Activation of the mitochondrial unfolded protein response regulates the dynamic formation of
stress granules

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Running title: the UPRmt regulates SG formation

Keywords: UPRmt, stress granules, integrated stress response, mitochondrial stress response,
GADD34

Summary statement

We describe a novel crosstalk between the mitochondrial unfolded protein response and the integrated
stress response involving stress granules that protects cells from further stress.

Abstract

To rapidly adapt to harmful changes to their environment, cells activate the integrated stress response

(ISR). This results in an adaptive transcriptional and translational rewiring, and the formation of

biomolecular condensates named stress granules (SGs), to resolve stress. In addition to this first line

of defence, the mitochondrial unfolded protein response (UPRmt) activates a specific transcriptional

programme to maintain mitochondrial homeostasis. We present evidence that SGs and UPRmt

pathways are intertwined and communicate with each other. UPRmt induction results in eIF2α

phosphorylation and the initial and transient formation of SGs, which subsequently disassemble. We

show that the induction of GADD34 during late UPRmt protects cells from prolonged stress by impairing

further assembly of SGs. Furthermore, mitochondrial respiration is enhanced during UPRmt activation

when SGs are absent, suggesting that UPRmt-induced SGs have an adverse effect on mitochondrial

homeostasis. These findings point to a novel crosstalk between SGs and the UPRmt that may contribute

to restoring mitochondrial functions under stressful conditions.

Introduction

Controlling the localisation and function of macromolecules is fundamental for many cellular functions and typically achieved by surrounding them with lipid membranes in organelles such as the nucleus, lysosomes, or mitochondria. In recent years, biomolecular condensates that lack membranes have become increasingly recognised as an alternative way to organise cellular components during stress. The dynamic formation of these condensates is supported by networks of protein-protein, protein-RNA and RNA-RNA interactions, generating high local concentration of RNA and protein components (Tauber et al., 2020). With such remarkable molecular plasticity, biomolecular condensates provide an ideal platform for the regulation of key processes, including mRNA metabolism or intracellular signalling, and are utilised by cells to rapidly adjust and rewire regulatory networks in response to various physiological and pathological triggers (Yoo et al., 2019).

Stress granules (SGs) are among the most characterised cytoplasmic biomolecular condensates and assemble in response to many stresses, including oxidative stress, heat shock, viral infection, proteasomal inhibition, endoplasmic reticulum (ER) stress and UV irradiation (Corbet and Parker, 2019; Hofmann et al., 2020). Capturing mRNAs and proteins, SGs are central to the reorganisation of cellular contents during stress. Stress sensing results in the activation of the integrated stress response (ISR) and a global inhibition of protein synthesis usually driven by phosphorylation of the eukaryotic translation initiation factor 2α (eIF2α), which results in the dissociation of mRNAs from polysomes and their accumulation in cytoplasmic RNP complexes (Hofmann et al., 2020). These RNPs are then recognised by aggregation prone RNA-binding proteins (RBPs), such as Ras-GTPase activating SH3 domain binding protein 1 (G3BP1) and T cell internal antigen-1 (TIA-1), which lead to further recruitment of multiple proteins containing low sequence complexity domains or intrinsically disordered regions. These mediate clustering and fusion events driven by multivalent interactions between their protein and RNA components, at the core of which G3BP1 acts as a key node that promotes RNA-protein, protein-protein and RNA-RNA interactions, ultimately resulting in liquid-liquid phase separation (LLPS) and SG formation (Corbet and Parker, 2019; Wang et al., 2018). SGs are highly dynamic, rapidly assembling to sequester the cytoplasmic stalled mRNAs and dissolving upon stress resolution to release stored mRNAs for future translation (Matheny et al., 2019; Namkoong et al., 2018). The dynamic nature of SGs is also reflected in their proposed stress-selective compositional, structural and functional heterogeneity, with different stresses proposed to induce at least 3 distinct types of SGs (Aulas et al., 2017; Hofmann et al., 2020). Type I and II SGs assemble via eIF2α-dependent and independent pathways, respectively, while type III SGs lack eIFs and are associated with cellular death (Reineke and Neilson, 2019). This suggests that compositionally heterogeneous SGs support specialized functions promoting survival or pro-death outcomes. By concentrating specific protein components and altering their cytoplasmic concentration, SGs have been proposed to alter the course of biochemical reactions and signalling cascades (Hofmann et al., 2020). Furthermore, recent evidence hints that metabolic enzymes stored in SGs produce metabolites that can affect their stability (Begovich et al., 2020; Rollins et al., 2017; Saad et al., 2017). Importantly, dysregulation of pathways impacting SG clearance or LLPS is increasingly associated with neuropathology, in particular amyotrophic lateral

sclerosis and related diseases (Wolozin and Ivanov, 2019). Moreover, SGs can be exploited by cancer
cells to adapt to the tumour microenvironment, with resident SG proteins aberrantly expressed in
tumours (Anderson et al., 2015). Finally, SGs are also proposed to be a crossroad between intracellular
signalling and antiviral responses by controlling the location and function of key sensors and effectors
of innate immunity (Eiermann et al., 2020).

In addition to this first line of defence, cells have evolved tailored quality control processes to protect
the functions of key organelles in times of stress. Mitochondria act as the cell's powerhouse, generating
energy through oxidative phosphorylation but are also critical for essential function as such as calcium
homeostasis, nucleotide metabolism and innate immunity regulation (Banoth and Cassel, 2018; Giorgi
et al., 2018; Spinelli and Haigis, 2018). Key to maintaining or adapting mitochondrial functions, the
mitochondrial unfolded protein response (UPRmt) is an evolutionarily conserved mitochondria-to-
nucleus signalling cascade, initially described as a transcriptional response to the accumulation of
misfolded mitochondrial proteins (Martinus et al., 1996; Zhao et al., 2002). Studies have shown that
activation of the UPRmt is primarily regulated by the Activating Transcription Factor 5 (ATF5) (Fiorese
et al., 2016; Smyrnias et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2019), and engaged upon a wide range of mitochondrial
insults, including abnormal level of mitochondrial reactive oxygen species (ROS) (Wang et al., 2022b),
dissipation of mitochondrial membrane potential (Rolland et al., 2019), and reduced mitochondrial
protein import efficiency (Nargund et al., 2012). Activated UPRmt serves to restore mitochondrial protein
homeostasis and promote cell survival in various biological processes, such as innate immune
signalling (Pellegrino et al., 2014) and ageing (Houtkooper et al., 2013), as well as adaptation to
pathophysiological conditions, such as neurodegenerative disorders (Sorrentino et al., 2017) and
cardiovascular diseases (Smyrnias et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2019). Notably, growing evidence
implicates the components of the ISR as central elements of the UPRmt (Anderson and Haynes, 2020;
Fu et al., 2023; Quirós et al., 2017).

