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Molecular Chaperones: From Proteostasis to Pathogenesis

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ABSTRACT

Maintaining protein homeostasis (proteostasis) is essential for a functional proteome. A wide range of extrinsic and intrinsic factors perturb proteostasis, causing protein misfolding, misassembly and aggregation. This compromises cellular integrity and leads to aging and disease, including neurodegeneration and cancer. At the cellular level, protein aggregation is counteracted by powerful mechanisms comprising of a cascade of enzymes and chaperones that operate in a coordinated multistep manner to sense, prevent and/or dispose of aberrant proteins. Although these processes are well understood for soluble proteins, there is a major gap in our understanding of how cells handle misfolded or aggregated membrane proteins. This article provides an overview of cellular proteostasis with emphasis on membrane protein substrates and suggests host-virus interaction as a tool to clarify outstanding questions in proteostasis.

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1 INTRODUCTION

2 Protein biogenesis is a highly complex and error-prone process. Cells maintain
3 protein homeostasis via evolutionarily conserved protective mechanism called
4 protein quality control (PQC), involving extensive chaperones and degradative
5 pathways. When PQC encounters misfolded protein it is either repaired or disposed
6 via the ubiquitin proteasomal system [1]. When this quality control fails, proteins can
7 clump to form aggregates, which then undergo autophagic degradation [2]. Although
8 vast amount of information regarding the cellular mechanism of soluble protein
9 quality control is available, membrane proteins PQC process is poorly understood,
10 especially in the context of how quality control factors coordinate to rectify the
11 misfolded or aggregated membrane protein problem.

12

13 Viruses are outstanding tools to break new grounds in cell biology and disease
14 mechanisms. In order to replicate and propagate, viruses are highly dependent on
15 their host and they achieve this by hijacking host factors called 'cues'. Cues are
16 receptors, enzymes or chemicals, which directly or indirectly promote different
17 stages of virus infection. The viruses, on the other hand trick these cues by either
18 tuning or reprogramming their cellular role [3]. Detailed understanding of these cues
19 have paved way for the development of crucial anti-viral targets and also helped us
20 understand the basic cellular processes [4]. Below I will discuss our current
21 knowledge and outstanding issues on proteostasis by comparing aberrant soluble
22 versus membrane protein substrates, and also provide examples of host-virus
23 interaction as a new strategy to tackle these issues.

24

25 PROTEOSTASIS

26 **Aberrant soluble proteins: Recognition, correction, and/or degradation**

27 Nascent proteins are highly unstable and tend to misfold and/or entangle due to their
28 chemical and physical properties [5]. PQC pathway deploys powerful molecular
29 chaperones that recognize and triage misfolded clients (Figure 1, Step 1). Different
30 chaperones possess distinct modes of substrate recognition that determine their
31 substrate range and specificity [6]. Among them the ubiquitous 70 kDa heat shock
32 protein (Hsp70) family of chaperones is shown to be associated with plethora of
33 misfolded and aggregated substrates, possibly selecting their targets for
34 proteasomal or autophagy degradation. The Hsp70's activity, in turn, is regulated by

35 a number of co-factors and co-chaperones, together functioning as a 'machine' [7].
36 For instance, J-proteins prime the Hsp70's folding property by selecting and
37 supplying the substrate to Hsp70 and also stimulate the Hsp70's ATPase activity,
38 whereas nucleotide exchange factors (NEF) promote the exchange of ADP with
39 ATP, to accelerate the cyclic reaction [8]. However, the identity of these machineries
40 and its components can vary for different clients.

41
42 Besides recognizing and selecting the misfolded proteins, chaperones and
43 associated factors also promote refolding, prevent aggregation or triage these
44 targets for degradation (Figure 1, Step 2). For instance, the ATP-dependent refolding
45 by chaperone binding and release involving Hsp70, a J-protein, and a NEF is well
46 defined for several soluble proteins [7]. Among them the mostly widely understood
47 are the model substrates processed in the Endoplasmic Reticulum (ER) lumen. The
48 cellular organelle ER is the most crowded environment in the cell performing diverse
49 cellular roles. Any dysfunction in the ER activity leads to accumulation of misfolded
50 and/or unfolded proteins. Cells maintain ER proteostasis by deploying diverse array
51 of ER-resident chaperones and enzymes, which process their client by correcting or
52 priming them to degradative pathways. For example, in the case of misfolded
53 secretory protein carboxypeptidase mutant CPY* and non-glycosylated pro- α -factor,
54 the ER lumen Hsp70 called binding immunoglobulin protein (BiP) and its associated
55 co-chaperones efficiently process the misfolded proteins for ER-associated
56 degradation (ERAD) (Figure 1, Step 3 & 4) [9]. Similarly, ERAD of terminally
57 misfolded α 1-antitrypsin variant null Hong Kong and transthyretin mutant D18G are
58 handled by BiP and a NEF, 170 kDa glucose regulated protein (Grp170) [10] and
59 processed by degradation pathways.

