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Targeted modifications of the protein-protein interactions: Ternary complex of interferon- γ as a model system

Cílené modifikace interakcí mezi proteiny: Ternární komplex interferonu- γ jako model

Doctoral thesis in Biochemistry

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Declaration

I hereby declare that this thesis is based on my own research carried out in the Laboratory of Biomolecular Recognition, Institute of Biotechnology, Academy of Sciences of the Czech Republic, v.v.i. and all used sources of information have been properly cited. This thesis has not been submitted previously in order to obtain the same or any other academic degree.

In Prague, 6th June, 2018

Jiří Zahradník

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Dedicated to my father, who inspired me to study science

Declaration of co-authors

The thesis contains three original publications co-authored by Mgr. Jiří Zahradník and all the work presented here was performed under my supervision. Hence I am authorized to confirm that Mgr. Jiří Zahradník contributed substantially to all four papers that form the basis of the dissertation thesis. In more detail, he:

1. Cloned, expressed and purified most of the IFN- γ R1 cavity and joint interface-cavity mutants and significantly participated in the biophysical measurements. Published in: Redesigning Protein Cavities as a Strategy for Increasing Affinity in Protein-Protein Interaction: Interferon- γ Receptor 1 as a Model. Černý, J., Biedermannová, L., Mikulecký, P., Zahradník, J., Charnavets, T., Šebo, P., Schneider, B. (2015) *Biomed Res Int.* 2015: 716945.
2. Cloned, expressed and purified IFN- γ R2 protein. In production phase he analyzed our original crystal structure together with the other available type II receptors and wrote the manuscript. Published in: Crystal structure of human interferon- γ receptor 2 reveals the structural basis for receptor specificity. Mikulecký, P., Zahradník, J., Kolenko, P., Černý, J., Charnavets, T., Kolářová, L., Nečasová, I., Pham, P.N., Schneider, B. (2016) *Acta Crystallogr D Struct Biol. Sep*; 72(9):1017-25.
3. Cloned fish interferon- γ proteins and their receptors 1 and 2 and measured their biophysical properties. He designed the main features of the study, significantly participated in its bioinformatics part, and in the crystal related analyses. Published in: Interferons type II and their receptors R1 and R2 in fish species: Structure, function & evolution. Zahradník, J., Kolářová, L., Pařízková, H., Kolenko, P., Schneider, B. (2018) *Fish and shellfish immunology*, 79, 140-152.

Abstract

A key prerequisite for a deeper understanding of biological processes at molecular level is a detailed description of the three-dimensional structure of interaction partners and their complexes. We adopted the IFN- γ complex as our model system. Even though IFN- γ is one of the key modulators of the immunity response, which has been studied intensively for more than 60 years, the structure of the accessory receptor chain and the understanding of the IFN- γ complex is still lacking. In this work we firstly discussed the binary system between IFN- γ and its high affinity receptor R1 which is structurally known. Using a new innovative methodology we focused on the modulation of the affinity between IFN- γ and its receptor R1. Our approach was based on the modulation of protein – protein stability by mutating cavities in the proteins' structure and increasing the affinity about seven-fold. Secondly, we crystallized and solved the structure of the IFN- γ receptor 2, the accessory receptor molecule. Our analysis of variable residues on the surface of the structures of type II family receptors, to which receptor 2 belongs, revealed the putative binding site for IFN- γ . In the third part of our work, we crystallized IFN- γ from olive flounder *Paralichthys olivaceus* and solved its structure at 2.3 Å resolution (PDB code 6f1e). This structure differs from the other IFN- γ structures and indicates how the fish IFN- γ diverged while preserving the overall fold. We resolved a co-evolutionary aspect between IFN- γ and its high affinity receptor by using bioinformatics and biophysical experiments. Finally, we integrated our results obtained by different techniques and postulated the topology of the IFN- γ ternary complex based on our structure of IFN- γ R2, SAXS data, and mutational scanning.

Abstrakt (In Czech)

Klíčovým požadavkem pro detailní porozumění biologických procesů, až na molekulární úroveň, je znalost struktury interagujících molekul a jejich komplexů. Jako modelový systém, pro naši studii, jsme si zvolili IFN- γ . Ačkoliv je tato molekula jedním ze zásadních modulátorů imunitní odpovědi, a je studována již více než 60 let, tak struktura přídatného receptoru (IFN- γ R2) a porozumění celému komplexu je nedostačující. V této práci jsme se nejprve zabývali binárním systémem IFN- γ s jeho receptorem, který vykazuje vysokou afinitu k IFN- γ a prostorová struktura obou dvou molekul je známa. Zaměřili jsme se tedy na modulaci afinity mezi IFN- γ a tímto receptorem. Náš přístup spočíval v inovativní metodě založené na modulaci stability protein-proteinových interakcí pomocí mutagenizace aminokyselinových zbytků umístěných uvnitř struktury proteinu. Podařilo se nám zvýšit afinitu testované interakce sedmkrát. Druhá část projektu byla zaměřena na krystalizaci, vyřešení a popis struktury druhého – přídatného receptoru pro IFN- γ . Naše analýza variabilních aminokyselinových zbytků na povrchu tohoto proteinu a strukturně příbuzných receptorů z rodiny typu II odhalila možné vazebné místo pro IFN- γ . Ve třetí části naší práce jsme se zaměřili na krystalizaci IFN- γ z platýze druhu *Paralichthys olivaceus* a tuto strukturu jsme vyřešili s rozlišením 2.3 Å (identifikační číslo proteinové databáze PDB: 6f1e). Získaná struktura se liší od ostatních známých struktur IFN- γ a indikuje divergenci rybích proteinů, i když celkové uspořádání a topologie molekuly (z angl.: fold) jsou stejné. Biofyzikální a bioinformatické pokusy navržené na základě této struktury nám umožnily vyřešit aspekty koevoluce mezi IFN- γ a jeho receptorem 1. Všechny získané poznatky, doplněné o data z mutagenizačních experimentů, SAXS techniky a analýz krystalových struktur, nám na závěr práce umožnily postulovat topologii ternárního komplexu IFN- γ .

List of Abbreviations

| | |
|----------|--|
| FIL10 | Interleukin-10 family |
| GAS | Gamma activator sequence |
| IFN | Interferon |
| IRF | Interferon response factor |
| JAK | Janus Kinase |
| NK | Natural killer cells |
| PPI | Protein – protein interactions |
| RCSB PDB | Research Collaboratory for Structural Bioinformatics Protein Data Bank |
| SAXS | Small Angle X-ray diffraction |
| SOCS | Suppressor of cytokine signaling |
| SPR | Surface plasmon resonance |
| STAT | Signal Transducer and Activator of Transcription |
| TGF | Transforming growth factor |
| TIRF | Total internal reflection fluorescence |

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1. Introduction

Structural biology is an exciting interdisciplinary field of life sciences branching molecular biology, biochemistry, biophysics, and bioinformatics. It focuses on detailed description of three-dimensional structures of biological macromolecules – a key component of all known life forms. The main objects of structural biology studies are proteins and nucleic acids.

Structural biology is not just studying their spatial arrangement, but also functional aspect on a molecular level with the effort to understand them [1].

Proteins and their interactions are the dominant carriers of functions in the living cell. A cell is an open system which needs an information input from the environment, its transfer and analysis to accommodate necessary reactions. These functions are mediated by receptor proteins and subsequent signalization cascades. In the population of multicellular organisms, the need for communication between cells arises. This communication between cells is also mediated mainly, but not exclusively, by proteins and their cognate receptors. The present study focuses on the structural aspects of one of these communication channels involved in the human immune system – the interferon gamma system. Although there are more than four thousand of scientific papers with the key word “interferon gamma” published every year, the structural aspects of ternary complex are not completely resolved. The complexity, novelty, and potential applications motivated us to analyze this difficult target. The following chapters introduce the results of my work on this project. The results were published in three publications:

- 1) Redesigning Protein Cavities as a Strategy for Increasing Affinity in Protein-Protein Interaction: Interferon- γ Receptor 1 as a Model
- 2) Crystal structure of human interferon-c receptor 2 reveals the structural basis for receptor specificity
- 3) Interferons type II and their receptors R1 and R2 in fish species: evolution, structure, and function

To extend my thesis and complete the scientific contribution of our work, I also included the major findings from the manuscript under preparation. Because of the manuscript incompleteness, it is not included in full as a supplement.

- 4) Topology of complexes between interferon-gamma and extracellular portions of its two receptors R1 and R2

1.1 Cytokines

The origin of the word cytokine well describes its meaning. It comes from Greek words - cyto and kytos that mean cell and movement. Cytokines can be described as molecules traveling between cells. In fact, cytokines represent a category of small secreted proteins that mediate signaling and immunomodulatory effects between cells in an autocrine, paracrine, and endocrine fashion. Cytokines may be further divided into smaller functional categories chemokines, interferons, interleukins, lymphokines, and tumor necrosis factors. Regardless the category, they all regulate a broad spectrum of cell processes by their activation or inhibition. The response is mediated by specific cytokine receptors on the cell surface [2].

1.2. Interferons

Interferon, the first discovered cytokine, is a small protein described more than 60 years ago by two phenomenal British researchers Alick Isaacs and Jean Lindenmann [3]. The name interferon has been inspired by its ability to interfere with a viral infection. Subsequently, other molecules with the same ability were described. Therefore, the need for classification of these molecules emerged. Interferons were divided into three independent type groups (I, II, III) according to their differences in sequences, cognate receptors, genome localization, and cellular traits. Even today, thanks to the systematic genomics research new interferons are being discovered. A good example is the human interferon $\lambda 4$ discovered in 2013 [4] and fish interferons [5]. Interferons were described in extant cartilaginous fish and their presence in the earliest *gnathostomes* is expected [6]. Thus, they represent ancient immunity elements.

The exact role of interferons in organisms emerged later and is still under investigative debates. They modulate myriads of cellular processes and play a crucial role in modulating innate and adaptive immune reactions against various stimuli, including viruses [7], intracellular bacteria [8,9], and also intrinsic signals from tumors and proliferating cells [10].

All three types of interferons are secreted proteins with their detection receptors on the cell surface. The primary high affinity receptors capture the interferon molecule; the second receptors, which are accessory factors, play modulatory roles. The affinities of the second receptors are usually lower and bind after the formation of the binary complexes. Following this ternary complex formation, a signal is transmitted into the cell cytoplasm and a signaling cascade via the Janus Kinase (JAK) and Signal Transducer and Activator of Transcription (STAT) pathway occurs. A combination of different JAKs and STATs results in the

regulation of transcription of various interferon-regulated genes [11] and also in the regulation of the stability of various mRNA and other epigenetic signals.

1.2.1 Type I interferons

The interferon type I family is the biggest one with five structurally dissimilar members and 17 proteins overall in humans: interferon α (IFN- α , 13 subtypes), IFN- β , IFN- ϵ , IFN- κ , and IFN- ω . This family is even broader in some other species. IFN- δ and IFN- τ were described in pigs and cattle, respectively, and many subtypes were described in fish species. Members of type I are co-localized with strong gene synteny on chromosome 9 in humans, which suggests their origin by gene duplication [12].

The type I interferons signal through only one ternary receptor complex, but with large differences in the response. Thus, they cannot be viewed as iso-molecules. All type I members bind to IFN α receptor 1 (IFN- α R1) and receptor 2 (IFN- α R2) subunits. Subsequent JAK/STAT pathways differ significantly. Usually IFN- α subtypes bind JAK1, STAT1, and STAT2 proteins. For other types and specific cells STATs3-6 can be activated [13,14,15] [15]. The descent outcomes in the cellular responses are modulated by differential expression, binding affinities [16], and JAKs/STATs [17,18,19].

1.2.2 Type II interferons

The type II interferon family is unique in its structure. It seems that all canonical members are dimers in contrast to monomers in the type I and III family*. The non-canonical members are fusion proteins with an IFN- γ domain (XP_006012494.1) and their protein products or biological role is unknown.

Type II interferon genes evolved early in the chordate evolution together with type I interferons. It is assumed that they have evolved from a class II helical cytokine ancestor. Unfortunately, there are no data of when and how the dimerization occurred. Representatives of the type II family are IFN- γ , which is the exclusive member in all tetrapods, and IFN- γ is accompanied by IFN- γ rel in fish species. The gene for IFN- γ is located on chromosome 12 in humans together with genes from the interleukin 10 family (FIL10). This genomic organization can be found in all tetrapods. The gene for IFN- γ rel is not located on the same chromosome and its origin has been proposed by duplication of the whole genome.

The IFN- γ molecule signals through the formation of the ternary complex comprising of IFN- γ , IFN- γ receptor 1 (IFN- γ R1), and IFN- γ receptor 2 (IFN- γ R2). The dimeric behavior of IFN- γ implies the formation of a ternary complex with more complex stoichiometries than in the case of other interferons. It is expected that the IFN- γ binds to two molecules of IFN- γ R1 and to two IFN- γ R2 [20], but other possibilities are not excluded. The mutation of one interface with the IFN- γ R1 resulted in the formation of a 1:1 complex in vitro and addition of this mutant variant of IFN- γ to the cells led to an antiviral effect.

Unlike the widely expressed receptors, the IFN- γ molecule itself is produced only by immune system cells, including the natural killer (NK) cells, CD4 T helper 1 (Th1) cells, and CD8 cytotoxic suppressor cells [21,22]. Although the cellular sources of IFN γ are limited, almost all cell types can respond to it. This regulation scheme is also characteristic for type II interferons [23].

(* - Members of the type III family might form dimers by intermolecular disulfide bridges. The biological role of this phenomenon is not known and the possibility of experimental artifact cannot be excluded.)

1.2.2.1 Interferon gamma

The functions of IFN- γ are pleiotropic. On one hand IFN- γ is able to modulate the innate and adaptive immune response against pathogens and tumors and on the other hand its presence is required to maintain immune homeostasis [24]. Moreover, an altered, disturbed, or aberrant IFN- γ expression and protein is associated with a number of auto-inflammatory and autoimmune diseases [25,26,27].

The IFN- γ molecule is a glycoprotein borne from a single 6 kb gene located on the human chromosome 12 (I2q24. 1) in the vicinity of IFN- γ antisense RNA 1 on one side (IFNG-AS1, Gencode Gene: ENSG00000255733.5) and genes for IL-26 and IL-22 on the other side (Gencode Gene: ENSG00000111536.4). The IFN- γ gene shares a pattern of interleukins from the family of interleukin 10 with 4 exons and 5 introns [28].

The processing of the IFN- γ protein includes two major steps: Secretion with the N-terminal cleavage of the signal peptide and cleavage of C-terminal propeptide. The naïve single polypeptide chain with 143 amino acids has 16.7 kDa, but the two glycosylation sites (Asn48, Asn120) that are variably N-glycosylated increase the molecular mass up to 25 kDa [29]. The

C-terminal propeptide proteolytic cleavage is responsible for IFN- γ alternative endings at predominant G157, minor G150, and minor G161 [30]. Therefore, the mature protein molecular weight may vary between 34 kDa and 50 kDa in its native homodimer state [28]. Variations in the term of single nucleotide polymorphism, which result in amino-acid changes, are defined at positions 29 and 160 (UniProtKB - P01579).

Three-dimensional structures of the IFN- γ protein have been solved by X-ray diffraction. There are multiple different IFN- γ structures solved from four different organisms: human, 1hig [31], 1fg9 [32], 3bes [33]), rabbit *Oryctolagus cuniculus* 2rig [34], bovine, 1d9c [35], 1RFB [36], and fish *Paralichthys olivaceus* 6f1e [37]. The entire structures showed a unique similar interferon gamma fold, which is composed of two identical subunits, each with 6 alpha helices (A – F) parallel to the dimer twofold axis (**Figure 1.2A**). An exception was found in the *P. olivaceus* IFN- γ structure that has a similar fold, but one additional helix G at the C terminus in one monomer [37] (**Figure 3.3A**). The first four helices from one subunit form a four-helix bundle with a cleft that allows intertwining of the C-terminal helix from the second subunit. By contrast to the IL-10 dimer there are multiple hydrophobic contacts among all of the helices, but most are between the C and D helices. The C helices are the most hydrophobic in the structure and are buried in the core of the dimer [31].

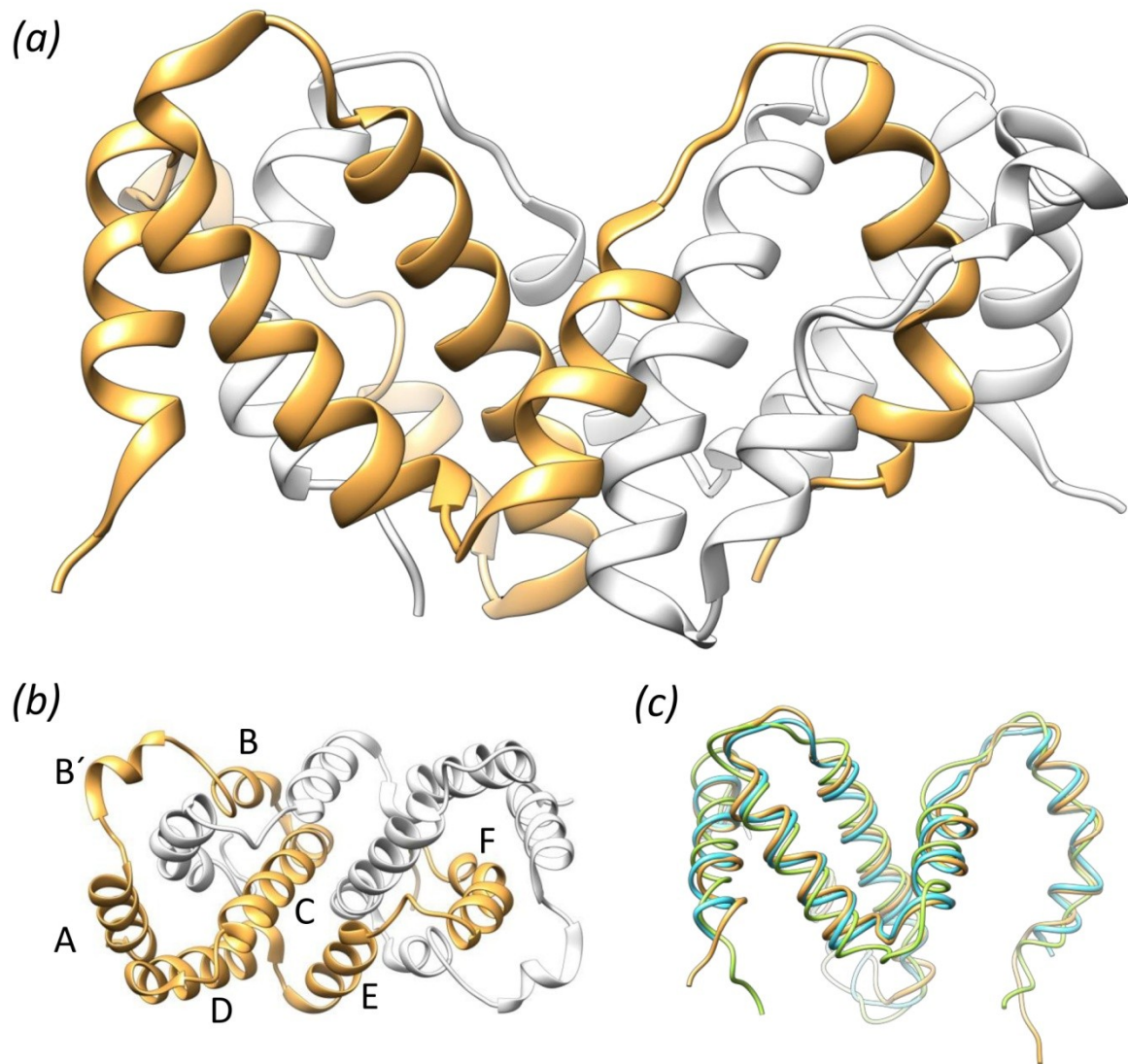


Figure 1.2A – Three dimensional structures of mammals IFN- γ . a) The side view of the structure of human IFN- γ (pdb 1fg9, [32]). The two monomers in the homodimer are depicted in yellow and white. b) The top view representation of human IFN- γ represented in (a). The helices A-F are marked in one monomer. c) Comparison of IFN- γ monomer from different mammals: human 1fg9 (yellow, [32]), rabbit 2rig (green, [34]), and bovine, 1d9c (blue, [35]).

Effective signalization of IFN- γ in cells requires the formation of a ternary complex between IFN- γ , its high affinity cell receptor IFN- γ receptor 1 (IFN- γ R1) and accessory factor IFN- γ receptor 2 (IFN- γ R2). Initial experiment-based assumptions describing the receptors distribution were with free receptors on the cell membrane [38], but later the pre-assembly of receptors has been proposed [39]. The re-examination of previous findings by new microscopic super-resolution techniques, e.g. FTIR microscopy, finally denies the existence of the preassembly complex as an artifact of receptor over-expression (Jacob Piehler, University of Osnabrück, Molecular and cellular determinants of cytokine receptor activation,

Molecular Perspectives on Protein-Protein Interactions conference, December 3-7, 2017, paper will be published). IFN- γ interacts with IFN- γ R1 and forms a binary complex, which is targeted subsequently by IFN- γ R2 to form the final ternary complex. The signaling complex creation results in the reorientation of receptor intracellular domains and thereby initiates the JAK/STAT pathway, which is used by more than 50 cytokines, growth factors, and hormones for gene regulation [40]. Recently it has been shown that the JAK/STAT pathway works under cooperative crosstalk with other ubiquitous pathways, including MAP kinase, PI3 kinase, CaM kinase II, and NF κ B to regulate specific IFN- γ effects [41,42]. There are also hypotheses that a certain level of signal specificity is mediated by endocytosis and localization [43,44].

The first subsequent events after ternary complex formation are the binding of JAK2 on the IFN- γ R2 cytoplasmic domain and JAK1 on the IFN- γ R1, respectively. In contrast, some reports assume the constitutive presence of JAK1 and JAK2 kinases associated with the intracellular domain of IFN γ R1 and IFN γ R2, respectively [21,45]. After the signalization complex assembly, the kinases are activated by binding to their cognate receptor partner. These activations lead to a cascade of phosphorylation reactions between kinases and the proteins themselves commonly referred as auto-transphosphorylation. At the last stage, activated JAK1 phosphorylates Y457 of IFN γ R1. This residue is the critical one for forming a docking site for STAT1 that is further activated by phosphorylation, probably by JAK2 [46]. The above-mentioned phosphorylation cascade takes less than one minute [47].

After STAT1 undergoes specific phosphorylation, dimerization, two scenarios are possible. The STAT1 homodimer enters the nucleus and directly induces changes in the expression of hundreds of primary regulated genes by the interaction with the so-called GAS site (for gamma activator sequence, [48]). Moreover, one of the primary activated genes is known as interferon response factor 1 (IRF1) which subsequently activates dozens of secondary response genes with mainly immunomodulatory functions. The negative regulators of this pathway are SOCS (suppressors of cytokine signaling) proteins. They inhibit the phosphorylation of JAKs and STAT1 and drive them out of the nucleus [49]. This pathway is known as the canonical or classical pathway (**Figure 1.2B**). Although the classical model describes only the STAT1 homodimer other complexes such as STAT1 / STAT2 and STAT1/STAT1/IRF-9 or STAT1/STAT2/IRF-9 may form [50,51].

The second scenario is called a non-canonical IFN- γ signaling pathway (**Figure 1.2B**). It involves creation of the IFN- γ /R1/STAT1 α /JAK1/JAK2 complex and its subsequent

endocytosis [43]. The nuclear localization signal (NLS) and polycationic C-terminus present in the IFN- γ molecule are responsible for targeting the whole complex to the cell nucleus and thus for the non-canonical IFN- γ signaling [52,53]. This pathway is however not completely described. Other signaling scenarios include the association of receptors with lipid microdomains and their clathrin-dependent internalization or clustering of receptors with other proteins and triggering clathrin-independent endocytosis [44].

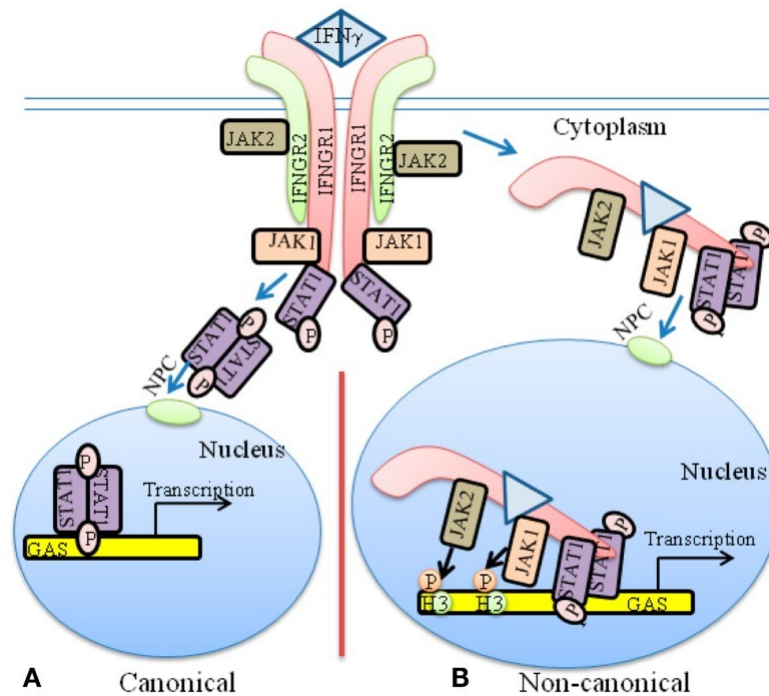


Figure 1.2B – Schematic representation of canonical and non-canonical pathways in IFN- γ signaling. A) The classical pathway of IFN- γ signaling consists of a ternary complex assembly, a phosphorylation cascade and the translocation of STAT1 homodimer into the nucleus. B) The non-classical pathway is driven by endocytosis and nuclear transport of the whole complex. Details of both pathways are described in chapter 1.2.2.1. (The Figure was adopted from Johnson et. al. 2013 [54]).

The major sources of IFN- γ in the body are T cells, natural killer cells, and natural killer T cells [55]. The expression has been identified also in macrophages, dendritic cells, and B cells [56]. The mechanisms which regulate IFN- γ expression of immune cells include various extracellular signals [57] and also internal signals like DNA epigenetic control [58]. The most proficient extracellular signals are associated with infections by viruses [59,60], bacteria [61] [62], or intracellular protozoans including *Toxoplasma gondii* [63] and *Leishmania donovani* [64]. Almost all cell types can respond at least to some extent to an IFN- γ stimulus (The Human protein atlas accession: IFNGR1, IFNGR2) [65,51].

Biological functions of IFN- γ (**Figure 1.2C**) were historically considered to be pro-inflammatory. This attribute was concluded by its ability to strongly activate macrophages which are crucial for host defense against intracellular pathogens and inflammatory tissue changes. This activation is further exacerbated by a positive autocrine feedback loop [66,67] [38]. Furthermore, this picture was strengthened with the paradigm of an IFN- γ driven Th1 immune response [68]. The current picture is a more complex one that is based on pleiotropic IFN- γ functions and balanced pro- and anti-inflammatory responses to IFN- γ signaling [69] [24]. The major functions in modulation of pro- and anti-inflammatory responses are summarized in **Figure 1.2C**.

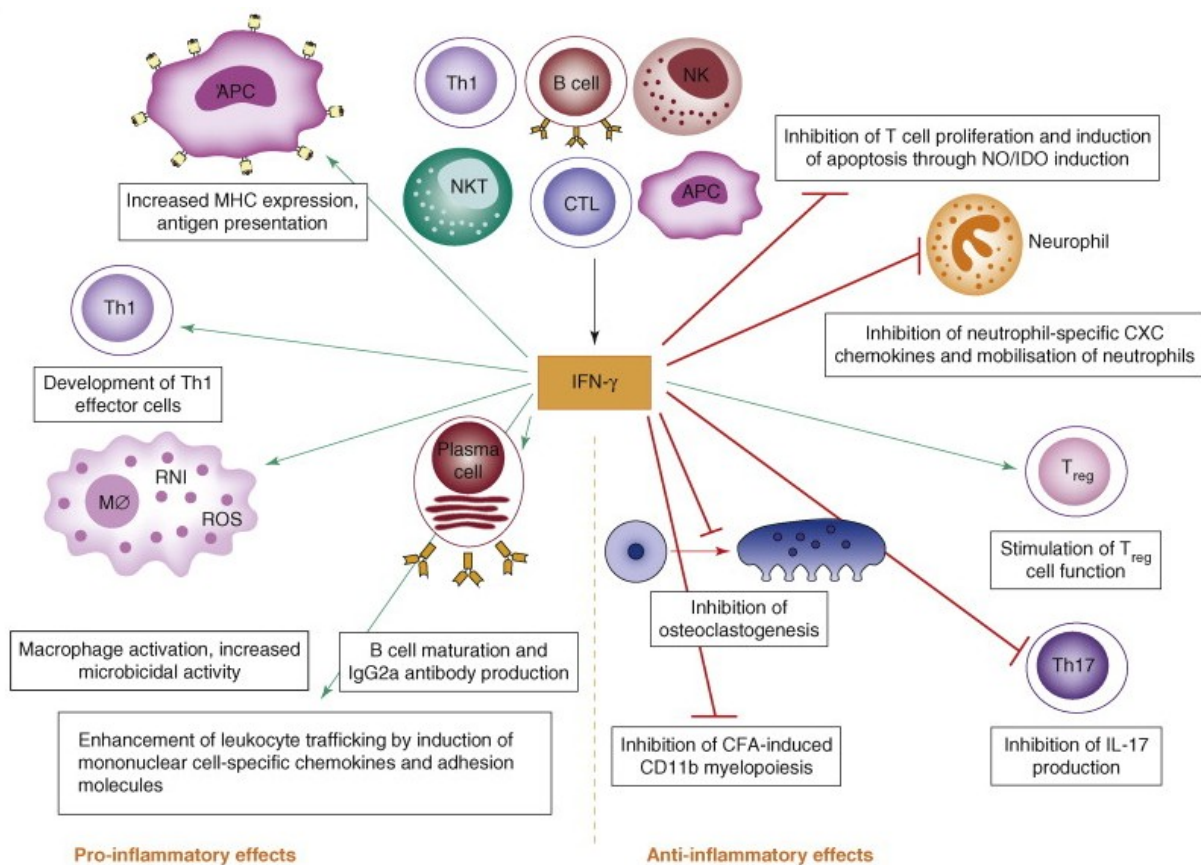


Figure 1.2C – The overview of the most general functions of interferon gamma. The left part of the picture highlights the pro-inflammatory functions and the right shows the anti-inflammatory effects. Green arrow lines correspond to stimulatory effects whereas the red lines depict inhibitory effects. (Original picture was published by Kelcherman et al. [69]).

The delicate signaling by IFN- γ is very sensitive to any changes. Therefore, it is not surprising that IFN- γ is associated with numerous auto-inflammatory and autoimmune diseases. Specific alleles are associated with higher susceptibility to multiple sclerosis [70], tuberculosis [71] [72,73], aplastic anaemia [74], kidney angiomyolipomas [75] or they can even protect against

tuberculosis [76] or be important for hepatitis C virus clearance [77]. The altered protein expression is connected with systemic lupus erythematosus [78,79] and chronic inflammatory arthritis [80]. Aberrations of interferon gamma are also associated with some tumor types [81,82,83]. All these findings have led to efforts of researchers to develop IFN- γ based agonistic or antagonistic immunomodulatory therapies. Recombinant protein (Actimmune) is an approved drug [84]. Antagonistic effects are available by approved antibody (HuZAF) used for treatment of psoriasis [85], rheumatoid arthritis, and multiple sclerosis [86].

1.2.3 Type III interferons

Type III interferons belong with their genomic organization [87], sequence, and structure to the Interleukin-10 family of cytokines but their antiviral properties rank them into the interferon group. This group of interferons is the most recent one [88] and has four different subtype members known as interferons lambda (IFN- λ 1 – 4). Their categorization in FIL10 yielded alternative synonymous names: IFN- λ 1 = IL-29, IFN- λ 2 = IL-28A, IFN- λ 3 = IL-28B. All type III interferons are located on the human chromosome 19 and share a high degree of similarity, which suggests the existence of their common ancestor. The IFN- λ 2 and IFN- λ 3 share 96 % of similarity which corresponds to 8 mutations. IFN- λ 1 is not as similar (74 % identity and 82 % positivity with IFN- λ 2) and IFN- λ 4 is not similar (40.8 % similarity to λ 3). IFN- λ 4's differences arise as a consequence of a large frame-shift mutation generating a new sequence, interestingly with all the disulfide bridges preserved [89].

The type III interferon signaling complex is formed by IFN- λ 1 – 4, IFN- λ receptor 1 (IFN- λ R1, IL-28R1 alternatively) and interleukin 10 receptor 2 (IL-10R2). Unlike other interferons the receptor complex is not specific only for interferons lambda but IL-10R2 is shared also with other members of the FIL10 family such as IL-10, IL-22, and IL-26. This phenomenon is known as receptor sharing or receptor promiscuity and is common for FIL-10 and some other interleukin families. Although the interferons type I and III signaling is mediated through completely different receptors (IFN- α R1 vs. IL-28R1, etc.), the subsequent signalization cascade utilizes the same JAK1, tyrosine kinase 2 (TYK2), and common JAK/STAT pathway to stimulate their activities [90,91].

Lambda interferons are responsible for modulating the host response to pathogens. Despite a high degree of homology, they have markedly different antiviral activities. Interestingly, almost every cell type expresses IFN- λ 1 – 3 as a consequence of a viral infection, but the primary producers are myeloid and plasmacytoid dendritic cells. The major role for interferons lambda seems to be in airway epithelial cells after respiratory virus infections. Because of the receptors for interferons lambda are restricted to this and other barrier tissue cells. Only a small subset of immune cells expresses receptors. This pattern gives a great potential for lambda interferons in immune therapy, because less severe side effects are expected than observed in other interferon therapies [92].

1.3. Cytokine receptors

Cytokine receptors are cell surface proteins which are able to transmit the incoming signal provided by cytokine through the cell membrane. Therefore, they represent the bridge between extracellular and the intracellular signals. A large proportion of cytokine related illnesses are connected with these receptors [93,94]. Receptors are usually variable by multiple possible isoforms and single nucleotide polymorphisms displaying thus a wide range of potential functional changes.

A classification of cytokine receptors has been proposed on the basis of their three-dimensional structures and recognizes six independent receptor families (**Figure 1.3A**): Type I and II cytokine receptors, Immunoglobulin family receptors, Tumor necrosis factor family, Chemokine receptors, and Transforming growth factor beta receptors.

The first two groups type I cytokine receptors and type II cytokine receptors are composed of an assembly of usually 2 fibronectin III domains. They significantly differ in the S-S bond pattern and in the presence of specific motifs. Type I cytokine receptors have four conserved cysteine residues in the N-terminal region and WSXWS motif located in close proximity to the transition between extracellular and transmembrane parts of receptors [95]. The recognition of type II cytokine receptors can be performed by an analysis of a sequentially discontinuous motif (X)WRWR(X), where X is K, R, or H. This feature together with detailed characterization of type II receptors is described below in the manuscript entitled: "Crystal structure of human interferon- γ receptor 2 reveals the structural basis for receptor specificity" [96].

Immunoglobulin receptor superfamily members are composed of several types of Ig-like domains [97]. The name of this family has been proposed due to their homology with immunoglobulin, cell adhesion molecules, and some cytokines. The tumor necrosis factor receptor family is a cytokine receptor family with the ability to bind tumor necrosis factors (TNFs) by an extracellular cysteine-rich domain [98]. Many members of this family have non-cytokine ligands like extracellular parts of other receptors. Chemokine receptors are receptors with the ability to bind cytokines that are able to induce chemotaxis. The name was derived from the term chemotactic cytokines. Chemokine receptors are structurally G protein-coupled receptors containing 7 transmembrane domains [99]. The last family of cytokine receptors is the Transforming growth factor receptors (TGF). They are homo- or heterodimers and transduce the signal by adopting serine or threonine kinase activity [100].

