

Supplementary Information for

Hidden dynamic signatures drive substrate selectivity in the disordered phosphoproteome

Min-Hyung Cho, James O. Wrabl, James Taylor, and Vincent J. Hilser *

*Vincent J. Hilser Email: hilser@jhu.edu

This PDF file includes:

Supplementary text Figures S1 to S10 Tables S1 to S10 SI References

Supplementary Information Text

Details of feature selection and predictor architecture

Features were selected from a pool of 546 amino acid scales based on information content. These scales were obtained from the *AAindex* database (1) with the addition of the *DisProt* (2) and experimental poly-Proline II (PII) (3) propensity scales. To assess information content of a scale, analysis datasets were built with randomly selected 1000 true positives and 1000 true negatives, both coming from the same phosphorylation subset of 29-residue fragments. For every fragment, a weighted average of values from the scale with window size nine was calculated for the region of 21 residues centered on the Ser/Thr/Tyr, and the information value of the scale was estimated using a naïve Bayes classifier (4) with ten-fold cross validation. This procedure was iterated ten times with randomly selected analysis datasets and tested for each of the five phosphorylation subclasses individually. For each subclass, an amino acid scale that exhibited greater than 0.6 prediction accuracy was retained, otherwise the scale was rejected. In this way, 114 scales were retained from the original pool. This number was further reduced to 35 by only retaining one member of scale pairs exhibiting an absolute Pearson correlation coefficient greater than 0.8. Finally, manual curation to remove redundant scales based on AAindex descriptors resulted in ten features used in the predictor (Supplementary Table S2).

Additional features for the predictor were obtained from our unique sequence-based energy prediction tool, *eScape* (5, 6). This tool, originally parameterized using tripeptide-based protein ensemble energetics (5), predicts stability, enthalpy, and entropy of both native and denatured states by using 28 feature indices. From these 28 features, we empirically selected four native state features and four denatured state features whose values and differences seemed to be effective in phosphorylation site prediction. The eight features and differences are listed in Supplementary Table 3. Thus, a total of 18 features were used in the final predictor, and the whole list of features and parameters employed are shown in Supplementary Table 4.

The architecture of the *PHOSforUS* predictor is shown in Figure 5A. From an arbitrary input amino acid sequence, 18 biophysical features (Supplementary Tables 2 and 3) are calculated for each 21-residue fragment of the sequence centered on Ser, Thr, or Tyr residues. Thus, for each Ser/Thr/Tyr residue, one of subclasses (S-P, S-nP, T-P, T-nP, Tyr) is assigned and a total of 378 feature values are calculated (21 residue positions x 18 biophysical features).

Information values for each potential phosphorylation site were calculated from subpredictors corresponding to each calculated feature value. Sub-predictors are Pro-subclass specific and are based on Gaussian naïve Bayes classifier (4, 7) (Equation S1). For each feature $F_i = \{f_{i1}, \ldots, f_{in}\}\$, a final sub-predictor score s_i is calculated as:

$$
s_{i} = P(C_{phos}| \{f_{i1}, ..., f_{in}\}) = \prod_{j=1}^{n} \frac{P(f_{ij}|C_{phos})P(C_{phos})}{P(f_{ij})}
$$
(S1)

This intermediate output of sub-scores is passed to a downstream meta-predictor based on gradient boosting classifier (7, 8), which utilized those values to compute a final prediction score for each potentially phosphorylatable residue (Equation 3). For a set of sub-scores $S = \{s_1, \ldots, s_n\}$ where $n = 18$ features, the score function $f(S)$ is fit with:

$$
f(S) = f_0(S) - \sum_{j=1}^{m} \gamma_j \sum_{i=1}^{n} \nabla_{f_{j-1}} L\left(y_i, f_{j-1}(S_i)\right)
$$
 (S2)

In Equation (S2), the *γ^j* term is equal to:

$$
\gamma_j = \arg\min_{\gamma} \sum_{i=1}^n L\left(y_i, f_{j-1}(S_i) - \gamma \nabla_{f_{j-1}} L\left(y_i, f_{j-1}(S_i)\right)\right).
$$
 (S3)

Phosphorylation likelihood was converted from the final score (Equation S2) and re-formatted for machine-readable output,

$$
P(C_{phos}|input\ sequence) = \frac{P(f(S)|C_{phos})P(C_{phos})}{P(f(S))}
$$
\n(S4)

Subclass prediction model evaluation

10-fold cross-validation was performed to evaluate the sensitivity, specificity, and accuracy of the prediction models. As the true negative set is much larger than the true positive set, random sampling of the true negative set equalized the numbers of true and false positives during the evaluation. Cross-validation was iterated ten times with different true negative sets to minimize sampling error.

