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Received Date : 19-Apr-2020

Revised Date : 17-May-2020

Accepted Date : 01-Jun-2020

Article type : Research Letter

Crystal structure of the human NLRP9 pyrin domain suggests a distinct mode of inflammasome assembly

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This article has been accepted for publication and undergone full peer review but has not been through the copyediting, typesetting, pagination and proofreading process, which may lead to differences between this version and the <u>Version of Record</u>. Please cite this article as <u>doi:</u> 10.1002/1873-3468.13865

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Abbreviation GSH, glutathione; GST, glutathione S-transferase; PYD, pyrin domain.

Abstract

Inflammasomes are cytosolic multimeric signaling complexes of the innate immune system that induce activation of caspases. The NOD-like receptor NLRP9 recruits the adaptor protein ASC to form an ASC-dependent inflammasome to limit rotaviral replication in intestinal epithelial cells, but only little is known about the molecular mechanisms regulating and driving its assembly. Here, we present the crystal structure of the human NLRP9 pyrin domain. We show that NLRP9^{PYD} is not able to self-polymerize nor to nucleate ASC specks in HEK293T cells. Comparison with filament forming pyrin domains revealed that NLRP9^{PYD} adopts a conformation compatible with filament formation but several charge inversions of interfacing residues might cause repulsive effects that prohibit self-oligomerization. These results propose that inflammasome assembly of NLRP9 might differ largely from what we know of other inflammasomes.

Keywords: NLRP9; PYD; structure; filament; ASC specks; inflammasomes

Introduction

The innate immune system comprises germline-encoded pattern recognition receptors (PRRs) that have evolved to directly recognize a wide range of conserved pathogen-associated molecular patterns (PAMPs), danger-associated molecular patterns (DAMPs), and homeostasis-altering molecular processes (HAMPs)¹. They fulfill diverse functions with importance not only in pathogen recognition but also in tissue homeostasis, apoptosis, graft-versus-host disease, early development, and even negative regulation of inflammatory responses². In the human immune system, PRRs group into five families, including Toll-like receptors (TLRs), RIG-I-like receptors (RLRs), C-type lectin receptors (CLRs), AIM2-like receptors (ALRs), and NOD-like receptors (NLRs). Of these PRRs, ALRs and certain NLRs were found to oligomerize upon ligand stimulation and participate in the formation of cytosolic multimeric signaling complexes, called inflammasomes³. Canonical inflammasomes translate and amplify signals from the PRR via an adaptor protein to activate the downstream effector cysteine protease caspase-1, which in turn processes the highly proinflammatory cytokines pro-IL-1β and pro-IL-18 into their mature forms^{4,5}.

release of cytokines and pyroptotic cell death^{5,6}. Notably, signal amplification is facilitated by unified nucleation-driven polymerization of the individual inflammasome components^{7–9}. As an example, NLRP3 is an inflammasomal sensor protein that belongs to a subfamily of NLRs (termed NLRPs) containing an N-terminal pyrin domain. After an initial priming step and activation by a wide range of diverse stimuli, it recruits the bipartite protein 'apoptosis-associated speck-like protein containing a caspase recruitment domain' (ASC) as an adaptor for caspase-1 activation^{8,10–12}. NLRP3 polymerizes with its pyrin domain (PYD) to form the nucleation seed for ASC filament assembly using three major types of asymmetric interfaces, which has also been described for NLRP6 and AIM2^{7,13–15}. ASC filaments in turn nucleate the formation of large caspase-1 filaments by caspase activation and recruitment domain (CARD)/CARD interactions, which finally leads to proximity-induced autoproteolytic activation of caspase-1⁷. Therefore, inflammasome assembly significantly relies on homotypic interactions between PYD- and CARD-domains of the respective components.

A less studied member of the NLRP subfamily is NLRP9, which was first described as a maternal effect gene in bovine^{16–19}. Upon recognition of low molecular weight dsRNA by the endogenous RNA helicase DHX9, its mouse analogue NLRP9b was described to form an inflammasome with ASC and caspase-1^{20,21}. This inflammasomal complex mediates pyroptosis of intestinal epithelial cells, thereby limiting rotaviral replication in mice^{20,21}. Additionally, NLRP9b deficiency resulted in less pulmonary histopathological alterations in a mouse model of acute lung injury and markedly elevated proinflammatory cytokine and chemokine levels, as well as ROS production, in a LPS-activated mouse epithelial cell line²². Also, expression of NLRP9 in human intestinal epithelial cells and DHX9-dependent association with ASC upon stimulation with rotavirus could be shown²¹. Moreover, upregulation of expression was found upon inflammatory stimuli ROS and interferon-y in brain pericytes and cerebral endothelial cells, respectively^{23,24}. However, the role of human NLRP9 in innate immunity is not yet clarified and elucidation of its inflammasome function would be valuable. This holds particularly true, as alterations in NLRP9 expression were linked to several inflammatory diseases, including urothelial carcinoma, multiple sclerosis, juvenile idiopathic arthritis, familial late onset Alzheimer disease, and infection with Helicobacter pylori^{25–31}.

