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1	Agonism of free fatty acid receptors 1 and 4 generate peptide YY-mediated inhibitory responses in
2	mouse colon
2	
3	
4	Short title: FFA1 and FFA4 activities in mouse colon
5	
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16	
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18	
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20	RM, IRT and HMC have nothing to disclose. DMS and MS are currently employed by and hold
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22	
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26	

- 27 Background and purpose:
- 28 Free fatty acid receptor 1 (FFA1) and FFA4 are located on enteroendocrine L cells with the
- 29 highest gastrointestinal (GI) expression in descending colon. Their activation causes the release of
- 30 glucagon-like peptide 1 and peptide YY (PYY) from L cells. Additionally, FFA1 agonism
- 31 releases insulin from pancreatic β-cells. As these receptors are modulators of nutrient-stimulated
- 32 glucose regulation, this study's aim was to compare the pharmacology of commercially available
- 33 agonists (TUG424, TUG891, GW9508) with proven selective agonists (JTT, TAK-875, AZ423,
- 34 Metabolex-36), in the mouse.
- 35 Experimental approach:
- 36 Mouse (>10 weeks old; C57BL/6J) mucosa was mounted in Ussing chambers, voltage-clamped
- 37 and the resultant short-circuit current (I<sub>sc</sub>) recorded continuously. The pretreatments included
- 38 FFA1 antagonists or  $Y_1 \pm Y_2$  antagonists. Glucose-sensitivity was investigated by mannitol
- 39 replacement apically and colonic and upper GI transit was assessed in vitro and in vivo.
- 40 Key Results:
- 41 FFA1 and FFA4 agonism required glucose and reduced I<sub>sc</sub> in a PYY-Y<sub>1</sub>-dependent manner. The
- 42 novel compounds were more potent than GW9508. The FFA1 antagonists (GW1100 and
- 43 ANT825) blocked FFA1 activity only and revealed FFA1 tonic activity. The FFA4 agonist,
- 44 Metabolex-36 slowed colonic transit *in vitro* but increased intestinal transit *in vivo*.
- 45 Conclusion and Implications:
- 46 The selective FFA1 and FFA4 agonists were more potent than GW9508, a dual FFA1 and FFA4
- 47 agonist. We found that a PYY-Y<sub>1</sub> paracrine epithelial mechanism mediated their responses which
- 48 were glucose-sensitive, potentially limiting hypoglycaemia. ANT825 revealed tonic activity and
- 49 the possibility of endogenous FFA1 ligands causing PYY release. Finally, FFA4 agonism induced
- 50 regional differences in transit.
- 51 **Keywords:** Free fatty acid receptors 1 and 4, peptide YY, glucagon-like peptide 1, mucosal ion
- 52 transport, colonic transit

#### 55 Abbreviations

- 56 ANOVA, analysis of variance;
- 57 ap, Apical;
- 58 AZ, AstraZeneca;
- 59 BIBO, BIBO3304;
- 60 BIIE, BIIE0246;
- 61 bl, Basolateral;
- 62 CCK, Cholecystokinin;
- 63 CNS, Central Nervous System;
- 64 DMSO, dimethyl sulphoxide;
- 65 FFA, free fatty acid;
- 66 FFA1, free fatty acid receptor 1;
- 67 FFA4, free fatty acid receptor 4;
- 68 GI, gastrointestinal;
- 69 GIP, Gastric inhibitory peptide;
- 70 GLP-1, glucagon-like peptide 1;
- 71 GLP-2, glucagon-like peptide 2;
- 72 GPCR, G protein-coupled receptor;
- 73 GSIS, Glucose stimulated insulin secretion;
- 74 HPMC, Hydroxylpropyl methylcellulose;
- 75 i.p., Intraperitoneal;
- 76 I<sub>sc</sub>, Short-circuit-current;
- 77 KH, Krebs Henseleit;
- 78 KO, Knockout;
- 79 MC4 receptor, Melanocortin-4 receptor;
- 80 Met-36, Metabolex-36;
- 81 MMC, Myoelectric migrating complex;
- 82 OXM, oxyntomodulin;
- 83 Phlor, Phloridzin;
- 84 PLC, Phospholipase C;
- 85 PVP, polyvinylpyrrolidinone;
- 86 PYY, peptide YY;
- 87 PYY (3-36), peptide YY(3-36);

- 88 SDS, sodium dodecyl sulfate;
- 89 SGLT1, Sodium-glucose co-transporter 1;
- 90 SST, Somatostatin;
- 91 T2DM, type 2 diabetes mellitus;
- 92 UGIT, Upper gastrointestinal transit;
- 93 VIP; vasoactive intestinal polypeptide;
- 94 WT, wild type

96

#### Introduction

- 97 Free fatty acid receptors 1 (FFA1, previously known as GPR40) and 4 (FFA4, previously known
- 98 as GPR120) are modulators of nutrient-stimulated glucose regulation and therefore are therapeutic
- 99 targets for the treatment of type 2 diabetes mellitus (T2DM). FFA1 selective agonists have been
- shown to cause glucose-sensitive insulin secretion (Tsujihata et al. 2011). FFA1 and FFA4 were
- 101 deorphanised in 2003 and 2005 respectively, as receptors for medium to long chain unsaturated
- 102 fatty acids (Hirasawa et al. 2005, Itoh et al. 2003). As endogenous free-fatty acids (FFAs) often
- activate more than one receptor type (Kostenis 2004) and are metabolised to act as intracellular
- signalling molecules (Warnotte et al. 1994), they have limited utility as selective tools to establish
- the pharmacology and functional significance of specific FFA receptors. The recent discovery of
- 106 selective, small molecule agonists for FFA1 and FFA4 therefore provided a pharmacological
- 107 advantage over non-selective endogenous FFAs and this study set out to utilise some of these new
- tool compounds to investigate FFA1 and FFA4 signalling specifically.
- 109 Apart from FFA1 and FFA4 there are alternative FFA receptors in the gastrointestinal (GI) tract
- including, FFA2 (formerly GPR43), FFA3 (GPR41) and the acylethanolamide receptor, GPR119,
- all of which are selectively expressed in L cells together with FFA1 and FFA4 (Overton et al.
- 112 2006, Hirasawa et al. 2005, Edfalk et al. 2008, Karaki et al. 2006). Both FFA1 (Briscoe et al.
- 113 2003) and FFA4 (Hirasawa et al. 2008) have the capacity to couple to  $G\alpha_{q/11}$ , activate
- phospholipase C (PLC) and elevate Ca<sup>2+</sup> levels, leading to the release of L cell peptide hormones.
- 115 Colonic L cells contain peptide YY (PYY), the incretin glucagon-like peptide 1 (GLP-1) plus
- 116 GLP-2 and oxyntomodulin (OXM) (Habib et al. 2013, Egerod et al. 2012, Cho et al. 2014).
- 117 Additionally, small intestine L cells express neurotensin and cholecystokinin (CCK) (Egerod et al.
- 118 2012, Habib et al. 2013). In this study, we utilised the descending colon because this colonic
- 119 region exhibits a greater degree of PYY-Y<sub>1</sub> signalling compared with the ascending colon (Cox et

al. 2001) and L cell density is greater in the distal colon in mouse (Arantes and Nogueira 1997) 120 and human (Adrian et al. 1985). GLP-1 slows gastric emptying and enhances satiety (Little et al. 121 2006) while PYY is a well-known mediator of the ileal and colonic brake (Lin et al. 1996) and a 122 major satiety-inducing agent together with its product, PYY<sub>(3-36)</sub> (Batterham et al. 2002). PYY is 123 also a significant inhibitor of intestinal epithelial ion transport and we have previously utilised this 124 activity to monitor the acute endogenous peptide functionality following L cell-specific 125 stimulation with GPR119 agonists (Cox et al. 2010, Patel et al. 2014) or other L cell mediated 126 mechanisms (Joshi et al. 2013, Panaro et al. 2014). In mouse and human distal colon, local 127 128 mucosal PYY antisecretory actions are predominantly mediated via epithelial Y<sub>1</sub> receptors with a smaller component of submucosal neuron  $\underline{Y}_2$  activity (Tough et al. 2006, Tough et al. 2011), that 129 together underpin endogenous PYY paracrine responses. FFA1 and FFA4 are also potential 130 nutrient-sensing receptors in L cells and therefore are possible targets for the treatment of T2DM 131 and obesity (Engelstoft et al. 2008). 132