The ISR is an adaptive gene expression regulation programme activated in response to a range of
pathophysiological conditions, including hypoxia, amino acid deprivation, and viral infection (Brostrom
et al., 1996; Dever et al., 1992; Harding et al., 2003; Ron, 2002; Wek et al., 2006). ISR signalling is
initiated by the phosphorylation of eIF2α by four different kinases, which results in global translational
shut down to dampen cellular workload and accumulation of SGs, while specific transcripts involved in
stress adaptation remain preferentially translated. A key aspect of ISR regulation involves the fine-
tuning of eIF2α phosphorylation by the growth arrest and DNA-damage inducible protein (GADD34).
This stress-induced regulatory subunit of protein phosphatase 1 (PP1) mediates eIF2α
dephosphorylation, acting as a negative feedback loop to prevent prolonged ISR activation to ensure
stress resolution and resuming of protein synthesis (Harding et al., 2000; Lee et al., 2009; Novoa et al.,
2001). Studying the components of the ISR signalling has provided evidence that the ISR acts as an
essential precursor to the UPRmt during mitochondrial stress. Specifically, each of the eIF2α kinases
has been implicated in response to stress associated with mitochondrial dysfunctions (Baker et al.,
2012; D'Souza and Minczuk, 2018; Guo et al., 2020; Samluk et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2018). In
addition, ATF5, together with ATF4 and C/EBP homologous protein (CHOP), are main regulators of the

ISR that have emerged as essential mediators of a response to mitochondrial dysfunction similar to the

UPRmt in *C. elegans* (Fiorese et al., 2016; Jiang et al., 2020; Kaspar et al., 2021; Quirós et al., 2017;

Zhao et al., 2002). Moreover, UPRmt activation following mitochondrial dysfunction has been linked to

reduced protein synthesis within the mitochondria (Münch and Harper, 2016), and with studies

demonstrating that SGs impact metabolic processes, act as signalling hubs, and dock to mitochondria,

we propose that SGs may be implicated in the interface between UPRmt and ISR signalling during

mitochondrial stress.

Herein, we established a novel crosstalk between the UPRmt and SGs. Induction of UPRmt during

mitochondrial stress first results in an initial wave of SGs, which then disassemble potentially due to an

upregulation of SG disassembly chaperones. Next, the negative feedback loop mediated by GADD34

protects cells against further stress insults and the assembly of eIF2α-dependent SGs. Finally, we

demonstrated that the core SG scaffold proteins G3BP1 and G3BP2 (G3BP1/2) negatively affect

mitochondrial respiration. Therefore, we propose a model in which the dynamic assembly of SGs is an

important component of the UPRmt to maintain mitochondrial homeostasis, which itself can fine-tune

further adaptation to stress by activating GADD34. This provides further understanding of the cellular

adaptation to adverse conditions and the crosstalk between generalised and specialised stress

responses.

Results

<u>UPRmt activation following GTPP-mediated mitochondrial stress leads to induction of ISR signalling</u>
<u>and is associated with transient SG assembly</u>

With previous studies suggesting an interplay between the UPRmt and the ISR, and given the central

role of SGs in the cellular stress response, we investigated the impact of mitochondrial stressors on the

SG pathway in more details. First, we tested the induction of UPRmt signalling in U2OS cells following

mitochondrial stress using the mitochondrial HSP90 inhibitor gamitrinib-triphenylphosphonium (GTPP),

which results in protein misfolding in the mitochondria and induction of mitochondrial chaperones and

proteases (Kang et al., 2009). The levels of typical transcripts induced upon UPRmt and ISR activation

were measured using RT-qPCR (Fig 1A). We observed a clear induction of CHOP and ATF4 after

GTPP treatment, which are related to ISR activation, as well as HSPD1 and LONP1, indicating induction

of the UPRmt. ATF5 acts as a key mediator of the mammalian UPRmt signalling, translocating to the

nucleus upon stress to activate a specific transcriptional cascade (Fiorese et al., 2016). Consistently,

siRNA-mediated silencing of ATF5 expression significantly reduced the transcription of all GTPP-

induced UPRmt markers, but not ISR markers, further supporting the role of ATF5 as UPRmt inducer

in our model (Fig 1A).

Next, we tested the impact of UPRmt activation on SG assembly by treating U2OS cells with GTPP for

up to 8 hours. Cells were fixed at the indicated time points and stained with anti-G3BP1 and anti-eIF3η

antibodies to detect SG assembly (Fig 1B). Sodium arsenite was used as positive control for SG

assembly as it induces eIF2α-dependent SGs by activating the eIF2α kinase HRI (Taniuchi et al., 2016).

G3BP1 and eIF3η remained diffused in the cytoplasm in DMSO-treated cells and as expected, arsenite

treatment resulted in the assembly of SGs reflected by the accumulation of G3BP1/eIF3η into

cytoplasmic foci. Interestingly, approximately 25% of cells were positive for SGs at 2 h post GTPP

treatment (Fig 1C). The percentage of SG-positive cells decreased gradually until being undetectable

at 8 h post treatment. Thus, mitochondrial stress following GTPP treatment in U2OS cells activates the

UPRmt and induces an early and transient phase of SG assembly.

Phosphorylation of eIF2α is central event in the ISR signalling and a trigger of SG formation (Kedersha

et al., 2002). Thus, we measured phosphorylation levels of eIF2α as well as protein and RNA expression

levels of ISR markers during early UPRmt activation. Phosphorylation of eIF2α was detected within 30

minutes of GTPP treatment, which was followed by an increase of ATF4 protein levels and GADD34 in

a later phase, at 3 h post treatment (Fig 2A). Similarly, CHOP mRNA levels were also highly upregulated

from 2 h GTPP treatment, around 15-fold change, as well as GADD34 mRNA which reached 4-fold

change upregulation at later time points (Fig 2B). These results suggest that UPRmt induction by GTPP

signals through the early activation of canonical ISR. We therefore tested which of the four eIF2α

kinases is activated during UPRmt induction. We first hypothesized that the double-stranded RNA

(dsRNA)-activated protein kinase (PKR) might be activated upon GTPP treatment due to mitochondrial

dsRNA leakage occurring as a consequence of mitochondrial stress and membrane damage (Kim et

al., 2018). However, mitochondrial dsRNA was not detected after UPRmt induction (Fig 2C). Supporting

this result, the expression of the interferon-stimulated genes such as CCXCL10, CCL5, MX1 and OAS1,

reported to be induced upon PKR activation (Pindel and Sadler, 2011; Radetskyy et al., 2018), was not

upregulated during early or late UPRmt (Fig 2D). Thus, PKR is unlikely to be the kinase responsible for

eIF2α phosphorylation upon GTPP treatment. We next investigated the potential role of PKR-like ER

kinase (PERK) and general control non-derepressible protein 2 (GCN2). PERK is activated in response

to ER stress and has been shown to modulate mitochondrial homeostasis during stress (Almeida et al.,

2022), while general control non-derepressible protein 2 (GCN2) is activated by amino acid depravation

or UV light radiation (Deng et al., 2002). We used the pharmacological inhibitors GSK2606414 and A-

92 to inhibit PERK and GCN2 activity in U2OS cells, respectively. We first confirmed that they reduced

eIF2α phosphorylation upon DTT treatment or UV light exposure (Fig 2E). In response to GTTP, the

GCN2 inhibitor A-92 did not reduce eIF2α phosphorylation, whereas the PERK inhibitor GSK2606414

decreased it by more than 2-fold, suggesting that PERK is the main eIF2α kinase responsive to GTTP.

Overall, these results suggest that induction of the UPRmt is associated with an early SG assembly and

ISR activation through PERK.

