1 Long Title: Dynamic evolution of MLKL in primate and poxvirus genomes indicates
2 necroptosis is a critical, not auxiliary, countermeasure during infection
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4 Short Title: Dynamic evolution of host and viral necroptotic factors
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Abstract

Pathogen infection triggers host innate defenses which can lead to the activation of regulated cell death (RCD) pathways such as apoptosis. Given a key role in immunity, apoptotic effectors are often counteracted by pathogen-encoded antagonists. Mounting evidence indicates that programmed necrosis, which is mediated by the RIPK3/MLKL axis and termed necroptosis, evolved as a countermeasure to pathogen-mediated inhibition of apoptotic signaling. However, whether this emerging inflammatory RCD pathway functions primarily as a "back-up" or fundamental response remains inconclusive. We hypothesized that if necroptosis is an instrumental defense, then its effectors should display specific signatures associated with pathogen conflict that are rare in combination: rapid evolution, viral homolog hereafter virolog, and induction by cytokines (e.g. interferons). Our rapid evolution analysis across the necroptosis pathway revealed: 1) strong signatures of positive selection for RIPK3 and MLKL in primate genomes and to a lesser extent DAI/ZBP1, 2) elevated rates of amino acid substitution on multiple surfaces including the RIPK3/MLKL binding interface and 3) evidence supporting a means of activating RIPK3 independent of homotypic RHIM domain interactions. Interestingly, a poxvirus MLKL homolog has recently been identified that acts as a RIPK3 pseudosubstrate. Our findings indicate that poxvirus MLKLs are also subject to similar but distinct volatile patterns of evolution comparable to host necroptotic factors. Specifically, viral MLKLs have undergone numerous gains and losses in poxvirus evolution with some species harboring three distinct copies. Furthermore, we confirm that MLKL can be induced by cytokines like interferon gamma. In summary, MLKL displays all three hallmarks of pivotal immune factors of which only OAS1, but not other factors

38   like cGAS, APOBEC3G, or PKR, exhibits. These data support the hypothesis that over

39   evolutionary time, necroptosis has served as a key battleground during infection and is

40   therefore, not an auxiliary response.

Summary

Regulated cell death (RCD), such as apoptosis, is a common host defense against invading pathogens. Necroptosis, an inflammatory RCD pathway, is thought to have emerged as an auxiliary response when other cell death pathways are suppressed by pathogens during infection. In our analyses, we have identified genetic changes in host and viral factors associated with necroptosis that display signatures of adaptation and may have served as evolutionary countermeasures to shape infection outcomes. Consistent with repeated targeting by pathogen-encoded inhibitors, we found robust signatures of rapid evolution for the essential catalysts of necroptosis, RIPK3 and MLKL. Notably, an evolutionary signature specific to RIPK3 for a domain shared with other necroptotic factors suggests an undefined means to trigger this host defense pathway. In contrast, poxviruses appear to circumvent this pathway by constantly altering the number and nature of factors they deploy to suppress necroptosis including a mimic of MLKL, which was stolen from infected cells. Collectively, our findings provide new insights into host and viral genetics that may influence infection outcomes and the factors shaping the ability of pathogens to infect and spread to new species. Furthermore, these data support the notion that necroptosis is a fundamental, not auxiliary, host response during infection.

Introduction

Regulated cell death (RCD) programs are pivotal host defense responses against pathogens [1-3]. Consequently, pathogens have evolved a myriad of strategies to counteract these responses [4, 5], which includes the activation of apoptosis. Apoptosis is a well-characterized, non-inflammatory form of RCD that was first classified by its distinct morphology that includes membrane blebbing, apoptotic bodies, and nuclear and cytoplasmic condensation [6]. Both extrinsic as well as intrinsic cues can trigger a signaling cascade that involves the activation of effector caspases to execute apoptosis (Fig 1A) [7] which was characterized, in large part, using viral proteins [8].

Recently, a RCD pathway defined as programmed necrosis, hereafter necroptosis, was discovered. Necroptosis is triggered when specific apoptotic signaling and effector functions are suppressed during pathogen infection. Given the conditions under which it is activated, necroptosis has often been considered a necessary "back-up" host response to pathogen-mediated inhibition of apoptosis (Fig 1B) [9, 10]. In contrast to apoptotic cell death, necroptosis is inflammatory and characterized by cell and organelle swelling followed by plasma membrane rupture [7, 11, 12]. Apoptotic and necroptotic signaling also differ in their evolutionary dynamics over large timescales. Specifically, key effectors of cellular necroptotic signaling emerged later in evolution and display a "patchy" phylogenetic distribution [13, 14] which is in marked contrast to the more ancient and highly conserved components of apoptotic signaling [15-17]. Notably, the evolutionary dynamics of necroptotic signaling over more recent timescales is unknown but may inform determinants shaping contemporary infections.

Necroptosis can be initiated by at least three presumably independent receptors:

1) death receptor (DR) signaling, 2) the pathogen recognition receptor (PRR) Z-DNA

Binding Protein 1 (ZBP1) / DNA Activator of Interferon (DAI), and 3) Toll-like Receptor 3/4

(TLR3/TLR4) [7]. Activation of DR signaling triggers Receptor Interacting Protein Kinase

1 (RIPK1) to self-oligomerize, which leads to the recruitment of Receptor Interacting

Protein Kinase 3 (RIPK3) via physical RIP Homotypic Interaction Motif (RHIM) domain

interactions. Activated RIPK3 subsequently binds and phosphorylates Mixed Lineage

Kinase-Like (MLKL) [18-20]. Phosphorylation of MLKL results in a conformational change,

enabling self-oligomerization of this factor to complete necroptosis through MLKL-plasma

membrane destabilization [21, 22].

Importantly, DR initiation of necroptosis appears to function when caspase-8

activity is inhibited during apoptosis [23, 24]. In contrast, DAI triggers necroptosis upon

binding foreign nucleic acids followed by activation of RIPK3 via RHIM-dependent

interactions [25, 26]. In addition, TLR3 and TLR4 signaling can activate RIPK3 via TIR-

domain-containing adaptor-inducing interferon-β (TRIF) also through physical RHIM

domain interactions [27, 28]. The diverse and distinct means of activating necroptosis with

convergence on the RIPK3/MLKL axis reflect the breadth of pathogens this response may

protect against.

Consistently, a growing list of viral- and bacterial-encoded inhibitors that target

discrete steps of necroptosis has emerged [29-36]. However, whether this pathogen-

mediated antagonism has shaped cellular necroptotic factors remains unknown. Strong

selective pressure may be imposed on host factors to escape direct binding by pathogen-

encoded antagonists. This pressure is often visible as elevated rates of amino acid

substitution, a signature of rapid evolution and a hallmark of positive selection. Signatures

of rapid evolution have been observed across orthologous sequences from closely related

species (e.g. primates) for several key immune factors: PKR [37], OAS1 [38, 39], MxA [40],

TRIM5α [41], APOBEC3G [41], and cGAS [38, 39]. Studies of host-pathogen co-evolution

may reveal novel insights into cellular responses including evidence for undefined host

components, genetic determinants shaping infection outcomes, and pathogen

countermeasures of these defenses. We hypothesized that analysis of signatures

characteristic of host-pathogen conflict for both cellular and viral components would

illuminate whether necroptosis has served as a "back-up" or a core, fundamental

response over evolutionary time.

Consistent with pivotal roles in host defense across species, we report that the

necroptotic axis in primates - RIPK3 and MLKL - displays widespread and recurrent

signatures of rapid evolution. Interestingly, we found evidence for positive selection within

the RHIM domain of RIPK3, but not at homologous sites in RHIM domains of DAI, TRIF,

or RIPK1, that is proximal to a known target-site for a conserved bacterial protease.

