Structural bioinformatics

Supplement for "Human structural proteome-wide characterization of Cyclosporine A targets"

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1 DATA

CSA is a lipophilic, cyclic endacapeptide that weights 1202 Daltons. Previous work has modeled or co-crystallized CSA binding to several proteins including cyclophilins A, B, C, D, E, F, G and H as well as calcineurin; these complexes are available in the Protein Data Bank (PDB) (Berman et al., 2000). We found 91 chains from 30 proteins that include CSA in PDB as of July 2012. The chains with 70 or more inter-atomic contacts (Sobolev et al., 1999) with CSA were kept since this would assure biologically relevant interaction, as shown in (Dessailly et al., 2008); the same criterion was applied in (Hu et al., 2012). Next, we removed redundant chains by filtering them at the 80% sequence similarity using CD-HIT (Li and Godzik, 2006). The resulting 15 protein-CSA complexes that include cyclophilins A, B, C, G, F and a couple of cyclophilin-like folds were used as templates by the ILbind program; they are listed in the Suppl. Table S1.

The structural human proteome was collected from PDB by removing low resolution $(< 3\text{\AA})$ structures and, following (Xie, et al., 2007), we kept proteins for which sequences can be mapped to human proteins in Ensembl (Hubbard et al., 2002). Structures of chains with at least 90% sequence identity (measured using BLAST with default parameters) to any human protein from 68th release of Ensembl were selected. We collected total of 9652 human and human-like high resolution protein structures.

2 COMPUTATIONAL MODELING

Putative targets of CSA were selected from the structural human proteome using a three-step process: (1) we predicted each of the targets using ILbind (Hu et al., 2012) and the selected 15 template protein-CSA complexes; (2) we annotated and analyzed putative CSA targets selected based on ILbind scores; and (3) we docked selected subset of putative targets of CSA and advanced them to perform experimental validation; see Suppl. Figure S1.

In the first step, we performed inverse ligand binding predictions with ILbind where the 15 protein-CSA complexes were used to predict other protein targets of CSA and, if appropriate, to approximate position of the site where this interaction occurs. ILbind is a machine learning-based consensus of 15 support vector machines that combines prediction scores generated by two custom-adapted successful, as shown in (Chen et al., 2011), binding site predictors: SMAP (Xie and Bourne, 2008) and FINDSITE (Brylinski and Skolnick, 2008). The inputs to the SVM models, which include alignment length and raw score generated by FINDSITE and SMAP, respectively, were empirically selected from among 14 outputs generated by these two methods. The SVM models were optimized using structures of proteins in complex with three structurally diverse ligands: NAG, ADP, and PLM.

In the second step, top 199 targets with high ILbind scores (> 0.65), which are indicative of a high likelihood to interact with CSA, were subjected to IPA analysis with Ingenuity (www.ingenuity.com). First, protein chains that correspond to PDB structures of the top 199 hits were mapped to UniProt (Consortium, 2012) and the resulting proteins were entered for analysis with Ingenuity. We annotated proteins that are involved in toxicities that are frequently associated with use of CSA, such as cardiotoxicity, hepatotoxicity, and nephrotoxicity. Moreover, we manually scanned PUBMED to find publications that associate the selected protein targets with CSA. The corresponding annotations are given in the Suppl. Table S1.

In the third step we selected three novel CSA targets with relatively high ILbind scores that are involved in apoptotic pathways with links to nephrotoxicity: calpain 2 (CAPN2), caspase 3 (CASP3), and p38 mitogenactivated protein kinase 14 (MAPK14). We performed docking of CSA to each of the three targets and to a set of positive controls. The objective was to validate binding of CSA to the three putative targets, to predict corresponding binding mode and docking energy, and to compare these energies with the energies of the positive controls. Since CSA is flexible, we considered several representative positive controls (proteins in complex with CSA) to sample the conformational space of the bound CSA. The positive controls were chosen by clustering structures of CSA from the 15 template protein-CSA complexes, and choosing one structure for each of the four resulting clusters. The four representative controls include Cyclophilin A (PDBid 3pmp_B), Cyclophilin C (2rmc_A), FAB fragment IGG1-kappa (1ikf_H), and cyclophilin-like protein (2oju_A). We employed molecular dynamics simulations-based methodology to account for flexibility of the CSA and target proteins in the docking. We generated ten CSA conformations and docked them against ten snapshots of structures of each of the three putative targets. Consequently, we carried out three hundred docking simulations to investigate the possible binding modes of CSA to the three targets. For each target, all docking results were ranked by their binding energies and only the top ten hits were retained for further analysis. Each of the top hits was then used as a starting point for an all-atom solvated MD simulation in order to investigate the stability of CSA within the binding pocket of each target and to generate an ensemble for subsequent binding energy analysis.

