Phase Behavior of TDP-43 and hnRNP H1: From Soluble and Aggregated States to Liquid-Like Droplets

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Abstract (200 words)

Cytotoxic inclusions of TAR DNA-binding protein 43 (TDP-43) have been identified in various

neurodegenerative diseases. Mediated by its low-complexity C-terminal domain (CTD), TDP-43

can undergo liquid-liquid phase separation (LLPS) and form aggregates and fibrils. These phase

transitions are associated with pathological TDP-43 mislocalization and cytoplasmic aggregation.

What determines whether and when TDP-43 adopts a liquid droplet state or forms solid

aggregates, transiently or irreversibly? A full understanding of the underlying biophysical

mechanisms will help explain the cellular toxicity of aberrant forms of TDP-43 and similar proteins,

such as some of the large family of RNA-binding proteins. In this study, we generated recombinant

full-length TDP-43 and maintained soluble working solutions without the need of a solubility tag.

By focusing on conditions that tune the electrostatic characteristics, we induced phase transitions

among states of soluble TDP-43, solid aggregates, and liquid droplet phases in an expedient and

controlled manner. We also obtained soluble working solutions of TDP-CTD and another crucial

splicing factor, hnRNPH1, and investigated their phase behaviors as individual proteins and their

interactions between each other during phase transitions. Using this system, we discovered a

previously unreported aggregate-to-droplet transition and found evidence that phase separation

of low-complexity domain (LCD)-containing proteins likely involves domain matching when

coaggregate out of solution.

Introduction

Protein aggregation is a defining feature of many neurodegenerative disorders, including the

accumulation of Tau in Alzheimer's disease, α-synuclein in Parkinson's disease, and TDP-43 in

amyotrophic lateral sclerosis (ALS). A central question in ALS study is what stimuli trigger TDP-

43 aggregation and which elements and properties of TDP-43 respond to the triggering stimuli.

TDP-43 is a ubiquitous RNA-binding protein (RBP) that regulates RNA splicing [1], with roles in

regulatory control on mRNA homeostasis, translation, transcription, and transport [2]. Though

predominantly residing in the nucleus with an N-terminal nuclear localization signal, TDP-43

shuttles between the nucleus and cytoplasm, a process found to be influenced by cellular

conditions such as stress [3,4]. The N-terminus region promotes self-association into dimers and

ordered oligomers [5], with evidence showing oligomerization into higher-order structures

prerequisite to elements of protein function [6,7]. Congruent to its role as an RBP, TDP-43 contains

two conserved RNA recognition motifs (RRMs) which mediate binding to RNA and DNA and are

central for TDP-43's biological roles. The C-terminus includes a low-complexity domain (LCD)

which is glycine-rich and aggregation-prone that regulates protein-protein interactions [8], splicing,

and solubility during physiological function [4,7,9].

Pathologically, the accumulation of TDP-43 aggregates is observed in 90% of cases of ALS, 50%

of frontotemporal lobar degeneration cases, and up to 75% in severe cases of Alzheimer's

disease, according to some estimates [10]. However, even in physiological functions, TDP-43 does

not always exist as a free soluble protein; rather, it transitions between solution and reversible

liquid-like droplets (LLDs) with limited mobility [3]. These droplets can change in size and shape in

response to cellular conditions. It appears that individual TDP-43 molecules and the oligomer

complexes they form exist in a constant state of flux; protein-protein interaction and aggregate

formation are always in play without necessarily leading to a pathological endpoint.

Under stress conditions, TDP-43 relocates to the cytoplasm to scaffold with other RBPs and RNA

into dynamic stress granules, which lock down translation and sequester specific molecules as a

coordinated cellular response to stress [11,12]. Extensive studies have illustrated that inside stress

granules, increased concentration leads to liquid phase separation (demixing) and depletion of

native protein [13]. When forming different forms of aggregates, protein concentration and

interaction strength among protein molecules are key factors that modulate LLPS from a

proteome-wide perspective [14]. One proposed pathway for how soluble TDP-43 congregates and

misfolds into toxic aggregates is through prolonged or repeated homotypic-interactions at

elevated concentrations within these granules, with other triggers such as oxidative stress, amino

acid mutation and modification, and the presence of RNA playing a role [15]. However, studies using

tracking and localization microscopy uncovered not only distinct substructures of TDP-43 within

stress granules, but also numerous regions of slow-moving TDP-43 species dispersed throughout

the cytoplasm, indicating TDP-43 oligomerization and aggregation can also occur inside the

cytoplasm but outside of stress granules [16,17], where protein concentrations are not constrained

by granule confinement. The precise mechanisms governing the dynamic balance among soluble

proteins, oligomer formation, and subsequent transitions into droplets and fibrillar assemblies

remain the subject of intense studies but still poorly understood even with significant progress

made over a decade by many groups of researchers.

The term "aggregate" relevant to LCD-containing RNA-binding proteins commonly refers broadly

to oligomers that may be in the form of liquid-like droplets, hydrogel-like "glassy" condensates, or

solid formations of various shapes, often progressing in that order [16-18]. Stress granules and

similar membraneless organelles, in which most of this process has been studied, dynamically

organize protein–protein and protein–RNA interactions in the cytoplasm and through LLPS

segregate into a concentrated phase from a dilute phase. LLPS in proteins is often driven by low-

complexity domains (LCDs), which mediate multivalent interactions. Both full-length TDP-43 and

its C-terminal domain (CTD) are known to undergo phase separation in vitro [14,15].

Insoluble inclusions of TDP-43 proteins containing fragments of its C-terminus are a hallmark in

numerous neurodegenerative diseases. It is quite remarkable that nearly all pathology-relevant

mutations of TDP-43 reside in its CTD [8], indicating the sensitivity of CTD's intrinsic functions to

any sequence perturbation despite its disordered structural morphology. This may suggest that,

prior to aggregation, factors beyond structural elements, such as the charges of key amino acids,

which can be influenced by extensive phosphorylation, acetylation, and other posttranslational

modifications concentrated within the region [8,19]. Additionally, charge distribution along the

sequence and neighboring effects, including stacking and hydrophobic interactions with specific

charged amino acids, may be essential for their behavior during phase transition [20]. In one report,

extensive mutagenesis was conducted to identify amino acid sequence as the "molecular

grammar" that dictates phase behavior in the FUS family [21]. In another study, adjusting the

placement of charged amino acids within an otherwise hydrophobic sequence resulted in a

twofold change in the tendency to phase-separate, without altering the net charge of the

polypeptide [22]. To manipulate the phase behaviors of TDP-43 through electrostatic alteration,

which shares many similarities with FUS, we created conditions that strongly altered the surface

charge of the protein and observed that it drove phase transitions into liquid droplets either directly

from soluble protein or, unexpectedly, through a novel reversal pathway from aggregates.

