

1 **Microtubules and G $\alpha$ -signaling independently regulate the preferential**  
2 **secretion of newly synthesized insulin granules in pancreatic islet  $\beta$  cells**

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18

19 **Abstract**

20 For sustainable function, each pancreatic islet  $\beta$  cell maintains thousands of  
21 insulin granules (IGs) at all times. Glucose stimulation induces the secretion of a  
22 small portion of these IGs and simultaneously triggers IG biosynthesis to sustain this  
23 stock. The failure of these processes, often induced by sustained high-insulin output,  
24 results in type 2 diabetes. Intriguingly, newly synthesized IGs are more likely  
25 secreted during glucose-stimulated insulin secretion. The older IGs tend to lose  
26 releasability and be degraded, which represents a futile metabolic load that can  
27 sensitize  $\beta$  cells to workload-induced dysfunction and even death. Here, we examine  
28 the factor(s) that allows the preferential secretion of younger IGs. We show that  $\beta$   
29 cells without either microtubules (MTs) or  $G_{\alpha o}$  signaling secrete a bigger portion of  
30 older IGs, which is associated with increased IG docking on plasma membrane. Yet  
31  $G_{\alpha o}$  inactivation does not alter the  $\beta$ -cell MT network. These findings suggest that  
32  $G_{\alpha o}$  and MT regulate the preferential release of newer IGs via parallel pathways and  
33 provide two potential models to further explore the underlying mechanisms and  
34 physiological significance of this regulation in functional  $\beta$  cells.

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36

## 37 **Introduction**

38           In response to postprandial blood-glucose increase, pancreatic islet  $\beta$  cells  
39 secrete insulin to promote glucose usage and storage in peripheral tissues (the liver,  
40 fat, and skeletal muscle), ensuring blood-glucose homeostasis. The collective  $\beta$ -cell  
41 dysfunction, loss-of identity, or death (a.k.a.  $\beta$ -cell failure) results in inadequate  
42 insulin secretion (1-3). This leads to type 2 diabetes (T2D), featured by sustained  
43 high blood-glucose levels and deregulated lipid metabolism that damage multiple  
44 tissues (4). In contrast, excessive insulin secretion, caused by cancerous  $\beta$ -cell  
45 proliferation (5) or deregulated secretion (6, 7), results in hyperinsulinemic  
46 hypoglycemia that leads to comatose or even death.

47

48           To control insulin secretion,  $\beta$  cells precisely regulate insulin biosynthesis,  
49 storage, transport, and secretion (8). Each  $\beta$  cell contains around 10,000 IGs (9).  
50 According to the physical location of and response to stimulus, these IGs have been  
51 traditionally classified into two pools: the readily releasable pool (RRP) and reserve  
52 pool (RP) (10). The former refers to a small group of IGs (<5%) that are docked onto  
53 the plasma membrane (PM) (11). These IGs were immediately released upon  
54 stimulation and largely contribute to the first phase of insulin secretion (11). In  
55 dysfunctional islets from T2D patients,  $\beta$  cells lack this IG pool, so that they cannot  
56 quickly secrete insulin in response to glucose stimulation within the first few  
57 minutes, i. e., the first phase (12). The RRP is absent in newly differentiated  
58 immature  $\beta$  cells as well, likely depleted by high levels of basal secretion (13).

59

60           The RP contains the majority of IGs in  $\beta$  cells, which are usually located away  
61 from the PM. These vesicles need transport to the PM for docking and priming to be  
62 released. To this end, high glucose, besides triggering glucose-stimulated insulin  
63 secretion (GSIS) and new IG biosynthesis, induces the transport and conversion of  
64 some IGs from RP to replenish the RRP (10, 14-17). These inter-connected  
65 responses allow  $\beta$  cells to maintain sustained or pulsatile GSIS under continuous or  
66 pulses of glucose stimulation, a property that is necessary for long-term  $\beta$ -cell  
67 function.

68  
69           Intriguingly, not all IGs in the RP are alike and are able to be mobilized to the  
70 RRP. Several studies, using pulsed radio-labeling or fluorescent-protein tagging of  
71 insulin, have shown that newly synthesized IGs are more likely released upon  
72 stimulation (18-23). Aged IGs will become non-functional and degrade via  
73 proteolysis (24, 25). This degradation ensures long-term  $\beta$ -cell function by  
74 removing the non-responsive IGs. It also presents additional metabolic load due to  
75 the futile biosynthesis of these IGs, which contributes to the high  $\beta$ -cell stress and  
76 reduced cell proliferation/function (26-29). Thus, investigating how  $\beta$  cells  
77 preferentially secrete newly synthesized IGs can lead to ways to enhance insulin  
78 output while avoiding insulin biosynthesis-induced dysfunction.

79  
80           A feature that potentially contributes to the preferential release of new IGs is  
81 their transportability via the microtubule (MT) network. In an elegant study of  
82 temporally-marked IGs, Hoboth and colleagues showed that IGs can display three

83 types of glucose-modulated and MT-dependent mobility: highly dynamic, restricted,  
84 and nearly immobile states. High glucose can expedite this motion, with the young  
85 IGs being more responsive to glucose, and older ones less sensitive and more likely  
86 found in the lysosome (30). These findings support a model that old IGs tend to lose  
87 MT-dependent transportability, preventing their movement to the PM and reducing  
88 their chance of docking/release.