Notably, these bacterial proteases have been shown to cleave all of the RHIM domain

containing necroptosis factors [30]. These data suggest an undefined means of RHIM-

independent RIPK3 activation. Evolutionary genetics analysis of a recently described

poxvirus MLKL homolog indicate that this antagonist has been subjected to repeated

gains and losses over viral evolution with some poxvirus genomes encoding up to three

mimics. In summary, our data demonstrate that MLKL belongs to a small class of key

immune factors, which includes OAS1 but not PKR or cGAS, that display all three

hallmarks of pivotal immune factors - rare in combination: 1) rapidly evolving, 2) viral

homolog, and 3) upregulation by cytokines such as interferons. Collectively, our data are

consistent with necroptosis being a fundamental host defense, not an auxiliary one,

shaping infection outcomes over evolution.

Results

Widespread signatures of rapid evolution in primate RIPK3 and MLKL
135
To determine if known components of the necroptosis pathway display signatures

of positive selection, we analyzed a matching set of twenty-one primate sequences for

TRIF, *DAI*, *RIPK1*, *RIPK3* and *MLKL* using a series of evolutionary analyses. To test for

recurrent positive selection, we used a combination of maximum-likelihood based

algorithms, which estimate rates of non-synonymous amino acid replacements (dN)

relative to synonymous (dS) amino acid substitutions. dN/dS values > 1 are considered a

hallmark of positive selection. Using codon-based models implemented in P̲hylogenetic

A̲nalysis by M̲aximum L̲ikelihood (PAML) [42], we detected robust gene-wide rapid

evolution signatures for *MLKL* [M7 vs. M8 (F3x4) p < 5.400 x 10^{-10}], *RIPK3* [M7 vs. M8

(F3x4) p < 3.056 x 10^{-9}] and to a lesser extent, *DAI* [M7 vs. M8 (F3x4) p < 5.767 x 10^{-3}]

but not *RIPK1* [M7 vs. M8 (F3x4) p < 0.065] or *TRIF* [M7 vs. M8 (F3x4) p < 0.066] (Fig

2A, S1 File). The signature of selection for the main effectors of the necroptosis pathway,

RIPK3 and MLKL, is comparable to other key host defense factors – PKR, cGAS, OAS1

– which are also upregulated by cytokines. Indeed, MLKL is also upregulated by cytokines

like interferons [43-45], which we confirm for IFNγ (Fig 2B).

To assay when and to what extent selection pressure has shaped necroptotic

signaling over primate evolution, we estimated dN/dS values across the primate

phylogeny (Fig 2C) for each factor. Consistent with our gene-wide tests of evolution, we

observed recurrent and widespread signatures of positive selection across primates for

RIPK3, *MLKL* and again to a lesser extent, *DAI*. Specifically, numerous lineages across

primate evolution for both *RIPK3* and *MLKL*, including branches in each major group,

show substitution patterns that are characteristic of genetic conflict. Strikingly, especially

strong signatures are evident for *RIPK3* in the lineage preceding the divergence of

Hominidae [10 nonsynonymous changes: 0 synonymous changes] and for *MLKL* in the

lineage prior to Hominidae divergence [dN/dS = 4.49] (Fig 2C). In contrast, only one

lineage with a rapid evolution signature was detected for both *TRIF* and *RIPK1*. Thus,

repeated innovation in the necroptosis pathway has been primarily focused on the

downstream axis of *RIPK3*/*MLKL* during primate evolution.

To uncover where strong selection pressure may have been imposed within the

effector proteins of necroptosis, dN/dS values were estimated for individual amino acid

positions using three distinct but commonly implemented methods: PAML [42], MEME

[46], and FUBAR [47] (Fig 3A, S1 File). The distribution and the number of rapidly evolving

sites are thought to reflect the number of protein surfaces in genetic conflict with other

factors, such as pathogen-encoded inhibitors [48]. In agreement with necroptosis being

triggered by diverse pathogens, predicted rapidly evolving sites are distributed throughout

the necroptosis proteins (*MLKL*, *RIPK3*, *DAI*, *RIPK1*, and *TRIF*). In support of our

preceding analysis, *MLKL* (20 total sites / 11 by multiple methods) and *RIPK3* (27 total

sites / 7 by multiple methods) have the most sites identified (Fig 3A). Interestingly, the

majority (70%) of MLKL positively selected sites are localized to the kinase-like domain,

with 12/14 sites within this domain occurring between amino acid positions 370-470 (Fig

3A). Positively selected sites mapped onto a previously published co-crystal structure of

mouse RIPK3 and MLKL [49] indicate that clusters of sites represent distinct surfaces (Fig

3B). Analysis of space-filling models highlights that the majority of the rapidly evolving

sites are found on the protein surface for both RIPK3 and MLKL, which suggests they

represent interfaces for protein-protein interactions (S1 Fig). Notably, there is a cluster of

positively selected sites for RIPK3 that surrounds MLKL and corresponds to the

hydrophobic pocket where RIPK3 and MLKL interact via hydrophobic interactions (Fig

3C). This signature may indicate the presence of MLKL pseudosubstrates, as this pocket

has been demonstrated previously to be necessary for RIPK3:MLKL interaction and for

necroptosis to occur [31, 49].

186 Rapid evolution exclusive to the RHIM domain of RIPK3 localizes to a known
187 bacterial protease cleavage site
188
RHIM-RHIM homotypic interactions between RIPK3 and established necroptosis

activators RIPK1, TRIF, and DAI are required for signal transduction. The critical nature

of this interaction is also supported by the identification of both viral- and bacterial-

encoded inhibitors that target the RHIM domains of these proteins. These include

cytomegalovirus M45 and herpes simplex virus ICP6 and ICP10, which all encode RHIM

domains and target host RHIM-dependent interactions [29, 33]. Another example is EspL,

a bacterial protease, which is encoded by diverse species, including enteropathogenic

Escherichia coli (EPEC), *Salmonella enterica,* and *Yersinia pestis* [30]. Notably, EPEC

EspL has been shown to cleave a specific motif (Q*G**N) in the RHIM domains of human

and mouse TRIF, DAI, RIPK3, and RIPK1, which results in the suppression of necroptosis

[30].   Interestingly, rapid evolution was evident in the RIPK3 RHIM domain but not

detectable in homologous domains across primate *TRIF*, *DAI,* and *RIPK1* (Fig 3D).

Indeed, *RIPK3* showed elevated rates of substitution by PAML analysis at two sites

immediately adjacent to the determined RHIM EspL cleavage motif – G<u>DN</u>/NYL where "/"

indicates cleavage; the sites 462D and 463N are rapidly evolving (Fig 3D). The

evolutionary signatures of necroptosis RHIM domains may indicate modes of RIPK3

activation and/or functions independent of the RIPK1, TRIF, and DAI RHIM domains.

Poxviral antagonism of the RIPK3:MLKL interface serves as a model for
antagonistic coevolution
208
The rapid evolution signature of RIPK3 near the hydrophobic pocket indicates

antagonism, likely by pseudosubstrates (Fig 3C). Indeed, a viral copy of MLKL (vMLKL),

which is encoded by numerous poxviruses has been recently identified [31]. Yet, the

origins and evolution of these vMLKLs remain unknown. We identified twenty-seven

distinct copies of vMLKL in the sequence database across the genomes of *Avipoxvirus*,

Clade II, along with two other poxvirus species that infect bats [eptesipoxvirus (EPTV)

and hypsugopoxvirus (HYPV)] (Fig 4D). vMLKL lacks the N-terminal bundle and brace

(NBB) domain but maintains the C-terminal kinase-like domain, to which RIPK3 binds to

phosphorylate the host cellular homolog [31] (Fig 4A). Ectopic expression of two vMLKLs

from poxvirus species that primarily infect mice were demonstrated to competitively inhibit

both mouse and human RIPK3 in binding and cell-culture necroptosis assays [31].

