Natural and designed proteins inspired by extremotolerant organisms can form

condensates and attenuate apoptosis in human cells

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ABSTRACT

Many organisms can survive extreme conditions and successfully recover to normal life. This extremotolerant behavior has been attributed in part to repetitive, amphipathic, and intrinsically disordered proteins that are upregulated in the protected state. Here, we assemble a library of approximately 300 naturally-occurring and designed extremotolerance-associated proteins to assess their ability to protect human cells from chemically-induced apoptosis. We show that proteins from tardigrades, nematodes, and the Chinese giant salamander are apoptosis protective. Notably, we identify a region of the human ApoE protein with similarity to extremotolerance-associated proteins that also protects against apoptosis. This region mirrors the phase separation behavior seen with such proteins, like the tardigrade protein CAHS2. Moreover, we identify a synthetic protein, DHR81, that shares this combination of elevated phase separation propensity and apoptosis protection. Finally, we demonstrate that driving protective proteins into the condensate state increases apoptosis protection, and highlight the ability for DHR81 condensates to sequester caspase-7. Taken together, this work draws a link between extremotolerance-associated proteins, condensate formation, and designing human cellular protection.

INTRODUCTION

When exposed to extreme environmental stress, extremotolerance-associated (*ExTol*) organisms enter a state of reduced cellular metabolic activity that promotes survival in harsh conditions. This state has been shown to protect these organisms from high salinity, desiccation, and even the vacuum of outer space [1]. To acclimate to these conditions,

ExTol organisms significantly upregulate the production of protective metabolites, like

trehalose [2], as well as tolerance-conferring proteins [3], many of which are intrinsically

disordered proteins (*IDPs*) with repetitive sequence and predicted amphipathic helices.

While the mechanism of protection is unknown, one model suggests that at least some

of these proteins mediate formation of a gel- or glass-like material state within an entire

cell to protect it from damage [3]. The model posits that such proteins promiscuously

interact with membranes and other proteins, increasing intracellular viscosity and

protecting vulnerable structures [4-6] (Figure 1A Top). Such interactions would also work to

prevent stress-induced protein unfolding and protein aggregation [7]. This vitrification

hypothesis is the subject of active investigation at the time of this writing, with evidence

both for and against its validity [8-10]. An alternative model suggests that these proteins

form intracellular phase-separated membraneless compartments with distinct physical

parameters (referred to here as *condensates*) that partition key stress-sensitive cellular

components [11] (Figure 1A Bottom). Within these dense protein structures, essential

components are sequestered and protected from damage. The models are not mutually

exclusive; for example, in the case of desiccation tolerance, continued dehydration could

lead phase-separated compartments to fuse, comprise much (if not all) of the cell, and

promote a glassy material state.

a

Protective material state

Protective compartments

Legend

IDP   Lipid   Other proteins

Partitioning of multivalent protein complexes

b

Rotifer LEA4   Alpha-synuclein

Positive
Negative
Non-polar
Aromatic
Other

c

d

KD/OE changes tolerance (5)

Sequence similar (20)

ΔExpression (35)

Orthogonal expression (32)

In vitro (19)

e

unannotated in PFAM
Repetitive
other PFAM domain
LEA domain
APOE domain
Both

12%
20%
19%
31%
10%
8%

Figure 1: Selection of candidate extremotolerance-associated proteins (a) Illustration of different protective models for cellular stress tolerance. **(b)** Illustration of amphipathic membrane interaction for rotifer LEA4 protein and Alpha-synuclein, thus highlighting a feature indicative of extremotolerance-associated proteins. **(c)** Hydrophobic moment analysis of rotifer LEA4, showing the repetitive nature of the amphipathic signature. Highlighted green segment corresponds to the LEA4 helix in (b). **(d)** Venn diagram of the lines of evidence used to select targets in the final library. Abbreviations: KD, knockdown; OE, overexpression; Δ, change in expression levels. **(e)** Domain analysis of included targets reveals LEA and ApoE domains in almost half of the targets tested. The other half contains proteins with other PFAM domains (19%) or without any affiliated PFAM entry (32%). Of the proteins lacking a known PFAM annotation, many exhibit repetitive sequence (20% of all targets).

The resurgence of interest in biological phase separation, extensively reviewed in [12-15],

has shown that human cells can employ similar strategies to survive stressful conditions.

While the reversible formation of stress granules in healthy cells is the archetype of stress

tolerance, recent studies have revealed phase separation as a key adaptation that cancer

cells use to avoid apoptosis and cell death [16-17]. Phase-separated condensates have been

implicated in sequestering key tumor repressors[17], enhancing or repressing gene

expression in response to stress [18], and regulating mRNA or protein function through

sequestration [19]. These processes parallel the mechanisms that ExTol proteins are

thought to use to protect complex biological systems, suggesting there could be some

functional overlap. That is, sequence features and properties within ExTol proteins could

be implicated in mammalian stress tolerance pathways, including apoptosis resistance.

A key sequence feature of some ExTol proteins is the presence of amphipathic helices

[20]. While disordered in most contexts, ExTol proteins can transiently form amphipathic

helices in certain molecular environments, notably when interacting with and stabilizing

membranes [6]. The helices often exhibit a hydrophobic face, which interacts with core

lipids within the membrane, flanked by positively charged residues that might interact with

the negatively charged lipid head groups (Figure 1B). This amphipathic moment often

repeats across the length of the protein (Figure 1C). This feature is a hallmark of the late

embryonic abundant (LEA) class of ExTol proteins [21]. Human membrane interacting

proteins, like alpha-synuclein, also exhibit a similar repeat motif [22]. Such parallels in

sequence features suggest that orthogonal expression of ExTol proteins may confer their

protective properties to other biological systems, like human cells.

Indeed, previous reports have shown that some of these ExTol proteins provide similar

protective properties when expressed heterologously. Expressing tardigrade-specific

IDPs (TDPs) in bacteria provides protection against desiccation [3]. Anhydrin, an IDP

upregulated by *Aphelenchus avenae* during dehydration, limits PABPN1-A17

aggregation, a hallmark of oculopharyngeal muscular dystrophy, when expressed in a

human cell line [7]. Similar reports demonstrate protection of human cells provided by

expression of LEA proteins originating from the African midge [23] and by TDPs from

tardigrades [24]. These findings reinforce the promise of transferring protective phenotypes

from their native contexts to human cells.

Taken together, these data indicate a potential avenue for using this class of proteins to

protect biological systems in a controlled manner. To test this hypothesis, we generated

approximately 300 sequences inspired by ExTol proteins and examined their ability to

protect against apoptotic cell death. Our results show that human proteins containing

sequence hallmarks of ExTol proteins as well as *de novo* designed condensate forming

proteins can protect human cells from chemically-induced apoptosis. We also

demonstrate that condensate induction using synthetic modifications can strengthen

apoptotic protection. Finally, we show that key components of the apoptotic pathway can

localize to inducible condensates, suggesting enzyme sequestration could be a

mechanism of action.

