Loss of VPS41 triggers rapid insulin degradation and dysregulated autophagy in pancreatic

beta cells

Short running title: VPS41 loss causes insulin degradation in beta-cells

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Abstract

Vacuolar protein sorting-associated protein 41 (VPS41) has previously been established as a requirement for normal insulin secretory function in pancreatic beta-cells, with genetic deletion of VPS41 in insulinoma cells (VPS41KO) resulting in defects in insulin granule composition and secretory behaviour. In mice, VPS41 deletion in pancreatic beta-cells presented as severe hyperglycaemia due to an insulin insufficiency. Presently, we show that chronic VPS41 deletion modeled in VPS41KO insulinoma cells and aged VPS41 beta-cell knockout mice results in beta-cell dedifferentiation associated with downregulation of beta-cell identity genes and insulin granule pathway proteins. In mice, a sexually dimorphic response to beta-cell specific VPS41 deletion is observed, with young female mice exhibiting preserved insulin content, less upregulation of degradation pathway-associated proteins, and reduced ER stress, compared to young male mice. In an acute model of VPS41 depletion *in vitro*, VPS41-dependent loss of insulin is associated with cytosolic redistribution of mammalian target of rapamycin (mTOR), increased nuclear localisation of transcription factor E3, and impaired autophagy in VPS41KD cells. Inhibition of lysosomal degradation with chloroquine or a cysteine protease inhibitor rescues the rapidly depleted insulin content. This phenotype reflects a HOPS-dependent mechanism for insulin content regulation, with VPS41 functioning as a critical component.

Article Highlights

Why did we undertake this study?

VPS41 deletion causes insulin loss in beta-cells through an unknown mechanism.

What is the specific question we wanted to answer?

How does VPS41 regulate insulin content in beta-cells?

What did we find?

Acute VPS41 depletion impairs the autophagolysosomal pathway while chronic VPS41 deletion down-regulates beta-cell identity. VPS41-dependent loss of insulin content is sexually dimorphic.

What are the implications of our findings?

VPS41 mutations exist in humans and VPS41-dependent regulation of insulin content has implications for diabetes susceptibility. Understanding how insulin degradation dysregulates is essential to the development of beta-cell targeting therapies to preserve insulin.

(Introduction)

Regulation of insulin content in pancreatic beta-cells is at the core of beta-cell function. It relies on a carefully curated balance between insulin secretory granule (ISG) biosynthesis, storage, degradation, and secretion[1]. In conditions of glucose abundance when more insulin secretion is required, insulin degradation is decreased[2] and insulin synthesis is increased [3]; characterised in the beta-cell by enhanced insulin promoter activation, elevated INS1 gene expression [3], and expansion of the endoplasmic reticulum and Golgi apparatus to accommodate increased ISG formation[4]. Intracellular ISG storage is also higher, reflected in increased beta-cell mass[4]. On the contrary, in conditions of reduced secretory need, ISG synthesis is downregulated, and insulin storage is minimized. Insulin granule degradation to control insulin content is mediated through multiple cellular pathways; crinophagy – direct insulin granule to lysosome fusion to degrade granule contents[5], conventional macroautophagy – in which insulin granules are contained within autophagosomal bodies for lysosomal fusion – or microautophagy[6] – in which insulin granules are autophagocytosed by the lysosomal compartment, also appear to contribute to insulin granule turnover[7]. There also

exist specialized pathways to degrade ISGs known as stress/starvation-induced nascent granule

degradation (SINGD), which are activated to preserve cellular resources[8, 9].

Vacuolar protein sorting-associated protein 41 (VPS41) is a core component of the homotypic

fusion and vacuole protein sorting (HOPS) tethering complex, which functions as a mediator

of vesicle fusion between intracellular degradative compartments of the cell[10-12].

Independent of the HOPS complex, VPS41 has additional roles in protein trafficking between

vacuolar compartments such as the lysosome and endosome through interactions with

Rab7[13], Adapter Protein 3 (AP3)[14, 15] and Rab5[16], though some of these pathways have

yet to be verified in mammalian cells. More recently, a role for VPS41 the regulated secretory

pathway has been identified, implicating the protein in granule biogenesis for the first time[14].

Human VPS41 mutations have recently been characterised[17], with these extending to

clinically relevant single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) in VPS41 causing

neurodegenerative pathologies in human families[18]. Inherited biallelic loss of function

VPS41 variants have also been evidenced to cause progressive dystonia and cerebellar

dysfunction in patients, with implications for impaired lysosomal function[18, 19].

Importantly, these neuropathologies appear to be driven by dysfunction of the HOPS complex,

in which a VPS41 mutation results in a HOPS loss of function phenotype.

