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Loss-Of HSPB8 leads to prolonged stress granules disassembly via impaired CASA-complex ultimately causing FUS-aggregation.

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Abbreviations

A β	amyloid β -peptides
ACD	α -crystallin domain
AD	alzheimer disease
ALS	amyotrophic lateral sclerosis
APLP	autophagosome-lysosome pathway
AR	androgen receptor
ARpolyQ	AR protein
BAG3	bcl-2-associated athanogene 3
BDNF	brain-derived neurotrophic factor
C9orf72	chromosome 9 open reading frame 72
cAMP	cyclic adenosine monophosphate
CASA	chaperone-assisted selective autophagy
CCT	chaperonin-containing TCP-1
CMT	charcot–Marie–Tooth
CMT2L	charcot-Marie-Tooth disease type 2L
cvHsp	cardiovascular Hsp
CTD	c-terminal domain
CT51	cancer/testis antigen 51
DEPs	disassembly Engaged Proteins
dHMN	distal hereditary motor neuropathy
DMEM	dulbecco's modified eagle medium
DPRs	dipeptide repeat proteins
DRG	dorsal root ganglia
DMSO	dimethyl sulfoxide
DTT	dithiothreitol
EDTA	ethylene diamine tetra-acetic acid EGFP
EGFP	enhanced green fluorescent protein
fALS	familial amyotrophic lateral sclerosis
FBS	fetal bovine serum
FTD	frontotemporal degeneration
FUS	fused in sarcoma
GDNF	glial cell-derived neurotrophic factor
HBP	human brain pericytes
HCHWA-D	hereditary cerebral hemorrhage with amyloidosis of the Dutch type
HSC70	consecutive form of heat shock protein 70
HSP70	heat shock protein 70
HSP90	heat shock protein 90
HSPB6	human small heat shock protein Hsp20
HSPB8	heat shock protein beta-8
HSV-2	herpes simplex virus type 2

ICP10	large subunit (R1) of HSV-2 ribonucleotide reductase
IDR	intrinsically disordered region
iPSC	induced pluripotent stem cells
LLPS	liquid-liquid phase separation
LRR	leucine-rich repeat
MAP2	microtubule associated protein 2
MN	motor neurons
MNDs	motor neuron diseases
mRNP	messenger ribonucleoprotein
MSA	multiple system atrophy
MTOC	microtubule organization center
NPC	neuronal progenitor cells
OPTN-1	optineurin
PBS	phosphate buffered saline
PCR	polymerase chain reaction
PD	parkinson's disease
PK	protein kinase
PLO	poly-L-ornithine
PN	proteostasis network
PNS	peripheral nervous system
PQC	protein quality control
PTMs	post-translational modifications
RBP	RNA-binding proteins
RPM	rotations per minutes
sALS	sporadic amyotrophic lateral sclerosis
SBMA	spinal and bulbar muscular atrophy
SDS	sodium dodecyl sulfate
SG	stress granule
sHSP	small heat shock protein
SOD1	superoxide dismutase-1
TBK1	TANK binding kinase 1
TDP-43	TAR DNA-binding protein 43
TIAR	T-cell-restricted intracellular antigen 1-related protein
TLR4	Toll-like receptor 4
UBQLN-2	ubiquilin
UPS	ubiquitin-proteasome system
VAPB	vesicle associated membrane protein B
VCP	valosin-containing protein

ZUSAMMENFASSUNG

HSPB8 spielt eine einzigartige Rolle in der zellulären Reaktion auf Stress und fungiert als Vermittler bei der Präsentation fehlgefalteter Substrate an HSP70 zur anschließenden Verarbeitung. Es wurde eine starke Korrelation zwischen der Menge an HSPB8 und fehlgefalteten Proteinen innerhalb von SGs dokumentiert (Ganassi et al., 2016). Das endgültige Schicksal fehlgefalteter Proteine hängt von der durch HSPB8 erleichterten Rekrutierung von BAG3 ab (Carra et al., 2008). Die Bindung von BAG3 und SQSTM1 führt zur Rekrutierung von HSPB8, BAG3 und HSP70 zu Substraten, die für spezifische Autophagie vorgesehen sind und allgemein als CASA bezeichnet werden (Crippa et al., 2010a; Gamerding et al., 2011). Der Verschmelzungsschritt zwischen Autophagosomen und Lysosomen ist ein kritischer Schritt in diesem Prozess, und Studien deuten darauf hin, dass HSPB8 für diesen Prozess benötigt wird (Crippa et al., 2010; XC Li et al., 2017; Rusmini et al., 2017).

Einerseits verursachen Mutationen im HSPB8-Gen selbst Erkrankungen, typischerweise eine Neuropathie des Charcot-Marie-Tooth (CMT) Typ 2L, wie von Nakhro et al. (2013) und Tang et al. (2005) berichtet. Zusätzlich werden diese Mutationen auch mit einer distalen erblichen motorischen Neuropathie (dHMN) Typ 2A in Verbindung gebracht, wie von Al-Tahan et al. (2019), Ghaoui et al. (2016) und Irobi et al. (2004) dargelegt. Andererseits haben mehrere Studien Hinweise darauf geliefert, dass HSPB8 an der Beseitigung von Proteinaggregaten beteiligt ist, die mit ALS-assoziierten Proteinen verbunden sind. Insbesondere die Arbeiten von Crippa et al. (2010b, 2016), Carra et al. (2013) und Rusmini et al. (2013, 2015) haben konsequent die Beteiligung von HSPB8 an der Entfernung dieser pathologischen Aggregate gezeigt. Interessanterweise zeigte die mRNA-Analyse von ALS-Autopsien eine erhöhte HSPB8-Expression in Rückenmarksproben im Vergleich zu altersangepassten gesunden Kontrollen (Anagnostou et al., 2010).

Studien legen nahe, dass Mutationen im HSPB8-Gen die Proteostase, die SG-Biologie und die Autophagie behindern, drei entscheidende Pathways der Proteindegradation und somit Proteinhomöostase, welche insb. als entscheidend für lange Motoneuronen im peripheren Nervensystem angesehen werden (Varlet et al., 2017).

Wir haben daher untersucht, ob der Funktionsverlust von HSPB8 die aus humanen induzierten pluripotenten Stammzellen (iPSC) abgeleiteten Motoneuronen beeinflusst. Pathophysiologisch vermuten wir, dass HSPB8-KO die Dynamik von SGs beeinflusst und dass dieser Effekt mit Veränderungen in der Proteostase und erhöhtem Zelluntergang in Verbindung steht. Ein weiteres Ziel dieser Forschung war es, die an CASA beteiligten Proteine und ihre Regulation im Falle von HSPB8-Verlust zu untersuchen und ob diese die Aggregation eines Schlüsselproteins, beeinflussen, das bei ALS aggregiert, nämlich Fused in Sarcoma (FUS), , da jede Dysfunktion in diesem Prozess zu neurodegenerativen Störungen führen kann

Unsere Ergebnisse legen nahe, dass HSPB8 eine entscheidende Rolle bei der Regulation der Dynamik von SG und dem Zellsüberleben spielt. Die Studie unterstreicht auch die komplexe Regulierung von SGs und die Beteiligung mehrerer Chaperone an diesem Prozess. Insgesamt deuten die Ergebnisse dieser Studie darauf hin, dass der CASA-Komplex, bestehend aus HSPB8, BAG3, HSP70 und CHIP, möglicherweise nicht der alleinige Mechanismus für die Auflösung von Stressgranula ist. Es ist offensichtlich, dass die Dysregulation durch eine übermäßige Ansammlung fehlgefalteter Proteine auch die upstream-Komponenten des CASA-Komplexes beeinflusst. Darüber hinaus hebt die Studie die kompensatorischen Bemühungen des molekularen HSP90-Wegs zur Aufrechterhaltung der Protein-Homöostase hervor; es kann jedoch den Verlust von HSPB8 nicht vollständig ausgleichen. Zusätzlich zur selektiven Autophagie, die durch CASA repräsentiert wird, zeigt auch das proteasomale System eine erhöhte Expression in Abwesenheit von HSPB8, was die Komplexität der Mechanismen zur Qualitätskontrolle von Proteinen weiter unterstreicht. Die Ergebnisse dieser Studie deuten darauf hin, dass das Fehlen von HSPB8 zu verringerten Mengen von p62 führt, was einerseits auf einen potenziellen Mangel an ordnungsgemäßer Proteinubiquitinierung hinweist und andererseits die normale Bildung von Autophagosomen und Autolysosomen behindert. Das Fehlen signifikanter Veränderungen in den K48-Polyubiquitinierungsniveaus, die in HSPB8-knockout-Neuronen beobachtet wurden, passt zu den Ergebnissen der verringerten p62-Niveaus. Die Ergebnisse legen nahe, dass HSPB8 eine Rolle bei der Beseitigung von FUS-Aggregaten spielen kann, jedoch nicht bei der Regulation der FUS-Proteinexpression und des ordnungsgemäßen Kern-Zytoplasma-Transports.

Zusammenfassend präsentiert meine Dissertation neuartige Erkenntnisse über den Regulationsmechanismus von HSPB8 in menschlichen Motoneuronen. Dies kulminiert in einer Reihe von Regulationsereignissen, die CASA und verschiedene für die Aufrechterhaltung der Integrität von

Proteinabbau-Systemen, einschließlich des Autophagie-Lysosom-Wegs, wichtige Komponenten betreffen. Diese Störung führt letztendlich zur Unfähigkeit, Proteine polyubiquitinieren zu können, was zur Aggregation von fehlgefalteten Proteinen und schließlich zu einer Verringerung der Zellebensfähigkeit führt.

1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 *Small heat shock proteins*

Small heat shock proteins (sHSPs) are a type of molecular chaperones that do not have an ATPase domain. They are small proteins, typically between 12 and 43 kDa, with a core α -crystallin domain (ACD) surrounded by variable N-terminal and C-terminal domains (De Jong et al., 1998; Franck et al., 2004; Haslbeck et al., 2005; Mchaourab et al., 2009; Treweek et al., 2015; Zhu & Reiser, 2018). There are 10 known α -crystallin domain-containing sHSPs (small heat shock proteins) in mammals, known as HSPB1 (HSP27), HSPB2 (myotonic dystrophy kinase binding protein, MKBP), HSPB3 (HSP17), HSPB4 (α A-crystallin), HSPB5 (α B-crystallin), HSPB6 (HSP20), HSPB7 (cardiovascular HSP, cvHSP), HSPB8 (HSP22), HSPB9 (cancer/testis antigen 51, CT51) and HSPB10 (outer dense fibre protein 1, ODFP1) (Kappé et al., 2003; Kampinga et al., 2009). In general, sHSPs bind to proteins that have not yet fully folded by interacting with hydrophobic residues exposed on the protein's surface, to stabilize it and prevent further misfolding or aggregation (Sharma et al., 1997; Van Montfort et al., 2001; Haslbeck et al., 2005; Jaya et al., 2009). Therefore, sHSPs act at an early stage in the process of handling misfolded proteins, often before ATP-dependent chaperone complexes attempt to refold them (Mchaourab et al., 2009; Bakthisaran et al., 2015; Haslbeck & Vierling, 2015).

1.2 *Heat shock protein beta-8 (HspB8)*

1.2.1 *Background and Classification*

A new human gene, called H11, was first discovered in human melanoma cells. It was found to be similar to the large subunit (R1) of herpes simplex virus type 2 (HSV-2) ribonucleotide reductase (also known as ICP10) (Smith et al., 2000). Research using FISH and M-FISH showed that H11 is a member of a stress-related gene family and is located on chromosome 12 in the q24.1-12q24.31 region (Yu et al., 2001). In the same year, an independent study by Charpentier et al. identified five new genes (E2IG1-5) that are activated by estrogen. E2IG1, the most highly induced transcript, was identified as a potential small heat shock protein (sHSP) and had 54% similarity to HSPB5 (Charpentier et al., 2000). In 2001, Benndorf et al. found a 22 kDa protein that had an α -crystallin domain (ACD) in its sequence and was closely related to other members of the sHSP family, particularly HSPB1. As a result, it was

named HSP22 (Benndorf et al., 2001). Later it was found that the sequence of these three genes was identical. Therefore, it was named HSPB8, being the eighth known human sHSP.

1.2.2 Structure Overview

HSPB8, also known as sHSP22, H11, E2IG1, or CRYAC, is unique among HSPBs as it primarily exists as monomers and homodimers, although it can also form heterodimers with other HSPBs (Arrigo, 2013; Kumar CHOWDARY et al., 2004; Shatov et al., 2020). HSPB8 is made up of 196 amino acids and has a molecular mass of 21.6 kDa. Its ACD is located near the C-terminal domain (CTD), between amino acids 86 and 176. The short CTD interacts with hydrophobic regions of the substrate during chaperone activity to prevent aggregation. Unlike other members of the HSPB family (HSPB1, HSPB2, HSPB4, and HSPB5), HSPB8 does not have the conserved I/V-X-I/V motif that allows for oligomeric assembly (Mogk et al., 2018; Saji et al., 2008). This motif interacts with the neighbouring ACD in a pocket between strands β 4 and β 8, serving as a link between the dimers. Instead, HSPB8 binds to two I/V-X-I/V domains, known as IPV domains, in the Bcl-2-associated athanogene 3 (BAG3) protein via a hydrophobic pocket (Fuchs et al., 2010). This interaction explains why HSPB8 preferentially binds to BAG3 rather than forming large oligomers. In this binding, two HSPB8 molecules and one BAG3 molecule combine to create a functional chaperone complex (Cristofani et al., 2021). HSPB8 has multiple potential phosphorylation sites, however, only phosphorylation at Ser-14, Ser-24, Ser-27, Ser-57, Thr-63, Thr-87, and Tyr-118 has been reported and are shown in figure 1.1 (Benndorf et al., 2001; Rikova et al., 2007). Phosphorylation of Ser-24, Ser-27, and Thr-87 was found to lead to an increase in HSPB8 dimerization and a decrease in its degradation. However, phosphorylation of Ser-24 and Ser-27 reduces HSPB8 chaperone activity, while phosphorylation of Thr-87 enhances HSPB8 chaperone activity (Shemetov & Gusev, 2011).

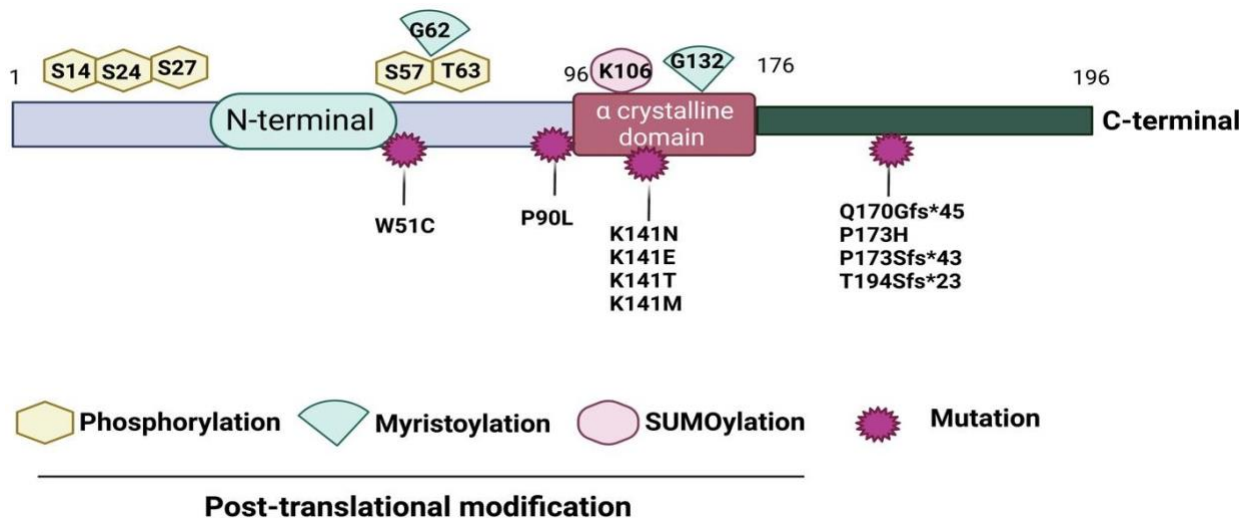


Figure 1.1: HSPB8 schematic structure, post-translational modifications, and mutations.

Post-translational modification residues are reported: phosphorylation sites are indicated in yellow, predicted myristoylation sites in orange, and a SUMOylation site in light blue. Red stars indicate HSPB8 mutations reported in the literature - W51C: reported in one melanoma line; K141N, K141E, K141T, and K141M: Charcot–Marie–Tooth type 2L, myopathy, and distal hereditary motor neuropathy (dHMN) ; Q170Gfs*45, P173H, P173Sfs*43, T194Sfs*23: dHMN and myopathy. The figure was generated using Illustrator and adapted from R. Cristofani et al., 2021.

1.2.3 Location and expression of HSPB8 in the brain

HSPB8 is found in many different types of tissues and is highly expressed in human skeletal and smooth muscle, heart, and brain (Cristofani et al., 2021). The expression of HSPB8 was observed to increase in muscle, stomach, liver, lung, and kidney during development, while its level remained relatively constant in the heart (Verschuure et al., 2003). Interestingly, a temporary drop of HSPB8 is observed directly after birth in the cerebellum and cortex, followed by an increase again back to foetal levels or even higher. Such temporal regulation of expression may mediate stress resistance in order to protect these brain regions against stress before and during delivery. However, this effect is not seen in hippocampus and striatum (Verschuure et al., 2003). HSPB8 interacts and is found in the same location as various other proteins, indicating its potential involvement in multiple signalling pathways. The variation in HSPB8 expression levels in different brain regions may be related to variations in stress-buffering mechanisms. HSPB8 is primarily expressed in the neurogenic niche of the hippocampus and has a diffuse expression throughout the brain. In rats, HSPB8 expression is relatively

low in the hippocampus during embryonic and postnatal stages, but increases significantly in adulthood. This suggests that the need for this stress protein increases in the brain as it matures (Kirbach & Golenhofen, 2011). Recent studies have shown that HSPB8 is highly expressed during neurogenesis in the adult hippocampus in vivo and during the differentiation of adult neural precursor cells in vitro.

1.3 Structural plasticity of HSPB8

Small heat shock proteins, found in all kingdoms, have a characteristic ACD composed of six or eight beta-strands arranged in two sheets (De Jong et al., 1998). This domain is located at both the N-terminal and C-terminal ends. To date, only x-ray crystallographic structures of sHSPs from bacteria and plants have been obtained (Hilario et al., 2011). The flexible structure of these small heat shock proteins appears to play a crucial role in their ability for client protein binding and chaperone function (Benesch et al., 2010; Leroux et al., 1997; Mchaourab et al., 2009; Peschek et al., n.d.; Stengel et al., 2010). The structure of animal sHSPs is difficult to determine due to their high mobility, varying sizes, and different oligomeric states. Predictions of the secondary structure of HSPB8 suggest that it is composed of mostly beta-strands and has an unordered, randomly coiled structure (Kim et al., 2006). The data from far-UV CD suggests that HSPB8 has a mainly disordered structure, which is further supported by its increased vulnerability to proteolysis and its ability to resist thermal denaturation (Kasakov et al., 2007). Therefore, it is thought that heat shock protein B8 falls under the category of intrinsically disordered proteins (Kazakov et al., 2009). HSPB8 stands out from other mammalian sHSPs due to its lack of a defined tertiary structure. One possible reason for this is the absence of the β_2 strand, a feature commonly found in many other sHSPs (Kasakov et al., 2007), which contributes to HSPB8's intrinsic disorder. The lack of the β_2 strand in HSPB8 prevents the formation of the beta-strand, which leads to destabilization of the entire ACD. Additionally, since the β_2 strand is known to play a crucial role in intersubunit interactions, its absence may disrupt the formation of stable dimers of HSPB8 (Stamler et al., 2005). With its inability to form stable dimers, it is unlikely that HSPB8 plays a role in the formation of high molecular mass oligomers. According to size-exclusion chromatography, HSPB8 primarily exists as an equilibrium mixture of monomers and dimers in vitro (Kumar CHOWDARY et al., 2004). However, native gel electrophoresis by Kim et al. showed the presence of large molecular mass oligomers of HSPB8 which can be broken down into smaller oligomers. It is suggested that at low concentrations, HSPB8 exists in the form of a mixture of monomers and dimers, while at high

concentrations, it has the ability to form large molecular weight oligomers, as seen from the high protein concentration inside the electrophoretic band (Kim et al., 2004, 2006).

1.4 The protein-protein interactions of HSPB8

The presence of heterooligomeric complexes of HSPB8 with other sHSPs was confirmed through yeast two-hybrid analysis, in addition to its interaction with itself (Fontaine et al., 2005; Sun et al., 2004). Recently, HSPB8 was discovered to possess a unique structural organization. In contrast to other sHSPs (such as HSPB1, HSPB5, and HSPB6) that form mixed large complexes, HSPB8 does not form stable complexes with either HSPB1 or HSPB5 (Datskevich et al., 2012). Carra et al were the first to report that HSPB8 interacts strongly and forms tight complexes with BAG3 in mammalian cells. This interaction is mediated by the hydrophobic groove formed by the $\beta 4$ and $\beta 8$ strands in HSPB8 and the two IPV motifs in BAG3. It has been proposed that BAG3 serves as an obligate partner for HSPB8, directly impacting its stability (Shemetov & Gusev, 2011). In this context, HSPB8 can be considered as an “atypical” member of the sHSP family. This may help to explain the different mechanisms of intracellular action of various sHSPs. For instance, HSPB1, HSPB5, and HSPB6 primarily function as reservoirs for misfolded or unfolded proteins until they are processed by ATP-dependent chaperones (Bakthisaran et al., 2015). In contrast, HSPB8 is primarily associated with selective autophagic removal of damaged or misfolded proteins. The fate and function of proteins may be dictated by HSPB8 (Pereira et al., 2017).

1.5 Stress-induced HSPB8 expression

HSPB8 has two potential binding sites for heat shock factors located 1,000 base pairs upstream from its translation start site (Kumar CHOWDARY et al., 2004). Heat shock treatment in MCF-7 cell line revealed a significant upregulation of HSPB8 expression (as reported in Chowdary et al., 2004) and in cultured neurons. However, HSPB8 expression was not induced by heat in HeLa cells. This suggests that the ability of HSPB8 to be induced by heat is dependent on the severity of the stress and is specific to certain cell types. In addition to heat stress, a wide range of other stressors can lead to a significant increase in HSPB8 expression. Studies have shown that ischemia/reperfusion (I/R) injury or chronic pressure-overload left ventricular hypertrophy can lead to increased HSPB8 expression in the heart (Depre et al., 2002). In cultured hippocampal neurons, while not induced by heat stress, the levels of HSPB8 mRNA and protein were found to be increased in response to sublethal sodium arsenite,

oxidative and hyperosmotic stress (Bartelt-Kirbach & Golenhofen, 2014). An Insult of oxygen-glucose deprivation/reoxygenation (OGD/R) leads to an Increase In HSPB8 In mouse neuroblastoma N2a cells. Additionally, a study in a rat model of stroke found that HSPB8 is significantly upregulated in the area surrounding the infarcted cerebral cortex (Bartelt-Kirbach et al., 2017). Literature indicates that HSPB8 may play a crucial role in the neuronal response to stress, specifically I/R injury, and may provide neuroprotection. Research has also shown that HSPB8 expression is greatly elevated in motor neurons that survived in the spinal cord and affected muscles of transgenic G93A-SOD1 mice (Crippa et al., 2010b). Additionally, studies have found that HSPB8 expression is also elevated in the spinal cord of patients with Amyotrophic Lateral Sclerosis (ALS) (Anagnostou et al., 2010). Studies have also observed a strong increase in HSPB8 expression in skeletal muscle, another affected area, during the progression of ALS and spinal and bulbar muscular atrophy (SBMA) in mice (Carra et al., 2013; Rusmini et al., 2013, 2015).

1.6 HSPB8-associated diseases

1.6.1 Mutation of HSPB8-associated neuropathy

The majority of mutations in the HSPB8 gene have been identified in individuals diagnosed with Charcot–Marie–Tooth (CMT) type 2L (Nakhro et al., 2013; Tang et al., 2005) neuropathy, and distal hereditary motor neuropathy (dHMN) type 2A (Al-Tahan et al., 2019; Ghaoui et al., 2016; Irobi et al., 2004). These neuropathies are clinically and genetically characterized disorders, characterized by a gradual degeneration of neurons in the peripheral nervous system (PNS) (Irobi et al., 2006). Recently, a novel causative mutation in the HSPB8 gene, specifically the substitution of adenine with cytosine at position 422 (422A>C) resulting in the Lys141Thr (K141T) mutation, was identified through exome sequencing in a Korean individual with sporadic CMT2 (Nakhro et al., 2013). Recent studies have revealed that HSPB8 mutations have an impact on muscle tissue in addition to the previously known involvement in peripheral motor neuropathy. This is supported by the functional data of HSPB8 as a crucial component in maintaining the stability of proteins and cellular homeostasis within muscle tissue. Despite the ubiquitous distribution of HSPB8, mutations such as HSPB8K141N and HSPB8K141E have been found to specifically result in degeneration of motor neuron neurites, with minimal impact on sensory neurons and no effect on cortical neurons or glial cells. These findings provide insight into the predominant motor neuron phenotype observed in distal hereditary motor neuropathy and

Charcot-Marie-Tooth disease type 2L (Irobi et al., 2012). The K141E and K141N mutated forms of HSPB8, which are associated with disease, were found to exhibit a “loss of function” in certain studies. The chaperone-like activity of HSPB8 was significantly diminished in the presence of these mutations (Carra et al., 2005). The pathological development of peripheral neuropathies is postulated to be at least partly mediated by the decreased chaperone activity of the disease-associated K141E and K141N mutated forms of HSPB8.

1.6.2 HSPB8-associated myopathy

Lately, two families with genetic mutations in the HSPB8 gene have been identified, resulting in a dual presentation of peripheral motor neuropathy and a rimmed vacuolar myofibrillar myopathy (Ghaoui et al., 2016). It is hypothesized that HSPB8's role is crucial for preserving the structural stability of muscle cells, and a malfunction in CASA leads to the development of muscular dystrophy and cardiomyopathy (Ulbricht et al., 2015). The research conducted by Bouhy et al. has uncovered a pivotal pathomechanism implicated in the development of distal myopathy in a mouse model. Specifically, their findings establish a direct link between the accumulation of mutant Hspb8K141N and the impaired degradation of Hspb8-positive aggregates through the Hspb8/Bag3-mediated autophagy pathway. This compelling evidence highlights the crucial role played by these dysregulated processes in driving the pathogenesis of distal myopathy.

1.6.3 HSPB8-associated other neurodegenerative diseases

The aggregation of misfolded proteins in the form of protein aggregates is a defining characteristic of numerous neurodegenerative disorders (Soto, 2003). Amyotrophic lateral sclerosis (ALS) is a neurodegenerative disorder with a primarily sporadic form (sALS), accounting for 85% of cases, and a familial form (fALS), accounting for 15% of cases. The clinical presentation of sALS and fALS is indistinguishable. Familial forms of ALS have been linked to specific genetic mutations, including those affecting superoxide dismutase-1 (SOD1), TAR DNA-binding protein 43 (TDP-43), fused-in-sarcoma/translocated-in-liposarcoma (FUS/TLS), sequestosome-1 (SQSTM1/p62), optineurin (OPTN-1), ubiquilin (UBQLN-2), valosin-containing protein (VCP), and TANK binding kinase 1 (TBK1), among others (Taylor et al., 2016). Many of these gene products are involved in autophagy-related pathways, key players in the protein quality control (PQC) system, or have been observed to mislocalize and aggregate, resulting in proteotoxicity (Robberecht & Philips, 2013; Taylor et al., 2016). Multiple

research studies have demonstrated that the accumulation of misfolded proteins in conditions such as fALS, sALS, and SBMA disrupts the normal degradation pathways. This can lead to an overburdening of the ubiquitin-proteasome system (UPS) or blockages caused by the presence of polyQ expansions (Ciechanover & Kwon, 2015; Rusmini et al., 2016), the clearance of misfolded protein aggregates through the autophagic pathway could be hindered, resulting in a disruption of autophagic flux (Rusmini et al., 2013). A review article by Rusmini et al. in 2016 proposed that the protein HSPB8 plays a vital role in maintaining the functionality and survival of motoneurons. In their study, Crippa et al. (2010b) observed a significant increase in the levels of HSPB8 protein in the anterior horn motoneurons of transgenic (tg) ALS SOD1-G93A mice that were at the end-stages of disease, in comparison to wild-type mice. This upregulation was found to be associated with the presence of diffuse and non-aggregated mutant SOD. It is well established that enhancing the clearance of misfolded proteins can inhibit the formation and accumulation of protein aggregates, thereby reducing their toxicity and slowing the progression of associated neurodegenerative disorders (Takalo et al., 2013). In *in vitro* studies using cultured motoneurons, it has been observed that HSPB8 expression is significantly upregulated in response to proteasome dysfunction (Crippa et al., 2010 a,b). Furthermore, analysis of mRNA levels in autopsy samples of spinal cord from patients with ALS revealed that HSPB8 expression is elevated compared to that in spinal cord samples from age-matched healthy controls (Anagnostou et al., 2010).

As previously discussed, HSPB8, has the ability to recognize and interact with a wide range of misfolded protein conformations, thus preventing their aggregation and promoting their clearance via autophagy. This includes proteins such as alpha-synuclein, which is associated with neurodegenerative disorders such as Parkinson's disease (PD), multiple system atrophy (MSA), and dementia with Lewy bodies (Bruisma et al., 2011); Zn-superoxide dismutase1 (SOD1), which is linked to ALS (Crippa et al., 2010b); and various truncated forms of TDP-43, which are associated with both ALS and FTD (Crippa et al., 2016), as well as five different RAN, translated DPRs from the C9Orf72 gene, which is linked to ALS and FTD (Cristofani et al., 2017). Therefore, HSPB8 plays a critical role in the progression of various neurodegenerative diseases.

1.7 *Mechanisms of assembly and disassembly of stress granules*

1.7.1 *Characteristics of stress granules*

With the progression of research, it has become evident that, in addition to membrane-enclosed organelles, the cell also harbours membrane less compartments. In 1899, American biologist Edmund Wilson reported the initial observation of this phenomenon in the literature, documenting the presence of small, dense spheres within the cytoplasm of starfish eggs that displayed distinct characteristics from their surrounding environment and were capable of fusion (Wilson et al 1899). Recently, various membrane less organelles, including the nucleolus, nuclear speckles, germ granules, stress granules (SG), and processing bodies (P-bodies), have been identified in eukaryotic cells (Gomes & Shorter, 2019). Despite the extensive knowledge of the properties and functions of these structures, the mechanisms by which they are formed and the impacts of their distinct architectures on cellular function remain to be fully understood.

Stress granules (SG) are cytoplasmic, membrane less entities that emerge in response to stress and comprise messenger ribonucleoprotein (mRNP) stalled in translation, multiple RNA-binding proteins (RBP), and additional proteins (Nover et al., 1989). Along with nucleolus, and P-bodies, SG are grouped under the classification of RNP granules, characterized by high concentrations of RNA and proteins as shown in Figure 1.2. However, unlike the other aforementioned RNP granules that persist in the cell under normal physiological conditions, SG only forms in response to stress and exists only temporarily (Spector, 2006). Exposure to environmental or internal stress can severely disrupt cellular homeostasis and, if not properly addressed, can ultimately result in cellular death. In an effort to defend itself, the cell activates a variety of conserved stress response pathways, which among other effects, leads to a decrease in global translation and an upregulation of a stress-specific proteome. Formation of SG is a component of the complex stress response mechanism aimed at mitigating damage caused by stress through regulation of translation, protection of untranslated mRNA, reduction of energy expenditure, modulation of signalling pathways, and maintenance of protein and RNA homeostasis (Arimoto et al., 2008; Buchan & Parker, 2009; N. Kedersha et al., 2013; Ross Buchan, 2014). Stress granules are spherical structures of varying diameters, ranging from 100 nm to multiple micrometers, dependent on the cell type and stress conditions (Mahboubi et al., 2013; Mahboubi & Stochaj, 2017). They are composed of two distinct phases: a stable, less mobile inner core and a highly dynamic outer shell with liquid-like properties (Jain et al., 2016). The assembly of SG is a complex and regulated process,

typically triggered by inhibition of protein translation. The phosphorylation of the eukaryotic translation initiation factor eIF2 α is the classical pathway for initiation of translation suppression and SG formation (N. Kedersha et al., 2002). However, alternative pathways, not involving eIF2 α , may also contribute, depending on the type of stress (Thedieck et al., 2013). Translation inhibition results in the disassembly of polysomes, releasing free mRNA that is subsequently sequestered into stress granules (Hofmann et al., 2021).