<u>Mitochondrial stress impairs the assembly of eIF2α-dependent SGs</u>

As GTPP-mediated mitochondrial stress and UPRmt activation resulted in SG assembly only during the

early and not at the later stages of stress, we hypothesized that the UPRmt may limit the ability of cells

to form SG during prolonged stress. To test this, cells were stimulated for 4, 6 or 8 h with GTPP and

then challenged with or without arsenite for 30 min (Fig 3A). As expected, in absence of pre-treatment

with GTTP, arsenite induced the assembly of SGs in almost all cells. Interestingly, only few GTTP-

treated cells formed SGs after arsenite treatment at the indicated timepoints. Detailed analysis of U2OS

cells revealed that pre-treatment with GTPP reduced arsenite-induced SG assembly compared to

arsenite-only stimulated cells from 90 to 14%, 95 to 28% and 91% to 35% after 4, 6 or 8 h treatments,
respectively (Fig 3B). These data indicate that UPRmt induction by GTPP inhibits subsequent arsenite-
induced SG formation. Given that eIF2α phosphorylation drives SG formation, we next assessed how
UPRmt activation impacts on arsenite-induced eIF2α phosphorylation. Cells were treated as mentioned
above and levels of basal and phosphorylated eIF2α measured by immunoblotting. Cells treated with
arsenite displayed high levels of eIF2α phosphorylation, while GTPP treatment slightly increased eIF2α
phosphorylation as shown previously (Fig 3C). Interestingly, when subjected to arsenite treatment,
GTPP pre-treated cells showed lower levels of arsenite-induced eIF2α phosphorylation. Specifically,
phosphorylated levels were reduced approximately 3 to 4-fold compared to arsenite-treated cells in all
timepoints.

To confirm these results, UPRmt was induced with another mitochondrial stressor, paraquat, which
produces high amounts of superoxide and interferes with the electron transport chain (Cocheme and
Murphy, 2008). Treatment of cells with paraquat for 48 h increased by 2 to 3-fold the mRNA levels of
ATF4, CHOP, GADD34 and DNAJA3 compared to non-treated cells, confirming ISR and UPRmt
activation (Sup Fig 1). Next, we examined how paraquat stimulation impacts on SG assembly and
whether pre-treatment with paraquat affects the ability of cells to form arsenite-induced SGs by
immunofluorescence. Paraquat treatment did not induce SG formation, and G3BP1 or eIF3η remain
diffused in the cytoplasm (Fig 3D). However, prior induction of UPRmt by paraquat pre-treatment
decreased percentage of cells containing arsenite-induced SGs, from about 96% to 65% (Fig 3E).
Similarly to GTPP-induced mitochondrial stress, paraquat treatment also resulted in a slight increase in
eIF2α phosphorylated levels, supporting ISR induction and pre-treatment with paraquat also limited the
levels of arsenite-induced eIF2α phosphorylation compared to non-treated cells (Fig 3F). Overall,
activation of UPRmt using two different stressors resulted in the inhibition of arsenite-induced eIF2α
phosphorylation and consequently prevents SG formation during prolonged stress.

SG assembly is a multistep process by which first "seeds", invisible microscopically, coalesce upon
stress, and then fuse into larger aggregates during a growth phase (Wheeler et al., 2016). We next
examined whether the SG maturation process was also affected by paraquat. To address this, the
average size and number of SGs per cell from paraquat pre-treated cells were compared to non-treated
cells. The analysis revealed that arsenite-induced SGs are significantly smaller (in average 0.53 μm^2)
in paraquat pre-treated cells compared to those formed in non-treated cells (in average 0.85 μm^2). In
addition, more G3BP1-positive SGs per cell were detected in paraquat pre-treated cells compared to
non-treated (in average 57 vs 32, respectively) (Fig 3G). These results indicate that paraquat impairs
SG formation and limits their maturation into larger SGs. Altogether, these data strongly support that
SG assembly is modulated by prior induction of the UPRmt.

Given that ATF5 is one of the central regulators in UPRmt activation, we explored its impact on SG
assembly (Fiorese et al., 2016). To study this, cells were transfected with siRNA targeting ATF5 and
SG formation was monitored by immunofluorescence during GTPP treatment for 4 h and with or without
arsenite stimulation (Sup Fig 2A). ATF5 silencing did not affect SG assembly nor disassembly after 4 h
of GTPP treatment, around 20% of cells were positive for SGs (Sup Fig 2B). Moreover, prior induction

of UPRmt assembly of arsenite-induced SGs was impaired when ATF5 was silenced, with no
differences compared to control cells. These findings suggest that the UPRmt transcriptional
reprogramming associated with ATF5 activation is not involved in the modulation of SG assembly nor
disassembly, and that other UPRmt factors contribute to SG dynamics.

GADD34 is required for the inhibition of *de novo* eIF2α-dependent SG assembly by preventing eIF2α
phosphorylation

We observed that UPRmt activation by either GTPP or paraquat results in the upregulation of GADD34
(Fig 2A, 2B and Sup Fig 1), the negative regulator of the ISR, which in complex with PP1
dephosphorylates eIF2α to resume translation. Therefore, we hypothesized that increased levels of
GADD34 could limit eIF2α phosphorylation in response to a consecutive stress and consequently SG
assembly. To test this hypothesis, we generated U2OS GADD34 KO cell clones using a CRISPR/Cas9
approach (Sup Fig 3). Control cell clones (Ctrl) were generated for comparison using a non-targeting
crRNA. Ctrl and GADD34 KO cells were stimulated with GTPP for 4 h prior arsenite treatment and SG
assembly detected by immunofluorescence (Fig 4A). As observed previously, prior induction of UPRmt
by GTPP impaired the assembly of arsenite-induced SGs in Ctrl cells. In contrast, we observed no
difference in the assembly of SGs in GADD34 KO cells irrespectively of GTTP pre-treatment. While
only 17% of Ctrl cells pre-treated with GTPP were positive for arsenite-induced SG, 97% of GADD34
KO cells contained SGs in the same conditions (Fig 4B). Similar results were obtained with paraquat
pre-treatment with 66% Ctrl cells and 98% GADD34 KO cells displaying SGs in response to arsenite
treatment (Fig 4C, 4D).

These results were supported by reduced levels of phosphorylated eIF2α in GTTP and paraquat pre-
treated Ctrl cells compared to GADD34 KO cells (Fig. 4E, 4F). In Ctrl cells, either GTPP or paraquat
treatment followed by arsenite stimulation resulted in reduced eIF2α phosphorylation levels compared
to stimulation with arsenite only. In contrast, in GADD34 KO cells, the induction of eIF2α
phosphorylation was comparable between stimulation with arsenite and GTPP or paraquat treatments
followed by arsenite stimulation. Therefore, GADD34 KO rescued the ability of cells to phosphorylate
eIF2α following UPRmt induction. Overall, these results indicate that UPRmt activation results in
increased levels of GADD34 expression, which prevent eIF2α phosphorylation and impair the ability of
cells to assemble SGs in response to prolonged stress.