RESULTS

Assembling a library of stress tolerance proteins

Based on the hallmark sequence features of ExTol proteins, we searched the published

literature to identify proteins that not only contain these features but also exhibit some

evidence for protection of biological structures. The library was generated based on over

one hundred naturally-occurring proteins based on five lines of evidence for stress

tolerance association, including: change in expression during extremotolerance;

knockdown or overexpression changing the tolerant state; *in vitro* protection; orthogonal

expression transferring tolerance; and sequence similarity to other proteins with these

features (Figure 1D and Supplemental table 1). We also examined our sequences for the

presence of repetitive elements and intrinsic disorder (Supplemental Figure 1).

A PFAM domain analysis of the identified proteins reveals almost half of the identified

targets have two key domains: Late Embryonic Abundant (LEA) and Apolipoprotein E

(ApoE) domains (Figure 1E, Supplemental table 1). LEA proteins are well known to be

upregulated during the last stages of plant seed maturation [25]. This domain is thought to

protect the seed embryo during transport to its new destination. There is also evidence

that this domain has been co-opted by bacteria as protection from desiccation and

radiation [26]. ApoE, in contrast, is not commonly discussed in the context of

extremotolerance. ApoE proteins interact with lipid particles to allow for lipid reuptake

into cells. Mutations within human ApoE have been identified as strong genetic predictors

of Alzheimer's disease in human populations [27].

While seemingly unrelated to other proteins in our

study, we chose to include human ApoE and its

various mutations as ExTol proteins due to the

prominence of the ApoE domain in the PFAM

analysis and since they exhibit similar features as

other selected proteins (e.g. their lipid interaction

properties and phase separation tendencies [28]).

Designing novel extremotolerance-associated

proteins

To test hypotheses about sequence features and

their relationship to phase separation and

apoptosis, we designed novel proteins based on

the set of ExTol proteins. These new designs take

3 approaches (Figure 2): truncation of proteins to

focus on repetitive, intrinsically disordered, and

amphipathic regions; isolation of individual helices

with desired sequence features; and *de novo*

design of alpha helix-containing proteins that self-

assemble into higher order structures. Through

these designs, we sought to identify the minimal

Figure 2: Design based on candidate extremotolerance-associated proteins (a) Truncations were made to isolate regions of repetitive and amphipathic sequence. **(b)** Small helices were selected and altered based on their hydrophobic moment. **(c)** Synthetic alpha helix-containing proteins designed to oligomerize. **(d)** Venn diagram highlighting the library that was tested.

elements required for protection and phase separation.

First, we identified regions within natural proteins that contain intrinsic disorder [29],

repetitive sequences [30], and amphipathic helices [31]. Figure 2A illustrates the use of

HHRepID on the sequence of full length human ApoE. Based on this analysis, we

identified the repeating domain within ApoE for further testing. Other ExTol proteins were

similarly modified and examined.

We also included short peptides based on the consensus sequence of repetitive regions

that have previously been shown to be protective [32]. To test if any of the sequence

features we identified are important for apoptosis protection, we altered these features

within these short peptides. For example, we altered the amphipathic character of these

helices (Figure 2B) to determine if apoptosis protection was changed.

To examine whether generic condensate formation is sufficient to confer apoptosis

protection, we also examined completely synthetic alpha helix-containing proteins that

were designed to form repetitive structure with sequences orthogonal to naturally-

occurring proteins [33]. These designed helical repeat (DHR) proteins interact along the

axis of the helix, forming long spiraling fibrils, but may also potentially self-interact along

the face of the protein based on a pattern of positive and negative charges (Figure 2C).

This ability to oligomerize and form multivalent complexes, which may then interact via

weak non-covalent interactions, is an established determinant of condensate formation

[15].

Together, our library consists of 104 naturally-occurring proteins, 166 truncations or

isolations of helical regions, and 19 *de novo* designs (Figure 2D). These proteins

interrogate several hypotheses about how disordered proteins may protect human cells

against apoptosis.

Apoptosis assay identifies extremotolerance-associated proteins that protect

human cells

To model stress in a mammalian cell system, we induced cellular apoptosis by treatment

with the chemotherapeutic camptothecin (CPT), a DNA topoisomerase inhibitor well

known to trigger apoptosis [34-35]. Under these conditions, protection against apoptosis

could be achieved through a number of avenues, including protection against the DNA

damage caused by CPT-induced topoisomerase inhibition [34], interruption of the signaling

cascade, or even protection of the mitochondrial membrane whose rupture ultimately

triggers apoptosis [36].

To test our designs for protection against apoptosis, we used a human cell-based

apoptosis assay (Figure 3A). This assay uses HT-1080 fibrosarcoma cells from ATCC [37].

These cells are seeded in a 96-well plate and allowed to adhere overnight. The next day,

the cells are co-transfected with a plasmid encoding the ExTol candidate proteins of

interest as well as a transfection marker. The following day, the media is swapped to one

containing 13.2 µM CPT. After addition of CPT, caspase-3 and -7 activation is measured

by microscopy every 45 minutes for 1 day using a fluorophore quencher pair attached to

either end of a peptide with the sequence "DEVD". As caspase-3 and -7 are activated,

the DEVD peptide is cleaved, releasing the fluorophore from the quencher. The

unquenched fluorophore localizes to the nucleus where it can be quantified by imaging

on a single-cell level. The single-cell resolution allows for the separation of transfected

and non-transfected cells based on the transfection marker. Only single cells with the

transfection marker were subjected to further analysis; Figure 3B shows sample images

highlighting the type of data being analyzed.

On every plate, an empty vector negative control is run as well as a positive control

containing the X-linked inhibitor of apoptosis (XIAP). This protein is known to bind to

caspase-3 and -7 to block their activity [38] . Figure 3C shows example data comparing

median DEVD peptide signal intensity over time after induction with CPT of four wells on

the same plate transfected with XIAP and empty vector. The results show a reduction in

DEVD peptide signal intensity when the XIAP-containing vector is transfected,

demonstrating that the assay can identify modulators of apoptosis.

To convert these time-resolved data to a measure of protection against apoptosis, the

maximum DEVD peptide signal intensity is calculated and normalized to a plate-matched

empty vector control (see methods for further details). The normalized apoptosis induction

intensity is shown in Figure 3D left. The data are slightly skewed towards apoptosis-

protection, which supports our hypothesis that the targeted proteins can protect against

apoptosis.

