1 Interruption of glucagon signaling augments islet non-alpha cell proliferation in SLC7A2-

2 and mTOR-dependent manners

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27 ABSTRACT

28 Objective: Dysregulated glucagon secretion and inadequate functional beta cell mass are 29 hallmark features of diabetes. While glucagon receptor (GCGR) antagonism ameliorates 30 hyperglycemia and elicits beta cell regeneration in pre-clinical models of diabetes, it also 31 promotes alpha and delta cell hyperplasia. We sought to investigate the mechanism by which 32 loss of glucagon action impacts pancreatic islet non-alpha cells, and the relevance of these 33 observations in a human islet context. 34 **Methods:** We used zebrafish, rodents, and transplanted human islets comprising six different 35 models of interrupted glucagon signaling to examine their impact on delta and beta cell 36 proliferation and mass. We also used models with global deficiency of the cationic amino acid 37 transporter, SLC7A2, and mTORC1 inhibition via rapamycin, to determine whether amino acid-38 dependent nutrient sensing was required for islet non-alpha cell growth. 39 **Results:** Inhibition of glucagon signaling stimulated delta cell proliferation in mouse and 40 transplanted human islets, and in mouse islets. This was rapamycin-sensitive and required 41 SLC7A2. Likewise, gcgr deficiency augmented beta cell proliferation via SLC7A2- and 42 mTORC1-dependent mechanisms in zebrafish and promoted cell cycle engagement in rodent 43 beta cells but was insufficient to drive a significant increase in beta cell mass in mice. 44 **Conclusion:** Our findings demonstrate that interruption of glucagon signaling augments islet 45 non-alpha cell proliferation in zebrafish, rodents, and transplanted human islets in a manner 46 requiring SLC7A2 and mTORC1 activation. An increase in delta cell mass may be leveraged for 47 future beta cell regeneration therapies relying upon delta cell reprogramming. 48 49

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53 1. INTRODUCTION

54 Diabetes is a multifactorial disease, but insufficient insulin secretion due to inadequate 55 functional beta cell mass and dysregulated, often increased, glucagon secretion are 56 fundamental to essentially all forms of diabetes and contribute to hyperglycemia.¹⁻⁶ The utility of 57 glucagon receptor (GCGR) antagonism as a means of treating diabetic hyperglycemia has been 58 intensively examined because it markedly improves glycemic control in diabetic rodents, non-59 human primates, and humans.⁷⁻¹⁰ More recently, studies have shown that inducible elimination of glucagon action by administration of a GCGR monoclonal antibody (GCGR-Ab) enhances 60 61 beta cell survival, regeneration, and function in pre-clinical models of type 1 (T1D) and type 2 (T2D) diabetes.¹¹⁻¹⁶ 62 63 64 However, inhibition of glucagon action elicits adverse effects as well, including increased serum 65 and liver lipid levels, increased blood pressure, and robust pancreatic islet alpha cell hyperplasia.¹⁰ We and others¹⁷⁻²¹ have shown that the response of islet alpha cells to GCGR 66 67 antagonism is caused by disruption of the liver-alpha cell axis, which results in hyperaminoacidemia, hyperglucagonemia, and rapamycin-sensitive alpha cell proliferation 68 69 through a mechanism also involving induction of a glutamine transporter, Slc38a5, in alpha 70 cells.^{19,20} Recently, we extended these observations by showing that the alpha cell-enriched 71 cationic amino acid transporter, SIc7a2, is required for high amino acid-stimulated mTOR 72 activation, Slc38a5 induction, alpha cell proliferation, and islet hormone secretion²², 73 underscoring a prominent role for amino acids in the regulation of alpha cell function and 74 phenotypes.²³ 75

Interestingly, pancreatic islet non-alpha cells, namely delta and beta cells, have also been
 shown to be impacted by GCGR antagonism.^{17,24-26} For example, constitutive ablation of the
 Gcgr gene was associated with 2- and 3-fold increases in pancreatic delta cell number and

79	somatostatin content, respectively, and increased postnatal beta cell proliferation and					
80	mass. ^{17,24,25} Furthermore, some ^{11,26} but not all ^{18-20,27} studies have shown that GCGR-Ab					
81	treatment increases pancreatic delta and beta cell numbers in mice and cynomolgus monkeys,					
82	respectively. However, the mechanism by which constitutive or inducible elimination of glucagon					
83	action elicits changes in islet non-alpha cells under insulin-sufficient conditions, and the					
84	relevance of these observations in a human islet context, are unknown.					
85						
86	Here, we used several complementary approaches to show that interruption of glucagon					
87	signaling augments islet non-alpha cell proliferation in SLC7A2- and mTORC1-dependent					
88	manners. We found that constitutive and inducible elimination of glucagon action stimulated					
89	delta cell proliferation and mass expansion in mouse and transplanted human islets, and that in					
90	mouse islets, this required mTORC1 activation and the amino acid transporter, SLC7A2.					
91	Likewise, we found that gcgr deficiency increased beta cell number in a SLC7A2- and					
92	rapamycin-sensitive manner in zebrafish and promoted cell cycle engagement in rodent beta					
93	cells but was insufficient to drive a significant increase in beta cell mass in mice. Our findings					
94	highlight key differences in the regulation of beta versus delta and alpha cell proliferation and					
95	reveal a new mechanism linking inhibition of glucagon signaling to expansion of islet delta cell					
96	mass that may be leveraged for future beta cell regeneration therapies via delta cell					
97	reprogramming. ^{28,29}					
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101 2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

