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TITLE: *Disruption of G3BP1 Granules Promotes Mammalian CNS and PNS Axon Regeneration*

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45   **Competing Interest Statement:** PK Sahoo and JL Twiss hold a US patent on use of the G3BP1
46   cell permeable peptide for axon regeneration and neurodegeneration.

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49   **This PDF file includes:** Main Text
50   Main Figures 1 to 5

ABSTRACT

Depletion or inhibition of core stress granule proteins, G3BP1 in mammals and TIAR-2 in *C.*

elegans, increases axon regeneration in injured neurons, showing spontaneous regeneration.

Inhibition of G3BP1 by expression of its acidic or 'B-domain' accelerates axon regeneration after

nerve injury, bringing a potential therapeutic intervention to promote neural repair in the

peripheral nervous system. Here, we asked if G3BP1 inhibition is a viable strategy to promote

regeneration in injured mammalian central nervous system where axons do not regenerate

spontaneously. G3BP1 B-domain expression was found to promote axon regeneration in the

transected spinal cord provided with a permissive peripheral nerve graft (PNG) as well as in

crushed optic nerve. Moreover, a cell-permeable peptide (CPP) to a subregion of B-domain

(rodent G3BP1 amino acids 190-208) accelerated axon regeneration after peripheral nerve

injury and promoted regrowth of reticulospinal axons into the distal transected spinal cord

through a bridging PNG. G3BP1 CPP promoted axon growth from rodent and human neurons

cultured on permissive substrates, and this function required alternating Glu/Asp-Pro repeats

that impart a unique predicted tertiary structure. The G3BP1 CPP disassembles axonal G3BP1,

G3BP2, and FMRP, but not FXR1, granules and selectively increases axonal protein synthesis in

cortical neurons. These studies identify G3BP1 granules as a key regulator of axon growth in

CNS neurons and demonstrate that disassembly of these granules promotes retinal axon

regeneration in injured optic nerve and reticulospinal axon elongation into permissive

environments after CNS injury. This work highlights G3BP1 granule disassembly as a potential

therapeutic strategy for enhancing axon growth and neural repair.

SIGNIFICANCE STATEMENT

The central nervous system (CNS) axon does not have the capacity for spontaneous axon

regeneration, as seen in the peripheral nervous system (PNS). We previously showed that stress

granule-like aggregates of G3BP1 are present in uninjured PNS axons, and these slow nerve

regeneration. We now report that CNS axons contain G3BP1 granules, and G3BP1 granule

disassembling strategies promote axon regeneration in the injured sciatic nerve, transected

spinal cord with a peripheral nerve graft, and injured optic nerve. Thus, G3BP1 granules are a

barrier to axon regeneration and can be targeted for stimulating neural repair following

traumatic injury, including in the regeneration refractory CNS.

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INTRODUCTION

Though the mammalian peripheral nervous system (PNS) can spontaneously regenerate

injured axons, the growth rates are extremely slow at about 1-4 mm/day (1). Regenerating PNS

axons can successfully navigate to their targets over short distances and restore at least partial

function. However, PNS nerve regeneration for distances more than 5-6 cm is much less

successful; this has been attributed to a progressive decline of the growth-supportive

environment of the distal nerve and/or the receptivity of target tissues for reinnervation (1).

Successful axon regeneration in the central nervous system (CNS) is even more problematic, as

CNS neurons have a considerably lower intrinsic growth capacity than PNS neurons and the

extracellular environment of the injured CNS actively inhibits axon regeneration (2). Thus, there

are unmet clinical needs to accelerate PNS axon regeneration and to enable

CNS axon regeneration.

Activation of the mTOR pathway, which increases overall cap-dependent protein

synthesis, has been shown to promote axon regeneration in the injured CNS and PNS (3-9).

Indeed, deletion or inhibition of PTEN that increases activity of the mTOR pathway promotes

regeneration of corticospinal tract axons in the injured spinal cord that are typically among the

most refractory to regeneration (7). Protein synthesis in axons has been shown to facilitate PNS

axon regeneration (10). Intra-axonal protein synthesis is a well-established mechanism in

cultured CNS neurons, where the axon uses locally synthesized proteins for directional growth;

there are now multiple lines of evidence indicating that many CNS neurons retain the capacity

for intra-axonal protein synthesis well into adulthood (11-13), and some evidence for mRNA

translation in spinal cord axons (14-17). We previously showed that axonal RNA-protein

granules containing the core stress granule protein G3BP1 slow PNS axon regeneration by

sequestering mRNAs and attenuating their translation in injured axons (18). Stress granules,

which form by liquid-liquid phase separation (LLPS), are typically seen during metabolic or

oxidative stress conditions and are used to store mRNAs encoding proteins that are not needed

to respond to the stress (19). However, axons use stress granule-like structures as RNA storage

depots in the apparent absence of any stress signals (18, 20), and disassembly of axonal G3BP1

granules promotes intra-axonal protein synthesis and accelerates PNS axon regeneration (18,

20). Here, we asked whether inhibiting the RNA sequestration function of G3BP1 has

therapeutic potential for promoting CNS axon regeneration.

RESULTS

G3BP1 granules attenuate axon regeneration in the central nervous system.

We previously showed that G3BP1 granules slow PNS axon regeneration and that expressing G3BP1's acidic domain or 'B-domain', consisting of rat G3BP1 amino acids 141-220 (UniProt ID: D3ZYS7_RAT), accelerates axon regeneration following sciatic nerve crush injury (18). G3BP1 B-domain expression decreases both the size and number of axonal G3BP1 granules, increases intra-axonal protein synthesis in cultured sensory neurons, and accelerates PNS nerve regeneration (18). Thus, the exogenously expressed G3BP1 B-domain acts as a 'dominant negative' agent. With these effects seen in PNS axons when G3BP1 is inhibited, we hypothesized that axonal G3BP1 granules could also impede CNS axon regeneration.

Neural stem cells have been shown to promote CNS axon growth, where injured corticospinal axons can regrow to form a relay circuit across a site of spinal cord injury by forming synapses on stem cell-derived neurons grafted into the lesion site (21, 22). Lu *et al.* (2012) showed that neural progenitor cells isolated from the embryonic spinal cord ('caudalized grafts') promote growth of host corticospinal motor axons, whereas neural progenitor cells isolated from the embryonic telencephalon ('rostralized grafts') do not support regeneration into the graft (21). Using immunofluorescence for G3BP1 and TIA1, another core stress granule protein, we find that corticospinal axons in injured spinal cord contain more G3BP1-TIA1 granules in animals with a rostralized progenitor graft, which does not support regeneration, than those with a caudalized progenitor graft (**Fig. 1A**). This emphasizes that spinal cord axons contain G3BP1 and TIA1 granules, and that the abundance of these intra-axonal stress granule-like structures relatively decreases when a regeneration-promoting stimulus is provided to the injured spinal cord axons.

Adult dorsal root ganglion (DRG) sensory neurons and embryonic cortical neurons from

rats show increased axon growth upon disassembly of G3BP1 granules induced by expression of

the G3BP1 B-domain in culture (18). To test the possibility that G3BP1 granules may negatively

influence the growth of adult CNS axons, we asked whether B domain expression would

increase rates of injured spinal cord axon growth within a permissive growth environment. For

this, we transduced reticulospinal neurons using adeno-associated virus (AAV), serotype 5

expressing G3BP1 B-domain-blue fluorescent protein (BFP), full length G3BP1-BFP, or GFP.

Fifteen days later, a C4 hemisection was performed and a peripheral nerve graft (PNG) was

apposed to the rostral injury site adjacent to the reticulospinal tract as a growth-permissive

environment (**Fig. 1B**). Immunofluorescence for axons performed at 20 days after spinal cord

injury/PNG placement showed more axons extending further distances from the spinal

cord/PNG apposition in the G3BP1 B-domain-BFP expressing animals compared to the G3BP1-

BFP and GFP expressing animals (**Fig. 1C-D**). These data indicate that G3BP1 B-domain

expression can promote adult CNS axon growth *in vivo*.