60
61 In case of aging diseases, when the above PQC system fails to repair or destroy
62 severely damaged proteins, they tend to aggregate (Figure 1, Step 5) causing
63 diseases, such as Amyotrophic lateral sclerosis, Parkinson's disease, Huntington's
64 disease, Alzheimer's disease, type II Diabetes, etc. In most instances, the aggregate
65 also recruits bystanders such as intermediately folded, and correctly folded species
66 causing cytotoxicity and cell death [11]. Cells counteract these aggregates by
67 sequestering them in special cytoplasmic quality control compartment (Figure 1,
68 Step 6) for refolding or autophagic degradation (Figure 1, Step 7) [12]. Partitioning of

69 misfolded proteins into compartments is an organized process that appears to be
70 conserved from yeast to mammalian cells. Distinct compartments with specific
71 characteristics have been observed, including 'aggresome' co-localizing with
72 microtubule organizing center, 'perinuclear inclusion' that co-stain with ER markers,
73 and 'insoluble inclusion' co-localizing with autophagic markers [13]. These structures
74 serve several purposes, such as in concentrating toxic species, thereby reducing
75 substrate burden on quality control systems, and orchestrating efficient repair.

76

77 For instance, in yeast, specific quality control compartments are reported to possess
78 Hsp104 disaggregase activity. Although metazoans lack Hsp104 homolog, several
79 recent reports have demonstrated the existence of a mammalian Hsp110-dependent
80 disaggregase activity [14]. For example, Hsp110 is shown to stabilize Apolipoprotein
81 from undergoing ERAD [15]; Hsp70 has been demonstrated to be transiently
82 associated with polyQ protein aggregates, raising the possibility that it may be
83 involved in disaggregating polyQ aggregates [16]. Similarly, over-expression of
84 several Hsp40 family proteins along with Hsp70 has been shown to prevent
85 accumulation of polyQ ataxia-1/3 in inclusions [17]. In the ER lumen, BiP prevents
86 aggregation of a misfolded client by binding to its exposed hydrophobic patches until
87 the client is delivered to the ERAD machinery [18]. Despite these findings, the
88 normal cellular function of this machinery is poorly characterized, especially in the
89 context of protein quality control.

90

91 **Aberrant membrane proteins: Recognition, correction, and/or degradation**

92 All membrane proteins are synthesized in the ER and they comprise one-third of the
93 human proteome. Synthesis of the membrane proteins is a highly complex and error
94 prone process, which includes insertion of membrane domain into the bilayer and
95 organizing domains on either side of the membrane. Unsurprisingly, due to its
96 complex organization, error in membrane protein synthesis, assembly and delivery is
97 associated with several diseases such as cystic fibrosis, retinitis pigmentosa,
98 nephrogenic diabetes insipidus, hypogonadotropic hypogonadism, hypocalciuric
99 hypercalcemia, etc. Cells counteract this problem by deploying powerful PQC
100 machineries analogous to soluble proteins with overlapping components and
101 mechanisms. For instance, the ER-resident ATP-dependent quality control involving
102 Hsp70/BiP, a J-protein, and a NEF is defined for several membrane protein clients,

103 such as rhodopsin [19], surfactant C [20], cystic fibrosis transmembrane
104 conductance regulator (CFTR), etc. In the case of Δ F508 mutant of CFTR and
105 gonadotropin-releasing hormone receptor, the ER membrane chaperone BAP31 [21]
106 and DnaJ B12 [22] associate with their respective clients and promote its
107 retrotranslocation and clearance from the ER. Similarly, in the cytosol, several
108 proteostasis factors, such as Hsp70, Hsc70, Hsp90 and CHIP E3 ligase, are shown
109 to promote PQC of Niemann-Pick disease type C-2 [23]. These aforementioned
110 examples demonstrate the interplay of PQC components for their specific clients.