102 2.1. Mouse studies

103 All studies were performed at Vanderbilt University Medical Center and conducted in 104 accordance with protocols and guidelines approved by the Vanderbilt University Institutional 105 Animal Care and Use Committee. Mice were provided ad libitum access to standard rodent 106 chow and water and housed under a 12-hour light/12-hour dark cycle. The following mice were obtained from The Jackson Laboratory: Gcg^{-/-} (NOD.Cg-Gcg^{em1Dvs} Prkdc^{scid} II2rg^{tm1Wjl}/DvsJ, 107 108 strain #: 029819)³⁰, C57BL/6J (strain #000664), NSG (NOD.Cg-*Prkdc^{scid} II2rg^{tm1Wjl}*/SzJ, strain #: 005557)³¹, and Slc7a2^{-/-} (B6.129S7-Slc7a2^{tm1Clm}/LellJ, strain #: 022767).³² Gcgr^{-/-} and Gcgr^{Hep-/-} 109 mice were generated as described previously.¹⁷ Wildtype (+/+) and knockout (-/-) mice obtained 110 111 from heterozygous crosses were used for all experiments. For inducible elimination of glucagon 112 action, mice were treated once per week for up to 8 weeks with control (IgG or PBS) or 10mg/kg 113 of a humanized monoclonal antibody (10mg/kg) targeting the glucagon receptor (GCGR-Ab; "Ab-4" and REMD 2.59)³³ via intraperitoneal (i.p.) injection. 114

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116 For transplantation experiments, mouse islets were isolated by intraductal infusion of 117 collagenase P, separated via histopaque gradient, and cultured overnight in Roswell Park 118 Memorial Institute complete medium (RPMI: 5.6 mmol/L glucose with 10% FBS) before transplantation. Islets were isolated from 13-15-week-old Slc7a2+/+ and Slc7a2-/- mice and 119 120 transplanted beneath the renal capsule of contralateral kidneys in 16-18-week-old syngeneic Slc7a2^{+/+} recipients. Following 2 weeks of engraftment, Slc7a2^{+/+} recipient mice were injected 121 122 i.p. with control IgG or GCGR-Ab (10 mg/kg) once per week for 2 weeks, after which the kidneys were harvested for tissue embedding and graft analysis as described.²² In the Gcgr mouse line, 123 124 islets isolated from 14-week-old Gcgr^{+/+} mice were transplanted beneath the renal capsule of 14-week-old syngeneic *Gcqr^{Flox}* or *Gcqr^{Hep-/-}* recipients as described.¹⁷ Human islet transplants 125 were performed exactly as described.¹⁹ Human islets were obtained from the Integrated Islet 126

- 127 Distribution Program (<u>https://iidp.coh.org/</u>) or the Human Pancreas Analysis Program
- 128 (https://hpap.pmacs.upenn.edu).^{34,35} Individual donor characteristics may be found in
- 129 Supplemental Table 1 and Dean et al.¹⁹
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131 2.2. Zebrafish studies

We used previously described gcgra/b double-knock¹⁹ out (abbreviated gcgr^{-/-} here) and s/c7a2^{-/-} 132 133 zebrafish lines.²² Proliferating beta cells were identified by incubating zebrafish embryos with 1 134 mmol/I 5-ethynyl-2-deoxyuridine (EdU) at four days post-fertilization (dpf) and chasing them for 24 hours. EdU was detected as described previously.³⁶ Beta cell number was measured by 135 136 counting Tg(ins:H2B-mcherry) labeled beta cells in the islet of five dpf zebrafish as described.³⁶ 137 In the rapamycin experiments, starting at 3 dpf zebrafish were treated with a concentration of 138 200 nM rapamycin. Treatment continued for 3 days and then beta cell number was determined 139 at 6 dpf in gcgr -/- and control fish.

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141 **2.3.** Immunofluorescence staining and image analysis

142 Tissue preparation and sectioning were performed as described previously.^{19,22} Tissue sections 143 were stained for Ki67, a marker of cell proliferation (Abcam, ab15580), phosphorylated ribosomal protein S6 (pS6^{240/244}), a marker of mTOR activation (Cell Signaling, #2215), and 144 145 insulin (Dako, A0564), somatostatin (Santa Cruz, sc-7819), or glucagon (LSBio, LS-C202759) to mark beta, delta, and alpha cells, respectively. Alpha cells in $Gcq^{-/2}$ sections were identified by 146 147 pro-glucagon staining (Cell Signaling, #8233). Whole pancreatic sections and islet grafts were 148 imaged using a Scanscope FL System (Aperio Technologies) and an Olympus FV3000 laser 149 scanning confocal microscope and analyzed using Halo image analysis software (Indica Labs). 150 Colocalization of Ki67 with DAPI in insulin+ and somatostatin+ cells was determined by manual 151 counting and a CytoNuclear FL v1.4 algorithm (Indica Labs). Percent beta and delta cell 152 proliferation was quantified from at least 1500 beta and up to 1200 delta cells per animal (and at