To gain first insights into NLRP9 inflammasome assembly, we expressed and purified recombinant human NLRP9^{PYD} and studied its capability to self-polymerize into filaments and nucleate ASC speck formation. We found that NLRP9^{PYD} exists as a monomer under near physiological conditions *in vitro* and in cells. In contrast to NLRP3^{PYD}, overexpression of murine or human NLRP9^{PYD} did not nucleate ASC speck formation in HEK293T cells. We determined the crystal structure of human NLRP9^{PYD} to study the molecular differences from filament forming pyrin domains and discuss its implications for the assembly of the NLRP9 inflammasome.

Materials and methods

Cloning, expression, and purification of the human NLRP9 pyrin domain

The coding sequence of a human NLRP9 cDNA clone (GenBank accession NM_176820) corresponding to residues 1–97 was amplified by PCR with specific oligonucleotides encompassing *Ncol/Eco*RI restriction sites at the 5' and 3' end, respectively. The DNA product was cloned into a modified pGEX-4T-1 vector carrying an N-terminal Glutathione S-Transferase (GST) tag for affinity purification followed by a tobacco etch virus (TEV) protease cleavage site. The expression construct was confirmed by DNA sequencing and transformed into *Escherichia coli* BL21(DE3) cells. Expression cultures were initially grown at 37°C in LB medium, supplemented with 100 mg/L Ampicillin. When OD_{600} reached 0.8, cells were cooled to 16°C before protein expression was induced by addition of 0.55 mM isopropyl- β -D-thiogalactopyranoside (IPTG). Bacteria were further grown over night at 16°C, harvested by centrifugation and stored at -80°C.

For purification, cells were resuspended in buffer A (50 mM HEPES pH 7.5, 150 mM NaCl and 10 mM β ME) containing 1 mM phenylmethylsulfonylfluoride (PMSF), and 1 mg/L DNAse I, and lysed by the addition of lysozyme and further sonication. The lysate was cleared from cell debris by centrifugation at 70,000 x g for 30 minutes. The protein containing an N-terminal GST tag was captured using a GSTrap column (GE Healthcare) and the unbound fraction was washed off with buffer B (50 mM HEPES pH 7.5, 300 mM NaCl, 10 mM β ME), followed by buffer A. After elution with buffer A containing 10 mM reduced glutathione, the GST tag was cleaved off overnight at 4°C by the addition of 1:100 w/w TEV protease. Protein was further purified using a Superdex 75 gel filtration column 16/600 (GE Healthcare) that was connected to a GSTrap column for prolonged retention of the cleaved GST tag and pre-equilibrated with buffer C (50 mM HEPES pH 7.5, 150 mM NaCl, 1 mM TCEP). Peak fractions containing NLRP9^{PYD} were pooled, concentrated to 31.7 mg/ml, snap frozen in liquid nitrogen, and stored at -80°C.

Crystallization and diffraction data collection

Protein solution was crystallized by the hanging drop vapor diffusion method at 15°C. Initial crystals were obtained by JCSG+ screen³² (0.2 M potassium formate, 20% PEG3350). The optimal hexagonal-shaped crystals were grown with 1:1 ratio of protein and precipitant solution by using 0.1 M Bicine pH 9.0, 0.2 M sodium thiocyanate, 0.1 M sodium formate, and 25-27% v/w PEG3350. Crystals were cryo-protected with 15% ethylene glycol in the mother-liquor and flash cooled in liquid nitrogen.

Data were collected at the synchrotron beamlines of Swiss Light Source (SLS) in Villigen,

Switzerland, and Deutsches Elektronen Synchrotron (DESY) in Hamburg, Germany. Presented diffraction data up to 1.95 Å resolution were collected from native crystals at 100K on the X-ray diffraction PX1 beamline using Eiger detector at SLS.

Data processing, structure determination and refinement

Data were processed and scaled using the XDS program package³³. The phase problem was solved by molecular replacement method³⁴ using program PHASER³⁵ and the coordinates of NLRP4^{PYD} (4EWI)³⁶ as a search model for the phase solution. The model was refined in alternating cycles of refinement with PHENIX³⁷. Manual rebuilding and visual comparisons were made using graphical program COOT³⁸. The stereo chemical quality of the model was verified using Ramachandran plot. Molecular diagrams were drawn using the PyMOL molecular graphics suite³⁹. The final model contains residues 9–97 and has been refined to R_{work} and R_{free} values of 21.5% and 22.2%, respectively. Details of the diffraction data collection, quality, and refinement statistics are given in Table 1. The atomic coordinates and structure factor amplitudes have been deposited in the Protein Data Bank with accession code 6Z2G.

