1 Scaffolding of NLRP3 on osmotically swollen vesicles but not intermediate

2 filaments promotes inflammasome assembly

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Abstract

Inflammasomes are nucleated by receptors that become activated upon cellular stresses

including ionic dyshomeostasis. Rather than forming in the cytosol, recent evidence suggests

that inflammasomes are nucleated at specific sites in the cell including on cytoskeletal polymers

and the membrane surfaces of organelles. The NLRP3 inflammasome, which is formed upon

the loss of cytosolic K^+, had been proposed to form on intermediate filaments as well as on

vesicles derived from the trans-Golgi network and endosomes. To determine the necessary

requirement of either mechanism, we used vimentin knockout macrophages which do not have

intermediate filaments and compared the formation and function of NLRP3 inflammasomes. We

report that vimentin was dispensable for the activation of caspase-1, IL-β cleavage and release,

and the inflammatory responses in mice which are attributed to the inflammasome. Instead,

NLRP3 was found on osmotically swollen PI4P- and LAMP1-positive compartments. These

results provide clarification to the two models for NLRP3 inflammasome formation,

demonstrating that intermediate filaments are not required, which contrasts with select previous

literature. The results also suggest that NLRP3 may be activated by signals coincident with

PI4P, including high membrane tension on vesicular compartments.

Introduction

Inflammasomes are supramolecular organizing centres (SMOCs) that assemble in response to diverse threats to cell and tissue homeostasis. Such threats often involve the loss of membrane integrity and/or the breach of the cytosol by microbial-associated molecules (Greaney, Leppla, and Moayeri 2015). The damage that triggers inflammasome activation ultimately leads to cytokine processing and release, which in turn promotes inflammatory cascades and the recruitment of immune cells. Inflammasome assembly is a stepwise process which begins with a transcriptional priming that upregulates expression of its necessary components. This is followed by the sensing of intracellular perturbances via cytosolic pattern recognition receptors (PRR) and their recruitment of the effector protease, caspase-1. Once concentrated, caspase-1 initiates self-cleavage, activation, and subsequent processing of inflammatory mediators including IL-1β and gasdermin D (Brough and Rothwell 2007; He et al. 2015). The NLRP3 inflammasome, which has been extensively studied, is activated in response to insults that ostensibly cause the collapse of the $Na^+:K^+$ gradient between the cytosol and the external medium (Muñoz-Planillo et al. 2013; Perregaux and Gabel 1994; Mangan et al. 2024). Its activation is therefore caused by disruption to plasma membrane permeability by diverse bacterial toxins and damage-associated molecular patterns like extracellular ATP (Franchi and Núñez 2008; Perregaux and Gabel 1994; Laliberte, Eggler, and Gabel 1999). Additionally, the accumulation of damaging particulates including alum and monosodium urate crystals (MSU) in the endocytic pathway triggers NLRP3 inflammasome activation (Hanfen Li et al. 2008; Hornung et al. 2008; Martinon et al. 2006), though mechanisms in this case are less clear (Mangan et al. 2024). Pharmacology aimed at inhibiting NLRP3 has shown enormous potential at mitigating conditions with an underlying chronic inflammatory etiology (Hao Li et al. 2022).

Despite the clear relevance of NLRP3 inflammasome nucleation, recent studies on the location of NLRP3 inflammasome assembly have been seemingly at odds with one another. One report by dos Santos et al. (dos Santos et al. 2015), argued that vimentin-based

intermediate filaments are required for the assembly of the NLRP3 inflammasome in primary

murine macrophages. NLRP3 was found to colocalize and co-sediment with vimentin and the

loss of vimentin prevented inflammasome assembly and inflammation. This would seem to be in

contrast to other subsequent reports (Chen and Chen 2018; Zhang et al. 2023; Schmacke et al.

2022) that have found that NLRP3 begins to aggregate on phosphatidylinositol-4-phosphate

(PI4P)-enriched intracellular vesicles. Structurally, PI4P is thought to interact with a stretch of

positively charged residues found on NLRP3. This motif, known as the polybasic region, was

essential in mediating the initial assembly of the NLRP3 inflammasome in cell lines. Thus, both

models appear to be diametrically opposed, since vimentin is not known to be required for any

PI4P-mediated processes.

In this report, we revisit the role of intermediate filaments in the inflammatory response

of macrophages, where cytosolic intermediate filaments are solely comprised of vimentin, to

NLRP3-activating stimuli. Despite reports of vimentin knockout ($Vim^{-/-}$) mice as being protected

against a plethora of inflammatory insults (Jiang et al. 2012; dos Santos et al. 2015; Mor-Vaknin

et al. 2013; Håversen et al. 2018), we do not find a role for vimentin in the nucleation of the

NLRP3 inflammasome nor the subsequent release of inflammatory cytokines from

macrophages. Supporting this, we found that $Vim^{-/-}$ mice were not protected against

inflammation in an *in vivo* model of liver ischemia reperfusion injury, an NLRP3-dependent

process. Therefore, it appears that the protective effects observed in $Vim^{-/-}$ mice are attributed to

functions independent of NLRP3. Instead, we find that NLRP3 is recruited to PI4P- and LAMP-1

containing, osmotically-swollen vesicles that appear after collapsing the K^+ gradient. NLRP3

became soluble upon relieving hydrostatic tension of the organelles. This would suggest

coincident detection of NLRP3 for lipids and biophysical features of the membrane to trigger

inflammasome formation.