111

112 Another key question is how the protein quality control deals with the aggregated
113 membrane proteins. Similar to soluble PQC compartments, increasing evidence
114 indicates the existence of quality control structures for membrane proteins [24], but
115 the formation and composition of these structures are poorly characterized. Recent
116 studies have implicated requirement of certain PQC factors for the formation of these
117 structures, including chaperones (Hsp70, DnaJB, Bag3), molecular motors,
118 microtubules and microtubule-associated factors (histone deacetylase; HDAC6) [25,
119 26]. However, the basic formation mechanism of these structures is vague.
120 Moreover, the manners in which substrates are recognized and targeted to
121 aggresomes leading to autophagy are not known. Recent studies have supported
122 the notion of ER membrane chaperones playing pivotal role in recognition and fate of
123 aberrant clients. For instance, membrane localized J-protein B12 along with cytosolic
124 Hsp70 is reported as a potential factor for membrane client recognition [27, 28].
125 Another Hsp70 co-chaperones Bag3 was also reported to be involved in targeting
126 misfolded client to the quality control sites for further processing [26]. Also an
127 unbiased RNAi screening analysis towards aggresome substrate (synphilin-1) has
128 identified RuvbL proteins as aggresome forming proteins with disaggregase activity
129 [29]. In addition, little is understood about the underlying mechanism of
130 retrotranslocation of membrane clients during ERAD, with several groups suggesting
131 direct interplay of membrane channels Hrd1 and Derlin-1 in client selection and
132 retrotranslocation [30, 31].

133

134 **PROTEOSTASIS AND VIRUSES**

135 Viruses hijack host factors called 'cues' by either exploiting their cellular role or
136 modify to facilitate specific function [3]. Several viruses trick host PQC factors into

137 performing novel functions to support infection, which in turn has helped us to learn
138 about the function and molecular mechanism of these host factors. It is well
139 established that viruses exploit host PQC factors for many aspects of their life cycle
140 [4], including entry, replication and assembly (see Table 1). A detailed overview of
141 viruses, which use different steps of proteostasis during infection (as shown in Figure
142 2), is discussed below.

143

144 **Proteostasis cues in virus entry**

145 In the case of non-enveloped viruses host entry and genome delivery is poorly
146 characterized. Polyomavirus family is the most studied non-enveloped virus whose
147 host entry is well understood. During entry, the virus reaches the ER from the cell
148 surface and co-opts ERAD factors to reach cytosol. Specifically, the PDI family of
149 enzymes reduces and isomerizes the viral disulphide bonds that often expose
150 hydrophobic epitopes [32, 33]. These changes partially disassemble the virus and
151 the particle now mimics a giant misfolded protein aggregate, which now recruits
152 Hsp70 homologue BiP and its luminal co-chaperones [34, 35]. The restructured,
153 hydrophobic virus is primed for membrane penetration, by exploiting molecular motor
154 kinesin-1 to drive the reorganization of ER membrane chaperone B14 to form the
155 virus membrane penetration site, called 'focus' [36]. The focus-localized virus is then
156 extracted from the membrane by a B14-tethered cytosolic disaggregation machinery
157 (B14, Hsc70 and Hsp110), consequently reaching the cytosol [37]. In summary,
158 studies on polyomavirus have unraveled the interplay of host PQC components in
159 the ER lumen, ER membrane and the cytosol.

160

161 A similar mechanism has been proposed for the entry and disassembly of human
162 papillomavirus (HPV). For instance, several studies have proposed HPV reaching
163 ER during host entry and utilizing ER-resident PDI family proteins [38]. In addition,
164 Hsp70 chaperone system has been demonstrated to disassemble HPV *in vitro*, a
165 mechanism similar to disassembly of polyomavirus [39]. But a detailed mechanistic
166 understanding of the host membrane penetration and virus disassembly in HPV
167 infection is poorly understood.

