Ubiquitination-activated TAB–TAK1–IKK–NF-κB axis modulates gene expression for cell survival in the lysosomal damage response

(14 words, 125 characters)

Akinori Endo,[1, 4*] Chikage Takahashi,[1] Naoko Ishibashi,[1] Yasumasa Nishito,[2] Koji Yamano,[3] Keiji Tanaka,[1] Yukiko Yoshida[1*]

[1]Laboratory of Protein Metabolism, Tokyo Metropolitan Institute of Medical Science, Tokyo, 156-8506, Japan

[2]Technology Research Division, Tokyo Metropolitan Institute of Medical Science, Tokyo, 156-8506, Japan

[3]Intracellular quality control project, Tokyo Metropolitan Institute of Medical Science, Tokyo, 156-8506, Japan

[4]Lead contact

[*]Correspondence: endo-ak@igakuken.or.jp (A.E.), yoshida-yk@igakuken.or.jp (Y.Y.)

Abstract

The lysosomal damage response is important for the maintenance of cellular homeostasis. Although the mechanisms underlying the repair and autophagic elimination of damaged lysosomes have been elucidated, the early signal transduction pathways and genes induced in response to lysosomal damage remain elusive. We performed transcriptome and proteome analyses and found that the TAB–TAK1–IKK–NF-κB axis is activated by K63-linked ubiquitin chains that accumulate on damaged lysosomes. This activates the expression of various transcription factors and cytokines that promote anti-apoptosis and intercellular signaling. The findings highlight the crucial role of ubiquitin-regulated signal transduction and gene expression in cell survival and cell–cell communication in response to lysosomal damage. The results suggest that the ubiquitin system is not only involved in the removal of damaged lysosomes by lysophagy, but also functions in the activation of cellular signaling for cell survival.

(140 words)

Introduction

Lysosomes are the primary degradative organelles and play a pivotal role in maintaining cellular and tissue homeostasis[1,2]. Lysosomal dysfunction is associated with various diseases, underscoring the crucial role of lysosomal integrity and its quality control in human health[3-5]. Lysosomes are susceptible to damage by many sources, both internal and external to the cell, which results in the permeabilization and rupture of lysosomal membranes. Crystals, amyloids, pathogens, lipids, lysosomal toxic drugs, and reactive oxygen species (ROS) are among the stressors that can damage lysosomal membranes[6-10]. The release of enzymes and protons from the lumen of damaged lysosomes induces oxidative stress, inflammation, and cell death, which is deleterious to cells and tissues[10,11]. The accumulation of damaged lysosomes is thus an important factor involved in the development of aging-related diseases and other conditions such as crystalline nephropathy, neurodegenerative, and infectious diseases[3-5,12].

To overcome lysosomal damage and restore lysosomal functionality, cells have developed a set of response pathways that is collectively referred to as the lysosomal damage response[6,13]. It has been reported that signal mediators, such as AMP-activated protein kinase (AMPK) and mammalian target of rapamycin (mTOR), exert the signal transduction in the lysosomal damage response[14,15]. The quality control mechanisms for damaged lysosomes include repair, elimination, and regeneration. Lysosomal membrane damage triggers the recruitment of the endosomal sorting complex required for transport (ESCRT) to repair the damaged membrane[13,16]. Current studies have shown that endoplasmic reticulum (ER)-lysosome lipid transfer is crucial for lysosomal membrane

repair[17,18]. Furthermore, stress granules (SGs) have been demonstrated to play a pivotal role

in the repair process[19]. When the damage is extensive and repair is not feasible, the

damaged lysosome undergoes autophagic elimination in a process known as lysophagy[13,20].

In lysophagy, lysosomal membrane permeabilization leads to extensive ubiquitination of

exposed proteins. This triggers the recruitment of ubiquitin-binding autophagy receptors,

which activates autophagy to sequester and degrade damaged lysosomes[13,21]. Protein

ubiquitination is an important form of post-translational modification that is comparable to

protein phosphorylation. Protein ubiquitination in lysophagy occurs through the formation

of Lys-63-linked ubiquitin chains (K63 ubiquitin chains)[22]. Substrate ubiquitination in

damaged lysosomes is catalyzed by the E2 ubiquitin-conjugating enzyme UBE2QL1 and

several ubiquitin E3 ligases, including TRIM16, CUL1–SKP1–FBXO27, and CUL4A–

DDB1–WDFY1[23-26].

Transcription factor EB (TFEB), a master regulator of lysosome- and autophagy-related

gene expression, is activated during the repair and elimination of damaged lysosomes,

which results in the regeneration of lysosomes as part of the lysosomal damage response[27-

29]. Under unstimulated conditions, TFEB is phosphorylated by lysosome-associated

mTORC1 and binds to 14–3–3 proteins, resulting in the cytoplasmic retention of TFEB[30].

However, lysosomal permeabilization causes the dissociation of mTORC1 from lysosomes,

which leads to the dephosphorylation of TFEB and its translocation to the nucleus to

activate the expression of lysosome- and autophagy-related genes[3,14,30].

The elimination of damaged lysosomes through lysophagy requires a period of more

than half a day, during which the cell is vulnerable[31]. It is therefore assumed that there are

cellular mechanisms that cooperate with lysophagy to maintain cellular health in the lysosomal damage response. In previous work, we demonstrated that K63 ubiquitin chains, which accumulate on dysfunctional endosomes, induce cytokine production by modulating gene expression in a TGF-beta-activated kinase 1 (TAK1) and TAK1-binding protein (TAB) dependent manner[32,33]. K63 ubiquitin chains also accumulate in damaged lysosomes, which serves as an initiating signal for lysophagy. This prompted us to investigate whether gene expression is induced by ubiquitin-mediated activation of the TAB–TAK1 pathway in the lysosomal damage response, as observed in the endosomal stress response. The transcriptome of cells exposed to lysosomal damaging agents for 30 min has been described[34]; however, genome-wide gene expression patterns associated with the lysosomal damage response remain unclear. In this study, we performed transcriptome and proteome analyses to comprehensively examine the regulation of gene expression in the lysosomal damage response and to identify the underlying signal transduction pathways. We found that accumulation of K63 ubiquitin chains in damaged lysosomes activates the TAB–TAK1–IKK–NF-κB pathway, which in turn induces the expression of various transcription factors and cytokines. We elucidated the critical role of the TAB–TAK1–IKK–NF-κB pathway in cell survival and intercellular signal transduction. Collectively, the findings suggest the existence of a universal response mechanism against the intracellular accumulation of K63 ubiquitin chains.

Results

Lysosomal damage has a global impact on the transcriptome and proteome

To comprehensively investigate the changes in gene expression caused by lysosomal

damage, we performed transcriptome analysis and compared mRNA expression between

cells treated with L-Leucyl–L-Leucine methyl ester (LLOMe), a well-characterized inducer

of lysosomal damage[35], and control cells. We used RPE-1 cells, which are commonly used

in aging research. Transcriptome data revealed substantial alterations in gene expression in

response to lysosomal damage. We identified >1,000 genes (946 upregulated and 164

downregulated genes from >13,000 transcripts with Log_2 fold change (FC) >|1| and P

<0.05) that exhibited significant changes at 2 h after LLOMe treatment (Fig. 1A). Proteome

analysis was performed to determine the correlation between proteomic changes and the

observed alterations in the transcriptome. The analysis identified 86 upregulated and 60

downregulated proteins (of >10,000 proteins with Log_2 FC >|1| and P <0.05) (Fig. 1B).

