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Molecular pathways for immune recognition of preproinsulin signal peptide in type 1 diabetes

Running title: Preproinsulin processing for immune recognition

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Abstract

The signal peptide region of preproinsulin (PPI) contains epitopes targeted by human leucocyte antigen-A (HLA-A)-restricted (HLA-A0201, A2402) cytotoxic T-cells as part of the pathogenesis of β-cell destruction in type 1 diabetes. We extended PPI epitope discovery to disease-associated *HLA-B*1801 and HLA-B*3906* (risk) and *HLA-A*1101 and HLA-B*3801* (protective) alleles revealing that 4/6 alleles present epitopes derived from the signal peptide region. During co-translational translocation of PPI, its signal peptide is cleaved and retained within the endoplasmic reticulum (ER) membrane, implying it is processed for immune recognition outside of the canonical, proteasome-directed pathway. Using *in vitro* translocation assays with specific inhibitors and gene knockout in PPI-expressing target cells we show that PPI signal peptide antigen processing requires signal peptide peptidase (SPP). The intramembrane protease SPP generates cytoplasm-proximal epitopes, which are transporter-associated-with–antigen-processing (TAP)-dependent, and ER-luminal (TAPindependent) epitopes, each presented by different HLA class I molecules, and N-terminal trimmed by ER aminopeptidase 1 (ERAP1) for optimal presentation. *In vivo*, TAP expression is significantly up-regulated and correlated with HLA class I hyper-expression in insulincontaining islets of patients with type 1 diabetes. Thus, PPI signal peptide epitopes are processed by SPP and loaded for HLA-guided immune recognition via pathways that are enhanced during disease pathogenesis.

Introduction

In type 1 diabetes, immune-mediated destruction of insulin-producing β-cells is the pathological process leading to insulin deficiency and hyperglycaemia (1). Multiple arms of the immune system are likely to contribute to this tissue-damaging process, with strong indications that CD8+ cytotoxic T lymphocytes (CTLs), are a dominant killing pathway. Evidence includes a data from preclinical models showing dependence of disease development on intact CD8/MHC class I mechanisms (2), supported by compelling findings in human studies, including the existence of high-risk polymorphic HLA class I genes (3); enrichment of effector CTLs specific for β-cell targets in the circulation in new-onset disease (4; 5); recapitulation of β-cell killing by patient-derived preproinsulin (PPI)-specific CTLs *in vitro* (4; 6); CD8 T cell dominance of islet infiltrates in patients, including the presence of CD8s bearing receptors specific for β-cell autoantigens (7; 8); hyper-expression of HLA class I both at the RNA and protein level in residual insulin containing islets (ICIs) in type 1 diabetes pancreatic tissue (9); and recent success in halting β-cell loss using immunotherapy targeted at effector CD8 T cells (10).

The potential for the immunological dialogue between CTLs and β-cells to be a key component of the development of type 1 diabetes has led several groups to focus on the relevant molecular interactions that govern this interface, including studies on HLA class I gene polymorphisms carrying modified risk of disease (*HLA-A*0201, A*1101, A*2402, B*1801, B*3801* and *B*3906* (3; 11; 12)) and antigenic targets within β-cells recognized by CTLs. These have especially focused on PPI which is considered a primary target in β-cell autoimmunity because anti-insulin autoantibodies are frequently the first disease manifestation in high-risk children (12).

For immune recognition, processing and presentation of peptides by MHC class I commonly results from degradation of proteins by the proteasome (13), generating cytosolic peptides of 8-16 amino acids (14) which are transported into the endoplasmic reticulum (ER) lumen via transporter associated with antigen processing (TAP) (15), part of the MHC class I peptide loading complex (PLC; (16)). ER aminopeptidase 1 (ERAP1) trims peptides to a suitable length for MHC loading if required (17), and peptide-MHC complexes are delivered to the cell surface for immune recognition. Proteasome-independent, cytoplasm-based noncanonical antigen presentation pathways have also been described (18). Whereas these and the canonical route collectively require TAP for peptide delivery into the ER, signal peptide epitopes from secretory proteins may be MHC-loaded independently of TAP (19) following signal peptidase cleavage and intramembrane proteolysis by signal peptide peptidase (SPP) (20-22). Interestingly, peptides originating from the ER luminal side of the signal peptide can access the PLC directly (23-25), whereas epitopes close to the cytosol may require proteasomal trimming and TAP for ER entry (26). However, the extent to which signal peptides and these non-canonical epitope-generation pathways fuel immune recognition of single antigens and play a role in physiological responses remains unclear.

The present study was motivated by the need for a better understanding of autoantigen processing for immune recognition of β-cells via these different routes, which could provide novel insights into disease pathogenesis and highlight pathways susceptible to therapeutic manipulation. We previously reported that the predominant epitope species presented to CTLs by human cell lines co-transfected with the *INS* gene (encoding PPI) and the HLA class I genes *HLA-A*0201* and *A*2402* derived from the signal peptide region (4; 6). These signal peptide-derived epitopes are recognized by patient CTLs and presented by β-cells bearing the relevant HLA class I molecule. Here we examine whether PPI signal peptide is a more general source of epitopes by studying additional HLA class I molecules associated with type

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1 diabetes. We show that generation of epitopes from the PPI signal peptide is driven by the intramembrane protease SPP, and that loading into nascent HLA class I molecules requires trimming by ERAP1 and is either direct or follows cytoplasmic translocation and TAP, with the selected pathway being determined by HLA allele. Importantly, we show that the key factors ERAP1 and TAP are expressed in insulin-containing islets of patients studied post mortem after type 1 diabetes diagnosis, indicating that the multiple pathways that are potentially critical in the CTL:β-cell dialogue are active in the disease setting.

