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Activity of Tumor Necrosis Factor α Is Modulated by Dynamic **Conformational Rearrangements**

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Supporting Information

ABSTRACT: The homotrimeric ligand tumor necrosis factor α $(TNF\alpha)$ is a key cytokine and immune regulator; however, when deregulated, it leads to several major chronic inflammatory diseases. Perturbation of the protein-protein interface has proven to be an efficient strategy to inactivate $TNF\alpha$, but the atomic-resolution mechanism of its inactivation remains poorly understood. Here, we probe the solution structure and dynamics of active and inactive TNF α using NMR spectroscopy. The data reveal that TNF α undergoes motions on different time scales. Furthermore, by sitedirected mutagenesis of residues at the trimerization interface and by targeting the interface with a low molecular weight inhibitor, we show that $TNF\alpha$ retains its overall structure and trimeric state.



However, upon perturbation, $TNF\alpha$ exhibits increased conformational dynamics spanning from the trimerization interface to the regions mediating receptor binding. These findings provide novel insights into the inactivation mechanism of $TNF\alpha$ and the basis for strategies to target TNF α activity.

■ INTRODUCTION

Since its discovery as an antitumor agent, half a decade ago, tumor necrosis factor α (TNF α) has enjoyed enormous scientific and pharmaceutical interest, constantly renewed due to its pivotal role in the immune response and its relationship to many human diseases. Deregulation of $TNF\alpha$ is associated with several human malignant conditions including rheumatoid arthritis, Alzheimer's disease, psoriasis, inflammatory bowel disease, major depression, and cancer.¹⁻⁶

TNF α belongs to the TNF α superfamily of ligands, which are characterized by a conserved architecture, the TNF α homology domain (THD), and exert their biological function by a common binding mode to their cognate receptors TNFR1 and TNFRF2.^{6–8} In vivo, active TNF α is an obligate homotrimeric complex and its dissociation leads to a loss of function.^{9,10} Sitedirected mutational analysis of $TNF\alpha$ indicates that regions important for bioactivity comprise residues mediating receptor binding as well as residues involved in formation of the trimerization interface.^{11,12} Mutants containing substituted residues at the protein-protein interface (PPI) showed drastically reduced receptor-binding capabilities that abolished the TNF α response. Over the past years, the mechanism of TNF α inactivation has been intensively disputed. Studies have shown that deoligomerization manifests itself in diminished TNF α signaling, possibly due to weaker recruitment of TNFRs, while others propose that disruption of the trimer is not a prerequisite for attenuated activity.^{9,11-13} However, no detailed molecular model supports this notion, and therefore the mode of inactivation remains elusive.

Crystallographic data for native $TNF\alpha$ reveal that each monomer of the trimeric THD comprises two β -sheets, each consisting of five antiparallel β -strands. The inner and outer sheets form together a jelly roll topology (Figure 1A). The terminal strands of both sheets of one monomer interact with the inner sheet of the adjacent monomer and in such a way assemble the trimeric THD. The interface is composed mainly of hydrophobic amino acids and involves a cluster of aromatic residues including Y119 and Y59. TNF α harbors one disulfide bond linking the two top loops 3 and 4 (TL3 and TL4 in Figure 1A), giving rise to an overall pyramidal shape.^{14,15} When binding to its receptor, TNF α triggers downstream signal cascades.² The binding is mediated via interactions between conserved cysteine-rich domains of the receptor and the intersubunit groove of trimeric TNF α , which is defined by residues from TL1, TL2, and bottom loop 4 $(BL4)^{17,18}$ (Figure 1A).

The fact that the activity of $TNF\alpha$ can be abolished allosterically by interfering with the PPI generates immense therapeutic perspectives. Significant breakthroughs were obtained by successfully targeting TNF α with antibodies.^{19–23} However, these large molecules provoke major side effects and cause immunogenicity.²⁴ The development of new $TNF\alpha$ blockers, which defeat the immunogenicity issues and with potentially attenuated side effects, is crucially needed.²⁵⁻²⁷ Small-molecule inhibitors would be preferable and currently attract enormous attention as alternative TNF α blockers.² Recently a number of small-molecule inhibitors interfering with

