1 Phosphoprotein Phosphatase Activity Positively Regulates Oligomeric Pyrin to Trigger
2 Inflammasome Assembly in Phagocytes

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ABSTRACT:

Pyrin is a pattern-recognition receptor in phagocytes that triggers capase-1 inflammasome assembly in response to bacterial toxins and effectors that inactivate RhoA. Pyrin contains oligomerization domains and is negatively regulated by phosphorylation of two residues, S205 and S241 (murine) or S208 and S242 (human), via the kinases PKN1/2, which are activated by RhoA. Familial Mediterranean Fever (FMF) is caused by phagocyte production of pyrin gain of function variants, which have a lower threshold for inflammasome assembly upon RhoA-PKN axis inhibition. Inactivation of the RhoA-PKN axis removes negative regulation but a phosphoprotein phosphatase (PPP) is needed to positively regulate pyrin. No PPP that dephosphorylates pyrin has been identified, oligomerization of murine pyrin has not been studied, and the phosphorylation status of oligomeric pyrin is unknown. We used murine macrophages and FMF patient's monocytes combined with the use of bacterial and chemical inhibitors, native PAGE, phospho-specific antibodies and siRNA knockdowns to determine if a PPP positively regulates oligomeric pyrin. Results with inhibitors indicate that PPP activity is required to dephosphorylate murine and human pyrin in wild type or FMF patient's phagocytes. Findings from native PAGE show that murine pyrin forms oligomers that are phosphorylated on S205 prior to RhoA inactivation. Inhibitor treatment causes reduced mobility of murine pyrin on native PAGE and hyperphosphorylation of S242 in human pyrin, suggesting a PPP constitutively counterbalances PKN to keep the second site hypophosphorylated. Data from siRNA knockdown experiments implicate PP2A in dephosphorylation of S205 and positive regulation of pyrin in response to RhoA inactivation.

SIGNIFICANCE:

It is important to understand how pyrin promotes immune responses against pathogens and autoinflammation in FMF and a deeper understanding of inflammasome regulation will aid in this goal. The negative regulation mechanism by the RhoA-PKN axis is established but how inflammasome assembly is controlled by pyrin oligomerization and positively regulated by PPP activity is poorly understood. Results of this study shed new light on pyrin oligomerization and demonstrate that PPP activity is required to dephosphorylate pyrin and trigger inflammasome assembly in murine and human phagocytes in response to RhoA-inactivating bacterial toxins and effectors or a PKN inhibitor in the context of FMF. The identification of a specific role for PP2A may inform the development of new therapeutics for FMF.

INTRODUCTION

Numerous Gram-negative bacterial pathogens encode type III secretion systems (T3SSs) that are essential for virulence (1). T3SSs translocate effectors into or across the plasma membrane and into the eukaryotic cytosol during bacterial-host cell contact. Translocated effectors can inhibit innate immune responses to promote pathogenesis (1, 2). Host cells can sense perturbations caused by T3SSs and/or effectors and produce compensatory innate immune responses to counteract infection by pathogens (3, 4). Perturbations induced by T3SSs and/or effectors in macrophages infected with bacterial pathogens can result in the assembly of caspase-1 inflammasomes (5, 6). Inflammasomes are multimeric complexes that are assembled in response to various danger signals in the cell cytosol and serve as a molecular platform for the recruitment and maturation of caspase-1 into its active form (5, 6). Active caspase-1 cleaves gasdermin-D (GSDMD), pro-IL-1β and pro-IL-18 (7-9). The N-terminal domain of GSDMD forms pores in the plasma membrane which allow for release of mature IL-1β and IL-18 (7-9). GSDMD pores can also promote cell death, termed pyroptosis, resulting in the release of additional pro-inflammatory molecules (10). Pyroptosis amplifies the immune response by restricting growth of bacteria and facilitating bacterial clearance by neutrophils (7). Virulent bacterial pathogens can inhibit caspase-1 inflammasomes in host cells to counteract protective immune responses mediated by IL-1β, IL-18 and pyroptosis (11).

Yersinia species are Gram-negative bacterial pathogens that cause invasive human infections ranging in severity from plague (*Y. pestis*) to mesenteric lymphadenitis (*Y. pseudotuberculosis, Yptb*). These bacteria replicate in lymphoid tissues as extracellular microcolonies and require a plasmid-encoded T3SS for virulence (12). The T3SS delivers seven effectors called *Yersinia* outer proteins (Yops) into the cytosol of phagocytes that are in contact with *Yersinia* (12). The effectors inhibit key host cell processes, including phagocytosis and proinflammatory cytokine production (13). For example, YopE and YopT inhibit phagocytosis by inactivating Rho GTPases, including RhoA (13). YopE mimics a Rho GTPase activating protein (GAP) to accelerate GTP hydrolysis to GDP in RhoA (14), while YopT is a cysteine protease which cleaves RhoA at its C-terminus so that it is released from the membrane (15). Two effectors that are essential virulence factors inhibit inflammasome activation: YopM, a leucine-rich repeat (LRR)-containing protein (16-18) and YopK (19, 20). YopM inhibits the pyrin inflammasome (17, 18). YopK interacts with *Yersinia* translocon components to limit activation of NLRP3 and NLRC4 inflammasomes (19).

Inactivation of RhoA by YopE or YopT in macrophages triggers assembly of the pyrin
inflammasome as a compensatory protective innate immune response (17, 18, 21, 22). Pyrin is a
cytosolic pattern recognition receptor (PRR) which specifically senses pathogen induced
modifications to RhoA (or RhoB or RhoC) to assemble an inflammasome (23). RhoA, RhoB and
RhoC appear to be functionally redundant in regulating pyrin activity (23) and will be referred to
as RhoA from here on. Inactivation of RhoA by the TcdB toxin of *Clostridioides difficile* or the
TecA effector of *Burkholderia cenocepacia* also triggers pyrin inflammasome assembly in
macrophages (23, 24). Pyrin is encoded by the *MEFV* gene (*Mefv* in mice) whose expression is
restricted to phagocytes such as neutrophils, monocytes and activated macrophages (25). Pyrin
is a TRIM protein and like other members of this family (26) human pyrin forms dimers via coiled
coil (CC) domains (27). Additionally, human pyrin has been shown to form trimers (28). Pyrin
potentially forms higher order oligomers (i.e. dimers of dimers), via B-box domains (21). It is not
known if murine pyrin forms oligomers. Structurally, murine and human pyrin are similar except
for their C-terminus. Murine pyrin lacks the B30.2 domain present in human pyrin (29). However,
the mechanism of pyrin regulation appears to be conserved in both species (30).

Negative regulation of pyrin occurs in a manner similar to the guard hypothesis observed in plants,
whereby a plant disease resistance PRR recognizes modifications to host proteins made by
pathogens and induces an innate response (31). More specifically, pyrin follows an indirect guard
hypothesis in which it does not directly interact with but is negatively regulated by RhoA (23).
Hence, pyrin acts as the guard of RhoA (guardee) to protect host cells from bacterial effectors or
toxins which target it. RhoA functions through a switch like mechanism between an "on" (Rho-
GTP) and "off" (Rho-GDP) state. RhoA has numerous roles in phagocytosis, cell cycle and
migration and is targeted by multiple bacterial pathogens (23, 32). Pyrin is negatively regulated
by serine phosphorylation, via the kinase PKN (also known as PRK), which is in turn is activated
by RhoA. PKN phosphorylates murine pyrin on serines 205 and 241 (S208 and S242 in human
pyrin) within 14-3-3-binding sites located in the linker region to negatively regulate pyrin (30, 33).
Mutational analysis of S205 and S241 by alanine substitution in ectopically expressed murine
pyrin indicates that loss of either site results in partial inflammasome activation and when both
sites are disrupted there is an additive effect (30). Similar studies of S208 and S242 in human
pyrin show that the inflammasome is activated when either site is substituted (33, 34). Moreover,
an S242R mutation in *MEFV* causes an autoinflammatory disease, PAAND, which leads to a
partially active form of pyrin and further underscores the importance of linker phosphorylation in
pyrin regulation (35). When pyrin is phosphorylated, the N-terminal pyrin domain (PYD) may be

sequestered, preventing interaction with ASC (21). RhoA inactivation removes the negative
regulation axis of pyrin, presumably resulting in dephosphorylation of S205/S208 and S241/S242
(21, 22, 30, 33). These findings lead to a model wherein when both serines in the pyrin linker are
dephosphorylated, 14-3-3 detaches, the PYD is exposed, and ASC and caspase-1 are recruited
to assemble inflammasomes (21, 30, 33). A limitation of this model is that no phosphoprotein
phosphatase (PPP) that dephosphorylates pyrin has been identified and the phosphorylation
status of pyrin oligomers is unknown.

