Downloaded from jpet.aspetjournals.org at ASPET Journals on December 29, 2024

**Title:** Differential Impact of Amino Acid Substitutions on Critical Residues of the Human Glucagon-Like Peptide-1 Receptor (GLP-1R) Involved in Peptide Activity and Small Molecule Allostery.

Cassandra Koole, Denise Wootten, John Simms, Laurence J. Miller, Arthur Christopoulos, and Patrick M. Sexton

Drug Discovery Biology Laboratory, Monash Institute of Pharmaceutical Sciences and Department of Pharmacology, Monash University, Parkville, Victoria 3052, Australia (C.K., D.W., J.S., A.C. and P.M.S.)

Department of Molecular Pharmacology and Experimental Therapeutics, Mayo Clinic, Scottsdale, AZ 85259, USA (L.J.M.)

**Running title:** GLP-1R residues important for activity and modulation

Address correspondence to: Prof Patrick M. Sexton, Drug Discovery Biology

Laboratory, Monash Institute of Pharmaceutical Sciences, Monash University, 381 Royal

Parade, Parkville, Victoria 3052, Australia.

Phone: +61 3 9903 9069

Email: Patrick.Sexton@monash.edu

Text pages:

Number of tables: 5

Number of figures: 6

Number of references: 62

Number of words in Abstract: 250

**Number of words in Introduction: 746** 

Number of words in Discussion: 1566

**Abbreviations:** 

BETP,

4-(3-benzyloxy)phenyl)-2-ethylsulfinyl-6-

(trifluoromethyl)pyrimidine; CHO, Chinese hamster ovary; compound 2, 6,7-dichloro-2-

methylsulfonyl-3-tert-butylaminoquinoxaline; CRF, corticotropin releasing factor; DM,

diabetes mellitus; DMEM, Dulbecco's modified Eagle medium; FBS, fetal bovine serum;

GLP-1R, glucagon-like peptide-1 receptor; GPCR, G protein-coupled receptor; ICL,

intracellular loop; PAM, positive allosteric modulator; pERK1/2, phosphorylated

extracellular signal regulated kinase 1 and 2; PFA, paraformaldehyde; SNP, single

nucleotide polymorphism; TM, transmembrane.

**Recommended section:** Cellular and Molecular

Downloaded from jpet.aspetjournals.org at ASPET Journals on December 29, 2024

#### **Abstract**

The glucagon-like peptide-1 receptor (GLP-1R) is a Class B G protein-coupled receptor (GPCR) that has a critical role in the regulation of glucose homeostasis, principally though regulation of insulin secretion. The receptor system is highly complex, with the ability to be activated by both endogenous (GLP-1(1-36)NH<sub>2</sub>, GLP-1(1-37), GLP-1(7-36)NH<sub>2</sub>, GLP-1(7-37), oxyntomodulin) and exogenous (exendin-4) peptides in addition small molecule allosteric agonists (6,7-dichloro-2-methylsulfonyl-3-tertto (compound butylaminoquinoxaline 4-(3-benzyloxy)phenyl)-2-ethylsulfinyl-6-2), (trifluoromethyl)pyrimidine (BETP)). Furthermore, the GLP-1R is subject to single nucleotide polymorphic variance, resulting in amino acid changes in the receptor protein. In this study, we investigated two polymorphic variants that have previously been reported to impact peptide-mediated receptor activity (M149) and small molecule allostery (C333). These residues were mutated to a series of alternate amino acids and their functionality monitored across physiologically significant signaling pathways including cAMP, extracellular signal-regulated kinase 1 and 2 phosphorylation (pERK1/2) and intracellular Ca2+ mobilization, in addition to peptide binding and cell surface expression. We observed that residue 149 is highly sensitive to mutation, with almost all peptide responses significantly attenuated at mutated receptors. However, most reductions in activity were able to be restored by the small molecule allosteric agonist, compound 2. Conversely, mutation of residue 333 has little impact on peptide-mediated receptor activation, but this activity is unable to be modulated by compound 2 to the same extent as that observed at the wildtype receptor. These results provide insight into the

Downloaded from jpet.aspetjournals.org at ASPET Journals on December 29, 2024

importance of residues 149 and 333 in peptide function and highlight the complexities of allosteric modulation within this receptor system.

#### Introduction

The glucagon-like peptide 1 receptor (GLP-1R) is a Class B peptide hormone G protein-coupled receptor (GPCR) with physiologically important actions including increases in insulin biosynthesis and secretion from pancreatic  $\beta$ -cells and decreases in  $\beta$ -cell apoptosis, gastric emptying and peripheral tissue resistance to insulin. For these reasons, the GLP-1R is one of the key targets in the development of therapeutics for type II diabetes mellitus (DM). However, with an increasing interest in establishing novel, long acting and orally available therapeutics that eliminate or at least significantly reduce detrimental side effects, the pharmacological complexities of targeting this receptor system are becoming evident.

The most well documented consequence of GLP-1R activation is enhanced cAMP production, which along with cell membrane depolarization and the influx of  $Ca^{2+}$ , is critical in the biosynthesis and exocytosis of insulin from pancreatic  $\beta$ -cells (Fehmann and Habener, 1992; Lu et al., 1993). However, the GLP-1R can couple via other G protein-dependent mechanisms, including  $G\alpha_i$ ,  $G\alpha_o$  and  $G\alpha_{q/11}$  (Hallbrink et al., 2001; Montrose-Rafizadeh et al., 1999), as well as via  $\beta$ -arrestin recruitment and signaling (Jorgensen et al., 2007; Jorgensen et al., 2005; Sonoda et al., 2008). Furthermore, with the ability to be activated by multiple endogenous agonists (GLP-1(1-36)NH<sub>2</sub>, GLP-1(1-37), GLP-1(7-36)NH<sub>2</sub>, GLP-1(7-37) and oxyntomodulin) as well as the exogenous peptide agonist exendin-4 (Byetta®) that is currently used as a type II diabetic treatment and allosteric ligands such as compound 2, the phenomenon of biased agonism can clearly be observed at this receptor (Kenakin, 1995, 2011; Koole et al., 2012a; Koole et al., 2012b; Koole et al., 2010). Adding to the complexity of this receptor system, recent

pharmacological analysis of GLP-1R single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) (Beinborn et al., 2005; Fortin et al., 2010; Koole et al., 2011) identified two variants that significantly influence receptor function; M149 (transmembrane domain (TM) 1), which attenuates endogenous and exogenous peptide-mediated receptor function (Beinborn et al., 2005; Koole et al., 2011), and C333 (intracellular loop (ICL) 3), which reduces the allosteric agonism of the GLP-1R small molecule compound 2, as well as significantly impacting its modulatory profile (Koole et al., 2011). While population analysis of these receptor variants suggest a low heterozygous frequency and unknown homozygous frequency, for at least the M149 variant, there has been a direct implication in the onset of type II DM (Tokuyama et al., 2004). Moreover, the significant loss of peptide function at this receptor variant would also suggest that subjects administered peptide mimetics such as exendin-4 would experience limited effectiveness in management of the condition (Koole et al., 2011).

In the absence of high-resolution crystal structures of the GLP-1R in its entirety, and in fact any Class B GPCR as a whole entity, the structural role of these residues and their influence on the mechanistic function of the receptor is largely unclear. However, with the emergence of two Class B TM crystal structures (Hollenstein et al., 2013; Siu et al., 2013) and a plethora of mutagenesis (Coopman et al., 2011; Koole et al., 2012a; Koole et al., 2012b; Lopez de Maturana and Donnelly, 2002; Lopez de Maturana et al., 2004; Wootten et al., 2013) and photoaffinity labeling data (Al-Sabah and Donnelly, 2003; Chen et al., 2009, 2010; Coin et al., 2013; Dong et al., 2007; Dong et al., 2011; Dong et al., 2004; Miller et al., 2011), structurally and functionally important components of the GLP-1R can begin to be predicted and complementary molecular models can be further

Downloaded from jpet.aspetjournals.org at ASPET Journals on December 29, 2024

refined. In this study, we have created a series of mutations at two GLP-1R residues subject to polymorphic variance (amino acids 149 and 333; Fig 1) at which receptor function is significantly affected, to more broadly examine their involvement in receptor structure and function. We have observed that mutation of residue 149, at which Thr most frequently occurs, is poorly tolerated in the context of peptide-mediated receptor activation but not that of the allosteric agonist compound 2. In addition, mutants of this residue with significantly reduced peptide activity were able to have at least partial restoration of function through compound 2-mediated allosteric modulation of the receptor. Conversely, at residue 333, at which Ser most frequently occurs, there was little influence of receptor mutants on peptide function in any detected output, however, modulation of oxyntomodulin-induced cAMP formation by compound 2 was significantly attenuated despite compound 2 retaining agonism. Together, these results not only enhance our understanding of the role of SNPs in receptor activity, but also facilitate the refinement of models in understanding the complex molecular mechanisms involved in GLP-1R activity.

## **Materials and Methods**

*Materials.* Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (DMEM), hygromycin-B and Fluo-4 acetoxymethyl ester were purchased from Invitrogen (Carlsbad, CA, USA). Fetal bovine serum (FBS) was purchased from Thermo Fisher Scientific (Melbourne, VIC, Australia). The QuikChange<sup>TM</sup> site-directed mutagenesis kit was purchased from Stratagene (La Jolla, CA, USA). AlphaScreen<sup>TM</sup> reagents, Bolton-Hunter reagent (<sup>125</sup>I) and 384-well ProxiPlates were purchased from PerkinElmer Life and Analytical Sciences (Waltham, MA, USA). SureFire<sup>TM</sup> ERK1/2 reagents were generously supplied by TGR Biosciences (Adelaide, SA, Australia). Sigma*Fast o*-phenylenediamine dihydrochloride tablets and antibodies were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (St. Louis, MO, USA). Compound 2 was generated according to a method published previously (Teng et al., 2007) to a purity of >95%, and compound integrity was confirmed by NMR. GLP-1 and GLP-1 peptide analogs were purchased from American Peptide (Sunnyvale, CA, USA). All other reagents were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (St. Louis, MO, USA) or BDH Merck (Melbourne, VIC, Australia) and were of an analytical grade.

Receptor Mutagenesis. SNPs of the GLP-1R with pharmacological profiles deviating from 'wildtype', as determined from our previous study (Koole et al., 2011), were mutated to a selection of amino acids. Mutations were introduced to an N-terminally double c-myc labeled wildtype human GLP-1R in the pEF5/FRT/V5-DEST destination vector (Invitrogen); this receptor had equivalent pharmacology to the untagged human GLP-1R (data not shown). Mutagenesis was carried out using oligonucleotides for site-directed mutagenesis from GeneWorks (HindMarsh, SA, Australia) (Supplementary Table S1) and the QuikChange<sup>TM</sup> site-directed mutagenesis kit (Stratagene). Sequences

of receptor clones were confirmed by cycle sequencing as previously described (May et al., 2007). In this study, wildtype GLP-1R is comprised of T149 and S333.

Transfections and Cell Culture. Wildtype and mutant human GLP-1R were isogenically integrated into FlpIn-Chinese hamster ovary (FlpInCHO) cells (Invitrogen) and selection of receptor-expressing cells accomplished by treatment with 600 μg ml<sup>-1</sup> hygromycin-B as previously described (May et al., 2007). Transfected and parental FlpInCHO cells were maintained in DMEM supplemented with 10% heat-inactivated FBS and incubated in a humidified environment at 37°C in 5% CO<sub>2</sub>.