Results

ASC specks form independently of vimentin

To test the proposed requirement for vimentin filaments in the nucleation of the NLRP3

inflammasomes, we derived primary macrophages from the bone marrow of *Vim*$^{-/-}$ mice. Our

bone marrow-derived macrophages (BMDM) did not express vimentin as judged by western

blotting (**Fig 1A**) and immunofluorescence (**Fig 1B**). NLRP3-mediated pyroptosis is triggered by

the depletion of intracellular [K$^+$], including for primary macrophages (Muñoz-Planillo et al.

2013). Experimentally, this is most conveniently achieved with nigericin, a K$^+$ ionophore.

Alternatively, we also used ATP, which engages purinergic receptors to cause their

multimerization and formation of a non-selective pore that conducts K$^+$ down its concentration

gradient, i.e. out of the cell (Pelegrin and Surprenant 2006). We used nigericin and ATP at

standard concentrations and times known to instigate NLRP3 inflammasome formation in a

manner dependent on net K$^+$-efflux (Perregaux and Gabel 1994; Muñoz-Planillo et al. 2013).

Using atomic absorption spectroscopy, we found that the loss of intracellular K$^+$ upon the

addition of nigericin or ATP was not different between wt and *Vim*$^{-/-}$ BMDM, as expected **(Fig.**

1C). Therefore, any differences in NLRP3 inflammasome activation would not be caused by

protection against intracellular [K$^+$] depletion in *Vim*$^{-/-}$ BMDM.

Next, we visualized K$^+$ efflux-dependent ASC speck formation in lipopolysaccharide

(LPS)-primed BMDM, which upregulates the expression of NLRP3 (Bauernfeind et al. 2009).

ASC is a critical adaptor that enables the recruitment of caspase-1 to NLRP3 and its

subsequent activation (Man et al. 2014). We stained endogenous ASC following nigericin or ATP

treatment and, surprisingly, found no difference in the incidence of ASC-speck positive BMDM

between wt and *Vim*$^{-/-}$ cells **(Fig. 1D,E).** Even more remarkable, when analyzing images using a

Pearson's coefficient, we found there to be no correlation between the localization of vimentin

intermediate filaments and ASC specks following NLRP3 inflammasome activation **(Fig. 1F,G)**.

This is despite the fact that the intermediate filaments persisted in activated cells. Altogether,

these observations would seem to indicate that the assembly of the NLRP3 inflammasome is

not dependent on the presence of vimentin intermediate filaments.

Vimentin is not required for NLRP3-mediated pyroptosis

Once the NLRP3 inflammasome forms, active caspase-1 then cleaves the protein

gasdermin D (GSDMD) and pro-IL-1β. Subsequently, the N-terminus of GSDMD inserts into the

plasma membrane to form a pore that allows for the passage and release of the processed

(mature) IL-1β (Evavold et al. 2018). The involvement of intermediate filaments in GSDMD pore

assembly was not assessed in previous studies; conceivably, if vimentin controlled the release

of proinflammatory mediators it would explain some results in mice in which KOs are protected

from inflammation (Jiang et al. 2012; Håversen et al. 2018; Mor-Vaknin et al. 2013; dos Santos

et al. 2015). We treated LPS-primed wt and *Vim*^{-/-} BMDM with nigericin along with propidium

iodide (PI) in order to identify potential differences in the rate of plasma membrane

permeabilization **(Fig. 2A,B)**. However, we did not see appreciable differences between the

vimentin KO macrophages when compared to their wt counterparts.

Sustained GSDMD pore activity eventually leads to an irreversible form of lytic cell death

known as pyroptosis that further promotes IL-1β release into the interstitium (Fink and Cookson

2006; He et al. 2015). Thus, we investigated whether the absence of vimentin in BMDM could

prevent or stagnate pyroptosis by measuring the release of lactate dehydrogenase (LDH). In

addition to instigating pyroptosis with nigericin or ATP, we also employed alum and MSU crystals

to trigger the process. As shown by this assay, nigericin, ATP, alum, and MSU induce lytic cell

death in both wt and *Vim*^{-/-} LPS-primed BMDM **(Fig. 2C)**. Moreover, the amount of LDH release

in *Vim*^{-/-} BMDM was not significantly different than in wt BMDM irrespective of the NLRP3

inflammasome activator used. Based on our results, we conclude that *Vim*^{-/-} BMDM are not

protected against pyroptotic cell death.