153	least 450 beta and 400 delta cells per donor) by dividing the number of Ki67+/insulin+ or
154	Ki67+/somatostatin+ cells by the total number of insulin+ or somatostatin+ cells, respectively.
155	Beta and delta cell mass was determined using an area classifier in Halo and calculated as
156	described. ³⁷ Briefly, the fractional areas for insulin and somatostatin from 5-7 pancreatic
157	sections of differing tissue depths were multiplied by the pancreas weight to obtain an estimate
158	of total beta and delta cell mass.
159	
160	2.4. Statistical Analyses
160 161	2.4. Statistical Analyses All data are presented as mean \pm SEM. Comparisons between 2 groups were analyzed using
160 161 162	 2.4. Statistical Analyses All data are presented as mean ± SEM. Comparisons between 2 groups were analyzed using unpaired two-tailed t tests. Comparisons between more than 2 groups were determined by one-
160 161 162 163	2.4. Statistical Analyses All data are presented as mean ± SEM. Comparisons between 2 groups were analyzed using unpaired two-tailed t tests. Comparisons between more than 2 groups were determined by one-way or two-way ANOVA with Fisher's LSD or Tukey's post-hoc tests. P < 0.05 denotes
160 161 162 163 164	2.4. Statistical Analyses All data are presented as mean ± SEM. Comparisons between 2 groups were analyzed using unpaired two-tailed t tests. Comparisons between more than 2 groups were determined by one-way or two-way ANOVA with Fisher's LSD or Tukey's post-hoc tests. P < 0.05 denotes statistical significance. Analyses were performed using Prism 9 software.
160 161 162 163 164 165	2.4. Statistical Analyses All data are presented as mean ± SEM. Comparisons between 2 groups were analyzed using unpaired two-tailed t tests. Comparisons between more than 2 groups were determined by one- way or two-way ANOVA with Fisher's LSD or Tukey's post-hoc tests. P < 0.05 denotes statistical significance. Analyses were performed using Prism 9 software.

168 3. RESULTS

169 3.1. Loss of glucagon action augments delta cell proliferation and mass expansion in 170 mouse and transplanted human islets. To determine how interruption of glucagon signaling 171 impacts pancreatic islet non-alpha cells, we first measured delta cell proliferation and mass in two different mouse models: one with constitutive global glucagon deficiency (Gcg^{/-}) and 172 173 another with inducible elimination of glucagon action via treatment with a GCGR-Ab. We found 174 that delta cell proliferation, quantified as the percentage of Ki67-positive delta cells, was 175 increased by 4.7- and 6.2-fold in Gcg^{-/-} and GCGR-Ab treated mice, respectively, compared with 176 controls (Fig 1A-C). This resulted in a ~ 3-fold increase in delta cell mass compared to controls (Fig 1D-F). Consistent with earlier reports^{24,25}, we also observed a distinctive shift in the 177 178 distribution of somatostatin-positive cells from the mantle to the core of the islet in both Gcq^{-1} 179 and GCGR-Ab treated mice (Fig 1A and 1D). To evaluate the translational relevance of these 180 findings, we measured delta cell proliferation in human islets transplanted into 181 immunocompromised recipient mice (i.e., NSG) treated with IgG (control) or GCGR-Ab and 182 found a 3.5-fold increase in the percentage of Ki67-positive delta cells after 4 weeks of 183 treatment (Fig 1G-I). Our findings suggest that interruption of glucagon signaling promotes islet 184 delta cell mass expansion by stimulating delta cell proliferation in mouse and transplanted 185 human islets.

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3.2. SLC7A2 and mTORC1 activation are required for delta cell proliferation in response
to interrupted glucagon signaling. To gain insight into the mechanism(s) that may be driving
delta cell proliferation in *Gcg^{-/-}* and GCGR-Ab treated mice, we first measured delta cell
proliferation in mice with constitutive global inactivation of the cationic amino acid transporter,
SLC7A2. We and others¹⁸⁻²⁰ have shown that GCGR-Ab-induced hyperaminoacidemia,
especially arginine and glutamine, triggers pancreatic islet alpha cell proliferation in an mTORdependent manner, and that this response requires SLC7A2.²² Here, we found that SLC7A2 is

194 also required, at least in part, for delta cell proliferation in response to GCGR-Ab treatment 195 since the percentage of Ki67-positive delta cells was abrogated, albeit incompletely, in Slc7a2 196 knockout (-/-) mice compared with wild-type (+/+) controls (Fig 2A-B). To delineate the 197 intracellular signaling pathway involved, we immunostained for phosphorylated (p) S6 protein, a 198 downstream target of mTOR kinase, and observed an 18-fold increase in the percentage of pS6-positive delta cells in islets of Gcg^{-/-} compared with Gcg^{+/+} mice, indicative of mTOR 199 200 activation (Fig 2C-D). To determine whether mTOR signaling was required for delta cell 201 proliferation, we co-treated mice with GCGR-Ab and rapamycin (RAPA), an mTOR inhibitor, and 202 found that RAPA abolished GCGR-Ab-induced delta cell proliferation in C57BL6 mice (Fig 2E-F). These data indicate that loss of glucagon action stimulates RAPA-sensitive delta cell 203 204 proliferation through a mechanism requiring, at least in part, the amino acid transporter 205 SLC7A2.