Radioligand Binding Assay. FlpInCHO wildtype and mutant human GLP-1R cells were seeded at a density of 3 x 10<sup>4</sup> cells/well into 96-well culture plates and incubated overnight at 37°C in 5% CO<sub>2</sub>, and radioligand binding carried out at 4°C as previously described (Koole et al., 2011). For each cell line in all experiments, total binding was defined by 0.5 nM <sup>125</sup>I-exendin(9-39) alone, and nonspecific binding was defined by 1 μM exendin(9-39). For analysis, data are normalized to the B<sub>0</sub> value for each individual experiment. Of note, the condition of assay for radioligand binding and functional experiments are different and as such cannot be directly compared.

cAMP Accumulation Assay. FlpInCHO wildtype and mutant human GLP-1R cells were seeded at a density of 3 x 10<sup>4</sup> cells/well into 96-well culture plates and incubated overnight at 37°C in 5% CO<sub>2</sub>, and cAMP detection carried out as previously described (Koole et al., 2010). For interaction studies, increasing concentrations of peptide and 3 μM compound 2 were added simultaneously, and cAMP accumulation measured after 30 min of cell stimulation. All values were converted to concentration of cAMP using a cAMP standard curve performed in parallel, and data were subsequently

normalized to the response of  $100~\mu\text{M}$  forskolin in each cell line. Agonist stimulation and interaction studies were performed as two different series of experiments, on different cell passages.

pERK1/2 Assay. FlpInCHO wildtype and mutant human GLP-1R cells were seeded at a density of 3 x 10<sup>4</sup> cells/well into 96-well culture plates and incubated overnight at 37°C in 5% CO<sub>2</sub>. Receptor-mediated pERK1/2 was determined using the AlphaScreen<sup>TM</sup> ERK1/2 SureFire<sup>TM</sup> protocol as previously described (May et al., 2007). Initial pERK1/2 time course experiments were performed over 1 h to determine the time at which agonist-mediated pERK1/2 was maximal. Subsequent experiments were then performed at the time required to generate a maximal pERK1/2 response (6 min). Data were normalized to the maximal response elicited by 10% FBS in each cell line, determined at 6 min (peak FBS response).

*iCa*<sup>2+</sup> *Mobilization Assay*. FlpInCHO wildtype and mutant human GLP-1R cells were seeded at a density of 3 x 10<sup>4</sup> cells/well into 96-well culture plates and incubated overnight at 37°C in 5% CO<sub>2</sub>, and receptor-mediated <sub>i</sub>Ca<sup>2+</sup> mobilization determined as previously described (Werry et al., 2005). Fluorescence was determined immediately after peptide addition, with an excitation wavelength set to 485 nm and an emission wavelength set to 520 nm, and readings taken every 1.36 s for 120 s. Peak magnitude was calculated using five-point smoothing, followed by correction against basal fluorescence. The peak value was used to create concentration-response curves. Data were normalized to the maximal response elicited by 100 μM ATP.

Cell Surface Receptor Expression. FlpInCHO wildtype and mutant human GLP-1R cells, with receptor DNA previously incorporated with an N-terminal double c-myc

epitope label, were seeded at a density of 25 x 10<sup>4</sup> cells/well into 24-well culture plates and incubated overnight at 37°C in 5% CO<sub>2</sub>, washed three times in 1 x PBS and fixed with 3.7% paraformaldehyde (PFA) at 4°C for 15 min. Cell surface receptor detection was then performed as previously described (Koole et al., 2011). Data were normalized to the basal fluorescence detected in FlpInCHO parental cells. Specific <sup>125</sup>I-exendin(9-39) binding at each receptor mutant, as identification of functional receptors at the cell surface, was also determined (corrected for nonspecific binding using 1 μM exendin(9-39)).

**Data Analysis.** All data were analyzed using Prism 5.04 (GraphPad Software Inc., San Diego, CA, USA). For all analyses the data were unweighted and each y value (mean of replicates for each individual experiment) was considered an individual point. Concentration response signaling data were analyzed using a three-parameter logistic equation as previously described (May et al., 2007):

$$E=Bottom + \frac{(Top-Bottom)[A]}{[A]+[EC_{50}]} \quad (1)$$

where *Bottom* represents the *E* value in the absence of ligand(s), *Top* represents the maximal stimulation in the presence of ligand(s), [A] is the molar concentration of ligand, and  $EC_{50}$  represents the molar concentration of ligand required to generate a response halfway between *Top* and *Bottom*. Similarly, this equation was used in the analysis of inhibition binding data, instead replacing  $EC_{50}$  with  $IC_{50}$ . In this case, *Bottom* defines the specific binding of the radioligand that is equivalent to non-specific ligand binding, whereas *Top* defines radioligand binding in the absence of a competing ligand, and the  $IC_{50}$  value represents the molar concentration of ligand required to generate a response

halfway between Top and Bottom.  $IC_{50}$  values obtained were then corrected for radioligand occupancy as previously described (Cheng and Prusoff, 1973) using the radioligand affinity ( $K_i$ ) experimentally determined for each mutant.

To quantify efficacy in the system, all data were fitted with an operational model of agonism (Black and Leff, 1983):

$$E=Bottom + \frac{(Top-Bottom)\tau[A]}{\tau[A]+[A]+K_A}$$
 (2)

where Top represents the maximal stimulation in the system;  $K_A$  is the agonist-receptor dissociation constant, in molar concentration;  $\tau$  is the estimated measure of efficacy in the system, which incorporates both signaling efficacy and receptor density; and all other parameters are as defined for Equation 1. Constraints for this model were determined by fitting the most efficacious peptide with the following equation:

$$E=Bottom + \frac{(E_m-Bottom)[A]}{[A] + [EC_{50}]}$$
 (3)

The value obtained for the system maximum ( $E_m$ ) was then globally constrained as the parameter, Top, in the operational model (Equation 2) when applied at each mutant receptor. All estimated  $\tau$  values were then corrected to cell surface expression ( $\tau_c$ ) as determined by percent specific <sup>125</sup>I-exendin(9-39) binding, and errors propagated from both  $\tau$  and cell surface expression relative to wildtype receptor. Of note, differences in functional  $K_A$  values derived from fitting the operational model may arise from the presence of non-interconverting states that are unique to ligand-receptor-effector complexes (Holst et al., 2001; Leff et al., 1997; McPherson et al., 2010; Nijmeijer et al.,

2012; Strachan et al., 2010; Zheng et al., 2008), and this is observed for peptide agonists at the wildtype GLP-1R (Supplementary Table S2).

*Statistics.* Changes in peptide affinity, potency, efficacy, and cell surface expression of human GLP-1R mutants in comparison to wildtype human GLP-1R control were statistically analyzed with one-way analysis of variance and Dunnett's post test, and significance accepted at p < 0.05.

#### Results

Mutation of residue 149 or 333 has minimal impact on functional human GLP-1R expression at the cell surface. Wildtype N-terminally c-myc tagged human GLP-1R or receptors incorporating the mutations of residues 149 or 333 were isogenically introduced into FlpInCHO host cells by recombination, and cell surface expression determined through antibody detection of the c-myc epitope label (Table 1). In this study, mutation of residue 333 to either Ala or Val caused little deviation in cell surface expression in comparison to the wildtype human GLP-1R. In contrast, mutation of residue 149 to Val or Tyr significantly reduced receptor cell surface expression, while mutation of residue 149 to Cys significantly increased cell surface expression in comparison to wildtype control. No significant change in specific 125I-exendin(9-39) binding was observed, although the C149 mutant trended towards increased binding (p = 0.11) consistent with the cell surface expression as monitored by c-myc antibody binding (Table 1). In addition, there was no significant difference in the level of receptor expression as determined by  $^{125}$ I-exendin(9-39) binding. Wildtype receptor expression was  $1.87 \pm 0.33$ million receptors/cell, and the mean level of expression across all mutants was 1.55  $\pm$ 0.32 million receptors/cell (data not shown).

Mutation of residue 149 but not 333 of the human GLP-1R significantly affects peptide agonist binding affinity but not antagonist exendin(9-39) binding affinity. Binding affinity of orthosteric GLP-1R peptide ligands at each of the mutant receptors was determined through equilibrium binding in the presence of the radiolabeled antagonist, <sup>125</sup>I-exendin(9-39) (Fig 2, Table 1). Homologous competition identified no significant changes in antagonist exendin(9-39) binding affinity at any mutant receptor (Table 1).

Consistent with results previously published (Koole et al., 2012a), complete inhibition curves were unable to be determined in the presence of GLP-1(1-36)NH<sub>2</sub> at any receptor mutant, and given the small window for competition within the concentration range tested, any deviations in binding affinity of this peptide at receptor mutants in comparison to wildtype control were difficult to interpret (Fig 2A). For the remaining agonist peptides, no significant changes in binding affinity were observed for either Ala or Val substitutions at residue 333, while decreases in binding affinity of GLP-1(7-36)NH<sub>2</sub>, exendin-4 and oxyntomodulin were observed at all residue 149 receptor mutants (Fig 2B-D, Table 1). However, the extent of affinity reduction was variable depending on both the residue substituted as well as the peptide present, with an overall greater effect of mutation on the affinity of GLP-1(7-36)NH<sub>2</sub> than exendin-4 or oxyntomodulin (Table 1). This is clearly evident at mutant receptors A149 and V149, with fold reductions of 79 for exendin-4 and oxyntomodulin at both mutants, but 200 and 251, respectively, for GLP-1(7-36)NH<sub>2</sub>. Similarly, mutation of residue 149 to Phe resulted in fold decreases in binding affinity of 158, 316 and 501 for exendin-4, oxyntomodulin and GLP-1(7-36)NH<sub>2</sub>, respectively. Perhaps not surprisingly, mutation of residue 149 to Ser, which has properties of greatest similarity to that of the most frequently occurring residue Thr had the least effect on peptide binding affinity, albeit that most reductions still reached statistical significance.

Most mutations of residue 149 but not 333 of the human GLP-1R significantly decrease peptide-mediated cAMP accumulation. While the GLP-1R is recognized as a pleiotropically coupled receptor, it is most well characterized for its role in enhancing adenylate cyclase activity and promoting the formation of cAMP, which is directly linked

to the secretion of insulin (Baggio and Drucker, 2007). Consequently, we assessed the ability of each mutant receptor to augment cAMP accumulation in the presence of each peptide agonist (Fig 3, Table 2). Consistent with effects on binding affinity, no significant effect of mutation of residue 333 on peptide potency in cAMP accumulation was observed (Table 2). Taking into account cell surface receptor expression and pathway coupling efficiency, application of the operational model to yield the operational measure of efficacy (τ<sub>c</sub>) illustrated a general trend for decreased peptide-mediated cAMP coupling at both Ala and Val mutants of residue 333, albeit that this did not reach statistical significance. In contrast, decreases in peptide potency in cAMP were observed for all mutant receptors of residue 149 (Fig 3, Table 2). In agreement with binding data, peptidemediated cAMP was least affected at S149 with respect to wildtype (T149), and this was also reflected by no significant differences in coupling efficacy ( $\tau_c$ ) when the operational model was applied (Table 2). However, there were trends for decreases in coupling efficacy in the presence of GLP-1(7-36)NH<sub>2</sub> and oxyntomodulin but increases in the presence of GLP-1(1-36)NH<sub>2</sub> and exendin-4, suggesting that the additional methyl group of Thr may contribute to discrimination of orthosteric peptide signaling profiles. Mutation of residue 149 to Cys resulted in decreased peptide potency, however, this only reached statistical significance for oxyntomodulin. Analysis with the operational model revealed no significant deviations in pathway coupling efficacy (τ<sub>c</sub>) at C149 in the presence of any peptide, although there was a trend toward decreases for all peptides in comparison to the wildtype (T149) receptor. Significant reductions in peptide-mediated cAMP were noted with mutation of T149 to Ala, Phe, Ile, Val and Tyr, with only weak responses detected and potency values unable to be determined for GLP-1(1-36)NH<sub>2</sub>,

GLP-1(7-36)NH<sub>2</sub> and oxyntomodulin. Despite the inability to determine peptide potency values at these mutants, the rank order of reduction in peptide-mediated cAMP was consistent for all peptides; Ala>Val>Phe>Ile>Tyr (Fig 3).

