation, lending a very high level of solidity to our conclusions. Additionally, two

independent groups have now recapitulated our original study on the discovery of asprosin in the

process of elucidating the hepatic asprosin receptor[3] and an asprosin-like hormone[19]. This is

particularly important given the inability of one group to recapitulate our original study[20], most

likely due to use of poor quality recombinant asprosin. Recombinant asprosin remains an

unreliable research tool, even in our hands, and will likely remain so until the biochemical

factors (potential chaperons for example) that govern asprosin stability and activity come to

light. The viral vectors and mAbs reported in this study will be made freely available to the

research community to study asprosin biology *in vivo*.

Asprosin neutralization resulted in reduced food intake and body weight in mice on a high fat

diet (diet induced obese, DIO mice) as well as in more severe preclinical models of MS, such as

mice on a NASH-inducing diet and mice with a genetic loss of leptin signaling ($Lepr^{db/db}$). These

results indicate that asprosin neutralization is effective independent of leptin, and opens

therapeutic avenues for a wide range of cases of hyperphagia and obesity. Concurrent with

decrease in appetite and body weight, anti-asprosin mAb therapy improved the MS-associated

hyperglycemia in all preclinical models studied. Importantly, a low IC_{50} of 30- 55 µg/mouse

(~1.5mg/kg) was determined for the four key features of MS (hyperphagia, obesity,

hyperglycemia and hypertriglyceridemia). The low IC_{50}, well within the spectrum of acceptable

therapeutic mAb dosing, highlights the pharmacological inhibitory potency of asprosin

neutralization for MS in its entirety, rather than improving only a particular manifestation of it[21].

While the effect of escalating dose on appetite reduction is linear, it exhibits a defined upper and

lower threshold when it comes to improvement of other attributes of MS such as blood glucose,

insulin, triglycerides and body weight. This may indicate arrival at a physiological equilibrium

state and the impact of compensatory mechanisms to prevent further, potentially disastrous

changes.

Interestingly, mAb treatment did not result in any changes in lean euglycemic WT mice with the

exception of a short-lived reduction in blood glucose (without crossing the threshold for overt

hypoglycemia). This result suggests the dependence of anti-asprosin mAb therapeutics on high

endogenous asprosin levels, and portends a strong safety profile.

A single dose of the anti-asprosin mAb improved MS-associated dyslipidemia in DIO mice as

evidenced through a reduction in total cholesterol, LDL, triglycerides and glycerol. This could

potentially be explained by the glucose and insulin lowering effects of asprosin neutralization

leading to suppression of lipogenesis[22,23]. With chronic neutralization reductions in total

cholesterol were noted in DIO and $Lepr^{db/db}$ mice. However, the effect on other lipid species was

not as uniform as with single dosing, suggesting compensatory adaptations with chronic asprosin

loss-of-function.

DIO mice on an anti-asprosin therapy for 2 weeks displayed remarkable improvements in hepatic

inflammation, as evidenced by reductions in chemokine and cytokine expression, and steatosis.

In mice on a NASH diet however, the effects of asprosin neutralization on hepatic inflammation

were mixed. A significant reduction in *Ccl-2* expression indicated that infiltration of myeloid

cells into the liver was abrogated[24]. However, there was an increase in pro-inflammatory *Fas* and

Cxcl2 expression, and an increase in the anti-inflammatory *Tgf-β*. Thus, the overall effect on

inflammation in NASH mice is unclear. This may reflect the intensity of inflammation produced

by the NASH diet, which is greater than that produced by a simple high fat diet[12,13]. Advanced

stages of NASH, in particular fibrosing NASH, are a leading cause of liver cirrhosis in MS

patients[12]. In response to asprosin neutralization in mice on a NASH diet, we noted decreased

expression of genes associated with hepatic fibrosis such as *Col1a1*. We also noted an increased

expression of *Acta2*, a marker of hepatic wound healing via stellate cell to liver-specific

myofibroblast transformation and increased cellular motility[15,16]. Taken together, these results

suggest that anti-asprosin mAbs are protective against, and could potentially reverse, MS

associated liver damage.