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207 3.3. Loss of glucagon receptor function stimulates beta cell proliferation in a species-208 **specific manner.** Since the response of islet delta cells to interrupted glucagon signaling 209 resembled that of alpha cells shown previously^{17-20,22,24,25,36,38} we wanted to determine if this mechanism was likewise conserved in beta cells under insulin-sufficient conditions. First, we 210 211 examined a zebrafish model with constitutive global deficiency of both forms of the $qcqr^{36}$ (gcgra/b^{-/-}, abbreviated gcgr^{-/-}) and found that beta cell proliferation and number were both 212 213 increased in $gcgr^{-/-}$ zebrafish compared to WT ($gcgr^{+/+}$) controls (**Fig 3A-B**). Furthermore, this response was significantly blunted in *slc7a2^{-/-};gcgr^{/-}* double mutants, or in *gcqr^{/-}* zebrafish 214 215 treated with RAPA (Fig 3C-D). These data indicate that the mechanism for GCGR deficiency-216 induced delta and alpha cell mass expansion is conserved in zebrafish beta cells. 217 To examine the response of beta cells in a mammalian context, we treated adult 218 C57BL6 mice with IgG or GCGR-Ab for 8 weeks and observed a 4.1-fold increase in the

219 percentage of Ki67 positive beta cells (Fig 3E-F). This measure of beta cell proliferation was

also increased in mice with constitutive global inactivation of glucagon signaling (Fig S1A-B), as
shown previously.²⁵ Furthermore, we detected an increase in beta cell proliferation in *Gcgr*^{+/+}
islets only when transplanted into liver-specific *Gcgr*^{-/-} (*Gcgr*^{Hep-/-}) and not *Gcgr*^{Flox} mice (Fig
S1C-E), supporting the premise that inhibition of hepatic glucagon action produces circulating
factors that augment islet cell proliferation.^{15,18-20}

225 To determine whether the amino acid transporter SLC7A2 was required for beta cell proliferation, we treated Slc7a2^{+/+} and Slc7a2^{-/-} mice with IgG or GCGR-Ab for 2 weeks and 226 227 found that the GCGR-Ab-induced increase in Ki67-positive beta cells (~2.8-fold) was abolished in Slc7a2^{-/-} islets (Fig 3G), and in Slc7a2^{-/-}, but not Slc7a2^{+/+}, islets transplanted into Slc7a2^{+/+} 228 229 recipients (Fig S2A-C). These data suggest that SLC7A2 is required in an islet autonomous 230 manner for GCGR-Ab-induced beta cell proliferation. In contrast to the response of mouse delta 231 and zebrafish beta cells, however, we did not detect a coordinate increase in beta cell mass in 232 GCGR-Ab-treated mice (Fig S2D). The discordance between beta cell proliferation and mass 233 did not appear to be due to a detectable increase in beta cell death since we did not detect any 234 TUNEL positive beta cells in islets of GCGR-Ab treated mice (data not shown). These findings 235 imply that inducible elimination of glucagon action is sufficient to stimulate beta cell cycle entry, 236 but insufficient to promote cell cycle completion in healthy mice.

Lastly, we sought to evaluate the translational relevance of these observations by measuring beta cell proliferation in transplanted human islets and likewise observed an increase in the mean percentage of Ki67-positive beta cells following 4 weeks of GCGR-Ab treatment (**Fig 3H-J**), though the magnitude of the response varied widely among donors and was lower than that of human delta cells.

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245 4. DISCUSSION

246 The mechanism linking inhibition of glucagon signaling to changes in pancreatic islet 247 delta and beta cells, and the relevance of these observations in a human islet context, are 248 unknown. In this study, we used zebrafish, rodents, and transplanted human islets comprising 249 six different models of altered glucagon signaling to show that inhibition of glucagon action 250 stimulated delta and beta cell proliferation via SLC7A2- and mTORC1-dependent mechanisms. 251 Constitutive global deletion of Gcg, or inducible elimination of glucagon signaling with a GCGR-252 Ab, promoted RAPA-sensitive delta cell proliferation and mass expansion through a mechanism 253 requiring the cationic amino acid transporter, SLC7A2. Likewise, we identified an increase in 254 beta cell proliferation and mass in *gcgr*-deficient zebrafish that was abrogated upon deletion of 255 SLC7A2 or treatment with RAPA. While constitutive and inducible inhibition of glucagon 256 signaling also augmented the percentage of Ki67-positive beta cells in rodent islets, this 257 resulted in only a modest, non-significant increase in beta cell mass. Consistent with previous 258 reports in human alpha cells^{19,20}, we also showed that GCGR-Ab treatment stimulated human 259 delta, and to a lesser extent beta, cell proliferation in transplanted islets, highlighting the 260 translational relevance of our observations.

