

The oncolytic avian reovirus p17 protein triggers the IKK/NF- κ B signaling by modulating molecular chaperones Hsp90/Cdc37, TRiC/PhLP1 and TRiC/Hsp70 complexes inducing chaperone-mediated autophagy

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ABSTRACT

This study is first to reveal that oncolytic avian reovirus (ARV) modulates the IKK/NF- κ B signaling through the Hsp90/Cdc37, T-complex protein-1 ring complex (TRiC)/Hsc70, and TRiC/phosducin-like protein 1 (PhLP1) chaperone complexes, thereby inducing chaperone-mediated autophagy. Specifically, the ARV p17 protein elevates the binding of co-chaperone PhLP1 to TRiC, thereby reducing the complex formation of TRiC/Hsc70 and leading to I κ B degradation, suggesting that these two co-chaperones exhibit a competitive relationship. The p17 protein of ARV plays a crucial role in enhancing the formation of TRiC/PhLP1 complex to protect viral proteins from ubiquitin-proteasome-mediated degradation. Interestingly, we found that ARV p17 enhances the interaction between the Hsp90/Cdc37 chaperone complex and IKK through activation of CK2, which in turn activates NF- κ B. Moreover, ARV p17 transcriptionally upregulates Beclin1 and increases the formation of Beclin1/PtdIns3K complex through the CK2/Hsp90/Cdc37 pathway. Immunofluorescence staining reveals that ARV p17 promotes the formation of GFP-LC3 puncta in both Vero and A549 cell lines while a significant reduction in GFP-LC3 puncta was observed in CK2 and Hsp90 knockdown cells. Interestingly, *in situ* proximity ligation assays indicated that ARV p17 promotes the interaction between LC3-II and the cytosolic chaperonin complex (CCT) 2, triggering chaperone-mediated autophagy. This study provides novel insights into ARV-modulated suppression of I κ B by regulating co-chaperone PhLP1 and Hsc70 binding to TRiC and activation of the CK2/Hsp90-Cdc37/IKK/NF- κ B pathway to induce chaperone-mediated autophagy benefiting viral replication.

KEYWORDS: Avian reovirus, p17, NF- κ B, T-complex protein-1 ring complex, Hsp90/Cdc37 complex, TRiC/PhLP1 complex, chaperone-mediated autophagy

Abbreviation:

ARV; avian reovirus; CCT: chaperonin containing TCP-1; TRiC: T-complex protein-1 ring complex; Cdc37: cell division cycle 37; CK2: casein kinase 2; co-IP: co-immunoprecipitation; Hsp90: heat shock protein 90; HSF-1: heat shock factor protein 1; I κ B: inhibitor of nuclear factor kappa-B; IKK: inhibitor of nuclear factor kappa-B kinase; mTORC1: mammalian target of rapamycin complex 1; NF- κ B: nuclear factor kappa-light-chain-enhancer of activated B cells; NIK: NF- κ B-inducing kinase; PI3K: phosphoinositide 3-kinase; PtdIns3K: class III phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase; PhLP1: phosphducin-like protein 1; RIG-I: retinoic acid-inducible gene I; TRIM25: tripartite motif-containing protein 25; ULK1: unc-51-like kinase 1.

Introduction

NF- κ B is a family of transcription factors involved in regulating the expression of various genes, including those related to immune responses, inflammation, cell proliferation, and apoptosis [1, 2]. The activation of NF- κ B is the result of multiple cellular signaling pathways and plays a crucial role in several viral infections. In the classical pathway, NF- κ B activation is typically triggered by pro-inflammatory cytokines including TNF- α and IL-1 β [3, 4]. This process involves the phosphorylation and degradation of I κ B, allowing the NF- κ B heterodimer to be released and translocate into the nucleus. On the other hand, the non-canonical pathway primarily involves the activation of NF- κ B-inducing kinase (NIK) and IKK α , which influence the processing of the p100 protein. This leads to the generation of the p52/ RelB heterodimer [5, 6]. A previous study has suggested that short wavelength UV light induces NF- κ B activation through casein kinase 2 (CK2)-mediated phosphorylation and I κ B degradation [7]. The NF- κ B complex, which remains inactive under normal conditions, can be activated by

76 a range of stimuli such as viral and bacterial infections, proinflammatory cytokines,
77 mitogens, growth factors, and stress-inducing factors [8, 9]. Cellular autophagy is
78 commonly initiated by the deactivation of mTORC1, leading to the activation of the
79 ULK1 kinase complex [10]. Moreover, autophagy regulation involves energy sensors
80 like AMPK and several other signaling pathways, including the PI3K-Akt pathway [11,
81 12]. Autophagy may generate a cellular environment that facilitates survival in various
82 ways. In addition to its role in normal cellular metabolism and waste removal,
83 autophagy is vital for providing protection in contexts such as pathogen infections and
84 cellular stress [13]. In most cells, three types of autophagy coexist: microautophagy,
85 endosomal microautophagy, chaperone-mediated autophagy (CMA), and
86 macroautophagy [14, 15]. The NF- κ B transcription factor family not only regulates cell
87 survival, apoptosis, and inflammation but also contributes to the regulation of
88 autophagy [16-18]. IKK/NF- κ B has been found to induce autophagy by directly
89 stimulating the expression of key components of the autophagy machinery, including
90 Beclin 1, ATG5, and LC3 [19, 20]. Conversely, NF- κ B can suppress autophagy by
91 upregulating autophagy inhibitors such as Bcl-2 family proteins and the PTEN/mTOR
92 signaling pathway [21, 20]. The activation of NF- κ B can stimulate the production of
93 antiviral cytokines, such as IFN- β , which plays a key role in cellular antiviral defense.
94 However, some viruses can exploit NF- κ B-induced gene expression to enhance their
95 own replication [8, 22]. For example, the Tat protein of HIV-1 interacts directly with
96 NF- κ B, enhancing p65 transcriptional activity and thereby stimulating the viral LTR
97 promoter [23]. The X protein of Hepatitis B virus (HBV) triggers NF- κ B activation by
98 stimulating the IKK complex, promoting the expression and replication of viral genes
99 [24]. The NS1 protein of influenza virus blocks NF- κ B activation through inhibition of
100 RIG-I and TRIM25, facilitating viral evasion from immune surveillance [25]. ICP0, an

101 E3 ligase found in herpes simplex virus 1 (HSV-1), contains a RING finger domain at
102 its N-terminus [26]. This viral protein interacts with p50, tagging it for ubiquitination,
103 which results in the suppression of NF- κ B activity [27].

