

1 **FGF21 is an insulin-dependent postprandial hormone in adult humans**

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3 Ricardo J Samms<sup>1,2\*</sup>, Jo E Lewis<sup>1\*</sup>, Luke Norton<sup>3</sup>, Francis B Stephens<sup>4</sup>, Christopher J Gaffney<sup>4</sup>, Tony  
4 Butterfield<sup>2</sup>, Dennis Smith<sup>2</sup>, Christine Cheng<sup>2</sup>, James W Perfield II<sup>2</sup>, Andrew C Adams<sup>2</sup>, Francis J P  
5 Ebling<sup>1</sup>, Kostas Tsintzas<sup>1#</sup>.

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7 <sup>1</sup>School of Life Sciences, University of Nottingham, Queen's Medical Centre, Nottingham, UK.

8 <sup>2</sup>Lilly Research Laboratories, Indianapolis, USA.

9 <sup>3</sup>Diabetes Division, University of Texas Health Science Center, San Antonio, USA

10 <sup>4</sup>Department of Sport and Health Sciences, University of Exeter, Exeter, EX1 2LU, UK

11 \*These authors contributed equally to this work

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Running title: FGF21 is a postprandially regulated hormone

#Email correspondence to: [kostas.tsintzas@nottingham.ac.uk](mailto:kostas.tsintzas@nottingham.ac.uk)

13 MRC/ARUK Centre for Musculoskeletal Ageing

14 School of Life Sciences, University of Nottingham Medical School

15 Queen's Medical Centre

16 Nottingham, NG7 2UH

17 UK

18 tel: 0115 82 30127

19 fax: 0115 82 30103

20

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24 **Abstract**

25 *Context:* Fibroblast growth factor 21 (FGF21) secretion has been shown to respond directly to  
26 carbohydrate consumption, with glucose, fructose and sucrose all reported to increase plasma  
27 levels of FGF21 in rodents and humans. However, carbohydrate consumption also results in  
28 secretion of insulin.

29 *Objective:* The aim of this study was to examine the combined and independent effects of  
30 hyperglycemia and hyperinsulinemia on total and bioactive FGF21 in the postprandial period in  
31 humans, and determine whether this effect is attenuated in conditions of altered insulin  
32 secretion and action.

33 *Methods:* Circulating glucose, insulin, total and bioactive FGF21 and fibroblast activation protein  
34 (FAP $\alpha$ ) were measured in adults with and without type 2 diabetes (T2D) following an oral glucose  
35 tolerance test (OGTT), and under a series of insulin and glucose clamp conditions and following  
36 high fat diet in healthy adults.

37 *Results:* Circulating total and bioactive FGF21 levels responded acutely to OGTT, and their ratio  
38 was attenuated in T2D patients with reduced postprandial insulin response. The clamp studies  
39 revealed that insulin but not glucose accounts for the postprandial rise in FGF21. Finally, there  
40 was an attenuated rise in FGF21 in response to a high fat dietary intervention that is known to  
41 alter insulin-stimulated substrate utilization in metabolically active tissues.

42 *Conclusions:* Insulin rather than glucose *per se* increases total and bioactive FGF21 in the  
43 postprandial period in adult humans. Understanding the impact of T2D on bioactive FGF21 will  
44 have a significant effect upon the efficacy of therapeutic agents designed to target the FGF21  
45 pathway.

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48

49 **Keywords:** FGF21, FAP $\alpha$ , glucose, insulin, type 2 diabetes, high fat diet

50

51 ***Precis***

52 Circulating FGF21 levels respond acutely to insulin but not glucose. A high fat diet impairs this  
53 response. The postprandial rise in the ratio of bioactive to total FGF21 is attenuated in T2D.

54

## 55 Introduction

56 Fibroblast growth factor 21 (FGF21) is a 181 amino acid (aa) hormone with significant potential  
57 for the treatment of type 2 diabetes (T2D)<sup>1,2</sup>. The therapeutic actions of FGF21 require binding  
58 of its N-terminus to the tyrosine kinase receptor, FGF receptor 1 (FGFR1) and its C-terminus to  
59 the co-receptor  $\beta$ klotho (KLB), forming the FGF21 receptor complex (FGFR1-KLB)<sup>3-5</sup>. Circulating  
60 FGF21 levels are driven primarily by hepatic production<sup>6,7</sup>, while other tissues including skeletal  
61 muscle and brown fat are able to contribute in response to specific stimuli<sup>8</sup>. In the obese and T2D  
62 states, FGF21 is elevated in the plasma, albeit demonstrating significant inter-individual  
63 variation<sup>9-12</sup>. Furthermore, increased circulating concentrations of FGF21 are associated with  
64 conditions characterized by increased circulating lipids and abnormal hepatic metabolism<sup>13-15</sup>.