Comparative analysis

NetPhos2.0 (9), *Musite* (10), *DisPhos* (11), *PhosphoSVM* (12), *RF-Phos* (13), and *PhosPred-RF* (14) were used to benchmark *PHOSforUS*. For the comparative analysis, we constructed another positive set which contains none of the sequences already contained in the training set, and presumably minimal number of sequences in the training sets of existing phosphorylation predictors. Details of how we prepared testing set are elaborated in the Main Text, Methods.

The following evaluation metrics were used: True Positive Rate (Equation S5), True Negative Rate (Equation S6), Positive Predictive Value (Equation S7), Accuracy (Equation S8), F1 Score (Equation S9), and Matthews Correlation Coefficient (Equation S10). In Equations (S5) – (S10), *TP* stands for true positive, *FN* for false negative, *FP* for false positive, *TN* for true negative.

$$
Sensitivity = \frac{TP}{TP + FN}
$$
 (S5)

$$
Specificity = \frac{TN}{TN + FP}
$$
 (S6)

$$
Precision = \frac{TP}{TP + FP}
$$
 (S7)

$$
Accuracy = \frac{TP + TN}{TP + FN + FP + TN}
$$
 (S8)

$$
F1 score = \frac{2TP}{2TP + FP + FN}
$$
 (S9)

$$
MCC = \frac{TP \times TN - FP \times FN}{\sqrt{(TP + FP)(TP + FN)(TN + FP)(TN + FN)}}
$$
(S10)

Visualizing conservation of vertical and horizontal information

Orthologs of human proteins with DNA-binding transcription factor activity (GO: 0003700) were obtained from OMA database (17). We selected ortholog groups with the number of members between $10 < n < 250$, and downloaded multiple sequence alignments as archived in the database. A full list of the 835 ortholog groups we utilized is found in Supplementary Data File 2.

Sequence conservation scores were calculated by using BLOSUM62 matrix (18). Single sequence was taken from an ortholog group as a reference and divided into small windows (window size = 5). For each window, pairwise local alignment scores were calculated between the reference sequence and each of all other sequences within same ortholog group, then all scores were divided by the maximum possible score *S^c* (defined as the score calculated with identical sequence to the reference). This process was repeated for all other sequences within

the ortholog group and averages over each window were taken as sequence conservation scores. Native state free energy for each protein sequences was calculated using the *eSCAPE* algorithm (5, https://best.bio.jhu.edu/eScape). For the same window we used for calculation of sequence conservation score, we calculated local average and standard deviation of free energy values. Horizontal conservation score was computed using the following Equation S11:

$$
Score_{Hor} = 1 - \frac{SD_{local}}{s_c}
$$
\n^(S11)

In this case, scaling coefficient ($S_c = 3.3$ (kcal/mol)) was calculated from 10 different ortholog groups exhibiting high sequence conservation and structural stability (for example, actin (ACTB) and rhodopsin (RHO) families). Resulting conservation scores are plotted in Supplementary Figure S10A (glucocorticoid receptor / GCR), Supplementary Figure S10B (actin) & S10C (rhodopsin), respectively.

To observe its correlation with free energy, sequence conservation scores and horizontal conservation scores were first normalized again with μ = 0 and SD = 1 (*i.e.* a Z-score). Linear correlations between average free energy and both conservation scores were calculated subsequently: slope values and Pearson correlation coefficients were collected for further statistical analysis. Collected slopes for 835 correlations, one for each ortholog group, are displayed as binned distributions in Supplementary Figure 10E.