2.1 Molecular dynamics (MD) simulations

We performed 38 independent MD simulations. This included a long MD simulation (230ns) on a solvated CSA structure to explore its conformational dynamics, 10ns MD simulations on the four CSA-templates complexes (Cyclophilin A, PDBid 3pmp_B; Cyclophilin C, 2rmc_A; FAB fragment IGG1-kappa, 1ikf_H; cyclophilin-like protein, 2oju_A) for binding energy analysis, three 10ns MD simulations on the apo (free) target protein structures (CAPN2, PDBid 3bow_A; CASP3, 4ehl_A; MAPK14, 3zs5_A) to extract structural ensembles for docking simulations, and finally thirty MD simulations on the top hits as revealed from docking against the three targets. The MD simulations were carried out using the NAMD program (Kale et al., 1999), with the all-hydrogen AMBER99SB force field (Hornak et al., 2006) simulated in a 12Å-wide buffer of water molecules, at a mean temperature of 300K and physiological pH of 7. The CSA parameters were obtained using the generalized amber force field (GAFF) (Wang et al., 2004). Partial charges for the ligand were calculated with the AM1- BCC method using the Antechamber module of AMBER 10. The simulations protocol followed the same procedure as described in previous work (Barakat et al., 2012; 2010; Jordheim et al., 2013). Protonation states of all ionizable residues were calculated using the program PDB2PQR (Dolinski et al., 2007) followed by adding the proper concentrations of sodium and chloride ions to neutralize the systems. Each solvated system was then minimized, heated with heavy restraints on the backbone atoms, equilibrated for 100ps with a gradual removal of the restraints and finally run for production MD simulations with the simulations' lengths as described above. For the CSA-protein complexes, MD simulations were used to generate an ensemble for binding energy calculations by storing the trajectories every 10ps for subsequent binding energy calculations using the MM-PBSA method. The apo MD simulations for the three targets were used to extract representative structures for docking simulations against CSA. For each target apo simulation, snapshots were stored every 1ns to avoid correlation between the different structures for the same target. The stored structures were then processed to remove all water molecules and ions for subsequent docking simulations.

2.2 Clustering analysis

We followed the clustering methodology from (Barakat et al., 2013a; 2012; 2011) to extract the dominant conformations for CSA. The whole 230ns MD trajectory for the CSA solvated peptide was clustered using RMSD conformational clustering by adopting the average-linkage algorithm with cluster counts ranging from 1 to 30 clusters. All C_{α} -atoms were RMSD fitted to the minimized initial structure in order to remove overall rotation and translation. The clustering quality was quantified by calculating two clustering metrics: the Davies-Bouldin index (DBI) (Davies and Bouldin, 1979) and the SSR/SST "elbow criterion" index (Shao et al., 2007). A highquality clustering scheme is expected when DBI experiences a local minimum versus the number of clusters used. On the other hand, using the elbow criterion, the percentage of variance explained by the data is expected to plateau for cluster counts exceeding the optimal number of clusters (Shao et al., 2007). Using these metrics, by varying the number of clusters, an adequate clustering is characterized by a local minimum for DBI and a horizontal line for the percentage of variance explained by the data.

2.3 Docking analysis

For each of the three target proteins (CAPN2, CASP3, and MAPK14), ten snapshots were used as rigid targets for docking against the ten dominant CSA conformations, which were extracted from the clustering analysis described in section 1.2. That is, 300 docking simulations were carried out to incorporate the flexibility of the targets and the CSA within docking. All docking runs were performed using version 4.028 of AUTODOCK (Osterberg et al., 2002), by allowing all rotatable bonds to rotate for CAS and keeping the target protein structures as rigid. Each docking box expanded for 72 grid points in each direction with spacing of 0.35Å between every two-adjacent points, enough to cover twice the size of CSA. The setup for the docking runs is based on our previous work (Barakat et al., 2013a; 2012). Using the Lamarckian Genetic Algorithm (LGA), the docking parameters included an initial population of 150 random individuals; a maximum number of 10,000,000 energy evaluations; 100 trials; 30,000 maximum generations; a mutation rate of 0.02; a crossover rate of 0.80 and the requirement that only one individual can survive into the next generation. Only top 10 hits that had the highest affinity for each target were retained for further MD simulations and binding energy analysis.