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Figure 1. TNF α adopts a similar fold in solution as in the crystal. (A, top) Sketch of TNF α based on the crystal structure,¹⁴ showing a monomer unit with the inner (β -strands A'AHCF) and outer β -sheets (B'BGDE), which together form the β -sandwich of the monomer subunit; bottom loops BL1– 4 and top loops TL1-4 are labeled accordingly. The disulfide bond connecting TL3 and TL4 is shown with yellow sticks. (A, bottom) Sketch showing the arrangement of the trimerization interface. β -Strands E and F of each monomer interact with the inner sheet of the adjacent monomer and in such a way assemble the trimer. Three tumor necrosis factor receptors (TNFR), represented by gray ellipsoids, can interact with one TNF α trimer. The interaction takes place at each intrasubunit groove and is mediated via contacts to TL1, TL2, and BL4. (B) Two-dimensional (2D) NMR spectrum using $[{}^{1}H, {}^{1}SN]$ transverse relaxation optimized spectroscopy (TROSY) of 1 mM $[{}^{13}C, {}^{1}SN]$ -labeled TNF α in 100 mM phosphate-buffered saline (PBS), pH 7.4, recorded at 310 K at 700 MHz; assigned residues are marked with a cross and, if resolved, are labeled with amino acid and residue number; 98.4% of the observable backbone signals are assigned (Supporting Information). (C) Sequence-specific combined chemical shift deviations (CCSD) of C^{α} and C^{β} resonances from their respective random coil values; positive CCSD are indicative for α -helix, negative CCSD for β -sheet.¹⁶ Secondary structure motifs of the crystal structure are indicated at the top: β -strands (black), β -turn (violet), and 3¹⁰-helix (pink). (D, left) H/D exchange data reporting on solvent accessibility of backbone amides of $TNF\alpha$ in solution: fast-exchanging (green) and slowly exchanging (blue) NH protons as well as nonassigned (gray) residues are color-coded onto one TNF α monomer. Observed [¹H–¹H] nuclear Overhauser effects (NOEs) between amide protons (dashed lines) confirm the tertiary structure. The N- and C-termini are marked. (D, right) Three observed backbone ${}^{1}H^{-1}H$ amide-amide NOEs (dashed lines) correspond to distances larger than 5 Å in the crystal structure: V13-V41 (6.1 Å), S85-E131 (5.7 Å), and F64-L142 (5.8 Å). The corresponding amino acids are shown as sticks and labeled with name and residue number. These three violations can be explained by a prolongation of the secondary structural motifs by one residue. The crystal structure (PDB 1TNF)¹⁴ was used for all figures. The N- and Ctermini are marked when helpful for clarity.

the PPI site were proposed, but none of them has yet reached therapeutic usage.^{13,26,28–33} For one small-molecular inhibitor, SPD304,¹³ crystallographic data have elucidated the complex with TNF α , establishing the binding site at the trimerization interface and suggesting inactivation through disruption of the oligomeric state. However, targeting the PPI remains a challenge, especially due to the lack of prior knowledge about the detailed mechanism of inhibition at atomic resolution in solution.

In this study, we investigate the structural and dynamic features of TNF α in its active and inactivated forms, primarily by NMR spectroscopy. We present the first characterization of TNF α in solution at atomic resolution. We propose a model where trimer disruption is not a prerequisite for inhibition of TNF α , but rather differential dynamics controls its activity.

RESULTS

NMR Assignments and Comparison to Crystal Structure. TNF α represents a challenging case for NMR assignments due to its rather large size (51 kDa) and unfavorable dynamic properties. The conventional approach, using transverse relaxation optimized spectroscopy (TROSY)-type experiments³⁴ and perdeuteration³⁵ as applied for larger systems,³⁶ was hampered by the intrinsic dynamics of TNF α , which are manifested already in the [¹H,¹⁵N]-TROSY spectrum in the form of exchange-broadened and missing resonances

(Figure 1B). Thus, additional strategies were used, including selective amino acid type unlabeling³⁷ and site-specific mutations. With this combined approach, nearly all of the visible signals in the [1H,15N]-TROSY spectrum could be assigned (Figure 1B). Missing resonances in the fingerprint spectra correspond to the N-terminus, loops TL3 and TL4 around the disulfide bond, part of β -strand C of the interface (Figure 1A), and a RRA sequence in TL1 that mediates receptor binding. The solution NMR data were then compared to the crystal structure of TNF α . C^{α} and C^{β} chemical shifts,¹⁶ NMR proton/deuterium (H/D) exchange data of the backbone amide protons, and nuclear Overhauser effect (NOE) data revealed that the pattern of secondary structure elements in solution agrees with the crystal structure of $TNF\alpha$ (Figure 1A). However, two residues at the beginning of β -strand E do not show typical β -sheet backbone dihedral angle characteristics in solution (Figure 1C), and residue G24 shows a high amide proton exchange protection factor in solution despite being part of the flexible loop TL1 in the crystal structure. On the basis of carbon chemical shifts and the NOE pattern in ¹H-¹⁵N-¹H NOE spectra, G24 seems to be involved in a short helical turn. Otherwise, all identified amide [¹H-¹H]-NOEs are consistent with the tertiary structure of TNF α in the crystal¹⁴ (Figure 1D). These observations suggest that the crystal structure represents a good structural model of free TNF α in solution.

