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Reduction of endoplasmic reticulum stress using chemical chaperones or Grp78 overexpression does not protect muscle cells from palmitate-induced insulin resistance.

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# These authors contributed equally to this work

Running title

Palmitate induces ER stress in myotubes
Abstract

Endoplasmic reticulum (ER) stress is proposed as a novel link between elevated fatty acids levels, obesity and insulin resistance in liver and adipose tissue. However, it is unknown whether ER stress also contributes to lipid-induced insulin resistance in skeletal muscle, the major tissue responsible of insulin-stimulated glucose disposal. Here, we investigated the possible role of ER stress in palmitate-induced alterations of insulin action, both in vivo, in gastrocnemius of high-palm diet fed mice, and in vitro, in palmitate-treated C2C12 myotubes. We demonstrated that eight weeks of high-palm diet increased the expression of ER stress markers in muscle of mice, whereas ex-vivo insulin-stimulated PKB phosphorylation was not altered in this tissue. In addition, Exposure of C2C12 myotubes to either tuncamycine or palmitate induced ER stress and altered insulin-stimulated PKB phosphorylation. However, alleviation of ER stress by either TUDCA or 4-PBA treatments, or by overexpressing Grp78, did not restore palmitate-induced reduction of insulin-stimulated PKB phosphorylation in C2C12 myotubes. This work highlights that, even ER stress is associated with palmitate-induced alterations of insulin signaling, ER stress is likely not the major culprit of this effect in myotubes, suggesting that the previously proposed link between ER stress and insulin resistance is less important in skeletal muscle than in adipose tissue and liver.
Introduction

Insulin resistance (IR) is a hallmark feature of type 2 diabetes and obesity. Since skeletal muscle is the major tissue responsible for whole body insulin-stimulated glucose disposal, defective action of insulin in this tissue is thought to play a major role in the aetiology of both pathologies. A key cause of muscle IR is lipotoxicity. Obese and diabetic patients have elevated plasma levels of free fatty acids (FFA) [1], and acute infusion of lipids interferes with insulin signaling [2]. In addition, muscle IR correlates with accumulation of triglycerides within skeletal muscle fibers [3], and acute incubation of myotubes with saturated lipids alters insulin signaling [4]. Potential candidates mediating the effects of saturated fatty acids on IR include 1) an increase in production of ceramides and accumulation of diacylglycerol leading to the activation of PKC [5], 2) mitochondrial dysfunction and increased oxidative stress [6], 3) inflammation and activation of the pro-inflammatory NfkB and mitogen-activated kinases [7] and 4) endoplasmic reticulum stress and activation of the unfolded response (UPR) [8]. Although these mechanisms could occur simultaneously and act synergistically, the molecular causes that lead to skeletal muscle IR remain elusive.

Recently, ER stress has been proposed as a central mechanism in the development of IR in liver and adipose tissue [9]. ER stress describes the accumulation of misfolded proteins that aggregate in the ER. ER stress activates the unfolded protein response (UPR) pathways in order to restore ER homeostasis. The UPR pathways was activated in liver and adipose tissue of both diet-induced and genetically ob/ob mice [8], and lipid-induced ER stress in both tissues lead to inhibition of insulin signaling [10]. Interestingly, treatment of diabetic mice with inhibitors of ER stress, such as 4-phenyl butyric acid (4-PBA) or tauroursodeoxycholic acid (TUDCA), reduced IR and restored glucose homeostasis [11]. Surprising, less is known about the role of ER stress in skeletal muscle IR. Early studies suggested that muscle ER stress is unaffected in obesity [11]. However, more recent studies demonstrated that exposure to palmitate can induce ER stress in human primary myotubes [12]. Similarly, high-fat feeding was able to activate the unfolded protein response in skeletal muscle of
mice [13]. However, it is unknown whether this induction of ER stress in the presence of lipids is directly involved in muscle IR.

