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UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA, SAN DIEGO

**Isolation and Characterization of Neuronal Substrates of the
Ubiquitin Proteasome System**

A dissertation submitted in partial satisfaction of the requirements for

the degree Doctor of Philosophy

in

Biology

by

Jeffrey McCartney Keil

Committee in charge:

Professor Gentry Patrick, Chair
Professor Michael Burkart
Professor Randolph Hampton
Professor Terunaga Nakagawa
Professor Yimin Zou

2011

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The dissertation of Jeffrey McCartney Keil is approved, and it is acceptable in quality and form for publication on microfilm and electronically:

Chair

University of California, San Diego

2011

DEDICATION

To my loving parents, Richard and Mary, who made this all possible.

EPIGRAPH

*You could tell by the way he talked, though, that he had gone
to school a long time. That was probably what was wrong with him.*

John Kennedy Toole (A Confederacy of Dunces)

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Most importantly, I need to give an immeasurable thanks to the wonderful friends and family who have been with me along the way. Without their encouragement and support, I would have surely succumbed to the abyss that is graduate school.

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Chapter III, in part, contains material previously published in Keil, JM, Shen Z, Briggs SP, Patrick GP. (2010). Regulation of STIM1 and SOCE by the ubiquitin proteasome system (UPS). *PloS One*. 5(10):e13465.,

VITA AND PUBLICATIONS

2003 Bachelor of Science, The University of Illinois, Urbana-Champaign
2003-2004 Research Technician, The University of Illinois, Urbana-Champaign
2004-2011 Graduate Student, University of California, San Diego
2011 Doctor of Philosophy, University of California, San Diego

Keil JM, Shen Z, Briggs SP, Patrick GN. Regulation of STIM1 and SOCE by the Ubiquitin Proteasome System (UPS). *PLoS One*. 2010 Oct 18;5(10):e13465

ABSTRACT OF THE DISSERTATION

Isolation and Characterization of Neuronal Substrates of the Ubiquitin Proteasome System

by

Jeffrey McCartney Keil

Doctor of Philosophy in Biology

University of California, San Diego, 2011

Professor Gentry Patrick, Chair

The covalent attachment of ubiquitin to proteins is one of the most common regulatory mechanisms in mammalian cells. It regulates numerous cellular processes through a combination of proteolytic and non-proteolytic forms of ubiquitination. In a neuronal context, the UPS has long been implicated in a variety of neurological disorders,

and more recently, in normal neuronal function. Given the potential importance of the UPS in a neuronal framework, a logical step towards better understanding the scope of its function in neurons would involve an examination of the neuronal targets of the UPS. This research began with a large-scale identification of ubiquitinated, neuronal proteins. Using transgenic, His-6-ubiquitin tagged mice, in combination with denaturing nickel-affinity chromatography, we were able to specifically enrich for large amounts of ubiquitinated proteins. We identified over 385 unique proteins, of which 278 passed stringent filters of potential false-positives. With an approximate proteome of 1200 proteins, we concluded that at least 25% of all synaptic proteins were ubiquitinated at a detectable level. Following the screen, I conducted a more in-depth analysis of the more interesting targets. One of the more promising candidates identified was stromal interaction molecule 1 (STIM1). Characterization of neuronal STIM1 revealed that it was expressed throughout development with stable levels of expression in mature neurons. Furthermore, subpopulations of STIM1 were identified on the surface of hippocampal neurons. Ectopically expressed STIM1 rapidly redistributed into punctate clusters in response to thapsigargin (TG)-induced store-depletion. Proteasome inhibitors significantly increase surface STIM1 levels and peak Ca^{2+} influx upon TG-induced SOCE. Additionally, overexpression of POSH, an E3 ligase, leads to a decrease in STIM1 surface populations. Together, these results provide compelling evidence for previously undescribed roles of the ubiquitin-proteasome system (UPS) in the regulation of STIM1 and SOCE function. Examination of neuronal Rac1-GEF, kalirin-5, reveals that its stability is affected by CamKII and PP1/2 activity, in a proteasome-dependent

manner. The role of kalirin-5 in the brain is yet unknown, but UPS-mediated regulation may provide a platform from which to pursue future studies.

Chapter I

Isolation and Identification of Novel, Synaptic Substrates of the Ubiquitin Proteasome System

INTRODUCTION

Since its discovery, the ubiquitin-proteasome system (UPS) has been shown to play a critical role in eukaryotic cells. Both degradative and non-degradative forms of ubiquitination have been implicated in a myriad of cellular processes. Depending on the topology of the ubiquitin chain, changes in protein stability, interaction, and localization can be effected (Hochstrasser, 2006). In a neuronal context, the UPS has long been implicated in a variety of neurological disorders. More recently, it has been shown to play a key role aside from neuronal dysfunction (Patrick, 2006; Yi and Ehlers, 2007). The UPS is critical for both the proper function of developing neurons, as well as synaptic viability and plasticity in mature neurons. Given the emerging importance of UPS in a neuronal framework, a logical step towards better understanding the scope of this interplay would involve an examination of the neuronal targets of the UPS.

Protein modification via the covalent attachment of ubiquitin is one of the most common regulatory processes in mammalian cells (See Review by Pickart, 2004) (Pickart, 2004). Classically, ubiquitination is a process whereby target proteins can be marked for degradation by the proteasome. It is a multi-step enzymatic process, using three classes of enzymes (E1s, E2s, and E3s), and involves the sequential transfer of ubiquitin from these enzymes to a lysine residue on the target protein. Both degradative and non-degradative forms of ubiquitination have been implicated in a myriad of cellular processes. Depending on the topology of the ubiquitin chain, changes in protein stability, interaction, and localization can be effected (Hochstrasser, 2006). Specificity of the ubiquitination reaction depends on the later steps of the ubiquitination process. There are a significant but limited number of ubiquitin-carrier enzymes (E2s), and a much larger

number of ubiquitin ligases (E3s). Thus, the ubiquitination enzymes form a hierarchical cascade, where the substrate specificity of the overall ubiquitination reaction depends on the specific E2s and E3s that pair up to ubiquitinate the substrate. In a neuronal context, the UPS has long been implicated in a variety of neurological disorders. More recently, it has been shown to play a key role in normal neuronal function (Patrick, 2006; Yi and Ehlers, 2007). The UPS is critical for both the proper function of developing neurons, as well as synaptic viability and plasticity in mature neurons (DiAntonio, 2004; Patrick, 2006). Several studies have identified key synaptic proteins in mammals that are regulated in a UPS-dependent manner (Colledge et al., 2003; Ehlers, 2003; Hoogenraad et al., 2007; Lee et al., 2008; Pak and Sheng, 2003; Yao et al., 2007). Given the emerging importance of the UPS in a neuronal framework, a logical step towards better understanding the scope of its function in neurons and at synapses would involve an examination of the neuronal targets of the UPS.

Modern mass spectrometry approaches have provided tractability regarding detection and mapping of covalent modifications from large, complex mixtures of proteins. Of the nearly 300 different types of post translational modifications (PTMs), mass spectrometry is one of the few ways poised to identify a large portion of them (Witze et al., 2007). Phosphorylation, acetylation, and more recently, ubiquitination, have become common modifications sought out in mass spectrometry screens. Identifying ubiquitinated residues can be especially challenging. One of the many caveats pertains to the signature Gly-Gly dipeptide created following tryptic digest of the ubiquitin's C-terminus (Marotti et al., 2002), and the fact that cleavage can be suppressed at Gly-Gly-coupled lysines (Peng et al., 2003b). After parsing out identification errors

resulting from tryptic anomalies, the next hurdle to overcome when identifying endogenous ubiquitinated proteins is abundance. For any given protein, the relative abundance of the modified species is only a fraction of the total amount(Peng, 2008) . This issue is partially overcome as mass spectrometry-based technologies achieve subfemtomolar sensitivity(Yates, 2004). However, for proper identification of most ubiquitinated proteins, enrichment strategies must be employed. Typically, these include the use of ubiquitin-binding proteins or epitope-tagged ubiquitin that is overexpressed in the organism of interest(Kirkpatrick et al., 2005a). Peng et al. 2003, describe a method using 6xHis-ubiquitin expressing yeast and liquid chromatography coupled to tandem mass spectrometry (LC/LC-MS/MS) to perform one of the first large-scale screens for ubiquitinated proteins(Peng et al., 2003b). The 6xHis-tagged ubiquitin allowed them to utilize denaturing conditions, and thus greatly limit the amount of non-specific hits. Moreover, parallel analysis of untagged yeast lysates established the background levels of endogenous proteins capable of complexing the nickel-affinity beads. In addition, the chromatography step of LC/LC-MS/MS was spread out over 120 hours, thus allowing for a longer analysis time and a greater number of peptides to be sequenced.

As mentioned earlier, neuronal proteomics provides a valuable platform from which to examine both normal neuronal physiology, as well as neuronal dysfunction. Specifically, the so-called neuronal communication-centers, or synapses, are of particular interest. Pocklington et al., 2006 outlined four major reasons for examining the proteins that comprise the synapse:

- I. *It is the most important structure for communication between nerve cells.*

II. The neurotransmitter receptors and signal transduction machinery within the synapse respond to patterns of electrical activity and instigate biochemical changes in the nerve cell and in so doing modify the brain in response to behavioural experience.

III. Synapse proteins correspond to many human disease genes and drug targets for therapeutics that modulate cognitive illnesses.

IV. Synapse proteomic studies have compiled a first draft of the protein composition of the synapse, revealing an unexpectedly high degree of molecular complexity. (Pocklington et al., 2006a)

Synaptic proteomics often utilize purified synaptic preparations, or synaptosomes (Carlin et al., 1980; Cheng et al., 2006; Cho et al., 1992; Collins et al., 2005; Pocklington et al., 2006b; Schrimpf et al., 2005; Whittaker et al., 1964). These artificial organelles, derived from differential density gradient centrifugation, contain complete pre- and post-synaptic terminals, along with mitochondria and synaptic vesicles. Mass spectrometry analyses of the mammalian synaptosome, estimate synaptic proteome at approximately 1100 proteins (Grant, 2006; Schrimpf et al., 2005). As the number of potential proteins to be identified increases, so does the amount of separation and enrichment needed to isolate the post-translationally modified species (Witze et al., 2007). To provide the best possible opportunity to identify the majority of ubiquitinated proteins in the mammalian synapse, a strategy similar to Peng et al., 2003 would need to be employed (Peng et al., 2003b). Transgenic expression of tagged-ubiquitin within a mammalian system, combined with tandem LC-MS/MS approaches will provide the respective enrichment and sensitivity

required to map the synaptic ubiquitinome. In 2001, Tsirigotis et al. developed a tractable mammalian expression system. Similar to the yeast system, a 6xHis-tagged ubiquitin was expressed under the human UbC promoter in a number of tissues, including the brain(Tsirigotis et al., 2001).

Any large-scale screen for ubiquitinated proteins has a number of downstream caveats. Assuming that non-specific hits are minimized, remaining issues such as ubiquitin-site fidelity, ubiquitin topology, and target abundance still must be overcome(Peng, 2008). Although there may be a preferred site, ubiquitination is often promiscuous, with proteins containing multiple lysines capable of accepting ubiquitin (Danielsen et al., 2010). It is of great interest to know the topology of a particular ubiquitin chain, as this informs the fate of the protein. In addition to a N-terminal amine group, there are seven lysines on ubiquitin available for chain elongation – K6, K11, K27, K29, K33, K48, K63(Kirkpatrick et al., 2006; Pickart and Eddins, 2004; Xu and Peng, 2008). The classic poly-ubiquitin linkage, K48, typically marks a protein for degradation by the proteasome (Li and Ye, 2008). K63-linked polyubiquitination, well-established as a regulatory mechanism in NF- κ B signaling, plays a greater role in non-proteasomal processes, such as trafficking, protein-protein interactions, and autophagy(Hayden and Ghosh, 2008; Ikeda and Dikic, 2008; Tan et al., 2008; Wooten et al., 2008). Identifying the type of ubiquitin linkage, or chain topology, can be intensive in terms of both cost and time. There are strategies involving the use of linkage specific antibodies and stable isotope labeling of internal linkage standards, but these are not always practical for large-scale screens (Denis et al., 2007; Flick et al., 2004; Newton et al., 2008). In an attempt to maximize the number of substrates identified, while

balancing issues of cost and feasibility, we utilized a genetic and proteomic approach that combines aspects of the aforementioned strategies listed above. As a result, we have isolated and identified a large cohort of novel neuronal substrates of the UPS.

RESULTS

Identification of ubiquitinated proteins from synaptic enriched rat brain fractions

In order to better understand the capacity of UPS function at synapses we developed a genetic and proteomic approach to isolate and identify ubiquitinated proteins (Fig. 1A). Crude washed synaptosomal membrane fractions (P2') were isolated using standard differential and density gradient fractionation methodologies (Carlin et al., 1980; Cho et al., 1992) from whole brain tissues of mice expressing a hexahistidine-tagged ubiquitin GFP fusion transgene under the human UbC promoter (Tg-Ub mice). Cleavage of the fusion protein by endogenous enzymes produced moderate to high levels of the epitope-tagged ubiquitin that is detected both in monomeric form and conjugated to cellular proteins (Tsirigotis et al., 2001). Compared to other synaptic fractions examined, P2 synaptosomal lysates provided an optimum level of synaptic enrichment, while still producing a significant amount of total protein (data not shown). To isolate ubiquitinated proteins from the Tg-Ub synaptosomal fractions we used nickel affinity chromatography under denaturing conditions. Similar fractions from non-transgenic mice were used to control for non-specific binding of proteins to NiNTA resin. Eluted proteins were then precipitated, solubilized, digested and then subjected to tandem mass spectrometry (LC-MS/MS) (See methods section for complete details of the mass spectrometry methods). The raw data was extracted and searched using Spectrum Mill (Agilnet). The resulting MS/MS spectra were filtered and searched against the International Protein Index mouse protein database (version 3.14). To verify that the purification methods were efficient we resolved a sample of the eluted proteins on SDS-PAGE and probed the blot with anti-ubiquitin antibodies. While similar amounts of

ubiquitin immunoreactivity were found in the lysates from non-transgenic and Tg-Ub samples, we observed ubiquitin immunoreactivity (monomeric and conjugated forms) primarily in Tg-Ub samples purified by nickel-affinity chromatography (Fig. 1B). Any non-specific binding would be accounted for downstream following the LC-MS/MS.

Using the spectral abundance of each identified protein from non-transgenic and Tg-Ub samples, we calculated the normalized Tg/WT spectral ratio. Figure 2 is a graphical plot depicting the Tg/WT spec ratio plotted against percent peptide coverage. We considered identified proteins with greater than 10% peptide coverage and a Tg/WT spec ratio greater than 2 to be a synaptic candidate ubiquitinated protein (synCUP) (Fig. 2). Several identified proteins with these criteria have been reported to be ubiquitinated in the literature (Fig. 2 and data not shown). Indeed, the protein identified with the highest Tg/WT spec ratio was ubiquitin, which further corroborated our isolation, identification, and group assignment strategies (Fig. 2). Initially, 911 non-redundant proteins were identified by LC-MS/MS. After filtering out proteins identified in a reverse database lookup, as well as duplicate entries, a total of 385 distinct proteins were identified by the screen; filtering out any target with less than 10% peptide coverage or a Tg/WT below 2, resulted in 279 synaptic ubiquitinated proteins. Functional classification of the top 279 proteins reveals that a wide variety of processes overlap with the ubiquitin proteasome system (Fig. 3). Candidate proteins were classified according the DAVID functional ontology analysis(Huang da et al., 2009a; Huang da et al., 2009b). Table 2 lists the top 40 proteins, as ranked by Tg/WT spectral ratio. At the time of the screen, over half of the top 40 had previously been identified as ubiquitinated (data not shown). Both mono and polyubiquitinated proteins were readily identified in the screen. Smad4

(number 2 on the Top 40), has been shown to be mono-ubiquitinated by a number of groups (Wang et al., 2008)(Table 1). More recently, the O-GlcNAcase, OGT (#12), was shown to be polyubiquitinated and degraded by the proteasome(Daou et al., 2011). STIM1, the focus of research expounded upon in Chapter 2, resides at number 35 on the list (Table 2). A complete list of unfiltered, non-redundant proteins can be found in Table 3. Most of the hits, either due to matches found in the reverse database or because of low spectral occurrence (i.e. less than 2 hits), are suspect. However, it is also possible that the population of ubiquitinated species of those particular proteins is incredibly low.

The initial screen for ubiquitinated proteins did not readily inform the type or context of ubiquitination. The ultimate goal when studying the role of the ubiquitin proteasome system in neuronal function is to place ubiquitination within a neuronal-specific activity or developmental paradigm. The most tractable paradigm, in terms of UPS function, is the proteasome-dependent stability of neuronal substrates. Simply looking for a change in ubiquitinated proteins or protein levels in the context of proteasome function is relatively straightforward. Application of any number of commercially available, validated proteasome inhibitors to neurons prior to isolation of ubiquitinated proteins, in theory, should allow for the identification of potential targets of the proteasome. Moreover, it is of great interest to know what type of ubiquitination is occurring. Since targeting of ubiquitinated proteins requires non-K63-linked chains of 4 or more ubiquitins, which are also often K48-linked, then strategies isolating proteasomal-dependent targets can be quite informative(Pickart, 2004). Regarding type of ubiquitination, there are a number of methods that can be coupled with mass spectrometry to identify number and linkage type (see review by (Peng, 2008). One

simple method, using the ubiquitin binding properties of the 19S cap of the proteasome (S5A) allows for purification of poly-ubiquitin proteins that are presumably destined for proteasomal degradation (Deveraux et al., 1994; Glickman et al., 1999; Layfield et al., 2001). Also, the use of rat primary cortical cultures as the source of ubiquitinated material made it possible to directly perturb the cells, and thus examine possible contextual effectors of ubiquitination. Beginning with very basic perturbations, either vehicle alone or proteasome inhibition (MG-132), we prepared P2 fractions and precipitated poly-ubiquitinated proteins using GST-S5A affinity purification. Precipitates were analyzed via Mudpit LC-MS/MS, a mass spectrometry technique that is useful for identifying proteins from large, complex mixtures (Delahunty and Yates, 2007; Washburn et al., 2001). As expected, immunoblot analysis of the lysates and precipitates revealed that a marked increase in total poly-ubiquitin conjugates did not translate into a difference in ubiquitin conjugates isolated by S5A affinity purification (Fig. 4, left panels). Between the two conditions, there was no difference in total lysates, as determined by the non-proteasomal target GluR1 immunoblot, or silver stain (Fig. 4, middle and right panels). Moreover, the total amount of protein precipitated appeared similar, as indicated by both silver stain and ubiquitin immunoblots of S5A eluates (Fig. 3, left panel). This suggests that the S5A beads were saturated in both conditions, and the total amount of ubiquitinated proteins identified by mass spectrometry should be similar. Therefore, any difference between individual ubiquitinated species identified should indicate which proteins are rapidly turned over by the proteasome.

Table 4 lists the top 50 hits obtained via the directed screen for synaptic, proteasomal dependent, poly-ubiquitinated proteins. The list is sorted by spectrum count,

an approximation of abundance. Polyubiquitin is in the top 2 for both lists, demonstrating the efficacy of the screen for isolating polyubiquitinated proteins. Moreover, the MG-132 inhibited samples showed higher spectrum (more than double) counts for polyubiquitin and other ubiquitin complexes (Table 4). Unfortunately, examination of other proteins did not reveal much difference between treatments. A scatterplot of the top 150 targets identified within MG-132 and DMSO treated samples shows a high degree of overlap between the two treatments. A linear regression model was fit to the data, and the P-value, testing the null hypothesis that the slope of the line is zero, and thus there is no correlation between the two, was less than 10^{-16} (Fig. 5). With only one round of isolation and identification, no significance can be applied to the results, and thus all observations are predominantly qualitative. What the data does suggest is that the purification scheme works, in that it can efficiently isolate polyubiquitinated proteins. In both treatments, over a 1000 different proteins were identified that had greater than 2 spectral hits (data not shown). There is a great chance that a vast majority of these are true, polyubiquitinated proteins. Due to what is undoubtedly a large, endogenous baseline of polyubiquitinated proteins, this particular method experiences rapid saturation and subsequent loss of precision. Accordingly, no major differences between mock or proteasome-inhibited samples could be identified. Examination of global changes in proteasomal-dependent poly-ubiquitination will require a more quantitative and precise approach.

DISCUSSION

In this study, we developed and implemented methodologies to identify neuronal substrates of the ubiquitin proteasome system (UPS). The initial impetus behind the series of screens that were performed was to understand the scope and composition of ubiquitinated species at the synapse. Accordingly, knowledge of specific UPS substrates should provide platforms from which studies on both normal neuronal physiology and dysfunction could be conducted. Both screens identified a large number of potential substrates of the UPS. The initial screen, employing a genetic and proteomic approach, was indiscriminate in terms of the types of ubiquitinated proteins identified. Both mono and poly-ubiquitinated proteins were precipitated; and presumably, all types of ubiquitin linkages were also present in ratios corresponding to their endogenous proportions. As a result, downstream analysis of individual targets was not as informed as would be the case with more directed screens. Indeed, both mono and poly-ubiquitinated targets, such as STIM1 and Kalirin-7, respectively, were validated in secondary analyses (Fig. 5A and Fig. 18A). The unfiltered, non-redundant proteins numbered over 900 (data not shown), and the estimated synaptic proteome is 1100 proteins (Schimpf et al., 2005). It should be noted that over 500 of these proteins only had a single spectral hit. Thus, many of these peptides could merely be the result of non-specific binding or improper matches to the protein database. An optimistic conclusion is that the vast majority of synaptic proteins are ubiquitinated. This is actually a reasonable assertion, when viewed from a cellular housekeeping point of view. The UPS is a major quality control pathway within the cell, and at some level, most proteins will undergo ubiquitin mediated degradation eventually.

Even with the conservative estimate of 279 ubiquitinated proteins out of 1100, the scope of the ubiquitin proteasome's role in neuronal function is unquestionable. Indeed, recent work has begun to crystallize the importance the UPS plays in neuronal function and plasticity (Bingol and Sheng, 2011) (Mabb and Ehlers, 2010; Patrick, 2006).

The functional diversity of proteins identified within the screen was large. Kinase/phosphatase pathways represented one of the largest functional groups to appear in the screen, with nearly 13% of all filtered targets falling within this category (Fig 3). Neuronal function depends on the balance of phosphorylation and de-phosphorylation of synaptic proteins (Lee, 2006; Lisman, 1985; Mansuy and Shenolikar, 2006; Wayman et al., 2008). Regulating the stoichiometry of kinases and phosphatases through regulated proteolysis is one way to affect this balance. Moreover, non-proteolytic regulation of kinase/phosphatase cascades has also been shown (Skaug et al., 2009). This data suggests there is likely a large, dynamic interplay between the ubiquitin proteasome system and phosphorylation with regards to neuronal function.

Another functional group that contained a number of promising targets was the actin cytoskeleton group (Fig 3). Actin cytoskeletal dynamics are of great importance in neurobiology because they comprise the structural determinants for synaptic function and plasticity (Cingolani and Goda, 2008; Dent et al., 2010; Dillon and Goda, 2005). The underlying molecular basis for neuronal actin regulation is not yet fully known. Regulation of effectors of actin dynamics, either in terms of stability or function, presents an attractive avenue for future target-based studies. In addition to actin itself, various actin regulators, such as Kalirin, neural specific F-actin binding protein, and various RhoGEFs were identified as candidate ubiquitinated proteins (Lee and Dominguez,

2010). The connection between the UPS and the actin cytoskeleton is examined in greater detail in chapter 3. From this mass spectrometry screen, the major conclusion that can be drawn is that there are a number of effectors of neuronal cytoskeleton dynamics which may be ubiquitinated.

With only one round performed, this screen does leave a bit of doubt regarding the fidelity of the entire list. To date, all targets that have been examined in greater detail have proven to indeed be ubiquitinated. As mentioned earlier, both mono and poly-ubiquitinated substrates have been validated. There would be no reason to assume preference for either type of modification. In either case, thorough downstream investigations and validation will be required. Until replicates are obtained, the most prudent use of the putative targets will focus on the top 300, as they have relatively high sequence coverage and Tg/WT ratios (Table 3). As a first approximation, this screen was quite successful. It provided a large list from which to work, and also highlighted many of the shortcomings of screens of this type. Future screens could benefit by increasing the specificity of the purification and identification. Additional information pertaining to linkage location, type, and abundance on potential targets would ease downstream investigations greatly. In fact, recent screens for ubiquitinated proteins have employed novel methods using linkage specific antibodies and isotopically-labeled internal standards to isolate and quantify ubiquitinated proteins and prospective modified sites (Newton et al., 2008; Xu et al., 2010).

In an attempt to remedy some of the drawbacks of the first screen, we tested an approach that was intended to identify a specific type of ubiquitinated protein – namely, K48-linked poly-ubiquitin conjugated proteins. Given the fact that the initial screen

suggests there is widespread neuronal ubiquitination, we wanted to establish a method that could also uncover context-specific ubiquitination. As such, we also used primary cultures, which were amenable to various perturbations. Using GST-S5A, we were able to efficiently purify poly-ubiquitinated proteins from rat neuronal cultures (Fig. 4). Unfortunately, the poly-ubiquitinated proteins identified by LC-MS/MS did not vary between treatments (Table 4 and Figure 5). The problem that we encountered was two-fold: (a) the GST-S5A beads were saturated at a relatively low amount of total protein, and (b) the baseline levels of ubiquitinated proteins were so high that proteasome inhibition alone could not uncover proteasome-dependent, ubiquitinated substrates. Although it was expected that the beads would be saturated, we assumed that a cohort of proteins would accumulate in a proteasome-dependent manner at levels above other proteins. It must also be noted that if proteasome inhibition cannot enrich for detectable differences in poly-ubiquitinated proteins, then it suggests that other perturbations will certainly not overcome the signal-to-noise present with this method. Newer methods employing internal isotopic standards would allow for a more quantitative comparison of treatments. However, overcoming the saturating levels of poly-ubiquitinated proteins will likely require scaling up the purification.