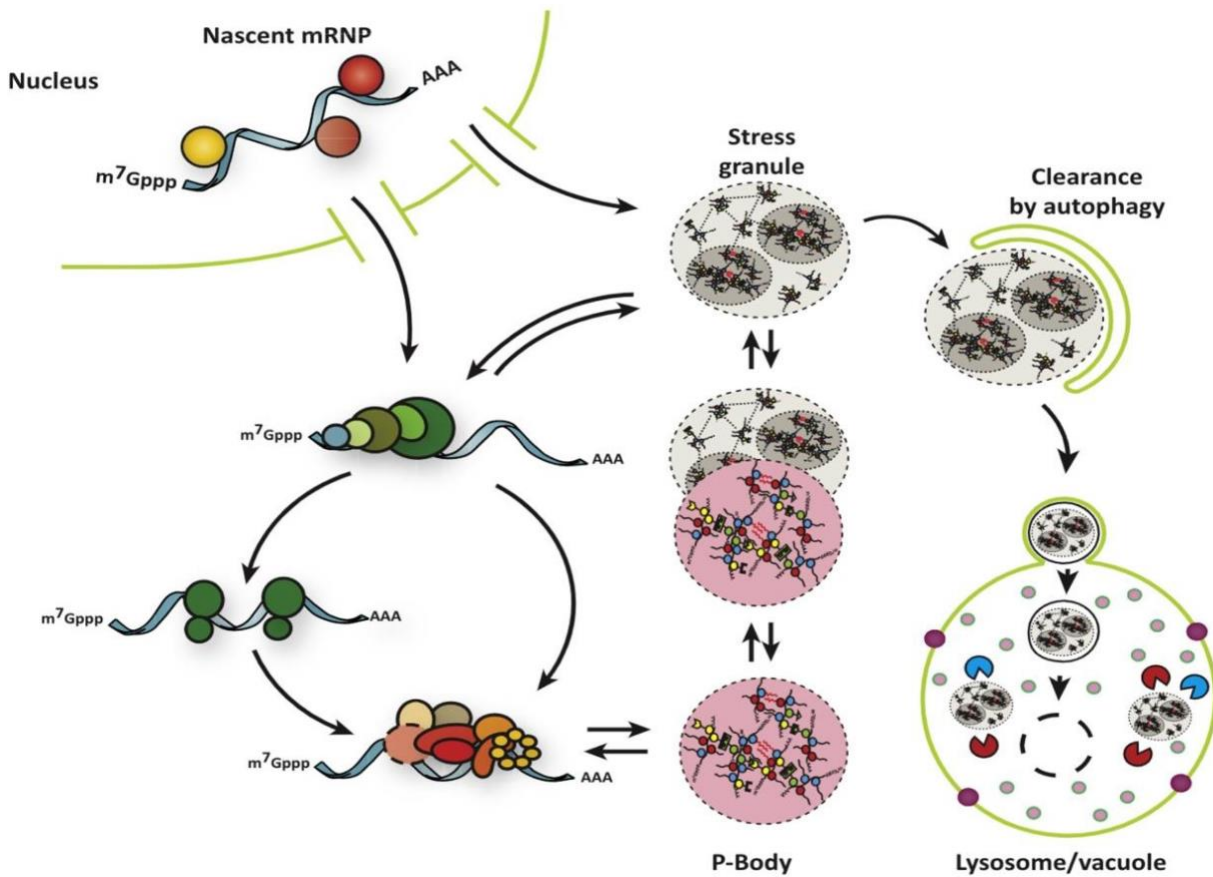


Figure 1.2: Stress Granules Are Dynamic and Have Multiple Fates.

Stress granules form from untranslating messenger ribonucleoproteins (mRNPs). They can interact with P bodies, exchange components with the cytoplasm, and undergo autophagy. Figure reprinted from DSW Protter et al., 2018.

1.7.2 *Assembly of stress granules*

The assembly of SGs involves a two-step process, with the first step being the inhibition of translation initiation and the subsequent breakdown of polysomes. The second step, which follows the translational inhibition and polysome disassembly, results in the formation of noticeable cytoplasmic foci and is regulated by various proteins referred to as SG nucleators (Anderson & Kedersha, 2006). These nucleators can induce SG formation even in the absence of stress when overexpressed (Anderson & Kedersha, 2009; N. L. Kedersha et al., 1999; Ohn et al., 2008; Tourrière et al., 2003; Buchan & Parker, 2009; Erickson & Lykke-Andersen, 2011). The initiation of stress granule assembly is facilitated by the clustering of SG nucleating proteins in the cytoplasm. The primary nucleators are RNA-binding proteins RBP that contain leucine-rich repeat (LRR) domains and intrinsically disordered regions (IDR), which promote liquid-liquid phase separation (LLPS) through electrostatic interactions (Lin et al., 2015). Some of the well-studied nucleating proteins include G3BP1, G3BP2, TIA1, TIAR, and FMRP (Reineke & Neilson, 2019). A diagrammatic illustration of the composition of the SG has been shown in Figure 1.3. The assembly of SG is said to initiate with the formation of a stable core, which is then followed by the assembly of the shell (Jain et al., 2016) (Niewidok et al., 2018). The formation of mature, biphasic SG occurs when persistent stress and repression of translation result in the reversible recruitment of non-translating mRNPs and additional RNA-binding proteins to the initial SG foci (Panas et al., 2016). In addition to an increasing number of proteins associated with SGs, SGs also contain mRNAs that have ceased translation and predominantly encode housekeeping proteins. However, a specific subset of transcripts, such as the Heat shock protein 70 (HSP70), are not present in SGs and are selectively translated during stress conditions (Paul Anderson, Nancy Kedersha 2002). The assembly and disassembly of stress granules are influenced by various protein chaperones. Evidence from studies in yeast and mammalian cells has shown that inhibition of the Hsp70 function leads to an increase in stress granule formation and/or a delay in disassembly. Additionally, both Hsp70 and Hsp40 proteins can be localized within stress granules in yeast and mammalian cell autophagy (Cherkasov et al., 2013; Mazroui et al., 2007; Walters et al., 2015).

Several studies have demonstrated a correlation between the capacity of cells to form stress granules (SGs) and their viability during stress conditions (Arimoto et al., 2008; Eisinger-Mathason et al., 2008; Lavut & Raveh, 2012; Zou et al., 2011, 2012). However, the precise composition of stress granules and the mechanism of their assembly remain highly redundant and context-dependent (Aulas et al., 2017). This implies that granules can assemble in a unique manner in response to specific cellular

conditions and stress granules may serve different functions for various types of stress (Protter et al., 2018).

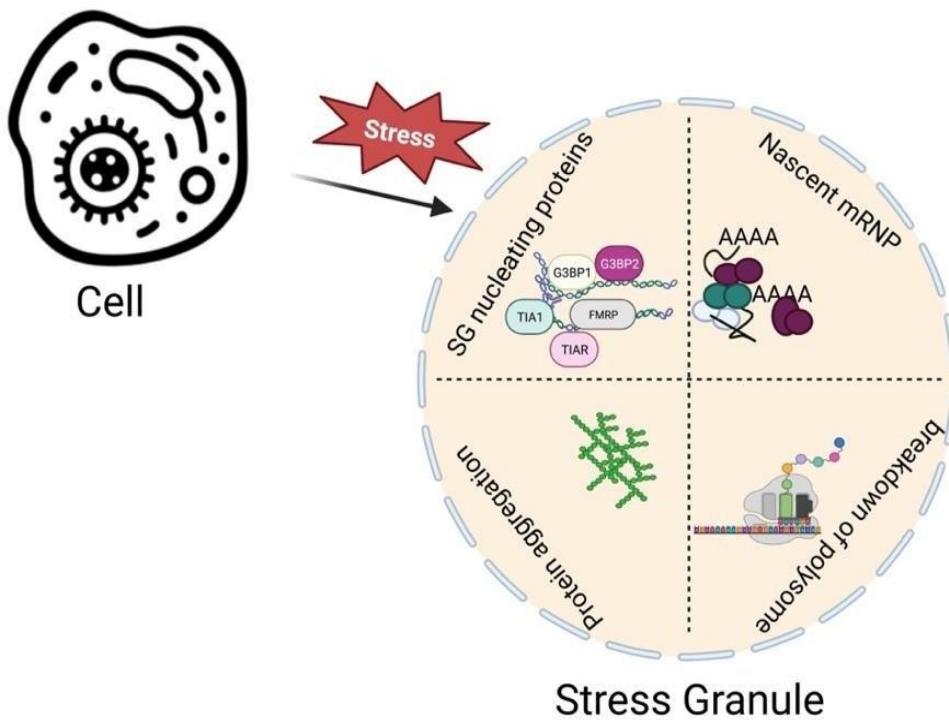


Figure 1.3: Schematic representation of Stress granules composition during the time of stress.
Image created from BioRender.

1.7.3 Disassembly of stress granules

The proper disassembly of SG after stress removal is a crucial aspect of restoring normal cellular metabolism (Mahboubi & Stochaj, 2017). The initial stage of SG disassembly involves the dispersal of the less stable outer shell, enabling the release of soluble RNA-binding proteins into the cytoplasm or nucleus and facilitating the liberation of messenger ribonucleoprotein to the cytoplasm (more details can be seen in Fig. 1.4), thereby enabling the resumption of translation (Wheeler et al., 2016; Mahboubi & Stochaj, 2017). According to a study by Wheeler et al. (2016), the stability of SG cores is maintained through either ATP-dependent disaggregation by proteins such as VCP and heat shock protein 70 (Hsp70), or removal via autophagy. Additionally, mutations in VCP have been shown to result in the accumulation of abnormal SG structures (Seguin et al., 2014).

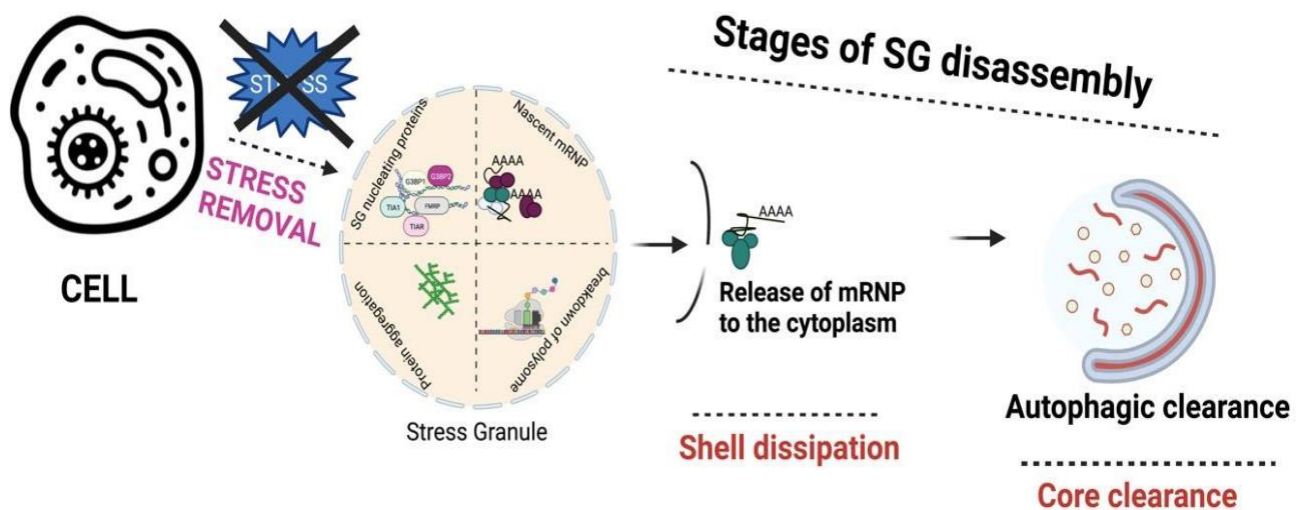


Figure 1.4: Schematic representation of Stress granules disassembly after the removal of stress.

Disassembly is likely to occur through shell dissipation by exchange of weakly associated granule (shell) mRNPs into a recovering translational mRNP pool. More stable core assemblies may then be disassembled by ATP-requiring remodeling complexes or autophagy. Image created using BioRender and adapted from Wheeler et al., 2016.

1.8 Crucial role of HSPB8 in Stress granules

Small heat shock proteins act as holdases, which are chaperones that bind misfolded proteins and deliver the bound substrate to HSP70 for proper refolding or degradation (Lee & Vierling, 2000). Ganassi et al. observed that the recruitment of HSPB8 by DriP-containing stress granules increases as the activity of HSP70 is inhibited by VER. This supports the hypothesis that HSPB8 functions as a mediator in presenting misfolded substrates to HSP70 for subsequent processing. The presence of HSPB8 within stress granules has been suggested to function as an ATP-independent holdase, neutralizing both misfolded proteins (such as Ubc9TS) and DriPs. There is a strong correlation between the amount of HSPB8 and misfolded proteins within SGs, providing evidence for HSPB8's role as a chaperone "holder" (Ganassi et al., 2016). The rapid kinetics of HSPB8 recruitment, in combination with its intrinsic disordered protein nature, suggests a unique role for HSPB8 in the cellular response to stress (Sudnitsyna et al., 2012), proposed that dissociated HSPB8 exhibits a high affinity for phase-separated stress granules and may be increasingly retained within SGs in the presence of misfolded proteins. An emerging concept in the field is that many proteins that localize to membrane-less liquid-like compartments contain extended regions of intrinsic disorder (Brangwynne et al., 2015; Gilks et al., 2004, n.d.; A. Patel et al., 2015). Once within SGs, HSPB8 mediates the recruitment of BAG3 to facilitate

substrate transfer and processing by the BAG3-HSP70 complex (Ganassi et al., 2016). While HSPB8 binds misfolded proteins to prevent their aggregation, it does not possess the ability to refold the substrate or direct it towards degradation (Carra et al., 2005). The ultimate disposition of the misfolded proteins is contingent upon HSPB8-mediated recruitment of BAG3 (Carra et al., 2008). The interaction between BAG3 and SQSTM1 results in the association of HSPB8, BAG3, and HSP70 with substrates targeted for autophagy (Crippa et al., 2010a; Gamerdinger et al., 2011). It is significant to note that the BAG3-mediated targeting of chaperone-based aggresomes is distinct from previously described mechanisms, as the transfer of misfolded proteins to the aggresome occurs in the absence of substrate ubiquitination (Gamerdinger et al., 2011). Ganassi et al. propose that HSPB8 is recruited to SGs to keep DriPs (and other misfolding-prone proteins) in a ready state for transfer to BAG3-HSP70. The control of DriPs within SGs by HSPB8 and the timely sorting of DriPs into perinuclear aggregates by BAG3-HSPB8 is essential to preserve the composition and dynamics of SGs (granulostasis). In line with this proposal, even a mild depletion of BAG3-HSPB8 leads to the conversion of SGs into an aberrant and Rnase-resistant state.

1.9 Cellular protein quality control and HSPB8

1.9.1 The chaperone functionality of HSPB8

sHSPs are ATP-independent molecular chaperones that play important roles in cellular proteostasis. Usually acting as holdases, sHSPs bind to misfolded proteins preventing their non-specific interaction and, ultimately, irreversible aggregation (Haslbeck et al., 2005). In vitro experimentation revealed that HSPB8 demonstrated chaperone-like properties by inhibiting the aggregation of insulin induced by DTT (dithiothreitol) and thermal aggregation of citrate synthase. Upon exposure to elevated temperatures, HSPB8 underwent conformational alterations, leading to an increase in surface hydrophobicity. This change was linked to the temperature-dependent chaperonic property of HSPB8 (Bukach et al., 2004). In a study using cardiomyocytes, the expression of recombinant HSPB8 proteins was increased and it was found that HSPB8 acted as a chaperone to directly disrupt the formation of amyloid oligomers by the HSPB5 R120G protein (Sanbe et al., 2007). In transgenic mice overexpressing the HSPB5 R120G mutation (R120G TG), the administration of geranylgeranylacetone, a pharmacological inductor of HSPB8, was observed to result in a reduction of amyloid aggregate formation and an improvement in cardiac function, as well as increased survival of the mice (Sanbe et al., 2009). The chaperone activity

of HSPB8 was evaluated using Htt43Q, a polyglutamine protein, as a model system (Carra et al., 2005). Additionally, clinical evidence indicates that HSPB8 directly interacts with amyloid β -peptides ($A\beta$) in the pathological lesions present in the brains of Alzheimer's disease (AD) patients and in those with hereditary cerebral haemorrhage with amyloidosis of the Dutch type (HCHWA-D). In isolated human brain pericytes (HBP), the overexpression of HSPB8 was found to alter $A\beta$ aggregation and $A\beta$ -mediated cytotoxicity in a dose-dependent manner, suggesting a potential role for HSPB8 in regulating the formation of classic senile plaques (Wilhelmus et al., 2006).

1.9.2 HSPB8-mediated proteolytic degradation via CASA

The hypothesis proposes that HSPB8 enables the proteasome-mediated degradation of particular proteins that impede cardiac hypertrophy under physiological conditions. The primary mechanisms for intracellular degradation are widely recognized to be the ubiquitin-proteasome system (UPS) and autophagy (Cichanover, 2005). In situations where the UPS is overwhelmed or compromised, cellular machinery can activate autophagy as a means to ensure proper clearance of substrates. The effectiveness of this process is contingent upon an operational retrograde transport mechanism, facilitated by dynein and select chaperones, including the HSPB8-BAG3 complex (Cristofani et al., 2017). As previously discussed, HSPB8 combines with BAG3, which then attracts HSP70 and CHIP's C-terminus to form a chaperone complex. This complex engages with the autophagy adapter SQSTM1/p62 (Gamerding et al., 2011) which recognizes substrates with specificity and directly binds to the autophagosomal marker protein LC3, directing ubiquitinated substrates to autophagosomes for degradation through autophagy. The term used to describe this process is chaperone-assisted selective autophagy (CASA) (Arndt et al., 2010).

The CASA pathway, initially characterized as a mechanism of autophagy triggered by tension, has been found to detect the mechanical unfolding of large cytoskeleton components and facilitate their removal and degradation during muscle contraction (Arndt et al., 2010). In cells experiencing mechanical strain, the important target of CASA is the cytoskeletal protein filamin (FLN), also recognized as an actin-crosslinking protein. A mechanosensitive region of FLN can be bound by the BAG3/HSP70/HSPB8 complex in a collaborative way, promoting the removal of damaged proteins through a selective autophagy pathway (Ulbricht et al., 2013). On the other hand, Fuchs et al., 2015 reported the HSPB8/BAG3 complex as a crucial regulator of mitotic actin-based structures remodelling, spindle orientation, and proper chromosome segregation. Interestingly, these functions were found

to operate independently from the HSP70/HSC70 chaperone system (Fuchs et al., 2015). Despite further work is needed to in-depth characterize the exact role of HSPB8 in different aspects of filament biology, it is hypothesized that this role is crucial for preserving the structural stability of muscle cells, and a malfunction in CASA leads to the development of muscular dystrophy and cardiomyopathy (Ulbricht et al., 2015). The CASA machinery plays a crucial role in preparing mammalian cells to rapidly adjust to biological processes that require frequent actin assembly and disassembly. The most significant alterations in cytoskeletal organization and dynamics occur in eukaryotic cells during mitosis. In diseases characterized by misfolded proteins that have a tendency to aggregate, such as motor neuron diseases (MNDs), a process called aggrephagy can be used to deliver these misfolded proteins to the microtubule organization centre (MTOC) for assembly into aggresomes (Bennett et al., 2005; Johnston et al., 2002; Neil F. Bence 2001). It involves the recognition of misfolded proteins by a complex of the HSPB8 and its partner BAG3 (Cristofani et al., 2017, 2021). Once formed, the HSPB8/BAG3 complex associates with HSPAs/HSP70s that are bound to the carboxyl terminus of HSC70-interacting protein (CHIP or STUB1), which is a U-box-containing E3 ubiquitin-protein ligase that tags misfolded proteins with a polyubiquitin chain for recognition by autophagy receptors such as SQSTM1/p62 for CASA as shown in Figure 1.5. CASA complex is then transported to the MTOC along microtubules by the dynein machinery that is bound to BAG3 (Cristofani et al., 2017, 2021). Next, the autophagy receptors allow for LC3-II-mediated insertion into autophagosomes. The importance of CASA specifically in neuromuscular cell homeostasis is emphasized by the fact that mutations in most of its members lead to neuronal or muscular disorders (Tedesco et al., 2022). CASA has also been shown to participate in removing protein aggregates linked to neurodegenerative disorders, such as FTD and ALS. In familial ALS models of motor neurons, the multi-heteromeric complex HSPB8/BAG3/HSP70/CHIP was found to interact with mutant SOD1 and activate selective autophagy to eliminate misfolded proteins (Crippa et al., 2010b). As the mere act of overexpressing HSPB8 appeared to be enough to reestablish proteostasis, HSPB8 was regarded as a critical factor in the process (Crippa et al., 2010b). HSPB8's pro-degradative function extends beyond SOD1, as the same mechanism was observed to occur with misfolded and aggregate-prone TDP-43 species (Crippa et al., 2010a). Recent findings have revealed that the HSPB8-BAG3 activity exhibits some similarities with the CASA process. This activity appears to operate independently from the HSP70/HSC70 chaperone system, which suggests a unique mode of action. Moreover, this discovery supports the concept that not all sHSPs' cellular functions require specific interactions with the HSP70 system. HSPB8 has been found to efficiently mediate the degradation of the polyglutamine protein Htt43Q by interacting with

BAG3, whereas HSPB1 or HSPB5 did not demonstrate the same efficiency (Carra et al., 2008). The proposed paradigm suggests that HSP70 is dispensable in this process, with HSPB8 fulfilling the role of substrate recognition capacity, and BAG3 facilitating the interaction between the substrate-loaded complex and the p62 ubiquitin adaptor. Furthermore, HSPB8 and BAG3 have been shown to induce phosphorylation of the translation initiation factor 2 (eIF2 alpha) in a HSP70-independent manner, leading to the inhibition of protein synthesis and the stimulation of autophagy as shown in Figure 1.5. These findings indicate that HSPB8 is situated at the intersection of protein synthesis and protein degradation pathways (Carra, 2009). It has been observed that the BAG3 domain interacts with HSP70, while the PXXP domain of BAG3 binds to other client proteins. This suggests that HSPB8 may be responsible for recognizing misfolded proteins and, in conjunction with BAG3 and a PXXP-interacting partner, activate the macroautophagy machinery (further details can be seen in Fig. 1.5). There is a possibility that BAG3 could link chaperone-bound substrates to macroautophagy by associating with other chaperones. Thus, the function of the HSPB8-BAG3 complex in client handling may diverge depending on client specificity and the presence of stress conditions (F. Li et al., 2018).

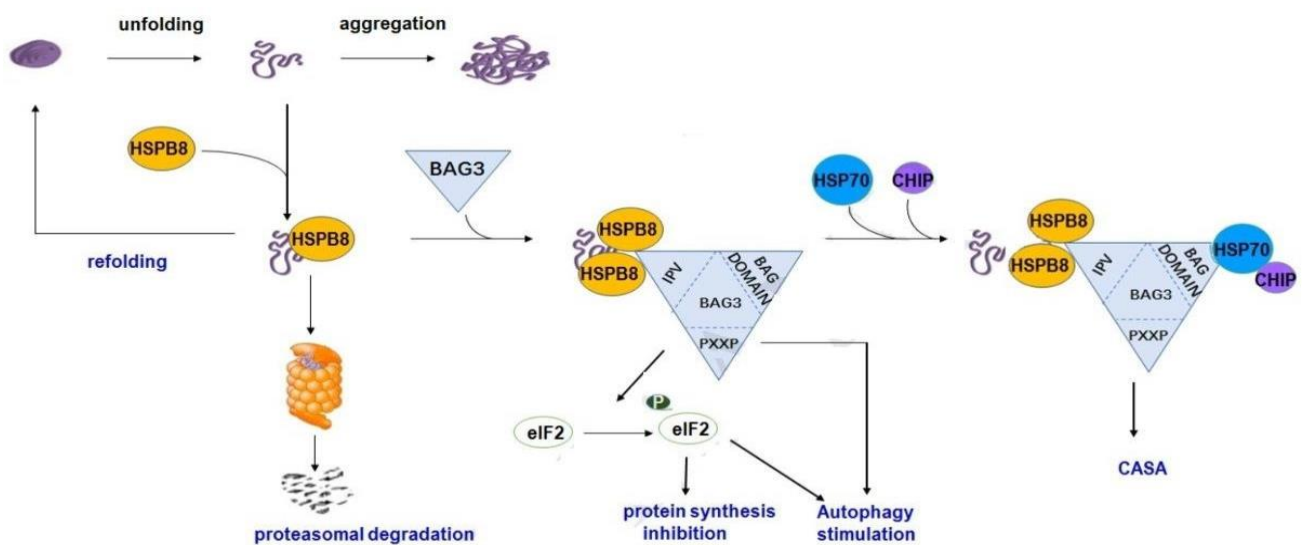


Figure 1.5: Participation of HSPB8 in protein quality control.

HSPB8 is only indicated to assist misfolded or unfolded proteins to regain or acquire the normal folding. In most conditions, HSPB8 facilitate the degradation of terminally misfolded proteins in collaboration with proteolytic machinery including proteasome or autophagy. Through interaction with BAG3, HSPB8 predominantly targets misfolded promotes autophagic removal of misfolded proteins. Adapted from Fazhao Li et al., 2018.

Ganassi et al., 2016 reported that immediately following stress, HSPB8 dissociates from the BAG3-HSP70 subcomplex and is recruited into SGs (Figure 1.6). These results suggest that the HSPB8-BAG3-HSP70 complex undergoes partial dissociation during proteotoxic stress and that HSPB8 has both BAG3-independent and -dependent roles. Inhibition of proteasomal degradation resulted in a significant increase in HSPB8 levels, even in cells depleted of BAG3, providing further support for the idea that HSPB8 has a BAG3-independent function. Under these conditions, upregulation of HSPB8 may promote the nucleation of ubiquitinated microaggregates, upstream of BAG3 (Guilbert et al., 2018). Additionally, HSPB8 was found to play a role in regulating the molecular assembly of p62, which in turn promotes p62 recruitment to the BAG3 machinery, thereby facilitating the sequestration of misfolded proteins (Guilbert et al., 2018). In recent studies, it has been shown that HSPB8 is capable of recognizing and aiding in the autophagy-mediated clearance of dipeptide repeat proteins (DPRs) derived from the C9ORF72 transcript that contains an expanded G4C2 stretch. This transcript has been identified as the genetic cause of ALS and FTD (Cristofani et al, 2017b). The observed results indicate that in addition to classical misfolded proteins, HSPB8 is involved in mitigating a wide range of abnormal peptides in cells that have the potential to form aggregates. BAG3 facilitates the degradation of (poly)-ubiquitinated and misfolded proteins through autophagy (Yew et al., 2005).

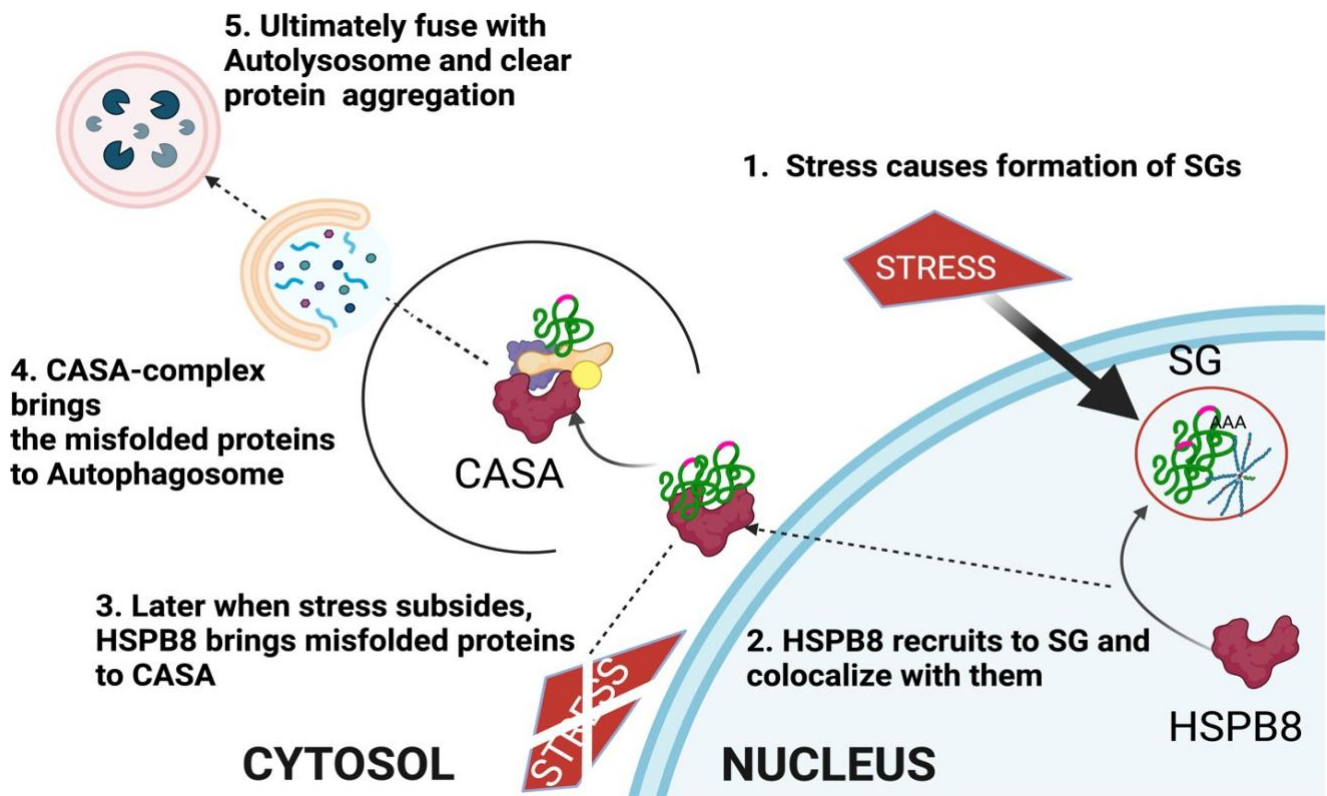


Figure 1.6: Role of HSPB8 in misfolded protein clearance.

Immediately after stress HSPB8-dissociate from the CASA-complex and recruits to the SG. At the time of stress it colocalize to the SGs and when the stress is over, it brings all the non-native protein to the CASA either for proper folding or for degradation. Later CASA-complex brings all the misfolded protein to autophagosome and further these protein get degraded by fusing to lysosome. Figure has been generated using BioRender.

1.10 Role of HSPB8 in UPS and CASA

In recent years, the intricate relationship between proteasome saturation, HSPB8 expression, and protein quality control has garnered significant attention. When the proteasome becomes overwhelmed by misfolded proteins, an intriguing phenomenon occurs: the upregulation of HSPB8 expression. HSPB8, working in conjunction with its partners BAG3 and HSC70, plays a crucial role in guiding misfolded proteins towards autophagy, facilitating their degradation. However, there are instances where the transportation of cargo by dynein and the formation of autophagosomes encounter obstacles, leading to the activation of unknown factors that trigger de novo transcription of BAG1. Consequently, BAG1 associates with HSP70/CHIP, redirecting misfolded proteins towards the ubiquitin-proteasome system (UPS) for degradation (Rusmini et al., 2017) (see Figure 1.7). The sciatic nerve of mice homozygous for the K141E and K141N knock-in mutations exhibited HSPB8-positive aggregates, which were associated with decreased markers of autophagy effectiveness (Bouhy et al., 2018). Recent findings suggest that HSPB8K141N may disrupt the turnover of autophagosomes by hindering their co-localization and subsequent fusion with lysosomes, rather than affecting autophagosomes co-localized with protein aggregates (Kwok et al., 2011) (X. C. Li et al., 2017). Trehalose is a disaccharide that has been shown to regulate autophagy by inducing lysosomal enlargement and membrane permeabilization. This process occurs through the induction of the protein HSPB8, which plays a key role in mediating the effects of trehalose on lysosomal function. Overall, the induction of lysosomal enlargement and membrane permeabilization by trehalose, through the induction of HSPB8, represents a novel mechanism by which autophagy can be regulated. This process may have important implications for the treatment of various diseases, including neurodegenerative disorders and cancer, which are associated with defects in lysosomal function and autophagy (Rusmini et al., 2019).

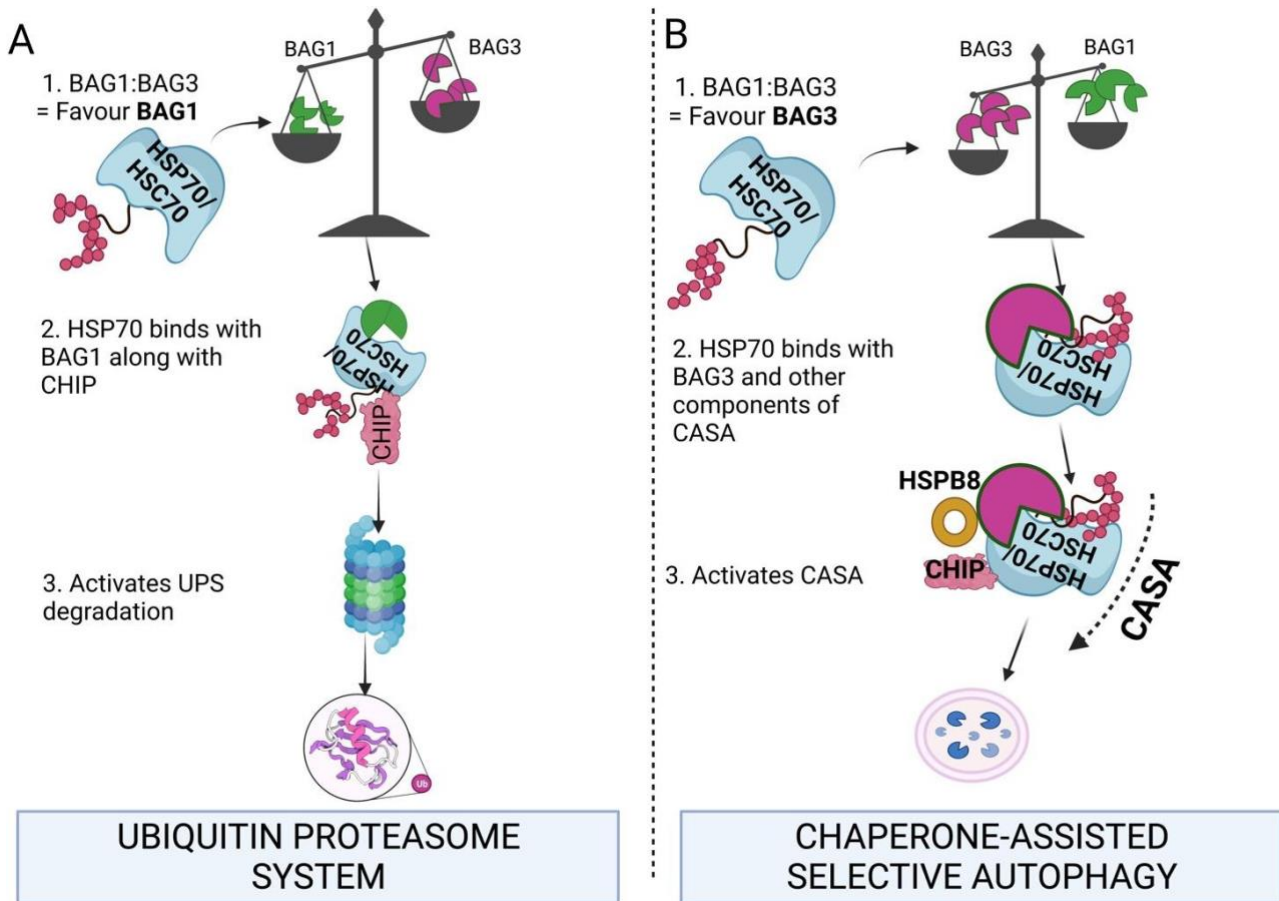


Figure 1.7: BAG proteins regulated transition from proteasomal degradation to autophagosomal degradation.