Vimentin is not required for NLRP3-dependent cleavage and release of caspase-1 nor IL-1β

During pyroptosis, caspase-1 activation precedes the cleavage of IL-1β and has been

reported to exit the cell as an active protease following cell rupture (Laliberte, Eggler, and Gabel

1999). Indeed, we found cleaved (i.e., active) caspase-1 in the supernatants of LPS-primed

BMDM that were treated with either nigericin or ATP **(Fig. 3A)**. Remarkably, we saw that *Vim*^{-/-}

BMDM were activating and releasing comparable amounts of caspase-1 compared to their wt

BMDM counterparts upon pyroptotic stimuli **(Fig. 3A,B)**.

Ultimately, IL-1β is a major effector cytokine that results in the propagation of

inflammatory responses. We found that BMDM derived from the *Vim*^{-/-} mice had no impairment

in the upregulation of pro-IL-1β upon LPS stimulation **(Fig. 3C)** and released similar levels of

active IL-1β into the supernatant after stimulation with either nigericin or ATP **(Fig 3C)**.

Furthermore, we saw no difference in the mature IL-1β concentration found in the extracellular

medium of LPS-primed BMDM treated with nigericin or ATP or upon lysosomal stress (i.e., alum

or MSU) **(Fig. 3D)**. Overall, we did not observe any impairment in capase-1 and IL-1β

processing and release from *Vim*^{-/-} BMDM.

Vim^{-/-} *mice are not protected against hepatic ischemia/reperfusion injury*

Despite our *in vitro* observations, there is a plethora of studies reporting that *Vim*^{-/-} mice

display reduced tissue damage upon numerous inflammatory stimuli (Jiang et al. 2012;

Håversen et al. 2018; Mor-Vaknin et al. 2013). In fact, others have reported that *Vim*^{-/-} mice are

protected against cerebral ischemia/reperfusion injury (IRI) (Jiang et al. 2012). Thus, we probed

whether this protection translated to a hepatic IRI model, which is reportedly mediated, at least

in part, by NLRP3 (Jaeschke 2003; Jiménez-Castro et al. 2019; Zhu et al. 2011). Following 1 h

of ischemia and 6 h blood reperfusion, we collected samples from mice to look at different

aspects of inflammatory injury. First, we did not observe any cohort differences in plasma levels

of liver enzymes alanine aminotransferase (ALT) and aspartate aminotransferase (AST) **(Fig.**

4A,B), indicating that liver damage was not ameliorated in the absence of vimentin. Our

histological analyses in which we categorized the percentage of necrotic tissue found in the

livers after surgery **(***see demarcated yellow areas in* **Fig. 4C)** revealed that, surprisingly, *Vim*$^{-/-}$

livers were more necrotic compared to wt **(Fig. 4D)**. Based on these observations, we conclude

that the absence of vimentin does not confer a protective effect against the inflammatory

damage associated with hepatic IRI.

K$^+$ efflux causes swelling of PI4P-positive membrane-bound organelles to promote NLRP3

nucleation.

189   As previously mentioned, opposing views about NLRP3 scaffolding suggest that

inflammasome nucleation initiates on PI4P-enriched structures (Schmacke et al. 2022; Chen

and Chen 2018; Zhang et al. 2023). It is therefore rather peculiar that NLRP3 was also reported

to recognize other phosphoinositides *in vitro*, namely PI3P and PI(3,5)P$_2$, though these

interactions were not validated using any live cell models (Chen and Chen 2018). We expressed

an mCherry-NLRP3 fusion protein in HeLa cells, first noting that nigericin treatment resulted in

its translocation to vesicular structures **(Fig. 5A and Supplemental movie 1)**. We then

reperformed these experiments, co-expressing mCherry-NLRP3 together with biosensors for

phosphoinositides **(Fig. 5B)**. We used Statistical Object Distance Analysis (SODA) to determine

coincidence of the signals, which provides statistical maps of the assemblies in a population of

objects by using morphology and distance separating objects (Lagache et al. 2018). By this

method, we identified objects that were significantly coupled within approximately 500 nm. As

shown in Figure 5B and quantified in Figure 5C, we noted much less association between

NLRP3 and the PI3P (2xFyve-GFP) or PI(3,5)P$_2$ (SnxA-GFP) probes when compared with PI4P

(P4M-GFP) **(Fig. 5C)**. These data would seem to corroborate the finding that NLRP3 assembly

is spatially organized around sites of enriched with PI4P.

Based on the swollen appearance of the NLRP3-positive compartments that appeared

after nigericin treatment, we questioned whether (osmotic) swelling of these vesicular structures

was necessary for NLRP3 nucleation. In order to test this, we forcibly extracted water from

nigericin-treated cells, and these organelles, using acute treatment with hypertonic solutions**.**

Consistently, we observed that NLRP3 dissociated from the vesicles and became largely

soluble after this treatment **(Fig. 5D)**. The identity of the swollen vesicles was then interrogated.

