Enhanced Epithelial-to-Mesenchymal Transition Associated with Lysosome Dysfunction in Podocytes: Role of p62/Sequestosome 1 as a Signaling Hub

Guangbi Li

Follow this and additional works at: https://scholarscompass.vcu.edu/etd

© The Author

Downloaded from
https://scholarscompass.vcu.edu/etd/3698

This Thesis is brought to you for free and open access by the Graduate School at VCU Scholars Compass. It has been accepted for inclusion in Theses and Dissertations by an authorized administrator of VCU Scholars Compass. For more information, please contact libcompass@vcu.edu.
ENHANCED EPITHELIAL-TO-MESENCHYMAL TRANSITION ASSOCIATED WITH LYSOSOME DYSFUNCTION IN PODOCYTES: ROLE OF P62/SEQUESTOSOME 1 AS A SIGNALING HUB

by

Guangbi Li
Bachelor of Science in Bioengineering
Wuchang University of Technology, 2013

Director: Pin-Lan Li, MD, PhD
Professor, Pharmacology and Toxicology

Virginia Commonwealth University
Richmond, Virginia
January 2015
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

There are no words to fully express the deep gratitude I feel towards everyone who has supported me throughout this incredible journey. Attaining this degree is the product of the hard work of many, and I have been extremely fortunate to come across so many people willing to help me achieve this milestone. First and foremost, my sincerest thanks to Dr. Pin-Lan Li for going above and beyond what is expected of a mentor. She humbly leads by example and her amazing work ethic is fueled by her desire to offer her students the best possible training, resources, and environment to achieve their career and life goals. Her high energy and love for science is contagious, and with her compassionate nature, Dr. Li has gone beyond caring for me solely as a scientist, but wholly as a person. I cannot imagine what my life would have been like had she not recognized my potential and given me the guidance and encouragement to lead me to where I am today, and for that I am eternally grateful.

My training and this study could not have been made possible without the help from many past and present members of the lab, especially Dr. Justine Abais for her early guidance when I was an undergraduate student in internship and to Drs. Krishna Boini and Yang Zhang for sharing with me their expertise and being prime examples of honest, hardworking scientists. Thank you to Mark, Vicky, Mike, Sarah, Rex, Mia, Ashley, and Sabena, for their help scientifically, but just as importantly, for making the lab such a wonderful and happy place to work every day.

My sincere thanks to my committee members, Dr. Todd Gehr and Dr. Joseph K. Ritter, who I have gotten the pleasure of knowing over the past two years. Their insightful expertise, constructive criticism, and advice on my research proposal have been invaluable throughout the course of these studies and in the preparation of this dissertation. I would also like to thank Dr.
William Dewey and Dr. Hamid Akbarali, for giving me this wonderful opportunity in the first place and to all the staff of the Department of Pharmacology and Toxicology for being so kind and helpful over the years.

Finally, I am the person as I am today because of my parents, Qin Li and Ke-Ming Yan, and my grandfather, Jing-An Li. Their unconditional love has always been a constant source of drive and motivation for me. My greatest thanks go to them for their tireless support and understanding, which is beyond what anyone could ever ask for.
TABLE OF CONTENTS

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT...........................................................................................................II
LIST OF FIGURES....................................................................................................................VI
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS........................................................................................................VII
ABSTRACT................................................................................................................................VIII

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION............................................................................................. 1
1.1 Epithelial-to-mesenchymal transition............................................................................. 1
1.1.1 The concept of epithelial-to-mesenchymal transition............................................. 2
1.1.2 Pathogenic role of epithelial-to-mesenchymal transition........................................ 2
1.2 Autophagy..................................................................................................................... 3
1.2.1 Selective autophagy.................................................................................................. 3
1.2.2 The role of p62 as a signaling hub......................................................................... 4
1.2.3 Vacuolar-type H+-ATPase and autophagosome-lysosome fusion............................ 5
1.3 Aims of the study........................................................................................................... 6

CHAPTER TWO: GENERAL METHODS.................................................................................... 8
2.1 Cell culture................................................................................................................... 8
2.2 Immunofluorescence microscopy............................................................................... 8
2.3 Western blot analysis................................................................................................ 9
2.4 siRNA transfection.................................................................................................... 10
2.5 Statistical analysis...................................................................................................... 10

CHAPTER THREE.................................................................................................................. 12
Epithelial-to-mesenchymal transition enhanced in mouse podocytes during inhibition of lysosome function
3.1 Effects of inhibition of lysosome function on EMT in podocytes................................. 12
3.2 Confocal microscopic of EMT changes by inhibition of lysosome function............... 14

CHAPTER FOUR.................................................................................................................... 16
Contribution of accumulated autophagosome to the enhancement of epithelial-to-mesenchymal transition during inhibition of lysosome function

4.1 Effects of lysosome function inhibitor on autophagy...................................................... 16
4.2 SP-1 inhibition of autophagosome formation during inhibition of lysosome function.... 18

CHAPTER FIVE.................................................................................................................. 20
No changes in enhanced epithelial-to-mesenchymal transition by Nrf2 gene silencing or inhibition of NF-κB-mediated transcriptional regulation

5.1 Failure of Nrf2 inhibition by gene silencing to alter EMT enhanced by inhibition of lysosome function........................................................................................................ 20
5.2 No changes in enhanced EMT by inhibition of NF-κB-mediated transcriptional regulation...................................................................................................................... 22

CHAPTER SIX.................................................................................................................. 24
Contribution of p62 phosphorylation reduction to lysosome function inhibition-induced epithelial-to-mesenchymal transition

6.1 Effects of CDK1 inhibition on EMT enhancement induced by lysosome dysfunction................................................................................................................................. 24
6.2 Reduction of p62 phosphorylation during inhibition of lysosome function.............. 26

CHAPTER SEVEN: DISCUSSION.......................................................................................... 28
REFERENCES.................................................................................................................... 33
LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1. Effects of inhibition of lysosome function on EMT in podocytes.........................13
Figure 2. Confocal microscopic of EMT changes by inhibition of lysosome function.............15
Figure 3. Effects of lysosome function inhibitor on autophagy........................................17
Figure 4. SP-1 inhibition of autophagosome formation during inhibition of lysosome function...19
Figure 5. Failure of Nrf2 inhibition by gene silencing to alter EMT enhanced by inhibition of lysosome function..................................................................................................................21
Figure 6. No changes in enhanced EMT by inhibition of NF-κB-mediated transcriptional regulation........................................................................................................................................23
Figure 7. Effects of CDK1 inhibition on EMT enhancement induced by lysosome dysfunction…25
Figure 8. Reduction of p62 phosphorylation during inhibition of lysosome function..............27
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

Baf  bafilomycin A1
EMT  epithelial-to-mesenchymal transition
FSP-1 fibroblast-specific protein-1
P-cad  P-cadherin
Sp-1 spaudin-1
ZO-1 zonula occludens-1
CDK1 cyclin-dependent kinase 1
NF κB nuclear factor kappa-light-chain-enhancer of activated B cell
Nrf 2 nuclear factor erythroid 2–related factor 2
TGF-β1 transforming growth factor-β1
p62  Sequestosome 1
siRNA small interfering RNA
V-ATPase vacuolar- type H⁺-ATPase
LC3B light chain 3B
α-SMA α-smooth muscle actin
RO  RO-3306
Bor  bortezomib
RPM  rapamycin
7-keto  7-ketocholesterol
ABSTRACT

ENHANCED EPITHELIAL-TO-MESENCHYMAL TRANSITION ASSOCIATED WITH LYSOSOME DYSFUNCTION IN PODOCYTES: ROLE OF P62/SEQUESTOSOME 1 AS A SIGNALING HUB

By Guangbi Li

A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Science at Virginia Commonwealth University

