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Direct Monitoring of Protein-Protein Inhibition Using Nano Electrospray Ionization Mass Spectrometry

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Abstract

Dissociation of the TNF-alpha trimer caused by the small-molecule inhibitor SPD304 was monitored using native ESI-MS and ion mobility spectrometry. Upon addition of inhibitor, our data clearly indicates partial dissociation of the protein into dimers and monomers. The IMS-MS analysis shows that dimeric ions have their own characteristic drift time distributions, which are different from those of the dimer ions originating in the gas phase due to collision-induced dissociation. We show that only one equivalent of the inhibitor binds to the trimeric form. We also investigated inhibition of the heterodimer formation of the survival protein Bcl-x_L and cell death-promoting regions of the proteins Bak and Bad, using the small inhibitors ABT737 and ABT263. We found that the ABT737 is more potent compared to ABT263 in preventing the heterodimerization between Bcl-x_L with Bak and Bad derived BH3 peptide. We could also monitor the mode of binding, which in this case is competitive. These results indicate that native ESI-MS can be widely used to study the inhibition of other relevant protein-protein interactions (PPIs), and provide a good basis for further improvement and identification of small-molecules PPI inhibitors.

Keywords: Noncovalent interactions, Electrospray ionization mass spectrometry, Binding affinity, Protein-protein Inhibition, Bcl-x_L, TNF-alpha

41 **Introduction**

42
43 Protein-protein interactions (PPIs) are of fundamental importance in most biological processes -
44 from intercellular function to programmed cell death.¹⁻³ The controlled disruption of PPIs with
45 small-molecule inhibitors is of high interest in current drug discovery due to the large number of
46 protein-protein interactions involved in signalling pathways related to cancer and many other
47 human diseases. In the last decade, significant progress in the design and development of
48 potential small inhibitors of PPIs has been made.^{2, 4, 5} Therefore, understanding mechanisms of
49 protein-protein disruptors can be used in several fields, e.g., in small molecule drug discovery, in
50 order to design and optimize the novel potential therapeutics.

51 The conventional tools and methodologies for investigating PPIs include physico chemical
52 methods such as X-ray crystallography, NMR spectroscopy, surface plasmon resonance (SPR),
53 isothermal titration calorimetry (ITC), fluorescence spectroscopy, or biochemical methods. All
54 these techniques have particular strengths and weaknesses in terms of sample consumption,
55 throughput, dynamic range; some require immobilizing of one of the binding partners.⁶⁻¹⁰

56 Another powerful and increasingly utilized method to detect and characterize noncovalent
57 interactions is nano electrospray ionization mass spectrometry (nanoESI-MS).¹¹⁻¹³ It was shown
58 by many research groups that proteins in the gas phase are in a folded conformation, which is
59 similar to the native conformation in solution, and that they are therefore able to bind inhibitors
60 and provide a “snapshot ” of the solution phase equilibrium.¹⁴⁻¹⁷ In recent years, nanoESI-MS
61 has become increasingly used in drug discovery, for the investigation of protein-ligand and
62 protein-protein interactions.¹⁷⁻²¹ This technique can address key questions about composition,
63 stoichiometry, subunit interactions, and architectural organization of noncovalent complexes.²²

64 The present work emphasizes the advantages of the native MS approach for direct monitoring of
65 protein-protein inhibitions. Pioneering work in the detection of protein-protein interactions

66 inhibition via ESI-MS was carried out by Grygon and co-workers.²³ Beside the quantification of
67 protein-protein interactions it offers the possibility to directly visualize ligation states and
68 conformational changes upon addition of small disruptor molecule in solution.

69 In this work we have also applied ion mobility (IM) spectrometry, which is a gas-phase
70 separation tool comparable to electrophoresis in solution, and which can be combined with MS.
71 This is a technique that allows ions to be separated by a weak electric field in a gas environment
72 according to their mobility.²² From the ion transport properties measurements, ion size
73 information can be generated. This results in an orientitatonally averaged ion-neutral collision
74 cross sections (CCS).²⁴ Recent studies show good correlation of many data sets between CCS
75 values based on IM measurements and X-ray or NMR data sets for the same proteins and
76 complexes in solution. Although these measurements are carried out in the absence of bulk water,
77 these studies suggest that IM data reflects condensed phase properties and can be used as a
78 technique for structural biology. Some of the recent reviews summarizing the developments of
79 IM-MS to rapidly measure changes in protein structure, oligomeric state, and binding
80 stoichiometry from complex mixtures are by Niu et al²⁴., Hall and Robinson²⁵, and Konijnenberg
81 et al²⁶.

82 In this contribution we first investigated the alpha tumour necrosis factor (TNF-alpha), a cytokine
83 involved in systemic inflammation and in immune regulation, and therefore a therapeutic target
84 for many diseases. The known inhibitor SPD304 was used to induce dissociation of the trimeric
85 TNF-alpha, as monitored by nanoESI-MS.²⁷ In addition we performed ion mobility mass
86 spectrometry (IM-MS) experiments. NanoESI- and IM-MS results are in agreement, and, upon
87 ligand addition, show dissociation of the trimer into dimers and monomers. The IMS-MS analysis
88 shows that dimeric ions have their own characteristic drift time distributions, which are different
89 from dimer ions generated in the gas phase due to CID. Therefore dissociation occurs due to

90 SPD304-promoted dissociation of TNF- α trimers in solution. The mode of inhibitor binding
91 to the TNF- α was studied as well.

92 The second system investigated in this study is the interaction between the anti-apoptotic Bcl-2
93 family protein Bcl-x_L and two different pro-apoptotic binding partners, Bak and Bad. The pro-
94 apoptotic has similarity to the anti-apoptotic group in a single alpha helix called the BH3 region,
95 which is essential for binding to Bcl-x_L and also required for the proapoptotic effect.²⁸⁻³³
96 Heterodimerization between members of the Bcl-2 family proteins plays a key role in the
97 regulation of programmed cell death. In a first step we investigated the heterodimerization
98 between Bcl-x_L and the BH3 domain of Bak and Bad derived synthetic peptides, which bind with
99 high affinity in vitro; it had also been shown that the Bak BH3 peptide alone could induce
100 apoptosis in various cell lines.³⁰ Titration experiments at constant Bcl-x_L and different peptide
101 concentrations were first performed using nanoESI-MS. Results are in agreement with these from
102 other biophysical methods. In a second step, we investigated the recently introduced small BH3
103 mimetic inhibitors ABT737 and ABT263 that are designed to disrupt the above-mentioned
104 cancer-linked protein–protein interactions. These small-molecule inhibitors have been found to
105 occupy the BH3 binding groove of anti-apoptotic Bcl-2 family members, preventing them to
106 antagonize pro-apoptotic proteins and induce apoptosis, thereby enhancing programmed cell
107 death of cancer.^{29,34} NanoESI-based results show that ABT737 prevent the heterodimerization of
108 Bcl-x_L-Bak as well as Bcl-x_L-Bad binding more efficiently compared to ABT263. We also
109 observed competition of the small molecule inhibitors with the BH3 derived peptide for the same
110 Bcl-x_L binding pocket, clearly indicating the mechanism of binding.

