

Real-time dynamics of I κ B α degradation studied
with Kusabira-Orange 2 fusion proteins

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Preface

The nuclear factor- κ B (NF- κ B) consists of a family of transcription factors, which regulates diverse biological processes, including cell division, apoptosis and many aspects of immunological functions. In resting cells, NF- κ B is stabilized by association with its inhibitors of I κ B family, being I κ B α the major inhibitor protein. NF- κ B activation is initiated by a variety of stimuli such as pathogen associated molecules, cytokines and growth factors, which lead to activation of I κ B kinase complex (IKK). IKK in turn phosphorylates I κ B α , resulting in its degradation via the ubiquitin-mediated proteolytic pathway.

Pathological dysregulation of NF- κ B is linked to inflammatory and autoimmune diseases as well as cancers. In these conditions I κ B α is being continuously degraded. Although much has been learned about the biochemistry of I κ B α degradation, it is unclear what factors control the kinetics and endurance of this process. In order to address this, it is of practical importance to develop sensitive tools to monitor the signal-induced degradation of I κ B α in real-time in living cells.

Here, I proposed to develop fusion proteins of I κ B α and fluorescent protein monomeric Kusabira-Orange 2 (mKO2) to visualize the dynamic behavior of I κ B α degradation in real-time. The technique that has been described should provide a range of possible applications, for example the analysis of the dynamics and biochemical characteristics of I κ B α degradation as well as for drug screening of potential proteasomal inhibitors. Moreover, it could be very valuable for analysis of protein-protein interactions in solution using mKO2 fusion proteins.

In this thesis, therefore, I constructed genetically encoded fusion proteins of full-length or fragments of human I κ B α and mKO2 linked to its N terminus. Then, I have applied fluorescence based imaging to investigate the kinetics of the I κ B α degradation in living cells. I checked the potential of this tool in the evaluation of inhibitors targeting ubiquitin-proteasomal pathway. Finally, I used computational approach to generate models and constructed detailed molecular dynamics simulations of fusion proteins in explicit solvent to investigate the structure-activity relationship of the degradation process.

This dissertation consists of three parts. First, construction of recombinant vectors and *in vitro* evaluation of fusion proteins are shown in Chapter I. In Chapter II, kinetics of I κ B α degradation is investigated *in vitro* using HeLa cells. In Chapter III, structural properties of fusion proteins are analyzed using computational methods.

Studies in this dissertation demonstrate the development of fluorescent I κ B α fusion proteins and their application to investigate the degradation and kinetics of I κ B α in living cells as well as potential of this platform to be used as first-pass screening tool for inhibitors targeting NF- κ B pathway. This work is to the best of our knowledge original, except where acknowledgements and references were made to previous works. Neither this, nor any other considerably similar work has been or is being considered to any other degree or diploma at any other institution.

Background and Strategy

The NF- κ B transcription factor controls a range amount of target genes that play important role in cell survival, inflammation and immune system [1-3]. Initially NF- κ B was described as a DNA-binding protein with affinity to the kappa immunoglobulin-light chain enhancer in B cells [4]. Later studies revealed that NF- κ B activity is induced in almost all mammalian cell types and is involved in cellular responses to wide variety of stimuli, with important roles in cell division, regulation of apoptosis, growth factors and cytokine production, immune and inflammatory reactions [5, 6]. In mammalian cells, NF- κ B signaling system consists of homo- or heterodimers comprising at least five members – RelA (p65), RelB, c-Rel, p50/p105 (NF- κ B1) and p52/p100 (NF- κ B2). All NF- κ B family members share a highly conserved Rel homology domain (RHD) that is responsible for binding to κ B-site consensus sequence. In the resting cells, NF- κ B proteins are retained inactive in the cytosol by binding to inhibitory proteins known as I κ B, which are composed of multiple ankyrin (ANK) repeat domains [7, 8]. Most of I κ B proteins have 6-7 ANK repeats that each consists of 33 amino acid residues and forms antiparallel α -helices separated by a loop. This family of proteins include cytoplasmic canonical I κ B proteins, known as I κ B α , I κ B β and I κ B ϵ , which are present in the cytoplasm of unstimulated cells and undergo stimulus-induced degradation; precursor proteins, p100 and p105, which can form the NF- κ B family members p52 and p50, respectively, through their N-terminal segments; and nuclear I κ Bs I κ B ζ , Bcl-3 and I κ BNS, which are absent in resting cells and induced upon cell stimulation [9, 10].

Classical (or canonical) NF- κ B signaling pathway is shown in **Fig. 1**. Many different stimuli, such as pro-inflammatory cytokines, tumor necrosis factor α (TNF α), interleukin-1 β (IL-1 β), or Toll-like receptor (TLR) ligands activate the classical NF- κ B pathway and recruit receptor proximal adaptor proteins signaling to I κ B kinase complexes (IKK).

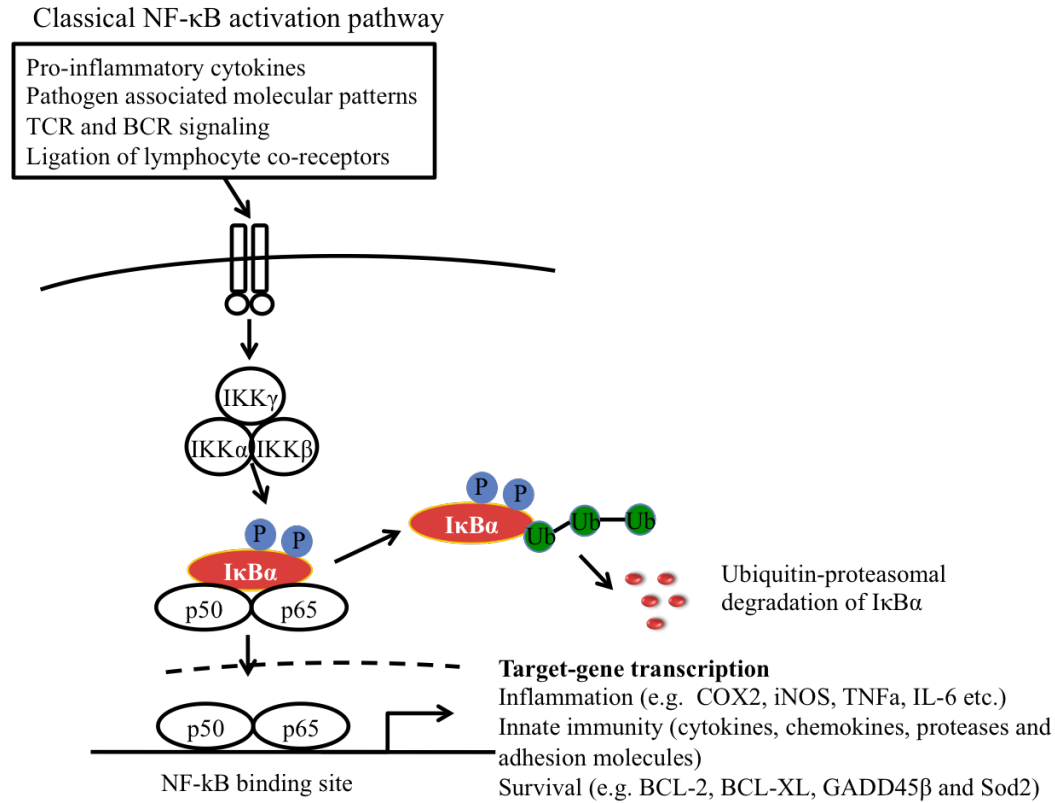


Fig. 1. Classical (or canonical) NF- κ B signaling pathway. NF- κ B dimers such as p50/p65 are maintained in the cytoplasm by interaction with inhibitory I κ B molecules (often I κ B α). Binding of a ligand to a cell surface receptor (e.g., TNF α or a TLR) recruits adaptors (e.g., TRAF and RIP) to the cytoplasmic domain of the receptor. In turn, these adaptors recruit an IKK complex onto the cytoplasmic adaptors (e.g., by ubiquitin-binding activity of NEMO). Activated IKK then phosphorylates I κ B α at two serine residues, which leads to its ubiquitination at two lysine residues and degradation by the proteasome. NF- κ B then translocates to the nucleus to activate target genes including I κ B α for auto-regulation.

IKK (essentially through IKK β) in turn phosphorylates I κ B α at serine 32 and 36, leading to polyubiquitination of lysine 21 and 22 by β -TrCP containing Skp1-Culin-Roc1/Rbx1/Hrt-1-F-box (SCF) E3 complexes and subsequent degradation by the 26S proteasome [11-13]. I κ B α degradation unmasks nuclear localization segment (NLS) of NF- κ B and allows released dimers to translocate into the nucleus and activate target genes [14]. Classical RelA/p50 heterodimers are predominantly regulated by I κ B α .

I κ B α regulation on NF- κ B transcription factor is very critical and misregulation of these proteins results in many different diseases [15]. For example, continuous activation of NF- κ B is observed in many types of cancers and malfunction of I κ B α is associated

with Hodgkin's lymphomas [16].

I κ B α is composed of a N-terminal region where the phosphorylation and ubiquitination occur; ANK repeats, which bind to NF- κ B, and C-terminal PEST sequence rich with proline, glutamic acid, serine and threonine residues [17, 18]. Moreover, this acidic PEST motif has been shown to be crucial for interactions with NF- κ B dimer and its subsequent removal from DNA [19-21]. ANK 5 and 6 of I κ B α are weakly folded and very dynamic, but they fold once bound to NF- κ B [22-24]. In contrast to stability in NF- κ B-bound state, free I κ B α is intrinsically unstable protein with half-life of less than 10 min. It was shown that basal degradation pathways of both free and bound I κ B α occur through the same signaling pathway without IKK phosphorylation, the C-terminal PEST sequence or poly-ubiquitination [25]. However, contrary to these findings, another study showed that degradation of bound I κ B α did not require IKK phosphorylation but require ubiquitination. Moreover, this work demonstrated that ubiquitination is necessary for the degradation of free I κ B α [26]. Free I κ B α turnover was demonstrated to involve casein kinase II mediated phosphorylation preferentially at C-terminal serine 293 and subsequent ubiquitination [27], but others reported that this occurs in signal-induced degradation of bound I κ B α [28] and ubiquitination is not required [29, 30]. These distinct degradation mechanisms for free and bound I κ B α appear to be critical for signal-induced NF- κ B activation. Given these contradictory results in the literature and the biological significance of I κ B α , I aimed to construct fusion proteins comprising full-length or fragments of human I κ B α and fluorescent protein mKO2 (mKO2-I κ B α) to study signal-induced degradation kinetics of I κ B α . I also generated fluorescent fusion proteins with mutant I κ B α to identify the involvement of different regions of I κ B α such as particular ANK repeats or PEST sequence in degradation process.

Fluorescent fusion protein technology and live cell imaging have provided the opportunity to observe intracellular events, to obtain spatial and temporal information of organelles and molecules, to conduct non-invasive assessments of molecular dynamics in living cells. It also allows for quick screening of new biological drug candidates. Recently, several works have utilized fluorescent proteins to track and report the dynamics of NF- κ B. Pro-inflammatory stimuli such as TNF α or hydrogen peroxide caused GFP labeled p105 to translocate to the nucleus in 20 minutes [31]. Fusion protein

of I κ B α -EGFP was shown to be rapidly degraded upon TNF α or phorbol myristate acetate triggered NF- κ B activation. Fluorescence resonance energy transfer (FRET) was used to analyze the interaction between p65 and I κ B α using GFP proteins with dual fluorescence properties [32]. EGFP labeled p65 fusion construct was used to investigate the kinetics of NF- κ B pathway in living cells upon the IL-1 β stimulation [33]. The expression levels of p65-EGFP was influencing factor for the kinetics of the response to the IL-1 β stimulation as well as for the NF- κ B-promoted anti-apoptotic effect. This fusion construct in addition to I κ B α was also used to investigate the shuttling mechanism of these proteins between nucleus and cytoplasm [34]. Recent study applied fluorescence imaging of p65 and I κ B α in combination with luminescence imaging of NF- κ B transcription process to investigate real-time kinetics of the NF- κ B dependent transcription. Recently, Sakaue-Sawamo et al. fused fluorescent protein with the optimal fragment of the cyclin-dependent kinase inhibitor p27, which degrades through ubiquitin-proteasome pathway in cell cycle dependent manner [35]. They demonstrated that the fusion protein degraded in cell cycle dependent manner. Although much has been clarified about the biochemistry of this signaling pathway, it is unclear what factors are responsible to the kinetics and endurance of the degradation process. To address this, it is of practical importance to develop sensitive tools to visualize the signaling pathway in real-time in living cells. In addition, I used computational approach to evaluate the effect of I κ B α mutations in NF- κ B binding and degradation.

Chapter I

Design and construction of fusion proteins composed of fluorescent mKO2 and I κ B α variants

I.1 Materials and Methods

I.1.1 Vector constructions

Fluorescent protein mKO2 (MBL) was PCR amplified using primers containing 5'NheI (GGAACCGCTAGCATGGTGAGTGTGATTAAACC) and 3'KpnI (AGAAGATGCAGTAGCTCATTGGTACCGCGGTA) sites, and digested products were cloned in-frame into the NheI/KpnI sites of pcDNA3.1 (Invitrogen) vector to generate pcDNA3.1-mKO2. The GS linker (GGGSx3; PBS-coupler1, Riken Bioresource Center) was amplified using primers containing 5'KpnI (AAAGGTACCAACCCCTCGAGGTCGACGGTAT) and 3'XbaI (TTGCTCTAGAACTAGTGGATCCCCGGGCT) sites, and digested products were cloned in-frame into KpnI/XbaI sites of pcDNA3.1-mKO2 to generate pcDNA3.1-mKO2-GS. The entire or numerous fragments of cDNA species of human I κ B α (Gene ID: 4792, Clone ID: RDB 6668, Riken) were amplified using primers containing 5'-EcoRI (AATTAAGAATTCTTCCAGGCGGCCGAGCGCC) and 3'-BamHI (TGTAGGATCCTGCACTCATAACGTCAGACGCTG) for I κ B α full length, 3'-BamHI (AGCAGCTCACCGAGGACGGGGGATCCATAATT) for I κ B α (1-74 aa), 3'-BamHI (GCTGTGATCCTGAGCTCCGAGGATCCGCAT) for I κ B α (1-140 aa) probes sites, and digested products were cloned in-frame into the EcoRI/BamHI sites of pcDNA3.1-mKO2-GS to generate pcDNA3.1-mKO2-GS-I κ B α , pcDNA3.1-mKO2-GS-I κ B α 74 (I κ B α 1-74 aa), pcDNA3.1-mKO2-GS-I κ B α 140 (I κ B α 1-140 aa). PEST domain was amplified using primers containing 5'BamHI (AATTGGATCCCAGATGCTGCCAGAGAGTGA) and 3'XbaI (GCCAGCGTCTGACGTTATGATCTAGAGGAA) sites, and digested products were cloned in-frame into the BamHI/XbaI sites of pcDNA3.1-mKO2-GS. Then fragments of cDNA species of human I κ B α were amplified using primers containing 5'EcoRI (AATTAAGAATTCTTCCAGGCGGCCGAGCGCC) and 3'BamHI (AGCAGCTCACCGAGGACGGGGGATCCATAATT) sites without stop codons, and digested products were cloned in-frame into the EcoRI/BamHI sites of pcDNA-mKO2-GS-PEST between GS and PEST, to generate pcDNA3.1-mKO2-GS-I κ B α 74-PEST (I κ B α 74-PEST Δ ANK1-6) and pcDNA3.1-mKO2-GS-I κ B α 140-PEST (I κ B α 140-PEST Δ ANK3-6) probes.

Human I κ B α sequence without PEST region 277 amino acids was amplified using primers containing 5'EcoRI (AATTAAGAATTCTTCCAGGCGGCCGAGCGCC) and 3'BamHI (GGCCGGATCCTTAAAGGTTTTCTAGTGTCAGCTGG) with added stop codon to generate pcDNA3.1-mKO2-GS-I κ B α 277(Δ PEST).

Colonies were screened for constructs via colony PCR followed by DNA sequencing. DNA from positive clones was purified using the Promega MiniPrep Kit according the manufacturer's protocol.

I.1.2 Cell culturing and transfections

HeLa cells (Riken Bioresource Center) were seeded one day before transfection at a density of 1.5×10^4 cells per well onto 8-well glass slide in 250 μ l of complete growth medium (DMEM + 10% Fetal Bovine Serum) under humidified atmosphere at 37°C, 5% CO₂, and reached 50–60% confluency at the time of transfection. Cells were transfected with plasmids using the FuGENE 6 transfection reagent (Roche Molecular Biochemicals) according to the instructions of the manufacturer (FUGENE6 transfection reagent (μ l) : pDNA (μ g) = 3:1).