GTPP-mediated UPRmt activation differentially modulates the assembly of eIF2α-independent SGs

SG assembly can also be triggered following eIF2α-independent inhibition of translation, for example
by blocking eIF4A or mTOR activity (Aulas et al., 2017). Thus, we examined whether UPRmt activation
alters the assembly of eIF2α-independent SGs following treatment with the eIF4A inhibitor silvestrol
(Bordeleau et al., 2008). To test this, U2OS cells were stimulated with GTPP for 6 h, then treated with
or without silvestrol for 1 h and SG assembly was analysed by immunofluorescence (Fig 5A). As
expected, silvestrol induced formation of SGs in nearly all cells. Interestingly, pre-treatment with GTPP
resulted in a reduction of the percentage of cells displaying silvestrol-induced SGs, from 94% to 72%
(Fig 5B). In contrast, pre-treatment with paraquat did not impair the assembly of silvestrol-induced SGs.

(Fig 5C, 5D). However, features of SGs appeared to be altered by paraquat treatment, as reported

before for arsenite-induced SGs, with reduction in average size, from 0.97 μm^2 to 0.66 μm^2, and

increased average number, from 18 to 39, when compared to non-treated cells (Fig 5E). These results

indicate that UPRmt activation by GTPP impairs the ability of cells to assemble eIF2α-independent SGs,

although not to the same extent as eIF2α-dependent SGs, and that paraquat affects their maturation

and fusion process. Taken together, these data suggest that UPRmt activation impact on SG assembly

and dynamics both in an ISR-dependent and -independent manner.

SGs are highly dynamic and disassemble upon stress removal. Recently, the chaperone Hsp90 was

reported to initiate SG disassembly by interacting with and activating the dual specificity tyrosine-

phosphorylation-regulated kinase 3 (DYRK3), leading to the phosphorylation of yet unknown targets.

(Mediani et al., 2021). Given that GTPP-induced SGs disassemble after 4 h treatment (Fig 1C) and to

further examine how UPRmt activation modulates assembly and dynamics of eIF2α-independent SGs,

we measured the mRNA levels of DYRK3 and the stress-inducible and constitutively expressed Hsp90

forms, HSP90AA1 and HSP90AB1, respectively. Upon UPRmt induction by GTPP, the level of

HSP90AA1 mRNA was significantly increased by approximately 4 to 6-fold in all time points compared

to non-treated cells, while Hsp90AB1 and DYRK3 were slightly upregulated by 2 to 3-fold at 6 and 8 h

GTPP treatment (Figure 5F). In contrast, the mRNA expression of these proteins remained unchanged

upon UPRmt induction by paraquat (Figure 5G). These results are consistent with our previous results

where silvestrol-induced SG assembly was altered by GTPP treatment but not by paraquat, indicating

that UPRmt activation by GTPP results in enhancement of SG disassembly process which might be

involved in the modulating the assembly of eIF2α-independent SGs, while paraquet did not. Altogether,

these data suggest that UPRmt activation by GTPP results in an initial SG assembly which then rapidly

disassemble potentially due to an enhancement in the SG disassembly process.

<u>Cells unable to assemble SGs during stress present with improved mitochondrial function during UPRmt</u>

<u>activation</u>

To determine the functional consequences of reduced SG formation during mitochondrial stress, we

compared mitochondrial respiration upon UPRmt activation in U2OS G3BP1/2 double knockout cells

(G3BP1/2 dKO) lacking the ability to form SGs to control cells (Yang et al., 2020) (Sup Fig 4). Wild-type

(WT) and G3BP1/2 dKO U2OS cells were treated with GTPP for 2 h, the time at which we previously

detected the appearance of SGs, and measured mitochondrial oxygen consumption rate (OCR) using

a Seahorse flux analyser (Fig 6A). As expected GTTP treatment impaired mitochondrial functions in

WT cells resulting in decreased basal, maximal respiration, ATP-linked respiration and spare respiratory

capacity compared to untreated cells (Fig 6B, 6C). In contrast, G3BP1/2 dKO cells that cannot form

SGs presented with significantly improved mitochondrial respiration when compared to WT cells when

challenged with GTTP (Fig 6C). Taken together, these results indicate that the assembly of UPRmt-

induced SGs is associated with impaired mitochondrial functions during stress.

Discussion

The disruption of mitochondrial homeostasis is associated with several pathologies, such as neurodegeneration, cancer, aging, and cardiovascular diseases (Chen et al., 2023; Norat et al., 2020; Quirós et al., 2016; Suomalainen and Battersby, 2018). The UPRmt is an evolutionarily conserved homeostatic pathway engaged upon a wide range of mitochondrial insults, including mitochondrial protein misfolding (Zhao et al., 2002), reduced mitochondrial protein import efficiency (Nargund et al., 2012), dissipation of mitochondrial membrane potential (Donehower et al., 2019), and dysregulated levels of reactive oxygen species (ROS) (Wang et al., 2022b). UPRmt activation triggers a broad and protective transcriptional cascade, through enhancing mitochondrial folding capacity and triggering a mitochondrial recovery program, alleviating neurodegenerative and cardiovascular diseases symptomatology (Smyrnias et al., 2019; Sorrentino et al., 2017), promoting resistance to pathogen infection (Mahmud et al., 2020; Pellegrino et al., 2014), and prolonging lifespan (Munkácsy and Rea, 2014). Studies in mammals have shown that the ISR and UPRmt are intertwined; however, how SGs – which are downstream effectors of the ISR – modulate the outcome of the UPRmt and how their assembly is regulated upon mitochondrial stress is unknown. Evidence supporting a functional interplay between SGs and mitochondria include the impaired metabolism linked to altered SG dynamics in several neurodegenerative diseases, the regulation of SG stability by metabolites produced by resident SG enzymes such as Sam1 or pyruvate kinase, and the regulation of mitochondrial permeability and lipid fatty acid oxidation by starvation-induced SGs (Begovich et al., 2020; Cereghetti et al., 2021; Rollins et al., 2017; Saad et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2022a). SGs can physically contact different membrane-bound organelles, including lysosomes or the ER, and starvation-induced SGs contact with mitochondria in human cells (Amen and Kaganovich, 2021; Lee et al., 2020; Liao et al., 2019). Furthermore, numerous mitochondrial proteins have been associated with SGs (Amen and Kaganovich, 2021; Aoyama-Ishiwatari et al., 2021; Paget et al., 2023). Our study identifies SGs as novel signalling components associated with the mammalian UPRmt and SG dynamics as a key for maintaining mitochondrial function during mitochondrial stress. We show that UPRmt activation by GTPP or paraquat results in PERK-mediated activation of the ISR, accompanied with transient SG formation, in the case of GTTP. Moreover, UPRmt-induced upregulation of the GADD34 protects cells against persistent SG assembly and preventing SG formation improved mitochondrial functions upon UPRmt induction.

ATF5 has been proposed to drive the protective effect of UPRmt in different diseases models such as osteoarthritis (Zhou et al., 2022), heart failure (Smyrnias et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2019), and protect host during enteric infection (Chamseddine et al., 2022). In our experimental system, we show that ATF5 is essential for the upregulation of the UPRmt markers in cells subjected to mitochondrial stress but is not involved in SG dynamics. Recently, a study by Sutandy *et al.* proposed that the accumulation of mitochondrial protein precursors and ROS in the cytosol results in nuclear translocation of heat shock factor 1 (HSF1) and activation of UPRmt markers. ATF5 synergises with HSF1, affecting late activation of the UPRmt (Sutandy et al., 2023). Thus, we cannot exclude the possibility that other transcription factors such as HSF1 may contribute to SG dynamics during induction of the UPRmt.