Methods

Cell lines and epitope discovery

K562 cells transfected with *HLA-A*1101, HLA-B*1801, HLA-B*3801, or HLA-B*3906* and PPI cDNAs (K562-HLA-PPI cells) were generated as described (4). Expression of HLA class I was confirmed by flow cytometry (anti-HLA-ABC antibody W6/32; Serotec, Oxford, U.K.). Proinsulin was detected in supernatants by ELISA (DRG International, Marburg, Germany). Subsequently, $\sim 10^{10}$ cells from each cell line were harvested and immunoaffinity purification of HLA-A1101, HLA-B1801, HLA-B3801 and HLA-B3906, peptide extraction and nano high-performance liquid chromatography–mass spectrometry performed as described (4; 6; 27; 28).

Inhibitors, RNA interference and T cell clone activation

K562-A24-PPI cells were transfected twice within 48 hours with 20nM small interfering RNAs (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, Ca, USA) targeting B2M (#s1852), ERAP1 (#s28618), ERAP2 (#s34520), TAP1 (#s13778, #s13780), TAP2 (#s13781, #s13782, #s13783) using Lipofectamine RNAiMAX (Invitrogen, Paisley, U.K.). Knockdown was assessed by RT-PCR using TaqMan specific primers and relative cDNA content normalized to *GAPDH* gene expression. CD8 T cell clones for PPI_{3-11} -HLA-A2402 and PPI_{15-24} -HLA-A0201 (4; 6) were co-cultured with K562-HLA-PPI target cells at indicated effector:target ratios (4 hours) and response measured as degranulation (CD107a expression (29)) or MIP-1β release (R&D systems, Minneapolis, MN, USA).

Site directed mutagenesis

To alter single or multiple amino acids (as highlighted in **Supplementary Table 1**), PPIcontaining plasmid pcDNA3/PPI was amplified using altered primers (PPI9P→L, CCC→CTC; PPI12A→L, GCG→CTG; PPI15A→L, GCC→CTC; with 18-20 nucleotide

overhang preceding and following the mutated site) and PfuTurbo DNA Polymerase AD (Agilent, Santa Clara, CA, USA) with sequence confirmation before use.

In vitro **transcription, translation and translocation and analysis of SPP processing**

Plasmid pcDNA3/PPI was linearized with *EcoRI* and transcribed *in vitro* with T7 RNA polymerase at 42°C using 500µM m7G(5′)ppp(5′)G CAP analogue (New England Biolabs, Ipswich, MA, USA) (30). mRNAs were translated *in vitro* in 25µl rabbit reticulocyte lysate (Promega, Madison, WI, USA) containing $\int^{35}S$]-methionine and $\int^{35}S$]-cysteine (Perkin Elmer, Waltham, MA, USA) and, where indicated, 2 equivalents of nuclease-treated dog pancreas rough microsomes (31). (Z-LL)₂-ketone (SPP inhibitor, 5µM; Merck-Calbiochem, San Diego, CA, USA) or DMSO control were added as indicated. After 30 minutes at 30°C, microsomes were extracted with 500mM KOAc, solubilized in SDS-sample buffer (32) and analysed by SDS-PAGE using Tris-bicine-urea acrylamide gels (15% T, 5% C; 8 M urea) (33) and an FLA 7000 phosphorimager (Fuji) with Multi Gauge software (Fuji). Translations of reference peptide comprising the 24-amino acid PPI signal sequence was performed in wheat germ extract (34).

Immunohistochemistry and Immunofluorescence

Formalin-fixed paraffin embedded (FFPE) pancreas sections from 6 controls and 6 type 1 diabetes cases (Exeter Archival Diabetes Biobank; http://foulis.vub.ac.be/; **Supplementary Table 2**; ethical approval 15/W/0258) were studied by immunohistochemistry. Sections were dewaxed, rehydrated and heated by microwave (800W) for 20 minutes, blocked in 5% normal goat serum before incubation with primary and secondary antibodies (**Supplementary Table 3**), haematoxylin counter-stain, dehydration and mounting in a distyrene/xylene-based mountant (DPX). Multiple antigens within the same FFPE section were probed in a sequential manner with up to three different antibodies (**Supplementary**

Table 3) and images captured (Leica AF6000 microscope, Milton Keynes, U.K.). Mean fluorescence intensity (MFI) of stained antigens was analysed using ImageJ and isotype control antisera used to confirm reagent specificity.

SPP knockout using CRISPR

CRISPR guide sequences for exons of SPP (gene name *HM13*) were designed using CRISPR DESIGN tool (www.crispr.mit.edu) (**Supplementary Table 4**) and cloned into pLG2C vector containing eGFP linked to a Cas9 cassette via P2A. K562-A2-PPI were transfected with each of two pLG2C vectors (containing guide sequence for Exon 2 or 3 and Exon 10 or 11) or empty vector (mock treated: no guide sequence) using Effectene (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany). Single cells sorted for high HLA-A2 (W6/32; Biolegend, San Diego, CA, UK) and eGFP were examined for gene truncation by RT-PCR and SPP amplification using primers (F: ATATATGAATTCGCACCCTCGCCATG ;R: ATATATCTCGAGGCACCAGCTGCATCATTTC) (Eurofins, Ebersberg, Germany) and Phusion High-Fidelity DNA Polymerase (New England Biolabs, Ipswich, MA, USA) and by agarose gel electrophoresis.