168

169 Another well-characterized example of host quality control machinery being utilized
170 by a virus to promote its disassembly is Influenza A virus (IAV), an enveloped DNA

171 virus. During host entry, the IAV capsid released from late endosome mimics as
172 misfolded protein aggregate by carrying unanchored ubiquitin chains that activates
173 histone deacetylase 6 (HDAC6) to recruit cytoskeleton motors that generate
174 opposing physical forces to break apart the capsid and disassemble the virus [40].
175 Another example of an enveloped virus taking advantage of host PQC factors is in
176 the case of Vaccinia virus (VACV), the prototypic poxvirus. VACV has evolved a
177 complex multi-step core disassembly and genome release process due to its shape
178 and structure. After “core activation”, host proteasome activity is required for core
179 degradation and genome release [41]. Overall, the examples illustrated above
180 demonstrate how viruses hijack host protein quality control machinery and tweak
181 them to promote virus entry and disassembly. Nonetheless, studies on these viruses
182 have demonstrated the key components of the aggresome formation and
183 disassembly machinery and also provided a broad understanding of host
184 components and cellular processes.

185

186 **Proteostasis cues in virus replication, assembly and egress**

187 Post-entry into the host cell, viral genome is transcribed and translated to promote
188 virus replication and assembly and for all viruses this step depends entirely on the
189 host proteostasis machinery. Numerous viruses exploit host PQC factors to build site
190 of replication and promote assembly. Several members of *Flaviviridae* family are
191 reported to indirectly utilize ER membrane chaperones to build and sustain their
192 replication site. For instance, during Hepatitis C virus (HCV) replication, virus
193 induces ER-membrane rearrangement to form of a viral replication factory. Although,
194 several chaperones (Hsp70, Hsp90 and calnexin) are implicated to play a role in
195 virus replication, the exact composition and mechanism of replication factory
196 formation is poorly defined and proposed to be closely related to PQC [42]. Similarly,
197 recent study on Dengue virus (DENV) has illuminated the requirement of Hsp70
198 chaperone network that are required at distinct steps of the viral cycle, including
199 entry, RNA replication, and virion biogenesis. More importantly, the role of Hsp70 at
200 each step is specified by nine distinct DNAJ cofactors [43]. Of these, DnaJB11
201 relocalizes to virus-induced replication complex, while DnaJB6 facilitates virion
202 biogenesis. Studies on recently emerged Zika virus (ZIKV) has demonstrated
203 widespread remodeling of intracellular membrane and formation of cytoplasmic

204 vacuoles. Several ER and cytosolic chaperones are implicated in formation of these
205 vacuoles, but a thorough understanding is needed to reveal the importance and
206 formation of these vacuoles [44]. Globally, studies on flaviviruses have provided vital
207 information on the membrane remodeling and role of chaperones during ER
208 membrane derived compartment formations.

209

210 Another instance of PQC factors that are subverted to promote virus infection is for
211 Herpes Simplex virus (HSV)-1, an enveloped DNA virus. It has been proposed that
212 the virus-induced replication compartment is enriched in chaperones such as Hsc70,
213 Hsp90, Bag3 and proteosomes, which perhaps remodel viral replication and
214 regulatory proteins to promote HSV-1 replication [45]. Although the virus-induced
215 replication compartments have traces of PQC compartments, they vary in their
216 protein composition and especially how they are built. Nevertheless, studies on HSV-
217 1, similar to flaviviruses, have provided key information on formation, maintenance
218 and functioning of the PQC compartments.

219

220 In the case of enveloped RNA rotavirus, the final assembly of the viral particle takes
221 place in the ER [46], where ER-resident chaperones Grp78, PDI, calnexin, and
222 calreticulin are reported to promote morphogenesis of the viral particle. Specifically,
223 these chaperones promote accurate trimming of the glycan chains on VP7 and
224 NSP4, the correct formation of VP7 disulfide bonds, and the incorporation of properly
225 folded VP7 into assembled rotavirus [47]. Overall, studies on rotavirus assembly and
226 morphogenesis have provided vital information on the interplay of chaperones and
227 protein homeostasis in the ER. In conclusion, the aforementioned example of viruses
228 utilizing PQC factors as cues during infection has provided a broad understanding of
229 host proteostasis mechanism.

230

231 **FUTURE PERSPECTIVE**

232 Long-term research should focus on studying the quality control compartment for
233 membrane protein aggregates. The key outstanding question is to understand the
234 mechanism of membrane substrate recognition by the chaperone system.
235 Specifically, pinpointing the identity of ER luminal, membrane, and cytosolic factors
236 for a specific misfolded membrane client is vital. It is also important to clarify how
237 misfolded/aggregated membrane substrates are refolded and sequestered and if not,

238 how they are disaggregated and targeted towards degradation pathways. Studies on
239 virus should guide our understanding of how aggregated membrane proteins are
240 processed from the cell in order to maintain cellular proteostasis and understanding
241 how proteostasis pathways are affected in the cells infected with viruses. Some of
242 the experimental approaches should focus on unbiased proteomic analysis for
243 specific membrane protein substrates to identify target PQC components. These
244 targets should be further validated with gain and/or loss of function studies. From the
245 virus perspective, the identities of the host quality control factors that influence the
246 formation of virus-induced structures and also understanding how host proteostasis
247 is impacted by formation of these structures are vital.