In pancreatic beta-cells, VPS41 deletion and SNPs exhibited similar phenotypes to those

described in the brain[17, 20]. Dissolution of HOPS complex function by either VPS41 or

VPS39 – another core component of HOPS – depletion results in impaired endolysosomal

fusion, and consequently defective cargo degradation[20]. Importantly, our initial study in

insulinoma INS1 beta-cells established the existence of a separate pool of HOPS-independent

VPS41 protein that also contributes to ISG biogenesis, and this VPS41 pool remained stable

despite HOPS destabilization when VPS39 alone was depleted. We showed significant changes

to insulin granule morphology and composition occurs in CRISPR-Cas9-generated VPS41

knockout beta-cells[20], building on prior findings that VPS41 may exert a role as a coat

protein for granule formation[14]. Most strikingly, a S284P single nucleotide polymorphism in

VPS41 was sufficient to disrupt HOPS while keeping VPS41's function in the insulin secretory

pathway intact, suggesting that VPS41 has both HOPS-dependent and -independent functions

in the beta-cell. Importantly, we also determined that *in vivo* genetic deletion of VPS41

specifically in beta-cells using the *Ins1-Cre* transgenic mouse line resulted in an insulin-

sensitive diabetic phenotype in mice, characterised by insulin insufficiency and extreme

hyperglycaemia[20]. These findings were a crucial step in defining the relationship between

VPS41 and the insulin secretory pathway.

In our present study we disentangle the acute and chronic effect of VPS41 deletion in pancreatic

beta-cells using an siRNA-mediated knockdown of VPS41 in insulinoma cells (VPS41KD),

and the characterisation of young VPS41KO mice. We establish a sexually dimorphic response

to VPS41 deletion-driven insulin loss through differences in female susceptibility to ER-stress-

associated autophagy and determine that mature insulin granules are rapidly degraded in

VPS41KD cells through lysosomal degradation despite disruptions to autophagolysosomal

fusion. These data represent the critical nature of HOPS-dependent VPS41 function in beta-

cells.

Research Design and Methods

Cells

INS-1 cells (gifted from Dr. Peter Arvan, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, MI) were

maintained in RPMI (with 10% FBS, 1 mmol/L sodium pyruvate, 50 μmol beta-

mercaptoethanol, 1% penicillin-streptomycin) at 5% CO_2 and 37°C. VPS41KO cells were

generated as previously described[20].

Plasmids

VPS41 siRNA for knockdown experiments was commercially generated (Thermo Fisher Silencer Select siRNAs) using siRNA Assay ID s157874, alongside Silencer Select Negative Control No.1 (4390843). proinsulin-msGFP2 was generated from pQE-60NA-proinsulin-msGFP2 (Addgene, #160466) and verified by Sanger sequencing (Garvan Molecular Genetics, Australia).

Degradation Inhibition

Chloroquine (C6628), MG132 (M8699), E64D (E3132) and ammonium chloride (326372) were all obtained from Sigma-Aldrich.

Mass spectrometry-based proteomics

Protein samples for bottom-up proteomics analysis were prepared as describe previously[21]. Briefly, proteins were extracted in a buffer containing 4% sodium deoxycholate (SDC), 40 mM chloroacetamide, 10 mM TCEP and 0.1 M Tris-HCl (pH 8.0) in water. Samples were then incubated at 95°C for 10 min at 1000 rpm in a Thermomixer-C (Eppendorf). Samples were diluted to a final concentration of 1% SDC with water and 10 ug of protein digested overnight with 200 ng of MS-grade trypsin (Sigma) in 50 mM acetic acid at 37°C, on a Thermomixer-C (Eppendorf) at 1000 rpm. Samples were mixed with ethyl acetate (50% final concentration, v/v), vortexed until SDC precipitates dissolved. SDB-RPS StageTips were prepared, sample purification performed as described previously[21]. Peptides were reconstituted with 5 % formic acid in MS-grade H2O, sealed and stored at 4 °C until LC-MS/MS acquisition.

Using a ThermoFisher RSLCnano ultrahigh performance liquid chromatograph, peptides in 5 % (v/v) formic acid (3 μL injection volume) were injected onto a 50 cm x 75 μm C18Aq (Dr Maisch; 1.9 μm) fused analytical column with a ~10 μm pulled tip, coupled online to a nanospray electrospray ionization source. Peptides were resolved over gradient from 5 – 40 %

acetonitrile for 70 min, with a flow rate of 300 nL min-1 (Capillary flow). Electrospray

ionization was done at 2.3 kV. Tandem mass spectrometry analysis was carried out on a

Exploris or Lumos Tribrid mass spectrometer (ThermoFisher) using data-independent

acquisition (DIA). DIA was performed as previously described using variable isolation widths

for different m/z ranges 114. Stepped normalized collision energy of 25 ± 10 % was used for

all DIA spectral acquisitions.

Raw MS data were analyzed using quantitative DIA proteomics software DIA-NN (v. 1.8).

Complete mouse proteome databased from UNIPROT was used for neural network generation,

with deep spectral prediction enabled. Protease digestion was set to trypsin (fully specific)

allowing for two missed cleavages and one variable modification. Oxidation of Met and

acetylation of the protein N-terminus were set as variable modifications. Carbamidomethyl on

Cys was set as a fixed modification. Match between runs and remove likely interferences were

enabled. Neural network classifier was set to double-pass mode. Protein interferences were

based on genes. Quantification strategy was set to any liquid chromatography (LC, high

accuracy). Cross-run normalization was set to RT-dependent. Library profiling was set to smart

profiling.

