A viral protein utilizes the NDP52/CALCOCO2 selective autophagy receptor to disassemble processing bodies

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<u>Abstract</u>

Selective autophagy receptors contribute to host defence by targeting intracellular microbes for

degradation and fine-tuning inflammatory processes by directing the degradation of

macromolecular immune signaling platforms. Processing bodies (PBs) are cytoplasmic

ribonucleoprotein granules that control inflammation by silencing and/or degrading labile

messenger RNAs (mRNAs) that encode inflammatory mediator proteins. PBs often disassemble

in response to virus infection, which correlates with increased synthesis of inflammatory

mediator proteins; however, PB disassembly mechanisms remain largely obscure. Here, we

demonstrate that the Kaposi's sarcoma-associated herpesvirus (KSHV) KapB protein increases

the synthesis of inflammatory mediators by driving autophagy and triggering PB disassembly.

This could be prevented by silencing of *Atg5* or the selective autophagy receptor

NDP52/CALCOCO2, whereas silencing other selective autophagy receptors *p62* and *OPTN* had

no effect on PB turnover or inflammatory mediator synthesis. These studies reveal a new role for

NDP52 in regulating PB turnover in response to viral infection.

Keywords: processing bodies/Kaposi's sarcoma-associated herpesvirus/NDP52/selective

autophagy/cytokine mRNA

Introduction

Macroautophagy, hereafter referred to as autophagy, is a process during which bulk cytoplasmic material is targeted for lysosomal degradation (Morishita & Mizushima, 2019; Levine *et al*, 2008). This process begins with the formation of a phagophore that elongates and encloses a portion of the cytoplasm to form a double-membrane specialized organelle, the autophagosome (Klionsky *et al*, 2012; Lamb *et al*, 2013). Essential for autophagosome expansion is the C-terminal lipidation of the microtubule associated protein 1 light chain 3 (LC3) protein, known as LC3-II, that allows it to invade the inner and outer autophagosome membranes (Klionsky *et al*, 2012). The outer membrane of the autophagosome then fuses with a lysosome to form an autolysosome, leading to degradation of the enclosed cargo along with the autophagosomal membrane and autophagy regulatory proteins including LC3-II.

Autophagy is a dynamic process, under basal conditions, autophagic activity ensures the continuous recycling of cellular resources and the clearance of damaged macromolecular complexes and organelles, maintaining cellular homeostasis and acting as an intracellular quality control system (Green *et al*, 2011). Various changes to the cellular microenvironment, including nutrient scarcity, hypoxia, and endoplasmic reticulum (ER) stress can drive autophagy and cause degradation of damaged organelles (e.g mitochondria, peroxisomes), protein complexes (e.g. focal adhesion complexes) or other targets in a more selective manner (Maiuri & Kroemer, 2015; Mizushima *et al*, 2010; Balgi *et al*, 2009; Kenific *et al*, 2016; Sargsyan *et al*, 2015; Tripathi *et al*, 2016; Dunn *et al*, 2005; Yao & Klionsky, 2016). In such cases, before the cargo is engulfed by the autophagosome it is selected for degradation by direct binding to LC3 or indirect targeting to LC3 via molecular bridges termed selective autophagy receptors (SARs). Some of the best characterized SARs include p62/SQSTM1, valosin containing protein (VCP), optineurin (OPTN), neighbor of BRCA1 gene 1 (NBR1) and nuclear dot protein 52 (NDP52/calcium binding and coiled-coil domain protein, CALCOCO2) (Zaffagnini & Martens, 2016). OPTN, p62, NDP52, and NBR1 are members of the sequestosome-like family and contain several conserved motifs including a LC3-interacting region (LIR), a domain that permits receptor multimerization and a ubiquitin-binding domain (UBD) (Ichimura *et al*, 2008; Noda *et al*, 2010; Birgisdottir *et al*, 2013; Noda *et al*, 2008). The selection of cargo for degradation can occur in a ubiquitin-dependent or -independent manner, although ubiquitin modification is believed to more efficiently recruit cargo to autophagosomes (Rogov *et al*, 2014). SARs play important

homeostatic roles maintaining, and at times magnifying, the turnover of mitochondria

(mitophagy), peroxisomes (pexophagy) or protein complexes and this regulation facilitates cell

survival in response to environmental changes (Maiuri & Kroemer, 2015; Mizushima *et al*, 2010;

Balgi *et al*, 2009; Kenific *et al*, 2016; Sargsyan *et al*, 2015; Tripathi *et al*, 2016; Dunn *et al*,

2005; Yao & Klionsky, 2016).

Autophagy can also select, sequester and degrade invading pathogens such as viruses in a

process called xenophagy and many viruses disarm this process (Orvedahl & Levine, 2008).

Moreover, emerging evidence shows that selective autophagy receptors play important roles in

fine-tuning innate immune responses by targeting key signaling platforms for degradation (Chen

et al, 2016; Du *et al*, 2018; Jin *et al*, 2017; Prabakaran *et al*, 2018; Yang *et al*, 2017; He *et al*,

2019). For example, NDP52 is required for the autophagic degradation of interferon regulatory

factor 3 (IRF3) and mitochondrial antiviral signaling protein (MAVS), which supports the

resolution phase of type I interferon signaling (Wu *et al*, 2020) (Seth *et al*, 2005; Jin *et al*,

2017). Both pro and antiviral roles have been attributed to selective autophagy receptors

(Sumpter & Levine, 2011; Ahmad *et al*, 2018) and viruses can both enhance or limit SAR

function accordingly, promoting their replication (Mohamud *et al*, 2019). However, much

remains to be discovered about the interplay between selective autophagy, control of innate

immune responses, and virus infection (Sumpter & Levine, 2011; Levine *et al*, 2011).

Kaposi's sarcoma-associated herpesvirus (KSHV) is the infectious cause of the

endothelial cell cancer, Kaposi's sarcoma (KS) and two B-cell malignancies (Cesarman *et al*,

1995; Chang *et al*, 1994; Soulier *et al*, 1995). KS lesions are typified by aberrant angiogenesis,

tortuous leaky blood vessels, and inflammation; KS tumours are rich in inflammatory cytokines

such as tumour necrosis factor (TNF), interleukins -1alpha, -1beta and -6 (IL-1α, IL-1β, IL-6), C-

X-C Motif Chemokine Ligand 8 (CXCL8), interferon-gamma 2 (INF-*γ*), vascular endothelial

growth factor (VEGF), cyclooxygenase-2 (COX-2) and granulocyte-macrophage colony-

stimulating factor (GM-CSF) (Ensoli *et al*, 2010; Ensoli & Stürzl, 1998; Lane *et al*, 2002; Miles

et al, 1990; Riva *et al*, 2010; Sadagopan *et al*, 2007; Salahuddin *et al*, 1988). Infection with

KSHV has two forms, a latent and a lytic phase; it is the latent phase that predominates in KS

tumours (Decker *et al*, 1996; Staskus *et al*, 1997; Broussard & Damania, 2020). Like many

viruses, KSHV manipulates the autophagic machinery, and it does so during both lytic and latent

phases. The viral-Bcl-2 (v-Bcl-2) protein binds the autophagy initiator Beclin-1 to interfere with

activation of autophagy during the lytic phase, presumably to limit xenophagic destruction of

newly assembled virions (Pattingre *et al*, 2005; Wei *et al*, 2008; Liang *et al*, 2008). The viral

FLICE inhibitory protein (v-FLIP), expressed during latency, binds Atg3 to suppress the LC3

lipidation process during autophagosome biogenesis (Lee *et al*, 2009). By contrast, KSHV also

expresses a viral cyclin D homolog (v-cyclin), from the same multicistronic latent transcript as v-

FLIP; v-cyclin deregulates the cell cycle, causes aberrant host DNA replication, and triggers

DNA damage that that leads to autophagy and cellular senescence (Leidal *et al*, 2012). The

engagement of autophagy during the transition to cellular senescence is also observed in other

systems and is required for the production and non-conventional secretion of pro-inflammatory

cytokines such as IL-1β, IL-6 and IL-8 (Young *et al*, 2009), a phenomenon now termed the

senescence-associated secretory phenotype (SASP). Clearly, KSHV manipulation of autophagic

flux to both prevent xenophagy, fine tune interferon responses, and enhance inflammatory

cytokine production during KS is a complicated and highly regulated process about which much

remains unknown.

Processing bodies (PBs) are ubiquitous, cytoplasmic, ribonucleoprotein (RNP) granules

that regulate expression of many cytokine RNA transcripts, making them important sites of

inflammatory control. PBs contain enzymes involved in mRNA turnover including those that

mediate decapping (Dcp2 and co-factors Dcp1a and Edc4/Hedls), 5'-3' exonucleolytic

degradation (5'-3' exonuclease Xrn1 and RNA helicase Rck/DDX6) and some components of

the RNA-induced silencing complex (Cougot *et al*, 2012; Hubstenberger *et al*, 2017; Corbet &

Parker, 2019; Youn *et al*, 2018; Riggs *et al*, 2020; Mohamud *et al*, 2019; Luo *et al*, 2018).

Approximately one-third of all protein-coding mRNAs are shuttled to PBs for decay and/or

repression (Hubstenberger *et al*, 2017). mRNAs are routed to PBs by RNA-binding proteins

(RBPs) through recognition of common sequence elements. AU-rich elements (AREs) are one

type of RNA regulatory element; they are found in the 3' untranslated regions of ~8% of cellular

transcripts and are well-known destabilizing elements that are responsible for targeting RNAs to

PBs (Barreau *et al*, 2005; Bakheet *et al*, 2018; García-Mauriño *et al*, 2017). When bound by

destabilizing RBPs such as tristetraprolin (TTP) or butyrate response factor-1 (BRF1), ARE-

containing RNAs are directed to PBs and suppressed (Maitra *et al*, 2008; Lai *et al*, 1999; Lai &

Blackshear, 2001). By contrast, the stabilizing RBP, HuR, shuttles from the nucleus to the

cytoplasm where it promotes ARE-mRNA translation (Tran *et al*, 2003; Peng *et al*, 1998). We

and others showed that the presence of microscopically visible PBs correlates with the constitutive turnover or translational suppression of ARE-mRNAs; when PBs are lost, this suppression is reversed (Corcoran *et al*, 2012, 2015; Franks & Lykke-Andersen, 2007; Blanco *et al*, 2014; Vindry *et al*, 2017). Because ARE-mRNAs code for potent regulatory molecules such as inflammatory cytokines, PBs regulate the production of inflammatory cytokines whose transcripts contain AREs, including IL-6, IL-8, IL-1β, and TNF, and many of these inflammatory molecules are elevated in KS (Ensoli *et al*, 2010; Ensoli & Stürzl, 1998; Lane *et al*, 2002; Miles *et al*, 1990; Riva *et al*, 2010; Sadagopan *et al*, 2007; Salahuddin *et al*, 1988; Bakheet *et al*, 2018).

