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Participación de las calpaínas en la desregulación del transporte de glucosa inducida por arsénico

# TESIS

QUE PARA OPTAR POR EL GRADO DE: DOCTOR EN CIENCIAS

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# Abreviaturas usadas en este trabajo

2DG6P	2-desoxi-glucosa 6-fosfato
7AAD	
AS160	Akt substrate of 160 kDa
AV	Anexina V
BSA	Albumina sérica bovina
CaMP DB	Calpain for modulatory proteolysis data base
CAPN	Calpain
CAPN1	Calpaína-1
CAPN10	Calpaína-10
CAPN2	Calpaína-2
CAPNS	Calpain small subunit
CAST	Calpastatina
СВВ	Coomasie brilliant blue
CBSW	Calpain $\beta$ sandwich domain
CysPC	Calpain like Cys protease domain
D.O	Densidad óptica
DM	Diabetes mellitus
DT1	Diabetes tipo 1
DT2	Diabetes tipo 2
FSC	Forward scatter cytometry
GLUT	Glucose transporter
GLUT1	Glucose transporter 1
GLUT4	Glucose transporter 4
GSV	GLUT4 storage vesicle
GUSB	Glucuronidasa B
IRAP	Insulin regulated aminopeptidase
IRS-1	Insulin receptor substrate 1
KRH	Krebs Ringer HEPES
LRP1	Low density lipoprotein receptor-related protein 1

MAP1	Microtubule associated protein 1
MOI	Multiplicity of infection
mTORC2	Mammalian target of rapamycin 2
PBS	Buffer salino de fosfatos
PC1	Protease core 1
PC2	Protease core 2
PDK1	Phosphoinositide dependent kinase 1
PEF	Penta EF hand domain
PI3K	Phosphatidil inositol 3 kinase
РКА	Protein kinase A
SFB	Suero fetal bovino
shRNA	short hairpin RNA
siRNA	small interference RNA
SSC	Side scattered cytometry
tBoc-Leu-Met-CMAC	7-Amino-4-Chloromethylcoumarin, t-BOC-L-Leucyl-
	L- Methionine amide
TUG	Tether containing a Ubx domain for GLUT4
TUGUL	TUG ubiquitin-like
Usp25m	Ubiquitin carboxyterminal hydrolase 25 muscle isoform
VAMP2	Vesicle-associated membrane protein 2

### Resumen

Entre los factores de riesgo que se han identificado que contribuyen al desarrollo de la diabetes tipo 2 está el consumo de agua contaminada con arsénico. Este metaloide induce diferentes alteraciones en la homeostasis de la glucosa en el cuerpo, sin embargo, las vías mediante las cuales altera el tráfico vesicular de los transportadores de glucosa (GLUT) no se han descrito por completo. En estudios previos se ha identificado a la calpaína-1 (CAPN1), calpaína-2 (CAPN2) y a la calpaína-10 (CAPN10) como proteasas importantes en la regulación de los GLUT en diversos tejidos y tipos celulares. En este trabajo se evaluó el efecto del arsénico sobre la regulación de los transportadores de glucosa y de la captación de glucosa dependiente de calpaínas. En un modelo de linfocitos humanos tratados por 72 h con 0.1 y 1 µM de arsenito de sodio, se observó la inhibición de la translocación de GLUT1 inducida por altas concentraciones de glucosa, resultando en la disminución de la captación de glucosa. El arsenito además inhibió la actividad de las calpaínas inducida por glucosa, e indujo un incremento en los niveles de la proteína calpastatina que es el inhibidor endógeno de las calpaínas. Para demostrar que la disminución en el tráfico de GLUT1 se debe a la inhibición del sistema de las calpaínas, se generaron modelos de silenciamiento de CAPN1 y CAPN10 en la línea celular Jurkat. Se encontró que el silenciamiento de CAPN10 disminuye la actividad de las calpaínas inducida por glucosa, así como la captación de glucosa. Además, se determinó a la proteína TUG (Tether containing an Ubx domain for GLUT4) como un nuevo sustrato específico de la CAPN10 mediante el cual regula el tráfico vesicular de GLUT4. Para esto, empleando proteínas purificadas, se demostró que las calpaínas pueden realizar el procesamiento proteolítico de TUG. Se trataron adipocitos 3T3-L1 con diferentes inhibidores de calpaínas, resultando en la disminución en la proteólisis de TUG y en la translocación de GLUT4, sin alterar el resto de la vía de la insulina. Para demostrar de forma directa la participación de CAPN10 en este proceso, se generaron modelos de silenciamiento transitorios y estables de CAPN10 en los adipocitos 3T3-L1, donde se observó que la proteólisis de TUG disminuyó, resultando en una menor translocación de GLUT4. En conjunto, los resultados demuestran que las calpaínas son un blanco importante del arsénico en la desregulación de los transportadores de glucosa, y los datos en el modelo de adipocitos permitirán evaluar a futuro las alteraciones que induce el arsénico sobre la actividad de CAPN10 de una manera más específica.

### Abstract

One of the risk factors associated with the development of type 2 diabetes is arsenic pollution in drinking water. This metalloid induces different alterations in glucose homeostasis in the body, however, the pathways by which the vesicular trafficking of the glucose transporters (GLUT) is impaired, have not been completely described. In previous studies, calpain-1 (CAPN1), calpain-2 (CAPN2) and calpain-10 (CAPN10) have been identified as important proteases in the regulation of GLUT in various tissues and cell types. We evaluated if arsenic reduce vesicular trafficking of GLUTs through the deregulation of the calpain system. We used a human lymphocyte model treated for 72 h with 0.1 and 1 µM sodium arsenite. Arsenite inhibited the trafficking of GLUT1 induced by high-glucose concentrations, which resulted in impaired glucose uptake. Arsenite also inhibited the activity of calpains induced by glucose, and increased the levels of calpastatin protein, which is the endogenous inhibitor of calpains. To demonstrate that the decrease in GLUT1 traffic is due to the inhibition of the calpain system, we generated knockdown models of CAPN1 and CAPN10 in the Jurkat cell line. We found that the knockdown of CAPN10 decreased the activity of calpains induced by glucose, as well as glucose uptake. In addition, we determined a new specific substrate of CAPN10 implicated in the vesicular trafficking of GLUT4. Using purified proteins, we showed that calpains are able to perform proteolytic processing of this protein. In 3T3-L1 adipocytes treated with different calpain inhibitors, TUG proteolysis and GLUT4 translocation were decreased, without altering the rest of the insulin pathway. To demonstrate the participation of CAPN10 in this process, we stablished transient and stable CAPN10 knockdown models in 3T3-L1 adipocytes. In these models we observed that TUG proteolysis was decreased, resulting in a lower translocation of GLUT4. Altogether, these results show that calpains are an important target of arsenic for the deregulation of glucose transporters. In addition, the data in the adipocyte model will allow to evaluate in the future the alterations on CAPN10 induced by arsenic in a more specific manner.

### 1. Antecedentes

#### 1.1. La diabetes tipo 2

La diabetes mellitus (DM) es un grupo heterogéneo de enfermedades metabólicas caracterizadas por hiperglucemia provocada por defectos en la secreción y/o acción de la insulina (1). La hiperglucemia crónica está asociada con daños a largo plazo en diferentes órganos; especialmente los ojos, riñones, nervios, corazón y macro y microvasculatura (1,2).

Existen distintos tipos de diabetes, las cuales se clasifican por los mecanismos patofisiológicos que conllevan a la pérdida de células  $\beta$  pancreáticas. Los tipos más frecuentes son las diabetes tipo 1 (DT1) y tipo 2 (DT2)(3). La DT1 incluye entre el 5 - 10 % de los pacientes con diabetes (3). Los mecanismos que conllevan a la pérdida de las células  $\beta$  durante el desarrollo de la DT1 se conocen con mucho mayor detalle que en la DT2. En la mayoría de los pacientes con DT1, la destrucción de las células  $\beta$  pancreáticas es debida a un proceso auto-inmunitario que se ha asociado fuertemente a factores genéticos y algunos factores ambientales que no se han identificado por completo (3). Además, la obesidad no es un factor asociado al desarrollo de esta enfermedad. Esta enfermedad incrementa el riesgo a desarrollar otras enfermedades autoinmunes como tiroiditis de Hashimoto, enfermedad de Graves, enfermedad de Addison, enfermedad celiaca, vitíligo, hepatitis autoinmune, entre otras (3). Existen otros tipos de diabetes entre las que se encuentran las de tipo monogénico que afectan la funcionalidad de la célula  $\beta$  (Maturity onset diabetes of the Young, MODY), diabetes gestacional, entre otras (1).

La DT2 es la forma más frecuente de diabetes, incluyendo entre el 90 - 95 % de todos los pacientes con diabetes. Esta forma de la enfermedad engloba a los individuos que presentan una deficiencia relativa de insulina, más que absoluta, así como por presentar resistencia a la insulina (2,4). En estos pacientes se observan concentraciones de insulina similares o incluso más elevados en las etapas tempranas en comparación con las concentraciones observadas en individuos sin diabetes, pero estos niveles de insulina no son capaces de disminuir de forma eficiente la concentración de glucosa en sangre (2,3). Esto implica que las células

 $\beta$  no son capaces de producir los niveles de insulina necesarios para contrarrestar la resistencia a la insulina (3). Se conocen múltiples factores que incrementan el riesgo a desarrollar esta enfermedad, aunque las etiologías específicas no se conocen. En contraste con la DT1, no existe destrucción autoinmune de las células  $\beta$ , ni alguno de los factores que inducen otros tipos de diabetes (3). La mayoría de estos pacientes, aunque no todos, presentan obesidad o sobrepeso, mientras que aquellos que no cumplen con los criterios tradicionales de sobrepeso y obesidad pueden tener un porcentaje aumentado de grasa corporal en la zona visceral (3). La DT2 generalmente puede pasar desapercibida por años. Sin embargo, aun los pacientes no diagnosticados tienen un mayor riesgo de desarrollar complicaciones macro y microvasculares (2,3).

En México, la DT2 se ha convertido en uno de los problemas de salud más importantes. Esto se puede explicar en parte por el incremento en la prevalencia de obesidad, que es uno de los principales factores de riesgo para el desarrollo de DT2 (2,5). La prevalencia de obesidad en nuestro país aumentó del 20.9 % en 1994 al 32.4 % en el 2012. En concordancia, la prevalencia de DT2 en México pasó del 6.7 % en 1993 al 14.4 % en el 2006 (2). Desde 1998 la DT2 se ha vuelto en una de las principales causas de muerte en México. En el 2000 llegó a ser la principal causa de muerte, siendo responsable del 10.7 % de las muertes (2). Notablemente, estas tendencias siguen en aumento, y se considera que la DT2 es la principal causa de muerte en mujeres y la segunda en hombres, sólo detrás de accidentes cardiovasculares, los cuales pueden ser provocados por la DT2 (2,5).

Los principales factores de riesgo para el desarrollo de DT2 son genéticos (no modificables) y ambientales (modificables). La interacción entre estos factores puede conducir al desarrollo de resistencia a la insulina, alterar la funcionalidad de las células  $\beta$  pancreáticas o promover el desarrollo de obesidad. Entre los factores ambientales más conocidos, se encuentra el sobrepeso y la obesidad. La susceptibilidad a estos factores de riesgo ambientales puede tener también factores genéticos y epigenéticos. Otros factores ambientales ampliamente estudiados son el estilo de vida sedentario y la dieta alta en carbohidratos y grasas. En años recientes se ha ido reconociendo el papel de la exposición a químicos

desreguladores hormonales como un factor de riesgo importante en el desarrollo de enfermedades metabólicas. Estos químicos abarcan un amplio rango de moléculas orgánicas e inorgánicas, incluyendo arsénico, bisfenol A y ftalatos.

### 1.2. La exposición a desreguladores endócrinos es un factor de riesgo para el desarrollo de obesidad y diabetes tipo 2

El incremento en la prevalencia de obesidad y DT2 a nivel mundial se ha explicado durante los últimos 30 años como un efecto inducido por el aumento en la ingesta de alimentos hipercalóricos y la disminución en la actividad física. Sin embargo, estos factores por sí solos no explican por completo el aumento en la prevalencia de estas enfermedades y han fallado en prevenir o tratar estas enfermedades (6). Por lo que se ha empezado a estudiar el impacto de otros factores que pudieran contribuir al desarrollo de la obesidad y la DT2.

Entre los factores de riesgo que se han estudiado, está la exposición a sustancias químicas catalogadas como desreguladores endócrinos. Estas sustancias son compuestos exógenos que interfieren con la secreción y/o la función de las hormonas, provocando diferentes consecuencias para el organismo (7,8). A pesar de que no existe un consenso sobre las características claves que debe de cubrir una sustancia para ser considerada como un desregulador endócrino, se han propuesto las siguientes: a) Actúan como ligandos o agonistas de los receptores, b) actúan como antagonistas del receptor, c) alteran la expresión del receptor hormonal, d) alteran las vías de transducción de señales inducidas por la hormona, e) inducen alteraciones epigenéticas que disminuyen o potencian la acción de una hormona, f) alteran las síntesis de una hormona, g) afectan el transporte y secreción de las hormonas, h) afectan los niveles en circulación o la distribución de una hormona, i) afectan los mecanismos de eliminación de una hormona o j) afectan los mecanismos de eliminación de una hormona o j) afectan los productoras como de los blancos de una hormona (7).

En el caso de la obesidad y de la DT2, los desreguladores endocrinos pueden afectar la producción de insulina en las células  $\beta$  pancreáticas, afectar la diferenciación o apoptosis de las células  $\beta$  pancreáticas, inducir hipertrofia o

hiperplasia del tejido adiposo, o inducir resistencia a la insulina en sus órganos blanco, entre otras (6,8). A la fecha se conocen diversas sustancias que actúan como desreguladores endócrinos y que aumentan el riesgo de desarrollar DT2, tales como el bisfenol A, el diclorodifenil tricloro etano (DTT), pesticidas organoclorados, cadmio, mercurio, ftalatos, malatión, material particulado y el arsénico (8).

#### 1.3. El arsénico como contaminante ambiental

El arsénico es un elemento del grupo VA de la tabla periódica, su número atómico es 33 y su peso atómico es 74.9. Se le clasifica como metaloide por poseer características físicas y químicas tanto de los metales como de los no metales, aunque se suele referir a él como un metal. El arsénico elemental es un sólido de color gris acero. En el ambiente suele encontrarse formando compuestos con oxígeno, cloro y azufre. Estos compuestos son conocidos como compuestos inorgánicos de arsénico, mientras que los compuestos de arsénico con carbono e hidrógeno se conocen como compuestos orgánicos de arsénico (9,10).

Este elemento se encuentra en dos estados de oxidación principales: As<sup>3+</sup> (arsenito) y As<sup>5+</sup> (arsenato). De estos, los compuestos con As<sup>3+</sup> son más tóxicos que sus análogos con As<sup>5+</sup> (9,11). Los compuestos inorgánicos de arsénico están ampliamente distribuidos en el suelo y en algunos tipos de rocas, especialmente aquellos minerales que contienen cobre o plomo. De hecho, la concentración de arsénico en la corteza terrestre oscila alrededor de 3.4 ppm (10). Los compuestos orgánicos de arsénico se pueden encontrar en organismos acuáticos, en moléculas como la arsenobetaína, así como en alimentos y en pesticidas tales como el ácido cacodílico, metilarsenato disódico y el metilarsenato monosódico (10,11).

Las fuentes de exposición a arsénico pueden ser naturales o generadas por actividades humanas. Este elemento es liberado de manera natural a los cuerpos subterráneos de agua, aire y suelo como resultado de la actividad volcánica y la erosión de los depósitos naturales. Por otro lado, las fuentes de origen antropogénico contribuyen en menor grado a la contaminación por arsénico, y están asociadas a los diversos usos que tienen los compuestos derivados de este elemento (12,13). En la actualidad, el uso más importante es como preservativo de

madera en forma de arsenato cromado de cobre; pero no se sabe si los productos de madera tratados con este compuesto pudieran contribuir a la exposición de la gente al arsénico. En la agricultura se utilizan compuestos orgánicos de arsénico como pesticidas en cultivos de algodón y huertas. Otro uso importante del arsénico es en semiconductores y diodos (10).

La vía de exposición más común es la oral, mediante la ingesta de agua contaminada y alimentos como el arroz, pescado y leche (10). Aunque también puede ocurrir por vía inhalada o por contacto con la piel en trabajadores del campo, industria de la madera, vidrio y microelectrónica (10). La contaminación del agua potable con arsénico se considera un problema mundial de salud. Países como México, Bangladesh, Estados Unidos, Taiwán, Japón, China, Finlandia, Nueva Zelanda, Vietnam, Filipinas, Argentina y Chile presentan problemas por hidroarsenicismo (12). Además, en nuestro país existen poblaciones que están expuestas a elevadas concentraciones de arsénico, tales como La Comarca Lagunera en los estados de Coahuila y Durango, así como en Zacatecas, Hidalgo, Morelos, Aguascalientes, Chihuahua, Sonora, Puebla, Nuevo León, Jalisco, Oaxaca, Guanajuato y San Luis Potosí (14). La Organización Mundial de la Salud ha establecido como límite máximo una concentración de 10 µg/l de arsénico en el agua destinada para consumo humano, sin embargo, se estima que en América Latina alrededor de 4.5 millones de personas consumen agua con niveles mayores a 50  $\mu$ g/L de arsénico (15).

El arsénico puede ser absorbido por inhalación, ingestión o por penetración en la piel o las mucosas. Una vez en el torrente sanguíneo, el arsénico entra a las células a través de difusión simple, o por difusión facilitada mediante los transportadores de fosfato, algunos miembros de la familia de los transportadores de glucosa (GLUT) o por acuagliceroporinas (13). Una vez en el interior de las células, el arsénico se metaboliza para dar lugar a la formación de arsénico trivalente, así como especies mono-, di - y tri-metiladas en ambos estados de oxidación, y las formas metiladas del As<sup>3+</sup> son aún más tóxicas que el arsénico inorgánico (13).

La toxicidad del arsénico es mediada por varios mecanismos, entre los que destacan la alteración en la respiración celular debido a la inhibición de varias enzimas mitocondriales y el desacoplamiento de la fosforilación oxidativa, disminución en la producción de óxido nítrico en el endotelio, inducción de estrés oxidativo, alteración de la expresión de diversos genes, unión a grupos tiol en las proteínas, alteración en las fosforilación de las proteínas, daño al DNA y alteración los flujos de Ca<sup>2+</sup> en la célula (9,10,16).

# 1.4. El arsénico es un desregulador endócrino que incrementa el riesgo de desarrollar diabetes tipo 2

Diversos estudios epidemiológicos han demostrado que el consumo crónico de agua contaminada con arsénico está asociado con un incremento en la prevalencia de DM2 de manera dosis-dependiente en regiones como Bangladesh, Taiwán, Korea, Cambodia, Dinamarca, Suecia, Chile y en las regiones de Zimapán y la Comarca Lagunera en México (17–20). En cambio, la asociación del consumo de arsénico con el desarrollo de obesidad casi no ha sido evaluado, y la evidencia epidemiológica es muy contradictoria (6,20).

Los estudios en animales han demostrado que la exposición al arsénico *in útero* induce en la placenta la sobreexpresión de GLUT3, disminución en la expresión de GLUT4, y bajo peso al nacer. Además, la exposición *in útero* a arsénico induce en los animales adultos una mayor ganancia de peso, mayor porcentaje de grasa corporal e intolerancia a la glucosa, en comparación con animales cuyas madres no fueron tratadas con arsénico durante la gestación (21,22). Algunos estudios en ratas macho adultas han descrito que la exposición a arsénico induce hiperglucemia, hiperinsulinemia, resistencia a la insulina, hipertrigliceridemia, altos niveles de colesterol LDL, mientras que en las ratas hembra los efectos fueron menores (23). En ratones hembras, la exposición a arsénico induce hiperglucemia, menores niveles de insulina en sangre, menor tolerancia a la glucosa, pero sin inducir resistencia a la insulina, en comparación con ratones hembras no tratadas. De manera interesante, en las hembras a las que se les retiraron los ovarios, además de las alteraciones antes mencionadas, el arsénico también indujo

resistencia a la insulina (24), sugiriendo que pudieran existir efectos diferentes dependiendo de la presencia de hormonas sexuales. En ratones también se ha descrito que la exposición a arsénico induce daños en las células  $\beta$  pancreáticas y en el hígado, y estos efectos son potenciados en ratones con diabetes. Además, los efectos del arsénico sobre el metabolismo del organismo son mayores en ratones alimentados con dietas altas en grasas, incrementando la resistencia a la insulina (25,26). Otro trabajo en ratones también reportó que el arsénico es capaz de alterar la estructura secundaria de la insulina, disminuyendo su porcentaje de hélices  $\alpha$ , lo que disminuye su actividad (27). En la mayoría de estos trabajos se ha encontrado que uno de los mecanismos por los que se dan estas alteraciones es por la inducción de especies reactivas de oxígeno, estrés oxidante e inflamación (20,25,28). Sin embargo, en la mayoría de estos estudios no se han analizado las posibles alteraciones de las vías de señalización, ni de la actividad de los receptores en los órganos blancos de la insulina.

Por otro lado, los estudios *in vitro* han profundizado más en los posibles mecanismos moleculares a través de los cuales el arsénico altera la funcionalidad de las células  $\beta$  pancreáticas, adipocitos, músculo esquelético y hepatocitos. En líneas de células  $\beta$  se ha observado que el arsénico provoca daño por estrés oxidativo, disfunción mitocondrial, apoptosis y rompimientos de DNA de doble cadena (19,29,30). Además, es capaz de alterar la expresión de miRNAs involucrados en la secreción de la insulina, y nuestro grupo de trabajo describió que el arsénico inhibe la expresión del mRNA de la insulina e inhibe la secreción de esta hormona a través de una reducción en los flujos de Ca<sup>2+</sup> y a la inhibición de la proteólisis de SNAP25 mediada por calpaína-10 (CAPN10) y de mayores niveles de especies reactivas de oxígeno (31–34).

En los adipocitos, el arsénico disminuye la adipogénesis, induce hipertrofia de los adipocitos ya diferenciados, incrementa la lipólisis, y disminuye la captación de glucosa estimulada por insulina en parte a través de una menor fosforilación de PDK-1 y Akt (6,35–38). En células de músculo esquelético, la exposición a arsénico *in vitro* inhibe la miogénesis, la captación de glucosa inducida por insulina y la fosforilación de Akt (39). Sin embargo, los estudios realizados sobre la vía de

señalización de la insulina se realizaron con concentraciones muy altas de arsénico (>5 µM), o bien la exposición fue antes de inducir la diferenciación de las células, por lo que los resultados podrían no reflejar lo que ocurre en personas crónicamente expuestas a bajos niveles de este elemento.

En conjunto, los efectos del arsénico sobre la señalización por insulina se recopilan en la figura 1, mostrando que el arsénico altera a la mayoría de las características claves que se describieron previamente, por lo que puede ser considerado como un desregulador endócrino de la señalización por insulina.



Figura 1. Efectos del arsénico sobre los procesos que son alterados por los desreguladores endócrinos. ND: no determinado, RI: Receptor de insulina.

### 1.5. La translocación de GLUT4 en respuesta a la estimulación con insulina

La insulina es la principal hormona anabólica del organismo. Después de la ingesta de alimento, esta hormona induce una serie de cambios en el metabolismo de sus órganos blanco, entre los que se encuentran la inhibición de la producción de glucosa e incremento en la síntesis de glucógeno en el hígado, aumento en la captación de glucosa en el músculo esquelético y en el tejido adiposo blanco, así como incremento en la síntesis de lípidos y proteínas, así como la inhibición de la lipólisis en el tejido adiposo blanco (40).

En el músculo esquelético y en el tejido adiposo, la insulina induce el aumento en la captación de glucosa a través de la translocación del transportador de glucosa GLUT4 (40,41). Durante el ayuno, este transportador se encuentra secuestrado intracelularmente en vesículas especializadas llamadas vesículas almacenadoras de GLUT4 (GLUT4 Storage Vesicles, GSV) (42,43). En comparación con los endosomas, estas vesículas se caracterizan por ser de menor tamaño (153 ± 42 vs 56 ± 27 nm, respectivamente); por mostrar marcadores moleculares específicos tales como VAMP2 (v-SNARE vesicle-associated membrane protein 2), IRAP (Insulin regulated aminopeptidase) y LRP1 (Lipoprotein receptor-related protein 1); y por tener una cinética de exocitosis distinta a la de los endosomas (40,44).

En ausencia de insulina, las GSVs se encuentran ancladas a la matriz del aparato de Golgi a través de un conjunto de proteínas de andamiaje. De estas proteínas, la más estudiada es TUG (Tether containing a Ubx domain for GLUT4) (40,45). El extremo N-terminal de esta proteína se une de forma no covalente con GLUT4, mientras que el extremo C-terminal interacciona con proteínas de la matriz de Golgi (40,45).

La estimulación con insulina activa una serie de vías de transducción de señales que comienzan con la autofosforilación del receptor de insulina, el cual posee actividad de tirosin cinasa (46). Este a su vez fosforila a la proteína IRS-1 (insulin receptor substrate-1), lo cual activa una cascada de fosforilaciones, que comienzan con la activación de la fosfatidilinositol 3 cinasa de clase 1 (PI3K) para generar fosfatidilinositol 3,4,5 trifosfato. Este fosfolípido activa a las proteínas PDK1 (fosfatidilinositol dependent kinase) y mTORC2 que a su vez fosforilan y activan a la serin/treonin cinasa Akt (41). Esta cinasa fosforila e inactiva a AS160 (Akt substrate of 160 kDa), la cual es una proteína activadora de GTPasas de la familia Rab. Al ser inactivada AS160 se estimula la movilización de las GSVs hacia la membrana plasmática (Figura 2)(41,47).

A pesar de la relevancia de la vía canónica dependiente de Akt, estudios recientes han demostrado que la activación de Akt, sin modificar la activación del resto de la vía río arriba, no es capaz de emular completamente la cinética de translocación de GLUT4 inducida por insulina (48). Esto indica que existen otras

vías de señalización que son independientes de Akt y que son indispensables para la correcta translocación de las GSVs hacia la membrana plasmática (41,47,48).

Una de estas vías de señalización independientes de Akt, es la que se encarga de inducir la remodelación de los filamentos de actina cortical (47). Estas vías son activadas directamente por la PI3K, e involucran una cascada de proteínas G monoméricas de la familia de las Rho, como TC10α (41,47). Estas vías conllevan a la ramificación de los filamentos de actina que se encuentran cercanos a la membrana plasmática y que van a facilitar la translocación y acoplamiento de las GSVs con la membrana de las células (47). Además de favorecer el re-arreglo del citoesqueleto, la vía de señalización independiente de Akt regula la proteólisis parcial de la proteína TUG, el cual es un paso limitante para que las GSVs se puedan translocar hacia la membrana plasmática (Figura 2)(40,45).

Recientemente, se demostró que la proteasa Usp25m es una de las proteasas implicadas en el procesamiento de TUG (49). Esta proteasa corta entre los residuos de aminoácidos 164 y 165, generando un fragmento N-terminal llamado TUGUL (49). Este fragmento se une a GLUT4 y a la cinesina KIF5B, promoviendo de esta forma la movilización de las GSVs hacia la membrana plasmática (49). Sin embargo, estudios es el músculo esquelético de ratones *in vivo* han mostrado que después de un estímulo con insulina, TUG es cortado en más de un sitio, generando diferentes fragmentos (50). Esto podría implicar que existen diversas proteasas involucradas en la proteólisis de esta proteína que tiene un papel pivotante en la regulación del tráfico vesicular de GLUT4.



Figura 2. Principales vías de señalización inducidas por la insulina para regular el tráfico vesicular de GLUT4 hacia la membrana plasmática. 1. La insulina se une a su receptor, induciendo su autofosforilación y activación. 2. El receptor de insulina induce una cascada de señalización que conduce a la activación de la PI3K, la cual fosforila al fosfatidil inositol bifosfato (PIP2) para producir fosfatidil inositol trifosfato (PIP3). 3. Esto activa a la vía dependiente de Akt, la cual regula el tráfico y fusión de las GSVs con la membrana plasmática. 4. La activación de PI3K también resulta en la activación de TC10 $\alpha$ , la cual regula la proteólisis de TUG, permitiendo la liberación de las GSVs (5) y la reorganización del citoesqueleto de actina, que permite la translocación de las GSVs (6). 7. La unión de las GSVs con la membrana de la célula permite que GLUT4 aumente la captación de glucosa. Imagen creada con Biorender.com

#### 1.6. El sistema de las calpaínas

Las calpaínas (EC 3.4.22.17; Clan CA, familia C02, según su definición bioquímica por la base de datos MEROPS) son proteasas de cisteína intracelulares, no lisosomales, caracterizadas por poseer un dominio de proteasa de cisteína homólogo al de la CAPN1 o CAPN2 humanas (CysPc)(51). Aunque originalmente se describieron como una familia de proteasas dependientes de Ca2+, la evidencia más reciente demuestra que no es una generalidad dentro de la familia de las calpaínas (51). Los miembros de esta familia de proteasas han sido identificados en casi todos los eucariontes, algunos fila de hongos, en diversas bacterias, aunque no se han identificado genes de calpaínas en arqueas (52). En el genoma humano se han identificado 15 genes que codifican para proteínas de esta familia, denominados *CAPNn* (n=1, 2, 3 y 5-16, Figura 3). Cada uno de estos genes puede generar uno o más transcritos diferentes, generando una superfamilia de más de 50 productos génicos (52). Sin embargo, las funciones y los blancos de la mayoría de estas proteínas se desconocen por completo.

Además de los genes que codifican para estas proteasas, el sistema proteolítico de las calpaínas está conformado por dos genes que codifican para las subunidades reguladoras pequeñas (*CAPNS1* y *CAPNS2*), y un gen que codifica para la calpastatina (*CAST*), una proteína que actúa como el único inhibidor específico y endógeno de las calpaínas convencionales (Figura 3)(51,52).

En cada calpaína, el dominio CysPC está acompañado de una gran diversidad de dominios complementarios, los cuales determinan la especificidad y la función de cada calpaína (52). Con base en su estructura, las calpaínas pueden ser clasificadas como calpaínas clásicas y calpaínas no clásicas (Figura 3)(51–53). Las calpaínas clásicas (CAPN1, CAPN2, CAPN3, CAPN8, CAPN9, CAPN11, CAPN12, CAPN13 y CAPN14) presentan dominios parálogos de los que se encuentran en CAPN1 y CAPN2:

- Dominio N-terminal o dominio I
- Dominio de CysPC o dominio II
- Dominio de β- sándwich similar a calpaínas (calpain-type β-sandwich, CBSW) o dominio III

#### Dominio de penta-mano EF (penta EF hand domain, PEF) o dominio IV

Las calpaínas no clásicas (CAPN5, CAPN6, CAPN7, CAPN10, CAPN15 y CAPN16), carecen del dominio PEF y suelen tener dominios complementarios que se encuentran ausentes en las calpaínas clásicas (Figura 3)(51–53).El sistema de las calpaínas tiene dos características que lo diferencian de otros sistemas proteolíticos, que son importantes para poder estudiar sus efectos en las células. Primero, las calpaínas están involucradas en el procesamiento proteolítico de sus sustratos, más que en su degradación. Esto implica que las calpaínas cortan a sus sustratos en un número limitado de sitios para transformar o modular la estructura y actividad de sus sustratos (51,52,54,55). Segundo, las calpaínas están involucradas en sí mismas en el reconocimiento de los sustratos, mientras que otros sistemas dependen de marcas o proteínas mediadoras para reconocer a sus substratos (53,54,56).



Figura 3. Miembros del sistema de las calpaínas en mamíferos. Se indican las grandes familias en las que se clasifican las calpaínas, las principales funciones de cada miembro, así como la estructura primaria de la isoforma principal generada por cada uno de estos genes. Abreviaturas: GR: glicin rich domain, PEF: penta EF-hand domain, CysPC: Cystein protease domain homolog to human-CAPN1/2, PC1 y PC2: protease core 1 y 2 respectivamente, CBSW: calpain-type  $\beta$ -sandwich, NS, IS1 y IS2: Secuencias características de CAPN3, C2: C2 domain, MIT: microtubule interacting and transport motif, Zn: Zn finger containing domain, SOH: SOL-homology domain, IQ: a motif interacting with calmodulin, L y XL: dominios N-terminal y N-terminal extendido de CAST. EGFR: Epidermal Growth Factor Receptor. Modificado de Sorimachi, et al. 2011.

# 1.7. Mecanismos de activación de las calpaínas y reconocimiento de sus sustratos

Aunque actualmente no se conocen los mecanismos precisos que regulan la activación de las calpaínas *in situ*, estudios estructurales y bioquímicos usando calpaínas clásicas purificadas han permitido conocer algunos detalles de los procesos necesarios para que una calpaína se active, al menos *in vitro*. Estructuralmente, el dominio CysPc está dividido en dos subdominios llamados PC1

(Protease core 1) y PC2 (Protease core 2), en los cuales se encuentran los residuos de aminoácidos que conforman a la triada catalítica (Cys115 en el PC1 y His272 y Asn296 en el PC2 de CAPN1, Figura 4)(51,52).

En ausencia de cualquier estímulo, los subdominios PC1 y PC2 están separados uno del otro, lo que mantienen a los residuos de aminoácidos de la triada catalítica en un estado no funcional (54). La unión de Ca<sup>2+</sup> a motivos de unión a Ca<sup>2+</sup> inducidos por Ca<sup>2+</sup> (calcium induced calcium binding sites CBS1 y CBS2), que se encuentran en los subdominios PC1 y PC2, causan la rotación y traslación del subdominio PC2 50° y 6 Å, respectivamente (53). Esto permite que se forme el sitio catalítico y que se aproximen los residuos de la triada catalítica, sin cambiar drásticamente la estructura general de la calpaína (Figura 4). Estos motivos de unión a Ca<sup>2+</sup> son exclusivos de las calpaínas, y no se han identificado motivos homólogos en ninguna otra proteína (51).

Además de los cambios inducidos por el Ca<sup>2+</sup> directamente sobre el CysPc, este ion se une al dominio PEF en las calpaínas clásicas, tanto de la subunidad catalítica como de la subunidad regulatoria (CAPN1 y CAPNS1). Esto induce el desplazamiento de la región N-terminal hacia el núcleo de la proteasa, y junto con el dominio CBSW estabilizan el CysPc de la calpaína activa (57).

A pesar del papel que pareciera tener el Ca<sup>2+</sup> en la activación de las calpaínas clásicas *in vitro*, las concentraciones que se requieren para activar a estas proteasas son varios ordenes de magnitud superiores en comparación con las que se observan en el citosol de las células (52,53). No obstante, se ha observado que *in vitro*, los fosfolípidos que son un componente principal de la membrana plasmática, reducen la concentración de Ca<sup>2+</sup> requerida para activar a las calpaínas (53). Por lo que se ha propuesto que algunas calpaínas necesitan unirse a la membrana plasmática para ejercer su función. Se ha demostrado que el estado de fosforilación de la CAPN1, inducido tanto por la fosfatasa alcalina o la proteína cinasa A (PKA), incrementan la actividad de esta enzima en concentraciones bajas de Ca<sup>2+</sup> (58). Sin embargo, los mecanismos que regulan *in situ* e *in vivo* a estas proteasas son poco conocidos.

Aunado a los mecanismos que gobiernan la actividad de estas enzimas, la manera en la que las calpaínas reconocen el sitio de corte en sus proteínas blanco es otro aspecto fundamental para poder describir nuevos sustratos de las calpaínas, pero en general se conocen muy pocos detalles sobre cómo se da este proceso (59). Se ha descrito que aunque CAPN1 y CAPN2 siempre cortan en los mismos sitios dentro de una proteína, aunque no tienen una alta especificidad por secuencias específicas de aminoácidos, sugiriendo que la elección del sitio de corte es independiente de la estructura primaria de las proteínas blanco (54). Estudios que han empleado herramientas proteómicas y de "machine learning" demuestran que la longitud de la secuencia en el extremo N-terminal al sitio de corte, así como la estructura secundaria y terciaria del sustrato son los principales determinantes para la especificidad del sitio de corte por calpaínas (59). Estos estudios han permitido, la creación de algoritmos y bases de datos que permiten hacer predicciones de posibles blancos de calpaínas con cierto nivel de confianza, tales como la base de datos de CaMP DB (Calpain for modulatory proteolysis data base,



Figura 4. Esquema de la estructura en 3D de la m-calpaína humana inactiva y activa. En colores se marcan los distintos dominios de la proteasa: PC1 (Protease core 1), amarillo; PC2 (protease core 2) en naranja, CBSW (calpain-type  $\beta$ -sandwich domain) en azul claro, PEF (penta EF-hand domain) en magenta. En verde se muestra la subunidad regulatoria CAPNS1. Los residuos catalíticos se muestran en modelo de esferas: Cisteína 115 en azul, histidina 272 en verde cian y asparagina 296 en rojo. Modificado de Sorimachi et al., 2011.

<u>http://calpain.org</u>)(60). No obstante, las reglas generales que rigen la proteólisis mediada por calpaínas continúan siendo poco claras.

La importancia fisiológica de estas proteasas queda de manifiesto considerando que regulan diversos procesos fisiológicos como la remodelación del citoesqueleto, tráfico vesicular, movilidad celular, desarrollo embrionario, transducción de señales, apoptosis, potenciación a largo plazo de la transmisión sináptica, movilidad celular, ciclo celular, regulación de la expresión génica y la segregación de las cromátides hermanas durante la mitosis (52). La desregulación del sistema de las calpaínas puede causar o acelerar el desarrollo de enfermedades, que en su conjunto se han denominado calpainopatías. Ejemplos de enfermedades causadas directamente por la desregulación de las calpaínas, incluyen la distrofia muscular de la cintura y extremidades tipo 2A (por mutaciones en CAPN3) y la vitreoretinopatía inflamatoria autosómica dominante (por mutaciones en CAPN5). Mientras que las enfermedades en las que las calpaínas contribuyen a su desarrollo o evolución incluyen cataratas (por sobre activación de CAPN1, CAPN2 e isoformas de CAPN3), enfermedad de Parkinson, enfermedad de Alzheimer, isquemia y accidente cerebrovascular, hipertensión, enfermedades cardiovasculares (por sobre activación de CAPN1 y CAPN2), úlcera gástrica (por disminución en la actividad de CAPN8 y CAPN9), algunos tipos de cáncer (desregulación de diversas calpaínas) y diabetes tipo 2 (por desregulación de CAPN1, CAPN2 y CAPN10) (52).

# 1.8. Miembros del sistema de las calpaínas están involucrados en procesos relacionados con la DT2

Debido a que algunos polimorfismos de un solo nucleótido (SNP) en el gen que codifica para la CAPN10 fueron las primeras variantes génicas asociadas con un mayor riesgo de desarrollar DT2, se han realizado diversos estudios enfocados en determinar el papel que tienen las calpaínas en procesos relacionados con la fisiopatología de la DT2 (61). Estos estudios han mostrado que las calpaínas están ampliamente involucradas en la secreción de la insulina, en procesos que regulan la captación de glucosa en las células y en las alteraciones en órganos inducidas por la hiperglucemia crónica. Las CAPN1 y CAPN2 participan en la secreción de insulina y en el transporte de glucosa.

Por estudios funcionales se ha identificado a la calpaína clásica CAPN1 como una proteasa importante en la regulación de la síntesis y secreción de la insulina en las células  $\beta$  pancreáticas. En condiciones basales, la proteína ICA512-TMF se une a  $\beta$ 2-sintrofina y ancla las vesículas de insulina al citoesqueleto. Después de un estímulo con altas concentraciones de glucosa, la  $\beta$ 2-sintrofina se disocia de ICA512-TMF, permitiendo la movilización de las vesículas con insulina (62). En la membrana plasmática CAPN1 corta a ICA512-TMF, lo que genera un fragmento citoplásmico llamado ICA512-CCF (Figura 5). Este fragmento promueve la disociación del complejo  $\beta$ 2-sintrofina/ ICA512-TMF, regulando el recambio de las vesículas de insulina. El ICA512-CCF también puede translocarse al núcleo y promover la transcripción de los genes involucrados en la formación de los gránulos de insulina mediante la interacción con las proteínas STAT (63,64).