Mice

Ins1-Cre control (CTRL), and beta-cell specific VPS41 heterozygous (VPS41HET) and

homozygous (VPS41KO) mice were bred at Australian BioResources (Garvan institute of

Medical Research) and transferred to the Charles Perkins Centre (The University of Sydney)

for experimental procedures. Mice were fed a standard laboratory chow (13% calories from

fat, 65% carbohydrate, and 22% protein) from Gordon's Specialty Stock Feeds (Yanderra, New

South Wales, Australia). VPS41*fl/fl* mice (26) were crossed with Ins1-Cre mice (strain 026801;

The Jackson Laboratory) to generate third generation VPS41*fl/fl*, VPS41*fl/+* and *Ins1-cre/+*

mice and their littermate controls for experiments. Male and female mice were used where

indicated. Mice were maintained on a 12-h light/dark cycle (0700/1900 h) with *ad libitum*

access to food and water. Experiments were carried out in accordance with the National Health

and Medical Research Council (Australia) guidelines for animal research and approved by The

University of Sydney Animal Experimentation Ethics Committees (Camperdown, New South

Wales, Australia).

Mouse metabolic phenotyping

Magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) was conducted (EchoMRI 900) to determine lean and fat

mass and mice were administered glucose (2 g / kg lean mass) by oral gavage. Mice were fasted

for 5 hours prior to oral-GTT. Blood glucose was measured immediately prior to and 15, 30,

45, 60 and 90 min after glucose injection with ACCU-CHEK Performa II Strips (Roche, Basel,

CH). Blood was collected immediately prior to and 15 minutes after glucose injection for

plasma insulin measurements.

Islet Isolation and Glucose-induced insulin secretion assays

Islets were harvested from mice as previously described[22]. Glucose-induced insulin secretion

assays were performed in isolated islets as previously described[22]; islets were placed into 2.8

mM glucose Krebs Ringer buffer supplemented with 10 mM HEPES (KRBH) for 1 hour prior

to assay as pre-basal. New KRBH media containing 2.8 mM was added, then collected after 1

hour (basal secretion). Islets were then stimulated with KRBH containing 16.7 mM glucose

and supernatant collected after 1 hour (stimulated secretion). Islets were then washed in PBS

and lysed by sonication in Islet Lysis Buffer (100mM Tris pH7.4, 300mM NaCl, 10mM NaF)

to measure total islet insulin content.

Insulin measurements

Plasma insulin measurements were obtained using an Ultra-Sensitive Insulin ELISA Assay

(Crystal Chem). *Ex vivo* islet and INS1 cell glucose-stimulated insulin secretion assay insulin

measurements were obtained using a rapid homogenous time-resolved fluorescence (HTRF)

Insulin Assay kit (Cisbio Assay).

Immunofluorescent staining

Paraffin-embedded pancreas tissue was processed as previously described [20].

Immunofluorescent staining for proinsulin, insulin, mTORC1, TFE3 was performed as

previously described[23]. Pancreas slices and cell coverslips were washed and mounted with

ProLong Diamond Antifade (Invitrogen).

SDS-PAGE

Proteins in whole-cell lysates and fractions were separated using MES buffer SDS-PAGE

under denaturing conditions on 4 - 12% Bis-Tris Bolt^{TM} polyacrylamide gels (Invitrogen), then

transferred to methanol-activated PVDF membranes. The modified Western blotting method

recently described by Okita et al.[24] was used to immunoblot for proinsulin and insulin.

Antibodies

The following commercial antibodies and their sources are listed: VPS41 (sc-377118, SCBT),

LC3A/B (12741, CST), LAMP1 (ab24170, Abcam), Insulin (IR00261-2, Agilent DAKO),

Proinsulin (GS-9A8, DSHB), Chromogranin A (NB120-15160SS, Novus Biologicals), Rab5

(3547, CST), Beta-actin (A5441, Sigma), phospho-eIF2a (3398, CST), total-eIF2a (5324,

CST), phospho-IRE1-alpha (PA1-16927, Invitrogen), total IRE1-alpha (3298, CST), Beclin-1

(3495, CST), Atg12 (4180, CST), CHOP (2895, CST), BiP/GRP78 (3177, CST), phospho-JNK

(4668, CST), total-JNK (67096, CST), mTORC1 (2983, CST), TFE3 (MA537818, Invitrogen).

Analysis and Statistics

Immunofluorescence image analysis for fluorescence intensity, colocalisation and western blot

quantification was performed in FIJI (Image J). Proteomic analysis was performed in Perseus

(v1.6.15 MaxQuant). Statistical analyses were performed in Prism (GraphPad Prism 8).

Results

Chronic VPS41 deletion results in loss of beta-cell identity. VPS41KO INS1 cells,

previously generated using CRISPR Cas9[20], were subject to mass spectrometry-based

proteomics to determine global protein changes. Following MS validation and normalization

(see Methods), we identified 1100 differentially expressed proteins – 658 downregulated and

442 upregulated – in VPS41KO INS1 beta-cells (Figure 1A). GO pathway analysis identified

processes associated with *RNA splicing*, *nucleic acid processing*, and *regulation of gene*

expression in upregulated proteins, and *lipid metabolic processes*, and *regulation of secretion*

and peptides in downregulated proteins (Figure 1B). Downregulated proteins included insulin

(INS1), glucokinase (GCK), insulin secretory pathway-associated proteins such as the

prohormone convertases (PCSK1, PCSK2) and chromogranins (CHGA, CHGB), as well as the

classic beta-cell identity marker insulin promoter factor 1 (PDX1) (Figure 1C). Significantly,

upregulated proteins included hexokinases (HK1, HK2), lactase dehydrogenase A (LDHA) and

aldehyde dehydrogenase (ALDH1B1), which are conventional beta-cell "disallowed" genes

associated with beta-cell dedifferentiation[25] (Figure 1D).