65 Recently, FGF21 secretion has been shown to respond directly to carbohydrate consumption,  
66 with glucose, fructose and sucrose all reported to increase plasma levels of FGF21 in rodents and  
67 humans<sup>6,16-18</sup>. Studies in rodents suggested increased hepatic expression of carbohydrate  
68 responsive-element binding protein (ChREBP) as a mechanism for the increased plasma levels of  
69 FGF21 following fructose ingestion<sup>19</sup>. However, the mechanism by which glucose regulates FGF21  
70 levels in the postprandial period in adult humans has not been explored. Interestingly, in subjects  
71 diagnosed with metabolic syndrome (MetS), a greater increase in circulating FGF21 was reported  
72 when compared to healthy controls following oral glucose consumption. However, as this was  
73 accompanied with a greater blood glucose and insulin response in these subjects<sup>14</sup>, it is difficult  
74 to disentangle whether the induction of FGF21 following a glucose load is a result of the  
75 associated hyperglycemia and/or hyperinsulinemia. Furthermore, FGF21 has a relatively short

76 half-life (1-2h) and circulates in inactive [3-181 aa (16-30%), 5-181 aa (10-25%)] and bioactive [1-  
77 171 aa (10-34%)] forms in healthy participants<sup>3,20-22</sup>. The inactive form of FGF21 is generated via  
78 proteolytic cleavage of the C-terminus by fibroblast activation protein (FAP $\alpha$ ), a serine  
79 dipeptidase and member of the S9 family proteases<sup>23</sup>. Numerous studies have examined the  
80 impact of T2D on total FGF21 levels<sup>10,24</sup>, although it is not clear what effect T2D has on the  
81 bioactive form of FGF21. Understanding the impact of T2D on bioactive rather than total FGF21  
82 will have a significant effect upon the efficacy of therapeutic agents designed to target the FGF21  
83 pathway.

84 Therefore, the aim of the current study was to investigate the combined and independent effects  
85 of hyperglycemia and hyperinsulinemia on FGF21 in the postprandial period in adult humans,  
86 and to determine whether this effect is attenuated in conditions of altered insulin secretion and  
87 action. Furthermore, we assessed the levels of total and bioactive FGF21, in addition to FAP $\alpha$  in  
88 these states. Our findings suggest that FGF21 is an insulin-dependent postprandially regulated  
89 hormone in adult humans.

90

## 91 **Research Design and Methods**

### 92 **Subjects**

93 *Diabetes study.* Seven control subjects (age  $41.9 \pm 4.0$  yrs, BMI  $31.2 \pm 1.5$  kg/m<sup>2</sup>) and 7 patients  
94 with T2D (age  $48.3 \pm 2.3$  yrs and BMI  $28.5 \pm 1.3$  kg/m<sup>2</sup>) controlling their T2D with diet alone (n = 2)  
95 or metformin (n = 5; dose  $1300 \pm 300$  mg/d) participated. Patients were excluded if they were  
96 taking anti-hyperglycaemic medication other than metformin or presented with any secondary  
97 complications of T2D. Control subjects were excluded at a screening oral glucose tolerance test  
98 (OGTT) visit if their fasting blood glucose was  $>5.6$  mmol/l or 2 h blood glucose was  $>7.0$  mmol/l.

99 *Clamp studies.* Six healthy, non-obese male individuals [age  $23.2 \pm 2.4$  yrs, BMI  $23.9 \pm 1.0$  kg/m<sup>2</sup>]  
100 participated in the **hyperglycemic/hyperinsulinemic studies**, whereas 9 healthy males (age  $26.1 \pm$   
101  $2.8$  yrs, and BMI  $23.4 \pm 1.1$  kg/m<sup>2</sup>) were recruited for the **high fat study** (HF).

102 In all studies, subjects were informed of all procedures and risks associated with the experiments  
103 prior to obtaining written informed consent. All procedures were performed according to the  
104 Declaration of Helsinki and approved by the University of Nottingham Medical School Ethics  
105 Committee (Clamps studies) and the local NHS Research Ethics committee (Diabetes study).