Por otra parte, la sobreexpresión de calpastatina en el músculo esquelético de ratones, que resultaría en la inhibición específica de las CAPN1 y CAPN2 en estos órganos, induce el incremento de la abundancia proteica de GLUT4 y GLUT1 debido a la disminución en su degradación (Figura 6)(65). Sin embargo, el incremento en la abundancia de los transportadores no se refleja en cambios en la captación de glucosa, tanto basal como estimulada por insulina (65). Esto sugiere que la inhibición de las calpaínas clásicas altera la translocación o la funcionalidad de los transportadores de glucosa. En este sentido, el músculo esquelético de estos ratones presenta bajos niveles de abundancia de Akt (Figura 6)(65).

En adipocitos, la sobre-expresión de calpastatina promueve la diferenciación de pre-adipocitos mesenquimatosos de ratón (ST-13) y disminuye la captación de glucosa estimulada por insulina (66). En conjunto, estos datos demuestran que las calpaínas convencionales CAPN1 y CAPN2, regulan tanto la secreción de insulina como el tráfico de GLUT4 y la captación de glucosa inducidas por insulina.

La CAPN10 regula la secreción de insulina y el tráfico de GLUT4 por vías alternas a las de CAPN1 y CAPN2

La CAPN10 pertenece al grupo de las calpaínas no clásicas. La isoforma más grande producida por este gen no presenta el dominio PEF, y en su lugar tiene una segunda repetición del dominio CBSW (51,67). Este gen tiene un complejo proceso de splicing alternativo que produce al menos 8 isoformas de mRNA diferentes (CAPN10a-h)(61), algunos de estos son degradados por los mecanismos de degradación mediados por falta de sentido del mRNA, debido a la presencia de codones de paro a más de 50 bases de la última unión exón-exón (68). Esta enzima se expresa a nivel de mRNA en casi todos los tejidos humanos que se ha estudiado, con excepción de la porción exocrina del páncreas y en las neuronas del sistema nervioso central (61,67,69,70). A nivel de proteína, a pesar de que son pocos los estudios que emplean anticuerpos confiables y validados, se ha sugerido que las isoformas y fragmentos proteolíticos de CAPN10 se expresan de forma tejido-específica (71,72).

Polimorfismos en los intrones de este gen fueron identificados como las primeras variantes génicas asociadas con un mayor riesgo de desarrollar DT2 (61). Específicamente, el SNP-43 (G>A), SNP-63 (C>T) y la inserción/deleción de 32 pb, (InDel-19) conforman el haplotipo de riesgo que aumenta hasta 2.9 veces la probabilidad de desarrollar DT2 (61,67). A pesar de que estudios individuales en algunas poblaciones han mostrado ciertas controversias para replicar la asociación entre estos polimorfismos y el desarrollo de DT2, los meta-análisis en poblaciones europeas, población general y de estudios familiares han confirmado la asociación del SNP-43 y SNP-44 con un mayor riesgo a desarrollar DT2 (67,73–76). También existen diversos estudios que han asociado estos polimorfismos con la obesidad en adultos y niños, resistencia a la insulina, dislipidemias y con el desarrollo de ovario poliquístico, los cuales a su vez son factores de riesgo para desarrollar DT2 (67,77). Sin embargo, no se conocen los mecanismos a través de los cuales estos polimorfismos pudieran afectar la expresión o la funcionalidad de CAPN10 y contribuir al riesgo de desarrollar DT2.

A nivel bioquímico y celular, la CAPN10 está involucrada en la fisiología de las células  $\beta$  pancreáticas, el músculo esquelético, el tejido adiposo y el riñón. En las células  $\beta$  pancreáticas, se ha propuesto que pudiera regular la producción y la secreción de insulina. En cultivos primarios de células  $\beta$  pancreáticas tratadas por 4 h con diferentes inhibidores de calpaínas se observó un incremento en la secreción de insulina, mientras que el tratamiento por 48 h inhibió la secreción de esta hormona (78,79). En cultivos primarios de células  $\beta$  pancreáticas de ratones KD para CAPN10 se demostró que estas células poseen niveles más altos de



**Figura 5.** Participación de las CAPN1 y CAPN10 en la secreción de insulina. 1. Al haber un incremento en los niveles de glucosa extracelular, esta es captada por GLUT2. 2. La glucosa captada es metabolizada vía glucólisis y entra a la mitocondria, favoreciendo la síntesis de ATP. 3. El incremento en el ratio ATP/ADP induce la apertura de los canales de K<sup>+</sup>. 4. El incremento en la concentración extracelular de K<sup>+</sup> induce la apertura de canales de Ca<sup>2+</sup>. El incremento de la concentración citosólica de Ca<sup>2+</sup> activa a la CAPN1, la cual proteoliza a la proteína de anclaje ICA512, permitiendo la movilización de los gránulos de insulina. 6. La CAPN10 promueve la reorganización del citoesqueleto, así como favorece la fusión de las vesículas de insulina con la membrana plasmática, para permitir la liberación de la insulina (7). Imagen creada con Biorender.com.

insulina y que su secreción se incrementa tanto en condiciones de baja (2.8 mM) como alta (16.7 mM) glucosa, pero no después de la estimulación con KCI, en comparación con células obtenidas de ratones control (Figura 5)(80).

En células de músculo esquelético humano y en adipocitos 3T3-L1 de ratón se ha demostrado que el KD de CAPN10 induce una disminución en la translocación de GLUT4 a la membrana plasmática, así como de la captación de glucosa inducida por insulina (67,81,82). En ambos modelos se demostró que estas alteraciones son independientes de la fosforilación de Akt (81,82). En el modelo de adipocitos murinos 3T3-L1, se encontró que la disminución en la captación de glucosa se debió en parte a la alteración en la organización de los filamentos de actina, lo cual conlleva a una menor translocación de GLUT4 hacia la membrana plasmática(Figura 6) (81). Aunque no se han descrito de forma convincente los blancos moleculares de CAPN10 en los procesos que regula tanto en células ß pancreáticas, como en adipocitos y músculo esquelético, un estudio reciente demostró que CAPN10 es capaz de regular la reorganización de los microfilamentos de actina a través de la proteólisis parcial de las proteínas de la familia de las MAP1 (microtubule associated protein 1) en células HEK293T (originadas de riñón embrionario humano), MEF (mouse embryonic fibroblasts) y HTC75(originadas de un fibrosarcoma humano) (80). Sin embargo, aún no se ha evaluado la participación de la proteólisis de las MAP1 mediada por CAPN10 en la regulación de la secreción y la acción de la insulina. En este trabajo también se demostró que CAPN10 no responde al Ca<sup>2+</sup>, lo cual pone en duda algunos trabajos previos que proponían con enfoques menos específicos, que CAPN10 pudiera actuar como un sensor de Ca<sup>2+</sup> para promover la exocitosis de insulina o de GLUT4 (70).

En el riñón, CAPN10 regula la degradación y el recambio de las subunidades NDUFV2 y ND6 del complejo I mitocondrial, de la subunidad β de la ATP sintasa y de la chaperona ORP150 (83,84). De hecho, tanto la sobreexpresión, como el silenciamiento de CAPN10 inducen apoptosis de las células de la nefrona y daño renal (83,85), sugiriendo que la actividad de esta enzima en el riñón debe ser finamente regulada. Además, la hiperglucemia crónica inducida por el tratamiento con estreptozotocina en ratones, o la transfección *in vivo* con un shRNA contra CAPN10, reducen la expresión de CAPN10 en la nefrona, lo cual induce estrés mitocondrial, apoptosis y un fenotipo similar a la nefropatía diabética (86,87). Esto demuestra que la CAPN10 tiene un papel fundamental en el desarrollo de complicaciones de la DT2 como la falla renal.



Figura 6. Papel de las calpaínas en la translocación de GLUT4 inducida por insulina. 1. Al unirse la insulina a su receptor, mediante una vía de señalización aun no descrita, se induce la actividad de CAPN10, la cual participa en la reorganización del citoesqueleto de actina cortical, lo cual permite la migración de las GSVs. 2. Las calpaínas clásicas CAPN1 y CAPN2 regulan la estabilidad de GLUT4 mediante su degradación. Imagen creada con Biorender.com

En ratas Otsuka Long-Evans Tokushima fatty (OLETF), un modelo animal que desarrolla espontáneamente a la semana 18 un fenotipo similar a la DT2, la expresión de CAPN10 en hígado, tejido adiposo y leucocitos está disminuida aún antes de que los animales desarrollen la enfermedad. Esto sugiere que la CAPN10 podría tener un papel importante en el desarrollo de la DT2. También se sugiere que las alteraciones en CAPN10 observadas en leucocitos podrían reflejar las alteraciones en órganos involucrados en la homeostasis del cuerpo (88).

#### 1.9. El linfocito como modelo de estudio del transporte de glucosa

Los linfocitos son células mononucleares que forman parte de la respuesta inmune adaptativa. Son los agranulocitos más comunes y representan aproximadamente el 30% de los leucocitos sanguíneos totales (89,90). Los linfocitos se clasifican por sus marcadores de superficie en linfocitos B y T y de acuerdo a la etapa del ciclo celular en la que se encuentren se clasifican en quiescentes o activados (91,92).

Los linfocitos en estado quiescente utilizan poca energía, que obtienen principalmente de la fosforilación oxidativa a partir de la glucosa (90). El transporte de glucosa en los linfocitos está mediada por GLUT1, 3, 6 y 8 (93). A diferencia del músculo o hígado, los linfocitos no tienen reservas internas de glucógeno y son dependientes de la glucosa extracelular que entra a las células a través de GLUT1 (94). GLUT1 es el transportador de glucosa más importante en linfocitos, y en estado quiescente se regula su tráfico y actividad a través de la vía de PI3K/Akt/mTORc1. En ausencia de señales que activen esta vía, como citocinas y factores de crecimiento, GLUT1 permanece secuestrado en compartimientos intracelulares y puede degradarse en los lisosomas y restringir la captación de glucosa (95,96).

La activación de los linfocitos T por la estimulación conjunta del receptor de célula T (TCR), el CD3 y el CD28, induce un incremento de más de 10 veces en los niveles de proteína de GLUT1 y en la captación de glucosa (97). Esto permite que los linfocitos aumenten la glucólisis aeróbica y producir ATP, lactato, así como precursores para la síntesis de nucleótidos, aminoácidos y lípidos (90,93,95,98,99).

Sin embargo, en ausencia de glucosa las células no proliferan y los miembros de la familia Bcl-2 se activan promoviendo la muerte celular (90).

Se ha observado que la concentración de glucosa extracelular, y la DT2 tienen diversos efectos en la regulación de los GLUTs y en la actividad de las calpaínas. En un estudio *in vitro*, se observó que en linfocitos de donadores sanos, la captación de glucosa disminuye con concentraciones altas de glucosa extracelular (30 mM), como consecuencia de la reducción de la abundancia de GLUT1 en la membrana plasmática (100). Por otra parte, se ha observado que los linfocitos de donadores control (101). En un estudio de nuestro grupo, se encontró que la actividad de las calpaínas de los linfocitos se incrementa después de un pulso con 15.6 mM de glucosa, y esta respuesta es menor en los linfocitos de donadores control (102).

A diferencia de otros tejidos que se obtienen de biopsias, los linfocitos se extraen de sangre periférica con un método poco invasivo, lo que los convierte en una gran alternativa para el estudio del transporte de la glucosa en células humanas.
### 2. Justificación

La exposición a arsénico es un problema de salud a nivel mundial asociado al desarrollo de diversas patologías, entre las que se encuentran la DT2. Estudios previos de nuestro grupo han mostrado que las calpaínas pueden ser blancos importantes del arsénico, inhibiendo la secreción de insulina. Sin embargo, los mecanismos a través de los cuales este contaminante altera a las calpaínas no se conocen a fondo. Por otra parte, las calpaínas CAPN1, CAPN2 y CAPN10 son importantes en la regulación de los transportadores de glucosa, por lo que su desregulación podría generar alteraciones en la captación de glucosa en las células. En este trabajo nos enfocamos en explorar los mecanismos por los cuales el arsenito de sodio altera la actividad del sistema de las calpaínas, así como su relación con el tráfico vesicular de GLUT1 en los linfocitos humanos. Esto debido a que el linfocito es un buen modelo para el estudio de las alteraciones de los GLUT durante el desarrollo de la DT2, y que pueden ser obtenidos por métodos poco invasivos.

Debido a que no se conocen los sustratos específicos de estas calpaínas, y particularmente de la CAPN10, que están involucrados en la translocación de los GLUT, es difícil conocer con precisión el efecto del arsénico sobre este sistema proteolítico. Por lo tanto, en este trabajo también se determinó el blanco proteolítico de las calpaínas que participa en la translocación de GLUT4, usando un modelo de adipocitos murinos. Las futuras implicaciones del estudio de la proteólisis de esta proteína blanco de las calpaínas serán importantes en el área, ya que se podrán evaluar directamente las alteraciones de esta enzima inducidas por exposiciones a arsénico u otros contaminantes ambientales y en otros procesos patofisiológicos asociados al desarrollo de DT2.

## 3. Preguntas de Investigación

¿Puede el arsénico alterar la translocación de los GLUTs a través de la inhibición de las calpaínas?

¿Qué calpaínas están involucradas en los mecanismos de alteración de los GLUTs por la exposición de arsénico?

¿Cuáles son los blancos moleculares de las calpaínas involucradas en la regulación de los GLUT?

## 4. Hipótesis

El arsénico disminuye la translocación del transportador de glucosa GLUT1 estimulada por cambios en la concentración de glucosa extracelular a través de la inhibición de las calpaínas CAPN1, CAPN2 y CAPN10, resultando en alteraciones en la captación de glucosa en los linfocitos.

La calpaína que es inhibida por el arsénico regula la translocación de GLUT4 en respuesta a estímulos con insulina a través de la proteólisis de la proteína de anclaje TUG en adipocitos.

## 5. Objetivos

## 5.1. Objetivo General

Evaluar el efecto del arsénico sobre la regulación de los transportadores de glucosa y de la captación de glucosa dependiente de calpaínas, y determinar su blanco proteolítico que participe en la regulación de los transportadores de glucosa.

## 5.2 Objetivos particulares

**Parte 1.** Efectos del arsenito de sodio sobre la translocación de GLUT1 dependiente de calpaínas en linfocitos quiescentes de donadores sanos.

- 1.1. Establecer las concentraciones no citotóxicas del tratamiento con arsenito de sodio.
- 1.2. Determinar el efecto del arsenito de sodio sobre el tráfico de GLUT1 y la captación de glucosa.
- 1.3. Evaluar el efecto del arsenito de sodio sobre el sistema de las calpaínas.
- 1.4. Demostrar la participación de la calpaína-1, calpaína-2 y calpaína-10 en la captación de glucosa, para establecer la conexión entre las alteraciones del sistema de las calpaínas y el tráfico de GLUT1 inducidas por el arsenito de sodio.

**Parte 2.** Determinación de la calpaína que corta a la proteína TUG durante la regulación del tráfico de GLUT4.

- 2.1. Evaluar si la proteína TUG es un sustrato de calpaína.
- 2.2. Evaluar la proteólisis de TUG inducida por insulina y si correlaciona con la actividad general de calpaína en adipocitos.
- 2.3. Establecer si la proteólisis de TUG inducida por insulina es mediada por calpaínas en adipocitos.
- 2.4 Evaluar el efecto del silenciamiento génico de la (s) calpaína (s) involucrada en la proteólisis de TUG.

### 6. Métodos

# Parte 1: Efectos del arsénico sobre la translocación de GLUT1 dependiente de calpaínas en linfocitos

#### 6.1. Selección de donadores y toma de muestra de sangre

Se tomaron muestras de sangre periférica de voluntarios masculinos aparentemente sanos. Como criterios de inclusión se consideraron individuos dentro de un rango de edad entre 20 y 30 años, sin síndrome metabólico (obesidad, alteración de la glucemia en ayuno, hipertrigliceridemia, bajas concentraciones de HDL o hipertensión) o diabetes, no fumadores y sin enfermedades crónicas (tales como enfermedades autoinmunes o cáncer) o infecciosas al menos 2 semanas antes de la toma de muestra. Las muestras se tomaron después de un ayuno de 8 h en tubos Vacutainer con heparina (BD Vacutainer®, Beckton, Dickinson and Company).

Tabla 1. Características de los donadores

Parámetro	Media ± DE		
Edad (años)	24.9	±	2.2
Glucosa en ayuno (mg/dl)	81.1	±	6.3
Triglicéridos (mg/dl)	114.2	±	58.7
Colesterol total (mg/dl)	150.2	±	28.2

#### 6.2. Aislamiento de células mononucleares

Se aislaron a las células mononucleares periféricas por medio de un gradiente de densidad con Ficoll-Hypaque-1077 (Sigma-Aldrich). El gradiente se centrifugó por 30 min a 15000 rpm para separar la fracción de los eritrocitos y células polimorfonucleares, de la fracción de células mononucleares. Después de la centrifugación, las células mononucleares se lavaron dos veces con buffer de fosfatos salino (PBS), y los linfocitos se contaron utilizando un citómetro de flujo Attune con láseres azul/violeta (Applied Biosystems). La fracción de linfocitos fue

discriminada mediante un gráfico de *forward scatter cytometry* (FSC) contra el *side scatter cytometry* (SSC).

Los linfocitos se sembraron a una densidad celular de 0.5 x 10<sup>6</sup> células/mL de medio RPMI-1640 sin glucosa (Sigma-Aldrich), suplementado con 5.6 mM de glucosa, 1 % de aminoácidos no esenciales (Sigma-Aldrich), 10 mM de glutamina (Sigma-Aldrich), 0.5 % de antibiótico-antimicótico (100 x Gibco, Applied Biosystems) y 10 % de suero fetal bovino (FBS, Gibco, Applied Biosystems) inactivado por calor. Los linfocitos se mantuvieron en placas de multi-pozos en una incubadora humidificada a 37° C y 5 % de CO<sub>2</sub>.

6.3. Tratamientos con arsenito de sodio y pulsos con glucosa

Se preparó una disolución acuosa estéril de arsenito de sodio (NaAsO<sub>2</sub>, Sigma-Aldrich) a una concentración de 1 M. A partir de esta disolución se realizaron diluciones seriales para dar el tratamiento con 0.1 o 1  $\mu$ M. Se añadió el tratamiento con arsenito de sodio 4 h después de sembrar las células en el medio de cultivo. Las células se incubaron con el arsenito de sodio por 72 h.

Para los experimentos que no involucraban el pulso con glucosa, las células fueron cosechadas inmediatamente después del tratamiento con arsenito. Para los experimentos que involucraron los pulsos con glucosa, ésta se disolvió el día del experimento en buffer Krebs Ringer HEPES (KRH, 115 mM NaCl, 5 mM KCl, 1 mM



Tratamiento de linfocitos quiescentes con arsenito

Figura 7. Estrategia experimental usando linfocitos quiescentes de donadores sanos.

KH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>, 2 mM CaCl<sub>2</sub>, 1.2 mM MgSO<sub>4</sub>, 25 mM HEPES, pH 7.4 medido a 37 °C) hasta obtener una concentración final de glucosa de 3.9 u 11.1 mM. Se reemplazó el medio de las células por KRH con glucosa y se incubaron de acuerdo con las secciones 6.6 y 6.7. El diseño experimental, así como los parámetros evaluados se muestran en la figura 7.

## 6.4. Cultivo de la línea celular Jurkat y establecimiento de líneas celulares knockdown (KD) estables

La línea cellular Jurkat se obtuvo de la American Type Culture Collection (ATCC) (Cat: TIB-152). Las células se mantuvieron en medio RPMI-1640 suplementado con 10 % de FBS inactivado por calor. Las células se cultivaron en una incubadora humidificada a 37° C y 5% de CO<sub>2</sub>.

Alícuotas de 0.1 x 10<sup>6</sup> células fueron transducidas con partículas lentivirales que contenían un plásmido PLKO.1 con un MISSION<sup>TM</sup> short hairpin RNA (shRNA) (Sigma-Aldrich) contra CAPN1 (CAPN1<sup>shRNA</sup>, SHCLNV-NM\_005186), CAPN10 (CAPN10<sup>shRNA</sup>, SHCLNV-NM\_021251), o un shRNA control contra un gen no presente en mamíferos (NM<sup>shRNA</sup>, SHC002V). Este plásmido además de contener al gen que codifica para el shRNA, posee un gen de resistencia a la puromicina. Para la transducción, las células se pusieron en 1 mL de medio de cultivo y se añadieron las partículas lentivirales a una multiplicidad de la infección (MOI) de 2. Las células se incubaron con las partículas lentivirales por 24 h. Después de la transducción, el medio se reemplazó por medio fresco y las células se incubaron por otras 24 h. Después de esto, se añadieron 2 µg/mL de puromicina (Sigma-Aldrich), para seleccionar aquellas células que hubieran integrado exitosamente el plásmido. El medio con puromicina se renovó cada 48 h durante 2 semanas para promover la selección de las líneas estables, antes de proceder con los experimentos.

#### 6.5. Evaluación de la viabilidad celular por la doble tinción de Anexina-V/7AAD

Después del tratamiento con arsenito de sodio por 72 h, se determinó la viabilidad celular utilizando alícuotas de 0.1 x 10<sup>6</sup> células tratadas con arsenito. Las células se lavaron con PBS y se tiñeron por 30 min en hielo con anexina-V

conjugada con ficoeritina (BD Biosciences, factor de dilución 1:100) y con 7-amino actinomicina D (7AAD, BD Biosciences FD 30 µL/mL) en Guava Nexin Buffer 1x (Guava technologies). Se evaluaron un total de 10,000 células por cada condición por duplicado en cada experimento. La fluorescencia se evaluó usando los canales BL2 y BL3 de un citómetro de flujo Attune® (Applied Biosystems). Se usaron controles de tinción y de compensación para cada canal. Sólo aquellas células anexina-V negativas y 7AAD negativas fueron consideradas como células viables.

#### 6.6. Ensayo de actividad de calpaínas

Para medir la actividad de las calpaínas se re-suspendieron tres alícuotas de 0.5 x 10<sup>6</sup> linfocitos tratados con arsenito por condición a evaluar en KRH suplementado en fresco con 3.9 u 11.1 mM de glucosa. Posteriormente se añadió el substrato fluorogénico de calpaínas tBoc-Leu-Met-CMAC (12.5 µM Molecular Probes©, Invitrogen) diluido en el KRH con la concentración de glucosa correspondiente. Las células se incubaron 25 min en un baño María a 37° C.

Para los estudios de silenciamiento génico, se utilizaron alícuotas de 0.5 x 10<sup>6</sup> de células Jurkat transfectadas con los plásmidos para silenciar a las calpaínas. Las células se ayunaron de suero y glucosa por 2 h en medio RPMI-1640 con 5.6 mM de glucosa. Esto debido a que la línea células Jurkat crece en medio RPMI-1640 el cual contiene una concentración de glucosa superior a 15 mM, y lo cual puede alterar los resultados de actividad de calpaínas y captación de glucosa después de los pulsos con 3.9 y 11.1 mM de glucosa. Posteriormente, las células se incubaron en KRH con 3.9 u 11.1 mM de glucosa por 30 min antes de añadir el sustrato. Las células se incubaron con paraformaldehído al 4 % en PBS al final de la incubación con el sustrato. Los niveles de fluorescencia se determinaron inmediatamente después en 10,000 células con el citómetro de flujo Attune® (Applied Biosystems), usando el canal VL1.

#### 6.7. Determinación de la abundancia de GLUT1 en la membrana celular

En cada experimento se usaron dos alícuotas de 0.2 x 10<sup>6</sup> linfocitos por cada condición en cada experimento. Las células se re-suspendieron en KRH con 3.9 u 11.1 mM de glucosa y se incubaron 12 min a 37° C en un baño María para inducir la translocación de GLUT1. Después de la incubación, las células se centrifugaron a 5000 rpm por 5 min a 4° C y se descartó el sobrenadante. Las células se incubaron con el anticuerpo monoclonal de ratón contra el dominio extracelular de GLUT1 (LifeSpan Biosciences, Inc. Cat: LS-C129284), el cual se diluyó 1:100 en PBS con 3% albumina sérica bovina (BSA). Para que la tinción fuera específica del GLUT1 que se encuentra en la membrana, la incubación con el anticuerpo contra el dominio extracelular de GLUT1 se realizó sin permeabilizar a las células. Las células se incubaron con el anticuerpo por 30 min en hielo para inhibir el tráfico vesicular. Después de la incubación, las células se lavaron una vez con PBS frío. Para la detección, las células se incubaron con el anticuerpo secundario Qdot® 655 goat F (ab') 2 anti-mouse (Molecular Probes©, Invitrogen) diluido 1:1,000 en PBS-3% BSA. Las células se incubaron 15 min en hielo y oscuridad. Después de la incubación con el anticuerpo secundario, las células se lavaron 2 veces con PBS frío y se resuspendieron en 300 µL de PBS. En cada experimento se incluyeron controles de células marcados únicamente con el anticuerpo secundario para determinar el nivel de unión inespecífica. La fluorescencia de 20,000 células se analizó en el citómetro de flujo Attune® (Applied Biosystems) usando el canal BL3.

#### 6.8. Autólisis de calpaína-1 inducida por arsenito in vitro

Para estos experimentos se utilizó calpaína-1 humana purificada a partir de eritrocitos, debido a que es la única calpaína pura comercialmente disponible que conserva su actividad catalítica (Calbiochem, Cat: 208713, Lot: D00168933). Para cada condición se usaron 1.8  $\mu$ g de CAPN1 (1  $\mu$ L de la solución original que contiene 20 mM imidazol, 5 mM  $\beta$ -mercaptoetanol, 1 mM EDTA, 1 mM EGTA y 30% glicerol, pH 6.8). La enzima fue preincubada con 2 mM de ditiotreitol (DTT) en hielo por 20 min para favorecer el estado reducido del residuo de cisteína del sitio activo y mantener activa a la enzima. Después de la preincubación con DTT, 1.1  $\mu$ L de la

enzima se mezcló con 20  $\mu$ L del buffer de reacción para calpaínas (150 mM NaCl, 20 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.4, 1 mM DTT y 0.1% BSA), que fue suplementado con 0.01, 0.1 o 1  $\mu$ M de arsenito de sodio (volumen final de 23.1  $\mu$ L). Las muestras se incubaron toda la noche a 4° C con agitación. Después de la incubación con arsenito, se añadieron 200  $\mu$ M de CaCl<sub>2</sub> y se incubaron a 37° C por 10 min para inducir la activación de la calpaína. Se detuvo la reacción con 10  $\mu$ L de amortiguador de muestras con SDS 3X (187.5 mM Tris-HCl pH 6.8, 6% peso/volumen SDS, 30% glicerol, 150 mM DTT y 0.03% p/v azul de bromofenol). Las muestras se calentaron por 5 min a 85° C. Para detectar los niveles de autólisis de CAPN1, las muestras se procesaron como en la sección de Western blot (sección 6.9).

#### 6.9. Extracción de proteínas y Western blot.

Alícuotas de 1 x  $10^6$  células tratadas con arsenito se lavaron una vez con PBS frío, y la lisis de estas células se hizo con PBS + 0.1 % de Triton X100 + 1% SDS, suplementado con el cocktail de inhibidores de proteasas y fosfatasas Halt (Invitrogen). Las células fueron incubadas con la solución de lisis por 10 min en hielo y se centrifugaron por 18 min a 13,000 rpm. Los sobrenadantes se almacenaron a  $-70^\circ$  C hasta que fueron usados.

Los extractos de proteínas se cuantificaron con el kit DC<sup>™</sup> Protein Assay (Bio-Rad). Para evaluar los niveles de CAPN1, CAPN2, CAPN10 y GLUT1 se mezclaron 35 µg de proteína total con amortiguador Laemli y se calentaron por 5 min a 85° C. Las muestras se cargaron en geles al 12 % de SDS-poliacrilamida. La proteína se transfirió a membranas de nitrocelulosa en una cámara semiseca (BioRad) a 15 V por 50 min.

Debido a que la proteína CAST se degrada al ser desnaturalizada por calor y agentes reductores, para detectar sus niveles las muestras se procesaron de la misma forma que se describió en el párrafo anterior, excepto que las muestras se cargaron con amortiguador Laemli sin  $\beta$ -mercaptoetanol y sin el proceso de desnaturalización por calor.

Las membranas se bloquearon por 1 h a temperatura ambiente con buffer salino de tris con 0.1 % de Tween-20 (TBS-T) y 4 % de leche sin grasa (Santa Cruz

Biotechnology). Los anticuerpos usados y las condiciones de incubación se especifican en la tabla 1. Todos los anticuerpos fueron diluidos en TBS-T con 4 % de leche.

			Factor de
Anticuerpo	Casa	Cat	dilución
	comercial	Gai	(tiempo)
Rabbit anti-calpain 10 antibody-	Abcam	ah28226	1:1,000
domain III	Abcam	8020220	(ON, 4° C)
Mouse anti-mu-calpain antibody	Thermo	MA3-940	1:1,000
Mouse and mu-calpair and body	Scientific	MA3-3+0	(ON, 4° C)
Rabbit anti-calpain 2 antibody	Abcam	ab126600	1:5,000 (1
[EPR5977]	Abcam	80120000	h, TA)
Rabbit anti-calpastatin antibody	Abcam	ab28252	1:5,000
	Abcam	ab20252	(ON, 4° C)
Pabbit anti TLIC Catorminal		#2040	1:1000
Rabbit anti-106 C-terminal	Cell Signaling	#2049	(ON, 4° C)
Mouro anti GLUTA [159]	Abcom	ab25926	1:1000
Mouse and GL014 [1F6]	Abcam	ab35620	(ON, 4° C)
Rabbit anti-phospho-Akt (Ser473)		#0271	1:1000
antibody	Cell Signaling	#9271	(ON, 4° C)
Debbit Alt (nep)(1157) entitedy	Coll Signaling #4005		1:1000
Rabbit-Akt (pan)(TTE7) antibody	Cell Signaling	#4085	(ON, 4° C)
Maura anti human CLUTA	LifeSpan	1.0.0100004	1:1000
Mouse and numan GLOTT	Biosciences	LS-C129284	(ON, 4°C)
	Santa Cruz		1:1000
goat anti-deta actin antibody	Biotechnology		(1 h, TA)
	l l	l	1

Tabla 2.	Anticuerpos	primarios	usados	en	este	estudio.
	/	printanoo	acaaco	011	00.0	00100101

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Después de la incubación con los anticuerpos primarios, las membranas se lavaron 3 veces con TBS-T por 10 min a temperatura ambiente y se incubaron con el anticuerpo secundario correspondiente por 1 h a temperatura ambiente: goat antimouse (1:4,000), goat anti-rabbit (1:6,000) y donkey anti-goat (1:2,000) conjugados con peroxidasa de rábano (Santa Cruz Biotechnology). Las membranas se lavaron de nuevo 3 veces por 10 min con TBS-T y se revelaron usando el reactivo Enhanced chemiluminiscence Primer (GE Healthcare) y la señal se detectó con Amersham hyperfilm ECL (GE Healthcare).

#### 6.10. Extracción de RNA y PCR en tiempo real

El RNA total fue extraído de alícuotas de 2 x 10<sup>6</sup> células usando el RNeasy mini kit (Qiagen) de acuerdo con el protocolo del fabricante. La concentración de RNA en cada muestra se determinó usando un equipo Nanodrop. La síntesis del cDNA se realizó con 300 ng de RNA de cada muestra siguiendo el protocolo del fabricante con el SuperScript III First-Strand Synthesis SuperMix kit (Invitrogen) y primers de hexámeros al azar.

Los niveles de expresión de los diferentes mRNA se evaluaron mediante PCR cuantitativo en tiempo real. Se utilizaron 15 ng de cDNA por reacción y el TaqMan Universal Master Mix (Applied Biosystems). Para cada gen se utilizaron las sondas TaqMan contra CAPN1 (Hs00559804\_m1), CAPN2 (Hs00965097\_m1), CAPN10 (Hs01550167\_m1) y CAST (Hs00156280\_m1, todas de Applied Biosystems). Como control endógeno, se midió la expresión de la glucuronidasa B (GUSB, sonda Hs00939627\_m1, Applied Biosystems). Cada ensayo se realizó por triplicado. El análisis de la expresión del RNA se llevó a cabo de acuerdo con el método de  $2^{-\Delta\Delta Ct}$  (103). Los niveles de expresión de GUSB y a los niveles de expresión en las células no tratadas.

#### 6.11. Ensayo de captación de glucosa

Se tomaron dos alícuotas de 0.5 x 10<sup>6</sup> células de cada condición evaluada. Las células se lavaron con PBS dos veces y se re-suspendieron en KRH suplementado con 3.9 u 11.1 mM de glucosa. Los linfocitos se incubaron por 10 min y las células Jurkat se incubaron por 30 min en el KRH a 37° C, para inducir el tráfico de GLUT1. Al finalizar la incubación, se añadió 2-desoxiglucosa (2DG,

concentración final 1 mM) al KRH y se incubaron las células por 20 min. Después de la incubación con la 2DG se lavaron las células con PBS dos veces y la cantidad de 2DG captada por las células se midió con el glucose uptake assay kit (Abcam). Este kit evalúa los niveles de 2-desoxiglucosa-6-fosfato (2DG6P) mediante una serie de reacciones enzimáticas que generan una reacción colorimétrica. La 2DG6P es la 2DG que fue captada y fosforilada por la hexocinasa y que es incapaz de salir de la célula. El procedimiento se realizó de acuerdo con el protocolo del fabricante.

#### 6.12. Análisis estadístico

Los experimentos evaluados por citometría de flujo se analizaron con el software FlowJo V10.0 (Beckton and Dickinson). La viabilidad celular fue determinada como la frecuencia de células viables (AV negativas y 7AAD negativas). La actividad de las calpaínas y la abundancia de GLUT1 en membrana se midieron por la mediana de la intensidad de fluorescencia en cada muestra. Los valores de estos experimentos se normalizaron a los valores de fluorescencia observados en las células no tratadas con arsenito o a las células transducidas con el NM<sup>shRNA</sup> después del pulso con 3.9 mM de glucosa. La densidad óptica (D.O.) de las bandas obtenidas en el Western blot se obtuvieron con el software Image Studio Lite V. 4.0 (LI-COR). Los valores de D.O. se ajustaron a los valores obtenidos de la actina y a los valores observados en las células control. Los datos se analizaron con el software GraphPad Prism 5.0. Las diferencias se consideraron estadísticamente significativas con p<0.05. Los experimentos en los cuales las células solo fueron tratadas con arsenito o con los modelos de silenciamiento se analizaron por ANOVA de una vía con prueba de Dunnet. En los experimentos en los que se les dio un pulso con diferentes concentraciones de glucosa extracelular se analizaron con ANOVA de dos vías y prueba de Tukey.

## Parte 2: Identificación de la proteína TUG como un blanco de CAPN10 involucrado en la translocación de GLUT4.

#### 6.13. Proteólisis de TUG in vitro

El experimento se realizó de manera similar a lo descrito en la sección 6.8, con modificaciones. A la mezcla del buffer de reacción para calpaínas se le añadió el CaCl<sub>2</sub> a una concentración de 20, 200 o 2000  $\mu$ M y 0.12  $\mu$ g de human-TUG recombinante en estado nativo producido en germen de trigo (Abcam, cat: ab163974, lot: H5251-7341, pureza > 80 %). A esta mezcla se le añadió la CAPN1 pre-incubada con DTT y se incubó a 37° C por 30 min. La reacción se detuvo con el mismo método que ya se mencionó anteriormente. Para la detección de TUG por Western blot se cargaron 20  $\mu$ L de la mezcla obtenida. Para detectar CAPN1 se cargaron 3  $\mu$ L.

#### 6.14. Análisis de la expresión de proteínas en tejidos de ratón

Se obtuvieron tres ratones de la cepa CD1 del Instituto de Investigaciones Biomédicas, UNAM. Los ratones se mantuvieron en un ciclo de luz-oscuridad de 12:12 h. Se les dio dieta Chow regular y agua *ad libitum*. Todos los experimentos se realizaron en concordancia con la guía de los National Institutes of Health para el cuidado y uso de animales de laboratorio (NIH Pub. No. 86-23, revisado en 1996). Los ratones fueron eutanizados mediante una inyección intraperitoneal de 40 mg/kg de pentobarbital sódico. De estos ratones se obtuvieron el tejido adiposo blanco retroperitoneal, el hígado, el músculo gastrocnemio de la pata derecha, el corazón y el páncreas. Durante la disección de los órganos se les removió todo el tejido adiposo. Los órganos se lavaron con PBS frío y se congelaron a -70° C hasta la extracción de la proteína. Para la extracción de la proteína los tejidos se lisaron con buffer de lisis y se sonicaron tres veces por 15 seg cada una.

#### 6.15. Cultivo celular y tratamientos

La línea celular de preadipocitos murinos 3T3-L1 se obtuvo de la ATCC (CL-173 lot: 61448503). Las células se cultivaron en medio DMEM alto en glucosa (Thermo Scientific) suplementado con 10 % de SFB no inactivado (Gibco). La

diferenciación de los preadipocitos se realizó de acuerdo al protocolo de Zebisch *et al* (104). La diferenciación fue confirmada mediante la tinción con Oil red O (ORO) como se ha descrito previamente (104). Todos los experimentos se realizaron entre los días 9 y 11 de diferenciación, cuando las células presentaban gotas de lípidos claras y por lo tanto se podían considerar diferenciadas. Los adipocitos diferenciados se ayunaron de suero por 4 h antes de la estimulación con insulina. El estímulo se dio con a una concentración de insulina de 100 nM disuelta en KRH suplementado con 25 mM de glucosa por 7 min.

#### 6.16. Western blot e inmunodetección

El protocolo se realizó como se mencionó anteriormente con modificaciones. Para la detección de CAPN2, fosfo-Akt, Akt total y GLUT4 se cargaron 40 µg de proteína desnaturalizada. Para CAPN1 se emplearon 60 µg, para la detección de TUG se usaron 80 µg y para CAPN10 se utilizaron 10 µg. Estas cantidades se determinaron con base en curvas para confirmar que la señal obtenida de cada una de estas proteínas es proporcional a la cantidad de estas, y que no se esté evaluando en un rango saturado. Los anticuerpos utilizados se describen en la tabla 1.

El protocolo de incubación con los anticuerpos secundarios fue idéntico al descrito previamente. En este caso, como controles de carga se utilizaron la actina y la densidad óptica de todo el carril de la tinción de Coomasie (CBB). Esto se debe a que la tinción con CBB permite evaluar que la integridad de las muestras sea similar, lo cual es importante para evaluar la degradación de TUG. Además, es un método mucho más sensible para medir la cantidad de proteína cargada (105). Solo aquellos blots con una variación menor al 10 % en la densidad óptica entre los carriles en la tinción de CBB fueron considerados para su análisis.

#### 6.17. Ensayo de actividad de calpaínas

Los adipocitos se ayunaron de suero por 4 h y el medio se reemplazó con KRH con glucosa y 10 µM del sustrato para calpaínas tBoc-Leu-Met-CMAC (Molecular Probes). La fluorescencia se midió una vez por minuto por 20 minutos a

37° C en un fluorómetro de microplacas Fluoroskan Ascent (Thermo Electron Corporation, Ex/Em: 355 nm/460 nm).

#### 6.18. Inmunofluorescencia y microscopía confocal

Las células se sembraron y diferenciaron en cubreobjetos de 12 mm. Después del tratamiento con insulina, las células se fijaron con 1 % de paraformaldehído en PBS por 10 min y se lavaron 4 veces con PBS. Los cubreobjetos se bloquearon con buffer de bloqueo (BB, PBS suplementado con 0.1 % de Triton X100 y 0.5 % de albumina de suero bovino) por 45 min a 37° C. Los anticuerpos primarios contra CAPN1 (factor de dilución 1:100), CAPN2 (DF 1:100), CAPN10 (DF 1:100) y GLUT4 (DF 1:100) se incubaron en BB por 30 min a 37° C. Los cubreobjetos se lavaros tres veces con buffer de lavados (BL, 0.1 % de Triston X100 en PBS). Los anticuerpos secundarios (Alexa Fluor 488 anti-rabbit y Alexa Fluor 647 anti-mouse, ambos con un DF de 1:1000, Molecular Probes) se incubaron en BB por 30 min a 37° C. Para la detección de VAMP2, se utilizó un anticuerpo anti-VAMP2 conjugado con Alexa Fluor 647 (Abcam, cat: ab198949, lot: GR209671-1, DF: 1:100) incubado toda la noche a 4° C antes de la tinción con el anticuerpo contra CAPN1. Para teñir los núcleos de las células se incubaron con joduro de propidio por 5 min. Las muestras se lavaron tres veces con BL. Las imágenes de fluorescencia se adquirieron con una cabeza de escaneo láser confocal Zeiss LSM 5 Pascal acoplada a un microscopio Axioscope 2 (Carl Zeiss). Las imágenes se obtuvieron con un objetivo Plan Fluor 100X N.A. 1.3 con los láseres de 488, 561 y 646 nm. La apertura de pinole se estableció a 209 µm. La adquisición se realizó con el software LSM 5 Pascal v2.8 SP1 (Carl Zeiss). En cada experimento se incluyó un control sin anticuerpos primarios para excluir la unión inespecífica de los anticuerpos secundarios o la autofluorescencia de las células. Las imágenes se analizaron con el software ImageJ-win64.