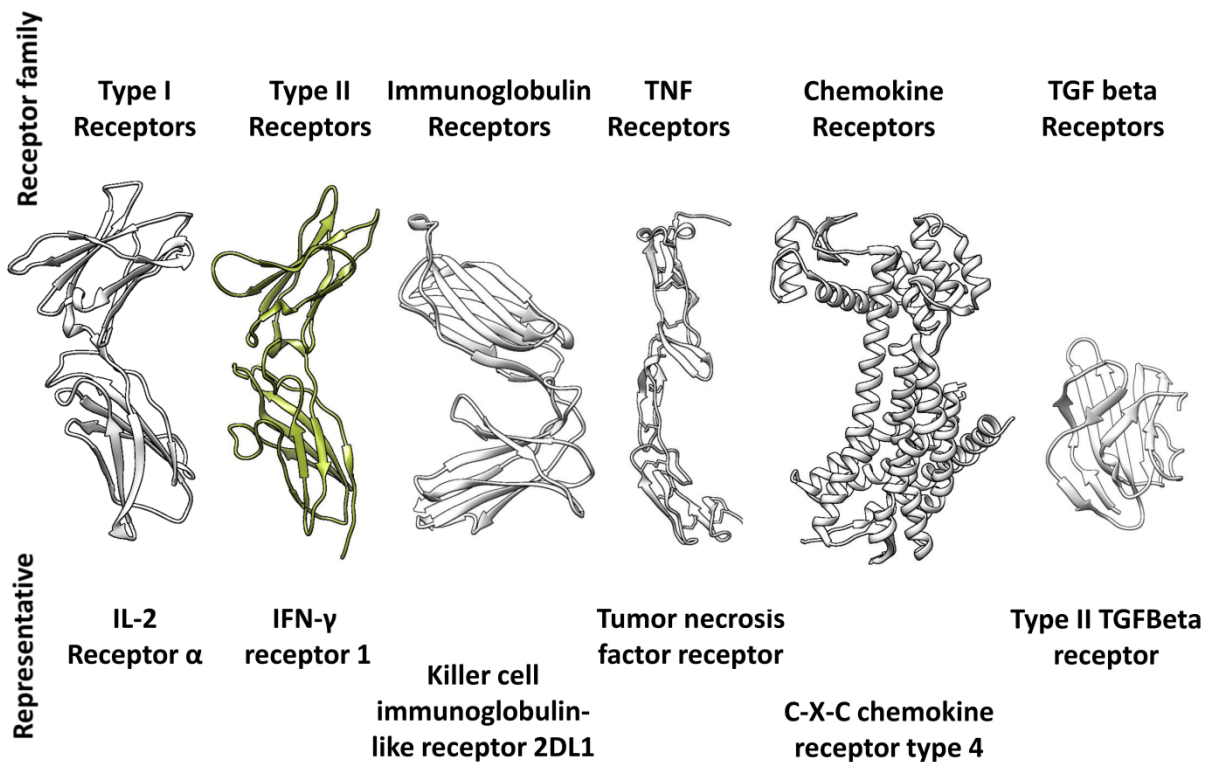


Figure 1.3A – Structural comparison of representatives from six receptor families within cytokine receptors. Type II cytokine receptors (in color) are described in detail in this thesis (chapter 1.3.1). The following structures were depicted: IL-2R α , 2b5i [101]; IFN- γ R1, 1fg9 [32]; Killer cell immunoglobulin-like receptor, 2dl1 [102], Tumor necrosis factor receptor, 1ext [103]; C-X-C chemokine receptor type 4, 4rws [104]; type II Transforming Growth Factor Beta receptor, 4p7u [105].

1.3.1. Type II cytokine receptors

As mentioned, type II cytokine receptors are structurally formed mostly by two Fibronectine type III domains. The family can be divided by function into high affinity receptors and low affinity receptors. The high affinity receptors are IFN- γ R1 (Uniprot P15260), IL-10R1 (Q13651), IL-20R1 (Q9UHF4), IL-22R1 (Q8N6P7), IL22BP, and IL-28R1 (Q8IU57)). Their corresponding low affinity receptors or so-called accessory chains are IFN- γ R2 (P38484), IL-10R2 (Q08334), IL-20R2 (Q6UXL0). The term accessory chain is more appropriate because the affinity of IL-20R1 to IL-20 is lower than IL-20R2 [106]. The signaling ternary complexes are heterodimers or multimers with high and low affinity components. By comparing the number of receptors in both group, the need for receptor sharing, which is characteristic trait for FIL10 is evident. In contrast to FIL10, both receptors of IFN- γ are unique and specific only for IFN- γ signaling.

1.3.1. 1. Interferon gamma receptor 1

The human IFN- γ R1 (Uniprot P15260, CD119) is a transmembrane glycoprotein with a single transmembrane α -helix. The protein is encoded by a 30-kb gene located on chromosome 6 [107,108]. The gene consists of five exons encoding the extracellular domain and two exons encoding the intracellular part of the protein [21]; the corresponding mRNA is 2.3 kb long [109]. The nascent polypeptide undergoes an endoplasmic reticulum secretory pathway together with an S-S bond formation, glycosylation, and cleavage of signal peptide (AA 1-17) [110,111]. The mature receptor has 472 amino acids with a predicted mass of 52.5 kDa. The extracellular, transmembrane, and intracellular parts correspond to the amino acids 18 – 245, 246 – 266, and 267 – 489, respectively (**Figure 1.3B**).

There are known natural variants of the receptor with altered signaling. Immunodeficiency 27A is known as the disease caused by mutations in IFN- γ R1 [112]. The mutations C87Y [113], V61E [114], and the multiple deletion variants [115] are very severe because they completely abrogate IFN- γ signaling which increases susceptibility to mycobacterial infections and immune disbalance.

The first structure of IFN- γ R1 has been solved as a part of the binary complex between IFN- γ R1 and IFN- γ in the year 1995 [20]. Later the D1 domain was crystallized [116] and other binary complexes have been solved [32,117]. The only available structure of free IFN- γ R1 is the chicken structure [118]. Extracellular domain is composed of two fibronectin type III domains [119] connected by a short linker with six residues. The D1 domain is composed of residues 14–102 and forms a β -sandwich with three β -strands stacked on a layer of four β -strands. The D2 domain is composed of amino acid residues 114–221 and forms a similar β -sandwich with four strands stacked on four β -strands. The linker between both domains is common for other members of the type II receptor family and allows variations of the hinge angle [32].

The extracellular domain of IFN- γ R1 contains four confirmed glycosylation sites at residues 17, 62, 69, and 162 [32], one variable at residue 240 [120,121] and four S-S bond clearly visible in the electron density maps [32]. The disulfide bonds are formed between residues Cys77-Cys85, Cys122-Cys167, Cys195-Cys200, and Cys214-Cys235, and are crucial for activity [122]. The oligosaccharide moieties contribute to the molecular weight of the receptor by approximately 25 kDa [123].

The IFN- γ R1 extracellular part is responsible for mediating high-affinity binding of IFN- γ . The affinity of this interaction was measured by SPR with K_d 30.8 nM [124] and has a very high specificity [109]. The interaction between IFN- γ R1 and IFN- γ is mediated by extensive contacts. The D1 and D2 domains form an angle complementary to the V-shaped IFN- γ molecule. Receptor loops bind to helix A, the AB loop, and helix B on the one monomer of IFN- γ [20].

The intracellular domain structure is unknown. Mutation studies demonstrate the presence of so called Box 1 and Box 2 motifs on the intracellular domain which collaborate in the association and activation of Jak1 [125]. Some guidance can be extracted from the structure of interferon lambda receptor 1 (IL-28R1) with human kinase Jak1 (PDB: 5l04) [126]. The receptor chain creates a long stretch intercalated into the Jak1 structure with only a very limited amount of a secondary structure. The same situation can be observed in the structure of the human TYK2 FERM and SH2 domains with an IFNAR1 intracellular peptide (PDB: 4po6) [127]. Both structures showed that box1 and box2 regions bind simultaneously to the FERM and SH2-like domains of JAK1. The further intracellular parts of receptors were studied only by mutations and residues Tyr457, Asp458, and His461 were found to be functionally important [128].

1.3.1. 2. Interferon gamma receptor 2

The second IFN- γ R2 receptor (UniProt P38484) is similar to IFN- γ R1 in many ways (**Figure 1.3B**). It is borne by a 33-kb gene on chromosome 21 [129,130] and consists of 7 exons [131]. The IFN- γ R2 protein comprises of 310 amino acids with a predicted molecular mass of 35 kDa. Contrary to IFN- γ R1, the intracellular part is very short (residues 269 – 337). The transmembrane part (248 – 268) and the extracellular parts (28 – 247) are similar to IFN- γ R1. The IFN- γ R2 gene variability is rather high and connected to the manifestation of a severe disease known as immunodeficiency 28 [132,133,134]. Interestingly, one of the mutations leading to IFN- γ R2 associated immunodeficiency is due to a gain of N-glycosylation [133]. The extracellular domain of IFN- γ R2 is structured into two Fibronectin type III domains with 5 cysteine residues and 6 potential N-linked glycosylation sites (Asn56, Asn85, Asn110, Asn137, Asn219, and Asn231). Glycosylation contributes to the significant size heterogeneity, even in the same cell type, with M_r values that range from 61 to 67 kDa [135]. The analysis of the IFN- γ R2 structure is the subject of one paper included in the thesis and will be described further in detail [96]. In the last 6 years, our knowledge of ternary

complexes increased due to solving the IL-20 ternary complex (PDB: 4doh) [106] and the interferon lambda ternary complex (PDB: 5t5w) [136]. Based on the analogy with these complexes, we assume that for the IFN- γ binding the interactions with both IFN- γ R1 and IFN- γ R2 are important. This has been suggested by Pestka et al. using cross-linking experiments [137]. IFN- γ R2 plays a minor role in IFN- γ binding but it is crucial for signaling [45].

The transcription of IFN- γ R2 is highly regulated [138] although it appears in many cells together with IFN- γ R1. As expected, Th1 cells are producers of IFN- γ but they down-regulate the expression of IFN- γ R2 becoming IFN- γ unresponsive. In contrast to Th1 cells, Th2 cells are responsive to IFN- γ but they cannot produce IFN- γ itself [135,139].

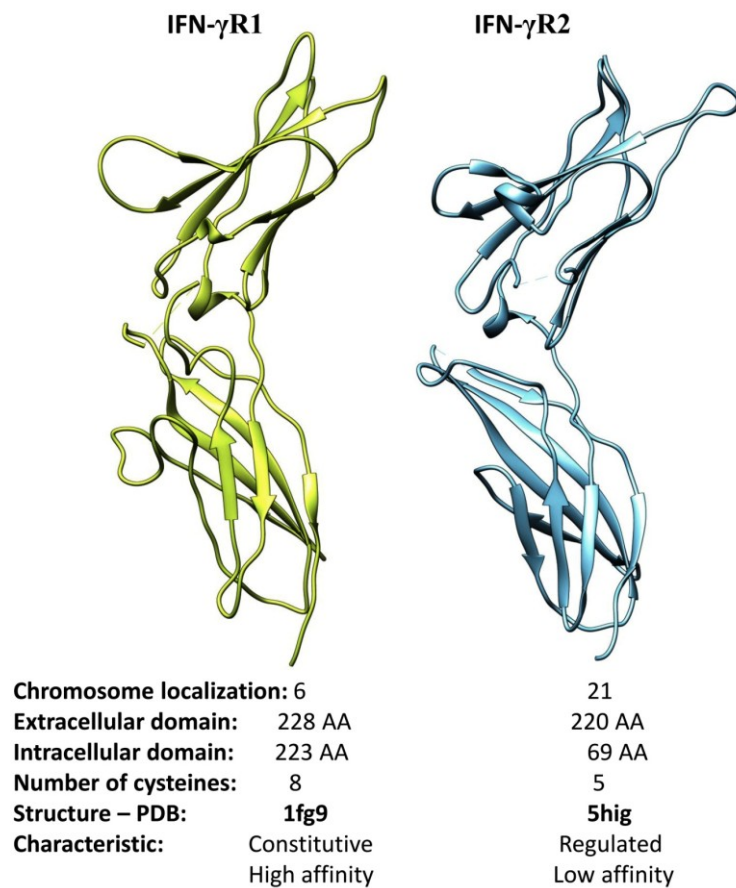


Figure 1.3B – Comparison of human receptors for IFN- γ . Although different localization, the receptors' extracellular parts are similar in size and overall shape. They significantly differ in the number of cysteines, intracellular domains, and their biochemical and biophysical characteristics.

1.3.1. 3. Interferon gamma receptor complex

Although the multiple cytokine ternary complexes were solved (Table 1.3A), the structure of the IFN- γ ternary complex remains undiscovered. The homodimeric nature of IFN- γ increases the complexity of the ternary complex, the feature that can be possibly used to tune the cytokine receptor signaling [140]. Deeper knowledge of the ternary complex will enable us to uncover this issue.

Table 1.3A – Known structures of ternary signaling complexes

| Cytokine / receptor ternary complex composition | PDB ID | Reference |
|---|------------|-----------|
| Growth hormone/ GHbp/ GHbp | 3hhr | [141] |
| Erythropoietin/ sEPOR/ sEPOR | 1eer | [142] |
| Placental lactogen/ prolactin receptor/ prolactin receptor | 1f6f | [143] |
| Interleukin-6/ IL-6R α / IL-6R β | 1p9m | [144] |
| Interleukin-2/ IL-2R α / IL-2R β / γ -chain | 2b5i | [101] |
| Interleukin-13/ IL-13R α / IL-4R α | 3bpo, 2erj | [145,146] |
| Interleukin-20/ IL-20R1/ IL-20R2 | 4doh | [106] |
| IFN- λ 3/ IL-28R1/ IL-10R2 | 5t5e | [136] |

2. Aims

The ultimate aims of this study are the development of novel approaches in the field of modulation of protein – protein interactions (PPIs). A model system used for the study is IFN- γ and its receptors IFN- γ R1 and IFN- γ R2 and description of their ternary complex. We concentrated on the insufficiently studied IFN- γ R2, mechanisms of formation of the ternary complex IFN- γ /R1/R2, and the complex evolution.

- I. Modulation of PPIs by changing the stability of a protein – protein complex. The process is aimed at changing amino-acid residue in the receptor cavities and the development of a novel technique for such stability modifications. This novel approach might complement the current methodological portfolio and enable to preserve the interaction interface intact.
- II. Production, biophysical, and structural characterization of IFN- γ R2. Characterization of specific features for this receptor and other members of the type II family. The structural biology analysis of IFN- γ R2 was important to extend the present knowledge of protein structure and enable the study of its interaction with IFN- γ
- III. Phylogeny of type II interferons in fish species and analysis of their co-evolution. Production, biophysical, and structural characterization of some fish IFN- γ signaling molecules. Analysis of possible interaction pairs by biophysics and bioinformatics approaches. The results can shed a light on the fish type II interferon system that is more diverse than the mammalian one.
- IV. The study of topology and structure of complexes between IFN- γ and extracellular portions of its two receptors IFN- γ R1 and IFN- γ R2.

3 Results and discussion

We applied different strategies to modulate the affinity of the extracellular part of human IFN- γ R1 to IFN- γ . The first set of mutations was on the interface between both partners [124] and is not included in this thesis. The study was followed by a study of "cavity" mutants (chapter 3.1). In the second paper described in the thesis, we focused on the unknown structure of IFN- γ R2 and solved it. This enabled us to characterize the structure in detail and propose some features important for the IFN- γ ternary complex (chapter 3.2). The acquired knowledge has allowed us to study the evolutionary aspects of the IFN- γ ternary complex and to describe putative changes that shaped the interfaces between receptors. The evolutionary aspect of all parts of the ternary complex are analyzed in the third publication which describes the evolutionary aspect together with the structure of IFN- γ from the Japanese halibut *Paralichthys olivaceus* (chapter 3.3). Finally, we focused on the ternary complex topology and composition (chapter 3.4).

3.1 IFN- γ R1 cavities

Černý, J., Biedermannová, L., Mikulecký, P., **Zahradník, J.**, Charnavets, T., Šebo, P., Schneider, B. (2015): Redesigning Protein Cavities as a Strategy for Increasing Affinity in Protein-Protein Interaction: Interferon- γ Receptor 1 as a Model. *Biomed Res Int* 2015: 716945.

The approach to influence the affinity between IFN- γ R1 and IFN- γ was developed in our laboratory. The idea of the study is built on the premise that the majority of PPI studies are based on structural properties of the interface [147] but significant contribution to the binding affinity is given by conformational dynamics and thus by entropic forces. The entropic penalty of binding can be reduced by lowering complex flexibility. The contribution of flexibility to the entropic penalty in protein-protein complexes has been shown previously by molecular dynamics simulations [148].

We analyzed in detail two available binary complexes with four slightly different IFN- γ and IFN- γ R1 interactions in the available crystal structures of 1fyh [117] and 1fg9 [32]. We did not include the uncomplexed IFN- γ R1 chains because their structure is significantly different from the structure of the receptor bound to IFN- γ . The cavity mutant methodology was described in a publication (Supplement 1) and is described in detail in chapters 3.1.1 – 3.1.2.

This study is a follow-up study to Mikulecky et al paper Increasing affinity of interferon- γ receptor 1 to interferon- γ by computer-aided design [124] and is briefly discussed to keep the topic in context.

3.1.1 IFN- γ R1 cavities study design

Crystal structures of complexes were analyzed by the 3V program [149] to identify the cavities useful for our study. This analysis revealed a different number and size of cavities for each binary interaction system used (**Table 3.1A**). The structure of cavities is highlighted in **Figure 3.1A**. We subsequently analyzed 52 amino acids forming the cavities in the *in silico* mutation analysis by empirical force field implemented in the FoldX software [150]. We searched for mutants that would increase the stability of IFN- γ R1 and/or the affinity to IFN- γ . We focused on the selection of 12 promising positions, out of 200 analyzed that were predicted in similar manner in at least three crystal structures. The positions were analyzed by comparison of changes of free energies ($\Delta\Delta G$) calculated using the FoldX program supported by averaged 500 snapshots of 10 ns molecular dynamics relaxation. Three different changes of free energy were calculated – $\Delta\Delta G$ of folding of IFN- γ R1 in complex, $\Delta\Delta G$ of folding of free IFN- γ R1, and $\Delta\Delta G$ of binding. The results of these computations for the 12 promising positions in the IFN- γ R1 chain C (PDB 1fg9) are shown in **Figure 3.1B**. Analogical matrices were calculated for the 3 remaining IFN- γ and IFN- γ R1 complexes. All selected IFN- γ R1 variants were cloned, expressed, and purified to homogeneity. All mutants were also combined with the previously identified N96W mutant located on interaction interface [124]. The purified proteins were characterized in detail by biophysical techniques and the change of binding affinity was accessed by Surface Plasmon resonance (SPR) measurements.

Table 3.1A – Cavities in the four binary complexes between IFN- γ R1 and IFN- γ (PDB: 1fg9, 1fyh). The receptor chains are labeled according to PDB file.

| | Surface [\AA^2]* | Number of residues lining the cavity† | Residues selected for mutation | Cavity observed in IFN γ R1 chain of | |
|---|-----------------------------|---------------------------------------|--------------------------------|---|------|
| | | | | 1fg9 | 1fyh |
| 1 | 134 | 7 | V35, A114 | C D | - |
| 2 | 133 | 5 | - | - | B E |
| 3 | 470 | 14 | D124 | C D | - |
| 4 | 262 | 9 | H222 | C D | B E |
| 5 | 120 | 6 | - | C D | E |
| 6 | 165 | 7 | - | C D | E |
| 7 | 177 | 7 | - | D | B E |
| 8 | 138 | 5 | - | C | B |

*Surface calculated with a probe radius of 0.25 \AA for cavities combined from all relevant receptor chains.

†Some residues are shared by neighboring cavities.

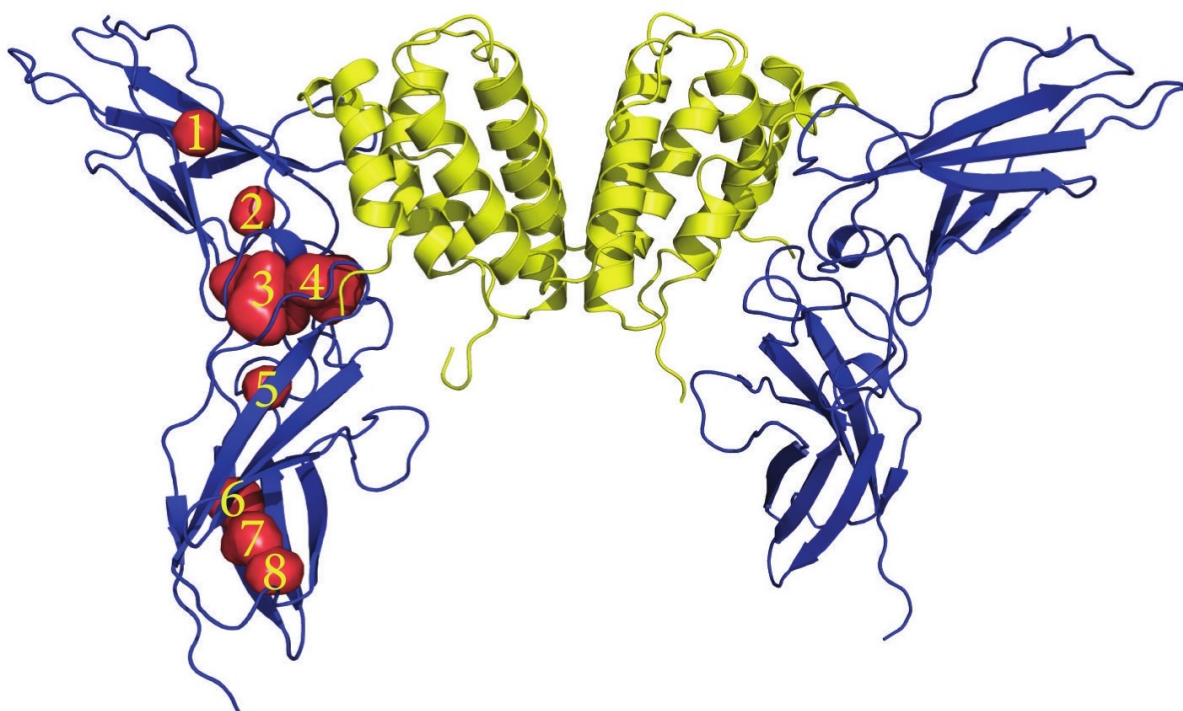


Figure 3.1A – The binary complex between IFN- γ and IFN- γ R1 from the crystal structure of PDB code 1fg9 [32]. The molecules of IFN- γ R1 are drawn in blue and the IFN- γ homodimer is in yellow. The protein cavities analyzed in this study are drawn as red surface and numbered from the top (N-terminus) to the bottom (C-terminus). Analyzed mutants are located in the cavities 1 (V35, A114), 3 (D124), and 4 (H222)

| | [1] | GLY | ALA | VAL | LEU | ILE | SER | THR | CYS | MET | ASN | GLN | LYS | ARG | HIS | PRO | ASP | GLU | PHE | TYR | TRP |
|---------|------|------|------|------|------|------|-----|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|
| VAL 35 | 2.8 | 2.0 | 0.0 | -0.9 | -0.4 | 2.9 | 1.6 | 1.3 | 0.1 | 2.0 | 2.5 | 3.5 | 5.1 | 4.7 | 1.2 | 3.4 | 3.5 | 4.3 | 7.3 | 10.6 | |
| VAL 46 | 3.8 | 2.2 | 0.0 | -0.1 | -0.3 | 3.1 | 1.8 | 1.8 | 0.6 | 2.4 | 3.0 | 4.1 | 6.4 | 6.4 | 2.0 | 3.6 | 3.7 | 4.0 | 6.6 | 9.1 | |
| VAL 100 | 5.6 | 3.7 | 0.0 | 0.3 | -0.3 | 4.2 | 2.4 | 2.7 | 0.8 | 3.6 | 3.9 | 5.4 | 7.6 | 6.2 | 5.0 | 5.5 | 5.1 | 4.0 | 6.8 | 9.8 | |
| VAL 102 | 5.2 | 3.3 | 0.0 | 1.2 | -0.4 | 4.0 | 2.2 | 2.5 | 1.8 | 3.6 | 4.1 | 7.1 | 11.9 | 9.4 | 4.8 | 4.9 | 4.9 | 7.5 | 11.2 | 15.6 | |
| ALA 114 | 1.0 | 0.0 | -0.2 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.3 | 0.2 | 0.1 | 0.3 | 0.6 | 0.2 | 0.2 | 0.7 | 3.3 | 2.3 | 1.1 | 0.3 | 0.7 | 1.0 | 1.9 | |
| ASP 124 | 3.0 | 2.2 | 2.5 | 1.4 | 2.5 | 2.3 | 2.7 | 2.0 | 1.7 | 0.7 | 1.4 | 1.8 | 2.1 | 2.3 | 5.7 | 0.0 | 1.5 | 1.4 | 1.6 | 2.5 | |
| GLY 125 | 0.0 | 2.0 | 6.0 | 6.4 | 7.7 | 2.9 | 5.6 | 3.0 | 4.7 | 5.7 | 6.8 | 8.1 | 10.1 | 31.3 | 6.2 | 7.1 | 7.1 | 12.0 | 14.1 | 21.8 | |
| ILE 169 | 5.1 | 3.7 | 1.1 | 0.1 | 0.0 | 4.7 | 3.2 | 2.9 | 0.3 | 3.0 | 3.2 | 4.1 | 5.5 | 3.9 | 1.8 | 4.2 | 3.6 | 1.9 | 4.7 | 7.0 | |
| HIS 222 | 0.7 | 0.1 | 0.8 | -0.3 | 1.1 | -0.3 | 0.6 | 0.4 | -0.3 | -0.6 | 0.5 | -0.1 | 0.3 | 0.0 | 2.9 | -0.1 | 0.5 | -1.1 | -0.7 | 1.1 | |
| VAL 223 | 2.5 | 2.0 | 0.0 | 0.7 | 0.3 | 3.7 | 1.4 | 2.3 | 0.9 | 3.0 | 3.2 | 3.8 | 6.3 | 14.2 | 7.3 | 4.6 | 4.9 | 7.6 | 11.5 | 15.6 | |
| TRP 224 | 5.5 | 4.7 | 3.5 | 2.8 | 3.1 | 5.5 | 4.9 | 4.5 | 2.4 | 4.8 | 4.2 | 4.2 | 4.0 | 3.3 | 4.6 | 5.9 | 5.2 | 1.1 | 1.5 | 0.0 | |
| GLY 225 | 0.0 | 1.5 | 3.3 | 2.0 | 3.4 | 2.0 | 3.3 | 1.8 | 1.6 | 2.1 | 2.5 | 2.6 | 2.9 | 4.7 | 4.3 | 2.9 | 3.0 | 2.4 | 2.6 | 2.9 | |
| | [2] | GLY | ALA | VAL | LEU | ILE | SER | THR | CYS | MET | ASN | GLN | LYS | ARG | HIS | PRO | ASP | GLU | PHE | TYR | TRP |
| VAL 35 | 2.8 | 2.0 | 0.0 | -0.9 | -0.4 | 2.9 | 1.6 | 1.3 | 0.1 | 2.0 | 2.5 | 3.6 | 5.3 | 4.5 | 1.2 | 3.4 | 3.5 | 4.3 | 7.3 | 10.7 | |
| VAL 46 | 5.0 | 3.0 | 0.0 | -0.2 | -0.5 | 4.1 | 2.4 | 2.4 | 0.5 | 3.2 | 3.8 | 5.1 | 8.1 | 7.6 | 2.9 | 4.8 | 4.8 | 4.4 | 7.9 | 11.5 | |
| VAL 100 | 5.7 | 3.8 | 0.0 | 0.3 | -0.3 | 4.2 | 2.4 | 2.7 | 0.8 | 3.7 | 4.0 | 5.5 | 7.7 | 5.9 | 5.0 | 5.5 | 5.1 | 4.1 | 6.8 | 9.7 | |
| VAL 102 | 5.2 | 3.3 | 0.0 | 1.2 | -0.4 | 4.0 | 2.2 | 2.5 | 1.8 | 3.6 | 4.1 | 7.1 | 11.9 | 9.5 | 4.8 | 4.9 | 4.9 | 7.5 | 11.2 | 15.7 | |
| ALA 114 | 1.0 | 0.0 | -0.2 | 0.2 | 0.2 | 0.3 | 0.2 | 0.1 | 0.4 | 0.7 | 0.3 | 0.3 | 0.7 | 3.4 | 2.3 | 1.2 | 0.5 | 0.8 | 1.1 | 2.0 | |
| ASP 124 | 2.4 | 1.6 | 2.0 | 0.7 | 1.7 | 1.8 | 2.1 | 1.6 | 0.9 | 0.9 | 1.3 | 1.0 | 1.4 | 1.5 | 4.8 | 0.0 | 1.4 | 1.0 | 1.2 | 1.8 | |
| GLY 125 | 0.0 | 2.0 | 6.0 | 6.4 | 7.8 | 2.9 | 5.6 | 3.0 | 4.8 | 5.8 | 6.8 | 8.2 | 10.2 | 32.2 | 6.2 | 7.1 | 7.2 | 12.1 | 14.2 | 21.9 | |
| ILE 169 | 5.1 | 3.7 | 1.1 | 0.1 | 0.0 | 4.7 | 3.2 | 2.9 | 0.3 | 3.0 | 3.2 | 4.2 | 5.6 | 3.8 | 1.8 | 4.2 | 3.7 | 1.9 | 4.7 | 7.0 | |
| HIS 222 | -0.1 | -0.6 | 0.5 | -0.4 | 0.6 | -1.0 | 0.2 | -0.1 | -0.4 | -0.7 | 0.2 | -0.5 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 2.3 | -0.3 | -0.2 | -0.9 | -0.7 | 0.6 | |
| VAL 223 | 0.9 | 0.6 | 0.0 | 0.2 | -0.2 | 1.7 | 0.4 | 1.2 | 0.1 | 1.2 | 1.1 | 0.5 | 0.9 | 1.0 | 5.6 | 1.6 | 1.2 | 0.1 | 0.3 | 0.6 | |
| TRP 224 | 2.7 | 2.1 | 1.3 | 1.2 | 1.1 | 2.5 | 2.1 | 1.9 | 0.9 | 2.2 | 1.9 | 1.6 | 2.0 | 2.0 | 2.2 | 2.4 | 2.0 | 0.3 | 0.6 | 0.0 | |
| GLY 225 | 0.0 | 1.2 | 1.9 | 0.8 | 1.7 | 1.2 | 1.7 | 1.1 | 0.6 | 0.9 | 0.9 | 0.8 | 1.0 | 1.0 | 2.8 | 1.0 | 1.0 | 0.4 | 0.5 | 0.3 | |
| | [3] | GLY | ALA | VAL | LEU | ILE | SER | THR | CYS | MET | ASN | GLN | LYS | ARG | HIS | PRO | ASP | GLU | PHE | TYR | TRP |
| VAL 35 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | -0.1 | -0.2 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | -0.1 |
| VAL 46 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| VAL 100 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| VAL 102 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| ALA 114 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | -0.1 | -0.1 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | -0.1 | -0.1 | -0.1 | -0.1 | -0.1 | 0.0 | -0.1 | 0.0 | -0.1 | -0.2 | -0.1 | -0.1 | -0.1 |
| ASP 124 | 0.2 | 0.1 | 0.0 | -0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.0 | -0.1 | -0.1 | -0.2 | -0.2 | -0.1 | -0.1 | 0.1 | 0.2 | 0.0 | -0.1 | -0.1 | -0.1 | 0.1 | |
| GLY 125 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | -0.1 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | -0.1 | -0.1 | -0.1 | -0.1 | 0.0 | 0.0 | -0.1 | -0.1 | -0.1 | |
| ILE 169 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | |
| HIS 222 | 1.3 | 1.2 | 0.9 | 0.7 | 0.8 | 1.1 | 0.9 | 0.7 | 0.4 | 0.3 | 0.5 | 0.4 | 0.2 | 0.0 | 1.2 | 0.5 | 0.6 | 0.1 | 0.2 | 0.8 | |
| VAL 223 | 1.7 | 1.4 | 0.0 | 0.1 | 0.4 | 2.0 | 0.8 | 1.2 | 0.3 | 1.5 | 1.6 | 2.0 | 3.2 | 6.1 | 2.2 | 2.7 | 2.9 | 5.7 | 8.2 | 10.4 | |
| TRP 224 | 3.3 | 3.1 | 2.6 | 1.8 | 2.2 | 3.3 | 3.0 | 3.0 | 1.4 | 2.9 | 2.3 | 2.4 | 2.0 | 1.3 | 2.8 | 3.6 | 3.1 | 0.9 | 0.8 | 0.0 | |
| GLY 225 | 0.0 | 0.3 | 1.1 | 0.6 | 1.2 | 0.6 | 1.2 | 0.4 | 0.3 | 0.8 | 0.9 | 0.9 | 0.9 | 2.9 | 1.3 | 1.4 | 1.3 | 1.1 | 1.1 | 1.4 | |

Figure 3.1B – Changes of free energies ($\Delta\Delta G$ values, average value from 500 10 ns molecular dynamic relaxation snapshots) calculated using the FoldX program for 12 promising residues located in the IFN- γ R1 chain C protein cavities (PDB 1fg9 [32]). Conditional formatting is used to highlight the differences. Red color indicates stabilization (negative $\Delta\Delta G$ values), blue color is for positive $\Delta\Delta G$ values (destabilization). 1) $\Delta\Delta G$ of folding of IFN- γ R1 in complex; 2) $\Delta\Delta G$ of folding of free IFN- γ R1; 3) $\Delta\Delta G$ of binding;

3.1.2 Binding kinetics determination

Only four consensus candidates were chosen from the 12 promising positions for the verification. Interestingly, two mutations (V35L and H222Y) were predicted to increase $\Delta\Delta G$ for both the complexed and free IFN- γ R1 and the second pair (A114E and D124N) was predicted to slightly improve $\Delta\Delta G$ of binding (complex) while their $\Delta\Delta G$ of folding were destabilizing. Affinities relative to wt measured by SPR for all cavity mutants are shown in **Figure 3.1C** together with the analysis of N96W and cavity double mutants. The dissociation constants (K_d values) for the four selected “cavity” single amino acid mutants showed almost no change in affinity. Conservative changes were acquired for H222Y (decrease) and V35L (increase). The combination of cavity mutants with previously identified N96W showed more

interesting results and additive effects. Except the N96W + D124N mutant the measured affinities were significantly higher than wt and N96W alone. Moreover, the stability measurement showed a correlation of our results with computed stability differences analyzed in the term of $\Delta\Delta G$ changes. These results proved the suitability of this method for modulation of protein-protein interactions.

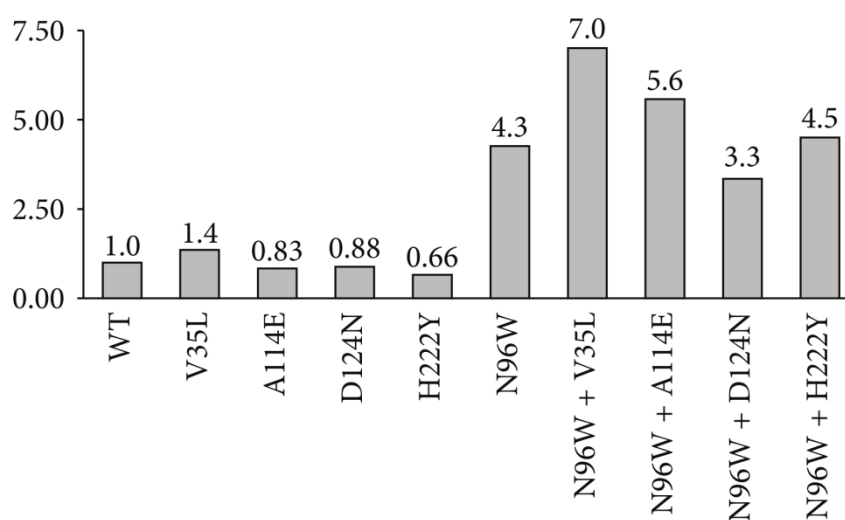


Figure 3.1C – SPR measured affinities between the IFN- γ single chain variant [117] and IFN- γ R1 "cavity mutants". Values are normalized to wt IFN- γ R1 (labeled WT). The mutation N96W is the best mutant located on interaction interface identified in our previous study [124].

3.2 Structural biology analysis of IFN- γ R2

Mikulecký, P., **Zahradník, J.**, Kolenko, P., Černý, J., Charnavets, T., Kolářová, L., Nečasová, I., Pham, P.N., Schneider, B. (2016) Crystal structure of human interferon- γ receptor 2 reveals the structural basis for receptor specificity. *Acta Crystallogr D Struct Biol* 72(9):1017-25.

The molecular structure of the extracellular portion of human IFN- γ R2 was investigated. This study uncovered the structure of the so far missing part of the IFN- γ complex and also the last unknown structure of the class II receptor family. It was also the critical prerequisite for the study of the whole ternary complex composition. The structure has been solved by molecular replacement phasing at 1.8 Å crystallographic resolution. A structure-based bioinformatics analysis and comparison with other members of class II family receptors revealed independent structural and evolutionary aspects of IFN- γ R2. We also identified the putative binding site for interferon gamma by an analysis of variable regions and by the analogy with other receptors. Obtained results were described in a structural biology oriented journal publication (Supplement 2) and the structure was deposited into PDB under the code: 5eh1.

3.2.1 Crystallization of IFN- γ R2, data collection and structure refinement

After the initial trials' failure to produce IFN- γ R2 in bacterial expression systems we adopted *Drosophila melanogaster* Schneider's S2 cells. The cell line was derived by Dr. Imogene Schneider from the late stages of *Drosophila* embryos [151]. We cloned the extracellular part of IFN- γ R2 (residues 28–247; UniProt P38484) into the pMT/BiP/V5-His A vector by *Bgl*III and *Age*I restriction enzymes to create an expression construct with N-terminal insect BiP signal peptide and C-terminal His tag. We transfected the S2 cells with constructed plasmid and established a stable cell line in a HyClone SFX-Insect medium supplemented by Blasticidine S. This procedure led to good production with the overall yield of approximately 50 mg/L. The purified protein was deglycosylated by Endoglycosidase H and crystals were grown by using the sitting-drop vapor-diffusion method. The diffraction quality crystals were mounted, cryoprotected and the data were collected at 100 K on beamline MX 14.1 of the BESSY II synchrotron-radiation source at the Helmholtz-Zentrum Berlin (HZB). Diffraction data were processed, scaled (XDS program package, [152]), and solved by a molecular replacement pipeline (BALBES, [153]). Subsequent refinement was carried out with REFMAC5 [154]. The structure was validated and deposited into the PDB database.

3.2.2 IFN- γ R2 and its characteristics

The IFN- γ R2 protein produced in S2 cells has a classical type II receptor structure. The receptor is composed of two Fibronectine type III domains connected by a short linker. The extracellular part of the receptor has five potential glycosylation sites (Asn56, Asn110, Asn137, Asn231, Asn85) occupied and only one glycosylation site was not used (Asn219). Interestingly, glycosylation at positions Asn110 and Asn137 shields the hydrophobic surface of Trp131 by formation of a sandwich-like structure (**Figure 3.2A**). We confirmed the indispensability of these two glycosylations by a mutation study. The disulfide bond analysis identified bonds linking Cys86 to Cys94, Cys209 to Cys234, and the fifth residue Cys174 forms an unusual S-S bond to free amino acid cysteine probably due to its occurrence in the culture media. Our analysis of the structure revealed a distinct structural motif of six stacked residues interacting by π -cation interaction: Lys68, Trp74, Arg114, Trp126, Arg116, and His123 (**Figure 3.2A**). An analogous stacking motif is known from the type I receptor family as the motif with the consensus sequence WSXWS [119].

