Cytoplasmic redox imbalance in the thioredoxin system activates Hsf1 and results in hyperaccumulation of the sequestrase Hsp42 with misfolded proteins

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ABSTRACT Cells employ multiple systems to maintain homeostasis when experiencing environmental stress. For example, the folding of nascent polypeptides is exquisitely sensitive to proteotoxic stressors including heat, pH, and oxidative stress, and is safeguarded by a network of protein chaperones that concentrate potentially toxic misfolded proteins into transient assemblies to promote folding or degradation. The redox environment itself is buffered by both cytosolic and organellar thioredoxin and glutathione pathways. How these systems are linked is poorly understood. Here, we determine that specific disruption of the cytosolic thioredoxin system resulted in constitutive activation of the heat shock response in *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* and accumulation of the sequestrase Hsp42 into an exaggerated and persistent juxtanuclear quality control (JUNQ) compartment. Terminally misfolded proteins also accumulated in this compartment in thioredoxin reductase (*TRR1*)-deficient cells, despite apparently normal formation and dissolution of transient cytoplasmic quality control (CytoQ) bodies during heat shock. Notably, cells lacking *TRR1* and *HSP42* exhibited severe synthetic slow growth exacerbated by oxidative stress, signifying a critical role for Hsp42 under redoxchallenged conditions. Finally, we demonstrated that Hsp42 localization patterns in *trr1***∆** cells mimic those observed in chronically aging and glucose-starved cells, linking nutrient depletion and redox imbalance with management of misfolded proteins via a process of longterm sequestration.

SIGNIFICANCE STATEMENT

- Cells employ multiple systems to ensure homeostasis during environmental stress, but how the redox environment is coordinated with protein quality control is poorly understood.
- Disruption of the cytosolic thioredoxin pathway in Saccharomyces cerevisiae results in chronic activation of the heat shock response and hyperaccumulation of the protein sequestrase Hsp42 with misfolded proteins, similar to that observed in glucose-starved and quiescent cells.
- Hsp42 is shown to be required for optimal growth during redox stress, underscoring a critical role for spatial quality control during environmental and nutritional challenge.

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*Address correspondence to: Kevin A. Morano (kevin.a.morano@uth.tmc.edu). Abbreviations used: HSR, heat shock response; INQ, internuclear quality control compartment; IPOD, insoluble protein deposit; JUNQ, juxtanuclear quality

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control compartment; sHSP, small heat shock protein; UPR, unfolded protein response; UPS, ubiquitin-proteasome system.

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INTRODUCTION

Cells respond to fluctuating external and internal environmental changes through physiological adaptation driven in part by transcriptional changes in gene expression. When the stressors are proteotoxic and impact the folding, maturation, or function of the proteome, an array of cytoprotective genes that includes protein molecular chaperones, components of the ubiquitin-proteasome system (UPS) and detoxification enzymes are produced in part through the action of the heat shock transcription factor, Hsf1 (Åkerfelt et al., 2010). In the yeast Saccharomyces cerevisiae, such stressors include heat shock, amino acid analogues, glucose starvation, and oxidative stress (Trotter et al., 2002; Verghese et al., 2012; Tye and Churchman, 2021). In addition to oxidizing agents like hydrogen peroxide and superoxide anions that damage proteins, a range of thiol-reactive compounds are potent inducers of Hsf1 and the resultant heat shock response (HSR; West et al., 2012). Multiple chemical mechanisms of thiol-reactive proteotoxic stress have been documented, including inappropriate disulfide bond formation, irreversible oxidation, and adduct formation on sulfur atoms within the amino acids methionine and cysteine (Dahl et al., 2015; Fra et al., 2017; Lévy et al., 2019). The relative pKa of the cysteine thiolate anion is determined by the local microenvironment and defines the reactivity of the side chain to thiol-reactive stressors; most cysteines are nonreactive while some protein cysteines are hypersensitive to insult (Winterbourn and Hampton, 2008). For example, the heat shock protein (Hsp) 70 family of chaperones possesses multiple highly reactive cysteines whose modification inhibits chaperone function (Miyata et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2012; Wang and Sevier, 2016). Moreover, in yeast, the Hsp70 Ssa1 governs the response of Hsf1 to thiol-reactive stress via two cysteine triggers (C264 and C303) in the ATPase domain that result in release of the chaperone from Hsf1 intrinsically disordered domains required for three-dimensional chromatin organization and transcriptional activation (Wang et al., 2012; Santiago and Morano, 2022).

The linked but independent thioredoxin and glutathione systems control the redox state of the yeast cytoplasm. Electrons produced from catabolic oxidation (i.e., glycolysis, the tricarboxylic acid cycle and the pentose phosphate pathway) are shuttled through thioredoxin (Trr1) or glutathione (Glr1) reductases to thioredoxin (Trx1/2) or glutathione (GSH), respectively, that partner with peroxiredoxins to collaboratively maintain the cytoplasm in a reduced state distinct from the oxidizing environment of the endomembrane system (endoplasmic reticulum, Golgi, and lysosome/vacuole) and the extracellular space (Le Moan et al., 2006; López-Mirabal and Winther, 2008; Ayer et al., 2014). The glutathione system has been defined as the first line of antioxidant defense in budding yeast, which maintain high concentrations of this small molecule to detoxify thiol-reactive agents (Spector et al., 2001; Le Moan et al., 2006). In contrast, the thioredoxin system plays the dominant role in maintaining cellular redox homeostasis (Trotter and Grant, 2003).