Results

Presentation of PPI epitopes by HLA-A1101, HLA-B1801, HLA-B3801 and HLA-B3906

K562 cells transfected with *INS* encoding human PPI and one of *HLA-A*1101, HLA-B*1801, HLA-B*3801 and HLA-B*3906* generated surrogate β-cells secreting proinsulin and expressing relevant HLA class I molecules (**Supplementary Figure 1**). The immunopeptidome eluted from affinity purified HLA-A1101 identified 905 peptides; from HLA-B1801 615 peptides; from HLA-B3801 455 peptides; and from HLA-B3906 298 peptides (all MASCOT scores ≥40) and corresponded to published HLA-binding motifs and peptide ligandomes (35). Of interest, PPI epitopes from the signal peptide region were identified for HLA-B3801, PPI_{5-14} MRLLPLLALL, and HLA-B3906, PPI_{5-12} MRLLPLLA (**Figure 1 and Supplementary Figure 2**), respectively. In addition we identified a B-chain epitope for HLA-B3801, PPI $_{33-41}$ SHLVEALYL, and a C-peptide epitope for HLA-A1101, PPI_{80-88} LALEGSLQK. Peptide identities were confirmed by tandem mass spectrometry profiling of the synthetic compound (**Supplementary Figure 2**). No other peptides from PPI were identified.

Taken together with our previous reports of immunodominant PPI signal peptide-derived epitopes in PPI_{15-24} -HLA-A0201 (6) and PPI_{3-11} -HLA-A2402 (4), these new discoveries indicate that the signal peptide region of PPI is a rich source for processing for immune recognition (**Table 1** and **Figure 1**). To examine whether this arises because signal peptide regions are immunogenic per se, as has been reported (36), the available peptidome data was mined in greater depth, showing that the degree to which signal peptides are presented is HLA allele dependent. Whilst, for example, HLA-A0201 presents a signal peptide-derived epitope from 46% of source proteins that contain a signal peptide, for HLA-A1101 this figure is only 6.9% (**Supplementary Table 5**). Probing for any signal peptide bias using *in silico*

prediction algorithms provided similar results (**Supplementary Table 6**). We conclude that presentation of signal peptides of PPI is unlikely to result from a generalized propensity of HLA molecules to select this region for presentation, but the number of HLA molecules studied to date remains limited.

Intramembrane protease SPP cleaves PPI signal peptide

Based on previous studies of intramembrane cleavage of signal peptides (37), we hypothesized that SPP is involved in processing and cleavage of PPI signal peptide. To test this, mRNAs encoding PPI were translated *in vitro* with ER-derived microsomes and $\int^{35}S$]labelled methionine and cysteine. Upon insertion of PPI into microsomes, PPI signal sequence is cleaved by signal peptidase, liberating translocated proinsulin from its signal peptide (**Figure 2A**). Moreover, traces of a peptide that co-migrated with an *in vitro* translated reference peptide comprising the PPI signal sequence were detected in the membrane fraction (**Figure 2A**, compare lanes 2 and 4). Since processing of nascent chains by signal peptidase is a well-known activity in ER-derived microsomes (31), and no low molecular weight peptides were observed in the translation reaction lacking microsomes (lane 1), we conclude that the identified peptide corresponds to traces of PPI signal peptide that remain in the ER membrane fraction. In contrast, the PPI signal peptide is markedly stabilized and retained in the microsome fraction upon treatment with the SPP inhibitor (Z- LL)₂-ketone (**Figure 2A**, lane 3). Overall, this shows that PPI behaves as a canonical nascent chain that is processed by signal peptidase liberating a signal peptide released from the ER membrane by SPP-catalysed intramembrane cleavage.

To further study the role of intramembrane proteolysis in turnover of PPI signal peptide, amino acid residues destabilizing the helical transmembrane span surrounding the scissile peptide bond were mutated to leucine, which blocks SPP-catalysed cleavage (21). Consistent

with our previous analysis of model signal peptides, single mutation of proline (at P9) and alanine (P12 and P15) shows marginal effects on PPI signal peptide processing, whereas double mutants (9L/12L; 9L/15L; and 12L/15L) and the triple mutant (9L/12L/15L) show very marked inhibition of SPP-catalysed processing (**Figure 2B-D, Supplementary Table 1, Supplementary Figure 3**). This identifies PPI signal peptide as a *bona fide* SPP substrate and confirms the requirement for helix-breaks and limited hydrophobicity for intramembrane cleavage. Replacement of the classical helix-break residue proline at position 9 of PPI signal peptide alone is not sufficient to completely block SPP-catalysed processing and only shows effect when at least one of the nearby alanine residues, which show an intermediate stability within transmembrane helices (38), is also mutated to leucine.