104 Chaperones in eukaryotic cells are classified into the heat shock protein family
105 and the T-complex protein-1 ring complex (TRiC). Chaperone and co-chaperone
106 complexes play a role in the refolding of nascent and misfolded proteins, as well as in
107 promoting the degradation of ubiquitinated proteins through the proteasome [28].
108 Various forms of stress, such as heat shock, oxidative stress, viral and bacterial
109 infections, and chemical exposure, induce the expression of highly conserved heat
110 shock proteins [29, 30]. The heat shock proteins play a crucial role in regulating
111 multiple signaling cascades, helping to preserve cellular homeostasis. Protein kinases
112 are frequent client proteins of the Hsp90 chaperone, which oversees their formation,
113 stability, and enzymatic activity [31]. Recent studies indicate that Hsp70 and Hsp90
114 proteins modulate the IKK complex, which is a key activator of the NF- κ B signaling
115 pathway [32, 33]. TRiC, also known as chaperonin containing TCP-1 (CCT), is an
116 essential eukaryotic chaperonin with a double-ring structure, each ring consisting of
117 eight subunits (CCT1-8) [34, 35]. The main function of XXX is folding newly
118 synthesized proteins with β -sheet topology, including tubulin, actin, and cellular
119 proteins [36, 37]. Recent findings suggested that TRiC plays a role in the folding of
120 several viral proteins for different stages of the viral life cycle [38-40]. Muscovy duck
121 reovirus p10.8-induced cell cycle arrest and apoptosis depend on the involvement of
122 Cdc20 and the TRiC chaperonins [38]. In mammalian reovirus (MRV) replication,
123 TRiC assists in folding the viral σ 3 outer-capsid protein, allowing its assembly into
124 viral particles [39]. Another study highlights the crucial role of the CCT chaperonin in
125 the processing and intracellular transport of HPV particles, as well as in subsequent

entry during infection [40].

ARV is a double-stranded RNA virus with a genome consisting of ten discrete double-stranded RNA segments, encoding five non-structural proteins and ten structural proteins [41, 42]. Previous studies have demonstrated that the ARV p17 protein modulates multiple cellular signaling pathways [43-49]. The ARV p17 protein shuttles between the nucleus and cytoplasm [43, 44], modulating multiple cellular signaling pathways [45-47], and leading to translation shutdown [47], cell cycle retardation [48, 49], and autophagosome formation [45, 46], all of which enhance viral replication. Recently, our team has demonstrated that the p17-modulated molecular chaperone Hsp90/Cdc37 enhances virus replication by protecting viral proteins (i.e. σA , σC , and σNS) from ubiquitin-proteasome degradation [50, 51]. The current study aimed to further implore the mechanisms by which the ARV p17 proteins modulates the IKK/NF- κB signaling through the molecular chaperones TriC and Hsp90 to induce chaperone-mediated autophagy.

Results

The ARV p17 protein enhances the formation of TRiC/PhLP1 complex to reduce the binding of co-chaperone Hsc70 to TRiC, leading to I κ B α degradation

Previously, we have demonstrated that ARV regulates chaperones Hsp90 and TRiC to stabilize viral proteins, which in turn facilitates viral replication and assembly [50, 51]. In this study, we advanced our findings that ARV modulates I κ B α /IKK signaling via the chaperones, resulting in promotion of viral replication. Initially, we identified that the TRiC/Hsc70 chaperone complex interacts with I κ B α , suggesting that TRiC/Hsc70 protects I κ B α from ubiquitin-proteasome-mediated degradation. As shown in Figure 1A-1B, Co-IP results demonstrate that ARV infection and p17 transfection increase the

151 formation of CCT2/PhLP1 complex to stabilize viral proteins and reduce the amount
152 of CCT2/Hsc70 complex. This resulted in reduced the level of I κ B α binding to
153 CCT2/Hsc70, leading to decreased levels of I κ B α . The tubulin binding to CCT2 was
154 also examined as a positive control [36]. In contrast, inhibition of TRiC activity by
155 HSF-1 (served as a negative control), resulted in a decreased level of I κ B α and viral
156 proteins σ C and σ A expression [50, 51]. Subsequently, we used CCT2 antibody
157 immunoprecipitation to observe its interactions with different co-chaperones.
158 According to the results, after 24 hours of ARV infection or p17 transfection,
159 immunoprecipitation with a CCT2 antibody revealed a significant decrease in binding
160 with I κ B α and Hsc70, whereas an increase in binding with PhLP1 was observed (Figure
161 1B). These results demonstrate that ARV p17 modulates the interaction between co-
162 chaperone PhLP1 and TRiC to stabilize viral proteins σ C and σ A [51]. This finding
163 also demonstrates that CCT2's interactions with viral proteins and I κ B α is mediated
164 through a competitive mechanism. Furthermore, when performing
165 immunoprecipitation using an I κ B α antibody, a decrease in the interaction between
166 TRiC and I κ B α was observed in ARV-infected cells (Figure 1C). These findings
167 demonstrate that ARV enhances the expression levels of its viral proteins by
168 modulating TRiC activity, accompanied by a decrease in the I κ B α level. Previous
169 reports suggested that phosphorylation of PhLP is mediated by the protein kinase CK2,
170 and CCT works in concert with PhLP [52-54]. To further study the roles of CK2, PhLP1,
171 and Hsc70 in regulating I κ B α and to investigate the interaction between CCT2 and the
172 target proteins, both CK2 and Hsc70 were depleted using target-specific shRNAs,
173 followed by ARV infection. The results interpretation revealed that ARV enhances the
174 association of the σ C protein of ARV with CCT2, leading to a reduction in the
175 interaction between CCT2 and I κ B α (Figure 1D). In the CK2 shRNA-transfected cells,

the interaction of ARV σ C protein with CCT2 was reduced, consequently increasing the association between CCT2 and I κ B α . Conversely, transfection with Hsc70 shRNA resulted in increased association of σ C with CCT2 and reduced interaction with I κ B α (Figure 1D). Furthermore, by utilizing the Hsc70 and CK2 inhibitors, we identify that Hsc70 only interacted with I κ B α and failed to bind to σ C protein. This is the first report suggesting that ARV p17 inhibits I κ B α binding to the TRiC/Hsc70 complex and modulates the TRiC/PhLP1 chaperone complex to stabilize viral proteins. Interestingly, PhLP1 was only observed in immunoprecipitation with σ C antibody and interaction with I κ B α was not identified (Figure 1E). This suggests that the TRiC/PhLP1 complex protects σ C, but not I κ B α , from ubiquitin-proteasome degradation. The findings demonstrate that CCT2 associates with σ C and I κ B α through different co-chaperones. To further study whether TRiC, Hsp70, and CK2 affect virus replication, inhibition of TRiC by HSF-1 and CK2 by TBB was performed. Our results reveal that suppression of TRiC and CK2 significantly reduced virus yields (Figure 1F) and no changes were observed in VER-155008-treated cells (Hsc70 inhibitor).

ARV p17 enhances the phosphorylated form of CK2

Having shown that ARV infection and p17 transfection modulate the binding of PhLP1 to CCT2, thereby stabilizing viral proteins, we next aimed to investigate whether ARV infection and p17 transfection regulate the expression levels of co-chaperones of TRiC. Previously, it has been reported that CK2 regulates TRiC activity and promotes its interaction with PFDN5 to assist in protein folding [55]. Following 24-hour ARV post infection or p17 transfection, whole cell lysates were collected for Western blot analysis to observe protein expression levels. The results indicate that ARV infection and p17 transfection did not alter the expression levels of co-chaperones Hsc70, PhLP1, and

PFDN5, however, resulted in an increase in the phosphorylation levels of p-CK2 in a time-dependent manner (Fig. 2).