111 All nanoESI-MS based results obtained show that this technique is a valuable tool for
112 investigation of PPI inhibition. In addition to the quantification of binding strengths of PPIs, we
113 could gain information about stoichiometry, conformational changes, binding mechanism, and

114 relative binding strengths of the small PPI inhibitors from single-point measurements. Key
115 advantages of native MS are its simplicity (label-free measurements), selectivity (possibility of
116 using additional stages of MS combined with ion activation methods), sensitivity (low sample
117 consumption), and speed (mass spectra can be acquired in less than a minute).

118

119 **Experimental Section**

120 **Materials and Methods**

121 All solvents and caesium iodide (CsI) were purchased from Sigma Aldrich (Buchs, Switzerland).
122 The pET29 plasmid bearing the coding sequence of Bcl-x_L (amino acids 1-209, Δ45-84) was a
123 kind gift from Prof. Ho Sup Yoon (Nanyang Technical University, Singapore).³¹ The Bcl-x_L
124 protein expression has been previously described.²⁸ The expression and purification protocol of
125 TNF-alpha (A.Corti).³⁵ was shortened and optimized by introduction of the N-terminal (His)₆-tag.
126 This allows for use of a Ni-NTA affinity purification step that significantly shortens the entire
127 purification protocol. Owing to the Ni-NTA step, troublesome and time-consuming hydrophobic
128 chromatography and desalting at 65% ammonium sulphate steps can be skipped. This results in a
129 higher yield of purified protein; the His-tag also allows immobilizing TNF on different media
130 (e.g. BiaCore chip or Ni-NTA beads). The BH3 peptide domains of the Bad
131 (NLWAAQRYGRELRRMSDK) and the Bak protein (GQVGRQLAIIGDDINR) were obtained
132 from Genscript (NJ, USA) and Anaspec (Fremont, USA), respectively. The small-molecule
133 inhibitor SPD304 was purchased from Cayman Chemicals (MI, USA), ABT737 and ABT263
134 from Selleckchem (TX, USA). Water was purified using a Milli-Q[®] Ultrapure water purification
135 system (Millipore, Barnstead, USA). Prior to mass spectrometric analysis the Bcl-x_L protein
136 stock solution (224 μM) in 50 mM Hepes, 100 mM NaCl, 10 % glycerol, 1mM EDTA, 1mM
137 DTT, 0.1 % Nonidet-40 substitute (pH = 7.5) and the TNF-alpha protein stock solution in 50 mM

138 phosphate buffer, 100 mM NaCl, 2.5 mM EDTA (pH = 7.7) were desalted and buffer exchanged
139 (PD MiniTrap G-25, GE Healthcare, Buckinghamshire, UK) against the ammonium acetate
140 buffer. The stock solutions of Bad and Bak as well as small molecule inhibitors were dissolved in
141 DMSO at a concentration of 10 mM and further diluted in ammonium acetate to desired
142 concentration. All MS titration experiments were recorded under “native-like” conditions using
143 50 mM ammonium acetate buffer (pH = 7.7) for TNF-alpha-SPD304 and 300 mM (pH = 7.5) for
144 Bcl-x_L-peptide-inhibitor complex. To ensure the integrity of the protein complexes we kept the
145 pH of the ammonium acetate buffer the same as that of the buffer used for protein expression and
146 storage, which was previously optimized. In all experiments the DMSO concentration did not
147 exceed 1 % (v/v). For TNF-alpha denaturation, ZipTip columns containing C₄-resin (Millipore,
148 Molsheim, France) were used. The exact TNF-alpha and Bcl-x_L concentration was determined
149 using a UV spectrometer (Genesys 10S UV-VIS, ThermoScientific, Bremen, Germany) by
150 measuring the absorbance at 280 nm.

151
152 **Mass spectrometry**
153 NanoESI-MS analyses were performed with a hybrid quadrupole time-of-flight mass
154 spectrometer (Q-TOF ULTIMA, Waters/Micromass, Manchester, UK) in positive ion mode. The
155 instrument was controlled via the MassLynx software (version 4.0). Sample solutions were
156 directly infused with gold/palladium-coated borosilicate glass offline nanoESI emitters (Thermo
157 Fisher Scientific, Reinach, Switzerland) using a commercial nanoESI ion source
158 (Waters/Micromass, Manchester, UK). The capillary voltage was set to 1.8 kV and a gentle
159 backing pressure of 0.3-0.5 bar was applied to assist the liquid sample flow. The source
160 temperature was kept at room temperature. Instrumental conditions had to be adjusted in order to
161 get narrow peaks of the detected ions without dissociating the noncovalent complex. The precise

162 settings have an influence on the peak shape: due to adduct formation with salt and buffer
163 molecules from the spray solution, peaks might be broadened. The mass spectrometer was run
164 with the following gentle desolvation parameters: the cone and first ion tunnel RF1 voltages,
165 parameters that control the kinetic energy of the ions in the source region of the mass
166 spectrometer, were set to 50 and 50 V for Bcl-x_L; and 70 and 60 V for TNF-alpha experiments,
167 respectively. After this stage, the ion beam passed a hexapole collision cell filled with argon
168 (purity 5.0, PanGas, Zurich, Switzerland). The collision energy offset was used to optimize
169 desolvation and set to 22 V. The pressure in the source was increased to 5.5 mbar, using a
170 “speedivalve” (Edwards Ltd., Sussex, UK) connected between the rotary pump and source
171 pumping line. All instrument parameters used (e.g. capillary voltage, cone voltage, RF1 voltage,
172 collision energy) were carefully adjusted and optimized to be as soft as possible for all
173 investigated protein-complexes. Collision-induced dissociation (CID) used for TNF-alpha
174 MS/MS experiments were performed by adjusting the acceleration collision energy (CE) offset
175 until full dissociation of the parent ions was achieved. The ion transmission was optimized for a
176 *m/z* range between 100 and 9,000 Da for TNF-alpha, and 100-5,000 Da for Bcl-x_L. The scan time
177 and interscan times were 1 and 0.2 sec, respectively.