89

90 MTs are cytoskeletal biopolymers that act as tracks for vesicular transport  
91 using the kinesin and dynein motor proteins (31, 32). In many cell types, MTs  
92 originate from the centrosome to form a radial array, with their plus ends oriented  
93 toward the cell periphery. Henceforth, kinesin- or dynein-mediated transport  
94 mediates the bulk flow of cargo toward the cell periphery or interior, respectively  
95 (33). In contrast, most of the  $\beta$ -cell MTs originate from organizing centers in the  
96 Golgi and form a non-directional meshwork (34, 35). This network is essential for  
97 quick/long-range IG movement but is ill-suited for bulk directional cargo transport  
98 (34-39). Disrupting these MTs acutely enhances GSIS (34, 35, 40), while stabilizing  
99 the MTs represses secretion (34, 35, 41). A model that is supported by these  
100 findings is that  $\beta$ -cell MTs allow active IG-movement between cell interior and cell  
101 periphery; however, MTs also compete with the PM for IG binding to acutely reduce  
102 the RRP. In the absence of MTs, the overall long-range IG transport is reduced (35,  
103 38, 39). Yet the non-MT-dependent IG movement, within a brief period of time, is  
104 sufficient for a portion of IGs to move to the PM for docking and regulated release  
105 (35). Thus, regulating the dynamics and density of MTs will likely influence the

106 releasability of young versus old IGs, because the new IGs will lose their advantage  
107 of being moved to cell periphery when MT-aided transport is reduced.

108

109 In addition to transport, IG docking on the PM is another limiting step for  
110 insulin secretion (15, 17, 42, 43). In this case, vesicular and PM proteins form a  
111 SNARE complex via the association between Synaptobrevins, Syntaxins, SNAP23/25,  
112 Munc18, Rim, and others (44). This complex brings the vesicles close to the PM. The  
113 presence of  $Ca^{2+}$ , via a family of  $Ca^{2+}$  sensors such as Synaptotagmins (Syts) (13, 45,  
114 46) and/or Doc2B (47-49), further modulate the conformation of the SNARE-  
115 complex to enable vesicular/PM fusion (50). Thus, mutations in several of these  
116 SNARE components were found to deregulate IG docking and secretion, and  
117 underscore essential roles of docking in GSIS (17, 43, 51-54).

118

119 An intriguing signaling molecule that can potentially regulate both IG docking  
120 and MT dynamics is inhibitory G protein  $G_{\alpha o}$ . Like all other  $G_{\alpha}$  subunits,  $G_{\alpha o}$   
121 signaling toggles between on- and off-state by dissociating/associating with  $G\beta\gamma$   
122 dimers in response to the activation of G-protein coupled receptors (55). Unlike  
123 other inhibitory  $G_{\alpha}$  ( $G_{\alpha i1}$ ,  $G_{\alpha i2}$ ,  $G_{\alpha i3}$ , and  $G_{\alpha z}$ ),  $G_{\alpha o}$  activation does not inhibit  
124 adenylyl cyclases in several cell types including islet  $\beta$  cells (15, 56), but repressing  
125 GSIS by reducing IG docking (15). Intriguingly,  $G_{\alpha o}$  at high levels, together with  
126 other inhibitory  $G_{\alpha}$  subunits, was shown to promote MT disassembly by  $G_{\alpha}$ -MT  
127 association (57, 58). Here, we explore the hypothesis that  $G_{\alpha o}$  may regulate IG

128 transport/docking through the MT network, which consequently control the  
129 probability of IG secretion in young and aged IG pools.

130

## 131 **Results and discussion**

132

### 133 **The $\beta$ -cell MTs are dispensable for overall IG-distribution to cell periphery**

134 We have previously shown that the MT network in  $\beta$  cells, although essential  
135 for sustained secretory function (40), acutely represses GSIS (35, 40, 59). Based on  
136 Total Internal Reflection Fluorescence Microscopy (TIRFM)-observation of MT-  
137 dependent IG movement near cell membrane (<200 nm away from the PM), we  
138 postulated that a role of the MT network in  $\beta$  cells is to pull IGs away from the PM  
139 besides acting as tracks for long-distance IG movement (34, 35). Here, we  
140 corroborated this hypothesis by first examining the overall distribution of IGs in  $\beta$   
141 cells with or without MTs.

142

143 Isolated islets were stained for insulin immunofluorescence (IF) and confocal  
144 microscopy after incubation in 10  $\mu$ g/ml Nocodazole (NOC) for 12 hours, a  
145 condition that effectively destabilize MTs (Figure 1A, B). We then examined the  
146 insulin levels at different areas of  $\beta$  cells, starting from one spot of  $\beta$ -cell membrane  
147 to another on the opposite side of cell membrane (see white lines in Figure 1C). At  
148 both non-stimulating 2.8 mM glucose (G2.8) and stimulating G20, there were  
149 significant reductions in total IG levels when cells were treated with NOC (Figure  
150 1D), with  $p = 0.0015$  and  $p < 0.0001$  (ANOVA), respectively. We observed particularly

151 high IG reduction in the center of cells in islets treated with G20 and NOC, when the  
152 overall IG was quantified (Figure 1D) or when the relative distribution of IGs (i.e.,  
153 the % of IGs distributed at each spot of  $\beta$  cells) were examined (Figure 1E). These  
154 findings are consistent with our conclusion that MTs are dispensable for the  
155 movement of IGs to cell periphery, likely achieved by slow-but-detectable random  
156 IG movement or MT-independent transport (35).

157

158 **Figure 1. MTs are dispensable for the allocation of IGs near the  $\beta$ -cell**  
159 **periphery.** (A-C) IF-assays of IG distribution in intact islets treated with [2.8 mM  
160 glucose (G2.8) + DMSO] (column 1), (G2.8 + NOC) (column 2), (G20 + DMSO)  
161 (column 3), and (G20 + NOC) (column 4). Images shown in (A) are maxi-projections  
162 of Z-stacked optical sections, showing co-staining of insulin (red), E-cadherin (E-  
163 Cad, blue), and  $\alpha$ -tubulin (green). (B, C) high-magnification images showing  $\alpha$ -  
164 tubulin (B) or (insulin + Ecad, C) IF signals in boxed areas of (A). Broken white  
165 circles highlight quantified  $\beta$  cells. Panel (B) images verify the absence of detectable  
166 MT filaments with NOC-treatment. Panel (C) shows the way of quantifying insulin  
167 distribution – with a line-scan along the white line drawn across each  $\beta$  cell. (D) IF  
168 intensity profile of insulin along the long axis of  $\beta$ -cells from confocal images. (E)  
169 Another way to show the insulin-distribution patterns with/without MT disruption,  
170 with the % of insulin detected at different locations in  $\beta$  cells along the long axis. P  
171 values marked in both (D) and (E) were calculated with two-tailed type II t-tests  
172 from the data of (DMSO + G20) and (NOC + G20) groups.