#### 6.19. Knockdown de CAPN10 transitorio

Se transfectaron adipocitos en día 8 de diferenciación con 2 nmol/mL de Accell mouse CAPN10 SMARTpool siRNA (CAPN10<sup>poolsiRNA</sup>, Dharmacon, cat: E-

062206-00-0050), o con el Accell control nontargeting SMARTpool siRNA (Ctl<sup>poolsiRNA</sup>, Dharmacon, cat: D-001910-10-20) en Accell siRNA delivery media (Dharmacon) por 48 h. Después de la transfección se les reemplazó el medio por DMEM alto en glucosa suplementado con 10 % de SFB y 1 µg/mL de insulina. Las células se incubaron otras 48 h en este medio. En este punto, se consideró que el KD de CAPN10 fue completo, basado en la evaluación de esta proteína por Western blot. Las células KD se estimularon con insulina como se describió previamente.

#### 6.20. Knockdown de CAPN10 estable

Se sembraron 0.1 X 10<sup>6</sup> células en placas de 6 pozos con medio Opti-MEM (Gibco) suplementado con 8 µg/mL de polibreno (Sigma). Inmediatamente después de la siembra, las células se incubaron por 24 h con partículas lentivirales Mission<sup>TM</sup> shRNA (Sigma) que contenían el plásmido PLKO.1 con un shRNA contra CAPN10 (CAPN10<sup>sh704</sup>, NM ID NM\_011796.1-1921s1c1 clone ID TRCN0000030704) o un shRNA contra un gen no presente en mamíferos como control (NM<sup>shRNA</sup>, SHC002V) a un MOI de 10. Después de 24 h el medio se reemplazó por DMEM alto en glucosa suplementado con SFB y se incubaron por otras 24 h antes de la selección con 3 µg/mL de puromicina. El medio con puromicina se reemplazó cada 48 h por 2 semanas y la eficiencia del KD se evaluó por Western blot.

#### 7. Resultados

# 7.1. Parte 1 Efectos del arsénico sobre la translocación de GLUT1 dependiente de calpaínas en linfocitos

#### El tratamiento con arsenito de sodio por 72 h no fue citotóxico.

Para evaluar los efectos del arsénico sobre el metabolismo de la glucosa en linfocitos, se trataron linfocitos humanos con 0.1 o 1 µM de arsenito de sodio por 72 h. Estas concentraciones se seleccionaron debido a que se encuentran en el rango de las concentraciones de arsénico reportadas en poblaciones expuestas de forma crónica al arsénico en el agua (106–108). Para descartar que los efectos del tratamiento con arsenito de sodio no fueran debidos a procesos citotóxicos, se midió la viabilidad de los linfocitos mediante la doble tinción con anexina V y 7-amino actinomicina D (7AAD), las cuales tiñen la externalización de la fosfatidil serina (que es una marca de apoptosis) y al DNA cuando ocurren rupturas en la membrana plasmática (que marcan procesos de apoptosis tardía y necrosis), respectivamente. Como se puede observar en la figura 7, la viabilidad se mantuvo por arriba del 90 % en todas las concentraciones de arsenito probadas (Figura 8). Por lo cual podemos concluir que los tratamientos con arsenito de sodio por 72 h no son citotóxicos.



Figura 8. El tratamiento con 0.1 y 1 µM de arsenito de sodio por 72 h no afecta la viabilidad de linfocitos humanos *in vitro*. Se trataron los linfocitos de 5 donadores por duplicado con arsenito de sodio y se evaluó la viabilidad celular por la doble tinción con anexina V / 7AAD y citometría de flujo. La viabilidad se ajustó a los valores observados en las células no tratadas (NT). Las cajas representan la mediana y la dispersión de los datos, los bigotes representan los valores máximos y mínimos. Análisis por ANOVA de una vía y prueba de Dunnet (p=0.08).

#### El arsénico inhibe el tráfico de GLUT1 y la captación de glucosa.

Se determinaron los niveles de la proteína total y de la abundancia en membrana de GLUT1, el cual es el principal transportador de glucosa en los linfocitos humanos. Ninguna de las concentraciones de arsenito utilizadas alteró los niveles de la proteína de GLUT1 (Figura 9 A y B). Posteriormente, para inducir la translocación de GLUT1 desde la membrana plasmática hacia los compartimientos intracelulares, se retó a los linfocitos con un pulso de 3.9 y 11.1 mM de glucosa extracelular (equivalentes a 70 y 200 mg/dL, respectivamente). Estas concentraciones de glucosa corresponden al límite inferior de la glucemia en ayuno y a límite superior de la glicemia postprandial en sujetos sin DT2, respectivamente (109). Después del reto, las células se pusieron en hielo para inhibir el tráfico vesicular y se determinaron los niveles de GLUT1 en la membrana plasmática usando un anticuerpo específico contra el asa extracelular de este transportador y se cuantificó por citometría de flujo. Como ha sido previamente reportado, en las células no tratadas, el pulso con 11.1 mM de glucosa indujo la internalización de GLUT1, resultando en menores niveles de esta proteína en la membrana. Al calcular un valor de delta ( $\Delta$ ) = GLUT1<sub>membranal en 11.1 mM de glucosa</sub> - GLUT1<sub>membranal en 3.9 mM de</sub> <sub>glucosa</sub>, se observa un valor negativo que corresponde a la cantidad de GLUT1 internalizado después del reto con 11.1 mM de glucosa. En contraste, el tratamiento con 0.1 y 1 µM de arsenito inhibió la internalización de GLUT1 inducida por glucosa de manera dosis-respuesta (Figura 9 C).

Para determinar si estas alteraciones en el tráfico de GLUT1 tienen un efecto fisiológico en la célula, se cuantificó la captación de glucosa bajo estas condiciones y se calculó el valor de delta ( $\Delta$ ) como en el caso de la abundancia de GLUT1 en membrana. En concordancia con lo que se observó en el tráfico de GLUT1, la captación de glucosa en las células no tratadas disminuyó después del pulso con alta concentración de glucosa, mientras que esta respuesta disminuyó en los linfocitos tratados con arsenito (Figura 9 D).



Figura 9. El arsenito de sodio inhibe el tráfico de GLUT1 inducido por glucosa en linfocitos humanos *in vitro*. A) Western blot representative del GLUT1 total en linfocitos tratados con 0.1 or 1  $\mu$ M de arsenito por 72 h. B) Análisis densitométrico de los Western blots. La actina se usó como control de carga y los niveles de GLUT1 se ajustaron a los valores de las células sin tratamiento. C) La internalización de GLUT1 se calculó como:  $\Delta$  GLUT1 en membrana= GLUT1<sub>membranal en 11.1 mM de glucosa</sub> – GLUT1<sub>membranal en 3.9 mM de glucosa</sub>. D) El valor de delta en la captación de glucose se calculó como en C. Las cajas y los bigotes representan la mediana, la distribución de los datos y los valores máximos y mínimos de 5 experimentos con sujetos diferentes con duplicados técnicos. Los datos se analizaron con una ANOVA de una vía y prueba de Dunnet. \* p<0.05.

#### El arsénico inhibe la actividad del sistema de las calpaínas.

Para evaluar si la inhibición sobre el tráfico de GLUT1 está relacionada con alguna alteración en el sistema de las calpaínas, evaluamos la expresión génica y la abundancia de las proteínas de CAPN1, CAPN2, CAPN10 y del inhibidor endógeno de las calpaínas clásicas CAST. Aunque el tratamiento con arsenito no alteró la expresión de mRNA de CAST, sí indujo un incremento dependiente de la concentración en los niveles de su proteína, alcanzando un incremento de 2 veces con la concentración de 1  $\mu$ M de arsenito (Figura 10 A y B, Tabla 2). Respecto a CAPN1, el arsenito indujo un incremento en los niveles de esta enzima, aunque no se detectaron cambios en los niveles de la proteína intacta. En contraste, el tratamiento con 1  $\mu$ M de arsenito indujo una disminución en la

abundancia del fragmento autolítico de 50 kDa (Figura 10 A y B, Tabla 2). La abundancia de este fragmento indica indirectamente el nivel de activación de CAPN1, ya que al activarse se autolisa generando diversos fragmentos, por lo cual el arsenito podría estar inhibiendo la actividad de CAPN1. Por el contrario, ni la expresión del mRNA ni la abundancia de la proteína de CAPN2 fueron alteradas por el tratamiento por arsenito de sodio (Figura 10 A y B, Tabla 2). De manera interesante, encontramos que, bajo estas condiciones de cultivo, los linfocitos solamente expresan dos isoformas de CAPN10 de 60 y 50 kDa, las cuales no fueron alteradas por el tratamiento por arsenito de sodio (Figura 10 A y B, Tabla 2).

Tabla 3. Niveles de mRNA de CAST, CAPN1, CAPN2 y CAPN10 en linfocitos tratados con arsenito de sodio por 72 h.

		NaAsO <sub>2</sub> (µM)	
	0	0.1	1
CAST	1 ± 0.0	$0.834 \pm 0.159$	1.030 ± 0.169
CAPN1	1 ± 0.0	1.770 ± 0.808*	1.638 ± 0.750*
CAPN2	1 ± 0.0	1.197 ± 0.265	1.112 ± 0.097
CAPN10	1 ± 0.0	1.187 ± 0.333	1.012 ± 0.067

Los datos se presentan como la media  $\pm$  DS de tres experimentos independientes con triplicados técnicos. Los niveles de expresión se ajustaron a la expresión del mRNA de GUSB y a los niveles de expresión de cada gen en las células no tratadas. Análisis realizado con ANOVA de una vía y prueba de Dunnett (\*p < 0.05).

Para probar directamente el efecto del arsenito sobre la actividad proteolítica de las calpaínas, se dio el reto con 3.9 y 11.1 mM de glucosa en la presencia de un sustrato sintético de calpaínas que emite fluorescencia al ser hidrolizado por estas enzimas. En las células no tratadas, la actividad de las calpaínas incrementó después del reto con 11.1 mM de glucosa, comparada con la actividad medida en 3.9 mM de glucosa (la cual es considerada como la actividad basal). En las células tratadas con  $0.1 \mu$ M de arsenito no se observó el incremento en la actividad de estas enzimas por el reto con 11.1 mM de glucosa, aunque la actividad basal (medida en 3.9 mM de glucosa) no presentó ningún cambio en comparación con las células no tratadas. En los linfocitos tratados con  $1 \mu$ M la actividad basal de las calpaínas

disminuyó respecto a la actividad basal de las células no tratadas y además no se observó el incremento en la actividad de las calpaínas inducido por el reto con 11.1 mM de glucosa (Figura 10 C). Estos resultados demuestran que el arsenito inhibe la actividad proteolítica de las calpaínas.

Además de estos experimentos in situ, también se evaluó si el arsenito pudiera tener un efecto directo sobre las calpaínas. Esta aproximación se realizó con CAPN1 humana purificada, debido a que es la única calpaína pura que conserva su actividad catalítica. Se evaluó la actividad autolítica de la CAPN1 después de incubarla por 24 h con 0.01, 0.1 o 1 µM de arsenito. La concentración de 0.01 µM de arsenito de sodio se añadió al diseño de este experimento bajo la premisa de que la membrana plasmática limita la difusión de arsenito hacia el interior de la célula, por lo que la concentración real de arsenito a la que están expuestas las calpaínas sería mucho menor que la concentración extracelular. Se encontró que en ausencia de Ca<sup>2+</sup>, el arsenito indujo la autólisis de CAPN1, aumentando la abundancia de los fragmentos de 60 y 50 kDa. Cuando se añadió Ca<sup>2+</sup> para inducir la actividad de la CAPN1, el arsenito incrementó la degradación autolítica de CAPN1, evidenciado por una menor abundancia de la enzima intacta de 80 kDa. Además, después de la incubación con Ca<sup>2+</sup>, la abundancia de los fragmentos de 55 y 50 kDa también fue disminuida en presencia de arsenito, indicando que CAPN1 está auto-degradándose de manera extensiva, en vez de generar fragmentos con diferentes grados de actividad (Figura 10 D). Este resultado sugiere que el arsenito es capaz de promover la autodegradación de las calpaínas aun en ausencia de Ca<sup>2+</sup>.



**Figura 10. El tratamiento con arsenito inhibe al sistema de las calpaínas.** A) Western blots representativos de calpastatina (CAST), CAPN1, CAPN2 y CAPN10 de muestras de linfocitos tratados con arsenito por 72 h. B) Análisis densitométrico de las bandas de CAST, CAPN1, CAPN2 y CAPN10. La abundancia de la actina se usó como control de carga. Los datos se ajustaron a los niveles de proteína observados en las células sin tratamiento. C) Actividad de calpaínas en linfocitos tratados con arsenito por 72 h y evaluada después del pulso con 3.9 u 11.1 mM de glucosa extracelular. Los datos se normalizaron respecto a la actividad observada en las células sin tratamiento con arsenito y después del pulso con 3.9 mM de glucosa extracelular. D) Se incubó CAPN1 humana con 0.01, 0.1 o 1  $\mu$ M de arsenito por 24 h antes de inducir su autólisis con Ca<sup>2+</sup> por 10 min. Experimento representativo de 3 experimentos independientes. En A, B y C las cajas y bigotes representan la mediana, la distribución de los datos y los valores máximos y mínimos de 6 donadores independientes con duplicados técnicos. En B, los datos se analizaron con una ANOVA de una vía y una prueba de Dunnet (\*p < 0.05, \*\*p < 0.01). Los datos de C se analizaron con una ANOVA de dos vías y prueba de Tukey. Las

cajas con letras diferentes son estadísticamente diferentes entre ellas (p<0.05). Las letras a > b>c.

#### La CAPN1 y CAPN10 regulan la captación de glucosa en los linfocitos.

Para demostrar que las calpaínas están implicadas en la regulación de GLUT1 en los linfocitos, se generaron modelos de knock-down (KD) estables en la línea celular Jurkat de leucemia de linfocitos T. Se transdujeron las células con partículas lentivirales con un plásmido que codifica para shRNA contra un gen no presente en mamífero (NM<sup>shRNA</sup>), contra CAPN1 (CAPN1<sup>shRNA</sup>) o CAPN10 (CAPN10<sup>shRNA</sup>). Desafortunadamente, se encontró que estas células no expresan CAPN2 a nivel de mRNA o proteína, por lo que no se pudo estudiar su participación sobre la regulación de GLUT1.

En las células Jurkat que expresan el CAPN1<sup>shRNA</sup> se observó una disminución de los niveles de mRNA y proteína de CAPN1 del 87 y 61 % respectivamente, en comparación con las células que expresan los otros dos shRNA (Figura 11 A, B y C). En las células que expresan el CAPN10<sup>shRNA</sup>, se redujeron los niveles de mRNA de CAPN10 en un 55 % (Figura 11 A). De manera interesante, las células Jurkat expresan 4 isoformas diferentes de CAPN10 de 60, 55, 50 y 45 kDa, las cuales se redujeron de manera significativa por el CAPN10<sup>shRNA</sup> (Figura 11 B y C).

Se determinó en estas células la activación de las calpaínas inducida por glucosa después del pulso con 3.9 u 11.1 mM de glucosa. En las células que expresan el NM<sup>shRNA</sup> y el CAPN1<sup>shRNA</sup>, la actividad de las calpaínas aumentó en 27 y 18 %, respectivamente. En contraste, en las células que expresan el CAPN10<sup>shRNA</sup>, la actividad de las calpaínas después del pulso con 11.1 mM de glucosa se redujo en un 35 % comparándola con la actividad observada en 3.9 mM de glucosa. Esto demuestra que la CAPN10 es la calpaína responsable del aumento en la actividad de las calpaínas inducido por glucosa en linfocitos (Figura 11 D). Por lo tanto sugiere que esta enzima es la que se ve afectada después del tratamiento con 0.1 µM de arsenito de sodio.



Figura 11. El silenciamiento estable de CAPN10 en la línea celular Jurkat disminuve la activación de las calpaínas inducida por glucosa. A) Expresión de mRNA de CAPN1 y CAPN10 relativo a los niveles de expresión en las células control (NM<sup>shRNA</sup>). B) Western blot representativo de CAPN1 y CAPN10 en las células Jurkat con los diferentes shRNA. C) Análisis densitométrico de los Western blot de CAPN1 y CAPN10. Los niveles de actina se utilizaron como control de carga y la abundancia se normalizó respecto a los valores encontrados en la línea con el NM<sup>shRNA</sup>. D) Actividad de calpaínas en las tres líneas celulares después de un pulso con 3.9 u 11.1 mM de glucosa extracelular. Los valores se normalizaron respecto a los niveles de actividad medidos después del pulso con 3.9 mM de glucosa. Las cajas con bigotes representan la mediana, la distribución de los datos y los valores máximos y mínimos de 3 experimentos independientes con duplicados técnicos. En C las letras en negritas denotan diferencias estadísticamente significativas con ANOVA de una vía y prueba de Dunnet (p<0.05). Los datos en C se analizaron con una ANOVA de dos vías y prueba de Tukey. Las cajas con diferente letra son estadísticamente diferentes entre ellas (p < 0.05). Cajas con la letra a > b > c.

Posteriormente, se determinó el efecto del KD de CAPN1 o CAPN10 sobre la regulación de GLUT1 y la captación de glucosa. Se observó que los niveles totales de la proteína de GLUT1 están disminuidos en las células que expresan el CAPN10<sup>shRNA</sup> (Figura 12 A y B). Desafortunadamente no se pudo evaluar la abundancia de este transportador en la membrana plasmática debido a que sus niveles se encontraban por debajo del límite de detección por citometría de flujo y no se podían diferenciar de la señal generada por autofluorescencia. Se midió la captación de glucosa después del pulso con 3.9 u 11.1 mM de glucosa. En las células que expresan el NM<sup>shRNA</sup>, la captación de glucosa se redujo después del reto con 11.1 mM de glucosa extracelular, tal y como se observó en los linfocitos. En las células que expresan el CAPN1<sup>shRNA</sup>, la captación de glucosa se incrementó más de dos veces en comparación con las células con el NM<sup>shRNA</sup>, tanto en la concentración de 3.9 y 11.1 mM de glucosa extracelular. En contraste, las células con el CAPN10<sup>shRNA</sup> presentaron una disminución del 43 % en la captación de glucosa bajo el pulso con 3.9 mM de glucosa extracelular, en comparación con las células con el NM<sup>shRNA</sup>. En cambio, no hubo diferencias en la captación de glucosa después del pulso con 11.1 mM de glucosa extracelular entre las células con el CAPN10<sup>shRNA</sup> y con el NM<sup>shRNA</sup> (Figura 12 C). Se calcularon además los valores delta para estimar el grado de respuesta al pulso con 11.1 mM de glucosa en estas líneas celulares. Se encontró que las células con el CAPN1<sup>shRNA</sup> tienen una respuesta mayor en la captación de glucosa, mientras que las células con el CAPN10<sup>shRNA</sup> respondieron menos al pulso con 11.1 mM de glucosa extracelular, comparándolas con las células con el NM<sup>shRNA</sup> (valores de delta de -11.77 ± 1.67 en las células NM<sup>shRNA</sup>, -24.17 ± 2.61 en las células CAPN1<sup>shRNA</sup> y de -5.59 ± 2.09 en las células CAPN10<sup>shRNA</sup>). Los datos demuestran que CAPN1 y CAPN10 tienen efectos opuestos sobre la captación de glucosa en los linfocitos. Además, los cambios en el valor de delta y en la actividad de las calpaínas inducida por el pulso con 11.1 mM de glucosa sugieren que el silenciamiento de CAPN10 emula en mayor medida la respuesta observada en los linfocitos tratados con arsenito.



Figura 12. El silenciamiento de CAPN1 y CAPN10 tienen efectos opuestos sobre la captación de glucosa. A) Western blot representativo de la abundancia total de GLUT1 en células Jurkat que expresan los diferentes shRNA. B) Análisis densitométrico de los niveles totales de GLUT1. La actina fue utilizada como control de carga y los niveles de GLUT1 se normalizaron respecto a los niveles en las células con el NM<sup>shRNA</sup>. C) Se evaluó la captación de glucosa en las tres líneas celulares después del pulso con 3.9 u 11.1 mM de glucosa. Las cajas con bigotes representan la mediana, la distribución de los datos y los valores máximo y mínimo de tres experimentos independientes con duplicados técnicos. Los datos en B se analizaron con una ANOVA de una vía y prueba de Dunnet (\*p<0.05). Los datos en C fueron analizados con ANOVA de dos vías y prueba de Tukey. Las cajas con diferente letra son estadísticamente diferentes entre llas (p<0.05), en donde las cajas con la letra a > b > c > d > e.

# 7.2. Parte 2: Identificación de la proteína TUG como un blanco de CAPN10 involucrado en la translocación de GLUT4.

Si bien los datos obtenidos en la sección anterior nos sugieren que las calpaínas y en específico la CAPN10, podrían ser blancos importantes del arsénico, inhibiendo de esta forma el tráfico vesicular de GLUT1, la ausencia de un sustrato específico de esta proteasa hace difícil poder estudiar de manera precisa el efecto del arsénico sobre el tráfico vesicular de los GLUT dependiente de CAPN10. Esto es importante para evaluar el efecto que pudieran tener los desreguladores endócrinos como el arsénico sobre la translocación de los GLUTs en tejidos blanco de la insulina como los adipocitos y el músculo esquelético, en donde el tráfico de estos transportadores (principalmente GLUT1 y GLUT4), es regulado por múltiples vías.

Tal como se describió en los antecedentes, la proteólisis de TUG es uno de los pasos limitantes que controlan la translocación de GLUT4 inducida por insulina (40). En ausencia de insulina, la proteína TUG se encuentra como una sola cadena polipeptídica de alrededor de 60 kDa, la cual se encarga de anclar las GSVs a la matriz del aparato de Golgi (40). Después de la estimulación con insulina, esta proteína se corta, generando diferentes fragmentos amino y carboxilo-terminales que parecieran cumplir funciones diferentes a las de la proteína sin procesar (40,49).

Las razones que nos llevaron a proponer que el procesamiento proteolítico de TUG pudiera ser mediado por calpaínas fueron:

- La insulina induce la proteólisis parcial de TUG, generando fragmentos con diferentes funciones.
- La proteólisis de TUG sólo se lleva a cabo en las moléculas de TUG que se encuentran adosadas a la membrana (45).

#### La proteína TUG es un sustrato de las calpaínas

Se evaluó la presencia de fragmentos de TUG en órganos relacionados con la homeostasis de la glucosa, con una regulación del tráfico de sus transportadores de glucosa tales como el tejido adiposo blanco de la región retroperitoneal (RAT), el músculo gastrocnemio, y el corazón, y órganos en dónde la insulina no altera la localización del transportador de glucosa tales como el hígado y el páncreas de ratones adultos alimentados *ad libitum*. En el RAT, se encontró que la abundancia de la proteína TUG intacta fue la más baja de entre todos los tejidos evaluados. Además, los principales productos proteolíticos encontrados fueron de alrededor de 60 y 30 kDa. En el músculo gastrocnemio se observaron una serie de fragmentos de entre 50 y 40 kDa. En el hígado se encontró solamente un fragmento de aproximadamente 45 kDa, aunque su abundancia fue menor que en el músculo. El corazón presentó algunos de los fragmentos que se ven en el RAT y el músculo gastrocnemio. En el páncreas se observaron varios fragmentos de TUG en un amplio rango de pesos moleculares. La presencia de más de un fragmento de TUG en todos estos tejidos sugiere que esta proteína podría ser blanco de más de una proteasa (Figura 13 A).

Posteriormente se evaluó la abundancia de CAPN1, CAPN2 y CAPN10 en estos tejidos. La mayor abundancia de fragmentos autolíticos de CAPN1 se observó en el RAT, seguido por el corazón. En contraste, la abundancia de estos fragmentos fue mucho menor en el músculo gastrocnemio y en el hígado, y no se encontraron en el páncreas. Sugiriendo que esta proteasa tiene un mayor nivel de actividad en el RAT y en el corazón (Figura 13 A). El fragmento autolítico de CAPN2 sólo se encontró en el corazón (Figura 13 A). Respecto a CAPN10, se encontró que la producción de isoformas por splicing alternativo fue tejido específica. En el RAT se encontraron isoformas de 75, 60, 55, 50 y 37 kDa. En comparación, el músculo gastrocnemio expresa isoforma de 55 kDa, en el corazón observamos isoformas de 75, 60, 55 y 32 kDa y en el páncreas encontramos isoformas de 55, 50, 37 y 20 kDa (Figura 13 A). Esto podría sugerir que esta proteasa tiene funciones y blancos diferentes en cada uno de estos tejidos.

Posteriormente se buscaron posibles sitios de corte mediados por calpaínas dentro de la secuencia de TUG de ratón (número de acceso del NCBI: NP\_081153.1). Para esto se utilizaron los algoritmos MKL y Bayesianos, disponibles en la base de datos de calpaínas para la proteólisis moduladora (CaMP DB, <u>http://www.calpain.org/</u>). Estas dos herramientas son los algoritmos más recientes

y confiables para buscar los posibles sitios de corte por calpaínas en la secuencia de una proteína. Especialmente, los algoritmos Bayesianos toman en consideración la predicción de la estructura secundaria de la proteína, la cual es importante para que se pueda dar el corte por calpaínas (110). Utilizando estos algoritmos, se encontraron 12 posibles sitios de corte por calpaínas dentro de la secuencia de la proteína TUG (Figura 13 B). En particular, el sitio 3 (localizado entre los residuos de aminoácidos o aar 152-153), el sitio 4 (aar 157-158) y el sitio 5 (aar 160-161) se encuentran adyacentes al sitio de corte inducido por insulina, que se ha reportado previamente (aar 164-165, Figura 13 B) (45). Tomando en cuenta que la proteólisis de TUG es uno de los pasos limitantes en la señalización por insulina, hipotetizamos que los sitios de corte de esta proteína deberían de estar conservados en los vertebrados. Analizando la secuencia de TUG en el ratón, el humano y la rana *Xenopus*, se puede observar que la región que abarca los sitios de corte 4 y 5, así como el sitio de corte inducido por insulina que ya estaba reportado, se encuentra altamente conservada (Figura 13 B).

Posteriormente se demostró experimentalmente que TUG es un sustrato de calpaínas. Para esto se estableció un modelo libre de células usando CAPN1 purificada de eritrocitos humanos y la proteína TUG humana producida en germen de trigo. En este modelo, la proteína TUG intacta se observó como una banda única con un peso molecular aparente de 50 kDa (la discrepancia con el peso observado en los tejidos podría deberse a la falta de modificaciones postraduccionales; Figura 12 C, carriles 1 y 2). Después de añadir a la CAPN1 en presencia de 200 o 2000 µM de Ca<sup>2+</sup>, se generaron dos fragmentos C-terminal de TUG de aproximadamente 45 y 35 kDa (Figura 13 C, carriles 4 y 5). La proteólisis de TUG correlacionó con la autólisis de CAPN1, indicando que en efecto la enzima fue activada por estas concentraciones de Ca<sup>2+</sup> (Figura 13 C, carriles 4 y 5). Para demostrar que la proteólisis de TUG y de CAPN1 están mediadas por la actividad catalítica de la CAPN1, se evaluó además el efecto del inhibidor de calpaínas ALLM, el cual inhibió por completo la proteólisis de TUG y evitó parcialmente la autólisis de CAPN1 (Figura 13 C, carril 6), confirmando que la actividad de la calpaína fue la responsable de la proteólisis de TUG y CAPN1. A pesar de que el peso molecular aparente del fragmento de TUG producido en mayor abundancia es menor que el fragmento de 42 kDa que ha sido reportado en los adipocitos 3T3-L1, se observó que también la proteína TUG recombinante intacta tuvo un peso molecular aparente menor al observado en tejidos y en la línea celular 3T3-L1. Estas discrepancias podrían explicarse de dos formas:

- Podría ser que los pesos moleculares aparentes en este experimento estén desfasados con los observados en la proteína *in situ* debido a la falta de las modificaciones postraduccionales que han sido reportadas en TUG (111).
- En la célula, las modificaciones post-traduccionales favorecen el corte de TUG, generando el fragmento que tiene una menor abundancia en el experimento *in vitro*.

A pesar de esto, los datos demuestran que las calpaínas pueden realizar el procesamiento proteolítico de TUG.



**Figura 13. La proteína TUG es un sustrato de calpaínas.** A) Western blot para determinar los fragmentos de TUG, CAPN1, CAPN2 y CAPN10 en el tejido adiposo blanco retroperitoneal (WAT), músculo gastrocnemio, hígado, corazón y páncreas de ratones CD1. Se muestra un resultado representativo de tres animales independientes, en los que se obtuvieron resultados similares. B) Análisis *in silico* de los posibles sitios de corte por calpaínas en el TUG de ratón, obtenidos en el CaMP DB. Se incluye un esquema con la localización de los sitios de corte en la estructura primaria de la proteína. Se muestra también el alineamiento de las secuencias adyacentes a los sitios de corte 3, 4 y 5 de la proteína TUG de ratón, humano y de la rana. Los residuos conservados se muestran en negritas. Los dominios de TUG están marcados como: UBL1 para ubiquitin like domain 1, UBL2 para ubiquitin like domain 2 y Ubx para ubiquitin like domain 3. C) Proteólisis de la proteína TUG por CAPN1 humana en un sistema libre de células en presencia de diferentes concentraciones de Ca<sup>2+</sup>. ALLM: Inhibidor de calpaínas N-Acetil-Leu-Leu-Metioninal. Resultado representativo de tres experimentos independientes.

## La proteólisis de TUG inducida por insulina correlaciona con la actividad general de las calpaínas en adipocitos

Posteriormente se evaluó si la proteólisis de TUG inducida por insulina en adipocitos 3T3-L1 correlaciona con marcadores de la activación de las calpaínas. La estimulación con insulina durante 7 minutos indujo la fosforilación de Akt y la producción del fragmento de 42 kDa de TUG (Figura 14 A y B). Sin embargo, la

estimulación con insulina no alteró la abundancia de CAPN2 ni de las isoformas de CAPN10 (Figura 14 A y B). En cuanto a CAPN1, en esta línea celular no se encontró la banda de 75 kDa que corresponde a la CAPN1 intacta, y solamente se encontraron dos fragmentos autolíticos de 50 y 40 kDa. La estimulación con insulina indujo un incremento en los niveles del fragmento de 40 kDa (Figura 14 A y B).

También se observó que el estímulo con 100 o 1000 nM de insulina indujo un incremento en la actividad general de las calpaínas, después de 12 y 7 min de estimulación, respectivamente (Figura 14 C). Al calcular el área bajo la curva, se observó que la actividad de calpaínas incrementó 21.6, 70.6 y 222.2 % en 10, 100 y 1000 nM de insulina, respectivamente, en comparación con las células no tratadas. Estos resultados muestran que la proteólisis de TUG inducida por insulina correlaciona con la actividad general de las calpaínas y el procesamiento autolítico de CAPN1.



Figura 14. La proteólisis de TUG inducida por insulina correlaciona con la actividad de las calpaínas. Se trataron adipocitos 3T3-L1 con insulina por 7 min. A) Western blot representativo B) Análisis densitométrico que indica los niveles de fosforilación de Akt, la proteólisis de TUG y las abundancias de CAPN1, CAPN2 y CAPN10. Los datos se normalizaron en función de la densidad óptica de los carriles teñidos con Coomasie Brilliant Blue (CBB) y se presentan como la media  $\pm$  DE de al menos dos experimentos independientes con duplicados técnicos. Los datos se analizaron con ANOVA de una vía y prueba de Dunnett. \* denota una diferencia estadísticamente significativa (p <0.05). C) Se midió la actividad de las calpaínas con un sustrato fluorogénico durante 20 min. Los datos se presentan como la media  $\pm$  SEM de tres experimentos independientes con triplicados técnicos. Los datos se analizaron con ANOVA de dos vías y prueba de Tukey. + p <0.05 entre 0 nM y 100 nM de insulina. \* p <0.05 entre 0 nM y 100 nM de insulina

### La proteólisis de TUG inducida por insulina está mediada por calpaínas en adipocitos

Para determinar si en los adipocitos, las calpaínas efectivamente participan en la proteólisis de TUG inducida por insulina, los adipocitos 3T3-L1 se trataron con los inhibidores de calpaínas antes de ser estimuladas con insulina. Debido a que no existen inhibidores específicos de ninguna calpaína, y a que todos los inhibidores de calpaínas presentan inespecificidad por otras proteasas, se seleccionaron tres inhibidores diferentes (ALLM, AK275 o E-64d) para demostrar la participación de estas proteasas en el procesamiento de TUG y la externalización de GLUT4. La inhibición de las calpaínas no alteró la abundancia de CAPN2 ni de CAPN10, o la fosforilación de Akt (Figura 15 A y B). Sin embargo, los tres inhibidores disminuyeron la proteólisis de TUG inducida por insulina sin alterar su proteólisis basal (Figura 15 A y B). Además, los inhibidores AK275 y E-64d indujeron un aumento significativo en la abundancia del fragmento autolítico de 40 kDa de CAPN1, así como a la aparición de una banda de 80 kDa, la cual corresponde a la CAPN1 intacta (Figura 15 A y B).

Para demostrar que la disminución del corte de TUG tuviera un efecto en el tráfico de GLUT4 inducido por insulina, se evaluó la localización de este transportador por microscopía confocal. Se observó que la abundancia de GLUT4 en la membrana, después del estímulo con insulina disminuyó en las células tratadas con el AK275 y el E64-d (Figura 16 C). Todos estos datos demuestran que las calpaínas están implicadas en la proteólisis de TUG inducida por insulina y en el tráfico de GLUT4.



Figura 15. Los inhibidores de las calpaínas disminuyen la proteólisis de TUG inducida por insulina. Los adipocitos se trataron con los inhibidores de la calpaína ALLM (10 min), AK275 (30 min) o E-64d (4 h) antes de la estimulación con insulina durante 7 min. A) Western blot representativo B) Análisis densitométrico de la abundancia de CAPN1, CAPN2 y CAPN10, y de la fosforilación de Akt y proteólisis de TUG. Los datos se presentan como la media  $\pm$  DE de tres experimentos independientes con duplicados técnicos. Todos los experimentos se analizaron utilizando ANOVA de dos vías con la prueba post hoc de Tukey. En cada gráfico, las condiciones con diferentes superíndices son significativamente diferentes entre sí (p <0.05, a> b).



Figura 16. Los inhibidores de calpaínas disminuyen la translocación de GLUT4. A) La localización de GLUT4 (en blanco) se determinó mediante inmunofluorescencia. Los núcleos fueron teñidos con yoduro de propidio (azul). Imágenes representativas de dos experimentos independientes. B) Análisis cuantitativo de la translocación de GLUT4 en los adipocitos tratados con inhibidores. Las barras representan la media ± SEM de al menos 15 células por cada condición en dos experimentos independientes. Los datos se analizaron con una prueba de ANOVA de una vía y prueba post-hoc de Tukey. Las condiciones con diferentes letras representan diferencias estadísticamente significativas entre ellas (p < 0.05, a > b).

#### La CAPN10 co-localiza con las vesículas almacenadoras de GLUT4

Posteriormente se examinó si las calpaínas pudieran co-localizar con marcadores moleculares específicos de las GSVs, con la finalidad de determinar cuál de estas proteasas pudiera estar involucrada en la proteólisis de TUG. Se encontró que la CAPN1 se encuentra localizada en la periferia nuclear, y que no colocaliza con el marcador de GSVs VAMP2 (Vesicle associated membrane protein 2) la cuál es un marcador de GSVs al igual que GLUT4 y que se encarga de regular el (Figura 17 A). La CAPN2 se tráfico de estas vesículas encuentra predominantemente dentro del núcleo en los adipocitos, y de manera similar a CAPN1, no co-localiza con GLUT4 (Figura 17 B). Por el contrario, la CAPN10 se encuentra localizada principalmente dentro del núcleo y en la región perinuclear, donde co-localizó con GLUT4 en la ausencia del estímulo con insulina. Esta co-
localización se redujo después de la estimulación con insulina (Figura 17 C). Esto indica que CAPN10 podría ser la calpaína que participa en la proteólisis de TUG y en la regulación de las GSVs.



Figura 17. La CAPN10, pero no las CAPN1 y CAPN2, co-localiza con marcadores de GSVs. A) Localización de CAPN1 y VAMP2. B) Localización de CAPN2 y GLUT4. C) Localización de CAPN10 y GLUT4. Las calpaínas se muestran en verde, y los marcadores de GSVs se muestran en rojo. Los núcleos se tiñeron con yoduro de propidio (IP) y se muestran en azul. Para visualizar los bordes de las células, se muestran imágenes obtenidas utilizando contraste interferencial diferencial (CID). Imágenes representativas de dos experimentos independientes.

### El silenciamiento de la CAPN10 disminuye la proteólisis de TUG

Para confirmar que CAPN10 es la calpaína involucrada en la proteólisis de TUG, generamos un modelo de silenciamiento transitorio de CAPN10 (KD) en adipocitos 3T3-L1 diferenciados, utilizando un smartpool siRNA que contiene 5 siRNA diferentes que están dirigidos contra el mRNA de CAPN10 (CAPN10<sup>poolsiRNA</sup>). En las células transfectadas con el CAPN10<sup>poolsiRNA</sup>, la abundancia de cuatro de las cinco isoformas de CAPN10 se redujo parcial pero significativamente, sin alterar la abundancia de Usp25m, que es la proteasa de TUG que ha sido identificada previamente (Figura 18 A y B). El silenciamiento no alteró tampoco la abundancia de GLUT4 ni la fosforilación de Akt inducida por insulina (Figura 18 C y D). Sin embargo, el silenciamiento de la CAPN10 si disminuyó la proteólisis de TUG estimulada por insulina, sin alterar la proteólisis basal (Figura 18 C y D).

También se estableció un modelo de silenciamiento estable de CAPN10 en las células 3T3-L1 (CAPN10<sup>sh704</sup>), para apoyar los datos obtenidos mediante el silenciamiento transitorio. En las células transducidas con las partículas lentivirales con el CAPN10<sup>sh704</sup>, se redujo la abundancia de todas las isoformas de CAPN10 de forma parcial pero significativa, sin alterar los niveles de Usp25m (Figura 19 A y B). Esto confirma que los efectos observados sobre la proteólisis de TUG y el tráfico de GLUT4 no se deben a alteraciones en esta proteasa. De manera similar a los resultados encontrados con el modelo de silenciamiento transitorio de CAPN10, no se alteraron la abundancia de GLUT4 ni la fosforilación de Akt inducida por insulina (Figura 19 D y E). En contraste, se inhibió la proteólisis de TUG inducida por insulina sin alterar la proteólisis en ausencia de esta hormona (Figura 19 D y E), lo cual correlacionó con la reducción de la actividad de calpaínas inducida por insulina (Figura 19 C). Esto confirma que la CAPN10 es activada por el estímulo con insulina y que participa en la proteólisis de TUG inducida por insulina, pero no en la proteólisis basal de esta proteína. Para evaluar si la inhibición de la proteólisis de TUG tenía efectos fisiológicos, se evaluó la localización de GLUT4. En las células que expresaban el CAPN10<sup>sh704</sup>, la abundancia de GLUT4 en la membrana celular se redujo, en comparación con las células control (NM<sup>shRNA</sup>) (Figura 20). Estos datos demuestran que la CAPN10 regula, al menos en parte, el tráfico de GLUT4 a través de la proteólisis de TUG.