There was a modest correlation between the significant upregulation at the RNA level and

that at the protein level, with a correlation coefficient (R) of 0.5899 from 302 data points

(Fig. 1C and Fig. S1A). The representative targets interleukin-1 β (IL1β), IL6, interferon

regulatory factor 1 (IRF1), and the proto-oncogenes c-Jun (JUN) and c-Fos (FOS) were

upregulated at both the RNA and protein levels (Fig. 1C and S1A, B). This indicates that

alterations in the transcriptome were, at least in part, responsible for those observed in the

proteome. Genes showing significant upregulation in the transcriptome and proteome

analyses were subjected to gene enrichment analysis using the Gene Ontology Molecular

Function (GOMF) reference dataset (Fig. 1D, E). The results showed that these genes were

primarily enriched in transcription factors and cytokines (labeled in red and blue,

respectively, in Fig. 1D). Analysis using a Molecular Signatures Database (MSigDB)

hallmark gene set[36], a phenotypic reference dataset, indicated that genes upregulated at both

the RNA and protein levels were involved in biological regulatory processes including the

inflammatory response and apoptosis (Fig. 1E). It is noteworthy that the transcription factor

prediction using the DoRothEA regulon[37,38] identified the p65 (RELA) and p105 (NFKB1)

subunits of the NF-κB family as the primary transcription factors regulating gene

expression in the lysosomal damage response (Fig. 1F). This suggests that NF-κB

activation is involved in the regulation of gene expression in the lysosomal damage

response. The upregulation of IL1β, IL6, IRF1, JUN, and FOS at the protein level was

confirmed by immunoblotting (Fig. 1G).

Taken together, the results suggest that in the lysosomal damage response, the proteome

is remodeled according to alterations in the transcriptome; this remodeling is mediated

primarily through NF-κB and involves many transcription factors and cytokines, which

may potentially lead to the regulation of inflammation and apoptosis (Fig. 1H).

Lysosomal damage activates TAK1 in a ubiquitin- and TAB-dependent manner

Lysosomal membrane damage exposes glycoproteins, such as LAMP2. Cytosolic galectin

proteins, including Galectin-3 (Gal-3), are recruited to the lysosomal membrane by

recognizing beta-galactoside-containing glycans on exposed proteins. These exposed

lysosomal proteins are extensively ubiquitinated by ubiquitin ligases, resulting in the

accumulation of ubiquitinated proteins within damaged lysosomes[25,26,39]. An endosomal

stress response mechanism was recently described whereby K63 ubiquitin chains

accumulate on dysfunctional endosomes, activating TAK1 in a TAB-dependent manner[32].

TAB2 and TAB3 (a paralog of TAB2) function as ubiquitin decoders that specifically

recognize K63 ubiquitin chains via the C-terminal Npl4 zinc finger (NZF) domain[40,41]. The

finding that TAB binding to unanchored K63 ubiquitin chains is sufficient to activate TAK1

in vitro[42] suggests that the conjugation of K63 ubiquitin chains to bulky substrates on

endosomes is sufficient to facilitate TAB-dependent TAK1 activation. This prompted us to

investigate whether the accumulation of K63 ubiquitin chains in other regions of the

cytoplasm also results in TAK1 activation. TAK1 controls the function of the

p62/sequestosome, an autophagy receptor, and TAB2 undergoes TRIM38-mediated

lysosomal degradation in response to lysosomal damage[43,44]. However, whether TAK1 is

activated in a TAB-dependent manner and the role of the TAB–TAK1 signaling pathway in

the lysosomal damage response remain unanswered questions.

To determine whether the TAB–TAK1 signaling pathway is activated in response to

lysosomal damage, we initially examined the subcellular localization of TAB2 and TAK1.

The recruitment of Gal-3 and K63 ubiquitin chains to damaged lysosomes was confirmed

in RPE-1 cells (Fig. S2A-B). The co-localization of TAB2 and TAK1 with K63 ubiquitin

chains at damaged lysosomes was observed 5 min after LLOMe treatment (Fig. 2A). The

signals of LAMP1, a lysosomal marker protein, were enhanced, and LAMP1-positive

puncta were increased in size in RPE-1 cells treated with LLOMe. It is plausible that this

phenomenon reflects the morphological alterations in lysosomes under our experimental

conditions, possibly due to lysosomal membrane damage (Fig. 2A, S2A). Immunoblotting

analysis showed that the accumulation of K63 ubiquitin chains in the cell was accompanied

by an increase in active phosphorylated TAK1, which was first detected 5 min after

LLOMe treatment (Fig. 2B). TFEB isolated from cells treated with LLOMe exhibited a

downshift on the gel, which is a characteristic of TFEB activation[45]. This indicates that a

lysosomal damage response was activated under these experimental conditions (Fig. 2B).

TAK1 activation was abolished by the E1 ubiquitin-activating enzyme inhibitor TAK-243

and depletion of TAB2 and TAB3 (Fig. 2C, D). These results suggest that TAK1 is

activated in a ubiquitin- and TAB-dependent manner in the lysosomal damage response. To

further explore the potential involvement of K63 ubiquitination in TAK1 activation, we

performed an add-back experiment using siRNA-resistant TAB2 WT and mutants incapable

of binding to K63 ubiquitin chains, dNZF and E685A. The NZF domain of TAB2 is well-

characterized to specifically associate with K63 ubiquitin chains[40]. We investigated whether

the add-back of TAB2 mutants rescues the activation of TAK1 in TAB2-depleted cells (Fig.

2E). TAB2 WT, but not dNZF and E685A, restored TAK1 activation in response to

lysosomal damage, suggesting that the specific interaction of TAB proteins and K63

ubiquitin chains is a key mechanism to activate TAK1. Unexpectedly, the treatment of an

E1 inhibitor TAK-243 that abolished the lysosomal accumulation of K63 ubiquitin chains

did not inhibit the recruitment of TAB2 to damaged lysosomes, suggesting that the

recruitment of TAB proteins to damaged lysosomes is independent of the association with

K63 ubiquitin chains (Fig. S2B). Collectively, it is postulated that TAB proteins require the

interaction with K63 ubiquitin chains for TAK1 activation, but not for recruitment to

damaged lysosomes. We next examined whether other lysosomal damage inducers, Glycyl-

L-phenylalanine 2-naphthylamide (GPN) and DC661, also activate TAK1. It has been

shown that GPN and DC661 induce lysosomal membrane permeabilization through

hyperosmotic stress and lipid peroxidation in lysosomes, respectively[46,47]. In cells treated

with GPN and DC661, K63 ubiquitin chains were accumulated, possibly due to a defect in

the endo-lysosome machinery (Fig. S2C, D). However, the lysosomal accumulation of Gal-

3 was significantly lower than that observed in cells treated with LLOMe, suggesting that

GPN and DC661 did not induce severe lysosomal membrane permeabilization (Fig. S2C,

D). Under these conditions, the phosphorylation of TAK1 was not observed (Fig. S2E).

These findings indicate that the exposure of K63 ubiquitin chains within the cytosol

following severe lysosomal membrane permeabilization functions as an initial trigger for

TAB-mediated TAK1 activation in the lysosomal damage response.