Figure 3: Screen for CPT resistance by extremotolerance-associated proteins (a) Flow diagram of the assay. **(b)** Representative images showing cells during the assay. Cells are identified using SiR-Hoechst marking the nucleus (*blue*). Transfected cells are identified by the presence of the mCherry marker (*green*). Finally, the degree of apoptosis is identified by the presence of the cleaved DEVD peptide (*red*). **(c)** Positive control showing apoptosis reduction upon expression of XIAP. **(d)** Bar graph highlighting the apoptosis resistance provided by different constructs, including zoomed in area to highlight the top hits in the assay. Source species of a sequence are abbreviated and shown in italics; abbreviations are drawn from Uniprot, including *RAMVA* (*Ramazzottius varieornatus*), *HYPDU* (*Hypsibius dujardini* or *Hypsibius exemplaris* historical naming), *PARRC* (Paramacrobiotus richtersi), *ANDDA* (*Andrias davidianus*), *APHAV* (*Aphelenchus avenae*), *ARTSF* (*Artemia franciscana*), *CRAPL* (*Craterostigma plantagineum*), and *DEIRA* (*Deinococcus radiodurans*).

To highlight the top-performing designs, the top 10% of the targets are shown in Figure

3D right. As expected, the XIAP positive control showed the strongest anti-apoptotic

effect. The two top-performing hits were ApoE designs. Human alpha-synuclein is the 5th

hit, which is expected as it is known to be both intrinsically disordered, and anti-apoptotic

[39]. Additionally, several ApoE designs and short LEA helices are top hits. The data used

to generate these figures is included in supplemental table 2.

Known extremotolerance-associated proteins affect apoptosis

Among the top hits in apoptosis reduction are an IGKV protein highly expressed in mucus

of the Chinese giant salamander *Andrias davidianus* [40] that is used as a medical glue in

traditional Chinese medicine, an LEA protein from the nematode *Aphelenchus avenae*

previously shown to have the ability to reduce a form of protein aggregation associated

with oculopharyngeal muscular dystrophy in human cells [7], and a mitochondrial LEA

protein from the brine shrimp *Artemia franciscana* shown to protect human cells during

desiccation [23] (Figure 3D). The prominence of these ExTol proteins suggests the assay

can help identify other proteins that can protect cells from more general stresses beyond

CPT-induced apoptosis.

Short repetitive peptides and *de novo* designs modulate apoptosis

LEA repeat-containing peptides are among the top-performing hits in the screen. While

the original short LEA designs from Furuki et al. 2019 had a minor effect reducing

apoptosis, several of the designs tested here performed better (Supplemental Figure 2A)

[32]. As 22 amino acids is small and could lead to peptide stability issues, longer 50-amino

acid designs inspired by the same LEA proteins utilized by Furuki et al. were also

developed (Supplemental Figure 2B). Some of these designs were also able to reduce

apoptosis, including the PvLEA4 with extended repeats (notably PvLEA4 repeats

extended #2), which fell into the top hits of the entire library (Figure 3D and Supplemental

Figure 2B). These results suggest that optimization of synthetic designs yields proteins

with stronger function than naturally-occurring proteins.

While these proteins were designed to interrogate the relationship between sequence

and apoptosis protection in short peptides, little relationship was found with respect to the

sequence features we analyzed (Supplemental Figure 2C). Several designs were made

that would alter the hydrophobic moments of putative helices these peptides are predicted

to form. To examine if this sequence property relates to the stress-tolerance function of

these proteins, we attempted to correlate this property with assay performance. However,

no significant correlation was found, suggesting (at least in these cases and experimental

conditions) that degree of amphipathicity on its own is not the key determinant of stress-

tolerance function of these proteins.

The repeat region of ApoE comprises its minimal anti-apoptotic unit

The top two hits in the assay were ApoE4 (47-300) and ApoE2 (47-300). These truncated

forms of ApoE maintain the repeat domains shown in Figure 4A, while removing the signal

peptide and terminal regions. This suggests that the repeat region of ApoE accounts for

its core anti-apoptotic functionality. Interestingly, the full length ApoE2 and E4 do not

show up as top hits, suggesting that these truncated forms improve on the apoptosis

protection provided by the full-length variants (Figure 4B).

Based on the location of the signal peptide, it is expected that ApoE4 should localize to

the secretory pathway whereas the truncated form may be cytoplasmic. To test this

hypothesis, cells were subjected to Western blot and immunofluorescence analysis using

commercially available antibodies (Abcam ab24139; Figure 4C and Supplemental Figure

3A). The Western blot results show that both the full-length and truncated forms of ApoE4

are expressed at the expected size (Supplemental Figure 3A). The immunofluorescence

shows co-localization between the ApoE4 full length protein and the endoplasmic

reticulum (marked by Thermo's PDI antibody MA3-019, Figure 4C). However, the

truncated form did not show the same co-localization, suggesting as expected that it may

not enter the secretory pathway as the full-length version does.

Strikingly, the truncated version appeared to form more pronounced puncta throughout

the cytoplasm of the cell, suggesting the formation of potentially phase-separated

condensates. In screening through the point mutants of ApoE also tested here, we found

a similar condensate phenotype with the full length ApoE3 D125I mutation (Supplemental

Figure 3B). Together, these data suggest that ApoE may be able to support condensate

formation and confer apoptosis protection in part via the protective compartment

mechanism (Figure 1A bottom).

Fig. 4. ApoE truncations and synthetic condensates further reduce apoptosis.
(a) Gene diagram highlighting the repetitive region of ApoE. **(b)** Boxplots highlighting the apoptosis assay performance of the full length and truncated forms of ApoE2 and E4. **(c)** Immunofluorescence of ApoE4, full length and truncated forms. *White* indicates colocalization, which is more apparent with the full-length protein. The truncated form appears to exhibit larger and more distinguishable puncta. **(d)** Diagram of the induced multi-valency systems implemented here, including the light-inducible system (*top*) and the chemically-inducible system (*bottom*). For the chemically induced system, we used two FKBP domains. **(e)** Condensate formation assay using the light-inducible system, including the *PARRC* CAHS2 positive control showing condensates only upon light induction and several ApoE examples that form condensates both before and after induction. **(f)** Condensate formation assay using the chemically-inducible system, including the *PARRC* CAHS2 positive control showing condensates only upon added dimerizer and ApoE4 (47-300) exhibiting condensates both before and after induction. **(g)** Apoptosis data showing reduction in apoptosis upon condensate induction with dimerizer. Data are normalized to mean apoptosis level of uninduced (i.e. no dimerizer) sample for each construct.

Induced multivalency to probe the relation between condensates and apoptosis

We made use of established condensate engineering tools [41] to test for latent phase separation propensity among a selection of ExTol proteins representing the range of apoptosis effects. We used both light- and chemically-inducible systems of multivalency. In the light system, a ferritin core (comprised of self-assembled monomers, FTH1 domain-eGFP-iLID) becomes decorated with SspB-modified proteins upon exposure to blue light [42] (Figure 4D top). In the chemical system, multivalency (i.e. multiple arms of the ExTol protein of interest) is induced using a dimerization agent [43] that brings together FKBP-modified proteins [41] (Figure 4D bottom). These inducible methods increase the valency of a system, and thus work to favor phase separation. In this way, they can help reveal any latent ability to form condensates that is not immediately observable without modification.