Most mutations of residue 149 but not 333 of the human GLP-1R abolish iCa<sup>2+</sup> mobilization. Consistent with work presented previously (Koole et al., 2010), ¡Ca<sup>2+</sup> was weakly coupled to GLP-1R activation in FlpInCHO cells, with no notable response for GLP-1(1-36)NH<sub>2</sub> at either the wildtype (T149, S333) or any receptor mutant (data not shown). Similarly, complete concentration-response curves in the presence of oxyntomodulin could not be established over the concentration range tested in this study. Comparison of responses at the highest peptide concentration tested (1 µM) revealed that mutation of residue 333 caused small increases in oxyntomodulin-mediated ¡Ca2+ mobilization, however this was not statistically significant (Table 3). Increases in E<sub>max</sub> were also observed in GLP-1(7-36)NH<sub>2</sub>- and exendin-4-mediated <sub>i</sub>Ca<sup>2+</sup> mobilization responses at both 333 mutants, despite little deviation in peptide potency. While this increase in E<sub>max</sub> reached statistical significance for GLP-1(7-36)NH<sub>2</sub>, these data did not translate into significantly enhanced pathway coupling efficacy ( $\tau_c$ ) as determined through operational modeling (Table 3). Almost all substitutions at residue 149 had a significant impact on peptide-mediated iCa<sup>2+</sup> mobilization (Fig 4). The exception was S149 that displayed similar activity to that of the wildtype (T149) GLP-1R in the presence of all measurable peptide responses, reflected in the coupling efficacy (Fig 4, Table 3). Interestingly, C149 showed no significant changes in peptide potency for either GLP-1(7-36)NH<sub>2</sub> or exendin-4, but significant attenuation of maximal response for exendin-4 and oxyntomodulin (the latter a measure of response at 1 µM). This was also reflected in the estimated coupling efficacy ( $\tau_c$ ), whereby although both GLP-1(7-36)NH<sub>2</sub> and exendin-4 had reduced efficiency in the Ca<sup>2+</sup> pathway, only exendin-4 reached statistical significance, indicating possible ligand specific effects of this residue on peptide activity (Table 3).

Most mutations of residue 149 but not 333 of the human GLP-1R significantly decrease peptide-mediated pERK1/2. Peptide-mediated pERK1/2 was measured at 6 min for each receptor mutant, the time at which maximal stimulation of pERK1/2 occurred at the wildtype GLP-1R (data not shown). For mutants with measurable peptide-mediated pERK1/2 responses, there was no significant alteration of peptide potency (Fig 5, Table 4). This is consistent with what we have previously seen at GLP-1R mutants, indicating that receptor mutation generically has a lesser impact on coupling to ERK1/2 signaling (Koole et al., 2011). In accord with Ca<sup>2+</sup> mobilization data, there were no significant alterations in peptide potency at either mutant of residue 333, yet both mutants displayed notable increases in  $E_{max}$  that were in turn reflected in an increase in pathway coupling efficacy. However, these increases did not reach statistical significance for any peptides (Table 4). Receptor mutants F149, I149, V149 and Y149 profoundly affected pERK1/2 signaling, with little to no detectable responses for both GLP-1 peptides, and significant effects on maximal responses for exendin-4 and oxyntomodulin (Fig 5, Table 4). However, in most cases operational modeling revealed no statistically significant changes in coupling efficiency ( $\tau_c$ ) at these mutants. Mutation of 149 to either Ala or Cys significantly impacted the  $E_{max}$  of both GLP-1(7-36)NH<sub>2</sub> and oxyntomodulin, but had little effect on exendin-4. However, application of the operational model revealed that while all peptides had reduced coupling efficacy  $(\tau_c)$  at these mutants, none reached statistical significance. As predicted, there was little deviation in peptide responses at the S149 mutant.

Effect of residue 149 or 333 of the human GLP-1R on the signaling profile of the allosteric agonist compound 2. Previously, we demonstrated that despite a loss of peptide agonist binding and signaling at the naturally occurring M149 receptor variant, the agonist profile of the small molecule GLP-1R allosteric ligand compound 2 was retained (Koole et al., 2011). In the present study, mutation of residue 333 did not significantly affect the potency of compound 2 in either cAMP or pERK1/2 signaling profiles (Table 2 and 4). Despite significant reductions observed at the polymorphic variant C333, A333 and V333 did not display any significant effects on compound 2 agonism. Mutation of 149 did not significantly affect the potency of compound 2 in either cAMP accumulation or pERK1/2 outputs (Table 2 and 4). Coupling efficacy in pERK1/2 increased for A149, F149, S149, and Y149, albeit that these increases were not statistically significant (Table 4). Consistent with previous studies, no measurable agonism was observed for compound 2 in ¡Ca²+ mobilization at either the wildtype or any of the mutant receptors (data not shown).

Effect of residue 149 or 333 of the human GLP-1R on the modulatory profile of compound 2. We have previously shown that the loss of agonist peptide binding and cAMP signaling at the naturally occurring M149 receptor variant could be partially rescued in the presence of compound 2 (Koole et al., 2011). In addition, the C333 receptor variant was not modulated by compound 2 to the extent observed at the wildtype GLP-1R (S333) (Koole et al., 2011). In the present study, we have therefore examined the role of compound 2 in modulating peptide-induced cAMP responses of residue 149

and 333 mutants. Similar to previous observations, there was significant positive modulation of oxyntomodulin-mediated cAMP with the addition of compound 2 at the wildtype GLP-1R, but no significant effects on GLP-1(1-36)NH<sub>2</sub>, GLP-1(7-36)NH<sub>2</sub> or exendin-4 (Table 5, Supplementary Fig S1-4; Koole et al., 2010). While no modulation of these latter peptides was observed at either 333 mutants, compound 2 also failed to significantly modulate the oxyntomodulin responses at A333 and V333 (Table 5, Supplementary Fig S4). Similar to wildtype GLP-1R, mutation of residue 149 to Ser had little effect on the modulatory profile of compound 2, with a substantial enhancement of oxyntomodulin potency but no significant effect on other peptides (Table 5, Supplementary Fig S1-4). At all other substitutions of residue 149, significant compound 2-mediated augmentation of oxyntomodulin potency was observed, however the extent of modulation was somewhat variable amongst mutants; greatest detectable recovery of potency was observed at the A149 mutant while only modest recovery was seen at the F149 mutant (100- and 16-fold enhancement of oxyntomodulin potency, respectfully) (Table 5, Supplementary Fig S4). As seen with the M149 receptor variant (Koole et al., 2011), in addition to modulation of oxyntomodulin, compound 2 also positively modulated most other peptide responses of 149 mutant receptors (Table 5, Supplementary Fig S1-3). In several cases (F149, I149, V149, Y149), compound 2 restored function of undetectable or undefined cAMP responses (Table 5, Supplementary Fig S1-4). This was particularly evident for Y149, with no detectable cAMP response for low potency agonists GLP-1(1-36)NH<sub>2</sub> and oxyntomodulin, but recovery of a detectable peptide response in the presence of compound 2. Despite positively modulating most peptide responses at 149 mutants, the extent of modulation by compound 2 was not consistent across all mutants. Clear examples of this are A149, for which compound 2 modulated GLP-1(7-36)NH<sub>2</sub> and oxyntomodulin potency to a greater extent than GLP-1(1-36)NH<sub>2</sub> and exendin-4 (fold changes of 63, 100, 6 and 6, respectively), while at F149, exendin-4 potency was modulated to a greater extent than oxyntomodulin (fold changes of 200 and 16, respectively) (Table 5). Interestingly, compound 2 modulated both GLP-1(7-36)NH<sub>2</sub> and oxyntomodulin at C149, but had very little influence on GLP-1(1-36)NH<sub>2</sub> and exendin-4 (fold changes of 8, 32, 1 and 3, respectively) (Table 5). These subtle changes in modulation profiles suggest an important role of residue 149 in directing probe dependent effects on cooperativity.

## Discussion

Class B GPCRs are important regulators for a number of physiological processes. Consequently, they have become valuable therapeutic targets for multiple disorders including neurodegenerative and inflammatory conditions (vasoactive intestinal peptide and pituitary adenylate cyclase-activating peptide receptors) (Abad et al., 2006; Brenneman, 2007), bowel disorders (GLP-2 receptors) (Hornby and Moore, 2011), chronic stress (corticotropin releasing factor (CRF) receptors) (Gilligan and Li, 2004), bone-related disorders (calcitonin and parathyroid hormone receptors) (Mulder et al., 2006) and type II DM (glucagon, amylin and GLP-1Rs) (Adeghate and Kalasz, 2011; Brubaker, 2007; Estall and Drucker, 2006). Many of these GPCRs exhibit single nucleotide polymorphic variance, with the variant proteins linked to development of multiple diseases, and there is additional potential to impact the effectiveness of treatments targeted to that receptor (Hager et al., 1995; Sadee et al., 2001; Schipani et al., 1999; Siani et al., 2001; Taboulet et al., 1998; Tang and Insel, 2005).

The naturally occurring GLP-1R variant, M149, markedly reduces peptide-mediated functional responses *in vitro*, suggesting that this would engender a pathophysiological phenotype. In accord, possession of this variant has been associated with poor glycemic control (Tokuyama et al., 2004). The mechanistic basis behind this loss of function receptor variant is largely unclear due to the paucity of structural information within this class of GPCRs. Consequently, we have substituted amino acids with different physicochemical properties to critically examine the functional profile of the 149, as well as the 333 polymorphic variant of the human GLP-1R to further elucidate the potential contribution of these residues to receptor structure and function.