173

174

175

## 176 **The $\beta$ -cell MT inhibits IG docking on PM**

177 We next examined the number of docked IGs via TEM in the absence of MTs,  
178 focusing on vesicles <10 nm away from the PM, a resolution that cannot be achieved  
179 by TIRFM or confocal microscopy (Figure 2A, B). MT-depolymerization significantly  
180 increased the number of IGs docked onto the  $\beta$ -cell PM at basal glucose (Figure 2C).  
181 In contrast, there is a significant decrease in the density of IGs in  $\beta$  cells without MTs  
182 (Figure 2D-F), consistent with the requirement of MTs for new IG biosynthesis (40).



183 Similarly, the increased IG docking was observed in the absence of MTs under high  
184 glucose conditions (Figure 2G-I), despite significant degranulation with or without  
185 MTs under high glucose (Figure 2J. Compare with Figure 2F).

186 **Figure 2. TEM imaging showing the inhibitory effects of MTs on IG-docking in  $\beta$**   
187 **cells.** Islets were isolated from wild-type (WT) adult ICR mice and were treated  
188 with DMSO or 10  $\mu$ g/ml NOC for ~12 hour at 5.6 or 20 mM glucose. TEM was then  
189 used to examine the locations and density of IGs. (A-C) TEM images and  
190 quantification of docked IGs from DMSO- and NOC-treated islets in the presence of  
191 5.6 mM glucose. (D-F). Images and quantification of IG density in microscopic fields  
192 used in (A-C). (G-J) Images and IG quantification as in (A-F), except 20 mM glucose  
193 was used. Scales in (D, E, G, H) are the same, labeled in panel (H). In (C), (F), (I), and  
194 (J), mean + SEM were presented. In all panels, “n” indicates the number of  
195 microscopic fields (with 3-4 different  $\beta$  cells included in each field) counted. P,  
196 results from two-tailed type II t-test.

197  
198 These results are consistent with a model that MTs compete with the PM for  
199 IG binding. Specifically, IGs likely associate with MTs via vesicle-bound motor  
200 proteins. This allows the MT-dependent IG-transport from the site of biogenesis, the  
201 trans-Golgi network that usually localizes in interior of cells, to close-to the PM (34,  
202 36-39, 60, 61). However, the  $\beta$ -cell MTs have no obvious directionality. Thus, the  
203 MTs can also pull IGs away from the PM to prevent IG docking and to reduce the  
204 RRP, supported by both experimental results (17, 35) and mathematical modeling  
205 (34). When MTs are destabilized near the PM, e.g., in the presence of high glucose,  
206 the IGs can lose MT contact and be available for docking/secretion. Consequently,  
207 IGs with preferential binding with MTs, especially those newly synthesized (30), are  
208 more likely transported to the cell periphery for docking and release (59). The  
209 older vesicles, less likely transported due to their attenuated MT-association, will  
210 eventually be degraded.

211

212           The above model predicts that when the MT network is disrupted, the fast IG  
213 movement will be abolished (30, 36). Yet vesicle movement [slowed but still  
214 detectable in the absence of MTs (35)] via free-diffusion or actin-assisted transport  
215 is probably sufficient for a portion of IGs to move to underneath the PM for docking  
216 and regulated secretion (58, 62). In this setting, older IGs can be mobilized to allow  
217 enhanced secretion without new IG biosynthesis. In addition, the newly synthesized  
218 IGs with superior MT-dependent transportability will lose the advantage of being  
219 moved to underneath the PM (30). In other words, the absence of MTs could  
220 normalize the probability of secretion for both new and older IGs, which we  
221 experimentally evaluated next.

222

### 223 **Disrupting the MTs allows increased secretion of older IGs from $\beta$ cells**

224           To test if MT-disruption induces increased secretion of old IGs, GSIS was  
225 carried out in the absence of protein synthesis and MTs. Islets were incubated in the  
226 presence of 10  $\mu$ M cycloheximide (CHX) for three-hours, a condition that can  
227 effectively (>95%) inhibit protein biosynthesis in islets (63). Treated islets were  
228 then incubated with 10  $\mu$ g/ml NOC for one more hour to disrupt islet-cell MTs  
229 (Figure 3A-D), followed by GSIS assays. Because newly synthesized insulin become  
230 secretable within two-hours (64), we expect this treatment to reduce newly  
231 produced secretable IGs. The lack of protein biosynthesis results in a significant  
232 reduction in GSIS in  $\beta$  cells with functional MT (i.e., without NOC-treatment) ( $p$ =  
233 0.02, Figure 3E) as expected (63). Yet this lack of protein synthesis did not eliminate  
234 the MT-destabilization-enhanced GSIS (Figure 3E).

235

236 **Figure 3. The absence of MTs promotes secretion of aged IGs.** (A-D) The  
237 effective MT-disruption in islet  $\beta$  cells with NOC. Glu-tubulin was stained (A, B) to  
238 verify the effective disruption of MTs by NOC, with  $\beta$  cells identified by insulin  
239 staining (C, D, corresponding to the fields in A, B, respectively). Arrows in (A, B),  
240 primary cilia. Scale bar = 10  $\mu$ m. (E) GSIS from islets treated with combination of 10  
241  $\mu$ g/ml NOC and 10  $\mu$ M CHX. (F) The relative amount of radioactive insulin that are  
242 secreted (count/pg insulin) in control and NOC-treated islets, immediately following  
243 a 12-hour radio-labeling process. Presented in (E) and (F) were (mean + SEM). The  
244 P values presented are from two-tailed type II t-test. “n”, the number of independent  
245 assays.  
246

247 We next compared the secretion-probability of old and new IGs directly.  
248 Isolated islets were incubated overnight with 3H-labeled leucine/isoleucine and  
249 used in GSIS assays with or without NOC treatment. MT-disruption (in the presence  
250 of NOC) induced a significant increase in the proportion of older IGs being released  
251 (Figure 3F). These data support our model that the dense MT network in  $\beta$  cells  
252 traps older IGs. Without MTs, a bigger portion of older IGs will be made available for  
253 GSIS, leading us to explore the mechanisms that regulate both the MT networks and  
254 older vesicle docking/secretion in  $\beta$  cells. Note that the half-life of IGs in  $\beta$  cells was  
255 reported to be 3 – 5 days, we therefore consider IGs synthesized within the 12-hour  
256 window immediately before secretion assay as new IGs (25). This time-period  
257 allows sufficient amount of 3H-leucine/isoleucine incorporation in insulin for  
258 quantification.