In an attempt to rescue insulin content in VPS41KO cells, we transfected WT INS1 and

VPS41KO INS1 cells with a GFP-tagged proinsulin DNA construct (Figure 1E). While

proinsulin-GFP expression was readily visualised in a perinuclear region colocalizing with

immunofluorescent (pro)insulin staining in WT INS1 cells, VPS41KO INS1 cells failed to

express the proinsulin-GFP construct (Figure 1E), further suggesting a loss of beta-cell identity

extending to proteins involved in proinsulin synthesis. Reduced (pro)insulin staining in

VPS41KO cells was consistent with that previously observed in these cells[20].

Previously, VPS41 beta-cell specific KO mice were characterised at 16 weeks age[20],

establishing a severe loss of insulin content and insulin secretory capacity in these mice,

resulting in significantly high blood glucose levels with no changes in insulin sensitivity.

Presently, we compared blood glucose concentrations of 6-week and 16-week-old female Cre

control (CTRL), VPS41 beta-cell heterozygous (VPS41HET) and VPS41 beta-cell knock out

(VPS41KO) mice, showing an age-dependent loss of glucose homeostasis in VPS41KO mice

only (Figure 2A). Proteomic analysis of VPS41HET and VPS41KO islets from these mice also

demonstrated progressive, age-dependent changes to the islet proteome, with 11% of the islet

proteome changed (761 differentially expressed) in 6-week-old VPS41KO mice compared to

VPS41HET, but 43% of the islet proteome altered (3084 differentially expressed) in 16-week-

old VPS41KO mice compared to VPS41HET (Figure 2B). When we performed GO pathway

analysis on differentially expressed pathways, we identified upregulated pathways at 6 weeks

that persisted to 16 weeks included *macroautophagy*, *lytic vacuole organisation* and *lysosomal*

transport, while downregulated pathways at 6 weeks that persisted to 16 weeks included

regulation of gene expression, negative regulation of RNA processing and *chromatin assembly*

(Figure 2C). Significantly, in islets of 16-week-old mice, we observed downregulation of

granule proteins such as neuropeptide Y (NPY) and secretogranin (SCGN), and upregulation

of lysosomal proteins (LAMP1, LAMP2), insulin degrading enzyme 1 (IDE1) and cathepsins

(CTSL, CTSD, Figure 1D). Finally, we found that while insulin (INS1, INS2) was not changed

at 6-weeks, it was significantly downregulated by 16-weeks, and this was preceded by

downregulation of insulin promotor factor 1 (PDX1) (Figure 1E). Altogether these data provide

strong evidence for progressive changes to beta-cell function and identity due to chronic

deletion of VPS41, potentially through downregulation of PDX1.

Acute loss of mature insulin in VPS41 depletion mirrors VPS41 KO prior to loss of beta-

cell identity. To separate the effects of acute and chronic VPS41 deletion in beta-cells, we

established a VPS41 depletion model using siRNA-mediated VPS41 knockdown in WT INS1

cells (VPS41KD). Time-dependent depletion of VPS41 over a 72-hour timecourse resulted in

a corresponding depletion specifically of insulin granules as measured by insulin and

chromogranin A (CgA), with no apparent changes to lysosomes (LAMP1) or endosomes

(Rab5, Figure 3A). By 48 hours post-transfection, VPS41 expression levels were 22 %

compared to non-targeting transfection controls (Figure 3B). Insulin levels were 18 % of

controls when compared by SDS-PAGE immunoblotting (Figure 3C), and 47 % by

immunofluorescence intensity (Figure 3D).

Proteomic analysis of VPS41KD cells at 72 hours transfection identified 1677 proteins

differentially expressed compared to non-targeting siRNA controls (Figure 3E), with GO

pathway analysis identifying upregulated pathways in *protein phosphatase inhibitor activity*

and *enzyme inhibitor activity* (Figure 3F). Neither LAMP1 nor LAMP2 expression changed,

but the autophagosome marker sequestosome 1 (SQSTM1) was significantly upregulated in

VPS41KD cells. Interestingly, while there was no change to insulin (INS1), the prohormone

convertases (PCSK1, PCSK2) or chromogranin A (CHGA), chromogranin B (CHGB)

expression was decreased, and PDX1 expression was increased in VPS41KD cells (Figure 3G,

left). Additionally, no VPS41 expression was detected by mass spectrometry in our VPS41KD

cells, and notably, acute VPS41 depletion was sufficient to destabilise the HOPS complex, with

undetected expression of all core HOPS proteins (VPS11, VPS16, VPS18, VPS33a) (Figure

3G, right).

Finally, a glucose-stimulated insulin assay performed on VPS41KD cells at 72 hours post-

transfection revealed no secretory defect upon single glucose stimulus at 16.7 mM glucose

(Figure 3H), but a significant loss of insulin content (Figure 3I), suggesting acute VPS41

deletion initially exerts control over insulin stores, and not secretory function.