Figura 18. El silenciamiento transitorio de CAPN10 inhibe la proteólisis de TUG. Se transfectaron adipocitos 3T3-L1 maduros con el siRNA SMARTpool dirigido contra CAPN10 (CAPN10<sup>poolsiRNA</sup>) o un control siRNA SMARTpool (Ctl<sup>poolsiRNA</sup>). A) Abundancia de las isoformas de CAPN10 y de Usp25m. B) Análisis densitométrico de A. Posteriormente, las células se trataron con insulina y se determinaron los niveles de GLUT4, fosforilación de Akt y la proteólisis de TUG. C) Western blot.representativo. D) Análisis densitométrico de C. Los datos se presentan como la media ± DE de tres experimentos independientes con duplicados técnicos. En B, los datos se analizaron mediante una prueba t (\* p <0.05). Los datos en D se analizaron utilizando ANOVA de dos vías y prueba de Tukey. En cada gráfico, las condiciones con superíndices diferentes son significativamente diferentes entre sí (p <0.05, a> b).



**Figura 19. El silenciamiento estable de CAPN10 inhibe la proteólisis de TUG.** Los adipocitos 3T3-L1 se transdujeron con lentivirus que codifican un shRNA dirigido contra CAPN10 (CAPN10<sup>sh704</sup>) o contra un gen no presente en células de mamífero (NM<sup>shRNA</sup>). A) Abundancia de las isoformas de CAPN10 y Usp25m. B) Análisis densitométrico de A. Posteriormente, las células se estimularon con insulina y se determinaron los niveles de GLUT4, fosforilación de Akt y proteólisis de TUG. C) Western blot representativo. D) Análisis densitométrico de C. Los datos se presentan como la media ± DE de tres experimentos independientes con duplicados técnicos. En B, los datos se analizaron mediante una prueba t. \* p <0,05. Los datos en D se analizaron utilizando ANOVA de dos vías y prueba de Tukey. En cada gráfico, las condiciones con superíndices diferentes son significativamente diferentes entre sí (p <0.05, a> b). E) Imágenes representativas de inmunofluorescencia de la localización de GLUT4 (blanco) y los niveles de CAPN10 (verde) en adipocitos CAPN10 KD de dos experimentos independientes. Los núcleos se tiñeron con yoduro de propidio y se muestran en azul.



Figura 20. El silenciamiento estable de CAPN10 inhibe la externalización de GLUT4. A) La localización de GLUT4 (en blanco) determinó mediante se inmunofluorescencia. Los núcleos fueron teñidos con voduro de propidio (azul). Imágenes representativas de dos experimentos independientes. B) Análisis cuantitativo de la translocación de GLUT4 en los adipocitos transfectados con el shRNA control (NM<sup>shRNA</sup>) o con el shRNA contra (CAPN10<sup>sh704</sup>). CAPN10 Las barras representan la media ± SEM de al menos 15 cada condición células por en dos experimentos independientes. Los datos se analizaron con una prueba de ANOVA de una vía y prueba post-hoc de Tukey. Las condiciones con diferentes letras representan diferencias estadísticamente significativas entre ellas (p < 0.05, a > b).

## 8. Discusión

La exposición crónica al arsénico en el agua potable es un problema de salud que afecta a millones de personas a nivel mundial. El consumo de agua contaminada con este metaloide se asocia con un mayor riesgo de desarrollar hiperglucemia, resistencia a la insulina y DT2 (112). Sin embargo, los mecanismos por los cuales el arsénico altera el metabolismo de la glucosa no se han dilucidado completamente. La entrada de glucosa hacia el interior de las células está regulada principalmente por la abundancia de transportadores de glucosa en la membrana y el tráfico de estos entre los compartimientos intracelulares y la membrana celular (41). En este trabajo se describió un mecanismo nuevo por el cual el arsénico inhibe el tráfico de GLUT1 a través de la desregulación del sistema de las calpaínas, así como una nueva vía por la cual la CAPN10 regula el tráfico de estos transportadores.

Se encontró que el tratamiento con arsenito de sodio inhibió el tráfico de GLUT1 inducido por un pulso con una concentración alta de glucosa extracelular, sin alterarse los niveles totales de la proteína de GLUT1. Además, este efecto correlacionó con una alteración en la captación de glucosa. El transportador de glucosa GLUT1 es el principal transportador de glucosa en linfocitos, y se ha descrito que la alteración en el tráfico o la expresión de este transportador inhiben la activación de los linfocitos y su proliferación ante estímulos inmunogénicos (95,113). De manera interesante, además del aumento en el riesgo de desarrollar DT2, se ha reportado que el arsénico disminuye la activación y proliferación de los linfocitos (114,115). Esto sugiere por lo tanto que la disminución en la funcionalidad de los linfocitos inducida por el arsénico podría deberse en parte a la inhibición del tráfico de GLUT1.

Por otra parte, el arsénico inhibe el tráfico de GLUT4 inducido por insulina en adipocitos y células del músculo esquelético (36,39), lo que sugiere que hay vías en común que regulan el tráfico de los GLUTs y que son desreguladas por el arsénico. El sistema de las calpaínas, específicamente las CAPN1, CAPN2 y CAPN10, están implicadas en diversos aspectos del tráfico y estabilidad proteica de los GLUT en músculo esquelético y adipocitos y la inhibición de estas proteasas produce alteraciones similares a las que se observan en pacientes con resistencia a la insulina (65,78,81,82,116). Además, en un trabajo previo se describió que el arsénico inhibe la secreción de insulina en las células  $\beta$  pancreáticas en parte por la inhibición de la CAPN10 (32). Por lo tanto, se evaluó si estas enzimas pudieran estar también involucradas en la desregulación de GLUT1. Se encontró que el tratamiento con arsenito inhibió la activación de las calpaínas inducida por el pulso con una alta concentración de glucosa. Curiosamente, la concentración de 0.1 µM de arsenito solo inhibió la activación de las calpaínas inducida por glucosa, sin alterar la actividad basal de las calpaínas, mientras que el tratamiento con 1 µM de arsenito redujo los niveles basales de actividad de las calpaínas e inhibió la actividad de calpaína inducida por glucosa. Estos resultados sugieren que el arsenito podría

ejercer efectos específicos sobre diferentes miembros y funciones del sistema de las calpaínas dependiendo de su concentración. Es de destacar que el efecto del arsenito sobre la actividad de las calpaínas se asemeja a las alteraciones en la actividad de éstas que se han observado en leucocitos de pacientes con DT2, los cuales presentan una reducción en la actividad basal de las calpaínas y no responde al pulso con glucosa extracelular (102,117).

En un estudio anterior de nuestro grupo, se determinó si uno de los mecanismos por el cual el arsénico disminuye la actividad de las calpaínas es a través de la reducción en los flujos de Ca<sup>2+</sup> en las células beta (32). En este trabajo se exploraron otros mecanismos que regulan la actividad de estas proteasas tanto en el modelo *in situ* como en un modelo *in vitro* libre de células. Se encontró que el tratamiento con 1 µM de arsenito indujo un aumento en los niveles de la proteína CAST, la cual es el inhibidor endógeno de las calpaínas típicas CAPN1 y CAPN2, así como una disminución en la abundancia de los fragmentos generados por autólisis de CAPN1, los cuales son generados durante la activación de la CAPN1 (53). El aumento en los niveles de CAST podría conducir a un cambio en la estequiometría entre las proteasas CAPN1 y CAPN2 con su inhibidor. Esto podría explicar la disminución en la actividad basal de las calpaínas observado con el tratamiento de 1 µM de arsenito, así como en la disminución en la autólisis de CAPN1. Resulta interesante que no observamos cambios en la expresión del mRNA de esta proteína, lo cual sugiere que el aumento en los niveles de la proteína CAST se debe a modificaciones postraduccionales. Se ha descrito que CAST puede ser fosforilada en diversos sitios y que esto a su vez regula su ubicación intracelular y su estabilidad (118,119). Será interesante en trabajos posteriores indagar en el mecanismo por el cual el arsenito induce el aumento en los niveles de esta proteína.

Se ha descrito ampliamente que el arsénico tiene una gran afinidad por los grupos tiol en las proteínas (120). Debido a que el sitio catalítico de las calpaínas está conformado por un residuo de cisteína, histidina y asparagina (53), se planteó la hipótesis de que el arsenito podría alterar directamente las propiedades catalíticas de las calpaínas, al reaccionar con este residuo de cisteína. Se encontró que, en un sistema libre de células, el arsenito es capaz de inducir la autólisis de CAPN1 en

ausencia de Ca<sup>2+</sup> y aumentar la autólisis inducida por Ca<sup>2+</sup>. Es importante destacar que el patrón de fragmentos producidos por autólisis en presencia de arsenito fue diferente al patrón observado en la autólisis inducida únicamente por Ca<sup>2+</sup>. En presencia de arsenito, la autólisis de CAPN1 fue más extensa, resultando en una menor abundancia de varios fragmentos que se observan en presencia de Ca<sup>2+</sup>; sugiriendo que el arsenito es capaz de inducir la autólisis extensa de la CAPN1. Será interesante evaluar en trabajos posteriores si este efecto altera además las propiedades cinéticas de la CAPN1, tales como su constante de afinidad por el Ca<sup>2+</sup>, la Km por sus sustratos o su Km de autólisis. En conjunto, estos datos demuestran que el arsenito puede modular la actividad de las calpaínas a través del aumento en los niveles del inhibidor CAST, de inducir la autólisis de CAPN1, en conjunto con el mecanismo previamente descrito de la alteración en los flujos de Ca<sup>2+</sup> (32). Dada la relevancia de estas enzimas en procesos patológicos como la DT2, cáncer y enfermedades vasculares, estos mecanismos sugieren que las calpaínas podrían además estar involucradas en la patología de otras enfermedades inducidas por arsénico.

Para demostrar que las alteraciones en el tráfico de GLUT1 y la captación de glucosa inducidas por el arsénico se debieron a las alteraciones en el sistema de las calpaínas, se establecieron líneas celulares con silenciamiento estable de CAPN1 o CAPN10 en la línea celular Jurkat que proviene de leucemia de linfocitos T. Este enfoque también se realizó para analizar la participación de cada una de las calpaínas sobre la regulación de GLUT1. No se pudo estudiar si la CAPN2 participa en la regulación de la captación de glucosa debido a que esta línea no expresa a esta enzima a nivel de mRNA ni de proteína. Se observó que en las células KD para CAPN1, el pulso con 11.1 mM de glucosa indujo la actividad de calpaínas de la misma forma que en las células control; en cambio, en las células KD para CAPN10 no hubo inducción de la actividad en respuesta al pulso con glucosa. Esto demuestra que la CAPN10 es la calpaína responsable del aumento de la actividad general de las calpaínas inducida por el pulso con 11.1 mM de glucosa. Además, este resultado sugiere que el efecto de 0.1 y 1 µM de arsenito sobre la actividad de calpaínas inducida por glucosa se debe principalmente a la inhibición de CAPN10,

mientras que el efecto sobre la actividad basal que se observó con 1 µM de arsenito pueda deberse a la inhibición de las calpaínas típicas, a través de los mecanismos discutidos en el párrafo anterior. Dado que los niveles de mRNA y de proteína de CAPN10 no se modificaron después del tratamiento con arsenito, los mecanismos por los cuales el arsénico inhibe a CAPN10 deberán ser explorados en futuros trabajos. Sin embargo, para esto se requerirá determinar blancos específicos de CAPN10 que nos permitan evaluar su actividad en las células de forma directa, así como estudiar la bioquímica básica de esta enzima, ya que no se conocen sus mecanismos de regulación. En este sentido, se ha descrito que el gen de CAPN10 presenta un proceso complejo de splicing alternativo que puede generar hasta 8 isoformas de mRNA diferentes, algunas de las cuales no codifican para proteínas con un dominio catalítico completo (61). En este trabajo se detectaron solamente 2 isoformas de CAPN10 en los linfocitos primarios en cultivo, mientras que en las células Jurkat se encontraron 4 isoformas diferentes. Esto contrasta con lo que se ha descrito previamente por nuestro grupo en linfocitos humanos que no han estado en cultivo, los cuales expresan 4 isoformas con estequiometrías y pesos moleculares diferentes a los observados en este trabajo(117). Esto plantea la posibilidad de que la regulación del splicing alternativo de CAPN10 sea regulado de manera diferencial entre diferentes líneas celulares o etapas del ciclo celular y que cada isoforma tenga funciones diferentes. Trabajos futuros ayudarán a esclarecer la relevancia de las diferentes isoformas de CAPN10 en sus propiedades enzimáticas y funciones en el organismo.

Por otra parte, los resultados en las líneas celulares KD también demostraron que la CAPN1 y la CAPN10 tienen papeles antagónicos sobre la absorción de glucosa y la estabilidad de GLUT1. En una concentración de glucosa que simula una situación de ayuno (3.9 mM de glucosa), el KD de CAPN1 indujo un aumento de 2.4 veces en la absorción de glucosa, mientras que el KD de CAPN10 indujo una disminución de alrededor del 50 % en la captación de glucosa. Aunque la captación de glucosa se redujo después del pulso con 11.1 mM de glucosa en todas las líneas celulares KD, la diferencia entre los valores medidos en 11.1 y 3.9 mM de glucosa fue menor en las células KD de CAPN10, en comparación con los valores

observados en las células KD de CAPN1 y control. Por lo tanto, el KD de CAPN10 emula en mayor medida los efectos observados en los linfocitos después del tratamiento con arsenito. Esto permite sugerir que la CAPN10 podría ser la principal calpaína que es afectada por el arsénico, desregulando así el tráfico de GLUT1.

Por otra parte, los efectos del arsenito sobre la CAPN1 podrían resultar en una alteración de las funciones en las que esta calpaína está implicada. Por ejemplo, se ha descrito que esta proteasa regula la proliferación de los linfocitos, y su abundancia disminuye en los linfocitos de personas mayores (121). Por lo tanto, en conjunción con la desregulación de GLUT1, la CAPN1 podría estar involucrada en la disminución de la proliferación de los linfocitos y la respuesta inmune que han sido reportadas en gente expuesta a arsénico (114,115,122).

Además, la CAPN1 y la CAPN10 se han implicado en la captación de glucosa y el tráfico de GLUT4 en el músculo esquelético y en los adipocitos (65,81,82). Por lo tanto, el arsénico podría afectar estas proteasas en estos tejidos que están directamente implicados en la regulación de los niveles de glucosa en sangre, contribuyendo al desarrollo de resistencia a la insulina y DT2. Será interesante en futuros estudios evaluar si el arsenito puede inhibir a las calpaínas en estos tejidos tanto en modelos *in vitro* como *in vivo*. Dado que los linfocitos pueden obtenerse por métodos no invasivos, también será interesante evaluar si las alteraciones que se observaron en nuestro modelo de tratamiento a arsenito *in vitro* son reproducibles en linfocitos de poblaciones humanas crónicamente expuestas al arsénico, y que pudieran servir como un biomarcador de riesgo a desarrollar DT2.

Sin embargo, para poder realizar estos estudios, se requiere determinar los blancos específicos de estas proteasas que estén implicados en la regulación de los GLUTs, ya que los sustratos de calpaínas comerciales son inespecíficos y no permiten evaluar la actividad de miembros particulares de esta familia de proteasas ni su participación en procesos concretos de la fisiología celular. Por lo que en este trabajo se demostró que la proteína TUG es un blanco proteolítico de CAPN10 en los adipocitos, que está directamente involucrado en la translocación de GLUT4 hacia la membrana plasmática en respuesta a la insulina.

Se ha propuesto que la proteólisis de TUG es un paso limitante en el tráfico de GLUT4 inducido por insulina (40). Si bien se ha sugerido que esta proteólisis sólo ocurre en adipocitos y músculo esquelético, esto sólo se ha demostrado en algunas líneas celulares, mas no en tejido (45). Por lo tanto, primero se analizó la presencia de fragmentos proteolíticos de TUG en diversos tejidos relacionados con la homeostasis de la glucosa en el cuerpo, tales como el tejido adiposo retroperitoneal, el músculo esquelético, el corazón, el hígado y el páncreas. Contrario a lo que se esperaba, se encontraron muchos fragmentos de TUG en todos estos tejidos, lo que sugiere que hay más de una proteasa involucrada en la proteólisis de esta proteína. Estos fragmentos podrían desempeñar diversos papeles en la regulación del metabolismo celular. Se sabe que las calpaínas realizan una proteólisis limitada de sus sustratos, generando fragmentos que tienen funciones diferentes a las de la proteína intacta, por lo que se les conoce como proteasas reguladoras (51). Esto nos llevó a pensar que las calpaínas pudieran estar involucradas en la proteólisis de TUG y la generación de algunos de estos fragmentos, por lo que se determinó la expresión de CAPN1, CAPN2 y CAPN10 en estos tejidos. Se encontró que en el RAT hay una mayor abundancia de fragmentos autolíticos de CAPN1, lo que sugiere que en este tejido tiene una mayor actividad proteolítica. También se encontró que este tejido expresa más isoformas de CAPN10, en comparación con los otros tejidos analizados. En conjunto con los datos obtenidos en linfocitos, esto corrobora que las isoformas de CAPN10 son producidas de manera tejido-específico.

Para tener más evidencia que pudiera apoyar la idea de que las calpaínas realizan cortes en TUG, se usaron algoritmos de predicción de sitios de cortes por calpaínas en el CaMP DB. Se encontraron varios sitios posibles de escisión mediada por calpaínas, apoyando nuestra hipótesis. Además, la secuencia que abarca tres de estos sitios de escisión en la proteína TUG, que se encuentran además muy cerca del sitio de corte inducido por insulina que ha sido previamente descrito (45), está altamente conservada entre los vertebrados. Esto implica que la proteólisis TUG podría ser un paso altamente conservado en la señalización de insulina a lo largo de la evolución. Utilizando un sistema libre de células con proteínas purificadas, se demostró que la proteína TUG humana recombinante se

escinde directamente por CAPN1 de una manera específica del sitio, generando dos fragmentos C-terminal con un peso molecular aparente de 45 y 35 kDa. Esta evidencia indica que las calpaínas pueden realizar el procesamiento proteolítico de TUG independientemente de otras modificaciones post-traduccionales.

Estos datos nos llevaron a evaluar la posible participación de las calpaínas en el corte de TUG en la línea celular de adipocitos 3T3-L1. En este modelo se encontró que la actividad general de las calpaínas aumentó aproximadamente dos veces después de la estimulación con insulina. Esto podría ser similar a la activación de las calpaínas inducida por el pulso con alta glucosa que ya se describió en los linfocitos. A pesar de que este aumento fue relativamente modesto, se ha descrito que la estimulación de la línea celular de la capa glomerular de la glándula suprarrenal HAC15 con angiotensina II, induce un aumento en la actividad de las calpaínas en 0.31 veces de cambio, y este pequeño cambio es capaz de inducir la producción de aldosterona (72). Por lo tanto, cambios ligeros en la actividad de estas enzimas son suficientes para modular procesos fisiológicos. También se encontró que la abundancia del fragmento autolítico de 40 kDa de CAPN1 incrementó después de la estimulación con insulina, y no se detectó la forma intacta de CAPN1. Esto sugiere que la CAPN1 es altamente inestable en los adipocitos 3T3-L1, y genera fragmentos mediante su procesamiento autolítico. Esto concuerda con lo que se observó en los tejidos de ratón, ya que en el tejido adiposo se observó la mayor abundancia de fragmentos autolíticos. Debido a que se sabe que CAPN1 y CAPN2 realizan un procesamiento autolítico después de su activación (123), se puede sugerir que el incremento en la actividad de las calpaínas inducida por la insulina podría explicarse en parte por la activación de CAPN1, lo cual conlleva al incremento en la abundancia del fragmento de 40 kDa. Si bien no se exploró en este trabajo la función que pudiera desempeñar la activación de CAPN1 inducida por insulina en los adipocitos, se ha reportado que esta proteasa juega un papel fundamental en la diferenciación de los adipocitos in vivo (124). En estas células, la CAPN1 se encuentra principalmente en la periferia nuclear, en dónde regula la transcripción de varios genes involucrados en el programa de diferenciación de los adipocitos, tales como CEBPα y leptina (124). Además, la inhibición de las calpaínas

clásicas (CAPN1 y CAPN2) en el músculo esquelético da como resultado una disminución de la expresión de Akt *in vivo* (65). Por lo tanto, pensamos que la activación de CAPN1 por insulina que se encontró en los adipocitos podría regular la transcripción de genes relacionados con la señalización de la insulina yel mantenimiento de un fenotipo diferenciado de los adipocitos. Futuros estudios enfocados en esta calpaína permitirán demostrar tanto el mecanismo por el cual la insulina induce la activación de CAPN1, como la repercusión que esto tiene en la fisiología del adipocito. Por otra parte, debido a que la CAPN10 es una calpaína atípica, la cual no necesariamente presenta un procesamiento autolítico durante su activación, no podemos excluir su participación en el aumento de la actividad general de las calpaínas inducida por insulina. Se ha demostrado que la CAPN1 puede ser fosforilada en su dominio CysPC y CBSW por la proteína cinasa A, lo cual induce la actividad autolítica de esta enzima (58). Por lo que la insulina pudiera inducir la actividad de las calpaínas a través de la fosforilación de CAPN1 o CAPN10.

En cuanto al curso temporal, se encontró que la actividad de las calpaínas incrementó de forma significativa después de 7 minutos de estimulación con insulina. Se ha reportado que la proteólisis de TUG inducida por insulina se puede detectar a los 5 minutos de estimulación, alcanzando el pico máximo a los 7 minutos (45). La correlación de la proteólisis de TUG con la activación de las calpaínas tanto en el tiempo como en la inducción por diferentes concentraciones de insulina sugiere que las calpaínas pudieran estar implicadas en la proteólisis de TUG en los adipocitos. Estos resultados apoyan la hipótesis de que las calpaínas son activadas por la insulina y que podrían estar involucradas en la proteólisis de TUG.

Para demostrar lo anterior, se diseñó una estrategia de inhibición farmacológica con tres diferentes inhibidores de calpaínas, con la finalidad de evitar falsos positivos debido a los efectos inespecíficos de cada uno de los inhibidores sobre otras familias de proteasas (52). Se encontró que la inhibición de las calpaínas resulta en la reducción de la proteólisis de TUG inducida por insulina, lo cual correlacionó con una disminución en la translocación de GLUT4. Por el contrario, la inhibición de las calpaínas no afectó la fosforilación de Akt. Esto concuerda con datos previos que demuestran que la proteólisis de TUG es mediada por una vía

independiente de Akt (45). Además, esto último demuestra que el efecto de la inhibición de las calpaínas sobre la proteólisis de TUG no se debe a una reducción inespecífica sobre toda la vía de señalización de la insulina.

Si bien la inhibición de la translocación de GLUT4 no fue absoluta, esto está en concordancia con otros trabajos que han mostrado que los inhibidores de calpaína ALLM o E-64d en adipocitos de rata y ALLN en adipocitos 3T3-L1 disminuyen parcialmente la translocación de GLUT4 inducida por insulina (78,81). En conjunto, los datos de este trabajo sugieren que las calpaínas juegan un papel parcial en la translocación de GLUT4, probablemente a través de la movilización de subconjuntos específicos de GLUT4.

Se observó que, en los adipocitos, la CAPN1 y la CAPN2 se localizan principalmente en el núcleo. Este patrón ya se ha observado en adipocitos de la glándula mamaria *in vivo* (124), lo cual nos permite validar el uso de la línea celular de adipocitos 3T3-L1 como un modelo para estudiar a las calpaínas en este linaje celular. Además, la localización de estas dos proteasas sugiere que no están involucradas en la proteólisis de TUG ni en la regulación directa de las GSVs. Por el contrario, la localización de la CAPN10 se observó en el núcleo y en las regiones perinucleares de los adipocitos, donde co-localizó con GLUT4 en ausencia del estímulo con insulina, y disminuyó después de la estimulación con insulina, sugiriendo que CAPN10 no se moviliza con las GSVs. Si bien no se ha identificado ninguna calpaína asociada a las GSVs mediante estudios proteómicos (125,126), esto podría deberse a que la CAPN10 interactúa transitoriamente con TUG y con las GSVs, perdiéndose la interacción después de la proteólisis de TUG.

Finalmente, se demostró la participación de CAPN10 en la proteólisis de TUG utilizando dos estrategias diferentes para silenciar a esta proteasa. Utilizando ambas estrategias se logró disminuir la abundancia de todas las bandas detectadas por el anticuerpo contra CAPN10, así como la señal detectada en las inmunofluorescencias, lo que en conjunto con los datos obtenidos en la línea celular Jurkat nos permiten concluir que estas bandas corresponden a isoformas de la CAPN10. Por otra parte, ninguno de los modelos de silenciamiento de CAPN10 usados en este trabajo, tuvo efecto sobre la fosforilación de Akt, lo cual confirma los

trabajos previos que utilizaron inhibidores de calpaínas o modelos de KD en adipocitos y células de músculo esquelético (81,82). Estos datos indican que las vías de señalización dependientes de CAPN10 son independientes de Akt. Por el contrario, el silenciamiento de CAPN10 disminuyó la proteólisis de TUG inducida por insulina sin alterar la proteólisis de TUG en el estado no estimulado, lo cual concuerda con los datos obtenidos con los inhibidores de calpaínas. La disminución en la proteólisis de TUG correlacionó además con una menor translocación de GLUT4 hacia la membrana plasmática, confirmando que la proteólisis de TUG mediada por CAPN10 regula el tráfico de este transportador.

Recientemente, se reportó que TUG también es un blanco de la proteasa Usp25m, que genera fragmentos N y C-terminales (49). En esta vía, el fragmento N-terminal, llamado TUGUL, se une a la cinesina KIF5B y este complejo TUGUL-KIF5B induce la translocación de las GSVs (49). Debido a que observamos diferentes fragmentos C-terminales de TUG en los tejidos involucrados en la homeostasis de la glucosa, será interesante determinar las funciones de estos fragmentos en la regulación del metabolismo de la glucosa. Al comparar las características de la proteólisis de TUG por estas dos proteasas, se observó que la abundancia de GLUT4 fue disminuida por el silenciamiento de USP25m (49), mientras que el silenciamiento de CAPN10 no afectó la abundancia de este transportador. Lo cual podría sugerir que la estabilidad y la regulación de este transportador es regulada diferencialmente por estas proteasas. Además, el silenciamiento de Usp25m resultó en la inhibición completa de la proteólisis de TUG, mientras que al silenciar a CAPN10 sólo se redujo la proteólisis de TUG inducida por insulina, sin alterar la proteólisis basal.

En conjunto con los datos de otros trabajos que han mostrado que los inhibidores de calpaínas y el silenciamiento de CAPN10 reducen parcialmente la translocación de GLUT4 y la captación de glucosa estimulada por insulina en los adipocitos 3T3-L1 y en las células del músculo esquelético humano (78,81,82). De aquí que sugerimos que la CAPN10 podría actuar como una proteasa de respaldo en la señalización por insulina y que podría ser relevante durante los procesos patológicos asociados al desarrollo de la DT2. Este modelo de participación de las

calpaínas en procesos fisiológicos y patológicos no es nuevo, ya que se ha observado en el caso de las CAPN8 y CAPN9 (56). Estas calpaínas se expresan casi exclusivamente en la mucosa gástrica, en donde participan en el tráfico vesicular del aparato de Golgi y en la secreción de mucinas (56). Si bien el ratón KO para cualquiera de estas proteasas es fenotípicamente normal en condiciones normales, al ser tratados con etanol en el agua de bebida estos ratones desarrollan muchas más úlceras gástricas en comparación con los ratones normales, sugiriendo que la función de algunas calpaínas puede ser importante al exponer al organismo ante factores ambientales que puedan inducir enfermedades.

En otro estudio reciente, se identificó a la familia de proteínas asociadas a microtúbulos 1 (MAP1) como blancos específicos de la CAPN10, regulando así la dinámica del citoesqueleto de actina (80). Este punto es interesante, ya que la vía de señalización que regula la dinámica de la actina en adipocitos después de un estímulo con insulina (la vía de TC10α)(47), es la misma vía que regula la proteólisis de TUG, sugiriendo que CAPN10 es una parte importante de esta rama en la vía de señalización por insulina. Con base en los datos de este trabajo, en futuros trabajos se podrán usar la proteólisis de estas proteínas en diferentes tipos celulares implicados en la homeostasis de la glucosa para evaluar directamente la actividad de la CAPN10 en respuesta a factores que incrementan el riesgo a desarrollar DT2, tales como la exposición a arsénico o las dietas obesogénicas.

## 9. Conclusiones

- El arsenito disminuye la internalización de GLUT1 inducida por glucosa en los linfocitos a través de la inhibición del sistema de las calpaínas a través de la sobreexpresión de CAST, que es el inhibidor endógeno de las calpaínas.
- El arsenito de sodio induce un incremento en la autodegradación de la CAPN1 en presencia y en ausencia de Ca<sup>2+</sup>.
- En los linfocitos, el silenciamiento de CAPN1 incrementa la captación de glucosa, mientras que el silenciamiento de CAPN10 lo disminuye, sugiriendo que el efecto del arsénico se debe principalmente a la inhibición de CAPN10.

 Se identificó a la proteína TUG como un blanco de la CAPN10, mediante el cual promueve la externalización de GLUT4 estimulada por insulina.



Figura 21. Modelos propuestos a partir de las conclusiones de este trabajo. A) Efecto del arsenito de sodio sobre el tráfico de GLUT1 mediado por calpaínas. Se indica la activación de CAPN10 inducida por el incremento en la concentración de glucosa extracelular. Esta a su vez promueve la externalización de GLUT1. Las flechas discontinuas indican efectos que podrían ser mediados por vías de señalización aún no descritas. CAPN1 por el contrario, promueve la internalización de GLUT1, independientemente de la concentración de glucosa. El arsénico (en rojo) inhibe el tráfico de GLUT1 inducido por glucosa a través de la inhibición de la CAPN10 (flecha gruesa trunca). Además, el arsénico es capaz de inducir la autodegradación de CAPN1 y de incrementar los niveles de su inhibidor endógeno CAST. B) Papel de la CAPN10 en la proteólisis de TUG como un mecanismo a través del cual regula el tráfico de GLUT4 en adipocitos. La estimulación con insulina induce la activación de CAPN10, la cual proteoliza a la proteína TUG (morado) y a la proteína MAP1B (naranja, descrito por Hata, et al. 2018), lo cual conlleva a la liberación de las vesículas almacenadoras de GLUT4 y al re-arreglo del citoesqueleto, promoviendo la externalización de GLUT4. Imágenes generadas en BioRender.com

## 10. Perspectivas

- Determinar a nivel bioquímico el efecto del arsenito de sodio sobre las calpaínas (alteración de sus constantes cinéticas, especificidad por sustratos, afinidad por Ca<sup>2+</sup>, sitios de unión a arsénico).
- Determinar en adipocitos, si el arsenito altera la proteólisis de TUG y la externalización de GLUT4 mediadas por CAPN10.
- Determinar el o los mecanismos por los cuales el arsenito inhibe a la CAPN10.
- Determinar el efecto fisiológico de la inhibición de las calpaínas clásicas (CAPN1 y CAPN2) mediada por la sobreexpresión de CAST que indujo el arsenito.

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## Anexo I: Artículos originales

Arsenic impairs GLUT1 trafficking through the inhibition of the calpain system in lymphocytes. **Pánico P**, Juárez-Nájera A, Iturriaga-Goyon E, Ostrosky-Wegman P, Salazar AM. Toxicol Appl Pharmacol. 2019 Oct 1;380:114700. doi: 10.1016/j.taap.2019.114700.

TUG is a calpain-10 substrate involved in the translocation of GLUT4 in adipocytes. **Pánico P**, Hiriart M, Ostrosky-Wegman P, Salazar AM. J Mol Endocrinol. 2020 Jul. doi: https://doi.org/10.1530/JME-19-0253

# Anexo II: Artículos secundarios generados durante el doctorado.

Role of calpain-10 in the development of diabetes mellitus and its complications
Pánico P, Salazar AM, Burns AL, Ostrosky-Wegman P.
Arch Med Res. 2014 Feb;45(2):103-15. doi: 10.1016/j.arcmed.2014.01.005. Epub 2014 Feb 4. Review.

Calpain Activity in Leukocytes is Associated with Diabetes Biochemical Markers Salazar AM, **Pánico P**, Burns AL, Díaz-Villaseñor A, Torres-Arellano JM, Juárez-Nájera A, González-Pimienta RE, Alvarez-Sekely AM, Zacarías-Castillo R, Ostrosky-Wegman P.

Arch Med Res. 2019 Nov 29;50(7):451-460. doi: 10.1016/j.arcmed.2019.11.009. [Epub ahead of print]



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## Arsenic impairs GLUT1 trafficking through the inhibition of the calpain system in lymphocytes



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ARTICLE INFO	A B S T R A C T
Keywords: Arsenic Glucose uptake Calpain GLUT1 Lymphocytes	Exposure to arsenic is associated with increased risk of developing insulin resistance and type 2 diabetes. The proteases calpain-1 (CAPN1), calpain-2 (CAPN2) and calpain-10 (CAPN10) and their endogenous inhibitor calpastatin (CAST) regulate glucose uptake in skeletal muscle and adipocytes. We investigated whether arsenic disrupts GLUT1 trafficking and function through calpain inhibition, using lymphocytes as a cell model. Lymphocytes from healthy subjects were treated with 0.1 or 1 $\mu$ M of sodium arsenite for 72 h and challenged with 3.9 or 11.1 mM of glucose. Our results showed that arsenite inhibited GLUT1 trafficking, glucose uptake, and calpain activity in the presence of 11.1 mM of glucose. These correlated with a decrease in the autolytical fragment of 50 kDa of CAPN1 and increased levels of CAST, but there were no changes in CAPN2 and CAPN10. We used a cell-free system to evaluate the effect of arsenite over CAPN1, finding that arsenite induced CAPN1 autolysis. To confirm that calpains are involved in GLUT1 trafficking and glucose uptake, we generated stable CAPN1 or CAPN10 knockdowns in Jurkat cells using short hairpin RNA (shRNA). CAPN1 knockdown induced glucose uptake, which correlated with a significant reduction of calpain activity after the pulse with 11.1 mM of glucose. These data showed that

impairs GLUT1 trafficking and function through calpain dysregulation.

1. Introduction

Arsenic is a naturally occurring pollutant widely distributed in the soil, air, and groundwater (ATSDR, 2013). Epidemiological studies have found that people exposed to arsenic in drinking water are at a higher risk of developing several chronic diseases such as many types of cancer, cardiovascular and neurodegenerative diseases, and type 2 diabetes (T2D) (Hong et al., 2014; Martin et al., 2016). Arsenic intake is associated with a higher risk of developing insulin resistance (IR) in human populations, and is able to impair glucose homeostasis in animal models (Huang et al., 2015; Lin et al., 2014; Palacios et al., 2012; Park et al., 2016). Although the molecular effects of high concentrations of arsenic over the regulation of the glucose metabolism have been widely documented (Paul et al., 2011, 2007; Walton et al., 2004), the mechanisms affected by low concentrations of arsenic are not well understood.

Calpains are a family of calcium-dependent, non-lysosomal cysteine proteases (Ono and Sorimachi, 2012). Calpains, together with their endogenous inhibitor, calpastatin (CAST), integrate the calpain system (Ono and Sorimachi, 2012). Some of these proteases have been involved in cellular processes related to glucose metabolism. The classical calpains, calpain-1 (CAPN1) and calpain-2 (CAPN2) are implicated in the protein stability of GLUT4 and GLUT1 and the glucose uptake in the skeletal muscle in vivo (Otani et al., 2004). Moreover, calpain-10 (CAPN10) is involved in the glucose-stimulated insulin secretion in beta cells, as well as in the trafficking of the glucose transporter GLUT4, and the insulin-stimulated glucose uptake in adipocytes and skeletal muscle cells (Brown et al., 2007; Marshall et al., 2005; Paul et al., 2003). However, the dysregulation of these proteases in the development of IR and T2D by environmental factors, such as arsenic, remains to be further explored. Our previous work showed that low doses of arsenic reduced insulin secretion in beta cells through the inhibition of the

CAPN10 was responsible for the induction of calpain activity after the challenge with 11.1 mM of glucose and that CAPN1 and CAPN10 regulate glucose uptake in lymphocytes. Altogether, our results suggest that arsenite

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proteolysis of SNAP25 by CAPN10 (Díaz-Villaseñor et al., 2008a), suggesting that calpains could be a target in the development of T2D by arsenic.

Lymphocytes have been proposed as a valuable cellular model for the study of alterations in glucose transporter dysregulation occurring in T2D (Kipmen-Korgun et al., 2009; Oleszczak et al., 2012; Piątkiewicz et al., 2007). In lymphocytes, the main glucose transporter GLUT1, is regulated through PI3K/Akt-dependent and independent pathways, just as in adipocytes and skeletal muscle cells (Dimeloe et al., 2016; Jacobs et al., 2008). Moreover, it has been shown that glucose uptake is altered in leukocytes from patients with T2D and those with polycystic ovary syndrome (Oleszczak et al., 2014; Piatkiewicz et al., 2007). In Otsuka Long-Evans Tokushima fatty (OLETF) rats, which develop type 2 diabetes spontaneously at 18 weeks, it was found that the expression levels of CAPN10 were reduced in white blood cells and this correlated with the expression levels in the liver and adipose tissue, even before the onset of the disease (Sato et al., 2003). In a previous study, we found that the activity of the calpain system in leukocytes from non-T2D subjects was increased after stimulation with high glucose concentrations, and this response is impaired in patients with T2D (Díaz-Villaseñor et al., 2008b), thus suggesting that calpains could be implicated in the glucose metabolism of lymphocytes. Altogether, these data suggest that lymphocytes can be used as a cell model to study alterations in glucose metabolism during T2D and that could reflect the alterations in organs directly related with the glucose homeostasis in the body. In the present study, we investigated whether arsenite disrupts GLUT1 trafficking and function, and if the calpain system could be implicated in GLUT1 functioning in lymphocytes.

### 2. Materials and methods

### 2.1. Subjects and blood sample collection

Peripheral blood samples were taken from healthy male volunteers. The inclusion criteria were individuals with age range between 20 and 30 years, without metabolic syndrome, obesity or diabetes, non-smokers, and those without chronic or infectious diseases 2 weeks prior sampling. The samples were taken after 8 h of fasting in tubes with heparin (BD Vacutainer<sup>®</sup>, Beckton, Dickinson and Company, Franklin Lakes, NJ USA). An informed consent form was signed by each participant.

### 2.2. Mononuclear cell isolation

Peripheral blood mononuclear cells were isolated by Ficoll-Hypaque-1077 gradient (Sigma-Aldrich, St Louis, MO USA). After isolation, cells were washed twice with saline solution (PBS), and the lymphocytes were counted using an Attune<sup>®</sup> flow cytometer with a blue/violet laser (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA USA). Lymphocytes were discriminated by forward scatter cytometry (FSC) and side scatter cytometry (SSC) plotting.

Lymphocytes were seeded at a density of  $0.5 \times 10^6$  cells/mL in RPMI-1640 without glucose (Sigma-Aldrich, St Louis, MO USA) supplemented with 5.6 mM of glucose, 1% of non-essential amino acids (Sigma-Aldrich, St Louis, MO USA), 10 mM of glutamine (Sigma-Aldrich, St Louis, MO USA), 0.5% of antibiotic-antimycotic ( $100 \times$ , Gibco©, Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA USA) and 10% of heat-inactivated fetal bovine serum (Gibco©, Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA USA). Lymphocytes were maintained in a humidified incubator at 37 °C and 5% of CO<sub>2</sub>.

#### 2.3. Sodium arsenite treatments and pulse with glucose

Sodium arsenite (NaAsO<sub>2</sub>, Sigma-Aldrich, St Louis, MO USA) was dissolved in bidistilled water (ddH<sub>2</sub>O) as a 1 M stock. From this stock, serial dilutions in ddH<sub>2</sub>O were prepared prior to use. Sodium arsenite

treatment with 0.1 or 1  $\mu$ M was performed 4 h after seeding cells. The volume of water with arsenite was of 10  $\mu$ L per mL of medium. The cells were incubated with arsenite for 72 h. For experiments that did not require glucose pulse, the cells were used immediately after arsenite treatment. For glucose pulses, fresh glucose was dissolved in Krebs Ringer HEPES buffer (KRH, 115 mM NaCl, 5 mM KCl, 1 mM KH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>, 2 mM CaCl<sub>2</sub>, 1.2 mM MgSO<sub>4</sub>, 25 mM HEPES, pH 7.4 at 37 °C) to a final concentration of 3.9 or 11.1 mM of glucose. The glucose pulses were performed according to Sections 2.6, 2.7 and 2.11. Aliquots of cells were centrifuged at 1540 × g for 5 min and were used for the evaluation of the measured parameters.

