Molecular and functional characterization of the quality control Valosin-containing protein VCP/p97 and of its co-factors in *Leishmania*

Thèse

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Résumé

*Leishmania* est un parasite protozoaire eucaryote unicellulaire qui infecte plus de 1.6 millions de personnes chaque année dans plus de 98 pays. Aucun vaccin humain est actuellement disponible et peu de traitements efficaces sont utilisés pour lutter contre le large spectre de pathologies causées par *Leishmania*. Récemment, l’étude du contrôle de la qualité des protéines chez *Leishmania infantum* a révélé que DDX3, une DEAD-box hélicase à ARN dotée de multiples fonctions dans le métabolisme de l’ARN et la signalisation cellulaire, joue un rôle central dans le contrôle de qualité des protéines dans la mitochondrie. Une étude plus approfondie de ce mécanisme a révélé des interactions potentielles de DDX3 avec des composantes clés de la réponse cellulaire au stress, en particulier avec une protéine de la famille des AAA + ATPases, VCP/p97/Cdc48. Comme VCP/p97/Cdc48 participe à de multiples étapes dans le contrôle de qualité des protéines en utilisant son hydrolyse de l’ATP pour séparer les protéines ubiquitinées de leurs partenaires et les acheminer au protéasome 26S pour dégradation, nous avons émis l’hypothèse que l’homologue très conservé chez *Leishmania*, *LVCP*, pourrait agir de la même façon. Cette étude a permis la caractérisation fonctionnelle de l’homologue VCP chez *Leishmania*, son rôle dans la réponse du parasite au stress et sa survie dans les macrophages, ses interactions potentielles avec d’autres partenaires dont des cofacteurs clés, ainsi que la modélisation 3D des interactions LVCP-cofacteurs. En utilisant des mutants génétiquement générés ayant moins de copies du gène *LVCP* ou des mutants dominants négatifs avec une activité VCP altérée, nous avons démontré que *LVCP* est un gène essentiel et que les mutants VCP sont incapables de survivre sous le shock de la chaleur et présentent un déficit de croissance très marqué chez les amastigotes. De plus, nous avons montré une forte accumulation de protéines polyubiquitinées et une sensibilité accrue au stress protéotoxique chez ces mutants, soutenant la fonction de chaperone sélective de l’ubiquitine de *LVCP*. Grâce à des analyses *in silico* et à la «protéomique en réseau» en utilisant des études de co-immunoprécipitation et de spectrométrie de masse (LC-MS / MS), nous avons établi le premier réseau protéique de VCP chez les parasites protozoaires et déterminé que p47, FAF2, UFD1, PUB1 et l’hétérodimère NPL4-UFD1 étaient les principaux cofacteurs de *LVCP*. Enfin, nos travaux nous ont permis de faire progresser nos connaissances générales sur la protéine essentielle VCP et le contrôle de la qualité des protéines chez *Leishmania* et d’indiquer quelques perspectives intéressantes pour approfondir notre compréhension sur ces mécanismes importants non seulement chez *Leishmania* mais aussi chez d’autres trypanosomatides.
Abstract

*Leishmania* is a unicellular eukaryotic protozoan parasite that infects over 1.6 million people each year in more than 98 countries. No human vaccine is currently available and few effective treatments are used to combat the broad spectrum of diseases caused by *Leishmania*. Recently, studies on Protein Quality Control in *Leishmania infantum* revealed that the multifunctional DEAD-box RNA helicase DDX3 involved among others in RNA metabolism and cell signaling plays a central role in mitochondrial protein quality control. Further studies revealed potential interactions of DDX3 with key components of the cellular stress response, particularly with the conserved AAA+ ATPase VCP/ p97/Cdc48. As VCP is associated with many ubiquitin-dependent cellular pathways that are central to protein quality control in other eukaryotic systems using its ATP hydrolysis to separate ubiquitinated proteins from their partners and bring them to the 26S proteasome for degradation, we hypothesized that the *Leishmania* highly conserved counterpart, *LiVCP*, might act in a similar way. This study enabled the functional characterization of the *Leishmania* VCP homolog, its role in the parasite’s response to stress and survival inside macrophages, its potential interactions with other partners including key VCP cofactors, and the homology 3D modeling of *LiVCP*-cofactor interactions. Using genetically engineered mutants with fewer copies of the *LiVCP* gene or dominant negative mutants with altered VCP activity, we demonstrated that *LiVCP* is an essential gene and that VCP mutants are unable to survive under heat stress and exhibit a very marked growth defect in amastigotes. In addition, we showed a high accumulation of polyubiquitinated proteins and increased susceptibility to proteotoxic stress in these mutants, supporting that *LiVCP* has an ubiquitin selective chaperone function. Using "network proteomics" analyses by co-immunoprecipitation and mass spectrometry (LC-MS/MS) studies, we established the first VCP protein network in protozoan parasites and determined p47, FAF2, UFD1, PUB1 and the NPL4-UFD1 heterodimer as the major cofactors of *LiVCP*. Overall, our work allowed us to advance general knowledge of the essential role of VCP in *Leishmania* protein quality control and to propose some interesting perspectives to deepen our understanding of these important pathways not only in *Leishmania* but also in other trypanosomatids.
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# Liste des abréviations, sigles, acronymes

<p>| AD       | associated degradation                        |
| CL       | cutaneous leishmaniasis                       |
| CMA      | chaperone mediated autophagy                  |
| CP       | core particle                                 |
| DC       | dendritic cells                               |
| Doa1     | degradation of alpha 1                         |
| DR       | Drug Resistance                               |
| DUB      | deubiquitinating enzymes                      |
| E1       | ubiquitin-activating enzyme                   |
| E2       | ubiquitin-conjugating enzyme                  |
| E3       | ubiquitin ligase                              |
| eIFs     | eukaryotic translation initiation factors     |
| ER       | Endoplasmic Reticulum (ER)                    |
| ERAD     | ER-associated protein degradation             |
| FAF      | Fas-associated factor                         |
| gRNA     | guide RNA                                     |
| HIV      | human immuno-deficiency virus                 |
| HSP      | heat shock protein                            |
| HYG      | hygromycin B resistance gene                  |
| IFN-γ    | interferon gamma                              |
| IL       | interleukin                                   |
| IMS      | intermembrane space                           |
| IR       | intergenic region                             |
| kDNA     | kinetoplast DNA                               |
| KO       | knockout                                      |
| LAMB     | liposomal amphotericin B                      |
| LPG      | lipophosphoglycan                             |
| LZ       | leishmanization                               |
| MA       | meglumine antimoniate                         |
| MAD      | Mitochondria-associated degradation           |
| MF       | Miltefosine                                   |
| MIM      | mitochondrial inner membrane                  |
| mRNP     | messenger ribonucleoprotein                   |
| mt       | mitochondrial                                 |
| NE       | neutrophil elastase                           |
| NEO      | neomycin phosphotransferase gene              |
| NET      | neutrophil extracellular traps                |
| NK       | natural killer cells                          |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NO</td>
<td>nitric oxide</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OMM</td>
<td>outer mitochondrial membrane</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ORF</td>
<td>open reading frame</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PABP</td>
<td>poly(A)-binding protein</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PCR</td>
<td>polymerase chain reaction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PERK</td>
<td>pancreatic endoplasmic reticulum eIF2 kinase</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PFU</td>
<td>PLAA family ubiquitin binding</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PFU</td>
<td>PLAA family ubiquitin binding domain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PKDL</td>
<td>post-kala-azar dermal leishmaniasis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PLAA</td>
<td>phospholipase A-2- activating protein</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PM</td>
<td>paramomycin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PM</td>
<td>peritrophic matrix</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PQC</td>
<td>protein quality control</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PUB</td>
<td>PNGase/UBA or UBX containing proteins</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PUL</td>
<td>PLAP, Ufd3p, and Lub1p</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PUR</td>
<td>puromycin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PV</td>
<td>parasitophorous vacuole</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ROS</td>
<td>reactive oxygen species</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RP</td>
<td>regulatory particle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RQC</td>
<td>Ribosome-bound quality control</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RT-PCR</td>
<td>polymerase chain reaction with reverse transcribed RNA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sb5+</td>
<td>pentavalent antimonial</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SGs</td>
<td>stress granules</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSG</td>
<td>sodium stibogluconate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TF</td>
<td>Treatment Failure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TNF</td>
<td>tumor necrosis factor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tRNA</td>
<td>transfer RNA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ub</td>
<td>ubiquitin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UBA</td>
<td>ubiquitin-associated domain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UBX</td>
<td>ubiquitin regulatory X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UBXD</td>
<td>ubiquitin X domain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UBXL</td>
<td>UBX-like</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UFD</td>
<td>ubiquitin fusion degradation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UIM</td>
<td>ubiquitin-interacting motif</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UPR</td>
<td>Unfolded Protein Response</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UPS</td>
<td>ubiquitin–proteasome system</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VL</td>
<td>visceral leishmaniasis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WT</td>
<td>wild-type</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ZEO</td>
<td>zeocin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>αIR</td>
<td>intergenic region of α-tubulin</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
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To all those who contributed scientifically and socially to this journey, my sincere acknowledgment for making it a better one. Thank you!
Avant-propos

This doctorate thesis presents most of the studies done to unveil features of the cellular quality control in *Leishmania*, mainly involving the valosin-containing protein VCP. The work was done under the supervision of my thesis director, Prof. Barbara Papadopoulou and the constant technical help from Dr. Prasad Padmanabhan and Carole Dumas. In this thesis you will find i) a recent litterature review in the Introduction section organized into three sub-sections, ii) the main results of my research thesis in the form of three research papers (2 chapters and Appendix 1), iii) the discussion, conclusion and general perspectives of the project, and iv) a handful of appendices with valuable additional work related to VCP characterization and function carried out during this PhD period (Appendices 2-10).

The first sub-section of the Introduction (1.1) presents a brief review about *Leishmania* and its biological (life cycle of *Leishmania* spp., the parasite response to stress) and clinical aspects (diagnosis, treatment, and vaccine development).

The second sub-section of the Introduction (1.2) presents a general overview of how different organisms, especially eukaryotes, respond to stress. This section covers the different aspects and specific pathways of protein quality control.

The third sub-section of the Introduction (1.3) introduces the importance of the major protein addressed in this thesis, the VCP protein. The section covers the generalities on VCP and its structure and how it performs its multiple cellular functions with the help of several protein partners (co-factors). This part resumes the importance of VCP to the cellular quality control in other organisms and the therapeutical potential of this protein-target for several human diseases.

**Chapter 1** presents our hypothesis and objectives. Both objectives were the exact subject of the two publications presented in chapters 2 and 3.

**Chapter 2** presents the work published by Aguiar, B., Padmanabhan, P. K., Dumas, C., & Papadopoulou, B. entitled “**Valosin-containing protein VCP/p97 is essential for the intracellular development of Leishmania and its survival under heat stress**”. The paper was published in *Cellular Microbiology*, Oct;20(10):e12867 in 2018. After interesting preliminary data on the cloning and characterization of other factors participating in the antioxidant response in *Leishmania*, some of which involve RNA-binding proteins, we
succefully indentified VCP as an essential protein related to the overall cellular protein quality control and to the intracellular development of *Leishmania*.

**Chapter 3** presents the work on VCP cofactors and their characterization in *Leishmania* by Aguiar, B., Padmanabhan, P. K., Maaroufi, H., Dumas, C., & Papadopoulou, B. ‘Molecular and functional characterization of the AAA+ ATPase Valosin-containing protein (VCP)/p97/Cdc48 interaction network in *Leishmania*’ that was submitted for publication to ‘Scientific Reports’.

**Chapter 4** is composed by the overall thesis discussion, perspectives and general conclusions. The several perspectives presented emerge from different preliminary results from this thesis, incorporated as appendices.

**Appendix 1** presents the preliminary work that allowed the identification and characterization of important interactions between a key RNA-binding protein, the DEAD box RNA helicase DDX3, involved in mitochondrial homeostasis and other components of the stress response, especially the AAA+ ubiquitin chaperone VCP/p97/Cdc48. The results of my contribution in this work are shown here and were included in the published paper in *Cell Death and Disease*: Padmanabhan PK, Zghidi-Abouzid O, Samant M, Aguiar B, Dumas C, Estaquier J. and Papadopoulou B. (2016) DDX3 DEAD-box RNA helicase plays a central role in mitochondrial protein quality control in *Leishmania. Cell Death Dis.* Oct13;7(10):e2406.

**Appendix 2** presents the generation of *Li*Ufd1 knockout using CRISPR-Cas9. *Li*UFD1 is one of the main *Li*VCP co-factors, and our work shows that this gene is essential for *Leishmania* growth.

**Appendix 3** shows the generation of knockouts using CRISPR-Cas9 for key VCP cofactors such as *Li*Faf, *Li*NPL4 and *Li*Pub1. Our data suggest that these genes are essential for *Leishmania* growth.

**Appendix 4** introduces the putative link of *Li*VCP with the *Li*PLAA/Doa1/Lub1 protein whose homolog in yeast was shown to play a role in mitochondria associated degradation. Its putative role in mitochondria associated degradation is also highlighted in the general discussion section.
Appendix 5 shows the LiVCP localization in *Leishmania infantum* by different approaches using a HA-tagged VCP integrated into the VCP genomic locus or overexpressed as part of an episomal vector and or by fusing the VCP protein with GFP.

Appendix 6 presents immunofluorescence data supporting LiVCP co-localization with DHH1 (a stress granule associated protein) protein in *Leishmania infantum*.

Appendix 7 presents immunofluorescence data with PABP2, a stress granule associated protein, in *Leishmania infantum* and *Trypanosoma brucei*.

Appendix 8 presents immunofluorescence data supporting LiVCP partial co-localization with PABP2 protein in *Leishmania infantum*.

Appendix 9 shows data on the accumulation of mitochondrial ROS in mutant parasites with impaired VCP activity.

Appendix 10 presents preliminary data on the effect of drugs known to target VCP in other eukaryotes, such as DBeQ, NMS874 and ML240, on *Leishmania infantum* growth.
Introduction

1.1 General aspects of Leishmania biology and control

1.1.1 The order of Kinetoplastidae

Kinetoplastids are characterized by the presence of the Kinetoplast which contains the structurally complex mitochondrial genome (1). Best known as kDNA it is shared by different unicellular eukaryotic organisms. Kinetoplastidae have adapted to survive as free-living marine non-parasitic organisms such as Bodo saltans, as well as parasites of diverse invertebrate, vertebrate, and plant species such as Leptomonas spp, Trypanosoma spp. and Phytomonas spp. (Figure 1). The kDNA is formed by minicircles and maxicircles. Maxicircles encode for mitochondrial genes such as cytochrome b, cytochrome oxidase subunits and NADH dehydrogenase subunits. kDNA minicircles encode for guide RNAs (gRNAs) that play a lead role in RNA editing. This process alters DNA-encoded sequences and can repair or generate different transcripts by nucleoside insertions and deletions (mostly an uracil) (2). This way to correct errors and modulate genetic sequences at the RNA level appears to have arisen in evolution several times in different organisms (3) as they are also organized differently (1). Recent evidences detail how gene gain and loss associated with evolutionary innovations in kDNA allowed free-living phagotrophs to become adapted to exploiting hostile host environments (1,4). Among those kinetoplastids adapted to stress environment and in contrast to the majority of trypanosomatids, members of the Leishmania genus are not monoxenous and can be transmitted to sandflies and to invade mammals (5).
1.1.2 *Leishmania* and Leishmaniasis

*Leishmania*, one of the kDNA containing organisms, is a single celled eukaryotic protozoan parasite transmitted by a sandfly vector to humans, non-human primates (7), dogs (8), cats (9), silvatic mammals (10), marsupials (7), and much more. In humans, it causes a diverse group of diseases due to different *Leishmania* species that are classified into two major groups based on their clinical manifestations: visceral leishmaniasis (VL) and cutaneous leishmaniasis (CL) that includes the muco-cutaneous subgroup. All *Leishmania* species together have the potential to affect about 556 million people for VL and 399 million for CL in more than 98 countries (11). Every year, 0.2 to 0.4 million VL cases and 0.7 to 1.2 million CL cases, respectively, occur (12). Global burden and tools such as the Disability-adjusted life-years – DALYs – that represent the sum of the years lived with disability and years of life lost, have the potential to inform public health policy and priority-setting (13). Countries with the higher incidence for CL are within Africa and the Middle East (13) and another 13 countries is considered as high-burden for VL. Only Brazil has a high burden for both types of leishmaniasis (Figure 2) (11) and yet no efficacy control is in progress or under
development as public health policy to eradicate those preventable and debilitating diseases.

**Figure 2 - Leishmaniasis in high-burden countries.**
From (11).

Different *Leishmania* species can cause asymptomatic infection (14) as well as mild and severe clinical manifestations. The outcome is determined depending on the species, vector biology, and host factors (15). VL is the most severe form of leishmaniasis and is lethal, if left untreated. It is characterized by persistent fever and splenomegaly. Moreover, VL patients can present weight loss, anemia, hepatomegaly and, as laboratorial findings, pancytopenia and hypergammaglobulinaemia (16). CL, otherwise, is a self-healing disease in most cases that is characterized by skin lesions with different patterns (dry lesions to wet or ulcerating sores) depending on the species, location of bite and host immunity (17). In some cases, CL can evolve to oronasal mucocutaneous leishmaniasis and diffuse and recidivian forms of cutaneous leishmaniasis. Immunosupression is a major risk factor for the development of CL variants (17). Another clinical feature of leishmaniasis is the post-kala-azar dermal leishmaniasis (PKDL). PKDL occurs after an episode of treated VL in which parasites can persist in the skin and reemerge, in an immunodeficient episode and more frequently in immunocompromised patients, in a form of erythematous maculopapular rash around the body. HIV-patients are among those immunocompromised individuals. In fact,
Leishmania might accelerate HIV progression which renders the co-infection by these two pathogens a major public health problem (18).

1.1.3 Diagnosis

Historically, the diagnosis of leishmaniasis is based extrinsically on clinical signs combined with geographic localization and epidemiological data. Unfortunately, clinical pathology of the disease is complicated. CL lesions vary in number, size, clinical appearance (dry or wet lesion) duration of spontaneous cure and have similar characteristics with bacterial tropical ulcers, Hansen's disease, and others (19). On its turn, many symptoms of VL are also indicative for several other diseases (also present in endemic areas) such as chronic myeloid leukemia and liver cirrhosis (19,20). Furthermore, some species can cause different clinical outcomes and can be associated with different treatment regimens (see treatment section). Moreover, two or more Leishmania species can be present in half of endemic countries (Figure 3) and distinguishing them is important not only for molecular epidemiology purposes but also for medical purposes.
Figure 3 - Global distribution of 21 Leishmania species pathogenic for humans.

A: L. aethiopica; Am: L. amazonensis; B: L. braziliensis; C: L. colombiensis; D: L. donovani; G: L. guyanensis; Gh: 'Ghana strain'; I: L. infantum; La: L. lainsoni; L: L. lindenbergi; M: L. major; Ma: L. martiniquensis; Mx: L. mexicana; N: L. naiffi; Pa: L. panamensis; P: L. peruviana; S: L. 'siamensis'; Sh: L. shawi; T: L. tropica; V: L. venezuelensis and W: L. waltoni. From (19).
*Leishmania* can be detected in infections by microscopic examination of lesion biopsy smears for CL and aspirates of the spleen, bone marrow and lymph nodes for VL, which are then examined under the microscope following Giemsa-staining. This useful, rapid and cheap diagnostic approach is invasive, can be painful and does not allow discrimination between *Leishmania* species. Microscopic examination can be followed by parasite culturing *in vitro*, which can prolongate diagnosis for 7, 14, 21 days or more. Other methods with higher sensitivity and specificity are the conventional PCR and real time quantitative PCR (qPCR). In addition to diagnosis, in which kDNA target is more recommended (21), qPCR can be applied for monitoring disease progression (22), defining parasite virulence or drug resistance markers (23) and species discrimination (24). A handful of other methods are described and can be useful for detection, species identification and discrimination, parasite load quantification and molecular typing (Figure 4).

![Diagram](image)

**Figure 4** - Molecular markers and tools proposed for the diagnosis of leishmaniasis.

(19)
1.1.4 Treatment of Leishmaniasis

The treatment of leishmaniasis is still challenging and limiting. The current therapeutic approaches are effective only against specific Leishmania strains and some medications or dosage regimens have insufficient evidence to support their recommendation (25). Furthermore, special groups such as children under 3 years old and immunocompromised patients need different therapeutic regimens. Still, drug resistant parasites contribute to treatment failure (26).

The treatment for visceral leishmaniasis (VL) caused by Leishmania infantum is based on pentavalent antimonials, amphotericin B deoxycholate or liposomal amphotericin B (LAMB) (Table 1) (25). For VL patients infected with Leishmania donovani, in some parts of East Africa a combination of pentavalent antimonials and paramomycin is used and in the India subcontinent a combination of LAMB/Miltefosine (MF), LAMB/paramomycin(PM) or MF/PM can be used (Table 1). The difference of regimens and the doses as well as the combination of drugs is also a response to Treatment Failure (TF) and Drug Resistance (DR) (26). For cutaneous leishmaniasis, the treatment can include the use of pentamidine, LAMP, PM, MF in combination or not with local thermotherapy or cryotherapy, and the systemic use of azoles such as fluconazole, ketoconazole or allopurinol – each of them with different level of evidence (Table 2).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Leishmania species</th>
<th>LAMB</th>
<th>Pentavalent antimonials</th>
<th>Amphotericin B deoxycholate</th>
<th>Combination treatment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Leishmania infantum</td>
<td>10 mg/kg per daily dose by infusion given over 2 days, up to a total dose of 20 mg/kg</td>
<td>20 mg Sb5+* per kg per day intramuscularly or intravenously for 28 days</td>
<td>0.75–1.0 mg/kg per day by infusion, daily or on alternate days for 20–30 doses, for a total dose of 2–3 g</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3–5 mg/kg per daily dose by infusion given over 3–6 days, up to a total dose of 18–21 mg/kg</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leishmania donovani</td>
<td>3–5 mg/kg per daily dose by infusion given over 6–10 days up to a total dose of 30 mg/kg.</td>
<td>20 mg Sb5+* per kg per day intramuscularly or intravenously for 30 days</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>Pentavalent antimonials (20 mg Sb5+* per kg per day of intramuscularly [preferably]) or intravenously plus PM (15 mg [11 mg base] per kg bodyweight per day intramuscularly) for 17 days</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>East Africa</td>
<td>10 mg/kg as a single dose, or 3–5 mg/kg per daily dose up to a total dose of 15 mg/kg over 3–5 days</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>0.75–1.0 mg/kg per day by infusion, daily or on alternate days for 15–20 doses</td>
<td>LAMB (5 mg/kg single dose) plus MF (daily for 7 days, as per below) 9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indian subcontinent</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>LAMB (5 mg/kg single dose) plus PM (daily for 10 days, as per above) MF (as per below) plus PM (as per above), both daily for 10 days,</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sb5+=pentavalent antimonial. PM=paromomycin. SSG=sodium stibogluconate. LAMB=liposomal amphotericin B. MF=miltefosine. NA=not available. *Sb5+ can be either sodium stibogluconate (SSG) or meglumine antimoniate (MA); the respective doses are equivalent. Adapted from (17).
Table 2 - Selected treatment regimens for cutaneous and mucocutaneous leishmaniasis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Leishmania major</th>
<th>Combination treatment</th>
<th>Systemic treatment regimen</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Old World</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leishmania tropica and Leishmania infantum</td>
<td>15% paromomycin plus 12% methylbenzoic acid ointment for 20 days; the evidence for this regimen is graded A</td>
<td>Oral fluconazole 200 mg for 6 weeks; the evidence for this regimen is graded A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Intralungal antimonials plus cryotherapy, both every 3–7 days for 3–5 sessions; the evidence for this regimen is graded A</td>
<td>Pentavalent antimonials 20 mg/kg per day for 15 days plus oral amphotericin B 20 mg/kg for 30 days to treat recidivans caused by L tropica; the evidence for this regimen is graded C</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

WHO evidence grading system: evidence obtained from at least one properly designed randomised controlled trial was graded A; evidence obtained from well designed trials without randomisation was graded B; opinions of respected authorities based on clinical experience, descriptive studies, or reports of expert committees were graded C; and expert opinion without consistent or conclusive studies was graded D. Adapted from (17).
1.1.5 Vaccine development

As part of the control of leishmaniasis, the developing of a safe, effective, and affordable vaccine for their prevention remains an urgent need and a possible milestone. Primary infection, if cured, usually leads to protection against further infection (27). Hence, the practice of injecting live virulent parasites in healthy individuals called leishmanization (LZ) is so far the only effective way of inducing immunity against leishmaniasis in humans (28, 29). For safety reasons and difficulty of standardization of injecting parasites, it is no longer widely used (28–30). Nevertheless, those experiments show that generating a vaccine against *Leishmania* is a possible achievement.

The first-generation leishmaniasis vaccines were based on killed whole-parasites. Many strategies with autoclaved lysates producing different levels of protection were tried (28–30). A meta-analysis review shows however their inability to protect vaccinated individuals against infection by the *Leishmania* parasites (30,31). In fact, autoclaving does not mimic natural infection and can lower the immunogenicity of the parasite by destroying most of its proteins (32).

Another strategy of vaccination is the use of attenuated parasites. Several attempts tried to generate parasites lacking key factors for pathogenesis by repeated in vitro culturing or by gene knockouts (32–34). Although there is no licensed vaccine against human leishmaniasis, some human vaccine candidates have reached phase I and II clinical trials (35,36). Indeed, despite solid efficacy results and impact on parasite transmission, two canine vaccines are already in the market and post-marketing data would therefore be helpful to the progress towards effective and universal vaccines (37).

A third generation of vaccines is based on the use of DNA (38). It can combine a few different genes in a DNA plasmid to be translated inside the human body. Vaccination with plasmid DNA encoding protective *Leishmania* antigens gives a promising approach to vaccination against leishmaniasis. However, none of DNA vaccines for human trial has shown promising effects in accordance with the clinical trials (32).

1.1.6 Biology and life cycle of *Leishmania* spp.

During a blood feeding, an infected phlebotominae sand fly releases *Leishmania* infective metacyclic promastigotes to the mammalian host. The parasites invade macrophages and
other cells, undergo differentiation into amastigote forms inside the phagolysosome where they replicate. Amastigote-containing macrophages are ingested by sand flies during another blood meal and restart the cycle (Figure 5).

Figure 5 - Life cycle of Leishmania spp.

From (39)

1.1.7 Inside the vector

The majority of trypanosomatids are mostly commensals and parasites of insects (5). From the mammal host, *Leishmania* amastigote parasites can be ingurgitated during a sandfly blood meal. Inside the midgut of the vector, *Leishmania* will suffer the action of proteolytic enzymes and the peritrophic matrix (PM) of the insect which protect it against mechanical and chemical damage from blood meal and invaders (40). *Leishmania* developed resistance mechanisms such as the overexpression of proteophosphoglycan (PPG) on its surface that confers protection from midgut digestive enzymes (41). Furthermore, PPGs and the Promastigote Secretory Gel (PSG), a PPG-rich gel which accumulates in sand fly gut and mouthparts are important for *Leishmania* transmission and infection as they facilitate regurgitation by blocking the lumen of the insect’s anterior midgut and stomodeal valve (42). Although lots of parasites are killed during the insect life cycle, the remaining ones will
undergo structural changes into different promastigote subtypes that ultimately form metacyclic promastigotes.

Exosomes are another feature of *Leishmania* associated with vector-transmitted infections. *Leishmania* exosomes are secreted within the sand fly midgut and co-egested during the insect’s blood meal. They have been shown to enhance the disease pathology via overproduction of inflammatory cytokines (43) and are proposed to be an integral part of the parasite’s infectious life cycle (44). As exosomes contain specific lipids, proteins and nuclear materials, all together, these parasite-derived vesicles are a very interesting natural cocktail for vaccination purposes (45).

Once the parasites undergo transformation to metacyclic promastigotes and are present in the proboscis of an infected female sandfly, the vector can release the infective *Leishmania* to the mammalian host during a blood meal. The presence of 1-2 parasites is sufficient to infect the human host (46).

### 1.1.8 The host immune system

Once metacyclic promastigote parasites leave the sand fly environment towards the vertebrate host, multiple parallel events occur to defeat the microbial invader.

The neutrophils, Dendritic cells (DCs) and Macrophages are the main cells that are infected by *Leishmania*. Although neutrophils are the first ones to encounter and phagocyte *Leishmania*, the macrophages are their main host for their invasion and replication. Neutrophils are the first line of defense to generate an inflammatory response. To restrain the invading pathogens, they produce extracellular traps (NETs), an extracellular fiber network of granule proteins, as they generate a potent oxidative burst and secrete granule-derived toxic compounds in the surrounding environment.

Alongside, *Leishmania* are phagocytosed by immature dendritic cells and also DCs that migrate to lymphoid tissues to develop adaptive immunity. Infected DCs produce cytokine IL-12 resulting in the polarization of T cells toward Th1 subset and subsequent IFN-γ production to control the infection. IFN-γ signaling leads to activation and chemoattraction of macrophages to the site of infection and promote, on infected macrophages, expression of inducible nitric oxide (NO) synthase (iNOS, NOS2) and NO production that, together with reactive oxygen species (ROS), are essential to kill intracellular *Leishmania*. The consequent antigen-presenting process will activate a CD4+Th1 mediated immune
response to allow the total clearance of the parasites. A similar immunological response is desired in a future leishmanial vaccine and leshmanization was the only approach so far capable of inducing immunity in human subjects (28,29). Though, vaccine studies suggest that a balance between Th1 and Th2 response should be the goal to achieve (36), as antigens stimulating a Th1 response during the disease or after cure have shown no protective effect as vaccine (47, 48).

1.1.9 Silent entry of Leishmania

After phagocytosis by neutrophils, macrophages, and dendritic cells, Leishmania attempts to suppress their immune response. Neutrophils for instance, instead of generating an inflammatory response, may act as carriers that facilitate silent infection of macrophages – the so-called Trojan Horse theory (49,50). Similarly, some infected neutrophils can have their lifespan extended to be then silently phagocytized by DCs and macrophages. This may inhibit DC activation, motility and migration, delaying the development of adaptive immunity. The uptake of infected neutrophils by DCs also leads to the inhibition of CD8\(^+\) T cells priming (51).

To escape from NET-mediated killing, Leishmania can secrete nucleases and take advantage of endonuclease (Lundep) from the vector’s saliva (52). The expression of LPG on promastigotes might also be associated with Leishmania survival to NETs (53).

Promastigotes survive in neutrophils, but they do not differentiate into amastigotes. The inhibition of neutrophil-mediated oxidative burst as well the outcome and success of the “silent phase” of the neutrophils and DCs interaction with the parasite depends on the Leishmania species and the developmental stage.

Moreover, parasites modulate the pattern of cytokine secretion and inhibit the generation of NO and ROS, while extending the survival of the infected macrophages. Coupled with an anti-inflammatory response associated with TGF-\(\beta\) and IL-10 secretion, Leishmania regulates a favorable environment for its survival and division while avoiding a proper generation of the adaptive immune response. This immune response towards CD4\(^+\) T helper 2 (Th2) contributes to the development of a non-healing phenotype and grants the success of the parasite (54, 55).
1.1.10 Inside Macrophages

After silently entering the host cells, *Leishmania* take advantage of nearby neutrophil and other cells until they encounter their definitive host cell—macrophages. Once within macrophages, some *Leishmania* species may delay phagosome formation and maturation, preventing phagosome acidification and action of proteases, while securing the nutrients needed for their survival. The expression of some virulence factors, such as the glycolipid LPG, selectively modify the recruitment of phagosome maturation factors and the fusion with lysosomes (56). Inside of the so-called parasitophorous vacuole (PV), instead of being affected by NADPH oxidase, V-ATPase complexes and other anti-microbial responses, *Leishmania* is protected from oxidative damage and immune recognition (56). From this safe environment, *Leishmania* i) suppress inflammation by upregulating host PPAγ and protein tyrosine phosphatases, ii) prevents macrophage activation by interfering with the JAK/STAT pathway, iii) inhibits ROS generation by preventing NADPH oxidase assembly, iv) suppress efficient antigen presentation by MHC class II inhibition, and v) induce autophagy in macrophages. Then, inside this acidic, high-temperature, hydrolase- and ferrous-rich environment, promastigotes transform into nonmotile amastigotes.

1.1.11 PERK and Phosphorylation of the translation initiation factor eIF2α

One of the key events to preserve homeostasis inside a stressful environment is the phosphorylation of eukaryotic translation initiation factor 2 alpha (eIF2α) (57). Protein kinase R (PKR)-like endoplasmic reticulum kinase (PERK) is a protein synthesis regulator essential for the unfolded protein response (UPR) which makes it an attractive therapeutic target for the treatment of many diseases associated with ER stress and defects in proteostasis (58). The PERK-dependent phosphorylation of the alpha subunit of eukaryotic translation-initiation factor 2 (eIF2-α) leads to its inactivation and consequently to a decrease in translation initiation and a repression of global protein synthesis (59). For similar reasons, in *Leishmania*, this transmembrane protein kinase was demonstrated to be required for efficient promastigote to amastigote differentiation (60). Amastigotes have to enter in a slow growth state to adapt to the stressful conditions encountered inside macrophages (61).

Several other mechanisms and pathways must be present in *Leishmania* for helping the parasite to adapt to the rush environment and survive inside the vector and, as an amastigote form, inside the mammalian host. Several of these pathways, including those
involved in protein quality control, are well conserved in other eukaryotes and are considered in the next sections.

1.2 Stress response and quality control mechanisms

1.2.1 Protein Quality control (PQC)

Many organisms have evolved to maintain conserved the network of factors that are responsible for protein quality control (PQC) (62). To maintain protein homeostasis (proteostasis) the PQC has to continuously ensure the good conformational folding of nascent polypeptides as well as surveillance, prevention, and rescue of protein defects (63). Naturally, proteins are not always properly folded and they might need the cellular system to unfold or to degrade the misfolded and the normal proteins that needed to be recycled (64). To adapt to different unexpected challenging or stressfull situations, cells rely on chaperones, the ubiquitin-proteasome system (UPS) and autophagy (63). The immediate response to protein misfolding consists of decreasing global protein synthesis while increasing expression of chaperone-encoding genes and their availability (Figure 6). The missfolding signals also increase ubiquitination, thus proteasome degradation and the continuous stress signals can end up to an autophagy process to degrade large-molecular complexes and entire organelles (Figure 6) (63).
1.2.2 Chaperones and chaperonins

Chaperones recognize unfolded proteins by the presence of hydrophobic surface, as that portion is generally covered in a properly folded protein (62). The majority of chaperones are induced during stress and are identified as Heat Shock Proteins (HSP) with different molecular weights. Chaperones can hold the substrate until spontaneous folding occurs, can use ATP to unfold stable misfolded proteins and can work as disaggregases using ATP hydrolysis, always with the goal of properly refolding proteins (62). This protein folding action can facilitate protein import in different subcellular compartments and can receive help from chaperonins. These cylindrical-shaped multisubunit complexes form a cavity where the folding process takes place in a protected environment (63). Specific roles of important chaperones such as ER BiP protein and mitochondrial HSP70 are covered in the following

Figure 6 - Cellular responses to protein misfolding.
From (63).
ERAD and MAD sections. If such efforts fail, cells can rely on the ubiquitin (Ub)-proteasome system (UPS) or the autophagy-lysosome system.

1.2.3 UPS

The ubiquitin–proteasome system (UPS) is the major selective protein degradation pathway in eukaryotic cells. Proteins destined for degradation are tagged on lysine residues with the small protein ubiquitin (Ub, 8.5-kDa peptide, 76 amino acids) and subsequently degraded by the proteasome (65). The ubiquitylation of proteins is mediated by the sequential activities of the ubiquitin-activating enzymes (E1), the ubiquitin-conjugating enzymes (E2), and the ubiquitin ligases (E3), which determine substrate specificities (66). The ubiquitylation process starts with Ub activation by E1 in the presence of ATP. The ubiquitin is then transferred from E1 to E2. The E3 ligase recruits substrate and the ub-bound E2 to transfer the ubiquitin from E2 to the substrate. The successive cycles of ubiquitin conjugation form polyubiquitin chains that are the main signal for proteasomal degradation. Once in proteasome, substrates are degraded into short peptides and then by the action of aminopeptidases (APPs) are further broken down into amino acids (Figure 7) (67).
Figure 7 - The ubiquitin–proteasome system.

From (67).

The accumulation of misfolded proteins due to translation errors, misfolding, or age-induced or chemical damage can be toxic and thus the UPS has to take care of that wherever unwanted proteins are. Because of this, more specific associated degradation (AD) processes take place to control the quality of proteins before and during synthesis at the ribosome (RQC section), in the Endoplasmic Reticulum (ERAD section), mitochondria (MAD section) and other locations such as cytoplasmic stress granules to limit their cellular accumulation.
1.2.4 RQC

Protein translation with a magnitude of around 3 million ribosomes working to translate codons at a rate of close to six amino acids per second is a remarkably efficient but an expensive process that consumes up to 75% of the cell’s total energy (68). To initiate translation on a given mRNA, the cap-binding factor eIF4E, the scaffold protein eIF4G and the poly(A) binding protein are first bound to the mRNA and facilitate the recruitment of the 40S ribosome subunit and the initiator methionine tRNA to form the initiation complex which will subsequently recruit the 60S subunit allowing the full assembly of translating ribosomes. As the elongation complex advances, tRNAs are charged with the correct amino acid and the translation proceeds. Then, several HSPs with the help of chaperonins assist the nascent peptide chains to fold and to form in their native protein state (68). Though, the folding and maintenance of proteins in their functional, native, 3D conformations frequently fail. A defect on mRNAs (aberrant or truncated or highly structured mRNAs) or an insufficient amino acid or tRNA numbers, or an unproper folding of nascent peptides can cause ribosome stalling and delay or stop the elongation process (Figure 8).