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We and others¹⁸⁻²⁰ showed previously that GCGR antagonism elicits 262 263 hyperaminoacidemia, which promotes mTOR-dependent alpha cell hyperplasia through a 264 mechanism involving induction of SLC38A5, a glutamine transporter, in alpha cells.^{19,20} More 265 recently, we found that SLC7A2, an arginine transporter, is the most highly expressed amino 266 acid transporter in zebrafish, rodent, and human alpha cells and required for activation of 267 mTORC1 signaling, induction of SLC38A5, and stimulation of alpha cell proliferation in response 268 to GCGR antagonism.²² Here, we extended these observations by demonstrating that SLC7A2 269 and mTORC1 activation are likewise required for islet non-alpha cell proliferation in response to 270 interrupted glucagon signaling. This was surprising since the expression of Slc7a2 is much

lower in delta and beta cells compared to alpha cells.²² Because we used mice with constitutive 271 272 global deletion of SLC7A2, we cannot delineate the direct versus indirect requirement for this 273 transporter on delta and/or beta cell proliferation. Notwithstanding, we showed that GCGR-Ab 274 treatment augmented the percentage of Ki67-positive beta cells in transplanted donor islets from $Slc7a2^{+/+}$, but not $Slc7a2^{-/-}$, mice supporting at least an islet-autonomous role for this 275 276 transporter in amino acid-regulated cell proliferation. However, the possibility cannot be 277 excluded that GCGR antagonism-dependent proliferative signal(s) emanating from SLC7A2-278 enriched alpha cells act in a paracrine manner on neighboring delta and/or beta cells to promote 279 their proliferation. Future studies using conditional SIc7a2 gene targeting approaches in islet delta, beta, and/or alpha cells will be necessary to delineate its requirement in specific 280 281 endocrine cell subsets.

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283 We were also surprised to find that mTORC1 signaling was required for islet non-alpha 284 cell proliferation, since previous studies reported GCGR-Ab-mediated activation of S6 protein, a downstream target of mTORC1, in only rare beta²⁰ or delta¹⁹ cells, and the results are 285 286 conflicting. Here, we observed an 18-fold increase in the percentage of pS6-positive delta cells 287 in Gcg^{-7} islets, indicative of heightened mTORC1 activity. It is possible that the pattern of S6 288 activation in islet cells differs between models of constitutive versus inducible elimination of 289 glucagon action. Nevertheless, we showed that pharmacologic inhibition of mTORC1 signaling 290 with RAPA abolished delta cell proliferation in GCGR-Ab-treated mice, and beta cell proliferation 291 in gcgr deficient zebrafish, supporting a central role for mTORC1-dependent nutrient sensing in 292 islet non-alpha cell proliferation in non-diabetic models.

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Our results agree with previous studies in $Gcgr^{/-}$ mice, which showed up to 3.5-fold increases in islet delta cell number, mass, and pancreatic somatostatin content.^{24,25} These studies also identified a shift in the labeling pattern of somatostatin-positive cells from being

restricted to the mantle zone in Gcqr^{+/+} islets to being scattered within the core as well in Gcqr^{-/-} 297 298 islets, much like alpha cells.^{24,25} We confirmed and extended these observations in Gcg^{-/-}mice 299 by showing that the increase in delta cell mass was due, at least in part, to delta cell 300 proliferation as evidenced by a 4.7-fold increase in the percentage of Ki67-positive delta cells. More recently, Gu et al.²⁶ showed that treatment of C57BL6 mice with a GCGR-Ab at a weekly 301 302 dose of 5 mg/kg for 4 weeks increased islet delta cell number by ~35% in association with 303 marginally significant (P=0.05) delta cell proliferation. Conversely, we showed that treatment of 304 C57BL6 mice with a GCGR-Ab at a weekly dose of 10 mg/kg for 8 weeks triggered a 6.2-fold 305 increase in delta cell proliferation and a 2.5-fold increase in delta cell mass. These 306 discrepancies are likely explained by differences in the dose and/or duration of GCGR-Ab exposure, since Kim et al.²⁰ also found no change in pancreatic delta cell mass in C57BL6 mice 307 308 after 3 weeks of GCGR-Ab treatment at a weekly dose of only 3 mg/kg.