The proteome is surveilled in real time via the action of the protein quality control network, comprised primarily by chaperones that recognize inappropriately exposed hydrophobic surfaces of unassembled complex subunits or regions of misfolded proteins. Once identified, these substrates are collected into transient assemblies known as Q-, or cytoplasmic quality control (CytoQ)-bodies, which include Hsp70 chaperones (Ssa1/2/3/4) as well as Hsp40 (Sis1, Ydj1) and Hsp110 (Sse1/2) cochaperones, the disaggregase Hsp104, and other components including small heat shock proteins (sHSP; Kaganovich et al., 2008; Malinovska et al., 2012; Miller et al., 2015b; Sathyanarayanan et al., 2020). It has been recently established that at least two chaperones, Btn2 and Hsp42, function as "sequestrases" that intercalate between misfolded chaperone cargo to generate the CytoQ assemblies by virtue of intrinsically disordered/ prion-like domains (Malinovska et al., 2012; Miller et al., 2015a; Grousl et al., 2018; Shrivastava et al., 2022). CytoQ assemblies fail to form in cells lacking Hsp42, underscoring the important role the sequestrase plays in shepherding misfolded proteins (Specht et al., 2011; Saarikangas and Barral, 2015). Multiple CytoQ bodies typically form upon proteotoxic stress, which then resolve into one or more possible depots: the internuclear quality control compartment (INQ), the cytoplasmic, juxtanuclear quality control compartment (JUNQ), or in the case of amyloid deposits and prion-like proteins, the insoluble protein deposit (IPOD; Kaganovich et al., 2008; Miller et al., 2015b; Hill et al., 2017; Rothe et al., 2018). INQ/JUNQ are marked by substrates that are subsequently extracted by Hsp104 and either refolded or ubiquitinated as a prelude to degradation (Specht et al., 2011; Mathew et al., 2017). The Btn2 sequestrase contains an alpha-crystallin-like domain, localizes to the nucleoplasm and is required for INQ formation, while the classic small HSP Hsp42 appears to be restricted to the cytoplasm and promotes formation of JUNQ and IPOD (Malinovska et al., 2012; Miller et al., 2015, a and b). INQ and JUNQ only accumulate when protein degradation is blocked and do so as one or two large static foci in cells where model misfolded proteins fused to GFP are tracked via fluorescence microscopy (Kaganovich et al., 2008; Kumar et al., 2022).

In this report, we use a genetic approach to generate redox stress in yeast cells via targeted deletion of major gene products comprising the thioredoxin and glutathione pathways. Strikingly, we discovered that proteotoxic stress as reported by Hsf1 activation is only experienced by cells with a disrupted cytosolic, but not mitochondrial, thioredoxin system, with no apparent role for the glutathione pathway. We found that the sequestrase Hsp42, but not Btn2 or the other yeast sHSP Hsp26, hyperaccumulated in one to two large foci in trr1∆ cells in a structure colocalizing with the nuclear membrane, consistent with JUNQ compartments. The foci formed in trr1∆ cells were independent of heat shock-induced transient CytoQ bodies and did not include the Hsp104 or Ssa/Ssb Hsp70 chaperones. While protein folding and degradation were not impaired in trr1∆ cells as reported using model substrates, permanently misfolded proteins colocalized with Hsp42, further evidence of aberrant quality control in cells lacking thioredoxin reductase function. Importantly, Hsp42 sequestration was shown to be important for optimal growth and survival in unstressed or oxidant-challenged trr1∆ cells. Finally, Hsp42 dynamics in trr1∆ cells were found to closely mirror localization patterns in glucose-starved and aging cells, suggesting a common underlying mechanism that connects redox balance, abundance of reducing equivalents, and spatial quality control.

RESULTS

Cells deficient in the thioredoxin system exhibit constitutive activation of the HSR

Based on previous work demonstrating that thiol-reactive compounds are potent activators of the HSR, we sought a genetic approach to alter redox balance in the absence of exogenous insults (Trott et al., 2008; Wang et al., 2012). To accomplish this, cells lacking the TRR1 and/or redundant TRX1 and TRX2 genes were transformed with a β-galactosidase transcriptional reporter plasmid driven by a typical heat shock element-containing minimal promoter (HSE-lacZ). This reporter specifically monitors Hsf1 transcriptional activity and has been successfully used as a sensitive indicator of HSR status (Bonner et al., 1994; Morano et al., 1999). Reporter

FIGURE 1: Cells deficient in the thioredoxin system exhibit constitutive activation of the HSR. (A) The indicated strains bearing the pSSA3HSE-lacZ reporter plasmid were grown to mid-logarithmic phase and β-galactosidase activity measured as described in the Materials and Methods. (B) The indicated strains were grown to midlogue phase, RNA extracted and levels of the SSA3 and SSA4 transcripts determined by qRT-PCR using the TAF10 gene as a normalization control. Statistical significance between the indicated strains was determined using Welch's unpaired t test ($p = 0.05$, *; $p = 0.005$, **; $p = 0.0005$, ***; $p = 0.00005$, ****). Values shown are the mean with SD and represent three (A) or two (B) biological replicates.

activity was strikingly elevated in trr1∆, trx1∆ trx2∆, and trr1∆ trx1∆ trx2∆ cells as compared with wild type cells under nonstress conditions (Figure 1A). While the trr1∆ and trx1∆ trx2∆ strains exhibited nearly identical elevated levels of constitutive HSE-lacZ activity, the triple mutant displayed a lower, but still heightened, level of activation. To further explore the connections between cellular redox buffering systems and HSR regulation, we assessed HSE-lacZ in additional genetic backgrounds. Consistent with their redundant nature, cells lacking either the thioredoxin genes TRX1 or TRX2 exhibited no change in the HSR (Supplemental Figure S1). A similar outcome was observed in cells deficient in the mitochondrial thioredoxin reductase system (trr2∆ and trx3∆; Trotter and Grant, 2005). The methionine sulfoxide reductase Mxr1 is required to reduce oxidized methionine residues (Kaya et al., 2010). Deletion of MXR1 likewise did not affect HSE-lacZ activity. We additionally tested the role of the glutathione system in HSR regulation. Loss of the glutathione reductase GLR1 did not activate the HSR. Synthesis of glutathione requires the gene GSH1, encoding gamma glutamylcysteine synthetase, and gsh1∆ mutants are inviable in the absence of exogenous reduced glutathione (Spector et al., 2001). We, therefore, cultured gsh1∆ cells in the presence of 1 mM glutathione, followed

by washout and growth for an additional 6 h in the presence or absence of glutathione and observed no change in HSE-lacZ activity. We confirmed the reporter assay results by measuring endogenous transcript levels of the SSA3 and SSA4 Hsp70 genes via qRT-PCR (Figure 1B). Together, these data demonstrate that the cytoplasmic thioredoxin system is uniquely linked to Hsf1 transcriptional activation in S. cerevisiae cells grown under optimal, normoxic conditions.