Figure 8 - Causes of aberrant translation elongation.
From (69).
In cases of ribosome stalling, the accumulation of protein aggregates can become toxic for the cell. The stalled 60S subunits of ribosomes with peptides and tRNA stops translation and can lead to protein aggregation. The Ribosome quality control (RQC) complex recognizes those aberrant peptides, extracts them from the stalled 60S subunit and delivers them to the proteasome (70). The RQC complex contains an E3 ligase (Ltn1/Listerin) and Rqc2/NEMF protein that cooperates with the ATPase Cdc48/p97 through the heterodimer formed by its co-factors Ufd1/UFD1L and Npl4/NPLOC4 (Figure 9) (70). Briefly, the first step of RQC involves subunits separation of the stalled ribosome. Then, the released 60S subunit exposes the peptidyl-tRNA that is recognized by RQC components. The NEMF protein binds to the exposed interface and prevents reassociation of the ribosome subunits. Listerin E3 ligase, through the binding of its RING domain, facilitates the ubiquitination of the nascent aberrant peptides (69). The Cdc48–Ufd1–Npl4 complex acts then downstream of Ltn1 to promote release of the peptide from the ribosome, so that it can be degraded by the proteasome (Figure 9) (71).

Figure 9 - Steps and factors of RQC.
From (69).

1.2.5 ERAD

The Endoplasmic Reticulum (ER)-associated protein degradation (ERAD) is one of the major quality-control machineries that monitors the biosynthesis, assembly, and trafficking of most proteins (72). It is the main site for protein folding in mammalian systems as one-third of all proteins enter the ER (64). During translation, a series of events occur to properly
fold and assemble proteins. To accomplish this objective, proteins are targeted to ER by signal peptides and there receive multiple modifications, such as disulfide bond formation, cis-trans isomerization, N-link glycosylation, and signal peptide cleavage to stabilize them and present the nascent proteins to their final destinations (73). To promote protein efficient folding, chaperones (as the HSP70 - BiP and HSP90) identify immature or aberrant proteins by hydrophobic exposed segments. This task is shared with chaperone co-factors and isomerase proteins such as the protein disulfide isomerase (PDI) (73). Some of those nascent polypeptides (e.g. Pex2p, Pex10p, Pex11p, Pex12p) can be exported as vesicles to form peroxisomes (74), as others will be delivered to Golgi and other locations (73).

While folded proteins exit the ER, the unwanted proteins have to follow retrotranslocation to the cytoplasm and then to proteasome for degradation. This coordinated process starts with recognition of the unfolded substrate by chaperones (e.g. BiP) and lectins, followed by specific proteins ER adaptors such as SEL1L and then channel retrotranslocation (e.g. HRD1, DER1) (Figure 10). Once the substrate is translocated across the ER lipid bilayer, VCP/p97 protein can proceed with extraction right after substrate polyubiquitination (Figure 10) (72,75). For this purpose, the ATPase protein acts with several co-factors as the ERAD involved protein complex NPL4-UFD1 (76). The whole process is highly conserved among eukaryotes and most of the understanding of the mammalian ERAD system comes from yeast and other organisms (77,78).
1.2.6 UPR

The accumulation of misfolded proteins inside the ER can trigger the Unfolded Protein Response (UPR). This activation is a signal to ER membrane sensors such as the IRE1α, PERK and ATF6 (63). Altogether, they increase protein fold activity and degradation while protein translation decreases. A similar inducible and acute reaction can be led by the mitochondrial UPR (UPRmt). Mitochondrial stress can communicate to the nucleus and results in the increased expression of mitochondrial-associated protein chaperones (68). Nevertheless, the specific signal and downstream effects still remain unclear (68). Furthermore, exposure to severe stress and continuous activation of the UPR could trigger autophagy (79) or drive signaling toward cell death (57).
1.2.7 Mitochondria and MAD

Beside its main role on energy production, mitochondria perform numerous essential functions for the survival of eukaryotic cells, such as calcium storage, fatty acid oxidation and ATP production (80). Mitochondrial importance is further highlighted by the number of conserved genes and pathways in different models that involve human mitochondria in health and disease (81). During cellular metabolism, the action of electrons passing through the mitochondrial electron transport chain produces Reactive Oxygen Species (ROS) as by-products, which can then damage lipids and proteins inside mitochondria (81). Several mitochondrial control pathways have evolved to maintain mitochondrial integrity ensuring that dysfunctional mitochondria proteins are either repaired or eliminated. These include DNA replication and repair; removal of reactive oxygen species (ROS); fission and fusion process to regulate mitochondrial morphology or whole organelle removal (mitophagy) (82) (Figure 11).

![Figure 11 - Mitochondrial protein control pathways.](image)

From (82).

As a first line of defense, ROS is converted to peroxide (H₂O₂) by the superoxide dismutase enzyme (SOD). Peroxiredoxin enzymes and peroxisome catalase can moderate the
damaging effect of $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$, converting it into $\text{H}_2\text{O}$ and $\text{O}_2$ (81). Nevertheless, especially under cellular stress, ROS does cause mitochondrial damage and the cell has to deal and remove the damaged components. Misfolded proteins can be refolded and mitochondrial Hsp70 might prevent denatured proteins from forming protein aggregates (81). Yet, most mitochondrial damaged proteins will be eliminated by different degradation systems, including proteases, mitophagy, and ubiquitin-dependent degradation. To remove the damaged components, a network of AAA+ ATPases selects, destroys and recycles the proteins from mitochondria. These proteins can bind and hydrolyse ATP to promote disaggregation and removal of damaged proteins. These proteases are anchored in the mitochondrial inner membrane (MIM) on the matrix side or on the intermembrane space (IMS) side (80). Still, the complete IMM retro-translocation to the cytosolic face remains under debate. Recently, the ubiquitination of intramitochondrial proteins was proposed to occur inside the matrix and intramembrane space, after which ubiquitinated proteins accumulate (65). Nevertheless, how IMM-ubiquitinated proteins reach the cytosolic proteasome, remains unknown (65).

By contrast, the turnover of outer mitochondrial membrane (OMM) proteins is more documented and appears to happen in cooperation with the ubiquitin proteasome system (UPS). The yeast Vms1 protein translocates to mitochondria, interacts with VCP and plays a role in recruiting the UPS for mitochondrial protein degradation (83). In mammals, the E3 ligase parkin is responsible for regulating the recruitment of VCP to the mitochondria (84). These studies established Cdc48/p97/VCP as a novel and essential component of the OMM-associated protein degradation pathway (85). The so-called Mitochondria-associated degradation (MAD) is thought to be mediated by the VCP complex that pulls over the ubiquitinated mitochondrial outer-membrane proteins and bring them to the proteasome for degradation. A critical mediator of the MAD process was recently unveiled - the Doa1 protein. This yeast protein composed by PUL (PLAA) VCP binding site and two ubiquitin binding sites (WD40 and PFU) was shown to recruit the ubiquitinated substrates and facilitate substrate interaction with the Cdc48-Ufd1-Npl4 complex in the mitochondria and being hence critical to the mitochondrial proteostasis (86). The MAD process has yet a lot to be unveiled as most substrates and specific co-factors are still under covered.

By contrast to the ubiquitin-dependent degradation that is a highly specific mechanism controlling numerous essential cellular functions (87), accumulation of misfiled and or aggregated proteins might induce the fusion-fission process or mitochondrial autophagy
(mitophagy), a pathway resulting in the degradation of the complete organelle in the lysosome (66). Mitophagy and proteases are mainly related to damage or stress-induced responses and exhibit low specificity (88).

1.2.8 Autophagy

Autophagy is a cellular mechanism involved in orderly degradation and recycling of cellular components. Autophagy can be identified as microautophagy, chaperone mediated autophagy (CMA) and macroautophagy lysosome (89). The first is a degradation process where the lysosome extends its membrane to invaginate other cellular contents. CMA requires a specific protein sequence KFERQ recognized by a chaperone protein (HSC70) to deliver the unwanted proteins to the lysosomal membrane. The most prevalent autophagy pathway, macroautophagy, involves the formation of the autophagosome. This spherical double membrane structure entraps cytoplasmic components, or entire organelles, and then fuses them with the lysosome (89).

1.2.9 Proteasome complex

As mentioned, most quality control pathways end up with the ubiquitination of unwanted proteins and subsequent delivery to proteasomal degradation. However, the proteasome is not programmed for automatic protein destruction and ubiquitination alone does not necessarily lead to protein degradation. The final protein fate is actually judged by the proteasome. In fact, once in the proteasome, proteins can be deubiquitylated, escape proteolysis and be released by the 26S proteasome subunit (90). After Ub-mediated docking of the substrate at the proteasome, the 19-subunit regulatory particle (RP) removes ubiquitin and translocates the target protein into the proteolytic chamber of the core particle (CP) (91). At this step, the protein must already be unfolded and deubiquitylated, as ubiquitinated substrates can resist unfolding (91). The rate of protein degradation and its recognition patterns, processing (co)/factors and the selective degradation of some proteins are still subjects of intense studies (90). Polypeptides entering into the CP are then digested to short peptides and subsequently to amino acids by cytosolic peptidases (90).

The proteasome is the most prominent protease complex harboring AAA-ATPases in eukaryotes. In these protein degradation machineries, the proteolytically active sites are formed by either threonines or serines which are buried inside interior cavities of cylinder-shaped complexes (92). ATPases Associated with diverse cellular Activities (AAA proteins)
couple chemical energy provided by ATP hydrolysis to conformational changes which are transduced into mechanical force exerted on a macromolecular substrate. Proteins belonging to this family are involved in processes such as DNA replication, protein degradation, membrane fusion, microtubule severing, peroxisome biogenesis, signal transduction and the regulation of gene expression. A myriad of proteins is subject to AAA-ATPase coupled protein degradation by proteasomes (92). Among them, is the ubiquitous AAA+ ATPase VCP/p97/Cdc48.

No work has been done on VCP protein or its pathways in Leishmania and only a pair of studies in Trypanosoma brucei was published a decade ago (93,94). Furthermore, VCP co-factors were not studied in any trypanosomatidae. For these reasons and for introducing the work conducted during my PhD thesis on VCP/p97/Cdc48 and its co-factors in Leishmania, we included below a whole section reviewing the specific functions of VCP in other eukaryotic systems.
1.3 VCP

Valosin-containing protein (VCP) (p97 in mammals and Cdc48 in yeast) is a conserved AAA+ protein with ATPase-based unfoldase activity associated with several major quality control pathways. It plays a main role in protein degradation and is associated with multiple ubiquitin-dependent cell signaling pathways in different organisms.

1.3.1 VCP Structure and ATPase regulation

The VCP protein has an hexameric structure shaped like a mushroom, built up by 12 ATPase domains that make a cylindrical middle form, topped with the N-terminal domain which can change to up- and down- conformation (95) (Figure 12). D1 and D2 work together, although they have different functions. While D2 is the essential domain for ATPase activity related to unfolding process and translocation of the substrate through the VCP central pore, D1 is more relevant to deubiquitination and substrate release (96). The activity of those ATPases can change in function depending on up- or down- conformation (increase and decrease, respectively) co-factor binding (97), the class of the co-factor bound and the additional presence of K48-ubiquitinated substrate (95) or be regulated by some post-translational modifications (98).

Each monomer of the hexameric VCP protein is composed by an N-terminal domain followed by two ATPase domains and an unstructured C-terminal extension (99) (Figure 12). The N-domain can be further subdivided into Nn and Nc subdomains. This structure allows the association of a large variety of adaptors to VCP, the recruitment of different substrates and modulates the formation of different VCP/p97-cofactor complexes within different cellular localization (98,100,101).
Figure 12 - Structure of human p97 hexamer.
N domain (green) and the two ATPase domains D1 (cyan) and D2 (blue). From (102).

1.3.2 General mode of VCP action

Especially under stress conditions, VCP mitigates proteotoxic and organellar stress by playing a major role in the degradation of unwanted/toxic proteins (102). Polyubiquitinated substrates are extracted from macromolecular complexes and membranes by VCP/Cdc48 in cooperation with its cofactors through a pulling force that causes protein unfolding (103). The protein is then delivered to proteasomal degradation and the polyubiquitin chains are trimmed to oligoubiquitin by deubiquitinating enzymes – DUBs (103).

Most misfolded proteins are post-translationally modified with ubiquitin by the ubiquitinating enzymes E1, E2, and E3 (Figure 13). As most VCP substrates described are ubiquitinated, their interaction is mediated by adaptor proteins/binding partners which contain both VCP-interacting and ubiquitin-interacting sites (95). Using its ATPase activity, VCP takes out the protein from the binding partner as it unfolds ubiquitinated substrates by translocation through its central pore (see section – unfoldase activity) and then hands over to the proteasome for final degradation (Figure 13).
1.3.3 VCP unfoldase activity

VCP is an unfoldase that pulls the polypeptide substrate through its central pore (103). D1 domain, while in down conformation, binds to ATP as the substrate binds to the VCP complex with, e.g., the UN cofactor. The pulling force exerted by the D2 ATPase domain results in the unfolding of the substrate that passes through the central pore and then released with ubiquitin moieties in the D2 side of the central pore (103). Meanwhile, part of the ubiquitin chain is released from the substrate D1 side in cooperation with deubiquitinating enzymes - DUBs like OTU1 (Figure 14).

Figure 14 - Model for VCP unfolding activity.
Adapted from (103). 1) Cdc48 starts out with the D1 ATPases in the ADP-bound state. The N domains are in the down-conformation, co-planar with the D1 ring. 2) When the D1 domain binds ATP, the N domains move upward. 3) Substrate is initially bound to the Cdc48 complex exclusively through an interaction of the attached K48-linked polyubiquitin chain with the UN cofactor. 4) Substrate binding
also stimulates ATP hydrolysis in the D2 domain. This activity allows pore loops in the D2 ring to move and drag the substrate polypeptide through the central pore. 5) The pulling force exerted by the D2 ATPases results in the unfolding of the substrate. During translocation, most of the polyubiquitin moiety remains on the cis side, bound to the UN cofactor. However, a portion of the ubiquitin chain can enter the central pore along with the substrate. 6) The final step is substrate release. Once D1 has hydrolyzed ATP, the N domains convert back to the down-conformation, allowing access of the polyubiquitin chain to the deubiquitinating enzyme Otu1. 7) When the ubiquitin chain has been shortened sufficiently, its affinity for the UN complex is reduced or lost, and the remaining ubiquitin moieties are unfolded and pulled through the central pore. The ubiquitin probably refolds rapidly after translocation, although this needs to be tested by future experimentation.

### 1.3.4 VCP functions

Central to the Ubiquitin Proteasome System (UPS), VCP plays a key role in a variety of fundamental cellular processes aiming at cellular proteostasis (102,104,105). Indeed, VCP/p97 is involved in the extraction of misfolded proteins, especially under stress conditions, from the endoplasmic reticulum (ER-associated protein degradation, ERAD) (64,106) and similarly in the translocation of damaged mitochondrial proteins from the outer mitochondrial membrane into the cytosol (OMM-associated degradation) (83, 84), the ribosome quality control (108), the removal of chromatin-bound proteins (109), genome stability (110), stress granules clearance (111) and the removal of damaged lysosomes by autophagy (112). For more details, see previous RAD, MAD and ERAD sections.

### 1.3.5 VCP Co-factors

In conjunction with a large number of cofactors and adaptors, VCP uses ATP hydrolysis to segregate proteins from immobile cellular structures that often results in proteasomal degradation of the extracted polypeptides (113).

### 1.3.6 VCP binding modules

Despite the large number of cofactors, these specifically interact with VCP via a small number of conserved binding modules (100). Overall, only three different interaction sites have been identified so far in VCP: the hydrophobic inter-subdomain Nn-Nc cleft (99), the SHP binding site in the Nc subdomain, and the unstructured tail formed by the last 7 amino acids in the C-terminus of VCP (98,100,101). Most co-factors, whether they have a substrate-recruiting, processing or regulatory function, interact with the N-terminus of VCP.
Proteins containing the UBX modules interact by the Rx(3)FPR motif within the Nn-Nc cleft of the N-domain of VCP (Figure 15). Co-factors harboring either a VIM (VCP-interacting motif) or VBM (VCP-binding motif) binding motif also interact within the same hydrophobic pocket located in the N-domain (98) (Figure 15A). Differently, but also in the N domain, cofactors with a SHP binding site, h(x)_{1-2}F/W(x)_{0-1}GxGxL (h, hydrophobic amino acid residue; x, any amino acid), interact with the subdomain Nc of VCP (98) (Figure 15B). Otherwise, a few co-factors interact with the C-terminus of VCP. These proteins contain a PUB or PUL domain which form a hydrophobic pocket for interactions with the VCP tail associating with key amino acids such as the Leucine\textsuperscript{804} and the aromatic side chain of the penultimate tyrosine\textsuperscript{805} residue (98,100,101) (Figure 15C).

![Figure 15 - Co-factor binding sites within VCP.](image)

**A) Co-factor interaction with Nn-Nc cleft of the N-domain of VCP.** Molecular surface of VCP. Right, FAF1-UBX—VCP N complex. The UBX domain (colored in gold) is shown in cartoon representation and p97 N as molecular surface. The R...FPR motif is shown in stick representation. **B) Co-factor interaction with Nc subdomain of VCP.** Top left, molecular surface of VCP with the SHP binding site indicated. Bottom left, cartoon representation of the overall structure of the UFD1 SHP binding motif (colored in purple) bound to the VCP N domain (β-strands in dark gray and α-helices in light gray). Right - Stick representations of the SHP binding motifs of UFD1 and DER1. **C) Interaction of VCP with PUB and PUL.**
domain-containing cofactor. Top, molecular surface of VCP with the VCP C-terminal cofactor binding site indicated. Bottom, overall structure of the VCP C-terminus (stick representation) bound to the PNGase PUB domain shown in cartoon representation. All figures are from (98).

1.3.7 Co-factor diversity

Most of VCP co-factors in mammals contain the ubiquitin X domain (UBXD) or UBXL (UBX-like) with similar three-dimensional structure described for ubiquitin. Ubiquitination per se is not required for p97 function, as protein substrates can bind directly with some co-factors, without the presence of a UBA domain (114). Proteins such as UBXD1 (UBXN6), UBXD2 (Erasin, UBXN4), UBXD3 (UBXN10), UBXD4 (UBXN2A), UBXD5 (Socius, COA-1, UBXN11), UBXD6 (Rep-8, UBXN8), UBXD9 (TUG, ASPL, ASPSCR1), and UBXD11 (P37, UBXN2B) contain only UBX domain. Other co-factors, the UBA-UBX proteins, such as UBXD7 (UBXN7), UBXD8 (FAF2), UBXD10 (P47, NSFL1C), UBXD12 (FAF1), and UBXD13 (SAKS1, and UBXN1) also accommodate an UBA domain fundamental for interacting with ubiquitinated substrates (113,115). Some proteins, such as the p47, harbor not only the UBX and the UBA domains that are important for their role in the ubiquitin proteasome system (UPS) but also contains a SHP motif as an additional binding site for VCP interaction (101). Other proteins form complexes to interact with VCP. One of the most well studied VCP co-factor, the UFD1 protein, associates with the NPL4 protein to form the complex VCP-UFD1-NPL4 involved in a series of events, including the Endoplasmic Reticulum-associated degradation (ERAD) (116). Finally, other cofactors containing PUB (PNGase/UBA or UBX containing proteins) or PUL (PLAP, Ufd3p, and Lub1p) domain can harbor the unstructured C-terminal tail of VCP (117) (Figure 16).
1.3.7.a  **UFD1-NPL4**

Ufd1-Npl4 (UN) is one of the most studied VCP cofactors. This heterodimer links VCP to multiple cellular processes such as the Endoplasmic Reticulum-associated degradation (ERAD) (95,113,118). A recent model proposes that UFD1 binds to the Nc portion of VCP through its two SHP sites, meanwhile the UBX-like and Zn finger domains of NPL4 help its binding to VCP (116). The heterodimer UN forms, together with VCP a structure to accommodate and interact with at least 5 ubiquitin molecules. This UN-VCP complex would serve as a universal module to recognize multiple ubiquitinated substrates and then
translocate them to the VCP central pore through ATP hydrolysis from its D2 domain. As the substrate passes through the central pore (D1 to D2 side), the D1 ATPase domain would trim the ubiquitin chain in association with deubiquitinases, as the Otu1 (103,116). The unfolded substrate would then be delivered to the proteasome system. However, the mechanics of this process still need to be better addressed.

1.3.7.b p47

p47 (UBXN2C, UBXD10, NSFL1C) is one of the first identified and most abundant VCP adapters (119). As one of the most prominent co-factors, it contains an UBA domain responsible for ubiquitin binding, a SEP (after Shp1, eyc, and p47) domain of unknown function and an UBX domain that interacts with VCP. The UBX domain along with SEP are responsible for p47 trimerization, when coupled with VCP, to form the stable complex VCP-p47 (101,120). p47 has been linked to membrane dynamics during cell division (119), Golgi membrane fusion (121) and to inflammation as it cooperates to the degradation of IκB kinase (IKK) regulator, an NF-κB essential modulator (NEMO) (122). p47 is mainly localized to the nucleus during specific cellular phases (123) and its phosphorylation interferes with membrane attachment in some organelles (123). p47 was also recently associated with ERAD as the p47 gene is rapidly increased during ERAD (124). However, complex disassembly or protein unfolding has not been demonstrated for p47 substrates (114).

1.3.7.c FAF

The Fas-associated factor-1 (FAF1) also binds to VCP in a 3:6 ratio via the UBX site (125). Although the cooperation between FAF1 protein and the UFD1-NPI4 complex was previously demonstrated to be important to the ERAD system (126), lately this protein was shown to be important to DNA replication. The FAF1 human protein and its homolog UBXN-3 in nematodes were demonstrated to avoid stalling of fork replication and thus preventing activation of the DNA damage response (127). More recently, FAF1 was shown to be important for nematode DNA replication termination and mitosis (128).

With similar structure but different functions, the FAF2 protein (UBXD8 or ETEA) interacts with VCP through its UBX site. This human protein is part of the UBX-UBA class of co-factors as it also possesses an UBA domain, as FAF1. But differently, FAF2 acts in the regulation of intracellular fatty acid storage as some fatty acid (FA) associated proteins are degraded by the ERAD system through the interaction of the VCP-FAF2 complex (129).
Indeed, the FAF2 protein can be found not only in the ER membrane, but also in lipid drops (LD) (130,131). Moreover, this membrane-bound protein is shown to bind to substrate proteins in the ER while recruiting VCP to complete protein extraction from the ER membrane to the cytoplasm for proteasomal degradation (129,130).

1.3.7.d PUB

A smaller group of proteins binds the VCP C-terminal sequence DDLYG-COOH (95). PUB (PNGase/UBA- or UBX-containing proteins) and PUL (PLAA,Ufd3p and Lub1p) domains form a hydrophobic pocket into which the VCP tail binds to. Although the physiological significance of this interaction remains to be determined, the phosphorylation at the Y805 blocks VCP-PUB interaction and hence disturbs the ERAD process (117,132). PLAA (phospholipase A-2- activating protein) proteins binds to VCP via its PUL domain and interacts with ubiquitin though its WD40 (WD-repeat) and PFU (PLAA family ubiquitin binding) domains (95). A homolog of human PLAA in yeast, the Doa1 (degradation of alpha 1) protein is essential for mitochondrial oxidative stress response, and acts in cooperation with the Cdc48-Ufd1-Npl4 complex to mediate degradation of mitochondrial substrates (86).

1.3.8 VCP relevance to human disease

Given the diversity of VCP substrates, this unfoldase protein has profound influence on cellular physiology ranging from protein homeostasis to DNA lesion sensing (113). Point mutations that cause, for example, multisystem proteinopathy 1 (MSP1) lead to destabilization of the ADP-bound, “down” conformation of the N-domain, which favors the “up” conformation. As some co-factors such as p47 bind more tightly to the ATP-bound (up) conformation, these VCP mutants have high-affinity to some co-factors and may compromise the dynamics and functions of VCP protein complexes (97,133). Mutations in VCP can also lead to protein aggregation and have been linked to several diseases, including cancer and neurodegenerative and muscular disorders (134–136).

1.3.9 Therapeutic potential of VCP inhibitors

Given that VCP mutations have been associated with a number of human diseases where protein aggregates are formed, drugs targeting VCP are being actually developed. Besides the fact that several neurodegenerative disorders are associated with VCP mutations, VCP was found up-regulated in many forms of cancer (137).
The first studies targeting VCP demonstrated that some compounds could potently inhibit cancer cell growth (138). Since then, several other molecules emerged as potential VCP inhibitors such as the DBeQ, NMS, ML240/ML241, Eerl, and others. (95). Moreover, some compounds targeting VCP and other protein quality control proteins were considered against some parasitic protozoa. As in these parasites there is less components relative to higher eukaryotes, members of trypanosomatids and the causative agents of malaria and toxoplasmosis could be more sensitive to the inhibition of protein quality control systems such as VCP (139). Harbut and colleagues reported that some compounds that target the ER quality control pathway demonstrated nanomolar activities and could therefore be used as antiparasitic therapeutics such as the DBeQ drug on Plasmodium falciparum (139).

1.3.9.a DBeQ

DBeQ (N2,N4-dibenzylquinazoline-2,4-diamine) is a specific inhibitor of p97 protein identified as selective, potent, reversible, and ATP-competitive p97 inhibitor (138). It prevents the degradation of ubiquitinated proteins and blocks the ERAD pathway. The DBeQ rises also as a new strategy to control other opportunistic human pathogens such as Candida albicans (140).

1.3.9.b NMS

High-throughput screening led to the development of new covalent and allosteric compounds that inhibit VCP. One of the major outcomes, the allosteric NMS-873 was identified as UPR activator and the most potent and specific VCP inhibitor described today (141). Later, this NMS compound was shown to modulate co-factors binding to VCP with distinct effects on the interaction of different adaptors (142) as well one mechanism to overcome such effect (143). In the presence of cytotoxicity effects produced by the VCP inhibitor NMS-873, the binding of some co-factors is increased, and a mutation in the D2 domain of the p97 sequence (A530T) was sufficient to overcome the NMS-873 drug effect and to become insensitive to it (143). This work has shown that some drug side effects can be overcome by adaptive changes without affecting the drug binding and thus raise questions on VCP drug resistance.
1.3.9.c  **ML240 and ML241**

Using high-throughput screening coupled with structure–activity relationship (SAR) studies, researches arrived to two new potent and selective inhibitors of VCP derived from the DBeQ molecule – ML240 and ML241 (144).

1.3.9.d  **CB-5083**

Another compound, the small-molecule inhibitor of VCP, CB-5083 - Cleave Bioscience, is emerging as an approach to treat cancer (145). From the optimization of DBeQ and ML240 compounds, the improved VCP inhibitor CB-5083 is orally bioavailable and induces a strong unfolded protein response that leads to disruption of protein homeostasis and cancer cell death. This VCP inhibitor is an ATP-competitive binding molecule that targets the D2 domain of VCP and demonstrates antitumor effects in vivo in multiple myeloma and solid tumor models (145).

1.3.9.e  **Disulfiram**

Other drugs might target some VCP co-factors. Some studies have identified an association of the use of the alcohol-abuse drug disulfiram (tetraethylthiuram disulfide, DSF) with lower risk of death from cancer. Recently, the NPL4 cofactor was suggested as one of its molecular target (146).

As novel promising therapeutic approach, VCP, and now some co-factors, keep being suggested and tested as therapeutic targets in several diseases such as Acute Lymphoblastic Leukemia (147). Due to the evolutive conservation of those proteins and considering the drug availability and the possibility of drug repurposing, those compounds are of interesting value for testing their potentiality against *Leishmania* and leishmaniasis.
Chapter 1: Hypothesis and Objectives

1.1 Hypothesis

As is the case for its eukaryotic counterparts, the *Leishmania* (Li) VCP is a conserved AAA+ (ATPases associated with diverse cellular activities) ATPase that uses its ATP hydrolysis to segregate ubiquitinated proteins from their binding partners and deliver them to the 26S proteasome for degradation, thus playing a key role in *Leishmania* protein quality control.

1.2 Objectives

Although VCP and its cofactors have extensively been studied in yeast and higher eukaryotes, there is no work done on this important protein and its contribution to diverse cellular pathways in *Leishmania*. Only a pair of studies in *Trypanosoma brucei* was published a decade ago. Furthermore, VCP co-factors have not been studied in any trypanosomatid parasite. Given the central role of this protein in protein quality control, especially under conditions of stress, such as *Leishmania* experiences inside macrophages, we undertook a series of experiments, as part of my PhD thesis, to characterize the VCP/p97/Cdc48 protein homolog and its co-factor network, as well as to assess the role of VCP in the parasite response to stress and its intracellular development.

1.2.1 Objective 1

Study *LvCP* expression, localization, and its role in the parasite survival during its digenetic life cycle.

1.2.2 Objective 2

Characterize the *LvCP* protein network in *Leishmania* and identify *LvCP* major cofactors and their interacting partners.
Chapter 2: Valosin-containing protein VCP/p97 is essential for the intracellular development of *Leishmania* and its survival under heat stress

2.1 Avant-propos

This chapter corresponds to a scientific paper entitled “Valosin-containing protein VCP/p97 is essential for the intracellular development of *Leishmania* and its survival under heat stress” by Guedes Aguiar, B., Padmanabhan, P. K., Dumas, C., & Papadopoulou, B. published on June 5, 2018 in *Cellular Microbiology*. This paper is presented as it was published. The study was designed by BGA and BP. All experiments were performed by BGA with help of CD and PKP. The paper was written and corrected by BGA and BP.

Valosin-containing protein VCP/p97 is essential for the intracellular development of *Leishmania* and its survival under heat stress

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2.2 Résumé

VCP/p97/Cdc48 est l'une des AAA + ATPases cytosoliques de type II les mieux caractérisées et les plus connues pour leur rôle dans le contrôle de la qualité des protéines dépendant de l'ubiquitine. Nous fournissons ici un aperçu fonctionnel du rôle de l'homologue de VCP, VCP/p97 (LVCP), chez *Leishmania* dans le développement intracellulaire du parasite. Nous démontrons que, bien que LVCP soit un gène essentiel, les promastigotes de *L. infantum* peuvent se développer avec moins de VCP. En revanche, la croissance des amastigotes axéniques et intracellulaires est considérablement affectée par la diminution des taux de LVCP chez les mutants LVCP hétérozygotes et sensibles à la température ou chez des mutants dominants négatifs connus pour cibler spécifiquement le deuxième domaine ATPase de VCP qui contribue largement à l'activité ATPase globale. Fait intéressant, ces mutants de VCP sont également incapables de survivre le stress thermique et un mutant de VCP sensible à la température est défectueux pour sa croissance en amastigotes. Conformément à la fonction essentielle de LVCP chez les amastigotes, l'expression de l'ARNm de LVCP est induite à ce stade développemental via un mécanisme de régulation dépendant du 3'UTR. De plus, nous montrons que les lignées mutantes de parasites exprimant des niveaux de VCP plus faibles ou des formes de VCP agissants comme des mutants dominant négatifs présentent une forte accumulation de protéines polyubiquitinées et une sensibilité accrue au stress protéotoxique, soutenant la fonction de chaperone sélective pour l'ubiquitine de LVCP. Ensemble, ces résultats soulignent le rôle crucial que LVCP joue en conditions de stress thermique et lors du développement intracellulaire du parasite.
2.3 Abstract

VCP/p97/Cdc48 is one of the best-characterized type II cytosolic AAA+ ATPases most known for their role in ubiquitin-dependent protein quality control. Here, we provide functional insights into the role of the *Leishmania* VCP/p97 homolog (*LiVCP*) in the parasite intracellular development. We demonstrate that although *LiVCP* is an essential gene, *L. infantum* promastigotes can grow with less VCP. In contrast, growth of axenic and intracellular amastigotes is dramatically affected upon decreased *LiVCP* levels in heterozygous and temperature sensitive *LiVCP* mutants or the expression of dominant negative mutants known to specifically target the second conserved VCP ATPase domain, a major contributor of the VCP overall ATPase activity. Interestingly, these VCP mutants are also unable to survive heat stress and a temperature sensitive VCP mutant is defective in amastigote growth. Consistent with *LiVCP*’s essential function in amastigotes, *LiVCP* mRNA undergoes 3’UTR-mediated developmental regulation, resulting in higher VCP expression in amastigotes. Furthermore, we show that parasite mutant lines expressing lower VCP levels or dominant negative VCP forms exhibit high accumulation of polyubiquitinated proteins and increased sensitivity to proteotoxic stress, supporting the ubiquitin-selective chaperone function of *LiVCP*. Together, these results emphasize the crucial role *LiVCP* plays under heat stress and during the parasite intracellular development.
2.4 Introduction

The valosin-containing protein (VCP)/p97 (also called Cdc48 or Ter94) is one of the best-characterised type II AAA+ (ATPases associated with diverse cellular activities) superfamily of proteins involved in a variety of fundamental cellular processes that is conserved from yeast to human. It plays a key role in multiple protein quality control pathways mediated by the Ubiquitin Proteasome System and is implicated in the maintenance of cellular proteostasis (Franz, Ackermann, & Hoppe, 2014; Meyer, Bug, & Bremer, 2012; van den Boom & Meyer, 2017). In all these pathways, VCP/p97 hydrolyses adenosine triphosphate (ATP) and uses the resulting energy to extract or disassemble polyubiquitinated substrates from membranes, organelles, chromatin, or in general from large protein assemblies and deliver them to the 26S proteasome for degradation (Bodnar & Rapoport, 2017b; Christianson & Ye, 2014; Ye, Tang, Zhang, & Xia, 2017). VCP/p97 is indeed involved in the extraction of ubiquitylated proteins from the endoplasmic reticulum associated protein degradation (ERAD; Qi, Tsai, & Arvan, 2017; Wolf & Stolz, 2012) and similarly in the translocation of damaged mitochondrial proteins from the outer mitochondrial membrane into the cytosol (associated degradation; (Heo et al., 2010; Taylor & Rutter, 2011), the ribosome quality control (Brandman et al., 2012), the removal of chromatin-bound proteins (Franz, Ackermann, & Hoppe, 2016), genome stability (Vaz, Halder, & Ramadan, 2013), stress granules clearance (Buchan, Kolaitis, Taylor, & Parker, 2013), and the removal of damaged lysosomes by autophagy (Papadopoulos et al., 2017). Consistent with its central role in essential protein quality control pathways, mutations in human VCP/p97 have been linked to several diseases, including cancer and neurodegenerative and muscular disorders (Fessart, Marza, Taouji, Delom, & Chevet, 2013; Meyer & Weihl, 2014; Tang & Xia, 2016).

The functional diversity of VCP/p97 relies on its ability to associate with a large variety of regulatory cofactors which link VCP/p97 to a specific substrate in a subcellular compartment (adaptors) or recruit the substrates or mediate substrate processing (e.g., ubiquitin ligases, deubiquitinases, peptide N-glycanases) and turnover (Buchberger, Schindelin, & Hänzelmann, 2015; Hänzelmann & Schindelin, 2017). To date, more than 40 cofactors have been identified in mammals from which the majority interacts via a small number of conserved binding modules. Most of these cofactors interact with the N-terminal domain of VCP/p97, but a few cofactors bind the C-terminal tail. One of the most important cofactors is the Ufd1/Npl4 heterodimer, which recruits polyubiquitinated substrates to the VCP/p97 (Stein, Ruggiano, Carvalho, & Rapoport, 2014). The localisation to a specific subcellular compartment or substrate, enzyme activity, stability, and structure of VCP/p97
can be modulated by the formation of different VCP/p97-cofactor complexes or following VCP/p97 posttranslation modifications (Hänzelmann & Schindelin, 2017).

The VCP/p97/Cdc48 ATPase consists of three structured domains, the N-terminal and two tandem highly conserved AAA+ ATPase (D1 and D2) domains connected by a short polypeptide linker (Davies, Brunger, & Weis, 2008; DeLaBarre & Brunger, 2003). Crystal and cryo-electron microscopy structures of VCP/p97 showed that the D1 and D2 ATPase domains form two stacked hexameric rings surrounding a central pore through which polyubiquitinated substrates are translocated and released to the cytosol (Benerjee et al., 2016; Davies et al., 2008). Each ATPase domain contains a Walker A and B sites responsible for ATP binding and hydrolysis, respectively (Hänzelmann & Schindelin, 2017). Both ATPase rings hydrolyse ATP, but D2 domain seems to be the major contributor of the overall ATPase activity (Chou et al., 2014; Song, Wang, & Li, 2003). ATP binding/hydrolysis of VCP/p97 by the D2 ring results in profound conformational changes of the homohexameric, barrel-shaped VCP complex (Rouiller et al., 2002), which generate the mechanical force required for ubiquitin-directed disassembly of macromolecular complexes (Pye et al., 2006) and transfer of the polyubiquitinated substrates to the 26S proteasome for degradation (Richly et al., 2005). ATP hydrolysis by the D1 ring is proposed to be important for subsequent substrate release from the VCP/p97 complex (Bodnar & Rapoport, 2017a).