### 106 **Experimental protocols**

107 *Diabetes study.* All subjects underwent an OGTT performed after consumption of an isocaloric diet  
108 for 72 h. They also refrained from strenuous exercise for 48 h before the visit. Patients with T2D  
109 that were using metformin did not take metformin on the morning of the trial. Subjects attended  
110 the laboratory after an overnight fast having consumed a standardized meal the evening before,

111 comprising of 55% carbohydrate, 30% fat, and 15% protein. At the start of the 2 h OGTT, subjects  
112 consumed 75 g dextrose dissolved in 300 ml water prepared on the morning of the trial.  
113 Arterialised blood samples were obtained from a dorsal hand vein of one arm (placed in a hot-air  
114 box maintained at 50-55°C) at baseline and every 30 min during the OGTT.

115 *Clamp studies.* On three randomised occasions, 2 weeks apart, after an overnight fast all 6 subjects  
116 underwent the following 4 h clamps: *(i)* hyperinsulinemic ( $78 \pm 3$  mU/l)-hyperglycemic ( $10.1 \pm 0.1$   
117 mmol/l) clamp (HIHG trial); *(ii)* euinsulinaemic ( $7.3 \pm 1.1$  mU/l)-hyperglycemic ( $10.4 \pm 0.1$  mmol/l)  
118 clamp (EIHG trial); *(iii)* hyperinsulinemic ( $76 \pm 2$  mU/l)-euglycaemic ( $4.4 \pm 0.1$  mmol/l) clamp (HIEG  
119 trial). On 2 occasions, infusion of human soluble insulin (Actrapid, Novo, Copenhagen, Denmark)  
120 into an antecubital vein on one arm commenced at a rate of  $50 \text{ mU m}^{-2} \text{ min}^{-1}$  and continued  
121 throughout each clamp, with 20% dextrose infused at a variable rate to maintain blood glucose  
122 concentrations at either euglycaemic (HIEG trial) or hyperglycaemic (HIHG trial) levels, respectively.  
123 On both occasions, infusion of somatostatin at 500 mg/h (to inhibit endogenous insulin secretion),  
124 and replacement infusion of glucagon ( $0.7 \text{ ng kg}^{-1} \text{ min}^{-1}$ ) started 30 min before dextrose infusion.  
125 On a third occasion, 20% dextrose was infused at a variable rate to maintain blood glucose  
126 concentration at the designated level (EIHG trial). Infusion of somatostatin at 500 mg/h and basal  
127 replacement infusions of glucagon ( $0.7 \text{ ng kg}^{-1} \text{ min}^{-1}$ ) and insulin ( $5 \text{ mU m}^{-2} \text{ min}^{-1}$ ) started 30 min  
128 before dextrose infusion. On all occasions, arterialised blood samples were obtained from a dorsal  
129 vein from the non-dominant hand at baseline and every 5 min for the determination of blood  
130 glucose concentrations, and every 60 min for hormone concentrations.

131 *High fat study.* All subjects underwent two 7-day trials, at least 2 weeks apart, in a randomised  
132 cross-over design. On each occasion, subjects consumed for 6 days either a high fat [(HF) 76.7 ±  
133 0.4% Energy as Fat] or normal diet [(CON) 32.3 ± 0.7% Fat]. On day 7, after an overnight fast,  
134 subjects underwent a 4 h hyperinsulinemic (CON: 71.8 ± 3.5 and HF: 70.0 ± 3.5 mU/L)-euglycemic  
135 (4.5 ± 0.2 mmol/l) clamp as described above. Arterialised blood samples were obtained at baseline  
136 and every 5 min for the determination of blood glucose concentration, and before and after each  
137 clamp for the determination of hormone concentrations.

### 138 ***Blood analysis***

139 In all studies, blood glucose concentrations were determined using a Yellow Springs Instrument  
140 Analyzer (YSI, 2300 STAT PLUS). Serum were separated by centrifugation (15 min at 3,000 g) and  
141 analyzed for insulin concentrations by radioimmunoassay (Diagnostics Products Corporation,  
142 Llanberis, Wales, UK), and total FGF21 (Biovendor, Research and Diagnostics products, Czech  
143 Republic), bioactive FGF21 (Eagle Biosciences, USA) and FAP $\alpha$  (Abcam, USA) concentrations by  
144 enzyme-linked immunoassays (ELISA).

### 145 **Statistics**

146 All data are expressed as means ± SEM. Data from each study were analyzed via two-way ANOVA  
147 and Tukey's post-hoc test. P < 0.05 was considered significant.