Assembly of the pyrin inflammasome in phagocytes infected with WT *Yersinia* is blocked due to
the action of YopM (17, 18). YopM binds to and activates the protein PKN and a second kinase,
RSK (36). YopM hijacks PKN and RSK to keep pyrin phosphorylated (17, 21, 34). A *Yptb ΔyopM*
mutant is fully virulent in Mefv$^{-/-}$ mice, demonstrating that YopM promotes virulence by inhibiting
pyrin (17). The importance of pyrin in pathogenesis extends beyond *Yersinia, C. difficile* and *B.*
cenocepacia as numerous other bacteria including *Clostridium botulinum*, *Vibrio*
parahaemolyticus and *Histophilus somni* secrete toxins that trigger assembly of this
inflammasome in phagocytes (23).

Codon changes in the *MEFV* gene (e.g. M694V) that result in gain of function pyrin variants are
responsible for the monogenic human autoinflammatory disease Familial Mediterranean Fever
(FMF) (25, 34). FMF is characterized by recurrent episodes of fever and serositis and primarily
affects eastern Mediterranean populations (37). Magnotti et al demonstrated that pyrin
dephosphorylation was sufficient to promote inflammasome activation using PKN inhibitors on
monocytes from FMF patients, which implies that these patients have a lower threshold for pyrin
activation than healthy patients (38). It has been hypothesized that the high carrier frequency of
FMF in Mediterranean and Middle Eastern populations is the result of a selective advantage in
resistance to an unknown infection (34). Population genetic evidence is consistent with the idea
that plague selected for FMF mutations in Middle Eastern populations (34). In addition, infection
assays with human cells and mice provided evidence that pyrin FMF variants promote resistance
to *Y. pestis* (34). These findings underscore the importance of the pyrin inflammasome for human
health. Therefore, it is important to understand the dual role of pyrin in promoting immune
responses against pathogens and autoinflammation in FMF and a deeper understanding of pyrin
inflammasome regulation will aid in this goal.

Here we used primary murine macrophages and human THP-1 cells and primary monocytes from
FMF patients in conjunction with bacterial and chemical inhibitors, native PAGE, immunoblotting

with phospho-specific pyrin antibodies and siRNA knockdowns to determine if PPP activity is

required to dephosphorylate oligomeric pyrin and positively regulate inflammasome assembly in

response to inactivation of the RhoA-PKN axis.

RESULTS

PPP activity is required for pyrin dephosphorylation and positive regulation of

inflammasome assembly

Inactivation of RhoA removes negative regulation by PKN, however, a PPP is needed to positively

regulate pyrin by serine dephosphorylation. The PPP family consists of PP1, PP2A, PP2B (also

known as calcineurin or PP3), PP4, PP5, PP6, and PP7 (39). To test the role of PPPs in

dephosphorylation of pyrin LPS-primed bone marrow-derived macrophages (BMDMs) were

pretreated for 15 min with DMSO as a vehicle control or one the following inhibitors: calyculin A

(CA) at 10 nM and okadaic acid (OA) at 1000 nM, which at these concentrations inhibit PP1,

PP2A, PP4, PP5, and PP6 but not PP2B; OA at 100 nM to more specifically inhibit PP2A; and

1000nM of cyclosporin A (CSA) which inhibits PP2B. After the pretreatment the BMDMs were

maintained in the presence of DMSO or the inhibitors during intoxication for 90 min with *C. difficile*

TcdB, which glucosylates and inactivates RhoA (40), to trigger pyrin inflammasome assembly

(23). BMDM lysates were analyzed by immunoblotting with monoclonal antibodies specific for

total pyrin or phosphoserine 205 (PS205) (30) or actin as loading control. We were unable to

monitor PS241 in murine pyrin because the antibody reported to recognize this modification (30)

did not work in our hands for this purpose but did recognize human pyrin PS242 (see Fig.S3

below). We found that treatment of BMDMs with CA or 1000 nM OA prevented pyrin S205

dephosphorylation in response to TcdB intoxication (Fig.S1A). Results of ELISA on BMDM

supernatants showed that CA or 1000 nM OA also significantly reduced release of mature IL-1β

during TcdB intoxication (Fig.S1B). CSA treatment did not inhibit pyrin S205 dephosphorylation

or IL-1β release upon TcdB intoxication (Fig.S1) which indicates that PP2B does not regulate this

inflammasome. 100nM OA treatment was also ineffective (Fig.S1) but previous publications (41)

and subsequent experiments (see Fig.5 below) indicate that at this concentration longer

pretreatments are needed for the inhibitor to reach effective concentrations in cells. We noted that

CA and 1000nM OA in the absence or presence of TcdB caused an upshift in the positions of

pyrin bands on the immunoblots, but not a corresponding increase in PS205 signal (Fig.S1A).

This observation suggests that S205 is uniformly phosphorylated and a PPP constitutively

dephosphorylates pyrin at an additional site(s), possibly S241, and when this phosphatase is

inhibited, hyperphosphorylation by PKN results in reduced mobility of pyrin by SDS-PAGE. In

summary, these results suggest that a PPP other than PP2B is required to dephosphorylate pyrin
S205 and trigger assembly of the inflammasome in response to TcdB. In addition, a PPP may
act constitutively to dephosphorylate pyrin at another site(s).

We used CA treatment to determine if a PPP is important for YopE and YopT to trigger pyrin S205
dephosphorylation and inflammasome assembly in BMDMs infected with *Yptb.* BMDMs treated
with DMSO or CA as above were infected with a Δ*yopM* mutant to activate the pyrin
inflammasome. We also infected DMSO or CA-treated BMDMs with a Δ*yopK* mutant, which
triggers assembly of the NLRP3 inflammasome (and to a lesser degree the NLRC4
inflammasome) (19, 20), since there is evidence that PP2A is important for dephosphorylation
and activation of NLRP3 (42). Immunoblot and ELISA analysis of BMDMs pre-treated with CA
followed by Δ*yopM* infection showed that pyrin remained phosphorylated on S205 and there was
a significant decrease in IL-1β release (Fig. 1). Results of infection with Δ*yopK* also showed
reduced IL-1β release when the BMDMs were treated with CA, although the decrease was not
significant (Fig. 1B). Pyrin was not dephosphorylated on S205 in response to Δ*yopK* infection of
untreated BMDMs as expected (Fig. 1A). The finding that CA had a stronger inhibitory effect on
IL-1β secretion with Δ*yopM* as compared to Δ*yopK* infection (Fig. 1B) might reflect residual
NLRC4 inflammasome assembly triggered by the latter strain (19).

Similar results were obtained when CA was used to treat BMDMs infected with Δ*yopM Yptb*
strains expressing only active YopE (*yopT^{C139A}*) or YopT (*yopE^{R144A}*) (Fig. S2). In addition,
immunoblotting indicated that CA did not decrease steady state levels of pro-IL-1β (Fig. S2A).
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B. cenocepacia infection of naive THP-1 cells has been shown to trigger assembly of the pyrin
inflammasome (43). To determine if PPP inhibition prevents dephosphorylation of human pyrin
we infected THP-1 cells with *B. cenocepacia* WT or Δ*tecA* strains in the absence or presence of
DMSO or CA. Lysates were immunoblotted with antibodies that recognize total pyrin, PS242,
pro-IL-1β or actin as loading control. *B. cenocepacia* infection triggered dephosphorylation of
S242 in a TecA-dependent manner in DMSO-treated THP-1 cells (Fig.S3). Interestingly, when
THP-1 cells were pretreated and maintained in the presence of CA, S242 became
hyperphosphorylated in both uninfected and infected conditions (Fig.S3), which was evident from
comparing the short and long exposures of the immunoblots. The hyperphosphorylation of pyrin
in the presence of CA in uninfected THP-1 cells suggests that a PPP is constitutively
counterbalancing PKN to keep S242 hypophosphorylated. CA treatment prevented infection-
induced production of pro-IL-1β as determined by immunoblotting (Fig.S3) and as a result the

impact of the inhibitor on release of mature IL-1β from the THP-1 cells could not be measured.
These data indicate that a PPP dephosphorylates pyrin S242 in response to inactivation of RhoA
by TecA in THP-1 cells, but it appears that a PPP is acting constitutively to keep most of the pyrin
in the cell dephosphorylated at this site prior to infection.