The TAB–TAK1 pathway plays a pivotal role in the induction of cytokines and

transcription factors in the lysosomal damage response

To gain further insight into the involvement of the TAB–TAK1 pathway in the regulation of

gene expression associated with the lysosomal damage response, an additional

transcriptome analysis was performed on TAB- and TAK1-depleted cells treated with

LLOMe for 2 h. The genes upregulated in response to lysosomal damage were classified

into six distinct clusters within the dataset (Fig. 3A). Clusters 4 and 5 comprised genes that

are expressed in a TAB- and TAK1-dependent manner (Fig. 3A). Most of the genes

upregulated in a TAB- and TAK1-dependent manner showed overlapping expression

patterns (Fig. S3A, B); these genes were enriched for cytokines and growth factors, and

their functions were linked to inflammatory responses and apoptosis, as shown in the gene

enrichment analysis (Fig. S3C, D). Transcription factor prediction based on the DoRothEA

regulon indicated that genes in cluster 4, whose expression was inhibited by depletion of

TAB and TAK1, were targets of the NF-κB family, including RelA, NFKB1, and c-Rel

(REL) (Fig. 3B). The NF-κB family members were identified as the primary transcription

factors regulating gene expression in the lysosomal damage response (Fig. 1F). This

indicates that the TAB–TAK1 pathway serves as a primary axis for the activation of NF-κB

in the lysosomal damage response, thereby inducing target gene expression. Cytokines and

growth factors were enriched in cluster 4, and transcription factors were enriched in cluster

5, in which gene expression was partially suppressed (Fig. 3C, E). Regulators of the

inflammatory response and apoptotic functions were commonly enriched in clusters 4 and 5

(Fig. 3D). The results of immunoblotting showed that the protein expression of IL1β, IL6,

IRF1, homeobox protein Nkx-3.1 (NKX3.1), and JUN was consistent with the TAB- and

TAK1-mediated gene expression. Conversely, depletion of TAB and TAK1 did not affect

the expression of FOS at both the mRNA and protein levels (Fig. 3F and S3E).

Furthermore, the downshift of TFEB, which indicates the activation of TFEB, was not

affected by depletion of TAB and TAK1 (Fig. 3F). This suggests that TFEB activation is

independent of the TAB–TAK1 pathway in the lysosomal damage response.

In conclusion, transcriptome analysis in TAB- and TAK1-depleted cells indicates that the

TAB–TAK1 pathway induces the expression of cytokines and transcription factors,

potentially via NF-κB, in the lysosomal damage response, thereby regulating inflammatory

response and apoptosis.

The K63 Ub–TAB–TAK1–IKK–NF-κB pathway is activated in the lysosomal damage

response

To elucidate the downstream cascade of the TAB–TAK1 signaling pathway in the early

response to lysosomal damage, we performed proteome and phosphoproteome analyses

using the TAK1 inhibitor HS-276 (Fig. 4A, S4A). The phosphoproteome analysis showed

that the phosphorylation levels of stress-induced mitogen-activated protein kinases

(MAPKs), specifically p38α (MAPK14, pT180/pY182) and JNK3 (MAPK10, pY223), as

well as MK2 (MAPKAPK2, pT334), a downstream target of MAPKs, increased in

response to lysosomal damage, and this increase was dependent on TAK1 (Fig. S4B, C).

Phosphorylation of T180/Y182 in p38α and Y223 in JNK3 activates the kinase

function[48,49]. The TAK1-dependent phosphorylation of Y223 in JNK3 in the lysosomal

damage response was consistent with a previous report that lysosome rupture activates the

TAK1–JNK pathway in THP-1 cells[50]. Additionally, T334 of MK2 is a primary site of

phosphorylation by MAPKs[51]. These findings suggest that lysosomal damage induces

TAK1-dependent activation of MAPKs. Proteome analysis showed that the inhibitor of NF-

κB α (IκBα) undergoes TAK1-dependent degradation 30 min after LLOMe treatment (Fig.

4A, B). The inhibitor of NF-κB kinase (IKK) complex, which comprises IKKα, β, and γ,

functions downstream of TAK1 and phosphorylates IκBα, thereby inducing its

degradation[52]. Similarly, in response to ubiquitin-mediated endosomal stress, the NF-κB

pathway is activated in an IKK-dependent manner[32]. The degradation of IκBα is a hallmark

phenomenon upstream of NF-kB activation[53], which is primarily triggered by IKK-

mediated phosphorylation. This leads to the hypothesis that the IKK complex activated by

the TAB–TAK1 pathway promotes the phosphorylation of IκBα, which leads to its

degradation and NF-κB activation in the lysosomal damage response.

We therefore sought to characterize the kinase cascade that is activated in the lysosomal

damage response. We confirmed the phosphorylation and subsequent degradation of IκBα

(Fig. 4C). We also found that MAPKs and IKK were activated concomitant with a notable

phosphorylation of IKK, JNK, and p38, and a relatively minimal phosphorylation of ERK

(Fig. 4C). The increase in the phosphorylation levels of IKK, JNK, p38, and IκBα occurred

in a ubiquitin-dependent manner, as the induction was abolished by TAK-243 (Fig. 4D).

Depletion of TAB, TAK1, and IKK suppressed IκBα phosphorylation, and the

phosphorylation of JNK and p38 was TAB- and TAK1-dependent (Fig. 4E, F). These

findings indicate that the phosphorylation of IκBα is induced in a TAB–TAK1–IKK

pathway-dependent manner. Additionally, it can be postulated that MAPKs, including JNK

and p38, are activated by the TAB–TAK1 pathway.

TANK-binding kinase 1 (TBK1), a putative NF-κB regulator, has been reported to be

activated in the lysosomal damage response[21]. We examined whether TBK1 coordinately

functions with the TAB-TAK1 pathway to facilitate NF-κB activation. Consistent with the

previous report, TBK1 was activated in response to LLOMe treatment (Fig. S4D).

Depletion of TAB and TAK1 led to a slight reduction in the activation of TBK1 (Fig. S4E).

The TBK1 inhibitor BX-795 did not affect TAK1 activation but abolished the

phosphorylation of IKK and IκBα (Fig. S4F). With regard to the ubiquitination in the

lysosomal damage response, the linear ubiquitin chain assembly complex (LUBAC)-

mediated M1 ubiquitination has been implicated in NF-κB activation[54]. To explore the

functional link between K63 and M1 ubiquitination, we examined the effects of LUBAC

depletion on the TAB-TAK1 pathway and the subsequent NF-κB activation. Depletion of

RNF31 (also known as HOIP), a component of LUBAC, exhibited no or minimal effects on

TAK1 activation, but abolished the phosphorylation of IKK and IκBα (Fig. S4G). These

findings suggest that TBK1 and LUBAC are indispensable for NF-κB activation in the

lysosomal damage response.

The IKK complex, which is activated by the TAB–TAK1 pathway in response to

lysosomal damage, has been shown to induce the phosphorylation and degradation of

IκBα, potentially leading to the activation of NF-κB (Fig. 4G). Furthermore, TBK1 and

LUBAC were required for NF-κB activation, but not for TAK1 activation, indicating that

TBK1 and LUBAC function downstream of or parallel to the TAB-TAK1 pathway.

The K63 Ub–TAB–TAK1–NF-κB pathway regulates the expression of cytokines and

transcription factors essential for cell survival and intercellular signaling

IL1β, IL6, IRF1, and NKX3.1 expression was associated with the lysosomal damage

response and dependent on the TAB–TAK1 pathway (Fig. 3E, F, and S3E). The expression

of these genes was suppressed by treatment with TAK-243 and HS-276 (Fig. 5A, B).

Depletion of IKKs suppressed target gene expression (Fig. 5C). These findings demonstrate

that the expression of these genes is induced by the ubiquitin-dependent activation of the

TAB–TAK1–IKK pathway in the lysosomal damage response.