The FFA1 agonist TAK-875 (Negoro et al. 2010), which in phase II trials lowered blood glucose 133 134 without apparently increasing GLP-1 levels, was shown to signal via  $G\alpha_{0/11}$  alone, in a manner similar to the proposed endogenous agonist, α-linolenic acid. In type II diabetic rats, TAK-875 135 improved glucose tolerance and enhanced glucose-dependent insulin secretion (Tsujihata et al. 136 2011). Despite the liver toxicity concerns of TAK-875, it significantly improved glycaemic 137 control in diabetic Japanese patients in a phase III study (Kaku et al. 2015). 138 selective FFA1-targeted agonist (from patent number, WO 2009/054479), TAK-875 and the 139 commercially available FFA1 agonist, TUG424 (Christiansen et al. 2008) were selected to assess 140 the pharmacology of FFA1 in this study. 141

142

FFA4 is also found abundantly in gastric-inhibitory peptide (GIP)-containing K cells of the small 143 intestine, gastric somatostatin (SST)-containing D cells and gastric ghrelin-containing A cells (Ito 144 et al. 2009, Parker et al. 2009, Engelstoft et al. 2013, Egerod et al. 2015). The functional roles of 145 FFA4 include enhanced insulin secretion, GLP-1 secretion (Halder et al. 2013), reduced gastric 146 147 emptying (Little et al. 2006) and anti-inflammatory effects (Oh et al. 2010). FFA4 knockout (KO) mice exhibited a significantly reduced L cell GLP-1 secretion (Xiong et al. 2013) and K cell GIP 148 secretion (Iwasaki et al. 2015) indicating that signalling via FFA4 in wild type (WT) tissues can 149 150 cause incretin peptide release. The novel selective agonists selected for this study, AZ423 (Compound 34, McCoull et al. 2017) and Metabolex-36 (Ma et al. 2010), show 100-fold 151 selectivity for murine FFA4 compared with FFA1 (Stone et al. 2014). Furthermore, AZ423 and 152

153 Metabolex-36 have exhibited a reduction in blood glucose excursion in an oral glucose tolerance 154 test (Halder et al. 2013, McCoull et al. 2017). Additionally, the selected commercially available 155 FFA4 agonist, <u>TUG891</u> is selective for murine and human FFA4 (Hudson et al. 2013). Whether 156 intestinal FFA4 agonism resembles FFA1 activities and is also glucose-sensitive in 157 enteroendocrine L cells has yet to be determined.

158

As few functional studies have been performed in native preparations containing L cells, one aim 159 of this study was to determine the potencies and efficacies of the commercially available agonists 160 161 (TUG424 and TUG891) compared with the non-selective FFA1 and FFA4 agonist GW9508, and importantly the novel selective agonists JTT, TAK-875, AZ423 and Metabolex-36 in mouse 162 colon. We also assessed the selectivity of the FFA1-preferring antagonist <u>GW1100</u> (Briscoe et al. 163 2006) comparing it with ANT825, a selective FFA1 antagonist (referred to as compound 39 in 164 Waring, 2015) and determined their relative abilities to reveal tonic FFA1 activity. We also 165 determined the involvement of endogenous PYY in these responses in colonic mucosae by 166 blocking peptide activity pharmacologically. Finally, the effects of FFA1 and FFA4 agonism 167 168 upon colonic motility in vitro and in vivo were established.

169

#### 170 Methods

171 Mucosal preparation and  $I_{sc}$  measurement

Mice (C57BL/6J, 12-20 weeks old, 20-30g, female and male) were procured from Charles River 172 Laboratories (Margate, UK) had free access to standard chow (Rat and Mouse No 3 breeding diet, 173 Special Diets Services, Braintree, UK) and water ad libitum. We used mice because the Y<sub>1</sub>, Y<sub>2</sub> and 174 Y<sub>4</sub> receptor localisation in the GI tract is the same in this species as in human colon (Cox and 175 Tough. 2001, Tough et al. 2011). Mice were housed in open top conventional cages with Lignocel 176 poplar bedding material along with the appropriate environmental enrichment. A maximum of 5 177 mice were housed in a single cage. Housing rooms were maintained at 20-24 °C, humidity 55% ± 178 10% and 12/12 h light and dark cycle. All animal care and experimental procedures complied with 179 the Animals (Scientific procedures) Act 1986 and were approved by UK Home Office (licence 180 number: PPL70/7887). Mice were killed by cervical dislocation and the whole colon was 181 dissected (noting proximal and distal ends) and placed in fresh Krebs-Henseleit (KH), with the 182 183 following composition (in mM); NaCl 118, KCl 4.7, NaHCO<sub>3</sub> 25, KH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub> 1.2, MgSO<sub>4</sub> 1.2, CaCl<sub>2</sub> 2.5, and D-glucose 11.1. Mucosae from the descending colon were prepared by removing the 184

overlying smooth muscle layers and associated myenteric plexi by micro-dissection. Mucosal lengths were cut in to 4-6 adjacent pieces, each of which was mounted between two halves of an Ussing chamber (WPI UK, Hitchin, Herts, UK) (exposed area, 0.14 cm<sup>2</sup>), voltage-clamped at 0 mV (DVC1000 and amplifiers; WPI UK, Hitchin, Herts, UK) and equilibrated in oxygenated KH (95% O<sub>2</sub>/5% CO<sub>2</sub>, at 37°C) for 15 min. Drug additions were made to either the basolateral (bl) or apical (ap) reservoirs and changes in short-circuit current (I<sub>sc</sub>) were measured continuously.

191

- 192 Sidedness, potency and efficacy of the FFA1 and FFA4 compounds
- Mucosae were pretreated with vasoactive intestinal polypeptide (VIP, 30 nM, bl) to provide a 193 degree of vectorial epithelial ion secretion upon which subsequent antisecretory signalling is more 194 readily observed (as optimised previously; Tough et al. 2006; Cox et al. 2010). Once VIP 195 responses had reached a maximum, a FFA1 or FFA4 agonist (TUG424 (300 nM), TUG891 (300 196 nM), GW9508 (10 µM)) was added to either reservoir as indicated, to determine the approximate 197 sidedness of the FFA1 and FFA4 responses. Single additions of apical FFA1 or FFA4 agonists 198 were used to construct concentration-response curves and calculate single EC50 values with 199 GraphPad Prism v6.0. Changes in I<sub>sc</sub> to certain FFA1 agonists (TAK-875, JTT and GW9508) and 200 FFA4 agonists (Metabolex-36, AZ423) were biphasic; the first component (1°) being a transient 201 202 increase in I<sub>sc</sub> (within 5 min) followed by a longer-lasting reduction in I<sub>sc</sub> (the second component, 2°) that was extrapolated from the waning VIP signal and reached its maximum within 10-15 min 203 of FFA drug addition. When the biphasic changes in I<sub>sc</sub> were observed, the 1° and 2° components 204 were analysed separately. To investigate whether there was a neuronal component to FFA1 205 (TAK-875, 200 nM) and FFA4 (Metabolex-36, 100 nM) signalling, mucosae were pretreated with 206 the neurotoxin, tetrodotoxin (TTX, 100 nM, bl) or vehicle (H<sub>2</sub>O) for 15 min, followed by VIP and 207 subsequently the FFA1 or FFA4 agonist. The responses to TAK-875 and Metabolex-36 were 208 209 monitored for 20 min and finally PYY (10 nM, bl) was added as an internal control. Changes in I<sub>sc</sub> to each drug or peptide were pooled and converted to μA.cm<sup>-2</sup>. 210

- 212 Establishing the selectivity of FFA1 and FFA4 agonism using antagonists
- In order to establish an  $IC_{50}$  of the FFA1 antagonist, ANT825, basal  $I_{sc}$  levels were allowed to stabilise before the addition of varying single concentrations (1 nM 10  $\mu$ M) of the FFA1 antagonist. After 10-15 min, VIP was added, followed by the selected FFA1 agonist, JTT (300

- 216 nM) and consequent reductions in I<sub>sc</sub> were recorded and converted to μA.cm<sup>-2</sup>. PYY (10 nM) was
- 217 added finally as an internal control. The antagonist concentration (10 µM, ANT825) that
- 218 abolished JTT responses was used in subsequent selectivity studies.
- 219 Blockade of the commercially available FFA1 agonists (TUG424, GW9508 and TAK-875) was
- 220 confirmed using the antagonists, GW1100 (10 μM) (Briscoe et al. 2006) and ANT825 (10 μM).
- 221 Here mucosae were pretreated apically for 10 min with the appropriate vehicle (0.1% DMSO) or
- 222 the chosen FFA1 antagonist prior to VIP addition. TUG424 (100 nM), GW9508 (1 μM) were the
- 223 FFA1 agonists tested initially, followed by TAK-875 (200 nM) and JTT (300 nM) while TUG891
- 224 (100 nM), Metabolex-36 (100 nM) and AZ423 (100 nM) were used to preferentially activate
- 225 FFA4 receptors unless otherwise quoted. Finally, PYY (10 nM) was added as an internal control.
- 226 ANT825 was chosen as the preferred FFA1 antagonist in further studies.