178 IMS-MS experiments were performed on the Synapt G2-S HDMS (Waters, Manchester, UK).
179 Ions were produced by a commercial NanoLock Spray ionization source (Waters, Manchester,
180 UK) using offline capillary emitters (see above). A capillary voltage of 0.8-1.3 kV and a backing
181 pressure of 0.25-0.3 bar were applied to generate the nano-electrospray. The sampling cone
182 voltage and the source offset were set to 20 and 80 V, respectively. The traveling-wave ion
183 guides were tuned to minimize unwanted fragmentation of ions during ion transfer, trapping, ion
184 mobility separation, and mass analysis. For instance, the trap DC bias, helium cell DC offset, and
185 IMS bias were lowered to 40, 30 and 0.5 V, respectively. The trap gas flow was increased to

186 5.5 ml min⁻¹ to facilitate transmission of high-*m/z* ions. The trap and transfer collision energies
187 were set to 10 and 5 V, respectively, and trap and transfer CID was induced by increasing the
188 corresponding voltage offsets. Ion mobility separations were carried out using IMS wave velocity
189 (WV) ramping of 1600 to 200 m s⁻¹ (unless specified differently) and wave height (WH)
190 amplitude of 40 V. Nitrogen (purity 5.0, PanGas, Zurich, Switzerland) was used as IMS buffer
191 gas. The spectra were acquired in the range of *m/z* 50-8000 using scan time of 2 s and interscan
192 delay of 0.01 s. Typically, at least 50 scans were combined to produce a spectrum.

193 Calibration of the mass spectrometry instrument was performed using caesium iodide (CsI)
194 clusters. CsI was dissolved in water/2-propanol (1/1, v/v) at a concentration of 2 µg/µL.

195 **Data processing**

196 Before data processing, each mass spectrum was smoothed (Savitzky-Golay smooth) with the
197 MassLynx 4.0 software (Waters, UK). For the dissociation constant (*K_D*) determination of the
198 Bcl-x_L-Bad and Bcl-x_L-Bak complexes the measured relative peak heights (*I*) were used. The
199 peak height ratio (*R*) of the Bad- and Bak-bound Bcl-x_L complex (*P*·*L*) to bare protein (*P*), *R* = *I*
200 (*P*·*L*)/ *I* (*P*), was calculated for each spectrum. For this determination, all charge states were taken
201 into account. The ratio of the sum of all detected complex species divided by the sum of the free
202 protein was determined. The experimentally calculated relative peak heights were plotted versus
203 the total added Bad or Bak concentration. The equation derived by Daniel et al.¹² was used to
204 determine the *K_D* values from fitting a titration curve:

$$\frac{I(P \cdot L)}{I(P)} = \frac{1}{2} \left(-1 - \frac{[P]_0}{K_D} + \frac{[L]_0}{K_D} + \sqrt{4 \frac{[L]_0}{K_D} + \left(\frac{[L]_0}{K_D} - \frac{[P]_0}{K_D} - 1 \right)^2} \right)$$

206 The *K_D* calculations and the fitting of the titration curves were performed using the MATLAB
207 software (2010a, The MathWorks, Natick, MA, USA).

208

209 Results and Discussion

210 211 NanoESI-MS analysis of TNF-alpha

212 Prior to the addition of the inhibitor to TNF-alpha, the proper instrumental conditions had to be
213 adjusted to preserve the trimeric protein structure. Therefore the trimeric human TNF-alpha was
214 analysed under denaturing and “native” conditions using the Q-TOF ULTIMA. In **Figure SII**
215 **(Supporting Information)**, nanoESI mass spectra for a solution of denatured and native TNF-
216 alpha are shown. The first spectrum measured under denatured conditions generates a broad
217 charge state distribution. Under this condition the completely unfolded monomer that appears in
218 the lower m/z range is detected. In contrast, **Figure SI1B** displays the spectrum under “native-
219 like” conditions in 50 mM ammonium acetate and 1 % DMSO at pH = 7.7. The observed narrow
220 charge state distribution, predominantly + 11, + 12, + 13, is typical for non-denaturing
221 conditions, and is consistent with a compact conformation in solution. In addition to the trimeric
222 TNF-alpha ions, we can observe minor monomeric peaks at + 7, + 6, as well. Many studies have
223 demonstrated that the charge state distribution depends on the protein conformation in solution.³⁶⁻
224 ³⁸ Native nanoESI-MS analysis of the protein is relevant, since proper TNF-alpha folding is
225 crucial for the later interaction with the inhibitor in solution.

226 In addition we performed CID experiments in order to confirm the trimeric TNF-alpha assembly
227 and gain additional information about the protein stability in the gas phase. For the MS/MS
228 measurements the +14 trimeric ions were selected and dissociated during transmission through
229 the mass spectrometer. For this, the CE offset was varied in 10 V steps from 15 to 100 V, until
230 the selected trimeric ions were completely dissociated. In **Figure SI2** two different CID spectra at
231 a CE offset of 30 and 100 V are shown. Dissociation of the precursor ions yielded the dimeric
232 and monomeric protein ions. These CID experiments provide additional evidence for the trimeric
233 TNF-alpha assembly. It should be mentioned that different charge state distributions are generated

234 in the absence and in the presence of 1% DMSO. This effect is described in the next subsection
235 more in detail.

236
237 **Monitoring the disruption of the TNF-alpha trimer due to the binding of the inhibitor**
238 **SPD304 by nanoESI- and ion mobility-MS**

239 SPD304 has previously been identified as potent inhibitor against TNF-alpha. We monitored the
240 influence of SPD304 on TNF-alpha using nanoESI- and ion mobility-MS. At this point it is
241 noteworthy to state that the described experiments were run in 1 % DMSO (v/v). It has been
242 shown that this DMSO amount will not significantly influence the binding of the small molecule
243 to the protein as observed by nanoESI-MS.³⁹ However, it is still necessary to perform
244 experiments in the presence and in the absence of DMSO. This should be considered in order to
245 properly evaluate any possible conformational difference, resulting in a different charge state
246 distribution, of the complex and the bare or dissociated protein. Also, DMSO may lead to partial
247 dissociation of the protein. **Figure 1** illustrates IMS-MS analysis of TNF-alpha under “native
248 ESI-MS” conditions. The shown results should provide additional structural information based on
249 the separation of gas-phase ions based on their differential transport through an environment of
250 inert neutrals.²⁴ We show the 2D IMS drift time vs. m/z plots with corresponding mass spectra
251 and drift time distributions. We first performed experiments using a 4.5 μM TNF-alpha solution
252 in 75 mM ammonium acetate buffer at $\text{pH} = 7.7$ and the same protein concentration in the
253 presence of 1 % (vol.) DMSO. In the presence of 1% DMSO, an overall charge state reduction
254 can be observed; +11, +12, +13 compared to +13, +14, +15, +16. The appearance of a small
255 amount of the monomers is also observed in the presence of DMSO. The trimeric form is
256 compact in both cases. As a next experiment, we have investigated the influence of the inhibitor
257 by adding 100 μM SPD304 to 4.5 μM trimeric TNF-alpha in 75 mM ammonium acetate solution
258 at $\text{pH} = 7.7$ in 1 % DMSO. The same charge state distribution is detected for the TNF-alpha upon

259 inhibitor addition. Again, three different compact charge states representing the TNF-alpha trimer
260 are observed. The appearance of dimer ions and the increase of monomer peak intensities is
261 clearly seen, indicating the dissociation of the trimeric protein form in solution. The advantage of
262 IM-MS in this case is the clear separation of dimer and trimer ions due to their different drift
263 times.