In trypanosomatids, very little is known about VCP/p97’s diversified functions. In Trypanosoma brucei, it was shown that TbVCP is an essential homohexameric cytoplasmic protein expressed preferentially in the procyclic stage (tsetse fly) (Lamb, Fu, Wirtz, & Bangs, 2001; Roggy & Bangs, 1999). In Leishmania, we have reported recently that VCP/p97 associates with the DDX3 DEAD-box ribonucleic acid (RNA) helicase shown to play a central role in mitochondrial protein quality control (Padmanabhan et al., 2016). In this study, we have investigated the functional role of the Leishmania VCP/p97 homologue (LiVCP/p97) in the parasite response to intracellular stress and development. We show that the LiVCP/p97 gene is essential for Leishmania’s viability and undergoes 3’UTR-mediated developmental regulation, resulting in higher VCP expression in the mammalian amastigote stage. Furthermore, we demonstrate that parasite mutant lines expressing lower LiVCP/p97 levels or dominant negative VCP forms targeting the LiVCP/p97 D2 ATPase domain are unable to grow inside macrophages and to survive under heat stress. In addition, we show that impairing the LiVCP/p97 ubiquitin-chaperone function triggers the accumulation of high cellular levels of polyubiquitinated proteins and increases sensitivity to proteotoxic stress.
Altogether, these results emphasise the crucial role *LVCP/p97* plays under stress and during the parasite intracellular development.

### 2.5 Results

The *Leishmania* VCP/p97 homolog shares a high sequence identity and structural organization with its evolutionary distant eukaryotic counterparts

In general, VCP from all eukaryotes are composed by a structured N-terminal domain barrel followed by two ATPase domains (D1, 199–450 and D2, 471–750) and an unstructured but functionally important C-terminal domain (Xia, Tang, & Ye, 2016). The N domain can be further subdivided into an Nn (residues 15–95) and Nc (residues 104–175) subdomain and its intersubdomain cleft (9 amino acid [aa]) serving as a cofactor-binding site (Hänzelmann & Schindelin, 2017; Figure 1a). The *Leishmania infantum* LVCP/p97 gene (LinJ.36.1420; TriTrypDB; http://tritrypdb.org; thereafter we will refer to it as *LVCP*) encodes a protein of 784 aa and harbours all the characteristic domains of eukaryotic VCP homologues (Figure 1a). The nucleotide sequence of the polymerase chain reaction (PCR)-amplified *LVCP* gene from *L. infantum* total deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA) is 99% identical (2349/2355 bp) to the annotated sequence of *Leishmania donovani* BPK282A1 (LdBPK_361420.1). However, its alignment with the reference sequence of *L. infantum* (LinJ.36.1420, annotated as a 689 aa protein; http://tritrypdb.org) revealed a missing part of 283 nucleotides (95 aa) within the ATPase D1 domain (from aa 195 to aa 290) but a 99% similarity with the remaining sequence. De novo assembly from *L. infantum* Next-generation sequencing (NGS) (kindly provided by Dr. Carlos Costa, Federal University of Piauí, Teresina, Brazil) confirmed also the wrong assembly in the reference *L. infantum* genome sequence. The multiple sequence alignment of *LVCP* along with *L. donovani* (LdVCP), *T. brucei* (TbVCP) and *Homo sapiens* (p97) revealed that all VCP homologues share the same domain composition (Figure 1b). The phylogenetic relationship of *LVCP* between other trypanosomatids and protozoa as well as more evolutionary distant organisms such as yeast, plants, and *Homo sapiens* is illustrated in the Neighbour-joining tree presented in Figure 1c. As expected, *LVCP* is clustered with the other pathogenic and nonpathogenic trypanosomatids (Figure 1c). Our data indicate that the *Leishmania* VCP is evolutionary closer to *Homo sapiens* than to the unicellular eukaryote *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* (Figure 1c).
The *Leishmania* VCP/p97 homolog localizes mostly to the cytosol and is associated with organellar compartments

To determine the subcellular localisation of *Lv*VCP, we carried out indirect immunofluorescence studies by confocal microscopy using an antibody directed against the *T. brucei* VCP protein (*TbVCP*) (Roggy & Bangs, 1999) that specifically recognises the *Leishmania* VCP. Immunofluorescence studies indicate that *Lv*VCP is largely distributed throughout the cytosol showing a granular pattern in both promastigote (Figure 2a,b) and amastigote (Figure S1a) life stages. As a central player to the ERAD (Qi et al., 2017; Wolf & Stolz, 2012) and the translocation of damaged mitochondrial proteins from the outer mitochondrial membrane into the cytosol (Heo et al., 2010; Taylor & Rutter, 2011), VCP/p97 has been found associated with both endoplasmic reticulum (ER) and outer mitochondrial membrane fractions. Here, we investigated organellar association of the *Leishmania* VCP protein using mitochondrial (MitoTracker) or ER (an anti-BiP chaperone antibody) markers in colocalisation studies. Our data suggest a weak association of *Lv*VCP with the mitochondrion (Figures 2a and S1b). On the other hand, *Lv*VCP partially colocalises with BiP as revealed by the spread orange pattern in the merge panels with anti-BiP and anti-VCP antibodies (Figure 2b). Furthermore, a digitonin permeabilisation experiment with increasing concentrations of digitonin (20 μM–10 mM) and Western blotting on the different cellular subfractions using an anti-*TbVCP* antibody indicated some association of *Lv*VCP with organellor fractions where the ER BiP protein is enriched (Figure 2c). Given that the bulk of the *Lv*VCP protein is cytoplasmic, it is likely that *Lv*VCP is sitting on the cytoplasmic leaflet of the ER. This is in agreement with previous studies in yeast and in mammals showing that the cytosolic VCP/p97/Cdc48 protein is translocated to the ER membrane during ERAD to extract polyubiquitinated proteins and transfer them to the proteasome for degradation (Qi et al., 2017; Wolf & Stolz, 2012).

*Lv*VCP undergoes 3'UTR-mediated developmental gene regulation and exhibits higher expression in the amastigote life stage of the parasite

In the related kinetoplastid *T. brucei*, VCP was shown to be more expressed in the insect procyclic form (Roggy & Bangs, 1999). To assess VCP expression in both life stages of *L. infantum*, we carried out Western blot analysis on protein lysates from axenic promastigote and amastigote cultures using an anti-*TbVCP* antibody. *Lv*VCP expression is shown to be ~2.6-fold higher in amastigotes compared with promastigotes (Figure 3a).
Northern blot hybridisation using the LiVCP ORF as a probe demonstrated also a ~2.4-fold higher accumulation of LiVCP messenger RNA (mRNA) in amastigotes (Figure 3b), hence corroborating LiVCP protein levels.

To determine whether sequences within the LiVCP 3’UTR account for LiVCP developmental regulation, we used the NEO gene as read out by replacing one of the two endogenous VCP copies with the NEO marker in the heterozygous LiVCP(NEO+/+) mutant (see Figure 4a below). Northern blot hybridisation using the NEO ORF as a probe revealed a 2.8-fold higher accumulation of the NEO transcript in amastigotes compared with promastigotes, similarly to the endogenous LiVCP mRNA expression (Figure 3c). Western blot analysis using an anti-NEO antibody indicated 3.5-fold higher NEO protein levels in amastigotes than in promastigotes, similarly to the endogenous LiVCP protein pattern (2.6- to 3.3-fold) in the wild type (WT; Figure 3a) and LiVCP(NEO+/+) strains (Figure 3d). Altogether, these data indicate that preferential upregulation of LiVCP in amastigotes is most likely mediated by cis-acting sequences within the LiVCP 3’UTR.

**LiVCP is an essential gene in Leishmania**

To assess the cellular function of LiVCP, we used a targeted gene replacement strategy based on homologous recombination for depleting the LiVCP gene in *L. infantum* (Figure 4a). Although aneuploidy can occur in *Leishmania*, Chromosome 36 has a disomic organisation in members of the *L. donovani* complex (Rogers et al., 2011). Two independent drug resistant selection cassettes harbouring either the hygromycin phosphotransferase gene (HYG) or NEO drug resistance genes flanked by the LiVCP 5’- and 3’-UTR regions were made to sequentially target the LiVCP locus as detailed in Section 4. We have replaced successfully one of the two LiVCP alleles by the NEO targeting cassette, generating a heterozygous LiVCP(NEO+/+) mutant (Figure 4b, Lane 2). However, all our attempts to generate a homozygous knockout mutant by introducing the HYG targeting cassette into LiVCP(NEO+) (or NEO targeting cassette into LiVCP(HYG+), data not shown) failed. Instead, we have obtained mutants harbouring the NEO (2.8 kb) and HYG (3.0 kb) gene replacement cassettes but also an additional WT VCP copy (4.3 kb) as shown by Southern blot hybridisation using the 3’flank VCP region as a probe (Figure 4b, Lane 3). Genetic inactivation of LiVCP was only possible by ectopically expressing into LiVCP(NEO+) a hemagglutinin (HA) epitope-tagged LiVCPHA or HA LiVCP (Figure 4c; upper right panel) or a nontagged version of LiVCP (Figure 4a). This led to the generation of three facilitated VCP homozygous knockout (dKO) mutants, LiVCP(NEO/HYG) + VCPHA, LiVCP(NEO/HYG) + HA VCP,
and LiVCP\(^{\text{NEO/HYG}}\) + VCP (Figure 4b; Lanes 4–6), all grown similarly to the WT as promastigotes (Figure 5a). Altogether, these results demonstrate that VCP is an essential gene in *L. infantum*.

LiVCP expression in the heterozygous *LiVCP\(^{\text{NEO/+}}\)* and the facilitated VCP dKO mutants was analysed by Western blot using an anti-*TbVCP* specific antibody (Figure 4c). A ~50% reduction in VCP levels was observed in the heterozygous *LiVCP\(^{\text{NEO/+}}\)* and *LiVCP\(^{\text{NEO/HYG/+}}\)* mutants (Figure 4c; Lanes 2 and 3) whereas VCP levels were on average 2-fold higher in the facilitated VCP dKO strains as compared with the WT (Figure 4c; Lanes 4–6). A similar expression pattern was observed in the *LiVCP\(^{\text{NEO/+}}\)* mutant strain (vs. WT) grown as axenic amastigotes (Figure S2).

**Decreased LiVCP protein expression results in *Leishmania* amastigote growth inhibition**

We next assessed the growth phenotype of the heterozygous *LiVCP\(^{\text{NEO/+}}\)* and the facilitated VCP dKO mutants under axenic amastigote conditions. The *LiVCP\(^{\text{NEO/+}}\)* mutant (50% less VCP, Figures 4c and S2) grew as amastigotes in the first passage, but it was unable to survive in subsequent passages (Figure S3), even after several attempts (not shown). In contrary to the facilitated VCP dKO mutants *LiVCP\(^{\text{NEO/HYG}}\)* + HA VCP and *LiVCP\(^{\text{NEO/HYG}}\)* + VCP, the *LiVCP\(^{\text{NEO/HYG}}\)* + VCP\(^{\text{HA}}\) mutant was unable to grow as axenic amastigotes (Figure 5b). The severe growth defect observed in *LiVCP\(^{\text{NEO/HYG}}\)* + VCP\(^{\text{HA}}\) was rescued when ectopically expressing LiVCP without any epitope tag (pSP\(_{\text{a}}\)ZEO\(_{\alpha}\)-VCP; Figure S4a,b). These results suggest that tagging LiVCP at the C-terminus may alter its function specifically under conditions of amastigote growth (e.g., high temperature and acidic pH), as no effect was seen in promastigotes (Figure 5a). To explain this intriguing effect of LiVCP C-terminal tagging on endogenous VCP function in amastigotes, we replaced one VCP genomic copy by VCP\(^{\text{HA}}\) (Figure S5a,b) and evaluated VCP protein expression by Western blotting using an anti-HA antibody. Remarkably, there was a dramatic reduction of VCP\(^{\text{HA}}\) in initial amastigote passages (P1 and P2) and onwards VCP\(^{\text{HA}}\) was completely degraded, whereas no changes were observed in promastigote passages (Figure S5c). These data indicate that C-terminal tagging of LiVCP greatly affects protein stability, possibly due to conformational changes triggered by amastigote growth signals such as heat stress. These findings also explain the inability of VCP\(^{\text{HA}}\) to rescue the *LiVCP\(^{\text{NEO/HYG}}\)* dKO strain under axenic amastigote growth (Figure 5b).
Impairing LiVCP function by dominant negative mutants targeting the LiVCP ATPase D2 domain has a dramatic effect on both axenic and intracellular amastigote *Leishmania* growth

To further explore the role VCP plays in *Leishmania* amastigote survival, we opted for a dominant negative approach aiming at altering the ATPase activity of LiVCP. Similar approaches have been used successfully in other organisms (Chou et al., 2014; Kitami et al., 2006; Piccirillo & Goldberg, 2012) including the related trypanosomatid *T. brucei* (Lamb et al., 2001). Like all VCP homologues, LiVCP has two tandem AAA ATPase domains (D1 and D2) harbouring Walker A and B motifs, which are responsible for ATP binding and hydrolysis, respectively (Xia et al., 2016; Figure 6a). It has been reported previously that mutating the essential glutamic acid residue in each Walker B motif to a glutamine (neutral charge) blocks ATP hydrolysis but does not affect ATP binding (Chou et al., 2014). Therefore, using a PCR-based site-directed mutagenesis strategy, we replaced the glutamate residue within each LiVCP ATP hydrolysis motif to a glutamine to generate two single ATPase mutants VCP\(^{Q1}\) (E295Q in ATPase D1 domain) and VCP\(^{Q2}\) (E568Q in ATPase D2), as well as a double VCP\(^{QQ}\) mutant (E295Q/E568Q; Figure 6a) (see Section 4). Ectopic expression of these LiVCP mutated proteins into either *L. infantum* WT or LiVCP\(^{NEO/+}\) (sKO) background was confirmed by Western blot using an anti-HA antibody (Figure 6b,c). Although the VCP\(^{Q1}\), VCP\(^{Q2}\) and VCP\(^{QQ}\) mutant proteins were episomally expressed, total VCP levels did not increase over WT as shown by Western blot using an anti-VCP antibody (Figure 6d). In the LiVCP\(^{NEO/+}\) strain where basal VCP protein levels are lower, ectopic expression of the VCP\(^{Q2}\) mutant or the double VCP\(^{QQ}\) mutant, but not of VCP\(^{Q1}\), did not alter significantly endogenous VCP levels (Figure 6e).

VCP\(^{Q1}\) or VCP\(^{Q2}\) or VCP\(^{QQ}\) expression in the WT background did not affect axenic promastigote (Figure 6f) or amastigote growth (Figure 6g). However, expression of the VCP\(^{Q2}\) or the VCP\(^{QQ}\) mutant, but not of VCP\(^{Q1}\), into the LiVCP\(^{NEO/+}\) sKO background dramatically decreased axenic amastigote growth (Figure 6i) without affecting promastigote survival (Figure 6h). Considering there were no differences in amastigote growth between the VCP\(^{Q2}\) and VCP\(^{QQ}\) mutants (Figure 6i), we conclude that the single E568Q mutation in the ATPase D2 domain, presumably acting as a dominant negative mutant, can severely alter endogenous LiVCP function.

Next, we investigated the role of LiVCP in the parasite infectivity and intracellular survival. *L. infantum* late-stationary promastigotes from WT, LiVCP\(^{NEO/+}\), LiVCP\(^{NEO/+}\) VCP\(^{QQ}\), and the facilitated dKO mutant LiVCP\(^{NEO/HYG}\) + VCP\(^{HA}\) were used for
infection of Phorbol 12-Myristate 13-Acetate (PMA)-treated THP1 macrophages (MØ). Prior to infection, we evaluated the ability of the VCP mutant lines to develop into metacyclic forms. No significant differences in the percentage of metacyclics (20% in average) were observed between the WT, LVCP<sup>NEO/+</sup>, LVCP<sup>NEO/+</sup>VCP<sup>QQ</sup>, and the LVCP<sup>NEO/HYG</sup> + VCP<sup>HA</sup> strains as determined by the peanut-mediated agglutination assay (Alcolea et al., 2014; Figure S6). The percentage of infected THP1 MØ at 6 hr postinfection was evaluated at 35%–50% depending on the experiment for all strains tested (Figures S7 and S8a). No differences in the average number of parasites per MØ were also detected at 6-hr postinfection between the different strains (Figures 7 and S8b), suggesting that parasite mutant lines expressing lower VCP levels or dominant negative VCP forms showed no defect in macrophage infectivity. While the number of amastigotes per MØ was steadily increasing with time for the WT strain reaching 13 parasites at 48-hr postinfection and 37 parasites in average after 96 hr following infection, the number of Leishmania amastigotes per MØ for the LVCP<sup>NEO/+</sup>, LVCP<sup>NEO/+</sup>VCP<sup>QQ</sup>, and LVCP<sup>NEO/HYG</sup> + VCP<sup>HA</sup> strains remained stable at 5–8 in average over the same period (Figure 7). This phenotype was specifically associated to an altered LVCP function as rescuing the facilitated dKO mutant LVCP<sup>NEO/HYG</sup> with VCP (nonepitope tagged) restored MØ infection to WT levels (Figure S8c). Similarly, although MØ infection rates increased up to 90% at 96-hr postinfection for WT parasites, the percentage of infection remained practically unchanged over time (around 30%–40%) for the mutant lines expressing lower VCP levels or dominant negative VCP forms (Figure S7). Taken together, these data indicate that when LVCP expression and/or function are impaired, amastigotes stop replicating inside macrophages. Our findings with intracellular parasites corroborate the results obtained with the same mutant strains under conditions of axenic amastigote growth (Figures 5b and 6i). Globally, these results demonstrate the essential role LVCP plays in Leishmania amastigote growth within macrophages.

**LVCP is essential for the parasite survival under heat stress**

Our results indicate that LVCP is required for both axenic and intracellular amastigote growth. L. infantum axenic amastigote differentiation and growth in MAA medium requires a temperature shift from 25 to 37 °C and acidic pH (5.5; Sereno, Roy, Lemesre, Papadopoulou, & Ouellette, 2001). It is well established that heat stress and acidic pH trigger amastigote differentiation (Barak et al., 2005). We therefore evaluated the effect of heat stress or acidic pH on growth of Leishmania parasites with decreased VCP.
expression and or altered function in the presence of dominant negative mutants. Neither heat stress nor acidic pH seems to regulate LiVCP protein expression (Figure S9). Interestingly, we found that the dominant negative mutant VCP\textsuperscript{QQ} expressed in \( \text{LiVCP}^{\text{NEO/+}} \) and the facilitated dKO mutant \( \text{LiVCP}^{\text{NEO/HYG}} + \text{VCP}\text{HA} \) both failed to grow as axenic and intracellular amastigotes (Figures 6i and 7 and S8b), were also unable to survive under heat stress or combined heat and acidic pH stress but not in acidic pH alone (Figure 8a). The dramatic decrease in VCP\text{HA} protein levels seen in the \( \text{LiVCP}^{\text{NEO/HYG}} + \text{VCP}\text{HA} \) mutant grown as amastigotes (Figure S5c) renders this strain highly sensitive to heat stress. This temperature sensitive (ts) phenotype was fully restored by rescuing the facilitated dKO mutant \( \text{LiVCP}^{\text{NEO/HYG}} \) with a nontagged VCP protein (Figure 8a).

To assess whether parasite mutant lines expressing lower VCP levels or dominant negative VCP forms were dying upon heat stress, we used the Fixable Viability Dye eFluor\textsuperscript{TM} 780 which can irreversibly label dead cells detected by fluorescence-activated cell sorting. Our results demonstrate a 2-fold higher percentage of dead cells in \( \text{Leishmania} \) mutants with decreased or altered \( \text{LiVCP} \) function than in WT cells upon increasing exposure to heat stress (Figure 8b, see also Supporting File 1 for detailed results). Together, these data emphasise the essential role VCP plays for the parasite survival under heat stress.

**Impairing \( \text{LiVCP} \) expression/function results in the accumulation of high cellular levels of polyubiquitinated proteins and increased sensitivity to proteotoxic stress**

VCP/p97 is an ubiquitin-selective chaperone that uses energy through ATP hydrolysis to extract or “segregate” ubiquitylated target proteins from membranes or stable protein assemblies and present them for proteasomal degradation (Pye et al., 2006; Richly et al., 2005). Here, we investigated whether decreased \( \text{LiVCP} \) expression in the heterozygous \( \text{LiVCP}^{\text{NEO/+}} \) mutant or impaired \( \text{LiVCP} \) function in the presence of dominant negative mutants targeting the ATPase D2 domain (VCP\textsuperscript{Q2} or VCP\textsuperscript{QQ}) has an effect on cellular levels of polyubiquitinated proteins. Western blot analysis using a FK2 antibody recognising K29-, K48-, and K63-linked monoubiquitlated and polyubiquitlated proteins showed that the dominant negative VCP\textsuperscript{Q2} or VCP\textsuperscript{QQ} forms expressed into the WT or \( \text{LiVCP}^{\text{NEO/+}} \) background led to an increased accumulation of polyubiquitinated proteins (Figures 9 and S10, Lanes 3 and 4) in comparison with the WT (Figures 9 and S10, Lane 1). Interestingly, deletion of a single \( \text{LiVCP} \) allele was sufficient to increase accumulation of polyubiquitinated proteins (Figure 9a,b, Lanes 1) albeit to a lesser extent than the VCP\textsuperscript{Q2} or
VCP\textsuperscript{QQ} dominant negative mutants (Figure 9b, compare Lanes 1 with 3 and 4). Ectopic expression of VCP or VCP\textsuperscript{Q1} (not acting as a dominant negative mutant) into the \textit{LiVCP} sKO background partly rescued the polyubiquitination phenotype (Figure 9b, Lanes 2 and 5). Altogether, these data suggest a direct link between \textit{LiVCP} function and the removal of polyubiquitinated substrates for subsequent proteosomal degradation as is the case for other eukaryotic VCP homologues (Meyer et al., 2012).

Furthermore, we tested whether parasite mutant lines with a significant decrease in VCP expression levels are more sensitive to proteasome inhibitors or to other stresses inducing proteotoxicity. Proteosome inhibition by MG-132 is known to increase accumulation of polyubiquitinated proteins, also in \textit{Leishmania} (Padmanabhan et al., 2016). Both the \textit{LiVCP}\textsuperscript{(NEO/+)} and the \textit{LiVCP}\textsuperscript{(NEO/HYG) + VCP\textsuperscript{HA}} strains showed ~2-fold higher sensitivity to MG-132 than the WT strain (Figure S11a,c). Inducing proteotoxicity by L-azetidine-2-carboxylic acid, a toxic proline analogue incorporated into proteins competitively with proline (Fowden, Lewis, & Tristram, 1967) and causing protein misfolding, led to >2-fold sensitivity to L-azetidine-2-carboxylic acid in the \textit{LiVCP}\textsuperscript{(NEO/HYG) + VCP\textsuperscript{HA}} strain compared with the WT (Figure S11b,c). These results suggest that \textit{LiVCP} is important for the \textit{Leishmania} response to proteotoxic stress.

### 2.6 Discussion

In this study, we provide functional insights into the crucial role the \textit{Leishmania} VCP/p97 homologue plays in the parasite intracellular development. We show that although VCP is an essential gene in \textit{Leishmania}, consistent with previous findings in other eukaryotes (Fröhlich et al., 1991; Lamb et al., 2001; Müller, Deinhardt, Rosewell, Warren, & Shima, 2007), promastigote forms can grow normally with less VCP (50% less) or impaired VCP activity by a dominant negative approach. In contrast, parasites exposed to heat stress and amastigote forms grown axenically or inside macrophages strictly depend on VCP for growth. Indeed, decreasing \textit{LiVCP} expression by heterozygous gene replacement or by overexpressing a ts VCP mutant or impairing VCP's function using dominant negative mutants specifically targeting the putative \textit{LiVCP} ATPase D2 domain has a dramatic effect on intracellular amastigote growth and the parasite ability to survive under heat stress. The increased need for VCP in \textit{Leishmania} amastigotes is further supported by our results that \textit{LiVCP} mRNA undergoes 3'UTR-mediated developmental regulation, leading to higher protein levels in the amastigote life stage of the parasite.
An interesting finding here is the demonstration that altering VCP function by ectopically expressing in the heterozygous \( \text{LVCP}^{\text{NEO}+/+} \) strain (50% less VCP) dominant negative VCP mutant forms (VCP\(^{Q2}\) and also VCP\(^{QQ}\)) with the essential glutamic acid residue in the D2 ATPase Walker B motif mutated to a glutamine specifically inhibits amastigote but not promastigote growth. No effect on parasite survival was seen with the dominant negative VCP\(^{Q1}\) mutant interfering with the D1 ATPase motif, hence emphasising the importance of the D2 domain in VCP function under conditions of amastigote growth or exposure to heat stress. Previous studies have shown that the two ATPase domains of VCP/p97 are not functionally equivalent. Both ATPase rings hydrolyse ATP, but the D2 domain seems to be the major contributor of the overall ATPase activity (Chou et al., 2014; Song et al., 2003). Studies using D2 specific inhibitors demonstrated that D1 contributes to the overall ATPase activity by ~30% (Chou et al., 2014). ATP binding/hydrolysis of VCP/p97 by the D2 ring is central to VCP’s function as it results in important conformational changes of the homohexameric VCP complex (Beuron et al., 2006; Rouiller et al., 2002), which provide the energy required for ubiquitin-directed disassembly of macromolecular complexes (Pye et al., 2006) and transfer of the polyubiquitinated substrates to the 26S proteasome for degradation (Richly et al., 2005). Moreover, the conserved glutamic acid residue in Walker B of D2 domain acts as a switch from an active to an inactive conformation upon ATP binding (Stach & Freemont, 2017).

Our finding that VCP\(^{Q2}\) or VCP\(^{QQ}\) act presumably as dominant negative mutants specifically in amastigotes is intriguing given that no significant differences in the expression ratio \( \text{LVCP} \text{ WT versus LVCP}^{Q2} \text{ or LVCP}^{QQ} \text{ mutant proteins were observed between promastigotes and amastigotes. In } T. \text{ brucei, constitutive overexpression of } \text{Tb} \text{VCP harbouring a single mutation in the second ATP hydrolysis motif (Q2) or mutations in both hydrolysis motifs (QQ) directly resulted in cell death but in the procyclic forms (Lamb et al., 2001). It has been reported that the VCP ATPase activity could be influenced by physical parameters such as temperature (Song et al., 2003). Leishmania amastigotes grow at elevated temperature (37 °C) as opposed to promastigotes (25 °C). It is therefore possible that conformational changes within the hexameric VCP structure triggered by temperature stress contribute to the differential dominant negative effect seen between promastigote and amastigote forms. While attempting to generate a \( \text{LVCP} \text{ homozygous mutant by episomally expressing VCP}^{\text{HA}}, \text{ we obtained a facilitated double knockout mutant with no growth defect in promastigotes (25 °C) but a lethal phenotype in the amastigote stage (37 °C). In fact, we showed that C-terminal tagging of LVCP renders the protein highly unstable only in
amastigotes and promotes its degradation. These data suggest that the C-terminus of LiVCP is critical for the stability of the protein under heat stress as also hypothesised in the yeast model (Marinova et al., 2015). It was shown previously that the unstructured VCP C-terminal tail plays possibly a role in maintaining the conformation of the D2 module during the ATPase cycle (Niwa et al., 2012). As a result of the LiVCPHA protein instability at 37 °C, this facilitated VCP dKO mutant exhibits a ts phenotype being thus unable to grow under heat stress. This ts phenotype prevents also growth as amastigotes, emphasising the crucial role VCP plays for the Leishmania survival under heat stress. A ts phenotype has been described previously in Cdc48 (VCP) mutants in yeast (Marinova et al., 2015). Noteworthy, while in Leishmania the LiVCPNEO/HYG + VCPHA ts phenotype can be reversed only by expressing a nontagged WT VCP protein in this mutant, in yeast even the introduction of different spontaneous mutations inside the Cdc48 sequence could suppress the ts phenotype (Marinova et al., 2015).

Here, we also show that a ~50% decrease in the expression of LiVCP (LiVCPNEO+) or an alteration of its function using a dominant negative approach triggers the accumulation of high cellular levels of polyubiquitinated proteins. Increased polyubiquitination has no significant effect on promastigote growth. However, in amastigotes where heat stress further induces proteotoxicity, the requirement for VCP is more critical in ensuring cellular proteostasis. This is also in agreement with VCP being more expressed (~3-fold) in Leishmania amastigotes. VCP functions as an ubiquitin-selective chaperone in other eukaryotes and is central to multiple protein quality control pathways mediated by the Ubiquitin Proteasome System (Meyer et al., 2012; van den Boom & Meyer, 2017). Polypeptides modified with K48-linked polyubiquitin chains, which also serve as a major targeting signal for the proteasome (Chau et al., 1989), are physiological substrates for VCP. Our previous studies revealed LiVCP association with several proteasome subunits (Padmanabhan et al., 2016). The partial colocalisation of LiVCP with the ER and its weaker association with the mitochondrion, as suggested by indirect immunofluorescence studies, are in line with LiVCP being involved in the extraction of polyubiquitinated proteins from cellular organelles for subsequent proteasomal degradation, as described in other eukaryotes (Qi et al., 2017; Taylor & Rutter, 2011). Although the function of Cdc48/p97 is best understood in ERAD (Stein et al., 2014), how this process is regulated remains still unclear. Ubx2, an integral ER membrane protein, recruits Cdc48 to the ER and mediates binding of Cdc48 to ER ubiquitin ligases and to ERAD substrates (Schuberth & Buchberger, 2005). After polyubiquitylation of the protein substrates, Cdc48 together with
its cofactor complex Ufd1-Npl4 pulls the misfolded proteins out and away from the ER membrane and delivers them to degradation by the proteasome (Wolf & Stolz, 2012; Ye, Meyer, & Rapoport, 2003). The higher sensitivity of the \( L^+ VCP^{NEO/+} \) and the \( L^+ VCP^{NEO/\text{HYG}} \) + VCP\(^{HA} \) mutant strains to the proteasome inhibitor MG-132 further supports a similar role for \( L^+ VCP \). Accumulation of polyubiquitinated proteins was even higher upon expression of the VCP\(^{Q2} \) or VCP\(^{QQ} \) dominant negative mutants, especially into the \( L^+ VCP^{NEO/+} \) background, suggesting that the presumably impaired ATPase D2 domain-mediated ATP hydrolysis is very important for the ubiquitin-selective chaperone function of \( L^+ VCP \).

In summary, this study provides the first characterisation of the essential ubiquitin selective chaperone VCP/p97 in \textit{Leishmania}. Our results emphasise the crucial role \( L^+ VCP \) plays in the parasite intracellular development and its survival particularly under heat stress. VCP is central to multiple essential protein quality control pathways and VCP-associated mutations in humans have been implicated in a multitude of diseases, including cancer and neurodegeneration (Fessart et al., 2013; Meyer & Weihl, 2014; Tang & Xia, 2016). Thus, VCP/p97 has emerged as an important therapeutic target not only for cancer and neurodegeneration (Anderson et al., 2015; Chapman, Maksim, de la Cruz, & Clair, 2015; Vekaria, Home, Weir, Schoenen, & Rao, 2016) but also for parasitic diseases (Harbut et al., 2012). A more comprehensive understanding of the function and regulation of VCP in maintaining protein homeostasis in \textit{Leishmania}, especially under conditions of intracellular stress, would not only increase knowledge of how this parasite responds to stress but also lead to novel therapeutic interventions.

### 2.7 Experimental procedures

**Parasite strains and cell culture**

\textit{Leishmania infantum} MHOM/MA/67/ITMAP-263 was used in this study. \( L. \) infantum promastigotes were cultured in SDM-79 medium supplemented with 10% heat-inactivated Fetal calf serum (FCS) (Multicell Wisent Inc., Canada) and 5 \( \mu \)g/ml hemin at pH 7.0 and 25°C. \( L. \) infantum axenic amastigotes were grown in MAA-20 medium supplemented with 20% FCS in 5% CO\(_2\) atmosphere at pH 5.5 and 37°C (Sereno et al., 2001). THP1 Human Acute Monocytic Leukaemia Cell Line was seeded in a 16-well chamber and infected with \( L. \) infantum stationary promastigotes as described previously (Chow, Cloutier, Dumas, Chou, & Papadopoulou, 2011).
Sequence alignments
Protein sequence alignments of the *L. donovani* transitional ER ATPase (LdVCP), putative (NCBI, CBZ38580.1), the *Homo sapiens* p97 (NCBI, P55072.4), and *T. brucei* TbVCP (NCBI, AAC02215.1) VCP homologues were carried out by ClustalW (Larkin et al., 2007) multiple alignment using Bioedit sequence Alignment Editor (Hall, 1999). The evolutionary history including *L. donovani* (CBZ38580.1), *Leishmania major* (XP_001686709.1), *Leptomonas pyrrocoris* (XP_015658481.1), *Phytonomas* sp. (CCW67021.1), *T. brucei* (AAC02215.1) *Plasmodium vivax* (XP_001616207.1), *Mus musculus* (BAE40919.1), *Homo sapiens* (P55072.4), *Danio rerio* (BAC87740.1), *Arabidopsis thaliana* (OAO95421.1), *Glycine max* (NP_001235099.1) and *S cerevisiae* (NP_010157.1) was inferred using the neighbour-joining method (Saito & Nei, 1987). The optimal tree with the sum of branch length = 1.17841600 is shown. The percentage of replicate trees in which the associated taxa clustered together in the bootstrap test (1,000 replicates) are shown next to the branches (Felsenstein, 1985). The tree is drawn to scale, with branch lengths in the same units as those of the evolutionary distances used to infer the phylogenetic tree. The evolutionary distances were computed using the Poisson correction method (Zuckerkandl & Pauling, 1965) and are in the units of the number of aa substitutions per site. The analysis involved 12 aa sequences. All positions containing gaps and missing data were eliminated. There were a total of 771 positions in the final dataset. Evolutionary analyses were conducted in MEGA7 (Kumar, Stecher, & Tamura, 2016).

Plasmid constructs and transfections
The VCP gene from *L. infantum* genomic DNA (LinJ.36.1420; TriTrypDB; http://tritrypdb.org) was amplified by PCR using specific primers (see Table S1). The amplified product was cloned into HindIII and XbaI sites of pSP72aZEOα (Richard, Leprohon, Drummelsmith, & Ouellette, 2004) to generate plasmid pSP-αZEOα-LiVCP. ZEO represents the zeocin resistance gene and the symbol α represents the intergenic region of the *Leishmania enriettii* α-tubulin gene necessary for trans-splicing and polyadenylation. To generate a heterozygous mutant (LiVCP<sup>NEO/+</sup>) where one of the two *L. infantum* VCP genomic copies was replaced by the neomycin phosphotransferase (NEO) gene, VCP 5'- and 3'-flanking regions were amplified from genomic DNA and fused to the NEO gene as shown in Figure 4a. The fused fragment was cloned into pGEM-T-Easy (Promega) and released by NotI and NdeI for transfection and integration into the *L. infantum* wild type.
strain. The same strategy was applied to delete the second VCP genomic allele using the HYG targeting cassette (5'flank VCP-HYG-3'flank VCP). VCP amplified products containing an HA epitope tag either at the VCP C-terminus (VCP\(^{HA}\)) or N-terminus (\(^{HA}\)VCP) or without HA-tag (VCP) were cloned into HindIII and XbaI sites of pSP\(_\alpha\)BLAST\(_\alpha\) (Coelho, Leprohon, & Ouellette, 2012). BLAST stands for blasticidin resistance gene. The generated plasmids were then transfected into the L. infantum wild type or the L\(_\text{VCP}^{(\text{NEO/+})}\) sKO strain. Facilitated double knockout mutants (L\(_\text{VCP}^{(\text{NEO/HYG})} + \text{VCP}^{\text{HA}}\), L\(_\text{VCP}^{(\text{NEO/HYG})} + \text{HA}\)VCP and L\(_\text{VCP}^{(\text{NEO/HYG})} + \text{VCP}\)) were generated using the 5'flankVCP-HYG-3'flankVCP cassette in the presence of one of the above VCP-tagged proteins in L\(_\text{VCP}^{(\text{NEO/+})}\)background. To generate the L\(_\text{VCP}\) ATPase domain mutants, we used a Phusion DNA polymerase (NEB)-based PCR combined with a modified megaprimer PCR method (Ke, 1997). We used two round of PCR reactions to introduce a specific point mutation G883C (E295Q) in the Walker B site of ATPase D1 domain (mutation Q1) or a G1701C (E568Q) in ATPase D2 (mutation Q2) or in both sites (mutation QQ) using specific set of primers (see strategy in Table S1).

The three VCP mutated products (VCP\(^{Q1}\), VCP\(^{Q2}\), and VCP\(^{QQ}\)) were initially cloned into pGEM-T-Easy and then into XbaI and HindIII sites of pSP\(_\alpha\)ZEO\(_\alpha\) vector and next transfected into WT (L\(_\text{VCP}^{(+/+)}\)) and sKO (L\(_\text{VCP}^{(\text{NEO/+})}\)) L. infantum promastigotes. A nonmutated VCP was used as a control. Purified plasmid DNA (10–20 μg, Qiagen Plasmid Mini Prep Kit, Toronto, Ontario, Canada) or linearised fragments (10–20 μg) were transfected into Leishmania by electroporation as described (Lamontagne & Papadopoulou, 1999). Stable transfectants were selected and cultivated with either 0.025 mg/ml G418 (Sigma) or 0.16 mg/ml Hygromycin-B (Sigma) or 0.6 mg/ml zeomycin (Sigma) or 0.045 mg/ml blasticidin (Sigma).