We have also shown in a previous study, that a SNP of the human GLP-1R that results in the conversion of Ser to Cys at amino acid residue 333, attenuated both the allosteric agonism as well as the modulatory properties of the Novo Nordisk small molecule, compound 2 (Koole et al., 2011). This effect was observed in the absence of any significant effects on peptide binding affinity or function as measured through cAMP accumulation, pERK1/2 and Ca2+ mobilization outputs. In the current study, mutation of residue 333 to either Ala or Val did not significantly impact on peptide binding affinity or functional activity. Homology modeling of the GLP-1R using the glucagon receptor structure as a template places residue 333 in ICL3, close to the TM5/ICL3 boundary (Fig. 1) (Siu et al., 2013). There is significant evidence to suggest that ICL3 is a major interaction interface for G proteins (Bavec et al., 2003), and this is illustrated in multiple mutagenesis studies (Heller et al., 1996; Mathi et al., 1997; Salapatek et al., 1999; Takhar et al., 1996), as well as in studies where G protein activation can by achieved with ICL3corresponding peptides (Hallbrink et al., 2001). This work suggests an involvement of residues V327, I328 (Mathi et al., 1997), V331 (Mathi et al., 1997; Salapatek et al., 1999), I332, A333 (Salapatek et al., 1999), K334 (Mathi et al., 1997; Salapatek et al., 1999; Takhar et al., 1996) and R348 (Heller et al., 1996) in allowing effective G protein coupling to the GLP-1R. Notably, these mutagenesis data have been obtained using the rat GLP-1R. The human, mouse and rat GLP-1Rs share almost identical amino acid sequence in ICL3, suggesting that conservation of this region is important in the G protein coupling profile of the receptor across species. However, while S333 is conserved in both the human and mouse GLP-1R proteins, this residue is an Ala in the rat GLP-1R, consistent with our current data that indicate that this is not a critical residue in peptidemediated G protein coupling. These data may suggest that S333 lies outside the domain of critical importance in receptor-G protein interaction. In agreement, Mathi et al (1997) proposed that the N-terminal region of ICL3 is a helical projection of TM5 with S333 facing away from the G protein binding pocket, and this is supported by the glucagon receptor and CRF1 receptor crystal structures and in our homology model (Fig 1) (Hollenstein et al., 2013; Siu et al., 2013).

Despite little deviation in peptide function at the 333 residue in either the case of the polymorphic variant (C333; Koole et al., 2011) or the mutations introduced in this study (A333, V333), all these substitutions impact the cooperativity between compound 2 and oxyntomodulin, with no significant modulation of oxyntomodulin-mediated cAMP formation at C333 (Koole et al., 2011), and only weak positive modulation at the A333 and V333 mutants. However, unlike the C333 mutant that shows compromised compound 2-induced cAMP production in comparison to the wildtype GLP-1R (Koole et al., 2011), no significant change in cAMP production was observed at either the A333 or the V333 mutants. While the mechanistic basis of these observations is unclear, it suggests that there are potentially distinct receptor conformations stabilized by compound 2 that drive agonism versus cooperativity.

Recently, it has been revealed that compound 2 acts via covalent modification of the GLP-1R at C347 (located at the juxtaposition of ICL3/TM6; Fig 6), in a mechanism similar to that of the modulator, BETP (Nolte et al., 2014). Mutation of C347 to Ala resulted in loss of compound 2 agonism, in addition to loss of the PAM activity in the presence of GLP-1(9-36)NH<sub>2</sub>, while peptide-mediated signaling was unaltered. It is possible that mutation of residue 333 impacts the neighboring interactions required for

compound 2 to covalently attach and/or induce conformations that favor sampling of receptor active states. Furthermore, the greater loss of compound 2 activity seen with the C333 mutant (Koole et al, 2011) may arise, at least in part, through alternate cross-linking through this site.

Unlike residue 333, most mutations of residue 149 resulted in significant attenuation of peptide binding and functional activity. The loss of binding affinity tracked through most functional assay systems assessed, manifesting as an attenuation of functional efficacy. Not surprisingly, mutation of 149 to Ser, that has similar chemical properties to that of the most frequently occurring residue, Thr, was relatively well tolerated and had the least influence on peptide binding and function in comparison to the other mutants. Nonetheless, significant reduction in affinity was observed with most peptides, with variable effects on signaling that suggest that even minor modification at the 149 position impact on receptor function.

Removal of the hydroxyl functional group from T149, with maintenance of chain length, by mutation to Val significantly reduced peptide binding affinity, and cAMP and  $_i$ Ca<sup>2+</sup> responses. Similarly, replacement of the hydroxyl group with a thiol group by means of mutation to Cys, significantly reduced peptide binding affinity that generally corresponded with decreases in cAMP and  $_i$ Ca<sup>2+</sup> outputs, albeit not always to significance. Interestingly, peptide-mediated pERK1/2 coupling efficacy ( $\tau_c$ ) at both V149 and C149 was not significantly altered. This is consistent with distinct mechanisms of conformational transition driving pERK1/2 versus cAMP/ $_i$ Ca<sup>2+</sup> signaling (Koole et al., 2012a; Koole et al., 2011; Wootten et al., 2013).

All other assessed mutations of residue 149 were poorly tolerated by the GLP-1R. Similar to that of the naturally occurring polymorphism M149, these residues are considerably more hydrophobic and bulky than the wildtype Thr, and consistent with M149, they have large detrimental effects. This is perhaps not surprising given the recent structural information that is emerging for the GLP-1R. Recently, Miller and colleagues have used photoaffinity labeling that detected close proximity between residues 16 and 12 of the GLP-1 peptide with residues 141 and 145 of the GLP-1R, respectively (Chen et al., 2010; Miller et al., 2011). Given that these residues precede, and would neighbor residue 149 in an alpha-helical tertiary structure, it indicates that 149 is near the endogenous peptide binding pocket. While not necessarily a ligand interaction point itself, as suggested by homology assessment with CRF1 and glucagon receptor TM structures (Fig 6) (Hollenstein et al., 2013; Siu et al., 2013), it may provide essential conformational restraints involving other TMs. This hypothesis is supported by recent alanine mutagenesis data of conserved polar residues in TM1 and TM2 where mutation of S155 (TM1) and S186 (TM2) differentially changed peptide-mediated signal bias at the receptor (Wootten et al., 2013). These residues are predicted to be involved in tight packing interactions with TM7 and TM3, respectively (Fig 6), and the data are consistent with a proximal role of residue 149 in the activation transition of the receptor following peptide binding.

Despite significant attenuation of peptide binding and function at almost all mutants of 149, the ability of compound 2 to signal via the receptor was, in most cases, minimally affected. Similar to our previous work showing that compound 2 was able to partially restore the binding affinity and cAMP response of M149, in this study we observed that

Downloaded from jpet.aspetjournals.org at ASPET Journals on December 29, 2024

compound 2 was able to modulate almost all peptide responses when measured in cAMP.

The most striking data observed here was the restoration of functional responses at the

F149 and Y149 mutants that had severely abrogated cAMP signaling, demonstrating that

compound 2 is able to lower the energy required for activation at receptor mutants that

either have no detectable cAMP or very weakly stimulate a cAMP response. Given that

antagonist binding was unaffected at any of these receptor mutants, this provides

evidence for our previous hypothesis that residue 149 is involved in activation transition

instead of direct disruption to peptide binding interactions (Koole et al., 2011).

Collectively, these results provide us with insight into domains that are essential for

receptor function as well as the role that allosteric ligands play in receptor modulation.

## Acknowledgements

Downloaded from jpet.aspetjournals.org at ASPET Journals on December 29, 2024

The author's thank Dr. Michael Crouch (TGR biosciences) for the generous donation of the Surefire ERK reagents.

# **Authorship Contributions**

Participated in research design: Koole, Wootten, Simms, Sexton

Conducted experiments: Koole

Contributed new reagents or analytic tools: N/A

Performed data analysis: Koole

Wrote or contributed to the writing of the manuscript: Koole, Wootten, Simms, Miller,

Christopoulos, Sexton

## References

Abad C, Gomariz RP, and Waschek JA (2006). Neuropeptide mimetics and antagonists in the treatment of inflammatory disease: focus on VIP and PACAP. *Curr Top Med Chem* **6:**151-163.

Adeghate E, and Kalasz H (2011). Amylin analogues in the treatment of diabetes mellitus: medicinal chemistry and structural basis of its function. *Open Med Chem J* **5:**78-81.

Al-Sabah S, and Donnelly D (2003). The positive charge at Lys-288 of the glucagon-like peptide-1 (GLP-1) receptor is important for binding the N-terminus of peptide agonists. *FEBS Lett* **553:**342-346.

Baggio LL, and Drucker DJ (2007). Biology of incretins: GLP-1 and GIP. Gastroenterology 132:2131-2157.

Bavec A, Hallbrink M, Langel U, and Zorko M (2003). Different role of intracellular loops of glucagon-like peptide-1 receptor in G-protein coupling. *Regul Pept* **111:**137-144.

Beinborn M, Worrall CI, McBride EW, and Kopin AS (2005). A human glucagon-like peptide-1 receptor polymorphism results in reduced agonist responsiveness. *Regul Pept* **130:**1-6.

Black JW, and Leff P (1983). Operational models of pharmacological agonism. *Proc R Soc Lond B Biol Sci* **220:**141-162.

Brenneman DE (2007). Neuroprotection: a comparative view of vasoactive intestinal peptide and pituitary adenylate cyclase-activating polypeptide. *Peptides* **28:**1720-1726.

Brubaker PL (2007). Incretin-based therapies: mimetics versus protease inhibitors. Trends Endocrinol Metab 18:240-245.

Chen Q, Pinon DI, Miller LJ, and Dong M (2009). Molecular Basis of Glucagon-like Peptide 1 Docking to Its Intact Receptor Studied with Carboxyl-terminal Photolabile Probes. *J Biol Chem* **284:**34135-34144.

Chen Q, Pinon DI, Miller LJ, and Dong M (2010). Spatial approximations between residues 6 and 12 in the amino-terminal region of glucagon-like peptide 1 and its receptor: a region critical for biological activity. *J Biol Chem* **285**:24508-24518.

Cheng Y, and Prusoff WH (1973). Relationship between the inhibition constant (K1) and the concentration of inhibitor which causes 50 per cent inhibition (I50) of an enzymatic reaction. *Biochem Pharmacol* **22:**3099-3108.

Coin I, Katritch V, Sun T, Xiang Z, Siu FY, Beyermann M, Stevens RC, and Wang L (2013). Genetically encoded chemical probes in cells reveal the binding path of urocortin-I to CRF class B GPCR. *Cell* **155**:1258-1269.

Coopman K, Wallis R, Robb G, Brown A, Wilkinson GF, Timms D, and Willars GB (2011). Residues within the Transmembrane Domain of the Glucagon-Like Peptide-1 Receptor Involved in Ligand Binding and Receptor Activation. *Mol Endocrinol* **25:**1804-1818.

Dong M, Lam PC, Gao F, Hosohata K, Pinon DI, Sexton PM, Abagyan R, and Miller LJ (2007). Molecular approximations between residues 21 and 23 of secretin and its receptor: development of a model for peptide docking with the amino terminus of the secretin receptor. *Mol Pharmacol* **72:**280-290.

Dong M, Lam PC, Pinon DI, Hosohata K, Orry A, Sexton PM, Abagyan R, and Miller LJ (2011). Molecular basis of secretin docking to its intact receptor using multiple photolabile probes distributed throughout the pharmacophore. *J Biol Chem* **286**:23888-23899.

Dong M, Li Z, Pinon DI, Lybrand TP, and Miller LJ (2004). Spatial approximation between the amino terminus of a peptide agonist and the top of the sixth transmembrane segment of the secretin receptor. *J Biol Chem* **279**:2894-2903.

Estall JL, and Drucker DJ (2006). Glucagon and glucagon-like peptide receptors as drug targets. *Curr Pharm Des* **12:**1731-1750.

Fehmann HC, and Habener JF (1992). Insulinotropic hormone glucagon-like peptide-I(7-37) stimulation of proinsulin gene expression and proinsulin biosynthesis in insulinoma beta TC-1 cells. *Endocrinology* **130:**159-166.