We noted no overlap between NLRP3 and EEA1 or Rab5 (not shown), but did note appreciable

localization of LAMP-1 in the NLRP3 positive vesicles (**Fig 5E**). The LAMP-1 expression on

these vesicles was lower than neighbouring NLRP3-negative structures. This would suggest

either dilution of LAMP-1 owed to swelling or that these represent a hybrid or intermediary

compartment, perhaps involving the trans Golgi. Swelling of lysosomes and the TGN in other

settings requires the activity of the V-ATPase. We therefore disrupted the activity of the V-

ATPase using concanamycin A, which prevented vesicular swelling upon nigericin treatment

(Fig. 5F). The same treatment largely prevented NLRP3 targeting to membrane-bound

organelles (**Fig. 5F**). Taken together, it would seem likely that vesicular swelling, driven by the

V-ATPase, is necessary for K^+-efflux driven nucleation of NLRP3.

Discussion

NLRP3 plays a crucial role in innate immunity by acting as a sensor of intracellular

dyshomeostasis. Potassium efflux, indicative of lost plasma membrane integrity or inhibition of

the Na/K-ATPase has been shown to be a canonical trigger of NLRP3 inflammasome assembly

(Muñoz-Planillo et al. 2013). Solid particles and crystals can also activate the NLRP3

inflammasome by causing stress and dysregulation along the endocytic pathway (Hanfen Li et

al. 2008; Hari et al. 2014; Groß et al. 2016; Hornung et al. 2008). In this study, we demonstrate

that vimentin is dispensable for K^+-efflux- and solid particle-mediated inflammasome assembly,

IL-1β processing, and pyroptosis in BMDM, contrary to previous findings (dos Santos et al.

2015). *In vivo* assessments of *Vim$^{-/-}$* mice subjected to hepatic IRI paint a similar picture to our

in vitro data. Liver IRI is reportedly mediated by, amongst other proteins, NLRP3 and GSDMD

(Zhu et al. 2011; Jiménez-Castro et al. 2019; Wu et al. 2022; J. Li et al. 2020), which are

seemingly unaffected by the absence of vimentin filaments. Yet, there is an abundance of

studies where *Vim$^{-/-}$* mice are protected against inflammation caused by either sterile or

pathogenic injury (Mor-Vaknin et al. 2013; Jiang et al. 2012; Eckes et al. 2000; Håversen et al.

2018). Explanations for these phenomena vary from study to study, with no seemingly

underlying common mechanism behind it. Impaired immune cell migration and infiltration to

inflamed tissues could be an underlying feature (Barberis et al. 2009; Battaglia et al. 2018;

Ivaska et al. 2007; Nieminen et al. 2006). Interestingly, we observed the opposite in our mice,

whereby the absence of vimentin conferred a worse outcome as measured by percent necrosis

and ALT/AST plasma levels. As such, involvement of vimentin during inflammatory injuries

appears dependent on the injury site and the type/duration of damage. Though we only looked

at liver injury, how intermediate filaments in immune cells feature in other models for IRI in

different organs warrant further investigation.

In line with other studies (Zhang et al. 2023; Chen and Chen 2018), our data show that

the formation of an NLRP3 inflammasome begins at vesicular sites with enriched PI4P following

stimuli (e.g., nigericin). Due to the un-primed nature of HeLa cells, nigericin treatment did not

induce cell death and allowed for a better model to overexpress and observe the initial NLRP3

aggregation. Despite the reported ability for NLRP3 to recognize other phosphoinositides (i.e.,

PI3P and PI(3,5)P_2) (Chen and Chen 2018), we found that NLRP3 associated significantly less

with the PI3P 2xFyve-GFP and recently developed SnxA-GFP PI(3,5)P_2 biosensor (Vines et al.

2023). Therefore, it is reasonable to conclude that PI4P is a bona fide scaffold for NLRP3

inflammasome assembly. Interestingly, PI4P has recently been shown to mediate important

immune processes pertaining to intracellular danger signals. The cGAS-STING pathway,

responsible for sensing cytosolic DNA, was shown to be affected by changes to the intracellular

pool of Golgi-PI4P and its associated kinase, PI4KB (Fang et al. 2023; Luteijn et al. 2024). This

suggests that the exposure of PI4P plays a broad and diverse role in triggering innate immune

responses. It would also seem to suggest that other mediators must be involved.

Under normal conditions, the majority of PI4P in cells is located at the Golgi apparatus

and the plasma membrane, as tightly regulated by lipid kinases and phosphatases (Tan and Brill

2014). NLRP3 does not initiate nucleation prior to K^+ efflux, even with large amounts of PI4P in

one site (i.e. at the Golgi). Likewise, NLRP3 upregulation by TLR4 signalling does not alone

trigger inflammasome assembly, (Bauernfeind et al. 2009; Kelley et al. 2019), even though PI4P

is present and available to bind. This would indeed suggest that PI4P is required but not

sufficient to initiate inflammasome formation. While changes in the extracellular osmolarity have

been described as a trigger for inflammasome assembly, explanations for this mechanism vary

from study to study (Schorn et al. 2011; Mayes-Hopfinger et al. 2021; Compan et al. 2012).