264 The peak maxima in the drift time distributions are represented with the respective bin numbers.
265 As can be seen in **Figure 1**, the +13 charge state of the trimeric protein appears in all three
266 cases (without DMSO, with DMSO, and upon ligand binding). The +13 charge state shows the
267 same drift time distribution in all three cases. These results indicate clearly that the dissociation
268 upon ligand addition already happens in solution and not due to partial dissociation of the trimer
269 in the gas phase.

270 Under this aspect, we have also investigated the dependence of the drift time distribution of the
271 TNF-alpha trimer 13+ ion on the trap collision energy applied (Figure SI3). This charge state was
272 chosen since it is generated in all three cases (with and without DMSO and in the presence of the
273 inhibitor). The selected 13+ ions were interrogated by changing the trap collision voltage in the
274 ion trap just prior to the mobility cell. The increased voltage accelerates the ions such that they
275 encounter neutral gas molecules with greater kinetic energy in the ion trap. Nearly identical
276 collision-induced unfolding profiles registered for the TNF-alpha T13+ ion electrosprayed from
277 various solution conditions (buffer, 1 % DMSO, 1 % DMSO + 100 μ M ligand) is observed. The
278 drift time distribution of T13+ ion is narrow and unimodal in all three cases, with the peak
279 maximum in bins 85-86 up to a trap collision energy offset of 30 V. At a collision energy of 40
280 V, unfolding starts, which is manifested by a slight broadening of the drift time distribution and a
281 minor shift of the peak towards shorter drift time, due perhaps to a gas-phase collapse of the
282 trimer. As the collision energy increases to 50 and 60 V, the drift time distribution broadens

283 dramatically, shifts towards higher drift times, and becomes multimodal, with several more or
284 less overlapping peaks. Dissociation into monomer and dimer ions with asymmetric charge
285 partitioning is observed simultaneously in mass spectrum (data not shown). At high trap collision
286 energies, the drift time distribution coalesces into a single peak at bin 108. This behavior
287 resembles a two-state, all-or-none protein-unfolding behavior.⁴⁰⁻⁴² The most important
288 conclusion is that the behavior of T13⁺ is the same in all three cases, i. e., that there are no
289 stabilizing or de-stabilizing effects found in the gas phase when the protein is incubated with
290 DMSO or ligand.

291 In **Figure 2**, the IMS-MS analysis of TNF-alpha ions produced under “native ESI” conditions
292 from 4.5 μM protein solution in 75 mM ammonium acetate buffer (pH 7.7) containing 1 % (vol.)
293 DMSO and 100 μM SPD304 is shown. The sample is analysed at various transfer collision
294 energy offsets. The ions were interrogated by changing the transfer collision voltage in the
295 transfer region just after the mobility cell. TNF-alpha dimer ions D8⁺, D9⁺, and D10⁺ are
296 present even at low transfer collision energy offsets (**Fig. 2A and B**). At high collision energy
297 offsets (**Fig. 2C and D**), collision-induced dissociation (CID) of TNF-alpha ions occurred in the
298 transfer region of the mass spectrometer, after IMS separation. Thus, fragment ions have the
299 same drift time, as the respective parent. The D8⁺, D9⁺, and D10⁺ ions have their own
300 characteristic drift time distributions, which are different from those of the dimer ions originating
301 in the gas phase due to CID. Therefore, D8⁺, D9⁺, and D10⁺ ions must have been present in the
302 sample prior to IMS-MS analysis, i.e. they occurred due to SPD304-promoted dissociation of
303 TNF-alpha trimers in solution.

304 In addition, we have performed nanoESI-MS measurements on the Q-TOF ULTIMA. **Figure SI4**
305 shows the influence of adding of 100 μM SPD304 to 4.5 μM trimeric TNF-alpha on the nanoESI
306 mass spectra in 50 mM ammonium acetate solution at pH = 7.7 in 1 % DMSO. Interestingly, here

307 we can observe a wider charge state distribution in the spectrum compared to the above-
308 mentioned results. Additional charge states, the +14, +15 and +16 ions, are generated compared
309 to the spectrum without inhibitor (see **Figure SI1B**). However, it would be quite speculative to
310 state that this shift in charge state distribution towards lower m/z indicates a “less compact”
311 trimeric protein structure in the presence of SPD304. This “more open” trimeric form may go
312 hand in hand with a partial dissociation of the protein into dimers and monomers, which indicates
313 a conformational change in the protein structure. The observation that the dimer abundance is
314 lower compared to monomers is probably due to a lower ionization efficiency of the dimeric
315 form. A very interesting result is that TNF-alpha forms a noncovalent complex by binding one
316 inhibitor molecule. No ligation states with two or three ligands were detected.

317 A X-ray structure reveals that a one equivalent of the inhibitor molecule displaces a subunit of
318 the trimer and leads to the formation of a dimeric protein form. Biophysical experiments as well
319 as biochemical and cell-based assays have shown that the inhibitor was capable to dissociate
320 TNF-alpha trimer in solution and also the interaction between intact trimeric protein, which lead
321 to subunit dissociation.²⁷ The ESI-MS and IM-MS results are in agreement with this structural
322 data, but complement them in the sense that we gain additional insight into inhibitor binding to
323 TNF-alpha.