Gene enrichment data based on the results of transcriptome and proteome analyses

indicated that TAB–TAK1 pathway-dependent gene expression plays a role in the regulation of apoptosis and the inflammatory response (Fig. 3D and S3D). We thus examined the impact of the K63 Ub–TAB–TAK1–IKK–NF-κB pathway on these cellular functions. Lysosomal damage for 8 h did not induce apoptosis; however, inhibition of ubiquitination by TAK-243 dramatically induced apoptosis in HeLa and RPE-1 cells (Fig. 5D, E, S5A). This indicates that ubiquitination is essential for cell survival in the lysosomal damage response. Similarly, inhibition of TAK1 by HS-276 and depletion of TAB, TAK1, and IKKs following lysosomal damage for 24 h promoted apoptosis in HeLa cells (Fig. 5D-G). TAK1 inhibition induced apoptosis in RPE-1 cells to a lesser extent compared to HeLa cells (Fig. 5D, E, S5A). In addition, the inhibition of JNK by JNK-IN-8 promoted apoptosis following lysosomal damage for 12 h, which is a later time point than TAK-243 and HS-276 (Fig. S5B). These findings demonstrate that the K63 Ub–TAB–TAK1 pathway coordinately exerts anti-apoptotic effects through the downstream effectors such as IKK and JNK in response to lysosomal damage, thereby promoting cell survival.

We further investigated the potential autocrine/paracrine-like effects of cytokines such as IL1β and IL6, which are expected to be secreted outside the cells due to their upregulation in the lysosomal damage response. IL6 activates the JAK–STAT pathway, which is accompanied by the phosphorylation of STAT3[55]. Stimulation of untreated cells with conditioned media (CM) from lysosome-damaged cells resulted in the phosphorylation of STAT3, which indicates kinase activation (Fig. 5H). These results suggest that the lysosomal damage response activates intercellular signaling involving the JAK–STAT pathway. Furthermore, the capacity to activate this intercellular signaling was

316   decreased by depletion of TAB, TAK1, and IKKs (Fig. 5I, J).

317   Collectively, these findings suggest that the K63 Ub–TAB–TAK1 pathway plays a

318   pivotal role in cell survival and intercellular signaling in response to lysosomal damage.

Discussion

In this study, comprehensive analyses of the transcriptome and proteome demonstrated that lysosomal damage causes substantial alterations in gene expression, leading to proteome remodeling. Furthermore, we identified the signal transduction pathway mediating this response (Fig. 6). The accumulation of K63 ubiquitin chains in damaged lysosomes activates the TAB–TAK1–IKK–NF-κB pathway, which induces the expression of various transcription factors and cytokines. The present findings suggest that the ubiquitin-dependent signaling pathway plays a regulatory role in cell survival and intercellular signaling in the lysosomal damage response.

Prior to this study, our understanding of the lysosomal damage response was largely limited to the processes of repair and elimination of damaged lysosomes, as well as the activation and function of TFEB in lysosomal regeneration. Recent findings highlighting the role of stress granule formation in the lysosomal damage response suggest that additional pathways are involved in this process beyond what was previously anticipated[34]. Nevertheless, the complete picture remains to be elucidated. This study provides new information on the regulation of gene expression and signal transduction in the lysosomal damage response that offers a novel perspective for future research.

Aberrations in the lysosomal damage response are relevant to the pathogenesis of various age-related diseases, including neurodegenerative diseases[3,56]. In the context of pathology, inflammation, which is associated with numerous diseases, is linked to lysosomes. The inflammatory response is not only regulated by lysosomal function, but also triggered by lysosomal damage, and observed in lysosomal storage diseases[57,58]. The NLRP3

inflammasome induces an inflammatory response upon lysosomal damage by increasing

cytokine processing at the protein level[58,59]. The ubiquitin-regulated gene expression of pro-

inflammatory cytokines such as IL1β and IL6 may be involved in the induction of

inflammation in the lysosomal damage response, in addition to the regulation at the stage of

precursor processing. The present data on the regulation of gene expression by ubiquitin-

mediated signal transduction may help elucidate the molecular mechanisms underlying

diseases associated with lysosome dysfunction.

In this study, we demonstrated a pivotal role of the ubiquitin system in regulating gene

expression in the lysosomal damage response, which extends its function beyond that in

lysophagy initiation. We found that activation of the TAB–TAK1–IKK–NF-κB pathway,

potentially by the accumulation of K63 ubiquitin chains in damaged lysosomes, and the

subsequent induction of gene expression are crucial for cell survival and cell–cell

communication in cultured cells. Further analysis is required to determine the impact of this

action on disease pathogenesis and the maintenance of cellular homeostasis in organisms.

While we mainly focused on the TAB–TAK1–IKK–NF-κB pathway in this study, it

should be noted that TAK1 also activates AMPK, subsequently promoting lysophagy[15].

AMPK activation by TAK1 may also contribute to NF-κB activation or distinct gene

regulation. We found that TBK1 is required for NF-κB activation. In considering signal

mediators such as AMPK and TBK1, it is postulated that cell homeostasis is cooperatively

controlled by a set of regulators in the lysosomal damage response. A recent study

demonstrated that linear ubiquitin chains formed by LUBAC and deubiquitinated by

OTULIN activate NF-κB in the lysosomal damage response[54]. We have confirmed that

LUBAC is essential for NF-κB activation under our experimental conditions. It is well-

documented that LUBAC-catalyzed M1 ubiquitin chains recruit IKK subunits and

transduce the signaling to downstream mediators in the canonical pathway. Therefore, we

hypothesized that K63 ubiquitin chains in damage lysosomes initially activate the TAB–

TAK1 pathway and trigger LUBAC-mediated M1 ubiquitination. We further postulate that

M1 ubiquitination subsequently recruits the IKK complex to damaged lysosomes.

Consequently, activated TAK1 phosphorylates IKK subunits, leading to NF-kB activation

(Fig. 6). Apart from the lysosomal damage response, activated STING at the Golgi also

leads to NF-κB activation through LUBAC-mediated formation of linear ubiquitin chains[60].

In addition, the IKK complex is recruited to damaged mitochondria, potentially through its

association with accumulated ubiquitin chains, and activates NF-κB[61]. Although the

involvement of the TAB–TAK1 pathway was not examined in these studies, a common

mechanism underlying NF-κB activation induced by the accumulation of ubiquitin on

damaged or stressed organelles may serve as a unifying determinant. Taken together with

our previous findings that the accumulation of K63 ubiquitin chains in dysfunctional

endosomes induces cytokine expression via the TAB–TAK1 pathway[32], the present results

suggest the existence of a universal response to the intracellular accumulation of K63

ubiquitin chains resulting from fluctuations in the cellular environment, including organelle

stress. This universal response would entail the activation of NF-κB and the modulation of

downstream target gene expression for the regulation of cellular functions that maintain

homeostasis.

Materials and methods

Cell culture

RPE-1 cells were cultured at 37°C under 5% CO_2 in Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Medium (DMEM) / Ham's F-12 (WAKO, 048-29785) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS, Nichirei, 175013), 1 mM sodium pyruvate (Thermo Fisher Scientific, 11360070), 1× nonessential amino acids (Thermo Fisher Scientific, 11140050), and 1× Penicillin–Streptomycin–Glutamine (Thermo Fisher Scientific, 10378016). HeLa cells were cultured at 37°C under 5% CO_2 in DMEM (Thermo Fisher Scientific, D5796) supplemented with 10% FBS, 1 mM sodium pyruvate, 1× nonessential amino acids, and 1× Penicillin–Streptomycin–Glutamine. For experiments using conditioned medium, RPE-1 cells were stimulated with culture medium from RPE-1 cells that had been treated with or without 1 mM L-Leucyl–L-Leucine methyl ester (LLOMe, Cayman, 16008). At 30 min after treatment, the LLOMe was washed out and cells were further incubated in DMEM supplemented with 0.5% FBS, 1 mM sodium pyruvate, 1× nonessential amino acids, and 1× Penicillin–Streptomycin–Glutamine for 8 h. HeLa cells stably expressing siRNA-resistant FLAG-TAB2 WT, dNZF, and E685A were generated previously[32].