Organelle swelling, as induced by hypotonic solutions and K^+-efflux, may be an important

parameter necessary for NLRP3 aggregation. In support of this idea, forcibly reducing vesicular

swelling leads to the solubilization of NLRP3 away from sites of high PI4P content. Whether or

not membrane tension generated on PI4P-enriched swollen organelles arranges the PI4P or

exposes determinants otherwise hidden in the bilayer should be tested.

While K^+-efflux is a common trigger of the NLRP3 inflammasome, lysosome-damaging

stimuli such as alum, monosodium urate crystals, and silica particles have also been reported to

trigger its assembly (Hari et al. 2014; Groß et al. 2016). So far, the connection between

lysosome-damaging stimuli and the collapse of the K^+ gradient between the cytosol and the

extracellular fluid is not known. We observe that K^+-efflux promotes swelling of LAMP1-positive

structures, indicating a connection between the loss of cytosolic cation gradients and membrane

traffic defects. We also see NLRP3 associated with these swollen compartments, which posits a

role for defects in TGN-lysosome traffic in NLRP3 nucleation.

Disruption of lysosomal function by bafilomycin A was reported to promote NLRP3

inflammasome activation in LPS-primed monocytes. Yet, we saw that treatment of cells with

Concanamycin A, a more specific V-ATPase inhibitor, prevents the association of NLRP3 with

swollen vesicles (Yu et al. 2021). Of note, we treated our cells with Concanamycin A prior to

nigericin addition, suggesting that it might only attenuate NLRP3 aggregation prior to K^+-efflux-

induced lysosomal swelling. Hypothetically, a possible explanation is that the initial organellar

swelling required for NLRP3 aggregation at LAMP-1 compartments is V-ATPase dependent.

Altogether, an extensive understanding of the relationship between V-ATPase-mediated

lysosomal swelling and NLRP3 nucleation kinetics remains of critical importance.

Methods and materials

Animals

$Vim^{-/-}$ (129S-Vim[tm1Cba]/MesDmarkJ, stock #025692) and wt 129S1 mice (129S1/SvImJ,

strain #002448) were obtained from Jackson Labs as previously described (Colucci-Guyon et al.

1994). wt mice from Jackson Labs (strain #000664) were used where indicated. All procedures

were approved by the Animal Care Committee at the Hospital for Sick Children and were

performed in accordance with regulations from the Animals for Research Act of Ontario and the

Canadian Council on Animal Care. Mice were kept at the Animal Facility in the Peter Gilgan

Centre for Research and Learning.

Liver ischemia/reperfusion surgery

Mixed-sex cohorts of 8- to 12-week-old Vimentin knockout and wt (C57Bl/6) control mice

were used in a 70% segmental warm ischemia-reperfusion model (Selzner et al. 2003). In brief,

a sagittal midline laparotomy was made under isoflurane anesthesia and an atraumatic vascular

clamp placed on the portal vein and the hepatic artery to block blood flow to the left and medial

lobes of the liver which account for about 70% of the liver parenchyma. The clamp was removed

after 1 h to allow for reperfusion. Following 6 h of reperfusion, mice were euthanized before

blood and tissue collection for analysis.

Reagents

Mammalian expression vectors were obtained from the following sources: 2xSidM-GFP

as described in (Levin et al. 2017); EGFP-Vimentin-7 was a gift from Michael Davidson

(Addgene plasmid # 56439); pCAG mEmerald-LAMP1 was a gift from Franck Polleux (Addgene

plasmid # 168513). Human NLRP3 from pEGFP-C2-NLRP3 (gift from Christian Stehlik

(Addgene plasmid # 73955)) was inserted into an mCherry-C2 mammalian vector by Gibson

assembly cloning (NEB, cat #E2611S); 2xFyve-GFP as described in (Gillooly 2000); and

pJSK659 (SNx-A-GFP) was a gift from Jason King (Addgene plasmid # 205128). Primary

antibodies used were: rabbit anti-cleaved caspase-1 (Asp296) (E2G2I) (Cell Signaling, cat

#89332), mouse anti-ASC (BioLegend, cat #676502), rabbit anti-vimentin (Cell Signaling, cat

#5741), rabbit anti-pro caspase-1 + p10 +p12 (Abcam, cat. #ab179515) and rabbit anti-GAPDH

(Cell Signalling, cat #2118S). Secondary antibodies conjugated with AlexaFluor-405, -488, -555,

-647 and donkey anti-goat HRP secondary antibodies were obtained from Jackson

ImmunoResearch. Secondary mouse and rabbit antibodies conjugated with HRP were obtained

from Cell Signaling.