Phase separation is typically a thermodynamic process that occurs when protein-protein

interactions are more favourable than protein-solution interactions, separating proteins and

solutes into a dense phase [23]. It has been observed that in cells TDP-43-rich droplets often contain

internal vacuoles filled with nucleoplasm materials, and these coexisting yet immiscible

multiphase occurrences correlate with ALS-causative mutations in CTD, indicating higher level

complexity of phase separation exists and is pathologically relevant [24]. Intriguingly, a reversible

double-emulsion structure (droplets-in-droplets) was created in vitro using Poly-rA RNA and PEG

and found to be due to kinetic trapping as appose to thermodynamic equilibrium [25], but multi-

phase droplets have yet to be recreated with TDP-43 or other similar RNA-binding proteins in vitro

in a similarly controlled manner. In this report, we present our system as being able to show multi-

emulsion droplet formation with simple triggers and consistent time course.

The CTD of TDP-43 has been found to form LLDs [26,27]. NMR and in vitro assays identified residue

321–335 of TDP-43 in the CTD region to be part of a helical core that tunes LLPS [14] whereas

proteolytic and cryo-EM studies identified residue 279-360 as the fibrillar core of TDP-43 filaments

[28], encompassing the LLPS core. As for full-length TDP-43, phase separation has been reported

under unique poly(ADP-ribose) (PAR) binding conditions with concentrations of TDP-43 at 10μM

[29], though in vitro LLPS of the full-length protein is still difficult to induce or control even with

favorable conditions such as using crowding agent PEG or aggregation inhibiting molecules

dopamine and polyphenol EGCG [30,31]. Here, we present a novel system of manipulating liquid

phase separation of CTD and the full-length TDP-43, and for comparison, hnRNPH1. The current

paradigm states that TDP-43 LLPS droplets age into hydrogels, inclusions, and amyloid fibrils.

LLPS acts as a scaffold accelerating solid aggregate formation, often leading to direct amyloidosis

[30]. Our hypothesis is that the phasing-out of the soluble form starts with a "seed" area in a protein-

specific manner, which leads to early-stage substructural fibrils, forming solid aggregates or LLDs

depending on the charge of this region and subsequent electrostatic interactions. We further show

the protein-specific seeding results by using switchable combinations of fluorescent labelling

schemes.

Our findings represent an unusual reversal of the conventional uni-direction liquid-to-solid

maturation of protein condensates, showing a more dynamic nature of the 3 macroscopic phases

of LCD-containing RNA-binding proteins, and reveal the likely role of electrostatic charge in

regulating LLPS.

Results and Discussion

Multidirectional phase transitions of TDP-43 are reversible and tunable

Liquid–liquid phase separation of full-length TDP-43 has been viewed as difficult to create in vitro

using recombinant proteins [32]. The few reported cases often relied on an enzymatic cleavage of

a solubility tag to initiate aggregation, which is typically monitored by increased turbidity and a

process difficult to control [7,33-35]. In other systems, phase separation occurs either almost

instantly—within minutes after a solution jump (diluting concentrated protein from storage buffer

into phase separation buffer [29]), or very slowly, over 5 days [28]. Both scenarios make it challenging

to fine-tune the process or consistently capture time points by design for analysis. To better control

the transition process to gain clearer insight into the phase behaviors of these proteins, we sought

to generate recombinant full-length TDP-43 of sufficiently high soluble concentration and stability

without large solubility tag.

The first step was to choose a method to keep TDP-43 soluble through purification. Most previous

attempts to produce full-length TDP-43 have relied on large solubility tags, such as GST [36], MBP

[37], and SUMO [15,28,31], which keep the fusion protein soluble until aggregation is triggered by

enzymatic tag cleavage or solution jump. Alternatively, like all proteins, recombinant TDP-43 can

be readily solubilized using strong denaturants such as 6-8 M urea or guanidine, with or without

a solubilizing tag, and this method has been employed by different investigators [29,36]. However,

as complete removal of these denaturants is often problematic because the protein tends to

precipitate upon denaturant elimination, a residual low concentration (e.g., ~0.6 M urea or

guanidine) is typically retained in storage buffer after purification, which may interfere with subtle

aspects of phase behavior. For our in vitro phase analysis system, we aimed to establish a

baseline using full-length TDP-43 without interference from large solubility tags or residual

denaturants. We chose to produce full-length TDP-43 with only a small His6-tag for purification

and use urea to keep it soluble during production, then refold to urea-free storage buffer. We

solubilized full-length TDP-43 expressed in E. coli using 6M urea that completely denatured its

secondary structures without affecting affinity purification via the His-tag. After washing and

eluting with imidazole from cobalt beads in 6 M urea-containing buffers, urea was gradually

removed by stepwise dialysis against buffer at 100-fold the sample volume. The urea

concentration was reduced by half every 1–2 hours over 5-6 steps, concluding with a final

exchange into urea-free buffer.

As the second step, we formulated the protein storage buffer by first testing whether high or low

salt conditions promote solubility. In the field of membraneless organelles and coacervates,

critical salt concentration is determined by the intrinsic properties such as charge-to-neutral ratio

among monomers of polymeric molecules such as DNA, RNA or protein, and charge distribution

and pattern [22,38]. Reducing the salt concentration below the critical salt concentration leads to

energy-favorable segregation of many types of proteins. This would suggest that keeping salt

concentration high should avoid forming aggregates during purification steps and in storage.

Many previous studies indeed used storage buffers containing high salt, e.g. 0.5 M NaCl or KCl

[28,31,36,37]. However, we found that TDP-43 tends to aggregate more under high-salt conditions

(e.g., 0.5 M NaCl) than under low-salt conditions (Supplementary Fig. 1a). Recent studies have

also reported that high salt promotes phase separation of soluble TDP-43 [29,37].