The disassembly of SGs is crucial for cellular homeostasis since persistent SGs can promote the
formation of aberrant aggregates, which are implicated in several neurodegenerative diseases (Baron
et al., 2013; Repici et al., 2019; Vanderweyde et al., 2012). SGs induced by GTPP begin to disassemble
post 3 h treatment and completely disappear by 8 h. We first hypothesized that the increased expression
of GADD34 due to ISR activation might be responsible for SG disassembly in these mid/late phases.
However, GADD34 KO cells cleared SGs with a comparable kinetic to control cells (Fig 5), indicating
that a factor other than GADD34 is involved in SG disassembly after GTPP treatment. In fact, GTPP
resulted in increased expression of the kinase DYRK3, and HSP90, a major chaperone promoting SG
disassembly of SGs through binding and stabilising DYRK3 (Mediani et al., 2021; Wippich et al., 2013).
Upregulation of SG disassembly chaperones was not detected with paraquat, consistent with this
stressor not inducing SG formation. Interestingly, UPRmt induction by either GTTP or paraquat
prevented *de novo* assembly of arsenite-induced SGs by impairing eIF2α phosphorylation. This effect
was rescued in GADD34 KO cells, indicating that GADD34 upregulation is responsible for the inhibition
of SG assembly following a second stressor. This result is in line with recent work demonstrating that
sustained GADD34 levels upon ISR activation reduces cell responsiveness to a second stress pulse,
promoting cell adaptation (Klein et al., 2022). Our data suggest that UPRmt employs GADD34 as a
negative regulator of the ISR to fine-tune cellular stress responses and maintain mitochondrial function
under these conditions.

Furthermore, UPRmt activation by GTPP also inhibited the formation of eIF2α-independent SGs, and,
the size and number of both eIF2α-dependent and independent SGs were altered in cells treated with
paraquat compared to non-treated. This suggests that paraquat-induced stress could alter SG
biogenesis by limiting the growth of small SGs prior to their fusion into bigger aggregates. We speculate
that the known paraquat effects on oxidative phosphorylation could affect SG biogenesis, whose fusion
and growth steps are ATP-dependent (Jain et al., 2016). Further experiments are needed to fully
understand how energy depletion affects SG biogenesis during mitochondrial stress.

Our results reveal that cells subjected to mitochondrial stress activate the UPRmt and engage
mechanisms to disassemble either SGs induced by mitochondrial stress and/or prevent *de novo*
assembly of SGs, suggesting that clearance of SGs is crucial to the maintenance of mitochondrial
homeostasis. Consistently, we show that GTPP-induced SGs impaired mitochondrial respiration,
whereas cells unable to form SGs exhibited improved mitochondrial function during stress. Questions
remain as to the functional link between inhibition of SG assembly and mitochondrial homeostasis
following UPRmt activation. Several studies support a protective role for SGs, through impairing pro-
apoptotic JNK signalling (Arimoto et al., 2008; Kitajima et al., 2023), sequestration of caspases
(Fujikawa et al., 2023) or suppressing production of ROS (Park and Shin, 2023; Takahashi et al., 2013)
and they have been described as "shock absorbers" dampening excessive innate immune response to
viral infection (Paget et al., 2023). In contrast, persistent SGs are implicated in pro-death functions
during chronic stress conditions as well as neurodegenerative diseases or tumour chemotherapy
(Reineke et al., 2018; Reineke and Neilson, 2019; Schwed-Gross et al., 2022). Future studies will aim
to the function of SGs formed during mitochondrial stress.

Overall, our findings support a model in which UPRmt-induced SGs are formed as a consequence of the associated ISR activation. Subsequently, cells activate mechanisms to disassemble SGs, as their persistence may compromise mitochondrial recovery. This could be by either physically preventing efficient mitochondrial dynamics, recruiting mitochondrial or related proteins to SGs, preventing translation of essential mitochondrial proteins, or a combination of all of them. This underscores a novel functional interplay between the ISR and UPRmt and further work should aim at revealing the impact of SG signalling during UPRmt, how UPRmt-induced SGs, and the sequestration of specific resident proteins, impact on mitochondrial homeostasis. This will open further opportunities for alternative strategies for the treatment of human diseases with compromised mitochondrial function and associated with an impaired SG dynamics.

Material and methods

Cell culture and gene silencing

U2OS, U2OS G3BP1/2 double knock out (dKO), U2OS control (Ctrl) and GADD34 KO cell lines were grown in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (DMEM) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum, 100 U/ml penicillin, 100 g/ml streptomycin and 1% L-glutamine in a humidified incubator at 37ºC and 5% CO_2 environment. U2OS G3BP1/2 dKO cells have been described previously (Burke et al., 2020).

Silencing of ATF5 was performed using Lipofectamine-RNAiMax transfection reagent (Thermo Fisher). U2OS cells were incubated with the transfection mix containing either siRNA negative control (Invitrogen, #4390843) or siRNA targeting ATF5 (Invitrogen, ID s22425) at a final concentration of 10 nM for 48 h. Next, cells were incubated with subsequent treatments and analysed as described below.

Generation of U2OS GADD34 KO cell clones

U2OS GADD34 KO cells were generated using a two-crRNA strategy to delete a portion of the *PPP1R15A* locus encoding GADD34. crRNAs cutting sequences in *PPP1R15A* exon 2 (IDT, Hs.Cas9.PPP1R15A.AC: AltR1 / AUC ACU GGG UUG GCA CCA CCG UUU UAG AGC UAU GCU / AltR2) and exon 3 (IDT, custom design: AltR1 / GAG GCG UGG CUG AGA CCA ACG UUU UAG AGC UAU GCU / AltR2) were purchased to Integrated DNA technologies (IDT). Individual crRNAs and tracrRNA (IDT) were resuspended in 1 x TE buffer (10 mM Tris, 0.1 mM EDTA, pH 7.5) to a final concentration of 200 μM and hybridized at equimolar amounts by heating to 95 °C for 5 min and slow stepwise cooling (1°C/sec) to room temperature. Pre-assembled crRNA/Cas9 ribonucleoprotein complexes (RNPs) were obtained by gently mixing 1.2 μl of hybridized RNAs with 17 μg of recombinant Alt-R Cas9 protein (IDT) and 2.1 μl of PBS, followed by 20 min incubation at room temperature. U2OS cells (1 x 10^6) were washed with PBS, resuspended in 91 μl nucleofection solution from Cell Line Nucleofector Kit V (Lonza) and mixed with 2.5 μl of each pre-assembled RNPs and 4 μl electroporation enhancer (Integrated DNA technologies). Nucleofection was performed using an Amaxa 2b nucleofector (Lonza) and pre-set program X-01. Nucleofected cells were incubated for 48 h prior to clonal amplification and screening for homozygous clones using target-specific PCR (GoTaq Hot Start, Promega) on genomic DNA using the following primers: PPP1R15A_forward: 5'-ATCACACCGGGAGTGTTGTC-3', PPP1R15A_reverse: 5'-AGACGCTGCTCGCTACAAAT-3')

flanking sequences targeted by crRNAs. After genotyping, expression levels of GADD34 in 2 control
and 5 GADD34 KO single cell clones in response to 2 μM thapsigargin (Biotrend) treatment for 3 h was
assessed by Western blotting. After characterization and for further experiments, cell pools were
generated by mixing the clones in equal proportions.