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310 The impact of interrupted glucagon signaling on beta cell proliferation and mass expansion under insulin-sufficient conditions is inconclusive. Several studies^{18-20,27,30}, primarily in 311 312 rodent models of inducible elimination of glucagon action, have failed to detect an increase in 313 beta cell proliferation or mass. On the other hand, constitutive global or liver-specific ablation of the Gcgr gene was associated with increased postnatal beta cell proliferation²⁵ and up to a 1.7-314 fold increase in beta cell mass.^{17,25} Furthermore, Xi et al.¹¹ found a ~20% increase in the 315 316 percentage of insulin-positive cells in islets of healthy cynomolgus monkeys treated with GCGR-317 Ab at a weekly dose of 60 mg/kg for 13 weeks, but it is unknown if this was due to an increase 318 in beta cell proliferation. Here, we showed a significant increase in beta cell mass in gcgr-319 deficient zebrafish, but not in GCGR-Ab treated mice, despite cell cycle engagement as 320 evidenced by 2- to 4-fold increases in the percentage of Ki67 positive beta cells. An uncoupling of beta cell cycle entry from cell cycle completion was also observed by Furth-Lavi and 321 colleagues³⁹ in a diabetic rodent model of extreme beta cell-ablation, where some beta cells 322

323 were capable of entering the cell cycle but failed to complete it under conditions of severe, but 324 not moderate, hyperglycemia. In pre-clinical models of T1D and T2D, however, GCGR 325 antagonism improves glycemia and readily promotes the regeneration of functional beta cell 326 mass through, for example, beta cell proliferation and alpha-to-beta-cell transdifferentiation.¹¹⁻¹⁶ 327 These studies suggest that the blood glucose level and/or magnitude of insulin deficiency may 328 be determinants of beta cell regenerative capacity, and by extension, beta cell mass expansion, 329 in diabetic rodent models. We posit that under healthy, insulin-sufficient conditions, rodent beta 330 cells, but not alpha or delta cells, require additional proliferative signals - or disinhibition of 331 repressive signals - for GCGR antagonism to promote cell cycle completion and an increase in 332 beta cell mass. Tight control over insulin production is necessary to protect against 333 hypoglycemia and may reflect physiologic autoregulation of beta cell mass in healthy animals. 334 Species-specific differences in the response of beta cells to GCGR loss likely reflect the 335 heightened plasticity, regenerative capacity and developmental stages of zebrafish versus 336 mammalian islet cells.⁴⁰⁻⁴³ Future studies aimed at identifying the extra- and/or intra-cellular 337 effectors that couple beta cell cycle engagement with cell cycle completion in health and 338 diabetes will shed new light on unique mechanisms of mammalian beta cell regulation.

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340 These studies demonstrate a physiologic role for glucagon in the regulation of islet delta 341 and beta cell mass and expose notable differences in their proliferative capacity in healthy mice. 342 Future studies should address how amino acid-dependent nutrient sensing stimulates islet non-343 alpha cell proliferation, and whether GCGR-Ab induces delta cell mass expansion in diabetic 344 models. By enhancing our understanding of the mechanism(s) linking inhibition of glucagon 345 action to expansion of islet cell mass, we may improve our ability to mitigate the negative side 346 effects of GCGR antagonism while leveraging its favorable effects, including the possibility for 347 beta cell regeneration therapies relying upon delta (and/or alpha) cell reprogramming in T1D and T2D.26,28,29 348

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351 DECLARATION OF COMPETING INTERESTS

352 The authors declare no conflicts of interests.

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355 CRedit AUTHORSHIP CONTRIBUTION STATEMENT

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526 FIGURE LEGENDS

527	Figure 1. Loss of glucagon action augments delta cell proliferation and mass expansion
528	in mouse and transplanted human islets. (A) Representative images of pancreatic islet and
529	delta cell proliferation in Gcg ^{+/+} /Gcg ^{-/-} (upper row) and IgG/GCGR-Ab-treated C57BL6 (bottom
530	row) mice. Somatostatin (green), Ki67 (red), and DAPI (blue) are shown. White arrows indicate
531	Ki67+ somatostatin+ cells. (B-C) Quantification of pancreatic islet delta cell proliferation in (B)
532	$Gcg^{+/+}$ (black bar) and $Gcg^{-/-}$ (red bar) mice (n=1-2 females and 2-3 males per genotype) and (C)
533	control IgG (black bar) and GCGR-Ab-treated (blue bar) mice (all males, unpaired t test, $***p < 0$
534	0.001 versus $Gcg^{+/+}$, **p < 0.01 versus IgG). (D) Representative images of pancreatic islet
535	hormones in Gcg ^{+/+} /Gcg ^{-/-} (upper row) and IgG/GCGR-Ab-treated (bottom row) mice. Insulin
536	(green), somatostatin (red), and pro-glucagon ($Gcg^{+/+}/Gcg^{-/-}$; blue) or glucagon (IgG/GCGR-Ab;
537	blue) are shown. (E-F) Pancreatic islet delta cell mass in (E) $Gcg^{+/+}$ (black bar) and $Gcg^{-/-}$ (red
538	bar) mice (n=1-2 females and 3 males per genotype) and (F) control IgG (black bar) and GCGR-
539	Ab-treated (blue bar) mice (all males, unpaired t test, $*p < 0.01$ versus $Gcg^{+/+}$ or IgG). (G)
540	Schematic of approach for human islet subcapsular renal transplantation in NSG recipient mice
541	followed by control IgG or GCGR-Ab treatment. Created with BioRender.com (H)
542	Representative images of delta cell proliferation in human islet grafts after 4 weeks of control
543	IgG (upper row) or GCGR-Ab-treatment (bottom row). Grafts were immunostained for
544	somatostatin (green), Ki67 (red), and DAPI (blue). White dashed boxes indicate regions
545	selected for insets. (I) Quantification of delta cell proliferation in transplanted human islets in
546	control IgG (black circles) and GCGR-Ab-treated (orange circles) mice (n=3 donors [see
547	Supplemental Table 1], unpaired t test, **p < 0.01 versus IgG).
548	
549	Figure 2. SLC7A2 and mTOR activation are required for delta cell proliferation in response