Thioredoxin system mutants hyperaccumulate the sequestrase Hsp42

The observed chronic HSR activation in thioredoxin-mutant cells suggested that one or more aspects of general cellular proteostasis is negatively impacted in the absence of the thioredoxin system. Previous work has established that misfolded proteins are collected into transient deposition sites for storage and/or processing, which may include ubiquitination and eventual degradation by the proteasome (Miller et al., 2015b). One of the first steps in this process for cytoplasmic proteins is the formation of Q-bodies (also called CytoQ) that typically include the sequestrase Hsp42, one or more Hsp70 proteins (Ssa1, Ssa2, Ssa3, and Ssa4) and their cofactors (Sse1/2, Ydj1, and Sis1), and the disaggregase Hsp104. Q-bodies containing misfolded proteins either resolve via refolding catalyzed by the abovementioned chaperones or coalesce into larger depots termed juxtanuclear (JUNQ) or intranuclear (INQ) quality control compartments (Kaganovich et al., 2008; Miller et al., 2015b; Hill et al., 2017). We employed fluorescence microscopy to assess the status of multiple chaperone proteins using chromosomally encoded green fluorescent protein (GFP) fusions. Strikingly, while diffuse in wild type cells, Hsp42-GFP accumulated at a high frequency (40–60% of cells) in large, generally single foci in cells lacking cytoplasmic thioredoxin reductase, both cytoplasmic thioredoxins, or all three proteins (Figure 2A). Cells expressing GFP alone did not exhibit concentration of fluorescence signal. Because we observed no significant differences between the trr1∆ and trx1∆ trx2∆ strain backgrounds in our studies, all further experiments were carried out using the former deletion strain to inactivate the thioredoxin system. GFP fusions to the Hsp70s Ssa1, Ssa4, Ssb1, and the Hsp40 chaperone Ydj1 also remained diffuse in trr1∆ cells (Figure 2B). The chaperones Btn2 and Hsp26, as divergent members of the sHSP family, contain loosely conserved α-crystallin chaperone domains as well as divergent amino- and carboxyl-terminal regions that dictate differential behavior with respect to substrate recruitment (Supplemental Figure S2A; Mogk et al., 2019). Additionally, Btn2 possesses protein sequestrase activity similar to Hsp42 (Malinovska et al., 2012; Miller et al., 2015a). However, GFP fusions to both proteins remained diffusely localized in trr1∆ cells, with low signal intensity in our experiments (Figure 2B). The cellular levels of Btn2 and Hsp26 are quite low in unstressed wild type cells, but increased in trr1∆ cells, as are levels of Hsp42 as assessed by immunoblot (Supplemental Figure S2B). These results are consistent with all three being under the transcriptional control of Hsf1 and suggest that the presence of the large Hsp42 foci is not due to overexpression of the chaperone (Solís et al., 2016). To confirm that the altered localization pattern of Hsp42 was due to the enzymatic activity of Trr1 and its role in maintaining proper redox balance in the cytoplasm, we generated an Hsp42-GFP strain wherein the catalytic and resolving cysteine residues of Trr1 required for the disulfide exchange reaction were substituted with serines (Chae et al., 1994). Cells expressing the TRR1- C142S-C145S allele exhibited the same high level of Hsp42-GFP focus formation as trr1∆ cells bearing an empty vector, as well as the drastic slow-growth phenotype of cells lacking thioredoxin

FIGURE 2: Thioredoxin system mutants hyperaccumulate the sequestrase Hsp42. (A) The indicated strains with GFP integrated in-frame with HSP42, or transformed with a plasmid expressing GFP alone, were grown to mid-logarithmic phase and imaged as described in Materials and Methods. The percentage of cells with foci was determined by counting at least 100 cells from multiple fields. (B) Wild type (WT) or trr1∆ cells expressing GFP fusions to the indicated genes at the genomic locus were imaged in midlogue phase. (C) Strain HSP42-GFP trr1∆ PHO88-mCherry was grown to midlogue phase and imaged as described in Materials and Methods. All experiments included three (four for (A)) biological replicates and values are the mean with error bars representing SD. Statistical significance between the indicated strains was determined using Welch's unpaired t test ($p = 0.05$, *; $p = 0.005$, **; $p = 0.0005$, ***; $p = 0.00005$, ****). Scale bar = $5 \mu m$.

reductase activity (Supplemental Figure S3, A and B; Trotter et al., 2002; Kritsiligkou et al., 2018).

In addition to the JUNQ and INQ compartments, a third depot termed the IPOD has been described in yeast that typically includes amyloid-forming proteins as well as Hsp42 and other chaperones (Kaganovich et al., 2008; Rothe et al., 2018). While JUNQ and INQ are perinuclear and intranuclear, respectively, IPOD is typically perivacuolar or randomly localized within the cytoplasm. To assess where Hsp42-GFP was localizing in trr1∆ cells, we constructed a strain expressing an mCherry-tagged allele of the ER membrane protein Pho88 that also outlines the nuclear membrane (D'Urso et al., 2016). The Hsp42-GFP signal was generally observed to be immediately adjacent to the cytoplasmic face of the nuclear membrane as judged by comparison to the Pho88-mCh signal, consistent with accumulation/persistence of a JUNQ-like compartment in trr1∆ cells (Figure 2C).