Fortin JP, Schroeder JC, Zhu Y, Beinborn M, and Kopin AS (2010). Pharmacological characterization of human incretin receptor missense variants. *J Pharmacol Exp Ther* **332:**274-280.

Gilligan PJ, and Li YW (2004). Corticotropin-releasing factor antagonists: recent advances and exciting prospects for the treatment of human diseases. *Curr Opin Drug Discov Devel* **7:**487-497.

Hager J, Hansen L, Vaisse C, Vionnet N, Philippi A, Poller W, Velho G, Carcassi C, Contu L, Julier C, and et al. (1995). A missense mutation in the glucagon receptor gene is associated with non-insulin-dependent diabetes mellitus. *Nat Genet* **9:**299-304.

Hallbrink M, Holmqvist T, Olsson M, Ostenson CG, Efendic S, and Langel U (2001). Different domains in the third intracellular loop of the GLP-1 receptor are responsible for Galpha(s) and Galpha(i)/Galpha(o) activation. *Biochim Biophys Acta* **1546:**79-86.

Heller RS, Kieffer TJ, and Habener JF (1996). Point mutations in the first and third intracellular loops of the glucagon-like peptide-1 receptor alter intracellular signaling. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun* **223:**624-632.

Hollenstein K, Kean J, Bortolato A, Cheng RK, Dore AS, Jazayeri A, Cooke RM, Weir M, and Marshall FH (2013). Structure of class B GPCR corticotropin-releasing factor receptor 1. *Nature* **499:**438-443.

Holst B, Hastrup H, Raffetseder U, Martini L, and Schwartz TW (2001). Two active molecular phenotypes of the tachykinin NK1 receptor revealed by G-protein fusions and mutagenesis. *J Biol Chem* **276:**19793-19799.

Hornby PJ, and Moore BA (2011). The therapeutic potential of targeting the glucagon-like peptide-2 receptor in gastrointestinal disease. *Expert Opin Ther Targets* **15:**637-646.

Jorgensen R, Kubale V, Vrecl M, Schwartz TW, and Elling CE (2007). Oxyntomodulin differentially affects glucagon-like peptide-1 receptor beta-arrestin recruitment and signaling through Galpha(s). *J Pharmacol Exp Ther* **322:**148-154.

Jorgensen R, Martini L, Schwartz TW, and Elling CE (2005). Characterization of glucagon-like peptide-1 receptor beta-arrestin 2 interaction: a high-affinity receptor phenotype. *Mol Endocrinol* **19:**812-823.

Kenakin T (1995). Agonist-receptor efficacy. II. Agonist trafficking of receptor signals. *Trends Pharmacol Sci* **16:**232-238.

Kenakin T (2011). Functional selectivity and biased receptor signaling. *J Pharmacol Exp Ther* **336:**296-302.

Koole C, Wootten D, Simms J, Miller LJ, Christopoulos A, and Sexton PM (2012a). Second Extracellular Loop of Human Glucagon-like Peptide-1 Receptor (GLP-1R) Has a Critical Role in GLP-1 Peptide Binding and Receptor Activation. *J Biol Chem* **287:**3642-3658.

Koole C, Wootten D, Simms J, Savage EE, Miller LJ, Christopoulos A, and Sexton PM (2012b). Second Extracellular Loop of Human Glucagon-like Peptide-1 Receptor (GLP-1R) Differentially Regulates Orthosteric but Not Allosteric Agonist Binding and Function. *J Biol Chem* **287**:3659-3673.

Koole C, Wootten D, Simms J, Valant C, Miller LJ, Christopoulos A, and Sexton PM (2011). Polymorphism and Ligand Dependent Changes in Human Glucagon-Like Peptide-1 Receptor (GLP-1R) Function: Allosteric Rescue of Loss of Function Mutation. *Mol Pharmacol* **80**:486-497.

Koole C, Wootten D, Simms J, Valant C, Sridhar R, Woodman OL, Miller LJ, Summers RJ, Christopoulos A, and Sexton PM (2010). Allosteric ligands of the glucagon-like peptide 1 receptor (GLP-1R) differentially modulate endogenous and exogenous peptide responses in a pathway-selective manner: Implications for drug screening. *Mol Pharmacol* **78:**456-465.

Leff P, Scaramellini C, Law C, and McKechnie K (1997). A three-state receptor model of agonist action. *Trends Pharmacol Sci* **18:**355-362.

Lopez de Maturana R, and Donnelly D (2002). The glucagon-like peptide-1 receptor binding site for the N-terminus of GLP-1 requires polarity at Asp198 rather than negative charge. *FEBS Lett* **530:**244-248.

Lopez de Maturana R, Treece-Birch J, Abidi F, Findlay JB, and Donnelly D (2004). Met-204 and Tyr-205 are together important for binding GLP-1 receptor agonists but not their N-terminally truncated analogues. *Protein Pept Lett* **11:**15-22.

Lu M, Wheeler MB, Leng XH, and Boyd AE, 3rd (1993). The role of the free cytosolic calcium level in beta-cell signal transduction by gastric inhibitory polypeptide and glucagon-like peptide I(7-37). *Endocrinology* **132:**94-100.

Mathi SK, Chan Y, Li X, and Wheeler MB (1997). Scanning of the glucagon-like peptide-1 receptor localizes G protein-activating determinants primarily to the N terminus of the third intracellular loop. *Mol Endocrinol* **11:**424-432.

May LT, Avlani VA, Langmead CJ, Herdon HJ, Wood MD, Sexton PM, and Christopoulos A (2007). Structure-function studies of allosteric agonism at M2 muscarinic acetylcholine receptors. *Mol Pharmacol* **72**:463-476.

McPherson J, Rivero G, Baptist M, Llorente J, Al-Sabah S, Krasel C, Dewey WL, Bailey CP, Rosethorne EM, Charlton SJ, Henderson G, and Kelly E (2010). mu-opioid receptors: correlation of agonist efficacy for signalling with ability to activate internalization. *Mol Pharmacol* **78:**756-766.

Miller LJ, Chen Q, Lam PC, Pinon DI, Sexton PM, Abagyan R, and Dong M (2011). Refinement of Glucagon-like Peptide 1 Docking to Its Intact Receptor Using Mid-region Photolabile Probes and Molecular Modeling. *J Biol Chem* **286:**15895-15907.

Montrose-Rafizadeh C, Avdonin P, Garant MJ, Rodgers BD, Kole S, Yang H, Levine MA, Schwindinger W, and Bernier M (1999). Pancreatic glucagon-like peptide-1 receptor couples to multiple G proteins and activates mitogen-activated protein kinase pathways in Chinese hamster ovary cells. *Endocrinology* **140**:1132-1140.

Mulder JE, Kolatkar NS, and LeBoff MS (2006). Drug insight: Existing and emerging therapies for osteoporosis. *Nat Clin Pract Endocrinol Metab* **2:**670-680.

Nijmeijer S, Vischer HF, Rosethorne EM, Charlton SJ, and Leurs R (2012). Analysis of Multiple Histamine H4 Receptor Compound Classes Uncovers Galphai and beta-Arrestin2 Biased Ligands. *Mol Pharmacol* 82:1174-1182.

Nolte WM, Fortin JP, Stevens BD, Aspnes GE, Griffith DA, Hoth LR, Ruggeri RB, Mathiowetz AM, Limberakis C, Hepworth D, and Carpino PA (2014). A potentiator of orthosteric ligand activity at GLP-1R acts via covalent modification. *Nat Chem Biol* **10**:629-631.

Sadee W, Hoeg E, Lucas J, and Wang D (2001). Genetic variations in human G protein-coupled receptors: implications for drug therapy. *AAPS PharmSci* **3:**E22.

Salapatek AM, MacDonald PE, Gaisano HY, and Wheeler MB (1999). Mutations to the third cytoplasmic domain of the glucagon-like peptide 1 (GLP-1) receptor can functionally uncouple GLP-1-stimulated insulin secretion in HIT-T15 cells. *Mol Endocrinol* **13:**1305-1317.

Schipani E, Langman C, Hunzelman J, Le Merrer M, Loke KY, Dillon MJ, Silve C, and Juppner H (1999). A novel parathyroid hormone (PTH)/PTH-related peptide receptor mutation in Jansen's metaphyseal chondrodysplasia. *J Clin Endocrinol Metab* **84:**3052-3057.

Siani A, Iacone R, Russo O, Barba G, Russo P, Cappuccio FP, Galletti F, and Strazzullo P (2001). Gly40Ser polymorphism of the glucagon receptor gene is associated with central adiposity in men. *Obes Res* **9:**722-726.

Siu FY, He M, de Graaf C, Han GW, Yang D, Zhang Z, Zhou C, Xu Q, Wacker D, Joseph JS, Liu W, Lau J, Cherezov V, Katritch V, Wang MW, and Stevens RC (2013). Structure of the human glucagon class B G-protein-coupled receptor. *Nature* **499:**444-449.

Sonoda N, Imamura T, Yoshizaki T, Babendure JL, Lu JC, and Olefsky JM (2008). Beta-Arrestin-1 mediates glucagon-like peptide-1 signaling to insulin secretion in cultured pancreatic beta cells. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **105**:6614-6619.

Strachan RT, Sciaky N, Cronan MR, Kroeze WK, and Roth BL (2010). Genetic deletion of p90 ribosomal S6 kinase 2 alters patterns of 5-hydroxytryptamine 2A serotonin receptor functional selectivity. *Mol Pharmacol* **77:**327-338.

Taboulet J, Frenkian M, Frendo JL, Feingold N, Jullienne A, and de Vernejoul MC (1998). Calcitonin receptor polymorphism is associated with a decreased fracture risk in post-menopausal women. *Hum Mol Genet* **7:**2129-2133.

Takhar S, Gyomorey S, Su RC, Mathi SK, Li X, and Wheeler MB (1996). The third cytoplasmic domain of the GLP-1[7-36 amide] receptor is required for coupling to the adenylyl cyclase system. *Endocrinology* **137**:2175-2178.

Tang CM, and Insel PA (2005). Genetic variation in G-protein-coupled receptors-consequences for G-protein-coupled receptors as drug targets. *Expert Opin Ther Targets* **9:**1247-1265.

Teng M, Johnson MD, Thomas C, Kiel D, Lakis JN, Kercher T, Aytes S, Kostrowicki J, Bhumralkar D, Truesdale L, May J, Sidelman U, Kodra JT, Jorgensen AS, Olesen PH, de Jong JC, Madsen P, Behrens C, Pettersson I, Knudsen LB, Holst JJ, and Lau J (2007). Small molecule ago-allosteric modulators of the human glucagon-like peptide-1 (hGLP-1) receptor. *Bioorg Med Chem Lett* 17:5472-5478.

Tokuyama Y, Matsui K, Egashira T, Nozaki O, Ishizuka T, and Kanatsuka A (2004). Five missense mutations in glucagon-like peptide 1 receptor gene in Japanese population. *Diabetes Res Clin Pract* **66:**63-69.

Werry TD, Gregory KJ, Sexton PM, and Christopoulos A (2005). Characterization of serotonin 5-HT2C receptor signaling to extracellular signal-regulated kinases 1 and 2. *J Neurochem* **93:**1603-1615.