148



149 **Results**

150 **Baseline blood measurements**

151 T2D subjects had higher fasting blood glucose concentrations when compared to non-diabetic  
152 controls ( $6.7 \pm 0.4$  vs.  $4.4 \pm 0.2$  mmol/l;  $P < 0.01$ ) but similar fasting insulin levels ( $12.0 \pm 1.0$  vs.  
153  $13.9 \pm 2.3$  mU/L) (Table 1). Despite higher fasting levels of FAP $\alpha$  in T2D patients compared with  
154 controls ( $168.4 \pm 12.1$  vs.  $134.3 \pm 11.8$  ng/ml;  $P < 0.05$ ), there was no difference in fasting levels  
155 of total or bioactive FGF21 (Table 1). **No correlation was observed between baseline levels of**  
156 **FAP $\alpha$  and FGF21 (bioactive, total or their ratio).**

157 **Blood glucose and insulin responses to OGTT**

158 In non-diabetic and T2D subjects, oral administration of a 75 g dextrose solution increased both  
159 circulating glucose (Fig 1A) and insulin (Fig 1B). Despite a higher increase in circulating glucose,  
160 the effect on insulin secretion was significantly attenuated in the T2D group (Fig 1A and B). To  
161 determine whether a postprandial rise of FGF21 occurred in response to OGTT, we measured  
162 circulating FGF21 levels (total and bioactive) in both groups.

163 **FGF21 is a postprandial hormone that is impaired in T2D**

164 In contrast to the rapid elevation of circulating glucose and insulin, total FGF21 was not increased  
165 ( $P < 0.01$ ) until 120 min (Fig 2A). Notably, this late induction of total FGF21 was mirrored by an  
166 increase ( $P < 0.01$ ) in the bioactive form of FGF21 after 90 and 120 min (Fig 2B). There was no  
167 effect of dextrose ingestion on circulating FAP $\alpha$  throughout the OGTT (Fig 2D). Taken together,  
168 these data indicated that the postprandial rise in total FGF21 following dextrose consumption is

169 accompanied by a proportional increase in bioactive FGF21 and elevated glucose and insulin  
170 levels.

171 Although there was no significant difference in the postprandial rise in total and bioactive FGF21  
172 between the non-diabetic (control) and T2D groups (Fig 2A and B), the ratio of bioactive to total  
173 FGF21 responded differently over time ( $P < 0.05$ ) with a significant increase observed in the  
174 control subjects that was impaired in patients with T2D (Fig 2C). In line with the lower ratio of  
175 bioactive to total FGF21, circulating FAP $\alpha$  concentrations remained higher ( $P < 0.05$ ) in T2D  
176 subjects throughout the OGTT (Fig 2D). Thus, here we report that the normal postprandial rise in  
177 the ratio of bioactive to total FGF21 is attenuated in T2D patients and this effect is associated  
178 with both reduced postprandial insulin concentrations and increased circulating levels of the  
179 protease FAP $\alpha$ . However, based on our OGTT data, we could not distinguish whether the  
180 induction of FGF21 following dextrose consumption was a result of increased levels of circulating  
181 glucose and/or insulin.

## 182 **FGF21 is an insulin-dependent postprandial hormone**

183 To determine directly whether glucose and/or insulin account for the postprandial rise in  
184 circulating FGF21 following dextrose consumption, we assessed FGF21 in blood from healthy  
185 volunteers collected during 4 h of HIHG, HIEG and EIHG clamps. The magnitude of  
186 hyperinsulinemia and hyperglycemia achieved in those clamps was within the range of blood  
187 glucose and insulin levels typically seen after oral carbohydrate administration. Consistent with  
188 the OGTT data in non-diabetic volunteers, there was a clear time-dependent effect of the HIHG  
189 clamp on FGF21. Total circulating levels of FGF21 and its bioactive form were increased ( $P < 0.01$ )

190 after 3 h of infusion (Fig 3A and D). There was also an increase ( $P < 0.01$ ) in total and bioactive  
191 FGF21 following the HIEG clamps (Fig 3B and E). In contrast, there was no effect of the EIHG  
192 clamps on total or bioactive FGF21 levels (Fig 3C and F). There was no difference between trials  
193 in the bioactive to total FGF21 ratio or circulating FAP $\alpha$  (Fig. 3G-I). Taken together with results  
194 collected in non-diabetic and diabetic patients during the OGTT, these data suggest that the rise  
195 in total and bioactive FGF21 that occurs following dextrose ingestion is facilitated by the  
196 corresponding increase in circulating insulin levels.