We next examined whether abrogation of SPP-catalysed cleavage of PPI signal peptide impacts upon immune recognition of signal peptide-derived epitopes. Double-targeting CRISPR-Cas9 technology generated three independent K562-A2-PPI cell lines with SPP knockout (K562-A2-PPI-SPPko; SPP knockout validation shown in **Supplementary Figure 4**). When cultured with the PPI15-24 specific HLA-A0201-restricted CD8 T cell clone, degranulation (measures clone activation via T cell receptor ligation by peptide-HLA) frequency and magnitude were markedly reduced in the presence of K562-A2-PPI-SPPko cells compared to mock-treated lines (**Figure 3**). The difference in T cell activation is not due to differences in HLA class I expression levels (**Supplementary Figure 5**) and the SPP knockout phenotype of reduced T cell activation is rescued when cells are pulsed with cognate peptide (**Supplementary Figure 6**), These data show that SPP-catalysed processing of PPI signal peptide is an essential step to generate an immunologically relevant epitope that is implicated as having a pathogenic role in type 1 diabetes through activation of β-cellspecific autoreactive CD8 T cells $(6, 8)$.

Requirement for proteasome, TAP and ERAP in PPI processing

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We previously showed that PPI_{15-24} processing and presentation by HLA-A0201 does not require proteasome cleavage or import into the ER via TAP (6) . In contrast with PPI₁₅₋₂₄-HLA-A0201, however, PPI₃₋₁₁-HLA-A2402 presentation is TAP dependent. RNAi inhibition of *TAP1* (94.5 +/- 2.3% mRNA knockdown) and *TAP2* (95.4 +/- 0.3% mRNA knockdown) expression in K562-A24-PPI cells markedly reduces MIP-1β production (60.7% and 30.2% respectively) by PPI_{3-11} -HLA-A2402-specific CD8 clone upon co-culture with TAP RNAi treated K562-A24-PPI cells (**Figure 4A**). This is attributable to a reduction in surface density of the specific pHLA ligand PPI3-11-HLA-A2402 (TAP RNAi treated K562-A24-PPI cells show only minimal reduction in HLA class I expression; **Supplementary Figure 7**).

Next, we investigated whether ER-resident aminopeptidases are involved in the processing and presentation of PPI signal peptide epitopes. Knockdown of *ERAP1* (87.2 +/- 0.5% mRNA knockdown) in K562-A24-PPI cells by RNAi markedly reduced MIP-1β production $(62.6%)$ by PPI₃₋₁₁-HLA-A2402-specific clone 4C6, whilst no effect was seen in the presence of *ERAP2* knockdown (73.7 +/- 6.1% mRNA knockdown; 8.0% change in MIP-1β production) (**Figure 4B**). Similar effects were seen in target killing assays (data not shown). RNAi for *ERAP1* and *ERAP2* had only minimal effects on total surface HLA class I expression (**Supplementary Figure 7**), indicating that the ERAP1-mediated interference in clone 4C6 activation is likely to be an effect on target cell surface density of specific PPI₃₋₁₁-HLA-A2402 ligand.

TAP and ERAP1 expression in pancreas samples from subjects with type 1 diabetes

Expression of the processing proteins TAP1 and ERAP1, both of which we have shown to have potential contribution to the generation of PPI epitopes that target β-cells for killing by PPI-specific cytotoxic CD8 T cells, were investigated in human pancreas recovered from healthy control subjects and those with type 1 diabetes. TAP1 was present at low levels in the

pancreatic islets of healthy control subjects and was detected at similarly low levels in the insulin-deficient islets (IDIs) of patients with type 1 diabetes (**Figure 5A**). In contrast, TAP1 was markedly upregulated in the insulin containing islets (ICIs) of these patients (**Figure 5A**). Co-localisation studies revealed that the elevation in TAP1 expression was most evident in β-cells although it was also increased in other islet cells. Quantification of the immunostaining in six age-matched controls and six type 1 diabetes subjects was achieved by measuring the mean fluorescent intensity of TAP1 labelling in three islets from each control subject and in six islets from each patient (three ICIs and three IDIs). This confirmed a significant elevation in TAP1 expression in ICIs from type 1 diabetes patients when compared to IDIs or control islets (**Figure 5B**; p<0.001). Application of similar approaches demonstrated that, as previously described (9), HLA-ABC was also markedly elevated in the ICIs of type 1 diabetes patients (**Figure 5C**). Moreover, there was a strong positive correlation between the expression of TAP1 and HLA-ABC in insulin-containing islets **(Figure 5D**; $R^2 = 0.519$, p<0.001).

ERAP1 was detected in the islets of healthy controls and was also found in the islets of donors with type 1 diabetes (**Supplementary Table 2**). However, by contrast with TAP1, ERAP1 expression was not noticeably altered between the islets of control subjects and those with type 1 diabetes (**Supplementary Figure** 8).

Model for PPI signal peptide immune processing and presentation

Collectively, these findings imply a model of PPI signal peptide processing for HLA class I presentation in which the fate that follows intramembrane cleavage is dependent upon location within the ER membrane and HLA binding potential (**Figure 6**). On the one hand, N-terminal peptides may be released into the cytoplasm, where they are dependent upon TAP transport into the ER and ERAP1 trimming, before loading into nascent HLA molecules. As an alternative, distally generated, ER luminal peptides are directly released into the ER lumen omitting the need for TAP, but may require N-terminal trimming by ERAP1 for optimal presentation.