PKN inhibitors activate pyrin inflammasome assembly and pyroptosis in monocytes from FMF
patients with the M694V mutation (38). The effect of CA on release of IL-1β from FMF patient's
monocytes activated by treatment with the PKN inhibitor, UCN-01, was measured. Pre-treating
LPS-primed FMF monocytes with 40 nM CA followed by UCN-01 treatment significantly inhibited
IL-1β release as compared to UCN-01 treatment alone (Fig. 2). Moreover, CA treatment also
prevented UCN-01 mediated cell death as measured by propidium iodide influx in a human
monocytic cell line, U937, expressing the p.M694V *MEFV* variant (Fig.S4). Thus, in an FMF
context where the threshold of activation has been shown to be lower and relies on pyrin
dephosphorylation (38, 44), a PPP is constitutively countering the effect of the PKN kinases and
inhibition of PPP activity prevents inflammasome activation. Altogether these data replicate the
inhibitory effect of CA as seen on murine pyrin dephosphorylation and activation in BMDMs in
human cells.

PPP activity regulates phosphorylation of oligomeric pyrin
Although human pyrin has been shown to form trimers (28) the oligomeric status of murine pyrin
has not been investigated. In addition, it is not known if pyrin oligomers are differentially
phosphorylated or dephosphorylated. We used blue native PAGE (BN-PAGE) and
immunoblotting (45, 46) to examine the impact RhoA inactivation and PPP inhibition on
phosphorylation of oligomeric pyrin. To optimize the procedure, we first tested different non-ionic
detergent extraction conditions on untreated uninfected WT or *Mefv*^{-/-} BMDMs. As shown in
Fig.S5, when extracts of untreated BMDMs were separated by BN-PAGE and immunoblotted for
total (A) or PS205 (B) pyrin, we detected oligomers of pyrin in WT but not *Mefv*^{-/-} BMDMs.
Monomeric pyrin (~90 kDa) was not detected and based on the apparent molecular weight of the
oligomers we tentatively assigned them as dimer (~242 kDa) and higher-order oligomers (~480-
720 kDa). Thus, most of the pyrin in BMDMs is in a higher oligomeric form and phosphorylated
on S205. Recovery of total and PS205 pyrin was optimal using 0.5% or 1% digitonin (Fig.S5) and
1% was used going forward.

We next analyzed the phosphorylation and oligomeric status of pyrin in BMDMS infected with WT
or Δ*yopM Yptb* in the absence of CA using BN-PAGE and immunoblotting. As shown in Fig.3, the
total (A) and PS205 (B) pyrin oligomer signals decreased in BMDMs infected with Δ*yopM*, due to
increased insolubility of the dephosphorylated form of pyrin in non-ionic detergent (E) (22). This
insolubility issue prevented us from determining if the oligomeric state of pyrin is altered upon
dephosphorylation. In BMDMs treated with CA there was an upshift in the positions of the dimeric
and higher oligomeric forms under all conditions, most evident with the PS205 signal, and there
was no insolubility or dephosphorylation of pyrin in response to infection with Δ*yopM* (Fig.3CD).
In addition, in the presence of CA a very large mystery oligomer at ~1048 kDa was detected with
the PS205 signal under all conditions (Fig.3D). These results confirm the upshift in mobility due
to hyperphosphorylation of pyrin in the presence of CA seen in some SDS-PAGE immunoblots
(Fig.S1A). These data further suggest that hyperphosphorylation of pyrin increases
oligomerization.
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YopM interacts with oligomeric pyrin
YopM can interact with pyrin as determined by co-immunoprecipitation (17, 18, 34). We
wondered if YopM interacts with the different oligomeric forms of YopM and if this interaction is
sensitive to PPP inhibition. To determine if YopM is associated with pyrin oligomers, samples
from untreated WT BMDMs left uninfected or infected with WT or Δ*yopM Yptb* were separated by
BN-PAGE and immunoblotted with antibody to YopM. We detected a YopM signal at the dimer
and higher-order oligomer positions in the WT but not in the Δ*yopM Yptb* samples (Fig.4A, lanes
2 and 3). We then repeated the experiments using WT BMDMs untreated or treated with CA or
untreated *Mefv*^{-/-} BMDMs. In WT BMDMs there was a YopM signal corresponding to dimeric pyrin
in the DMSO and CA treated WT *Yptb* infected samples (Fig.4B, lanes 2 and 5). The higher order
oligomeric YopM signal around ~480kDa seen with DMSO treatment was not present in the CA
treated sample (Fig.4B, lane 5). In addition, there was a faint YopM signal around ~480kDa in
the *Mefv*^{-/-} BMDMs infected with WT *Yptb* (Fig.4B, lane 8). Two dimensional BN-PAGE
immunoblot analysis of the DMSO treated and WT *Yptb* infected BMDMs sample showed a good
correspondence in the molecular weights of the YopM and oligomeric pyrin signals (Fig. 4C).
These results strongly indicate that YopM interacts with dimeric and higher order oligomers of
pyrin. Possible explanations for why YopM interaction with the higher order pyrin oligomer is
sensitive to PPP inhibition, and the presence of a weak YopM signal at this position in Mefv-/-
BMDMs are discussed below (see Discussion).
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The PP1 inhibitor tautomycetin does not prevent pyrin dephosphorylation or inflammasome assembly

To further delineate which PPP activities positively regulate pyrin, we used tautomycetin (TTN), a more specific inhibitor of PP1 (47, 48). WT BMDMs were pretreated for 15 min and maintained in DMSO or 1 or 2μM of TTN during infection with Δ*yopM Yptb.* We found that treatment of BMDMs with TTN did not prevent pyrin PS205 dephosphorylation or IL-1β release in response to infection with Δ*yopM Yptb* (Fig.S5). Longer pretreatment of BMDMs with 1μM TTN also did not decrease IL-1β secretion upon Δ*yopM* infection (data not shown). Our combined results from treatment of BMDMs with various phosphatase inhibitors suggest that a PPP other than PP1 and PP2B is required to activate pyrin.

Longer pretreatment with 100 nM OA reduces pyrin dephosphorylation and inflammasome assembly

As mentioned previously, OA penetration inside cells is slow and using a lower concentration of OA generally requires longer pretreatment time to achieve sufficient inhibitory levels inside the cell. In contrast CA readily partitions inside cells (41, 49, 50). We found that WT BMDMs pretreated for 3hr and maintained with 100nM OA during infection with Δ*yopM Yptb* showed reduced pyrin dephosphorylation (Fig. 5A) and a significant decrease in IL-1β release as compared to the DMSO control (Fig.5B); whereas 15min pretreatment of BMDMs with 100nM OA did not have such an inhibitory effect on pyrin activation (Fig. S1). Given the selectivity of 100 nM OA to preferentially inhibit PP2A/PP4 over PP1/PP5 (50), these results suggest that PP2A or PP4 could be involved in positively regulating pyrin. Since most serine/threonine phosphatase activities inside the cell are carried out PP1 and PP2A (39, 51) our results with TTN and longer pretreatment with OA in BMDMs allude to a role for PP2A in positive regulation of pyrin activation.