Chaperone and substrate dynamics in *trr1***∆** cells

To further explore the nature of the large Hsp42 foci in trr1∆ cells, we assessed chaperone localization in response to protein misfolding stress. Wild type and trr1∆ cells bearing either Hsp42-GFP or a red fluorescent protein (RFP) fusion to the disaggregase Hsp104 (Hsp104-RFP) were grown at the nonstress temperature of 30°C and shifted or not to 39°C (HS) for 20 min. Heat-shocked cells were then returned to 30°C for a 5-h recovery period. As expected, wild type cells exhibited diffuse fluorescence in control conditions, and formed multiple small foci in nearly all cells (CytoQ) during heat shock (Figure 3A). These CytoQ bodies were largely resolved into a single focus in ∼40% of cells during the recovery period. In trr1∆ cells, the same CytoQ dynamics were observed, while the single large foci remained present during all phases of the experiment. Interestingly, the persistence of large, single foci, presumably exaggerated JUNQ compartments, was greater in trr1∆ cells than in wild type cells (over 80% vs. ∼40%) at the end of the recovery period, suggesting that the resolved CytoQ bodies were "added" to the redox-dependent body. This possibility is further supported by the fact that we did not observe two independent large foci in Hsp42- GFP trr1∆ cells after the recovery phase. We performed the same experiment using Hsp104-RFP-containing cells and noted that while both wild type and trr1∆ strains accumulated CytoQ during the heat

FIGURE 3: Chaperone and substrate dynamics in trr1∆ cells. The indicated strains expressing Hsp42-GFP (A) or Hsp104-RFP (B) from the chromosomal locus were grown to mid-logarithmic phase at 30°C (NS), shifted to 39°C for 20 min (HS), and allowed to recover for 5 h at 30°C (recovery). The percentage of cells with one or two or more foci was determined by counting at least 100 cells from multiple fields. All experiments included three biological replicates and values are the mean with error bars representing SD. Scale bar = $5 \mu m$.

shock, in neither strain were persistent large foci observed under control or recovery conditions (Figure 3B). These findings establish that Hsp42, like Hsp104, is rapidly recruited to CytoQ structures under protein misfolding stress; however, Hsp42 fails to disengage during the recovery phase in contrast to Hsp104. Moreover, in TRR1-deficient cells, CytoQ dynamics proceed normally with the addition of persistent JUNQ compartments containing Hsp42.

Terminally misfolded proteins accumulate in Hsp42-GFP foci in *trr1***∆** cells

The Hsp42 sequestrase forms multimeric scaffolded structures with misfolded proteins that both prevents their aggregation and facilitates extraction and refolding as well as degradation (Mogk and Bukau, 2017). The persistence of JUNQ compartments containing Hsp42-GFP in cells defective in the thioredoxin system suggested that misfolded proteins might also accumulate within these structures. To test this hypothesis, we expressed the terminally misfolded model protein CPY‡-GFP in wild type and trr1∆ cells and monitored localization dynamics in the presence or absence of the translation inhibitor cycloheximide (CHX; Heck et al., 2010). CPY‡-GFP typically forms small CytoQ bodies that are resolved over time via degradation by the proteasome (Figure 4A). In contrast, in trr1∆ cells, CPY‡- GFP accumulated in one to two large foci, and, after 90 min of CHX chase, the majority of cells exhibited a single very large focus reminiscent of the Hsp42-GFP/JUNQ compartment. These results suggest that the CPY‡-GFP within the CytoQ bodies failed to be extracted and degraded in trr1∆ cells and instead hyperaccumulated into an exaggerated JUNQ compartment. Indeed, when the same experiment was performed using the proteasome inhibitor MG-132 instead of CHX, both wild type and trr1∆ cells displayed similar accumulation of two or more exaggerated foci, consistent with a degradation block (Figure 4B). Accumulation of CPY‡-GFP into foci of any size was entirely dependent on Hsp42 as previously reported, as no foci were detected in both TRR1 hsp42∆ and trr1∆ hsp42∆ cells (Figure 4C; Specht et al., 2011; Saarikangas and Barral, 2015). We also examined whether Hsp104 colocalized with CPY‡-GFP in MG132-treated cells and found that the disaggregase remained diffuse regardless of TRR1 status, consistent with our data and others showing that Hsp104 transiently accumulates in CytoQ bodies but is not a permanent resident (Supplemental Figure S6). Finally, to verify that the Hsp42-GFP and misfolded protein foci accumulating in trr1∆ cells are one and the same, we generated an Hsp42-RFP fusion protein and coexpressed it with either CPY‡-GFP or another permanently misfolded substrate, the truncated Gnd1 protein (tGND-GFP; Heck et al., 2010). In both cases, the foci completely overlapped. Together, these results demonstrate that the JUNQ compartments persisting in trr1∆ cells contain both the sequestrase Hsp42 as well as misfolded proteins. These proteins are likely associated with each other in a manner that precludes degradation in the case of the two-model proteins and refolding in the case of endogenous substrates normally processed through transient CytoQ assemblies.

One explanation for the persistent JUNQ structures could be excess production of misfolded proteins in trr1∆ cells; that is, an overall increase in protein misfolding due to an altered redox environment. To test this possibility, we expressed the thermally labile protein firefly luciferase (FFL) as a GFP fusion protein in wild type and trr1∆ cells (Abrams and Morano, 2013). FFL-GFP misfolds under proteotoxic stress conditions and localizes to transient CytoQ bodies (Tkach and Glover, 2008; Escusa-Toret et al., 2013; Miller et al., 2015a). We, therefore, heat-shocked FFL-GFP-bearing cells, followed by return to normal temperature in the presence of CHX, and

FIGURE 4: Terminally misfolded proteins accumulate in Hsp42-GFP foci in trr1∆ cells. (A) The indicated strains expressing the CPY‡-GFP misfolded protein fusion from the chromosome were grown at 30°C and imaged immediately before (0) or 90 min after (90) treatment with CHX as described in Materials and Methods. The percentage of cells with one or two or more foci was determined by counting at least 100 cells from multiple fields. (B) The indicated strains (additionally pdr5∆) were grown at 30°C in the absence (–) or presence (+) of MG-132 for 2 h. The percentage of cells with one or two or more foci was determined by counting at least 100 cells from multiple fields. (C) The indicated strains were grown to mid-logarithmic phase at 30°C and imaged. (D) Strains expressing Hsp42-RFP as well as either CPY‡-GFP or tGND-GFP were grown to midlogue phase and imaged in both the red and green channels. All experiments included three biological replicates and values are the mean with error bars representing SD. Scale bar = 5 µm.

assessed both luciferase enzymatic activity and focus formation. FFL-GFP recovered ∼50% of initial activity in wild type cells over 90 min, with a moderately faster and higher rate of recovery in trr1∆ cells (Supplemental Figure S4A). Consistent with these results, CytoQ punctae formed in both strains during heat shock and partially resolved by 90 min to a similar degree as assessed by fluorescence microscopy (Supplemental Figure S4B). While not an exhaustive analysis, these data suggest that global protein refolding is not grossly impaired in trr1∆ cells.