A) When BAG1 level is elevated (1) Ratio of BAG1 is higher than BAG3 (2) HSP70 bound non-native protein delivered to BAG1 and bind with CHIP and other proteins for further degradation (3) These degraded or non-native proteins get cleared by UPS pathway. B) When BAG3 level is elevated (1) When BAG3 is higher the clearance system shifts to CASA (2) HSP70 brings non-native proteins to the BAG3 and later on other components of CASA also participate (3) These misfolded protein further delivered to CASA for further processing which to be next rerouted to autophagosomes for degradation. Image has been generated by using BioRender.

2 OBJECTIVE OF THIS STUDY

HSPB8 has a unique role in the cellular response to stress and functions as a mediator in presenting misfolded substrates to HSP70 for subsequent processing. A strong correlation between the amount of HSPB8 and misfolded proteins within SGs has been documented (Ganassi et al., 2016). The final fate of misfolded proteins depends on the recruitment facilitated by HSPB8 of BAG3 (Carra et al., 2008). The binding of BAG3 and SQSTM1 leads to the recruitment of HSPB8, BAG3, and HSP70 to substrates designated for specific autophagy, which are commonly referred to as CASA (Crippa et al., 2010a; Gamerdinger et al., 2011). The fusion step between autophagosomes and lysosomes is a critical step in this pathway, and studies suggest that HSPB8 is required for this process (Crippa et al., 2010; XC Li et al., 2017; Rusmini et al., 2017). On the one hand, multiple studies have demonstrated that HSPB8 is implicated in the clearance of protein aggregates resulting from genes associated with ALS (Crippa et al., 2010b; Crippa et al., 2016; Carra et al., 2013; Rusmini et al., 2013, 2015).

The predominant mutations in the HSPB8 gene have been found in individuals diagnosed with Charcot-Marie-Tooth (CMT) type 2L neuropathy, as reported by Nakhro et al. (2013) and Tang et al. (2005). Additionally, these mutations are also associated with distal hereditary motor neuropathy (dHMN) type 2A, as indicated by studies conducted by Al-Tahan et al. (2019), Ghaoui et al. (2016), and Irobi et al. (2004). Several studies have provided compelling evidence implicating HSPB8 in the clearance of protein aggregates linked to ALS-associated genes. Notably, the works of Crippa et al. (2010b, 2016), Carra et al. (2013), and Rusmini et al. (2013, 2015) have consistently demonstrated HSPB8's involvement in the removal of these aggregates.

Studies propose that such genetic mutations in the HSPB8 gene impede proteostasis, SG response and autophagy, highlighting these pathways as crucial for long motor neurons situated in the peripheral nervous system (Varlet et al., 2017). Interestingly, ALS autopsy mRNA analysis showed elevated HSPB8 expression in spinal cord samples compared to age-matched healthy controls (Anagnostou et al., 2010).

We thus wanted to address the function of HSPB8 in human motor neurons. For this, we investigated whether and how HSPB8 loss of function affect human induced pluripotent stem cells (iPSC)-derived motor neurons. Pathophysiologically, we speculate that HSPB8 KO affects the dynamics of SGs and that this effect is associated with alterations in proteostasis and heightened cellular demise. Furthermore, another objective of this research was to examine the proteins involved in CASA, and their regulation in case of HSPB8 loss and whether these affect the aggregation of one key aggregating protein in ALS, namely Fused in sarcoma (FUS), as any dysfunction in this process may lead to neurodegenerative disorders.

3 MATERIALS AND METHODS

3.1 Materials

3.1.1 Instruments

Table 3.1: Instrument

Name	Company
Analytical Balance — CP225D-0CE	Satorius AG, Germany
Axiovert 200M with Apotome	Carl Zeiss, Germany
Balance SBA 52	Scaltec Instruments GmbH, Germany
CASY Cell Counter and Analyzer TT+	Innovatis Technologies Inc., USA
Centrifuge	Labnet international, USA
Centrifuge 5403	Eppendorf, Germany
Centrifuge Biofuge Pico	Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA
Centrifuge Biofuge Primo	Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA
Centrifuge Hermle Z 283 K	Hermle Labortechnik GmbH, Germany
Cooling box with rotor	Privileg, Germany
Electrophoresis Cell Criterion	Bio-Rad Laboratories, USA
Gel documentation Dunkelhaube D4	Biostep GmbH, Germany
Gel electrophoresis system E865	Consort, Belgium
Gel electrophoresis system PSU EPS600	Pfizer, New York, USA
Imager LAS3000	Fujifilm, Tokyo, Japan
Incubating orbital shaker 3500i	VWR International, USA
Incubator Heracell 150	Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA
Incubator Heracell 150i	Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA
Laminar flow hood Clean Wizard V 100	Kojair Tech Oy, Vilppula, Finland
Laminar flow hood Herasafe HS	Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA
Laser Scanning Confocal Microscope LSM780	Carl Zeiss, Germany
Laser Scanning Confocal Microscope LSM 900 with Airyscan 2	Carl Zeiss, Germany
Light Cycler Nano	Roche, Switzerland
Light Cycler 480II	Roche, Switzerland

Manual pipettes	Eppendorf, Germany
Microplate reader Sunrise	Tecan Group, Switzerland
Microplate reader Spark	Tecan Group, Switzerland
Multichannel pipette	Brand GmbH & Co. KG, Germany
Odyssey 9120 Fluorescent Imager Odyssey XF Imager	LI-COR Biosciences, USA LI-COR Biosciences, USA
Pipette 35lpha35p35bl, PIPETBOY	Integra Biosciences, Switzerland
Pipette set	Eppendorf, Germany
PCR cycler – Mastercycler gradient	Eppendorf, Germany
PowerPac Universal Power Supply	Bio-Rad Laboratories, USA
Real time PCR cycler MX3000P	Agilent, USA
RotaMax 150 Shaker	Heidolph, Germany
Shaking incubator 3032	GFL, Germany
Spark Multimode Microplate Reader	Tecan Group, Switzerland
Stereo preparation microscope Stemi DV4SteREO CL 1500 ECO	Carl Zeiss, Germany
Thermo shaker PST-60HL-4 Lab4You	Dewert Labortechnik, Germany
Thermomixer – Thermomixer 5436	Eppendorf, Germany
Thermomixer – Thermomixer Comfort	Eppendorf, Germany
Trans-Blot Turbo Transfer System	Bio-Rad Laboratories, USA
Transilluminator – BioView UST 30M-8R	Biostep GmbH, Germany
Water bath	Memmert GmbH & Co. KG, Germany
Water bath — Julambo SW22	JULAMBO Labortechnik GmbH, Germany

3.1.2 Chemicals and reagents

Table 3.2: **Chemicals and reagents**

Name	Company
4-15% Criterion TGX Precast midiproteins gels	Bio-Rad Laboratories, USA
Acetic Acid	Sigma-Aldrich, USA
Agarose	Biozym Biotech Trading GmbH, Germany
Ampicillin	Carl Roth GmbH & Co. KG, Germany

Bromophenol Blue	Sigma-Aldrich, USA
BSA Fraction V	Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA
CASY Clean Buffer	Roche, Switzerland
CASY Ton Buffer	Roche, Switzerland
Complete Protease Inhibitor Cocktail Tablets	Sigma-Aldrich, USA
DAPI Fluoromount G	SouthernBiotech, USA
Dithiothreitol	Sigma-Aldrich, USA
DMSO	Sigma-Aldrich, USA
Doxycyclin Hyclate	Sigma-Aldrich, USA
dNTP Mix, 10 µM each	Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA
D-Sorbitol	Sigma-Aldrich, USA
EDTA	Thermo Fischer Scientific, USA
Ethanol	VWR International GmbH, Germany
Etoposide	Sigma-Aldrich, USA
Fluoromount	SouthernBiotech, USA
HEPES Buffer	Thermo Fischer Scientific, USA
Hydrogen peroxide 30% (w/w) in H ₂ O	Sigma-Aldrich, USA
Isopropanol	VWR International GmbH, Germany
Laminin	Sigma-Aldrich, USA
Matrigel Matrix	Corning Inc., USA
NaCl	Merck Group, Germany
Paraformaldehyde 4% solution	Seipt, Klinikapotheke UKD, Germany
PCR Grade Water	Biotechrabbit, Germany
Phosphate Buffered Saline, pH 7.4	Thermo Fischer Scientific, USA
PhosSTOP Phosphatase Inhibitor Tablets	Sigma-Aldrich, USA
Pierce™ Protein-Free (PBS) Blocking Buffer	Thermo Fischer Scientific, USA
Ponceau S-Lösung	Sigma-Aldrich, USA
Poly-L-Ornithine	Sigma-Aldrich, USA
Precision Plus Protein Dual Xtra Prestained Protein Standard	Bio-Rad Laboratories, USA
RIPA Lysis and Extraction Buffer	Thermo Fischer Scientific, USA
Revert™ 700 Total Protein Stain Kits for Western Blot Normalization	Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA
Skim milk powder	Sigma-Aldrich, USA
Sodium Arsenite	Sigma-Aldrich, USA
Sodium Bicarbonate	Thermo Fischer Scientific, USA
Sodium Dodecyl Sulphate	Carl Roth GmbH & Co. KG, Germany

Sterile Rnase-free water	Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA
Tris-HCL	Carl Roth GmbH & Co. KG, Germany
TritonX-100	Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA
Tween 20	Serva Elektrophoresis GmbH,GERMANY

3.1.3 Commercially available kits

Table 3.3: **Commercially available kits**

Name	Company
ECL Prime Western Blotting Detection Reagent	GE Healthcare, USA
Expand High Fidelity PCR System	Sigma-Aldrich, Germany
miRNeasy Mini Kit	Qiagen, Germany
FastStart Universal SYBR Green Master Mix (ROX)	Roche, Switzerland
High-Capacity cDNA Reverse Transcription Kit	Thermo Fischer Scientific, USA
Pierce BCA Protein Assay Kit	Thermo Fischer Scientific, USA
PrestoBlue Viability Assay	Thermo Fischer Scientific, USA
Premo Autophagy Assays with Sensor Tandem Sensor RFP-GFP-LC3B	Thermo Fischer Scientific, USA
QIAquick Gel Extraction Kit	Qiagen, Germany
QuantiTect Reverse Transcription Kit	Qiagen, Germany
QuantiTect Syber Green PCR Kit	Qiagen, Germany
Quick-RNA Miniprep Kit	Zymo Research, USA
Trans-Blot Turbo Midi Nitrocellulose Transfer Packs	Bio-Rad Laboratories, USA
ZR Plasmid Miniprep Kit	Zymo Research, USA

3.1.4 Cell culture media and supplements

Table 3.4: **Cell culture media and supplements**

Name	Company
Accutase	Sigma-Aldrich, USA
B27 Supplement, w/o vitamin A	Thermo Fischer Scientific, USA
β -Mercaptoethanol	Thermo Fischer Scientific, USA
DMEM High Glucose Medium	Thermo Fischer Scientific, USA
DMEM/F12 Medium	Thermo Fischer Scientific, USA
Fetal Bovine Serum	Sigma-Aldrich, USA
GlutaMAX Supplement	Thermo Fischer Scientific, USA
MEM Non-Essential Amino Acid Solution	Thermo Fischer Scientific, USA
N2 Supplement	Thermo Fischer Scientific, USA
Neurobasal Medium	Thermo Fischer Scientific, USA
Penicillin and Streptomycin	Thermo Fischer Scientific, USA
Penicillin-Streptomycin-Glutamine	Thermo Fischer Scientific, USA
Trypsin	Thermo Fischer Scientific, USA

3.1.5 Growth factors and small molecules

Table 3.5: **Growth factors and small molecules**

Name	Company
Activin A	Peptotech, USA
Ascorbic Acid	Sigma-Aldrich, USA
BDNF	Promega, USA
Chiron 99021	Cayman Chemical, USA
DBcAMP	Sigma-Aldrich, USA
GDNF	Sigma-Aldrich, USA
Retinoic Acid	Sigma-Aldrich, USA
TGF β -3	Promega, USA

3.1.6 Cell lines

All the cell lines used in this study were previously generated and characterized in the Hermann laboratory or in the laboratories of the collaborators or were purchased from a commercially available source. The detailed information is presented in the Table 3.6. All the cell lines were routinely tested for mycoplasma contamination.

Table 3.6: Cell lines

Cell line	Description (Sex/age at biopsy/genotype)	Characterized in
KOLF-WT	M/55-59Y/healthy Control	Wellcome Trust Sanger Institute; Hinxton; United Kingdom
KOLF-HSPB8KO	M/55-59Y/genetically modified Via CRISPR/CAS9	Wellcome Trust Sanger Institute; Hinxton; United Kingdom
iPSC SL FUS-P525L-EGFP	F/58/genetically modified FUS-P525L-EGFP	(Naumann et al., 2018)
iPSC SL FUS-WT-EGFP	F/58/isogenically modified to FUS-WT-EGFP	
iPSC LL FUS-P525L-EGFP	M/n.a./ genetically modified FUS-P525L-EGFP	(Wheeler et al., 2019)
iPSC LL FUS-WT-EGFP	M/n.a./ isogenically modified to FUS-WT-EGFP	
iPSC CTR1	F/48/healthy control	(Japtok et al., 2015 ; Naumann et al., 2018) (Japtok et al., 2015 ; Naumann et al., 2018)
iPSC CTR2	M/60/healthy control	
iPSC CTR3	F/45/healthy control	
iPSC CTR4	F/50/healthy control	
iPSC FUS-R521C	F/58/p. R521C	(Japtok et al., 2015 ; Naumann et al., 2018)
HSPB8-myc Flip	Doxycycline/tetracycline dependent overexpression cassette of HSPB8	Kind gift by Professor Dr. S Carra (University of Modena and Reggio Emilia, Italy)

3.1.7 Antibodies

Table 3.7: Primary antibodies

Name	Host	Dilution	Company	Reference No.
BAG1	rabbit	1:1000	abcam	ab32109
BAG3	rabbit	1:1000	abcam	ab47124
FUS	rabbit	1:2000	Sigma- Aldrich	HPA008784
G3BP1	rabbit	1:500	abcam	ab181150
HSPB8	rabbit	1:1000	abcam	ab151552
HSPB8	rabbit	1:1000	Sigma- Aldrich	HPA015876
HSPB8	rabbit	1:1000	Sigma- Aldrich	SAB2101100
HSPB8	rabbit	1:1000	Invitrogen	PA5-76780
HSPB8	rabbit	1:1000	Cell signalling	3059
HSP40	rabbit	1:1000	Enzo	ADI-SPA-400-D
HSP70/HSP72 (C92F3A-5)	mouse	1:1000	Enzo	ADI-SPA-810
HSP73(1B5)	rat	1:1000	Enzo	ADI-SPA-815-D
HSP90	rabbit	1:1000	Cell Signaling Technology	4874S
HSP90	rabbit	1:200	abcam	ab13492
LAMP2	Mouse	1:50	abcam	ab25631
LC3B(E5Q2K)	Mouse	1:1000	Cell signaling	83506S
MAP2	chicken	1:2000	abcam	ab5392
Anti-P62/SQSTM1	rabbit	1:1000	Sigma-Aldrich	P0067
TIAR	mouse	1:500	BD Biosciences	610352
β-Actin	mouse	1:10.000	Sigma-Aldrich	A5441

Table 3.8: Secondary antibodies

Name	Host	Dilution	Company	Reference No.
Goat anti-Chicken IgG (H+L)	Alexa Fluor 647	1:500	Invitrogen	A21449
Goat anti-Mouse IgG	Alexa Fluor 488	1:500	Invitrogen	A11029

(H+L)				
Goat anti-Mouse IgG (H+L)	Alexa Fluor 568	1:500	Invitrogen	A11031
Goat anti-Rabbit IgG (H+L)	Alexa Fluor 488	1:500	Invitrogen	A11034
Goat anti-Rabbit IgG (H+L)	Alexa Fluor 568	1:500	Invitrogen	A11036
Goat anti-Rat IgG (H+L)	Alexa Fluor 488	1:500	Invitrogen	A11006
Goat anti-Mouse IgG	DyLight 680	1:10 000	Rockland Immunochemicals	610-144-121
Goat anti-Mouse IgG	DyLight 800	1:10 000	Rockland Immunochemicals	610-145-003
Goat anti-Rabbit IgG	DyLight 800	1:10 000	Rockland Immunochemicals	611-145-122
Goat anti-Rabbit IgG	DyLight 680	1:10 000	Rockland Immunochemicals	611-144-002
Goat anti-Rat IgG	DyLight 680	1:10 000	Rockland Immunochemicals	612-144-002
Goat anti-Rat IgG	DyLight 800	1:10 000	Rockland Immunochemicals	612-145-002

3.1.8 Primers

Table 3.9: Primers

Name	Forward Primer	Reverse Primer
GAPDH	CGGAGTCAACGGATTTGGTCGTA T	ATTGATGACAAGCTTCCCGTTC
HSPB8-201	CCCTGGAAAGTGTGTGTGAATG	GCAGGAAGCTGGATTTTCTTTG
HSPB8-202	AAGCCAGAGGAGTTGATGGTG	CAGTAACGATTTTGTCTGCCTGT
HSPB8-204	CCAGGCACCCTAAGGTCGG	CTCTGCAGGAAGCCAGACACC
HSPB8-206	GAAGAGAAACAGCAAGAAGGTG G	ACCTCTGCAGGAAGCCTCAC
HSPB8-207	GAAGAGAAACAGCAAGAAGGTG G	ACGATTTTGTGGATTTTCTTTGTG AA
HSPB8-210	GAAGAGAAACAGCAAGAAGGTG G	TCACCTGCTGCCTGTTTACTT
HSPB8 gDNA	TGGTACAACACATGGAAGATTTG G	GCACCGAGCAGATGAGATGA

3.1.9 Consumables

Table 3.10: **Consumables**

Name	Company
Cell Culture Flasks 25ml, 75ml	Corning, USA
Cell Culture Plates (4-, 6-, 12-, 24-well)	Sarstedt, Germany; Thermo Fischer Scientific, USA; TPP Techno Plastic Products AG, Switzerland; Corning, USA
Cell Scraper	Carl Roth, Germany
Conical Bottom Centrifuge Tubes 15ml, 50ml	Greiner Bio-One, Austria
Costar® Stripette® 2-50ml	Corning, USA
Falcon® Round-Bottom Tubes with Cell Strainer Cap	STEMCELL Technologies, Canada
Glass Cover Slips	Thermo Fischer Scientific, USA
MicroAmp™ Reaction Tube, 0.2ml	Thermo Fischer Scientific, USA
Minisart® Syringe Filters 0.45µm, 0.2µm	Sartorius, Germany
Nalgene® Freezing Container	Sigma Aldrich, Germany
PVDF Syringe Filters, 0.45µm, 0.2µm	Sigma-Aldrich, USA
Superfrost® Microscope Slides	Thermo Fischer Scientific, USA
µ-Slide 8 Well Glass Bottom	Ibidi, Germany

3.1.10 Software

Table 3.11: **Software**

Software	Function	Source
Adobe Illustrator CC 2017 21.0	Graphics design	Adobe Systems, USA
CellProfiler 2.2.0	Image analysis	Open source (Carpenter et al., 2006)
Enrichr	Analysis and visualization of gene lists	Open source (Chen et al., 2013 ; Kuleshov et al., 2016)
FiJi ImageJ 2.2.0	Image and video analysis	Open source (Schindelin et al., 2009)
GeneMANIA	Gene network prediction	Open source https://genemania.org/
GraphPad Prism 8	Statistical analysis	GraphPad Software Inc., USA

Image Studio Lite 5.2	Western Blot quantification	LI-COR Bioesciences, USA
KNIME 3.7.2	Data handling	KNIME AG, Switzerland
LightCycler Nano	qPCR data analysis	Roche, Switzerland
Zen 2011	Protein-protein interaction network analysis	Open source (von Mering et al., 2003)

3.2 METHODS

3.2.1 Filter retardation assay

The cells cultured in a 6-well plate were washed once with PBS followed by removing PBS and adding 200ul cold activated RIPA Buffer supplemented with cOmplete Protease Inhibitor Cocktail Tablets and PhosSTOP Phosphatase Inhibitor Tablets (Table 3.2). Cells were scraped off of the surface of the dish using a scraper and incubated on ice with RIPA buffer on the shaker for 20 minutes. The cell suspension was then centrifuged at 13,000 x g for 15 minutes at 4°C. The supernatant containing protein was transferred to a fresh tube. 15ug of samples has been diluted in RIPA to make the final Volume to 120ul. Meanwhile the acetate cellulose membrane were incubated in 20% methanol and whatmann paper has been soaked in RIPA. Incubating the membrane in methanol until it turn gray followed by discarding methanol and adding RIPA for 30 seconds. When the membrane was ready, loading was done followed by vaccum suction of the samples. After all the samples has been completely soaked to the membrane. Membrane has been obtained by disassembling the device. Membrane has been washed with 20% methanol, followed by a quick wash with TBS-T buffer. Membrane has been checked with Ponceau Staining or Total Protein staining (Table 3.2). After the total protein staining, membrane was incubated in the blocking buffer (5% skim milk powder in TBS-T buffer: 20 mM Tris, 137 mM NaCl, 0.1% Tween 20, pH 7.5) for 1 hour at the room temperature with mild shaking. The appropriate primary antibody dilution was prepared in 3% skim milk in TBS-T buffer and after the blocking step the membrane was incubated with this solution for 1hour with mild shaking. The membrane was washed 3 times for 5 minutes with TBS-T buffer followed by incubation for 1 hour at the room temperature with mild shaking in the darkness in an appropriate secondary antibody diluted in 3% skim milk in TBS-T. Next, the membrane was washed 3 times for 5 minutes with TBS-T buffer and 1 time for 5 minutes with TBS buffer without Tween 20. Depending on the used secondary antibodies and on the detection system, the membrane was either let to dry and then immunofluorescence was detected using

Odyssey XF Imager (Table 3.1). The immunofluorescence images were analyzed and quantified using Image Studio Lite software.

3.2.2 Immunofluorescence Stainings

For immunofluorescence staining, the cells were seeded on PLO/laminin coated μ -Slide 8-well chamber slides (see section 3.2.5.2) at the density of 50,000 cells per cm^2 . The cells were washed once with PBS and fixed with ice-cold 4% paraformaldehyde solution pH 7.4 for 10 minutes at the room temperature. After washing the cells 3 times with PBS, the cell membrane was permeabilized by incubating the cells for 10 minutes at the room temperature with 0.2% (v/v) TritonX-100 in PBS. Next, blocking of unspecific binding sites was performed by incubating the cells for 1 hour at the room temperature with Pierce™ Protein-Free Blocking Buffer (Table 3.2). An appropriate dilution of primary antibodies was prepared in the blocking buffer and the cells were incubated with this solution at 4°C overnight. On the following day, the cells were washed 3 times for 5 minutes with PBS. Next, the secondary antibodies were diluted in the blocking buffer and added to the cells. The cells were then incubated for 1 hour at the room temperature in the darkness. The cells were washed 3 times for 5 minutes with PBS and stained were mounted with DAPI Fluoromount G later they were stored at 4°C for future usage.

3.2.3 Protein isolation and Western Blot

3.2.3.1 Protein isolation

In order to harvest the total protein fraction, the cells cultured in a 6-well plate were washed once with PBS followed by removing PBS and adding 90-200ul cold activated RIPA Buffer supplemented with cOmplete Protease Inhibitor Cocktail Tablets and PhosSTOP Phosphatase Inhibitor Tablets (Table 3.2). Cells were scraped off of the surface of the dish using a scraper and incubated on ice with RIPA buffer on the shaker for 20 minutes. The cell suspension was then centrifuged at 13,000 x g for 15 minutes at 4°C. The supernatant containing protein was transferred to a fresh tube and stored at -80°C. Alternatively cells were collected in pellet by centrifugation and frozen at -80°C later these pellets were suspended in 90-200ul activated RIPA buffer followed by the incubation on ice with shaking for 40-60 minutes. The samples were then centrifuged at 13,000 x g for 15 minutes at 4°C. The supernatant was collected and stored at -80°C.

3.2.3.2 Protein concentration measurement

To measure protein concentration in the prepared samples, Pierce BCA Protein Assay Kit (Table 3.3) was used according to the manufacturer instructions. First, samples for standard curve were prepared by diluting 2 mg/ml BSA stock solution with water to the range of concentrations between 0 and 10 µg/ml. Next, the protein samples were diluted 5 times using water. After that, 10 µl of protein samples and samples for standard curve were pipetted in triplicate into 96-well plate and then 200 µl of BCA reagent was added to each well. A blank sample was prepared by mixing 10 µl of RIPA buffer and 200 µl BCA reagent. The plate was then incubated for 30 minutes in the darkness at 37°C and shaking at 300 RPM. Colorimetric measurement was performed using microplate reader at the wavelength 570 nm. The protein concentration was calculated using a standard curve method.

3.2.3.3 Western blot

To prepare Western blot samples, the volume of protein sample containing 20 µg of total protein was mixed with 6 µl of 5X SDS loading buffer (0.25% bromophenol blue, 0.5M dithiothreitol, 50% glycerol, 10% SDS and 0.25 M Tris-HCl pH 6.8) and filled up with water to the final volume of 30 µl. 4-15% Polyacrylamid Criterion Precast Midi Gel (Table 3.2) was placed in a Criterion Electrophoresis Cell (Table 3.1) and the cell was filled with SDS running buffer (25 mM Tris, 0.2 M Glycine, 0.01% SDS). The samples and the Protein Plus Marker (Table 3.2) were pipetted on the gel and the electrophoresis was performed first at 100 V for 10 minutes and then at 200 V for 45 minutes. The gel was then removed from the cast and a transfer stack was assembled using the Trans-Blot Turbo Midi Nitrocellulose Transfer Packs (Table 3.3) according to the manufacturer instructions. The stack was placed in the Trans-Blot Turbo Transfer System (Table 3.1) and the transfer was performed for 7 minutes at 25 V and 1.3 A. After the transfer is completed membrane was dried for 1 hour to allow protein binding tightly to the membrane, preventing potential signal loss. After this the membrane was incubated in the blocking buffer (5% skim milk powder in TBS-T buffer: 20 mM Tris, 137 mM NaCl, 0.1% Tween 20, pH 7.5) for 1 hour at the room temperature with mild shaking. The appropriate primary antibody dilution was prepared in 3% skim milk in TBS-T buffer and after the blocking step the membrane was incubated with this solution overnight at 4°C with mild shaking. On the following day, the membrane was washed 3 times for 5 minutes with TBS-T buffer. Then the membrane was incubated for 1 hour at the room temperature with mild shaking in the darkness with an appropriate secondary antibody dilution prepared in 3% skim milk in TBS-T. Next, the membrane was washed 3 times for 5 minutes with TBS-T buffer and 1 time for 5 minutes with TBS buffer without Tween 20. Depending on the used

secondary antibodies and on the detection system, the membrane was either let to dry and then immunofluorescence was detected using Odyssey 9120 Fluorescent Imager (Table 3.1). The immunofluorescence images were analyzed and quantified using Image Studio Lite software

3.2.4 qRNA isolation, reverse transcription and quantitative polymerase chain reaction

3.2.4.1 RNA isolation and reverse transcription

If not described otherwise, RNA isolation was performed using Quick-RNA Miniprep Kit (Table 3.3) according to the manufacturer instructions. RNA concentration was measured using Qubit fluorometer or a microplate reader with NanoQuant plate. For reverse transcription High Capacity cDNA Synthesis Kit (Table 3.3) was used. The reaction was prepared by mixing 1 µg of RNA with 2 µl of 10X RT Buffer, 0.8 µl of 25X dNTP Mix (100 mM), 2 µl of 10X Random Primers and 1 µl of Reverse Transcriptase. The mix was then filled up to the final reaction volume of 20 µl with Rnase free PCR Grade Water and the reaction was performed with the thermal profile described in the table 3.12.

Table 3.12: Thermal Profile of the Reverse Transcription Reaction

Temperature	Time
25°C	10 minutes
37°C	120 minutes
85°C	5 minutes
4°C	hold

3.2.4.2 Quantitative polymerase chain reaction

For quantitative polymerase chain reaction (qPCR) FastStart SYBR Green Kit (Table 3.3) was used. The master mix was prepared by mixing 25 µl of FastStart SYBR Green Master, 1.5 µl of 10 µM Primer Forward (final concentration 300 nM), 1.5 µl of 10 µM Primer Reverse (final concentration 300 nM) and 17 µl of PCR Grade Water. Next, 5 µl of cDNA synthesized as described in the section 2.2.3.1 was pipetted into MicroAmp™ Reaction Tube and 45 µl of an appropriate master mix was added. The reaction was performed using LightCycler Nano or Light Cycler 480II (Table 3.1) with the thermal profile described in the table 3.13.

Table 3.13: Thermal Profile of qPCR Reaction

Step		Temperature	Time
Initial Denaturation		95°C	10 minutes
	Denaturation	95°C	20 seconds
40x	Annealing	varying	20 seconds
	Elongation	72°C	20 seconds
Pre-Melt Hold		95°C (4°C/sec)	10 seconds
Initial Melting		65°C (4°C/sec)	1 minute
Final Melting		95°C (0.1°C/sec)	1 second

3.2.5 Cell culture

All the cell lines were cultured in the cell culture incubator at 37°C, with a stable level of 5% CO₂ and 21% O₂. The cell culture work was performed under sterile conditions at the laminar flow hood. All the media and solutions applied to the cells were pre-warmed to 37°C. These conditions were used unless indicated otherwise.

3.2.5.1 Cell culture media

All the basic media and supplements were handled and stored according to the manufacturer instructions. Growth factors and small molecules were aliquoted and stored at – 20°C and freshly added to each batch of medium.

Table 3.14: Cell culture media formulation

Name	Formulation
N2B27 Basic Medium	48.75 % (v/v) DMEM/F12 48.75% (v/v) + Neurobasal medium 1% (v/v) + Penicillin Streptomycin-Glutamine + 1% (v/v) B27 Supplement, w/o vitamin A 0.5% (v/v) + N2 Supplement
NPC Expansion Medium	N2B27 basic medium + 3 μ M CHIR99021 + 150 μ M Ascorbic Acid + 0.5 μ M Purmorphamine
NPC Patterning Medium	N2B27 basic medium + 1 ng/ml BDNF + 1 ng/ml GDNF + 200 μ M Ascorbic Acid + 0.5 μ M Purmorphamine + 1 μ M Retinoic Acid
Maturation Medium for Spinal Motor Neurons	N2B27 basic medium + 2 ng/ml BDNF + 2 ng/ml GDNF + 200 μ M Ascorbic Acid + 100 μ M DBcAMP + 1 ng/ml TGF β -3
Freezing Medium for NPC	90% (v/v) N2B27 basic medium 10% (v/v) DMSO
HeLa Cells Medium	89% (v/v) DMEM High Glucose Medium 10% (v/v) Fetal Bovine Serum + 1% Penicillin and Streptomycin

3.2.5.2 Cell culture dish coatings

Coating of the cell culture dishes was performed for enhanced cell attachment and growth in monolayer. The following volumes of the respective coating solutions were used: for 6-well plates 1 ml/well, for 24-well plates 500 μ l/well and for μ - slide 8 well 200 μ l/well.

3.2.5.2.1 Matrigel® coating

Matrigel® was thawed overnight at 4°C, pre-diluted with DMEM/F12 medium to the protein concentration of 2 mg/ml, aliquoted and stored at -20°C. For coating, Matrigel® was further diluted to the final concentration of 100 μ g/ml in DMEM/F12 medium and this solution was added to the dish. The dish was then incubated for either 1 hour at 37° C or overnight at 4°C. Prior the use, Matrigel®

solution was removed and appropriate cell culture medium was added immediately to avoid drying of the coated dish.

3.2.5.2.2 Poly-L-ornithine and laminin coating

In the first step, the dishes were pre-coated with poly-L-ornithine (PLO). For this purpose, 15% (v/v) PLO solution in PBS was added to the dishes, which were then incubated overnight at 37°C in the shaking incubator. Next, the plates were washed 3 times with PBS and were allowed to dry at the room temperature. This was followed by and overnight incubation with 1% (V/V) Laminin solution in PBS at 37°C in the shaking incubator. The dishes were then washed 2 times with PBS and the appropriate medium was added immediately to prevent drying.

3.2.6 Cell counting

Cell count using CASY cell counter was performed according to the manufacturer instructions. Briefly, cell suspension at the appropriate dilution was prepared in 10 ml of CASY Tone Buffer and 3 measurements were taken using CASY resulting in the readout of cell number/ml as well as cell viability.

3.2.7 Expansion and differentiation of neuronal progenitor cells

3.2.7.1 Expansion

Neuronal progenitor cells (NPC) of ventral-posterior characteristic were generated from iPSC using small-molecule approach and characterized previously in the Hermann laboratory according to protocol published by Reinhardt et al., 2013. For the maintenance, NPC were expanded on Matrigel®-coated 6-well plates in the NPC Expansion Medium. The medium was changed every 2-3 days until the culture reached 80-90% of confluence and then the cells were passaged. To passage the culture, the cells were washed once with PBS and then incubated with accutase solution (0.5 ml/well of a 6-well plate) for 5 minutes in 37°C. Next, 1 ml/well of N2B27 Basic Medium was added and the cell suspension was gently pipetted up and down to assure complete detachment of the cells. The cell suspension was then collected and centrifuged at 1200 rotations per minutes (RPM) for 5 minutes. The supernatant was discarded and the cell pellet was re-suspended in an appropriate volume of N2B27 Basic Medium. The cells were plated at 1:10 ratio on the freshly prepared Matrigel®-coated plates (see section 3.2.5.2.1) in the NPC expansion medium.