siRNA knockdown implicates PP2A in dephosphorylation of pyrin S205

We next tested the effect of knocking down PP2A in BMDMs on pyrin inflammasome assembly. PP2A has two catalytic subunit isoforms, alpha (PP2Aca) and beta (PP2Acb), which only differ in a few amino acids from each other. We first tested two different siRNAs targeting the mRNA of the alpha catalytic subunit of PP2A (42). The siRNAs (1000pmol) were electroporated into WT BMDMs which were also LPS-primed. PKN1 siRNA was used as a positive control (17, 33). RT-qPCR showed that there was significant and selective knock down of PP2Aca mRNA with both siRNAs as compared to the positive control and PP2Acb analyzed in parallel (Fig. S6A). The siRNA electroporations were then repeated and LPS-primed BMDMs were left uninfected or

infected with Δ*yopM Yptb.* Immunoblotting showed that there was full depletion of PKN1 with the
corresponding siRNA but only an apparent ~50% knock down of PP2A with the siRNAs #1 and
#2 (Fig.S6B). Since the PP2A antibody used detects both isoforms the remaining signal detected
could have corresponded to PP2Acb. Upon Δ*yopM* infection there was no inhibition of
dephosphorylation of pyrin at S205 with either PP2Aca siRNAs (Fig. S6B). However, PP2Aca #2
siRNA decreased IL-1β secretion (data not shown) which could indicate that this siRNA has an
off-target effect when used at the high concentration. A PP2Acb siRNA when tested by itself at
500pmol selectively knocked down the corresponding mRNA transcripts and did not decrease IL-
1β release as compared to the control (Fig.6A and Fig.S6C, respectively). We next tested the
effect of a combined PP2A alpha and beta catalytic subunit knock down. BMDMs were
electroporated with PKN1 or PP2Aca and PP2Acb siRNAs (500pmol each) and LPS primed as
before. RT-qPCR showed that there was a decrease in the mRNA transcripts of both PP2A
subunits (Fig.6A). Immunoblotting showed a greater depletion of PP2A protein as compared to
knocking down the alpha subunit alone (compare Fig.S6B and Fig.6B). Upon Δ*yopM* infection
PS205 pyrin was maintained and there was a significant decrease in IL-1β secretion with both
siRNA combinations tested (Fig.6B and C, respectively). Together, these results implicate PP2A
alpha and beta subunits as acting redundantly to dephosphorylate pyrin S205.

DISCUSSION

In this study, we aimed to understand if a PPP activity is important for positive regulation of
inflammasome assembly by oligomeric pyrin. There are seven different PPPs in the mammalian
cell: PP1, PP2A, PP2B (PP3), PP4, PP5, PP6 and PP7. In the human genome there are ~428
Ser/Thr kinases but only ~30 Ser/Thr phosphatases (51). The remarkable diversity of PPP
substrates, substrate recognition and cellular localization is achieved by the association of
catalytic subunits with non-catalytic subunits to form multimeric holoenzymes (39). The active
sites of these phosphatases share 100% similarity, and most phosphatase inhibitors which bind
to the PPP active sites are broadly specific for this reason.

CA is a relatively non-specific and hydrophobic PPP inhibitor. It can easily partition through cell
membranes and potently inhibits most PPPs except for PP2B and PP7 (50). CA was found to
inhibit both murine and human pyrin inflammasome activation. Using 10nM CA we obtained
evidence that a PPP activity is important for pyrin S205 dephosphorylation and inflammasome

assembly in BMDMs in response to RhoA inactivation by TcdB or YopE/T during $\Delta yopM$ *Yptb*

infection. The same CA treatment also prevented TecA-dependent dephosphorylation of pyrin

S242 in THP-1 cells infected with *B. cenocepacia.* It has been shown previously in mouse

peritoneal macrophages that 50nM CA prevented activation of NLRP3, AIM2 and NLRC4

inflammasomes, indicating that PPP activity can be important for inflammasome activation in

general, and is perhaps acting at a latter step (52). We observed that 10nM CA prevented

infection-induced pro-IL-1β synthesis in THP-1 cells infected with *B. cenocepacia* illustrating that

results with this inhibitor need to be carefully controlled and interpreted since it can block multiple

steps in an inflammasome pathway. Moreover, 40 nM CA was also found to reverse the effect of

a PKN inhibitor and potently inhibit pyrin activation in FMF patient monocytes. These cells have

previously been demonstrated to exhibit a lower activation threshold for inflammasome activation

as compared to monocytes from healthy donors, and pyrin dephosphorylation has been to shown

to be sufficient to trigger inflammasome assembly in FMF monocytes (37, 38). It is possible that

in the FMF disease context, a balance between the PKN kinases and a PPP regulates

inflammasome assembly and inhibition of either shifts the equilibrium in favor of the other protein.

Results from our experiments with treatment of BMDMs with CA and $\Delta yopK$ *Yptb* mutant infection

showed that there was a non-significant decrease in IL-1β release which can be attributed to

inhibition of NLRP3 but not of the NLRC4 inflammasome. Luheshi et al used a higher CA

concentration of 50nM (52) which could explain why we didn't observe inhibition of NLRC4

inflammasome in response to $\Delta yopK$ infection with 10nM CA treatment.

We were also able to show using BN-PAGE that murine pyrin forms oligomers consisting of

dimers and higher order oligomers that are phosphorylated on S205 when pyrin is inactive. Due

to the insolubility of active pyrin in non-ionic detergent we were unable to determine if

dephosphorylation changes the oligomeric status of pyrin. However, PPP inhibition with CA

resulted in the appearance of a very high molecular weight mystery oligomer which indicates that

phosphorylation increases oligomerization of pyrin. Pyrin belongs to the TRIM family of proteins

and Trim5α which is involved in HIV viral capsid recognition is known to form dimers and higher

order lattices consisting of dimers of dimers or trimers of dimers (26). The higher order murine

pyrin oligomers (~480-720kDa) that we observe on BN-PAGE immunoblots could represent

dimers of dimers or trimers of dimers similar to those formed by Trim5α. It has been previously

shown through crosslinking studies in THP-1 cell lysates that human pyrin can form trimers which

is mediated through its coiled coil domains (28). In the same study it was also shown that the B-

box domain of human pyrin interacts with the N-terminal pyrin domain to sequester it and prevent

interaction with ASC (28). However, Weinert et al reported that a truncated version of human pyrin

forms an antiparallel dimer in vitro through interaction of coiled coil domains (27). These

discrepancies in trimer vs dimer formation by human pyrin could be attributed to experimental and

technical differences. It is expected that regulation of human and murine pyrin by oligomerization

would be conserved but due to structural differences, it is possible that murine pyrin forms dimers

and human pyrin forms trimers through their respective coiled coil domains. To rule out technical

differences it would be informative to investigate oligomerization of human pyrin by BN-PAGE

instead of crosslinking. The phosphorylation status of human pyrin oligomers should also be

determined.

CA treatment resulted in an upshift in molecular weights of PS205 and total murine pyrin bands

in all conditions on BN-PAGE immunoblots, as wells as on some SDS-PAGE immunoblots. In

addition, CA treatment of THP-1 cells resulted in hyperphosphorylation of S242 in human pyrin.

This indicates that a PPP acts constitutively on the second linker site in pyrin to dephosphorylate

it and when this PPP is inhibited the second serine becomes hyperphosphorylated. These results

suggest that one of the linker sites can be hypophosphorylated yet pyrin remains inactive. This

finding is surprising given the data that phosphorylation of the second linker site is critical for

negative regulation of pyrin, based on alanine substitution of this residue in ectopically expressed

pyrin variants (33, 34). In addition, the S242R substitution causes PAAND in which the pyrin

variant is considered constitutively active (35). Pull down experiments in this study also showed

that 14-3-3 proteins are not bound to the S242R variant and that pyrin is dephosphorylated (35).

Jeru et al. showed previously that a S208A pyrin variant has reduced 14-3-3 binding while the

S242A mutant abolishes 14-3-3 binding (53). This suggested that 14-3-3 binding could follow a

gatekeeper hypothesis in which PS242 is the dominant site which promotes 14-3-3 binding and

PS208 is a secondary site (53). These findings may indicate that hypophosphorylation of the

second linker site is sufficient to keep pyrin oligomers inactive. This could facilitate fast

dephosphorylation of the hypophosphorylated second sites, resulting in rapid activation of pyrin

in response to RhoA inactivation by pathogens. A caveat of this concept is our limitation of not

being able to measure the phosphorylation status of S241 in murine pyrin under the conditions

used.