An alternative explanation for the persistence of both misfolded protein like CPY‡-GFP and tGND-GFP in Hsp42-containing JUNQ compartments might be failure to properly target these substrates for degradation through the UPS (Baker and Bernardini, 2021). We

assessed this possibility in three different ways. The addition of polyubiquitin chains to cellular misfolded proteins can be detected by immunoblot using antiubiquitin antibodies if downstream proteasome degradation is blocked. We, therefore, treated wild type and trr1∆ cells with either MG-132, CHX or both compounds and prepared whole cell extracts for immunoblot. A characteristic smear of ubiquitin-positive proteins was observed in untreated cells whose intensity decreased with CHX (due to fewer nascent chains being produced) and enhanced with both CHX and MG-132 (due to proteasome inhibition) in both wild type and trr1∆ cells, suggesting that the ubiquitination phase of protein quality control was unaffected by redox imbalance (Supplemental Figure S5A). To ask whether proteasome activity itself might be abrogated in trr1∆ cells, leading to accumulation of misfolded proteins, we prepared native cell extracts and utilized a commercial proteasome enzymatic activity assay. 20S chymotrypsin-like proteasome activity was measured and validated by comparison with measurements taken in the presence of MG-132. Surprisingly, 20S proteasome activity was approximately threefold higher in trr1∆ cells as compared with wild type, possibly due to enhanced proteasome gene expression driven by the HSF1- RPN4 circuit (Supplemental Figure S5B; Hahn et al., 2006). Finally, to rule out alteration specifically in 26S proteasome function of trr1∆ cells, we utilized N-end rule degron substrates including a destabilizing N degron Ub-R-KK-YFP-Su9 (Ub-R) and a stabilizing N degron Ub-V-KK-YFP-Su9 (Ub-V). The Ub-R (N-terminal arginine) is subject to rapid ubiquitination and subsequent degradation while the Ub-V (valine substitution) is not (Yu et al., 2016). In the absence of MG-132, the Ub-R construct was present at very low levels and further destabilized in trr1∆ cells, while Ub-V levels were abundant in both strains, indicating no reduction in 26S proteasome activity in trr1∆ cells. MG-132 dramatically stabilized the Ub-R protein fusions, confirming proteasomal targeting (Supplemental Figure S5C). Together, these results demonstrate that overall function of the UPS is intact, if not elevated, in cells lacking thioredoxin reductase activity.

Cells deficient in both thioredoxin reductase activity and sequestrase function experience synthetic slow growth and hypersensitivity to oxidative stress

Our experiments demonstrated that trr1∆ cells accumulated both Hsp42 and misfolded proteins in an exaggerated JUNQ compartment that failed to resolve despite an intact UPS. Notwithstanding a near-absolute requirement for Hsp42 to form CytoQ or JUNQ structures in yeast cells, hsp42∆ cells exhibit essentially no phenotypes unless cells are severely compromised for protein quality control through the Hsp70 chaperone network (Ho et al., 2019). However, because our findings suggested that Hsp42 may be a critical chaperone in cells that lack the ability to maintain a reduced cytoplasm, we generated an hsp42∆ trr1∆ strain and compared its growth to wild type and single-mutant strains. As previously reported, trr1∆ cells exhibited a slow growth phenotype under normal conditions, while hsp42∆ cells grew indistinguishably from wild type. In contrast, hsp42∆ trr1∆ cells exhibited profoundly slow growth (Figure 5A). To ask whether exogenous oxidative stress may exacerbate these effects, the same four strains were cultured in the presence of 0.5 mM H_2O_2 . A similar pattern was observed, with more intense growth retardation of both trr1∆ and hsp42∆ trr1∆ cells, the latter of which were nearly inviable. Together, these data highlight the interconnectedness of sequestrase and thioredoxin reductase functions and to our knowledge represent a rare example of synthetic growth defects resulting from genetic disruption of the HSP42 locus in yeast.

Hsp42 dynamics in glucose-starved and chronologically aging cells phenocopy *trr1***∆** cells

Yeast growth in a fixed culture over time has been interpreted as a microbial model of eukaryotic aging; cells initially exhibit robust growth in a nutrient-rich environment that slows as key nutrients, including glucose, are exhausted (Herman, 2002). The same metabolic state can be achieved by shifting logarithmically growing, glucose-rich (2%) cultures to a minimal glucose concentration (0.02%), bringing about acute glucose starvation. Hsp42 has been previously shown to accumulate in so-called "Hsp42 bodies" in yeast cultures during stationary phase or in response to glucose starvation that bear a strong resemblance to the enhanced JUNQ structures observed in our experiments (Narayanaswamy et al.,

FIGURE 5: Cells deficient in both thioredoxin reductase activity and sequestrase function experience synthetic slow growth and hypersensitivity to oxidative stress. (A) The indicated strains were inoculated at an initial $OD_{600} = 0.01$ in a sterile 96-well plate and grown with shaking at 30°C for 24 h with density measurements taken every 10 min. The average of three biological replicate growth curves are shown with SD. (B) Same as (A), but cultures were additionally grown in the presence of 0.5 mM H_2O_2 for 36 h. Plotted values represent the mean of three biological replicates and error bars the SD.