Chapter I, in part, contains material previously published in Keil, JM, Shen Z, Briggs SP, Patrick GP. (2010). Regulation of STIM1 and SOCE by the ubiquitin proteasome system (UPS). *PLoS One*. 5(10):e13465.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Detailed mass spectrometry methodology (Screen 1)

Protein pellets were solubilized in 100uL of 1% RapiGest (Waters) and 50mM NH_4HCO_3 (pH8). The proteins were reduced and alkylated using 2 mM Tris(2-carboxyethyl)phosphine (Fisher, AC36383) at 95°C for 5 minutes and 5 mM iodoacetamide (Fisher, AC12227) at 37°C in dark for 30 minutes, respectively. The proteins were digested with 1 ug trypsin (Roche, 03 708 969 001) overnight. HCl was added to the mixture to precipitate RapiGest (pH1.4). Sample was incubated at 4°C overnight and then centrifuged at 16.1Kg for 15 minutes. Supernatant was collected and passed through a 0.22uM spin filter. The cleared solution was subject to Nano-LC-MS/MS analysis.

Automated 2D nanoflow LC-MS/MS analysis was performed using LTQ tandem mass spectrometer (Thermo Electron Corporation, San Jose, CA) employing automated data-dependent acquisition. An Agilent 1100 HPLC system (Agilent Technologies, Wilmington, DE) was used to deliver a flow rate of 300 nL min⁻¹ to the mass spectrometer through a splitter. Chromatographic separation was accomplished using a 3 phase capillary column. Using an in-house constructed pressure cell, 5um Zorbax SB-C18 (Agilent) packing material was packed into a fused silica capillary tubing (200µm ID, 360 um OD, 20 cm long) to form the first dimension RP column (RP1). A similar column (200µm ID, 5 cm long) packed with 5 um PolySulfoethyl (PolyLC) packing material was used as the SCX column. A zero dead volume 1µm filter (Upchurch, M548) was attached to the exit of each column for column packing and connecting. A fused silica capillary (100µm ID, 360 um OD, 20 cm long) packed with 5um Zorbax SB-C18

(Agilent) packing material was used as the analytical column (RP2). One end of the fused silica tubing was pulled to a sharp tip with the ID smaller than 1 μ m using a laser puller (Sutter P-2000) as the electro-spray tip. The peptide mixtures were loaded onto the RP1 column using the same in-house pressure cell. Peptides were first eluted from RP1 column to SCX column using a 0 to 80% acetonitrile gradient for 150 minutes. Then the peptides were fractionated by the SCX column using a series of 8 salt gradients (20mM, 30mM, 40mM, 50mM, 60mM, 80mM, 100mM, 1M ammonium acetate for 20 minutes), followed by high resolution reverse phase separation using an acetonitrile gradient of 0 to 80% for 120 minutes.

Spectra were acquired on LTQ linear ion trap tandem mass spectrometers (Thermo Electron Corporation, San Jose, CA) employing automated, data-dependent acquisition. The mass spectrometer was operated in positive ion mode with a source temperature of 150 °C. As a final fractionation step, gas phase separation in the ion trap was employed to separate the peptides into 3 mass classes prior to scanning; the full MS scan range was divided into 3 smaller scan ranges (300-800, 800-1100, and 1100-2000 Da) to improve dynamic range. Each MS scan was followed by 4 MS/MS scans of the most intense ions from the parent MS scan. A dynamic exclusion of 1 minute was used to improve the duty cycle.

The raw data was extracted and searched using Spectrum Mill (Agilnet, version A.03.02). MS/MS spectra with a sequence tag length of 1 or less were considered as poor spectra and discarded. The rest of the MS/MS spectra were searched against the IPI (International Protein Index) mouse protein database (version 3.14). The enzyme parameter was limited to full tryptic peptides with a maximum miscleavage of 1. All

other search parameters were set to SpectrumMill's default settings (carbamidomethylation of cysteines, +/- 2.5 Da for precursor ions, +/- 0.7 Da for fragment ions, and a minimum matched peak intensity of 50%). A concatenated forward-reverse database was constructed to calculate the in-situ false discovery rate (FDR). A total of 3,031 IPI proteins from the forward database were identified, while 102 proteins (3% protein FDR) from the reverse database were identified. Proteins with the same set or subsets of unique peptides were grouped into protein groups to minimize protein redundancy. There were 911 and 26 protein groups (3% FDR) identified from forward and reverse database, respectively.

Table 1. Filtering Criteria for autovalidation of database search results.

mode	Protein score	1+ peptide	2+ peptide	3+ peptide
Protein Details	>20	>9, >50%	>9, >50%	>11, >50%
Peptide	NA	>13, >50%	>13, >50%	>15, >50%

Detailed mass spectrometry methodology (Screen 2)

Sample Preparation

The precipitate was resuspended in 8 M Urea with ProteasMAX (Promega, Madison, WI, USA) per the manufacturer's instruction. The samples were subsequently reduced by 20 minute incubation with 5mM TCEP (*tris*(2 carboxyethyl)phosphine) at room temperature and alkylated in the dark by treatment with 1mM 2-Chloroacetamide for 20 additional minutes. The proteins were digested over-night at 37 degrees with Sequencing Grade Modified Trypsin (Promega, Madison, WI, USA) and the reaction was stopped by acidification.

Multidimensional Protein Identification Technology (MudPIT) and LTQ Orbitrap Mass Spectrometry

The protein digest was pressure-loaded onto a 250-- μ m i.d capillary packed with 2.5cm of 10- μ m Jupiter C18 resin (Phenomenex, Torrance, CA, USA) followed by an additional 2.5cm of 5- μ m Partisphere strong cation exchanger (Whatmann, Clifton, NJ). The column was washed with buffer containing 95% water, 5% acetonitrile, and 0.1% formic acid. After washing, a 100-- μ m i.d capillary with a 5- μ m pulled tip packed with 15 cm 4- μ m Jupiter C18 resin (Phenomenex, Torrance, CA, USA) was attached to the filter union and the entire split-column (desalting column--filter union--analytical column) was placed inline with an Agilent 1200 quaternary HPLC (Palo Alto, CA) and analyzed using a modified 5-step separation described previously(Washburn et al., 2001). The buffer solutions used were 5% acetonitrile/0.1% formic acid (buffer A), 80%

acetonitrile/0.1% formic acid (buffer B), and 500 mM ammonium acetate/5% acetonitrile/0.1% formic acid (buffer C). Step 1 consisted of a 80 min gradient from 0-100% buffer B. Steps 2-4 had a similar profile except 5 min of 100% buffer A, 3 min of X% buffer C, a 10 min gradient from 0-15% buffer B, and a 108 min gradient from 15-100% buffer B. The 5 min buffer C percentages (X) were 40, 70, 100% respectively for the 4-step analysis. As peptides eluted from the microcapillary column, they were electrosprayed directly into an *LTQ Orbitrap* XL mass spectrometer (Thermo Finnigan, Palo Alto, CA) with the application of a distal 2.4 kV spray voltage. A cycle of one full-scan mass spectrum (400-1600 m/z) followed by 5 data dependent MS/MS spectra at a 35% normalized collision energy was repeated continuously throughout each step of the multidimensional separation. Application of mass spectrometer scan functions and HPLC solvent gradients were controlled by the Xcaliber data system.

Analysis of Tandem Mass Spectra

MS/MS spectra were analyzed using the following software analysis protocol. Poor quality spectra were removed from the dataset using an automated spectral quality assessment algorithm (Bern et al., 2004). MS/MS spectra remaining after filtering were searched with the ProLuCID algorithm against the **EBI-IPI_Human_3_30_06-28-2007** concatenated to a decoy database in which the sequence for each entry in the original database was reversed (Peng et al., 2003a). All searches were parallelized and performed on a Beowulf computer cluster consisting of 100 1.2GHz Athlon CPUs (Sadygov et al., 2002). Searches were performed with Cysteine carbamidomethylation as a fixed modification and Lysine acetylation was searched as a differential modification with an additional mass of 383.2281 and 114.0429 Da. ProLuCID (Eng, 1994) results were

assembled and filtered using the DTASelect (version 2.0) program(Tabb et al., 2002). DTASelect 2.0 uses a linear discriminate analysis to dynamically set XCorr and DeltaCN thresholds for the entire dataset to achieve a user-specified false positive rate (5% in this analysis). The false positive rates are estimated by the program from the number and quality of spectral matches to the decoy database. Confidence for modifications was estimated from overlapping modified peptides as described previously(MacCoss et al., 2002). Only peptides with at least 1 tryptic termini were considered. Confidence for modifications was estimated from overlapping modified peptides as described previously(MacCoss et al., 2002). The validity of peptide/spectrum matches was assessed using the SEQUEST-defined parameters, cross-correlation score (XCorr), and normalized difference in cross-correlation scores (DeltaCn).

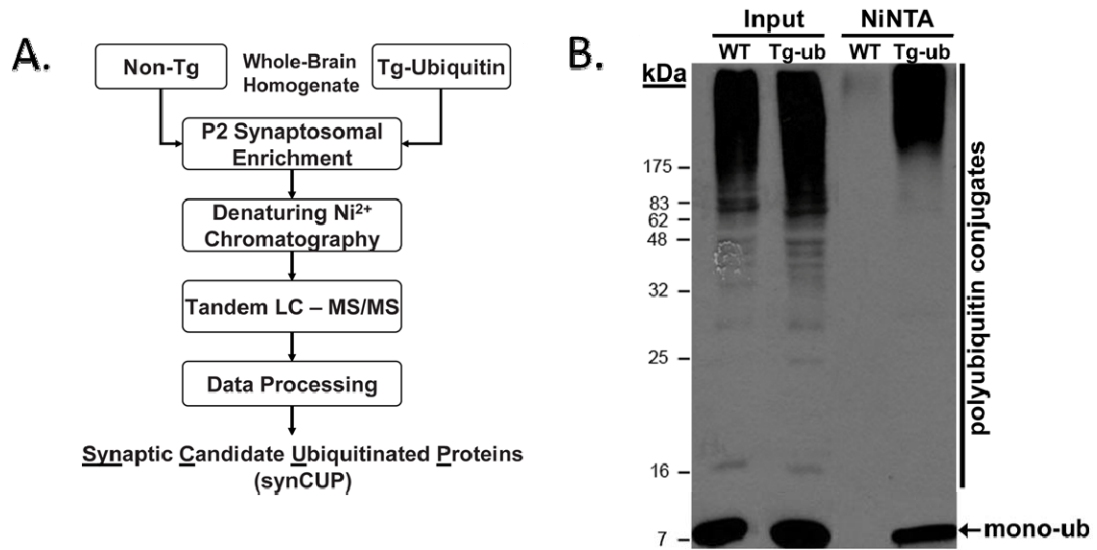


Figure 1. Isolation and identification of synaptic ubiquitinated proteins. (A) Schematized overview of proteomic screen for the isolation and identification of synaptic ubiquitinated proteins from mice expressing a hexahistidine-tagged ubiquitin GFP fusion transgene under the human UbC promoter (Tg-Ub mice). (B) Representative immunoblot depicting the ubiquitin immunoreactivity in Tg-Ub and WT (non-Tg) P2' synaptosomal membrane total lysates or following nickel-affinity purification. As shown, both Tg-Ub and WT samples have relative equal amounts of ubiquitinated proteins in total lysates but following nickel-affinity purification we only observed ubiquitin immunoreactivity in Tg-Ub samples.

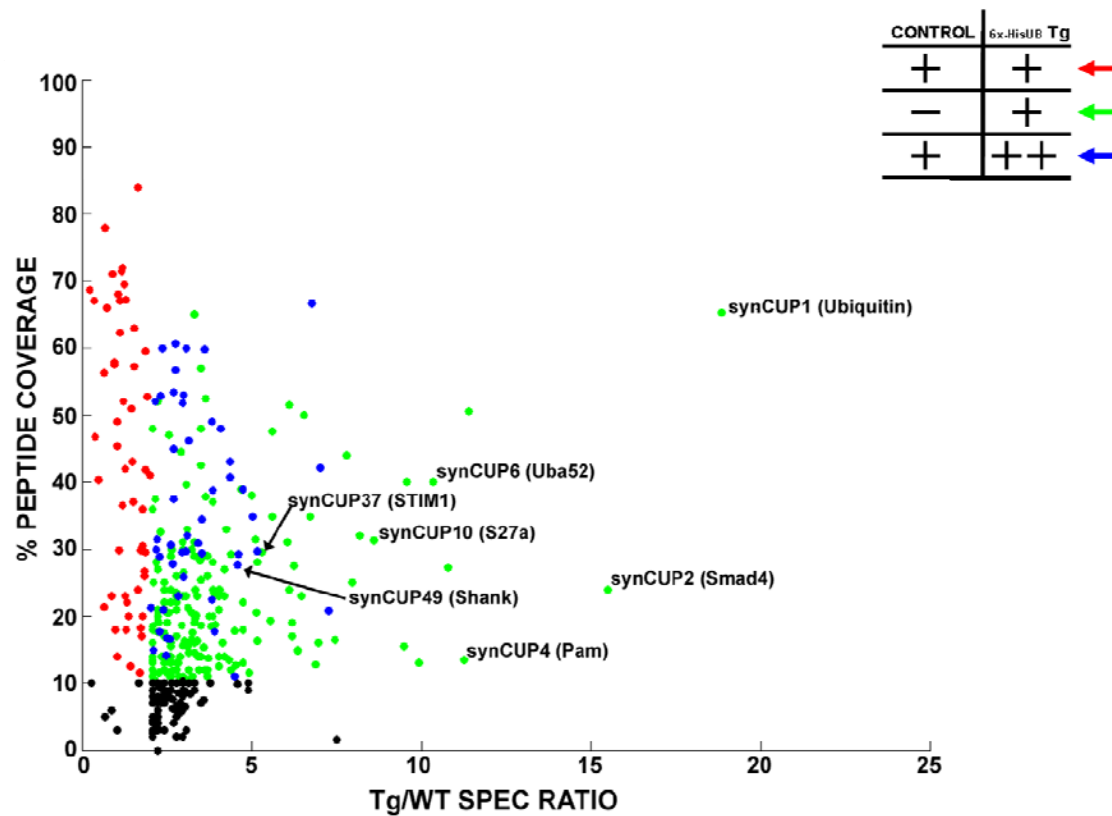


Figure 2. Identification of synaptic ubiquitinated proteins Scatter plot (% peptide coverage vs. Tg/WT spec ratio) of 385 distinct proteins identified via tandem LC-MS/MS. 279 proteins with greater than 10% peptide coverage and a Tg/non-Tg spec ratio greater than 2, were considered a synaptic candidate ubiquitinated protein (synCUP). Proteins with less than 10% peptide coverage plotted as black circles; proteins with a Tg/WT spec ratio of less than 2 plotted as red circles; low abundant proteins with Tg/WT spec ratio greater than 2 plotted as green circles; high abundant proteins with Tg/WT spec ratio greater than 2 plotted as blue circles. **Inset:** Three potential outcomes from Mass SPEC. Spectral hits identified by mass spec. Red arrow – equal amounts in both control and Tg - low ratio; Green arrow – very low to none observed in control with varying amounts in Tg – low to high ratios; Blue arrow – Larger amounts in Tg relative to control – low to high ratios.

Table 2. Top 40 synaptic ubiquitinated proteins by ratio. Table showing the 40 proteins by ratio that were identified by our NiNTA affinity purification and mass spec method from 6x-his-ubiquitin transgenic mice. Spectral score for both WT (non-transgenic) and Tg (transgenic), percent (%) coverage, Tg/WT ratio, and functional classification are shown. Note: Of a total of 279 proteins identified – the highest ratio is for ubiquitin.

Top 40 Synaptic Ubiquitinated Proteins (by Ratio)

	Protein ID	Classification	TG/WT Spec Ratio	Percent Coverage
1	Ubd	Other/UPS Transcription	18.85	65
2	Smad4	Other/Disease	15.49	24
3	Atn1	Metabolism	11.4	51
4	Pam	GTPases	11.27	14
5	RIM-BP2	Other/UPS	10.78	27
6	Uba52	Transcription	10.36	40
7	Hivep2	Kinases/Phosphatases	9.94	13
8	Cdkl5	Transcription	9.59	40
9	Tsc22d1	Translation	9.51	16
10	S27a	Unknown	8.61	31
11	Lrch1	Other	8.18	32
12	Ogt	Metabolism	7.98	25
13	Lta4h	Cytoskeleton/Other	7.8	44
14	Ptpn23	Kinases/Phosphatases	7.51	16
15	Dmxi	Unknown	7.46	21
16	Dlgap1	Cytoskeleton/Other	7.28	42
17	Dpp9	Other/Protease	7.03	16
18	Nbea	Membrane Trafficking	6.98	13
19	Abat	Kinases/Phosphatases	6.91	67
20	Syn	Other/Membrane Trafficking	6.78	35
21	Cyca	Metabolism	6.75	50
22	Hip1r	Membrane Trafficking	6.55	23
23	Hdac6	Transcription	6.46	15
24	Cbl	Other/UPS	6.37	15
25	Caskin1	Other/Scaffold	6.36	28
26	Cpeb	Translation	6.26	17
27	Dhx15	Translation	6.2	19
28	Gm879	Unknown	6.19	52
29	Irs	Other	6.11	24
30	Btbd11	Transcription	6.11	31
31	Nfix	Transcription	6.06	48
32	Actin	Cytoskeleton	5.61	35
33	Satb	Transcription	5.59	19
34	Tbrg4	Kinases/PHosphatases	5.54	30
35	Stim	Other/SOCE Regulator	5.3	28
36	L27a	Translation	5.18	30
37	Wdr7	Unknown	5.18	16
38	Gad1	Metabolism	5.18	21
39	Rpl27a	Metabolism	5.15	32
40	Tubulin	Cytoskeleton	5.13	35

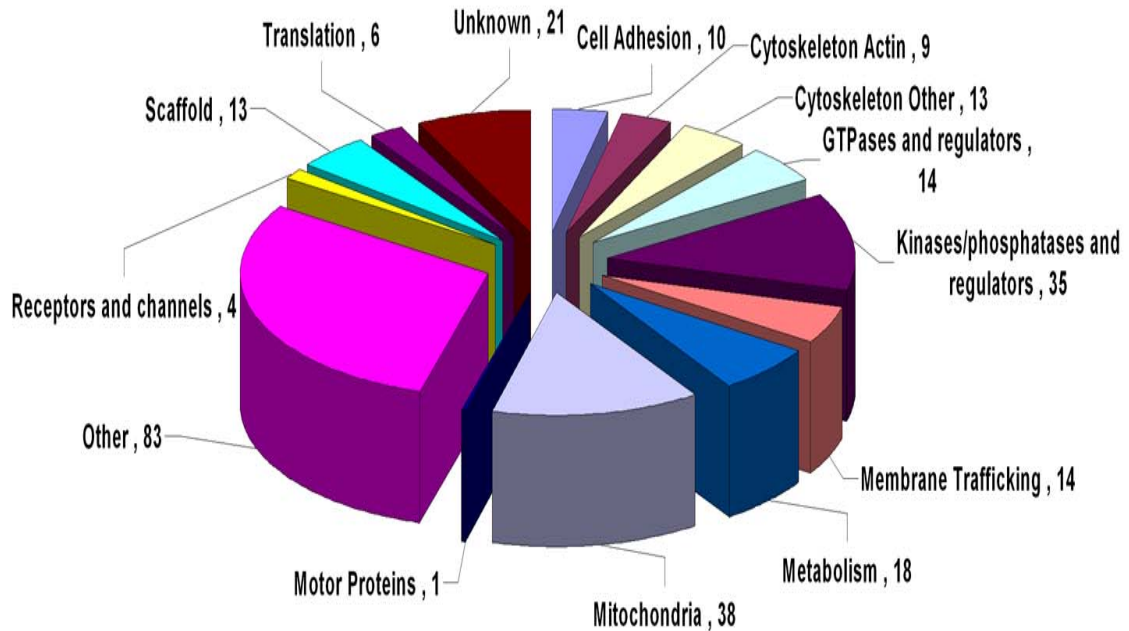


Figure 3. Pie chart showing function classification of synaptic candidate ubiquitinated proteins (synCUP's) purified by NiNTA affinity chromatography and then identified by mass spec. Cell adhesion (3.6%), cytoskeleton actin (3.2%), cytoskeletal other (4.7%), gtpases and regulators (5%), kinases/phosphatases and regulators (12.5%), membrane trafficking (5%), metabolism (6.5%), mitochondria (5%), motor proteins (0.4%), receptors and channels (1.4%), scaffold (4.7%), translation (2.2%), other (29.8%), unknown (7.5%) are shown. The number of proteins in each category is given. Classified using DAVID ontology analysis.

Table 3. Unfiltered, non-redundant list of proteins identified via proteomic screen for synaptic ubiquitinated proteins, CONTINUED. A total of 3,031 IPI proteins from the forward database were identified, while 102 proteins (3% protein FDR) from the reverse database were identified. Proteins with the same set or subsets of unique peptides were grouped into protein groups to minimize protein redundancy. There were 911 and 26 protein groups (3% FDR) identified from forward and reverse database, respectively. Spec# and Intensity are arbitrary units assigned based relative abundance of the detected proteins. See Supplementary Methods for more details

Table 3. Unfiltered, non-redundant list of proteins identified via proteomic screen for synaptic ubiquitinated proteins, CONTINUED

Number	Gene Symbol	Tg/WT Ratio-spec#	WT-spec#	WT-intensity	Tg-spec#	Tg-Intensity	accession_number	% Coverage	numPepsUnique
657	Adprh	4001	0	0	4	6630000	IPI00111149	9	2
658	Vps52	2001	0	0	2	3080000	IPI00623259	3	2
659	2610529H08Rik	2001	0	0	2	3270000	IPI00113099	8	2
660	Gnb2	3001	0	0	3	4940000	IPI00162780	8	2
661	Lphn3	4001	0	0	4	24800000	IPI00411157	2	2
662	4930539P14Rik	2001	0	0	2	2010000	IPI00124568	4	2
663	Nfx1	2001	0	0	2	3230000	IPI00123537	3	2
664	Rac3	3001	0	0	3	2900000	IPI00157462	9	2
665	Opcml	2001	0	0	2	6650000	IPI00463489	9	2
666	Magi3	2001	0	0	2	2950000	IPI00111234	3	2
667	2410003P15Rik	2001	0	0	2	2470000	IPI00109603	6	2
668	Nid2	2001	0	0	2	3620000	IPI00129903	3	2
669	Ppp2r5b	2001	0	0	2	2670000	IPI00356872	5	2
670	Nuak1	2001	0	0	2	3340000	IPI00465504	3	2
671	Peg3	3001	0	0	3	6910000	IPI00462561	2	2
672	Atxn1	2001	0	0	2	4530000	IPI00323787	6	2
673	Tarsl1	2001	0	0	2	2790000	IPI00132419	3	2
674	G630014P10Rik	2001	0	0	2	5130000	IPI00668797	4	2
675	D330017J20Rik	3001	0	0	3	2180000	IPI00465770	4	2
676	S100a9	4001	0	0	4	31000000	IPI00222556	18	2
677	6430598A04Rik	4001	0	0	4	7400000	IPI00341975	4	2
678	Gata3	2001	0	0	2	1700000	IPI00135883	7	2
679	Tmem30a	2001	0	0	2	1620000	IPI00387318	9	2
680	Rtn4r	2001	0	0	2	3280000	IPI00121067	7	2
681	Atp5f1	4001	0	0	4	4910000	IPI00341282	8	2
682	Zfp655	2001	0	0	2	3230000	IPI00112984	7	2
683	Atp6v0d1	2001	0	0	2	3390000	IPI00313841	5	2
684	1700052N19Rik	2001	0	0	2	4990000	IPI00117106	10	2
685	Acat1	2001	0	0	2	2630000	IPI00154054	9	2
686	Ddef2	2001	0	0	2	2010000	IPI00355808	2	2
687	Foxo1	2001	0	0	2	2210000	IPI00311101	4	2
688	4632415K11Rik	3001	0	0	3	5150000	IPI00157480	5	2
689	Syp	3001	0	0	3	10100000	IPI00123505	7	2
690	Arf2	2001	0	0	2	3050000	IPI00135730	10	2
691	Glud1	2001	0	0	2	3010000	IPI00114209	2	2
692	C030018G13Rik	3001	0	0	3	2450000	IPI00222432	5	2
693	Vamp1	3001	0	0	3	9640000	IPI00407347	14	2
694	Pitpnm1	4001	0	0	4	10600000	IPI00136246	3	2
695	Usp7	2001	0	0	2	2250000	IPI00463367	2	2
696	G630024C07Rik	2001	0	0	2	8440000	IPI00222330	6	2
697	Dlat	2001	0	0	2	3640000	IPI00153660	4	2
698	Snap91	2001	0	0	2	3930000	IPI00122409	2	2
699	Slitrk5	2001	0	0	2	2870000	IPI00329844	3	2
700	Exoc4	2001	0	0	2	6520000	IPI00129959	2	2
701	Ptk9l	6001	0	0	6	8110000	IPI00129299	9	2
702	Dnm1	2001	0	0	2	2610000	IPI00620377	4	2
703	Csnk2b	3001	0	0	3	3890000	IPI00126762	15	2
704	Prr7	3001	0	0	3	5650000	IPI00132812	17	2
705	38967	3001	0	0	3	5610000	IPI00224626	8	2
706	IPI00663002	2001	0	0	2	5220000	IPI00663002	1	2
707	Marcks	2001	0	0	2	1020000	IPI00229534	15	2
708	Dars	4001	0	0	4	4460000	IPI00222457	7	2
709	Fbxo11	2001	0	0	2	3110000	IPI00330330	2	2
710	Hdac5	3001	0	0	3	6230000	IPI00283913	2	2
711	Syt10	2001	0	0	2	4810000	IPI00127866	3	2
712	Calm2	4001	0	0	4	3480000	IPI00467841	10	2
713	Vdac2	2001	0	0	2	3530000	IPI00122547	7	2
714	Atp2a2	2001	0	0	2	3840000	IPI00338964	3	2
715	Ppa2	2001	0	0	2	3170000	IPI00127050	8	2
716	Hs3st1	3001	0	0	3	4480000	IPI00129676	7	2
717	Igsf8	2001	0	0	2	5380000	IPI00321348	5	2
718	Igsf4d	2001	0	0	2	4340000	IPI00453537	13	2
719	Tiam2	3001	0	0	3	1270000	IPI00453791	2	2
720	Ampd3	2001	0	0	2	9640000	IPI00275398	3	2
721	Hspd1	2001	0	0	2	1090000	IPI00308885	8	2
722	Pard6g	2001	0	0	2	8710000	IPI00122398	4	2
723	IPI00223045_reverse	3001	0	0	3	3540000	IPI00223045_reverse	6	2
724	LOC629059	3001	0	0	3	3690000	IPI00277852	6	2
725	A730042J05Rik	4001	0	0	4	5440000	IPI00128991	7	2
726	Sfxn5	2001	0	0	2	3780000	IPI00221602	9	2
727	Agxt2l1	2001	0	0	2	3970000	IPI00625940	4	2
728	Harsl	2001	0	0	2	4400000	IPI00116138	4	2
729	Cct2	1001	0	0	1	1040000	IPI00320217	2	1
730	Gpr158	2001	0	0	2	1970000	IPI00465871	2	2
731	4933402J24Rik	2001	0	0	2	3190000	IPI00137094	7	2
732	Tmem33	2001	0	0	2	4990000	IPI00133234	4	1
733	Sv2a	2001	0	0	2	4110000	IPI00465810	4	2
734	Dock4	3001	0	0	3	4090000	IPI00223070	1	2
735	BC006662	2001	0	0	2	3840000	IPI00124027	9	1
736	Clstn3	2001	0	0	2	2030000	IPI00115312	3	2
737	1500001H12Rik	2001	0	0	2	778000	IPI00122826	14	2
738	Alad	2001	0	0	2	1570000	IPI00112719	5	1