Estimating end-to-end distance of phosphorylated and non-phosphorylated sequence fragments

Hydrodynamic radius (R_h) and end-to-end distance (\vec{R}) refer to an 'effective size' of a polymer in terms of fluid dynamics. These quantities provides a rough idea about the compactness and the shape of a given molecule. For example, even if the molecular weights are the same, the hydrodynamic radius of denatured protein is typically much larger than that of folded protein. For short peptides, hydrodynamic radius can be approximated by the radius of gyration (R_a) (19), and end-to-end distance could be calculated from R_g for ideal chains as described in previous studies (20):

$$
\vec{R} = R_g \cdot \sqrt{6} \cong R_h \cdot \sqrt{6} \tag{S12}
$$

While intrinsically denatured protein regions are often approximated with random coils, their actual behaviors are often significantly different than random coils largely due to two biophysical properties: charge and PII propensity. Interaction between charged amino acids can be strong enough to invalidate the assumption that there is no significant interaction between distal side chains. PII propensity, on the other hand, promotes formation of polyproline II conformation with an increased end-to-end distance, leading to longer hydrodynamic radius overall.

By merging equations from previous studies, Whitten and colleagues were able to approximate hydrodynamic radius from charge and PII propensity (16). Their power-law equation (Equation S13) could be used to calculate both global hydrodynamic radius of entire protein and local hydrodynamic radius which describes persistence length of short peptide regions, as follows:

 $R_h = R_0 \cdot N^{\nu}$, $(S13)$ where the exponent, v, is defined as (Equation S14):

$$
v(f_{PII}, |Q|) = v_0 + \alpha \cdot s(|Q|) + \beta \cdot (1 - s(|Q|)) \cdot \ln(1 - f_{PII})
$$
 (S14)

In Equations S13 and S14, *R^h* is hydrodynamic radius of peptide, *R⁰* is hydrodynamic radius of single amino acid (which is 2.16 Å), *N* is length of peptide, *fPII* is PII propensity of peptide, *s(|Q|)* is a sigmoid function fitted with net charge and hydrodynamic radius (21), and *α* and *β* are scaling coefficients for the effects of net charge and PII propensity, respectively. Equation S13 states that an increase of both net charge and PII propensity increases the hydrodynamic radius, albeit with different degrees.

Local hydrodynamic radius could be an important factor indicative of phosphorylation sites for two different reasons. First, most of known structures of kinases have a groove-like active site which binds to extended substrates (22). Potential substrates with other secondary structures, such as alpha helix, could not fit in this groove and consequently would be excluded from phosphorylation. Second, while the specific three-dimensional arrangements of side chains within active sites, which largely determine the details of substrate preference, are different between individual kinases, the overall architecture of protein kinases is likely to have originated from a common ancestor. Therefore, one could expect an extended substrate conformation to be a general requirement for kinase binding.

Fig. S1. Sequence logos of Threonine and Tyrosine phosphorylated or nonphosphorylated amino acid sequence neighborhoods. A. Phosphorylated T-nP. B. Nonphosphorylated T-nP. C. Phosphorylated T-P. D. Non-Phosphorylated T-P. E. Phosphorylated Tyrosine. F. Non-Phosphorylated Tyrosine. In all figures, aliphatic/non-polar residues are colored black, prolines are lavender, polar residues are green, negatively charged side chains are red, positively charged side chains are blue.

Fig. S3. Changes in charge distributions before and after phosphorylation events. A. S-P sites. B. S-nP sites. C. T-P sites. D. T-nP sites. E. Tyr sites. In each panel, individual points represent one 29-mer sequence, with average charge fractions plotted before (x-axis) or after (yaxis) a single, double, triple, or quadruple phosphorylation events adding successive negative charges. Dashed lines indicate boundary regions defined by Das & Pappu (15): B=boundary region 2, F=folded region 1, C=coil regions 3,4,5. Red circles emphasize the differential shifts in the conformational manifold of each subclass upon a single phosphorylation event as described in detail in Main Text Figures 4C-D.

Fig. S4. Phosphorylation sites containing +1 Proline are energetically poised to respond to phosphorylation by extension, mediated by charge and polyproline II propensity. Red, white, and blue contour regions indicate predicted end-to-end distances of intrinsically disordered proteins from a theoretical model (16) that takes polyproline II structural propensity (x-axis) and net charge (y-axis) into account. Arrows on this contour plot indicate median predicted distances of distributions of known phosphorylation sites before (arrow tail) and after (arrow head) a single phosphorylation event. Red arrow denotes S/T-nP sites, blue arrow denotes S/T-P sites, and Black arrow denotes Tyrosine sites. Scale bar indicates end-to-end distance in Ångstroms.