I.1.3 Cell fixation

Forty-eight hours post transfection, cells were washed 3 times with PBS and fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde at room temperature for 15 min and subjected to microscopy.

I.1.4 Fluorescence microscopy

Fixed cells were visualized using Nikon Eclipse Ti inverted microscope equipped with A1R MP multiphoton confocal system (Nikon Instruments Inc., Tokyo, Japan). Images were processed with NIS-Elements AR acquisition and analysis software (Nikon Instruments Inc., Tokyo, Japan). Final arrangement of all images was performed using ImageJ software (National Institutes of Health, MD).

I.1.5 Western blotting

HeLa cells were grown to confluence in a 100 mm culture dish in 10% FBS/DMEM and were transiently transfected and cultured as described above. Forty-

eight hours after transfection, cells were washed with PBS. Cytosol and nuclear extracts were prepared using the Nuclear Extract Kit (Active Motif), subjected to SDS-PAGE and transferred onto PVDV membrane (GE Healthcare). Membranes were probed with anti-mKO2 (PM051, MBL) antibodies. Proteins were detected with goat-anti-rabbit IgG-HRP (sc-2004 Santa Cruz Biotechnology). Chemiluminescence was developed using Luminata Western Chemiluminescent HRP Substrates. Blots were visualized using ImageQuant LAS 4000 (GE Healthcare).

I.2 Results and Discussion

I.2.1 Development of degradable full length and partially modified mKO2-I κ B α fusion proteins

I constructed several vectors comprising fragments as well as full-length of human I κ B α protein fused to mKO2.

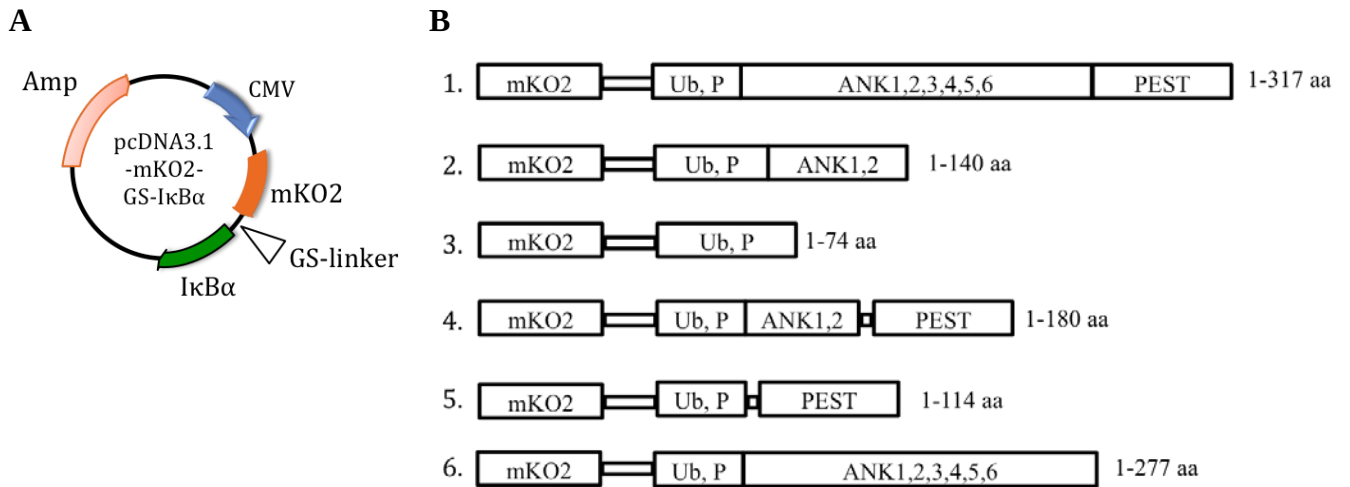


Fig. 2. Construction of various mKO2-I κ B α expression vectors. A) Schematic outline for the construction of vector pcDNA3.1-mKO2-GS-I κ B α . B) Overall strategy for development of fusion proteins with fragments of I κ B α protein (for description see Table 1). Amp, ampicillin resistance gene; CMV, cytomegalovirus promoter; mKO2, monomeric Kusabira orange 2 gene; I κ B α , human inhibitor of NF-kappa B alpha gene; PEST gene, sequence of proline, serine, threonine, aspartate, and glutamate residues; ANK, ankyrin repeat domain; Ub, P, ubiquitination and phosphorylation domain.

As fragments of I κ B α , I chose three domains: N terminal phosphorylation and ubiquitination domain (amino acids 21-36), ANK repeats 1 and 2 that are responsible for NF- κ B binding (amino acids 73-139) and C terminal PEST domain (amino acids 277-317). These domains were fused to mKO2 with GS linker in different combinations. Design of total six constructs is shown in **Fig. 2**. A nomenclature and description of vector constructs are shown in **Table 1**.

Table 1. Nomenclature and description of constructed vectors.

	Fusion protein name	Description
1	mKO2::I κ B α	mKO2 fused to full length I κ B α containing PEST domain
2	mKO2::I κ B α 140(I κ B α Δ ANK3-6,PEST)	mKO2 fused to N terminal ubiquitination-phosphorylation domain of I κ B α lacking ANK repeats 3, 4, 5, 6 and PEST domain.
3	mKO2::I κ B α 74(I κ B α Δ ANK1-6,PEST)	mKO2 fused to N terminal ubiquitination-phosphorylation domain of I κ B α lacking all six ANK repeats and PEST domain.
4	mKO2::I κ B α 140-PEST(I κ B α Δ ANK3-6)	mKO2 fused to N terminal ubiquitination-phosphorylation domain of I κ B α lacking ANK 3, 4, 5, 6 repeats.
5	mKO2::I κ B α 74-PEST(I κ B α Δ ANK1-6)	mKO2 fused to N terminal ubiquitination-phosphorylation domain of I κ B α lacking all six ANK repeats.
6	mKO2::I κ B α 277(I κ B α Δ PEST)	mKO2 fused to full length I κ B α lacking PEST domain.

A PCR product comprising the DNA sequence, which encoded the mKO2 (651 bp) was derived from PCR amplification and cloned into the pcDNA3.1 vector. Cloning was confirmed by Colony PCR as shown in **Fig. 3** and sequencing (data not shown). Next GS linker (GGGGS)₃x was amplified and cloned into pcDNA3.1-mKO2 vector. Cloning was confirmed by colony PCR and result is shown in **Fig. 4**.

To clone full length or fragments of human I κ B α protein, primers were picked up without start codon to ensure that the final protein will be expressed as a single fusion protein. For mKO2::I κ B α fusion protein full length I κ B α was amplified and cloned into

pcDNA3.1-mKO2-GS. For mKO2::IkB α 140(IkB α Δ ANK3-6,PEST) fusion protein N terminal 140 amino acid was amplified and cloned into pcDNA3.1-mKO2-GS. This fusion protein lacks ANK repeats 3,4,5,6 and C terminal PEST region of human IkB α . To generate mKO2::IkB α 74(IkB α Δ ANK1-6,PEST) fusion protein N terminal 74 amino acid was amplified and digested products were cloned into pcDNA3.1-mKO2-GS.

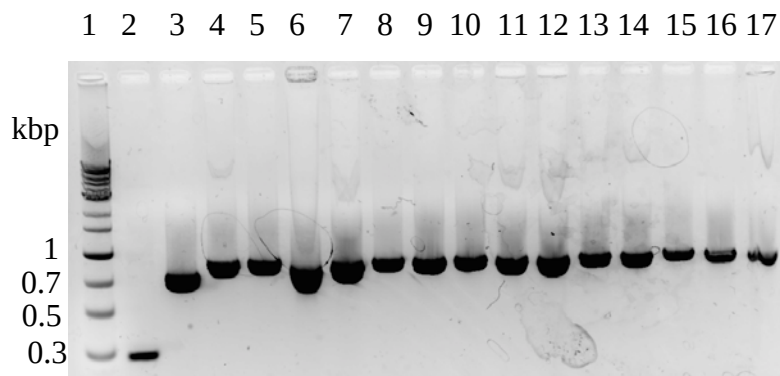


Fig. 3. Colony PCR results of mKO2 protein cloning region. The PCR products were electrophoresed on a 1.2% agarose gel containing Green Gel Wako at a final concentration of 0.02% (v/v). Lane 1 Marker 1 kbp (Nakalai); 2 Negative control (no DNA); 3 PCR positive control: original cloning vector insert size 678 bp. Colony PCR primers T7,BGH specific for pcDNA3.1. 4,5,8-17 positive colonies insert size 813 bp.

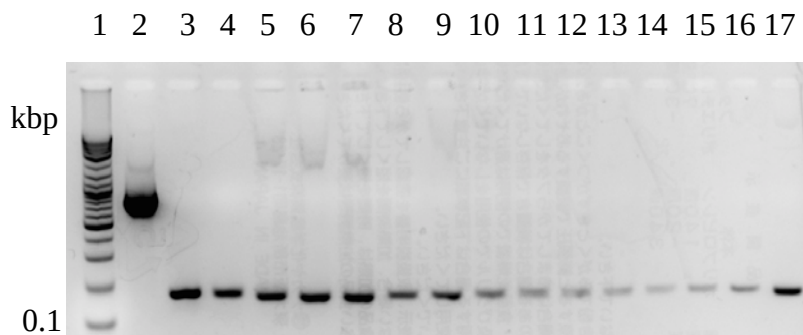


Fig. 4. Colony PCR analysis of positive mKO2::GS clone colonies. The PCR products were electrophoresed on a 1.2% agarose gel containing Green Gel Wako at a final concentration of 0.02% (v/v). Lane 1 Marker Broad Range (Nakalai); 2 PCR positive control Marker 1: colony PCR vectors for pcDNA3.1 T7,BGH; 3 PCR positive control for insert using same primers as in PCR amplification. 4-7, 17 positive colonies, insert size 125 bp.

This fusion protein lacks all six ANK repeats and C terminal region of human IkB α . Stop codons were inserted to the reverse primers for PCR amplification of fragments of

human $\text{I}\kappa\text{B}\alpha$. Colony PCR results for cloning $\text{mKO2}::\text{I}\kappa\text{B}\alpha$, $\text{mKO2}::\text{I}\kappa\text{B}\alpha140(\text{I}\kappa\text{B}\alpha\Delta\text{ANK3-6,PEST})$ and $\text{mKO2}::\text{I}\kappa\text{B}\alpha74(\text{I}\kappa\text{B}\alpha\Delta\text{ANK1-6,PEST})$ are shown in **Fig. 5**.

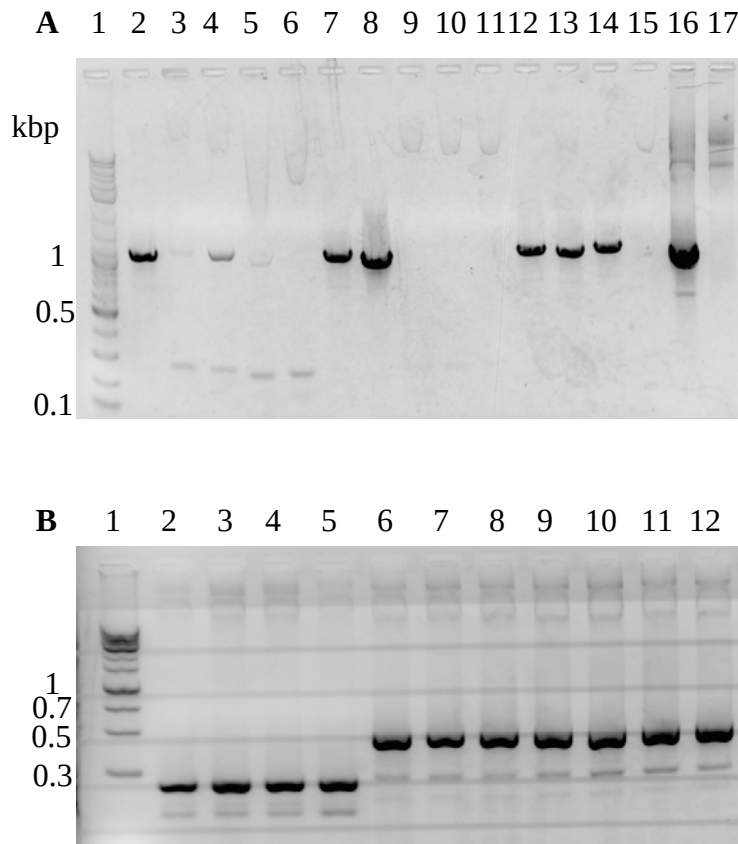


Fig. 5. Colony PCR analysis of (A) $\text{mKO2}::\text{I}\kappa\text{B}\alpha$ (full length), (B) $\text{mKO2}::\text{I}\kappa\text{B}\alpha74(\text{I}\kappa\text{B}\alpha\Delta\text{ANK1-6,PEST})$ and $\text{mKO2}::\text{I}\kappa\text{B}\alpha140(\text{I}\kappa\text{B}\alpha\Delta\text{ANK3-6,PEST})$ colonies. The PCR products were electrophoresed on a 1.2 % agarose gel containing Green Gel Wako at a final concentration of 0.02% (v/v). A: lane 1 Marker 1 kbp (Nakalai); 2 Positive control; 3 Negative control; 7,8, 12-14 positive colonies insert size 956 bp. B: lane 1 Marker 1 kbp DNA ladder One (Nakalai); 2-5 positive colonies of $\text{mKO2-GS-I}\kappa\text{B}\alpha74$ insert size 250 bp; 6-12 positive colonies of $\text{mKO2-GS-I}\kappa\text{B}\alpha140$ insert size 420 bp.

I observed that proteins $\text{mKO2}::\text{I}\kappa\text{B}\alpha140(\text{I}\kappa\text{B}\alpha\Delta\text{ANK3-6,PEST})$ containing phosphorylation-ubiquitination domain and ANK repeats 1-2, and $\text{mKO2}::\text{I}\kappa\text{B}\alpha74(\text{I}\kappa\text{B}\alpha\Delta\text{ANK1-6,PEST})$, which lacks ANK repeats 1-2 but contains only N-terminal phosphorylation-ubiquitination domain did not degrade upon pro-

inflammatory activation in HeLa cells (see Chapter II). I hypothesized that PEST might be required independently from ANK repeats for stimulus-induced degradation.

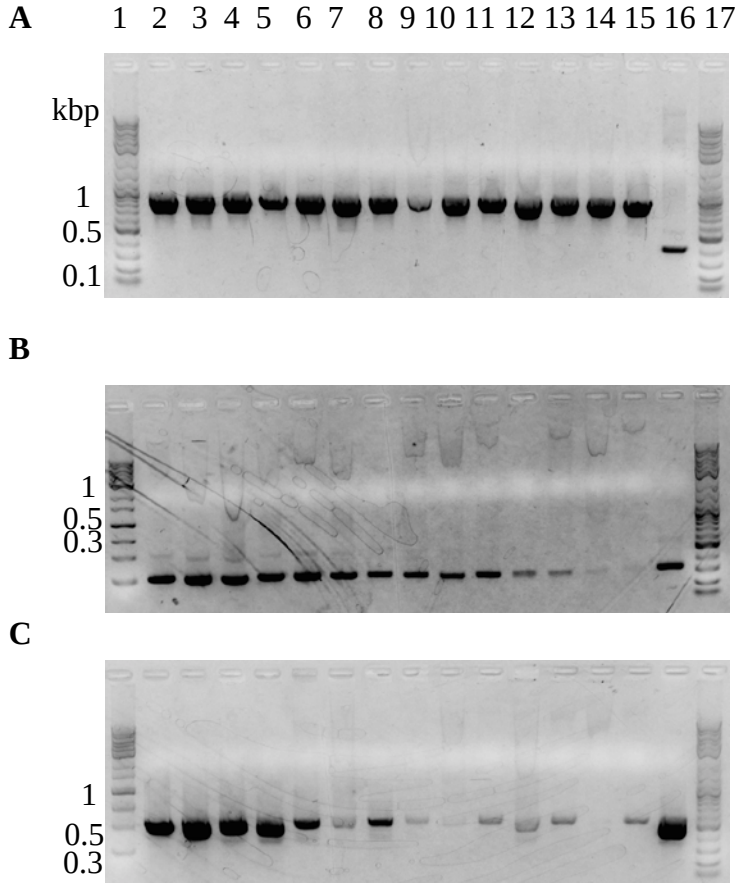


Fig. 6. Colony PCR analysis of mKO2::GS::PEST (A), mKO2::IkBα74-PEST(IκBαΔANK1-6) (B) and mKO2::IkBα140-PEST(IκBαΔANK3-6) (C) clones. The PCR products were electrophoresed on a 1.2 % agarose gel containing Green Gel Wako at a final concentration of 0.02% (v/v). A: lane 1, 17 Marker Broad Range (Nakalai); 2-8 and 10-15 positive colonies. Colony PCR primers used: F-TGGCTAGCATGGTGAGTGTG, R- GCTCGTCCTCTGTGAACTCC. Primers were generated with online software Primer3 Plus. Insert size 849 bp. B: lane 1 Marker 1 kbp (Nakalai); 2 positive control PCR sample; 3-11, 16 positive colonies; 17 Marker Broad Range (Nakalai). Insert size 310 bp. Primers were the same as used for PCR amplification. C: lane 1 Marker 1 kbp (Nakalai); 2 positive control; 3-6,8,16 positive colonies; 17 Marker Broad Range. Insert size 417 bp; Colony PCR primers were the same as used for amplification.