Wootten D, Simms J, Miller LJ, Christopoulos A, and Sexton PM (2013). Polar transmembrane interactions drive formation of ligand-specific and signal pathway-biased family B G protein-coupled receptor conformations. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **110:**5211-5216.

Zheng H, Chu J, Qiu Y, Loh HH, and Law PY (2008). Agonist-selective signaling is determined by the receptor location within the membrane domains. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* **105**:9421-9426.

# Downloaded from jpet.aspetjournals.org at ASPET Journals on December 29, 2024

## **Footnotes**

This work was funded by National Health and Medical Research Council of Australia (NHMRC) project [Grant 1061044, 1065410] and program [Grant 1055134] grants. PMS and AC are Principal Research Fellows of the NHMRC.

Figure legends

**Figure 1.** Homology model of the GLP-1R based on the glucagon receptor structure. The

positions of residues 149 and 333 are illustrated in red. The surface map of TM1 and

TM2 helices is colored beige. TM5 and TM6 are depicted in green (ribbon structure).

Inset: Magnification of ICL3 illustrating the position of residue 333 and C347 that is

involved in covalent interaction with compound 2.

**Figure 2.** Characterization of the binding of GLP-1(1-36)NH<sub>2</sub> (A), GLP-1(7-36)NH<sub>2</sub> (B),

Exendin-4 (C) and Oxyntomodulin (D) in competition with the radiolabeled antagonist,

<sup>125</sup>I-exendin(9-39), in whole FlpInCHO cells stably expressing the wild type human GLP-

1R or each of the human GLP-1R mutants at the 149 receptor residue. Data are

normalized to maximum <sup>125</sup>I-exendin(9-39) binding, with nonspecific binding measured

in the presence of 1 µM exendin(9-39), and analyzed with a three-parameter logistic

equation as defined in Equation 1. X = 0 corresponds to conditions in which no ligand

was added. All values are means  $\pm$  S.E.M. of three independent experiments, conducted

in duplicate.

Figure 3. Characterization of cAMP accumulation in the presence of GLP-1(1-36)NH<sub>2</sub>

(A), GLP-1(7-36)NH<sub>2</sub> (B), Exendin-4 (C) and Oxyntomodulin (D) in FlpInCHO cells

stably expressing the wild type human GLP-1R or each of the human GLP-1R mutants at

the 149 receptor residue. Data are normalized to the response elicited by 100 µM

forskolin and analyzed with an operational model of agonism as defined in Equation 2. X

= 0 corresponds to conditions in which no ligand was added. All values are means  $\pm$ 

S.E.M. of four to five independent experiments, conducted in duplicate.

**Figure 4.** Characterization of  ${}_{i}$ Ca<sup>2+</sup> mobilization in the presence of GLP-1(7-36)NH<sub>2</sub> (A), Exendin-4 (B) and Oxyntomodulin (C) in FlpInCHO cells stably expressing the wild type human GLP-1R or each of the human GLP-1R mutants at the 149 receptor residue. Data are normalized to the response elicited by 100 μM ATP and analyzed with an operational model of agonism as defined in Equation 2 (A and B). X = 0 corresponds to conditions in which no ligand was added. Data presented in (C) are levels of  ${}_{i}$ Ca<sup>2+</sup> mobilization in the presence of 1 μM oxyntomodulin and are normalized to the maximal response elicited by 100 μM ATP. Statistical significance of changes in response in comparison with wildtype human GLP-1R were determined by one-way analysis of variance and Dunnett's post-test and are indicated with an asterisk (\*, p < 0.05). All values are mean ± S.E.M. of five to seven independent experiments, conducted in duplicate.

**Figure 5.** Characterization of pERK1/2 in the presence of GLP-1(1-36)NH<sub>2</sub> (A), GLP-1(7-36)NH<sub>2</sub> (B), Exendin-4 (C) and Oxyntomodulin (D) in FlpInCHO cells stably expressing the wild type human GLP-1R or each of the human GLP-1R 149 mutants. Data are normalized to the maximal response elicited by 10% FBS and analyzed with an operational model of agonism as defined in Equation 2. X = 0 corresponds to conditions in which no ligand was added. All values are mean  $\pm$  S.E.M. of four to six independent experiments, conducted in duplicate.

JPET #220913

Downloaded from jpet.aspetjournals.org at ASPET Journals on December 29, 2024

**Figure 6.** Homology model of the GLP-1R illustrating the location of T149 (red, cpg representation) in relation to L141 and Y145 that are reported to be in close proximity to GLP-1 peptide residues 16 and 12, respectively (Chen et al., 2010; Miller et al., 2011; blue, ball and stick representation), and S155 (TM1) and S186 (TM2) that are involved in peptide-mediated signal bias (Wootten et al., 2013).

### Table 1. Effects of human GLP-1R 149 or 333 mutation on peptide ligand binding and cell surface expression.

Binding data were analyzed using a three-parameter logistic equation as defined in Equation 1 to obtain pIC<sub>50</sub> values. pIC<sub>50</sub> values were then corrected for radioligand occupancy using the radioligand dissociation constant for each mutant, allowing determination of ligand affinity ( $K_i$ ). Data were normalized to maximum <sup>125</sup>I-exendin(9-39) binding in the absence of ligand, with nonspecific binding measured in the presence of 1  $\mu$ M exendin(9-39). For specific <sup>125</sup>I-exendin(9-39) binding, data are expressed as a maximum of specific <sup>125</sup>I-exendin(9-39) binding at the wildtype human GLP-1R. Cell surface expression was determined through antibody detection of the N-terminal c-myc epitope label, with data expressed as a maximum of wildtype human GLP-1R expression. All values are expressed as mean  $\pm$  S.E.M. of three to four independent experiments, conducted in duplicate. Data were analyzed with one-way analysis of variance and Dunnett's post test.

		Bindin		Cell surface expression	Specific 125 l-exendin(9-39)	
	GLP-1(7-36)NH <sub>2</sub>	Exendin-4	Oxyntomodulin	Exendin(9-39)□	(% wildtype)	binding (% wildtype)
Wildtype (T <sup>149</sup> , S <sup>333</sup> )	9.1 ± 0.1	9.7 ± 0.1	8.1 ± 0.1	8.0 ± 0.0	100 ± 6	100 ± 14
M <sup>149</sup> §	6.5 ± 0.2*	7.9 ± 0.2*	5.5 ± 0.2*	N.A.	47 ± 9*	N.A.
A <sup>149</sup>	6.8 ± 0.1*	7.8 ± 0.1*	6.2 ± 0.1*	8.0 ± 0.0	110 ± 7	113 ± 30
C <sup>149</sup>	7.6 ± 0.1*	8.4 ± 0.1*	6.9 ± 0.1*	8.0 ± 0.0	156 ± 6*	218 ± 29#
F <sup>149</sup>	6.4 ± 0.1*	7.5 ± 0.1*	5.6 ± 0.1*	8.0 ± 0.0	94 ± 6	90 ± 23
l <sup>149</sup>	6.8 ± 0.1*	7.8 ± 0.1*	6.0 ± 0.2*	8.0 ± 0.0	99 ± 5	154 ± 20
S <sup>149</sup>	8.3 ± 0.1*	$9.4 \pm 0.0$	7.6 ± 0.1*	8.0 ± 0.0	88 ± 7	125 ± 24
V <sup>149</sup>	6.7 ± 0.1*	7.8 ± 0.1*	6.2 ± 0.1*	8.0 ± 0.0	72 ± 4*	139 ± 26
Y <sup>149</sup>	6.8 ± 0.1*	7.5 ± 0.1*	6.0 ± 0.1*	8.0 ± 0.0	53 ± 5*	87 ± 15
C333§	9.0 ± 0.1	9.6 ± 0.1	8.0 ± 0.1	N.A.	51 ± 6*	N.A.
A <sup>333</sup>	9.1 ± 0.1	9.6 ± 0.1	8.0 ± 0.1	8.0 ± 0.0	122 ± 9	124 ± 15
V <sup>333</sup>	9.2 ± 0.1	9.8 ± 0.1	8.4 ± 0.1	$8.0 \pm 0.0$	86 ± 5	101 ± 26

<sup>\*</sup> statistically significant at p < 0.05, one-way analysis of variance and Dunnett's post test in comparison to wildtype control

§ data obtained from Koole et al., 2011. Reported values for binding are  $pIC_{50}$ 

N.A. data not experimentally determined in Koole et al., 2011

<sup>☐</sup> equivalent at one significant figure

<sup>#</sup> p = 0.11

### Table 2. Effects of human GLP-1R 149 or 333 mutation on agonist signaling via cAMP.

Data were analyzed using a three-parameter logistic equation as defined in Equation 1. pEC<sub>50</sub> values represent the negative logarithm of the concentration of agonist that produces half the maximal response.  $E_{max}$  represents the maximal response normalized to that elicited by 100  $\mu$ M forskolin. All mutants were analyzed with an operational model of agonism (Equation 2) to determine log $\tau$  values. All log $\tau$  values were then corrected to specific <sup>125</sup>I-exendin(9-39) binding (log $\tau_c$ ). Values are expressed as mean  $\pm$  S.E.M. of four to five independent experiments, conducted in duplicate. Data were analyzed with one-way analysis of variance and Dunnett's post test.