Here, we investigated the role of ER stress in palmitate-induced IR both in high-palm diet fed mice and in C2C12 myotubes. We used complementary strategies to control palmitate-induced ER stress and determine the impact on palmitate-induced alterations of insulin signaling. Our results demonstrate that reduction of ER stress by chemical chaperones or glucose-response protein 78 (Grp78) overexpression does not improve palmitate-induced IR in skeletal muscle cells.
Material and methods

Animals. Animals were purchased from Harlan (Gannat, France) and housed under controlled temperature and humidity. All animal experiments were conducted in accordance with institutional guidelines for the care and use of laboratory animals, and regional ethic committee has approved protocols. Male C57BL/6 (6 weeks) were fed during 8 weeks either with a standard diet (SAFE, A04) or with a palm oil-enriched diet (80% A04 + 20% palm oil, palm oil was a generous gift from the French Institute of Fat and Oils and diet was prepared by SAFE). After 8 weeks, mice were sacrificed and gastrocnemius muscles were frozen. Blood glucose levels were measured using a glucometer (Roche Diagnostics). For the study of insulin signaling ex-vivo, muscles were cut into small pieces and incubated with or without insulin (10^{-7} M) for 20 minutes at 37°C [14].

C2C12 cells. C2C12 myoblasts were grown in DMEM supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum under 5% CO_2 at 37°C. Differentiation into myotubes were induced by reducing the serum to 2%. C2C12 myotubes were used after 7 days of differentiation.

FFA preparation and cell treatment. Palmitate and oleate (Sigma) stock solution were prepared at 8 mM in 10% fatty acid-free BSA at 50°C. This stock solution was diluted in serum-free culture medium to a final concentration of 200-700 µM. Tunicamycine (5µg/ml, Sigma) was dissolved in DMSO and used as a positive control for induction of ER stress. To inhibit ER stress, C2C12 myotubes were pre-treated for 9 hours with TUDCA (Calbiochem, 500µg/ml) or 4-PBA (Sigma, 20mM). Alternatively, alleviation of ER stress was performed by adenovirus-overexpression of the chaperone Grp78 [15]. Briefly, C2C12 myotubes were infected either with an adenovirus encoding GFP (as control) or Grp78 for 48 hours (10^8 p.i./well), and incubated with BSA or palmitate for 18 hours. For the analysis of insulin signaling, treated myotubes were incubated with or without 10^{-7}M of insulin for 20 minutes.
**Real time RT-PCR.** Total RNA from muscles or C$_2$C$_{12}$ cells were purified using the TriReagent kit (Applied biosystems). Target mRNA levels were measured by reverse transcription followed by real-time PCR using a Rotor-Gene™ 6000 (Corbett Research). Each essay was performed in duplicate, and values were normalized using TATA binding protein (TBP).

**Western blot.** Muscle biopsies were lysed in PBS containing 1% NP40, 0.5% sodium deoxycholate, 0.1% SDS, and protease inhibitor cocktail, and C$_2$C$_{12}$ cells in a buffer containing 200mM NaF, 20mM NaH$_2$PO$_4$, 150mM NaCl, 50mM HEPES, 4mM NaVO$_4$, 10mM EDTA, and 2mM PMSF, with 1% Triton X, 10% glycerol and protease inhibitor cocktail. Proteins were separated by SDS-10% PAGE, transferred to PVDF membrane, and incubated overnight with primary antibodies. The signal was detected with a horseradish peroxidase-conjugated secondary antibody and revealed with an enhanced chemiluminescence’s system (Pierce).

**Statistical analyses.** All data are presented as means ± SEM. Statistical significance was calculated according to unpaired Student’s $t$ test. The threshold for significance was set at $P < 0.05$. 
Results

High palm oil diet induces ER stress in skeletal muscle

We fed male C57Bl/6 mice with a standard diet (SD, 3% lipids) or a diet enriched in 20% of palm oil (HPD), in order to measure the repercussions on skeletal muscle ER stress and insulin sensitivity. After 8 weeks of feeding, HPD mice had similar body weight than SD mice (+4.6%, NS), but showed significant hyperglycemia (+54%, p<0.01). Concerning ER stress, UPR markers were clearly higher in muscle of HPD mice than in SD mice. HPD significantly increased the mRNA levels of Grp78 (254%, p=0.01), the spliced form of Xbp1 (sXbp1) (169%, p=0.02), the activating transcription factor 3 (ATF3) (211%, p=0.03) and the activating transcription factor 4 (ATF4) (131%, p=0.04) (Fig. 1A). However, the mRNA level of C/EBP-homologous protein (CHOP), a late marker of ER stress, was not significantly modified by HPD compared to SD (Fig. 1A, p=0.28). The protein levels of Grp78 were also induced by HPD (Fig. 1B, p<0.05), confirming the induction of ER stress at protein level. To measure specifically muscle insulin sensitivity, we performed ex-vivo incubations of gastrocnemius muscle with or without insulin and analyzed insulin-stimulated PKB phosphorylation. As illustrated on Fig. 1C, both basal and insulin-stimulated PKB phosphorylation was not modified in HPD mice compared to SD mice, indicating that 8 weeks of 20% HPD is not sufficient to induce alterations of insulin signaling. All these data suggest that HPD-induced ER stress in skeletal muscle may precede or be unrelated to muscle IR.