Reagents and inhibitors

To induce lysosomal damage, cells were treated with 1 mM LLOMe, 200 µM Glycyl-L-phenylalanine 2-naphthylamide (GPN, Cayman, 14634), and DC661 (Cayman, 34899) for the indicated times. In the event of a longer incubation period, the LLOMe was washed out

405 2 h after treatment. The following inhibitors were used in this study: TAK-243 (10 µM,

406 Active Biochem, A-1384), HS-276 (10 µM, Sigma-Aldrich, SML-3629), BX-795 (2 µM,

407 Abcam, ab142016), and JNK-IN-8 (10 µM, Cayman, 18096).

Transcriptome analysis

Transcriptome analysis

Total RNA from RPE-1 cells was prepared using the Qiashredder kit (Qiagen, 79654), the

RNeasy kit (Qiagen, 74104), and DNase (Qiagen, 79254). The quality of RNA samples was

assessed using an Agilent 2100 bioanalyzer (Agilent Technologies); an RNA integrity

number >9 was recorded for all samples. A total of 500 ng of each sample was processed

with the Illumina Stranded mRNA Prep kit, and indexes were added with the IDT for

Illumina RNA UD Indexes Set A (Illumina). The average library size was estimated using

the Agilent 2100 Bioanalyzer, and libraries were quantified using a Qubit Fluorometer

(Thermo Fisher Scientific). Samples were pooled into a single library and sequenced using

the NextSeq 1000/2000 P2 Reagents (300 cycles, paired-end 150bp) on the Illumina

NextSeq 1000 system. Sequence data were analyzed using the onboard DRAGEN RNA

Pipeline Application (v.3.10.12).

Proteome analysis

RPE-1 cells were lysed in 5% SDS lysis buffer [5% SDS and 50 mM triethylammonium

bicarbonate (TEAB, Thermo Fisher Scientific, 90114), followed by sonication with an

ultrasonication probe. Cell lysates were reduced and alkylated with 4.5 mM dithiothreitol

(DTT, Thermo Fisher Scientific, A39255) for 30 min at 55°C and 10 mM iodoacetamide

(IAA, Thermo Fisher Scientific, A39271) for 15 min at room temperature (RT).

Subsequently, 30 μg of cell lysates were loaded onto S-Trap micro columns (ProtiFi, C02-

micro); trypsin and lysyl-endopeptidase (Lys-C) solution (1:10 w/w, Thermo Fisher

Scientific, A41009) was added and incubated for 16 h at 37°C. The eluted peptides were

dried in a vacuum concentrator and resuspended in 0.1% trifluoroacetic acid (TFA).

Aliquots containing 500 ng of peptides from each sample were loaded onto a Vanquish Neo

UHPLC system-connected Orbitrap Exploris 480 mass spectrometer (Thermo Fisher

Scientific). The peptides were separated on an analytical column (C18, 1.7 μm particle size

× 75 μm diameter × 600 mm, IonOpticks, AUR3-60075C18) heated at 55°C in a column

oven (Sonation, PRSO-C2) with a constant flow rate of 250 nL/min. The peptides were

eluted with a 0–40% acetonitrile gradient over 120 min. Peptide ionization was performed

using the Nanospray Flex Ion Source (Thermo Fisher Scientific). The Orbitrap Exploris

480 mass spectrometer was operated in data-independent acquisition (DIA) mode using a

full scan (m/z range of 380–985, nominal resolution of 60,000, and target value of 3×10^6

ions) followed by DIA-MS scans (fixed collision energy of 30%, isolation width of 10 m/z

with an overlapping of 1 m/z, nominal resolution of 15,000, and target value of 2×10^6

ions).

DIA-MS data processing and visualization

The MS raw files were searched against the human UniProt reference proteome (Uniprot

ID: UP000005640, reviewed, canonical, 20,563 entries) in library-free mode using DIA-

NN software (version 1.9.1)[62]. The parameters that differed from the default settings were

as follows: variable modifications, oxidation of methionine and acetylation of the peptide

N-terminus; precursor m/z range, 380–985. Following processing with DIA-NN, the

exported data were subjected to imputation using Perseus software[63]. The default setting

was used, assuming that missing values represent low protein abundance. In this case,

missing values were replaced by random numbers drawn from a normal distribution across

the entire matrix. Gene enrichment tests and clustering were performed using the

RNAseqChef software[64], and heatmaps were generated using the Morpheus platform

(https://software.broadinstitute.org/morpheus/). The volcano plots, scatter plots, and bar

graphs were visualized using GraphPad Prism software (version 8.1.0, GraphPad).

459   Cell lysis and immunoblotting

Cells were lysed with 2% SDS lysis buffer (2% SDS, 20 mM HEPES pH 7.5, 1 mM

EDTA) containing a complete protease inhibitor cocktail (EDTA-free, Roche,

05056489001) and a phosphatase inhibitor cocktail (Roche, 4906845001). Cell lysates were

boiled in 1× LDS NuPAGE sample buffer (Thermo Fisher Scientific, NP0008) for 10 min

at 70°C, and then electrophoresed on 4–12% NuPAGE Bis-Tris gels (Thermo Fisher

Scientific). Proteins were transferred to polyvinylidene difluoride membranes (Millipore,

IPVH00010 or Pall, EH-2222). The membranes were incubated with 5% nonfat milk for 1

h at RT, followed by incubation for 2 h at RT with primary antibodies. The primary

antibodies used for immunoblotting were anti-IL1β mouse monoclonal (Cell Signaling

Technology, 12242), anti-IL6 rabbit monoclonal (Cell Signaling Technology, 12153), anti-

IRF1 rabbit monoclonal (Cell Signaling Technology, 8478), anti-NKX3.1 rabbit

monoclonal (Cell Signaling Technology, 92998), anti-c-Fos rabbit monoclonal (Cell

Signaling Technology, 2250), anti-c-Jun rabbit monoclonal (Cell Signaling Technology,

9165), HRP-conjugated anti-α-tubulin rabbit polyclonal (MBL, PM054-7), anti-K63

ubiquitin rabbit monoclonal (Millipore, 05-1308), anti-ubiquitin mouse monoclonal (Santa

Cruz Biotechnology, sc-8017), anti-phospho-TAK1 (T184/T187) rabbit monoclonal (Cell

Signaling Technology, 4508), anti-TAK1 rabbit polyclonal (Cell Signaling Technology,

4505), anti-TAB2 rabbit polyclonal (Abcam, ab222214), anti-TAB3 rabbit polyclonal

(Abcam, ab85655), HRP-conjugated anti-FLAG mouse monoclonal (Sigma-Aldrich,

A8592), anti-TFEB rabbit monoclonal (Cell Signaling Technology, 37785), anti-phospho-

IKKα/β (S176/S180) rabbit monoclonal (Cell Signaling Technology, 2697), anti-IKKα

rabbit polyclonal (Cell Signaling Technology, 2682), anti-IKKβ rabbit monoclonal (Cell

Signaling Technology, 8943), anti-phospho-IκBα (S32) rabbit monoclonal (Cell Signaling