		cAMP accumulation													
	GLP-1(1-36)NH <sub>2</sub>		2	GLP-1(7-36)NH <sub>2</sub>			Exendin-4			Oxyntomodulin			Compound 2		
	pEC <sub>50</sub>	E <sub>max</sub>	Logī <sub>c</sub> (ī <sub>c</sub> )	pEC <sub>50</sub>	E <sub>max</sub>	Logī <sub>c</sub> (ī <sub>c</sub> )	pEC <sub>50</sub>	E <sub>max</sub>	Logī <sub>c</sub> (ī <sub>c</sub> )	pEC <sub>50</sub>	E <sub>max</sub>	Logī <sub>c</sub> (ī <sub>c</sub> )	pEC <sub>50</sub>	E <sub>max</sub>	Logī <sub>c</sub> (ī <sub>c</sub> )
Wildtype	7.4 ± 0.1	149.7 ± 7.8	0.53 ± 0.16 (3.36)	9.4 ± 0.2	175.7 ± 10.1	0.94 ± 0.22 (8.63)	10.5 ± 0.1	162.5 ± 5.4	0.70 ± 0.19 (5.05)	8.5 ± 0.1	178.3 ± 8.8	1.03 ± 0.24 (10.74)	6.0 ± 0.2	115.4 ± 9.2	0.18 ± 0.17 (1.51)
M <sup>149</sup> §	N.D.	N.D.	N.A.	8.0 ± 0.3*	N.D.	N.A.	8.4 ± 0.1*	223 ± 13	N.A.	N.D.	N.D.	N.A.	5.5 ± 0.1	217 ± 24	N.A.
A <sup>149</sup>	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	8.9 ± 0.2*	139.1 ± 11.0	0.34 ± 0.33 (2.20)	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	5.7 ± 0.4	70.2 ± 10.4*	-0.27 ± 0.32 (0.53)
C <sup>149</sup>	6.8 ± 0.2	44.7 ± 4.9	-0.86 ± 0.32 (0.14)	8.4 ± 0.2	123.5 ± 10.2	-0.10 ± 0.31 (0.79)	9.8 ± 0.2	133.3 ± 10.0	$0.00 \pm 0.30$ (1.00)	7.1 ± 0.1*	120.6 ± 7.0*	-0.13 ± 0.31 (0.74)	5.7 ± 0.3	81.7 ± 9.9	-0.46 ± 0.30 (0.35)
F <sup>149</sup>	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	8.0 ± 0.1*	150.6 ± 9.5	$0.57 \pm 0.33$ (3.75)	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	5.9 ± 0.3	82.9 ± 9.6	-0.06 ± 0.25 (0.87)
l <sup>149</sup>	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	8.2 ± 0.1*	86.6 ± 6.6*	-0.28 ± 0.26 (0.52)	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	6.1 ± 0.3	83.7 ± 7.8	-0.29 ± 0.22 (0.51)
S <sup>149</sup>	6.8 ± 0.1	170.1 ± 9.5	$0.74 \pm 0.34$ (5.52)	9.1 ± 0.2	129.5 ± 9.4	0.20 ± 0.25 (1.57)	10.3 ± 0.2	186.0 ± 12.4	1.23 ± 0.50 (17.02)	7.9 ± 0.2	141.7 ± 9.1	0.33 ± 0.26 (2.13)	5.9 ± 0.2	80.8 ± 9.9	-0.23 ± 0.25 (0.59)
V <sup>149</sup>	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	8.9 ± 0.3*	122.1 ± 13.0	0.08 ± 0.29 (1.21)	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	6.0 ± 0.4	105.9 ± 12.3	-0.05 ± 0.27 (0.90)
Y <sup>149</sup>	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	8.1 ± 0.2*	77.5 ± 10.5*	-0.13 ± 0.22 (0.74)	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	5.8 ± 0.3	41.6 ± 4.9*	-0.46 ± 0.19 (0.34)
C <sup>333</sup> §	$6.9 \pm 0.2$	259 ± 24	N.A.	10.2 ± 0.3	331 ± 26	N.A.	10.2 ± 0.2	257 ± 12	N.A.	8.2 ± 0.2	288 ± 16	N.A.	N.D.	46 ± 8*§§	N.A.
A <sup>333</sup>	7.4 ± 0.1	142.9 ± 9.7	0.35 ± 0.17 (2.25)	9.5 ± 0.1	166.7 ± 8.6	0.68 ± 0.19 (4.82)	10.5 ± 0.2	168.2 ± 11.7	0.71 ± 0.21 (5.15)	8.4 ± 0.2	162.7 ± 9.4	0.61 ± 0.19 (4.09)	5.8 ± 0.2	142.7 ± 13.0	0.36 ± 0.19 (2.29)
V <sup>333</sup>	7.2 ± 0.1	112.1 ± 8.7	0.13 ± 0.27 (1.36)	9.5 ± 0.2	120.8 ± 8.2	0.21 ± 0.27 (1.63)	10.5 ± 0.2	132.4 ± 7.1	0.33 ± 0.27 (2.13)	8.6 ± 0.2	97.5 ± 7.2*	0.00 ± 0.27 (1.00)	5.9 ± 0.2	100.9 ± 9.6	0.05 ± 0.28 (1.12)

<sup>\*</sup> statistically significant at p < 0.05, one-way analysis of variance and Dunnett's post test in comparison to wildtype control

<sup>§</sup> data obtained from Koole et al., 2011. Reported  $E_{\text{max}}$  values are normalized to 100 nM forskolin

<sup>§§</sup> compound 2 response at 10<sup>-5</sup>M

N.A. data not experimentally determined in Koole et al., 2011

# Table 3. Effects of human GLP-1R 149 or 333 mutation on agonist signaling via ${}_{i}Ca^{2+}$ mobilization.

Data were analyzed using a three-parameter logistic equation as defined in Equation 1. pEC<sub>50</sub> values represent the negative logarithm of the concentration of agonist that produces half the maximal response.  $E_{max}$  represents the maximal response normalized to that elicited by 100  $\mu$ M ATP. All mutants were analyzed with an operational model of agonism (Equation 2) to determine log $\tau$  values. All log $\tau$  values were then corrected to specific <sup>125</sup>I-exendin(9-39) binding (log $\tau_c$ ). Values are expressed as mean  $\pm$  S.E.M. of five to seven independent experiments, conducted in duplicate. Data were analyzed with one-way analysis of variance and Dunnett's post test.

	¡Ca²⁺ mobilization											
		GLP-1(7-36	)NH <sub>2</sub>		Oxyntomodulin							
	pEC <sub>50</sub>	E <sub>max</sub>	Logī <sub>c</sub> (ī <sub>c</sub> )	pEC <sub>50</sub>	E <sub>max</sub>	Logī c (ī c)	E <sub>max</sub> □					
Wildtype	7.6 ± 0.2	14.3 ± 1.3	0.08 ± 0.16 (1.20)	7.3 ± 0.2	17.3 ± 1.5	0.29 ± 0.16 (1.95)	10.8 ± 1.8					
M <sup>149</sup> §	N.D.	N.D.	N.A.	N.D.	N.D.	N.A	2.6 ± 0.4*					
A <sup>149</sup>	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.					
C <sup>149</sup>	$7.2 \pm 0.1$	11.9 ± 0.8	-0.42 ± 0.3 (0.38)	7.5 ± 0.3	6.1 ± 0.8*	-0.86 ± 0.31 (0.14)*	3.1 ± 2.6*					
F <sup>149</sup>	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.					
l <sup>149</sup>	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.					
S <sup>149</sup>	7.1 ± 0.2	17.9 ± 2.2	0.23 ± 0.26 (1.70)	7.1 ± 0.2	15.5 ± 1.7	0.05 ± 0.26 (1.12)	5.2 ± 2.4					
V <sup>149</sup>	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.					
Y <sup>149</sup>	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.					
C <sup>333</sup> §	$7.8 \pm 0.3$	23.6 ± 2.4	N.A.	7.8 ± 0.2	14.6 ± 1.1*	N.A.	15.0 ± 2.4					
A <sup>333</sup>	$7.8 \pm 0.2$	19.1 ± 1.4*	0.35 ± 0.17 (2.24)	7.4 ± 0.2	19.3 ± 1.7	0.36 ± 0.18 (2.29)	13.3 ± 2.3					
V <sup>333</sup>	$7.8 \pm 0.2$	17.4 ± 1.6	0.30 ± 0.27 (2.00)	7.6 ± 0.2	18.7 ± 1.7	0.40 ± 0.27 (2.51)	15.9 ± 3.2					

<sup>\*</sup> statistically significant at p < 0.05, one-way analysis of variance and Dunnett's post test in comparison to wildtype control

 $<sup>\</sup>square$  response at 1  $\mu$ M oxyntomodulin

<sup>§</sup> data obtained from Koole et al., 2011. Reported  $E_{max}$  values are normalized to 100  $\mu M$  forskolin

N.A. data not experimentally determined in Koole et al., 2011

### Table 4. Effects of human GLP-1R 149 or 333 mutation on agonist signaling via pERK1/2.

Data were analyzed using a three-parameter logistic equation as defined in Equation 1. pEC<sub>50</sub> values represent the negative logarithm of the concentration of agonist that produces half the maximal response.  $E_{max}$  represents the maximal response normalized to that elicited by 10% FBS. All mutants were analyzed with an operational model of agonism (Equation 2) to determine log $\tau$  values. All log $\tau$  values were then corrected to specific <sup>125</sup>I-exendin(9-39) binding (log $\tau_c$ ). Values are expressed as mean  $\pm$  S.E.M. of four to six independent experiments, conducted in duplicate. Data were analyzed with one-way analysis of variance and Dunnett's post test.

								pERK1/2							
	GLP-1(1-36)NH <sub>2</sub>		12	1	GLP-1(7-36)NH	12	Exendin-4			Oxyntomodulin			Compound 2		
	pEC <sub>50</sub>	E <sub>max</sub>	Logī <sub>c</sub> (ī <sub>c</sub> )	pEC <sub>50</sub>	E <sub>max</sub>	Logī <sub>c</sub> (ī <sub>c</sub> )	pEC <sub>50</sub>	E <sub>max</sub>	Logī <sub>c</sub> (ī <sub>c</sub> )	pEC <sub>50</sub>	E <sub>max</sub>	Logī <sub>c</sub> (ī <sub>c</sub> )	pEC <sub>50</sub>	E <sub>max</sub>	Logī <sub>c</sub> (ī <sub>c</sub> )
Wildtype	7.3 ± 0.2	1.3 ± 0.1	-0.72 ± 0.16 (0.19)	8.0 ± 0.2	3.6 ± 0.2	-0.10 ± 0.15 (0.79)	8.1 ± 0.2	$4.2 \pm 0.3$	0.02 ± 0.16 (1.05)	7.6 ± 0.1	5.0 ± 0.2	0.21 ± 0.16 (1.62)	5.9 ± 0.2	0.45 ± 0.1	-1.21 ± 0.19 (0.06)
$M^{149}$ §	N.D.	$0.6 \pm 0.1$	N.A.	$7.8 \pm 0.3$	4.1 ± 0.5	N.A.	$8.0 \pm 0.2$	3.4 ± 0.3*	N.A.	7.1 ± 0.2	3.7 ± 0.3*	N.A.	5.9 ± 0.3	$2.0 \pm 0.4$	N.A.
A <sup>149</sup>	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	6.9 ± 0.4	1.7 ± 0.4*	-0.58 ± 0.41 (0.26)	7.6 ± 0.4	3.0 ± 0.5	-0.30 ± 0.32 (0.50)	7.0 ± 0.2	2.6 ± 0.2*	-0.38 ± 0.32 (0.42)	4.7 ± 0.7	$0.99 \pm 0.7$	-0.95 ± 0.38 (0.11)
C <sup>149</sup>	6.4 ± 0.5	1.6 ± 0.6	-0.90 ± 0.43 (0.13)	$7.3 \pm 0.4$	2.0 ± 0.4*	-0.82 ± 0.31 (0.15)	$7.7 \pm 0.3$	$4.0 \pm 0.4$	-0.36 ± 0.31 (0.44)	6.9 ± 0.2	3.3 ± 0.4*	-0.48 ± 0.31 (0.33)	5.6 ± 0.4	$0.33 \pm 0.1$	-1.67 ± 0.38 (0.02)
F <sup>149</sup>	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	$7.7 \pm 0.2$	1.3 ± 0.1*	-0.71 ± 0.32 (0.19)	7.1 ± 0.2	1.3 ± 0.1*	-0.64 ± 0.28 (0.23)	4.8 ± 0.4	$0.87 \pm 0.4$	-0.78 ± 0.45 (0.17)
l <sup>149</sup>	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	$7.6 \pm 0.3$	1.1 ± 0.2*	-1.02 ± 0.39 (0.10)	7.3 ± 0.2	1.3 ± 0.1*	-0.91 ± 0.26 (0.12)	5.2 ± 0.4	0.71 ± 0.2	-1.21 ± 0.26 (0.06)
S <sup>149</sup>	6.8 ± 0.4	1.4 ± 0.3	-0.82 ± 0.26 (0.15)	$7.5 \pm 0.2$	$3.3 \pm 0.4$	-0.27 ± 0.25 (0.54)	$7.9 \pm 0.2$	$3.7 \pm 0.3$	-0.19 ± 0.26 (0.65)	$7.3 \pm 0.2$	$4.9 \pm 0.5$	0.09 ± 0.25 (1.23)	5.2 ± 0.4	$0.79 \pm 0.2$	-1.04 ± 0.29 (0.09)
V <sup>149</sup>	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	$7.5 \pm 0.6$	1.1 ± 0.3*	-0.97 ± 0.34 (0.11)	$7.2 \pm 0.8$	$0.8 \pm 0.4^{*}$	-1.12 ± 0.95 (0.08)	7.1 ± 0.3	1.5 ± 0.3*	-0.77 ± 0.31 (0.17)	5.5 ± 0.6	$0.29 \pm 0.1$	-1.50 ± 0.42 (0.03)
Y <sup>149</sup>	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	$6.7 \pm 0.6$	1.0 ± 0.3*	-0.85 ± 0.67 (0.14)	$7.0 \pm 0.5$	0.6 ± 0.2*	-1.02 ± 0.36 (0.10)*	4.8 ± 0.8	$0.49 \pm 0.4$	-1.15 ± 0.41 (0.07)
C333§	7.7 ± 0.2	1.7 ± 0.2	N.A.	8.7 ± 0.2	5.9 ± 0.4	N.A.	9.1 ± 0.3	6.1 ± 0.5	N.A.	7.7 ± 0.2	7.0 ± 0.5	N.A.	6.0 ± 0.2	1.4 ± 0.2	N.A.
A <sup>333</sup>	7.0 ± 0.2	1.7 ± 0.2	-0.66 ± 0.17 (0.22)	7.8 ± 0.2	6.1 ± 0.6*	0.40 ± 0.18 (2.51)	8.0 ± 0.3	6.7 ± 0.8*	0.60 ± 0.21 (3.98)	7.5 ± 0.2	7.5 ± 0.7*	1.07 ± 0.36 (11.75)	6.2 ± 0.3	0.70 ± 0.1	-1.10 ± 0.17 (0.08)
V <sup>333</sup>	7.0 ± 0.2	1.4 ± 0.2	-0.70 ± 0.28 (0.20)	7.8 ± 0.1	4.1 ± 0.2	0.02 ± 0.27 (1.05)	8.0 ± 0.1	$4.7 \pm 0.3$	0.13 ± 0.27 (1.35)	$7.6 \pm 0.2$	$6.3 \pm 0.5$	0.57 ± 0.28 (3.72)	5.9 ± 0.4	1.11 ± 0.2	-0.79 ± 0.27 (0.16)