Dynamic Light Scattering

The protein was diluted to 2 mg/ml in buffer C and prepared for dynamic light scattering (DLS) by centrifugation at 18,000 x g for 10 minutes. The supernatant was incubated for 11.5 h at 25°C and the size distribution of the sample was measured every 30 minutes using a DynaPro NanoStar (Wyatt Technology) set to an acquisition time of 3 seconds. Each data point was averaged from 20 DLS acquisitions. The cumulant analysis and calculation of the hydrodynamic radius (r_H) and molecular weight of the protein was automatically performed by the software supplied with the instrument (Dynamics 7.8.3).

Analytical gel filtration

50 µg of the protein that was prepared for dynamic light scattering was loaded before and after incubation for 12 h at 25°C onto a 1260 Infinity II LC system connected to a Superdex 75 analytical gel filtration column 3.2/300 (GE Healthcare) that was pre-equilibrated with buffer C. Gel filtration standard (BioRad) was used according to the manufacturer's instructions to calculate a standard curve and determine the molecular weight of the protein species.

Analysis of pyrin domain filament and ASC speck formation in cells

HEK293T cells or HEK293T cells stably expressing ASC-TagBFP under the CMV promoter (HEK293T^{ASC-BFP}) were seeded into 96 well plates and grown for 48 h. Per well, 200 ng of plasmid

DNA coding for the indicated fusion proteins or control was transfected with Lipofectamine 2000 according to manufacturer's instructions. 24 h after transfection, cells were fixed and simultaneously stained for nuclei using 4% formaldehyde plus 10 µM Draq5 diluted in PBS. Cells were imaged using a ZEISS Observer.Z1 epifluorescence microscope, equipped with 20x objective (dry, PlanApochromat, NA 0.8), Axiocam 506 mono, and software ZEN 2.3 Pro. For visualization, brightness and contrast were adjusted. Six images per experiment and condition were analyzed for filament or ASC speck formation using program CellProfiler⁴⁰. In total, 3338, 938, 2398, and 2794 HEK293T cells and 4549, 1628, 3593, and 5350 HEK293T^{ASC-BFP} cells positive for expression of either hNLRP3^{PYD}-mCitrine, hNLRP9^{PYD}-mCitrine, mNLRP9b^{PYD}-mCitrine, or the mCitrine vector control, respectively, were analyzed for filament and ASC speck formation. Plotting of graphs and calculation of statistics was performed using GraphPad Prism version 7.0e for Mac.

Results

Structure of the NLRP9 pyrin domain

NLRP9 consists of an N-terminal pyrin domain and a central NACHT domain similar to all NLRP proteins. The NACHT domain is directly followed by a C-terminal leucine rich repeat (LRR) domain that can be divided into a transition and a canonical LRR (Figure 1A). While the interplay of all different domains might be important for active inflammasome formation, pyrin domains of NLRP3, NLRP6, and AIM2 were found to form filaments and connect the inflammasome sensor with the adaptor protein ASC for caspase recruitment and activation^{13–15}. To study the inflammasome assembly of NLRP9, we expressed human NLRP9^{PYD} as a GST-fusion protein in *Escherichia coli*. The protein was purified to homogeneity by affinity chromatography followed by tag cleavage and size exclusion chromatography at near physiological buffer conditions. NLRP9^{PYD} was readily concentrated up to 120 mg/ml without precipitation or aggregation. Consequently, we crystallized NLRP9PYD for investigation of its structural features. Hexagonalshaped crystals appeared in 0.1 M Bicine pH 9.0, 0.2 M sodium thiocyanate, 0.1 M sodium formate, 25-27% PEG3350 and diffracted up to 1.95 Å resolution using the PX1 beamline and Eiger detector at SLS. Initial phases were obtained by molecular replacement using the coordinates of the NLRP4^{PYD} crystal structure³⁶ with 59.6% sequence identity as search model. The protein structure was refined to R_{work} of 21.5% and R_{free} of 22.2% with excellent stereochemistry (Table 1). In the protein crystal, one monomer of NLRP9PYD formed the

asymmetric unit (unit cell dimensions a = 33.33 Å, b = 33.33 Å, and c = 311.09 Å (Table 1)). In the final model of NLRP9^{PYD} residues 9-97 could be built into the electron density map (Figure 1B). The N-terminus region of the molecule that contributes to about 10% of the structure as well as several side chains facing towards solvent channels are disordered and could not be resolved by electron density, leading to a higher overall temperature factor of 68.96 Å² (Table 1, Figure 1B).