## 2.4. Jurkat cell culture and establishment of stable knockdown (KD) cell lines

The Jurkat cell line was obtained from the American Type Culture Collection (Cat: TIB-152, ATCC, Manassas, VA USA). The cells were maintained in RPMI-1640 medium (Gibco©, Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA USA) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum and kept in a humidified incubator at 37 °C and 5% CO<sub>2</sub>. Cultures of  $0.1 \times 10^6$  cells were transduced with Mission<sup>™</sup> short hairpin RNA (shRNA) lentiviral particles (Sigma-Aldrich, St Louis, MO USA) containing the PLKO.1 plasmid with an shRNA against CAPN1 (CAPN1<sup>shRNA</sup>, SHCLNV-NM 005186), CAPN10 (CAPN10<sup>shRNA</sup>, SHCLNV-NM 021251), or a nonmammalian control shRNA (NM<sup>shRNA</sup>, SHC002V), along with a puromycin-resistance gene, according to the manufacturer's protocol. Briefly, the cells were seeded in growth media, and the lentiviral particles were added at a multiplicity of infection (MOI) of 2. The lentiviral particles were incubated for 24 h, and the media was replaced and incubated for another 24 h. Then, 2 µg/mL of puromycin (Sigma-Aldrich, St Louis, MO USA) was added to the medium to establish the stable cell lines. The media with puromycin was replaced every 48 h for 2 weeks before performing the experiments.

### 2.5. Determination of cell viability

After the treatment for 72 h with 0, 0.1 or 1  $\mu$ M of sodium arsenite, aliquots of 0.1 × 10<sup>6</sup> cells were stained for 30 min in ice with phycoerythrin-conjugated Annexin-V (BD Biosciences, Franklin Lakes, NJ US, dilution factor (DF) 1:100) and 7-amino actinomycin D (BD Biosciences, Franklin Lakes, NJ US, DF 30  $\mu$ L/mL) in 1 × Guava Nexin buffer (Guava Technologies, Hayward, CA USA). A total of 10,000 cells were evaluated in each condition by duplicate using the Attune® flow cytometer (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA USA) with the BL2 and BL3 channels. Staining controls for each channel were used to compensate fluorescence levels in each experiment. Annexin V-negative and 7-AAD-negative cells were considered as viable cells.

### 2.6. Calpain activity assay

For calpain activity,  $0.5 \times 10^6$  cells per triplicate were resuspended in KRH buffer freshly supplemented with 3.9 or 11.1 mM of glucose. Once the cells were resuspended, the fluorogenic calpain substrate tBoc-Leu-Met-CMAC (12.5 µM Molecular Probes©, Invitrogen, Carlsbad CA, USA) was added in KRH with the appropriate glucose concentration. The cells were incubated for 25 min in a water bath at 37 °C. For Jurkat KD cell lines, aliquots of  $0.5 \times 10^6$  cells were serum and glucosestarved for 2 h in RPMI-1640 without glucose (Gibco©, Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA USA), supplemented with 5.6 mM of glucose. Subsequently, the cells were incubated in KRH with 3.9 or 11.1 mM of glucose for 30 min before the addition of the fluorogenic calpain substrate for 15 min. All the cells were fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde in PBS. The fluorescence levels were determined immediately in 10,000 cells with the Attune\* flow cytometer (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA USA), using the VL1 channel.
# 2.7. Determination of the abundance of GLUT1 in the plasmatic membrane by flow cytometry

Two aliquots of  $0.2 \times 10^6$  cells of each condition were used in each experiment. Medium was removed, and cells were resuspended in KRH buffer supplemented with 3.9 or 11.1 mM of glucose. Cells were incubated for 12 min at 37 °C in water bath. After incubation, cells were centrifuged at 1540  $\times$  g for 5 min at 4 °C and the supernatant was discarded. The cells were incubated with mouse monoclonal antibody against the extracellular domain of GLUT1 (LifeSpan Biosciences, Inc. LS-C129284, Seattle, WA USA) diluted 1:100 in PBS with 3% of bovine serum albumin (BSA). Cells were incubated for 30 min in ice and washed once with ice cold PBS. Secondary antibody Odot<sup>®</sup> 655 goat F (ab') 2 anti-mouse (Molecular Probes©, Invitrogen, Carlsbad CA, USA) was used 1:1000 for GLUT1 detection in PBS-3% BSA. Cells were incubated in ice for 15 min in the dark. After incubation, cells were washed twice with ice-cold PBS and resuspended in 300 µL of PBS. Staining controls using only the secondary antibody were included in each experiment. Twenty thousand events were analyzed in the Attune® flow cytometer (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA USA) using the BL3 channel.

#### 2.8. Calpain-1 autolysis in vitro

The only purified active calpain commercially available was the human-calpain-1 from human erythrocytes (Calbiochem, 208713, Lot: D00168933, San Diego, CA USA). For each condition, 1.8 µg of humancalpain-1 (1 μL of the original stock in 20 mM imidazole, 5 mM βmercaptoethanol, 1 mM EDTA, 1 mM EGTA, 30% glycerol, pH 6.8) was preincubated with  $2 \,\text{mM}$  of dithiothreitol (DTT,  $0.15 \,\mu\text{L}$  of a  $15 \,\text{mM}$ DTT stock in water) for 20 min on ice. After the preincubation with DTT, 1.1 µL of the enzyme was mixed with 20 µL of calpain reaction buffer (150 mM NaCl, 20 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.4, 1 mM DTT, 0.1% BSA), supplemented with 0, 0.01, 0.1 or 1 uM of sodium arsenite (final volume of 23.1 µL). Samples were incubated overnight at 4 °C with agitation. After incubation with arsenite, 200 µM of CaCl2 were added and incubated at 37 °C for 10 min to induce calpain activation. The reaction was stopped with  $10 \,\mu\text{L}$  of  $3 \times$  sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS) sample buffer (187.5 mM Tris-HCl (pH 6.8), 6% w/v SDS, 30% glycerol, 150 mM DTT, 0.03% w/v bromophenol blue). The samples were heated for 5 min at 85 °C. To detect the CAPN1 levels, the samples were processed as in the Western blot section.

#### 2.9. Protein extraction and Western blot

Cultures of  $1\times 10^6$  cells were washed once with ice-cold PBS. The cells were lysed with PBS + 0.1% Triton X100 + 1% SDS supplemented with the Halt cocktail of protease and phosphatase inhibitors (Invitrogen, Carlsbad CA, USA) and incubated on ice for 10 min. Lysates were centrifuged for 18 min at  $10,410 \times g$ , and supernatants were stored at -70 °C until needed. Protein extracts were quantified with DC<sup>™</sup> Protein Assay (Bio-Rad Laboratories, Hercules, CA USA). For CAPN1, CAPN2, CAPN10, and GLUT1, total protein (35 µg) was loaded with Laemmli buffer after 5 min of denaturation at 85 °C in 12% SDSpolyacrylamide gels. Proteins were transferred onto nitrocellulose membranes in a semi-dry chamber (BioRad Laboratories, Hercules, CA USA) at 15 V for 50 min. For CAST detection, the procedure was the same except that samples were loaded with Laemmli buffer in absence of  $\beta$ -mercaptoethanol and without the denaturation process. Membranes were blocked for 1 h with tris-buffered saline (TBS) + 1% Tween-20 with 4% low-fat milk (Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Dallas, TX USA). Primary antibodies were rabbit anti-calpain 10 antibody-domain III (Abcam, Cambridge, MS USA, ab28226, 1:1000 overnight at 4 °C), mu-calpain antibody (Thermo Scientific, MA3-940, 1:1000 overnight at 4°C), rabbit anti-calpain 2 antibody [EPR5977] (Abcam, Cambridge, MS USA, ab126600, 1:5000 for 1 h at room temperature), rabbit anticalpastatin antibody (Abcam, Cambridge, MS USA, ab28252, 1:5000 overnight at 4 °C), solute carrier family 2 (facilitated glucose transporter), member 1 mouse anti-human (LifeSpan Biosciences, Inc. Seattle, WA USA, LS-C129284, 1:1000 overnight at 4 °C) and goat antibeta actin antibody (Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Dallas, TX USA) as loading control. As secondary antibodies, goat anti-mouse (1:4000), goat anti-rabbit (1:6000) and donkey anti-goat (1:2000) conjugated with Horseradish peroxidase antibodies (Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Dallas, TX USA) were used. The blots were developed using the Amersham enhanced chemiluminiscence Prime Western blotting detection reagent (GE Healthcare Life Sciences, Chicago, IL USA).

#### 2.10. RNA extraction and real-time polymerase chain reaction (PCR)

Total RNA was extracted from  $2 \times 10^6$  cells using the RNeasy mini kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) according to the manufacturer's protocol. The RNA concentration was determined using a Nanodrop. Synthesis of the cDNA was performed using 300 ng of total RNA with the SuperScript III First-Strand Synthesis SuperMix kit (Invitrogen, Carlsbad CA, USA) and random hexamer primers according to manufacturer's protocol. The mRNA expression levels were assessed using real-time quantitative PCR with 15 ng of total RNA and TaqMan Universal Master Mix (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA USA). The expression levels were assessed with the TaqMan probes against CAPN1 (Hs00559804\_m1, Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA USA), CAPN2 (Hs00965097\_m1, Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA USA), CAPN10 (Hs01550167\_m1, Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA USA), and CAST (Hs00156280\_m1, Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA USA). The expression of the glucuronidase B (GUSB, probe number Hs00939627\_m1, Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA USA) was used as the endogenous control. All the assays were performed in triplicate. The analysis of RNA expression was performed according to the  $2^{-\Delta\Delta Ct}$  method (Pfaffl, 2001). The expression levels of all measured genes were normalized to the levels of GUSB gene expression and to expression levels in non-treated cells.

#### 2.11. Glucose uptake assay

For glucose uptake assays, two aliquots of  $0.5 \times 10^6$  cells were used for each condition. The cells were washed twice with PBS and were resuspended in KRH buffer supplemented with 3.9 or 11.1 mM of glucose. Cytochalasin B (50 µM) in KRH buffer with 3.9 mM of glucose was used as a positive control of glucose uptake inhibition. Lymphocytes were incubated for 10 min and Jurkat cells for 30 min at 37 °C, and 2deoxyglucose (2DG) was added to the KRH buffer (1 mM) and incubated for 20 min. After 2DG incubation, cells were washed twice with PBS, and the 2DG uptake was measured with the glucose uptake assay kit (Abcam, Cambridge, MS USA). This kit evaluates the levels of 2deoxyglucose 6-phosphate through a series of enzymatic reactions. The 2-deoxyglucose 6-phosphate is the glucose that entered into the cell and was phosphorylated by hexokinase and is unable to get out from the cell. The procedure was done according to manufacturer protocol.

#### 2.12. Statistical analysis

To analyze the experiments evaluated by flow cytometry we used the FlowJo V10.0 software (Beckton, Dickinson and Company, Franklin Lakes, NJ USA). The cell viability was determined as the frequency of viable cells (AV negative and 7AAD negative staining) in each sample. The calpain activity and GLUT1 abundance in the plasma membrane were measured by the median of fluorescence intensity (MIF) in each sample. The values of these experiments were normalized to the MIF measured in the non-treated (NT) cells or the cells transduced with the NM<sup>shRNA</sup>, under the condition of 3.9 mM of glucose. For Western blot analysis, the optical densitometry (O.D.) of the bands was performed using the Image Studio Lite V. 4.0 software (LI-COR Biosciences, NE, USA). Values of O.D. were adjusted to the O.D. of beta-actin and then to the levels observed in NT cells. Data were analyzed with GraphPad Prism 5.0 software (San Diego, CA USA). Statistically significant differences were considered with p < .05. Experiments in which the cells were only treated with arsenite or in the KD models were analyzed by one-way ANOVA with Dunnett's *post hoc* test. The experiments in which the cells were analyzed with two-way ANOVA with Tukey's *post hoc* test. All the experiments were performed at least with biological triplicates each with technical duplicates.

#### 3. Results

#### 3.1. Arsenite did not reduce the cell viability

To evaluate the effect of arsenite on the glucose metabolism in lymphocytes under a subchronic treatment, we treated human lymphocytes with 0, 0.1 or 1  $\mu$ M of sodium arsenite for 72 h. These concentrations were chosen because they are in the rank of arsenic concentrations found in human populations chronically exposed through drinking water (Lemarie et al., 2006; Pi et al., 2000; Wu et al., 2003). To exclude the effect of cytotoxicity, we evaluated the cell viability using a method based on the dual staining that can identify apoptotic, necrotic, and viable cells. The cell viability remained above 85% for all the arsenite concentrations tested (99.46 ± 2.67 and 89.51 ± 2.21% in the cells treated with 0.1 or 1  $\mu$ M of arsenite respectively, compared with 99.80 ± 1.63% in control untreated cells), demonstrating that the arsenite concentrations used were non-cytotoxic.

#### 3.2. Arsenite inhibits GLUT1 trafficking and glucose uptake

To determine whether arsenite could alter the glucose uptake in lymphocytes, we evaluated the total protein levels and the membrane abundance of GLUT1, which is the main glucose transporter of human lymphocytes. Arsenite treatments did not alter the total levels of GLUT1 protein (Fig. 1A and B). Next, we challenged the lymphocytes with a pulse of 3.9 or 11.1 mM of extracellular glucose (equivalent to 70 and 200 mg/dL, respectively), to stimulate GLUT1 trafficking. These concentrations correspond to the lower limit of fasting glycaemia and to the upper limit of postprandial glycaemia in non-diabetic subjects, respectively (American Diabetes Association, 2016). The abundance of



GLUT1 in the cell membrane was evaluated by flow cytometry. As has been previously reported (Oleszczak et al., 2012), the high glucose concentration induced a decrease of GLUT1 levels at the cell membrane, resulting in a negative delta value of the abundance of GLUT1 at 11.1 mM of extracellular glucose compared with the abundance evaluated at 3.9 mM of extracellular glucose (Fig. 1C). The treatment with 0.1 and 1  $\mu$ M of arsenite inhibited the glucose-induced internalization of GLUT1 in a dose dependent manner (Fig. 1C). In concordance with the effects on GLUT1 membrane trafficking, the glucose uptake in nontreated cells was diminished after the challenge with the high glucose concentration (decrease of 77%), while the response in the lymphocytes treated with 0.1 and 1  $\mu$ M of arsenite was diminished (decrease of 44 and 50%, respectively) (Fig. 1D).

#### 3.3. Arsenite inhibits the activity of the calpain system

We tested the effects of arsenite over CAPN1, CAPN2, CAPN10, and the endogenous inhibitor of calpains, CAST. Arsenite treatment induced a concentration-dependent increase of the levels of CAST protein, reaching a two-fold increase with 1 µM of arsenite, without altering the expression of CAST mRNA (Fig. 2A and B, Table 1). There were no significant differences in the levels of the intact CAPN1 with arsenic treatment, although the mRNA expression increased significantly with 0.1 and 1 µM of arsenite (increase of 77 and 64%, respectively) (Fig. 2A and B, Table 1). In contrast, the levels of the autolytical fragment of CAPN1 of 50 kDa, which indirectly indicates the proteolytic activity of this enzyme, were significantly reduced by 1 µM of arsenite (reduction of 40%) (Fig. 2A and B), suggesting that arsenite could be inhibiting CAPN1. The protein and mRNA of CAPN2 were not altered by the arsenite concentrations tested (Fig. 2A and B, Table 1). We found that under these conditions, lymphocytes only expressed two CAPN10 isoforms of 60 and 50 kDa, which remained unchanged after arsenite treatments (Fig. 2A and B). The mRNA of CAPN10 also remained unchanged (Table 1).

To directly test the effects of arsenite over the proteolytic activity of calpains, we evaluated their activity using a fluorogenic substrate after a challenge with 3.9 or 11.1 mM of extracellular glucose. In the non-treated cells, the calpain activity was increased 16% after the challenge with 11.1 mM of extracellular glucose, compared with the activity measured after the challenge with 3.9 mM of extracellular glucose. In the cells treated with 0.1  $\mu$ M of arsenite, we did not observe the increase in calpain activity induced by 11.1 mM of extracellular glucose,

Fig. 1. Arsenite inhibited the internalization of GLUT1 and the glucose uptake, without changes in GLUT1 abundance. A) Representative Western blot of the total GLUT1 in lymphocytes treated with 0.1 or 1 µM of arsenite for 72 h. B) Densitometric analysis of the Western blots. Actin was used as the loading control, and the GLUT1 levels were adjusted to the values in nontreated (NT) cells. C) The internalization of GLUT1 induced was calculated by the difference of membrane levels of GLUT1 after the challenge with a pulse of extracellular glucose of 3.9 mM or 11.1 mM. D) The delta value of the 2-deoxyglucose uptake was calculated as in C. The box and whiskers represent the median, the data distribution, and the maximum and minimum values of 5 independent subjects with technical duplicates. Data were analyzed using one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) and Dunnett post-hoc test. \*p < .05.



**Fig. 2.** Arsenite treatment inhibited the calpain system. A) Representative immunoblots of calpastatin (CAST), calpain-1 (CAPN1), calpain-2 (CAPN2), and calpain-10 (CAPN10) isoforms of protein extracts from lymphocytes treated with arsenite for 72 h. B) Densitometric analysis of the bands of CAST, CAPN1, CAPN2, and CAPN10. Actin abundance was used as the loading control. The data were adjusted to the protein levels in non-treated (NT) cells. C) Calpain activity was evaluated after a challenge with 3.9 mM or 11.1 mM of extracellular glucose in lymphocytes treated with 0.1 or 1  $\mu$ M of sodium arsenite for 72 h. Data were normalized to the calpain activity in the NT cells after challenge with 3.9 mM of extracellular glucose. D) Human-CAPN1 was incubated with 0.01, 0.1 or 1  $\mu$ M of arsenite overnight before inducing autolysis with Ca<sup>2+</sup> for 10 min. Representative experiment of 3 independent experiments is shown. ALLM: N-Acetyl-L-leucyl-L-leucyl-L-methioninal, also known as calpain inhibitor II. The box and whiskers represent the median, the data distribution, and the maximum and minimum values of 6 independent subjects with technical duplicates. In B, the data were analyzed using one-way ANOVA and Dunnett post-hoc test (\*p < .05, \*\*p < .01). Data in C were analyzed with a two-way ANOVA with Tukey's *post hoc* test. Boxes with different superscript letters are statistically different from one another (p < .05), in which boxes with letter a > b > c.

#### Table 1

mRNA levels of CAST, CAPN1, CAPN2 and CAPN10 in lymphocytes treated with arsenite for 72 h.

	NaAsO <sub>2</sub> (µM)		
	0	0.1	1
CAST CAPN1 CAPN2 CAPN10	$\begin{array}{c} 1 \ \pm \ 0.0 \\ 1 \ \pm \ 0.0 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{rrrr} 0.834 \ \pm \ 0.159 \\ 1.770 \ \pm \ 0.808^* \\ 1.197 \ \pm \ 0.265 \\ 1.187 \ \pm \ 0.333 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{r} 1.030 \ \pm \ 0.169 \\ 1.638 \ \pm \ 0.750^{\circ} \\ 1.112 \ \pm \ 0.097 \\ 1.012 \ \pm \ 0.067 \end{array}$

Data presented as the mean fold change  $\pm$  standard deviation. Values were obtained from three independent subjects with technical triplicates and adjusted to GUSB mRNA levels and the expression levels of non-treated cells (0). Analysis performed using one-way ANOVA with Dunnett's post-hoc test (\*p < .05).

although no changes in calpain activity with 3.9 mM of extracellular glucose were observed compared with non-treated cells. The lymphocytes treated with 1  $\mu$ M of arsenite had a 37.2% decrease of the calpain activity measured under both glucose concentrations (Fig. 2C). Thus, these results indicate that arsenite inhibits calpain proteolytic activity.

We also evaluated whether arsenite could have a direct effect over calpain enzymes. Our approach was performed using human calpain-1 because it was the only purified calpain with proteolytic activity. The autolytical activity of CAPN1 was evaluated after incubation of purified CAPN1 with 0.01, 0.1, or 1 µM of arsenite. We found that in the absence of Ca<sup>2+</sup>, arsenite induced the autolysis of CAPN1, increasing the abundances of the 60 and 50 kDa fragments (Fig. 2D, lanes 1, 3, and 5). When Ca<sup>2+</sup> was added to induce the activity of CAPN1, arsenite exacerbated the autolytic degradation of CAPN1, evidenced by a lower abundance of the intact fragment of 80 kDa. Moreover, after activation with  $\mbox{Ca}^{2\, +},$  the abundance of the 55 and 50 kDa fragments of CAPN1 were reduced in the presence of arsenite, indicating an extensive autodegradation of CAPN1, instead of generating fragments with different degrees of activity (Fig. 2D, lanes 2, 4, and 6). This result suggests that arsenite can promote the autodegradation of calpains even in the absence of other signals.

#### 3.4. CAPN1 and CAPN10 regulate glucose uptake in lymphocytes

To demonstrate that calpains are implicated in GLUT1 regulation in lymphocytes, we used KD models in Jurkat cells expressing shRNA



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Fig. 3. Stable knockdown of CAPN10 in the Jurkat cell line decreased the glucose-induced calpain activation. Jurkat cells were stably transduced with lentiviral particles carrying shRNAs against CAPN1 or CAPN10. A) mRNA levels of CAPN1 and CAPN10 relative to the expression levels in the control cells expressing the NM<sup>shRNA</sup>. B) Representative Western blot of CAPN1 and CAPN10 isoforms present in the Jurkat cells carrying the shRNAs. C) Densitometric analysis of the changes in the protein abundance of CAPN1 and CAPN10 isoforms presented in B. The actin levels were used as the loading control, and protein levels were normalized to the NM<sup>shRNA</sup> cells. D) The knockdown cells were challenged with 3.9 or 11.1 mM of extracellular glucose, and the calpain activity was measured. The calpain activity was normalized to the levels measured in each knockdown after the challenge with 3.9 mM of glucose. The box and whiskers represent the median, the data distribution, and the maximum and minimum values of 3 independent experiments with technical duplicates. In C, bold numbers denote statistically significant differences when analyzed using one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) and Dunnett post-hoc test (p < .01). Data in D were analyzed with a twoway ANOVA with Tukey's post hoc test. Boxes with different superscript letters are statistically different from one another (p < .05), in which boxes with letter a > b > c.

against a non-mammalian gene (NM<sup>shRNA</sup>), CAPN1 (CAPN1<sup>shRNA</sup>), or CAPN10 (CAPN10<sup>shRNA</sup>). Of note, we did not find the expression of CAPN2 at the mRNA and protein levels in these cells. Thus, we did not evaluate the participation of this protease.

In the Jurkat cells expressing the CAPN1<sup>shRNA</sup>, the mRNA and protein levels of CAPN1 were reduced by 87 and 61% compared with the cells expressing the NM<sup>shRNA</sup> respectively, without altering the levels of CAPN10 mRNA or protein (Fig. 3A, B, and C). In the cells expressing the CAPN10<sup>shRNA</sup>, the levels of CAPN10 mRNA were reduced 55% relative to the NM<sup>shRNA</sup> (Fig. 3A). Interestingly, in Jurkat cells, we found 4 different isoforms of CAPN10 of 60, 55, 50, and 45 kDa, which were significantly reduced by the CAPN10<sup>shRNA</sup> (48, 45, 58, and 61%, respectively) (Fig. 3B and C).

To determine whether CAPN1 or CAPN10 are responsible of the glucose-induced calpain activity, we evaluated the calpain activity after the challenge with 3.9 or 11.1 mM of glucose in the KD cells. The calpain activity was increased after the challenge with 11.1 mM of glucose in the NM<sup>shRNA</sup> and CAPN1<sup>shRNA</sup> cells, showing an increase of 27 and 18%, respectively. Importantly, in the cells expressing the CAPN10<sup>shRNA</sup>, the calpain activity after the challenge with 11.1 mM of glucose was reduced 35%, compared with the activity evaluated after the challenge with 3.9 mM of glucose (Fig. 3D). Thus, these data indicate that CAPN10 is the calpain involved in the glucose-induced

calpain activation.

We evaluated the contribution of CAPN1 and CAPN10 KD on GLUT1 protein abundance and glucose uptake. We observed that in the cells expressing the CAPN10<sup>shRNA</sup>, the total levels of GLUT1 protein were diminished, compared with NM<sup>shRNA</sup> cells. In contrast, there was no effect on CAPN1<sup>shRNA</sup> cells (Fig. 4A and B). Regarding the levels of GLUT1 in the cell membrane, in Jurkat cells, the levels were below the limit of detection using flow cytometry. We measured the glucose uptake after the challenge with 3.9 or 11.1 mM of extracellular glucose. In the cells expressing the NM<sup>shRNA</sup>, the glucose uptake was reduced after the challenge with an extracellular glucose pulse of 11.1 mM, as was observed in lymphocytes (Fig. 4C). In cells expressing the CAPN1<sup>shRNA</sup>, the glucose uptake was increased more than two-times compared with the glucose uptake in NM<sup>shRNA</sup> cells, under both 3.9 and 11.1 mM of extracellular glucose. In contrast, in the CAPN10<sup>shRNA</sup> cells, the glucose uptake after the challenge with 3.9 mM of glucose was diminished 43% compared with NM<sup>shRNA</sup> cells. However, there was no effect after the challenge with the pulse of extracellular glucose of 11.1 mM. When we calculated the delta values in response to the challenge with 11.1 mM of glucose, we found that cells expressing CAPN1<sup>shRNA</sup> had a higher response of the glucose uptake, while cells expressing CAPN10<sup>shRNA</sup>, had a lower response glucose uptake, compared with NM<sup>shRNA</sup> cells (delta values of  $-11.77 \pm 1.67$  in NM<sup>shRNA</sup> cells,  $-24.17 \pm 2.61$  in



**Fig. 4.** CAPN1 and CAPN10 knockdown had opposite effects on glucose uptake. A) Representative Western blot of the total GLUT1 abundance in Jurkat cells carrying CAPN1<sup>shRNA</sup> or CAPN10<sup>shRNA</sup>. B) Densitometric analysis of the total protein levels of GLUT1. Actin was used as the loading control, and the protein levels were normalized to the NM<sup>shRNA</sup> cells. C) The glucose uptake was assessed after the challenge with 3.9 or 11.1 mM of glucose. The box and whiskers represent the median, the data distribution, and the maximum and minimum values of 3 independent experiments with technical duplicates. Data in B were analyzed using one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) with Dunnett post-hoc test (\*p < .05). Data in C were analyzed using two-way ANOVA with Tukey's post-hoc test. Boxes with different superscript letters are statistically different from one another (p < .05), in which boxes with letter a > b > c > d > e.

CAPN1<sup>shRNA</sup> cells and  $-5.59 \pm 2.09$  in CAPN10<sup>shRNA</sup> cells). These data demonstrate that CAPN1 and CAPN10 have opposite effects over glucose uptake in lymphocytes.

#### 4. Discussion

Chronic exposure to arsenic in drinking water is associated with an increased risk for developing hyperglycemia, insulin resistance, and T2D (Petersen and Shulman, 2006). However, the mechanisms involved in the glucose metabolism that are altered by this pollutant are not well understood. The glucose uptake in cells is mainly regulated by the trafficking of glucose transporters between the cell membrane and the intracellular compartments (Bogan, 2012). In the present study, we found that under a subchronic treatment with arsenite, the trafficking of GLUT1 was inhibited by dysregulation of the calpain system. Since this was a primary cell culture model, it was not technically feasible to do chronic experiments of arsenic exposure as occurs in epidemiological studies.

Our data showed that treatment with arsenite inhibited GLUT1 trafficking induced by a challenge with high extracellular glucose

concentration. This effect also correlated with the impairment in the response of glucose uptake. In lymphocytes, GLUT1 is the main glucose transporter, and defects in GLUT1 trafficking or expression result in lymphocyte dysfunction (Jacobs et al., 2008; Siska et al., 2016). Moreover, it has been reported that arsenite impairs lymphocyte activation and proliferation (Morzadec et al., 2012; Vega et al., 1999), suggesting that arsenite could have an effect on lymphocyte activation through GLUT1 trafficking inhibition. Importantly, it has been reported that arsenite impairs the trafficking of GLUT4 induced by insulin in adipocytes and skeletal muscle cells (Padmaja Divya et al., 2015; Xue et al., 2011), raising the possibility that there are common pathways regulating GLUT trafficking in these cell types that can be altered by arsenite.

The calpain system, and specifically CAPN1, CAPN2, and CAPN10, have been implicated in GLUT trafficking and stability in skeletal muscle and adipocytes (Brown et al., 2007; Otani et al., 2004; Paul et al., 2003). Moreover, several works report that the inhibition of the calpain system by pharmacological inhibitors, specific KD of CAPN10 or the overexpression of calpastatin, results in metabolic alterations similar those found during insulin resistance. Such as impairment in insulin-induced glucose uptake, reduced insulin-induced GLUT4 translocation and reduced phosphorylation of Akt both in in vitro and in vivo models (Brown et al., 2007; Hoffstedt et al., 2002; Otani et al., 2004; Paul et al., 2003; Sreenan et al., 2001). In some human populations, the presence of CAPN10 gene polymorphisms has been associated with a higher risk to develop insulin resistance and T2D (Pánico et al., 2014; Sáez et al., 2008). Suggesting that alterations in the functionality of the calpain system are involved in the development of insulin resistance. We found that arsenite treatment inhibited the activation of calpains induced by high glucose concentration. Interestingly, while the concentration of 0.1 µM of arsenite only inhibited glucose-induced calpain activation, without altering basal calpain activity. The treatment with 1 uM of arsenite reduced the basal levels of calpain activity and inhibited glucose-induced calpain activity. These results suggest that arsenite could exert specific effects over different members and functions of the calpain system depending on its concentration. Moreover, the effects induced by arsenite resemble the alterations in the calpain activity that we have previously found in leukocytes from patients with T2D (Díaz-Villaseñor et al., 2008b).

In a previous study, we identified that the inhibition of the calpainmediated proteolysis of SNAP25 by arsenite, was correlated with alterations in the Ca<sup>2+</sup> influx in beta cells (Díaz-Villaseñor et al., 2008a). In this work, we explored other factors that are known to regulate the activity of these proteases in situ and in vitro. In this regard, we found that  $1 \,\mu\text{M}$  of arsenite increased the protein levels of CAST, which is the endogenous inhibitor of the typical calpains, and a diminished autolysis of CAPN1, an indication of calpain activation (Ono and Sorimachi, 2012). The increase in CAST levels could lead to a change in the stoichiometry between the proteases CAPN1 and CAPN2 with their inhibitor, resulting in the lower activity of the calpain system assessed by the hydrolysis of the fluorogenic substrate tBoc-Leu-Met-CMAC and the decreased autolysis of CAPN1. In addition, it is known that arsenic has a great affinity with thiol groups in proteins (Ngu and Stillman, 2006). Since the catalytic site of calpains is comprised of cysteine, histidine, and asparagine residues (Ono and Sorimachi, 2012), we rationalized that arsenite could directly alter the catalytic properties of calpains by reacting with this cysteine residue. In agreement, we found that in vitro, arsenite induces CAPN1 autolysis in the absence of Ca<sup>2+</sup> and increases the autolysis induced by Ca<sup>2+</sup>. Importantly, the autolytic pattern induced by arsenic had different features compared with the autolysis induced by Ca<sup>2+</sup> alone. In the presence of arsenite, CAPN1 autolysis was more extensive, resulting also in lower abundance of the several fragments induced by Ca<sup>2+</sup>. Altogether, our data suggest that arsenite can modulate calpain activity not only by altering Ca<sup>2+</sup> influx, as has been demonstrated in beta cells (Díaz-Villaseñor et al., 2008a), but also by increasing the levels of the calpain inhibitor CAST and promoting calpain extensive autodegradation.

To demonstrate that the alterations in GLUT1 trafficking and glucose uptake were due to the alteration in the calpain system activity, we established CAPN1 or CAPN10 KD cell lines using the Jurkat cell line. Unfortunately, these cells did not express CAPN2 mRNA or protein, so we could not test for their participation in GLUT1 regulation. Of note, we found in CAPN1 KD cells that the challenge with 11.1 mM of glucose induced calpain activity to the same level observed in control cells, while in CAPN10 KD cells, the calpain activity was not induced after the challenge with 11.1 mM of glucose. Thus, these data demonstrated that CAPN10 is the calpain responsible for the increase in calpain activity after the challenge with 11.1 mM of glucose. Moreover, this result suggests that the inhibition of glucose-induced calpain activity is due to the inhibition of CAPN10 by 0.1 and 1 µM of arsenite. In contrast, it is possible that the effect on calpain activity after treatment with  $1 \,\mu\text{M}$  of arsenite, could be due to the inhibition of CAPN10, but also to the inhibition of typical calpains by the mechanisms discussed in the previous paragraph. Since CAPN10 mRNA and protein levels were not changed after arsenite treatment, the mechanism through which CAPN10 is inhibited by arsenite remains to be further explored. Intriguingly, in primary lymphocytes, only 2 CAPN10 isoforms were found, while in Jurkat cells, we found 4 different isoforms. This also raises the possibility that CAPN10 splicing could be differentially regulated between different cell lines.

The results in KD cell lines also demonstrated that CAPN1 and CAPN10 have opposite roles over glucose uptake and GLUT1 stability. When the cells were incubated in 3.9 mM of glucose, CAPN1 KD induced a 2.4-fold increase in glucose uptake, while CAPN10 KD induced the opposite effect. Although the glucose uptake was reduced after the challenge with 11.1 mM of glucose in all the cell lines, the delta values were smaller in the CAPN10 KD cells, compared with the values observed in the CAPN11 KD and control cells. Thus, the CAPN10 KD resembles the effects observed in lymphocytes after arsenite treatment. We suggest that CAPN10 could be the main calpain targeted by arsenite that is involved in the dysregulation of GLUT1 trafficking.

Regarding the effects of arsenite observed over CAPN1, this calpain has been implicated in the proliferative activity in lymphocytes, and it is downregulated in elderly individuals (Mikosik et al., 2013). Altogether, our results suggest that the dysregulation of GLUT1 trafficking through CAPN10 inhibition and the inhibition of CAPN1 could be related to the impairment in lymphocyte proliferation that has been reported in individuals exposed to arsenic through drinking water and lymphocytes treated with arsenite in vitro (Biswas et al., 2008; Morzadec et al., 2012; Vega et al., 1999). Moreover, CAPN1 and CAPN10 have been implicated in glucose uptake and the trafficking of GLUT4 in the skeletal muscle and adipocytes; thus, arsenite may affect these proteases in tissues that are directly implicated in the regulation of the blood glucose levels, contributing to the development of insulin resistance and T2D. It will be interesting in future studies to test if calpains can be inhibited by arsenite in adipose tissue and skeletal muscle in vivo. Since lymphocytes can be obtained by non-invasive methods, it will be also interesting to test if these alterations are induced in human populations chronically exposed to arsenic.

In conclusion, our data show that arsenite alters the trafficking of GLUT1 by the modulation of the calpain system. Particularly, we demonstrated that CAPN1 and CAPN10 have opposite effects over glucose uptake in lymphocytes, which could be implicated in the effects induced by arsenite.

#### Acknowledgments

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#### Declaration of competing interest

Authors declared that they have no conflict of interest.

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TUG as a calpain-10 substrate regulates GLUT4

**65**:2

RESEARCH

# TUG is a calpain-10 substrate involved in the translocation of GLUT4 in adipocytes

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#### Abstract

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The calpain-10 (CAPN10) protease is implicated in the translocation of the glucose transporter 4 (GLUT4), which is retained in the Golgi matrix via the tether containing a UBX domain for GLUT4 (TUG) protein. Insulin stimulation induces the proteolytic processing of TUG, which leads to the translocation of GLUT4 to the cell membrane. We tested whether TUG is a CAPN10 substrate. Proteolysis of TUG by calpains was assessed using a cell-free system containing calpain-1 and TUG. In situ proteolysis of TUG by calpains was demonstrated in 3T3-L1 adipocytes in the presence of insulin or calpain inhibitors to modulate calpain activity. Proteolysis of TUG by CAPN10 was confirmed using transient or stable silencing of CAPN10 in 3T3-L1 adipocytes. Calpains proteolyzed the C-terminus of TUG in vitro. In adipocytes, insulin-induced cleavage of TUG was correlated with the activation of calpains. Treatment with calpain inhibitors reduced TUG cleavage, resulting in impaired GLUT4 translocation without altering Akt phosphorylation. Furthermore, CAPN10 but not calpain-1 or calpain-2 colocalized with GLUT4 in the absence of insulin, and their colocalization was reduced after stimulation with insulin. Finally, we demonstrated that CAPN10 knockdown reduced the proteolysis of TUG without altering the phosphorylation of Akt or the expression of the Usp25m protease. Thus, our results provide evidence that the TUG protein is cleaved by CAPN10 to regulate GLUT4 translocation.

#### **Key Words**

- ▶ calpain
- calpain-10
- ► TUG
  - glucose transporter type 4 (GLUT4)
- insulin signaling

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#### Introduction

Q5

The insulin signaling pathway plays an important role in regulating glucose homeostasis. Both impairment of insulin signaling and dysfunction of  $\beta$  cells can lead to insulin resistance, metabolic syndrome and type 2 diabetes (T2D) (Bogan 2012). Insulin regulates plasma glucose levels, in part, by inducing the translocation of GLUT4 to the cell membrane and increasing glucose uptake in adipocytes and skeletal muscle (Klip *et al.* 2014). In the basal state, GLUT4 is sequestered in specialized compartments known as GLUT4 storage vesicles (GSVs)

https://jme.bioscientifica.com https://doi.org/10.1530/JME-19-0253 © 2020 Society for Endocrinology Published by Bioscientifica Ltd. Printed in Great Britain (Bogan & Kandror 2010). These vesicles are retained near the Golgi matrix by tether proteins and are released in response to insulin within minutes of stimulation (Bogan & Kandror 2010). Tether containing a Ubx domain for GLUT4 (TUG) is the primary protein that anchors GSVs to the Golgi matrix (Yu *et al.* 2007). Insulin signaling induces GSV release via proteolytic processing of membraneassociated TUG, generating N- and C-terminal fragments (Bogan *et al.* 2012).

TUG as a calpain-10 substrate regulates GLUT4

Calpains are a family of intracellular, nonlysosomal cysteine proteases (EC 3.4.22.17; Clan CA, family C02) (Sorimachi et al. 2011). These proteases participate in cellular processes, such as cell migration, vesicular trafficking, and apoptosis, and in the development of several pathologies, including Alzheimer's disease, muscular dystrophy, cancer and T2D (Ono et al. 2016). These proteases regulate the function of their substrates via proteolytic processing, rather than by extensive degradation (Sorimachi et al. 2011). At least three calpains regulate GLUT4 and glucose uptake in adipocytes and skeletal muscle. Polymorphisms in the calpain-10 (CAPN10) gene were the first genetic variants associated with higher risks of developing T2D, insulin resistance and adipocyte dysfunction in humans (Horikawa et al. 2000, Hoffstedt et al. 2002, Perez-Martinez et al. 2011). The CAPN10 gene generates at least eight isoforms via alternative splicing, and these isoforms are implicated in the trafficking of GLUT4 and the dynamics of cortical actin in both adipocytes and skeletal muscle cells (Paul et al. 2003, Brown et al. 2007). In skeletal muscle, calpain-1 (CAPN1) and calpain-2 (CAPN2) regulate Akt expression, GLUT4 stability and trafficking (Otani et al. 2004). Recently, we demonstrated that CAPN10 and CAPN1 are implicated in the trafficking of GLUT1 in lymphocytes (Pánico et al. 2019). Nevertheless, the proteolytic targets of these proteases that are involved in GLUT4 trafficking have not been described.

Because calpains must be associated with cellular membranes to proteolyze their targets and perform limited proteolysis of their target proteins (Sorimachi et al. 2011), we propose that calpains, specifically CAPN10, are proteases that mediate the proteolytic processing of the TUG protein and thus regulate GLUT4 trafficking.