- 228 Y<sub>1</sub> and Y<sub>2</sub> receptor antagonist (BIBO3304 and BIIE0246) studies
- 229 Tissues were pretreated with previously optimised concentrations of the Y<sub>1</sub> antagonist, BIBO3304
- 230 (BIBO, 300 nM, bl) or the Y<sub>2</sub> antagonist, BIIE0246 (BIIE, 1 µM, bl) or both, versus their
- 231 respective DMSO (0.003-0.1 %) controls. After 10-15 min VIP was added and once this response
- 232 had stabilised, a single apical concentration of the FFA1 or FFA4 agonists was added and the
- 233 consequent reduction in  $I_{sc}$  was converted to  $\mu A.cm^{-2}$ . PYY and the  $\alpha_2$ -adrenoceptor agonist,
- 234 UK14,304 (1 μM) were used as internal controls.

- 236 Mucosal glucose-sensitivity studies
- 237 Excised whole colon was placed in fresh glucose-free KH with the following composition (in
- 238 mM); NaCl 118, KCl 4.7, NaHCO<sub>3</sub> 25, KH<sub>2</sub>PO<sub>4</sub> 1.2, MgSO<sub>4</sub> 1.2, CaCl<sub>2</sub> 2.5, and D-mannitol 11.1.
- 239 Mucosae were dissected as described above, placed in Ussing chambers and were bathed in KH
- 240 containing glucose on both sides or replacing glucose with mannitol (at 11.1 mM) on the ap side
- 241 only. When investigating FFA1 and FFA4 agonism in the presence of lower or higher glucose;
- 242 the glucose concentration was altered (either 5 mM or 25 mM in KH) on ap and bl sides
- 243 simultaneously. Mucosal basal I<sub>sc</sub> levels were allowed to stabilise before the addition of VIP and
- once stabilised, a single apical addition of the FFA1 or FFA4 agonists was added and consequent
- reductions in I<sub>sc</sub> were recorded and converted to  $\mu$ A.cm<sup>-2</sup>. Phloridzin (50  $\mu$ M, ap), the sodium-

246 glucose co-transporter 1 (SGLT1) inhibitor was used to block apically located SGLT1 and this 247 electrogenic response should be lost when mannitol replaced apical glucose.

248

- 249 Faecal pellet propulsion in vitro
- 250 The colon (from the caeco-colonic junction to the rectum) was excised, photographed (t = 0 min)
- and bathed in KH at 37°C with either vehicle (0.1% DMSO) or agonist (300 nM TUG424,
- TUG891, TAK-875 or Metabolex-36) as indicated. After 20 min (t = 20 min) each colon length
- 253 was re-photographed and the distance travelled by the remaining pellets was measured from the
- 254 rectum, as described previously (Tough et al. 2011). The effects on transit of the agonists were
- 255 compared in the absence and presence of the FFA1 antagonist, GW1100 (10 µM). In these
- experiments, the colon was bathed in vehicle (0.1% DMSO) or antagonist, photographed at 20
- 257 min, and then bathed in KH containing the agonist of choice for 20 min. The colon was re-
- 258 photographed at t = 40 min. The pellet movement was measured as mean distance travelled
- 259 relative to the total colonic length and was used to calculate the % colonic transit.

260

- 261 Colonic bead excretion in vivo
- 262 Mice were acclimatised to handling 3 days prior to experimentation and were fasted 16 h prior to
- 263 testing, although water was provided ad libitum. Plasma glucose before the fast was  $10.5 \pm 0.9$
- 264 mmol/l (mean  $\pm$  1 SEM, n=9) and 4.8  $\pm$  0.3 mmol/l after fasting (n=9). Distal colonic propulsion
- 265 was measured according to the methods described by Forbes et al (2012). One hour after
- administration of vehicle, or drug (FFA1 agonist, TAK-875; FFA4 agonist, Metabolex-36, FFA1
- 267 antagonist, ANT825) or the positive control (loperamide hydrochloride (HCl) by oral gavage or
- 268 intraperitoneal (i.p.) injection, mice were placed under 4-5% isoflurane anaesthesia (Isoflurane-
- VET, Merial Animal Health Ltd, Harlow, UK) and a 2 mm bead was inserted 2 cm intrarectally
- 270 into the distal colon using blunt tubing (Portex,  $1.7 \times 0.4$  mm). The mice were subsequently
- 271 placed into a grid bottom cage, monitored and the time to bead expulsion was measured. Once the
- 272 bead was excreted, the mouse was killed by cervical dislocation. All drugs were suspended in
- their respective vehicles and sonicated for 30 min.

274

275

Upper GI transit in vivo

Mice were acclimatized to handling 3 days prior to experimentation and were fasted for 16 h prior 276 to testing. TAK875, Metabolex-36, ANT825, their respective vehicles or loperamide HCl was 277 administrated via i.p. injection, 60 min prior to testing. In the experiments that used the SST<sub>2</sub> 278 antagonist, CYN 154806, mice were pretreated with the antagonist (3 mg/kg) or saline for 15 min, 279 prior to Metabolex-36 (50 mg/kg, i.p.). A charcoal meal (10% plant charcoal in 5% gum acacia 280 (Tough et al. 2011)) was given by intragastric gavage, and 30 min later the animal was killed by 281 cervical dislocation and the small intestine was isolated from the pyloric to ileocecal junctions. 282 Upper GI transit (UGIT), encompassing gastric emptying and small intestinal motility was 283 284 determined as previously described (Forbes et al. 2012).

285

286

### Statistical analysis

Pooled responses (as  $\mu$ A.cm<sup>-2</sup>) are expressed as mean  $\pm$  SEM from the numbers of observations as 287 shown, using GraphPad Prism version 6.0 (GraphPad Prism Inc., La Jolla, CA, USA). Single 288 comparisons between groups of data were analysed by unpaired, two-tailed Student's t-tests or 289 one-way ANOVA for multiple comparisons with post hoc Dunnett's test. Post hoc tests were run 290 291 only when F achieved P < 0.05 and there was no significant variance inhomogeneity. P < 0.05was considered statistically significant. Mice (males and females) were randomised in this study. 292 293 Additionally, drug treatments added to each mucosal preparation were randomised using the Latin square design technique. Furthermore, vehicle and drug treatments were alternated in the in vivo 294 295 studies for each cohort. Explicit blinding was not performed however; each repeat was compared with one another and the drug-pretreated repeats. Any discrepancies between n number cohorts 296 were due to the loss of a single mucosal preparation from a single animal in vitro, or a value was 297 removed when it was more than two standard deviations from the mean in vitro and in vivo. The 298 299 data and statistical analyses comply with the recommendations on experimental design and 300 analysis in pharmacology (Curtis et al. 2015).

301

#### 302 Materials

- $\,$  303  $\,$  FFA1 (JTT and TAK-875) and FFA4 agonists (AZ423 and Metabolex-36) and the FFA1  $\,$
- antagonist (ANT825) were obtained from AstraZeneca, Gothenburg, Sweden. Stock solutions of
- 305 drugs were dissolved in neat DMSO (at 10<sup>-2</sup> M or 10<sup>-3</sup> M). Initial 1:10 dilutions were in neat
- 306 DMSO and subsequent serial dilutions were in distilled water (excluding the FFA1 agonist, TAK-