Therefore, to test this hypothesis I fused 40 amino acids PEST domain to the C-terminal of fusion proteins comprising fragments of I κ B α to generate mKO2::I κ B α 74-PEST(I κ B α Δ ANK1-6) and mKO2::I κ B α 140-PEST(I κ B α Δ ANK3-6).

C terminal 40 amino PEST region of human I κ B α was cloned in-frame into the BamHI/XbaI sites of pcDNA3.1-mKO2-GS to generate pcDNA3.1-mKO2-GS-PEST (**Fig. 6 A**). Then fragments of cDNA species of human I κ B α 1-74 aa and I κ B α 1-140 aa without start codons were cloned in-frame into the EcoRI/BamHI sites of pcDNA3.1-mKO2-GS-PEST between GS and PEST sites to generate mKO2::I κ B α 74-PEST(I κ B α Δ ANK1-6) (**Fig. 6 B**) and mKO2::I κ B α 140-PEST(I κ B α Δ ANK3-6) (**Fig. 6 C**) probes respectively. Subsequently, cloning was confirmed by colony PCR and DNA sequencing (**Fig. 6** and data not shown).

For construction of vector with full-length I κ B α , which lacks the PEST domain, fragment of cDNA species of human I κ B α (I κ B α 1-277 aa) with added stop codon were cloned in-frame into the EcoRI/BamHI sites of pcDNA3.1-mKO2-GS to generate mKO2::I κ B α 277(I κ B α Δ PEST) protein (**Fig. 7**).

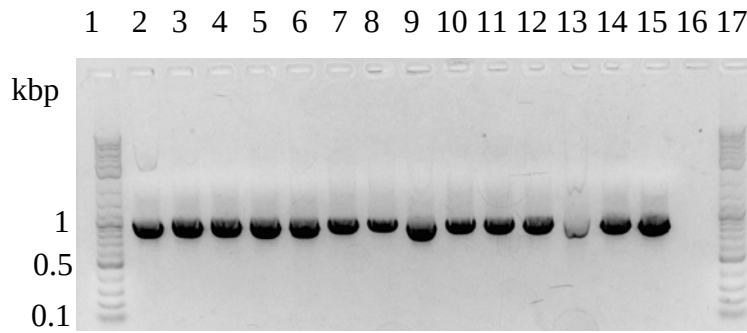


Fig. 7. Colony PCR analysis of positive mKO2::I κ B α 277(I κ B α Δ PEST) clone colonies. The PCR products were electrophoresed on a 1.2 % agarose gel containing Green Gel Wako at a final concentration of 0.02% (v/v). Lane 1 and 17 Marker Broad Range (Nakalai); 2 positive control; 3-12, 14, 15 positive colonies. Insert size 828 bp.

1.2.2 Observation of fluorescence intensity in HeLa cells expressing mKO2-I κ B α

All fusion proteins expressed well in transfected HeLa cells as confirmed by fluorescence microscopy and western blotting (**Fig. 8**). Constructed vectors were transiently transfected into HeLa cells followed by the fixation and imaging by fluorescence microscopy. Fusion proteins were mainly expressed in cytoplasm. In

unstimulated cells expressing mKO2::I κ B α , strong red fluorescence signal localized in cytoplasm and nucleus was readily observed under the microscope. The strongest intensity was obtained with the transfection efficiency above 60 % when cells were kept at 37°C for 24 h after removing the transfection complex and then incubating cells at 37°C for another 36-48 hr. It is seen in **Fig. 8** that mKO2 appears to be distributed throughout the cytoplasm. Identical pattern was observed in cells expressing fusion constructs and was confirmed by western blot analysis (for degradable proteins).

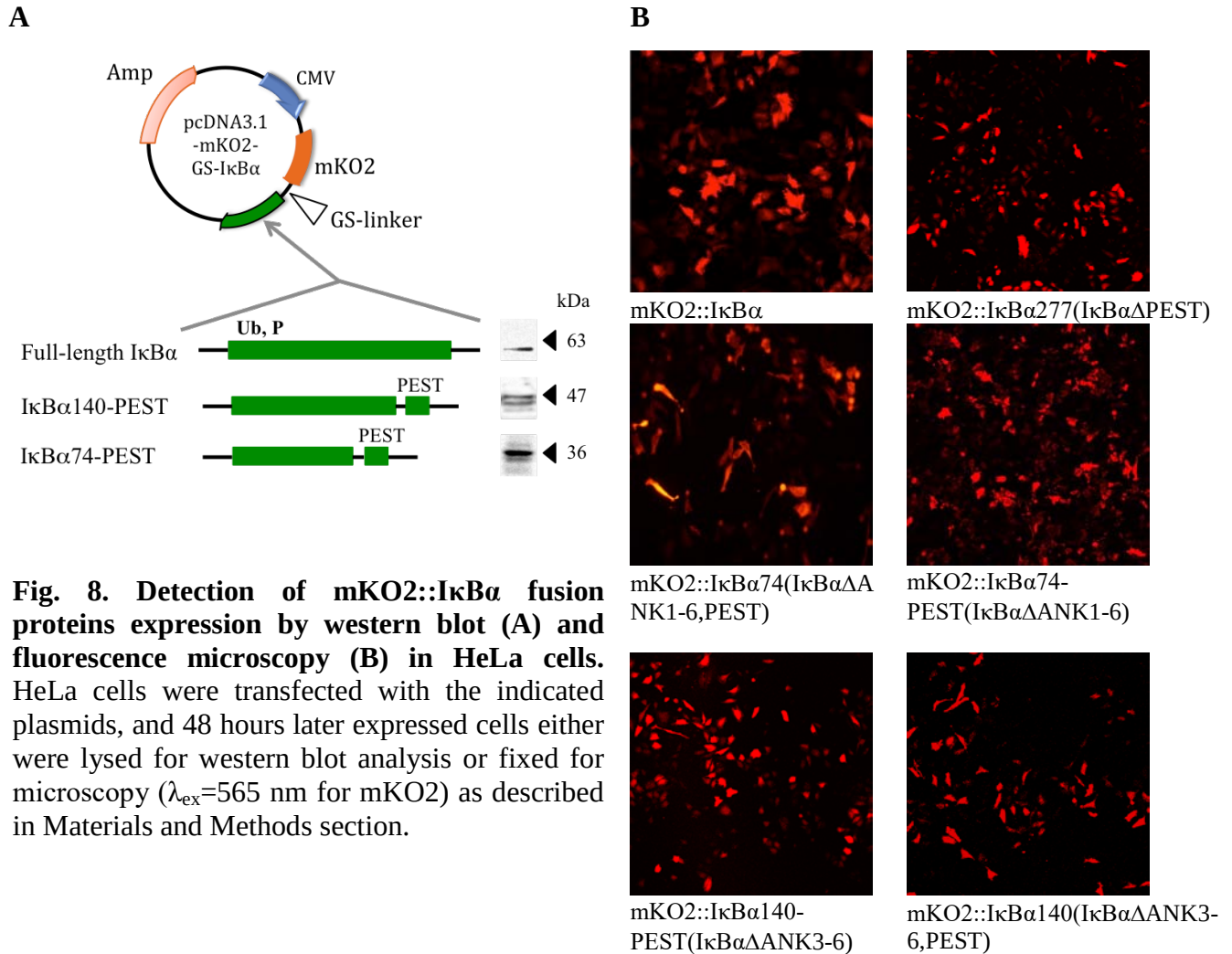


Fig. 8. Detection of mKO2::I κ B α fusion proteins expression by western blot (A) and fluorescence microscopy (B) in HeLa cells. HeLa cells were transfected with the indicated plasmids, and 48 hours later expressed cells either were lysed for western blot analysis or fixed for microscopy (λ_{ex} =565 nm for mKO2) as described in Materials and Methods section.

I.3 Conclusion

Novel constructs to monitor the behavior and dynamics of I κ B α protein were developed. The strategy involves the construction of six novel expression vectors, in which the mKO2 gene was fused to full-length or fragments of human I κ B α . Three domains of I κ B α , i.e., N-terminal phosphorylation and ubiquitination domain, ANK repeats 1 and 2, and C-terminal PEST domain, were fused to mKO2 with amino acid linker (GGGGS)₃ (GS linker) in different combinations to construct mKO2::hI κ B α , mKO2::I κ B α 140(I κ B α Δ ANK3-6,PEST), mKO2::I κ B α 74(I κ B α Δ ANK1-6,PEST), mKO2::I κ B α 140-PEST(I κ B α Δ ANK3-6), mKO2::I κ B α 74-PEST(I κ B α Δ ANK1-6) and mKO2::I κ B α 277(I κ B α Δ PEST). Results of western blot and sequencing confirmed the expression of these vectors. All constructed vectors were confirmed to be effectively expressed *in vitro* in transfected HeLa cells as demonstrated by the appearance of the fluorescence signal of mKO2. The constructed fusion proteins were suggested to serve as the potential tool for analysis of I κ B α protein dynamics.

Chapter II
Real-time imaging and analysis of degradation kinetics of I κ B α
using mKO2 fusion proteins in living cells

II.1 Materials and Methods

II.1.1 Cell culture and transfection

HeLa cells were cultured in DMEM with 10% FBS and maintained at 37°C, 5% CO₂. For confocal microscopy, cells were plated in 35 mm glass-bottom dishes (Iwaki) at 5×10^4 cell/mL in 2 ml medium. After 24 h, cells were transfected with appropriate plasmids using FuGENE 6 (Roche) with optimized ratio reagent:DNA of 3:1. Forty-eight hours post transfection, cells were washed 3 times with PBS and the medium was replaced with Opti-MEM[®] without phenol red (Invitrogen) and stimulated with 10 ng/mL TNF α (Calbiochem).

II.1.2 Time-lapse confocal imaging

Confocal microscopy was carried out on transfected cells in 35 mm glass-bottom dishes under the Nikon A1RMP Multiphoton Confocal Microscope (Nikon Instruments Inc.) maintaining humidified conditions by stage top incubator (Tokai Hit) at 37°C and 5% CO₂ using 10 $\times$ or 20 $\times$ Plan Apo objective lenses. mKO2 was excited at 561 nm. Data was recorded and processing was carried out using built-in NIS Elements software (Nikon Instruments Inc.) and Image J (National Institutes of Health, MD). For fusion proteins, mean cellular fluorescence intensities were calculated at each time point, and fluorescence intensity relative to starting fluorescence signal was detected for each cell.

II.1.3 Western blotting

HeLa cells were grown to be confluent in a 100 mm culture dish in 10% FBS/DMEM and transiently transfected as described. Forty-eight hours after transfection cells were stimulated with TNF α (10 ng/mL) for indicated times and washed with PBS. Cytoplasmic extraction was performed using Active Motif Nuclear extraction kit according to the manufacturer's instruction. Total protein was quantified using Bradford Assay according to the manufacturer's instruction. Cytoplasmic fraction of cells was diluted in 2X SDS-PAGE loading buffer (0.125M Tris-HCl, pH6.8, 4% SDS, 20% glycerol, 10% 2-Mercaptoethanol, 0.004% BPB) and denatured at 90°C for 5 min. Proteins were separated by polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis using 12.5% SuperSep Ace (Wako) and transferred to a polyvinylidene difluoride (PVDF) membrane.

Membranes were blocked overnight at 4°C in BSA 1 % Tween 20 and probed using anti-I κ B α (sc-847 Santa Cruz), anti-I κ B α c-21 (sc-371, Santa Cruz), anti-mKO2 (PM051, MBL) and anti-beta actin-HRP (sc-47778, Santa Cruz) antibodies. Proteins were detected with goat-anti-rabbit IgG-HRP (sc-2004, Santa Cruz). Chemiluminescence was developed using Luminata Western Chemiluminescent HRP Substrate (Millipore, Sigma).

II.1.4 Treatment of cells with TNF α and proteasomal inhibitors

In all the experiments, the cell cultures were kept in DMEM containing 10% FBS for 24 h before the stimulations. Cells were treated with TNF α immediately before the microscopy by replacing 1/100 of the culture medium volume in the 35 mm dish with the appropriate solution to make of 10 ng/mL the final concentration. Cells were treated with lactacystin for 24 hours prior to the TNF α treatment at concentrations of 25 μ M, except where otherwise indicated. DMSO 1% (v/v) was used as a vehicle for lactacystin and was run in parallel in all cases as control. A series of experiments using another inhibitor of the proteasome, MG132, were performed to compare the results obtained with lactacystin. The concentrations of MG132 used were 50 μ M, and controls containing DMSO 0.25% (v/v) (the solvent used as vehicle) were run in parallel. Samples containing no additions compared with controls containing the vehicle solutions gave similar results. Each experiment was carried out at least three times with at least 10-15 cells obtained per repeat.

II.1.5 Image analysis

Captured images were recorded at different time frames (excitation wavelength of 561 nm and an emission wavelength of 595 nm. After subtracting the background signal, the fluorescence intensity of the pixels of cells in each image was converted to inherent values for each individual cell using ImageJ 1.48v (National Institutes of Health, MD). The results are expressed as the mean $\pm$ S.D. of at least three independent cell cultures.

II.2 Results and Discussion

II.2.1 Visualization of TNF- α induced I κ B α degradation

Exposure of cells to the pro-inflammatory stimuli such as TNF α leads I κ B α to rapidly degrade by a proteolytic system that is required for nuclear translocation and activation of NF- κ B [11-13]. As we better understand the regulation of the I κ B α degradation, potential for inhibiting this pathway has received great attention. Agents that inhibit this pathway, such as glucocorticoids and aspirin, can reduce the inflammatory response [2]. To visualize the degradation of I κ B α in the cytosol, I used constructed fusion proteins of mKO2::I κ B α and studied in transfected HeLa cells by real-time confocal microscopy.

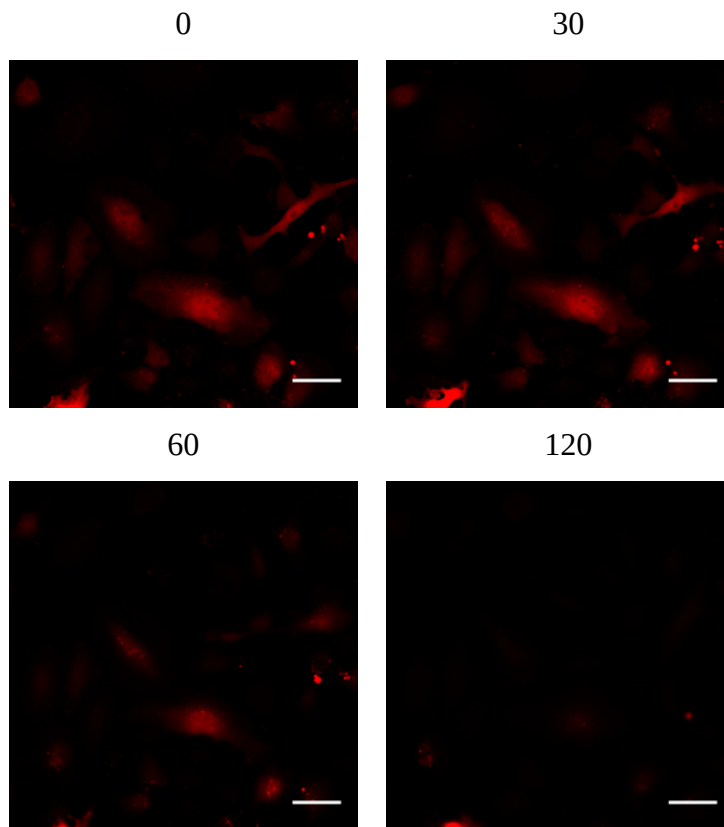


Fig. 9. Degradation of mKO2::I κ B α in response to TNF α stimulation. Time series images of mKO2::I κ B α fluorescence at indicated times (min) after addition of TNF α (10 ng/mL). Scale 50 μ m.