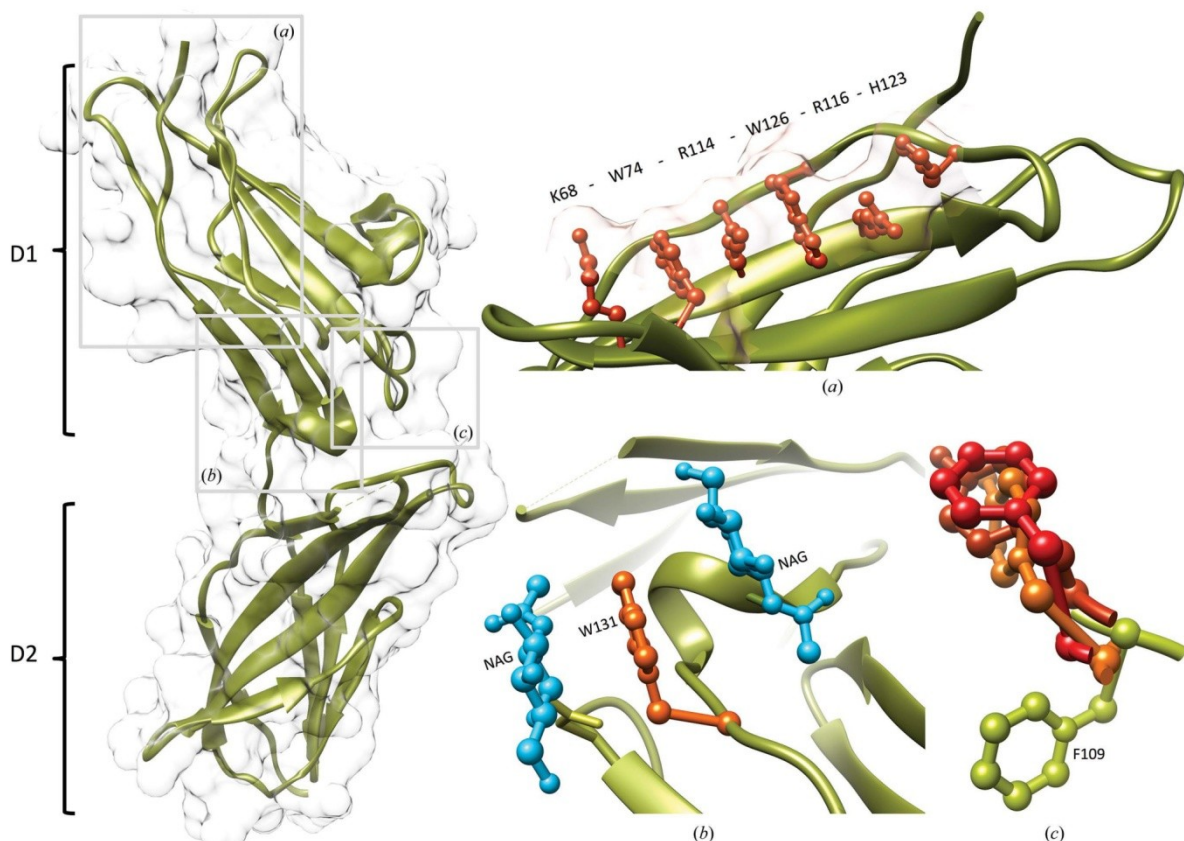


Figure 3.2A – Structure of IFN- γ R2 in ribbon and surface representations. Insets: (a) Stacking motif of residues Lys68, Trp74, Arg114, Trp126, Arg116, and His123 in the D1 domain. (b) N-Acetyl-d-glucosamine attached to Asn110 and Asn137 (NAGs; blue) forms a sandwich with Trp131 (orange) and thus shields its hydrophobic character. (c) The superposition of matching central residues of binding epitopes among IFN- γ R2 (Phe109 in green), IL-10R2 (Tyr82) [155], gp130 (Phe169) [156], and γ c (Tyr103) [157].

In an attempt to find the interface on the IFN- γ R2 surface that binds to its ligand IFN- γ , we computed an alignment of IFN- γ R2 sequences from 90 different species and used the ConSurf server [158] to indicate sequence (dis)similarities as they project on the surface of the only known structure of IFN- γ R2 (**Figure 3.2B**). The residues that are subject to the fastest evolution form one patch on the IFN- γ R2 surface. This patch is situated between D1 and D2 domains and centered on the F109. This residue is in the virtually identical position (Figure 3.2A) in all known receptor structures IL10R2 (PDB entry 3lqm; [155]), Phe169 of gp130 [PDB entry 1bqu; [156]), and Tyr103 of γ c receptor (PDB entry 4gs7; [157]). We therefore hypothesize that the surface patch putatively interacting with IFN- γ is situated among these highly variable residues.

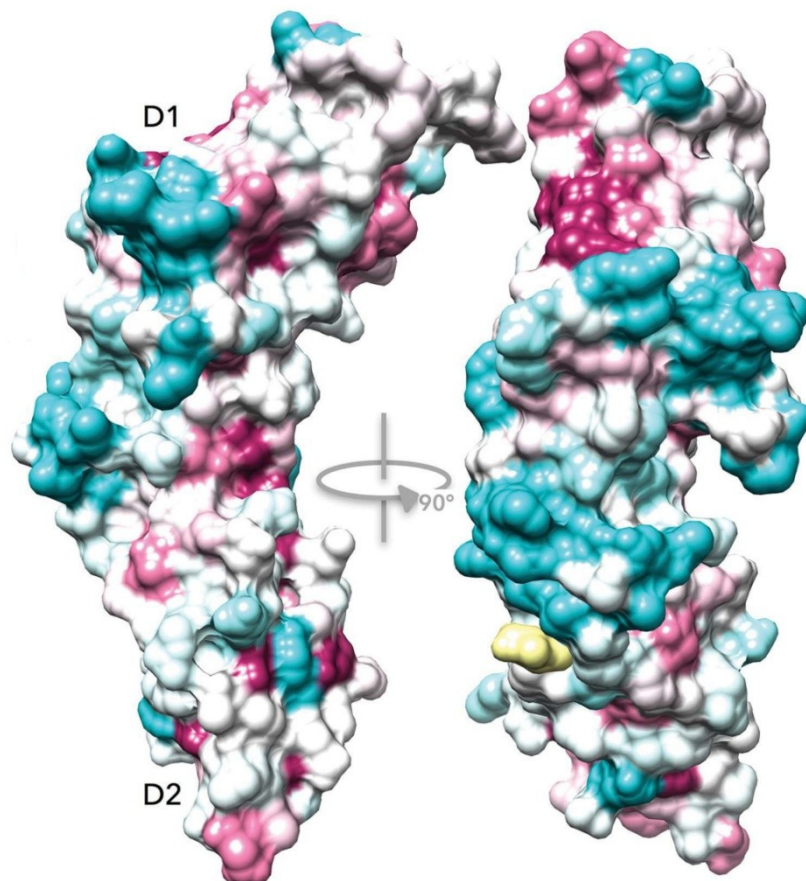


Figure 3.2B – Structurally variable regions in the IFN- γ R2 structure and the proposed interaction interface with IFN- γ . Color coded sequence variability was produced by using an alignment of IFN- γ R2 from 90 different species and the ConSurf server [158]. The most variable regions are colored cyan and conserved regions are drawn in purple. The free cysteine attached on odd Cys174 is highlighted in yellow. The putative interface creates a circle of highly variable residues in the middle of the IFN- γ R2 structure.

3.2.3 Comparison of class II receptors

We performed a structural alignment of all structures of class II receptors by overlapping all possible receptor pairs (in total 144 pairs). Domains D1 and D2 were aligned independently and the mutual angle between D1 and D2 domains varied among receptors and was discarded for a better alignment. The numerical representation of the alignment results is shown in Figure 3.2C. Interestingly, the D1 domains are mutually more similar than the D2 domains.

Our analysis of class II receptors also showed a similar motif, but sequentially non-continuous with the sequence (X)WRWR(X), where X is K, R, or H. An analysis of interaction energies for this motif suggests that it contributes significantly to the overall stability. Besides the motif (X)WRWR(X) we found a continuous chain of residues R-L/VR-A (residues Arg114-Leu115-Arg116-Ala117 in IFN- γ R2). The comparison of D2 revealed a considerable variability, two conserved proline residues, Pro142 and Pro143, a structurally well conserved motif 175-YNVAXW-180, and a disulfide bridge between Cys209 and Cys234 (IFN- γ R2 numbering).

| PDB code | 1fg9 | 5eh1 | 1j7v | 3lqm | 4doh | 4doh | 3dlq | 3g9v | 3og6 | 3se4 | 3se4 | 2puq |
|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|--------|--------|--------|--------|-------|--------|-------|-----------------|-----------------|------|
| Chain ID | C | A | R | A | E | B | R | A | B | A | C | T |
| Receptor | IFN γ R1 | IFN γ R2 | IL10R1 | IL10R2 | IL20R1 | IL20R2 | IL22R | IL22BP | IL28R | IFN α R1 | IFN α R2 | TF |
| IFN γ R1 | 0.82 | 0.87 | 0.73 | 0.73 | 0.80 | 0.78 | 0.90 | 0.71 | 0.82 | 1.35 | 1.12 | 0.85 |
| IFN γ R2 | 1.27 | 0.79 | 0.93 | 0.97 | 0.79 | 0.79 | 0.96 | 0.80 | 0.85 | 1.45 | 1.25 | 1.04 |
| IL10R1 | 1.22 | 1.12 | 1.07 | 0.74 | 0.97 | 0.88 | 0.94 | 1.43 | 1.13 | 0.81 | 0.67 | 0.66 |
| IL20R2 | 1.00 | 1.14 | 1.05 | 0.89 | 0.95 | 1.05 | 0.65 | 0.87 | 0.68 | 0.80 | 1.11 | 0.93 |
| IL20R1 | 0.93 | 1.32 | 0.89 | 1.33 | 1.59 | 0.93 | 0.97 | 0.63 | 0.75 | 0.59 | 1.36 | 1.15 |
| IL20R2 | 1.32 | 1.51 | 1.23 | 0.99 | 1.33 | 0.91 | 0.93 | 0.66 | 0.82 | 1.48 | 1.25 | 1.21 |
| IL22R | 1.20 | 1.49 | 1.09 | 0.86 | 1.04 | 1.16 | 4.19 | 1.20 | 1.19 | 0.87 | 0.98 | 1.03 |
| IL22BP | 1.32 | 1.48 | 0.94 | 1.20 | 1.18 | 1.30 | 1.17 | 0.93 | 1.02 | 1.16 | 1.11 | 0.96 |
| IL28R | 1.21 | 1.16 | 1.34 | 1.29 | 1.30 | 1.32 | 1.18 | 1.45 | 0.91 | 1.09 | 0.77 | 0.86 |
| IFN α R1 | 1.16 | 0.96 | 1.31 | 1.33 | 1.33 | 0.98 | 1.75 | 1.26 | 1.59 | 1.77 | 0.94 | 1.20 |
| IFN α R2 | 1.35 | 1.80 | 1.40 | 1.29 | 1.19 | 1.81 | 1.58 | 1.14 | 1.46 | 1.22 | 1.43 | 1.02 |
| TF | 1.38 | 1.16 | 1.23 | 1.26 | 1.44 | 1.04 | 1.16 | 1.40 | 1.43 | 1.16 | 1.81 | 0.86 |

Figure 3.2C – The global comparison of all 12 members of the class II cytokine receptor family. The structural differences between the N-terminal (D1, above diagonal) and C-terminal (D2, below diagonal) domains are gauged by the root mean square deviations (r.m.s.d.) for backbone atoms of their 34 residues. The diagonal (in grey) shows the lowest r.m.s.d. values for 34 residues from D1 and D2 of each receptor. The differences among r.m.s.d. are highlighted by color: lower values of r.m.s.d. are in blue, i.e. more similar structures, red indicates less similar structures. References to the analyzed structures are as follows: IFN- γ R1 [32]; IL-10R1 [159]; IL-10R2 [155]; IL-20R1 and IL-20R2 [106]; IL-22R [160]; IL22BP [161]; IL28R [162]; IFN- α R1 and IFN- α R2 [163]; TF (human tissue factor) [164]

3.3 Interferons type II and their receptors in fish species

Zahradník, J., Kolářová, L., Pařízková, H., Kolenko, P., Schneider, B. (2018) Interferons type II and their receptors R1 and R2 in fish species: Structure, function & evolution. *Fish Shellfish Immunol* 79, 140-152

Type II interferons evolved early in the evolution of chordates and are therefore present in extant cartilaginous fish, bony fish, as well as in tetrapods [165]. Fish and tetrapods split about 225 - 333 million years ago and they show a specific evolutionary adaptation [166]. Therefore, the teleost fish are an attractive target for studying evolution. Their attractiveness is strengthened by their vast genomic variability [167]. In contrast to the mammalian type II interferon, the fish type II family is broader in majority of species, consisting of two independent members, IFN- γ and fish-specific IFN- γ related (IFN- γ rel) proteins. Moreover, in some fish species the interferon genes are additionally duplicated resulting in more copies. This huge variability of type II interferons in fish species motivated us for a deeper analysis. We did a thorough phylogeny study of IFN- γ and its receptors in fish species. Based on this phylogeny, we studied their-whose co-evolution in fish species and supported our computations by biophysical interaction measurements. To shed a light on the differences of fish type II we determined the crystal structure of IFN- γ from olive flounder *Paralichthys olivaceus* (PDB code 6f1e) and the low-resolution topologies of four other fish interferons by Small Angle X-ray diffraction (SAXS). Our results were published in the official journal of the International Society of Fish and Shellfish Immunology.

3.3.1 Structure of IFN- γ from *Paralichthys olivaceus*

After an extensive screening for multiple fish interferons we established a *Paralichthys olivaceus* IFN- γ production from E. coli Rosetta (DE3) without any tags. The easy purification was enabled by the extreme pI of the protein (10.5). Diffraction quality crystals were obtained only after elimination of 11 amino-acids at the C terminus. The structure was solved at 2.3 Å resolution only after experimental phasing using selenourea labeling [168]. Our data were deposited into the PDB database under the ID 6f1e. It shows the expected homodimer with an IFN- γ fold, but with some unpredicted features (**Figure 3.3A**). One monomer depicted in **Figure 3.3A** by blue color is not composed of six α -helices as in all other known IFN- γ structures, but of seven with the additional helix G close to the C-terminus. The second interesting feature distinguishing the IFN- γ from *Paralichthys olivaceus* from its mammalian counterparts is the mutual orientation of helices D and E, which resulted in the extension of the whole structure.

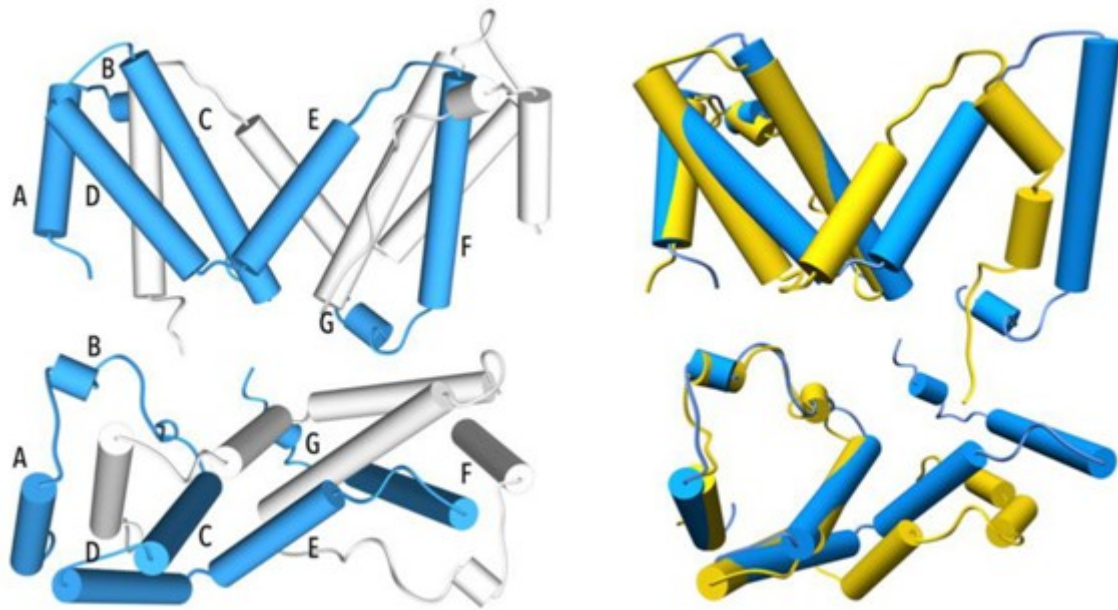


Figure 3.3A – Three-dimensional structure of the IFN- γ from *Paralichthys olivaceus* (PDB 6f1e, in left). Monomers are drawn in blue and white. Helices are displayed in cylinders representation and labeled A – G. The right part shows the superposition of the IFN- γ from *Paralichthys olivaceus* with the human IFN- γ (PDB 1fg9, [32]). The top and bottom images are related by an approximately 90° rotation.

3.3.2 Phylogeny of fish IFN- γ and its receptors

We performed an extensive search for all available IFN- γ complex members in available databases (NCBI Protein, UniProt and Ensembl). Only a small proportion of sequences were correctly annotated. Other hits were carefully considered if they belonged to IFN- γ complex members. The majority of proteins were identified by using gene synteny with human genome. We identified or newly annotated 28 IFN- γ and IFN- γ rel, 60 IFN- γ R1, and 40 IFN- γ R2. The changes of annotations for all IFN- γ , IFN- γ R1, and IFN- γ R2 were recorded, reflected in ZFIN (Zebrafish Information Network; zfin.org), and submitted to the NCBI database. After curating our data, the ZFIN database created a new consistent nomenclature of IFN- γ , IFN- γ rel, IFN- γ R1, IFN- γ R1-like, and IFN- γ R2 proteins identified in fish species.

All successfully gained sequences were subjected to the phylogenetic analysis by the Bayesian inference and maximum likelihood methods. Our results are summarized in **Figure 3.3B**. The phylogeny of IFN- γ protein genes confirmed the existence of two closely related type II members in fish species – IFN- γ and the IFN- γ related protein IFN- γ rel. Surprisingly, we observed that there are likely two independent groups of IFN- γ rel proteins: IFN- γ relC occurring in *Cypriniformes*, *Characiformes* and *Siluriformes*, and IFN- γ relA occurring in

Acanthomorpha. Our data for IFN- γ R1 proteins indicate the presence of two distinct genes (*IFN- γ R1* and *IFN- γ R1-like*) in all fish orders except the evolutionarily oldest one, *Holostei*. This situation was expected due to the presence of two type II interferons. In contrast to IFN- γ R1 proteins the phylogeny of the extracellular domains of fish IFN- γ R2 almost exactly reflects the evolution of fish species and no fission occurs. Therefore, there is no evidence for the two groups of IFN- γ R2 corresponding to two completely different ternary complexes. We hypothesized the receptor sharing of IFN- γ R2 which is common for the accessory chains belonging to class II cytokine receptors [155].

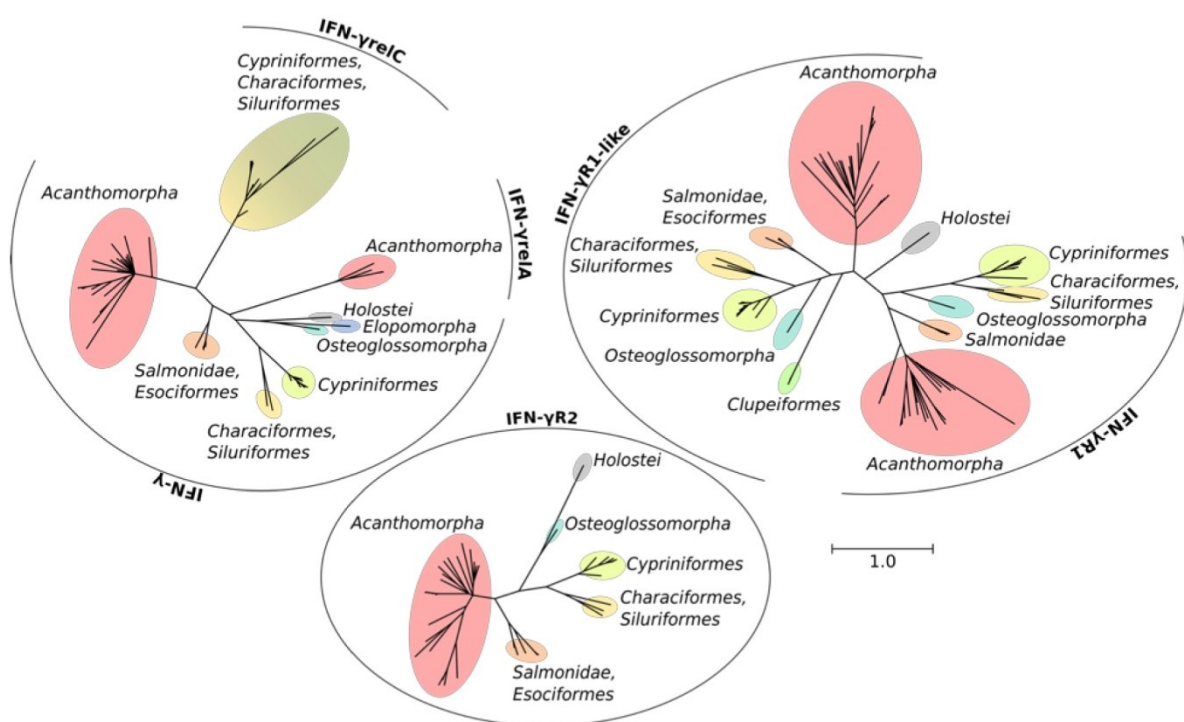


Figure 3.3B – Phylogeny of fish IFN- γ (top left), IFN- γ receptor 1 (top right), and IFN- γ receptor 2 (bottom) inferred by Bayesian inference. Branches with posterior probability lower than 0.5 were collapsed. Color scheme reflects fish classification.

3.3.3 Coevolution of fish IFN- γ with its receptors

The detailed phylogeny inference enabled us to study the molecular co-evolution between two identified receptors R1, IFN- γ and IFN- γ rel proteins. We tested the interactions both programmatically by searching for the coevolution of the receptor-ligand pairs and experimentally by determination of interaction Kd. The computations were performed on the level of phylogeny by using the Parafit software [169]. For the receptor-ligand co-evolution at the amino acids level we used the i-COMS web-server [170]. Unfortunately, our Parafit

computations were not significant due to the low p-values. Despite this it can be concluded that IFN- γ more likely to co-evolve with IFN- γ R1 and not with IFN- γ R1-like. Results of i-COMS on amino acid co-evolution level were also not demonstrable. Analysis revealed core associated coevolving pairs rather than intermolecular contacts, a previously reported, common problem of covariance-based methods [171]. In contrast to the bioinformatics, biophysical measurements showed consistent results of interaction between IFN- γ and IFN- γ R1 with approximately 100 nM Kd for three different fish species. The interaction pair IFN- γ and IFN- γ R1-like also exhibits measurable affinity which is almost three times higher (~300 nM). Our results are thus in good agreement with the previous results in Zebrafish [172] and can be generalized.

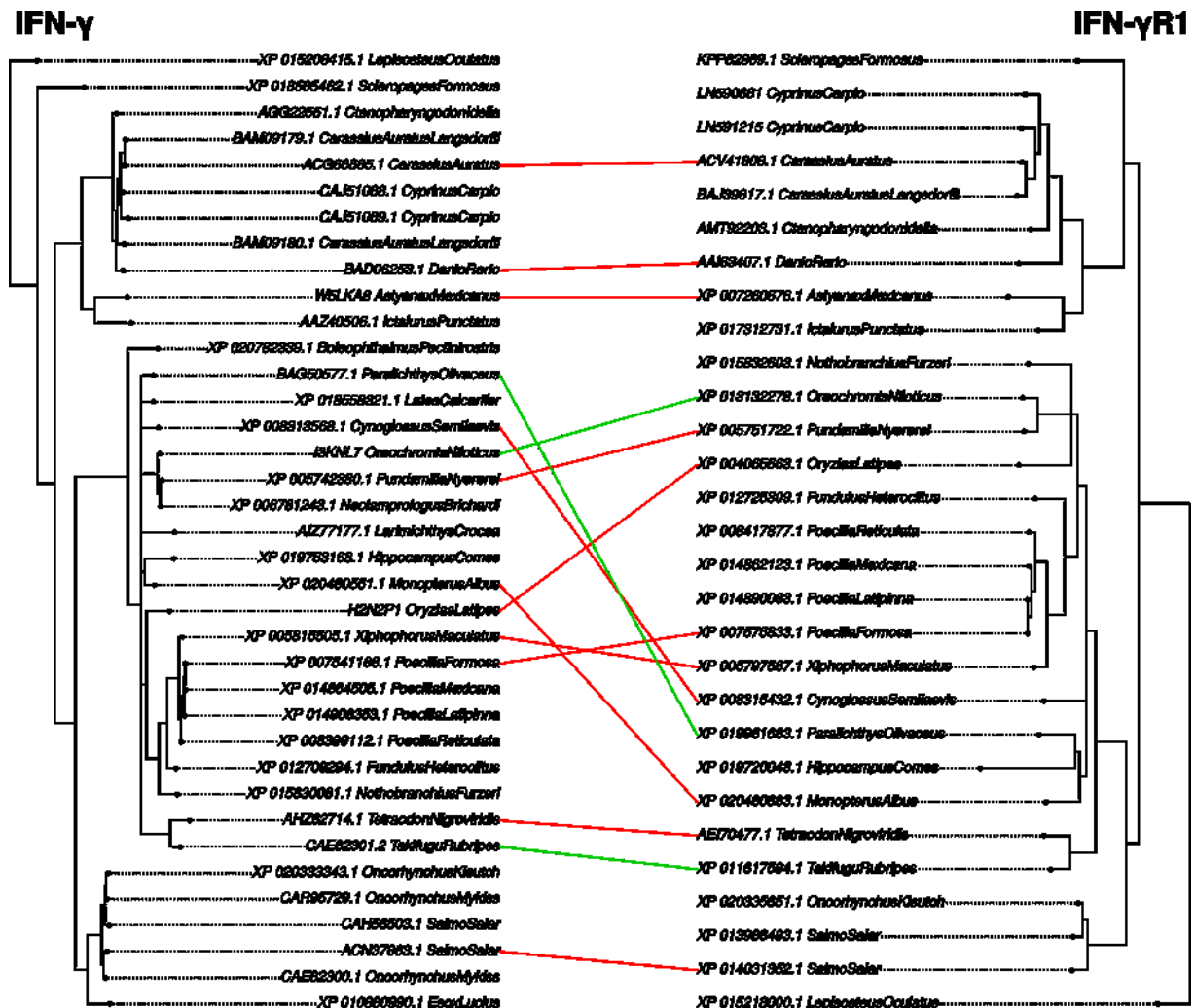


Figure 3.3C – Graphical representation of co-evolution between IFN- γ and IFN- γ R1 in fish species. Phylograms were computed by Bayesian inference and correspond to Fig. 3.3B. Red links between the receptor and the ligand correspond to significant evolutionary links (p-value lower than 0.1). Green links correspond to the interactions we confirmed biophysically.

3.4 The topology of the ternary complex

Manuscript in preparation: Zahradník, J., Mikulecký, P., Biedermannová, L., Černý, J., Klumpler, T., Kolářová, L., Kukačka, Z., Pham, P.N., Schneider, B.: **Topology of complexes between interferon-gamma and extracellular portions of its two receptors R1 and R2.**

All knowledge gained during the study of IFN- γ enabled us to investigate the topology of the ternary complex, which is currently unknown. Most of the current models of the ternary complex suggest that it comprises of two R1 receptor chains [20,173] and two R2 chains [174,175] forming thus a symmetrical complex. However, various experimental data including ours suggest that the situation is more complex. The crystal structure of IFN- γ in complex with R1 shows an unexpected stoichiometry of 1:3 (one IFN- γ dimer interacting with three IFN- γ R1 chains) [32]. Moreover, signaling activity was observed in a modified IFN- γ with only one binding site for IFN- γ R1 but two for IFN- γ R2 [117]. The formation of the assumed symmetrical complex is therefore not a necessary prerequisite for signaling. The hypothesis behind our study is that the variability in ternary complex topology is an important biologically relevant trait with a consequence on signaling.

Our investigation is still ongoing and the manuscript is being prepared. Nevertheless, I would like to briefly introduce the most important parts of our results on ternary complex to complete the story about IFN- γ covered in my thesis. The results will be published in an impacted scientific journal with a biophysical and biochemical scope.

3.4.1 Determination of the binding site of IFN- γ R2

The crucial missing part of our knowledge about the ternary complex is the location of the binding interface for the IFN- γ . Unfortunately, the direct measurement of binding affinity and the alanine scanning or other common technique are restricted due to the affinity between IFN- γ and IFN- γ R2 (below detection limit). A similar observation was described for the IL-10R2 in the ternary complex with IFN- λ [136]. Therefore, we developed a new competitive assay based on the dual luciferase reporter system. The principle of the assay was simple. The native ternary complex assembly on the cell surface competed with the artificial ternary complex added to the cell media. The artificial complex consists of the extracellular portion of IFN- γ R1 and the extracellular portion of different mutants of FN- γ R2. The competition was recorded by a measurement of different luciferase activation under the control of GAS

element. To increase the signal to noise ratio in our assay we did not use alanine scanning but the more dramatic changes of amino acid. We analyzed these mutations: K12Q, K48Q, M55Y, S75Y, S77Y, D83K, E122R, D142R, F147G, D175R, K195Q, F199A, and H203A. The results are shown in **Figure 3.4A**. Our results showed that residues at positions 48, 77, 83, 142, and 195 are at the interface or in its close proximity. This result is in good agreement with our previous bioinformatics study [96].

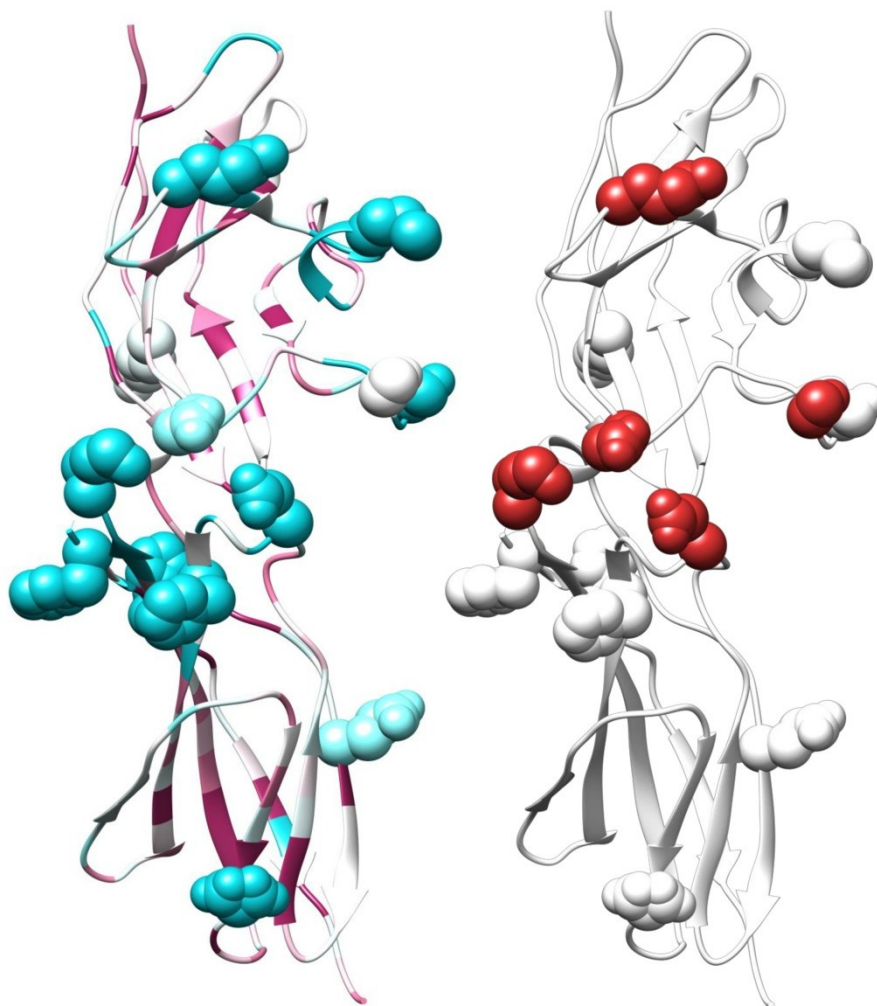


Figure 3.4A – Determination of IFN- γ R2 binding site. The left schema represents a ConSurf server [158] analysis of variable regions in the IFN- γ R2 structure with sphere representation of mutated residues. The most variable regions are colored cyan and conserved regions are drawn in purple. Only high (cyan) to medium (white) residues were considered for the study. The right structure highlights in red the mutations with significant impact on IFN- γ R2 activity in the competition assay.

3.4.2 Low resolution topology

To simplify this section all the data and methodology are only briefly introduced and I focus on the results and their discussion. To elucidate the topology of the complexes of IFN- γ with its receptors, we performed multiple Small Angle X-ray Scattering (SAXS) experiments. Our data showed high concentration dependency and therefore we decided to use the combination of size exclusion chromatography with SAXS (SEC-SAXS technique) [176]. Only this approach gave us relevant data which were analyzed mainly by rigid body modeling. We generated tens of models with different settings. The models were grouped according to their similarity and those biologically not relevant were discarded. The surface representation of the best model group is shown in Figure 3.4B. The position of IFN- γ R2 in the ternary complex can be supported by analogy with IL-20 [106] and IFN- λ 3 [136]. The position of the second receptor can be inferred by structural superposition of R1 chains. The result for this superposition is shown in Figure 3.4B, panel c.

Interestingly, both molecular weight calculations and models showed only one IFN- γ R2 molecule bound in the complex. Similar results were obtained with different concentrations of IFN- γ R2. Our preliminary data suggest the presence of 1:2:1 complex in the solution, which is a different model of IFN- γ complex than is generally assumed. Our results show high asymmetry. We do not exclude the possibility of the existence of 2:2:2 complexes which are generally expected but this stoichiometry is probably not the major one. Therefore, we propose that complex 2:2:1 is fully able to activate the Jak kinases and induce the cell response. The delicate balance between complexes may be used as a regulatory mechanism.

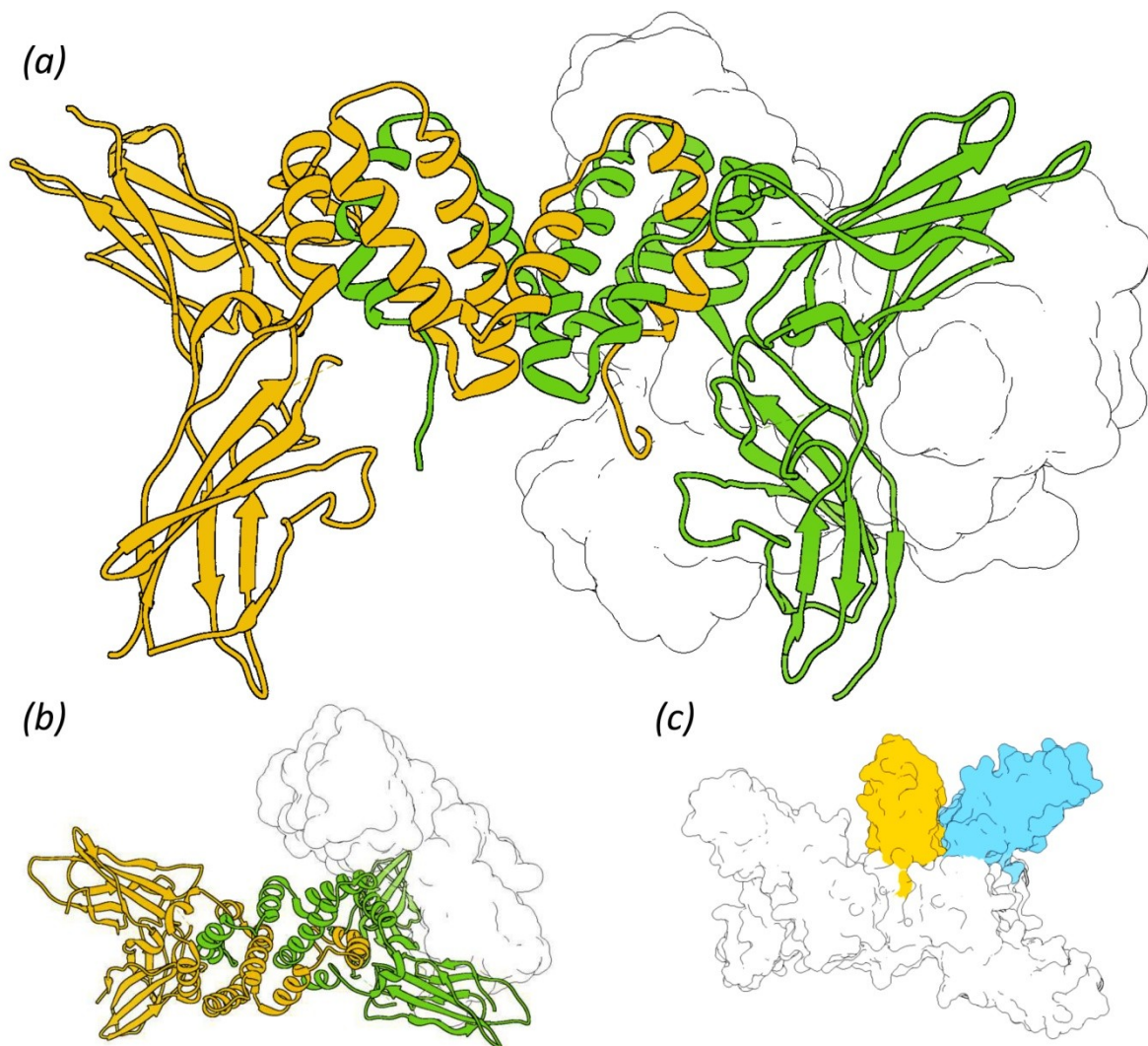


Figure 3.4B – Determination of IFN- γ ternary complex topology by SAXS technique and the analogy with known ternary complexes of FIL10 members. a) The putative position of the IFN- γ R2 chain obtained from the SEC-SAXS analysis. The yellow and green represents individual halves of the symmetrical IFN- γ binary complex observed in pdb 1fg9 [32]. The position is indicated by ambient surface based on superposition of individual SEC-SAXS solutions (rigid body modelling). Side view representation. b) Top view representation of (a). c) Determination of the putative position of IFN- γ R2 by analogy with known ternary complexes. The IFN- γ binary complex is represented in ambient surface representation. The top view is similar to (b). The R1 chains were superimposed and the position of accessory chains of IL-20 [106] and IFN- λ 3 [136] is shown in blue and yellow, respectively. The corresponding R1 chains and ligands are not displayed.