Cell culture reagents used include Dulbecco's modified eagle medium (DMEM, Wisent,

cat. #319-007-CL), fetal bovine serum (Atlanta Biologicals, cat. #S12450), Gibco™ DMEM, high

glucose, HEPES, no phenol red (FischerScientific, cat. #21063029), HBSS w/out phenol red,

calcium and magnesium, supplemented with FBS (Wisent, cat. #311-512 CL**),** 100x antibiotic-

antimycotic solution **(**Wisent, cat. #450-115-CL), FuGENE 6 Transfection reagent (Promega,

cat. #E2691), phosphate buffered saline (Wisent, Sigma-Aldrich, cat#311-010-CL), nigericin

sodium salt (Cayman chemicals, cat. #11437), adenosine triphosphate (pH=7.4, cat. #A2383-

5G), propidium iodide (Invitrogen, cat. #P1304MP), alum hydroxide (Invivogen, cat. #21645-51-

2), monosodium urate crystals (Invivogen, cat. #1198-77-2), lipopolysaccharide (Sigma-Aldrich,

cat. # L9764-5MG), concanamycin A (Cayman, cat. # 11050), Prolong Gold Mounting medium

with DAPI (Invitrogen, cat #P36935). .

Cell culture

Bone marrow derived macrophages from the long bones of 6-12-wk-old wt and *Vim*^{-/-}

mice was harvested by centrifugation and grown in DMEM + 10% FBS + 10% macrophage

colony stimulating factor (MCSF) + 1% penicillin-streptomycin at 37°C and under 5% CO_2. Cells

were used 5-7 days after isolation. HeLa cells were grown and passaged in DMEM + 5% FBS +

1% penicillin-streptomycin at 37°C and under 5% CO_2.

Transfections

HeLa cells were seeded on top of coverslips in 12-well plates and left to attach overnight

at 37°C and under 5% CO_2. FuGENE6 Transfection reagent was added to room temperature

serum-free DMEM for 5 min, and then plasmid DNA was added at a 1:3 ratio of DNA (μg) to

FuGENE6 (μL). Mixture was incubated at room temperature for 15 min and added to each well.

Cells were transfected at ~60% confluency and incubated for at least 18 h at 37°C and under

5% CO_2 after transfection.

Intracellular [K$^+$] measurements

BMDM were grown to 90% confluency in 2 separate 6-well plates with DMEM

supplemented with 10% FBS and 10% MCSF. Following nigericin or ATP stimulation, BMDM

from one plate were washed 3x in 150 mM LiCl (pH=7.4) and lysed in 5 mM HNO_3. Cell lysates

were incubated at 4°C overnight and centrifuged at 12,000 g for 15 min to remove any debris.

Samples and standards of known [K$^+$] were analyzed using a PinAAcle 900T Atomic Absorption

Spectrometer (PerkinElmer, Waltham, MA, USA) to assess the total amount of K$^+$ ions. In

parallel, BMDM from the second plate were washed as previously described and lifted in

isotonic solution. Cell concentration and volumes were determined electronically using a Z2

Coulter particle count and size analyzer (Beckman Coulter) to calculate total cell number and

volume for each sample. Intracellular concentrations of K+ were calculated by dividing the total

ion content by the total cell volume of each well.

Immunostaining

BMDM were grown to 70-80% confluency in 12-well plates with DMEM supplemented

with 10% FBS and 10% MCSF. Then, BMDM were primed with LPS (1 μg/mL, 4h) and

subsequently treated with nigericin (10 μM, 30 min) or ATP (3 mM, 1h). Cells were then fixed

with 4% PFA for 15 min, permeabilized in 0.1% triton for 5 min and blocked in 5% BSA

overnight. Primary and secondary antibodies were diluted to 1:100 and 1:500 in 2.5% BSA in

PBS, respectively, and added to coverslips at room temperature for 1 h. Coverslips were

washed 3 times with PBS following incubation. Slides were mounted using mounting media

containing DAPI.

PI assay

BMDM were grown to 70-80% confluency in 12 well plates with DMEM supplemented

with 10% FBS and 10% MCSF. Cells were primed with LPS (1 μg/mL) for 4 h before

simultaneously adding nigericin (10 μM) and 0.3 μg/mL of propidium iodide. Pictures of each

well were taken every 15 min in both brightfield and RFP setting of an EVOS microscope

(ThermoFischer). At least 3 images of different fields of view were obtained per well per

timepoint.

LDH assay

Cells were grown to 80-90% confluency in 12 well plates with DMEM supplemented with

10% FBS and 10% MCSF. Priming with LPS (1 μg/mL) was done for 4 h, then cells were treated

with nigericin (10 μM) for 30 min, ATP (3 mM) for 1 h, alum (100 µg/ml) for 6 h, or MSU (100

µg/ml) for 16 h in 0.1% FBS DMEM. The supernatants of each well were collected and

centrifuged at 13,000 g for 5 min, and cells in each well were washed with 1x PBS and lysed in

RIPA buffer with protease inhibitor. LDH release was assayed according to manual instructions

of the LDH assay kit (CyQUANT LDH Cytotoxicity Assay, Invitrogen, cat #C20301).