Table 3. Unfiltered, non-redundant list of proteins identified via proteomic screen for synaptic ubiquitinated proteins, CONTINUED

Number	Gene Symbol	Tg/WT Ratio-spect#	WT-spect#	WT-intensity	Tg-spect#	Tg-Intensity	accession_number	% Coverage	numPepsUnique
821	Neo1	2001	0	0	2	2030000	IPI00129159	1	1
822	Akap5	1001	0	0	1	1000000	IPI00667326	6	1
823	1200007B05Rik	1001	0	0	1	1450000	IPI00387392	9	1
824	Arbp	1001	0	0	1	992000	IPI00314950	9	1
825	1810035L17Rik	1001	0	0	1	747000	IPI00318935	10	1
826	4933407N01Rik	2001	0	0	2	13000000	IPI00338270	4	1
827	IPI00621661	1001	0	0	1	639000	IPI00621661	8	1
828	Rutbc1	1001	0	0	1	787000	IPI00515672	1	1
829	Gm1494	2001	0	0	2	2200000	IPI00381805	8	1
830	Ptprz1	1001	0	0	1	632000	IPI00627008	0	1
831	Ndufs2	1001	0	0	1	1750000	IPI00128023	4	1
832	IPI00668982	2001	0	0	2	3040000	IPI00668982	5	1
833	Wdr6	1001	0	0	1	1950000	IPI00117632	1	1
834	6330583M11Rik	2001	0	0	2	653000	IPI00165731	4	1
835	Prdx6-rs1	2001	0	0	2	1850000	IPI00221454	4	1
836	IPI00229906_reve	1001	0	0	1	568000	IPI00229906_reverse	1	1
837	6330403A02Rik	1001	0	0	1	4060000	IPI00462375	12	1
838	Mpped1	1001	0	0	1	1360000	IPI00131155	3	1
839	LOC634597	7001	0	0	7	8610000	IPI00668716	10	1
840	Lrrc4c	1001	0	0	1	1550000	IPI00309419	1	1
841	Wdr22	1001	0	0	1	140000	IPI00340504	1	1
842	LOC639819	1001	0	0	1	885000	IPI00668082	4	1
843	1110004F10Rik	1001	0	0	1	969000	IPI00127941	8	1
844	Suhw3	1001	0	0	1	1440000	IPI00622268	6	1
845	Mkl2	1001	0	0	1	1640000	IPI00172027	2	1
846	A430105I05Rik	1001	0	0	1	1190000	IPI00670075	0	1
847	5430405G24Rik	2001	0	0	2	3000000	IPI00341196	1	1
848	Suox	1001	0	0	1	933000	IPI00153144	3	1
849	Abhd11	1001	0	0	1	1630000	IPI00170213	12	1
850	Cited2	1001	0	0	1	3410000	IPI00133949	9	1
851	Gphn	2001	0	0	2	4820000	IPI00225670	2	1
852	LOC633821	2001	0	0	2	3050000	IPI00108740	7	1
853	S100a8	2001	0	0	2	2810000	IPI00230768	22	1
854	Syngn3	1001	0	0	1	3030000	IPI00331579	5	1
855	Nup43	1001	0	0	1	1410000	IPI00177202	2	1
856	Cdh1	1001	0	0	1	524000	IPI00318626	2	1
857	IPI00230018_reve	1001	0	0	1	1020000	IPI00230018_reverse	0	1
858	E430028B21Rik	1001	0	0	1	1670000	IPI00420284	1	1
859	LOC545854	1001	0	0	1	2990000	IPI00661705	14	1
860	Cpne5	1001	0	0	1	750000	IPI00170387	1	1
861	Pgrmc1	2001	0	0	2	1900000	IPI00319973	10	1
862	2900006B13Rik	2001	0	0	2	2890000	IPI00283339	2	1
863	Syngn1	2001	0	0	2	2400000	IPI00115763	5	1
864	Paqr4	1001	0	0	1	1670000	IPI00121743	6	1
865	Slc27a1	1001	0	0	1	1120000	IPI00120097	4	1
866	C030011J08Rik	3001	0	0	3	12600000	IPI00222792	1	1
867	IPI00338053_reve	1001	0	0	1	1320000	IPI00338053_reverse	2	1
868	Znhit4	1001	0	0	1	1110000	IPI00110781	4	1
869	Tbc1d10a	1001	0	0	1	1160000	IPI00139383	2	1
870	Exoc1	1001	0	0	1	1000000	IPI00153813	1	1
871	38781	1001	0	0	1	1050000	IPI00131895	5	1
872	IPI00309958_reve	1001	0	0	1	2030000	IPI00309958_reverse	1	1
873	Heca	1001	0	0	1	6140000	IPI00380838	2	1
874	Copa	1001	0	0	1	627000	IPI00229834	1	1
875	Grm3	1001	0	0	1	688000	IPI00136716	1	1
876	LOC638010	1001	0	0	1	710000	IPI00675804	5	1
877	Esd	2001	0	0	2	3330000	IPI00624892	5	1
878	Akap3	1001	0	0	1	1670000	IPI00136657	1	1
879	Aak1	1001	0	0	1	1510000	IPI00458612	2	1
880	Atp2b4	1001	0	0	1	1700000	IPI00463589	13	1
881	Zfp444	1001	0	0	1	102000	IPI00278424	3	1
882	Palm	1001	0	0	1	984000	IPI00129298	5	1
883	Rpusd4	1001	0	0	1	3820000	IPI00109744	3	1
884	Gnpda2	1001	0	0	1	3450000	IPI00133593	4	1
885	LOC638592	1001	0	0	1	1210000	IPI00673922	32	1
886	Ppp2r1a	1001	0	0	1	1170000	IPI00310091	3	1
887	Slc25a22	1001	0	0	1	10900000	IPI00109275	2	1
888	Klf12	1001	0	0	1	838000	IPI00133918	4	1
889	Sin3b	1001	0	0	1	587000	IPI00608092	1	1
890	Ilf3	1001	0	0	1	581000	IPI00130591	2	1
891	4631427C17Rik	1001	0	0	1	478000	IPI00308446	2	1
892	Itpka	1001	0	0	1	838000	IPI00153136	2	1
893	Slc8a2	1001	0	0	1	1010000	IPI00170310	1	1
894	Fth1	1001	0	0	1	2030000	IPI00230145	8	1
895	IPI00673003_reve	1001	0	0	1	1720000	IPI00673003_reverse	5	1
896	Mrpl9	1001	0	0	1	1510000	IPI00654010	5	1
897	IPI00109806_reve	1001	0	0	1	6760000	IPI00109806_reverse	3	1
898	Brp44	1001	0	0	1	1790000	IPI00131896	6	1
899	Slc4a4	1001	0	0	1	1180000	IPI00314749	2	1
900	Rab3gap2	1001	0	0	1	1080000	IPI00404477	0	1
901	Rhot1	1001	0	0	1	1160000	IPI00515349	1	1
902	Msl31	1001	0	0	1	2200000	IPI00331512	2	1

Table 3. Unfiltered, non-redundant list of proteins identified via proteomic screen for synaptic ubiquitinated proteins, CONTINUED

Number	Gene Symbol	Tg/WT Ratio-spec#	WT-spec#	WT-intensity	Tg-spec#	Tg-Intensity	accession_number	% Coverage	numPepsUnique
903	IPI00453842_reve	1001	0	0	1	48500	IPI00453842_reverse	0	1
904	C130038G02Rik	1001	0	0	1	3340000	IPI00380426	0	1
905	Nrgn	1001	0	0	1	2050000	IPI00380227	19	1
906	Strn	1001	0	0	1	2260000	IPI00352986	2	1
907	IPI00622396	1001	0	0	1	966000	IPI00622396	15	1
908	BC019806	1001	0	0	1	1250000	IPI00123765	5	1
909	IPI00136734_reve	1001	0	0	1	1930000	IPI00136734_reverse	2	1
910	Slit1	1001	0	0	1	2630000	IPI00330211	0	1
911	IPI00330900_reve	1001	0	0	1	3690000	IPI00330900_reverse	2	1

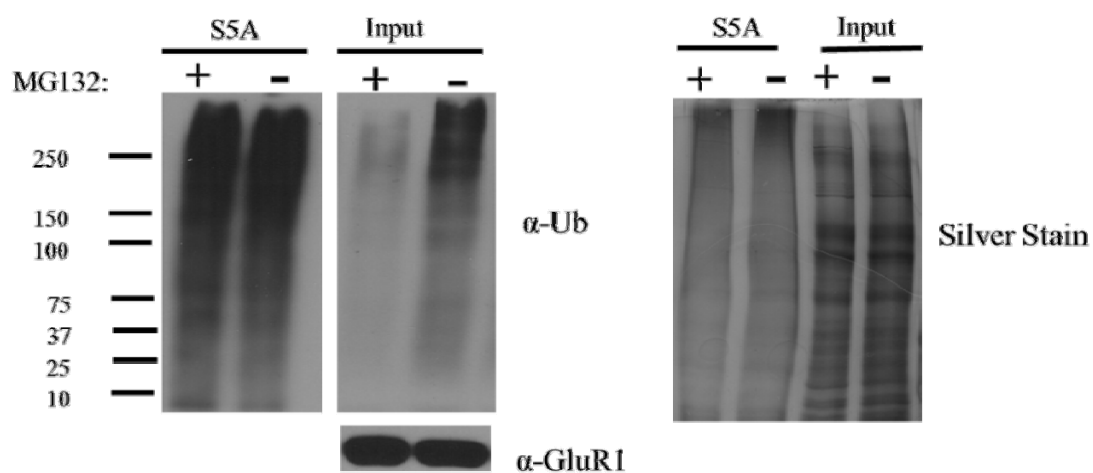


Figure 4. S5A enrichment of rat P2 lysates for mass spectrometry. Rat P2 lysates purified using GST-S5A conjugated beads, then analyzed via Mudpit-LC-MS/MS. Rat cortical neurons (DIV 18) were treated with MG-132 (5 μ M) or DMSO for 8 hours prior to lysis and differential and density gradient fractionation. S5A-purified ubiquitin conjugates (left panel) and input lysates (middle panel) were subjected to SDS-PAGE and examined via western blot or silver stain (right panel).

Table 4. Top 50 hits from S5A directed screen for synaptic poly-ubiquitinated proteins. Rat P2 lysates purified using GST-S5A conjugated beads, then analyzed via Mudpit-LC-MS/MS. Rat hippocampal neurons (DIV 18) were treated with MG-132 (5 μ M) or DMSO for 8 hours prior to lysis and differential and density gradient fractionation. Top 50 proteins identified by MS are listed based on spectrum count (highest to lowest) for DMSO or MG-132 treated samples

DM50

MG-132

Number	Descriptive Name	Sequence Count	Spectrum Count	Sequence Coverage	Number2	Descriptive Name3	Sequence Count4	Spectrum Count5	Sequence Coverage6
1	Pind4 Antisecretory factor	25	90	0.503	1	Ubcd Polyubiquitin	18	154	0.081
2	Ubcd Polyubiquitin	15	89	0.079	2	Ubc	26	142	0.228
3	Ubc similar to ubiquitin C isoform 1	15	74	0.23	3	Uba9 Ubc protein	18	128	0.153
4	Uba9 Ubc protein	15	74	0.149	4	Pind4 Antisecretory factor	33	117	0.676
5	Rps27a Ribosomal protein S27a	15	73	0.41	5	Ubc similar to ubiquitin C isoform 1	18	117	0.237
6	no description	15	73	0.842	6	Rps27a Ubiquitin	18	117	0.868
7	Rps27a Ubiquitin	15	73	0.842	7	Rps27a Ribosomal protein S27a	18	116	0.423
8	Uba52 Ubiquitin A-52 residue ribosomal protein fusion product 1	15	73	0.5	8	no description	18	116	0.868
9	Uba52 Ubiquitin A-52 residue ribosomal protein fusion product 1	20	68	0.498	9	Uba52 Ubiquitin A-52 residue ribosomal protein fusion product 1	18	116	0.516
10	LOC498736 Tubulin beta-2A chain	25	64	0.557	10	LOC498736 Tubulin beta-2A chain	21	74	0.589
11	Uba26b Tubulin beta-2B chain	25	63	0.557	11	Uba26b Tubulin beta-2B chain	21	73	0.589
12	Ct1 Cofilin 1	17	57	0.488	12	TubB3 Tubulin beta-3 chain	18	67	0.471
13	TubB5 Isoform 1 of Tubulin beta-5 chain	17	56	0.486	13	Ct1 Cofilin 1	15	64	0.5
14	Eno1 Alpha-enolase	21	46	0.482	14	TubA1 Tubulin alpha-1A chain	19	60	0.486
15	LOC688509 similar to Alpha-enolase	21	46	0.472	15	TubA1;RGD1565476, predicted Tubulin alpha-1B chain	19	58	0.486
16	TubB2c Tubulin beta-2C chain	19	47	0.524	16	TubB2c Tubulin beta-2C chain	18	57	0.53
17	Dpyd5 Dihydropyrimidinase-related protein 5	24	47	0.408	17	TubB5 Isoform 1 of Tubulin beta-5 chain	16	54	0.459
18	no description	26	44	0.408	18	Heat shock 70 kDa protein 1A/1B	24	47	0.452
19	TubB4 similar to tubulin, beta 4	16	42	0.475	19	TubB4 similar to tubulin, beta 4	14	47	0.444
20	TubA1;RGD1565476, predicted Tubulin alpha-1B chain	17	42	0.461	20	Eef1a1 Elongation factor 1 alpha 1	17	47	0.292
21	TubA1 Tubulin alpha-1A chain	17	42	0.461	21	- 50 kDa protein	17	47	0.292
22	Gta2;Gta3;Yc2 Glutathione S-transferase, alpha (Fragment)	15	40	0.602	22	Dpyd5 Dihydropyrimidinase-related protein 5	27	44	0.436
23	no description	18	36	0.367	23	Gta2;Gta3;Yc2 Glutathione S-transferase, alpha (Fragment)	16	43	0.588
24	Pinc2 Isoform M2 of Pyruvate kinase isozymes M1/M2	18	35	0.366	24	TubA4 Tubulin alpha-4A chain	16	43	0.362
25	RGD1561179, predicted similar to Pyruvate kinase 3	18	35	0.367	25	Eno1 Alpha-enolase	15	41	0.491
26	Pinc2 Isoform M1 of Pyruvate kinase isozymes M1/M2	18	34	0.366	26	LOC688509 similar to Alpha-enolase	15	41	0.433
27	B5A	12	32	0.188	27	Pinc5 26S protease regulatory subunit 8	17	39	0.404
28	Gtap Isoform 1 of Glutaryl acidic protein	16	31	0.349	28	TubB6 Tubulin, beta 6	11	39	0.289
29	Gtap Isoform 2 of Glutaryl acidic protein	16	31	0.35	29	Gtap Isoform 1 of Glutaryl acidic protein	21	38	0.463
30	Hspa8 Heat shock cognate 71 kDa protein	21	31	0.313	30	Gtap Isoform 2 of Glutaryl acidic protein	21	38	0.465
31	Rps3 40S ribosomal protein S3	10	29	0.395	31	Pinc4 26S protease regulatory subunit 68	16	38	0.416
32	Serp1	16	28	0.474	32	Pinc5 similar to proteasome subunit, beta type 5	12	36	0.449
33	Eef1a1 Elongation factor 1, alpha 1	14	28	0.29	33	Pinc3 Proteasome (Prosome, macropain) 20S subunit, ATPase 3	19	36	0.443
34	- 50 kDa protein	14	28	0.29	34	Pinc1 26S protease regulatory subunit 4	17	36	0.414
35	Hspa48 48 kDa protein	15	27	0.388	35	RGD1561179, predicted similar to pyruvate kinase 3	20	34	0.421
36	Serap1 Isoform 1 of Synaptobinding protein 1	17	27	0.301	36	Pinc2 Isoform M1 of Pyruvate kinase isozymes M1/M2	20	34	0.388
37	Serap1 Isoform 2 of Synaptobinding protein 1	17	27	0.297	37	Pinc1 Adrenic tyrosin-1 precursor	3	33	0.081
38	TubB6 Tubulin, beta 6	12	27	0.255	38	Cmp1 Dihydropyrimidinase-related protein 1	23	32	0.434
39	LOC688512;LOC682665 similar to H2B histone family, member Y	6	26	0.421	39	Hspa8 Heat shock cognate 71 kDa protein	20	31	0.372
40	RGD1561543, predicted similar to Histone H2B 291B isoform 2	6	26	0.421	40	- 67 kDa protein	20	31	0.393
41	HistH2bm, predicted similar to Histone H2B 291B	6	26	0.356	41	Act1 Actin, cytoplasmic 1	14	31	0.317
42	HistH2bm, predicted;LOC682355 similar to Histone H2B 291B	6	26	0.384	42	Act1 Actin, cytoplasmic 2	14	31	0.317
43	Histone H2B 291B	6	26	0.421	43	LOC295810 similar to Actin, cytoplasmic 2	14	31	0.222
44	HistH2bp, predicted 15 kDa protein	6	26	0.396	44	Actg1 similar to Actin, cytoplasmic 2	14	31	0.17
45	- 15 kDa protein	6	26	0.396	45	Stag1 Isoform 1 of Synaptobinding protein 1	25	30	0.5
46	- 15 kDa protein	6	26	0.421	46	Stag1 Isoform 2 of Synaptobinding protein 1	25	30	0.493
47	HistH2b1 Histone H2B type 1	6	26	0.421	47	Serap1	18	29	0.435
48	LOC68647;LOC679910 similar to Histone H2B 291B	6	26	0.421	48	no description	17	28	0.32
49	ActB ADP-ribosylation factor 3	8	26	0.354	49	ActB ADP-ribosylation factor 3	11	26	0.547
50	Act1 ADP-ribosylation factor 1	8	26	0.354	50	Act1 ADP-ribosylation factor 1	11	26	0.547

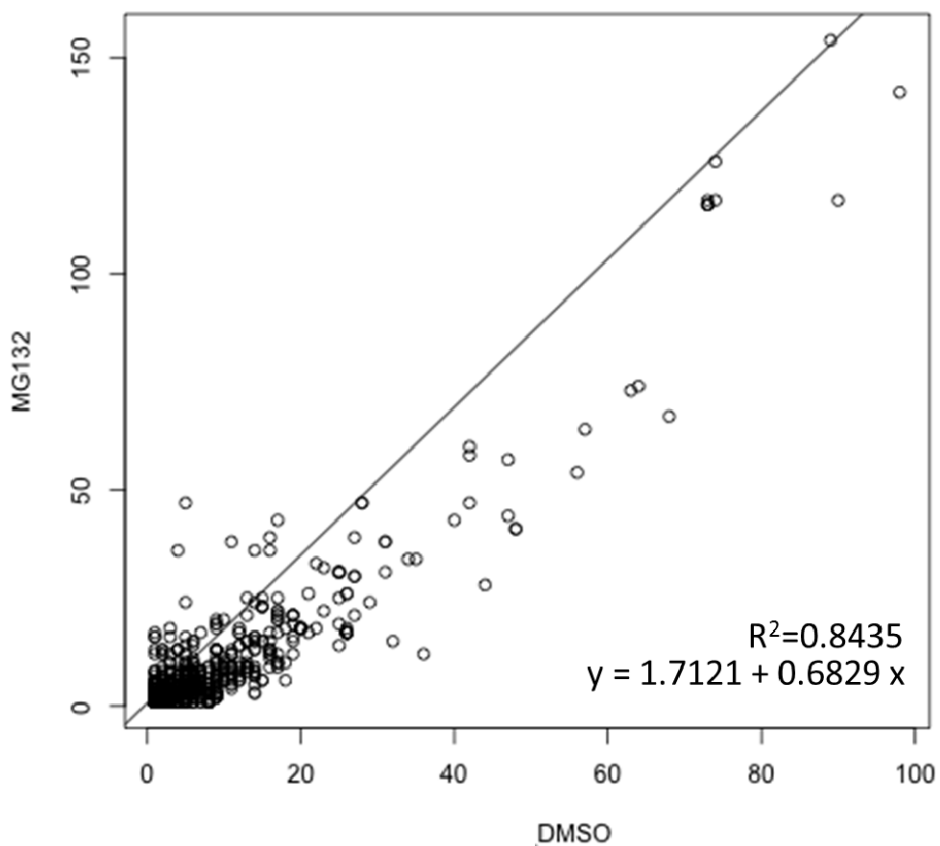


Figure 5. Scatterplot of top 150 overlapping targets between DMSO and MG-132 treated samples. The top 150 hits of the DMSO (x-axis) and MG-132 (y-axis) samples from S5A-directed screen for synaptic, poly-ubiquitinated proteins were plotted. A linear model was fit and tested for significance of correlation. The best fit line is plotted, and the P-value testing the null hypothesis that the slope of the line is equal to zero was $P < 10^{-16}$.

Chapter II

Characterization of Stromal Interaction Molecule I (STIM1)

INTRODUCTION

Protein modification via the covalent attachment of ubiquitin is one of the most common regulatory processes in mammalian cells (See Review by (Pickart, 2004)).

Classically, ubiquitination is a process whereby target proteins can be marked for degradation by the proteasome. It is a multi-step enzymatic process, using three classes of enzymes (E1s, E2s, and E3s), and it involves the sequential transfer of ubiquitin from these enzymes to a lysine residue on the target protein. Both degradative and non-degradative forms of ubiquitination have been implicated in a myriad of cellular processes. Depending on the topology of the ubiquitin chain, changes in protein stability, interaction, and localization can be effected (Hochstrasser, 2006). Specificity of the ubiquitination reaction depends on the later steps of the ubiquitination process. There are a significant but limited number of ubiquitin-carrier enzymes (E2s), and a much larger number of ubiquitin ligases (E3s). Thus, the ubiquitination enzymes form a hierarchical cascade, where the substrate specificity of the overall ubiquitination reaction depends on the specific E2s and E3s that pair up to ubiquitinate the substrate.

In a sense, calcium is similar to ubiquitin in both its abundance and widespread role in cellular signaling (Berridge et al., 2000). Accordingly, mechanisms regulating ubiquitination and calcium levels will have great effects on cellular signaling and function. One of the more intriguing targets to appear in the aforementioned synaptic screen for ubiquitinated proteins was just such regulator - Stromal Interaction Molecule I (STIM1). In brief, STIM1 is a type-I membrane, endoplasmic reticulum

(ER)-resident protein and probable sensor of store-operated calcium entry (SOCE) (Liou et al., 2005; Roos et al., 2005; Spassova et al., 2006). In both excitable and non-excitable cells, SOCE is generally characterized by the process in which depletion of internal Ca^{2+} stores leads to an activation of plasma membrane Ca^{2+} channels, and subsequent refilling of internal stores (Lewis, 2007; Putney, 2007). In addition to refilling stores, SOCE has been implicated in a myriad of diverse processes, including gene expression, apoptosis, and exocytosis (See Review by Parekh and Putney, 2005) (Parekh and Putney, 2005). In the last ten years, a great deal of research has been conducted on the cellular function of STIM1. STIM1 was originally discovered in concurrent, yet independent set of RNAi screens for effectors of SOCE (Liou et al., 2005; Roos et al., 2005; Zhang et al., 2005). STIM1 has been shown to be both necessary and sufficient for SOCE activation. In addition to STIM1, another STIM isoform, STIM2 was also found to regulate SOCE and basal calcium levels, albeit at lower calcium thresholds (Brandman et al., 2007).