Sexually dimorphic response to *in vivo* VPS41 deletion in the beta-cell is driven by

autophagy-ER stress susceptibility. Sex-dependent differences to diabetic and glucose

phenotypes are previously documented[26, 27], however our initial characterisation of

VPS41KO mice were performed in a mixed-gender littermates[20]. Presently, we characterised

male and female VPS41KO mice and VPS41HET controls at 6 weeks age, where female

VPS41KO mice have now been described to retain insulin expression (Figure 2E). Body

composition of males and females were not different between genotypes (Figure 4A), but

fasting blood glucose levels were significantly increased in both male and female VPS41KO

mice compared to HET controls. Importantly, male VPS41KO mice displayed increased blood

glucose compared to female VPS41KO mice (Figure 4B), but there was no difference between

fasting insulin levels in mice of either sex or genotype (Figure 4C).

When an oral glucose tolerance test (oGTT) was performed, both male and female VPS41KO

mice exhibited impaired glucose tolerance (Figure 4D), but only male mice exhibited

significantly impaired insulin secretion in response to glucose (Figure 4E). There was an

increase in the oGTT area under the curve (AUC) of VPS41KO mice compared to VPS41HET

controls (Figure 4F) as well as between male and female VPS41KO mice (Figure 4F). Notably,

when expressing oGTT values as a percentage of baseline to account for elevated fasting

glucose levels in VPS41KO mice (Figure 4G), an impairment in glucose tolerance was revealed

in male VPS41KO only, as measured by incremental AUC, suggesting that female VPS41KO

mice remained glucose responsive despite increased fasting blood glucose levels (Figure 4H).

When islets were isolated to perform *ex vivo* glucose-stimulated insulin secretion, we found no

differences in basal (2.8 mM glucose) and stimulated (16.7 mM glucose) responses between

female VPS41KO mice and VPS41HET controls. Matching *in vivo* insulin responses during

the oGTT (Figure 4E), male VPS41KO mice exhibited impaired insulin secretion at 16.7 mM

glucose during glucose-stimulated insulin secretion (Figure 4I). Male VPS41KO mice also had

significantly reduced insulin content in their islets, which was not observed in female

VPS41KO mice (Figure 4J). Accordingly, when insulin secretion was expressed relative to

insulin content per islet, a lack of secretory response in male VPS41KO was readily apparent

(Figure 4K). Immunofluorescent staining in pancreatic tissue of male and female VPS41KO

mice also a clearly observed reduction in insulin fluorescence intensity in islets of male

VPS41KO mice (Figure 4L).

As estrogen exerts protective effects on the pancreatic beta-cell[28, 29], in some cases through

ER-stress protection[26], we performed ovariectomy (OVX) and sham (SHAM) procedures on

5-week-old female VPS41KO mice and VPS41HET controls to investigate this possibility.

Blood glucose levels were measured when mice were 8 weeks of age, and no significant

difference was observed between OVX and SHAM groups in the VPS41KO mice (Figure 4M).

Notably, blood glucose levels of female VPS41KO in the OVX group did not reach those

observed in male mice even at 6 weeks (Figure 4B), suggesting the protective effect we observe

in female mice is not solely estrogen dependent.

Finally, islets were isolated from male and female VPS41KO and VPS41HET mice at 7 weeks

age to assess protein expression (Figure 5A). VPS41 expression levels in VPS41KO were

validated in both male and female mice, with low levels of VPS41 in VPS41KO mice attributed

to alpha-cell-localised expression in islets. As autophagy and lysosomal activity were processes

identified in our proteomic analysis, we measured markers for lysosomes (LAMP1) and

autophagosomes (LC3A/B) and found increased LAMP1 and LC3A/B expression in both male

and female VPS41KO mice compared to VPS41HET controls. Importantly, we only observed

a significant difference in LC3A/B between male and female KO mice, exposing a sex-

dependent effect within the autophagy pathway (Figure 5B).

As endoplasmic stress (ER) is an established trigger for autophagy in pancreatic beta-cells[30,

31], we also examined expression of key ER stress markers in our islets. No differences were

observed in the levels of phosphorylated eIF2a, phosphorylated IRE1, Beclin-1, or Atg12

between VPS41KO mice and VPS41HET controls of either sex. However, expression of

BiP/GRP78 and phosphorylated JNK were significantly increased in male VPS41KO relative

to female VPS41KO mice, which exhibited levels similar to VPS41HET controls.

Interestingly, CHOP was increased in both male and female VPS41KO mice compared to

VPS41HET controls, with female VPS41KO trending towards higher expression than male

VPS41KO mice (Figure 5B).

In summary, these data strongly evidence a sex-dependent response to genetic deletion of

VPS41, with males showing increased loss of insulin content, likely through an ER-stress

associated autophagy pathway.

VPS41-dependent loss of insulin is associated with cytosolic redistribution of mTORC1

and increased nuclear localisation of transcription factor E3. Previous characterisation of

VPS41 deletion in neuroendocrine cells reported phenotypes indicating defective activation of

autophagy pathways; TFE3 nuclear translocation was observed concurrent with dissociation of

mTORC1 from the lysosome[17]. Presently, we report congruous findings in the INS1 cell line

at 24h post-VPS41 knockdown (Figures 6A and B). In VPS41KO INS1 cells, expression of

mCherry-eGFP-LC3 to visualise autophagic flux identified an autophagolysosomal fusion

delay (Supplemental Figure 1A), congruous with increased autophagosome cargo protein

SQSTM1 expression in VPS41KD cells (Figure 3G) and increased LC3 protein expression

observed in VPS41KO mouse islets (Figure 5A and B). Altogether these data expose a

regulatory role for VPS41 in the autophagolysosomal pathway of pancreatic beta-cells.