Condensates were indeed observed in a number of ExTol proteins (Supplemental Figure 4), including ApoE, *ARTSF* LEA3m, DHR81, *HYPDU* CAHS3, and *PARRC* CAHS2 using the light-inducible system. For those proteins with no visible condensates, the experimental conditions may be insufficient to support phase separation. *PARRC* CAHS2 exhibited the most dramatic phenotype, which is consistent with recent work describing the gel forming capabilities of CAHS proteins [44-45] (Figure 4E&F). ApoE variants were of interest, based on the puncta observed in the top performing ApoE constructs. All versions of ApoE tested formed puncta without activation, consistent with our previous observation using untagged native ApoE (Figure 4C). Upon light- or chemical-activation,

there is a noticeable increase in condensates, exemplifying how phase separation can be

enhanced with increased multivalency (Figure 4E&F).

To examine how enhanced phase separation may affect apoptosis, we performed the

apoptosis assay with ExTol proteins that were modified for chemically-induced

multivalency. Chemical induction was more compatible with the apoptosis assay, while

enabling the same increase in condensates seen with the light-induced system (Figure

4F). We observed that the presence of the chemical dimerizer had little to no effect on

apoptosis in cells transfected with the empty vector, with a construct encoding the

dimerization domains alone, or with constructs encoding an ExTol protein that was not

strongly anti-apoptotic (e.g. *PARRC* CAHS2) (Figure 4G; Supplemental Figure 5). In

contrast, with constructs encoding a strongly anti-apoptotic ExTol protein – including

ApoE, *ARTSF* LEA3m, and DHR81 – added dimerizer corresponded with reduced

apoptosis in transfected cells (Figure 4G; Supplemental Figure 5). These data suggest

that condensate formation plays a role in the anti-apoptotic effect of these proteins.

Synthetic DHR81 condensates sequester caspase-7

To begin elucidating the mechanism by which ExTol proteins protect against apoptosis,

particularly the hypothesis of membraneless compartments that sequester essential

effectors, we examined the ability for the various condensates to partition apoptotic

signaling molecules, identifying the synthetic protein DHR81 as the only ExTol protein

capable of doing so. DHR81 is a synthetic alpha helical-rich protein designed to promote

self-interaction. It is formed from four helical hairpin repeat regions; the core of the protein

is hydrophobic to ensure consistent folding, while

its outside is decorated with checkerboard positive

and negative charges (Figure 5A) [33]. This structure

ensures the protein is well folded, while also

enabling the potential for higher order structure

formation via electrostatic interactions. Not only

did DHR81 support condensates in the

chemically-inducible condensate system (Figure

5B), it also exhibited a strong increase in apoptotic

protection after induced-multivalency (Figure 5C;

Supplemental Figure 5&6A).

As such, we chose DHR81, along with a few other

ExTol proteins with notable phase separation

phenotypes (i.e. ApoE4 and *PARRC* CAHS2), to

further explore how their condensates may confer

an anti-apoptotic effect. Specifically, we used

immunofluorescence to examine whether they

sequester major components of apoptotic

signaling, namely caspase-3 and -7. The results

showed that activated caspase-7 localized to

DHR81 condensates but not *PARRC* CAHS2 or

ApoE4 condensates (Figure 5D), while caspase-3

Fig. 5. DHR81 condensate formation and apoptosis reduction. (a) Diagram of DHR81, illustrating a charge distribution that can support oligomerization. **(b)** Sample images highlighting how the synthetic protein DHR81 supports chemically-induced condensates. **(c)** Apoptosis is further reduced in the presence of dimerizer (i.e. with induced DHR81 condensates). The FKBP-modifications alone, which enable chemically-induced multi-valency, have a minimal effect on apoptosis. **(d)** Activated caspase-7 (*green*) co-localizes with DHR81 condensates but not *PARRC* CAHS2 or ApoE4 (47-300) condensates (*magenta*). *White* indicates colocalization.

did not localize to any of the examined condensates (Supplemental Figure 6B). Even

though condensate properties may confound (i.e. physically occlude) antibody binding

during immunofluorescence, the positive DHR81 result suggests sequestration of key

apoptotic factors can indeed be a potential mechanism by which these condensates

reduce apoptosis.

Discussion

To broadly evaluate the ability of ExTol proteins to protect orthogonal systems from

environmental stress, we studied over one hundred different ExTol proteins. We used

these as a basis to design approximately 300 variants, including truncations and fusion

proteins. These designs were evaluated on their ability to protect human HT-1080 cells

against CPT-induced apoptosis. The results showed that known ExTol proteins, ApoE

variants, and the synthetic DHR81 protein could modulate apoptosis levels when

transferred to human cells.

Protection against apoptosis is a key feature of many ExTol proteins. As apoptosis is a

common cellular response to stress, the ability to mitigate this response is important in

providing cell-autonomous protection in stressful environments. While the mechanism

resilient organisms use to survive is still not fully understood, it is becoming increasingly

clear that phase separation may play an important role. Some ExTol proteins are

proposed to form expansive higher order structures (e.g. gels or glassy systems) that

reduce the viscosity of the cytoplasm, especially in desiccated states [3]. Other reports

show that these proteins could mediate formation of protective phase-separated

compartments (i.e. condensates) that sequester damage-inducing proteins and/or protect

important targets [11]. Based on our data, it appears the latter may be at play for proteins

like ApoE, *ARTSF* LEA3m, and DHR81, which exhibit anti-apoptotic effects while also

being condensate prone.

Condensates alone are not sufficient for apoptosis protection. While we observe

condensate formation in many of our top performing hits, we also observe condensate

formation in targets like *HYPDU* CAHS3 and *PARRC* CAHS2, which do not reduce

apoptosis very much. Additionally, some proteins like *PARRC* CAHS1 (101-189) are

truncated in ways predicted to reduce condensate formation[44, 46-47], but they still perform

well in apoptosis protection. These observations suggest yet-to-be-discovered

mechanisms are likely responsible for apoptosis protection in these cases. However, for

those proteins that exhibit both anti-apoptotic effects as well as elevated phase separation

propensities, increasing the amount of condensates via an engineered inducible system

led to stronger apoptosis protection (Supplemental Figure 5). In these cases,

condensates could be a key part of the protective mechanism.

Specifically, we observed that activated caspase-7 partitions into DHR81 condensates,

suggesting caspase sequestration as a potential anti-apoptotic mechanism. Phase-

separated condensates and higher order assemblies are already implicated in mediating

apoptosis: stress granules inhibit apoptosis by suppressing MAPK pathways [48]; the

apoptosome relies on Apaf-1 multimerization, which has been reported to undergo

amyloid fibrillation in specific conditions [49]; and stress-dependent phase separation

modulates proteasome formation, whose function affects apoptosis [50-51]. It is interesting

to note that we only observe clear caspase-7 partitioning into DHR81 condensates,

suggesting the possibility of a specific binding interaction in this case. ApoE and *ARTSF*

LEA3m condensates may be sequestering other apoptotic factors or using a different

mechanism to reduce apoptosis.