STIM1 is found distributed diffusely throughout the ER when Ca^{2+} -stores are replete; but once stores are emptied, it oligomerizes and redistributes into discrete, punctate clusters within the ER, at or near the plasma membrane (Hewavitharana et al., 2008; Liou et al., 2007; Zhang et al., 2005). This process is rapidly reversibly, but by mechanisms not yet understood (Smyth et al., 2008; Tamarina et al., 2008). The oligomerization and redistribution precedes and is correlated with subsequent activation of SOCE (Calloway et al., 2009; Luik et al., 2008; Stathopoulos et al., 2006; Wu et al., 2006). STIM1 also undergoes numerous post-translational modifications,

each effecting a change in localization and function. STIM1 is phosphorylated at Serine-486 and Serine-668 during mitosis, resulting in an inhibition of SOCE through the prevention of STIM1 redistribution (Smyth et al., 2009). Moreover, glycosylation of the SAM (sterile-alpha motif) domain positively regulates the insertion of STIM1 into the plasma membrane, as well as promoting the interaction of various binding-partners (Csutora et al., 2008; Williams et al., 2002).

It is also inversely related to the calcium-bound state of the EF-hand domain (Liou et al., 2005; Zhang et al., 2005). Populations of STIM1 have been found both within and near the plasma membrane (Lewis, 2007; Zhang et al., 2005). Biotinylation studies have shown a significant population (20 – 30%) of total STIM1 residing at the surface (Manji et al., 2000). Whether STIM1 is inserted into the plasma membrane as a functional response to activated SOCE is still contested (Lewis, 2007; Liou et al., 2007; Zhang et al., 2005). It has been demonstrated that translocation to the plasma without STIM1 insertion is sufficient to activate SOCE (Baba et al., 2006). This begs the question, what is the role of surface STIM1? Moreover, it also suggests trafficking mechanisms, whether active or passive, are integral to STIM1 functionality.

The identity of putative SOC channels remains a bit nebulous (see review by Cahalan, 2009). STIM1 has been shown to interact with the recently identified Ca^{2+} -release activated Ca^{2+} channel (CRAC) components, Orai, providing a link between store-depletion and plasma membrane CRAC channel activation (Yeromin et al., 2006). STIM1 couples and activates Orai1-3 through its C-terminus, in calcium-

store dependent manner, although truncation analyses of STIM1 show that interaction and activation of Orai1 does not require prior redistribution (Muik et al., 2009; Park et al., 2009). STIM1 also interacts with and activates and TRPC1-6 channels (Alicia et al., 2008). The likely conclusion is that STIM1 is promiscuous with regard to channel coupling and activation, with no single channel typifying SOCE.

With regards to the central nervous system, SOCE has been implicated in such neuronal phenomena as synaptic plasticity and neurite outgrowth, but very little is known about STIM1 in neurons (Baba et al., 2003; Tang and Kalil, 2005). Recent studies examining STIM1 and STIM2 knockout mice demonstrate suggest a reversal of roles in terms of regulation of internal calcium stores (Berna-Erro et al., 2009). In neurons, STIM2 appears to be the essential regulator of SOCE, with a yet unidentified role for STIM1. As a known regulator of SOCE and putative target of the UPS, we sought to characterize STIM1 in neurons and to examine the role of ubiquitination in STIM1 function. We report that STIM1 is distributed in a punctate, peri-synaptic fashion in hippocampal neurons. STIM1 is also detected at the surface of both mature and developing neurons including growth cones. STIM1 is ubiquitinated in heterologous cells and in neuronal tissues; however, we have found no direct evidence for its degradation by the proteasome. Thapsigargin-induced calcium store depletion, which promotes STIM1 redistribution to or near the plasma membrane and induces SOCE, modulates STIM1 ubiquitination. This suggests ubiquitination may be involved in STIM1 localization and function in cells. In line with this hypothesis, we find that co-expression of STIM1 with POSH, a RING finger E3 ligase implicated in

SOCE function, negatively regulates STIM1 surface population in HEK293T cells.

Taken together, our findings suggest ubiquitination to be a novel mechanism for regulating STIM1 distribution and function in both excitable and non-excitable cells.

RESULTS

Validation of STIM1 Ubiquitination

Following the sorting and filtering of the targets obtained from the mass spectrometry screen, the first protein to examine more thoroughly was STIM1. The nature of the screen, as well as the stringency of the subsequent data filtering, greatly lowered the chance for non-specific hits. Since the screen was carried out under denaturing conditions, proteins that bound to the nickel-affinity beads did so because of covalently attached His-6X-ubiquitin, or internal stretches of amino acids able to coordinate nickel. However, further validation was necessary to determine the accuracy of the screen, but also to determine the type of ubiquitination. There are a variety of ways to validate ubiquitination and home –in on the specific ubiquitination type. The first method involved a sequential IP, using antibodies specific for ubiquitin (DAKO) itself, followed by those specific for STIM1. Starting with P2 synaptosomal rat lysates, similar to those used in the screen, a ubiquitinated population was isolated, with an approximately 105 kDa (Fig. 6A, top panel). Unmodified STIM1 usually runs around 97 – 100 kDa, so this shift is consistent a single (8 kDa) ubiquitin addition, or monoubiquitination (Hershko and Ciechanover, 1998). Moreover, the ubiquitin blot for the sequential IP shows a similar band migrating around this distance (Fig. 6A, bottom panel). Another method to identify ubiquitinated proteins is through the use of ubiquitin-binding beads. One such bead, p62-agarose, contains the ubiquitin associated domain (UBA), and binds to both mono- and poly-ubiquitin (Ciani et al., 2003; Long et al., 2008).

STIM1 was again isolated from endogenous, rat P2 preparations as in Figure 6A, albeit at a lesser extent (Fig. 6B). This may be due to the fact that p62 affinity for poly-ubiquitin conjugated proteins is reported to be 4-fold higher than that of mono-ubiquitinated conjugates (Long et al., 2008).

Another immuno-based approach produced similar results. This time, using an antibody that recognizes conjugated mono- and poly-ubiquitin, modified STIM1 was identified from rat P2 synaptosomal lysates (Fig. 6C). An 8-10 kDa shift was again observed, suggesting a mono-ubiquitin modification. The final initial examination of STIM1 ubiquitination employed an overexpression approach. Much of the research done up to the time these experiments were conducted had been carried out in non-neuronal cells. Since HeLa and HEK-293 cells were the common used, we decided to examine whether this mono-ubiquitination observed in mouse and rat brain was also conserved in the other cell types. As expected, STIM1 appears to be mono-ubiquitinated in HEK-293T cells as well (Fig. 6D). There may also be multi-mono or poly ubiquitin conjugates, as shown by the HA-immunoreactive smears above the STIM1-GFP arrow. Initial observations clearly indicate that STIM1 is mono-ubiquitinated in neuronal and non-neuronal tissues. Unfortunately, the screen was only directed against ubiquitin modifications, with no secondary phenotype examined that may provide insight into cause or effect of this ubiquitination. This, along with basic characterization of STIM1 in neuronal tissues, was the impetus behind the remainder of the experiments.

Characterization of STIM1 in neurons

Basic understanding of STIM1 function in neurons will begin with an examination of temporal and spatial expression patterns. With no difference reported in the literature concerning the structure of STIM1 in neurons versus non-excitable cell types, it would reason that STIM1 localization and function in neurons would be similar. In non-excitable cell types, STIM1 is ubiquitously expressed throughout all stages of development and cell cycle and it is primarily localized to the endoplasmic reticulum (ER), with a smaller, yet significant population migrating at or near the plasma membrane (Lewis, 2007; Liou et al., 2007; Zhang et al., 2005). In terms of neuronal and synaptic expression, there are additional developmental timeframes and subcellular compartments to explore (Cline, 2005; Gibson and Ma, 2011; Harris, 1999). Whether a protein is pre- or post-synaptic, or where within the postsynaptic side it resides greatly underlies its function (Kim and Huganir, 1999). We first determined the temporal protein expression profile of STIM1 from cultured, dissociated cortical neurons. As shown in Figure 7A, STIM1 proteins levels are low in young developing cultures (DIV 3; days in vitro) and increase to a steady-state level in mature cultures (DIV 21 and 25). This suggests STIM1 functions in both developing and mature neurons. To determine the subcellular distribution of STIM1, we fractionated rat brain by differential and density gradient fractionation methods as previously described (Carlin et al., 1980; Cho et al., 1992). We found STIM1 to be present in both soluble and pellet fractions (Fig. 6B). Moreover, STIM1 was present

in fractions enriched for postsynaptic densities, suggesting that it may function at or near synapses (Fig. 7B).

To further characterize STIM1 in neurons, we immunostained dissociated hippocampal neurons with anti-STIM1 antibodies. We found endogenous STIM1 immunoreactivity to be present in a membranous and punctate fashion in both somatic and dendritic compartments of mature hippocampal neurons (Fig. 8). Interestingly, several STIM1 punctate clusters co-localized and co-distributed with postsynaptic density (PSD) protein marker Shank, further indicating STIM1 to be present near the PSD. In addition, we expressed STIM1-GFP in neurons by Sindbis virus transduction methods. Hippocampal cultures were infected with STIM1-GFP virion for approximately 12 hours, at which time the cultures were fixed and stained with either anti-STIM1, PSD-95, synapsin or calreticulin antibodies. As shown in Figure 9A, STIM1-GFP is recognized by anti-STIM1 antibodies. Similar to endogenous STIM1, STIM1-GFP is distributed in a membranous and punctate fashion (Fig. 9A-D). STIM1-GFP partially co-localized and co-distributed with presynaptic and postsynaptic protein markers, synapsin and PSD-95, respectively. As expected, STIM1-GFP protein is abundantly found in the ER as indicated by the high degree of co-localization with the ER associated protein, calreticulin (Fig. 9D). This indicates STIM1-GFP is distributed in a similar manner as endogenous STIM1 in neurons.

Surface expression of STIM1 is known to occur in non-excitable cells, although strong debate lingers regarding the role of this surface population (Lewis, 2007; Liou et al., 2007; Zhang et al., 2005). In search for a similar surface population

in neurons, rat cortical lysates were biotinylated and the neutravidin precipitates were analyzed via western blot. Surface populations of endogenous STIM1 were identified in cortical neurons (Fig. 10A). Surface population were also seen following live-labeling of STIM1-GFP infected neurons (Fig. 10B and C). Interestingly, this surface population is present in both immature (DIV4) and mature (DIV 21) rat hippocampal neurons (Fig 10B and C). The surface signal identified in the immature neurons was also present at the tips of developing growth cones (Fig. 10C). This localization strongly suggests a role in axon has been shown to be localized to the plasma membrane (Hauser and Tsien, 2007). To do this, we expressed STIM1-GFP in hippocampal neurons, and then live-labeled the cultures with anti-GFP antibodies. If STIM1-GFP was integrated into the plasma membrane, the GFP epitope-tag should be displayed on the surface and thus accessible to the anti-GFP antibodies. Indeed, we observed a punctate, surface signal for STIM1-GFP in both somatic and dendritic compartments of hippocampal neurons (Figure 10B). Interestingly, the majority of these puncta in dendrites were juxtaposed to PSD-95 clusters indicating that STIM1-GFP is primarily integrated into the plasma membrane at or near synapses. Live-labeled STIM1-GFP expressing immature cultures (DIV 4) with anti-GFP antibodies. revealed punctate clusters on the surface of growth cones, many of which were at the tips growth cone extensions (Figure 10C). These data suggest STIM1 may function at the surface of neurons at or near synapses and in growth cones. Furthermore, STIM1 function may be important for growth cone dynamics to facilitate outgrowth and guidance.

Although the physiological relevance of SOCE has been shown in neurons, very little is known about its role in neuronal development. Cytoplasmic calcium has been shown to play a critical role in growth cone dynamics, neurite outgrowth, and the development of synapses (Henley et al., 2004). Since STIM1 is expressed in immature neurons and localized to growth cones, we wondered what the functional consequences of blocking SOCE would be on neurite outgrowth. Treating cultured hippocampal neurons (DIV1) with the IP3 receptor antagonist and SOCE inhibitor 2-aminoethoxydiphenyl borate (2-APB) for various periods of time, and then comparing neurite length between control and treated groups revealed a striking connection between SOCE and neurite outgrowth. Within 36 hours of exposure to 2-APB, we found MAP2 positive neurites to be significantly shorter than control treated neurons. Neurite length in the 2-APB treated samples are roughly 40% shorter through the 60 hour mark, and begin to recover slightly, with only a 30% deficit at the end of 96 hours (Fig. 10C). Together, with the fact that STIM1-GFP is localized to growth cones and the tips of growth cone processes, this indicates STIM1 and SOCE function are important for neurite outgrowth of developing neurons (Fig. 11 A-C).

During depletion of internal calcium stores, STIM1 rapidly redistributes into membranous puncta within the ER and near the plasma membrane (Liou et al., 2007; Wu et al., 2006; Zhang et al., 2005). This redistribution correlates with and is necessary for activation of SOCE (Baba et al., 2006). To determine if this trait held true for STIM1 in neurons, we treated STIM1-GFP expressing neurons with the SERCA (Sarco/Endoplasmic Reticulum Ca^{2+} ATPase) pump antagonist thapsigargin

(TG) and monitored STIM1-GFP redistribution in living neurons (Fig. 12). As previously shown in Figure 7 and 8, STIM1-GFP is distributed in a membranous and punctate fashion in the absence of store-depletion (Fig. 12A – left panel). However, STIM1-GFP rapidly redistributes into large, punctate clusters within minutes of adding TG to the bath solution (Fig. 12A – right panel, Fig. 12B). Therefore, the mechanism of STIM1 activation and TG-induced redistribution is very similar to that found in non-excitable cells.

The role of proteasome in SOCE function and STIM1 localization

Since STIM1 was identified in a screen for novel synaptic ubiquitinated proteins, an possibility was that proteasome inhibition may affect SOCE function. This was before it appeared that STIM1 is mono-ubiquitinated, and thus not destined for degradation of the proteasome(Kirkpatrick et al., 2005b). However, the results obtained were quite interesting, albeit difficult to model given the current understanding of STIM1 function. Utilizing HEK293T cells loaded with calcium indicator Fluor4-AM, we examined thapsigargin-induced calcium influx in the presence of proteasome inhibitor MG-132. Compared to control treated cells, proteasome inhibitors significantly increased peak TG-induced SOCE in HEK293T (TG, 1.54 ± 0.08 ; MG-132+TG, 2.16 ± 0.23 ; MG-132, 1.08 ± 0.04 fold change of control; $p < 0.05$ compared to STIM1-GFP alone, unpaired Student t-test) (Fig. 13A and B). Previous studies have shown STIM1 functionality is dependent on both STIM1 levels as well as localization (Liou et al., 2005; Spassova et al., 2006). Overexpression of STIM1 results in an increase in the amplitude of SOCE (Liou et al.,

2005), whereas application of STIM1 antibodies specific to extracellular domains leads to an inhibition of CRAC channel current (Spassova et al., 2006). Thus, we next wanted to examine if this proteasome-dependent increase in peak SOCE correlated with a change in either STIM1 localization or stability. Under identical experimental parameters, we first examined the STIM1 surface population. HEK293T cells expressing STIM1-GFP were treated as in Figure 13 A, B with proteasome inhibitor MG-132 (10 μ M) one hour prior to store-depletion with TG (1 μ M) (Figure 10C). We found that STIM1-GFP surface levels were significantly increased in cells pretreated with MG132 (Figure 13D; TG + MG132, 1.54 ± 0.07 fold change relative to control; $p < 0.05$ compared to STIM1-GFP alone, unpaired Student t test). This was in contrast to surface STIM1-GFP levels in cells treated with MG132 or TG alone (MG-132, $.95 \pm 0.06$; TG, 1.02 ± 0.05 fold change relative to control). This would suggest the component of SOCE that is potentiated by proteasome inhibition is coupled to the TG-induced depletion of internal stores.

Since proteasome inhibitors cause both an increase in SOCE and STIM1 surface levels, we next examined whether STIM1 was degraded by the proteasome. Steady-state levels of endogenous STIM1 protein in HEK293T cells treated with TG (1 μ M) in the presence of proteasome inhibitor, MG132 (10 μ M), and in the presence or absence of protein synthesis inhibitors (cycloheximide, 50 μ g/mL). As seen in Figure 13E, we found no difference in STIM1 protein levels between vehicle-treated, TG-treated, or TG plus MG132-treated cells in the presence or absence of protein synthesis inhibitors after 8 hours. This suggests that STIM1 is not degraded by the

proteasome under these conditions. Furthermore, it suggests that store-depletion does not cause a change in the turnover-rate of STIM1 in cells. Total STIM1 levels do not appear to be changing following activation of SOCE, with or without proteasome inhibition. When the ubiquitinated population of STIM1 is examined, however, these conditions do result in an observable change. Using p62-agarose beads to isolate ubiquitinated or ubiquitin-associated STIM1, the amount of STIM1 immunoreactive precipitates increase with concomitant proteasome inhibition (MG) and store-depletion (TG) (Fig. 14 A and B). The total levels, however, do not appear to change (Fig. 14A). This would suggest that STIM1 ubiquitination is not leading to degradation via the proteasome, but in fact, a proteasome sensitive factor promotes STIM1 ubiquitination in SOCE-dependent manner. Induction of SOCE via application of thapsigargin occurs in less than a minute (Parekh and Putney, 2005). Perhaps the 30 minute or 2 hour drug-treatments were resulting in a non-physiological modifications of STIM1. Short applications of TG revealed that STIM1 ubiquitination is rapid, but transient (Fig. 14C). There are a number of possible reasons for this transient ubiquitination – there are likely a host of other (proteasome-dependent) factors that are required for modification of STIM1.

UPS mediated perturbations of STIM1 function and localization

Since we did not observe any proteasome-dependent change in STIM1 stability, we wondered if ubiquitination might regulate STIM1 distribution in cells. Recently, the RING-finger ubiquitin ligase POSH (plenty of SH3's) was found to be involved in calcium homeostasis. POSH, which is associated with the trans-golgi

network and was originally identified as a factor required for the targeting of HIV-1 to the plasma membrane (Alroy et al., 2005), was shown to regulate calcium homeostasis by promoting the redistribution of Herp (homocysteine-inducible ER protein) to the ER (Tuvia et al., 2007). Upon TG-induced ER calcium store depletion, POSH promotes Herp lys-63-linked poly-ubiquitination, which in turn promotes the redistribution of Herp to the ER (Tuvia et al., 2007). Interestingly, POSH overexpression attenuates TG-induced calcium burst. Conversely, the inhibition of POSH by the expression of a RING-finger mutant, POSH^{V14A}, or by RNAi, enhances this phenomenon. Since POSH function is required for the maintenance of calcium homeostasis, presumably by controlling the distribution of regulatory molecules, we wondered if POSH might be involved in the regulation of STIM1 distribution. To examine this, we co-expressed WT myc-tagged POSH or POSH^{V14A} (a catalytically inactive variant) together with STIM1-GFP in HEK293T cells. The cells were then live-labeled HEK293T with anti-GFP antibodies to detect surface STIM1-GFP. Overexpression of WT POSH dramatically reduced surface STIM1-GFP levels (STIM1-GFP alone, 1.0 ± 0.16 ; STIM1-GFP plus POSH WT, 0.43 ± 0.12 $p < 0.01$ compared to STIM1-GFP alone, unpaired Student t test; STIM1-GFP plus POSH V14A, 1.17 ± 0.19) (Figure 15A and B). This was dependent on POSH ligase activity, as the RING finger mutant, POSH^{V14A}, had no effect on STIM1-GFP surface levels (Figure 15A and B). As expected, POSH overexpression had no effect on the stability of STIM1 (Fig. 15 C). Unfortunately, overexpression of POSH (either WT or V14A) has not observable effect on STIM1 ubiquitination (data not shown).

Immunoprecipitation of STIM1, however, does reveal that STIM1 and POSH are able to interact (Fig. 15D – Top Panel). Interestingly, the V14A is able to co-precipitate with STIM1 at a much higher level than the WT (Fig. 15D – Top Panel). The RING finger mutant affects binding of the E2-E3 complex, thus the reaction may be halted at the STIM1-POSH complex step (Alroy et al., 2005; Deshaies and Joazeiro, 2009).

It has been confirmed that STIM1 is ubiquitinated, and that the E3 ligase, POSH, interacts with and down regulates STIM1 from the surface in a RING-finger dependent manner. What is not known is if there are any preferred sites of ubiquitination, and if those sites are critical for localization and function of STIM1. Typically, mass spectrometric analysis of purified lysates provides the best avenue for identifying modified lysine residues. Even with ample amounts of modified target, the promiscuous nature of ubiquitination can make finding a single, specific site impossible (Danielsen et al., 2010; Peng, 2008). In lieu of this mass spectrometry, ubiquitin site prediction algorithms were used {Radivojac, 2010 #378, with the top five candidates from mouse STIM1. Targets were examined using site-directed mutagenesis and immunoprecipitation using ubiquitin antibodies (Fig. 16). The sites with the highest predicted score were K536R, K570R, K580R, K650R, and K651R. Lysine to arginine mutants were created to maintain the charge, but prevent covalent attachment of ubiquitin at that particular residue. The five candidates were all tested using the methodology presented in Figure 6C. Only one of the five tested, K650R, showed a change in ubiquitination (data not shown). STIM1 K650R showed enhanced *poly*-ubiquitination, and was destabilized in a proteasome dependent manner (Fig. 17

C). We had inadvertently created a proteasome-sensitive mutant of STIM1. As an ER-resident protein, it is likely that this mutant, although it contains a conserved positive charge, was improperly folded and became a substrate of the ERAD pathway. This mutant is mentioned, despite its apparent aberrant expression, because it showed some interesting localization patterns and effects on SOCE. Although it was degraded, the K650R mutant showed pronounced surface expression relative to wild-type STIM1 (Fig. 17A). This suggests that STIM1-K650R is stable long enough to transit to the plasma membrane prior to becoming shuttled to aggresomes. What is a bit counter-intuitive is the fact that this increase in surface STIM1 does not, as has been shown earlier, correlate with increased SOCE. In fact, the K650R mutant leads to a pronounced down-regulation of TG-induced SOCE (Fig. 17B).

Physiological occurrences of STIM1 ubiquitination

In addition to ubiquitination, it has been established that STIM1 is glycosylated and phosphorylated {Williams, 2002 #26}(Smyth et al., 2009). Glycosylation of STIM1 at N131 and N171 are necessary for surface expression of STIM1(Williams et al., 2002). Generally, STIM1 is found as a doublet in straight lysates, corresponding to unmodified STIM1 and N-glycosylated STIM1 (Fig. 18, Lane 1). This shift usually corresponds to 2-3 kDa increase in size. During mitosis, STIM1 is also phosphorylated at Ser-486 and Ser-668, which prevents STIM1 from redistributing and activating SOCE(Smyth et al., 2009). This phosphorylation leads to an additional shift, often seen as three bands (Fig. 18, Lane 5). Treatment with nocodazole, an inhibitor of microtubule polymerization, synchronizes cells in mitosis

after approximately 12 hours. Examination of STIM1 from these mitotic lysates reveals a multi-banded shift compared to unsynchronized lysates (Fig 18, Lanes 1 and 5). In-vitro DUB reactions using the synchronized lysates revealed that the change in STIM1 mobility was sensitive to de-ubiquitinating enzymes (Fig. 18, Lanes 5 and 6). Moreover, this shift was approximately 10-12 kDa, which would account for a combination of mono-ubiquitination and multiple phosphorylation events. These results would suggest that in addition to phosphorylation, STIM1 is mono-ubiquitinated during mitosis. Unfortunately, it is unclear at this time what role ubiquitination is playing in this process.

DISCUSSION

For some time it was thought that SOCE was absent in excitable cells. However, several reports in the last few years have shown that SOCE occurs in numerous types of excitable cells, including neurons (Emptage et al., 2001). Furthermore, SOCE has been shown to be involved in neuronal processes such as long-term potentiation (LTP) (Ris et al., 2003), neurite initiation and elongation (Mattson et al., 2000), and neurodegenerative disease (Mattson et al., 2000; Smith et al., 2002; Waldron et al., 1997; Yoo et al., 2000). It therefore seems plausible that SOCE may be an important regulator of calcium homeostasis in neurons.

In this study, we characterized the ER calcium sensor and essential regulator of SOCE, STIM1, in neurons. STIM1 is expressed in immature neurons and its levels increase throughout development and remain relatively high in mature neurons (Fig. 2A). Upon biochemical fractionation of rat hippocampal tissues, we found STIM1 to be present in most subcellular fractions, including postsynaptic densities (Fig. 2B). Furthermore, using immunohistochemistry we found that both endogenous STIM1 and ectopically expressed STIM1-GFP partially co-localize with synaptic proteins (Fig. 4A-D). These expression and localization patterns suggest a role for STIM1 both in developing neurons and mature neurons, at or near synapses. In neurons, endogenous STIM1 and ectopically expressed STIM1-GFP were found to be distributed in a membranous and punctate fashion. Using time-lapse confocal microscopy, we monitored STIM1-GFP redistribution in hippocampal neurons in response to TG-induced store depletion (Fig. 7). STIM1-GFP rapidly mobilizes into large punctate

clusters in both somatic and dendritic compartments. This is similar to what has been observed for STIM1 redistribution in non-excitable cells (Liou et al., 2005; Wu et al., 2006). One difference is that there is a large population of clustered STIM1 puncta present even prior to the addition of TG. In some cases, we also observed multiple STIM1 puncta combine into even larger puncta. In non-excitable cells such as HEK293T cells, endogenous or ectopically expressed STIM1 is distributed in a more diffuse, membranous pattern, and only upon store-depletion does it rapidly redistribute into large, punctate clusters. In neurons, it is plausible that the dynamic clustering and movement of STIM1 is not only promoted by store-depletion, but also by other effectors of calcium entry and ER calcium release.