To validate AUTODOCK, we re-docked the top 10 hits for each target using the induced fit procedure implemented in the molecular operating environment (MOE) software (Molecular Operating Environment, 2003). For each docking simulation, the London dG scoring method was first used to score the docked poses, followed by refinement using the AMBER force field, and then rescoring the refined poses using the GBVI/WSA dG scoring function. The highest scoring pose for each induced fit docking simulation was then compared to the original AUTODOCK docked structure.

2.4 Binding energy analysis

We used the MM-PBSA technique (Kollman et al., 2000) to predict the binding energies. Similar to the work described previously in the literature (Barakat et al., 2013a; 2013b; 2010; Friesen et al., 2012) the total free energy for each system is estimated as the sum of the average molecular mechanical gas-phase energies (E_{MM}), solvation free energies (G_{solv}), and entropy contributions $(-TS_{solute})$ of the binding reaction:

$$
G = E_{MM} + G_{solv} - TS_{solute}
$$
 (Eq. 1)

The molecular mechanical (E_{MM}) energy of each snapshot was calculated using the SANDER module of AMBER10. The solvation free energy (G_{solv}) was estimated as the sum of electrostatic solvation free energy, calculated by the finite-difference solution of the Poisson–Boltzmann equation in the Adaptive Poisson-Boltzmann Solver (APBS) and non-polar solvation free energy, calculated from the solvent-accessible surface area (SASA) algorithm. For each protein-CSA complex, the binding free energy was approximated by the difference between the bound and free systems:

 $\Delta G^0 = \Delta \rm{G_{gas}}^{\rm{CSA-protein}} + \Delta \rm{G_{solv}}^{\rm{CSA-protein}} - (\Delta \rm{G_{solv}}^{\rm{CSA}} + \Delta \rm{G_{solv}}^{\rm{CSA}})$ $(Eq. 2)$ The parameters used include a dielectric constant for the protein-CSA complex of 1, a dielectric constant for the water of 80, an ionic concentration of 0.15M and a surface tension of 0.005 with a zero surface offset to estimate the nonpolar contribution of the solvation energy.

2.5 Flexibility of CSA and its protein targets

Supplementary Figure S2A shows the root mean square deviations (RMSD) for the 230ns CSA MD simulations. The relatively high fluctuations of the RMSDs suggest that CSA is flexible. The RMSDs fluctuated around 3Å for most of the simulation, with a limited number of conformational transitions, particularly, at the beginning and in the middle of the simulation (see the two inserts in Supplementary Figure S2A). Clustering analysis for the CSA MD simulation is shown in Supplementary Figure S3. Although the SSR/SST graph plateaued for all cluster counts, the DPI index has a local minimum at the ten clusters, suggesting that this is a suitable number of clusters of CSA conformations. Therefore, we extracted ten clusters and their centroids were used as the representative structures for each cluster. The ten selected dominant CSA structures are shown in Supplementary Figure S4. The cyclic nature of the CSA significantly limited the conformational space of the backbone of the peptide. This explains the rapid convergence of the clustering analysis as opposed to what would be expected for noncyclic peptides. The side chains, however, explored their conformational space, particularly, on the outer side of the peptide.

On the other hand, the target and template protein structures are relatively rigid. Structure of CAPN2, for example, showed small fluctuations that were below 0.2Å, indicating a stable/rigid conformation; see Supplementary Figure S2B. The same behavior was observed for the four templates and the other two putative CSA targets (data not shown).

3 EXPERIMENTAL ANALYSIS

The experimental validation concerns the three selected putative targets of CSA: MAPK14, CASP3, and CAPN2; a positive control: cyclophilin A; and a negative control: NF-kappa B p65 (NFKB). NFKB obtained a low ILbind score of 0.58 and is relevant since it exhibits various considered toxicities (see last row in the Suppl. Table S1). Purified proteins were obtained from Abcam (MAPK14, ab95445; CASP3, ab52101; NFKB, ab114150; cyclophilin A, ab86219), and Millipore (CAPN2, 208718). CM5 chips and P20 detergent used in the SPR analysis were from GE, with CSA and all other chemicals from Sigma and of the highest quality available. Enzyme Activity Assay Kits were obtained from Promega (CAPN2, G8501 and CASP3, G8091) and NEB (MAPK14).

3.1 Surface Plasmon Resonance (SPR) technology

The SPR technology is used to validate small molecule binding for drug discovery (Myszka and Rich, 2000; Lofas, 2004; Pattnaik, 2005). SPR is well suited to perform real-time binding analysis and allows for studying interactions in a small volume, sensitive and label-free detection format. Briefly, a target protein is immobilized as the ligand on a solid state biosensor surface. The other molecule, the drug, is injected as the analyte over the ligand, thereby allowing interaction to occur. The SPR biosensor detects changes in molecular weight due to direct binding, reflecting this as Resonance Units (RU). For protein binding, 1 RU is equal to approximately 1 pg/mm2 of binding to the biosensor surface. From these weight changes, based on real-time measurements in the sensorgram, specific kinetics can be calculated including affinity (KD) and association and dissociation rates.