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Active Tumor Necrosis Factor α Is a Highly Dynamic Trimeric Protein. We used NMR ¹⁵N relaxation experiments to provide the basis for a dynamic characterization of $TNF\alpha$ in solution. Longitudinal (R_1) and transverse (R_2) relaxation rates and ${}^{1}H{}^{-15}N$ heteronuclear nuclear Overhauser effect (hetNOE) experiments were recorded for active TNF α at three magnetic fields with 500, 600, and 700 MHz ¹H frequency (Figure 2). With the assumption of isotropic reorientation, correlation times τ_c of 25.6, 25.1, and 24.1 ns were obtained for TNF α at the three magnetic fields, respectively, compatible with a trimer (expected $\tau_c \approx 22$ ns).³⁸ The ¹⁵N relaxation data at multiple magnetic field strengths were subjected to model-free analysis providing site-specific dynamic information for every amide bond vector relative to the global rotational diffusion tensor.^{39,40} The diffusion tensor was determined based on the ratios R_2/R_1 of the most rigid residues with TNF α crystal structure as structural model (PDB 1TNF).^{14,41} A prolate axially symmetric diffusion tensor was obtained, in good agreement with the symmetric nature of trimeric TNF α . The ¹⁵N relaxation data $(R_1, R_2, and hetNOE)$ were subsequently interpreted relative to the diffusion tensor with the model-free formalism by use of either a single or simultaneously all three magnetic fields.^{42,43} This approach yields a generalized order parameter S^2 , characterizing the extent of NH bond vector motion in the pico- to nanosecond time scale (S² ranges from 1 for a rigid vector to 0 for unrestricted motion) and an internal correlation time $\tau_{\rm e}$ associated with this motion. Possible additional slower dynamics can be observed, either by the presence of slower motional modes (still faster than the reorientational correlation time τ_c) or by the presence of additional contributions (R_{ex}) to R_{2i} indicative of slower conformational exchange on the microto millisecond time scale (Figure 2). The β -sheets represent the most rigid part, with an average S^2 of 0.92, while residues in the loop regions have smaller values. Lowest order parameters and elevated $\tau_{\rm e}$ values are found for residues in TL1, TL4, β -strand A', and receptor binding sites, indicative of a higher degree of internal dynamics. Evidence for slower exchange contributions is seen for residues within the outer β -strand G and the β -sheet (strands H, C, and F) forming the trimer interface, suggesting the presence of slow time scale motions between the three monomers.

Interference with the Protein–Protein Interface Alters the Dynamics. Investigation of $TNF\alpha$ in solution revealed substantial dynamic motional rearrangements upon allosteric inhibition by interference with the PPI. The interface was perturbed by two different means: either by interaction with the small-molecule inhibitor SPD304, shown to bind at the trimerization interface and known to inactivate TNF α , ^{13,44–46} or by site-directed mutagenesis of residues at the trimerization interface known to preclude receptor binding, leading to $TNF\alpha$ inactivation.^{11,12} In total seven TNF α mutants were constructed: four of the mutations are located at the trimerization interface (L57Y, Y59A, Y119S, and G121A interface mutants), and three are located in loop TL3 (T72A), in β -strand D (T89A), and at the C-terminal end of β -strand E (I97A). The specific mutants Y59A and Y119S were chosen on the basis of their very potent TNF α response inhibition.¹² While residue Y119 forms the most intimate contact at the trimer interface, Y59, L57, and G121 are also known to assist in trimer formation and to bind to SPD304.¹³ Mutations T72A, T89A, and I97A are expected not to interfere with SPD304 binding nor cause trimer disruption and thus serve as negative controls.



Figure 2. Backbone dynamics of $TNF\alpha$ in solution. (A) From top to bottom: ${^{1}H}^{-15}N$ heteronuclear NOE (hetNOE), longitudinal (R_{1}), and transverse (R_2) relaxation rates, followed by the parameters derived from model-free analysis including order parameter (S^2) and time scales of motion $(\tau_{\rm e})$ and exchange contributions $(k_{\rm ex})$. The measurements were performed at three magnetic field strengths: 500 (blue), 600 (red), and 700 MHz (green). Model-free parameters derived from simultaneous analysis of the three field strengths are shown as black bars, while order parameters derived from independent analysis of the three magnetic fields are color-coded as for the data. Exchanges contributions $k_{\rm ex}$ were derived from simultaneous analysis of the three fields, plotted with dependence on each of the three fields separately, and color-coded accordingly. β -Strands are highlighted with a light gray background, and regions mediating receptor binding are shaded light yellow.^{11,12,17} At the top, secondary structure motifs of the crystal structure are depicted as in Figure 1C. (B, C) $\text{TNF}\alpha$ motions mapped onto the crystal structure (PDB 1TNF).¹⁴ (B) Amplitudes of the picoto nanosecond backbone NH motions, with rainbow color-coding for the general order parameter S^2 from rigid ($S^2 = 1$, blue) to flexible ($S^2 = 1$) 0.3, red). (C) Amide moieties with internal motions on the nanosecond time scale (between 0.25 and 1.5 ns) (cyan) and with exchange contributions in the micro- to millisecond time scale (purple). Residues not experiencing any fast internal motions or chemical exchange are colored in black; gray indicates residues for which the relaxation parameters could not accurately be determined.