Although PBs are constitutive, they are continuously assembled and disassembled and relatively little is known about how they are regulated (Aizer *et al*, 2014). Stimuli that activate the p38/MK2 MAP kinase pathway as well as many virus infections elicit PB disassembly and a concomitant reduction in ARE-mRNA suppression to promote inflammatory molecule production (Corcoran *et al*, 2012, 2015; Vindry *et al*, 2017; Corcoran & McCormick, 2015; Standart & Weil, 2018; Docena *et al*, 2010). We have previously shown that KSHV causes PB disassembly during latent infection, and that the viral protein Kaposin B (KapB) induces PB disassembly and enhances the production of an ARE-containing reporter (Corcoran *et al*, 2015; Corcoran & McCormick, 2015; Corcoran *et al*, 2011). These data support the notion that PB disassembly is an important contributor to inflammation associated with KS (Corcoran *et al*, 2015; Wen & Damania, 2010). Although we know KapB binds and activates the kinase MK2, and that MK2 is an important component of the mechanism of KapB-mediated PB disassembly and ARE-mRNA stabilization, we do not precisely understand how PB loss is elicited by KapB (McCormick & Ganem, 2005; Corcoran *et al*, 2015). The observation that MK2 can phosphorylate Beclin-1 to increase autophagic flux in response to nutrient scarcity (Wei *et al*, 2015) suggested to us that KapB may also drive autophagic flux. We now show that the KSHV KapB protein enhances autophagic flux, revealing an additional layer of complexity in viral regulation of autophagy during KSHV latency. We also show that KapB requires canonical autophagy machinery to induce PB disassembly and ARE-mRNA stabilization and that KapB selects PB components for autophagic turnover using the selective autophagy receptor, NDP52, as KapB-mediated PB disassembly and ARE-mRNA reporter expression does not occur when NDP52 is silenced. We had previously observed that a constitutively active form of MK2 elicits PB disassembly and ARE-mRNA stabilization (Corcoran *et al*, 2015); however, we show herein

that this mechanism does not rely on canonical or selective autophagy machinery. Our data

reveal that cells possess both autophagy-dependent and -independent mechanisms to regulate PB

turnover and inflammatory molecule production. These data also forge a new connection

between the selective autophagy receptor, NDP52, and cytoplasmic PBs, both of which control

innate immune responses and inflammation.

Results

KapB induces autophagic flux

KapB expression activates the stress-responsive kinase MAPKAPK2 (MK2) (McCormick &

Ganem, 2005; Corcoran *et al*, 2015). Since MK2 has been shown to phosphorylate the essential

autophagy inducer Beclin 1 in response to amino acid starvation (Wei *et al*, 2015; Shen *et al*,

2016; Gurkar *et al*, 2013), we wondered if KapB expression promotes autophagic flux. To

measure autophagic flux, we performed an LC3 conversion assay (Mizushima *et al*, 2010).

Quantification of LC3-II is an indicator of increased autophagosome formation. Because LC3-II

itself is a substrate for autophagic degradation, an increase in autophagic flux will not be

revealed in conditions without the use of a lysosomal inhibitor treatment, such as Bafilomycin

A1 (BafA1) (Mauvezin & Neufeld, 2015). To this end, human umbilical vein endothelial cells

(HUVECs) were transduced with lentiviral vectors that express KapB or an empty vector control

and treated for increasing times with BafA1; LC3-II accumulation in the presence of BafA1

treatment over time was determined by immunoblotting. Over the 4 h BafA1 treatment time

course, KapB-expressing cells showed a significant increase in LC3-II compared to vector

controls (Fig 1A). We also measured endogenous LC3 puncta using immunofluorescence as an

indicator of autophagic flux (Kabeya, 2000; Mizushima *et al*, 2010). Untreated KapB-expressing

HUVECs displayed LC3 puncta similar to that of control cells. However, LC3 puncta

significantly increased after BafA1 treatment was used to block lysosomal turnover and LC3

degradation, further suggesting that KapB expression enhanced autophagic flux (Fig 1B). When

KapB-expressing HUVECs were analyzed by electron microscopy, double-membraned vesicles

reminiscent of autophagosomes were observed in KapB cells but could not be found in vector

control cells (Fig 1C). Taken together, these data show that KapB induces autophagic flux in

HUVECs.

Canonical autophagy is required for KapB-mediated PB disassembly and ARE-mRNA

stability

Our group previously described that MK2 activation was an important component of KapB-

mediated PB loss (Corcoran *et al*, 2015). However, these experiments did not reveal the precise

mechanism of PB loss nor did they clarify if KapB was causing PB disassembly or blocking PB

assembly (Corcoran *et al*, 2015). Since PBs are dynamic RNP granules, we decided to determine

whether KapB-mediated PB loss was a result of enhanced disassembly of PBs or prevention of

their *de novo* assembly. To do so, we utilized HeLa cells that express a Dox-inducible GFP-

tagged version of the PB-resident protein, Dcp1a (Youn *et al*, 2018). When fixed, GFP-positive

puncta co-stain with endogenous PB proteins such as the RNA helicase DDX6/Rck and the

decapping co-factor Hedls/Edc4, indicating that they represent PBs (Fig S1). KapB was

transfected into these cells either before or after inducing GFP-Dcp1a granule formation. When

KapB was expressed prior to granule induction, Dcp1a puncta formation was intact, although

their appearance was slightly delayed compared to vector control cells (Fig S1A). However,

when KapB was expressed after granule induction, GFP-positive puncta were lost (Fig S1B).

PBs could also be induced by treating cells with sodium arsenite (Fig S1C). Taken together,

these results showed that KapB causes PB loss by inducing PB disassembly but that KapB

expression does not block PB assembly. These data suggested that KapB may be activating a

normal cellular pathway that is important for PB turnover, such as autophagy.

To determine whether autophagy was required for KapB-mediated PB disassembly, autophagic

flux was inhibited by silencing the canonical autophagy regulator, Atg5. When Atg5 was

silenced in KapB-expressing HUVECs, PBs were restored (Fig 2A and B). We then examined

PB disassembly in Atg5 -/- MEFs, which are defective for autophagy as indicated by the lack of

LC3-II (Fig S2A). KapB failed to disassemble PBs in Atg5 -/- MEFs but did disassemble PBs in

matched wild-type controls (Fig 2D and E). Moreover, KapB expression resulted in a significant

increase in Atg5 protein levels, consistent with other data that showed KapB is promoting

autophagy (Fig 1, 2C). Blocking autophagic degradation with BafA1 also restored PBs in KapB-

expressing cells (Fig 3A, B). These data suggest that KapB is accelerating PB turnover by

engaging autophagy. We reasoned that if KapB required autophagy for PB turnover, KapB

expression should decrease steady-state levels of key PB proteins that have important scaffolding

roles for granule formation, such as EDC4/Hedls, Xrn1, DDX6/Rck or Dcp1a (Ayache *et al*,

2015). Immunoblotting for these proteins revealed that steady-state levels of the PB-resident

protein Dcp1a were reduced in KapB-expressing cells, which was partially restored upon

incubation with BafA1 treatment (Fig 3C). However, steady-state levels of other PB-resident

proteins were not markedly altered by KapB expression (Fig 3). These data suggest that KapB

expression promotes the autophagic degradation of the PB-resident protein Dcp1a, but not all PB

proteins. Consistent with these observations, inducing autophagic flux with the mTORC1/2

inhibitor Torin (Thoreen *et al*, 2009) decreased the steady-state level of Dcp1a but not other PB

proteins, blocking autophagic flux with BafA1 or choroquine increased Dcp1a but blocking

proteasomal degradation with MG132 did not influence Dcp1a levels (Fig S3).

PBs are nodes of mRNA regulation and microscopically visible PBs are associated with

ARE-mRNA degradation (Guo *et al*, 2018; Luo *et al*, 2018; Corcoran *et al*, 2015, 2012; Franks

& Lykke-Andersen, 2008; Vindry *et al*, 2017; Blanco *et al*, 2014) After LPS addition to

stimulate the transcription of inflammatory RNAs (Nilsen *et al*, 1998), we confirmed enhanced

steady state levels for some endogenous ARE-containing RNA transcripts, like IL-6, in KapB-

expressing cells (Fig 4A). Because baseline levels of endogenous ARE-mRNAs are normally

below a level of accurate detection by RT-qPCR analysis, their analysis requires endothelial cell

activation to induce transcription (Nilsen *et al*, 1998), confounding our analysis by the

introduction of another variable. For this reason, we utilized a luciferase reporter assay that we

previously developed, described in (Corcoran *et al*, 2011) to simplify further studies. Briefly,

HeLa cells were co-transfected with a Firefly luciferase (FLuc) construct containing the AU-rich

element from CSF2 in its 3'UTR and a Renilla luciferase (RLuc) construct with no ARE;

transcription of both reporter constructs was then stopped by the addition of doxycycline. In

control (vector transfected) cells, the FLuc-ARE mRNA decayed rapidly and FLuc luminescence

relative to the RLuc transfection control was low. KapB expression caused a significant increase

in FLuc/RLuc relative luminescence compared to control cells (Fig 4B) as previously shown in

(Corcoran *et al*, 2015). This is consistent with our previous work indicating that KapB-mediated

PB loss correlated with enhanced luminescence of the ARE-containing luciferase reporter

expression because rapid mRNA turnover was reversed and FLuc translation was enhanced

(Corcoran *et al*, 2011, 2015). When canonical autophagy was perturbed in KapB-expressing cells

by Atg5 silencing, KapB-expressing cells no longer displayed high relative luminescence

compared to controls (Fig 4A). Likewise, when KapB-expressing cells were treated with BafA1,

relative luminescence was significantly decreased compared to KapB-expressing untreated

control cells (Fig 4C). Together, these data showed that canonical autophagy is required for

KapB-mediated PB disassembly and the enhanced expression of an ARE-mRNA reporter.