Superposition of a homology model of myxoma virus (MYXV) MLKL onto published

crystal structures for mouse MLKL [49] and human MLKL [50] indicated striking structural

overlap with human and mouse MLKL (Fig 4B). This occurs despite a broad-range of

amino acid divergence between these host and viral MLKLs (16-25% amino acid identity

of the virus homologs to mouse and human MLKLs).

In agreement with the strong structural overlap, characterization of vMLKL

sequences indicate conservation of functional residues for human and mouse MLKL

including ATP binding, hydrogen-bonding, and protein stability (S2A Fig) [19-21, 49-51].

Several amino acid sites displaying positive selection for MLKL (Figs 2 and 3) overlapped

or were in close proximity to sites for hydrogen bonding and protein stability, as

demonstrated by the amino acid alignment (S2A Fig). Of note, there are several intriguing

examples of specific residue conservation between the primate positively selected sites

and the viral copies. One example is human MLKL F386 (F373 mouse), which has been

shown to be necessary for RIPK3/MLKL complex formation [31]. This position exclusively

has tyrosine, phenylalanine, or histidine amino acid variants across the sampled primates,

with this pattern of aromatic residues evident and conserved to Aves MLKL virologs (S2B

Fig). Consistently, poxvirus virologs have also maintained only aromatic (phenylalanine

or tyrosine) amino acids at the homologous position (S2A Fig). These data suggest a key

role for site 386 in host defense but also in counteraction by viral mimics [52].

To further understand the evolutionary relationships between poxvirus vMLKLs,

we performed detailed sequence and phylogenetic analyses across corresponding viral

genomes. Full-length vMLKLs (excluding partial Vulture gryphus poxvirus and Hawaiian

goosepox virus sequences) display 18%-100% amino acid identity relative to each other

and cluster in a manner resembling known poxviral species relationships (Fig 4C).

Unexpectedly, this analysis identified two distinct vMLKL copies (e.g. paralogs), which

differ in amino acid identity, in the genomes of both eptesipoxvirus (EPTV vMLKL-A vs.

EPTV vMLKL-B : 45% amino acid identity) and hypsugopoxvirus (HYPV vMLKL-A vs.

HYPV vMLKL-B : 43% amino acid identity). Analysis of the location of the different

vMLKLs in each genome was conducted using CoGeBlast, which allows for individual hit

visualization. The results suggested distinct genomic locations for these genes (Fig 4E).

Specifically, a majority of vMLKLs are located primarily on the right arm of the poxvirus

genome with EPTV having two copies that map to two distinct loci in this region. In

addition, both HYPV and EPTV have one additional copy that maps to the left arm of the

poxvirus genome. Interestingly, two of the vMLKLs in EPTV are present on the inverted

terminal repeat (ITR), potentially representing more recent acquisitions. Likewise, fowlpox

virus-282E4 vMLKL appears to be at a distinct inverted locus relative to other *Avipoxvirus*

species on the left arm of the genome (Fig 4E).

To confirm additional vMLKL copy numbers present in the eptesipoxvirus genome,

we next performed relative depth analysis, with approximately 1000 - fold genome

coverage (Fig 4F, S3 Fig), using the raw reads from the genome sequencing. By mapping

reads across the unique genome and one reference ITR, we found that EPTV – A/C has

a relative depth of two and EPTV – B has a relative depth of one, which supports the

presence of three copies in the eptesipoxvirus genome (Fig 4F). As a control, we also

conducted a similar analysis using reads from a recent myxoma virus sequencing project

[53] and found that the vMLKL relative depth remained near one, indicating the presence

of only one genomic copy (S3 Fig). These data demonstrate that vMLKLs have different

evolutionary histories and are likely not orthologous.

Phylogenetic distribution of vMLKLs can account for variable conservation of E3
across species
269
Poxviruses encode numerous immunomodulators to subdue and circumvent host

defenses including apoptosis. As a majority of poxviruses encode several characterized

anti-apoptotic proteins [54, 55] (Fig 4G, S4 Fig, S2 File) including the serpin class of

caspase pseudosubstrates [56, 57], these viruses would be expected to trigger

necroptosis. Indeed, the model poxvirus vaccinia has been shown recently to trigger

necroptosis through activation of DAI/ZBP1 in cultured cells and to counteract this

response using the Z - nucleic acid binding (Zα) domain of the E3 protein [32]. E3 is

considered a key host-range gene that antagonizes several host defenses. Interestingly,

some poxviruses that encode a repertoire of anti-apoptotic proteins lack E3 or possess

truncated E3 ORFs. For example, the *Avipoxvirus* family does not possess any orthologs

of E3 (Fig 4G, S2 File) and several Clade II poxviruses, including the well-characterized

myxoma virus, are also predicted to have N-terminally truncated E3 copies which lack the

Zα domain that is important for antagonism of DAI [55] (Fig 4G, S2 File). To gain insights

into how a subset of poxviruses may circumvent necroptosis given the presumed ability

to trigger apoptosis, we compared the breadth of known anti-apoptotic proteins, including

serpins, across the poxvirus phylogeny relative to vMLKL (Fig 4G). As vMLKLs are

present in *Avipoxvirus*, hypsugopoxvirus, myxoma virus and rabbit fibroma virus – the

maintenance of this pseudosubstrate may account for the tolerance of these species to a

missing or truncated E3 protein.

Repeated gains and losses of vMLKL over poxvirus evolution

Our data illustrates that multiple vMLKL copies may exist in a given poxvirus

genome and that not all of the copies across the genomes may be orthologous. To

determine the relationship of poxvirus vMLKLs, we performed a synteny analysis using

five flanking upstream and downstream genes across the entire phylogeny (Fig 5, S3

File). These data indicate that while each vMLKL within *Avipoxvirus* and Clade II are

flanked largely by the same upstream and downstream genes, vMLKLs between the

species are flanked by different genes. The Clade II and *Avipoxvirus* species have distinct

copies as indicated by different upstream and downstream genes. Furthermore, the lack

of vMLKL in Yatapoxvirus species (Yaba monkey tumor virus and Yaba-like disease

virus), which belong to Clade II, revealed that this loss is likely due to a deletion event

consisting of multiple upstream and downstream genes in these lineages (Fig 5, S3 File).

This analysis also provided insights regarding the multiple vMLKL copies in

eptesipoxvirus and hypsugopoxvirus. First, this analysis indicated that EPTV-B (EPTV-

WA-166) and HYPV-B (QDJ95132.1) are orthologous to each other and are likely

orthologous to the Clade II copies, as evidenced by some overlap in syntenic gene

neighbors (Fig 5). Second, EPTV-A (EPTV-WA-006) and HYPV-A (QDJ94987.1) share

gene neighbors indicating that these sequences are likely orthologs. EPTV-A shares

100% identity with EPTV-C (EPTV-WA-186) with both annotated as being located in the

inverted terminal repeats (ITRs). Consistently, EPTV-C has the same gene neighbors as

EPTV-A albeit inverted. The copies are labeled corresponding to their location starting

from the left arm of the poxvirus genome – e.g., A, B, C.