3.2.7.2 Differentiation to spinal motor neurons

To induce the differentiation of NPC into spinal motor neurons (MN), NPC were passaged as described in the section 3.2.7.1 and seeded on the Matrigel®-coated dish in the NPC Patterning Medium (day 0 of differentiation). The cells were maintained in the NPC Patterning Medium for 6 following days, with medium change every 2-3 days. On day 6, the medium was changed to the Maturation Medium for Motor Neurons with an addition of 5 ng/ml Activin A. On day 7 of the differentiation, the cells were split as described previously and plated on PLO/Laminin coated dishes (see section 3.2.5.2.2) at the density of 60,000 – 75,000 cells per cm² in the Maturation Medium for Motor Neurons. MN were cultivated until at least day 28 of differentiation in the Maturation Medium for Motor Neurons and the medium was changed every other day.

3.2.8 Cultivation of HeLa cells

HeLa cells were maintained in appropriate media described in the section 3.2.5.1 with the medium changed every 2-3 days, until the culture reached 80-90% confluence and then the cells were split. To do that, the cells were washed once with PBS and 0.5 ml of 0.25% trypsin per 1 well of a 6-well plate was added. Next, the cells were incubated for 5 minutes at 37°C and after that, the respective culture medium with 10% FBS was added to the cells. After gentle pipetting up and down, the cells were transferred to a 15 ml falcon tube and centrifuged at 1200 RPM for 5 minutes. The supernatant was discarded and the pellet was re-suspended in the appropriate volume of fresh medium. The cells were seeded on the new dish at the ratio 1:10.

3.2.9 Freezing and thawing of the cells

For the long-term storage of all cell lines, the cryo-stocks of the cells were prepared. In order to freeze the cells, the culture was detached from the dish with a suitable method for each cell type and after the centrifugation at 1200 RPM for 5 minutes, followed by resuspension in an appropriate freezing medium (see Table 3.14) . Routinely, one confluent well of a 6-well plate was used to prepare 1 cryo-stock in the volume of 1 ml. These cryo-vials were then placed in the Nalgene® Freezing Container filled with isopropanol to enable slow cooling at the rate of -1°C/minute and stored at -80°C for 24 hours. After that, the cryo-stocks were transferred to the liquid nitrogen tank for long term storage.

To revive the cells after freezing, the cryo-stock was thawed up in a water bath at 37°C and the cell suspension was diluted with 5 ml of appropriate culture medium. The cells were then centrifuged at

1200 RPM for 5 minutes followed by resuspending of the cell pellet in the culture medium and later plated onto a fresh dish.

3.2.10 Analysis of the cell cultures

3.2.10.1 Stress granules formation

The cells were seeded at the format suitable either for the immunofluorescence stainings (see section 3.2.2) or for running western blot (see section 3.2.3.3). The HeLa cells were treated with 200 μ M sodium arsenite and spinal motor neurons were treated with 500 μ M sodium arsenite for 1 hour. After the treatment, the cells were fixed for immunofluorescence staining or samples were isolated for the western blot.

3.2.10.2 Analysis of stress granules and co-localization with FUS granules

To analyze stress granules number and their co-localization with FUS, immunofluorescence staining of the cells was performed as described in the section 3.2.2 with anti-TIAR antibody or G3BP1 antibody to label stress granules and anti-MAP2 antibody was used to label neurons. Fluorescence microscopy imaging was performed using Laser Scanning Confocal Microscope LSM. At least 10 images of randomly chosen fields of view were acquired for each treatment and each independent experiment. The images were taken as z-stacks of 6 sections with a z-step of 1 μ m to allow for co-localization analysis. If not stated otherwise, 63x oil immersion objective was used. The maximum intensity projection was performed for each image with Fiji ImageJ software and the automated quantification was performed with CellProfiler software. CellProfiler workflow for quantification and co-localization of FUS granules with stress granules was designed as follows:

1. Identify nuclei using DAPI positive staining
2. Identify MAP2 region using MAP2 staining
3. Include nuclei into the MAP2 region
4. Identify stress granules using TIAR staining OR G3BP1 staining
5. Identify FUS granules
6. Relate the detected objects (FUS granules or stress granules) to MAP2 area including nuclei
7. Include nuclei into the MAP2 region
8. Identify stress granules using TIAR staining OR G3BP1 staining

9. Include nuclei into the MAP2 region
10. Identify stress granules using TIAR staining OR G3BP1 staining
11. Identify FUS granules
12. Relate the detected objects (FUS granules or stress granules) to MAP2 area including nuclei
13. Measure size, shape, number and intensity of the detected objects
14. Shrink detected stress granules to a point
15. Shrink detected FUS granules *to a point*
16. Expand detected objects by 1 pixel
17. Relate FUS granules to stress granules to detect co-localization
18. Export the results to a spreadsheet

The results were further filtered and processed using KNIME software. The obtained number of, stress granules per MAP2 area as well as the co-localization with FUS results were processed with GraphPad Prism 7 software for statistical analysis and preparing a graphical representation of the results. Representative line scans and related fluorescence intensity profiles were generated using Fiji ImageJ.

3.2.10.3 Kinetics of Stress granules disassembly assay

To analyze the dynamics of stress granules disassembly, the time course experiments has been done on the NPCs or on the spinal motor neurons, the NPCs cells were stressed with 500 μ M sodium arsenite for 1 hour followed by the time-course recovery experiments. After 1 hour of treatment arsenite has been removed, twice washed with PBS, followed by adding fresh medium. The cells were fixed for the immunofluorescence staining after 30 minutes, 60 minutes and 180 minutes post-treatment. In the case of spinal motor neurons, neurons were treated with 500 μ M sodium arsenite for 1 hour, after treatment cells were washed twice with PBS and a regular maturation medium was added. Post-treatment recovery time course has been performed, cells were fixed after 2hr recoveries up to 8hour full recovery. The fixed cells were then stained with DAPI Fluoromount G, to label the nuclei and the fluorescence images were acquired using LSM 900 confocal microscope (Zeiss) as 10 confocal z-stacks with 0.5 μ m z-step using 63x objective with oil immersion. The images were then processed to generate a maximum intensity projection using Fiji ImageJ software and the stress granules number per cell was automatically quantified using CellProfiler 2.2.0.

3.2.10.4 Cell viability analysis

The cell viability was analyzed using PrestoBlue Viability Assay (ThermoFisher Scientific). Briefly, the cells were incubated with the PrestoBlue reagent diluted 1:10 in the medium without phenol red (N2B27 Basic Medium prepared with DMEM/F12 minus phenol red (Thermo Fischer Scientific, USA) and Neurobasal minus phenol red (Thermo Fischer Scientific, USA)) for 1 hour. After this time, the medium was collected and transferred into the microplate. The fluorescence was measured at 590 nm with a microplate reader and the viability was calculated in reference to the non-treated cells. The results were normalized to the non-treated control

3.2.10.5 Autophagosomes and autolysosomes Formation

The cells were seeded at the format suitable for the live cell imaging on PLO/laminin coated μ -Slide 8-well chamber slides (see section 3.2.5.2) at the density of 50,000 cells per cm^2 . Add 2ul reagent Premo Autophagy Assays with Sensor Tandem Sensor RFP-GFP-LC3B as mentioned in Table 3.3. per 10,000 cells in media. Incubate the cells for 16hours at 37C. Later image the cell with Live cell imaging. RFP and GFP signal represent the autophagosomes, when GFP signal is quenched and only RFP remains they are called autolysosomes.

3.2.10.6 Quantification of Autophagosomes and autolysosomes

To quantify the number of autophagosomes and autolysosomes LSM microscope has been used. At least 7-8 pictures has been of randomly chosen fields of view were acquired for each independent experiment. If not stated otherwise, 63x oil immersion objective was used. Later counting was performed for each image with Fiji ImageJ software using the cell counter plugin. Manually the dots which were positive for GFP and RFP were calculated as Autophagosomes and dots which are only positive for RFP were count as Autolysosomes

3.2.10.7 Quantification of lysosomes

To analyze number of lysosomes, immunofluorescence staining of the cells was performed as described in the section 3.2.2 with LAMP2 antibody to label lysosomes and anti-MAP2 antibody was used to label neurons. Fluorescence microscopy imaging was performed using Laser Scanning Confocal Microscope LSM. At least 10 images of randomly chosen fields of view were acquired for each treatment and each independent experiment. The images were taken as z-stacks of 6 sections with a z-step of 1 μm . If not stated otherwise, 63x oil immersion objective was used. The maximum intensity projection was performed for each image with Fiji ImageJ software and the automated quantification

was performed with CellProfiler software. CellProfiler workflow for quantification was designed as follows:

1. Identify nuclei using DAPI positive staining
2. Identify MAP2 region using MAP2 staining
3. Include nuclei into the MAP2 region
4. Identify lysosomes using LAMP2 staining
5. Relate the detected objects (LAMP2 or lysosomes) to MAP2 area including nuclei
6. Measure size, shape, number and intensity of the detected objects
7. Export the results to a spreadsheet

The results were further filtered and processed using KNIME software. The obtained number of lysosomes per MAP2 area were processed with GraphPad Prism 7 software for statistical analysis and preparing a graphical representation of the results. Representative line scans and related fluorescence intensity profiles were generated using Fiji ImageJ.

3.2.11 Statistics

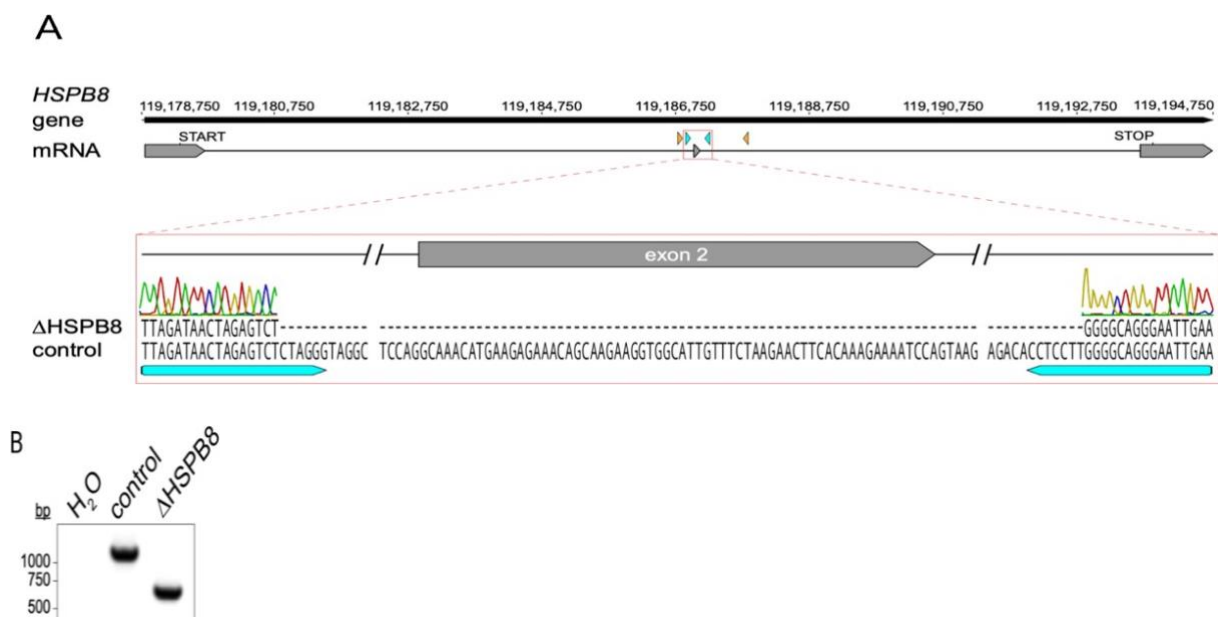
For the statistical analysis, GraphPad Prism 7 software was used. For all the quantitative analysis, three or more independent experiments (sample size $n \geq 3$) were performed. Detailed information about the sample size for each quantification are provided in the respective figure legend. The graphs represent either pooled data as a mean value or individual values (dot plot) with mean value. If not stated otherwise, the error bars represent standard error of the mean (SEM). Routinely, two-tailed unpaired Student's t-test was used to compare two groups with one independent variable. Welch's correction was used for the groups with unequal variances. For the experimental setup with more than two groups and/or more than two variables, One-way ANOVA or Two-way ANOVA was used. The suitable post-hoc test was chosen for each analysis based on the data set. Information about the statistical test and post- hoc test for each analysis is provided in the description of the respective figure. The results with $p\text{-value} \leq 0.05$ were considered statistically significant. The following annotation was used to report p-value range: * $p \leq 0.05$, ** $p \leq 0.01$, *** $p \leq 0.001$, **** $p \leq 0.0$.

4 Results

4.1 Characterization of cell lines and generating spinal motor neurons

4.1.1 Overview of the cell model and HSPB8 protein expression

Generation of the iPSC cell line was done by the lab of Prof. Hyun Kate Lee using CRISPR/Cas9 knocking out of the exon2 for HSPB8 (overview in Figure 4.1 A). To generate motor neurons, iPSCs were previously differentiated in Hermann's laboratory to NPCs of ventral-posterior characteristics using a small molecule-based approach based on the protocol published by (Reinhardt et al., 2013). NPCs were further differentiated into motor neurons using the protocol described in section 3.2.7.2 (overview in Figure 4.1C). To validate the removal of exon2 from HSPB8 gene, sanger sequencing has been done. For the sequencing the gDNA was isolated from the smNPCS by the ZR plasmid mini prep. Kit mentioned in the Table 3.3. After isolating the gDNA samples along with primers (see table 3.9) were sent for analysis. HSPB8(KO) did not show the sequence for exon 2, which was seen in the control (overview in Figure 4.1 A). Further validation of this truncation has been done with the PCR. There were no traces of exon2 in the HSPB8(KO) (Figure 41B). For most of the experiments, the cells were analyzed after 21days of maturation. To label the motor neurons, immunofluorescence staining was performed as described in section 3.2.2 using MAP2 (not shown here).



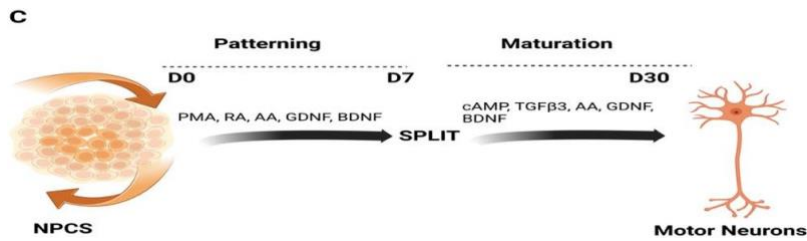


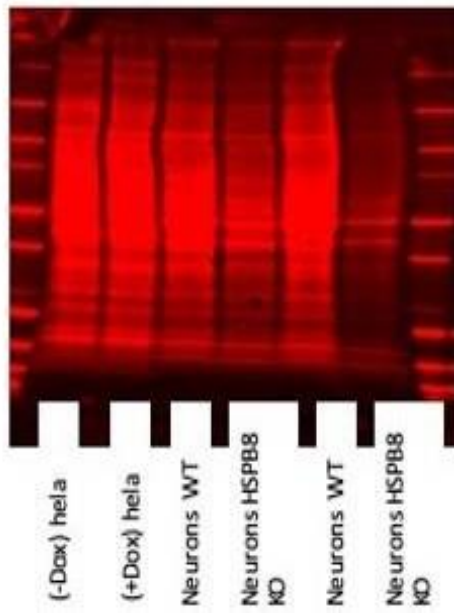
Figure 4.1: Overview of cell lines and generation of spinal motor neurons

(A) Workflow of cell line generation via CRISPR/CAS9 HSPB8-KO and validation with sequencing showing the removal of exon2 from HSPB8 gene done by Stephanie Spann and the lab of Prof. Hyun Kate Lee. (B) PCR showing the truncated band for the HSPB8 validating that exon2 has been successful removed done by Stephanie Spann and the lab of Prof. Hyun Kate Lee. (C) A schematic representation of motor neuron differentiation protocol.

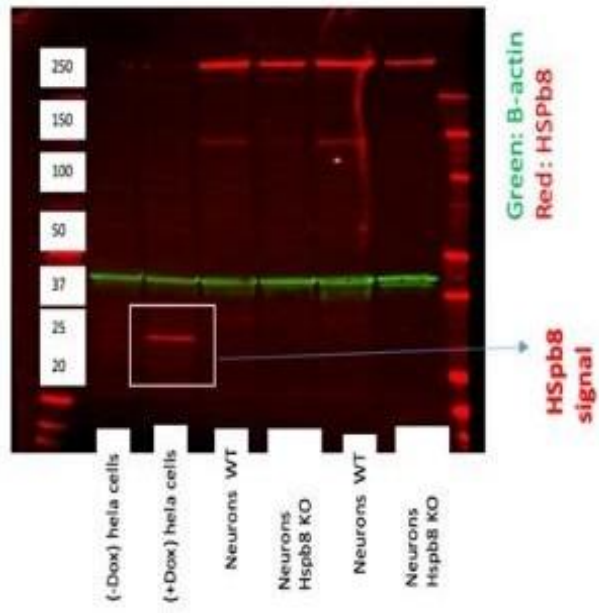
To further validate the knock-out conditions western blot was run using five different HSPB8 antibodies. For the antibody establishment, we used the following cell lines: HSPB8-myc Flip HeLa cell line carrying a doxy/tetracycline dependent overexpression cassette of HspB8 which was tagged with the myc protein and wiltype and HSPB8 knockout iPSC-derived NPCs and neurons for more details please refer to Table 3.6. HeLa cells were treated with doxycycline for 12 hours to overexpress the HSPB8 which served as positive control, non-treated HeLa cells as negative controls, respectively. Out of the five HSPB8 antibodies tested, only two worked on the western blot. Results from the other three antibodies entitled cell signalling 3059, sigma SAB2101100 and abcam ab151552 which did not detected HSPB8 are not shown. Sigma HPA015876 antibody worked specifically and only on the samples of HeLa cells which were overexpressing HSPB8 (Figure 4.2 A).

Invitrogen PA5-76780 HSPB8 antibody worked in all the samples (Figure 4.2 B) and showed clear reduction if not loss of HSPB8 in case of HSPB8 excision of exon2. (Figure 4.2 B,C)

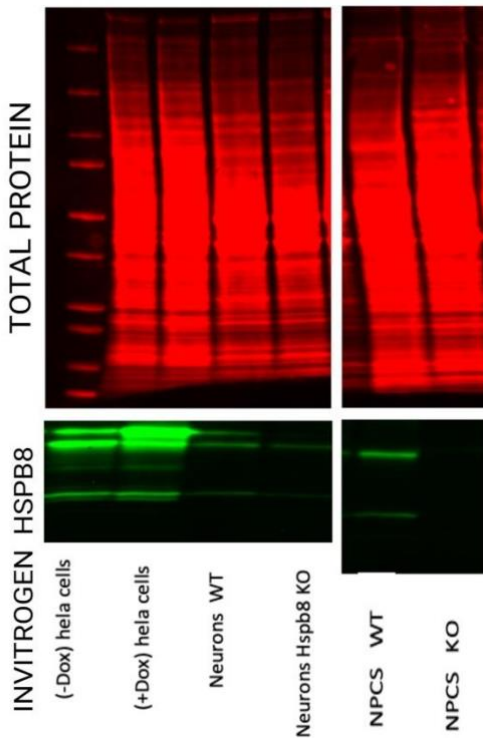
A



expression of Sigma HPA015876 (HSPB8)



B



C

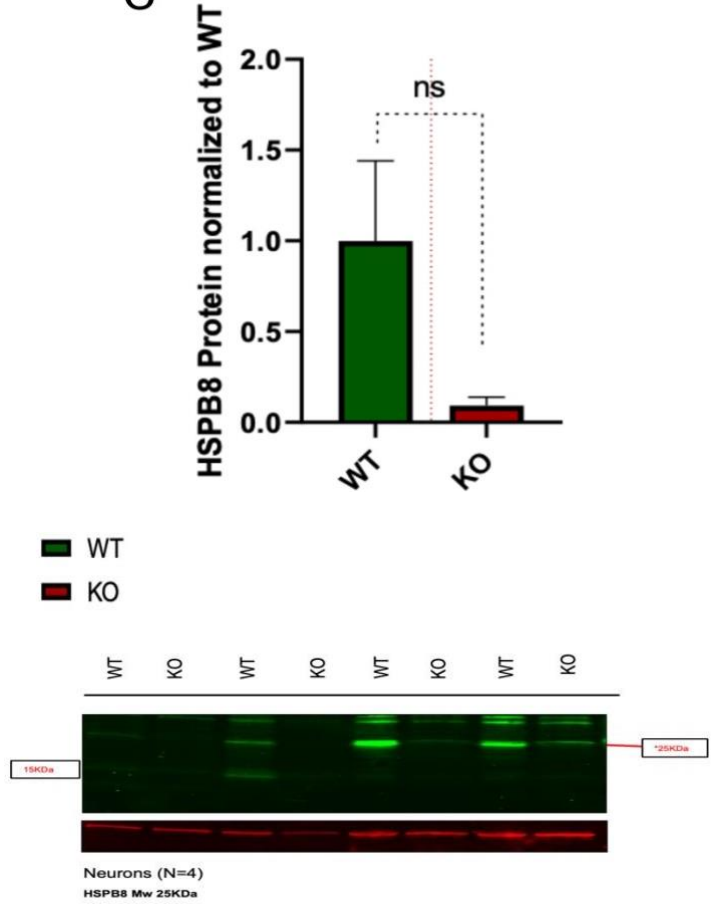


Figure 4.2: Western blot results for HSPB8 antibodies

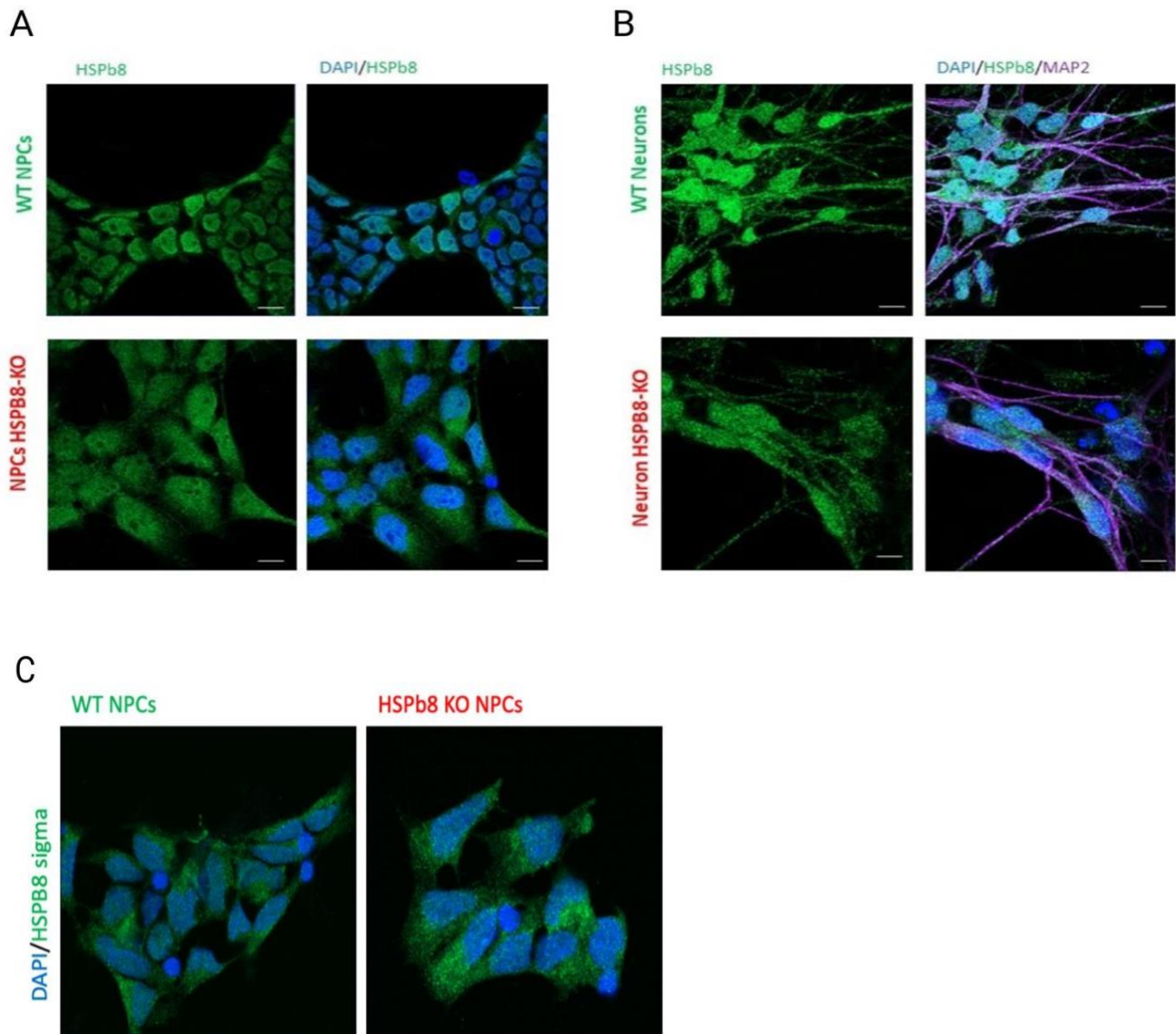
(A) Western blot images represent the expression of Sigma HPA015876. Total protein staining (top) and HSPB8 antibody staining (bottom) only expressed in overexpressed HeLa cells, β -actin represents the loading control (B) Representative images of the fluorescence Western blot expressing Invitrogen HSPB8 antibody PA5-76780 in all the samples, nevertheless, HSPB8(KO) samples expressed positive signal (C) The graph represents the level of HSPB8 normalized to β -actin. Followed by right side representative fluorescence western blot images detecting HSPB8 Invitrogen antibody. The graph represents the level of HSPB8 normalized to β -actin. In the HSPB8(KO) lower level of HSPB8 has been observed. Data are presented as mean \pm SEM. N = 3 biological replicates. Statistical analysis with unpaired two-tailed student's t-test. For the samples with unequal variances, Welch's correction was applied.

4.2 Detection of HSPB8 antigen in control and arsenite-treated conditions via immunofluorescence

4.2.1 Testing polyclonal antibodies in different cell types

We next evaluated the five HSPB8 antibodies in immunofluorescence staining of the three different cell-types, namely HeLa, NPCs and spinal motor neurons. Out of these five antibodies, three gave a detectable signal. Surprisingly, first tested antibody Invitrogen PA5-76780 resulted in the detection of false positive signal in the HSPB8(KO)-derived neural progenitor cells (Figure 4.3 A). To ensure there was no experimental error, a similar experiment was performed on the spinal motor neurons and the same results were recapitulated (Figure 4.3 B). To verify that these results were not antibody specific, another sigma Sigma HPA015876 were tested only on the neural progenitor cell (NPC). The results aligned with the previous antibody, which was detecting a non-specific signal (Figure 4.3 C). To investigate whether this was not exclusion bias, titration of the antibodies were conducted for both the antibodies, including the positive control overexpressed HSPB8 HeLa cells (results are not attached here). Nevertheless, no observed differences were found between WT and KO in the expression of HSPB8. To explore the non-specificity, the functional aspect of HSPB8 with these antibodies was tested. Ganassi et al., 2016, reported that HSPB8 was recruited to the stress granules under stress conditions. To analyze the influence of HSPB8 on SG, the cells were treated with sodium arsenite (500 μ M for 1 hour, oxidative stress). This treatments was shown previously to induce SG formation (N. L. Kedersha et al., 1999). After arsenite was applied, the cells were fixed and immunofluorescence staining with TIAR as a SG marker was performed. For this experiment all the settings including antibody dilution (1:500), independent on the cell type and microscope exposure time, were kept constant to exclude any experimental/technical

influence. Interestingly, out of these two antibodies only Sigma HPA015876 HSPB8 antibody co-localized with the TIAR in the WT and KO-derived neurons (Figure 4.3 D). However, other antibody from Invitrogen did not show any SG colocalization under arsenite stress (results not showed here)..



D

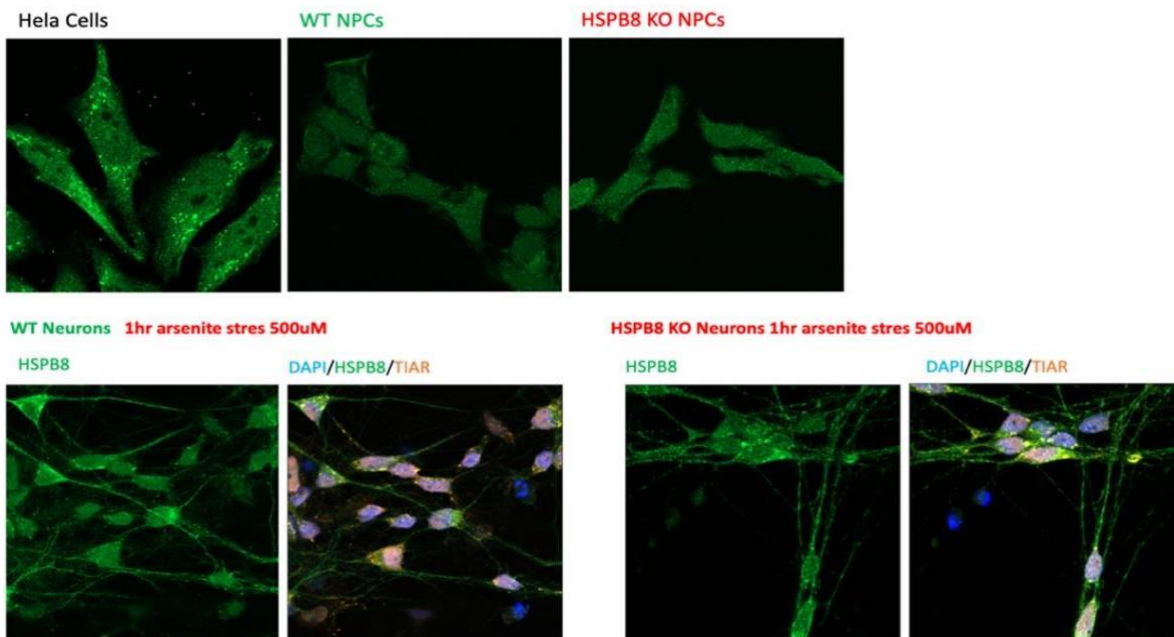


Figure 4.3: HSPB8 antibodies expression via Immunofluorescence in different Cell types

(A) Representative image of immunofluorescence staining for NPCs (left panel) with Invitrogen antibody PA5-76780 (B) Representative image of immunofluorescence staining for Neurons (right panel) with Invitrogen antibody (C) Representative images of immunofluorescence staining of NPCs expressing HSPB8 Sigma antibody HPA015876 (D) Immunofluorescence staining of different cell-types expressing Sigma HSPB8 antibody. WT neurons (bottom left) and HSPB8-KO (bottom right) with arsenite treatment .The images represent the co-localization using HSPB8 in green and orange (TIAR) channel. Scale bar 10 μ m.

4.2.2 Probing HSPB8(KO) validated monoclonal HSPB8 abcam 151552 antibody

After conducting tests for HSPB8 antibodies in the above section and having observed positive expression in HSPB8(KO), concerns were raised about their specificity. Both the antibodies mentioned in the above section were polyclonal and had not been commercially validated under knock-out conditions, making it likely that they were binding to non-specific regions. To ensure the accuracy of the results, the search for a monoclonal antibody was initiated. In 2021, Abcam finally created and validated a monoclonal antibody ab151552 that was usable in knock-out conditions. The new antibody's efficacy was tested in our cell line by conducting immunofluorescence, as shown in Figure 4.4. The results showed that the monoclonal antibody yielded similar results to the polyclonal antibodies. Specifically, the monoclonal antibody was co-localizing with the TIA-1 marker for SGs in Figure 4.4B. The immunofluorescence was conducted when neurons were stressed with arsenite both in WT and

HSPB8(KO). Thus, we found no commercially available antibody working properly in IFF. We thus decided not to use these antibodies in IFF/ICC applications, which unfortunately put our plan aside to analyse HSPB8 expression, subcellular localization studies (e.g. SG), in neurons from other established ALS models.