Canonical autophagy is not required for MK2-mediated PB disassembly

Because we know that KapB can directly bind and activate MK2 (McCormick & Ganem, 2005)

and that MK2 is, in part, required for KapB-mediated effects on PBs and ARE-mRNA (Corcoran

et al, 2015), we reasoned that a constitutively active version of MK2 would also induce PB

disassembly in an autophagy-dependent manner. To test this, we used a construct called MK2EE

in which two threonine residues that are normally phosphorylated by p38 MAPK in response to

stress signaling are substituted with glutamic acid residues, rendering the kinase constitutively

active (Kayyali *et al*, 2002; Rousseau *et al*, 1997). We previously demonstrated that MK2EE

causes PB disassembly (Corcoran *et al*, 2015) and others have shown that it can also increase

autophagic flux (Wei *et al*, 2015). We confirmed that autophagy was upregulated in MK2EE-

expressing HUVECs by staining for endogenous LC3 puncta. We observed that BafA1 treatment

resulted in a significant increase in LC3-puncta compared to vector controls, consistent with

enhanced autophagic flux (Fig 5A). We then tested if MK2EE-induced PB disassembly was

reliant on autophagic flux. MK2EE-expressing HUVECs retained the ability to disassemble PBs

after Atg5 silencing (Fig 5B). MK2EE expression was previously shown to increase the

FLuc/RLuc relative luminescence in our reporter assay (Corcoran *et al*, 2015) and we reproduced

these data herein (Fig 5C). However, Atg5 silencing did not significantly decrease MK2EE-

mediated relative luminescence (Fig 5C). These data suggest that although MK2EE induces

autophagy and PB disassembly, these are unrelated phenotypes and the manner by which

MK2EE induces PB loss does not require canonical autophagy pathways involving Atg5.

KapB-mediated PB disassembly and ARE-mRNA stabilization require the selective

autophagy receptor NDP52

We wondered if KapB was inducing PB disassembly by promoting the selective autophagy of

the entire PB RNP granule or select PB proteins. Very little is known about how PB dynamics

are regulated; however, one previous study observed the SAR, NDP52, partially co-localizes

with some PB proteins (Guo *et al*, 2014). For this reason, we investigated whether the SARs

NDP52, p62, VCP, NBR1 and OPTN were required for KapB-mediated PB disassembly by

designing shRNAs to knockdown each of these SARs. Despite trying several different shRNA

sequences, our attempts to silence NBR1 were unsuccessful, and shRNAs targeting VCP resulted

in significant HUVEC toxicity. Therefore, the role of these molecules in PB turnover could not

be determined. Genetic knockdown of NDP52, p62 or OPTN was validated in control and KapB-

expressing cells (Fig S2C). In these experiments, silencing of p62 or OPTN did not restore PBs

in KapB-expressing cells whereas NDP52 knockdown significantly restored PBs. (Fig 6A and B,

Fig S3A). These data pinpointed an important role for NDP52 in the selectivity of KapB-

mediated PB disassembly. We also examined whether these SARs were required for KapB-

enhanced relative luminescence in our ARE-mRNA reporter assay. Similarly, we found that p62

or OPTN knockdown had no effect on KapB-mediated FLuc/RLuc luminescence, but NDP52

silencing decreased FLuc/RLuc luminescence compared to non-targeting, KapB-expressing

controls (Fig 6C). Therefore, KapB stimulated PB disassembly and concomitant luminescence of

our ARE-containing reporter uses a mechanism dependent on the SAR, NDP52.

Given that MK2 induces autophagy, but MK2EE-mediated PB disassembly did not require

canonical autophagy machinery, we speculated that MK2EE-mediated PB disassembly could be

facilitated by NDP52. However, p62, NDP52 and OPTN silencing did not inhibit PB

disassembly in MK2EE-expressing cells (Fig S3B, Fig 7A and B). Likewise, silencing of p62,

OPTN, or NDP52 did not decrease FLuc/RLuc luminescence in MK2EE-expressing cells as it

did in KapB-expressing cells. In fact, NDP52 knockdown increased ARE-mRNA stability (Fig

7C), although the significance of this observation is unclear. These data confirm that MK2-

mediated PB disassembly and enhanced ARE-containing luciferase reporter expression do not

require canonical autophagy or selective autophagy machinery.

Previous work has shown that activation of MK2 activation can contribute to a senescence-

associated secretory phenotype (SASP) that develops in senescent cells over time and is

associated with a pro-inflammatory and pro-tumorigenic environment (Herranz *et al*, 2015). One

feature of this activation is the phosphorylation of the ARE-mRNA binding protein, BRF1, by

MK2 (Maitra *et al*, 2008). We observed that MK2EE expression induced the phosphorylation of

BRF1 while KapB did not (Fig S5). These data suggest that MK2EE induced phosphorylation of

BRF1 may be sufficient to prevent ARE-mRNAs from turnover. This distinction could provide a

partial explanation for how MK2EE may increase ARE-mRNA reporter activity in an Atg5- and

NDP52-independent manner. These data are consistent with a model wherein KapB and MK2 do

not use identical mechanisms to mediate PB disassembly and ARE-mRNA stabilization, and that

KapB-mediated PB disassembly requires canonical and selective autophagy machinery that is

not required for MK2EE-mediated PB loss.

KapB-mediated PB disassembly is rescued by NDP52 but not ubiquitin-binding domain or

LIR mutants

NDP52 has many functions in selective autophagy and autophagosome maturation and is a

crucial adaptor for mitophagy and xenophagy (Ellinghaus *et al*, 2013; Fu *et al*, 2018; Lazarou *et*

al, 2015; Morriswood *et al*, 2007; Verlhac *et al*, 2015). Structural domains that are important for

the function of NDP52 as a SAR include a non-canonical LC3-C interacting region (cLIR) that

binds to LC3-decorated autophagosomes and a ubiquitin binding domain (UBD) that binds

ubiquitinated cargo proteins, linking them to the autophagosome for engulfment (Figure 8A)

To clearly elucidate if NDP52 was required for KapB-mediated PB disassembly because

of its ability to promote selective autophagy, we performed a complementation experiment. We

first silenced endogenous NDP52 in control or KapB-expressing HUVECs using shRNAs

targeting the 3'UTR of NDP52 and verified its knockdown (Fig S2F). Next, NDP52 expression

was restored by overexpressing a fluorescently tagged NDP52 construct. Complementation of

NDP52-silenced HUVECs with wild-type NDP52 restored KapB-mediated PB disassembly

compared to vector controls (Fig 8B and C, S4). We next sought to determine whether the PB

disassembly initiated in KapB-expressing cells was reliant on two domains of NDP52 that are

important for its role as a SAR: the LIR and UBD. We restored NDP52 expression in NDP52-

silenced HUVECs by complementation with a fluorescently tagged UBD mutant (C443K) or a

cLIR and UBD combined mutant (V136S and C443K) (Padman *et al*, 2019; Ellinghaus *et al*,

2013; Till *et al*, 2013) (Fig 8A). Complementation with either of the mutated forms of NDP52

failed to restore KapB-mediated PB disassembly in NDP52-silenced HUVECs. These data

indicated that both the UBD and cLIR domains of NDP52 are required for KapB-mediated PB

disassembly (Fig 8B and C). These data provide strong evidence to support that the function of

NDP52 in selective autophagy is required for its role in KapB-mediated PB disassembly.

Discussion

In this manuscript we present new data that reveals the KSHV protein, KapB, relies on canonical autophagy machinery and the selective autophagy receptor, NDP52, in order to cause PB disassembly and enhance ARE-containing inflammatory molecule expression. To our knowledge, this is the first report that NDP52 regulates the turnover of endogenous PBs and the first description of the contribution of NDP52 to immune regulation by altering inflammatory cytokine RNA turnover/suppression in PBs. Our major findings are as follows: i) KapB increased autophagic flux, thereby contributing to the complex regulation of autophagic processes during KSHV latent infection and tumourigenesis, ii) KapB-mediated PB disassembly and enhanced translation of an ARE-containing reporter required canonical autophagy machinery and the selective autophagy receptor, NDP52, iii) KapB-mediated PB disassembly proceeds by a mechanism that is autophagy-dependent and differs from that induced by the constitutively active kinase, MK2 (MK2EE), which induces PB disassembly independent of canonical (Atg5) and selective autophagy (NDP52) machinery. Taken together these results reveal that cellular PB turnover is mediated by autophagy-dependent and -independent mechanisms and that a viral protein co-opts NDP52 selective autophagy to amplify PB turnover. In so doing, KapB enhances the translation of ARE-containing RNAs, transcripts that encode potent inflammatory molecules that would normally be subject to constitutive decay or suppression in PBs. This mechanism is another example of the ingenuity with which viruses co-opt cellular processes and reveals a novel regulatory network that links the NDP52 to inflammatory molecule production via PB catabolism.