To further assess the evolutionary relatedness of vMLKLs, we performed whole

genome comparisons using CoreGenes (https://coregenes.ngrok.io/). This data was

visualized with RIdeogram [58] and focused on the copies encoded by *Avipoxvirus*, Clade

II and the two poxvirus species that primarily infect bats. Indeed, we found that canarypox

virus vMLKL and myxoma virus vMLKL localize to distinct chromosomal locations with no

shared surrounding regions of synteny (S5A Fig). In agreement with our local synteny

analysis above, the locus encoding Clade II vMLKL was likely lost in a Yatapoxvirus

ancestor following divergence as evidenced by global as well as local synteny

surrounding the vMLKL locus (S5B Fig). Lastly, we compared eptesipoxvirus with

myxoma virus (S5C Fig). The upstream regions of synteny of vMLKL indicate that MYXV

vMLKL is orthologous to the EPTV-B vMLKL copy, which is further supported by MYXV

vMLKL not being in the ITRs corresponding to EPTV-A/C. These data suggest vMLKLs

are at distinct loci in poxvirus genomes as a result of repeated gains and losses during

poxvirus genome evolution.

Phylogenetic analysis reveals origination of vMLKL copy from one horizontal gene
transfer event
327
328   The distinct copies of vMLKLs may have originated due to either 1) a single transfer

event from a host genome to an ancestral poxvirus followed by diversification or 2)

multiple independent transfer events from presumably distinct host genomes to different

poxviruses. To address this, we performed a phylogenetic analysis using amino acid

sequences of vMLKLs with thirty-eight diverse host MLKLs. If distinct vMLKLs were

acquired via independent events, placement of viral sequences would vary across the

tree in a manner where they pair with different host sequences. Such topology could

reflect the source genome or that of a related, perhaps ancestral, animal host. In contrast,

if vMLKLs originated from a single transfer event, the tree topology would group these

sequences into one clade. Phylogenetic analysis using PhyML [59] revealed that vMLKL

virologs cluster as one group distinct from animal vMLKLs (Fig 6). These data support a

single transfer event from an ancestral host genome as the most parsimonious origin for

vMLKL (Fig 6, S4 File). The topology of the poxvirus branches mirrors that of known

species relationships. For example, all of the *Avipoxvirus* species cluster together.

Likewise, the Clade II species cluster together broadly, as well as at a finer level such as

in the *Leporipoxviruses* (e.g. MYXV and RFV). The tree topology also supports the

synteny analysis with HYPV-B and EPTV-B being most closely related along with EPTV-

A/C and HYPV-A vMLKL clustering distinctly.

Still, it remains unclear whether Clade II vMLKLs represent a distinct or
orthologous locus to Avipox vMLKL and which vMLKL locus represents the ancestral
locus. Indeed, our data for Clade II vMLKL could be explained, in part, by either 1) a
duplication of the Avipox vMLKL locus followed by a deletion event of the original locus
in the Clade II ancestor or 2) that Avipox and Clade II vMLKL are orthologous but
divergence no longer allows for syntenic comparison between these species. We
assessed the likelihood of these evolutionary histories by analyzing patterns of amino
acid variation shared between vMLKLs and mammalian MLKLs, which cluster closest to
vMLKLs (Fig 6). We evaluated innovations specific to vMLKLs but not host MLKLs across
our alignment. We identified seventeen amino acid residues largely conserved between
Avipox vMLKLs and mammalian MLKLs (Fig 7) but not Clade II, EPTV and HYPV
vMLKLs. Conversely, different variants at the same sites are shared across Clade II,
EPTV and HYPV vMLKLs but not Avipox or mammalian MLKLs. These data support the
hypothesis that Avipox vMLKL is the original locus and that Clade II vMLKL is a distinct
copy but derived from the Avipox vMLKL presumably through duplication. Collectively,
these data illustrate a volatile history of vMLKL since its acquisition by an ancestral
Avipoxvirus.

Discussion
364
Studies of host-pathogen co-evolution can reveal new insights that forge infection
outcomes. These include vulnerabilities in host defense and determinants that shape
pathogen host range as well as zoonoses. In addition, analysis of host and pathogen
effectors can illuminate new evolutionary paradigms such as the evolutionary trajectories
of viral mimics. Here, we focused on the emerging regulated cell death program of

necroptosis that is largely presumed to be a "back-up" response. Our data, particularly

the robust signatures of positive selection in RIPK3/MLKL, mirrors that of key immune

factors like cGAS, PKR, and OAS1 [37, 38]. These features support the essentiality of

RIPK3/MLKL in immunity during primate evolution. In addition, the maintenance, as well

as gains and losses of vMLKL throughout poxvirus evolution, showcases the need to

actively counteract the necroptosis program.

Proposed model for vMLKL acquisition

377
The findings from our evolutionary analysis for vMLKL are consistent with a model

consisting of a series of gains and losses of this virolog over time (Fig 8A). Our data

paired with those of Petrie *et al*., which also suggested a host origin for vMLKL [31],

support the notion that this gene was initially acquired via one horizontal gene transfer

event (Fig 6). As vMLKL mirrors a truncated copy of cellular MLKL lacking introns, we

hypothesize that this transfer likely occurred via an RNA intermediate. The N-terminal

truncation in vMLKL could have transpired either during or after integration. This copy at

the original site of integration has been maintained through evolutionary time in

Avipoxvirus species and represents locus 1. Following the Avipox ancestral divergence

from a common ancestor shared with Clade II and HYPV/EPTV species, locus 1 appears

to have been duplicated to produce locus 2. We hypothesize that locus 1 was deleted

while locus 2 was maintained in the shared ancestor Clade II/EPTV/HYPV, and is present

today in most contemporary genomes of Clade II poxviruses and EPTV-B/HYPV-B. Yet,

it remains possible - due to extensive rearrangements resulting in the degradation of any

detectable synteny by either method we employed here - that locus 1 across Avipox

represents the Clade II/EPTV/HYPV vMLKL. In Yatapoxviruses, locus 2 vMLKL was lost

in what appears to be a multi-gene deletion event (Fig 5, S5 Fig). Following divergence

of the EPTV/HYPV ancestor from Clade II poxviruses, locus 2 was duplicated to a region

in the ITR with a subsequent duplication occurring in the other ITR. Both vMLKL copies

in the eptesipox ITRs are supported by our relative depth analysis (Fig 4F, S3 Fig). A

similar analysis was attempted but not possible with the hypsugopox genome data. Thus,

vMLKL resides at four distinct loci in poxvirus genomes across the phylogeny.

Positive selection signatures in the necroptotic signaling pathway are localized to

the RIPK3/MLKL axis

The signatures of rapid evolution in RIPK3 and MLKL resemble "molecular arms

races" dynamics with pathogen-encoded inhibitors [48] (Fig 2). The broad distribution of

rapidly evolving sites in both RIPK3 and MLKL is indicative of multiple, undefined

antagonists that have existed over evolutionary time (Fig 3). Interestingly, our analysis

across the core circuitry of necroptosis enabled two key observations. First, strong

selective pressure has been primarily exerted on the downstream components of the

pathway where upstream signaling converges (Figs 2 and 3). Second, our evolutionary

analysis across the pathway allowed the identification of rampant positive selection

exclusive to the RHIM-domain of RIPK3 but not the RHIM-domains of the upstream

activators DAI, TRIF, or RIPK1 (Fig 3). This is extremely striking given the elevated dN/dS

ratios for RIPK3, but not the other factors, at amino acid positions that define a

demonstrated cleavage site (Fig 3D) for the conserved bacterial protease EspL which is

capable of cleaving RHIM domains across this pathway. Notably, rapid evolution in the

adaptor protein MAVS has been shown to shape the ability of the hepatitis protease

NS3/4A to cleave this target [60]. Our data suggest that there may be RIPK3 activity that

is independent of activation by RHIM homotypic interactions (e.g., DAI/TRIF/RIPK1),

which is counteracted by EspL-like proteases. One possible explanation for this signature

is the presence of a yet undefined upstream activator of RIPK3, which lacks a RHIM-

domain, that is triggered by pathogenic bacteria. Given the data, we are unable to infer

whether this predicted activity of RIPK3 would also activate MLKL. Nevertheless, a

pathway perspective combined with evolutionary insights can drive new avenues of

investigation.