#### Materials and methods

#### Proteolysis of TUG in vitro

The procedure for in vitro proteolysis of TUG was performed as previously described with modifications (Pánico et al. 2019). The calpain reaction buffer was mixed with 0.12 µg of recombinant native human-TUG protein produced in the wheat germ (Abcam ab163974, lot: H5251-7341) and with 0, 20, 200 or 2000 µM CaCl<sub>2</sub>. Human purified CAPN1 (Calbiochem, 208713, Lot: D00168933, which is the only purified calpain that retains its catalytic activity that is commercially available) was preincubated with 2 mM DTT and added to the reaction mix. The reaction was performed for 30 min at 37°C. The samples were evaluated as described in the Western blot section. For detection

of the TUG protein, 20 µL of the mixture was used; for detection of CAPN1, 3 µL was used.

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#### Analysis of protein expression in mouse tissues

Three CD1 mice were obtained from the Instituto de Investigaciones Biomédicas, UNAM. This outbred strain of mice is characterized by a large genetic diversity and by a low risk to develop genetic abnormalities compared with inbred mice strains. Mice were maintained under a 12 h light:12 h darkness cycle. Regular chow and water were provided ad libitum. Animal handling followed the guidelines for Care and Use of Laboratory Animals (NIH Pub. No. 86-23, revised 1996). Mice were killed with an i.p. injection of 40 mg/kg sodium pentobarbital. All procedures performed on animals were conducted in accordance with Institutional guidelines, following a protocol approved by the Institutional Bioethical Committee (CICUAL). The organs were obtained from these mice removing all adipose tissue. The organs were then washed with icecold PBS and frozen until protein extraction. For protein extraction, tissues were lysed with lysis buffer (1% Triton X-100 and 0.1% SDS in PBS) freshly supplemented with 2× of Halt<sup>™</sup> protease and phosphatase inhibitor cocktail (Invitrogen) and were sonicated three times for 15 s.

#### **Cell culture and treatments**

The 3T3-L1 cell line (ATCC, CL-173 lot: 61448503) was maintained in high glucose DMEM supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum. Differentiation to adipocytes was performed as previously described and confirmed by Oil Red O staining (Zebisch et al. 2012). All experiments were performed between days 9 and 11 of differentiation. The cells were serum-starved for 4 h prior to stimulation with 100 nM insulin for 7 min in Krebs Ringer HEPES buffer (115 mM NaCl, 5 mM KCl, 1 mM KH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>, 2 mM CaCl<sub>2</sub>, 1.2 mM MgSO<sub>4</sub>, 25 mM HEPES, pH 7.4 at 37°C) freshly supplemented with 25 mM glucose (KRH-Glc).

#### Western blotting and immunodetection

After the insulin treatment, KRH was removed and the cells were lysed with lysis buffer. The lysates were processed, quantified and denatured as previously described (Pánico et al. 2019). Equal amounts of protein were electrophoresed in 12% SDS-PAGE gels (40 µg for CAPN2, phospho- and total-Akt, and GLUT4, 60 µg for CAPN1 and TUG, 10 µg for CAPN10). Proteins were transferred onto nitrocellulose membranes and blocked

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TUG as a calpain-10 substrate regulates GLUT4

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as previously described (Pánico et al. 2019). The primary antibodies used were rabbit anti-calpain 10 domain III (ab28226 1:1000), mouse anti-GLUT4 (1F8) (ab35826 1:1000), rabbit anti-calpain 2 (EPR5977) (ab126600 1:5000) (all from Abcam), rabbit anti-TUG C-terminal (#2049 1:1000), rabbit anti-phospho-Akt (Ser473) (#9271 1:1000), rabbit-Akt (pan)(11E7) antibody (#4685 1:1000; Cell Signaling Technology), mu-calpain antibody (Thermo Scientific, MA3-940 1:1000), and goat anti-actin antibody (I-19) (Santa Cruz Biotechnology, sc-1616 1:2000) in blocking solution. The primary antibodies were detected with a HRP-conjugated goat anti-mouse (1:4000), donkey anti-goat (1:2000) (Santa Cruz Biotechnology) or mouse anti-rabbit light chain MAB (Jackson ImmunoResearch). The blots were developed as previously described (Pánico et al. 2019). As loading controls, we quantified the optical density of actin and the optical density of the entire lanes stained with Coomassie brilliant blue (CBB), because this is a sensitive method to assess the amount of protein loaded (McDonough et al. 2014). Only blots with a variation lower than 10% in optical density between lanes stained with CBB were considered for analysis. The optical density of the bands was determined using Image Studio Lite Ver. 5.2 (LI-COR Biosciences, NE, USA).

#### **Calpain activity assay**

After serum starvation, the medium was replaced with KRH-Glc containing 10  $\mu$ M of the fluorogenic calpain substrate tBoc-Leu-Met-CMAC (Molecular Probes© Invitrogen), which has been widely used to evaluate the calpain activity in living cells (Rosser *et al.* 1993, Grumelli *et al.* 2008, Svensson *et al.* 2010, Mendoza *et al.* 2018). The fluorescence was measured once per minute for 20 min at 37°C in a Fluoroskan Ascent microplate fluorometer (Thermo Electron Corporation, Vantaa, Finland, Ex/Em: 355 nm/460 nm).

#### Immunofluorescence and confocal microscopy

Cells were seeded and differentiated on coverslips. After insulin stimulation, the cells were fixed in 1% paraformaldehyde in PBS for 10 min and washed four times with PBS. The coverslips were blocked with blocking buffer (0.1% Triton X-100 and 0.5% BSA in PBS) for 45 min at 37°C. Primary antibodies against CAPN1 (1:100), CAPN2 (1:100), CAPN10 (1:100) and GLUT4 (1:100) were incubated in blocking buffer for 30 min at 37°C. The coverslips were washed three times with 0.1% Triton X-100 in PBS. Secondary antibodies (Alexa Fluor 488 anti-

© 2020 Society for Endocrinology Published by Bioscientifica Ltd. Printed in Great Britain rabbit and Alexa Fluor 647 anti-mouse, Molecular Probes©, Invitrogen) were incubated using the same protocol used for the primary antibodies. For VAMP2 detection, the anti-VAMP2 antibody conjugated to Alexa Fluor 647 (Abcam, ab198949 1:100) was incubated overnight at 4°C prior to staining with the CAPN1 antibody. Nuclei were stained with propidium iodide (PI) for 5 min and washed three times with 0.1% Triton X-100 in PBS. Fluorescence images were acquired using a Zeiss LSM 5 Pascal laser scanning confocal scanning head coupled to an Axioscope 2 microscope (Carl Zeiss). Imaging was performed using a Plan Fluor 100X N.A. 1.3 objective with the 488, 561 and 646 nm laser lines; the pinhole aperture set to 209 µm. Acquisition was performed using the LSM 5 Pascal software v2.8 SP1 (Carl Zeiss). In each experiment. a control condition without primary antibodies was evaluated to exclude nonspecific binding of the secondary antibodies or autofluorescence. The images were analyzed using ImageJ-win64 software. The pseudocolor of the PI is shown in blue to make clearer the results of the staining for calpains and GLUT4. For quantitation of GLUT4 translocation, we selected the region corresponding to the perinuclear GLUT4 based on the PI channel, and the membranal and cytosolic GLUT4 was selected according to the differential interference contrast (DIC) images. The mean fluorescence intensity and the s.p. were obtained from each region. To compare the fluorescence intensity obtained in independent experiments, we adjusted the membranal GLUT4 signal intensity to the GLUT4 signal intensity in the perinuclear region. Also, to validate this method, we confirmed that the GLUT4 levels in the perinuclear region were not changed in the different conditions tested. At least 15 cells were measured for each condition.

#### **Transient CAPN10 knockdown**

Day 8 adipocytes were transfected with 2 nmol/mL Accell mouse CAPN10 SMARTpool siRNA (Dharmacon, E-062206-00-0050) or Accell control nontargeting SMARTpool siRNA (Dharmacon, D-001910-10-20) in Accell siRNA delivery medium (Dharmacon) for 48 h. The medium was replaced with high-glucose DMEM containing 10% FBS and 1 µg/mL insulin (which is the medium to maintain the adipocytes according to Zebisch *et al.* 2012), and the cells were incubated for another 48 h to avoid cell death induced by the delivery medium. At this point, CAPN10 knockdown was considered to be completed.

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#### Stable CAPN10 knockdown

Cells were seeded in Opti-MEM medium (Gibco©, Applied Biosystems) supplemented with 8 µg/mL of polybrene, and incubated 24 h with Mission<sup>™</sup> shRNA lentiviral particles (Sigma-Aldrich), containing the PLKO.1 plasmid with shRNA against CAPN10 (CAPN10sh704, NM ID NM 011796.1-1921s1c1, clone ID TRCN0000030704) or a nonmammalian control shRNA (NM<sup>shRNA</sup>, SHC002V), and a puromycin-resistance gene, at a multiplicity of infection of 10. After 24 h, the medium was replaced with DMEM supplemented with 10% of FBS, followed by another incubation for 24 h. To select transduced cells and promote stable KD, 3 µg/mL puromycin hydrochloride was added to the medium and replaced every 48 h for 2 weeks. The cells were differentiated as described. Both cell lines differentiated to a similar degree, as assessed by the presence of lipid droplets.

#### **Statistical analysis**

All the experiments were performed with at least two independent biological replicates with technical duplicates. Statistical analysis was performed using the GraphPad Prism 6 software. In the experiments involving only insulin, data were analyzed with one-way ANOVA and Dunnett's *post hoc* test. For experiments involving insulin stimulation and calpain inhibition or CAPN10 KD, we used two-way ANOVA with Tukey's *post hoc* test. For experiments comparing only two groups, data were analyzed by unpaired *t*-test. Statistically significant differences were considered at P < 0.05.

#### Results

#### TUG protein is a calpain substrate

First, we tested for the presence of TUG fragments in organs related to glucose homeostasis, such as retroperitoneal white adipose tissue (WAT), the gastrocnemius muscle, the liver, the heart, and the pancreas, of fed adult mice. In adipocytes, the abundance of intact TUG was the lowest among the tissues tested and the main proteolytic products were approximately 60 and 30 kDa. By contrast, in muscle, there were a series of fragments between 50 and 40 kDa. In the liver, there was a fragment of approximately 45 kDa, although its abundance was lower than that in muscle. The heart presented some of the fragments observed in adipocytes and muscle. In the pancreas, there were several



#### Figure 1

TUG protein is a calpain substrate. (A) Western blot analysis of the proteolytic fragments of TUG and protein expression of CAPN1, CAPN2 and CAPN10 in retroperitoneal white adipose tissue (WAT), the gastrocnemius muscle, the liver, the heart and the pancreas from CD1 mice. Representative Western blot of three different animals showing similar results. (B) In silico analysis of possible calpain-cleavage sites in the murine TUG protein using CaMP DB and schematics of the predicted cleavage sites. The alignment of the sequences of TUG protein from mouse (Mus musculus, NP\_081153.1), human (Homo sapiens, NP\_076988.1), common wombat (Vombatus ursinus, XP\_027705937.1), platypus (Ornithorhynchus anatinus, XP\_028912867.1), rock pigeon (Columba livia, XP\_005508413.1), green sea turtle (Chelonya midas, XP\_027681652.1), tropical clawed frog (Xenopus tropicalis, XP\_017953263.2) and the zebra fish (Danio rerio, NP 001017575.1) is shown adjacent to the predicted cleavage sites 3, 4 and 5. Conserved residues are shown in bold. The TUG domains are indicated as UBL1 for ubiguitin-like domain 1, UBL2 for ubiguitin-like domain 2 and Ubx for ubiquitin-like domain 3. (C) In vitro proteolysis of the recombinant human-TUG protein by purified human-CAPN1. This is a representative result from three independent experiments.

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TUG fragments, suggesting that TUG could be a target of several proteases (Fig. 1A).

Next, we evaluated the protein abundances of CAPN1 CAPN2 and CAPN10 in these tissues. The classical calpains CAPN1 and CAPN2 undergo autolytic processing after activation, generating several fragments with different degrees of activity; in contrast, CAPN10 generates at least eight different isoforms by alternative splicing. Autolytic processing of CAPN1 was mainly observed in WAT, followed by the heart. By contrast, the abundance of the autolytic fragments of CAPN1 was low in muscle and the liver and was absent in the pancreas (Fig. 1A). The autolytic fragment of CAPN2 was only present in the heart (Fig. 1A). The presence of CAPN10 protein isoforms was tissue-specific. In WAT, we found the 75-, 60-, 55-, 50-, and 37-kDa isoforms. In comparison, the muscle presented the 60-, 55-, 50-, 40- and 30-kDa isoforms; the liver only presented the 55-kDa isoform; the heart presented the 75-, 60-, 55- and 32-kDa isoforms; and the pancreas presented the 55-, 50-, 37- and 20-kDa isoforms (Fig. 1A).

To determine whether TUG is a proteolytic target of calpains, we searched for possible calpain-mediated cleavage sites within the murine TUG sequence (accession: NP\_081153.1) using the MKL and Bayesian algorithms available from the Calpain for Modulatory Proteolysis Database (CaMP DB, http://www.calpain.org/). We found 12 predicted calpain-cleavage sites throughout the TUG protein sequence (Fig. 1B). Notably, site 3 (amino acid residues 152-153), site 4 (aar 157-158), and site 5 (aar 160-161) were adjacent to a previously reported insulininduced cleavage site (aar 164-165, Fig. 1B) (Bogan et al. 2012). When we developed a prediction model of the possible secondary structure of the TUG protein using the Jpred 4 server (http://www.compbio.dundee.ac.u k/ipred/), we found that the region spanning aar 173– 317 lacks any secondary structure (data not shown). Because unstructured regions are more susceptible to calpain-mediated proteolysis (Sorimachi et al. 2012), we rationalized that this region of the TUG protein might be cleaved by calpains. Considering the importance of TUG proteolysis as a rate-limiting step during insulin signaling, it is anticipated that TUG cleavage is well conserved among vertebrates. Indeed, the region spanning the cleavage site 5 and the previously identified insulin-induced cleavage site in the TUG sequence is conserved across placental and non-placental mammals, birds, reptiles, amphibians and fishes (Fig. 1B).

We experimentally tested whether the TUG protein is a calpain substrate. Recombinant TUG protein appeared

© 2020 Society for Endocrinology Published by Bioscientifica Ltd. Printed in Great Britain as a single band with an apparent molecular weight of 50 kDa (probably due to the lack of posttranslational modifications; Fig. 1C, lanes 1 and 2). After the addition of CAPN1 in the presence of 200 or 2000 µM Ca2+, the TUG protein was proteolyzed, generating two different C-terminal fragments with molecular weights of approximately 35 and 45 kDa (Fig. 1C, lanes 4 and 5). The proteolysis of TUG correlated with the autolysis of CAPN1, which is a marker of calpain activation (Fig. 1C lanes 4 and 5). The calpain inhibitor ALLM completely inhibited the proteolysis of TUG and partially prevented CAPN1 autolysis (Fig. 1C, lane 6). These results confirm that calpain activity was responsible for the proteolysis of TUG and CAPN1. Although the apparent molecular weight of the more abundant fragment of TUG produced by CAPN1 was lower than the 42-kDa fragment reported in 3T3-L1 adipocytes, full-length recombinant TUG had an apparent weight of 50 kDa, while in 3T3-L1 cells and the tissues tested, this band appeared as a 70-kDa protein. Two possibilities could explain these discrepancies: (1) the apparent molecular weights of the recombinant TUG products may be out of phase due to the lack of posttranslational modifications or (2) in the cell, posttranslational modifications favor the cleavage of TUG generating the fragment that is of lower abundance in the in vitro experiment. Our data demonstrate that calpains can mediate the proteolytic processing of the TUG protein.

#### Insulin-induced proteolytic processing of TUG correlates with general calpain activity in adipocytes

We evaluated whether insulin-induced proteolysis of TUG was correlated with calpain activity in situ in 3T3-L1 adipocytes. Insulin stimulation of adipocytes for 7 min induced Akt phosphorylation (Fig. 2A and B). Nevertheless, insulin stimulation did not alter the abundance of CAPN2 (Fig. 2A and B). The pattern of CAPN10 isoforms in 3T3-L1 adipocytes was similar to the pattern in WAT, although the stoichiometry was slightly different. Insulin stimulation did not modify the abundance of any of the splicing isoforms (Fig. 2A and B). We observed the intact TUG of about 70 kDa and the fragments of 54 and 42 kDa. Stimulation with 100 and 1000 nM of insulin induced an increase in the abundance of the 42-kDa fragment of TUG. In 3T3-L1 adipocytes, the full-length CAPN1 was absent and only proteolytic fragments of approximately 50 and 40 kDa were observed. Insulin increased the level of the 40-kDa



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#### Figure 2

Insulin-induced TUG proteolysis correlates with calpain activity. 3T3-L1 adipocytes were treated with insulin for 7 min. (A) Representative Western blot. (B) Densitometric analysis indicating the levels of Akt phosphorylation and TUG proteolysis and the abundances of CAPN1, CAPN2 and CAPN10. The data were normalized based on the optical density of CBB staining and are presented as the mean ± s.p. of at least two independent experiments with technical duplicates (Including the table with the CAPN10 data). The analysis utilized one-way ANOVA with Dunnett's post hoc test. \*Statistically significant difference from 0 nM of insulin (P < 0.05). (C) Calpain activity was measured in the presence of a fluorogenic substrate for 20 min. The data are presented as the mean + SEM of three independent experiments with technical triplicates. Data were analyzed with two-way ANOVA and Tukey's post hoc test. +P < 0.05 between 0 and 100 nM insulin. \*P < 0.05 between 0 and 1000 nM insulin.

autolytic fragment of CAPN1 (Fig. 2A and B). The general calpain activity was increased after 12 and 7 min by 100 and 1000 nM insulin, respectively (Fig. 2C). When we calculated the area under the curves, the calpain activity was increased by 21.6, 70.6, and 222.2% by 10, 100, and 1000 nM of insulin, respectively, compared with that in control cells. These results show that insulin-induced TUG proteolysis correlates with the general proteolytic activity of calpains and the autolytic processing of CAPN1.

# Insulin-induced TUG proteolysis is mediated by calpains in adipocytes

To examine *in situ* TUG proteolysis by calpains, adipocytes were treated with the calpain inhibitors ALLM, AK275, or E-64d before insulin stimulation. Inhibition of calpain did not alter the abundances of the CAPN2 or CAPN10 splicing isoforms, or the phosphorylation of Akt (Fig. 3A and B). The AK275 and E-64d inhibitors induced a significant increase of the 40-kDa autolytic fragment of CAPN1 (Fig. 3A and B). This effect could be due to a



#### Figure 3

Calpain inhibitors decrease insulin-induced TUG proteolysis. Adipocytes were treated with the calpain inhibitors ALLM (10 min), AK275 (30 min) or E-64d (4 h) prior to stimulation with insulin for 7 min. (A) Representative Western blot. (B) Densitometric analysis showing the abundances of CAPN1, CAPN2 and CAPN10 as well as the levels of Akt phosphorylation and TUG proteolysis. The data are presented as the mean ± s.p. of three independent experiments with technical duplicates (including the table of CAPN10). All experiments were analyzed using two-way ANOVA with Tukey's post hoc test. In each graph, the conditions with different superscripts are significantly different from one another (P < 0.05, a > b).

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higher stability of these fragments in the presence of the calpain inhibitors, as was observed in the cell-free system (Fig. 1C). These inhibitors did not alter the proteolysis of TUG in the absence of insulin. However, the proteolysis of TUG induced by insulin was decreased by all of the calpain inhibitors, compared with the cells treated with the vehicle (Fig. 3A and B). Insulin-stimulated GLUT4 translocation decreased in cells treated with AK275 and E64-d (Fig. 4), without altering the total abundance of GLUT4 (data not shown). These data demonstrate that calpains contribute to insulin-induced TUG proteolysis and regulate GLUT4 trafficking.

#### CAPN10 is localized close to the GLUT4 vesicles

To determine which calpain may be implicated in TUG proteolysis and GSV regulation, we examined whether CAPN1, CAPN2 or CAPN10 colocalize with GLUT4 or the vesicle associated membrane protein 2 (VAMP2), which are molecular markers of GSVs. The CAPN1 protease was localized within the nuclear periphery and did not colocalize with VAMP2 (Fig. 5A). CAPN2 was predominantly localized within the nucleus in adipocytes and did not colocalize with GLUT4 (Fig. 5B). CAPN10 was mostly localized in the nuclear and perinuclear regions. Interestingly, perinuclear CAPN10 was localized close to the GLUT4 signal in the absence of insulin, and this was reduced after insulin stimulation (Fig. 5C). This finding indicates that CAPN10 could be the calpain involved in TUG proteolysis and the regulation of GSVs.

#### CAPN10 knockdown impairs TUG proteolysis

To confirm that CAPN10 is involved in TUG proteolysis, we generated a transient CAPN10 knockdown (KD) in 3T3-L1 adipocytes using a siRNA SMARTpool that contained five different siRNAs directed against CAPN10 (CAPN10<sup>poolsiRNA</sup>). The CAPN10<sup>poolsiRNA</sup> significantly reduced four of the five isoforms of CAPN10, without altering the abundance of the Usp25m, which is a previously identified TUG protease (Fig. 6A and B). Although the 37-kDa isoform was not significantly reduced, a trend of a lower level was found. Likewise, CAPN10 KD did not alter the level of GLUT4 protein or the insulin-induced phosphorylation of Akt (Fig. 6C and D). However, CAPN10 knockdown decreased the insulinstimulated proteolysis of TUG, without altering basal proteolysis (Fig. 6C and D).

To support the participation of CAPN10 in TUG proteolysis and GLUT4 translocation, we generated



#### Figure 4

Calpain inhibitors decrease GLUT4 translocation. (A) GLUT4 (white) localization was determined using immunofluorescence. The nuclei were stained with propidium iodide (blue). Representative images from two independent experiments are shown. The regions corresponding to perinuclear GLUT4 (PN) or membranal and cytosolic GLUT4 (M) are shown in the GLUT4 channel. (B) Quantitative analysis of the translocation of GLUT4 in the adipocytes. The bars represent the mean  $\pm$  s.p. of at least 15 cells for each condition in two independent experiments. The data were analyzed with one-way ANOVA and Tukey's *post hoc* test. The conditions with different superscripts are significantly different from one another (P < 0.05, a > b). A full color version of this figure is available at https://doi.org/10.1530/JME-19-0253.

stable CAPN10 KD cells (CAPN10<sup>sh704</sup>). In these cells, the abundance of all the CAPN10 splicing isoforms was reduced, without altering the protein level of Usp25m (Fig. 7A and B), indicating that the effects of CAPN10 KD



#### Figure 5

CAPN10, but not CAPN1 or CAPN2, is located close to GSV markers. (A) Localization of CAPN1 (green) and the GSV marker VAMP2 (red). (B) Localization of CAPN2 (green) and the GSV marker GLUT4 (red). (C) Localization of CAPN10 (green) and GLUT4 (red). Nuclei were stained with propidium iodide (PI) and are shown in blue. To visualize the cell borders, images obtained using differential interferential contrast (DIC) are shown. Representative images are from two independent experiments.

on TUG proteolysis and GLUT4 trafficking are not due to alterations of this protease. The increase in calpain activity by 100 nM of insulin was completely inhibited in the CAPN10shRNA704 cells, demonstrating that CAPN10 is activated by insulin (Fig. 7C). Similar to the results found in the cells transiently transfected with CAPN10poolsiRNA, abundance of GLUT4 and insulin-induced the phosphorylation of Akt were not altered (Fig. 7D and E). By contrast, the level of insulin-induced TUG proteolysis in CAPN10sh704 cells was reduced, without altering the proteolysis in the absence of this hormone (Fig. 7D and E). This observation indicates that CAPN10 is involved in TUG proteolysis after insulin stimulation, without altering the basal level of TUG proteolysis. We also tested whether the inhibition of TUG proteolysis correlated with alterations in GLUT4 translocation (Fig. 8). In cells expressing CAPN10sh704, the translocation of GLUT4 to the cell membrane in response to insulin stimulation was effectively reduced, compared with the translocation found in NMshRNA cells (Fig. 8A and B), demonstrating that CAPN10 regulates, at least in part, GLUT4 trafficking through TUG proteolysis.

#### Discussion

CAPN10 polymorphisms have been shown to be associated with increased levels of HbA1c and serum glucose, insulin resistance and T2D (Horikawa *et al.* 2000, Shima *et al.* 2003, Weedon *et al.* 2003, Song *et al.* 2004, Bodhini *et al.* 2011, Pánico *et al.* 2014). However, the molecular mechanisms by which CAPN10 modulates glucose metabolism are not well understood. In this study, we provide evidence that CAPN10 regulates insulin-induced GLUT4 translocation by proteolyzing the TUG protein.

It has been proposed that TUG proteolysis is a ratelimiting step in the trafficking of GLUT4 induced by insulin (Belman *et al.* 2014). We analyzed the presence of TUG proteolysis in tissues related to glucose homeostasis in the body. Many fragments of TUG were found in all of these tissues, suggesting that more than one protease is involved. These different fragments may play different roles in regulating cell metabolism. Calpains are known to mediate limited and regulatory proteolysis of their substrates, rather than cause extensive degradation (Sorimachi *et al.* 2011). Thus, we tested the expression of calpains involved in GLUT4 regulation. We found that,

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Usp25m

Ctl

p

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#### Figure 6

С

C-term

TUG

C-term

(darker)

Transient CAPN10 knockdown impairs TUG proteolysis. 3T3-L1 adipocytes were transfected with a siRNA SMARTpool directed against CAPN10 (CAPN10poolsiRNA) or a control siRNA SMARTpool (CtlpoolsiRNA). (A) Abundance of the Usp25m and CAPN10 splicing isoforms. (B) Densitometric analysis of A. Subsequently, the cells were treated with insulin, and the levels of GLUT4, p-Akt, total Akt and TUG proteolysis were determined. (C) Representative Western blot. (D) Densitometric analysis of the abundance of GLUT4, phosphorylation of Akt and proteolysis of TUG. The data are presented as the mean ± s.p. of three independent experiments with technical duplicates. In B, the data were analyzed using a *t*-test (\**P* < 0.05). The data in D were analyzed using two-way ANOVA with Tukey's post hoc test. In each graph, conditions with different superscripts are significantly different from one another (P < 0.05, a > b).

in WAT, CAPN1 autolysis was increased. We also found more CAPN10 isoforms in WAT than in the other tissues tested, suggesting that these proteases could have specific functions in this tissue. Using CaMPDB algorithms, which are based on the substrate specificity of CAPN1 and CAPN2 (DuVerle et al. 2010, Shinkai-Ouchi et al. 2016), we found several predicted calpain-cleavage sites, suggesting that calpain proteases can proteolyze TUG, and one of these sites and the previously identified insulin-induced cleavage

© 2020 Society for Endocrinology Published by Bioscientifica Ltd Printed in Great Britain site are conserved among vertebrates, indicating that TUG proteolysis is a conserved step in insulin signaling. Using purified proteins, we demonstrate that the human-TUG protein is directly cleaved by human-CAPN1 in a sitespecific manner to produce two C-terminal fragments of approximately 45 and 35 kDa in size. Because the catalytic domain of calpains is highly conserved, the in silico and in vitro data indicates that calpains perform the proteolytic processing of TUG independent of other posttranslational modifications.

We found that calpain activity increased by approximately two-fold after insulin stimulation. Although this increase was relatively modest, it has been described that stimulation of HAC15 glomerulosa cells with angiotensin II increases the calpain activity with a fold change of 0.31 and that this small change can induce aldosterone production (Seremwe et al. 2015). Thus, slight changes in calpain activity are sufficient to modulate physiological processes. Moreover, we have previously demonstrated that the fluorogenic substrate used in this study is mostly cleaved by calpains and no other cysteine proteases sus as cathepsins (Salazar et al. 2019), demonstrating that the activity measured corresponds to calpain activity. We found that the abundance of the autolytic 40-kDa fragment of CAPN1 increased after insulin stimulation, but we did not detect the intact CAPN1. This finding could suggest that, in 3T3-L1 cells, CAPN1 is highly unstable and undergoes autolytic processing, generating the two different fragments observed. Because it is known that CAPN1 and CAPN2 undergo autolytic processing after their activation (De Tullio et al. 2018), we propose that the activation of calpains by insulin could be explained, in part, by the activation of CAPN1. It has been reported that CAPN1 plays a pivotal role in adipocyte differentiation in vivo (Arnandis et al. 2014). In adipocytes, CAPN1 is primarily located in the nuclear periphery, where it regulates the transcription of several genes involved in adipogenic differentiation program, such as CEBPa and leptin (Arnandis et al. 2014). Moreover, the inhibition of classical calpains (CAPN1 and CAPN2) in skeletal muscle results in decreased expression of Akt in vivo (Otani et al. 2004). We hypothesized that the activation of CAPN1 by insulin could influence the transcription of genes related to insulin signaling and adipocyte differentiation. On the other hand, in the stable CAPN10 KD cells, the insulininduced calpain activity was decreased, demonstrating that this protease is activated after insulin stimulation.

It has been reported that TUG proteolysis can be detected within 5 min of insulin stimulation (Bogan et al. 2012). Our data show that calpain activity was

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#### Figure 7

Stable CAPN10 knockdown impairs TUG proteolysis. 3T3-L1 adipocytes were transduced with a lentivirus encoding a shRNA directed against CAPN10 (CAPN10<sup>sh704</sup>) or against a target not present in mammalian cells (NM<sup>shRNA</sup>). (A) Abundance of the Usp25m and CAPN10 splicing isoforms. (B) Densitometric analysis of A. Subsequently, the cells were stimulated with 100 nM of insulin. (C) Area under the curve (AUC) of the calpain activity measured in these cells during insulin stimulation. (D) Representative Western blot of the levels of GLUT4, p-Akt, total Akt and TUG proteolysis after insulin stimulation. (E) Densitometric analysis of the abundance of GLUT4, phosphorylation of Akt and proteolysis of TUG. The data are presented as the mean ± s.p. of three independent experiments with technical duplicates. In B, the data were analyzed using a *t*-test. \*P < 0.05. The data in C and E were analyzed using two-way ANOVA with Tukey's post hoc test. In each graph, conditions with different superscripts are significantly different from one another (*P* < 0.05, a > b).

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significantly increased after 7 min in the presence of 100 or 1000 nM insulin. It has been demonstrated that CAPN1 is phosphorylated at the CysPC and CBSW domains by protein kinase A (PKA), increasing the autolytic activity of CAPN1 (Du *et al.* 2018). By performing an *in silico* analysis with the GPS 5.0 (http://gps.biocuckoo.cn/) and the NetPhos 3.1 (ttp://www.cbs.dtu.dk/services/NetPh os/, data not shown) servers, we found that human CAPN10 isoform a (accession: NP\_075571.2) could be phosphorylated by PKA, Akt or PKC at different sites in the same domains. These findings raise the possibility that insulin signaling could induce calpain activation via phosphorylation of CAPN1 and CAPN10 and support the notion that calpains are activated by insulin and that they could be involved in TUG proteolysis.

We also found that the inhibition of calpains resulted in the inhibition of TUG proteolysis, which correlated with a reduction of GLUT4 translocation. Moreover, calpain inhibition did not have any effect on Akt phosphorylation. Previous studies have found that the proteolysis of TUG occurs via an Akt-independent pathway (Bogan *et al.* 2012). A partial decrease in insulininduced GLUT4 translocation produced by calpain inhibitors has been observed using the calpain inhibitors ALLM or E-64d in rat adipocytes and ALLN in 3T3-L1 adipocytes, indicating a reduction of glucose uptake of approximately 50% (Sreenan *et al.* 2001, Paul *et al.* 2003). These data suggest that calpain inhibition plays a partial role in GLUT4 translocation, most likely mobilizing specific subsets of GLUT4.

CAPN1 and CAPN2 in adipocytes were mostly confined to the cell nuclei. This calpain localization has also been observed in adipocytes from the mammary gland (Arnandis et al. 2014), validating the use of 3T3-L1 adipocytes as a cell model to study calpains in adipocytes. The localization of these proteases suggests that neither CAPN1 nor CAPN2 could be involved in TUG proteolysis and GSV regulation. CAPN10 was observed in the nucleus and the perinuclear regions in adipocytes in the same region as GLUT4 in the basal state. Moreover, the proximity of GLUT4 and CAPN10 decreased after insulin stimulation, suggesting that CAPN10 is not mobilized with GSVs. Although proteomic studies of GSVs have not identified any calpain protease associated with these vesicles (Zhou et al. 2009, Fazakerley et al. 2015), this could be because CAPN10 only transiently interacts with TUG and GSVs, losing its interactions after TUG proteolysis.

We demonstrated the participation of CAPN10 in TUG proteolysis using two different strategies to knockdown the level of CAPN10. Importantly, the 75-, 55-, and 50-kDa isoforms detected by the CAPN10 antibody used in this study have also been reported to be sensitive to an shRNA in NRK52-E cells and are expressed in the kidneys of mice, rats and rabbits (Giguere *et al.* 2008). These findings confirm that the bands observed in 3T3-L1 adipocytes are isoforms of CAPN10. Neither transient nor stable CAPN10

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KD in 3T3-L1 adipocytes and human skeletal muscle cells results in a decrease of insulin-induced GLUT4 trafficking and glucose uptake (Paul et al. 2003, Brown et al. 2007). Considering that we found that the adipose tissue, the Q8 skeletal muscle and the heart share several of the CAPN10 isoforms and the TUG fragments, it is also possible that this protease regulates GLUT4 trafficking in all of these tissues by proteolyzing TUG, it will be interesting to test these ideas in future studies. Altogether our results demonstrate that TUG is a substrate of CAPN10 in adipocytes and regulates GLUT4 trafficking.

Recently, it has been reported that the TUG protein is also a target of the Usp25m protease, which generates the N- and C-terminal fragments (Habtemichael et al. 2018). The N-terminal fragment, named TUGUL, binds to the kinesin protein KIF5B (Habtemichael et al. 2018). The TUGUL-KIF5B complex has been shown to be responsible for the translocation of GSVs to the cell membrane. Because we observed different C-terminal fragments of TUG in tissues involved in glucose homeostasis, it will be interesting to determine whether these fragments have a function in regulating glucose metabolism. Comparing the proteolysis of TUG by these two proteases, it was observed that the abundance of GLUT4 was reduced in cells with knocked down USP25m (Habtemichael et al. 2018), while in our study, CAPN10 KD did not affect the abundance of the GLUT4 protein. Additionally, Usp25m KD resulted in complete inhibition of TUG proteolysis, while CAPN10 KD only reduced TUG proteolysis induced by insulin, without altering the basal proteolysis. It has been previously shown that calpain inhibitors or CAPN10 KD in 3T3-L1 adipocytes and human skeletal muscle cells result in a partial reduction of insulin-stimulated glucose uptake (Paul et al. 2003, Brown et al. 2007). We suggest that CAPN10 could act as a backup protease during insulin signaling that could be relevant during pathological processes.

#### Conclusions

Our data show that, in adipocytes, the TUG protein is a substrate of CAPN10 and regulates insulin-induced GLUT4 trafficking.

#### Declaration of interest

The authors declare that there is no conflict of interest that could be perceived as prejudicing the impartiality of the research reported.

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Stable CAPN10 knockdown impairs GLUT4 translocation. (A) Representative immunofluorescence images of the localization of GLUT4 (gray scale) in CAPN10 KD adipocytes from two independent experiments. The nuclei were stained with propidium iodide and are shown in blue. The regions corresponding to perinuclear GLUT4 (PN) or membranal and cytosolic GLUT4 (M) are shown in the GLUT4 channel. (B) Quantitative analysis of the translocation of GLUT4 in the adipocytes. The bars represent the mean ± s.p. of at least 15 cells for each condition in two independent experiments. The data were analyzed with one-way ANOVA and Tukey's post hoc test. The conditions with different superscripts are significantly different from one another (P < 0.05, a > b). A full color version of this figure is available at https://doi.org/10.1530/JME-19-0253.

knockdown had an effect on Akt phosphorylation, which has been previously noted in adipocytes and skeletal muscle cells (Paul et al. 2003, Brown et al. 2007). Therefore, CAPN10-dependent pathways may function independent of Akt. CAPN10 KD reduced the insulin-induced TUG cleavage without altering TUG proteolysis in the unstimulated state. Additionally, we found that CAPN10 KD impaired insulin-stimulated GLUT4 trafficking to the cell membrane. Previous studies have shown that CAPN10

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**REVIEW ARTICLE** 

### Role of Calpain-10 in the Development of Diabetes Mellitus and Its Complications

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Calpain activity has been implicated in several cellular processes such as cell signaling, apoptosis, exocytosis, mitochondrial metabolism and cytoskeletal remodeling. Evidence has indicated that the impairment of calpain expression and the activity of different calpain family members are involved in diverse pathologies. Calpain-10 has been implicated in the development of type 2 diabetes, and polymorphisms in the *CAPN10* gene have been associated with an increased risk of developing this disease. The present work focused on the molecular biology of calpain-10, supporting its key participation in glucose metabolism. Current knowledge regarding the role of calpain-10 in the development of type 2 diabetes mellitus and diabetes-related diseases is additionally reviewed. © 2014 IMSS. Published by Elsevier Inc.

Key Words: Diabetes, Obesity, Calpain-10, CAPN10 polymorphisms.

#### Introduction

The calpains are a family of Ca<sup>2+</sup>-dependent, intracellular cysteine proteases. Calpains cause a limited proteolysis of a variety of substrates rather than extensive degradation, thus modulating substrate structure and activity. Calpains are involved in a wide range of physiological processes (e.g., cell motility, cell cycle, cellular differentiation, signal transduction pathways), and in pathological processes (e.g., neurodegenerative diseases, muscular dystrophies, cancer, gastropathies, diabetes mellitus). There are 15 calpain genes in the human genome coding for members of calpain family proteins. Among them, some contain a penta EFhand domain (classical calpains), whereas some do not contain this domain (non-classical or atypical calpains). Calpain-10 is an atypical member of the calpain family, which has a C2L (domain III) instead of a penta EF-hand domain (1). CAPN10 gene is located on chromosome 2q37.3, which has a region that was previously described as a susceptibility gene for diabetes, termed *NIDDM1* (non-insulin dependent diabetes mellitus 1). *CAPN10* gene consists of 15 exons, generating eight mRNA isoforms by alternative splicing (calpain-10a to h), although many of these isoforms are degraded by nonsense-mediated mRNA decay (NMD) (2,3). The isoform calpain-10a is the most abundant isoform found in the heart, brain, placenta, lung, liver, skeletal muscle, kidney and pancreas (2). Calpain-10 was previously considered to be ubiquitously expressed; however, calpain-10 is not expressed in some tissues and cell types such as the exocrine pancreas, ductal tissue and brain neurons (4,5).

Genetic association studies and functional analyses have linked calpain-10 to diabetes. Millions of people worldwide suffer from diabetes, which is characterized by impaired glucose metabolism. Type 2 diabetes mellitus (T2DM), the most common form of diabetes, has alterations in insulin action and/or secretion (6). Although numerous pathogenic processes are involved in its development, gene-environment interactions are essential for the development of T2DM. Thus, large efforts are focused to identify susceptibility genes in T2DM (7,8). Four main polymorphisms of *CAPN10* have been associated with diabetes: SNP-43 (rs3792267), SNP-44 (rs2975760), SNP-63 (rs5030952) and InDel-19 (rs3842570). These SNPs are

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localized in intronic regions and do not influence the amino acid structure of the protein, but most likely alter the gene expression or alternative splicing mechanisms (2).

This review presents evidence that supports the role of calpain-10 in the pathogenesis of T2DM. In addition, the participation of calpain-10 in glucose metabolism and in diabetes-related diseases is discussed.

#### Role of Calpain-10 in Type 2 Diabetes Mellitus

Calpain-10 has been shown to be involved in pancreatic  $\beta$ -cell function, insulin-stimulated glucose uptake, and susceptibility to T2DM. Calpain-10 has also been shown to be associated with metabolic phenotype. These four aspects are discussed below.

#### Calpain-10 in Pancreatic $\beta$ -cell Function

The impairments of insulin secretion and  $\beta$ -cell function are relevant mechanisms in the development of T2DM (7). *CAPN10* mRNA is highly expressed in rat and human pancreatic islets (2). It has been reported that *CAPN10* mRNA expression is increased in pancreatic islets from diabetic patients (9). *CAPN10* mRNA levels are correlated with stimulated insulin secretion in non-diabetic subjects, but in diabetics this correlation is lost; however, the relation of the mRNA levels with calpain-10 protein levels or function was not evaluated (9).