It is also possible that these ExTol proteins achieve their anti-apoptotic effect by

implementing a more general physical mechanism, namely slowing the intracellular

mobility of biological effectors. There are various reports describing how the effective

viscosity within the cytoplasm can be increased in response to external stresses [4-5] or

mediated by protein composition, specifically intrinsically disordered proteins [52]. Notably,

a pervasive cell-spanning gel or network is not necessary to achieve such an effect; it is

possible that the presence of condensates, coupled with their ability to selectively partition

biomolecules (i.e. control what biomolecules can enter and diffuse through them), could

broadly slow biomolecular movement. That is, by forcing different proteins to either be

trapped in them or diffuse around them, condensates can decrease protein mobility and

perturb e.g. signaling pathways. Our results showing a lack of caspase-3 and -7

sequestration by most of our protein condensates could thus support this more general

mechanism of condensates perturbing biology, though they certainly do not disqualify

sequestration of other effectors not examined in this study.

Condensates are becoming increasingly implicated in disease [13], particularly when their

structural metastability and reversibility is dysregulated (e.g. through mutation). Notably,

drugs that block the formation of amyloid fibrils and plaques, which are products of phase

separation dysregulation, are promising yet strongly debated [53] therapies for many

neurological diseases. As such, our observations concerning ApoE proteins, while

unexpected from an extremotolerance perspective, are particularly salient. We found that

expression of a cytoplasmic form of ApoE is protective against apoptosis. In particular,

the truncated repeat region of ApoE is sufficient and shows the strongest anti-apoptotic

activity of all designs we tested. Others have shown similar effects for exogenously added

ApoE-containing liposomes protecting rat neurons against apoptosis [54], though we show

the effect through overexpression of ApoE inside of human cells. When combined with

our condensate results and the clinical relevance of ApoE in Alzheimer's disease [55], these

observations suggest the anti-apoptotic effect observed here warrants further study, to

further elucidate its role in Alzheimer's disease progression.

Altogether, our work expands upon the understanding of the relationship between

condensate formation and cell physiology, demonstrating how condensate accumulation

can be beneficial in reducing apoptosis while also identifying diverse new protein domains

that confer protection. The proteins and concepts presented here demonstrate the utility

of this class of proteins for engineering new properties into cells and ultimately higher

organisms.

Methods

Cell culturing and maintenance

HT-1080 cells (ATCC, CCL-121) were maintained in EMEM medium supplemented with

10% FBS and Penicillin-Streptomycin according to ATCC's protocol. For additional details

see supplemental methods.

DNA Preparation

Apoptosis constructs were synthesized from TWIST and transformed into DH5α cells for

amplification and plasmid purification. Condensate assay constructs were subcloned from

these synthesized constructs into vectors containing the appropriate chemically or light

inducible condensate elements. DNA was prepared using the QIAGEN Plasmid Plus Midi

Kit (Qiagen 12943) for transfection grade DNA purification. See supplemental methods

for additional details.

Apoptosis assay

200 µL of HT-1080 cells at to 7.5×10^4 cells per mL (15000 cells per well) were added to

each well of a microscope grade 96 well plate (Corning 3603). Plates were then

centrifuged at 330 rpm for 3 mins (Eppendorf, Centrifuge 5810). Plates were then

incubated at 37°C for 24 hours. Cells were then transfected with appropriate DNA

constructs with the lipofectamine 3000 kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific, L3000015) as

specified by the manufacturer. 24 hours after transfection, the transfection media was

removed and replaced with FluoroBrite DMEM Media (Thermo A1896702) supplemented

with 1x GlutaMAX (Thermo 35-050-061) and 10% FBS (Thermo Fisher Scientific,

10082147). This media also contained 13.2 µM (S)-(+)-Camptothecin (Sigma C9911-

100MG), 0.3 µM SiR-DNA stain (SpiroChrome CY-SC007), and 1.25 µM of the DEVD

peptide for detecting caspase activation (Sartorius 4440). The plates were sealed with

sterile Breathe-Easy film (USA scientific 9123-6100) and incubated at 37°C with 5% CO_2

for 30 minutes. After 30 min incubation, the plates were placed in an ImageXpress-

confocal plate imager with CO_2, humidity, and temperature control set to 37°C with 5%

CO_2 (Molecular Devices). Images of all wells were taken every 45 minutes and stored on

a remote server for later analysis. See supplemental methods for further details on this

method as well as the image analysis pipeline used.

Confocal microscopy

Confocal microscopy was done at the Nikon Imaging Center at Harvard Medical School

using a Nikon Ti fluorescence microscope attached to a Yokogawa W1 spinning disk

confocal. See supplemental methods for further details on the equipment and settings

used.

Light inducible condensate assay

HEK293-T cells were seeded on 96 well glass bottom plates from Cellvis (P96-1.5H-N).

Cells within each well were transfected with 50 ng of the LLPS1-iLID::EGFP::FTH1

(Addgene plasmid #122149) construct containing the core FTH1 scaffolding domain

attached to iLID for light inducible interactions. The cells were also transfected with 50 ng

of a construct containing the target protein attached to mCherry and SspB. The

transfection was allowed to continue overnight before the media was swapped to

FluoroBrite media supplemented with 10% FBS and 1x GlutaMAX. The cells were then

imaged using the settings listed above for mCherry and eGFP for the pre-induction

images. The cells were then exposed to 1 second of the DAPI imaging protocol described

in supplemental methods before new images were captured on the mCherry and eGFP

settings.

Chemically inducible condensate assay

HT-1080 cells were seeded on 96 well glass bottom plates from Cellvis (P96-1.5H-N).

Cells within each well were transfected with 50 ng of target construct fused to a mCherry-

2xFKBP domain. The transfection was allowed to continue overnight before the media

was swapped to FluoroBrite media supplemented with 10% FBS, 1x GlutaMAX, and 300

nM SiR-Hoechst. The cells were then imaged using the settings listed in the supplemental

methods for mCherry and SiR-Hoechst for the pre-induction images. Then, B/B dimerizer

(AP20187 ligand; TaKaRa 635058) was added to a final concentration of 500 nM in the

well. Imaging continued for 15 minutes with new images every 45 seconds.

Caspase assay with chemically induced condensates

These caspase assays are performed similarly to the standard caspase assays with a

few key differences. Briefly, HT-1080 cells were seeded as normal on to 96 well plates

and allowed to adhere overnight. The next day, 12.5 ng of nuclear mCherry marker and

37.5 ng of the target construct fused to mCherry-2xFKBP was transfected into the cells

as described above. The next day, 500 nM of the B/B dimerizer (TaKaRa 635058) was

added 2 hours before the start of the assay (or an Ethanol vehicle control was added).