The axons regenerating in the PNG above provide some similarities for spinal motor

axons regenerating in peripheral nerve – *i.e.*, the descending reticulospinal neurons regenerated

their axons through a growth-permissive PNS environment. Thus, we moved to an optic nerve

injury model where CNS neurons must regenerate their axons through a growth-inhibitory CNS

environment. For this, retinal ganglion cells (RGC) were transduced via intravitreal injection

with AAV serotype 2 (AAV2) expressing G3BP1 B-domain-BFP, G3BP1-BFP, or GFP, and then

crushed the optic nerve 14 days later (**Fig. 1E**). 14 days after this injury, immunofluorescent

staining for growth-associated protein 43 (GAP43) to detect regenerating axons and BFP/GFP to

detect transduced neurons showed that G3BP1 B-domain expression in RGCs greatly increases

axon regeneration (**Fig. 1F-G**). Interestingly, animals expressing the G3BP1 B-domain appeared

to show far higher number of axons proximal to the injury site (**Fig. 1F**). Evaluation of

transduction efficiency based on optic nerve BFP positivity showed equivalent axon percentages

for G3BP1-BFP vs. G3BP1 B-domain-BFP (**Suppl. Fig. S1A-B**).

Expression of G3BP1 B-domain in PNS neurons disassembles axonal G3BP1 granules and

in turn accelerates PNS nerve regeneration (18). To determine if expression of the G3BP1 B-

domain affects G3BP1 granules in CNS axons, we compared G3BP1 granules in the reticulospinal

axons in PNGs and RGC axons in the injured optic nerve using confocal microscopy where we

could extract G3BP1 granule signals that overlapped with axonal markers across optical planes

as a separate panel (projected XYZ images shown for 'Axonal G3BP1' panels in **Suppl. Fig. S1C**

and F). G3BP1 B-domain expression in reticulospinal neurons and RGCs resulted in smaller and

fewer G3BP1 granules in the axons compared to G3BP1 and control GFP expression (**Suppl. Fig.**

S1D-E and G-H). In contrast to many other CNS and PNS axotomies, optic nerve crush triggers

death in the majority of RGCs (23-26), and we find that transduction with AAV2-G3BP1 B-

domain-BFP increased post-injury RGC survival compared to the two control conditions (**Suppl.**

Fig. S2). Taken together, these findings indicate that expression of the G3BP1 B-domain can

facilitate regeneration of injured CNS axons and overcome the growth-inhibitory environment of

the injured CNS, likely through G3BP1 granule disassembly and release of axonal mRNAs for

translation.

Cell permeable G3BP1 B-domain peptide increases PNS nerve regeneration.

Using synthetic cell-permeable peptides (CPP), we previously found that amino acids

147-166 and 190-208 of rat G3BP1 increase axon growth from cultured sensory and cortical

neurons (18), whereas a CPP consisting of rat G3BP1 amino acids 168-189 had no significant

effect (18). G3BP1 amino acid sequences for 147-166 and 190-208 CPPs are quite acidic with

Glu or Asp residues occupying 11 of 21 (52.4%) and 8 of 19 residues (42.1%), respectively (**Fig.**

2A). The G3BP1 190-208 CPP was more effective than 147-166 CPP in our earlier study (18), so

we tested whether the G3BP1 190-208 CPP might affect PNS axon regeneration *in vivo* using a

clinically relevant paradigm where the CPP is applied after nerve injury. For this, a mid-thigh

sciatic nerve crush was performed on adult rats and 2 days later the G3BP1 190-208 or 168-189

CPP was injected just proximal to the injury site to achieve an estimated 113 µM concentration

within the perineurium (**Fig. 2B**). G3BP1 190-208 CPP-injected animals showed a strong increase

in axon regeneration at 7 days post-injury (5 days after peptide treatment) compared to G3BP1

168-189 CPP-injected animals, an effect that was particularly evident at longer distances down

the nerve (**Fig. 2C-D**). The G3BP1 168-189 CPP-injected animals showed no significant difference

from those injected with an equivalent volume of the vehicle control (phosphate-buffered saline

[PBS]; **Fig. 2D**).

To determine if the accelerated nerve regeneration seen with the G3BP1 190-208 CPP

brings functional improvements, we compared neuromuscular junction reinnervation in G3BP1

168-189 vs. 190-208 CPP-treated animals using compound muscle action potentials (CMAP) for

the lateral gastrocnemius (LG) and tibialis anterior (TA) muscles (**Fig. 2B**). Recovery of CMAPs

was significantly accelerated in the animals treated with G3BP1 190-208 CPP treatment for both

the LG and TA at 2 and 4 weeks after sciatic nerve crush (**Fig. 2E, Suppl. Fig. S3A**). There were

no differences between the G3BP1 190-208 and 168-189 CPP-treated animals at 8 weeks post-

injury (**Fig. 2E**), consistent with spontaneous regeneration in the PNS; similar results were

previously reported for sciatic nerve crush recovery in AAV-G3BP1 B-domain transduced animals

(18). It should be noted that significant differences between the G3BP1 190-208 and 168-189

CPP-treated animals were not seen at 6 weeks post-injury, which points to a limited *in vivo*

duration for the G3BP1 190-208 CPP activity and emphasizes an opportunity to improve peptide

stability.

The G3BP1 190-208 sequence contains seven Glu-Pro (EP_7) repeats flanked by N-

terminal Val-Val and C-terminal Val-Ser-Asp (**Fig. 2A**). We sought to determine critical residues

for function of the 190-208 G3BP1 CPP by asking whether sequence alterations modified its

axon growth-promoting activity in adult DRGs cultured on laminin. We initially tested 190-208

G3BP1 CPP from a different vendor ('Bachem') and got identical results to the previous synthetic

peptide (**Fig. 2F, Suppl. Fig 3B-D**). A modified 190-208 CPP in which all Glu residues in the EP_7

region were replaced with similarly acidic Asp residues promoted axon growth to a similar

extent as the original 190-208 CPP (**Fig. 2F, Suppl. Fig. S3B-D**). Similarly, a CPP lacking the N-

and C-terminal residues flanking the EP_7 repeats (G3BP1 192-205 CPP) maintained full axon

growth-promoting activity (**Fig. 2F, Suppl. Fig. S3B-D**), indicating that just the seven EP repeats

are sufficient to promote axon growth. However, a scrambled 190-208 G3BP1 CPP where the

EP_7 was changed to seven Glu followed by seven Pro (E_7P_7) generated axon lengths that were

not significantly different than the non-functional 168-189 G3BP1 CPP (**Fig. 2F, Suppl. Fig. S3B-**

D). Taken together, these data indicate that axon growth-promoting functions of the 190-208

G3BP1 CPP require repeats of acidic residues with intervening Pro.

The G3BP1 147-166 sequence bears some similarities to the 190-208 sequence with a

preponderance of Glu residues (**Fig. 2A**). Interestingly, we have shown that Casein kinase 2

alpha (CK2α)-dependent phosphorylation of G3BP1 on Ser 149 (G3BP1^{PS149}) causes G3BP1

granule disassembly and decreases G3BP1's RNA binding activity (20). Considering the

functional effects of Ser 149 phosphorylation, we asked whether replacing Ser 149 with an

acidic residue to mimic phosphorylated G3BP1 (147-177^{S149E}) would increase the axon growth

effects of G3BP1 147-166 CPP to levels comparable to the G3BP1 190-208 CPP. G3BP1 147-

149^{S149E} CPP treatment generated axon lengths intermediate between the 168-189 and 190-208

CPPs (**Fig. 2F, Suppl. Fig. S3B-D**), indicating that the S149E modification did not raise the 147-

166 CPP's efficacy to that of the 190-208 CPP. We further tested a CPP containing the human

G3BP1 sequence corresponding to rat amino acids 190-208 (human 191-209). The human 191-

209 CPP promoted axon growth comparable to the rat 190-208 CPP despite an Asp at residue

197 (instead of Glu) and Gln at residue 204 (instead of Pro) within the EP$_7$ region (**Fig. 2A and F,**

Suppl. Fig. S3B-D). Rat 190-208, rat 192-205 (EP$_7$), and human 191-209 CPPs also substantially

increased neurite growth from glutamatergic neurons derived from human induced pluripotent

stem cells (hiPSC) (**Fig. 2G, Suppl. Fig. S4**).