ARV induces chaperone-mediated autophagy in Vero cells

In most cells, three types of autophagy coexist including microautophagy, endosomal microautophagy, chaperone-mediated autophagy, and macroautophagy [15]. Interestingly, *in situ* proximity ligation assays indicate that ARV infection and p17 transfection promoted the interaction between LC3-II and CCT2, triggering chaperone-mediated autophagy (Figure 3A). Additionally, the interaction of LC3-II with CCT2 was significantly reduced in cells treated with CK2 and Hsc70 inhibitors (Figure 3A-3B). According to existing reports, the formation of a complex involving several proteins is necessary to induce chaperone-mediated autophagy [56]. Following 24 hours of ARV infection, immunoprecipitation assay was performed using CCT2 antibodies. The results showed that ARV promotes the interaction of Lamp2 and LC3-II with CCT2 (Figure 3C), but reduces the amount of I κ B α binding to CCT2. Additionally, immunofluorescence staining confirmed the findings, demonstrating that ARV enhances the interaction between LC3-II and CCT2, which triggers chaperone-mediated autophagy (Figure 3D).

ARV p17 acts as a NF- κ B activator

To investigate whether ARV infection and p17 transfection activate NF- κ B at different time points in Vero cells, whole cell lysates were collected for cytoplasmic and nuclear protein isolation followed by Western blot analysis to evaluate the levels of p-I κ B α and localization of p65 and p50 within the nucleus. The results demonstrate that the phosphorylation of I κ B α (Ser32) is increased by both ARV infection and p17

transfection in a time-dependent manner. This in turn reduced the cytoplasmic levels of p65 and p50 and increased the levels of p65 and p50 in the nucleus, suggesting that ARV p17 suppresses I κ B α to promote p65 and p50 translocation into the nucleus (Figure 4), thereby activating NF- κ B. Interestingly, the increased levels of p-I κ B α peaked at two different time points (at 6 and 18 hours post infection). The finding corresponds to our previous report confirming the increased level of LC3-II in ARV-infected cells at 9- and 24-hours post-infection [45].

The ARV p17 protein modulates protection of IKK from ubiquitin-proteasome-mediated degradation through the CK2/Hsp90-Cdc37 signaling and enhances I κ B degradation

Having shown that the phosphorylation of I κ B α (Ser32) increased in the ARV-infected or p17-transfected cells, we next wanted to confirm whether p17 modulate the CK2/Hsp90-Cdc37 signaling to protect IKK from ubiquitin-proteasome-mediated degradation. Vero cells were infected with ARV at a MOI of 10 or transfected with p17 followed by co-transfection with CK2 shRNA. After 24 hours, whole cell lysates were collected for immunoprecipitation using an Hsp90 antibody to analyze protein interactions. As shown in Figure 5A, both ARV infection and p17 transfection significantly enhanced the interaction among Hsp90, Cdc37, and IKK. The amount of IKK binding to the Hsp90/Cdc37 complex was significantly reduced in CK2 knockdown cells. In order to confirm that the interaction between IKK, Hsp90, and Cdc37 in preventing protein degradation, the ubiquitination of IKK and I κ B α was analyzed. Vero cells were transfected with p17 expression plasmid and treated with 17-AAG, an Hsp90 inhibitor, for 24 hours. Cell lysates were collected and immunoprecipitation was performed using IKK and I κ B α antibodies, respectively, followed by Western blot analysis for IKK and I κ B α ubiquitination. The results

revealed that p17 transfection led to a reduction in IKK ubiquitination, accompanied by an increase in I κ B α ubiquitination (Figure 5B). It was confirmed that ARV p17 facilitates the translocation of NF- κ B into the nucleus (Figure 4). Immunoprecipitation results indicate that ARV p17 was unable to significantly reduce IKK ubiquitination in Hsp90 inhibitor (17-AAG)-treated cells and a reduction in I κ B α ubiquitination was observed (Figure 5B). These findings suggest that the protein of ARV modulates protection of IKK from ubiquitin-proteasome-mediated degradation through the CK2/Hsp90-Cdc37 signaling.

The ARV p17 protein induces autophagy through the Hsp90-Cdc37/IKK/NF- κ B pathway

Having demonstrated that ARVp17 protein protects IKK from ubiquitin-proteasome-mediated degradation through the CK2/Hsp90-Cdc37 signaling, we next wanted to investigate the role of CK2 in nuclear translocation of NF- κ B. ARV-infected cells were treated with the CK2 inhibitor (i.e. TBB). After 24 hours of incubation, whole cell lysates were harvested for analyzing nuclear translocation of p65 and p50 proteins. The data indicate that ARV enhances the nuclear translocation of p65 and p50 subunits of NF- κ B (Figure 6A). However, in the presence of TBB, which inhibits CK2, the nuclear translocation of p65 and p50 was significantly reduced (Figure 6A), demonstrating that ARV mediates NF- κ B translocation via the CK2/Hsp90-Cdc37 pathway. Furthermore, to investigate whether Hsp90 modulates NF- κ B translocation, cells were infected with ARV or transfected with pCI-Flag-p17 followed by treatment with the Hsp90 inhibitor 17-AAG and the NF- κ B inhibitor Bay11-7085. After 24 hours, cytoplasmic and nuclear proteins were collected to analyze the translocation of p65 and p50 proteins. The results showed that in the ARV-infected or p17-transfected cells, there was an increase in

cytoplasmic levels of IKK and a reduction in the levels of I κ B α (Figure 6B). When Vero cells were treated with the Hsp90 inhibitor 17-AAG, the ARV- and p17-mediated translocation was significantly diminished in 17-AAG and Bay11-7085-treated cells (Figure 6B). The findings demonstrate that ARV infection and p17 protein modulate the IKK and I κ B α levels through the CK2/Hsp90-Cdc37 pathway, thereby regulating the translocation of p65 and p50 subunits of NF- κ B. It has previously been shown that the translocation of NF- κ B into the nucleus regulates the expression of various genes, promoting survival, proliferation, inflammation, immune regulation, and autophagy [4]. Therefore, we further investigated whether ARV regulates the expression of the key autophagy protein (i.e. Beclin1) through the NF- κ B. Following ARV infection, cells were treated with different concentrations of the Bay11-7085 inhibitor. After 24 hours, cell lysates were collected for analysis through RT-PCR and Western blot. As shown in Figure 6C, the results demonstrated that ARV dramatically enhances the mRNA and protein levels of Beclin1, suggesting that ARV transcriptionally upregulates Beclin1. However, upon the addition of Bay11-7085, the mRNA and protein levels of Beclin1 were significantly reduced, confirming that ARV elevates expression level of Beclin1 *via* the NF- κ B pathway.