Palmitate induces ER stress in C2C12 myotubes

To further understand the relationship between muscle ER stress and IR, we investigated the effects of palmitate in C2C12 myotubes. Firstly, we measured the effect of tunicamycin (Tn, 5μg/ml), an inhibitor or N-linked glycosylation, on ER stress markers to ensure that the induction of UPR signaling could be measured in these cells. As illustrated on Sup. Fig. 1A, Tn induced a marked increase of mRNA levels of Grp78 (20 fold), sXbp1 (60 fold), and CHOP (90 fold) after 6 hours of incubation. Similarly, Grp78 protein levels, as well as the phosphorylation of eIF2α, were significantly induced by 18 hours of Tn treatment (Sup. Fig. 1B). Then, we determined whether
palmitate incubation induced the same response. As shown in Fig. 2A, 200 µM palmitate significantly increased mRNA levels of all UPR markers after 6 hours of incubation, while higher concentration (700µM, 6 hours) of palmitate had more pronounced effects. At both concentrations, palmitate did not increase caspase 3 activity (data not shown), indicating that palmitate did not induce apoptosis of C₂C₁₂ myotubes. We then investigated time-dependent effect of palmitate on UPR marker expression. As shown in Fig. 2B, mRNA levels of all UPR markers were maximally increased by palmitate (700µM) after 18 hours of incubation, expect for the splicing of Xbp1 that reached more rapidly the maximum levels (9 hours). Interestingly, expression of all UPR markers returned to initial levels after 48 hours of incubation (Fig. 2B), indicating that palmitate induces a transient ER stress in C₂C₁₂ cells. Palmitate (200µM, 18 hours) significantly increased Grp78 protein levels (5 fold, p<0.0005), and stimulated the phosphorylation of eIF2α (1.4 fold, p<0.01) in C₂C₁₂ cells (Fig. 2C). At opposite, oleate, a monounsaturated fatty acids, did not induce ER stress in C₂C₁₂ cells and co-incubation of cells with plamitate and oleate prevented palmitate-induced ER stress (Fig. 2D). All together these results clearly demonstrate that palmitate specifically induces ER stress in C₂C₁₂ cells.

**Palmitate alters insulin signaling in C₂C₁₂ myotubes**

To estimate ER stress effects on insulin signaling, we measured the ability of both Tn and palmitate to alter insulin-stimulated PKB phosphorylation in C₂C₁₂ cells. Tn treatment (5µg/ml; 18 hours) significantly inhibited insulin-stimulated PKB phosphorylation (Sup. Fig. 1C). Interestingly, palmitate (700µM, 18 hours) also markedly reduced insulin-stimulated PKB phosphorylation in C₂C₁₂ cells (Fig. 2E). Treatment with oleate did not affect insulin-stimulated PKB phosphorylation (Sup. Fig. 1D), indicating that the effect on insulin signaling is specific to palmitate. These results suggested therefore that palmitate-induced ER stress is associated to palmitate-mediated alterations of insulin signaling.

**Prevention of ER stress does not improve palmitate-induced alterations of insulin signaling**

To investigate whether ER stress is involved in palmitate-induced alterations of insulin signaling, we firstly examined the effect of both TUDCA and 4-PBA, chemical chaperones known to
relieve ER stress and to improve insulin sensitivity [11], C\textsubscript{2}C\textsubscript{12} cells were pre-incubated with TUDCA (500 µg/ml) for 9 hours and then treated with or without Tn or palmitate during 18 hours. The phosphorylation of eIF2α was measured as an indicator of ER stress level. As expected, TUDCA pre-treatment significantly reduced Tn-induced eIF2α phosphorylation (Sup. Fig. 2A), as well as palmitate-induced eIF2α phosphorylation (Sup. Fig. 2B). Regarding insulin signaling, TUDCA treatment did not improve the palmitate-induced reduction of insulin-stimulated PKB phosphorylation (Fig. 3A).