As shown above, in unstimulated cells expressing mKO2::I κ B α , cytoplasmically located stable fluorescence was observed (**Fig. 8**). In time-lapse images of cells transfected with mKO2::I κ B α comprising full-length human I κ B α protein, following the addition of 10 ng/mL TNF α to the culture medium, fluorescence intensity began to decrease approximately 7 minutes later (**Fig. 9**).

Fluorescence live imaging was performed within 2 hours time frame after TNF α stimulation. In contrast, decrease of fluorescence intensity was not observed in cells expressing only mKO2 fluorescent protein after TNF α stimulation (**Fig. 10**), suggesting that degradation occurs when mKO2 is fused to I κ B α .

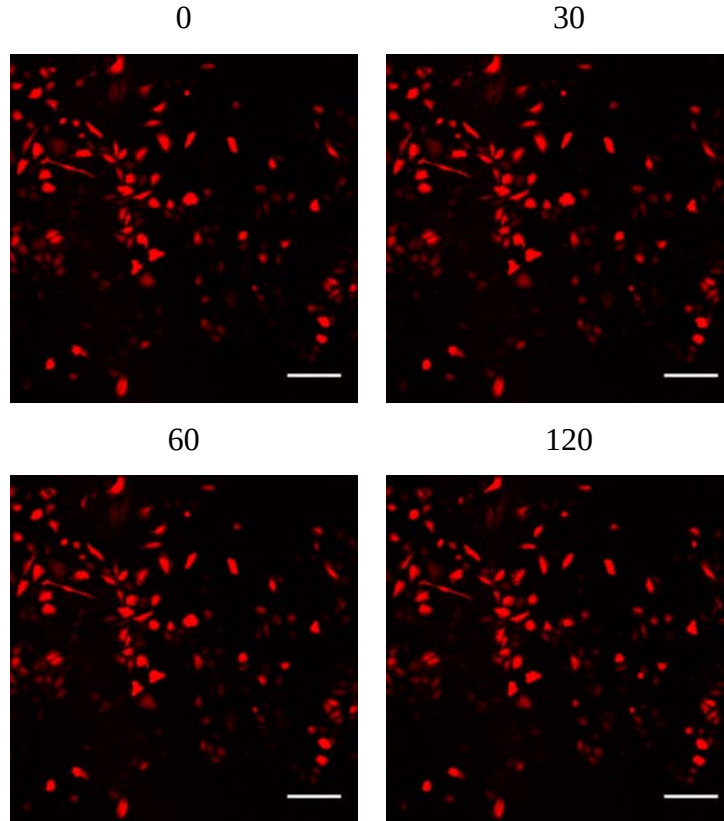


Fig. 10. Fluorescence of mKO2 in response to TNF α stimulation. Time series images of mKO2 fluorescence at indicated times (min) after addition of TNF α (10 ng/mL). Scale 100 μ m.

II.2.2 Involvement of ANK repeats in TNF α induced I κ B α degradation

In order to understand how the different regions of the I κ B α contribute to the signal-induced degradation process, I generated I κ B α deletion mutants by removing ANK repeats and/or C-terminal PEST sequence. Structurally I κ B α can be divided into three domains, N-terminal signal response region where the phosphorylation and ubiquitination occurs, six ANK repeats, ANK 1, 2 responsible for NF- κ B binding and a C-terminal PEST sequence. Amino acid residues vicinal to both the p50 and p65 NLS are

restrained to the first two ANK repeats of I κ B α , suggesting a mechanism for cytoplasmic retention of NF- κ B [17]. First, I removed all ANK repeats leaving only N terminal phosphorylation-ubiquitination domain (mKO2::I κ B α 74(I κ B α Δ ANK1-6,PEST)). There was no decay in fluorescence observed in the cells transfected with this probe (**Fig. 11A**). Next, I removed all ANK repeats except for ANK 1 and 2 (mKO2::I κ B α 140(I κ B α Δ ANK3-6,PEST)). This probe did not degrade upon TNF α stimulation either (**Fig. 11B**), suggesting that responsible region for degradation lies below the ANK repeats down to C terminal.

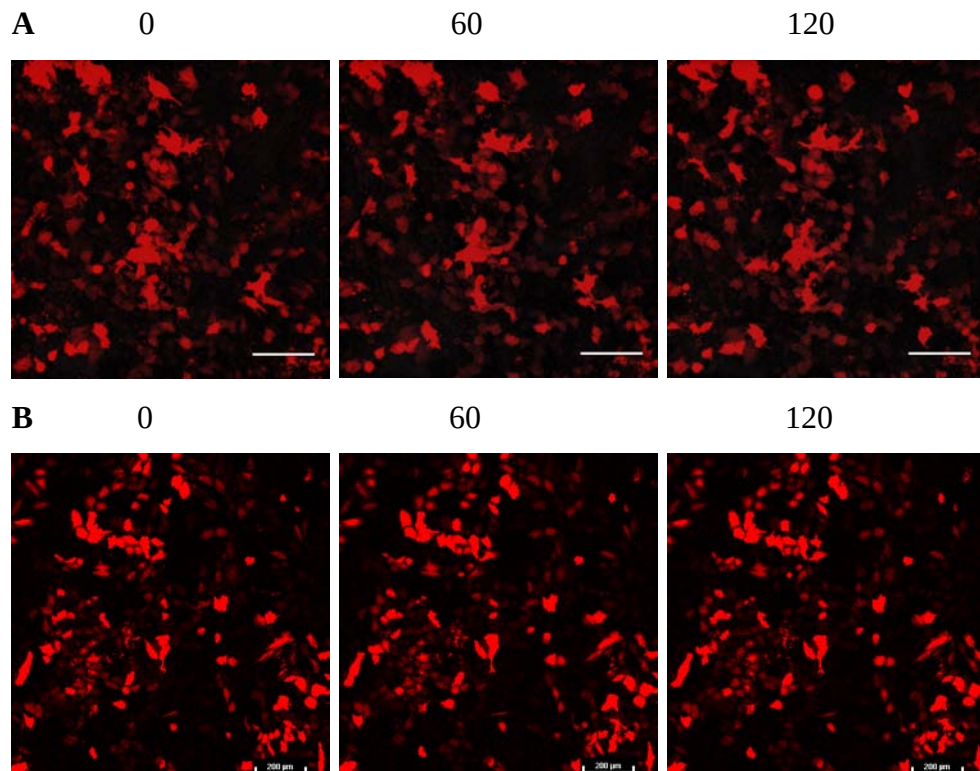


Fig. 11. Fluorescence of fusion proteins with deletions of ANK repeats in response to TNF α stimulation. Time series images of mKO2::I κ B α 140(I κ B α Δ ANK3-6,PEST) (A) and mKO2::I κ B α 74(I κ B α Δ ANK1-6,PEST) (B) fluorescence at indicated times (min) after addition of TNF α (10 ng/mL). Scale 200 μ m.

To test this hypothesis and investigate how ANK repeats beyond the first two can potentiate the signal-induced degradation of I κ B α , the cells were transfected with the expression construct comprising mKO2 fused to N-terminal phosphorylation-

ubiquitination domain and all ANK repeats from one to six (mKO2::IkB α 277(IkB α Δ PEST)) but lacking the PEST domain. The mKO2::IkB α 277(IkB α Δ PEST) showed slight decay in fluorescence intensity upon stimulation with TNF α but was not degraded (**Fig. 12**). Degradation was significantly inhibited compared with mKO2::IkB α (contains PEST domain).

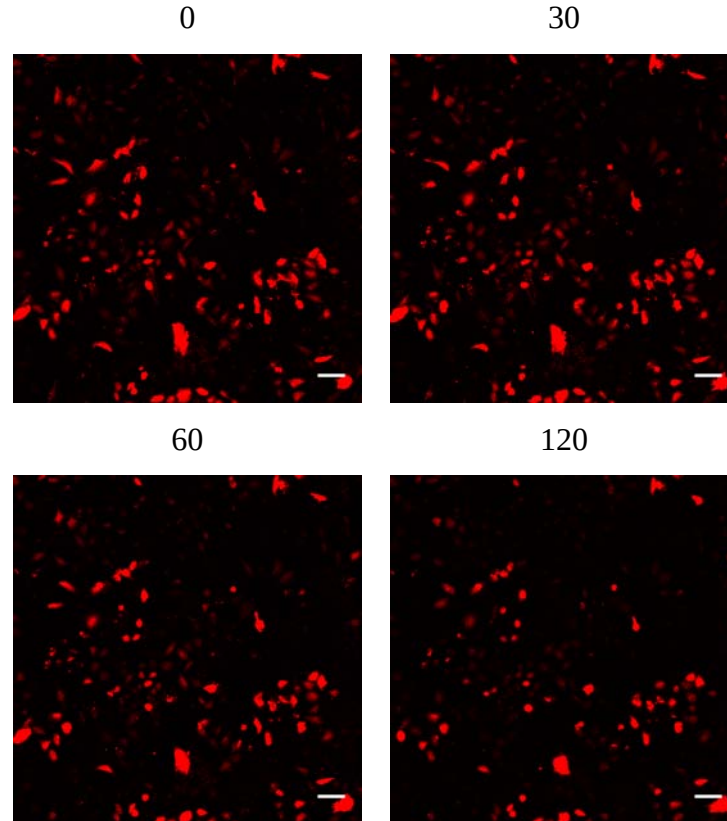
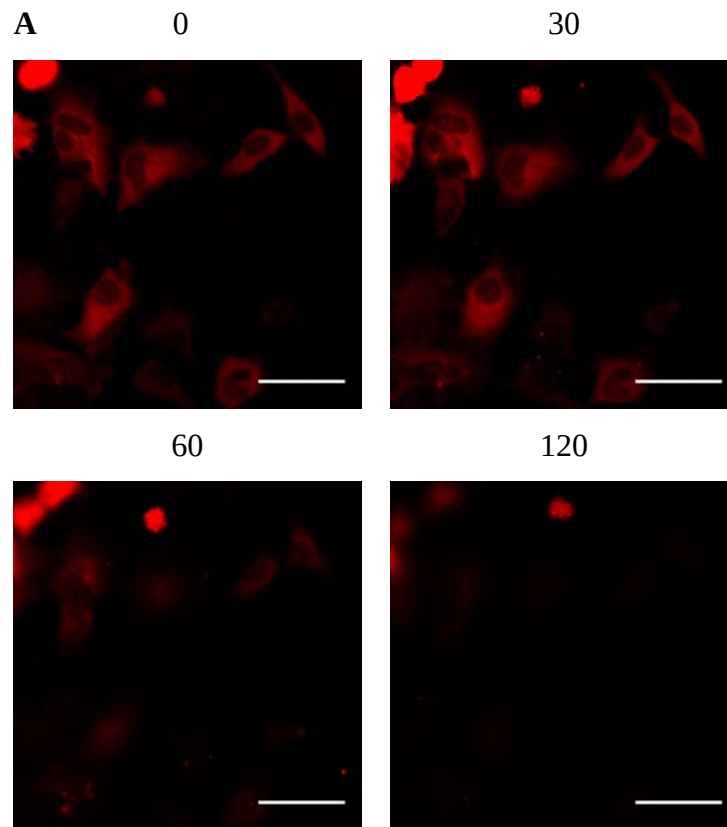


Fig. 12. Fluorescence of mKO2::IkB α 277(IkB α Δ PEST) with deletions of C-terminal PEST sequence in response to TNF α stimulation. Time series images of mKO2::IkB α 277(IkB α Δ PEST) fluorescence at indicated times (min) after addition of TNF α (10 ng/mL). Scale 100 μ m.

II.2.3 The role of the PEST sequence in TNF α induced IkB α degradation

Our results regarding the real-time degradation analysis of PEST lacking mutant probes i.e., mKO2::IkB α 140(IkB α Δ ANK3-6,PEST), mKO2::IkB α 74(IkB α Δ ANK1-6,PEST) and mKO2::IkB α 277(IkB α Δ PEST), imply that PEST sequence may be required for stimulus-triggered degradation of IkB α . To test this hypothesis, I generated two fusion proteins by cloning 40-amino acid PEST domain directly to the N-terminal phosphorylation-ubiquitination domain after removing all six ANK repeats

(mKO2::I κ B α 74-PEST(I κ B α Δ ANK1-6)) and to ANK repeats 1, 2 (mKO2::I κ B α 140-PEST(I κ B α Δ ANK3-6)). As a result, clear decay in fluorescence was observed in the cells expressing both mKO2::I κ B α 74-PEST(I κ B α Δ ANK1-6) and mKO2::I κ B α 140-PEST(I κ B α Δ ANK3-6) about 5-7 minutes after TNF α stimulation (**Fig. 13**). Although, there are contradictory reports related to the involvement of PEST sequence in I κ B α degradation [36-38], our data suggest that PEST is necessary for the signal-induced I κ B α degradation. Moreover, I show that PEST sequence functions independently from ANK repeats.



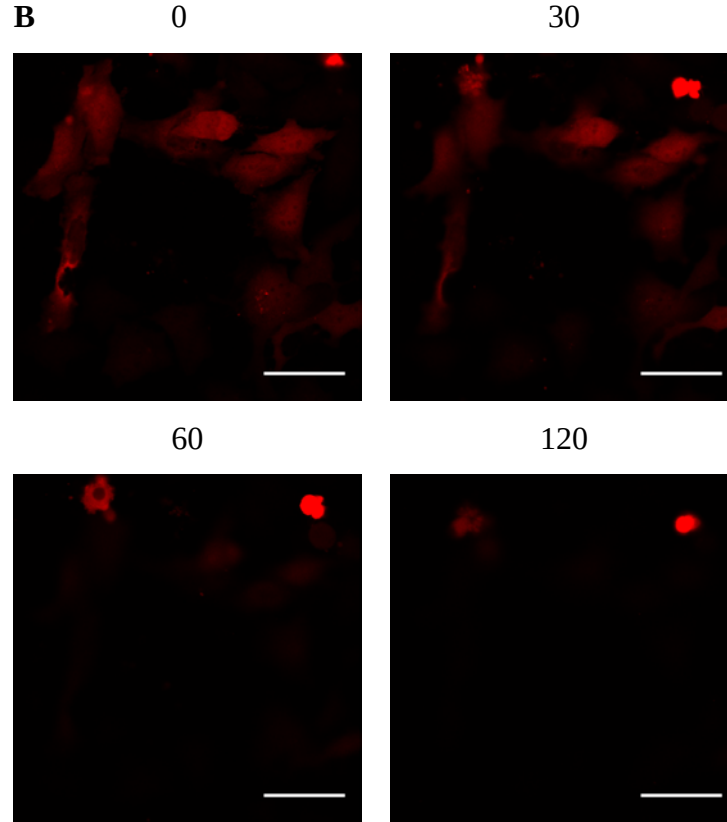


Fig. 13. Effect of PEST sequence in degradation of fusion proteins. Time series images of mKO2::IkBα74-PEST(IkBαΔANK1-6) (A) and mKO2::IkBα140-PEST(IkBαΔANK3-6) (B) fluorescence at indicated times (min) after addition of TNFα (10 ng/mL). Scale 50 μm.

Stimulus-induced degradation of mKO2::IkBα74-PEST(IkBαΔANK1-6), mKO2::IkBα140-PEST(IkBαΔANK3-6), and full-length mKO2::IkBα was also confirmed by Western blot analysis and compared with degradation of endogenous IkBα (Fig. 14). Each transfected cell culture was subjected to a specific stimulus followed by Western blot analysis of cytoplasmic extracts with IkBα-specific antibodies except for mKO2::IkBα74-PEST(IkBαΔANK1-6) where anti-mKO2 antibodies were used.