First, TNF α was titrated with increasing amounts of SPD304, and changes in TNF α were monitored by [¹H,¹⁵N] heteronuclear single quantum coherence (HSQC) spectra (Figure 3



Figure 3. Conformational fluctuations in TNF α with perturbed protein—protein interface (PPI). (A) [¹H,¹SN]-HSQC spectrum of native TNF α (black) overlaid to a spectrum of TNF α with SPD304 at a molar ratio of 1:1.4 (orange), measured on a 600 MHz spectrometer. The large box marks the area shown enlarged in panel D. The small boxes labeled with amino acid type and residue number indicate representative examples of resolved residues showing slow exchange between different conformations; these residues are depicted enlarged in panel E. Residue G40 is aliased in the ¹⁵N dimension. (B) Same as in panel A but with superposition of native TNF α (black) and mutant Y119S (green). (C) Same as in panel B but with superposition of native TNF α (black) and mutant Y119S (green). (C) Same as in panel B but with superposition of native TNF α (black) and mutant Y119S (green). (C) Same as in panel B but with superposition of native TNF α (black) and mutant Y119S (green). (C) Same as in panel B but with superposition of native TNF α (black) and mutant Y119S (green). (C) Same as in panel B but with superposition of native TNF α (black) and mutant Y119S (green). (C) Same as in panel B but with superposition of native TNF α (black) and mutant Y119S (green). (C) Same as in panel B but with superposition of native TNF α (black) and mutant Y59A (green). (D) Spectral changes in spectra of TNF α upon titration with SPD304 with molar ratios (SPD304:TNF α) of 0 (black), 0.3 (violet), 0.7 (red), 1.0 (blue), and 1.4 (orange); for clarity, the spectrum is shown here; Figure S1 presents the full and expanded spectrum. (E) Boxed regions in panels A–C, plotted enlarged and with lower contour levels; residues are indicated on top with their secondary element in brackets; chemical shifts (ω_2/ω_1) are given in the top row.

and Figure S1). Upon addition of SPD304, the resonances throughout the spectrum broaden significantly, except for those corresponding to the loop regions or the small β -strand B' (Figure 4 and Figure S2). Additionally, for numerous resonances (i.e., R138, A84, H ϵ N ϵ W28), the overall shape changes or new resonances in close proximity appear. Finally, a few amide resonances (i.e., A22) slightly change their combined chemical shift (ca. 0.06 ppm). (Figure 3D and Figure S2). These observations provide strong evidence for multiple stable conformations in slow to intermediate exchange when the PPI of TNF α is disturbed. Notably, these changes are not restricted to the trimerization interface. While the loss of intensity spans mainly the trimerization interface, the appearance of multiple peak maxima also includes residues in the loop region mediating receptor binding (Figure 3 and Figure S2).

On the basis of newly detected extensive motions in inhibited TNF α , we decided to study conformational changes induced in the PPI for the seven mutants described above. The four mutations at the trimer interface produced NMR spectra of striking similarities upon SPD304 titration (Figure 4). Interestingly, the mutation of the most proximal contact (Y119) resembles more closely the spectrum observed at high ratios of SPD304:TNF α , while mutations of PPI residues further from the interaction site (Y59 and G121) are more similar to those at lower SPD304 concentrations (Table S1). This strongly suggests that SPD304 interferes with the trimerization interface also in solution. On the contrary, alanine substitution mutants of residues remote from the trimer interface (negative controls) do not induce global conformational changes and have only local effects (Figure 4). Collectively, these results show that distortion

of the interface by mutation or interaction with SPD304 leads to global dynamic fluctuations among multiple conformational states on the intermediate to slow (micro- to millisecond) time scale.

Global Structural Characteristics Are Retained upon Interference with the Protein-Protein Interface. The impact of disturbing the PPI on the oligomeric state was investigated by TRACT (transverse relaxation optimized spectroscopy for rotational correlation time)⁴⁷ NMR relaxation experiments with active TNF α , the complex TNF α /SPD304, and the most strongly disrupting mutant, Y119S. Analysis of the TRACT data resulted in average isotropic rotational correlation times τ_c of 22.5 \pm 5.1 ns for TNF α /SPD304, 19.6 \pm 0.98 ns for Y119S mutant, and 22 \pm 2.8 ns for native TNF α (Figure 5C), in agreement with a preserved trimeric state. Additionally, the TRACT experiment confirmed the previously observed increase in conformational exchange by faster-decaying relaxation rates for the PPI perturbed forms. Since the high concentration of TNF α in the NMR samples could favor oligomerization, the oligomeric state of TNF α was further probed at lower concentrations by dynamic light scattering (DLS) and sizeexclusion chromatography (SEC) (Figure S3 and Tables S2 and S3). These measurements provided hydrodynamic diameter and retention volume of 6.5 \pm 1.5 nm and 11.2 mL for TNF α and 6.4 ± 1.4 nm and 11.08 mL for TNF α /SPD304, both consistent with a trimeric form. Moreover, multiangle light scattering (MALS), analytical ultracentrifugation (AUC), nanoelectrospray ionization mass spectrometry (nanoES-MS), cross-linking, and MicroScale Thermophoresis (MST) measurements further support a trimeric state for $TNF\alpha$ in both the absence and