Western blotting

BMDM were grown to 80-90% confluency in 6 well plates with 10% FBS and 10%

MCSF. Cells were primed with LPS (1 μg/mL) for 4 h, then treated in reduced serum medium

(0.1% FBS) with either nigericin (10 μM) for 30 min or ATP (3 mM) for 1 h. Supernatants were

prepared following the TCA precipitation protocol from (Volchuk et al. 2020). Briefly, samples

were centrifuged at 13,000 g for 5 min at 4°C to remove any debris and precipitated using 100%

TCA. Samples were then washed with ice cold acetone, then heated at 95° C, and finally

resuspended in 2x SDS-PAGE sample buffer. For the cell lysates, cells were washed with 1x D-

PBS and lysed with RIPA buffer with protease inhibitors. Lysates were centrifuged at 12,000 g

for 15 min at 4°C and prepared after determining protein concentration by BCA assay. Lysate

proteins were resolved in a 12% SDS-PAGE gel and supernatant proteins using a 15% SDS-

PAGE gel. Proteins were transferred to a PVDF membrane and immunoblotted with the

appropriate antibodies. Images were analyzed using ImageJ to determine the adjusted mean

gray intensity value of each band over the same area.

IL-1β Enzyme linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA)

BMDM were grown on 24-well plates to 80-90% confluency using DMEM supplemented

with 10% FBS and 10% MCSF. BMDM were stimulated as previously described and

supernatants were collected and centrifuged for 5 min (10,000 rpm, 4°C). ELISAs were

performed according to the manufacturer's instructions (Mouse IL-1 beta ELISA kit, Abcam, cat.

#ab100705). Sample absorbance was read using a Varioskan LUX Plate Reader 1 w/Dual

Injectors (Thermofischer Scientific)

Microscopy

Cells immunostained for ASC and vimentin were visualized by confocal microscopy

using a spinning-disk Zeiss Axiovert 200 M microscope (Quorum Technologies Inc.) with an

ORCA-Fusion BT cMOS camera, a five-line laser module with 405-, 443-, 491-, 561-, and 655-

nm lines. The microscope operating software was Volocity v6.3 (Perkin Elmer). Images were

acquired as Z-stacks with a 63×/1.4 NA for Vimentin/ASC images and 25x/0.8 NA water

objective for ASC-speck quantification images.

Live confocal fluorescence imaging of mCherry-NLRP3, LAMP1-mEmerald, and

phosphoinositide probes was done using a Zeiss Axio Observer microscope with a PCO camera

and four-line laser module with 405-, 443-, 491-, and 561-nm lines. Coverslips with cells were

placed in a chamber with HBSS and imaged on a pre-warmed stage and 63×/1.4 NA oil

objective to 37° C. Coverslips used to acquire movies were placed in a chamber along with

phenol red-free DMEM and an environmental control chamber set to 37° C and 5% CO_2. Movies

were acquired as single-slice images over the course of one hour.

Image analysis

Liver tissue was fixed in PFA and stained with hematoxylin and eosin. Slides were

digitalized and ischemic score was determined using the DenseNetV2 identifier available in the

HALO software. ASC-speck positivity and Pearson's correlation analysis were done using the

Volocity software over the ROI of individual cells. Pearson's correlation image thresholding was

done according to the (Costes et al. 2004) thresholding method to avoid any bias. PI positivity

analysis was done in ImageJ using the "Cell counter" feature to obtain the total number of PI

positive cells per field of view and the total number of cells per field of view.

SODA analysis of HeLa cells expressing mCherry-NLRP3 and the phosphoinositide

probes was done using the free image analysis software called Icy

(http://icy.bioimageanalysis.org/) and using a modified protocol from (Lagache et al. 2018).

Briefly, detection of bright spots on single slice two-channel images was calibrated using the

Wavelet Spot Detector. Then, ROIs were made for each individual cell and the statistical

probability that spots from both channels were associated with each other by random chance

was calculated (as defined by p > 0.05). Probability was found for different radii (*r*) distances

from the centre of each spot. Represented in our figure is the coupled puncta of NLRP3 within *r*

= 6 pixels (~516 nm).

Data analysis

450   Statistical significance for *in vitro* experiments was determined using a two-way ANOVA

451   with Tukey's multiple comparisons test (significant difference threshold P < 0.05). For *in* vivo

452   experiments, an unpaired Student's *t* tests (significant difference threshold P < 0.05) was used.

453   All non-surgical and surgical experimental data is presented as the mean ± SEM or SD. All data

454   analysis was done using GraphPad Prism 6 and Excel.