The media was then removed and replaced with the apoptosis assay media described

above with the addition of 500 nM B/B dimerizer or a vehicle control. See supplemental

methods for further details.

Abbreviations

ExTol: extremotolerance-associated

IDP: Intrinsically Disordered Protein

LEA: Late Embryonic Abundant (protein)

ApoE: Apolipoprotein E

DHR: Designed helical repeat (protein)

CPT: Camptothecin

ATCC: American Type Culture Collection

XIAP: X-linked inhibitor of apoptosis

CAHS: Cytosolic Abundant Heat Soluble (protein)

FTH1: Ferritin Heavy Chain 1

iLID: light inducible dimer

SspB: Stringent Starvation Protein B

eGFP: Enhanced Green Fluorescent Protein

FKBP: FK506 binding protein

PvLEA: *Polypedilum vanderplanki* Late Embryonic Abundant (Protein)

MAPK: Mitogen-activated protein kinase

Apaf: Apoptotic protease activating factor

EMEM: Eagle's Minimum Essential Medium

FBS: Fetal bovine serum

DMEM: Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Medium

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Author Contributions

M.T.V. and D.T.N. designed and performed experiments, analyzed the data, and wrote

the paper. N.N.T. analyzed the data and wrote the paper. M.E.O provided technical

support. N.J.R., K.B.B., N.P.B., and S.L., designed constructs. D.B. and J.C.W. managed

the teams and provided key insight. D.S.M., R.L.C., and P.A.S., designed constructs,

managed teams, and wrote the paper.

Conflict of interest statement

No conflicts of interest

Supporting information

Supporting information contains supplemental figures providing additional context to the

figures in the main text. This includes: Supplemental Figures 1 through 6 supporting the

data presented in the main text.

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741   **Visual Table of Contents entry:**
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Natural and designed proteins inspired by extremotolerant organisms can form condensates and attenuate apoptosis in human cells

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A

B

22 **Supplemental Figure 1 (a)** Distribution of fractional disorder within the sequences of
23 the selected ExTol proteins. **(b)** Distribution of fractional repeats within the sequences of
24 the selected ExTol proteins.

Supplemental Figure 2 (a) Graph and sequences of various LEA repeats tested, with full sequences and performance. **(b)** Graph and sequences of extended LEA repeats tested. **(c)** Correlation analysis for relationship between hydrophobic moment with apoptosis assay performance.

32 **Supplemental Figure 3 (a)** Western blot data of some ApoE constructs showing
33 expression at the expected molecular weight. **(b)** Sample images showing condensates
34 forming in the full length ApoE3 D125I mutation.
35

Supplemental Figure 4 (a) Apoptosis assay data highlighting all the ExTol proteins tested and their apoptosis assay performance. Note that red and blue colored font refer to whether condensates were visible or not, respectively, via our microscopy. **(b)** Light inducible condensate formation assays for selected ExTol proteins. Data shown includes all tested proteins with visible condensates.

A

ApoE4 (47-300)   *ARTSF* LEA3m   DHR81   *HYPDU* CAHS3   PARRC CAHS2

−

Dimerizer

+

10 μm

B

$Log_2\left(\frac{+\,dimerizer}{-\,dimerizer}\right)$

Dimerizer   −   +

C

Condensates

Active caspase-7

Overlay

10 μm

47
48

a

$Log_2\left(\dfrac{+ \, dimerizer}{- \, dimerizer}\right)$

.2

-.2

-.4

-.6

| Dimerizer | − | + | − | + |
| Protein | Empty Vector | | DHR81 | |

b

Condensates | CAHS2 | ApoE4 (47-300) | DHR81

Active caspase-3

Overlay

10 µm

Supplemental Figure 6 (**a**) DHR81 inducible condensates reduce apoptosis. (**b**) Sample images showing no co-localization between activated caspase 3 and condensates.

53   **Table S1:** Supplemental table containing constructs and designs used in this study
54
55   **Table S2:** Data values obtained for apoptosis experiments

Supplemental Methods

CONTACT FOR REAGENT AND RESOURCE SHARING

Further information and requests for resources and reagents should be directed to and will be fulfilled by the Lead Contact, Pamela Silver.

EXPERIMENTAL MODEL AND SUBJECT DETAILS

Escherichia coli strain DH5α (NEB) was used for all DNA synthesis applications and grown at 37°C in LB media with antibiotics. Mammalian cell culture work was done in *Homo sapiens* HT-1080. See methods below for more details.

METHOD DETAILS

Cell culturing and maintenance

Eagle's Minimum Essential Medium (EMEM) (ATCC 20-2003), Heat-inactivated Fetal Bovine Serum (FBS) (Thermo Fisher Scientific 10082147), and Penicillin-Streptomycin (Corning 30-002-Cl) were all vacuum sterilized by filtration (0.22 µm pore size, Corning, 430767) and used for maintaining cell growth. Cells were maintained at 37°C. *Homo sapiens* HT-1080 cells (ATCC, CCL-121) were thawed in a 37°C water bath and immediately transferred to a cell culture flask. Cells were then grown for 48 hours. At this point, the media was gently aspirated and replaced and cells were allowed to grow for another 24 hours. Cells were then split into new flasks at one third of the density (Trypsin EDTA 1X 0.25% Trypsin/ 2.21mM EDTA in HBSS without sodium bicarbonate, calcium and magnesium, VWR 45000-664) and continued to grow in EMEM supplemented by FBS and Penicillin-Streptomycin.

Cloning apoptosis constructs

The empty vector used in the apoptosis assay was pSecTag2 A ordered from Thermo (V90020). A GFP sequence was cloned into this vector to provide a replacement sequence for Twist Biosciences to clone over. The resulting vector (YK 02, vector map can be found here https://benchling.com/s/seq-gjUPUvEDiLQT6K6CyGPI) was onboarded at Twist Biosciences. The cloning location was specified using the "replace GFP" feature in the YK 02 vector map described above. Column C of Table S1 specifies

the insert that was used to replace the GFP. The resulting vectors are identical to the YK 02 map shown above with the sequence from column C overwriting the "replace GFP" feature in the map.