Virginia Commonwealth University, 2015

Major Director: Pin-Lan Li, MD, PhD, Professor, Pharmacology and Toxicology

Autophagy is of importance in the regulation of cell differentiation and senescence in podocytes, the highly differentiated glomerular epithelial cells. It is possible that derangement of autophagy under different pathological conditions activates or enhances Epithelial-to-Mesenchymal Transition (EMT) in podocytes, resulting in glomerular sclerosis. To test this hypothesis, the present study produced lysosome dysfunction by inhibition of vacuolar- type H⁺-ATPase (V-ATPase) to test whether deficiency of autophagic flux enhances EMT in podocytes. By Western blot analysis, inhibition of lysosome function by V-ATPase inhibitor or its siRNA was found to induce a significantly enhanced EMT in cultured podocytes, as shown by marked decreases in P-cadherin (P-cad) and zonula occludens-1 (ZO-1) as epithelial markers and simultaneous increases in the mesenchymal markers, fibroblast specific protein-1 (FSP-1) and α-smooth muscle actin (α-SMA). These changes in EMT markers were confirmed by confocal microcopy. This enhancement was accompanied by deficient autophagic flux, as demonstrated by remarkable increases in LC3B-II levels and accumulation of p62/Sequestosome 1 (p62) regardless of whether the autophagosome formation was stimulated or not. However, inhibition of the autophagosome formation using spautin-1 (Sp-1) significantly attenuated both
enhancement of EMT and deficiency of autophagic flux. To explore the mechanisms by which deficient autophagic flux enhances EMT, we tested the role of accumulated p62 as a signal hub in this process. Neither the nuclear factor erythroid 2–related factor 2 (Nrf2) or nuclear factor kappa-light-chain-enhancer of activated B cells (NF-κB) pathway of p62 regulation contributed to enhanced EMT. However, inhibition of cyclin-dependent kinase 1 (CDK1) activity reduced phosphorylation of p62 and enhanced EMT in podocytes similar to lysosome dysfunction. Given that the lack of phosphorylated p62 leads to a faster exit from cell mitosis, enhanced EMT associated with lysosome dysfunction may be attributed to accumulation of p62 and associated reduction of p62 phosphorylation.
Podocytes represent a major cellular component of the renal filtration barrier, and damage and loss of these cells are critical for the progression of glomerular nephropathy and renal failure. Recent studies have proposed two major hypotheses to account for the loss of podocytes under different pathological conditions. The first hypothesis emphasizes the importance of podocyte depletion resulting from injury-induced cell death as a causative factor in the onset of proteinuria and glomerular sclerosis [1-3]. According to this hypothesis, the reduced podocyte number in glomeruli is attributed to the apoptotic death of these cells. The second hypothesis proposes that the podocyte loss occurs from an epithelial to mesenchymal transition (EMT) induced by cell injury. Indeed, podocytes have been shown to undergo EMT in response to various injurious stimuli including transforming growth factor-β1 (TGF-β1) [4, 5], high glucose [5, 6], homocysteine [7-11], and adriamycin [5].

1.1 Epithelial-to-Mesenchymal Transition

It has been shown that the EMT process is characterized by loss of its epithelial features as indicated by reduced level of podocyte-derived proteins such as nephrin, P-cadherin (P-cad), and zonula occludens-1 (ZO-1) and by acquiring mesenchymal features such as increases in the expression of desmin, fibroblast-specific protein-1 (FSP-1), and α-smooth muscle actin (α-SMA) [10]. This podocyte phenotype change may lead to disruption of its delicate architecture, impairing glomerular filtration membrane function and triggering glomerular injury and sclerosis [12, 13]. However, it remains poorly understood how the process of EMT in podocytes is activated and regulated in response to different pathological stimuli.
1.1.1 The concept of epithelial-to-mesenchymal transition

Metazoans are mainly composed of two cells types, epithelial and mesenchymal, which differ both morphologically and functionally. Epithelial cells are closely attached to each other by intercellular adhesion complexes in their lateral membranes to form coherent layers. In addition, they display apico-basal polarity and characteristic basally localized basement membrane that separates the epithelium from other tissues. In contrast, mesenchymal cells are nonpolarized and lack of intercellular junctions, which enables them move individually throughout the extracellular matrix [40]. EMT is the conversion of adherent epithelial cells into individual migratory cells that can invade the extracellular matrix [41], leading to the disruption of intercellular adhesion complexes and loss of characteristic apico-basal polarity of the epithelial cells [42-44]. Because of cytoskeletal changes, the epithelial cells leave the epithelium and migrate individually, which initially occur by formation of apical constrictions and disorganization of the basal cytoskeleton [45, 46]. Simultaneously, protease activity leads to collapse of basement membrane and cell ingression [47]. Finally, these cells acquire migratory and invasive properties that capacitate them to migrate through the extracellular matrix.

1.1.2 Pathogenic role of epithelial-to-mesenchymal transition in nephropathy

Emerging evidence has established EMT as a major mechanism of tubulointerstitial fibrosis and glomerulosclerosis [48-50]. EMT typically occurs in response to a number of environmental stresses and associated cytokine/growth factor stimuli such as mechanical stretch [52], cyclosporine treatment [53], exposure to advanced glycation end products (AGE consequence of hyperglycaemia) [54], hypoxia [55], hyperhomocysteinemia, oxidative stress [56], aldosterone [57], activated monocyte supernatant, interleukin-1 [58], and oncostatin M treatment as well as the culturing of cells on collagen I [59]. Our previous study reveals that the normal expression of
CD38 importantly contributes to the differentiation and function of podocytes and defect of this gene expression may be a critical mechanism inducing EMT and consequently resulting in glomerular injury and sclerosis [51]. However, the normal regulation of EMT in the kidney, in particular in glomerular podocytes, is still poorly understood.

1.2 Autophagy

In this regard, previous studies have demonstrated that podocyte differentiation and maturation are highly dependent upon normal autophagy [12, 14]. Given that EMT involves a fundamental change in differentiation state, it is plausible that deficient autophagy contributes to the activation or enhancement of EMT. It is well known that autophagy is a cell survival mechanism responsible for the degradation of long-lived or damaged proteins and excessive or dysfunctional cell organelles [13, 15, 16]. Under physiological conditions, autophagy functions in a continuous, reparative way to maintain normal cellular homeostasis. In addition to the formation of autophagosomes, autophagy also includes the autophagic flux consisting of the fusion of autophagosomes to lysosomes and the lysosomal enzymatic degradation of these autophagic substances. This autophagic flux is determined by lysosome function and therefore the normal lysosome function plays a critical role in maintenance of autophagic process, keeping podocytes in a differentiated and functional status. Indeed, we have recently reported that the regulation of lysosome function importantly contributes to autophagic flux or autophagy maturation in mouse podocytes and that lysosome dysfunction or injury due to derangement of its regulatory mechanisms resulted in deficiency of autophagic flux and consequent EMT [12, 17]. It is now imperative to address how a deficient autophagic flux associated with lysosome dysfunction activates or enhances podocyte EMT.

1.2.1 Selective autophagy
It is unclear how much basal autophagy contributes to macromolecule synthesis and energy production in the steady state by supplying amino acids, glucose, and free fatty acids. Nevertheless, basal autophagy acts as the quality-control machinery for cytoplasmic components, and it is crucial for homeostasis of various postmitotic cells, such as neurons and hepatocytes. Although this quality control could be partially achieved by nonselective autophagy, increasing evidence indicates that “selective” autophagy degrades specific proteins, organelles, and invading bacteria. Selective autophagy occurs constitutively and can also be induced in response to cellular stresses [60].

One of the best characterized substrates of selective autophagy is p62, which is also known as sequestosome 1/SQSTM1. p62 is an ubiquitously expressed cellular protein, which is conserved in animals but not in plants and fungi. p62 directly interacts with LC3 (microtubule-associated protein light chain 3) on the isolation membrane through the LC3-interacting region. Subsequently, p62 is incorporated into the autophagosome and then degraded [61, 62]. Due to the presence of the C-terminal ubiquitin associated (UBA) domain of p62, in addition to the binding capacity to LC3, p62 is thought to be a receptor for ubiquitinated cargos including ubiquitinated aggregates, damaged mitochondria, ubiquitinated midbody rings, ubiquitin-tagged peroxisomes, ubiquitinated microbes, ribosomal proteins, and virus capsid protein, to deliver them to the autophagosomes [64–66]. p62, as an adaptor protein, mediates the degradation of ubiquitinated cargos through their interaction with ubiquitin. This selective autophagy could be regulated by posttranslational modification of the adaptors. Impairment of autophagy is accompanied by accumulation of p62. This leads to the formation of large aggregates, which include p62 and ubiquitin [63].

1.2.2 The role of p62 as a signaling hub
In addition to the definitive role of autophagy in starvation adaptation, analyses of a large number of mouse lines with tissue-specific deletions of Atg have demonstrated that loss of autophagy causes various life-threatening diseases in spite of the nutritional status [60]. However, the pathoetioloogy cannot be simply accounted for by impairment of basal and constitutive autophagy as a house cleaner: intracellular global turnover. Suppression of autophagy is always accompanied by massive accumulation of a selective substrate for autophagy; p62. In addition to its crucial role as an assembly factor for ubiquitinated proteins and organelles, p62 functions as a signaling hub in various transduction pathways, such as NF-κB signaling, activation of apoptosis, and response to environmental stress [32]. Whereas these signals are enhanced by aggregation of signaling complex through p62, selective turnover of p62 via autophagy might shut them off. If this is true, impaired autophagy and/or abnormal expression of p62 should be accompanied by persistent activation of these signaling pathways, leading to serious diseases, such as tumorigenesis.

1.2.3 Vacuolar- type H$^+$-ATPase and autophagosome-lysosome fusion

V-ATPases are ubiquitous ATP-dependent proton pumps, organized in multisubunit complexes, which couple the energy released from ATP hydrolysis with the active extrusion of protons from the cytoplasm into the lumen of organelles or to the extracellular space [67]. The enzyme is composed of a peripheral domain (V$_1$) that carries out ATP hydrolysis and an integral domain (V$_0$) responsible for proton transport [68]. V-ATPase is localized in organelles of the central vacuolar system such as coated vesicles, endosomes, lysosomes, chromaffin granules, and Golgi apparatus, and plays an important role by maintaining the acidic environment in these compartments [71].
In the process of autophagy, membrane structures called isolation membranes or phagophores appear, segregate parts of the cytoplasm, and form autophagosomes. The newly formed autophagosomes (early autophagosomes) fuse with endosomes or prelysosomes, and become a more advanced stage of autophagosomes (late autophagosomes or amphisomes) of acidic lysosomal pH [72-74]. The autophagosomes then acquire hydrolytic enzymes by fusion with lysosomes, and are transformed into mature autolysosomes in which degradation of the content proceeds [73, 75, 76]. In previous studies, it has been proved that the internal acidification of vesicles is essential to vesicular transport [77-81]. Furthermore, the activity of V-ATPase is required for the maturation of endosomes and fusion between endosomes and lysosomes [77, 79]. Therefore, the inhibition of V-ATPase is considered to block autophagic flux by disturbing lysosome movement and fusion between autophagosome and lysosome.