324 **K_D determination of the Bcl-x_L·Bak and Bcl-x_L·Bad complexes by the nanoESI-MS titration** 325 **method**

326
327
328 As a second system we investigated the heterodimerization between members of the Bcl-2 family
329 of proteins, which is very important in regulating programmed cell death. The subsequent
330 influence of small molecule disruptors on these interactions was monitored as well. In the first
331 step, before addition of small disruptors ABT737 and ABT263, we carried out measurements
332 with Bcl-xL (amino acids 1-209, Δ 45-84) in complex with the synthetic peptides of the Bak- and

333 Bad BH3 domain. In **Figure 3A** the nanoESI mass spectra of the bare protein in the presence and
334 in the absence of Bak in 300 mM aqueous ammonium acetate at pH = 7.5 are shown. A narrow
335 charge state distribution, predominantly 7+, 8+ ions, appears at fairly high m/z. This is
336 characteristic for native conditions, and consistent with a compact conformation of Bcl-x_L in
337 solution. In order to determine the dissociation constant via the titration method, a set of nanoESI
338 experiments was performed with increasing Bak concentrations ranging from 0.5 to 3 μM, at a
339 constant Bcl-x_L concentration. **Figure 3A** displays representative nanoESI spectra obtained for
340 the Bcl-x_L•Bak complex at three different ligand concentrations. As expected, increased complex
341 signal intensity was observed with higher total Bak concentration. At 3 μM Bak concentration,
342 full complexation was reached (data not shown). Titration experiments for Bcl-x_L•Bak binding
343 over a range of concentrations were performed. We can detect different complex/free protein
344 ratios for different charge states. This phenomenon is well known and has already been
345 mentioned for different noncovalent complexes, although no clear explanation can be found in
346 the literature.^{6, 22, 43} In order to determine the K_D we took the abundance (peak intensities) of all
347 detected complex and protein ions into account. The titration curve is shown in **Figure 3B**. The
348 signal ratio of the detected complex and the sum of the free protein and the complex signal was
349 plotted against the total ligand concentration (L₀). The K_D determined by a set of titration
350 experiments was 314 ± 35 nM. This value is in very good agreement with other values
351 determined for Bcl-x_L•Bak in solution. In the literature, K_D values of 480 nM and 340 nM using a
352 fluorescence polarization-based competition assay were obtained.^{31,32}

353 For Bcl-x_L in complex with the Bad BH3 derived peptide we performed titration experiments as
354 well. The charge state distribution is comparable with that obtained for Bcl-x_L•Bak. However,
355 higher Bad concentrations were needed to reach full complexation. Therefore the titration
356 experiments were performed from 2 to 20 μM (data not shown). The K_D determined for Bad

357 binding to Bcl-x_L is $4.45 \pm 0.3 \mu\text{M}$. Depending on the length of the synthetic Bad peptide K_D
358 values ranging from $50 \mu\text{M}$ to the low nanomolar range were reported using fluorescence
359 polarization competition assay.⁴⁴

360 For the Bcl-x_L•Bak and Bcl-x_L•Bad disruption with ABT737 and ABT293, we performed the
361 experiments at concentrations where mainly the complex peak is observed in the spectrum. In
362 case of Bcl-x_L•Bak, the ratio was 1:1 (eq) and for the Bcl-x_L•Bad binding 1: 6.6 (eq). The
363 experiments are described in detail in the next section.

364

365 **Monitoring the Bcl-x_L-Bak and Bcl-x_L-Bad inhibition using small disruptors ABT737 and** 366 **ABT293**

367
368
369 We used native MS to directly monitor the inhibition of the Bcl-x_L-Bak and Bcl-x_L-Bad
370 heterodimers in the presence of the small inhibitors ABT737 and ABT263. These compounds
371 were shown to inhibit binding of peptide and induce apoptosis.³⁴

372 Experiments with the small disruptor ABT737 of the Bcl-x_L•Bak heterodimer were first carried
373 out. In **Figure 4A** the spectra of $3 \mu\text{M}$ Bcl-x_L in complex with $3 \mu\text{M}$ Bak (full complexation
374 reached), in the presence at different ABT737 concentrations ranging from 1.25 to $12.5 \mu\text{M}$ are
375 shown. With higher inhibitor concentration we can clearly monitor the increasing disruption of
376 the Bcl-x_L•Bak interaction. Upon addition of the small inhibitor the disrupted Bcl-x_L•Bak
377 complex generates additional peaks of the bare Bcl-x_L protein and a Bcl-x_L•ABT737 complex.
378 This observation gives us additional information about the mechanism of binding of the ABT737,
379 which is in this case is competitive. The small disruptor ABT737 is able to displace the Bak
380 derived peptide from the BH3 binding pocket of Bcl-x_L. No peaks where all three species form a
381 complex were detected, which confirm our interpretation of a competitive mechanism. In a recent
382 study it was described that ABT binds to the BH3 pocket of Bcl-x_L, breaking its hold on Bak.^{29,34}

383 At 12.5 μM ABT737 the major +8 peak is Bcl-x_L in complex with ABT737, only a minor
384 undisrupted +8 heterodimer peak remains.

385 For the native MS measurements of the Bcl-x_L•Bak disruption in the presence of the small
386 inhibitor ABT263, the same instrument conditions were used. In **Figure 4B** the spectra of 3 μM
387 Bcl-x_L in complex with 3 μM Bak in the presence at different ABT263 concentration between
388 6.25 μM and 25 μM are shown. The mode of binding is, as in the previous case, competitive,
389 although a significant difference in the inhibition of PPI compared to ABT737 was detected. In
390 order to disrupt half of the heterodimer, 17.5 μM of ABT263 had to be present in solution. As
391 shown in **Figure 5**, 6.25 μM ABT737 disrupt three times more Bcl-x_L•Bak complex compared to
392 ABT263 at the same concentration.

393 This observation lets us conclude that ABT263 is a less active inhibitor compared to ABT737.
394 These data are consistent with those generated in a TR-FRET assay, which also indicate that
395 ABT737 is more active than ABT26.³⁴ In addition, the in vitro efficacies of ABT737 and
396 ABT263 were studied in a recent study. The authors have shown that ABT737 is more active
397 than ABT263 in inducing apoptosis in chronic lymphocytic leukemia (CCL) cells, because
398 ABT263 was more strongly bound by albumin compared to ABT737, which accounted for the
399 differential sensitivity of CLL cells.⁴⁵ However, the activities in our assay using purified protein
400 are not affected by albumin binding.

401 In a second step, we also studied the influence of ABT737 and ABT263 on the Bcl-x_L•Bad
402 interaction. For this the experiments with the small inhibitors with 3 μM Bcl-x_L in complex with
403 20 μM Bad were performed. **Figure 5** displays nanoESI spectra at different ABT737 and
404 ABT263 concentrations. Again, with higher inhibitor concentration the stronger disruption of the
405 Bcl-x_L•Bad interaction is detected. The disrupted Bcl-x_L-Bad complex dissociates into ions
406 representing the bare Bcl-x_L protein and the Bcl-x_L•ABT737 or Bcl-x_L•ABT263 complexes. We

407 found again that the ABT737 is more potent compared to ABT263 in preventing the
408 heterodimerization between Bcl-xL and Bad derived BH3 peptide in solution. To completely
409 dissociate the dimerization, a 2.5 times higher concentration of ABT263 was required,
410 corresponding to the 18 μ M ABT263 and 7 μ M ABT737 inhibitor concentration.