Discussion

In the present study, we extend our previous PPI epitope discovery effort to encompass new HLA class I alleles associated with type 1 diabetes risk/protection. This reveals PPI signal peptide as a frequent source of epitopes for multiple *HLA-A* and *-B* alleles. Our previous finding of proteasome independence for HLA-A0201 PPI presentation (6) implied a noncanonical pathway for generation of signal peptide-derived epitopes. This concept is extended in the present study, in which we highlight the requirement for intramembrane cleavage and indicate the importance of SPP in this role. We further show that following intramembrane cleavage, the pathway of peptide loading varies according to whether a signal peptide-derived epitope is N-terminal (TAP requiring) or C-terminal (TAP independent). Loading is dictated by the HLA allele and optimised in the presence of ERAP1. These findings highlight a distinct set of processing principles for PPI (stoichiometry with translation; proximity to site of HLA molecule synthesis and loading) that contrast with canonical endogenous antigen processing, which relies upon proteasome degradation of effete or damaged cytoplasmic proteins. Together with evidence that TAP expression is upregulated in relevant tissues in the disease setting, the study offers important insight into the molecular processes that are a key underpinning of interactions between cytotoxic CD8 T cells and β-cells during the pathogenesis of the disease.

One caveat in our study relates to using tumour cells transfected with the *INS* gene and selected *HLA* allele as "surrogate β-cells" to represent and understand the endogenous pathway of PPI presentation as it may occur in a human β-cell *in vivo*. It remains open to interpretation whether this approach biases epitope discovery towards a specific PPI region, although our finding of epitopes in the signal peptide, B chain and C-peptide across the different HLA molecules suggests that this is unlikely. K562 cells predominantly express the constitutive proteasome (39) whilst there is evidence that the immunoproteasome can be

upregulated in β-cells under inflammatory conditions (40) and the balance of these two could influence the spectrum of epitopes generated in human islets. Our approach is pragmatic, since obtaining sufficient, pure β-cells for such work presents a severe technical and logistical challenge. We therefore elect to conduct epitope discovery using "surrogate β-cells" and then confirm findings using human tissue. Indeed, our previous experience has been that epitopes identified in this way for HLA-A0201 and A2402 are faithful phenocopies of PPI presentation by β-cells. In both cases we were able to generate CD8 T cell clones that recognize PPI epitopes presented by both the surrogate and donor-derived β-cells. Providing similar proof for the less common alleles remains challenging, however (41), although studies examining the frequency and antigen-experience of, for example, PPI_{5-12} -B3906 and PPI_{5-14} -B3801 restricted T cells in the blood using peptide-HLA multimer technology, will provide supportive evidence of a pathogenic role.

One of our findings is to identify a non-canonical pathway of endogenous antigen processing for an epitope that is relevant to recognition of β-cells by the immune system. Central to this is an intramembrane cleavage step. Our studies conducted *in vitro* using microsomes indicate that SPP is capable of cleaving the PPI signal peptide, which is released from the ER membrane by SPP-catalysed cleavage. CRISPR-Cas9-mediated SPP knockout indicates that this enzyme is also rate-limiting for epitope generation *in vivo*. Using this and the $(Z-LL)_{2}$ ketone inhibitor approaches we are able to argue that SPP knockout affects processing of signal peptide, leading to reduced presentation of $PPI₁₅₋₂₄$ and, in turn, reduced activation of the specific T cell clone. Overall this appears compelling evidence for a direct role of SPP in the processing of PPI signal peptide in a manner that is critical to the generation of this important epitope.

SPP belongs to the family of GxGD intramembrane proteases including presenilin/γ-secretase and related SPP-like proteases (37). The ER-resident SPP cleaves various signal peptides and

type II membrane proteins in a number of physiological settings (42), including the generation of a regulatory peptide from HLA-A0301 signal peptide that is required for HLA-E-mediated immunosurveillance (22). This is not the first study to draw attention to the potential requirement for intramembrane cleavage of an autoantigen in type 1 diabetes. Using algorithms to predict HLA-A0201 epitopes of islet amyloid polypeptide (IAPP), previous studies have shown CD8 T cell reactivity to $IAPP_{9-17}$ and $IAPP_{5-13}$ in the blood (43; 44) and in the case of $IAPP_{5-13}$, also in islets of patients with type 1 diabetes (8). Whether these peptides are naturally processed and presented by β-cells remains unclear, however, and if confirmed for both it would imply a complex processing pathway, since the C-terminus of IAPP₅₋₁₃ overlaps and extends into the N-terminus of IAPP₉₋₁₇.

Signal sequences are essential for protein targeting to the secretory pathway via the ER (45; 46) where, after insertion into the protein-conduction translocation channel, they are cleaved from the preprotein by signal peptidase (47) , which in the case of PPI₁₅₋₂₄-HLA-A0201 also generates the epitope C-terminus. Signal peptides spanning the ER membrane require cleavage by SPP for efficient disposal (19; 20). No consensus SPP cleavage motif has been identified, beyond a strong preference for helix-destabilizing residues in the membrane spanning region (21; 48; 49), which are likely to be the proline and two alanine residues at positions 9, 12 and 15, respectively. Indeed, in our studies mutation of any one of these has a mild effect on signal peptide cleavage; any two mutations together gives a moderate phenotype; and when all three are mutated, SPP is unable to cleave, indicating that these are the helix-destabilizing residues in PPI. Once liberated, SPP-cleaved N-terminal signal peptide fragment gets access to the cytosol where it is either trimmed by the proteasome or directly loaded onto TAP and the MHC peptide-loading complex. In the case of PPI_{3-11} -HLA-A2402, we show TAP requirement, whilst PPI₁₅₋₂₄-HLA-A0201 requires neither proteasome nor TAP

(6) leading us to speculate that "untapped" loading of a C-terminal signal peptide fragment makes use of other chaperones, such as TAPBP.