**Protein lysate preparations and Western blots**

Western blots were performed following standard procedures. The antimouse alpha-tubulin antibody (1:10000 dilution; Sigma), the antimouse HA tag monoclonal antibody (1:3000; ABM), the antimouse monoubiquitinated and polyubiquitinated conjugates monoclonal antibody (FK2; 1:5000 and blocking in 1% BSA, Enzo), the antimouse HSP60 (mitochondrial) antibody (1:400, Acris), the antimouse T. brucei VCP antibody (1:5000; Roggy & Bangs, 1999) kindly provided by Dr. James D. Bangs (Department of Microbiology & Immunology, Jacobs School of Medicine & Biomedical Sciences, University at Buffalo, USA), and the rabbit polyclonal anti-T. brucei BiP (kindly provided by Dr. J.D. Bangs) were
used in this study. As a secondary antibody, we used the antimouse Horseradish peroxidase (HRP) (Cell Signalling) or the anti-rabbit-HRP antibody (GE Healthcare). Blots were visualised by chemoluminescence with Pierce ECL2 Western blotting kit (Thermo Scientific). Protein levels were quantified by densitometric analyses using the ImageJ 1.38x software (Schneider, Rasband, & Eliceiri, 2012). Fractionation of total proteins of *L. infantum* was undertaken in the presence of increasing concentrations of digitonin (20 μM to 10 mM) as described previously (Foucher, Papadopoulou, & Ouellette, 2006), and each fraction was analysed by Western blot.

**DNA and RNA analysis and hybridizations**

DNA and RNA analysis and hybridisations studies were done as described previously (Padmanabhan, Samant, Cloutier, Simard, & Papadopoulou, 2012). Genomic DNA and total RNA of *L. infantum* were extracted using DNAzol (Life Technologies Inc., Toronto, Ontario, Canada) and Trizol (Invitrogen) following the manufacturer's instructions. Southern and Northern blot hybridisations were performed following standard procedures (Rio, 2015). Double-stranded DNA probes were radiolabelled with [α-32P] dCTP using random oligonucleotides and Klenow fragment DNA polymerase I (New England Biolabs). Hybridisation intensity signals of *LiVCP* or NEO were normalised to the 18S rRNA or to the α-tubulin mRNA by densitometric analyses using the ImageJ 1.38x software.

**Immunofluorescence studies**

Immunofluorescence microscopy studies were done as described previously (Padmanabhan et al., 2016). Briefly, 2–4 × 10^7/ml *L. infantum* parasites were spotted on a slide (spread 5 μl), air dried at Room temperature (RT) and fixed in 2% paraformaldehyde for 10 min. Following washings in 1xPBS, cells were permeabilised in 1xPBS, 0.2% Triton X-100, and 5% FCS at RT for 30 min and blocked in 1xPBS, 2% milk, 0.02% Tween 20, and 0.1% Triton X-100 for 1 hr at RT. The anti-*T. brucei* VCP antibody was used as primary antibody followed by Alexa Fluor® 488 antimouse as secondary antibody. Nucleus and kinetoplast DNA was stained with DAPI (blue). Images are maximal Z-projections of 20 to 30 contiguous sections separated by 0.15 μm and acquired with a 63x objective using a Quorum WaveFX spinning disk confocal system (Quorum Technologies, Guelph, Ontario). Image acquisition and processing was performed using Volocity 4.2.1 analysis software.

**Flow cytometry analysis**
To monitor cellular death, *L. infantum* parasites (10⁷) grown in SDM-79 medium were stained for 30 min with eBioscience™ Fixable Viability Dye eFluor™ 780 (eBiosciences, San Diego, CA), which can irreversibly label dead cells prior to detection by fluorescence-activated cell sorting. Cells were then washed with PBS1x, fixed with paraformaldehyde 4% and stored at 4 °C protected from light prior to their analysis by FACS Canto flow cytometer (BD Biosciences). Data were processed using the BD FACSDiva™ Software v. 6.1.3 (BD Biosciences). The entire raw data can be accessed in Supporting File 1.

**Statistical analyses**

All analyses were performed using GraphPad Prism software (version 5.01; GraphPad, La Jolla, CA, USA). Statistical significance was assessed by two-tailed unpaired *t*-test. Statistical significance was set at *P*≤0.05 (**P*≤0.01 and ***P*≤0.001).

2.8 Acknowledgements

We thank Dr. James D. Bangs for having kindly provided the anti *Trypanosoma brucei* VCP antibody.

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2.9 Conflict of interest

The authors declare no conflicts of interest.

2.10 References


2.11 Figures

A

B

C

Fig. 1
FIGURE 1 The *Leishmania infantum* LiVCP/p97 homolog is highly conserved among its eukaryotic counterparts. (A) Schematic representation of the *L. infantum* VCP/p97 homolog (LiVCP) and its conserved domains, including the N-terminal (Nn and Nc subdomains) region and the two ATPase domains D1 and D2. (B) Sequence alignments of the PCR-amplified VCP sequence from *L. infantum* translated into protein along with the *L. donovani* valosin-containing protein (LiBPK_361420.1, http://tritrypdb.org), the *Trypanosoma brucei* TbVCP (Tb927.10.5770, http://tritrypdb.org) and the *Homo sapiens* p97 homolog (NCBI, NP_009057.1) by ClustalW multiple alignment using Bioedit sequence Alignment Editor. Identical amino acid residues are in gray background and similar amino acids (aa) are in black. Conserved domains of the LiVCP protein are indicated with color bars under the aa sequence as illustrated in A. (C) Neighbor-joining tree showing the phylogenetic relationship between VCP homologs from different organisms including, in addition to those presented in panel B, *Leishmania major* (XP_001686709.1), *Leptomonas pyrrhocoris* (XP_015658481.1), *Phytomonas* sp. (CCW67021.1), *Plasmodium vivax* (XP_001616207.1), *Mus musculus* (BAE40919.1), *Danio rerio* (BAC87740.1), *Arabidopsis thaliana* (OAO95421.1), *Glycine max* (NP_001235099.1) and *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* (NP_010157.1) The optimal tree with the sum of branch length = 1.17841600 is shown. The percentage of replicate trees in which the associated taxa clustered together in the bootstrap test (1000 replicates) is shown next to the branches. Evolutionary analyses were conducted in MEGA7.
FIGURE 2 LiVCP is localized mainly to the cytosol and is associated with organellar compartments. (A) Immunofluorescence studies showing LiVCP (green) localization in *L. infantum* promastigotes. An anti-*Trypanosoma brucei* VCP antibody was used as primary antibody followed by Alexa Fluor® 488 anti-mouse as secondary antibody. Nucleus and kinetoplast DNA were stained with DAPI (blue). Mitochondrial (A) or endoplasmic reticulum (B) LiVCP putative co-localization was assessed using MitoTracker™ (red in A) to define the *Leishmania* single mitochondrion or an anti-BiP antibody (red in B) as an ER marker, respectively. An Alexa Fluor® 555 anti-rabbit was used as secondary antibody for MitoTracker and BiP. On merge panels, overlapping signals of LiVCP with the mitochondrion or the ER are indicated with arrows. All images are maximal Z-projections of 20 to 30 contiguous sections separated by 0.15 µm and were acquired with a 63x objective, using a Quorum WaveFX spinning disk confocal system (Quorum Technologies, Guelph, Ontario). Image acquisition and processing was done using Volocity 4.2.1 analysis software. (C) Western blot of *L. infantum* promastigote digitonin-fractionated samples (20 µM-10 mM) using the anti-*TbVCP* antibody to detect the LiVCP protein and the anti-BiP antibody for detecting endoplasmic reticulum-enriched fractions. The 20 µM to 200 µM digitonin fractions are enriched with cytosolic proteins, the 500 µM, 1 mM and 10 mM fractions contain mostly organellar proteins and the pellet fraction contains membrane-associated proteins.
**Fig. 3**

**FIGURE 3** LiVCP is developmentally regulated with higher mRNA and protein levels in *L. infantum* axenic amastigotes. (A) Western blot analysis of LiVCP<sup>+/+</sup> (WT) *L. infantum* promastigote (Pro) and axenic amastigote (Ama; passages 1 and 2) whole cell extracts using an anti-*T. brucei* (Tb) VCP antibody. The membrane was blotted with an anti-α-tubulin antibody as protein loading control. Quantification, expressed in LiVCP protein/α-tubulin...
ratio is presented (lower panel). Two-tailed unpaired t-test was performed: statistical significance p < 0.05. Northern blot hybridization to evaluate expression of the LiVCP (B and C) and NEO (C) transcripts in WT and LiVCPneo/+ (sKO) exponentially grown Pro and Ama. The α-tubulin or 18S rRNA probes were used as RNA loading controls. (D) Western blot analysis of LiVCPneo/+ Pro and Ama total lysates using anti-TbVCP and anti-NEO antibodies. LiVCP and NEO mRNA and protein levels were normalized to the 18S rRNA or to the α-tubulin mRNA or protein controls by densitometric analyses using the ImageJ 1.38x software. The fold change values of normalized LiVCP or NEO mRNA and protein levels in axenic amastigotes relative to the levels seen in promastigotes are shown below the blots.
FIGURE 4 LiVCP is an essential gene for *Leishmania infantum* promastigote growth. (A) Schematic draw of the *L. infantum* VCP genomic locus and the neomycin phosphotransferase gene (NEO) and hygromycin phosphotransferase gene (HYG) targeting cassettes used for replacing both endogenous VCP gene copies (LinJ.36.1420; http://tritrypdb.org) through homologous recombination at the 5’- and 3’-flank sequences of VCP. The two LiVCP alleles in the wild type (WT) strain (LiVCP^{+/+}) were subsequently replaced by the NEO and HYG targeting cassettes to generate the LiVCP^{(NEO/+)} and LiVCP^{(NEO/HYG)} mutants, respectively. Following NEO gene replacement, double inactivation in LiVCP^{(NEO/+)} was only possible by ectopically providing a pSPaBLASTα vector expressing VCP tagged with an HA epitope either at the C-terminus (VCP^HA) or at N-terminus (V^HA VCP) or a non-tagged VCP. The blasticidin (BLAST) expression vectors harboring either LiVCP or Li^HA VCP or LiVCP^HA are illustrated here. (B) Southern blot of total genomic DNA digested with BglII hybridized with the LiVCP 3’flank sequence or the VCP or the NEO and or the
HYG ORF probes. (C) Western blot analysis of WT and VCP mutant strains using an anti-
*TbVCP* antibody or an anti-HA antibody. An anti-α-tubulin antibody was used as protein
loading control.
FIGURE 5 LiVCP is required for *Leishmania* axenic amastigote growth. (A) Promastigote growth of *L. infantum* WT, LiVCP\(^{\text{NEO}(+)}\) and the facilitated dKO LiVCP\(^{\text{NEO/HYG}}\) strains episomally expressing LiVCP tagged with an HA epitope either at the C-terminus (LiVCP\(^{\text{NEO/HYG}}\)+VCP\(^{\text{HA}}\)) or at the N-terminus (LiVCP\(^{\text{NEO/HYG}}\)+HA VCP) or non-tagged (LiVCP\(^{\text{NEO/HYG}}\)+VCP) in SDM-79 medium. (B) Axenic amastigote growth of *L. infantum* lines as in (A) cultured in MAA medium at 37°C and acidic pH for 72 hours. The results shown here are the mean and standard deviation of three independent experiments. Statistical significance was assessed by two-tailed unpaired \(t\) test (***\(P\leq 0.001\)). Asterisks indicate significant difference between the WT and the facilitated dKO mutant LiVCP\(^{\text{NEO/HYG}}\)+VCP\(^{\text{HA}}\).
Fig. 6
FIGURE 6 Impairing LiVCP function by targeting the LiVCP D2 ATPase domain using a dominant negative approach leads to a dramatic decrease in Leishmania axenic amastigote growth. (A) Schematic representation of LiVCP mutant proteins with a point mutation in the Walker B site (involved in ATP hydrolysis) of the ATPase D1 domain (E295Q, VCPQ1) or the ATPase D2 domain (E568Q, VCPQ2) or in both sites (E295Q and E568Q, VCPQQ). (B-E) Western blot analysis of whole protein lysates from L. infantum WT or sKO (LiVCPNEO/+ ) expressing or not the dominant negative mutants VCPQ1 or VCPQ2 or VCPQQ tagged with an HA epitope using an anti-HA antibody or an anti-TbVCP antibody. A non-mutated LiVCP-HA was used as a control. The anti-α-tubulin antibody was used as protein loading control (lower panels). (F) Growth of L. infantum promastigotes expressing either VCPQ1 or VCPQ2 and or VCPQQ mutants in the WT background. (G) As in F but grown as axenic amastigotes for 72 hours in MAA medium. (H) Growth of L. infantum promastigotes expressing either VCPQ1, or VCPQ2 and or VCPQQ mutants in the sKO background. (I) As in H but grown as axenic amastigotes. The results shown here are the mean and standard deviation of three independent experiments. Statistical significance was assessed by two-tailed unpaired t-test (*P<0.05 and **P≤0.01). Asterisks indicate significant differences between sKO and sKO+VCPQ2 and between sKO and sKO+VCPQQ.
FIGURE 7 LiVCP is essential for *Leishmania* intracellular growth. Late-stationary *L. infantum* promastigotes from WT, *LiVCP*\(^\text{(NEO/+)}\), *LiVCP*\(^\text{(NEO/+)}\)+\(\text{VCP}^{\text{QQ}}\) and the facilitated dKO mutant *LiVCP*\(^\text{(NEO/HYG)}\)+\(\text{VCP}^{\text{HA}}\) were used for *in vitro* infection of PMA-treated THP1 macrophages. An average of *Leishmania* per macrophage (MØ) at 6 hours (time point 0), 24, 48 and 96 hours post-infection was determined microscopically by Giemsa staining. Each dot represents count of 500 MØ. Statistical significance was assessed by the two-tailed
unpaired $t$-test ($***P \leq 0.001$). Asterisks indicate significant differences between the WT and VCP mutant strains.
**FIGURE 8** LiVCP is essential for *Leishmania* survival under heat stress. (A) Effect of heat or pH stress on the growth of *Leishmania* VCP mutants. *L. infantum* LiVCP(+/+), LiVCP(NEO/+), LiVCP(NEO/+)+VCPQQ and the facilitated dKO mutants LiVCP(NEO/HYG)+VCPHA, LiVCP(NEO/HYG)+HA VCP and LiVCP(NEO/HYG)+VCP were cultured in SDM-79 medium (PRO; pH 7.0 and 25°C) or in SDM-79 combined to heat stress (37°C) or in MAA medium (pH 5.5) at 25°C or in MAA medium at 37°C (combined temperature and acidic pH stress) (AMA). The results shown here are the mean and standard deviation of two experiments performed in triplicates. (B) Evaluation of the percentage of dead cells in the VCP mutant lines cultured under conditions of combined temperature and acidic pH stress (MAA medium at 37°C) for selected time points up to 24 hrs by fluorescence-activated cell sorting using the eBioscience™ Fixable Viability Dye eFluor™ 780, which can irreversibly label dead cells.
Cells were analyzed with a FACS Canto flow cytometer (BD Bioscences) and data were processed using BD FACSDiva™ Software v. 6.1.3.
FIGURE 9 Decreasing expression of LiVCP or impairing its function using dominant negative mutants leads to high accumulation of polyubiquitinated proteins. Western blot analysis of *L. infantum* WT (A) and sKO (LiVCP\textsuperscript{(NEO/+)} ) lines (B) using the FK2 antibody recognizing K29-, K48-, and K63-linked mono- and polyubiquitinated proteins. Equal amount of proteins was loaded on the gel. An anti-α-tubulin antibody (lower panels) was used as protein loading control. The data shown here are representative of four independent experiments yielding similar results.
### Supplementary Table S1. Primers used in this study.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Primer</th>
<th>Primer sequence</th>
<th>Restriction sites, epitope tag and other details</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>LVCP (LinJ.36.1420)-HA</strong>&lt;br&gt;<strong>LVCP gene amplification</strong>&lt;br&gt;LVCP forward (V1)&lt;br&gt;LVCP reverse (V2)</td>
<td>5’-GCTCTAGAATGGCGGACGCTGGTGGG-3’&lt;br&gt;5’-CCCAAGCTTCTAGCTAGGGTCTCTGCG-3’</td>
<td>Xbal&lt;br&gt;HindIII</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>LVCP gene amplification including an HA epitope at the C-terminus (VCP³HA)</strong>&lt;br&gt;LVCP forward (V1)&lt;br&gt;LVCP reverse with HA-tag (V3)</td>
<td>5’-GCTCTAGAATGGCGGACGCTGGTGGG-3’&lt;br&gt;5’-CCCAAGCTTCTAGCTAGGGTCTCTGCG-3’&lt;br&gt;AGGGTAGCTGTAGGGTCTCG-3’</td>
<td>Xbal&lt;br&gt;HindIII&lt;br&gt;HA-tag sequenc</td>
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<td><strong>LVCP gene amplification including an HA epitope at the N-terminus (³HA-VCP)</strong>&lt;br&gt;LVCP forward with HA-tag (V4)&lt;br&gt;LVCP reverse (V2)</td>
<td>5’-GCTCTAGAATGGCGGACGCTGGTGGG-3’&lt;br&gt;5’-CCCAAGCTTCTAGCTAGGGTCTC-3’&lt;br&gt;AGGGTAGCTGTAGGGTCTCG-3’</td>
<td>HindIII&lt;br&gt;HA-tag sequenc</td>
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<td><strong>Neomycin (NEO) targeting cassette</strong>&lt;br&gt;Amplification of the 5’flank region of the LVCP gene</td>
<td>5’flank LVCP forward&lt;br&gt;5’flank LVCP reverse</td>
<td>NotI&lt;br&gt;NEO complement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>NEO gene amplification</strong>&lt;br&gt;NEO forward&lt;br&gt;NEO reverse</td>
<td>5’-AAGACACGGCAGAAGCAACCATGATTGAAACAATGGATT-3’&lt;br&gt;5’-ACATCCGCCCACCTCCCTTCAGCCAA-3’</td>
<td>5’flank complement&lt;br&gt;3’flank complement</td>
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<td>5’-TTCTTGACGAGTCTCTTCTGAAGGAGGGT</td>
<td>NEO complement&lt;br&gt;Ndel</td>
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<td>3'flank LivCP reverse</td>
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<td>5'flank LivCP forward (V1)</td>
<td>Internal mutagenic reverse (M1R)</td>
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<tr>
<td>LiVCP gene amplification containing mutations in domain D1 (Q1 mutation)</td>
<td>LivCP forward (V1)</td>
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<td>LiVCP gene amplification containing mutations in domain D2 (Q2 mutation)</td>
<td>Internal mutagenic forward (M2F)</td>
<td>LivCP Reverse with HA-tag (V3)</td>
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*LivCP ATP hydrolysis dominant negative mutants. The first PCR reaction was carried out using forward VCP primer (V1) and internal mutagenic reverse primer (M1R) for Q1 mutation. For Q2 mutation, internal mutagenic forward (M2F) and reverse VCP primer (V3) were used. The second-round PCR was done using the amplified-PCR product containing Q1 mutation as megaprimer forward (Mega1) and VCP reverse primer (V3) to generate a VCP product containing Q1 mutation (VCPQ1). VCP forward (V1) and amplified-PCR product containing Q2 as megaprimer reverse (Mega2) were used to generate a VCP product containing Q2 mutation (VCPQ2). Lastly, Mega1 as forward and Mega2 as reverse primers were combined to generate a VCP product containing both mutations Q1 and Q2 (VCPQQ).
FIGURE S1 LiVCP localization in *L. infantum* amastigotes. (A) Immunofluorescence studies showing LiVCP (green) localization in *L. infantum* axenic amastigotes. An anti-*Trypanosoma brucei* VCP antibody was used as primary antibody followed by Alexa Fluor® 488 anti-mouse as secondary antibody. Nucleus and kinetoplast DNA were stained with DAPI (blue). All images are maximal Z-projections of 20 to 30 contiguous sections separated by 0.15 µm and were acquired with a 63x objective, using a Quorum WaveFX spinning disk confocal system (Quorum Technologies, Guelph, Ontario). Image acquisition and processing was done using Volocity 4.2.1 analysis software. (B) Western blot of *L. infantum* promastigote digitonin-fractionated samples (20 µM-10 mM) using the anti-*TbVCP* antibody to detect the LiVCP protein. The anti-HSP60 (mitochondrial) antibody was used as a control for organellar fraction enrichment. The anti-α-tubulin antibody was used as a control for membrane-associated proteins. The 20 µM and 200 µM digitonin lanes correspond to cytosolic fractions and the 1 mM and 10 mM lanes correspond...
to organellar fractions. The pellet fraction contains membrane-associated proteins.
**FIGURE S2** VCP protein expression in the heterozygous *L. infantum LVCP*<sup>NEO/+</sup> mutant. (A) Western blot analysis on protein lysates from *L. infantum* WT (*LVCP<sup>+/+</sup>*) and the heterozygous *LVCP<sup>NEO/+</sup>* mutant axenic amastigotes (Ama) using an anti-*T. brucei* VCP antibody. An anti-α-tubulin antibody was used as protein loading control. (B) VCP protein expression ratio in *LVCP<sup>NEO/+</sup>* vs. *LVCP<sup>+/+</sup>*. Statistical significance was assessed by two-tailed unpaired t-test (*p* < 0.05).
Axenic amastigote growth of *L. infantum* LiVCP<sup>(NEO/+)</sup> and LiVCP<sup>(HYG/+)</sup> heterozygous mutants. Parasites were cultured in MAA medium (pH 5.5) at 37°C. (A) 1<sup>st</sup> passage as axenic amastigotes. (B) 2<sup>nd</sup> passage as axenic amastigotes.

**FIGURE S3**
FIGURE S4 C-terminal epitope tagging of LIVCP inhibits VCP function in *L. infantum* axenic amastigotes but not in promastigotes. (A) Schematic representation of the LIVCP-expressing vector pSPaZEOa-VCP\(^{HA}\) transfected into the facilitated dKO LIVCP\(^{-/-}\) mutant (upper panel). ZEO, zeomycin resistance gene; aIR stands for the intergenic region of the *L. enriettii* \(\alpha\)-tubulin gene providing the processing signals. Western blot analysis to evaluate LIVCP expression (promastigote lysates) using an anti-*T. brucei* VCP antibody. An anti-\(\alpha\)-tubulin antibody was used as protein loading control (lower panel). (B) Ectopic expression of LIVCP\(^{HA}\) into the LIVCP\(^{-/-}\) dKO mutant failed to restore growth in axenic amastigotes. *L. infantum* amastigote growth of wild type (LIVCP\(^{+/+}\)), facilitated dKO mutant LIVCP\(^{-/-}\)+VCP\(^{HA}\) episomally expressing LIVCP\(^{HA}\) and the above facilitated mutant rescued with a non-tagged VCP version.
FIGURE S5 C-terminal epitope tagging of LiVCP causes LiVCP protein instability specifically in L. infantum amastigotes. (A) Schematic representation of the targeting cassette 5’flank-αZEOα-VCP\(^{HA}\)-3’flank to replace one of the two L. infantum LiVCP endogenous gene copies by a LiVCP\(^{HA}\) copy. (B) Southern blot hybridization using the 3’flank VCP region as a probe confirming genomic replacement of one VCP copy by the VCP\(^{HA}\) copy. (C) Expression of LiVCP\(^{HA}\) integrated into the VCP endogenous locus as evaluated by Western blot using an anti-HA antibody (upper panel). Different passages (P1 to P3) of axenic promastigote and amastigote cultures were tested. The same membrane was blotted with an anti-α-tubulin antibody as protein loading control (lower panel).
FIGURE S6 Percentage of metacyclic *L. infantum* forms collected from stationary promastigote cultures of different VCP mutants. To evaluate the percentage of metacyclic promastigotes in *LiVCP*(+/+), *LiVCP*(NEO/+), *LiVCP*(NEO/+)+VCPQQ and the facilitated dKO mutant *LiVCP*(NEO/HYG)+VCPHA, a suspension of 10⁸/ml stationary phase promastigote cells grown in SDM-79 medium without serum was supplemented with 50 µg/ml peanut agglutinin lectin (PNA) (Vector Laboratories) and incubated at 26⁰C with agitation for 30 min as described by Alcolea et al. (2014). The cells were harvested at 700-800 rpm for 5 min to remove the agglutinated promastigotes (PNA⁺) and the metacyclic parasites (PNA⁻) in the supernatant were recuperated by centrifugation at 3000 rpm during 10 min and resuspended for quantification. The results shown here are the mean and standard deviation of three independent experiments. Statistical analysis was done by the two-tailed unpaired *t*-test.
FIGURE S7 Percentage of infected macrophages by L. infantum VCP mutant lines. The percentage of THP1 macrophages (MØ) infected with (LiVCP+/⁺) or LiVCP(NEO/+), or LiVCP(NEO/+)+VCPQQ or the facilitated dKO LiVCP(NEO/HYG)+VCPHA mutant at 6 (time 0), 24, 48 and 96 hours post-infection was determined microscopically by Giemsa staining. Mean and standard deviation derived from several (5-9) counting of ~500 macrophages for each strain at each time point. Statistical significance was assessed by the two-tailed unpaired t-test (*P≤0.01, **P≤0.001).
**FIGURE S8** *LiVCP* is essential for *Leishmania* intracellular amastigote growth. Stationary-phase *L. infantum* promastigotes from *LiVCP*<sup>+/+</sup> or *LiVCP<sup>(NEO+)/+</sup>* or *LiVCP<sup>(NEO+)/+</sup>+VCP<sup>QQ</sup> and or the facilitated dKO mutants *LiVCP<sup>(NEO/HYG)+/+</sup>* or *LiVCP<sup>(NEO/HYG)+/+</sup>+VCP*<sup>HA</sup><sup>HA</sup> and or the facilitated dKO mutants *LiVCP<sup>(NEO/HYG)+/+</sup>* or *LiVCP<sup>(NEO/HYG)+/+</sup>+VCP*<sup>HA</sup><sup>HA</sup> were used for *in vitro* infection of PMA-treated THP1 macrophages (MØ). The percentage of infected MØ with the above strains at 6 hours post-infection is shown in (A). The average number...
of *L. infantum* intracellular amastigotes per THP1 MØ immediately after infection (6 hours) (B) and at 96 hours post-infection (C) as determined microscopically by Giemsa staining. The results shown here are the mean and standard deviation of two experiments performed in triplicates. Statistical significance was assessed by the two-tailed unpaired *t*-test (**∗∗∗P < 0.001**). Asterisks indicate significant difference between the *L. infantum* VCP mutant cell lines.
FIGURE S9 LiVCP protein expression under heat or acidic pH stress. Western blot analysis of *L. infantum* total lysates from parasites cultured either in SDM-79 medium at pH 7.0 and 25°C (no stress) or in SDM-79 combined to heat stress (37°C) or in MAA medium (pH 5.5) at 25°C (acidic pH stress) at different time points using an anti-*TbVCP* antibody. The same membrane was blotted with an anti-α-tubulin antibody as protein loading control (lower panel).
FIGURE S10 Decreasing expression of LVCP or impairing its function using dominant negative mutants leads to high accumulation of polyubiquitinated proteins. This figure is a longer exposure of Figure 9. Western blot analysis of L. infantum WT (A) and sKO (LVCP<sup>NEO/+</sup>) lines (B) using the FK2 antibody recognizing K29-, K48-, and K63-linked mono- and polyubiquitinated proteins. Equal amount of proteins was loaded on the gel. An anti-α-tubulin antibody (lower panels) was used as loading control. The data shown here are representative of four independent experiments yielding similar results.
**FIGURE S11** Sensitivity of *L. infantum* VCP mutants to proteasome inhibitors or to drugs inducing proteotoxicity. *LiWT, LiVCP*<sup>(NEO/+)</sup> and *LiVCP*<sup>(HYG/NEO)VCPHA</sup> strains were treated with various concentrations of the proteasome inhibitor MG-132 (Enzo; 0 to 8 µg/ml) (A) or L-Azetidine-2-carboxylic acid (AZC) (Santa Cruz) (0 to 40 mM) (B) for 96 h. The drug sensitivity was evaluated by measuring the OD at 600 nm in 24 well plates. (C) The IC<sub>50</sub> values for MG-132 and AZC are expressed as mean ± SD.
Chapter 3: Molecular and functional characterization of the AAA+ ATPase Valosin-containing protein (VCP)/p97/Cdc48 interaction network in *Leishmania*

3.1 Avant-propos

This chapter corresponds to a scientific paper entitled “Functional characterization of the p97/valosin-containing protein (VCP) interacting network in *Leishmania*” by Guedes Aguiar, B., Maaroufi H; Padmanabhan, P. K., Dumas, C., & Papadopoulou, B. submitted for publication in *Scientific Reports* on November 2019. This paper is presented as it was submitted. The study was designed by BGA and BP. All experiments were performed by BGA with help of CD and PKP. HM was responsible for 3D structure prediction and docking studies. The paper was written and corrected by BGA and BP.

**Molecular and functional characterization of the AAA+ ATPase Valosin-containing protein (VCP)/p97/Cdc48 interaction network in *Leishmania***

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Running title: VCP protein network in *Leishmania*

Key words: *Leishmania*; VCP/p97; VCP cofactors; Immunoprecipitation; LC-MS/MS; Network proteomics; 3D homology modeling; protein-protein docking; Gene Ontology; Immunofluorescence

List of abbreviations

AAA ATPases Associated with diverse cellular Activities
DUB Deubiquitinating enzyme
ER Endoplasmic reticulum
ERAD ER-associated degradation
EUPC Exclusive unique peptide count
FAF Fas-associated factor
FCS Fetal calf serum
IP Immunoprecipitation
*L. VCP* *Leishmania infantum* VCP
MPN Mpr1, Pad1 N-terminal domain
NPL4 Nuclear protein localization protein 4
OMM Outer mitochondrial membrane
OTU1 Ovarian tumor domain-containing protein 1
PP1 Protein phosphatase type 1
PUB PNGase/UBA or UBX-containing proteins
PUL PLAP, Ufd3p, and Lub1p
<table>
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<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Description</th>
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<tr>
<td>SEP</td>
<td>Shp, eyes-closed, p47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SHP</td>
<td>BS1, binding segment 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SPFH</td>
<td>Stomatin, prohibitin, flotillin, HflC/K</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UBA</td>
<td>Ubiquitin-associated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UBL</td>
<td>Ubiquitin-like domain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UBX</td>
<td>Ubiquitin regulatory X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UBXD</td>
<td>Ubiquitin X domain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UBXL</td>
<td>UBX-like</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UFD1</td>
<td>Ubiquitin fusion degradation protein 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UPS</td>
<td>Ubiquitin Proteasome System</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VBM</td>
<td>VCP-binding motif</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>Valosin-containing protein</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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3.2 Résumé

La protéine valosine (VCP)/p97/Cdc48 est une AAA + ATPase associée à de nombreuses voies cellulaires dépendantes de l’ubiquitine qui sont essentielles au contrôle de la qualité des protéines. VCP lie divers cofacteurs qui déterminent la sélectivité et la dégradation du substrat. Ici, nous avons utilisé des études de co-immunoprécipitation et de spectrométrie de masse couplées à des analyses in silico pour identifier l"interactome' de Leishmania infantum VCP (LVCP) et pour prédire les interactions moléculaires entre LVCP et ses principaux cofacteurs. Nos données corroborent un réseau de protéines associées à VCP qui est largement conservé chez Leishmania, y compris des partenaires d'interaction connus mais également nouveaux. L'analyse protéomique en réseau a confirmé les interactions LVCP-cofacteurs et a fourni de nouvelles informations sur les partenaires spécifiques des cofacteurs et la diversité des complexes LVCP, y compris le complexe bien caractérisé VCP-UFD1-NPL4. L'analyse de l'ontologie des gènes, associée aux études de fractionnement à la digitonine et d'immunofluorescence, supporte la compartimentation sous-cellulaire de cofacteurs avec une localisation cytoplasmique ou organellaire ou vacuolaire. En outre, des modèles in silico basés sur la modélisation d"homologie 3D et l'amarrage (docking) protéine-protéine ont prédit que les modules de liaison conservés chez les cofacteurs de LVCP, à l'exception du NPL4, interagissaient avec des sites de liaison spécifiques dans l'hexamère LVCP, de la même manière que leurs orthologues chez d'autres eucaryotes. Globalement, ces résultats nous ont permis de construire le premier réseau d'interaction de protéines liant VCP chez les parasites protozoaires grâce à l'identification de partenaires d'interaction connus et nouveaux potentiellement associés à des complexes de VCP distincts.
3.3 Abstract

Valosin-containing protein (VCP)/p97/Cdc48 is an AAA+ ATPase associated with many ubiquitin-dependent cellular pathways that are central to protein quality control. VCP binds various cofactors, which determine pathway selectivity and substrate processing. Here, we used co-immunoprecipitation and mass spectrometry studies coupled to in silico analyses to identify the Leishmania infantum VCP (LiVCP) interactome and to predict molecular interactions between LiVCP and its major cofactors. Our data support a largely conserved VCP protein network in Leishmania including known but also novel interaction partners. Network proteomics analysis confirmed LiVCP-cofactor interactions and provided novel insights into cofactor-specific partners and the diversity of LiVCP complexes, including the well-characterized VCP-UFD1-NPL4 complex. Gene Ontology analysis coupled with digitonin fractionation and immunofluorescence studies support cofactor subcellular compartmentalization with either cytoplasmic or organellar or vacuolar localization. Furthermore, in silico models based on 3D homology modeling and protein-protein docking indicated that the conserved binding modules of LiVCP cofactors, except for NPL4, interact with specific binding sites in the hexameric LiVCP protein, similarly to their eukaryotic orthologs. Altogether, these results allowed us to build the first VCP protein interaction network in parasitic protozoa through the identification of known and novel interacting partners potentially associated with distinct VCP complexes.
3.4 Introduction

*Leishmania* species cause a large spectrum of diseases in humans ranging from skin lesions to visceral damage, which is lethal, if left untreated. Treatment options for leishmaniasis are limited and toxic and no effective vaccine is currently available (https://www.dndi.org/diseases-projects/leishmaniasis/). Within its mammalian host, *Leishmania* replicates in the phagolysosome compartment of macrophages where it encounters various stress stimuli that trigger important changes in gene expression and parasite metabolism. Most of those stresses lead to DNA damage or protein misfolding that has to be corrected. As many other eukaryotes, *Leishmania* has evolved quality control systems that cooperate to eliminate damaged proteins.

Recently, we have undertaken studies to characterize the *Leishmania* valosin-containing protein (VCP)/p97/Cdc48 ortholog (VCP and p97 in metazoa, Cdc48 in yeast), one of the key quality control components in recycling or degrading misfolded proteins or aggregates. VCP belongs to the AAA+ (Associated with diverse cellular Activities) family of ATPases that hydrolyze ATP and use the resulting energy to extract polyubiquitinated target proteins from membranes, organelles, and large protein assemblies and delivered them to proteasomal degradation. As a central component of the Ubiquitin Proteasome System (UPS), VCP/p97 plays a critical role in cellular proteostasis. Indeed, VCP/p97 is involved in the endoplasmic reticulum (ER)-associated protein degradation, the mitochondrion-associated protein degradation, ribosomal quality control, the extraction of chromatin-bound proteins or of damaged lysosomes by autophagy, genome stability, and stress granules clearance. Mutations in this well-conserved protein can lead to protein aggregation and have been linked to several diseases, including neurodegenerative and muscular disorders and cancer.

Each monomer of the hexameric VCP/p97 protein is composed by an N-terminal domain followed by two tandem ATPase domains (D1 and D2) separated by a short linker, and an unstructured C-terminal tail. The N-terminal domain can be further subdivided into two subdomains, Nn (15-95 aa) and Nc (104-175 aa). This structure allows the association of VCP with a large variety of cofactors/adaptors which determine substrate specificity, target the ATPase to different cellular locations, or modify the ubiquitin chain attached to the substrate. So far, about 30-40 cofactors have been identified in mammals but their exact functions are still poorly understood. Whether they have a substrate-recruiting, processing or regulatory function, most cofactors interact with the Nn or Nc subdomains of VCP via a small number of conserved binding modules, while a lower number binds to the unstructured C-terminal tail formed by the last 7 amino acids...
acids. In mammals, most VCP cofactors contain the ubiquitin regulatory X domain (UBX) or UBX-like (UBXL) with similar three-dimensional structure described for ubiquitin. The UBX module interacts with the Nn-Nc cleft of the VCP through the Rx(3)FPR motif. Proteins such as UBXD1 to UBXD6, UBXD9 and UBXD11 contain only a UBX domain. The UBA (ubiquitin associated)-UBX cofactors, such as UBXD7, UBXD8 (FAF2), UBXD10 (p47), UBXD12 (FAF1) and UBXD13 also accommodate an UBA domain that is fundamental for interacting with ubiquitinated substrates. Cofactors such as p47 harbor, in addition to the UBX and UBA domains important for their function in the UPS, a SHP (BS1, binding segment 1) motif as another site for interaction with the Nc subdomain of VCP. Cofactors harboring either a VIM (VCP-interacting motif) or VBM (VCP-binding motif) motif also interact with the same hydrophobic pocket of the N-domain. One of the most studied VCP cofactor, the heterodimer UFD1-NPL4 (UN), interacts with VCP to form the VCP-UFD1-NPL4 complex which extracts polyubiquitinated proteins from membranes and macromolecular complexes and is involved in a series of biological processes, including ER-associated degradation (ERAD). Few cofactors have been reported to interact with the C-terminus of VCP. These harbor a PUB (PNGase/UBA or UBX-containing proteins) or a PUL (PLAP, Ufd3p, and Lub1p) domain which forms a hydrophobic pocket for interactions with the C-terminal tail of VCP following association of key amino acids such as Leu and the aromatic side chain of the penultimate tyrosine residue.