We were also able to use one and 2D BN-PAGE and immunoblotting to detect interaction of

murine pyrin with YopM during WT *Yptb* infection of BMDMs and found that this interaction was

sensitive to PPP inhibition. The fact that YopM targets the oligomers argues that they are poised

to become activated upon dephosphorylation. We hypothesize that the faint YopM signal on BN-
PAGE immunoblots from the *Mefv^{-/-}* BMDMs infected with WT *Yptb* could result from self-
oligomerization of the YopM protein. The YopM protein from *Y. pestis* is known to form tetramers
in vitro (36, 54), so it is conceivable that the *Yptb* YopM protein can form higher order oligomers
on its own in *Mefv^{-/-}* BMDMs. One explanation for the selective loss of the YopM signal at the
position of the higher order oligomers from the CA-treated and WT *Yptb*-infected samples is that
the affinity of YopM binding to pyrin is reduced by hyperphosphorylation.

OA in comparison to CA has a greater inhibitory constant to bind to the catalytic subunit of PP2A
than of PP1 and is reported to enter cells slowly (50, 55). Our results indicated that 15min
pretreatment with 1000nM OA is sufficient to inhibit S205 pyrin dephosphorylation and IL-1β
release in BMDMs upon RhoA inactivation. Stutz et al reported that PP2A is important for NLRP3
activation through dephosphorylation using the same conditions and concentration of OA (42).
We only observed a reduction in S205 dephosphorylation and a significant decrease in IL-1β
secretion in response to Δ*yopM* infection when BMDMs were pretreated with 100nM OA for 3hr
but not for 15min, which can be explained by the slow entry of the inhibitor. We hypothesize from
these results that PP2A plays a role in dephosphorylation of S205 and positive regulation of the
pyrin inflammasome in BMDMs.

PP2A, along with PP1, carry out most serine/threonine dephosphorylation events in cells and
partake in many essential activities for the cell (39). PP2A is abundantly present in cells and forms
heterotrimers consisting of a catalytic subunit, a scaffolding A subunit, and a regulatory B subunit
(39). There are two isoforms of the catalytic and scaffolding subunits, and four isoforms of the
regulatory subunits, which account for the diverse activities and substrates regulated by PP2A
(51). Since it is an essential protein for the cell and very likely has a long half-life which explains
why we were unable to fully deplete it in the cell. The alpha and beta catalytic subunit of PP2A
only differ by a few amino acids and PP2Aca is more abundantly present in cells than PP2Acb.
Our results indicated that siRNAs targeting PP2Aca did not reduce S205 pyrin dephosphorylation
in BMDMs infected with Δ*yopM*. However, a combined knock down of both catalytic subunits of
PP2A showed that S205 pyrin phosphorylation was maintained and there was a significant
decrease in IL-1β secretion upon Δ*yopM* infection. These results indicate that the two catalytic
subunits of PP2A act redundantly to dephosphorylate the pyrin linker. This is distinct from the
case of NLRP3 where knockdown of the alpha catalytic subunit of PP2A alone was sufficient to
prevent assembly of the inflammasome (42). To confirm our results, additional siRNAs targeting

the alpha and beta catalytic subunit of PP2A should be tested. In addition, the impact of PP2A

knockdowns on PS241 in murine pyrin and PS208/242 in human pyrin needs to be investigated.

Furthermore, in a broader disease context, the effect of PP2A knockdown on FMF pyrin activation

should also be explored because it may offer insights for new therapeutic strategies.

PPPs recognize and bind to regulatory proteins or to substrates via short linear motifs (SLiMs)

(39). For example, the B56 regulatory subunit of PP2A binds through LxxIxE motifs to its

substrates (39). Interestingly, murine pyrin contains two LxxIxE motifs in the coiled-coil domain

and human pyrin has one LxxIxE motif in the linker. Since both murine and human pyrin have a

PP2A-B56 regulatory motif it is possible that PP2A regulates both forms through a conserved

mechanism. This could be tested by inactivation of the SLiM motifs in murine and human pyrin.

We have not ruled out the possible roles of other PPPs in pyrin dephosphorylation and

inflammasome assembly and additional approaches will likely be needed to address this

possibility. Finally, it remains to be determined if the activity of PP2A is upregulated upon RhoA

inactivation, or these enzymes simply constitutively counterbalance PKN. In the case of PP2A

activating NLRP3 by dephosphorylation (42), there is evidence that Bruton tyrosine kinase

negatively regulates PP2A by phosphorylation of tyrosine 307 (56). It is theoretically possible that

PKN could negatively regulate PPP activities by phosphorylation and additional experiments are

needed to address this possibility.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Bacterial strains. *Y. pseudotuberculosis* (*Yptb*) 32777 (serogroup O1) strains used in this study

are as follows: wild-type (57), $\Delta yopM$ (58), $\Delta yopK$ (59), $yopE^{R144A}\Delta yopM$ and $yopT^{C139A}\Delta yopM$

(17). *Yptb* was grown at 28°C on Luria broth (LB) agar plates or with shaking in LB broth,

supplemented with antibiotics when necessary. The *B. cenocepacia* strains used were AU1054

(WT) and $\Delta tecA$ mutant (60). *B. cenocepacia* was grown at 37°C on LB agar plates or with

shaking in LB broth.

Bone marrow isolation and cell culture conditions. Bone marrow derived macrophages

(BMDMs) were obtained from femurs of 8-week-old WT C57BL/6 mice (Jackson Laboratories)

and/or *Mefv*$^{-/-}$ mice (61) as previously described (19). Cells were grown at 37°C in a humidified

incubator in macrophage growth media (MGM) made up of Dulbecco's modified Eagle Medium

(DMEM) plus GlutaMAX (Gibco) containing 10% heat inactivated fetal bovine serum (FBS) (GE

Health Care), 10% L929 cell-conditioned medium, 1 mM sodium pyruvate (Gibco), 10 mM HEPES

(Gibco) for a week. On day 7 differentiated macrophages were divided into six-well plates at a

density of 0.8×10^6 cells/well in a total volume of 3 ml in MGM diluted to contain 10% L929 cell-

conditioned medium (MGM 10/10) and primed for ~18hrs with 100 ng/ml O26:B6 *Escherichia coli*

LPS (Sigma).

BMDM infection, intoxication, and inhibitor treatments. For BMDM infections, *Yptb* strains

were grown overnight in LB at 28°C. The following day, cultures were diluted 1:40 in LB containing

20 mM sodium oxalate and 20 mM MgCl2 and grown at 28°C for 1 hr, then shifted to 37°C for 2

hr. Cultures were centrifuged and the bacterial pellets were resuspended in phosphate-buffered

saline (PBS). Bacterial suspensions were then diluted in media lacking FBS and containing 10%

L929 cell-conditioned medium (MGM 0/10). LPS-primed BMDMs were washed once with PBS

and left uninfected or infected in MGM 0/10 with *Yptb* strains cultured under conditions as

described above at an MOI of 30. Plates were centrifuged for 5 min at 106xg to facilitate contact

between *Yptb* and macrophages. Plates were then incubated at 37°C in 5% CO_2. In experiments

where the glucosyltransferase toxin TcdB from *Clostridium difficile* (List Biological Laboratories,

Inc.) was used as a positive control for pyrin inflammasome activation, BMDMs were intoxicated

with TcdB at a concentration of 0.1 µg/ml for 90min in MGM 0/10 media.