Although the physiological relevance of SOCE has been shown in neurons, very little is known about its role in neuronal development. Cytoplasmic calcium has been shown to play a critical role in growth cone dynamics, neurite outgrowth, and the development of synapses (Henley et al., 2004). Interestingly, we also observed punctate STIM1-GFP clusters in dendritic growth cones when expressed in immature hippocampal neurons (Fig. 5C). Moreover, a distinct population of STIM1-GFP was localized to the surface of dendrites and growth cones and at the tips growth cone extensions. Using surface biotinylation methods and stringent lysis buffer conditions, we detected endogenous STIM1 on the surface of mature neurons (Fig. 5A). Together, these data suggest that STIM1 physically inserts into the plasma membrane of neurons. However, we do not know if this population of STIM1 is functionally involved in SOCE. Indeed, there is heavy debate over whether STIM1 activation of

SOCE channels occurs by translocating to the PM or by clustering in the ER beneath the PM (Liou et al., 2007; Liou et al., 2005; Roos et al., 2005; Spassova et al., 2006; Wu et al., 2006). It is plausible, however, that STIM1 is distributed differently in neurons. As such, there could be a direct role for the physical insertion of STIM1 into the surface of neurons. Furthermore, it is intriguing to postulate a role for STIM1 and presumably SOCE function in growth dynamics and neurite outgrowth. Chronic inhibition of SOCE results in marked decrease in neurite outgrowth (Fig. 6). Combined with the observation that STIM1 is also present at the tip of these developing neurites, it would stand to reason that STIM1 plays some role in neuronal development. With the recent studies uncovering the STIM2 isoform as the indispensable regulator of neuronal SOCE (Berna-Erro et al., 2009), the possible roles of STIM1 in neuronal function are still left largely unexplored. STIM2 is thought to serve as a calcium sensor at lower calcium thresholds (Bird et al., 2009), and the two STIM1 isoforms are highly homologous, except within their C-terminal domains (Stathopoulos et al., 2006). It might be interesting to explore the role of the two STIM1 isoforms, and specifically, their cytoplasmic domains, on different forms of plasticity and calcium entry within neurons.

In this study, we have also uncovered a novel connection between the UPS and SOCE function. Foremost, in a proteomic screen for novel, synaptic ubiquitinated proteins, we identified STIM1. Poly-ubiquitinated proteins can be recognized and targeted for degradation by the 26S proteasome. However, ubiquitination is also a widely utilized cellular mechanism for controlling the interaction, function and the

cellular distribution of many protein (Hicke and Dunn, 2003). Notably, the covalent attachment of single ubiquitin molecules (monoubiquitination) or short ubiquitin chains have been shown to promote the down-regulation of integral membrane proteins. We confirmed the ubiquitination of endogenous STIM1 in the brain (Fig. 1A - C). However, ubiquitinated STIM1 migrated on SDS-PAGE primarily as a single, molecular weight species, running approximately 8-10 kDa higher than STIM1. This would indicate STIM1 is modified by a single ubiquitin moiety. Furthermore, it suggests that ubiquitinated STIM1 may not be targeted to the 26S proteasome for degradation. Indeed, we found no evidence for STIM1 degradation by the proteasome (Fig. 8E). We then asked if proteasome inhibition affected SOCE. Surprisingly, brief exposure of proteasome inhibitors to HEK293 cells significantly increased SOCE (Fig. 8A and 8B). This suggests that proteasome activity is involved SOCE function. This increase in peak SOCE was only observed in cells treated with both TG and proteasome inhibitors, whereas treating cells with proteasome inhibitors alone had no effect. This indicates that one or more regulators of SOCE may be targeted for degradation by the proteasome under conditions of store-depletion and SOCE activation. The fact that surface STIM1-GFP levels are increased under similar conditions (Fig. 8 C and D) was surprising, as other data suggests STIM1 is not a direct target of the proteasome (Fig. 8E). This result suggests that STIM1 surface stability is regulated by an unidentified UPS target. Previous studies have already drawn a functional link between surface STIM1 and SOCE, wherein the blockade of surface STIM1 using N-terminal specific antibodies leads to a deficit in SOCE in

HEK293 cells (Hewavitharana et al., 2008), (Spassova et al., 2006) . Accordingly, our data would suggest that there are likely multiple levels at which the UPS regulates STIM1 and SOCE function. One scenario would involve the ubiquitination and proteasomal-independent regulation of STIM1. The second involves the ubiquitin-dependent proteasomal degradation of other regulators of SOCE function that likely converge to affect the distribution of STIM1. Although STIM1 levels are not affected by proteasome inhibition, p62 associated populations increase following concomitant activation of SOCE and inhibition of the proteasome (Fig. 9 A and B). This ubiquitination is also quite transient, disappearing by 15 minutes of application (Fig. 9C). The most parsimonious conclusion that can be drawn is that a SOCE-sensitive, proteasome-dependent co-factor is affecting the monoubiquitination of STIM1. All that is certain is that there is a yet unidentified activity dependent regulator of SOCE that is also a target of the proteasome.

In our search for a connection between STIM1 ubiquitination and SOCE function, we turned to the recently discovered RING-finger containing E3 ligase, POSH. This E3 ligase has been implicated in the regulation of calcium homeostasis (Tuvia et al., 2007). What made POSH an interesting candidate, aside from the fact that it was a negative regulator of SOCE, was that it ubiquitinated substrates in a non-degradative fashion. Overexpression of POSH was shown to decrease thapsigargin-induced calcium influx in HEK293 cells, whereas RNAi-mediated knockdown leads to a prolonged influx (Tuvia et al., 2007). We therefore hypothesized that POSH may act as negative regulator of STIM1. We examined whether POSH had any role in STIM1

stability or localization. While we found no effect of POSH overexpression on STIM1 stability (data not shown), co-expression of POSH dramatically reduces surface STIM1-GFP levels (Fig. 10A and 10B). This was dependent on POSH ligase activity, as the RING finger mutant, POSH^{V14A}, had no effect on STIM1-GFP surface levels. Taken together, this suggests POSH may regulate SOCE through direct or indirect regulation of STIM1 trafficking in cells. On a side note, Xu et al. published that POSH autoubiquitinates and degrades itself in a proteasome dependent manner (Xu et al., 2003). At no time, did we observe any change in total POSH stability, either overexpressed or endogenous (Fig. 10C). If this was the case, we would hypothesize that proteasome inhibition would lead to increased STIM1 surface levels and enhanced SOCE. It is also intriguing to postulate a role for POSH-mediated regulation of STIM1 trafficking in immature neurons since a recent study has implicated POSH as a negative regulator of axon outgrowth. In the study by Taylor et al., they found that RNAi-mediated inhibition of POSH significantly increased axon outgrowth in differentiating mouse primary cortical neurons and in neurons derived from mouse P19 cells (Taylor et al., 2008).

To date, there has not been any substantial connection between the UPS and SOCE function in both excitable and non-excitable cells. Furthermore, the components of SOCE have not been extensively studied in neurons. Our characterization of STIM1 in neurons indicates STIM1 as an important regulator of calcium homeostasis in the developing and mature brain. Furthermore, we show that there is a relationship between UPS activity and STIM1 distribution and SOCE

function. STIM1 is ubiquitinated in the brain; however, there is no evidence for STIM1 degradation by the proteasome. It is likely that an intact proteasome pathway is required for a normal TG-induced SOCE response, as we have found that TG-induced SOCE is significantly increased in cells that were pre-treated with proteasome inhibitors. At one level this indicates that one or more proteins involved in SOCE are degraded by the proteasome in response to store-depletion. Therefore, both STIM1 ubiquitination and the degradation of other functionally related proteins are likely involved in the regulation of SOCE and will be important to study. We predict that there is a larger functional relationship between the UPS and SOCE function that will be important to study further, which likely affects calcium homeostasis in both normal neuronal physiology and neurodegenerative disease.

Chapter II, in part, contains material previously published in Keil, JM, Shen Z, Briggs SP, Patrick GP. (2010). Regulation of STIM1 and SOCE by the ubiquitin proteasome system (UPS). *PloS One*. 5(10):e13465.,

MATERIALS AND METHODS

DNA and Sindbis constructs. STIM1-GFP was created by positioning EGFP (enhanced GFP; Clontech, Palo Alto, CA) at amino acid 23, immediately after the signal peptide sequence of mouse STIM1 (Accession: BC021644) purchased from Open Biosystems (Birmingham, AL). STIM1 signal peptide (amino acid 1 -22) was PCR amplified and ligated into a unique NheI site in EGFP-C1. STIM1 (amino acid 23 – 685) was then amplified and mobilized via Bgl2-ApaI into the signal peptide-EGFP-C1. STIM1-GFP was further subcloned into the XbaI site of SinRep5 (Invitrogen). For production of recombinant Sindbis virions, RNA was transcribed using the SP6 mMessage mMachine (Ambion, Austin, TX), and electroporated into BHK cells using a BTX ECM 600 at 220V, 129 Ω , and 1050 μ F. Virion were collected after 24-32 hours and stored at -80°C until use. For Sindbis infection of hippocampal cultures STIM1-GFP virion were added directly to the culture media, with expression carried out for 12 – 18 hours prior to treatment and/or fixation. Wild-type myc-tagged POSH (Accession: AF030131; Tapon et al. 1998) was provided by Dr. Alan Hall through Addgene. POSH^{V14A} RING-finger mutant was mutagenized by a Quickchange (Stratagene, La Jolla, CA) protocol changing codon 14 from GTG to GCG. The following Quickchange primers were used: Forward, TGTCCGGCGTGTCTCGAG CGCCTTGATGCTTCTGCGA. Reverse, GAACAACCTAGAAAACCTC ACAGGCCGCACAGAGCTC

Western blot analysis and PSD-fractionation.

For western blot analysis, all lysates were electrophoresed on SDS-polyacrylamide gels, transferred onto nitrocellulose membranes (Biorad, Hercules, CA), blocked with 5% fat-free milk in TBS/0.1% Tween20 (TBST), and incubated with primary antibodies in TBST +2%BSA overnight at 4°C. Membranes were then washed in TBST, and incubated with the appropriate HRP-conjugated secondary antibody in TBST +2%BSA, and developed with HyGlo ECL (Denville Scientific Inc, South Plainfield, NJ). PSD fractionation was performed as previously described (Carlin et al., 1980; Cho et al., 1992). Briefly, adult female Sprague-Dawley rats (Harlan, Indianapolis, IN) were anesthetized with halothane (Baxter) and euthanized by rapid decapitation. Whole-brains were dounce homogenized (Teflon-glass) in 0.32 M Sucrose, 4 mM Hepes pH 7.4 plus Complete protease inhibitor cocktail (Roche, Indianapolis, IN). Synaptosomes were purified from crude membrane fraction (P2) by discontinuous sucrose density gradient centrifugation. PSD fractions were derived from synaptosomes by single (PSD-I) or double (PSD-II) extraction with 0.5% Triton X-100.

Immunoprecipitations.

For all immunoprecipitations, cells were scraped and lysed in PB buffer plus 1% TritonX-100, 0.1% SDS, Complete protease inhibitors, 25 µM MG132, 100 µM NEM. Lysates were cleared at 18,000 X g for 30', and the resulting supernatant was incubated with 2 µg of antibody overnight. Immune complexes were precipitated

using Protein A/G agarose beads (Pierce). Beads were washed 3 X in PB buffer and resuspended in 2X Laemelli sample buffer prior to western blotting.

Surface biotinylation and live-labeling.

For surface biotinylation, mature (> 21 DIV) rat cortical cultures were washed once in PBS-MC (10 mM phosphate buffer, 2.7 mM KCl, 137 mM NaCl, 1 mM CaCl_2 , 0.5 mM MgCl_2 , pH 7.4) and incubated with 1 mg/ml NHS-LC-biotin (Pierce, Rockford, IL) in PBS-MC for 2 h at 4°C. Cells were then washed 2X in PBS-MC and lysed in precipitation (PB) buffer (10 mM NaPO_4 , pH 7.4, 5 mM EDTA, 5 mM EGTA, 100 mM NaCl) with 0.1% SDS, 1% Triton X-100, and complete protease inhibitors; rotated at 4°C for 30 min, and spun at 18,000 x g. Cleared lysates were incubated with 30 μl of a 50% neutravidin bead slurry (Pierce, Rockford, IL) rotating for 2 h at 4°C. Beads were washed 4X in PB buffer and resuspended in 2X Laemelli sample buffer. Samples were resolved by SDS-PAGE and analyzed via western blot.

Measurement of intracellular calcium.

Fluo-4AM (Invitrogen, λ_{ex} 495 nm; λ_{em} 516 nm) loaded HEK293 cells were prepared as previously described (Roos et al., 2005). Briefly, HEK293 cells plated in 96-well plates were treated with 1 hour with 10 μM MG132 or vehicle (DMSO) and loaded with 5 μM fluo-4AM in culture medium for 30 min at 25°C. Cells were washed twice in calcium-free HBSS (115 mM NaCl, 1 mM KCl, 1 mM CaCl_2 , 1 mM MgCl_2 , 10 mM glucose, 10 mM HEPES pH 7.4) and placed in a FlexstationII⁹⁶ fluorimeter (Molecular Devices). At T=0s, the cells were treated with either 1 μM TG or vehicle (DMSO) for 5 min followed by re-addition of CaCl_2 to a final concentration of 1.8

mM. Fluorescence at 515nm was measured every 3 s after Ca^{2+} addition. Softmax Pro (Molecular Devices, Wokingham, UK) was used for data analysis. Traces of Relative Fluorescence Units (RFU) were normalized to control baseline and plotted from the point of calcium addition.

Immunostaining and confocal microscopy.

For all imaging purposes, we used a Leica (Wetzlar, Germany) DMI6000 inverted microscope outfitted with a Yokogawa (Tokyo, Japan) Spinning disk confocal head, a Orca ER High Resolution B&W Cooled CCD camera (6.45 μm /pixel at 1X) (Hamamatsu, Sewickley, PA), Plan Apochromat 40X/1.25 na and 63X/1.4 na objective, and a Melles Griot (Carlsbad, CA) Argon/Krypton 100 mW air-cooled laser for 488/568/647 nm excitations. Confocal z-stacks were acquired in all experiments. For fixed cell imaging following treatments, hippocampal cultures (4 – 21 DIV) were fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde/4% sucrose (PFA) for 10 minutes at room temperature, and blocked and permeabilized in PBS-MC (phosphate buffered saline with 1 mM MgCl_2 and 0.1 M CaCl_2) with Triton X-100 (0.2%) and BSA (2%) for 15 minutes. Cells were incubated overnight at 4°C with primary antibody in PBS-MC and 2%BSA. Primary antibodies were visualized with appropriate secondary antibodies (1:1000): Cy3 goat anti-chicken IgG (Jackson Immuno Research, West Grove, PA); goat anti-mouse Alexa 488, goat anti-rabbit Alexa 568, goat anti-mouse Alexa 568, and goat anti-mouse Alexa 647 (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA). Cells were then washed and coverslips were mounted in Aqua Poly/Mount (Polysciences, Warrington, PA). For live-labeling of surface STIM1-GFP, HEK293 cells were plated on poly-D-lysine

(1 mg/ml) coated 35 mm glass coverslips and transfected with 1 μ g of STIM1-GFP with Lipofectamine2000 (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Prior to fixation and permeabilization, rabbit anti-GFP AlexaFluor 594 conjugated antibody (0.02 μ g/ μ l final) was added directly to the cells in culture media and incubated 20 min at 37°C. Cells were washed 3X in PBS-MC, fixed in 4%PFA/4%Sucrose at room temp for 10 min, washed 3X in PBS-MC and mounted in Aqua/Poly mount.

Antibodies, Reagents, and Drugs.

FK2, α -ubiquitin conjugate (mAb, 1:1000) antibody was purchased from Biomol (Plymouth Meeting, PA); α -ubiquitin (pAb, 1:2000) antibody was purchased from Dakocytomation (Kyoto, Japan); α -synapsin antibody (pAb, 1:1000) was purchased from Chemicon (Temecula, CA); α -PSD-95 antibody (mAb, 1:1000) was purchased from Calbiochem (La Jolla, CA); α -GluR1 (pAb, 1:1000 immunoblot) was purchased from Upstate Biotechnologies (Lake Placid, NY); α -STIM1 (mAb, 1:1000 immunoblot; 1:200 immunofluorescence) was purchased from BD Biosciences (Franklin Lakes, NJ); α -Calreticulin (pAb, 1:1000) was purchased from StressGen (Victoria, BC, Canada); MAP2 (pAb, 1:5000) was purchased from Abcam (Cambridge, UK). The following pharmacological reagents were used: MG132 from Peptide Institute (Osaka, Japan); Thapsigargin (TG) from Tocris-Cookson (Ellisville, MO) ; 2-Aminoethoxydiphenylborane (2-APB) Tocris Bioscience (Bristol, UK); and cycloheximide from Sigma-Aldrich (St. Louis, MO).

Image Analysis.

All imaging was acquired in the dynamic range of 8 bit (0-255) with Simple PCI (Hamamatsu) imaging software. For quantitation of surface STIM1 immunofluorescence, max projected confocal z-stacks were analyzed with NIH ImageJ (Bethesda, MD). Surface STIM1 images were thresholded to a level 2X background and normalized to a total STIM1-GFP signal thresholded at 1.5X background. Surface fluorescence intensities were normalized to control groups and plotted as mean intensity $\pm$ SEM. Pooled, average values within each experiment were normalized to control and plotted as mean length $\pm$ SEM. Statistical significance was determined by unpaired Student's t-test or ANOVA with *post hoc* Bonferroni's multiple-comparison test as indicated.

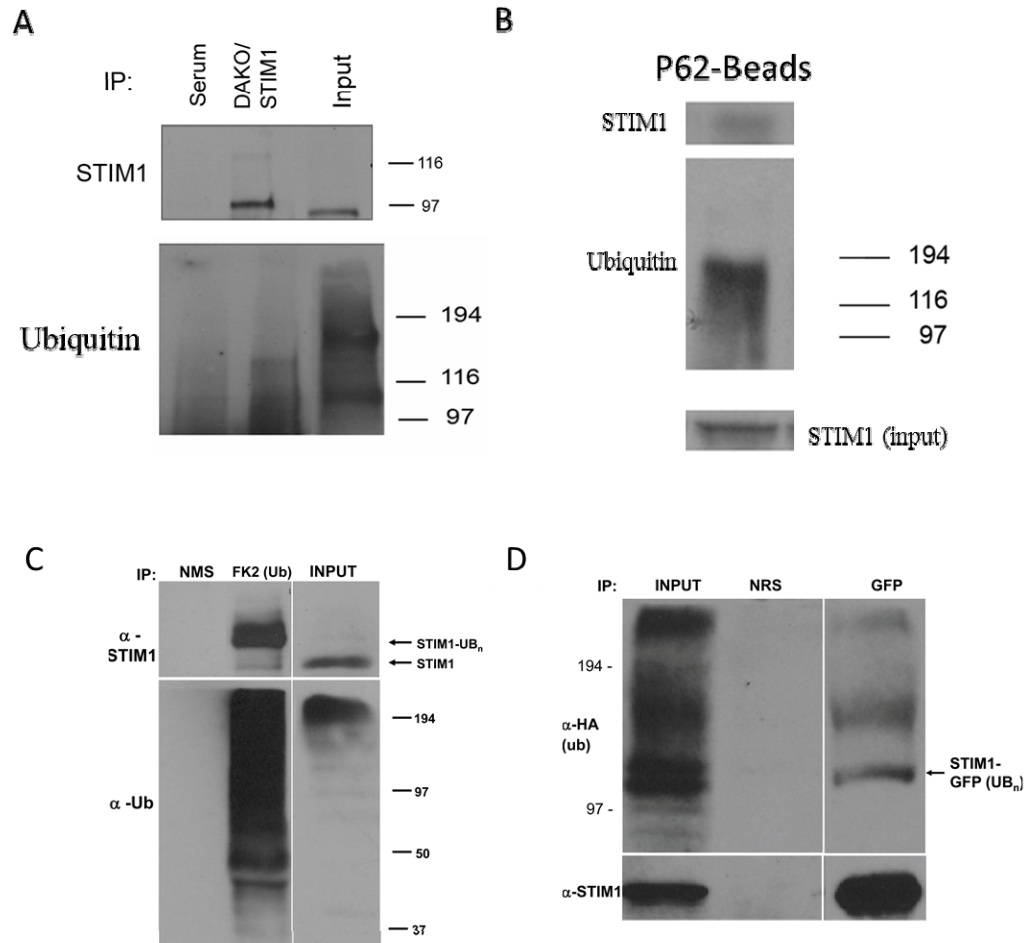


Figure 6. STIM1 is ubiquitinated in the rat brain and HEK-293T cells. (A) Adult rat brain P2' synaptosomal membranes were solubilized and then sequentially immunoprecipitated with α -DAKO, then or α -STIM1. Immune complexes were resolved by SDS-PAGE and subjected to western blot analysis with α -STIM1 (top) or α -ubiquitin (bottom) antibodies (B) Adult rat brain P2' synaptosomal membranes were solubilized and then sequentially precipitated with p62-agarose beads. Precipitates were resolved by SDS-PAGE and subjected to western blot analysis with α -STIM1 (top) or α -ubiquitin (bottom) antibodies. (C) Adult rat brain P2' synaptosomal membranes were solubilized and then immunoprecipitated with either α -STIM1 or α -ubiquitin (FK2). Immune complexes were resolved by SDS-PAGE and subjected to western blot analysis with α -STIM1 (top) or α -ubiquitin (bottom) antibodies. Arrow indicates the relative mobility of unmodified STIM1. (D) HA-ubiquitin and STIM1-GFP were co-expressed in HEK293 cells. The resulting lysates were subjected to immunoprecipitation with either α -GFP or control serum (normal rabbit serum, NRS). Arrow indicates the relative mobility of monoubiquitinated-STIM1GFP. Representative blots depicted from 2 to 3 independent experiments for C and D.

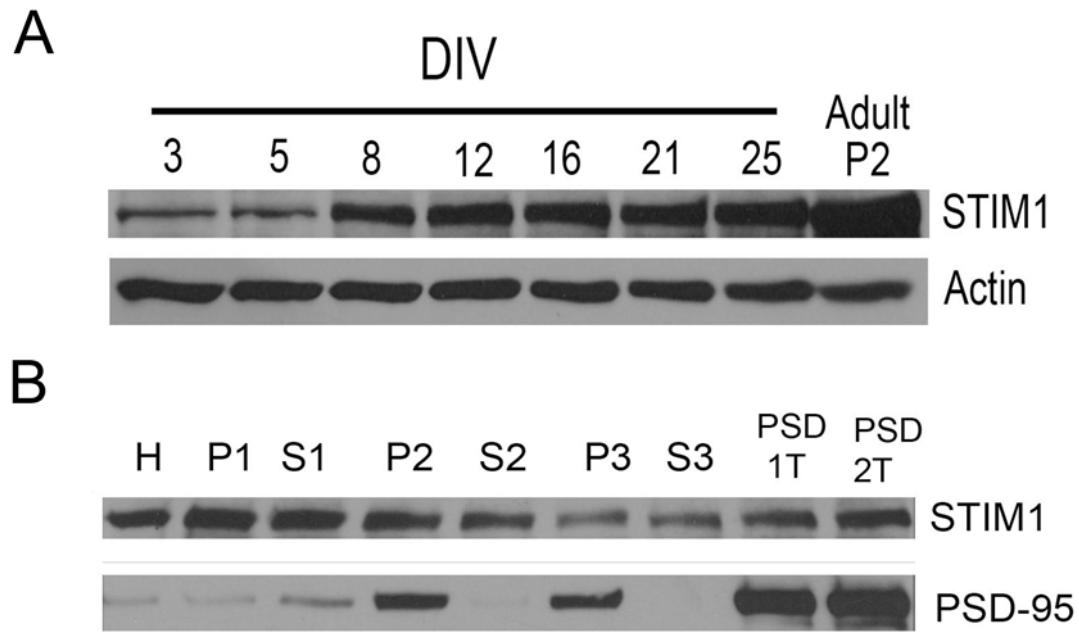


Figure 7. Biochemical examination of spatial and temporal expression patterns of STIM1 in the rat brain. (A). Lysates from cultured rat cortical neurons between days in vitro (DIV) 3 and DIV 25 were subjected to western blot analysis with α -STIM1 antibodies. Representative blots depicted from 3 independent experiments. (B) Western blot of adult rat brain fractions isolated by differential and density gradient fractionation probed with α -STIM1 antibodies (top panel) and α -PSD-95 (middle panel). Fractions are as follows: rat brain homogenate (*H*), crude synaptosome (*P2*), crude synaptosome supernatant (*S2*), lysed synaptosomal membrane fraction (*P3*), crude synaptic vesicle fraction (*S3*), single Triton X-100 extracted PSD (*PSD-1T*), and a double triton X-100 extracted PSD (*PSD-2T*). Representative blots depicted from 2 independent experiments