Bafilomycin A1 (Baf) is known as a specific and potent inhibitor of V-ATPase by preventing the rotation of subunit a [69] and subunit c [70], which are subunits of V₀. It has been reported that the obvious block of autophagosome-lysosome fusion is an indirect result of the acidification defect, which follows the immediate result of Baf treatment [71, 82]. For this reason, we will use Baf as the inhibitor of V-ATPase to produce the condition of lysosome dysfunction in our experiments.

1.3 Aims of the study

The hypothesis to be tested in the present study states that: lysosome dysfunction may induce podocyte EMT due to the accumulation of autophagosome, p62 aggregation, and activation of associated signaling pathways such as Nrf2-mediated redox sensing, NF-κB-
dependent transcriptional regulation, and cyclin-dependent kinase 1 (CDK1)–mediated phosphorylation of p62.

The specific aims are:

1. To determine whether inhibition of lysosome function by V-ATPase inhibitor and its siRNA induces EMT in podocytes by observations of changes in epithelial and mesenchymal markers.

2. To determine whether inhibition of lysosome function leads to accumulation of autophagosome and aggregation of p62 in podocytes, a typical deficiency of autophagic flux, which may contribute to activation or enhancement of podocyte EMT.

3. To determine the mechanisms by which lysosome dysfunction leads to EMT by testing the role of p62-related signaling pathways. Our results demonstrate that p62 accumulation and associated reduction in phosphorylation of p62 may be a novel mechanism switching on EMT associated with lysosome dysfunction and autophagic flux deficiency in podocytes.
CHAPTER TWO

GENERAL METHODS

2.1 Cell culture

Conditionally immortalized mouse podocytes, kindly provided by Dr. Klotman PE (Division of Nephrology, Department of Medicine, Mount Sinai School of Medicine, New York, NY, USA) were cultured on collagen I-coated flasks or plates in RPMI 1640 medium supplemented with recombinant mouse interferon-γ at 33°C. After differentiation at 37°C for 10-14 days without interferon-γ, podocytes were used for proposed experiments. The concentrations used for all protocols were decided based on preliminary dose response data showing that 5 nM bafilomycin A1 (Baf) had stable effects on activation of EMT in podocytes.

2.2 Immunofluorescence microscopy

Double-immunofluorescence staining was performed using cultured podocytes on cover slips. After fixation, the cells were incubated with rabbit anti-podocin 1:200 (Sigma, St. Louis, MO, USA), which was followed by incubation with Alexa-488-labeled donkey anti-rabbit secondary antibody. Then, goat anti-FSP-1 (1:50 dilution), goat anti-ZO-1 (1:50 dilution) (Santa Cruz Biotechnology Inc, Santa Cruz, CA, USA), goat anti-P-cadherin (1:25 dilution), or mouse anti-α-SMA (1:300 dilution) (R&D system, Minneapolis, MN, USA) were added to the cell slides and then incubated overnight at 4°C. After washing, the slides were incubated with corresponding Alexa-555-labeled secondary antibodies and then mounted and analyzed by confocal laser scanning microscopy (Fluoview FV1000, Olympus, Japan). These double staining
experiments were performed to observe the relationship between podocin production and EMT changes during Baf incubation.

In addition to double staining and confocal microscopy, several groups of podocytes were used for quantitative analysis of expression of markers of EMT, autophagosomes and lysosomes by fluorescence microscopy. In these experiments, podocytes on cover slips were fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde for 20 minutes. After rinsing with phosphate-buffered saline (PBS), the cells were incubated with rabbit anti-FSP-1 (1:100, Abcam, Cambridge, MA, USA), rabbit anti-ZO-1 (1:50, Invitrogen, Camarillo, CA, USA), rabbit anti-P-cadherin (1:25), mouse anti-α-SMA (1:300, R&D system, Minneapolis, MN, USA) antibodies, rabbit anti-LC3B (Cell Signaling Technology, Beverly, MA, USA), or rat anti-LAMP1 (Novus Biologicals, St. Louis, MO, USA). After washing, the slides were incubated with the corresponding Alexa 488-labeled secondary antibodies for 1 h at room temperature. After mounting with DAPI-containing mounting solution, the slides were observed under a fluorescence microscope and photos were taken and analyzed.

2.3 Western blot analysis

Western blot analysis was performed as we described previously [10]. In brief, homogenates from cultured podocytes were prepared using sucrose buffer containing protease inhibitors. After boiling for 5 min at 95°C in a 5× loading buffer, total cell protein (20 μg) was subjected to SDS-PAGE, transferred onto a PVDF membrane and blocked by solution with dry milk. Then the membrane was probed with primary antibodies against anti-ZO-1 (1:1000, Invitrogen), anti-P-cadherin (1: 1000, R&D System), anti-α-SMA (1:5000, R&D System), anti-
FSP-1 (1:1000, Abcam), anti-LC3B (1:1000, Cell Signaling Technology), anti-LAMP1 (1:1000, Novus Biologicals), mouse anti-p62 (1:5000, Abcam, Cambridge, MA, USA), rabbit anti-phospho-p62 (1:1000, Cell Signaling Technology, Beverly, MA, USA) or anti-β-actin (1:5000, Santa Cruz Biotechnology) overnight at 4 °C followed by incubation with horseradish peroxidase-labeled IgG (1:5000). The immunoreactive bands were detected by chemiluminescence methods and visualized on Kodak Omat X-ray films. Densitometric analysis of the images obtained from X-ray films was performed using the Image J software (NIH, Bethesda, MD, USA).

2.4 siRNA transfection

Vacuolar H+-ATPase (V-ATPase) siRNA (Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Dallas, TX, USA), Nrf2 siRNA (Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Dallas, TX, USA), NF κB siRNA (Cell Signaling Technology, Beverly, MA, USA), and CDK1 siRNA (Santa Cruz Biotechnology, Dallas, TX, USA) were confirmed to be effective in silencing the target genes in different cells by the companies. The scrambled RNA (Qiagen, Valencia, CA, USA) was confirmed as non-silencing double-strand RNA and used as the control in the present study. Podocytes were serum starved for 12 h and then transfected with siRNA or scrambled RNA using siLentFect Lipid Reagent (Bio-Rad, Hercules, CA, USA). After 24 h of incubation at 37°C, the medium was changed, and Baf (5 nM) was added into the medium for indicated time span in different protocols.

2.5 Statistical analysis

All of the values are expressed as mean ± SEM. Significant differences among multiple groups were examined using ANOVA followed by a Student-Newman-Keuls test. \( \chi^2 \) test was
used to assess the significance of ratio and percentage data. P<0.05 was considered statistically significant.
CHAPTER THREE

Epithelial-to-mesenchymal transition enhanced in mouse podocytes during inhibition of lysosome function

3.1 Enhanced EMT by inhibition of lysosome function in podocytes

To confirm that inhibition of lysosome function enhances EMT in podocytes, Western blot analyses were performed on homogenates from cells before and after treatment with Baf or the siRNA for V-ATPase. As shown in Fig. 1A and 1B, when podocytes were treated with Baf, the epithelial markers P-cad and ZO-1 decreased significantly, while the mesenchymal markers FSP-1 and α-SMA increased markedly. Similarly, V-ATPase siRNA transfection (siv-A) decreased P-cad and ZO-1 but increased FSP-1 and α-SMA significantly in podocytes (Fig. 1C and 1D). It is clear that the ratio of epithelial to mesenchymal markers was significantly reduced during inhibition of lysosome function, suggesting a large enhancement of EMT in podocytes.
Figure 1. Effects of inhibition of lysosome function on EMT in podocytes. Podocytes were stimulated by Baf (5 nM) or transfected with V-ATPase siRNA (10 nM) for 24 hours. A. Representative gel images showing ZO-1 and P-cadherin as epithelial markers and α-SMA and FSP-1 as mesenchymal markers in different groups. B. Summarized data showing the relative levels of ZO-1 and P-cadherin as epithelial markers and α-SMA and FSP-1 as mesenchymal markers, quantitated as a ratio of detected specific protein band vs. β-actin as loading control (n=3-5). C. Representative gel images showing the expression of ZO-1 and P-cadherin as epithelial markers and the expression of α-SMA and FSP-1 as mesenchymal markers in different groups. D. Summarized data showing the expression of ZO-1 and P-cadherin as epithelial markers and the expression of α-SMA and FSP-1 as mesenchymal markers, quantitated as a ratio of detected specific protein band vs. β-actin as loading control (n=3-5). * P<0.05 vs. Ctrl.
3.2 Confocal microscopy of EMT during inhibition of lysosome function