259

### 260 **G $\alpha$ inactivation preferentially increases the secretion-probability of old IGs**

261 The increased vesicle docking in MT-destabilized  $\beta$  cells is similar to what we  
262 have observed in the pancreatic specific *G $\alpha$*  mutant (*G $\alpha$ <sup>F/F</sup>; Pdx1<sup>Cre</sup>*) mouse  $\beta$  cells

263 (15). Based on the published findings that trimeric G proteins can regulate MT  
264 dynamics (57, 65, 66), we explored the possibility that G $\alpha$  regulates IG secretion  
265 through MTs. We first tested if G $\alpha$  inactivation would impact the preferential  
266 secretion of newer IGs. As in the case of MT-destabilization, the *G $\alpha$ <sup>F/F</sup>; Pdx1<sup>Cre</sup>*  $\beta$   
267 cells, wherein *G $\alpha$*  is efficiently inactivated in  $\beta$  cells (Figure 4A-D), secrete a larger  
268 portion of older vesicles under high-glucose stimulation (Figure 4E).

269  
270 **Fig. 4. G $\alpha$  and MT regulate IG secretion via parallel pathways.** (A-D)  
271 Immunoassays showing the complete G $\alpha$  inactivation in *G $\alpha$ <sup>F/F</sup>; Pdx1<sup>Cre</sup>* islet cells.  
272 Note that Cre-mediated *G $\alpha$ <sup>F</sup>* deletion will yield a mRNA that translates a short N-  
273 terminal G $\alpha$  peptide, recognized by the antibody (red) but has no detectable  
274 biological effect (15). Full length functional G $\alpha$  is membrane-bound, while the N-  
275 terminal fragment is cytoplasmic, allowing for ready verification of *Pdx1<sup>Cre</sup>*-  
276 mediated *G $\alpha$*  inactivation in insulin+ (green) cells. DAPI (blue) stained for nuclei.  
277 Scale bar, 20  $\mu$ m. (E) The levels of <sup>3</sup>H-labeling in secreted insulin from control and  
278 *G $\alpha$ <sup>F/F</sup>; Pdx1<sup>Cre</sup>*  $\beta$  cells. (F) Insulin secretion results in *G $\alpha$ <sup>F/F</sup>; Pdx1<sup>Cre</sup>* islets, with or  
279 without NOC-treatment, induced by basal G2.8, stimulating G20, and [(A, B) G20 +  
280 K25 (25 mM KCl)]. Presented data in E and F are (mean + SEM). P values, results  
281 from two-tailed type II t-test.

282

### 283 **G $\alpha$ inactivation and MT disassembly independently regulate GSIS**

284 We then tested if the increased GSIS in *G $\alpha$ <sup>F/F</sup>; Pdx1<sup>Cre</sup>* and MT-disrupted  $\beta$   
285 cells depends on mobilizing a same pool of IGs. If so, we expect that MT disassembly  
286 in *G $\alpha$ <sup>F/F</sup>; Pdx1<sup>Cre</sup>*  $\beta$  cells will not further increase GSIS. In contrast, treating *G $\alpha$ <sup>-/-</sup>*  $\beta$   
287 cells with NOC induced an additional enhancement in GSIS (Figure 4F). Thus,  
288 different pools of IGs were mobilized/secreted in response to G $\alpha$  inactivation and  
289 MT disassembly, implying that G $\alpha$  does not directly regulate MTs in  $\beta$  cells.

290

### 291 **G $\alpha$ does not regulate MTs in $\beta$ cells.**

292 We finally compared the MT density and stability in control and *Gao*<sup>F/F</sup>;  
293 *Pdx1*<sup>Cre</sup>  $\beta$  cells via immunofluorescence. No differences in MT density (stained for  
294 tubulin) were observed between control and *Gao*<sup>-/-</sup>  $\beta$  cells when examined in single  
295 cells (Figure 5A, C) or whole islets (Figure 5B, D), as measured by the average  
296 distances between MT filaments (Figure 5E). Similarly, we did not observe  
297 significant differences in MT-stability in *Gao*<sup>F/F</sup>; *Pdx1*<sup>Cre</sup> and control  $\beta$  cells when the  
298 levels of Glu-tubulin [a well-established marker for MT stability, resulting from the  
299 removal of the C-terminal tyrosine in  $\alpha$  tubulin to expose the glutamate residue  
300 (59)] were compared (Figure 5F-H). These findings suggest that inactivating *Gao*  
301 does not alter MT dynamics in  $\beta$  cells, although both regulate IG docking and release.

302  
303

304 **Fig. 5. Inactivating *Gao* does not alter MT dynamics in  $\beta$  cells.** (A-E) The MT  
305 density in control and *Gao*<sup>F/F</sup>; *Pdx1*<sup>Cre</sup>  $\beta$  cells, stained with anti-tubulin (green), anti-  
306 insulin (red), and anti-E-cadherin (blue) antibodies. Single cells attached to  
307 coverslips (A, C) or intact islets (B, D) were used. Insets in A, C, insulin staining to  
308 identify  $\beta$ -cells. Note that in (B, D), a single  $\alpha$ -tubulin and a composite channel are  
309 presented. The quantification data in E is MT density in single  $\beta$  cells, assayed as in  
310 (35). (F-H) The density of Glu-tubulin in control and *Gao*<sup>F/F</sup>; *Pdx1*<sup>Cre</sup>  $\beta$  cells. Anti-Glu-  
311 tubulin (green), E-Cadherin (red), and DAPI (blue) were used. Presented data in E  
312 and H are (mean + SEM). P values, results from two-tail type II t-test. Scale bars, 5  
313  $\mu$ m.