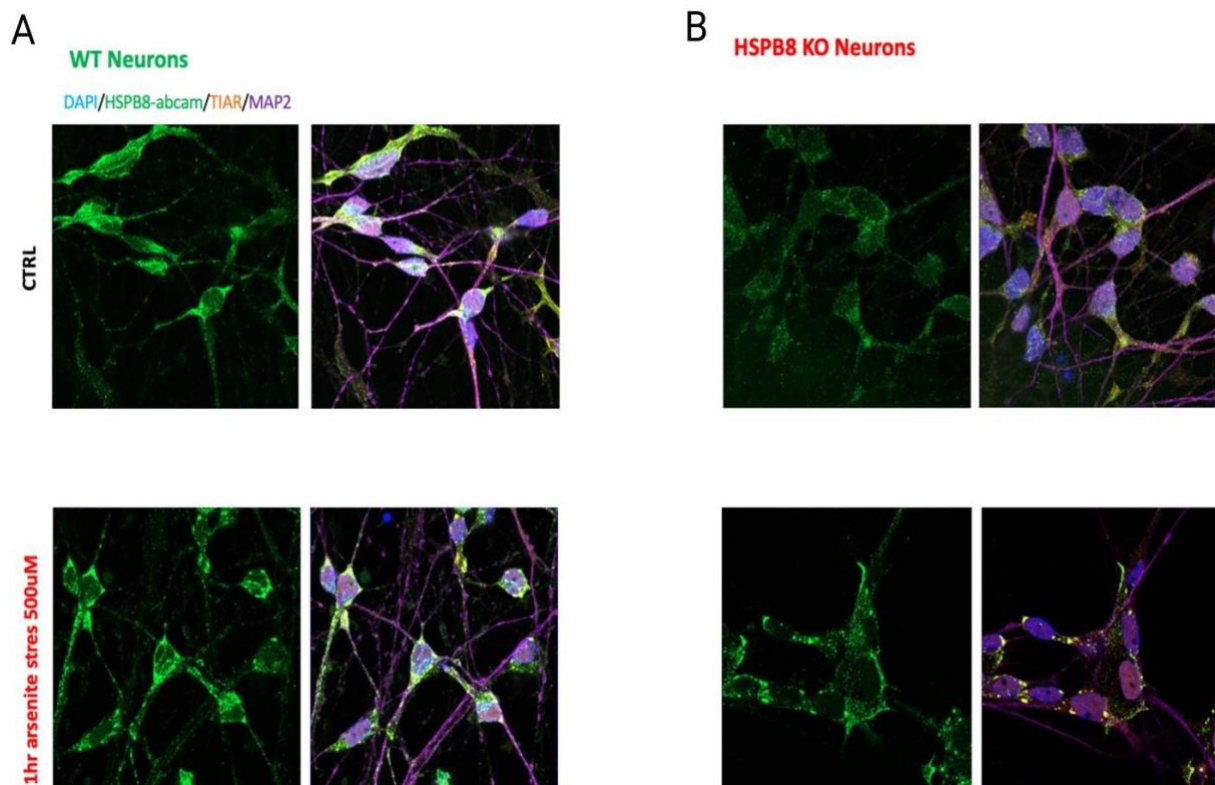


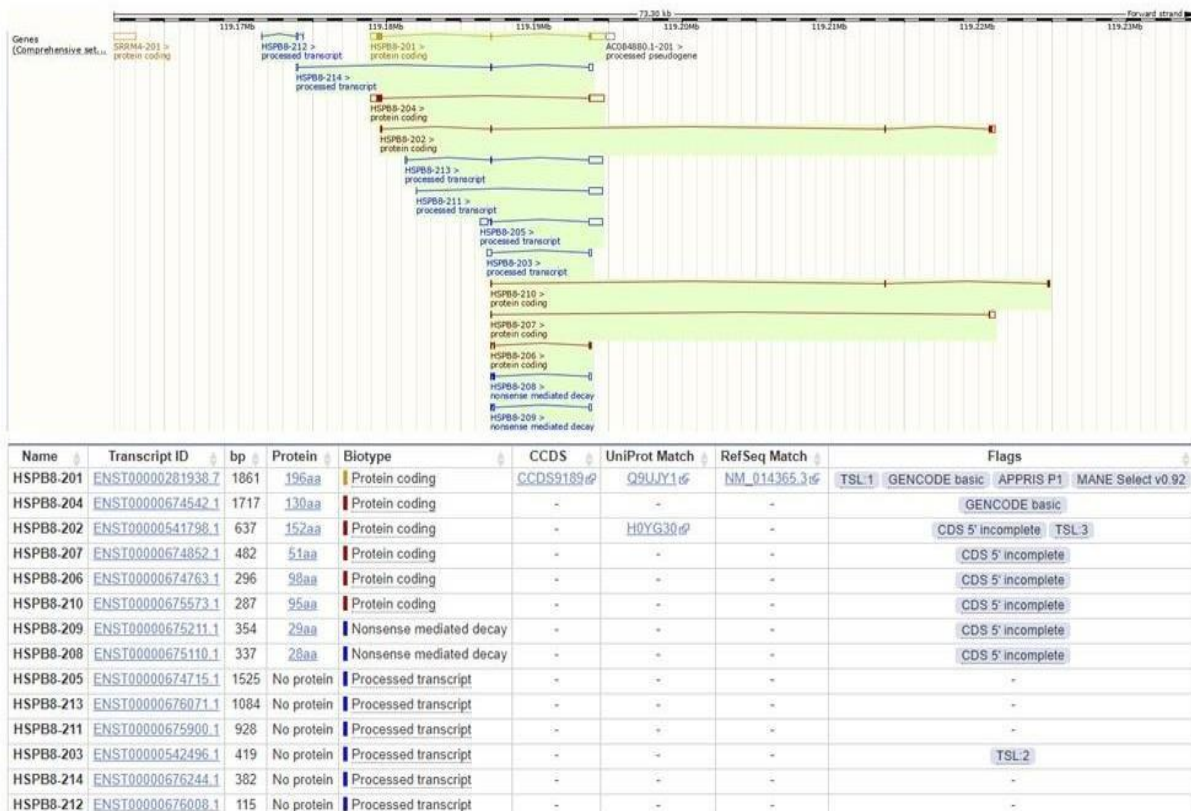
Figure 4.4: **Expression of abcam antibody, HSPB8 knock-out validated**

(A) Representative picture depict the expression of HSPB8 antibody in the WT neurons, upper lane represents the Ctrl cell lower lane shows the neurons which are stressed with aresnite, white arrow shows that HSPB8 recruits to the SGs. (B) Representative image of Immunofluorescence for HSPB8(KO) upper lane represents the false positive expression of HSPB8 antibody in Control HSPB8(KO), lower lane shows the non-specific recruitment of HSPB8 antibody to the SGs. The images represent the co-localization using HSPB8 in green and orange (TIAR) channel. Scale bar 10 μ m.

4.3 Analyzing other HSPB8 isoforms through qPCR

Due to an absence of commercially proper HSPB8 working antibody and these false positive results from all the immunofluorescence stainings using the above mentioned antibodies. The intriguing question to follow was could it be possible that cutting out exon 2 only affected the classical HSPB8 isoform but might result in the activation of other potential isoforms, which are detected by the HSPB8 antibodies. Fig. 4.5 A depicted all the transcripts for HSPB8, specifically only protein coding transcripts had been chosen for the analysis. For this investigation total RNA had been isolated from the NPCs samples, followed by qPCR. Results were evident there was no trace of any other isoform in the KO (Figure 4.5 B). For few isoforms particularly 204, 206 and 210. Both in the WT and KO qPCR curve was not suitable for the analysis.

A



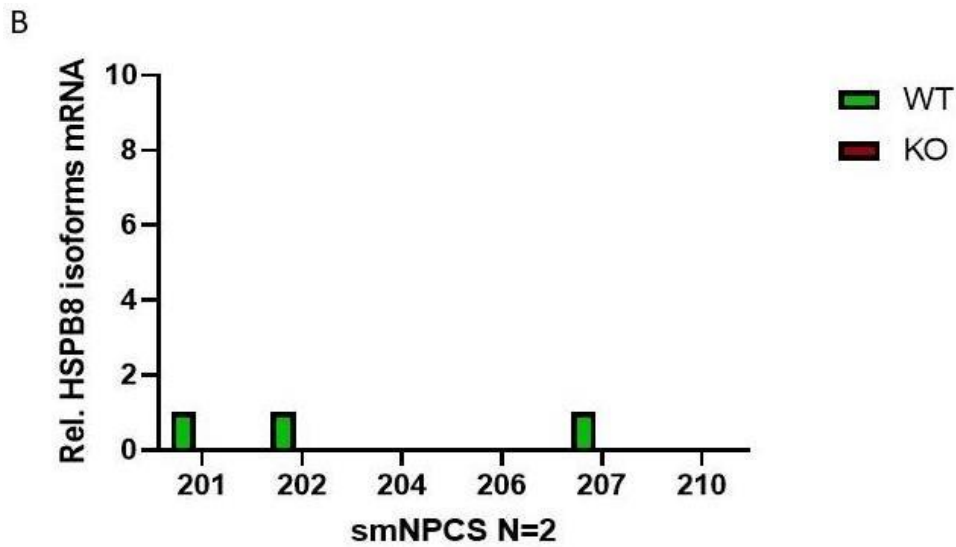


Figure 4.5: **Expression of HSPB8 isoforms in NPCs on a transcript level**

(A) Image depict all the HSPB8 isoforms which are available on the ensemble website (B) Representative image of qPCR graph for HSPB8 for NPCs. The graph represents the relative HSPB8 isoform mRNA, mean \pm SD for n =2 biological replicates.

4.4 *Loss-of-functional HSPB8 leads to FUS aggregation*

4.4.1 *Investigating FUS expression and aggregation*

Mounting evidences had reported that expression pattern/level of HSPB8 chaperone had been associated in the clearance of aggregated ALS-associated proteins (Anagnostou et al., 2010; Crippa et al., 2010 a,b Crippa et al., 2016; Cristofani et al., 2017). Fascinatingly enough there was no reported data on HSPB8(KO) and its association with FUS ALS. To address this specific query, the focus was to check the protein-expression of FUS in the spinal motor neurons in WT and KO using Western Blot. There was no noticeable difference in FUS protein expression between WT and KO, as shown in Fig. 4.6 A. To reverse engineer the same question but with HSPB8 expression in FUS-ALS cell line-derived neurons, protein samples had been isolated from the neurons. This was followed by the western blot to check the expression of Invitrogen antibody PA5-76780 (working ab. On the WB) may be seen in Fig. 4.2 C. In all the ALS-related cell line-derived neurons the expression of HSPB8 antibody was not homogenous, due to this variability in expression, results interpretation were not performed (Figure 4.6 B). Returning back to the main query of FUS aggregation in the HSPB8(KO), in general no change had been observed in the FUS protein expression. Next step was to detect FUS-aggregated proteins. To investigate the FUS-aggregates precisely, sensitive technique filter retention assay had been used. Proteins from the motor neurons had been isolated followed by filter retardation assay. The level of FUS protein retained in the filter (putatively the aggregated form of FUS) was evaluated. Remarkably, the levels of FUS aggregates were increased in HSPB8(KO) Fig. 4.6 C,D.

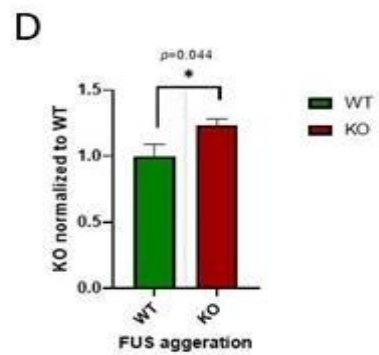
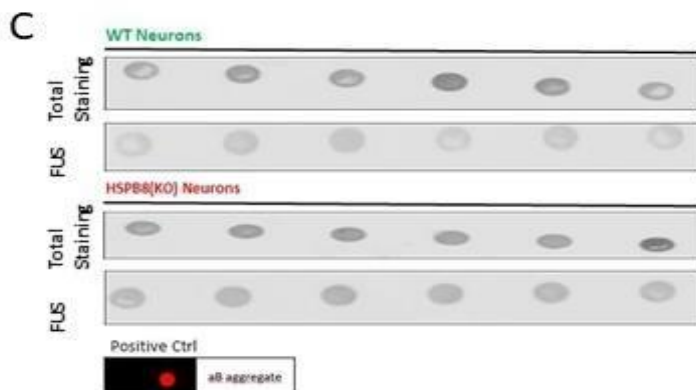
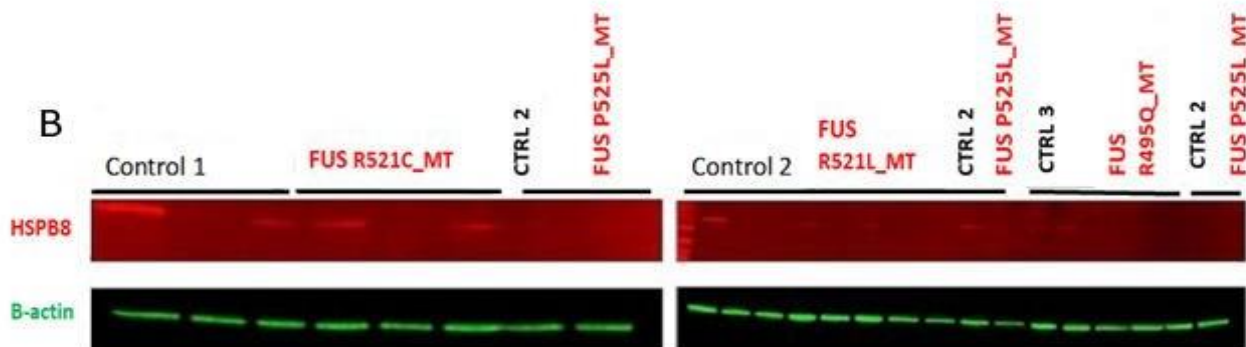
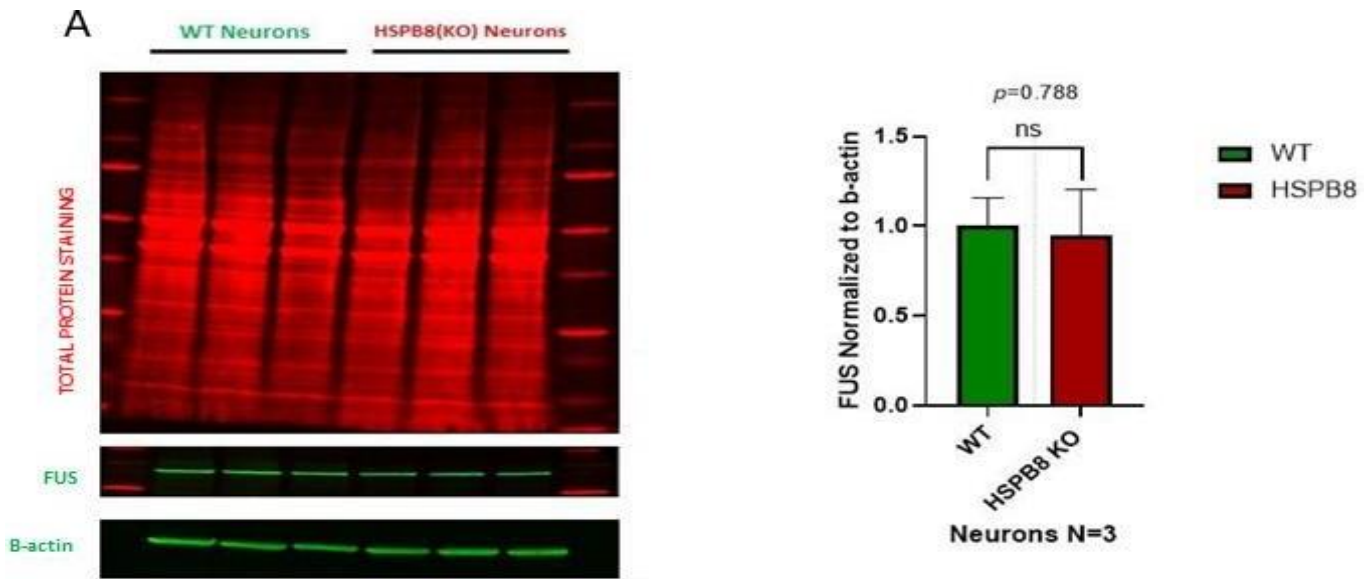


Figure 4.6: FUS expression and aggregation

(A) Picture shows fluorescent Western Blot detecting FUS protein in spinal motor neurons. The graph represents the level of FUS protein normalized to β -actin. Data are presented as mean \pm SEM. N = 3 biological replicates. Statistical analysis with unpaired two-tailed student's t-test. (B) Image shows fluorescent Western Blot detecting HSPB8 protein in ALS-cell line derived spinal motor neurons (C) Representative picture of the filter trap assay for FUS aggregates. Total protein aggregates for WT and KO (each upper panel respectively) and FUS aggregates for WT and KO (each lower panel respectively). The bottom left represent the positive control of $\alpha\beta$ -aggregates (D) The graph represents the aggregates of FUS protein normalized to WT. Data are presented as mean \pm SEM. N = 3 biological replicates. Statistical analysis with two-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's multiple comparison.

4.4.2 Investigating nuclear cytoplasmic shuttling and recruitment to stress granules

FUS protein aggregates are a hallmark of FUS-ALS-pathogenesis. Nuclear import defects that are caused by a disrupted NLS are thought to be a key event in FUS- ALS pathology (Dormann et al., 2010; Dormann and Haass 2011; Dormann et al., 2012). These pathological aggregates were described as containing SG protein like TIA-1, recommending that they may have arisen from SGs. It was recommended that SGs might have undergone a slow maturation process resulting in the formation of aggregates (Liu-Yesucevitz et al., 2010). To address this question the spinal motor neurons were stressed with arsenite (500 μ M for 1 hour, oxidative stress) to induce the formation of SGs and the properties of these granules were analyzed later the cells were fixed and immunofluorescence staining with TIAR as a SG marker was performed. The co-localization of FUS and SG was then automatically quantified. Surprisingly, our results did not show any FUS-mislocalization into the SG granules under stress condition (Figure 4.7 A and B). Moreover, no nucleus to cytoplasmic FUS shuttling had been seen.

Of note, quantification revealed that there was no difference in the stress granules numbers themselves between WT and KO. Additionally, SG mean size had not changed between WT and KO when the neurons were stressed (Figure 4.7 C and D).

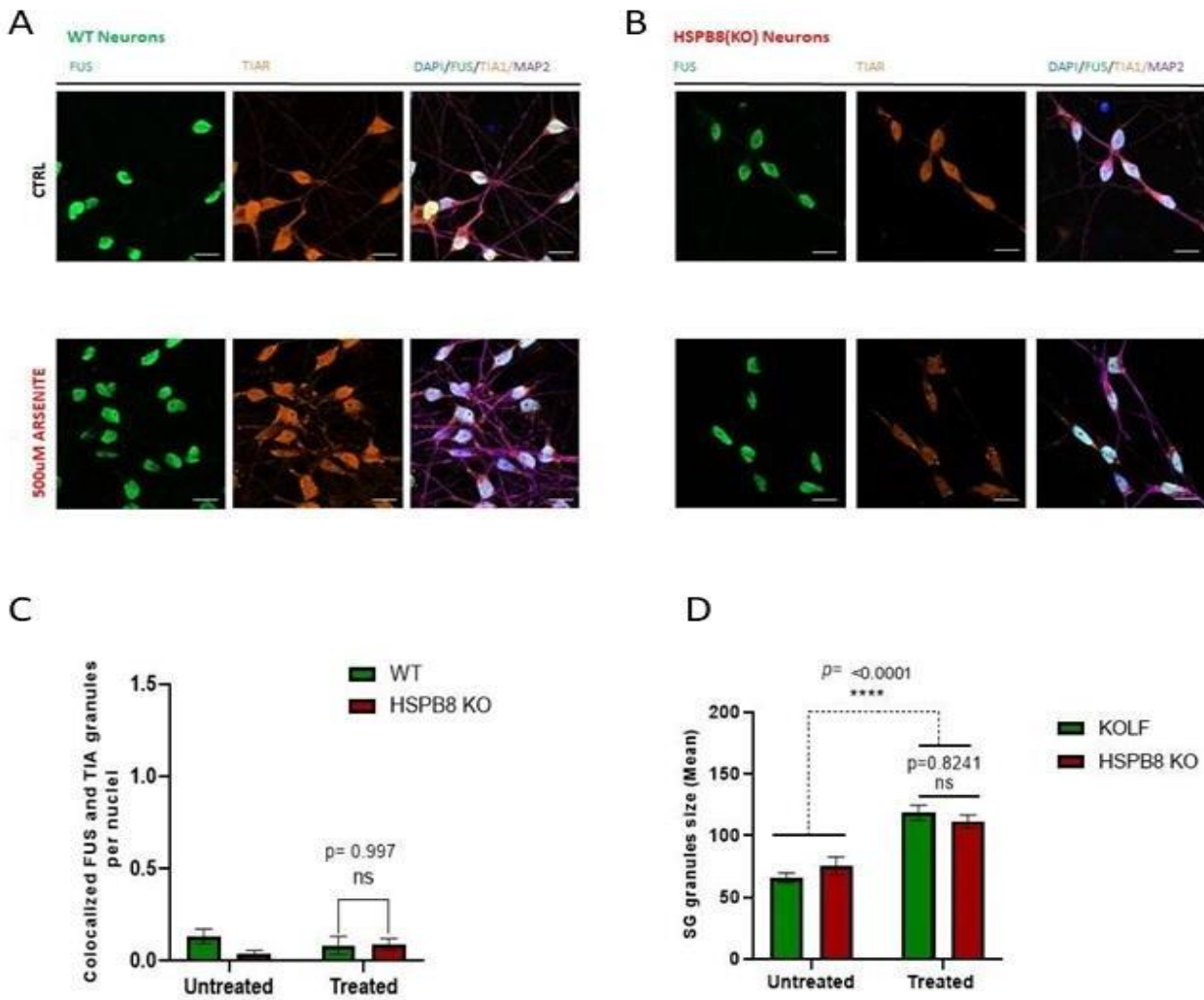


Figure 4.7: FUS and stress granules analysis

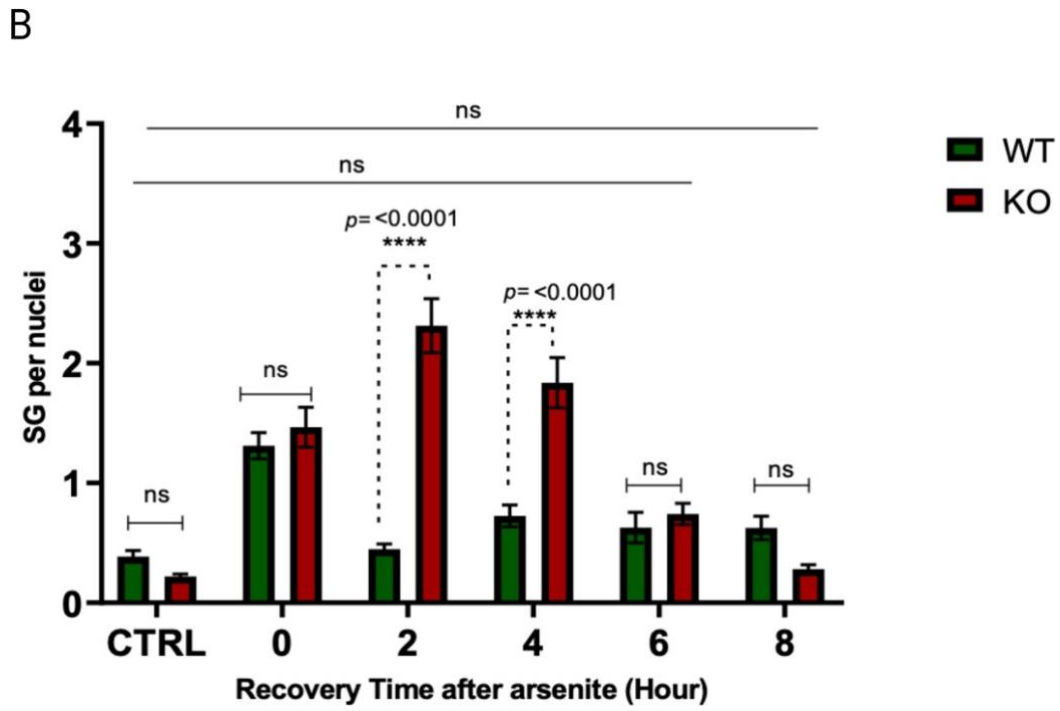
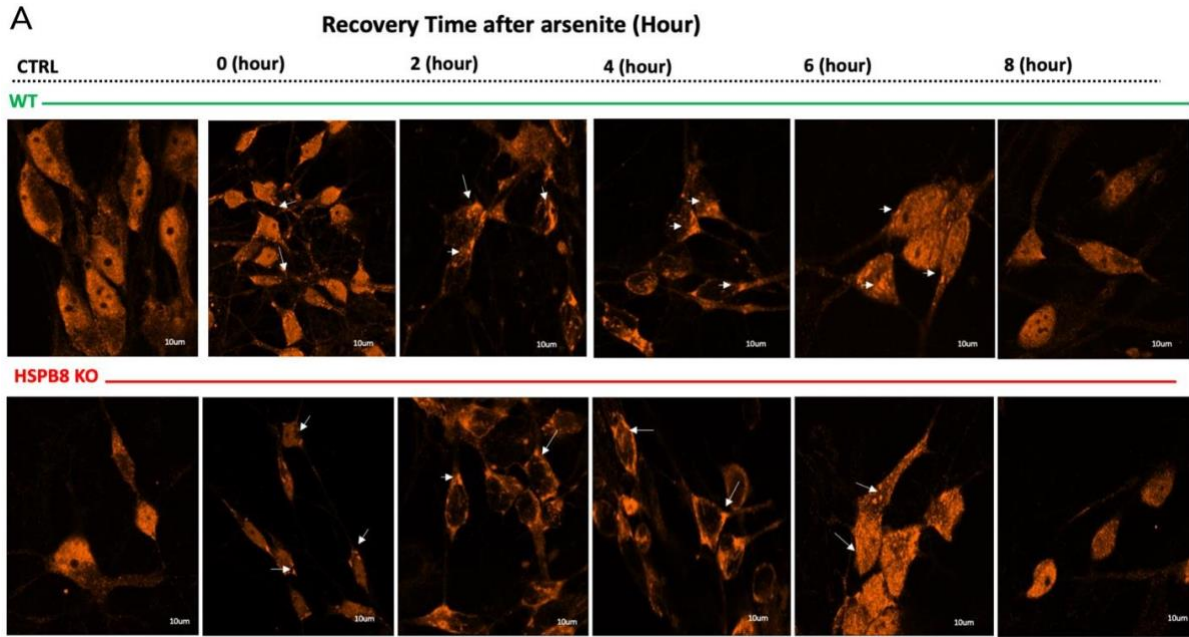
(A) Representative picture shows immunofluorescence staining detecting FUS protein in spinal motor neurons. The graph represents the level of FUS protein normalized to β -actin. Data are presented as mean \pm SEM. N = 3 biological replicates. Statistical analysis with unpaired two-tailed student's t-test. (B) Image shows fluorescent Western Blot detecting HSPB8 protein in ALS-cell line derived spinal motor neurons (C) Representative picture of the filter trap assay for FUS aggregates. Total protein aggregates for WT and KO (each upper panel respectively) and FUS aggregates for WT and KO (each lower panel respectively). The bottom left represent the positive control of $\alpha\beta$ -aggregates (D) The graph represents the aggregates of FUS protein normalized to WT. Data are presented as mean \pm SEM. N = 3 biological replicates. Statistical analysis with two-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's multiple comparison.

4.5 Delineating the kinetics/dynamics of stress granules assembly and disassembly

4.5.1 The knockout of HSPB8 does not abolish SG formation but instead prolong SG-dissolution

Since HSPB8 is thought as an important player in maintaining SG solubility, as it is described for HeLa cells (Ganassi et al., 2016), it was questioned whether knocking out of HSPB8 leads to and impairment in neurons. Additionally, the kinetics of the SG disassembly process was also intriguing for us. To answer this question, we investigated the proper disassembly of SG in WT and HSPB8(KO). For this purpose, firstly the time course experiments for the SG disassembly were checked with the progenitors' cells (data not shown here). Later when the proper SG disassembly time-point has been observed in progenitors same time-course experiments were performed on the neurons (data not shown here). To determine the SG disassembly, WT and HSPB8(KO) neurons were stressed with sodium arsenite for 1 hour, as previously. After that, the sodium arsenite treatment was withdrawn and the cells were let to recover from 2 hours up to 8 hours until we did not observe traces of SGs (Figure 4.8 A). After every 2 hours of the recovery until 8 hours of recovery the cells were fixed, labelled with DAPI to visualize cell nuclei and fluorescence microscopy images were acquired. Next, the number of SG granules per cell was automatically quantified using Cell Profiler 2.2.0. While HSPB8 (KO) neurons showed similar amounts of SG after 1h of arsenite stress, there was a significant increase in the number of stress granules in KO neurons compared to WT post recovery of 2 hour and 4 hour (Shown in Figure 4.8 B). Quantification revealed that SG disassembly took more time in KO condition (Fig. 4.8 B). This result shows that the kinetics of the disassembly process is severely affected in the KO. Furthermore, the survival of the neurons was evaluated directly after the sodium arsenite treatment or after 2 hours of recovery until 8 hours of recovery (Figure 4.8 C). For this purpose, Presto Blue assay was used as described in the section 3.2.10.4.

Results were evident showing high vulnerability towards stress in KO condition. There was a significant difference in the survival between WT and KO neurons directly after the stress and after the recovery as well. Overall, this data indicated HSPB8 KO had a significant impact on the disassembly of the granules and on the cell survival.



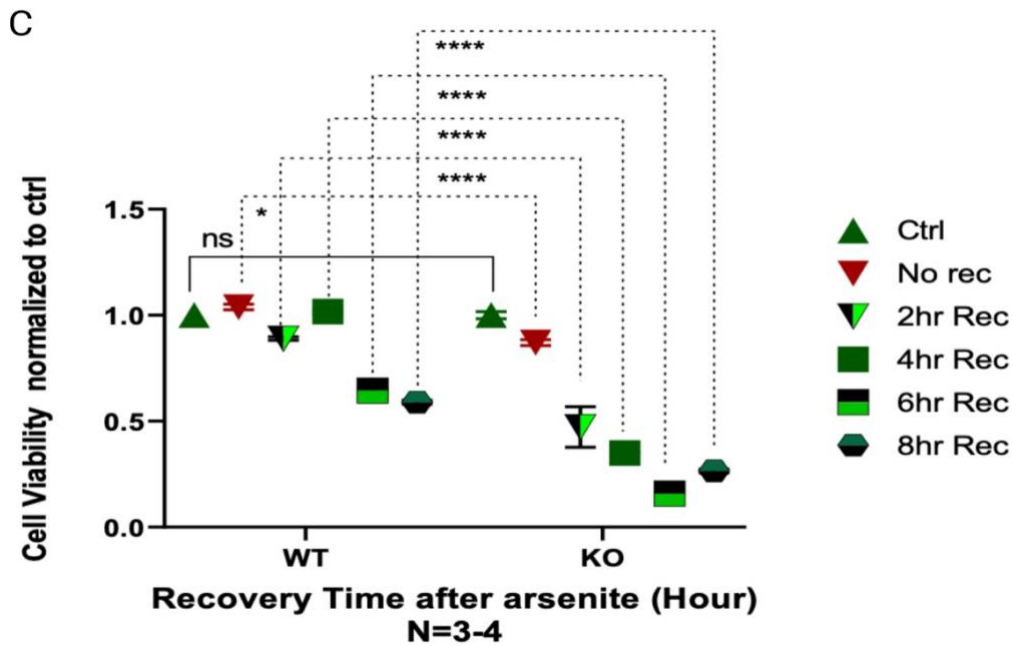


Figure 4.8: Kinetics of stress granules assembly and disassembly

(A) Representative immunofluorescence pictures depict the expression of TIAR antibody in the WT neurons (upper lane) stressed with arsenite and KO neurons (lower lane) stressed with arsenite. SGs are marked with the white arrows. Scale bar 10 μ m. (B) An automated quantification of SG granules was performed using Cell Profiler 2.2.0. Quantification reveals that KO neurons takes prolonged time to disintegrate the stress granules. Data are presented as mean \pm SEM. N = 3 biological replicates, for each condition 15-30 images were analyzed. Statistical analysis with two-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's multiple comparison. (C) The graph represents the cell survival analysis for the cells with sodium arsenite with or without recovery. The analysis was performed with Presto Blue assay. The cell viability is shown as a percent of untreated control. N = 4 biological replicates, for each 2-3 technical replicates. All the graphs represent mean \pm SEM. Statistical analysis was performed with two-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's multiple comparison.

4.6 Investigating the role of chaperone-assisted selective autophagy in proteotoxic maintenance and stress granules disassembly.

4.6.1 The dynamics of CASA as an adaptive response during cell insult

The results reported in the previous sections exhibited the assembly and disassembly process of SG beside this, a high level of neuronal death was observed after stress and post recovery in KO, indicating arsenite stress is lethal for spinal motor neuron survival. It is intriguing to know that very small portion of SGs is dependent on autophagic clearance, majority of SG disintegration is based on chaperone-dependent and autophagy-independent way (Tedesco B et al.,2022). Ganassi et al., 2016 have reported the importance of CASA complex (HSPB8-BAG3-HSP70) was involved to play a surveillance role by guarding the proper composition of SG and impede them from being persistent. Chaperone-assisted selective autophagy is a selective autophagy, meaning that it targets specific proteins or protein aggregates for degradation rather than degrading all proteins indiscriminately. HSPB8, BAG3, HSC70, CHIP/STUB and HSP70 are the key components of CASA have been shown to play a role in the clearance of protein aggregates in cells (Carra S et al., 2008; Ganassi et al., 2016 and Tedesco B et al.,2022). To understand the decisive role of this selective autophagy in HSPB8(KO) being the major player in the CASA, the protein levels of all the chaperones were analyzed using Western Blot. To understand the proper role of CASA in stress granules disassembly, we ensured to follow the entitled conditions: Control (no treatment), 1hour arsenite treatment with no recovery, 4-hour recovery after the 1-hour treatment and 8-hour recovery condition after the treatment (look Figure 4.9 A and B). Interestingly, each chaperone showed a different level at the distinct condition. CHIP did not show any significant differences in the KO neurons independent of treatment or recovery, despite a trend of reduced expression in case of KO (Figure 4.9 E). BAG3, a crucial member of CASA which physically interacts with HSPB8 (Fuchs M et al., 2009) and facilitates in rescuing of the aggregated proteins via autophagy (Crippa V et al.,2010 and Rusmini P et al., 2015). Remarkably, in the HSPB8(KO) the BAG3 levels tremendously upregulated independent on the condition and remained consistently high in the KO (Figure 4.9 A, B and F). HSP70 is an important co-chaperone of the CASA-complex, which is crucial for the degradation of SG components (Ganassi et al., 2016). We decided to evaluate the expression of HSP70 through Western blot. In absence of HSPB8, HSP70 remained significantly low under basal conditions (non-treated). Additionally, expression level of HSP70 remained consistently low in the KO 1-hour treated spinal motor neurons. After a 4-hour

recovery, we observed a trend of increased HSP70 expression in KO, but the levels of HSP70 did not show any significant differences. After a 8-hour recovery, the level of HSP70 remarkably enhanced in the KO-neurons (Figure A, B and C). We had also investigated the role of HSC70 another crucial member. Heat shock cognate 71 kDa protein (Hsc70), also known as HSPA8, is a member of the heat shock protein 70 family (Hsp70). Unlike Hsp70, it is a constitutively expressed chaperone protein and is involved in diverse cellular processes including protein folding and protein degradation. Surprising, unlike the HSP70 reduced expression in KO-neurons, HSC70 had significantly increased expression at the basal levels, after 1-hour arsenite treatment the level remained remarkably high but post treatment, in the recovery phase we observed a trend of high expression in KO but it was non-significant (Figure A, B and D).