VPS41 depletion triggers rapid lysosomal degradation of mature insulin granules. VPS41

knockdown-driven insulin degradation at 24 hours post-transfection was not matched by

proinsulin degradation (Figure 6C), indicating selective loss of mature insulin granules

independent of changes to proinsulin synthesis. This was further evidenced by similar levels

of proinsulin staining in control and VPS41KD cells at 24 hours post-transfection (Figure 6D).

Differences in insulin were also not detected in the media of control and VPS41KD cells within

the first 24 hours of siRNA, indicating insulin was not redirected to constitutive secretion

(Figure 6E). In VPS41KD cells, an 18 hour pretreatment of INS1 cells with cysteine protease

inhibitor E64D and lysosomal inhibitor chloroquine, but not proteosome inhibitor MG132 or

ammonium chloride (Supplemental Figure 1B), was able to restore insulin levels to that of

control cells (Figure 6F and G), confirming the selective loss of mature insulin granules was

occurring through a lysosomal pathway.

Discussion

VPS41 is indispensable to the beta-cell. We first established the significance of VPS41 in

beta-cells in our characterisation of VPS41 INS1 KO cells and VPS41 beta-cell KO mice[20],

showing that genetic deletion of the VPS41 protein in beta-cells resulted in an impaired

glucose-stimulated secretory response and dramatic loss of total insulin content. In mice, this

translated to a unique diabetic phenotype defined by insulin insufficiency in the absence of

insulin resistance (or an immune response). Presently we aimed to extricate the effects of

chronic insulin deficiency from acute VPS41 depletion to better understand VPS41 function in

both *in vitro* and *in vivo* contexts.

It is apparent from our present data that VPS41 likely has dual functions within the insulin

secretory pathway in regulating both insulin secretion and insulin content; VPS41 is implicated

as a coat protein alongside AP-3 at early stages of insulin granule budding at the *trans*-Golgi

network[14], but as a component of the HOPS complex, mediates maintenance of insulin

granule storage. It also appears that there are no functional redundancies for VPS41; while

HOPS complex dissolution in VPS39 KD leaves an intact pool of VPS41 still capable of

regulating insulin secretion[20], deletion of full length VPS41 is catastrophic for beta-cell

function. Our present use of an siRNA knockdown model allowed us to better parse the

consequences of chronic VPS41-induced insulin deficiency in the beta-cell and acute VPS41

loss-of-function. Where no defects in glucose-stimulated insulin secretion was observed with

>80% VPS41 protein depletion at 24 hours post-siRNA treatment, total insulin content was

significantly reduced, demonstrating a potential disconnect between VPS41's role in these two

functions. This may be attributed to preferential siRNA-mediated depletion of the HOPS-

associated VPS41 pool, analogous to that observed in VPS39 KO cells, though this is not

confirmed. Interestingly, re-expression of a single nucleotide polymorphism of VPS41 (S284P)

corresponding to a clinically relevant human VPS41 variant (S285P, [17]) in VPS41 KO INS1

cells was sufficient to improve both insulin secretion and content levels without rescuing HOPS

function[20]. Where, and how, this HOPS-independent pool of VPS41 contributes to insulin

granule biogenesis and exocytosis remain unanswered questions.

To our knowledge, such sudden loss of insulin content within hours of a single protein's

depletion has not been previously observed. Strikingly, we find that even partial depletion of

VPS41 seemingly prompts negative feedback that suggests downregulation of proinsulin

translation (Figure 6C) and may eventually result in an insulin secretory defect. This is most

strongly evidenced by age-dependent loss of insulin in VPS41KO mice (Figure 2E) and is

particularly noteworthy as a recent study reports VPS41 mRNA translation is downregulated

in mouse pancreatic beta-cells under chronic hyperglycaemia[32]. Interestingly, as VPS41 KD

cells exhibit a similar phenotype to nutrient-starved cells with mTORC1 inhibition coupled

with TFE3 nuclear localisation, it is conceivable that TFE3-driven modulation of master

regulator Pdx1 is downregulating insulin transcription[33]. *Pdx1* expression is essential for

both the cellular development of insulin-positive beta-cells and maintenance of beta-cell

identity[34]. It is also appreciated that consistent proinsulin production is necessary for

maintenance of beta-cell identity; dual *Ins1* and *Ins2* genetic KO mice develop proinsulin

processing defects that cannot be rescued with insulin gene re-expression[35], which we

similarly observed in our attempts to re-express proinsulin in VPS41 KO INS1 cells (Figure

1E). Ultimately, we find that VPS41 deletion generates a chronically insulin-deficient beta-cell

that eventually undergoes a dedifferentiation phenotype. This is replicated *in vivo*, manifesting

as a persistent and worsening hyperglycaemia with age, especially in male mice.

Impaired autophagy concurrent with insulin degradation in the beta-cell. Though VPS41

mutant S284P re-expression evidenced a HOPS-independent role for VPS41 in beta-cells, it is

apparent from our present study of acute VPS41 depletion that the first and primary defect is

the rapid degradation of mature insulin. Insulin granule turnover is critical to beta-cell function,

both to replenish secreted insulin, but also to maintain relatively young granules stores; aged

insulin granules are less mobile than their younger counterparts[36], less likely to be

secreted[23], are more commonly observed within degradative compartments in beta-cells[36].