### 197 **Insulin-mediated secretion of FGF21 is impaired following high fat feeding**

198 Short-term HF in humans has been shown to alter insulin-stimulated substrate utilization in  
199 metabolically active tissues without inducing peripheral insulin resistance<sup>25,26</sup>. Thus, to  
200 investigate whether the rise in circulating FGF21 in response to insulin was altered under such  
201 conditions, we analyzed the levels of total and bioactive FGF21, and FAP $\alpha$ , before and after a 4 h  
202 hyperinsulinemic-euglycemic clamp in human subjects following a normal or HF for 6 consecutive  
203 days. As expected, insulin-stimulated CHO oxidation rate was 20% lower and fat oxidation 60%  
204 higher in HF compared with Control, and there was no effect of treatment on peripheral glucose  
205 uptake. High fat feeding *per se* (prior to performing the insulin clamps) did not alter fasting levels  
206 of either total or bioactive FGF21 (Fig 4A and B) nor FAP $\alpha$  (data not shown). In line with the clamp  
207 studies described above, subjects receiving the control diet demonstrated a robust induction of  
208 FGF21 in response to insulin ( $P < 0.01$ ). However, following the HF diet, the response to insulin  
209 clamp was impaired resulting in lower ( $P < 0.05$ ) total FGF21 levels (Fig 4A) and a tendency ( $P =$

210 0.09) for lower bioactive form (Fig. 4B) when compared with the control diet. The ratio of  
211 bioactive to total FGF21 was unaffected.

212

213 **Discussion**

214 This study demonstrates, for the first time, that circulating bioactive FGF21 levels respond acutely  
215 to changes in insulin *per se*, rather than glycaemia, in the postprandial period. In particular, there  
216 were 4 main findings. Firstly, we found that fasting total and bioactive FGF21 levels are similar in  
217 non-diabetic and T2D subjects, despite higher fasting levels of FAP $\alpha$  in T2D patients. Secondly,  
218 the normal postprandial increase in the ratio of bioactive to total FGF21 is impaired in T2D  
219 patients with attenuated insulin response to OGTT when compared to non-diabetic individuals.  
220 Thirdly, we demonstrate, in a series of clamp studies that are consistent with the OGTT data, that  
221 there is a clear time-dependent effect of the hyperinsulinemic-euglycemic clamp on FGF21 (both  
222 total and bioactive). This effect is lost in the euinsulinemic-hyperglycemic clamp. These data  
223 suggest the rise in total and bioactive FGF21 that occurs following dextrose ingestion is a  
224 consequence of the increase in insulin secretion. Finally, in response to a high fat dietary  
225 intervention that is known to alter insulin-stimulated substrate utilization, the response in  
226 circulating FGF21 is attenuated. Confirming the mechanism by which insulin regulates secretion  
227 of FGF21 and the subsequent tissue specific actions of FGF21 will require further investigation.

228 Recently, excess dietary carbohydrate had been shown to increase FGF21 secretion in healthy  
229 humans<sup>18</sup>. Furthermore, fructose ingestion briefly increased plasma total FGF21 concentration  
230 at 2 h, returning to baseline within 5 h<sup>6</sup>. This increase was correlated with elevated levels of  
231 circulating glucose and insulin. Baseline levels of total FGF21 have been previously shown to be  
232 elevated in subjects with MetS that also exhibit exaggerated glucose and insulin responses to an  
233 oral glucose load<sup>24</sup>.

234 Studies in rodents have also implicated carbohydrates in FGF21 induction; 12 h sucrose feeding  
235 (following a 24 h fast) was shown to induce insulin and FGF21 mRNA in rat liver<sup>27</sup>. Whilst glucose-  
236 induced increases in FGF21 gene expression in hepatocytes and mouse liver were mediated via  
237 the transcription factor ChREBP (a notion supported by no change in FGF21 content in plasma of  
238 ChREBP KO mice in response to various sugars), it was suggested that glucose-stimulated FGF21  
239 mRNA expression may require insulin action<sup>28</sup>. In support of this notion, FGF21 expression was  
240 upregulated by insulin in a PI3-kinase-dependent manner in cultured C2C12 myocytes and 3T3-  
241 L1 adipocytes<sup>29</sup>. Our data demonstrates the importance of insulin, rather than glucose *per se*, in  
242 regulating secretion of FGF21 in adult humans. Interestingly, the normal postprandial increase in  
243 the ratio of bioactive to total FGF21 is impaired in T2D patients with attenuated insulin response  
244 to OGTT when compared to non-diabetic individuals. Whether this is a consequence of reduced  
245 insulin levels *per se* or resistance to the action of insulin requires further investigation. Although  
246 FGF21 is synthesized in multiple organs and can act on multiple tissues in either a paracrine or  
247 endocrine fashion, the major site of FGF21 production is the liver<sup>7</sup>. Therefore, it is possible that  
248 hepatic insulin resistance in subjects with MetS, non-alcoholic fatty liver disease or diabetes may  
249 play an important role in the regulation of FGF21 by insulin, which may also explain the significant  
250 inter-individual variation in its levels in those populations.