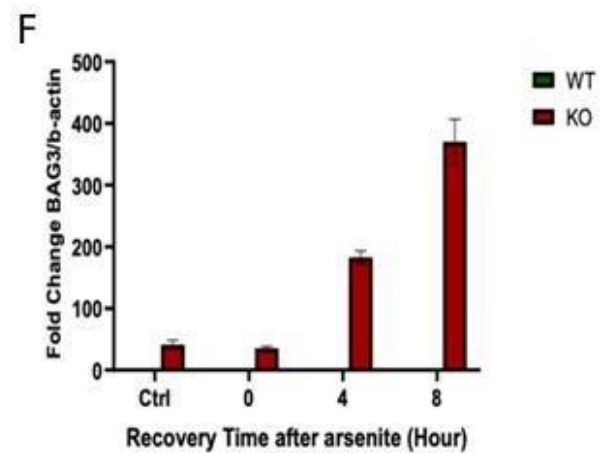
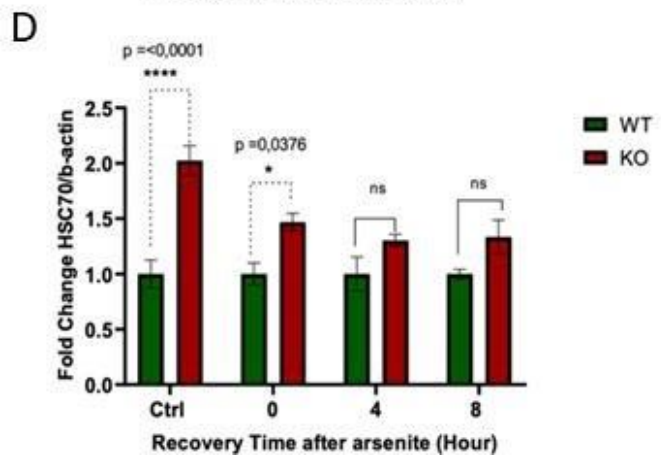
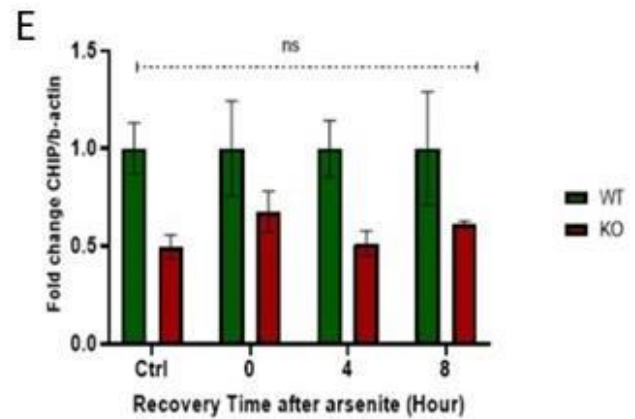
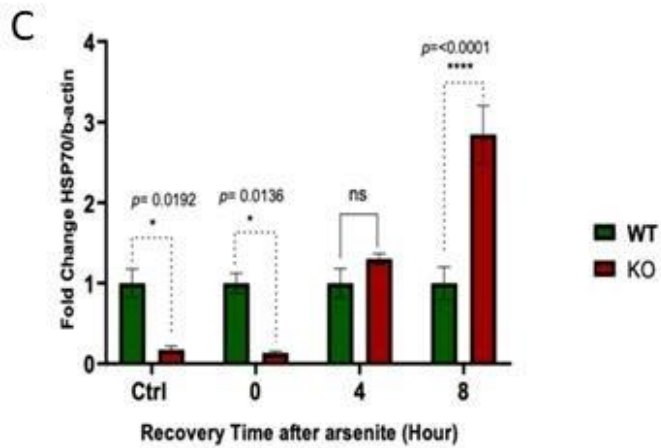
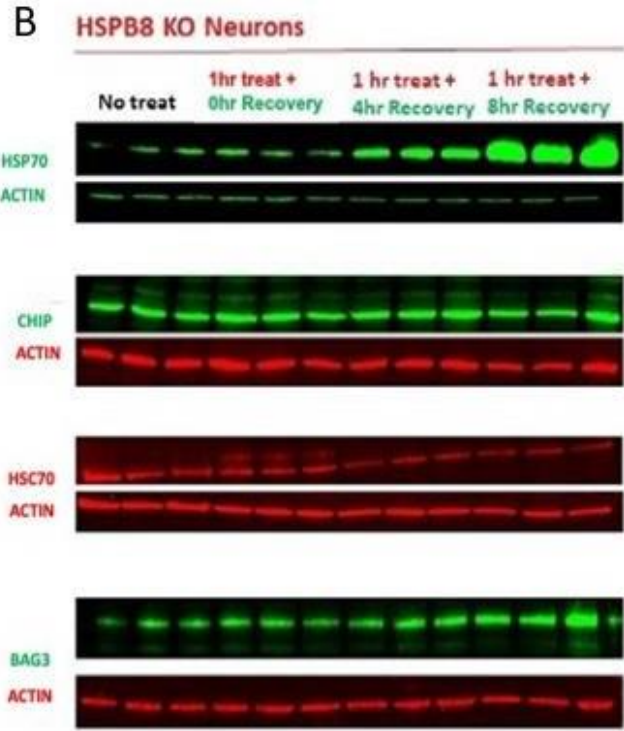
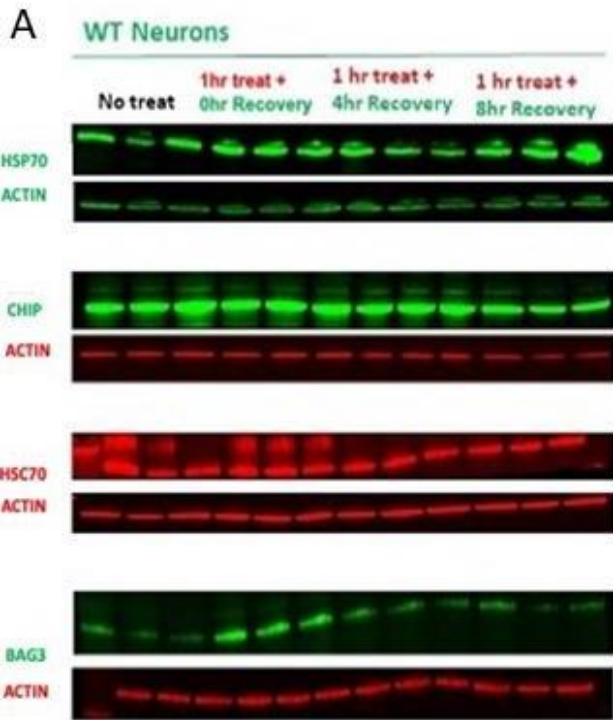


Figure 4.9: Chaperones from the CASA-complex in KOLF neurons **Chaperones**

(A) Representative images of fluorescence Western Blot for a panel of chaperones in control conditions (no treatment), 1-hour arsenite treated with no recovery, 4-hour post recovery and 8-hour post recovery in WT neurons. First blot showing HSP70 (top) and β -actin (bottom); second blot shows CHIP (top) and β -actin (bottom); Third shows CHIP (top) and β -actin (bottom) and last blot reveals BAG3 (top) and β -actin (bottom). (B) Pictures of fluorescence Western Blot for a panel of chaperones in control conditions (no treatment), 1-hour arsenite treated with no recover, 4hour post recovery and 8hour post recovery in KO neurons. First blot showing HSP70 (top) and β -actin (bottom); second blot shows CHIP (top) and β -actin (bottom); Third shows CHIP (top) and β -actin (bottom) and last blot reveals BAG3 (top) and β -actin (bottom). (C) The graph represents the level of HSP70 each analyzed protein in every condition normalized to β -actin and to WT. (D) The graph represents the level of HSC70 each analyzed protein in every condition normalized to β -actin and to WT. (E) The graph represents the level of CHIP each analyzed protein in every condition normalized to β -actin and to WT. (F) The graph represents the level of BAG3 each analyzed protein in every condition normalized to β -actin and to WT. All the quantifications were performed based on the fluorescence intensity using Image Studio Lite software. All the graphs are presented as mean \pm SEM. N = 3 biological replicates, one-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparison.

For this purpose of study, apart from CASA major members there were several chaperons and co-chaperones which had shown to be involved directly in this selective autophagy and these chaperons also played an important role in the SG assembly or disassembly. To explore these roles, we had also investigated these (Figure 4.10 A and B) namely: Hsp90, BAG1, DNAJB6 and Hsp40 (DnajB1). Levels of HSP90 in KO were significantly upregulated in the untreated, treated condition and 4hour post recovery. Surprisingly, post 8-hour recovery levels of HSP90 significantly suppressed in the KO neurons compared to WT (look Figure 4.10 A, B and C). The levels of HSP40 showed significant increase in the KO neurons as compared to the WT in the control. Later, the levels started decreasing, but still non significantly, in the treated neurons. Post 4hour recovery the HSP40 levels moderately but non-remarkable decreased in the HSPB8(KO). The levels significantly dropped after 8-hour redemption from the arsenite treatment (Figure 4.10 A, B and D). Additionally, the level of BAG1 also remained persistently high in the HSPB8(KO) in distinct conditions (Figure 4.10 A, B and E). CASA crosstalk with the UPS based on co-chaperons BAG3 or BAG1, any insult in the cell leads to the activation of the adaptive responses that can switch between a BAG1-dependent proteasomal activity or BAG3-mediated autophagy (Gamerdinger et al., 2011 and Minoia et al., 2014). Indeed, it is fascinating to reveal that in absence of HSPB8 both the pathways remained remarkably overexpressed in comparison to the WT. DNAJB6 member of DNAJ family has been reported to take part in the CASA (Sarparanta et al., 2012, 2020). Thus, we investigated the expression levels of DNAJB6 in our spinal motor neurons. Having said this in our neurons the levels of DNAJB6 were non quantifiable both in WT and KO (Figure 4.10F).

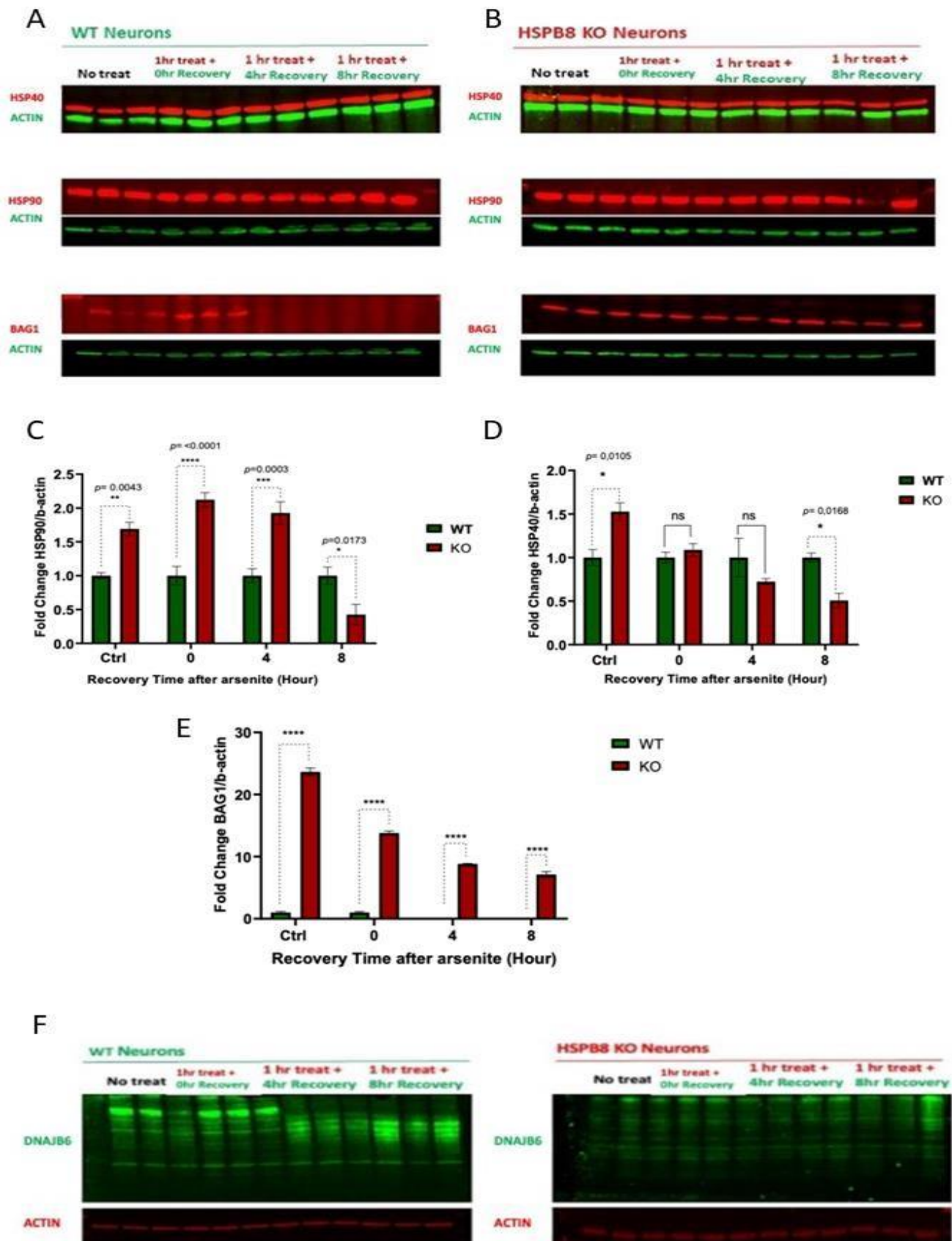


Figure 4.10: Chaperones assist CASA-complex members

(A) Representative images of fluorescence Western Blot for a panel of chaperones in control conditions (no treat), 1-hour arsenite treated and no recovery, followed by 4hour recovery and 8-hour post recovery in WT neurons. First blot showing HSP40 (red) and β -actin (green); second blot shows HSP90 (red) and β -actin (green) and last blot reveals BAG1 (red) and β -actin (green). (B) Pictures of fluorescence Western Blot for a panel of chaperones in control conditions (no treat), 1-hour arsenite treated with no recovery, followed by 4hour recovery and 8hour recovery in KO neurons. First blot showing HSP40 (red) and β -actin (green); second blot shows HSP90 (red) and β -actin (green) and last blot reveals BAG1 (red) and β -actin (green). (C) The graph represents the level of HSP90 each analyzed protein in every condition normalized to β -actin and to WT. (D) The graph represents the level of HSP40 each analyzed protein in every condition normalized to β -actin and to WT. (E) The graph represents the level of BAG1 each analyzed protein in every condition normalized to β -actin and to WT. (F) Representative images of fluorescence Western Blot for DNAJB6 (green) and β -actin (red) in control conditions (no treat), 1-hour arsenite treated with no recovery followed by 4hour recovery and 8-hour post recovery in WT and KO neurons. All the quantifications were performed based on the fluorescence intensity using Image Studio Lite software. All the graphs are presented as mean \pm SEM. N = 3 biological replicates, one-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparison.

4.6.2 Switch between CASA and UPS or interaction between CASA and the UPS

To keep the proteome healthy, the proteostasis network pathways work together on multiple levels. HSPAs (including HSP70) serve as a foundation for client proteins and their interacting partners to decide whether to fold or dispose of them like by interacting with HSP90 (heat shock protein 90), HSPAs support the folding of newly synthesized proteins (Wegele et al., 2004). The fate of substrates routed for degradation through ubiquitination, towards autophagy or the UPS, is determined by interacting co-chaperones. Under normal conditions, ubiquitination and proteasome-mediated degradation is the preferred route. However, the narrow core tunnel of the proteasome can be a limitation for processing stable higher-order structures such as oligomers or aggregates, that are unable to be fully unfolded. Additionally, an excess of misfolded substrates can overwhelm the proteasome, leading to the activation of complementary systems to reduce the accumulation of toxic misfolded proteins. A possible adaptive response is to shift from BAG1-dependent proteasomal activity to BAG3-mediated autophagy for protein degradation (Gamerding M et al., 2009 and Minoia M et al., 2014). The quantitative findings presented in the earlier section revealed that in the HSPB8(KO) neurons, there were higher levels of both the chaperones BAG3 and BAG1 independent of the conditions (look Figure 4.9 F and 4.10 E). To comprehend the crucial role of this switch, we examined the BAG3:BAG1 ratio from the above-mentioned western blot in the KO (untreated

conditions) and found that KO neurons had both pathways upregulated compared to WT. However, BAG3 had always higher levels suggesting BAG3-mediated autophagy being higher compared to BAG1-dependent proteosomal pathway (Figure 4.11).

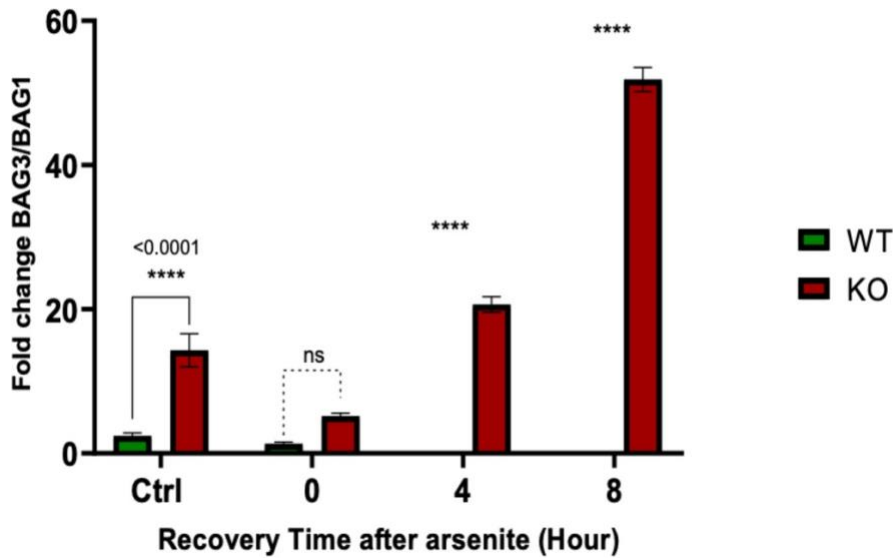


Figure 4.11: **BAG3:BAG1 levels in the KO neurons remain significantly high**

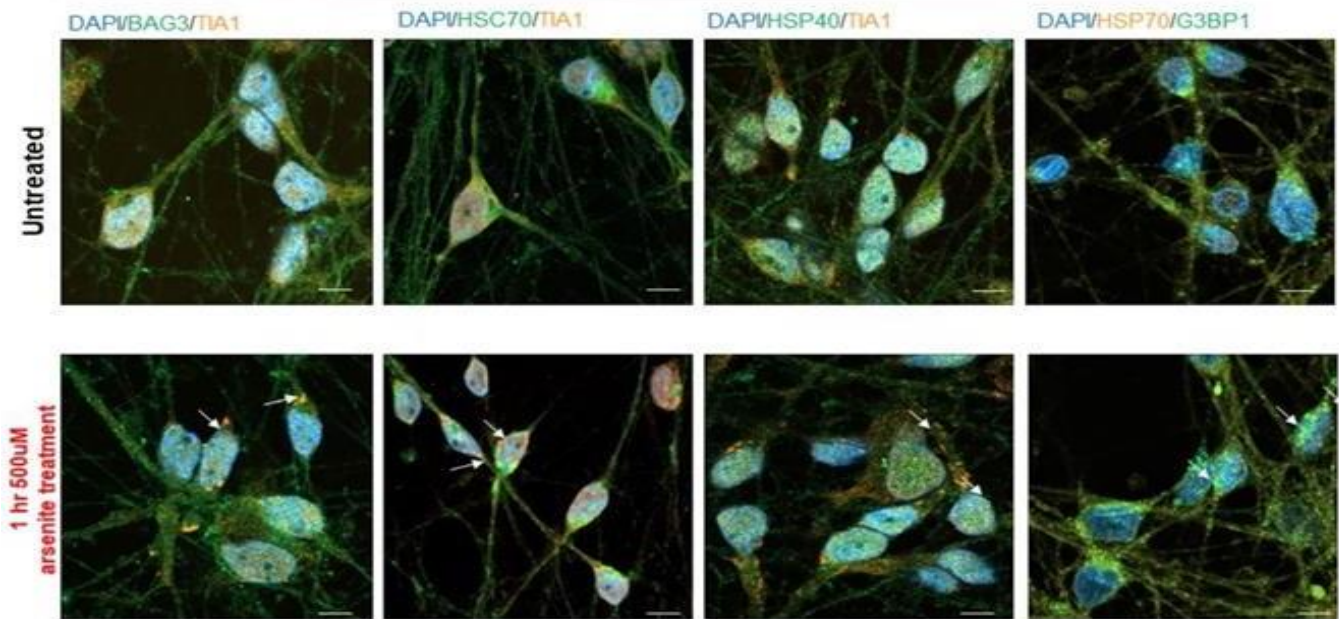
The graph represents the level of BAG3/BAG1 each analyzed protein in every condition normalized to β -actin and to WT. All the quantifications were performed based on the fluorescence intensity using Image Studio Lite software. All the graphs are presented as mean \pm SEM. N = 3 biological replicates, one-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparison.

4.6.3 *Absence of HSPB8 other chaperons from CASA are not the integral part of the SG constituent and regulator of stress granules assembly*

To investigate the results of previous section (Figure 4.8 A and B) where knocking out of HSPB8 did not abolish SGs nevertheless stress granules took a prolonged period to dissolve in contrast to WT. HSPB8 is known to be recruited to the SG in response to insult (e.g., oxidative stress or proteasome inhibition) later upon stress recovery, HSPB8 recruits HSP70 and BAG3 to remove the misfolded substrate from SGs (Ganassi et al., 2016). This made SG disassembly in the KO neurons more questionable, in the above section we had also acknowledged that the CASA-complex was compromised. Further able to answer why SGs dissolution were prolonged in KO we decided to check the members of CASA whether they were recruited to SG in absence of HSPB8. The major CASA-chaperone was investigated for this purpose namely- BAG3, HSP70, HSC70 and HSP40. Literature suggest that HSP70 recruits to SGs in ALS-SOD1 pathogenesis (Mateju et al., 2017). Additionally, both Hsp70 and Hsp40 proteins can be localized within stress granules in yeast and mammalian cells autophagy (Cherkasov et al., 2013; Mazroui et al., 2007; Walters et al., 2015). For this purpose, the neurons were stressed for 1 hour with sodium arsenite as previously stated. The cells were fixed after 1hour of treatment, stained with DAPI to label the nucleus and after that, fluorescence microscopy images were acquired. Surprisingly, we do not observe any of the chaperone colocalizing with the SGs neither in the WT nor in the KO neurons (Figure 4.12 A and B). Exceptionally, we observed something quiet intriguing in KO-treated neurons only with HSP40 chaperone. There were nuclear or perinuclear puncta which did not colocalize with TIAR-1 stress granule marker (look Figure 4.11B).

A

WT Neurons



B

HSPB8 KO Neurons

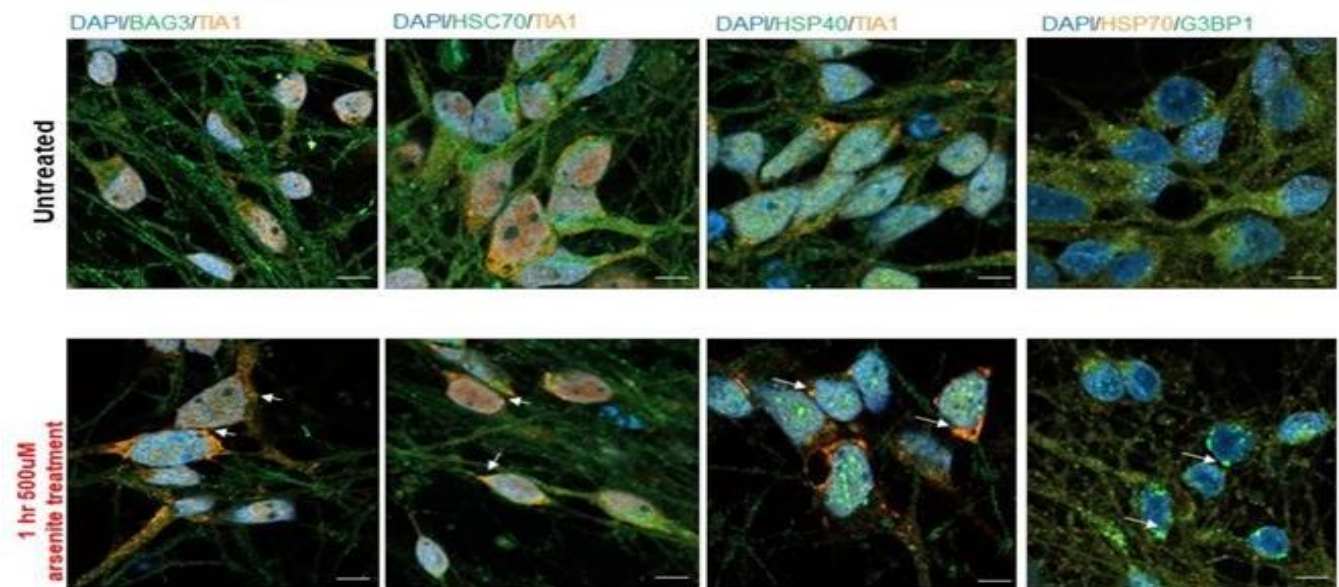


Figure 4.12: Expression of BAG3, HSP70, HSC70 and HSP40 via immunofluorescence

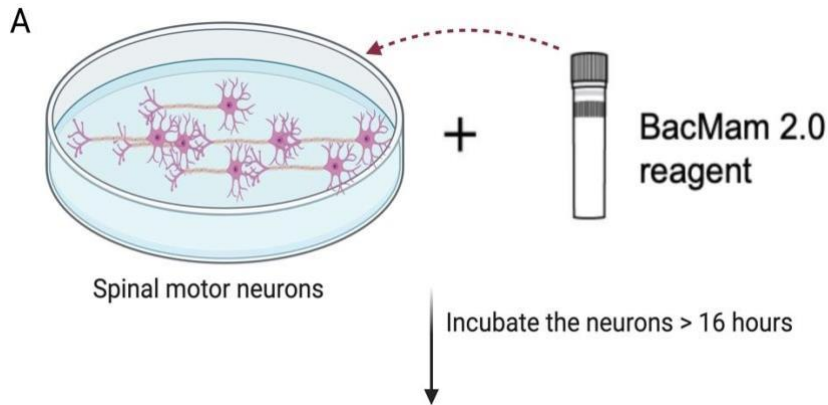
(A) Representative pictures depict the expression of BAG3, HSC70, HSP40 and HSP70 in the WT neurons, upper lane represents the Control conditions lower lane shows the neurons which are stressed with arsenite showing SGs mark with white arrows. Each lane represents the individual chaperone in Control and treated conditions. (B) Representative image of Immunofluorescence for HSPB8(KO) neurons upper lane represents the untreated conditions lower lane represents the treated conditions for BAG3, HSC70, HSP40 and HSP70 respectively showing SGs mark with white

arrows. Third bottom image for HSP40 (arsenite treated) depicts nuclear puncta positive for HSP40 which does not colocalized with TIAR-1. For all the immunofluorescence images TIAR or G3BP1 has been used as a SG marker. Scale bar 10 μ m

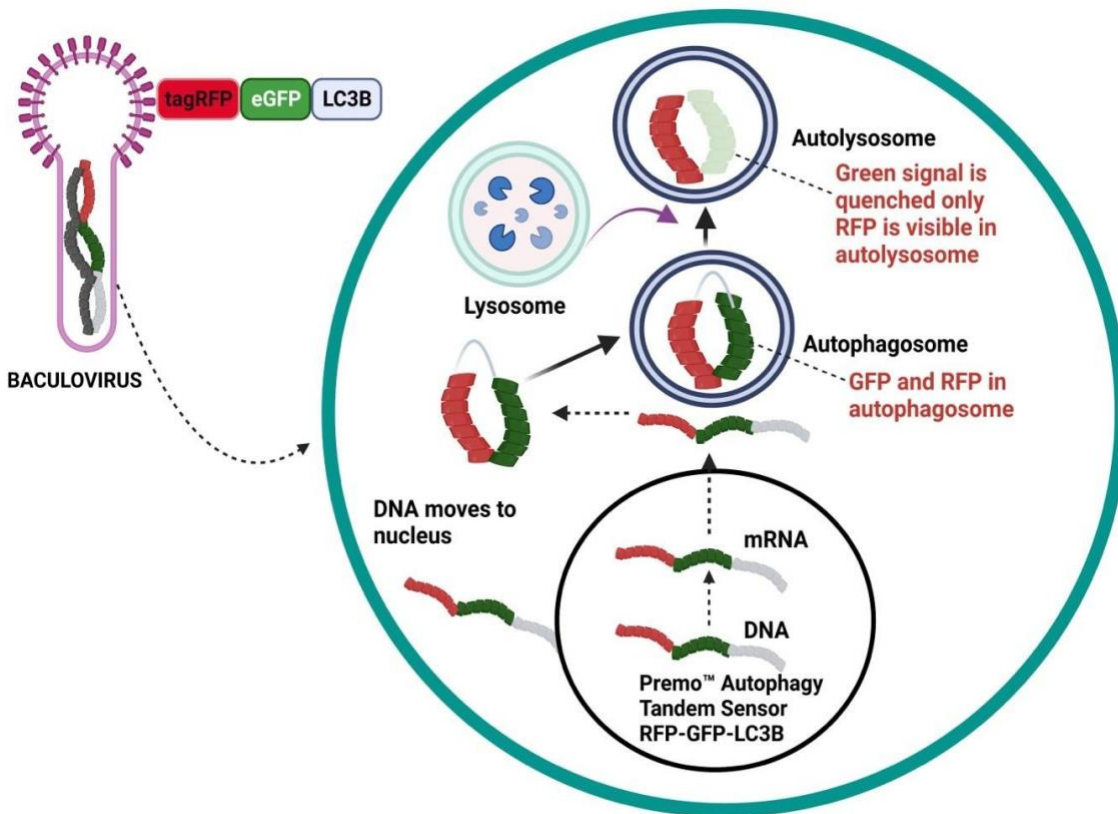
4.7 *Compromised BAG3-HSP70-HSPB8 ternary complex for the autophagy-lysosomal clearance in HSPB8(KO)*

4.7.1 *HSPB8KO neurons explicit lower number of autophagosomes and autolysosomes*

Multiple evidence implies during the autophagy flux, the fusion step of autophagosomes and lysosomes requires HSPB8. The autophagosome-lysosome pathway (APLP) is activated by HSPB8, resulting in the clearance of the mutant G93A-SOD1 (V Crippa et al., 2010). Suppression of HSPB8 impeded the fusion of autophagosomes and lysosomes (Li et al., 2017). Elevated levels of HSPB8 correct a deficient autophagic flux and ensure that misfolded proteins are effectively directed to autophagy for clearance (P Rusmini et al., 2017). The CASA complex can identify and bind multiple misfolded proteins, and it transports them along microtubules to the microtubule organization center (MTOC) for inclusion into autophagosomes and eventual degradation by lysosomes (R Cristofani et al., 2021). To study the function of HSPB8 in APLP the spinal motor neurons were incubated with the Tandem Sensor RFP-GFP-LC3B (Figure 4.13A). To analyze the influence of autophagosomes and autolysosomes on WT and KO neurons the neurons were treated with Premo Autophagy Assays with Sensor Tandem Sensor RFP-GFP-LC3B. autophagosomes identified by their positive staining for both GFP and RFP. Once the lysosome fused with an autophagosome, the pH dropped and causes the GFP to be quenched, resulting in autolysosomes appearing red followed by live-cell imaging through LSM (Figure 4.13 A and B). Later quantification was done by using ImageJ Fiji as using cell counter feature. As shown in Figure 4.13 C, the number of autophagosomes and autolysosomes in KO neurons were found to be significant lower in comparison to those in WT neurons.



Working schematic representation of Premo™ Autophagy Tandem Sensor RFP-GFP-LC3B Kit: By combining an acid-sensitive GFP with an acid-insensitive RFP, the change from autophagosome (neutral pH) to autolysosome (with an acidic pH) can be visualized by imaging the specific loss of the GFP fluorescence, leaving only red fluorescence.