RIPK3/MLKL as a model for the maintenance of compatible, functional interactions

Our study describes volatile evolution of vMLKL in poxvirus genomes. This work

extends on the recent discovery of this mimic, which showed two vMLKLs are capable of

counteracting necroptosis in cell culture [31]. Our integrated comparison of established

poxvirus immunomodulators with the phylogenetic distribution of vMLKL appears to

resolve the long-standing conundrum of how some poxvirus species persist with N-

terminally truncated or completely absent E3 ORFs (Fig 4F). In addition, the lack of

vMLKLs in orthopoxviruses can be explained, in part, by the recent identification of vIRD

encoded by this genus, which is an ankyrin-repeat domain containing protein that targets

RIPK3 for degradation [35]. The resolution of the evolutionary history of vMLKL in our

study may serve as a resource in guiding the functional analysis of host and viral MLKL

variants and their impact on RIPK3 binding and activity. It has not escaped our attention

that the RIPK3/MLKL axis, in part, resembles another well-defined host defense axis -

PKR/eIF2 α - which also consists of a kinase and its substrate counteracted by a different

poxvirus pseudosubstrate (K3L) [37]. However, a major difference between the two

systems is that RIPK3 and MLKL are rapidly evolving, in contrast to PKR rapidly evolving

and eIF2α being ultraconserved to yeast. This is interesting given the PKR/eIF2α system

has been useful in understanding how a rapidly evolving factor maintains its interaction

with a conserved factor while evolving to escape antagonism [37]. Perhaps RIPK3/MLKL

may be powerful in understanding how two key host defense factors maintain their

essential interaction to drive necroptosis while escaping pathogen-mediated inhibition,

particularly pseudosubstrates similar to vMLKL.

MLKL is a pivotal immune factor

Our study defines MLKL, which functions as the executioner of necroptosis, as a

factor that 1) is (up)regulated by immune signals (Fig 2B) [43-45], 2) has a viral

homolog/virolog (Figs 4,5,6 and 7)[31] and 3) is rapidly evolving (Figs 2 and 3). While

several key host defense factors typically display two of these signatures, to our

knowledge, only a select few are published which display all three of these hallmarks (Fig

8B): OAS1 [38, 39, 61], and the recently described MISTRAV and MISTR1 [62]. OAS1 is

one of the first interferon-stimulated genes identified and functions in host defense against

numerous, diverse viruses [63]. MISTR proteins appear to interface with electron transport

chain complexes to regulate stress responses and cellular adaptation during infection

[62]. We hypothesize this collection of three hallmarks may serve as a guide to identify

other pivotal host defense factors. Collectively, we interpret this rare combination of

signatures that are associated with OAS1 and now MLKL as strong evidence that

necroptosis is an indispensable, not auxiliary, host response that has shaped infection

outcomes over millions of years.

Methods

Protein modeling

Published crystal structures of m(ouse) RIPK3 (PDB: 4M66), mMLKL (PBD:4M68) and

co-crystal structure for mRIPK3:mMLKL (PDB: 4M69) were used for modeling following

pairwise alignment with h(uman)MLKL (PDB: 4BTF) or the predicted structure of hRIPK3

[20, 49]. Swiss-Model was used to predict the structure of hRIPK3 and myxoma

v(iral)MLKL [64]. UCSF Chimera (https://www.cgl.ucsf.edu/chimera/) was used to perform

analysis and visualize structures including rapidly evolving sites [65].

Positive selection analysis

Nucleotide sequences were obtained from NCBI and Ensembl databases (S1 File).

Multiple sequence alignments (MSA) were performed using MAFFT iterative refinement

method FFT-NS-i and visualized using Geneious Prime 2020.1.2

(https://www.geneious.com/) [66]. Indels were removed through manual trimming. dN/dS

lineage estimates were obtained using sample primate gene MSA and phylogenetic tree

[created using previously described primate lineage relationships [67]]. These served as

input for FreeRatio analysis implemented in PAML [42]. Nucleotide substitution (NS) site

analysis was performed with PAML using both F3x4 and F61 codon frequency models.

MEME and FUBAR analysis were performed using Datamonkey

(https://www.datamonkey.org/) to predict positively selected amino acid sites [46, 47, 68].

The S1 File contains additional findings from this analysis.

Identification of poxvirus vMLKL

478 Virologs to human MLKL were identified using tBLASTn and/or BLASTp [69]. Sequences

479 were selected based on returned BLAST parameters (total score, E value and percent

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Virologs to human MLKL were identified using tBLASTn and/or BLASTp [69]. Sequences

were selected based on returned BLAST parameters (total score, E value and percent

identity) and the phylogenetic clustering of the sequences using PhyML [59]. Scaled

individual hit visualization was constructed using CoGeBlast [70].

Relative depth analysis

Eptesipox raw sequencing reads, published in Tu *et al.,* were obtained directly from Dr.

Chris Upton (University of Victoria, Victoria BC, Canada) and Dr. Yoshinori Nakazawa

(CDC, Atlanta, Georgia) [71] . NC_035460.1 was used as the eptesipoxvirus reference

sequence to map the reads. Myxoma virus raw sequencing reads were obtained from

European Nucleotide Archive (https://www.ebi.ac.uk/ena/browser/home), from Project

PRJNA513218 [53]. Accession IDs used for this analysis are SRR8402032,

SRR8402033, SRR8402034, and SRR8402035. As a control, AF170726.2 was used as

the myxoma virus reference sequence to map the reads. Raw sequencing reads were

processed using Trimmomatic-0.39 [72] to remove adaptors. Tanoti short read aligner

(https://bioinformatics.cvr.ac.uk/software/tanoti/) was then used to map reads to the

reference genome. SAMtools [73] was used to convert between file formats, merge files

and calculate coverage per basepair. Bins of 500 nucleotides were created for relative

depth analysis, which was calculated by dividing the bins by the mean of the non-ITR

genomic region. Data was visualized using gplots [74].

Phylogenetic analysis

Multiple Sequence Alignments were performed using MAFFT, with iterative refinement

method L-INS-i, on amino acid sequences retrieved from NCBI and Ensembl databases

(S4 File) [66]. Maximum Likelihood trees were inferred by PhyML using 100 bootstrap

values [59].

Percent amino acid identity heatmap

Multiple Sequence Alignments were performed using MAFFT, with iterative refinement

method L-INS-i, on amino acid sequences retrieved from NCBI database (S2 File) [66].

The R package gplots was used to create the heatmap found in Fig 4C [74, 75].