Axon branching in adult DRG cultures treated with the G3BP1 CPP variants was also

assessed. The rat 192-205, human 191-209, and rat 147-166^{S149E} G3BP1 CPPs increased branch

density by ~12% as compared to the rat 190-208 and other CPP variants, which were not

different than the rat 168-189 CPP with no axon outgrowth effects (**Suppl. Fig. S3D**). Similarly,

rat 192-205 and human 191-209 G3BP1 CPPs increased neurite branch density in the hiPSC-

derived neurons, but the rat 190-208 and scrambled 190-208 G3BP1 CPPs were no different

than the rat 168-189 CPP or no treatment control (**Suppl. Fig. S4C**). Notably, each of the CPPs

that increased the total axon/neurite length also increased the length of the longest

axon/neurite per neuron (**Suppl. Figs. S3C and S4B)**, indicating that the increased branching

seen with rat 192-205 and human 191-209 CPPs does not account for the difference in total

axon/neurite lengths shown above. In contrast, the increase in DRG total axon length and

longest axon per neuron induced by the rat 147-166^{S149E} CPP was modest with non-significant Z

score compared to the population mean, suggesting that it had minimal effects on elongating

axon growth (**Fig. 2F, Suppl. Fig. S3C-D**).

G3BP1 190-208 cell-permeable peptide differentially alters CNS axon regeneration depending

on the local environment.

Since the G3BP1 190-208 CPP successfully promotes PNS axon regeneration (**Fig. 2B-E**)

and the G3BP1 B-domain promotes regeneration of reticulospinal axons (**Fig. 1B-D**), we asked

whether this CPP strategy might also be effective in promoting CNS axon regeneration. To test

this, we performed a C4 hemisection with a PNG apposed close to the rostral injury site for axon

growth by descending axons or local interneurons (**Fig. 3A**). The same day, the rat 168-189 or

190-208 G3BP1 CPPs were injected directly into the spinal cord just rostral to the injury site and

regeneration through the PNG was evaluated 10 days later by immunostaining for axonal

markers (**Fig. 3A**). Increases in axon profile numbers were only seen in the most proximal

segment of the PNG for the G3BP1 190-208 compared to 168-189 CPP-treated animals (**Fig. 3B**).

Thus, in contrast to the effect of the G3BP1 B-domain in this experimental model, there were no

differences between treatment groups in the more distal PNG segments (2-6 mm; **Fig. 3B**).

Confocal microscopy for XYZ imaging of the proximal PNG segment was used to reconstruct the

path and branches of individual regenerating axons across optical planes representing cross

sections of the PNG in combination with *Neurolucida* software neurite tracking/branching

function. Surprisingly, the 190-208 G3BP1 CPP-treated animals showed a remarkable increase in

axon branching complexity in the proximal PNG compared to the 168-189 CPP-treated animals

(**Fig. 3C-D**). Thus, although the 190-208 G3BP1 CPP increases axon outgrowth in PNGs, this

appears to result in axon branching or sprouting rather than the axon elongation seen in PNGs

with AAV-G3BP1 B-domain transduced reticulospinal neurons.

In the above spinal cord injury experiment, the CPPs were presented to axons directly in

the injured spinal cord but the nerve regeneration experiments in Figure 2 presented the CPPs

to axons in the permissive environment of the peripheral nerve. Thus, we asked if exposing

regenerating reticulospinal axons to G3BP1 CPPs within the PNG might alter their growth

differently. For this, we performed a C4 hemisection with descending PNG as in Figure 1; 30

days later, CPPs were injected into the distal PNG that was then apposed to the spinal cord

adjacent to the caudal injury site (**Fig. 3E**). Animals were euthanized 22 days later (52 days post-

injury, 22 days CPP exposure) and spinal cords with attached PNG were analyzed for axon

regeneration using SCG10 immunostaining. The 190-208 G3PB1 CPP-treated animals showed

increased numbers of axons entering into the spinal cord from the PNG, and those axons

extended considerably greater distances into the spinal cord compared to scrambled 190-208

CPP-treated animals (**Fig. 3F-G**). Thus, the 190-208 G3BP1 CPP can promote growth of injured

adult spinal cord axons, but our data suggest that it generates different growth morphologies

depending on whether the CPP is presented in the growth-inhibitory environment of the spinal

cord or the growth-permissive environment of the PNG.

Axonal growth morphology induced by G3BP1 190-208 cell permeable peptide depends on

growth environments.

292   To directly test the possibility that the G3BP1 190-208 CPP differentially alters axon

growth depending on the permissiveness of the growth substrate, we evaluated neurite growth

from embryonic day 18 (E18) rat cortical neurons cultured on growth-permissive (poly-D-lysine

[PDL]) or growth-inhibitory (PDL + aggrecan) substrates. For neurons cultured on PDL, rat 190-

208 G3BP1 CPP nearly doubled total axon length and distance the axon extended from the

soma, had a smaller but significant effect on dendrite lengths, and decreased axon and dendrite

branching compared to 168-189 CPP (**Fig. 4A, Suppl. Fig. S5**). In contrast, 190-208 G3BP1 CPP-

treated cortical neurons cultured on PDL + aggrecan showed increased axon and dendrite

branching compared to 168-198 CPP-treated neurons (**Fig. 4B**). Total axon and dendrite lengths

were increased by 25% and 80%, respectively, for the 190-208 G3BP1 CPP-treated compared to

168-198 CPP-treated cortical neurons cultured on PDL + aggrecan; distance extended from the

soma was not changed for the axons but was increased for the dendrites in these CNS neurons

(**Fig. 4B, Suppl. Fig. S5B**). We had previously shown that G3BP1 190-208 CPP treatment

increases axon lengths for DRG neurons grown on laminin (18). In contrast to the cortical

neurons used above, DRG neurons only extend Tau$^+$/MAP2$^-$ neurites with other axonal features

(27-29) in culture, so only axon growth can be evaluated in these DRG cultures. 190-208 G3BP1

CPP-treated DRG cultures showed increased total axon length on laminin + aggrecan, but axon

branching was also significantly increased compared to the 168-189 CPP-treated neurons

(**Suppl. Fig. S5C-D**). Taken together, these data indicate that disassembling axonal G3BP1

granules using the 190-208 G3BP1 CPP in non-permissive growth environments increases

neurite branching, while the CPP promotes elongating axon growth in permissive growth

environments.

Axon growth-inhibiting vs. -promoting substrates are known to differentially regulate

activities of the small GTPases RhoA, Rac, and CDC42 (30-34). CSPGs, in particular, activate

RhoA in distal axons, which promotes actin filament disassembly and growth cone retraction (2),

and accordingly, inhibition of RhoA allows axons to grow on this non-permissive substrate (35-

37). In contrast, axon growth-promoting stimuli (*e.g.*, neurotrophins) activate Rac and CDC42 in

distal axons, which promotes actin filament assembly and growth cone advance (34). To

determine if RhoA plays any role in the increased axon branching seen with rat 190-208 G3BP1

CPP treatment for neurons grown on the CSPG aggrecan, we pharmacologically inhibited RhoA

kinase (ROCK) using the ROCK inhibitor Y27632 (10 μM) in E18 rat cortical neurons cultured on

PDL + aggrecan simultaneously with CPP treatment. As Y27632 has been previously shown to

increase neurite growth of both PNS and CNS neurons on growth non-permissive substrates (38-

40), we focused on a combinatorial treatment of the neurons with Y27632 and CPP. For the

control CPP-treated neurons (scrambled 190-208 G3BP1), RhoA inhibition increased total axon

length/neuron, but this can be attributed to an approximately five-fold increase in axon

branching compared to vehicle-treated neurons (DMSO; **Fig. 4C-D, Suppl. Fig. S5E**). For the rat

190-208 G3BP1 CPP-treated neurons, RhoA inhibition increased total axon length, but decreased

axon branching compared to DMSO-treated cultures (**Fig. 4D, Suppl. Fig. S5E**). Together, these

data indicate that RhoA activity drives axon branching on the growth-inhibitory substrate in the

presence of the G3BP1 granule disassembling CPP. This raises the interesting possibility that

intra-axonal signaling, driven by the permissiveness vs. non-permissiveness of the axon's

environment, can shift the elongating morphology of CNS axon growth depending upon RhoA

activity and G3BP1 granule formation status.

G3BP1 192-205 cell permeable peptide disassembles specific axonal RNPs and enhances

axonal protein synthesis.