4. Conclusions

This thesis describes a complex study of protein-protein interactions and their modulation in the IFN- γ ternary complex. It summarizes the content of three published manuscripts and one manuscript in preparation. These are the most important results:

- I. The novel methodology which can be used for modulation of protein-protein interactions was successfully described. The method is based on the stabilization of interaction partners therefore lowering their flexibility. Lower flexibility decreases the entropic penalty which acts against binding.
- II. The human IFN- γ R2 was produced, purified, and crystallized. The structure was solved at 1.8 Å and deposited into PDB under the accession 5eh1. The structure was precisely described and compared with other class II cytokine receptor family members.
- III. Fish members of the IFN- γ signaling complex were identified, annotated, and inferred by bioinformatic analysis. The comparison of fish evolution and the phylogeny of signaling complex members showed interesting information about the type II cytokine in fish. There are at least two type II interferon members IFN- γ and IFN- γ rel. We identified also two specific receptors IFN- γ R1 and IFN- γ R1-like but only one IFN- γ R2. Interaction affinities of three pairs of IFN- γ / IFN- γ R1 and IFN- γ / IFN- γ R1-like were biophysically determined and the crystal structure of IFN- γ from olive flounder *Paralichthys olivaceus* was solved at 2.3 Å (PDB code 6f1e). The unique features were identified and described. The structure enabled us to describe molecular co-evolution between IFN- γ and its high affinity receptor.
- IV. The SEC-SAXS technique and mutations scanning was successfully used to analyze the IFN- γ ternary complex topology. By combined bioinformatic, biophysical, and biochemical methods we characterized the putative binding interface between IFN- γ and IFN- γ R2.

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Laboratory Protein-protein Interactions
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EDUCATION

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| 2014 – present | PhD. Degree in Biochemistry; Charles University, Prague |
| 2013 – 2016 | Mgr. Degree (equivalent to MSc.) in Molecular Biology; Faculty of Science, Department of Biology, Charles University Prague Specialization: Molecular biology and genetics of Prokaryotes |
| 2012 – 2014 | Mgr. Degree in Biochemistry; Faculty of Science, Department of Chemistry, Charles University Prague Specialization: Protein biology, Enzymology, Organic chemistry |
| 2009 – 2013 | BSc. in Molecular Biology; Faculty of Science, Department of Biology, Charles University Prague |
| 2008 – 2012 | BSc. in Biochemistry; Faculty of Science, Department of Chemistry, Charles University Prague |

GRANTS AND AWARDS

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| 2014 – 2017 | Microbial metabolisms of the morphine alkaloids Grant Agency of Charles University |
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Participation in research teams

| | |
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| 2015 – 2018 | Interleukins of the IL-10 family: specificity and targeted modulation of interactions with receptors, Applicant: Bohdan Schneider Czech Science Foundation (16-20507S) |
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RESEARCH EXPERIENCE

Institute of Biotechnology AS CR, v.v.i.

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| 2014 – 2018 | Graduate Research Assistant; Supervisor: B. Schneider Interferon gamma and Interleukins of the IL-10 family: specificity and targeted modulation of interaction with receptors; Evolution of IFN γ and IL-10 family interleukins; Structure-function studies on RAYT tyrosine transposases and REP sequences; |
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Institute of Microbiology AS CR, v.v.i.

- 2014 – 2017 Graduate Research Assistant; Supervisor: P. Kyslík
Morphine alkaloid induced changes and toxicity in bacterial cells study; Old Yellow Enzyme family structure-function studies;
- 2009 – 2014 Undergraduate Research Assistant; Supervisor: M. Šulc, Advisor: P. Kyslík
Characterization of biotransformation potential of *Agrobacterium bohemicum* using HPLC (HPLC*MS) and FPLC instruments;

PUBLICATIONS

1. Kyslíková, E., Babiak, P., Štěpánek, V., **Zahradník, J.**, Palyzová, A., Marešová, H., Valešová, R., Hájíček, J. Kyslík, P. (2013) Biotransformation of codeine to 14-OH-codeine derivatives by *Rhizobium radiobacter* R89-1. *J Mol Catal B: Enzymatic* 87: 1-5
2. Černý, J., Biedermannová, L., Mikulecký, P., **Zahradník, J.**, Charnavets, T., Šebo, P., Schneider, B. (2015) Redesigning Protein Cavities as a Strategy for Increasing Affinity in Protein-Protein Interaction: Interferon- γ Receptor 1 as a Model. *Biomed Res Int* 2015: 716945.
3. Mikulecký, P., **Zahradník, J.**, Kolenko, P., Černý, J., Charnavets, T., Kolářová, L., Nečasová, I., Pham, P.N., Schneider, B. (2016) Crystal structure of human interferon- γ receptor 2 reveals the structural basis for receptor specificity. *Acta Crystallogr D Struct Biol* 72(9):1017-25.
(Corresponding structure PDB code: 5eh1)
4. Grulich, M., Brezovský, M., Štěpánek, V., Palyzová, A., Marešová, H., **Zahradník, J.**, Kyslíková, E., Kyslík, P. (2017) In-silico driven engineering of enantioselectivity of a penicillin G acylase towards active pharmaceutical ingredients. *J Mol Catal B: Enzymatic* 133 (1):S53-S59
5. Palyzova, A., **Zahradník, J.**, Marešová, H., Sokolovská, L., Kyslíková, E., Grulich, M., Štěpánek, V., Řezanka, T., Kyslík, P. (2017) Potential of the strain *Raoultella* sp. KDF8 for removal of analgesics. *Folia Microbiol* 63(3), 273-282
6. **Zahradník, J.**, Nunvar, J., Pařízková, H., Kolářová, L., Palyzová, A., Marešová, H., Grulich, M., Kyslík, P. (2018) *Agrobacterium bohemicum* sp.nov. isolated from poppy seed wastes in central Bohemia. *Syst Appl Microbiol* 41(3), 184-190
7. **Zahradník, J.**, Kolenko, P., Palyzová, A., Černý, J., Kolářová, L., Kyslíková, E., Marešová, H., Grulich, M., Nunvář, J., Šulc, M., Kyslík, P., Schneider, B. (2018) Bacterial Old Yellow Enzymes exhibit autogenic blocking of FMN binding site as reveals a crystal structure of XdpB one member. *PLoS ONE* 13(4): e0195299. **(Corresponding structure PDB code: 5epd)**
8. **Zahradník, J.**, Kolářová, L., Pařízková, H., Kolenko, P., Schneider, B. (2018) Interferons type II and their receptors R1 and R2 in fish species: Structure, function & evolution. *Fish Shellfish Immunol* 79, 140-152 **(Corresponding structure PDB code: 6f1e)**

Reports

1. **Zahradník, J.**, Kyslíková, E. Kyslík, P. (2016) Draft Genome Sequence of *Agrobacterium* sp. Strain R89-1, a Morphine Alkaloid-Biotransforming Bacterium. *Genome Announc* 4(2): e00196-16

2. **Zahradník, J.**, Plačková, M., Palyzová, A., Marešová, H., Kyslíková, E., Kyslík, P. (2017) Draft genome sequence of *Pantoea agglomerans* JM1, strain exhibiting valacyclovir-like hydrolase activity isolated from a soil polluted by industrial production of beta-lactam antibiotics. *Genome Announc* 5(38): e00921-17

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7. Supplements

A) Publication:

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B) Publication:

Mikulecký, P., Zahradník, J., Kolenko, P., Černý, J., Charnavets, T., Kolářová, L., Nečasová, I., Pham, P.N., Schneider, B. (2016): Crystal structure of human interferon- γ receptor 2 reveals the structural basis for receptor specificity. *Acta Crystallogr D Struct Biol* 72(9):1017-25.

C) Publication:

Zahradník, J., Kolářová, L., Pařízková, H., Kolenko, P., Schneider, B. (2018) Interferons type II and their receptors R1 and R2 in fish species: Structure, function & evolution. *Fish Shellfish Immunol* 79, 140-152

Research Article

Redesigning Protein Cavities as a Strategy for Increasing Affinity in Protein-Protein Interaction: Interferon- γ Receptor 1 as a Model

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Combining computational and experimental tools, we present a new strategy for designing high affinity variants of a binding protein. The affinity is increased by mutating residues not at the interface, but at positions lining internal cavities of one of the interacting molecules. Filling the cavities lowers flexibility of the binding protein, possibly reducing entropic penalty of binding. The approach was tested using the interferon- γ receptor 1 (IFN γ R1) complex with IFN γ as a model. Mutations were selected from 52 amino acid positions lining the IFN γ R1 internal cavities by using a protocol based on FoldX prediction of free energy changes. The final four mutations filling the IFN γ R1 cavities and potentially improving the affinity to IFN γ were expressed, purified, and refolded, and their affinity towards IFN γ was measured by SPR. While individual cavity mutations yielded receptor constructs exhibiting only slight increase of affinity compared to WT, combinations of these mutations with previously characterized variant N96W led to a significant sevenfold increase. The affinity increase in the high affinity receptor variant N96W+V35L is linked to the restriction of its molecular fluctuations in the unbound state. The results demonstrate that mutating cavity residues is a viable strategy for designing protein variants with increased affinity.

1. Introduction

In studying specificity and affinity of protein-protein interactions, the main focus is traditionally on the structural properties of the interface, for example, complementarity of the residue composition, hydrogen-bonding networks, and the role of hydration [1]. However, there is also a significant contribution of the conformational dynamics to the binding affinity. Analysis of molecular dynamics simulations of 17 protein-protein complexes and their unbound components with quasi-harmonic analysis [2] concluded that the protein flexibility has an important influence on the thermodynamics of binding. Moreover, changes in the protein conformational dynamics may lead to substantial changes in affinity to binding partners without an apparent structural change of the complex. For example, reorganization of the hydrogen bonding networks and solvent bridges of the interacting

molecules upon mutation, which was accompanied only by subtle structural changes, leads to radically different binding free energy [3, 4]. A recent work [5] shows that the apparent change in the amino acid dynamics determined by NMR spectroscopy is linearly related to the change in the overall binding entropy and also that changes in side-chain dynamics determined from NMR data can be used as a quantitative estimate of changes in conformational entropy [6, 7]. Also, an analysis of crystallographic B-factors has revealed a significant decrease of flexibility of residues exposed to solvent compared to flexibility of residues interacting with another biomolecule and further compared to their flexibility in the protein core [8]. This “freezing” of atoms upon complexation and in the protein core is only slightly larger for the side chain atoms than for the main chain atoms. Entropic cost specific for side-chain freezing has been computationally evaluated as a small, but important contribution to the thermodynamics

of binding [9, 10]. These results indicate that changes in amino acid conformational entropy upon binding contribute significantly to the free energy of protein-protein association.

However important the interaction interface is for the affinity, the interaction is influenced by the whole composition of the cognate molecules, so that modulation of affinity can be achieved by changing other residues than residues at the interface. One such possible alternative approach would be filling cavities in one of the binding partners, thus influencing the stability and dynamics of the interacting proteins [11–14]. Thermodynamic consequences of introducing cavity-filling mutations have been discussed for residues at the interaction interface [15–17] showing that filling the interfacial cavity increases affinity due to both gain in binding enthalpy and a loss in binding entropy, the latter being attributed to a loss of conformational degrees of freedom. It has been shown that interactions between the internal “core” residues is responsible for the folding and thermal stability of a protein [18]. Here, we decided to test whether the protein-protein affinity could be increased by mutations not on the interface, but in cavities inside one of the cognate protein molecules.

This study follows our previous article [21] in which we designed mutations increasing the affinity of human interferon- γ receptor 1 (IFN γ R1) towards its natural cognate molecule interferon- γ (IFN γ), an important protein of innate immunity [22, 23]. Here, we retain this model system and the main contours of the protocol but replace the search for interface mutations by searching for mutations in the receptor cavities in order to further increase its interaction affinity to IFN γ and our computer analysis revealed four such cavity mutants. Combining one of these cavity mutations with the best variant designed in our previous study led to a sevenfold increase in affinity compared to the wild-type receptor. We show that the affinity increase in this mutant is related to the restricted flexibility of amino acids in the unbound state of IFN γ R1.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1. Outline of the Protocol. Our computational predictions are based on the analysis of crystal structures of complexes between IFN γ and the extracellular part of IFN γ R1, namely, the structures of PDB codes Ifg9 [19] and Ifyh [20] that contain four crystallographically independent IFN γ /IFN γ R1 complexes. Throughout the paper, IFN γ R1 residues are numbered as in UniProt entry P15260. We used the empirical force field implemented in the software FoldX [24] to search for mutations within the positions lining the internal cavities of IFN γ R1 molecule that would increase its stability and/or its affinity to IFN γ . All designed mutants of IFN γ R1 were subsequently expressed and purified and their affinity to a “single-chain” form of IFN γ (IFN γ SC, [25]) was measured. Individual steps of the computational protocol as well as experimental procedures are described below.

2.2. In Silico Design of Variants. The program 3V [26] was used to identify internal cavities in all four available structures of IFN γ R1 molecules complexed with IFN γ . In

total, 52 cavity-lining residues, which were identified as encapsulating the cavities in at least one of the four structures, were extracted using the VMD program [27]. Each of 52 amino acid residues identified as lining the internal receptor cavities was mutated in all four crystal IFN γ /IFN γ R1 complexes to 20 amino acid residues using the “positionscan” and “analyzecomplex” FoldX keywords. This represented $52 \times 4 \times 20$ mutations (including self-mutations leading to $\Delta\Delta G = 0$). Three types of changes of free energy ($\Delta\Delta G$) were calculated using the program FoldX:

- (1) “ $\Delta\Delta G$ of folding of IFN γ R1 in complex” gauged the influence of mutations on the stability of the whole IFN γ /IFN γ R1 complex;
- (2) “ $\Delta\Delta G$ of folding of free IFN γ R1” estimated the effect of mutations on the stability of the isolated receptor;
- (3) “ $\Delta\Delta G$ of binding” of complex between IFN γ R1 and IFN γ estimated the change of the interaction between the receptor molecule and the rest of the complex.

2.3. Modeling. IFN γ R1 models are based on PDB structures Ifg9 [19] and Ifyh [20]. Missing residues in both structures were added using Modeller suite of programs [28]. The lowest energy loop models were used for further calculations.

2.4. Molecular Dynamics (MD) Simulations. MD simulations were run using GROMACS suite of programs to test the stability and dynamic properties, including analysis of values of root means square fluctuations (RMSF) [29] and the effect of variable geometry on prediction of changes of interaction free energy ($\Delta\Delta G$ s), of the IFN γ /IFN γ R1 complexes (PDB codes Ifyh and Ifg9). More detailed protocol of MD and FoldX calculations follows.

2.5. Protocol of Molecular Dynamics (MD) Calculations. For the MD simulations the following setup was used: protonation state was determined by `pdb2gm` program using parameters provided by the OpenMM [30] Zephyr [31] program. Implicit solvation (GBSA, $\epsilon = 78.3$, with collision interval of 10.99 fs) was used in combination with `parm96` force field [32]. OpenMM Zephyr implementation of GPU accelerated version of GROMACS [29] suite of programs was used to simulate the systems. The initial crystal structures were optimized and the simulation was propagated at 300 K with the time step of 2 fs. RMSF (root-mean square fluctuations) of atoms in the analyzed proteins were calculated from the 100 ns trajectory to estimate flexibility of residues; they were calculated by `g_rmsf` program in 5 ns windows.

2.6. Construction, Expression, and Purification of Recombinant IFN γ R1 Variants. We followed the protocols from our previous study [21] for all proteins produced in this study. All selected IFN γ R1 variants were prepared, expressed, and successfully purified to homogeneity by the following protocol.

Codon-optimized synthetic gene (GenScript) encoding extracellular domain of human IFN γ R1 (residues 18–245) was cloned into the pET-28b(+) vector (Novagen) using

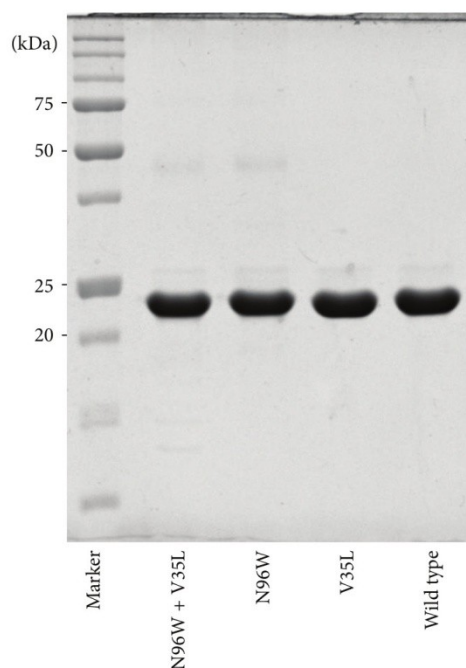


FIGURE 1: Nonreducing 12.5% SDS-PAGE gel of selected monomeric refolded recombinant His-tagged IFN γ RI variants. Proteins were extracted from inclusion bodies by 8 M urea, further purified on Ni-NTA agarose, and dialyzed, and monomeric fraction was separated on gel filtration column (see above). IFN γ RI with C-terminal His-Tag migrates at a molecular mass of 23 kDa when analyzed on nonreducing SDS-PAGE gel.

NcoI and *XhoI* restriction enzymes in frame with N-terminal start codon and C-terminal HisTag. The QuikChange II Site-Directed Mutagenesis Kit (Agilent Technologies) was used for mutating the IFN γ RI gene according to manufacturer's manual using primers listed below. Primers were designed by web-based PrimerX program (<http://www.bioinformatics.org/primerx/>).

The recombinant IFN γ RI variants were expressed in *Escherichia coli* BL21 (λ DE3) in LB medium containing 60 μ g/mL of kanamycin at 37°C for 4 hours after induction by 1 mM IPTG. Harvested cells by centrifugation (8,000 g, 10 min, 4°C) were disrupted by ultrasound in 50 mM Tris buffer pH 8 and centrifuged at 40,000 g, 30 min, 4°C, and inclusion bodies were dissolved in 50 mM Tris buffer pH 8 containing 8 M urea and 300 mM NaCl to extract protein that was further affinity-purified on Ni-NTA agarose (Qiagen) in the same buffer. Protein was eluted from resin by 250 mM Imidazole pH 8 in previous buffer and refolded by dialysis against 100 mM Tris-HCl pH 8, 150 mM NaCl, 2.5 mM EDTA, 0.5 mM Cystamine, and 2.5 mM Cysteamine overnight at 4°C. Final purification of monomeric receptor variants was performed at 4°C on a HiLoad 16/600 Superdex 200 pg (GE Healthcare) equilibrated by PBS buffer pH 7.4 (Figure 1). Monodispersity of the purified receptor protein was verified by dynamic light scattering (DLS) using Malvern Zetasizer Nano ZS90 instrument (data not shown).

2.7 Primers. Mutagenesis primers are designed for the introduction of single residue substitution into IFN γ RI WT. Mutated nucleotides are underlined. We have the following:

V35L

Forward: 5'-GTCCCGACCCCGACCAACTTGACGATT-GAAAGTTACAAC-3'

Reverse: 5'-GTTGTAACTTTCAATCGTCAAGTTGGT-CGGGGTCGGGAC-3'

A114E

Forward: 5'-GAAAGAATCAGCGTATGAAAAATCGGA-AGAATTCGCC-3'

Reverse: 5'-GGCGAATTCTTCCGATTTTTTCCATACGCGTATTCTTTC-3'

D124N

Forward: 5'-CGCCGTGTGCCGTAATGGCAAATCG-3'

Reverse: 5'-CGATTTTGCCATTACGGCACACGGCG-3'

H222Y

Forward: 5'-CTGAAGGCGTTCTGTTATGTCTGGGGTGTCTC-3'

Reverse: 5'-GACACCCAGACATACGAGAACGCCTTC-AG-3'

2.8. Construction, Expression, and Purification of IFN γ SC. Recombinant interferon gamma in so-called single chain form (IFN γ SC) described by [25] was cloned into pET-26b(+) vector (Novagen) using *NdeI* and *XhoI* restriction enzymes in frame with N-terminal start codon not to have no peptide leader nor tag.

The recombinant IFN γ SC was expressed in *E. coli* BL21 (λ DE3) in LB medium containing 60 μ g/mL of kanamycin at 30°C for 4 hours after induction by 1 mM IPTG. Harvested cells by centrifugation (8,000 g, 10 min, 4°C) were disrupted by ultrasound in 20 mM Na-Phosphate buffer pH 7.3 and centrifuged at 40,000 g, 30 min, 4°C, and soluble fraction was further purified on SP Sepharose HP (GE Healthcare) using linear gradient of NaCl and further purified to homogeneity by gel filtration in same procedure as IFN γ RI receptor (see above).

2.9. Biophysical Characterization of the Studied Proteins. Melting temperatures of the receptor variants were measured using fluorescence-based thermal shift assay and for selected mutants by CD melting experiments. Interactions between IFN γ RI variants and IFN γ SC were measured by the technique of surface plasmon resonance (SPR) as discussed in our previous study [21]. Experimental procedures are detailed below.

TABLE 1: Cavities in the four molecules of the IFN γ R1 receptor in crystal structures Ifg9 [19] and Ifyh [20]. The receptor molecules are labeled by chain ID (chains C and D from Ifg9 and chains B and E from Ifyh). Figure 2 shows cavities 1–8 as they project into the chain C of Ifg9.

| | Surface [\AA^2]* | Number of residues lining the cavity [†] | Residues selected for mutation | Cavity observed in IFN γ R1 chain of | |
|---|-----------------------------|---|--------------------------------|---|------|
| | | | | Ifg9 | Ifyh |
| 1 | 134 | 7 | V35, A114 | C D | — |
| 2 | 133 | 5 | — | — | B E |
| 3 | 470 | 14 | D124 | C D | — |
| 4 | 262 | 9 | H222 | C D | B E |
| 5 | 120 | 6 | — | C D | E |
| 6 | 165 | 7 | — | C D | E |
| 7 | 177 | 7 | — | D | B E |
| 8 | 138 | 5 | — | C | B |

*Surface calculated with a probe radius of 0.25 \AA for cavities combined from all relevant receptor chains.

[†]Some residues are shared by neighboring cavities.

2.10. CD Measurements. CD spectra were recorded using “Chirascan-plus” (Applied Photophysics) spectrometer in steps of 1 nm over the wavelength range of 190–260 nm. Samples at a concentration of 0.2 mg/mL were placed into 0.05 cm path-length quartz cell to the thermostated holder and individual spectra were recorded at the temperature of 25°C. The CD signal was expressed as the difference between the molar absorption of the right- and left-handed circularly polarized light and the resulting spectra were buffer subtracted. To analyze the ratio of the secondary structures we used the CDNN program provided with Chirascan CD spectrometer [33]. For CD melting measurements, samples at a concentration of 1.5 mg/mL were placed into 10 mm path-length quartz cell to the thermostated holder and CD signal at 280 nm was recorded at 1°C increment at rate of 1.0°C/min over the temperature range of 25 to 65°C with an averaging time of 10 seconds. CD melting curves were normalized to relative values between 1.0 and 0.0.

2.11. Thermostability of the IFN γ R1 Variants by Thermal-Based Shift Assay. Melting temperature (T_m) curves of the WT and selected variants were obtained from fluorescence-based thermal shift assay (TSA) using fluoroprobe. Experiment was performed in “CFX96 Touch Real-Time PCR Detection System” (Bio-Rad) using FRET Scan Mode. The concentration of fluorescent SYPRO Orange dye (Sigma Aldrich) was 8-fold dilution from 5000-fold stock and protein concentration was 2 μL in final volume of 25 μL . As a reference we used only buffer (PBS buffer pH 7.4) without protein. Thermal denaturation of proteins was performed in capped “Low Tube Strips, CLR” (Bio-Rad) and possible air bubbles in samples were removed by centrifugation immediately before the assay. The samples were heated from 20°C to 75°C with stepwise increment of 0.5°C per minute and a 30 s hold step for every point, followed by the fluorescence reading. Data subtraction by reference sample was normalized and used for first derivative calculation to estimate the melting temperature.

2.12. SPR Measurements. His-tagged receptor molecules were diluted to concentration of 10 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ in PBST running buffer

(PBS pH 7.4, 0.005% Tween 20) and immobilized on a HTG sensor chip activated with Ni^{2+} cations at a flow rate 30 $\mu\text{L}/\text{min}$ for 60 s to gain similar surface protein density. Purified IFN γ SC was diluted in running buffer to concentrations ranging from 0.1 to 9 nM and passed over the sensor chip for 90 seconds at a flow rate 100 $\mu\text{L}/\text{min}$ (association phase). Dissociation was measured in the running buffer for 10 min at the same flow rate. Correction for nonspecific binding of IFN γ SC to the chip surface was done by subtraction of the response measured on uncoated interspots and reference channel coated with His-tagged Fe-regulated protein D (FrpD) from *Neisseria meningitidis* [34]. Data were processed in the ProteOn Manager software (version 3.1.0.6) and the doubly referenced data were fitted to the 1:1 “Langmuir with drift” binding model.

3. Results and Discussion

3.1. Internal Cavities Identified in IFN γ R1. The cavity analysis revealed generally different number and size of cavities for each IFN γ R1 crystal structure; their characteristics are listed in Table 1; their location in a representative receptor molecule (PDB entry Ifg9, chain C [19]) is highlighted in Figures 2(a) and 2(b). All amino acid residues lining cavities in all four IFN γ R1 proteins complexed with IFN γ were combined, resulting in 52 residues used in subsequent *in silico* analysis.

3.2. In Silico Design of Variants. All 52 amino acids lining the cavities of the receptor molecule were subject to the mutation analysis by FoldX. The resulting $\Delta\Delta G$ values indicated potential for mutation leading to increasing the receptor affinity to IFN γ . The mutations were ordered by their $\Delta\Delta G$ values and the first 50 best mutations from each crystal structure (200 mutations in total) were further analyzed. Of these 200 mutations, twelve positions were predicted in all four or at least three crystal structures. The twelve promising positions are highlighted in orange and yellow in Figure 2(c). Following the previous study [21], where we observed significant differences between $\Delta\Delta G$ predicted directly from the crystal structures and from structures after molecular dynamics (MD) relaxation, we performed short

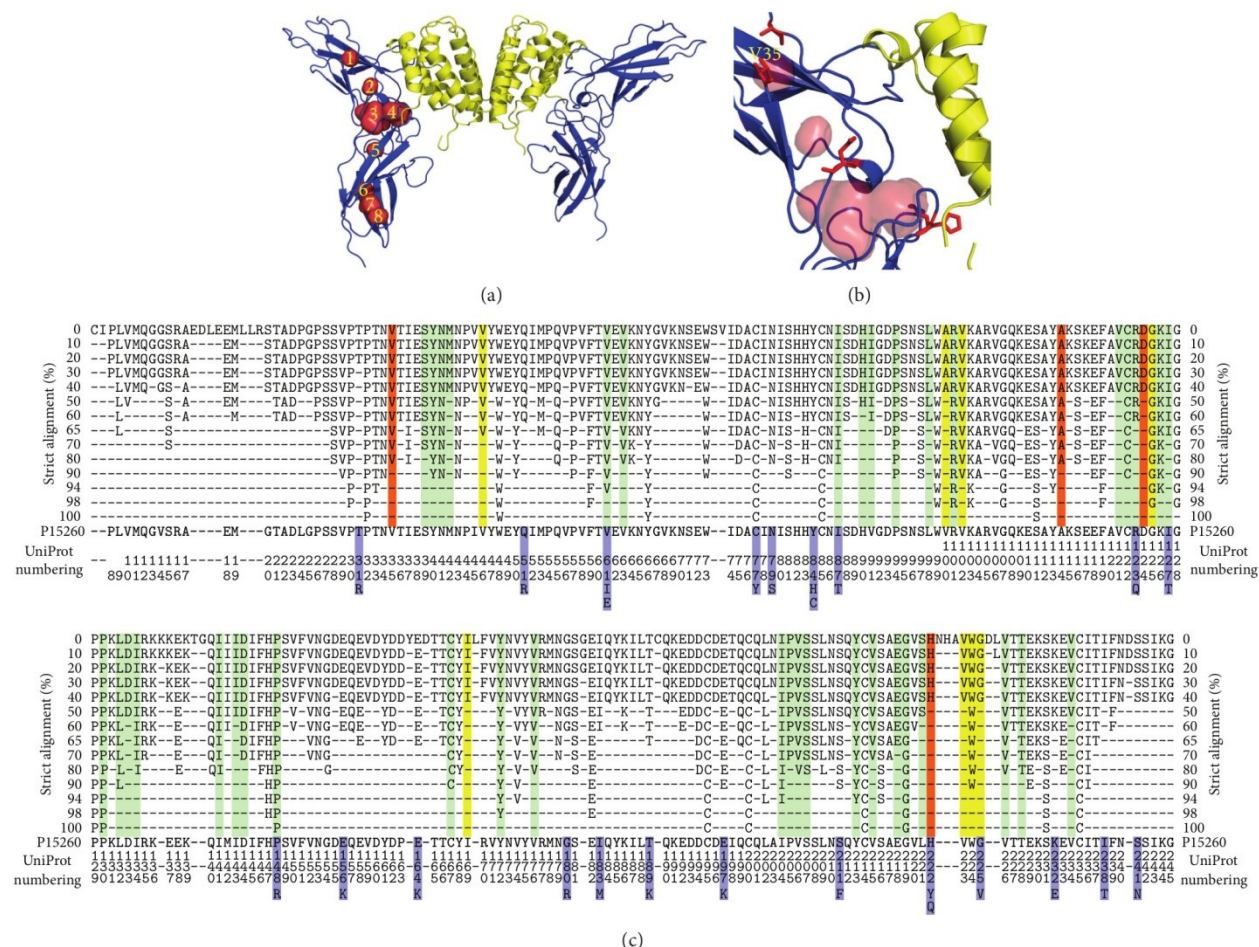


FIGURE 2: (a) The complex between IFN γ and the extracellular part of its receptor 1 (IFN γ RI) from crystal structure of PDB code 1fg9 [19]. The two IFN γ RI molecules are drawn as blue cartoon and IFN γ homodimer as yellow cartoon. The eight identified cavities in the receptor molecule are shown as numbered red surfaces. (b) A close-up of the mutated cavities. The receptor cavities are drawn as red surface and residues selected for mutations as red sticks; valine 35 is labeled. (c) Residue conservancy calculated by strict alignment of 32 sequences of the extracellular part of IFN γ RI from 19 species. The residues lining the cavities and not suitable for mutation are highlighted in green, those selected by FoldX as mutable in yellow, and the residues selected for mutations after MD simulations are in red (they are also listed in Table 1). Blue highlights show IFN γ RI mutants occurring naturally in humans. Percentages of the conservation are shown on the left and right sides; analyzed sequence (residues 6–245 of the UniProt entry P15260) is shown at the bottom of the alignment.

(10 ns) MD simulations of the four crystal structures of complexes between wild type IFN γ RI and IFN γ , and repeated the FoldX mutation analysis on 500 snapshots extracted from these MD trajectories. After averaging of the predicted $\Delta\Delta G$ values for the twelve selected positions, we made the final selection of the four candidate mutations. The averaged $\Delta\Delta G$ values resulting from these calculations for structure 1fg9, receptor chain C, are summarized in Figure 3. The final selection of the four variants is listed in Table 2 together with the changes of their binding free energies averaged over 500 MD snapshots from each of the four IFN γ /IFN γ RI complexes in crystal structures 1fg9 and 1fyh.

Finally, the four consensus candidate mutations, which resulted as the best replacements of the WT sequence, were expressed, and characterized by SPR, CD, and thermal-based

shift assay. The relative affinities of these four cavity-filling single mutants are shown in Figure 4(a) together with relative affinities of the double mutants combining the four cavity-filling mutations with mutation N96W.

As Table 2 and in detail Figure 3 show, the $\Delta\Delta G$ calculations revealed only modest potential gains in interaction affinity, probably because of small cavity volumes as well as the fact that they are often lined by evolutionary highly conserved residues. As opposed to the interface mutations, where the predicted $\Delta\Delta G$ s of IFN γ RI stability and binding to IFN γ served as a sufficient criterion for the selection of affinity increasing mutations, there was no clear-cut rule for selecting internal cavity mutations that would result in improved interaction energy. We thus decided to test experimental consequences of combination of three types of $\Delta\Delta G$ values

TABLE 2: Predicted changes of free energy changes ($\Delta\Delta G$) of the four selected IFN γ R1 variants with cavity-lining mutations relative to the wild type receptor. All energy values are in kcal/mol.

| Variant | $\Delta\Delta G$ of folding of IFN γ R1 in complex* | $\Delta\Delta G$ of folding of free IFN γ R1† | $\Delta\Delta G$ of binding of IFN γ R1/IFN γ complex‡ | Sequence conservation§ |
|---------|--|--|--|------------------------|
| V35L | -0.88 | -0.85 | -0.02 | 80% |
| A114E | 0.28 | 0.46 | -0.20 | 60% |
| D124N | 0.65 | 0.88 | -0.21 | 40% |
| H222Y | -0.72 | -0.69 | 0.15 | 40% |

* $\Delta\Delta G$ of folding of IFN γ R1 bound to IFN γ measures the influence of mutations on the stability of the whole complex.

† $\Delta\Delta G$ of folding of IFN γ R1 alone represents changes of the stability of the isolated receptor.

‡ $\Delta\Delta G$ of binding of the whole complex between IFN γ R1 and IFN γ estimates the change of the affinity between the receptor molecule and the rest of the complex.