ARV p17 enhances the PtdIns3K/Beclin1 complex formation leading to induction of autophagosome formation

After demonstrating that the ARV p17 protein modulates NF- κ B translocation through the CK2/Hsp90-Cdc37 pathway, we next explored whether the CK2/Hsp90-Cdc37 pathway plays a role in the formation of PtdIns3K/Beclin1 complex. Vero cells were transfected with the pCI-Flag-p17 plasmid for six hours followed by transfection of CK2 shRNA or the pCI-neo-CK2 plasmid. After 24 hours of co-transfection, cell

lysates were collected for Western blot analysis. In the p17-transfected cells, the levels of p-Cdc37 (Ser13), Beclin1, and LC3-II showed significant increases (Figure 7A), while these enhancements were notably suppressed in the CK2 shRNA co-transfected cells (Figure 7A). Interestingly, when pCI-Flag-p17 and pCI-neo-CK2 plasmids were co-transfected, the expression levels of p-Cdc37 (Ser13), Beclin1, and LC3-II were significantly increased (Figure 7A), suggesting that ARV p17 induces autophagy via the CK2/Hsp90-cdc37 pathway. However, when the Hsp90 inhibitor 17-AAG or the NF- κ B inhibitor Bay11-7085 was used, ARV p17 failed to increase the Beclin1 and LC3-II expression levels (Figure 7B), further confirming that the ARV p17 protein enhances autophagy through the CK2/Hsp90-Cdc37 pathway. Cellular autophagy appears through the assembly of multiple proteins into a complex that drives the autophagic formation [15]. Thus, we utilized immunoprecipitation to investigate the status of the autophagy protein complex in cells after ARV infection. As shown in Figure 7C, while using class III PI3K or Beclin1 as immunoprecipitation antibodies, the formation of the PtdIns3K and Beclin1 complex was significantly increased in the p17-transfected cells. However, upon co-transfection of CK2 or Hsp90 shRNA, the interaction between PtdIns3K and Beclin1 was decreased, further supports the that p17 induces autophagy formation through the CK2/Hsp90 pathway.

The ARV p17 protein induces autophagosome formation through the CK2/ Hsp90 pathway

To analyze autophagosome formation, cells were transfected with a LC3-GFP fusion protein, acting as a fluorescent indicator for autophagosomes. LC3-I shows a diffuse staining pattern in the cytoplasm, while LC3-II appears as distinct punctate staining [57]. In both ARV-infected and p17-transfected Vero cells, a substantial increase in

LC3-GFP puncta was observed (Figure 8A). However, co-transfection with Hsp90 or CK2 shRNA led to a marked reduction in LC3-GFP puncta (Figure 8A). A comparable trend was noted in thapsigargin (TG)-treated Vero cells compared to the mock control. Correspondingly, the quantitative data of the average LC3-GFP puncta per cell showed the same trends (Figure 8B).

ARV p17-induced autophagy through the Hsp90/NF- κ B pathway in A549 cancer cells

We have confirmed that ARV p17 induces autophagy by modulating Beclin 1/PtdIns3K complexes through the CK2/Hsp90/NF- κ B pathway in Vero cells. Previous studies have identified ARV as an oncolytic virus [58], leading us to further investigate whether ARV p17 exhibits similar functions in A549 cancer cell lines. A549 cells were infected with ARV for six hours, followed by transfecting with CK2 and Hsc70 shRNA. After 24 hours, cell lysates were collected, and CCT2 immunoprecipitation was performed to analyze protein interactions. The data revealed that ARV facilitates the binding of viral protein σ C to CCT2, resulting in a decreased interaction between CCT2 and I κ B α in A549 cancer cells (Figure 9A). Upon transfection with CK2 shRNA, the ARV σ C-CCT2 interaction was weakened, resulting in a higher association between CCT2 and I κ B α . In contrast, silencing of Hsc70 using Hsc70 shRNA enhanced the binding of σ C with CCT2 while reducing its interaction with I κ B α (Figure 9A). After ARV infection of A549 cells for 24 hours, cell lysates were collected and subjected to immunoprecipitation with an Hsc70 antibody, revealing that Hsc70 interacted exclusively with I κ B α and showed no binding to σ C (Figure 9B). Moreover, A549 cells were infected with ARV or transfected with pCI-Flag-p17, then co-transfected with CK2 shRNA. Twenty-four hours later, cell lysates were harvested, and

immunoprecipitation was carried out with an Hsp90 antibody to analyze the interactions between proteins. The findings demonstrate that both ARV infection and p17 transfection substantially promoted the interaction between Hsp90, Cdc37, and IKK, but this interaction was notably reduced upon CK2 shRNA co-transfection (Figure 9C). Next, we applied whether ARV induces autophagy in A549 cancer cells. Immunoprecipitation was used to analyze the state of the autophagy protein complex in A549 cancer cells following ARV infection. Using PtdIns3K as the immunoprecipitation antibody, the pull down revealed that p17-transfected cells substantially increased the formation of the PtdIns3K and Beclin1 complex (Figure 9D). However, co-transfection with CK2 or Hsp90 shRNA reduced this interaction (Figure 9D), suggesting that ARV p17 promotes autophagy of A549 cancer cells through the CK2/Hsp90 pathway. The immunofluorescence results in Figure 9E demonstrate that LC3-GFP puncta increased substantially in both ARV-infected and p17-transfected A549 cells. However, co-transfection with Hsp90 or CK2 shRNA notably reduced the LC3-GFP puncta (Figure 9E).

Discussion

Viruses depend on host cells for survival, utilizing cellular mechanisms for gene replication and viral particle assembly. Despite notable advancements in research on viral regulation of host cell mechanisms, numerous issues are still unanswered. Previously, we have demonstrated that ARV facilitates viral replication by modulating cellular translation, cell cycle, and autophagy [45, 46, 48, 49]. Recent studies indicated that ARV utilizes TRiC and Hsp90 chaperone systems to support viral proteins synthesis and particle assembly [50, 51]. This study, for the first time, demonstrates that ARV-modulated suppression of $\text{I}\kappa\text{B}\alpha$ by regulating co-chaperone PhLP1 and

Hsc70 and activation of the IKK/NF- κ B signaling through TRiC and Hsp90 chaperones to induce chaperone-mediated autophagy benefiting viral replication. The function of CCT is modulated by prefoldin, PhLPs, and Hsc70 to ensure precise control over the protein folding process [36]. However, the folding of multidomain proteins often requires the coordinated action of multiple chaperone classes, which collaborate to provide a safeguarded folding pathway. This indicates that CCT is tightly regulated by co-chaperones for its role in folding actin and other proteins, and the interaction of various cochaperones with CCT determines the outcome of the final folding process. A previous study has confirmed that ARV p17 regulates PTEN activity via CK2 in the cytoplasm [47]. The CK2 is involved in various cellular functions, including cell division, growth, and gene expression [59, 60]. Additionally, CK2 promotes Hsp90 activity through the phosphorylation of Cdc37 [61, 62]. The finding reveals that ARV p17 stimulates phosphorylation of Cdc37 at Ser13, which in turn facilitates its binding with Hsp90 and reinforces Hsp90 activity. However, when we used the inhibitor TBB to suppress CK2, ARV p17 was unable to effectively phosphorylate Cdc37 at Ser13, demonstrating that ARV p17 activates the Hsp90/Cdc37 complex via CK2 [50]. Conversely, the P protein of rabies virus requires assistance from Hsp90 but is not dependent on the formation of the Cdc37/Hsp90 complex. Even without Cdc37 phosphorylation at Ser13, Hsp90 is still able to support the expression and stability of the P protein of the rabies virus [63].