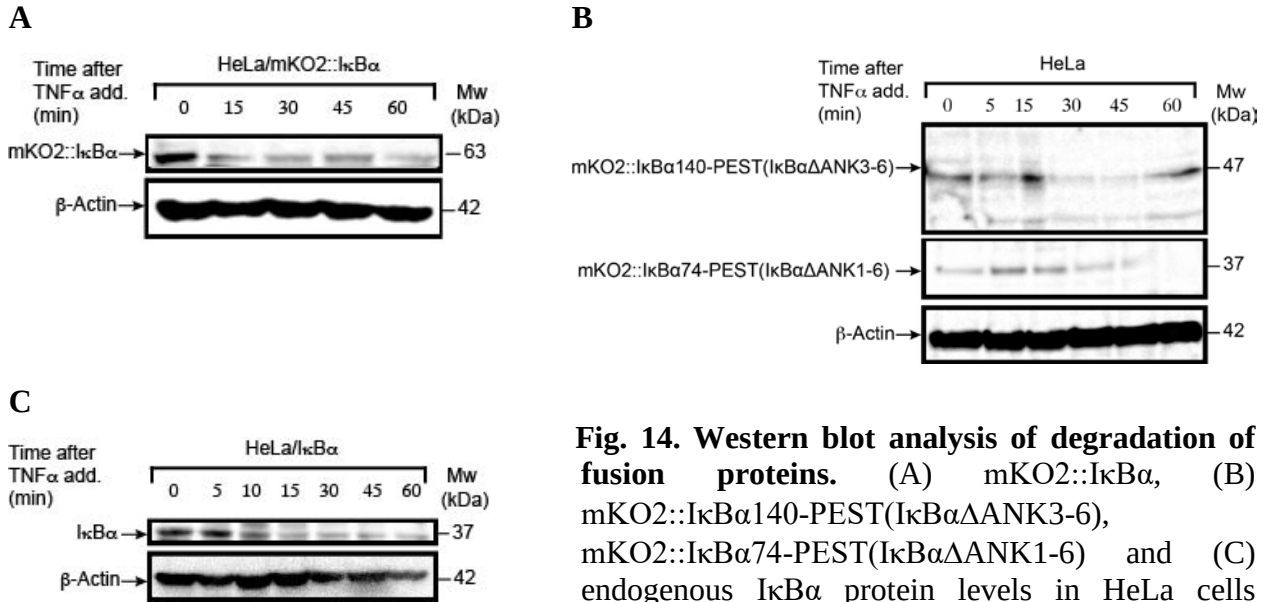


Fig. 14. Western blot analysis of degradation of fusion proteins. (A) mKO2::I κ B α , (B) mKO2::I κ B α 140-PEST(I κ B α Δ ANK3-6), mKO2::I κ B α 74-PEST(I κ B α Δ ANK1-6) and (C) endogenous I κ B α protein levels in HeLa cells stimulated with continual 10 ng/mL TNF α for the indicated times.

II.2.4 Effects of lactacystin on degradation of fusion proteins

Signal-induced degradation of I κ B α occurs via ubiquitin-proteasome pathway [39, 40]. Stimulation-dependent I κ B α phosphorylation at serine residues 32 and 36 [41-43] targets I κ B α to the ubiquitin-proteasome pathway. Then ubiquitination occurs at lysine residues 21 and 22 [44, 45] followed by the proteasomal degradation of I κ B α , which allows NF- κ B to be released and enter the nucleus [46-48].

To confirm whether ubiquitin-proteasome pathway is involved in degradation of fusion proteins and to evaluate the applicability of this platform to test effect of proteasomal inhibitors in degradation, I treated HeLa cells with lactacystin, an irreversible and selective 20 S proteasome inhibitor, which acts by targeting the catalytic B-subunit [49], before exposing them to TNF α .

I showed that TNF α -induced degradation was not observed in lactacystin pre-treated HeLa cells expressing fusion proteins (**Fig. 15**) suggesting that like endogenous I κ B α , fusion proteins are degraded primarily via proteasomal pathway.

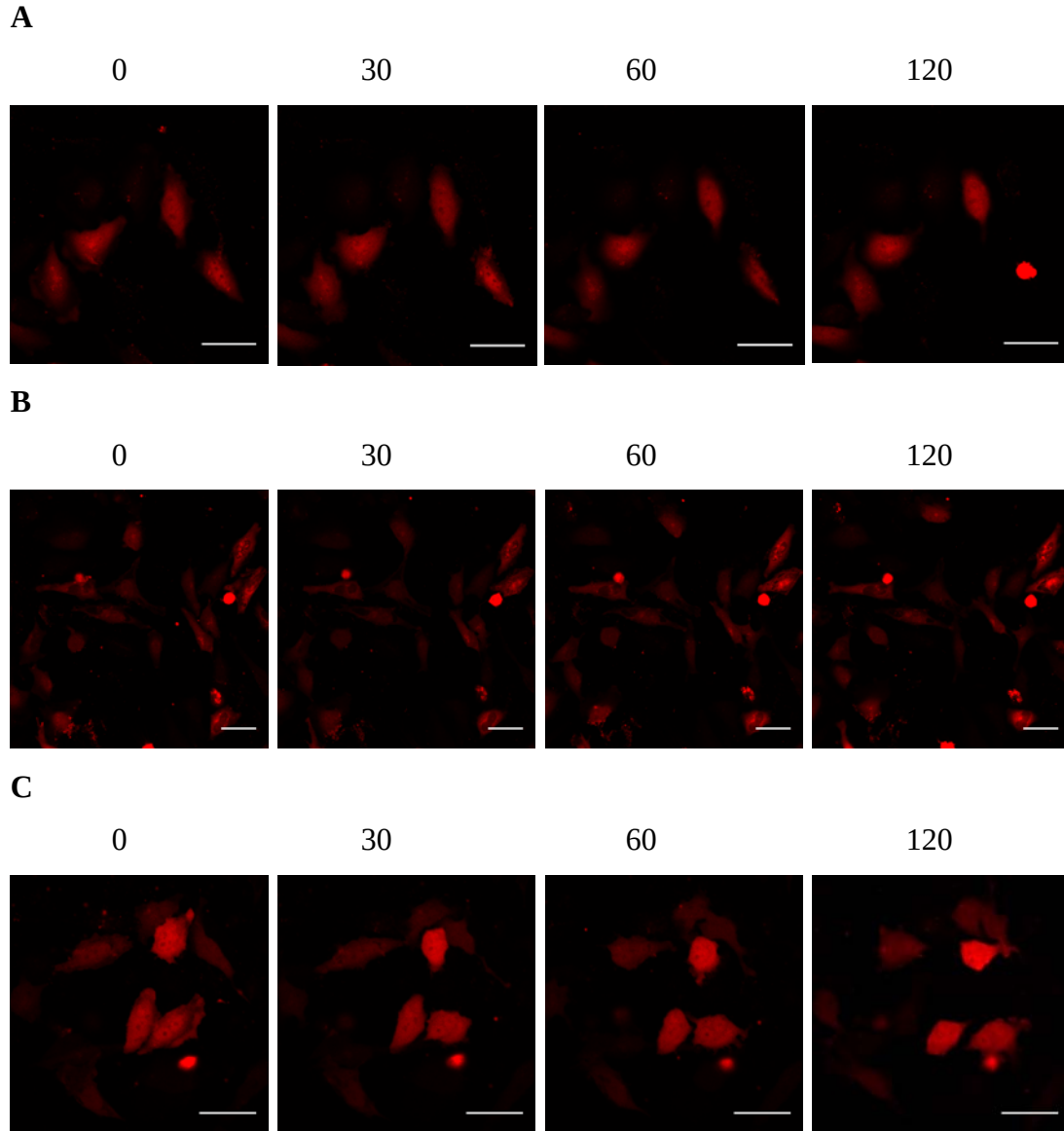


Fig. 15. Effect of lactacystin on degradation of fusion proteins. Time series images of (A) mKO2::IκBα, (B) mKO2::IκBα140-PEST(IκBαΔANK3-6), (C) mKO2::IκBα74-PEST(IκBαΔANK1-6) fluorescence at indicated times (min) after addition of TNFα. Degradation was prevented in cells treated with 25 μM lactacystin for 24 h prior to addition of TNFα. Scale 50 μm.

II.2.5 Effects of the inhibition of proteasome activity by MG132

A series of experiments treating the HeLa with another inhibitor of the activity of the 26S proteasome, MG132 [50], was performed to give additional support to the results obtained using lactacystin. As expected, TNFα-induced degradation was not observed in the cells expressing fusion constructs full-length mKO2::IκBα, mKO2::IκBα140-

PEST(I κ B α Δ ANK3-6) and mKO2::I κ B α 74-PEST(I κ B α Δ ANK1-6) in the cells pretreated with MG132 (**Fig. 16**).

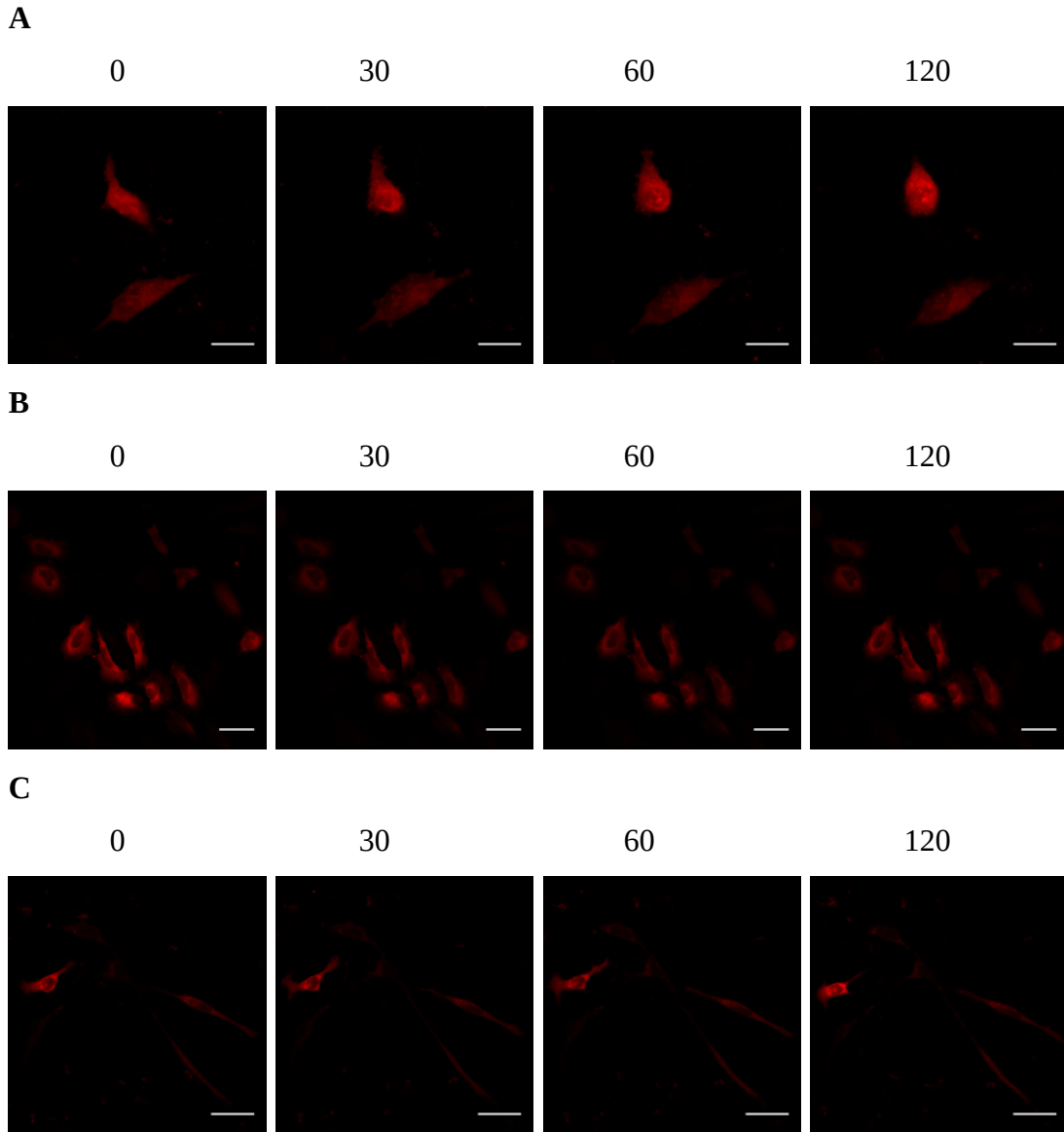


Fig. 16. Effect of MG132 on degradation of fusion proteins. Time series images of (A) mKO2::I κ B α , (B) mKO2::I κ B α 140-PEST(I κ B α Δ ANK3-6), (C) mKO2::I κ B α 74-PEST(I κ B α Δ ANK1-6) fluorescence at indicated times (min) after addition of TNF α . Degradation was prevented in cells treated with 50 μ M MG132 for 24 h prior to addition of TNF α . Scale 50 μ m.

II.2.6 Analysis of kinetics of I κ B α degradation using fusion proteins

To investigate the kinetics of I κ B α degradation, I quantitatively analyzed the decay of fluorescence of each fusion-construct over the periods of several hours following the

TNF α stimulation. Cells expressing the mKO2::I κ B α fusion protein showed mainly cytoplasmic fluorescence 48 h post transfection. A rapid decay in fluorescence was observed upon stimulation with TNF α . The half-life of degradation of mKO2::I κ B α full-length protein was determined by quantitative fluorescence analysis to be 37 minutes (**Fig. 17**). These observations are in general agreement with those reported previously for endogenous protein [51] and as found from Western blot data ($T_{1/2}$ =40 min) (**Fig.14C**).

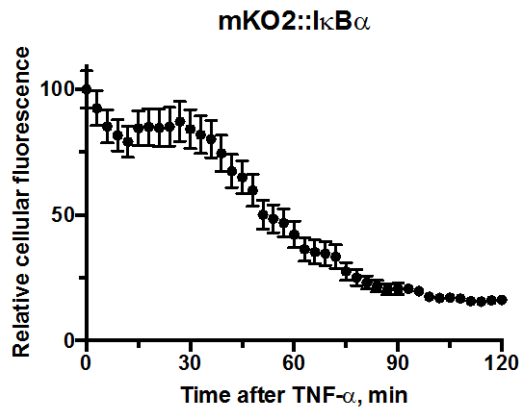


Fig. 17. Degradation of mKO2::I κ B α in response to TNF α stimulation. Transfected HeLa cells were stimulated with 10 ng/mL TNF α and monitored for 2 h. Mean cellular fluorescence intensities were determined for fluorescent cells at each time point and plotted as a percentage of fluorescent values at t=0 min. Data shown as mean $\pm$ SD with at least 10 cells per experiment.

In transfected cells expressing mKO2::I κ B α 74-PEST(I κ B α Δ ANK1-6), degradation reached 50% of initial cellular fluorescence in 48 min (**Fig. 18**).

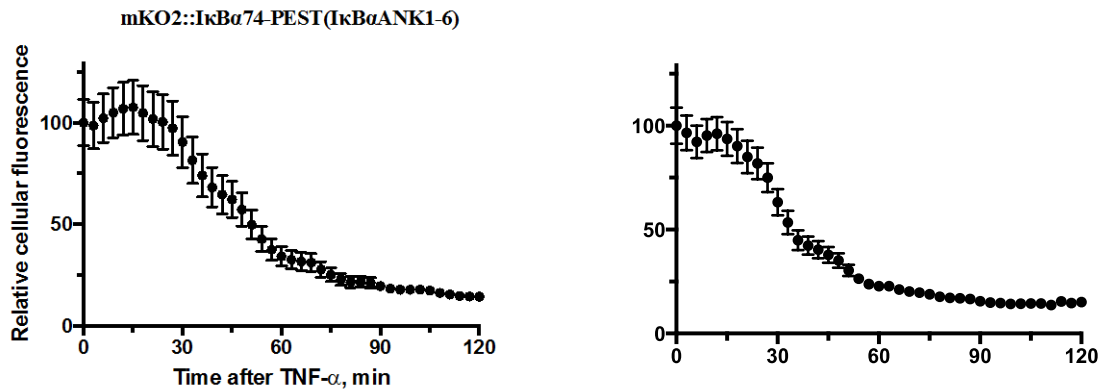


Fig. 18. Degradation of mKO2::I κ B α 74-PEST(I κ B α Δ ANK1-6) and mKO2::I κ B α 140-PEST(I κ B α Δ ANK3-6) in response to TNF α stimulation. Degradation of mKO2::I κ B α 74-PEST(I κ B α Δ ANK1-6) (left) or mKO2::I κ B α 140-PEST(I κ B α Δ ANK3-6) (right) proteins expressed in transfected HeLa cells was quantified and mean cellular fluorescence intensities were determined as described in Fig. 17. Results show mean values $\pm$ SD with at least 10 cells per experiment.

This was longer than the $T_{1/2}$ for mKO2::I κ B α (see above). In contrast degradation rate of mKO2::I κ B α 140-PEST(I κ B α Δ ANK3-6) ($T_{1/2}$ = 30 min) was shorter than mKO2::I κ B α 74-PEST(I κ B α Δ ANK1-6) and mKO2::I κ B α (**Fig. 18**). The rate of mKO2::I κ B α therefore more closely resembled the rate of endogenous I κ B α degradation [14, 51, 52].