§Sequence conservation of amino acid residues at positions 35, 114, 124, and 222. It was based on the global alignment of 32 sequences of the extracellular part of IFN γ R1 (Figure 2(c)).

| [1] | GLY | ALA | VAL | LEU | ILE | SER | THR | CYS | MET | ASN | GLN | LYS | ARG | HIS | PRO | ASP | GLU | PHE | TYR | TRP |
|---------|------|------|------|------|------|------|-----|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|
| VAL 35 | 2.8 | 2.0 | 0.0 | -0.9 | -0.4 | 2.9 | 1.6 | 1.3 | 0.1 | 2.0 | 2.5 | 3.5 | 5.1 | 4.7 | 1.2 | 3.4 | 3.5 | 4.3 | 7.3 | 10.6 |
| VAL 46 | 3.8 | 2.2 | 0.0 | -0.1 | -0.3 | 3.1 | 1.8 | 1.8 | 0.6 | 2.4 | 3.0 | 4.1 | 6.4 | 6.4 | 2.0 | 3.6 | 3.7 | 4.0 | 6.6 | 9.1 |
| VAL 100 | 5.6 | 3.7 | 0.0 | 0.3 | -0.3 | 4.2 | 2.4 | 2.7 | 0.8 | 3.6 | 3.9 | 5.4 | 7.6 | 6.2 | 5.0 | 5.5 | 5.1 | 4.0 | 6.8 | 9.8 |
| VAL 102 | 5.2 | 3.3 | 0.0 | 1.2 | -0.4 | 4.0 | 2.2 | 2.5 | 1.8 | 3.6 | 4.1 | 7.1 | 11.9 | 9.4 | 4.8 | 4.9 | 4.9 | 7.5 | 11.2 | 15.6 |
| ALA 114 | 1.0 | 0.0 | -0.2 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.3 | 0.2 | 0.1 | 0.3 | 0.6 | 0.2 | 0.2 | 0.7 | 3.3 | 2.3 | 1.1 | 0.3 | 0.7 | 1.0 | 1.9 |
| ASP 124 | 3.0 | 2.2 | 2.5 | 1.4 | 2.5 | 2.3 | 2.7 | 2.0 | 1.7 | 0.7 | 1.4 | 1.8 | 2.1 | 2.3 | 5.7 | 0.0 | 1.5 | 1.4 | 1.6 | 2.5 |
| GLY 125 | 0.0 | 2.0 | 6.0 | 6.4 | 7.7 | 2.9 | 5.6 | 3.0 | 4.7 | 5.7 | 6.8 | 8.1 | 10.1 | 31.3 | 6.2 | 7.1 | 7.1 | 12.0 | 14.1 | 21.8 |
| ILE 169 | 5.1 | 3.7 | 1.1 | 0.1 | 0.0 | 4.7 | 3.2 | 2.9 | 0.3 | 3.0 | 3.2 | 4.1 | 5.5 | 3.9 | 1.8 | 4.2 | 3.6 | 1.9 | 4.7 | 7.0 |
| HIS 222 | 0.7 | 0.1 | 0.8 | -0.3 | 1.1 | -0.3 | 0.6 | 0.4 | -0.3 | -0.6 | 0.5 | -0.1 | 0.3 | 0.0 | 2.9 | -0.1 | 0.5 | -1.1 | -0.7 | 1.1 |
| VAL 223 | 2.5 | 2.0 | 0.0 | 0.7 | 0.3 | 3.7 | 1.4 | 2.3 | 0.9 | 3.0 | 3.2 | 3.8 | 6.3 | 14.2 | 7.3 | 4.6 | 4.9 | 7.6 | 11.5 | 15.6 |
| TRP 224 | 5.5 | 4.7 | 3.5 | 2.8 | 3.1 | 5.5 | 4.9 | 4.5 | 2.4 | 4.8 | 4.2 | 4.2 | 4.0 | 3.3 | 4.6 | 5.9 | 5.2 | 1.1 | 1.5 | 0.0 |
| GLY 225 | 0.0 | 1.5 | 3.3 | 2.0 | 3.4 | 2.0 | 3.3 | 1.8 | 1.6 | 2.1 | 2.5 | 2.6 | 2.9 | 4.7 | 4.3 | 2.9 | 3.0 | 2.4 | 2.6 | 2.9 |
| [2] | GLY | ALA | VAL | LEU | ILE | SER | THR | CYS | MET | ASN | GLN | LYS | ARG | HIS | PRO | ASP | GLU | PHE | TYR | TRP |
| VAL 35 | 2.8 | 2.0 | 0.0 | -0.9 | -0.4 | 2.9 | 1.6 | 1.3 | 0.1 | 2.0 | 2.5 | 3.6 | 5.3 | 4.5 | 1.2 | 3.4 | 3.5 | 4.3 | 7.3 | 10.7 |
| VAL 46 | 5.0 | 3.0 | 0.0 | -0.2 | -0.5 | 4.1 | 2.4 | 2.4 | 0.5 | 3.2 | 3.8 | 5.1 | 8.1 | 7.6 | 2.9 | 4.8 | 4.8 | 4.4 | 7.9 | 11.5 |
| VAL 100 | 5.7 | 3.8 | 0.0 | 0.3 | -0.3 | 4.2 | 2.4 | 2.7 | 0.8 | 3.7 | 4.0 | 5.5 | 7.7 | 5.9 | 5.0 | 5.5 | 5.1 | 4.1 | 6.8 | 9.7 |
| VAL 102 | 5.2 | 3.3 | 0.0 | 1.2 | -0.4 | 4.0 | 2.2 | 2.5 | 1.8 | 3.6 | 4.1 | 7.1 | 11.9 | 9.5 | 4.8 | 4.9 | 4.9 | 7.5 | 11.2 | 15.7 |
| ALA 114 | 1.0 | 0.0 | -0.2 | 0.2 | 0.2 | 0.3 | 0.2 | 0.1 | 0.4 | 0.7 | 0.3 | 0.3 | 0.7 | 3.4 | 2.3 | 1.2 | 0.5 | 0.8 | 1.1 | 2.0 |
| ASP 124 | 2.4 | 1.6 | 2.0 | 0.7 | 1.7 | 1.8 | 2.1 | 1.6 | 0.9 | 0.9 | 1.3 | 1.0 | 1.4 | 1.5 | 4.8 | 0.0 | 1.4 | 1.0 | 1.2 | 1.8 |
| GLY 125 | 0.0 | 2.0 | 6.0 | 6.4 | 7.8 | 2.9 | 5.6 | 3.0 | 4.8 | 5.8 | 6.8 | 8.2 | 10.2 | 32.2 | 6.2 | 7.1 | 7.2 | 12.1 | 14.2 | 21.9 |
| ILE 169 | 5.1 | 3.7 | 1.1 | 0.1 | 0.0 | 4.7 | 3.2 | 2.9 | 0.3 | 3.0 | 3.2 | 4.2 | 5.6 | 3.8 | 1.8 | 4.2 | 3.7 | 1.9 | 4.7 | 7.0 |
| HIS 222 | -0.1 | -0.6 | 0.5 | -0.4 | 0.6 | -1.0 | 0.2 | -0.1 | -0.4 | -0.7 | 0.2 | -0.5 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 2.3 | -0.3 | -0.2 | -0.9 | -0.7 | 0.6 |
| VAL 223 | 0.9 | 0.6 | 0.0 | 0.2 | -0.2 | 1.7 | 0.4 | 1.2 | 0.1 | 1.2 | 1.1 | 0.5 | 0.9 | 1.0 | 5.6 | 1.6 | 1.2 | 0.1 | 0.3 | 0.6 |
| TRP 224 | 2.7 | 2.1 | 1.3 | 1.2 | 1.1 | 2.5 | 2.1 | 1.9 | 0.9 | 2.2 | 1.9 | 1.6 | 2.0 | 2.0 | 2.2 | 2.4 | 2.0 | 0.3 | 0.6 | 0.0 |
| GLY 225 | 0.0 | 1.2 | 1.9 | 0.8 | 1.7 | 1.2 | 1.7 | 1.1 | 0.6 | 0.9 | 0.9 | 0.8 | 1.0 | 1.0 | 2.8 | 1.0 | 1.0 | 0.4 | 0.5 | 0.3 |
| [3] | GLY | ALA | VAL | LEU | ILE | SER | THR | CYS | MET | ASN | GLN | LYS | ARG | HIS | PRO | ASP | GLU | PHE | TYR | TRP |
| VAL 35 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | -0.1 | -0.2 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | -0.1 |
| VAL 46 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| VAL 100 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| VAL 102 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| ALA 114 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | -0.1 | -0.1 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | -0.1 | -0.1 | -0.1 | -0.1 | 0.0 | -0.1 | 0.0 | -0.1 | -0.2 | -0.1 | -0.1 | -0.1 |
| ASP 124 | 0.2 | 0.1 | 0.0 | -0.1 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.0 | -0.1 | -0.1 | -0.2 | -0.2 | -0.1 | -0.1 | 0.1 | 0.2 | 0.0 | -0.1 | -0.1 | -0.1 | 0.1 |
| GLY 125 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | -0.1 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | -0.1 | -0.1 | -0.1 | -0.1 | 0.0 | 0.0 | -0.1 | -0.1 | -0.1 |
| ILE 169 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| HIS 222 | 1.3 | 1.2 | 0.9 | 0.7 | 0.8 | 1.1 | 0.9 | 0.7 | 0.4 | 0.3 | 0.5 | 0.4 | 0.2 | 0.0 | 1.2 | 0.5 | 0.6 | 0.1 | 0.2 | 0.8 |
| VAL 223 | 1.7 | 1.4 | 0.0 | 0.1 | 0.4 | 2.0 | 0.8 | 1.2 | 0.3 | 1.5 | 1.6 | 2.0 | 3.2 | 6.1 | 2.2 | 2.7 | 2.9 | 5.7 | 8.2 | 10.4 |
| TRP 224 | 3.3 | 3.1 | 2.6 | 1.8 | 2.2 | 3.3 | 3.0 | 1.4 | 2.9 | 2.3 | 2.4 | 2.0 | 1.3 | 2.8 | 3.6 | 3.1 | 0.9 | 0.8 | 0.0 | 0.0 |
| GLY 225 | 0.0 | 0.3 | 1.1 | 0.6 | 1.2 | 0.6 | 1.2 | 0.4 | 0.3 | 0.8 | 0.9 | 0.9 | 0.9 | 2.9 | 1.3 | 1.4 | 1.3 | 1.1 | 1.1 | 1.4 |

FIGURE 3: Color-coded values of free energy changes ($\Delta\Delta G$) of mutating the twelve cavity-lining residues of IFN γ R1. $\Delta\Delta G$ values were calculated using the program FoldX for 500 MD snapshots and averaged. Red colored matrix fields indicate stabilization, blue ones destabilization. Shown are $\Delta\Delta G$ values calculated for PDB Ifg9 [19]; receptor chain C. Analogical matrices are calculated for Ifg9 receptor chain D, and for receptor chains B and E from the structure Ifyh [20]. (1) " $\Delta\Delta G$ of folding of IFN γ R1 in complex" gauged the influence of mutations on the stability of the whole IFN γ /IFN γ R1 complex. (2) " $\Delta\Delta G$ of folding of free IFN γ R1" estimated the effect of mutations on the stability of the isolated receptor. (3) " $\Delta\Delta G$ of binding" of complex between IFN γ R1 and IFN γ made an estimate of change of the interaction between the receptor molecule and the rest of the complex.

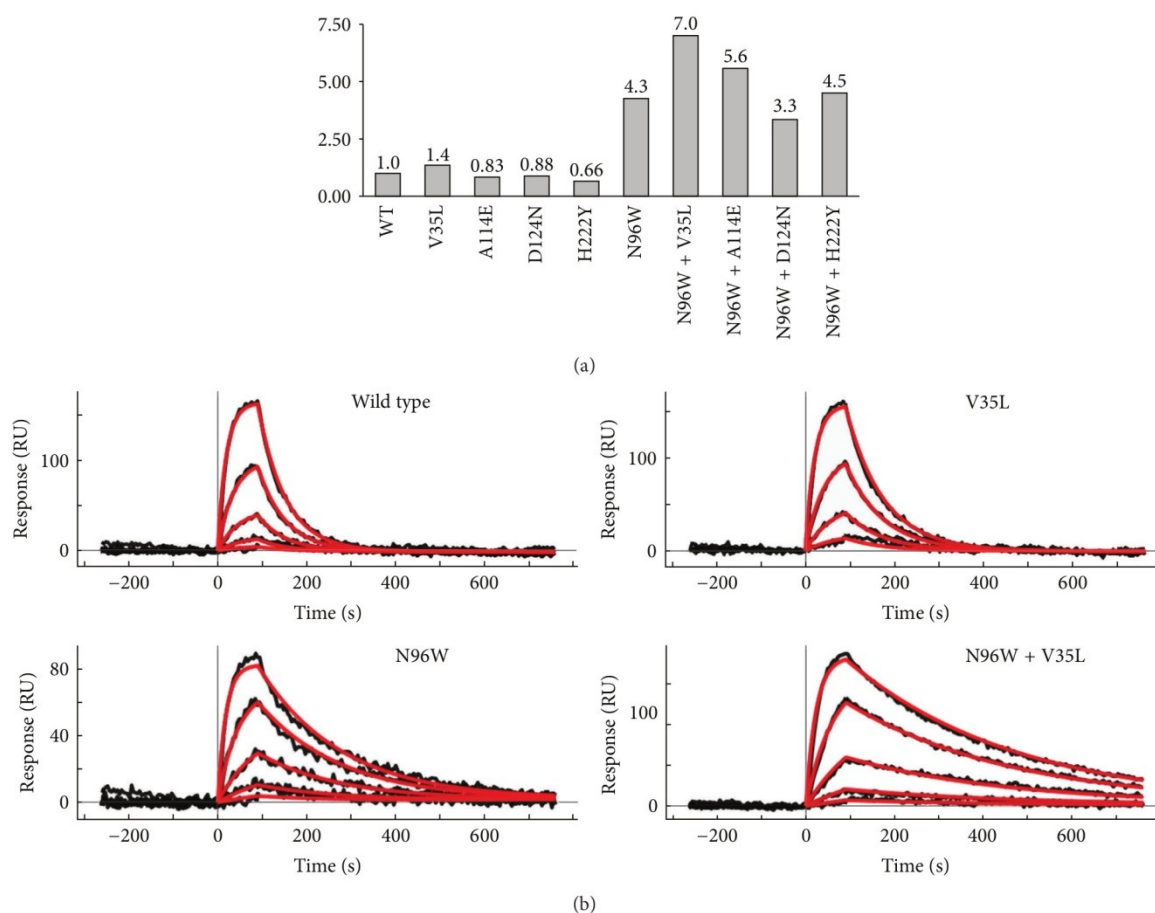


FIGURE 4: Affinities of the IFN γ R1 wild type (WT) and mutants to IFN γ SC obtained from SPR measurements. (a) Graph represents relative affinities of IFN γ R1 variants compared to WT. All selected “cavity” single amino acid mutation variants bind to the IFN γ SC with similar affinity as WT, but the V35L variant has slightly higher affinity itself and further increases the affinity of the “interface” mutant N96W if combined together. (b) SPR sensorgrams showing the interaction between IFN γ SC and selected IFN γ R1 variants. The V35L variant behaves similarly as WT displaying fast association and dissociation phases. Two variants (N96W and N96W + V35L) with higher affinities compared to WT bind IFN γ SC with slower dissociation phase, thus increasing the affinity. Measured SPR signal is in black and calculated fitted curves are in red; concentrations of IFN γ SC used for SPR measurements were as follows: 0.1, 0.3, 1.0, 3.0, and 9.0 nM.

calculated from the MD snapshots. To identify potentially favorable mutations, we combined $\Delta\Delta G$ values of folding ($\Delta\Delta G$ types (1) and (2) in the *in silico* protocol described in Materials and Methods) and of binding (type (3)). The first two mutations, V35L and H222Y, were predicted to increase $\Delta\Delta G$ of folding to a similar extent for both the complexed and free IFN γ R1 ($\Delta\Delta G$ (1) and (2)), while calculated values of their $\Delta\Delta G$ of binding were virtually zero. The other two selected mutations, A114E and D124N, were predicted to slightly improve $\Delta\Delta G$ of binding while both types of their $\Delta\Delta G$ of folding were destabilizing. In the latter case, $\Delta\Delta G$ of folding of free IFN γ R1 (type 2) was more unfavorable than $\Delta\Delta G$ of folding of complexed IFN γ R1 (type 1). This means that the complex is predicted to be relatively more stable compared to the free IFN γ R1.

3.3. Experimental Determination of the Affinities between IFN γ R1 Variants and IFN γ SC. Computer-designed IFN γ R1

variants were expressed and purified and their affinities to IFN γ SC were determined by SPR measurements; relative affinities are plotted in Figure 4(a); SPR sensorgrams are depicted in Figure 4(b). The calculated K_d values showed that the four selected “cavity” single amino acid mutation variants bind to the IFN γ SC with similar affinity as WT; a modest increase was observed for the V35L variant. In line with our previous work, we decided to test to what extent the effect of two distant point mutations is additive. To this end, we combined the four cavity mutants designed here with the variant with the highest affinity designed previously, N96W. The results were quite encouraging: while affinity of one double mutant (N96W + H222Y) is neutral and one (N96W + D124) affinity actually decreased, two double mutants, N96W with A114E and V35L, had affinity increased compared to WT. The affinity increase of one of the double mutants, N96W + V35L, is significant, seven times higher than affinity of WT.

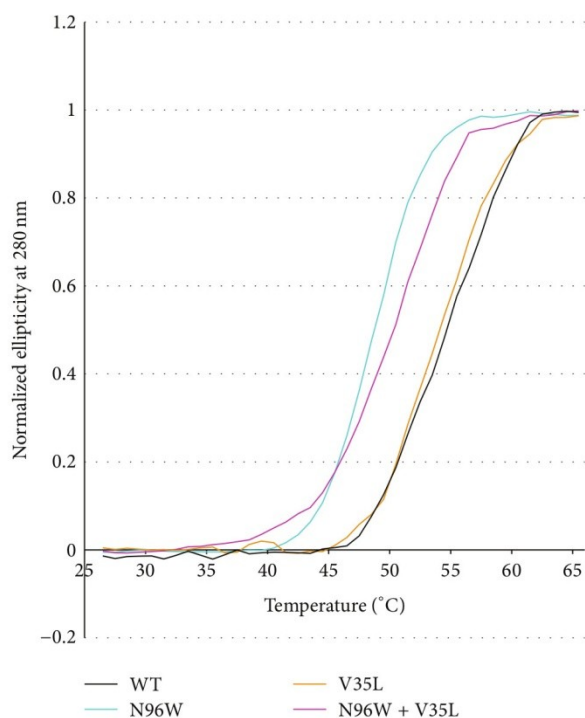


FIGURE 5: Normalized melting curves of IFN γ R1 variants measured by temperature-dependent near ultraviolet circular dichroism (CD) spectra. Each data point is from the intensity measured at 280 nm. IFN γ R1 WT, V35L, N96W, and N96W + V35L variants were measured in PBS buffer between 25 and 65°C at steps 1°C/minute. The melting temperature (T_m) of IFN γ R1 variants was determined as 54°C for WT, 53°C for V35L, 50°C for N96W + V35L, and 48°C for N96W, respectively.

The thermal stability (Figure 5) and secondary structure (Figure 6) of four IFN γ R1 variants, V35L, N96W, N96W + V35L, and WT, were studied by CD and their melting temperatures were confirmed by thermal-based shift assay (Figure 7); the CD-measured melting temperatures are 53, 48, 50, and 54°C, respectively. Both variants with the highest affinity, N96W and N96W + V35L, have melting temperatures lower than WT, so that mutation from asparagine to tryptophan at the position 96 apparently causes a decrease of IFN γ R1 thermal stability. However, the CD spectra of all four proteins are highly similar (Figure 6); their analysis provided virtually identical composition of the secondary structure elements dominated by the beta-sheet fractions indicating that no global structural rearrangements were caused by the mutations and the fold of these four variants is most likely the same. Moreover, the spectra are in agreement with the spectrum measured previously [35] for WT of IFN γ R1.

3.4. Analysis of Internal Dynamics of the IFN γ R1 Variants. To test how a cavity-filling mutation changes the flexibility of the receptor molecule in unbound and complexed states we analyzed root-mean square fluctuations (RMSF) of the selected variants. Comparison of RMSF sorted by their

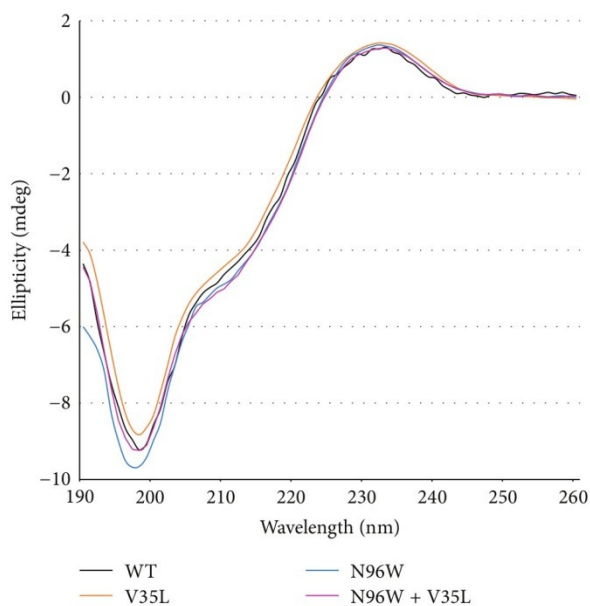


FIGURE 6: Circular dichroism (CD) spectra of IFN γ R1 variants (WT, N96W, V35L, and N96W + V35L) measured in water at 25°C. CD melting curves for the same variants are shown in Figure 5.

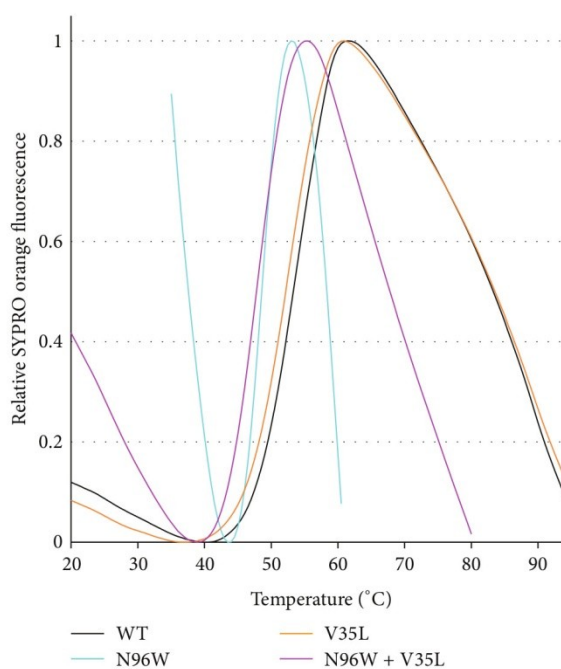


FIGURE 7: Melting temperatures of selected IFN γ R1 variants determined by thermal-based shift assay. Plotted are normalized data of reference-subtracted fluorescence intensities of IFN γ R1 WT, V35L, N96W, and N96W + V35L. The melting temperatures (T_m) of IFN γ R1 variants were determined from the first derivatives of the curves plotted in the figure: 55°C for WT, 53°C for V35L, 49°C for N96W, and 48°C for N96W + V35L. The T_m values determined by temperature-dependent CD spectra and thermal-based shift assay are within 1°C the same.

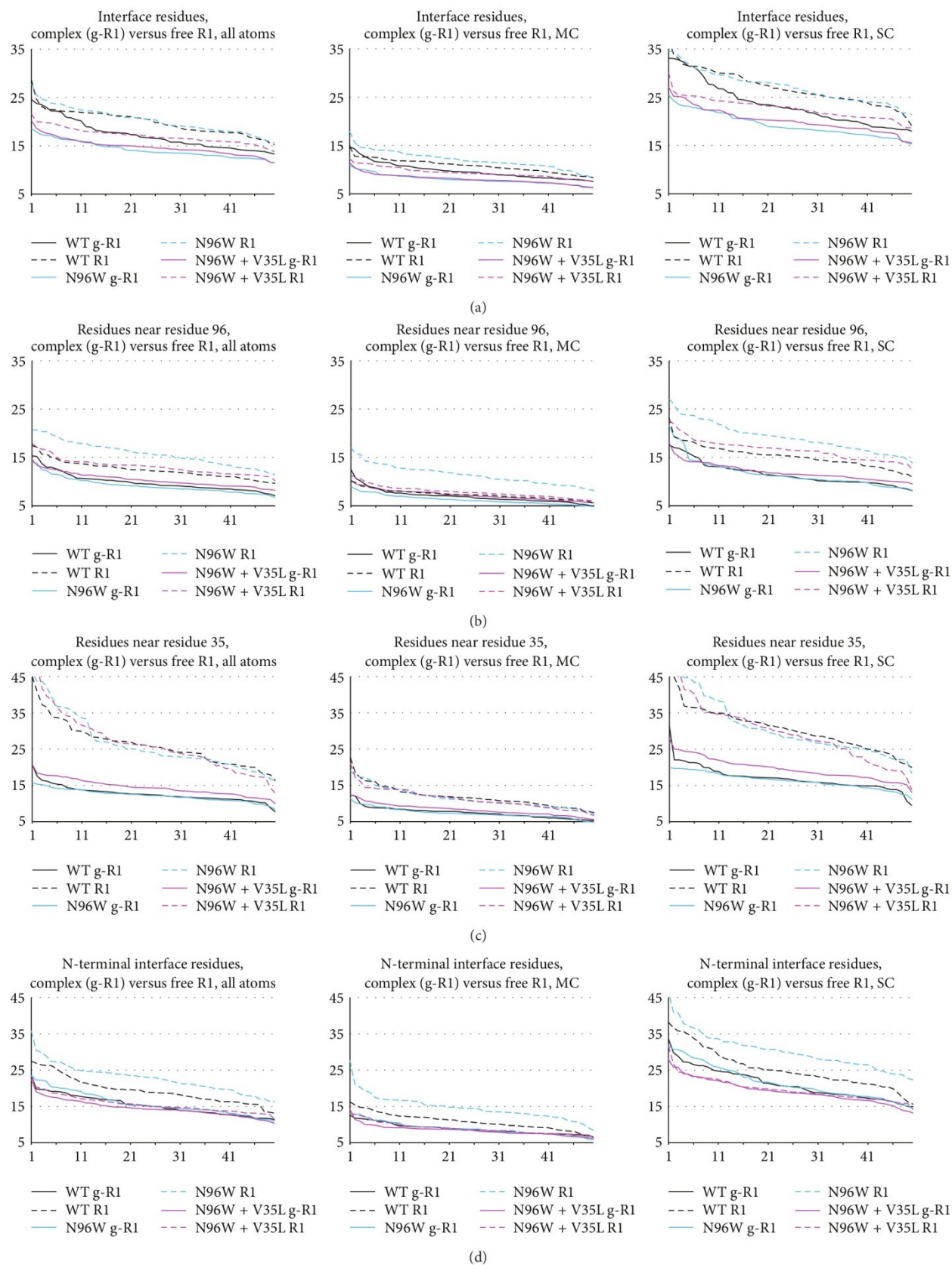


FIGURE 8: Continued.

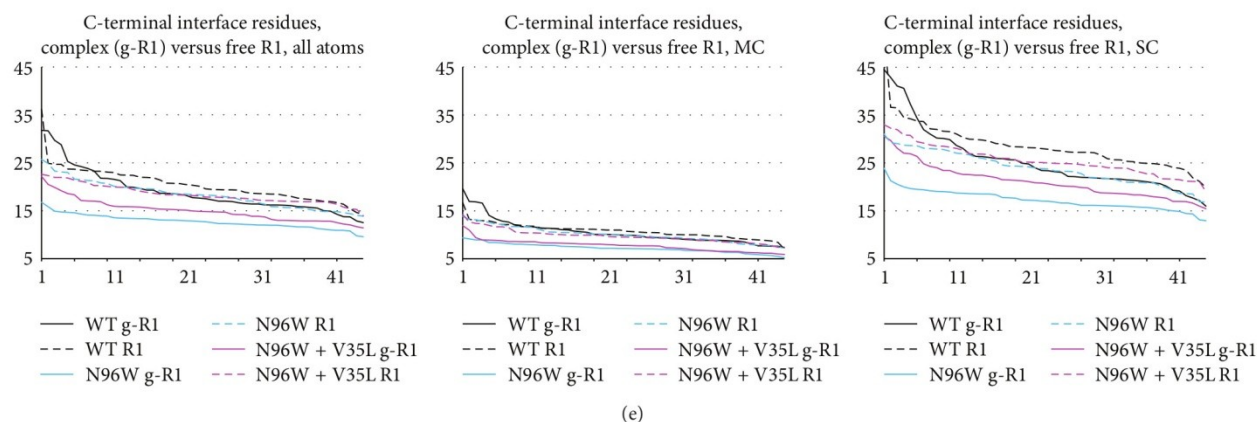


FIGURE 8: Ranked RMSF values collected at the last 50 ns of the 100 ns MD simulations of WT, N96W, and N96W + V35L variants of IFN γ R1. Solid lines labeled g-R1 denote RMSF values of the IFN γ /IFN γ R1 complex; dashed lines labeled R1 denote values of IFN γ R1 alone. The RMSF values are on the y-axis; the rank of the values (1–50) is on the x-axis. Shown are RMSF values of all atoms, main chain atoms (MC), and side chain atoms (SC) for the following residues: (a) all 40 interface residues (i.e., residue numbers 64, 65, 66, 67, 68, 69, 70, 71, 72, 73, 93, 95, 96, 97, 99, 115, 116, 118, 123, 164, 165, 166, 168, 170, 171, 186, 189, 190, 191, 192, 193, 197, 220, 221, 222, 223, 224, 225, 226, and 227); (b) residues within 6 Å of residue 96 (i.e., residue numbers 65, 66, 67, 91, 92, 93, 94, 95, 96, 97, 98, 119, 120, 121, and 224); (c) residues within 6 Å of residue 35 (i.e., residue numbers 32, 33, 34, 35, 36, 37, 46, 47, 48, 49, 100, 101, 102, 114, 115, 116, and 117); (d) the interface residues from the N-terminal domain (i.e., residues 64 to 123); (e) the interface residues from the C-terminal domain (i.e., residues 164 to 227).

values, “ranked RMSF” for WT, N96W, and N96W + V35L, are plotted in Figure 8 (solid lines for IFN γ /IFN γ R1 complexes, dashed lines for IFN γ R1 alone). These plots revealed significant differences between dynamics of the variants as is detailed below.

- (1) The interface residues of N96W and WT are more flexible in the free receptor than in the complex, while the flexibility of the interface residues of N96W + V35L is similar for the free and complexed receptor (Figures 8(a) and 8(d)). This indicates entropically more favorable binding of the N96W + V35L variant compared to the other two variants.
- (2) Interestingly, the origin of this behavior is different in the N-terminal and C-terminal domains of the IFN γ R1 molecule: in the N-terminal domain (Figure 8(d)), the flexibility of the interface residues of all variants is similar in the bound state, while being different in unbound state; they are most flexible in N96W and the least in N96W + V35L. In the C-terminal domain (Figure 8(e)), the flexibility of the three variants is similar in their free states, but it differs in the bound state between N96W, which has the lowest flexibility, and WT with the highest flexibility.
- (3) The V35L mutation stiffens the receptor nonlocally and makes especially the C-terminal interface residues more flexible in the bound state compared to the N96W mutant (Figure 8(e)).
- (4) To sum up, the V35L mutation brought flexibility of the free and complexed receptor closer together, indicating reduced entropy penalty of binding and resulting in the higher affinity of the N96W + V35L double mutant compared to N96W mutant.

Filling the cavity by hydrophobic groups as in the V35L mutation is stabilizing but not as much as would be implied by $\Delta\Delta G$ of the removal of the corresponding hydrophobic group to water. A compensatory effect lowering a potential increase of the protein and/or complex stability has been observed previously [13] and a comparable decrease of stabilization was also predicted here by FoldX. Filling of a cavity may stabilize the interaction by several mechanisms, for example, by reducing the entropic penalty of complexation by stiffening interacting molecules in the free state, or indirectly by destabilization of the intermediate molten globule state rather than by stabilization of the folded protein [36]. These compensatory effects further illustrate complexity of protein-protein interactions (and/or folding) and the known limits of computational approaches to increasing protein-protein affinity [37].

An important issue potentially affecting reliability of FoldX predictions is the flexibility of the receptor molecule. The first round of FoldX $\Delta\Delta G$ calculations based on the static crystal structures suggested one additional mutation, G225Y, as potentially increasing receptor affinity to IFN γ . Although further calculations using structures of snapshots from the MD simulations did not confirm this prediction, we expressed and characterized this mutation. The experimental data were in agreement with the MD-based prediction showing much lower binding affinity compared to the WT (the ratio of the respective K_d values was 0.4), and also the N96W + G225Y double mutant had a fairly low binding affinity (compared to WT, the ratio of the respective K_d values was 3.1, which is lower than for the N96W mutant). This observation can be explained by the structural properties of the receptor molecule. The loop region of IFN γ R1 containing the G225 residue is flexible and any residue at the position 225 is thus only a fraction of time in the geometry, in which it may

increase the binding affinity. An important role of flexibility at the C-terminal part of the interacting IFN γ and IFN γ R1 is well illustrated by a study of IFN γ modified at its C-terminal side [38].

3.5. Sequence Conservation of Mutable Residues. We checked sequence conservation for the 12 positions selected by the FoldX calculations for potential cavity-filling mutations. Global alignment of 32 sequences of the extracellular part of IFN γ R1 from various organisms by Kalign as implemented in program Ugene [39] (Figure 2(c)) shows conservation between 40 and 98% for these positions; the position V35 is well conserved (80%). The independence of sequence conservation and its potential for stabilizing mutation filling-up protein cavity (“mutability”) contrasts with previously observed tight correlation between conservation and mutability for receptor residues interacting with IFN γ [21]: we tested several mutations of the interface residues S97 and E118, which were conserved at the 90% level (Figure 2(c)), namely, S97X (X = L, N, W) and E118X (X = M, F, Y, W), and they did not bind IFN γ SC at all (unpublished SPR data) despite the fact that binding of these mutants to IFN γ was predicted to be stronger than that of WT.

3.6. Relationship Between FoldX $\Delta\Delta G$ Values and Naturally Occurring IFN γ R1 Variants. Interesting, albeit indirect, validation of the present FoldX predictions of $\Delta\Delta G$ of mutations can be found among naturally occurring IFN γ R1 single-point mutations collected in the database of single nucleotide polymorphism (dbSNP) [40]. The database contains 25 nucleotide mutations at 22 unique positions of the extracellular part of the IFN γ receptor, which is studied here; these 22 positions are marked blue in Figure 2(c). Most of the $\Delta\Delta G$ predictions for these natural mutants show neutral effect on the stability of free IFN γ R1 and on its complex with IFN γ . This is in agreement with the fact that only two of the natural mutants exhibit deleterious effects or are represented by a pathological phenotype.

4. Conclusions

We present a new computational strategy for designing higher affinity variants of a binding protein and show that it is possible to increase the affinity of a protein-protein interaction by mutations not at the interface, but in the interior cavities of a binding partner. The mutations were selected at positions lining internal cavities of one binding partner, and an *in silico* protocol identified mutations that would fill the protein cavities and increase the stability of the complex. We showed that the selection of such cavity mutations in interferon- γ receptor 1 (IFN γ R1) could be performed based on a combination of simple empirical force-field calculations and MD simulations. The mechanism by which the cavity mutations cause affinity increase is shown to be restriction of molecular fluctuations, which can be related to reduced entropy penalty upon binding [6, 7]. IFN γ R1 WT and all computationally designed receptor mutants were expressed, purified, and refolded, and the affinity towards the cognate protein, IFN γ SC, was measured by SPR. While single

mutants showed roughly the same affinity as WT, double mutants combining cavity mutations with the best interface mutation obtained previously [21] were successful in further increasing the binding affinity.

The results demonstrate that mutating cavity residues is a viable strategy for designing protein variants with increased binding affinity. The comparison of computational data and experiments helped to further improve our understanding of forces governing protein-protein interactions. The newly obtained high-affinity binders of IFN γ could be developed into a new diagnostic tool. The significance of the present work can be seen in the fact that small $\Delta\Delta G$ gains of cavity mutants led to significant increase of affinity when combined with more conventional mutations influencing the interface.

Conflict of Interests

The authors declare that there is no conflict of interests regarding the publication of this paper.

Acknowledgments

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Crystal structure of human interferon- γ receptor 2 reveals the structural basis for receptor specificity

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Interferon- γ receptor 2 is a cell-surface receptor that is required for interferon- γ signalling and therefore plays a critical immunoregulatory role in innate and adaptive immunity against viral and also bacterial and protozoal infections. A crystal structure of the extracellular part of human interferon- γ receptor 2 (IFN γ R2) was solved by molecular replacement at 1.8 Å resolution. Similar to other class 2 receptors, IFN γ R2 has two fibronectin type III domains. The characteristic structural features of IFN γ R2 are concentrated in its N-terminal domain: an extensive π -cation motif of stacked residues KWRWRH, a NAG–W–NAG sandwich (where NAG stands for *N*-acetyl-D-glucosamine) and finally a helix formed by residues 78–85, which is unique among class 2 receptors. Mass spectrometry and mutational analyses showed the importance of N-linked glycosylation to the stability of the protein and confirmed the presence of two disulfide bonds. Structure-based bioinformatic analysis revealed independent evolutionary behaviour of both receptor domains and, together with multiple sequence alignment, identified putative binding sites for interferon- γ and receptor 1, the ligands of IFN γ R2.

1. Introduction

Interferon- γ receptor 2 is a cell-surface receptor that represents a crucial molecule in the interferon- γ (IFN γ) signalization pathway, influencing innate and adaptive immunity against pathogens and tumours (Schoenborn & Wilson, 2007; Lin & Young, 2013). The signalling cascade is initiated by the binding of IFN γ to its high-affinity cell surface receptor 1, forming a binary complex with a structure that has already been determined [PDB entries 1fg9 (Thiel *et al.*, 2000) and 1fyh (Landar *et al.*, 2000)]. However, to activate this binary complex and activate the JAK/STAT signalization pathway (Jung *et al.*, 1987; Cook *et al.*, 1994; Hemmi *et al.*, 1994), IFN γ receptor 2 must participate in a ternary complex created by a homodimer of IFN γ , two molecules of receptor 1 and molecule(s) of receptor 2. To date, detailed structural and biophysical characterization of IFN γ receptor 2, the key molecule for proper IFN γ signalization, is lacking.

From its sequence similarity, IFN γ receptor 2 (also known as IFN γ receptor β chain or accessory factor 1, AF-1), has been classified as a member of the class 2 receptor family. This large group of cytokine receptors includes IFN γ receptor 1, receptors of interferon- α and interferon- β , receptors of interleukin-10 and interleukin-20, and receptors of other interleukins belonging to the IL-10 family (Langer *et al.*, 2004). The mature IFN γ receptor 2 protein comprises of 310 amino acids and has a predicted molecular mass of 35 kDa. It consists of a relatively short 69-amino-acid intracellular domain, a 21-amino-acid transmembrane domain and a 220-



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amino-acid extracellular domain that is structured into two fibronectin type III domains. The extracellular domain contains five cysteine residues and six potential N-linked glycosylation sites. Such extensive glycosylation contributes to a significant size heterogeneity, which is observed even when the receptor molecule is isolated from the same cell type; the molecular weight of mature receptor 2 of human interferon- γ ranges from 61 to 67 kDa (Bach *et al.*, 1995).