MK2 activation promotes autophagy by phosphorylating Beclin 1 (Wei *et al*, 2015); therefore, we hypothesized that the MK2-activating viral protein KapB (McCormick & Ganem, 2005) utilized autophagy to promote PB clearance. However, our data showed that although both KapB and MK2EE increased autophagic flux (Fig 1, Fig 5), only KapB-mediated PB disassembly required Atg5 and the selective autophagy functions of the SAR, NDP52 (Fig 6, Fig 7). MK2EE does not use an autophagy-dependent mechanism, as KapB does, for PB disassembly, and our studies have not yet revealed a connection between PB loss and degradative machinery in these cells. These data imply that cells utilize more than one pathway to disassemble PBs, consistent with the dual mechanism responsible for turnover of other RNP

granules like stress granules (Buchan *et al*, 2013; Turakhiya *et al*, 2018). Our data is also
supported by previous work showing that in yeast, PB recycling requires canonical autophagy
machinery and in mammalian cells NDP52 colocalizes with a GFP-tagged version of Dcp1a
when overexpressed (Buchan *et al*, 2013; Guo *et al*, 2014). We add significantly to these studies,
by performing our work in primary human endothelial cells and by staining for endogenous PBs
using immunofluorescence for the decapping co-factor EDC4/Hedls. We reveal that when KapB
is expressed, endogenous PBs are lost via Atg5- and NDP52-dependent autophagic flux. We also
complemented NDP52-silenced cells with shRNA-resistant NDP52 and observed the restoration
of KapB-mediated PB disassembly when complementation was performed with wild-type
constructs but not those lacking the LIR or UBD regions (Fig 8). These data indicate that it is the
ability of NDP52 to act as a SAR that is required for KapB-mediated PB turnover, and that this
mechanism may involve NDP52 binding to a ubiquitinated PB protein(s). This coincides with
observations that ubiquitination promoted cargo binding and identification by SARs, including
NDP52 (Shaid *et al*, 2013) while the removal of the UBD rendered NDP52 unable to localize to
and bind cargo, such as *Salmonella typhimurium* (Cemma *et al*, 2011; Xie *et al*, 2015).
Immunoelectron microscopy showed that PBs range in size from 150 to 350 nm and
possess an external area of peripheral protrusions that contain the helicase Rck/DDX6 (Cougot *et*
al, 2012). These protrusions are anchored to a dense central core of decay enzymes, including
Dcp1a and Xrn1. Disruption of the PB outer ring by silencing DDX6 revealed that the peripheral
structure and/or DDX6 itself is required for PB stability (Cougot *et al*, 2012). Other PB-localized
enzymes are also required for PB stability, including Dcp1a; however, only three PB proteins are
required for *de novo* PB formation, DDX6, the translation suppressor, 4E-T, and LSM14a
(Ayache *et al*, 2015). Our data showed that KapB expression decreased the steady-state levels of
Dcp1a and BafA1 treatment partially restored Dcp1a, while KapB expression had little effect on
the steady-state levels of other PB proteins (Fig 3). Inducing autophagy with the mTORC1/2
inhibitor Torin recapitulated this effect, decreasing steady-state levels of Dcp1a, but not other PB
proteins like Xrn1, EDC4/Hedls or DDX6 (Fig S3). Blocking the degradative step of autophagy
using BafA1 or chloroquine increased steady-state Dcp1a but blocking the proteasome with
MG132 did not (Fig S3). These data support our model that the entire PB granule is not
autophagocytosed, but PB disassembly is induced by the selective autophagic targeting of one or
more PB proteins, likely including Dcp1a, and that when a critical amount of Dcp1a/other PB

protein is degraded, the PB disassembles. Consistent with this, we show that PBs can still form

even during KapB expression, if we overexpress Dcp1a-GFP or block translation using sodium

arsenite (Fig S1). Taken together, this means the most likely PB protein candidate for autophagic

degradation in our model is Dcp1a, as its steady-state levels are significantly reduced by both

KapB expression and Torin and Dcp1a is important for PB stability (Ayache *et al*, 2015). Dcp1a

is also targeted by other viruses that mediate PB disassembly; for example, infection with

poliovirus also caused PB disassembly and the loss of Dcp1a over a time course of infection

(Dougherty *et al*, 2011).

We do not yet understand how KapB expression may alter Dcp1a to promote its targeting

to the autophagosome, but we predict that KapB expression may change Dcp1a function and

localization via one or more post-translational modifications. Relatively little is known about the

regulation of PB form and function by the post-translational modification of PB components.

Many PB proteins, including Dcp1a, EDC4/Hedls, Dcp2 and DDX6, are phosphorylated;

however, the functional consequences of these phosphorylation events for PB granule formation

is not fully appreciated (Bish *et al*, 2015; Gustafson & Wessel, 2010; Rahman *et al*, 2014; Yoon

et al, 2010). In the case of Dcp1a, its mono-phosphorylation at serine 315 stabilized its

interaction with the catalytic component of the decapping complex, Dcp2; however, its

hyperphosphorylation coincided with PB loss, showing that Dcp1a phosphorylation status

regulates PB dynamics (Tenekeci *et al*, 2016; Aizer *et al*, 2013; Chiang *et al*, 2013). PB proteins

including Dcp1a, Dcp2 and EDC3 are also ubiquitinated, and manipulation of total cellular K63-

ubiquitination altered PB formation and function and changed the mRNA half-life of selected

cytokine transcripts in a gene-specific manner (Tenekeci *et al*, 2016). These authors also showed

that Dcp1a ubiquitination primes the molecule for subsequent phosphorylation, revealing a

complex regulatory relationship between these two modifications (Tenekeci *et al*, 2016). We

hypothesize that KapB expression promotes the K63-ubiquitination and/or phosphorylation of

Dcp1a and that this modification permits its recognition by NDP52. In our model, NDP52

binding is a key step in the delivery of Dcp1a (or another unidentified PB protein) to the nascent

autophagosome for selective degradation (Fig 9). Experiments are ongoing to test this intriguing

model. NDP52 is required for the baseline selective autophagic turnover of innate immune

molecules, an effect which can be increased by signals that activate stress-responsive kinases

(TNF or IL-1, as examples) or virus infection, and as we show here, a viral protein (Wu *et al*,

2020). Therefore, NDP52-mediated selective autophagy is emerging as a central feature of our

antiviral response to infection that may be intentionally targeted by viruses.

The role of autophagy in cellular homeostasis extends beyond its contribution to the

recycling of cellular components required for cell survival, as autophagy is now appreciated to

balance and modulate immune activation and inflammation (Deretic & Levine, 2018).

Autophagy was first reported to dampen inflammation, via an observed association between

chronic inflammatory diseases such as Crohn's disease and ulcerative colitis and genetic

polymorphisms in genes that regulate diverse steps of autophagy, including NDP52 (Ellinghaus

et al, 2013; Henckaerts *et al*, 2011; Hampe *et al*, 2007). One of the best characterized ways that

autophagy dampens inflammatory signals is via p62-mediated selective autophagy of

inflammasome complexes that, when active, process precursor cytokines like IL-1β into its

mature secreted form (Lamkanfi & Dixit, 2014; Shi *et al*, 2012). However, autophagy does not

always negatively regulate inflammation, and autophagic machinery has also been shown to

facilitate the unconventional secretion of IL-1β (Zhang *et al*, 2015; Dupont *et al*, 2011) or

promote cytokine responses to virus infection (Law *et al*, 2010). More recently, selective

autophagy receptors have been shown to target several innate immune factors for degradation

(Chen *et al*, 2016; Du *et al*, 2018; Jin *et al*, 2017; Prabakaran *et al*, 2018; Yang *et al*, 2017; He *et*

al, 2019). In particular, in response to viral infection, NDP52 has been shown to control the

autophagic turnover of the transcription factor IRF3, an indispensable player in the interferon

response, and mediate the turnover of the signaling molecule, MAVS (Wu *et al*, 2020; Jin *et al*,

2017). Clearly the influence of cell autonomous autophagy machinery on innate immune

responses and inflammatory cytokine production is a complex process about which much

remains undiscovered (summarized in Ahmad et al., 2018).

Infection with KSHV induces high levels of pro-inflammatory cytokines, chemokines

and angiogenic factors such as TNF, IL-1α, IL-1β, IL-6, CXCL8, IFN-γ, VEGF, COX-2 and

GM-CSF (Ensoli *et al*, 2010; Ensoli & Stürzl, 1998; Lane *et al*, 2002; Miles *et al*, 1990; Riva *et*

al, 2010; Sadagopan *et al*, 2007; Salahuddin *et al*, 1988). Although several KSHV proteins

promote the transcription of these inflammatory products, many harbor AREs in the 3'UTR of

their cognate mRNA, meaning their transcripts are subject to additional post-transcriptional

regulation in PBs. We previously showed that KapB and the lytic KSHV protein, viral G-protein-

coupled receptor (vGPCR) enhanced the translation of an ARE-containing reporter and elevated

steady-state levels of inflammatory products, and that this coincided with the ability of KapB and

vGPCR to induce PB disassembly (Corcoran *et al*, 2015, 2012, 2011; McCormick & Ganem,

2005). We now show that KapB expression increased the steady-state levels of three ARE-

containing transcripts, IL-6, GM-CSF, and TNF (Fig 4A), consistent with previous studies

(King, 2013) and coincident with PB disassembly. However, KapB expression did not increase

CXCL8 (Fig 4A), indicating that there remains additional regulation, beyond PB disassembly, of

ARE-mRNA decay (Palanisamy *et al*, 2008, 2012). This is consistent with other studies showing

gene-specific regulation of inflammatory transcripts, even among those grouped together,

because the presence of an ARE subjects them to rapid turnover (Tenekeci *et al*, 2016). We also

show that the ability of KapB to induce PB disassembly and enhance our ARE-mRNA reporter

requires both canonical and selective autophagic machinery (Figs 2-4, 6, 8) while MK2EE-

induced PB disassembly and ARE-mRNA reporter expression does not (Fig 5, 7). Our model

supports an important role for Dcp1a in the constitutive translational suppression of our ARE-

mRNA reporter, and when levels of Dcp1a decrease after KapB expression, more reporter is

translated. This is supported by data from other groups that show Dcp1a associates directly with

ARE-mRNAs, recruited there by destabilizing RBPs such as TTP and BRF-1 (Chiang *et al*,

2013; Lykke-Andersen & Wagner, 2005). We observed that MK2EE expression, but not KapB,

resulted in phosphorylation of BRF-1 (Fig S5). BRF-1 is an RBP that binds ARE-containing

RNAs and targets them for decay or suppression; this decay-promoting activity is dampened by

MK2-mediated phosphorylation of BRF-1 at four sites (Maitra *et al*, 2008). It is possible that the

phosphorylation of BRF-1 in MK2EE-expressing cells is sufficient to prevent ARE-mRNA

recruitment to Dcp1a and other PB decay factors, but that in KapB-expressing cells,

unphosphorylated BRF-1 remains able to bind ARE-RNAs and recruit them to PBs, necessitating

autophagic PB turnover as a mechanism to reverse ARE-mRNA reporter repression. These data

provide a partial explanation for how MK2EE may enhance the translation of our ARE-

containing luciferase reporter independent of autophagy, but do not yet reveal the nature of PB

disassembly in these cells.