As other members of the death domain superfamily, NLRP9^{PYD} displayed six antiparallel helices, connected by five loops and arranged in the typical death domain fold⁴¹ (Figure 1B). The helices are formed by residues 10-15 (α 1), 20-31 (α 2), 44-47 (α 3), 52-62 (α 4), 66-78 (α 5), and 82-96 (α 6). Of note, α 3 is a short 3₁₀-helix. NLRP9^{PYD} contains polar residues at the surface, which were found to be of mainly basic character (Figure 1C). Residues with highest flexibility of backbone and sidechains were found at the N-terminus of $\alpha 1$, the C-terminus of $\alpha 6$, and within the $\alpha 2-\alpha 3$ loop (Figure 1D). In contrast, the overall fold of NLRP9^{PYD} is substantially stabilized by a central hydrophobic core with lower flexibility, which is formed by residues Leu15 of α 1, Leu18 in the α 1- α 2 loop, Phe26 and Leu30 of α 2, Ile42 in the α 2- α 3 loop, Leu47 of α 3, Ala50 in the α 3- α 4 loop, Val55 and Leu59 of α 4, Leu75 and Phe76 of α 5, Ile79 in the α 5- α 6 loop, and Leu84 of α 6 (Figure 1D, E). Hydrophobicity of the majority of those residues positioned in the central core of NLRP9^{PYD} was found to be conserved among other pyrin domains (Figure 3A), confirming their importance for domain stability. Similarly, the $\alpha 2 - \alpha 3$ loop is stabilized by a second hydrophobic, but more flexible cluster formed by residues Leu34, Phe37, and Leu39 in the $\alpha 2-\alpha 3$ loop, Tyr63 in the $\alpha 4$ - $\alpha 5$ loop, and Val71 of $\alpha 5$ (Figure 1E). The determined distribution of regions with lower and higher flexibility is equivalent for pyrin domains of other NLRPs⁴²⁻⁴⁴. However, the overall flexibility was found to be significantly higher in NLRP9^{PYD}, which prompted our further investigations.

NLRP9^{PYD} is monomeric and does not self-polymerize *in vitro*

Since pyrin domains of NLRP3, NLRP6, and AIM2 are able to form filaments^{13–15}, we asked whether NLRP9^{PYD} would also feature such ability. Our initial investigations by electron microscopy revealed that the protein did not tend to form filamentous structures under the tested conditions *in vitro*. Therefore, we set out to analyze its size distribution and experimental molecular weight during a 12 h incubation period at 25°C using dynamic light scattering and analytical gel filtration (Figure 2). We found that during incubation NLRP9^{PYD} particles have a stable average hydrodynamic radius of 1.7 nm, corresponding to a molecular weight of approximately 12 kDa (Figure 2A). Consistently, analytical gel filtration time (Figure 2B, C).

Since the theoretical molecular weight of monomeric NLRP9^{PYD} is 11.96 kDa, we concluded that NLRP9^{PYD} is monomeric in solution and does not self-polymerize *in vitro*.

Comparison of NLRP9^{PYD} with filament forming pyrin domains

Using our structural data, we next tried to understand the inability of NLRP9PYD to form filaments on a molecular basis. To compare residues at positions that are typically involved in filament formation, we performed structure-based sequence alignments of the PYD of NLRP9 and the filament forming PYDs of NLRP3, NLRP6, AIM2, and ASC (Figure 3A). Assembly of pyrin domain filaments is dependent on the formation of three asymmetric interfaces, of which the type I interface mediates intra-strand interactions and type II and type III interfaces mediate inter-strand interactions^{7,13,15} (Figure 3B). We supposed, that residues located in such interfaces and matching by charge or hydrophobicity in NLRP3, NLRP6, AIM2 or ASC pyrin domains might be mismatching in NLRP9^{PYD}. Indeed, we found several charge inversions in the proposed interfaces of NLRP9^{PYD} compared to the other four PYDs, such as Asp8, Lys16, Arg19, Lys20, Glu46, Lys48, Lys57, and Lys61 as well as charge insertions of otherwise hydrophobic residues, such as Glu28 and Glu53. Additionally, Phe9 and Trp24 were found as large hydrophobic insertions (Figure 3A). Although, the presumed mismatches could compensate each other in the interfaces, we speculate that some of them might disrupt NLRP9^{PYD} filament formation. Of note, NLRP3^{PYD}, NLRP6^{PYD}, AIM2^{PYD}, and ASC^{PYD} displayed sequence identities of 28.7%, 26.4%, 25.0% and 21.8% with NLRP9^{PYD}, respectively (residues 8-94, Figure 3A).