2009; Liu et al., 2012; O'Connell et al., 2014; Lee et al., 2016). We, therefore, sought to better understand possible similarities between all these observations. Wild type and trr1∆ cells were grown in rich glucose media and then shifted to low glucose conditions and Hsp42-GFP focus accumulation assessed. While trr1∆ cells exhibited a high percentage of single-focus formation in both growth environments, wild type cells only accumulated an Hsp42-GFP focus under starvation conditions (Figure 6A). In fact, although the percentage of single foci increased in the trr1∆ strain after shift to low glucose (50 to ∼75%), the total percentage was nearly identical in both strains. We interpret this result to mean that trr1∆ cells largely phenocopy the glucose-starved scenario in wild type cells and that acute starvation is minimally additive with genetically induced redox imbalance. To ask whether the same concept held true for batch culture aging, wild type and trr1∆ cells were grown in parallel cultures and images taken of Hsp42-GFP localization at defined culture densities. Similar to the acute glucose shift experiment, trr1∆ cells exhibited a high frequency of focus formation during exponential phase that further increased in the aging culture (Figure 6, B and C). In contrast, no foci were observed in wild type cells until a threshold at approximately $OD_{600} = 5$, after which nearly all cells contained one or two large JUNQ foci. At 3 d of continuous culture, Hsp42- GFP localization patterns in the two strains were virtually indistinguishable, suggesting that these phenomena may be similar in

FIGURE 6: Hsp42 localization in glucose-starved and chronologically aging cells is phenocopied in trr1∆ cells. (A) The indicated strains were grown at 30°C to mid-logarithmic phase and then either maintained in standard YPD medium or shifted to low glucose medium (YP + 0.02% glucose) for 90 min. The percentage of cells with one or two or more foci was determined by counting at least 100 cells from multiple fields. (B) The same strains as in (A) were grown at 30°C and culture aliquots removed at the indicated optical densities (OD) or after 3 d of continuous growth. (C) The percentage of cells with foci was determined by counting at least 100 cells from multiple fields. All experiments included three biological replicates and values are the mean with error bars representing SD. Scale bar = $5 \mu m$.

nature if not etiology, hinting at a potential common origin that connects redox maintenance with cellular energy levels.

DISCUSSION

Our work in redox-imbalanced cells has revealed a profound dysregulation of not only the protein misfolding-induced HSR, but also spatial quality control, manifest as specific and persistent hyperaccumulation of the cytosolic sequestrase Hsp42. How does loss of either thioredoxin reductase or the redundant cytosolic thioredoxins Trx1/2 lead to Hsf1 activation? Recent work has conclusively demonstrated that the Hsp70 chaperone proteins Ssa1/2 restrain Hsf1 in an inactive state through direct physical interaction at sites within the disordered amino- or carboxyl-terminal domains of the transcription factor (Zheng et al., 2016; Peffer et al., 2019; Chowdhary et al., 2022). The Ssa1-Hsf1 complex exhibits decreased DNA binding and nuclear condensate clustering, resulting in diminished RNA polymerase II recruitment at target gene promoters. Unfolded or misfolded polypeptides displaying exposed Hsp70 binding motifs compete with Hsf1 for Ssa1 binding, leading to HSR activation (Zheng et al., 2016). Protein misfolding due to redox imbalance could arise from defects in translation or multimerization/assembly of proteins containing one or more redox-active cysteine or methionine residues. However, we demonstrated that the heat-labile enzyme luciferase folds and acquires enzymatic activity in trr1∆ cells, arguing against a general protein folding defect. Alternatively, abridged function of the ubiquitin-proteasome pathway could generate a pool of misfolded proteins that compete for Hsf1-bound Ssa1 by blocking degradation, but our observation that bulk ubiquitination is unaffected in trr1∆ cells is inconsistent with this idea. We favor a model wherein impaired mobilization from CytoQ/JUNQ compartments results in a pool of accumulated misfolded proteins. This last scenario comports both with the persistent Hsp42 foci observed in trr1∆ cells and our findings that the unfoldable substrates CPY‡-GFP and tGnd1-GFP colocalized with these structures. Finally, it is possible that two independent mechanisms may be in play, as we have shown that reactive cysteines 264 and 303 in Ssa1 are subject to oxidative modification that inhibits general chaperone activity and releases Hsf1 (Santiago and Morano, 2022). Indeed, a pool of partially oxidized Ssa1 may exist in trr1∆ cells that both contributes to improper spatial quality control and improperly restrains Hsf1.

Notably, HSR activation was observed exclusively in mutant strains deficient in the cytosolic thioredoxin system. Elimination of other redox pathways, including the mitochondrial thioredoxin system, the cytosolic/vacuolar glutathione system, or the Mxr1 methionine-S-oxide reductase, did not result in elevated Hsf1 transcriptional activity. While the glutathione pathway plays a major role in redox balance in most eukaryotic cells, including humans, its importance in S. cerevisiae is focused on detoxification, antioxidant function, amino acid biosynthesis and iron-sulfur cluster biogenesis, and may serve a subordinate role to the thioredoxin system. Interestingly, it was previously demonstrated that the endoplasmic reticulum-localized unfolded protein response pathway (UPR) is constitutively activated in trr1∆ cells, likely due to the shift toward oxidized thioredoxins in the absence of thioredoxin reductase, disallowing proper disulfide bond rearrangement by the protein disulfide isomerase Pdi1 (Kritsiligkou et al., 2018). In a similar manner, cytosolic protein cysteines could become oxidized in an environment lacking transferable reducing equivalents normally supplied by thioredoxins and the peroxiredoxin family. In support of this model, the peroxiredoxin Tsa1 localizes with oxidatively damaged, misfolded proteins and converts to a functional chaperone upon cysteine oxidation (Hanzén et al., 2016). We note that Hsp42 also contains a single cysteine residue located at position 127. This residue lies within the amino-terminal domain required for localization to peripheral structures including CytoQ and JUNQ, raising the possibility that C127 oxidation could impact Hsp42 localization dynamics (Specht et al., 2011). Btn2 contains five cysteine residues, but like Hsp42 C127, it is unknown whether they are redox-active (Saccharomyces Genome Database | SGD). A deeper dive into potential redox dynamics of the sequestrases is therefore warranted. Importantly, we are not the first to observe dysregulation of the HSR in trr1∆ cells. MacDiarmid and coworkers identified a TRR1-inactivating genetic suppressor of tsa1∆ growth defects in cells deficient in zinc, and further showed that trr1∆ cells exhibited constitutive activation of the HSR that was exacerbated by zinc limitation (Macdiarmid et al., 2013). We have significantly extended these findings by identifying additional, previously unknown defects in spatial quality control in the absence of thioredoxin reductase in cells with no zinc challenge.