Our initial studies on the ubiquitin selective chaperone VCP/p97 in Leishmania (LiVCP) demonstrated its essential role in the parasite intracellular development and survival under heat stress. In this study, we provide novel insights into the LiVCP interaction network. A series of immunoprecipitation experiments coupled to liquid chromatography-tandem mass spectrometry analysis were used to identify the major interacting partners of LiVCP. These studies uncovered p47, UFD1, NPL4, FAF2 and PUB1 as the core LiVCP cofactors. Network proteomics for each cofactor confirmed close partnership with LiVCP and revealed the presence of multiple LiVCP complexes in Leishmania, including the well-characterized LiVCP-LiUFD1-LiNPL4 complex. Gene Ontology analysis of each cofactor proteome combined with digitonin fractionation and immunofluorescence studies support cofactor subcellular compartmentalization. Furthermore, in silico models based on 3D homology modeling and protein-protein docking predicted that conserved binding modules within key Leishmania VCP cofactors, with the exception of NPL4, interact with specific binding sites in the hexameric LiVCP protein, as described for their mammalian orthologs. Altogether, these results allowed us to build the Leishmania VCP protein network, the first characterized in parasitic protozoa.
3.5 Results

Identification of the Leishmania VCP/p97 cofactors and core proteome

VCP/p97 is a hexameric protein that can interact with a large number of protein cofactors through its N-terminal and C-terminal domains. These interactions are key for its activity and functional diversity. This study aimed to identify the Leishmania VCP interactome based on the human VCP/p97 network from the BioGrid database (Supplementary Table S1) as well as on protein-protein interaction experiments. According to the e-value similarity accessed by protein BLAST (blastP), most proteins from the human VCP network have homologs in Leishmania (Supplementary Fig. S1).

Seeking for the identification of Leishmania VCP cofactors, we carried out a series of immunoprecipitation (IP) experiments with either C- or N-terminally HA-tagged Leishmania infantum VCP (LiVCP; LinJ.36.1420) followed by LC-MS/MS, database searching, and peptide identification. To allow VCP expression from its endogenous locus, we replaced one LiVCP genomic copy by an HA-epitope tagged LiVCP (LiVCP-HA) (Fig. 1A). Both episomal and integrated LiVCP-HA versions were expressed at levels comparable to the endogenous VCP protein (Fig. 2B) and yielded similar IP results. From seven independent IP-MS/MS experiments (see Methods), 218 proteins were initially identified as potential LiVCP interacting partners (Supplementary Table S2). To decrease the number of false positives in the LiVCP network building, we applied a stringent filter. First, we calculated the average number of peptides for each protein in all seven IPs and then we excluded proteins also found in five independent IP-MS/MS studies conducted with HA-tagged proteins unrelated to the VCP complex (Fig. 1C and Supplementary Table S2). From this analysis, 24 proteins were selected to specifically associate with LiVCP. Among those, 15 proteins with an average of exclusive unique peptide count (EUPC) ≥ 2.0 were classified as the LiVCP core partners (Fig. 1D and Supplementary Table S2). These share conserved domains with known VCP cofactors in other eukaryotes, such as the p47 (Shp1) UBX/UBA- and SEP-containing protein (LinJ.22.0200), the UBX-containing protein FAF (Fas-associated factor) shown a higher homology to the human FAF2 protein (UBXD8 or ETEA; LinJ.35.1960), the ubiquitin fusion degradation protein 1 (UFD1; LinJ.36.6780), the nuclear protein localization 4 (NLP4; LinJ.25.1320) known to form a heterodimer with UFD1, an ubiquitin associated UBA/TS-N domain protein (LinJ.24.1650) with an identified ER membrane signal peptide, and two PUB (PNGase/UBA or UBX) domain containing proteins (LinJ.11.0920 and LinJ.09.1060). In addition, the LiVCP proteome core includes the serine/threonine phosphatase type 1 (PP1) (LinJ.34.0900), the PP1 regulator-like protein (LinJ.05.1200) whose human homolog
SDS22 is known to interact with VCP, three mitochondrial proteins - a stomatin-like protein (LinJ.05.1040), an ATP-dependent zinc metallopeptidase (LinJ.36.2850) and the AAA+ FtsH protease (LinJ.36.2850), a tetratricopeptide repeat protein part of the ER membrane protein complex subunit 2 (LinJ.17.0230) and three hypothetical proteins (LinJ.36.5080, LinJ.03.0250, LinJ.15.1570) (Fig. 1D) with some similarity to the yeast nuclear envelope protein Nsp1-like C-terminal region, syntaxin-like domain, and putative nuclear jumonji-like domain, respectively.

Apart from the above core partners, LiVCP co-immunoprecipitated heat shock proteins, chaperonins, T-complex proteins, mitochondrial integrity and stress response proteins, translation factors and ribosomal proteins, components of the trypanothione and peroxidase systems, RNA-binding proteins, and proteasome subunits (Supplementary Table S2) in line with its function in a broad array of ubiquitin-dependent protein quality control pathways.

'Network proteomics' analysis to identify interacting partners of the core LiVCP cofactors and associations between cofactor-bound proteins

The interaction of p47, UFD1, NPL4, FAF2 and PUB1 with the Leishmania VCP ortholog was further confirmed by inverse co-immunoprecipitation studies. C- or N- terminally HA-tagged Lip47, LiNPL4, LiUFD1, LiFAF2, or LiPUB1 proteins cloned into vector pSP $\beta$ ZEO were transfected and stably expressed in L. infantum promastigotes (Supplementary Fig. S2). Immunoprecipitation of these HA-tagged cofactor versions using an anti-HA antibody followed by western blotting with a specific anti-TbVCP antibody confirmed their association with LiVCP (Fig. 2A). The co-immunoprecipitation of LiUFD1, LiNPL4, Lip47, LiFAF2 and LiPUB1 with LiVCP (Fig. 1D and Table 1) and the detection of LiVCP in LiUFD1, LiNPL4, Lip47, LiFAF2 and LiPUB1 immunoprecipitates by western blotting (Fig. 2A) and mass spectrometry (Fig. 2B, Table 1, Supplementary Table S2) confirmed their close partnership.

As done for LiVCP, we carried out IP-MS/MS studies with five unrelated proteins to VCP complexes (average EUPC >3.6; LiVCP threshold) to filter out non-specific LiVCP cofactor partners (Fig. 3A and Supplementary Table S2). The remaining proteins that co-immunoprecipitated with Lip47 (145), or LiFAF2 (164), or LiUFD1 (46) and or LiPUB1 (98) can be considered as putative cofactor interacting partners (Fig. 3A, Table 1 and Supplementary Table S2).

Lip47 co-immunoprecipitated LiPUB1, the serine/threonine protein phosphatase 1 (PP1) catalytic subunit beta (LinJ.28.0730), a PP1 regulator-like protein that is homologous to the yeast SDS22 protein (LinJ.05.1200), and the PP1 phosphatase inhibitor that is homologous to the yeast Ypi1 protein (LinJ.07.0840) (Table 1). In Saccharomyces cerevisiae, these three proteins form a
ternary complex that is important for the nuclear localization of PP1 and whose assembly and quality control requires Cdc48 and its adaptor p47\textsuperscript{38}.

As reported in other eukaryotes\textsuperscript{34}, the *Leishmania* LiUFD1 protein complexes with NPL4 to form the heterodimer cofactor UFD1-NPL4 but also associates with LiFAF2 (Table 1). Complex formation between VCP-NPL4-UFD1, FAF1 and polyubiquitinated proteins was shown previously to promote ER-associated degradation\textsuperscript{39}. Other proteins only associated with the LiUFD1 proteome include a mitochondrial serine carboxypeptidase (CBP1; LinJ.18.0450), a phenylalanine-4-hydroxylase (LinJ.28.1390), peroxin PEX12 (LinJ.19.1240) and three hypothetical conserved proteins (LinJ.03.0250, LinJ.29.2300, LinJ.12.0550) (Table 1 and Supplementary Table S2). Interestingly, the hypothetical protein LinJ.03.0250 was also found in LiVCP immunoprecipitates (Fig. 1C), and some of the other LiUFD1 interacting proteins have homologs known to be part of the VCP network in other systems (see Discussion).

Proteins solely detected in LiFAF2 pull-down include a tetratricopeptide repeat containing protein of the ER membrane protein complex (LinJ.17.0230) also found in LiVCP immunoprecipitates (Fig. 1C), several peroxisomal/glycosomal proteins that are homologs of the peroxins PEX2 (LinJ.25.2330), PEX10 (LinJ.25.2400) and PEX11 (LinJ.35.3740), two fatty acid elongases (ELO1: LinJ.14.0680 and ELO3: LinJ.14.0760), a cell differentiation protein-like (LinJ.34.4180), and hypothetical protein LinJ.36.5360 (Table 1).

The LiPUB1 cofactor co-immunoprecipitated a serine palmitoyltransferase 1-like protein (LinJ.34.3530; SPT1), also found in the LiUFD1 proteome (Table 1). Serine palmitoyltransferase catalyzes the first and rate-limiting step in sphingolipid (ceramide) biosynthesis and has been associated with the resistance to heat stress and apoptosis\textsuperscript{40,41}.

Interestingly, several LiVCP cofactor-associated proteins are common to more than two cofactors (see Table 1). For example, Lip47, LiFAF2 and LiPUB1 co-immunoprecipitated the tubulin polymerization-promoting protein TPPP/p25-alpha (LinJ.34.1620) that stabilizes microtubules\textsuperscript{42} and also protects against abnormal forms of prion proteins\textsuperscript{43}, as well as the root hair defective GTP-binding protein (RHD3) (LinJ.32.0380) that is analogous to the mammalian atlastin GTPases involved in shaping ER tubules\textsuperscript{44}. An ADF/cofilin factor (LinJ.29.0520) of the family of actin remodeling proteins\textsuperscript{45} co-immunoprecipitated with both Lip47 and LiFAF2. The ribosomal protein S33 (LinJ.26.1610) and the hypothetical protein LinJ.33.1130 co-immunoprecipitated with LiFAF2 and LiPUB1. The V-type proton ATPase subunit D (LinJ.05.1140), a multi-subunit membrane protein complex that is evolutionarily related to F-type adenosine triphosphate synthases and A-ATP synthases\textsuperscript{46}, co-immunoprecipitated with Lip47 and LiUFD1. The LiUFD1, LiFAF2 and LiPUB1 cofactors co-immunoprecipitated the
trypanosomatid functional analog of Tom40 (ATOM40; LinJ.35.4920), which is the central pore of the TOM complex involved in the import of mitochondrial proteins\textsuperscript{47}. Finally, all LiVCP core cofactors co-immunoprecipitated a fatty acid elongase (ELO2) (LinJ.14.0700).

**General features of the LiVCP core cofactors**

Proteins specifically co-immunoprecipitated with LiUFD1, Lip47, LiFAF2, or LiPUB1 were submitted to Gene Ontology – cellular component (GO-CC) enrichment analysis using the tool provided by TriTrypDB (Fig. 3B and Supplementary Table S3). An enrichment of a 19-fold for vacuolar proteins was seen in the LiUFD1 proteome. Nuclear proteins were exclusively enriched within the Lip47 proteome and endoplasmic reticulum-related proteins were enriched only within the LiFAF2 and LiPUB1 proteomes.

Molecular function (MF) and biological process (BP) analyses were also done aside comparison with the LiVCP proteome (Supplementary Table S3). Globally, the molecular function analysis predicted proteins with translation factor activity and structural constituents of the ribosome, RNA-binding activity, structural molecule activity and peptidase activity. ATPase and ligase activities were exclusively enriched within the LiFAF2 proteome while transmembrane transporter activity was only associated with the LiUFD1 proteome.

The biological process analysis showed that cofactor-associated proteins were mostly involved in translation, protein targeting and folding, and several metabolic processes. Protein folding and tRNA metabolic processes were found only associated with the LiFAF2 proteome while protein targeting and mitotic cell cycle were enriched in the LiPUB1 proteome (Supplementary Table S3). Overall, Gene Ontology analysis of each proteome indicated specific compartment-association for each cofactor.

**Subcellular localization of the LiVCP core cofactors**

To determine the subcellular localization of the core LiVCP cofactors, we carried out digitonin fractionation and indirect immunofluorescence studies. As a central player to the endoplasmic reticulum (ER)-associated protein degradation\textsuperscript{19,48} and the translocation of damaged mitochondrial proteins from the outer mitochondrial membrane (OMM) into the cytosol \textsuperscript{20,49}, VCP has been found associated with both ER and OMM fractions, similarly to what we have described previously for the *Leishmania* LiVCP\textsuperscript{10}.

First, we treated *Leishmania* parasites with increasing concentrations of digitonin (20 μM-10 mM) and carried out western blotting on the different cellular sub-fractions using an anti-HA antibody (all cofactors were HA-epitope tagged). Our results indicate an association of LiFAF2
and partly of LiPUB1 proteins with the organellar fraction and an enrichment of LiUFD1, Lip47 and LiNPL4 proteins with the cytosolic fractions (Fig. 4A). Immunofluorescence studies using an antibody directed against the ER BiP protein confirmed that LiFAF2 and partly LiPUB1 co-localize to endoplasmic reticulum (Fig. 4B, 4C). No co-localization was found with the mitochondrion (data not shown). Immunofluorescence studies to detect Lip47 demonstrated a partial co-localization with the histone H3 nuclear marker (Fig. 4D), as also suggested by GO analysis (Fig. 3B).

**Predicted molecular interactions between the conserved domains of LiVCP cofactors and the *Leishmania* VCP protein based on 3D homology modeling and protein-protein docking**

It has been shown previously that the VCP/p97/Cdc48 hexamer can bind to its various cofactors through the UBX or PUB domains or a ubiquitin-like fold or through one of the linear binding motifs such as SHP. The *L. infantum* LiVCP encodes a protein of 784 amino acids that is highly conserved among its eukaryotic orthologs (75% aa identity with the human VCP/p97 protein) and harbors all the characteristic domains of VCP orthologs (Fig. 5A, top). Based on sequence similarity and conservation to mammalian VCP cofactor orthologs (Supplementary Fig. S1) and on the EUPC for each cofactor in LiVCP immunoprecipitates (Fig. 1), we selected Lip47, LiUFD1, LiNPL4, LiFAF2, and LiPUB1 as the core LiVCP cofactors for further investigation. Multiple sequence alignments of these LiVCP cofactors along with mammalian, yeast, trypanosomatid and non-trypanosomatid species helped us to generate phylogenetic trees revealing that Lip47, LiFAF2, LiUFD1, LiNPL4 and LiPUB1 are evolutionary distant from other eukaryotes but they harbor binding modules/motifs that are conserved and could represent specific domains for interaction with LiVCP (Supplementary Figs. S3-S7).

To investigate whether LiVCP-cofactor interactions identified by immunoprecipitation studies take place within the predicted binding sites in the hexameric LiVCP and the conserved binding modules in Lip47, LiFAF2, LiUFD1, LiNPL4 and LiPUB1, we constructed 3D models by homology modeling and a protein-protein docking approach. 3D homology models are helpful in refining protein-protein interaction predictions that have been based on a sequence match alone as interface binding is more directly determined by the structure of the binding site rather than its sequence. The LiVCP homohexamer 3D molecular structure was obtained through homology modeling by superposition with the *H. sapiens* p97 homohexamer (PDBid: 5C18) template (Fig. 5A, bottom).

The Lip47 protein presents the same domain composition (UBA, SEP and UBX) than its human ortholog (Fig. 5B, upper). Similarly to the human p47, Lip47 harbors the sequence GMPP in the UBX domain (Supplementary Fig. S8) that docks *in silico* into the Nn-Nc pocket of LiVCP
Although Lip47 shares only 25% amino acid identity with its human ortholog, it has 41% sequence similarity and 73% sequence coverage and contains the two SHP motifs (SHP1 and SHP2) (Supplementary Fig. S8) that together with the UBX domain are known to be key for the interaction with VCP. The SHP site is typically characterized by the consensus sequence FxGxGx₃h that was recently summarized as h(x)₁₋₂F/W(x)₀₋₁GxGx₂L (h, hydrophobic residue; x, any amino acid) and in Lip47, SHP1 and SHP2 sites, FYGRGQRL and FQGHGHRL, respectively are conserved (Supplementary Fig. S8). In addition, the Ramachandran plot showed that the amino acid residues of the Lip47 3D homology model are found in most favoured (87%) and additional allowed regions (8.7%) (Supplementary Table S4), which makes structure predictions reliable.

The LiFAF2 protein interacts with LiVCP through the GFPP motif in its UBX C-terminal domain as predicted by 3D homology modeling (Fig. 5C, Supplementary Fig. S10) and protein-protein docking upon superposition of the available structure of the human GYPP motif in the ovarian tumor domain-containing protein 1 (OTU1) and the homologous part within the Leishmania FAF2 protein (Supplementary Fig. S11). Surprisingly, LiFAF2 lacks the ubiquitin-associated (UBA) domain that is present in the human FAF1 and FAF2 proteins and is fundamental for interacting with ubiquitinated substrates.

UFD1 is known to assemble with NPL4 to form the heterodimer UFD1/NPL4 (U/N), one of the most important p97/VCP cofactors, that recognizes polyubiquitinated substrates and together with VCP extracts them from organellar membranes or macromolecular complexes. U/N binds to the N-terminal domain of VCP via the ubiquitin-like domain (UBL) of NPL4 and the SHP box of UFD1. The Leishmania LiUFD1 protein also contains the UBA domain and an UT6 region that accommodates the sequences QPTFAGAGRTL and RLKALGGGGRS corresponding to the SHP1 and SHP2 sites, respectively (Fig. 5D, top and Supplementary Fig. S12). 3D homology modeling predicts binding of LiUFD1 to LiVCP via its SHP1 site (Fig. 5D, bottom). Furthermore, docking essays propose that the SHP1 motif of LiUFD1 (reversed comparatively to the human SHP1) interacts with the same surface as in its human ortholog using amino acid residues Phe273, Arg278 and Leu280 (Phe228, Arg234 and Leu235 in human Ufd1) (Fig. 5D bottom and Supplementary Fig. S13).

In contrast to its eukaryotic orthologs, the Leishmania NPL4 lacks the N-terminal ubiquitin regulatory X (UBX)-like domain bound to the N-domain of Cdc48 hexamer, as well as the two Zn²⁺-finger domains important for anchoring the adjacent Mpr1/Pad1 N-terminal (MPN) domain to the top of the D1 ATPase ring. Interestingly, protein-protein docking simulations showed that despite the absence of the UBX-like domain, LiNPL4 seems to interact with the N-terminus of
LiVCP through its C-terminal GMPP motif (aa 350-353) (Supplementary Figs. S14, S15). Similarly to other eukaryotes, the U/N heterodimer in *Leishmania* also recognizes polyubiquitinated substrates as shown by LiNPL4 and LiUFD1 IPs followed by western blotting (Supplementary Fig. S16).

A representative member of the PUB (PNGase/UBA or UBX-containing) domain proteins in *Leishmania*, LiPUB1, which has no homolog in humans, contains a conserved region (Supplementary Fig. S17) that is predicted by 3D homology modeling (Fig. 5E) and protein docking (Supplementary Fig. S18) to interact with the last five amino acids (DDLYS) of the LiVCP C-terminus, similarly to other PUB domain proteins.

Altogether, despite the evolutionary distance of LiVCP cofactors from their mammalian orthologs, *in silico* models based on structural data from the human orthologs using 3D homology modeling and protein-protein docking indicated that the conserved binding modules of *Leishmania* VCP core cofactors (except LiNPL4) interact with specific binding sites in the hexameric LiVCP, similarly to their mammalian orthologs.

**The first trypanosomatid VCP interaction network**

The resulting datasets from LiVCP, Lip47, LiUFD1, LiFAF2 and LiPUB1 IP-MS/MS studies were mined to identify interacting partners that are specific to each LiVCP cofactor as well as partners that are shared among multiple cofactors and LiVCP complexes (Fig. 6A) and allowed us to build the first LiVCP interaction network (Fig. 6B). To decrease the number of false positives, we excluded proteins that were co-immunoprecipitated with unrelated HA-tagged proteins (average of EUPC=0.0). From the total number of proteins co-immunoprecipitated with Lip47, LiUFD1, LiFAF2, and LiPUB1 (Fig. 3A) only 10, 17, 23 and 9, respectively together with 24 proteins specifically associated to LiVCP (Fig. 1, Table 1 and Supplementary Table S2) were considered to build the topology of LiVCP network (83 proteins in total, 47 shown in Fig. 6B). The list of proteins and their intersections are detailed in Supplementary Table S5 whereas the complete list of interacting proteins is presented in Supplementary Table S2.

In addition to the known cofactors, eight proteins were exclusively associated with the LiVCP proteome and might also be considered as cofactors of the *Leishmania* VCP protein. These include another PUB domain protein (PUB2) (LinJ.11.0920), an OTU1 (ovarian tumor domain-containing protein 1)-like cysteine protease (LinJ.36.6280) that is homologous to the *S. cerevisiae* deubiquitylation enzyme OTU1 shown to interact with VCP, a protein present in the outer mitochondrial membrane (LinJ.29.2220), a P-type H+-ATPase (LinJ.18.1510), a microtubule-associated protein (LinJ.26.1950), a member of the FYVE zinc finger proteins...
(LinJ.36.2570) that serve as regulators of endocytic membrane trafficking and receptor signaling\textsuperscript{56}, a type 1 protein serine/threonine phosphatase (PP1) (LinJ.34.0900) and a \textit{Leishmania} specific hypothetical protein (LinJ.36.5080) (Fig. 6B and Supplementary Table S5).

Our analysis revealed that the LiUFD1 and LiFAF2 proteomes share five proteins in common with LiVCP. These include the mitochondrial stomatin-like protein 2 (SPL-2) (EUPC>20), the membrane-integrated mitochondrial AAA/FtsH protease\textsuperscript{57}, an UBA domain containing protein (LinJ.24.1650), and hypothetical conserved proteins LinJ.15.1570 and LinJ.36.4740 (Table 1, Fig. 6B). LiVCP and Lip47 mutually associate with the serine/threonine protein PP1 phosphatase catalytic subunit, the PP1 phosphatase inhibitor Ypi1, and the SDS22 (EUPC=20) PP1 regulator-like protein (Table 1, Fig. 6B and Supplementary Table S5). LiVCP and LiFAF2 mutually co-immunoprecipitate the tetratricopeptide repeat protein (LinJ.17.0230) and an uncharacterized protein family (LinJ.07.0450), both subunits of the ER membrane protein complex (Table 1, Fig. 6B and Supplementary Table S5). LiVCP and LiUFD1 mutually interact with the hypothetical protein LinJ.03.0250 (Table 1, Fig. 6B and Supplementary Table S5). Specific interactions between cofactor-associated partners that do not involve an association with LiVCP are described in detail in the ‘network proteomics’ section (see also Table 1 and Fig. 6B).

Overall, using combined datasets from multiple IP/MS-MS studies for LiVCP and its main cofactors, we unveiled the first \textit{Leishmania} LiVCP interactome. Many of the LiVCP interactors have homologs that are known to interact with VCP in other eukaryotic systems but others do not and may be relevant to study further as part of distinct \textit{Leishmania} VCP complexes.

### 3.6 Discussion

In this study, we have characterized the valosin-containing protein (VCP) interaction network, the first in parasitic protozoa. We have employed a series of co-immunoprecipitation and mass spectrometry analyses coupled with \textit{in silico} models that allowed us to identify the \textit{Leishmania} VCP proteome with its major cofactors and their interacting partners, as well as, to predict molecular interactions between conserved domains within these cofactors and specific binding sites in the hexameric LiVCP. Our data support several similarities but also important differences between the \textit{Leishmania} VCP protein network and VCP complexes characterized in other eukaryotes.

Most of the known classes of VCP cofactors in other eukaryotes have orthologs in \textit{Leishmania}. However, cofactors harboring the VIM (VCP-interacting motif)/VBM (VCP-binding motif) motifs\textsuperscript{58} were not found in any of our immunoprecipitation experiments, and with the exception of the ERAD-associated E3 ubiquitin-protein ligase HRD1 (LinJ.15.1460) no homologs
of this class of proteins were depicted in the *Leishmania* genome. While *LVCP* is highly conserved among different eukaryotic organisms and harbors all the characteristic domains of the human p97/VCP ortholog\(^{10}\), most of the major *LVCP* cofactors are phylogenetically distant from their eukaryotic orthologs. However, despite their evolutionary distance from yeast and mammalian orthologs, *in silico* models based on 3D homology modeling and protein-protein docking indicated that the conserved binding modules of *Leishmania* VCP cofactors interact with specific binding sites in the hexameric *LVCP*, similarly to their eukaryotic orthologs. This is the case for *Lip47* and *LiFAF2* that bind the Nn-Nc pocket of *LVCP* through the sequence GMPP/GFPP in their UBX domain. Surprisingly, *LiFAF2* lacks the UBA domain and theoretically should have lost the ability of binding ubiquitinated substrates\(^{59}\). Similarly to its yeast ortholog\(^{34}\), *LiUFD1* interacts with the N-terminus of *LVCP* through its conserved SHP motif. *LiPUB1* while has no human homolog yet interacts with the C-terminal region of *LVCP*, as described for the human VCP-PUB complex.

One of the important differences unveiled by our study concerns *LiNPL4*, which lacks the UBX-like domain and the two Zn\(^{2+}\)-finger motifs shown to bind VCP. Indeed, recent studies on the structure of the Cdc48-Ufd1-Npl4 complex from the thermophilic fungus *Chaetomium thermophilum* demonstrated that Npl4 interacts with the Cdc48 N-terminal region through its UBX-like domain and uses the Zn\(^{2+}\)-finger motifs to anchor its MPN domain to the top of the D1 ATPase ring\(^{34}\). On the other hand, Ufd1 interacts with Npl4 to form the Ufd1-Npl4 heterodimer through a short segment of its UT6 domain\(^{34}\) which is also conserved in the *Leishmania* Ufd1 ortholog. Our 3D homology modeling and docking experiments predicted binding of *LiNPL4* to *LVCP* through its C-terminus GMPP motif. All NPL4 orthologs of the genus *Leishmania*, *Leptomonas* and *Phytomonas* harbor the GMPP motif and a variant of this motif, GM-[EDS]-PP, is present in *Trypanosoma* species. This unique feature in Trypanosomatidae paves the way for the design of inhibitors specifically targeting NPL4 binding to VCP. Ufd1-Npl4 and p47 are substrate-recruiting cofactors shown to bind VCP in a mutually exclusive manner as they compete for the same binding modules\(^{30,31}\). This seems also to be the case in *Leishmania*. *Lip47* was neither found in the *LiUFD1* proteome nor *LiUFD1* in the *Lip47* pull-down. Moreover, they do not share common interacting partners, except for the V-type proton ATPase subunit D.

Our analysis led us to identify the first PUB domain proteins in *Leishmania* and to unveil *LiPUB1* as one of the major *LVCP* cofactors interacting with the C-terminal region of *LVCP*. Furthermore, new prospects were opened with the yet non-studied PUB domain protein *LiPUB2* identified here as a putative *LVCP* cofactor. In addition, a third UBX- and PUB domain-containing protein (LinJ.36.0140; *LiPUB3*) was retrieved by searching the *L. infantum* genome database.
PUB domain proteins known to bind to the C-terminus of the VCP hexamer have been associated with autophagy of damaged lysosomes but the physiological significance of these interactions remains to be determined. Here, we found that a serine palmitoyltransferase-like protein was associated solely with the LiPUB1 proteome. Interestingly, a homolog of this protein in yeast is required for resistance to heat shock and plays an essential role in the removal or refolding of denatured or aggregated cytoplasmic proteins. We have reported recently that LiVCP is essential for the parasite survival under heat stress, and PUB proteins with the help of a serine palmitoyltransferase may contribute to this process.

Interestingly, our study revealed new LiVCP interacting partners exclusively associated with the LiVCP proteome that might function as LiVCP cofactors. These include a PUB domain protein (LiPUB2), an outer mitochondrial membrane protein, a P-type H+-ATPase with homology to fungal and plant proton pumps, a FYVE zinc-finger protein known to bind phosphatidylinositol 3-phosphate in membranes of endocytic vesicles that regulate membrane trafficking and receptor signaling, a microtubule-associated protein, and several hypothetical conserved proteins that may be part of distinct VCP-complexes. LiVCP, and also Lip47, associates with the type 1 protein serine/threonine phosphatase (PP1) complex consisting of the PP1 catalytic subunit Glc7/PP1-B, the SDS22 regulator-like protein and the protein phosphatase PP1 inhibitor YPI1. In *S. cerevisiae*, nuclear localization of Glc7 requires Sds22 and Ypi1. It has been shown recently that nuclear PP1 activity is positively regulated by the AAA-ATPase Cdc48 and its cofactor Shp1 (p47) to promote the assembly of the Glc7-Sds22-Ypi1 PP1 complex and to ensure its quality control. Interestingly, here we found that Lip47 interacts with a large number of nuclear proteins and that is partly localized to the nucleus. From an evolutionary point of view, it is interesting that the interaction of LiVCP with Lip47 may regulate the assembly of the Glc7-Sds22-Ypi1 complex like is the case in yeast. LiVCP was found also associated, although not in all immunoprecipitates, with substrate-processing cofactors like the thioesterase ovarian tumor domain-containing protein 1 (OTU1), a deubiquitinating enzyme involved in ERAD through the interaction of its UBX-like (UBXL) domain with the N-terminus of Cdc48. Although it is yet unclear how the polyubiquitinated substrates are released from the p97/VCP/Cdc48 complex and passed on to the proteasome, OTU1 can be the deubiquitinase involved in this process as its UBXL domain interacts with VCP. Although the *Leishmania* OTU1 ortholog does not harbor a well-defined UBXL domain, interestingly the GYPP loop of UBXL in *S. cerevisiae* shown not only to be critical for the interaction with VCP but also for its role in the ERAD pathway it is conserved in *Leishmania* (GFP).
Another novel finding here is the association of the *Leishmania* VCP and also of its cofactors *LiFAF2* and *LiUFD1* with a stomatin-like protein 2 (SLP-2). Stomatins are members of the SPFH (stomatin, prohibitin, flotillin, HflC/K) superfamily that localize to the mitochondrial inner membrane scaffolding for the spatial organization of inner membrane proteases regulating mitochondrial dynamics, quality control, and cell survival. Accordingly, our data support the association of *LiUFD1* with transmembrane transport and peptidase activity proteins. It is possible that *LiVCP* associates with SLP-2 through UFD1, which also interacts with FAF2. Also present in the *LiVCP* proteome and associated with both *LiFAF2* and *LiUFD1* cofactors is the mitochondrial ATP-dependent AAA+ protease FtsH whose proteolytic and chaperone-like activity is crucial to the protein degradation protein quality control of mitochondrial and chloroplast membranes. This suggests a new model for membrane protein degradation mediated by ATP-dependent proteolytic systems.

Our data support a subcellular compartmentalization for the key *LiVCP* cofactors. *LiFAF2* and *LiPUB1* are associated with organelles, *LiFAF2* most likely with endoplasmic reticulum (ER), *Lip47* is partially localized to the nucleus, *LiUFD1* is possibly associated with cytosolic vacuoles, and NPL4 is enriched in the cytoplasm. Interestingly, *LiFAF2* is associated with the peroxisomal biogenesis factors PEX2, PEX10 and PEX11. Similarly to other eukaryotes, recent data in trypanosomatids support *de novo* biogenesis of peroxisomes (glycosomes) from the ER. In higher eukaryotes PEX2, PEX10 and PEX12 are part of the peroxisomal E3 ubiquitin ligase complex required for pexophagy, a pathway to degrade ubiquitinated peroxisomes that involves an AAA ATPase complex with a striking similarity to p97. Glycosome turnover in *Leishmania* is mediated by autophagy and the VCP/p97 quality control system, possibly through its FAF2 cofactor, may contribute to the control of glycosome homeostasis and turnover in these parasites. *LiFAF2* also associates with two fatty acid elongases of the ELO GNS1/SUR4 family involved in the membrane-bound fatty acid chain elongation. Interestingly, an ELO2 fatty acid elongase was found in the proteome of all four *LiVCP* cofactors (p47, UFD1 FAF2, PUB1). In trypanosomatids, the fatty acid elongation pathway occurs in the membrane of the ER and this could explain its association with components of the ERAD pathway.

In summary, this study allowed us to build the first VCP protein interaction network in trypanosomatids through the identification of known and novel interacting partners potentially associated with distinct VCP complexes. Our proteomics datasets identified biologically relevant functions for the *Leishmania* VCP cofactors and provided an important resource for further investigation of VCP function in several cellular processes related to protein quality control in these parasites.
3.7 Methods

Parasite strains, plasmid constructs and transfections

Leishmania infantum MHOM/MA/67/ITMAP-263 was used in this study. L. infantum promastigotes were cultured in SDM-79 medium supplemented with 10% heat-inactivated FCS (Multicell Wisent Inc., Canada) and 5 μg/ml hemin at pH 7.0 and 25° C. The Lip47 (LinJ.22.0200/LINF_220008200), LiFAF2 (LinJ.35.1960/LINF_350024700), LiUF1 (LinJ.36.6780/LINF_360076400), LiNPL4 (LinJ.25.1320/ LINF_250019000), and LiPUB1 (LinJ.09.1060/LINF_090016300) genes were amplified and cloned into pSP72αZEOα. An HA epitope tag was added either at their N- or C-terminus. Primers used in this study are shown in Supplementary Table S6. The generated plasmids were independently transfected into L. infantum promastigotes. Purified plasmid DNA (10–20 μg, Qiagen Plasmid Mini Prep Kit, Toronto, Ontario, Canada) or linearized fragments (10–20 μg for the targeting cassette 5'flank-αZEOα-VCPHA-3'flank from1) were transfected into Leishmania by electroporation as described previously74. Stable transfectants were selected and cultured with 0.6 mg/ml zeocin (Sigma).

Protein lysate preparations and western blots

Western blots were performed following standard procedures. The anti-mouse HA tag monoclonal antibody (1:3000; ABM), the anti-mouse HSP70 (cytosolic) antibody (1:400, Acris), the anti-rabbit HSP70 (mitochondrial) antibody (1:2000, kindly provided by Dr Osvaldo de Melo Neto, Recife, Brazil), and the anti-mouse T. brucei (Tb)VCP antibody (1:5000; 37) kindly provided by Dr. James D. Bangs (Department of Microbiology & Immunology, Jacobs School of Medicine & Biomedical Sciences, University at Buffalo, USA) were used in this study. As a secondary antibody, we used the anti-mouse Horseradish peroxidase (HRP) (Cell Signalling) or the anti-rabbit-HRP antibody (GE Healthcare). Blots were visualized by chemoluminescence with Pierce ECL2 western blotting kit (Thermo Scientific). Digitonin fractionation was carried out in the presence of increasing concentrations of digitonin (20 μM to 10 mM) as described previously75 and each fraction was analysed by western blot.

Immunofluorescence studies

Immunofluorescence studies were done as described previously9,10. The anti-mouse HA tag monoclonal antibody (1:1000; ABM), the anti-mouse H3 Histone 3 antibody (1:500; ABM) and the rabbit polyclonal anti-T. brucei BiP (kindly provided by Dr. JD Bangs) were used as a primary antibody followed by Alexa Fluor® 488 anti-mouse and Alexa Fluor® 555 anti-rabbit as secondary
antibodies. Nucleus and kinetoplast DNA was stained with DAPI (blue). The cells were observed under a Nikon epifluorescence microscope with a 100X objective and oil immersion. Images acquisition was performed with ImagePro Plus software and ImageJ.

**Immunoprecipitation studies**

Immunoprecipitation (IP) studies and mass spectrometry analysis were carried out as described previously. Briefly, *L. infantum* promastigotes expressing HA-tagged protein were lysed, mixed with Pierce anti-HA magnetic beads (Thermo Scientific, Canada) and kept at -20°C and subjected to mass spectrometry analysis or alternatively resolved in SDS PAGE, excised, trypsin-digested, and analyzed by mass spectrometry.