In addition to the mouse mAb we generated rabbit and fully human mAbs for this study. The

human mAb shares an epitope with the mouse mAb, while the rabbit mAb recognizes a distinct

asprosin epitope. All three mAbs at a dose of 250 µg/mouse (~5 mg/kg) improved glucose

tolerance and resulted in reduced food intake and body weight. This suggests that steric

inhibition of asprosin's interaction with its receptor is either epitope-agnostic, or that the

beneficial effects of asprosin neutralization depend on rapid asprosin disposal, or some

combination of these two possibilities. Further, all three mAbs showed an equilibrium

dissociation constant (K_D) in the picomolar to low nanomolar range indicating high affinity of

mAb-asprosin binding[25]. Despite the high affinity and long half-life of the mouse mAb,

maintenance of its effects required daily administration. A short "effect-life," out of proportion

to mAb half-life, has previously been reported for other mAbs against various circulating

antigens[26-28]. This short effect-life might be explained by high asprosin-mAb complex stability

under various physiological conditions, leaving newly produced asprosin uninhibited[28,29],

thereby necessitating new mAb administration for continued pharmacological effect. In other

words, there is sufficient precedence for this issue when it comes to circulating antigens and

overcoming this requires a variety of mAb engineering approaches, which are under

consideration for anti-asprosin mAbs at this time.

Conceptually however, the studies presented here offer promise for targeting asprosin in the

treatment of MS, with planned lead optimization (to improve effect-life and humanize the lead

candidate), exploratory toxicity and efficacy studies in other species such as nonhuman primates,

potentially leading to human trials. In addition, although the receptor for asprosin in the liver has

been discovered recently[3], the identity of its receptor in the CNS remains unknown. These

receptor discovery efforts are essential for the development of orally-bioavailable, small

molecule inhibitors of the asprosin pathway, which are validated by the ligand-targeting mAb

approach presented here.

In summary, we provide evidence that demonstrates the potential of asprosin neutralization using

multiple mAbs *in vivo* to treat MS. As opposed to current and past therapies that target satiety,

this approach directly inhibits appetite and separately reduces the blood glucose burden by

inhibiting hepatic glucose release. Thus, it is a dual-effect therapy that targets the two pillars of

MS, over-nutrition and increased glucose burden. The results presented here, pre-clinically

validating the pharmacological inhibition of asprosin for the treatment of MS, are a source of

high optimism moving forward.

Methods

Mice

12 week old C57Bl/6J (wild-type, WT) mice, leptin-receptor deficient mice ($Lepr^{db/db}$), and 16-

week-old mice with diet-induced obesity (DIO) were purchased from Jackson Laboratories. Mice

were fed normal chow (5V5R, Lab Supply), dustless pellet diet (F0173, Bio-Serv), 12 weeks of

high fat diet (60% calories from fat, TD.06414, Envigo Teklad), or 24 weeks of NASH-high fat

diet (AMLN-diet, D09100301, Research Diets), where indicated. Prior to all interventions, mice

were standardized across groups ensuring equal distribution of body weight for the various

treatment groups.

mAb generation

A majority of the studies were conducted with a mouse mAb (M1). M1 was generated using

traditional hybridoma techniques by immunizing mice with a 28 amino acid peptide

KKKELNQLEDRYDKDYLSGELGDNLKMK located close to the C-terminus of asprosin.

Where indicated only, rabbit and fully-human anti-asprosin mAbs were used in parallel with the

mouse anti-asprosin mAb. The rabbit mAb was generated by immunizing rabbits with

recombinant full-length human asprosin at RevMAb Biosciences, USA, and cloning variable

region genes from positive single memory B cells based on protocols described previously.[30] A

fully human mAb was generated from a naïve human phage display antibody library by panning

against recombinant full-length human asprosin (Texas Therapeutics Institute at the University

of Texas Health Science Center at Houston). All three mAbs display cross-reactivity to mouse

and human asprosin.

mAb injection

Mice received either a single dose of 250µg/mouse (~5-6 mg/kg) mAb intraperitoneally in 500µl

USP grade saline, or repeated daily dose for up to 14 days. Injections were performed between

9am and 11 am both for single and repeated dose studies. For dose response curve, DIO mice

received a single IP injection of different doses of control, isotype-matched IgG or anti-asprosin

mouse mAb (15.63, 31.25, 62.5, 125, and 250µg/mouse, corresponding to 0.4, 0.85, 1.64, 3.28

and 6.88 mg/kg; n = 5/dose) at 11 to 11:30 am.