The fact that high salt destabilizes the soluble state of TDP-43 suggests that charge screening

enhances hydrophobic and other non-ionic interactions, thereby promoting phase separation. We

hypothesized that similar effects could be achieved by adjusting the buffer pH toward the protein's

isoelectric point (pI). To test this, we prepared TDP-43 (5 μM) in a low-capacity pH buffer (20 mM

Tris-HCl, pH 8.0) and low salt (100 mM NaCl) and titrated the pH by adding 1 M Tris-HCl at the

target pH, maintaining 100 mM NaCl. Approximately 10% of the final volume was required to

reach the desired pH. Under these conditions, TDP-43 remained soluble at pH 8.0, but the

solution became turbid with diffuse assemblies at pH 7.0. At pH 6.0—near the pI of full-length

TDP-43—distinct solid aggregates became evident (Supplementary Fig1b). This observation is

consistent with findings from the Chiti group [29], which implied that electrostatic repulsion normally

inhibits phase separation. Based on these results, we set the storage buffer for recombinant TDP-

43 as 20 mM Tris-HCl, pH 8.0, 100 mM NaCl.

By combining urea during purification with a solubility-friendly storage buffer, we obtained working

solutions of TDP-43 suitable for phase transition analysis. A few points are noteworthy: stepwise

removal of urea in our protocol enables the protein to refold through a more controlled process,

rather than by dropwise dilution or leaving residual denaturant [29,36]. Complete denaturation with

urea also eliminates the need for extensive RNA digestion followed by ion-exchange and gel-

filtration chromatography to remove nucleotides, which, if retained, can interfere with phase

separation [35].

To initiate analysis of the solution-to-aggregation transition, we altered salt concentration and pH

by adding 5 M NaCl and 1 M Tris-HCl (pH 6.0) to aliquots of TDP-43 (5 µM) storage solution. Once

the buffer composition changes to high salt (0.5 M NaCl) at pH 6.0, TDP-43 almost immediately

crashed out of solution and forms solid aggregates (Fig 1A). Over several hours, these globules

gradually assembled into larger structures composed of subunits that merged into similarly

disordered arrangements, reminiscent of fractal-like architectures (Fig. 1a). After 3 hours, these

aggregates ranged from clusters of only a few smaller congregates as apparent subunits to

assemblies spanning hundreds of microns. The appearance of these structures closely resembles

those described by Lashuel and colleagues, which were composed of full-length TDP-43

oligomers released from immobilized metal affinity chromatography only in high-imidazole

(500 mM) fractions. Unlike our process, their assemblies required approximately five days to form

[28]. To assess whether a commonly used solubility tag would alter TDP-43 phase behavior, we

tested SUMO, a 101-residue natural fragment with a pI of 5.2. When fused to TDP-43, the

resulting construct has a pI of 5.6, close to untagged TDP-43, leading us to predict that both

versions would exhibit comparable phase properties under our pH- and salt-based phase

transition conditions. We prepared a SUMO–TDP-43 fusion using the same 6 M urea denaturation

and renaturation protocol and observed very similar phase behavior (Supplementary Fig. 2a).

These results suggest that SUMO tagging preserves TDP-43 phase characteristics and may be

suitable for other proteins, although pI matching should be considered.

Our findings that change in TDP-43 net charge can modulate aggregate formation prompted us

to investigate whether alternative strategies for manipulating charge could similarly influence

TDP-43 phase behavior. The strong anionic detergent sodium dodecyl sulfate (SDS) micelles

facilitate denaturation of protein and destabilization of protein complexes. The extent of

destabilization depends on the SDS concentration and the protein−SDS stoichiometry and the

resistance to 0.1-2% SDS has been used as a test of TDP-43 fibrillation strength [31,39]. Because

SDS introduces negative charges along the entire polypeptide, we therefore employed SDS at a

low concentration, 0.03%, as a means of moderating protein surface charge. Upon addition to

TDP-43 aggregates, strikingly, the solid aggregates dispersed in the field of view began to 'melt'

into glassy material, but instead of dissolving and disappearing, progressively transforming in

shape and eventually forming round droplets, in about 6–7 hours (Fig 1b). The droplet formed

were quantified in circularity, roundness and solidity in the graph (Fig 1c). Coating aggregated

TDP-43 with negative charge via SDS did not dissolve the aggregates into a soluble state but

instead transformed them into droplets. We next asked whether introducing net negative charge

to soluble TDP-43 would directly induce LLPS. As shown in Fig. 1d, adding SDS to soluble TDP-

43 indeed triggered droplet formation, although the droplets were smaller and less dense. These

early-phase droplets could be further enlarged and increased in abundance by adding PEG8000

(Supplementary Fig. 3), a crowding agent commonly used to promote LLPS [29,36]. The transitions

from soluble state to solid aggregates induced by pH and salt, and from soluble state or, as a

novel observation, from solid aggregates to liquid-like droplets upon SDS addition are

schematically illustrated in Fig 1e.

The current paradigm for phase separation of LCD-containing RNA-binding proteins describes a

progression from soluble molecules to liquid-like condensates, then to glassy solids, and

ultimately to amyloid fibers [18]. It is interesting to compare the SDS-induced LLDs with those from

adding negative net charge to TDP-43 by other means. For instance, phosphomimetic mutations

reduced TDP-43 aggregates and increased the appearance of larger, more liquid-like droplets [33].

Inside the cell, phosphorylation is expected to have the similar effects and there are many other

factors that can alter the net charge and charge distribution of proteins. McGurk *et al.* reported

that non-covalent binding of TDP-43 to poly(ADP-ribose) (PAR), a negatively charged biopolymer

and cellular regulator of protein localization and liquid demixing, promotes TDP-43 LLPS in vitro

and is essential for its accumulation in stress granules in neurons [15]. Non-covalent binding to PAR

resulted in droplets comparable to those in our system using SDS, likely from similar effects of

the net charge of TDP-43. As a matter of fact, binding to RNA would add net negative charge to

TDP-43 in normal cellular environment, which could enhance LLPS according to our model and

indeed suggested by others [40]. Although SDS has not, to our knowledge, been used as a trigger

to induce LLPS in TDP-43 or other LCD-containing RNA-binding proteins, it has been reported to

promote LLPS of amyloid-β oligomers at supraphysiological concentrations [41], suggesting its

broader potential as a tool for modulating phase behavior across diverse proteins. Demonstrating

reversibility of solid formations with strong anionic modulators could have significant implications

for understanding TDP-43 pathology and developing new therapeutic strategies.