We coupled the three selected putative targets of CSA: MAPK14, CASP3, and CAPN2; a positive control: cyclophilin A; and a negative control: NF-kappa B p65 (NFKB) to standard CM5 chips with the protein diluted in 10 mM sodium acetate, pH 5 at a concentration between 0.5 µM and 1 µM. Total protein coupling ranged between 100 RU and 2500 RU and was optimized for each protein. The running buffer was composed of 10 mM Hepes, pH 7.2, 150 mM NaCl, 1 mM EDTA, 0.005% P20, and 2% ethanol (Wear and Walkinshaw, 2006). The CSA dilution series was carried out using 8000, 4000, 2000, 1000, 500, 250, 125, and 0 nM CSA, with experiments performed in triplicate. We note that clinical use of CSA is usually between 100 nM and 1600 nM (Hauser et al., 1998). CSA was dissolved in 100% ethanol and diluted as needed. Briefly, a CM5 chip was activated using a 1:1 dilution of EDC:NHS as previously described (Martin et al., 2006). Purified protein was diluted to 0.5 or 1 µM in 10 mM NaAc, pH 5 and injected over the activated CM5 chip followed by the blocking solution of 1 M ethanolamine, pH 9. A reference lane with no ligand coupled was also generated to subtract background binding. For each experiment, the signal was corrected against the control surface response to eliminate any refractive index changes due to buffer change. The data were collected at 25 C at a flow rate of 30 µl/min to minimize mass transfer effects. We used the BiaEvaluation 3.0 software (provided with the BiaCore3000 system) to fit the measured data utilizing the 1:1 Langmuir binding model to compute kinetic association and dissociation rate constants and affinity (K_D) . Association and dissociation rates and affinity (KD) were calculated for each experiment and averaged. The binding response signals in Resonance Units (RUs) were continuously recorded and presented graphically as a function of time.

3.2 Enzyme activity assays

We further validated the legitimacy of interactions that were analyzed by SPR by showing a direct effect on purified enzyme activity for CAPN2, MAPK14, and CASP3 in the presence of CSA. The enzyme activity assay kits were modified to utilize purified enzyme proteins.

To measure CAPN2 activity in the presence of CSA, we used the Calpain-Glo Protease Assay (Promega), which utilizes a luciferase based substrate (Suc-LLVY-AMC). Briefly, 1 ng/100 µl of purified calpain enzyme samples were prepared on ice in 10 mM Hepes, pH 7.2, followed by the addition of 100 µl of the dilution series of CSA (8000 nM to 0 nM CSA in 10 mM Hepes, pH 7.2). After 30 minutes incubation, 2 mM CaCl2 was added to samples to activate the calpain activity followed by aliquoting in triplicate into plastic tubes for measurement of luciferase activity. 100 µl of the Calpain-Glo reagent containing the substrate Suc-LLVY was added to each tube, followed by 15 minutes incubation. With calpain activity, the substrate is cleaved, allowing luminescence which can be measured in a luminometer (Berthold). Background (no enzyme, no CSA) and positive (no CSA), negative (no enzyme), and vehicle only (2% EtOH) were included. The experiment was performed in triplicate.