Adenovirus and Adeno-associate virus experiments

12-week-old C57Bl/6J mice were injected intravenously via the tail-vein with adenovirus (Ad5)

or adeno-associated virus, serotype 8 (AAV8) containing the human FBN1 or his-tagged human

asprosin coding region. Mice injected with Ad5-empty and AAV8-Empty served as controls for

experimental mice (detailed procedure in Suppl. Methods).

mRNA expression

Whole livers were isolated and flash frozen in liquid nitrogen. A small aliquot was processed for

total RNA extraction using RNeasy Mini spin columns (Qiagen). cDNA was synthesized using a

high capacity RNA-to-cDNA kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific) and gene expression was measured

using gene specific primers (Supplementary Methods) and a probe-based TaqMan assay

(Thermo Fisher Scientific). Expression data was calculated using the ΔΔCt method and

normalized to a control sample.

Half-life of asprosin-neutralizing mAbs

For assessing *in vivo* half-life of mAbs, mouse models of 'high asprosin,' C57Bl/6J (wild-type,

WT) mice with diet-induced obesity (DIO, n = 6), and 'low asprosin' (NPS mice, n = 6) were

injected with mouse mAb (n = 2/group), rabbit mAb (n = 2/group), or human mAb (n = 2/group)

(250µg mAb in 500µl 0.9% saline). Thereafter, mAb levels were determined in mouse plasma

collected at 2, 6, 24, 96, 336, and 504h post injection (detailed procedure in Suppl. Methods).

Epitope Competition

To determine whether the 3 mAbs recognized overlapping or distinct epitopes, we captured

recombinant asprosin (20 nM) on an ELISA plate coated with one of the three mAbs

(100ng/well), followed by detection with each of the three mAbs in a 3 x 3 matrix format

(100ng/well, detailed in Suppl. Methods).

Asprosin-mAb binding affinity measurement with BLI

Asprosin-mAb affinity was measured on Pall ForteBio's Octet RED96 system using Ni-NTA

biosensor (ForteBio, Cat#18-5102). K_D was determined from 7 kinetic curves (detailed

procedure in Supplementary Methods) fitted by a 1:1 binding model and use of global fitting

method in ForteBio's data analysis software.

Statistical analysis

Data was graphed and analyzed using GraphPad Prism (Version 6 and higher). Data is presented

as mean +/- standard error of the mean. Depending on the format of data, analysis was by using

t-test (two groups, one time point), or analysis of variance (ANOVA) sets involving multiple

groups and time points. ANOVA analysis is indicated with the word "ANOVA" in figures next

to the significance asterisk). Non-linear four parametric variable slope (least square regression)

analyses determined the IC_{50} and R^2 values in dose response studies. Significance is presented

using the asterisk symbol (* $p<0.05$, ** $p<0.01$, *** $p<0.001$, and **** $p<0.0001$). In situations

where a non-significant trend was observed, the full p-value is presented.

Acknowledgments

We thank Georgina Salazar, Andrew Pieper, Richard Premont, Mukesh Jain and Jonathan

Stamler for critical reading of the manuscript. This work was supported by the Cancer

Prevention and Research Institute of Texas (RP150551 and RP190561), the Welch Foundation

(AU-0042-20030616 and I-1834), the NIDDK (DK102529, DK118290) and the Harrington

Discovery Institute.

Author Contributions

A.R.C. conceptualized the study; I.M., C.D., E.S.S, Z.K., W.X., J.H., W.X. and N.Z. performed

the experiments; A.R.C. and Z.A. provided resources; and I.M and A.R.C. wrote the manuscript.

Competing Financial interests

A.R.C. is a cofounder and director of Vizigen, Inc.

References

1. Saklayen, M.G. The global epidemic of the metabolic syndrome. *Curr. Hypertens. Rep.* **20**,12 (2018).

2. Romere, C., *et al*. Asprosin, a fasting-induced glucogenic protein hormone. *Cell* **165**, 566-579 (2016).

3. Li, E. *et al*. OLFR734 mediates glucose metabolism as a receptor of asprosin. *Cell Metab.* **30**, 319□328 (2019).

4. Duerrschmid, C., *et al*. Asprosin is a centrally acting orexigenic hormone. *Nat. Med.* **23**, 1444-1453 (2017).

5. Wang, M., *et al*. Serum asprosin concentrations are increased and associated with insulin resistance in children with obesity. *Ann. Nutr. Metab.* **75**, 205–212 (2019).