Using confocal microscopy, the effects of inhibition of lysosome function on EMT in podocytes were further detected. As shown in Fig. 2A, under basal conditions, podocytes were enriched with P-cadherin and ZO-1. After treatment with Baf, both P-cadherin and ZO-1 fluorescent staining were significantly reduced. As shown in the overlaid cell image (OL in left panels of Fig. 2A), there was less co-localization of podocin with ZO-1 or P-cad in Baf-treated podocytes compared with control podocytes. In contrast, FSP-1 and α-SMA increased after the Baf treatment as shown by enhanced co-localization of podocin with both markers (right panels of Fig. 2A). In podocytes transfected with V-ATPase siRNA (siv-A), detected epithelial marker and mesenchymal marker stainings were similar to that shown in Baf-treated podocytes. Decreases in epithelial marker and increases in mesenchymal markers were observed (Fig. 2B).
Figure 2. 3.2 Confocal microscopy of EMT during inhibition of lysosome function. A. Images showing double-immunostained podocytes for epithelial markers, P-cadherin and ZO-1 (Alexa 555, red color) or mesenchymal markers, α-SMA and FSP-1 (Alexa 555, red color) with podocyte marker, podocin (Alexa 488, green color) in different groups (n=5). B. Images showing double-immunostained podocytes for epithelial markers, P-cadherin and ZO-1 (Alexa 555, red color) or mesenchymal markers, α-SMA and FSP-1 (Alexa 555, red color) with podocyte marker, podocin (Alexa 488, green color) in different groups (n=4). Ctrl: Control, Baf: Baf, siv-A: V-ATPase siRNA.
CHAPTER FOUR

Contribution of accumulated autophagosome to the enhancement of epithelial-to-mesenchymal transition during inhibition of lysosome function

4.1 Deficiency of autophagic flux during inhibition of lysosome function

Given the role of autophagy in podocyte differentiation, we tested whether the enhancement of EMT observed in response to lysosomal inhibition is associated with deficient autophagy. Fig. 3A shows representative Western blot images using antibodies against LC3B, Lamp-1 and p62. Under basal conditions or after co-treatment with the autophagosome formation inducers, rapamycin or 7-ketocholesterol, Baf treatment resulted in marked increases in the levels of the autophagosome markers, LC3B-II and p62, (autophagosome markers) while having no effect on the lysosomal membrane marker, Lamp-1. As shown in Fig. 3B, lysosomal inhibition by Baf dramatically increased the ratio of LC3B-II vs. LC3B-I, an effect that was independent of whether autophagosome formation was stimulated. The increased LC3B-II level was accompanied by accumulation of p62 in podocytes (Fig. 3C). However, the Lamp-1 level was not significantly changed by Baf (Fig. 3D). Expression of V-ATPase siRNA produced similar effects on autophagic flux to those of Baf, showing that both LC3B-II and p62 significantly increased in podocytes (data not shown).
Figure 3. Effects of lysosome function inhibitor on autophagy. Podocytes were stimulated by RPM (20 μM) or 7-keto (10 μM) for 24 hours. A. Representative Western blot images showing the levels of LC3B-I, LC3B-II, and p62 as autophagosome markers and Lamp-1 as a lysosome marker in different treatment groups. B. Summarized data showing expression of LC3B-I and LC3B-II, quantitated as a ratio of LC3B-II band over LC3B-I band (n=4). C. Summarized data showing expression of Lamp-1, quantitated as a ratio of detected specific protein band vs. β-actin as loading control (n=4). D. Summarized data showing expression of p62, quantitated as a ratio of detected specific protein band vs. β-actin as loading control (n=4). * P<0.05.
4.2 Attenuation of EMT by Sp-1 inhibition of autophagosome formation

To further determine the role of autophagosome accumulation in podocyte EMT enhanced by inhibition of lysosome function, we examined the effects of the selective autophagosome formation inhibitor, Sp-1, on Baf-enhanced EMT. As shown in Fig. 4A, Western blot analysis showed that Baf dramatically increased the LC3B-II level. In the presence of Sp-1, the effect of Baf on the LCBI level was attenuated. As summarized in Fig. 4B, the ratio of LC3B-II vs. LC3B-I was significantly increased by Baf. However, this indicator of Baf-induced autophagosome accumulation was significantly attenuated by Sp-1. Moreover, Baf-induced p62 accumulation was inhibited by Sp-1 as indicated by Western blotting (Fig. 4C). Densitometric analysis showed that inhibition of lysosome function by Baf led to a significant accumulation of p62 in podocytes, which was remarkably lessened by Sp-1 (Fig. 4D). As shown in Fig. 4E, interestingly, enhanced EMT by Baf as shown by decrease in P-cad and increase in α-SMA was obviously attenuated by Sp-1. The ratio of P-cad to α-SMA, an EMT index, was significantly decreased in bafolimycin-treated podocytes. In the presence of Sp-1, P-cadherin to α-SMA ratio was significantly reduced (Fig. 4F).
Figure 4. Sp-1 inhibition of autophagosome formation during inhibition of lysosome function. Podocytes were stimulated by Sp-1 (10 µM) for 24 hours. A. Representative Western blot images showing the expression of LC3B-I and LC3B-II as autophagosome markers in different groups. B. Summarized data showing expression of LC3B-I and LC3B-II, quantitated as a ratio of LC3B-II band over LC3B-I band (n=3). C. Representative gel documents showing the expression of p62 as autophagosome marker in different groups. D. Summarized data showing expression of p62, quantitated as a ratio of detected specific protein band vs. β-actin as loading control (n=3). E. Representative gel documents showing the expression of P-cadherin, α-SMA in different groups. F. Summarized data showing expression of P-cadherin and α-SMA, quantitated as a ratio of P-cadherin band over α-SMA band (n=3-4). * P<0.05 vs. Ctrl; # P<0.05 vs. Baf.
CHAPTER FIVE

No changes in enhanced epithelial-to-mesenchymal transition by Nrf2 gene silencing or inhibition of NF-κB-mediated transcriptional regulation

5.1 Failure of Nrf2 gene silencing to alter EMT enhanced by inhibition of lysosome function

The role of p62-regulated Nrf2 signaling in the enhancement of EMT by inhibition of lysosome function was examined using siRNA-mediated Nrf2 gene silencing. Fig. 5A shows representative Western blot gel documents illustrating the changes in P-cad, α-SMA and p62 induced by Baf before and after Nrf2 gene silencing (siNrf). The level of P-cad was markedly decreased, while p62 increased in Baf-treated podocytes. These Baf-induced changes in EMT markers in associated with increase in p62 were not altered by Nrf2 gene silencing. As shown in Fig. 5B, Baf significantly decreased the ratio of P-cad and α-SMA, an EMT index. However, Nrf2 gene silencing did not alter the ratio of P-cad to α-SMA. In addition, Baf-induced significant accumulation of p62 was also not altered by Nrf2 siRNA (Fig. 5C).
Figure 5. Failure of Nrf2 inhibition by gene silencing to alter EMT enhanced by inhibition of lysosome function. Podocytes were transfected with Nrf2 siRNA (10 nM) for 24 hours. A. Representative Western blot images showing the relative levels of P-cadherin, α-SMA and p62 in different groups. B. Summarized data showing expression of P-cadherin and α-SMA, quantitated as a ratio of P-cadherin band over α-SMA band (n=3-4). C. Summarized data showing expression of p62, quantitated as a ratio of detected specific protein band vs. β-actin as loading control (n=3-4). * P<0.05 vs. Ctrl.
5.2 No changes in enhanced EMT by inhibition of NF-κB-mediated transcriptional regulation

Given the role of NF-κB-mediated transcriptional regulation in cell dedifferentiation and its association with p62, we tested whether inhibition of its activity alters podocyte EMT enhanced by inhibition of lysosome function. Representative Western blot gel documents in Fig. 6A showed that the level of P-cad remarkably decreased, but p62 was increased in Baf-treated podocytes. These Baf-induced changes in EMT markers as well as p62 were same before and after pharmacological inhibition of NF-κB activity. As summarized in Fig. 6B, Baf significantly decreased the ratio of P-cad vs. α-SMA, the EMT index, which was not altered by inhibition of NF-κB activity. Furthermore, Baf-induced significant accumulation of p62 remained same even though NF-κB activity was inhibited (Fig. 6C). We also inhibited NF-κB-mediated transcriptional regulation by gene silencing to further confirm whether this transcription factor is involved in Baf-enhanced EMT. As shown in Fig. 6D, 6E and 6F, the effect of NF-κB gene silencing (siNF-kB) on Baf-enhanced EMT was similar to its pharmacological inhibition, without effects on decreases in the ratio of P-cad vs. α-SMA and p62 accumulation in podocytes.
Figure 6. No changes in enhanced EMT by inhibition of NF-κB-mediated transcriptional regulation. Podocytes were stimulated by Bor (1 nM) or transfected with NF κB siRNA (10 nM) for 24 hours. A. Representative Western blot images showing relative levels of P-cadherin, α-SMA and p62 in different groups. B. Summarized data showing expression of P-cadherin and α-SMA, quantitated as a ratio of P-cadherin band over α-SMA band (n=5). C. Summarized data showing expression of p62, quantitated as a ratio of detected specific protein band vs. β-actin as loading control (n=5). D. Representative gel documents showing the expression of P-cadherin, α-SMA and p62 in different groups. E. Summarized data showing expression of P-cadherin and α-SMA, quantitated as a ratio of P-cadherin band over α-SMA band (n=5). F. Summarized data showing expression of p62, quantitated as a ratio of detected specific protein band vs. β-actin as loading control (n=4). * P<0.05 vs. Ctrl.
CHAPTER SIX