As for TUDCA, we initially pre-treated C\textsubscript{2}C\textsubscript{12} cells with 4-PBA (20mM) for 9 hours, before incubation with palmitate. However, we noted a toxic effect of the combined 4-PBA and palmitate treatment on C\textsubscript{2}C\textsubscript{12} cells (data not shown). To overcome this problem, we then pre-treated cells during 9 hours with 4-PBA and remove it by changing the culture medium before palmitate (or Tn) treatment. Under these conditions, 4-PBA significantly reduced Tn-induced eIF2α phosphorylation (Sup. Fig. 3A), and improved Tn-induced reduction of PKB phosphorylation (Sup. Fig. 3B). Importantly, while PBA reduced palmitate-induced eIF2α phosphorylation (Sup. Fig. 3C), it did not counteract palmitate-induced reduction of insulin-stimulated PKB phosphorylation (Fig. 3B).

Lastly, we used an alternative strategy to mitigate ER stress, by overexpressing the chaperone Grp78, as previously reported [15]. As shown on Sup. Fig. 3D, adenoviral overexpression of Grp78 significantly reduced palmitate-induced UPR markers compared to cells treated with GFP containing adenovirus, indicating that Grp78 is effective to reduce ER stress in muscle cells. However, the overexpression of Grp78 did not improve palmitate-induced reduction of insulin-stimulated PKB phosphorylation (Fig. 3C).

All together, these results demonstrated that three different strategies to reduce ER stress signaling were not able to improve palmitate-induced alterations of insulin signaling in muscle cells.
Discussion

Whereas altered lipid metabolism is certainly associated with skeletal muscle IR, the exact molecular mechanisms by which saturated FFA, such as palmitate, induces alterations of insulin signaling in this tissue is unclear. Surprisingly, whereas ER stress has been proposed as a central mechanism in the development of IR in liver and adipose tissue [9], there is yet no data on the implication of ER stress in muscle IR. We investigated therefore the possible role of ER stress in lipid-induced alterations of insulin signaling in myotubes.

We demonstrated, both in vivo and in vitro, that palmitate activates the UPR pathways in skeletal muscle, suggesting that muscle cells are sensitive to palmitate-induced ER stress as recently suggested in mice [13; 16]. However, another study in human indicated that 6 weeks of overfeeding with high-fat diet did not affect the expression of ER stress markers in skeletal muscle of young, lean and physically active men [17]. The discrepancy between these results is not related to a species difference, since exposure of human myotubes to palmitate also induced the expression of ER stress markers [12]. Therefore, differences in lipid-induced ER stress are most likely due to the lipid’s quantity or quality used in these studies. In agreement, we observed that monounsaturated fatty acids, such as oleate, does not induced the expression of ER stress markers, and even could prevent palmitate-induced ER stress, in agreement with a recent study in L6 myotubes [13].

ER stress is well described to dampen insulin-signaling pathways in liver and adipose tissue. We demonstrated that Tn-induced ER stress is associated with reduced insulin-stimulated PKB phosphorylation and alleviation of Tn-induced ER stress by 4-PBA treatment is sufficient to improve insulin signaling in C2C12 cells. Consequently, ER stress could be a molecular mechanism of IR in skeletal muscle. In a similar manner, palmitate-induced ER stress is associated with a reduction of insulin-stimulated PKB phosphorylation in C2C12 myotubes. However, reduction of ER stress signaling by chemical chaperones, such as TUDCA and 4-PBA, or by the overexpression of Grp78 did not improve palmitate-induced reduction of insulin-stimulated PKB phosphorylation. Even we can not exclude that three strategies independently did not inhibit all UPR pathways, the fact that each
treatment produced the same type of results on insulin signaling, strongly suggests that ER stress is probably not a major player in palmitate-induced insulin resistance in muscle cells. In addition, this is also supported by our in vivo data demonstrating that increased expression of ER stress markers in muscle of HPD fed mice is not associated with altered insulin-stimulated PKB phosphorylation.