Figure 4. Intensity changes in $[{}^{1}H, {}^{15}N]$ -HSQC spectra suggest similarities between the interface mutants and TNF α in complex with SPD304. Relative intensity changes plotted on the crystal structure (PDB 1TNF)¹⁴ using the color code blue (0%) \rightarrow white (50%) \rightarrow red (100%); residues that are not assigned or overlapping are marked in black. (Top row) Native TNF α in the presence of increasing amounts of SPD304 (ratios given above the structures). (Middle row) Interface mutants of TNF α (mutations given above the structures) in comparison to native TNF α ; green spheres indicate backbone and side-chain atoms of the residues mutated. (Bottom row) Same as middle row for mutations outside the PPI. A quantitative comparison is found in Table S1.

presence of SPD304 (Figures S3–S6). Additionally, neither DLS nor SEC performed on different interface mutants could reveal a change in the quaternary structure (Tables S2 and S3).

Possible changes in the secondary and tertiary structures of $TNF\alpha$ with perturbed interface were examined by ultraviolet circular dichroism (UV CD) and NMR H/D exchange experiments. Comparison of far-UV CD spectra of Y119S mutant and native $TNF\alpha$ revealed similar dichroic absorbances suggesting highly similar secondary structures, as confirmed by the negative band at 220 nm for both proteins, indicative of a high β -sheet content (Figure 5A). For TNF α /SPD304, the presence of dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO; to solubilize SPD304) prohibits comparative CD spectra in the far-UV region. Therefore, the secondary structure of $TNF\alpha/SPD304$ was investigated by NMR H/D exchange experiments. Only five residues, clustered at the top and bottom of the innermost β strands, show elevated H/D exchange rates compared to native TNF α (Figure S7), indicating the preservation of β -sheet structure with a possible loosening at the trimerization interface due to binding of SPD304.

Near-UV CD spectra (Figure 5B) that report on the tertiary structure can be used as a fingerprint spectrum of TNF α .^{10,48} Upon interaction with SPD304, the main maxima are present, indicating that TNF α overall conserves its tertiary structure. However, the main maxima are slightly shifted and associated with a decrease in dichroic absorption in the region 294.5–275 nm, usually related to a more relaxed environment and increased flexibility of a tyrosine or tryptophan side chain. Furthermore, an increased absorbance in the range 255–275 nm is observed that might be attributed to SPD304 experiencing an asymmetric environment when bound or to more restricted dynamics in phenylalanine residues of the protein. Our data suggest that

disturbing the PPI of TNF α leads to local loosening of the tertiary structure, probably at the PPI, a characteristic often also associated with molten globule-like states. The molten globulelike nature of PPI-disturbed TNF α was tested by fluorescence spectroscopy with an 8-anilino-1-naphthalenesulfonic acid (ANS) assay⁴⁹ (Figure S8). Molten globules typically enhance ANS fluorescence intensity and shift the maximum toward lower wavelengths. This effect was observed for both $TNF\alpha/SPD304$ and Y119S mutant. However, the strong interaction of SPD304 and ANS precluded a quantitative comparison of the two perturbations of the PPI. For Y119S, the effect remains much lower than for TNF α under conditions reported to mimic a molten globular TNF α (1 M guanidinium chloride).⁵⁰ Interestingly, Y59A does not induce such a shift, in agreement with previous NMR experiments indicating that this mutation induces less severe perturbation of the PPI than Y119S. These findings suggest that PPI-perturbed TNF α does not behave like a classical molten globule but that the appearance of interfacial loosening induces partial characteristics associated with a molten globular state. Overall, these experiments show that, upon perturbation of the PPI, $TNF\alpha$ conserves its oligometic state and its secondary and mainly its tertiary structure, while dynamic conformational rearrangements occur.

Destabilization of the Protein–Protein Interface Affects Receptor Binding by Changes in Dynamics. Residues located in three loops, TL1, TL2, and BL4 (Figure 1A), mediate the interaction of TNF α with its receptors.^{11,12,17} Despite strong exchange broadening in NMR spectra of TNF α with perturbed PPI, residues mediating receptor binding in TL2 and BL4 remain observable. The structural and dynamic properties of these residues were compared for native and PPI-perturbed TNF α (Y119S and TNF α /SPD304) to find