Poxvirus RCD-associated host range gene identification

Host range genes were identified using BLASTp and tBLASTn. Sequences were

confirmed using reciprocal BLAST hits. Protein families were found using genomic

database annotations and published results for included poxvirus genomes. Domain

classification for homologs and protein families were confirmed using NCBI conserved

genome database [76]. Results were compared to previous homolog studies performed

by Bratke *et al*. 2013 and Haller *et al.* 2014, and can be found in S2 File [54, 55]. Proteins

truncated at the N- and C-termini were not included in Fig 4G but can be found in the S2

File with appropriate label. An exception is necroptosis inhibitor E3, which is predicted to

be N-terminally truncated in *Leporipoxviruses* [55]. Genes residing in the inverted terminal

repeats (ITR) are counted as separate genes and thus two instances in order to stay

consistent with the Fig 4C initial analysis, where the eptesipoxvirus ITR is included and

analyzed. The p28/N1R and Ankyrin-repeat families were annotated using NCBI

database annotations. The presence of these domains were confirmed using NCBI

conserved genome database or via BLASTp [76]. This analysis includes all proteins

possessing a p28/N1R-like or Ankyrin-repeat domain and does not predict if these

proteins are functional and/or likely truncated.

High resolution synteny analysis

Reciprocal BLAST hits (RBH) were performed for coding sequences upstream and

downstream of vMLKL genomic locations across poxvirus species included in this study.

Results can be found in the S2 File. Genomic database annotations and the NCBI

conserved genome database were used to confirm results [76]. Gene blocks representing

Ankyrin-repeat containing proteins without one distinct hit, but conserved homology

across poxvirus species are colored navy.

Whole genome comparison

Coregenes 5.0 (https://coregenes.ngrok.io/) was used to compare selected poxvirus

genomes [77]. Matches were identified using bidirectional best hit with an e-value = $1x10^5$.

RIdeogram [58] was used to visualize the output obtained from Coregenes 5.0.

Cell lines

HT29 and HeLa cell lines were obtained from ATCC. Both cell lines were cultured in

Corning DMEM with L-Glutamine, 4.5 g/L Glucose, and Sodium Pyruvate supplemented

with 10% FBS and 1X Gibco Antibiotic-Antimycotic solution. Cell lines were maintained

at 37°C in a humidified incubator at 5% CO_2.

Cell culture treatments

Cells were treated with either human IFNα [1000 U/mL (PBL Assay Science, USA) or

human IFNγ [1000 U/mL (ThermoFisher, USA)] diluted in DMEM and incubated for 24

hours. After 24 hours, cell lysates were harvested for western blots as described below.

Western blot analysis

Cells were collected using RIPA Lysis and Extraction Buffer (ThermoFisher, 89901)

supplemented with Protease and Phosphatase Inhibitor Cocktail (Abcam, ab201119).

Protein concentrations were measured using a Bradford assay. For all blots, 5 μg of

protein lysates were loaded onto an SDS-PAGE gel and wet-transferred to 0.45 μM

Immobilon-P PVDF membrane (Millipore, IPVH00010) at 200 mA for 90 minutes.

Membranes were blocked with blocking buffer (5% milk in TBST) for 30 minutes at RT.

Membranes were incubated in primary antibodies at 4°C overnight. The following primary

antibodies used: MLKL (GeneTex, GTX107538), STAT1 D1K9Y Rabbit mAb (Cell

Signaling Technology, 14994S), P-STAT1 Tyr701 58D6 Rabbit mAb (Cell Signaling

Technology, 9167S) and β-Actin (Abcam, ab49900). Membranes were washed three

times with TBST for 5 minutes and incubated with Goat Anti-Rabbit IgG (Bio-Rad, 170-

6515) for 1 hour at RT. Membranes were washed three times with TBST and incubated

with Clarity Max Western ECL Substrate (Bio-Rad, 1705062). Following incubation, blots

were imaged using the Chemidoc MP Imager (Bio-Rad).

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Figure captions

Fig 1. Cell death pathways, a mechanism of host defense. (A) Apoptosis is a regulated cell death pathway that acts as a key line of host defense against pathogens and is executed by caspases via an extrinsic or intrinsic route [7]. **(B)** Necroptosis can act as an alternative regulated cell death pathway in the event of inhibition of the apoptosis pathway by pathogens [10] such as poxviruses. E3 [32] and vMLKL [31] are recently described poxvirus factors that inhibit necroptotic signaling.

Fig 2. Rapid evolution of the necroptotic axis, RIPK3 and MLKL, across primate lineages. A) Summary of rapid evolution results for M7 x M8 (F3x4) Likelihood ratio test statistics (2δ) for necroptotic factors across a set of twenty-one matching primate species. **B)** MLKL is upregulated by IFNγ treatment in HeLa and HT29 cell lines. **C)** dN/dS values estimated using PAML across twenty-one primate lineages. Branches colored in red display signatures of positive selection (dN/dS > 1, or greater than or equal to 3 nonsynonymous amino acid changes relative to zero synonymous amino acid changes).

Fig 3. Widespread signatures of positive selection across necroptosis protein sequences. A) Rapidly evolving sites represented as triangles and shown for TRIF (orange), DAI (pink), RIPK1 (red), RIPK3 (green) and MLKL (blue). Rapidly evolving

amino acid sites predicted using PAML (yellow triangle), FUBAR (blue triangle) and

MEME (green triangle). Sites with p-values < 0.05 or posterior probabilities (P) > 0.95 are

listed above the protein cartoons and represented as triangles. Sites with p-values < 0.01

or posterior probabilities (P) > 0.99 are bolded and have an asterisk. Amino acid

alignment position refers to the human reference sequences. **B)** Location of rapidly

evolving sites (shown in red) on the h(uman)RIPK3 (green) homology model and the

hMLKL (light blue) crystal structure [20]. The homology model was predicted using Swiss-

Model [64] and aligned to crystal structures m(ouse)RIPK3 (silver), mMLKL (silver), and

mRIPK3:mMLKL (silver) [49].   **C)** Rapid evolution (red) at the mRIPK3 hydrophobic

pocket. **D)** Rapid evolution exclusive to the RIPK3 RHIM-domain proximal to the EspL

cleavage motif (Q*G**N - highlighted in black). Sequences spanning the EspL cleavage

motif from 12 primates for RIPK3 (green), RIPK1 (red), TRIF (orange), and DAI (pink)

RHIM domains. The EspL cleavage site is underlined and displays a black arrow above

the amino acid. Sites with p-values < 0.05 or posterior probabilities (P) > 0.95 are listed

above the protein cartoons and represented as triangles. Sites with p-values < 0.01 or

posterior probabilities (P) > 0.99 are bolded and have an asterisk. Amino acid alignment

position refers to the human reference sequences. Note: PAML, MEME, and FUBAR

analysis were performed for RIPK1 without drill monkey, since this region was trimmed in

previous analyses.

Fig 4. vMLKL mimics are encoded in *Avipoxvirus*, Clade II, eptesipoxvirus, and

hypsugopoxvirus genomes. A) Protein structures of human MLKL (light blue) and

myxoma v(irus)MLKL (dark blue). **B)** Homology model for myxoma vMLKL (dark blue)

predicted using Swiss-Model and aligned onto previously published crystal structures for

hMLKL (light blue) and mMLKL (silver). **C)** Heatmap comparing percent identities of

vMLKL copies across poxvirus species which were included in this study. **D)** Cladogram

depicting distinct species containing a vMLKL copy with *Avipoxvirus* (green), Clade II

(blue) and other poxvirus species (yellow, pink and red) separated according to genus.

Note that eptesipoxvirus and hypsugopoxvirus contain multiple copies of vMLKL and are

labeled based on their position in the chromosome – A (yellow), B (pink), C (red).