6. Ugur, K. & Aydin, S. Saliva and blood asprosin hormone concentration associated with obesity. *Int. J Endocrinol.* 2521096 (2019).

7. Alan, M. *et al*. Asprosin: a novel peptide hormone related to insulin resistance in women with polycystic ovary syndrome. *Gynecol. Endocrinol.* **35**, 220□223 (2018).

8. Zhang, L. *et al*. Circulating asprosin concentrations are increased in type 2 diabetes mellitus and independently associated with fasting glucose and triglyceride. *Clin. Chim. Acta.* **489**: 183-188 (2019).

9. Baykus, Y., *et al*. Asprosin in umbilical cord of newborns and maternal blood of gestational diabetes, preeclampsia, severe preeclampsia, intrauterine growth retardation and macrosemic fetus. *Peptides* **120**, 170132 (2019).

10. Crystal, R.G. Adenovirus: the first effective *in vivo* gene delivery vector. *Hum. Gene Ther.* **25**, 3–11 (2014).

11.   Zincarelli, C., Soltys, S., Rengo, G. & Rabinowitz, J.E. Analysis of AAV serotypes 1-
9 mediated gene expression and tropism in mice after systemic injection. *Mol. Ther*.
16, 1073☐1080 (2008).

12.   Clapper, J.R., Hendricks, M.D., Gu, G., et al. Diet-induced mouse model of fatty liver
disease and nonalcoholic steatohepatitis reflecting clinical disease progression and
methods of assessment. *Am. J. Physiol. Gastrointest. Liver Physiol*. **305**, G483-G495
(2013).

13.   Hansen, H.H., *et al*. Mouse models of nonalcoholic steatohepatitis in preclinical drug
development. *Drug Discov. Today* **22**, 1707–1718 (2017).

14.   Tesfay, M., Goldkamp, W.J. & Neuschwander-Tetri, B.A. NASH: The emerging
most common form of chronic liver disease. *Mol. Med.* **115**, 225-229 (2018).

15.   Rockey, D.C., Weymouth, N. & Shi, Z. Smooth muscle α actin (Acta2) and
myofibroblast function during hepatic wound healing. *PLoS One* **8**, e77166 (2013).

16.   Qi, S. *et al*. Candidate genes investigation for severe nonalcoholic fatty liver disease
based on bioinformatics analysis. *Medicine* (Baltimore) **96**, e7743 (2017).

17.   Huynh, F.K., *et al*. A role for hepatic leptin signaling in lipid metabolism via altered
very low density lipoprotein composition and liver lipase activity in mice. *Hepatology*
57, 543-54 (2013).

18.   Hackl, M.T. *et al*. Brain leptin reduces liver lipids by increasing hepatic triglyceride
secretion and lowering lipogenesis. *Nat. Commun*. **10**, 2717 (2019).

19.   Yu Y. et al. Placensin is a glucogenic hormone secreted by human placenta. *EMBO*
Rep. 2020;21(6):e49530.

20.   von Herrath, M. *et al*. Case reports of pre-clinical replication studies in metabolism

and diabetes. *Cell Metab.* **29**, 795-802 (2019).

21.   Strik, A.S. *et al*. Individualized dosing of therapeutic monoclonal antibodies—a

changing treatment paradigm? *A.A.P.S. J*. **20**, 99 (2018).

22.   Santoleri, D. & Titchenell, P.M. Resolving the paradox of hepatic insulin

resistance. *Cell Mol. Gastroenterol. Hepatol*. **7**, 447–456 (2019).

23.   Kersten, S. Mechanisms of nutritional and hormonal regulation of lipogenesis. *EMBO*

Rep. **2**, 282–286 (2001).

24.   Parker, R. *et al*. CC chemokine receptor 2 promotes recruitment of myeloid cells

associated with insulin resistance in nonalcoholic fatty liver disease. *Am. J Physiol.*

Gastrointest. Liver Physiol. **314**, G483-G493 (2018).