SDS-induced droplets possess typical liquid-like properties

Three lines of evidence indicated that droplets derived from solid aggregates shown above exhibit

the same liquid properties as those formed by LLPS. First, these droplets fuse upon close contact

(Fig. 2a). Second, they dissolve in 1,6-hexanediol, similar to typical LLPS droplets (Fig. 2b).

Recent work has shown that glycine and other amino acids can bind phase-separating proteins

and modulate condensate stability and liquid-like dynamics [42]. As a third test, we added glycine

to the droplets at 50 mM and observed pronounced changes within minutes: dynamic formation

of droplets-in-droplets, subsequent growth, and eventual remerging over time (Fig. 2c). These

dynamic changes were quantified by tracking the number of internal droplets relative to the size

of the encompassing outer droplets (Fig. 2d), as well as the average count over a 12-minute

period (Fig. 2e). Upon glycine addition, there was a rapid increase in internal droplet formation,

coordinated with the growth of the encompassing droplets. This was followed by a consolidation

phase, during which the average number of internal droplets decreased—altogether

demonstrating the dynamic liquid-like behavior of these solid-derived droplets.

When Cy5-labeled mRNA of a fluorescent protein mWasabi as biologically irrelevant mRNA was

allowed to bind TDP-43 prior to phase separation, fluorescence imaging revealed that the mRNA

colocalized with the protein within the dense phase of the multi-emulsion droplets (Supplementary

Fig. 4), consistent with previous findings that full-length TDP-43 oligomers retain RNA-binding

capability [31]. These observations indicate that the contents of these droplets exhibit liquid-like

properties similar to typical LLPS condensates, despite originating from solid assemblies

transformed by forced charge alteration.

Phase transition behavior of TDP-43 is generalizable to other RNA-binding proteins.

To see if any of these phase behaviors are specific only to full-length TDP-43, we wanted to

compare TDP-43 to hnRNPH1, another nuclear RNA-binding protein that regulates alternative

splicing with direct impact on ALS and other diseases [43]. Similar to TDP-43, hnRNPH1 also has

a low complexity domain at the C-terminus of the polypeptide composed of 449 residues, close

to 414 in TDP-43; its pI is the same at pH 6, allowing us to apply the pH and salt conditions to

manipulate the electrostatic and ionic environment for phase transitions established with TDP-43.

The CTD of TDP-43 found in neuronal inclusions is composed of ubiquitinated and

phosphorylated aggregates of truncated TDP-43 C-terminal (TDP-CTD) fragments of variable

sizes between 25 and 35 kDa (e.g., TDP-25 and TDP-35), created by aberrant cleavage events

and contribute to ALS [44,45]. TDP-CTD is defined between amino acid 274-414 by early pioneering

studies [14,26], or similarly 266-414 [46], 267-414 [27], whereas longer CTD 193-414 has also been

studied [47], and all CTD segments have been found to be critical in phase separation as well as

aggregations of TDP-43. The 274-414 fragment CTD has a pI close to pH 10. It is previously

reported to have a different phase separation response to pH gradients from the full-length [29],

likely related to different net charge at different pH compared to the full-length protein. We

therefore opted to clone an intermediate-sized version of TDP-CTD, spanning 208 to 414 amino

acids, which has a pI at pH 6. This allowed us to compare it to the full-length TDP-43 in parallel

and during protein mixing experiments.

As with full-length TDP-43, both TDP-CTD and hnRNPH1 formed solid assemblies when their

solutions were adjusted to pH 6.0 and 0.5 M NaCl. Upon addition of SDS, these assemblies

transitioned into droplets, exhibiting behavior broadly similar to that of full-length TDP-43 (Fig. 3a).

However, the dynamics and morphological details of the resulting aggregates and droplets varied

among the proteins. For example, TDP-CTD consistently formed larger and more compact

aggregates compared to TDP-43 and hnRNPH1. Whilst the primary focus of this report is to

demonstrate macroscale phase transition processes that can be modulated by solution

conditions, further insights could be gained by examining the fine structural differences underlying

the various assembly forms of these proteins. This result nevertheless supports that the pI and

high salt promotion of solid aggregation and their SDS-induced conversion into droplets are not

specific to full-length TDP-43, which is expected according to the notion that a generalizable

mechanism based on electrostatic and hydrophobic interactions could dictate phase behavior.

TDP-CTD droplets and aggregates are known to contain amyloid filaments [27,48,49]. To examine

the amyloid nature of our TDP-43 and TDP-CTD solid aggregates, we stained them with classical

amyloid-binding dyes, including thioflavin-T (ThT) and Congo Red (CR), both of which strongly

fluoresce upon binding to β-sheet-rich amyloid structures. They exhibited clear and nearly uniform

positive staining, suggesting that amyloid structures are present throughout the formations and

likely organized at the substructural level rather than being confined to larger, assembled

structures (Fig 3b). Next, we stained the droplets formed from both TDP-43 and TDP-CTD solid

aggregates with SDS addition and discovered that these droplets too were remarkably ThT and

CR positive (Fig 3c). Extensive studies by many groups on LLPS of TDP-CTD have shown that

amyloid fibrillation can occur independently of LLPS, as observed in our solid aggregates;

whereas ThT-positive amyloid fibrils have also been detected within liquid droplets, consistent

with our findings in solid-derived droplets [27,50]. Future investigations using high-resolution imaging

should reveal how proteins within these enclosures organize into oligomers assembling into

amyloids or amyloid precursors, potentially originating from the helical structures present in both

full-length TDP-43 and its CTD during assembly transitions, giving rise to β-sheet-rich structures

[26,39,46].