- 307 875 and the FFA4 agonist, AZ423, where all serial dilutions were performed in distilled water).
- 308 BIBO3304, (*N*-[(1*R*)-1-[[[[4-[[(Aminocarbonyl)amino]methyl]phenyl]methyl]amino]carbonyl]-4-
- 309 [(aminoiminomethyl)amino]butyl]-α-phenyl-benzeneacetamide ditrifluoroacetate), BIIE0246, (N-
- 310 [(1*S*)-4-[(Aminoiminomethyl)amino]-1-[[[2-(3,5-dioxo-1,2-diphenyl-1,2,4-triazolidin-4-
- 311 yl)ethyl]amino]carbonyl]butyl]-1-[2-[4-(6,11-dihydro-6-oxo-5H-dibenz[b,e]azepin-11-yl)-1-
- 312 piperazinyl]-2-oxoethyl]-cyclopentaneacetamide), GW9508 (4-[[(3-
- 313 Phenoxyphenyl)methyl]amino]benzenepropanoic acid), TUG424, (3-(4-(o-
- 314 Tolylethynyl)phenyl)propanoic acid), TUG891 (4-[(4-Fluoro-4'-methyl[1,1'-biphenyl]-2-
- 315 yl)methoxy]-benzenepropanoic acid) and CYN 154806 (Ac-(4-NO<sub>2</sub>-Phe)-cyc(D-Cys-Tyr-D-Trp-
- 316 Lys-Thr-Cys)-D-Tyr-NH<sub>2</sub>) were purchased from Tocris Bioscience (Bristol, UK). GW1100 (4-[5-
- $317 \quad [(2-ethoxy-5-pyrimidinyl)methyl]-2-[[(4-fluorophenyl)methyl]thio]-4-oxo-1(4H)-pyrimidinyl]-4-oxo-1(4H)-pyrimidiny$
- 318 benzoic acid, ethyl ester) and loperamide HCl was from Cambridge Bioscience (Cambridge, UK).
- 319 VIP and PYY were purchased from Cambridge Bioscience (Cambridge, UK) and TTX from
- 320 Abcam, (Cambridge, UK). VIP, PYY and TTX were dissolved in distilled water. All peptide
- 321 stocks were stored at -20° C until required and underwent a single freeze-thaw cycle. Phloridzin
- 322 (1-[2-(β-D-glucopyranosyloxy)-4,6-dihydroxyphenyl]-3-(4-hydroxyphenyl]-1-propanone) was
- 323 purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (Dorset, UK) and it too was dissolved in distilled water. The
- 324 following in vivo vehicles were all suspended in warm saline, methylcellulose and
- 325 polyvinylpyrrolidinone (PVP) from Sigma-Aldrich (Dorset, UK), sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS)
- 326 from VWR International (Leicestershire, UK), hydroxylpropyl methylcellulose (HPMC) from
- 327 Alfa Aesar (Lancashire, UK) and Tween-80 from Boston BioProducts (Ashland, USA).

- 329 Nomenclature of Targets and Ligands
- 330 Key protein targets and ligands in this article are hyperlinked to corresponding entries in
- 331 http://www.guidetopharmacology.org, the common portal for data from the IUPHAR/BPS Guide
- 332 to PHARMACOLOGY (Southan et al., 2016), and are permanently archived in the Concise Guide
- to PHARMACOLOGY 2015/16 (Alexander et al., 2015).

334

335

#### Results

336 The sidedness, potency and efficacy of FFA1 and FFA4 agonists in descending colon mucosa

337 First, basal resistance and I<sub>sc</sub> levels after stabilisation of the colonic mucosae were within ranges published previously (Figure 1A) (Tough et al. 2011). The activity of the non-selective FFA1 and 338 FFA4 agonist, GW9508 (Figure 1B), as well as the TUG compounds added apically or 339 basolaterally induced a biphasic change in I<sub>sc</sub>. When the reductions in I<sub>sc</sub> were compared, there 340 were no significant differences between the response sizes to each agonist added to either side 341 The more selective FFA1 agonists, TAK-875 and JTT and FFA4 agonists, 342 Metabolex-36 and AZ423 were added apically and induced a biphasic I<sub>sc</sub> response. The rapid first 343  $I_{sc}$  component was attributed to the vehicle, 0.1% DMSO (3.0  $\pm$  1.1  $\mu$ A.cm<sup>-2</sup>, n=12) when 344 compared with the same component for JTT (1.7  $\pm$  0.9  $\mu$ A.cm<sup>-2</sup>, n=5) and Metabolex-36 (3.2  $\pm$  1.7 345  $\mu$ A.cm<sup>-2</sup>, n=4) or 0.01% DMSO (3.0  $\pm$  1.1  $\mu$ A.cm<sup>-2</sup>, n=6) when compared with TAK-875 (2.5  $\pm$ 346 1.3  $\mu$ A.cm<sup>-2</sup>, n=6) and AZ423 (4.6  $\pm$  1.4  $\mu$ A.cm<sup>-2</sup>, n=6). Only the later reductions in  $I_{sc}$  to varying 347 concentrations of each FFA1 and FFA4 agonists are shown in Figure 1 D - F. To determine 348 whether the FFA1 and FFA4 responses were neuronal, we pretreated the mucosae with TTX (100 349 nM, bl). The responses to TAK-875 (-11.2  $\pm$  2.0  $\mu$ A.cm<sup>-2</sup>, n=5) and Metabolex-36 (-8.3  $\pm$  2.3 350  $\mu$ A.cm<sup>-2</sup>, n=5) were unaffected by TTX compared to their DMSO controls (-7.5  $\pm$  1.8  $\mu$ A.cm<sup>-2</sup> and 351 -8.1  $\pm$  2.2  $\mu$ A.cm<sup>-2</sup> respectively, n=5), indicating FFA1 and FFA4 responses are most likely 352 epithelial in origin and their responses are not mediated by TTX-sensitive neurons. 353 The reductions in I<sub>sc</sub> to each agonist were concentration-dependent, with TUG424 and TUG891 354 being similarly potent, approximate EC<sub>50</sub> values were 57.1 nM (24.7 – 131.8 nM) and 62.5 nM 355 (24.1 – 162.3 nM) respectively (Figure 1D). GW9508 was less potent with an EC<sub>50</sub> value of 354.8 356 nM (191.6 - 656.8 nM) and appeared to be slightly more efficacious; however, this was not 357

being similarly potent, approximate EC<sub>50</sub> values were 57.1 nM (24.7 – 131.8 nM) and 62.5 nM (24.1 – 162.3 nM) respectively (Figure 1D). GW9508 was less potent with an EC<sub>50</sub> value of 354.8 nM (191.6 – 656.8 nM) and appeared to be slightly more efficacious; however, this was not significantly different from the TUG agonists (Figure 1D) or the selective FFA1 or FFA4 agonists. JTT was more potent (EC<sub>50</sub> of 20.7 nM (12.7 – 34.0 nM)) than TAK-875 (EC<sub>50</sub> of 67.6 nM (30.6 – 149.4 nM)) and they exhibit similar efficacy (Figure 1E). Furthermore, the FFA4 agonist Metabolex-36 (EC<sub>50</sub> of 15.4 nM (7.9 – 30.4 nM)) and AZ423 (EC<sub>50</sub> of 17.3 nM (3.6 – 83.8 nM)) were similarly potent and efficacious (Figure 1F). In comparison to the selective FFA1 and FFA4 agonists, GW9508 appeared to be a dual agonist.

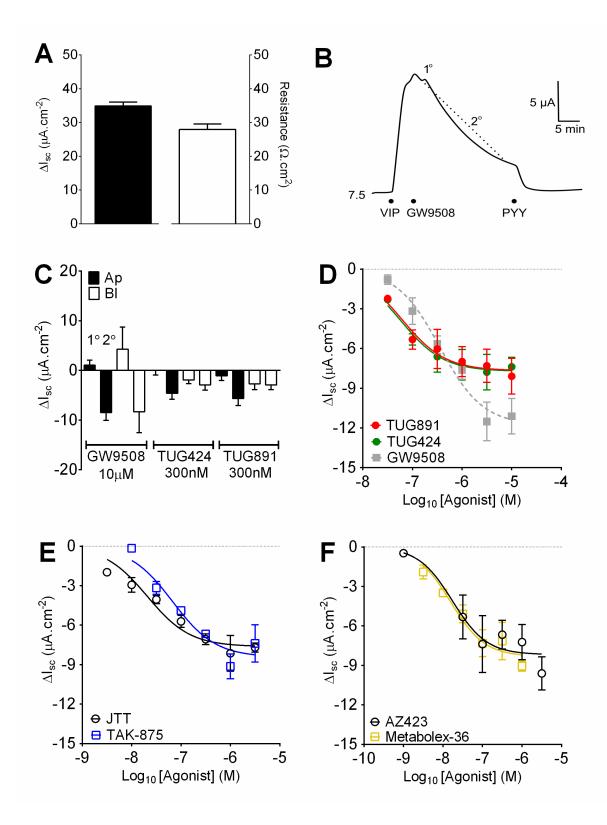


Figure 1. FFA1 and FFA4 responses in descending colon mucosa. In A: basal  $I_{sc}$  and resistance values after stabilisation of mucosal preparations (n=20). In B: representative trace showing the biphasic nature of apical GW9508 (10  $\mu$ M) response in descending colon mucosa after VIP (30 nM) and followed by PYY (10 nM). In C: pooled data showing the primary (1°) and

secondary (2°) responses to apical (ap) or basolateral (bl) additions of GW9508 (n=5), TUG424 (n=5) or TUG891 (n=5). The 1° responses were recorded within 0-5 min of agonist addition (and were due to vehicle), whereas 2° reductions in  $I_{sc}$  occurred within 10-15 min. Concentration-response curves for the 2° effects of TUG424 (n=5 for all concentrations, except 300 nM (n=6)) and TUG891 (n=5) compared with GW9508 (n=5) shown in grey in D; for JTT (n=5) and TAK-875 (10 nM (n=5), 30 nM (n=5), 100 nM (n=6), 300 nM (n=5), 1  $\mu$ M (n=7) and 3  $\mu$ M (n=8)) in E; and AZ423 (n=5) and Metabolex-36 (n=5) in F. Bars and points are the means  $\pm$  1SEM.