In experiments where phosphatase inhibitors were used and BMDMs were pre-treated for 15min

with either 1.4mM DMSO as vehicle control or calyculin A (10nM diluted from 100µM stock, LC

Laboratories), cyclosporin A (1µM diluted from 1mM stock, Sigma), okadaic acid (100nM or 1µM

diluted from 1mM stock, Tocris), or tautomycetin (1µM or 2µM diluted from 1mM stock, Tocris) in

MGM 0/10. MGM 10/10 was used for BMDMs pre-treated for 3hr with 100nM okadaic acid. For

infection following pre-treatment, MGM 0/10 media containing bacteria and DMSO or the

respective phosphatase inhibitors was added to the BMDMs, followed by centrifugation and

incubation as above. Post-infection, cell supernatants were collected and processed for IL-1β

detection by ELISA and cell lysates were prepared and processed for immunoblot analysis (see

below).

THP-1 cells, infection, and inhibitor treatment. THP-1 cells (ATCC TIB-202) were grown in

filter sterilized RPMI 1640 media (Cat. No 30-2001) containing 10% heat inactivated fetal bovine

serum and 0.05 mM 2-mercaptoethanol in $25cm^2$ flasks. When confluent the THP-1 cells were

expanded in $75cm^2$ flasks. No cells were used that were passaged more than 30 times. For

infections, THP-1 cells were seeded at a density of 0.8×10^6 cells per well in 1.5ml of media in 6-
well plates and pretreated with 1.4mM DMSO vehicle control or 10nM calyculin A for 15 min.
Overnight (16-hour) cultures of *B. cenocepacia* were subcultured 1:100 in fresh LB on infection
day and shaken at 37°C until the cultures reached mid-log phase (OD_{600} = 0.300). Cultures were
then centrifuged, the LB was removed, and the bacterial pellets were resuspended in PBS and
then diluted to an MOI of 20 in warmed RPMI 1640 media without FBS and containing DMSO or
calyculin A. 1.5ml of supplemented media was added to each well and mixed by pipetting gently
up and down. Following incubation for 3 hours at 37°C, the contents of each well was collected
and centrifuged for 10 minutes at 14,000rpm and 4°C. The cell pellet was collected and lysed for
immunoblot analysis as described below.
539
FMF monocytes and inhibitor treatment. Primary monocytes purified as described (38) from
three FMF patients carrying the p.M694V/p.M694V mutation were seeded into 96-well plates at
5×10^3 cells/well, in RPMI 1640, GlutaMAX medium (Thermo Fisher Scientific) supplemented with
10% fetal calf serum (Lonza). Cells were incubated for 2.5h in the presence of LPS (10 ng/ml,
InvivoGen) and, when indicated, pre-treated for 30 min with calyculin A (40nM, Sigma 208851),
followed by treatment with UCN-01 (12.5 µM, Sigma) for 90 minutes. Following the incubation,
cells were centrifuged, and supernatants were collected.
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U937 cell line and genetic manipulation. The protocol for genetically manipulating the human
myeloid cell line U937 (CelluloNet, Lyon, France) was followed as described previously in (38).
Cells were grown in RPMI 1640 medium with glutaMAX-I supplemented with 10% (vol/vol) FCS,
2 mM L-glutamine, 100 IU/ml penicillin, and 100 µg/ml streptomycin (Thermo Fisher Scientific).
MEFV^KO cell lines generated by CRISPR/Cas9-mediated gene invalidations have been previously
described (38, 62). p.M694V *MEFV* was cloned into the GFP-expressing plasmid pINDUCER21
(63) under the control of a doxycycline-inducible promoter through the pENTR1A (Invitrogen)
vector using a synthetic DNA fragment (GeneArt) encoding the p.M694V Pyrin protein. Lentiviral
particles were produced in 293T cells using pMD2.G and psPAX2 (from Didier Trono, Addgene
plasmids #12259 and #12260), and pINDUCER-21 p.M694V Pyrin. U937 *MEFV*^KO cell lines were
transduced by spinoculation and sorted at day 7 post-transduction based on GFP expression on
an Aria cell sorter. Pyrin expression was induced by treatment with doxycycline (1 µg/ml) for 16 h
before stimulation.
561

Real-time cell death assay. U937 *MEFV*^KO cells expressing the p.M694V *MEFV* variant were seeded at 5×10^4 per wells before stimulation in black 96-well plate (Costar, Corning) with propidium iodide (PI, Sigma) at 5 µg/ml. Three technical replicates per conditions were done. Cells were pre-treated with calyculin A (Sigma, 208851) at 40 nM for 30 min and then treated with UCN-01 (Sigma, U6508) at 12.5 µM. Real-time PI incorporation was measured every 5 min for 6 hours post-UCN-01 addition on a fluorimeter (Tecan) using the following wavelengths: excitation 535 nm (bandwidth 15 nm) and emission 635 nm (bandwidth 15 nm) (64, 65). Cell death was normalized (previously described, (38)) using PI incorporation in monocytes treated with 1% Triton X-100 for 15 min (=100% cell death). As a further correction, the first time point of the kinetics was set to 0.

Protein analysis by SDS-PAGE and immunoblotting. To obtain cell lysates, BMDMs and THP-1 cells were lysed in mammalian protein extraction reagent (MPER, Thermo Scientific) along with cOmplete Mini (Roche) protease inhibitor and PhosSTOP (Roche) phosphatase inhibitor. The lysis buffer for THP-1 cells was supplemented with 10 nM calyculin A. Protein concentration was normalized after measurement with a bichinonic acid assay (BCA, Thermo Fisher Scientific) and 3-10µg of total protein cell lysates was run on 4 to 12% NuPAGE Bis-Tris SDS-PAGE gels (Invitrogen by ThermoFisher Scientific) and transferred to polyvinylidene difluoride membranes (ThermoFisher Scientific) using an iBlot 2 gel transfer device (Life Technologies). Membranes were blocked in 5% nonfat dairy milk (add company) and incubated with primary antibodies overnight. Primary antibodies used in this paper were: rabbit-anti-mouse monoclonal total pyrin antibody (1:1000 dilution, ab195975; abcam), rabbit-anti-mouse pyrin polyclonal (1:1000 dilution, (61)), rabbit-anti-mouse phospho-serine 205 monoclonal antibody (1:1000 dilution, ab201784; abcam), rabbit-anti-mouse phospho-serine 241 monoclonal antibody (1:1000 dilution, ab201784; abcam), rabbit-anti-mouse/human IL-1β (1:1000 dilution, number 12242; Cell Signaling), rabbit-anti-mouse/human polyclonal β-actin (1:1000 dilution, number 4967; Cell Signaling), mouse-anti-mouse/human/rat monoclonal PP1a (1:1000 dilution, number MA5-17239, ThermoFisher Scientific), rabbit-anti-*Y.pestis* polyclonal YopM (1:1000 dilution, provided by Susan Straley), mouse-anti-mouse monoclonal PKN (1:1000 dilution, number 393344, Santa Cruz Biotechnology), rabbit-anti-mouse monoclonal PP2A (1:1000 dilution, #2038, Cell Signaling), and rabbit-anti-mouse GSDMD (1:1000 dilution, ab209845, Abcam). Horseradish peroxidase-conjugated anti-rabbit or mouse antibody (Jackson Laboratory) were used as secondary antibodies. Protein bands bound by antibodies were visualized using chemiluminescent detection reagent (GE Healthcare) on an iBright FL1500 (ThermoFisher Scientific). Immunoblot