The formation of multi-emulsion or mulitphase droplets is a characteristic feature of complex

coacervate (polyelectrolyte material) mixtures, widely viewed as models for studying charge-

mediated LLPS [38]. By patterning charged monomers along a polymer backbone such as

polypeptides, one can precisely adjust local charge organization and the resulting electrostatic

interactions between coacervate-forming chains, creating multi-phase or multi-emulsion droplets

[22]. In TDP-43, charged amino acids are naturally distributed along the polypeptide, with additional

charges that can be introduced in vivo through phosphorylation and other post-translational

modifications, particularly concentrated in the CTD. In our in vitro phase-separation system, a

droplets-in-droplets morphology can be induced simply by adding glycine to SDS-induced

droplets (Fig 2c). As previously reported, glycine interacts weakly with amide groups in the protein

backbone and aromatic side chains, reducing backbone–backbone contacts while enhancing

interactions among aromatic residues [42]. The biological relevance lies in the surprising

observation that free amino acids account for more than 25% of the total volume and 6% of the

total dry mass of a mammalian cell [51], as well as their natural role in stabilizing proteins and

colloidal dispersions [52]. We set out to determine the nature of multi-emulsion droplets formed

following glycine addition to SDS-induced single droplets. To do this, we repeated the experiment

shown in Figure 2c but in the presence of ThT, and used confocal imaging to visualize phase

behavior and amyloid properties. Z-stacks of representative complex droplets revealed alternating

dense (coacervate) and dilute (supernatant) phases within larger droplets (Fig. 3d). The 'bubbles'

were ThT-negative, whereas the coacervates were ThT-positive, confirming the presence of

amyloid substances in protein-rich coacervates at the 3D level. This result further highlights the

liquid-like dynamics of SDS-induced droplets and the secondary phase separation that can be

triggered by electrostatic effectors such as glycine.

Amyloid formation starts upon phase separation

Unlike the CTD of TDP-43, findings on the phase separation behavior of full-length TDP-43 and

the role of amyloid fibrillation are less consistent, partly due to the challenges of producing

recombinant full-length TDP-43 without large solubility tags or denaturing agents such as urea,

even at low concentrations [32]. Among the few studies on full-length TDP-43, some reported

aggregates composed of proteins with disordered secondary structure that failed to bind ThT

[19,53,54]. Other studies observed ThT-positive segregated structures, but the process required

extended time, approximately 10 hours in one case [55] and 9 days with agitation in another [56].

Understanding this time course may provide valuable insights into the fibrillation pathway,

including the involvement of LLPS or solid aggregates, and is essential for clarifying how disease-

associated amyloid fibrils form. Leveraging the controllability of aggregate and droplet formation

using our solubility tag-free recombinant proteins and their strong ThT staining once high order

structures form, we performed fluorescence video recording to capture the dynamic process of

TDP-43 solutions transitioning into droplets with SDS or forming solid aggregates under

conditions of pH near the isoelectric point and high salt. Time-lapse images extracted from videos

recorded at fixed fields of view from two independent repeats show that, upon addition of SDS to

0.03% at time zero, small droplets began to emerge and progressively increased in size, through

joining from soluble proteins or by merging (Fig. 4a). Notably, ThT, present in the protein solution

prior to SDS addition, stained both small and large droplets within the first captured time point.

While fluorescence intensity increased over time, the rate of increase appeared generally in line

with the growth in droplet size, with a slight delay that could reflect amyloid fibrillation progressed

in addition to droplet growth; the total droplet counts increased during the first 4 hours before

decreasing through merging (Fig. 4b, Supplementary Videos). A low concentration of glycine at

5mM, 10% of what was used in Fig 2c, was also included, and by hour 7, double-emulsion droplets

shown as dark circles began to appear, consistent with the results shown in Fig. 2c but at a slower

pace. We then applied the same video recording approach to monitor solid aggregate formation

from soluble solutions. Similar to SDS-induced droplet formation, aggregates triggered by pH near

the isoelectric point and high salt were stained by ThT shortly after induction. These amorphous,

fractal-like solids continued to grow, originating entirely from recruiting soluble protein, as no

merging events were observed (Fig 4c). Analysis of the area and intensity of the solid formations

supports our interpretation that aggregates rapidly grew from unstained protein molecules and

began to plateau at around 3 hours (Fig. 4d). These observations were consistent across multiple

trials and variations using different imaging systems, all showing a smooth transition from

unstained solution to clear and immediate amyloid-positive staining. This behavior contrasts with

some of the previous reports on full-length TDP-43, as discussed above. The discrepancy may

stem from our approach: the protein was fully denatured and then slowly renatured, likely

maintaining a more native-like conformation. Additionally, induction was carried out by adding the

triggering solution at less than 10% of the final volume, creating lower perturbation or stress to

the system than other protocols, perhaps better reflecting biological events in vivo.

Switchable fluorescent protein tags are a valuable tool for studying protein phase behavior

We were also interested in determining whether different proteins, sharing the same or similar but distinct LCDs, would co-aggregate or remain segregated upon triggering phase separation. To address this, we designed a system to track multiple proteins using distinguishable fluorescent labels. Because phase separation in our system depends on charges that influence electrostatic and hydrophobic interactions, we avoided commonly used dyes that bind to amino acids and may alter charge. Structural dyes such as ThT and CR are unsuitable for aggregate combination studies because they lack protein-specific tracking capability. Instead, we adapted a switchable tagging system to label TDP-43, TDP-CTD, and hnRNPH1 with spectrally distinct fluorescent proteins. A 13-amino-acid SpyTag was added to the C-terminus of each protein via a 7-amino-acid linker, and the 116-amino-acid SpyCatcher was fused to the N-terminus of mNeonGreen [57], mScarlet3 [58], and mTurquoise2 [59], fluorescent proteins (FP) with optimal brightness, physical and photo stability, and more stringent monomeric properties within their respective spectrum to maximize fluorescence signal while minimizing aggregation artifacts (Fig. 5a). By briefly mixing a pair of SpyTag- and SpyCatcher-fused proteins, a fluorescent label is covalently attached to the target protein via SpyTag–SpyCatcher bonding. The protein ratios within each pair were optimized, with a slight excess of SpyCatcher-FP to ensure that all SpyTags on target proteins were occupied (SFig 5).