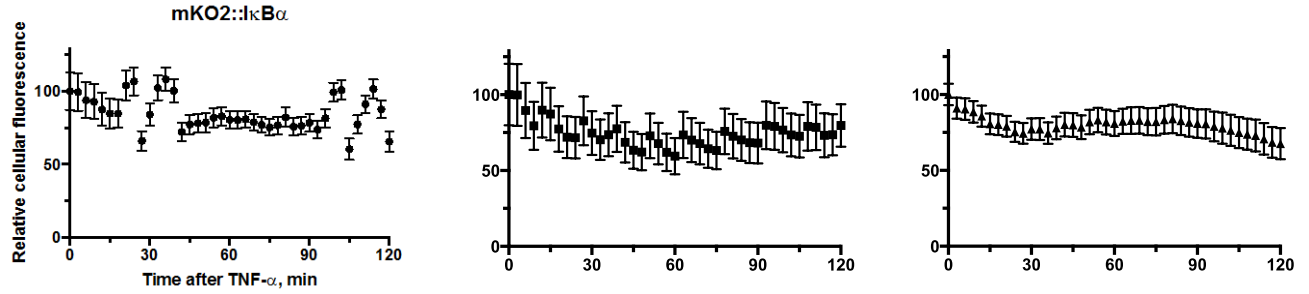


Fig. 19. Degradation of fusion proteins in response to TNF α in presence of lactacystin. Mean cellular fluorescence intensities were determined for fluorescent cells at each time point and plotted as a percentage of fluorescent values at t=0 min. Cells were treated with 25 μ M lactacystin 24 h prior to stimulation with 10 ng/mL TNF α at t=0 min. Data shown as mean $\pm$ SD with at least 10 cells per experiment.

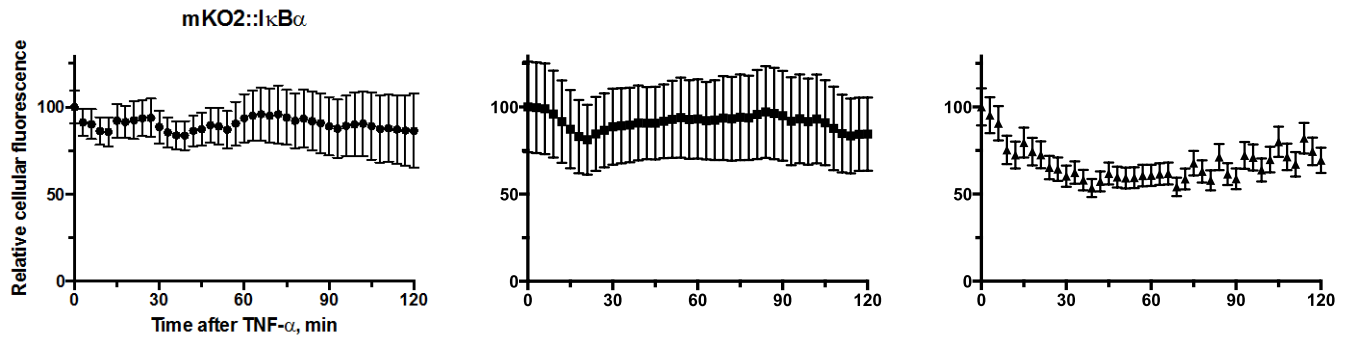


Fig. 20. Degradation of fusion proteins in response to TNF α in presence of MG132. Mean cellular fluorescence intensities were determined for fluorescent cells at each time point and plotted as a percentage of fluorescent values at t=0 min. Cells were treated with 50 μ M MG132 24 h prior to stimulation with 10 ng/mL TNF α at t=0 min. Data shown as mean $\pm$ SD with at least 10 cells per experiment.

I used the concentrations of lactacystin and MG132, which were previously shown to significantly inhibit TNF α -induced proteasomal degradation of I κ B α [49, 50]. The degradation of fusion proteins following TNF α stimulation was inhibited by pretreatment with 25 μ M lactacystin (**Fig. 19**) and 50 μ M MG132 (**Fig. 20**). The inhibitory effect of

lactacystin and MG132 supports the hypothesis that the observed fluorescence decrease is due to TNF α -induced degradation of fusion proteins via ubiquitin-proteasomal pathway.

Furthermore, I tested the effect of proteasomal inhibitors at lower doses and monitored the degradation for 2 hours using transfected cells expressing mKO2::I κ B α 140-PEST(I κ B α Δ ANK3-6), to evaluate sensitivity and applicability of this platform to screen agents targeting proteasomal pathway. Lactacystin at 10 μ M inhibited degradation for 2 hours, however inhibitory effect was less than that of 25 μ M dose. One micromole dose of lactacystin did not effectively inhibit the degradation compared to higher doses (**Fig. 21**). This suggests that this platform could be useful for dose-dependent evaluation of inhibitors targeting NF- κ B pathway as a first-pass screening tool.

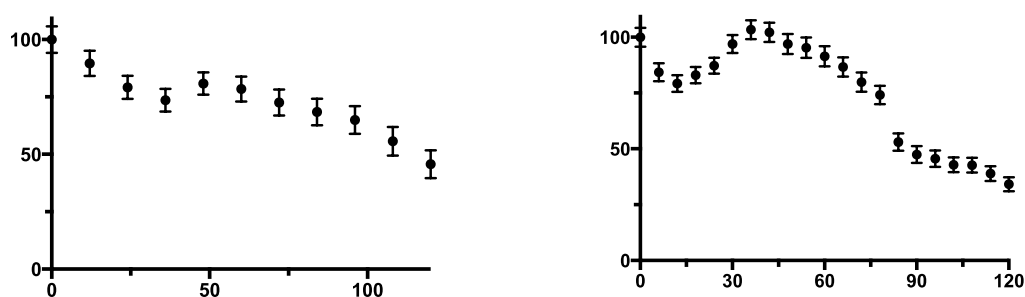


Fig. 21. Degradation of fusion proteins in response to TNF α in presence of lactacystin. Mean cellular fluorescence intensities were determined for fluorescent cells at each time point and plotted as a percentage of fluorescent values at t=0 min. Cells were treated either with 10 μ M lactacystin (left) or 1 μ M lactacystin (right) 24 h prior to stimulation with 10 ng/mL TNF α at t=0 min. Data shown as mean $\pm$ SD with at least 10 cells per experiment.

II.3 Conclusion

Real-time confocal microscopy and western blot analysis showed that, like endogenous I κ B α , fusion-proteins expressed in HeLa cells degraded after TNF α stimulation. Decrease of fluorescence intensity was observed at approximately 5-7 minutes post-stimulation with TNF α . In this *in vitro* setting, degradation dynamics of recombinant probes were comparable to those observed with endogenous I κ B α . No decrease in fluorescence was observed in the cells transfected with mKO2 alone, suggesting that degradation of fluorescent proteins occurs only if fused to I κ B α . Fusion

proteins lacking the PEST motif exhibited no stimuli-induced degradation, as monitored by time-lapse fluorescence imaging. From confocal microscopy data obtained for fusion proteins with mutations at PEST site, it is concluded that PEST sequence is essential in signal-induced degradation of I κ B α and functions independently from ANK repeats. Proteasome inhibitors such as lactacystin and MG132 blocked the decay of fluorescence in all PEST-containing degradable probes, suggesting that degradation of fusion proteins in stimulated cells occurs via proteasomal system. The degradation rate of mKO2::I κ B α 74-PEST(I κ B α Δ ANK1-6) was slower than mKO2::I κ B α 140-PEST(I κ B α Δ ANK3-6) and mKO2::I κ B α proteins, which in turn was similar to the half-life of native I κ B α .

Chapter III

Structure-activity relationship of fusion proteins: an *in silico* analysis

III.1 Materials and Methods

III.1.1 Homology modeling

I used I-TASSER protein structure prediction algorithm based on multiple template assembly, which combines the methods of threading, *ab initio* modeling, homology modeling and structural refinement, to predict the structure of fusion proteins [53-55]. I-TASSER was ranked the No. 1 server for protein structure prediction in recent CASP7, CASP8 and CASP9 experiments [56, 57]. The FASTA sequence of mKO2::IkB α protein (MVSVIKPEMKMRYMDGSVNGHEFTIEGEGTGRPYEGHQEMTLRVVTMAEGGP MPFAFDLVSHVFCYGHRVFTKYPEEIPDYFKQAFPEGLSWERSLEFEDGGSASVS AHISLRGNTFYHKSFTGVNFPADGPIMQNSVDWEPSTEKITASDGV LKGDVT MYLKLEGGGNHKKCMKTTYKAAKEILEMPGDHYIGHRLVRKTEGNITEQVEDA VAHWYQPLEVDGIDKLDGGGGSGGGGSGGGGSIEFFQAAERPQEWAMEGPRDG LKKERLLDDRHDSDLDSMKDEEYEQMVKELQEIRLEPQEVPRGSEPWKQQLTED GDSFLHLAIIHEEKAL TMEVIRQVKGD LAFLNFQNNLQQTPLHLAVITNQPEIAEA LLGAGCDPELRDFRGNTPLHLACEQGCLASVGVLTQSCTTPHLHSILKATNYNG HTCLHLASIHGYLGIVELLVSLGADVNAQEPCNGRTALHLAVDLQNPDLVSLLL KCGADVNRVTYQGYSPYQLTWGRPSTRIQQQLGQLTLENLQMLPESEDEESYDT ESEFTEFTEDEL PYDDCVFGGQRLTL*) was first threaded through the PDB database [58] to reveal appropriate local fragments, which were used for further structural assembly. 3D models are built based on multiple-threading alignments used by LOMETS algorithm and iterative TASSER assembly simulations. The continuous fragments with more than 5 residues are then extracted from the LOMETS alignments and used to reassemble the structure by replica-exchange Monte Carlo simulations [59]. The simulation trajectories are then clustered by SPICKER algorithm [60] and are used as the starting state of the second round I-TASSER assembly simulation. The final threading templates used by I-TASSER to predict mKO2::IkB α protein were the crystal structures of d34 region of human ankyrin-r and linker (PDB: 1N11A), TGP, an extremely thermostable green fluorescent protein (PDB: 4TZA), red fluorescent protein mKeima (PDB: 3IR8), AnkB 24 ankyrin repeats in complex with AnkR autoinhibition segment (PDB: 4RLV), monomeric Kusabira-Orange (mKO) (PDB: 2ZMU), Myo3b-ARB2 in complex with Espin1-AR (PDB: 5ET0). Finally, the structures of the lowest energy were

selected, which were then refined by molecular dynamics, with the purpose of removing steric clashes, minimizing violations of spatial restraints and optimizing the hydrogen-bonding network. The same procedure was applied to predict the structure of mKO2::IkB α 74-PEST(IkB α Δ ANK1-6). However, for mKO2::IkB α 140-PEST(IkB α Δ ANK3-6), I-TASSER could not correctly fold the protein. In that case, the homology modeling was employed with the optimized structure of mKO2::IkB α as a template using the molecular modeling environment Maestro v. 10.6 (Schrödinger, LLC., NY). Model for mKO2::IkB α 140-PEST(IkB α Δ ANK3-6) was independently constructed with logic for proper handling of the sequence insertions and deletions. Missing loops were built using *ab initio* protein prediction approach with Prime program [61, 62].

III.1.2 Molecular dynamics

I conducted MD simulations for three proteins, mKO2::IkB α , mKO2::IkB α 140-PEST(IkB α Δ ANK3-6) and mKO2::IkB α 74-PEST(IkB α Δ ANK1-6) starting from the energy minimized structure in each case. All MD simulations were performed using Desmond package [63-65] with an OPLS3 force field [66]. The simulations were conducted in explicit solvent. The initial structure was inserted into an orthorhombic box. A simulation cell was constructed around the model with a 9 Å cutoff for Lennard-Jones forces and the direct space portion of electrostatic forces, which were calculated using the Particle Mesh Ewald method. The resulting system was solvated with transferable intermolecular potential three-point (TIP3P) water molecules [67]. The counter ions, Na⁺ or Cl⁻ were added to neutralize the system. NaCl (0.15M) solution was added to simulate the background salt and physiological conditions. The pK_a values of the ionizable groups in the model were calculated and used to assign the protonation states based on pH 7.4 using PROPKA algorithm [68]. The entire system was energy minimized until the RMSD gradient values decreased below 0.01 kcal/mol/Å. The system was heated from 0 to 300 K for 100 ps. Following minimization and heating, 2 ns production simulation was conducted with a 1 fs time step at a pressure of 1 atm and a temperature of 300 K using Berendsen thermostat. The final snapshot at the end of the simulation was used as a reference to calculate the root mean square deviation (RMSD) for each amino acid during

the last 2 ns MD trajectory. The RMSD calculations obtained from the MD simulations for each case were conducted only after the protein had reached an equilibrium stable state.

III.1.3 Assessment of the models

The quality of protein geometry was checked by using ProQ [69]. Protein superposition server SuperPose Version 1.0 was used to generate the RMSD statistics [70]. Molecular electrostatics involved in the structural analysis was performed using PyMol and Maestro programs.

III.1.4 Protein-protein docking and binding site prediction

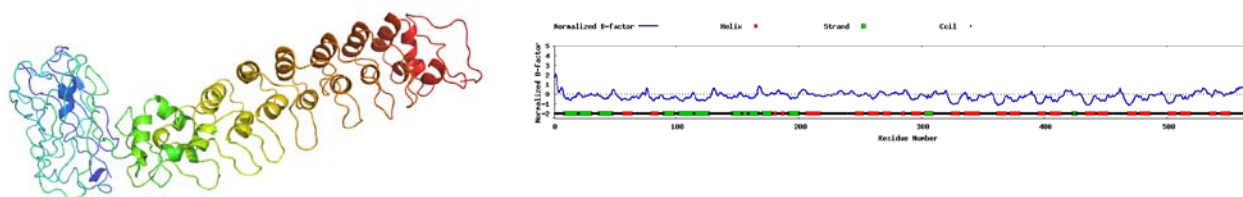
I used pairwise docking for mKO2::I κ B α -p65/p50, mKO2::I κ B α 74-PEST(I κ B α Δ ANK1-6)-p65/p50 and mKO2::I κ B α 140-PEST(I κ B α Δ ANK3-6)-p65/p50 complexes. The structures of fusion proteins for docking were obtained from the final snapshots of MD simulation. Prior to docking, only the PDB coordinates of p65/p50 heterodimer (PDB ID: 1IKN) were preprocessed for energy minimization using the OPLS3 force field. Molecular docking was performed with Fast Fourier Transform (FFT) correlation approach using the protein-protein docking software PIPER [71, 72] that evaluates the energies of billions of docked conformations on a grid. The final docked complexes were subjected to energy minimization in three steps. Partial charges were assigned to the protein after adding each of the hydrogen atoms using the OPLS3 force field. In the first step, constraints were applied to the heavy atoms, by allowing the mobility of all hydrogen atoms. In the second energy minimization step, only the backbone chain was constrained, whereas the side chains were allowed to move. In the third energy minimization round, only the C α atoms were constrained, and all other atoms were allowed to move. All of the above energy minimizations were conducted using both the steepest descent and conjugate gradient protocols. The buried surface interaction areas of the complex models were calculated using the Maestro program (protein-protein interface analysis).

III.2 Results and Discussion

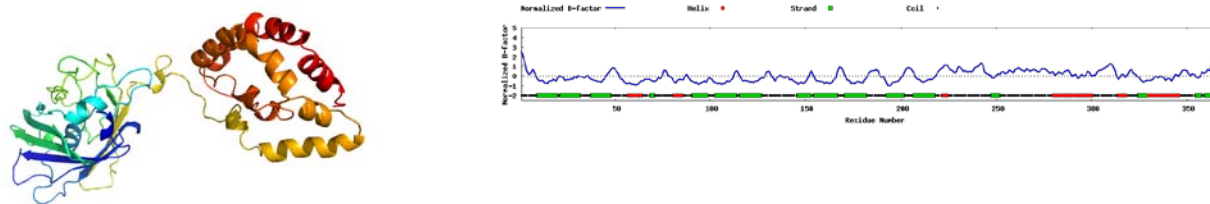
III.2.1 Comparative modeling of fusion proteins

First, homology modeling of the structure of mKO2::I κ B α and mKO2::I κ B α 74-PEST(I κ B α Δ ANK1-6) using I-TASSER was performed. I-TASSER (Iterative Threading ASSEMBly Refinement) is a computational method that has been extensively used in accurately modeling protein structures [53-56]. I-TASSER uses a combinatorial approach, employing three conventional methods for structure modeling: homology (comparative), threading, and *ab initio* modeling [53]. For the submitted sequences, five models of each mKO2::I κ B α and mKO2::I κ B α 74-PEST(I κ B α Δ ANK1-6) were generated with C-scores ranging from -0.95 to -3.04 and -0.06 to -3.31 respectively. The C-score is a confidence score and in the range of [-5, 2], with higher scores representing higher confidence in the model and vice-versa [55].