Chemical treatments
For UPRmt induction, GTPP (kindly provided by I. Smyrnias) was diluted in DMSO and used at
concentration of 10 μM for up to 8 h. Paraquat (Sigma-Aldrich, #36541) was dissolved in H_2O and used
at a concentration of 0.5 mM for 48 h. For SG assembly, sodium arsenite (Sigma Aldrich) was diluted
in H_2O and used at a concentration of 0.5 mM for 30 min. Silvestrol (MedChemExpress) was
resuspended in DMSO and used at a concentration of 2 μM for 1 h. Phosphorylation of eIF2α was
induced by DTT (Promega, DMSO) at 5 mM for 2 h or by UV irradiation at 20 mJ/cm2 using Stratalinker
1800 (Stratagene) followed by 2 h incubation at 37 ºC. GCN2 activity was inhibited using 1 μM A-92
(Merck, dissolved in DMSO). PERK activity was inhibited using 0.1 μM GSK2606414 (Merck, dissolved
in DMSO).

Transfection with double-stranded (ds) RNA
Synthesis and purification of 200-bp dsRNA was described previously (Klein et al., 2022). In brief, a
200-bp region from the ampicillin resistance gene was used as template for *in vitro* synthesis of plus
and minus strand transcripts, hybridized and purified. 2×10^5 cells were seeded in a 6-well plate
containing coverslips and transfected with 1 μg dsRNA mixed with Lipofectamine 2000 transfection
reagent (Thermo Fisher Scientific) in a 1:3 ratio. Cells were fixed after 16 h with PBS-PFA 4% and
further processed for immunofluorescence analysis.

Immunofluoresence microscopy
Cells were seeded on sterilized coverslips in a 24-well plate and treated as required. Media was
removed and fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde (PFA) in PBS for 20 min at RT. Fixation solution was
removed, coverslips were rinsed with PB and stored at 4 ºC or processed immediately. Cells were
permeabilized with 0.1% Triton X-100 (Sigma) in PBS for 5 min at RT and blocked with 0.5% bovine
serum albumin (Fisher) in PBS for 1h at RT. Cells were then incubated with primary antibody solution
for 1h at RT, washed 3 times with PBS and incubated with secondary antibody solution containing 0.2
μg/ml DAPI for 1h at RT. Coverslips were then rinsed 3 times with PBS and mounted onto microscope
slides with 5 μl Mowiol 4-88 (Sigma-Aldrich #81381). Cells were visualized and imaged with a Nikon Ti-
Eclipse A1M Confocal Microscope using a 60X objective. Confocal images were analysed utilizing
Image J. SG quantification was either performed manually counting at least 100 cells per condition or
automatically using the Analyze Particles function, obtaining further information such as the average
size of SG and number per cell. The primary antibodies used were rabbit anti-G3BP1 (1:600, Sigma)
and goat anti-eIF3η (1:600, Santa Cruz), rabbit anti-TOMM20 (1:1000, abcam), mouse IgG2a anti-
dsRNA (1:250, SCICOBS), mouse IgG1 anti-TOMM20 (1:100, Becton Dickinson). Secondary
antibodies used were goat anti-rabbit Alexa 488, donkey anti-goat Alexa 555, goat anti-mouse-IgG2
Alexa 568 and goat anti-mouse-IgG1 Alexa 488 (1:500, Invitrogen).

Immunoblotting

Cells were seeded in 6-well plates to be around 80-90% confluent at the indicated times. Cells were
treated as required, then media was removed, and cells were washed twice with cold PBS. Cells were
lysed with protein lysis buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl, 250 mM NaCl, 5 mM EDTA, 1 mM Mg_2Cl, 1% NP40
and supplemented with protease inhibitor cocktail, Roche), incubated on ice for 20 minutes and spun
at 10,000 g for 10 min at 4 ºC. Supernatant was collected and protein concentration was measured
following BCA pierce kit (Fisher) and between 20-60 μg of protein were used depending on the
experiment and quantity obtained. Lysed were mixed with 3x red Loading buffer supplemented with
DTT (Cell Signalling) and boiled at 95 ºC for 5 min. Lysates were separated in 4-20% gradient gel with
1x SDS running buffer and proteins were transferred to a nitrocellulose membrane using the Pierce
Power Station and 1-step Transfer Buffer (Thermo Scientific). Membranes were blocked in 5% BSA or
5% marvel in TBS-Tween (TBS-T) for 1 h at RT and then incubated with primary antibodies overnight
at 4 ºC. Next day, membranes were washed 3 times with TBS-T and subsequently incubated with
secondary antibodies (Dako, 1:5000) diluted in 5% marvel in TBS-T for 1 h at RT. After three washes
with TBS-T, secondary antibodies were labelled with Clarity Western ECL Substrate (Bio-Rad), and
membranes were imaged using the vilber-Lourmat Imaging system. Band intensity was quantified and
analysed using Image Lab Software (Bio-rad). Primary antibodies used were rabbit anti-eIF2α (1:1000,
Cell Signaling), rabbit anti-P-eIF2α (1:1000, Invitrogen), rabbit anti-ATF4 (1:1000, Cell Signaling), rabbit
anti-GADD34 (1:1000, Proteintech), mouse anti-GAPDH (1:5000, Ambion), goat anti-eIF3η (1:2000,
Santa Cruz) and anti-eIF3A (1:2000, Bethyl Laboratories).

Preparation of RNA samples and RT-qPCR

Cells were seeded in 6-well plates to be around 80-90% confluent at the indicated times. Cells were
treated as needed, then were washed twice with cold PBS, and total RNA was extracted using a quick-
RNA micro prep kit (Zymo Research) following the manufacturer's instructions. Purified RNA was
quantified on Nanodrop, and 500 ng of RNA was subject to reverse transcription using Precision
nanoScript2 Reverse Transcription kit from Primer Design. Next, real-time quantitative PCR (qPCR)
was performed in duplicate with 25 ng of template, specific primers listed below used at a final
concentration of 0.3 μM and Precision Plus Master Mix (Primer Design) following manufacturer's
instructions, using the Quant Studio 7 Flex (Applied Biosystems). The comparative Ct method was
used; Ct values from genes of interest were normalized to RpL9 Ct values unless otherwise specified.
The 2-ΔΔCT method was used to calculate the fold change expression relative to non-treated (Livak
and Schmittgen, 2001).

Mitochondrial respiration

Oxygen consumption rate of U2OS WT and G3BP1/2 dKO cells was measured on an extracellular flux
analyzer (Agilent Seahorse) using the XF Cell Mito Stress Test Kit following manufacturer's protocol.
Cells were seeded one day prior the experiment on Seahorse XFe24 culture plate to be 80% confluent.
Cells were treated as required and 1 h prior running the plate, medium was removed, and cells were
incubated with assay medium supplemented with 1 mM pyruvate, 2 mM glutamine and 10 mM glucose.
Cells were then sequentially stimulated with oligomycin at 1 μM, FCCP at 2 μM and rotenone and

antimycin A at 1 µM and respiratory profile was obtained. Data was normalised by amount of protein for each well. Following assay, cells were lysed with protein lysis buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl, 250 mM NaCl, 5 mM EDTA, 1 mM Mg_2Cl, 1% NP40 and supplemented with protease inhibitor cocktail, Roche), incubated on ice for 20 minutes and spun at 10,000 g for 10 min at 4 ºC. Supernatant was collected and protein concentration was measured following BCA pierce kit (Fisher).