The pI of all three SpyCatcher-FPs ranges between 5.0 and 5.5. When fused with TDP-43, TDP-CTD, or hnRNPH1, the resulting fusion proteins have a pI between 5.5 and 6.0, predicting low net charge like the untagged proteins under our aggregation induction conditions. As expected, when the buffer was adjusted to pH 6.0 with 0.5M NaCl, the fused proteins formed solid aggregates, exhibiting strong and uniform fluorescence (Fig. 5b). Each protein can be fused to any FP without apparent differences in behavior when the FP was switched among the three

monomeric variants (Supplementary Fig 6). We concluded that adding an FP to the C-terminus

of these proteins does not significantly alter their phase behavior; rather, it affords a convenient

and switchable end labeling system for studying these proteins that may benefit the field. Older

versions of green and red FPs have been used in fusions to study TDP-43 both in vivo and in

vitro [37,53,60]. Our data align with these findings, indicating that FP tags offer reliable information

about native proteins. Most commonly used FPs have a slightly acidic pI, making them unlikely to

interfere with pH-dependent effects on net charge or electrostatic interactions of proteins with

similar pI like TDP-43. However, caution may be warranted about the tendency of conventional

avGFP-derived GFP and YFP and their variations to form weak dimers [61] in studies of

oligomerization and seeding for aggregation.

With fluorescence signals appended to each protein, we performed time-lapse imaging to track

the transition of individual aggregates of TDP-43 and TDP-CTD fused to mScarlet3 and

mNeonGreen, respectively. Spread-out aggregates of either protein began condensing within 10

minutes of SDS addition and self-merged into spheroid structures within 1 hour (Fig. 5C), in

agreement with results shown using non-fusion TDP-43 (Fig 1b).

Electrostatic-driven phase separation is differential to aggregation seeding

Having observed that TDP-43, its CTD, and hnRNPH1, a distinct protein with comparable features

to TDP-43—all exhibited parallel behaviors, and equipped with FP tagging to spectrally tracking

them through phase transition processes, we explored whether phase separation is directed by

protein-specific features, or if it is a more generic physical property-driven process such as

hydrophobic inclusion. We pairwise-mixed all three proteins, each tagged with a different FP, and

examined aggregates for the presence of two different proteins. Interestingly, coaggregates were

readily observed between full-length TDP-43 and TDP-CTD (Fig. 6). However, in all view areas

obtained from repeated attempts, no coaggregates were detected between hnRNPH1 and either

TDP-43 or TDP-CTD. Because TDP-CTD is a segment of TDP-43 and known to be required for

phase separation [24,26], we hypothesized that the cocomplex between TDP-43 and TDP-CTD

forms through the shared helical seed within the LLPS core previously identified by biochemical

and structural studies [14,28]. On the other hand, although hnRNPH1 contains its own LCD at the

C-terminus, also involved in phase separation [43], its core sequence differs from that of TDP-43.

These results suggest that protein assembly is not driven solely by hydrophobic or other

nonspecific physical forces, as the process is not protein-agnostic. Instead, it is plausible that

under conditions controlling electrostatic interactions combined with hydrophobic segregation

from the aqueous phase, proteins initiate phase separation at their LCD cores. These regions,

with accessibility and flexibility, may allow transient 'kiss-and-run' interactions when no matching

partner is found, or bundle to form fibrils and develop amyloids when matching occurs. Recent

efforts started to illustrate noncanonical mechanism of protein recognition wherein transient

interactions surrounding the TDP-43 conserved helical region drive the phase separation of CTD

through direct enhancement of site-specific, helix-mediated interactions, providing an example of

how sequence can be used as a code for segregation [62]. It was previously reported that the

mutations within the core of 279-360 (as defined by Kumar *et al.* [28]) rendered TDP-43 less liquid-

like [24], and led to defect in stress granule formation [63]. The sequence specificity in multiple protein

assembly formation revealed by our results could have implications in understanding the effects

of these mutations.

Towards modulation of phase transition

Based on the experimental data presented in this study, we propose a unifying perspective about

phase behavior of proteins such as TDP-43: electrostatics related to charge, whether global or

localized, arising from natural amino acid composition and post-translational modifications, or, in

vitro, attunement to pH, salt screen, zwitterionic glycine (and other amino acids) or charge

decoration by ionic detergent SDS, can dictate how proteins like TDP-43 transition among various

macroscopic phases while possibly maintaining some microscopic substructures while shifting

others (e.g. dimers, oligomers, nonamyloid fibrils and amyloids) to reach the lowest-energy steady

state. These states all retain a degree of fluidity and reversibility, allowing the system to respond

dynamically to environmental changes.

Protein assemblies can be visualized at the micron scale using optical microscopy, as shown in

this study, or at the nanometer scale with electron microscopy and other high-resolution

techniques, revealing details such as filaments containing a β-sheet-rich helical amyloid core [28].

Large assemblies likely originate from smaller subunits that act as building blocks, beginning as

oligomers and progressing through stepwise assembly, a process typically slow, occurring over

hours or days [31], though notably faster in our system. These substructures may share physical

and chemical characteristics with the larger assemblies they form, either through fractal growth

into amorphous solids or by coexisting in a milieu that phase-separates into liquid-like droplets.

In our system, strong ThT and CR staining were observed in both solids and droplets, during or

after solid-to-droplet transitions with no transition delays, suggesting different formations might

share related substructures. They may originate from a seed region containing an amphipathic

helix shared among aggregating molecules [29], undergoing conformational transitions toward

increased β-sheet stacking during maturation, under stress, or with mutations, as previously

proposed [30,49,64]. Such seeding could allow the initial helical core and adjacent sequences to act

as a sorting mechanism, determining interaction partners and conditions. It is important to note

that RNA-binding proteins can also interact one-to-one as soluble molecules via LCDs, such as

glycine-rich regions, to perform biological functions like alternative splicing without undergoing

phase transitions, as shown in our earlier in vitro protein-protein interaction studies [65,66].

TDP-43 is known to co-segregate under physiological conditions with numerous other proteins,

including hnRNPA1, hnRNPA2, and FUS [3,67,68], through domain-specific physical contact, via

RNA binding, or perhaps also coaggregation based on matching helix or β-sheet stacking at seed

region, which will be interesting to test. The phase transitions observed here with TDP-43 and

hnRNPH1 may extend beyond RNA-binding proteins involved in splicing regulation. A notable

early example is Sear's 2007 prediction that the Dvl protein would undergo LLPS [69], an all-or-

none switch that has since been shown to play a critical role in the Wnt signaling pathway [70].