Indeed, our observations of increased SQSTM1 protein in VPS41KD cells likely reflects the

build-up of autophagosomes or autophagosome-destined structures within the canonical

macroautophagy pathway. Evidence from VPS41KO PC12 neuroendocrine cells[17] and

VPS41KO INS1 cells (Supplementary Figure 1A) allow us to surmise that loss of the HOPS

complex contributes to autophagolysosomal delay/stall and it is unlikely insulin is degraded

through this pathway. This VPS41-mediated autophagic stall has also been observed in non-

secretory cells[37]. In beta-cell specific Atg7 KO mice in which autophagy is impaired, serum

insulin is reduced[38], with proinsulin observed to colocalize with SQSTM1 in beta-cells[39].

Moreover, these cells are more susceptible to ER-stress, which is congruous with our findings

in VPS41KO mice (Figure 5). Similarly, in islets from Rab3A KO mice, increased crinophagy,

macroautophagy, and microautophagy were all observed in response to impaired exocytosis[7].

However, this occurred alongside downregulation of LAMP2 and a significant decrease in

proinsulin content – neither of which we observed in our own VPS41 models. Indeed,

macroautophagy is generally accepted to be a protective pathway for (pro)insulin content and

beta-cell mass[40], and it is suggested that macroautophagy is more likely the primary

degradation pathway for *proinsulin* regulation in beta-cells[39].

It is conceivable that acute VPS41-dependent disruption of HOPS in the autophagolysosomal

pathway impairs normal proinsulin degradation in canonical macroautophagy and in response,

the beta-cell upregulates alternate insulin granule degradation pathways such as crinophagy in

an attempt to balance the synthesis/storage/degradation axis of insulin granule turnover.

Finally, starvation-induced autophagy is also uniquely regulated in pancreatic beta-cells, in

which conventional macroautophagy pathways are avoided due to their potential to trigger

undesirable stimulation of insulin secretion[9]. As such, starvation- or stress-triggered

autophagy (SINGD) has also been well-described to occur through direct immature insulin

granule fusion with the lysosome[8]. Considering the mTORC1/TFE3 phenotype mimicking

nutrient starvation, it is possible that SINGD may also contribute to the loss of insulin granule

content in VPS41 depletion. Crucially, we found that pre-treatment with either lysosome

inhibitor chloroquine, or cysteine protease inhibitor E64D was able to rescue insulin content in

VPS41KD cells. Interestingly, reductions in total proinsulin and insulin content in chloroquine

treatment of INS1 cells measured by ELISA (Figure 6G) were not observed by western blot

but may correspond to chloroquine-mediated downregulation of proinsulin synthesis[41].

Nonetheless, these data confirm the rapid mature insulin degradation was occurring through

lysosomal compartments. It is therefore likely that either microautophagy or crinophagy – that

is, direct delivery of insulin granules or insulin granule contents to the lysosome – may be

erroneously triggered in the absence of VPS41.

Altogether, our data substantiate the critical nature of VPS41 for insulin granule maintenance,

and by association, expose a HOPS-dependent role in insulin granule turnover. We also identify

a potential VPS41-dependent link to Pdx1 and demonstrate a cellular rewiring of beta-cells in

the chronic absence of VPS41. More broadly, we highlight the finely tuned balance between

insulin storage and degradation in the beta-cell and its necessity for whole body homeostasis.

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Conflict of Interest Statement

465   The authors declare no conflict of interests relevant to this article.

Figure Legends

Figure 1. Chronic VPS41 deletion in VPS41KO INS1 cells results in loss of beta-cell

identity. Proteomics analysis of VPS41KO INS1 cells compared to WT INS1 control cells

identified 1100 significantly differentially expressed proteins **(A)**, from which Gene Ontology

pathway enrichment was performed **(B)**. Protein expression levels of key insulin secretory

pathway-associated genes **(C)** and beta-cell 'disallowed genes' **(D)** were extracted from the

proteomics data to highlight their comparisons. Transfection of proinsulin-GFP into VPS41KO

INS1 (and control WT INS1) cells was performed unsuccessfully to rescue proinsulin

expression **(E)**.

Figure 2. Islet proteomics of VPS41 beta-cell specific KO female mice at 6 and 16 weeks

of age. Blood glucose levels of female Ins1-Cre control (CTRL), VPS41 beta-cell specific

heterozygous (VPS41HET) and VPS41 beta-cell specific knockout (VPS41KO) mice at 6 and

16 weeks of age **(A)**. Proteomic analysis of VPS41HET and VPS41KO female mice at 6 and

16 weeks of age identified 6818 and 7133 proteins respectively, with differentially expressed

proteins representing 11% and 43% of the total respective proteome **(B)**. Gene Ontology

pathway enrichment was performed on upregulated and downregulated protein sets and

compared between 6 and 16 week old mice **(C)**. Protein expression levels of key insulin

granule, protein degradation and trafficking-associated genes were extracted from the

proteomics data to highlight the HET/KO comparisons at 16 weeks **(D)**. Comparison of protein

expression of INS1, INS2 and PDX1 in 6 and 16 week old female mice **(E)**. $*p < 0.05$, $***p <$

0.001, $****p < 0.0001$ by paired t-test or one-way ANOVA.