*GW1100* and *ANT825* each inhibit agonist-induced *FFA1* responses in the descending colon

The FFA1 antagonists, GW1100 and ANT825 alone revealed a similar degree of FFA1 tonic activity under basal conditions in the distal colon (Figure 2A). ANT825 inhibited JTT responses competitively (Figure 2B), with an IC<sub>50</sub> of 219 nM. Optimal blocking concentrations of each FFA1 antagonist, GW1100 or ANT825 revealed the selectivity of TUG424 and GW9508 for the FFA1 receptor. TUG891 responses were not affected by either FFA1 antagonist. Additionally, only part of the GW9508 response was reduced in the presence of ANT825 or GW1100 (Figure 2C). The FFA1 selective agonists (TAK-875 and JTT) were significantly inhibited by ANT825 whereas the FFA4 selective agonists, Metabolex-36 and AZ423 responses were unaffected (Figure 2D).

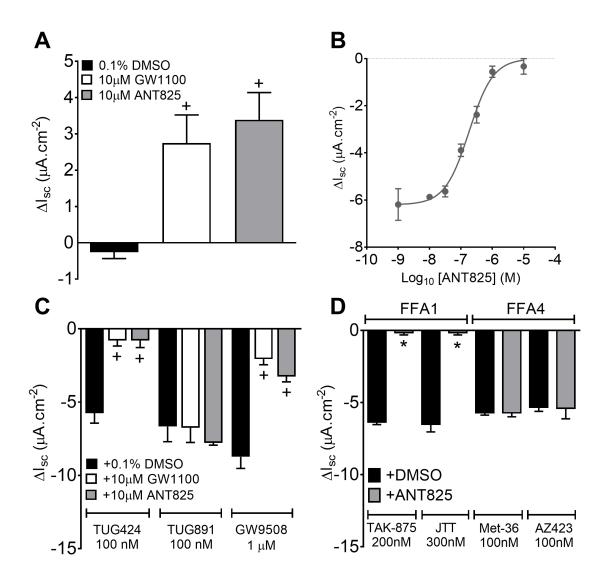


Figure 2. Tonic FFA1 activity and inhibition of FFA1 responses by GW1100 or ANT825. In A: changes in  $I_{sc}$  to vehicle, DMSO or the FFA1 antagonists, GW1100 or ANT825 alone. In B: competitive inhibition of the FFA1 agonist, JTT responses by pretreatment with the FFA1 antagonist, ANT825. Each point is the mean  $\pm 1$ SEM (n=5 for all concentrations of JTT except 10  $\mu$ M (n=6)). In C: pooled data shows the selective inhibition of apical TUG424 and GW9508 responses, but not TUG891 responses following apical GW1100 or ANT825 treatment compared with respective vehicle controls ( $\pm$ DMSO controls for TUG424 (n=6), for TUG891 (n=5) and for GW9508 (n=5)). In D: selective inhibition of the FFA1 agonists TAK-875 and JTT responses but not the FFA4 agonist, AZ423 and Metabolex-36 (Met-36) responses following apical ANT825 treatment (10  $\mu$ M, n=5). Statistical differences from respective vehicle controls are shown as

403 follows; \* P < 0.05 (Student's t test) and \* P < 0.05 (one-way ANOVA with Dunnett's *post hoc* 404 test).

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406 FFA1 and FFA4 colonic responses are BIBO3304 but not BIIE0246 sensitive

Endogenous PYY mediation of the FFA1 (JTT and TAK-875) and FFA4 (AZ423 and Metabolex-36) agonist responses were determined by blocking with the Y<sub>1</sub> antagonist, BIBO3304, the Y<sub>2</sub> antagonist, BIIE0246 or both antagonists together. Each antagonist revealed endogenous PYY-Y<sub>1</sub> and Y<sub>2</sub> tonic activity under basal conditions (Figure 3A) similar to that observed in the mouse colon previously (Tough et al. 2011, Hyland et al. 2003). FFA1 responses to JTT (Figure 3B) and TAK-875 (Figure 3C) were abolished by the Y<sub>1</sub> antagonist, indicating PYY-Y<sub>1</sub> signalling predominantly mediates FFA1 responses. The FFA1 responses in the presence of the Y<sub>2</sub> antagonist were slightly reduced, suggestive of a minor role for Y<sub>2</sub> receptors as seen previously (Tough et al. 2011). Notably, there was no influence of the I<sub>sc</sub> level at the time of adding the FFA1 agonist on subsequent FFA1 efficacy. Taken together these observations confirm selective Y<sub>1</sub>-mediation of FFA1 responses. Subsequent exogenous PYY responses were also abolished by the Y<sub>1</sub>, but not by the Y<sub>2</sub> antagonist alone, while the combination abolished PYY activity (Figure 3D). The responses to FFA4 agonists, AZ423 (Figure 3E) and Metabolex-36 (Figure 3F) were also abolished by the Y<sub>1</sub> but not Y<sub>2</sub> antagonist and thus both FFA1 and FFA4 responses in the mouse colon are  $Y_1$  receptor mediated.

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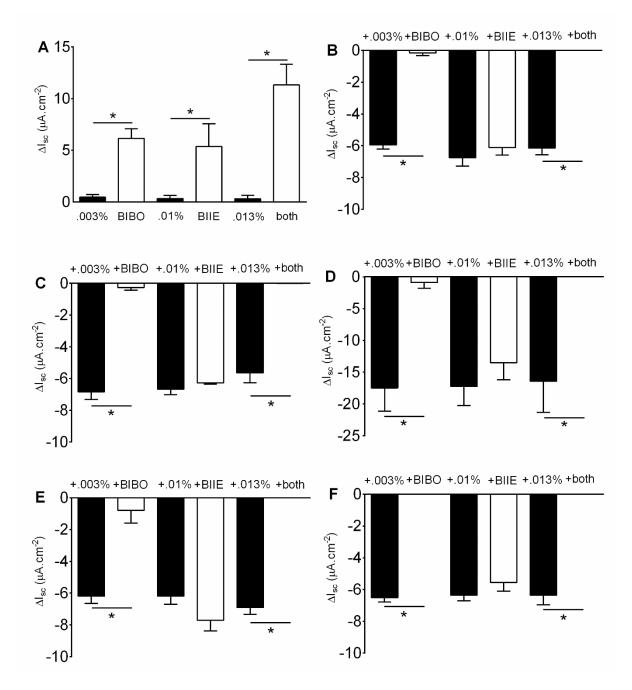


Figure 3.  $Y_1$ - but not  $Y_2$ -receptor sensitivity of FFA1 and FFA4 agonism in the descending colon. The effects of the  $Y_1$  (BIBO3304, BIBO, 300 nM)  $\pm$  the  $Y_2$  (BIIE0246, BIIE, 1  $\mu$ M) antagonist and corresponding DMSO controls (+.003 %, +.01 %, +.013 %) on baseline  $I_{sc}$  levels are shown in A. The effect of the FFA1 agonists, JTT (n=5 for all data groups except +.003% and +.013% (n=6)) and TAK-875 (n=5 for all data groups except +BIBO (n=6)) in the absence or presence of Y antagonists are shown in B and C respectively. Exogenous PYY (10 nM) responses (n=5 for all data groups except +.003% and +.013% (n=6)) after JTT treatment, in the presence of DMSO or  $Y_1 \pm Y_2$  antagonists are shown in D. The FFA4 agonist's responses, AZ423 (n=5) and

- 435 Metabolex-36 (n=5 for all data groups except +.01% (n=6)) are shown in E and F respectively.
- 436 Bars represent the mean  $\pm$  1 SEM. Statistical differences between vehicle controls (0.003 %, 0.01
- 437 % and 0.013 % DMSO) and respective antagonists BIBO, BIIE or both are shown as follows; \* P
- 438 < 0.05 (Student's *t* test).

440 FFA1 and FFA4 responses are glucose-sensitive in the descending colon mucosa

mM) or hyperglycaemic (25.0 mM) environment (Figure 4E).