The discovery that solid aggregates can be driven into a more liquid-like state may open new

avenues for identifying therapeutic intervention points by preserving normal, reversible LLPS that

does not progress to irreversible fibril amyloid formation [71]. Potential strategies include using short

RNAs to provide specificity by targeting RNA-binding proteins, and amino acids or oligopeptides

to achieve charge-modifying effects.

Materials and Methods

Protein production

Plasmids encoding TDP-43, TDP-CTD, hnRNPH1, and SUMO–TDP-43 were cloned into the

pNCS vector [57] and transformed into NEB SHuffle E. coli competent cells. Selected colonies were

inoculated into culture tubes containing 5mL 0.1 mg/mL carbenicillin 2xYT broth and incubated at

30°C overnight while shaking, the next day transferred to 500mL 2xYT broth and again incubated

overnight while shaking. For expression, small culture transformed bacteria were cultured in 500

mL 2×YT broth supplemented with 0.1 mg/mL carbenicillin at 30°C while shaking overnight. Cells

were harvested by centrifugation at 8,000 × g, and the pellets were resuspended in lysis buffer

containing 20 mM Tris-HCl (pH 8.0), 6 M urea, 500 mM NaCl, and 10 mM imidazole.

Cells were lysed by sonication on ice (30% amplitude, 5 min total, 10 s on/10 s off) and centrifuged

at 8,000 × g to remove debris. The supernatant was incubated at 4 °C for 1 h to overnight with

nickel beads to capture His-tagged proteins. Bead–protein complexes were transferred to

purification columns and washed 3–4 times with wash buffer (20 mM Tris-HCl, pH 8.0; 500 mM

NaCl; 10 mM imidazole; 6 M urea). Proteins were eluted in a single step using elution buffer (20

mM Tris-HCl, pH 8.0; 500 mM NaCl; 200 mM imidazole; 4.5 M urea) and filtered through 0.22 μm

PES syringe filters.

Protein purity was assessed by SDS-PAGE, and concentrations were measured using NanoDrop.

Eluted proteins were standardized to 5 μM, or about 0.2mg/ml, after removal of urea in gradual

5-6 step dialysis using Spectra/Por dialysis tubing (MW cutoff 7,000) against storage buffer of 20

mM Tris-HCl, pH 8.0 100 mM NaCl with urea concentration decreasing ~50% per step until all

urea was removed. Soluble protein was collected and stored at −20 °C.

Formation of solid aggregates

Phase separation reactions for TDP-43, TDP-CTD, and hnRNPH1 were initiated from soluble

protein fractions by adjusting the storage buffer from pH 8 to pH 6 using small-volume additions

of 1 M pH buffer. Additional modifications, such as changes in salt concentration, were made by

adding small volumes of high-molarity salt solutions. The total reaction volume was approximately

40 μL. All added reagents to modify experimental conditions resulted <10% increase to the total

reaction volume. Aggregates from all proteins were monitored at designated time points, with

complete formation typically occurring within 5 hours.

Formation of liquid-like condensates

Liquid-like condensates were generated from either soluble proteins or pre-formed solid

aggregates by adding SDS directly to the reaction mixture. The transition typically completed

within 8 hours. The final SDS concentration was 0.03%, consistent across all stated methods.

In experiments where glycine was added to probe the effects of addition, the final concentration

of glycine was 50 mM for experiments shown in Fig 2c, and 5mM in Fig 4a. Concentrated glycine

was diluted directly to the experimental conditions.

To quantify droplet shape characteristics, three geometric descriptors were calculated from binary

images: circularity, roundness, and solidity.

Circularity was calculated using the formula:

Circularity = (4 × π × Area) / (Perimeter²)

This metric ranges from 0 to 1, where a value of 1 indicates a perfect circle. Lower values suggest

more elongated or irregular shapes.

Roundness was defined as:

Roundness = (4 × Area) / (π × (Major Axis Length)²)

Roundness also ranges from 0 to 1, with higher values indicating shapes closer to a perfect circle,

but it is more sensitive to elongation than circularity.

Solidity was computed as:

Solidity = Area / Convex Hull Area

Solidity measures the extent to which a shape is convex. A value of 1 indicates a completely

convex shape, while lower values suggest the presence of concavities or irregular boundaries.

All measurements were performed using image analysis software capable of extracting shape

descriptors from segmented droplet images.

Imaging

Microscopy imaging included bright-field, phase contrast, widefield fluorescence, and confocal

fluorescence modalities. The primary instrument was the Keyence BZ-X800 fluorescence

microscope for both light and fluorescence imaging. Additional bright-field and widefield

fluorescence images were captured using the EVOS FL Fluorescence Digital Microscope, while

confocal fluorescence imaging was performed with the BioTek Cytation C10 Confocal Imaging

Reader. Images taken by Cytation C10 were at 40x magnification. All other images were taken at

20x magnification.

Image analysis and quantifications

Image contrast and brightness were adjusted uniformly for clarity using ImageJ. Quantitative

measurements were also performed using ImageJ's built-in analysis functions.

For quantifications of fluorescence images, ImageJ's color threshold function was used to

delineate positive signals from background signal. The analysis function provided a count of

detected structure, the area covered by structures of the total visible area Area%, as well as

fluorescence intensity IntDen.

IntDen or Integrated Density is the product of mean gray value (a stand-in for intensity) and area,

representing the amount of dye bound and fluorescing. The units are (relative fluorescence units)

* (μm^2). Corrected Total View Fluorescence is used to represent the intensity of fluorescence in

our measurements, which takes the IntDen value from each measured object and corrects for

background fluorescence. The equation is as follows:

IntDen – (Area of Droplet * Mean fluorescence of background)

The mean fluorescence of background was measured by averaging 3 separate readings of the

background for each time point and view of the well.

Dye staining

Protein assemblies were stained by incubating at room temperature for 2–3 hours with Thioflavin

T (ThT) or Congo Red (CR) from Sigma. Final concentrations in wells were 40 µM ThT or 0.5%

CR. For time course experiments shown in Fig 4, ThT was added to the solution before the phase

separation was triggered.