Contribution of p62 phosphorylation reduction to lysosome function inhibition-induced epithelial-to-mesenchymal transition

6.1 Effects of CDK1 inhibition on EMT enhancement induced by lysosome dysfunction

We also tested whether inhibition of CDK1 expression and activity alters Baf-induced enhancement of EMT in podocytes. It has been reported that phosphorylation of p62 by CDK1 regulates exit from cell cycle or cell arrest during cell mitosis and that reduced phosphorylation of p62 leads to a faster exit from cell mitosis, controlling cell dedifferentiation and tumorigenesis [19]. In Fig. 7, panel A presents representative immunoblots showing the effect of the CDK1 inhibitor, RO-3306 (RO), a quinolinyl thiazolinone derivative, on the Baf-induced effects in podocytes. Similar to Baf, RO treatment alone also decreased the level of P-cad and increased α-SMA, resulting in a significant decrease in the P-cad to α-SMA ratio (Fig. 7B). However, unlike Baf, treatment with RO did not significantly affect p62 (Fig. 7A and 7C). In co-treated cells, RO did not significantly alter the effect of Baf on either the EMT markers or p62 (Fig. 7A-C). To further confirm the role of CDK1 inhibition in enhancement of EMT, we used its siRNA to test whether gene silencing of CDK1 alters EMT. As shown in Fig. 7D, 7E and 7F, CDK1 siRNA (siCDK1) had a nearly identical profile of effects to those of the chemical inhibitor. The siRNA treatment alone decreased the ratio of P-cad to α-SMA but had no effect on the Baf-induced changes in EMT markers or p62.
Figure 7. Effects of CDK1 inhibition on EMT enhancement induced by lysosome dysfunction. Podocytes were stimulated by RO (10 µM) or transfected with CDK1 siRNA (10 nM) for 24 hours. A. Representative Western blot images showing the expression of P-cadherin, α-SMA and p62 in different groups. B. Summarized data showing expression of P-cadherin and α-SMA, quantitated as a ratio of P-cadherin band over α-SMA band (n=5). C. Summarized data showing expression of p62, quantitated as a ratio of detected specific protein band vs. β-actin as loading control (n=9). * P<0.05 vs. Ctrl. D. Representative gel documents showing the expression of P-cadherin, α-SMA and p62 in different groups. E. Summarized data showing expression of P-cadherin and α-SMA, quantitated as a ratio of P-cadherin band over α-SMA band (n=5). F. Summarized data showing expression of p62, quantitated as a ratio of detected specific protein band vs. β-actin as loading control (n=7). * P<0.05 vs. Ctrl.
6.2 Reduction of p62 phosphorylation during inhibition of lysosome function

Further experiments were designed to determine whether reduced p62 phosphorylation occurs due to inhibition of lysosome function. Western blot analyses showed that the CDK1 inhibitor, RO, markedly decreased phosphorylated p62 even though it had no effect on the total p62 level in podocytes (Fig. 8A). In contrast to the strong effect of Baf on p62 accumulation, it had little effect on phosphorylation of p62. The calculated ratio of phosphorylated p62 to total p62 was reduced significantly by both RO and Baf, suggesting that the relative reduction of phosphorylated p62 may be involved in the control of EMT (Fig. 8B). We also conducted additional experiments to silence CDK1 gene in order to confirm the role of decreased phosphorylated p62 in podocyte EMT. As presented in Fig. 8C, similar to RO, CDK1 siRNA reduced phosphorylated p62, but had no effects on total p62 level. As summarized in Fig. 8D, the treatment with CDK1 siRNA reduced the ratio of phosphorylated p62 to total p62, similar to the effects of Baf.
Figure 8. Reduction of p62 phosphorylation during inhibition of lysosome function. A. Representative Western blot images showing the expression of p62 and p-p62 in different groups. B. Summarized data showing expression of p62 and p-p62, quantitated as a ratio of p-p62 band over p62 band (n=5). C. Representative gel documents showing the expression of p62 and p-p62 in different groups. D. Summarized data showing expression of p62 and p-p62, quantitated as a ratio of p-p62 band over p62 band (n=4). * P<0.05 vs. Ctrl.
CHAPTER SEVEN

DISCUSSION

The major goals of the present study were to determine whether lysosome dysfunction-enhanced podocyte EMT is attributable to the accumulation of autophagosomes and p62, which are degraded during the normal autophagic process, and to explore the mechanisms by which p62 exerts its action as a signaling hub to activate or enhance EMT in podocytes. It was found that inhibition of lysosome function using a low dose of lysosomal V-ATPase inhibitor, Baf A1 (5 nM) or by silencing the V-ATPase gene resulted in a marked enhancement of podocyte EMT, an effect that was accompanied by autophagosome accumulation due to the deficient autophagic flux. This enhancement of EMT in podocytes was significantly attenuated by inhibiting autophagosome formation with Sp-1, suggesting that autophagosome accumulation in podocytes is required for enhancement of EMT by lysosome dysfunction. We further explored the signaling mechanism(s) responsible for this effect. Given that p62 was found to be significantly increased during lysosome dysfunction and resulting deficiency of autophagic flux, several signaling pathways known to regulate p62 were investigated including Nrf2-mediated redox signaling, NF-κB-dependent transcriptional regulation, and CDK1-mediated phosphorylation of p62 as an intracellular controller of cell mitosis exit. Our results indicate that reduction of CDK1-mediated p62 phosphorylation may contribute to the enhancement of EMT by lysosome dysfunction.

It has been reported that podocytes in glomeruli of mammalian animals are highly differentiated and therefore the long-term survival and maintenance of their structural and functional integrity are greatly dependent upon the autophagic process [12, 18]. This led us to hypothesize that
lyosome dysfunction and consequent derangement of autophagic flux may be an important mechanism activating or enhancing EMT in podocytes, leading to podocyte injury and glomerular sclerosis. This hypothesis was tested in the present study by inhibiting lysosome function using the V-ATPase inhibitor, Baf A1, and a specific V-ATPase siRNA. We indeed demonstrated that inhibition of lysosome function by Baf A1 and V-ATPase siRNA significantly enhanced EMT in podocytes, which was comparable to that produced by a well-established EMT inducer, TGF-β [19, 20] or by deletion or knocking down of CD38, an enzyme for production of an endogenous regulator of lysosome function, NAADP [12, 17]. To our knowledge, these results represent the first experimental evidence that inhibition of lysosomal V-ATPase activity or its gene silencing activated or enhanced podocyte EMT. In previous studies, various molecular mechanisms have been proposed to activate EMT in other cell or tissue types, which are similar to those regulating oncogenic properties in neoplastic cells such as proliferation, resistance to apoptosis and angiogenesis through transcription factors [21]. However, these mechanisms are found mainly related to ubiquitination, namely, the covalent link of the small 76-amino acid protein ubiquitin to target proteins, signaling for the proteins to be degraded by the 26S proteasome complex [21]. Although lysosomal degradation of some signaling proteins may be one of mechanisms responsible for EMT, little is known as yet how lysosome dysfunction induces EMT in many cell types including podocytes. In this regard, there is evidence that Raf and TGF-β may work together to promote the lysosomal degradation rather than recycling of E-cadherin in tumor cells, resulting in EMT and tumor progression [22]. Despite these observations of lysosomal degradation of signaling proteins in EMT, it remains unknown how lysosomal degradation of signaling proteins activates EMT. In particular, it is interesting to know whether the reversal of differentiation induced by autophagy, a process fine
controlled by lysosome function, contributes to EMT in podocytes. If so, we need to test what is the triggering mechanism.