What is the nature of the exaggerated Hsp42-containing JUNQ compartment in trr1∆ cells? We found that other chaperones typically associated with CytoQ bodies and the JUNQ, such as Hsp40 (Ydj1), Hsp70 (Ssa1, Ssa4, and Ssb1) and the disaggregase Hsp104, did not accumulate along with Hsp42 and misfolded protein. These chaperones transiently localize to CytoQ/JUNQ and participate in the extraction of polypeptides for further processing – refolding or proteasomal degradation. In fact, we found that Hsp104 and Hsp42 appropriately localized to CytoQ structures during acute heat shock. Hsp104 then appeared to return to a diffuse state while Hsp42 did not. Because large Hsp42-containing foci both preceded the heat shock experiment and persisted during recovery, we cannot distinguish whether the transient CytoQ-localized Hsp42 resolved like Hsp104 or became trapped within the accumulating JUNQ compartment. However, the impact of redox imbalance on spatial quality control seems specific to Hsp42 and likely associated misfolded proteins, rather than a general defect in protein processing. This point is underscored by our observation that the related sequestrase Btn2, associated with the INQ compartment, did not accumulate in detectable foci in trr1∆ cells, nor did the holdase Hsp26. Further work will be required to identify a mechanistic explanation for aberrant Hsp42 cellular dynamics. However, the importance of Hsp42 in cells experiencing redox imbalance through loss of Trr1 is underscored by the dramatic synergistic growth phenotype observed in trr1∆ hsp42∆ cells. This growth defect is even more striking when considered in light of the fact that cells lacking HSP42 exhibit little to no demonstrable phenotypes of any kind unless the Hsp70 system is compromised (Haslbeck et al., 2004; Ho et al., 2019). Clearly, Hsp42 is required to support proliferation of trr1∆ cells which already experience profound growth retardation linked to ROS production in the ER. Our observation that trr1∆ hsp42∆ growth rates are even further compromised during oxidative stress is consistent with a model wherein cytosolic sequestrase activity is critical in a challenging redox environment. This hypothesis is further supported by recent work demonstrating that Hsp42, and to a lesser extent, Btn2, are required for tolerance to exogenous acute oxidative stress (Carter et al., 2023).

A notable feature of this work is the connection between our observations and previous studies identifying Hsp42 bodies forming in response to nutrient starvation and chronological aging. Indeed, it is difficult to distinguish Hsp42-GFP localization patterns under the various conditions. Our chronological aging experiment demonstrates that the exaggerated single foci that chronically persist in trr1∆ cells closely resemble the same structures that begin to accumulate in postlogarithmic phase growth, which in turn resemble cells experiencing acute glucose starvation (0.02% glucose). While it is tempting to speculate that the observed nutrient starvation effects are, therefore, due to redox imbalance, we also note that the percentage of the trr1∆ cell population with Hsp42 foci increased during the aging experiment as well as upon shift to limiting glucose, suggestive of a partially additive relationship. Hsp42 localization patterns were not appreciably different in wild type or trr1∆ cells at 0.02% glucose, further suggesting that carbon source starvation (and hence energy production) is a more severe proteotoxic insult with respect to Hsp42/JUNQ dynamics than redox imbalance. Many questions remain to be answered regarding the links between redox homeostasis, energy state, and spatial quality control. Why is Hsp42 localization (JUNQ) so drastically altered with no detectable change in Btn2 dynamics (INQ) given the interconnectedness of the two compartments (Sontag et al., 2023)? What proteins constitute the exaggerated JUNQ compartment present in trr1∆ and aging/ starved cells, and are they similar among the different conditions?

Finally, we seek to understand the cytoprotective role that Hsp42 appears to play in redox-challenged cells, presumably via sequestration of potentially toxic misfolded proteins.

MATERIALS AND METHODS [Request a protocol](https://en.bio-protocol.org/cjrap.aspx?eid=10.1091/mbc.e23-04-0296) through *Bio-protocol*.

Strains and plasmids

All strains used in this study are isogenic to BY4741 and are listed in Table 1. Multiple GFP fusion strains were from the Thermo Fisher Scientific GFP Collection (Huh et al., 2003). Multiple gene deletion strains are from the Yeast Knockout Collection (Winzeler et al., 1999). Construction of knockout strains was done by generating PCR amplicons containing one of the markers G418R, LEU2, or URA3, flanked by upstream and downstream noncoding regions of the knockout target gene. Alternatively, we employed the seamless deletion method to recycle the URA3 gene and generate trr1∆ seamless strains, denoted as trr1∆* in Table 1 (Horecka and Davis, 2014). For expression of TRR1 in trr1∆ strains, the genomic region of BY4741 containing the TRR1 coding sequence and 1 kb upstream and 1 kb downstream was amplified and cloned into the pRS415 plasmid (Table 1) using introduced SpeI and XbaI restriction sites. The same plasmid construct was used for the generation of TRR1- C142S-C145S, where the codons encoding the two cysteines in the catalytic region of Trr1 (C142 and C145) were changed to encode serine using overlap PCR. The GFP-expressing control plasmid pRS415-GPD-GFP was constructed by amplifying the GFP coding sequence from the genomic DNA of the Hsp42-GFP strain and cloned into pRS415-GPD using introduced SpeI and XhoI restriction sites. All plasmid constructions and genomic integration cassettes were verified by sequencing before yeast transformation. Yeast transformation was performed using the rapid yeast transformation protocol (Gietz et al., 1992). Plasmids pRH2081 (TDH3-CPY[‡]-GFP), pRH2476 (TDH3-tGND-GFP), and pRS303-PHO88-mCherry were linearized as previously described before integrative transformation (Heck et al., 2010; D'Urso et al., 2016).