550 to interrupted glucagon signaling. (A) Representative images of pancreatic islet delta cell

proliferation in $Slc7a2^{+/+}$ (upper row) and $Slc7a2^{-/-}$ (bottom row) IgG/GCGR-Ab-treated mice.

552 Somatostatin (green), Ki67 (red), and DAPI (blue) are shown. White arrows indicate Ki67+ 553 somatostatin+ cells. (B) Quantification of pancreatic islet delta cell proliferation in Slc7a2^{+/+} (black bars) and Slc7a2^{-/-} (blue bars) IgG or GCGR-Ab-treated mice (n=4 females and 1-3 554 555 males per genotype, one-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparisons test, ****p < 0.0001 versus Slc7a2^{+/+} IgG, ***p < 0.001 versus Slc7a2^{+/+} GCGR-Ab). (**C**) Representative images of 556 pancreatic islets in Gcg^{+/+}/Gcg^{-/-} mice immunostained for somatostatin (green), phosphorylated 557 558 ribosomal protein S6 (pS6^{240/244}; red), and DAPI (blue). White arrows indicate pS6+ 559 somatostatin+ cells. White dashed boxes indicate regions selected for insets. (D) Quantification of the percentage of pS6+ somatostatin+ cells in $Gcq^{+/+}$ (black bar) and $Gcq^{-/-}$ (red bar) 560 pancreatic islets (n=1-2 females and 3-4 males per genotype, unpaired t test, ****p < 0.0001 561 562 versus $Gcq^{+/+}$). (E) Schematic of approach for IgG/GCGR-Ab (once weekly) and rapamycin 563 (RAPA; once daily) co-treatment in C57BL6 mice. Created with BioRender.com (F) 564 Quantification of pancreatic islet delta cell proliferation in mice co-treated with IgG (black bars) 565 or GCGR-Ab (blue and white bar) and PBS or RAPA (all males, one-way ANOVA with Tukey's 566 multiple comparisons test, ****p < 0.0001 versus IgG, ***p < 0.001 versus PBS/GCGR-Ab). 567 Figure 3. Loss of glucagon receptor function stimulates beta cell proliferation in a 568 569 species-specific manner. (A) Beta cells stained for EdU to assess their proliferation in 5 dpf (days post-fertilization) wild-type (gcgr^{+/+}, black bar) and gcgra/b^{-/-} (abbreviated gcgr^{-/-}, green 570 571 bar) zebrafish (n=8 per group, unpaired t test, **p < 0.01 versus $gcgr^{+/+}$). (**B**) Beta cell number in 572 5 dpf $qcqr^{+/+}$ (black bar) and $qcqr^{-/-}$ (green bar) zebrafish (n=24-30 per group, unpaired t test, 573 ****p < 0.0001 versus $qcqr^{+/+}$). (C) Beta cell number after knockdown of slc7a2 (+/+, black bar; -/-, green bar) in 5 dpf $gcgr^{-/2}$ zebrafish (n=8-15 per group, unpaired t test, ****p < 0.0001 versus 574 *slc7a2*^{+/+}). (**D**) Beta cell number in 6 dpf $gcgr^{+/+}$ (black bar) and $gcgr^{-/-}$ (green bar) zebrafish after 575 576 3 days of treatment with PBS or RAPA (n=6-7 per group, one-way ANOVA with Fisher's LSD,

577 *****p < 0.0001 versus PBS/gcgr^{+/+}, * p < 0.05 versus PBS/gcgr^{-/-}). (**E**) Representative images of

578 pancreatic islet beta cell proliferation in IgG/GCGR-Ab-treated C57BL6 mice. Insulin (green), 579 Ki67 (red), and DAPI (blue) are shown. White arrow indicates a Ki67+ insulin+ cell. (F) 580 Quantification of pancreatic islet beta cell proliferation in control IgG (black bar) and GCGR-Ab-581 treated (blue bar) mice (all males, unpaired t test, **p < 0.01 versus IgG). (G) Quantification of pancreatic islet beta cell proliferation in $S/c7a2^{+/+}$ (black bars) and $S/c7a2^{-/-}$ (blue bars) IgG or 582 583 GCGR-Ab-treated mice (n=2-5 females and 3-6 males per group, one way ANOVA with Tukey's 584 multiple comparisons test, **p < 0.0001 versus $S/c7a2^{+/+} \lg G$, ***p < 0.001 versus $S/c7a2^{+/+}$ 585 GCGR-Ab). (H) Schematic of approach for human islet subcapsular renal transplantation in 586 NSG recipient mice followed by PBS or GCGR-Ab treatment. Created with BioRender.com (I) 587 Representative images of beta cell proliferation in human islet grafts after 4 weeks of PBS or 588 GCGR-Ab-treatment. Grafts were immunostained for insulin (green), Ki67 (red), and DAPI 589 (blue). Dashed yellow lines indicate kidney-graft boundary. (J) Quantification of beta cell 590 proliferation in transplanted human islets in PBS (black circles) or GCGR-Ab-treated (orange 591 circles) mice (n=2 female and 5 male donors [see Supplemental Table 1], unpaired t test, *p < 592 0.05 versus PBS).