Despite its biological significance, three-dimensional structural data on IFN γ receptor 2 are lacking. Here, we report a 1.8 Å resolution crystal structure of the extracellular portion of IFN γ receptor 2 (hereafter called IFN γ R2); the structure has been deposited in the Protein Data Bank as entry 5eh1. The structure and sequence of IFN γ R2 are discussed in the context of the structures and sequences of the related class 2 cytokine receptors, with emphasis on the sequentially closest receptors of interleukins from the IL-10 family. Structure-based and sequence-based alignments suggested regions securing binding specificity of these receptors for their cytokine ligands.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Cloning, expression and purification of IFN γ R2

The gene encoding the extracellular part of IFN γ R2 (residues 28–247 of UniProt entry P38484) was cloned into a *Drosophila* pMT-BiP-V5-His_A vector using BglII and AgeI restriction enzymes in frame with an N-terminal BiP signal peptide and a C-terminal 6 \times His tag. This expression vector was co-transfected into insect Schneider S2 cells along with the pCoBlast selection plasmid using Effectene Transfection Reagent according to the manufacturer's instructions. Blastocidin-resistant S2 cells were selected by growing the cells in HyClone SFX Medium supplemented with 10% FBS and 25 $\mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$ blastocidin S. Large-scale protein expression was achieved after expansion and substitution into HyClone SFX serum-free medium, and protein expression was induced by the addition of 0.75 mM CuSO₄ for 6 d (the cell concentration was approximately 35 million per millilitre) and 1.5 mM CuSO₄ for a further 2 d until the percentage of living cells did not decrease below 95%. After expression, the cells were discarded by centrifugation and the medium containing secreted glycosylated IFN γ R2 protein was supplemented with the following additives at the following final concentrations: 5 mM CaCl₂, 1 mM NiSO₄, 250 mM NaCl and 50 mM Tris-HCl pH 8. The protein was purified on an IMAC HP column charged with NiSO₄ and equilibrated with EQ buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl pH 8, 500 mM NaCl). The column was washed with W buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl pH 8, 500 mM NaCl, 20 mM imidazole pH 8) and the protein was eluted with EL buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl pH 8, 500 mM NaCl, 250 mM imidazole pH 8). It was further purified to homogeneity by size-exclusion chromatography at room temperature on a HiLoad 16/600 Superdex 200 pg column (GE Healthcare) equilibrated with HN buffer (10 mM HEPES pH 7.5, 100 mM NaCl). Samples were analyzed by 12% SDS-PAGE.

IFN γ R2 was produced in insect cells as a secreted protein bearing oligosaccharide moieties of approximately 10 kDa according to SDS-PAGE analysis. Deglycosylation by peptide: N-glycosidase F (PNGase F) or endoglycosidase H (Endo H) with a C-terminal *Strep*-tag (§S1, Supporting Information) was performed after purification of IFN γ R2 on an IMAC column during dialysis against TN buffer (50 mM Tris buffer pH 8, 150 mM NaCl) or HN buffer, respectively. Endoglycosidases were removed on a *Strep*-Tactin column and the nonbound fraction containing IFN γ R2 was further purified by size-exclusion chromatography in HN buffer.

The single IFN γ R2 variants (N110Q, N137Q and N231Q, respectively) were introduced using the QuikChange II Site-Directed Mutagenesis Kit (Agilent Technologies). Primers are listed in Supplementary Table S1. The fully mutated IFN γ R2 variant bearing N56Q, N110Q, N137Q and N231Q mutations was obtained as a GeneArt Strings DNA Fragment and was cloned with the same protocol as the wild type. The expression and purification of all IFN γ R2 variants were performed in the same way as described above.

2.2. Biophysical measurements

Circular-dichroism (CD) spectra were recorded using a Chirascan-plus spectrometer (Applied Photophysics) in steps of 1 nm over the wavelength range 185–260 nm. Samples diluted with water to a concentration of 0.2 mg ml⁻¹ were placed into the holder in a 0.05 cm path-length quartz cell and individual spectra were recorded at a temperature of 23°C. The CD signal was expressed as the ellipticity and the resulting spectra were buffer-subtracted. To analyze the ratio of secondary structures, we used the *CDNN* program (Böhm *et al.*, 1992) provided with the Chirascan CD spectrometer. CD melting measurements were performed using samples diluted with water to a protein concentration of 0.5 mg ml⁻¹. A 10 mm path-length quartz cell was placed into the thermostated holder and sample absorption was recorded at 280 nm in 1°C increments at a rate of 0.5°C min⁻¹ over the temperature range 20–85°C with an averaging time of 12 s. Melting curves were normalized to relative values between 0.0 and 1.0 to visually magnify differences between the melting profiles, and the melting temperature (T_m) was estimated from the first derivative of the melting curves.

2.3. Glycosylation analysis and disulfide-bond determination

IFN γ R2 glycosylation sites were determined by MALDI-MS analysis preceded by protein digestion as described previously (Plíhal *et al.*, 2004). Disulfide bonds in IFN γ R2 were determined by SDS-PAGE and subsequent identification by mass spectrometry (MS) in analogy to the previously described procedure (Pompach *et al.*, 2009). 20 μg of sample in nonreducing conditions was loaded onto a 4–12% gradient gel (Life Technologies) in the presence of 200 μM cystamine. Bands corresponding to highly glycosylated IFN γ R2 were excised and subjected to in-gel deglycosylation and proteolysis. Deglycosylation using Endo H (New England Biolabs) was carried out for 4 h at 37°C and the resulting

Table 1
Data-collection statistics and structure-refinement parameters.

Values in parentheses are for the highest resolution shell.

| | |
|---|--|
| X-ray source | MX 14.1, HZB |
| Wavelength (Å) | 0.91841 |
| Total oscillation angle (°) | 180 |
| Resolution range (Å) | 62.88–1.80 (1.91–1.80) |
| Space group | <i>P</i> 6 ₂ 2 |
| Unit-cell parameters (Å) | <i>a</i> = <i>b</i> = 58.102, <i>c</i> = 377.266 |
| No. of measured reflections | 688675 (110540) |
| No. of unique reflections | 36723 (5733) |
| Average multiplicity | 18.8 (19.3) |
| Completeness (%) | 99.9 (99.8) |
| Average <i>I</i> /σ(<i>I</i>) | 17.6 (2.5) |
| Overall <i>B</i> factor from Wilson plot (Å ²) | 20 |
| Average <i>B</i> factor (Å ²) | 28 |
| No. of non-H atoms | |
| Protein | 1734 |
| Saccharides | 42 |
| Waters | 311 |
| All | 2121 |
| <i>R</i> _{merge} | 0.148 (1.395) |
| Half-data-set correlation coefficient <i>CC</i> _{1/2} | 99.9 (81.2) |
| No. of reflections, test set | 1820 |
| Final <i>R</i> _{work} / <i>R</i> _{free} / <i>R</i> _{all} | 0.190/0.222/0.191 |
| Ramachandran plot | |
| Residues in favoured region | 213 [96.3%] |
| Residues in allowed regions | 219 [99.1%] |
| Outliers | 2 [0.9%] |

partly deglycosylated sample was digested with trypsin (sequencing grade, Promega) for 12 h at 37°C at a protein:enzyme ratio of 30:1(*w/w*). After digestion, the tryptic peptide mixture was desalted on a peptide MicroTrap column (Michrom Bioresources) and separated on a reversed-phase C18 column (Acclaim PepMap 100, 5 μm, 0.1 × 20 mm; Thermo Scientific). The mobile phases consisted of 0.1% formic acid in 2% acetonitrile (solvent *A*) and 0.1% formic acid in 98% acetonitrile (solvent *B*). Peptides were eluted under the following gradient conditions: 2–45% solvent *B* in 40 min, 45–95% solvent *B* in 5 min. The flow rate was 0.5 μl min⁻¹ and the column was directly connected to the mass spectrometer. Mass spectra were acquired on a solarix XR FTMS instrument equipped with a 12 T superconducting magnet (Bruker Daltonics). For the identification of disulfide bonds, we used the *Links* algorithm, previously described as *ASAP* (*Automated Spectrum Assignment Program*; Schilling *et al.*, 2003). To generate deconvoluted spectra and export the *m/z* values, we used a script utilizing the *SNAP* 2.0 algorithm of the *DataAnalysis* 4.2 software suite (Bruker Daltonics).

2.4. Crystallization and diffraction data collection

Crystals of Endo H-deglycosylated IFNγR2 receptor were grown using the sitting-drop vapour-diffusion method in 96-3 three-well Intelli-Plate trays (Art Robbins Instruments). The reservoir solution consisted of 0.1 *M* MES pH 5.0, 10% PEG 6000 (final pH 6.0): condition No. 61 of The JCSG Core I Suite (Qiagen). Drops consisting of 0.2 μl protein sample (15 mg ml⁻¹ protein in HN buffer) and 0.2 μl reservoir solution were prepared with a Gryphon liquid-pipette robot (Dunn Labortechnik) and were equilibrated against 100 μl reservoir solution. Crystals appeared after 30 d of incubation

at 291 K. Crystals were mounted in Round LithoLoops (Molecular Dimensions) and flash-cooled in liquid nitrogen after cryoprotection in 20%(*v/v*) glycerol. X-ray diffraction data were collected at 100 K on beamline MX 14.1 of the BESSY II synchrotron-radiation source at the Helmholtz-Zentrum Berlin (HZB). A native data set was collected at a wavelength of 0.918 Å.

2.5. Data processing, structure determination and refinement

The diffraction and refinement statistics are summarized in Table 1. Diffraction data were processed and scaled using the *XDS* program package (Kabsch, 2010). The structure was solved with *BALBES* (Long *et al.*, 2008), but the structure model needed significant manual remodelling. Only the C-terminal domain of IFNγR2 was found and the initial *R* factors were about 0.49 and 0.52 for *R*_{work} and *R*_{free}, respectively. Residues missing from the initial model were built in with significant help from *ARP/wARP* (Langer *et al.*, 2008); manual corrections and building were performed using *Coot* (Emsley & Cowtan, 2004). Refinement was then carried out with *REFMAC5* (Murshudov *et al.*, 2011) and the structure was validated by *MolProbity* (Chen *et al.*, 2010). The coordinates and structure factors have been deposited in the PDB with accession code 5eh1.

2.6. Sequence and structural bioinformatics

The UniProt database was searched with the *BLAST* tool (Camacho *et al.*, 2009) using the sequence of the extracellular part of IFNγR2 as the query sequence. The automated result was manually reviewed to select 90 sequences from different species. These sequences were used to calculate a multiple sequence alignment with *Clustal Omega* (Sievers *et al.*, 2011) as implemented in *UGENE* (Okonechnikov *et al.*, 2012). The *ConSurf* server (Glaser *et al.*, 2003) was used to estimate the evolutionary conservation of amino-acid positions in the protein structures. The calculations were based on the crystal structure of IFNγR2 (PDB entry 5eh1) and the alignment prepared by *Clustal Omega*. Structural comparison was prepared by *MatchMaker* as implemented in the *UCSF Chimera* software (Pettersen *et al.*, 2004).

Root-mean-square deviation (r.m.s.d.) values between the N- and C-terminal domains were calculated using *VMD* (Humphrey *et al.*, 1996). The backbone atoms of 34 sequentially conserved residues in each domain (listed in Supplementary Table S2) were used for the structure superposition of all possible pairs of N- and C-terminal domains of the 12 available crystal structures of class 2 cytokine receptors. The *VMD* commands *measure fit* and *move* were used for the structural overlay, followed by *measure rmsd* operating on the same selection of residues and backbone atoms for the calculation of r.m.s.d. values. The stability of the N-terminal domain of IFNγR2 was estimated by calculating the pairwise interaction energy at the DFT-D level as detailed in Supplementary Fig. S3.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Summary

IFN γ R2 was produced in insect S2 cells, purified, characterized by biophysical techniques (Fig. 1) and its crystal structure was solved at 1.8 Å resolution. Fig. 2 highlights some of the structural features of IFN γ R2; Figs. 3 and 4 provide a comparison of IFN γ R2 to the other cytokine receptors from the class 2 family, with the aim of correlating the sequences and structures of these proteins.

3.2. Glycosylation and overall fold stability

The IFN γ R2 protein has six potential glycosylation sites (Asn56, Asn110, Asn137, Asn231, Asn85 and Asn219), of which the first four were confirmed by mass-spectrometric analysis as glycosylated in our construct; the crystal structure later revealed that position Asn85 was also glycosylated. The greatest heterogeneity was observed at position Asn137. To remove oligosaccharide moieties from these residues, we used two endoglycosidases, Endo H and PNGase F, but both enzymes left several forms of IFN γ R2 with residual glycosylation as observed by a distribution of molecular mass on SDS-PAGE (Supplementary Fig. S1). Mass spectrometry identified α (1–3)-fucose at position Asn231. Because α (1–3)-fucose abolishes the activity of both endoglycosidases, its presence is a likely to be reason for the mass distribution of IFN γ R2. Deglycosylation by Endo H caused an approximately 7 kDa shift in molecular weight on SDS-PAGE and, in contrast to deglycosylation by PNGase, did not induce protein oligomerization, as checked by size-exclusion chromatography. Measurements using CD spectroscopy (Fig. 1) and thermal shift assay (§S1 in Supporting Information and Supplementary Fig. S2) showed no significant difference in melting temperatures between the glycosylated and Endo H-deglycosylated forms of the IFN γ R2 protein. Because the CD spectra of these two forms are also virtually identical, we

believe that deglycosylation does not influence the secondary structure of IFN γ R2. Although the CD spectra of IFN γ R2 and IFN γ R1 differ considerably (Černý *et al.*, 2015), both proteins belong to the same fold of the fibronectin type III domain family (Pfam PF00041).

Besides deglycosylation by the endoglycosidases, we designated asparagine-to-glutamine mutants to decrease the level of glycosylation. We prepared a fully mutated IFN γ R2 variant bearing N56Q, N110Q, N137Q and N231Q mutations and single-point mutants N110Q, N137Q and N231Q, respectively. All of these constructs were transfected into insect S2 cells, but none of them were secreted into the cell-culture medium. This correlates with the earlier observation that IFN γ R2 mutants with changed glycosylation patterns were located in the cytoplasmic fraction (Moncada-Vélez, 2013). Structurally significant is glycosylation at positions Asn110 and Asn137, where the bound *N*-acetyl-D-glucosamine (NAG) residues sandwich Trp131 (Fig. 2*b*), thus shielding its hydrophobic surfaces from solvent. As suggested by the failure to express and/or purify the N56Q, N110Q, N137Q and N231Q mutants, glycosylation is necessary for IFN γ R2 production by stabilizing the fold and transport to and/or across the cellular membrane.

3.3. The IFN γ R2 fold is stable without disulfide bonds

IFN γ R2 contains five cysteine residues, and our mass-spectrometric analysis identified disulfide bonds linking Cys86 to Cys94 and Cys209 to Cys234. We observed the same protein mobility under nonreducing and reducing conditions during SDS-PAGE analysis. The melting temperature of both glycosylated and deglycosylated IFN γ R2 measured by thermal shift assay (Supplementary Fig. S2) decreased by only $\sim 1^\circ\text{C}$ in the presence of 5 mM TCEP (a reducing agent to break the disulfide bonds), so that the IFN γ R2 fold is stable without S–S bonds. This contrasts with the behaviour of IFN γ R1 (Fountoulakis *et al.*, 1990), in which the protein fold is

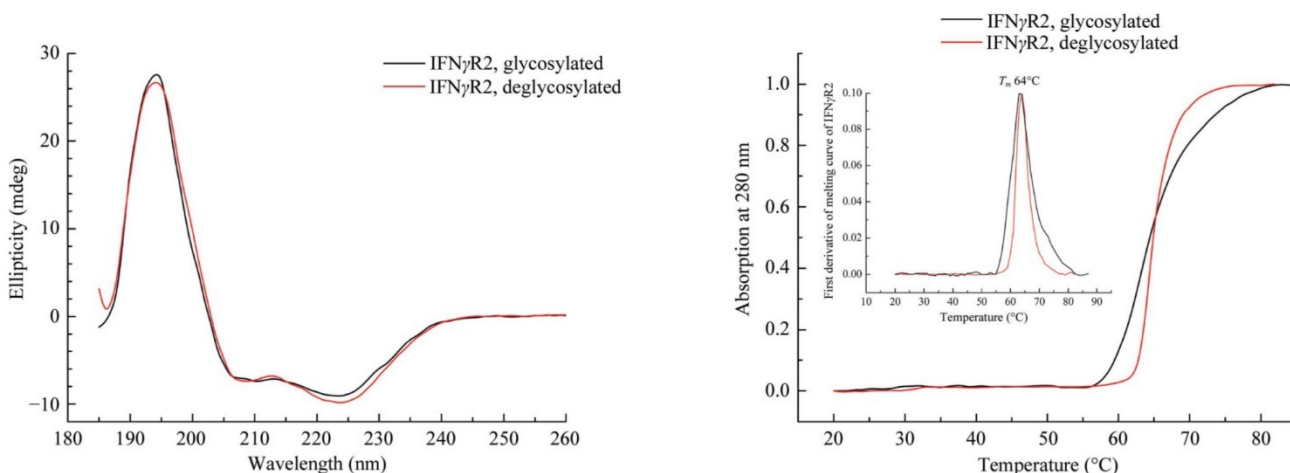


Figure 1 Left: circular-dichroism (CD) spectra of glycosylated and deglycosylated IFN γ R2. The CD spectra of both proteins are highly similar, suggesting that the partial removal of the oligosaccharide moieties did not affect the overall structure of IFN γ R2. Right: normalized melting curves measured from temperature-dependent CD spectra at 280 nm. The melting temperature was estimated as 64°C for both glycosylated and deglycosylated IFN γ R2.

stabilized to a large extent by S—S bridges. The fifth IFN γ R2 cysteine residue, Cys174, does not form an intramolecular S—S bridge but is bound to a monomeric cysteine. Binding of free cysteine to the sterically accessible Cys174 probably occurs after secreting IFN γ R2 into the cell-culture medium, which contains free cysteine and stabilizes the monomeric form of IFN γ R2.

3.4. The overall structure of the extracellular portion of IFN γ R2

The structure of IFN γ R2 was solved at 1.8 Å resolution and electron density was observed for amino-acid residues 28–240 of UniProt entry P38484, except for two two-residue loops. Data-collection and refinement parameters are shown in Table 1. The extracellular part of the IFN γ R2 molecule consists of two domains (Fig. 2), the N-terminal D1 domain of UniProt residues 28–133 and the C-terminal D2 domain of residues 144–247. Both domains belong to the immuno-

globulin fold with fibronectin type III topology, forming β -sandwiches (Pfam PF00041). The inter-domain torsion angle is approximately 120°, similar to those of IFN γ R1 (Thiel *et al.*, 2000; Walter *et al.*, 1995) and human tissue factor (Harlos *et al.*, 1994); the D1–D2 torsion angle is defined in Supplementary Table S3. The D1 domain is composed of three β -strands stacked on a layer of four β -strands, and the D2 domain is created by four β -strands arranged against four other β -strands; both domains are connected by a short linker (residues 134–143 in IFN γ R2) comprising a short helix that is also found in IFN γ R1, human tissue factor and other receptors.

3.5. Structural motifs in D1 and D2

D1 contains a distinct structural motif of six stacked residues: Lys68, Trp74, Arg114, Trp126, Arg116 and His123. The average distance between the mean planes of the individual side chains of this extensive π -cation interaction is 3.65 Å.

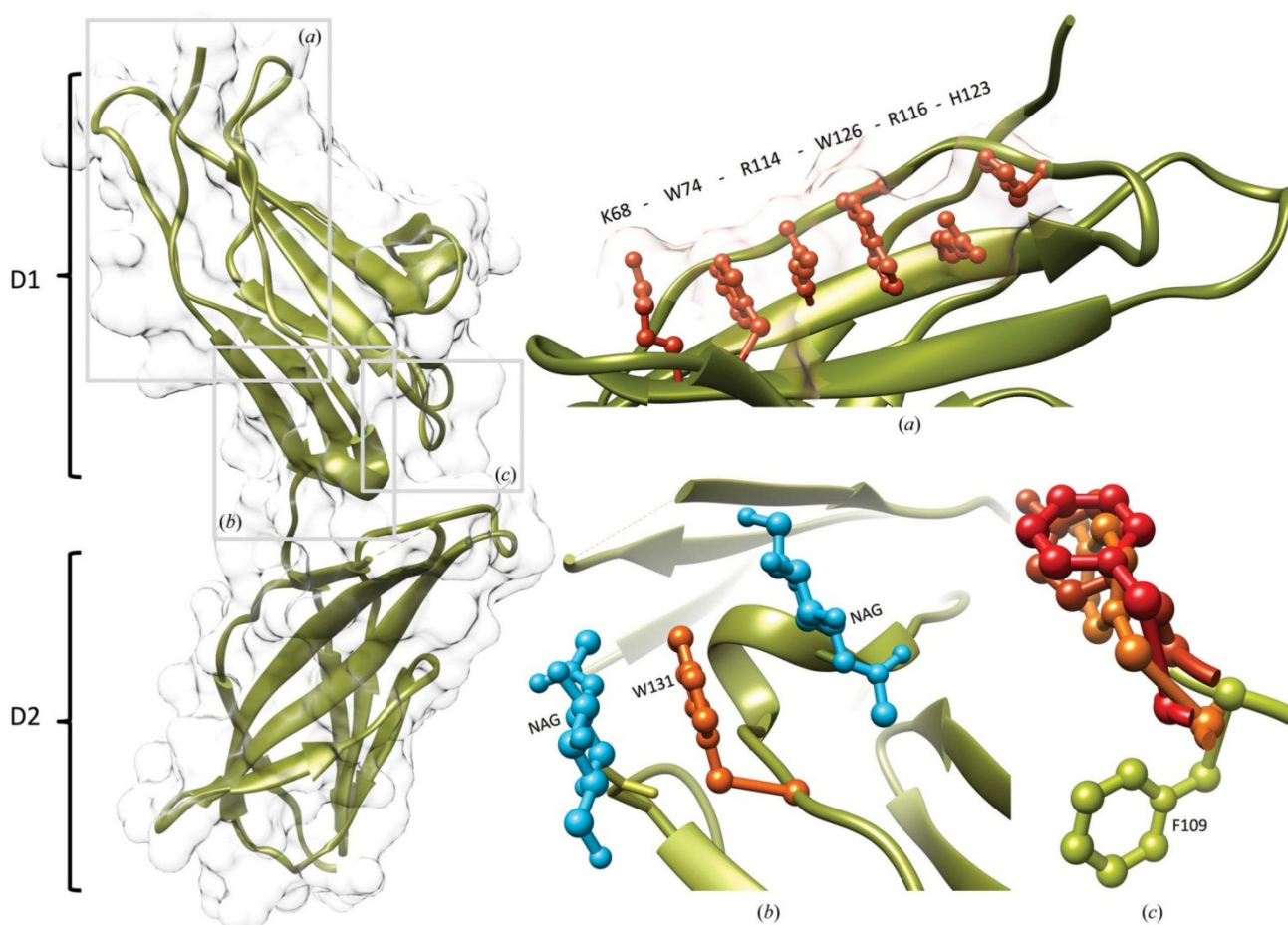


Figure 2 Left: ribbon and surface representations of the IFN γ R2 structure. D1 and D2 indicate domains 1 and 2, respectively. Insets: (a) residues Lys68, Trp74, Arg114, Trp126, Arg116 and His123 of the D1 domain form a stacking motif on the IFN γ R2 surface. (b) *N*-Acetyl-D-glucosamines (NAGs; blue) glycosylating Asn110 and Asn137 sandwich Trp131 (orange), reducing its hydrophobic character. (c) The superposition of aromatic binding epitopes shows differences between IFN γ R2 (Phe109 in green) on one side and promiscuous shared cytokine receptors on the other [in red; Tyr82 of IL10R2 (PDB entry 3lqm; Yoon *et al.*, 2010), Phe169 of gp130 (PDB entry 1bqu; Bravo *et al.*, 1998) and Tyr103 of γ_c receptor (PDB entry 4gs7; Ring *et al.*, 2012)]. No corresponding aromatic residue is observed in IL20R2 (Logsdon *et al.*, 2012).

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Analysis of the interaction energies in D1 revealed that the motif contributes significantly to the overall stability of the whole domain. These six surface residues are involved in interactions that are comparable in strength to the hydrophobic core of the domain and are likely to play an important role in the process of domain folding. The residues responsible for domain stability are depicted in Supplementary Fig. S3, in which the colour and thickness of the cartoon representation show the relative interaction energy per residue ranging from low (blue) to high (red) stabilizing values.

An analogous stacking motif with the consensus sequence WSXWS (Bazan, 1990) has been predicted by sequence alignments in D1 of the class 1 receptor family (McElroy *et al.*, 2009), but such a motif is missing in the D2 domains of both class 1 and class 2 receptors. Based on the presence of the KWRWRH motif in IFN γ R2, we performed structural alignment of the class 2 receptor structures and discovered a similar but sequentially noncontinuous motif with the sequence (X)WRWR(X), where X is K, R or H. The important role of large aromatic tryptophan residues in stabilizing the fibronectin fold by stitching together two β -strands is accompanied in D1 by a structural role for charged residues, especially arginines. Besides the discussed (X)WRWR(X) motif, we found a tight overlap of a continuous chain of residues R-L/V-R-A (residues Arg114-Leu115-Arg116-Ala117 in IFN γ R2): the average r.m.s.d. between motifs from two receptors is 0.6 Å. The other important residues that are conserved in D1 of the available class 2 receptor structures are

residues corresponding to Trp49, Ser124 and the Cys86/Cys96 pair forming a disulfide bond in IFN γ R2. A unique feature of IFN γ R2 D1 is a short helix (residues 78–85), which is present in no other discussed receptor structure.

Sequential and structural comparison of D2 revealed a considerable sequence variability, within which we identified the conservation of two proline residues, Pro142 and Pro143, and the structurally well conserved motif 175-YNVAXW-180, with r.m.s.d. values about 1 Å but low sequence similarity. Another characteristic structural feature of D2 is the formation of a disulfide bridge between Cys209 and Cys234. Higher values for the *B* factors in D2 indicate its higher flexibility compared with D1. A higher flexibility of D2 compared with D1 was also indicated in our previous studies of IFN γ R1 (Mikulecký *et al.*, 2013; Černý *et al.*, 2015).

3.6. Structural alignment of domains D1 and D2 in IFN γ R2 and in other class 2 receptors

We performed alignment of the IFN γ R2 structure with the 11 remaining available structures of the class 2 receptor family in order to gauge their similarity and reveal their unique features. The alignment was measured by overlapping 34 residues in the N-terminal D1 and the same number of residues in the C-terminal D2; the r.m.s.d. values of the overlapped residues are listed in Fig. 3 and the overlapped residues are listed in Supplementary Table S2. The D1 domains are mutually more similar than the D2 domains, as highlighted by

| PDB code | 1fg9 | 5eh1 | 1j7v | 3lqm | 4doh | 4doh | 3dlq | 3g9v | 3og6 | 3se4 | 3se4 | 2puq |
|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|--------|--------|--------|--------|-------|--------|-------|-----------------|-----------------|------|
| Chain ID | C | A | R | A | E | B | R | A | B | A | C | T |
| Receptor | IFN γ R1 | IFN γ R2 | IL10R1 | IL10R2 | IL20R1 | IL20R2 | IL22R | IL22BP | IL28R | IFN α R1 | IFN α R2 | TF |
| IFN γ R1 | 0.82 | 0.87 | 0.73 | 0.73 | 0.80 | 0.78 | 0.90 | 0.71 | 0.82 | 1.35 | 1.12 | 0.85 |
| IFN γ R2 | 1.27 | 0.79 | 0.93 | 0.97 | 0.79 | 0.79 | 0.96 | 0.80 | 0.85 | 1.45 | 1.25 | 1.04 |
| IL10R1 | 1.22 | 1.12 | 1.07 | 0.74 | 0.97 | 0.88 | 0.94 | 1.43 | 1.13 | 0.81 | 0.67 | 0.66 |
| IL10R2 | 1.00 | 1.14 | 1.05 | 0.89 | 0.95 | 1.05 | 0.65 | 0.87 | 0.68 | 0.80 | 1.11 | 0.93 |
| IL20R1 | 0.93 | 1.32 | 0.89 | 1.33 | 1.59 | 0.93 | 0.97 | 0.63 | 0.75 | 0.59 | 1.36 | 1.15 |
| IL20R2 | 1.32 | 1.51 | 1.23 | 0.99 | 1.33 | 0.91 | 0.93 | 0.66 | 0.82 | 1.48 | 1.25 | 1.21 |
| IL22R | 1.20 | 1.49 | 1.09 | 0.86 | 1.04 | 1.16 | 4.19 | 1.20 | 1.19 | 0.87 | 0.98 | 1.03 |
| IL22BP | 1.32 | 1.48 | 0.94 | 1.20 | 1.18 | 1.30 | 1.17 | 0.93 | 1.02 | 1.16 | 1.11 | 0.96 |
| IL28R | 1.21 | 1.16 | 1.34 | 1.29 | 1.30 | 1.32 | 1.18 | 1.45 | 0.91 | 1.09 | 0.77 | 0.86 |
| IFN α R1 | 1.16 | 0.96 | 1.31 | 1.33 | 1.33 | 0.98 | 1.75 | 1.26 | 1.59 | 1.77 | 0.94 | 1.20 |
| IFN α R2 | 1.35 | 1.80 | 1.40 | 1.29 | 1.19 | 1.81 | 1.58 | 1.14 | 1.46 | 1.22 | 1.43 | 1.02 |
| TF | 1.38 | 1.16 | 1.23 | 1.26 | 1.44 | 1.04 | 1.16 | 1.40 | 1.43 | 1.16 | 1.81 | 0.86 |

Figure 3

Structural differences between the N-terminal (D1) and C-terminal (D2) domains of 12 class 2 cytokine receptors gauged by the r.m.s.d. values for backbone atoms of their 34 residues. R.m.s.d. values comparing D1 and D2 domains are shown above and below the diagonal, respectively. For instance, comparison between D1 of IL20R2 and IL22BP gives an r.m.s.d. of 0.66 Å; the r.m.s.d. between their D2 domains is 1.30 Å. R.m.s.d. values that are smaller and larger than the off-diagonal average r.m.s.d. value are highlighted in blue and red hues, respectively. The diagonal (in grey) shows the lowest r.m.s.d. values for 34 residues from D1 and D2 within each receptor structure; the r.m.s.d. between D1 and D2 of IL10R2 is 0.89 Å. References to the analyzed structures are as follows: IFN γ R1, Thiel *et al.* (2000); IFN γ R2, this work; IL10R1, Josephson *et al.* (2001); IL10R2, Yoon *et al.* (2010); IL20R1 and IL20R2, Logsdon *et al.* (2012); IL22R, Bleicher *et al.* (2008); IL22BP, de Moura *et al.* (2009); IL28R, Miknis *et al.* (2010); IFN α R1 and IFN α R2, Thomas *et al.* (2011); TF (human tissue factor), Larsen *et al.* (2007).

blue and red hues in Fig. 3; the average r.m.s.d. between two D1 domains is 0.95 Å and that between two D2 domains is 1.3 Å. A high similarity within D1 and D2, respectively, indicates that modulation of the specificity of receptors takes place in only a few variable regions, which are discussed below.

D1 domains bear two conflicting structural features: strict fold conservation reflected by high structural similarity of the selected residues, and at the same time the presence of two structurally highly variable loops corresponding to residues 70–73 and 97–107 in IFN γ R2. The third variable loop was located in the D2 domain (residues 162–171 in IFN γ R2); the loops are coloured red and yellow for D1 and green for D2 in Fig. 4. Given the fairly uniform core of both domains and variability concentrated in the three localized regions, we suggest that the binding specificity of the individual receptors is controlled by these variable regions. However, there is another factor that contributes to the receptor specificity, the different mutual orientation of D1 and D2 (Supplementary Table S3), which displaces these variable regions to different positions, thus providing a unique binding interface for each receptor.

Several structural and sequential features of receptors of interferon- α and interferon- β (PDB entry 3se4; Thomas *et al.*, 2011), here labelled IFN α R1 and IFN α R2, distinguishes them from the other analyzed receptors. Specifically, IFN α R1 is composed of four instead of two domains; here, we analyzed D1 and D2. The D3–D4 pair cannot be analyzed as D4 is not resolved in the electron density. Further dissimilarities of IFN α R1 and IFN α R2 are found in the composition of their π -cation motifs: in IFN α R1 only four residues stack in D1 (Trp46, Arg76, Trp87 and Arg78) and three in D3 (Trp250, Arg279 and Trp291), while D1 of IFN α R2 does not have the motif at all and is replaced by the motif YVTV.

3.7. Similarity among receptors and consequences for evolution

As discovered previously (Yoon *et al.*, 2010), an aromatic tyrosine or phenylalanine residue situated in the cleft between D1 and D2 of gp130 (PDB entry 1bqu; Bravo *et al.*, 1998), γ_c (PDB entry 4gs7; Ring *et al.*, 2012) and IL10R2 (PDB entry 3lqm; Yoon *et al.*, 2010) serves as the key binding epitope of promiscuous class 1 and 2 receptors, implying the existence of a common ancestor. Superposition of these receptor structures shows that the orientation of Phe109 and three residues in gp130, γ_c and IL10R2 are quite different (Fig. 2c). No preferred rotamer of Phe109 overlaps the three former residues without significant rebuilding of the IFN γ R2 backbone. The structural difference between IFN γ R2 and the other receptors, especially IL10R2, is significant and suggests that there is not a common binding epitope for these receptors.

Significant sequence similarity between IFN γ R2, IL10R2 and IL20R2 (20–25% sequence identity among different species; analysis not shown) points to their evolutionary relationship. If proven, it would be analogous to the evolutionary relationship between receptors 1 of the cytokines IFN γ R1, IL10R1 and IL20R1 (Langer *et al.*, 2004). We may

therefore hypothesize that these three cytokine systems have evolved from a common ancestral system: while interferon- γ evolved early in evolution and is known in fish species (Savan *et al.*, 2009), its receptor 2 emerged later in connection with the evolution of amphibians. The specific function of IFN γ R2 therefore evolved from an older promiscuously functioning molecule. A likely candidate is IL10R2, because it is evolutionarily older and is known in primitive fishes, while IL20R2 emerges similarly to IFN γ R2 in amphibians. The lack of a common binding epitope between IFN γ R2 and the other class 2 receptors, notably IL10R2 (Fig. 2c), indirectly supports this hypothesis.

3.8. The sequence alignment of IFN γ R2 from various species suggests its binding interface

In an attempt to identify the putative interface by which IFN γ R2 forms a functional ternary complex with its binding partners interferon- γ and receptor 1, we aligned the IFN γ R2 sequences from 90 species and used the *ConSurf* server to project the consensus onto the structure of IFN γ R2 (Fig. 4b). The 32 conserved residues (purple in Fig. 4b) are mainly located in the inward arched part of the U-shaped receptor molecule. This part of the molecule contains the previously described stacking motif (Fig. 2a) and plays an important role in maintaining the overall structure. The 34 most variable residues are predominantly on the opposite side of the molecule (cyan in Fig. 4b). These regions of sequentially least conserved residues coincide with the location of the structurally variable loops derived by the superposition of receptor structures. We therefore conclude that the putative IFN γ R2 interface for forming the active ternary complex with IFN γ and IFN γ R1 is likely to be in the receptor 2 region with the most variable residues. This conclusion is supported by an analogous observation in the IFN γ R1 system: the least sequentially conserved residues form the interface with the binding partner (Mikulecký *et al.*, 2013).

The composition of the ternary signalling complexes of dimeric cytokines discussed here, IFN γ and IL-10, is understood less than for monomeric examples such as IL-20, for which the ternary complex has a known crystal structure (Logsdon *et al.*, 2012). One of the reasons is the existence of two binding interfaces in the dimeric cytokines and the resulting different and more complex stoichiometry of the complexes; the crystal structure of an IFN γ –IFN γ R1 complex with an unexpected 2:3 stoichiometry serves as an example (Thiel *et al.*, 2000). The topology and structure of the signalling ternary complex of IFN γ have been extensively studied and reviewed (Pestka *et al.*, 1997; Hoffmann *et al.*, 2015). Experiments in solution and on the cell surfaces indicated a 2:2:2 or 2:2:1 stoichiometry of the signalling IFN γ complex (Marsters *et al.*, 1995); cross-linking of different components of the IFN γ complex expressed in cloned cell lines have shown direct contact between IFN γ R1 and IFN γ R2 (Krause *et al.*, 2006) and also between IFN γ and IFN γ R2 (Kotenko *et al.*, 1995). The newly determined structure of IFN γ R2 may spur new experiments exploring the topology and three-dimensional structure of the signaling ternary complex of IFN γ .