<u>Statistical analyses</u>

Statistical analyses were performed using Graphpad Prism software and three biological replicates were analysed in all experiments. Statistical tests performed are indicated in the figure legends (****, $P < 0.0001$; ***, $P < 0.001$; **, $P < 0.01$; *, $P < 0.05$; ns, not significant).

<u>Primer list</u>

GENE	FORWARD PRIMER (5'→3')	REVERSE PRIMER (5'→3')
ATF4	GCTAAGGCGGGCTCCTCCGA	ACCCAACAGGGCATCCAAGTCG
ATF5	TTTGCAGTGCGGGAAGAT	AAAATGAACACCCAGTCACCA
CHOP	GGAGCATCAGTCCCCCACTT	TGTGGGATTGAGGGTCACATC
DNAJA3	GAGGACGAGACAGATGTGGAG	TCCTGCGGAGCTATCCAT
DYRK3	TCCTTCTGAACCACCTCCAC	CCTTCATCTCACCTCCATCC
GADD34	CAGAAACCCCTACTCATGATCC	AAATGGACAGTGACCTTCTCG
HSPD1	GATGGAGAAGCTCTAAGTACACTCG	GCTGGTTCTTTCTATTGTCACCA
HSP90AA1	ATGGCAGCAAAGAAACAC	GTATCATCAGCAGTAGGGTCA
HSP90BB1	TGGCAGTCAAGCACTTTTCTGT	GCCCGACGAGGAATAAATAGC
LONP1	AACGTGTCGGGCTACGTG	CTCTCATCCAAGCCACACAG
RPL9	GGTGGGGTAACAGAAAGGAAC	CGTTGATGGGGAAGTGAGC
RPS18	CCAAGAGGGCGGGAGAAC	TATTTTCCATCCTTTACATCCTTCTG
CCL5	ACGTCAAGGAGTATTTCTACAC	GATGTATTCTTGAACCCACT
CXCL10	TGGCATTCAAGGAGTACCTC	TTGTAGCAATGATCTCAACACG
MXA	ATCCTGGGATTTTGGGGC TT	CCGCTTGTCGCTGGTGTCG
OAS1	AGGAAAGGTGCTTCCGAGGTAG	GGACTGAGGAAGACAACCAGGT

Figure legends

Figure 1: **UPRmt induction by GTPP is ATF5-dependent and associated with early stress granule (SG) formation**. (**A**) U2OS cells were transfected with non-targeting siRNA (siCont) or ATF5-specifc siRNA (siATF5), after 48 h cells were treated either with DMSO or 10 µM GTPP for 4h and mRNA levels of UPRmt markers were measured by RT-qPCR. Results shown as mean ± SD, n=3, normalised to RPL9 mRNA and shown relative to siCont DMSO expression level, analysed by two-way ANOVA (****, $P < 0.0001$; ***, $P < 0.001$; **, $P < 0.01$; *, $P < 0.05$). (**B**) Cells were treated with GTPP up to 8 h and analysed by immunofluorescence for the SG markers G3BP1 (cyan) and eIF3η (magenta). Nuclei were stained with DAPI. Scale bars indicate 10 µm. (**C**) Quantification by manual counting of cells with SGs

543 using ImageJ, at least 100 cells were counted per replicate. Results are shown as mean ± SD, n=3 and

544 were analysed by one-way ANOVA compared to DMSO treated cells (****, P < 0.0001; *, P < 0.05).

Figure 2: UPRmt activation by GTPP results in activation of the integrated stress response (ISR)
through PERK. (**A**) Western blot analysis of ATF4, GADD34 and p-eIF2α expression levels after GTPP
treatment up to 6 h. Representative blot of three independent experiments, with molecular weights (kDa)
indicated on the left and antibodies used on the right. Band quantifications were normalised to GAPDH
and relative to DMSO for each time point. (**B**) RT-qPCR analysis of ATF4, ATF5, CHOP and GADD34
mRNA expression followed by GTPP treatment up to 6 h. Results shown as mean ± SD, n=3,
normalised to RPL9 mRNA and shown relative to DMSO expression level, analysed by one-way
ANOVA (****, P < 0.0001; *, P < 0.05). (**C**) Cells were treated with GTPP for 2 h or transfected with
dsRNA (positive control) and analysed by immunofluorescence with anti-dsRNA and the mitochondrial
marker anti-TOMM20. Nucleus stained with DAPI. Scale bars indicate 10 µm. (**D**) RT-qPCR analysis of
IFN-stimulated genes including CXCL10, CCL5, MX1 and OAS1 after 1, 4 and 8 h GTPP exposure.
Results shown as mean ± SD, n=3, normalised to RPL9 mRNA and shown relative to DMSO expression
level. (**E**) Cells were treated with either DMSO, 0.1 µM PERK inhibitor GSK2606414 or 1 µM GCN2
inhibitor A-92 for 1 h followed by treated with 10 µM GTPP for 2h, 5 mM DTT for 2h and 2h-post UV
light exposure at 20mJ/cm^3. Shown is a representative blot from three independent experiments. Band
quantifications were normalised to GAPDH and relative to DMSO for each inhibitor used.

Figure 3: Pre-treatment with UPRmt inducers impairs assembly of eIF2α-dependent SGs and
prevents eIF2α phosphorylation. (**A**) Top right; schematic diagram of the experimental setup. U2OS
cells were pre-treated with 10 µM GTPP (**A**) or 0.5 mM paraquat (Pq) (**D**) and 0.5 mM sodium arsenite
(Ars) was added 30 min before harvest and cells were analysed by immunofluorescence for the SG
markers G3BP1 (cyan) and eIF3η (magenta). Nuclei were stained with DAPI. Scale bars indicate 10
µm. (**B, E**) Panels show quantification by manual counting of cells with SGs using ImageJ, at least 100
cells were counted per replicate. Results are shown as mean ± SD, n=3 and were analysed by one-
way ANOVA (****, P < 0.0001; ***, P < 0.001; *, P < 0.05). (**C, F**) Representative western blot analysis
of three independent experiments of Ars-induced eIF2α phosphorylation levels in U2OS cells pre-
treated with GTPP (C) and Pq (D). eIF2α phosphorylation levels were normalized to GAPDH expression
levels and are shown as relative to DMSO/NT cells; NT, non-treated. (**G**) Scatter plot displaying the
average size of SGs (left) and the number of SGs per cell in cells (right) of data from D using Analyze
Particle plugin from ImageJ. Each point represents individual cells analysed from three independent
experiments (100 cells per condition) and were analysed by Mann-Whitney test (****, P < 0.0001).