SpyTag/SpyCatcher Conjugation

Protein constructs were conjugated by incubating together at room temperature for 1 hour. FP–

SpyCatcher was added in slight excess (10%) over IDP–SpyTag to achieve a 1.1:1 molar ratio.

For quenching, excess SpyTag-tagged nanobodies (at least 4× the molarity of SpyCatcher–FP)

were added to bind any remaining free SpyCatcher–FP, followed by an additional 1-hour

incubation at room temperature.

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Author Contributions

JW conceptually initiated the project; TRW designed and carried out the experiments; TRW and

JW interpreted data and drafted the manuscript.

Competing Interest

JW is a current employee of Allele Biotech, a biotech company in the US.

Data Availability

Additional, related data of the present report is available from the corresponding author upon

reasonable request.

Supplementary Material

Supplementary material.doc: Supplementary figures, materials and methods

Movie S1: Continued droplet development example 2

Movie S2: Continued droplet development example 2

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Figure 1. Three-phase transition of recombinant full-length TDP-43 induced by charge

modulation

a Gradual formation of solid aggregates from soluble TDP-43 at pH 6 and 0.5 M NaCl. Scale bar

is 40μm. **b** Solid aggregates converted into a hydrogel upon addition of SDS (final concentration

0.03%), then progressively transformed into spherical droplets over 7 hours. Time notations begin

after addition of SDS. Scale bar is 40μm. **c** The diagram on the right illustrates the time-dependent

morphological changes measured by circularity, roundness, and solidity (see Materials and

Methods). Error bar is Standard Error of the Mean. **d** Droplets formed directly from solution

following SDS addition, with the most pronounced transition occurring between the 6th and 8th

hour. Scale bar is 20µm. **e** Schematic representation showing how TDP-43 can transition among

all three phases through controlled induction.

894 **Figure 2. Droplets induced from solid aggregates exhibit liquid-like properties**

895 **a** Time-lapse images showing a small droplet (arrow) gradually merging with a larger droplet.

896 Scale bar is 10µm. **b** Droplets derived from aggregates dissolve upon treatment with 1,6-

897 hexanediol, consistent with typical LLPS behavior. Scale bar is 40µm. **c** Formation of multi-

898 emulsion droplets upon addition of glycine (50 mM) to initial aggregate-derived droplets. Time

899 indications begin after addition of glycine. Scale bar is 20µm. The transition occurs over on the

900 scale of minutes, progressing from small droplets (top left) to multiple inner droplets encapsulated

901 within larger outer droplets (top middle), and finally to fused, larger droplets (top right). Bottom

902 left: **d** Graph showing the number of internal droplets (left Y-axis) versus the size of the

903 encompassing droplet (X-axis) and time in seconds (right Y-axis). **e** Bottom right: Graph

904   displaying changes in average number of internal droplets per encompassing droplet over time.

905   Error bars are Standard Error of the Mean.

Figure 3. TDP-43, TDP-CTD, and hnRNPH1 form amyloid-positive aggregates and droplets

a Side-by-side comparison of solid aggregates formed by inducing soluble TDP-43, TDP-CTD,

and hnRNPH1 at pH 6.0 and 0.5 M NaCl (top), and droplets formed after further addition of SDS

(final concentration 0.03%) (bottom). Scale bar is 20µm. **b-d** Aggregates formed by TDP-43 (**b**)

and TDP-CTD (**c**) stain positive with ThT and Congo Red (top: bright field; bottom: fluorescence

images). **d** hnRNPH1 also stains positive for ThT. Scale bar is 40µm. **e** Representative data

showing droplets formed by TDP-43 and TDP-CTD exhibiting ThT staining. Scale bar is 40µm. **f**

Multi-emulsion droplet formed upon addition of glycine (50 mM) with ThT included; shown are

fluorescence images from a representative Z-stack acquired using Cytation10 (40×). The z-

distance between the two slices is 20µm. Scale bar is 100µm.

Figure 4. Time course of amyloid-containing droplet and solid aggregate formation

a Still photos taken at indicated time points from a time-lapse series of fluorescence image capturing of droplets formation from soluble solution of TDP-43. ThT was added to protein solution before addition of SDS (0.03% final concentration) at time 0. Arrows point to example droplets in merging process. Scale bar is 100µm. **b** Quantitative analysis of count, percentage of view covered, and Corrected Total View Fluorescence (CTVF) of the droplets formed from 3 separate, non-overlapping views of the same time lapse course. Droplet count and area covered are

averaged from the 3 views while CTVF is presented from each time point and view. **c** Still photos

taken at indicated time points from a time-lapse series of fluorescence image capturing solid

aggregates from soluble solution of TDP-43. ThT was added to protein solution before addition of

1M Tris-HCl pH6 and 5M NaCl at 10% final volume at time 0. Scale bars are 50μm. All reactions

were carried out at room temperature, ~25°C. **d** Quantitative analysis of view covered and

fluorescence intensity of the solid aggregates formed. Data came from 1 representative view of

the time lapse.

Figure 5. Labeling phase-transition proteins with switchable fluorescent tags

a Schematic representation of protein domains fused with SpyTag/SpyCatcher modules. **b** Solid aggregates formed by TDP-43–mNeonGreen (left), TDP-CTD–mScarlet3 (middle), and hnRNPH1–mTurquoise2 (right) under induction conditions. Scale bar is 40μm. **c** Time-lapse images showing TDP-43–mNeonGreen and (**d**) TDP-CTD–mScarlet3 transitioning from solid aggregates into droplets; the corresponding bright-field image for the final fluorescence frame is shown on the right. Time notations begin after addition of SDS. Scale bars are 10μm.

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1001   **Figure 6. Seeding of phase transition depends on protein compatibility**

1002   Pairwise mixing of TDP-CTD–mNeonGreen (mNG), TDP-43–mScarlet3 (mSCl3), and

1003   hnRNPH1–mTurquoise2 (mTq2) in solution prior to induction to form aggregates. Coaggregates

1004   between TDP-CTD–mNeonGreen and TDP-43–mScarlet3 appear as yellow-orange due to

1005   fluorescence overlap. Scale bar is 20µm.

1006