RNA transcripts for some canonical autophagy proteins in the Atg5-Atg12-Atg16

complex are also regulated post-transcriptionally by 3'UTR AREs, suggesting that expression of

KapB, MK2EE or vGPCR may cause a pro-autophagic positive feedback loop via PB

disassembly, enhancing translation of pro-autophagic products. (Lystad *et al*, 2019; Ji *et al*,

2019). This is consistent with our observation that KapB-expressing cells displayed increased

steady-state levels of Atg5 (Fig 2). Enhanced translation of these mRNAs may also be aided by

KapB-mediated upregulation of the stabilizing RBP, HuR (Yoo *et al*, 2010). This feed-forward

loop likely contributes to KapB and MK2EE induction of autophagic flux; however, no

published report shows that vGPCR increases autophagic flux. In fact, autophagic degradation

controls vGPCR protein levels and dampens its pro-tumourigenic, proinflammatory signaling

(Wei *et al*, 2015; Dong *et al*, 2016). Taken together, our study reveals a novel way that KSHV

infection manipulates autophagic machinery in a cell intrinsic manner to induce PB turnover and

promote inflammatory molecule production. The fact that KSHV encodes more than one protein

that reverses the constitutive repression of inflammatory mRNAs in PBs highlights its central

importance.

Autophagy plays a dual role in cancer development mediated by oncogenic viruses

(Vescovo *et al*, 2020). Autophagy is initially tumour suppressive, promoting degradation of

damaged organelles, preserving genomic stability, and removing pathogens. In cancers of viral

origin, like KS, viral inhibition of autophagic flux can help control xenophagy of new viral

particles and aid in the establishment of latent infection (Jang *et al*, 2016). However, once cancer

is established, autophagic flux promotes progression of established tumours by a variety of

approaches, including promoting a pro-tumourigenic and proinflammatory environment

(Vescovo *et al*, 2020; Liu & Debnath, 2016). Consistent with this, markers of upregulated

autophagic flux are elevated in several cancers and in primary effusion lymphoma cells that

harbour the KSHV genome as a latent episome (Pringle et al., 2019; reviewed in Wu et al.,

2012), suggesting that at this latent stage, viral gene products enhance autophagy to maintain

tumourigenesis. This sensible model is, in reality, an oversimplification, as we know that KSHV

gene products both enhance and block autophagic flux during both latent and lytic KSHV phases

(Vescovo *et al*, 2020; Cirone, 2018). In latency, two viral proteins have previously defined roles

in autophagy, vCyclin and vFLIP (Leidal *et al*, 2012; Lee *et al*, 2009). vCyclin has been shown

to induce oncogene-induced senescence through induction of autophagy, whereas vFLIP works

to counteract vCyclin by blocking autophagy through binding Atg3 and inhibiting LC3 lipidation

(Leidal *et al*, 2012; Lee *et al*, 2009). We show here that KapB also upregulates autophagic flux,

opposing the activity of vFLIP during viral latency. We do not yet know the precise impact of

latent gene co-expression on autophagy regulation; however, the observation that latently

infected B-lymphocytes displayed elevated autophagic flux suggest that a pro-autophagic

phenotype dominates during KSHV latency (Pringle *et al*, 2019). We predict that KapB, in

concert with vCyclin, promotes autophagy and that vFLIP expression works to fine tune this

mechanism.

One possible way that KSHV latent genes cooperate to fine tune autophagy during

KSHV latency may involve viral dysregulation of the cellular transcription factor, Nrf2. Nrf2 is

responsible for the activation of several antioxidant response genes but also induces expression

of NDP52 to promote selective autophagy (Jo *et al*, 2014; Moi *et al*, 1994; Nguyen *et al*, 2009).

Nrf2 activity is upregulated by KSHV *de novo* infection of endothelial cells and during KSHV

latency, as evidenced by the nuclear translocation of Nrf2, which is normally retained in the

cytoplasm by its negative regulator, Keap1, and the expression of Nrf2 target genes (Gjyshi *et al*,

2014). The mechanism for KSHV Nfr2 activation was revealed to utilize vFLIP, which blocks

autophagy and leads to an accumulation of the SAR, p62, that in turn promotes the degradation

of Keap1 and the stabilization of Nrf2 (Gjyshi *et al*, 2015). In this manner, vFLIP may indirectly

promote the selective autophagy of PBs during KSHV latency by increasing NDP52 expression.

This activity may synergize with the activities of KapB we propose in our model, wherein we

predict that KapB expression induces an unknown post translational modification of the PB

protein, Dcp1a, promoting its selection as autophagic cargo by NDP52 (Fig 9).

Taken together, our data and that of others support that viral KSHV enhancement of

autophagy is central to latent viral tumourigenesis and the creation of a proinflammatory

environment and may also play an important role in regulating the balance between latent versus

lytic gene expression for KSHV and related herpesviruses (Dong *et al*, 2016; Park *et al*, 2016;

Wang *et al*, 2019). Although this may suggest that targeting autophagic processes could be a

useful strategy for treating KS, as supported by the regression of iatrogenic KS lesions after

treatment with the mTORC1 complex inhibitor and autophagy inducer, rapamycin (Stallone *et*

al, 2005), the complicated balance of autophagy regulation by KSHV suggests the need for more

selective therapies. Our study of the KSHV protein, KapB, has unveiled such an opportunity,

revealing the potential utility of targeting NDP52-dependent selective catabolism of PBs to limit

pathological and pro-tumourigenic inflammation.

Materials and Methods

Cell culture

All cells were grown at 37 °C with 5% CO_2 and 20% O_2. HEK293T cells (ATCC), HeLa Tet-Off cells (Clontech), Atg5 +/+ and -/- MEFs (Kuma *et al*, 2004), and HeLa Flp-In TREx GFP-Dcp1a cells (a generous gift from Anne-Claude Gingras) were cultured in DMEM (Thermo Fisher) supplemented with 100 U/mL penicillin, 100 µg/mL streptomycin, 2 mM L-glutamine (Thermo Fisher) and 10% FBS (Thermo Fisher). HUVECs (Lonza) were cultured in endothelial cell growth medium (EGM-2) (Lonza). HUVECs were seeded onto gelatin (1% w/v in PBS)-coated tissue culture plates or glass coverslips. All drug treatments were performed for the times indicated in each experiment at the concentrations listed in Table 6.

Cloning

All shRNAs were generated by cloning shRNA hairpin sequences found in Table 2 into pLKO.1-TRC Puro (pLKO.1-TRC cloning vector was a gift from David Root (Addgene plasmid # 10878; http://n2t.net/addgene:10878; RRID:Addgene_10878) or pLKO.1-blast (pLKO.1-blast was a gift from Keith Mostov (Addgene plasmid #26655; http://n2t.net/addgene:26655; RRID:Addgene_26655). pBMN mCherry-NDP52(C443K) was a gift from Michael Lazarou (Addgene plasmid #119685; http://n2t.net/addgene:119685; RRID:Addgene_119685) and pBMN mCherry-NDP52(V136S/C443K) was a gift from Michael Lazarou (Addgene plasmid #119686; http://n2t.net/addgene:119686; RRID:Addgene_119686). The overexpression plasmids, pLJM1 mCh-NDP52 C443K and pLJM1 mCh-NDP52 C443K V136S were made using the primers in Table 4 to clone NDP52 into pLJM1 (Johnston *et al*, 2019).

Lentivirus Production and Transduction

All lentiviruses were generated using a second-generation system. Briefly, HEK293T cells were transfected with pSPAX2, MD2G, and the plasmid containing a gene of interest or hairpin using polyethylimine (PEI, Polysciences). psPAX2 was a gift from Didier Trono (Addgene plasmid #12260; http://n2t.net/addgene:12260; RRID:Addgene_12260) and pMD2.G was a gift from Didier Trono (Addgene plasmid #12259; http://n2t.net/addgene:12259; RRID:Addgene_12259).

Viral supernatants were harvested 48 h post-transfection, clarified using a 0.45 μ

polyethersulfone filter (VWR), and frozen at -80°C until use. For transduction, lentiviruses were

thawed at 37°C and added to target cells in complete media containing 5 µg/mL polybrene

(Sigma) for 24 h. The media was changed to selection media containing 1 µg/mL puromycin or 5

µg/mL blasticidin (Thermo) and cells were selected for 48 h before proceeding with

experiments.

Immunofluorescence

Cells were seeded onto coverslips for immunofluorescence experiments and fixed for 10 mins at

37 °C in 4% (v/v) paraformaldehyde (Electron Microscopy Sciences). Samples were

permeabilized with 0.1% (v/v) Triton X-100 (Sigma-Aldrich) for 10 min at room temperature

and blocked in 1% human AB serum (Sigma-Aldrich) for 1 h at room temperature. For

autophagosome immunofluorescence cells were fixed for 10 min in ice cold methanol at -20 °C

and blocked in 1% human AB serum for 1 h at room temperature. Primary and secondary

antibodies were diluted in 1% human AB serum and used at the concentrations in Table 1.

Samples were mounted with Prolong Gold AntiFade mounting media (Thermo). For CellProfiler

quantification of puncta, samples were incubated with WGA AlexaFluor-647 at a 1:400 dilution

for 10 min prior to permeabilization. Image analysis was performed using CellProfiler

(cellprofiler.org), an open source platform for image analysis (Carpenter et al., 2006);

quantification of puncta was performed as previously described (Castle *et al*, 2020).

Immunoblotting

Cells were lysed in 2x Laemmli buffer and stored at -20°C until use. The DC Protein Assay

(Bio-Rad) was used to quantify protein concentration as per the manufacturer's instructions. 10-

15 µg of protein lysate was resolved by SDS-PAGE on TGX Stain-Free acrylamide gels

(BioRad). Total protein images were acquired from the PVDF membranes after transfer on the

ChemiDoc Touch Imaging system (BioRad). Membranes were blocked in 5% bovine serum

albumin (BSA) or skim milk in Tris-buffered saline-Tween20 (TBS-T). Primary and secondary

antibodies were diluted in 2.5% BSA or skim milk, dilutions can be found in Table 1.

Membranes were visualized using Clarity Western ECL substrate and the ChemiDoc Touch

Imaging system (BioRad).