TRiC plays a crucial role in MRV replication by assisting the folding of the viral $\sigma 3$ outer-capsid protein, which is essential for its assembly into viral particles [39]. Although we demonstrated that p17 protein of ARV modulates molecular chaperone TRiC to protect outer-capsid protein σC and inner core protein σA and non-structural protein σNS from ubiquitin- proteasome degradation [51], it is still unclear which co-

chaperone interacts with TRiC to stabilize viral proteins. This study further demonstrated that p17 protein of ARV enhances the interaction between PhLP1 and CCT2 via CK2-mediated phosphorylation of PhLP1[52], suggesting that p17 plays an important role in modulating the formation of TRiC/PhLP1 complex [53, 54], which chaperones the σ C and σ A proteins of ARV [51]. This is the first report to reveal a regulatory role for PhLP1 in CCT2-dependent folding or stabilization of viral proteins. The current and past studies reveal that Hsp90/Cdc37 and TRiC/PhLP1 chaperone complexes are essential for chaperoning p17, σ C, σ A, and σ NS proteins of ARV, respectively. The binding of PhLP1 to CCT2 diminishes Hsc70's association with TRiC, leading to I κ B α degradation, thereby subsequent activation of NF- κ B. This study suggests that PhLP1 and Hsc70 exhibit a competitive relationship in binding to TRiC, with ARV stimulation causing a shift in their balance. The current study provides the first evidence to reveal that the TRiC/Hsc70 chaperone machinery plays a critical role in protecting I κ B α from ubiquitin-proteasome-mediated degradation.

Previous studies have confirmed that Hsp90 enhances the activation of the transcription factor NF- κ B [64, 65]. In the early stages of ARV infection, NF- κ B activation is enhanced to delay the onset of apoptosis [66]. The present study demonstrates that p17 protein of ARV indeed activates the IKK/NF- κ B signaling through the CK2/Hsp90/Cdc37 pathway, which in turn induces chaperone-mediated autophagy. Hsp90 activates NF- κ B by enhancing the stability of the IKK protein, which leads to phosphorylation and ubiquitination of I κ B α , ultimately resulting in its degradation [67]. Previous studies have suggested that several viruses, such as human immunodeficiency virus (HIV), human T-lymphotropic virus 1 (HTLV-1), hepatitis B virus, and influenza virus, can trigger NF- κ B activation. The activated NF- κ B supports viral replication, postpones virus-induced cell death, or aids in immune response

mediation [8, 68]. In some dsRNA viruses, NF- κ B is activated via the accumulation of viral RNA, which subsequently activates the dsRNA-dependent kinase PKR [69, 70]. An earlier study has demonstrated that the X protein of HBV regulates cellular signaling pathways by activating NF- κ B through Ras and MEKK-1 [71]. HTLV-1's Tax protein has been shown to bind directly with IKK [72, 73], which promotes NF- κ B activation, leading to enhanced cellular gene expression that promotes cell growth and transforms cells into malignant tumor cells [8, 74]. This study demonstrates that ARV p17 transcriptionally upregulates Beclin1 via the NF- κ B signaling, enhancing cellular autophagy. Autophagy, which serves as a cellular defense mechanism, is manipulated by viruses to enhance their replication. When Sindbis virus infects the mouse brain, artificially increasing Beclin1 expression significantly reduces viral titers [75]. The VP1 protein of foot-and-mouth disease virus binds to SQSTM1/p62 and promotes autophagosome formation, facilitating viral entry and replication within host cells [76]. Hepatitis C virus stimulates the formation of autophagosomes but blocks their maturation, leading to autophagosomes accumulation and creating a favourable environment for viral replication in the cell [77]. Many viruses have been reported to regulate autophagy to facilitate their replication. The current and past studies from our laboratory have demonstrated that ARV p17 induces autophagy to enhance viral replication [45, 47]. The mechanisms underlying 17-induced chaperone-mediated autophagy benefiting viral replication remain unclear and warrant future investigations to elucidate its mechanism.

A model is proposed to illustrate that ARV p17-modulated suppression of I κ B by regulating co-chaperone PhLP1 and Hsc70 binding to TRiC and activation of the CK2/Hsp90-Cdc37/IKK/NF- κ B pathway to induce chaperone-mediated autophagy (Figure 10). This study sheds additional light on how ARV modulates the cellular

autophagy pathway, which may also provide a novel perspective for developing antiviral approaches.

Materials and Methods

Cells and virus

The S1133 strain of ARV was used in this study. Vero and A549 cells were grown in minimum essential medium (MEM) or HAM's F-12K (Kaighn's) medium supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS), 10 mM HEPES (pH 7.2) and 1% Penicillin/Streptomycin at 37°C in a 5% CO₂ humidified incubator. Once the cells reached a monolayer, they were prepared for passaging under sterile conditions in a laminar flow hood. The cells were washed twice with 1X PBS and then digested using trypsin. After cells were resuspended, fresh culture medium containing FBS was added to neutralize the trypsin activity. The cells were evenly transferred into a 4-well plate for subsequent experiments.

Reagents and antibodies.

HSF1A (TRiC inhibitor), TBB (CK2 inhibitor), VER-155008 (Hsc70 inhibitor), and Bay11-7085 (NF- κ B inhibitor) were purchased from MedChemExpress (Monmouth Junction, USA). The p17 polyclonal antibodies were produced by our laboratory. Monoclonal antibodies against σ A, σ C, and σ NS proteins of ARV were prepared in our laboratory, as described previously [78, 79]. The primary and secondary antibodies used in this study, along with their catalogue numbers and working dilution are detailed in Table 1.

shRNAs used in this study

The pLKO-AS1-puro plasmid encoding shRNAs were obtained from the National RNAi Core Facility, Academia Sinica, Taiwan. The target sequences for casein kinase II and Hsp90 were 5-CGTAAACAACACAGACTTCAA-3 and 5-CGTAAACAACACAGACTTCAA-3, respectively. The target sequence for Hsc70 was 5-GCTCGATTTGAGGAGTTGAAT-3. The shRNA with the most significant down-regulated effect for a respective gene was selected and used in this study. The cells transfected with the respective shRNA for 6 h, followed by infection with ARV at an MOI of 10 for 24 hours, respectively. Whole cell lysates were collected for Western blot analysis.

Reverse transcription (RT) and polymerase chain reaction (PCR), plasmid construction and transient transfection

The pCI-Flag-p17 constructs were generated as demonstrated previously (13). For the construction of pCI-Flag-CK2 plasmid, gene fragments were amplified by PCR using specific primers shown in Table 2. The total RNA was extracted from ARV-infected Vero cells using TRIzol solution (Thermo Fisher Scientific Inc.) according to the manufacturer's protocol. A total of 3 μ l of total RNA was used as templates for RT with M-MLV reverse transcriptase using the respective primers (Table 2) (Promega Co., Madison, USA). Reverse transcription was carried out at 42°C for 15 min and 72°C for 15 min. PCR was performed with 1 μ l of cDNA, 1 μ l of each primer, 2 μ l of PCR mix, and 15 μ l of ddH₂O, in a total volume of 20 μ l. The PCR conditions for amplification were 95°C for 5 min, 35 cycles of 95°C for 30 s, 55°C for 30 s and extension at 72°C for 30 s (p17) or 2 min (CK2), followed by 72°C for 10 min for a final extension. The PCR products were electrophoresed in a 1% agarose gel and were then purified using an agarose gel DNA extraction kit (Bio kit, Taiwan). Purified PCR products were digested with the respective enzymes, followed by ligation into the same restriction sites of the

pCI-neo-Flag plasmid to generate pCI-Flag- p17 and CK2 plasmids, respectively. All constructs were confirmed by DNA sequencing.