338   Previously, we have shown that the expression of the G3BP1 B-domain in NIH-3T3 cells

blocks arsenite-induced SG formation (18). Moreover, the application of the G3BP1 190-208

CPP to DRG neurons leads to immediate disassembly of axonal G3BP1 granules and specifically

increases axonal protein synthesis (18). In Figure 2, we identified that the core 192-205 (EP$_7$)

peptide of rat G3BP1 is equally effective as the 190-208 peptide. Based on these data, we asked

if the G3BP1 granule disassembling 192-205 (EP$_7$) CPP works in a similar manner in CNS neurons.

For this, we treated 10 days in vitro (DIV) embryonic rat cortical neuron cultures with scrambled

(E$_7$P$_7$) or G3BP1 192-205 (EP$_7$) CPP for 1 h and then assayed the effect of the CPPs on G3BP1 and

other stress granule proteins by confocal microscopy. The G3BP1 192-205 (EP$_7$) CPP significantly

reduces both the density and size of axonal G3BP1 granules (**Fig. 5A-C**). G3BP2 and FMRP axonal

granule density were decreased by the 192-205 (EP$_7$) CPP, but granule size was not affected (**Fig.**

5D-F, **Suppl. Fig. S6A-C**). Interestingly, the G3BP1 192-205 (EP$_7$) CPP did not show any significant

effect on axonal FXR1 granule density or size (**Suppl. Fig. S6D-F**). Overall, these data indicate

that the G3BP1 CPP promotes the disassembly of axonal LLPS for multiple stress granule-linked

proteins.

We previously showed that the 190-208 G3BP1 CPP increases axonal but not cell body

protein synthesis in adult DRG neurons (18). Thus, we asked if the G3BP1 192-205 (EP$_7$) CPP can

modulate protein synthesis in CNS neurons. 30 min exposure to the G3BP1 192-205 (EP$_7$) CPP

specifically increases axonal protein synthesis in 10 DIV embryonic rat cortical neuron cultures

without any significant effect on soma protein synthesis (**Fig. 5G-I**). Because this peptide also

penetrates glial cells, we asked if protein synthesis in Schwann cells of mixed adult DRG cultures

would be affected by G3BP1 192-205 (EP$_7$) CPP treatment. There was no significant change in

protein synthesis in the Schwann cells by puromycinylation comparing 192-205 (EP$_7$) vs.

scrambled (E$_7$P$_7$) CPP-treated cultures (**Suppl. Fig. S6G-H**). Taken together, these data suggest

that the G3BP1 granule disassembling CPP specifically increases protein synthesis in the axonal

compartment.

Considering the effect of RhoA inhibition shown in Figures 4 and S5, we asked if the

G3BP1 granules in cortical neurons contain *RhoA* mRNA and if this interaction is affected by

growth-inhibiting vs. growth-promoting stimuli. Analysis of RNA coimmunoprecipitating with

G3BP1 (i.e., RNA co-immunoprecipitation or RIP) by reverse-transcriptase droplet-digital PCR

(RT-ddPCR) data shows that treatment of cortical neurons with aggrecan significantly reduces

the interaction of *Rhoa* mRNA with G3BP1 and the G3BP1 192-205 (EP$_7$) CPP has no apparent

effect on G3BP1-*Rhoa* interaction (**Fig. 5K**, **Suppl. Fig. S6I**). Considering the known role of the

mTor pathway in modulating CNS and PNS axon growth (3-9), we asked if *mTor* and *Pten* mRNAs

might show G3BP1 association that is altered by growth-inhibiting vs. growth-promoting stimuli.

Treatment with laminin, aggrecan, or the G3BP1 192-205 (EP_7) CPP attenuated G3BP1-*mTor*

mRNA interaction but had no significant effect on G3BP1-*Pten* mRNA interaction (**Fig. 5L, M**).

Taken together, these data emphasize that the specificity of response to G3BP1 granule

disassembly is modulated by the neuronal growth environment, providing a likely explanation

for the differences in axon growth promotion seen with granule disassembly in CNS vs. PNS

extracellular environments.

DISCUSSION

In contrast to the PNS, low capacity for axon growth after injury combined with a

growth-inhibitory extracellular milieu in the injured brain and spinal cord limits the mature CNS

neurons' axon regeneration after traumatic CNS injuries (2). Consequently, interventions are

needed to coax CNS axons to regenerate. PNS axons can spontaneously regenerate but grow

very slowly at 1-4 mm per day (1). We previously showed that decreasing LLPS of RNA-protein

granules containing the core stress granule protein G3BP1 accelerates the regeneration of

injured PNS axons (18, 20). Here, we show that expression of G3BP1's conserved B-domain

(amino acids 141-220) accelerates regeneration of reticulospinal axons in the growth-permissive

environment of a peripheral nerve grafted into the hemisected spinal cord and is sufficient to

enable injured RGCs to regenerate axons in the growth-inhibitory CNS environment of the

injured optic nerve. We previously found that this B-domain functions as a dominant negative

agent by preventing axonal G3BP1 granule assembly and increasing axonal protein synthesis

(18). Since G3BP1 B-domain expression in reticulospinal neurons and RGCs decreased granule

formation by endogenous G3BP1 in their axons, G3BP1 B-domain expression in the CNS neurons

likely increases regeneration by releasing axonal mRNAs encoding regeneration-associated

proteins that are normally sequestered in G3BP1 granules. Notably, depletion of the *C. elegans*

orthologue of TIA1, TIAR-2, similarly increased regeneration following axotomy by decreasing

RNA-protein granules and increasing axonal protein synthesis (41). Together with the findings

herein, this observation emphasizes that mRNA sequestration impedes mammalian CNS axon

regeneration just as previously shown for mammalian PNS nerve and for invertebrate axon

regeneration (18, 41).

Some interventions that increase PNS axon regeneration have proven successful for

promoting CNS axon regrowth, though this is often limited in terms of the extent of growth

promotion. For example, conditioning lumbosacral sensory neurons by sciatic nerve crush injury

accelerates axon regeneration after subsequent PNS injury and brings a degree of axon

regrowth after dorsal column lesion in the spinal cord (42). This phenomenon is attributable to

the entry of inflammatory cells into the injured PNS, which elevates levels of cell-derived growth

factors including oncomodulin and SDF-1 (43). The PTEN→mTOR pathway has been

manipulated to increase CNS and PNS axon regeneration either by attenuating PTEN activity or

downstream interventions that more directly increase mTOR activity (4, 7). PTEN activity can

modify gene transcription (44), however, the increase in mTOR activation with PTEN deletion

also converges on the translation machinery to globally increase cap-dependent protein

synthesis (45). The resulting activation of the mTOR pathway can promote axon regeneration

even in injured corticospinal tract axons that normally show very poor growth (8). *mTor* mRNA

is locally translated in PNS axons in response to an injury-induced increase in axoplasmic Ca^{2+}

(20, 46). This increase in axonal mTOR protein supports neuronal survival after injury (46) but is

also needed for subsequent translation of axonal *Csnk2a1* mRNA, with newly generated CK2α

phosphorylating G3BP1 and triggering G3BP1 granule disassembly to increase axonal protein

synthesis (20). *mTor* mRNA is also locally translated in axons of cultured cortical neurons (47)

and the mRNA and protein are present in growth cones of developing CNS neurons *in vivo* (48).

We find that *mTor* mRNA coprecipitates with neuronal G3BP1 protein and exposure to either

aggrecan or laminin depletes the mRNA from G3BP1 interaction. *mTor* mRNA was also released

from G3BP1 interaction by the G3BP1 granule disassembling CPP. In contrast to PNS and other

CNS neurons, a large proportion of RGCs die after optic nerve injury; similar to what we show

with G3BP1 B-domain expression in RGCs, deletion of the murine *PTEN* gene was shown to

increase survival of axotomized RGCs in addition to promoting regeneration (9). Thus, aggrecan-

induced release of *mTor* mRNA from G3BP1 interaction upon G3BP1 granule disassembly may

indeed prevent the death of injured RGCs that were transduced with the AAV2-G3BP1 B-

domain.