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Supplemental Figure 1. Genetic interruption of glucagon signaling stimulates beta cell 594 595 proliferation in pancreatic and transplanted mouse islets. (A-B) Quantification of pancreatic islet beta cell proliferation in (A) 6 week-old Gcgr^{+/+} (black bar, all males) and Gcgr^{-/-} (red striped 596 597 bar, all males) and (**B**) 8 week-old $Gcg^{+/+}$ (black bar) and $Gcg^{-/-}$ (red bar) mice (n=2-4 females 598 and 3 males per group, unpaired t test, ***p < 0.001 versus $Gcg^{+/+}$, *p < 0.05 versus $Gcg^{+/+}$). (C) 599 Schematic of approach for subcapsular renal transplantation of $Gcqr^{+/+}$ (wild type, WT) donor islets into control (*Gcqr^{Flox}*) or liver-specific *Gcqr* knockout (*Gcqr^{Hep-/-}*) recipient mice. Created 600 601 with BioRender.com (D) Representative images of islet grafts from WT to Flox and WT to Hep-/-602 recipients after four weeks. Grafts are immunostained for insulin (green), Ki67 (red) and DAPI 603 (blue). White arrows indicate Ki67+ insulin+ cells. Dashed yellow lines indicate kidney-graft

604 boundary. (E) Quantification of beta cell proliferation in transplanted islets from WT to Flox 605 (black bar) and WT to Hep-/- (red striped bar) groups (n=4 males per group, unpaired t test, **p < 606 0.05 versus WT to Flox).

607

608	Supplemental Figure 2. SLC7A2-dependent stimulated beta cell proliferation is islet
609	autonomous. (A) Schematic of approach for subcapsular renal transplantation of $Slc7a2^{+/+}$
610	(wild type, WT) and Slc7a2 ^{-/-} (KO) donor islets into Slc7a2 ^{+/+} (WT) recipient mice followed by
611	control IgG or GCGR-Ab treatment. Created with BioRender.com (B) Representative images of
612	SIc7a2 ^{+/+} (upper row) and SIc7a2 ^{-/-} (bottom row) islet grafts from SIc7a2 ^{+/+} kidney capsules after
613	two weeks of IgG or GCGR-Ab treatment. Grafts are immunostained for insulin (green), Ki67
614	(red) and DAPI (blue). White arrows indicate Ki67+ insulin+ cells. Dashed yellow lines indicate
615	kidney-graft boundary. (C) Quantification of beta cell proliferation in transplanted islets from
616	SIc7a2 ^{+/+} and SIc7a2 ^{-/-} donors treated with IgG (black circles) or GCGR-Ab (blue circles; n=2
617	females and 2 males per treatment group, two-way ANOVA with Fisher's LSD test, $**p < 0.01$
618	versus IgG treated). (D) Quantification of pancreatic islet beta cell mass in Slc7a2 ^{+/+} (black bars)
619	and Slc7a2 ^{-/-} (blue bars) IgG or GCGR-Ab-treated mice (n=2-5 females and 3-6 males per
620	group).
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632 Supplemental Table 1: *Human Islet Donor Information.*

Donor ID	Age	Ethnicity/Race	Sex	BMI (kg/m²)	HbA1c (%)	Cause of Death	Islet Source
						Head	
						Trauma/Blunt	
AELC213	10	Hispanic/Latino	F	25.4	N/A	Injury	Other
AFEA331	45	Black	М	29.3	5.0	CVA/ stroke	IIDP
AIFV371	28	Hispanic/Latino	F	24.7	5.0	CVA/ stroke	HPAP
1	32	N/A	М	29.5	N/A	N/A	IIDP
2	47	N/A	М	22.3	N/A	N/A	IIDP
3	55	N/A	М	28.4	N/A	N/A	IIDP
4	43	N/A	М	29.6	N/A	N/A	IIDP
5	46	N/A	М	28.8	N/A	N/A	IIDP
6	41	N/A	F	31.1	N/A	N/A	IIDP
7	47	N/A	F	25.6	N/A	N/A	IIDP
8	52	N/A	М	33.2	N/A	N/A	IIDP

Figure 1



Figure 2





Figure 3





Supplemental Figure 1



Supp Fig 2: SIc7a2 is required for Gcgr-Ab-induced beta cell proliferation in transplanted mouse islets





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