Figure 4: GADD34 upregulation is responsible for preventing eIF2α-phosphorylation and SG
assembly. U2OS control (Ctrl) or GADD34 KO cells were treated with GTPP 4 h (**A**) or paraquat (Pq)
48 h (**C**) and 0.5 mM sodium arsenite (Ars) was added 30 min before harvest and cells were analysed
by immunofluorescence for the SG markers G3BP1 (cyan) and eIF3η (magenta). Nucleus stained with
DAPI. Scale bars indicate 10 µm. (**B, D**) Panels show quantification by manual counting of cells with
SGs using ImageJ, at least 100 cells were counted per replicate. Results are shown as mean ± SD,
n=3 and were analysed by two-way ANOVA (****, P < 0.0001; **, P < 0.01). (**F, G**) Representative

western blot analysis of three independent experiments of same conditions as above showing GADD34 protein levels and arsenite-induced eIF2α phosphorylation levels in Ctrl and GADD34 U2OS cells pre-treated with GTPP (**F**) and Pq (**G**). eIF2α phosphorylation levels were normalized to eIF3A or GAPDH expression levels and are shown as relative to DMSO/NT cells; NT, non-treated.

Figure 5: UPRmt activation also alters eIF2α-independent SG formation associated with an upregulation of SG disassembly chaperones. U2OS were pre-treated with 10 µM GTPP (**A**) or 0.5 mM paraquat (Pq) (**C**) and 2 µM silvestrol (Silv) was added 1 h before harvest, analysed by immunofluorescence for the SG markers G3BP1 (cyan) and eIF3η (magenta). Nucleus stained with DAPI. Scale bars indicate 10 µm. (**B, D**) Panels show quantification by manual counting of cells with SG using ImageJ, at least 100 cells were counted per replicate. Results are shown as mean ± SD, n=3, and were analysed by one-way ANOVA (****, $P < 0.0001$; ns, non-significant). (**E**) Scatter plot displaying the average size of SGs (left) and the number of SGs per cell in cells (right) of data from D using G3BP1 channel and Analyze Particle plugin from ImageJ. Each point represents individual cells analysed from three independent experiments (100 cells per condition) and were analysed by Mann-Whitney test (****, $P < 0.0001$). (**F, G**) RT-qPCR analysis of SG disassembly chaperones HSP90AA1, HSP90AB1 and DYRK3 mRNA expression levels in response to GTPP (**F**) and Pq (**G**) treatment. Results shown as mean ± SD, n=3, normalised to RpL9 mRNA and shown relative to DMSO/NT expression level, analysed by two-way ANOVA (****, $P < 0.0001$; **, $P < 0.01$; *, $P < 0.05$).

Figure 6: Presence of SGs perturbs mitochondrial respiration during UPRmt. (**A**) Schematic diagram of the respiratory profile of live cells using Seahorse Cell Mito Stress Test, showing the key parameters of mitochondrial function and the drugs being used. Briefly, oxygen consumption rate is measured when cells are sequentially stimulated with oligomycin (ATP synthase inhibitor), FCCP (protonophore, uncoupling) and antimycin A/rotenone (inhibitors of complex III and I). (**B**) Representative respiratory profile of three independent experiments of WT (solid line) and G3BP1/2 dKO (dashed line) U2OS cells treated with DMSO (black) or GTPP (purple) for 2 h. (**C**) Various parameters of mitochondrial respiration were analysed based on data of B. Results shown as mean ± SD, n=3 and as fold change to DMSO-treated cells for each cell line, analysed by two-way ANOVA (****, $P < 0.0001$; ***, $P < 0.001$; **, $P < 0.01$; *, $P < 0.05$).

Supplementary Figure 1: UPRmt activation by paraquat in U2OS cells. RT-qPCR analysis of ISR and UPRmt markers followed by 0.5 mM paraquat treatment for 48 h. Results shown as mean ± SD, n=3, normalised to RPL9 mRNA and shown relative to NT expression level, analysed by two-way ANOVA (****, $P < 0.0001$; *, $P < 0.05$); NT, non-treated.

Supplementary Figure 2: ATF5-depedent transcriptional programme is not responsible for regulating SG dynamics. (**A**) U2OS cells were transfected with non-targeting siRNA (siCont) or ATF5-specifc siRNA (siATF5), after 48 h cells were treated with GTPP 4h and sodium arsenite (Ars) was added 30 min before harvesting and cells were analysed by immunofluorescence for the SG markers G3BP1 (cyan) and eIF3η (magenta). Nucleus stained with DAPI. Scale bars indicate 10 µm. (**B**) Panel shows quantification by manual counting of cells with SGs using ImageJ, at least 100 cells were counted

per replicate. Results are shown as mean ± SD, n=3 and were analysed by two-way ANOVA (ns, non-
significant).

Supplementary Figure 3: Validation of U2OS GADD34 KO single cell clones by Western blot.
Clones were treated with 2 µM thapsigargin (Thap) or with DMSO (-) for 3 h and GADD34 protein levels
were analysed by western blot. eIF3A was used as loading control.

Supplementary Figure 4: U2OS G3BP1/2 dKO cells do not form SGs. U2OS WT and G3BP1/2 dKO
cells were treated with arsenite (Ars) for 30 min and analysed by immunofluorescence using the SG
markers G3BP1 (cyan) and eIF3η (magenta). Nuclei were stained with DAPI. Scale bars indicate 10
µm.

Data availability Statement

All the data are included in the article. All unique reagents generated in this study are available
from the corresponding authors with a completed Materials Transfer Agreement.

Acknowledgments

We thank P. J. McCormick (Queen Mary University London) for helpful discussions during the
study.

Author contributions

N. L., A. R. and I. S. conceptualization; N. L., M. L-N., A. R., Z. S., R. S. and I. S. methodology; N. L.,
M. L-N., A. R., and Z. S. formal analysis; N. L., M. L-N., A. R., Z. S., R. S. and I. S. investigation; N. L.
and M. L-N. writing–original draft; N. L., M. L-N., A. R., Z. S., R. S. and I. S. writing–review & editing;
N.L. supervision. N. L., A. R., and I. S. funding acquisition.

Funding and additional information

Work in N.L.'s laboratory is supported by a Biotechnology and Biological Sciences Research Council
research grant [BB/V014528/1]. M. L-N. and R. S. are supported by DCSA4 Ph.D studentships from
the University of Surrey. Work in A.R.'s laboratory was supported by the Deutsche
Forschungsgemeinschaft (DFG, German Research Foundation) project numbers 240245660 SFB1129
TP13 and 278001972 TRR186 A14.

Conflict of interest

The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest with the contents of this article.

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Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

A

GTPP

DMSO   4 h   6 h   8 h

Cell seeding / UPR^mt inducers / SG inducers / Harvest

+ Ars 30 min

G3BP1 eIF3η DAPI

B

Cells displaying SG (%)

○ DMSO
△ Ars 30 min
● GTPP
▲ GTPP + Ars

****   ****   ****
*

4 h   6 h   8 h

C

4 h   6 h   8 h

kDa
- - + + - - + + - - + + GTPP
- + - + - + - + - + - + Ars
37—   p-eIF2α
1 79 8 18 1 80 5 12 1 68 3 13
37—   eIF2α total
37—   GAPDH

D

NT   Ars 30 min   Pq 48 h   Pq 48 h + Ars

G3BP1 eIF3η DAPI

E

Cells displaying SG (%)

***

NT   Ars   Pq   Pq + Ars

F

48 h
- - + + Pq
kDa - + - + Ars
37—   p-eIF2α
1 79 8 18
37—   eIF2α total
100—   eIF3η

G

SG area (µm²)   ****

Ars   Pq+Ars

SG/cell   ****

Ars   Pq+Ars

Figure 4

Figure 5

Figure 6