Insulin receptor substrates (IRS), which are normally phosphorylated on tyrosine by insulin, are phosphorylated on serine in lipotoxic states, and this in turn abrogates the insulin signal. Among the IRS-modifying enzymes, stress activated kinases such as c-Jun N-terminal kinase (JNK) [18], inhibitor of kappa B kinase (IKK) [19], PKC [5] and double stranded RNA-dependent protein kinase (PKR) [20] have been reported to inhibit insulin action by serine phosphorylation of IRS-1. In both liver and adipose tissue, ER stress dampened insulin signaling by increasing JNK activity, and chemical chaperones improved insulin sensitivity by blocking ER stress-mediated JNK activation [8; 11]. Why the same chaperone treatments were not effective on insulin signaling in myotubes is unclear. We can hypothesize that palmitate could induce muscle IR independently of JNK activation, by acting directly on IRS-1 through the activation of other stress-related kinases. Alternatively, palmitate could alter insulin action at the level of PKB, independently of an effect on IRS1 serine phosphorylation. In agreement, it was reported that palmitate-induced reduction of insulin-stimulated PKB phosphorylation was not due to a reduction of the upstream insulin pathways, but was attributable to an increased synthesis of ceramides and the subsequent activation of PKCzeta [21]. In addition, palmitate was also reported to alter mitochondria [22] and to induce oxidative stress [14; 23] in muscle. Because mitochondrial dysfunction has been associated with IR [6; 14] palmitate-induced alterations of mitochondria may explain why reducing ER stress is not efficient to improve insulin signaling in myotubes. In agreement, palmitate-induced oxidative stress contributed to the loss in insulin-stimulated phosphorylation of PKB [23]. Lastly, palmitate can be incorporated in ER phospholipids membranes leading to modifications of ER morphology [13], and such modifications may participate to altered insulin sensitivity [24]. One could thus not exclude that alleviating UPR signaling pathways with chemical chaperones as done in the present work did not counteract a potential effect on ER membrane fluidity during palmitate treatment.
Our results do not exclude also a role of the UPR pathway in the alterations of muscle insulin signaling in other circumstances. Indeed, glucosamine-induced ER stress caused IR in myotubes, and pre-treatment of myotubes with TUDCA or 4-PBA completely preserved these effects [25]. In addition, treatment with TUDCA and 4-PBA increased glucose uptake in muscle and adipose tissue of ob/ob mice [11], whereas TUDCA treatment of obese and insulin-resistant humans increased hepatic and muscle insulin sensitivity [26]. Consequently, all these studies indicate that targeting UPR could modulate skeletal muscle insulin sensitivity. However, our data clearly demonstrate that dampening ER stress using chemical chaperones or grp78 overexpression did not protect myotubes from palmitate-induced alterations of insulin signaling, suggesting that either ER stress is not a major actor of muscle IR or that palmitate have more complex action on muscle UPR signaling and ER homeostasis in muscle than in adipose or liver cells.
Acknowledgements

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References


**Figure Legends**

**Figure 1: Induction of ER stress markers in skeletal muscle of high-palm oil diet-fed mice.** Male C57BL/6 mice were fed either with a standard diet or a high-palm diet during 8 weeks. A) mRNA levels of ER stress markers measured by real-time RT-PCR in gastrocnemius muscle of 8 week SD and HPD fed mice. Data are expressed as mean ± SEM (n=5), * p<0.05, ** p< 0.01 vs. SD. B) Western-blot illustrating increased expression of Grp78 in gastrocnemius muscle of HPD mice. Downward, the phosphorylation of Grp78 is normalized to tubulin protein levels, (n=4). * p<0.05 vs SD. C) Representative Western-blot showing insulin-stimulated phosphorylation of PKB (Ser473) in gastrocnemius muscle of SD and HPD mice, upon *ex-vivo* incubation. Downward, the phosphorylation of PKB is normalized to PKB protein levels, (n=3). * p<0.01 vs control.