248
249 Currently several therapeutic options are explored for protein misfolding related
250 diseases, specifically targeting prevention, refolding, and degradation pathways [48].
251 Future research should be directed towards unlocking further secrets of cellular
252 protein homeostasis in conjunction with virus infection and provide therapeutic
253 targets to combat diseases caused by these toxic agents, and to illuminate novel
254 cellular mechanisms. For instance, these insights should help us develop molecular
255 and pharmacological chaperones to prevent formation of protein aggregates thereby
256 delaying the onset of misfolded protein-associated diseases or even develop anti-
257 viral agents. An allosteric Hsp70 inhibitor, JG40, has been shown to potently block
258 infection of different Flaviviruses (Dengue, yellow fever, West Nile and Japanese
259 encephalitis viruses) without exerting toxicity to the host cells [43]. Thus, targeting
260 host chaperone networks should provide a path for broad-spectrum antivirals.

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264 suggestions.

265

266 **CONFLICT OF INTERESTS**

267 The author declares no conflict of interests.

268 **FIGURE LEGEND**

269

270 **Figure 1. The fate of aberrant proteins.** Aberrant soluble or membrane proteins
271 (brown) are recognized (1) by chaperones (green and magenta) and promote its

272 refolding (2). When proteins misfolded it is then extracted (3) into the cytosol and
 273 degraded (4) by proteasomal machinery. When proteins aggregate (5), it is then
 274 sequestered (6) into quality control compartments and degraded (7) by
 275 autolysosomal pathway.

276
 277 **Figure 2. Viruses hijacking proteostasis components.** List of viruses using
 278 different steps of proteostasis during infection.

279 **Table 1. List of viruses exploiting proteostasis pathways**

Family	Classification	Strain	Mechanisms of PQC factor exploitation
Entry and disassembly			
<i>Polyomaviridae</i>	Non-enveloped DNA	Simian vacuolating virus 40	PDI family members isomerizes VP1 disulphide bonds [34]; Cytosolic disaggregase machinery disassemble the virus [37]
<i>Polyomaviridae</i>	Non-enveloped DNA	Murine polyomavirus	PDI family members isomerizes VP1 disulphide bonds [32, 33, 38, 49]
<i>Polyomaviridae</i>	Non-enveloped DNA	BK virus	PDI family isomerizes VP1 pentamer disulphide bonds [50, 51]
<i>Papillomaviridae</i>	Non-enveloped DNA	Human papillomavirus 16	Cytosolic and ER chaperones promote capsid disassembly [39, 52]
<i>Poxviridae</i>	Enveloped DNA	Vaccinia virus	Host proteasome promotes mechanical core uncoating [41, 53]
<i>Orthomyxoviridae</i>	Enveloped DNA	Influenza virus	Hijacks host aggresome and disassembly machinery [40]
<i>Parvoviridae</i>	Non-enveloped DNA	Adeno-associated virus 2/8	Ubiquitin-proteasome pathways is involved in uncoating [54, 55]
<i>Flaviviridae</i>	Enveloped RNA	Dengue virus	Hsp70 chaperone and co-chaperone promote entry [43]
Replication, assembly and morphogenesis			
<i>Flaviviridae</i>	Enveloped RNA	Hepatitis C virus	Replication site is enriched in chaperones of unknown function [42]
<i>Flaviviridae</i>	Enveloped RNA	Dengue virus	Chaperone form replication site and promote virion biogenesis [43]
<i>Flaviviridae</i>	Enveloped RNA	Zika virus	ER and cytosolic chaperones build virus replication compartment [44]
<i>Herpesviridae</i>	Enveloped DNA	Herpes simplex virus 1	Virus-induced chaperone enriched domain promotes infection [45]
<i>Herpesviridae</i>	Enveloped DNA	Varicella-zoster virus	Hsc70, Hsp90 and BAG3 facilitates virus replication [56]
<i>Herpesviridae</i>	Enveloped DNA	Hepatitis E virus	ERAD pathway to retrotranslocate ORF2 to the cytosol [57]
<i>Reoviridae</i>	Enveloped RNA	Rotavirus	ER-resident chaperones promote viral morphogenesis [47]
<i>Coronaviridae</i>	Enveloped RNA	SARS coronavirus	ERAD tuning vesicle-like structures serves as replication site [58, 59]
<i>Coronaviridae</i>	Enveloped RNA	Mouse hepatitis virus	ERAD tuning vesicle-like structures serves as replication site [58, 59]
<i>Retroviridae</i>	Enveloped DNA	Mouse mammary tumor virus	Viral protein Rem is processed in the ER and retrotranslocated [60]
<i>Parvoviridae</i>	Non-enveloped DNA	Minute virus of Mice	Ubiquitin-proteasome pathway and motor proteins are important
<i>Parvoviridae</i>	Non-enveloped DNA	Canine parvovirus	Ubiquitin-proteasome pathway and motor proteins are important