We considered it important to try to link findings in relation to mechanisms of β-cell antigen presentation obtained *in vitro* with the tissue inflammatory process taking place in subjects with type 1 diabetes. Our analysis shows that TAP expression is significantly increased in insulin-containing islets and correlated in its hyper-expression with HLA class I molecule expression. It has become a much vaunted metaphor that the β-cell contributes to its own destruction in various ways. In the particular setting of PPI presentation to cytotoxic T cells, it would appear that hyper-expression of TAP is a further example, certainly for HLA alleles such as HLA-A2402. In this way it may complement the effects of hyper-expression of HLA class I and hyper-glycaemic conditions (which upregulate PPI presentation (6)) in enhancing β-cell cytotoxicity under the inflammatory milieu that prevails in the islets of Langerhans in patients with type 1 diabetes.

Allele	Risk/Protection	PPI Signal Peptide	Other PPI regions
$HLA - A * 0201$	Risk/neutral	PPI15-24 (ALWGPDPAAA)	No peptides found
$HLA - A * 2402$	Risk	PPI3-11 (LWMRLLPLL)	No peptides found
$HLA-B*1801$	Risk	No peptides found	No peptides found
$HLA-B*3906$	Risk	PPI5-12 (MRLLPLLA)	No peptides found
$HLA-A*1101$	Protection	No peptides found	PPI80-88 (LALEGSLQK)
$HLA-B*3801$	Protection	PPI5-14 (MRLLPLLALL)	PPI33-41 (SHLVEALYL)

Table 1. Preproinsulin epitopes identified by elution from specific HLA class I molecules.

Figure Legends

Figure 1: PPI epitope discovery in HLA-B3906. (A) Tandem mass spectrometry analysis of collision-induced dissociation revealing the tandem mass spectrum of a peptide of mass 463.8 m/z and sequence MRLLPLLA. The correct identity of the peptide was proven by tandem mass spectrometry of the synthetic compound. (B) The table lists the amino acid sequence of the peptide with the expected b- and y-fragment ions (fragment ions extending from the amino- and carboxyl terminus respectively). Observed fragment ions are underlined. Tandem mass spectra and table of b- and y-fragment ions for PPI epitopes discovered in HLA-A1101 and B3801 are provided in **Supplementary Figure 2**. (C) Diagram indicates position of the PPI signal peptide in the ER membrane during co-translational translocation, and the sequences and positions of the signal peptides identified by elution of the naturally processed and presented immunopeptidome for different HLA molecules.

Figure 2: Processing of PPI signal peptide by SPP in a cell-free translocation assay. (A) *In vitro* translation of wild type (wt) PPI mRNA in the absence (lane 1) or presence of ERderived microsomes (lanes 2 and 3) and SPP inhibitor $(Z-LL)_2$ -ketone (lane 3). Microsomes containing radiolabelled translocated proinsulin and membrane integral signal peptides (SP) were isolated and analysed by SDS-PAGE and audioradiography. Lane 4, *in vitro*-translated reference peptide comprising the PPI signal sequence. Upon ER targeting and signal peptidase cleavage, liberated SP is released from the membrane fraction (lane 2) in a process that can be blocked in the presence of $(Z-LL)_2$ -ketone inhibitor (lane 3) indicating SPPcatalysed cleavage. (B) *In vitro* translation of mutant PPI mRNA (P9L, A12L, A15L) under similar conditions shows cleavage-deficient SP that is retained in the membrane fraction irrespective of $(Z-LL)₂$ -ketone inhibitor. (C) P9L, A12L, A15L SP mutant sequence. (D) Quantification of PPI signal peptide processing (mean, wt $n=5$, mutations $n=2$). Means

indicate the relative amounts of signal peptide obtained in lane 2 compared to the corresponding lane 3, where SPP was inhibited. Processing was quantified by comparing intensity of signal peptide in the absence (DMSO) and presence of SPP inhibitor $(Z-LL)_{2}$ ketone for each condition, given by the formula $100-(100x/y)$ where x is the intensity of the test band and y is the intensity of the band in the presence of full inhibition with $(Z-LL)_{2}$ ketone). Equal translocation efficiency was controlled by comparing the amount of proinsulin between conditions. **Supplementary Table 1** and **Supplementary Figure 3** for details.

Figure 3: Impact of signal peptide peptidase (SPP) knockout in PPI- expressing cells on HLA presentation of signal peptide-derived epitope presentation. The PPI₁₅₋₂₄ specific HLA-A0201 restricted T cell clone was cultured at 2:1 target to effector ratio with different cell lines representing K562-A2-PPI (positive control; presents $PPI₁₅₋₂₄$ in HLA-A0201); K562-A2 (negative control; lacks PPI) K562-A2-PPI-SPPmock (negative controls; 2 lines of mock CRISPR-Cas9 manipulation, see Methods) and K562-A2-PPI-SPPko (test conditions; 3 independent lines of CRISPR-Cas9 knockout of SPP). SPPko markedly reduces activation of the T cell clone, as shown by (A) the lower median fluorescence intensity of CD107a and (B) reduced percentage expression of CD107a. Bars and error bars represent mean \pm SEM for 4 independently performed experiments.