Luciferase Assays

Luciferase assays were performed as previously described (Corcoran *et al*, 2011). HeLa Tet-Off

cells were transduced with recombinant lentivirus expressing different shRNAs and selected.

Cells were transfected according to Corcoran *et al.* (2011) with pTRE2 Firefly Luciferase ARE,

pTRE2 Renilla Luciferase, and the expression plasmid of interest using Fugene HD (Promega).

Luciferase and renilla activity were quantified using the Dual Luciferase Assay Kit (Promega)

and read on a GloMax multi-detection system (Promega).

Quantitative PCR

RNA was collected using a RNeasy Plus Mini Kit (Qiagen) according to the manufacturer's

instructions and stored at -80°C until further use. RNA concentration was determined and was

reverse transcribed using Maxima H Minus First Strand cDNA Synthesis Kit (Thermo Fisher)

using a combination of random and oligo (dT) primers according to the manufacturer's

instructions. cDNA was diluted 1:5 for all qPCR experiments and GoTaq qPCR Master Mix

(Promega) was used to amplify cDNA. The ΔΔquantitation cycle (Cq) method was used to

determine the fold change in expression of target transcripts. qPCR primer sequences can be

found in Table 3.

Electron Microscopy

HUVECs were transduced with vector or KapB and selected with 5 µg/mL blasticidin. Cells

were washed with PBS and fixed in the plate with 2.5% glutaraldehyde at 4°C overnight. After

fixation, cells were scraped in the fixative and pelleted at 300 x *g* for 5 minutes. Samples were

sent to the Dalhousie University Electron Microscopy Core Facility for processing and

sectioning. Briefly, samples were washed with 0.1% sodium cacodylate buffer, fixed in 1%

osmium tetroxide, and stored in 0.25% uranyl acetate at 4°C. Samples were dehydrated in a

graduated series of acetone, infiltrated with epon araldite resin, and embedded in 100% epon

araldite resin in a 60°C oven for 48 h. Sections were cut with a Reichart-Jung Ultracut E

Ultramicrotome at approximately 100 nm thick and placed on a 300 mesh copper grid. Samples

were stained with 2% aqueous uranyl acetate and lead citrate before being dried and imaged on a

JEOL JEM 1230 Electron Microsope at 80kV; pictures were obtained with a Hamamatsu
ORCA-HR digital camera.

Statistics

Data shown are the mean ± standard error of the mean (SEM). Statistical significance was
determined using a one-way ANOVA, a 2-way ANOVA or Student's t-test when appropriate
with the applicable post-test (indicated in the corresponding figure legends). For ANOVAs,
matched data from each replicate was paired for analysis. All statistics were performed using
GraphPad Prism v.9.0.

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Conflict of Interest

The authors have no competing interests to declare.

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<u>Figure Legends</u>

Figure 1: Kaposin B increases autophagic flux. Primary human umbilical vein endothelial

cells (HUVECs) were transduced with recombinant lentiviruses expressing either Kaposin B

(KapB) or an empty vector control and selected with blasticidin (5 µg/mL). A: Cells were treated

with bafilomycin A1 (10 nM) or a vehicle control (DMSO) for the indicated times prior to

harvest in 2x Laemmli buffer. Protein lysates were resolved by SDS-PAGE and immunoblot was

performed for LC3. Samples were quantified by normalizing LC3-II protein levels to the total

protein in each lane using Image Lab (Biorad) and then to their relative 0 h time point. Results

were plotted in GraphPad and a linear regression statistical test was performed with a Šidák's

multiple comparison test, ±SEM; n=3, *=P<0.01. B: Cells were treated as above for 30 min prior

to fixation in methanol. Immunofluorescence was performed for LC3 (white) and DAPI (nuclei,

blue). Scale bar=20 μm. Total LC3 area per field was quantified by identifying LC3 puncta using

CellProfiler and normalizing to the number of nuclei. Results were plotted in GraphPad, a 2-way

ANOVA was performed, ±SEM; n=3, *=P<0.05. C: HUVECs were transduced with lentiviruses

expressing KapB or an empty vector control, selected with blasticidin (5 μg/mL) for 48 h, and

recovered for 24 h in antibiotic-free media before fixation in 2.5% glutaraldehyde. Thin sections

were cut at approximately 100 nm and samples were observed on a JEOL JEM 1230

Transmission Electron Microscope at 80kV. Scale bars are indicated on the image.

Figure 2: KapB-mediated PB disassembly requires canonical autophagy machinery. A:
HUVECs were sequentially transduced: first with recombinant lentiviruses expressing either
shRNAs targeting Atg5 (shAtg5) or a non-targeting control (NS) and selected with puromycin (1
μg/mL), and second, with either KapB or an empty vector control and selected with blasticidin (5
μg/mL). Coverslips were fixed in 4% v/v paraformaldehyde, permeabilized in 0.1% Triton X-
100, and immunostained for the PB-resident protein Hedls (white) and nuclei (DAPI). Scale
bar=20 μm. B: Hedls puncta were quantified using CellProfiler and normalized to the number of
nuclei, results were plotted in GraphPad and a 2-way ANOVA was performed, with a Šidák's
multiple comparison test, ±SEM; n=4, *=P<0.05. C: In parallel, cells treated as in A were
harvested in 2x Laemmli buffer and resolved by SDS-PAGE, immunoblot was performed for
Atg5 and LC3. Samples were quantified by normalizing Atg5 protein levels to the total protein in
each lane using Image Lab (Biorad) and then to Vector NS. Results were plotted in GraphPad, a
2-way ANOVA was performed, ±SEM; n=3, ***=P<0.001. D: Atg5 +/+ and -/- MEFs were
transduced with recombinant viruses expressing KapB or an empty vector control and selected
and processed as in A. E: Hedls puncta quantification and statistical analysis was performed as
described in B. ±SEM; n=3, *=P<0.05, **=P<0.01.

Figure 3: Chemical inhibition of autophagy reverses KapB-mediated PB disassembly.
HUVECs were transduced with recombinant lentiviruses expressing either KapB or an empty

vector control and selected with blasticidin (5 µg/mL). A: Cells were treated with DMSO or

bafilomycin A1 (10 nM) for 30 min before being fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde and

permeabilized in 0.1% Triton X-100. Immunofluorescence was performed for Hedls (PBs, white)

and DAPI (nuclei, blue). Scale bar=20 µm. B: Hedls puncta were counted using CellProfiler and

normalized to the number of nuclei and the Vector DMSO control, results were plotted in

GraphPad and a 2-way ANOVA was performed, performed with a Šidák's multiple comparison

test, ±SEM; n=3, *=P<0.05. C: Cells were treated with DMSO, Torin (250 nM) or chloroquine

(CQ, 25 µM) prior to harvest in 2x Laemmli buffer. Samples were resolved by SDS-PAGE and

immunoblot was performed for Dcp1a, Xrn1, EDC4/Hedls (PB resident proteins) and p62

(autophagy marker). Samples were quantified by normalizing Dcp1a protein levels to the total

protein in each lane using Image Lab (Biorad) and then to the Vector DMSO control. Results

were plotted in GraphPad and a 2-way ANOVA was performed, ±SEM; n=3, *=P<0.1.

Figure 4: KapB-mediated ARE-mRNA reporter expression requires autophagy. A:
HUVECs were transduced with recombinant lentiviruses expressing either KapB or an empty

vector control and selected with blasticidin (5 µg/mL). Cells were treated with LPS (1 µg/mL)

for the indicated times prior to lysis for total RNA. Transcript levels were quantified by qPCR

and normalized to 18S as a reference gene. Data is represented as the fold change in target

transcript expression relative to the untreated vector control and was quantified using the ΔΔCq

method. For IL-6 and CXCL8 ±SEM; n=3, ****=P<0.0001. For GM-CSF and TNF bars indicate

ranges, n=2. B: HeLa Tet-Off cells were transduced with recombinant lentiviruses expressing

either shRNAs targeting Atg5 (shAtg5) or a non-targeting control (NS) and selected with

puromycin (1 µg/mL). These cells were then co-transfected with expression plasmids for a

degradation-sensitive firefly luciferase plasmid (pTRE-Fluc-ARE), a stable renilla luciferase

plasmid (pTRE-Rluc), and KapB or an empty vector control. 36 h post transfection, doxycycline

(Dox) was added to halt reporter gene transcription; 12 h after Dox addition, lysates were

harvested in passive lysis buffer (Promega). Luciferase activity for both firefly and renilla was

analyzed using the Dual-Luciferase Reporter Assay (Promega) and normalized (firefly/renilla)

relative luciferase was calculated in relative light units (RLUs). Results were plotted using

GraphPad, an unpaired t-test was performed, ±SEM; n=3, *=P<0.05, **=P<0.01. In B,

bafilomycin (10 nM) was added at the same time as Dox. Results were plotted in GraphPad and a

Student's t-test was performed, ±SEM; n=3, *=P<0.05, **=P<0.01.

Figure 5: Canonical autophagy is not required for MK2-mediated PB disassembly. A:

HUVECs were transduced with recombinant lentiviruses expressing either constitutively active

MK2 (MK2EE) or an empty vector control and selected with blasticidin (5 µg/mL) for 48 h.

Cells were treated with DMSO or bafilomycin A1 (10 nM) for 30 min before being fixed in

methanol. Immunofluorescence was performed for LC3 (autophagosomes, white) and DAPI

(nuclei, blue). Scale bar=20 µm. Total LC3 area per field was quantified by identifying LC3

puncta using CellProfiler and normalizing to the number of nuclei. Results were plotted in

GraphPad and a 2-way ANOVA was performed, with a Šidák's multiple comparison test, ±SEM

n=3; *=P<0.05. B: HUVECs were sequentially transduced: first with recombinant lentiviruses

expressing either shRNAs targeting Atg5 (shAtg5) or a non-targeting control (NS) and selected

with puromycin (1 µg/mL), and second, with either MK2EE or an empty vector control and

selected with blasticidin (5 µg/mL). Coverslips were fixed in 4% v/v paraformaldehyde,

permeabilized in 0.1% Triton X-100 v/v, and immunostained for the PB-resident protein Hedls

(PBs, white) and DAPI (nuclei, blue). Scale bar=20 µm. Hedls puncta were counted using

CellProfiler and normalized to the number of nuclei, results were plotted in GraphPad and a 2-

way ANOVA was performed, with a Šidák's multiple comparison test, ±SEM n=4; *=P<0.05. C:

HeLa Tet-Off cells were transduced with recombinant lentiviruses as in Figure 4. These cells

were then co-transfected with expression plasmids for pTRE-Fluc-ARE, pTRE-Rluc, and

MK2EE or an empty vector control. The Dox addition, lysis, and measurement of luciferase

RLUs was performed as in Figure 4. Results were plotted using GraphPad, a Student's t-test was

performed, ±SEM, n=4; *=P<0.05.