Fig. S5. Phosphorylation site subclasses defined with +1 Proline show higher end-to-end distances than other subclasses. In these distributions, red represents sequences before phosphorylation, blue represents sequences after phosphorylation, and purple represents areas of overlap between red and blue; a smaller area of overlap thus suggests a greater change of end-to-end distance after phosphorylation. The column plot demonstrates the median distance increase for each case, with the +1 Proline sites exhibiting the largest increase.

Fig. S6. Threonine phosphorylation has a stronger effect on end-to-end distance increase than do Serine / Tyrosine phosphorylations. In these distributions, red represents sequences before phosphorylation, blue represents sequences after phosphorylation, and purple represents areas of overlap between red and blue; a smaller area of overlap thus suggests a greater change of end-to-end distance after phosphorylation. The column plot demonstrates the median distance increase for each case, with the Threonine sites exhibiting the largest increase, more than one Å after phosphorylation.

Fig. S7. Subclass-specific receiver–operating characteristics (ROC) of PHOSforUS constituent predictors. AUROC stands for "Area Under the ROC curve". For all subclasses, predictors using horizontal information are equivalent to, or more effective than, predictors using vertical information. A. S-nP sites. B. T-nP sites. C. Tyr sites. D. S–P sites. E. T-P sites.

Fig. S8. Receiver-operating characteristics (ROC) curve (upper panel) and precision-recall curve (lower panel) of PHOSforUS predictor & its subpredictors along with PSWM-based prediction results. These results are based on the same data displayed in Figures 5B-D of the main text and Supplementary Figure S9A, below.

Fig. S9. Comparative effectiveness of protein phosphorylation site prediction by *PHOSforUS*. A. Class-specific AUROC, displayed again in Figures 5B-D of the Main Text. B. Class-specific Matthews Correlation Coefficient (MCC). C. Weighted average of AUROC. D. Weighted average of MCC

Fig. S10. Horizontal information is better conserved than vertical information in intrinsically disordered region. In all panels, red indicates conservation of vertical information and blue indicates conservation of horizontal information.A. Difference between degrees of conservation of sequence and free energy (ΔG, (5)) calculated for human glucocorticoid receptor (OMA database identifier GR) and its orthologs (17). Free energy is used as an example of horizontal information, and amino acid sequence conservation is used as an example of vertical information. Conservation is computed as described above in Methods and is normalized using Equation S11, above. Blue denotes regions where free energy conservation is stronger than sequence conservation, and red denotes the opposite. In human GR, DNA binding region (DBD) and LBD region are structured, while N-terminal domain (NTD) and hinge region are intrinsically disordered. B. Same calculation for actin (OMA database identifier ACTB). C. Same calculation for rhodopsin (OMA database identifier RHO). D. Correlation between *COREX/eSCAPE* G and normalized conservation scores for individual residue positions in the GR family. Red: sequence

conservation score, Blue: ΔG conservation score. The shallower slope of the blue line suggests that ΔG conservation is stronger than amino acid sequence conservation for this family. E . Distribution of linear regression slopes for 835 different transcription families. The median slope of the blue distribution being closer to zero suggests that ΔG conservation is stronger than amino acid conservation for this large collection of different protein families. Thus, strong conservation of horizontal information seems to be a general property of protein evolution. Red: sequence conservation, Blue: AG conservation. F. Distribution of R-square values of linear regression. Lower median R^2 values for ΔG conservation also suggests that horizontal information is more strongly conserved than vertical information in this large collection of different protein families.

Table S1. Statistics of utilized sequence & annotation datasets.

Table S2. List of biophysical indices incorporated in *PHOSforUS* **predictor.**

† Feature IDs correspond to the scales contained in AAindex (1)

Table S3. List of *eSCAPE* **thermodynamic parameters incorporated in** *PHOSforUS* **predictor.**

Table S4. Sub-predictor statistics for Serine with +1 Proline (S-P) subclass. Values in red font indicate the largest statistic value in each feature group.

Table S5. Sub-predictor statistics for Serine without +1 Proline (S-nP) subclass. Values in red font indicate the largest statistic value in each feature group.

Table S6. Sub-predictor statistics for Threonine with +1 Proline (T-P) subclass. Values in red font indicate the largest statistic value in each feature group.

Table S7. Sub-predictor statistics for Threonine without +1 Proline (T-nP) subclass. Values in red font indicate the largest statistic value in each feature group.

Table S8. Sub-predictor statistics for Tyrosine (Y) subclass. Values in red font indicate the largest statistic value in each feature group.