596   quantification was performed using the iBright analysis software and 'local corrected volume' in
597   the software was used to represent signal intensity for a band where indicated.
598
Protein analysis by blue native (BN)-PAGE and immunoblotting. BN-PAGE immunoblotting
was performed as described by Kofoed and Vance (46). All reagents for this procedure were
obtained from Invitrogen except as stated. BMDMs were lysed in non-denaturing 1X Native-PAGE
Novex sample buffer with the indicated concentrations of either digitonin (5% stock) or DDM (10%
stock), MPER (Thermo Scientific) or RIPA lysis or extraction buffer (Thermo Scientific), along with
cOmplete Mini (Roche) protease inhibitor and PhosSTOP (Roche) phosphatase inhibitor. Lysates
were centrifuged at 20,817xg for 10min to obtain soluble and insoluble fractions. In some
experiments the insoluble fractions of 1% digitonin lysates were analyzed by SDS-PASGE and
immunoblotting as described above. Protein concentrations of soluble fractions were normalized
after measurement with a bichinonic acid assay (BCA, Thermo Fisher Scientific) and 10µg or
more of total protein cell lysates was mixed with NativePAGE G-250 additive and loaded on 4-
16% NativePAGE Novex 3–12 % Bis-Tris gels. NativeMark unstained protein standard was used
for molecular weight standard visualization. XCell SureLock Mini-Cell was used for running the
gels. Samples were run at room temperature (RT) at constant 150V for 105-120min using pre-
chilled buffers. Dark blue cathode buffer (10ml NativePAGE running buffer, 10ml NativePAGE
cathode additive, 180ml deinonized water) was used for the inner chamber 19ntil samples had
run up to 1/3rd of the gel length after which the buffer was replaced with light blue buffer (10ml
NativePAGE running buffer, 1ml NativePAGE cathode additive, 189ml deinonized water) for the
remainder of the run. The outer chamber was filled with NativePAGE running buffer. Gels were
soaked in 2X NuPAGE transfer buffer (Invitrogen) for 15min at shaking at room temperature.
Proteins were transferred to polyvinylidene difluoride membranes (ThermoFisher Scientific) using
the template program P3 (20V constant, 7min) and an iBlot 2 gel transfer device (Life
Technologies). Post transfer membranes were incubated in 8% acetic acid for 15min with shaking,
followed by ponceau S staining for 5min. Membranes were washed with distilled water for 5min
to remove excess ponceau S stain then air-dried, reactivated by immersion in methanol, followed
by blocking in 5% non-fat dry milk. Primary and secondary antibodies used are mentioned above.
625
Protein analysis by two-dimensional blue native (BN)-PAGE and immunoblotting. The
procedures used followed a previously described protocol (46). Samples were prepared as
described above and separated on NativePAGE Novex 3–12 % Bis-Tris gels. Gel slices
containing samples of interest were excised, trimmed to be 3mm shorter in length than the size

of the 2D well in NuPAGE 4–12 % Bis-Tris 2D Gels, then submerged and shaken at RT in 1X

NuPAGE sample buffer containing 0.1M DTT. Gel slices wwere then microwaved for ~20sec to

denature proteins followed by cooling with shaking at 10min at RT. Slices were then fitted into the

2D well and SDS-PAGE immunoblotting was performed as described above.

siRNA knock-down. siRNAs targeting *Pkn1* (s115927), *PP2Aca* (#1: s72067, #2: s72066) and

PP2Acb (s72069) were obtained from Invitrogen. For siRNA gene knock-down experiments,

400pmol of *Pkn1*,1000pmol of *PP2Aca* siRNAs, and for combined PP2Ac knock down, 500pmol

each of PP2Aca siRNA and PP2Acb siRNA were transfected into BMDMs (1×10^6 cells) by

electroporation using the Neon Transfection System (Invitrogen) and electrical parameters of

1400V, 20ms and 2 pulses. BMDMs were then replated in 6-well plates and grown in MGM 10/10

media. 24hr following transfection, media was changed to fresh MGM 10/10 and LPS was added

for overnight incubation. 48hr following transfection BMDMs were infected with Δ*yopM Yptb* as

described above.

Quantitative real-time PCR (RT-qPCR). At 48hr following transfection, uninfected BMDMs were

lysed with trizol reagent (Invitrogen) to isolate RNA according to the manufacturer's instructions.

500-1000ng of RNA was used to make cDNA using SuperScript IV First-Strand Synthesis System

(Invitrogen). Approximately ~5ng of cDNA was quantified using PowerUp SYBR Green Master

Mix (Invitrogen) in the (add machine name). Primer specificity was checked by melt-curve

analysis. Expression of target genes was normalized to the expression of the housekeeping gene

Hprt. For fold change analysis data was transformed using the 'relative standard curve method

and comparative threshold cycle (Ct) method (ΔΔCt)' as described by Applied Biosystems.

Published primer sequences were used for qPCR analysis (42) and the sequences are: Hprt,

forward   5′-TGAAGT   ACTCATTATAGTCAAGGGCA-3′   and   reverse   5′-CTG

GTGAAAAGGACCTCTCG-3′; Ppp2ca, forward 5′-TCTTCCTCTCACTGCCTTGGT-3′ and

reverse   5′-CAG   CAAGTCACACATTGGACCC-3′;   Ppp2cb,   forward   5′-

AAGGCGTTCACCAAGGAGCT-3′ and reverse 5′- ACAGCGGACCTCTTGCACAT-3′.

IL-1β quantification. IL-1β in BMDM supernatants was quantified using a murine (MLB00C; R&D

Systems) and human (R&D Systems) ELISA kit by following the manufacturer's instructions.

Statistical analysis. GraphPad Prism was used to perform statistical analyses. IL-1β ELISA data
were analyzed by one-way or two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA; Bonferroni multiple-
comparison test), or by Krukal-Wallis test (Dunn's multiple comparison test) as specified.

Ethics statement. The study was approved by the French Comité de Protection des Personnes
(CPP,#L16-189) and by the French Comité Consultatif sur le Traitement de l'Information en
matière de Recherche dans le domaine de la Santé (CCTIRS, #16.864). The authors observed a
strict accordance to the Helsinki Declaration guidelines. All FMF patients fulfilled the Tel
Hashomer criteria for FMF and were homzygous for the p.M694V mutation.

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Award Number R01AI099222 (JBB).

FIGURES

Fig.S1. PPP inhibition with CA and OA prevents pyrin S205 dephosphorylation and reduces IL-1β release in BMDMs intoxicated with TcdB. LPS-primed BMDMs were pretreated for 15mins and maintained with either 10nM calyculin A (CA), 100nM okadaic acid (OA), 1000nM OA or 1000nM cyclosporin A (CSA), and left unintoxicated or intoxicated with 0.1μg/mL of TcdB for 90 mins. Unprimed BMDMs or treatment with vehicle DMSO were used as controls. A) Immunoblot analysis of total and PS205 pyrin in BMDM lysates. Actin was used as a loading control. B) Mature IL-1β in supernatants as quantified by ELISA. Two-way ANOVA with Bonferroni post hoc correction was applied to calculate significance and p-values as compared to DMSO+TcdB are indicated. P-value<0.05 was considered significant; <0.0001 (****); not significant (ns). Each data group is presented as an average (error bars are standard deviation) of at least 3 independent experiments.

703
Fig.1. PPP inhibition with CA reduces pyrin dephosphorylation and IL-1β release in BMDMs
infected with Δ*yopM Yptb.* LPS-primed BMDMs were pre-treated for 15mins and maintained with
either DMSO or 10nM CA, and infected with the Δ*yopM* or Δ*yopK* strain at an MOI of 30 for 90
mins. Treated uninfected BMDMs were analyzed in parallel. A) Immunoblot analysis of PS205
and total pyrin in BMDM lysates. Actin was used as a loading control. B) Mature IL-1β in
supernatants as quantified by ELISA. Two-way ANOVA with Bonferroni post hoc correction was
applied to calculate significance and p-values of each treatment as compared to its corresponding
DMSO treated infected strain is indicated. P-value<0.05 was considered significant; <0.001 (***);
not significant (ns). Each data group is presented as an average (error bars are standard
deviation) of at least 3 independent experiments.

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Fig.S2. PPP inhibition with CA reduces pyrin dephosphorylation and IL-1β release in BMDMs
infected with Δ*yopM Yptb* strains expressing only active YopE or YopT. LPS-primed BMDMs were
pre-treated for 15min and maintained with either DMSO or 10nM CA, and either infected with the
Δ*yopM Yptb* YopE (*yopT^{C139A}*) or YopT (*yopE^{R144A}*) strains at an MOI of 30 or intoxicated with
0.1μg/mL of TcdB for 90 mins. Unprimed and uninfected BMDMs were analyzed in parallel as
controls. A) Immunoblot analysis of PS205 and total pyrin and pro-IL-1β in BMDM lysates. Actin
was used as a loading control. B) Mature IL-1β in supernatants as quantified by ELISA. Each
data group is presented as an average (error bars are standard deviation) of two technical
replicates.