25.   Landry, J.P., Ke, Y., Yu, G.L. & Zhu, X.D. Measuring affinity constants of 1450

monoclonal antibodies to peptide targets with a microarray-based label-free assay

platform. *J. Immunol. Methods* **417**, 86–96 (2015).

26.   Liu, J.K. The history of monoclonal antibody development-Progress, remaining

challenges and future innovations. *Ann Med Surg (Lond)* **3**, 113–116 (2014)

27.   Rajan, S. *et al*. Preclinical pharmacokinetic characterization of an adipose tissue-

targeting monoclonal antibody in obese and non-obese animals. MAbs. **9**, 1379–1388

(2017).

28.   Ovacik, M. & Lin, K. Tutorial on monoclonal antibody pharmacokinetics and its

considerations in early development. *Clin Transl Sci*. **11**, 540–552 (2018).

29.   Ryman, J.T. & Meibohm, B. Pharmacokinetics of monoclonal antibodies. *CPT*

Pharmacometrics Syst. Pharmacol. **6**, 576–588 (2017).

30.   Gui, X. *et al*. Disrupting LILRB4/APOE interaction by an efficacious humanized

antibody reverses t-cell suppression and blocks AML development. *Cancer Immunol*

Res. **7**, 1244–1257 (2019).

Figure legends

Figure 1: *Acute asprosin-neutralization reduces plasma glucose, appetite and body weight in diet induced obese mice.*

(a-d) Cumulative food intake and body weight change (measured 24h post treatment), baseline blood glucose (measured at hour 2, 4 and 6 post mAb-treatment) and plasma insulin (measured 6h post treatment) were measured after a single dose of anti-asprosin mAb (250µg/mouse) in 16-week-old, male, DIO (diet induced obesity) mice, n = 5 or 6 per group. Note that mice were without food for the duration of the experiment in (c,d), demonstrating that the glucose lowering effect was independent of the hypophagic effect of mAb treatment.

Figure 2: *Asprosin neutralization corrects hyperglycemia, hyperphagia and hypertriglyceridemia in a dose dependent manner*. Baseline blood glucose (measured 4 h post treatment), plasma insulin and triglyceride (TG; at 24 h post treatment) levels, cumulative food intake, body weight change (measured 24h post treatment), were measured upon injecting increasing dose of anti-asprosin mAb in 16-week-old, male, DIO (diet induced obesity) mice, n = 5 per group. The doses tested were 15.63, 31.25, 62.5, 125 and 250 µg/mouse, corresponding to 0.4, 0.85, 1.64, 3.28 and 6.88mg/kg. Half maximal inhibitor concentration (IC_{50}) was determined using a four-parameter non-linear variable slope curve.

Asterisk (*) indicate the range of alpha; * $p<0.05$, ** $p<0.01$, *** $p<0.001$, and **** $p<0.0001$, as determined by student T-test.

Figure 3: *Immunologic neutralization fully rescues the metabolic effects of viral induction of plasma asprosin*.

(a) Body weight change was measured over 15 days after 12-week-old, male, C57Bl/6 mice were

tail-vein-injected with Ad-empty or Ad-FBN1 (3.6 x 10^9 pfu/mouse, n = 12/group) viruses.

Downward arrow indicates the day of mAb treatment described below.

(b-d) Cumulative food intake, body weight change, and blood glucose were measured 24 hours

after intra-peritoneal injection of indicated control, isotype-matched IgG or anti-asprosin mAbs

(n = 6/group) in the above mice.

(e) Body weight change was measured over 15 days after 12-week-old, male, C57Bl/6 mice were

tail-vein-injected with Ad-empty or Ad-Asprosin (5 x 10^{10} pfu/mouse, n = 12/group) viruses.

Downward arrow indicates the day of mAb treatment described below.

(f-h) Cumulative food intake, body weight change, and blood glucose were measured 24 hours

after intra-peritoneal injection of indicated control, isotype-matched IgG or anti-asprosin mAb (n

= 6/group) in in the above mice.

(i) Body weight change was measured over 60 days after 12-week-old, male, C57Bl/6 mice were

tail-vein-injected with AAV8-empty or AAV8-Asprosin (1 x 10^{12} GC/mouse, n = 10/group)

viruses. Downward arrow indicates the day of mAb treatment described below.