Though we have previously shown that G3BP1 B-domain and 190-208 CPP decrease

axonal G3BP1 granules and increase translation of protein products that promote axon growth

(18), it is not yet clear how either disrupts the G3BP1 granules. The B-domain is one of G3BP1's

three intrinsically disordered regions (IDR) and is required for LLPS by G3BP1 (49). This region is

well-conserved across vertebrate species, with mouse showing more than 85% homology to

human, 67% to xenopus, and 46% to zebrafish based on G3BP1 sequences available in UniProt

(50). The rodent 190-208 and human 191-209 sequences lie within G3BP1's IDR1, which

intramolecularly interacts with the protein's IDR3 (49, 51). CPPs have been employed to disrupt

protein-protein interactions (52). For example, CPPs were used to disrupt mutant Huntingtin's

(HTT) protein-protein interactions in a Huntington disease model and DJ-1's (PARK7)

interactions in a Parkinson disease model (53, 54). Though the G3BP1 B-domain (IDR1) was

shown to intramolecularly interact with the protein's IDR3 (49, 51), we do not detect

coprecipitation of G3BP1 with a biotinylated 190-208 G3BP1 CPP, even when testing

recombinant G3BP1 combined with crosslinking (raw data will be submitted to https://odc-

sci.org). Thus, interruption of G3BP1's intramolecular interactions or interactions of multiple

G3BP1 proteins with one another is an unlikely mechanism. G3BP1 is a core stress granule

protein that we previously showed interacts with other stress granule proteins in PNS sensory

axons including TIA1 (18). We show that core functional amino acids of the G3BP1 CPP (i.e., the

EP_7 repeat region, rat amino acids 192-205) disrupts G3BP1, G3BP2, and FMRP, but not FXR1

granules, in axons of cultured cortical neurons. Similar to the CPP not binding to G3BP1, we also

do not see coprecipitation of G3BP2 with the 190-208 CPP (raw data will be submitted to

https://odc-sci.org); thus, future studies will be needed to determine how the 190-208 CPP

disassembles G3BP1 granules. Depletion and knockout approaches have defined several core

stress granule proteins and proximity biotinylation approaches have uncovered many G3BP1

interacting proteins (49, 51, 55-57). Axonal G3BP1 colocalizes with TDP43, and rodent 190-208

G3BP1 CPP triggers disassembly of pathological TDP43 aggregates in axons of iPSC-derived

human motor neurons (58). Additionally, G3BP1 binds to the adapter protein Annexin A11,

which allows the RNP complex to be transported along axons by hitchhiking on

lysosomes/endosomes as a means for delivering mRNAs into axons (59). Since we see that

sustained exposure to the 190-208 G3BP1 CPP facilitates axon growth and delivery of new

mRNAs into axons that are needed for regeneration (10), the 190-208 CPP likely does not

interrupt G3BP1-AnnexinA11 interactions. Additional studies beyond the structure-activity

relationship analyses included here will be needed to uncover how the G3BP1 CPP and B-

domain disrupt G3BP1 granules.

The rodent 190-208 G3BP1 CPP contains seven Glu-Pro repeats, and a CPP with just the

seven Glu-Pro repeats (rodent G3BP1 amino acids 192-205) is sufficient for neurite growth-

promoting activity. Acidic residues with alternating prolines are essential for this growth

promotion, because a CPP with Asp residues replacing Glu has full activity, but its activity is lost

on scrambling the Glu-Pro repeats. Tertiary structures of rodent 190-208 and human 191-209

G3BP1 sequences generated with *Pepfold3* (60-62) predict a kink in the peptide backbone at

each Pro with the acidic side chains of each acidic residue projecting peripherally from the

backbone (**Suppl. Fig. S3Ei-ii**), which is lost in the scrambled rodent 190-208 G3BP1 CPP (**Suppl**

Fig. S3Eiii). These predicted 3D structure differences of the rodent 190-208 and human 191-209

G3BP1 CPPs compared to scrambled rodent 190-208 CPP, as well as the rodent 147-168^{S149E}

G3BP1 CPP (**Suppl. Fig. S3Eiv**), may contribute to differences in their growth promoting abilities.

It is intriguing that the 190-208 peptide increased branching of axons in the PNGs when

presented in the non-permissive environment of the injured spinal cord (**Fig. 3A-D**) and for

primary neurons cultured on non-permissive CSPG substrate compared to elongating growth on

permissive laminin substrate (**Fig. 4B, Suppl. Fig S5A-D**). This effect is in contrast to G3BP1 B-

domain expression that must begin before injury – this may point to different mechanisms

underlying prevention of G3BP1 granule formation (i.e., viral-based B-domain expression before

injury) vs. disassembly of formed G3BP1 granules (i.e., 190-208 G3BP1 CPP administration after

injury). Interestingly, inhibition of ROCK partially reversed the increased branching seen in the

190-208 G3BP1 CPP-treated neurons grown on aggrecan (**Fig. 4C-D, Suppl. Fig S5E**). Activation

of RhoA causes actin filament disassembly (63), and *RhoA* mRNA is locally translated in axons

(64) with previous studies showing that CSPGs stimulate axonal *RhoA* mRNA translation in axons

(31). This raises the possibility that the axon's environment determines either the complement

of mRNAs released from G3BP1 granules or which released mRNAs are translated in the axons.

RhoA mRNA has been detected in G3BP1-RNA coimmunoprecipitations (65). Axon branching

requires local reorganization of the cytoskeleton (66), and increasing RhoA protein locally could

support by increase axon branching by disassembling actin microfilaments. CSPG stimulation

can increase axoplasmic Ca^{2+} (67, 68) and axoplasmic Ca^{2+} levels can determine which axonal

RNAs released from G3BP1 granules are translated through the phosphorylation of the

translation factor eIF2α in axons (20). Consistent with this, we find that *RhoA* mRNA

coprecipitates with neuronal G3BP1 protein and this interaction is decreased in the presence of

aggrecan but was not affected by the G3BP1 granule disassembling CPP. Interestingly, RhoA

activation was shown to increase formation of TIA1- and FMRP-containing stress granules in

other cellular systems (69), and CSPG-stimulated RhoA can activate the cytoplasmic histone

deacetylase HDAC6 in distal axons (68). Although Y27632 has been extensively used in the past

to inhibit ROCK, it is now known to inhibit multiple other kinases to some extent (70). So, we

cannot exclude the off-target effects of Y27632 contributing to the rescue in axon growth and

branching that we see in Fig. 4C-D. Deacetylation of G3BP1 lysine 376 by HDAC6 promotes

G3BP1 granule assembly (71). Considering that the rat 190-208 G3BP1 and human 191-209

sequences do not include the post-translationally modified Ser 149 or Lys 376, we suspect that

these CPPs do not alter post-translational modifications of G3BP1. Taken together, our data

raise the possibility that successful long-distance CNS axon regeneration with G3BP1 granule

inhibition will require simultaneous inhibition of RhoA.

In summary, our findings show that G3BP1 granules contribute to failed axon

regeneration after optic nerve and spinal cord injury. Thus, disassembly of G3BP1 granules, as

we have done here using G3BP1 B-domain expression or the 190-208 G3BP1 CPP, could bring a

new strategy to promote neural repair following brain and spinal cord injuries, either on their

own or strategically combined with other interventions. Importantly, the G3BP1 190-208 CPP

strategy used here is effective when delivered 2 days after PNS injury and at least 30 days after

spinal cord injury, which elevates the potential clinical relevance of these reagents for neural

repair treatments. Structure-activity relationship studies point to alternating acidic residue (Glu

or Asp) and Pro repeats as the functional component of the 190-208 G3BP1 CPP. This presents

opportunities for further refinement of the CPP activity, and since the 191-209 human G3BP1

CPP promotes axon growth in human iPSC-derived CNS neurons, we anticipate that similar

reagents may have high translational value for neural repair in human patients.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Animal use – Institutional Animal Care and Use Committees of University of South Carolina,

Rutgers University, Boston Children's Hospital, Emory University, University of California San

Diego, Texas A&M University, and Drexel University approved all animal procedures. Sprague

Dawley rats (SD; 175-250 g) were used for sciatic nerve injury, and spinal cord injury, and wild

type 129s mice were used for optic nerve injury experiments. Survival surgery methods are

described below.

Peripheral nerve injury – For crush injury of the sciatic nerve, 5% isoflurane in 1 L/min oxygen

was used for anesthesia and maintained at 2% isoflurane in 1 L/min oxygen. Anesthetized rats or

mice were subjected to a manual crush at mid-thigh two times at 15 sec each using fine

jeweler's forceps with a 30 sec interval, and sciatic nerves were isolated 1 week later as

previously described (72).