§ data obtained from Koole et al., 2011. Reported  $E_{\text{max}}$  values are normalized to 10% FBS

N.A. data not experimentally determined in Koole et al., 2011

<sup>\*</sup> statistically significant at p < 0.05, one-way analysis of variance and Dunnett's post test in comparison to wildtype control

### Table 5. Differential modulation of agonist peptides at human GLP-1R 149 or 333 mutants by compound 2 in cAMP accumulation.

Data were analyzed using a three-parameter logistic equation as defined in Equation 1. pEC<sub>50</sub> values represent the negative logarithm of the concentration of agonist that produces half the maximal response. All data are normalized to the response elicited by 100  $\mu$ M forskolin and then normalized to the response elicited by 1  $\mu$ M peptide (GLP-1(1-36)NH<sub>2</sub>, oxyntomodulin) or 100 nM peptide (GLP-1(7-36)NH<sub>2</sub>, exendin-4) at each mutant. Values are expressed as mean  $\pm$  S.E.M. of four to nine independent experiments, conducted in duplicate.

		cAMP accumulation (pEC <sub>50</sub> )											
	GLP-1(1-36)NH <sub>2</sub>	+ 3 µM compound 2	GLP-1(7-36)NH <sub>2</sub>	+ 3 µM compound 2	Exendin-4	+ 3 µM compound 2	Oxyntomodulin	+ 3 µM compound 2					
Wildtype	7.8 ± 0.1	7.5 ± 0.4	10.6 ± 0.1	10.9 ± 0.5	11.1 ± 0.1	10.8 ± 0.8	9.5 ± 0.1	10.4 ± 0.8*					
M <sup>149</sup> §	N.D.	N.D.	7.0 ± 0.2	9.7 ± 0.8*	8.5 ± 0.2	9.6 ± 0.7*	N.D.	7.7 ± 1.5*					
A <sup>149</sup>	7.0 ± 0.1	7.8 ± 0.8*	8.7 ± 0.1	10.5 ± 0.2*	9.9 ± 0.1	10.7 ± 0.4*	7.6 ± 0.1	9.6 ± 0.2*					
C <sup>149</sup>	7.2 ± 0.1	7.1 ± 0.7	9.3 ± 0.1	10.2 ± 0.5	10.6 ± 0.2	11.0 ± 0.9	8.0 ± 0.1	9.5 ± 0.8*					
F <sup>149</sup>	N.D.	7.2 ± 1.4	N.D.	10.0 ± 0.2	$8.8 \pm 0.1$	11.1 ± 0.5*	7.3 ± 0.2	8.5 ± 0.7*					
l <sup>149</sup>	N.D.	N.D.	N.D.	$8.9 \pm 0.5$	$8.8 \pm 0.0$	9.9 ± 0.6*	N.D.	7.7 ± 3.1					
S <sup>149</sup>	7.4 ± 0.1	$7.4 \pm 0.5$	10.4 ± 0.2	10.9 ± 0.8	11.0 ± 0.1	11.3 ± 0.5	9.0 ± 0.1	10.0 ± 0.4*					
V <sup>149</sup>	N.D.	7.3 ± 1.6	$8.5 \pm 0.0$	N.D.	$9.8 \pm 0.1$	9.8 ± 0.4	$7.3 \pm 0.1$	8.7 ± 0.5*					
Y <sup>149</sup>	N.D.	$7.4 \pm 0.7$	N.D.	10.0 ± 0.3	8.7 ± 0.1	10.8 ± 0.2*	N.D.	$8.3 \pm 0.5$					
C <sup>333</sup> §	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	8.2 ± 0.1	8.3 ± 0.2					
A <sup>333</sup>	7.6 ± 0.1	7.5 ± 0.8	10.5 ± 0.2	10.3 ± 0.5	11.2 ± 0.1	11.2 ± 0.5	9.4 ± 0.1	9.6 ± 0.4					
V <sup>333</sup>	8.0 ± 0.1	$7.8 \pm 0.8$	10.6 ± 0.1	10.7 ± 0.5	11.1 ± 0.1	11.6 ± 0.4	9.5 ± 0.1	10.0 ± 0.5					

<sup>\*</sup> statistically significant at  $p \le 0.05$ , compared with respective peptide control, paired t test

<sup>§</sup> data obtained from Koole et al., 2011. Reported values are normalized to 100 nM forskolin

N.A. data not experimentally determined in Koole et al., 2011

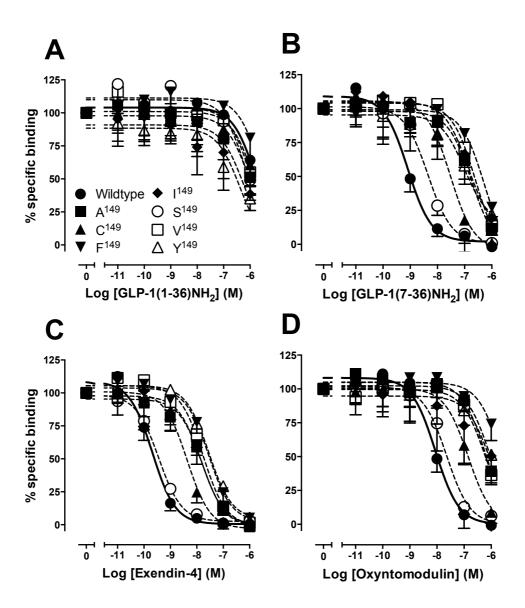


Figure 2.

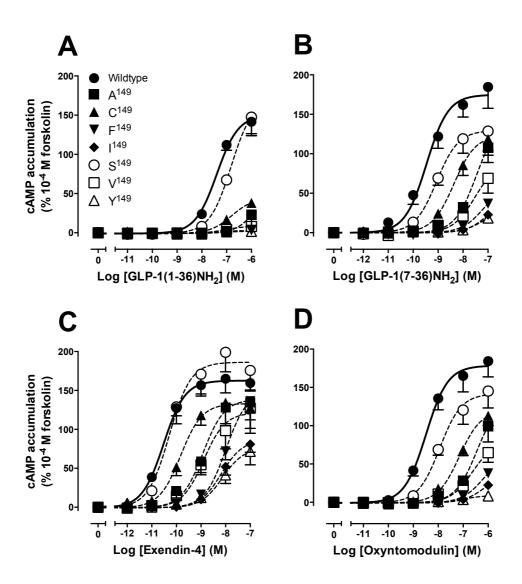


Figure 3.

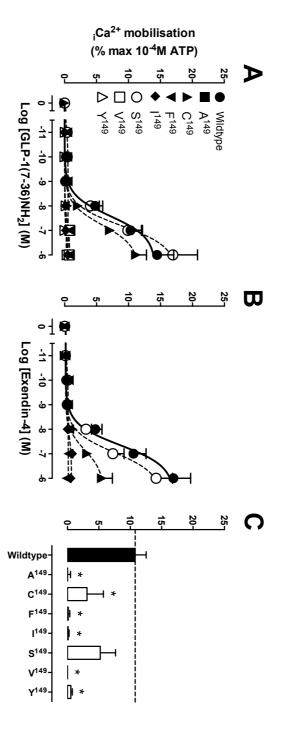


Figure 4.

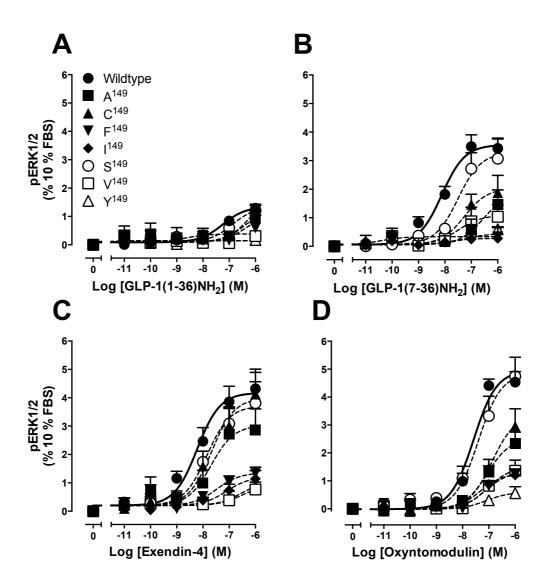


Figure 5.

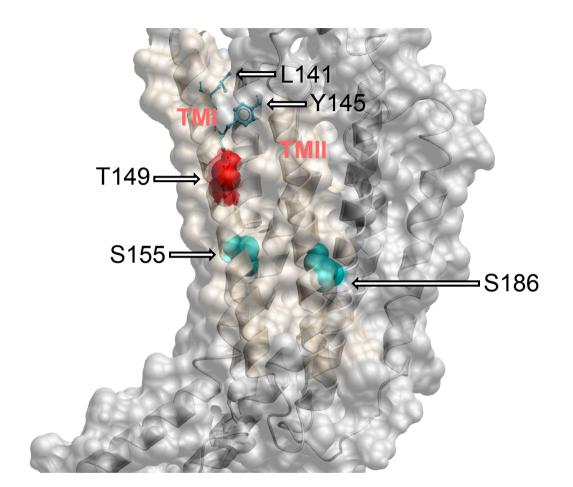


Figure 6.