Eptesipoxvirus (black dashed box) contains vMLKL copies located on the inverted

terminal repeats (ITR) represented by A (yellow) and C (red). **E)** Location of individual

and multiple copies of vMLKL across poxvirus genomes. Multiple copies of vMLKL are

highlighted (yellow, pink, and red) in eptesipoxvirus and hypsugopoxvirus**.** Chromosomal

cartoons created in CoGeBlast represent scaled locations of the vMLKL copies for each

of the poxvirus species. The genome accession numbers are located on the top left corner

of the chromosomes, and the nucleotide lengths are located on the top right corner of the

chromosomes. **F)** Multiple copies of vMLKL in the eptesipoxvirus genome are supported

by relative depth analysis. The distribution of reads that align with the ITR and non-ITR

regions is shown. Zoomed in images, represented by black boxes, show the relative depth

of the EPTV vMLKLs (black) and the two flanking upstream and downstream genes

(gray). The ITR relative depth mean is 1.852 and the median is 1.899. The non-ITR

relative depth mean is 1.000 and the median is 1.025. **G)** Repertoire of poxvirus apoptosis

and necroptosis antagonists explained, in part, by evolutionary distribution of vMLKL.

Only proteins predicted to be functional are shown. Two exceptions, found in myxoma

virus and rabbit fibroma virus, are represented by an '*' and have N-terminally truncated

E3 copies. In depth analysis can be found in S2 File.

Fig 5. High resolution synteny analysis suggests diverse evolutionary histories for

vMLKL. Analysis of upstream and downstream flanking genes indicate vMLKLs (black)

reside at different locations across poxvirus genomes. Protein homology was determined

using reciprocal BLAST hits for the 5 genes upstream (left of vMLKL) and 5 genes

downstream (right of vMLKL) of vMLKL. While a gene window of 11 is shown here, an

expanded analysis is found in the S3 File. Genes oriented to the right represent 5'-3'

directionality while genes oriented to the left represent 3'-5' directionality. The letter "U"

represents a gene that is either unique to the individual species or unique to the group of

poxviruses that have maintained a vMLKL copy. Gene blocks that have homologous

genes (colored borders) that are outside the scope of this figure have arrows pointing to

the left (representing upstream) or to the right (representing downstream). Two

Yatapoxvirus species (Yaba monkey tumor virus and Yaba-like disease virus) were

included as they belong to clade II but lack vMLKL. ⚡ represents a deletion event.

Species defined as "Other" (red) are either unclassified (hypsugopoxvirus) or part of

vespertilionpoxviruses (eptesipoxvirus).

Fig 6. Phylogenetic analysis suggests a singular origin for non-orthologous

poxvirus MLKLs. A maximum-likelihood phylogenetic tree of diverse host and poxviral

MLKL amino acid sequences produced using PhyML [59] is displayed. Consistent with a

single horizontal gene transfer event, *Avipoxvirus* (green), Clade II (blue), and other

poxvirus sequences (yellow, pink, and red) cluster together. Branch lengths represent

amino acid changes per site. 100 bootstrap replicates were performed with branch

support > 70% (*) or 90% indicated (**). The alignment of MLKL sequences was

performed using MAFFT and can be found in the S4 File.

Fig 7. Amino acid variant analysis suggests Avipox vMLKL is the original locus,

and Clade II vMLKL is an independent, but derived copy. A set of informative amino

acid positions were identified in the alignment of mammalian and vMLKL sequences.

Residues identical to consensus are shown as "." while "-" represents a gap in the

sequence alignment. Amino acid site positions (shown above the alignment) are in

relation to human MLKL. Alignment can be found in the S4 File.

Fig 8. Volatile evolution of MLKL and hallmarks associated with key host defense

factors indicate that necroptosis is a pivotal, not auxiliary, immune defense. A)

Model of poxvirus MLKL acquisition and evolution across lineages. Data indicate that

vMLKL was likely acquired by a vertebrate host presumably through a single horizontal

gene transfer event to a poxvirus ancestor (Fig.6). This copy at the original site of

integration, located on the right arm, has been maintained in *Avipoxvirus* (green)

genomes over time to present day (Fig 4). A duplication followed by a deletion event

occurred in the common ancestor of Clade II (dark blue) and species classified as "Other"

(red) following divergence from *Avipox* (Figs 5 and 7, S5 Fig). This second copy also on

the right arm has been maintained until the present in all Clade II species but lost in

Yatapoxvirus lineages (Fig.5). Subsequently, the second copy was duplicated to the ITR

in the ancestor of eptesipoxvirus and hypsugopoxvirus, which is maintained in present-

day lineages. While hypsugopoxvirus ITR sequence was not included in the final genome

assembly, our synteny analysis (Fig 5) suggests vMLKL is also located on an ITR (dashed

box) in this lineage. "ↄ" represents predicted deletion events. Dashed arrows represent

the progression of evolutionary time (left to right). Scaled chromosomal locations of the

present day vMLKL copies are represented on the right. **B)** MLKL displays all three key

hallmarks often common to key host defense factors but unique to OAS1 [38, 39, 61],

MISTRAV, and MISTR1 [62]. These factors are rapidly evolving, possess a viral

homolog/virolog, and are regulated by immune signals (includes upregulation and

downregulation).

Supporting information

S1 Fig. MLKL and RIPK3 rapidly evolving sites localize to protein surfaces.

Positively selected sites (red) identified in Fig 3 mapped onto filled crystal structures of

RIPK3 and MLKL.

S2 Fig. Protein sequence alignments for human MLKL, mouse MLKL and vMLKLs.

A) Diagrams of hMLKL (light blue) and mMLKL (silver) with previously established

functional residues annotated [19-21, 49-51]. Amino acid alignment of hMLKL, mMLKL,

and poxvirus MLKLs was constructed using MAFFT, with functional residues annotated

on diagrams also highlighted on this alignment. Brackets correspond to the starting point

of vMLKL, which is truncated, relative to hMLKL (alignment beginning at hMLKL N155).

B) Alignment of human MLKL F386 (corresponding to mouse MLKL F373) with MLKLs

from diverse host species. Aromatic amino acid positions (red) are primarily conserved to

Aves.

S3 Fig. Relative depth analysis of myxoma virus genome sequencing reads

indicates a single copy of vMLKL in this species. A) Table shows MYXV and EPTV

read depth (total number of reads in the BAM file) and effective depth (number of reads

in the BAM file that map to the reference genome) following merging of bam files. Analysis

performed using data from Kerr *et al.*, and Tu *et al.,* [53, 71]. Myxoma virus analysis was

performed as a control given complementary analysis (Fig 4F) and predicted single-copy

vMLKL in this and other clade II poxviruses. As the effective depth for myxoma virus

sequencing was lower than eptesipoxvirus data, read depth isolates were pooled together

to facilitate a more normalized approximation of the read counts per nucleotide in the

genome. **B)** Myxoma virus genome relative depth analysis - (reads that align with the ITR

and non-ITR regions), where "n =" represents the number of myxoma virus isolates

pooled together from Project PRJNA513218 [53]. Inset, relative depth at MYVX vMLKL

(black) locus including two flanking upstream and downstream genes (gray). The non-

ITR and ITR means and medians are present on each plot.

S4 Fig. Poxvirus Ankyrin and P28/N1R protein family ranges separated by genus.

Summary of ankyrin-repeat containing and P28/N1R proteins per genome analyzed in

Fig 4G. Functional protein predictions were not performed for these families.