For transfection, cells were grown to 70-80%, washed twice with serum-free medium, and supplemented with fresh FBS-free medium. Plasmid DNA was mixed with the transfection reagent (GenJet™, SignaGen Laboratories, USA) following the manufacturer's recommended protocol. The prepared mixture was then added to the culture dish. After 6 hours of transfection, the supernatant with the transfection reagent was removed. The cells were washed twice with serum-free medium, followed by the addition of fresh FBS-containing medium. Cells were maintained in a 37°C incubator with 5% CO₂, and samples were collected at indicated time points for further analysis.

Proximity ligation assays

The Duolink commercial assay (Sigma-Aldrich, cat no. DUO 92008) was used to detect the LC3/CCT2 interaction in ARV-infected Vero cells. PLA enables the detection of direct protein-protein interactions within a range of approximately 40 nm in fixed, intact cells [80]. Vero cells were cultured on 18x18 mm coverslips and, after 24 hours of ARV infection, fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde for 10 minutes at room temperature. Cells were treated with a blocking buffer for 30 minutes at 37°C, followed by incubation with specific primary antibodies. Following several washing steps, PLA probes linked to anti-mouse and anti-rabbit secondary antibodies were applied to the cells. Next, the cells underwent ligation and amplification reactions. Following two washes with 1 x PBS, the cells were stained with 4',6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI) for 10 minutes. The cells were mounted on glass slides using ibidi mounting medium (Ibidi GmbH, Lochhamer Schlag, Germany) and examined using a BX51 fluorescence microscope.

Cytoplasmic and nuclear protein isolation

The transfected cells were harvested using trypsin-EDTA and transferred to microcentrifuge tubes. The samples were centrifuged at 800 ×g for 10 minutes at 4°C. After discarding the supernatant, the cells were resuspended in 1X PBS and washed twice using the same step. Cytoplasmic and nuclear protein extraction was carried out using the Compartmental Protein Extraction Kit (CNMCS, BioChain). The washed cells were resuspended in 200 µl of buffer C and agitated at 4°C for 20 minutes. Membrane disruption was achieved by repeatedly drawing the samples (~100 times) through a 26.5-gauge syringe. The lysates were then centrifuged at 15,000 ×g for 20 minutes at 4°C, and the supernatant was collected as the cytoplasmic protein fraction. The pellet was resuspended in 400 µl of buffer W, mixed thoroughly, and shaken at 4°C for 5 minutes. The mixture was then centrifuged at 15,000 ×g for 20 minutes at 4°C, and the supernatant was discarded. The pellet was resuspended in 100 µl of buffer N and shaken at 4°C for 20 minutes. The mixture was then centrifuged at 15,000 ×g for 20 minutes at 4°C, and the resulting supernatant was collected as the nuclear protein fraction.

Co-immunoprecipitation assays

The Catch and Release® v2.0 kit was used in this study (Millipore Corporation, Billerica, Massachusetts, USA). The cells were washed twice with 1x PBS and lysed in 200 µl of CHAPS lysis buffer (40 mM HEPES [pH 7.5], 1 mM EDTA, 10 mM glycerophosphate, 120 mM NaCl, 50 mM NaF, 10 mM pyrophosphate, and 0.3% CHAPS). 1000 µg of total proteins collected from each sample were incubated with 2 µg of the indicated antibodies or rabbit IgG (negative control). Sample proteins, antibodies, and resin were sequentially incubated together and incubated at 4°C for 12h

following the manufacturer's instructions. After removing the supernatant, add 400 μ l of 1X Wash buffer to the column. Centrifuge at 4°C, 2000 xg for 30 seconds, discard the filtrate, and repeat the washing step three times. Finally, add 70 μ l of Elution Buffer, mix gently, and incubate on ice for 5 minutes. Centrifuge at 4°C, 2000 xg for 30 seconds, and collect the supernatant as the sample for analysis. The immunoprecipitated proteins were separated by SDS-PAGE followed by Western blot analysis with the indicated antibodies.

Electrophoresis and Western blot assays

Cells were cultured in 4-well plates 24 hours before performing the virus infection or plasmid transfection. Collected cells were washed twice with 1X PBS and lysed with lysis buffer (Cell Signaling). The protein concentrations in the cell lysates were measured using the Bio-Rad Protein Assay (Bio-Rad Laboratories, USA) according to the manufacturer's protocol. An equal quantity of each sample was mixed with 2.5X Laemmli loading buffer and incubated in boiling water for 10 minutes. Following electrophoresis on an SDS-polyacrylamide gel, the samples were transferred to a PVDF membrane (GE Healthcare Life Sciences, Chicago, USA). The detection of protein expression was carried out using specific primary antibodies along with HRP-labeled secondary antibodies. X-ray films (Kodak, Rochester, USA) were used to capture the results after the membrane was exposed to ECL Plus reagent (Amersham Biosciences, Little Chalfont, England). Quantification of target proteins was performed using ImageJ.

Detection of LC3 puncta

To clarify the effects of ARV infection on autophagy, cells were transfected with the LC3-GFP plasmid to observe LC3 puncta fluorescence following ARV infection. For

the experiment, vero cells were seeded on 18x18 mm coverslips. Following treatment, the cells were washed twice with 1 x PBS and then fixed at the indicated times with 4% paraformaldehyde (Alfa Aesar, Haverhill, MA, USA) for 20 min at room temperature. Subsequently, fixed cells were incubated in PBS containing 0.1% Triton X-100 for 10 min. After washing twice with 1X PBS, the cells were blocked with SUPERBLOCK®T20 solution (Thermo Scientific, Bellefonte, USA) for 1 hour at room temperature. The cells were washed twice with 1 x PBS and stained with 4', 6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI) for 10 min. After washing the cells three times with 1 x PBS, they were mounted onto glass slides using ibidi mounting medium (ibidi GmbH, Lochhamer Schlag, Germany), followed by observation with a BX51 fluorescence microscope.

Statistical analysis

All data obtained in this study were evaluated for statistical significance using the Student's t-test. The data were expressed as averages of three independent experiments. P values of less than 0.05 were considered statistically significant.

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Author contribution

All authors made substantive intellectual contributions to the present study and approved the final manuscript. H.J.L. conceived of the study and generated the original hypothesis, wrote the paper, and supervised the project; W.R.H. performed most of the experiments. J.Y.L, T.L.L, L.F.L, M.M, and H.J.L. analyzed data; H.J.L. and M.M. revised and edited the manuscript.

CONFLICT OF INTEREST

We declare that we have no competing interests.