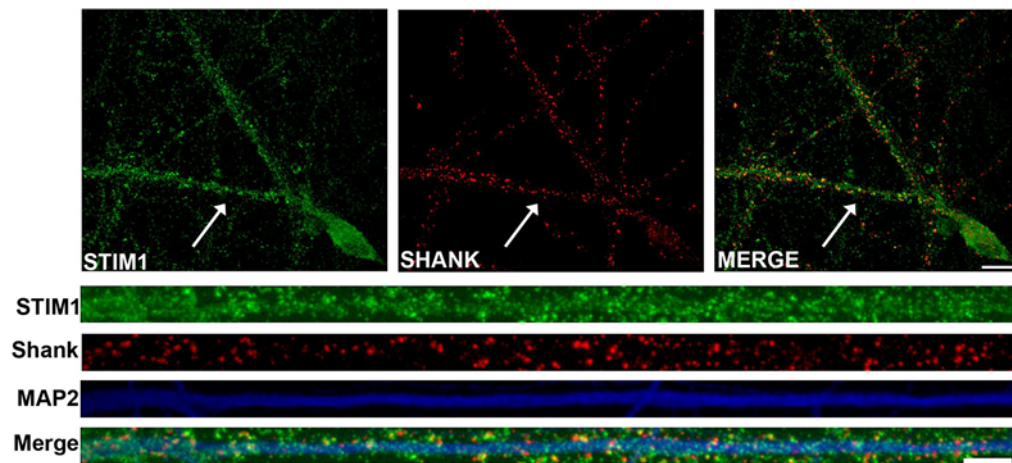
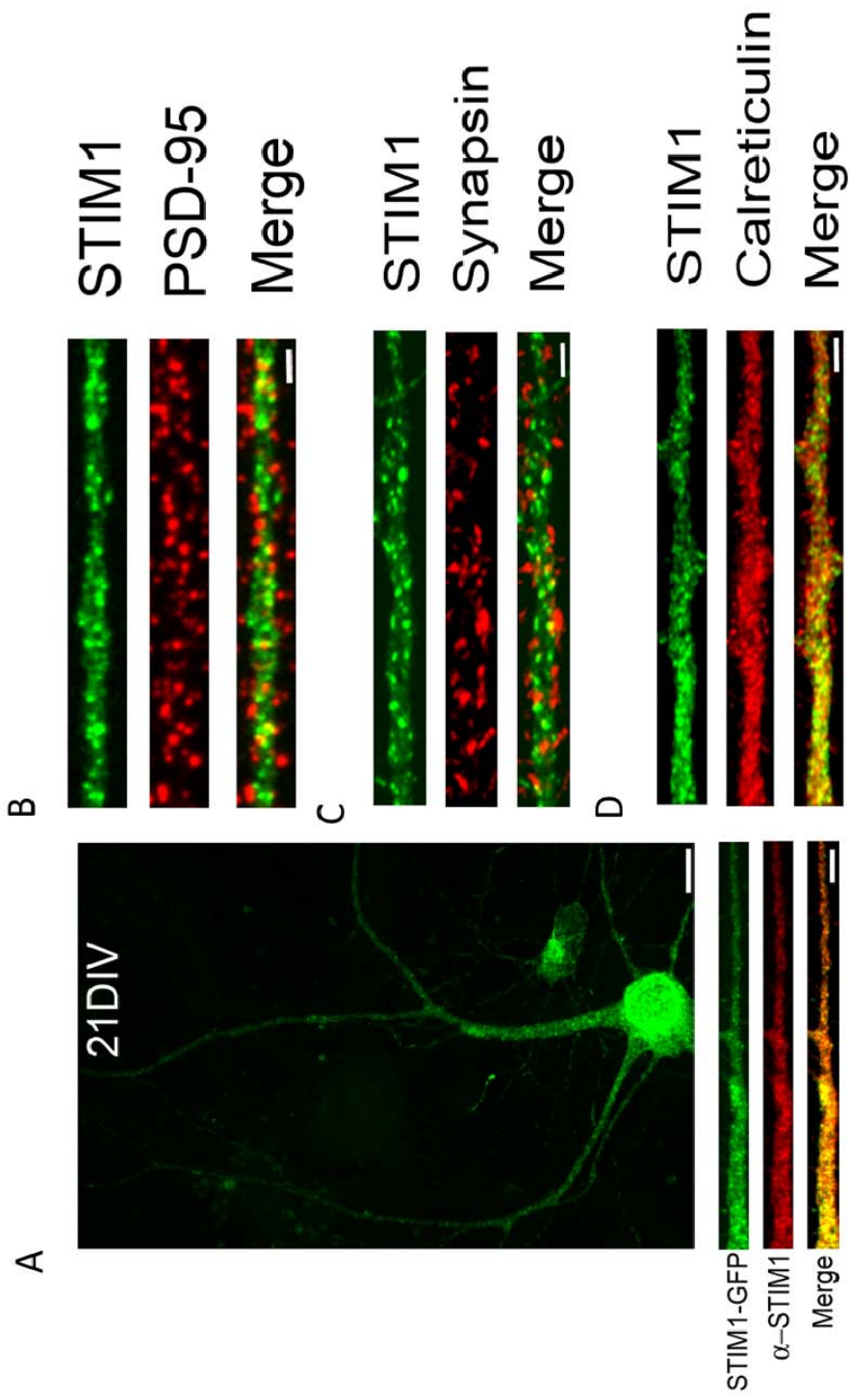


Figure 8. Immunohistochemical examination of spatial and temporal expression patterns of endogenous STIM1 in the rat brain. Immunostaining of endogenous STIM1 protein in cultured rat hippocampal neurons (DIV 21). Neurons were immunolabeled with α -STIM1 (green), α -Shank (red), and α -MAP2 (blue) antibodies. Whole scale bars, 20 μ m; dendrite scale bar, 10 μ m.

Figure 9. Immunohistochemical examination of spatial and temporal expression patterns of exogenous STIM1 in the rat brain Cultured rat hippocampal neurons (DIV 21 and 4; A thru D) were infected with Sindbis STIM1-GFP virion. Expression was allowed to continue for 12 hours prior to fixation, permeabilization, and immunolabeling with α - STIM1 (A), α - PSD-95 (B), α -synapsin (C, α -calreticulin (D) antibodies. Representative images depicted from > 30 images acquired per co-stain. Scale bar = 5 μ m.



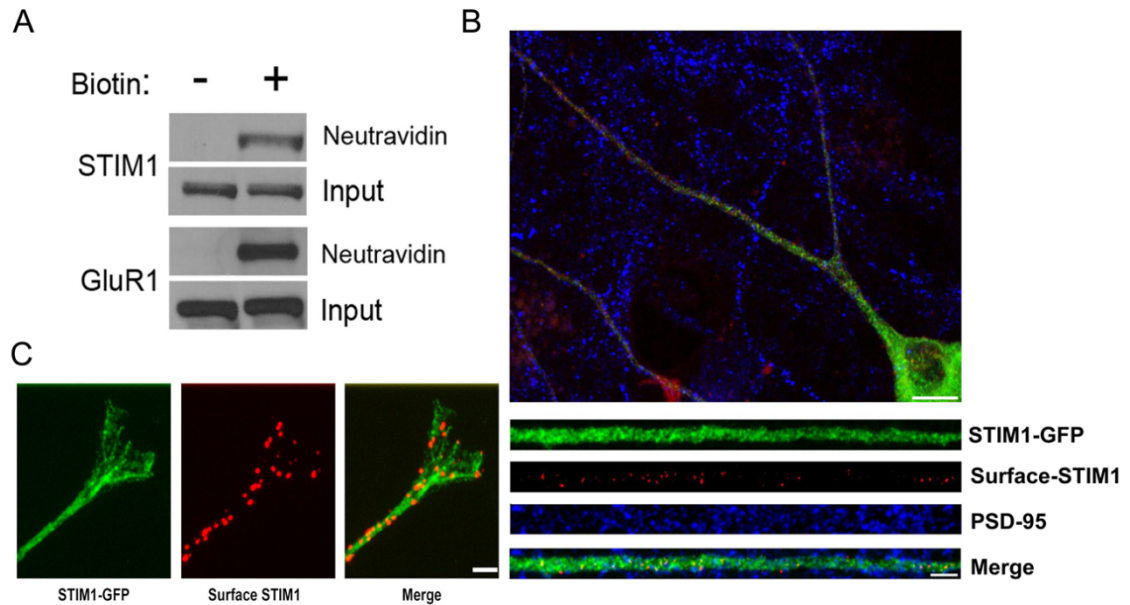


Figure 10. STIM1 is present at the surface of mature and developing hippocampal neurons. (A) Cell surface STIM1 protein populations were examined biochemically by labeling cortical neurons (DIV >21) with NHS-LC-biotin followed by precipitation of the resulting lysates with neutravidin biotin binding beads. Precipitates were resolved by SDS-PAGE and analyzed via western blot with α -STIM1 (top) or α -GluR1 (bottom) antibodies. Representative blots depicted from 3 independent experiments. (B) Rat hippocampal neurons (DIV 21 and 4) were infected with Sindbis STIM1-GFP virion. Expression was allowed to continue for 12 hours. The cells were then live-labeled with α -GFP-Alexa 594 conjugated antibodies (red) prior to fixation, permeabilization, and immunolabeling with α -PSD-95 antibodies (blue). As depicted in (B-C), STIM1-GFP is present on the surface of dendrites and growth cones. Representative images depicted from > 40 images acquired. Whole cell scale bar = 20 μ m; dendrite scale bar = 10 μ m; Growth cone scale bar = 5 μ m.

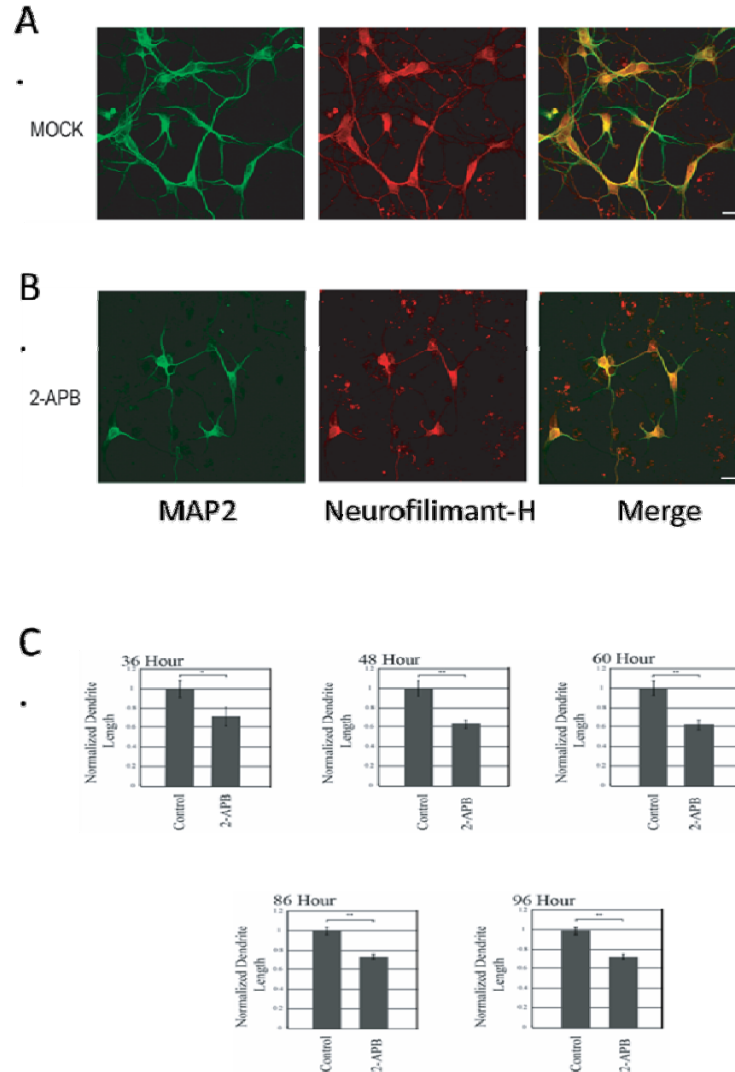
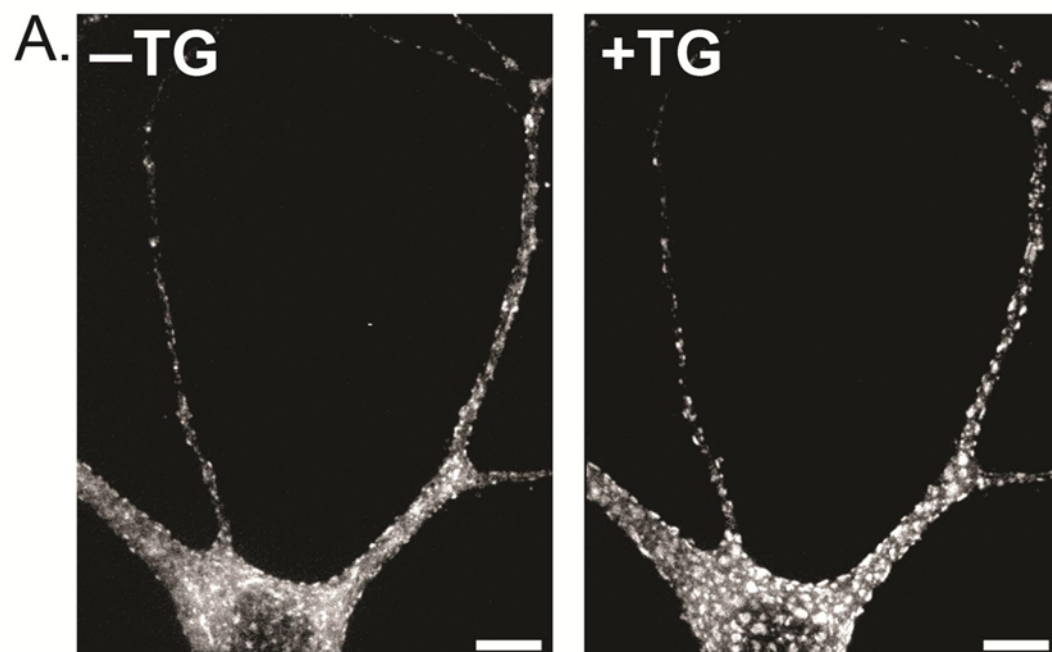


Figure 11. Inhibition of SOCE causes decreased neurite outgrowth in developing hippocampal neurons. Rat primary dissociated hippocampal neurons were treated with either (A) DMSO or (B) 20 μ M 2-APB. At varying intervals between 36 and 96 hours in-vitro, neurons were fixed, permeabilized, and immunostained with α -MAP2 (green) and α -Neurofilament-H (red). As depicted, inhibition of SOCE inhibits neurite outgrowth. Representative max z-projected confocal images are shown. Scale bar = 10 μ m. (C) For analysis, MAP2 positive neurites were straightened from the soma to the ends of each process, after which the lengths were measured using NIH ImageJ. Bar graphs represent averaged length of neurites between control and treated groups at each time-period. Average of 3 independent experiments $\pm$ SEM. * p < 0.001, ** p < 0.01

Figure 12. Store-depletion induced rapid redistribution of STIM1-GFP in hippocampal neurons. Rat hippocampal neurons (DIV 18) were infected with Sindbis STIM1-GFP virion. Expression was allowed to continue for 12 hours prior to live-imaging in the presence of either vehicle or thapsigargin (TG; 2 μ M final). Confocal images were taken at 2 min. intervals before (A) and after the addition of drugs (B). Representative max z-projected confocal whole cell images (A and B) and corresponding straightened dendrites (C) at indicated time points are shown. As shown, TG-induced ER calcium store-depletion rapidly promotes the redistribution of STIM1-GFP into large punctate clusters in both somatic and dendritic compartments. Whole-cell scale bars = 20 μ m; dendrite scale bar = 10 μ m



B. Time (min.)

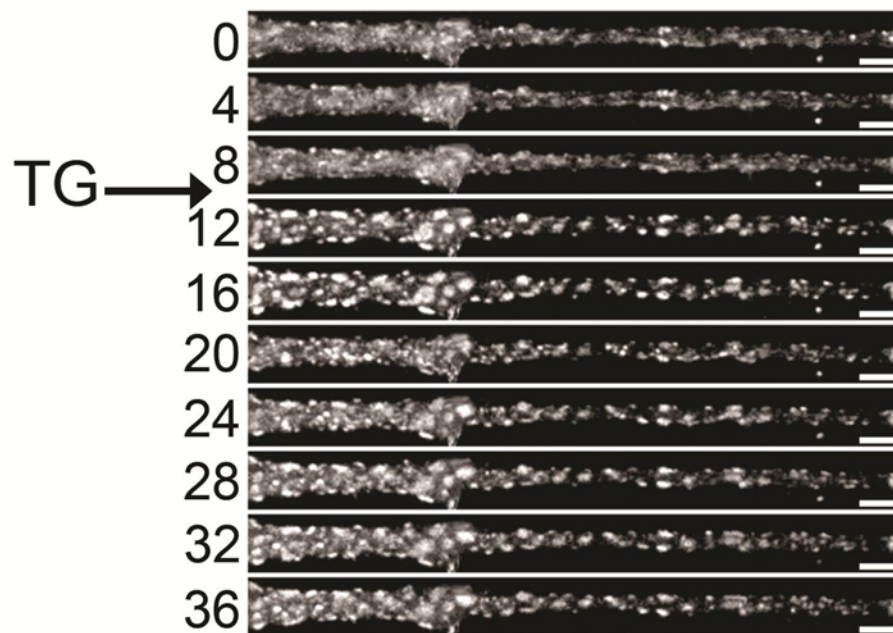
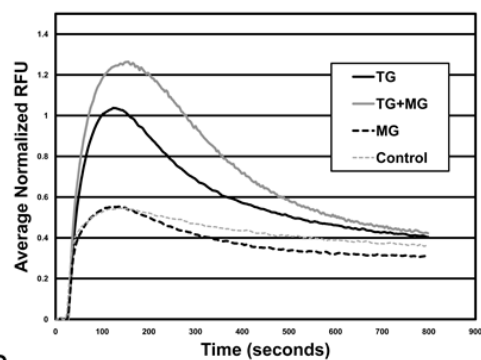
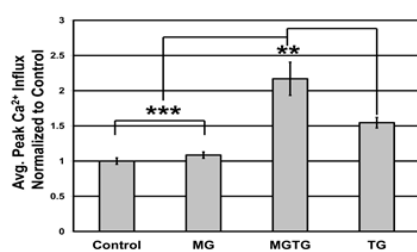


Figure 13. Effects of proteasome inhibition on store-operated calcium (SOC) influx, STIM1 subcellular localization and STIM1 stability. Potentiation of TG-induced calcium influx in HEK293T cells following pretreatment with the proteasome inhibitor MG-132 (10 μ M). HEK293T cells plated in 96-well plates were loaded with the calcium indicator Fluo-4AM. Prior to loading the cells were pretreated with either vehicle (DMSO) or MG-132 (10 μ M) for 1 h. The cells were then treated with 1 μ M TG or vehicle (DMSO) for 30 min. Fluorescence was monitored by a FlexstationII 96-well fluorimeter, with Ca²⁺-re-addition (1.8mM final) 5 minutes following baseline measurements. (A) Traces represent Ca²⁺-influx normalized to baseline, averaged over 12 wells per treatment. (B) Bar graph depicts averaged peak Ca²⁺ influx $\pm$ SEM. For statistical analysis, one-way ANOVA with *post hoc* Bonferroni's multiple-comparison test was used. * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.001$. (C) HEK293T cells expressing STIM1-GFP were treated as in (A), then live-labeled with α -GFP-Alexa 594 conjugated antibodies (red) prior to fixation. Scale bars, 10 μ m. (D) Bar graph depicting the quantification of the STIM1-GFP surface levels from (D). Values were normalized to control. Mean values $\pm$ SEM are shown. * $p < 0.05$, unpaired Student t-test. Represents the average of three independent experiments; 40 to 60 fields of cells per condition (15-25 cells per field). (E) HEK293 cells were treated in the absence (-) or presence (+) of cycloheximide (50 μ g/mL) with either (1) DMSO, (2) 2 μ M thapsigargin, or (3) 2 μ M thapsigargin plus 10 μ M MG-132 for the indicated times. Following treatments, protein levels were examined by western blot analysis with α -STIM1 or α -actin antibodies. Represent blots from 3 independent experiments.

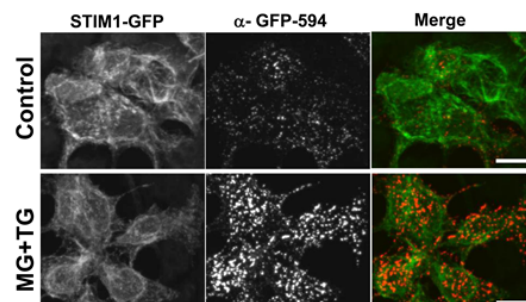
A



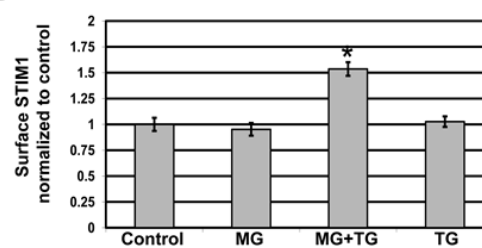
B



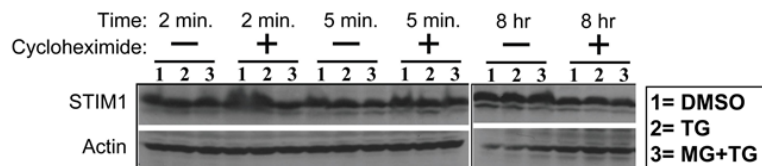
C



D



E



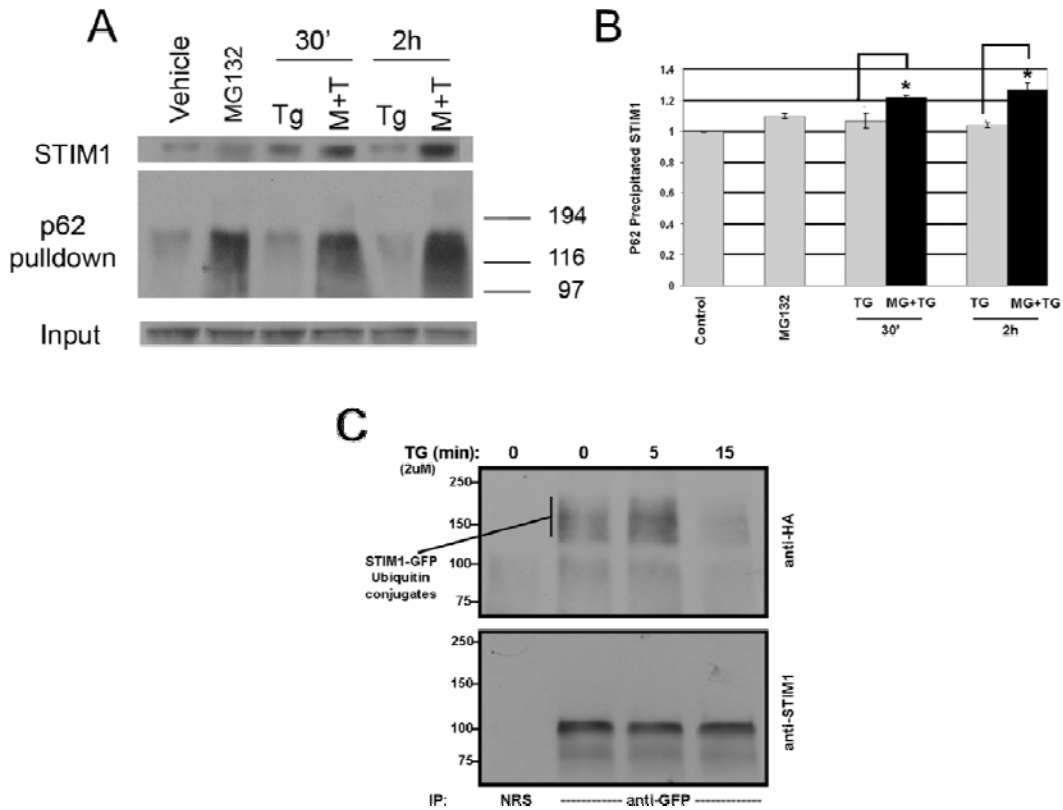


Figure 14. Store-depletion increases population of proteasome-dependent STIM1 ubiquitination. (A) HEK293T cells were pretreated with vehicle (DMSO) or MG132 (10 μ M) for 1 h, then TG (2 μ M) 30 min or 2 h. Lysates were precipitated with multi-ubiquitin binding p62-conjugated beads and analyzed by immunoblot with α -STIM1 (top;bottom) or α -ubiquitin (middle). (B) Densitometry analysis shows significant increase in ubiquitinated STIM1 with proteasome inhibition prior to store depletion (N=3, *P<0.05). Error bars represent $\pm$ SEM. (C) HEK293T cells expressing STIM1-GFP and HA-Ubiquitin were treated with TG (2 μ M) for 0, 5, or 15 min. Lysates were precipitated with α -GFP antibodies and analyzed by immunoblot with α -HA and α -STIM1 antibodies.

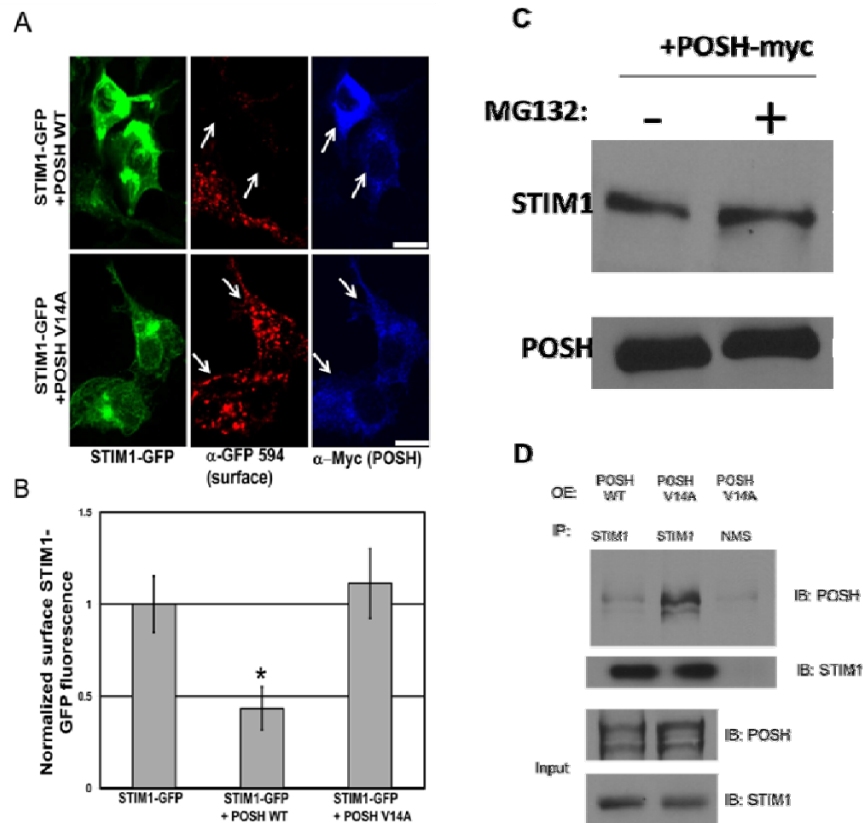


Figure 15. Overexpression of the E3 ligase POSH decreases surface STIM1-GFP levels. (A) HEK293T cells co-expressing STIM1-GFP (green), and WT or the RING-finger mutant (V14A) myc-tagged POSH constructs were live-labeled with α -GFP-Alexa 594 conjugated antibodies (red) prior to fixation, permeabilization and immunolabeling with α -Myc antibodies (blue). Co-expression of WT POSH dramatically reduced surface STIM1-GFP levels while the RING-finger mutant POSH^{V14A} had no effect on STIM1-GFP surface levels. Representative max z-projected confocal images are depicted. Scale bars, 10 μ m. (B) Bar graph depicting the quantification of the STIM1-GFP surface levels in STIM1-GFP alone, or STIM1-GFP plus WT or catalytically inactive POSH expressing cells. Values were normalized to STIM1-GFP alone. Mean values $\pm$ SEM are shown. * $p < 0.05$, unpaired Student t-test. Represents the average of three independent experiments; 40 to 60 fields of cells per condition (15-25 cells per field). (C) HEK293T cells were transfected with either myc-tagged POSH WT or POSH^{V14A} for 24 hours. The resulting lysates were resolved on SDS-PAGE and analyzed via western blot with α -STIM1 (top) or α -myc (bottom) antibodies. Representative blot from 3 independent experiments. (D) HEK293T cells co-expressing STIM1-GFP (green), and WT or the RING-finger mutant (V14A) myc-tagged POSH were precipitated with α -STIM1, and analyzed via immunoblot with α -STIM1 (bottom) or α -POSH (top) antibodies.