314

315 In summary, we revealed two factors that act in parallel to regulate the  
316 preferential secretion of newly synthesized IGs in islet  $\beta$  cells. One is the MT, which  
317 originates from the Golgi and forms a non-directional meshwork. These properties  
318 makes these MTs ideal tracks for MT-dependent transport of newly produced IGs  
319 out of the trans-Golgi surface (40). However, they are unsuitable for directional bulk  
320 flow of IGs (35). As a result, the MTs act as holding places for IGs in the RP, whose

321 transition to the RRP was expedited by both kinesin and dynein motor proteins (36,  
322 38, 39). This mechanism is advantageous in that it prevents insulin over-secretion.  
323 However, when IGs age and lose their association with MTs, they will no longer be  
324 useful for function in the presence of a dense mesh of MTs and therefore must be  
325 degraded. This poises extra stress for  $\beta$  cells to replace this stock via insulin  
326 biosynthesis (67, 68). Note that although the absence of MTs can improve the usage  
327 of the old vesicles,  $\beta$  cells without MTs cannot maintain long-term function, due to  
328 the essential roles of MTs in  $\beta$  cells for new insulin biosynthesis (40).

329

330 The other factor that reduces the probability of secretion of old IGs is  $G_{\alpha o}$ ,  
331 whose inactivation enhances GSIS by increasing IG release of relatively older IGs as  
332 with MT-destabilization (15). Yet,  $G_{\alpha o}$  does not regulate the MT stability or density  
333 in  $\beta$  cells as predicted based on *in vitro* biochemical studies (69, 70). An interesting  
334 future investigation could be to test if  $G_{\alpha o}$  can regulate the affinity/processivity of  
335 motor proteins along the MTs. It would also be worthy to examine if  $G_{\alpha o}$  regulates  
336 the affinity between IG and PM components that form the SNARE complex. The  
337 latter possibility is particularly attractive because  $G_{\alpha o}$  has been shown to interact  
338 with Syntaxins (71), limiting factors for IG docking in  $\beta$  cells (52).

339

## 340 **Research Design and Methods**

### 341 **Mice**

342 Mouse usage followed protocols approved by the Vanderbilt University  
343 IACUC for GG/IK. Mice were euthanized by isoflurane inhalation. Wild type CD-1

344 (ICR) mice were from Charles River (Wilmington, MA). Production of  $G\alpha^{F/F}$  and  
345  $Pdx1^{Cre}$  mice were described in (15), which were used to produce  $G\alpha^{-/-}$  mutant  $\beta$   
346 cells ( $G\alpha^{F/F}; Pdx1^{Cre}$ ).

347

### 348 **Islet isolation and routine GSIS**

349 Islets were isolated from 8-16 week-old mice using collagenase perfusion as  
350 in (26). Briefly, ~2ml of 0.5 mg/mL of collagenase IV (Sigma, St. Louis, MI) dissolved  
351 in Hank's Balanced Salt Solution (Corning, Corning, NY) was injected into the  
352 pancreas through the main duct. The pancreas was digested at 37°C for 20 minutes  
353 and washed 4 times with [RPMI-1640 media with 5.6 mM glucose (Gibco, Dublin,  
354 Ireland) + 10% heat inactivated (HI) fetal bovine serum (FBS, Atlanta Biologicals,  
355 Flowery Branch, GA)]. Islets were handpicked in the same media and let recover at  
356 37 °C for at least 2 hours before down-stream experimentation.

357

358 GSIS follows routine procedures. Briefly, islets were washed twice with basal  
359 KRB solution (111 mM NaCl, 4.8 mM KC, 1.2 mM  $MgSO_4$ , 1.2 mM  $KH_2PO_4$ , 25 mM  
360  $NaHCO_3$ , 10 mM HEPES, 2.8 mM glucose, 2.3 mM  $CaCl_2$ , and 0.2% BSA). Islets were  
361 then incubated in the same solution (37 °C) for one hour, changed to new KRB to  
362 start the secretion assay. For insulin secretion induction, glucose (0.5 M) and/or KCl  
363 (1M) stock solutions were directly added to the KRB to desired concentrations. The  
364 secretion period assayed lasts 45 minutes. After secretion, islets were immediately  
365 frozen-thawed twice between -80 °C and room temperature. Acid alcohol extraction  
366 (70% alcohol + 0.2% HCl) was then performed at 4 °C overnight to determine the

367 total insulin content. For each GSIS assays, 8-15 islets were used in 1 ml KRB. The  
368 insulin levels were then assayed using an ultrasensitive Insulin Elisa kit from Alpco  
369 after dilution to within the range of sensitivity.

370

371 **Islet pretreatment – MT destabilization, protein synthesis inhibition, and**  
372 **radiolabeling**

373

374 For NOC treatment, islets were pre-incubated in KRB with 10 µg/ml NOC  
375 (with 20 mg/ml stock in DMSO) for one-hour to depolymerize MTs. This level of  
376 NOC was included in all solutions afterwards. DMSO (<0.05%) treated islets were  
377 used as controls.

378

379 To inhibit protein translation, islets were incubated in RPMI-640 with 10 mM  
380 glucose and 10 µM CHX for three hours to minimize the reduction of other proteins  
381 that are essential for secretion (63). Secretion assays follow as above in amino acid-  
382 free KRB for followup assays.