Figure 5. Structural characteristics of TNF α are preserved when the PPI is perturbed. (A) Circular dichroic (CD) spectra in the far-UV region (200-250 nm) for 0.178 mg/mL native TNF α (black) and 0.427 mg/mL Y119S mutant (green), reporting on the secondary structure; the dichroic absorbance is given in 10³dec·cm²·dmol⁻¹. (B) CD spectra of 300 μ M TNF α (black) and an equimolar complex of TNF α and SPD304 (orange) in the near-UV region, reporting on tertiary structure; the measurements were repeated three times, and the dichroic absorbance is given in dec·cm²·dmol⁻¹. (C, left) TRACT data (600 MHz) reporting on the quaternary structure of 600 μ M TNF α (black) ($\tau_c = 22.2$ ns, $R_{\alpha} = 24.27$ Hz, $R_{\beta} = 63.41$ Hz) and of 600 μ M Y119S (green) ($\tau_c = 19.6$ ns, $R_a = 32.43$ Hz, $R_{\beta} = 70.39$ Hz). (C, right) TRACT data (750 MHz) reporting on the quaternary structure of 230 μ M TNF α (black) ($\tau_c = 22.0$ ns, $R_{\alpha} = 32.36$ Hz, $R_{\beta} = 85.42$ Hz) and that of TNF α /SPD304 complex (1:1.4) (orange) ($\tau_c = 22.5$ ns, $R_{\alpha} =$ 54.23 Hz, R_{β} = 108.60 Hz). (D) TNF α and TNF α /SPD304 exhibit similar fast time scale motions. The cross correlation rates η_{xy} between the amide chemical shift anisotropy (CSA) and the dipol-dipole interaction (DD) in the amide moiety are color-coded onto the crystal structure of TNF α (left) and the complex TNF α /SPD304 (1:0.75) (right) with a rainbow gradient from cyan (rigid, 14 s⁻¹) to red (flexible, 50 s⁻¹).⁵¹ Backbone amide moieties that were missing in the NMR spectra, not assigned, overlapped, or with an error >15% are colored gray.

evidence for an explanation why distorting the PPI reduces the TNF α response.

To this end, amide three-dimensional (3D) 15 N-resolved [1 H, 1 H]-NOESY data were used to detect possible changes in the local structure of the loop region provoked by perturbation of the interface. No differences in NOE patterns were found for different forms, indicating the absence of significant structural changes in TL2 and BL4 upon destabilization of the PPI (Table S4).

In addition to residues in TL2 and BL4, residues in TL1 also mediate interactions with the receptor.^{11,12,17} However, resonances of these residues are not observable in any TNF α forms used in this study. To probe structural changes in TL1, we used trypsin digestion with the trypsin-sensitive RRA sequence (R31–A33) in TL1.⁴¹ The efficiency of digestion was used to report on structural changes in TL1 upon distortions of the PPI (Figure S9). No significant differences could be observed between PPI-perturbed and nonperturbed forms of TNF α , implying no structural rearrangement in this loop region.

The poor spectral properties of PPI-perturbed $TNF\alpha$ preclude accurate measurements of NMR relaxation rates necessary for a detailed characterization of its conformational dynamics. Alternatively we measured cross-correlated relaxation (η_{xy}) resulting from the interference between dipole-dipole (DD) and chemical shift anisotropy (CSA) relaxation mechanisms. These experimentally more accessible quantities can be used to probe amplitudes of fast conformational dynamics, albeit at reduced precision.⁵¹ Nevertheless, good agreement between the dynamic information extracted from cross-correlated relaxation and the previously obtained modelfree order parameters was obtained for free TNF α (Figures 2 and 5). Cross-correlated relaxation constants were also measured on TNF α in the presence of SPD304, including the residues observable by NMR in TL2 and BL4 loops (Figure 5). These measurements did not indicate any systematic dynamic changes at the fast time scale in the presence of SPD304. Although, observed alteration of the NMR resonances in the receptor-binding region upon perturbation of the PPI, indicate the presence of a slow conformational dynamic transition (Figures 3 and 4).

Collectively, these data (summarized in Table S4) suggest a destabilized PPI retains a similar 3D arrangement and local motions for the loop regions that mediate receptor binding, implying that each monomer is limitedly affected in its overall fold by perturbation of the PPI. This suggests the observed increased conformational dynamics results from a loosening of the PPI, allowing the different monomers to sample different relative conformations. As the receptor-binding region spans over two monomers, the appearance of this intersubunit motion could affect the binding properties to the receptor while preserving monomer integrity (Figure 6). This model is consistent not only with our NMR data but also with the diverse biophysical techniques used (vide supra).

To further test our model, the in vivo activity of cross-linked trimeric TNF α in the presence and absence of SPD304 was investigated (Figure S10). We observed similar activity in a dose-dependent cell cytotoxicity assay in mouse fibroblast cells of TNF α and cross-linked TNF α , but we noted reduced activity of TNF α /SPD304 (1:100) and trimeric cross-linked TNF α /SPD304 (1:100), while no effect of SPD304 alone was measured. These results suggest that SPD304 can inhibit a covalently bound trimeric form of TNF α that remains unaffected by a monomer-trimer equilibrium, possibly appearing at low in vivo concentrations. These results further support our proposed model mechanism.