In order to establish the glucose-sensitivity of FFA signalling in mucosal preparations, the 441 responses to the FFA1 and FFA4 agonists were compared in the presence or absence of apical 442 glucose. Mannitol replacement of apical glucose abolished the FFA1 responses (Figure 4A & B) 443 and inhibited FFA4 activity (Figure 4C & D) compared to vehicle. Internal controls using 444 phloridzin (Phlor, added ap) decreased the I<sub>sc</sub>, but as expected only in the presence of glucose 445 (because SGLT1 requires glucose to function and is targeted apically). Thus, FFA1 and FFA4 446 receptors can be activated in a glucose-sensitive manner. In contrast, PYY responses were not 447 glucose-sensitive (Figure 4A-D). Furthermore, TAK-875 and Metabolex-36 responses were not 448 449 affected when the glucose concentration (ap + bl) was varied to represent a hypoglycaemic (5.0

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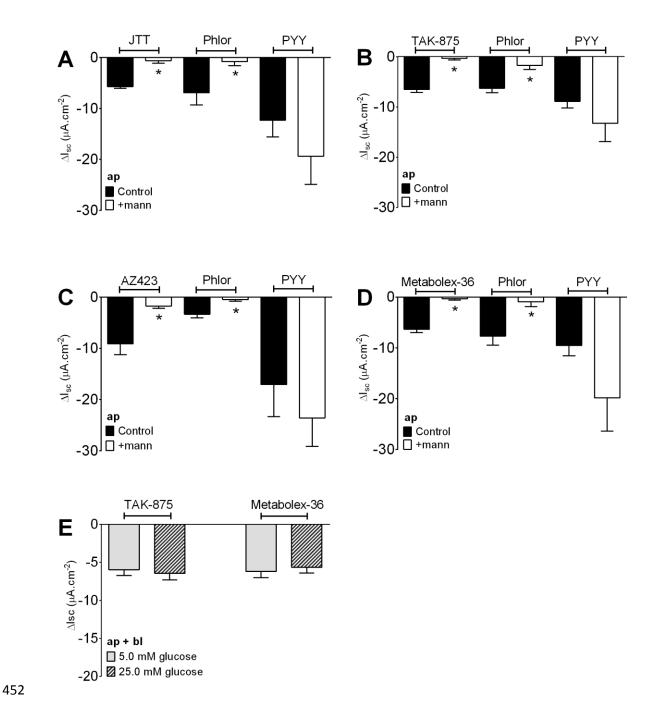


Figure 4. Glucose-sensitivity of FFA1 and FFA4 agonism in the descending colon. Glucose-sensitivity of apical FFA1 agonists, JTT (300 nM, n=5) in A, TAK-875 (200 nM, n=5) in B and apical FFA4 agonists, AZ423 (100 nM, n=5) in C and Metabolex-36 (100 nM, n=5) in D, in the presence (black bars) and absence (white bars) of 11.1 mM glucose. Control mucosae were bathed in glucose both sides whereas, mannitol (+ mann, 11.1 mM) replaced glucose apically only. Phloridzin (Phlor, 50 $\mu$ M, apically only) and PYY (10 nM) responses are also shown. In E: TAK-875 (200 nM, n=5) and Metabolex-36 (100 nM, n=5) antisecretory responses in the presence of apical and basolateral (ap + bl) 5.0 mM glucose or 25.0 mM glucose. Bars represent the mean -

1SEM. Statistical differences between agonist or phloridzin responses in the presence or absence of glucose, are shown as follows; \* P < 0.05 (Student's t test). Caeco-colonic transit is inhibited by FFA1 and FFA4 agonists Since FFA1 and FFA4 mucosal responses in the colon were mediated by PYY and this endogenous peptide is known to slow colonic transit (Tough et al. 2011), we next assessed whether the FFA1 and FFA4 agonists reduced transit at single optimal concentrations (300 nM; Figure 5A). In isolated colons, TUG424, TUG891, TAK-875 and Metabolex-36 significantly decreased transit in comparison to vehicle-treated (DMSO, 0.1%) controls. Since GW1100 (10 µM) inhibited FFA1 responses in colonic mucosa, we set out to determine whether GW1100 alone could increase basal faecal transit and reverse the effect of the FFA1 agonist on colonic transit, in vitro. Figure 5B shows that GW1100 alone significantly increased basal colonic transit, again indicating endogenous FFA1 inhibitory tone. After 20 min pretreatment with the FFA1 antagonist, GW1100 the effect of TUG424 and TUG891 was assessed in the presence and absence of GW1100. In the presence of GW1100, the inhibitory effect on colonic transit of TUG424 was reversed, but GW1100 had no effect on TUG891 (FFA4) activity, showing FFA1 selectivity (Figure 5B). 

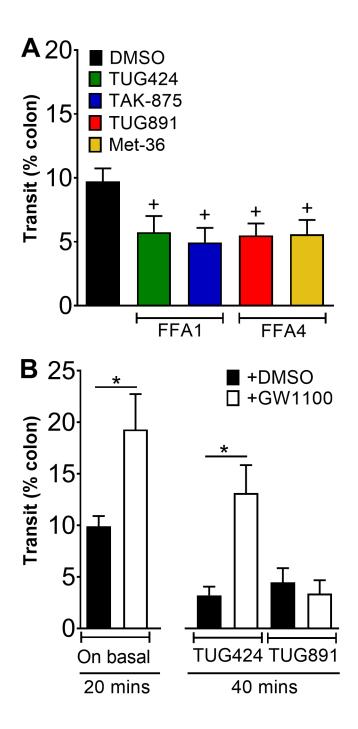


Figure 5. Colonic transit is slowed by FFA1 and FFA4 agonists in isolated colons *in vitro*. Colonic transit is slowed by 300 nM of TUG424 (n=6), TAK-875 (n=6), TUG891 (n=6) and Metabolex-36 (Met-36, n=6) in A at t =20 min. In B: the effects of FFA1 antagonist GW1100 (10  $\mu$ M) are compared on basal faecal transit at t=20 min and on subsequent inhibition of transit following 20 min treatment with TUG424 or TUG891 at t=40 min (n = 5). Each bar represents the mean + 1SEM. Statistically significant differences from controls were; \* P < 0.05 (Student's t test) and \* P < 0.05 (one-way ANOVA with Dunnett's t post t hoc test).

Colonic bead propulsion is slowed by Metabolex-36 not TAK875 or ANT825 in vivo

As the FFA1 and FFA4 agonists, (TAK-875 and Metabolex-36 respectively) slowed transit in isolated colons *in vitro*; we assessed the ability of these agonists and loperamide HCl to slow colonic transit *in vivo*, comparing oral administration versus i.p. injection. Additionally, we investigated whether ANT825 had the potential to reveal FFA1 tone *in vivo*. Oral administration of the positive control, loperamide HCl significantly slowed transit compared to its vehicle control. Two doses of Metabolex-36 were assessed orally; the lower dose had no effect on transit whereas the higher dose significantly slowed transit. Furthermore, oral gavage of TAK-875 and ANT825 had no effect on colonic transit (Figure 6A). Both loperamide HCl and Metabolex-36 significantly slowed colonic transit when given via i.p. injection whereas TAK-875 and ANT825 had no effect (Figure 6B). As i.p. injection of loperamide HCl slowed transit more efficiently in comparison to oral gavage, we used this route of administration for each drug in the subsequent *in vivo* studies.

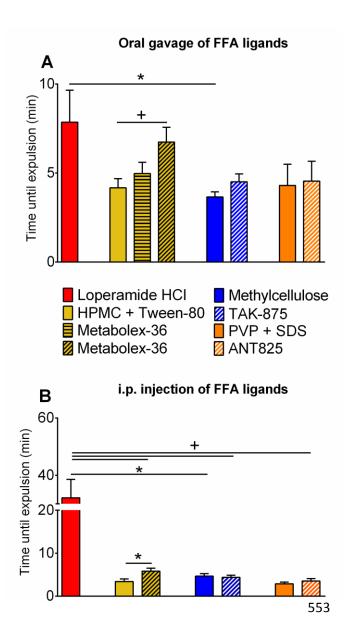


Figure 6. The effect of oral gavage versus i.p. injection of FFA ligands and loperamide HCl on colonic bead expulsion  $in\ vivo$ . The effect on colonic bead expulsion (expressed as time until bead expelled (min)) after oral gavage or i.p. injection of loperamide HCl (10 mg/kg, red bar, n=11) compared with its vehicle control, 0.5% methylcellulose (blue bar, n=11); the FFA4 agonist, Metabolex-36 at two doses: 6 mg/kg (yellow bar with black horizontal stripes, n=6) and 50 mg/kg (yellow bar with black diagonal stripes, n=10) compared with their vehicle control, 0.5% hydroxylpropyl methylcellulose (HPMC) + 0.1% Tween-80 (yellow bar, n=10); the FFA1 agonist, TAK-875 (27 mg/kg, blue bar with white diagonal stripes, n=11) compared with its vehicle control (0.5% methylcellulose, blue bar) and finally the FFA1 antagonist, ANT825 (29 mg/kg, orange bar with white diagonal stripes, n=7) compared with its vehicle (0.25% polyvinylpyrrolidone (PVP) + 0.05% sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS), orange bar, n=7). Each bar

represents the mean + 1SEM. Statistically differences from controls were; \* P < 0.05 (Student's t-test). Differences between the oral doses of Metabolex-36 from its control and additionally between loperamide HCl (i.p.) and the FFA drugs were; \* P < 0.05 (one-way ANOVA with Dunnett's  $post\ hoc$  test).