Yeast culture and growth assays

Strains were cultured in standard nonselective (YPD; 1% yeast extract, 2% peptone, 2% glucose) medium or selective synthetic complete medium (SC; 2% glucose) lacking amino acids for marker selection (Sunrise Science). Strains were grown at 30°C with aeration to mid-logarithmic phase unless otherwise specified. For growth curve assays, midlogue phase cells were inoculated at a low-culture density (OD₆₀₀ = 0.01) in 100 µl fresh medium in a 96-well sterile plate and incubated with intermittent agitation in a Synergy MX Microplate reader (Biotek Instruments) at 30°C. Heat shock experiments were performed in a shaking waterbath at 39°C in glass tubes or flasks for 20 min, unless otherwise specified. For the CHX chase experiments, CHX was added at 100 µg/ml final concentration for indicated times. To monitor Hsp42-GFP dynamics during glucose starvation, midlogue phase cells were transferred to 0.02% glucose YP medium for 90 min. Proteasome inhibition was achieved via addition of 75 µM carbobenzoxy-Leu-Leu-leucinal (MG-132, MilliporeSigma) in strains additionally carrying the pdr5∆ deletion to allow for uptake (Collins et al., 2010).

Fluorescence microscopy

Cells were wet-mounted on glass slides and imaged immediately using an Olympus IX81-ZDC inverted microscope with a 100x objective lens using fluorescence with appropriate standard filter sets. Images were captured with a Hamamatsu ORCA camera.

TABLE 1: Yeast strains and plasmids. (Continues)

TABLE 1: Yeast strains and plasmids. Continued

Quantitation was done by counting at least 100 cells and dividing the number of cells containing aggregates by the total number of cells counted. For some experiments, cells containing a single, large focus were distinguished from those containing two or more visible foci.

HSR activation using HSE*-lacZ* reporter

Activity of Hsf1 was determined by adding 50 µl of cell suspension (cells expressing the pSSA3HSE-lacZ plasmid) to 50 µl of β-Glo reagent (Promega) in a white 96-well plate. After 30 min of incubation at 30°C, luminescence was measured in a Synergy MX Microplate reader (Abrams and Morano, 2013).

In vivo firefly luciferase refolding assay

Refolding of the heat-labile enzyme firefly luciferase was performed as described with the following modifications (Abrams and Morano, 2013). Cells bearing the plasmid pRS425-MET25-FFL-GFPleu2::URA3 were grown to midlogue phase in selective medium supplemented with 1 mM methionine at 30°C. Cells were washed and subcultured in medium lacking methionine to induce expression of FFL-GFP from the MET25 promoter for 1 h. CHX was added to cultures at 100 µg/ml final concentration to halt protein synthesis. Basal FFL activity was determined by adding 10 µl of 222 nM luciferin to 100 µl of cell culture and measuring light production using a Synergy MX Microplate reader equipped with a luminometer. Cultures were shifted to 42°C for 15 min to allow heat denaturation of the FFL enzyme, and FFL activity measured after return to 30°C growth conditions for multiple time points during the recovery period.

Proteasomal activity

Proteasomal activity was assessed using the Proteasome 20S Activity Assay Kit (MAK172-1KT; MilliporeSigma). Experiments were performed by adding 50 µl of cell suspension to 50 µl of required reagent in a white 96-well plate. After 2 h incubation at 30°C, 20S proteasome activity was measured in a Synergy MX Microplate reader. To specifically assess 26S proteasome activity, cells harboring plasmids expressing N-rule substrates Ub-R-KK-YFP-Su9 (unstable degron) or Ub-V-KK-YFP-Su9 (stable degron) were grown at 30°C to midlogue phase and then treated with 75 μM MG-132 for 2 h. Steady state levels of both model substrates was determined in WT and trr1∆ cells by western blotting to infer relative chaperoneindependent 26S proteasomal activity.

Western blots

Proteins were isolated using glass bead lysis as described (Abrams et al, 2014). Protein samples were heated (65°C, 15 min) in SDS– PAGE sample-loading buffer, loaded into 10% bis-acrylamide/SDS gels and separated by electrophoresis. Separated protein samples were transferred to a polyvinylidene difluoride (PVDF) membrane, blocked in 5% nonfat dry milk and proteins detected using monoclonal anti-GFP (Roche), monoclonal anti-PGK (Invitrogen), and monoclonal anti-Ub (EMD Millipore) antibodies, followed by detection with HRP-conjugated secondary antibody (MilliporeSigma) with enhanced chemiluminescence reagent and direct photon emission imaging. Protein bands were quantitated using Image Studio Lite (LI-COR Biosciences).

RNA isolation and qRT-PCR

Cultures were grown in 20 ml of YPD medium at 30°C, harvested at OD₆₀₀ 0.8, centrifuged, and the cell pellet immediately frozen on dry ice. Total RNA was isolated by the hot phenol method. For qRT-PCR assays, 1 µg of RNA was converted to cDNA using the iScript cDNA synthesis kit (Bio-Rad). Relative expression of the SSA3 and SSA4 genes was measured by qRT-PCR using iTaq Universal SYBR Green Supermix (Bio-Rad) and calculated using standard method (Nolan et al., 2006). TAF10 was used as the normalization control gene. All experiments were conducted with three technical and either two or three biological replicates as indicated.

Statistical analysis

Significance was determined using GraphPad QuickCalcs Welch's unpaired t test calculator (GraphPad, Dotmetrics v. 9.3.0).

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