Cloning condensate constructs

To generate the light inducible constructs, the same YK 02 backbone was used. The target sequence was appended before a short linker, an mCherry sequence, another short linker, and the SspB protein (Addgene plasmid #122148). The chemically inducible condensate sequences were generated by attaching the target protein up stream of an mCherry and 2x FKBP (F36V) sequences. The below table includes vector maps of the vectors created

Vector ID	Name	Sequence map
pBS1043	CAHS2parrc-mCh-SspB	https://benchling.com/s/seq-mwhbZwTC9pJF1uR8owV2
pBS1068	ApoE2_47-300_mCh-SspB	https://benchling.com/s/seq-MCLamVEadIFGtsvDoeS0
pBS1069	ApoE4_47-300_mCh-SspB	https://benchling.com/s/seq-v0A5J1H806zWv64cogkG
pBS1072	DHR81_Nccapped_mCh-SspB	https://benchling.com/s/seq-Yyqj5GsaPVjLGjLw7wUY
pBS1109	CAHS2parrc-mCh-2xFKBP	https://benchling.com/s/seq-JahUmtrgF84VBOBCvEEj
pBS1111	ApoE2_47-300_mCh-2xFKBP	https://benchling.com/s/seq-Nh0mlTXD5ciGEgfp7qCz
pBS1112	ApoE4_47-300_mCh-2xFKBP	https://benchling.com/s/seq-geutb277CV3mCzZfKgOv
pBS1113	ApoE3_47-300_mCh-2xFKBP	https://benchling.com/s/seq-vV2W6H7pDo4Itr6c85vW
pBS1114	ApoE3_D125I_47-300_mCh-2xFKBP	https://benchling.com/s/seq-2ej7AZbyfB2FaIneJxdp
pBS1115	DHR81_Nccapped_mCh-2xFKBP	https://benchling.com/s/seq-JFzThIQ8s83yDljKC0O6

DNA Preparation

All DNA was synthesized from TWIST and transformed into DH5α cells for amplification and plasmid purification using the QIAGEN Plasmid Plus Midi Kit for transfection grade DNA purification.

Cell seeding

HT-1080 cells were washed with Phosphate-Buffered Saline (PBS) (Thermo Fisher Scientific, AM9625) and trypsinized. Cell density was determined by optical density with an automated cell counter (BIO RAD TC20), cell counting slides (BIO RAD, 1450015) and 0.4% solution Trypan Blue (BIO RAD, 1450021). After live cell count was obtained, cells were diluted to 7.5×10^4 cells per mL in Eagle's Minimum Essential Medium (EMEM) (ATCC, 20-2003) supplemented with 10% Heat-inactivated Fetal Bovine Serum (FBS) (Thermo Fisher Scientific, 10082147), that had been previously vacuum sterilized by filtration (0.22 μm pore size, Corning). 200 μL of cells were added to each well of a microscope grade 96 well plate (Corning 3603). Plates were then centrifuged at 330 rpm for 3 mins (Eppendorf, Centrifuge 5810). Plates were then incubated at 37°C for 24 hours.

Transfection

HT-1080 cells were transfected 24 hours after plating on 96-well plates and were carried out in EMEM (ATCC, 20-2003) supplemented with 10% FBS (Thermo Fisher Scientific, 10082147). Prior to starting the transfection, the seeding media was removed and fresh media was added to the plate. Per well, 75 ng of target DNA and 25 ng of an mCherry transfection marker were transfected. This was achieved by mixing 360 ng of target DNA and 120 ng of mCherry transfection marker DNA together in a strip tube. Separately, a mix was prepared containing 750 μL of Opti-MEM (Thermo 31985062) and 30 μL of the p3000 reagent from the lipofectamine 3000 kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific, L3000015). 24 μL of this mix was added to the well containing the target DNA and transfection marker. Again, in a separate tube, a mix was prepared containing 750 μL of Opti-MEM and 45 μL of the the lipofectamine reagent. 24 μL of this mix was also added to the well containing the target DNA and transfection marker. This mix was briefly vortexed and allowed to stand for 5 minutes before 10 μL of the mix was added to 4 wells on the plate.

CPT treatment for caspase assay.

24 hours after transfection, the transfection media was removed and replaced with FluoroBrite DMEM Media (Thermo A1896702) supplemented with 1x GlutaMAX (Thermo 35-050-061) and 10% FBS (Thermo Fisher Scientific, 10082147). This media also contained 13.2 μM (S)-(+)-Camptothecin (Sigma C9911-100MG), 0.3 μM SiR-DNA stain (SpiroChrome CY-SC007), and 1.25 μM of the DEVD peptide for detecting caspase

activation (Sartorius 4440). The plates were sealed with sterile Breathe-Easy film (USA scientific 9123-6100) and incubated at 37°C with 5% CO_2 for 30 minutes.

Imaging for caspase assay without condensate induction

After 30 min incubation, the plates were placed in an ImageXpress-confocal plate imager with CO_2, humidity, and temperature control set to 37°C with 5% CO_2 (Molecular Devices). Images of all wells were taken every 45 minutes for 22.5 hours and stored on a remote server for later analysis.

Imaging for caspase assay with condensate induction

The imaging process was very similar to the caspase assay without condensate induction with the exception that most assays (those on plates 20210715, 20210914, and 20210924) were collected for 30 hours instead of 22.5. The images captured on the 20211226 plate were only captured for 22.5 hours.

Western blotting

Cells were cultured and transfected in 6 well dishes as described above but scaled up 30-fold to match the difference in surface area. The day after transfection, cells were scraped and collected into a 1.5 mL conical tube. Pellets were resuspended in about 1x pellet volume of RIPA buffer (10 mM Tris-Cl pH 8.0, 1 mM EDTA, 0.5 mM EGTA, 1% Triton X-100, 0.1% sodium deoxycholate, 0.1% SDS, 140 mM NaCl). Cells were allowed to lyse on ice for 30 min before being spun at 20,000xg for 1 min at 4°C. The resulting clarified lysate was run on 12% bis tris in MES buffer at 200 v for about 1 h. The gel was transferred to a membrane using the iBlot-2 membrane transfer system. The blot was then blocked for 1 hour at room temperature with agitation in 5% non-fat dried milk in TBS before adding the primary antibody and incubating overnight at 4°C. Below is a table of primary antibodies used and their dilution factors. All antibodies were used in TBST containing 1% non-fat dried milk.

Supplier	Order Number	Target	Dilution Factor
Sigma	F1804	FLAG	1:100
Abcam	ab24139	ApoE	1:200

| Abcam | ab8227 | Actin | 1:1000 |
| Abcam | ab8224 | Actin | 1:1000 |

The next day, the blot was washed 3x in TBST before being stained with secondary antibody for 1 hour at room temperature. Below is a table of the secondary antibodies used.

Supplier	Order Number	Target	Dilution Factor	Fluorophore
VWR	102971-154	Mouse	1:15000	800 CW
VWR	103011-498	Rabbit	1:15000	680 RD

Membranes were then scanned using a LICOR CLx instrument using auto exposure.

Immunofluorescence

Cells were grown on 96 well glass bottom plates from Cellvis (P96-1.5H-N). Cells were cultured and transfected as described above. Cells were fixed in 4% formaldehyde in culture medium. The cells were then washed 3x with PBS. Cells were then permeabilized with 100% cold MeOH for 10 min while being stored at-20°C. Permeabilized cells were blocked with PBS containing 1% BSA and 0.15% Triton X-100 for 1 hour. Blocking solution was removed and fresh blocking solution with a dilution of the primary antibody was added back to the well. Below is a table of the antibodies used and their dilution factors. Antibodies were left to bind overnight in the cold room.