S5 Fig. Whole genome synteny analysis illustrates the presence of distinct,

multiple copies of vMLKL across poxvirus genomes. The whole genome

comparisons are **A)** canarypox virus (*Avipoxvirus* - green) versus myxoma virus (Clade II

- blue), **B)** yaba-like disease virus (Clade II - blue) versus myxoma virus and **C)**

eptesipoxvirus (Other - red) versus myxoma virus. Sequence accession numbers are

centered at the bottom of each genome. Lines that extend between genomes represent

homologous   regions,   that   were   calculated   using   CoreGenes   5.0

(https://coregenes.ngrok.io/) [77]. Lines that are light gray represent conserved

homologous regions that are not part of the Fig 5 high resolution synteny analysis. Lines

in dark gray represent conserved homologous genes that are shown in Fig 5 and the S3

File. vMLKL is represented by a black line. "�} " represents a deletion event.

S1 File. Supporting analysis for Figs 2 and 3 and S1 Fig.

S2 File. Supporting analysis for Fig 4 and S4 Fig.

S3 File. Supporting analysis for Fig 5.

S4 File. Supporting analysis for Figs 6 and 7.

Palmer et al. Fig 1

A) Apoptosis

Intrinsic Pathway
Mitochondria

Extrinsic Pathway
Death Receptor

Caspase 9

Caspase 8

Caspase 3/6/7

Caspase Inhibition

Apoptosis

B) Necroptosis

Death Receptor

Toll-like Receptor

RIPK1

TRIF

DAI

E3

RIPK3

vMLKL

MLKL

Necroptosis

Palmer et al. Fig 2

A)

	2δ	P-value
TRIF	5.481	0.065
DAI	10.311	**5.767 x 10⁻³**
RIPK1	5.434	0.066
RIPK3	39.212	**3.056 x 10⁻⁹**
MLKL	42.679	**5.400 x 10⁻¹⁰**

B) HeLa   HT29

Control IFN-α IFN-γ   Control IFN-α IFN-γ

α-pSTAT1   α-pSTAT1

α-STAT1   α-STAT1

α-MLKL   α-MLKL

α-Actin   α-Actin

C)

TRIF   *DAI*   *RIPK1*   *RIPK3*   *MLKL*

Hominoids:
Human, Chimp, Bonobo, Gorilla, Orangutan, Gibbon

Old World Monkeys:
Baboon, Drill, Sooty Mangabey, Rhesus Macaque, Crab-eating Macaque, Pig-tailed Macaque, African Green Monkey, Golden Snub-nosed Monkey, Black Snub-nosed Monkey

New World Monkeys:
Tamarin, Night Monkey, Squirrel Monkey, Capuchin, Spider Monkey, Saki

— **Rapidly Evolving**

Palmer et al. Fig 4

Palmer et al. Fig 5

Palmer et al. Fig 6

Palmer et al. Fig 7

Human MLKL

* site positions are in relation to human MLKL

Species	222Y	230K	257F	267G	290T	296D	313A	316G	320L	321H	328L	329H	389Y	394E	431E	441L	449R
Consensus	Y	K	F	G	T	D	A	G	L	H	L	H	Y	E	E	L	R
Mammalia																	
Human	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
African Green Monkey	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Bolivian Squirrel Monkey	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Bushbaby	.	E	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Mouse	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Rat	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Chinese Hamster	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Blind Mole Rat	.	.	L	-	-	-	-	-	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Guinea Pig	.	.	.	.	S	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Squirrel	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Pika	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Tree Shrew	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Westeen European Hedge Hog	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Pig	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Cow	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Sheep	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Alpaca	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Horse	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Megabat	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	M	.	C	.	.	.	.	.	.
Microbat	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Malayan Pangolin	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Florida Manatee	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Nine-banded Armadillo	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	Q	.	L
Poxviridae — Avipox																	
Magpiepox	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Canarypox	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Shearwaterpox-2	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Fowlpox-282E4	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Shearwaterpox-1	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Fowlpox-MN00.2	.	.	L	.	.	.	.	.	M	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Flamingopox	.	.	L	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Penguinpox	.	.	L	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Pigeonpox	.	.	L	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Turkeypox	.	.	Y	.	S	K	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.
Poxviridae — Clade II																	
Swinepox	F	.	I	A	Y	M	C	.	.	Y	-	Y	H	D	L	I	L
Sheeppox	F	R	I	A	Y	R	C	.	V	Y	-	Y	R	D	L	I	T
Goatpox	F	R	I	A	Y	R	C	.	V	Y	-	Y	R	D	L	I	T
Lumpy Skin Disease	F	R	I	A	Y	K	C	.	V	Y	-	Y	R	D	L	I	T
Deerpox-W-848-83	F	R	I	.	Y	N	C	S	.	Y	-	Y	L	D	F	I	T
Deerpox-W-1170-84	F	R	I	.	Y	N	C	S	.	Y	-	Y	L	D	F	I	T
Moosepox	F	R	I	.	Y	N	C	S	.	Y	-	Y	L	D	F	I	T
Rabbit Fibroma	F	R	V	.	Y	S	C	.	V	Y	-	Y	.	D	L	I	T
Myxoma	F	R	V	.	Y	Y	C	.	V	C	-	Y	.	D	L	I	T
Cotia	.	I	K	A	P	L	S	S	F	Y	-	Y	Q	D	S	.	I
BeAn	.	I	K	A	P	L	.	S	.	Y	-	Y	Q	D	S	.	V
Poxviridae — Other																	
Hypsugopox-B	.	.	I	.	Y	I	.	A	Y	Y	V	Y	.	D	L	I	L
Eptesipox-B	F	.	I	.	Y	I	.	A	Y	Y	.	.	.	D	L	I	L
Hypsugopox-A	F	.	I	.	Y	.	.	A	Y	Y	V	Y	.	D	L	.	L
Eptesipox-A	F	.	I	.	Y	.	.	A	Y	Y	V	Y	F	D	L	.	L
Eptesipox-C	F	.	I	.	Y	.	.	A	Y	Y	V	Y	F	D	L	.	L

Palmer et al. Fig 8

A)

Host MLKL

Horizontal Gene Transfer

Deletion

Evolutionary Time

Ancestral Avipox

Present Day vMLKL Genomic Locations

Avipox

Ancestral Clade II/Other

Clade II

Yatapoxviruses

Duplication and Subsequent Deletion

Duplication

Eptesipox/Hypsugopox?   Eptesipox/Hypsugopox

ITR

Eptesipox

A   B C

B)

Rapidly Evolving (dN/dS > 1)
Virologs vMLKL
Regulated by Interferon Signals

	Rapidly Evolving	Virologs	Regulated by Interferon Signals
APOBEC3G	+	-	+
cGAS	+	-	+
DAI	+	-	+
MAVS	+	-	-
MLKL	+	+	+
MxA	+	-	+
OAS1	+	+	+
PKR	+	-	+
TRIM5α	+	-	+
MISTRAV	+	+	+
MISTR1	+	+	+

Palmer et al. S1 Fig

A)

MLKL

B)

RIPK3

A)

B)

Legend:
- Positively Selected Site
- Homotrimer formation or membrane translocation
- Inhibitors
- ATP/ATP Binding
- H-bonding/stability
- Phosphorylation site

Alternative Aromatic Amino Acid

Palmer et al. S3 Fig

A)

Species	Number of Isolates	Read Depth	Effective Depth
Eptesipox	1	15,580,507	952,609
Myxoma	1	827,204	690,356
	2	1,821,118	1,659,533
	3	2,441,318	2,230,935
	4	3,424,938	3,102,827

B)

	Avipox	Clade II	HYPV/EPTV
Ankyrin Protein Family (proteins/genome)	16-62	4-16	4-8
P28/N1R Family (proteins/genome)	3-26	1-2	1

Palmer et al. S5 Fig