Figure 1. K⁺-dependent ASC aggregation remains unaffected by the absence of vimentin intermediate filaments. Validation of *Vim⁻/⁻* BMDM by **(A)** western blot and **(B)** vimentin immunostaining as compared to wt control BMDM. **(C)** Intracellular BMDM concentrations of K⁺ were measured by atomic absorption spectrometry in BMDM derived from C57/Bl6 mice following treatment with nigericin for 15 min or ATP for 30 min. Replicate mean ± SD are shown (N=3) **(D, E, F, G)** wt and *Vim⁻/⁻* BMDM were primed with LPS (1 μg/mL, 4 h) and treated with nigericin (10 μM, 30 min) or ATP (3 mM, 1 h) and imaged using a confocal microscope. **(D,E)** Formation of "ASC-specks" was visualized by immunostaining of wt and Vim⁻/⁻ BMDM, along with F-actin (phalloidin) and DAPI counterstaining. Representative image shown in **D.** Data are shown as mean of each replicate ± SEM in **E** (N=5). **(F,G)** Co-localization of vimentin and "ASC-specks" was visualized by immunostaining of vimentin and ASC in BMDM derived from C57/Bl6 mice. Representative image shown in **F.** Pearson's correlation coefficient mean (minimum 7 cells per replicate) ± SD data are shown in **G** (N=3). Scale bar 10 μm, insets 5 μm.

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Figure 2. Pyroptotic cell death downstream on NLRP3 inflammasome activation is not
dependent on vimentin intermediate filaments. (A,B) wt and *Vim⁻/⁻* BMDM were primed with
LPS (1 μg/mL, 4 h) before the addition of propidium iodide (1 μg/mL) along with nigericin (10 μM).
(Fig. 2A,B). Percent PI positivity is displayed in **B** as the mean ± SEM of each timepoint. (N=3)
(C) Release of LDH was determined in wt and *Vim⁻/⁻* BMDM that were primed with LPS (1 μg/mL,
4 h) and treated with nigericin (10 μM) for 30 min, ATP (3 mM) for 1 h, alum (100 μg/ml) for 6 h,
or MSU (100 μg/ml) for 16 h. Data represented as mean ± SD (N=3)

Figure 3. *Vim^{-/-}* BMDM cleave and release caspase-1 and IL-1β following NLRP3 inflammasome activation. BMDM were primed with LPS (1 μg/mL, 4 h) and treated with nigericin (10 μM, 30 min) or ATP (3 mM, 1 h). Samples were visualized by SDS-PAGE. **(A)** Western blots of cell lysates and supernatants against uncleaved and cleaved capase-1, respectively. **(B)** Quantification of ratio of cleaved to uncleaved caspase-1 normalized to wt treatments. **(C)** Western blots of cell lysates and supernatants against immature and mature IL-1β, respectively. **(D)** Levels of extracellular IL-1β in LPS-primed wt and *Vim^{-/-}* BMDM treated with nigericin and ATP as previously described, along with alum (100 μg/ml, 6 h) or MSU (100 μg/ml, 16 h) treatments. Mature IL-1β concentration from cell supernatants was measured by ELISA. Data represented as replicate means ± SD (minimum N=3).

Figure 4. *Vim*^{-/-} mice are not ostensibly protected against hepatic ischemia/reperfusion injury. Warm ischemia/reperfusion injury was modeled using male wt (C57Bl/6) control and *Vim*^{-/-} mice between 6-12 weeks of age. **(A,B)** Levels of aspartate aminotransferase (AST) and alanine aminotransferase (ALT) in the serum of mice were measured. **(C)** Hematoxylin and eosin (H&E) staining of liver tissue samples along with Halo DenseNetV2 mask to detect healthy and necrotic areas. **(D)** Quantification of percent necrosis of liver samples. Data shown as biological replicates ± SD (wt N=7, Vim^{-/-} N=6 mice per group.) (*p < 0.05)

Figure 5. NLRP3 aggregates on swollen, PI4P- and LAMP1-positive vesicular compartments. (A) HeLa cells expressing mCherry-NLRP3 before and after treatment with nigericin (10 µM, 1h). **(B)** Co-expression of mCherry-NLRP3 with 2xFyve-GFP, SnxA-GFP, or P4M-GFP phosphoinositide probes following nigericin treatment (10 µM, 1h). Images shown as slices from Z-stack projection. **(C)** SODA analysis for object association. Data represented as distribution of percent NLRP3 objects coupled with phosphoinositide probe objects. (N=3, with 10 cells per technical replicate, *p<0.05, ***p<0.0005). **(D)** HeLa cells expressing mCherry-NLRP3 treated with nigericin for 1 h prior to hypertonic shock. Medium osmolarity was increased using 1M sucrose for 5 min. **(E)** Nigericin-treated HeLa cells expressing mCherry-NLRP3 with LAMP1-GFP. **(F)** HeLa cells expressing mCherry-NLRP3 treated with nigericin with or without pre-treatment with concanamycin A (1 µM, 30 min). Scale bar, 10 µm.

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