Supplier	Order Number	Target	Dilution Factor
Sigma	F1804	FLAG	1:500
Thermo	MA3-019	PDI	1:400
Abcam	ab24139	ApoE	1:500
Cell Signaling Technologies	9507S	Caspase-9	1:200
Cell Signaling Technologies	8438T	Caspase-7	1:500
Cell Signaling Technologies	9664T	Caspase-3	1:500
Cell Signaling Technologies	12963S	Cytochrome C	1:200

Cell Signaling Technologies	89477S	Bax	1:1000
Cell Signaling Technologies	2933S	Bim	1:100
Abcam	ab32445	Bad	1:50

The next day, the primary containing solution was removed, and the cells were washed with PBS 3x. PBS containing 1% BSA, 0.15% Triton X-100, and 2 µg/mL of DAPI was prepared. Depending on the source of the primary antibody and the desired fluorescent channel, the appropriate secondary antibody was added to stain the cells. This mix was added to the cells and allowed to stain for 1 hour in the dark at room temperature. Below is a table of the secondary antibodies used here.

Supplier	Order Number	Target	Dilution Factor	Fluorophore
Thermo	A-11029	Mouse	1:2000	Alexa Fluor 488
Thermo	A-11008	Rabbit	1:2000	Alexa Fluor 488
Thermo	A-11031	Mouse	1:2000	Alexa Fluor 568
Thermo	A-11036	Rabbit	1:2000	Alexa Fluor 568
Thermo	A-21235	Mouse	1:2000	Alexa Fluor 647
Thermo	A-21245	Rabbit	1:2000	Alexa Fluor 647

After staining, the cells were washed 3x with PBS before being stored in PBS for imaging.

Confocal microscopy

Confocal microscopy was done at the Nikon Imaging Center at Harvard Medical School using a Nikon Ti fluorescence microscope attached to a Yokogawa W1 spinning disk confocal. The microscope was equipped with a Nikon Perfect Focus System for focus assistance. A 60x objective was used for image capture (60x Nikon Plan Apo 60x 1.4 NA DCI N2). Live cell imaging was done with a Okolab Stage Top Incubator at 37°C 5% CO_2 mounted on top of a Prior Proscan III motorized stage and shutters. Fixed cells were imaged in the PBS whereas live cells were imaged in FluoroBrite supplemented with 10% FBS and 1x GlutaMAX. The fluorophores used include the Alexa Fluor series (488,568, and 647) as well as mCherry, DAPI, SiR-Hoechst (SpiroChrome, CHF260.00), and eGFP

depending on the experiment. Below is a table of the filters used to detect each fluorophore.

Fluorophore	Excitation Laser	Emission Filter
Alexa Fluor 488	488	Chroma ET525/50m
Alexa Fluor 568	561	Chroma ET605/52m
Alexa Fluor 647	640	Chroma ET705/72m
DAPI	405	Chroma ET455/50m
SiR-Hoechst	640	Chroma ET705/72m
mCherry	561	Chroma ET705/72m
eGFP	488	Chroma ET525/50m

Excitation was done with a Nikon LUN-F XL solid state laser. Images were captured on a Hamamatsu ORCA-Fusion BT CMOS camera ($6.5 \ \mu m^2$ photodiode). Captured images were saved using NIS-Elements.

QUANTIFICATION AND STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Image analysis for caspase assay

The proprietary MetaXpress software was used to analyze the images. Within this software is a "find round objects" option. This was used to identify the initial nuclei of the cells. These nuclei were modified with the "expand without touching" option set to default settings. The area already defined by the nucleus was taken out using the area algebra feature to define the local area that is not the nucleus of the cell. The software was then set to quantify the FITC (DEVD peptide) and TRITC (Transfection marker) signals within the defined nuclear area and the local background. Each cell was assigned nuclear and background signals for TRITC and FITC values. These values were used to separate transfected from non-transfected cells and to quantify caspase activation.

Quantification of apoptosis signal in transfected cells.

Based on the image analysis described above, each cell was assigned a background subtracted transfection (TRITC) and apoptosis (FITC) value. This value was calculated by subtracting the local background signal from the nuclear signal to get the background

subtracted signal. If the background subtracted transfection signal was above 300, then the cell was considered "transfected." Otherwise, the cell was not considered for this analysis. The median apoptosis signal intensity was calculated by taking the median background subtracted FITC signal of all transfected cells in a particular well. This signal will heretofore be referred to as the apoptosis signal for the well.

Data quality control.

To ensure high quality data, an unequal variances two tailed t-test was performed comparing the XIAP positive control to the empty vector on each plate. If the t-test failed to reject the null hypothesis that the 4 XIAP wells had a lower apoptosis signal than the 4 empty vector wells, then the plate as a whole was discarded.

Data Normalization and processing

Each plate contained 4 replicates of each construct. The apoptosis signal for each well was calculated as described above. The 25th and 75th percentile was calculated. If the top or bottom points were more than 2 interquartile ranges away from these points, that point was identified as an outlier and removed. This value was then divided by an equivalent value from the empty vector run on the same plate (averaged across the 4 wells). The Log_2 of this value was calculated and will heretofore be referred to as the Log_2 Fold Change. Below is an equation showing how this value was calculated:

$$Log_2 \ Fold \ Change \ = \ Log_2 \left(\frac{Target \ Apoptosis \ signal}{Empty \ Vector \ Apoptosis \ Signal} \right)$$

Based on this analysis, the Log_2 Fold Change was calculated for each construct tested on each plate. This analysis amounts to 3 to 4 datapoints per date a construct was run.

Data aggregation across days

As each plate can only test a maximum of 21 constructs per plate with 4 wells per construct, data across dates were aggregated and analyzed for outliers. For a given construct, if a well had a Log_2 Fold Change more than 2 interquartile ranges away from the 25th or 75th percentile, then that well was removed. The resulting set of Log_2 Fold Changes for each construct are reported in Supplemental Table 2.

Hydrophobic moment calculation

Hydrophobic moment was calculated by assigning residue hydrophobicity based on the Fauchere-Pliska scale and then computing hydrophobic moment according to the formula defined in Eisenberg, 1982 [1-2]. Calculations assume a side-chain angular separation of 100°, typical of alpha helices. Python code to compute the hydrophobic moment was adapted from this script:

https://gist.github.com/JoaoRodrigues/568c845915aea3efa3578babfd72423c.

PFAM domain analysis

Protein sequences were analyzed for domain content using hmmscan (hmmer.org) to search sequences for PFAM-A domains [3]. Domain hits with full-sequence E-values < 0.01 were included.

HHRepID analysis

Protein sequences were analyzed for repeat content using HHRepID [4]. An alignment was built for each protein using 3 iterations of HHblits against uniclust30 [5]. Then HHrepID was used with default parameters to determine repeats coverage. This analysis was used to highlight repetitive sequences that lack pfam domains in Figure 1.

Disorder analysis

Protein sequences were analyzed for disorder content using MobiDB-lite with default parameters [6].

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