**Sample preparation and LC-MS/MS analysis**

Protein digestion and mass spectrometry analyses were performed by the Proteomics Platform of the CHU de Québec Research Center (Quebec, Qc, Canada) as described previously. Briefly, bands of interest were extracted from gels, placed in 96-well plates and then washed with water. Tryptic digestion was performed on a liquid handling robot (MultiProbe, Perkin Elmer) according to manufacturer’s instructions using the protocol detailed in with some modifications as suggested in. Proteins were reduced with 10 mM DTT and alkylated with 55 mM iodoacetamide. Iodoacetamide derivative of cysteine was specified as a fixed modification and oxidation of methionine and deamidation of Asparagine and Glutamine were specified as a variable modification. Two missed cleavages were allowed. Trypsin digestion was performed using 126 nM of modified porcine trypsin (Sequencing grade, Promega, Madison, WI) at 37°C for 18 hrs. Digestion products were extracted using 1% formic acid, 2% acetonitrile followed by 1% formic acid and 50% acetonitrile. The recovered peptides were pooled, vacuum-centrifuged, dried and then resuspended into 12 µl of 0.1% formic acid, and 5 µl were analyzed by mass spectrometry. Peptide samples were separated by online reversed-phase (RP) nanoscale capillary liquid chromatography (nanoLC) and analyzed by electrospray mass spectrometry (ES MS/MS). The experiments were performed with an Eksper NanoLC425 (Eksigent) coupled to a 5600+ mass spectrometer (Sciex, Framingham, MA, USA) equipped with a nanoelectrospray ion source. Peptide separation took place on a self-packed picofrit column (New Objective) with reprosil 3u, 120A C18, 15 cm x 0.075 mm internal diameter, (Dr Maisch). Peptides were eluted with a linear gradient from 5-35% solvent B (acetonitrile, 0.1% formic acid) for 35 minutes at a flow rate of 300 nL/min. Mass spectra were acquired by a data dependent acquisition mode using Analyst software version 1.7. Each full scan mass spectrum (400 to 1250 m/z) was followed by collision-
induced dissociation of the twenty most intense ions. Dynamic exclusion was set for a period of 12 sec and a mass tolerance of 100 ppm.

**Database searching**

MGF peak list files were created using Protein Pilot version 4.5 software (Sciex). MGF sample files were then analyzed using Mascot (Matrix Science, London, UK; version 2.5.1). Mascot was searched with a fragment ion mass tolerance of 1.0 Da and a parent ion tolerance of 1.0 Da. Scaffold (version Scaffold_4.8.4, Proteome Software Inc., Portland, OR) was used to validate MS/MS based peptide and protein identifications based on the *Leishmania Infantum* TriTrypDB (version 9.0 released April 2016, 8589 entries). Peptide identifications were accepted if they could be established at greater than 5.0% probability to achieve an FDR less than 1.0% by the Scaffold Local FDR algorithm. Protein identifications were accepted if they could be established at greater than 99.0% probability to achieve a FDR less than 1.0% and contained at least 2 identified peptides. Protein probabilities were assigned by the Protein Prophet algorithm. Proteins that contained similar peptides and could not be differentiated based on MS/MS analysis alone were grouped to satisfy the principles of parsimony.

**3D homology modeling and protein-protein docking**

To construct 3D models of *L. infantum* JPCM5 proteins *LiUFD1* (LinJ.36.6780), *LiP47* (SEP domain, LinJ.22.0200), *LiFAF2* (UBX domain, LinJ.35.1960), *LiPUB1* domain (LinJ.09.1060), *LiNPL4* (LinJ.25.1320) and *LiVCP* proteins, we searched for their orthologs in PDB database using BlastP and Delta-Blast. Then, 3D structure models were built using the modelling software MODELLER based on their homologous structure, PDBid: 5C1B_V, 1S3S_H, 2MX2_A, 2HPL_B, 6CDD_A and 5C18_D, respectively. The QPTFAGAGRTL SHP1 peptide of *LiUFD1* and the DDLYS peptide of *LiVCP* were modeled using as templates PDBid: 5C1B_V and 2HPL, respectively. The *LiVCP* hexamer was obtained by superposition with the *H. sapiens* p97 hexamer (PDBid: 5C18). The quality of the models was assessed by Ramachandran plot analysis through PROCHECK. Proteins and peptides of *L. infantum* were docked into *LiVCP* using HDOCK and HPEPDOCK, respectively. The electrostatic potential surfaces of 3D models and images were generated with PyMOL software (http://pymol.org/).

**Multiple alignments and phylogeny**

We used the amino acid sequence of each *L. infantum* JPCM5 protein to search by BlastP and Delta-Blast for close homologs in bacteria, archaea, fungi, plants and animals. The sequences
extracted from databases were aligned with Clustal Omega\textsuperscript{84}. To establish the phylogenetic relationships between \textit{L. infantum} proteins and those of prokaryotic and other eukaryotic organisms, the sequences were aligned with Clustal Omega\textsuperscript{84} and a phylogenetic tree was constructed using PhyML\textsuperscript{85}. The gene ontology (GO) term enrichment analysis was performed using the tool provided by TriTrypDB (\url{http://tritrypdb.org}) with Fisher exact test filtering for false discovery rate (FDR) lower than 0.05. Cellular Component, Molecular Function and Biological Process were carried out separately.

**Experimental design and statistical rationale**

\textit{Filter for LiVCP IP-MS/MS}: Seven IP-MS/MS studies were considered for LiVCP (Supplementary Table S2). To select proteins that specifically associate with LiVCP, we calculated the average number of peptides for each protein in all seven experiments, and then excluded all proteins also found in five independent IP-MS/MS studies conducted with HA-tagged proteins unrelated to the VCP complex. From the selected 24 LiVCP specific interacting proteins, 15 with an average of exclusive unique peptide count (EUPC) ≥ 2.0 were classified as the LiVCP core and are presented in Figure 1C and Supplementary Table S2.

\textit{Filter for LiVCP cofactors IP-MS/MS}: Two independent experiments were performed for each LiVCP cofactor (\textit{Lip47, LiFAF2, LiUFD1} and \textit{LiPUB1}) and only proteins with an average of exclusive unique peptide count EUPC ≥ 2.0 in both experiments for each cofactor were considered (Supplementary Table S2). To exclude non-specific partners, IP-MS/MS studies with proteins unrelated to LiVCP complexes were carried out and proteins with an average of EUPC > 3.6 (LiVCP threshold) were used to filter out non-specific LiVCP cofactor associated proteins. The remaining proteins co-immunoprecipitated with \textit{Lip47, or LiFAF2, or LiUFD1} and or \textit{LiPUB1} were considered as putative LiVCP cofactors. Cytoscape v 3.5.1\textsuperscript{86} was used to plot network analyses of all new interactions for \textit{LiVCP, Lip47, LiFAF2, LiUFD1} and \textit{LiPUB1}.

\textit{Filter for network plotting}: To decrease the number of false positive results in the LiVCP network building, we only show proteins that were not co-immunoprecipitated with all unrelated HA-tagged proteins (average of EUPC=0.0). From the total number of proteins co-immunoprecipitated with \textit{Lip47, or LiUFD1 or LiFAF2 and or LiPUB1}, only 10, 17, 23 and 9, respectively were considered together with the 24 LiVCP specific interactors (Fig. 1, Table 1 and Supplementary Table S2) to build the topology of LiVCP network. No statistical analysis was needed.
3.8 Acknowledgements

We are grateful to the Proteomics platform of the CHU de Quebec Research Center-Université Laval. We also thank Dr. James D. Bangs for having kindly provided the anti-*Trypanosoma brucei* VCP antibody. BA is a recipient of doctoral fellowships from the CAPES ‘Frontiers without Borders’ program. This work was supported by the Natural Sciences and Engineering Research Council of Canada (NSERC) Discovery Grant GC100741 (418444) and the Canadian Institutes of Health Research (CIHR) operating grant MOP-12182 awarded to BP.

3.9 Data availability

The mass spectrometry proteomics data have been deposited to the ProteomeXchange Consortium via the PRIDE\(^87\) partner repository with the dataset identifier PXD013731. The Reviewer account details are Username: reviewer11708@ebi.ac.uk, Password: Zm5uR3hc.

3.10 Author contributions

B.G.A. generated all constructs and performed transfections, IP experiments and western blots, sample preparations for mass spectrometry analysis, and processed all data. H.M. did the 3D homology modeling, docking and phylogeny. C.D. and P.K.P. helped with cell cultures, digitonin fractionation, and immunofluorescence studies. Conceptualization and design of the experiments was done by B.G.A. with the help of B.P. B.G.A. and B.P. wrote the manuscript. B.P. supervised the project and provided funding.

3.11 Conflict of interest

The authors declare no conflicts of interest.
3.12 References


27. Meyer, H. & Weihl, C. C. The VCP/p97 system at a glance: connecting cellular function


### 3.13 Tables

**Table 1.** Proteins specifically associated with one or more *Leishmania* LVCP cofactors as determined by immunoprecipitation and LC-MS/MS studies.

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Proteins in bold represent the core LIVCP cofactors. Proteins highlighted in grey are shared between two LIVCP cofactors. Proteins highlighted in yellow are shared between three or four LIVCP cofactors. Proteins indicated with an asterisk (*) are also found in LIVCP immunoprecipitates. The remaining proteins are specific to each LIVCP cofactor (see also Fig. 6B). TM: transmembrane helix. Average of exclusive unique peptide count (EUPC) is from seven independent IP experiments.

**LiPUB1**

| LinJ.36.1420 | Valosin-containing protein, putative | 24.5 |
| LinJ.09.1060 | PUB domain containing protein, putative (PUB1)* | 14.5 |
| LinJ.32.0380 | root hair defective 3 GTP-binding protein (RHD3), putative | 3.0 |
| LinJ.14.0700 | fatty acid elongase, putative (ELO2 GNS1/SUR4 family; 5 TMs) | 3.0 |
| LinJ.33.1130 | hypothetical protein, unknown function | 3.0 |
| LinJ.36.6780 | ubiquitin fusion degradation protein, putative (UFD1)* | 2.0 |
| LinJ.35.4920 | mitochondrial import receptor subunit ATOM40, putative | 2.0 |
| LinJ.34.3530 | serine palmitoyltransferase-like protein (long chain base biosynthesis protein) | 2.0 |
| LinJ.26.1610 | 40S ribosomal protein S33, putative | 2.0 |
| LinJ.34.1620 | TPPP/p25-alpha, putative (Tubulin Polymerization-Promoting Protein) | 2.0 |
3.14 Figures

Figure 1. The *Leishmania LVCP* core partners identified by co-immunoprecipitation and mass spectrometry studies. (A) Schematic draw of the construct used to express the *L. infantum* valosin-containing protein (*LVCP*) tagged with an HA epitope at the C-terminus (*LVCP<sup>HA</sup]*) either episomally or integrated into the *L. infantum* VCP endogenous locus. (B) Western blotting to evaluate *LVCP-HA* expression levels using anti-*TbVCP* and anti-HA antibodies. The alpha-tubulin antibody was used as protein loading control. (C) Venn diagram demonstrating the number of proteins identified by mass spectrometry in *LVCP-HA* immunoprecipitates of seven independent experiments that were filtered against 5
unrelated HA-tagged proteins (see Methods and Supplementary Table S2 for details). (D) LiVCP core partners identified in (C) with an average of exclusive unique peptide count (EUPC) of ≥ 2. The five LiVCP core cofactors studied here (Lip47, LiUFD1, LiNPL4, LiFAF2 and LiPUB1) are indicated in bold. For the complete list, see Supplementary Table S2.
Figure 2. Reciprocal interactions between the Leishmania LiVCP and its key cofactors. (A) LiVCP detection by western blotting with an anti-TbVCP antibody following immunoprecipitation of C- or N- terminally HA-tagged LiUFD1, LiP47, LiFAF2, LiNPL4 and LiPUB1 proteins ectopically expressed in Leishmania. (B) Detection of LiVCP and its cofactors LiUFD1, LiP47, LiFAF2, LiNPL4 and LiPUB1 by mass spectrometry after co-immunoprecipitation using anti-HA magnetic beads for recombinant Leishmania expressing C- or N- terminally HA-tagged cofactor proteins. The average of EUPC for two independent experiments for each cofactor is shown here.
Figure 3. Network proteomics to gain novel insights into LiVCP cofactor complexes. (A) Venn diagrams demonstrating the number of proteins identified by mass spectrometry in *Lip47*, *LiFAF2*, *LiUFD1* and *LiPUB1* co-immunoprecipitates of two independent experiments for each cofactor (see Experimental Procedures) after applying a filter of five unrelated HA-tagged proteins (average of EUPC = 3.6 on 5 unrelated proteins; see Supplementary Table S2 for details) to reduce non-specific interactions. (B) Gene ontology–cellular component (GO-CC) analysis of proteins identified in (A) for each LiVCP cofactor:
LiP47 (145), LiFAF2 (164), LiUFD1 (46), and LiPUB1 (98) according to their terms listed on TriTrypDB. The same stringent filter (grey in A) was applied for each cofactor (see Supplementary Figure S2 for details). Gene Ontology biological process and molecular function can be seen in Supplementary Figure S19.
Figure 4. Subcellular localization of LiVCP cofactors. (A) Western blot of *L. infantum* digitonin-fractionated promastigotes (20 μM-10 mM) using the anti-HA antibody to detect the C- or N-terminally HA-tagged *LiUFD1*, *LiNPL4*, *Lip47*, *LiFAF2* and *LiPUB1* proteins.
ectopically expressed in *Leishmania*. The 20 μM to 200 μM digitonin fractions are enriched with cytosolic proteins, the 1 mM and 10 mM fractions contain mostly organellar proteins, and the pellet fraction contains membrane-associated proteins. Antibodies against the cytosolic or mitochondrial HSP70 were used as controls. Immunofluorescence studies showing the localization of C- or N-terminally HA-tagged *LiFAF2* (B), *LiPUB1* (C) and *Lip47* (D) (in green). An anti-HA antibody was used as primary antibody followed by Alexa Fluor® 488 anti-mouse as secondary antibody. Nuclear and kinetoplast DNA was stained with DAPI (blue). Endoplasmic reticulum (ER) putative co-localization was assessed using an anti-BiP antibody (red in B and C) as an ER marker. An Alexa Fluor® 555 anti-rabbit was used as secondary antibody for BiP. Putative nuclear co-localization for *Lip47* was assessed using an anti-histone H3 (H3) antibody (red in D).
Figure 5. 3D homology modeling of the major LiVCP cofactors and their docking prediction into the *L. infantum* LiVCP protein. (A) Top, domain architecture of LiVCP. The N-domain is subdivided into an N- (Nn, colored in yellow) and a C-terminal (Nc, colored...
in orange) subdomains and the two ATPase domains are in blue (D1) and red (D2), respectively. The Walker A (A) and Walker B (B) motifs as well as the Sensor 1 (S1) residues and arginine (R) fingers are indicated. Bottom, top (left) and side views (right) of the LiVCP hexamer 3D structure model built by homology with the *H. sapiens* p97 hexamer (PDBid entry 5C18). (B) Top, domain composition of Lip47. Bottom, electrostatic potential surface of LiVCP (colored according to hydrophobicity) with stick representation of the UBX GMPP binding motif of Lip47. Key interactions are shown. (C) Top, domain composition of LiFAF2. Bottom, electrostatic potential surface of LiVCP with stick representation of the UBX GFPP binding motif of LiFAF2. Middle panel between B and C shows molecular surface of LiVCP with the UBX binding site indicated (Nn-Nc pocket). (D) Top, domain composition of LiUFD1. Bottom, electrostatic potential surface of LiVCP with stick representation of the SHP1 binding site QPTFAGAGRTL. (E) Top, domain composition of LiPUB1. Bottom, electrostatic potential surface of LiPUB1 with a stick representation of the C-terminus of LiVCP<sup>DDLYS<sup>784</sup></sup>. Middle panel between D and E shows molecular surface of LiVCP with the SHP binding site (Nc) and C-terminus tail indicated. 3D homology models of LiUFD1, Lip47, LiFAF2 and LiPUB1 were respectively built by homology based on the templates with pdb entries: 5C1B_V, 1S3S_H, 2MX2 and 2HPL, respectively using the modeling software MODELLER<sup>80</sup>. For further details, see Supplementary Figures S9, S11, S13 and S18. UBA (ubiquitin-associated); SEP (Shp, eyes-closed, p47); SHP (BS1, binding segment 1); UBX (ubiquitin regulatory X); UAS, domain of unknown function found in FAF2 and other proteins; PUB (PNGase/UBA or UBX) containing proteins. Further information about the respective domains can be found at [http://www.ebi.ac.uk/interpro/](http://www.ebi.ac.uk/interpro/).
Figure 6. The *Leishmania* VCP protein interaction network. (A) A Venn diagram representing the number of proteins identified by mass spectrometry in independent immunoprecipitates of *LiVCP* and its key cofactors *LiUFD1*, *Lip47*, *LiFAF2* and *LiPUB1*. For...
high stringency filtering and network clarity, only proteins absent in IPs with HA-tagged unrelated proteins (EUPC = 0.0 on five unrelated experiments) were considered for this analysis. The intersections of list of elements were calculated with the Venn tool at http://bioinformatics.psb.ugent.be/webtools/Venn/. For the list of proteins used and their intersection, see Supplementary Table S5. (B) Integrated interaction map of the LVCP network using the data generated in this work showed as in (A). For clarity, protein names were simplified. Filled color circles for LVCP and its cofactors are represented as in (A). Bigger circles represent higher average of EUPC in LVCP IP experiments. The proteins LiUFD1, Lip47, LiFAF2, LiPUB1 and LVCP were used as bait (see Methods) and are represented with bold border circles. The direction of interactions is represented with a target arrow shape. Spring-embedded layout was applied on Cytoscape 3.5.1
3.15 List of the Supplementary material included

Supplementary Tables*

Supplementary Table S1. Overlap between the BioGRID VCP interactors and *Leishmania* homologs. This spreadsheet presents the analysis of the overlap between interactors reported for the *H. sapiens* VCP from the Biogrid interaction dataset 3.4 and their similarities with *Leishmania* homologous proteins.

Supplementary Table S2. Proteins potentially interacting with the *Leishmania LiVCP* and its main cofactors as determined by immunoprecipitation and LC-MS/MS studies. This spreadsheet contains data from all IP-MS/MS experiments reported in this study for LiVCP, its cofactors and unrelated proteins used as filters.

Supplementary Table S3. GO-term analysis (cellular component, molecular function and biological process) of the *Lip47, LiFAF2, LiUFD1* and *LiPUB1* proteomes using the tool provided by TriTrypDB. Only proteins co-immunoprecipitated either with *Lip47* or *LiFAF2* or *LiUFD1* and or *LiPUB1* but not found in the IPs of the unrelated control proteins as described in Figure 3A were considered for these analyses. Raw data are presented.

Supplementary Table S4. Ramachandran plot analysis of all the modeled proteins. The quality of the 3D models for LiVCP and its main cofactors was assessed by Ramachandran plot analysis through the PROCHECK software module.

Supplementary Table S5. Proteins used for constructing the LiVCP interaction network classified based on their intersection. This spreadsheet contains the list of proteins used for the LiVCP network construction considering the presence/absence of different proteins on our multiple co-IP-MS/MS experiments.

Supplementary Table S6. Primers used in this study.

*Supplementary Tables, 1, 2, 3, 5, and 6 are all Excel files (.xlsx) and are supplied separately.*
Supplementary figures:

**Supplementary Figure S1.** Known interacting partners of the *H. sapiens* VCP/p97 identified as putative cofactors of the *L. infantum* LNCP protein.

**Supplementary Figure S2.** Ectopic expression of HA-tagged *LiUFD1, Lip47, LiFAF2, LiNPL4* and *LiPUB1* cofactors of the *Leishmania* LNCP.

**Supplementary Figure S3.** Phylogenetic analysis of p47 homologs from different eukaryotes.

**Supplementary Figure S4.** Phylogenetic relationships between FAF2 homologs from different eukaryotes.

**Supplementary Figure S5.** Phylogenetic relationships between UFD1 homologs from different eukaryotes.

**Supplementary Figure S6.** Phylogenetic relationships between different NPL4 eukaryotic homologs.

**Supplementary Figure S7.** Phylogenetic relationships between PUB homologs from different eukaryotes.

**Supplementary Figure S8.** Sequence alignment of the *L. infantum* Lip47 with homologs from other eukaryotes.

**Supplementary Figure S9.** 3D homology modeling and docking predictions for Lip47 into LNCP.

**Supplementary Figure S10.** Sequence alignment of the *L. infantum* LiFAF2 with homologs from other eukaryotes.

**Supplementary Figure S11.** 3D homology modeling and docking predictions for LiFAF2 into LNCP.

**Supplementary Figure S12.** Sequence alignment of the *L. infantum* LiUFD1 with homologs from other eukaryotes.

**Supplementary Figure S13.** 3D homology modeling and docking predictions for LiUFD1 into LNCP.

**Supplementary Figure S14.** Sequence alignment of the *L. infantum* LiNPL4 with homologs from other eukaryotes.

**Supplementary Figure S15.** 3D homology modeling and docking predictions for LiNPL4 into LNCP.
**Supplementary Figure S16.** The *Leishmania* VCP cofactors LiUFD1 and LiNPL4 associate with poly-ubiquitinated chains.

**Supplementary Figure S17.** Sequence alignment of the *L. infantum* LiPUB1 protein with homologs from other eukaryotes.

**Supplementary Figure S18.** 3D homology modeling and docking predictions for LiPUB1 into *L*VCP.

**Supplementary Figure S19.** Gene Ontology (GO) analysis.
### 3.16 Supplementary Tables

All Supplementary Tables* from chapter 3: “Molecular and functional characterization of the AAA+ ATPase Valosin-containing protein (VCP)/p97/Cdc48 interaction network in *Leishmania*” are included as “Fichiers multimédia complémentaires” presented together with this thesis.

*Supplementary Tables, 1, 2, 3, 5, and 6 are all Excel files (.xlsx) and are supplied separately.

**Supplementary Table S4. Ramachandran plot analysis of all the modeled proteins.**

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The quality of the models was assessed by Ramachandran plot analysis through the PROCHECK software module. The results of the Ramachandran plot showed that 95.7% to 100% of the amino acid residues of the constructed 3D homology models using alignments in Supplementary Figures S8, S10, S12, S14 and S17 are found in most favoured and additional allowed regions. These results indicate that the predicted structures are reliable. Moreover, Ramachandran plot also showed that in our 3D homology models the amino acid residues implicated in interactions are in most favoured regions.
Supplementary Figure S1. Known interacting partners of the *H. sapiens* VCP/p97 identified as putative cofactors of the *L. infantum* LIVCP protein. Network analyses of the known physical (1091) and genetic (2) interactions of the human VCP ortholog from the Biogrid interaction dataset 3.4 (thebiogrid.org) plotted on Cytoscape version 3.5.1 (Shannon *et al.*, 2003). Edge length and thickness represents interaction with VCP/p97. The thicker the edge the more experimental evidence has been reported on Biogrid and closer they were placed to the center. Orange circles represent homology with any protein of the
*Leishmania infantum* genome (see Supplementary Table S1). Orange filled circles represent *LiVCP* interactions reported in this work. Darker shades of orange represent higher average of peptides identified by mass spectrometry in our *LiVCP-HA* co-immunoprecipitates (see Supplementary Table S2 for more details). 0-15: Average of exclusive unique peptides identified in *LiVCP-HA* immunoprecipitates followed by mass spectrometry.
Supplementary Figure S2.

Supplementary Figure S2. Ectopic expression of HA-tagged LiUFD1, Lip47, LiFAF2, LiNPL4 and LiPUB1 cofactors of the Leishmania LiVCP. Western blotting with an anti-HA antibody to detect C- or N-terminally HA-tagged LiUFD1, Lip47, LiFAF2, LiPUB1 and LiNPL4 cofactor proteins cloned in pSPαZEOα vector and transfected into L. infantum promastigotes. The L. infantum strains expressing these vectors were used for co-IP/LC-MS/MS analysis. Shown here are the most representative results from 3-5 similar experiments.
Supplementary Figure S3. Phylogenetic analysis of p47 homologs from different eukaryotes. Sequence alignment of Supplementary Figure S8 was used to construct a maximum likelihood phylogenetic tree. The UBX binding site FPN in the human p47 protein and the UBX binding MPN (Mpr1/Pad1 N-terminal) domain in the Leishmania Lip47 protein are indicated by arrow. The analysis used a WAG substitution model and the statistical confidence of the nodes was calculated using the aLRT test.
Supplementary Figure S4. Phylogenetic relationships between FAF2 homologs from different eukaryotes. Sequence alignment of Supplementary Figure S10 was used to construct a maximum likelihood phylogenetic tree. The *Leishmania* LiFAF2 protein lacks the ubiquitin associated (UBA) domain. The analysis used a WAG substitution model, and the statistical confidence of the nodes was calculated using the aLRT test.
Supplementary Figure S5. Phylogenetic relationships between UFD1 homologs from different eukaryotes. Sequence alignment of Supplementary Figure S12 was used to construct a maximum likelihood phylogenetic tree. The analysis used a WAG substitution model, and the statistical confidence of the nodes was calculated using the aLRT test.
Supplementary Figure S6. Phylogenetic relationships between different NPL4 eukaryotic homologs. Sequence alignment of Supplementary Figure S14 was used to construct a maximum likelihood phylogenetic tree. The *Leishmania* *Li*NPL4 homolog lacks the ubiquitin regulatory domain (UBX)-like and the two zinc finger motifs. The analysis used a WAG substitution model, and the statistical confidence of the nodes was calculated using the aLRT test.
Supplementary Figure S7. Phylogenetic relationships between PUB homologs from different eukaryotes. Sequence alignment of Supplementary Figure S17 was used to construct a maximum likelihood phylogenetic tree. The Leishmania, LiPUB1, protein which has no homolog in human. The analysis used a WAG substitution model, and the statistical confidence of the nodes was calculated using the aLRT test.
Supplementary Figure S8. Sequence alignment of the *L. infantum* Lip47 with homologs from other eukaryotes. Sequence alignment was done using Clustal Omega. Highly conserved amino acid residues are shown in red and boxed in blue. Black asterisks represent residues of SHP1 and SHP2 motifs and green triangles indicate the UBX binding site. The figure was prepared with ESPript (http://escript.ibcp.fr).
Supplementary Figure S9. 3D homology modeling and docking predictions for *Lip47* into *LivCp*. (A) 3D model of interactions between the N-terminus of *LivCp* (electrostatic potential) and the GMPP motif of *Lip47* UBX domain (in green). (B) PDBid 1S3S structure representing the interactions between the N-terminus of VCP and the FPN motif within the UBX binding site of p47 (in cyan). (C) Superposition of structures represented in (A) and (B).
Supplementary Figure S10. Sequence alignment of the *L. infantum* LiFAF2 with homologs from other eukaryotes. Sequence alignment was done using Clustal Omega. Highly conserved amino acid residues are shown in red and boxed in blue. Green triangles represent the UBX binding site FPP in *L. infantum*. The figure was prepared with ESPript (http://espript.ibcp.fr). Here, only the conserved region from aa 300 to 440 is shown, the rest of the protein sequence being more divergent between the different eukaryotic FAF proteins.
Supplementary Figure S11. 3D homology modeling and docking predictions for \textit{LiFAF2} into \textit{LiVCP}. (A) 3D model of interactions between the N-terminus of \textit{LiVCP} (electrostatic potential) and the GFPP motif of the UBX \textit{LiFAF2} domain (in green). (B) PDBid 4KDL structure representing the interactions between the N-terminus of VCP and the 40\textsuperscript{GYPP}\textsuperscript{43} motif of ovarian tumor domain-containing protein 1 (OTU1) (in cyan). (C) Superposition of structures represented in (A) and (B). For details, see www.rcsb.org/structure/4KDL.
Supplementary Figure S12. Sequence alignment of the *L. infantum* LiUFD1 with homologs from other eukaryotes. Sequence alignment was done using Clustal Omega. Highly conserved amino acid residues are shown in red and boxed in blue. Black asterisks represent residues of SHP1 and SHP2 motifs. The figure was prepared with ESPript (http://escriipt.ibcp.fr).
Supplementary Figure S13. 3D homology modeling and docking predictions for LiUFD1 into LiVCP. (A) 3D model of interactions between the N-terminus of LiVCP (electrostatic potential) and the QPTFAGAGRTL SHP1 motif of LiUFD1 (in yellow). (B) PDBid 5C1B structure representing the interactions between the N-terminus of VCP and the SHP1 domain of UFD1 (in green). (C) Superposition of structures represented in (A) and (B).
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**Supplementary Figure S14 2/3**
Supplementary Figure S14. Sequence alignment of the *L. infantum* LiNPL4 with homologs from other eukaryotes. Sequence alignment was done using Clustal Omega. Highly conserved amino acid residues are shown in red and boxed in blue. Green triangles indicate the UBX binding site in other eukaryotic orthologs (the *Leishmania* NPL4 homolog lacks the UBX-like domain). Black asterisks represent the GMPP motif within the C-terminus of LiNPL4. The figure was prepared with ESPript (http://escript.ibcp.fr).
Supplementary Figure S15. 3D homology modeling and docking predictions for LiNL4 into LiVCP. (A) Cartoon view of the interactions between the N-terminus of LiVCP (cyan) and the GMPP motif located at the C-terminus of LiNL4 (green). (B) 3D model with the electrostatic potential surface representation of the LiVCP N-terminus. Negative and positive charges are shown in red and blue, respectively.
**Supplementary Figure S16.** Immunoprecipitation from *L. infantum* parasites expressing LiUFD1-HA or LiNPL4-HA followed by western blotting using an anti-HA antibody (top panel). Western blotting of the LiUFD1-HA or LiNPL4-HA immunoprecipitates using the FK2 antibody recognizing K²⁹-, K⁴⁸-, and K⁶³-linked mono- and poly-ubiquitin chains.
Supplementary Figure S17. Sequence alignment of the *L. infantum LiPUB1* protein with homologs from other eukaryotes. Sequence alignment was done using Clustal Omega. Highly conserved amino acid residues are shown in red and boxed in blue. The figure was prepared with ESPript (http://escript.ibcp.fr). Here, only the conserved region from PUB domain is shown, the rest of the protein sequence being more divergent between different eukaryotic organisms.
Supplementary Figure S18. 3D homology modeling and docking predictions for LiPUB1 into LiVCP. (A) 3D model of interactions between the LiPUB1 protein (electrostatic potential) and the C-terminal DDLYS motif of LiVCP (in green). (B) PDBid 2HPL structure representing the interactions between the PUB domain (electrostatic potential) and the C-terminal DDLYG motif of VCP (in cyan). (C) Superposition of structures represented in (A) and (B).
Supplementary Figure S19. Gene Ontology (GO) analysis. Biological process (A) and molecular function (B) analyses for proteins identified by mass spectrometry in Lip47 (145), LiFAF2 (164), LiUFD1 (46) and LiPUB1 (98) immunoprecipitates as show in Figure 3.
Chapter 4: Discussion

The characterization of the valosin-containing protein VCP/p97/Cdc48 and its co-factors in many organisms has been of great significance for understanding protein quality control pathways (102). More recently, special attention has been given to understand how those diverse co-factors can act together with VCP (95) and how they acquire their specificity (98) to display multiple functions (113) in order to respond to stress and maintain proteostasis. The understanding of how VCP works extends to the cancer field (148), neurodegenerative disorders (136) and the discovery and repurposing of drugs to the treatment of many human pathologies (146) as well some parasitic diseases (139).

This thesis began with the demonstration that the Dde1/DDX3 DEAD-box RNA helicase ortholog in *Leishmania* plays a central role in mitochondrial homeostasis (149). Immunoprecipitation and mass-spectrometry studies revealed potential interaction of DDX3 with several components of the stress cellular response and protein quality control, including the AAA+ ATPase p97/VCP/Cdc48. VCP/p97 is a key component of the Ubiquitin Proteasome System (UPS) playing a central role in cellular proteostasis as it is involved in the endoplasmic reticulum (ER)-associated protein degradation the mitochondrion-associated protein degradation, ribosomal quality control, and stress granules clearance, among others (84,102,104,108,111). In all these pathways, VCP/p97 hydrolyzes ATP and uses the resulting energy to extract or disassemble polyubiquitinated substrates from membranes, or organelles, or in general from large protein assemblies and deliver them to the 26S proteasome for degradation (103). Given that *Leishmania* intracellular amastigotes have to adapt to different environmental stress/stimuli (e.g., oxidative and nitrosative stress, heat stress, low pH, nutrient deprivation, and osmotic pressure) most of which lead to DNA damage or protein misfolding, the parasite depends on quality control systems that cooperate to eliminate damaged proteins. However, protein quality control in these parasites, as well as in other trypanosomatids is largely understudied. The *Leishmania* VCP/p97 homolog shares a high sequence identity and structural organization with its evolutionary distant eukaryotic counterparts and thus we hypothesized that it should fulfill similar functions in protein quality control. This prompted us to initiate studies aiming at characterizing p97/VCP/Cdc48 and its key co-factors and interacting partners in...
*Leishmania*. First, we have investigated the functional role of the *Leishmania* VCP/p97 homolog (*LiVCP*) in the parasite response to intracellular stress and development.

**LiVCP is essential for the intracellular development of *Leishmania* and its ability to respond to heat stress**

Attempts to generate a null mutant for the VCP gene in *Leishmania* failed, suggesting that it is essential for the parasite growth, consistent with previous reports in other eukaryotes. While promastigote forms can grow normally with 50% less VCP (a heterozygous mutant is viable), they are unable to differentiate into axenic amastigotes and or to grow as intracellular amastigotes. Parasites with decreased *LiVCP* expression by heterozygous gene replacement or overexpressing a temperature sensitive VCP mutant or with impaired VCP activity using dominant negative mutants exhibit a dramatic effect on intracellular amastigote growth and the parasite ability to survive under stress, particularly heat stress. Heat stress is known to induce proteotoxicity, which explains why the requirement for VCP is more critical in amastigotes in ensuring cellular proteostasis. The fact that both VCP mRNA and protein are increased in *Leishmania* amastigotes (by ~3-fold) further supports the key role VCP may play for the parasite intracellular development.

The use of dominant negative mutants VCP$^{Q2}$ and also VCP$^{QQ}$ where the essential glutamic acid residue in the D2 ATPase Walker B motif was mutated to a glutamine, but not the VCP$^{Q1}$ mutant interfering with the D1 ATPase motif, seems to impair *LiVCP* activity in amastigotes but not in promastigotes. *Leishmania* amastigotes grow at elevated temperature ($37^\circ$C) as opposed to promastigotes ($25^\circ$C). It is therefore possible that the hexameric VCP structure undergoes conformational changes triggered by temperature stress, which may contribute to the differential dominant negative effect seen between promastigote and amastigote forms. Our data support that ATP binding/hydrolysis of VCP/p97 by the D2 ring is central to VCP's function. It has been reported that the D2 ATPase ring allows important conformational changes of the homohexameric VCP complex (150,151), which provide the energy required for ubiquitin-directed disassembly of macromolecular complexes (152) and transfer of the polyubiquitinated substrates to the 26S proteasome for degradation (153).

Furthermore, we showed that the C-terminal region of *LiVCP* is essential for VCP protein stability and its function under heat stress. While the facilitated double knockout mutant VCP$^{HA}$ has no growth defect in promastigotes ($25^\circ$C) it is unable to grow in the amastigote
stage (37°C), hence exhibiting a temperature sensitive (ts) phenotype. In fact, we showed that C-terminal tagging of LiVCP renders the protein highly unstable and promotes its degradation only in amastigotes. These data suggest that the C-terminus of LiVCP is critical for the stability of the protein under heat stress as also hypothesized in the yeast model (154). It was reported previously that the unstructured C-terminal tail of VCP plays a role in maintaining the conformation of the D2 module during the ATPase cycle (155).

We have shown previously by co-immunoprecipitation and mass spectrometry experiments that LiVCP associates with the DEAD-box RNA helicase DDX3 and that inactivation of DDX3 leads to mitochondrial ROS accumulation (149). Given a possible interaction of LiVCP with DDX3, we further assessed the putative role of LiVCP in protecting the parasite from ROS production. We first measured peroxyl radicals and peroxides in parasites with decreased or altered VCP activity using the dye 2′,7′-dichlorodihydrofluorescein diacetate (H2DCFDA), which once oxidized, emits fluorescence directly proportional to the amount of ROS. In addition, we measured mitochondrial superoxide accumulation by MitoSOX. Our results indicate that ROS levels were significantly higher in the LiVCP mutants, especially in the dominant negative mutant VCPQQ. This effect was even more prominent when treating the cells with miltefosine (Appendix 9), a drug known to induce ROS production. We have shown that VCP impaired mutants were more sensitive to stress caused by miltefosine (156). Other stress such as increased temperature or acidic pH stress did not induce significantly higher ROS production in the different LiVCP mutants (data not shown). However, these are preliminary observations and additional optimized experiments should be performed to consolidate those results.

**LiVCP is mostly localized to the cytoplasm but it is also found associated with organellar fractions and RNA granules**

Immunofluorescence studies in LiVCP-HA or LiVCP-GFP overexpressing cells using an anti-HA or an anti-GFP antibody localized LiVCP protein predominantly to the cytoplasm (Appendix 5). To increase resolution and also specificity, we used confocal microscopy in wild type parasites with an antibody directed against the *T. brucei* VCP protein (*TbVCP*) (93) that specifically recognizes the *Leishmania* VCP (156). These experiments also pointed out a cytoplasmic localization for LiVCP with a clearly granular pattern. VCP has been found associated with both ER and OMM fractions given its central role in the endoplasmic reticulum (ER)-associated protein degradation (64,106) and the translocation of damaged
mitochondrial proteins from the outer mitochondrial membrane into the cytosol (83,84). We therefore investigated if the *Leishmania* VCP protein shows any organellar association using either an antibody against the BiP ER chaperone or a mitochondrial marker (MitoTracker). Our results indicate indeed a partial co-localization of *L*VCP with the ER and a weak association with the mitochondrion (156). Organellar association of *L*VCP was further supported by digitonin (20 μM-10 mM) fractionation experiments and Western blotting using an anti-*TbVCP* antibody (156). The association of *L*VCP with the ER and to a lesser extent the mitochondrion is in line with *L*VCP being involved in the extraction of polyubiquitinated proteins from cellular organelles, as described in other eukaryotes (64,157).