383

384 For radio-labeling, isolated islets were incubated for 12 hours in RPMI-1640  
385 [supplemented with 10% FBS, 10 mM glucose, and 1/30 volume of <sup>3</sup>H-labeled  
386 leucine/isoleucine (#NET1166001MC, Perkin Elmer)] cultured at 37°C with 5% CO<sub>2</sub>.  
387 Islets were then washed three times and chased in the same media without  
388 radioactive amino acids for 2 hours. GSIS assays were then performed as described  
389 above. In this case, the insulin levels were quantified using an Elisa kit. The



390 radioactivity in secreted insulin was quantified using a scintillation counter  
391 (Beckman LS System 6000TA) following immunoprecipitation using guinea pig anti-  
392 insulin and Protein-A beads (ThermoFisher).

393

#### 394 **Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) detection of IG-docking**

395 Islets were incubated in RPMI-1640 with 10% FBS plus 5.6 or 20 mM glucose  
396 with or without 10  $\mu$ g/ml NOC for 12 hours. Islets were then fixed, sectioned, and  
397 imaged following routine TEM protocols as detailed in (13). To count the number of  
398 docked IGs, Image J was used to measure the length of  $\beta$ -cell membrane. The docked  
399 vesicles, with near direct contact with the PMs (<10 nm away) were counted. The IG  
400 density was counted in a similar fashion, except that  $\beta$ -cell cytoplasmic areas were  
401 selected and measured. Double-blind tests were used without identifying the  
402 treatment conditions first.

403

#### 404 **Immunofluorescence (IF) and microscopy**

405 For  $G\alpha_o$  staining, routine frozen pancreatic sections were used (26). Briefly,  
406 adult pancreata from mice of desired genotype were dissected and fixed at 4 °C  
407 overnight in 4% paraformaldehyde. Tissues were washed in PBS three-times and  
408 prepared as frozen sections, followed by immunofluorescence staining using mouse  
409 anti- $G\alpha_o$  described in (15). Insulin co-staining was used to identify  $\beta$ -cells. DAPI co-  
410 staining was used to locate nuclei.

411

412 For insulin, E-cadherin, and tubulin staining, single cells or islets were used  
413 as shown in (13). For single cells, islets were partially dissociated with trypsin,  
414 washed, overlaid onto human fibronectin-coated coverslips, and cultured overnight  
415 in RPMI-1640 media with FBS and 5.6 or 20 mM glucose. IF staining was then  
416 performed according to the following: cells or islets were extracted with methanol  
417 at -20°C for 5 minutes to remove free tubulin, followed by fixation with 4%  
418 paraformaldehyde (PFA) for 1 (for single cells) – 4 (for islets) hours, routine  
419 permeabilization and staining (13). The primary antibodies used were: rabbit anti-  
420  $\alpha$ -Tubulin (Abcam, Cambridge, UK, #ab18251), purified mouse anti-E-Cadherin (BD,  
421 San Jose, CA, #610181), rabbit anti-Glu-tubulin (MilliporeSigma #AB3201), and  
422 guinea pig anti-insulin (Dako, Santa Clara, CA, #A0564). The mouse anti-G $\alpha$   
423 antibody was described in (15). Secondary antibodies are from Jackson  
424 ImmunoResearch (Alexa Fluor® 647 AffiniPure Donkey Anti-Guinea Pig IgG (H+L)  
425 (706-605-148); Alexa Fluor® 488 AffiniPure Donkey Anti-Rabbit IgG (H+L) (711-  
426 545-152), and Alexa Fluor® 594 AffiniPure Donkey Anti-Mouse (705-585-003).  
427 The dilution of all antibodies is 1:1000. Z-stacked images were captured using Nikon  
428 Eclipse A1R laser scanning confocal microscope. For super-resolution, images were  
429 captured at 0.125  $\mu$ m intervals with DeltaVision OMX SIM Imaging System (GE  
430 technology) using a 60x NA1.4 lens and processed according to the manufacturer's  
431 instruction.

432

433 **IG and MT density quantification**

434 To quantify the IG localization in  $\beta$  cells (Figure 1), representative confocal  
435 images were taken. A line-scan was then performed along the long-axis in the image  
436 to quantify the IF intensity from one point in a  $\beta$ -cell border to another point at the  
437 opposite border. The length of the line was set arbitrarily at 10 and the intensity of  
438 the IF was measured using Image J. For this purpose, the lines were drawn to avoid  
439 the nuclei, which are devoid of insulin IF.

440

441 MT density quantification using Image J follows the procedure described in  
442 (35). Briefly, super-resolution MT images were captured as above at multiple z-  
443 depth. Line scans were then used to detect the size of the spaces between MTs by  
444 selecting 10 lines across the cell center with a 30-degree interval. A custom image J  
445 macro was used to create line selections and obtain the intensity profile. The lengths  
446 of regions without signal within the intensity profile were considered spaces  
447 between MTs, with the means and SEM presented.

448

#### 449 **Statistics**

450 For all studies, at least two biological repeats and two technical repeats were  
451 included. Student t-test, two-tailed type II analysis, was used for comparisons  
452 between two groups of data. Two-way ANOVA with Holm-Sidak's multiple  
453 comparisons were used when more than two groups of data were compared. A *p*  
454 value below 0.05 was considered significant.

455

#### 456 **Resource Availability**

457

458           The reagents generated during the current studies are available from the  
459 corresponding authors upon reasonable request.

460

#### 461 **Author Contributions**

462           I.K. and G.G. conceptualized the work and designed the study. G.G. also  
463 performed radiolabeling and immunoprecipitation. R.H. performed GSIS assays. R.  
464 H., X.Z., and K.H. to perform immunoassays, imaging, and quantification. M. Y. did  
465 vesicle quantification. All authors contributed to writing the manuscript.

466

#### 467 **Conflict of Interest**

468           The authors declare no conflict of interest.

469

#### 470 **Acknowledgement**

471           This work was supported by National Institutes of Health (NIH)  
472 (<https://www.niddk.nih.gov/> and <https://www.nigms.nih.gov/>) grant R01-  
473 DK106228 (to I.K. and G.G.), R01-DK125696 and R01-DK065949 (to G.G.), R35-  
474 GM127098 and R01-GM078373 (to I.K.). K.H. was supported by a postdoctoral  
475 fellowship from Eli Lilly and Company (LIFA fellowship 0101420)  
476 ([https://www.amcp.org/resource-center/group-resources/residents-](https://www.amcp.org/resource-center/group-resources/residents-fellows/fellowships/Eli-Lilly)  
477 [fellows/fellowships/Eli-Lilly](https://www.amcp.org/resource-center/group-resources/residents-fellows/fellowships/Eli-Lilly)).