(j-l) Cumulative food intake, body weight change, and blood glucose were measured 24 hours

after intra-peritoneal injection of indicated control, isotype-matched IgG or anti-asprosin mAbs

(n = 5/group) in in the above mice.

Different and same alphabets on bars indicate presence or absence of significant difference,

respectively, between groups, as determined by 1-way ANOVA. $P < 0.05$ considered statistically

significant.

Figure 4: *Chronic asprosin-neutralization improves metabolic syndrome in three independent mouse models.*

(a-d) Body weight and glucose tolerance were measured on day 11 (a,b) and day 13 (c,d) after 10 days of once daily intra-peritoneal injection of control, isotype-matched IgG or anti-asprosin mAb in 16-week-old, male, DIO (diet induced obesity) mice (n = 5/group) .

(e-p) Percent change in body weight, 24h cumulative food intake (measured on day 7), and blood glucose and plasma insulin (6h post treatment on day 14) levels were measured after 14 days of once daily intra-peritoneal injection of control, isotype-matched IgG or anti-asprosin mAb in 16-week-old, male DIO mice (n = 4 or 5 per group; e-h), 16-week-old, male *Lepr*$^{db/db}$ mice (n = 5 or 6/group; i-l) and 30-week-old, male mice on NASH diet (n = 7 per group; m-p).

Asterisk (*) indicate the range of alpha as determined by the t-test (two groups, one time point), or analysis of variance (ANOVA, sets involving multiple groups and time points. * p<0.05, ** p<0.01, *** p<0.001, and **** p<0.0001. Downward arrows in (m) indicate the day of submandibular bleed in *Lepr*$^{db/db}$ mice.

Figure 5: *A 14 day course of anti-asprosin mAb treatment improves liver health in MS mouse models*.

(a-c) mRNA expression levels of genes involved in tissue remodeling (*Col1a1*, *Col4a1*, *Acta2*) and inflammatory pathways (*Tgfß*, *Cxcl2*, *Il1ß*, *Il6*, *Tnf*, *Fas*, *Cd36*, *Ccl2*), and (d-f) triglyceride levels were measured in liver of 16-week-old, male DIO, 16-week-old, male *Lepr*$^{db/db}$ and 30-week-old, male NASH diet fed mice (n = 5-7/group) after 14 days of once daily intra-peritoneal injection of control, isotype-matched IgG or anti-asprosin mAb (250 µg/ mouse).

Asterisk (*) indicate the range of alpha; * p<0.05, ** p<0.01, *** p<0.001, and **** p<0.0001,

as determined by student T-test.

Figure 6: *Pharmacokinetics of epitope agnostic anti-asprosin mAbs from different sources.*

(a-c): Neutralization of asprosin using mAbs from different sources is equally protective. mAb

generated using mouse immunization with a 28-mer asprosin peptide (mouse mAb),

immunization of rabbits with recombinant full length human asprosin (rabbit mAb) and

recombinant mAb generated by panning phages from a naïve human antibody library (human

mAb) were injected IP in 16-week-old, male DIO mice (250 µg/mouse, ~5 mg/kg) and the

indicated endpoints measured (n = 5/ group).

(d) *Epitope competition assay*: In a sandwich ELISA, asprosin captured by each mAb (mouse,

rabbit or human mAb) was detected by each of the three mAbs in a 3-by-3 matrix to determine

competition for their respective epitopes.

(e-g) *Half-life of asprosin-neutralizing mAbs*. Mouse models of 'high asprosin' (16-week-old,

male mice with diet-induced obesity; DIO), and 'low asprosin' (10-week-old, male NPS mice)

were injected with mouse, rabbit or human mAb against asprosin 250µg mAb in 500µl 0.9%

saline; n = 2/group). mAb levels were determined in mouse plasma collected at 2, 6, 24, 96, 336,

and 504h post injection to determine *in vivo* half-life of mAbs.

(h-j) *Anti-asprosin mAb binding affinity.* Equilibrium dissociation constant (KD) of

recombinant asprosin binding to anti-asprosin mAb was determined by a 1:1 binding model and

use of global fitting method on Pall ForteBio's Octet RED96 system.