We first examined whether enhanced EMT during lysosome dysfunction is associated with deficient autophagy, in particular, the autophagic flux, given the important role of lysosomes in this process. It was demonstrated that autophagosome and p62, a scaffold protein also in autophagic process, were largely accumulated in podocytes by Baf A1 or silencing of v-ATPase gene, suggesting that inhibition of lysosome function leads to abnormal autophagic flux and thereby reduces autophagic degradation of ubiquitinated cargoes and functional substrates involved in the autophagic process such as p62 [23-26]. We also demonstrated that inhibition of autophagosome formation by Sp-1 significantly attenuated the enhancement of EMT induced by lysosome dysfunction induced by Baf A1 and V-ATPase siRNA. To our knowledge, these results provide the first evidence that autophagosome accumulation may serve as a critical mechanism activating or enhancing EMT in podocytes. In some previous studies, autophagy was shown to be critical for the invasion of tumor cells, which is associated with the induction of EMT and activation of TGF-β/Smad3-dependent signaling pathway [27]. In addition, the autophagy process and the autophagy-mediated lysosomal degradation of SNAI/Snail and TWIST, two master inducers of the EMT process have been reported to mediate the effects of death effector domain-containing DNA-binding protein (DEDD) to alter tumor growth and metastasis, suggesting that autophagy is involved in EMT and subsequent growth or metastasis of tumors [28, 29].
After confirmation of deficient autophagic flux as an important process, we went on to address how Baf A1-induced accumulation of autophagosome-initiated EMT in podocytes. It has been reported that p62 as a signaling hub regulates cell proliferation and many other activities [30, 31] and that in tumor cells, p62 is required for cell transformation [30, 32, 33]. Interestingly, the genetic inactivation of key autophagy molecules, such as Atg7, results in p62 accumulation and hepatotoxicity, which leads to the generation of liver tumors [18, 30, 34]. This suggests an important association between p62 and the autophagic process with tumorogenesis or cell transdifferentiation. We tested the role of three pathways regulating p62 function in podocyte EMT, which include NF-κB, Nrf2 and cyclin-dependent kinases (CDKs). Using selective chemical or genetic inhibitors, we found that inhibition of the NF-κB or Nrf2 signaling pathways had no effect on Baf A1-induced EMT in podocytes, suggesting that neither pathway is involved in the podocyte transdifferentiation induced by lysosome dysfunction. However, inhibition of CDK1 activity or CDK1 gene silencing produced podocyte EMT without affecting the level of p62. In the presence of CDK1 inhibitor or siRNA, Baf-induced podocyte EMT was markedly attenuated by 60%, which was accompanied by significant reductions in phosphorylation of p62 in podocytes. These results suggest that CDK1 phosphorylation is important for the regulatory control of podocyte EMT and that reduced CDK1 phosphorylation may result in enhancement of this EMT. To our knowledge, there have been no reports regarding a role of CDK1-mediated p62 phosphorylation in the regulation of podocyte transdifferentiation. Our results provide direct evidence that this CDK1-mediated mechanism critically contributes to EMT activation. In studies using other cell types, CDKs were demonstrated to regulate the progression of mammalian cells through the various phases of the cell cycle [35]. Among these CDKs, CDK1 controls transit through the late S/G2 phase and early mitosis phase of the cell cycle [36, 37],
which may be associated with p62 phosphorylation at residues T269 and S272 [38, 39]. In cancer cells, expression of a nonphosphorylatable p62 mutant displayed higher tumorigenic properties than the same cells expressing wild-type p62 [39]. Moreover, p62 phosphorylation has been shown to play an important role in the stabilization of cyclin B1, which interacts with CDK1 to specifically regulate the entry into mitosis [39]. Our findings together with these previous results provide strong evidence that reduced phosphorylation of p62 due to inhibition of CDK1 during lysosome dysfunction leads to a faster exit from cell mitosis and thereby enhances EMT in podocytes, which results from accumulation of p62 induced by deranged autophagic flux.

In summary, the present study revealed a new triggering mechanism of podocyte EMT under conditions of inhibition of lysosome function, which is characterized by deranged autophagic flux, p62 accumulation and associated reduction of p62 phosphorylation. This dysregulation of p62 and its CDK1-dependent phosphorylation may represent a novel early event leading to podocyte dysfunction and injury, which may initiate podocytes injury and ultimately result in glomerulosclerosis during lysosome dysfunction. These results may direct toward the development of new therapeutic strategies targeting phosphorylation of p62 for prevention or treatment of glomerular sclerosis associated with lysosome dysfunction and deficient autophagy under different pathological conditions such as hypercholesterimia, hyperhomocysteinemia or diabetes mellitus.
REFERENCES

1 Anil Kumar P, Welsh GI, Saleem MA, Menon RK: Molecular and cellular events mediating glomerular podocyte dysfunction and depletion in diabetes mellitus. Front Endocrinol (Lausanne). 2014 Sep 25;5:151. doi: 10.3389/fendo.2014.00151. eCollection 2014.

2 Menini S, Iacobini C, Oddi G, Ricci C, Simonelli P, Fallucca S, Grattarola M, Pugliese F, Pesce C, Pugliese G: Increased glomerular cell (podocyte) apoptosis in rats with streptozotocin-induced diabetes mellitus: role in the development of diabetic glomerular disease. Diabetologia. 2007 Dec;50(12):2591-9. Epub 2007 Sep 28.

3 Asanuma K, Mundel P: The role of podocytes in glomerular pathobiology. Clin Exp Nephrol 2003;7:255-259.

4 Sam R1, Wanna L, Gudehithlu KP, Garber SL, Dunea G, Arruda JA, Singh AK. Glomerular epithelial cells transform to myofibroblasts: early but not late removal of TGF-beta1 reverses transformation. Transl Res. 2006 Sep;148(3):142-8.

5 Kang YS1, Li Y, Dai C, Kiss LP, Wu C, Liu Y. Inhibition of integrin-linked kinase blocks podocyte epithelial-mesenchymal transition and ameliorates proteinuria. Kidney Int. 2010 Aug;78(4):363-73. doi: 10.1038/ki.2010.137. Epub 2010 May 26.

6 Guo J1, Xia N, Yang L, Zhou S, Zhang Q, Qiao Y, Liu Z. GSK-3β and vitamin D receptor are involved in β-catenin and snail signaling in high glucose-induced epithelial-mesenchymal transition of mouse podocytes. Cell Physiol Biochem. 2014;33(4):1087-96. doi: 10.1159/000358678. Epub 2014 Apr 9.
Zhang C, Hu JJ, Xia M, Boini KM, Brimson C, Li PL: Redox signaling via lipid raft clustering in homocysteine-induced injury of podocytes. Biochim Biophys Acta 2010;1803:482-491.

Yi F, Xia M, Li N, Zhang C, Tang L, Li PL: Contribution of guanine nucleotide exchange factor vav2 to hyperhomocysteinemic glomerulosclerosis in rats. Hypertension 2009;53:90-96.

Yi F, Li PL: Mechanisms of homocysteine-induced glomerular injury and sclerosis. Am J Nephrol 2008;28:254-264.

Li CX, Xia M, Han WQ, Li XX, Zhang C, Boini KM, Liu XC, Li PL: Reversal by growth hormone of homocysteine-induced epithelial-to-mesenchymal transition through membrane raft-redox signaling in podocytes. Cell Physiol Biochem 2011;27(6):691-702.

Xia M, Conley SM, Li G, Li PL, Boini KM. Inhibition of hyperhomocysteinemia-induced inflammasome activation and glomerular sclerosis by NLRP3 gene deletion. Cell Physiol Biochem. 2014;34(3):829-41. doi: 10.1159/000363046. Epub 2014 Aug 20.

Xiong J, Xia M, Xu M, Zhang Y, Abais JM, Li G, Riebling CR, Ritter JK, Boini KM, Li PL: Autophagy maturation associated with CD38-mediated regulation of lysosome function in mouse glomerular podocytes. J Cell Mol Med. 2013 Dec;17(12):1598-607.

Levine B, Kroemer G: Autophagy in the pathogenesis of disease. Cell. 2008; 132: 27–42.

Asanuma K1, Tanida I, Shirato I, Ueno T, Takahara H, Nishitani T, Kominami E, Tomino Y. MAP-LC3, a promising autophagosomal marker, is processed during the differentiation and recovery of podocytes from PAN nephrosis. FASEB J. 2003 Jun;17(9):1165-7. Epub 2003 Apr 22.
15 Gozuacik D, Kimchi A. Autophagy as a cell death and tumor suppressor mechanism. 
Oncogene. 2004; 23: 2891–906.

16 Marino G, Fernandez AF, Cabrera S, et al: Autophagy is essential for mouse sense of 
balance. J Clin Invest. 2010; 120: 2331–44.

17 Boini KM, Xia M, Xiong J, Li C, Payne LP, Li PL: Implication of CD38 gene in podocyte 
epithelial-to-mesenchymal transition and glomerular sclerosis. J Cell Mol Med. 2012 
Aug;16(8):1674-85.

19 Linares JF, Amanchy R, Greis K, Diaz-Meco MT, Moscat J: Phosphorylation of p62 by cdk1 
controls the timely transit of cells through mitosis and tumor cell proliferation. Mol Cell Biol. 
2011 Jan;31(1):105-17.

20 Li Y, Kang YS, Dai C, Kiss LP, Wen X, Liu Y: Epithelial-to-mesenchymal transition is a 
potential pathway leading to podocyte dysfunction and proteinuria. Am J Pathol 
2008;172:299-308.

21 Kang YS, Li Y, Dai C, Kiss LP, Wu C, Liu Y: Inhibition of integrin-linked kinase blocks 
podocyte epithelial-mesenchymal transition and ameliorates proteinuria. Kidney Int 
2010;78:363-373.

22 Voutsadakis IA. Ubiquitination and the Ubiquitin-Proteasome System as regulators of 
transcription and transcription factors in epithelial mesenchymal transition of cancer. Tumour 
Biol. 2012 Aug;33(4):897-910. doi: 10.1007/s13277-012-0355-x. Epub 2012 Mar 6.