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Table 1. The catalog numbers and dilution factor of the respective antibodies used in this study

Antibodies	Catalog numbers	Clone name	Dilution factor	Manufacture
*Mouse anti-p17	-	-	2000	Our laboratory
Mouse anti-σA	-	-	4000	Our laboratory
Mouse anti-σC	-	-	4000	Our laboratory
Mouse anti-casein kinase IIα	sc-12738	1AD9	1000	Santa Cruz
Rabbit anti-CK2 Substrate [(pS/pT)DXE]	8738	-	1000	Cell Signaling
Mouse anti-IKKα	11930	3G12	2000	Cell Signaling
Rabbit anti-p-IkBα (S32)	2859	14D4	1000	Cell Signaling
Mouse anti-IkBα	4814	L35A5	2000	Cell Signaling
Rabbit anti-NF-κB p65	4764	C22B4	2000	Cell Signaling
Rabbit anti-NF-κB p50	3035	-	1000	Cell Signaling
Mouse anti-PhLP	sc-376918	A-8	1000	Santa Cruz
Rabbit anti-PFDN5	ab129116	FPR7755	2000	Abcam
Rabbit anti-CCT2	ab92746	EPR4084	3000	Abcam
Rabbit anti-CCT5	ab129016	EPR7562	3000	Abcam
Rabbit anti-HSPA8	8444	D12F2	2000	Cell Signaling
Rabbit anti-Hsp90	4877	C45G5	2000	Cell Signaling
Rabbit anti-p-Cdc37 (S13)	13248	D8P8F	2000	Cell Signaling
Mouse anti-Cdc37	sc-17758	C-11	2000	Santa Cruz
Mouse anti-ubiquitin	sc-8017	P4D1	1000	Santa Cruz
Rabbit anti-LAMP2	49067	D5C2P	2000	Cell Signaling
Rabbit anti-Becclin1	3495	D40C5	2000	Cell Signaling
Rabbit anti-LC3B	3868	D11	2000	Cell Signaling
Rabbit anti-PI3 Kinase Class III	4263	D9A5	2000	Cell Signaling
Rabbit anti-β-tubulin	2128	9F3	2000	Cell Signaling
Mouse anti-GAPDH	ab8245	6C5	3000	Abcam
Rabbit anti-Histon H2A	2578	-	2000	Cell Signaling
Mouse anti-β-actin	MAB1501	C4	10000	Millipore
Goat anti-mouse IgG (H+L) HRP	5220-0341	-	5000	SeraCare

Table 2. The primers used in this study

Gene	Accession number	Sequence (5'-3')	Location	Expected size (bp)
Generation of pCI-Flag-p17 and Ck2 plasmids for transfection				
p17 (full)	AF330703	F : CGGAATTCATGCAATGGCTCCGCCATACGA (EcoR I) R : GCTCTAGATCATAGATCGGCGTCAAATCGC (Xba I)	293-314 733-712	441
Casein kinase 2	KF741763.1	F : TCTAGAACGATGGCGCGTGCCATATACGACTT (Xba I) R : GTCGACCCTAGGCGGTAAAAGTGGC (Sal I)	16-38 1266-1249	1251
Primers for semi-quantitative RT-PCR				
Beclin1	NM_001266685	F : CATTACTTACCACAGCCCAG R : CTGAGTGTCAGCTGGTCTA	134-154 454-433	321
GAPDH	NM_002046	F : CACCACCATGGAGAAGGCTGGGGCTCA R : GGCAGGTTTCTCCAGACGGCAGGTCAG	480-506 933-907	454

Figure legends

Figure 1. ARV regulates I κ B α through TRiC chaperone. (A) Vero cells were treated with TRiC inhibitor HSF-1 (40 μ M) and then infected with ARV at an MOI of 10 for 24 h. In co-immunoprecipitation experiments, cells lysates were immunoprecipitated with CCT2 antibody and analyzed by Western blot assays with the indicated antibodies. (B) Vero cells were infected with ARV at an MOI of 10 for 24 h. In co-immunoprecipitation experiments, cells lysates were immunoprecipitated with I κ B α antibody and analyzed by Western blot assays with the indicated antibodies. (C) Vero cells were transfected using the shRNAs for 6 h, followed by infection with ARV at an MOI of 10 for 24 h. In co-immunoprecipitation experiments, the binding of CCT2, ARV σ C and I κ B α were examined in either ARV-infected or ARV- and CK2 shRNA or Hsc70 shRNA-co-transfected Vero cells., Detection of protein expression was performed by

Western blot assays with indicated antibodies. (D) To study the role of co-chaperones in ARV-regulating the NF- κ B signaling, Vero cells were pretreated with either TBB (5 μ M) or VER-155008 (5 μ M) for 1 hour followed by infection with ARV (10 MOI) for 24 hours. Whole cell lysates were immunoprecipitated with anti- σ C and anti-I κ B α antibodies and analyzed by Western blot assays with the indicated antibodies. Co-immunoprecipitation experiments of I κ B α , σ C, Hsc70, CCT2, and PhLP1 were performed as described above. IgG was used as a negative control. (E) The binding of CCT2 to σ C and I κ B α in ARV infected- or p17-transfected cells were examined. Cells lysates were immunoprecipitated with CCT2 and detected by Western blot assays with the indicated antibodies. All experiments were conducted in three independent experiments. All original blots and images are shown in Fig. S

Figure 2. ARV p17 modulates the interaction between co-chaperones and TRiC without altering their protein expression levels. To investigate whether the p17 protein modulates phosphorylation of CK2, proteins levels of co-chaperones in ARV-infected and p17-transfected Vero cells were analyzed. The expression levels of p17, Hsp90, Cdc37, and p-Cdc37 in Vero cells infected with ARV at an MOI of 10 or transfected with the pCI-Flag-p17 plasmid were examined by Western blot assays. Vero cells were ARV-infected and pCI-Flag-p17-transfected at the indicated time points. The levels of the indicated proteins in the mock-control group (0 h) were considered onefold. The fold changes indicated below each lane were normalized against values for the mock-control group. Protein levels were normalized to those for β -actin. Signals in all Western blots were quantified with ImageJ software. All experiments were conducted in three independent experiments.

Figure 3. Proximity ligation assays for CCT2 and LC3-II detection in Vero cells. (A) To analyze interactions of CCT2 and LC3-II, Vero cells were detected using the commercial kit Duolink (Sigma-Aldrich, cat# DUO 92008) based on *in situ* proximity ligation assay according to manufacturer's instructions. Enlarged images correspond to the region indicated by the white box in the merged image. Representative images are from three independent experiments. (B) To confirm ARV-mediated induction of CMA through CCT2, co-immunoprecipitation was performed to analyze the interactions among CCT2, LC3-II, and LAMP2. After 24 hours of ARV infection, cellular proteins were collected for the co-immunoprecipitation assay. Whole cells lysates were immunoprecipitated with CCT2 antibody and analyzed by Western blot assays with the indicated antibodies. IgG was used as a negative control. (C) Vero cells were transfected with the mCherry-Lc3 plasmid for 6 h, followed by infection with ARV at an MOI of 10 for 24 h. Vero cells were fixed and processed for immunofluorescence staining with DAPI (blue). Stained Lc3 (red) and CCT2 (green) were observed under a fluorescence microscope.