At the physiological level, calpain inhibitors exhibit dual effects; stimulated insulin secretion is improved at 4 h with inhibitors treatment, whereas its impairment is observed after 24 and 48 h of inhibition. The latter effect could be due to compromised ATP and NADPH production in the mitochondria (10,11), which is required to open calcium channels for insulin secretion (7). Nevertheless, calpain inhibitors used are not specific for a specific calpain member and could have effects over other proteases.

The specific role of calpains, and specifically calpain-10, in the late exocytotic pathway during stimulated insulin secretion has been demostrated. Calpain inhibition has led to decreased glucose-independent insulin secretion in mice islets (11). Furthermore, in transgenic mice the overexpression of calpastatin, an endogenous inhibitor of calpain, induces a reduction in stimulated insulin secretion associated with altered levels of a small G protein known as Rab3a that facilitates the docking of vesicles onto the cell membrane (12,13). However, calpastatin inhibits typical calpains and because calpain-10 is an atypical calpain, the ability of calpastatin to inhibit this protease remains to be investigated.

Direct evidence supporting that calpain-10 is involved in the exocytosis of insulin is derived from the overexpression of calpain-10 in a pancreatic  $\beta$ -cell line, increasing insulin secretion in a calcium-dependent manner (4). This evidence suggests that calpain-10 is calcium-dependent even as an atypical calpain. Furthermore, when the insulin-containing vesicles are close to the plasma membrane, the 54 kDa isoform of calpain-10 proteolyzes SNAP-25 (a member of SNARE family of proteins involved in vesicle fusion) in response to calcium influx, resulting in the release of insulin (4). Other calpains have been implicated in the stimulation of insulin secretion (14). Thus, these findings suggest that calpains might function as sensors of glucose-induced calcium currents, which culminate with insulin secretion (Figure 1A).

Due to the significance of calpain-10 in insulin secretion, factors altering its function might contribute to the development of T2DM. Our group demonstrated that exposing a  $\beta$ -cell line to arsenic, a known diabetogenic pollutant, impairs insulin secretion by inhibiting calpain-10-dependent proteolysis of SNAP-25. This result suggests that arsenic might contribute to the risk of T2DM through this pathway (15).

Apoptosis in  $\beta$ -cells is normal in a diabetic state and can be triggered in response to stimuli that include cytokine signaling, hypoxia, chronic hyperglycemia, hypoglycemia and exposure to high levels of free fatty acids (FFA) (16,17). Calpain-10 is overexpressed and activated through the inhibition of ryanodine receptor 2 (RyR2) under hypoglycemic and high fatty acid conditions, causing caspase-3independent  $\beta$ -cell death (17). This type of cell death is mediated by a decreased ATP/ADP ratio and an induced expression of hypoxia inducible factor-1 $\beta$  (HIF-1 $\beta$ ) by presenilin-1 (18) (Figure 1B). Calpains are able to modulate this protein; however, no evidence has indicated that calpain-10 directly modulates presenilin-1 (19). The decrease in ATP levels could be due to the activation of calpain-10 in the mitochondria (20).

In conclusion, this evidence suggests that both genetic and environmental factors altering calpain-10 expression and activity might affect insulin secretion as well as the viability of  $\beta$ -cells. Thus, calpain-10 serves as a target and plays a role in the development of T2DM.

#### Calpain-10 Participation in Insulin-stimulated Glucose Uptake

Factors that modulate the metabolism of skeletal muscle such as intralipid infusion in normal glucose-tolerant individuals, hyperinsulinemic-euglycemic clamp in humans and exercise in rats regulate the expression of *CAPN10* mRNA (21–23). Inhibition of calpains diminishes insulin-stimulated glucose uptake in primary rat adipocytes and muscle strips (10).

One of the key events in the augmentation of glucose uptake induced by insulin is the externalization of glucose transporters (GLUTs), which increases glucose uptake and is the first step in glucose metabolism (24). Calpain-10 knockdown in 3T3-L1 adipocyte cells and in human



**Figure 1.** The roles of calpain-10 in  $\beta$ -cell function. (A) An augmentation of glucose uptake and metabolism increases ATP levels which, in turn, induce the inactivation of ATP-sensitive K<sup>+</sup>channels, membrane depolarization and calcium influx. This increase in cytosolic calcium concentration activates  $\mu$ -calpain, which cleaves ICA512, resulting in the mobilization of vesicles. Near the cell membrane, a calcium influx induces calpain-10-dependent SNAP25 proteolysis and insulin release. (B) Hypoglycemia and palmitic acid exposure induces  $\beta$ -cell death through inactivation of RyR2 channels, activating calpain-10-dependent cell death. This pathway involves the decreased production of ATP and the presentilin-1-dependent overexpression of HIF-1 $\beta$ . (A color figure can be found in the online version of this article.)

primary muscle cells results in decreased insulin-stimulated glucose uptake and GLUT4 translocation to the plasma membrane through actin filament reorganization, with no changes in expression and activation of molecules involved in the insulin transduction pathway such as IR $\beta$ , IRS1, IRS2 and Akt, or in glycogen synthesis (25,26). Calpain-10 might be an effector downstream of Akt in the insulin signaling pathway or it might be independent of the Akt pathway (Figure 2). However, the mechanism of calpain-10 activation and the specific substrates involved in vesicle translocation and cytoskeleton reorganization remain to be elucidated.

In addition to studies focused on the classical targets of insulin, CAPN10 mRNA expression is decreased in white blood cells of the Otsuka Long-Evans Tokushima Fatty (OLETF) rats; they develop T2DM spontaneously with age, and the decrease in CAPN10 expression occurs prior to disease onset (27). Our group found that calpain activity in lymphocytes responds to changes in glucose concentration, and this response is diminished in T2DM patients, but without changes in calpain-10 protein and mRNA expression (28). These findings suggest that calpain activity could be used as a biomarker of T2DM susceptibility, and that this protease could be involved in the metabolism of the lymphocytes. The role of calpain-10 in the responding capacity of calpains in lymphocytes remains to be determined.

#### CAPN10 Variants in Diabetes Susceptibility

Several studies have been performed to understand the role of *CAPN10* polymorphisms in the development of T2DM (Table 1). Variation in the *CAPN10* gene (SNP-43 G/G, InDel-19 3/2 and SNP-63 C/T) known as haplotype 121/112 is associated with the risk of developing T2DM in

Mexican-American populations with a high populationattributable risk (14%) (2). Later studies conducted in American populations resulted in controversial findings (29–33). These results could be attributed to the small sample sizes and the genetic heterogeneity that exist in these populations (34).

Controversial results exist regarding the association of CAPN10 variants with T2DM in European (35-42) and



Figure 2. Calpain-10 is involved in insulin-dependent GLUT4 externalization in adipocytes and muscle cells. After insulin stimulation, calpain-10 participates in GLUT4 externalization through actin cytoskeleton rearrangements. (A color figure can be found in the online version of this article.)

Table 1. Association studies of CAPN10 polymorphisms and T2DM

Americans Matricans Matricans Matrix 10 aph72DM = 110 aph72DM = 112Haplogenotype 112/121 CR 2.80 (95% CI 1.23-6.43) genotype with T2DM genotype with T2DM genotype with T2DMNo secciation of SNP-43 GG genotype with T2DM[2] genotype with T2DM genotype with T2DMFinals MT2DM = 192 SNP-43 G German MT2DM = 532 MT2DM = 532 MT2DM = 544 MT2DM = 544Haplogenotype 112/121' OR 4.97 (95% CI 0.64-38.41) MT2DM = 50OR 2.72 (95% CI 1.16-6.35) SNP 4.5 A19 not 112/121 haplogenotype 112/121'OR 2.72 (95% CI 1.16-6.35) SNP 4.5 A19 not 112/121 haplogenotype 112/121 No association was found German MT2DM = 134 MT2DM = 114SNP 4.4 C (SNP-110) MEXican (Mexico City and MT2DM = 144SNP 4.3 GG SNP 4.3 GGOR 1.41 (95% CI 1.00-1.99) M association was foundNo association of SNP 4.3 association of SNP 4.3 GG[31] of SNP 4.3 GGMT2DM = 106 MT2DM = 1159 OJ-Cocc MT2DM = 121 MT2DM = 123 MT2DM = 124 MT2DM = 483 MT2DM = 857SNP 4.4, -4.3, -10, -4.8, -6.3, InDe-1.9 No association was found[32] M association was found MT2DM = 857[35] SNP 4.4, -4.3, -6.3 and InDel-19 No association was found MT2DM = 874 Haplogenotype 121/121' OR 1.93 (SP 54.1, -4.3, -6.3 and InDel-19 No association was found MT2DM = 874 Finals MT2DM = 288 SNP 4.3, -6.3 and InDel-19No association was found MT2DM = 181 No association was found MT2DM = 181 MT2DM = 480 Nameian Pomenopusal MT2DM = 480 ND1DM = 874 Finals MT2DM = 481 MT2DM = 480 ND1DM = 874 Finals MT2DM = 874 Finals MT2DM = 288 SNP 4.3, -6.3 and InDel-19 No association was found MT2DM = 286 SNP 4.3, -6.3 and InDel-19 No association was found<	Population	Genotypes analyzed	Association with T2DM	Other associations	Ref.
Maxian-American DT2DM = 110Haplogenotype 112/121OR 2.80 (95% C1 1.23 - 6.43)No association of SNP-43 GG genotype with T2DM[2] genotype with T2DMTT2DM = 112Haplogenotype 112/121OR 2.55 (95% C1 0.79 - 8.29)No association with T2DMNoTT2DM = 192SNP-43 G SNP-63 GAssociated with T2DMNoNoTT2DM = 202SNP-43 G SNP-63 GAssociated with T2DMNoNoTT2DM = 102SNP-43 G SNP-43 CAssociated with T2DMNoNoTT2DM = 203SNP-43 G SNP-43 GAssociated with T2DMNoNoTT2DM = 104NoSNP-43 (-63, -19 nor 112/121 haplogenotypeNoNoTT2DM = 104NoNo association was foundSNP-43 (-63, -19 nor 112/121 haplogenotypeNoTT2DM = 104NoNoNo association was foundSNP-43 (-63, -19 nor 112/121 haplogenotypeNOTT2DM = 114NoNo association was foundSNP-43 (-63, -19 nor 112/121 haplogenotypeNOTT2DM = 114NoNo association was foundSNP-43 (-63, -19 nor 112/121 haplogenotypeNOTT2DM = 706NoNoNo association was foundSNP-43 (-63, -19 nor 112/121 haplogenotypeTT2DM = 159NoNo association was foundSNP-43 (-63, -19 nor 112/121 haplogenotypeSNP-43 (-63, -19 nor 112/121 haplogenotypeTT2DM = 152NoNo association was foundSNP-44 (-43, -63, -10 nor 48, -10 no	Americans				
$ \begin{tabular}{ c c c c c } & \begin{tabular}{ c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c$	Mexican-American	Haplogenotype 112/121	OR 2.80 (95% CI 1.23-6.43)	No association of SNP-43 G/G	[2]
	nT2DM = 110			genotype with T2DM	
$ \begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	nNT2DM = 112				
n1 LDM = 192Nule irequency NPE 3CAssociated with T2DM Associated with T2DM sociated with T2DM sociated with T2DM = 132Nule irequency NP 3C M = 497 (95% CI 0.64-38.1)nT2DM = 232 nV12DM = 90SNP-43 CGSNP-43 CI 0.64-38.1)No association was found for SNP-43. C3, 1-9 nor 112/121[29] No association was found for nor 120/121 may haplogenotype[29]nT2DM = 104 nT2DM = 114SNP-43No association was found Cuereror)[30]nT2DM = 179 nT2DM = 179SNP-43No association was found of SNP-44[31] of SNP-45nT2DM = 109 nT2DM = 109SNP-43No association was found of SNP-43 was found.[31] of SNP-43 was found.nT2DM = 109 nT2DM = 109 nT2DM = 109SNP-43No association was found[32]nT2DM = 109 nT2DM = 109SNP-43 G/GOR 1.41 (95% CI 1.00-1.99) of SNP-43 was found.In a pooled analysis, association of SNP-43 was found.[31] of SNP-43 was found.nT2DM = 109 nT2DM = 101 nT2DM = 121 nNT2DM = 123SNP-44, -43, -63, and InDel-19No association was foundEvidence of linkage at 2q37 ( $\rho = 0.00058$ )nT2DM = 183 nT2DM = 857 FimishSNP-44, C3, -63 and InDel-19No association was foundSNP-43 G/G associated with T2DM and free futy and line with targing insulin insulantnT2DM = 184 nT2DM = 184 nT2DM = 184SNP-43, C3 and InDel-19No association was foundSNP-43 G/G associated with T2DM association with fragm insulantnT2DM = 184 nT2DM = 184 nT2DM = 184SNP-43, C3 and InDel-19No association was foundSNP-43 G/G was associate	Finnish $-720M - 102$	Haplogenotype 112/121	OR 2.55 (95% CI 0.79–8.29)		
$ \begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	n12DM = 192 $nNT2DM = 102$	Allele frequency	Associated with T2DM		
	$\lim_{n \to \infty} 12DM = 192$	SNP-43 G	Associated with T2DM		
$ \begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	German	Hanlogenotype 112/121 <sup>a</sup>	OR 4 97 (95% CI $0.64 - 38.41$ )		
$\begin{tabular}{ c c c c c c c } & NP-44 C (SNP-110) & OR 2.72 (95\% CI 1.16-6.35) & No association was found for [29] & Orizaba (Mexico City and 134 & NP-43 (City and 144 & NP-45 & Orizaba (Mexico City and 144 & Orizaba (Mexico City and 144 & Orizaba (Mexico City and 144 & Orizaba (Mexico City and 145 & Orizaba (M$	nT2DM = 232	Trapiogenotype 112/121	OK 4.97 (95% CI 0.04 50.41)		
$\begin{array}{llllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllll$	nNT2DM = 90				
$ \begin{array}{c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c $	Mexican (Mexico City and	SNP-44 C (SNP-110)	OR 2.72 (95% CI 1.16–6.35)	No association was found for	[29]
$\begin{array}{cccc} nntZDM & = 134 & & & haplogenotype \\ nntZDM & = 114 & & & & & & & & & & & & & & & & & &$	Orizaba)	2		SNP-43, -63, -19 nor 112/121	[=+]
n NT2DM = 114Mexican (Mexico City and Guerrero) nT2DM = 719 nT2DM = 719 nT2DM = 746SNP-43No association was found[30] (30) (31) of SNP-43 was foundAfrican-Americans NT2DM = 269 nT2DM = 1159SNP-43 G/GOR 1.41 (95% CI 1.00-1.99) of SNP-43 was found.In a pooled analysis, association of SNP-43 was found.[31] of SNP-43 was found.nT2DM = 269 nT2DM = 121 nT2DM = 121 nT2DM = 468SNP-73No association was found[32] nT2DM = 468American Postmenopausal women (Diverse ethnic origin) nT2DM = 1543 nT2DM = 132SNP-44, -43, -63 and InDel-19No association was found[33]T2DM = 872 nT2DM = 875 nT2DM = 875SNP-43, -63 and InDel-19No association was foundSNP-43 G/G associated with 2437 ( $\rho = 0.0008$ )[36] nMT2DM = 857 nT2DM = 857Int2DM = 395 nT2DM = 395 nT2DM = 208 IntisionSNP-44, -43, -63 and InDel-19No association was foundSNP-43 G/G associated with pight rHOMA, fasting insulin and free fatty acid levesInt2DM = 208 nNT2DM = 208 nNT2DM = 208 nNT2DM = 408SNP-43, -63 and InDel-19No association was foundIn elderly, SNP-43 cid levesInt2DM = 209 nNT2DM = 209 nNT2DM = 408SNP-43, -63 and InDel-19No association was foundIn elderly, SNP-56 and InDel-19Int2DM = 208 nNT2DM = 209 nNT2DM = 408SNP-43, -63 and InDel-19No association was foundIn elderly, SNP-56 and InDel-19Int2DM = 209 nNT2DM = 408SNP-43, -63 and InDel-19No association was foundIn elderly, SNP-56 and InDel-19Int2DM = 209 nNT2DM = 408	nT2DM = 134			haplogenotype	
Mexican (Mexico City and Guerrero) n72DM = 719 nNT2DM = 746SNP43No association was found[30]African-Americans nNT2DM = 269 nNT2DM = 1159SNP43 G/GOR 1.41 (95% CI 1.00–1.99) of SNP-43 was found.In a pooled analysis, association of SNP-43 was found.[31] of SNP-43 was found.Oji-Cree nT2DM = 1159SNP-73No association was foundImage: SNP-73[32] of SNP-43 was found.American Postmenopausal women (Diverse ethnic origin) nT2DM = 1543 nNT2DM = 2132SNP-44, -43, -110, -48, -63, and InDel-19 nNT2DM = 2132No association was foundEvidence of linkage at 2q37 (p = 0.00058)[33]Feropears nT2DM = 857SNP-44, -63 and InDel-19No association was foundEvidence of linkage at 2q37 (p = 0.00058)[36] nNT2DM = 298 nAT2DM = 121/1121 <sup>k</sup> [36] nNT2DM = 298Finnish nT2DM = 298SNP-43 G/G SNP-43, -63 and InDel-19No association was foundSNP-43 G/G associated with not associated with T2DM not shopenotype 121/121 <sup>k</sup> [40] were associated with fasting insulin not figher HOMA, fasting i	nNT2DM = 114				
$ \begin{array}{llllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllll$	Mexican (Mexico City and	SNP-43	No association was found		[30]
$\begin{array}{cccc} nt2DM = 719 & & & & & & & & & & & & & & & & & & &$	Guerrero)				
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$\begin{array}{llllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllll$	nNT2DM = 746				
$\begin{array}{cccc} nT2DM = 269 & & & & & & & & & & & & & & & & & & &$	African-Americans	SNP-43 G/G	OR 1.41 (95% CI 1.00-1.99)	In a pooled analysis, association	[31]
$ \begin{array}{c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c $	nT2DM = 269			of SNP-43 was found.	
$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	nNT2DM = 1159				
$ \begin{array}{c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c $	Oji-Cree	SNP-73	No association was found		[32]
nN12DM = 408 American Postmenopausal SNP-44, -43, -110, -48, -63, No association was found [33] Women (Diverse ethnic origin) InDel-19 and others nT2DM = 1543 nNT2DM = 1543 nNT2DM = 2132 Europeans Swedish SNP-44, -43, -63 and InDel-19 No association was found Evidence of linkage at 237 (p = 0.00058) nT2DM = 877 nNT2DM = 857 Finnish SNP-44, InDel-19 No association was found SNP-43 G/G associated with [36] nT2DM = 395 SNP-43 G Associated with T2DM higher HOMA, fasting insulin nT2DM = 298 SNP-63 T Associated with T2DM and free fatty acid leves Haplogenotype 1121/1121 <sup>b</sup> OR 1.93 (95% CI 1.07-3.47) Finnish SNP-43, -63 and InDel-19 No association was found In elderly, SNP-56 and InDel-19 [40] were associated with fatting insulin levels. Polish SNP-43, -63 and InDel-19 No association was found Haplogenotype 121/121 was [37] nT2DM = 148 Polish SNP-43, -63 and InDel-19 No association was found SNP-43 G/G was associated with positive family nT2DM = 148 Polish SNP-43, -63 and InDel-19 No association was found SNP-43 G/G was associated with fasting instant levels. Polish SNP-43, -63 and InDel-19 No association was found Haplogenotype 121/121 was [37] nT2DM = 148 Polish SNP-43, -63 and InDel-19 No association was found SNP-43 G/G was associated with positive family nT2DM = 880	nT2DM = 121				
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$ \begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	$r_{T2DM} = 1542$	Indel-19 and others			
Introduct of the second secon	nNT2DM = 2132				
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Interform <td>Swedish</td> <td>SNP-44, -43, -63 and InDel-19</td> <td>No association was found</td> <td>Evidence of linkage at</td> <td>[35]</td>	Swedish	SNP-44, -43, -63 and InDel-19	No association was found	Evidence of linkage at	[35]
nNT2DM = 857       Finnish       SNP-44, InDel-19       No association was found       SNP-43 G/G associated with       [36]         nT2DM = 395       SNP-43 G       Associated with T2DM       higher HOMA, fasting insulin       Image: Constraint of the state of the stat	nT2DM = 872			2q37 (p = 0.00058)	[00]
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$ \begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	Finnish	SNP-44, InDel-19	No association was found	SNP-43 G/G associated with	[36]
nNT2DM = 298SNP-63 TAssociated with T2DMand free fatty acid levesHaplogenotype 1121/1121bOR 1.93 (95% CI 1.07-3.47)(40)FinnishSNP-43, -56, -63 and InDel-19No association was foundIn elderly, SNP-56 and InDel-19(40)nT2DM = 781were associated with fastingnNT2DM = 408insulin levels.PolishSNP-43, -63 and InDel-19No association was foundHaplogenotype 121/121 was[37]nT2DM = 229Haplogenotype 121/121aOR 1.93 (95% CI 1.03-3.54)associated with positive family[37]nNT2DM = 148No association was foundSNP-43, -63 and InDel-19No association was foundSNP-43 G/G was associated with[38]nT2DM = 880Haplogenotype 121/121aOR 1.91 (95% CI 1.39-2.63)CVD in T2DM subjects[37]	nT2DM = 395	SNP-43 G	Associated with T2DM	higher HOMA, fasting insulin	
Haplogenotype 1121/1121bOR 1.93 (95% CI 1.07-3.47)[40]FinnishSNP-43, -56, -63 and InDel-19No association was foundIn elderly, SNP-56 and InDel-19[40]nT2DM = 781were associated with fastingnNT2DM = 408insulin levels.PolishSNP-43, -63 and InDel-19No association was foundHaplogenotype 121/121 was[37]nT2DM = 229Haplogenotype 121/121aOR 1.93 (95% CI 1.03-3.54)associated with positive family[37]nNT2DM = 148	nNT2DM = 298	SNP-63 T	Associated with T2DM	and free fatty acid leves	
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POISSSNP-45, -65 and InDel-19No association was foundSNP-43 G/G was associated with[38]nT2DM = 880Haplogenotype 121/121aOR 1.91 (95% CI 1.39-2.63)CVD in T2DM subjects	nNT2DM = 148			history of T2DM	1001
$n_1 2DM = 880    Haptogenotype 121/121^{-1}    OK 1.91 (95\% CI 1.39-2.65)    CVD in 12DM subjects$	$r_{2} = r_{2} = r_{2}$	SNP-43, -63 and InDel-19	No association was found	SNP-43 G/G was associated with	[38]
nNT2DM = 560	$\frac{112DW}{2} = 600$	napiogenotype 121/121	OK 1.91 (95% CI 1.59–2.03)	CVD III 12DIVI Subjects	

Irish	SNP-43, -63, -48 and InDel-19	No association was found		[39]
nT2DM = 236	Haplotype 121 <sup>a</sup>	Decreased in T2DM		
nNT2DM = 120	Haplogenotype G-del-G (43-19- 48)	Increased in T2DM		
British	SNP-44 C	OR 1.59 (95% CI 1.15-2.2)		[42]
nT2DM = 153 nNT2DM = 411	SNP-43, -63 and InDel-19	No association was found		
Danish nT2DM = 1359 nNT2DM = 4659	SNP-43, -44	No association was found		[41]
Meta-analysis	SND 42 C	OD 1.00 (050) OL 1.02 1.1()		
nT2DM = 5951 nNT2DM = 9417	SNP-45 G	OK 1.09 (95% CI 1.02–1.16)		
-44: pT2DM = 4926	SNP-44 C	OR 1.15 (95% CI 1.07-1.23)		
nNT2DM = 4920 nNT2DM = 8702				
European meta-analysis	Pooled analysis			[50]
nT2DM = 3237	SNP-43 G	OR 1.19 (95% CI 1.07–1.32)		[30]
nNT2DM = 2935	SNP-63 and InDel-19	No association was found		
	Haplogenotypes 121/121 <sup>a</sup>	OR 1.46 (95% CI 1.19–1.78)		
	112/121	OR 1.52 (95% CI 1.12–2.06)		
	111/221	OR 0.83 (95% CI 0.7–0.99)		
	Meta-analysis	<b>`</b>		
	SNP-43 G	OR 1.18 (95% 1.05-1.32)		
	Haplogenotype 121/121 <sup>a</sup>	OR 1.68 (95% 1.33-2.11)		
Asiatics				
Japanese	SNP-43, SNP-44	No association was found	Increased levels of serum	[46]
nT2DM = 81 nNT2DM = 81	Haplogenotype G/G, T/T		cholesterol	
Japanese	SNP-43, -44, -63 and InDel-19	No association was found	Haplogenotype 112/121	[47]
nT2DM = 177	3 missense mutations	Association of P200T with	associated with higher glucose-	
nNT2DM = 172		T2DM	induced serum insulin under	
			hyperglycemic clamp and serum	
			FFA levels under euglycemic	
			clamp	
Japanese	SNP-43, -63 and InDel-19	No association was found	InDel-19 3R/3R and SNP-63 11	[48]
nT2DM = 10			subjects had higher BMI and	
nN12DM = 276			$HbA_{1c}$	
			121/121 subjects has higher BMI	
Temenen			and 112/121 has lower BMI	[40]
T2DM - 027	Pooled analysis	No according was found		[49]
$\frac{112DM}{1} = \frac{927}{1}$	SINP-43, -03 and InDel-19	No association was found $OP = 2.52 (0.5\% CL + 2410.1)$		
$\min 12DW = 929$	$\frac{111}{221}$	OK 3.53 (95% CI 1.24–10.1)		
	haplotype			
	InDel-19 3R/3R			
				(continued on next page)
				(comment on near page)

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Population	Genotypes analyzed	Association with T2DM	Other associations	Ref.
		Associated with lower risk of		
		T2DM		
	Haplotypes 121 <sup>a</sup>	OR 0.80 (0.66–0.96)		
	111	OR 1.33 (1.00–1.75)		
Korean	SNP-43, -63 and InDel-19	No association was found		[43, 44]
nT2DM = 454	Haplotype 111 <sup>a</sup>	Associated with T2DM		
nNT2DM = 236	Haplogenotypes 111/121 <sup>a</sup>	OR 2.58 (95% CI 1.60-4.15)		
	121/121	OR 0.66 (95% CI 0.46-0.94)		
Chinese	SNP-43, -63 and InDel-19	No association was found	112/121 haplogenotype was	[45]
nT2DM = 168	Haplogenotype 112/221 <sup>a</sup>	OR 0.39 (95% CI 0.18–0.86)	associated with increased serum	
nNT2DM = 104			cholesterol levels	
Chinese	SNP-43, -44, -63 and InDel-19	No association was found	C allele of SNP-44 was	[76]
nT2DM = 493	Haplogenotype 1112/1221 <sup>b</sup>	OR 0.54 (95% CI 0.30–0.95)	associated with obesity	
nNT2DM = 553			1112/1221 associated with lower	
			risk of hypertension	
Asiatic	SNP-43	No association was found		[51]
Pooled analysis				
South Indian	SNP-44, -43, -63 and InDel-19	No association was found	SNP-63 C/C genotype associated	[54]
nT2DM = 649	Haplotype 2111 <sup>b</sup>	Associated with T2DM	with higher levels of 2h postload	
nNT2DM = 794			plasma glucose	
Eastern Indian	SNP-43 and InDel-19	No association was found		[55]
nT2DM = 200	SNP-63 T	OR 3.74 (95% CI 1.44-9.7)		
nNT2DM = 100	Haplotypes 112 <sup>a</sup>	OR 3.4 (95% CI 1.17-9.9)		
	121	OR 0.7 (95% CI 0.5-0.99)		
	Haplogenotype 111/112 <sup>a</sup>	Associated with T2DM		
Other populations				
Furkish	SNP-44 TC	Associated with T2DM	SNP-44 TC genotype associated	[56]
nT2DM = 202	Т	Lower frequency in T2DM	with higher BMI	
nNT2DM = 80	SNP-63, InDel-19	No association was found		
Gaza Strip	SNP-44 C	Association with T2DM	SNP-43 G/A, InDel-19 3R/3R	[57]
nT2DM = 48	SNP-43, -63 and InDel-19	No association was found	patients and those with	
nNT2DM = 48			haplogenotype 121/221 had	
			higher levels of cholesterol.	
Funisian Arab	SNP-43,-63	No association was found		[58]
nT2DM = 917	InDel-19 3R/2R	OR 1.35 (95%CI 1.08-1.68)		
nNT2DM = 748	2R/2R	OR 1.61 (95%CI 1.20-2.18)		
	111 haplotype	OR 1.22 (95%CI 1.06-1.41)		
Samoans	SNP-43, -63 and InDel-19	No association was found		[59]
nT2DM = 172				
nNT2DM = 96				
Vest Africans	SNP-43, -56 and -63	No association was found		[60]
nT2DM = 347	Haplotype 221 <sup>a</sup>	OR 3.76 (95%CI 1.57-8.98) in		
nNT2DM = 148		Nigeria populations, but no		
		association was found in Ghana		
		populations		

Asiatic populations (43-49). Nevertheless, pooled and meta-analyses in European population studies have shown that the G allele of SNP-43, T allele of SNP-63 and C allele of SNP-44 are associated with increased risk of T2DM, whereas the haplogenotype 111/221 was associated with a protective effect (41,50). A meta-analysis of Eastern Asiatic populations (Japanese, Korean and Chinese) revealed no association of SNP-43 and diabetes; however, no other SNPs were analyzed. Differences in life style and ethnicity in these three populations analyzed could have influenced these results (51). In contrast, a pooled analysis conducted in a Japanese population showed an association between the haplogenotype 111/221 and T2DM risk (49). In addition, a meta-analysis of all association studies up to years 2003 and 2004 showed that the G allele of SNP-43 and SNP-44 are associated with T2DM and that SNP-44 was overtransmitted to diabetic offspring (52,53). However, SNP-44 may not be the real causal variant because this SNP is in perfect linkage disequilibrium with the Thr504Ala (SNP-110) missense mutation and with two other SNPs (SNP-134 and SNP-135) (53).

CAPN10 polymorphisms have been associated with T2DM risk in other populations including Indian, Turkish, Tunisian Arab and Gaza Strip populations (54–58). No associations were identified in Samoans, and no conclusive results in African populations exist, most likely due to the low frequency of the haplotypes tested (59,60).

In summary, the majority of studies support that SNP-43 and SNP-44 are associated with a major risk of developing T2DM. Studies with large sample sizes and a proper selection that accounts for the ethnicity of the individuals are needed to clarify the impact of CAPN10 polymorphisms in T2DM development. Importantly, the small OR values observed in all prior studies could be due to the complex nature of T2DM (Table 1).

#### Associations of the CAPN10 Gene with Metabolic Phenotypes

CAPN10 variants have been associated with clinical profiles related to metabolic traits. The G allele of SNP-43 in adult individuals has been linked with insulin resistance, showing higher fasting plasma glucose levels, reduced rates of endogenous glucose production and lower glucose disposal rates in the euglycemic clamp (61,62). SNP-43 was further associated with higher levels of both insulin and blood glucose after an oral glucose tolerance test (OGTT) and an elevated HOMA insulin resistance index (36). In children, this genotype was also associated with higher levels of fasting glucose (63). In skeletal muscle from individuals with SNP-43 G/G, a reduction in mRNA expression of the more abundant isoforms was identified and correlated with carbohydrate oxidation rate (61.64).

Impaired fasting glucose levels are related to SNP-44 in hypertensive patients and in children, to SNP-63 after an

OR 1.17 (95%CI 1.02-1.34)

offspring

Overtransmitted to diabetic

SNP-44 C SNP-44 C

Meta-analysis of family based

n = 487 trios

studies

Meta-analyisis

n = 3303

nNT2DM = 5876

nT2DM = 5013

Meta-analysis

63 allele 1:C, allele 2:1. 2:3K: SNF allele 447 4.5 allele 1:G. allele 2:A: INDEL-19 allele SNP-44 allele 1:1, allele 2:C; SNP

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OR 1.19 (95%CI 1.07-1.33)

No association was found

SNP-44, -63 and InDel-19

SNP-43 G/G

53]



Figure 3. Calpain-10 is required to maintain proper mitochondrial function by proteolysis of complex I subunits and the  $\beta$  subunit of ATP synthase. The protein concentration in the mitochondria decreases during chronic hyperglycemia in renal tubular epithelial cells and causes mitochondrial dysfunction and apoptosis, contributing to the development of diabetic nephropathy. (A color figure can be found in the online version of this article.)

OGTT, to InDel-19 in children and to 112/121 haplogenotype both during fasting and after an OGTT (54,62,63,65). Blood insulin levels are increased in individuals with 112/ 121 haplogenotype after a hyperglycemic clamp test and an OGTT. Lower levels were found in individuals with a 2111/1121 *CAPN10* haplotype combination, which was associated with lower HOMA values (62,66,67). SNP-44 has also been associated with impaired glucose tolerance in hypertensive patients (65). Subjects with an Indel-19 2R/2R genotype had higher levels of HbA<sub>1C</sub> than those with 3R/2R or 3R/3R genotypes (48).

Regarding lipid levels in the blood, SNP-43 was associated with increased triglyceride levels both in obese and non-diabetic adults and children (31,63,68). High FFA levels were observed both in fasting and after a euglycemic-hyperinsulinemic clamp test in individuals with the 112/121 haplotype (36,47). In individuals carrying *CAPN10* haplotype combinations 112/121, 121/221 and 2111/1121, increased total cholesterol levels were found (45,46,54,57). Furthermore, increased levels of both HDL and LDL were demonstrated with 112/121 haplogenotypes (45,48,57).

Interestingly, in metabolic syndrome patients the G/G genotype of *CAPN10* rs2953171 polymorphism interacts with plasma saturated FFA, producing diverse effects. Low levels of saturated FFA were associated with lower HOMA-IR, fasting insulin and higher glucose effectiveness in subjects carrying G/G genotype in contrast with those carrying G/A or A/A genotypes. Subjects with elevated levels of saturated FFA and G/G genotype had higher fasting insulin and HOMA-IR levels and lower glucose effectiveness than subjects carrying the A allele and high levels of saturated FFA (69).

*CAPN10* variants are able to regulate lipid metabolism. Basal and insulin-stimulated lipogenesis are higher in adipocytes from women with the SNP-43 G/G genotype (70). Individuals with the G/G genotype for SNP-43 oxidize more lipids and less protein than G/A or A/A individuals (61). Obese individuals carrying the InDel-19 variant of two repeats have lower lipolytic function of  $\beta_3$ -adrenore-ceptor (71); however, neither InDel-19 nor SNP-43 showed effects in healthy subjects (71,72).

Xenobiotic agents such as arsenic can interact with *CAPN10* polymorphisms and induce T2DM. In an arsenic-exposed population, we discovered that this metalloid and both SNP-43 and SNP-44 are related to the impairment of  $\beta$ -cell function (73). Exposure to other xenobiotics such as immunosuppressant agents has been associated with a higher risk for T2DM. Individuals heterozygous for the SNP-63 polymorphism and carriers of haplotype 112 had higher risks of developing post-transplant T2DM when treated with tacrolimus (74). *CAPN10* polymorphisms also interact with cystic fibrosis; the 3R allele of Indel-19 may contribute to the development of diabetes, which is secondary to this genetic disease (75).

This evidence is in agreement with the previously discussed physiological role of calpain-10 in glucose metabolism. This protease may also be involved in lipid metabolism. Thus, factors that impair calpain-10 expression and activity such as pollutants and genetic variants could contribute to the development of T2DM, obesity, metabolic syndrome and dyslipidemias, which are risk factors for developing cardiovascular diseases (CVDs).

#### The Role of Calpain-10 in Diabetes-related Diseases

#### Obesity

Overweight and obesity increase the risk of developing metabolic syndrome and diabetes. The C allele of SNP-44 is more frequent in Chinese obese patients than in nonobese patients (76) and in Turkish diabetic subjects it is associated with an elevated body mass index (BMI) (56). High BMI is also found in carriers of the InDel-19 2R/2R and 121/121 haplotypes; in contrast, 112/121 haplogenotype is associated with lower BMI in Japanese populations (48). In Mexican children, higher BMI is found in those with SNP-44 T/T and Indel-19 3R/3R; these obese and overweight children have been shown to also exhibit reduced calpain-10 mRNA levels and protein expression (63). Although the relationship between *CAPN10* and obesity has not been fully elucidated, variants of this gene may influence specific dietary responses through the regulation of lipid metabolism, as discussed above. However, the specific mechanisms by which calpain-10 regulates these pathways are not yet understood.

#### Polycystic ovary syndrome (PCOS)

*CAPN10* has been linked to PCOS, a disease tightly related to alterations in glucose metabolism. The C allele of SNP-44, A allele of SNP-43, SNP-63, 2R allele of InDel-19, 111 and 111/121 haplotypes are associated with increased susceptibility to PCOS (77–82). A recent meta-analysis showed that the Indel-19 deletion allele and heterozygous genotype were significantly associated with this disease (83). In addition to their involvement with PCOS risk, the C/C genotype of SNP-63 is associated with increased LDL-cholesterol levels in PCOS patients (79), and 77% of patients with PCOS carrying the 3R/3R genotype in the InDel-19 locus exhibited high cholesterol levels (77).

#### Cardiovascular disease (CVD)

Diabetes is recognized as a potent risk factor for CVD (84). SNP-43 is more frequent in Polish T2DM patients with coexisting CVD than in patients without CVD (38). This SNP is also associated with altered microvascular function in Caucasians (85). Microvascular inflammation is a contributing factor to the pathogenesis of atherosclerosis, one of the most highly prevalent cardiovascular diseases in diabetic populations (86). The haplotype 1112 and haplogenotype 1112/1121 are significantly associated with increased carotidal intima-media thickness in Hispanic Americans, independently of diabetes-related phenotypes (87), whereas the risk haplogenotype 112/121 is associated with the highest levels of subclinical atherosclerosis in the same population (88). One possible mechanism implicates the vascular inflammation in which calpain activity has been involved in hyperglycemia (89). Calpain activity has been linked to endothelial dysfunction (90), which could support that calpains, and most likely calpain-10, are involved in endothelial metabolism. However, the exact mechanisms of endothelial dysfunction caused by hyperglycemia and calpain-10 involvement must be further studied.

Another CVD closely related to diabetes is hypertension. Blood pressure among nondiabetic individuals of African-American origin is higher in homozygous carriers of the G allele of SNP-43; however, no significant differences with respect to other cardiovascular-related traits have been identified (31). The haplogenotype 111/121 is also associated with high blood pressure in diabetics from Korea (43).

Interestingly, as in  $\beta$ -cells, inactivation of RyR2 in cardiomyocytes by specific knockout leads to many hallmarks of heart failure in mice involving calpain-10 overexpression, producing a pseudo-hypoxic state with decreased oxidative metabolism (91). This evidence indicates that calpain-10-dependent apoptosis could contribute to the development of cardiac dysfunction, which is related to the metabolic alterations induced by T2DM (92).

#### Diabetic nephropathy (DN)

DN is the main cause of end-stage renal failure. Additionally, DN is a major risk factor for the development of macrovascular complications (93). In the nephron, calpain-10 is localized in the mitochondria, and its overexpression is responsible for the mitochondrial permeability transition in response to a calcium overload, leading to mitochondrial dysfunction and cell death (20). Calpain-10 plays a role in maintaining mitochondrial complex homeostasis through cleavage of complex I subunits NDUFV2 and ND6, ATP synthase subunit  $\beta$  and chaperone ORP150 (20,94). The reduction of mitochondrial calpain-10 levels results in mitochondrial dysfunction, mitophagy and caspase-3dependent apoptosis via accumulation of calpain-10 substrates (95,96) (Figure 3). Overall, either overexpression or deficiency of calpain-10 appears to play a role in renal mitochondrial dysfunction and cell death. Thus, mitochondrial calpain-10 protein levels and activity must be tightly regulated for normal mitochondrial and renal cell function.

Calpain-10 expression is decreased during aging in rats, mice and the human kidney, and a calorie-restricted diet prevents calpain-10 downregulation (95). Hyperglycemia and streptozotocin-induced diabetes reduce *CAPN10* mRNA expression and mitochondrial calpain-10 levels which, in turn, lead to kidney cell apoptosis and renal dysfunction (96,97). However, insulin treatment ameliorates the impairment in calpain-10 expression caused by hyperglycemia (96).