As MAPK14 is a kinase enzyme, monitoring of a target phosphorylation substrate can be examined. The MAPK14 activity assay kit (NEB) was modified to be used as an ELISA style assay versus a Western Blot style assay. This was due to the increased sensitivity provided by the ELISA assay, allowing quantification of the kinase activity. This assay measures direct phosphorylation of a substrate protein by detecting the amount of phosphorylation using a phospho-specific antibody, which can then be detected using a secondary antibody tagged with horseradish peroxidase. The amount of horseradish peroxidase can be quantified using a colorimetric assay. Briefly, the wells of an ELISA plate were coated overnight at 4 C with ATF2 recombinant protein provided in the assay kit at a concentration of 1 µg/100 µl diluted in coating buffer (carbonate-bicarbonate, pH 9.6). CSA was prepared as a dilution series (8000 nM to 0 nM) in the kinase buffer (provided in assay kit, 25 mM Tris pH 7.5, 5 mM βglycerophosphate, 2 mM DTT, 0.1 mM Na₃VO₄, 10 mM MgCl₂). Recombinant MAPK14 enzyme was diluted to 0.1 mg/ml in kinase buffer. Diluted MAPK14 was added to each dilution series (30 μ l in 300 μ l +/- CSA in kinase buffer). Samples were incubated on ice for 30 minutes without the addition of ATP. The ATF2 precoated plate was washed two times with PBS for five minutes, followed by shaking to remove any excess PBS. 100 μ l of MAPK14 +/- CSA in kinase buffer were added to each well in triplicate. 200 µM ATP was added to each well to activate the kinase. Negative control (no ATP) and kinase inhibitor control (1 µM staurosporine) were also included. The plate was incubated for 30 minutes at 30 C. Wells were washed five times with PBS-0.25% Tween-20 (PBS-T). 100 ml of PBS-T+2% BSA (PBS-T-BSA) was added to all the wells, followed by 30 minutes incubation at room temperature. Wells were washed once with PBS-T. 100 µl of PBS-T- BSA was added to all wells, followed by 100 µl of a 1:500 dilution of the rabbit anti-phospho-ATF2 Thr71 antibody (provided in assay kit) diluted in PBS-T-BSA. The wells were incubated for 30 minutes at room temperature, and washed with 250 µl of PBS-T, 3 x 5 minutes. 100 µl of the secondary antibody, anti-rabbit horseradish peroxidase conjugated antibody diluted at 1:1000 in PBS-T-BSA was added to all wells. The plate was incubated for 30 minutes at room temperature, followed by 3 x 5 minutes washes with PBS-T. For the color change reaction, 200 µl of OPD (o-phenylenediaminedihydrochloride, Sigma), which reacts with hydrogen peroxide to produce a yellow color, was added. The plate was incubated for 30 minutes followed by measurement in a spectrophotometer set at a wavelength of 492 nm. The experiment was performed in triplicate and included background and positive and negative controls.

To measure CASP3 activity, the Caspase-Glo 3/7 Assay was used (Promega), which utilizes a luciferase based substrate (Ac-DEVD-pNA). Briefly, 1 ng/100 µl of purified CASP3 enzyme samples were prepared on ice in 10 mM Hepes, pH 7.2, followed by the addition of 100 µl of the dilution series of CSA (8000 nM to 0 nM CSA in 10 mM Hepes, pH 7.2). After 30 minutes incubation, samples in triplicate were aliquoted into plastic tubes for measurement of luciferase activity. 100 µl of the Caspase-Glo reagent containing the substrate Ac-DEVD-pNA was added to each tube, followed by 30 minute incubation. With CASP3 activity, this substrate is cleaved, allowing luminescence which can be measured in a luminometer (Berthold). Background (no enzyme, no CSA) and positive (no CSA), negative (no enzyme), as well as with an inhibitor $(1 \mu M z-VAD)$ controls were included. The experiment was performed in triplicate.

4 EMPIRICAL EVALUATION OF PREDICTIONS

The inverse ligand binding was recently evaluated using relatively small (several hundred proteins) manually curated benchmark datasets (Hu et al., 2012). We perform the first evaluation on the proteomic scale, over $~10000$ proteins. We assessed predictive quality of ILbind and other inverse ligand binding predictors using a comprehensive set of experimentally validated (native) CSA targets collected from multiple sources including PDB (targets that are in complex with CSA), BindingDB (Liu et al., 2007), and DrugBank (Knox et al., 2011). We measure predictive quality using true positive rate: $TPR = TP / P$; where TP is the count of native CSA targets that were predicted as binding CSA by a given method and P is the count of all native targets. We do not use criteria that rely on the annotation of negatives (proteins that do not bind CSA) since our knowledge of CSA binding partners is limited and thus we cannot assure correctness of the negative annotations. We clustered protein chains in the structural human proteome at 90% and 80% identity using BLASTCLUST and we evaluated the results on the corresponding two sets of clusters, i.e., a given cluster is considered to be a native target of CSA (predicted to bind CSA) if at least one protein in this cluster shares at least 90% (80%) identity with a native target of CSA (at least one protein in this cluster is predicted by bind CSA). The clustering assures that the evaluation is not biased towards targets that are overrepresented with many structures of similar folds. However, this may potentially introduce errors since some of the proteins in a given cluster that includes CSA target(s) in fact may not bind to this compound. This is why we utilize two similarity cutoffs, at 90 and 80% to cluster together only nearly identical chains and chains with high similarity, respectively. In total there are 20 (21 for 80% similarity) clusters out of 4136 (3819 for 80% similarity) clusters that are native targets of CSA based on data from PDB, BindingDB and DrugBank. TPR was measured over a given number of clusters sorted by their predicted scores (using highest score in a given cluster) in the descending order (from the most to the least likely to bind CSA). We computed area under the TPR curve (AUtpr) that is obtained by calculating TPR values between the top ranked cluster and a given max fraction of the top ranked clusters and we report values of AlJtpr_{10} , AUtpr₂₀, and AUtpr₁₀₀ for $max = 10\%$, 20% and 100% of the top ranked clusters, respectively.