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Fig. 2. CA inhibits UCN-01-mediated IL-1β release from FMF patient's monocytes. Monocytes
from three FMF patients were primed first with LPS (10ng/ml) during 2.5h and, when indicated,
pre-treated with CA (40 nM) during 30 min. Cells were then treated with 12.5 μM UCN-01 for
90min. Mature IL-1β in supernatants as quantified by ELISA is shown. Each symbol presents an
average (error bars represent median interquartile range) of three biological replicates for one
patient. Kruskal-Wallis test with Dunn's correction for multiple comparisons was applied. P-value
less than 0.05 was considered significant; <0.05 (*).

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Fig.S3. PPP inhibition with CA results in hyperphosphorylation of pyrin S242. Naïve THP-1 cells
were pre-treated for 15 min and maintained with either DMSO or 10nM CA, and either left
uninfected or infected with *B. cenocepacia* (Bc) WT or Δ*tecA* for 180 min at an MOI of 20.
Immunoblot analysis of total and PS242 pyrin and pro-IL-1β in THP-1 lysates is shown. PS242
pyrin signals are show with long (15m) or short (2m) exposures for comparison. Actin was
immunoblotted as a loading control.

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815 Fig.S4. CA inhibits UCN-01-mediated cell death in human monocytes expressing M694V pyrin
816 variant. U937 *MEFV*[KO] cells expressing p.M694V *MEFV* variant were treated with UCN-01 (12.5
817 µM) with or without pre-treatment with Calyculin A (40 nM). Propidium iodide (PI)
818 influx/fluorescence was monitored every 5 min for 6h. Each data group is presented as an average
819 (error bars are standard deviation) of three technical replicates.
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Fig.S5. BMDM lysates prepared with digitonin are optimal for detection of pyrin oligomers using
BN-PAGE and immunoblotting. LPS-primed WT and *Mefv*^{-/-} BMDMs were lysed in various non-
ionic detergent concentrations as indicated. Lysate samples were separated by BN-PAGE and
immunoblotted to visualize total (A) and PS205 pyrin (B) oligomers. Positions of BN-PAGE
molecular weight standards are shown on the left of each panel, and dimer and higher order
oligomer are indicated on the right of (B).
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Fig.3. Impact of PPP inhibition with CA and *Yptb* infection on pyrin oligomers and phosphorylation
as determined by BN-PAGE and immunoblotting. WT BMDMs left untreated (A,B) or pre-treated
and maintained with DMSO or 10 nM CA (C-E) were left uninfected or infected with WT or Δ*yopM*
Yptb at an MOI of 30 for 90 mins. BMDM lysate samples prepared in 1% digitonin were separated
by BN-PAGE and immunoblotted for total (A,C) or PS205 (B,D) pyrin. BN-PAGE MW standards
are shown on the left and tentative positions of pyrin oligomers are shown on the right. Insoluble
proteins from 1% digitonin lysates of DMSO treated samples were analyzed by SDS-PAGE and
total pyrin immunoblotting (E).
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Fig.4. Detection of YopM interaction with pyrin oligomers by one-dimensional and two-
dimensional BN-PAGE and immunoblotting. Untreated WT BMDMs (A) or WT or *Mefv*^{-/-} BMDMs
pre-treated for 15 min and maintained in DMSO or CA (B, C) were either left uninfected or infected
with WT or Δ*yopM Yptb* at an MOI of 30 for 90 mins. Cell lysates were solubilized in 1% digitonin,
separated by one dimensional BN-PAGE and immunoblotted for YopM (A,B). BN-PAGE MW
standards are shown on the left and tentative positions of YopM oligomers are shown on the right.
C) A 1% digitonin sample from WT BMDMS treated with DMSO and infected with WT *Yptb* was
separated in the first dimension by BN-PAGE after which the gel slice was isolated and analyzed
by SDS-PAGE in the second dimension followed by immunoblotting for pyrin and YopM. MW
markers for each dimension are indicated.
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Fig.S6. TTN treatment does not reduce dephosphorylation of pyrin or IL-1β release in BMDMs
infected with Δ*yopM Yptb.* LPS-primed BMDMs were pre-treated for 15 mins and maintained with
either DMSO or 1 or 2μM TTN and infected with Δ*yopM Yptb* at an MOI of 30 for 90 mins. Treated
uninfected BMDMs were analyzed in parallel. A) Immunoblot analysis of PS205 and total pyrin
in BMDM lysates. Actin was used as a loading control. B) Mature IL-1β in supernatants as
quantified by ELISA. Each data group is presented as an average (error bars are standard
deviation) of technical replicates from one experiment.
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Fig.5. Longer pretreatment with 100nM OA reduces pyrin dephosphorylation and IL-1β release in
BMDMs infected with Δ*yopM Yptb.* LPS-primed BMDMs were pre-treated for 3 hrs and maintained
with either DMSO or 100nM OA and infected with the Δ*yopM Yptb* at an MOI of 30 for 90 mins.
Treated uninfected BMDMs were analyzed in parallel. A) Immunoblot analysis of PS205 and total
pyrin in BMDM lysates. Actin was used as a loading control. B) Mature IL-1β in supernatants as
quantified by ELISA. Two-way ANOVA with Bonferroni post hoc correction was applied to
calculate significance and p-value of OA treatment as compared to its corresponding DMSO
treated and Δ*yopM* infected sample is indicated. P-value<0.05 was considered significant; <0.01
(**). Each data group is presented as an average (error bars are standard deviation) of at least 3
independent experiments.
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Fig.S6. Individual siRNA knock-down of PP2Aca and PP2Acb in BMDMs does not prevent pyrin
inflammasome activation. WT BMDMs were electroporated with siRNAs targeting PKN1
(400pmol), PP2Aca (1000pmol), or PP2Acb (500pmol). 24hr after electroporation the BMDMs
were LPS-primed. 48hr following electroporation, cells were either left uninfected or infected
with Δ*yopM Yptb* at an MOI of 30 for 90 mins. A) RT-qPCR analysis of mRNA transcripts of
PP2Aca and PP2Acb in uninfected BMDMs. Results were normalized to Hprt mRNA levels.
Each data group is presented as an average (error bars are standard deviation) of three
independent experiments. One-way ANOVA was applied to calculate significance and p-values
as compared to PKN1 control siRNA are indicated. P-value<0.05 was considered significant;
<0.0001 (****). B) Immunoblot analysis of PKN1, PP2A, total and PS205 pyrin, and pro-IL-1β in
uninfected and Δ*yopM Yptb*-infected BMDM lysates. Actin was used as a loading control. C)
Mature IL-1β in supernatants as quantified by ELISA from one experiment.
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Fig.6. siRNA knock down of PP2A in BMDMs inhibits pyrin S205 dephosphorylation and IL-1β release. WT BMDMs were electroporated with siRNAs targeting PKN1 (400pmol) or PP2Aca + PP2Acb (500pmol each), or PP2Acb (500pmol). 24hr after electroporation the BMDMs were LPS-primed. 48hr following electroporation, cells were either left uninfected or infected with Δ*yopM Yptb* at an MOI of 30 for 90 mins. A) RT-qPCR analysis of mRNA transcripts of PP2Aca and PP2Acb in uninfected BMDMs. Results were normalized to Hprt mRNA levels. Samples with error bars represent standard deviation for an average of two independent experiments. B) Immunoblot analysis of PKN1, PP2A, total and PS205 pyrin in uninfected and Δ*yopM Yptb*-infected BMDM lysates. Actin was used as a loading control. Asterisk (*) indicates bands for total pyrin on an immunoblot that was reprobed for PKN1. Quantified immunoblot band signals representing PS205 pyrin /total pyrin are indicated below lane numbers. Signal of bands from immunoblots from three independent experiments was averaged to calculate mean and standard deviation. C) Mature IL-1β in supernatants as quantified by ELISA. Two-way ANOVA with Bonferroni post hoc correction was applied to calculate significance and p-value of samples as compared to the PKN1 siRNA and Δ*yopM* infected sample is indicated. P-value<0.05 was considered significant; <0.01 (**). Each data group is presented as an average (error bars are standard deviation) of at least 3 independent experiments.

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