Given the role for VCP/Cdc48 in stress granule clearance and the fact that pathological mutations in VCP could lead to the constitutive appearance of stress granules (111), we questioned if *L*VCP could be found in RNA or stress granules. The granular pattern observed by immunofluorescence studies using an anti-VCP antibody also prompted us to investigate this possibility. In the trypanosomatid *T. cruzi*, the DEAD-box DHH1 protein co-localizes with RNA granules (158) and the poly(A) binding protein 2 (PAB2) with RNP granules (159). We therefore carried out co-localization experiments of *L*VCP with *LdDH1* (Appendix 6) or *LiPAB2* (Appendices 7 and 8). Preliminary data suggest a partial co-localization of *L*VCP with RNA and or RNP granules (Appendices 7 and 8). However, more work is required, also under conditions of stress, to assess the function of the *Leishmania* VCP protein in RNA or stress granules. These additional studies would bring valuable insights into new functions of this multifaceted protein.

**L*VCP acts as an ubiquitin-selective chaperone**

VCP functions as an ubiquitin-selective chaperone in other eukaryotes that uses energy through ATP hydrolysis to extract or “segregate” ubiquitylated target proteins from membranes or stable protein assemblies and present them for proteasomal degradation and as such its central to multiple protein quality control pathways mediated by the Ubiquitin Proteasome System (UPS) (102,104). Polypeptides modified with K48-linked polyubiquitin chains, which also serve as a major targeting signal for the proteasome (160), are physiological substrates for VCP. Our previous studies revealed *L*VCP association with several proteasome subunits (149). Here, we investigated whether decreased *L*VCP expression in the heterozygous *L*VCP\(^\text{NEO/+}\) mutant or impaired *L*VCP function in the
presence of dominant negative mutants VCP$^{Q2}$ or VCP$^{QQ}$ targeting the ATPase D2 domain of VCP has an effect on cellular levels of polyubiquitinated proteins by western blot analysis using a FK2 antibody recognizing K29-, K48-, and K63-linked mono- and polyubiquitilated proteins. Interestingly, our results indicate that a ~50% decrease in the expression of LVCP in LVCP$^{\text{NEO}+/+}$ was sufficient to increase accumulation of polyubiquitinated proteins although to a lesser extent than in the VCP$^{Q2}$ or VCP$^{QQ}$ dominant negative mutants. Accumulation of polyubiquitinated proteins was indeed much higher upon expression of the VCP$^{Q2}$ or VCP$^{QQ}$ dominant negative mutants, especially into the LVCP$^{\text{NEO}+/+}$ background, suggesting that ATP hydrolysis mediated through the ATPase D2 domain is very important for the ubiquitin-selective chaperone function of LVCP. Increased polyubiquitination had no significant effect on promastigote growth. However, in amastigotes where heat stress promotes proteotoxicity, the requirement for VCP becomes more critical in ensuring cellular proteostasis.

The association of LVCP with the ER and to a lesser extent the mitochondrion as suggested by co-localization studies is in line with LVCP being involved in the extraction of polyubiquitinated proteins from cellular organelles, as described in other eukaryotes (64,84). Thus, our data suggest a direct link between LVCP function and the removal of polyubiquitinated substrates for subsequent proteasomal degradation in Leishmania. The higher sensitivity of the heterozygous LVCP$^{\text{NEO}+/+}$ and the LVCP$^{\text{NEO}+/\text{HYG}+}$+VCP$^{\text{HA}}$ mutant strains to the proteasome inhibitor MG-132 further supports such a role for LVCP.

The LVCP protein network: key LVCP co-factors and interacting partners

VCP/p97 is a hexameric protein that interacts with a large number of protein co-factors and interacting partners that are key for its activity and functional diversity (135). Most cofactors whether they have a substrate-recruiting, processing or regulatory function interact with the Nn or Nc subdomains of VCP via a small number of conserved VCP binding modules, such as UBX (ubiquitin regulatory X with a similar three-dimensional structure described for ubiquitin) or UBX-like or UBA (ubiquitin associated) or a SHP motif or a VIM (VCP-interacting motif) or VBM (VCP-binding motif) motif, while a lower number binds to the unstructured C-terminal tail [PUB (PNGase/UBA or UBX-containing proteins) or a PUL (PLAP, Ufd3p, and Lub1p) domain]] formed by the last 7 amino acids (98,100). The L. infantum LVCP homolog
is highly conserved among its eukaryotic counterparts and encodes a protein of 784 amino acids that harbors all the characteristic domains of eukaryotic VCP homologs (156).

Based on the BioGrid database and according to the e-value similarity accessed by protein BLAST (or blastP), most proteins from the human VCP network have a homolog in *Leishmania*. To unveil the *Leishmania* VCP protein network, both its major *Li* VCP co-factors and their interacting partners, we used combined datasets from multiple co-immunoprecipitation and mass spectrometry studies coupled with *in silico* analysis. Globally, our data indicate that the *Li* VCP interactome comprises more than 80 proteins with 24 exclusively interacting with *Li*VCP. Based on the similarities with the human VCP partners and the predicted domains presented for each protein, we selected several proteins as potential *Li* VCP core cofactors for further investigation. Coupled with *in silico* studies to predict conserved domains and its 3D docking within *Li*VCP, we have identified the ubiquitin-associated (UBA) and ubiquitin regulatory X (UBX) containing cofactors p47 and FAF2, the heterodimer UFD1-NPL4, and a PUB (PNGase/UBA or UBX) containing protein as the core cofactors of the *Leishmania* VCP network. The interaction of the p47, UFD1, FAF2 and PUB1 cofactors with the *Leishmania* VCP homolog was further confirmed by immunoprecipitation studies. Interestingly, we found that several proteins are shared between more than two or three *Leishmania* VCP cofactors. The only class of known VCP cofactors not identified in any of our experiments are those harboring the VIM (VCP-interacting motif)/VBM (VCP-binding motif) motifs (95). Additional IP-MS/MS experiments under different growth conditions such as promastigotes vs. amastigotes or exposure to oxidative stress or temperature stress were carried out but no significant changes in the *Li*VCP proteome were observed (data not shown).

Several of the *Li*VCP interacting partners have homologs that are known to interact with VCP in other eukaryotic systems but others do not and may be relevant to study further as part of distinct *Leishmania* VCP complexes. Overall, our data support similarities but also important differences between the *Li*VCP protein network and those characterized in other eukaryotes. Gene Ontology analysis of each VCP co-factor proteome combined with digitonin fractionation and immunofluorescence studies indicated specific compartment-association for each cofactor. Interestingly, an enrichment of a 19-fold for vacuolar proteins was seen in the *Li*UFD1 proteome, nuclear proteins were exclusively enriched within the
Lip47 proteome and endoplasmic reticulum-related proteins were enriched only within the LiFAF2 and LiPUB1 proteomes.

Lip47

The Leishmania p47 homolog presents the same domain composition than its human counterpart. It harbors the UBA and UBX domains and two SHP motifs (SHP1 and SHP2) that are known to be key for the interaction with VCP. The Lip47 SHP1 and SHP2 sites were identified here as FYGRGQRL and FQGHGHRL, respectively, which is similar to the consensus sequence FxGxGxh (h, hydrophobic residue; x, any amino acid) (98). p47 interacts simultaneously with the same VCP/p97 monomer via its SHP motif and UBX domain (101). Interestingly, the Lip47 also contains the sequence GMPP in the UBX domain that docks in silico into the Nn-Nc pocket of LiVCP similarly to the human p47 (161). In addition to the bipartite mechanism of Lip47 for VCP binding, our data support an association of Lip47 but also of LiVCP with the serine/threonine phosphatase type 1 (PP1) complex consisting of the PP1 catalytic subunit Glc7/PP1-B, the SDS22 regulator-like protein, and the protein phosphatase PP1 inhibitor YPI1. In S. cerevisiae, it has been shown recently that these proteins form a ternary complex that is important for the nuclear localization of PP1 and that this complex and its quality control is positively regulated by the AAA-ATPase Cdc48 and its adaptor p47 (162). Interestingly, we found that Lip47 interacts with a large number of nuclear proteins and that is partly localized to the nucleus. From an evolutionary point of view, it is interesting that LiVCP in cooperation with its Lip47 co-factor may regulate the assembly of the Glc7-Sds22-Ypi1 complex like it is the case in yeast.

LiUFD1-LiNPL4L heterodimer

Our studies depicted important differences for the hierarchical p97-UFD1-NPL4 complex. The heterodimer UFD1-NPL4 (UN) is one of the most studied VCP co-factor linked to the (ER)-associated protein degradation (ERAD) (95,113,118) and ribosome quality control (RQC) (70). VCP recruits substrates through binding of the UFD1-NPL4 cofactor to the ubiquitin moieties and then threads the substrate through its central channel to mobilize and unfold them for subsequent degradation by the proteasome (103,163). In general, NPL4L proteins from all eukaryotes are composed by a UBX-like domain, a zinc-finger domain, an enzymatically inactive Mpr1–Pad1 N-terminal (MPN) domain and a C-terminal domain (CTD) (116). Recent structural studies on the Cdc48-Ufd1-Npl4 complex in yeast
demonstrated that NPL4 interacts through its UBX-like domain with one of the N domains of Cdc48 hexamer, and uses its two Zn\(^{2+}\)-finger domains to anchor its MPN domain to the top of the D1 ATPase ring (116). On the other hand, UFD1 interacts through a short and poorly conserved segment of its UT6 domain with NPL4, and through the two conserved flanking SHP motifs with other N domains of Cdc48 (116).

Our studies showed that similarly to its yeast counterpart, LiUFD1 interacts with the N-terminus of LiVCP through its conserved SHP motif and also harbors a UT6 domain that may be used for binding to NPL4. LiNPL4, however, lacks an UBX-like domain and the Zn\(^{2+}\)-finger domains for binding to VCP. Multiple sequence alignment along with different eukaryotic homologs followed by phylogenetic trees allowed us to appreciate that the *L. infantum* LiNPL4-like(L) protein is evolutionary far from other eukaryotes but contains conserved regions that potentially act as specific domains for LiVCP interaction. Our 3D modeling and docking experiments predict binding to LiVCP through the C-terminus GMPP motif of LiNPL4. This represents a unique feature for NPL4 binding to VCP. Indeed, the GMPP motif in NPL4 homologs was found in the genus *Leishmania*, *Leptomonas* and *Phytomonas* and a variant of this motif, GM-[EDS]-PP, is present in *Trypanosoma*. This major difference of NPL4 binding to VCP paves the way for the design of a specific inhibitor of NPL4-VCP interactions in Trypanosomatidae. Despite the NPL4 binding differences, some characteristics still remain. UFD1/NPL4 and p47 are substrate-recruiting cofactors shown to bind to VCP in a mutually exclusive manner as they compete for the same binding modules (100,101). This seems also to be the case in the LiVCP interaction network as Lip47 was neither found in the LiUFD1 proteome nor LiUFD1 in the Lip47 proteome.

**LiFAF2**

The *Leishmania* FAF2 homolog lacks the ubiquitin-associated (UBA) domain as opposed to its eukaryotic counterparts and interacts with LiVCP through the GFPP motif present in the UBX domain as suggested by 3D modeling and docking predictions. The UBA domain that is present in the human FAF1 and FAF2 proteins is fundamental for interacting with ubiquitinated substrates (164). In the absence of the UBA domain, LiFAF2 should in principle be unable to bind ubiquitinated substrates. Whether or how the *Leishmania* FAF2-VCP complex binds to ubiquitinated substrates remains to be determined. Interestingly, our data indicate association of LiFAF2 with the peroxisomal biogenesis factors PEX2, PEX10 and PEX11. Recent data in trypanosomatids support de novo biogenesis of peroxisomes...
(glycosomes) from the endoplasmic reticulum (165). In higher eukaryotes PEX2, PEX10 and PEX12 are required for degrading ubiquitinated peroxisomes, a pathway that involves an AAA ATPase complex with a striking similarity to p97 (166). In *Leishmania*, VCP possibly through its FAF2 cofactor, may contribute to the control of glycosome homeostasis and turnover.

**LiPUB1**

VCP co-factors harboring a PUB (PNGase/UBA or UBX-containing proteins) or a PUL (PLAP, Ufd3p, and Lub1p) domain form a hydrophobic pocket for interactions with the C-terminal tail of VCP (117) following association of key amino acids such as Leu$^{804}$ and the aromatic side chain of the penultimate tyrosine$^{805}$ residue (98,100,101). The *Leishmania* LiPUB1 protein has no human homolog butyet interacts with the C-terminal region of *LiVCP* similarly to what was described for the human p97/VCP-PUB complex. Our in silico analysis indicate that LiPUB1 contains a conserved region that interacts with the last five amino acids $^{780}$DDLYS$^{784}$ of the LiVCP C-terminus tail, similarly to other PUB domain proteins (167). Our analysis led us to identify the first PUB domain proteins in *Leishmania* and to unveil LiPUB1 as one of the major *LiVCP* cofactors. In addition, two other PUB domain proteins were identified in our study. LiPUB2 was found associated with LiVCP in immunoprecipitation studies and it may be a putative LiVCP co-factor. A third UBX and PUB domain-containing protein (LiPUB3) was retrieved by searching the *L. infantum* genome database. Furthermore, we found that a serine palmitoyltransferase-like protein was associated solely with the LiPUB1 proteome. Interestingly, a homolog of this protein in yeast is required for resistance to heat shock and plays an essential role in the removal or refolding of denatured or aggregated cytoplasmic proteins (168). We have recently reported a temperature sensitive VCP mutant in *Leishmania* (156). Thus, we hypothesize that PUB proteins together with the serine palmitoyltransferase and its biosynthesis pathway may play an important role in the resistance of *Leishmania* to heat stress inside the macrophages.

**Essentiality of LiUFD1, Lip47, LiFAF2, LiNPL4L and LiPUB1 LiVCP co-factors**

To assess the cellular function of the key LiUVCP cofactors, LiUFD1, Lip47, LiFAF2, LiNPL4L and LiPUB1, we applied a targeted gene replacement strategy based on homologous recombination using the CRISPR-Cas9 system for depleting the genes coding for these co-factors. In the case of the *L. infantum* LiUFD1 gene, two independent drug resistant selection cassettes harboring either the PURO or NEO drug resistance genes
flanked by the \textit{LiUFD1} 5’- and or 3’-UTR regions were constructed by a single PCR amplification for a sequential target and inactivation of the \textit{LiUFD1} locus (Appendix 2). After transfecting the PCR amplified 5’YPURO3’ targeting cassette into \textit{L. infantum} expressing a Cas9 plasmid together with a single gRNA (Appendix 2, panel A), we have replaced successfully one of the two \textit{LiUFD1} alleles, generating a heterozygous \textit{LiUFD1}^{(PURO/+)} mutant. However, two attempts to generate a homozygous knockout mutant by introducing the 5’YNEO3’ targeting cassette into \textit{LiUFD1}^{(PURO/+)} failed. Instead, we have obtained mutants harboring the \textit{PURO} (2.8 kb) and \textit{NEO} (3.0 kb) gene replacement cassettes but also an additional wild type \textit{LiUFD1} copy, as shown by PCR analysis (Appendix 2, panel B, lanes 4 and 5). Genetic inactivation of \textit{LiUFD1} was only possible by first ectopically expressing into \textit{LiUFD1}^{HA} an HA epitope-tagged \textit{LiUFD1}^{HA} and then simultaneously transfecting its gRNA. This led to the generation of a facilitated \textit{LiUFD1} homozygous knockout (dKO) mutant (Appendix 2, panel B, right panel, lines 2 and 4). Only the presence of UFD1 and the second targeting cassette, but without the addition of the designed UFD1 gRNA was not sufficient for the generation of the dKO mutant. Altogether, these results demonstrate that \textit{UFD1} is an essential gene in \textit{L. infantum}.

A similar approach using CRISPR-Cas9 was applied for the inactivation of the \textit{LiP47}, \textit{LiFAF2}, \textit{LiNPL4L} and \textit{LiPub1} genes. The two alleles of each gene in the wild type (WT) strain (\textit{LVCP}^{(+/+)})) were submitted to subsequent replacement by the \textit{PURO} and \textit{NEO} targeting cassettes to generate the (\textit{PURO/+}) and (\textit{PURO/NEO}) mutants. No growth was observed following transfection and selection for the \textit{LiP47} inactivation mutants, and these experiments were not pursued any further. For the other genes, double insertion could be observed by PCR analysis of total genomic DNA using specific primers (external primers for the gene and internal primers for \textit{NEO}, \textit{PURO} and each co-factor ORF) (Appendix 3). Despite double insertion of the genetic markers \textit{PURO} and \textit{NEO}, the ORF amplification for \textit{LiNPL4} and \textit{LiPub1} (as well inconclusive fragments for the \textit{LiFAF2}) was also detected. The generation of a third genomic allele upon targeting of the two genomic alleles, possibly through gene amplification leading to intrachromosomal tandem duplication (169), suggest that the genes coding for \textit{LiNPL4}, \textit{LiPub1} and \textit{LiFAF2} are essential for \textit{Leishmania} survival (Appendix 3). As the binding of some VCP co-factors decreases the potency of some drugs targeting VCP and increases the potency of other compounds (170), it would be interesting to evaluate the effect of VCP-related drugs (targeting VCP, or a VCP complex or a VCP co-factor) on the wild type vs. these co-factor deficient strains. These results would shed light
into the physiological role(s) of VCP and its co-factors in trypanosomatids and would pave the way for the discovery of new anti-parasitic drugs targeting the VCP protein quality control system.

**Other new LiVCP co-factors**

Using the “Identify Genes based on Text (product name, notes, etc.)” tool on the TriTrypDB database (April 2016 TriTrypDB 9.0 released), we have also identified two other putative VCP co-factors in the *L. infantum* database based on the presence of the UBX or the PUB domain known to specifically bind VCP. These are the UBX domain-containing protein LinJ.29.0350/LINF_290008400 and the PUB domain-containing protein LinJ.36.0140/LINF_360006300. To investigate further their role as putative LiVCP co-factors, we performed co-immunoprecipitation studies using C- and N-terminally HA-tagged versions for both proteins followed by LiVCP detection by Western blot using a specific anti-TbVCP antibody (93,156) and mass spectrometry analysis. The LinJ.29.0350/LINF_290008400 protein was not detected by western blotting and the studies were interrupted. On the other side, preliminary results with the new PUB domain protein – here called LiPUB3 (LinJ.36.0140) seem quite promising (Appendix 4).

**The putative link with Mitochondria Associated Degradation – LiPLAA/Doa1/Lub1 protein.**

Although most of co-factors bind to the VCP N-terminus, some interact to the C-terminus of the protein. These proteins are known to contain a PUB domain or a PUL domain of PLAA (phospholipase A2- activating protein or PLAP - the ortholog of yeast Doa1/Ufd3) proteins (112).

The LiPUB3 gene (LinJ.36.0140) was expressed in pSPαZEOα vector, cloned and transfected into *L. infantum* promastigotes. Its expression was verified by western blot (data not shown) and its interaction with VCP was assessed by immunoprecipitation studies (Appendix 4). Although the LiPUB3 interaction with VCP by western blot analysis was not clear, the mass spectrometry data for LiPUB3 revealed VCP association (although only two peptides). But more interesting, a new putative protein from the PLAA family ubiquitin binding (LinJ.24.1970) was identified within the LiPub3 proteome (Appendix 4). The identified LiPLAA/Doa1/Lub1 (LinJ.24.1970/ LINF_240025100) protein contains a WD domain and a PLAA family ubiquitin binding domain. It was detected with 28 Exclusive
Unique Peptide Count exclusively in LiPub3 (LinJ.36.0140) proteome. This is the first interacting partner from the PLAA family identified here. None of our dozen immunoprecipitation experiments has identified this protein before. Interestingly, this protein is a homologous of the Doa1 protein which was recently revealed as a critical mediator of the mitochondria-associated degradation pathway (MAD) (86). The *Leishmania* protein contains similar structure as the yeast protein that includes a PUL (PLAA) VCP binding site and two ubiquitin binding sites (WD40 and PFU). It was also shown that Doa1 is critical to the mitochondrial proteostasis as it mediates the recruitment of the ubiquitinated substrates and facilitates substrate interaction with the Cdc48-Ufd1-Npl4 complex in the outer mitochondrial membrane (OMM) (86).

**Effect of VCP-targeting drugs on Leishmania infantum growth.**

Since the first demonstration of a drug targeting the human VCP (136), multiple compounds have emerged as potential VCP inhibitors. These include DBeQ, NMS, ML240/ML241, Eerl, and more recently the dissulfiran, to name some of them. Here we accessed the effect of DBeQ, NMS-874 and ML240 on *Leishmania* promastigote and amastigote rowth. All three drugs were demonstrated to be effective against promastigote forms of *L. infantum* wild type (WT). DBeQ appears to be the most effective with IC50 < 0.5 μM, followed by ML240 with IC50 < 1.0 μM and NMS873 with IC50 < 2.0 μM (Appendix 10). So far, only DBeQ was tested in amastigote forms (Appendix 10). Axenic amastigotes seem to be less sensitive to DBeQ (Appendix 10). We showed that LiVCP expression is at least 3-fold higher in amastigotes than in promastigotes (156) and it is therefore possible that more drug is needed to impair the VCP activity to the point of cellular death. Yet, it remains to be disclosed if DBeQ targets only VCP in *Leishmania* or other proteins as well (e.g., other AAA+ ATPases). Another variable to consider is the association of LiVCP with its different adaptors/co-factors. The presence of some co-factors can interfere with drug binding and consequently the effect of the drug (142,171). A higher expression of a specific LiVCP co-factor in amastigotes may also explain the lower efficacy of DBeQ in amastigotes. Overexpressing different key LiVCP co-factors into WT promastigotes and assessing the susceptibility of known VCP-targeting drugs would be an interesting experiment to do. Moreover, it would be essential to unveil if macrophages are equally sensitive to those drugs (toxicity) and, as a consequence, to evaluate in animal models if some of these VCP-targeting drugs could be prospected as new drugs for *Leishmania* treatment. Another
interesting perspective is based on the alcohol-abuse drug disulfiram. This drug was recently considered as a repurposing drug to target cancer cells via the VCP segregase adaptor NPL4 (146). Due to our findings regarding some unique aspects of the VCP-NPL4 complex in *Leishmania* (Chapter 3), the use of disulfiram as an anti-parasitic drug should be considered in future studies.
Conclusion

Altogether, our studies led to the molecular and cellular characterization of the conserved Valosin-containing protein (VCP) AAA+ ATPase in *Leishmania*, which is associated with many ubiquitin-dependent cellular pathways that are central to protein quality control in all eukaryotic systems studied to date. We provided experimental evidence of the essential role of *L*VCP in the intracellular development of the parasite and its capacity to respond to heat and also proteotoxic stress. We also characterized the *L*VCP interaction network, the first in parasitic protozoa, through the identification of known co-factors and novel interacting partners potentially associated with distinct VCP quality control pathways. Our proteomics datasets identified biologically relevant functions for the *Leishmania* VCP adaptors/cofactors and provide a rich resource for further evaluation of VCP function in several cellular processes related to protein quality control in these parasites.
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Appendices

Appendix 1 - DDX3 DEAD-box RNA helicase plays a central role in mitochondrial protein quality control in *Leishmania*

This appendix includes a scientific paper entitled “DDX3 DEAD-box RNA helicase plays a central role in mitochondrial protein quality control in *Leishmania*” by Padmanabhan, P. K., Zghidi-Abouzid, O., Samant, M., Dumas, C., Aguiar, B. G., Estaquier, J., & Papadopoulou, B. published on October 13, 2016 (7(10), e2406. https://doi.org/10.1038/cddis.2016.315) in *Cell Death and Disease* on which I am co-author. I performed immunoprecipitation and mass-spectrometry studies that revealed potential interactions of the DEAD-box RNA helicase DDX3 with key components of the cellular stress response, particularly the antioxidant response, the unfolded protein response, and the AAA+ ATPase p97/VCP/Cdc48, which is essential in protein quality control by driving proteosomal degradation of polyubiquitinated proteins. Our findings that DDX3 interacts with the valosin-containing protein p97/VCP/Cdc48 in this article (Table 1) formed the basis for my PhD thesis.

The published version of the full article is included below.
DDX3 DEAD-box RNA helicase plays a central role in mitochondrial protein quality control in Leishmania

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DDX3 is a highly conserved member of ATP-dependent DEAD-box RNA helicases with multiple functions in RNA metabolism and cellular signaling. Here, we describe a novel function for DDX3 in regulating the mitochondrial stress response in the parasitic protozoan Leishmania. We show that genetic inactivation of DDX3 leads to the accumulation of mitochondrial reactive oxygen species (ROS) associated with a defect in hydrogen peroxide detoxification. Upon stress, ROS production is greatly enhanced, causing mitochondrial membrane potential loss, mitochondrial fragmentation, and cell death. Importantly, this phenotype is exacerbated upon oxidative stress in parasites forced to use the mitochondrial oxidative respiratory machinery. Furthermore, we show that in the absence of DDX3, levels of major components of the unfolded protein response as well as of polyubiquitinated proteins increase in the parasite, particularly in the mitochondria, as an indicator of mitochondrial protein damage. Consistent with these findings, immunoprecipitation and mass-spectrometry studies revealed potential interactions of DDX3 with key components of the cellular stress response, particularly the antioxidant response, the unfolded protein response, and the AAA-ATPase p97/COP1/Cdc48, which is essential in mitochondrial protein quality control by driving proteosomal degradation of polyubiquitinated proteins. Complementation studies using DDX3 deletion mutants lacking conserved motifs within the helicase core support that binding of DDX3 to ATP is essential for DDX3’s function in mitochondrial proteostasis. As a result of the inability of DDX3-depleted Leishmania to recover from ROS damage and to survive various stresses in the host macrophage, parasite intracellular development was impaired. Collectively, these observations support a central role for the Leishmania DDX3 homolog in preventing ROS-mediated damage and in maintaining mitochondrial protein quality control.

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DEAD-box proteins form the largest family of RNA helicases and are conserved from bacteria to humans. They belong to superfamily 2 (SF2) of RNA helicases which harbor an Asp-Glu-Ala-Asp (DEAD) motif that defines the family.1 DEAD-box RNA helicases are central players in RNA biology and function in essentially all aspects of RNA metabolism. With few exceptions, little is known about how these enzymes physically perform multiple cellular tasks.1 Leishmania and other Trypanosomatidae encode 48-50 DEAD-box RNA helicases2 as opposed to 25 in yeast and 37 in humans.3 Similar to other eukaryotes, many biological functions have been attributed to trypanosomatid RNA helicases, including RNA degradation,3 translation regulation,4 and RNA editing.5 We recently characterized a DEAD-box RNA helicase of 67 kDa (HEU67) in Leishmania and demonstrated that it prevents ribosomal RNA degaradation through an antisense RNA-mediated pathway and transcriptional arrest triggered by apoptotic stimuli.6

Unlike higher eukaryotes, the protozoan Leishmania has a single mitochondrion7 that not only serves as the major site of ATP production through oxidative phosphorylation but also plays important roles in maintaining cell survival, apoptosis, and metabolic homeostasis.8 Thus, mitochondrion is a central sensor of stress-induced cell death in several Leishmania species.9-12 It has been shown that reactive oxygen species (ROS) represent a host cell defense in inducing the parasite death.13,14 Excessive levels of mitochondria-derived ROS promote mitochondrial dysfunction, resulting in loss of many cellular functions and in multicellular organisms, the onset of disease.15 Consequently, there are several quality control systems that monitor mitochondrial protein degradation to maintain mitochondrial homeostasis, including mitophagy, protease-mediated turnover and the ubiquitin-proteasome system (UPS).16,17,18 Recently, it has been reported that mitochondrial stress in

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Abbreviations: ROS, reactive oxygen species; ΔΨm, mitochondrial membrane potential; UPS, ubiquitin-proteasome system; UPR, unfolded protein response; HSP, heat-shock protein; VCP, valosin-containing protein; AAA+, ATPases associated with diverse cellular activities; SOD, superoxide dismutase; DIICS, 3-O-phosphorylcysteinyl tetrade; IP, propidium iodide; DRE, dithrocysteine peroxidase; LC-MS/MS, liquid chromatography-tandem mass spectrometry; WT, wild type.

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Caenorhabditis elegans affects UPS. However, the role of UPS is largely unknown in protozoa.

In this study, we have investigated the impact of the DEAD-box RNA helicase HEL67, the DDX3 homolog in Leishmania, in regulating cell death under conditions of cellular stress impacting on mitochondrial function. We show that Leishmania genetically depleted for DDX3 is highly susceptible to various stress stimuli encountered in the mammalian host and is thus unable to undergo intracellular development. Furthermore, we demonstrate that inactivation of DDX3 increases mitochondrial ROS production concomitantly with the levels of polyubiquitinated proteins, leading to mitochondrial membrane potential collapse, mitochondrial fragmentation and cell death. Consistent to these findings, we report potential interactions of DDX3 with key components of the stress cellular response, in particular p67VCP/Cdc48, which is essential in clearing oxidatively damaged mitochondrial proteins. This is the first demonstration, to our knowledge, of a central role for a DEAD-box RNA helicase of the DDX3 subfamily in mitochondrial proteostasis.

Results

DDX3 is crucial to Leishmania intracellular growth and differentiation triggered by stress sensors. Phylogenetic analysis of the alignment of the Leishmania RNA helicase HEL67 with members of the helicase SF2 superfamily (Supplementary Figure S1a) revealed that HEL67 is part of the Ddx1/DDX3 cluster, which is closely related to DDX4, DDX5, and DDX46 and also includes the Saccharomyces cerevisiae Ddx1 and Ddp1, the Homo sapiens DDX3X and DDX3Y, the C. elegans VBH-1, the Drosophila melanogaster Belle, and the Xenopus laevis An3 proteins (Supplementary Figure S1b). HEL67 harbors all 12 signature motifs found in the highly conserved helicase core of Ddx1. DDX3 subfamily members that are involved in ATP binding and hydrolysis, RNA binding, and the link of ATPase and helicase activities (Supplementary Figure S1a) and hereinafter we will refer to as DDX3.

Our prior studies have established an important role for the Leishmania DDX3 in protecting parasites from stress-inducing cell death by preventing translational arrest. As an intracellular pathogen, Leishmania has to overcome various stresses in order to survive in the phagolysosome of mammalian macrophages. First, we investigated whether DDX3 impacts the parasite response to stress signals triggering promastigote to amastigote differentiation inside macrophages at higher temperature (37°C) and low pH (pH 5.5). Leishmania infantum genetically depleted for DDX3 (DDX3−/−)6 were sensitive to heat stress (Figure 1a) and acidic pH (Figure 1b) compared with the wild type (WT) and add-back mutant (DDX3−/−/REV). Accordingly, DDX3−/− parasites were unable to undergo amastigote differentiation upon exposure...
Inactivation of DD3X causes mitochondrial membrane depolarization under stress leading to mitochondrial fragmentation and cell death. In Leishmania as well as in higher eukaryotes, increased ROS production results in inner mitochondrial membrane potential (ΔΨm) loss, mitochondrial dysfunction, and cell death.6,21 By flow cytometry, we measured ΔΨm loss using DIOC6 (3,3′-dihexyloxacarbocya- nine iodide) and membrane permeability and cell death using propidium iodide (PI) under conditions of mitochondrial insults like prolonged heat-shock or oxidative stress. Even in the absence of stress, 9% of DD3X−/− parasites exhibited a ΔΨm loss compared with 0.8 and 1% for WT and DD3X+/− REV, respectively (Figures 3a and b). Upon heat stress, the percentage of DD3X−/− parasites with reduced ΔΨm increased up to 45% in comparison with 20% for WT and 5% for DD3X+/− REV (Figures 3a and b). Prolonged heat stress (24 h) elicited a significant decrease in the size of DD3X−/− cells (Figure 3c). The shrinkage and granularity of DD3X−/− parasites further infer that a population is subjected to necrosis or late apoptosis. As a positive control, WT parasites were treated (24 h) with H2O2 inducing massive mitochondrial membrane depolarization and cell death (Figures 3a and b).

A short exposure of DD3X−/− parasites to H2O2 (0.6 mM for 10 min) induced ΔΨm loss (32.4% DIOC6−/− cells) and exacerbated cell death (10.4% DIOC6−/− PI−) (Figures 4a and c). To further investigate the impact of DD3X on mitochondrial function, DD3X−/− parasites were grown in glucose-free medium, hence forced to use the mitochondrial oxidative respiratory machinery (OXPHOS). Interestingly, ΔΨm loss was greatly increased in DD3X−/− (94.3%) upon H2O2 stress resulting in a much higher percentage of dying cells (49% PI−) (Figures 4b and d) compared with parasites grown in glucose-rich medium (10.4% PI−) (Figures 4a and c). In DD3X+/− REV, despite a higher (2-fold) ΔΨm loss as compared with WT, the percentage of dying cells (PI−) remained similar to that of WT (13.4% versus 12.5%) (Figures 4b and d), suggesting that the add-back mutant is able to overcome mitochondrial stress in contrast to DD3X−/− parasites (49% PI− cells).

Because mitochondrial shaping and morphogenesis can be altered by apoptotic signals,6 we evaluated the mitochondrial network in DD3X−/− and control parasites by fluorescence microscopy using the MitoTracker CMX Red dye. An antibody recognizing the mitochondrial matrix HSP70 protein was also used as a control. In the absence of DD3X, the mitochondrion appeared fragmented 24 h post-exposure to H2O2 (0.6 mM for 10 min) (Figure 5b, lower panel). In contrast, the WT (Figure 5a) and DD3X+/− REV (Figure 5c) strains recovered rapidly from oxidative stress, demonstrating a tubular mitochondrial shaping. These observations indicate that parasites lacking DD3X show abnormal mitochondrial morphology upon oxidative stress in line with dissipation of the mitochondrial membrane potential and higher percentage of dead cells in stressed DD3X−/− parasites (Figure 4).

Taken together, our results support the crucial role of DD3X in mitochondrial morphogenesis and function, especially under conditions of mitochondrial stress.
Depletion of DDX3 activates key components of the mitochondrial unfolded protein response. Excessive ROS within mitochondria could disturb protein folding and trigger the mitochondrial unfolded protein response (UPR^mit^) to re-establish protein homeostasis. Mitochondria contain a dedicated repertoire of molecular chaperones in the matrix (e.g., mHSP60 and mHSP70) to facilitate protein folding and quality control processes to degrade unfolded proteins. We examined baseline levels of mitochondrial HSP60 (Figure 6a) and HSP70 (Figure 6b) proteins by western blotting and found that they were 2.6- and 2.7-fold higher in DDX3^−/−^ cells, respectively compared with the WT and DDX3^−/−^REV. While WT parasites showed a time-dependent HSP80/HSP70 induction upon heat stress, no further increase was observed in DDX3^−/−^ cells under the same conditions (Figures 6a and b). A similar induction of mHSPs was also observed in DDX3^−/−^ upon H2O2 stress (Supplementary Figure S2). Interestingly, the cytosolic HSP70, one of the most studied chaperones contributing to the cytosolic UPR^mit^, was also induced by 2.4/2.0-fold in DDX3^−/−^ and DDX3^−/−^REV, respectively, in the absence of heat stress (Figure 6c). A mutant lacking the DEAD motif failed to restore HSP70 cytosolic and mitochondrial levels in DDX3^−/−^ whereas complementation with the DDX3ΔSAT mutant allowed a heat-stress-induced HSP70 response (Figure 6d) comparable to WT (Figure 6b). These results indicate that the UPR is activated in DDX3^−/−^ parasites, most likely in response to the increased load of mitochondrial ROS.

**DDX3 associates with major components of the cellular stress response and the mitochondrial protein quality control.** To further dissect the role of DDX3 in mitochondrial function, we looked for potential DDX3-interacting proteins by immunoprecipitation (IP) studies followed by liquid chromatography-tandem mass spectrometry (LC-MS/MS). To assess reproducibility, IP experiments were repeated at
least five times using two different methods, in gel digestion and on bead digestion, as indicated in Materials and Methods (Table 1 and Supplementary Table S1). In order to exclude nonspecific binders, we carried out two IP negative controls with total lysates from WT parasites (Supplementary Table S2) or recombinant L. infantum expressing GFP-HA (Supplementary Table S3) using an anti-HA antibody. A compilation from these experiments revealed potential interactions of DDX3 with key components of the cellular stress response. These include major antioxidant enzymes such as the iron superoxide dismutase (SOD1/SOD82) catalyzing the conversion of $O_2^-$ to $H_2O_2$, trypanothione peroxidases involved in hydroperoxide detoxification and a member of the sestrin family (LinJ.18.0060) known to be central to RSC suppression in mammals. Also, several cytoplasmic and mitochondrial molecular chaperones and chaperonins (e.g., HSP40, HSP60, HSP70, HSP83, HSP110, and chaperonins containing T-complex protein-1) known to prevent nonspecific protein aggregates under stress were co-immunoprecipitated with DDX3.