251 FAP has an extensive tissue expression profile in addition to circulating in the blood of mice, non-  
252 human primates and humans<sup>22,23,30,31</sup>. The importance of FAP's actions were demonstrated *in*  
253 *vitro*, where deletion of more than 4 amino acids from the C-terminus of FGF21 significantly  
254 attenuates KLB binding affinity, and *in vivo* where the metabolic actions of FGF21 are diminished  
255 in the absence of KLB binding<sup>7,16,32-35</sup>. Interestingly, FAP is homologous (48% sequence identity)

256 to dipeptidyl peptidase-4<sup>36</sup> (DPP4), the therapeutic target of the antidiabetic DPP4 inhibitor<sup>37</sup>.  
257 However, while FAP $\alpha$  activity has been shown to increase in liver and plasma from patients with  
258 liver disease<sup>23</sup>, the impact of MetS on FAP $\alpha$  activity, and hence FGF21 biology, remains largely  
259 unknown. Here we demonstrate for the first time that in T2D, levels of FAP $\alpha$  are increased when  
260 compared to non-diabetic controls. Interestingly, Talabostat (TB), a known FAP inhibitor, reduced  
261 body weight and food intake, increased energy expenditure, and improved glucose tolerance and  
262 insulin sensitivity in diet-induced obese mice where total and bioactive plasma FGF21 were  
263 observed to be elevated. Interestingly, these effects were attenuated in FGF21 knockout  
264 animals<sup>38</sup>. TB was previously pursued as an anti-cancer treatment and was found to be safe to  
265 support repeated dosing in human clinical trials<sup>39</sup>. Whilst TB is not selective to FAP, further  
266 studies in humans are required to evaluate the use of FAP inhibitors as relevant treatment  
267 strategy in T2D patients, particularly as FGF21 improves MetS in humans<sup>1,40</sup>.

268 In summary, we employed a physiological and dietary strategy in human subjects which revealed  
269 a stimulatory effect of insulin on FGF21 secretion. We demonstrate that dextrose ingestion  
270 acutely and robustly increases total and bioactive FGF21 in humans. The normal postprandial rise  
271 in the ratio of bioactive to total FGF21 is impaired in T2D patients that have attenuated insulin  
272 response to OGTT. The effect of insulin, rather than glucose *per se*, on FGF21 was confirmed in a  
273 series of insulin and glucose clamp experiments, in addition to the HF study, suggesting that  
274 FGF21 secretion is regulated by insulin and is therefore a postprandial hormone in adult humans.

275

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280

281 ***Author Contributions***

282 RJS, JEL, LN, CJG, FBS and KT designed the study, carried out the experiments and researched  
283 data (with additional input by TB, DS, CC and JWP). JEL, RJS, FJPE and KT wrote the manuscript.  
284 All of the authors reviewed and edited the manuscript.

285

286 ***Conflicts of interest***

287 RJS, ACA, CC, TB, DS and JWPII are employees of Eli Lilly and Company.

288



**Table 1: Anthropometric characteristics and baseline blood biochemistry data**

	<b>Control</b>	<b>T2D</b>
Subjects	n = 7	n = 7
Age (years)	41.9 ± 4.0	48.3 ± 2.3
Body mass index (kg/m <sup>2</sup> )	31.2 ± 1.5	28.5 ± 1.3
Fasting plasma glucose (mmol/l)	4.4 ± 0.2	6.7 ± 0.4 <sup>a</sup>
Fasting plasma insulin (mU/L)	13.9 ± 2.3	12.0 ± 1.0
Fasting total FGF21 (pg/ml)	99.7 ± 16.2	117.0 ± 28.1
Fasting bioactive FGF21 (pg/ml)	68.3 ± 18.5	53.5 ± 23.1
Fasting FAP $\alpha$ (ng/ml)	134.3 ± 11.8	168.4 ± 12.1 <sup>#</sup>

Values are means ± SEM obtained in the fasted state; <sup>a</sup>P < 0.01 & <sup>#</sup>P < 0.05 from Con (n = 7)

290 **Figure legends**

291 **Figure 1.** Effect of oral administration of dextrose on circulating glucose (A) and insulin (B). Data  
292 are means  $\pm$  SEM; <sup>#</sup>P < 0.05 from control (n = 7).