A



B



C

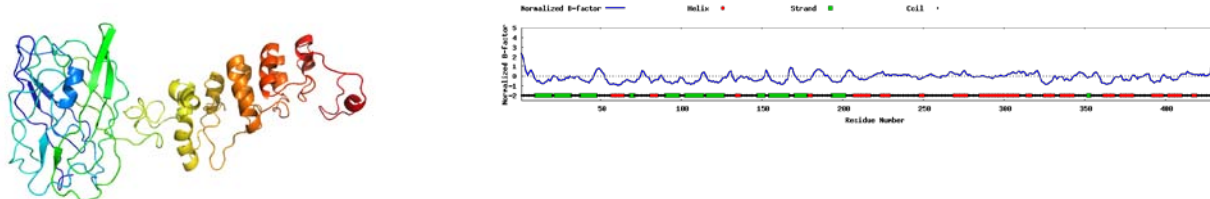


Fig. 22. Tertiary structures of fusion proteins. Structures of the resulting homology models of (A) mKO2::I κ B α , (B) mKO2::I κ B α 74-PEST(I κ B α Δ ANK1-6) and (C) mKO2::I κ B α 140-PEST(I κ B α Δ ANK3-6) with predicted normalized B-factor profiles of the targets created with I-TASSER and rendered with PyMol.

The C-score value being lower than -1.5 likely indicates a lack of an appropriate template within the I-TASSER library. Model 1 of both mKO2::IkB α (C-score = -0.95, **Fig. 22A**) and mKO2::IkB α 74-PEST(IkB α Δ ANK1-6) (C-score = -0.06, **Fig. 22B**) were used for all further analyses. In the case of mKO2::IkB α 140-PEST(IkB α Δ ANK3-6) (**Fig. 22C**) MD optimized mKO2::IkB α structure was used as a template for *ab initio* protein modeling. The sequence alignment of mKO2::IkB α 140-PEST(IkB α Δ ANK3-6) was carried out and manually adjusted to ensure alignment of important functional residues. Missing residues and loops were *ab initio* modeled using PRIME program. ANK repeats of the constructed models of fusion proteins depicted two anti-parallel α -helices, followed by a loop of variable length at a right angle. Each repeat began and ended with short β -hairpin turns that protruded away from α -helix. This non-globular fold was stabilized through intra- and inter-repeat hydrophobic interactions. Normalized B-factor values for fusion proteins predicted using a combination of both template-based assignment and profile-based prediction are shown in **Fig. 22**. Residues with positive B-factor values are less stable in experimental structures whereas negative values show more stable fragments. Residues located in loops or C- and N-terminal regions tend to have higher predicted B-factor values, as they are usually less stable compared with residues located at helices or strands.

Table 2. Top 10 threading structures used for homology sequencing.

mKO2::IkBa						mKO2::IkBa74-PEST(IkBaΔANK1-6)				
Rank	PDB Hit	Icen1	Icen2	Cov	Norm. Z-score	PDB Hit	Icen1	Icen2	Cov	Norm. Z-score
1	1N11A	0.20	0.19	0.64	3.49	2ZMUA	0.95	0.56	0.59	2.34
2	4TZAC	0.53	0.21	0.37	1.78	4JRBA	0.16	0.20	0.96	3.31
3	1N11A	0.20	0.19	0.66	3.33	2ZMUA	0.96	0.56	0.59	3.88
4	3IR8A	0.51	0.19	0.37	1.83	3MGFA	0.95	0.56	0.58	3.24
5	4RLVA	0.19	0.21	0.94	3.56	3CGLA	0.46	0.30	0.60	1.98
6	2ZMUA	0.96	0.36	0.36	5.31	2C9IA	0.45	0.29	0.61	1.44
7	4RLVA	0.14	0.21	0.90	12.40	2ZMUA	0.95	0.56	0.59	3.31
8	4RLVA	0.17	0.21	0.90	4.64	4TZAC	0.53	0.32	0.58	2.22
9	5ET0A	0.17	0.15	0.57	2.11	2ZMUA	0.96	0.56	0.59	6.58
10	4RLVA	0.19	0.21	0.84	3.24	2ZO6A	0.62	0.37	0.59	4.81

Rank of templates represents the top ten threading templates used by I-TASSER. Iden1 is the percentage sequence identity of the templates in the threading aligned region with the query sequence. Iden2 is the percentage sequence identity of the whole template chains with query sequence. Cov represents the coverage of the threading alignment and is equal to the number of aligned residues divided by the length of query protein. Norm. Z-score is the normalized Z-score of the threading alignments. Alignment with a Normalized Z-score >1 mean a good alignment and vice versa.

The structures of fusion proteins were used to search for proteins with regions of structural homology within the PDB database (**Table 2**). This assessment was carried out using the TM-align program [73]. TM-align detects the structural and functional analogs from the PDB library by the global structural alignment algorithm. Although the overall goal of the TM-align was to identify structural homologs, this server was utilized in order to give a deeper insight into the relationship between the modeled structure of fusion proteins and other proteins of known structure. The TM-align search indicated that the 10 proteins share structural similarity to the fusion proteins (**Table 3**) including monomeric Kusabira Orange and ankyrin containing proteins. Estimated RMSDs for mKO2::IkB α , mKO2::IkB α 74-PEST(IkB α Δ ANK1-6) and mKO2::IkB α 140-PEST(IkB α Δ ANK3-6) were found to be $9.8 \pm 4.6 \text{ \AA}$, $6.7 \pm 4.0 \text{ \AA}$ and $9.3 \pm 4.6 \text{ \AA}$ respectively.

Table 3. Proteins structurally close to the target mKO2::IkB α in the PDB.

Rank	PDB Hit	TM-score	RMSD ^a	Iden ^b	Cov
1	4RLVA	0.853	3.34	0.145	0.945
2	1N11A	0.615	2.12	0.191	0.650
3	3L5Q6	0.548	6.53	0.043	0.811
4	3JAVA	0.519	6.89	0.070	0.782
5	4UVKA	0.509	7.09	0.045	0.800
6	1B3UA	0.498	6.18	0.047	0.710
7	2XWUB	0.483	6.13	0.055	0.687
8	4PJUA	0.474	6.96	0.043	0.731
9	3ICQU	0.463	6.64	0.051	0.683
10	4IFQA	0.460	6.52	0.021	0.669

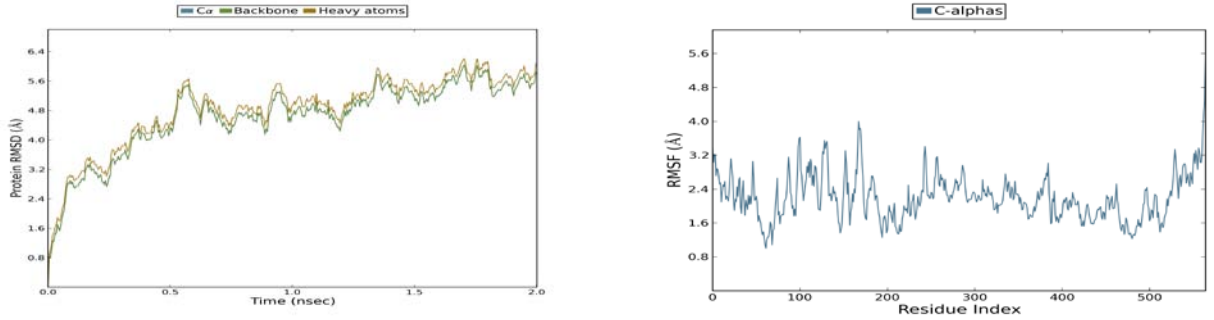
TM-score, ranking of proteins of the structural alignment between the mKO2::IkB α and known structures in the PDB library. ^a) RMSD between residues that are structurally aligned by TM-align. ^b) Iden is the percentage sequence identity in the structurally aligned region. Cov represents the coverage of the alignment by TM-align and is equal to the number of structurally aligned residues divided by length of the query protein.

III.2.2 Structure refinement and stability evaluation

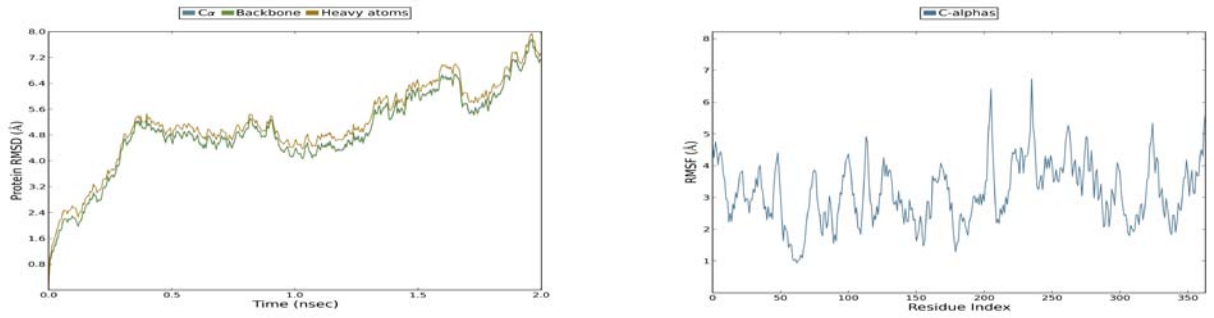
Predicted structures of fusion proteins were subjected to MD simulation in order to assess the stability of the models. **Fig. 23** shows the root mean square deviation (RMSD) and root mean square fluctuation (RMSF) plots for the protein C α -atoms and other heavy atoms with reference to the initial structure as a function of time. The plot shows that the equilibrium state was reached after 0.5 ns of simulation and was kept constant until the

end of the dynamics. Changes of RMSF peaks indicate areas of the protein that fluctuate the most during the simulation. Tails (N- and C-terminal) as wells as GS-linker region fluctuate more than any other parts of the protein.

A



B



C

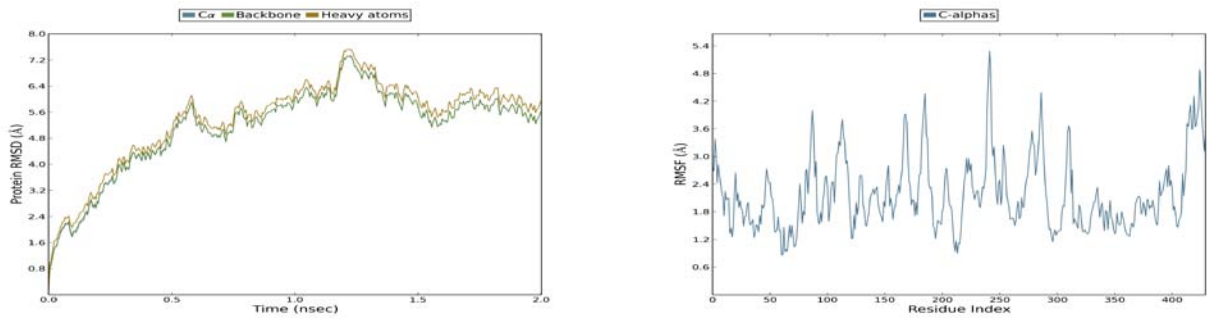


Fig. 23. Molecular dynamics trajectory-based analysis of the model refinement. RMSD and RMSF of C α of (A) mKO2::IkB α (B) mKO2::IkB α 140-PEST(IkB α ΔANK3-6) and (C) mKO2::IkB α 74-PEST(IkB α ΔANK1-6) with respect to their initial structure show the stable nature of the model after an initial equilibration time.

Secondary structure elements like alpha helices and beta strands are more rigid than the unstructured parts of the protein, and thus mKO2::IkB α with 6 ANKs fluctuates less than mKO2::IkB α 140-PEST(IkB α ΔANK3-6) (2 ANKs) and mKO2::IkB α 74-PEST(IkB α

Δ ANK1-6) (no ANKs). Structural rearrangements of superimposed initial structure with the final refined structure in each case are shown in **Table 4**.

Table 4. RMSD (Å) values between the initial and MD refined structures compared using SuperPose.

	Alpha Carbons	Backbone	Heavy atoms	All atoms
mKO2::<i>IκBα</i>	3.04	3.07	3.33	3.45
mKO2::<i>IκBα</i>140PEST (<i>IκBα</i>ΔANK3-6)	3.64	3.64	3.73	3.78
mKO2::<i>IκBα</i>74-PEST (<i>IκBα</i> ΔANK1-6)	1.34	1.37	1.72	2.00

Evaluation of the stereochemical quality of the model showed that only a few residues are in disallowed regions in the Ramachandran plot and most of them correspond to the structurally non-conserved regions (**Fig. 24**). These models show an improved energy profile compared with the initial models.

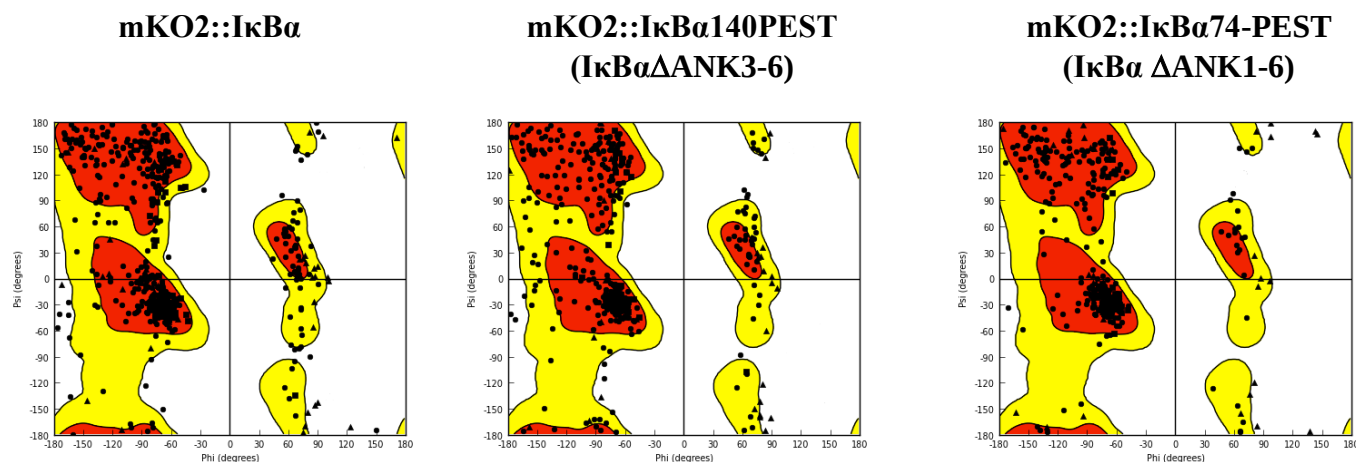


Fig. 24. Ramachandran plot for the minimized structures of fusion proteins. Glycine is plotted as triangles, proline is plotted as squares, all other residues are plotted as circles. The orange regions are the "favored" regions, the yellow regions are the "allowed" regions, and the white regions are the "disallowed" regions.

Table 5. Model evaluation.