Analysis of muscle reinnervation after peripheral nerve injury – Following nerve injury and

CPP injections, the extent of reinnervation of the hindlimb muscles was evaluated using in vivo

electromyography (EMG). Anesthesia was induced with 5% isoflurane in 1 L/min oxygen and

maintained at 2% isoflurane in 1 L/min oxygen.

Spinal cord injury stem cell graft – Adult female F344 Fischer rats received C4 dorsal column

lesion spinal cord injury. Surgeries were conducted under deep anesthesia using a combination

of ketamine (50 mg/kg), xylazine (2.6 mg/kg), and acepromazine (0.5 mg/kg). After performing a

laminectomy, a tungsten wire knife (McHugh Milieux, Downers Grove, IL) was positioned 0.6

mm lateral to the midline and inserted to a depth of 1 mm beneath the dorsal surface of the

spinal cord. The knife's arc was then extended 1.5 mm and elevated to transect the dorsal

columns as previously described (73). This injury model transects over 95% of corticospinal

axons (74).

Analysis of reticulospinal tract axon regeneration in PNGs – For testing expression of G3BP1

B-domain in reticulospinal neurons, AAV5-G3BP1-BFP or AAV5-B domain-BFP was microinjected

into the brainstem of female SD (225 g, obtained from Charles River) on day 1 of

experimentation. Control rats received AAV5-GFP. Rats received three 1 μl injections at 1 mm

rostral-caudal separations into medial-ventral gigantocellular areas of the reticular formation

(see Figure 1B).

Optic nerve injury and RGC survival analysis – Optic nerve regeneration and RGC survival were

investigated in 129s mice. The optic nerve was exposed and crushed 1-2 mm behind the orbit

using jeweler's forceps using methods that have been previously described (26, 75-77).

Cell culture – For primary neuronal cultures, DRGs were harvested in Hibernate-A medium

(BrainBits; Cordova, TN) and then dissociated as described (72). After centrifugation and

washing in DMEM/F12 (Life Technologies), dissociated ganglia were resuspended in DMEM/F12,

1 x N1 supplement (Sigma), 10% fetal bovine serum (Hyclone; Logan, UT), and 10 μM cytosine

arabinoside (Sigma). Dissociated DRGs were plated immediately on poly-L-lysine (Sigma) +

laminin (Sigma-Millipore, St. Louis, MO) or poly-L-lysine + aggrecan (R&D Systems, Minneapolis,

MN) coated surfaces (20, 72). For Schwann cells, dissociated DRGs were cultured as above

without cytosine arabinoside. Schwann cells were identified at 2 DIV by co-immunostaining for

GFAP in the puromycinylation studies. The use of human iPSCs was approved by the Institutional

Review Board at the University of South Carolina. Human iPSCs from apparently healthy euploid

individuals were obtained from Dr. Alberto Costa (Case Western Reserve University; Cleveland,

Ohio) (78).

Viral expression constructs – AAV2 and AAV5 preparations were generated in Vigene

Biosciences/Charles Rivers Labs (Wilmington, MA) and the viruses were titrated in DRG cultures

by incubating with 1.8-2.8 x 10^{10} particles of AAV2/5 overnight. Generation of the viral

constructs has been described previously (18).

Generation of Tat-tagged G3BP1 B domain peptides – Eight peptides were generated from the

rat G3BP1 B domain sequence (amino acids 140-220; UniProt ID # D3ZYS7_RAT) by Peptide 2.0

(Chantilly, VA) and Bachem Americas, Inc. (Torrance, CA).

Puromycinylation assays – At 2 DIV, Schwann cells were starved using DMEM/F12 and 1x L-

Glutamine for 3 h. 10 μM Scrambled or 192-205-CPPs were added 15 min before completion of

starvation. Schwann cells were stimulated with 10% FBS and 1x N1 supplement. For translation

inhibition controls, anisomycin (Sigma, 40 μM) or DMSO was added 30 min before completion of

starvation for a total duration of 45 min. Puromycin (Sigma, 2 µg/ml) was added at the time of

stimulation for a total duration of 15 min (79, 80). Cultures were then fixed with 4% PFA, and

immunofluorescence for GFAP and puromycin was performed.

RNA immunoprecipitation (RIP) – 10 DIV cultured rat cortical neurons were treated with PBS,

laminin (5 µg/ml), or aggrecan (5 µg/ml) in solution for 4 h were used for RIP studies. Neurons

were collected and washed twice with cold PBS and were lysed in RIP buffer (containing

100 mM KCl, 5 mM MgCl$_2$, 10 mM HEPES [pH 7.0], 1 mM DTT, and 0.5% NP-40 supplemented

with 1 × protease inhibitor cocktail (Roche) and RNasin Plus (Invitrogen), by pipetting up-down

and incubating on ice for 10 min. Lysate was cleared by centrifugation at 12,000×g for 20 min.

Pre-washed Protein A/G Dynabeads (ThermoFisher) were incubated at 4°C for 1 h with anti-

rabbit IgG (Jackson Immunoresearch) or anti-G3BP1 antibody (Fisher Scientific) at 0.67 µg/ml

each in RNAse-free PBS and then washed with RIP buffer three times. The antibody-bound

beads were resuspended with 500 µl of NT2 buffer (containing 50 mM Tris-HCl [pH 7.4],

150 mM NaCl, 1 mM MgCl$_2$ and 0.5% NP-40 supplemented with 1 × protease inhibitor cocktail

and RNasin Plus (Invitrogen). 10% of cleared lysate was kept as input, and the rest was divided

in half for control IgG RIP or G3BP1 RIP. Lysates were added to antibody-protein A/G beads

complex in NT2 buffer and incubated at 4°C for 4 h. The immunocomplexes were washed with

NT2 buffer 6 times (18). The bound RNAs were purified and analyzed by RTddPCR (*see below*).

RNA isolation and RT-ddPCR analysis – RNA was isolated from inputs and immunoprecipitates

using Trizol (Invitrogen) and chloroform (MP biomedicals) and subsequently precipitated using

isopropanol and washed with 75% ethanol. Reverse transcription was done using LunaScript®

RT SuperMix Kit (NEB). ddPCR products were detected using QX200™ ddPCR™ EvaGreen

Supermix (Biorad) and QX200^{TM} droplet reader (Biorad).

Custom transcript-specific primer sets used for ddPCR were as follows: *RhoA*, forward

primer - CCAGACTGGACTGAGGAAATAG and reverse primer - GAAAGGAGCACTGTGACTTAGA;

mTor, forward primer - TGTCTGATTCTTACCACGCA and reverse primer -

CTCTTTGGCCAGGGTCTCAT; and *Pten*, forward primer - AGCGTGCGGATAATGACAAG and reverse

primer - GGATTTGATGGTTCCTCTACTG.

Immunoblotting **–** For immunoblotting, proteins were transferred from gels to nitrocellulose

membranes and blocked for 1 hour with 5% milk in Tris-buffered saline with 0.1% Tween 20

(TBST) at room temperature. Membranes were incubated overnight at 4°C with Rabbit anti-

G3BP1 antibody (1:2,000; Sigma) diluted in the blocking buffer while rocking. After washing with

TBST, membranes were incubated for 1 hour at room temperature with HRP-conjugated anti-

rabbit IgG secondary antibody (1:5,000; Jackson ImmunoResearch). Following washes with TBST,

immunocomplexes were visualized using Clarity™ Western ECL Substrate (Biorad).

Immunofluorescent staining **–** All procedures were performed at room temperature (RT)

unless specified otherwise. Cultured neurons were fixed in 4 % paraformaldehyde (PFA) in

phosphate-buffered saline (PBS), permeabilized in 0.3% TritonX, and incubated with primary and

secondary antibody solutions in blocking buffer as described previously (81).

Image analyses and processing **–** For analyses of stress granule protein levels in tissues, z

planes of the xyz scans of spinal cord sections were analyzed using *ImageJ*. Axons, neurons, and

Schwann cells were identified using specific markers, and SG protein colocalization with

neuronal or glial cell makers was assayed as described previously (14).

Statistical analyses **–** One-way ANOVA, Two-way ANOVA, or an equivalent non-parametric test

was used to compare means of > 2 independent groups and Student's *t*-test or Mann-Whitney

test was used to compare between 2 groups. p values of ≤ 0.05 were considered as statistically

significant. Z scores were calculated using the formula $\{\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}\}$, where x = sample mean, μ =

population mean, and σ = population standard deviation.