293 **Figure 2.** Effect of OGTT on circulating total (A) and bioactive (B) FGF21, the ratio of bioactive to  
294 total FGF21 (C) and FAP $\alpha$  (D). Data are means  $\pm$  SEM; \*P < 0.05 from 0 min; \*\*P < 0.01  
295 from 0 min; <sup>#</sup>P < 0.05 from T2D (n = 7).

296 **Figure 3.** Effect of hyperinsulinemic–hyperglycemic, hyperinsulinemic-euglycemic and  
297 euinsulinemic-hyperglycemic clamps on circulating total (A, B and C) and bioactive FGF21  
298 (D, E and F), and FAP $\alpha$  (G, H and I). Data are means  $\pm$  SEM; \*P < 0.05 from Pre; \*\*P < 0.01  
299 from Pre; (n = 6).

300 **Figure 4.** Circulating total (A) and bioactive (B) FGF21 before (Pre Diet) and after (Post Diet) 6  
301 days of either a High Fat or Control diet. The Post Diet values were obtained in the fasting  
302 state on Day 7 immediately before a 4 h insulin clamp and were also used as baseline  
303 values (Pre clamp) to assess the effect of treatment on insulin-stimulated secretion of  
304 total and bioactive FGF21 (Post Clamp data). Data are means  $\pm$  SEM; \*\*P < 0.01 from Pre;  
305 <sup>#</sup>P < 0.05 from Control (n = 9).

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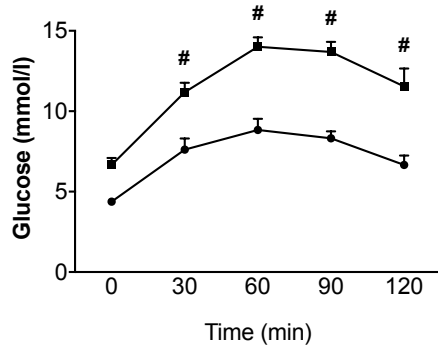
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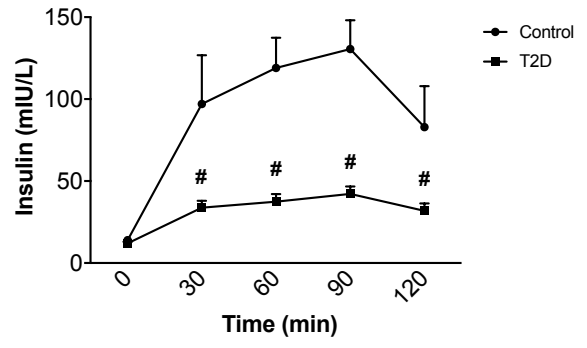