Figure 4: Impact of siRNA knockdown of TAP and ERAP1 on epitope presentation. (A) Percentage mRNA knockdown in K562-A24-PPI cells treated with siRNA knockdown for *β2M*, *TAP1*, and *TAP2* genes and (B) *ERAP1* and *ERAP2 genes* (left panels) and resulting effect on MIP-1β production by the HLA-A2402-restricted PPI₃₋₁₁ specific CD8 T cell clone 4C6 upon co-culture with the different cells lines (right panels). Scrambled siRNAs are used

as control. ∆Ct values of targeted knockdown were compared to ∆Ct of scrambled siRNA, and expressed as the relative mRNA level of specific gene knockdown. Efficiency of relevant mRNA knockdown is high resulting in reduced PPI_{3-11} presentation for TAP1, TAP2 and ERAP1, but not ERAP2. B2M serves as a positive control. Bars/error bars represent mean \pm SEM of technical duplicates from three independent experiments for mRNA knockdown and one representative example of MIP-1β production (two further repeats in **Supplementary Figure 9**).

Figure 5: Expression of TAP and ERAP1 in human pancreas. Pancreas samples from 6 control individuals and 6 patients with type 1 diabetes (**Supplementary Table 2**) were stained for TAP1, HLA-ABC and insulin. (A) Images are representative (same microscope and camera settings) of 18 islets from control cases, plus 18 insulin-deficient islets (IDI) and 18 insulin-containing (ICI) islets from patients with type 1 diabetes. The mean fluorescence intensity (MFI) for each antigen was determined within all imaged islets. The analysis reveals (B) a significant increase in TAP1 expression in ICIs from individuals with type 1 diabetes compared with IDIs or control islets. (C) Consistent with previous reports, a similar change was seen with HLA-ABC expression. (D) Comparing TAP1 and HLA-ABC expression within the same islets shows a positive correlation. Error bars represent mean values \pm SEM, with a one-way ANOVA and a subsequent post-hoc Tukey's multiple comparison test used to determine significance between groups (***p<0.001).

Figure 6: Processing of PPI signal peptide. Model of PPI signal peptide processing in which N-terminal peptides may be released into the cytoplasm by SPP where they depend on TAP transport into the ER and ERAP1 trimming before loading into nascent HLA (illustrated by example of PPI₃₋₁₁ loading into HLA-A2402), in contrast ER luminal peptides are directly released into the ER lumen, not requiring TAP transport but equally requiring trimming by ERAP1 for optimal presentation (illustrated by example of PPI₁₅₋₂₄ loading into HLA-A0201).

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D.K-V. and M.E. designed and performed experiments, analysed data, conceived ideas, oversaw research, and wrote the manuscript. M.A.R., A.d.R., B.H., and N.Y. performed experiments. P.A.v.V., S.J.R, N.G.M., M.K.L. and M.P. conceived ideas, oversaw research, and wrote the manuscript. M.P. is the guarantor of this work and, as such, had full access to all the data in the study and takes responsibility for the integrity of the data and the accuracy of the data analysis.

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A wt **B** 9L/12L/15L **D** 100⁻ $1 \quad 2 \quad 3 \quad 4 \quad 1 \quad 2 \quad 3$ 80 HATH SHEE % Processing % Processing 60 PPI PI 40 $20 SP$ microsomes - + - + + 0 $(Z-LL)_2$ -ketone - - + - - + Mi or 12 15 12 15 15 ref **C** Wild type: MALWMRLLPLLALLALWGPDPAAA Triple mutant: MALWMRLLLLLLLLLLWGPDPAAA

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Figure 3

Diabetes Page 32 of 52

Page 33 of 52 Diabetes

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Control

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Figure Page 34 of 52

Supplementary Table 1: Site directed mutation of signal peptide of preproinsulin

Supplementary Table 2: Details of subjects studied for pancreatic expression of antigen processing enzymes

Supplementary Table 3: Details of the staining protocol for each antibody employed in the current study.

Legend supplementary Table 3: **Details of the staining protocol for each antibody employed in the current study.** Where multiple antigens were stained on the same section, antibodies were applied sequentially (staining order: anti-TAP1 (overnight at 4°C) followed by anti-HLA-ABC (1h at room temperature) or anti-glucagon (1h at room temperature) then anti-insulin plus DAPI (1h at room temperature)).

Supplementary Table 4: Oligonucleotides used for CRISPR-mediated gene knockout.

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Supplementary Table 5. Eluted epitopes are not selectively derived from SP containing source protein nor their signal peptide region.

Source Proteins are those represented by at least one epitope with Mascot Score >40 within our HLA class I elution data (1). Uniprot (2) (access via <http://www.uniprot.org/>) retrieve/ID mapping function was used to identify signal peptide containing source proteins. SP, signal peptide.

Supplementary Table 6. Putative PPI epitopes identified by in silico binding prediction algorithms. Binding prediction were performed by SYFPEITHI (3) (access via: www.syfpeithi.de)) to identify putative PPI epitopes to compare eluted epitopes to those Diabetes

identified in silico. Epitopes derived from the PPI signal peptide are highlighted in bold and those identified by elution in green.

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Legend Supplementary Figure 1: **Representative Expression of HLA class I and secretion of proinsulin.** Expression of HLA class I and secretion of proinsulin by the generated K562-PPI (dashed line) and K562-PPI-HLA (solid line) cell lines (isotype control grey shaded). Single cell cloning was performed to select for the K562-PPI-HLA cell line with best combination of HLA class I expression (left) and Proinsulin expression (right). Data is representative, with B*3906 shown, and similar data obtained for A*11:01, B*1801 and B*38:01.