## Upper GI transit is increased by Metabolex-36 in vivo

Here we investigated whether the FFA agonists (i.p.) and loperamide HCl could slow intestinal transit and additionally whether ANT825 could increase intestinal transit (revealing FFA1 tone), after mice were given a charcoal meal (as described in the methods). The positive control, loperamide HCl significantly slowed GI transit, as expected compared to its vehicle control. Unexpectedly, Metabolex-36 significantly increased intestinal transit whereas TAK-875 and ANT825 had no effect (Figure 7).

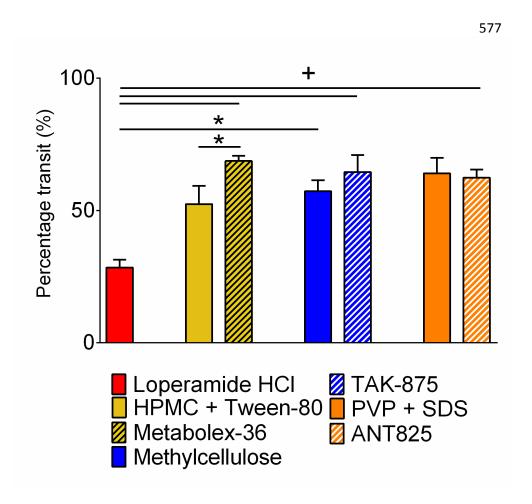


Figure 7. The effect of an i.p. injection of loperamide HCl and FFA ligands on UGIT in vivo. 590 The intestinal transit of a charcoal meal (expressed as a percentage of the small intestine length) 591 after i.p. injection of the positive control, loperamide HCl (10 mg/kg, red bar, n=6) compared with 592 its vehicle control, 0.5% methylcellulose (blue bar, n=6); the FFA4 agonist, Metabolex-36 (50) 593 mg/kg, yellow bar with black diagonal stripes, n=6) compared with its vehicle control, 0.5% 594 hydroxylpropyl methylcellulose (HPMC) + 0.1% Tween-80 (yellow bar, n=6); the FFA1 agonist, 595 TAK875 (27 mg/kg, blue bar with white diagonal stripes, n=5) compared with its vehicle control 596 (0.5% methylcellulose, blue bar) and the FFA1 antagonist, ANT825 (29 mg/kg, orange bar with 597 598 white diagonal stripes, n=5) compared with its vehicle (0.25% polyvinylpyrrolidone (PVP) + 0.05% sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS), orange bar, n=5). Each bar represents the mean + 1SEM. 599 Statistically differences from controls were; \* P < 0.05 (Student t-test) whereas differences 600 between loperamide HCl and FFA drugs were; + P < 0.05 (one-way ANOVA with Dunnett's post 601 hoc test). 602 603 SST<sub>2</sub> inhibition has no effect on Metabolex-36 induced UGIT effect in vivo 604 605 As Metabolex-36 increased UGIT in vivo, we investigated whether this was due to an inhibitory FFA4 effect (via a Gα<sub>i</sub>-mediated mechanism) on somatostatin-containing D cells in the GI tract. 606 607 This inhibition would result in disinhibition and ultimately a pro-motile effect, as somatostatin is a known inhibitor of GI motility. Mice were pretreated with the SST<sub>2</sub> antagonist, CYN 154806 or 608 609 saline before the effect of Metabolex-36 was tested. CYN 154806 + Metabolex-36 had no effect on the UGIT of the charcoal meal, in comparison to mice pretreated with saline (Figure 8). 610 611 612 613 614 615 616 617

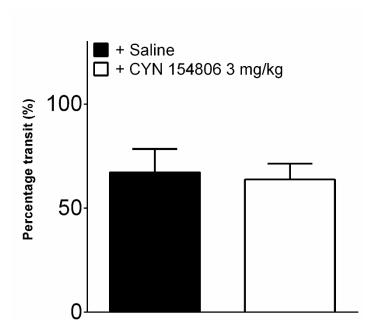


Figure 8. CYN 154806 had no effect on the Metabolex-36 induced increase in UGIT *in vivo*.

The effect of Metabolex-36 (50 mg/kg, i.p. injection) on UGIT in the absence (saline, n=5) or presence (n=5) of the SST<sub>2</sub> antagonist, CYN 154806. Bars represent mean + 1SEM.

### **Discussion**

The improved selectivity of FFA1 and FFA4 agonists versus commercially available agonists

FFA1 and FFA4 agonism was independent of the surface of administration and the time-dependence of  $I_{sc}$  changes was similar, suggesting that these receptors are located on both the apical and basolateral surfaces. However, it should be noted that all the drugs used were lipid soluble requiring DMSO as a vehicle therefore, drugs added on the apical surface could activate FFA receptors on the basolateral side and vice versa. Interestingly, Christensen et al. (2015) showed preferential but not exclusive vascular (basolateral) FFA1-induced GLP-1 secretion using endogenous and synthetic agonists, in rat small intestine. We utilised apical administration and the reductions in  $I_{sc}$  we observed occurred within the same time frame as other apically located L cell  $G\alpha_q$ -coupled receptors, some activated by water-soluble compounds (Joshi et al. 2013, Forbes et al. 2015, Alamshah et al. 2016) thus indicating apical receptors.

GW9508 is reported to act via FFA1 and FFA4 with 100x higher affinity for FFA1 than FFA4 (Briscoe et al. 2006). GW9508 is a dual agonist at the FFA1 and FFA4 and this may explain its

- slightly greater efficacy than more selective agonists we used. We found that the selective FFA1 and FFA4 agonists exhibited a similar potency which was more potent than the potency of GW9508. Both FFA4 agonists, Metabolex-36 and AZ423 have >100-fold higher selectivity for FFA4 in comparison to the FFA1. This phenomenon of higher potency but lower efficacy has been observed previously with a GPR119 agonist, PSN-GPR119 (Patel et al. 2014) and may indicate acute receptor desensitisation.
- FFA1 agonists are preferentially  $G\alpha_{q/11}$ -linked and recent evidence suggests that ' $G\alpha_{q/11}$ -only' FFA1 agonists (e.g. TAK-875) stimulate the release of incretin hormones, GLP-1 and GIP, with reduced efficacy compared to FFA1 agonists that signal via  $G\alpha_{q/11}$  and  $G\alpha_s$  pathways; to cause a more robust release of GLP-1 and GIP (Hauge et al. 2015). Our FFA1 agonists appear to be  $G\alpha_{q/11}$ -coupled preferentially as mucosal responses were transient in comparison with  $G\alpha_s$ -coupled L cell signalling e.g. GPR119 or MC4 (Cox et al. 2010, Panaro et al. 2014).

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658 FFA1 antagonism reveals FFA1 mucosal and anti-motility tone and agonist-specificity.

may be responsible for the observed tonic activity via FFA1.

- The FFA1 antagonists, ANT825 and GW1100 revealed, for the first time, a degree of endogenous FFA1 tonic activity in colonic mucosa. The degree of tonic activity was similar to that observed with the MC4 receptor antagonist, HS014 (3.6 μA.cm<sup>-2</sup>) (Panaro et al. 2014). Since endogenous FFA1 and MC4 agonism stimulates PYY release from L cells, blockade of these receptors inhibits endogenous PYY release. Crivellato et al (2002) demonstrated that enteroendocrine cells in mouse colon undergo piecemeal degranulation, hormone release that may be related to the tonic activity we observe in mucosa. Endogenous lipids, natural ligands of the FFA1 (Itoh et al. 2003)
- The potency of the FFA1 competitive antagonist, ANT825 was not dissimilar from its potency 667 (pEC<sub>50</sub> of 6.8) obtained in a human embryonic kidney 293 cell line expressing human FFA1, 668 measuring inositol monophosphate (Waring 2015). We found GW1100 (pIC<sub>50</sub> of 5.99; (Briscoe et 669 al. 2006)) abolished TUG424 responses but not TUG891 responses, showing FFA1 selectivity as 670 seen previously (Briscoe et al. 2006). Like GW1100, ANT825 abolished FFA1 responses but 671 both FFA1 antagonists' also partially inhibited GW9508 responses, indicating that at this 672 concentration (1 µM); GW9508 exerts a dual agonism via FFA1 and most likely FFA4. Briscoe et 673 al (2006) revealed that GW1100 had no effect on the ability of GW9508 to activate FFA4. We 674 675 conclude that GW9508 is a dual FFA1 and FFA4 agonist.