STIM1 – *Mus musculus* - NP_033313.2

MDVCARLALWLLWGLLLHQGQSLSHSHSEKNTGASSGATSEESTEAEFCRIDKPLCHSEDEKLSFEAVRN
 IHKLMDDDANGDVDVEESDEFLEEDLNYHDPTVKHSTFHGEDKLISVEDLWKAWSSEVYNWTVDEVIQW
 LITYVELPQYEETFRKLQLTGHAMPRLAVTNTTMTGTVLKMTDRSHRQKLQLKALDVLFGPPLLTRHNH
 LKDFMLVVSIVIGVGGCWFAYIQNRYSEHMKMMKDLEGLHRAEQSLHDLQERLHKAQEEHRTVEVEKV
 HLEKLRDEINLAKQEAQRLKELREGTENERSRQKYAEELEQVREALRAEKKELESHSSWYAPEALQW
 LQLTHEVEVQYYNKKQNAERQLLVAKEGAEKIKKKRNTLFGTFHVAHSSSLDDVDHKILTAKQALSEVT
 AALRERLHRWQQIEILCGFQIVNPNPGIHSVAALNIDPSWMGSTRPNPAHFIMTDDVDDMDDEIVSPLSM
 QSPSLQSSVRQRLTEPQLGLGSQRDLTHSDSESSLHMSDRQRVAPKPPQMGRAADEALNAMPNGSHRLI
 EGVHPGSLVEKLPDSPALAKKTFMALNHGLDKAHSMLMELNPSVPPGGSPLLDSSHSLSPSSPDPTSPV
 GDNRALQGSRNTRIPHLAKKAMAEDNGSIGEETDSSPGRKKFPLKIFKKPLKK

Confidence Scores:

K = High probability

K = Low probability

Ubpred, 2009

Figure 16. Predicted ubiquitination sites on mouse STIM1. Mouse STIM1, NCBI peptide accession number NP_033313.2 was analyzed via the algorithm developed by (Radivojac et al., 2010) through the website <http://www.ubpred.org>. Putative lysine residues were assigned a confidence score that has been summarized above as either having a High (magenta) or Low (gray) probability of supporting ubiquitination.

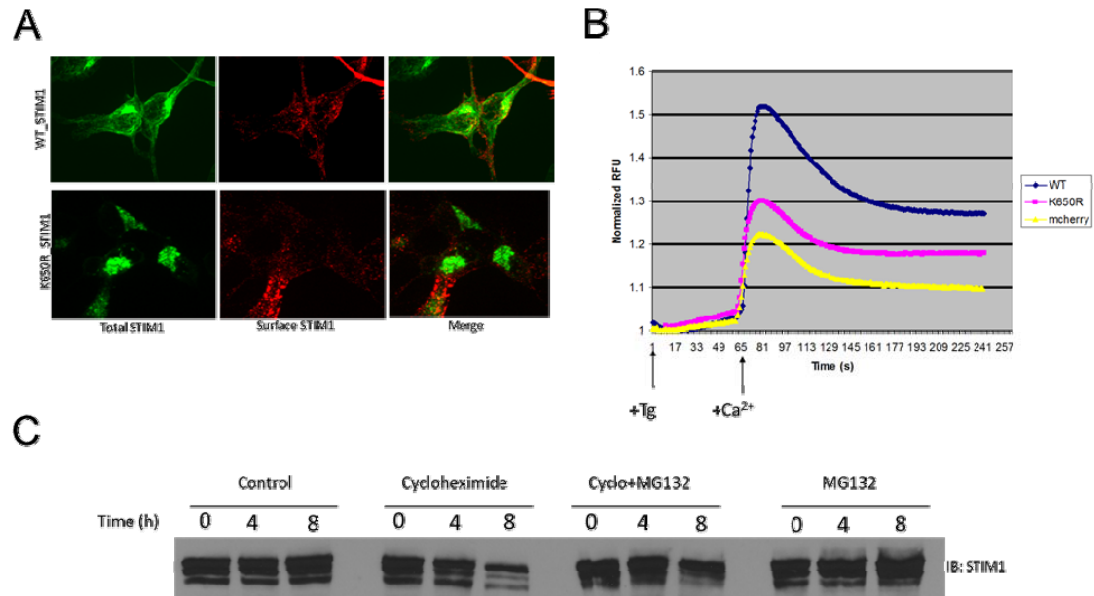


Figure 17. Lysine mutant of STIM1 shows defects in SOCE, with concomitant loss in stability and surface down-regulation. (A) HEK293T cells co-expressing WT STIM1-GFP (green), orK650R STIM1-GFP were live-labeled with α -GFP-Alexa 594 conjugated antibodies (red) prior to fixation. (B) HEK293T cells plated on MatTeks were loaded with the calcium indicator Fluo-4AM. The cells were then treated with 1 μ M TG or vehicle (DMSO) for 30 min. Fluorescence was monitored by confocal microscopy (488 nm emission) every 15s, with Ca²⁺-re-addition (1.8mM final) 5 minutes following baseline measurements. (A) Traces represent Ca²⁺-influx normalized to baseline, averaged over 12 wells per treatment.

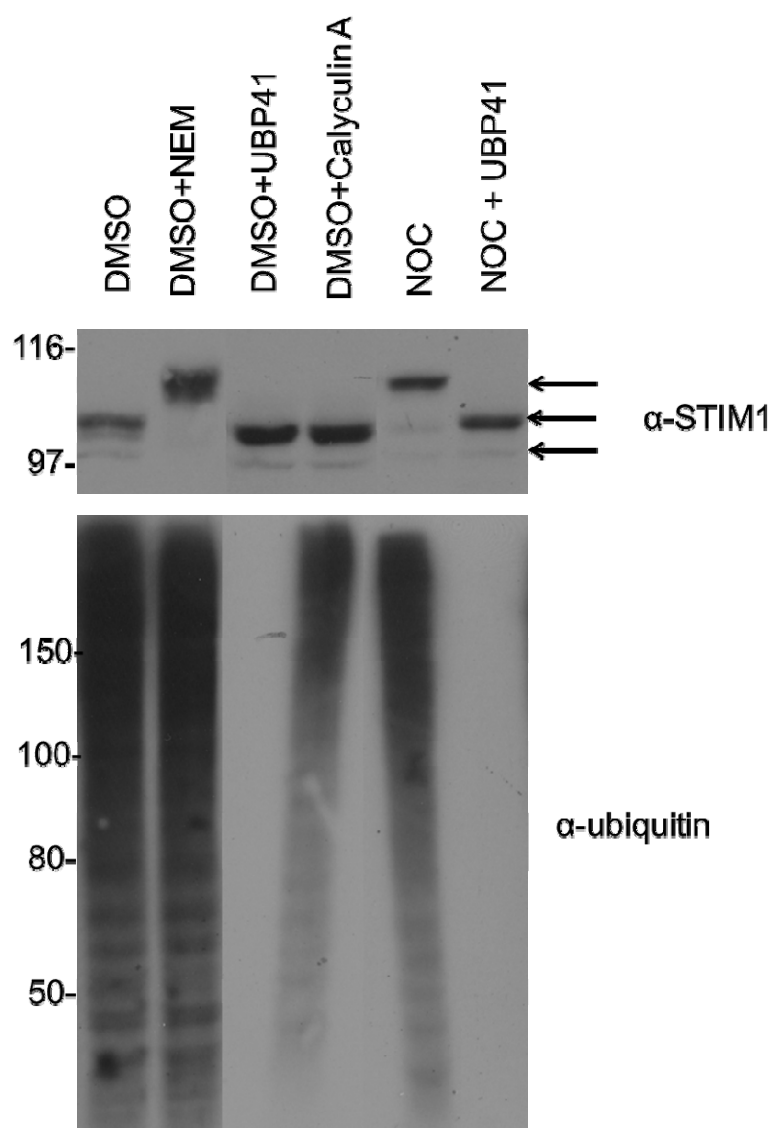


Figure 18. Mitosis-dependent posttranslational modifications of STIM1. HEK-293T cells were mitotically arrested with 1.67 μ M nocodazole (NOC) for 12-16 h or treated with DMSO control prior to lysis. Lysates were treated with different inhibitors or purified enzymes (; NEM= N-ethylmaleimide; UBP-41; Crude reactions were carried out for 2 h at 37°C. Lysates were resolved and analyzed via SDS-PAGE using α -STIM1 and α -Ubiquitin antibodies. Arrows mark unmodified STIM1 (bottom), glycosylated (middle) and ubiquitinated/phosphorylated (top).

Chapter III

Ubiquitin-mediated Regulation of Actin Dynamics

Introduction

Actin cytoskeletal dynamics are of great importance in neurobiology because they underlie the structural determinants for synaptic function and plasticity (Cingolani and Goda, 2008; Dent et al., 2010; Dillon and Goda, 2005). Synaptic plasticity, a hallmark neuronal function, and the underlying basis of learning and memory, is defined as the ability of synapses to change the strength of their connection in response to stimuli (Holtmaat and Svoboda, 2009). Within the mammalian brain, the majority of excitatory synapses are located at dendritic protrusions, or spines (Carlisle and Kennedy, 2005). Spine shape underlies many properties that feed directly into synaptic plasticity, including synapse stability, receptor populations, and calcium dynamics (Alvarez and Sabatini, 2007; Bourne and Harris, 2007; Okamoto et al., 2004). Actin has long been known to be a major cytoskeletal component of dendritic spines, with both structural and functional roles (Landis and Reese, 1983) (Cingolani and Goda, 2008; Dillon and Goda, 2005; Halpain, 2000; Tada and Sheng, 2006). Structurally, actin provides the basic skeleton of dendritic spines; functionally, actin serves as a scaffold crucial for organizing the post-synaptic density and receptors (Renner et al., 2008; Sheng and Hoogenraad, 2007). Moreover, actin-based changes in spine shape and size strongly correlate with changes in the strength of synaptic connections (Holtmaat and Svoboda, 2009; Yuste and Bonhoeffer, 2001).

Actin dynamically cycles between two forms, monomeric (G-actin) and filamentous (F-actin) (Matus, 2000). Induction of long-term potentiation (LTP) results in a shift in the F-actin/G-actin ratio towards F-actin, which correlates with increase in spine size (Okamoto et al., 2004). Conversely, a shift towards monomeric G-actin and

reduction in spine size, results from long-term depression (LTD) protocols (Okamoto et al., 2004). This bidirectional equilibrium is mediated by a family of actin-binding proteins (ABPs). ABPs can promote polymerization, de-polymerization, and formation of actin-chain superstructures (Blanchard et al., 1989; Stossel et al., 2001). Manipulation of ABP's, in terms of levels or functionality, has profound effects on spine size and density (Ethell and Pasquale, 2005; Okamoto et al., 2007; Schubert and Dotti, 2007). A large body of research has shown that numerous pathways connecting synaptic activity to spine structure affect local actin dynamics. Activation of NMDA and AMPA receptors leads to an inhibition of actin-based spine-motility and rounding of dendritic spines (Fischer et al., 2000). Downstream of this activation are myriad effectors of actin dynamics. Ca^{2+} /Calmodulin-dependent kinase II (CamkII), α -actinin, ephrins, Rho GTPases, and RhoGEFs are but a few of the signaling molecules that link synaptic activity with actin regulation (Kennedy et al., 2005; Lisman et al., 2002; Newey et al., 2005; Schubert and Dotti, 2007; Tada and Sheng, 2006; Wyszynski et al., 1997).

The Rho GTPases and their activators, RhoGEF's, have become noteworthy signaling molecules due to their important roles as regulators of the actin cytoskeleton (Heasman and Ridley, 2008; Jaffe and Hall, 2005). Rho GTPases are part of the Ras superfamily of small GTPases, and like other regulatory GTPases, Rho GTPases serve as a molecular switch, cycling between an active, GTP-bound state and an inactive GDP-bound state (Aspenstrom et al., 2004). This cycling is regulated by a set of three classes of enzymes. Guanine nucleotide exchange factors (GEFs) activate GTPases by exchanging GDP for GTP (Schmidt and Hall, 2002). GTPases-activating proteins (GAPs) promote the reverse reaction, inactivating the Rho GTPases (Bishop and Hall, 2000).

The last group, guanine nucleotide dissociation inhibitors (GDIs), prevent GDP to GTP exchange, thus locking the GTPases in an inactive state (Olofsson, 1999). Activation of Rho-GTPases translates into actin cytoskeletal rearrangements through activation of two major actin polymerizing factors. The Rho-GTPase Rac1 activates WAVE family of proteins, which in turn activates Arp2/3-complex, a major acting polymerizing factor (Soderling and Scott, 2006). Similarly, the Formin family of proteins induce actin polymerization following activation by a number of Rho GTPases (Chesarone et al., 2010; Zigmond, 2004).

In the brain, the study of Rho GTPases regulators, Rho-GEFs and Rho-GAPs, has revealed that these molecules play a crucial role in dendritic spine morphogenesis (Penzes and Jones, 2008). One particular regulator of Rac1, Kalirin-7, has been shown to be a key regulator of spine structure (Penzes et al., 2001b). Kalirin-7, the most abundant kalirin isoform, is a brain-specific guanine exchange factor for Rac1 (Johnson et al., 2000; Penzes et al., 2000). It is expressed in the hippocampus and cortex, in a developmentally dependent manner, coinciding with synaptogenesis (Xie et al., 2007). Kalirin-7 contains a GEF domain, spectrin-like repeats, Sec14p-like domain, and a PDZ binding domain (Johnson et al., 2000; Ma et al., 2008a; Penzes et al., 2001a). Overexpression of Kalirin-7 leads to axon outgrowth and an increase in spine density (May et al., 2002; Penzes et al., 2001b). Conversely, loss of Kalirin-7 results in decreased spine density and dendritic arborization (Ma et al., 2003; Ma et al., 2008a; May et al., 2002). Kalirin-7 is also positively regulated by CaMKII, where NMDA receptor activation leads to increased Kalirin-7 phosphorylation and GEF activity (Xie et al., 2007). This NMDA dependent activation also leads to Rac1 mediated AMPA receptor clustering and spine enlargement.

Kalirin-7 also appears to serve as scaffold for receptor associated, PDZ-containing proteins (Penzes et al., 2001b). Kalirin-5 (delta-Kalirin-7), a truncated isoform of kalirin-7 lacking the Sec14p domain and 4 spectrin repeats, has been found with similar expression patterns as full-length Kalirin-7 (Johnson et al., 2000; McPherson et al., 2002; McPherson et al., 2004). Unlike Kalirin-7, kalirin-5, does not increase spine density, suggesting GEF activity is not absolutely necessary for spine formation (Schiller et al., 2008). Physiological role of the delta isoform is not entirely known; however, it is suspected to play a role in spine structure during periods of chronic cocaine exposure (Mains et al., 2011).

One of the larger functional groups that appeared in the screen for synaptic, ubiquitinated proteins was comprised of cytoskeletal proteins and their effectors (Fig. 3). In fact, the gamma isoform of actin was one of the top 40 proteins out of 279 based on adjusted Tg/WT ratio (Table 2). It has recently been shown that actin can be ubiquitinated and degraded in a proteasome dependent manner (Zhang et al., 2010). The major actin polymerization activators, Arp2/3 and Formin, appeared in the screen, as well as Cofilin, the family of actin disassembly proteins (Table 3 and data not shown). Moreover, the neuronal Rac1-GEF, Kalirin-7 also appeared as a strong hit in the screen (Table 3). With an already strong connection between actin cytoskeletal dynamics and synaptic structure and function, this group of potential targets identified in the screen provided a promising base from which to examine the interplay between neuronal function and ubiquitination.

RESULTS

Actin-based spine motility and the UPS

Recent work has implicated the actin cytoskeleton and its interactors in both the synaptic vesicle cycle and activity-driven synaptic plasticity (Dillon and Goda, 2005; Sudhof, 2004). Real-time examination of spontaneous spine motility was shown to be driven by dynamic actin polymerization (Fischer et al., 1998; Halpain et al., 1998). Interestingly, stimulation of glutamate receptors resulted in a blockade of spine movement, suggesting activation of glutamate receptors results in stabilization of spine motility (Fischer et al., 2000; Halpain et al., 1998). A number of molecular components that have recently been shown to couple spine motility with activity are also known to bind either actin or actin-associated components (Dillon and Goda, 2005). These components have also been shown to be substrates of the proteasome, and their effects on actin dynamics are proteasomal dependent (Aberle et al., 1997; Lynch et al., 2006; Tursun et al., 2005). Furthermore, recent evidence has shown that the stimulation of a glutamatergic synapse results in a sequestration of proteasomes in the spine head, with roughly 50% of the proteasomes being associated with the actin cytoskeleton (Bingol and Schuman, 2006). With actin and many of its regulators appearing in the screen for synaptic ubiquitinated proteins, a simple examination of actin dynamics and proteasome function was a logical first step.

GFP fusions of actin have been shown to accurately monitor actin dynamics in dendritic spines, as it incorporates into actin-containing structures and allows the visualization of actin dynamics in living neurons (Fischer et al., 1998). Moreover, it has become an efficient way to monitor alterations in spine shape and spine motility, as both

processes are highly dependent on actin dynamics. Using a similar approach to monitor actin dynamics, we asked if proteasomal inhibition affected actin dynamics in dendritic spines. Time-lapse imaging of primary hippocampal neurons infected with YFP-actin Sindbis virus show that actin in the spine head is dynamically changing and reflects spine motility as previously demonstrated (Fig. 19 A and B)(Fischer et al., 1998).

Interestingly, application of the proteasome inhibitor MG-132 produces a significant decrease in spine motility within 30 minutes, and almost a total loss of spine motility after 2 hours of treatment (Fig. 19A and B). A summed difference plot of YFP-actin signal is plotted for control (Fig. 19A, second panel) or 120 minute MG-132 treated neurons (Fig. 19A, fourth panel). The decrease in summed intensity at dendritic spines in the MG-132 treated neurons suggests proteasome-dependent components are involved in the dynamic cycling of F-actin/G-actin ratio. Biochemical comparison of F-actin/G-actin ratios indicates a small but reproducible increase in total F-actin following proteasome inhibition (Fig. 19 C). This suggests targets of the proteasome are involved in either actin polymerization or F-actin stability. Although the mechanisms behind these apparent changes are unclear, this data provides impetus towards future studies examining the role of the UPS in synaptic actin dynamics.

The UPS and synaptic Rho-GEFs, kalirin-5 and kalirin-7

The kalirin family of Rac1 neuronal RhoGEFs was highly represented within the screen for synaptic, ubiquitinated proteins. Two isoforms in particular, kalirin-7 and Kalirin-5 (delta-kalirin-7) were very abundant, with high Tg/WT spectral ratios (Fig. 20A). These results strongly suggest that kalirin is readily ubiquitinated within the mammalian synapse. As the name implies, delta-kalirin-7, or kalirin-5, is highly

homologous to kalirin-7. An alternate translation initiation site results in the truncated amino-terminus found in the kalirin-5 isoform (Penzes et al., 2000). Given the fact that both kalirin isoforms are nearly identical, it isn't surprising that both appear to be the predominant ubiquitinated forms of kalirin. Kalirin-5 and kalirin-7 ubiquitination was validated in heterologous cells, using tagged kalirin constructs and overexpressed ubiquitin (Fig 20 B). Immunoprecipitation of either kalirin-5 or kalirin-7, and subsequent analysis of ubiquitin immunoreactivity reveals canonical, higher molecular weight laddering, indicative of poly-ubiquitinated kalirin (Fig. 20 B, Lane 1 and 3). In an overexpression system, in heterologous cells, it appears both kalirin isoforms are readily poly-ubiquitinated.

A number of reports have drawn a connection between kalirin-7 phosphorylation, PP1 and PKA activity, and the effects on GEF activity (Shioda et al., 2011; Xie et al., 2007; Xin et al., 2008). Inhibition of PP1 with okadaic acid leads to an increase in kalirin-7 phosphorylation and GEF activity (Shioda et al., 2011). Moreover, there is an emerging understanding that phosphorylation serves as regulatory precursor to ubiquitination (Brooks and Gu, 2003; Hunter, 2007; Karin and Ben-Neriah, 2000). With this mind, we examined the potential effect of inhibiting known kalirin phospho-effectors on kalirin ubiquitination and stability. Using heterologous system, overexpressing kalirin-7-GFP and HA-ubiquitin, with a panel of PP1 and PKA inhibitors and agonists, we first looked at kalirin-7 ubiquitination (Fig. 21 A). Application of a PP1/2 inhibitor (OA) or PKA inhibitor (H89) leads to a decrease in ubiquitinated kalirin-7 compared to DMSO or MG-132 treated cells (Fig 21 A, Lane 3 and 5). However, concomitant application on proteasome inhibitor (MG-132) and the inhibitors leads to a buildup of

kalirin-7 ubiquitin conjugates (Fig. 21 A, Lane 4 and 6). A crude PKA activator, Forskolin, was also examined, with no observable effect on kalirin-7 ubiquitin conjugates or stability (Fig. 21A, Lane 7). Overall, the data suggests that PP1/2 phosphatase activity and PKA kinase activity may be negative regulators of kalirin-7 ubiquitination. This is a bit strange, as PP1 and PKA have opposing enzymatic activities, suggesting a possible bi-directional mode of kalirin-7 ubiquitination. There is no observable change in total kalirin-7 levels, but this may be due to increased signal-to-noise from the overexpression (Fig. 21A, middle panel). Examination of PP1/2 activity on endogenous kalirin populations reveals that kalirin-5 stability is affected by PP1/2 inhibition, with a dramatic decrease in kalirin-5 levels after 8 hours of PP1/2 inhibition (Fig 21B, bottom panel). Application of proteasome inhibitors stabilizes this population, suggesting that kalirin-5 is targeted to the proteasome in a PP1/2 dependent manner. Strangely, kalirin-7 levels do not decrease as dramatically as kalirin-5, although there is a consistent, observable change (Fig. 21B, top panel). Together, these results suggest that in an overexpression system, kalirin-5 and kalirin-7 are ubiquitinated under similar conditions; however, endogenous PP1/2-dependent ubiquitination seems to be a kalirin-5 specific phenomenon. Closer examination of kalirin-5 stability using a cycloheximide chase in the presence of proteasome inhibitors reveals kalirin-5 is rapidly turned over by the proteasome in a matter of hours (Fig. 21 C, top panel). In addition to PP1 and PKA, CaMKII is a known regulator of kalirin activity. In neurons, phosphorylation of kalirin-7 at thr95 by α CaMKII leads to an increase in GEF activation, and subsequent dendritic spine enlargement (Xie et al., 2007; Xin et al., 2008). When a constitutively active form of α CaMKII (TD) is overexpressed, it leads to a downregulation of kalirin-5 (Fig. 21D,

Lanes 7-9). Moreover, application of proteasome inhibitors can stabilize this population, suggesting that α CaMKII kinase activity can promote proteasomal degradation of kalirin-5 (Fig 21D, Lanes 10-12).

The next logical step in understanding the role of ubiquitination in kalirin-5 function is to identify potential sites of ubiquitination, as well as putative ligases. Identification of either a preferred lysine or an E3 ligase would allow us to ask more specific questions regarding the role of kalirin ubiquitination and stability on neuronal structure and function. Despite the fact that kalirin is a neuronal-specific protein, we knew that because we could produce robust kalirin-5 ubiquitination in non-neuronal cells, there was a good chance the ubiquitin machinery was conserved between cell types (Fig. 20B). Kalirin-5 immunoprecipitates, from HEK293T cells expressing kalirin-5-Myc were analyzed by tandem MS/MS. A E3 ligase, Cullin 4B (Cul4B), as well as two de-ubiquitinating enzymes, Usp7 and Usp36, were identified (data not shown). Moreover, DDB1 and RBX1, components of a functional E3 complex with Cul4B also co-precipitated with kalirin-5 (data not shown). When co-expressed with kalirin-5 and HA-ubiquitin, Cul4B was able to promote dramatic ubiquitination of kalirin-5 (Fig. 22A, Lane 1). This ubiquitination is also dependent on the ability of Cul4B to form a functional complex with its E2-E3, as the dominant negative form is unable to promote ubiquitination (Fig. 22A, lane 2). Co-immunoprecipitation of either kalirin-5 or Cul4B from lysates expressing both reveals that the two proteins are able to strongly interact (Fig. 22 B). Together, these results suggest that, at least in HEK-293T cells, Cul4B is able to interact with and ubiquitinate kalirin-5. In the search for ubiquitinated kalirin-5 peptides, the expected addition of either of the two most C-terminal tryptic peptides of

human ubiquitin (GG or LRGG, of 114.05 or 383.22 Da, respectively) was identified on Lys-58 and Lys-89 (Fig. 22C). Unfortunately, neither of these sites appears to be preferred, either individually or in tandem, as examination of kalirin-5 ubiquitination using K58R, K89R, or K58,89R mutants produces no change in ubiquitination when compared to wild-type (data not shown). These results reinforce the often documented promiscuity that ligases have for ubiquitination sites holds true for kalirin-5.