DISCUSSION

Although the static three-dimensional crystal structures of native $\text{TNF}\alpha^{14}$ and of $\text{TNF}\alpha$ in complex with the small molecule SPD304^{13} provide some insight into the understanding of $\text{TNF}\alpha$, our results demonstrate that dynamic motions are key features of this inactive form of $\text{TNF}\alpha$. Here we show that the



Figure 6. Proposed mechanism for TNF α inactivation upon perturbation of its PPI. Native TNF α exists as a homotrimer and is capable of interacting with the receptor. The interaction with SPD304 (shown as a black circle) provokes increased dynamics in the PPI that loosens the interaction between the TNF α monomers and leads to relative motions between them. The receptor-binding interface spans over two monomers, and consequently the relative motion between the capability of TNF α to interact with the receptor, without global structural changes of each monomer.

published crystal structure is a valid model for native TNF α in solution. Additionally, we clearly demonstrate that residues involved in the interaction with the receptors of TNF α show high flexibility on the pico- to nanosecond time scale.

On the basis of the cocrystal structure, it was proposed that small-molecule inhibitors break up the trimeric form of $\text{TNF}\alpha$ to form a complex with a dimeric state.¹³ Our data do not support this view, though they corroborate prior suggestions of the existence of an intermediate trimetric complex between $\text{TNF}\alpha$ and the small molecule SPD304.^{13,44}

Our data show that perturbations of the PPI conserve the tertiary structure and trimeric state of $\text{TNF}\alpha$ despite inducing major changes in the energy landscape of the $\text{TNF}\alpha$ trimer. This modulation of conformational flexibility of $\text{TNF}\alpha$ was clearly revealed by the appearance of additional dynamics in the microto millisecond time scale after interference with the drug not only in the PPI but also in the receptor-binding region formed by two monomers. The highly dynamic nature of $\text{TNF}\alpha$ in complex with the small molecule SPD304, as observed by solution NMR, most likely prohibits the formation of crystals. Thus, the complex observed in the crystal may result from trapping of an alternative form favored by the crystalline environment.

The crystal structure between TNF α and SPD304 places the binding site at the lower part of the pore. Docking studies between this inhibitor and the trimeric form of TNF α showed interactions at the top end of the trimerization interface, proposing that further rearrangements are necessary for accessing the interface core.⁵² Our results with the interface

mutants are consistent with an interaction at the core of the trimer (Figure 4). Possibly, the high flexibility at the PPI upon interaction with SPD304 increases intersubunit mobility and allows access to the buried trimerization interface.

The activity of TNF α is known to crucially depend on the well-conserved interface residue(s) Y119 and/or Y59 without disruption of the oligomeric state.^{11,12} These observations led to the conclusion that unobservable abnormalities are responsible for the inactivity of TNF α . Now, 25 years later, our data resolve this seemingly paradoxical case by providing novel insights on how the activity of TNF α is modulated by allosteric modifications at the PPI. The unobservable abnormalities in our model are drastic and global dynamic increases in subunit mobility in the trimeric TNF α .

Our studies of TNF α in solution at atomic resolution provide strong evidence that, upon perturbation of the PPI, the structure of each monomer along with the oligomeric state remains intact (Figure 5, Figures S3–S9, and Tables S2 and S3). We investigated the oligomeric state of TNF α down to nanomolar levels, a range approaching the concentration at which the activity of TNF α is measured in vivo. Our conclusions are based on detailed investigation of the key mutations (Y59A, Y119S) as well as interactions with SPD304, and additional mutations in the interface (L57Y, G121A) are in line with these conclusions. Furthermore, our data show that perturbation of the trimeric interface leads to a local increase in conformational exchange for residues at the trimerization interface. This loosening of the interface, build from the two innermost β -strands B and F of one monomer facing the inner β -sheet of the adjacent monomer (Figure 1A), induces increased dynamics over the whole PPI, allowing the simultaneous existence of different heterogeneous conformational trimeric isomers. Ultimately, the dynamics of the intersubunit groove, which mediates receptor binding, is also affected (Figures 3 and 4 and Figure S2). We therefore conclude that an allosteric coupling mediated by conformational dynamics exists between the trimer interface and receptorbinding site: a change in interface dynamics will modulate the binding energetics to the receptor, explaining the decreased activity of TNF α (Figure 6). It seems that the aromatic rings of Y119 and Y59 act as locks and rigidify the TNF α quaternary structure. When perturbed by mutation or by drug binding, multiple interface contacts become possible, inducing global conformational consequences without destroying the trimeric form.

The idea that TNF α can exist as a trimer with increased flexibility and dynamics was previously suggested in studies on the folding pathway of TNF α , where the disassembly of TNF α happens via an intermediate trimeric molten globule.^{48,50} Our analysis reveals that TNF α has some but limited characteristics of a molten globule-like state, resulting from loosening of the PPI while no evidence of significant loss of tertiary or quaternary structure could be observed.

In summary, we propose a mechanism where the key to TNF α inactivation lies in dynamic changes. When its interface is disturbed, TNF α remains trimeric but with a highly dynamic PPI. This increased dynamics propagates through the protein, altering the energy landscape of the receptor-binding domain, which impedes proper interactions. Our biophysical results reveal internal mobility as a further dimension in the regulation of TNF α activity, a mechanism that might be applicable for other proteins with similar oligomeric architecture. The model mechanism based on in vitro data was further supported by in vivo experiments. We expect our results to have significant implications for assessing possibilities to regulate TNF α and therefore for opening avenues for novel anti-TNF α therapeutic developments.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Here only general procedures are described; more detailed descriptions can be found in the Supporting Information.