We assessed statistical significance of the difference in predictive performance between ILbind and other considered methods. We selected half of the proteins (clusters) from a given dataset at random ten times and compared the corresponding results with the t-test (given that the measurements are normal) or Wilcoxon test (otherwise). We tested normality with the Anderson-Darling test at the p -value of 0.05.

5 DISCUSSION ON CAPN2, CASP3, AND MAPK14 AND THEIR INTERACTIONS WITH **CSA**

We used inverse ligand binding predictions with ILbind, molecular dynamics and docking, SPR binding analysis, and enzymatic assay measurements to identify and characterize in detail three novel targets of CSA. The use of this drug is intimately associated with the nephrotoxicity, hepatotoxicity and cardiotoxicity. We selected three of our putative targets, calpain 2 (CAPN2), p38 mitogen-activated protein kinase 14 (MAPK14), and caspase 3 (CASP3) for experimental validation using SPR binding assays motivated by their involvement in the abovementioned toxic responses and favorable inverse ligand binding predictions with ILbind and docking results. CAPN2, MAPK14, and CASP3 and have recently been identified to change their activity with CSA treatment, but in all cases the enzyme activity was measured indirectly and it was assumed that these changes occur via another protein and not due to direct binding of CSA (Tornavaca et al., 2011; Chi et al., 2012; Hwang et al., 2012). Our results suggest that toxic side effects of CSA may in fact be mediated by direct binding of CSA to these proteins, which results in changes in their activity. The binding assays of CSA to these three novel targets confirmed our computational results and showed that they are likely to interact. Furthermore, the enzymatic activity assays revealed that CSA directly and substantially affects activity of CAPN2 and MAPK14 (Figure 2A and 2B).

We focused on identifying off-target proteins that participate in the apoptotic response seen with CSA treatment. Our hypothesis was that the apoptosis triggered by CSA may be resulting from CSA binding to apoptotic pathway proteins and enhancing their enzymatic activity, thereby causing the toxic side effects. Therefore, if one was able to block the interaction with the off-target enzyme that was involved in the apoptotic pathway, we could essentially block the toxic side effect.

Calpains are cytosolic, calcium dependent cysteine proteases similar to caspases that are ubiquitously distributed in all animal cells. Unlike caspases, which function only during apoptosis, calpains are also active in normal cellular activities including cell cycle (Choi et al., 1997; Pariat et al., 1997) and cellular remodeling {Potter et al., 1998). They are activated secondary to caspases (Wood and Newcomb, 1999) by the sustained increase in cytosolic calcium levels (Nath et al., 1996). Calpains were observed to influence signal transduction processes by cleaving cytoskeletal proteins, membrane proteins, and enzymes (Saido et al., 1994) and to promote apoptosis and necrosis in renal cells (Smith and Schnellmann, 2012). They are also found to be involved in cell death and cleave several substrates of the apoptotic pathway. Calcium dependent activation of calpains has been implicated in activating caspases with different apoptotic stimuli (Wang, 2000), such as ER stress (Nakagawa and Yuan, 2000), B cell receptor (Ruiz-Vela et al., 1999) and radiation induced apoptosis (Waterhouse et al., 1998). Several other pro-apoptotic proteins, like BAX (Wood et al., 1998; Choi et al., 2001) and Bid (Mandic et al., 2002), are also cleaved by calpain to increase their activity. Calpains may collaborate with caspases in the execution of apoptosis (Wood and Newcomb, 1999). The calpain family is composed of at least six members divided into two groups: tissue specific and ubiquitous. The latter group includes calpains 1 and 2. CAPN2, which we investigated, has been shown to be directly involved in caspase independent apoptosis (Lee and Thevenod, 2008) and was linked to nephrotoxicity (Peyrou et al., 2007). A recent study has determined that kidney androgen regulated protein (KAP) degradation by calpain is involved in kidney disease (Tornavaca et al., 2011). In this study, it was determined that KAP binds cyclophilin B, with the addition of CSA activating CAPN2 in vitro and in vivo. CAPN2 specifically targets KAP for degradation and KAP was suggested to protect against CSA toxicity. As well, KAP expression was decreased in CSA treated mice. Based on our results, we hypothesize that CSA causes nephrotoxicity by directly binding CAPN2, leading to the degradation of KAP.