280

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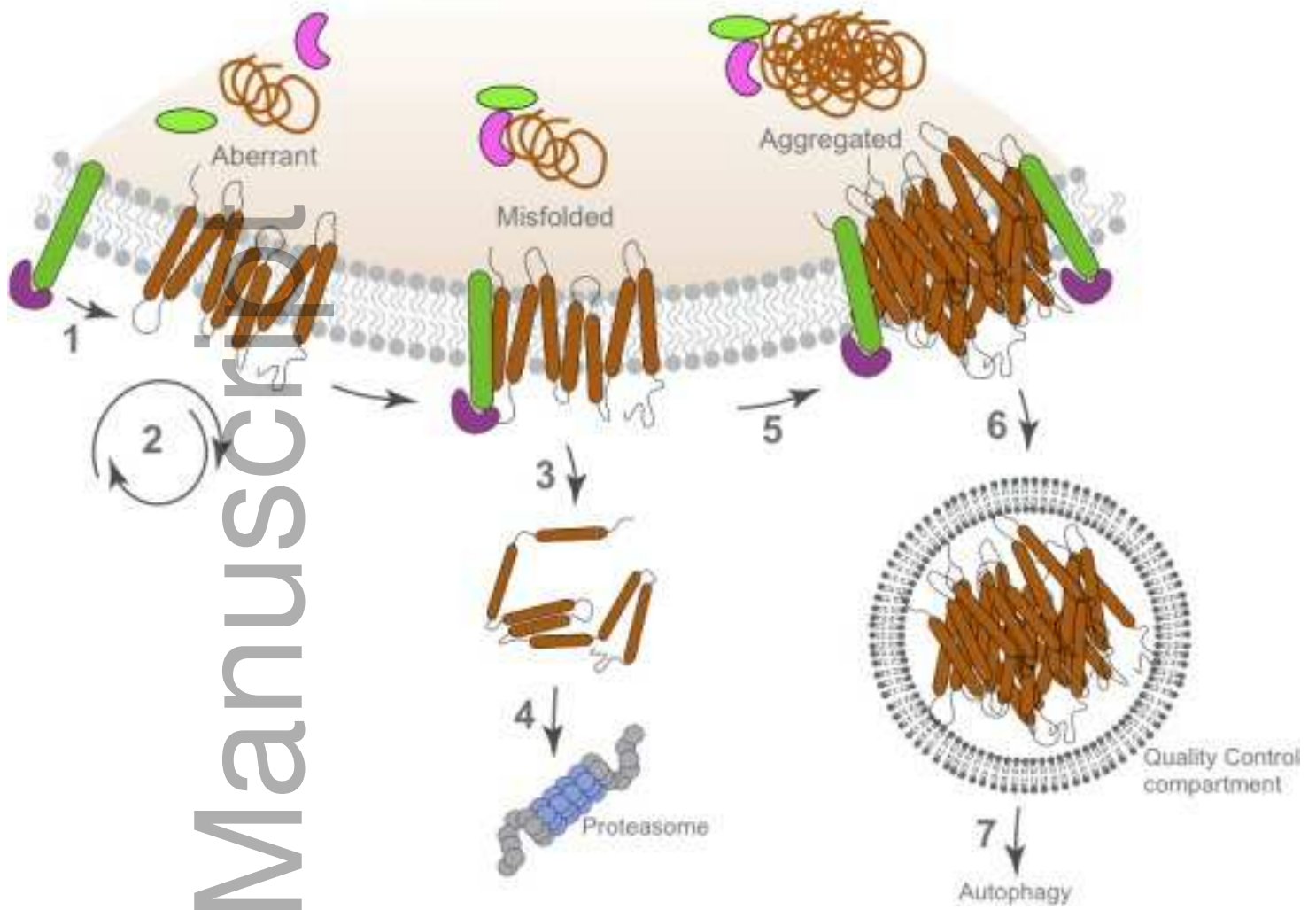