Given that pyrin domains can undergo large conformational changes upon formation of the filament^{7,13,15}, also residues outside of binding interfaces have to be considered for further analysis, since they might limit NLRP9^{PYD} to conformations incompatible with filament formation. In pyrin domains of NLRP6 and ASC, the position and rotation of the flexible $\alpha 2-\alpha 3$ loop together with its connecting $\alpha 2$ - and $\alpha 3$ -helices were found to undergo most prominent changes on filament formation^{7,15}. Therefore, we analyzed those regions in the NLRP9^{PYD} structure and asked whether they would be able to adopt the filament conformation without steric hinderance. For this purpose, we overlaid NLRP9^{PYD} to superimpose better with the structure of NLRP6^{PYD} (Figure 3C). Unexpectedly, we found NLRP9^{PYD} to superimpose better with the structure of NLRP6^{PYD} from the filament (RMSD of 1.2 Å) as if compared with monomeric NLRP6^{PYD} (RMSD of 1.6 Å). Indeed, especially the conformation of the $\alpha 2-\alpha 3$ loop region of NLRP9^{PYD} is highly similar to the filamentous NLRP6^{PYD} (Figure 3C). To further validate this finding, we aligned NLRP9^{PYD} with the less related monomeric and filamentous AIM2^{PYD} (Figure 3D), and ASC^{PYD} (Figure 3E). They superimposed to RMSD values of 1.1 Å and 1.7 Å for AIM2^{PYD}, and to 1.3 Å and 1.5 Å for ASC^{PYD}, respectively. However, intuitively the appearance of the $\alpha 2-\alpha 3$ loop region of NLRP9^{PYD}.

seems to resemble the conformations of filamentous AIM2^{PYD} and ASC^{PYD}. Taken together, we assume that monomeric NLRP9^{PYD} already exists in a conformation compatible with filament formation. Since NLRP3^{PYD} showed the highest sequence identity with NLRP9^{PYD}, we also compared the conformations of both monomers (Figure 3F). Interestingly, they superimposed to RMSD of 1.0 Å and the structure of NLRP3^{PYD} closely resembled NLRP9^{PYD}. Therefore, NLRP9^{PYD} and NLRP3^{PYD} are not only related by sequence but also by conformation.

NLRP9^{PYD} does not self-polymerize nor nucleate ASC speck formation in HEK293T cells

As our structural analysis did not reveal any characteristic of NLRP9^{PYD} conclusively explaining its inability to form filaments in vitro, we set out to validate its behavior in the more physiological setting of HEK293T cells by overexpressing human NLRP9PYD as mCitrine fusion protein. For comparison, we also overexpressed NLRP3PYD fusion protein as the closest relative forming filaments. Similar to what was demonstrated by Stutz et al¹⁴, in average 58.5 ± 4.7% of cells overexpressing NLRP3^{PYD}-mCitrine displayed large filaments with ring-shaped morphology (Figure 4A, B). In contrast, protein was found to diffusively locate within cells overexpressing NLRP9^{PYD}-mCitrine or mCitrine control under otherwise identical experimental conditions (Figure 4A). Significantly, no cells with filaments could be detected, thereby supporting our in vitro findings (Figure 2, 4B). Since NLRP9-dependent inflammasomes have been studied more extensively in the murine system²⁰⁻²², we also tested filament formation for murine NLRP9b^{PYD} fusion protein overexpressed in HEK293T cells. Given its relatively low sequence identity of 52.1% with human NLRP9^{PYD} (murine 1-91 versus human 1-94), we found it reasonable to anticipate murine NLRP9^{PYD} to potentially form filaments. Interestingly, we could not detect any filaments when overexpressing murine NLRP9PYD in HEK293T cells, similarly as observed for human NLRP9^{PYD} (Figure 4A, B).

In contrast, many ASC-dependent inflammasomes studied so far displayed filament formation of the pyrin effector domain^{13–15} and for NLRP3 it was also shown that mutations in its pyrin domain not only abrogated filament formation but also nucleation of ASC specks¹⁴. However, the ASC-dependent pyrin⁴⁵ or NLRP12^{46–48} inflammasomes are examples where no hints for filament formation of their respective effector domains were found. We therefore investigated the ability of NLRP9^{PYD} to nucleate ASC speck formation regardless of filament formation. To this end, the fusion proteins were overexpressed in HEK293T cells stably expressing ASC-BFP (HEK293T^{ASC-BFP}). First, we analyzed whether presence of ASC has any effects on filament formation and found no significant difference in the number of cells with filaments between HEK293T and HEK293T^{ASC-BFP} cells (Figure 4A, B). But interestingly, NLRP3^{PYD}-mCitrine filaments changed to a more star-like morphology with its centers co-

localizing with ASC specks (Figure 4A). Indeed, the number of cells with filaments ($65.1 \pm 7.4\%$, Figure 4B) clearly correlated with the number of cells that formed ASC specks ($64.6 \pm 4.8\%$, Figure 4C), which differed significantly from mCitrine control cells ($2.1 \pm 0.3\%$, Figure 4C). Importantly, when overexpressing human NLRP9^{PYD} or murine NLRP9b^{PYD}, the amounts of specking cells did not change significantly from the mCitrine control (Figure 4C).