**Figure 2: Effects of palmitate on ER stress markers and insulin action in C2C12 cells.** A) mRNA levels of ER stress markers measured by real-time RT-PCR in C2C12 cells incubated during 6 hours with BSA (as control) or palmitate (200 and 700 µM). Data are expressed as fold changes compared to BSA treatment (n=3), * p<0.05, ** p<0.01, *** p<0.005, ****p<0.0005. vs. BSA. B) Time-dependant induction of mRNA levels of several ER stress markers in 700 µM palmitate-treated C2C12 myotubes. Data are expressed as fold changes compared to BSA treatment (n=3). C) Western blots of ER stress markers including Grp78 and phosphorylation of eIF2α (P-eIF2α) in 700 µM palmitate-treated C2C12 myotubes. Righward of western blots, the graphs represent the Grp78 protein levels as well as the phosphorylation of eIF2α. Data are expressed as mean ± SEM (n=3). * p< 0,01, **p<0,0005. D) mRNA levels of ER stress markers measured by real-time PCR in C2C12 cells incubated either with palmitate (350µM), oleate (350µM) or a mix of both lipids (350µM+350µM) during 18 hours. Data are expressed as mean ± SEM (n=3), * p<0.01, ** p<0.005 vs. BSA. E) C2C12 myotubes were incubated with 700 µM palmitate during 18 hours, and then stimulated with 10⁻⁷ M insulin during 20 minutes. Insulin-stimulated PKB phosphorylation was measured by Western blotting on protein lysates. Righward of western blots, the graphs represent the quantification and normalisation of
insulin-stimulated phosphorylation of PKB (Ser473) (n=3). *p<0.05, **p<0.005, ***p<0.0005 vs. respective control, #p<0.005 vs. respective

**Figure 3:** Reduction of ER stress by TUDCA and 4-PBA treatments, or by adenoviral overexpression of Grp78, does not improve palmitate-induced alterations of insulin signaling. C2C12 myotubes were either pretreated with 500µg/ml TUDCA (A) or 20 mM 4-PBA (B) for 9 hours, or infected for 48 hours with adenovirus encoding for GFP (Ad-GFP, as control) or Grp78 (Ad-Grp78) (C), and then incubated with 700µM palmitate for 18 hours. Western blots illustrating insulin-stimulated PKB phosphorylation in palmitate-treated myotubes with or without TUDCA (A) or 4-PBA pre-treatments (B) or after the infection with Ad-GFP or Ad-Grp78 (C). Rightward of western blots, the graphs represent the quantification and normalization of insulin-stimulated phosphorylation of PKB (Ser473) (n=3). *p<0.01, **p<0.005, ***p<0.0001 vs. respective control, #p<0.05, ##p<0.05 vs. respective BSA.
Figure 1

A. Bar graph showing mRNA/TBP (fold vs. SD) for various conditions:

- **Grp78**
- sXbp1
- CHOP
- ATF3
- ATF4

Standard diet: **
High-palm diet: *

B. Western blots for Grp78 and tubulin under Standard diet and High-palm diet conditions.

C. Blot analysis for P-PKB and PKB with and without Insulin treatment.

SD: Control
HPD: High-palm diet
Insulin: - (-), + (+)

P-PKB/actin ratio and P-PKB/PKB ratio under different conditions.
**Figure 2**

A. mRNA/TBP (fold vs BSA)

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B. ARNm/TBP

- Grp78
- Xbp1
- CHOP
- ATF3
- ATF4

C. Western blot analysis

- BSA
- Palmitate
- Grp78
- tubulin
- P-eIF2α
- eIF2α

D. mRNA/TBP (fold vs. BSA)

- Grp78
- sXbp1
- ATF3

E. Western blot analysis for PKB and P-PKB

- BSA
- Palmitate
- Insulin

**Legend:**
- BSA
- Palmitate
- Oleate
- palmitate + oleate

- Protein levels (fold vs. BSA)
- mRNA/TBP (fold vs. BSA)

* P-values:
  - * p < 0.05
  - ** p < 0.01
  - *** p < 0.001
  - **** p < 0.0001

P-PKB/PKB (a.u.)