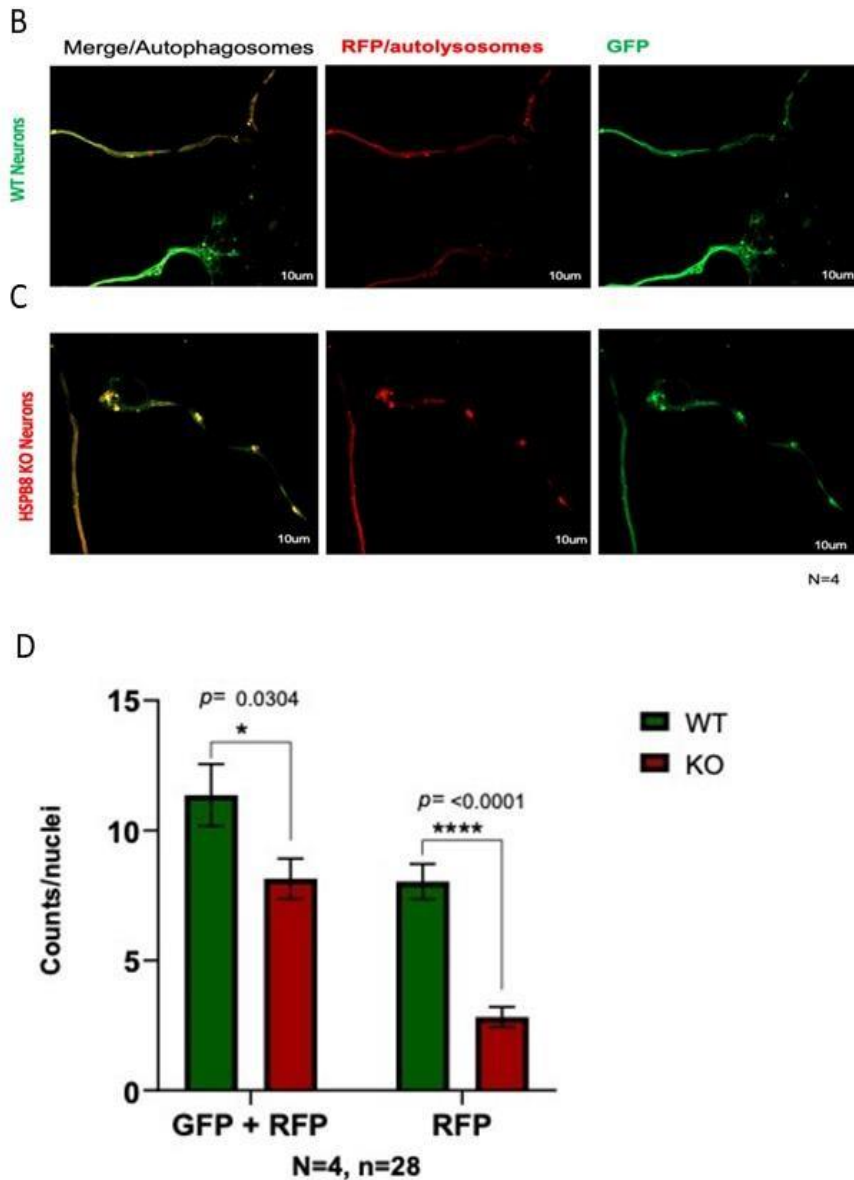


Figure 4.13: Autophagosomes and autolysosomes expression in WT and KO neurons

(A) Workflow of spinal motor neurons with BacMam2.0 incubation followed by expression/quantification of Tandem Sensor RFP-GFP-LC3B through live cell imaging. Image created by BioRender. (B) Representative pictures depict the expression of autophagosomes (GFP+RFP) and autolysosomes (RFP) in the WT neurons. (C) Representative Images depict the expression of autophagosomes (GFP+RFP) and autolysosomes (RFP) in the KO neurons. Scale bar 10 μ m. (D) The graphs represent quantification of A and B with ImageJ Fiji cell counter. Data are presented as mean \pm SEM. N = 4 biological replicates, for each condition 6-8 images were analyzed. Statistical analysis with two-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's multiple comparison.

4.7.2 *Lysosomes area has been reduced in HSPB8(KO)*

HSPB8 observed to be involved in the autophagic response triggered by elevated glucose levels, both in in vivo and in vitro settings. Furthermore, it played a pivotal role in mediating the fusion of autophagosomes with lysosomes during the autophagic flux (X. C. Li et al., 2017). Emerging evidence indicated that the HSPB8K141N variant may interfere with the clearance of autophagosomes by impeding their co-localization with lysosomes and subsequent fusion, instead of impacting autophagosomes co-localized with protein aggregates (Kwok et al., 2011). HSPB8, represented a novel mechanism by which autophagy could be regulated and might have had important implications for the treatment of various diseases, including neurodegenerative disorders and cancer, which were associated with defects in lysosomal function and autophagy (Rusmini et al., 2019). Following the results of the previous section 4.7.1. The next step we decided to pursue was to measure the number of lysosomes and area of lysosomes independent of the Tandem Sensor RFP-GFP-LC3B. We investigated the number, size and area of lysosomes via LAMP2 immunofluorescence staining. For this purpose, the neurons were fixed, stained with DAPI to label the nucleus, neuronal marker MAP2 and LAMP2 (look Figure 4.14 A). After that, fluorescence microscopy images were acquired. Next, the area, size and number of Lysosomes per cell was automatically quantified using Cell Profiler 2.2.0. There was a significant decrease in the number and area of lysosomes in KO neurons compared to WT (Shown in Figure 4.14 B). Quantification also revealed that no changes were observed in the size of the lysosomes in KO neurons compared to the WT (Fig. 4.14 C). These results remain consistent with the above findings that KO neurons had significant low number of autolysosomes. Additionally, the number and area of lysosomes seemed to be affected in the knock-out neurons; however, the size of lysosomes did not change.

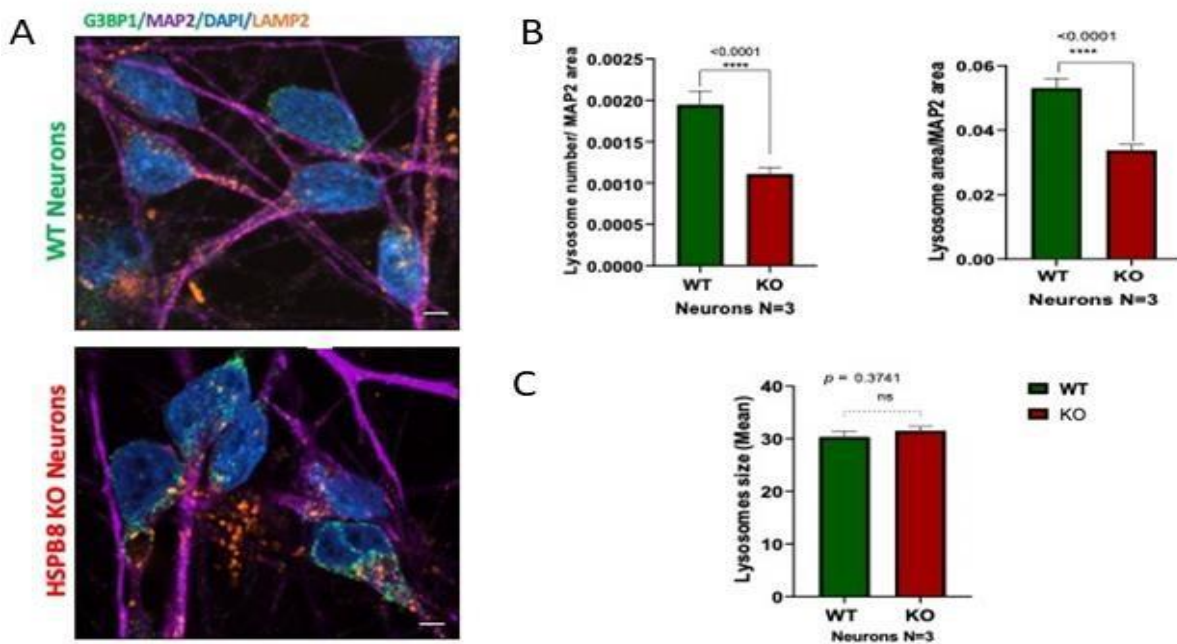


Figure 4.14: Lysosomes expression in WT and KO neurons

(A) Representative pictures depict the expression of LAMP2 (orange), MAP2 (purple) and DAPI. Upper lanes represent the WT neurons and lower lane shows the KO neurons. Scale bar 10 μm. (B) The graphs represent quantification of A and B with an automated quantification of lysosomes was performed using Cell Profiler 2.2.0. for Lysosomes numbers and lysosomes area. (C) The graphs represent quantification of A and B with an automated quantification of lysosomes size was performed using Cell Profiler 2.2.0. Data are presented as mean ± SEM. N = 4 biological replicates, for each condition 7-8 images were analyzed. Statistical analysis with unpaired two-tailed student's t-test.

4.7.3 Delineating the expression of the autophagic receptor SQSTM1/p62

The CASA process involved interaction between the autophagy adapter SQSTM1/p62 (Gamerding et al., 2011) and its recognition of substrates with selectivity. Additionally, this adapter had been known to bind to the autophagosomal marker protein LC3, thereby guiding ubiquitinated substrates towards the autophagosomes for degradation via autophagy. The interaction between BAG3 and SQSTM1 triggered the enlistment of HSPB8, BAG3, and HSP70 to specific autophagy-targeted substrates (Crippa et al., 2010a; Gamerding et al., 2011). P62 is considered a crucial molecule for proteostasis due to its multifunctional nature. It played a role in the formation of ubiquitinated aggregates and selective autophagy, as well as facilitated communication between cellular clearance pathways and major cytoprotective pathways during oxidative stress. The CASA complex known to facilitate the binding of HSPB8 and BAG3, as well as the HSP70-STUB1 complex. This allows for STUB1-mediated ubiquitination of misfolded substrates, which are then recognized by SQSTM1/p62 and incorporated into the autophagy pathway (Rusmini P et al., 2017). In order to

examine the levels of p62, we employed a protein Isolation technique followed by western blot analysis. We aimed to investigate the contribution of p62 in the disassembly of SGs, and thus treated neurons with arsenite and allowed for a recovery period of up to 8 hours. We assessed the expression levels of p62, as depicted in Figure 4.15 A, and subsequently quantified these levels. As anticipated, we observed that the KO neurons exhibited significantly lower levels of p62 under basal conditions (refer to Figure 4.15B). Furthermore, the levels of p62 remained significantly low after arsenite stress and during recovery from it.

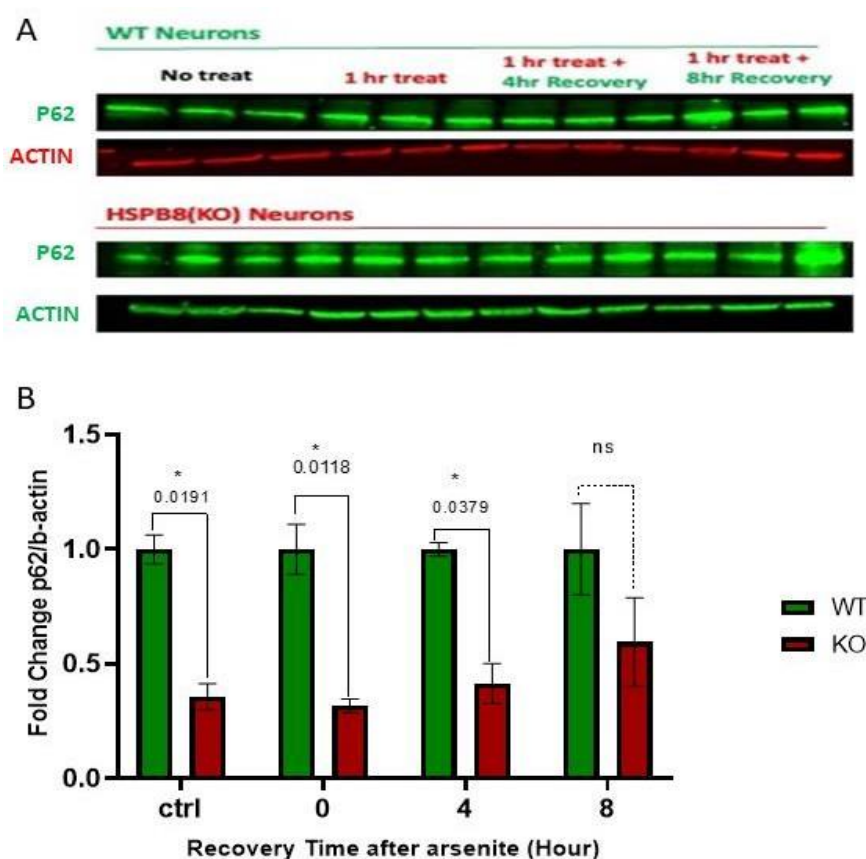


Figure 4.15: P62 levels in WT and KO neurons

(A) Representative images of fluorescence Western Blot for p62 in control conditions, 1-hour arsenite treated and post recovery in WT (upper row) upper lane represents the p62 and bottom lane represents β -actin and KO (bottom panel) upper lane represents the p62 and bottom lane represents β -actin neurons. (B) The graph represents the level of p62 each analyzed protein in every condition normalized to β -actin and to WT. All the quantifications were performed based on the fluorescence intensity using Image Studio Lite software. All the graphs are presented as mean \pm SEM. N = 3 biological replicates, one-way ANOVA with Tukey's multiple comparison.

4.8 Exploring the levels of polyubiquitination in HSPB8(KO)

The functions of p62 in selective autophagy had been well established. Specifically, it served as a critical component for the assembly of protein aggregates and functioned as an autophagy receptor by facilitating the connection between ubiquitin-tagged protein aggregates and autophagosomes for subsequent degradation. In cultured cells, p62 formed cytoplasmic inclusion bodies, commonly referred to as p62 bodies, through endogenous or ectopic expression (Bjørkøy et al., 2005). These bodies contained polyubiquitin chains, with K63 polyubiquitin chains preferentially recruited into p62 bodies (Stolz et al., 2014). Following the observed reduction in p62 levels in the preceding section, we proceeded to investigate the levels of K63 polyubiquitination in our spinal motor neurons. Unexpectedly, we did not observe any quantifiable band in the wild-type neurons, while conversely, we detected a band in the KO neurons. There is a prevailing notion that proteins modified by K63 chains serve as substrates for aggrephagy while K48-ubiquitinated proteins undergo degradation via proteasome. Nevertheless, it had been shown that K63, and K48 chains were all capable of eliciting phase separation in vitro through binding to p62, albeit with a lower efficacy than the K48 chain (Sun et al., 2018; Zaffagnini & Martens, 2016). To comprehend the function of K48 polyubiquitination, we opted to examine its levels via western blot (refer to Figure 4.16 B). Through quantification, we determined that there are no distinctions in polyUBK48 levels between WT and KO (as shown in Figure 4.16 C).

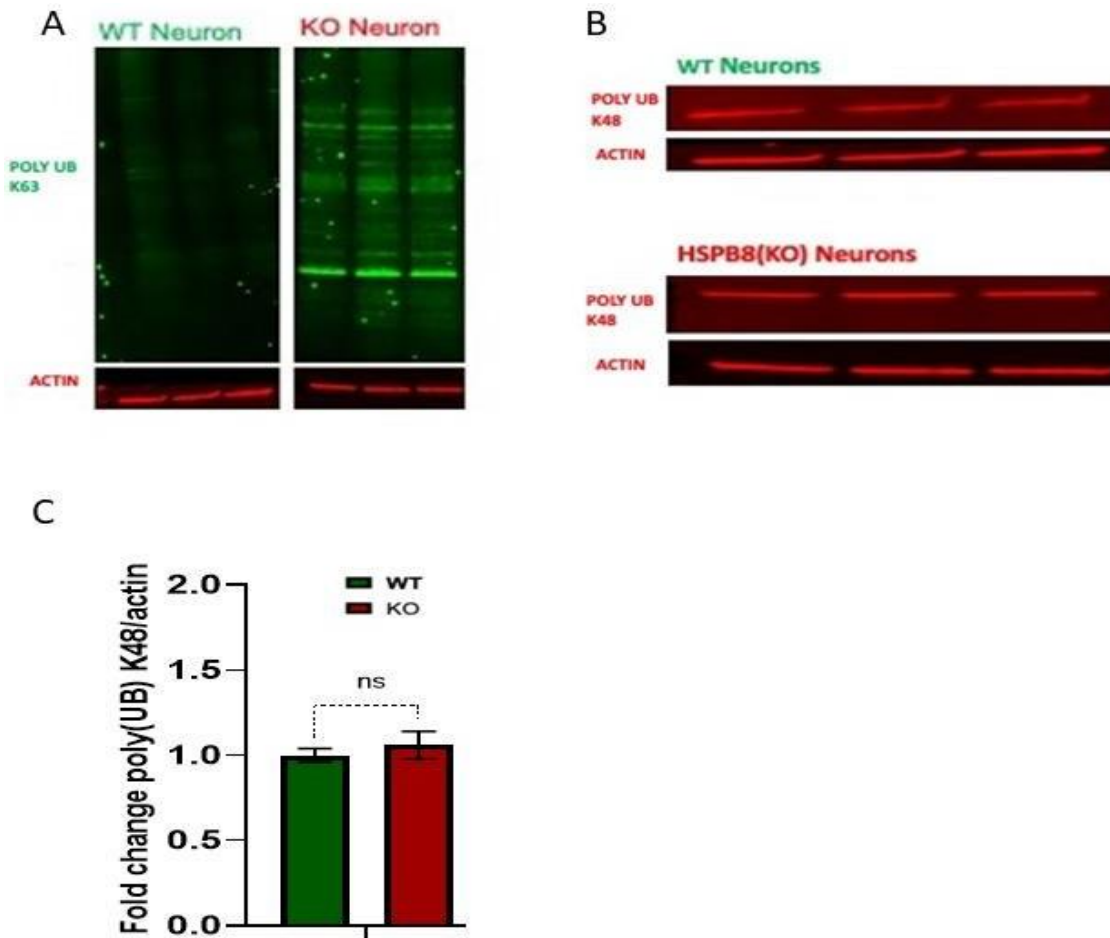


Figure 4.16: Polyubiquitin antibodies levels in WT and KO neurons

(A) Representative images of fluorescence western Blot for polyK63 in WT (left) upper lane polyK63 and lower lane β -actin and KO (right) neurons upper lane polyK63 and lower lane β -actin. (B) Representative images of fluorescence western Blot for polyK48 in WT (upper lane polyK48 bottom lane β -actin) and KO (upper lane polyK48 and bottom lane β -actin) neurons. (C) The graph represents the level of polyUB K48 protein normalized to β -actin. Data are presented as mean \pm SEM. N = 3 biological replicates. Statistical analysis with unpaired two-tailed student's t-test.

5 Discussion

The discussion of the thesis revolves around the multifaceted role of HSPB8 in various neurodegenerative diseases. On the one hand, multiple studies have demonstrated that HSPB8 is implicated in the clearance of protein aggregates resulting from genes associated with ALS (Crippa et al., 2010b; Crippa et al., 2016; Carra et al., 2013; Rusmini et al., 2013, 2015). On the other hand, mutations in HSPB8 are causing CMT2L, an autosomal dominant distal axonal motor neuropathy-myofibrillar myopathy syndrome. Furthermore, HSPB8 is highly expressed in the surviving α -MNs of ALS patients' spinal cord. The presented research thus aimed to investigate the role of HSPB8 loss of function on motor neurons, disturbances on neurodegenerative disease pathways such as SG, proteostasis and autophagy and a putative association between HSPB8 chaperone and aggregation prone ALS related proteins, in our case FUS, specifically focusing on the expression pattern and levels of FUS proteins in motor neurons.

5.1 HSPB8: A critical regulator of stress granule disassembly and neuronal survival

Stress granules are dynamic cytoplasmic RNA-protein complexes that form in response to various cellular stressors, such as oxidative stress or viral infections (Anderson & Kedersha, 2006; Nover et al., 1989). They have been shown to play a critical role in the cellular stress response and regulation of gene expression. The process of SG formation is complex and involves the recruitment of multiple proteins, including heat shock proteins such as Hsp22 (HspB8), Hsp27 (HspB1), Hsp40, and Hsp70, which are involved in protein homeostasis, including protein folding, degradation, and refolding (Cherkasov et al., 2013; N. L. Kedersha et al., 1999; Walters et al., 2015; Mateju et al., 2017).

To further investigate the role of HSPB8 in SG regulation, we studied the effects of HSPB8 knockout on SG formation and disassembly. Using sodium arsenite treatment, which induces SG formation, we found that HSPB8 knockout did not abolish SG formation in neurons, suggesting that other HSPs may compensate for its loss (Look Figure 4.7 D). Given that HSPB8 is considered a crucial factor in preserving the solubility of stress granules, as it is described for HeLa cells (Ganassi et al., 2016). Consistently with this findings, in our spinal motor neurons time course experiments revealed two phenotypes: (1.) HSPB8 knockout cells showed delayed and overshooting SG assembly as well as that SG disassembly takes longer in HSPB8 knockout cells compared to wild-type cells, indicating that HSPB8 plays a critical role in SG dynamics (Fig. 4.8 A,B). Moreover, there was a significant increase in

the number of persistent SGs in KO neurons compared to WT post recovery of 2 hour and 4 hour (Shown in Figure 4.8 B). This was associated with lower survival rate compared to wild-type cells (Fig. 4.8 C).

In conclusion, our findings suggest that HSPB8 plays a crucial role in the regulation of SG dynamics and cell survival. The study also underscores the intricate regulation of SGs and the involvement of multiple chaperones in the process. Understanding the regulation of SGs is important for developing strategies to mitigate the damage caused by stress and improve cellular survival under stressful conditions.

5.2 The importance of chaperone-assisted selective autophagy in stress granule disassembly: A study on the role of HSPB8 in protein homeostasis.

The study by (Tedesco et al., 2022) sheds light on the importance of chaperone-assisted selective autophagy in stress granule disassembly. The authors found that a very small portion of SGs is dependent on autophagic clearance, and the majority of SG disintegration is based on chaperone-dependent and autophagy-independent pathways. The CASA complex, consisting of HSPB8-BAG3-HSP70-CHIP, surveils the proper composition of SGs and prevents their persistence. CASA targets specific proteins or protein aggregates for degradation (Carra et al., 2008 ; Ganassi et al., 2016). Indeed, the reduction of HSPB8 and BAG3 resulted in a notable rise in the proportion of cells harbouring persistent stress granules, mirroring the observations made in cells depleted of HSP70. The delay in the restoration of translation in cells lacking HSPB8 and BAG3 further supported the persistence of SGs. Interestingly, even in the absence of BAG3 and HSPB8, the expression of HSP70 was induced upon prolonged treatment with MG132, indicating that HSP70's role in SG disassembly is reliant on the presence of BAG3 or HSPB8 and cannot function independently (Ganassi et al., 2016).

Hsp70 chaperone that serves diverse roles in protein quality control processes. Their functions encompass various essential tasks such as facilitating the folding of newly synthesized proteins, assisting in the refolding of proteins damaged by stress, aiding in protein transport and membrane translocation, as well as contributing to protein degradation mechanisms (Kim YE et al., 2013). HSP40 regulates the HSP70 reaction cycle (Hart FU et al., 2009, Maye MP et al., 2010). HSP40 recruits HSP70 to non-native substrate protein, this interaction with HSP70 strongly stimulates (> 1,000 fold) the hydrolysis of HSP70-bound ATP to ADP, resulting in stable substrate binding by HSP70 in the closed

conformation (Hart FU et al., 2009, Maye MP et al., 2010, Kim YE et al., 2013). Proteins which are unable to utilize HSP70 mechanistic paradigms in protein folding or clearance are transferred to HSP90 system also many signalling proteins in eukaryotes are transferred from HSP70 to the ATP-dependent HSP90 chaperone system for completion of folding and conformational regulation. The mechanistic way by which HSP90 recognizes the non-native proteins is alike HSP70 ATP-regulated facilitated by other co-chaperones which bring unfolded proteins (Kim YE et al., 2013).

Ensuring the proper folding and preservation of newly synthesized proteins is vital for maintaining a functional proteome. While significant progress has been made in the mechanisms of the proteostasis network (PN), our comprehension of the collaborative functioning of different chaperone systems within the network, along with their coordination with protein transport and degradation machinery, remains limited (Kim YE et al., 2013). The breakdown of proteostasis is associated with diseases and the detrimental consequences of aging (Balch WE et al., 2008). Molecular chaperones play pivotal roles within the PN by their capacity to identify misfolded proteins, thereby assuming multiple crucial functions. The proteostasis network demonstrates a fundamental characteristic in its organization by tightly interconnecting the functions of molecular chaperones with protein degradation pathways. These degradation pathways serve the crucial role of eliminating non-functional, misfolded, or aggregated proteins that have the potential to disturb proteostasis. Within the PN, the degradation branch encompasses both the ubiquitin-proteasome system and the machinery involved in autophagy. Aggregated proteins that cannot be unfolded for proteasomal degradation may be removed by autophagy and lysosomal degradation. Loss of autophagy causes inclusion body formation and neurodegeneration, even in the absence of additional stress, demonstrating the importance of this pathway for proteostasis (Komatsu M et al., 2006, Kim YE et al., 2013). The pathways of autophagy include CASA and Chaperone-mediated autophagy (Ketterer N et al., 2010, Kon M et al., 2010, Arias E et al., 2011).

We decide to investigate the role of CASA as HSPB8 is an important regulator of CASA. This is the first time we have elucidated the novel HSPB8 knockout role in spinal motor neurons and impaired selective autophagy in *invitro* system . This study examined the levels of chaperones and co-chaperones involved in CASA and their response to various conditions. The protein levels of major CASA components were globally dysregulated in knockout motor neurons. Reports have revealed that BAG3 plays a crucial role in the granulostasis meaning it helps in clearing the SG dissolution and

is strongly upregulated in the stress recovery phase, the same time period when SGs dissolve (Ganassi et al., 2016 ; Mateju et al., 2017; Mediani et al., 2020). In line with these reports the absence of HSPB8 resulted in tremendously upregulated BAG3, which was not affected by arsenite induced SG assembly/disassembly (Fig. 4.9 F). It has been reported by Meister-Broekema M et al., 2018 that due to the toxic gain-of-function, BAG3 impairs the functionality of HSP70. Consequently, CASA-complexes containing mutant BAG3 accumulates at the aggresome along with their associated clients and co-factors. This accumulation hinders the degradation of misfolded cargo bound to Hsp70 and results in the sequestration of crucial proteostasis factors such as HSPB8, SQSTM1/p62, and ubiquitin. In our study, we observed a notable increase in BAG3 expression in knockout neurons compared to wild-type neurons. This finding suggests the possibility that under knockout conditions, BAG3's functionality becomes dysregulated, impairing its ability to effectively clear misfolded cargo. Alternatively, it may indicate a compensatory upregulation of BAG3 that, despite its efforts, proves insufficient to fully restore stress granule dynamics.

HSPB8, which lacks enzymatic activity, cannot independently refold its clients. Instead, it relies on collaborative interactions with ATP-driven chaperones like Hsp70 to facilitate client refolding (Meister-Broekema M et al., 2018, Tedesco et al., 2022). To gain a deeper understanding of this phenomenon, we made a novel discovery by demonstrating that the knockout of HSPB8 results in remarkably low levels of HSP70 (HspA1A, HspA1B) under basal conditions. Additionally, we observed that any subsequent neuronal insult does not further increase the expression of HSP70. However, upon recovery from arsenite stress, there is a substantial amplification of HSP70 levels, which becomes significantly upregulated after 8 hours of recovery (Figure 4.9 C). Previous study has reported the colocalization of HSP70 with stress granules (Mateju D et al., 2017). However, in our investigation, focusing on human motor neurons, we did not observe any colocalization between HSP70 and SGs. It is important to note that the absence of colocalization may vary depending on the cell types used, as our study employed human motor neurons while other study utilized HeLa cells. Our findings indicate the absence of colocalization between HSP70 and SGs in both wild-type (WT) and HSPB8 knockout (KO) neurons. It is worth emphasizing that, consistent with previous research, HSP70 plays a vital role in the disassembly of stress granules (Ganassi et al., 2016, Mateju D et al., 2017, Szewczyk et al., 2023). Our findings align with this understanding, as we observed that reduced expression levels of HSP70 in the absence of HSPB8 result in prolonged disintegration of SGs. This

suggests that HSP70's involvement is critical for the efficient disassembly of SGs, and the lower levels observed in the absence of HSPB8 contribute to the extended persistence of SGs.

Another critical component of the CASA complex is HSC70, the constitutively expressed form of HSP70, which also contributes significantly to chaperone-mediated autophagy (Kim YE et al., 2013). Considering this, we aimed to investigate the involvement of HSC70 in our study. Interestingly, unlike HSP70, we observed a significant upregulation of HSC70 in both untreated and treated conditions. Furthermore, after recovery, HSC70 levels remained moderately but non-significantly elevated in HSPB8KO neurons compared to the wild type (refer to Figure 4.9 D). These findings indicate that HSC70 may play a distinct role in the cellular response, particularly in the absence of HSPB8, suggesting its potential involvement in compensatory mechanisms to maintain cellular proteostasis. In order to ubiquitinate client proteins bound to HSP70, an essential regulator known as U-box-dependent ubiquitin ligase CHIP is required. Intriguingly, our study revealed no significant differences in CHIP expression levels among the knockout neurons, irrespective of treatment or recovery conditions (refer to Figure 4.9E for specific data). This lack of variation may be attributed to the low expression of HSP70 in the KO neurons, as the reduced levels hinder the transfer of misfolded proteins to CHIP. Consequently, the absence of misfolded protein transfer to CHIP may explain the absence of noticeable differences in CHIP expression within the KO neurons.

In light of the observed dysregulation of major components within the CASA-complex in knockout neurons, we further investigated the upstream component of this complex, namely the HSP40 chaperone. The role of HSP40 (DNAJB) chaperone is well-established in recognizing unfolded proteins and facilitating their delivery to HSP70 for subsequent downstream processing (Kim YE et al., 2013). Given the critical role of HSP40 in the chaperone network, we conducted an investigation to gain a thorough comprehension of the dysregulation observed within the CASA complex. In addition to assessing the overall expression of HSP40, we focused on examining the expression levels of a specific member of the HSP40 family, DNAJB6, a member of the DNAJ family, has been reported to be involved in the CASA complex according to previous studies (Sarparanta et al., 2012, 2020). Therefore, we explored the expression levels of both HSP40 and DNAJB6 in our spinal motor neurons to gain insights into their potential contributions to the dysregulation observed within the CASA complex. In our study, the levels of HSP40 exhibited a significant increase in KO neurons compared to wild-type neurons under control conditions. However, these levels showed a non-significant

decrease in treated neurons and a moderate but not noteworthy decrease in HSPB8(KO) neurons after a 4-hour recovery period. Notably, after an 8-hour redemption from arsenite treatment, HSP40 levels experienced a significant drop (refer to Figure 4.10 C and D for detailed data). This observation could be attributed to HSP40's involvement in carrying a substantial load of misfolded proteins under KO conditions. Further insult to the cells may overwhelm the system, leading to a reduction in HSP40 levels. On the other hand, the levels of DNAJB6 were indiscernible in both the wild-type and knockout neurons (refer to Figure 4.10 E). These findings suggest that HSP40 plays a dynamic role in response to different conditions, while the presence of DNAJB6 may be negligible in the specific context of our spinal motor neuron study. While previous research conducted by Walters et al. in 2015 reported the colocalization of HSP40 with SGs, our study presents contrasting findings. In our investigation, we did not observe any colocalization between SGs and HSP40. This discrepancy in observations may be attributed to several factors. One possibility is that the use of a GFP tag in Walters' study could have influenced the colocalization patterns. Additionally, the lack of colocalization could also be influenced by differences in the cell types employed between the two studies. It is important to consider these factors when comparing our results to those reported by Walters et al., highlighting the need for further exploration and understanding of the intricate relationship between HSP40 and SGs in different experimental settings. Furthermore, in our study, we made an interesting observation of nuclear or perinuclear puncta of HSP40 in knockout-treated neurons. These puncta were distinct and did not colocalize with the stress granule marker TIAR-1 (refer to Figure 4.12 A, B). In comparison, wild-type neurons did not exhibit similar results. This finding suggests a potential alteration in the subcellular localization or behaviour of HSP40 in the knockout-treated neurons, indicating a possible role for HSP40 in cellular processes independent of stress granule formation. These results emphasize the need for further investigations to unravel the precise mechanisms and functional implications of HSP40 puncta formation in knockout-treated neurons.

In addition to investigating the upstream components of the CASA complex, we also explored another ATP-dependent chaperone system known as the HSP90 chaperone system. This chaperone system comes into play when proteins are unable to utilize the mechanistic paradigms of HSP70 for proper folding or clearance. In such cases, these proteins are transferred to the HSP90 system for the completion of folding and regulation of their conformation. Furthermore, it is worth noting that the ATP-dependent HSP90 chaperone system plays a crucial role in handling various signaling proteins in eukaryotic cells, ensuring their folding and conformational regulation. Therefore,

recognizing the dysregulation of the HSP70 chaperone system in KO neurons, we sought to investigate the involvement of the HSP90 chaperone system in our study. Our findings reveal that the levels of HSP90 were significantly upregulated in KO neurons under untreated and treated conditions after a 4-hour recovery period. However, intriguingly, these levels were significantly suppressed after an 8-hour recovery period compared to the wild-type (WT) neurons (refer to Figure 4.10 C for specific data). These results suggest that the HSP90 chaperone system may be attempting to compensate for protein folding and quality control processes in the absence of HSPB8, as evidenced by its upregulation in the control and treated KO neurons. However, the downstream processing of proteins may be affected due to the absence of HSPB8, a crucial regulator responsible for maintaining protein homeostasis. These findings shed light on the intricate interplay between chaperone systems and highlight the importance of HSPB8 in ensuring proper protein folding and quality control.

In addition to the selective autophagy pathway represented by the CASA complex, the ubiquitin-proteasome system (UPS) plays a crucial role in protein quality control. Previous research conducted by Cristofani et al. in 2017 demonstrated that when dynein-mediated transport of misfolded proteins by BAG3 to autophagy fails, cells activate an alternative pathway involving BAG1. This BAG1-mediated rerouting of misfolded protein substrates directs them towards the proteasome for degradation. This indicates that cells employ a compensatory mechanism to restore protein homeostasis when one of the degradative pathways is overwhelmed or impaired, rather than modifying the degradative pathway itself. When there are too many misfolded substrates, the proteasome may become overloaded, causing other systems to activate and prevent the buildup of harmful misfolded proteins. One way the body may adapt to this is by transitioning from using BAG1-dependent proteasomal activity to BAG3-mediated autophagy as a means of degrading proteins or vice-versa (Gamerding M et al., 2009 and Minoia M et al., 2014). The results showed that in the absence of HSPB8, both the proteasomal and autophagy pathways were remarkably overexpressed compared to the wild type (Fig. 4.11).

Collectively, the findings of this study indicate that the CASA complex, consisting of HSPB8, BAG3, HSP70, and CHIP, may not be the sole mechanism involved in the dissolution of stress granules. It is evident that the dysregulation caused by an excessive accumulation of misfolded proteins also affects the upstream components of the CASA complex. Moreover, the study highlights the

compensatory efforts of the HSP90 molecular pathway to maintain protein homeostasis; however, it does not fully compensate for the loss of HSPB8. Additionally, besides the selective autophagy pathway represented by CASA, the proteasomal system also shows increased expression in the absence of HSPB8, further emphasizing the complexity of protein quality control mechanisms. These findings enhance our understanding of the intricate network of cellular processes involved in protein homeostasis and shed light on the potential limitations and compensatory mechanisms in the absence of key components like HSPB8.