	ProQ LGscore	ProQ MaxSub
mKO2::I κ B α	3.843	0.631
mKO2::I κ B α 140-PEST(I κ B α Δ ANK3-6)	3.732	0.588
mKO2::I κ B α 74-PEST(I κ B α Δ ANK1-6)	2.875	0.307

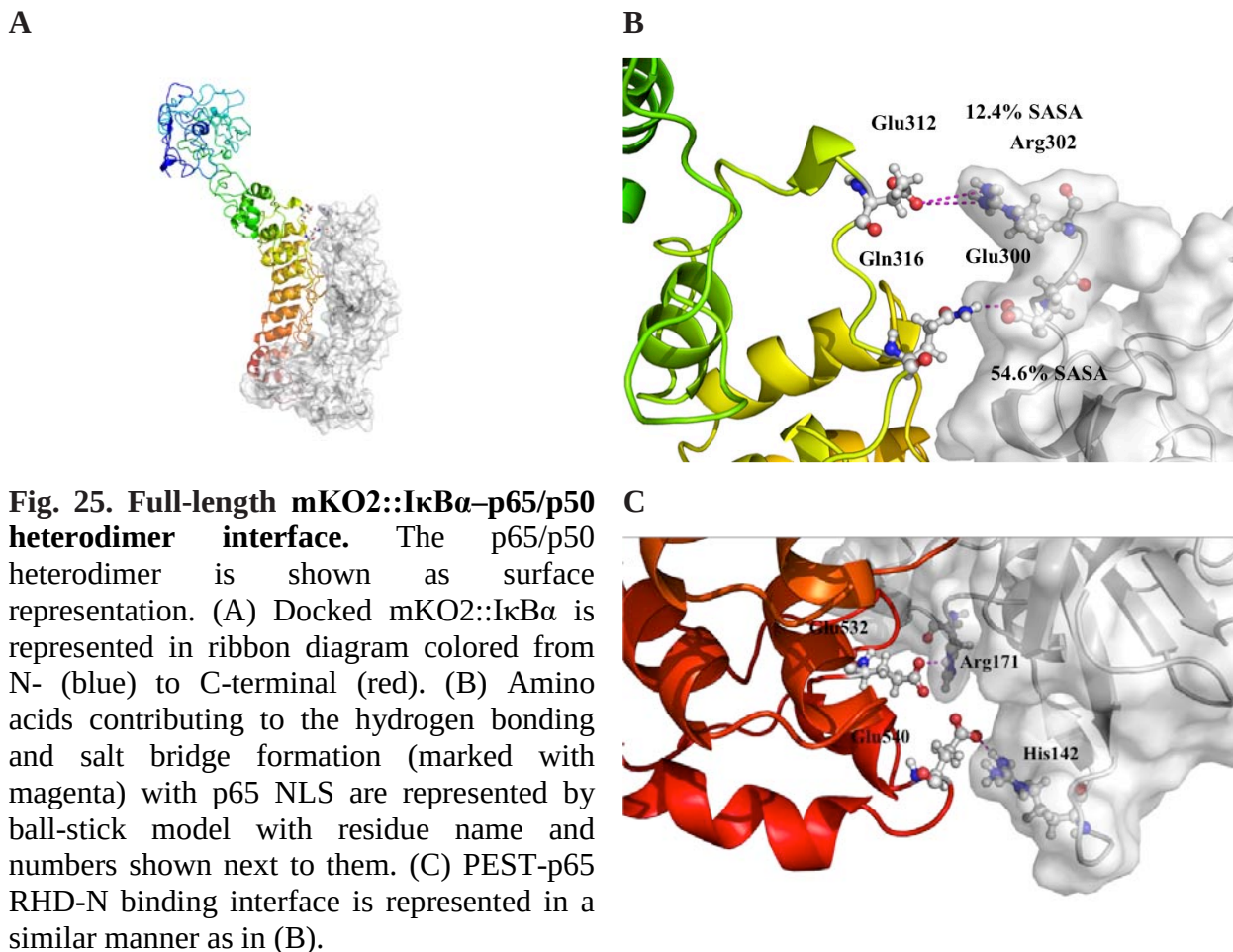
Note: LGscore is -log of a P-value and MaxSub ranges from 0-1, where 0 is insignificant and 1 very significant. LGscore >1.5 fairly good model; >2.5 very good model; >4 extremely good model. MaxSub >0.1 fairly good model; >0.5 very good model; >0.8 extremely good model.

I took the final snapshots of mKO2::I κ B α , mKO2::I κ B α 74-PEST(I κ B α Δ ANK1-6) and mKO2::I κ B α 140-PEST(I κ B α Δ ANK3-6) and subjected them to energy minimization following the model evaluation, which involved analysis of geometry, stereochemistry and energy distribution of the optimized models. The evaluation listed in **Table 5** indicated high quality for all of the models in terms of overall packing. These models were subsequently used for protein-protein docking studies.

III.2.3 Pairwise docking of mKO2-I κ B α -NF- κ B complex

The structural interactions between I κ B α and p65/p50 have been described previously [17]. I utilized PIPER, a protein-protein docking program that uses rigid body global search based on the Fast Fourier Transform (FFT) correlation approach to assess the interaction of protein molecules, to identify the likely binding sites of the p65/p50 heterodimer interfaces with fusion-proteins, as well as to evaluate the effect of the mutations (see Chapter II) in binding and degradation process. The structure of p65/p50 heterodimer was extracted from the PDB database (1IKN) [17]. The procedure of protein-protein docking is highly computationally oriented. The reliability of the docking results strongly depends on the quality of the docking methods. Each docking returned the 100 most probable models. The optimal docking solution for each complex was selected from the 100 candidates based on the following criteria: models that do not exist in the intersection of the two resulting sets were excluded; include only those shared models in which the binding region is supported by the literature data [17, 18]. In addition to the available literature information, a comparative study clearly demonstrated that full-length

mKO2::I κ B α has association with p65 NLS, located near the dimerization domain (**Fig. 25**).



Anionic carboxylate of Glu312 of ANK1 forms salt bridge with cationic guanidinium of Arg302 of nuclear localization signal. This interaction buries 12.4% of solvent accessible surface area (SASA). Gln316 of ANK2 forms H-bond with Glu300 of NLS. This interaction buries 54.6% of SASA. In addition, Trp314, Gln344, Phe351 of ANK1 are projected towards the NLS of p65. Thus ANK1 and ANK2 mask NLS stabilizing NF- κ B in cytoplasm and this is in agreement with previously solved cytoplasmic I κ B α protein [17, 18]. Moreover, anionic carboxylate of Glu532 of PEST forms salt bridge with cationic guanidinium of Arg171 of p65 and buries 46.6% of SASA. Glu540 of PEST forms H-bond with His142 of RHD of p65 and buries 69.6% of SASA (**Fig. 25**). Interactions between mKO2::I κ B α protein and NF- κ B in total bury 402 Å² of solvent accessible surface area, with 16 H-bonds along with long-range salt bridges. It was

previously reported that signal-induced degradation of I κ B α via the ubiquitin-proteasomal pathway requires phosphorylation on N-terminal residues serine 32 and 36 following the ubiquitination on Lys21 and 22 of I κ B α [43, 44]. Flexible (GGGS)₃x linker keeps the mKO2 in distance from the phosphorylation and ubiquitination domains of I κ B α providing the enough solvent accessibility to these residues for the degradation enzymes. SASA for Ser32, Ser36, Lys21 and Lys22 were calculated to be 31, 43, 58, 140 Å² respectively (**Fig. 26**).

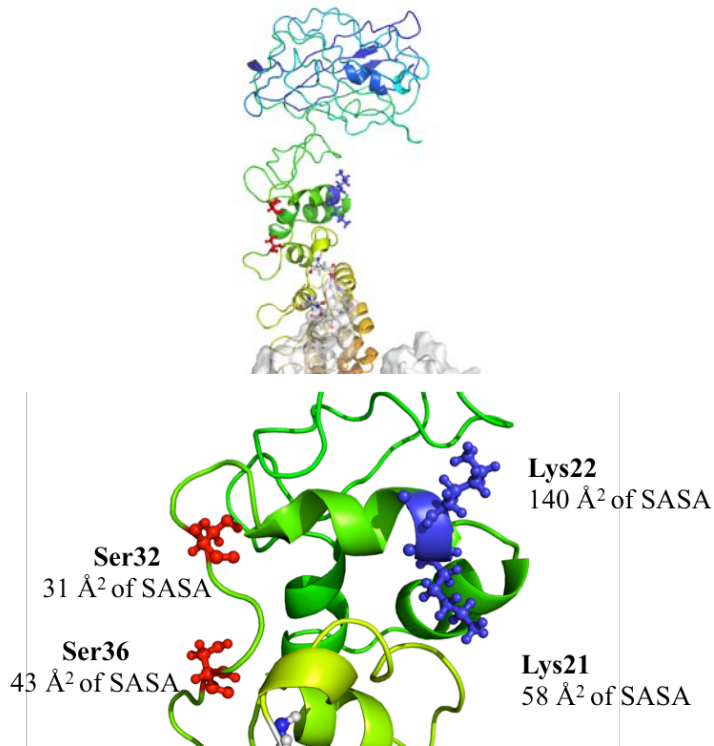


Fig. 26. mKO2::I κ B α -p65/p50 heterodimer interface. Docking studies predict that the GS-linker keeps the mKO2 in distance from the phosphorylation and ubiquitination domains providing solvent accessibility to Ser32, Ser36 (red) and Lys21, Lys22 (blue). Backbone is represented as described in Fig. 25.

mKO2::I κ B α 140-PEST(I κ B α Δ ANK3-6) interacts with NF- κ B in a similar mode to the full-length fusion protein. However, ANK1 and ANK2 were displaced unmasking NLS (**Fig. 27**). Solvent accessibility of ubiquitination domains Lys21 (SASA 59 Å²) and Lys22 (SASA 139 Å²) and phosphorylation domain Ser36 (SASA 40 Å²) were similar to residues in full-length fusion protein. However, this displacement resulted in solvent accessibility of phosphorylation site Ser32 increased from 31 to 55 Å², suggesting the reason for faster degradation compared to mKO2::I κ B α .

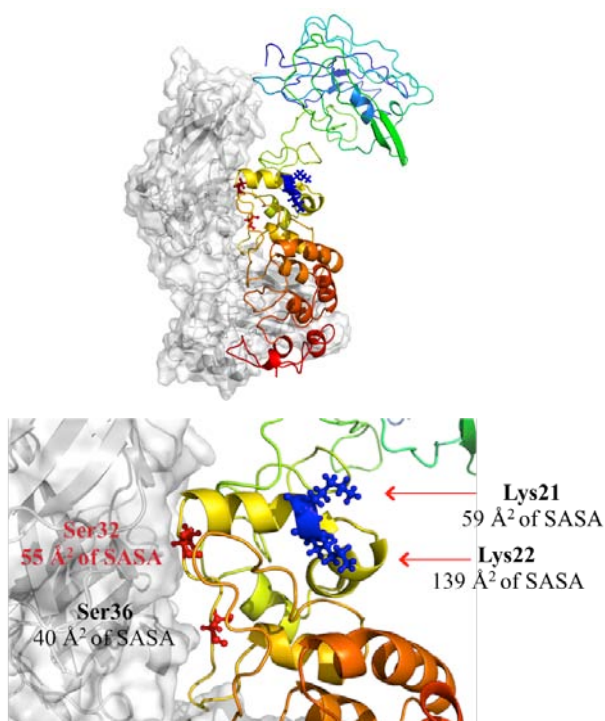


Fig. 27. mKO2::IkB α 140-PEST(IkB α ΔANK3-6) – p65/p50 heterodimer interface. Displacement of ANK1 and ANK2 resulted in elevated SASA for Ser32 (red) from 31 to 55 Å².

mKO2::IkB α 74-PEST(IkB α ΔANK1-6) does not contain ANK repeats. It contains only C-terminal PEST domain and N-terminal of IkB α , which was fused to mKO2. These domains of mKO2::IkB α 74-PEST(IkB α ΔANK1-6) interacts with RHD-N of p65 as in other constructs. This association resulted in decrease of SASA from 58 and 140 to 16 and 40 Å² for both ubiquitination residues Lys21 and Lys22 respectively, suggesting the possible reason for slower degradation (**Fig. 28**) compared to fusion proteins with longer IkB α . Computational structure-activity studies show consistency between fusion protein structures, their interaction with NF- κ B subunits and degradation kinetics.

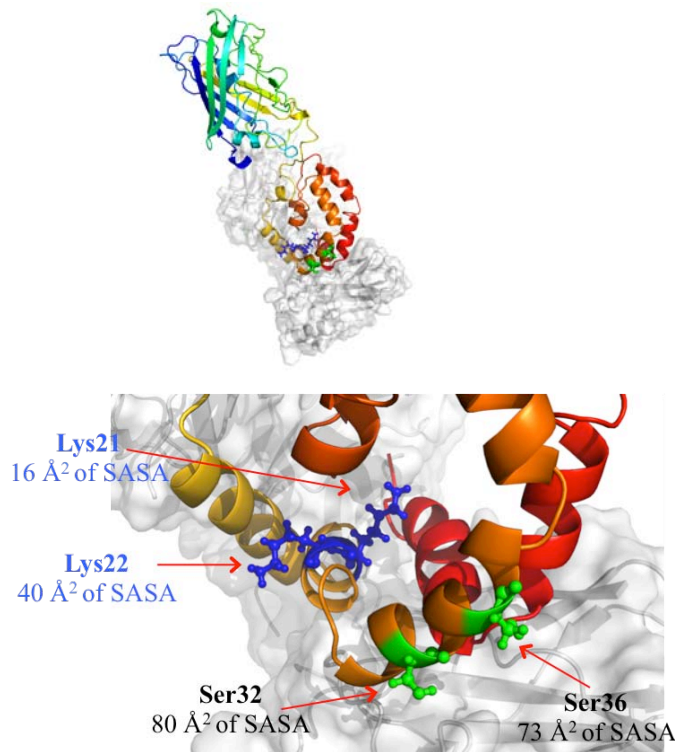


Fig. 28. mKO2::IkB α 74-PEST(IkB α Δ ANK1-6) – p65/50 interface. C-terminal of mKO2::IkB α 74-PEST(IkB α Δ ANK1-6) interacts with RHD-N of p65. SASA for Lys21 (58 Å²) and Lys22 (140 Å²) (blue) decreased to 16 and 40 Å² respectively.

III.3 Conclusion

The three-dimensional structures of mKO2::IkB α , mKO2::IkB α 74-PEST(IkB α Δ ANK1-6) and mKO2::IkB α 140-PEST(IkB α Δ ANK3-6) were modeled using comparative (homology) modeling approach. Subsequently, molecular dynamic simulations of these proteins in the presence of explicit water were performed to optimize the models and assess the stability. The confidence of the models was quantified based on the significance of threading template alignments and the convergence parameters of the structure assembly simulations. Models of mKO2::IkB α (C-score=-0.95, RMSD=9.8 $\pm$ 4.6Å), mKO2::IkB α 74-PEST(IkB α Δ ANK1-6) (C-score=-0.06, RMSD=6.7 $\pm$ 4.0Å) and mKO2::IkB α 140-PEST(IkB α Δ ANK3-6) (C-score=-1.03, RMSD=9.3 $\pm$ 4.6Å) were of correct global topology. ANK repeats of the designed models were described as two anti-parallel α -helices, followed by a loop at nearly right angle stabilized by the hydrophobic interactions within the repeats. In all constructs, GS-linker

allowed the mKO2 to keep distance from functional domains and N-terminal region of I κ B α to be accessible for both phosphorylation and ubiquitination. Furthermore, the refined models by molecular dynamics were used for multiple protein-protein docking studies for the identification of their complexes with p65/p50 NF- κ B subunits in order to study the effect of fusion construct to the stability of the complex as well as effect of mutations in binding and degradation processes. Fusion proteins did not create a single continuous buried surface contact with NF- κ B but rather interacted through several independent smaller patches. mKO2::I κ B α protein bound to NF- κ B in a similar mode as I κ B α by masking NLS segment of p65. Displacement of mKO2::I κ B α 140-PEST(I κ B α Δ ANK3-6) resulted in increased solvent accessibility for phosphorylation domain Ser32 that resulted in faster degradation. Solvent accessibility of both ubiquitination residues Lys21 and Lys22 of mKO2::I κ B α 74-PEST(I κ B α Δ ANK1-6) decreased resulting in slower degradation.

Summary

Novel fusion proteins composed of fluorescent protein mKO2 and human I κ B α or its fragments were developed to evaluate dynamics of stimulus-triggered degradation of I κ B α in living cells. Real-time confocal microscopy analysis showed that fusion-proteins expressed in HeLa cells degraded after TNF α stimulation. The half-life of degradation of mKO2::I κ B α 74-PEST(I κ B α Δ ANK1-6) was smaller than mKO2::I κ B α 140-PEST(I κ B α Δ ANK3-6) and mKO2::I κ B α proteins, which in turn was similar to the native I κ B α . Mutation studies demonstrated that PEST sequence is essential in signal-induced degradation of I κ B α independently from ANK repeats.

Selective proteasome inhibitors blocked the decay of fluorescence in concentration dependent manner, suggesting that stimuli-induced degradation of fusion proteins occurs via proteasomal system. Kinetics of degradation of these proteins obtained by real-time monitoring in the presence or absence of proteasome inhibitors upon the pro-inflammatory stimuli provided a reliable platform for the first-pass screening and evaluation of new drugs targeting the NF- κ B pathway.

Molecular-modeling approach was used to obtain structural models and reveal the potential sites of interaction between fusion proteins and NF- κ B as well as the effect of mutations in binding and degradation processes. The mKO2::I κ B α bound to NF- κ B similarly as native I κ B α masking nuclear localization domain. In all proteins GS-linker kept mKO2 in a distance from phosphorylation and ubiquitination sites of I κ B α to provide enough accessibility for the enzymes. Different binding schemes of partially modified I κ B α fusion proteins with NF- κ B altered surface accessible solvent area for phosphorylation and ubiquitination residues resulting in changed kinetics of degradation, which was consistent with microscopy data. The technique that has been described here could provide a range of possible applications, such as the analysis of the dynamics and biochemical characteristics of I κ B α degradation as well as for screening of potential proteasomal inhibitors.

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