- Control
- Insulin
Figure 3

A

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P-PKB

actin

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P-PKB

actin

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P-PKB

actin

Figure 3
Supplementary Figure 1: Effects of tunicamycin on ER stress markers and insulin action in C2C12 myotubes. C2C12 myotubes were incubated with the ER stress inducer tunicamycin (Tn, 5 µg/ml) during 6 (A) or 18 (B) hours. A) mRNA levels of ER stress marker measured by real-time RT-PCR in C2C12 cells incubated with DMSO (as control) or Tn. Data are expressed as mean ± SEM (n=3), * p<0.005 vs. DMSO. B) Western blots of ER stress markers including Grp78, and phosphorylation of eIF2α (P-eIF2α) in tunicamycin (Tn)-treated C2C12 myotubes. C-D) Tn (C) or oleate (D)-treated myotubes were stimulated with 10⁻⁷ M insulin during 20 minutes. Insulin-stimulated PKB phosphorylation was measured by Western blotting on protein lysates. Rightward of western blots, the graphs represent the quantification and normalisation of insulin-stimulated phosphorylation of PKB (Ser473) (n=3). *p<0.05, ** p<0.005, *** p<0.0005 vs. respective control, # p<0.005 vs. respective BSA.

Supplementary Figure 2: Validation of the efficacy of TUDCA treatment on C2C12 myotubes. C2C12 myotubes were pretreated with TUDCA (500µg/ml) for 9 hours and then incubated with 5 µg/ml tunicamycin (Tn) (A) or 700 µM palmitate (B), in presence of TUDCA. A) Western blots illustrating the phosphorylation of eIF2α (P-eIF2α) in tunicamycin (Tn)-treated myotubes with or without TUDCA pre-treatment. Rightward of western blots, the graphs represent the quantification and normalization of Tn-stimulated phosphorylation of eIF2α (n=3). *p<0.0005 Tn vs. respective DMSO, # p<0.001 TUDCA vs. respective DMSO. B) Western blots illustrating the phosphorylation of eIF2α (P-eIF2α) in palmitate-treated myotubes with or without TUDCA pre-treatment. Rightward of western blots, the graphs represent the quantification and normalization of palmitate-stimulated phosphorylation of eIF2α (n=3). *p<0.01 vs. respective BSA, # p<0.05 vs. respective DMSO.

Supplementary Figure 3: Validation of the efficacy of both 4-PBA treatment and adenoviral overexpression of Grp78 on C2C12 myotubes. C2C12 myotubes were pretreated with 4-PBA (20mM) for 9 hours and then incubated with 5 µg/ml tunicamycin (Tn) (A-B) or 700 µM palmitate (C). A) Representative Western-blot illustrating tunicamycin (Tn)-induced phosphorylation of eIF2α and its
prevention by 4-PBA pre-treatment. B) Western blots illustrating insulin-stimulated PKB phosphorylation in tunicamycine(Tn)-treated myotubes with or without 4-PBA pre-treatment. Rightward of western blots, the graphs represent the quantification and normalization of insulin-stimulated phosphorylation of PKB (Ser473) (n=3). *p<0.005, ** p<0.00005 vs. respective control, # p<0.005 vs. respective DMSO. NS: non significant. C) Representative Western-blot illustrating palmitate-induced phosphorylation of eIF2α and its prevention by 4-PBA pre-treatment. D) C2C12 myotubes were infected for 48 hours with adenovirus encoding either for GFP (Ad-GFP, as control) or Grp78 (Ad-Grp78), and then exposed to 700µM palmitate for 18 hours. mRNA levels of ER stress markers measured by real-time RT-PCR. Data are expressed as fold changes compared to BSA treatment (n=3), * p<0.005 vs. respective BSA, # p<0.05 vs respective Ad-GFP.
Supplementary Figure 1

A

mRNA/TBP (fold vs DMSO)

Grp78  Xbp1S  CHOP

DMSO  Tunicamycine

B

Grp78  tubuline  P-eIF2α  eIF2α

DMSO  Tn

C

DMSO  Tn

Insulin:

-  -  +  +  -  -  +  +  -  -  +  +

P-PKB  PKB  actine

D

BSA  oleate

Insulin:

-  -  +  +  -  -  +  +  -  -  +  +

P-PKB  PKB

DMSO  Tunicamycine  BSA  oleate

NS  ***  ***  *  *

Supplementary Figure 1
Supplementary Figure 2
Supplementary Figure 3