Figure 6. KapB-mediated PB disassembly and ARE-mRNA stability require the selective

autophagy receptor NDP52. A: HUVECs were sequentially transduced with recombinant

lentivirus expressing KapB or an empty vector control and selected with blasticidin (5 µg/mL),

and second with shRNAs targeting NDP52, OPTN, p62 or a non-targeting control (NS) and

selected with puromycin (1 µg/mL). Coverslips were fixed in 4% v/v paraformaldehyde,

permeabilized in 0.1% Triton X-100 and immunostained for Hedls (PBs; white), DAPI (nuclei,

blue). Scale bar=20 µm. B: Cells were imaged and the mean number of Hedls puncta per cell

were quantified using CellProfiler. Data were plotted in GraphPad as the mean number of Hedls

puncta per cell per condition ± SEM; n=3. A 2-way ANOVA was performed with a Šidák's

multiple comparison test; * = P<0.05 **= P<0.01. C: HeLa Tet-Off cells were transduced with

recombinant lentivirus expressing shRNAs targeting NDP52, OPTN, p62 or a NS control and

selected with puromycin (1µg/mL). Cells were co-transfected, treated with Dox and luciferase

activity was recorded and analyzed as in Figure 4. Data were plotted in GraphPad as the mean

fold change in the relative luciferase activity of each condition compared to vector NS or KapB

NS; n=4. An unpaired t-test was performed; * = P<0.05 **= P<0.01.

Figure 7. MK2EE-mediated PB disassembly and ARE-mRNA stabilization does not

require NDP52. A: HUVECs were sequentially transduced with recombinant lentivirus

expressing shRNAs targeting NDP52, OPTN, p62 or a non-targeting control (NS) and selected

with puromycin (1 µg/mL) and second with recombinant lentivirus expressing constitutively

active MK2EE or an empty vector control and selected with blasticidin (5 µg/mL). Coverslips

were fixed in 4% v/v paraformaldehyde, permeabilized in 0.1% Triton X-100, and

immunostained for Hedls (PBs, white) and DAPI (nuclei, blue). Scale bar = 20 µm. B: Cells

were imaged and the mean number of Hedls puncta per cell were quantified using CellProfiler.

Data were plotted in GraphPad as the mean number of Hedls puncta per cell per condition ±

SEM; n=3. C: HeLa Tet-Off cells were transduced with recombinant lentivirus expressing

shRNAs targeting NDP52, OPTN, p62 or a NS control and selected with puromycin (1µg/mL).

Cells were were co-transfected with expression plasmids for a degradation-sensitive firefly

luciferase plasmid (pTRE-Fluc-ARE), a stable renilla luciferase plasmid (pTRE-Rluc), and

MK2EE or an empty vector control. Cells were treated with Dox and luciferase activity was

recorded and analyzed as in Figure 4. Data is plotted in GraphPad as the mean fold change in the

relative luciferase activity of each condition compared to vector NS or MK2EE NS; n=3. An

unpaired t-test was performed; * = P<0.05 **= P<0.01.

Figure 8. KapB-mediated PB disassembly is restored by wild-type NDP52 but not by

ubiquitin-binding domain or LC3-interacting region mutants. A: Schematic of NDP52.

NDP52 contains the following domains and interacting regions: SKICH domain (SKIP-carboxyl

homology domain), CLIR (non-canonical LC3-interaction motif), coiled-coil domain, GALB

(galectin binding domain) ZF1 & ZF2 (zinc finger domains). Known mutations that disrupt

NDP52 function include: V136S which prevents binding to LC3-C and C443K which prevents

binding to ubiquitin. B: HUVECs were transduced first with recombinant lentivirus expressing

shDNP52 targeting the 3'-UTR of NDP52 or a NS control and selected with blasticidin (5

µg/mL), and second, transduced with either vector or KapB and one of the following: mCherry

control (mCh), RFP-NDP52 wt, mCh-NDP52 C443K or mCh-NDP52 V136S/C443K.

Coverslips were fixed with 4% v/v paraformaldehyde, permeabilized with 0.1% Triton X-100,

and were immunostained with Hedls (PBs, green). Scale bar=20 µm. C: In parallel with A,

HUVECs treated as in A were immunostained using WGA (to denote cellular membranes),

DAPI (nuclei) and Hedls (green). Cells were imaged and the mean number of PBs per cell were

quantified using CellProfiler. Results were plotted in GraphPad and a 2-way ANOVA was

performed with a Šidák's multiple comparison test, ±SEM n=3; *=P<0.05, **=P<0.01.

Figure 9: Model of NDP52-dependent PB disassembly elicited by KapB. Under normal

conditions, the cytoplasm of all cells contain PBs, granules comprised of RNA and RNA decay

proteins that are visible by immunofluorescent microscopy. When KapB is expressed,

microscopically visible PBs are lost but can reform after overexpression of Dcp1a-GFP or after

stress-induced translation shutoff. PB disassembly elicited by KapB depends on the selective

autophagy receptor, NDP52. KapB expression also decreases the steady-state level of the PB

protein, Dcp1a, but does not markedly alter the levels of other PB proteins like DDX6,

ECD4/Hedls, or Xrn1. Dcp1a has been shown to be modified by phosphorylation and

ubiquitination (Tenekeci *et al*, 2016; Aizer *et al*, 2013; Chiang *et al*, 2013) and these

modifications alter PB formation and function. These data lead us to propose the following

model. KapB expression leads to an as yet undetermined post-translational modification that

promotes its recognition by the selective autophagy receptor, NDP52. Simultaneous binding of

NDP52 to modified Dcp1a (or another unidentified PB protein) and to LC3 on the nascent

phagophore recruit Dcp1a to the autophagosome for degradation. The loss of Dcp1a or another

PB protein via selective autophagy leads to PB disassembly but does not prevent *de novo* PB

assembly under stress, even during KapB expression.

DDX6/Rck: RNA helicase, EDC4/Hedls: decapping co-factor, Dcp2: catalytic component of

decapping machinery, Dcp1a: decapping co-factor, ECD3: decapping enhancer, Xrn1: 3'-5'

exonuclease.

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1211   Table 1: Antibodies

Antibody	Species	Vendor/Catalogue #	Application	Dilution
Hedls	Mouse	Santa Cruz sc-8418	Immunofluorescence Immunoblot	1:1000 1:1000
KapB	Rabbit	A generous gift from Don Ganem	Immunofluorescence	1:1000
NDP52	Rabbit	CST 60732	Immunoblot	1:1000
p62	Rabbit	CST 7695	Immunoblot	1:1000
Dcp1a	Mouse	CST 15365	Immunoblot	1:500
MK2	Rabbit	CST 12155	Immunofluorescence	1:1000
Total Brf1	Rabbit	CST 2119	Immunoblot	1:1000
Phospho-Brf1 (S92)	Rabbit	Abcam ab79191	Immunoblot	1:1000
LC3B	Rabbit	CST 2775	Immunofluorescence Immunoblot	1:200 1:1000
Atg5	Rabbit	CST 2630	Immunoblot	1:1000
OPTN	Rabbit	Abcam ab23666	Immunoblot	1:1000
Xrn1	Rabbit	Abcam ab231197	Immunoblot	1:1000
VCP	Rabbit	CST 2649	Immunoblot	1:1000
NBR1	Rabbit	CST 9891	Immunoblot	1:1000

1212

1213   Table 2: shRNA target sequences

shRNA target	shRNA sequence 5'→3'	Region
Non-targeting (NS)	AGCACAAGCTGGAGTACAACTA	
Atg5	CTTTGATAATGAACAGTGAGA	CDS
NDP52(1)	GAGCTGCTTCAACTGAAAGAA	CDS
NDP52(2)	GACTTGCCTATGGAAACCCAT	CDS
NDP52(3)	CCCTTTGTGAACTAAGTTCAA	3'-UTR
NDP52(4)	CCTGACTTGATACTAAGTGAT	3'-UTR
Optineurin (1)	GCACGGCATTGTCTAAATATA	CDS
Optineurin (2)	GCCATGAAGCTAAATAATCAA	CDS
p62	CCGAATCTACATTAAAGAGAA	CDS
NBR1 (1)	GCCAGGAACCAAGTTTATCAA	CDS
NBR1 (2)	CCATCCTACAATATCTGTGAA	CDS
VCP (1)	ACCGTCCCAATCGGTTAATTG	CDS
VCP (2)	AGATCCGTCGAGATCACTTTG	CDS

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1215   Table 3: qPCR primers

Primer	Primer Sequence
18S - Forward	5' TTCGAACGTCTGCCCTATCAA 3'
18S - Reverse	5' GATGTGGTAGCCGTTTCTCAGG 3'

IL-6 - Forward	5' GAAGCTCTATCTCGCCTCCA 3'
IL-6 - Reverse	5' TTTTCTGCCAGTGCCTCTTT 3'
CXCL8 - Forward	5' AAATCTGGCAACCCTAGTCTG 3'
CXCL8 - Reverse	5' GTGAGGTAAGATGGTGGCTAAT 3'
TNF - Forward	5' TCGAACCCCGAGTGACAA 3'
TNF - Reverse	5' AGCTGCCCCTCAGCTTG 3'
GM-CSF - Forward	5' AAATGTTTGACCTCCAGGAGC C 3'
GM-CSF - Reverse	5' ATCTGGGTTGCACAGGAAGTT 3'

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1217   Table 4: Cloning primers

Primer	Primer Sequence
NDP52 C443K & C443K/V136S BamHI-Forward	5' TAAGCAGGATCCGCCACCATGGTGAGCAAG 3'
NDP52 C443K & C443K/V136S EcoRI-Reverse	5' TAAGCAGAATTCCAGAGAGAGTGTTTGAACACGT 3'