FFA1 (TUG424, TAK-875) and FFA4 (TUG891, Metabolex-36) agonists attenuated colonic 676 motility in vitro to a similar degree as seen previously with MC4 receptor activation and GPR119 677 agonism (Panaro et al. 2014). They decreased colonic motility presumably via the release of 678 PYY, which mediates the colonic brake. Pretreatment with the FFA1 antagonist, GW1100 679 revealed basal colonic mucosal tone (as seen with Ussing chamber studies) indicative of 680 681 endogenous FFA1 activity. In the presence of the FFA1 antagonist GW1100, the colonic brake induced by the FFA1 agonist (TUG424) was disinhibited and therefore colonic transit increased 682 whereas transit induced by FFA4 agonist (TUG891) remained unaffected, showing selectivity of 683 684 the FFA1 agonist.

As the FFA1 agonist, TAK875 and the FFA4 agonist, Metabolex-36 slowed transit in vitro; we 685 investigated their ability to slow transit in vivo. Following the overnight fast, plasma glucose 686 levels were reduced to 5 mM. However, we established that FFA1 and FFA4 signalling is 687 unchanged at 5 mM compared with 11.1 mM glucose as seen previously for GPR119 agonism 688 (Patel et al. 2014). Metabolex-36 slowed colonic transit significantly presumably via PYY, 689 690 whereas TAK-875 failed to show significant inhibition of bead colonic transit when administered This apparent lack of efficacy may be due to TAK-875's partial 691 orally or via i.p. injection. agonism or its administration as a suspension. In our in vitro transit studies, the isolated colon is 692 severed from the central nervous system (CNS) and TAK-875 acts directly upon colonic FFA1 693 receptors. In the *in vivo* model, it's possible that the ability of TAK-875 to release PYY is not 694 sufficient to alter colonic motility, with the added complication of modulatory CNS pathways. In 695 addition, there are concerns in the literature that isoflurane interferes with GI transit. In 2005, 696 Toriman and colleagues reported that 6 min exposure to isoflurane in rats slows UGIT by 50% 697 (Torjman et al. 2005). In our study, mice received a 2 min exposure of isoflurane 1 h after the 698 drug, vehicle or positive control were administered, followed by bead insertion and excretion. 699 Therefore, we conclude that this brief exposure of isoflurane in our protocol (at the time of 700 maximal drug exposure) should have minimal effect on colonic motility. Furthermore, we note 701 that there are no differences in colonic transit rates between different vehicle controls (oral gavage 702 703 vs i.p.) in this study, compared with those in a previous investigation (Forbes et al. 2012).

Unexpectedly, Metabolex-36 was pro-motile in the upper intestine. FFA4 is expressed on I cells, K cells and L cells causing release of CCK, GIP and PYY (and GLP-1) respectively, via  $G\alpha_q$ signalling (Iwasaki et al. 2015, Hirasawa et al. 2005, Tanaka et al. 2008). These peptides inhibit
gastric emptying and small intestinal transit and additionally, PYY is responsible for both ileal and
colonic brakes (Spiller et al. 1984, Spiller et al. 1988). However, recently FFA4 has been

identified in gastric ghrelin and somatostatin cells, signalling via Gα<sub>i</sub> proteins to inhibit peptide 709 release (Engelstoft et al. 2013, Egerod et al. 2015). Somatostatin is known to inhibit motility and 710 increase the interval between migrating myoelectric complexes (MMC), therefore slowing transit. 711 We hypothesised that Metabolex-36 increased intestinal motility by inhibiting somatostatin release 712 and tested this possibility with the SST<sub>2</sub> antagonist, CYN 154806 at an effective dose used 713 previously in rat small intestine, in vivo (Booth et al. 2001). However, CYN 154806 was 714 ineffective (at 3 mg/kg) and we conclude that either the antagonist dose used was too low in the 715 mouse, or Metabolex-36 produces a pro-motile effect via an alternative FFA4 mechanism. 716

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- 718 PYY-Y<sub>1</sub> but not PYY-Y<sub>2</sub> mediation of FFA1 and FFA4 signalling in mouse colonic mucosa
- FFA1 and FFA4 agonist responses in the mouse colon were Y<sub>1</sub> receptor mediated. Additionally, 719 these responses were unaffected by TTX indicating a predominantly epithelial origin for FFA1 720 721 and FFA4 activity, not involving TTX-sensitive submucosal neurons. The degree of antisecretory tone mediated by the Y<sub>1</sub> and Y<sub>2</sub> receptors was similar to that shown previously in mouse colon 722 (Hyland et al. 2003, Tough et al. 2011). The FFA1 and FFA4 signalling in colonic mucosa are 723 724 mediated by endogenous PYY acting on local epithelial Y<sub>1</sub> receptors. The epithelial Y<sub>1</sub> mediation and lack of any Y<sub>2</sub> (neuronal) involvement is consistent with our previous findings for other L 725 726 cell-enriched receptors e.g. MC4 (Panaro et al. 2014), GPR119 (Patel et al. 2014), FFA2 (Forbes et al. 2015) and the calcium-sensing receptor (Joshi et al. 2013). There appears to be no GLP-1 727 728 mediation of FFA1 and FFA4 responses in this study. GLP-1 has a half-life of 1.5 min which limits the ability to detect its response, if any. Additionally, we have discovered that the GLP-1 729 response can vary across the colon, with largest GLP-1 responses observed in the ascending colon 730 and smallest in the descending colon (Tough et al. 2017). Here we have used descending colon 731 and in combination with the short half-life of GLP-1, this may explain why we do not see a GLP-1 732 733 mediated response.

- 735 FFA1 and FFA4 responses in mouse colon mucosa are glucose-sensitive
- Our studies demonstrate for the first time that activation of FFA1 and FFA4 responses in native
- 737 tissues are glucose-sensitive as seen in previous investigations of L cell-specific activation by
- 738 GPR119 (Cox et al. 2010), MC4 receptor (Panaro et al. 2014), the activation of the calcium-
- 739 sensing receptor by L-glutamine (Joshi et al. 2013) and FFA2 agonism (Forbes et al. 2015).

Theoretically these agonists should not therefore cause hypoglycaemia in vivo, a disadvantage of 740 certain anti-diabetic drugs currently on the market. FFA1 and FFA4 receptors are currently 741 clinically favourable targets as they are not only co-expressed in GI L cells but differentially 742 expressed in the pancreas. FFA1 is expressed in pancreatic β-cells (Itoh et al. 2003) and FFA4 has 743 recently been discovered in somatostatin-containing delta cells (Stone et al. 2014). PYY and 744 GLP-1 released from the L cells should enhance satiety (an advantage for patients with associated 745 obesity) and elevate insulin release respectively via activation of GLP-1 receptors on pancreatic β 746 cells. Furthermore, an FFA1 agonist could simultaneously directly elevate insulin release after a 747 748 meal. This combination of indirect and direct FFA1 effects should improve glucose tolerance 749 without hypoglycaemia.

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#### 751 Final conclusions

We have shown that selective FFA1 and FFA4 agonism is PYY-Y<sub>1</sub> receptor mediated and 752 glucose-sensitive in mouse descending colon mucosa. These compounds would limit potential 753 hypoglycaemia, a side effect of certain commercially available anti-diabetic drugs. ANT825 and 754 755 GW1100 revealed tonic FFA1 activity and the possibility of FFA1 endogenous ligands causing PYY release. Furthermore, we have shown for the first time that agonism of FFA1 and FFA4 756 inhibits colonic transit in vitro and FFA4 agonism induces regional differences in transit in vivo. 757 In colonic L cells agonism of FFA4 is presumably Gα<sub>q</sub>-mediated and leads to antisecretory 758 759 mucosal responses that slows colonic transit, but leads to upper GI pro-motile activity in vivo in the mouse, which remains unresolved. FFA1 and FFA4 co-agonism may be beneficial 760 therapeutically and would more closely mimic the combinatorial activity of long chain fatty acids 761 in the diet. 762

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#### Author contributions

RM and IRT performed and analysed the experiments and contributed with HMC to the design and interpretation of the data, and writing of the manuscript. DMS and MS provided AstraZeneca in-house data and contributed to the design and interpretation of the work. MS and HMC had the project idea and got funding. RM, IRT, DMS, MS and HMC reviewed and approved the final manuscript version and agreed to be accountable for all aspects of the work.

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