To further investigate the differences between NLRP3 and NLRP9 and their impacts on filament formation and nucleation of ASC specks, we modelled one ring of the human NLRP3PYD filament and a hypothetical filament slice of human NLRP9PYD on the basis of the NLRP6PYD filament structure¹⁵ and used these to calculate APBS⁴⁹-generated surface electrostatics (Figure 4D). Although it is hardly possible to predict behavior from the electrostatic surfaces of proteins, it is apparent that many charged clusters in NLRP3PYD are found to be inversed in NLRP9PYD (Figure 4D). As assumed previously, such charge inversions or insertions might disrupt intra- and inter-strand interactions, since clusters of similar charge would come close in a potential NLRP9^{PYD} filament (Figure 4D, NLRP9^{PYD} top and bottom views). Additionally, Lys48 and Lys49 of different subunits would center at the inner core ring in the hypothetical NLRP9PYD filament (Figure 4D), which might cause strong repulsive forces, that are potentially not overcome by intraand inter-strand interactions and thereby would prohibit formation of a filament. Since we do not know the exact molecular mechanism of how nucleation of ASC specks is facilitated by pyrin domain filaments, hypotheses about NLRP9-dependent ASC speck formation are highly speculative. But considering our model would resemble an effectively formed NLRP9PYD filament, we were unable to find charge matching surface patches at interfacing positions (Figure 4D), thereby not excluding, e.g., potential hydrophobic interactions between NLRP9 and ASC pyrin domains. However, those findings are of rather low evidence and further research revealing the molecular mechanisms that effectively prevent filament formation and nucleation of ASC specks would be needed for definite conclusions.

Discussion

At present, there is only limited knowledge about the details of NLRP inflammasome assembly. Evidenced by structural studies of the NAIP/NLRC4 inflammasome^{50–53}, the topologically conserved NACHT and LRR domains are presumed to adopt a closed and inactive conformation and transit upon activation into an open conformation allowing for oligomerization and successive signal transduction. Such oligomerization events might include homotypic filament formation of

then accessible pyrin domains, as demonstrated by cellular and structural studies of NLRP3¹⁴ and NLRP6¹⁵. For NLRP6 it was additionally shown that such filaments in turn were sufficient to nucleate ASC polymerization¹⁵. We found that also in case of NLRP3, pyrin domain filaments are sufficient nucleators of ASC specks (Figure 4A). Yet, in contrast to NLRP3, our data also suggests that murine and human NLRP9^{PYD} does not self-polymerize into filaments, nor nucleate ASC speck formation in cells. This finding is contradictory with a previous study, showing NLRP9 to form an active inflammasome upon infection with rotavirus in the murine and human system²¹. Instead, our findings are reminiscent of a recent study on NLRP11, which was also shown to not interact with ASC but rather to repress NF-κB and type I interferon responses, two key innate immune pathways involved in inflammation⁵⁴.

Using X-ray crystallography, we determined the structure of human NLRP9^{PYD} and analyzed its characteristics on a molecular basis. We identified hydrophobic core residues to substantially stabilize the typical death domain fold of NLRP9^{PYD}, which are, in terms of hydrophobicity, conserved among the NLRP subfamily (Figure 3A). Additionally, we found a second hydrophobic cluster stabilizing the flexible $\alpha 2-\alpha 3$ loop region and thereby partially determining the conformation of NLRP9^{PYD}. Upon filament formation, NLRP6^{PYD} was shown to undergo large conformational changes especially in the $\alpha 2$ - $\alpha 3$ loop region¹⁵. Our data instead support the hypothesis that the conformation of monomeric NLRP9^{PYD} and NLRP3^{PYD} is already compatible with filament formation with respect to the $\alpha 2-\alpha 3$ loop and the conformation of the C-terminal helix. Therefore, we assume that the inability of NLRP9PYD to form filaments might not result from conformational restraints. Several residues were identified in comparison to filament forming pyrin domains, which are charge-inversed in NLRP9PYD and typically positioned on otherwise interface surfaces. The primarily basic character of the hypothetical NLRP9PYD filament inner core might cause repulsive forces that are not compensated by interfacing residues matching in charge, such that they most likely disrupt filament formation (Figure 4D). To validate this hypothesis, extensive mutational studies would be needed that will conclusively show this relationship.