Furthermore, DDX3 IP studies depicted p87 also called valosin-containing protein (VCP) in mammals and Cdc48 in yeast (p97/VCP/Cdc48; LinJ.36.1420) as a potential DDX3-interacting partner (Table 1). p97/VCP/Cdc48 is one of the best-characterized type II AAA+ (AT Pases associated with various cellular activities) ATPases shown to play an essential role in mitochondrial quality control by clearing oxidatively damaged mitochondrial membrane proteins through ubiquitination and proteasomal degradation. The interaction of DDX3 with p97/VCP/Cdc48 was confirmed by inverse co-IP studies using lysates from L. infantum expressing an HA epitope-tagged p97/VCP/Cdc48 (Table 1). Similarly to other eukaryotes, the Leishmania p97/VCP/Cdc48 homolog interacts with ubiquitin-activating and -degrading co-factors and adaptors (e.g., UFD1-NPL4, UBX- and UBA- or PDB-domain proteins) (Table 1 and Supplementary Table S4). In line with p97/VCP/Cdc48’s role in the UPS, IP studies revealed potential interactions with proteasome subunits (RPN7, RP11, RPN2, RPN5, RPN6, RPN8, RPN9), the AAA+-proteases PsH4 and ClpP-type chaperone HSP78 known to selectively degrade damaged mitochondrial proteins.
proteins,\textsuperscript{19} and prohibitins involved in stress tolerance and mitochondrial quality control\textsuperscript{20} (Table 1 and Supplementary Table S4). Thus, these data indicate that DDX3 associates with major components of the mitochondrial protein quality control in relationship with the UPS.

![Graphs showing cell death and mitochondrial changes](image)
DDX3 inactivation results in the accumulation of mitochondrial polyubiquitinated proteins. The interaction of DDX3 with p97/VCP/Cdc48 prompted us to examine ubiquitinated protein levels in the mitochondrion of DDX3^−/−^ parasites as a measure of mitochondrial proteostasis. Mitochondrial proteins were enriched either by digitonin fractionation or by mitochondrial isolation using a 20–35% Percoll gradient. LC-MS/MS analysis confirmed a high enrichment of mitochondrial proteins in these fractions (data not shown). Western blotting using a monoclonal mono- and polyubiquitinated conjugates antibody (FK2) revealed higher levels of polyubiquitinated proteins in mitochondrial (lane 3) but also in cytosolic fractions (lanes 1 and 2) from DDX3^−/−^ compared with WT (lanes 1–3) and DDX3^−/−^REV (lanes 1 and 3) (Figure 7a). Increased levels of polyubiquitinated proteins were also observed in purified mitochondria from DDX3^−/−^ (Figure 7b). Similar results were obtained with DDX3^−/−^ parasites complemented with a DDX3 mutant lacking the DEAD motif (Figure 7b), indicating that altering the efficiency of DDX3 for binding to ATP is sufficient to induce accumulation of ubiquitinated proteins in the mitochondrion. As a control for protein ubiquitination, WT parasites were treated with 10 μM of MG-132, a known proteasome inhibitor (Figure 7c). DDX3^−/−^ parasites were more sensitive to MG-132 compared with WT and DDX3^−/−^REV controls (Figure 7d).

Discussion

DDX3 is a highly conserved member of the Ddx1/DDX3 subfamily of DEAD-box RNA helicases that harbors ATPase and RNA helicase activities.24,25 Functionally, DDX3 appears to be a part of the mitochondrial replication machinery, with various roles in all steps of RNA metabolism.26,27 DDX3 is also implicated in cell cycle regulation, apoptosis, cell signaling, tumor progression or suppression, and viral infection.28–31 Few reports demonstrate a role of DDX3 members in the response to stress and apoptosis. DDX3 was found in stress granules42 and shown to be involved in the response to hypoxia and radiation.43,44 The S. cerevisiae orthologue Ddx1 was found implicated in the response to nitrogen or glucose deprivation, heat-shock, and low temperature.44 VBA-1 in C. elegans protects nematodes from heat-shock and oxidative stress.45

In this study, we describe a novel function for DDX3 in regulating the mitochondrial stress response and protein quality control. We show that Leishmania lacking DDX3 accumulate high levels of mitochondrial ROS and, upon stress, display mitochondrial membrane potential collapse associated with fragmentation. DDX3^−/−^ parasites are unable to recover from oxidative stress and experience cell death. Also, in the absence of DDX3, polyubiquitinated proteins accumulate in the cell, particularly in the mitochondrion, as an indicator of increased mitochondrial protein damage. In addition, we report potential interactions of DDX3 with key components of the mitochondrial stress response and particularly the AAA+ ATPase ubiquitin-selective chaperone p97/VCP/Cdc48, an essential component of mitochondrial protein quality control.

Our data support that DDX3 protects mitochondrial integrity from the damaged effects of ROS. Indeed, in the absence of DDX3, superoxide and hydrogen peroxide radicals accumulate in the mitochondrion upon the induction of various stresses due to a defect in their detoxification. Despite a slight increase in SOD activity, superoxide detoxification was largely impaired in DDX3^−/−^ parasites. Additionally, the dramatic decrease of peroxidase activity in this knockout strain further contributed to H₂O₂ accumulation and aggravated ROS-induced stress. In line with DDX3’s role in the antioxidant stress response, immunoprecipitation studies revealed potential interactions of DDX3 with the mitochondrial iron superoxide dismutase SOD1/SOD2 and tryparedoxin peroxidases involved in the detoxification of superoxide and H₂O₂ radicals, respectively.33,34 Mitochondrial tryparedoxin peroxidases have also been attributed a chaperone activity to ensure the integrity of mitochondrial functions.35 The association of DDX3 with proteins of the sestrin family supports the idea that DDX3 can regulate ROS-induced mitochondrial stress. Sestrins are stress-inducible proteins known to suppress oxidative stress36 and their inactivation in investi- rates resulted in diverse metabolic pathologies and mito- chondrial dysfunction.47

ROS accumulation can damage mitochondria inducing the collapse of mitochondrial membrane potential (ΔΨm), mitochondrial dysfunction, and cell death.48 This is exactly what we have observed in DDX3^−/−^ Leishmania under conditions inducing mitochondrial stress and to a lesser degree in unstressed parasites. The mitochondrion was indeed severely damaged in DDX3^−/−^ parasites and appeared fragmented following oxidative stress. Shaping of mitochondria is essential for maintaining cellular bioenergetics by stabilizing the OXPHOS machinery and for regulating apoptosis.39 The fact that DDX3^−/−^ parasites grown in glucose-free medium where cellular ATP is produced predominantly through OXPHOS exhibited a dramatic increase in mitochondrial depolarization and sensitivity to cell death upon oxidative stress, further supports a critical role of DDX3 in maintaining mitochondrial integrity. Increased ROS-mediated damage in DDX3^−/−^ parasites activated also the mitochondrial uncoiled protein response40 through the induction of HSP70 and HSP60 levels in order to repair misfolded/damaged proteins. In line with these findings, our IP studies revealed DDX3 interactions with chaperones and chaperonins that are essential for mitochondrial function. HSPs were also found to facilitate protein degradation by the UPS, thus playing a role in the so-called ‘protein triage’.40

Figure 4 Mitochondrial membrane potential loss and cell death are greatly enhanced upon oxidative stress in DDX3^−/−^ Leishmania forced to use the mitochondrial oxidative respiratory machinery. (a) Flow cytometric analysis of ΔΨm (red) and PI (green) of WT, DDX3^−/−^, and DDX3^−/−^REV grown in RPMI glucose-rich medium. Parasites were treated with or without 10 μM of hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂) for 10 min, washed out, and further incubated in a fresh medium for 5 h prior to their analysis by flow cytometry. (b) A2 in (a) bar parasites were cultured in UMEM glucose-free medium. The experiment was repeated three times with duplicate and statistical analysis of these results performed as in Figures 3b. (c) Glucose (+) medium and (d) glucose (−) medium. The numbers over the lines correspond to P-values.
Consistent with these results is our finding that DDX3<sup>−/−</sup> parasites accumulate polyubiquitinated proteins in the mitochondrion. Increased levels of polyubiquitinated proteins corroborate our IP studies revealing a potential interaction of DDX3 with the ubiquitin-selective chaperone p97/VCP/Cdc48. p97/VCP/Cdc48 is a cytosolic essential AAA+ chaperone that...
Figure 6. Inactivation of DDX3 activates key components of the mitochondrial unfolded protein response. Western blot analysis of total lysates from L. infantum WT, DDX3<sup>−/−</sup> and DDX3<sup>−/−</sup>REV strains exposed to heat stress (37°C) at different time points using an antibody recognizing the mitochondrial (m) HSP60 (a) or cytoplasmic (c) HSP70 (b) proteins (the same number of cells were loaded). Conditions of heat stress were compared with parasites grown at 25°C. The same membrane was blotted with an anti-<i>α</i>-tubulin antibody (loading control). (c) Western blot analysis of total lysates from DDX3<sup>−/−</sup> parasites complemented either with the DDX3Δ DEAD or the DDX3Δ SAT mutant proteins and subjected or not to heat stress (5 h) using an anti-cHSP70 antibody. Data shown here are representative of three independent experiments yielding similar results. Relative fold increase was calculated from three experiments and within each strain (e.g., WT, DDX3<sup>−/−</sup> and DDX3<sup>−/−</sup>REV) values correspond to the ratio of heat-stressed versus unstressed parasites normalized with the <i>α</i>-tubulin protein. Values in bold represent steady-state levels of mHSPs in DDX3<sup>−/−</sup> and DDX3<sup>−/−</sup>REV relative to WT levels (a–c). In panel (d), values in bold are relative to the unstressed control.

Figure 5. Inactivation of DDX3 impacts on mitochondrial morphogenesis upon exposure to oxidative stress. 2×10<sup>6</sup> L. infantum WT (a), DDX3<sup>−/−</sup> (b), and DDX3<sup>−/−</sup>REV (c) grown under standard conditions (no stress) or treated for 10 min with 0.6 mM H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, washed out and further incubated ON were stained with the Mitotracker CMX Red dye at a final concentration of 20 nM for 30 min at 25°C. The mitochondrial network was visualized on 3% paraformaldehyde–fixed cells using a Nikon epifluorescence microscope. Immunolocalization studies were also performed using an anti-rabbit antibody against the mitochondrial matrix HSP70 protein. The data shown here are representative of three independent experiments that generated similar results.
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<td>ATP-dependent RNA helicase HEL67 (DDX3)</td>
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*Mitochondrial integrity and stress response

| LinJ36.2850 | ATP-dependent metallo-peptidase, Clan MA(E) (FisH protease domain; AAA mitochondrial)* | 12–19 |
| LinJ02.0680 | ATP-dependent Clp protease subunit, HSP70, putative (AAA domain)* | 3–3 |
| LinJ36.2550 | ATP-dependent metallo-peptidase, Clan MA(E) (AAA/FisH, mitochondrial)* | 12–18 |
| LinJ35.1390 | Mitochondrial metallo-peptidase, Clan ME | 6–12 |
| LinJ35.1040 | Stomatin-like protein, PHB prohibitin homolog* | 14–20 |
| LinJ16.1710 | Prohibitin (PHB1), mitochondrial putative | 5–6 |
| LinJ35.0070 | Prohibitin (PHB2), putative (mitochondrial putative) (TM domains)* | 7–12 |

*The proteins listed here co-immunoprecipitated with either the Leishmania infantum DDX3 homolog or the valosin-containing protein homolog p97/VCP/Chc48 independently in 3–5 independent experiments. L. infantum DDX3/AHA or p97/VCP/Chc48-HA systems. On bead or gel digestion was followed by LC-MS/MS analysis (see the Materials and Methods). Proteins identified with a minimum of two peptides and a probability of >95% to correspond to the correct protein were included here. Identified proteins were grouped into different GO categories based on their predicted function. Only selected proteins related to the cellular stress response were listed. A uniprot-proteome system (UPS), and the mitochondrial protein quality control were indicated here. A detailed list of all co-immunoprecipitated proteins for more than three independent experiments with the protein, peptide, and spectrum scores is shown in Supplementary Tables S1 and S4. *p97/VCP/Chc48 co-factors/adaptors. 10 A4A mitochondrial proteases FisH and ClpB-type chaperone HSP70 that selectively degrade misfolded and damaged mitochondrial proteins. 12 Prohibitins are inner mitochondrial membrane proteins that maintain mitochondrial functional integrity and protect cells from various stresses. Bold characters indicate the two major proteins used for the immunoprecipitation studies.
Figure 7  DDX3 inactivation results in the accumulation of mitochondrial polyubiquitinated proteins. (a) Digitonin (20 μM) 10 mM fractions (equal volume) isolated from the same number of WT, DDX3<sup>−−</sup>, and DDX3<sup>−−</sup>REV parasites were analyzed by western blotting using the FK2 antibody recognizing K<sup>14</sup>, K<sup>16</sup>, and K<sup>20</sup>-linked mono- and polyubiquitinated proteins. As also determined by our previous experiments, 20,24 digitonin fractions 1 and 2 are enriched with cytosolic proteins, fractions 3 and 4 with organelar material, and fraction 5 with membrane-associated proteins. An antibody directed against the mHSP70 protein was used as a control to confirm mitochondrial enrichment in fraction 3. (b) Mitochondria purified from the same number of WT, DDX3<sup>−−</sup>, and DDX3<sup>−−</sup>-ΔLEAD (DDX3<sup>ΔLEAD</sup>) rescued with the DDX3ΔLEAD mutant) parasites using a 20-35% Percoll gradient centrifugation were analyzed by western blotting using the FK2 antibody. An equal amount of proteins was loaded on the gel. Shown here is one representative experiment out of three yielding similar results. (c) Western blot of total lysates from L. infantum WT treated with the proteasome inhibitor MG-132 (10 μM) using the FK2 antibody. The anti-tubulin antibody and Comassie blue staining were used as loading controls. (d) Susceptibility of WT, DDX3<sup>−−</sup>, and DDX3<sup>−−</sup>REV strains to MG-132.

governs critical steps in ubiquitin-dependent protein quality control driving the turnover of misfolded polyubiquitinated proteins in different cellular compartments (e.g., ER, mitochondria, nucleus) by the 26 S proteasome. 22,23,26,27 It has been shown recently that p97/VCP/Cdc48 is essential for the turnover of oxidatively damaged outer mitochondrial membrane (OMM) proteins. 28,29,31 p97/VCP/Cdc48 is recruited to stressed mitochondria and upon ATP hydrolysis extracts ubiquitinated proteins from the OMM via its interaction with the UPS and presents them to the proteasome for degradation. 26,31 The interaction of DDX3 with p97/VCP/Cdc48 together with the increased accumulation of mitochondrial polyubiquitinated proteins in DDX3<sup>−−</sup> parasites suggest a role for DDX3 in mitochondrial protein quality control. Our finding that complementation of DDX3<sup>−−</sup> with a DDX3 mutant protein lacking the DEAD motif involved in the binding of the α and β phosphates of ATP<sup>24,25</sup> did not prevent accumulation of mitochondrial polyubiquitinated proteins

suggests that the ATPase activity of DDX3 drives its function on mitochondrial proteostasis. It is possible that the interaction of DDX3 with p97/VCP/Cdc48 requires DDX3 binding to ATP and that this step is important for removing polyubiquitinated proteins out of the mitochondrion for proteasomal degradation. DDX3 does not seem to affect p97/VCP/Cdc48 binding to its co-factors or adaptors as IP studies against p97/VCP/Cdc48 in the DDX3<sup>−−</sup> background did not reveal any major changes in p97/VCP/Cdc48 interacting partners (Supplementary Table S5). Additional studies are needed, however, to fully address the impact of DDX3-p97/VCP/Cdc48 interaction on mitochondrial protein quality control. Taken together, our data support a central role for the Leishmania DDX3 homolog in mitochondrial protein quality control under normal growth conditions and particularly upon stress by preventing ROS-mediated damage and polyubiquitinated protein accumulation in the mitochondrion. Because of its important role in tumorigenesis and viral infection, 35 DDX3...
represents a potent novel therapeutic target. On the other hand, defects in p97/VCP/Cdc48 activity have been linked to several human pathologies. Accordingly, a comprehensive understanding of how DDX3X monitors mitochondrial quality control would possibly inform the prevention and treatment not only of parasitic but also of other human diseases.

**Materials and Methods**

**Parasite strains and cell culture.** L. infantum (MHOM/MA/TT/1995-NM13) was used in this study. L. infantum promastigotes were cultured in 2:1 K-medium supplemented with 10% heat-inactivated FCS (Miltenyi Biotech, Inc., Canada), and 5 μg/ml hemin at pH 7.0 and 25 °C. L. infantum amastigotes were grown in MA/20 medium supplemented with 20% FCS in 5% CO₂ atmosphere at pH 6.5 and 37 °C. Bone marrow-derived murine macrophages were seeded in a 16-well chamber and infected with L. infantum as described previously.

**Plasmid constructs and transfections.** The L. infantum DDX3x gene (UniProt ID:Q0Y073) knockout and the rescue mutant DDX3X-REV have been described previously. To engineer DDX3x deletion mutant proteins lacking either the DEAD-box motif (II) (DDDX3XΔIII) or the SII motif (III) (DDDX3XΔIII) in the H8/9GTRR (motif V) (DDDX3XΔIII/5II) or the H8/9GTRR (motif V) (DDDX3XΔIII/5II) and His/AscHis affinity tags were attached to the N- and C-terminus of vector pSP6Zeo. To generate the pSp6.1V/6.1C/6.1A-HA construct, the 6.1V/6.1C/6.1A ORF (UniProt ID:Q0Y073) was amplified from L. infantum and cloned into the HindIII and XbaI sites of vector pSP6Zeo. Primer sequences or all constructs described here are indicated in Supplementary Table S6. Stable transfections of the above DNA constructs into L. magnhi was carried out by electroporation as described previously.

**Protein lysate preparations and western blots.** Western blots were performed following standard procedures. The anti-mouse c-tubulin antibody (1:10,000 dilution; Sigma, Canada), the anti-mouse hemagglutinin (HA) tag monoclonal antibody (1:200, ABX, Canada), the anti-H5F0 (optocil) monoclonal antibody universal (1:1000) (K10) (Abo, Biochemicals, Canada), the anti-H5F0 (mitochondrial) antibody (1:2000, kindly provided by Dr. Oviedo do Mato Neto, Recife, Brazil), the anti-mouse H8R2 (mitochondrial) antibody (1:400, anti) (Abo, Antibodies, Canada), and the anti-mouse mono- and polyubiquitinated conjugates monoclonal antibody (R2) (1:5000) and blocking in 1% BSA, Enzo, Canada) were used in this study. PKA Aβ was used as a total and dinubin fractionated extracts as well as on purified mitochondria in the presence or absence of the protein kinase inhibitor MG-132 (10 μM, Enzo). Mitochondria were purified from 5 to 10×10⁶log-phase L. infantum promastigotes using a 20-30% Percoll gradient, as described previously. Eighteen fractions were carried out as described below.

**ROS measurement.** Intracellular oxidant species from L. infantum promastigotes were measured using 2′,7′-dichlorodihydrofluorescein diacetate (DCH-AF, Life Technologies) as a final concentration of 50 mM 10 ml of DM 20 ml of the DHE (Life Technologies, Canada) probe and analyzed by flow cytometry. Mitochondrial superoxide was detected in live parasites using the fluorescent MitoSOX RED dye (Invitrogen). 2′,7′-dichlorodihydrofluorescein diacetate (DCH-AF, Life Technologies). Live cells were incubated with 10 μM MitoSOX for 20 min at 37 °C.

**Peroxidase activity.** To measure peroxidase activity, we used the Peroxidase Activity Assay Kit (Sigma-Aldrich, Canada). L. infantum promastigotes were incubated with H₂O₂ (0.6 mM for 10 min), washed twice in PBS, and harvested by centrifugation at 6000g for 10 min. The pellets were resuspended in 100 μl of Assay Buffer, disrupted by several passages through a 20-gauge needle, and the lysate was centrifuged at 15,000 g for 10 min. Protein concentrations of parasite extracts were determined using the BCA protein assay system (Pierce, Canada). Peroxidase activity was measured via its coupling to H₂O₂ reduction and a fluorescent probe, resulting in a colorimetric (570 μm) product. Peroxidase activity reported as mmol/min where one unit of peroxidase is defined as the amount of enzyme that reduces 1 μmol of H₂O₂ per minute at 37 °C.

**Superoxide dismutase activity.** SOD activity was measured using the DiSallo Superoxide Dismutase Assay Kit (Cell Biolabs, USA) according to the manufacturer’s protocol. Stationary phase L. infantum promastigotes (10⁶) were treated or not with 3 μM mercuria (Sigma) ON, washed twice in PBS and harvested by centrifugation at 6000 g for 5 min. The pellets were resuspended in 100 μl of cold 1× Lyse Buffer (10 mM Tris, pH 7.5, 150 mM NaCl, 0.1 mM EDTA, protease inhibitors, 0.05% Triton X-100) using a BCA protein assay system. The SOD assay system utilizes the xanthine oxidase, which oxidizes its substrate xanthine to produce superoxide anions. The included chemagen produces a water-soluble formazan dye upon reduction by superoxide anions. Yield of inhibition was monitored after the addition of whole-cell extracts to the SOD assay mix was determined as a measure of SOD activity. One unit of SOD will inhibit by 50% the rate of reduction of chemagen.

**Mitochondrial membrane potential measurement.** The 5,5′-dithiobis(2-nitrobenzoic acid) (DTNB) (Molecular Probes, Eugene, OR, USA) was used to measure mitochondrial membrane potential (Δψm) by flow cytometry. L. infantum promastigotes grown either in RPMI medium or in glucose-free medium (10% FBS/50% MEM, Life Technologies) were exposed or not to H₂O₂ treatment (0.6 mM for 10 min and further incubation in a fresh medium in the absence of oxidants), washed twice in PBS, and double-stained (10× cells) with 40 μM DiOC₃ (3) (20 min at RT with 1 μg/ml of PI (Life Technologies) for 5 min on ice prior to flow cytometry analyses. DiOC₃(3)PI double-stained cells were analyzed on BD Influx (Becton Dickinson, Canada). Analyses were performed using FlowJo software (Tree Star Inc., OR, USA), as well as the GraphPad prism (GraphPad Software Inc. San Diego, CA, USA) for statistics.

**MitroTracker staining and immunofluorescence.** Parasites (2×10⁶/ml) were centrifuged and washed once with 1× PBS and stained with Mitotracker Red (Life Technologies) at a final concentration of 20 mM for 30 min at 20 °C. For immunofluorescence, cells were spotted on a slide (spread 5 μl), air dried at RT, washed twice in 1× PBS and then fixed in 2% parafomaldehyde for 10 min. Following washings (3×) in 1× PBS, cells were permeabilized in 1× PBS, 0.2% Triton X-100, and 4% FCS at RT for 30 min and blocked in 1× PBS, 5% TBS, 0.02% Tween 20, and 0.1 Triton X-100 for 1 h at RT. The hybridization was performed with the anti-rabbit mitochondrial HSP70 (1:300, 1 h) followed by the secondary antibody Alexa fluor 488 anti-rabbit (Life Technologies) (1:1000, 1 h). After washing, the cells were observed under a Nikon epifluorescence microscope.

**Immunoprecipitation and mass spectrometry analysis.** For immunoprecipitation studies, L. infantum promastigotes expressing DDXX-HA or p97/VCP/Cdc48-HA proteins were lysed in ice-cold 1× lysis buffer (10 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.5), 50 mM KCl, 2 mM MgCl₂, 1% Triton X-100, 10 μM of protease inhibitors (Sigma), protease inhibitor cocktail (Roche Applied Science, Canada), 1 mM DTT, 0.1 mM Na₂VO₃, 1 mM (2-chlorophenyl) phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride and 20 mM okadaic acid (Sigma)), passed through a 20-gauge needle and centrifuged at 10,000 g for 30 min at 4 °C. Soluble proteins (150 μl) were mixed with rabbit Anti-HA Magnetic Beads (Thermo Scientific, Canada) as per the manufacturer’s protocol. Proteins on beads were washed 3× with 50 mM ammonium bicarbonate buffer and kept at −20 °C until mass spectrometry analysis. Alternatively, proteins eluted from beads were resolved only up to 1 cm in a 10% SDS PAGE followed by Coomassie blue staining. Then, 1× TCA gel side was excised, trypsin-digested, and analyzed by mass spectrometry. Peptide separation and elution, mass spectra acquisition, database searching, and peptide identification were performed as described previously. In order to exclude non-specificbinders to DDX3X-HA or p97/VCP/Cdc48-HA proteins, we carried out IP studies under the same experimental conditions with total lysates from either L. infantum wild type (Supplementary Table S2) or recombinant parasites expressing an HA-tagged GFP (Supplementary Table S3) as part of an optional vector. Contaminant proteins present in the two IP negative controls were excluded from Table 1.

**Statistics.** All analyses were performed using GraphPad Prism software (version 6.04; GraphPad, La Jolla, CA, USA). Results were expressed as means±S.D. or
Conflict of Interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

Acknowledgements

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S.E.M. of at least three independent experiments in triplicates or in duplicates. Statistical significance was assessed by two-tailed paired Student’s-t test or the two-way ANOVA. Statistical significance was set at P<0.05 (**P<0.01, ***P<0.001, and ****P<0.0001).

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Supplementary Information accompanies this paper on Cell Death and Disease website (http://www.nature.com/cddis)
Appendix 2 – Inactivation of the *L. infantum* *LiUfd1* gene by knockout strategy using CRISPR-Cas9.

The puromycin N-acetyl-transferase gene (PURO) and neomycin phosphotransferase gene (NEO) targeting cassettes were used to replace both copies of the endogenous *L. infantum UFD1* gene (LinJ.36.6780; http://tritrypdb.org) through homologous recombination using the 5'- and 3'-flanking sequences of UFD1 in the presence of UFD1 gRNA and the CAS9-expressing plasmid.

**PCR of total genomic DNA.** The two *LiUFD1* alleles in the wild type (WT) strain (*LVCP*+/+*) were subsequently replaced by the PURO and NEO targeting cassettes to generate the *LVCP*<sup>(PURO+)</sup> and *LVCP*<sup>(PURO/NEO) </sup>mutants, respectively. Following PURO gene replacement, double inactivation in *LVCP*<sup>(NEO+) </sup> was only possible by ectopically providing a pSPαZEOα vector expressing HA-tagged *LiUFD1*(+Ufd1-HA (N) or +HA-Ufd1 (C)) and using the gRNA (g) for CRISPR strategy. These results suggest that the *LiUfd1* gene is essential for parasite growth.
Appendix 3. Inactivation of the *L. infantum* *Li*Faf, *Li*NPL4 and *Li*Pub1 genes by knockout strategy using CRISPR-Cas9.

PCR of total genomic DNA using specific primers for detecting possible replacement of *Li*Faf or *Li*NPL4L and or *Li*Pub1 genes by the PURO or NEO targeting expression cassettes using CRISPR-Cas9. The two alleles of *Li*Faf, *Li*NPL4L and *Li*Pub1 in the wild type (WT) strain (*LNCP<sup>+/+</sup>* ) were subsequently targeted for replacement by the *PURO* and *NEO* cassettes to generate the (PURO/<sup>+</sup>) and (PURO/NEO) mutants. Double insertion was detected by using primers external to each gene and internal for NEO and PURO. Despite the double insertion of the resistance selectable markers, we were still able to amplify the *Li*NPL4 and *Li*Pub1 genes (as well inconclusive fragments for the *Li*Faf gene), suggesting an essential role for these genes.
Appendix 4 - LiPLAA/Doa1/Lub1 protein - The putative link with Mitochondria Associated Degradation (MAD)

BLAST analysis on the *L. infantum* genome in TriTrypDB using the yeast Doa1 gene as bait depicted LinJ.24.1970, a WD domain, G-beta repeat/PFU (PLAA family ubiquitin binding protein) as the putative Doa1 homolog in *Leishmania* as well as a PUB domain containing protein (LinJ.36.0140), both identified to interact with VCP by co-immunoprecipitation and LC-MS/MS studies.

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LinJ.03.0190  delta-1-pyrroline-5-carboxylate dehydrogenase, putative  4
LinJ.25.1850  3-oxo-5-alpha-steroid 4-dehydrogenase, putative  4
LinJ.27.2350  heat shock protein DNAJ, putative  4
LinJ.03.0960  Eukaryotic translation initiation factor 2 subunit alpha  4
LinJ.25.1460  GTP-binding protein, putative  4
LinJ.36.0190  elongation factor 2  3
LinJ.29.1160  ribosomal protein L1a, putative  3
LinJ.28.1310  luminal binding protein 1 (BiP), putative  3
LinJ.04.0750  60S ribosomal protein L10, putative  3
LinJ.30.3560  S-adenosylmethionine synthetase  3
LinJ.13.0090  metallo-peptidase, Clan MA(E) Family M32  3
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LinJ.01.0430  ribosomal protein S7, putative  3
LinJ.15.1060  60S ribosomal protein L6, putative  3
LinJ.02.0430  Mitochondrial outer membrane protein porin, putative  3
LinJ.09.1020  elongation factor-1 gamma  3
LinJ.04.1250  actin  3
LinJ.31.2890  ADP-ribosylation factor, putative  3
LinJ.17.0980  hypothetical protein, conserved  3
LinJ.28.1050  40S ribosomal protein S14  3
LinJ.36.1420  Valosin-containing protein, putative  2
LinJ.13.1120  40S ribosomal protein S4, putative  2
LinJ.21.1820  ATP-dependent RNA helicase SUB2, putative  2
LinJ.18.1500  P-type H+-ATPase, putative  2
LinJ.17.0010  eukaryotic translation initiation factor 3 subunit a  2
LinJ.18.0740  Elongation factor Tu, mitochondrial, putative  2
LinJ.32.1910  iron superoxide dismutase, putative  2
LinJ.36.2130  chaperonin HSP60, mitochondrial precursor  2
LinJ.18.0510  aconitase, putative  2
LinJ.32.0790  nuclear RNA binding domain  2
LinJ.24.2200  3-hydroxy-3-methylglutaryl-CoA synthase, putative  2
LinJ.29.2570  60S ribosomal protein L13, putative  2
LinJ.16.1510  paraflagellar rod protein 2C  2
LinJ.34.2410  ALBA-domain protein 3  2
LinJ.21.1290  60S ribosomal protein L9, putative  2
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LinJ.26.0150  60S ribosomal protein L7, putative  2
LinJ.32.4050  60S ribosomal protein L8, putative  2
LinJ.20.1620  ribosomal protein S11 homolog  2
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LinJ.35.1870  60S ribosomal protein L5, putative  2
LinJ.19.0390  40S ribosomal protein S13, putative  2
LinJ.19.0050  40S ribosomal protein S2  2
LinJ.25.1220  ribosomal protein S25  2
LinJ.06.0590  60S ribosomal protein L23a, putative  2
LinJ.19.0100  hypothetical protein, conserved  2
LinJ.27.2020  RNA-binding protein, putative  2
LinJ.20.1320  calpain-like cysteine peptidase, putative  2
LinJ.32.2830  ribosomal protein L27, putative  2
LinJ.27.1630  hypothetical protein, conserved  2
LinJ.31.1240  Pyrophosphate-energized vacuolar membrane proton pump 1, putative  2
LinJ.35.3810  60S ribosomal protein L27A/L29, putative  2
LinJ.06.0950  hypothetical protein, conserved  2
LinJ.36.2370  Gamma-tubulin complex component 3-like protein  2
LinJ.19.0240  centrosomal protein of 104 kDa  2
LinJ.14.1450  myo-inositol-1-phosphate synthase  2
LinJ.03.0180  U2 splicing auxiliary factor, putative  2
Appendix 5 - LiVCP localization in *Leishmania infantum* by different approaches

Immunofluorescence analysis showing LiVCP (green) localization in *L. infantum* promastigote forms. Nucleus and kinetoplast DNA were stained with DAPI (blue). On panel a) an anti-*Trypanosoma brucei* VCP antibody was used as primary antibody. On b) and c) anti-HA was used as first antibody to identify LiVCP-HA overexpressed and LiVCP-HA integrated constructs, respectively. For all conditions, Alexa Fluor® 488 anti-mouse was used as secondary antibody. These experiments suggest that LiVCP is mostly localized to the cytoplasm.
Appendix 6 - LiVCP co-localization with DHH1 protein in *Leishmania infantum*.

Schematic representation and immunofluorescence analysis of *LiVCP*-GFP and DHH1-mCherry constructs used for localization studies in *L. infantum*. The *LiVCP*-GFP construct was made by placing the *LiVCP* gene in frame with the eGFP protein and then cloned it into pGEM-αZEOα-vector and transfected into *L. infantum* promastigotes. DHH1 has been localized in stress granules and these co-localization studies suggest that *LiVCP* may also associate with these RNA foci.
Appendix 7 - PABP2 as a marker of stress granules in *Leishmania infantum* and *Trypanosoma brucei*.

We carried out immunofluorescence analysis both in *Leishmania* (upper panel) and *Trypanosoma brucei* (middle and lower panels) using an antibody directed against the poly(A) binding protein 2 (PABP2) (red) to visualize stress granule formation in these parasites. Nucleus and kinetoplast DNA were stained with DAPI (blue). An anti-rabbit antibody against *LiPABP2* (kindly provided by Dr. Osvaldo de Melo Neto, Recife, Brazil) followed by Alexa Fluor® 555 was used. Poly-A binding protein (PABP2) was accessed on methanol-fixed cells.
Immunofluorescence analysis showing LiVCP (green) localization in *L. infantum* promastigote (a) and axenic amastigote (b) forms. Nucleus and kinetoplast DNA were stained with DAPI (blue). An anti-*Trypanosoma brucei* VCP antibody was used as primary antibody followed by Alexa Fluor® 488 anti-mouse as secondary antibody. For co-localization studies, an anti-rabbit antibody against LiPABP2 (red) followed by Alexa Fluor® 555 was used. Poly-A binding protein (PABP2) was accessed on methanol-fixed cells (a,b). Images are maximal Z-projections of 30 to 35 contiguous stacks separated by 0.1 µm and were acquired with a 63x objective, using a LEICA SP5II confocal microscope. These experiments suggest a partial co-localization of LiVCP with PABP2, known to associate with stress granules.
Appendix 9 - Production of mitochondrial ROS is increased in *Leishmania* mutants exhibiting less VCP activity

Mitochondrial superoxide accumulation was measured using the MitoSOX Red probe. Parasites (2–4 ×10^7) were treated with 5 μM MitoSOX for 2 h at 25 °C and analyzed with a Victor fluorometer. The fluorescence was measured at 510 nm excitation and 580 emission wavelengths. Fluorescence was normalized with protein concentration measured using Bio-Rad protein assay. Mitochondrial superoxide accumulation was assessed also in the presence of miltefosine (25 μM) and Menadione (50 μM) treatment. Wild type (WT) expressing an empty vector and *LVCPEOEI* haploid mutant (sKO) expressing either a VCP-HA (C-terminal tagging of VCP affects its activity) or the VCP^{QQ} dominant negative mutant. Results shown here are expressed in relative fluorescence units. These results indicate that miltefosine treatment results in more mitochondrial ROS accumulation in parasites mutants exhibiting less VCP activity, like the sKO+VCP-HA and sKO+VCP^{QQ} strains, which is in line with the role of VCP in maintain proteostasis.

![Graph showing fluorescence units for different treatments](image)
Production of peroxyl radicals and peroxides in Wild type (WT), LiVCP(NEO/+) (sKO), and sKO expressing the WT VCP or the dominant negative mutant VCP^{QQ} strains in the presence of miltefosine (25 μM) was measured using the 2',7'-dichlorodihydrofluorescein diacetate (H2DCFDA) probe. Results shown here are expressed in relative fluorescence units. These results indicate that more ROS accumulate in parasite mutants exhibiting less VCP activity, like the sKO+VCP-HA and sKO+ VCP^{QQ} strains.

The sensitivity of Leishmania with impaired VCP to oxidative stress was also observed upon Miltefosine treatment. Promastigote forms of Leishmania infantum wild type (WT) or sKO
$(L_{VCP(NEO/+)}$) expressing or not the dominant negative mutants VCPQ1 or VCPQ2 or the double mutant VCPQQ were used. The proportion of surviving parasites was assessed by optical density measured at 600 nm after 72h following miltefosine treatment. Data were analyzed by GraphPad prism and the EC$_{50}$ was calculated from those plots.
Appendix 10 – Effect of drugs targeting VCP on *Leishmania infantum* growth.

The efficacy of DBeQ on promastigote forms of *Leishmania infantum* wild type (WT) was first evaluated here. The proportion of surviving parasites was assessed by measuring optical density at 600 nm after 72h following treatment. Data were analyzed by GraphPad prism and the EC50 was calculated from those plots. Among the three drugs tested, DBeQ, NMS873 and ML240, DBeQ was the one shown the better efficacy in killing *Leishmania* with an IC50 = 0.38 µM vs. 0.6 µM for ML240 and 1.8 µM for NMS873.

![Graph showing the efficacy of DBeQ on *Leishmania infantum* promastigotes](image)

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<td>IC50</td>
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</table>

The efficacy of NMS on promastigote forms of *Leishmania infantum* wild type (WT) was also evaluated. The percentage of surviving parasites was assessed by measuring optical density at 600 nm after 72h following treatment. Data were analyzed by GraphPad prism and the IC50 was calculated from those plots.
The efficacy of ML240 on promastigote forms of *Leishmania infantum* wild type (WT) was evaluated as well. The percentage of surviving parasites was assessed by measuring optical density at 600 nm after 72h following treatment. Data were analyzed by GraphPad prism and the IC50 was calculated from those plots.
The efficacy of DBeQ on axenic amastigote forms of *Leishmania infantum* wild type (WT) was also evaluated here. The percentage of surviving parasites was assessed by measuring optical density at 600 nm after 72h following treatment. Data were analyzed by GraphPad prism and the IC\textsubscript{50} was calculated from those plots.

These preliminary studies suggest that DBeQ is also active on amastigotes although approximately 3-times less than on promastigotes (IC\textsubscript{50} = 1.18 µM for amastigotes vs. IC\textsubscript{50} = 0.3 µM for promastigotes).