Supplementary Figure 2 A) HLA-A*1101 Epitope PPI $_{80-88}$

Supplementary Figure 2: PPI epitope discovery

Tandem mass spectrometry analysis of collisioninduced dissociation revealing the tandem mass spectrum of a PPI peptide (A) HLA-A*1101 Epitope PPI80-88 (LALEGSLQQK), (B) HLA-B*3801 Epitope PPI₅₋₁₄ (MRLLPLLALL) and (C) HLA-B*3801 Epitope PPI33-41 (SHLVEALYL) . The correct identity of the peptide was proven by tandem mass spectrometry of the synthetic compound. The table lists the amino acid sequence of the peptide with the expected b- and y-fragment ions (fragment ions extending from the amino- and carboxyl terminus respectively). Observed fragment ions are underlined.

Supplementary Figure 2 B) HLA-B*3801 Epitope PPI₅₋₁₄ Page 43 of 52 Diabetes

Supplementary Figure 2 C) HLA-B*3801 Epitope PPI₃₃₋₄₁

Supplementary Figure 3

Legend Supplementary Figure 3: **Processing of the PPI signal peptide in microsomes.** *In vitro* translation of wt PPI mRNA or mutant PPI mRNA (P9L, A12L, A15L) in the absence (lanes 1) or in the presence of ER-derived microsomes (lanes 2 and 3) and SPP inhibitor (Z-LL)₂-ketone (lanes 3). Microsomes were isolated and analyzed by SDS-PAGE, and radiolabeled proteins visualized by phosphorimaging. Lane 4, *in vitro*-translated reference. Images are representative images of n=2, apart from wt where n=5. Equal translocation efficiency and PPI precursor availability for processing was controlled by comparing the amount of proinsulin between conditions.

Legend Supplementary Figure 4: **Validation of SPP knockout (truncation) by PCR**. Within the K562-A2-PPI cells line the SPP gene was truncated using CRISPR-Cas9 directed double targeting of each exon at the start and end of the gene. Simultaneous targeting leads to truncation of the gene in effect leading to functional gene knockout. Length of the gene was assessed using PCR with SPP specific primers on cDNA generated from isolated mRNA from the cell lines. WT (lane 1 and 2) and mock transfected (lane 3 and 4) cell lines harbour full length SPP, whereas reduction (lane 6 and 7) in size or abrogation (lane 5) was observed for cell lines with effective CRISPR-Cas9 targeting of SPP.

Supplementary Figure 5 Page 47 of 52 Diabetes

Legend Supplementary Figure 5: **HLA class I surface expression on Mock and SPPko cell lines**. Cell lines were stained with anti-pan HLA class I antibody (HLA, black line) and corresponding isotype control (ISO, grey line) antibody. Levels of surface HLA expression are similar for each experimental condition (WT, mock and SPP knockout).

Legend Supplementary Figure 6: **Pulsing SPPko cells with cognate peptide rescues their phenotype**. K562-A2 and K562-A2-PPI-SPPko cell lines were pulsed for 1 hour with 10uM/ml peptide or peptide diluent (DMSO) prior to co-culture with T cell clone specific for PPI₁₅₋₂₄-HLA-A0201. T cell activation was assessed by CD107a expression. For each SPPko cell line, peptide pulsing leads to increased T cell activation as evidenced by both increases in percentage expression of CD107a (left) and median fluorescence intensity of CD107a (right) with comparable levels in the pulsed WT K562-A2 cell line. Three independent experiments.

Supplementary Figure 7 Page 49 of 52 Diabetes

siRNA **MFI** Stain 9774 Scramble **HLA** Scramble 797 **ISO HLA** 2909 TAP1 TAP1 **ISO** 655 TAP2 **HLA** 4683 TAP2 **ISO** 715 ERAP1 **HLA** 4559 ERAP1 **ISO** 740 ERAP2 **HLA** 4694 ERAP2 702 **ISO HLA** 1348 B₂m B₂m **ISO** 691 8231 Untreated **HLA ISO** 738 Untreated <u>Lantini Marta</u> 10^{3} 10^{5} $10⁴$ 0

APC-A:: HLA-ABC

Legend Supplementary Figure 7: **HLA class I expression in siRNA experiments.** Surface HLA-ABC (W6/32 clone) expression on b2M, ERAP1, ERAP2, TAP1, TAP2, scramble knockdown treated and untreated K562-A24-PPI respectively (HLA, black line) and isotype control (ISO, grey line). Median Fluorescence Intensity (MFI) of HLA staining is shown.

Legend Supplementary Figure 8: **Representative immunohistochemistry staining of ERAP.** Representative immunohistochemistry staining of ERAP on pancreas samples from patients with type 1 diabetes (n=3) and a representative control sample. ERAP is expressed in all islet cells irrespective of sample source and pancreas samples from type 1 diabetes patients show similar expression in insulin-deficient islets (IDI) and insulin-containing islets (ICI). These data suggest that ERAP expression is not significantly altered in the islets of patients with type 1 diabetes.

Supplementary Figure 9

Legend supplementary Figure 9: MIP-1β in siRNA experiments. MIP-1β production of HLA-A2402-restricted PPI₃₋₁₁ specific CD8 T cell clone 4C6 upon co-culture with *β2M*, *TAP1*, *TAP2*, genes (top panel) and *ERAP1*, *ERAP2* gene (bottom panel) knockdown in K562-A24-PPI cells. Two independent experiments.

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