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#### Predicting protein-protein interactions in the post synaptic density 1

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### ABSTRACT

The post synaptic density (PSD) is a specialization of the cytoskeleton at the synaptic junction, composed of 20 hundreds of different proteins. Characterizing the protein components of the PSD and their interactions 21 can help elucidate the mechanism of long-term changes in synaptic plasticity, which underlie learning 22 and memory. Unfortunately, our knowledge of the proteome and interactome of the PSD is still partial 23 and noisy. In this study we describe a computational framework to improve the reconstruction of the PSD 24 network. The approach is based on learning the characteristics of PSD protein interactions from a set of 25 trusted interactions, expanding this set with data collected from large scale repositories, and then predicting 26 novel interaction with proteins that are suspected to reside in the PSD. Using this method we obtained thirty 27 predicted interactions, with more than half of which having supporting evidence in the literature. We discuss 28 in details two of these new interactions, Lrrtm1 with PSD-95 and Src with Capg. The first may take part in a 29 mechanism underlying glutamatergic dysfunction in schizophrenia. The second suggests an alternative 30 mechanism to regulate dendritic spines maturation. 31

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#### Introduction 37

Understanding the structure and function of mammalian 38 glutamatergic synapses has been a major focus of molecular neu-39 roscience. Particular attention has been given to the postsynaptic 40 density (PSD), a dense complex of proteins whose function is to detect 41 and respond to neurotransmitter that is released from pre-synaptic 42 terminals. 43

Broadly speaking, one set of these proteins is docked to the cell 44 membrane, forming the "front end" of the post synaptic glutamate 45 46 signaling cascades. These include AMPA ( $\alpha$ -amino-3-hvdroxy-5methyl-4-isoxazolepropionic acid) and NMDA (N-methyl-p-aspartic 47 acid) receptors, which convert the chemical signals from presynaptic 48 terminal to electrical signal by allowing an influx of positive ions into 49 50the cell (Traynelis et al., 2010). Other proteins serve to constantly modulate these signals through several complex mechanisms. First, 51the flux of ions allowed into the cell is regulated by tuning the distri-5253bution and density of receptors or their subunit composition (synaptic plasticity) (Malenka and Bear, 2004; Matta et al., 2011; Sheng and 54 Jong Kim, 2002). Second, the impact of the ion influx is regulated 5556by tuning the morphology of dendritic spines (*structural plasticity*) (Bourne and Harris, 2008). Proteins within the PSD play a crucial 57ole in this regulation. For instance, the kinetics of NMDA receptors can 58Q359 be altered by Src tyrosine kinase (Ali et al., 2001), AMPAR trafficking is regulated in part by Pick1 and Grip1 (Kulangara et al., 2007; Volk

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et al., 2010), and changes in spine shape and size are mediated by pro- 61 teins like Cortactin, Actin, Src, Capg, Shank and Homer (Fan et al., 2011; 62 Huang et al., 1997; Sala et al., 2001).

These plasticity mechanisms tune the transmission of signals 64 through the synapse using a carefully-orchestrated web of protein in- 65 teractions. Mapping protein-protein interactions is necessary to gain 66 insight into protein function (Legrain, Wojcik, and Gauthier, 2001), 67 detect molecular pathways (Segal, Wang, and Koller, 2003), or identify 68 potential drug targets (Archakov et al., 2003; Hormozdiari et al., 2010). 69 Charting the protein-protein interactions is particularly important 70 in context of the PSD, where modifications in protein conformation 71 and interactions have been linked to neuropsychiatric and neurodegen-72 erative disorders. Known examples include the association between au-73 tism and mutations in PSD proteins such as CNTNs, NRXNs or Shank3 74 (Bourgeron 2009), and between hypofunction of NMDAR receptors 75 Q4 and schizophrenia (Kristiansen et al., 2007; Stephan et al., 2006). 76

A solid knowledgebase of the PSD proteome and interactome has a 77 potential to lead to new targets for treating such disorders. In schizo-78 phrenia for example, a first approach to enhance NMDA receptor's 79 activity is to target the NMDAR itself, and multiple compounds were 80 proposed for modulating NMDA receptor activity. Unfortunately, de- 81 spite continuous efforts, most NMDAR-targeting drugs were found in- 82 effective or induce severe side effects (Kalia et al., 2008). Recovering 83 the pathways that control NMDA receptors can provide a new perspec- 84 tive into this problem. NMDAR is regulated by a collection of PSD ki- 85 nases, phosphatases, and other molecules through multiple regulatory 86 pathways (Hunt and Castillo, 2012), In this paper, our computationally 87 inferred interactions suggest a pathway by which PSD-95, Lrrtm1 and 88 Neurexin decrease Src induced NMDAR tyrosine phosphorylation. Such 89

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pathways offer a potential explanation for NMDAR diminished activity,
and suggest a set of proteins and their domains of interaction to be
examined as possible drug targets.

93 Obtaining the full set of protein interactions in the PSD can also improve our understanding of the interplay between activity (synaptic 94efficacy) and structure (spine morphology). Dendritic spines change 95their size and shape in correlation with synaptic activity (Kasai 96 97 et al., 2003), a transformation that involves changes in actin filaments 98 length and organization (Hotulainen and Hoogenraad, 2010). Actin 99 cytoskeleton regulation was already shown to involve multiple pro-100 teins that reside in the PSD, including NMDAR, CaMKII, and GTPases 101 (Rho, Ras), and identifying the full list of protein interactions could reveal additional molecular mechanism connecting synaptic efficacy 102103 to structural plasticity.