Other Methods – Detailed methods can be found in the *SI Appendix, Supplemental Materials*

and Methods.

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Data and materials availability: The data that support the findings of this study will be
deposited in a public repository (https://odc-sci.org). PKS and JLT hold a US patent on use of the
G3BP1 cell permeable peptide for axon regeneration and neurodegeneration. So, request for
this reagent will be available by materials transfer agreements (MTAs) with the University of
South Carolina.
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MAIN FIGURES

Figure 1: *Expression of G3BP1 acidic domain in CNS neurons facilitates axon regeneration.*

A, Representative exposure-matched confocal images of corticospinal axons in spinal cord

labeled with biotinylated dextran amine (BDA) following C4 level contusion injury and

subsequent grafting with rostralized or caudalized stem cell graft (21). Upper row shows XY

optical plane through CST axon regenerating into graft; lower row shows signals for stress

granule proteins G3BP1 and TIA1 that overlap with BDA across Z sections as XYZ projection in a

separate channel ('axonal G3BP1 + TIA1'). There are stress granules present in the few axons

regenerating into rostralized grafts, and these are absent in the more numerous axons

regenerating into caudalized grafts [scale bar = 10 µm].

B, Schematic of experimental paradigm and timeline for spinal cord injury model used in C-D,

with regeneration of reticulospinal neurons in the permissive environment of a peripheral nerve

graft (PNG).

C, Exposure-matched epifluorescence images for NF- + βIII Tubulin-immunostained PNGs from

animals transduced with AAV5-GFP, -G3BP1-BFP, or -G3BP1 B domain-BFP shown at indicated

distances from grafting site at proximal side of transected spinal cord. For G3BP1 granule size

and density after CPP treatment see Supplemental Figure S1A-C [scale bar = 500 µm].

D, Quantitation of regenerating reticulospinal axon profile numbers in PNGs from panel C at

indicated distances away from grafting site in spinal cord shown as mean ± standard error of the

mean (SEM; N = 5 animals; *p $\leq$ 0.05 vs. GFP- and & p $\leq$ 0.05 vs. G3BP1-BFP by two-way

ANOVA with Tukey HSD post-hoc).

E, Schematic of experimental paradigm for AAV transduction of retinal ganglion cells (RGC) and

optic nerve crush injury used in F-G.

F, Confocal montage images of optic nerves for AAV2-GFP, -G3BP1-BFP, G3BP1 B-domain-BFP

transduced animals at 14 days post injury. Regenerating axons are detected by anti-GAP43 (red)

and GFP, G3BP1-BFP and G3BP1 B-domain-BFP signals by anti-BFP/GFP antibodies (green). For

G3BP1 granule size and density after CPP treatment see Supplemental Figure S1D-F [scale bar =

250 μm].

G, Quantitation of GAP43 signals from F for regenerating RGC axon profiles is shown as mean ±

SEM (N ≥ 5 animals; **p≤0.01 and ****p≤0.0001 vs. GFP- and && p ≤ 0.01 and &&&& p ≤

0.001 vs. G3BP1-BFP-transduced animals by two-way ANOVA with Tukey HSD post-hoc). For

RGC survival data see Supplemental Figure S2.

<u>Figure 2</u>: *G3BP1 190-208 peptide promotes PNS and CNS axon growth.*

A, Schematic of rat G3BP1 protein with defined domains shown on the top. Sequence of acidic

domain (B domain) of G3BP1 shown below with sequence of amino acids 147-166, 168-189 and

190-208 used for cell permeable peptides (CPP). Variants of these CPPs tested in panels F-G and

Supplemental Figures S3-4 are indicated.

B, Timeline for sciatic nerve injury followed by intra-nerve G3BP1 CPP treatments used for

panels C-E and Supplemental Figure S3A.

C-D, Exposure-matched epifluorescence images for anti-SCG10 immunostained sciatic nerves 7

days post-crush that were treated with indicated CPPs or PBS are shown in **C**. Dotted line shows

the injury site. Quantitation of SCG10+ axon profiles at indicated distances past the injury site

from C is shown in **D** as mean ± SEM (N ≥ 6 animals; * p ≤ 0.05 by two-way ANOVA vs. 168-189

with Tukey HSD post-hoc) [scale bar = 500 μm].

E, Compound muscle action potentials (CMAP) are shown for gastrocnemius muscle of animals

treated with G3BP1 CPPs after sciatic nerve crush injury as in B are shown as average % intact M

responses ± SEM for indicated times (N ≥ 4 animals; *p ≤ 0.05 by Student's t-test for indicated

data pairs). For CMAP data on tibialis anterior muscle see Supplemental Figure S3A.

F, Quantitation of total axon growth of cultured adult rat sensory (DRG) neurons treated with

G3BP1 CPP and variants is shown as mean ± SEM (left Y-axis) and Z score relative to population

mean (right Y-axis; N ≥ 352 neurons across three biological replicates for each condition; * p ≤

0.05 and **** p ≤ 0.0001 vs. 168-189 CPP by one-way ANOVA with Dunnett post-hoc).

Representative images and data on longest axon per neuron and branch density are shown in

Supplemental Figure S3.

G, Quantitation of total neurite length for human iPSC (hiPSC)-derived glutamatergic neurons

untreated (Sham) or treated with indicated G3BP1 CPPs and variants shown as mean ± SEM (left

Y-axis) and Z score vs. population mean (right Y-axis; N ≥ 1165 neurons across three biological

replicates for each condition; **** p ≤ 0.0001 vs. Sham by one-way ANOVA with Tukey HSD

post-hoc). Representative images plus longest neurite length and neurite branching data are

shown in Supplemental Figure S4.

<u>Figure 3</u>: *G3BP1 190-208 cell permeable peptide promotes in vivo CNS axon regeneration.*

A, Schematic of experimental paradigm for spinal cord injury plus PNG and CPP treatment into

spinal cord just rostral to injury site used in B-D.

B, Quantitation of regenerating CNS axon profiles into PNGs from panel B at indicated distances

from spinal cord shown as mean ± SEM (N = 5 animals; *p ≤ 0.05 by Student's t-test for

indicated data pairs).

C, Neurolucida tracing images for NF- + -βIII tubulin-immunostained regenerating axons in

proximal PNG shown. Primary branches are pseudo-colored as cyan and secondary/tertiary

branches are pseudo- colored from violet-to-magenta. Note increased violet to magenta

neurites in the G3BP1 190-208 CPP- vs. 168-189 CPP-treated animals indicating increased

branching [scale bar = 250 µm in large images and 25 µm in insets].

D, Quantitation of axonal branching from Neurolucida tracing from C shown as mean ± SEM (N =

5 animals; *p ≤ 0.05 by Student's t-test).

E, Schematic of experimental paradigm for spinal cord injury plus PNG and CPP treatment into

the PNG used in F-G is shown.

F, Representative fluorescent images show anti-SCG10 immunosignals for regenerating CNS

axons in PNGs. Yellow dotted line shows the junction between PNG and spinal cord, with many

more axons penetrating the spinal cord in G3BP1 190-208 CPP- than scrambled 190-208 (Scr

190-208 [E_7P_7])-treated animals [scale bar = 50 µm].

G, Quantitation of distal spinal cord reticulospinal axons from F shown as mean ± SEM (N = 6

animals; ***p ≤ 0.001 by Student's t-test).

<u>Figure 4</u>: *G3BP1 acidic domain inhibits axonal G3BP1 granule assembly to enable CNS axon*

regeneration.

A-B, Axon and dendrite length and branching for G3BP1 190-208 vs. 168-189 CPP-treated E18

rat cortical neurons cultured on growth-permissive (**A**; PDL) vs. growth-inhibitory (**B**; PDL +

aggrecan) substrates is shown as mean ± SEM. Note that axon and dendrite branching are

significantly increased on the growth inhibitory substrates with 190-208 CPP exposure (N ≥ 1042

neurons across 3 culture preparations for each condition; **** p ≤ 0.0001 by students T-test).

Axon morphologies for adult DRG cultured on aggrecan plus G3BP1 190-208 vs. 168-189 CPP

shown in Supplemental Figure S5C-D.