MAPKs are serine/threonine kinases that, with stimulation, phosphorylate their specific substrates which can lead to either positively or negatively regulated substrates and signaling pathways. Activation of MAPK14 is implicated in inducing apoptosis (Matsuzawa et al., 2002;Wada and Penninger, 2004; Kralova et al., 2008) and this protein has been linked to a number of mechanisms and signaling pathways including protein expression, acetylation, proteolysis and specific phosphorylation of target proteins (Cuadrado and Nebreda, 2010). Some of the molecular targets of MAPK14 are c-Jun (Humar et al., 2007), CHOP (Pomerance et al., 2003), PRAK (New et al., 1998), and p53 (Dong et al., 2012), all involved in cellular apoptosis. Recent work demonstrates that CSA activates MAPK14 pathways leading to downstream cellular apoptosis (Chi et al., 2012), although the direct interaction was not indicated. MAPK14 has been connected to nephrotoxicity and its inhibition was shown to reduce cisplatin induced nephrotoxicity in mice (Ramesh and Reeves, 2005). These reports support our finding that MAPK14 is activated by CSA, which may lead to nephrotoxicity. Furthermore, combined inhibition of MAPK14 and Akt signaling pathways was shown to abolished CSA-mediated pathogenesis of aggressive skin squamous cell carcinomas (Arumugam et al., 2012), possibly pointing to a competitive inhibition of the side effect of CSA dependent activation of MAPK14.

Caspases, a family of cysteine proteases, play a vital role during apoptosis (Demaurex and Distelhorst, 2003; Xu et al., 2005). Activation of caspases triggers a cascade of proteolytic cleavage of specific substrates leading to the activation of nuclease activity, alterations in DNA repair processes and modifications in membrane dynamics (Shi, 2002; Widlak and Garrard, 2005). Effector caspases, such as caspase 3 (which we considered), 6, and 7 are cleaved and activated by an initiator caspase and directly act on cellular components such as the cytoskeleton (Liu et al., 1996; Kluck et al., 1997; Yang et al., 1997) that subsequently leads to cellular death (Slee et al., 1999). CASP3 triggers cytoskeletal restructuring, followed by fragmentation of the cell into apoptotic bodies by degrading an actin binding protein, gelsolin (Elmore, 2007). Our finding concerning the CSA-CASP3 interaction provides new insights into the CSA induced apoptosis.

CSA has been abundantly identified to be involved in the induction of apoptosis (Kitagaki et al., 1996; McDonald et al., 1996; Thomas and Cook, 1998; Ortiz et al., 1998; Takeda et al., 1998; Justo et al., 2003; Eckstein et al., 2005; Andrikos et al., 2005; Sato et al., 2011; de Arriba et al., 2013). We hypothesize that CSA may be causing apoptosis and therefore possible toxic side effects also by activating the three novel off-target enzymes that we characterized. Interestingly, literature shows that these targets are interconnected with each other, which could possibly amplify effects of CSA. For example, increases in CAPN2 levels lead to activation of CASP3 in a dose dependent manner in neuronal cells (Blomgren et al., 2001), and on the flip side, a reduction in active CASP3 levels can be attributed to the calpain activation (Bizat et al., 2003). Additionally, calpastatin protein, an inhibitor of calpains, decreases activation of CASP3 (Blomgren et al., 2001). Moreover, active CASP3 was shown to degrade calpastatin, triggering further activation of CAPN2 and cellular necrosis (Neumar et al., 2003). A direct link between CASP3 and MAPK14 was observed in human neutrophils (Alvarado-Kristensson et al., 2004) and activation of MAPK14 was found to be necessary for cleavage of CASP3 in neuronal cells in rat (McLaughlin et al., 2001). Activation of MAPK14 was also shown to increase activity of CASP3 in mouse T-lymphocytes (Farley et al., 2006). As well, gene knockout of MAPK14 leads to a decrease in activation of mouse CASP3 under serum starvation conditions (De Chiara et al., 2006).

To sum up, we provide several new insights that shed light on mechanisms that could lead to CSA-induced toxicity based on interactions with the three novel targets. Our results suggests that treatment with specific inhibitors of CAPN2, MAPK14, and CASP3 in combination with CSA may eliminate some of the negative side effects that occur upon CSA mediated activation of these proteins. To this end, a specific CASP3 inhibitor, Ac-DEVD-CHO, was shown to mitigate CSA-induced apoptosis in rat (Grub et al., 2000). Interestingly, calpain inhibitors suppress MAPK14 phosphorylation (Lizama et al., 2009) and MAPK14 is required to stimulate CAPN2 activity (Su et al., 2010).

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Figure S1. Overview of the pipeline used to predict and characterize CSA targets.