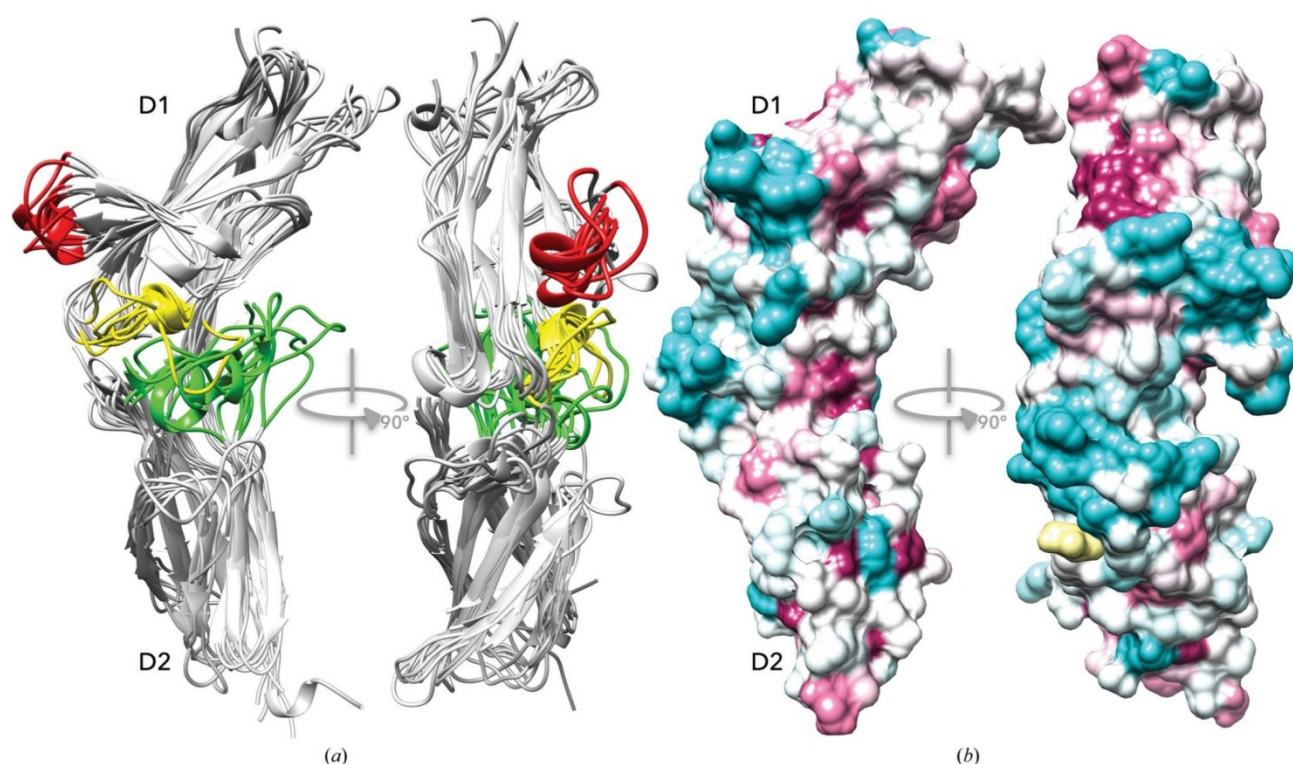


Figure 4
Structurally variable regions and a proposed interaction interface of the cytokine receptors. (a) Cartoon representation of the structural superposition of the D1 and D2 domains of the nine receptor structures. The backbone of the selected residues (listed in Supplementary Table S2) was superimposed independently for each domain and was then drawn on top of the IFN γ R2 structure. The aligned cores of both domains overlap tightly (for r.m.s.d. values, see Fig. 3), but two regions in D1 (red and yellow) and one in D2 (green) are highly variable. (b) Sequences of IFN γ R2 from 90 species with the sequentially most variable regions coloured cyan and conserved regions in purple drawn on the surface of the IFN γ R2 structure by *ConSurf* (Glaser *et al.*, 2003). The IFN γ R2 free cysteine Cys174 is highlighted in yellow. (a) and (b) show IFN γ R2 in the same orientation.

4. Conclusions

A partially deglycosylated extracellular part of the interferon- γ receptor 2, IFN γ R2, was crystallized and its structure was determined at 1.8 Å resolution and deposited in the PDB with accession code 5eh1. The electron-density map was interpreted for amino-acid residues 28–240, apart from two short loops. The IFN γ R2 structure revealed the fold common to other cytokine receptors: two fibronectin type III domains connected by a short linker. IFN γ R2 is a glycoprotein with five of the six potential N-linked glycosylation sites glycosylated, as confirmed by mass spectrometry and the crystal structure. Our analysis of glycosylation also uncovers the role of the oligosaccharide moieties at Asn110 and Asn137, which sandwich Trp131 and shield its hydrophobic aromatic ring from the solvent. Both potential disulfide bonds form but are not critical for the stability of IFN γ R2, as it is also stable in a reducing environment. The fifth cysteine Cys174 is bound to the monomeric cysteine.

Structure and sequence alignments revealed some important features of the 12 class 2 receptors. Their N-terminal D1 domains are more mutually similar than their C-terminal D2 domains (Fig. 3). D1 carries a distinctive so far unrecognized structural feature: a π -cation motif of sequentially distant stacked residues (X)WRWR(X) (KWRWRH in IFN γ R2;

Fig. 2a). Analysis of the receptor structures revealed three structurally highly variable regions (Fig. 4a), which most likely bring about binding specificity for their interacting partners. This hypothesis is further supported by the alignment of IFN γ R2 sequences from various species, which identified the highest sequence variability at positions coinciding with the structurally variable regions (Fig. 4b). An important structural feature distinguishing IFN γ R2 from the related IL10R2, gp130 and γ_c receptors is the specific positioning of the aromatic recognition epitope in IFN γ R2 (Fig. 2c).

We believe that the determination of the structure of the so far missing component of the interferon- γ signalling complex will enable a deeper understanding of the functioning of this important immunity cascade.

5. Related literature

The following references are cited in the Supporting Information for this article: Cancino-Díaz *et al.* (2002), Černý *et al.* (2007), Furche *et al.* (2014), O'Boyle *et al.* (2011) and Rürger *et al.* (2015).

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Interferons type II and their receptors R1 and R2 in fish species: Evolution, structure, and function



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ABSTRACT

Interferon gamma (IFN- γ) is one of the key players in the immune system of vertebrates. The evolution and properties of IFN- γ and its receptors in fish species are of special interest as they point to the origin of innate immunity in vertebrates. We studied the phylogeny, biophysical and structural properties of IFN- γ and its receptors. Our phylogeny analysis suggests the existence of two groups of IFN- γ related proteins, one specific for *Acanthomorpha*, the other for *Cypriniformes*, *Characiformes* and *Siluriformes*. The analysis further shows an ancient duplication of the gene for IFN- γ receptor 1 (IFN- γ R1) and the parallel existence of the duplicated genes in all current teleost fish species. In contrast, only one gene can be found for receptor 2, IFN- γ R2. The specificity of the interaction between IFN- γ and both types of IFN- γ R1 was determined by microscale thermophoresis measurements of the equilibrium dissociation constants for the proteins from three fish species. The measured preference of IFN- γ for one of the two forms of receptor 1 agrees with the bioinformatic analysis of the co-evolution between IFN- γ and receptor 1. To elucidate structural relationships between IFN- γ of fish and other vertebrate species, we determined the crystal structure of IFN- γ from olive flounder (*Paralichthys olivaceus*, PoliIFN- γ) at crystallographic resolution of 2.3 Å and the low-resolution structures of *Takifugu rubripes*, *Oreochromis niloticus*, and *Larimichthys crocea* IFN- γ by small angle X-ray diffraction. The overall PoliIFN- γ fold is the same as the fold of the other known IFN- γ structures but there are some significant structural differences, namely the additional C-terminal helix G and a different angle between helices C and D in PoliIFN- γ .

1. Introduction

Interferons are proteins described by Isaacs and Lindenmann more than 60 years ago [1]. The name interferon is derived from the ability to interfere with viral infections. Interferons evolved in early chordates and represent ancient immunity elements [2]. Interferon gamma (IFN- γ) is now considered to be one of the key molecules in the regulation of the innate and adaptive immunity [3].

1.1. Interferon- γ and its signaling

IFN- γ is the only member of type II cytokines in mammals and plays a significant role in cell defense against intracellular pathogens. The IFN- γ function is best described in humans, where it mediates Th1 immunity and activates macrophages. The signaling of IFN- γ is initiated by the binding of the IFN- γ active form, a noncovalent homodimer, to receptor R1 [4–7] and subsequently to receptor R2 [8,9]. Formation of the IFN- γ /R1/R2 ternary complex results in spatial changes to cytoplasmic domains of receptors [10]. It leads to the binding of Janus

activator kinase (JAK2) to the cytoplasmic part of receptor 2 and the attachment of JAK1 to the cytoplasmic part of receptor 1 [11], and the subsequent JAKs auto phosphorylation and phosphorylation of R1 [12,13]. This phosphorylation creates a binding site for the signal transducer and activator of the transcription (STAT1). After STAT1 is phosphorylated, it dimerizes and enters the cell nucleus where it induces expression of a variety of genes [14]. This sequence of events is described as the canonical pathway of IFN- γ signaling. So-called non-canonical IFN- γ signaling involves the endocytosis of the IFN- γ /R1/R2 complex, the creation of the IFN- γ /R1/STAT1 α /JAK1/JAK2 complex and its transport to the nucleus. The IFN- γ nuclear localization signal (NLS) and polycationic C-terminus are crucial for the non-canonical IFN- γ signaling [15,16]. The IFN- γ /R1/Stat1 α complex is responsible for the specificity of the interaction with the DNA regulatory sequences known as GAS - gamma interferon activation sites [17].

1.2. Interferon- γ in fish species

Teleost fish are an attractive target for studying evolution due to

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their vast genomic variability [18]. During their evolution fish underwent three rounds of whole genome duplications (WGD) [19,20]. Two of these duplications are common to all vertebrates, the third one is specific for teleost fish. It occurred after fish and tetrapods split about 225–333 million years ago and it shows a specific evolutionary adaptation of fish [21]. Salmonid fish underwent one more WGD 96 million years ago [22], so did common carp (*Cyprinus carpio*) 12 Mya, [23]. In contrast to mammalian genomes, teleost genomes contain additional multiple families of active transposable elements which play an important role in the accelerated evolution of fish species [18]. Signaling pathway studies in fish provide important clues for understanding the evolution of specific immune adaptations of the antiviral defense system in early tetrapods and teleosts. Understanding the fish immune system may thus help the aquaculture industry's fight against fish viruses, whose occurrence remains a significant limiting factor in aquaculture production as well as in the sustainability of biodiversity in the world's oceans [24].

Type II interferon genes evolved early in the chordates evolution and are therefore present in extant cartilaginous fish (sharks and rays), bony fish, as well as in tetrapods [25]. It is assumed that they have evolved from a class II helical cytokine ancestor. Unlike humans with only one IFN- γ , the fish type II interferon family is broader in some species, consisting of two members, IFN- γ and fish-specific IFN- γ related (IFN- γ rel) proteins. Moreover, in some fish species the IFN- γ gene is additionally duplicated resulting in two similar IFN- γ copies.

The first identified fish IFN- γ molecule was from the Japanese pufferfish (*Takifugu rubripes*, Fugu) genome [26]. The IFN- γ gene was localized in the locus, which contains cytokine genes from the interleukin 10 family – *IL-22* and *IL-26*. These interleukins are tightly linked to IFN- γ in other species as well, including human, mouse, and frog. This fact supports the idea of gene synteny and helps IFN- γ identification in various genomes [21,27]. In salmonids and common carp, two IFN- γ genes are present likely due to the fourth WGD. Comparative studies of duplicated copies of IFN- γ were performed for atlantic salmon (*Salmo salar*) [28], common carp (*Cyprinus carpio*) [29] and rainbow trout (*Oncorhynchus mykiss*) [30]. Both IFN- γ paralogs appear to be biologically relevant and have a similar regulatory mechanism in these species.

Only some of the IFN- γ genes have been described at protein level. The FuguIFN- γ protein (UniProtKB - Q708J2) is expressed as 189 amino acid long pre-protein with the signal peptide 22 amino acids long and one potential glycosylation site. The gene composed of 3760 nucleotides (85% AT content) has 4 exons and 3 introns, which is similar to the composition of mammalian IFN- γ genes [26]. Approximately the same gene and protein characteristics were identified in rainbow trout (188 aa, AT rich) [31].

The biological functions of IFN- γ as well as its signaling pathways in fish are similar to those in mammals [31]. The highest expression level of IFN- γ has been found in the spleen, gill, and kidney of black seabream (*Acanthopagrus schlegelii*) [32] or zebrafish (*Danio rerio*) [33]. The IFN- γ expression is induced by various stimuli including lipopolysaccharides and poly I:C. IFN- γ has been shown to induce an inflammatory response and to protect the host from bacterial infection by stimulating the expression of genes of pro-inflammatory cytokines [31] in large yellow croaker (*Larimichthys crocea*) [34], atlantic cod (*Gadus morhua*) [35], Nile tilapia (*Oreochromis niloticus*) [36], and atlantic halibut (*Hippoglossus hippoglossus* L.) [37].

1.3. Interferon- γ related protein in fish species

The comparative genomics analysis of the zebrafish and fugu genomes revealed the presence of a second IFN- γ gene in the locus containing interleukin 10 family genes. This gene was named interferon gamma 2 because of a low amino acid identity (17.0%) with the original IFN- γ gene [27]. The name interferon gamma related (IFN- γ rel) gene was proposed later to distinguish between these two distinct genes and the highly similar IFN- γ copies in salmonids and cyprinids [38].

The IFN- γ rel is not a clear homolog of the mammalian IFN- γ as identified by its gene synteny. Despite the sequence divergence, the genomic localization seems to be well conserved. Therefore, it is assumed that IFN- γ rel originated by the duplication of the IFN- γ gene [21,27]. The IFN- γ rel protein has been widely accepted as a second member of type II family [38]. Some hypotheses suggest that the novel IFN- γ rel protein might have diverged, acquired a new function, and therefore have different affinities to the receptors [21,27]. The IFN- γ rel gene has been identified mostly in the cyprinid family including zebrafish [27], grass carp (*Ctenopharyngodon idella*) [39], common carp [29], and goldfish (*Carassius auratus* L.) [40], and also channel catfish (*Ictalurus punctatus*, *Siluriformes*) [41], and in fugu (*T. rubripes*, *Acanthomorpha*) [27]. C-termini of IFN- γ rel sequences show significant differences, which indicates the existence of multiple IFN- γ rel isoforms [31].

The zebrafish cDNA of the IFN- γ rel gene encodes a 171-aa peptide with the 25-aa long signal sequence; the mature protein is 17.3 kDa in weight with two putative glycosylation sites [27]. Expression of common carp IFN- γ rel protein was reported with N terminal 6xHis tag but without analysis of the protein [42].

The differences between IFN- γ and IFN- γ rel signaling are poorly understood. The fish and human IFN- γ have analogical functions [43] and also IFN- γ rel in *Cypriniformes* regulates antibacterial and antiviral activity. IFN- γ rel is known not to be able to induce the genes of Toll-like receptors [44], and of interferon regulatory factors 1 [30] and 11 [38]. Studies of IFN- γ rel bioactivity in gibel carp (*Carassius auratus langsdorffii*) have reported that it is active as a monomer. This would be surprising because IFN- γ is known to function as a homodimer [45].

1.4. Interferon- γ receptors in fish species

Human IFN- γ induces a cell response through a receptor complex consisting of an IFN- γ homodimer and extracellular domains of two molecules of receptor 1 (IFN- γ R1) and extracellular domains of two receptors 2 (IFN- γ R2). The receptor molecules contain one conserved glycosylation site, an extensive cation- π motif in the D1 domain [9], and highly conserved cysteine residues capable of forming three potential disulfide bonds in R1 [46] and two in R2. All these signatures rank IFN- γ receptors into the class II receptor family with two fibronectin type III domains labeled D1 and D2 [47]. The intracellular part of receptors exhibits conserved potential phosphorylation sites. The phosphorylation sites are targeted by Jak1, Protein kinase C [48,49] and STAT1 [50] in the IFN- γ R1, and by Jak2 [51] and leucine-leucine internalization motif in the IFN- γ R2 [52].

Isoforms of interferon- γ receptors 1 and 2 were described in goldfish (*Carassius auratus* L.), zebrafish [40,53], rainbow trout, and stickleback (*Gasterosteus aculeatus*) [54]. Phylogenetic analysis places the teleost IFN- γ R1 receptors separately from those of higher vertebrates and further still from IFN- γ R2 sequences. IFN- γ R1 exhibits higher expression levels than IFN- γ R2 and a significantly higher expression in macrophages than in other cell types. The expression of IFN- γ R2 is more tightly regulated than the expression of IFN- γ R1. IFN- γ R2 gene synteny shows a conserved locus containing four clustered genes coding for IFN- γ R2, interleukin 10 receptor beta (*IL-10RB*), interferon- α receptor 1 (*IFN- α R1*) and interferon- α receptor 2 (*IFN- α R2*) genes, similarly to the locus synteny in the human genome [54]. Two isoforms of IFN- γ R1, named IFN- γ R1-1 and IFN- γ R1-2, were described in zebrafish and goldfish. An expression analysis in zebrafish tissues showed a significantly higher expression of IFN- γ R1-1 than IFN- γ R1-2, in goldfish there was a high expression of IFN- γ R1-1 in the kidney and spleen, but also a high expression of IFN- γ R1-2 in the brain [55]. Microscopy binding studies indicate that IFN- γ R1-1 binds to IFN- γ 1 but not to IFN- γ R2, and IFN- γ R1-2 preferentially binds to IFN- γ rel [55].

1.5. Subject of this study

Even though the fish type II interferon system is actively studied, its many important aspects are still unknown. This is especially true for the biophysical studies of complex interactions between different type II interferons and their receptors. Here we report a thorough phylogeny study of IFN- γ , its receptors, and their co-evolution in fish species based on the combination of sequence and structure-based bioinformatics. The bioinformatic results are discussed in the light of the determined crystal structure of IFN- γ from olive flounder (PDB code 6F1E), the low-resolution topologies obtained by Small Angle X-ray diffraction (SAXS), and the binding affinities between IFN- γ and receptors of three species.

2. Methods

2.1. Expression and purification of recombinant IFN- γ proteins

Genes encoding for the interferon gamma proteins are detailed in [Supplementary Material Table S1a](#); they are *Takifugu rubripes* TruIFN- γ , Uniprot Q708J2, AA: 23–189; *Oreochromis niloticus* OniIFN- γ , I3KNL7, AA: 23–206; *Paralichthys olivaceus* PoliIFN- γ , B3IXK1, AA: 24–198; *Ctenopharyngodon idella* CidIFN- γ 2, gb AGG22551.1, AA: 26–182; *Epinephelus coioides* EcoiIFN- γ , gb AFM31242.1, AA: 22–200; *Larimichthys crocea* LcroIFN- γ , gb AIZ77177.1, AA: 22–200; variant of PoliIFN- γ ΔR with the C terminal deletion AA: 24–187. The genes were modified by a restriction enzyme site removal and optimization, obtained as DNA Strings (Thermo Fisher Scientific, [Table S1a](#)), and cloned to pET26b using restriction free cloning [56] or Transfer-PCR [57] in the position of *NdeI* and *XhoI*. All primers are listed in [Table S1b](#). All used clones were verified by sequencing and single colony isolates were isolated by QIAprep[®] Miniprep Kit and used to transform expression hosts *E. coli* Rosetta[™](DE3). Expression plasmids with OniIFN- γ , TruIFN- γ and PoliIFN- γ were deposited in Addgene plasmid repository (<https://www.addgene.org/>) under IDs 107287, 107288 and 107289 respectively. The cultures were grown in LB medium (1.0% tryptone, 0.5% yeast extract, 1.0% sodium chloride; pH 7.0) supplemented by trace elements TE (1 mM MgSO₄, 0.3 mM CaCl₂, 170 μM EDTA, 30 μM FeCl₃, 6 μM ZnCl₂, 1 μM CuCl₂, 0.3 μM CoCl₂, 1 μM H₃BO₃, 70 nM MnCl₂) in 5 L Erlenmeyer flasks with 1 L of LBTE medium in Max Q 4000 shaker, Barnstead, Lab-Line (250 rpm, 30 °C). Heterologous expression was induced by 1 mM IPTG at OD₆₀₀ of 0.6, the expression temperature was lowered to 16 °C and growth continued for 16 h. Cells were harvested by centrifugation (5000 g, 10 min, 4 °C) and stored in –20 °C for further use. Two-step purifications of interferons were based on SP Sepharose and gel filtration chromatography providing usually 10 mg/L of single band purity protein. Cells were disintegrated by sonication (Sonicator 3000, Misonix, 15–20 W) in buffer, (phosphate buffer saline, PBS: 137 mM NaCl, 2.7 mM KCl, 10 mM Na₂HPO₄, 1.8 mM KH₂PO₄) treated with 5 U/ml Benzonase[®] Nuclease, centrifuged (40 000 g, 4 °C, 30 min), and loaded on a HiTrap SP HP 5 ml (Ge Healthcare) column. Elution was performed by gradient 0–2 M NaCl (200 mM Na₂HPO₄, 50 mM NaH₂PO₄, 2 mM EDTA, 4 mM benzamidine, pH 7.3). Fractions with IFN- γ (eluted by high salt over 1 M NaCl) were immediately pooled and loaded on a HiLoad 16/600 Superdex 75 gel chromatography column pre-equilibrated in citrate buffer (100 mM, pH 6.0). All operations were performed on a NGC Chromatography system (Bio-Rad). The purified proteins were concentrated by Vivaspin Protein Concentrator Spin Columns to 10 mg/ml and directly used for crystallization or biophysical measurements. Identities of all expressed proteins were verified by mass spectrometry.

2.2. PoliIFN- γ protein crystallization and data collection

Crystals of PoliIFN- γ ([Fig. S1](#)) were grown using the hanging-drop vapor-diffusion method in a Greiner pre-greased 24 well Combo Plate with reservoir solution (optimized screen condition Index HT A9,

Table 1

Data processing statistics and structure refinement parameters. Values in parentheses refer to the highest resolution shell.

| | Native dataset | Selenourea soak |
|--|---|---|
| PDB code | 6F1E | not deposited |
| Data processing statistics | | |
| Wavelength (Å) | 0.91841 | 0.97934 |
| Space group | P2 ₁ 2 ₁ 2 ₁ | P2 ₁ 2 ₁ 2 ₁ |
| Unit-cell parameters a, b, c (Å); α , β , γ (°) | 78.1, 78.1, 441.8 | 57.7, 83.0, 95.1 |
| Resolution range (Å) | 47.30–2.30 (2.38–2.30) | 49.31–2.29 (2.37–2.29) |
| No. of observations | 260,836 (24,236) | 674,517 (57,880) |
| No. of unique reflections | 20,255 (2032) | 21,043 (1892) |
| Data completeness (%) | 99.6 (97.4) | 99.1 (92.1) |
| Average redundancy | 12.9 (11.9) | 32.1 (30.6) |
| Average I/ σ (I) | 13.5 (0.9) | 18.9 (2.3) |
| Solvent content (%) | 64.2 | |
| Matthews coefficient (Å ³ /Da) | 3.4 | |
| Rmerge | 0.102 (2.711) | 0.138 (1.806) |
| Rpim | 0.042 (1.163) | 0.034 (0.455) |
| CC1/2 | 0.999 (0.559) | 0.999 (0.737) |
| Structure refinement parameters | | |
| Rwork | 0.227 | |
| Rfree | 0.297 | |
| Rall | 0.229 | |
| Average B-factor (Å ²) | 78 | |
| RMSD bond lengths from ideal (Å) | 0.014 | |
| RMSD bond angles from ideal (°) | 1.599 | |
| Number of non-hydrogen atoms | 2286 | |
| Number of water molecules | 38 | |
| Ramachandran statistics: residues in favored regions (%); number of outliers | 100; 0 | |

Hampton research) consisting of 0.1 M Bis-Tris pH 5.5, 3 M NaCl and drops consisting mixture of 1 μl protein solution (10 mg/ml protein in 100 mM citrate buffer, pH 6.0) and 1 μl precipitant solution (the same as reservoir solution). After the growth during 2–3 days at ambient temperature (about 293 K), crystals were mounted in Round LithoLoops (Molecular Dimensions), some of them soaked with selenourea according to the method described previously [58], cryo-protected in 25% glycerol, and flash-cooled in liquid nitrogen.

The X-ray diffraction data were collected at 100 K on the beamline MX 14.1 of the BESSY II synchrotron-radiation source at the Helmholtz-Zentrum Berlin (HZB). A native data set was collected at a wavelength of 0.918 Å, anomalous dispersion data set from a crystal soaked with selenourea were collected at a wavelength of 0.979 Å. The diffraction data statistics are shown in [Table 1](#).

The PDB database (www.rcsb.org, [59]) was searched for the other IFN- γ structures using the Sequence & Structure Alignment and comparison tools; they are all mammalian: human, 1HIG [60], 1FG9 [5], 3BES [61]), rabbit *Oryctolagus cuniculus* 2RIG [62], and bovine *Bos taurus* 1D9C [63], 1RFB [64].

2.3. PoliIFN- γ data processing, structure determination and refinement

The diffraction data were processed using the XDS program package [65] and scaled using the program Aimless [66] from the CCP4 program package [67]. The positions of selenium atoms were found using the SHELX program package [68] using the data up to the resolution of 2.7 Å. Experimental phases were used in the program ARP/wARP [69] to build the initial model that was later used for structure determination using the native data set. Model building and manual corrections were performed using COOT [70], automated refinement procedures were performed using the program REFMAC [71]. The structure quality was

analyzed using MOLPROBITY [72]. The final structure parameters are shown in Table 1. The coordinates and structure factors have been deposited in the PDB [59] with the accession code 6F1E.

2.4. Expression and purification of recombinant IFN- γ receptor proteins

The extracellular parts of IFN- γ receptors of *P. olivaceus*, *T. rubripes*, and *O. niloticus* were produced by the Drosophila S2 expression system. The complete gene sequences, which were characterized in most cases as a putative protein, were acquired from the GenBank database, manually inspected by global alignments, shortened into extracellular parts only (chapter 2.8), and optimized for the *Drosophila* codons by the Life Technologies web optimization service. DNA Strings (Table S1a) were cloned into a modified pMT-BiP-V5-His A vector using Gibson assembly [73] in the position *Bgl*II and *Xho*I restriction sites (Tables S1a and S1b). This procedure leads to the IFN- γ R1 genes in frame with the BiP signal peptides and C-terminal 6x HisTags. *Drosophila* Schneider S2 cells were transfected by using Effectene Transfection Reagent (Qiagen) according to the manufacturer's instructions together with selection plasmid pCoBlast. Stable cell lines were established by growing the S2 cells in HyClone SFX Medium supplemented with 10% FBS and 25 μ g/ml Blasticidin S. The established cell lines were transferred and maintained in FBS-free SFX medium for expression batches. The protein expression was induced by addition of 1.0 mM CuSO₄. The cell-free medium (1 L) was prepared by centrifugation at 8000 g, 4 °C, 20 min and subsequently precipitated by addition of CaCl₂ to the final concentration of 5 mM, NiSO₄ (1 mM), NaCl (250 mM), and Tris-HCl, pH 8 (50 mM). This solution was centrifuged (10 000 g, 4 °C, 20 min) and filtered (0.45 μ m) prior to the IMAC purification by standard procedure. Eluted fractions (300 mM imidazole) were directly loaded on the HiLoad 16/600 Superdex 75 (GE Healthcare) equilibrated by 10 mM Hepes, pH 7.5; 100 mM NaCl buffer. The samples were analyzed by 12% SDS-PAGE and verified by mass spectrometry.

2.5. Protein glycosylation and disulfide bond analysis

The protein glycosylation and S-S bond formation were determined by protein trypsinization in solution or in 12% SDS-PAGE and subsequent analysis by MALDI-MS according to the previously published methods [9,74,75].

2.6. Biophysical measurements

Circular dichroism (CD) spectra were acquired on the Chirascan-plus spectrometer (Applied Photophysics) with wavelength steps of 1 nm (185–260 nm) at 20 °C, protein concentrations of 0.1 mg/ml; the buffer spectra were subtracted. Results were analyzed by the CDNN software [76]. Protein melting curves were recorded by detecting the change of the tryptophan fluorescence at 330 and 350 nm between 20 °C and 95 °C (step 1 °C/min) with protein concentrations 1–3 mg/ml using Prometheus NT.48 (NanoTemper Technologies). Affinity measurements were performed by MicroScale Thermophoresis (MST) using a Monolith NT.115 instrument by NanoTemper Technologies. The receptors for IFN- γ from different species were labeled by the Monolith His-Tag Labeling Kit RED-tris-NTA provided by NanoTemper Technologies according to manufacturer's instructions. The labeled proteins were measured in a citrate buffer pH 6.0 at concentration of 200 nM with ranging concentration of a ligand and MST power 20–80%. Data from triplicates were analyzed by the MO.Affinity Analysis software version 2.1.2030.

2.7. Small angle X-ray diffraction experiments

The SAXS data were collected at the EMBL P12 beamline (DESY, Hamburg). Data were collected at 293.15 K at wavelength 1.24 Å with samples at four different concentrations. Sample to detector (PILATUS

2M, Dectris Ltd.) distance was 3.0 m, covering a scattering vector ($q = 4\pi\sin(\theta)/\lambda$) range from 0.0027 to 0.48 Å⁻¹. Data were collected, pre-processed and subtracted using the automated acquisition and analysis SAXS pipeline [77].

The scattering-derived parameters were determined using PRIMUSqt r3709 [78], the pair-distance distribution function was determined using GNOM v4.6. [79]. The similarities of SAXS profiles were evaluated by the SIBYLS Beamline workflow (http://sibyls.als.lbl.gov/saxs_similarity/).

2.8. Sequence based bioinformatics

The known sequences of IFN- γ and IFN- γ receptors were downloaded from the NCBI Protein, UniProt and Ensembl databases (<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/protein/>, <http://www.uniprot.org/>, <http://www.ensembl.org/>). The resulting set of sequences was used for pBLAST and tBLASTn (<https://blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Blast.cgi>, [80]) search of homologous proteins in bony fish species (taxid 7898). Multiple rounds of BLAST were performed in an iterative fashion: we started with sequences annotated as IFN- γ (IFN- γ R1, IFN- γ R2), and in each subsequent round, newly identified sequences with E-value above threshold 0.01 were added to the dataset and used for the next round of search. The procedure stopped when no yet unobserved sequences were found. In case the BLAST hit was genomic DNA without annotation, the genes and their products were predicted using the Exonerate software (version 2.2.0) [81]. Genes for fish IFN- γ R2 were also identified among fish genomic sequences available at the NCBI Sequence Viewer 3.22.0 (<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/projects/sviewer/>) taking advantage of their clustering with better annotated genes of the transmembrane protein 50B (*TMEM50B*). The sequences of the prospective IFN- γ and receptor proteins were manually checked and those that were truncated, duplicate or probably incorrectly based on alignment analysis were removed; the resulting list of the genes accepted for the analysis is provided in Supplementary Table S2a, the discarded ones in Table S3. Sequences from *Lepisosteus oculatus* (*Holoste*i) were added to the datasets as outgroups, because *Holoste*i diverged from the teleostean fish before the occurrence of the last, teleost-specific WGD.

The extracellular domains of IFN- γ R1 and IFN- γ R2 were predicted by the alignment using Muscle version 3.8.31 [82] with the sequences of human receptors and further validated by transmembrane helix localization by the TMHMM Server v. 2.0 [83] and by the SignalP 4.1 Server [84] (CBS Prediction Servers).

For phylogenetic analysis, the sequences of IFN- γ and the extracellular domains of IFN- γ receptors were aligned by Muscle version 3.8.31. Four sequences of IFN- γ (AHZ62713.1, KKF32167.1, XP_008399113.1, XP_014906354.1) were aligned separately from the rest because of their low sequence homology and added to the alignment using the Muscle “-profile” option. Aligned sequences were trimmed automatically by the trimAl tool (version 1.2rev59) with “-strict” option [85]. Phylogenetic trees were constructed by Bayesian inference using MrBayes 3.2.6 [86] with the best fitting model of evolution chosen by ProtTest 3.4.2 [87], and by a maximum likelihood approach using the online version of PhyML 3.0, (<http://www.atgc-montpellier.fr/phyml/>, [88]) with the substitution model selected by SMS [89] according to BIC, BIONJ starting tree, the NNI type of tree improvement and branch supports computed by aLRT SH-like. The trees were visualized and edited using FigTree (<http://tree.bio.ed.ac.uk/software/figtree/>) and TreeGraph 2 [90]. The similarities between results obtained by the different tree inference methods were computed by Compare2Trees, version September 2011 [91].

Coevolution between IFN- γ and its receptors was tested using the Parafit function [92] from the R package ape [93] with 999 permutations and the Cailliez correction for negative eigenvalues. Associations between all pairs of protein molecules coming from the same organism were tested. Results were visualized using the R package phytools [94]. Coevolution at amino acid level for IFN- γ and IFN- γ R1 was investigated

using the i-COMS web-server [95] with MI, plmDCA, and mfDCA statistics. Multiple sequence alignments used as input were generated by Muscle from previously gained sequences according to i-COMS format requirements.

2.9. Structural bioinformatics

Structural comparisons and root-mean-square deviation (RMSD) values were calculated by MatchMaker as implemented in the UCSF Chimera software [96] with the Needleman-Wunsch algorithm and BLOSUM62 matrix. We used the BLOSUM 45–60, BLOSUM 80, and PAM matrices for very dissimilar or short sequences according to the Pearson rules [97,98]. The starting model for homology modeling was prepared by USF Chimera, the models were calculated by Modeller 9.19 [99,100] and the resulting structural alignment was used for the phylogeny study complemented by protein sequences of all known IFN- γ and receptor structures. The topology of the disulfide bonds was used as constraints for the modeling. To remove the effect of different mutual orientation of D1 and D2 domains of the extracellular parts of the receptors [9], the domains were modeled and aligned separately by using the known structures of the receptors [5,9,101]. For each sequence, two models were generated. Variable parts were re-modeled by the loop-refinement tool in Chimera and the DOPE-HR protocol [102].

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Summary of results

Fish IFN- γ were produced in *E. coli*, purified (Supplementary Fig. S1), characterized (Supplementary Figs. S2a and b), the crystal structure for PoliIFN- γ was solved at 2.3 Å resolution (PDB entry 6F1E, Fig. 1); the structures of other proteins were analyzed by the SAXS technique (Fig. S3). The phylogeny of IFN- γ and the receptors was subjected to comparison with fish evolution (Fig. 2) together with a further analysis of the components of the IFN- γ ternary complex: IFN- γ (chapter 3.3, Fig. 3 and Figs. S4a and b), IFN- γ R1 (chapter 3.4, Fig. 3 and Figs. S5a and b) and IFN- γ R2 (chapter 3.6, Fig. 3 and Figs. S6a and b). Fig. 4 displays the arrangement of gene clusters of IFN- γ and IFN- γ R2. Finally, we describe the molecular coevolution between IFN- γ and its receptors (chapter 3.5) based on phylogeny (Fig. 5) and our biophysical experiments (Fig. S7).

3.2. Structure of PoliIFN- γ and the related IFN- γ

The interferons- γ PoliIFN- γ , OnilIFN- γ , TrubIFN- γ and LcroIFN- γ were produced from *E. coli* Rosetta (DE3) without the use of affinity tags in contrast to the previous studies of fish interferon gamma with TrxA (pET-32a), or N-terminal His tag [34] [42]. The purification protocol was set up on a SP Sepharose anion column in a similar manner as for human IFN- γ (Fig. S1) [7]. This procedure was very efficient due to the extreme pI of fish interferons (10.5 for PoliIFN- γ) and led to the overall yield of approximately 20 mg per L of *E. coli* culture. No or poor expression was obtained for CidIFN- γ 2 and EcoiIFN- γ interferons. The PoliIFN- γ was also produced from S2 cells with some of the three potential glycosylation sites occupied by insect type of N-glycosylation, with a mass shift of approximately 3 kDa for monomer (SDS-PAGE analysis) but with very low yields (0.1 mg/L). Folding of all interferons was checked by CD spectroscopy and by measuring their melting temperatures (Fig. S2a).

Diffraction quality crystals were obtained only for PoliIFN- γ ; the final construct was shortened by 11 amino-acids at the C terminus to obtain better diffracting crystals. The other interferons were prone to form non-diffracting needle-like structures. The structure of PoliIFN- γ Δ R (GenBank: BAG50577.1 [103]) was solved at 2.3 Å resolution by experimental phasing on PoliIFN- γ (wild type, 2.7 Å) using the seleno-methionine labeling [58].

The PoliIFN- γ crystal structure is a homodimer with 175 amino-acids in each chain corresponding to the molecular weight of 2×20.4 kDa. The electron density map can be interpreted for 144 and 126 residues in chain A and B, respectively, both chains are quite similar with the root mean square deviation (RMSD) between 115 C α pairs 0.75 Å. The amino acid residues 91–110, insertion characteristic for IFN- γ proteins from *Acanthomorpha*, are not resolved in the electron density.

The overall fold of PoliIFN- γ is similar to the fold of other known IFN- γ structures but significant differences were observed (Fig. 1). Most importantly, the first monomer of PoliIFN- γ is not composed of six α -helices as in all other known IFN- γ structures, but of seven. The additional α -helix unobserved in mammalian IFN- γ was resolved close to the C-terminus of chain A, the corresponding residues in chain B are disordered. The presence of this α -helix, labeled G in Fig. 1, is interesting in the light of the previously published speculation [21] about the interaction between the C-terminal amino acids and the receptor 1. The helix G can therefore play a role in the IFN- γ - receptor interactions.

Another feature distinguishing the PoliIFN- γ structure from the

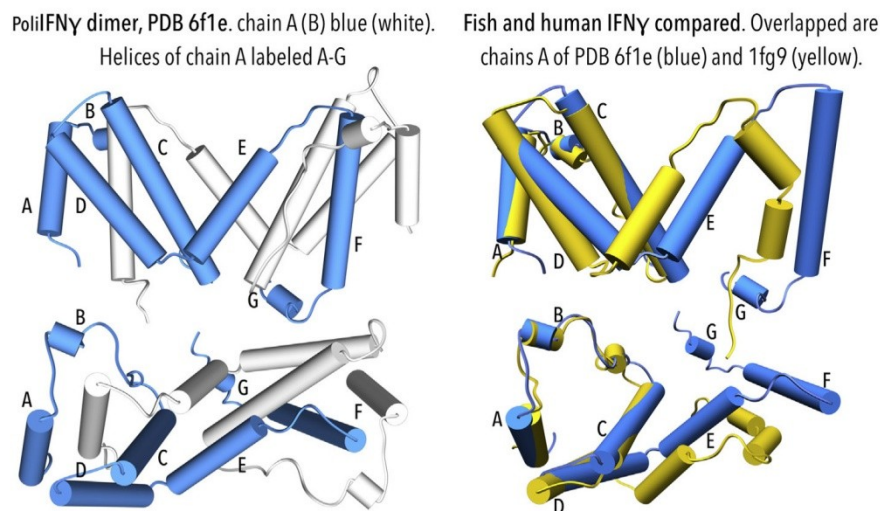


Fig. 1. Three-dimensional (3D) structure of the IFN- γ dimer from *Paralichthys olivaceus* (PoliIFN- γ , PDB 6f1e, this work, left), and the superposition of PoliIFN- γ and human IFN- γ (PDB 1FG9 [5], right). The α -helices are displayed as cylinders, top and bottom images are related by approximately 90° rotation.