Technology, 2859), anti-IκBα rabbit monoclonal (Cell Signaling Technology, 4812), anti-

phospho-JNK (T183/Y185) rabbit monoclonal (Cell Signaling Technology, 4668), anti-

JNK rabbit polyclonal (Cell Signaling Technology, 9252), anti-phospho-p38 (T180/Y182)

rabbit polyclonal (Cell Signaling Technology, 9211), anti-p38 rabbit monoclonal (Cell

Signaling Technology, 8690), anti-phospho-ERK (T202/Y204) rabbit monoclonal (Cell

Signaling Technology, 4370), anti-ERK rabbit monoclonal (Cell Signaling Technology,

4695), anti-cleaved caspase-3 rabbit polyclonal (Cell Signaling Technology, 9661), anti-

phospho-STAT3 (Y705) rabbit monoclonal (Cell Signaling Technology, 9145), anti-STAT3

rabbit monoclonal (Cell Signaling Technology, 4904), anti-phospho-TBK1 (S172) rabbit

monoclonal (Cell Signaling Technology, 5483), anti-TBK1 rabbit monoclonal (Abcam,

ab40676), and anti-RNF31 rabbit monoclonal (Cell Signaling Technology, 99633)

antibodies. The membranes were then incubated with secondary antibodies for 50 min at

RT. The secondary antibodies used were HRP-conjugated goat anti-rabbit Ig (Promega,

W4011) and anti-mouse Ig (Promega, W4021). The antibodies were diluted with Can Get

Signal Solutions (TOYOBO, NKB-101). Chemiluminescence images were developed using

the ECL Prime Western Blotting Detection Reagent (Cytiva, RPN2236) and acquired with a

Fusion FX7 (Vilber Bio Imaging).

Phosphoproteome analysis

RPE-1 cells were treated with or without 1 mM LLOMe and 10 µM HS-276 for the

indicated times, after which they were lysed, reduced, and alkylated as described above

(proteome analysis). Aliquots containing 200 µg of lysate were loaded onto S-Trap mini

columns (ProtiFi, C02-mini), followed by the addition of the trypsin solution (1:10 w/w,

Cell Signaling Technology, 56296) and incubation for 16 h at 37°C. The eluted peptides

were dried in a vacuum concentrator. Phosphopeptides were enriched using the High-Select

Fe-NTA Phosphopeptide Enrichment Kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific, A32992) and dried in a

vacuum concentrator. The resultant peptides were cleaned using C18 spin tips (Thermo

Fisher Scientific, 84850), dried in a vacuum concentrator, resuspended in 0.1% TFA, and

loaded onto a Vanquish Neo UHPLC system-connected Orbitrap Exploris 480 mass

spectrometer. The peptides were separated on an analytical column (C18, 1.7 μm particle

size × 75 μm diameter × 250 mm, IonOpticks, AUR3-25075C18) heated at 55°C in a

column oven with a constant flow rate of 250 nL/min. The peptides were eluted with a 0–

40% acetonitrile gradient over 120 min. Peptide ionization was performed using the

Nanospray Flex Ion Source. The Orbitrap Exploris 480 mass spectrometer was operated in

data-dependent acquisition (DDA) mode utilizing a full scan (m/z range, 375–1500;

nominal resolution, 60,000; target value, 3×10^6 ions) followed by MS/MS scans (fixed

collision energy, 30%; isolation width, 1.6 m/z; nominal resolution, 15,000, and target

value, 1×10^5 ions). Precursor ions selected for fragmentation (charge state 2–6) were

placed on a dynamic exclusion list for 20 s. A "1-s cycle" DDA method was used, whereby

the most intense ions were selected every second for MS/MS fragmentation by higher-

energy collisional dissociation.

DDA-MS data processing and visualization

The MS raw files were searched against the human UniProt reference proteome (Uniprot

ID: UP000005640, reviewed, canonical, 20,563 entries) using the Sequest HT search

program in Proteome Discoverer 3.1 (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Intensity-based non-label

quantification was performed using the Precursor Ions Quantifier node in Proteome

Discoverer 3.1. Volcano plots, scatter plots, and bar graphs were visualized using GraphPad

Prism (version 8.1.0, GraphPad).

Immunofluorescence and confocal microscopy analysis

Cells were plated in 35-mm glass-bottomed dishes coated with poly-L-lysine (MatTek, P35-GC-0-10-C). They were fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde in PBS for 10 min at RT and permeabilized with 0.2% Triton X-100 in PBS for 5 min at RT. Alternatively, the cells were incubated with ice-cold methanol for 10 min on ice. Following incubation with 5% FBS and 0.1% Tween in PBS for 30 min at RT, cells were incubated with primary antibodies for 2 h at RT and then stained with secondary antibodies and DAPI (Thermo Fisher Scientific, D1306) for 1 h at RT. The following primary antibodies were used: anti-TAB2 mouse monoclonal (Santa Cruz Biotechnology, sc-398188), anti-LAMP1 rabbit monoclonal (Cell Signaling Technology, 9091), anti-K63 ubiquitin rabbit monoclonal (Millipore, 05-1308), anti-TAK1 mouse monoclonal (Santa Cruz Biotechnology, sc-7967), and anti-Galectin-3 rat monoclonal (Santa Cruz Biotechnology, sc-23938). The following secondary antibodies were purchased from Thermo Fisher Scientific: Alexa Fluor 488-conjugated anti-mouse (A-11029) and anti-rat (A-11006); and Alexa Fluor 594-conjugated anti-rabbit (A-11012). After staining, the cells were coverslipped (Matsunami, C015001) with SlowFade Gold (Thermo Fisher Scientific, S36936). Images were captured using ZEN 3.8 imaging software and LSM980 laser-scanning confocal microscopes equipped with a Plan-Apochromat 63×/1.4NA oil lens (Carl Zeiss).

Small interfering RNA (siRNA) transfection

Cells were transfected with siRNAs using Lipofectamine RNAiMax (Thermo Fisher

Scientific) at a final siRNA concentration of 30 nM. Cells were harvested and analyzed 72

h after transfection with siRNA. The siRNAs utilized pools of four different sequences

(Horizon Discovery). The following siRNAs were used: TAB2 siRNAs: L-004771; TAB3

siRNAs: L-015572; TAK1 siRNAs: L-003790; IKKα siRNAs: L-003473; IKKβ siRNAs:

L-003503; IKKγ siRNAs: L-003763; and RNF31 siRNAs: L-021419.

RT-qPCR analysis

Total RNA was extracted using NucleoSpin RNA Plus (MACHEREY-NAGEL,

740984.250). cDNA was generated using the ReverTra Ace qPCR RT Master Mix with

gDNA Remover kit (TOYOBO, FSQ-301). Quantification of mRNA was performed using

a Light Cycler 480 (Roche) with THUNDERBIRD SYBR qPCR Mix (TOYOBO, QPS-

201) as the detection reagent. The primer sets used for qRT-PCR were as follows: IL1β

forward: TACGATCACTGAACTGCACGC, IL1β reverse:

CTTGTTGCTCCATATCCTGTCCC; IL6 forward: TCATCACTGGTCTTTTGGAGTTTG,

IL6 reverse: CAGCTCTGGCTTGTTCCTCAC; IRF1 forward:

GCCATTCACACAGGCCGATAC, IRF1 reverse: TGCTCTGGTCTTTCACCTCCTC;

NKX3.1 forward: CTGGGAGACTTGGAGAAGCAC, NKX3.1 reverse:

GGATAGCTGTTATACACGGAGACC; and GAPDH forward:

AGAAGGTGGTGAAGCAGGCG, GAPDH reverse:

CAAAGTGGTCGTTGAGGGCAATG.