Figure S2. RMSD for the (panel A) 230ns MD simulation of CSA and (panel B) 10ns MD simulations of the CAPN2 target. The two inserts at the top of panel A show the beginning and the middle of the simulation.

Figure S3. Clustering analysis for the 230ns MD simulation of CSA.

Figure S4. The ten dominant conformations of CSA found based on clustering of the 230ns MD simulation.

Figure S5. Overview of the ILbind scores and fraction of targets with evidence of binding to CSA. Panel A shows cumulative number of putative CSA targets identified by ILbind that are annotated as supported by direct evidence of binding to CSA (based on PDB, BindingDB and DrugBank), indirect evidence (they are associated with CSA in a publication found in PUBMED), or otherwise as having no evidence of binding to CSA for the top 199 targets identified with ILbind. Panel B gives the ILbind scores for all proteins from the structural human proteome. The x-axes in both panels sort the targets according the ILbind scores.

Figure S6. Association of putative CSA targets and the corresponding toxic responses that they are involved in based on results generated by Ingenuity release 2012-11-01. The x-axis lists toxic responses grouped by the corresponding organs including heart, liver, and kidneys. The y-axis shows the rank of the corresponding targets that is denoted by a color-coded horizontal line, where red denotes targets supported by direct evidence, blue by indirect evidence, and green denotes targets that are annotated as having no prior evidence for interaction with CSA.

Figure S7. Analysis of calpain 2 (CAPN2), p38 MapK (MAPK14) and caspase 3 (CASP3) interactions generated by Ingenuity release 2012-11-01 to identify connections with apoptotic pathways. Blue solid arrow: direct relationship; blue dashed arrow: indirect relationship; green arrow: self-activating; red dashed line: self-inhibitory. The associated artifacts include canonical pathways (CP) and functions (Fx) that are color-coded: yellow: cell death; green: delay; orange: cell viability; light blue: apoptosis signaling; pink: apoptosis; and light green: fragmentation.

Figure S8. The mode of binding of CSA using two docking methods for CAPN2 (PDBid 3bow_A; panel A), CASP3 (4ehl_A, panel B), and MAPK14 (3zs5_A, panel C). The poses generated with AUTODOCK and MOE are shown in yellow and blue, respectively. The binding pocket is shown as a surface representation in grey enhanced with a green wireframe.

Figure S10. Binding modes (poses) of CSA for the four representative positive controls: Cyclophilin A (PDBid: 3pmp_B; panel A), Cyclophilin C (2rmc_A; panel B), cyclophilin-like protein (2oju_A; panel C), and FAB fragment IGG1-kappa (1ikf_H; panel D). The four images on the right show the 3 dimensional conformation of the CSA in the binding site on a given target. The interacting residues are shown as surface colored by their atomic structure (C in gray, O in red, N in blue and H in white). CSA is shown in licorice representation following the same color codes, except C shown in green. The images on the left illustrate atomic interactions of CSA with the residues of the target. The interactions are color coded as shown in the figure legend at the bottom.

- 0 nM
- 0 nM
- 250 nM
- 250 nM
- 500 nM
- 2000 nM
- 8000 nM -20 B -25

Figure S11. Real-time sensorgrams to measure interactions of CSA at 8000, 4000, 2000, 1000, 500, 250, 125 and 0 nM concentration with positive control cyclophilin A (CSA; panel A) and negative control NF-kappa B p65 (NFKB; panel B). The sensorgrams were averaged over three repetitions.

Supplementary Table S1. Detailed characterization of the selected 199 putative targets of CSA. The targets proteins are sorted by the ILbind score in the descending order. The information includes protein name, PDB and UniProt identifiers, ILbind score, annotation of type of evidence of interaction with CSA (if any), and annotation of the associated toxicities collected using Ingenuity release 2012-11-01 (http://www.ingenuity.com/); the "used to analyze toxicity" indicates which target proteins were successfully mapped to Ingenuity to perform the analysis. The toxicities are abbreviated as follows: cardiac hypertrophy (CH), cardiac necrosis (CN), heart failure (HF), liver damage/failure (LD), liver hepatitis (LH), liver hyper-plasia/-proliferation (LHP), liver necrosis (LN), liver proliferation (LP), liver steatosis (LS), hepatocellular carcinoma (HC), kidney failure (KF), renal inflammation (RI), renal necrosis (RN), and renal nephritis (RH).

Supplementary Table S2. ILbind scores and kinetics that quantify interactions of CSA with calpain 2 (CAPN2), caspase 3 (CASP3), p38 mitogen-activated protein kinase 14 (MAPK14), cyclophilin
A (positive control), and NF-k