Sample Preparation. Human TNF α (UniProtKB P01375), production was performed as previously described.⁴⁴ Protein purity and molecular weight was confirmed by ES-MS, and the activity of TNF α was verified by a cytotoxicity assay using mouse fibroblast cells (LM, American Type Culture Collection).⁵³ The melting temperatures of TNF α and the Y119S mutant were obtained by use of SYPRO Orange.⁵⁴

NMR Spectroscopy. NMR samples were prepared in 150 mM 3-(*N*-morpholino)propanesulfonic acid (MOPS) and 50 mM ammonium acetate buffer, pH 7.2, and measured at 310 K, unless otherwise stated.

NMR Assignment. Resonance assignments were obtained with 1 mM uniformly ²H,¹³C, ¹⁵N-labeled TNF α in 100 mM PBS in 90%/10% H₂O/D₂O, pH 7.4, using TROSY versions of three-dimensional NMR experiments^{34,55} at 600, 700, and 900 MHz. TNF α chemical shift assignments have been deposited in the Biological Magnetic Resonance Data Bank (BMRB) under entry code 27266.

H/D Exchange Experiments (700 MHz). ¹⁵N-Labeled TNFα was lyophilized overnight and quickly dissolved in 100% D₂O right before the measurement. Changes in signal intensities were monitored by 2D [¹H,¹⁵N]-HSQC spectra over the time range from 10 min after dissolution to 17 days.

¹⁵N Relaxation Measurements (500/600/700 MHz). R_1 and R_2 relaxation rates and hetNOE experiments were acquired at all three fields on a ¹⁵N-labeled 1.2 mM sample by use of standard pulse

sequences.⁵⁶ The cross-correlated relaxation rates η_{xy} (700 MHz) were measured on a 1.2 mM ¹⁵N-labeled TNF α sample and a 0.4 mM TNF α /SPD304 (1:0.75) complex by use of published pulse sequences.⁵¹ Data were processed and analyzed by use of TopSpin 3.2 and Dynamic Center (Bruker Biospin, Karlsruhe, Germany). Fitting of the rotational diffusion tensor and model-free analysis were performed with the program TENSOR v2.⁴²

Titrations Monitored by [¹H,¹⁵N]-Heteronuclear Single Quantum Coherence Spectroscopy (600/750 MHz). SPD304 (Cayman, Ann Arbor, MI)^{44,46} was titrated stepwise to 230 μM [¹³C, ¹⁵N]-labeled TNFα including ratios 0, 0.3, 0.7, 1.0, 1.4 (SPD304/ TNFα). [¹H,¹⁵N]-HSQC spectra were measured for all titration steps. Titrations were also performed for mutants G121A, Y59A, Y119S, T89A, T72A, I97A, and L57Y. Influences of the presence of DMSO- d_{69} of a change in pH, and of the presence of N-terminal (His)₆ tag on the observed [¹H,¹⁵N] spectra were investigated and could be excluded.

Transverse Relaxation Optimized Spectroscopy for Rotational Correlation Time Experiments. TRACT⁴⁷ spectra were obtained with ¹⁵N-labeled protein samples: 230 μ M TNF α and 230 μ M:300 μ M TNF α /SPD304 complex (750 MHz) and 600 μ M TNF α and 600 μ M Y119S (600 MHz).

Oligomeric State. DLS experiments were performed on 60 μ M TNF α , 60 μ M Y119S mutant, and 60 μ M TNF α in the presence of 300 μ M SPD304. SEC was performed on 100–200 μ M TNF α , mutant versions, and TNF α /SPD304 (1:1.4). The protein was monitored at 280 nm; the DMSO concentration was identical for all samples. NanoES-MS was conducted on 4.5 μ M TNF α , TNF α /SPD304 (1:3), and Y119S. MST and cross-linking were performed on TNF α in the presence and absence of SPD304, over the nanomolar concentration range.

Circular Dichroism. Optical activity was measured on a Jasco J-715 spectropolarimeter at 30 °C. Near-UV (240–330 nm) spectra were acquired at a protein concentration of 300 μ M. Either 2.5% DMSO or 300 μ M SPD304 to a final DMSO concentration of 2.5% was added. Far-UV (200–250 nm) spectra were measured on a TNF α sample of 0.18 mg/mL and on the mutant Y119S (0.43 mg/mL) in 100 mM PBS buffer, pH 7.4.

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge on the ACS Publications website at DOI: 10.1021/jacs.7b05050.

Additional text with detailed materials and methods; 10 figures showing additional TNF α NMR characterization, AUC, DLS, MALS, H/D exchange, ANS, MST, crosslinking, cell assays, fluorescence, and trypsin digestion data; and four tables listing additional analyses of TNF α perturbation as well as TNF α NMR assignment (PDF)

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Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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