478

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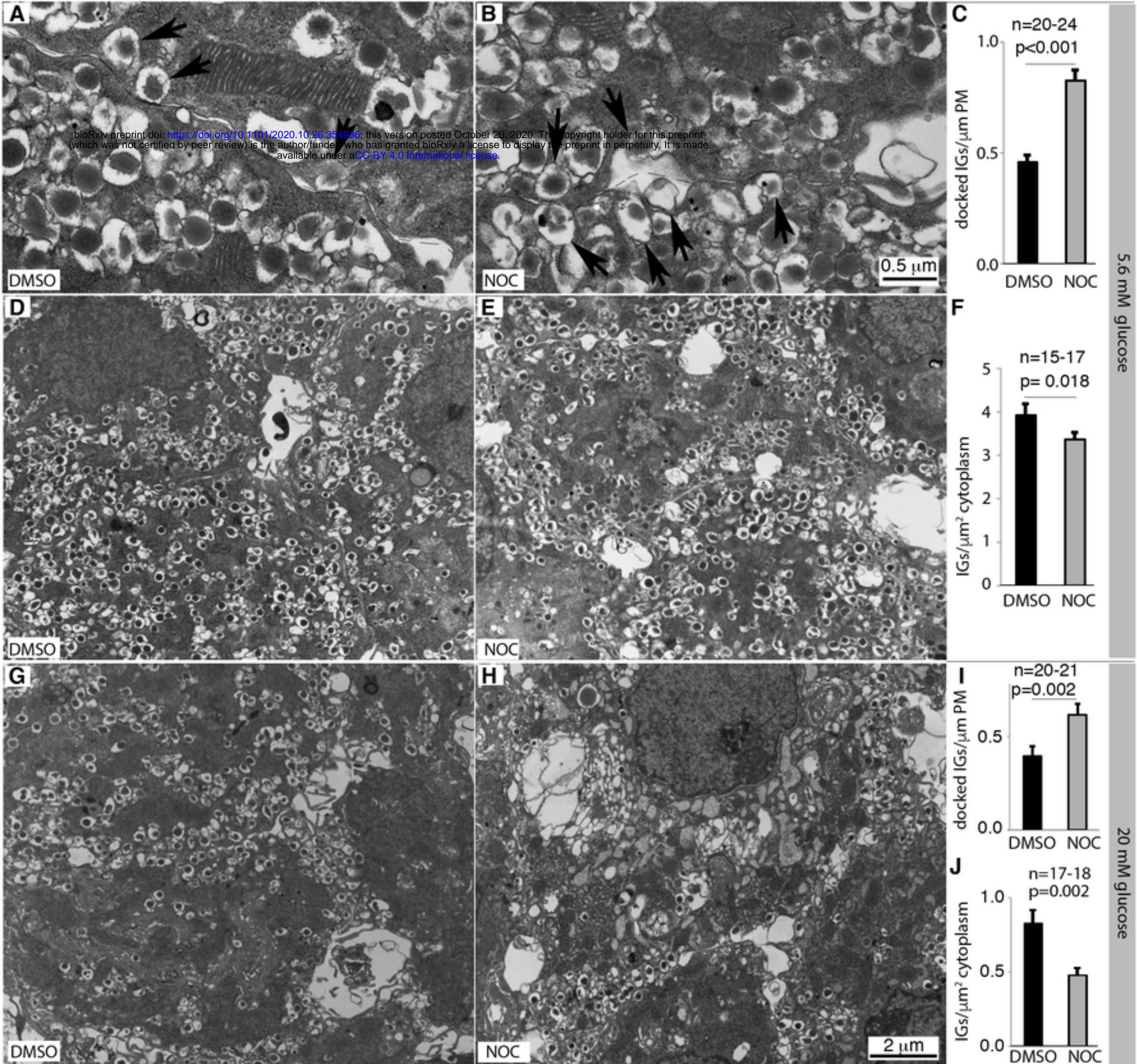