23 Janda E, Nevolo M, Lehmann K, Downward J, Beug H, Grieco M: Raf plus TGFBeta- 
dependent EMT is initiated by endocytosis and lysosomal degradation of E-cadherin. 
Oncogene. 2006 Nov 16;25(54):7117-30.
24 Bitto A, Lerner CA, Nacarelli T, Crowe E, Torres C, Sell C: P62/SQSTM1 at the interface of aging, autophagy, and disease. Age (Dordr). 2014 Jun;36(3):9626.

25 Johansen T, Lamark T: Selective autophagy mediated by autophagic adapter proteins. Autophagy 2011;7:279–96.

26 Matsumoto G, Wada K, Okuno M, Kurosawa M, Nukina N: Serine 403 phosphorylation of p62/sqstm1 regulates selective autophagic clearance of ubiquitinated proteins. Mol Cell 2011;44:279–89.

27 Komatsu M, Waguri S, Koike M, Sou YS, Ueno T, Hara T, et al: Homeostatic levels of p62 control cytoplasmic inclusion body formation in autophagy-deficient mice. Cell 2007;131:1149–63.

28 Li J, Yang B, Zhou Q, Wu Y, Shang D, Guo Y, Song Z, Zheng Q, Xiong J. Autophagy promotes hepatocellular carcinoma cell invasion through activation of epithelial-mesenchymal transition. Carcinogenesis. 2013 Jun;34(6):1343-51. doi: 10.1093/carcin/bgt063. Epub 2013 Feb 21.

29 Lv Q, Hua F, Hu ZW. DEDD, a novel tumor repressor, reverses epithelial-mesenchymal transition by activating selective autophagy. Autophagy. 2012 Nov;8(11):1675-6. doi: 10.4161/auto.21438. Epub 2012 Aug 9.

30 Lv Q, Wang W, Xue J, Hua F, Mu R, Lin H, Yan J, Lv X, Chen X, Hu ZW. DEDD interacts with PI3KC3 to activate autophagy and attenuate epithelial-mesenchymal transition in human breast cancer. Cancer Res. 2012 Jul 1;72(13):3238-50. doi: 10.1158/0008-5472.CAN-11-3832. Epub 2012 Jun 19.

31 Moscat J, Diaz-Meco MT: p62: a versatile multitasker takes on cancer. Trends Biochem Sci. 2012 Jun;37(6):230-6.
32 Komatsu M, Kageyama S, Ichimura Y: p62/SQSTM1/A170: physiology and pathology. Pharmacol Res. 2012 Dec;66(6):457-62.

33 Nezis IP, Stenmark H: p62 at the interface of autophagy, oxidative stress signaling, and cancer. Antioxid Redox Signal. 2012 Sep 1;17(5):786-93.

34 Moscat J, Diaz-Meco MT: p62 at the crossroads of autophagy, apoptosis, and cancer. Cell. 2009 Jun 12;137(6):1001-4.

35 Inami, Y. et al: (2011) Persistent activation of Nrf2 through p62 in hepatocellular carcinoma cells. J. Cell Biol. 193, 275–284

36 Nigg, E.A. (2001) Mitotic kinases as regulators of cell division and its checkpoints. Nat. Rev. Mol. Cell Biol. 2, 21–32

37 Malumbres, M. and Barbacid, M. (2005) Mammalian cyclin-dependent kinases. Trends Biochem. Sci. 30, 630–641

38 Wang Z, Fan M, Candas D, Zhang TQ, Qin L, Eldridge A, Wachsmann-Hogiu S, Ahmed KM, Chromy BA, Nantajit D, Duru N, He F, Chen M, Finkel T, Weinstein LS, Li JJ: Cyclin B1/Cdk1 coordinates mitochondrial respiration for cell-cycle G2/M progression. Dev Cell. 2014 Apr 28;29(2):217-32.

39 Ye X, Sloboda RD: Molecular characterization of p62, a mitotic apparatus protein required for mitotic progression. J Biol Chem. 1997 Feb 7;272(6):3606-14.

40 Thierry JP, Sleeman JP: Complex networks orchestrate epithelial-mesenchymal transitions. Nat Rev Mol Cell Biol. 2006 Feb;7(2):131-42.

41 Acloque H, Adams MS, Fishwick K, Bronner-Fraser M, Nieto MA: Epithelial-mesenchymal transitions: the importance of changing cell state in development and disease. J Clin Invest. 2009 Jun;119(6):1438-49. doi: 10.1172/JCI38019. Epub 2009 Jun 1.
42 Barrallo-Gimeno A, Nieto MA: The Snail genes as inducers of cell movement and survival: implications in development and cancer. Development. 2005 Jul;132(14):3151-61.

43 Peinado H, Olmeda D, Cano A: Snail, Zeb and bHLH factors in tumour progression: an alliance against the epithelial phenotype? Nat Rev Cancer. 2007 Jun;7(6):415-28. Epub 2007 May 17.

44 Moreno-Bueno G, Portillo F, Cano A: Transcriptional regulation of cell polarity in EMT and cancer. Oncogene. 2008 Nov 24;27(55):6958-69. doi: 10.1038/onc.2008.346.

45 Nakaya Y, Sukowati EW, Wu Y, Sheng G: RhoA and microtubule dynamics control cell-basement membrane interaction in EMT during gastrulation. Nat Cell Biol. 2008 Jul;10(7):765-75. doi: 10.1038/ncb1739. Epub 2008 Jun 15.

46 Martin AC, Kaschube M, Wieschaus EF: Pulsed contractions of an actin-myosin network drive apical constriction. Nature. 2009 Jan 22;457(7228):495-9. doi: 10.1038/nature07522. Epub 2008 Nov 23.

47 Haraguchi M, Okubo T, Miyashita Y, Miyamoto Y, Hayashi M, Crotti TN, McHugh KP, Ozawa M: Snail regulates cell-matrix adhesion by regulation of the expression of integrins and basement membrane proteins. J Biol Chem. 2008 Aug 29;283(35):23514-23. doi: 10.1074/jbc.M801125200. Epub 2008 Jun 30.

48 Eddy AA: Molecular insights into renal interstitial fibrosis. J Am Soc Nephrol. 1996 Dec;7(12):2495-508.

49 Remuzzi G, Bertani T: Pathophysiology of progressive nephropathies. N Engl J Med. 1998 Nov 12;339(20):1448-56.
50 Stahl PJ, Felsen D: Transforming growth factor-beta, basement membrane, and epithelial-mesenchymal transdifferentiation: implications for fibrosis in kidney disease. Am J Pathol. 2001 Oct;159(4):1187-92.

51 Boini KM, Xia M, Xiong J, Li C, Payne LP, Li PL: Implication of CD38 gene in podocyte epithelial-to-mesenchymal transition and glomerular sclerosis. J Cell Mol Med. 2012 Aug;16(8):1674-85. doi: 10.1111/j.1582-4934.2011.01462.x.

52 Sato M, Muragaki Y, Saika S, Roberts AB, Ooshima A: Targeted disruption of TGF-beta1/Smad3 signaling protects against renal tubulointerstitial fibrosis induced by unilateral ureteral obstruction. J Clin Invest. 2003 Nov;112(10):1486-94.

53 McMorrow T, Gaffney MM, Slattery C, Campbell E, Ryan MP: Cyclosporine A induced epithelial-mesenchymal transition in human renal proximal tubular epithelial cells. Nephrol Dial Transplant. 2005 Oct;20(10):2215-25. Epub 2005 Jul 19.

54 Li JH, Wang W, Huang XR, Oldfield M, Schmidt AM, Cooper ME, Lan HY: Advanced glycation end products induce tubular epithelial-myofibroblast transition through the RAGE-ERK1/2 MAP kinase signaling pathway. Am J Pathol. 2004 Apr;164(4):1389-97.

55 Manotham K, Tanaka T, Matsumoto M, Ohse T, Inagi R, Miyata T, Kurokawa K, Fujita T, Ingelfinger JR, Nangaku M: Transdifferentiation of cultured tubular cells induced by hypoxia. Kidney Int. 2004 Mar;65(3):871-80.

56 Rhyu DY, Yang Y, Ha H, Lee GT, Song JS, Uh ST, Lee HB: Role of reactive oxygen species in TGF-beta1-induced mitogen-activated protein kinase activation and epithelial-mesenchymal transition in renal tubular epithelial cells. J Am Soc Nephrol. 2005 Mar;16(3):667-75. Epub 2005 Jan 26.
57 Zhang A, Jia Z, Guo X, Yang T: Aldosterone induces epithelial-mesenchymal transition via ROS of mitochondrial origin. Am J Physiol Renal Physiol. 2007 Sep;293(3):F723-31. Epub 2007 Jun 27.

58 Vesey DA, Cheung CW, Cuttle L, Endre ZA, Gobé G, Johnson DW: Interleukin-1beta induces human proximal tubule cell injury, alpha-smooth muscle actin expression and fibronectin production. Kidney Int. 2002 Jul;62(1):31-40.

59 Zeisberg M, Bonner G, Maeshima Y, Colorado P, Müller GA, Strutz F, Kalluri R: Renal fibrosis: collagen composition and assembly regulates epithelial-mesenchymal transdifferentiation. Am J Pathol. 2001 Oct;159(4):1313-21.

60 Mizushima N, Komatsu M: Autophagy: renovation of cells and tissues. Cell. 2011 Nov 11;147(4):728-41. doi: 10.1016/j.cell.2011.10.026.