Cell death assay

Cell death upon lysosomal damage was assessed by propidium iodide (PI) staining. Both

cells attached to the culture dish and suspended in media were collected and stained with

50 μg/mL of PI (Thermo Fisher Scientific, P3566) for 15 min at RT. After washing excess

PI, cells were resuspended in fresh PBS. Stained cells were loaded and counted on LSR-

Fortessa (BD Biosciences).

Statistical analysis

Statistical analysis was performed using GraphPad Prism (version 8.1.0). All statistical

information is provided in the figure legends. First, the sample distribution was assessed

using the Shapiro–Wilk test. In the absence of formal testing, datasets with small sample

sizes were assumed to have a normal distribution. The unpaired two-tailed Student's t-test

was used to determine statistical significance when comparing unpaired two independent

groups with normal distribution and no significant difference in standard deviation (SD).

For multiple comparisons involving more than two unpaired groups with normal

distribution, an ordinary one-way ANOVA with Dunnett's multiple comparison test was

used. In all instances, statistical significance was evaluated with a 95% confidence interval,

and a P value <0.05 was considered statistically significant.

Data availability

The RNA sequencing data have been deposited with links to BioProject accession number PRJDB19809 in the BioProject database of DNA Data Bank of Japan (DDBJ). The mass spectrometry proteomics data have been deposited to the ProteomeXchange Consortium via the PRIDE partner repository[65] with dataset identifiers PXD058072 (related to Fig. 1B–E and S1A, B), PXD058075 (related to Fig. 4A, B), and PXD058080 (related to Fig. S4A–C).

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Author contributions

The study was conceived by Akinori Endo, Keiji Tanaka, and Yukiko Yoshida. Transcriptome analyses were performed by Yasumasa Nishito. Proteome analyses were performed by Akinori Endo. Microscopy analyses were performed by Akinori Endo. Biochemical experiments were performed by Akinori Endo, Chikage Takahashi, Naoko Ishibashi, and Koji Yamano. Writing and editing were performed by Akinori Endo and Yukiko Yoshida.

Declaration of interest

The authors declare no competing financial interests.

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 Figure legends

Figure 1 | Lysosomal damage has a global impact on the transcriptome and proteome

(A, B) The mean Log_2 fold change (FC, LLOMe 2 h/control) and $-Log_{10}$ P value of the

transcriptome (A) and proteome (B) in RPE-1 cells are indicated on the x and y axes,

respectively. Genes significantly upregulated or downregulated are labeled in red and blue,

respectively.

(C) For genes showing significant upregulation in the transcriptome (Log_2 FC >1 and P

<0.05), the correlation between the mean Log_2 FC of the transcriptome (from A, x axis) and

the proteome (from B, y axis) is shown with a coefficient of correlation ($R = 0.5899$, $n =$

302).

(D, E) The bubble plots show the outcomes of gene enrichment analyses based on gene

ontology molecular function (GOMF) (D) and MSigDB hallmark gene sets (E) for genes

upregulated at the protein and RNA levels (top ten and five categories for GOMF and

MSigDB hallmark gene sets, respectively). The color and size of the bubbles indicate the q

value and gene ratio, respectively. The categories related to transcription, cytokine/growth

factor, and apoptosis are labeled in red, blue, and green, respectively.

(F) The bubble plot illustrates the DoRothEA regulon-based prediction of transcription

factors responsible for the induction of genes upregulated in cells treated with LLOMe (top

five transcription factors). The color and size of the bubbles indicate the q value and gene

ratio, respectively. NF-κB components are labeled in blue.

(G) RPE-1 cells were treated with LLOMe for 2 h and then washed. The total incubation

times are indicated. Total cell lysates were subjected to immunoblotting with the indicated

antibodies.

(H) Schematic model of the cellular response to lysosomal damage.

Figure 2 | Lysosomal damage activates TAK1 in a ubiquitin- and TAB-dependent

manner

(A) RPE-1 cells treated with LLOMe for 5 min were immunostained with the indicated

antibodies and DAPI. Scale bar, 20 μm.

(B) Total cell lysates from RPE-1 cells treated with LLOMe for the indicated times were

subjected to immunoblotting with the indicated antibodies.

(C) Total cell lysates from RPE-1 cells pre-treated with TAK-243 for 15 min and treated

with LLOMe for 15 min were subjected to immunoblotting with the indicated antibodies.

(D) Total cell lysates from RPE-1 cells transfected with the indicated siRNAs and treated
with LLOMe for 15 min were subjected to immunoblotting with the indicated antibodies.
(E) HeLa cells stably expressing FLAG-TAB2 WT, dNZF, and E685A were transfected
with the indicated siRNAs and treated with LLOMe for 15 min. Total cell lysates were
subjected to immunoblotting with the indicated antibodies.
867

Figure 3 | The TAB–TAK1 pathway activates cytokines and transcription factors in

response to lysosomal damage

(A) Heatmap showing the changes in the transcriptome of each sample. Clusters 4 and 5
include the genes upregulated by LLOMe in a TAB- and TAK1-dependent manner.
(B) The bubble plot shows the DoRothEA regulon-based prediction of transcription factors
responsible for the induction of genes assigned to clusters 4 and 5 in (A) (top five
transcription factors). The color and size of bubbles indicate q value and gene ratio,
respectively. NF-κB components are labeled in blue.
(C, D) The bubble plots show the outcomes of gene enrichment analyses based on GOMF
(C) and MSigDB hallmark gene sets (D) for genes assigned to clusters 4 and 5 in (A) (top
five categories). The color and size of the bubbles indicate the q value and gene ratio,
respectively. The categories related to transcription, cytokine/growth factor, and apoptosis
are labeled in red, blue, and green, respectively.
(E) Heatmaps showing the genes upregulated in a TAB- and TAK1-dependent manner
within the categories of inflammatory response (left) and transcription-related factors
(right). The color intensity indicates the Log_2 FC (LLOMe 2 h/control).
(F) Total cell lysates from RPE-1 cells transfected with the indicated siRNAs, treated with
LLOMe for 2 h, and washed for 2 h were subjected to immunoblotting with the indicated
antibodies.
887

Figure 4 | The K63 Ub–TAB–TAK1–IKK–NF-κB pathway induces the expression of
cytokines and transcription factors
(A) The mean Log_2 FC (LLOMe 30 min/control) and $-Log_{10}$ P value of the proteome are
indicated on the x and y axes, respectively. Proteins significantly upregulated or
downregulated are labeled in red and blue, respectively.
(B) IκBα protein abundance determined by mass spectrometry (MS) analysis. The

individual values, mean, and standard deviation (SD) of the mean of protein abundance are

presented. The mean ± SD values were calculated from two biological replicates. *P <0.05

(one-way ANOVA with Dunnett's test).

(C) Total cell lysates from RPE-1 cells treated with LLOMe for the indicated times were

subjected to immunoblotting with the indicated antibodies.

(D) Total cell lysates from RPE-1 cells pre-treated with TAK-243 for 15 min and treated

with LLOMe for 10 min were subjected to immunoblotting with the indicated antibodies.

(E, F) Total cell lysates from RPE-1 cells transfected with the indicated siRNAs and treated

with LLOMe for 10 min were subjected to immunoblotting with the indicated antibodies.

(G) Schematic model of the cellular signaling pathways activated in response to lysosomal

damage.