411 The heterodimer ratios (Bcl-xL-Bak/ Bcl-xL or Bcl-xL-Bad/ Bcl-xL) upon addition of the total
412 ABT263 and ABT737 concentration are plotted in **Figure 6**. Compared to the Bcl-xL•Bak, no
413 significant difference in the inhibitor efficiency is observed in preventing the Bcl-xL•Bad
414 interaction; ABT737 and ABT263 seem to have a very similar influence in disrupting both
415 investigated heterodimers. For the Bcl-xL•Bad disruption with ABT263, no significant difference
416 in dissociation of the heterodimer with lower ABT263 concentration is observed. Therefore less
417 data points are plotted compared to other three investigated systems. We could show that the
418 native MS approach is suitable to directly monitor not only PPI inhibition, but also the relative
419 binding strengths and the nature of binding.

420 421 **Conclusions**

422
423 In this study we investigated the inhibition of protein-protein interactions using nanoESI-MS. As
424 a first system we investigated the dissociation of the trimeric TNF-alpha in the presence of the
425 inhibitor SPD304. Ion mobility experiments were performed as well. The inhibitor promotes
426 subunit disassembly of the trimeric form into monomers and dimers. Only one molecule inhibitor
427 binds to the trimeric TNF-alpha. The SPD304-promoted dissociation into dimers ions must have
428 been present in the sample prior to IMS-MS analysis, since the dimeric ions have their own
429 characteristic drift time distributions, which are different from those of dimer ions originating in
430 the gas phase due to CID.

431 As a second system we investigated the inhibition of the heterodimer formation of the survival
432 protein Bcl-x_L and death-promoting regions of proteins Bak and Bad. Recently developed small-
433 molecule inhibitors for the above-mentioned interaction, ABT737 and ABT263, were used to
434 detect the disruption of the heterodimers. In the first step we determined the dissociation
435 constants of the Bcl-x_L in complex with Bak or Bad derived peptide domain applying titration
436 method. The ratio of the protein-peptide wherein the complex peak was generated was used for
437 further experiments with small inhibitors. We found that ABT737 is more active inhibitor
438 compared to ABT263 in disrupting the heterodimerization between Bcl-x_L and Bak and also Bad
439 derived BH3 peptide. The small disruptor ABT737 as well as ABT263 is able to displace the Bak
440 and Bad derived peptide from the BH3 mainly hydrophobic pocket of the Bcl-x_L. This
441 observation indicates a competitive mode of binding.

442 The nanoESI-based results for both investigated systems are in agreement with our biophysical
443 methods in terms and can therefore be used as a suitable/appropriate technique for studying PPI
444 inhibition. Due to the advantages of the nanoESI approach in terms of speed, absence of label and
445 sensitivity, we believe that can be widely used for better understanding and development of small
446 inhibitors of PPIs. This method allows the monitoring of ligation states, provide information of
447 mechanisms, on stoichiometry and relative binding potency.

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460 **References**

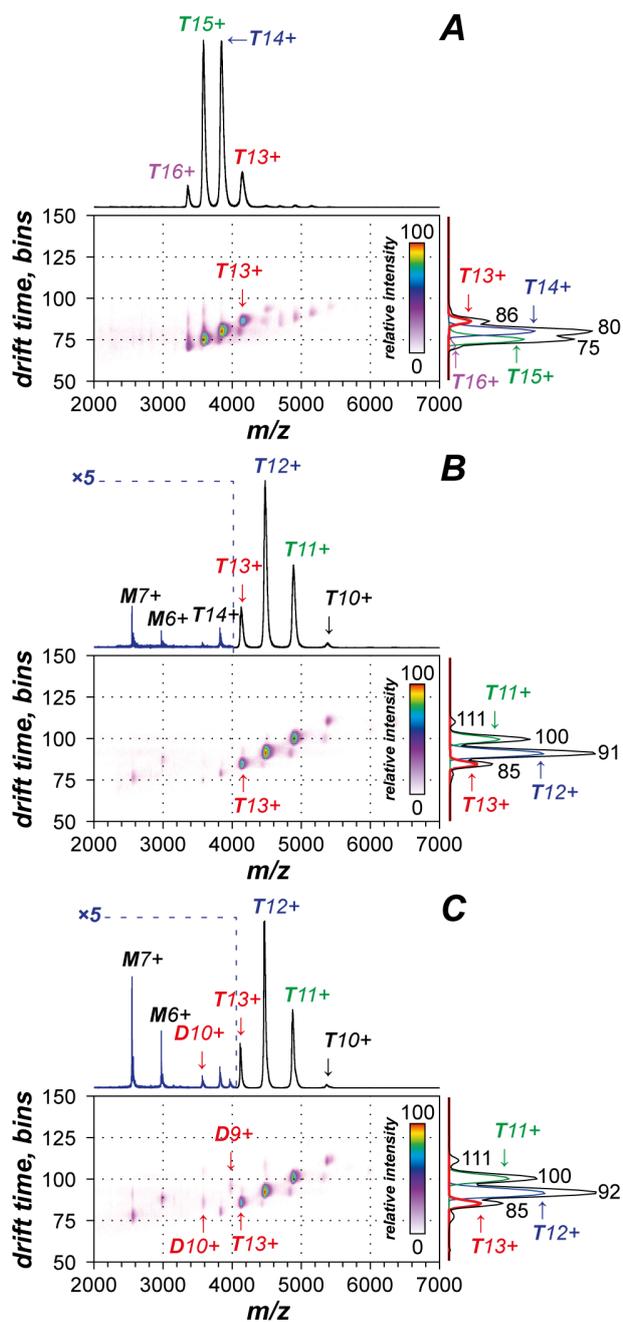
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553 **Tables and Figures**

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556 **Figure 1.** IMS-MS analysis of TNF-alpha under native ESI-MS conditions. Shown are 2D IMS
 557 drift time vs. m/z plots with corresponding mass spectra (top traces) and drift time distributions
 558 (traces on the right). Peaks corresponding to monomeric, dimeric, and trimeric TNF-alpha ions
 559 are labelled as *M*, *D*, and *T*, respectively, and their charge states are indicated. Peak maxima in
 560 the drift time distributions are labelled with the respective bin numbers. Along with the integral
 561 drift time distributions (black traces), some selected-ion drift time distributions are shown in

562 color. Peak labels are color-coded accordingly. **A.** 4.5 μM TNF-alpha solution in 75 mM
563 ammonium acetate buffer pH 7.7. **B.** Same as in **A**, but in the presence of 1 % (vol.) DMSO: note
564 the overall charge state reduction and the appearance of a small amount of monomers **C.** Same as
565 in **A**, but in the presence of 1 % (vol.) DMSO and 100 μM SPD304: note the appearance of dimer
566 ions and the increase of monomer peak intensities. Parts of the mass spectra in **B** and **C** are
567 shown at 5-fold magnification.