Figure 3. Acute VPS41 depletion in INS1 cells by siRNA-mediated knockdown results in

diminished insulin content. Protein expression of VPS41, insulin, chromogranin A, Lamp1,

Rab5 and beta-actin after siRNA-mediated knockdown of VPS41 (50pmol) and non-targeting

control (NTC) siRNA over a 72 hour timecourse **(A)**. VPS41 **(B)** and insulin **(C)** protein

expression relative to beta-actin loading control, expressed normalised to NTC siRNA, 48

hours post-siRNA-mediated KD of VPS41 (50pmol) in INS1 cells. Insulin expression as

measured by fluorescence intensity at 48 hours post-siRNA-mediated knockdown of VPS41

and NTC **(D)**. Proteomics analysis of VPS41KD cells at 72 h post-transfection identified 1677

differentially expressed proteins **(E)**, from which Gene Ontology pathway enriched was

performed **(F)**. Protein expression levels of key autophagy, insulin secretory pathway, and

HOPS complex-associated genes were extracted from the proteomics data to highlight these

comparisons **(G)**. Glucose-stimulated insulin secretion assay to measure insulin secretion at

low (2.8mM) and high (16.7mM) glucose **(H)** and total insulin content normalised to DNA **(I)**

in VPS41KD and NTC siRNA control cells at 72 hours post-transfection. Data expressed as

mean $\pm$ SEM, *p < 0.05 by paired t-test.

Figure 4. Whole body and *ex vivo* islet phenotyping comparisons in male and female

VPS41KO mice. Total, lean and fat mass **(A)**, fasting blood glucose **(B)** and fasting blood

insulins **(C)** in male and female VPS41KO and VPS41HET (control) mice at 7 weeks of age.

Plasma insulin **(D)** and glucose measurements **(E)** from male and female VPS41KO and

VPS41HET mice during oral glucose tolerance testing. Area under curve **(F)**, glucose

measurements expressed as a percent of fasting glucose **(G)** and incremental area under the

curve **(H)** of oral glucose tolerance test curves from male and female VPS41KO and

VPS41HET mice at 7 weeks age. *Ex vivo* glucose-stimulated insulin secretion assay to measure

insulin secretion at low (2.8mM) and high (16.7mM) glucose **(I)**, total insulin content per islet

(J) and insulin secretion expressed relative to total insulin content **(K)** in male and female

VPS41KO and VPS41HET mice. Immunofluorescent staining of insulin in paraffin-embedded

pancreatic islet slices of male and female VPS41KO and VPS41HET mice **(L)**. Blood glucose

levels of 8 week old female VPS41KO and VPS41HET mice subject to sham or ovariectomy procedure at 5 weeks age **(M)**. Data expressed as mean ± SEM, **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001, ****p < 0.0001, ns = non-significant by one-way ANOVA.

Figure 5. Expression of ER-stress and autophagy-associated proteins in male and female VPS41KO mice. Representative western blot **(A)** and quantitative expression **(B)** of VPS41, autophagy-associated, and ER-stress-associated proteins in *ex vivo* pancreatic islets from male and female VPS41KO and VPS41HET mice at 7 weeks age. Data expressed as mean ± SEM, ***p < 0.001 by one-way ANOVA.

Figure 6. Alterations to degradation pathways in acute VPS41KD INS1 cells. Representative immunofluorescent images and quantification of TFE3 **(A)** and mTORC1 and lysotracker **(B)** colocalisation in INS1 cells 24 hours post-transfection with VPS41 or NTC siRNA. Protein expression of VPS41, proinsulin, and beta-actin at 24, 48 and 72 h post-siRNA-mediated VPS41 or NTC knockdown in INS1 cells **(C)**. Immunofluorescent staining of proinsulin in INS1 cells 24 hours post-transfection with VPS41 or NTC siRNA. **(D)**. Insulin measured by ELISA in the media of INS1 cells 24 hours post-transfection with VPS41 or NTC siRNA **(E)**. Representative western blot and quantified insulin expression by immunoblotting in INS1 cells pre-treated for 18 hours with DMSO, 2μM chloroquine or 2μM E64D, 24 hours post-transfection with VPS41 or NTC siRNA **(F)**. Quantified insulin content by ELISA in INS1 cells pre-treated for 24 hours with DMSO, 2μM chloroquine or 2μM E64D, 24 hours post-transfection with VPS41 or NTC siRNA **(G)**. Data expressed as mean ± SEM, *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001 by paired t-test or one-way ANOVA.

Supplemental Figure 1. Expression of mCherry-eGFP-LC3 in VPS41KO and HA-VPS41 INS1 cells **(A)**. Quantified insulin protein expression by western blot relative to beta-actin in VPS41KD cells pre-treated with 2 μM chloroquine, 10 μM MG132, 2μM E64D and 1mM

ammonium chloride for 24 hours prior to siRNA-mediated knockdown of VPS41 and NTC

(B).

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Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5

Figure 6

Supplementary Figure 1

A

VPS41 KO INS1   HA-VPS41 INS1

mCherry-eGFP-LC3

B

Insulin/actin (normalized to Ctrl)

NTC siRNA
VPS41 siRNA

MQ   DMSO   MQ   DMSO   CQ   MG132   E64   NH4Cl