Asterisk (*) indicate the range of alpha as determined by analysis of variance (ANOVA). *

p<0.05, ** p<0.01, *** p<0.001, and **** p<0.0001.

Supplementary Figure 1: *Higher blood glucose and insulin levels in metabolic syndrome patients are associated with elevated asprosin levels.* Blood glucose, plasma insulin and asprosin levels were measured in metabolic syndrome male patients (n = 10; BMI > 25) and age-matched male subjects with normal BMI (< 25). Asterisk (*) indicate the range of alpha; * $p<0.05$, ** $p<0.01$, *** $p<0.001$, and **** $p<0.0001$, as determined by student T-test.

Supplementary Figure 2: *Acute asprosin-neutralization reduces blood glucose, but not appetite and body weight in lean mice.* Cumulative food intake and body weight change (at 24h post treatment), baseline blood glucose (at hour 2, 4 and 6 post mAb-treatment) and plasma insulin (at 6h post treatment) was measured after a single dose of anti-asprosin mAb (250µg/mouse) in 12-week-old, male, C57BL/6J lean mice, n = 5 per group. Asterisk (*) indicate the range of alpha; * $p<0.05$, ** $p<0.01$, *** $p<0.001$, and **** $p<0.0001$, as determined by student T-test.

Supplementary Figure 3: *Viral overexpression of human asprosin results in a MS-like phenotype in lean mice.*

(a-d) Body weight change, cumulative food intake, blood glucose, and plasma insulin were measured 15 days after 12-week-old, male, C57Bl/6 mice were tail-vein-injected with Ad-empty or Ad-FBN1 (3.6×10^9 pfu/mouse, n = 5/group) viruses.

(f-i) Body weight change, cumulative food intake, blood glucose, and plasma insulin were measured 15 days after 12-week-old, male, C57Bl/6 mice were tail-vein-injected with Ad-empty or Ad-Asprosin (5×10^{10} pfu/mouse, n = 12/group) viruses.

(k-n) Body weight change, cumulative food intake, blood glucose, and plasma insulin were

measured 57 days after 12-week-old, male, C57Bl/6 mice were tail-vein-injected with AAV8-

empty or AAV8-Asprosin (1 x 10^{12} GC/mouse, n = 10/group) viruses.

(e,f,o) Human asprosin levels detected in plasma of Ad-FBN1, Ad-Asprosin and AAV8-

Asprosin injected mice is plotted relative to the average background signal detected in Ad-empty

and AAV8-empty injected mice.

Asterisk (*) indicate the range of alpha; * p<0.05, ** p<0.01, *** p<0.001, and **** p<0.0001,

as determined by student T-test.

Supplementary Figure 4: *Asprosin-neutralization improves dyslipidemia in MS mouse*

models.

(a-f) Plasma levels of total cholesterol (TC), low density lipoproteins (LDL), high density

lipoprotein (HDL), triglycerides (TG), free fatty acids (FFA) and glycerol were measured 6h

after intra-peritoneal injection of indicated control, isotype-matched IgG or anti-asprosin mAb in

16-week-old, male DIO mice (250μg/mouse, n = 5/group; a-f),

(g-x) Plasma levels of TC, LDL, HDL, TG, FFA and glycerol were measured 24h after 14 days

of once daily intra-peritoneal injection of indicated control, isotype-matched IgG or anti-asprosin

mAb (250μg/mouse) in 16-week-old, male DIO mice (n = 6/ group; g-l), 16-week-old, male

*Lepr*db/db mice (n = 7/group; Db/Db; m-r) and 30-week-old, male mice on NASH diet (n =

7/group; s-x).

Asterisk (*) indicate the range of alpha; * p<0.05, ** p<0.01, *** p<0.001, and **** p<0.0001,

as determined by student T-test.

DIO-11 days

a.

b. IgG control ● mouse mAb ****

DIO-13 days

c.

d. IgG control ● mouse mAb

DIO-14 days

e. IgG control ● mouse mAb ****

f.

g.

h.

Lepr^db/db-14 days

i. IgG control ● mouse mAb ****

j.

k.

l.

NASH-14 days

m. IgG control ● mouse mAb ****

n.

o.

p.

Figure 5