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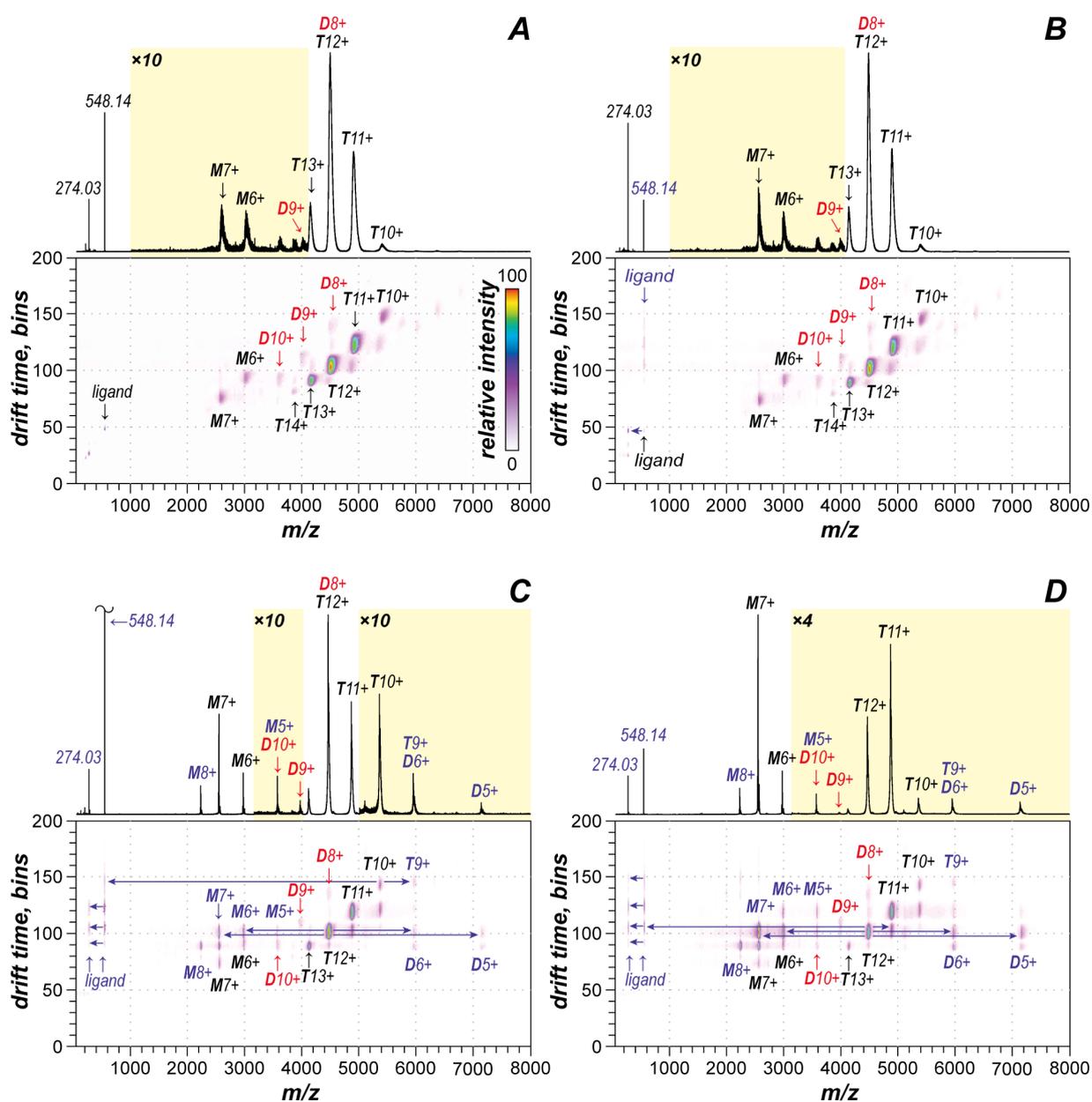
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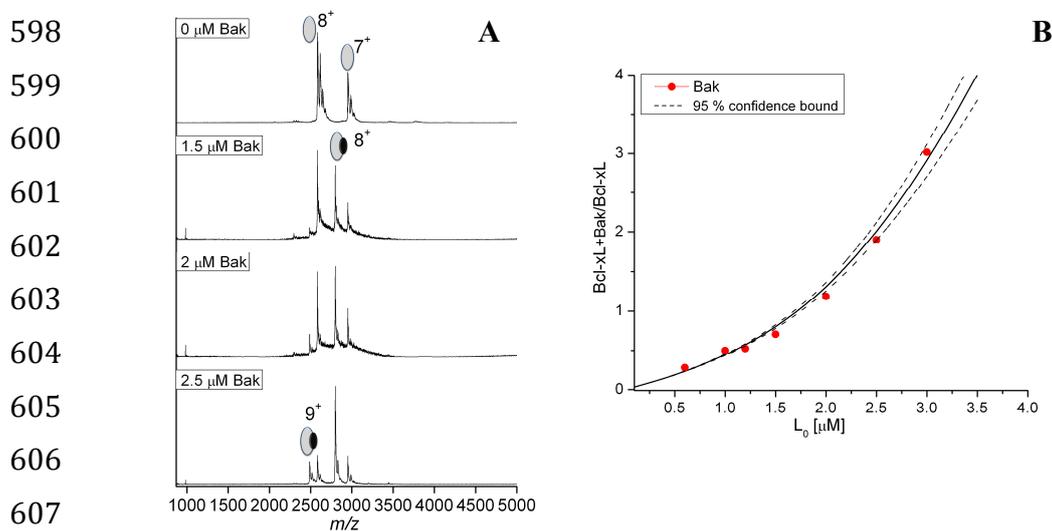
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 580 **Figure 2.** IMS-MS analysis of TNF- α ions produced under “native ESI” conditions from
 581 4.5 μM protein solution in 75 mM ammonium acetate buffer (pH 7.7) containing 1% (vol.)
 582 DMSO and 100 μM SPD304 (marked as ligand). The samples were analyzed at various transfer
 583 collision energy offsets: 5 V (A), 30 V (B), 90 V (C), and 130 V (D). Peaks corresponding to
 584 monomeric, dimeric, and trimeric TNF- α ions are marked as M, D, and T, respectively, and
 585 their charge states are assigned. Note the presence of TNF- α dimer ions D8+, D9+, and D10+
 586 (marked in red) even at low transfer collision energy offsets (A, B). At high collision energy
 587 offsets (C, D), collision-induced dissociation (CID) of TNF- α ions occurred in the transfer