**Fig. 1**

**A**

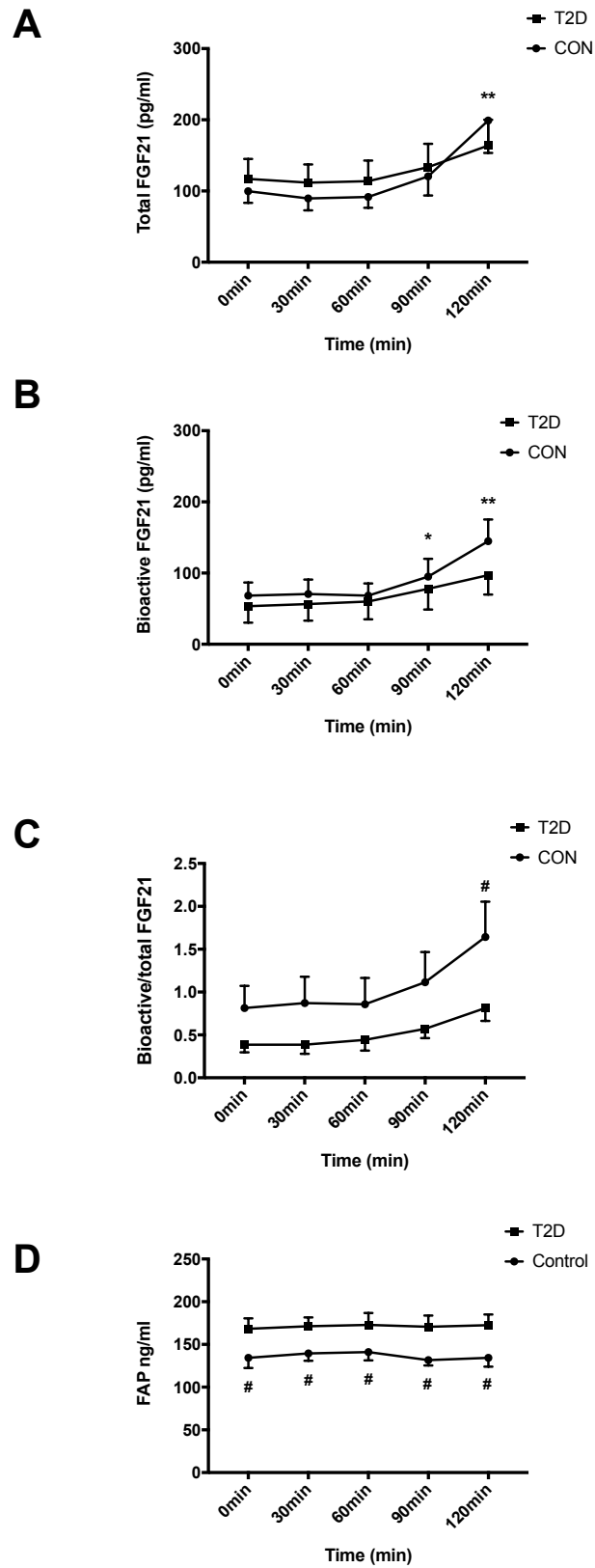


**B**

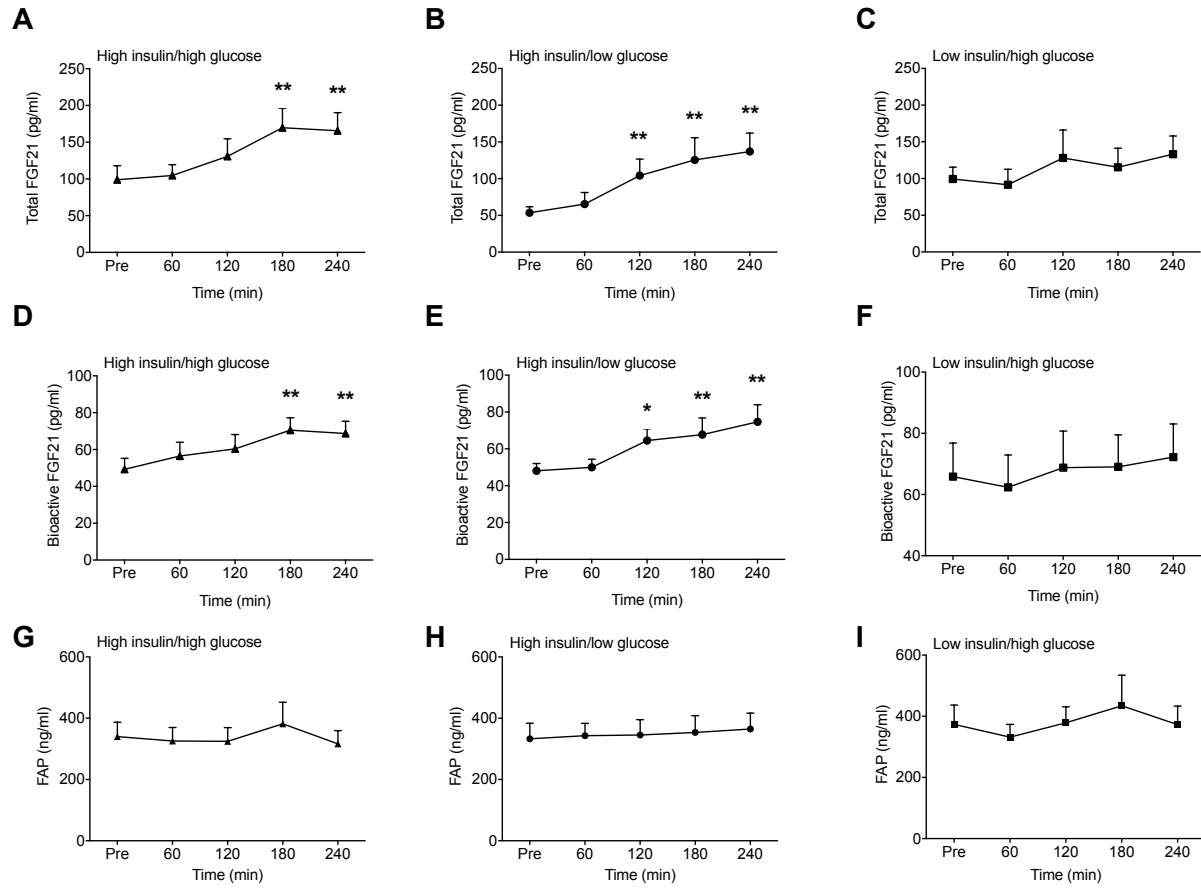


421

Fig. 2



**Fig 3**



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Fig. 4