DISCUSSION

The actin cytoskeleton is vital to nearly every eukaryotic biological process. In addition to its scaffolding and structural properties, the actin cytoskeleton functions in such dynamic processes as cell division, cell motility, and organelle trafficking (Dominguez and Holmes, 2010). Thus it is not surprising that actin plays a role in numerous neuronal processes. In addition to being the major structural component of the synapse, enriched in both the pre- and post-synaptic terminals, actin has long been implicated in both axon guidance and synaptogenesis (Dillon and Goda, 2005; Fifkova and Delay, 1982). Previous studies speak strongly towards a role of the UPS in synaptic plasticity. There are currently only a handful of validated UPS targets in the synapse. At the beginning of this project, we hypothesized that there is a large, yet unidentified population of ubiquitinated proteins residing in the synapse. Moreover, we also hypothesized that the synaptic actin cytoskeleton is dynamically regulated by the UPS. Attesting to this hypothesis many targets from the first pass mass spectrometry screen fell into the actin-cytoskeleton classification group.

Actin-based spine motility is quite dynamic in both young and mature neurons (Fischer et al., 1998). Studies have found that the vast majority of actin in the spine is dynamic and turned over in less than one minute (Star et al., 2002). Increases in neuronal activity, through the application of or NMDA/AMPA receptor agonists, leads to a dramatic increase in the stable actin population, and subsequent decrease in motility (Fischer et al., 2000; Star et al., 2002). Since proteasome inhibition causes such similar, robust decrease in motility, it would be possible to imagine that similar pathways are being perturbed. Given the numerous targets identified in the screen, as well as the

number of additional actin-regulators already established as targets of the UPS, it is not at all surprising that global blockade of proteasome activity has such profound effects (Fig. 19A and B). The effect is also quite rapid, with visible downregulation of actin-based motility seen within 5 minutes (data not shown). These treatments also correspond to a small, let reproducible change in F-actin levels (Fig. 19C). Induction of LTP and activation of glutamate receptors correlate with increases in spine size and number, both requiring actin polymerization and F-actin levels (Honkura et al., 2008; Matsuzaki et al., 2004; Okamoto et al., 2004). Stabilizing effectors of actin polymerization, or actin itself, through inhibition of proteasome-dependent degradation could explain these results. In fact, actin, as well as an actin effector, Rac1 were recently found to be degraded by the proteasome (Lynch et al., 2006; Zhang et al., 2010).

The neuronal Rac1 regulator, kalirin, was one of the many actin-related proteins identified in the screen (Fig 20A). This target is promising, not only because it is a target of the UPS, but also because it has profound effects on activity-based synaptic structure. Of the two isoforms identified, kalirin-5 seems to be a more tractable target of the UPS. It shows context-specific changes in stability not readily observed with kalirin-7. It seems that inhibition of PP1/2 or PKA results in robust ubiquitination and proteasomal degradation in heterologous cells (Fig. 21A). However, only PP1/2 inhibition causes any change in proteasome-dependent stability of endogenous kalirin-5 populations (Fig. 21 D). PP1 is of particular interest in that it interacts with numerous receptors and components of the PSD, the actin cytoskeleton, and inhibits master plasticity regulator, CaMKII (Mauna et al., 2010; Munton et al., 2004; Westphal et al., 1999). Inhibition of PP1 activity is akin to constitutive activation of α CaMKII at Thr286 (Munton et al.,

2004). Since CaMKII has already been shown to enhance kalirin-7 GEF activity through phosphorylation, examination of a potential role in kalirin-5 stability seemed prudent (Xie et al., 2007). The fact that constitutively active CaMKII-TD can lead to a proteasome-dependent downregulation of kalirin-5 is quite exciting. This suggests that other plasticity pathways that lead to both CaMKII activation and spine plasticity may converge at kalirin-5. To date, very little is known about kalirin-5 function in neurons. Kalirin-5 does not exert the same effects as kalirin-7, where only kalirin-7 overexpression can lead to increases in spine size and number (Ma et al., 2010; Ma et al., 2008b; Schiller et al., 2008). Due to such high sequence homology, teasing apart the effects of kalirin-5 versus kalirin-7 can be difficult with current technologies. For example, RNAi mediated-knockdown of kalirin-5 cannot be performed without concurrent loss of kalirin-7. Re-introduction of RNAi-resistant kalirin-7 is a possible, albeit complicated, solution. Until the technology becomes more tractable, the role of kalirin-5 may be elusive. Direct analysis may not be feasible at the moment, but examination of effectors of kalirin-5 ubiquitination and stability may provide a promising avenue of study. The putative E3 ligase for kalirin-5, Cul4B, has recently been implicated in X-linked mental retardation, which has disease-correlates relating to dendritic spine morphology (Svitkina et al., 2010; Zou et al., 2007) (Fig. 22). It would stand to reason that Cul4B may play a role in dendritic spine remodeling through kalirin-5. Ongoing studies are examining the possible role of Cul4B in synaptic function.

Chapter III, in part, contains material previously published in Keil, JM, Shen Z, Briggs SP, Patrick GP. (2010). Regulation of STIM1 and SOCE by the ubiquitin proteasome system (UPS). *PLoS One*. 5(10):e13465.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

DNA and Sindbis constructs.

YFP-actin was generous gift from the Halpain lab. For production of recombinant Sindbis virions, RNA was transcribed using the SP6 mMessage mMachine (Ambion, Austin, TX), and electroporated into BHK cells using a BTX ECM 600 at 220V, 129 Ω , and 1050 μ F. Virion were collected after 24-32 hours and stored at -80°C until use. For Sindbis infection of hippocampal cultures YFP-actin virion were added directly to the culture media, with expression carried out for 12 – 18 hours prior to treatment and/or fixation.

Western blot analysis.

For western blot analysis, all lysates were electrophoresed on SDS-polyacrylamide gels, transferred onto nitrocellulose membranes (Biorad, Hercules, CA), blocked with 5% fat-free milk in TBS/0.1% Tween20 (TBST), and incubated with primary antibodies in TBST +2%BSA overnight at 4°C. Membranes were then washed in TBST, and incubated with the appropriate HRP-conjugated secondary antibody in TBST +2%BSA, and developed with HyGlo ECL (Denville Scientific Inc, South Plainfield, NJ).

Immunoprecipitations.

For all immunoprecipitations, cells were scraped and lysed in PB buffer plus 1% TritonX-100, 0.1% SDS, Complete protease inhibitors, 25 μ M MG132, 100 μ M NEM. Lysates were cleared at 18,000 X g for 30', and the resulting supernatant was incubated with 2 μ g of antibody overnight. Immune complexes were precipitated using Protein

A/G agarose beads (Pierce). Beads were washed 3 X in PB buffer and resuspended in 2X Laemmli sample buffer prior to western blotting.

Immunostaining and confocal microscopy.

For all imaging purposes, we used a Leica (Wetzlar, Germany) DMI6000 inverted microscope outfitted with a Yokogawa (Tokyo, Japan) Spinning disk confocal head, an Orca ER High Resolution B&W Cooled CCD camera (6.45 $\mu\text{m}/\text{pixel}$ at 1X) (Hamamatsu, Sewickley, PA), Plan Apochromat 40X/1.25 na and 63X/1.4 na objective, and a Melles Griot (Carlsbad, CA) Argon/Krypton 100 mW air-cooled laser for 488/568/647 nm excitations. Confocal z-stacks were acquired in all experiments. For fixed cell imaging following treatments, hippocampal cultures (4 – 21 DIV) were fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde/4% sucrose (PFA) for 10 minutes at room temperature, and blocked and permeabilized in PBS-MC (phosphate buffered saline with 1 mM MgCl_2 and 0.1 M CaCl_2) with Triton X-100 (0.2%) and BSA (2%) for 15 minutes. Cells were incubated overnight at 4°C with primary antibody in PBS-MC and 2%BSA. Primary antibodies were visualized with appropriate secondary antibodies (1:1000): Cy3 goat anti-chicken IgG (Jackson Immuno Research, West Grove, PA); goat anti-mouse Alexa 488, goat anti-rabbit Alexa 568, goat anti-mouse Alexa 568, and goat anti-mouse Alexa 647 (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA). Cells were then washed and coverslips were mounted in Aqua Poly/Mount (Polysciences, Warrington, PA). For live-labeling of surface STIM1-GFP, HEK293 cells were plated on poly-D-lysine (1 mg/ml) coated 35 mm glass coverslips and transfected with 1 μg of STIM1-GFP with Lipofectamine2000 (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Prior to fixation and permeabilization, rabbit anti-GFP AlexaFluor 594 conjugated antibody (0.02 $\mu\text{g}/\mu\text{l}$ final)

was added directly to the cells in culture media and incubated 20 min at 37°C. Cells were washed 3X in PBS-MC, fixed in 4%PFA/4%Sucrose at room temp for 10 min, washed 3X in PBS-MC and mounted in Aqua/Poly mount.

Antibodies, Reagents, and Drugs.

α -actin (mAb, 1:2000) antibody was purchased from BD Biosciences (Franklin Lakes, NJ); α -ubiquitin (pAb, 1:2000) antibody was purchased from Dakocytomation (Kyoto, Japan) α -kalirin (pan) (rAb, 1:1000) antibody was purchased from Upstate Biotechnologies (Lake Placid, NY); α -Cul4B (mAb, 1:2000) antibody was purchased from BD Biosciences (Franklin Lakes, NJ); α -CamKII α (mAb, 1:1000) antibody was purchased from Upstate Biotechnologies (Lake Placid, NY); The following pharmacological reagents were used: MG132 from Peptide Institute (Osaka, Japan); cycloheximide, Okadaic acid, H-89, Forskolin, cytochalasinD, Phalloidin, from Sigma-Aldrich (St. Louis, MO).

Image Analysis.

All imaging was acquired in the dynamic range of 8 bit (0-255) with Simple PCI (Hamamatsu) imaging software. Summed difference analysis and plots were created as described by Fisher et al., 1998. Pooled, average values within each experiment were normalized to control and plotted as mean length $\pm$ SEM. Statistical significance was determined by unpaired Student's t-test or ANOVA with *post hoc* Bonferroni's multiple-comparison test as indicated.

Mass Spectrometry

As described in Chapter 1, pages 20 through 22.

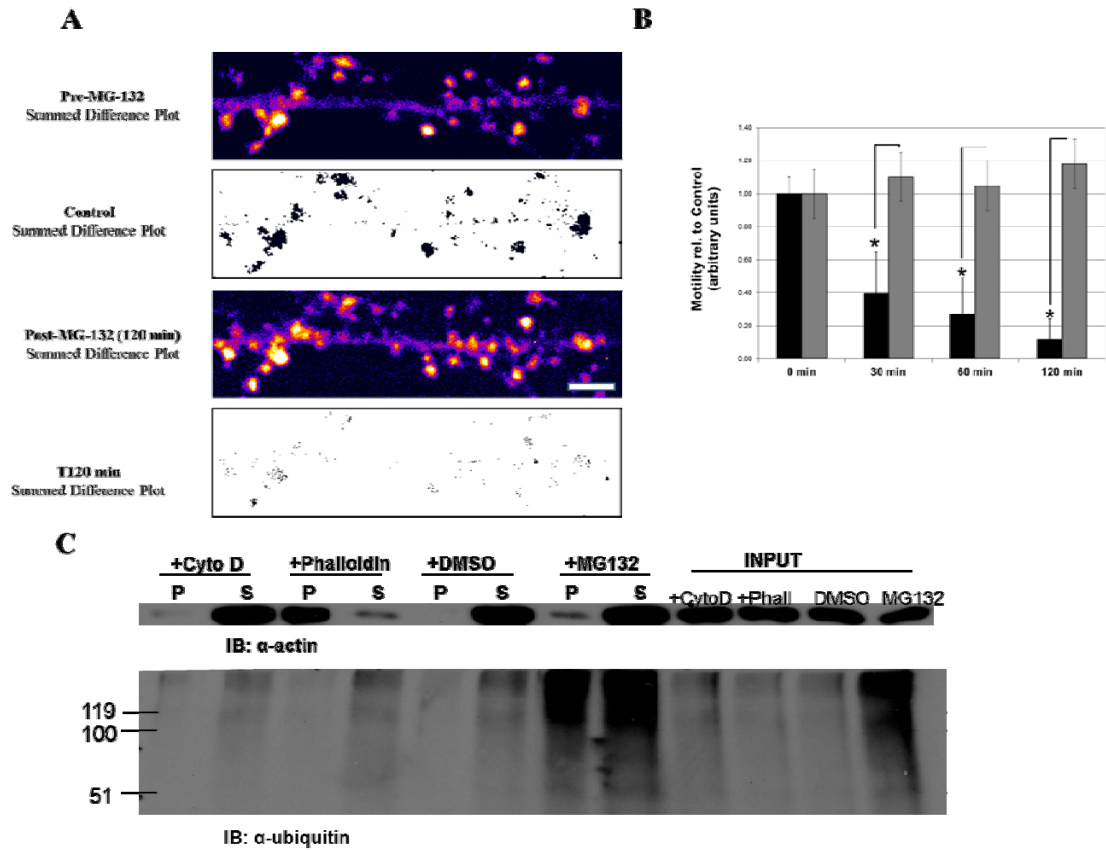


Figure 19. Actin based spine motility is proteasomal-dependent. (A) Primary hippocampal neurons (>21 DIV) were infected with YFP-actin virus. 5 min time-lapse images (20-15s intervals) were taken over a period of 2 hours following treatment with DMSO vector control (Top panel) or 5 μ M MG132 (third panel). Difference plots (second, fourth panel) represent the summed change in fluorescence over time. (B) Plot of the spine motility relative to control. Gray represents control/DMSO and black is MG132 treated neurons. (N=3, *P<0.05). Error bars represent $\pm$ SEM. Scale bar = 5 μ m. (C) Changes in the amount of G-actin and F-actin were examined in cultured hippocampal neurons treated with proteasome inhibitor MG132 (25 μ M) or vector control (DMSO). P=pellet (F-actin); S=supernatant (G-actin). Cytochalasin D and Phalloidin serve as negative and positive controls, respectively. A significant increase in F-actin levels is observed following proteasome inhibition. N=2

A

ID	Tg/WT Ratio	WT SPEC	TG SPEC	% Coverage	Predicted Protein
Kalrn	12	7	81	30	PREDICTED: kalirin, RhoGEF kinase isoform 3 (Delta kalirin-7)
Kalrn	11	7	79	27	PREDICTED: similar to kalirin, RhoGEF kinase isoform 2 (Delta kalirin-7)
Kalrn	9	6	56	28	Delta kalirin-7 homolog
Kalrn	42	1	42	16	PREDICTED: kalirin, RhoGEF kinase isoform 6 (Delta kalirin-7)
Kalrn	3	5	13	28	PREDICTED: kalirin, RhoGEF kinase isoform 2 (kalirin-7)
Kalrn	7	0	7	10	PREDICTED: kalirin, RhoGEF kinase isoform 4 (kalirin-7)
Kalrn	6	0	6	8	KALIRIN-12A homolog
Kalrn	1	5	6	25	PREDICTED: kalirin, RhoGEF kinase isoform 7

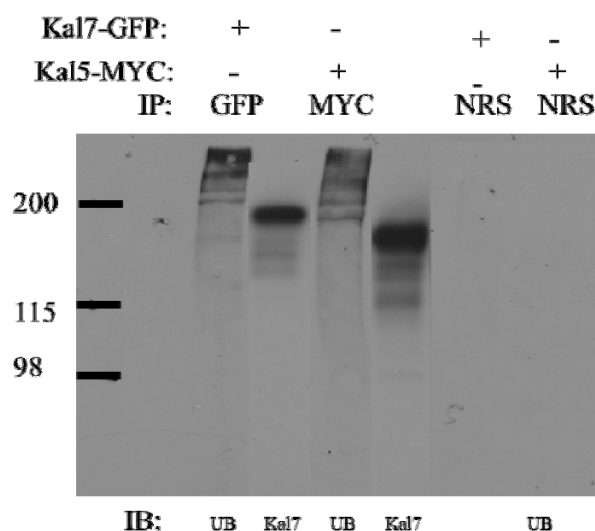
B

Figure 20. Kalirin-5 and Kalirin-7 are ubiquitinated. (A) Kalirin isoform peptide summary from mass spectrometry screen for synaptic ubiquitinated protein. Kalirin-5 (delta-Kalirin-7) hits are highlighted in yellow. Average kalirin ratio and kalirin-5 ratio are calculated and highlighted in gray. (B) HEK-293T cells co-expressing kalirin-7GFP or kalirin-5-Myc along with HA-ubiquitin were precipitated with α -GFP or α -Myc antibodies. Myc immunoprecipitates were analyzed via western blot with α -ubiquitin or α -myc antibodies.

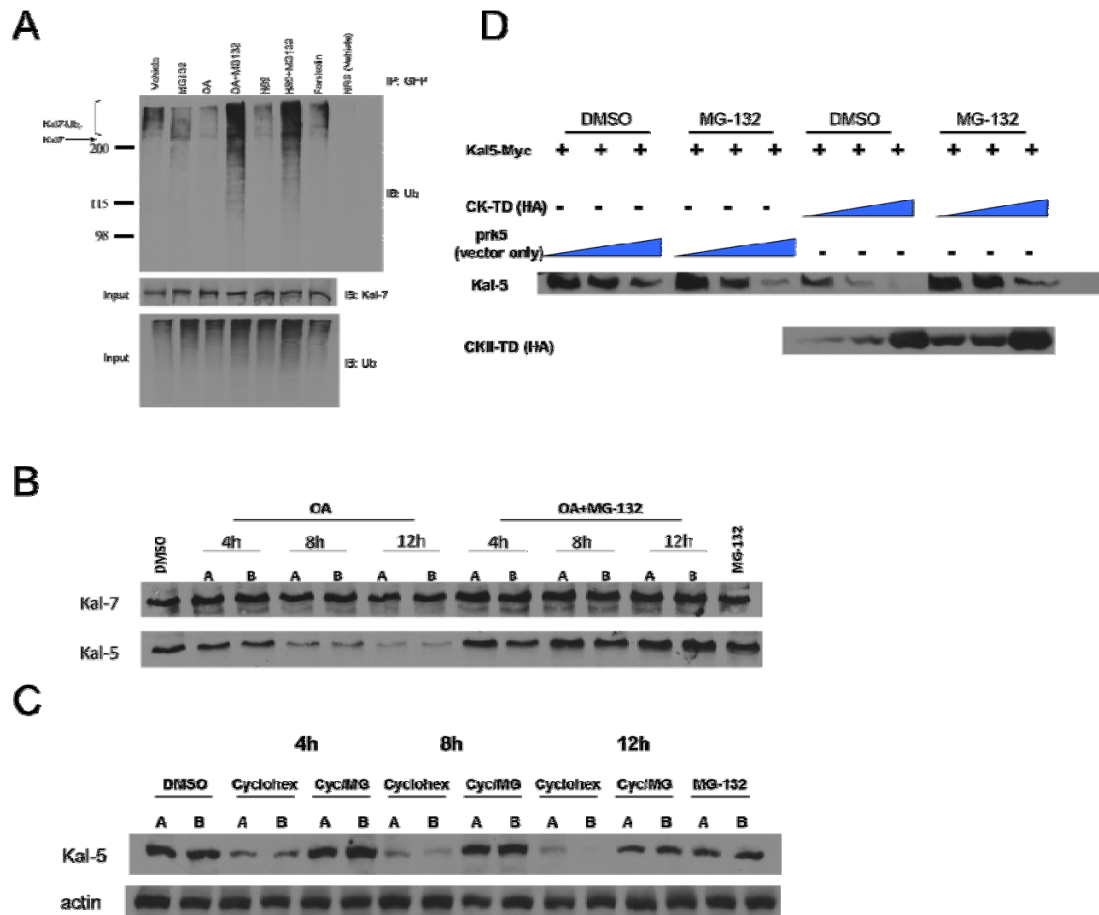


Figure 21. PP1/2 and PKA activity affect the ubiquitination and stability of Kalirin-7 and Kalirin-5. (A) HEK-293T cells co-expressing Kal7-GFP and HA-ubiquitin are treated with PP1/2 inhibitor okadaic acid (OA - 1 μ M), PKA inhibitor H-89 (2 μ M), or PKA agonist Forskolin (10 μ M) with or without MG-132 (10 μ M) for 8 hours. Lysates are immunoprecipitated with α -GFP and examined via western blot using α -ubiquitin (Top, Bottom) and Kalirin-7 (Middle). Representative blot of 3 independent experiments. (B) Cultured rat cortical neurons (DIV 18) were treated with okadaic acid (1 μ M) for 4, 8, or 12h with and without MG-132 (10 μ M). Lysates were analyzed via western blot, with α -pan Kalirin antibody. Representative blot from 3 independent experiments. (C) Cultured rat cortical neurons (DIV 18) were treated with cycloheximide (50 μ M) for 4, 8, or 12h with and without MG-132 (10 μ M). Lysates were analyzed via western blot, with α -pan Kalirin antibody. Representative blot from 2 independent experiments. (D) HEK293T cells co-expressing Kal5-Myc with HA- α CaMKII-TD or pRK5 vector at 50 ng, 150 ng, or 500ng were treated with DMSO or MG-132 (10 μ M) for 4 hours. Lysates were examined via western blot with α -Myc or α -HA antibodies. Representative blot from 3 independent experiments.

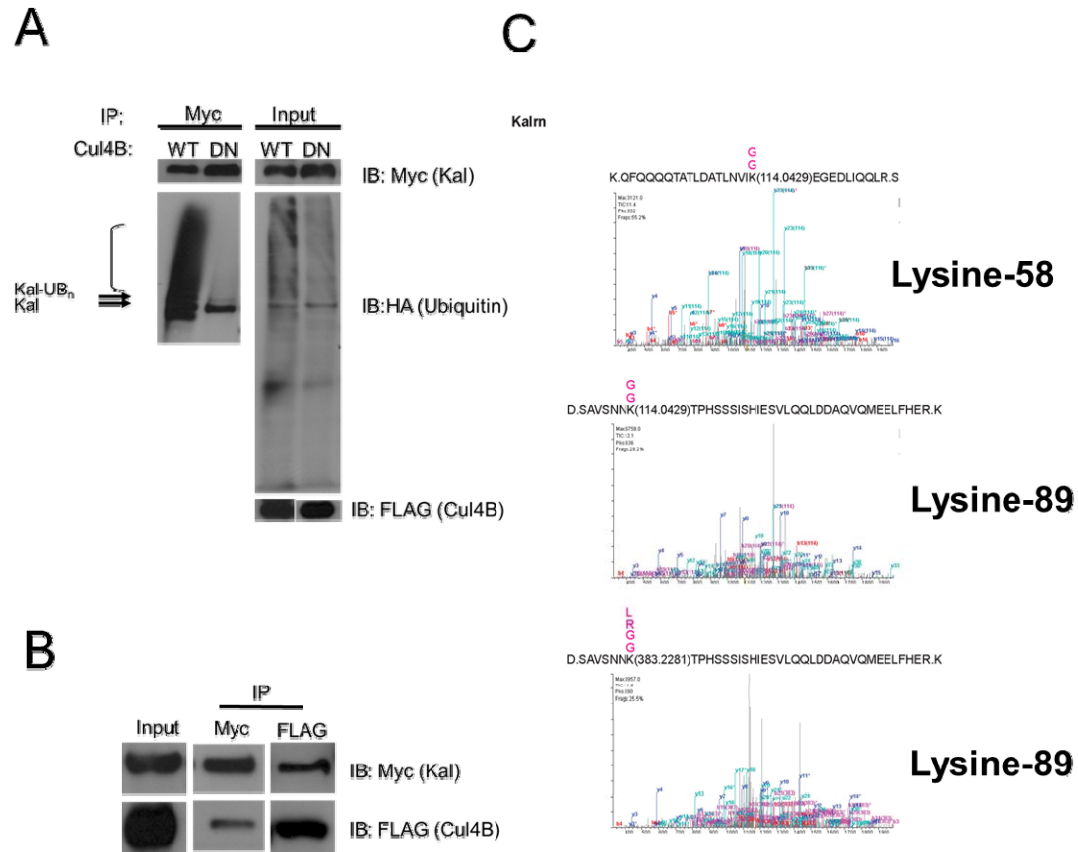


Figure 22. Kalirin-5 is ubiquitinated by Cul4B. (A) HEK293T cells expressing Kal5-Myc, HA-ubiquitin, and wild-type (WT) or dominant-negative (DN) Cul4B-FLAG are immunoprecipitated with α -Myc and analyzed via western blot using α -HA. (B) Using the conditions as in (A), lysates are immunoprecipitated for kalirin-5 (Myc) or Cul4B (FLAG) and analyzed with α -Myc (Top panel) or α -FLAG (Bottom panel) antibodies. Representative blots from 2 independent experiments. (C) α -Myc immunoprecipitates from HEK 293T cells expressing Kal5-Myc were analyzed via MS/MS. Spectra for 2 ubiquitin-modified lysines (K58 and K89) are presented

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