61 Johansen T, Lamark T: Selective autophagy mediated by autophagic adapter proteins. Autophagy. 2011 Mar;7(3):279-96.

62 Weidberg H, Shvets E, Elazar Z: Biogenesis and cargo selectivity of autophagosomes. Annu Rev Biochem. 2011;80:125-56. doi: 10.1146/annurev-biochem-052709-094552.

63 Komatsu M, Waguri S, Koike M, Sou YS, Ueno T, Hara T, Mizushima N, Iwata J, Ezaki J, Murata S, Hamazaki J, Nishito Y, Iemura S, Natsume T, Yanagawa T, Uwayama J, Warabi E, Yoshida H, Ishii T, Kobayashi A, Yamamoto M, Yue Z, Uchiyama Y, Kominami E, Tanaka K: Homeostatic levels of p62 control cytoplasmic inclusion body formation in autophagy-deficient mice. Cell. 2007 Dec 14;131(6):1149-63.

64 Johansen T, Lamark T: Selective autophagy mediated by autophagic adapter proteins. Autophagy. 2011 Mar;7(3):279-96.
65 Weidberg H, Shvets E, Elazar Z: Biogenesis and cargo selectivity of autophagosomes. Annu Rev Biochem. 2011;80:125-56. doi: 10.1146/annurev-biochem-052709-094552.

66 Kirkin V, McEwan DG, Novak I, Dikic I: A role for ubiquitin in selective autophagy. Mol Cell. 2009 May 15;34(3):259-69. doi: 10.1016/j.molcel.2009.04.026.

67 Wagner CA, Finberg KE, Breton S, Marshansky V, Brown D, Geibel JP: Renal vacuolar H+-ATPase. Physiol Rev. 2004 Oct;84(4):1263-314.

68 Cipriano DJ, Wang Y, Bond S, Hinton A, Jefferies KC, Qi J, Forgac M: Structure and regulation of the vacuolar ATPases. Biochim Biophys Acta. 2008 Jul-Aug;1777(7-8):599-604. doi: 10.1016/j.bbabio.2008.03.013. Epub 2008 Mar 29.

69 Wang Y, Inoue T, Forgac M: Subunit a of the yeast V-ATPase participates in binding of bafilomycin. J Biol Chem. 2005 Dec 9;280(49):40481-8. Epub 2005 Oct 10.

70 Bowman EJ, Graham LA, Stevens TH, Bowman BJ: The bafilomycin/concanamycin binding site in subunit c of the V-ATPases from Neurospora crassa and Saccharomyces cerevisiae. J Biol Chem. 2004 Aug 6;279(32):33131-8. Epub 2004 Jun 4.

71 Yamamoto A, Tagawa Y, Yoshimori T, Moriyama Y, Masaki R, Tashiro Y: Bafilomycin A1 prevents maturation of autophagic vacuoles by inhibiting fusion between autophagosomes and lysosomes in rat hepatoma cell line, H-4-II-E cells. Cell Struct Funct. 1998 Feb;23(1):33-42.

72 Aplin A, Jasionowski T, Tuttle DL, Lenk SE, Dunn WA Jr: Cytoskeletal elements are required for the formation and maturation of autophagic vacuoles. J Cell Physiol. 1992 Sep;152(3):458-66.

73 Dunn WA Jr: Autophagy and related mechanisms of lysosome-mediated protein degradation. Trends Cell Biol. 1994 Apr;4(4):139-43.
74 Gordon PB, Seglen PO: Prellysosomal convergence of autophagic and endocytic pathways. Biochem Biophys Res Commun. 1988 Feb 29;151(1):40-7.

75 Dunn WA Jr: Studies on the mechanisms of autophagy: maturation of the autophagic vacuole. J Cell Biol. 1990 Jun;110(6):1935-45.

76 Yokota S, Himeno M, Kato K: Formation of autophagosomes during degradation of excess peroxisomes induced by di-(2-ethylhexyl)-phthalate treatment. III. Fusion of early autophagosomes with lysosomal compartments. Eur J Cell Biol. 1995 Jan;66(1):15-24.

77 Clague MJ, Urbé S, Aniento F, Gruenberg J: Vacuolar ATPase activity is required for endosomal carrier vesicle formation. J Biol Chem. 1994 Jan 7;269(1):21-4.

78 Presley JF, Mayor S, McGraw TE, Dunn KW, Maxfield FR: Bafilomycin A1 treatment retards transferrin receptor recycling more than bulk membrane recycling. J Biol Chem. 1997 May 23;272(21):13929-36.

79 Van Weert AW, Dunn KW, Geuze HJ, Maxfield FR, Stoorvogel W: Transport from late endosomes to lysosomes, but not sorting of integral membrane proteins in endosomes, depends on the vacuolar proton pump. J Cell Biol. 1995 Aug;130(4):821-34.

80 Reaves B, Banting G: Vacuolar ATPase inactivation blocks recycling to the trans-Golgi network from the plasma membrane. FEBS Lett. 1994 May 23;345(1):61-6.

81 Oda K, Nishimura Y, Ikehara Y, Kato K: Bafilomycin A1 inhibits the targeting of lysosomal acid hydrolases in cultured hepatocytes. Biochem Biophys Res Commun. 1991 Jul 15;178(1):369-77.

82 Van Deurs B, Holm PK, Sandvig K: Inhibition of the vacuolar H(+)-ATPase with bafilomycin reduces delivery of internalized molecules from mature multivesicular endosomes to lysosomes in HEp-2 cells. Eur J Cell Biol. 1996 Apr;69(4):343-50.
VITA

1. PERSONAL INFORMATION:

1.1 Name: Guangbi Li

1.2 Home Address:
   1103E, 300 West Franklin Street
   Richmond, VA 23220
   Phone: (804) 873-6128

1.3 Office Address:
   Virginia Commonwealth University
   Department of Pharmacology & Toxicology
   MMRB, 3rd Floor, Room 3055
   1220 East Broad Street
   Richmond, VA 23298-0613
   Phone: 804-628-4507
   Fax: 804-828-4794
   E-mail: gli6@vcu.edu

2. EDUCATION:

2009-2013  B.A., Bioengineering
           Wuchang University of Technology, China
2014-      M.S. candidate, Pharmacology and Toxicology
           Virginia Commonwealth University, Richmond VA

3. BIBLIOGRAPHY:

3.1 Papers Published

1 Xiong J, Xia M, Xu M, Zhang Y, Abais JM, Li G, Riebling CR, Ritter JK, Boini KM, Li PL. Autophagy maturation associated with CD38-mediated regulation of lysosome function in mouse glomerular podocytes. *J Cell Mol Med.* 17(12):1598-607, 2013. PMCID: PMC3914646

2 Abais JM, Xia M, Li G, Gehr T, Boini KM, Li PL. Contribution of endogenously produced reactive oxygen species to the activation of podocyte NLRP3 inflammasomes in hyperhomocysteinemia. *Free Radic Biol Med.* 16;67C:211-220, 2014. PMCID: PMC3945111

3 Boini KM, Xia M, Abais JM, Li G, Pitzer AL, Gehr TW, Zhang Y, Li PL. Activation of inflammasomes in podocyte injury of mice on the high fat diet: Effects of ASC gene deletion and silencing. *Biochim Biophys Acta.* 1843(5):836-45, 2014. PMCID: PMC3986924

4 Abais JM, Xia M, Li G, Chen Y, Conley SM, Gehr TW, Boini KM, Li PL. Nod-like
receptor protein 3 (NLRP3) inflammasome activation and podocyte injury via thioredoxin-interacting protein during hyperhomocysteinemia. *J Biol Chem.* 289(39):27159-27168, 2014. PMCID: PMC4175351

5 Xia M, Conley SM, Li G, Li PL, Boini KM. Inhibition of hyperhomocysteinemia-induced inflammasome activation and glomerular sclerosis by NLRP3 gene deletion. *Cell Physiol Biochem.* 34(3):829-841, 2014. PMCID: in process.

6 Li G, Li CX, Xia M, Ritter JK, Gehr TW, Boini KM, Li PL. Enhanced epithelial-to-mesenchymal transition associated with lysosome dysfunction in podocytes: role of p62/Sequestosome 1 as a signaling hub. *Cell Physiol Biochem*. PMCID: in process.

3.2 Abstracts

7 Li G, Li C, Xia M, Abais JM, Boini KM, Ritter JK, Li PL. Enhanced Epithelial-to-Mesenchymal Transition Associated with Lysosome Dysfunction in Podocytes: Role of p62/Sequestosome 1 as a Signaling Hub. *FASEB J* 29: 2015 (submitted).

8 Bao JX, Li G, Li X, Pitzer AL, Zhang Y, Li PL. Contribution of P62 to the Phenotype Transition of Coronary Arterial Myocytes from Mice Lacking CD38 Gene. *FASEB J* 29: 2015 (submitted).

9 Boini KM, Xia M, Conley SM, Li G, Gehr TW, Li PL. Prevention of High Fat-induced Podocyte Injury and Glomerular Sclerosis in Mice Lacking Nod-like Receptor Protein 3: Role of Inflammasome Extinction. *FASEB J* 29: 2015 (submitted).