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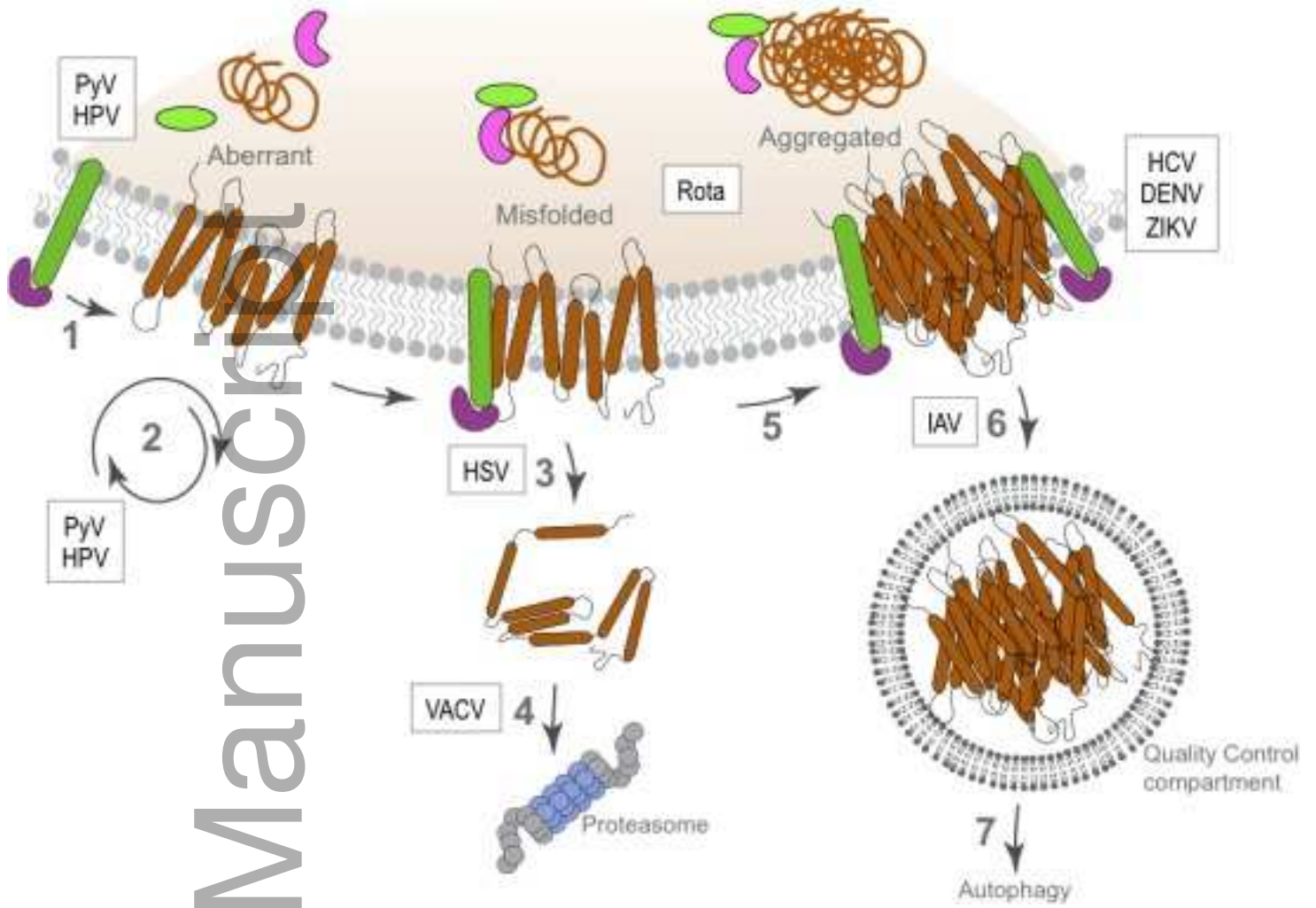
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