Figure 4. The p17 protein of ARV acts as a NF- κ B activator. (A) The levels of p-I κ B, I κ B, p65, and p50 in mock control, pCI-Flag vector, ARV-infected, and pCI-Flag-p17-transfected cells were examined. Cytoplasmic and nuclear protein extractions were carried out using the Compartmental Protein Extraction. The cytoplasmic extracts and nuclear extracts were detected at the indicated time points for Western blot assays. The protein levels were normalized to that for β -actin or histone 2A. Numbers below each lane are percentages of the control level of a specific protein in the mock treatment.

Figure 5. The p17 protein of ARV protects IKK from polyubiquitination and enhances

I κ B degradation. (A) Vero cells were transfected with CK2 shRNA for 6 h, followed by infection with ARV at an MOI of 10 for 24 h. The binding of Hsp90 to Cdc37 and IKK in ARV infected- or p17-transfected cells were examined in the present or absence of CK2 shRNA. Cells lysates were immunoprecipitated with the Hsp90 antibodies and detected with the indicated antibodies. (B) To investigate whether ARV p17 induced Hsp90 protects IKK or I κ B proteins from ubiquitin-proteasome-mediated degradation, Vero cells were transfected with the pCI-Flag-p17 for 6 hours, followed by treatment of 17-AAG (5 μ M) for 24 hours. Cells lysates were immunoprecipitated with IKK or I κ B antibodies, and the interaction of ubiquitin with IKK and I κ B were examined. The amounts of IKK and I κ B polyubiquitylation were examined by Western blot assays. Rabbit IgG served as negative control. Similar results were obtained in three independent experiments.

Figure 6. ARV p17-induced autophagy through the Hsp90/NF- κ B pathway. (A) The expression level of p65 and p50 in ARV-infected and p17-transfected cells were examined in the present or absence of TBB (5 μ M). Nuclear extracts from ARV-infected and mock-infected Vero cells were collected for Western blots. The protein levels were normalized to that for histone 2A. The levels of indicated proteins at mock were considered 1-fold. (B) To study the role of Hsp90 in p17-regulating the NF- κ B pathway, Vero cells were pretreated with either 17-AAG (5 μ M) or Bay11-7085 (5 μ M) for 1 hour followed by infection with ARV (10 MOI) or transfection with pCI-Flag-p17 for 24 hours. The cytoplasmic lysates and nuclear extracts were collected for Western blots. The levels of indicated proteins in the mock control or at 0 h were considered 1-fold. (C) ARV stimulates the Beclin1 transcription through the NF- κ B pathway. Upper panel: The mRNA levels of Beclin1 in the Vero cells were examined by semi-quantitative RT-

PCR in ARV-infected and mock-infected cells in the presence or absence the different concentrations of Bay11-7085. After electrophoretic separation in an agarose gel, PCR products were stained with ethidium bromide. Graph shown represents the mean \pm SD calculated from three independent experiments. Lower panel: The expression level of Beclin1 in ARV-infected and mock-infected cells were examined in the present or absence of Bay11-7085. Whole cell lysates were harvested for Western blots.

Figure 7. The p17 protein of ARV enhances the PtdIns3K/ Beclin1 complex leading to induction of autophagosome formation. (A) To confirm whether CK2 is the upstream signaling that regulates Cdc37, Beclin1, and LC3, the proteins levels were examined in CK2 knockdown and CK2 overexpression in p17-transfected Vero cells. The protein levels were normalized to that for β -actin. The activation and inactivation folds indicated below each lane were normalized against mock control. (B) Vero cells were pretreated with either 17-AAG (5 μ M) or Bay11-7085 (5 μ M) for 1 hour followed by infection with ARV (10 MOI) or transfection with pCI-Flag-p17 for 24 hours. Whole cell lysates were collected for Western blots with the indicated antibodies. The levels of indicated proteins at mock were considered 1-fold. (C) ARV p17 facilitates autophagosome formation by promoting the PtdIns3K/Beclin1 complex via the CK2/Hsp90 pathway. In reciprocal co-immunoprecipitation experiments, the binding of PtdIns3K and Beclin1 was examined in either p17-transfected or p17 and Hsp90 or CK2 shRNA-cotransfected Vero cells, and detected with the indicated antibody. The activation and inactivation folds indicated below each lane were normalized against that at mock control.

Figure 8. ARV p17 promotes autophagosome formation. (A) Vero cells were

transfected with LC3-GFP plasmid and co-transfected with Hsp90 or CK2 shRNAs for 6 hours and followed with the infection of ARV an MOI of 10 for 18 h or pCI-Flag-p17 transfection for 24h. Cells were then fixed and processed for immunofluorescence staining of DAPI. The LC3-GFP were observed under a fluorescence microscope. Thapsigargin (TG) were pretreated 2 hours before LC3-GFP transfection (positive controls). (B) LC3-GFP plasmid was applied to observe LC3 punta under a fluorescence microscope. Quantitation results from Fig. 8A represents mean LC3-GFP puncta per cell (n=17).

Figure 9. ARV p17-induced autophagy through the Hsp90/NF- κ B pathway in A549 cancer cells. (A) A549 cells were transfected with the CK2 or Hsc70 shRNAs for 6 h, followed by infection with ARV at an MOI of 10 for 24 h. In co-immunoprecipitation experiments, the binding of CCT2, ARV σ C and I κ B α were examined detected by Western blot assays with the indicated antibodies. (B) A549 cells were infected with ARV at an MOI of 10 for 24 h. Cell lysates were collected for immunoprecipitation with the Hsc70 antibody and analyzed by Western blot assays with the indicated antibodies. (C) The binding of Hsp90 to Cdc37 and IKK in ARV infected- or p17-transfected cells were examined in the present or absence of CK2 shRNA. Cells lysates was immunoprecipitated with Hsp90 and detected with the indicated antibodies. (D) In co-immunoprecipitation experiment, the binding of class III PI3k was examined in either p17-transfected or p17- and Hsp90 shRNA or CK2 shRNA-cotransfected A549 cells, and detected with the indicated antibody. The activation and inactivation folds indicated below each lane were normalized against that at mock control. (E) A549 cells were transfected with LC3-GFP plasmid and co-transfected with Hsp90 or CK2 shRNAs for 6 hours, and followed with the infection of ARV with an MOI of 10 for 18

h or pCI-Flag-p17 transfection for 24h. Cells were then fixed and processed for immunofluorescence staining of DAPI. The LC3-GFP were observed under a fluorescence microscope. Each experiment was performed at least three times. (F) The numbers of LC3 punta were calculated from the results from Fig. 9E. Each value represents mean \pm SE of three independent experiments.

Figure 10. ARV modulates the IKK/NF- κ B pathway via the TRiC and Hsp90 chaperones, promoting chaperone-mediated autophagy benefiting viral replication. A model is proposed to illustrate that ARV p17 regulates the IKK/NF- κ B pathway by modulating TRiC-co-chaperones interactions and CK2/Hsp90/Cdc37 signaling, thereby activating chaperone-mediated autophagy to enhance viral replication. Our previous study suggested that p17 mediates phosphorylation of Cdc37 through CK2 [50]. Phosphorylation of PhLP1 is mediated by the protein kinase CK2 [52]. The figure was created with BioRender.com.