Neuropathological features of HSPB8(KO)

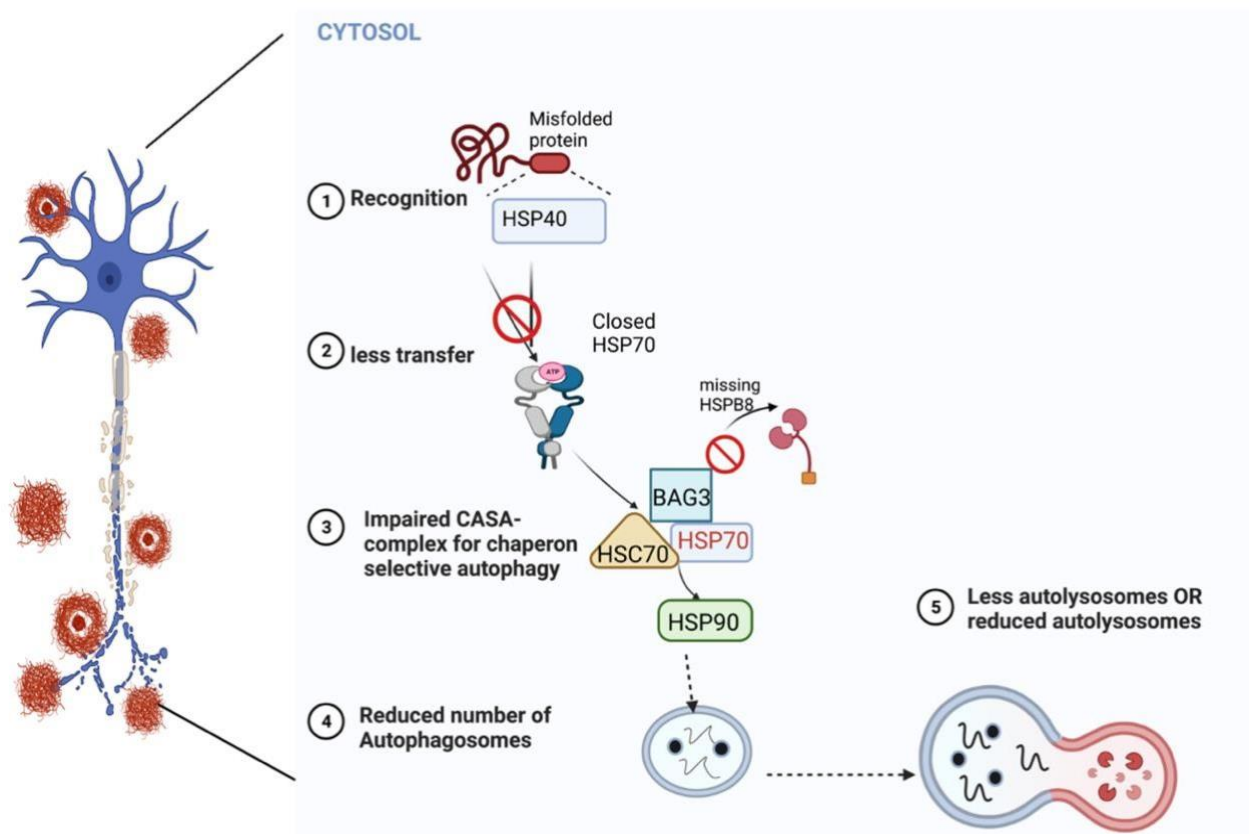


Figure 5.1: Neuropathological features of HSPB8-KO:

1) Misfolded proteins recognized by HSP40 chaperone 2) In absence of HSPB8, HSP70 protein is not functionally active because of the closed structure (no exchange of ATP), less transfer of non-native proteins to HSP70 3) As HSPB8 is an important regulator of CASA, B8 Knock-out cause impairment in CASA 4) Impaired CASA-complex leads to reduced number of autophagosomes 5) This can cause issue with the downstream processing of autophagosomes fusion with autolysosomes. Figure has been generated by Biorender.

5.3 The crucial role of HSPB8 in the autophagy-lysosome pathway

The autophagy-lysosome pathway is a crucial mechanism for clearing misfolded proteins and damaged organelles from cells. The fusion step between autophagosomes and lysosomes is a critical step in this pathway, and studies suggest that HSPB8 is required for this process (Crippa et al., 2010; XC Li et al., 2017; Rusmini et al., 2017). Crippa et al. (2010) found that HSPB8 activates the autophagy-lysosome pathway resulting in clearance of the mutant G93A-SOD1. The study also suggests that suppression of HSPB8 impairs the fusion of autophagosomes and lysosomes. Similarly, XC Li et al. (2017) also found that HSPB8 is essential for the fusion of autophagosomes and lysosomes.

Another study by P Rusmini et al. (2017) indicates that elevated levels of HSPB8 help to correct a deficient autophagic flux and ensure that misfolded proteins are effectively directed to autophagy for clearance. This finding is particularly important since misfolded proteins are often implicated in several neurodegenerative diseases, and autophagy is a critical mechanism for maintaining the health of neurons.

In order to investigate the impact of HSPB8 knock-out on the autophagy-lysosome pathway, we utilized the Tandem Sensor RFP-GFP-LC3B, which enables live-cell imaging of autophagosomes and autolysosomes. Our results revealed a significant reduction in the number of autophagosomes and autolysosomes in HSPB8 KO neurons compared to WT neurons (Figure 4.13 D). This finding provides compelling evidence supporting the crucial role of HSPB8 in facilitating proper functioning of the autophagy-lysosome pathway.

Expanding on this, we delved deeper into the lysosomes of these neurons by quantifying their number and area using LAMP2 immunofluorescence staining, independent of the tandem sensor. Our analysis demonstrated a noteworthy decrease in both the number and area of lysosomes in HSPB8 KO neurons as compared to wild-type neurons (Fig. 4.14 B). However, no significant differences were observed in the size of the lysosomes between the two groups (Fig. 4.14 C). These findings contribute significantly to our understanding of HSPB8's involvement in lysosomal function, underscoring that its absence leads to a reduction in the number of autophagosomes and autolysosomes. Moreover, the diminished number and area of lysosomes further highlight the

importance of HSPB8 in maintaining lysosomal homeostasis.

The above discussed process, known as CASA, plays a crucial role in maintaining cellular homeostasis by facilitating the clearance of misfolded and ubiquitinated proteins via the autophagy pathway. The key molecule involved in this process is SQSTM1/p62, which acts as an autophagy adapter and binds to both ubiquitinated substrates and autophagosomal marker protein LC3. This interaction between SQSTM1/p62 and its substrates with selectivity is crucial for the specific targeting of misfolded proteins for degradation via autophagy (Gamerding et al., 2011; Crippa et al., 2010a; Gamerding et al., 2011). The formation of the CASA complex, which includes HSPB8, BAG3, HSP70, and STUB1, allows for the ubiquitination of misfolded substrates by STUB1, which are then recognized by SQSTM1/p62 and incorporated into the autophagy pathway. P62 is considered a multifunctional molecule that plays a critical role in proteostasis and facilitates communication between cellular clearance pathways and cytoprotective pathways during oxidative stress (Crippa et al., 2010a; Rusmini et al., 2017).

In our investigation of the involvement of p62 in the disassembly of stress granules and its role downstream of the CASA complex, we made significant observations. Specifically, we found that HSPB8 KO neurons exhibited notably lower levels of p62 under basal conditions, and even up to 8 hours after recovery from treatment, the levels remained significantly decreased (Figure 4.15B). Our findings provide evidence that lower levels of p62 serve as an indicator of impairment within the CASA complex. This impairment can disrupt the downstream targeting or recruiting of p62 to misfolded proteins, resulting in hindered clearance of these proteins through the autophagy pathway. The proper functioning of p62 is crucial for maintaining cellular homeostasis and ensuring the efficient removal of misfolded proteins. The observed decrease in p62 levels highlights the critical role it plays in coordinating the clearance of misfolded proteins and emphasizes its significance in maintaining cellular health.

The results of this study indicate that the absence of HSPB8 due to knockout leads to decreased levels of p62, on one hand implying a potential deficiency in proper protein ubiquitination in knockout conditions. Consequently, this disruption in protein ubiquitination adversely affects cellular aggregate clearance (CASA), resulting in reduced p62 levels. On the other hand, it also hampers the normal formation of autophagosomes and autolysosome (Figure 4.15B), thereby impairing the

biogenesis of these crucial cellular components. These findings collectively underscore the critical role of p62 in facilitating the clearance of misfolded proteins and emphasize its significance in maintaining proper cellular function. The dysregulation observed in HSPB8 KO neurons highlights the disruption of protein homeostasis and the impaired functionality of the autophagy pathway.

The role of p62 in selective autophagy is well established, and it serves as a critical component for the assembly of protein aggregates and functions as an autophagy receptor. The formation of cytoplasmic inclusion bodies known as p62 bodies, containing polyubiquitin chains, is facilitated by p62 (Stolz A et al., 2014; Bjørkøy G et al., 2015). The presence of K63 polyubiquitin chains in p62 bodies suggests that these chains play a role in aggrephagy, while K48-ubiquitinated proteins undergo proteasomal degradation (Zaffagnini G et al., 2016; Sun D et al., 2018).

In our study, we investigated the levels of K63 and K48 polyubiquitination in spinal motor neurons of both wild-type and HSPB8-knockout conditions. Interestingly, we did not observe a quantifiable band for K63 polyubiquitination in wild-type neurons, while a band was detected in the knockout neurons (refer to Figure 4.16 A for detailed data). These findings suggest that the role of K63 polyubiquitination in the process of aggrephagy, particularly in our experimental system, remains unclear due to the lack of K63 polyubiquitination expression in wild-type neurons. It is important to note that these results may be influenced by technical factors such as the antibody used or the possibility of an alternative polyubiquitination pathway in wild-type neurons. Further investigations are required to elucidate the involvement of K63 polyubiquitination in aggrephagy and to explore other potential mechanisms underlying protein degradation in wild-type neurons and HSPB8 KO neurons.

The levels of K48 polyubiquitination in both wild-type and knockout neurons to assess the efficiency of protein degradation. Surprisingly, we did not observe any significant differences between the two groups (refer to Figure 4.16 B, C). K48 polyubiquitination is considered a classical marker of protein degradation. The absence of significant changes in K48 polyubiquitination levels observed in HSPB8 knockout neurons aligns with the findings of decreased p62 levels. These results collectively strengthen the evidence that polyubiquitination is impaired in the absence of HSPB8, indicating a disruption in protein degradation mechanisms in HSPB8 knockout conditions. This suggests that HSPB8 plays a crucial role in maintaining the proper functioning of polyubiquitination

processes and underscores its importance in protein homeostasis and cellular clearance pathways.

5.4 Role of HSPB8 to FUS Aggregation beyond Stress Granules and Mislocalization

Multiple studies have provided substantial evidence linking the expression pattern and level of the HSPB8 chaperone to the clearance of aggregated proteins associated with ALS. These studies, including works by Anagnostou et al. (2010), Crippa et al. (2010a, 2010b, 2016), and Cristofani et al. (2017), consistently support the association between HSPB8 and the removal of ALS-associated protein aggregates. First, we investigated the relation between HSPB8 and FUS. We decided to analyze the expression levels of FUS in the WT and KO neurons, there is no significant difference in FUS protein expression between WT and HSPB8 KO motor neurons, indicating that HSPB8 does not affect FUS protein expression itself (Fig. 4.6 A). Interestingly, when investigating HSPB8 KO neurons, the levels of FUS aggregates were found to be higher in KO motor neurons, indicating that HSPB8 plays a role in the clearance of aggregated FUS proteins (Fig. 4.6 C and D). We next investigated whether HSPB8 expression is thus affected in case of FUS-ALS mutations. However, the expression of HSPB8 was not homogenous when FUS-ALS cell line-derived neurons were investigated (Fig. 4.6 C). Because of the mentioned problems with unspecific binding of all HSPB8 antibodies in IFF stainings, we were unfortunately unable to look at HSPB8 expression within distinct cellular compartments in FUS-ALS neurons.

To overcome this shortcoming we speculated that HSPB8 might affect other key factors of FUS pathogenesis, including FUS nuclear-cytoplasmic distribution and SG dynamics. The present investigation thus aimed to explore the properties of stress granules and their association with FUS-mislocalization under stress conditions, since prior research has demonstrated FUS' colocalization with SGs and its role in SG dynamics (Gal et al., 2011; Marrone et al., 2018; Szewczyk et al., 2023). The results showed no FUS-mislocalization into SG granules in HSPB8(KO), suggesting the involvement of other factors in the formation of FUS aggregates in ALS pathology. This observation may be attributed to the EGFP-tagged FUS protein used in previous studies, as EGFP-FUS was found to colocalize with SGs. Additionally, unpublished data from Marcel Naumann and the Hermann laboratory showed no FUS mislocalization to the cytoplasm or stress granule targeting in mutated non-tagged induced pluripotent stem cell (iPSC)-derived motor neurons from control subjects under oxidative stress conditions. These findings further support the hypothesis that FUS localization to SGs

is influenced by the abundance of FUS in the cytoplasm. The inconsistent reports on the incorporation of wild-type FUS into SGs under stress conditions, with some researchers reporting such incorporation under oxidative or heat stress (Andersson et al., 2008; Marrone et al., 2018), could also be explained by this hypothesis.

These findings are important as they provide insight into the role of HSPB8 in ALS-pathogenesis and the formation of FUS aggregates. The results suggest that HSPB8 may play a role in the clearance of FUS aggregates, but not in the regulation of FUS protein expression and proper nucleus-cytoplasmic shuttling.

6 CONCLUSION

In conclusion, this thesis has provided valuable insights into the role of chaperone-assisted selective autophagy in stress granule disassembly and the overall proteostasis network. The study demonstrated that CASA, mediated by the CASA complex consisting of HSPB8-BAG3-HSP70-CHIP, plays a critical role in the clearance of SGs and prevents their persistence. The absence of HSPB8 and BAG3 resulted in the prolonged disintegration of SGs, emphasizing their importance in the efficient removal of misfolded cargo. Furthermore, the study highlighted the collaborative functioning of different chaperone systems within the proteostasis network. Molecular chaperones such as HSP70 and HSP40, along with co-chaperones like HSC70, HSP90, and CHIP, play vital roles in protein quality control, folding, and degradation. The dysregulation observed in chaperone components within HSPB8 knockout neurons strongly indicates impaired mechanisms for maintaining cellular proteostasis. This deficiency in proteostasis maintenance renders cells vulnerable to additional insults, thereby resulting in detrimental effects (look Figure 6.1). Moreover, the findings revealed the dynamic nature of chaperone expression levels under different conditions. HSP70 exhibited a significant reduction in the absence of HSPB8, resulting in prolonged SG disintegration. HSC70 showed significant upregulation, potentially playing a distinct role in cellular response and compensatory mechanisms. Additionally, HSP40 exhibited dynamic expression patterns, with potential involvement in misfolded protein handling and cellular processes independent of SG formation. Furthermore, the study emphasized the interplay between chaperone systems, as proteins that cannot be folded or cleared by HSP70 are transferred to the ATP-dependent HSP90 chaperone system. The dysregulation of the HSP70 chaperone system in the absence of HSPB8 led to the upregulation of HSP90, suggesting its compensatory role in protein folding and quality control. However, the downstream processing of proteins may be affected due to the absence of HSPB8, emphasizing its crucial role in protein homeostasis. The results showed that in the absence of HSPB8, both the proteasomal (BAG1) and autophagy (BAG3) pathways were remarkably upregulated compared to the wild type. Overall, this thesis provides insights into the intricate mechanisms of chaperone-assisted selective autophagy, the coordination of chaperone systems in protein quality control, and the importance of maintaining proteostasis for cellular function.

The thesis explores the disassembly of stress granules and focuses on the role of heat shock proteins, particularly HSPB8, in regulating SG dynamics. Our investigation aimed to understand the impact of HSPB8 knockout on SG regulation and its implications for cellular response to stress. Interestingly, we found that the absence of HSPB8 did not completely abolish SG formation, but prolonged it. Furthermore, HSPB8 knockout did significantly affect SG disassembly. Thus prolonged assembly and disassembly time led to prolonged SG persistence and an extended recovery period after stress exposure. This impaired SG dynamics was associated with increased vulnerability to stress and resulted in lower cell survival rates, indicating the critical role of HSPB8 in cellular stress response. These findings shed light on the complex and intricate regulation of SGs, demonstrating the involvement of multiple chaperones and highlighting the significance of HSPB8 in the process of selective autophagy. The impairment in the CASA complex, of which HSPB8 is a key component, suggests that HSPB8 plays a crucial role in coordinating the timely disassembly of SGs.

The present study also shed light on that this impairment hinders the targeting and recruitment of p62 to misfolded proteins, leading to compromised clearance through the autophagy pathway. The proper functioning of p62 is crucial for maintaining cellular homeostasis and efficient removal of misfolded proteins. The decrease in p62 levels emphasizes its critical role in coordinating protein clearance and underscores its significance in preserving cellular health. Moreover, autophagy-lysosome pathway is a critical mechanism for maintaining the health of neurons, and the fusion step between autophagosomes and lysosomes is essential for this process. HSPB8 is necessary for the proper functioning of this pathway as it is required for the fusion of autophagosomes and lysosomes. The absence of HSPB8 leads to a decrease in the number and area of lysosomes. This investigation adds to the body of knowledge surrounding lysosomal function and its relationship with HSPB8. The diminished number of autophagosomes and autolysosomes downstream of p62 further highlights the extensive impact of HSPB8 deficiency on the autophagy pathway. The dysregulation observed in HSPB8 knockout neurons reveals disruption in protein homeostasis and impaired autophagy functionality (Figure 6.1).

Additionally, the levels of K48 polyubiquitination, a classical marker of protein degradation, did not show significant differences between wild-type and knockout neurons. This aligns with the findings of decreased p62 levels and strengthens the evidence of impaired polyubiquitination in the absence of HSPB8.

Interestingly, the present study contributes to the growing body of knowledge surrounding the role of HSPB8 in the pathogenesis of ALS. The findings suggest that HSPB8 may be involved in the clearance of FUS aggregates (Figure 6.1), but not in the regulation of FUS protein expression. The study also highlights the potential involvement of other factors in the formation of FUS aggregates in ALS pathology, beyond SG formation and FUS-mislocalization. The results provide valuable insight into the mechanisms underlying the development of ALS and may inform future research aimed at developing treatments for this devastating disease.

In conclusion, my thesis presents novel insights into regulatory mechanism of HSPB8 in human motor neurons, culminating in a series of dysregulatory events impacting CASA and various components critical for maintaining the integrity of protein degradation systems, including the autophagy-lysosomal pathway. This perturbation ultimately results in the inability to polyubiquitinate proteins, leading to the aggregation of misfolded proteins and, ultimately, a reduction in cellular viability. These findings hold great importance for the field of neurodegenerative disease treatment, as they provide valuable insights into the molecular mechanisms underlying autophagy. By elucidating the intricate interplay between HSPB8 and the autophagy-lysosomal pathway, our research expands our knowledge of the molecular basis of autophagy and its implications in neurodegeneration. This knowledge opens new avenues for future investigations aimed at identifying potential targets for therapeutic intervention.

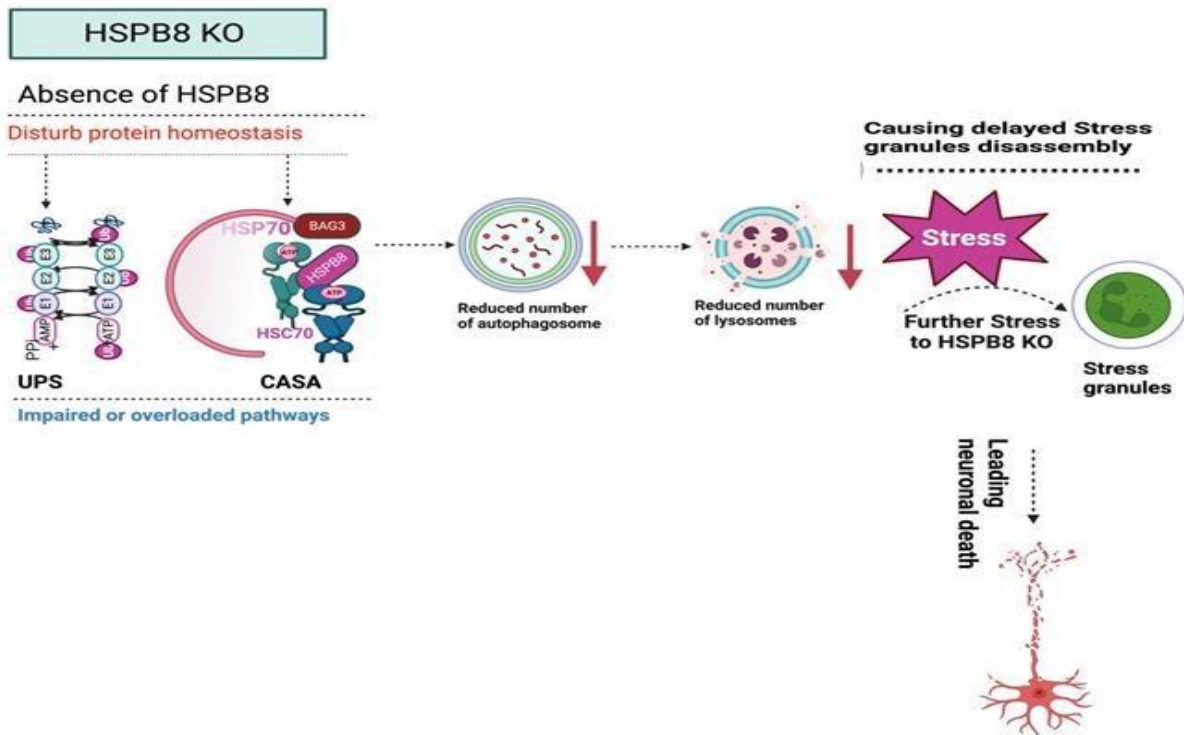


Figure 6.1: Cycle showing misregulation caused by HSPB8-KO:

Absence of HSPB8 leads to disruption of protein homeostasis pathway either UPS and CASA pathways are impaired or they are overloaded. Following these pathways impairment causes the reduction of autophagosomes. Reduction in autophagosomes leads to a decrease in autolysosomes. Additionally, any stress can delay the SGs dissolution, causing further harm and making neuron survival more vulnerable. The figure has been generated by Biorender.

7 LIMITATIONS

Several limitations are associated with this thesis. Firstly, a limitation arises from the non-specific binding issue observed with all HSPB8 antibodies used in immunofluorescence stainings. This limitation hindered our ability to accurately assess the expression of HSPB8 within specific cellular compartments in all investigated cells, and especially in the FUS-ALS neurons. This also disabled us from investigating the potential recruitment of HSPB8 into stress granules specifically in the case of FUS-ALS mutations. Lastly, the Western blot analysis conducted on multiple FUS-ALS derived-neurons revealed high variability in the expression of HSPB8, even in wild-type samples. Whether this is due to low expression per se and fluctuations around the detection level, or whether it means that HSPB8 expression is very sensitive and already varies due to small experimental variations remains elusive.

Another limitation of this study pertains to the kinetics of stress granule disassembly. An argument can be made that the observed overshooting of SG disassembly in knockout neurons, compared to wild-type neurons, after a 2-hour and 4-hour recovery from stress may be attributed to an assembly problem. This limitation arises from the absence of investigation into different time points of SG assembly, such as 30 minutes or 40 minutes of arsenite treatment. It is important to acknowledge the influence of heat stress and the significance of heat shock proteins in regulating cellular responses to heat. However, due to various constraints related to our technical and experimental setups, we were unable to fully explore this aspect. Furthermore, our experiments using HSPB8 antibodies were hindered by technical errors. These limitations restricted our ability to investigate the role of chaperones and stress granules under heat stress conditions as comprehensively as desired. Another limitation revolves around the exploration of polyubiquitination. Specifically, we encountered a challenge related to the expression of K63 antibody in wild-type neurons, which resulted in a lack of sufficient data to comprehensively elucidate the role of polyubiquitination in this specific cell line. As a result, our ability to investigate and provide detailed insights into the involvement of polyubiquitination in the context of our study was constrained.

8 *OUTLOOK*

The present study contributes to the growing understanding of the role of HSPB8 and the specific molecular mechanisms underlying the impairment of CASA and the autophagy-lysosomal pathway in the absence of HSPB8. A subsequent study that blocks autophagosomes or autolysosomes could provide answers regarding autophagy clearance in KO and proteostatic capacity. Understanding the precise interactions and signalling pathways involved will provide valuable insights into potential therapeutic targets for neurodegenerative diseases. Additionally, exploring the potential role of other heat shock proteins and chaperones in SG regulation and autophagy could shed light on the complex network of protein quality control mechanisms. Investigating the interplay between HSPB8 and other key players in the selective autophagy process may uncover new avenues for therapeutic interventions. In terms of therapeutic applications, future studies could explore strategies to enhance or restore the function of the CASA complex and the autophagy-lysosomal pathway. This could involve developing small molecules or gene therapies that modulate the expression or activity of key components involved in these processes.

The thesis highlights the need for further studies to investigate the potential cross-talk between the autophagy-lysosomal pathway and other cellular clearance pathways, such as the proteasome system. It would be of scientific interest to comprehensively elucidate the precise relationship with ubiquitination. The exploration of HSP70 or BAG3 antagonists presents an intriguing avenue for investigating the potential complete cessation of stress granule disassembly and its subsequent impact on cellular viability. Conducting Fluorescence Recovery After Photobleaching (FRAP) experiments would be of scientific interest to assess the liquid-like characteristics of HSPB8 knockout SGs. These all could provide a more comprehensive understanding of protein homeostasis and its dysregulation in neurodegenerative diseases.

Additionally, studying the relationship between HSPB8 and the clearance of FUS aggregates in ALS pathology holds promise for future investigations. Further exploring the involvement of HSPB8 in the regulation of FUS protein aggregation and mislocalization will contribute to our understanding of the molecular basis of ALS. Investigating the potential role of other factors in FUS aggregation and elucidating the complex interactions between SG formation, autophagy dysfunction, and

neurodegeneration will be crucial for developing targeted interventions for ALS and related disorders. Investigating small molecule modulators or gene therapies that can restore or enhance the functionality of HSPB8 and other chaperones may offer potential avenues for the treatment of neurodegenerative diseases.

In conclusion, this thesis has provided valuable insights into the intricate mechanisms underlying chaperone-assisted selective autophagy and its role in maintaining proteostasis. By investigating the impact of HSPB8 deficiency on SG disassembly, autophagy-lysosome pathway, protein ubiquitination, and its potential involvement in ALS pathology, this research expands our understanding of the molecular basis of autophagy and its implications in neurodegeneration. These findings pave the way for future investigations aiming to identify therapeutic targets and develop interventions for the treatment of neurodegenerative diseases characterized by proteostasis dysregulation.

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13 Eidesstattliche Erklärung

I, Kanza Saleem, solemnly declare that I have duly presented the following work titled: "Loss-Of HSPB8 leads to prolonged stress granules disassembly via impaired CASA-complex ultimately causing FUS-aggregation." I affirm that I have solely relied on the resources mentioned and have not employed any additional aids. Whenever I have borrowed wording or conveyed ideas from other sources, I have diligently acknowledged the origin by providing appropriate citations.

Furthermore, I hereby assert that I have meticulously adhered to the fundamental principles of good scientific practice, as outlined in the "Rules for Ensuring Good Scientific Practice and for Avoiding Scientific Misconduct" at the University of Rostock, while preparing my scientific endeavor.

Rostock, 18.09.2023

Kanza Saleem

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'KANZA SALEEM', with a stylized flourish at the end.

14 Wissenschaftlicher Lebenslauf



Kanza Saleem

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● WORK EXPERIENCE

01/06/2019 – CURRENT Rostock, Germany

GRADUATE STUDENT: JUNE 2019-MAY 2023 DZNE AND UNIVERSITY OF ROSTOCK

Project 1: Loss-Of HSPB8 leads to prolonged stress granules disassembly via impaired CASA-complex

- Studied the role of HSPB8 in selective autophagy, autophagosomes and autolysosomes
- Researched and examined the stress in HSPB8-knock-out spinal motor neurons
- Examined the importance of chaperone-assisted selective autophagy in stress granule disassembly

Project 2: Role of HSPB8 to FUS Aggregation beyond Stress Granules and Mislocalization

- Studied the impact of HSPB8 knockout in FUS and stress granules
- Examined how knocking out of HSPB8 can cause FUS-aggregation

01/08/2015 – 01/05/2018 New Delhi, India

PROJECT ASSISTANT: AUGUST 2015-MAY 2018 NATIONAL BRAIN RESEARCH INSTITUTE

Project 1: Role of miR-320a-VDAC1 axis in HIV-1 neuropathogenesis

- Established a well-characterized model system of human primary astrocytes and neurons, furthermore probed into the molecular mechanism for enhanced ATP release in HIV-1 Tat affected astrocytes
- Evaluated that VDAC1 siRNA or miR-320a mimic rescued the neurons from astroglia-mediated neurotoxicity in HIV-1 neuropathogenesis

Project 2: Role of EphrinA3 in HIV-1 Neuropathogenesis

- Establish that EphrinA3 is expressed on astrocytes and ephA4 is expressed on neurons through Immunofluorescence
- Measured extracellular glutamate levels post ephrinA3 and Tat B transfections

01/12/2014 – 01/04/2015 New Delhi, India

DISSERTATION : DECEMBER 2014-APRIL 2015 JAMIA HAMDARD UNIVERSITY

Project: Isolation, purification and characterization of Ovalbumin from hen egg and to develop and isolate antibodies against it

- Isolation of ovalbumin (Protein) from hen's egg white followed by purification of ovalbumin by gel permeation chromatography
- Checking the protein on the gel by Native PAGE and SDS PAGE
- Immunization of rats with ovalbumin as a potential antigen later Isolation and quantification of IgG from rat antiserum

01/06/2013 – 30/07/2013 Noida, India

INTERN : JUNE 2013-JULY 2013 ALELLE LIFE SCIENCES

- Training in General Techniques of Biotechnology
- Isolation of DNA, RNA and Protein from *Plumbago* plant
- Running PCR, qPCR and western blot

● EDUCATION AND TRAINING

30/07/2013 – 30/06/2015 New Delhi, India

MASTERS IN BIOCHEMISTRY Jamia Hamdard University

Address 782+55X, Mehrauli - Badarpur Rd, near Batra Hospital, Block D, Hamdard Nagar, 110062, New Delhi, India |

Website <http://jamiahamdard.edu/>

01/07/2010 – 01/05/2013 Bareilly, India

BACHELOR IN BIOTECHNOLOGY Khandelwal College of Management Science and Technology

Address 14th K.M, Pilibhit Rd, 243124, Bareilly, India | **Website** <https://www.kcmt.in/>

Role of EphrinA3 in HIV-1 Neuropathogenesis – 2021

Singhal CMS, Jaiswal P, Mehta A, **Saleem K**, Seth P. (2021)

Novel insights into role of miR-320a-VDAC1 axis in astrocyte-mediated neuronal damage in neuroAIDS

– 2017

Fatima M, **Saleem K**, Prajapati B, Kumari R, Singal CMS, Seth P. (2017)

HONOURS AND AWARDS

01/08/2013

Gold medal – MJP Rohilkhand University, Bareilly, India Awarded Gold Medal from MJP Rohilkhand University, Bareilly, India (B.Sc Biotechnology, 2013) for securing 1st rank at the University level.

01/08/2013

Gold Medal – Khandelwal College of Science Technology, Bareilly, India Awarded Gold Medal from Khandelwal College of Science Technology, Bareilly, India (B.Sc. Biotechnology, 2013) for securing 1st rank at the College level.

Dr. Khandelwal Merit Scholarship – Khandelwal College of Science Technology, Bareilly, India

Awarded Dr Khandelwal Merit Scholarship, for securing 1st rank at the College level, B.Sc. Biotechnology, 2013.

2014

Hakeem Abdul Majeed Merit Scholarship, – Jamia Hamdard University Awarded Hakeem Abdul Majeed Merit Scholarship, M.Sc Biochemistry, 2014

TECHNICAL SKILLS

Molecular

Cell Culture- Handling and maintenance of spinal motor neurons, handling and maintenance of human primary neural stem cell culture, handling and maintaining iPSCs, handling and maintaining co-cultures of astrocytes and neurons, maintenance of neural progenitor cells, neurons and astrocytes, handling of cancerous cell lines SH- SY5Y and SVG

Cell Viability assays- MTT, TUNEL, Pesto Blue, In Situ Hybridization, siRNA/shRNA-mediated knockdown, overexpression using plasmid constructs

Filter Trap Assay

PCR- PCR, Gradient PCR, Reverse Transcriptase PCR, Real-time PCR, Touchdown PCR, Touchup PCR

Gene manipulation- siRNA

Isolation & Quantification- RNA isolation from mammalian cells/tissues and quantification, Isolation of human miRNA and profiling, Isolation of DNA, protein, RNA and gel purification, molecular cloning
Immunostaining and fluorescent microscopy

Bacterial Cell Culture- handling and maintenance of bacterial cell culture cloning

Chromatography- Gel filtration chromatography, Ouchterlony double diffusion and Radial immunodiffusion

mice handling for retro-orbital blood collection

Gel electrophoresis- Agarose gel electrophoresis, NATIVE-PAGE, SDS-PAGE and western blotting

Microscopy- Live cell microscopy, Bright-field and Fluorescence

Southern blotting, FACS (Fluorescence-activated cell sorting), Glutamate Assay, Immunohistochemistry(IHC), Immunocytochemistry(ICC)

Bioinformatics

Genetics and Next-Generation Sequencing for Bioinformatics- Licence from Udemy, August, 2023

Statistical Analysis- Pearson's correlation, Chi-squared test, Analysis of

Variance, Mann-Whitney U and Wilcoxon test

Plots- Heatmap, Correlogram, box plot and other plots generation through R Databases knowledge-

ENCODE, ENSEMBLE, Bio-GPS, GTex, Genecard, Brain Atlas, CORTECON, PFam, SupFam, ExPASy, KEGG,

STRING, IPA, UCSC browser

Familiar Languages- R

Primer designing- in-silico PCR, BLAST, ClustalW, primer3

BE LIKE STEM CELLS, DIFFERENTIATE YOURSELF FROM OTHERS