PhosphoSVM 0.59 0.956 0.224 0.551987 0.699722 0.26752 0.69151

Table S10. Full comparative analysis data of *PHOSforUS* **with current phosphorylation site predictors.**

References

1. Kawashima S*, et al.* (2008) AAindex: amino acid index database, progress report 2008. Nucleic Acids Res 36(Database issue):D202-205.

2. Campen A, *et al.* (2008) TOP-IDP-scale: a new amino acid scale measuring propensity for intrinsic disorder. Protein Pept Lett 15(9):956-963.

3. Elam WA, Schrank TP, Campagnolo AJ, & Hilser VJ (2013) Evolutionary conservation of the polyproline II conformation surrounding intrinsically disordered phosphorylation sites. Protein Sci 22(4):405-417.

4. Zhang H (2004) The optimality of naive Bayes. Proceedings of the 17th International FLAIRS Conference (FLAIRS 2004), (AAAI Press).

5. Gu J & Hilser VJ (2008) Predicting the energetics of conformational fluctuations in proteins from sequence: a strategy for profiling the proteome. Structure 16(11):1627- 1637.

6. Gu J & Hilser VJ (2009) Sequence-based analysis of protein energy landscapes reveals nonuniform thermal adaptation within the proteome. Mol Biol Evol 26(10):2217- 2227.

7. Pedgregosa F, *et al*. (2011) Scikit-learn: Machine Learning in Python. Journal of Machine Learning Research 12:2825-2830.

8. Hastie T, Tibshirani R, & Friedman J (2009) Elements of Statistical Learning (Springer, New York) 2 Ed.

9. Blom N, Gammeltoft S, & Brunak S (1999) Sequence and structure-based prediction of eukaryotic protein phosphorylation sites. J Mol Biol 294(5):1351-1362.

10. Gao J, Thelen JJ, Dunker AK, & Xu D (2010) Musite, a tool for global prediction of general and kinase-specific phosphorylation sites. Mol Cell Proteomics 9(12):2586-2600.

11. Iakoucheva LM, *et al.* (2004) The importance of intrinsic disorder for protein phosphorylation. Nucleic Acids Res 32(3):1037-1049.

12. Dou Y, Yao B, & Zhang C (2014) PhosphoSVM: prediction of phosphorylation sites by integrating various protein sequence attributes with a support vector machine. Amino Acids 46(6):1459-1469.

13. Ismail HD, Jones A, Kim JH, Newman RH, & Kc DB (2016) RF-Phos: A Novel General Phosphorylation Site Prediction Tool Based on Random Forest. Biomed Res Int 2016:3281590.

14. Wei L, Xing P, Tang J, & Zou Q (2017) PhosPred-RF: A Novel Sequence-Based Predictor for Phosphorylation Sites Using Sequential Information Only. IEEE Trans Nanobioscience 16(4):240-247.

15. Das RK & Pappu RV (2013) Conformations of intrinsically disordered proteins are influenced by linear sequence distributions of oppositely charged residues. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A 110(33):13392-13397.

16. Tomasso ME, Tarver MJ, Devarajan D, & Whitten ST (2016) Hydrodynamic Radii of Intrinsically Disordered Proteins Determined from Experimental Polyproline II Propensities. PLoS Comput Biol 12(1):e1004686.

17. Altenhoff A, *et al.* (2018) The OMA orthology database in 2018: retrieving evolutionary relationships among all domains of life through richer web and programmatic interfaces. Nuc Acid Res 46 (D1): D477-D485.

18. Henikoff S & Henikoff JG (1992) Amino acid substitution matrices from protein blocks. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 89:10915-10919.

19. Nygaard M, Kragelund BB, Papaleo E, Lindorff-Larsen K. (2017) An Efficient Method for Estimating the Hydrodynamic Radius of Disordered Protein Conformations. Biophys J. 113(3):550–557.

20. Teraoka, I. (2012) Polymer solutions: An introduction to physical properties. (John Wiley, New York).

21. Mao AH, Crick SL, Vitalis A, Chicoine CL, Pappu RV. (2010) Net charge per residue modulates conformational ensembles of intrinsically disordered proteins. Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A. 107(18):8183–8188.

22. Miller CJ, Turk BE. (2018) Homing in: Mechanisms of Substrate Targeting by Protein Kinases. Trends Biochem Sci. 43(5):380–394.