C, Representative epifluorescence images of SMI312 immunostained E18 rat cortical neurons

cultured on aggrecan and treated with G3BP1 190-208 CPP vs. scrambled 190-208 CPP ± 10 µM

RhoA kinase inhibitor shown [scale bar = 50 µm].

D, Quantitation of axon length and branching density for E18 cortical neurons as in C shown as

mean ± SEM (N ≥ 259 neurons across three repetitions for each condition; ****/&&&&

p ≤ 0.0001 by one-way ANOVA with Tukey HSD post-hoc; * for indicated treatment group vs.

scrambled 190-208-DMSO, & for indicated treatment group vs. 190-208-DMSO). Average length

axons extend beyond soma shown in Supplemental Figure S5E.

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<u>Figure 5</u>: *G3BP1 granule disassembling CPP affects other stress granule proteins, activates*

axonal protein synthesis, and shows specificity for mRNA release.

A-C, Representative exposure-matched confocal images of axons of embryonic rat cortical

neurons labeled with axonal neurofilament marker SMI312 and G3BP1 are shown (**A**). The upper

panel of each image pair shows merged signals in a single XY plane, and the lower panel shows

the XYZ projection of G3BP1 signals that overlap with SMI312 across individual Z sections.

Quantitation of the density (**B**) and size (**C**) of axonal G3BP1 granules shown as mean ± SEM (**C**)

(N ≥ 33 axons across three biological replicates, ****p ≤ 0.0001 by Mann Whitney U test in B

and N ≥ 79 granules across three biological replicates, *p ≤ 0.05 by Mann Whitney U test in C)

[scale bar = 5 µm].

D-F, Representative exposure-matched confocal images of axons of embryonic rat cortical

neurons labeled with axonal neurofilament marker SMI312 and G3BP2 (**D**) are shown as in A.

Quantitation of the density (**E**) and size (**F**) of axonal G3BP2 granules shown as mean ± SEM (N ≥

38 axons across three biological replicates, ***p ≤ 0.001 by Mann Whitney U test in E and N ≥ 76

granules across three biological replicates, p values by Mann Whitney U test in F). For FMRP and

FXR1 granule size after CPP treatment, see Supplemental Figures S6A-F [scale bar = 5 μm].

G-I, Exposure-matched epifluorescence images for SMI312 + Puromycin immunostained

embryonic rat cortical neurons after CPP treatment are shown (**G**). Quantitation of the amount

of puromycin in soma (**H**) and axons (**I**) of embryonic rat cortical neurons after CPP treatment

shown as mean $\pm$ SEM (N $\geq$ 28 neurons across three biological replicates; ****p ≤ 0.0001, **p ≤

0.01, *p ≤ 0.05 Kruskal Wallis test with Dunn's multiple comparisons). For puromycin

quantitation in Schwann cells after CPP treatment, see Supplemental Figures S6G, H [scale bar =

5 μm].

J-M, Schematic of experimental paradigm for analyses of RNAs coprecipitating with G3BP1 (**J**).

Quantitation of fold change in mRNA levels of *Rhoa* (**K**), *mTor* (**L**), and *Pten* (**M**) interacting with

G3BP1 after bath-application of laminin or aggrecan ± CPP treatment shown as mean $\pm$ SEM (N ≥

3 animals, *p ≤ 0.05, **p ≤ 0.01 by Ordinary One-way ANOVA with Dunnett's multiple

comparisons).

A

CST Axons
Rostralized graft

CNS Axons
Caudalized graft

BDA (blue),
TIA1 (green),
G3BP1 (red)

XY

Axonal G3BP1 +
TIA1 granules

XYZ

B

1. AAV Trans-
duction (d 0)

Reticular
formation

Spinal cord

2. C4 hemi-
section with
PNG (d 15)

C4
C5
C6

3. Isolate
PNG (d 35)

C

GFP   G3BP1-BFP   G3BP1 B-domain-BFP

0 mm

Distance from spinal cord incision

2 mm

4 mm

6 mm

NF+TuJ1

D

Axon profiles (number)

Distance (mm)	0	2	4	6	0	2	4	6	0	2	4	6
AAV		GFP				G3BP1				B-domain		

*/& */&

E

1. Intravitreal
AAV Transduction
(d 0)

2. Optic nerve
injury (d 14)

3. Isolate Optic
nerve/retina (d 28)

F

GFP

BFP/GFP (green), Gap43 (red)

G3BP1-BFP

G3BP1 B-domain-BFP

G

Axon profiles (number)

/&&   **/&&&&

**/&&

**/&&

Distance (mm)	0	0.5	1	1.5	2	0	0.5	1	1.5	2	0	0.5	1	1.5	2
AAV			GFP					G3BP1					B-domain		

A

G3BP1
(rat)

A	B	C	D
NTF2-like	Acidic	PxxP	RRM/RGG
1 141	220	340	465

EESEEEEVEEPEERQQSPEVVA DDSGTFYDQTVSNDLEEHLEEP VVEPEPEPEPEPEPEPVSD
(147-166)   (168-189)   (190-208)

147-166	EESEEEEVEEPEERQQSPEVV
168-189	DDSGTFYDQTVSNDLEEHLEEP
190-208	VVEPEPEPEPEPEPEPVSD
190-208 E-D	VVDPDPDPDPDPDPDPVSD
192-205	EPEPEPEPEPEPEP
Human 191-209	VAEPEPDPEPEPEQEPVSE
Scramble 190-208	VVEEEEEEEPPPPPPPVSD
147-166^{S149E}	EE**E**EEEEVEEPEERQQSPEVV

B

days: 0   2   7   14-56

Sc N Crush | Inject CPP | Axon Analyses (Fig. 2C-D) | CMAP Analyses (Fig 2E and Suppl Fig S4)

C

SCG10 (green)

PBS

168-189

190-208

Crush site

D *Sciatic Nerve Axon Regeneration*

SCG10 axon profiles *(relative to crush site)*

*

- ■ PBS
- ▲ 168-189
- ▼ 190-208

Distance from crush site *(mm)*

E *Gastrocnemius CMAP*

M Response *(% Intact)*

| *wk* | 2 | 4 | 6 | 8 | 2 | 4 | 6 | 8 |
| *Peptide* | 168-189 | | | | 190-208 | | | |

F *Rat Sensory Neurons*

Total axon length *(µm)*   Z Score (♦)

**** ♦   **** ♦   **** ♦   **** ♦   **** ♦   NS   *

168-189 / 190-208 / 190-208-E-D / 192-205 (EP$_7$) / Human 191-209 / 190-208 (Bachem) / Scr 190-208 (E$_7$P$_7$) / 147-166^{S149E}

G *Human Glutamatergic Neurons*

Total neurite length *(µm)*   Z Score (♦)

NS   **** ♦   **** ♦   **** ♦   NS

Sham / 168-189 / 190-208 / 192-205 (EP$_7$) / Human 191-209 / Scr 190-208(E$_7$P$_7$)

A

1. C4 hemisection with PNG (d 0)

2. Peptide Injection (d 0)

3 Isolate PNG (d 10)

Spinal cord

C4
C5
C6

B

NS

*

Axon profiles

2000

1000

| Distance (mm) | 0 | 2 | 4 | 6 | 0 | 2 | 4 | 6 |
| CPP | *168-189* | | | | *190-208* | | | |

C

NF (Neurolucida trackings from 0 mm)

168-189

190-208

D

Axonal Branching Complexity

6x10⁶

4x10⁶

2x10⁶

168-189   *190-208*

E

1. C4 hemisection with PNG (d 0)

2. Peptide Injection into PNG (d 30)

3. Attach distal PNG to spinal cord (d 30)

4. Isolate PNG attched to SC (d 52)

Spinal cord

C4
C5
C6

F

Scr 190-208 (E₇P₇)

PNG
Caudal spinal cord

190-208

PNG
Caudal spinal cord

SCG10 (red)

G

Axon profile length (*µm*)

1000

Scr 190-208 (E₇P₇)   *190-208*

***

A *Permissive Substrate Growth*

B *Inhibitory Substrate Growth*

C

Scramble 190-208

190-208 peptide

SMI 312 (grey)

Scramble 190-208 + RhoA Inhibitor

190-208 + RhoA Inhibitor

D *Axon Growth on Inhibitory Substrate*