Figure 5 | The K63 Ub–TAB–TAK1–IKK–NF-κB pathway promotes cell survival and

intercellular signaling

(A, B) Total RNA from RPE-1 cells pre-treated with TAK-243 (A) and HS-276 (B) for 15

min and treated with LLOMe for 2 h was analyzed by RT-qPCR. Target mRNA levels were

normalized to GAPDH mRNA levels; the expression levels in control cells were set to 1.

The individual values, mean, and standard error of the mean (SEM) of relative mRNA

levels are presented. The mean ± SEM values were calculated from three biological

replicates. ****P <0.0001 (one-way ANOVA with Dunnett's test).

(C) Total RNA from RPE-1 cells transfected with the indicated siRNAs and treated with

LLOMe for 2 h was analyzed by RT-qPCR. Target mRNA levels were normalized to

GAPDH mRNA levels; the expression levels in cells treated with control siRNA were set to

1. The individual values, mean, and SEM of relative mRNA levels are presented. The mean

± SEM values were calculated from three biological replicates. ****P <0.0001 (one-way

ANOVA with Dunnett's test).

(D, E) HeLa cells were pre-treated with TAK-243 or HS-276 for 15 min, treated with

LLOMe for 2 h, and washed for 6 h. Total cell lysates were subjected to immunoblotting

with the indicated antibodies (D). Cells were stained with propidium iodide (PI), and the

fractions of PI-positive cells were assessed using the flow cytometer. Error bars indicate SD

(n = 3). ****P < 0.0001 (one-way ANOVA with Dunnett's test) (E).

(F, G) Total cell lysates from HeLa cells transfected with the indicated siRNAs, treated

with LLOMe for 2 h, and washed for 22 h were subjected to immunoblotting with the
indicated antibodies.

(H) RPE-1 cells were stimulated for the indicated times with conditioned media (CM) from
RPE-1 cells treated with LLOMe for 30 min and washed for 7.5 h. Total cell lysates were
subjected to immunoblotting with the indicated antibodies.

(I, J) RPE-1 cells were stimulated for 15 min with CM from RPE-1 cells transfected with
the indicated siRNAs, treated with LLOMe for 30 min, and washed for 7.5 h. Total cell
lysates were subjected to immunoblotting with the indicated antibodies.

Figure 6 | Model of the ubiquitin-mediated cellular response to lysosomal damage

 Supplementary figure legends

 Figure S1

 (A) Heatmap showing genes upregulated at both the protein and mRNA levels, as derived

 from Fig. 1C (top 30 in proteomic upregulation). The color scale represents Log_2 FC

 (LLOMe 2 h/control).

 (B) RNA counts (top) and protein abundance (bottom) of representative genes, as measured

 by RNA sequencing and MS analysis, respectively. The individual values, mean, and SEM

 are shown. The mean ± SEM values were calculated from three biological replicates. *P

 <0.05, ***P <0.001, and ****P <0.0001 (two-tailed Student's t-test).

 Figure S2

 (A) RPE-1 cells treated with LLOMe for 5 min were immunostained with the indicated

 antibodies and DAPI. Scale bar, 20 μm.

 (B) RPE-1 cells pre-treated with TAK-243 for 15 min and treated with LLOMe for 5 min

 were immunostained with the indicated antibodies and DAPI. Scale bar, 20 μm.

 (C, D) RPE-1 cells treated with GPN (C) and DC661 (D) for 4 h were immunostained with

 the indicated antibodies and DAPI. Scale bar, 20 μm.

 (E) Total cell lysates from RPE-1 cells treated with GPN, DC661, and LLOMe for the

 indicated times were subjected to immunoblotting with the indicated antibodies.

 Figure S3

 (A) Scatter plots showing the correlation between the mean Log_2 FC (LLOMe 2 h/control)

 in cells transfected with siControl (x axis) and siTAB2/3 (y axis) (left), and siControl (x

 axis) and siTAK1 (y axis) (right).

 (B) Venn diagram showing the overlap of genes upregulated by LLOMe treatment in a

 TAB- and TAK1-dependent manner.

 (C, D) The bubble plots show the outcomes of gene enrichment analyses based on GOMF

 (C) and MSigDB hallmark gene sets (D) for genes upregulated by LLOMe treatment in a

 TAB- and TAK1-dependent manner (top five categories). The color and size of the bubbles

 indicate the q value and gene ratio, respectively. The categories related to cytokine/growth

 factor and apoptosis are labeled in blue and green, respectively.

 (E) RNA counts of representative genes, as measured by RNA sequencing. The individual

 values, mean, and SEM are presented. The mean ± SD values were calculated from three

biological replicates. ****P <0.0001 (one-way ANOVA with Dunnett's test).

Figure S4

(A) The mean Log$_2$ FC (LLOMe 30 min/control) and −Log$_{10}$ P value of the phosphopeptides are indicated on the x and y axes, respectively. Phosphopeptides significantly upregulated or downregulated are labeled in red and blue, respectively.

(B) Correlation between the mean Log$_2$ FC (LLOMe 30 min/control) in cells treated with (y axis) or without HS-276 (x axis) is shown for phosphopeptides that were significantly upregulated 30 min after LLOMe treatment (Log$_2$ FC >1 and P <0.05).

(C) Phosphopeptides abundance measured by MS analysis. The individual values, mean, and SD of the mean of phosphopeptide abundance are shown. The mean ± SD values were calculated from three biological replicates. **P <0.01 and ****P <0.0001 (one-way ANOVA with Dunnett's test).

(D) Total cell lysates from RPE-1 cells treated with LLOMe for the indicated times were subjected to immunoblotting with the indicated antibodies.

(E) Total cell lysates from RPE-1 cells transfected with the indicated siRNAs and treated with LLOMe for 10 min were subjected to immunoblotting with the indicated antibodies.

(F) Total cell lysates from RPE-1 cells pre-treated with BX-795 for 15 min and treated with LLOMe for 10 min were subjected to immunoblotting with the indicated antibodies.

(G) Total cell lysates from RPE-1 cells transfected with the indicated siRNAs and treated with LLOMe for 10 min were subjected to immunoblotting with the indicated antibodies.

Figure S5

(A) Total cell lysates from RPE-1 cells pre-treated with TAK-243 or HS-276 for 15 min, treated with LLOMe for 2 h, and washed for 6 h were subjected to immunoblotting with the indicated antibodies.

(B) Total cell lysates from HeLa cells pre-treated with JNK-IN-8 for 15 min, treated with LLOMe for 2 h, and washed for 10 h were subjected to immunoblotting with the indicated antibodies.

Supplementary table titles
Table S1 | Transcriptome analysis LLOMe 2 h
Table S2 | Proteome analysis LLOMe 2 h

1003   **Table S3 | Correlation of Transcriptome and Proteome LLOMe 2 h**

1004   **Table S4 | Transcriptome analysis RNAi LLOMe 2 h**

1005   **Table S5 | Proteome analysis LLOMe 30 min**

1006   **Table S6 | Phosphoproteome analysis with HS-276**

1007

Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5

Figure 6

A

Log₂ FC (LLOMe 2 h / control)
1.00   8.00

B

Supplement figure 1

Supplement figure 2

Supplement figure 3

Supplement figure 4

A

RPE-1 cells

LLOMe 8 h

Control | TAK-243 | HS-276 | Control | TAK-243 | HS-276

kDa

28 —

17 —
14 —

Cleaved
caspase-3

49 — Tubulin

B

LLOMe 12 h

Control | JNK-IN-8 | Control | JNK-IN-8

kDa

28 —

17 —
14 —

Cleaved
caspase-3

49 — Tubulin

Supplement figure 5