588 region of the mass spectrometer, after IMS separation (fragments marked with blue text). Thus,
589 fragment ions have the same drift time, as the respective parent ions (some dissociation channels
590 are indicated with blue arrows). Note that D8⁺, D9⁺, and D10⁺ ions have their own characteristic
591 drift time distributions, which are different from those of the dimer ions originating in the gas
592 phase due to CID. Therefore, D8⁺, D9⁺, and D10⁺ ions must have been present in the sample
593 prior to IMS-MS analysis, i.e. they occurred due to SPD304-promoted dissociation of TNF-alpha
594 trimers in solution.

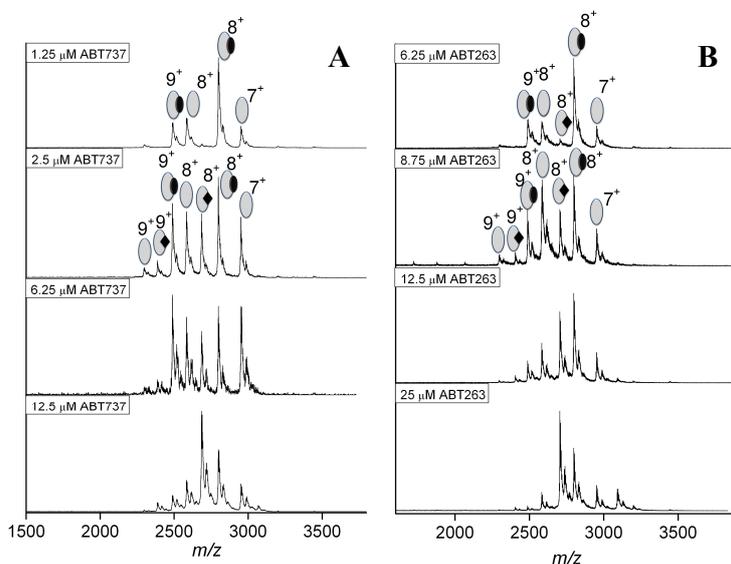
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609 **Figure 3. A.** Representative nanoESI mass spectra of 3 μM Bcl-x_L in complex with Bak (filled
610 circle) obtained in positive ion mode under “native” conditions. In the first spectrum adduct
611 formation due to the small residue of HEPES buffer is detected. Titration experiments are shown
612 adding different Bak concentration to the Bcl-x_L. The signal for the noncovalent complex clearly
613 increases with increasing Bak concentration present in solution. **B.** NanoESI-MS titration curves
614 for Bcl-x_L•Bak complex. The Bak concentration ranges from 0.5 to 3 μM, while the protein
615 concentration was kept constant.

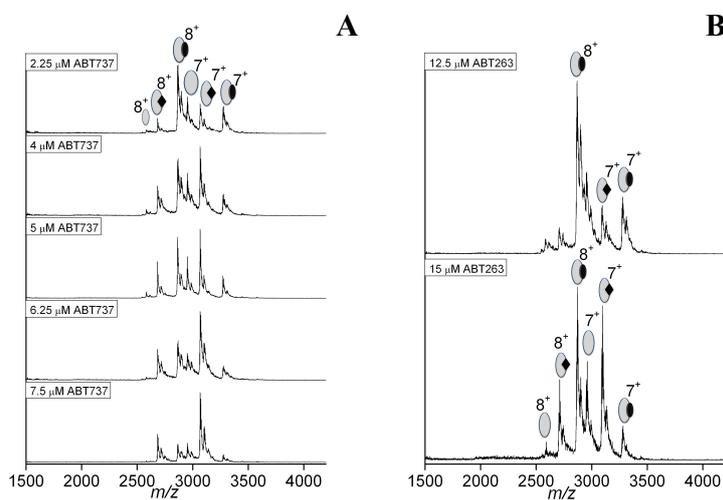
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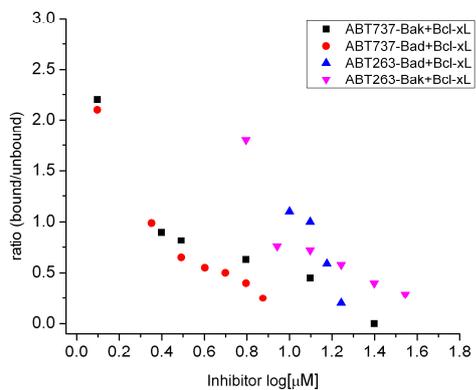


632 **Figure 4.** NanoESI mass spectra of 3 μM Bcl-x_L in complex with 3 μM Bak (filled circle) in the
633 presence of different concentrations of small disruptor (filled rhombus) **A.** ABT737 and **B.**
634 ABT263. The heterodimer signal clearly decreases with increasing inhibitor concentration
635 present in solution.

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649 **Figure 5.** NanoESI mass spectra of 3 μM Bcl-x_L in complex with 20 μM Bad (filled circle) in the
650 presence of different concentration of small disruptor (filled rhombus) **A.** ABT737 and **B.**
651 ABT263



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653 **Figure 6.** Plotted ratios (bound heterodimers/ unbound bare Bcl-x_L and Bcl-x_L-ABT737
654 complex) against the different inhibitor concentration in order to dissociate the heterodimer

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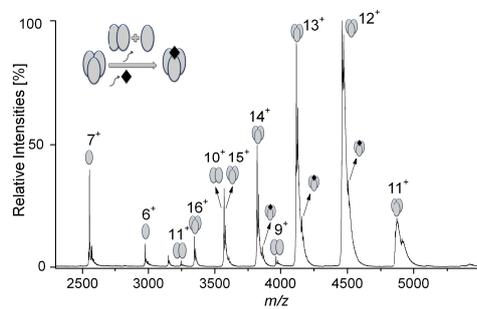
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676 **TOC**

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679 We investigated the inhibition of the protein-protein interactions by nanoESI-MS to
680 monitor the extent of inhibition and binding mechanism.