Figure 2



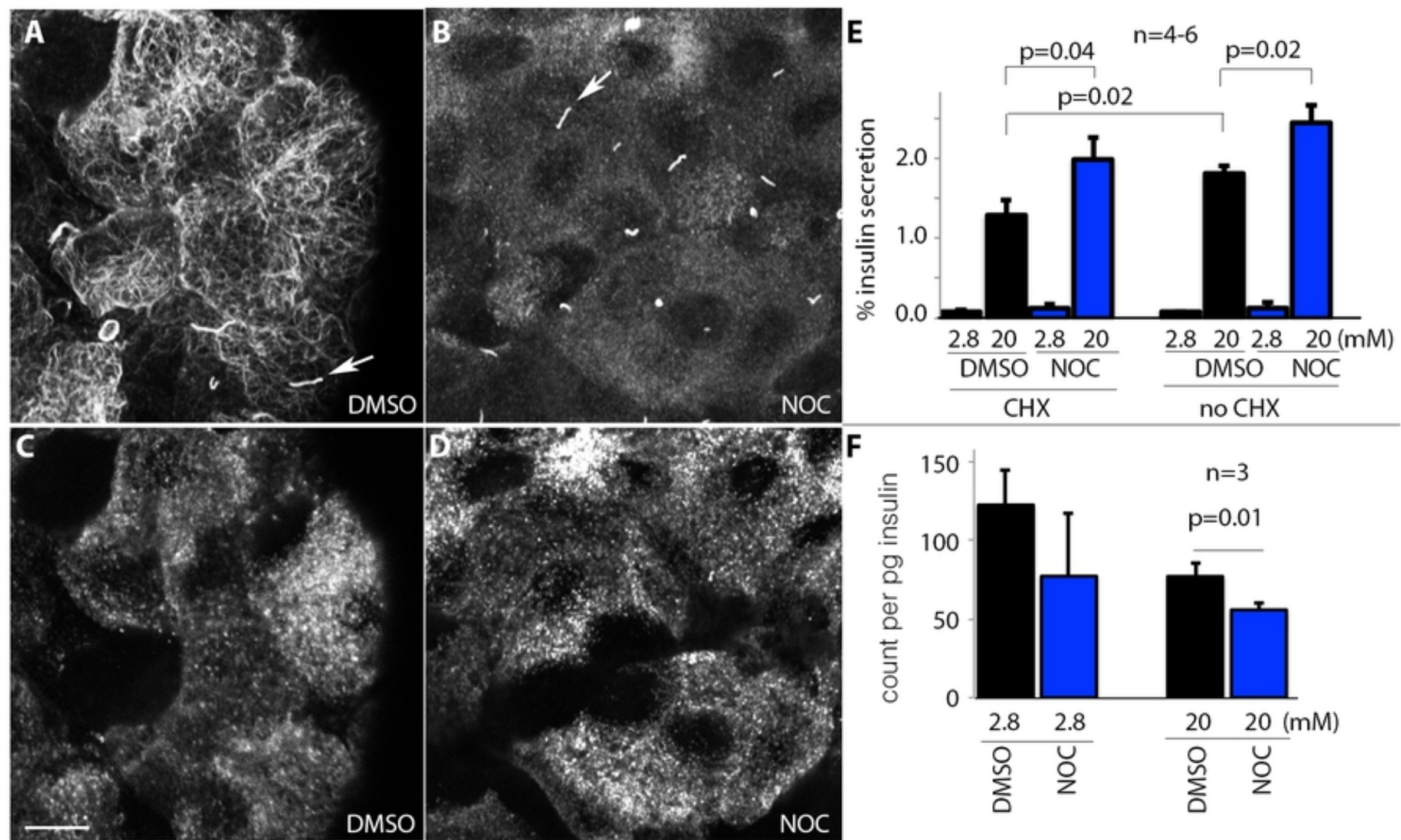


Figure 3



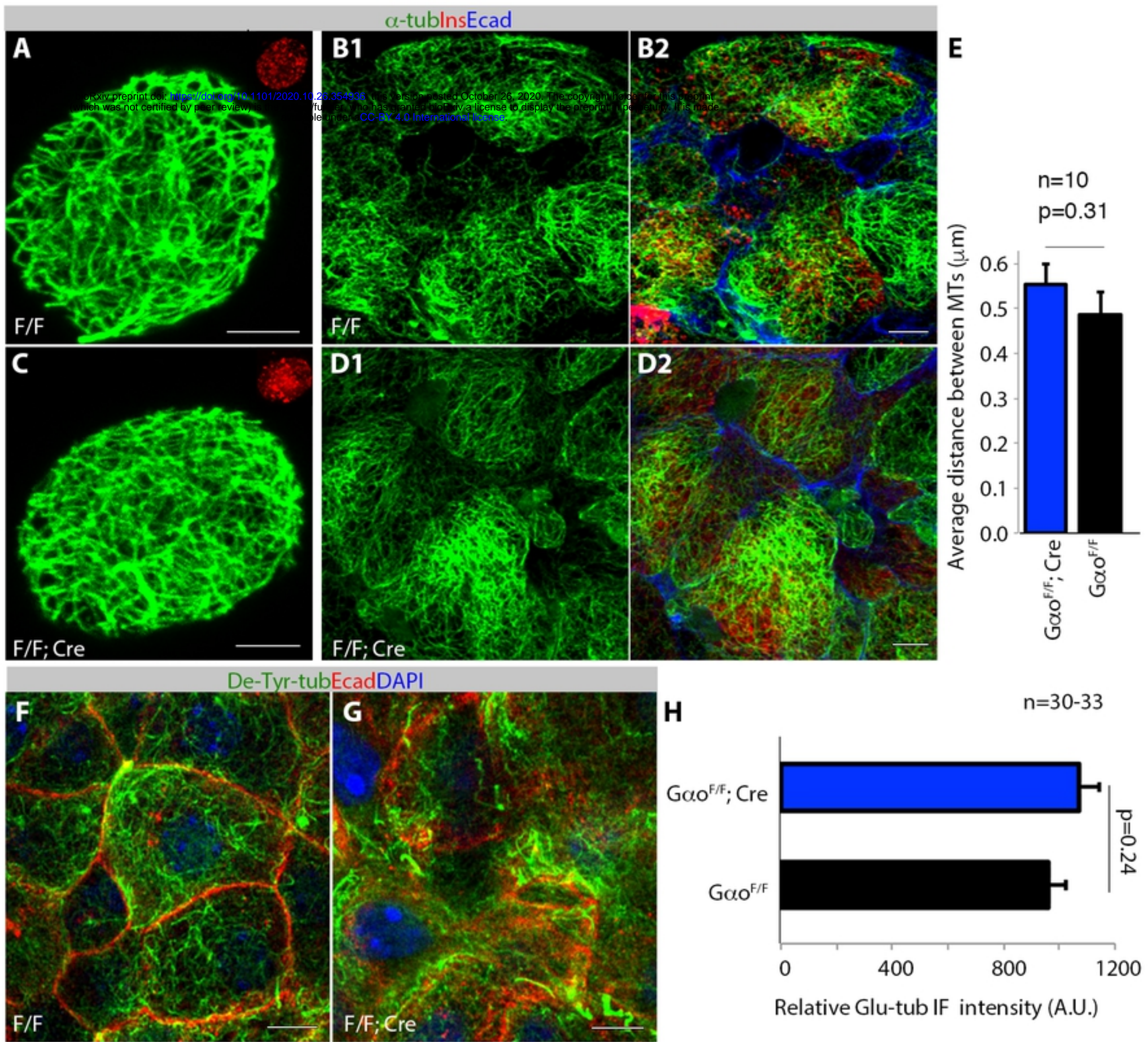


Figure 5