Thus, the evidence shows that calpain-10 is important for maintaining mitochondrial integrity in kidney cells and the reduction of its expression by hyperglycemia leads to renal failure through apoptosis, which may in turn be a causal factor in the development of diabetic nephropathies in humans.

#### Cataracts

Cataracts are a major contributor of blindness in diabetic patients and are the principal cause of blindness worldwide (98). This state is caused principally by the insolubility of crystallins, and calpains have been associated with the degradation and subsequent precipitation of these proteins (99). Rat lenses treated with selenite, which is a model for the study of cataractogenesis, demonstrate intracellular

augmentations in calcium concentration and in *CAPN10* mRNA expression (100). Diabetic WBN/Kob rats that develop cataracts as a consequence of sustained hyperglycemia exhibit diminished and increased calpain-10 protein levels in the insoluble and soluble fractions of the lens, respectively, correlating with the proteolysis of  $\alpha$ -spectrin and calpain-2 activation (101). These findings suggest that calpain-10 could be involved in the development of chronic hyperglycemia-induced cataracts. Further studies are required to elucidate the specific roles of calpain-10 and calpain-2 in cataract development.

#### Cancer

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Recently, a variety of cancers have been consistently associated with diabetes mellitus and obesity through different mechanisms (93,102–106). Calpains have been shown to participate in cellular processes such as actin remodeling, cellular migration and cell cycle progression, which may contribute to the malignant transformation of cells (107,108). A meta-analysis study linked T2DM to prostate cancer, demonstrating that diabetes is inversely associated with the risk of this type of cancer (109). However, the *CAPN10* G allele of SNP-43 is associated with an increased risk of prostate cancer (110). The A allele of SNP-43 was associated in a different study with an increased risk of pancreatic cancer among smokers (111). The potential link between diabetes, smoking and pancreatic cancer has been previously suggested (112,113).

Calpain-10 is also implicated in laryngeal cancer (LC). The SNP-44 C allele is significantly less frequent among LC cases, whereas its presence in haplotype 2111 provides a protective effect against LC (114). These effects could be explained by the association of SNPs with hyperinsulinemia; the hyperinsulinemic state exerts a protective effect over laryngeal cancer risk (115). In another study, the C/C genotype of SNP-63 was associated with better LC survival rates in patients, whereas heterozygotes for this SNP had a worse prognosis (116). A recent study showed that knockdown of the oncogene *GAEC1* resulted in *CAPN10* downregulation; in patients with esophageal squamous cell carcinoma, the expression of *CAPN10* was correlated with the survival rate (117).

No other cancers have been directly associated with *CAPN10* variation; however, specific *CAPN10* haplotypes have been associated with a family history of cancer among patients with PCOS (77). A better understanding of the link between diabetes, *CAPN10* and cancer is critical. Calpains can cleave many proteins involved in carcinogenesis (118–120); thus, determining which proteins are cleaved specifically by calpain-10 would be of great importance. Given that calpain-10 serves a role in mitochondrial homeostasis, which has diverse functions in tumorigenesis (121), the alteration of its levels and its cellular localization may be relevant in the development of certain cancer types.

In conclusion, current knowledge regarding the function of calpain-10 in diabetes indicates that this protease is involved in insulin secretion and action, two pivotal features of T2DM. Calpain-10 serves a key role in the physiology and maintenance of pancreatic β-cells. Calpain-10 is also involved in insulin-stimulated glucose intake and in lipid metabolism in peripheral tissues. Recent findings strongly suggest that calpain-10 is a central factor in regulating cellular metabolism and, therefore, may participate in the development of T2DM-related diseases. Discrepancies among previous polymorphism association studies of CAPN10 and diabetes are most likely due to the small sample sizes analyzed, genetic heterogeneity or interaction with environmental factors, which were not accounted for during the investigations. However, the association of SNP-43 and SNP-44 with T2DM is supported by several meta-analyses. The unraveling of shared factors that underlie diabetes, its complications and other metabolic traits may help provide tools for diagnostic or therapeutic measures in the future, and calpain-10 has proven to be a key factor in this interplay.

#### **Conflict of Interest**

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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#### **ORIGINAL ARTICLE**

## Calpain Activity in Leukocytes is Associated with Diabetes Biochemical Markers

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*Background and Aims.* CAPN10 gene is associated with type 2 diabetes (T2D). Specific members of the calpain system (CAPN1, CAPN2 and CAPN10) are implicated in glucose metabolism. The aim of this study was to evaluate the calpain activity in leukocytes of control subjects and patients with T2D and its association with the calpain family members involved in glucose metabolism and with biochemical parameters that are altered in T2D.

*Methods.* Calpain activity under extracellular glucose concentrations (70–280 mg/dL) was evaluated in leukocytes from subjects with and without T2D. Protein and mRNA levels of CAPN1, CAPN2 and CAPN10 were evaluated. Calpain inhibitors assays were performed in leukocytes from subjects without T2D to evaluate glucose uptake. Calpain activity at 100 mg/dL glucose was correlated with biochemical parameters by multivariate regression.

*Results.* Calpain activity in control subjects increased with extracellular glucose concentration in a dose-dependent manner, showing a negative association with HbA1c levels and total amount of CAPN10 protein. In contrast, calpain activity is decreased in patients with T2D and do not respond to changes in glucose concentration. A reduction of CAPN1 autolytic fragments were observed in the subjects with diabetes. Calpain inhibitors decreased calpain activity but did not altered glucose uptake in leukocytes.

*Conclusions.* Calpain activity induced by glucose in leukocytes was associated with biochemical markers of glucose metabolism and with CAPN10 protein abundance. Calpain activity is low in subjects with T2D. Thus, calpain activity induced by extracellular glucose in leukocytes could be a potential marker for T2D early risk detection. © 2019 Published by Elsevier Inc. on behalf of IMSS.

Key Words: Glucose homeostasis, Type 2 diabetes, Calpain activity, Calpain-10, Leukocytes.

#### Introduction

Type 2 diabetes (T2D) is produced by the interaction between genetic and environmental factors (1,2). Genetic association studies and functional analyses have implicated calpain-10 (CAPN10) in the development of T2D (3,4), although the possible alterations on the function of this protease during T2D pathogeny are not well understood.

Calpains (EC 3.4.22.17; Clan CA, family C02) are a family of intracellular proteases characterized by the presence of the calpain-like cysteine protease domain (CysPC). Calpains along with their endogenous inhibitor, calpastatin, integrate the calpain system (5,6). The calpain system is involved in several physiological processes, such as vesicular trafficking, apoptosis, cell migration, glucose homeostasis, and are involved in several pathologies, such as Alzheimer's disease, limb-girdle muscular dystrophy 2A, cataracts, strokes, cancer and T2D (5).

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Specific members of the calpain system are implicated in glucose metabolism. CAPN10 is involved in insulin secretion and hypoglycemia- and free fatty acid-induced apoptosis in pancreatic  $\beta$ -cells (7–9). In muscle and adipocytes, CAPN10 regulates insulin-stimulated glucose uptake (10,11), whereas in renal tubule cells, it plays an important role in mitochondrial protein turnover and stability (12). In addition, CAPN10 plays a role in adipose tissue lipid metabolism (13). Calpain-2 (CAPN2) is involved in the degradation of glucose transporter type-1 (GLUT1) and type-4 (GLUT4) (14), and calpain-1 (CAPN1) is implicated in the vesicular trafficking of insulin within  $\beta$ -cells (15).

The study of cellular alterations of the glucose homeostasis in muscles and adipose tissue biopsies from T2D patients is difficult, while leukocytes (obtained by a noninvasive method) represent an adequate model for studying T2D-related alterations (16-21). Human leukocytes have been reported to express CAPN10 (20). Furthermore CAPN10 mRNA expression is decreased in leukocytes of obese children (19).

In a pilot study conducted in leukocytes of 9 control individuals and 11 patients with T2D, we observed that calpain activity is increased after incubation with a highglucose concentration, and it is diminished in diabetic patients (18). These data suggested that in leukocytes, calpain activity might be regulated by extracellular glucose concentration and it could be impaired in patients with T2D. Thus, in this study, we focused on elucidating the findings from our previous pilot study. Our propose was to evaluate the calpain activity in leukocytes from a population of 102 subjects (40 patients with T2D and 62 subjects without T2D) and associate it with the calpain family members, which are involved in glucose metabolism and with biochemical parameters that are altered in T2D.

#### **Material and Methods**

#### Study Population

We performed a case and control study of subjects with and without T2D from the Hospital General, Dr. Manuel Gea González and the Health Center, Dr. José Castro Villagrana in Mexico City, where peripheral blood samples were collected from 123 subjects. All procedures followed were in accordance with the ethical standards of the responsible committee on human experimentation (Hospital General, Dr. Manuel Gea González, and Health Center, Dr. José Castro Villagrana) and with the Helsinki Declaration of 1975. All individuals signed an informed consent form and a questionnaire. Individuals without T2D also did not have first grade relatives diagnosed with diabetes. We considered in T2D patients group, subjects diagnosed according to the American Diabetes Association criteria (ADA) (2). Most of the patients received oral hypoglycemic medication: metformin, glibenclamide, glimepiride or rosiglitazone. Seven patients had a combination therapy of insulin with glibenclamide and/or metformin and one patient received insulin. Five patients did not received treatment and had an adequate glycemic control. From the total population, 21 samples were excluded because of the presence of other diseases. The study population consisted of 40 unrelated patients with T2D and 62 subjects without T2D. Anthropometric parameters (age, sex, weight, height, waist and hip circumference were obtained from each person and body mass index (BMI) was obtained with the formula: BMI = weight/height<sup>2</sup>).

Whole peripheral blood samples were obtained after a 12 h fasting period in heparinized tubes (BD Vacutainer®) for leukocytes isolation. In addition, blood samples in SST<sup>TM</sup> (with clot activator to obtain blood serum) and ED-TA tubes were obtained to determine the biochemical parameters and to quantify the glycated hemoglobin (HbA1c), respectively.

Biochemical parameters (serum fasting glucose, insulin, HbA1c, total cholesterol, HDL, LDL and triglycerides) were analyzed by the laboratory of clinical analysis of the Hospital General, Dr. Manuel Gea González, using standard protocols. Homeostasis model assessment for insulin resistance (HOMA2-IR),  $\beta$ -cell function (HOMA2%B) and insulin sensitivity (HOMA%S) were calculated using the HOMA2 Calculator v.2.2 software (©Diabetes Trials Unit, University of Oxford http://www.dtuox.ac.uk/homa).

#### Peripheral Blood Mononuclear Cell Isolation (Leukocytes)

Leukocytes were separated from whole peripheral blood by Ficoll-Hypaque-1077 gradient (Sigma-Aldrich, MO, USA). The cells were washed twice with PBS and counted using a Neubauer chamber. For the calpain activity assay, leukocytes were immediately exposed to a pulse of extracellular glucose. For protein analysis, leukocytes after isolation were frozen at  $-70^{\circ}$ C, and for RNA isolation, leukocytes were cryopreserved until processing.

#### Calpain Activity Assay

Calpain activity was evaluated using the lipid-soluble calpain substrate peptide (tBoc-Leu-Met) binding fluorophore 7-amino-4-chloromethylcoumarin (CMAC). Once it is inside of the cell; this compound is conjugate to glutathione (GSH). After hydrolysis by calpains inside of the cell, the CMAC-GSH conjugate is the major intracellular fluorescent product generated by calpain protease (22). Calpain activity was assayed as detailed in our previous work (18) with some modifications. Immediately after isolation, the leukocytes were washed twice with PBS buffer and placed in Krebs Ringer HEPES buffer (pH 7.4 at 37°C), freshly supplemented with 70, 100, 200 or 280 mg/dL of glucose (equivalent to 3.9, 5.6, 11.1 or 15.6 mM). Cells (1 × 10<sup>5</sup>) were placed in a 96 flat well plates per triplicate for each
glucose concentration. Calpain substrate tBoc-Leu-Met-CMAC (10  $\mu$ M, Molecular Probes, CA, USA) was prepared in KRH buffer using each glucose concentration. At once, substrate solution was added to each well, and the fluorescence was measured every minute during a 90 min period in a Fluoroskan Ascent microplate fluorometer (Thermo Electron Corporation, Vantaa Finland) (Ex/Em: 355 nm: 460 nm). According to the linearity of the reaction, the slope was calculated with the fluorescence change between 10 and 60 min. The total time to measure calpain activity was 50 min in the presence of calpain substrate diluted in the different glucose concentrations (70, 100, 200 or 280 mg/dL).

# Calpain Activity in the Presence of the $Ca^{2+}$ Ionophore A23187 and Calpain Inhibitors

A pilot experiment independent of the population of study was performed with a non-T2D subject and two patients with T2D. Leukocytes were treated with the  $Ca^{2+}$  ionophore A23187 and the substrate tBoc-Leu-Met-CMAC for 1 min (23).

For the assays with calpain inhibitors, leukocytes from 10 healthy subjects after 8 h of fasting (age  $24 \pm 5.0$  years old, BMI of  $23 \pm 2.0$  kg/m<sup>2</sup>, fasting serum glucose of 78.0  $\pm$  8 mg/dL, triglycerides of 77  $\pm$  14 mg/dL, total serum cholesterol of  $142.0 \pm 29.0 \text{ mg/dL}$ ) were isolated and serum starved in RPMI-1640 medium with 3.9 mM of glucose for 2 h at 37°C. After serum starvation,  $0.12 \times 10^6$  leukocytes for each condition were incubated for 10 min with the vehicle (DMSO), the calpain inhibitors (ALLM from Sigma-Aldrich, AK275 from Santa Cruz Biotechnology and the PD151746 from Sigma Aldrich) or the cathepsin inhibitor CATI-1 (Merck). Then, KRH buffer with the calpain substrate tBoc-Leu-Met-CMAC and the corresponding inhibitor were added to the cells. The mix was incubated for 25 min at 37°C. After incubation, the cells were fixed with 4% para-formaldehyde in PBS. The fluorescence was measure using an Attune® flow cytometer (Applied Biosystems), using the VL1 channel. The data were analyzed with the FlowJo V10 software. We measured the fluorescence levels in the region corresponding to lymphocytes, according to a forward scatter (FSC) vs. side scatter (SSC) plots. The median of the fluorescence intensity was obtained in each sample and adjusted to the fluorescence levels of the cells treated with the vehicle.

## Glucose Uptake Assay

Two aliquots of  $0.5 \times 10^6$  leukocytes were used for each condition. Leukocytes were incubated for 60 min at 37°C in KRH buffer with the calpain or cathepsin inhibitors. Then, 2-deoxyglucose (2DG) was added to the KRH buffer (1 mM) and incubated for 20 min. After 2DG incubation, cells were washed twice with PBS and the 2DG uptake was measured with the glucose uptake assay kit (Abcam).

This kit measures the levels of 2-deoxyglucose 6phosphate, which is the glucose that entered into the cell and was phosphorylated by hexokinase. The procedure was done according to manufacturer protocol.

## Protein Extraction and Western Blot

Cells were lysed using RIPA buffer supplemented with protease and phosphatase inhibitors. Protein was quantified by the DC Protein Assay, which is a Detergent-Compatible (DC) kit with up to 1% ionic or non-ionic detergents (Bio-Rad, Berkeley, USA). Total protein (35 µg) was loaded onto 12% polyacrylamide gels, separated by SDS-PAGE, and transferred onto a nitrocellulose membrane. Blots were blocked with 2% low-fat milk (Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Santa Cruz CA, USA) overnight. We tested the specificity of two different CAPN10 antibodies: rabbit anti-calpain-10 domain II (ab28220, Abcam) and rabbit anti-calpain-10 domain III (ab28226, Abcam) by siRNA assays in 3T3-L1 cells and exogenously expressed human-CAPN10 in Cos7 cells. We found that the antibody ab28220 do not recognize CAPN10 in both models (data not shown). Therefore, we reported the CAPN10 Western blot using the antibody ab28226, which proved to be highly specific for CAPN10 from both mouse and human. The conditions of antibodies used were rabbit anti-calpain 10 antibodydomain III (ab28226, Abcam, Cambridge, UK, 1:1000, overnight at 4°C) mouse monoclonal anti-calpain-1 antibody (ab3589, Abcam, Cambridge, UK, 1:8000, overnight at 4°C), rabbit monoclonal anti-calpain-2 antibody (ab126600, Abcam, Cambridge, UK, 1:15000 for 1 h), and goat polyclonal anti-actin antibody (sc-1616, 1:1000, Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Santa Cruz CA, USA). Secondary antibodies used were anti-rabbit antibody (sc-2004, 1:3000), anti-mouse antibody (sc-2005, 1:2000) and antigoat antibody (sc-2020, 1:1000) conjugated with Horseradish peroxidase (Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Santa Cruz CA, USA). The blots were developed using the Enhanced Chemiluminescence Prime reagent (Amersham, UK) and exposed to X-ray film. Optical densitometric analysis of the bands was performed using the Image Studio Lite V. 4.0 software (LI-COR Biosciences, NE, USA).

#### Quantitative Real-Time PCR

Total RNA was extracted and purified from available cryopreserved leukocytes  $(1-3 \times 10^6)$  of the donors using the RNeasy Mini kit (Qiagen, Valencia, CA, USA) following manufacturer's protocols. cDNA synthesis was performed using the SuperScript III First-Strand Synthesis SuperMix (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA) according to manufacturer's protocols using oligo  $(dT)_{20}$ . CAPN1, CAPN2 and CAPN10 mRNA levels were determined by real-time quantitative PCR from 20 ng of total RNA using TaqMan Universal Master Mix (Applied Biosystems, Roche, Branchburg, NJ, USA) and a TaqMan fluorogenic probes (Hs00559804\_m1, Hs00965097\_m1 and Hs01550167\_m1, respectively) (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA, USA) and were normalized to the transcript levels of  $\beta$ -Actin (Hs01060665\_g1). Relative expression was calculated by the comparative C<sub>T</sub> method given by 2<sup>- $\Delta\Delta$ CT</sup>. The expression of the different target genes (CAPN1, CAPN2, and CAPN10) in subjects with and without diabetes was expressed in arbitrary units (fold change) in comparison to the non-T2D CAPN10 group as the calibrator sample, which obtained a mean value nearly one (24,25).

## Statistical Analysis

The data are presented as the mean values  $\pm$  SEM and were tested for normality. We use the two-tailed unpaired *t*-test to analyze the significance of the differences of the biochemical and anthropometric characteristics between the subjects without diabetes and the patients with diabetes (Stata version 11.0, StataCorp, College Station, TX, USA). The protein levels of members of the calpain system were analyzed using the two-tailed *t*-test, mRNA expression was analyzed with Mann-Whitney test and calpain activity was analyzed using ANOVA and Tukey's post-test for multiple comparisons (GraphPad Prism 6, San Diego, CA, USA).

To assess the presence of multicollinearity, we used the variance inflation factor (VIF) test on all of the linear regression models. The VIF never exceeded the cut-off value of 5. Thus, no multicollinearity existed among the covariates in the model. Multivariable linear regression analyses of the associations of calpain activity in 100 mg/dL of glucose were adjusted for the covariates that are involved in glucose homeostasis and insulin resistance, and the best model was selected based on their influence on model fit (the highest  $R^2$  value in the non-diabetic group and T2D group). The multivariable regression analysis was performed only in those samples, which had all the biochemical parameters: 38 subjects in non-diabetic group and 61 subjects T2D group. Multivariable linear regression analysis was performed using Stata version 11.0 (StataCorp, College Station, TX, USA). In all cases, p < 0.05 was considered statistically significant.

## Results

Anthropometric and biochemical characteristics of the subjects are presented in Table 1. Weight, BMI, waist and hip circumference, WH ratio, fasting serum glucose concentration, HOMA2-IR and HbA1c were significantly increased in the T2D group, whereas a significant decrease in HO-MA2%B, HOMA2%S and LDL cholesterol levels were observed in this group in comparison to the subjects without T2D. In contrast, height and serum fasting insulin, triglycerides and, total and HDL cholesterol were similar between both groups.

In order to characterize the calpain function in leukocytes, we analyzed the calpain activity in isolated leukocytes from both groups in the presence of 70,100, 200 and 280 mg/dL of extracellular glucose concentrations. In the group without T2D, calpain activity increased in a glucose concentration-dependent manner, reaching maximal levels in the presence of 200 mg/dL glucose (19% increase, p < 0.05). In contrast, calpain activity in leukocytes from patients with diabetes did not significantly increase in response to the extracellular glucose concentrations tested, although a slight increase was observed in the presence of 200 and 280 mg/dL of glucose. Furthermore, leukocytes from patients with diabetes exhibited approximately 20% reduction in calpain activity levels in the presence of all the glucose concentrations tested in comparison to the leukocytes of individuals without diabetes, showing statistically significant differences at 100 and 200 mg/dL of extracellular glucose (p < 0.05, Figure 1A). To discern the relative calpain activation induced by extracellular glucose, we determined the delta values corresponding to differences between the activities measured at 100, 200 and 280 in relation to the activity at 70 mg/dL of

 Table 1. Anthropometric and biochemical characteristics of the study population

	Subjects without T2D $(n = 62)$	Patients with T2D $(n = 40)$	
	Mean ± SD	Mean ± SD	p
Age range (years)	30-65	35-65	
Weight (kg)	$68.06 \pm 10.22$	$73.47 \pm 13.85$	0.02
Height (cm)	$161.02\pm9.89$	$157.20\pm10.35$	0.06
BMI (kg/m <sup>2</sup> )	$26.16\pm2.45$	$29.64\pm4.69$	< 0.001
Waist (cm)	$86.32\pm7.89$	$95.71 \pm 10.52$	< 0.001
Hip (cm)	$99.29\pm 6.68$	$102.90\pm9.36$	0.02
W/H ratio	$0.87 \pm 0.06$	$0.92\pm0.05$	< 0.001
Fasting Glucose	$5.03 \pm 0.37$	$8.33\pm3.18$	< 0.001
(mmol)			
Fasting Insulin (pM)	$49.36\pm38.56$	$63.08 \pm 41.25$	0.09
HOMA2-IR	$0.92\pm0.70$	$1.30\pm0.83$	0.01
HOMA2%B	$84.25 \pm 34.23$	$53.20\pm49.80$	< 0.001
HOMA2%S	$154.08\pm88.96$	$110.70 \pm 73.41$	0.01
HbA1c (%)	$5.43 \pm 0.29$	$7.97 \pm 2.12$	< 0.001
Fasting Triglycerides (mg/dL) <sup>a</sup>	$171.56 \pm 146.83$	$217.50 \pm 150.01$	0.12
Fasting Total Cholesterol (mg/dL)	$196.06 \pm 35.99$	$193.58 \pm 40.84$	0.74
Fasting HDL-C (mg/dL)	$45.24\pm11.20$	$42.20\pm13.14$	0.21
Fasting LDL-C (mg/dL)	$119.14 \pm 30.94$	$106.70\pm29.35$	0.04

BMI, Body mass index; W/H index, Waist-Hip index; HOMA2-IR, Homeostatic model assessment-insulin resistance; HOMA2%B, Estimates steady state  $\beta$  cell function; HOMA2%S, Insulin sensitivity; HDL-C, High-density lipoproteins cholesterol; LDL-C, Low-density lipoproteins cholesterol.

Statistical analysis was performed using a two-tailed Student t test. <sup>a</sup>The mean is not including the value of one subject without T2D.



Figure 1. (A) Calpain activity in leukocytes from subjects with and without type 2 diabetes (T2D). After isolation of leukocytes, immediately were exposed ex vivo to 70, 100, 200 and 280 mg/dL of glucose. Data were analyzed with two-way ANOVA and Tukey's post hoc test. p < 0.05, p < 0.05<0.01. (B) Comparison between delta of calpain activity in leukocytes from subjects with and without T2D. The difference in calpain activity between the 100 and 70 mg/dL glucose conditions is showed. Data were analyzed by Mann Whitney test. Bars represent the mean values  $\pm$  SEM. White and black bars are the values from the leukocytes in the subjects without T2D (n = 62) and with T2D (n = 40).

extracellular glucose. We found that only the delta value between the activity at 100 and 70 mg/dL of extracellular glucose was significantly different between subjects without T2D and patients with T2D, showing a 5 fold decrease in patients with diabetes (p = 0.003, Figure 1B). To determine if the decrease of calpain activity in the leukocytes from subjects with T2D could be related to alterations in the integrity and functionality of the calpain proteases, in samples of some subjects with and without T2D, the calpain activity was measured in the presence of the  $Ca^{2+}$  ionophore A23187, which is known to induce their activation. We found that the stimulation with  $2\ \mu M$  of  $Ca^{2+}$  ionophore induced a similar increase of the calpain activity in both groups. The calpain activity had a fold change increase of 2.73  $\pm$  0.21 in the non-T2D subjects and  $3.02 \pm 0.21$  in the patients with T2D; these results suggest that the lower calpain activity observed in leukocytes from patients with T2D is due to alterations in calpain regulation, rather than a direct alteration over the catalytic activity of these enzymes.

Because the tBoc-LM-CMAC substrate can be cleaved by proteases different from calpains (26), we confirmed

whether the signal produced by leukocytes corresponded to calpain activity, by using calpain (ALLM, AK275, PD151746) and cathepsin (CATI-1) inhibitors. We found that the calpain inhibitors ALLM, AK275 and PD151746 reduced the hydrolysis of tBoc-LM-CMAC by 94, 89 and 95%, respectively. In contrast, the cathepsin inhibitor CATI-1, reduced the substrate hydrolysis by 39% (Figure 2A). Therefore, these data validate that the signal obtained in leukocytes corresponds mainly to the calpain activity. We also tested if calpain or cathepsin inhibition could affect the glucose uptake in leukocytes. Unexpectedly, only in leukocytes treated with the cathepsin inhibitor, the glucose uptake was significantly induced (Figure 2B).

To evaluate if the altered calpain activity observed in leukocytes of subjects with T2D is due to changes in the



Figure 2. (A) Calpain activity in leukocytes from subjects without T2D, treated with the calpain inhibitors ALLM (100 µM), AK275 (200 µM), PD151746 (200 µM) or the cathepsin inhibitor CATI-1 (100 µM). (B) Glucose uptake in leukocytes from subjects without T2D treated with the same calpain or cathepsin inhibitors. The data were normalized to the signal detected in the cells treated with the vehicle. The bars represent the mean  $\pm$  SEM of the leukocytes from 10 donors with technical duplicates. Data were analyzed by one-way ANOVA with Dunnet post-hoc test. \*p <0.05. (B) Glucose uptake in the leukocytes treated with the same calpain or cathepsin inhibitors. The data were normalized to the signal detected in the cells treated with the vehicle. The bars represent the mean  $\pm$  SEM of the leukocytes from 10 donors with technical duplicates. Data were analyzed by one-way ANOVA with Dunnet posthoc test. \*p < 0.05.

expression of calpains involved in the glucose metabolism, we analyzed the protein and mRNA expression of CAPN1, CAPN2 and CAPN10 (Figures 3 and 4). Data showed that levels of the intact CAPN1 protein, corresponding to the 80 kDa band, were similar between both groups. In addition, we found three different CAPN1 autolytic fragments of about 75, 50 and 40 kDa in leukocytes (Figure 3A). The abundance of all of these fragments were significantly decreased in T2D group (Figure 3A). We only detected the intact from of CAPN2 in leukocytes, and it was not altered in the T2D group (Figure 3B). Remarkably, we found CAPN10 isoforms of 75, 60, 55, 50 and 40 kDa. Of these, the isoform of 75 kDa (which could correspond to CAP-N10a) was of very low abundance. Although all of the CAPN10 isoforms showed a trend to be reduced in the T2D group, we did not found any statistically significant difference between both groups (Figure 3C).

The relative expression of mRNA of CAPN1, CAPN2 and CAPN10 was not different between both groups (Figure 4). Nevertheless, the abundance of CAPN2 in both study groups was 10 and 200 fold increase in comparison to CAPN1 and CAPN10 mRNA, respectively.

We performed a simple regression analysis to evaluate the possible correlation of calpain activity with biochemical parameters that are altered in diabetes. We selected the calpain activity measured at the 100 mg/dL glucose condition, because this glucose concentration is physiologically relevant in non-T2D subjects and showed the greatest significant differences in the calpain activity between the two groups, without and with diabetes. In the control group,



**Figure 3.** Protein levels of calpain system members in leukocytes from subjects with and without type 2 diabetes (T2D). Abundance of the calpain-1 intact and autolytic fragments (A), calpain-2 protein (B) and calpain-10 isoforms (C). Representative blots of each protein are shown. The optical density (O.D.) of each band was normalized to the O.D. of actin. The tables present the mean values  $\pm$  SD of 62 and 40 samples from subjects without T2D (Non-T2D) and with diabetes (T2D), respectively, except for calpain-2 because of the sample availability within the diabetic group (n = 38). The data were analyzed by two-tailed t test. \*p < 0.05.



Figure 4. Expression of calpain-1, calpain-2 and calpain-10 mRNA in leukocytes between subjects with and without type 2 diabetes (T2D). The relative mRNA abundance of CAPN1, CAPN2, and CAPN10 was normalized by the  $\beta$ -Actin and analyzed considering the expression of CAPN10 in subjects without T2D as the calibrator sample (value of 1). Bars represent the mean values  $\pm$  SEM. White and black bars represent the relative mRNA abundance in the leukocytes of at least 49 and 27 samples from subjects without T2D (Non-T2D) and with diabetes (T2D), respectively due to the sample availability. The data were analyzed by Mann Whitney test.

there was a significant negative correlation between calpain activity and HbA1c (r = -0.2645, 95% confidence interval -0.482 to 0.016,  $r^2 = 0.069$ , p = 0.045). Although, the group without diabetes had HbA1c normal values ranging between 4.8 and 6.1%, the data showed that the calpain activity is lower at the higher end of the range. Conversely, no correlation between calpain activity and HbA1c was found in the diabetic group (r = 0.176, 95% confidence interval – 0.143 to 0.462,  $r^2 = 0.031$ , p = 0.277).

To explore the relationship between the calpain activity at 100 mg/dL of glucose and the biochemical parameters and expression of CAPN1, CAPN2 or CAPN10, we performed a multivariate regression analyses in the non-T2D group and T2D group (Table 2 and Table 3). We choose the fittest model adjusted by age, gender and BMI, according to the variables (biochemical parameters and calpain protein levels) that yielded the highest  $r^2$  value. In the non-T2D group the model had an  $r^2$  of 0.32, which mean that this model explains 32% of the variability observed in the calpain activity (Table 2). The HbA1c levels were negatively associated with calpain activity measured in the presence of 100 mg/dL of glucose (p = 0.005), as

**Table 2.** Multivariable regression analyses of calpain activity in100 mg/dL of glucose in subjects without T2D

Subjects without T2D ( $r^2 = 0.32$ )						
Explanatory variable	β Coeff.	95% CI	р			
HbA1c (%) CAPN10 total (O.D.) CAPN10 55 kDa (O.D.) HOMA2s	-68.81 65.47 -73.03 -0.14	-116.07 to -21.54 15.06 to 115.87 -182.50 to 36.42 -0.26 to -0.03	0.002 0.01 0.18 0.01			

HbA1c, glycated hemoglobin; O.D., optical density.

The analysis was adjusted for age, gender and BMI. Analysis was performed only in those samples which had all the biochemical parameters available.

**Table 3.** Multivariable regression analyses of calpain activity in100 mg/dL of glucose in subjects with T2D

Subjects with T2D ( $r^2 = 0.41$ )						
Explanatory variable	β Coeff.	95% CI	р			
HbA1c (%)	16.16	6.32 to 26.01	0.002			
Fasting glucose (mmol)	-0.62	-0.98 to -0.27	0.001			
CAPN2 (O.D.)	107.10	23.81 to 190.40	0.01			
CAPN10 75 kDa isoform (O.D.)	-270.91	-464.38 to -77.43	0.008			
CAPN10 60 kDa isoform (O.D.)	137.67	39.85 to 235.5	0.008			

HbA1c, glycated hemoglobin; O.D., optical density.

The analysis was adjusted for age, gender and BMI. Analysis was performed only in those samples which had all the biochemical parameters available.

was observed by the simple regression analysis. Of note, the effect of HbA1c on the calpain presented a  $\beta$  coefficient value ( $\beta$ ) of -68.81, meaning that the calpain activity decreases 68.81 arbitrary fluorescence units (AFU) with each 1% increase in HbA1c. Calpain activity also correlated with the total protein levels of all the CAPN10 isoforms (p = 0.01). The expression of this protease was associated with an increase in calpain activity of 65.47 AFU. HO-MA2s had a modest influence on the calpain activity  $(\beta = -0.14)$  but it was statistically significant (p = 0.01). In the T2D group, the best model yielded an  $r^2$  of 0.41 (Table 3). Interestingly, in the T2D group, the HbA1c levels were positively associated with calpain activity, although the size effect was smaller compared with that observed in non-T2D subjects ( $\beta = 16.16, p = 0.002$ ). We found that the protein levels of CAPN2 and the 60 kDa isoform of CAPN10 were positively associated with calpain activity ( $\beta = 107.10 \ p = 0.01$  and  $\beta = 137.67$ p = 0.008, respectively). In contrast, the 75 kDa isoform of CAPN10 had a negative effect on the calpain activity  $(\beta = -270.91, p = 0.008)$ . Fasting glucose levels were negatively associated with calpain activity, although the effect was small ( $\beta = -0.62$ , p = 0.001) (Table 3).

Using these multivariate models, we performed an analysis to test whether calpain activity was related with the time of diagnosis and the type of treatment in the patients with T2D. However, the explicability of the models was very low or negative ( $r^2 = -0.006$  and 0.0298, respectively, data not shown). It seems that this association analysis in the patients with T2D is complicated due to the heterogeneity in the time of disease evolution and the possible effects of the diverse hypoglycemic treatments that could alter the markers of glucose homeostasis, acting as confounding factors.

## Discussion

Our data showed that calpain proteases in leukocytes of healthy subjects are activated even in response to minor and acute changes in extracellular glucose concentration. In contrast, the leukocytes from the patients with diabetes showed a lower calpain activity and it was not increased in response to changes in the extracellular glucose concentration. Leukocytes represent an adequate model for exploring T2D-related alterations and it has been shown that the glucose transport is altered in patients with T2D. Particularly, the glucose transport rate was delayed in leukocytes from patients with T2D without hypoglycemic treatment, showing a decrease in glucose uptake after 30 and 60 min (16). In the regulation of glucose transport, the transporters are a key piece; especially the expression of GLUT3 was decreased in monocytes, granulocytes and lymphocytes from patients with diabetes (17). Although, leukocytes are also critical in immune response, the connection between leukocytes function and glucose metabolism it is not fully understood. Nevertheless, the decreased expression of GLUT isoforms in leukocytes might also be responsible for the diminished activation of the immune function in leukocytes, as observed in patients with diabetes (27).

The calpain system plays multiple roles in glucose homeostasis and in the development of T2D and its complications (4,28,29). In the present work, we replicate our previous findings that calpain activity is increased by high extracellular glucose concentrations in leukocytes from subjects without T2D, while in leukocytes from T2D patients, calpain activity was not increased (18). Additionally, we found that calpain activity in leukocytes from subjects without T2D can be induced even by physiologically relevant glucose concentrations (70 vs. 100 mg/dL), and that the calpain activity in leukocytes from patients with T2D was decreased. Furthermore, by using calpain and cathepsin inhibitors, we demonstrated that the hydrolysis of tBoc-Leu-Met-CMAC is mainly produced by calpain activity in leukocytes. These results confirm that the activity of the calpain system is decreased in leukocytes from T2D patients.

To understand the mechanism by which the calpain system can be deregulated during T2D, we evaluated the mRNA and protein abundance of CAPN1, CAPN2 and CAPN10. At the mRNA levels, we did not found changes in the expression of any of the calpains tested. Interestingly, CAPN10 showed the lowest mRNA abundance among the three calpains that were evaluated. At the protein level, we only detected a decrease in the levels of CAPN1 autolytic fragments in the leukocytes from the patients with T2D. It is known that this calpain undergoes autolytic processing after its activation (30), suggesting that the CAPN1 activation is reduced in leukocytes during T2D. In contrast, the protein abundance of CAPN2 and the isoforms of CAPN10 was not altered in the leukocytes from patients with T2D. However, we can not exclude that CAPN2 or CAPN10 could participate in the deregulation of calpain activity in the leukocytes from patients with T2D. Since it has been described that calpain proteases can be modulated by post-translational modifications of by its cellular localization (31,32), further studies are needed to address whether CAPN2 or CAPN10 are being deregulated in leukocytes during the development of T2D. It has been shown that calpain inhibition results in a decrease of lymphocyte proliferation and cytokine secretion (15). Thus, our results suggest that reduced CAPN1 autolysis could be related to the lower levels of calpain activity found in the lymphocytes from T2D patients, and with the immunologic impairment that has been described in these patients (27). Although the role of the calpain system in the regulation of the glucose homeostasis in leukocytes has not been explored, our results suggest that the glucose uptake is not affected by different calpain inhibitors. However, we can not exclude the possibility that by knocking down specific calpain system members, the glucose uptake or other steps in the glucose metabolism could be affected in leukocytes.

The multivariate analysis in the group without T2D showed that calpain activation in presence of 100 mg/dL of extracellular glucose was highly associated to total CAPN10 protein expression. This finding suggests that CAPN10 is involved in the calpain activation induced by extracellular glucose among subjects without T2D. Noteworthy, when we performed the multivariate regression analyses in the T2D group, we found that CAPN10 isoforms had differential contribution on the activity in the T2D group, the 75 kDa isoform of CAPN10 had a negative effect on the activity, whereas the 60 kDa isoform had a positive effect. In addition, CAPN2 was positively associated with the calpain activity induced by 100 mg/dL of glucose. These results suggest that CAPN10 and CAPN2 could be implicated in the increase of calpain activity after pulses with a high glucose concentration. However, more research is needed to confirm the role of these calpains in the increase of calpain activity induced by high extracellular glucose concentrations. In addition, the results in the T2D group, suggest that each CAPN10 isoform could have specific effects over calpain functionality. In this regard, it was shown that isoforms of CAPN10 in the range of 50 kDa are implicated in the secretion of insulin, aldosterone and growth hormone (7,9,33,34). The 60 kDa band is associated with 3 different isoforms, 10b, 10c and 10d, and it has been found that their expression is increased by a chronic highglucose environment in INS-pancreatic cells (7). The 75 kDa isoform has been associated with induction of β-cell apoptosis and mitochondrial dysfunction in renal proximal tubular cells (8,32). Thus, these isoforms could have specific roles in different cell types, including leukocytes. Notably, in this study, the 75, 55 and 50 kDa isoforms detected have also been reported in a knockdown of calpain 10 in rat kidney NRK-52E cells (35), using the same CAPN10 antibody used in our experiments. Additionally, these isoforms are expressed in the kidneys of mice, rats and rabbits (35). Comparatively, we found that the stoichiometry of CAPN10 isoforms was different in leukocytes, compared with the stoichiometry reported in adrenal cells, NRK-52E cells and kidney tissue and (32,35). In leukocytes, the isoform of 75 kDa was of very low abundance, while the isoforms of 55 and 50 kDa were the most expressed isoforms in these cells. This suggest that CAPN10 isoforms could be differentially expressed in various cell types.

Another interesting finding was the negative correlation between the calpain activity in the presence of 100 mg/dL of extracellular glucose and the levels of HbA1c in subjects without diabetes. As the risk to develop T2D is known to increase in subjects with HbA1c between 5.7 and 6.4% (2), our data indicate that calpain regulation is related to the glycemic control in subjects without diabetes, suggesting that the calpain activity could be lower at the higher end of the range physiological of HbA1c. These results are in concordance with the findings in Otsuka Long-Evans Fatty Tokushima (OLETF) rats, an animal model that develops spontaneously a phenotype similar to T2D at week 18. In this animal model, in leukocytes the expression of CAPN10 decreased even before the animals developed the disease and correlated with the expression in organs directly involved in glucose homeostasis, such as the liver and adipose tissue (20). Thus, it could suggest that calpain activity in leukocytes could be affected before the development of T2D.

Our results provide evidence that calpain activity induced by glucose in leukocytes is associated with biochemical markers of diabetes and it is diminished in patients with T2D. Furthermore, from the members of the calpain family implicated in glucose metabolism, CAPN10 protein abundance was associated to calpain activity in leukocytes. Data found in subjects without diabetes indicated that the calpain activity induced by extracellular glucose in leukocytes could be a potential indicator for the early detection of T2D risk.

#### **Conflicts of Interest**

The authors declare that no conflict of interest.

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