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1219   Table 5: Plasmids

Plasmid	Use	Source	Mammalian Selection
pBMN mCh NDP52 C443K	UBD mutant	Addgene #119685	N/A
pBMN mCh NDP52 C443K V136S	UBD/LIR mutant	Addgene #119686	N/A
RFP-NDP52	Overexpression	Dr. Andreas Till (University Hospital of Bonn)	N/A
pcDNA 3.1 (+)	Empty Vector Control	Invitrogen V79020	N/A
pcDNA KapB BCBL1	ARE-mRNA stability	(Corcoran *et al*, 2015)	N/A
pcDNA FLAG-MK2EE	ARE-mRNA stability	(Corcoran *et al*, 2015)	N/A
pLKO.1-TRC	shRNA expression	Addgene #10878	Puromycin
pLKO.1-blast	shRNA expression	Addgene #26655	Blasticidin
pLJM1	Empty Vector Control	(Johnston *et al*, 2019)	Blasticidin/ Puromycin
pLJM1 KapB (pulmonary KS)	Overexpression	Cloned from pBMNIP-KapB (Corcoran *et al*, 2015) into pLJM1-BSD	Blasticidin

Plasmid	Use	Source	Mammalian Selection
pLJM1 mCh	Overexpression Control	Craig McCormick (Dalhousie University)	Blasticidin
pLJM1 FLAG-MK2EE	Overexpression	Cloned into pLJM1 using BamHI and EcoRI from pBMN FLAG-MK2EE (Corcoran *et al*, 2015)	Blasticidin/ Puromycin
pLJM1 RFP-NDP52	Overexpression	Cloned into pLJM1 using NheI and BamHI from RFP-NDP52	Puromycin
pLJM1 mCh-NDP52 C443K	Overexpression	Cloned into pLJM1 from Addgene #119685 using the primers listed in Table 4	Blasticidin/ Puromycin
pLJM1 mCh-NDP52 C443K V136S	Overexpression	Cloned into pLJM1 from Addgene #119686 using the primers listed in Table 4	Blasticidin/ Puromycin
pMD2.G	Lentivirus generation	Addgene #12259	N/A
psPAX2	Lentivirus generation	Addgene #12260	N/A
pTRE2 Firefly Luciferase-ARE	ARE-mRNA stability	(Corcoran *et al*, 2011)	N/A
pTRE2-Renilla Luciferase	ARE-mRNA stability	(Corcoran *et al*, 2011)	N/A

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1221   Table 6: Drugs

Drug	Vendor/Catalogue #	Concentration
Torin1	Sigma-Aldrich 475991	250 nM
Bafilomycin A1	Sigma-Aldrich B1793	10 nM
Chloroquine	Sigma-Aldrich C6628	25 μM
MG-132	Selleckchem S2619	5 μM
LPS	Sigma-Aldrich L3129	1 μg/mL
Sodium Arsenite	Sigma-Aldrich 1.06277	0.25 mM
Doxycycline	Sigma-Aldrich D9891	1 μg/mL

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Supplementary Figure Legends

Figure S1: KapB expression promotes PB disassembly but does not prevent PB assembly.

HeLa cells expressing a doxycycline-inducible GFP-Dcp1a were used to determine whether

KapB prevented granule assembly or promoted disassembly. A: HeLa cells were transfected with

either KapB or an empty vector control prior to inducing expression of GFP-Dcp1a with

doxycycline (1 μg/mL). Cells were fixed 12 h post-induction and immunostained for Hedls (PBs,

red) and KapB (blue). PBs were visually analyzed. Scale bar=20 μm. A timeline of the

experimental conditions is shown. B: GFP-Dcp1a expression was induced with doxycycline (1

μg/mL) in HeLa cells prior to transfection with either KapB or an empty vector control. Cells

were fixed 12 h post-transfection and immunostained for Hedls (PBs, red) and KapB (blue). PBs

were visually analyzed. Scale bar=20 μm. A timeline of the experimental conditions is shown. C:

HUVECs were transduced with recombinant lentiviruses expressing either KapB or an empty

vector control and selected with blasticidin (5 μg/mL). Cells were treated with sodium arsenite (5

μM) to promote PB assembly, or a vehicle control for 30 min prior to fixation in 4% v/v

paraformaldehyde. Samples were permeabilized in 0.1% Triton X-100 and immunostained with

Hedls (red, PBs), KapB (green), and DAPI (nuclei). Scale bar=20 μm.

Figure S2: Western blots validating shRNA silencing and knockout cell lines used in this

study. All samples were lysed in 2x Laemmli buffer and resolved by SDS-PAGE before

immunoblotting with the indicated antibodies. A: Representative western blot of LC3 in Atg5

+/+ (WT) and -/- (KO) MEFs. B: Representative western blot of HUVECs transduced with either

an shRNA targeting Atg5 or a non-targeting control (NS) and selected with puromycin (1

μg/mL), then transduced with an empty vector control or MK2EE and selected with blasticidin

(5 μg/mL). C: Representative western blot of HUVECs transduced with shRNAs targeting

NDP52, OPTN, p62, VCP, NBR1, or a non-targeting control (NS) and selected with puromycin

(1 μg/mL), then transduced with an empty vector control or KapB and selected with blasticidin

(5 μg/mL). VCP knockdowns were lethal, total protein is shown to reflect this. D: Representative

western blot of HeLas transduced with shRNAs targeting NDP52, OPTN, p62, or a non-targeting

control (NS) and selected with puromycin (1 μg/mL), then transfected with an empty vector

control or KapB. E: Representative western blot of HeLas transduced with shRNAs targeting

NDP52, OPTN, p62, or a non-targeting control (NS) and selected with puromycin (1 μg/mL),

then transduced with an empty vector control or MK2EE and selected with blasticidin (5

μg/mL). F: Representative western blot of HUVECs transduced with an shRNA targeting the

3'UTR of NDP52 or a non-targeting control (NS) and selected with puromycin (1 μg/mL), then

co-transduced with an empty vector control and mCherry (mCh) or KapB and mCh.

Figure S3: Proteasome inhibition does not increase steady-state levels of PB proteins. A: HUVECs were treated with DMSO, Torin (250 nM) or BafA1 (10 nM) for 4 h prior to harvest. Samples were lysed in 2x Laemmli buffer and resolved by SDS-PAGE before immunoblotting with Xrn1, EDC4/Hedls, Dcp1a, and DDX6. Samples were quantified by normalizing the PB resident protein levels to the total protein in each lane and then the DMSO control using ImageLab (Biorad). Results were plotted in GraphPad and a one-way ANOVA was performed ±SEM; n=3, *=P<0.1. B: HUVECs were treated with DMSO, Torin (250 nM), BafA1 (10 nM), CQ (25 µM), a combination of Torin and BafA1, or MG-132 (5 µM) for 4 h prior to harvest. Samples were lysed in 2x Laemmli buffer and resolved by SDS-PAGE before immunoblotting with Dcp1a, two immunoblots are shown. Samples were quantified by normalizing Dcp1a protein levels to the total protein in each lane and then the DMSO control using ImageLab (Biorad). Results were plotted in GraphPad.

Figure S4: Genetic knockdown of OPTN and p62 do not restore PBs in KapB- or MK2EE-expressing cells. A: HUVECs were transduced with shRNAs targeting OPTN, p62, or a non-targeting control (NS) and selected with puromycin (1 µg/mL), then transduced with an empty vector control or KapB and selected with blasticidin (5 µg/mL). Coverslips were fixed in 4% v/v paraformaldehyde, permeabilized in 0.1% Triton X-100 and immunostained for Hedls (PBs; white), DAPI (nuclei, blue). Scale bar=20 µm. B: HUVECs were transduced with shRNAs as in A and then transduced with an empty vector control or MK2EE and selected with blasticidin (5 µg/mL). Coverslips were fixed, permeabilized, and immunostained as in A. Scale bar=20 µm.

Figure S5: MK2EE expression but not KapB expression induces phosphorylation of BRF1. A: HUVECs were transduced with KapB, MK2EE, or an empty vector control and selected with blasticidin (5 µg/mL). Cells were treated with Torin (250 nM) or a DMSO control for 2 h prior to harvest. Samples were lysed in 2x Laemmli and resolved by SDS-PAGE before immunoblotting with either phospho-BRF1 (S92) or Total BRF1

Figure S6: NDP52 overexpression in control HUVECs. A: HUVECs were transduced first with recombinant lentivirus expressing shDNP52 targeting the 3'-UTR of NDP52 or a NS control and selected with blasticidin (5 µg/mL), and second, transduced with either vector or KapB and one of the following: mCherry control (mCh), RFP-NDP52 wt, mCh-NDP52 C443K or mCh-NDP52 V136S/C443K. Coverslips were fixed with 4% v/v paraformaldehyde,

1288 permeabilized with 0.1% Triton X-100, and were immunostained with Hedls (PBs, green). Scale

1289 bar=20 μm. B: In parallel with A, HUVECs treated as in A were immunostained using WGA (to

1290 denote cellular membranes), DAPI (nuclei) and Hedls (green). Cells were imaged and the mean

1291 number of PBs per cell were quantified using CellProfiler. Results were plotted in GraphPad.

1292

A

Time post-BafA1 (h)

	Vector				KapB			
	0	1	2	4	0	1	2	4

LC3-I
LC3-II

B

DMSO · BafA1

Vector

KapB

A

B

C

Processing Body → **KapB** → PB Disassembly → Inflammatory cytokine expression

A

Seed Cells
0 h — Transfect Cells 24 h — Induce GFP-Dcp1a 42 h — Fix Samples 54 h

GFP-Dcp1a | Hedls | KapB | Merge

Vector

KapB

B

Seed Cells
0 h — Induce GFP-Dcp1a 24 h — Transfect Cells 42 h — Fix Samples 54 h

GFP-Dcp1a | Hedls | KapB | Merge

Vector

KapB

C

Vector | KapB

Hedls | KapB | Merge | Hedls | KapB | Merge

Vehicle

Arsenite

A

Torin (250 nM)

Vector: − + KapB: − + MK2EE: − +

Long exposure — p-BRF1 (S92)

p-BRF1 (S92)

Total BRF1