In a previous study of the NLRP14^{PYD}, a cluster of three sites on the pyrin domain was identified, described as the Glu–Arg–Asp charge relay, that stabilizes the assembly between helices $\alpha 2$ and $\alpha 6$ and the loop preceding $\alpha 6$ through salt bridge formation⁵⁵. This pattern of charged residues is contained in the PYDs of NLRP3 and NLRP9 (E22–R81–D83) but not in NLRP14 were the central arginine is found to be a leucine. Accordingly, the loose coordination of $\alpha 6$ in NLRP14^{PYD} allows for the formation of a long $\alpha 5-\alpha 6$ stem helix that leads to a concentration dependent monomer-to-dimer transition of the PYD. Our observation of a completely monomeric behavior of NLRP9^{PYD} is in accordance with these descriptions and the stability of the PYD domain, although it does not explain its inability to form filaments.

Post-translational modifications (PTMs) were found to be a common mechanism for the regulation of inflammasomes⁵⁶ and other PRRs⁵⁷. The ability of NLRP3^{PYD} to form filaments is regulated by a single phosphorylation on Ser5, which prevents its oligomerization¹⁴. In turn, phosphorylation of Ser198 in NLRP3 was shown to be a pre-requisite for activation⁵⁸, indicating the delicate balance of inhibition and activation by PTM regulation. For NLRP9PYD, a single phosphorylation could turn the basic, repulsive core of the estimated filament into an associative interaction. Likewise, regulative interaction partners of NLRP9 might be missing in our experimental setup using recombinant proteins. For instance, Zhu et al. described the RNAhelicase DHX9 as a potential interaction partner of NLRP9 during infection of intestinal epithelial cells (IECs) with rotavirus, yet without investigating the detailed interacting domains²¹. We used HEK293T cells for our experiments, which are known to express DHX9, but potentially cotransfection of certain RNA might be necessary to stimulate the interaction with NLRP9^{PYD}. To exclude the need of further interaction partners not expressed in HEK293T cells, filament formation of NLRP9^{PYD} could be tested in organoid cultures of IECs. It is also possible that the pyrin domain of NLRP9 is not involved in oligomerization and active inflammasome formation. Alternatively, synergism with the NACHT or LRR domains might be needed to effectively form filaments. However, previous studies on different inflammasome effector domains^{13,9,15} as well as our own findings on NLRP3PYD showed their sufficiency in filament formation and inflammasome activation and thus argue against this hypothesis.

In summary, the mechanisms of NLRP9 inflammasome formation remain largely unknown. If filament formation of effector domains is a hallmark of active inflammasomes, it must be tightly regulated in NLRP9 and further research elucidating its molecular mechanisms would be valuable to enable strategies for therapeutic intervention in diseases associated with its dysregulation.

Acknowledgments

We would like to thank the beamline scientists at Swiss Light Source (Villigen) and Deutsches Elektronen Synchrotron (Hamburg) for support. We also thank Dr. Gabor Horvath from the core facility microscopy in Bonn and Tomasz Próchnicki for support with imaging of cells. M.G. and E.L. are funded by the Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft (DFG, German Research Foundation) under Germany's Excellence Strategy – EXC2151–390873048. This work was supported by a grant from the Else Kröner-Fresenius-Stiftung to M.G. (2014_A203).

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Table 1: Crystallographic data collection and refinement statistics.

Data collection		
	Space group	<i>P</i> 6 ₅ 22
	a, b, c (Å)	33.33, 33.33, 311.09
	Resolution (Å) ^a	28.74–1.95 (2.02–1.95)
	R _{merge} (%)	8.25 (98.49)
	Ι/σ (Ι)	18.58 (1.84)
	Completeness (%)	99.52 (99.23)
	CC _{1/2}	0.998 (0.916)
	Redundancy	22.3 (16.7)
	Refinement	
	Resolution (Å)	28.74–1.95
	No. reflections	14097
	R _{work} /R _{free} ^b	0.215/0.222
	No. atoms	
	Protein	772
	Water	17
	B-factors	
	Protein	68.96
	Water	75.60
	R.m.s deviations	
	Bond lengths (Å)	0.006
	Bond angles (°)	0.74
	Residues in Ramachandran	
	Favored regions (%)	98.86
	Allowed regions (%)	1.14
	PDB	
	Accession number	6Z2G

^a Values in parentheses are for the highest resolution shell.

^b R_{free}-value is equivalent to the R-value but is calculated for 5% of the reflections chosen at random and omitted from the refinement process.