Despite the significant effort to identify the full list of proteins 104 of the PSD and their interactions (Bayés et al., 2010; Collins et al., 105 2006; Cheng et al., 2006; Fernández et al., 2009; Li et al., 2004; Peng 106 et al., 2004; Yoshimura et al., 2003), the current reconstructions of 107 the PSD networks are likely to be partial and noisy. For instance, a 108 meta analysis of studies that detected PSD proteins shows that only 10942% of the proteins were detected in more than one study (Collins 110 et al., 2006). Mapping the protein interactions may be similarly 111 112 noisy: A survey of small scale PPI studies of the NMDA receptor, found that 41% of the proposed PSD proteins (77 out of 186) had no 113 known interactions with the rest of the network (Pocklington et al., 114 2006). High-throughput measures of protein-protein interactions 115(PPI) provide very valuable evidence on protein interactions, but 116 117 they are also susceptible to under- and over-detection (Qi et al., 2006). This calls for developing methods that can combine evidence from 118 multiple experiments and produce a high confidence reconstruction 119 of the PSD network. 120

Here we describe a computational approach to reconstruct the 121122PSD network based on learning the characteristics of PSD protein interaction, and predicting new interacting pairs. Similar approaches 123 were successfully applied in other PPI networks (Skrabanek et al., 124 2008). We start with a "seed" network of PSD proteins built from 125high confidence interactions, and then expand that network repeat-126 127 edly by adding edges from a list of suspected interactions. Finally, we further expand the network using proteins that are suspected to 128reside in the PSD, and predict how they interact with the network. 129The end result of this process is a PSD network with 25% more protein 130131 interactions than the initial network.

### 132 Results

## 133 Overview of the reconstruction approach

To predict novel interactions between PSD proteins, we follow a three-step procedure, illustrated in Fig. 1A. In the first phase, *seed network construction*, we construct a PPI network using evidence from high confidence interactions of PSD.

138In the second phase, network expansion with candidate interactions, 139we expand the seed network using potential interactions proposed by high throughput experiments. To decide which interactions to 140add, we grow the network in an iterative process, layer by layer 141142(Fig. 1B). At each iteration, we use the current network to train models 143 of interactions (Fig. 1B(iii)), then rank the candidate interactions (Fig. 1B(iv)) and add the highest confidence interactions to the net-144 work (Fig. 1B(v)). These steps are repeated until no more interactions 145are found. The end result of this phase is an *expanded network*. 146

In the third phase, network *expansion with candidate proteins*, we predict *de novo* interactions between the expanded network and proteins that were experimentally pulled out of the PSD. We apply the same iterative expansion procedure as in the second phase, but here we consider all possible interactions between each candidate protein and the network reconstructed so far. The resulting *final network* is



**Fig. 1.** Network reconstruction is performed in three iterative steps. (A) Starting with a seed network curated interactions, we consider a set of candidate interactions, which have evidence to connect the proteins in the seed network. We then further consider interactions from candidate proteins that are not known to connect to the seed or expanded network. (B) Expanding a network (by either candidate interactions or proteins) takes place in iterations. (i) The network is initialized to be the seed network. (ii) A set of candidate interactions is proposed. (iii) Classifiers are trained on interactions from the existing network. (iv) The candidate interactions are ranked by the trained classifiers. (v) The most likely interaction are validated and added to the current network.

evaluated using the literature and using additional experimental as- 153 says that were not used during training. 154

Training models of interactions using the high confidence PSD network 155

We start with creating a trusted seed network by collecting PPIs 156 from small scale experiments that report interactions within the 157 mouse PSD (Cho et al., 2007; Dong et al., 1997; Jackson and Nicoll, 158 2009; Leonard et al., 1998; Leonoudakis et al., 2004; Nishimune 159 et al., 1998; Saglietti et al., 2007; Sato et al., 2008; Schulz et al., 160 2004; Schwenk et al., 2009; Setou et al., 2002; Silverman et al., 161 2007; Song et al., 1998a,b; Stegmüller et al., 2003; Terashima et al., 162 2004; Torres et al., 1998; Torres et al., 2001; Uchino et al., 2006; 163 Von Engelhardt et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2006; Xia et al., 1999), and 164 from a comprehensive study that collected PPI from 190 studies 165 (Pocklington et al., 2006). This set of interactions served as a training 166 set for learning binary classifiers that detect repeating patterns that 167 can be used to predict new interactions. 168

In our supervised learning framework, each protein is represented 169 by a vector of measurements from various sources, which are called 170 'features'. We selected features that are expected to be highly corre-171 lated in pairs of proteins that interact, and less correlated in non-172 interacting proteins. Fig. 2 shows examples of three features that 173 follow this pattern for one pair of proteins that are known to interact 174 (Gria2, Gria3, Fig. 2A–C) and one pair of proteins that is believed not 175 to interact (Grb2, Actg1, Fig. 2D–F). Fig. 2A depicts the expression 176 profile of Gria2 and Gria3 across a large compendium of microarray 177 experiments (see Experimental methods), showing that the profiles 178 Q5 of the two proteins are highly correlated across the compendium. At 179 the same time, the expression profiles of another pair of genes (Grb2, 180 Download English Version:

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