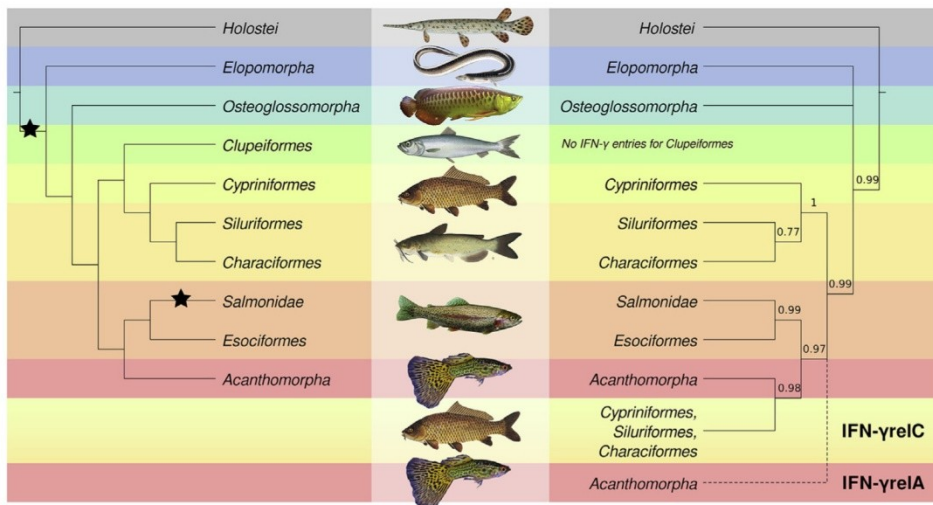


Fig. 2. Fish phylogeny (left, based on [104]) compared with the cladogram of fish IFN- γ and IFN- γ related proteins (right). Posterior probabilities of the internal branches computed by the MrBayes software are shown for the IFN- γ tree. Branches with posterior probability lower than 0.70 were collapsed. The position of the second cluster of *Acanthomorpha* sequences has low support and is thus unclear (marked by dashed line). The tree of fish phylogeny shows only orders with at least one representative of IFN- γ , IFN- γ R1, or IFN- γ R2 proteins in our set. There are no known IFN- γ , only IFN- γ R1 entries for *Clupeiformes*. The stars mark the position of teleost-specific and salmonid-specific whole genome duplications [20] [19]. Pictures (from top to bottom): *Holostei*: *Lepisosteus oculatus*; *Elopomorpha*: *Anguilla japonica*; *Osteoglossomorpha*: *Scleropages formosus*; *Clupeiformes*: *Clupea harengus*; *Cypriniformes*: *Cyprinus carpio*; *Siluriformes*: *Ictalurus punctatus*; *Salmonidae*: *Oncorhynchus mykiss*; *Acanthomorpha*: *Poecilia reticulata*; *Cypriniformes*: *Cyprinus carpio*; *Acanthomorpha*: *Poecilia reticulata*; all fish pictures from Wikimedia Commons, edited.

iformes: *Ictalurus punctatus*; *Salmonidae*: *Oncorhynchus mykiss*; *Acanthomorpha*: *Poecilia reticulata*; *Cypriniformes*: *Cyprinus carpio*; *Acanthomorpha*: *Poecilia reticulata*; all fish pictures from Wikimedia Commons, edited.

known mammalian IFN- γ structures is the mutual orientation of helices D and E (Fig. 1). Repositioning of these helices in PoliIFN- γ , relative to the other IFN- γ structures, opens up their angle by almost 20° and results in the extension of the PoliIFN- γ structure. In consequence, neither of the PoliIFN- γ chains can be superimposed over the other known IFN- γ structures; RMSD between chains A of PoliIFN- γ and 1FG9 is 8.2 Å, and 7.5 Å for 1D9C when 121 (113) pairs of C α atoms are considered. The close relationship between the IFN- γ molecules is observed when only the N-terminal helices A, B, C are superimposed; the RMSD values are 1.1 Å and 1.2 Å for the 40 C α pairs for 1FG9 (Fig. 1) and 1D9C, respectively. The use of the Smith-Waterman algorithm and PAM matrices resulted in the identification of additional similarity regions among structures in loops between helix E and the first part of helix F (RMSD 0.58 Å for 19 pairs). Interestingly, the PoliIFN- γ structure is more similar to the human IFN- γ bound to receptor 1 (1FG9, [5]) than to the free form (1HIG [60]).

We measured the SAXS data of the expressed IFN- γ proteins to visualize their low-resolution structures. A comparison of the SAXS derived molecular envelope of PoliIFN- γ in solution with its crystal structure displays a general agreement. The similarity of the SAXS derived molecular envelopes of PoliIFN- γ and the other expressed fish

IFN- γ proteins confirms that they all occur in solution as homodimers and it suggests their overall similarity (Fig. S3).

3.3. Evolution of IFN- γ and IFN- γ rel proteins

We performed an extensive manual and computer alignment-driven search for all available IFN- γ sequences in fish species in the NCBI Protein, UniProt and Ensembl databases. The search yielded 63 sequences of IFN- γ and IFN- γ related proteins (Table S2) from 44 fish species, 28 of which were previously not correctly annotated as IFN- γ or IFN- γ rel. One protein sequence was predicted by us from the genomic nucleotide sequence (Table S2b). The changes of annotations for all IFN- γ , IFN- γ R1 and IFN- γ R2 were recorded in Zebrafish Information Network (ZFIN, zfin.org) and were also submitted to the NCBI database. Based on our data, 18 new RefSeq database entries of IFN- γ and IFN- γ rel, 55 new RefSeqs of IFN- γ R1 and 30 new RefSeqs of IFN- γ R2 were created. They are marked by bold font in Supplementary Table S2a. The new nomenclature introduced by ZFIN is *ifng1* for IFN- γ gene and *ifng1r* for IFN- γ rel gene.

To uncover the evolutionary relationships between the retrieved IFN- γ sequences we conducted a phylogenetic analysis by the Bayesian

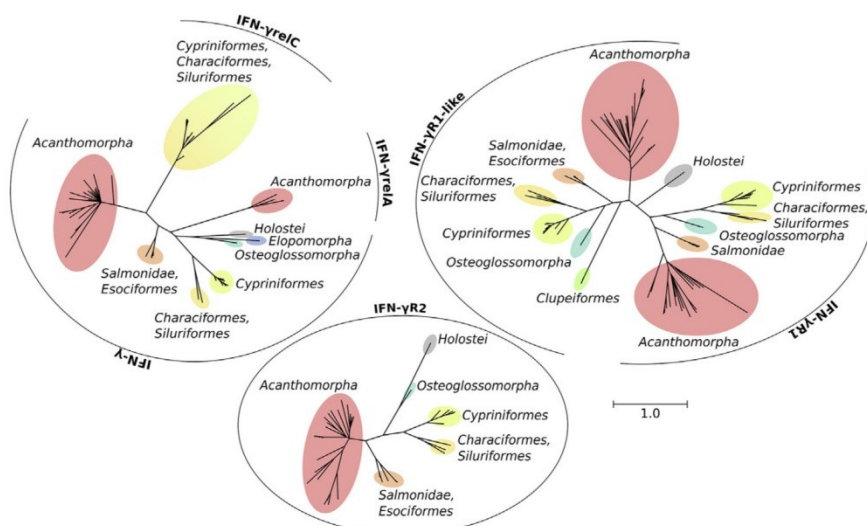


Fig. 3. Phylogeny of fish IFN- γ (top left), IFN- γ receptor 1 (top right) and IFN- γ receptor 2 (bottom). Branches with posterior probability lower than 0.5 were collapsed. The trees were computed by the Bayesian inference. Color scheme is analogous to Fig. 2. Details at the species level are given in Supplementary Figs. S4a and b; S5a, b and S6a, b. (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the Web version of this article.)

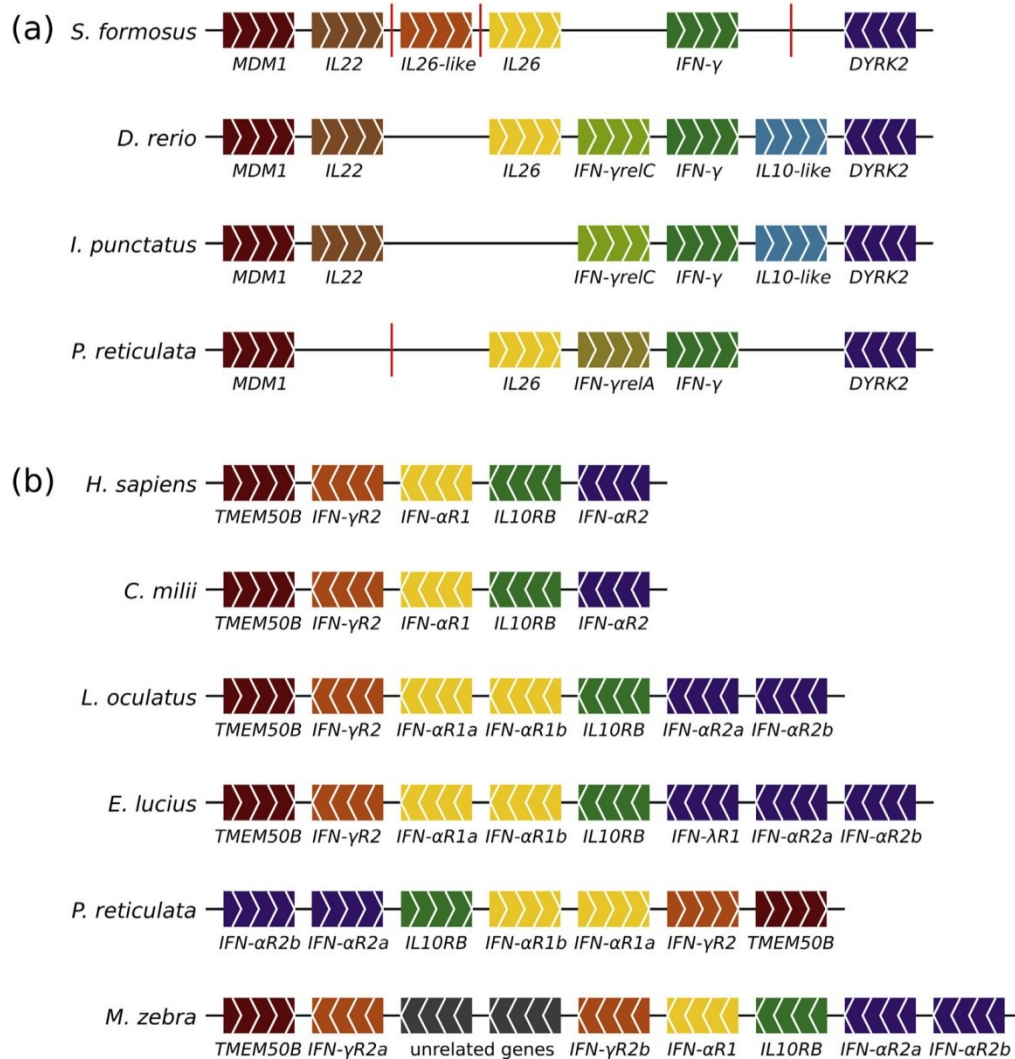


Fig. 4. *IFN- γ* and *IFN- γ receptor 2* gene clusters in different species, annotation according to the NCBI Sequence Viewer and mutual sequence homology. (a) *IFN- γ* genes in: *S. formosus*, Osteoglossomorpha; *D. rerio*, Cypriniformes; *I. punctatus*, Siluriformes; *P. reticulata*, Acanthomorpha. The cluster of *S. formosus* was constructed from two different scaffolds. (b) *IFN- γ R2* genes physically co-localized in *H. sapiens* and selected fish species: *Homo sapiens*; *Callorhynchus milii*, Chondrichthyes; *L. oculatus*, Holostei; *Esox lucius*, Esociformes; *P. reticulata*, Acanthomorpha, Cyprinodontiformes; *Maylandia zebra*, Acanthomorpha, Cichlidae. The *E. lucius IFN- α R1* gene likely belongs to the *IFN- α R2* family despite that it is annotated as interferon- λ receptor 1. The two grey colored genes in *M. zebra* genome are likely not analogous to any other gene in the cluster and the function of their products is unknown [107]. The white arrows mark the orientation of genes, the red vertical lines indicate that the genome sequence is incomplete in this position. The lengths of genes and intergenic regions are not to scale. Only protein-coding genes are shown. The exact genomic locations and the gene identifications are listed in Tables S4a and c. (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the Web version of this article.)

inference (Figs. 2 and 3 and Fig. S4a) and maximum likelihood methods (Fig. S4b) according to the previously published computations [105,106]. The topologies of the trees calculated by these two methods reflect fish phylogeny quite well and are quite similar. Differences were located only at the level of species and genera; the similarities were 84% for *IFN- γ* , 94% for *IFN- γ R1* (chapter 3.4), and 86% for *IFN- γ R2* (chapter 3.6). The phylogeny is summarized in Fig. 2, more details can be found in Figs. S4a, b, S5a, b (*IFN- γ R1*), and S6a, b (*IFN- γ R2*).

Fig. 3 summarizes our phylogenetic calculations of *IFN- γ* and its two receptors. The analysis shows clear separation of *IFN- γ* and *IFN- γ rel* into two clearly separated paralogs of human *IFN- γ* (“canonical *IFN- γ ””). *IFN- γ rel* then forms two distinct clusters - one comprises proteins of Cypriniformes, Siluriformes, and Characiformes orders (further referred to as *IFN- γ relC*), the other was detected in Acanthomorpha (*IFN- γ relA*).*

To test the possibility that *IFN- γ rel* proteins form two independent groups, we looked at the *IFN- γ* gene locus structure (Fig. 4a). In

genomes of *D. rerio* (Cypriniformes), *I. punctatus* (Siluriformes), *Astyanax mexicanus* (Characiformes) and *P. reticulata* (Acanthomorpha) the *IFN- γ* and *IFN- γ rel* genes are adjacent and in the same orientation (Fig. 4a – II–IV, data for *A. mexicanus* not shown), while there is no annotated gene in this location in the genome of *S. formosus* (Osteoglossomorpha) (Fig. 4a – I). This could be the result of three different scenarios: 1. The *IFN- γ* gene was duplicated once prior to the teleostean split and the second copy has been lost in *S. formosus*. 2. The *IFN- γ* gene was duplicated once after Osteoglossomorpha have diverged from the rest of teleosts. 3. The *IFN- γ rel* of Cypriniformes and *IFN- γ rel* of Acanthomorpha originated in two independent duplications of the *IFN- γ* gene. Further investigation is needed to decide, which of these hypotheses is true. The hypothesis of single *IFN- γ* gene duplication that occurred prior to the teleostean diversification [27] cannot be dismissed, because we could identify only 4 *IFN- γ relA* sequences that had a low sequence homology compared to the rest of the set and the position of their subtree (Fig. 3)

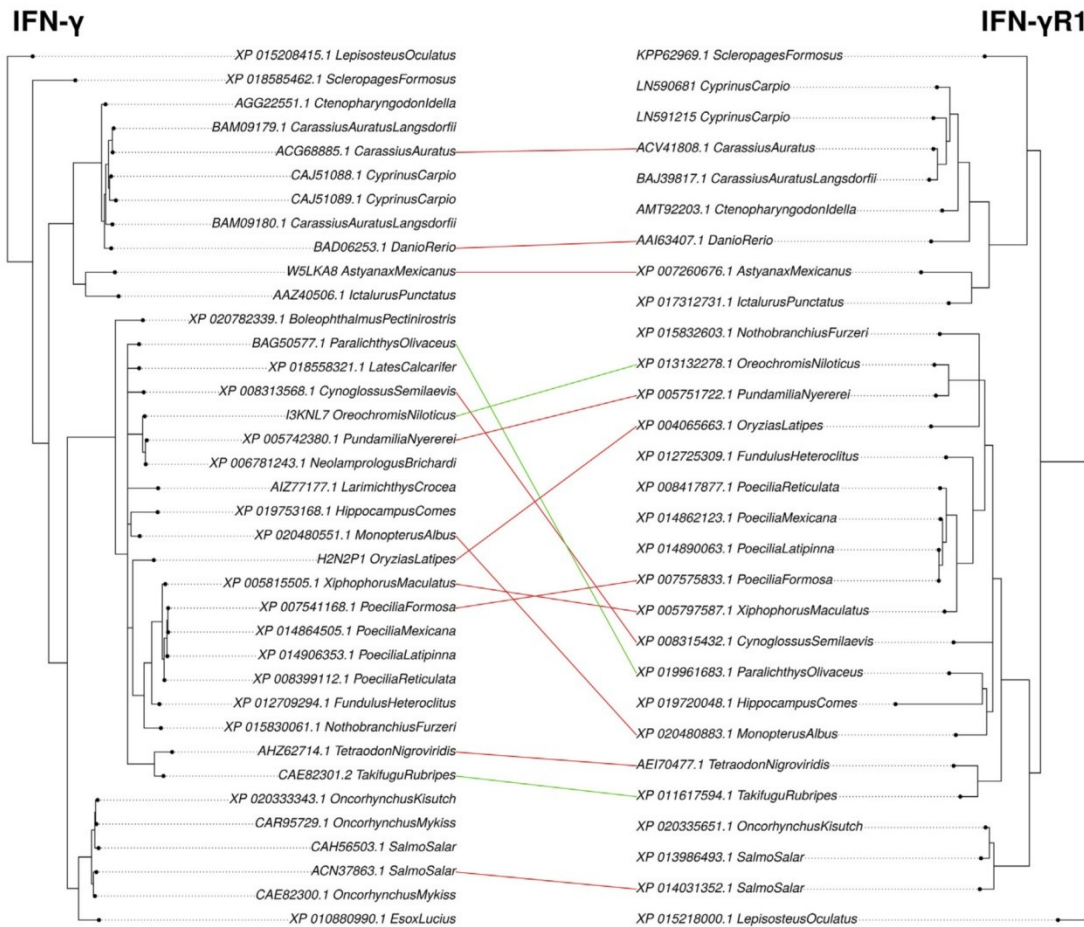


Fig. 5. The analysis of phylogenetic coevolution of IFN- γ (left) and IFN- γ R1 (right). Trees computed by the Bayesian inference were used, branches corresponding to IFN- γ relA and IFN- γ relC were removed from the IFN- γ tree. All links between the receptor and ligand from the same species were tested. Significant evolutionary links are shown as red lines. A link was considered significant if the p-value of both test statistics implemented in the Parafit function was lower than 0.1. Experimentally tested pairs of IFN- γ and IFN- γ R1 are shown as green lines; all three are not significant. (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the Web version of this article.)

had a low statistical weight. Also, the question remains whether all *Acanthomorpha* have the IFN- γ relA protein, or if it occurs only in some species from this largest group of present fish species.

Salmonidae fish also possess two different IFN- γ proteins. However, these proteins are highly similar (over 90% of amino acid identity for *O. mykiss* and *S. salar*) and thus form only one cluster in the phylogenetic tree (Figs. S4a and S4b). These proteins likely originated in the last whole genome duplication, which *Salmonidae* underwent approximately 96 Mya [22]. Similarly, two different sequences of IFN- γ and two sequences of IFN- γ rel in tetraploid *C. carpio* [23] result from the recent whole genome duplication (approx. 12 Mya) and a more recent wave of segment duplications (2.3–6.8 Mya).

3.4. Phylogeny of fish IFN- γ receptor 1

The database and BLAST search yielded 96 sequences of IFN- γ receptor 1 (Table S2a), 60 of them were previously not annotated as such. The sequences come from 44 different fish species, 32 of which were also represented by at least one representative in the IFN- γ dataset. Most of the species are represented by two distinct IFN- γ R1 protein sequences, the observation has already been published for *C. auratus* and *D. rerio* [55]. The available data indicate that the IFN- γ R1 protein is represented by two distinct genes in all fish orders except the evolutionary oldest one, *Holostei*. These two IFN- γ R1 proteins are not close isoforms; their overall amino acid identity is below 30% (Table 2).

Moreover, additional close IFN- γ R1 isoforms have been identified in the genome of *C. carpio* [108], *O. kisutch*, *Sinocyclocheilus grahami*, *S. anshuiensis*, *S. rhinoceros*, and *Clupea harengus*, in the first five cases probably as a result of duplication of the whole genome.

We performed a phylogenetic study for all found sequences of the extracellular domain of IFN- γ R1. Intracellular domains have been excluded from the comparison because of their low sequence homology. The IFN- γ R1 sequences are split into two independent clusters (Fig. 3, Figs. S5a and S5b), as expected from their low sequence homology. Further on, these two groups are named IFN- γ R1 and IFN- γ R1-like as in the ZFIN database. The genes of IFN- γ R1 and IFN- γ R1-like groups are located on different chromosomes in genomes of fish species spanning across the whole teleostean phylogenetic tree (Table S4b). Thus, it is likely that the origin of the second IFN- γ R1 copy lies in the teleost-specific whole genome duplication.

3.5. Coevolution between IFN- γ and IFN- γ receptors

Having two homologs of IFN- γ (canonical IFN- γ and IFN- γ rel) and two homologs of IFN- γ R1, a question arises what ligand-receptor pairs signal. The previous *in vitro* [55] and *in vivo* [53] results have suggested that canonical IFN- γ binds preferably to IFN- γ R1-like (designated also as Crfb13), but not to IFN- γ R1 (Crfb17), while both IFN- γ R1 and IFN- γ R1-like are important for IFN- γ relC signaling. We decided to test this hypothesis both programmatically by searching for the coevolution of

Table 2
Amino acid identity of the two distinct IFN- γ R1 receptors of selected fish species.

| Species | Order | IFN- γ R1 NCBI protein ID | IFN- γ R1-like NCBI protein ID | Amino acid identity % |
|--|--------------------------|-------------------------------------|--|--------------------------|
| <i>Scleropages formosus</i> | <i>Osteoglossomorpha</i> | KPP62969.1 | XP_018604991.1 | 28 |
| <i>Danio rerio</i> | <i>Cypriniformes</i> | AA163407.1 | NP_001165063.1 | 23 |
| <i>Ictalurus punctatus</i> | <i>Siluriformes</i> | XP_017312731.1 | XP_017319969.1 | 21 |
| <i>Oncorhynchus kisutch</i> ^a | <i>Salmonidae</i> | XP_020335651.1 | XP_020315962.1, XP_020315966.1 | 28/28 |
| <i>Poecilia reticulata</i> | <i>Acanthomorpha</i> | XP_008417877.1 | XP_008427408.1 | 27 |
| <i>Tetraodon nigroviridis</i> | <i>Acanthomorpha</i> | AEI70477.1 | AEI70478.1 | 25 |

^a The dataset contains three IFN- γ R1 sequences for *Oncorhynchus kisutch*. Two of them are highly similar, the amino acid identity indicates the similarity of the two close homologous sequences with the third one.

Table 3

The interaction affinities of the IFN- γ proteins and the extracellular parts of their receptors 1. The affinities were measured as equilibrium dissociation constants Kd by microscale thermophoresis. All interactions between IFN- γ and receptors 1 from different species have Kd values larger than 20 μ M. The previous SPR experiment with the human proteins determined the Kd value as 31 ± 1 nM [7].

| Interaction partners | Kd for IFN- γ R1 [nM] | Kd for IFN- γ R1-like [nM] |
|----------------------|------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| PolIFN- γ | 123 ± 15 | 321 ± 23 |
| TrubIFN- γ | 106 ± 8 | 384 ± 42 |
| OnilIFN- γ | 136 ± 8 | 317 ± 34 |
| humanIFN- γ | 41 ± 1 | – |

the receptor-ligand pairs, and experimentally by biophysical measurements of the equilibrium dissociation constants (Kd; Table 3 and Fig. S7).

We computationally tested the coevolution between: (i) IFN- γ and IFN- γ R1; (ii) IFN- γ and IFN- γ R1-like; (iii) IFN- γ relC and IFN- γ R1, and (iv) IFN- γ relC and IFN- γ R1-like. We also performed tests of coevolution between *Cypriniformes* IFN- γ and both IFN- γ R1 and IFN- γ R1-like to compare it with the results for IFN- γ relC. Similar tests for IFN- γ relA were not performed due to a low number of sequences (4) available for this group. IFN- γ showed no significant coevolution with either IFN- γ R1 or IFN- γ R1-like, however, the test statistics are much higher (and thus the proteins are more likely to have coevolved) for the relationship with IFN- γ R1 (p-value = 0.078 for IFN- γ R1; p-value = 0.421 for IFN- γ R1-like). In addition, no coevolving pairs were discovered for IFN- γ and IFN- γ R1-like proteins, while there were 11 significantly coevolving pairs observed for IFN- γ and IFN- γ R1 proteins (Fig. 5). IFN- γ relC shows significant coevolution with IFN- γ R1-like (p-value = 0.028), but not with IFN- γ R1 (p-value = 0.198), while *Cypriniformes* IFN- γ showed no significant coevolution with either IFN- γ R1 or IFN- γ R1-like. Our results are thus not in an agreement with the previous results [53,55], as they support the hypothesis that IFN- γ binds to IFN- γ R1, while the evolution of IFN- γ relC is driven mainly by its relation with IFN- γ R1-like.

The binding affinities between IFN- γ and receptor 1 were measured by microscale thermophoresis (MST). In agreement with our coevolution computations, the MST determined that Kd values show stronger binding between IFN- γ and receptors R1 with an average affinity around 100 nM (Table 3). The Kd of receptors R1-like proteins have significantly weaker binding affinities and Kd values above 300 nM (Table 3). However, the observed differences in Kd values are within one order of magnitude and can be overcome by avidity or concentration effects on the cell surfaces. Receptor concentration on the cell surface is not known and can differ significantly according to the cell type or cell's previous activation. Situation is even more complex if we take into account the function of the receptors. Receptors 1 (R1 and R1-like) serve as high affinity binders but the signalization is finally triggered by low affinity receptors 2. Therefore, the biological function may be determined not only by the affinities of receptor 1.

3.6. Phylogeny of fish IFN- γ receptor 2

At the time of this study, only three fish IFN- γ R2 proteins were annotated in the public databases (*L. oculatus*, *Holosteii*; *O. mykiss*, *Salmonidae*; *S. salar*, *Salmonidae*) and their sequential similarities were not sufficient to search for more IFN- γ R2 genes by BLAST. We therefore decided to search for potential IFN- γ R2 genes using their genomic location. In the human genome, the IFN- γ R2 gene is clustered with genes coding for *IFN- λ R2*, *IL10RB*, *IFN- λ R1* and the transmembrane protein 50B (*TMEM50B*) (Fig. 4b). The locus structure remains the same for cartilaginous fish *C. milii* (*Chondrichthyes*) and is very similar also in *L. oculatus* (*Holosteii*). Thus, we have benefited from the gene synteny and searched for the IFN- γ R2 gene in fish genomes using a better annotated gene *TMEM50B*. This procedure and the subsequent rounds of BLAST searches yielded 43 different IFN- γ R2 sequences coming from 38 fish species.

The structure of the IFN- γ R2 locus is quite diverse among different fish species (Fig. 4b). The phylogenetic trees of the extracellular domains of fish IFN- γ R2 computed by the Bayesian inference and maximum likelihood approach (Fig. 3, Figs. S6a and b) are almost identical (86% similarity, chapter 3.3) and both trees match almost exactly the evolution of fish. There are only two differences: (i) the presence of two distinct groups of *Salmonidae* IFN- γ R2, whose origin most probably lies in the Salmonid-specific whole-genome duplication, and (ii) the presence of two distinct IFN- γ R2 molecules for *Cichlidae* species (Table S3). The *Cichlidae* IFN- γ R2 proteins for *O. niloticus*, *Haplochromis burtoni*, and *M. zebra* are colocalized, possess over 90% amino acid identity, and form one cluster in the phylogenetic tree. Therefore, the two genes for IFN- γ R2 are likely the consequence of a recent gene duplication event.

The global test of coevolution of IFN- γ R2 with IFN- γ was not statistically significant (p-value 0.13), but this result is not surprising due to the low expected binding affinity between IFN- γ R2 and IFN- γ [109]. On the other hand, IFN- γ R2 seems to be coevolving with both IFN- γ R1 and IFN- γ R1-like (p-values 0.02 and 0.05). Our previously discussed data suggest that IFN- γ signals by interacting with IFN- γ R1 and IFN- γ rel signals by interacting with IFN- γ R1-like. The significant coevolution of IFN- γ R2 with both IFN- γ R1 and IFN- γ R1-like then implies that IFN- γ R2 is involved in signaling of both IFN- γ and IFN- γ rel. The promiscuity of the second receptor is a common feature for receptors of the closely related interleukin 10 family [109,110]. However, we cannot rule out the existence of the second IFN- γ R2 molecule if its gene was located in a different locus; in any case, this putative gene sequence would be dissimilar from sequences of the known IFN- γ R2. An indirect support for the existence of a second IFN- γ R2 are the previously published experimental results [53], according to which IFN- γ R2 (termed there Crfb6) is important for IFN- γ relC signaling, but not for IFN- γ signaling.

Our attempts to compute the receptor-ligand co-evolution at amino acids level by i-COMS web-server [95] and correlate its results with structural models failed. The majority of coevolving pairs were core-associated rather than intermolecular, which has been reported previously [111]. The coevolution between fish IFN- γ and its receptors is driven by frequent remodeling of the structure in the loop regions,

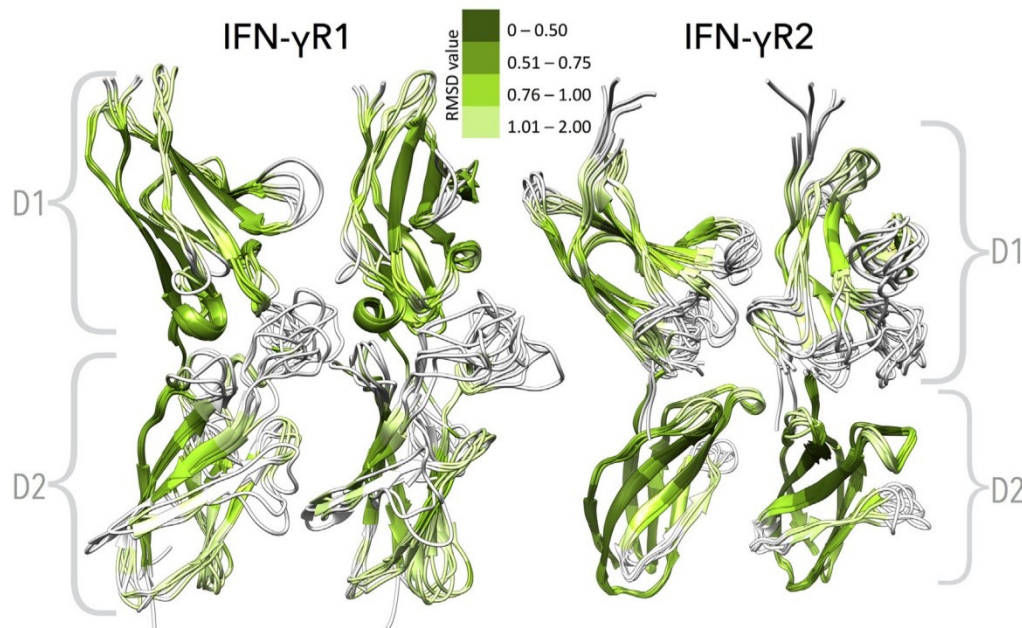


Fig. 6. Computer models of structures of the PoliIFN- γ R1, TrubiIFN- γ R1, OniIFN- γ R1 (a) and PoliIFN- γ R2, TrubiIFN- γ R2, OniIFN- γ R2 (b). The PoliIFN- γ R1 model was based on structure of the human receptor 1 (1FG9 [5]), PoliIFN- γ R2 model on structure of the human receptor 2 (5eh1 [9]). The RMSD color scheme shows the closeness of the modeled receptors to their respective template crystal structures. The models were built by minimization using the default setting in Chimera [96]. (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the Web version of this article.)

which is caused by insertions or deletions in the gene (Fig. S8).

3.7. Computer modeling of the structures of IFN- γ receptors 1 and 2 and their binding interfaces with IFN- γ

The molecules of IFN- γ receptors 1 and 2 are composed of two immunoglobulin-like β -sheet domains called D1 and D2, both with fibronectin type-III topology (Pfam PF00041) [5,9]. The topologies of both domains are well conserved among class 2 cytokine receptors [112] [113]. The D1 domains are composed of three β -strands stacked on a layer of four β -strands that form sandwich-like structure and are also characteristic by an extensive cation π -stacking motif and one structurally conserved S-S bond [9]. The D2 domains form a similar β -sandwich structure with four β -strands stacked on the remaining four β -strands. This core of the class 2 cytokine receptors is fairly uniform and our sequence alignments support their existence also in fish receptors.

Homologous models of the structures of IFN- γ receptors 1 and 2 (Fig. 6) were built for the expressed proteins from species *P. olivaceus*, *T. rubripes*, and *O. niloticus*. The models of IFN- γ R1 were computed based on the human (pdb 1FG9 [5]) and chicken (pdb 4EQ2, 4EQ3 [101]) structures of receptor 1 by using UCSF Chimera [96] and Modeller 9.19 [99,100]. The S-S bond formation patterns were used as constraints for the modeling (Fig. S2b). The models showed two expected Fibronectin type III domains with a majority of significant structural changes located in the loop L6 of the D2 domain (in 1FG9 residues 138–148). At the same time, the RMSD of the core parts of the compared proteins were below 1 Å. The structurally most variable part in our models of IFN- γ R1 corresponds to the loop L6, which forms the recognition interface with the IFN- γ loop AB and helices B and F'. This is consistent with the assumption that the IFN- γ /IFN- γ R1 recognition is controlled by the three loops located between the receptor 1 domains D1 and D2 [114] and by their mutual orientation [9]. We therefore assumed that the corresponding parts of the fish proteins contribute in a similar mutual position to the IFN- γ /R1 recognition.

Models of the second receptor IFN- γ R2 were generated by the same methodology, using the crystal structures of human IFN- γ R2 (pdb 5eh1

[9]) considering also IL10RB (pdb 3lqm [109]). In contrast to the IFN- γ R1 models, most structural changes in the models of IFN- γ R2 were identified in two D1 domain loops (residues 48–56, 70–81 in 5EH1).

4. Conclusions

Our bioinformatic analysis of IFN- γ and the extracellular parts of its two receptors disclosed unexpected diversity of sequences and revealed new attributes of evolution of this essential immunity signaling pathway in fish species. Our sequence database mining resulted in newly identified or annotated genes coding for the proteins participating in the IFN- γ signaling system: 28 IFN- γ and IFN- γ rel, 60 IFN- γ R1, and 40 IFN- γ R2. The phylogeny of IFN- γ protein genes confirmed the existence of a group of proteins closely related to but distinct from IFN- γ named IFN- γ rel. We discovered that there are likely two independent groups of IFN- γ rel proteins: IFN- γ relC occurring in *Cypriniiformes*, *Characiformes* and *Siluriformes* and IFN- γ relA occurring in *Acanthomorpha*.

Similarly to the existence of two groups of IFN- γ , the phylogeny and sequence alignments of IFN- γ receptors 1 manifest the existence of two independently evolving groups of genes labeled IFN- γ R1 and IFN- γ R1-like. The specificity of the binding between IFN- γ and the two types of IFN- γ R1 was tested computationally by the tightness of their coevolution, and by the biophysical measurements of affinities between pairs of these proteins from three fish species (Table 3). Our coevolution studies as well as the measurement of affinities show that IFN- γ has a higher affinity for IFN- γ R1 than for IFN- γ R1-like so that the latter molecule is likely diverging from the original function. In contrast to IFN- γ and IFN- γ R1, there is no sign of existence of two separate IFN- γ R2 genes. However, this possibility cannot be ruled out in case the gene for the putative second R2 group is dissimilar and located in a different locus.

In summary, we have shown that three functionally tightly linked molecules, IFN- γ , IFN- γ R1, and IFN- γ R2, have probably underwent distinct evolutionary events: (i) IFN- γ being duplicated independently in at least two groups of fish; (ii) IFN- γ R1 being duplicated once and preserved in both copies in all the descendants; (iii) IFN- γ R2 probably

not being duplicated at all. The differences between the IFN- γ signaling in fish and mammals are illustrated by the graphical abstract.

An independent insight into IFN- γ evolution has been achieved by solving the crystal structure of IFN- γ from *Paralichthis olivaceus*. The structure of the PDB accession code 6F1E was solved by selenourea experimental phasing and revealed a fold observed in IFN- γ molecules from mammalian species: a homodimer composed of two four helix bundles. The structure however shows significant differences. Most notably, one PoliiIFN- γ monomer exhibited an additional helix G at the C terminus and the dimer is more extended compared to the mammalian counterparts because the angle between helices C and D opens it up (Fig. 1). The information based on the crystal structure of PoliiIFN- γ was complemented by measuring the solution SAXS data of IFN- γ proteins from three fish species and confirmed the dimeric form and shapes compatible with the shape of the known IFN- γ crystal structures.

We believe that our phylogeny work and the solved crystal structure of PoliiIFN- γ helps the understanding of the complex phenomenon of IFN- γ evolution in fish species and of early stages of immunity development in vertebrates.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data related to this article can be found at <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.fsi.2018.05.008>.

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