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Figure Legends

Figure 1: Crystal structure of the human NLRP9 pyrin domain. (**A**) Cartoon of the human NLRP9 domain architecture. (**B**) Cartoon representation of the NLRP9^{PYD} crystal structure with six antiparallel helices and long $\alpha 2-\alpha 3$ loop, surrounded by detailed views of the respective residues fitted into the electron density map (2F_o-F_c map contoured at 1.0 sigma). (**C**) Color-coded electrostatic surface representation of NLRP9^{PYD} generated with APBS⁴⁹. Unit of the scale is k_BT/e_c. (**D**) Plot of individual B factors for each residue of NLRP9^{PYD}. Values for backbone (blue) and sidechains (red) were calculated separately. Sidechains without occupancy were excluded. Secondary structure elements of NLRP9^{PYD} are plotted above the corresponding residue numbers. (**E**) Bottom view of NLRP9^{PYD} (magnified and rotated by 90° about the x axis relative to B). Hydrophobic core residues stabilizing the six-helical fold in NLRP9^{PYD} are shown as pink sticks. A second hydrophobic cluster stabilizing the α2-α3 loop is shown as green sticks.

Figure 2: Molecular dispersion of recombinant NLRP9^{PYD}. (A) Hydrodynamic radius and corresponding molecular weight of NLRP9^{PYD} as determined by DLS. Sample was measured every 30 minutes during 11.5 h of incubation at 25°C. Data points are representative of three independent experiments. n = 3 ± SEM. (B) Representative elution profile from analytical size exclusion chromatography of NLRP9^{PYD} before and after 12 h of incubation time at 25°C. The void volume (v₀) and total volume (v_t) of the column are depicted as arrows. (C) Calculation of the molecular weight of NLRP9^{PYD} from the peak retention volume obtained by analytical size exclusion chromatography. The calibration curve was plotted using the partition coefficient (K_{av}) versus the logarithm of the molecular weight of a standard. Data points are representative of three independent experiments. n = 3 ± SEM.

Figure 3: Structural comparison of NLRP9^{PYD} with filament forming pyrin domains. (A) Structure-based sequence alignment of the PYD of NLRP9 and the filament forming PYDs of NLRP3, NLRP6, AIM2 and ASC. Asp8 was included in the alignment, since density of the mainchain could be seen at lower sigma level. For NLRP6, AIM2 and ASC the filament structures are known and the residues forming the asymmetric interfaces are highlighted with the indicated colors. Residues that form the hydrophobic core of NLRP9^{PYD} are shown in yellow boxes. Secondary structure elements of NLRP9^{PYD} are plotted above the corresponding sequence. (**B**) Chart of three flanking subunits in a typical PYD filament. They form unified type I, type II, and type III interfaces. Subunits are labelled lightblue, lightgreen and lightmagenta. (**C**) Overlay of the NLRP9^{PYD} crystal structure with the MBP-NLRP6^{PYD} crystal structure (6NDJ, chain A) and the NLRP6^{PYD} filament structure (6NCV). (**D**) Overlay of NLRP9^{PYD} with the MBP-AIM2^{PYD} crystal structure (3VD8) and the GFP-AIM2^{PYD} filament structure (6MB2). (**E**) Overlay of NLRP9^{PYD} with the monomeric ASC^{PYD} structure (1UCP) and the ASC^{PYD} filament structure (3J63). (**F**) Structural comparison of the NLRP9^{PYD} crystal structure with the NLRP9^{PYD} crystal structure (3QF2, chain A).

Analysis of PYD polymerization and ASC speck formation in cells. (A) Images Figure 4: of indicated mCitrine fusion proteins overexpressed in HEK293T or HEK293TASC-BFP cells. (*) Plasmid coding for mCitrine-HA was transfected as a control and due to IRES expression had to be imaged with higher exposure time. Bar, 10 µm. Images are representative of three independent experiments. (B) Quantification of mCitrine positive cells with filaments. Bars are representative of three independent experiments. $n = 3 \pm SEM$; ****, P < 0.0001 (two-way ANOVA followed by Holm-Sidak's multiple comparisons test). (C) Quantification of mCitrine positive cells with ASC speck. Bars are representative of three independent experiments. n = 3± SEM; ****, P < 0.0001 (ordinary one-way ANOVA followed by Holm-Sidak's multiple comparisons test). (D) Color-coded electrostatic surface representation of subunits of NLRP9^{PYD} and filament slices of NLRP3^{PYD}, ASC^{PYD}, and NLRP9^{PYD} generated with APBS⁴⁹. The filament slice of ASC^{PYD} was adapted from the ASC^{PYD} filament structure (3J63). Crystal structures of monomeric NLRP3PYD (3QF2) and NLRP9PYD were used to model slice representations of a NLRP3^{PYD} filament and a hypothetical NLRP9^{PYD} filament. Modelling was based on the filament structure of NLRP6PYD (6NCV). Bottom views represent a superjacent slice of the respective filament, that was rotated by 180° about the y-axis and mirrored horizontally to show interfacing regions in the filament at the same x/y coordinates of top and bottom views. Unit of the scale is k_BT/e_c .







